

Exercise sustains the hallmarks of health

Yan Qiu, Benjamin Fernández-García, H. Immo Lehmann, Guoping Li, Guido Kroemer, Carlos López-Otín, Junjie Xiao

▶ To cite this version:

Yan Qiu, Benjamin Fernández-García, H. Immo Lehmann, Guoping Li, Guido Kroemer, et al.. Exercise sustains the hallmarks of health. Journal of Sport and Health Science, 2022, 12 (1), pp.8 - 35. 10.1016/j.jshs.2022.10.003. hal-04596365

HAL Id: hal-04596365

https://hal.science/hal-04596365

Submitted on 8 Jun 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Review

2

1

3 Exercise sustains the hallmarks of health

- 5 Yan Qiu^{a,b,†}, Benjamin Fernández-García^{c,d,†}, H. Immo Lehmann^e, Guoping Li^e, Guido
- 6 Kroemer^{f,g,h,*}, Carlos López-Otín^{i,j,*}, Junjie Xiao^{a,b,*}
- 7 aInstitute of Geriatrics (Shanghai University), Affiliated Nantong Hospital of Shanghai
- 8 University (The Sixth People's Hospital of Nantong), School of Medicine, Shanghai
- 9 University, Nantong 226011, China
- 10 bCardiac Regeneration and Ageing Lab, Institute of Cardiovascular Sciences, Shanghai
- 11 Engineering Research Center of Organ Repair, School of Life Science, Shanghai
- 12 University, Shanghai 200444, China
- dDepartment of Morphology and Cell Biology, Anatomy, University of Oviedo, Oviedo
- 15 33006, Spain
- 16 Cardiovascular Division of the Massachusetts General Hospital and Harvard Medical
- 17 School, Boston, MA 02114, USA
- 18 ^fCentre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Equipe labellisée par la Ligue contre le cancer,
- 19 Université de Paris Cité, Sorbonne Université, Inserm U1138, Institut Universitaire de
- 20 France, Paris 75231, France
- 21 gMetabolomics and Cell Biology Platforms, Institut Gustave Roussy, Villejuif 94805,
- 22 France.
- 23 hInstitut du Cancer Paris CARPEM, Department of Biology, Hôpital Européen Georges
- 24 Pompidou, AP-HP, Paris 75015, France
- 25 ⁱDepartamento de Bioquímica y Biología Molecular, Facultad de Medicina, Instituto

26 Universitario de Oncología, Universidad de Oviedo, Oviedo 33006, Spain 27 ^jCentro de Investigación Biomédica en Red Enfermedades Cáncer (CIBERONC), 28 Oviedo 33006, Spain 29 †These two authors contributed equally to this work. 30 *Correspondence authors Email addresses: Junjiexiao@shu.edu.cn (J. Xiao); kroemer@orange.fr (G. Kroemer); 31 32 clo@uniovi.es (C. López-Otín) 33 34 Received 17 May 2022; revised 10 August 2022; accepted 2 September 2022 35 36 **Highlights** 37 1. Regular exercise confers multiple health benefits and better survival 38 Regular moderate-intensity of exercise sustains the major hallmarks of health 39 The health benefits of exercise lies in the remarkable integrative adaptation of 40 multiple tissues and organs 41 4. Exercise appears as a protective strategy to maintain health in response to stress 42 Regular exercise is considered a non-pharmacological polypill for patients with 43 certain comorbidities. 44 45 46 Running title 47 Exercise sustains health 48 49

Abstract

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

Exercise has long been known for its active role in improving physical fitness and sustaining health. Regular moderate-intensity exercise improves all aspects of human health and is widely accepted as a preventative and therapeutic strategy for various diseases. It is well documented that exercise maintains and restores homeostasis at the organismal, tissue, cellular, and molecular levels to stimulate positive physiological adaptations that consequently protect against various pathological conditions. Here we mainly summarize how moderate-intensity exercise affects the major hallmarks of health, including the integrity of barriers, containment of local perturbations, recycling and turnover, integration of circuitries, rhythmic oscillations, homeostatic resilience, hormetic regulation, as well as repair and regeneration. Furthermore, we summarize the current understanding of the mechanisms responsible for beneficial adaptations in response to exercise. This review aimed at providing a comprehensive summary of the vital biological mechanisms through which moderate-intensity exercise maintains health and opens a window for its application in other health interventions. We hope that continuing investigation in this field will further increase our understanding of the processes involved in the positive roles of moderate-intensity exercise and thus get us closer to the identification of new therapeutics that improve quality of life.

68

69

- **Keywords:** Beneficial effects of exercise; Exercise-related physiological adaptations;
- 70 Hallmarks of health; Moderate-intensity exercise; Therapeutic exercise

71

72

73

1. Introduction

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

While modernization has contributed to increased population longevity, it has also witnessed a continuous rise in non-communicable diseases such as obesity, hypertension, type 2 diabetes, cancer, etc. Non-communicable diseases are now considered "the number one killer" globally, as they lead to more than 80% of deaths in certain countries. 1, 2 The prevalence of non-communicable diseases can be at least partly attributed to insufficient physical activity or exercise.³ According to data from the World Health Organization, in 2016, more than one-quarter of adults worldwide were physically inactive.⁴ The worldwide pandemic of physical inactivity should be a public health priority. It is well known that a healthy lifestyle is associated with a significantly lower risk of total mortality and a longer life expectancy.⁵ Together with a healthy and adequate dietary pattern, exercise represents a promising strategy for reducing the risk of chronic metabolic and inflammatory diseases, such as those related to obesity. In general, physical activity is defined as any movement requiring energy, such as walking, manual labor, or housework. By contrast, exercise refers to a routine of physical activity that is planned and structured with the aim of improving physical fitness.⁶ In this review, we use the term "regular exercise" to refer to regular moderateintensity exercise at a <70% maximal oxygen uptake (VO₂max). It has been strongly recommended that children and adults should limit the amount of sedentary time, which is associated with adverse health outcomes, including allcause mortality and the incidence of cardiovascular disease, cancer, and type 2 diabetes. Replacing sedentary behavior with physical activity of any intensity (including light intensity) is beneficial for health. For substantial health benefits, World Health Organization recommends adults should undertake at least 150-300 min of moderateintensity or 75-150 min of vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity throughout the

week, or an equivalent combination of moderate-intensity and vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity.⁷ Adults are recommended to increase moderate-intensity aerobic physical activity to more than 300 min, or perform more than 150 min of vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity throughout the week or an equivalent combination of moderate-intensity and vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity for additional health benefits. Adults are also recommended to do muscle-strengthening activities that involve all major muscle groups for 2 or more days a week at a moderate or greater intensity. Next to aerobic activities, adults aged 65 years and older are recommended to do multicomponent physical activity that includes functional balance and strength training at a moderate or higher intensity for at least 3 days a week.⁷ There is evidence showing that 30 metabolic equivalent task-h of pre-pregnancy is associated with a 12% reduction in the relative risk of gestational diabetes mellitus, and 7 h of physical activity per week before and during pregnancy is associated with a 30% reduction and 37% reduction of risk, respectively.8 Additionally, 500 metabolic equivalent task-min/week of aerobic physical activity, which is equivalent to 150 min of moderate-intensity or 75 min of vigorous-intensity physical activity weekly, led to a 14% risk reduction in all-cause mortality in patients with cardiovascular disease and a 7% risk reduction in healthy adults. And children and adolescents aged 5-17 years performed an average of 60 min of moderate-to-vigorous intensity physical activity per day, which was associated with multiple beneficial health outcomes including cardiorespiratory fitness, muscular fitness, bone health, and cardiometabolic health.¹⁰ A large body of studies supports the notion that regular exercise plays an important role in reducing the risk of cardiovascular disease^{11, 12} and improving the health outcomes of patients with multiple other pathologies, including obesity, type 2 diabetes, multiple sclerosis, stroke, age-related sarcopenia, and some types of cancer. 13-18 The

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

epidemiological studies report that a higher level of physical activity is associated with lower mortality risk in individuals with or without cardiovascular disease, yet the benefits of physical activity with respect to mortality appear to be greater in people with cardiovascular disease as compared to those without cardiovascular disease. 9 Moreover, regular physical activity or exercise is associated with a reduced risk of adverse health outcomes generally (e.g., disability levels, mortality) and with better survival. 19-21 Exercise could partially reverse chronic conditions and multimorbidity related to low physical activity and can be employed as a preventive approach to improve quality of life. 22, 23 Furthermore, greater amounts and higher intensities of physical activity, as well as distinct types of physical activity (e.g., aerobic, muscle and bone-strengthening activities), are associated with multiple beneficial health outcomes (e.g., cardiorespiratory fitness, muscular fitness, bone health, and cardiometabolic health) for children and adolescents aged 5-17 years.¹⁰ Regular moderate-intensity types of exercise, such as strength, endurance, balance, flexibility and coordination, benefit all aspects of human health and are widely accepted as a therapeutic and preventative strategy for various diseases, including cardiovascular diseases (e.g., cardiomyopathy, cardiac ischemia/reperfusion injury, heart failure), metabolic diseases (e.g., hyperlipidemia, metabolic syndrome, type 2 diabetes), neurological diseases (e.g., Parkinson's disease, multiple sclerosis), and pulmonary diseases, etc.^{24, 25} However, if physical exercise undercuts a minimum intensity level, no significant changes in body homeostasis are to be expected. In untrained individuals, sudden bouts of vigorous-intensity exercise can lead to adverse cardiovascular events and prolonged intense exercise may increase the incidence of infarction.²⁶ Therefore, the intensity and mode of exercise are of critical importance for producing positive effects on health.

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

The biology of exercise is complex and involves adaptive responses in multiple organ systems. Movement and physical activity is an evolutionary survival advantage that turns skeletal muscle into a systemic modulator to meet energy demand.²⁷ Exercise is a dynamic energy-demanding activity that not only involves the cardiovascular, respiratory, and musculoskeletal systems but also affects the immunological and endocrine systems. Despite broad investigation on the efficacy of exercise, the underlying mechanisms of its benefits remain elusive. Although quite a few papers have summarized the psychosocial and biological responses to exercise, most of them are focused on specific diseases or organ systems. To our knowledge, few studies report exercise-induced changes from the perspective of the overall "organization" of organisms as well as the underlying mechanisms. In a recent paper, two of the co-authors of this study proposed 8 hallmarks of health: integrity of barriers, containment of local perturbations, recycling and turnover, integration of circuitries, rhythmic oscillations, homeostatic resilience, hormetic regulation, as well as repair and regeneration.²⁸ Although more investigations are needed, a wealth of evidence indicates that exercise can affect most of these hallmarks (Fig. 1). This review aims to provide a comprehensive summary of the vital biological changes through which exercise produces beneficial effects on health. In addition, this review summarizes the mechanisms through which exercise interventions are effective in preventing diseases, specifically age-related diseases (Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease), type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases (cardiomyopathy, cardiac ischemia/reperfusion injury, and heart failure), and certain cancers (breast and colorectal cancer). For better reading comprehension, we have included Supplementary Table 1, which details exercise protocols in animal studies, Table 1, which details exercise protocols in human studies, and Table 2, which summarizes the

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

evidence based on randomized control trials cited in this review.

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

175

2. Exercise protects the integrity of barriers

- Human health is linked to the integrity of barriers at the level of organelles (mitochondria and nuclei), cell membranes, internal barriers (blood-brain), and barriers against the external (intestinal, respiratory, and cutaneous) environment. Exercise confers health benefits partly by regulating the integrity of these barriers, as explained below (Fig. 2).
- 183 2.1. Exercise maintains mitochondrial integrity
 - Mitochondrial health is of vital importance for cellular function in various tissues, and, as a result, contributes to overall vitality in health and disease. Mitochondria generate cellular ATP and, thus, are key actors in whole-body energy regulation. During exercise, there is a greater demand for ATP, which is mediated by increasing mitochondrial biogenesis and enhancing mitochondrial function.²⁹ The effects of exercise on mitochondria have been intensively studied, with muscle mitochondria being the most well studied. Exercise training upregulates skeletal muscle sirtuins (SIRTs), which contribute to mitochondrial biogenesis and maintenance of the antioxidant system. Specifically, acute exercise (a single bout of exercise) activates SIRT1 in skeletal muscle, while several sessions of high-intensity interval training (HIIT) and aerobic or resistance exercise training activate SIRT1 and SIRT3.³⁰

Importantly, aerobic exercise causes significant changes in mitochondrial content and quality that are good for metabolic health.³¹ For example, the number of myonuclei is increased in rats in response to resistance training, and this increase can be retained for a long-term detraining period. When re-subjected to resistance training, the newly acquired myonuclei contribute to a greater degree of muscle hypertrophy and mitochondrial biogenesis. 32 Taken together, these results provide further support for the assertion that exposing young muscles to resistance exercise training may help to restore age-related muscle loss associated with mitochondrial dysfunction in later life.³² Mitochondria are also involved in calcium metabolism, contribute to the formation of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS), and play a leading role in the initiation of apoptosis; therefore, they are essential to maintaining cellular homeostasis and act as important signaling organelles in different tissues. Exercise may decisively influence all these mitochondrial functions. The mitochondrial membranes compose the battleground on which opposing signals fight to determine the cell's fate. The unique lipid composition and structure of mitochondrial membranes are critical for the proper functioning of mitochondria. Quality control of mitochondrial protein synthesis plays an important role in maintaining mitochondrial integrity.³³ In particular, mitochondrial membrane permeabilization, a tightly regulated process, has been described as an essential feature of cell death.³⁴ Acute exercise, as an allostatic stimulus, causes a temporary alteration of the interaction between mitochondria and other organelles such as the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), due to the upregulation of regulated in development and DNA damage $1).^{35}$ The beneficial effects of exercise on health are at least partly due to the improvement of mitochondrial membrane structure and, thus, mitochondrial function. It is reported that endurance-trained athletes (e.g., cross-country and soccer players) show a higher density of mitochondrial cristae, which is related to oxygen consumption and oxidative capacity.³⁶ Both 17-week voluntary wheel running exercise and 8-week endurance training (treadmill running) confer protection against non-alcoholic steatohepatitisinduced alterations in rat mitochondrial membrane composition, as revealed by the

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

increased ratio of phosphatidylcholine to phosphatidylethanolamine, ³⁷ because the ratio is a key regulator of membrane integrity.³⁸ More recent studies indicate that 8-week endurance training could inhibit non-alcoholic steatohepatitis-induced mitochondrial permeability transition pore opening, indicating decreased mitochondrial membrane permeability.³⁹ Seven days of treadmill exercise can prevent mitochondrial outer membrane permeabilization in the rat model of cerebral ischemic injury by increasing caveolin-1 expression, thus inhibiting of excessive cytochrome C release from mitochondria, 40 reducing mitochondrial damage and protecting mitochondrial integrity. In addition, 12 weeks of moderate-intensity treadmill exercise exerts cardioprotection in diabetic mice by down-regulating mammalian sterile 20-like kinase 1, which enhances mitochondrial membrane potential.⁴¹ 2.2. Exercise and the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) The SR is a structure involved in Ca²⁺ mobilization for muscle contraction. Disruption of the SR is implicated in muscular dystrophy, cardiomyopathy, sarcopenia due to aging, and neurodegenerative diseases.⁴² Exercise decreases lipid peroxidation and calpain activity in the SR, thereby preventing heat stress.⁴³ 2.3. Exercise and nuclear envelope (NE) integrity The double membrane structure of the NE serves as a barrier that separates the genome from the cytoplasm in eukaryotic cells. Disruption of the NE and exposure of chromatin endanger cell viability and induce genome instability. Thus, the integrity of NE is critical for cell survival. The NE homeostasis is maintained through a balance between the various forces imposed upon the nuclei, which can be disrupted under certain conditions (e.g., alterations in the expression of lamins, migration and invasion,

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

micronuclei, telomere fusion, heterochromatin modulation, virus infection, the loss of

ATR, retinoblastoma protein or P53) resulting in transient NE collapse.⁴⁴

Few studies have focused on the role of exercise on NE integrity. The NE provides a semi-permeable barrier, with its structural integrity being maintained partly by the intermediate filament proteins called lamins (A, B, and C), which are encoded by the *LMNA* gene. Six weeks of moderate exercise attenuates dilated cardiomyopathy development in heterozygous *LMNA* knockout (*LMNA*^{+/-}) mice whose cardiomyocytes show altered nuclear shape. The selectivity of the transit channel is controlled by the proteins of the nuclear pore complex. It has been reported that 4 months of running wheel exercise is capable of preventing the decline of Lamin B1 and nuclear pore complex protein in older sedentary mice 46, indicating that exercise can sustain the integrity of the NE.

2.4. Exercise and plasma membrane (PM) integrity

PM integrity is essential for cellular function and survival. Besides serving as a physical barrier between the extra- and intra-cellular environment, the PM bridges intracellular signaling and extracellular signals (e.g., ions, hormones, cytokines, enzymes), thus allowing for cellular communication with the surrounding environment. Rupture of the PM can have deleterious consequences on a cell's fate. Cells are equipped with repair mechanisms to ensure membrane integrity, including membrane fusion and replacement strategies, means for removal of the damaged membrane, and protein-driven membrane remodeling and wound closure methods.⁴⁷ Exercise can induce changes in the lipid composition of membranes that affect fluidity and cellular function.⁴⁸ For example, a 2-week course of treadmill exercise (13.5 m/min, 10% grade, 50 min/day) administered to high-fat diet (HFD)-fed mice prevents cholesterol accumulation in the PM of skeletal muscle cells.⁴⁹ The excess of PM cholesterol may contribute to insulin resistance in the skeletal muscle of mice who are fed an HFD.⁵⁰ Moreover, acute endurance exercise (120 min) is capable of increasing the expression

275 of fatty acid translocase/CD36 and PM fatty acid-binding protein in human and rat 276 muscle, indicating increased fatty acid transport in exercised muscle.⁵¹

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

2.5. Exercise supports the integrity of the blood-brain barrier (BBB) The BBB is an active interface that separates the systemic circulation from the central nervous system with a dual function: the barrier limits the entry of blood-derived potentially toxic or harmful substances into the brain, and the carrier function is responsible for the transport of molecules and cells into and out of the central nervous system as well as for the removal of metabolites. Every cell type (e.g., endothelial cells, astrocytes, pericytes) and extracellular matrix makes an indispensable contribution to the BBB's integrity.⁵² Specifically, pathways like Wnt/β-catenin, sonic hedgehog, retinoic acid, angiopoietins, and others are involved in the regulation of barrier maintenance.⁵³ Exercise has been shown to maintain BBB selective permeability in health and disease.⁵⁴ For example, a previous study showed that both strength training and endurance training exercises could prevent BBB disruption in a mouse model of multiple sclerosis by increasing the expression of tight-junction proteins (occludins and claudin-4) and decreasing the expression of platelet and endothelial cell adhesion molecule 1.55 Moreover, exercise can protect against BBB disruption occurring in the context of substance use disorders.⁵⁶ Of note, in a clinical trial, a 14-week-long combined resistance and aerobic exercise training intervention is capable of maintaining BBB integrity and decreasing chronic inflammation in older women.⁵⁷

Mechanistically, regular exercise may diminish BBB permeability by enhancing antioxidative capacity, reducing oxidative stress, diminishing inflammation, enhancing neurotrophic factors such as brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and improving tight junction. 54, 55, 58 On the other hand, the BBB has a selective permeability in order to receive systemic signals. Acute exercise increases phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)p110α protein in the hypothalamus enhancing the regulation of food intake.⁵⁹

2.6. Exercise effects on intestinal barrier integrity

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

The intestine acts as a barrier to the external environment that defends against the invasion of pathogens and harmful food ingredients. The intestinal epithelial tight junction proteins (e.g., occluding, claudins, and zonula occludens) and gut microbiome play a pivotal role in the maintenance of barrier integrity. 60 Accumulating evidence suggests that exercise affects the integrity of the intestinal barrier. For instance, small intestinal permeability is increased in healthy individuals after 1 h of treadmill running at 80% VO₂max. 61 Moreover, a significant increase in intestinal permeability has been observed in participants immediately after completing a standard marathon (42.16 km).⁶² Gut barrier permeability was elevated in runners who completed two 1-h-long bouts of submaximal treadmill exercise (65% VO₂max, determined by a graded treadmill test⁶³) under normoxic and hypoxic conditions.⁶⁴ Similarly, endurance exercise (1100 miles in 10 days) is associated with increased intestinal permeability in racing dogs. 65 Another study reports that mice subjected to acute treadmill running at 80% VO₂max (determined by a progressive exercise test on a small rodent treadmill) until exhaustion (running for at least 30 min) exhibit increased permeability in the small intestinal.66 Intestinal barrier permeability is impaired under heat stress⁶⁷ and with strenuous exercise⁶⁸ due, in part, to visceral hypoperfusion during exercise. Of note, glutamine supplementation appears to attenuate intestinal permeability and maintain intestinal integrity in response to a 60-min treadmill run at 70% of VO₂max in an environmental

chamber set at 30 °C with 40-45% humidity.⁶⁹ It has also been shown that 5 weeks of

combined aerobic and resistance training counteracts HFD-induced rat microbial

dysbiosis, thus protecting intestinal barrier integrity.⁷⁰ Furthermore, 6 weeks of aerobic exercise (10 m/min for 30 min/day, 6 days/week) can protect against obstructive jaundice-induced intestinal mucosal barrier damage in mice.⁷¹ Mechanistically, exercise increases the level of endogenous H₂S and inhibits the high mobility group box 1-toll-like receptors 4-nuclear factor-kappa B pathway, thereby protecting the intestinal mucosal barrier.⁷¹ Also, 7 weeks of swimming exercise (1 or 1.5 h/day for 5 days/week) attenuates the effect of dextran sulfate sodium-induced rat intestinal aggression by improving crypt status through regulating inflammation, oxidative stress, and apoptosis.⁷² Moreover, training improves zonula occludens 1, occludin, claudin-2, and the intestinal peptide transporter-1 messenger RNA expression.⁶⁸ Thus, physical exercise has an ambiguous, context-dependent effect on intestinal barrier integrity. 2.7. The effects of exercise on the barrier integrity in the respiratory tract The respiratory system, roughly divided into the upper (nasal passages, pharynx, larynx) and the lower (trachea, bronchial tree, lungs) respiratory tract, provides a physical, secretory, and immunologic barrier to exclude harmful substances such as ozone, particulate matter, and pathogens, etc. 73 As a mucosal organ system directly contacts with the external environment, protection of the respiratory barrier is vital to human health. The mechanisms contributing to increased epithelial permeability involve internal (type 2 cytokines such as interleukin-4 (IL-4) and IL-13), external (environmental molecules such as allergens, pathogens, pollutants), genetic (e.g., protocadherin-1, cadherin-related family member 3, orosomucoid-like 3) and epigenetic (e.g., DNA methylation, histone deacetylases) factors.⁷⁴ Although exercise can trigger bronchial hyperresponsiveness in cold and dry environments, 75 it also has numerous health benefits, including its positive effects on individuals with chronic respiratory disease.⁷⁶ For example, 12 weeks of aerobic

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

exercise (30 min of treadmill running) combined with respiratory muscle stretching improves the functional exercise capacity and reduced dyspnea in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.⁷⁷ Even low levels of physical activity in older patients with cardiovascular disease are associated with decreased mortality and hospitalization from pneumonia.⁷⁸ Thus, exercise training has been recommended to support pulmonary rehabilitation in chronic disease management.⁷⁹

Exercise exerts beneficial effects on cardiovascular and respiratory diseases partly via endothelial protection, ^{80, 81} and also by decreasing the Th2 inflammatory response of the airways. ⁸² During exercise, fitness level could modulate the concentration and secretion of salivary antimicrobial proteins, which function as the first line of defense against invading microorganisms. ⁸³ However, the effects of exercise on the integrity of the respiratory tract, including epithelial and endothelial barriers, has not been investigated in detail. In fact, it is well known that athletes have an increased risk of developing upper respiratory tract infections. ⁸⁴ It seems that prolonged intensive exercise compromises the barrier function of respiratory epithelium, ⁸⁵ and increases the incidence of upper respiratory tract infections. ^{86, 87} However, this topic remains the subject of debate. ⁸⁸ Otherwise, compared to continuous exercise, the matched-intensity and volume intermittent exercise leads to lesser respiratory epithelial cell damage, ⁸⁹ indicating that intermittent exercise may benefit respiratory tract health.

2.8. Exercise and the skin integrity

Skin is the body's primary defense structure and is composed of the epidermis and the dermis. In general, the epidermis consists of epithelial cells that are responsible for the skin barrier and thus protect from the harmful effects of the external environment. While the dermis contains the extracellular matrix that includes collagen, elastin, and glycosaminoglycans. 90 Skin integrity is restored by a complex multi-step process that

includes blood clot formation, inflammation, re-epithelialization, granulation tissue formation, neovascularization and remodeling. Skin repair requires the activation of a variety of modulators, such as growth factors, cytokines, matrix metalloproteinases, cellular receptors, and extracellular matrix components.⁹¹ Research evidence reveals that regular exercise confers advantageous effects on skin integrity. For example, a epidemiology study reports a clear correlation between skin integrity and exercise in older adults. Individuals that do not practice regular exercise have a higher risk of damage to skin integrity (27.02%) compared to those who exercise regularly (8.77%).⁹² Moreover, endurance running exercise (15 m/min for 45 min, 3 times/week for 5 months) prevents the age-associated thinning of the dermis in mitochondrial DNA mutator mice (PolG; PolgAD257A/D257A), a model of progeroid aging.93 In obese mice, 8 weeks of voluntary exercise improves the dermal collagen density and decreases the amount of subcutaneous tissue and adipocyte size.94 A later study demonstrates that endurance exercise protects against age-associated structural deterioration of skin that compromises its barrier function in both humans and mice, and it identifies exerciseinduced IL-15 as a novel mediator of skin health. 95 Functional studies indicate that daily IL-15 administration mimics part of the anti-aging effects of exercise on the skin in mice.95

3. Exercise benefits the maintenance of local homeostasis

- While a single bout of exercise may cause local perturbation, long-term moderateintensity exercise generally contributes to the maintenance of systemic homeostasis and the improvement of health (**Fig. 3**).
- 397 *3.1. Exercise promotes barrier healing*

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

398 Skin wound healing is a major health concern. Exercise is a relatively cheap and effective strategy that could be adopted clinically to prevent or treat damage to the

skin. ^{96, 97} Moderate-intensity aerobic exercises have been shown to promote skin wound healing in both humans and mice. ^{98, 99} In addition, 4 weeks of voluntary wheel exercise decreases skin graft rejection and increases graft survival through CD4⁺ T cell proliferation and interferon-γ production. ¹⁰⁰ A recent study reports that exercise-associated microRNA-122-5p (miR-122-5p) is capable of promoting wound healing via increasing capillary density in perilesional skin tissues of mice. ¹⁰¹ However, the molecular and cellular mechanisms through which exercise stimulates healing require further investigation.

Of note, the intensity of exercise could influence the healing process. For example, in a mouse study, compared to high (80% VO₂max) and strenuous intensity (90% VO₂max), moderate-intensity physical training (70% VO₂max) is particularly efficient in improving wound healing.¹⁰² Moreover, in diabetic mice, low-intensity treadmill exercise (12 m/min for 30 min, 5% incline, 5 days/week for 3 weeks) benefits the wound healing process, while high-intensity treadmill exercise (18 m/min for 30 min, 5% incline, 5 days/week for 3 weeks) does not.¹⁰³

3.2. Exercise prevents the invasion of foreign bodies

The invasion of foreign bodies (e.g., pathogens) represents a threat to health. Lifestyle intervention, including exercise, have been identified as an effective approach to controlling certain conditions associated with viral infection. The antiviral role of exercise has received great amount of attention. Several scientific findings indicate that exercise training contributes to the improvement of physiologic and functional parameters in patients with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) or acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). 104 Exercise could help to prevent viral infection and/or promote viral clearance. For example, regular physical activity is associated with decreased risk of infection. 105, 106 In mice, chronic exercises at moderate intensity may

have an attenuating effect on influenza infection by decreasing viral load and illness severity.¹⁰⁷ Indeed, exercise is considered to be supportive of the medical care and treatment of HIV-infected patients.¹⁰⁸

A large body of investigations has highlighted the indispensable role of the immune system in combating viral infection. Exercise is well-known to have a major effect on the functioning of the immune system. In particular, regular moderate exercise is considered to be a safe and cost-effective strategy to enhance the immune system and provide protection against pathogenic viral infection. ^{108, 109} Recent studies reveal that a regular program of aerobic exercise with an intensity of 55-80% VO₂max is associated with increased immunological biomarkers such as circulating leukocytes, lymphocytes, monocytes, and neutrophils, and thus helps reduce the risk of coronavirus disease 2019. ^{110, 111} Aerobic exercise affects several molecules in various tissues that are involved in severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 virus entry angiotensin-converting enzyme 2, FURIN, and transmembrane protease serine 2. However, the overall effect on the disease is not yet known. ¹¹²

3.3. Exercise improves systemic inflammation

Exercise training exerts anti-inflammatory effects on the periphery and the brain. 113 For example, in mice, moderate voluntary wheel running (30 days of access to wheels) attenuates colitis symptoms and reduces inflammation in response to oral administration of dextran sodium sulfate. 114 In addition, regular training in mice attenuates sepsis-induced lung damage; the effect is mediated by a reduced inflammatory response, modulated by decreased IL-1 β and increased IL-10. 115

Moreover, the percentage of inflammatory CD14⁺CD16⁺ monocytes is reduced in older adults (65-80 years old) after completing a 12-week-long (3 days/week) combined endurance (20 min at 70-80% heart-rate reserve) and resistance exercise (8 sets of

exercises, 2 sets at 70-80% of one-repetition maximum),¹¹⁶ suggesting reduced systemic inflammation in exercised older individuals. Similarly, studies focusing on healthy adults who are aged 40 years or older show that more frequent physical activity is associated with lower systemic cellular and molecular inflammation, as evidenced by a lower level of white blood cell counts and neutrophil counts, as well as lower levels of C-reactive protein, IL-6, IL-10, IL-1 receptor antagonist, and soluble tumor necrosis factor receptor-I.^{117, 118}

Furthermore, mice subjected to regular voluntary running show decreased hematopoietic activity and reduced circulating leukocyte numbers compared to sedentary mice, indicating that regular physical activity confers health benefits partially via decreased systemic inflammation. Mechanistic studies indicate that voluntary running exercise regulates hematopoietic activity via lowering leptin production in adipose tissue, augmenting hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell quiescence via modulation of their niche, and reducing the hematopoietic output of inflammatory leukocytes. 119

3.4. Exercise and the innate and acquired immune responses

Proper immune function is fundamental for maintaining health in most chronic conditions. In recent years, the role of exercise training in regulating the immune system has received considerable attention. ^{120, 121} Most of the current published literature suggests that regular moderate exercise exerts a positive effect on the immune system, thus reducing the incidence of disease. ¹²² Exercise modulates both innate and adaptive immune responses, particularly upregulating the activity of natural killer (NK) cells at rest, ¹²³ but also neutrophils, and macrophages following moderate exercise (about 60% of VO₂max). ^{120, 121, 124} In addition, in healthy individuals, regular exercise is associated with decreased tumor necrosis factor-α expression levels, reduced pro-

inflammatory adipokine levels, downregulated Toll-like receptor levels on monocytes and macrophages, and increased circulating levels of anti-inflammatory cytokines. ¹²⁵ Moreover, in healthy young men, 1-h of cycling at 70% of VO₂max is sufficient to induce the number of circulating peripheral blood mononuclear cells, ¹²⁶ which are composed of monocytes and lymphocytes and have a critical role in immune function. ¹²⁷⁻¹²⁹

Of note, moderate-to-vigorous intensity endurance exercise bouts may also exert positive immunological effects. 88 For example, master athletes with lifelong regular exercise exhibit signs of anti-inflammatory regulation, as revealed by higher plasma IL-10 levels compared to the age-matched untrained control group. 130 Further investigation demonstrates that the circulating IL-10 levels in lifelong trained athletes are similar to those in young adults. 131 Moreover, clinical trials show that regular moderate exercise (60-70% of VO₂max) significantly improves the immune response to vaccination in adults over age 65, 132, 133 indicating an improved adaptive immune function in older adults.

3.5. Exercise benefits the anti-cancer immunosurveillance

It is well-accepted that the immune system has the ability to suppress certain types of cancer, and immunotherapy is recognized as a promising strategy in the treatment of cancer. A sedentary lifestyle has recently emerged as a potential independent risk factor for cancer. Conversely, exercise is associated with a reduced risk of certain cancers, including colon cancer, endometrial cancer, breast cancer, etc.¹³⁴ Moreover, the Mendelian randomization analysis also found that genetically elevated physical activity levels were associated with lower risks of breast and colorectal cancer, ^{135, 136} highlighting the promotion of physical activity as a critical intervention to reduce the incidence and prevalence of these cancers. Mechanistically, exercise reduces tumor size

voluntary exercise (wheel running) shows a more than 60% decrease in tumor volume across different tumor models, an effect that has been attributed to the exerciseassociated mobilization of NK cells, which is necessary and sufficient for this antitumor effect. 137 Moreover, evidence indicates acute exercise could induce a preferential redeployment of NK cell subsets with a highly-differentiated phenotype and confer protection against tumor cells. 138 Thus, exercise could play a role in the prevention and treatment of cancer. 3.6. The protective role of exercise on cellular senescence and its clearance Cellular senescence has been linked to multiple aging-related illnesses and risk factors. Many stimuli, such as telomere erosion, oxidants, ultraviolet B light, and DNA damaging chemotherapies that engage the DNA damage response, can induce cellular senescence. 139 Long-term endurance training upregulates telomerase activity and telomere-stabilizing proteins and decreases the levels of apoptosis modulators (including cell cycle checkpoint kinase 2, $p16^{INK4a}$, and p53), pointing to the protective role of exercise has on cellular senescence. 140, 141 One biomarker and effector of senescence is p16^{INK4a}. The expression of p16^{INK4a} in peripheral blood T lymphocytes increases with age. 142 The level of p16^{INK4a} is positively associated with circulating IL-6 concentrations, which is a marker of cellular senescence. One recent study reports the 4-week treadmill exercise has a significant effect on attenuating senescence in white adipose tissue, as indicated by decreased p16 level. In old mice, exercise induces changes in the immune-cell distribution (e.g., NK cells, CD8+ T cells, eosinophils, neutrophils), which may contribute to the antisenescence effect of exercise. 143 Since p16^{INK4a} expression is strongly correlated with

partly via enhancing immune function. For example, tumor-bearing mice subjected to

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

reduced exercise, 142 this is further evidence that exercise may prevent cellular

senescence by downregulating p16^{INK4a} expression. In the aging rat model, 12 weeks of swimming training significantly reduces the senescence markers (p53 and p21) and inflammatory cytokine (IL-6) in the liver.¹⁴⁴

However, in some settings, exercise elicits positive impacts on health via promoting senescence. As an example, the pro-senescent effect of exercise on fibro-adipogenic progenitors contributes to muscle regeneration and the improvement of muscle function.¹⁴⁵

4. Benefits of exercise in recycling and turnover

- The proper recycling and turnover of different components of the organism (e.g., cell, organelle, protein) enables healthy cell and organismal development. Each of the subcellular, cellular, and supracellular units composing the organism is replaced continually by newly synthesized ones to maintain cellular homeostasis. The health benefits of exercise may be partly due to its remarkable ability to induce cellular remodeling, including cell self-renewal and the turnover of dysfunctional organelles (Fig. 4).
- 540 4.1. The effects of exercise on cell death, removal, and replacement
 - It is reported that regular moderate exercise promotes cell survival and reduces cell death. Regular exercise is well-known to promote cardiomyocyte proliferation and growth while preventing cardiomyocyte apoptosis. Mechanistically, the CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein β -CBP/p300-interacting transactivators with E (glutamic acid)/D (aspartic acid)-rich-carboxyl terminal domain (C/EBP β -CITED4) signaling and the insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1) signaling are well-established as essential regulating pathways that mediate exercise-related cardiomyocyte proliferation. Additionally, the C/EBP β and IGF1-PI3k/Akt pathways play vital roles in exercise-induced cardiomyocyte growth. Exercise also prevents cardiomyocyte death through

pathways for SIRT1 and peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptor coactivator (PGC1α) as well as for apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1/p38 signaling, etc. 146 Moreover, 21 days of voluntary wheel running exercise is capable of enhancing cardiac myocyte survival and preventing cell death in the heart through the regulation of telomerase reverse transcriptase, endothelial nitric oxide synthase and IGF1.¹⁴¹ Accordingly, treadmill exercise-induced myokine (Myonectin) inhibits hypoxiainduced cardiomyocyte apoptosis via activation of the cyclic adenosine monophosphate/Akt signaling pathway. 147 It has been reported that long-term exercisederived plasma exosomes are capable of attenuating hypoxia/reoxygen-induced cardiomyocyte apoptosis via exosomal miR-342-5p. 148 Mechanistically, miR-342-5p prevents cell apoptosis by targeting the mRNAs coding for caspase 9 and mitogenactivated protein kinase 9 (MAPK9, also known as JNK2), and it promotes cardiomyocyte survival by elevating Akt phosphorylation.¹⁴⁸ Furthermore, swimming exercise-induced long non-coding RNA (lncRNA), cardiac physiological hypertrophyassociated regulator (CPhar), reduces oxygen-glucose deprivation/reperfusion-induced apoptosis in cultured neonatal mouse cardiomyocytes. 149 Finally, in rats subjected to injury of the optic nerve, 4 weeks of treadmill running (5 days per week for 30 min each day at a moderate intensity of 9 m/min) significantly increases the survival rate of retinal ganglion cells, likely due to an increase in the local expression of BDNF. 150 4.2. Exercise and autophagy Virtually all eukaryotic cells depend on autophagy to maintain cellular homeostasis. Autophagy is a highly conservative recycling mechanism that is responsible for the turnover of cellular proteins and organelles. The mechanism that regulates autophagy is complex, and its upstream signaling pathway mainly includes mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR)-dependent and mTOR-independent signaling. 151, 152 Mitophagy, a

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

form of vital autophagic response for the turnover of dysfunctional or aged mitochondria, serves to maintain mitochondrial quality control. The regulatory mechanisms of mitophagy mainly involve putative kinase 1-Parkin pathway and receptor-mediated mitophagy. 153 In mammals, 2 major types of receptors have been implicated in mitophagy. One group includes BCL2 interacting protein 3 (BNIP3) and NIP3-like protein X (NIX), and the other group contains FYN14 domain-containing protein 1 (FUNDC1).¹⁵⁴ The regulation of autophagy during exercise training is a dynamic and complex process. 155 On the one hand, exercise promotes the level of basal autophagy and enhances cell viability. For instance, endurance exercise training (long-term voluntary running) stimulates autophagy in the skeletal muscle of mice. 156 This exercise-induced increase of basal autophagy is required for muscle adaptation and improvement of physical performance in endurance and resistance.^{157, 158} The common regulatory pathways underlying exercise-induced autophagy involve the activation of adenosinemonophosphate-activated protein kinase (AMPK)-unc-51-like kinase 1 signaling pathway, forkhead box O (FoxO), and PGC1α, etc.^{159, 160} On the other hand, exercise could play a role in adjusting the level of autophagy in disease states. For example, 8 weeks of treadmill exercise improves cardiac autophagic flux in a rat model of postmyocardial infarction (MI)-induced heart failure. 161 Importantly, exercise-induced autophagy seems to mediate many of its beneficial effects. 162 Thus, exercise-stimulated autophagy plays an important role in muscle glucose homeostasis. Mice with a BCL2 mutation (Thr69Ala, Ser70Ala and Ser84Ala) that prevents this exercise-induced increase in autophagy exhibit deficient exercise endurance and deficient glucose metabolism in muscle during acute exercise. Moreover,

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

in such B-cell lymphoma-2 (BCL2)-mutated mice, long-term exercise loses its capacity

to prevent type 2 diabetes induced by an HFD.¹⁶³ It has also been found that exercise stimulates autophagy in the brain.¹⁶⁴ As compared to wild-type mice, systemic autophagy-deficient (*Atg4b*-/-) mice exhibit reduced levels of resistance capacity after exercise training, and exercise-induced hippocampal adult neurogenesis is undetectable within them.¹⁵⁸ Altogether, these data highlight the essential role of autophagy in exercise-induced neurogenesis.

Nonetheless, it is worth noting that excessive exercise induces excessive autophagy. 165 Thus, the inhibition of autophagy reportedly alleviates heart injury induced by strenuous exercise. 165 Ultimately, exercise without overtraining helps to prevent the development and progression of Alzheimer's disease via improving mitochondrial fitness, which may be accomplished by mitigating mitochondrial dysfunction with SIRT1-FOXO1/3-putative kinase 1-Parkin-mediated mitophagy. 166,

5. The effects of exercise on the different circuitries

- The maintenance of whole-body health involves the successful crosstalk among multiple tissues and organs as well as the body-microbiota at the cellular and systemic levels. Exercise evokes the coordinated and integrated adaptation of different circuitries, including the intracellular circuitries, inside-outside communication, interorgan communication, and the dialog between microbiota and the organism (**Fig. 5**).
- 619 5.1.Intracellular circuitries

The health-promoting effects of exercise involve a wide range of metabolic changes, which are mediated by numerous molecules, such as metabolites, proteins, non-coding RNAs, extracellular vesicles, etc. Firstly, exercise modifies the energy sensor AMPK.¹⁶⁸ Moreover, ketone bodies are markedly elevated in response to exercise. In addition to serving as a bioenergetic fuel, ketone bodies function as signaling

metabolites and confer a variety of benefits for performance and recovery. 169 The transcription of genes is also influenced by exercise. For example, exercise can downregulate cardiac homeodomain interacting protein kinase 2, the suppression of which prevents the apoptosis of cardiomyocytes and protects against MI by reducing the activation of tumor protein P53. 170 Mice subjected to 3 weeks of swimming exercise exhibit elevated adenosine deaminases acting on RNA2, which is an enzyme that deaminates adenosine to inosine nucleotide in double-stranded RNA and functions as a protective factor in MI and doxorubicin-induced cardiac injury. 171 Swimming exercise also upregulates the levels of cardiac miR-486 and lncRNA-CPhar, both of which confer protection against cardiac ischemia/reperfusion injury in mice. 149, 172 Furthermore, exercise can induce cytokines that prevent myocardial fibrosis. 173 Interestingly, circulating miRNAs could be considered biomarkers of the response to exercise. 174, 175

Exercise-associated health benefits may involve epigenetic changes. For example, exercise directly modulates the epigenetics of cardiac and other tissues, thereby mitigating the risk of developing cardiac disease and conferring cardioprotective effects via exerkines.¹⁷⁶ Exercise also improves brain health by reducing DNA methylation in the mouse hippocampus.¹⁷⁷

5.2. Inside-outside communication

The endocrine system is strongly affected by exercise. For instance, the expression of fibroblast growth factor-21 (FGF21) increases in response to experimental acute exercise. FGF21 is an endocrine member of the FGF superfamily responsible for the modulation of energy homeostasis, glucose and lipid metabolism, and insulin sensitivity. In adipose tissue, exercise training downregulates lipid content and inflammation, promotes browning and thermogenesis, and modulates the production of

adipokines.¹⁸³⁻¹⁸⁵ Treadmill exercise reportedly protects mice from HFD-induced metabolic dysfunction, including hyperglycemia, hyperinsulinemia and hyperlipidemia, by enhancing FGF21 sensitivity in adipose tissue.^{186, 187}

In addition, the plasma levels of growth differentiation factor-15 increase immediately in runners following a marathon race. 188 It has also been induced in response to an experimental single bout of exercise 189 and a cycling race. 190 The exercise-induced levels of circulating growth differentiation factor-15 correlate with the duration of endurance exercise. 191

5.3. Functional units in organs

Exercise is a complex process that involves the coordinated and integrated adaptation of numerous cells, tissues, and organs. In response to chronic exercise training, organs such as the heart and skeletal muscle undergo physiological remodeling and may grow in size, which is called hypertrophy. The plasticity of the organ allows for adaptation to multiple cell types or functional units. For example, cardiac hypertrophy requires increased cardiomyocyte growth, cardiomyocyte fate reprogramming, enhanced angiogenesis and lymphangiogenesis, mitochondrial remodeling, enhanced endothelial function, and quiescent cardiac fibroblasts.¹⁴⁶

Exercise protects against pathogenic changes in organs or tissues. For example, a 9-week treadmill exercise program has been shown to reverse the diabetes-induced ultrastructure changes in the heart. Specifically, in diabetic rats, exercise inhibits the reduction of mitochondrial mass, decreases the percentage of dysfunctional mitochondrial, and prevents the increase of collagen fiber cross-sectional surface area in the heart. In aging rats, a 3-week treadmill exercise program increases angiogenesis, leading to improved brain function. High-intensity interval exercise (5 days a week for 7 weeks)-induced increase of vascularization is mediated via the lactate

675 receptor (hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1), which upregulates cerebral vascular 676 endothelial growth factor A (VEGFA).¹⁹⁴

5.4. Organs, tracts, and systemic circuitries

Exercise induces adaptive responses throughout the entire body. For example, exercise stimulates the upregulation of heat shock proteins (HSPs),¹⁹⁵ which are a widespread family of molecular chaperones that play a variety of vital roles in maintaining cellular functions via regulation of chaperone activity, protein folding, and remodeling processes.¹⁹⁶ Specifically, HSP72 is upregulated in the circulation system and multiple organs (including the liver, skeletal muscle, heart, brain, etc.) in response to various forms and types of exercise.¹⁹⁷ Overexpression of HSP72 (induced by heat shock therapy, transgenesis or specific drugs) protects against HFD-induced glucose intolerance and skeletal muscle insulin resistance.^{198, 199} Moreover, induction of HSP72 in mice increases mitochondrial mass and endurance running capacity.²⁰⁰ Therefore, the upregulation of HSP72 might account for at least some of the beneficial effects of exercise on diabetes, obesity and ischemic brain injury.^{201, 202} However, the precise role of exercise-induced HSP72 expression in treating metabolic diseases warrants further investigation.

Exercise induces numerous adaptive responses in tissues and organ systems as well as with respect to interorgan communication. Many of these adaptations are observed primarily in skeletal muscle, which plays a major role in modulating whole-body functional capacity and health outcomes. In response to exercise, skeletal muscle secrets myokines, extracellular vehicles, and metabolites that facilitate crosstalk with other tissues. This crosstalk is thought to benefit the function of multiple systems and organs, such as the brain, heart, adipose tissue, gut, immune system, etc. It is noteworthy that the adaptive responses are not limited to skeletal muscle. Exercise also

results in the secretion of adipokines (e.g., transforming growth factor β, leptin) and hepatokines as well as by-products of gut microbiota (e.g., short-chain fatty acids (SCFA)) that play key roles in interorgan communication and, thus, mediate many of the beneficial effects of exercise.²⁰³ Furthermore, exercise has been shown to modulate the composition of the gut microbiome, which may mediate improvements in both the gut and the brain. Exercise could also increase level of serotonin, which is a vital neurotransmitter and hormone and is involved in the regulation of intestinal secretion and motility.²⁰⁴ In addition, a recent study reported that the extracellular vehicles secreted by brown adipose tissue contribute to exercise-mediated cardioprotection by delivering the cardioprotective miRNAs into the heart.²⁰⁵

5.5. The meta-organism

It is well known that the gut microbiota plays an essential role in many aspects of human biology, affecting metabolism, endocrine, and immune functions. Dysbiosis of the gut microbiome is associated with multiple pathological states, including systemic inflammation, obesity, cancer, mental disorders, and others.²⁰⁶ Beyond its local effects on the barrier function of the intestinal mucosa, the gut microbiota provides several compounds and micronutrients that mediates long-range effects on the immune and neuroendocrine systems.^{207, 208}

Endurance and resistance exercise have been shown to have a differential effect on the gut microbiota of mice.²⁰⁹ Moreover, a number of studies have determined that exercise influences the gut by enhancing the number of beneficial microbial species, thereby enriching microbiota diversity and functional metabolism in both humans and mice.^{206, 210-212} Thus male elite professional rugby players have lower inflammatory and improved metabolic markers relative to healthy controls with a similar body mass index. As compared to controls, athletes carry a more diverse gut microbiota, and several taxa

are significantly higher.²¹³ In mice, antibiotic-mediated depletion of gut microbiota compromises exercise performance.²¹⁴ In addition, monocolonization of germ-free mice with *Bacteroides fragilis*, which is a health-associated gram-negative bacterium, increases endurance exercise time.²¹⁴

In sum, exercise-induced shifts in the microbial composition of the gut may contribute to the beneficial effects of physical activity on obesity, metabolic diseases, and neurological disorders.²¹⁵ Indeed, exercise-induced alteration of the gut microbiome may regulate brain function.²⁰⁴ For example, SCFA, as microbiota-derived products, favor microglia maturation and function in the brain. Supplementation of SCFA is capable of reversing microglial defects observed in mice with lacking a healthy gut microbiota.²¹⁶

6. The effects of exercise on rhythmic oscillations

- The circadian rhythms represent a number of daily oscillations in physiology and behavior that take place over a 24-h period and enable the body and brain to adapt to daily changes in the environment. Virtually all cells of the body express a molecular clock that requires extremely precise regulation. Exercise is a nonphotic cue capable of restoring the transiently disturbed clock.²¹⁷ Here we present examples of how exercise modulates the circadian rhythms.
- *6.1. Mechanics of the circadian clock*

The circadian rhythms are a common trait of practically all living organisms. Accumulating evidence reveals that disruption of mammalian circadian rhythms is deleterious to health. For instance, mice with muscle-specific deletion of *Bmal1*, which is the core clock gene, exhibit impaired insulin-stimulated glucose uptake and metabolism, indicating that disruption of the intrinsic muscle clock system leads to muscle insulin resistance.²¹⁸ In addition, night shift work-related disturbance of the

circadian clock is associated with a higher risk of type 2 diabetes in humans. 219, 220 750 751 Several reviews have highlighted the positive effects of exercise on circadian disturbances. 221-223 In particular, exercise acts as a strong zeitgeber (time cue) for the 752 skeletal muscle clock.²²⁴ We know that exercise is capable of readjusting the molecular 753 circadian clock and, thus, reducing the harmful effects of disrupted sleep patterns;^{221,} 754 ²²⁵ however, exercising at different times of the day can lead to markedly different 755 stimulation of signaling pathways and exercise performance. 226, 227 In a recent study, 756 757 mice exhibit better performance in the maximal running test during the early daytime, 758 and clear differences are observed in the muscle transcriptome, proteome, and 759 phosphoproteome patterns of mice subjected to day-time exercise as compared to those subjected to night-time exercise. ²²⁸ However, few studies have focused on how to apply 760 761 physical exercise to achieve the restoration of circadian rhythms or on the metabolic 762 consequences and associated health outcomes of exercising at different times of the day. 763 6.2. Exercise contributes to the maintenance of immune rhythmicity 764 The immune system exhibits rhythmicity, and the rhythmic expression of clock genes has been implicated in both innate and adaptive immune cells.^{229, 230} Moreover, the 765 impairment of clock gene signaling causes chronic inflammation or aggravates the 766 symptoms in older adults.²³¹ Evidence indicates that lifelong regular exercise (no less 767 768 than 20 years) decelerates the aging-related decline of immune system function and contributes to the maintenance of the circadian rhythm throughout life. 131, 232, 233 In 769 770 addition, clock gene expression patterns following acute exhaustive exercise are 771 different in lifelong athletes compared to those in the sedentary group. Specifically, the 772 acute bout of exercise modulates the clock machinery mainly in effector-memory CD4⁺ T cells.²³⁴ 773

7. Benefits of exercise in homeostatic resilience

Physiological homeostasis is a major requisite for the survival of any organisms. However, exposure to stressful life events is common. Hence, the maintenance of positive adaptation by individuals in the face of stress is important. Resistance to environmental risk experience or adaptation to stress/adversity is known as "resilience", and resilience can be regulated via neural, genetic, metabolic, immunological, and microbiome-based mechanisms. Exercise appears to be a protective strategy for improving homeostatic resilience and preserving human health and a good quality of life. Engaging in exercise that leads to improved cardiorespiratory fitness can reduce the risk of various diseases and these beneficial effects involve the widespread adaptations of multiple tissues (**Fig. 6**). Here we present examples of how exercise modulates homeostatic resilience.

7.1. Neural mechanisms

The brain is the key organ of stress response. Stress and stress hormones causes both adaptive and maladaptive effects on the brain throughout life. Moderate-intensity exercise improves brain function and helps to maintain brain health. Exercise elicits a wide range of biological changes in the nervous system. In addition to alleviating clinical symptoms, the advantageous effects of exercise include improved afferent signals, autonomic balance, mitochondrial function, increased neurogenesis, and synaptic plasticity, as well as improved metabolism and angiogenesis. 238-242

Adult hippocampal neurogenesis is a complex and highly dynamic process that can be regulated by exercise.²⁴³ Mice subjected to endurance training (voluntary wheel running and treadmill running) and resistance training (climb the ladder) are associated with a significantly increased rate of proliferation of neural progenitor cells, indicating enhanced neurogenesis.^{158, 244} Several receptor signaling cascades have been implicated in the exercise-modulated enhancement of adult hippocampal neurogenesis, including

neurotrophic factors, such as BDNF, and neurotransmitters.^{245, 246} In addition, dexamethasone-induced Ras-related protein 1 (Dexras1), a small GTPase, modulates exercise-induced neurogenesis in the adult hippocampus. Dexras1 deletion leads to a reduced proliferation of neural progenitors, suppressed pro-mitogenic pathways, and an increased number of mature newborn granule neurons in exercised mice. At the molecular level, the deletion of dexamethasone-induced Ras-related protein 1 abolishes exercise-triggered activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinase and cyclic adenosine monophosphate response element binding protein, and it prevents the increase of N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor subunit NR2A, *bdnf*, *vegf-a*, and tropomyosin receptor kinase B in the dentate gyrus.²⁴⁷

7.2. Genetic factors

Genetic factors have been found to influence an individual's level of resilience. Results from adult twin studies show that between 31% to 52% of observed individual differences in resilience to stressful life events can be explained by genetic factors.²⁴⁸⁻²⁵⁰ Research suggests that the BDNF and neurotrophic tyrosine kinase receptor type 2 gene polymorphisms are associated with stress tolerance.^{251, 252} In addition, the BDNF polymorphism appears to modulate exercise-induced cognitive benefits. For example, exercise-induced cognitive improvement has been observed to be more profound in terms of the mental status and word recall of individuals carrying the *BDNF* Val66Met variant than of individuals with the *BDNF* Val66Val genotype (wild type).²⁵³

Interestingly, genetic factors appear to influence exercise participation. For example, a study based on the exercise participation of 37,051 pairs of twins from 7 countries (Australia, Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and the United Kingdom) shows that the resemblance in exercise participation during leisure time of monozygotic (genetically identical) twins is higher than that for dizygotic twins, who

share about half of their segregating genes on average.²⁵⁴ Moreover, genetic factors may confound the observed association between low levels of physical activity and higher disease and mortality risk.²⁵⁵⁻²⁵⁷

In addition, several genetic polymorphisms related to elite athletes seem to be

associated with exercise performance. For example, elite-level athletes show higher frequency of the IGF1 promoter T allele polymorphism. Notably, the effect of these gene variations seems to be influenced by the types of exercise. The prevalence of carrying both IL-6 G174C and insulin-like growth factor-binding protein 3 (IGFBP3) A202C mutations is obviously higher among long-distance swimmers (major event: 400-1500 m) compared to long-distance runners (major event: 5000 m marathon), and among short-distance swimmers (major event: 50-100 m) compared to power athletes (major event 100-200 m sprinters and jumpers). The IGFBP3 A202C polymorphism may compensate for the potential genetically non-beneficial effect of the higher IL-6 G174C. In addition, the IGF1 C1245T (rs35767) single-nucleotide polymorphism with the minor T allele is significantly associated with higher circulating IGF1 concentrations. In summary, exercise-related genetic polymorphisms at least partly contribute to the maintenance of body health.

Of note, current Mendelian randomization studies have reported findings that conflict with those of traditional observational studies. For example, observational studies show that the level of physical activity is inversely correlated with the risk of several diseases, including type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease. However, the two-sample Mendelian randomization study reveals that physical (in)activity is unrelated to the risk of type-2 diabetes²⁶² and cardiovascular disease, including coronary artery disease, MI, and ischemic stroke.²⁶³ Thus, future work should pay more attention to the biological processes influenced by exercise as well as to the underlying

mechanisms, which may explain the confusing results.

7.3. Hormones and metabolism

850

851

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

863

864

865

866

867

868

869

870

871

872

873

874

Exercise is a powerful regulator of metabolism. Generally, aerobic and resistance exercise training is associated with improved metabolic health. Organs such as skeletal muscle, the liver, the brain, and adipose tissue are important metabolic communicators, and interorgan communication during exercise contributes to whole-body homeostasis.²⁶⁴ Exercise-induced increase of energy demand is associated with increased mobilization of substrates, including carbohydrate, fat, and glucose, during and after exercise.²⁶⁵ The utilization of extracellular substrates is partly mediated by rapid and coordinated changes in the endocrine system. The hormones associated with the endocrine system exhibit autocrine, paracrine, or endocrine actions on the tissues of the body that regulate a variety of processes such as growth and development, metabolism or immune responses.^{266, 267} Exercise causes strong effects on the release of these hormone-like substances and thus the processes these substances modulate.⁶ Two major hormones whose functions are influenced by exercise are insulin and thyroid hormone. Exercise increases insulin sensitivity through several molecular pathways, including upregulation of glucose transporter protein 4 in the cell membrane of insulindependent cells, improvement of β cell function, modulation of insulin receptor substrate 1 phosphorylation, induction of angiogenesis, reduction in adipokines, improvement of the redox state, and downregulation of ceramide plasma levels.²⁶⁸ Therefore, exercise has been recommended as the management strategy for patients diagnosed with type 2 diabetes. ²⁶⁹ Changes in thyroid hormone levels (e.g., T3, T4) are observed following exercise. However, it is hard to draw any conclusions concerning the effects of exercise on thyroid hormone.²⁷⁰ These controversial results could be due to the physical status of the subjects, the type, intensity, and duration of exercise, or the differences in age and gender among subjects. In general, the effects of exercise on the endocrine system are of a positive nature and help to improve functional aspects of tissue and organs, resulting in improved health. For instance, exercise prevents the loss of activity of the endocrine system with aging.²⁷¹

Metabolic adaptation is related to the specific type and mode of exercise. For example, regular endurance exercise enhances muscle capillarity, increases mitochondrial biogenesis, and promotes the fiber-type shift towards the type 1 phenotype, but it has no significant effect on the fiber cross-sectional area. On the contrary, strength training induces muscle hypertrophy, mainly due to the greater muscle fiber cross-sectional area. ²⁶⁵

7.4. Immune system

The immune system responds to any type of insult that challenges cellular homeostasis. While a single bout of exercise may represent a perturbation to homeostasis, long-term moderate-intensity exercise can benefit the immune system by enhancing immunosurveillance and immunocompetence. Regular exercise leads to an elevated anti-inflammatory capacity, which is a critical factor in maintaining health, particularly in the context of chronic diseases. For example, the number of inflammatory CD14+CD16+ monocytes decreases after 12 weeks of combined moderate-strength and endurance training, indicating a reduction of more proinflammatory monocyte subtypes. In addition, acute bouts of exercise also elicit beneficial effects on immunological health partly through transiently mobilizing immune cells to peripheral tissues to conduct immune surveillance.

Long-term exercise can prevent the age-associated degradation of immune system function (known as immunosenescence), which is characterized by considerable shifts in the balance of leukocyte subsets and a decline in various immune cell functions.²⁷⁵

As an example, long-term exercise from adulthood to old age (training time = 49 ± 8 years (mean \pm SD)) induces a healthy profile of inflammatory-related cytokines, as indicated by a decline in inflammatory biomarkers, including decreased levels of white blood cell counts, neutrophil counts, IL-6, IL-10, IL-1 receptor antagonist, and soluble tumor necrosis factor receptor-1. Additionally, participation in long-term (training time = 45.1 ± 11.0 years) easy- to moderate-intensity exercise is associated with a more differentiated adaptive immune response. Furthermore, athletes with lifelong aerobic training have a lower percentage of senescent T cells when compared to healthy controls, 232 suggesting that exercise has a beneficial effect on immune function.

7.5. Gut microbiota

The human gut microbiota contains numerous microorganisms essential to maintaining homeostasis and normal gut physiology. Gut microbiota composition is highly variable. Each individual is linked to a unique gut microbiota profile that plays an important role in their metabolism and in the maintenance of a healthy host microorganism. Sometimes, the gut microbiota composition may vary within a single individual²⁷⁶ because the gut's ecosystem development and stability can be affected by intrinsic and extrinsic factors, including exercise and diet, which in turn can influence health.²⁷⁷ Exercise-induced alterations in the diversity, composition, and functional profiles of the intestinal microbiome have been widely documented.^{278, 279} Moderate endurance

exercise has been shown to expand the number of beneficial microbial species, enrich microflora diversity, and promote the development of commensal bacteria. ^{215, 278} All these effects are beneficial for the host and contribute to the improvement of their health status. Indeed, elite athletes elicit uniquely beneficial and diverse gut microbiome characteristics, including a higher gut microbial diversity and a shift toward bacterial species associated with increased production of the SCFA implicated in the

maintenance of intestinal barrier integrity and regulation of host immune function.²⁸⁰ Furthermore, exercise-induced gut microbial changes confer protection against certain diseases. For example, treadmill running exercise ameliorates cardiac dysfunction in MI mice by altering the diversity and community structure of the gut microbiome. Mechanistically, exercise increases the metabolites, 3-hydroxyphenylacetic acid (3-HA) and 4-HA, which are thought to protect against cardiac dysfunction by activating nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2).²⁸¹ Interestingly, the composition of the gut microbiota can be differently modulated by distinct types and modes of exercise. For instance, 4 weeks of resistance and endurance exercise training leads to significant differences in the gut microbiota composition in mice.²⁰⁹ Accordingly, mice subjected to endurance training exhibit higher diversity and evenness of gut microbiota. Specifically, endurance training is associated with a greater relative abundance of Desulfovibrio and Desulfovibrio sp., whilst Clostridium and C.cocleatum are enriched in mice that undergo resistance training.²⁰⁹ 8. Benefits of exercise in hormetic regulation There is some evidence that mild stressors inducing hormesis can contribute to the extension of lifespan and healthspan. ²⁸² A single bout of exercise represents a challenge to cellular homeostasis. However, regular exercise confers multiple health benefits and better survival (Fig. 7). Therefore, it is possible that the beneficial outcomes of exercise may be achieved partly by hormetic regulation (Fig. 6). 8.1. Exercise and mitohormesis Mitohormesis is characterized as hormesis in mitochondria and is associated with the adaptive response processes that maintain cellular homeostasis. In response to a disturbance, mitochondria can generate and transmit a signal to the nucleus that triggers

925

926

927

928

929

930

931

932

933

934

935

936

937

938

939

940

941

942

943

944

945

946

947

948

949

a transcriptional response leading to mitochondrial and non-mitochondrial adaptations.

Although direct evidence linking mitohormesis to the exercise response is limited, mounting studies suggest that mitohormesis plays a role in mediating exercise-induced adaptions. Various signals are released from the mitochondria in response to exercise, with ROS being the primary candidate for inducing mitohormetic response.²⁸³ Mitochondrial ROS are vital signaling molecules necessary for health-promoting and lifespan-extending effects.²⁸⁴ The benefits of exercise are at least partly regulated by ROS signaling, ²⁸⁵ and Nrf2 is one of the important regulators that mediates redox homeostasis during exercise. Exercise induces the activation of Nrf2, which modulates the gene level of endogenous antioxidant synthesis and ROS-eliminating enzymes.²⁸⁶ However, low-level and high-level mitochondrial stress could lead to opposing metabolic effects. In a recent study, severe mitochondrial stress due to mitoribosomal protein CR6-interacting factor 1 (Crif1) homo deficiency in hypothalamic proopiomelanocortin neurons of mice appeared to causes adult-onset obesity while mild mitochondrial stress caused by Crif1 heterodeficiency in proopiomelanocortin neurons was associated with higher metabolic turnover and resistance to diet-induced obesity in mice. The beneficial metabolic effects induced by mild stress are mediated by enhanced thermogenesis and mitochondrial unfolded protein responses (UPR^{mt}) in distal adipose tissue. Interestingly, regular exercise with moderate intensity resembles the metabolic phenotype of *Crif1* heterodeficiency, indicating the important regulatory role of mitohormetic in moderate-intensity regular exercise.²⁸⁷

8.2. The benefits of exercise on healthspan

950

951

952

953

954

955

956

957

958

959

960

961

962

963

964

965

966

967

968

969

970

971

972

973

974

Healthspan is characterized as healthy life expectancy or the period of life spent free of illness and disability.²⁸⁸ In addition to a healthy diet and mental well-being, the positive effects of regular moderate exercise on the prevention, treatment, and management of chronic disease affecting healthspan are well-established. For example, in a landmark

21-year longitudinal study, it is reported that participation in long-term running and other vigorous exercises among older adults is associated with less disability and lower mortality in later life.¹⁹ Regular exercise induces systemic adaptations in virtually all organ systems, producing multifaceted benefits for health. In Particular, exercise can attenuate multi-system age-related declines and help maintain physical fitness generally, including cardiorespiratory fitness and muscle function as well as flexibility and balance. The mechanisms through which exercise improves cardiorespiratory fitness include nitric oxide-induced vasodilatation, VEGFA-mediated angiogenesis, and VEGFR3-mediated lymphangiogenesis, etc.^{146, 289} The main signaling pathways involved in the effects of exercise on muscle include calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase signaling, MAPK signaling, AMPK signaling, SIRTs, PGC1α, etc. ^{290, 291}

Moreover, exercise benefits brain health via antioxidant defense (e.g., glutathione peroxidase, superoxide dismutase), neurotrophic factors (e.g., BDNF, VEGF, nerve growth factor), neurogenesis (e.g., BDNF, VEGF, IGF1), and protein homeostasis (e.g., proteasomes, neprilysin, tau ubiquitination), etc.²⁹¹ Exercise also reduces adipocyte size and lipid content, increases mitochondrial activity, and alters adipokines secretion in white adipose tissue.²⁹² In mice, the exercise-induced adaptations in white adipose tissue improve glucose tolerance and insulin sensitivity, indicating improved whole-body metabolic health.^{293, 294} These positive effects of exercise are supposed to be mediated by exercise training-induced adipokines.²⁹⁴ Furthermore, exercise may enhance immune function and prevent immunosenescence, as explained in section 7.2. Altogether, adaptations in multiple tissues and organ systems contribute to the maintenance of whole-body health. Thus, exercise has been proposed as medicine to delay dependence and prolong healthspan.²⁹⁵

8.3. The effects of exercise on lifespan

A large body of study suggests that exercise is a promising intervention for extending a healthy lifespan.^{296, 297} The positive effects of exercise on lifespan are mainly achieved through the attenuation of aging phenotypes or by delaying the process of aging. One of the essential regulator of the antiaging effects of exercise is AMPK.²⁹⁸ Activating AMPK is sufficient to promote longevity in multiple organisms.^{299, 300} In muscle specifically, AMPK is an important regulator of exercise effects that are activated by increased AMP/ATP and (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide/ nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide hydride) ratio.³⁰¹

Generally, regular exercise is considered to be fundamental to overall health and longevity. However, some of the commonly ascribed beneficial effects of exercise seem to be unsupported by current randomized control trial studies. For example, current randomized control trial evidence shows that exercise does not prevent premature mortality or cardiovascular disease in older adults or in people with chronic conditions.³⁰² Thus, additional large-scale investigations would be of value, especially

9. The effects of exercise on repair and regeneration

high-quality studies with insights on molecular mechanisms.

- The prompt repair and regeneration response to damage is a hallmark of health.²⁸ Here
- we present examples of how exercise modulates the process of repair and regeneration
- in response to damage (**Fig. 6**).
- 1020 9.1. DNA damage and repair
- 1021 Oxidative DNA damage is associated with increased risk of chronic diseases, such as
- 1022 cancer, neurodegenerative disease, atherosclerosis, and diabetes. 303, 304 Therefore,
- interventions aimed at repairing DNA strand breaks or lesions could be useful for
- inhibiting or delaying the progression of diseases. Regular moderate exercise confers

substantial health benefits, including a lower risk of the above-mentioned diseases.²⁴

Exercise has been directly implicated in the enhancement of DNA damage repair. As an example, 8 weeks of treadmill running leads to a decreased accumulation of oxidative damage to DNA and proteins in rat skeletal muscle.³⁰⁵ Moreover, exercise may promote the inherent DNA repair abilities of neurons through upregulation of BDNF.³⁰⁶ Several mechanisms have been implicated in the decrease of exerciseassociated oxidative damage in the brain, including upregulation of antioxidant capacity, reduced production of oxidants, and consequently reduced nuclear DNA damage.³⁰⁷ However, acute and strenuous exercise could induce oxidative stress via increased accumulation of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, which may have negative effects on DNA stability. 308 Additionally, high-intensity normoxic exercise induces DNA double-strand breaks, as revealed by increased detection of gamma-H2A histone family member X and p53-binding protein 1. Furthermore, levels of these oxidative stress biomarkers are significantly increased following exercise in hypoxia.³⁰⁹ Therefore, a better understanding of the effects of different types of exercise on DNA damage and repair is necessary. Future studies focusing on exercise-induced mechanisms are critical for developing better approaches to improving health.

9.2. Protein damage and proteostasis

1025

1026

1027

1028

1029

1030

1031

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

1042

1043

1044

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

Proteostasis refers to the dynamic processes contributing to the maintenance of protein homeostasis, which depends on adjustment in protein synthesis and degradation. Disturbance of proteostasis contributes to the pathogenesis of many degenerative diseases through the aggregation of damaged proteins.^{310, 311} Regular exercise induces substantial positive effects on health, with muscle being its predominant effector.³¹² For example, aerobic exercise increases the capacity for maintaining mitochondrial proteostasis in skeletal and heart muscle.³¹³ Regular voluntary wheel running reduces

the accumulation of cytotoxic misfolded proteins in the heart of αB-crystallin mutated (CryAB^{R120G}) mice, a model of desmin-related cardiomyopathy, by increasing autophagy.³¹⁴ One week of exercise training could reverse angiotensin II-induced muscle atrophy by activating peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma and inhibiting miR-29b.³¹⁵ Exercise also causes protein degradation followed by a similar scale rebuilding process, thus maintaining protein homeostasis.³¹⁶

Moreover, exercise activates autophagy and re-establishes proteostasis in cardiac diseases. For example, 4 weeks of treadmill running improves skeletal muscle autophagic flux and proteostasis in the rat model of neurogenic myopathy.³¹⁷

9.3. The ER stress response

The ER is a versatile organelle that involves the synthesis and folding of proteins as well as calcium homeostasis and signaling. Perturbation of ER function causes ER stress and subsequently activates the unfolded protein response (UPR), which is conducive to cellular homeostasis. However, if the ER stress remains unmitigated or is too strong and the UPR fails to restore ER function, the cells may degrade part of the ER via autophagy in order to maintain homeostasis in the ER. Defects in ER homeostasis have been implicated in the pathogenesis of metabolic diseases.^{318, 319} Exercise training represents a promising strategy for reestablishing ER homeostasis in cardiovascular diseases and obesity. For instance, 8 weeks of treadmill exercise can reestablish cardiac protein quality control and reduces ER stress, which is associated with improved cardiac function in the failed hearts of rats.³²⁰ Moreover, 8 weeks of swimming exercise is capable of suppressing aging-induced ER stress and ameliorating cardiac dysfunction in aged mice by enhancing cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP)-protein kinase G signaling. Likewise, the inhibition of cGMP-specific phosphodiesterase type 5 leads to reduced ER stress and improved cardiac function in

aged mice while activation of ER stress eliminates the protective effect of exercise in the same population.³²¹ Furthermore, in humans, 3 months of moderate exercise alleviates obesity-related ER stress by downregulating glucose-regulated protein 78 signaling.³²² In a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease, exercise improves vascular function and attenuates ER stress.³²³

Additionally, in a recent study, acute exercise is reported to activate ER-phagy, which is a selective ER autophagy regulated by ER-localized receptors, in order to ensure proper cellular homeostasis. Mechanistically, ER-phagy receptor named family with sequence similarity 134, member B anchors and fragments ER and then binds with microtubule-associated protein light-chain-3 to promote ER membrane degradation.³²⁴ This study suggests that acute exercise-induced ER-phagy may serve as an important adaptive stress response to maintain ER homeostasis.

9.4. Mitochondrial stress responses

Mitochondria are essential semi-autonomous cellular organelles that are maintained through complex remodeling processes, including biogenesis, dynamic fission and fusion, and mitophagy. These remodeling processes collectively contribute to mitochondria quality control. Mitochondrial stress induced by aggravated misfolded mitochondria proteins in the mitochondrial matrix, an impaired protein quality control system, mitonuclear imbalance, or inhibition of the electron transport chain can trigger the UPR^{mt}. 325

Regular endurance exercise is a powerful stimulus that promotes mitochondrial remodeling. Activation of the UPR^{mt} may mediate some of the exercise-induced mitochondrial adaptations.³²⁶ For example, the activation of UPR^{mt} is observed in skeletal muscle during the acute phase of the contractile period and chronic contractile activity.³²⁷

Exercise also increases levels of the mitochondrial encoded peptide mitochondrial open-reading-frame of the 12S rRNA-c, which can directly mediate mitonuclear communication by translocating to the nucleus and regulating adaptive nuclear gene expression to promote cellular homeostasis. Treatment of mice with mitochondrial open-reading-frame of the 12S rRNA-c is associated with metabolic benefits, such as weight loss, enhanced antioxidant capacity, and increased insulin sensitivity. 328, 329 9.5. Lysosomal damage response Lysosomes are the main organelles that accounts for proteolytic degradation and recycling.³³⁰ Exercise influences the release of lysosomal enzymes in several cell types, ^{331, 332} suggesting that physical activity could modulate the lysosomal membrane permeability. Thus, 4 weeks of aerobic exercise could mitigate the HFD-associated lysosomal membrane permeabilization via the reduction of ROS.³³³ However, studies focused on exercise-induced changes in lysosomal are still limited. Finally, lysosomal biogenesis is also elevated in response to exercise. The increased lysosomal biogenesis coordinates with mitophagy to enhance the breakdown of dysfunctional mitochondria, thereby contributing to the maintenance of mitochondrial quality.334 9.6. Tissue-level regeneration The positive effects of exercise on cardiac regeneration are well-established. Regular endurance exercise is capable of promoting heart growth and inducing cardiac remodeling.^{335, 336} An enlarged heart due to regular exercise training is associated with normal or enhanced heart function. Moreover, it is well-known that exercise confers protection against heart failure.³³⁷ Mechanistically, exercise-induced cardiac adaptation mainly includes cardiomyocyte growth, cardiomyocyte fate reprogramming,

1100

1101

1102

1103

1104

1105

1106

1107

1108

1109

1110

1111

1112

1113

1114

1115

1116

1117

1118

1119

1120

1121

1122

1123

1124

angiogenesis and lymphangiogenesis, mitochondrial remodeling, epigenetic alteration,

enhanced endothelial function, quiescent cardiac fibroblast, and improved cardiac metabolism. 146, 338 For instance, 3 weeks of swimming exercise causes a remarkable increase in cardiac lymphangiogenesis via VEGFR3 activation. By contrast, VEGFR3 inhibition is capable of mitigating exercise-induced cardiac growth, indicating the essential role of cardiac lymphangiogenesis in exercise-associated cardiac growth. 339 In particular, IGF1-PI3K signaling is one of the essential pathways responsible for exercise-related heart enlargement and protection. 340

Skeletal muscle exhibits high plasticity and adaptation in response to various demands. Adult skeletal muscle has the remarkable ability to regenerate after injury due to the ability of muscle stem cells, also called satellite cells, to generate both new myofibers and new muscle stem cells.³⁴¹ Exercise training is a strong stimulator of muscle plasticity, as it activates several intracellular signaling pathways that mediate muscle growth and adaptations.³⁴² For example, 4 weeks of treadmill training improves muscle regeneration and induces muscle hypertrophy via the IGFBP7-Akt-mTOR axis in mice.³⁴³ Moderate exercise improves tendon injury healing in aging rats by increasing the number of tendon stem/progenitor cells.³⁴⁴

1141 9.7. Cell identity reprogramming

Research studies demonstrate that exercise training can trigger metabolic reprogramming in multiple cell types and, thus, alter their functional phenotypes. For example, 16 weeks of treadmill exercise induces macrophage phenotypic switching from M1 to M2 in the adipose tissue of obese mice, indicating improved inflammatory outcomes in exercised obese mice.³⁴⁵ Additionally, 10 weeks of treadmill running could promote the differentiation of mesenchymal stem cells into osteoblasts to increase hematopoiesis.³⁴⁶ Moreover, 4 weeks of exercise training before surgery offers protection against hepatic injury via the metabolic reprogramming of immune cells.

Specifically, exercise encourages Kupffer cells toward an anti-inflammatory phenotype with trained immunity.³⁴⁷

10. Integrative effects of exercise on health

1150

1151

1152

1153

1154

1155

1156

1157

1158

1159

1160

1161

1162

1163

1164

1165

1166

1167

1168

1169

1170

1171

1172

1173

1174

Exercise maintains and restores homeostasis at the organismal, tissue, cellular, and molecular levels to stimulate positive physiological adaptations and subsequently, to protect against various disease conditions.²⁷ The health benefit of regular exercise training involve the acclimatization to repeated metabolic, thermoregulatory, hypoxic, oxidative, and mechanical stress. An individual exercise bout elicits a rapid, but transient response while the repetition of the stimulus causes compensatory physiological changes that confer protection against greater subsequent stress. 348, 349 Exercise elicits systemic impacts. The preventive and therapeutic potential of exercise to combat the development and progression of various diseases lies in the remarkable integrative adaptation that takes place at the whole-organism level. Exercise-related physiological adaptations are characterized by complex interplay among multiple organ systems, including the skeletal muscle, lung, heart, brain, vascular system, liver, adipose tissue, etc.^{350, 351} Exercise therapy has been proposed as an effective pre-operative therapy providing a series of positive effects on a patient's physical fitness prior to surgery, on their recovery period, and on the length of hospital stay. 352-354 It has been suggested the protective effects of pre-operative exercise are largely due to an enhanced tolerance to systemic perturbance as well as an improved metabolism. For example, 4 weeks of aerobic pre-operative exercise is capable of significantly ameliorating liver injury and inflammation in mice with hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury. Mechanistically, exercise promotes the production of high mobility group box 1 and upregulates the itaconate metabolism in Kupffer cells, thereby inducing anti-inflammatory trained immunity.³⁴⁷

11. Conclusions and prospect

1175

1176

1177

1178

1179

1180

1181

1182

1183

1184

1185

1186

1187

1188

1189

1190

1191

1192

1193

1194

1195

1196

1197

1198

1199

The beneficial effects of exercise have been well-documented for a range of improved metabolic and cardiorespiratory fitness-related outcomes.355 Regular exercise is essentially considered a non-pharmacological polypill for patients with certain comorbidities. Therapeutic exercise can be adopted to prevent, manage, and treat diseases such as obesity, type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, aging-related muscle atrophy, and certain cancers. However, caution should be taken when interpreting these discoveries, as exercise protocols may vary across studies. Exercise is a complex, multidimensional process that is challenging to accurately assess in free-living individuals. The lack of consistency in the methods applied to quantify exercise is a limitation to data analysis and may hinder the translation from experimental findings to clinical practice. Thus, future work involving exercise should be performed based on strictly designed and well-reported trials with good reproducibility.³⁵⁶ In this review, we have attempted to summarize the health benefit of exercise from the view of biological causes. Due to limited space, it is hard to provide a comprehensive review for each individual topic. However, the topics and characteristics that have been discussed may provide a mechanistic view for exerciserelated studies. As the biology of exercise is complex, we have listed examples to explain the effects of exercise on each topic and characteristic, which may be helpful for gaining a comprehensive understanding the exercise-induced adaptations. Regarding the conflicting findings between current Mendelian randomization studies and traditional observational studies in section 7.2, future researchers should perform more mechanistic studies in order to unravel the biological pathways of exercise. In addition, exercise-stimulated interorgan communication is less well-investigated. Further detailed study of exercise-related interorgan communications and its underlying mechanisms may shed light on the identification of exercise-responsive molecules. Regular exercise is undoubtedly beneficial for overall health. Yet, the mechanisms that underlie the multiple health benefits of exercise are complex, and efforts devoted to exploring the adaptation of organelles (e.g., mitochondria, nuclei, ER) may be helpful for understanding the positive effects of exercise.

Further investigation of the mechanisms underlying the beneficial effects of exercise will help to improve the design and maximize the curative effects of exercise interventions. Therefore, there is a need for prior in-depth knowledge of the scientific basis of exercise in order to better understand the effects of potential subsequent interventions oriented toward the modification of exercise methods for health promotion and to research specific molecules that may improve the health of those who are unable to exercise. We hope that continuing investigation in this field will increase our understanding of the processes involved in the beneficial role of exercise and facilitate the identification of new therapeutics to improve quality of life.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by grants from the National Key Research and Development Project (2018YFE0113500 to JX), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (82020108002 and 82225005 to JX), the Science and Technology Commission of Shanghai Municipality (21XD1421300 and 20DZ2255400 to JX), the "Dawn" Program of Shanghai Education Commission (19SG34 to JX) and the Sailing Program from Science and Technology Commission of Shanghai (21YF1413700 to YQ). GK is supported by the Ligue contre le Cancer (équipe labellisée); Agence National de la Recherche (ANR) – Projets blancs; AMMICa US23/CNRS UMS3655; Association

pour la recherche sur le cancer (ARC); Cancéropôle Ile-de-France; Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (FRM); a donation by Elior; Equipex Onco-Pheno-Screen; European Joint Programme on Rare Diseases (EJPRD); Gustave Roussy Odyssea, the European Union Horizon 2020 Projects Oncobiome and Crimson; Fondation Carrefour; Institut National du Cancer (INCa); Institut Universitaire de France; LabEx Immuno-Oncology (ANR-18-IDEX-0001); a Cancer Research ASPIRE Award from the Mark Foundation; the RHU Immunolife; Seerave Foundation; SIRIC Stratified Oncology Cell DNA Repair and Tumor Immune Elimination (SOCRATE); and SIRIC Cancer Research and Personalized Medicine (CARPEM). This study contributes to the IdEx Université de Paris ANR-18-IDEX-0001. C.L-O. is supported by European Union (DeAge ERC Advanced Grant), Instituto de Salud Carlos III, Ministerio de Sanidad (Spain) and SAF program from Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación (Spain). B.F-G. is supported by Red de Investigación en Ciencias del Deporte "in motu salus". Consejo Superior de Deportes, Spain.

Competing interests

GK has held research contracts with Daiichi Sankyo, Eleor, Kaleido, Lytix Pharma, PharmaMar, Osasuna Therapeutics, Samsara Therapeutics, Sanofi, Sotio, Tollys, Vascage and Vasculox/Tioma. GK has consulted for Reithera. GK is on the Board of Directors of the Bristol Myers Squibb Foundation France. GK is a scientific co-founder of everImmune, Osasuna Therapeutics, Samsara Therapeutics and Therafast Bio. GK is the inventor of multiple patents covering therapeutic targeting of aging, cancer, cystic fibrosis and metabolic disorders. Among these, patents were licensed to Bayer (WO2014020041-A1, WO2014020043-A1), Bristol-Myers Squibb (WO2008057863-A1), Osasuna Therapeutics (WO2019057742A1), Pharmamar (WO2022049270A1 and

1250	WO20	022048775-A1), Raptor Pharmaceuticals (EP2664326-A1), Samsara
1251	Thera	peutics (GB202017553D0) and Therafast Bio (EP3684471A1). The other authors
1252	declar	re that they have no competing interests.
1253		
1254	Autho	ors contributions
1255	YQ a	nd BFG drafted the manuscript. GK, CLO and JX camp up with the idea and
1256	edited	the manuscript. HIL and GL reviewed and edited the manuscript. All authors
1257	have 1	read and approved the final version of this manuscript, and agree with the order
1258	of pre	sentation of the authors.
1259		
1260	References	
1261	1.	GBD 2015 Mortality and Causes of Death Collaborators. Global, regional, and
1262		national life expectancy, all-cause mortality, and cause-specific mortality for
1263		249 causes of death, 1980-2015: A systematic analysis for the global burden of
1264		disease study 2015. Lancet 2016;388:1459-544.
1265	2.	World Health Organization. Noncommunicable diseases; 2021. Available from:
1266		https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/noncommunicable-diseases.
1267		[accessed 09. 09. 2022]
1268	3.	Yin X, Chen M, He R, et al. Association of leisure sedentary time with common
1269		chronic disease risk factors: A longitudinal study of china health and nutrition
1270		surveys. Int J Health Plann Manage 2021;36:100-12.
1271	4.	Guthold R, Stevens GA, Riley LM, Bull FC. Worldwide trends in insufficient
1272		physical activity from 2001 to 2016: A pooled analysis of 358 population-based
1273		surveys with 1.9 million participants. Lancet Glob Health 2018;6:e1077-e86.
1274	5.	Li Y, Pan A, Wang DD, et al. Impact of healthy lifestyle factors on life

- expectancies in the us population. *Circulation* 2018;**138**:345-55.
- 1276 6. Kandola A, Ashdown-Franks G, Hendrikse J, Sabiston CM, Stubbs B. Physical
- activity and depression: Towards understanding the antidepressant mechanisms
- of physical activity. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2019;**107**:525-39.
- 1279 7. Who guidelines on physical activity and sedentary behaviour. Geneva; 2020.
- 1280 8. Aune D, Sen A, Henriksen T, Saugstad OD, Tonstad S. Physical activity and the
- risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: A systematic review and dose-response
- meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. Eur J Epidemiol 2016;**31**:967-97.
- 1283 9. Jeong SW, Kim SH, Kang SH, et al. Mortality reduction with physical activity
- in patients with and without cardiovascular disease. Eur Heart J 2019;**40**:3547-
- 1285 55.
- 1286 10. Chaput JP, Willumsen J, Bull F, et al. 2020 who guidelines on physical activity
- and sedentary behaviour for children and adolescents aged 5-17 years:
- Summary of the evidence. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 2020;**17**:141.
- 1289 11. Channon KM. Exercise and cardiovascular health: New routes to reap more
- 1290 rewards. *Cardiovasc Res* 2020;**116**:e56-e8.
- 1291 12. Fiuza-Luces C, Santos-Lozano A, Joyner M, et al. Exercise benefits in
- cardiovascular disease: Beyond attenuation of traditional risk factors. *Nat Rev*
- 1293 *Cardiol* 2018;**15**:731-43.
- 1294 13. Mendes R, Sousa N, Almeida A, et al. Exercise prescription for patients with
- type 2 diabetes-a synthesis of international recommendations: Narrative review.
- 1296 *Br J Sports Med* 2016;**50**:1379-81.
- 1297 14. Halabchi F, Alizadeh Z, Sahraian MA, Abolhasani M. Exercise prescription for
- patients with multiple sclerosis; potential benefits and practical
- recommendations. *BMC Neurol* 2017;**17**:185.

- 1300 15. Han P, Zhang W, Kang L, et al. Clinical evidence of exercise benefits for stroke.
- 1301 *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2017;**1000**:131-51.
- 1302 16. Landi F, Marzetti E, Martone AM, Bernabei R, Onder G. Exercise as a remedy
- for sarcopenia. Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care 2014;17:25-31.
- 1304 17. Wannamethee SG, Shaper AG, Walker M. Physical activity and risk of cancer
- in middle-aged men. *Br J Cancer* 2001;**85**:1311-6.
- 1306 18. Matos B, Patricio D, Henriques MC, et al. Chronic exercise training attenuates
- prostate cancer-induced molecular remodelling in the testis. *Cell Oncol (Dordr)*
- 1308 2021;44:311-27.
- 1309 19. Chakravarty EF, Hubert HB, Lingala VB, Fries JF. Reduced disability and
- mortality among aging runners: A 21-year longitudinal study. *Arch Intern Med*
- 1311 2008;**168**:1638-46.
- 1312 20. Stessman J, Hammerman-Rozenberg R, Cohen A, Ein-Mor E, Jacobs JM.
- Physical activity, function, and longevity among the very old. *Arch Intern Med*
- 1314 2009;**169**:1476-83.
- 1315 21. Buchner DM. Physical activity and prevention of cardiovascular disease in
- 1316 older adults. *Clin Geriatr Med* 2009;**25**:661-75, viii.
- 1317 22. Dhalwani NN, O'Donovan G, Zaccardi F, et al. Long terms trends of
- multimorbidity and association with physical activity in older english
- population. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 2016;**13**:8.
- 1320 23. Vancampfort D, Koyanagi A, Ward PB, et al. Chronic physical conditions,
- multimorbidity and physical activity across 46 low- and middle-income
- countries. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act 2017;14:6.
- 1323 24. Ruegsegger GN, Booth FW. Health benefits of exercise. Cold Spring Harb
- 1324 *Perspect Med* 2018;**8**.

- 1325 25. Pedersen BK, Saltin B. Exercise as medicine evidence for prescribing exercise
- as therapy in 26 different chronic diseases. Scand J Med Sci Sports 2015;25
- 1327 **Suppl 3**:1-72.
- 1328 26. Franklin BA, Thompson PD, Al-Zaiti SS, et al. Exercise-related acute
- cardiovascular events and potential deleterious adaptations following long-term
- exercise training: Placing the risks into perspective-an update: A scientific
- statement from the american heart association. *Circulation* 2020;**141**:e705-e36.
- 1332 27. Hawley JA, Hargreaves M, Joyner MJ, Zierath JR. Integrative biology of
- 1333 exercise. *Cell* 2014;**159**:738-49.
- 1334 28. Lopez-Otin C, Kroemer G. Hallmarks of health. *Cell* 2021;**184**:33-63.
- 1335 29. Hoppeler H, Fluck M. Plasticity of skeletal muscle mitochondria: Structure and
- 1336 function. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2003;**35**:95-104.
- 1337 30. Vargas-Ortiz K, Perez-Vazquez V, Macias-Cervantes MH. Exercise and sirtuins:
- 1338 A way to mitochondrial health in skeletal muscle. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019;**20**.
- 1339 31. Memme JM, Erlich AT, Phukan G, Hood DA. Exercise and mitochondrial health.
- 1340 *J Physiol* 2021;**599**:803-17.
- 1341 32. Lee H, Kim K, Kim B, et al. A cellular mechanism of muscle memory facilitates
- mitochondrial remodelling following resistance training. J Physiol
- 1343 2018;**596**:4413-26.
- 1344 33. Richter U, Lahtinen T, Marttinen P, Suomi F, Battersby BJ. Quality control of
- mitochondrial protein synthesis is required for membrane integrity and cell
- 1346 fitness. *J Cell Biol* 2015;**211**:373-89.
- 1347 34. Kroemer G, Galluzzi L, Brenner C. Mitochondrial membrane permeabilization
- in cell death. *Physiol Rev* 2007;**87**:99-163.
- 1349 35. Merle A, Jollet M, Britto FA, et al. Endurance exercise decreases protein

- synthesis and er-mitochondria contacts in mouse skeletal muscle. *J Appl Physiol*
- 1351 *(1985)* 2019;**127**:1297-306.
- 1352 36. Nielsen J, Gejl KD, Hey-Mogensen M, et al. Plasticity in mitochondrial cristae
- density allows metabolic capacity modulation in human skeletal muscle. J
- 1354 *Physiol* 2017;**595**:2839-47.
- 1355 37. Goncalves IO, Maciel E, Passos E, et al. Exercise alters liver mitochondria
- phospholipidomic profile and mitochondrial activity in non-alcoholic
- steatohepatitis. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* 2014;**54**:163-73.
- 1358 38. Li Z, Agellon LB, Allen TM, et al. The ratio of phosphatidylcholine to
- phosphatidylethanolamine influences membrane integrity and steatohepatitis.
- 1360 *Cell Metab* 2006;**3**:321-31.
- 1361 39. Goncalves IO, Passos E, Diogo CV, et al. Exercise mitigates mitochondrial
- permeability transition pore and quality control mechanisms alterations in
- nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* 2016;**41**:298-306.
- 1364 40. Pan G, Zhang H, Zhu A, et al. Treadmill exercise attenuates cerebral ischaemic
- injury in rats by protecting mitochondrial function via enhancement of caveolin-
- 1366 1. *Life Sci* 2021;**264**:118634.
- 1367 41. Zhao HX, Zhang Z, Zhou HL, Hu F, Yu Y. Exercise training suppresses mst1
- activation and attenuates myocardial dysfunction in mice with type 1 diabetes.
- 1369 *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 2020;**98**:777-84.
- 1370 42. Zhang SS, Zhou S, Crowley-McHattan ZJ, Wang RY, Li JP. A review of the role
- of endo/sarcoplasmic reticulum-mitochondria ca(2+) transport in diseases and
- skeletal muscle function. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2021;**18**.
- 1373 43. Guarnier FA, Michelucci A, Serano M, et al. Aerobic training prevents
- heatstrokes in calsequestrin-1 knockout mice by reducing oxidative stress. *Oxid*

- 1375 *Med Cell Longev* 2018;**2018**:4652480.
- 1376 44. Gauthier BR, Comaills V. Nuclear envelope integrity in health and disease:
- 1377 Consequences on genome instability and inflammation. *Int J Mol Sci* 2021;**22**.
- 1378 45. Chandar S, Yeo LS, Leimena C, et al. Effects of mechanical stress and carvedilol
- in lamin a/c-deficient dilated cardiomyopathy. Circ Res 2010;**106**:573-82.
- 1380 46. Gillon A, Nielsen K, Steel C, Cornwall J, Sheard P. Exercise attenuates age-
- associated changes in motoneuron number, nucleocytoplasmic transport
- proteins and neuromuscular health. *Geroscience* 2018;**40**:177-92.
- 1383 47. Dias C, Nylandsted J. Plasma membrane integrity in health and disease:
- Significance and therapeutic potential. *Cell Discov* 2021;7:4.
- 1385 48. Noland RC. Exercise and regulation of lipid metabolism. *Prog Mol Biol Transl*
- 1386 *Sci* 2015;**135**:39-74.
- 1387 49. Ambery AG, Tackett L, Penque BA, Brozinick JT, Elmendorf JS. Exercise
- training prevents skeletal muscle plasma membrane cholesterol accumulation,
- 1389 cortical actin filament loss, and insulin resistance in c57bl/6j mice fed a
- western-style high-fat diet. *Physiol Rep* 2017;**5**.
- 1391 50. Grice BA, Barton KJ, Covert JD, et al. Excess membrane cholesterol is an early
- contributing reversible aspect of skeletal muscle insulin resistance in c57bl/6nj
- mice fed a western-style high-fat diet. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab
- 1394 2019;**317**:E362-E73.
- 1395 51. Bradley NS, Snook LA, Jain SS, Heigenhauser GJ, Bonen A, Spriet LL. Acute
- endurance exercise increases plasma membrane fatty acid transport proteins in
- rat and human skeletal muscle. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2012;**302**:E183-
- 1398 9.
- 1399 52. Obermeier B, Daneman R, Ransohoff RM. Development, maintenance and

- disruption of the blood-brain barrier. *Nat Med* 2013;**19**:1584-96.
- 1401 53. Liebner S, Dijkhuizen RM, Reiss Y, Plate KH, Agalliu D, Constantin G.
- Functional morphology of the blood-brain barrier in health and disease. *Acta*
- 1403 *Neuropathol* 2018;**135**:311-36.
- 1404 54. Malkiewicz MA, Szarmach A, Sabisz A, Cubala WJ, Szurowska E, Winklewski
- 1405 PJ. Blood-brain barrier permeability and physical exercise. J
- *Neuroinflammation* 2019;**16**:15.
- 1407 55. Souza PS, Goncalves ED, Pedroso GS, et al. Physical exercise attenuates
- experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis by inhibiting peripheral immune
- response and blood-brain barrier disruption. *Mol Neurobiol* 2017;**54**:4723-37.
- 1410 56. Malkiewicz MA, Malecki A, Toborek M, Szarmach A, Winklewski PJ.
- Substances of abuse and the blood brain barrier: Interactions with physical
- 1412 exercise. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2020;**119**:204-16.
- 1413 57. Chupel MU, Minuzzi LG, Furtado G, et al. Exercise and taurine in inflammation,
- 1414 cognition, and peripheral markers of blood-brain barrier integrity in older
- 1415 women. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* 2018;**43**:733-41.
- 1416 58. Roh HT, So WY. The effects of aerobic exercise training on oxidant-antioxidant
- balance, neurotrophic factor levels, and blood-brain barrier function in obese
- and non-obese men. *J Sport Health Sci* 2017;**6**:447-53.
- 1419 59. Gaspar RC, Nakandakari S, Munoz VR, et al. Acute physical exercise increases
- pi3k-p110alpha protein content in the hypothalamus of obese mice. J Anat
- 1421 2021;**238**:743-50.
- 1422 60. Chelakkot C, Ghim J, Ryu SH. Mechanisms regulating intestinal barrier
- integrity and its pathological implications. *Exp Mol Med* 2018;**50**:1-9.
- 1424 61. Pals KL, Chang RT, Ryan AJ, Gisolfi CV. Effect of running intensity on

- intestinal permeability. *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 1997;**82**:571-6.
- 1426 62. Walter E, Gibson OR, Stacey M, Hill N, Parsons IT, Woods D. Changes in
- gastrointestinal cell integrity after marathon running and exercise-associated
- 1428 collapse. Eur J Appl Physiol 2021;**121**:1179-87.
- 1429 63. Falgiano PA, Gillum TL, Schall ZJ, Strag HR, Kuennen MR. Dietary curcumin
- supplementation does not alter peripheral blood mononuclear cell responses to
- exertional heat stress. Eur J Appl Physiol 2018;**118**:2707-17.
- 1432 64. Hill GW, Gillum TL, Lee BJ, et al. Prolonged treadmill running in normobaric
- 1433 hypoxia causes gastrointestinal barrier permeability and elevates circulating
- levels of pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines. Appl Physiol Nutr Metab
- 1435 2020;**45**:376-86.
- 1436 65. Davis MS, Willard MD, Williamson KK, Steiner JM, Williams DA. Sustained
- strenuous exercise increases intestinal permeability in racing alaskan sled dogs.
- 1438 *J Vet Intern Med* 2005;**19**:34-9.
- 1439 66. Gutekunst K, Kruger K, August C, Diener M, Mooren FC. Acute exercises
- induce disorders of the gastrointestinal integrity in a murine model. Eur J Appl
- 1441 *Physiol* 2014;**114**:609-17.
- 1442 67. Pires W, Veneroso CE, Wanner SP, et al. Association between exercise-induced
- hyperthermia and intestinal permeability: A systematic review. Sports Med
- 2017;**47**:1389-403.
- 1445 68. Freitas AKL, Silva MTB, Silva CMS, et al. Alanyl-glutamine protects the
- intestinal barrier function in trained rats against the impact of acute exhaustive
- 1447 exercise. *Braz J Med Biol Res* 2020;**53**:e9211.
- 1448 69. Pugh JN, Sage S, Hutson M, et al. Glutamine supplementation reduces markers
- of intestinal permeability during running in the heat in a dose-dependent manner.

- 1450 Eur J Appl Physiol 2017;**117**:2569-77.
- 1451 70. Carbajo-Pescador S, Porras D, Garcia-Mediavilla MV, et al. Beneficial effects
- of exercise on gut microbiota functionality and barrier integrity, and gut-liver
- crosstalk in an in vivo model of early obesity and non-alcoholic fatty liver
- 1454 disease. *Dis Model Mech* 2019;**12**.
- 1455 71. Shao C, Li Y, Chen J, et al. Physical exercise repairs obstructive jaundice-
- induced damage to intestinal mucosal barrier function via h2s-mediated
- regulation of the hmgb1/toll like receptors 4/nuclear factor kappa b pathway.
- 1458 Front Physiol 2021;**12**:732780.
- 1459 72. Qin L, Yao ZQ, Chang Q, et al. Swimming attenuates inflammation, oxidative
- stress, and apoptosis in a rat model of dextran sulfate sodium-induced chronic
- 1461 colitis. *Oncotarget* 2017;**8**:7391-404.
- 1462 73. LeMessurier KS, Tiwary M, Morin NP, Samarasinghe AE. Respiratory barrier
- as a safeguard and regulator of defense against influenza a virus and
- streptococcus pneumoniae. Front Immunol 2020;11:3.
- 1465 74. Hellings PW, Steelant B. Epithelial barriers in allergy and asthma. J Allergy Clin
- 1466 *Immunol* 2020;**145**:1499-509.
- 1467 75. Enhorning G, Hohlfeld J, Krug N, Lema G, Welliver RC. Surfactant function
- affected by airway inflammation and cooling: Possible impact on exercise-
- induced asthma. Eur Respir J 2000;15:532-8.
- 1470 76. Spruit MA, Rochester CL, Pitta F, et al. Pulmonary rehabilitation, physical
- activity, respiratory failure and palliative respiratory care. *Thorax* 2019;**74**:693-
- 1472 9.
- 1473 77. Wada JT, Borges-Santos E, Porras DC, et al. Effects of aerobic training
- 1474 combined with respiratory muscle stretching on the functional exercise capacity

- and thoracoabdominal kinematics in patients with copd: A randomized and
- 1476 controlled trial. Int J Chron Obstruct Pulmon Dis 2016;11:2691-700.
- 1477 78. Jung MH, Yi SW, An SJ, et al. Association of physical activity and lower
- respiratory tract infection outcomes in patients with cardiovascular disease. J
- 1479 *Am Heart Assoc* 2022;**11**:e023775.
- 1480 79. Spruit MA, Singh SJ, Garvey C, et al. An official american thoracic
- society/european respiratory society statement: Key concepts and advances in
- pulmonary rehabilitation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2013;**188**:e13-64.
- 1483 80. Gao J, Pan X, Li G, Chatterjee E, Xiao J. Physical exercise protects against
- endothelial dysfunction in cardiovascular and metabolic diseases. *J Cardiovasc*
- 1485 *Transl Res* 2021.
- 1486 81. Good RB, Gilbane AJ, Trinder SL, et al. Endothelial to mesenchymal transition
- 1487 contributes to endothelial dysfunction in pulmonary arterial hypertension. Am J
- 1488 *Pathol* 2015;**185**:1850-8.
- 1489 82. Vieira RP, Silva RA, Oliveira-Junior MC, et al. Exercise deactivates leukocytes
- in asthma. *Int J Sports Med* 2014;**35**:629-35.
- 1491 83. Kunz H, Bishop NC, Spielmann G, et al. Fitness level impacts salivary
- antimicrobial protein responses to a single bout of cycling exercise. Eur J Appl
- 1493 *Physiol* 2015;**115**:1015-27.
- 1494 84. Sivamaruthi BS, Kesika P, Chaiyasut C. Effect of probiotics supplementations
- on health status of athletes. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2019;**16**.
- 1496 85. Chimenti L, Morici G, Paterno A, et al. Bronchial epithelial damage after a half-
- marathon in nonasthmatic amateur runners. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol
- 1498 2010;**298**:L857-62.
- 1499 86. Peters EM. Exercise, immunology and upper respiratory tract infections. Int J

- 1500 *Sports Med* 1997;**18 Suppl 1**:S69-77.
- 1501 87. Peters EM, Bateman ED. Ultramarathon running and upper respiratory tract
- infections. An epidemiological survey. S Afr Med J 1983;64:582-4.
- 1503 88. Campbell JP, Turner JE. There is limited existing evidence to support the
- 1504 common assumption that strenuous endurance exercise bouts impair immune
- 1505 competency. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol* 2019;**15**:105-9.
- 1506 89. Combes A, Dekerle J, Dumont X, et al. Continuous exercise induces airway
- epithelium damage while a matched-intensity and volume intermittent exercise
- does not. Respir Res 2019;**20**:12.
- 1509 90. Bonifant H, Holloway S. A review of the effects of ageing on skin integrity and
- 1510 wound healing. *Br J Community Nurs* 2019;**24**:S28-S33.
- 1511 91. Rousselle P, Montmasson M, Garnier C. Extracellular matrix contribution to
- skin wound re-epithelialization. *Matrix Biol* 2019;**75-76**:12-26.
- 1513 92. Chen CT, Tung HH, Tung TH, Denq JC. Nutrition, exercise, and skin integrity
- among frail older adults in taiwan. Adv Skin Wound Care 2017;**30**:364-71.
- 1515 93. Safdar A, Bourgeois JM, Ogborn DI, et al. Endurance exercise rescues
- progeroid aging and induces systemic mitochondrial rejuvenation in mtdna
- 1517 mutator mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2011;**108**:4135-40.
- 1518 94. Lorincz K, Haluszka D, Kiss N, et al. Voluntary exercise improves murine
- dermal connective tissue status in high-fat diet-induced obesity. *Arch Dermatol*
- 1520 *Res* 2017;**309**:209-15.
- 1521 95. Crane JD, MacNeil LG, Lally JS, et al. Exercise-stimulated interleukin-15 is
- 1522 controlled by ampk and regulates skin metabolism and aging. Aging Cell
- 1523 2015;**14**:625-34.
- 1524 96. Pence BD, Woods JA. Exercise, obesity, and cutaneous wound healing:

- Evidence from rodent and human studies. Adv Wound Care (New Rochelle)
- 1526 2014;**3**:71-9.
- 1527 97. O'Brien J, Finlayson K, Kerr G, Edwards H. Evaluating the effectiveness of a
- self-management exercise intervention on wound healing, functional ability and
- health-related quality of life outcomes in adults with venous leg ulcers: A
- randomised controlled trial. *Int Wound J* 2017;**14**:130-7.
- 1531 98. Emery CF, Kiecolt-Glaser JK, Glaser R, Malarkey WB, Frid DJ. Exercise
- accelerates wound healing among healthy older adults: A preliminary
- investigation. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 2005;60:1432-6.
- 1534 99. Keylock KT, Vieira VJ, Wallig MA, DiPietro LA, Schrementi M, Woods JA.
- Exercise accelerates cutaneous wound healing and decreases wound
- inflammation in aged mice. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol
- 1537 2008;**294**:R179-84.
- 1538 100. Rael VE, Chen L, McIntosh CM, Alegre ML. Exercise increases skin graft
- resistance to rejection. *Am J Transplant* 2019;**19**:1560-7.
- 1540 101. Lou J, Wu J, Feng M, et al. Exercise promotes angiogenesis by enhancing
- endothelial cell fatty acid utilization via liver-derived extracellular vesicle mir-
- 1542 122-5p. *J Sport Health Sci* 2021.
- 1543 102. Zogaib FG, Monte-Alto-Costa A. Moderate intensity physical training
- accelerates healing of full-thickness wounds in mice. Braz J Med Biol Res
- 1545 2011;**44**:1025-35.
- 1546 103. Keylock T, Meserve L, Wolfe A. Low-intensity exercise accelerates wound
- healing in diabetic mice. Wounds 2018;**30**:68-71.
- 1548 104. Gomes-Neto M, Conceicao CS, Oliveira Carvalho V, Brites C. A systematic
- review of the effects of different types of therapeutic exercise on physiologic

- and functional measurements in patients with hiv/aids. Clinics (Sao Paulo)
- 1551 2013;**68**:1157-67.
- 1552 105. Baik I, Curhan GC, Rimm EB, Bendich A, Willett WC, Fawzi WW. A
- prospective study of age and lifestyle factors in relation to community-acquired
- pneumonia in us men and women. Arch Intern Med 2000;160:3082-8.
- 1555 106. Pape K, Ryttergaard L, Rotevatn TA, et al. Leisure-time physical activity and
- the risk of suspected bacterial infections. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2016;**48**:1737-
- 1557 44.
- 1558 107. Sim YJ, Yu S, Yoon KJ, Loiacono CM, Kohut ML. Chronic exercise reduces
- illness severity, decreases viral load, and results in greater anti-inflammatory
- effects than acute exercise during influenza infection. J Infect Dis
- 1561 2009;**200**:1434-42.
- 1562 108. Dianatinasab M, Ghahri S, Dianatinasab A, Amanat S, Fararouei M. Effects of
- exercise on the immune function, quality of life, and mental health in hiv/aids
- individuals. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2020;**1228**:411-21.
- 1565 109. da Silveira MP, da Silva Fagundes KK, Bizuti MR, Starck E, Rossi RC, de
- Resende ESDT. Physical exercise as a tool to help the immune system against
- 1567 covid-19: An integrative review of the current literature. Clin Exp Med
- 1568 2021;**21**:15-28.
- 1569 110. Alawna M, Amro M, Mohamed AA. Aerobic exercises recommendations and
- specifications for patients with covid-19: A systematic review. Eur Rev Med
- 1571 *Pharmacol Sci* 2020;**24**:13049-55.
- 1572 111. Abdelbasset WK. Stay home: Role of physical exercise training in elderly
- individuals' ability to face the covid-19 infection. J Immunol Res
- 1574 2020;**2020**:8375096.

- 1575 112. Tamura Y, Jee E, Kouzaki K, Kotani T, Nakazato K. Effects of endurance
- training on the expression of host proteins involved in sars-cov-2 cell entry in
- 1577 c57bl/6j mouse. *Physiol Rep* 2021;**9**:e15014.
- 1578 113. Valenzuela PL, Castillo-Garcia A, Morales JS, et al. Exercise benefits on
- alzheimer's disease: State-of-the-science. *Ageing Res Rev* 2020;**62**:101108.
- 1580 114. Cook MD, Martin SA, Williams C, et al. Forced treadmill exercise training
- exacerbates inflammation and causes mortality while voluntary wheel training
- is protective in a mouse model of colitis. *Brain Behav Immun* 2013;**33**:46-56.
- 1583 115. de Araujo CC, Silva JD, Samary CS, et al. Regular and moderate exercise before
- experimental sepsis reduces the risk of lung and distal organ injury. J Appl
- 1585 *Physiol (1985)* 2012;**112**:1206-14.
- 1586 116. Timmerman KL, Flynn MG, Coen PM, Markofski MM, Pence BD. Exercise
- training-induced lowering of inflammatory (cd14+cd16+) monocytes: A role in
- the anti-inflammatory influence of exercise? *J Leukoc Biol* 2008;**84**:1271-8.
- 1589 117. Abramson JL, Vaccarino V. Relationship between physical activity and
- inflammation among apparently healthy middle-aged and older us adults. *Arch*
- 1591 *Intern Med* 2002;**162**:1286-92.
- 1592 118. de Gonzalo-Calvo D, Fernandez-Garcia B, de Luxan-Delgado B, et al. Long-
- term training induces a healthy inflammatory and endocrine emergent
- biomarker profile in elderly men. *Age (Dordr)* 2012;**34**:761-71.
- 1595 119. Frodermann V, Rohde D, Courties G, et al. Exercise reduces inflammatory cell
- production and cardiovascular inflammation via instruction of hematopoietic
- progenitor cells. *Nat Med* 2019;**25**:1761-71.
- 1598 120. Nieman DC. Exercise immunology: Practical applications. Int J Sports Med
- 1599 1997;**18 Suppl 1**:S91-100.

- 1600 121. Oh S, Chun S, Hwang S, et al. Vitamin d and exercise are major determinants
- of natural killer cell activity, which is age- and gender-specific. Front Immunol
- 1602 2021;**12**:594356.
- 1603 122. Simpson RJ, Kunz H, Agha N, Graff R. Exercise and the regulation of immune
- 1604 functions. *Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci* 2015;**135**:355-80.
- 1605 123. Moro-Garcia MA, Fernandez-Garcia B, Echeverria A, et al. Frequent
- participation in high volume exercise throughout life is associated with a more
- differentiated adaptive immune response. *Brain Behav Immun* 2014;**39**:61-74.
- 1608 124. Bartlett DB, Fox O, McNulty CL, et al. Habitual physical activity is associated
- with the maintenance of neutrophil migratory dynamics in healthy older adults.
- 1610 *Brain Behav Immun* 2016;**56**:12-20.
- 1611 125. Gleeson M, Bishop NC, Stensel DJ, Lindley MR, Mastana SS, Nimmo MA.
- The anti-inflammatory effects of exercise: Mechanisms and implications for the
- prevention and treatment of disease. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2011;**11**:607-15.
- 1614 126. Ulven SM, Foss SS, Skjolsvik AM, et al. An acute bout of exercise modulate
- the inflammatory response in peripheral blood mononuclear cells in healthy
- young men. *Arch Physiol Biochem* 2015;**121**:41-9.
- 1617 127. Visvikis-Siest S, Marteau JB, Samara A, Berrahmoune H, Marie B, Pfister M.
- Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (pbmcs): A possible model for studying
- cardiovascular biology systems. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 2007;**45**:1154-68.
- 1620 128. Liuzzo G, Angiolillo DJ, Buffon A, et al. Enhanced response of blood
- monocytes to in vitro lipopolysaccharide-challenge in patients with recurrent
- 1622 unstable angina. *Circulation* 2001;**103**:2236-41.
- 1623 129. Hou W, Gibbs JS, Lu X, et al. Viral infection triggers rapid differentiation of
- human blood monocytes into dendritic cells. *Blood* 2012;**119**:3128-31.

- 1625 130. Minuzzi LG, Rama L, Bishop NC, et al. Lifelong training improves anti-
- inflammatory environment and maintains the number of regulatory t cells in
- 1627 masters athletes. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 2017;**117**:1131-40.
- 1628 131. Minuzzi LG, Chupel MU, Rama L, et al. Lifelong exercise practice and
- immunosenescence: Master athletes cytokine response to acute exercise.
- 1630 *Cytokine* 2019;**115**:1-7.
- 1631 132. Woods JA, Keylock KT, Lowder T, et al. Cardiovascular exercise training
- extends influenza vaccine seroprotection in sedentary older adults: The immune
- function intervention trial. J Am Geriatr Soc 2009;57:2183-91.
- 1634 133. Kohut ML, Arntson BA, Lee W, et al. Moderate exercise improves antibody
- response to influenza immunization in older adults. *Vaccine* 2004;**22**:2298-306.
- 1636 134. Leitzmann M, Powers H, Anderson AS, et al. European code against cancer 4th
- edition: Physical activity and cancer. Cancer Epidemiol 2015;39 Suppl 1:S46-
- 1638 55.
- 1639 135. Papadimitriou N, Dimou N, Tsilidis KK, et al. Physical activity and risks of
- breast and colorectal cancer: A mendelian randomisation analysis. *Nat Commun*
- 1641 2020;**11**:597.
- 1642 136. Zhang X, Theodoratou E, Li X, et al. Genetically predicted physical activity
- levels are associated with lower colorectal cancer risk: A mendelian
- randomisation study. *Br J Cancer* 2021;**124**:1330-8.
- 1645 137. Pedersen L, Idorn M, Olofsson GH, et al. Voluntary running suppresses tumor
- growth through epinephrine- and il-6-dependent nk cell mobilization and
- 1647 redistribution. *Cell Metab* 2016;**23**:554-62.
- 1648 138. Bigley AB, Rezvani K, Chew C, et al. Acute exercise preferentially redeploys
- nk-cells with a highly-differentiated phenotype and augments cytotoxicity

- against lymphoma and multiple myeloma target cells. Brain Behav Immun
- 1651 2014;**39**:160-71.
- 1652 139. Childs BG, Baker DJ, Kirkland JL, Campisi J, van Deursen JM. Senescence and
- apoptosis: Dueling or complementary cell fates? *EMBO Rep* 2014;**15**:1139-53.
- 1654 140. Werner C, Furster T, Widmann T, et al. Physical exercise prevents cellular
- senescence in circulating leukocytes and in the vessel wall. Circulation
- 1656 2009;**120**:2438-47.
- 1657 141. Werner C, Hanhoun M, Widmann T, et al. Effects of physical exercise on
- myocardial telomere-regulating proteins, survival pathways, and apoptosis. J
- 1659 *Am Coll Cardiol* 2008;**52**:470-82.
- 1660 142. Liu Y, Sanoff HK, Cho H, et al. Expression of p16(ink4a) in peripheral blood t-
- 1661 cells is a biomarker of human aging. *Aging Cell* 2009;**8**:439-48.
- 1662 143. Yoon KJ, Ahn A, Park SH, et al. Exercise reduces metabolic burden while
- altering the immune system in aged mice. Aging (Albany NY) 2021;13:1294-
- 1664 313.
- 1665 144. Huang CC, Chiang WD, Huang WC, Huang CY, Hsu MC, Lin WT.
- Hepatoprotective effects of swimming exercise against d-galactose-induced
- senescence rat model. Evid Based Complement Alternat Med
- 1668 2013;**2013**:275431.
- 1669 145. Saito Y, Chikenji TS, Matsumura T, Nakano M, Fujimiya M. Exercise enhances
- skeletal muscle regeneration by promoting senescence in fibro-adipogenic
- progenitors. *Nat Commun* 2020;**11**:889.
- 1672 146. Qiu Y, Pan X, Chen Y, Xiao J. Hallmarks of exercised heart. J Mol Cell Cardiol
- 1673 2022;**164**:126-35.
- 1674 147. Otaka N, Shibata R, Ohashi K, et al. Myonectin is an exercise-induced myokine

- that protects the heart from ischemia-reperfusion injury. Circ Res
- 1676 2018;**123**:1326-38.
- 1677 148. Hou Z, Qin X, Hu Y, et al. Longterm exercise-derived exosomal mir-342-5p: A
- novel exerkine for cardioprotection. *Circ Res* 2019;**124**:1386-400.
- 1679 149. Gao R, Wang L, Bei Y, et al. Lncrna cphar induces cardiac physiological
- hypertrophy and promotes functional recovery after myocardial ischemia-
- reperfusion injury. *Circulation* 2021.
- 1682 150. He YY, Wang L, Zhang T, Weng SJ, Lu J, Zhong YM. Aerobic exercise delays
- retinal ganglion cell death after optic nerve injury. Exp Eye Res
- 1684 2020;**200**:108240.
- 1685 151. Dikic I, Elazar Z. Mechanism and medical implications of mammalian
- 1686 autophagy. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 2018;**19**:349-64.
- 1687 152. Cao W, Li J, Yang K, Cao D. An overview of autophagy: Mechanism, regulation
- and research progress. Bull Cancer 2021;108:304-22.
- 1689 153. Palikaras K, Lionaki E, Tavernarakis N. Mechanisms of mitophagy in cellular
- homeostasis, physiology and pathology. *Nat Cell Biol* 2018;**20**:1013-22.
- 1691 154. Onishi M, Yamano K, Sato M, Matsuda N, Okamoto K. Molecular mechanisms
- and physiological functions of mitophagy. *EMBO J* 2021;**40**:e104705.
- 1693 155. Wang L, Wang J, Cretoiu D, Li G, Xiao J. Exercise-mediated regulation of
- autophagy in the cardiovascular system. *J Sport Health Sci* 2020;**9**:203-10.
- 1695 156. Grumati P, Coletto L, Schiavinato A, et al. Physical exercise stimulates
- autophagy in normal skeletal muscles but is detrimental for collagen vi-
- deficient muscles. *Autophagy* 2011;7:1415-23.
- 1698 157. Lira VA, Okutsu M, Zhang M, et al. Autophagy is required for exercise training-
- induced skeletal muscle adaptation and improvement of physical performance.

- 1700 *FASEB J* 2013;**27**:4184-93.
- 1701 158. Codina-Martinez H, Fernandez-Garcia B, Diez-Planelles C, et al. Autophagy is
- required for performance adaptive response to resistance training and exercise-
- induced adult neurogenesis. Scand J Med Sci Sports 2020;**30**:238-53.
- 1704 159. Park SS, Seo YK, Kwon KS. Sarcopenia targeting with autophagy mechanism
- 1705 by exercise. *BMB Rep* 2019;**52**:64-9.
- 1706 160. Escobar KA, Cole NH, Mermier CM, VanDusseldorp TA. Autophagy and aging:
- Maintaining the proteome through exercise and caloric restriction. *Aging Cell*
- 1708 2019;**18**:e12876.
- 1709 161. Campos JC, Queliconi BB, Bozi LHM, et al. Exercise reestablishes autophagic
- 1710 flux and mitochondrial quality control in heart failure. Autophagy
- 1711 2017;**13**:1304-17.
- 1712 162. Halling JF, Pilegaard H. Autophagy-dependent beneficial effects of exercise.
- 1713 *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med* 2017;**7**.
- 1714 163. He C, Bassik MC, Moresi V, et al. Exercise-induced bcl2-regulated autophagy
- is required for muscle glucose homeostasis. *Nature* 2012;**481**:511-5.
- 1716 164. He C, Sumpter R, Jr., Levine B. Exercise induces autophagy in peripheral
- 1717 tissues and in the brain. *Autophagy* 2012;**8**:1548-51.
- 1718 165. Liu H, Lei H, Shi Y, et al. Autophagy inhibitor 3-methyladenine alleviates
- overload-exercise-induced cardiac injury in rats. Acta Pharmacol Sin
- 1720 2017;**38**:990-7.
- 1721 166. Zhao N, Xia J, Xu B. Physical exercise may exert its therapeutic influence on
- alzheimer's disease through the reversal of mitochondrial dysfunction via sirt1-
- foxo1/3-pink1-parkin-mediated mitophagy. J Sport Health Sci 2021;10:1-3.
- 1724 167. Zhang Y, Liao B, Hu S, et al. High intensity interval training induces

- dysregulation of mitochondrial respiratory complex and mitophagy in the
- hippocampus of middle-aged mice. Behav Brain Res 2021;412:113384.
- 1727 168. Ovens AJ, Scott JW, Langendorf CG, Kemp BE, Oakhill JS, Smiles WJ. Post-
- translational modifications of the energy guardian amp-activated protein kinase.
- 1729 *Int J Mol Sci* 2021;**22**.
- 1730 169. Evans M, Cogan KE, Egan B. Metabolism of ketone bodies during exercise and
- training: Physiological basis for exogenous supplementation. J Physiol
- 1732 2017;**595**:2857-71.
- 1733 170. Zhou Q, Deng J, Yao J, et al. Exercise downregulates hipk2 and hipk2 inhibition
- protects against myocardial infarction. *EBioMedicine* 2021;**74**:103713.
- 1735 171. Wu X, Wang L, Wang K, et al. Adar2 increases in exercised heart and protects
- against myocardial infarction and doxorubicin-induced cardiotoxicity. *Mol Ther*
- 1737 2021.
- 1738 172. Bei Y, Lu D, Bar C, et al. Mir-486 attenuates cardiac ischemia/reperfusion injury
- and mediates the beneficial effect of exercise for myocardial protection. *Mol*
- 1740 *Ther* 2022.
- 1741 173. Xu M, Jiang H, Xiao J. Exercise protects sympathetic stress-induced myocardial
- fibrosis by regulating cytokines. *J Cardiovasc Transl Res* 2020;**13**:570-1.
- 1743 174. Fernandez-Sanjurjo M, de Gonzalo-Calvo D, Fernandez-Garcia B, et al.
- 1744 Circulating microrna as emerging biomarkers of exercise. Exerc Sport Sci Rev
- 1745 2018;**46**:160-71.
- 1746 175. Fernandez-Sanjurjo M, Diaz-Martinez AE, Diez-Robles S, et al. Circulating
- microrna profiling reveals specific subsignatures in response to a maximal
- incremental exercise test. J Strength Cond Res 2021;35:287-91.
- 1749 176. Wu G, Zhang X, Gao F. The epigenetic landscape of exercise in cardiac health

- and disease. *J Sport Health Sci* 2021;**10**:648-59.
- 1751 177. Urdinguio RG, Tejedor JR, Fernandez-Sanjurjo M, et al. Physical exercise
- shapes the mouse brain epigenome. *Mol Metab* 2021;**54**:101398.
- 1753 178. Cuevas-Ramos D, Almeda-Valdes P, Meza-Arana CE, et al. Exercise increases
- serum fibroblast growth factor 21 (fgf21) levels. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e38022.
- 1755 179. Kim KH, Kim SH, Min YK, Yang HM, Lee JB, Lee MS. Acute exercise induces
- 1756 fgf21 expression in mice and in healthy humans. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**:e63517.
- 1757 180. Hansen JS, Clemmesen JO, Secher NH, et al. Glucagon-to-insulin ratio is
- pivotal for splanchnic regulation of fgf-21 in humans. *Mol Metab* 2015;**4**:551-
- 1759 60.
- 1760 181. Hansen JS, Pedersen BK, Xu G, Lehmann R, Weigert C, Plomgaard P. Exercise-
- induced secretion of fgf21 and follistatin are blocked by pancreatic clamp and
- impaired in type 2 diabetes. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2016;**101**:2816-25.
- 1763 182. Slusher AL, Whitehurst M, Zoeller RF, Mock JT, Maharaj M, Huang CJ.
- Attenuated fibroblast growth factor 21 response to acute aerobic exercise in
- obese individuals. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis* 2015;**25**:839-45.
- 1766 183. Gorgens SW, Eckardt K, Jensen J, Drevon CA, Eckel J. Exercise and regulation
- of adipokine and myokine production. *Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci* 2015;**135**:313-
- 1768 36.
- 1769 184. Stanford KI, Middelbeek RJ, Goodyear LJ. Erratum. Exercise effects on white
- adipose tissue: Beiging and metabolic adaptations. Diabetes 2015;64:2361-
- 1771 2368. *Diabetes* 2015;**64**:3334.
- 1772 185. Thompson D, Karpe F, Lafontan M, Frayn K. Physical activity and exercise in
- the regulation of human adipose tissue physiology. *Physiol Rev* 2012;**92**:157-
- 1774 91.

- 1775 186. Geng L, Liao B, Jin L, et al. Exercise alleviates obesity-induced metabolic
- dysfunction via enhancing fgf21 sensitivity in adipose tissues. Cell Rep
- 1777 2019;**26**:2738-52 e4.
- 1778 187. Zhang H, Fealy CE, Kirwan JP. Exercise training promotes a gdf15-associated
- 1779 reduction in fat mass in older adults with obesity. Am J Physiol Endocrinol
- 1780 *Metab* 2019;**316**:E829-E36.
- 1781 188. Campderros L, Sanchez-Infantes D, Villarroya J, et al. Altered gdf15 and fgf21
- levels in response to strenuous exercise: A study in marathon runners. *Front*
- 1783 *Physiol* 2020;**11**:550102.
- 1784 189. Kleinert M, Clemmensen C, Sjoberg KA, et al. Exercise increases circulating
- 1785 gdf15 in humans. *Mol Metab* 2018;**9**:187-91.
- 1786 190. Conte M, Martucci M, Mosconi G, et al. Gdf15 plasma level is inversely
- associated with level of physical activity and correlates with markers of
- inflammation and muscle weakness. Front Immunol 2020;11:915.
- 1789 191. Klein AB, Nicolaisen TS, Ortenblad N, et al. Pharmacological but not
- physiological gdf15 suppresses feeding and the motivation to exercise. *Nat*
- 1791 *Commun* 2021;**12**:1041.
- 1792 192. Searls YM, Smirnova IV, Fegley BR, Stehno-Bittel L. Exercise attenuates
- diabetes-induced ultrastructural changes in rat cardiac tissue. Med Sci Sports
- 1794 Exerc 2004;**36**:1863-70.
- 1795 193. Ding YH, Li J, Zhou Y, Rafols JA, Clark JC, Ding Y. Cerebral angiogenesis and
- expression of angiogenic factors in aging rats after exercise. Curr Neurovasc
- 1797 *Res* 2006;**3**:15-23.
- 1798 194. Morland C, Andersson KA, Haugen OP, et al. Exercise induces cerebral vegf
- and angiogenesis via the lactate receptor hear1. *Nat Commun* 2017;**8**:15557.

- 1800 195. Archer AE, Von Schulze AT, Geiger PC. Exercise, heat shock proteins and
- insulin resistance. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 2018;**373**.
- 1802 196. Rosenzweig R, Nillegoda NB, Mayer MP, Bukau B. The hsp70 chaperone
- 1803 network. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 2019;**20**:665-80.
- 1804 197. Henstridge DC, Febbraio MA, Hargreaves M. Heat shock proteins and exercise
- adaptations. Our knowledge thus far and the road still ahead. J Appl Physiol
- 1806 *(1985)* 2016;**120**:683-91.
- 1807 198. Chung J, Nguyen AK, Henstridge DC, et al. Hsp72 protects against obesity-
- induced insulin resistance. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2008;**105**:1739-44.
- 1809 199. Gupte AA, Bomhoff GL, Morris JK, Gorres BK, Geiger PC. Lipoic acid
- increases heat shock protein expression and inhibits stress kinase activation to
- improve insulin signaling in skeletal muscle from high-fat-fed rats. J Appl
- 1812 *Physiol (1985)* 2009;**106**:1425-34.
- 1813 200. Henstridge DC, Bruce CR, Drew BG, et al. Activating hsp72 in rodent skeletal
- muscle increases mitochondrial number and oxidative capacity and decreases
- 1815 insulin resistance. *Diabetes* 2014;**63**:1881-94.
- 1816 201. Celik O, Yildiz BO. Obesity and physical exercise. *Minerva Endocrinol (Torino)*
- 1817 2021;**46**:131-44.
- 1818 202. Wang YL, Lin CH, Chen CC, et al. Exercise preconditioning attenuates
- neurological injury by preserving old and newly formed hsp72-containing
- neurons in focal brain ischemia rats. *Int J Med Sci* 2019;**16**:675-85.
- 1821 203. McGee SL, Hargreaves M. Exercise adaptations: Molecular mechanisms and
- potential targets for therapeutic benefit. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 2020;**16**:495-505.
- 1823 204. Dalton A, Mermier C, Zuhl M. Exercise influence on the microbiome-gut-brain
- 1824 axis. Gut Microbes 2019;**10**:555-68.

- 1825 205. Zhao H, Chen X, Hu G, et al. Small extracellular vesicles from brown adipose
- tissue mediate exercise cardioprotection. *Circ Res* 2022;**130**:1490-506.
- 1827 206. Allen JM, Mailing LJ, Niemiro GM, et al. Exercise alters gut microbiota
- 1828 composition and function in lean and obese humans. Med Sci Sports Exerc
- 1829 2018;**50**:747-57.
- 1830 207. Gomaa EZ. Human gut microbiota/microbiome in health and diseases: A review.
- 1831 *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* 2020;**113**:2019-40.
- 1832 208. Wosinska L, Walsh CJ, O'Connor PM, et al. In vitro and in silico based
- approaches to identify potential novel bacteriocins from the athlete gut
- microbiome of an elite athlete cohort. *Microorganisms* 2022;**10**.
- 1835 209. Fernandez J, Fernandez-Sanjurjo M, Iglesias-Gutierrez E, et al. Resistance and
- 1836 endurance exercise training induce differential changes in gut microbiota
- composition in murine models. Front Physiol 2021;12:748854.
- 1838 210. Allen JM, Berg Miller ME, Pence BD, et al. Voluntary and forced exercise
- differentially alters the gut microbiome in c57bl/6j mice. J Appl Physiol (1985)
- 1840 2015;**118**:1059-66.
- 1841 211. Choi JJ, Eum SY, Rampersaud E, Daunert S, Abreu MT, Toborek M. Exercise
- attenuates pcb-induced changes in the mouse gut microbiome. *Environ Health*
- 1843 *Perspect* 2013;**121**:725-30.
- 1844 212. Kang SS, Jeraldo PR, Kurti A, et al. Diet and exercise orthogonally alter the gut
- microbiome and reveal independent associations with anxiety and cognition.
- 1846 *Mol Neurodegener* 2014;**9**:36.
- 1847 213. Clarke SF, Murphy EF, O'Sullivan O, et al. Exercise and associated dietary
- extremes impact on gut microbial diversity. *Gut* 2014;**63**:1913-20.
- 1849 214. Hsu YJ, Chiu CC, Li YP, et al. Effect of intestinal microbiota on exercise

- performance in mice. J Strength Cond Res 2015;29:552-8.
- 1851 215. Monda V, Villano I, Messina A, et al. Exercise modifies the gut microbiota with
- positive health effects. Oxid Med Cell Longev 2017;**2017**:3831972.
- 1853 216. Erny D, Hrabe de Angelis AL, Jaitin D, et al. Host microbiota constantly control
- maturation and function of microglia in the cns. *Nat Neurosci* 2015;**18**:965-77.
- 1855 217. Mancilla R, Krook A, Schrauwen P, Hesselink MKC. Diurnal regulation of
- peripheral glucose metabolism: Potential effects of exercise timing. *Obesity*
- 1857 (Silver Spring) 2020;**28 Suppl 1**:S38-S45.
- 1858 218. Dyar KA, Ciciliot S, Wright LE, et al. Muscle insulin sensitivity and glucose
- metabolism are controlled by the intrinsic muscle clock. *Mol Metab* 2014;**3**:29-
- 1860 41.
- 1861 219. Vetter C, Dashti HS, Lane JM, et al. Night shift work, genetic risk, and type 2
- diabetes in the uk biobank. *Diabetes Care* 2018;**41**:762-9.
- 1863 220. Bescos R, Boden MJ, Jackson ML, et al. Four days of simulated shift work
- reduces insulin sensitivity in humans. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)* 2018;**223**:e13039.
- 1865 221. Gabriel BM, Zierath JR. Circadian rhythms and exercise re-setting the clock
- in metabolic disease. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 2019;**15**:197-206.
- 1867 222. Tahara Y, Aoyama S, Shibata S. The mammalian circadian clock and its
- entrainment by stress and exercise. *J Physiol Sci* 2017;**67**:1-10.
- 1869 223. Youngstedt SD, Elliott JA, Kripke DF. Human circadian phase-response curves
- 1870 for exercise. *J Physiol* 2019;**597**:2253-68.
- 1871 224. Wolff G, Esser KA. Scheduled exercise phase shifts the circadian clock in
- skeletal muscle. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2012;**44**:1663-70.
- 1873 225. Choi Y, Cho J, No MH, et al. Re-setting the circadian clock using exercise
- against sarcopenia. *Int J Mol Sci* 2020;**21**.

- 1875 226. Facer-Childs E, Brandstaetter R. The impact of circadian phenotype and time
- since awakening on diurnal performance in athletes. *Curr Biol* 2015;**25**:518-22.
- 1877 227. Facer-Childs E, Brandstaetter R. Circadian phenotype composition is a major
- predictor of diurnal physical performance in teams. Front Neurol 2015;**6**:208.
- 1879 228. Maier G, Delezie J, Westermark PO, Santos G, Ritz D, Handschin C.
- 1880 Transcriptomic, proteomic and phosphoproteomic underpinnings of daily
- 1881 exercise performance and zeitgeber activity of training in mouse muscle. J
- 1882 *Physiol* 2022;**600**:769-96.
- 1883 229. Scheiermann C, Gibbs J, Ince L, Loudon A. Clocking in to immunity. Nat Rev
- 1884 *Immunol* 2018;**18**:423-37.
- 1885 230. Nobis CC, Dubeau Laramee G, Kervezee L, Maurice De Sousa D, Labrecque
- N, Cermakian N. The circadian clock of cd8 t cells modulates their early
- response to vaccination and the rhythmicity of related signaling pathways. *Proc*
- 1888 *Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2019;**116**:20077-86.
- 1889 231. de Souza Teixeira AA, Lira FS, Rosa-Neto JC. Aging with rhythmicity. Is it
- possible? Physical exercise as a pacemaker. *Life Sci* 2020;**261**:118453.
- 1891 232. Minuzzi LG, Rama L, Chupel MU, et al. Effects of lifelong training on
- senescence and mobilization of t lymphocytes in response to acute exercise.
- 1893 *Exerc Immunol Rev* 2018;**24**:72-84.
- 1894 233. Lavin KM, Perkins RK, Jemiolo B, Raue U, Trappe SW, Trappe TA. Effects of
- aging and lifelong aerobic exercise on basal and exercise-induced inflammation.
- 1896 *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 2020;**128**:87-99.
- 1897 234. de Souza Teixeira AA, Minuzzi LG, Lira FS, et al. Improvement in the anti-
- inflammatory profile with lifelong physical exercise is related to clock genes
- expression in effector-memory cd4+ t cells in master athletes. *Exerc Immunol*

- 1900 *Rev* 2021;**27**:67-83.
- 1901 235. Rutter M. Implications of resilience concepts for scientific understanding. Ann
- 1902 *N Y Acad Sci* 2006;**1094**:1-12.
- 1903 236. McEwen BS. Physiology and neurobiology of stress and adaptation: Central
- 1904 role of the brain. *Physiol Rev* 2007;**87**:873-904.
- 1905 237. Deslandes A, Moraes H, Ferreira C, et al. Exercise and mental health: Many
- reasons to move. *Neuropsychobiology* 2009;**59**:191-8.
- 1907 238. Lee CB, Baek SS. Impact of exercise on hippocampal neurogenesis in
- hyperglycemic diabetes. *J Exerc Rehabil* 2020;**16**:115-7.
- 1909 239. Voss MW, Soto C, Yoo S, Sodoma M, Vivar C, van Praag H. Exercise and
- hippocampal memory systems. *Trends Cogn Sci* 2019;**23**:318-33.
- 1911 240. Teixeira AL, Fernandes IA, Vianna LC. Cardiovascular control during exercise:
- The connectivity of skeletal muscle afferents to the brain. Exerc Sport Sci Rev
- 1913 2020;**48**:83-91.
- 1914 241. Mahalakshmi B, Maurya N, Lee SD, Bharath Kumar V. Possible
- 1915 neuroprotective mechanisms of physical exercise in neurodegeneration. *Int J*
- 1916 *Mol Sci* 2020;**21**.
- 1917 242. Oosterwijck JV, Marusic U, De Wandele I, et al. The role of autonomic function
- in exercise-induced endogenous analgesia: A case-control study in myalgic
- 1919 encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome and healthy people. Pain
- 1920 *Physician* 2017;**20**:E389-E99.
- 1921 243. Xu X, Fu Z, Le W. Exercise and parkinson's disease. Int Rev Neurobiol
- 1922 2019;**147**:45-74.
- 1923 244. van Praag H, Christie BR, Sejnowski TJ, Gage FH. Running enhances
- neurogenesis, learning, and long-term potentiation in mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*

- 1925 *USA* 1999;**96**:13427-31.
- 1926 245. Berg DA, Belnoue L, Song H, Simon A. Neurotransmitter-mediated control of
- neurogenesis in the adult vertebrate brain. *Development* 2013;**140**:2548-61.
- 1928 246. Vilar M, Mira H. Regulation of neurogenesis by neurotrophins during adulthood:
- Expected and unexpected roles. *Front Neurosci* 2016;**10**:26.
- 1930 247. Bouchard-Cannon P, Lowden C, Trinh D, Cheng HM. Dexras1 is a homeostatic
- regulator of exercise-dependent proliferation and cell survival in the
- hippocampal neurogenic niche. Sci Rep 2018;8:5294.
- 1933 248. Amstadter AB, Myers JM, Kendler KS. Psychiatric resilience: Longitudinal
- 1934 twin study. *Br J Psychiatry* 2014;**205**:275-80.
- 1935 249. Boardman JD, Blalock CL, Button TM. Sex differences in the heritability of
- 1936 resilience. *Twin Res Hum Genet* 2008;**11**:12-27.
- 1937 250. Waaktaar T, Torgersen S. Genetic and environmental causes of variation in trait
- resilience in young people. *Behav Genet* 2012;**42**:366-77.
- 1939 251. Aizawa S, Ishitobi Y, Masuda K, et al. Genetic association of the transcription
- of neuroplasticity-related genes and variation in stress-coping style. Brain
- 1941 *Behav* 2015;**5**:e00360.
- 1942 252. Notaras M, van den Buuse M. Neurobiology of bdnf in fear memory, sensitivity
- to stress, and stress-related disorders. *Mol Psychiatry* 2020;**25**:2251-74.
- 1944 253. Liu T, Canon MD, Shen L, et al. The influence of the bdnf val66met
- polymorphism on the association of regular physical activity with cognition
- among individuals with diabetes. *Biol Res Nurs* 2021;**23**:318-30.
- 1947 254. Stubbe JH, Boomsma DI, Vink JM, et al. Genetic influences on exercise
- participation in 37,051 twin pairs from seven countries. *PLoS One* 2006;**1**:e22.
- 1949 255. Kujala UM, Kaprio J, Koskenvuo M. Modifiable risk factors as predictors of

- all-cause mortality: The roles of genetics and childhood environment. Am J
- 1951 *Epidemiol* 2002;**156**:985-93.
- 1952 256. Waller K, Kujala UM, Rantanen T, et al. Physical activity, morbidity and
- 1953 mortality in twins: A 24-year prospective follow-up. Eur J Epidemiol
- 1954 2010;**25**:731-9.
- 1955 257. Ballin M, Nordstrom A, Nordstrom P. Cardiovascular disease and all-cause
- mortality in male twins with discordant cardiorespiratory fitness: A nationwide
- 1957 cohort study. *Am J Epidemiol* 2020;**189**:1114-23.
- 1958 258. Silva HH, Silva MG, Cerqueira F, Tavares V, Medeiros R. Genomic profile in
- association with sport-type, sex, ethnicity, psychological traits and sport injuries
- of elite athletes. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 2022;**62**:418-34.
- 1961 259. Eliakim A. Endocrine response to exercise and training-closing the gaps.
- 1962 *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2016;**28**:226-32.
- 1963 260. Ben-Zaken S, Meckel Y, Nemet D, Kassem E, Eliakim A. The combined
- frequencies of the il-6 g-174c and igfbp3 a-202c polymorphisms among
- swimmers and runners. *Growth Horm IGF Res* 2020;**51**:17-21.
- 1966 261. Palles C, Johnson N, Coupland B, et al. Identification of genetic variants that
- influence circulating igf1 levels: A targeted search strategy. Hum Mol Genet
- 1968 2008;**17**:1457-64.
- 1969 262. Meisinger C, Linseisen J, Leitzmann M, Baurecht H, Baumeister SE.
- 1970 Association of physical activity and sedentary behavior with type 2 diabetes and
- 1971 glycemic traits: A two-sample mendelian randomization study. BMJ Open
- 1972 *Diabetes Res Care* 2020;**8**.
- 1973 263. Bahls M, Leitzmann MF, Karch A, et al. Physical activity, sedentary behavior
- and risk of coronary artery disease, myocardial infarction and ischemic stroke:

- 1975 A two-sample mendelian randomization study. Clin Res Cardiol
- 1976 2021;**110**:1564-73.
- 1977 264. Murphy RM, Watt MJ, Febbraio MA. Metabolic communication during
- 1978 exercise. *Nat Metab* 2020;**2**:805-16.
- 1979 265. Moghetti P, Bacchi E, Brangani C, Dona S, Negri C. Metabolic effects of
- 1980 exercise. Front Horm Res 2016;**47**:44-57.
- 1981 266. Hackney AC, Lane AR. Exercise and the regulation of endocrine hormones.
- 1982 *Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci* 2015;**135**:293-311.
- 1983 267. Kraemer WJ, Ratamess NA, Hymer WC, Nindl BC, Fragala MS. Growth
- hormone(s), testosterone, insulin-like growth factors, and cortisol: Roles and
- integration for cellular development and growth with exercise. Front
- 1986 *Endocrinol (Lausanne)* 2020;**11**:33.
- 1987 268. Yaribeygi H, Atkin SL, Simental-Mendia LE, Sahebkar A. Molecular
- mechanisms by which aerobic exercise induces insulin sensitivity. J Cell
- 1989 *Physiol* 2019;**234**:12385-92.
- 1990 269. Hamasaki H. Interval exercise therapy for type 2 diabetes. Curr Diabetes Rev
- 1991 2018;**14**:129-37.
- 1992 270. Hackney AC, Davis HC, Lane AR. Growth hormone-insulin-like growth factor
- axis, thyroid axis, prolactin, and exercise. Front Horm Res 2016;47:1-11.
- 1994 271. Janssen JA. Impact of physical exercise on endocrine aging. Front Horm Res
- 1995 2016;**47**:68-81.
- 1996 272. Nieman DC, Pence BD. Exercise immunology: Future directions. J Sport
- 1997 *Health Sci* 2020;**9**:432-45.
- 1998 273. Petersen AM, Pedersen BK. The anti-inflammatory effect of exercise. J Appl
- 1999 *Physiol (1985)* 2005;**98**:1154-62.

- 2000 274. Campbell JP, Turner JE. Debunking the myth of exercise-induced immune
- suppression: Redefining the impact of exercise on immunological health across
- the lifespan. Front Immunol 2018;9:648.
- 2003 275. Weyh C, Kruger K, Strasser B. Physical activity and diet shape the immune
- system during aging. *Nutrients* 2020;**12**.
- 2005 276. Rinninella E, Raoul P, Cintoni M, et al. What is the healthy gut microbiota
- 2006 composition? A changing ecosystem across age, environment, diet, and diseases.
- 2007 *Microorganisms* 2019;**7**.
- 2008 277. Mackie RI, Sghir A, Gaskins HR. Developmental microbial ecology of the
- 2009 neonatal gastrointestinal tract. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1999;**69**:1035S-45S.
- 2010 278. Clauss M, Gerard P, Mosca A, Leclerc M. Interplay between exercise and gut
- 2011 microbiome in the context of human health and performance. Front Nutr
- 2012 2021;**8**:637010.
- 2013 279. Bai J, Hu Y, Bruner DW. Composition of gut microbiota and its association with
- body mass index and lifestyle factors in a cohort of 7-18 years old children from
- 2015 the american gut project. *Pediatr Obes* 2019;**14**:e12480.
- 2016 280. Nicholson JK, Holmes E, Kinross J, et al. Host-gut microbiota metabolic
- 2017 interactions. *Science* 2012;**336**:1262-7.
- 2018 281. Zhou Q, Deng J, Pan X, et al. Gut microbiome mediates the protective effects
- of exercise after myocardial infarction. *Microbiome* 2022;**10**:82.
- 2020 282. Pardon MC. Hormesis is applicable as a pro-healthy aging intervention in
- 2021 mammals and human beings. *Dose Response* 2009;**8**:22-7.
- 2022 283. Merry TL, Ristow M. Mitohormesis in exercise training. Free Radic Biol Med
- 2023 2016;**98**:123-30.
- 2024 284. Ristow M, Zarse K. How increased oxidative stress promotes longevity and

- 2025 metabolic health: The concept of mitochondrial hormesis (mitohormesis). *Exp*
- 2026 *Gerontol* 2010;**45**:410-8.
- 2027 285. Gomez-Cabrera MC, Salvador-Pascual A, Cabo H, Ferrando B, Vina J. Redox
- 2028 modulation of mitochondriogenesis in exercise. Does antioxidant
- supplementation blunt the benefits of exercise training? Free Radic Biol Med
- 2030 2015;**86**:37-46.
- 2031 286. Kasai S, Shimizu S, Tatara Y, Mimura J, Itoh K. Regulation of nrf2 by
- 2032 mitochondrial reactive oxygen species in physiology and pathology.
- 2033 *Biomolecules* 2020;**10**.
- 2034 287. Kang GM, Min SH, Lee CH, et al. Mitohormesis in hypothalamic pomc neurons
- 2035 mediates regular exercise-induced high-turnover metabolism. Cell Metab
- 2036 2021;**33**:334-49 e6.
- 2037 288. Kennedy BK, Berger SL, Brunet A, et al. Geroscience: Linking aging to chronic
- 2038 disease. *Cell* 2014;**159**:709-13.
- 2039 289. Sarzynski MA, Ghosh S, Bouchard C. Genomic and transcriptomic predictors
- of response levels to endurance exercise training. *J Physiol* 2017;**595**:2931-9.
- 2041 290. Gremeaux V, Gayda M, Lepers R, Sosner P, Juneau M, Nigam A. Exercise and
- 2042 longevity. *Maturitas* 2012;**73**:312-7.
- 2043 291. Garatachea N, Pareja-Galeano H, Sanchis-Gomar F, et al. Exercise attenuates
- the major hallmarks of aging. *Rejuvenation Res* 2015;**18**:57-89.
- 2045 292. Lehnig AC, Stanford KI. Exercise-induced adaptations to white and brown
- 2046 adipose tissue. *J Exp Biol* 2018;**221**.
- 2047 293. Stanford KI, Middelbeek RJ, Townsend KL, et al. A novel role for subcutaneous
- adipose tissue in exercise-induced improvements in glucose homeostasis.
- 2049 *Diabetes* 2015;**64**:2002-14.

- 2050 294. Stanford KI, Middelbeek RJ, Goodyear LJ. Exercise effects on white adipose
- 2051 tissue: Beiging and metabolic adaptations. *Diabetes* 2015;**64**:2361-8.
- 2052 295. Guan Y, Yan Z. Molecular mechanisms of exercise and healthspan. Cells
- 2053 2022;11.
- 2054 296. Moore SC, Patel AV, Matthews CE, et al. Leisure time physical activity of
- 2055 moderate to vigorous intensity and mortality: A large pooled cohort analysis.
- 2056 *PLoS Med* 2012;**9**:e1001335.
- 2057 297. Arem H, Moore SC, Patel A, et al. Leisure time physical activity and mortality:
- A detailed pooled analysis of the dose-response relationship. *JAMA Intern Med*
- 2059 2015;**175**:959-67.
- 2060 298. Carapeto PV, Aguayo-Mazzucato C. Effects of exercise on cellular and tissue
- aging. Aging (Albany NY) 2021;**13**:14522-43.
- 2062 299. Su Y, Wang T, Wu N, et al. Alpha-ketoglutarate extends drosophila lifespan by
- inhibiting mtor and activating ampk. *Aging (Albany NY)* 2019;**11**:4183-97.
- 2064 300. Liu H, Ding J, Kohnlein K, et al. The gid ubiquitin ligase complex is a regulator
- of ampk activity and organismal lifespan. *Autophagy* 2020;**16**:1618-34.
- 2066 301. Viollet B, Lantier L, Devin-Leclerc J, et al. Targeting the ampk pathway for the
- treatment of type 2 diabetes. Front Biosci (Landmark Ed) 2009;14:3380-400.
- 2068 302. Ballin M, Nordstrom P. Does exercise prevent major non-communicable
- diseases and premature mortality? A critical review based on results from
- randomized controlled trials. *J Intern Med* 2021;**290**:1112-29.
- 2071 303. Wu LL, Chiou CC, Chang PY, Wu JT. Urinary 8-ohdg: A marker of oxidative
- stress to DNA and a risk factor for cancer, atherosclerosis and diabetics. Clin
- 2073 *Chim Acta* 2004;**339**:1-9.
- 2074 304. Ayala-Pena S. Role of oxidative DNA damage in mitochondrial dysfunction and

- 2075 huntington's disease pathogenesis. *Free Radic Biol Med* 2013;**62**:102-10.
- 2076 305. Radak Z, Naito H, Kaneko T, et al. Exercise training decreases DNA damage
- and increases DNA repair and resistance against oxidative stress of proteins in
- aged rat skeletal muscle. *Pflugers Arch* 2002;**445**:273-8.
- 2079 306. Schmidt RH, Nickerson JM, Boatright JH. Exercise as gene therapy: Bdnf and
- 2080 DNA damage repair. Asia Pac J Ophthalmol (Phila) 2016;5:309-11.
- 2081 307. Vilela TC, de Andrade VM, Radak Z, de Pinho RA. The role of exercise in brain
- 2082 DNA damage. *Neural Regen Res* 2020;**15**:1981-5.
- 2083 308. Wagner KH, Reichhold S, Neubauer O. Impact of endurance and ultraendurance
- 2084 exercise on DNA damage. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2011;**1229**:115-23.
- 2085 309. Williamson J, Hughes CM, Burke G, Davison GW. A combined gamma-h2ax
- and 53bp1 approach to determine the DNA damage-repair response to exercise
- 2087 in hypoxia. Free Radic Biol Med 2020;**154**:9-17.
- 2088 310. Taylor JP, Hardy J, Fischbeck KH. Toxic proteins in neurodegenerative disease.
- 2089 *Science* 2002;**296**:1991-5.
- 2090 311. Davis AA, Leyns CEG, Holtzman DM. Intercellular spread of protein
- aggregates in neurodegenerative disease. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol 2018;34:545-
- 2092 68.
- 2093 312. Fiuza-Luces C, Garatachea N, Berger NA, Lucia A. Exercise is the real polypill.
- 2094 *Physiology (Bethesda)* 2013;**28**:330-58.
- 2095 313. Musci RV, Hamilton KL, Miller BF. Targeting mitochondrial function and
- proteostasis to mitigate dynapenia. Eur J Appl Physiol 2018;**118**:1-9.
- 2097 314. Bhuiyan MS, Pattison JS, Osinska H, et al. Enhanced autophagy ameliorates
- 2098 cardiac proteinopathy. *J Clin Invest* 2013;**123**:5284-97.
- 2099 315. Liu Q, Chen L, Liang X, et al. Exercise attenuates angiotensin-induced muscle

- 2100 atrophy by targeting ppargamma/mir-29b. J Sport Health Sci 2021.
- 2101 316. Dokladny K, Myers OB, Moseley PL. Heat shock response and autophagy--
- cooperation and control. *Autophagy* 2015;11:200-13.
- 2103 317. Campos JC, Baehr LM, Gomes KMS, et al. Exercise prevents impaired
- 2104 autophagy and proteostasis in a model of neurogenic myopathy. Sci Rep
- 2105 2018;**8**:11818.
- 2106 318. Toth A, Nickson P, Mandl A, Bannister ML, Toth K, Erhardt P. Endoplasmic
- 2107 reticulum stress as a novel therapeutic target in heart diseases. Cardiovasc
- 2108 Hematol Disord Drug Targets 2007;7:205-18.
- 2109 319. Hotamisligil GS. Endoplasmic reticulum stress and the inflammatory basis of
- 2110 metabolic disease. *Cell* 2010;**140**:900-17.
- 2111 320. Bozi LH, Jannig PR, Rolim N, et al. Aerobic exercise training rescues cardiac
- 2112 protein quality control and blunts endoplasmic reticulum stress in heart failure
- 2113 rats. J Cell Mol Med 2016;**20**:2208-12.
- 2114 321. Chang P, Zhang X, Zhang M, et al. Swimming exercise inhibits myocardial er
- stress in the hearts of aged mice by enhancing cgmppkg signaling. *Mol Med Rep*
- 2116 2020;**21**:549-56.
- 2117 322. Khadir A, Kavalakatt S, Abubaker J, et al. Physical exercise alleviates er stress
- in obese humans through reduction in the expression and release of grp78
- 2119 chaperone. *Metabolism* 2016;**65**:1409-20.
- 2120 323. Hong J, Hong SG, Lee J, et al. Exercise training ameliorates cerebrovascular
- 2121 dysfunction in a murine model of alzheimer's disease: Role of the p2y2 receptor
- 2122 and endoplasmic reticulum stress. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol
- 2123 2020;**318**:H1559-H69.
- 2124 324. Jin S, Li L, Ren Z, Li J, Wang R, Ding H. Fam134b-mediated er-phagy

- 2125 alleviates endoplasmic reticulum stress of rat soleus muscle in response to acute
- exercise. Gen Physiol Biophys 2022;41:71-8.
- 2127 325. Wang SF, Chen S, Tseng LM, Lee HC. Role of the mitochondrial stress response
- in human cancer progression. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)* 2020;**245**:861-78.
- 2129 326. Zhang Y, Oliveira AN, Hood DA. The intersection of exercise and aging on
- 2130 mitochondrial protein quality control. Exp Gerontol 2020;131:110824.
- 2131 327. Memme JM, Oliveira AN, Hood DA. Chronology of upr activation in skeletal
- 2132 muscle adaptations to chronic contractile activity. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol
- 2133 2016;**310**:C1024-36.
- 2134 328. Kim KH, Son JM, Benayoun BA, Lee C. The mitochondrial-encoded peptide
- 2135 mots-c translocates to the nucleus to regulate nuclear gene expression in
- 2136 response to metabolic stress. *Cell Metab* 2018;**28**:516-24 e7.
- 2137 329. Woodhead JST, Merry TL. Mitochondrial-derived peptides and exercise.
- 2138 Biochim Biophys Acta Gen Subj 2021;**1865**:130011.
- 2139 330. Rajawat YS, Hilioti Z, Bossis I. Aging: Central role for autophagy and the
- 2140 lysosomal degradative system. *Ageing Res Rev* 2009;**8**:199-213.
- 2141 331. Tassi C, Mancuso F, Gambelunghe C, et al. Beta-n-acetylhexosaminidase
- 2142 activity and isoenzyme profile in the kidney and urine of trained rats.
- 2143 Immunopharmacol Immunotoxicol 2001;**23**:573-83.
- 2144 332. Salminen A, Hongisto K, Vihko V. Lysosomal changes related to exercise
- 2145 injuries and training-induced protection in mouse skeletal muscle. *Acta Physiol*
- 2146 *Scand* 1984;**120**:15-9.
- 2147 333. Guo R, Yu Q, Liong EC, Fung ML, Tipoe GL. Cathepsin-b dependent
- 2148 autophagy ameliorates steatoheaptitis in chronic exercise rats. Histol
- 2149 *Histopathol* 2020;**35**:833-47.

- 2150 334. Triolo M, Hood DA. Mitochondrial breakdown in skeletal muscle and the
- emerging role of the lysosomes. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 2019;**661**:66-73.
- 2152 335. Bernardo BC, Ooi JYY, Weeks KL, Patterson NL, McMullen JR. Understanding
- key mechanisms of exercise-induced cardiac protection to mitigate disease:
- 2154 Current knowledge and emerging concepts. *Physiol Rev* 2018;**98**:419-75.
- 2155 336. Nakamura M, Sadoshima J. Mechanisms of physiological and pathological
- 2156 cardiac hypertrophy. *Nat Rev Cardiol* 2018;**15**:387-407.
- 2157 337. Cattadori G, Segurini C, Picozzi A, Padeletti L, Anza C. Exercise and heart
- 2158 failure: An update. *ESC Heart Fail* 2018;**5**:222-32.
- 2159 338. Wang H, Xie Y, Guan L, Elkin K, Xiao J. Targets identified from exercised heart:
- 2160 Killing multiple birds with one stone. *NPJ Regen Med* 2021;**6**:23.
- 2161 339. Bei Y, Huang Z, Feng X, et al. Lymphangiogenesis contributes to exercise-
- induced physiological cardiac growth. *J Sport Health Sci* 2022.
- 2163 340. Bass-Stringer S, Tai CMK, McMullen JR. Igf1-pi3k-induced physiological
- cardiac hypertrophy: Implications for new heart failure therapies, biomarkers,
- 2165 and predicting cardiotoxicity. *J Sport Health Sci* 2020.
- 2166 341. Le Moal E, Pialoux V, Juban G, et al. Redox control of skeletal muscle
- regeneration. *Antioxid Redox Signal* 2017;**27**:276-310.
- 2168 342. Nader GA, Esser KA. Intracellular signaling specificity in skeletal muscle in
- 2169 response to different modes of exercise. J Appl Physiol (1985) 2001;90:1936-
- 2170 42.
- 2171 343. Chen Z, Li L, Wu W, et al. Exercise protects proliferative muscle satellite cells
- against exhaustion via the igfbp7-akt-mtor axis. *Theranostics* 2020;**10**:6448-66.
- 2173 344. Zhang J, Yuan T, Wang JH. Moderate treadmill running exercise prior to tendon
- injury enhances wound healing in aging rats. *Oncotarget* 2016;7:8498-512.

- 2175 345. Kawanishi N, Yano H, Yokogawa Y, Suzuki K. Exercise training inhibits
- 2176 inflammation in adipose tissue via both suppression of macrophage infiltration
- and acceleration of phenotypic switching from m1 to m2 macrophages in high-
- fat-diet-induced obese mice. Exerc Immunol Rev 2010;**16**:105-18.
- 2179 346. Baker JM, De Lisio M, Parise G. Endurance exercise training promotes
- 2180 medullary hematopoiesis. *FASEB J* 2011;**25**:4348-57.
- 2181 347. Zhang H, Chen T, Ren J, et al. Pre-operative exercise therapy triggers anti-
- 2182 inflammatory trained immunity of kupffer cells through metabolic
- 2183 reprogramming. *Nat Metab* 2021;**3**:843-58.
- 2184 348. Egan B, Zierath JR. Exercise metabolism and the molecular regulation of
- skeletal muscle adaptation. *Cell Metab* 2013;**17**:162-84.
- 2186 349. Warburton DE, Nicol CW, Bredin SS. Health benefits of physical activity: The
- evidence. *CMAJ* 2006;**174**:801-9.
- 2188 350. Koelwyn GJ, Zhuang X, Tammela T, Schietinger A, Jones LW. Exercise and
- immunometabolic regulation in cancer. *Nat Metab* 2020;**2**:849-57.
- 2190 351. Koelwyn GJ, Quail DF, Zhang X, White RM, Jones LW. Exercise-dependent
- regulation of the tumour microenvironment. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2017;**17**:620-32.
- 2192 352. Vermillion SA, James A, Dorrell RD, et al. Preoperative exercise therapy for
- 2193 gastrointestinal cancer patients: A systematic review. Syst Rev 2018;7:103.
- 2194 353. Nakajima H, Yokoyama Y, Inoue T, et al. Clinical benefit of preoperative
- 2195 exercise and nutritional therapy for patients undergoing hepato-pancreato-
- biliary surgeries for malignancy. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2019;**26**:264-72.
- 2197 354. Pouwels S, Stokmans RA, Willigendael EM, et al. Preoperative exercise therapy
- 2198 for elective major abdominal surgery: A systematic review. Int J Surg
- 2199 2014;**12**:134-40.

2200	355.	Xiao J, Rosenzweig A. Exercise and cardiovascular protection: Update and
2201		future. J Sport Health Sci 2021; 10 :607-8.
2202	356.	Bei Y, Wang L, Ding R, et al. Animal exercise studies in cardiovascular research:
2203		Current knowledge and optimal design-a position paper of the committee on
2204		cardiac rehabilitation, chinese medical doctors' association. J Sport Health Sci
2205		2021.
2206		
2207		
2208		
2209		
2210		
2211		
2212		
2213		
2214		
2215		
2216		
2217		
2218		
2219		
2220		
2221		
2222		
2223		
2224		

2225 Figure legends 2226 2227 Fig. 1. Summary of the main regulatory mechanisms by which exercise sustains health. 2228 Exercise impacts the major hallmarks of health, including the integrity of barriers, 2229 containment of local perturbations, recycling and turnover, integration of circuitries, 2230 rhythmic oscillations, homeostatic resilience, hormetic regulation, as well as repair and 2231 regeneration. 2232 2233 Fig. 2. Effects of exercise on the integrity of barriers and the underlying mechanisms. 2234 The biological changes of barriers through which exercise sustains health. FABPpm = 2235 plasma membrane fatty acid-binding protein; FAT = fatty acid translocase; HMGB1 = 2236 high mobility group box 1; IL-15 = interleukin-15; Mst1 = mammalian sterile 20-like 2237 kinase 1; NF-κB = nuclear factor-kappa B; NPC = nuclear pore complex; PECAM-1 = platelet and endothelial cell adhesion molecule 1; REDD1 = regulated in development 2238 2239 and DNA damage 1; TLR4 = toll-like receptors 4. 2240 2241 Fig. 3. Benefits of exercise on the maintenance of local homeostasis and the involved 2242 mechanisms. Regular exercise at moderate intensity generally contributes to the 2243 maintenance of systemic homeostasis. ACE2 = angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; IFNy 2244 = interferon-γ; IL = interleukin; miR = microRNA; NK cells = natural killer cells; 2245 TMPRSS2 = transmembrane protease serine 2; TNF- α = tumor necrosis factor- α ; WBC 2246 = white blood cell counts. 2247 Fig. 4. Benefits of exercise for recycling and turnover. (A) The critical regulators and 2248 2249 signaling pathways involved in the positive effects of exercise on cellular remodeling,

including cell proliferation, cell growth, cell survival, and cell death. (B) The regulation of autophagy during exercise training. The common regulatory pathways underlying exercise-induced autophagy involve the activation of AMPK-ULK1 signaling pathway, FoxO and PGC1 α , etc. AMPK = adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase; ASK1 = apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1; BDNF = brain-derived neurotrophic factor; cAMP = cyclic adenosine monophosphate; C/EBP β = CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein β ; CITED4 = CBP/p300-interacting transactivators with E (glutamic acid)/D (aspartic acid)-rich-carboxyl terminal domain; CPhar = cardiac physiological hypertrophy-associated regulator; eNOS = endothelial nitric oxide synthase; FoxO = forkhead box O; IGF1 = insulin-like growth factor 1; miR = microRNA; PGC1 α , peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptor coactivator 1α ; PI3K = phosphoinositide 3-kinase; SIRT1 = sirtuin 1; TERT = telomerase reverse transcriptase; ULK1 = unc-51-like kinase 1.

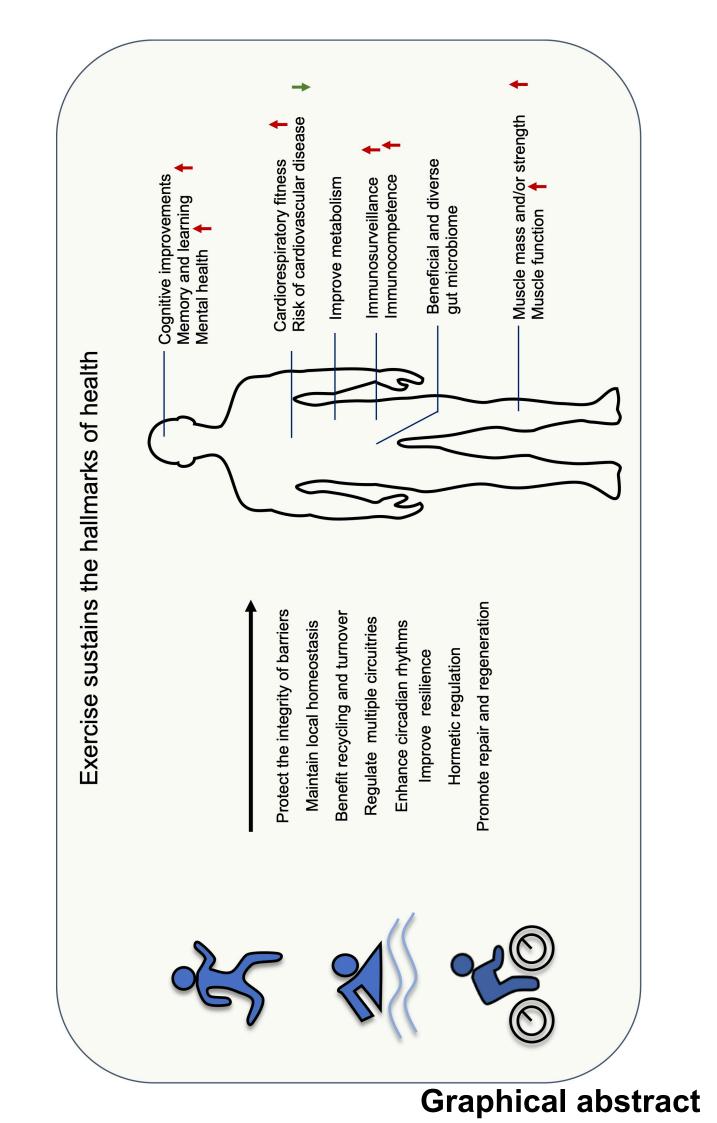
Fig. 5. Exercise has systemic effects. Exercise leads to systemic effects by evoking the coordinated and integrated adaptation of multiple organ systems. Exercise results in the secretion of myokines, adipokines (e.g., TGF β , leptin) and hepatokines as well as byproducts of gut microbiota (e.g., SCFA) that have key roles in interorgan communication and, thus, mediate many of the beneficial effects of exercise. 5-HT = serotonin; FGF21 = fibroblast growth factor-21; GDF15 = growth differentiation factor-15; HSP72 = heat shock protein 72; SCFA = short-chain fatty acids; SIRT1 = sirtuin 1; TGF β = transforming growth factor- β .

Fig. 6. Exercise-associated beneficial adaptations in response to stress. Exercise confers multiple health benefits via different strategies, including improving resilience,

hormetic regulation, and modulating the process of repair and regeneration in response to damage. ER = endoplasmic erticulum; UPRmt = mitochondrial unfolded protein responses. Fig. 7. Regular exercise confers multiple health benefits and better survival. The adaptations in multiple tissues and organ systems contribute to the maintenance of whole-body health. AMPK = adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase; BDNF = brain-derived neurotrophic factor; CaMK = calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase; GPx = glutathione peroxidase; IGF1 = insulin-like growth factor 1; MAPK = mitogen-activated protein kinase; NGF = nerve growth factor; NK cells = natural killer cells; NO = nitric oxide; PGC1 α = peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptor coactivator 1α; SIRTs = sirtuins; SOD = superoxide dismutase; VEGF = vascular endothelial growth factor; VEGFA = vascular endothelial growth factor A; VEGFR3 = vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 3.

2300	Table 1. The detailed exercise protocols in human studies cited in this review.
2301	
2302	Table 2. Effects of exercise on health outcomes in humans with different conditions.
2303	
2304	
2305	
2306	
2307	
2308	
2309	
2310	
2311	
2312	
2313	
2314	
2315	
2316	
2317	
2318	
2319	
2320	
2321	
2322	
2323	
2324	

2325	Supplementary material
2326	
2327	Supplementary Table 1. The detailed exercise protocols in animal studies cited in this
2328	review.
2329	
2330	



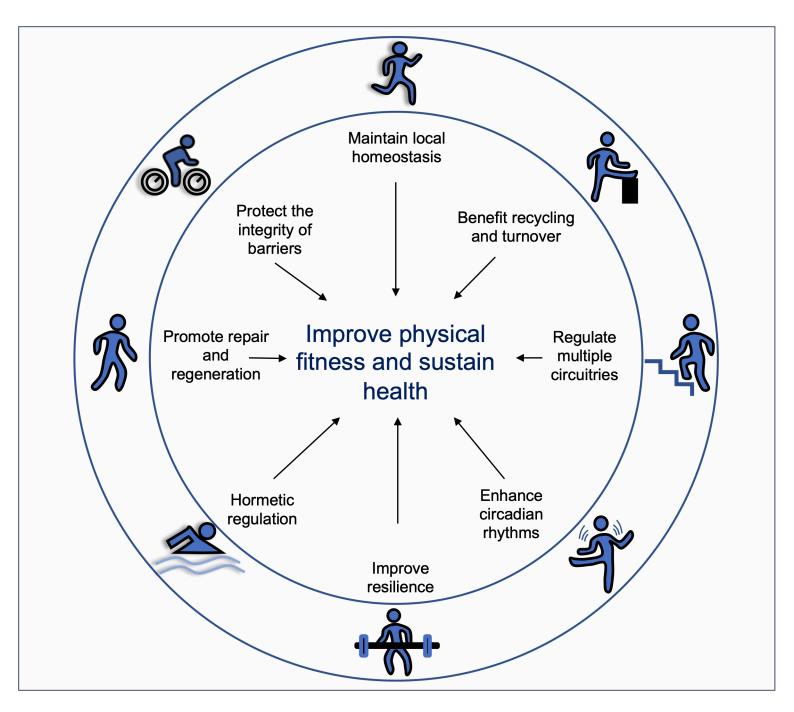


Fig.1

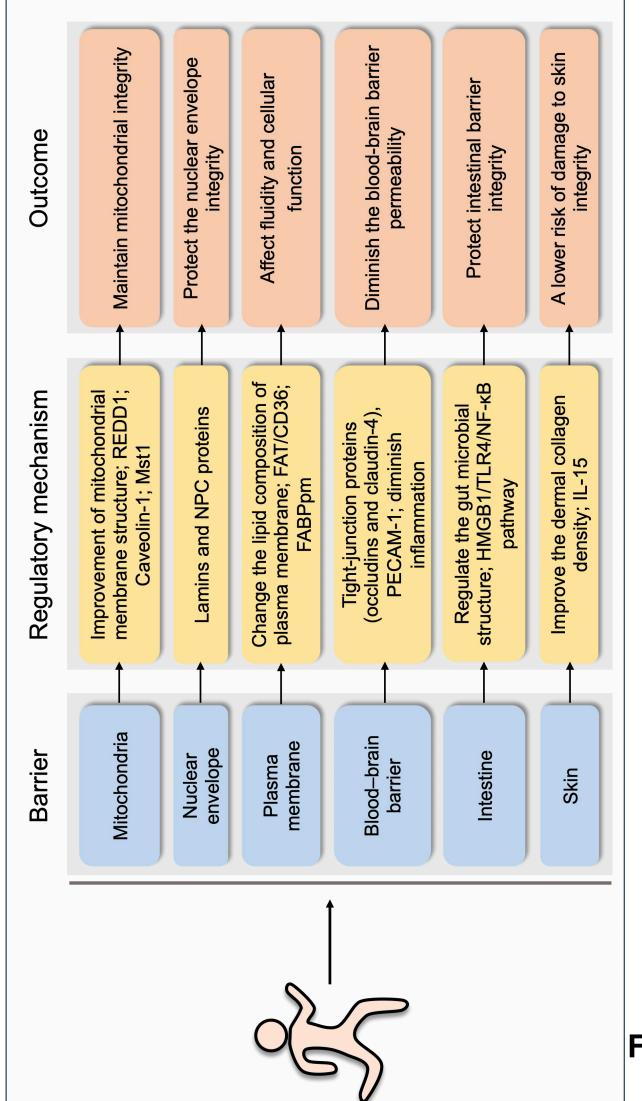


Fig.2

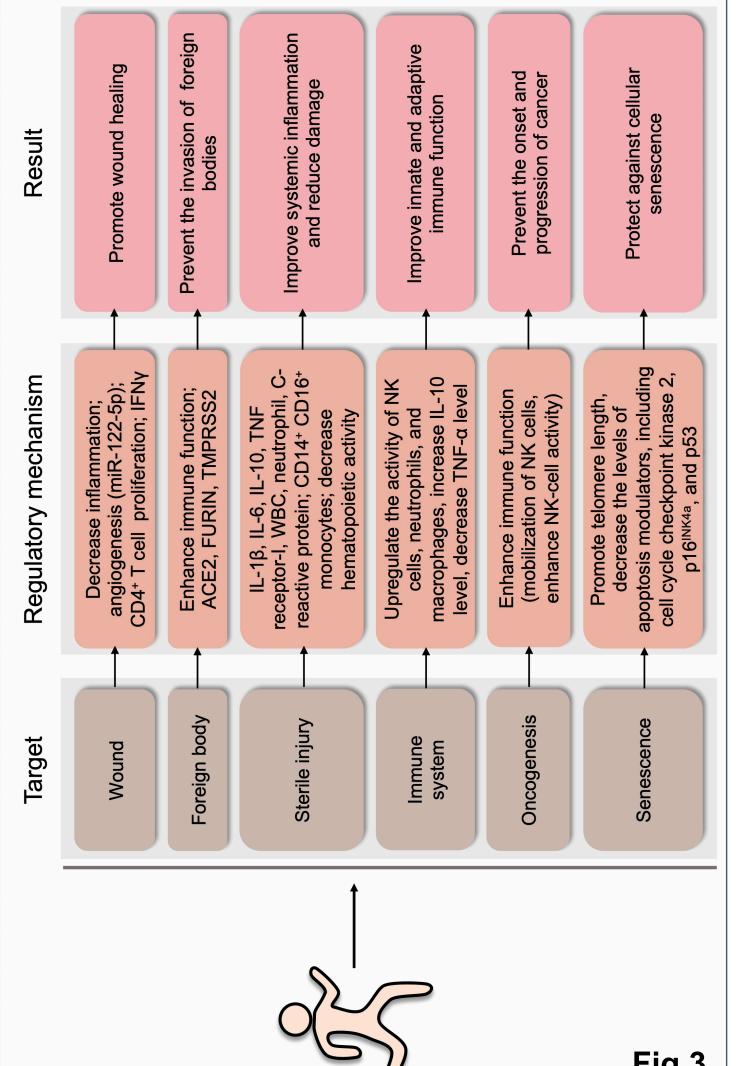


Fig.3

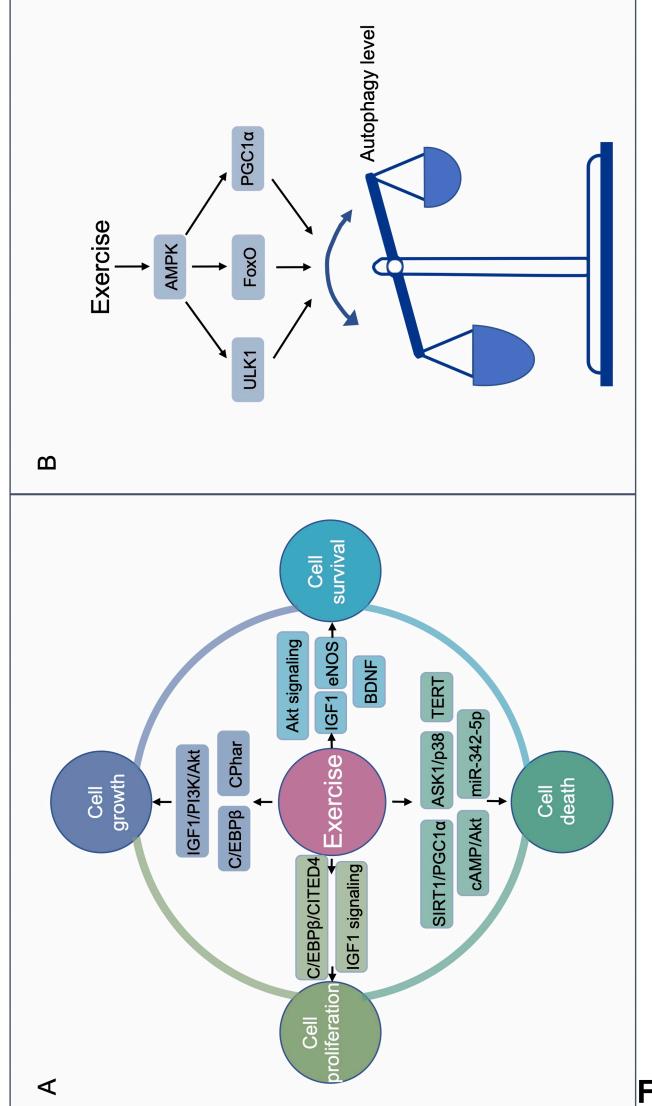


Fig.4

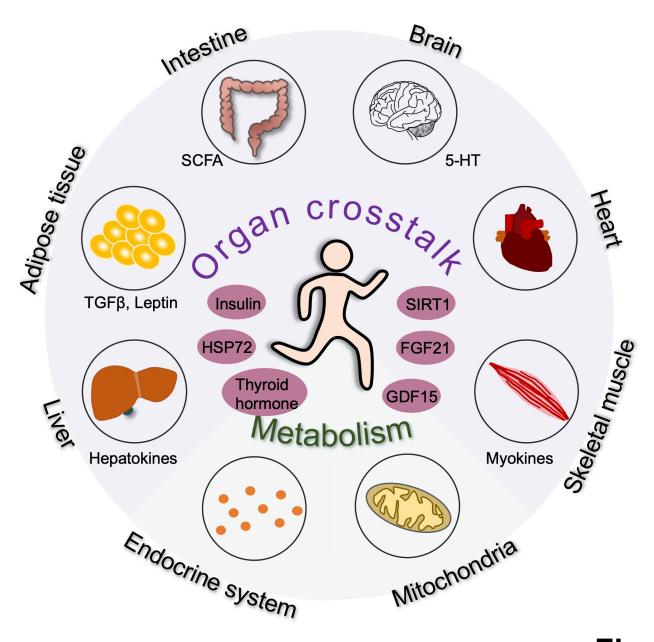


Fig.5

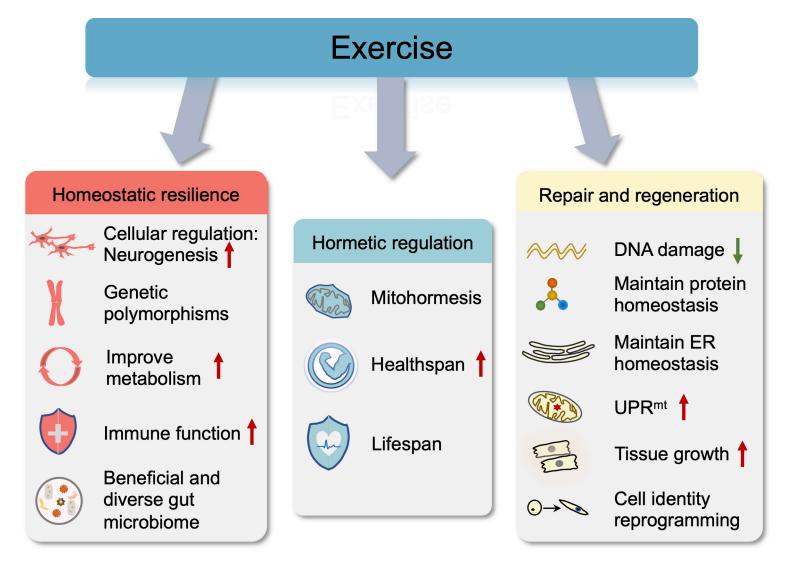


Fig.6

			Healthspan	Better survival				
	Muscle mass and/or strength↑ Muscle function ↑	Cognitive improvements Memory and learning † Mental health †		Cardiorespiratory fitness † Risk of cardiovascular disease↓		Glucose tolerance ↑ Insulin sensitivity ↑		Immunosurveillance ↑ Immunocompetence ↑
Ι			Î					
muscle	CaMK signaling MAPK signaling AMPK signaling SIRTs PGC1α	Antioxidant defense (e.g., GPx, SOD) Neurotrophic factors (e.g., BDNF, VEGF, NGF) Neurogeneis (BDNF, VEGF, IGF1) Protein homeostasis (proteasomes, neprilysin, tau ubiquitination)		Vasodilatation (NO) Angiogenesis (VEGFA) Lymphangiogenesis (VEGFR3)	tissue	Adipokines 	system	NK cells Neutrophils Macrophages
Skeletal muscle		Brain	Heart		Adipose tissue		Immune system	

Table 1. The detailed exercise protocols in human studies cited in this review.

Reference	Exercise protocols	Subject	Effect	Mechanism
51	120 min cycling at 60% VO ₂ max, which is determined by an incremental ride to exhaustion on a cycle ergometer	Human	Increase fatty acid transport	Increase FAT/CD36 and FABPpm
61	1 h of treadmill running at 80% VO ₂ max, 0% grade	Human	Increase small intestinal permeability	/
62	A standard marathon (42.16 km)	Human	Increase intestinal permeability	/
64	Two 1-h-long bouts of submaximal treadmill exercise at 65% VO ₂ max	Human	Increase gut barrier permeability	1
95	45 min cycling (start with 30 min cycling at 65% of HR_{max} and progressed by 5% every other week until intensity reached 75% of HR_{max}), twice per week for 12 weeks		Attenuate skin aging and enhance mitochondrial biogenesis	Increase IL-15 level
116	12 weeks combined endurance (20 min treadmill walking at 70-80% heart-rate reserve) and resistance exercise (8 sets of exercises, 2 sets at 70-80% of one-repetition maximum, 30 min), 3 days/week	Human (65-80 years old)	Reduced systemic inflammation	Reductions in CD14 ⁺ CD16 ⁺ monocytes
126	1-h cycling at 70% of VO ₂ max	Human	Increased levels of inflammatory gene	/

138	Three 30-min bouts of cycling exercise at -5%, +5%, or +15% of lactate threshold	Human	Augment cytotoxicity against tumor cells	Enhanced NK cell activity
188	Marathon (a 42.2-km running race)	Athlete	Increased plasma level of GDF15	Changes in circulating immune cells levels
190	1 h cycling exercise at 67% of VO ₂ max	Human	Increased plasma level of GDF15	/
234	Maximal exercise test, start cycling with a 75 W load for 3 min (warm-up stage) followed by increments of 25 W every 3 min until volitional exhaustion	Human	Significant modulation of clock genes in effector-memory CD4 ⁺ T cells	/
322	3 months of moderate exercise involves a combination of treadmill or cycling, each exercise session included 10 min warm-up and cool-down steps at 50%-60% of HR_{max} , along with 40 min of the prescribed exercise program at 65%-80% of HR_{max} , 3 times/week		Alleviate obesity-related ER stress	Downregulate GPR78 signaling

Note: "/" stands for "unknown".

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index; ER = endoplasmic reticulum; FABPpm = plasma membrane fatty acid-binding protein; FAT = fatty acid translocase; GDF15 = growth differentiation factor-15; GRP78 = glucose-regulated protein 78; HRmax = maximal heart rate; IL-15 = interleukin-15; NK cell = natural killer cell; VO_{2max}= maximal O2 uptake; W = watt.

Table 2. Effects of exercise on health outcomes in humans with different conditions.

Reference	Design	Participant condition	No. of participants	Age (years; mean ± SD)	Intervention	Outcome
57	RCT	Woman living in a nursing home support center; capacity to practice exercise without causing harm to themselves with approval of the medical department		$C = 82.0 \pm 7.5, I = 83.5 \pm 7.3$	14 weeks of combined resistance (e.g., front squat, bench over row, standing reverse fly, etc) and aerobic exercise training (e.g., stimulated walking, hip marching, standing rear leg extension, etc.) twice a week	Maintained concentrations of peripheral markers for BBB integrity and improved cytokine balance
77	RCT	Patients with moderate-to-severe COPD	30 (C = 15; I = 15)	>40ª	30 min of respiratory muscle-stretching exercise (intervention group) or upper and lower limb muscle-stretching (control group), followed by 30 min of aerobic training (treadmill running), twice a week for 12 weeks	Aerobic training combined with respiratory muscle- stretching increases the functional exercise capacity with decreased dyspnea in patients with COPD
89	RCT	Healthy young adults	16	24 ± 5	A 30-min CE and a 60-min IE (1-min work and 1-min rest) at 70% of their maximum work rate on separate occasions in a random order	The 30-min CE caused mild airway damage, while a time- or work-matched IE did not
97	RCT	Patients with venous leg ulcers	59 (C = 30; I = 29)	71.5 ± 14.6	12 weeks home-based progressive resistance exercise	A trend toward healing at a faster rate and better functional outcomes
98	RCT	Healthy adults	28 (C = 15; I = 13)	61.0 ± 5.5	1 h exercise per day (start with 10 min of warm- up floor exercises and stretching, followed by 30 min cycling, 15 min of brisk walking and or jogging and arm-strengthening exercise, 5 min	Enhance rates of wound healing

				of cool-down exercise), 3 days per week for 3 months	
132	RCT	Healthy adults	144 69.9 ± 0.4 (Cardio = 74; Flex = 70)	10-month cardio intervention (began at 45%-55% of VO ₂ max and progressed to 60%-70% of VO ₂ max within 3 months, 3 days/week, the duration of each session increased from 10-15 min to approximately 45-60 min by the 4 th month) was compared to Flex intervention (2 days/week for approximately 75 min/session)	in a longer-lasting seroprotective response to

^aThe data is not mean \pm SD.

Abbreviations: BBB = blood-brain barrier; C = control; Cardio = cardiovascular exercise group; CE = continuous exercise; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; Flex = flexibility and balance group; I = intervention; IE = intermittent exercise; RCT = randomized controlled trial; $VO_{2max} = maximal$ oxygen uptake.

Supplementary Table 1

The detailed exercise protocols in animal studies cited in this review.

Reference	Exercise protocols	Subject	Effects	Mechanisms
Integrity o	f barriers			
35	45 min running at 12 m/min, or the first 25 min running at 12 m/min followed by increments of 2 m/min every 5 min, with the last 5 min running at 20 m/min	Mouse	Alteration of the interaction between mitochondria and other organelles such as the ER	Upregulate REDD1
37	17-week voluntary wheel running exercise or 8-week treadmill running at a speed of 25 m/min, 0% grade, 1 h/day, 5 days/week	Rat model of NASH	Protect against NASH-induced alterations in mitochondrial membrane composition	Increase the PC/PE ratio
39	1 h of running at 25 m/min/day, 0% grade, 5 days/week, 8 weeks	Rat model of NASH	Decrease mitochondrial membrane permeability	Inhibit mPTP opening
40	30 min of running at 10 m/min/day for 7 days, 0° slope	Rat model of cerebral ischemic	Protect mitochondrial integrity	Increase caveolin-1 level
41	30 min at 4 m/min/day for the first week, 30 min at 6 m/min/day for the second week, 45 min at 8 m/min/day for the third week, 45 min at 10 m/min/day for the fourth week, 60 min at 10 m/min for the following 8 weeks, 10% slope	Diabetic mouse	Enhance mitochondrial membrane potential	Decrease Mst1

45	40 min running at 17 m/min, 5° incline, 5 sessions/week for 6 weeks	Lmna (+/-) mouse	Attenuate DCM development	/
46	4 months of running wheel exercise	Older mouse	Sustain the NE integrity	Increase Lamin B1 and NPC protein
49	50 min at 13.5 m/min/day for 2 weeks, 10% grade	HFD-fed mouse	Prevent cholesterol accumulation in the PM of skeletal muscle cells	1
51	120 min of treadmill running at 20 m/min	Rat	Increase fatty acid transport	Increase FAT/CD36 and FABPpm
55	Strength training (consists of climbing and ladder carrying a load corresponding to 25% of the animal's body weight, trained 5 days/week for 4 weeks), endurance training (incremental treadmill running at 13-17 m/min, 5 days/week for 4 week	Mouse model of multiple sclerosis	Prevent BBB disruption	Increase tight-junction proteins (occludins and claudin-4) and decrease PECAM-1
59	Treadmill running at 60% of exhaustion velocity for a total of 165 min, distributed among three 45 min exercise sessions with a 15-min interval between them	Obese mouse	Enhance the regulation of food intake	Increase PI3K-p110α protein
65	1100 miles in 10 days	Dog	Increase intestinal permeability	/
70	5 weeks of combined aerobic (30 min continuous running at 20-25 cm/s, 10-25° incline) and resistance training (eight 2-min running bouts at 20-25 cm/s separated by 1 min of rest, 10-25° incline)	HFD-fed rat	Preserve intestinal barrier integrity	Counteract HFD-induced microbial imbalance

71	6 weeks of running at 10 m/min for 30 min per day, 6 days/week, 0% slope	Mouse model of obstructive jaundice	Protect intestinal mucosal barrier	Inhibit the HMGB1/TLR4/NF-κB pathway
72	7 weeks of swimming exercise, 1 or 1.5 h/day for 5 days per week	Rat model of DSS-induced chronic colitis	Ameliorate colon barrier disruption	Regulate inflammation, oxidative stress, and apoptosis
93	45 min running at 15 m/min, 3 times/week for 5 months	PolG mouse	Prevent age-associated thinning of the dermis	/
94	40 min of running wheel exercise per day for 8 weeks	HFD-fed mouse	Reduce amount of subcutaneous tissue and adipocyte size	Improve dermal collagen density
95	Running at 16 m/min for the first week, then increased to 18 m/min for 26 consecutive days, 1 h/day, 10° uphill grade	Mouse (5 months old)	Attenuate skin aging and enhance mitochondrial biogenesis	Increase IL-15 level
	Running at 10 m/min for the first week, 12 m/min for the second week, and 14 m/min for the next 19 consecutive days, 1 h/day, 10° uphill grade	Mouse (23 months old)		
Maintena	nce of local homeostasis			
99	30 min of running at \sim 70% VO _{2max} daily for 8	Mouse	Reduce wound size	Decrease
	days			inflammation
100	4 weeks of voluntary wheel running exercise	Mouse	Decrease skin graft rejection and increases graft survival	Proliferate CD4 ⁺ T cell and increase production of interferon-γ

101	1 h of treadmill running at 18 m/min for 9 continuous days, 0° inclination	Mouse	Promote wound healing	Increase capillary density via miR-122-5p
107	5 days/week for 14 weeks (running from 8 m/min (week 1) to 18 m/min (week 8), exercise duration gradually increases during weeks 1-4, from weeks 5-8, running 40-45 min /day, then 45 min/day at 18 m/min for 6 weeks)	Mouse	Attenuate influenza infection	Decrease viral load and illness severity
112	8 weeks of treadmill running at 17-25 m/min, 60-90 min, 5 sessions/week	Mouse	Alter the levels of host proteins involved in SARS-CoV-2 cell entry	Regulate ACE2, FURIN, and TMPRSS2, etc.
114	30 days of voluntary wheel running exercise	Mouse model of DSS-induced colitis	Reduce colitis symptoms and colon inflammation	/
115	30 min of treadmill running at 8-12 m/min and 5% grade (\sim 65%-70% VO $_{2max}$), 3 times/week for 8 weeks	Mouse model of sepsis	Attenuate sepsis-induced lung damage	Decrease and increase IL-10
119	6 weeks of voluntary wheel running	Mouse	Reduce inflammatory cell production and cardiovascular inflammation	Decrease hematopoietic activity
137	4 weeks of voluntary wheel running prior to tumor cell inoculation	Mouse	Reduce tumor growth by over 60% percent	Mobilization of NK cells
140	4 weeks of voluntary wheel running	Mouse	Prevent cellular senescence	Upregulate telomerase activity and telomere-stabilizing proteins

141	21 days of voluntary wheel running	Mouse	Prevent cellular senescence	Upregulate telomerase activity and telomere-stabilizing proteins			
143	4 weeks of treadmill exercise, running at 6° incline, 2 min at 0 m/min, speed of 5 m/min, 8 m/min, 10 m/min for 1 min each, then 30 min running at 12 m/min (week 1), increase 2 m/min each week, and cool down at 5 m/min for 2 min for 1 session (37 min), 2 sessions/day	Mouse (84 weeks old)	Reduce senescence in adipose tissue	Change the immune-cell distribution			
144	60 min of swimming exercise for 12 weeks, 5 times/week	_D -Galactose-induced aging rat model	Suppress the senescence process of the liver	Downregulate p53 and p21			
Recycling	Recycling and turnover						
141	21 days of voluntary wheel running	Mouse	Enhance cardiac myocyte survival and prevent cardiac cell death	Upregulate TERT, eNOS, IGF1			
147	5 days of treadmill running per week, start with 30 min running with gradual speed increase (8, 11, 15, 18 and 22 cm/s, 4° slope, 6 min each step) for 1 week, then run at 22 cm/s and 4° slope for 1 h per day for 3 weeks	Mouse	Reduce cardiomyocyte apoptosis and myocardial infarct size after ischemia-reperfusion	Increase circulating myonectin levels via cAMP/Akt signaling			
148	4-week swim training, twice daily (from 5:00 PM to 6:30 PM and 11:00 PM to 0:30 AM) for 7 days a week, the first day of swim training contains two 10-min sessions separated by at least 4 h. Sessions were gradually increased to 90 min/day for 1 week	Mouse	Reduce cardiomyocyte apoptosis and promote cardiomyocyte survival	Upregulate exosomal miR-342-5p level			

149	3-week swim training, start from 10-min twice daily with a 10-min increase each day until reaching 90 min	Mouse	Promote cardiomyocyte growth and decrease cardiomyocyte apoptosis	Upregulate lncRNA, CPhar
150	4 weeks of treadmill running, 5 days per week for 30 min each day at 9 m/min	Rat model of optic nerve transection	Increase the survival rate of retinal ganglion cells	Upregulate BDNF
161	8 weeks of treadmill running, the speed and duration were progressively increased to elicit 60% of maximal speed (corresponding to the maximal lactate steady-state workload) at the second week of exercise, 5 days/week, 1 h/day	Rat model of MI-induced heart failure	Improve cardiac autophagic flux	/
Differen	at circuitries			
170	4-week swim training (started with 10 min and increased by 10 min daily until 90 min, twice per day, the interval between two times is more than 4 h) or 8 weeks of running (started with 10 min at 5 m/min and increased 10 min and 2 m/min daily until 60 min at 15 m/min)	Mouse	Prevent cardiomyocyte apoptosis	Downregulate HIPK2 and p-P53
171	3-week swimming exercise, started with 10 min and increased by 10 min daily until 90 min, twice per day	Mouse	Protect against MI and doxorubicin-induced cardiac injury	Upregulate ADAR2
172	4-week swim exercise, started with 10 min and increased by 10 min daily until 90 min, twice a day	Mouse	Reduce cardiac ischemia-reperfusion injury	Upregulate miR-486

192	9 weeks of treadmill exercise, 5 days/week (week 1 started at 5 min/day and ended at 25 min/day, 15 m/min; week 2 started at 30 min/day and progressed to 50 min/day, 20 m/min)	Diabetic rat	Attenuate the diabetes-induced changes in collagen fibrils, cytoplasmic area, and level of mitochondrial impairment	/
193	30 min of treadmill running at 15 m/min a day, 6 days/week for 3 weeks	Aged rat (22 months old)	Increase angiogenesis	/
194	7 weeks of treadmill running, began with 10 min warm-up at 5 m/min, followed by 10 high-intensity (~90% of VO ₂ max) intervals of 4 min each, separated by 2 min of active rest), 5 days/week, 25° incline	Mouse	Increase angiogenesis	Mediated via the lactate receptor HCAR1
Rhythmic	c oscillations			
224	2 h of voluntary wheel running or treadmill running per day for 4 weeks	Mouse	Shift the circadian clock in skeletal muscle	/
Homeosta	tic resilience			
158	2-week endurance training (5 min treadmill running at 10 cm/s and 0° slope, 5 min at 10 cm/s and 10° slope, 15 min at 15 cm/s and 10° slope, 20 min at 18.5 cm/s and 10° slope a day) or resistance training (climb 10 repetitions of 15 steps for one series, 6 series/day, week 1 (3 days without weight load, 2 days with 15 g weight load), week 2 (2 days without weight load, 3 days with 20 g weight load)), 5 days/week	Mouse	Increase hippocampal neurogenesis	

244	2 to 4 months of voluntary wheel running	Mouse	Increase hippocampal neurogenesis	/
281	8 weeks of treadmill running, began with 10 min at 5 m/min, then gradually increased distance 2 m/min daily until 60 min at 15 m/min	Mouse model of MI	Change the gut microbial community structure	Increase 3-HPA and 4-HPA
209	4 weeks of treadmill running exercise at 12-24 m/min and 15-50 min/day, 5 days/week, 10° slope	Mouse	A greater relative abundance of Desulfovibrio and Desulfovibrio sp.	/
209	Climbing exercise with 400-2000 steps and a 20-50 g weight load per session, an accumulations work of 260 mJ (g m ² /s ²) was achieved daily, 5 days/week for 4 weeks	Mouse	A greater relative abundance of <i>Clostridium</i> and <i>C.cocleatum</i>	/
Hormeti	c regulation			
287	2 weeks of treadmill running between 1800 and 2000 hours, each exercise section contained 15 min warm-up (treadmill speed gradually increased from 5 to 18 m/min over 15 min) and 50 min running at 18 m/min as well as a 5 min cooling-down period	Mouse	Increase UPR ^{mt} in POMC neurons and inguinal white adipose tissue	Increase IL-6 levels
Repair a	and regeneration			
305	8 weeks of treadmill running (resulted in a nearly 40% increase in VO ₂ max)	Aged rat (30 months old)	Decrease the accumulation of oxidative damage of DNA and proteins in skeletal muscle	/
314	7 months of voluntary wheel running	CryAB ^{R120G} mouse	Reduce the accumulation of cytotoxic misfolded proteins in the heart	Increase autophagy

315	60 min of treadmill training at 15 m/min and 15° inclination per day for 1 week	Mouse model of AngII-induced muscle atrophy	Attenuate muscle atrophy	Activate PPARγ and inhibit miR-29b
317	1 h of treadmill running at 60% of maximal aerobic capacity, 5 days/week for 4 weeks	Rat model of neurogenic myopathy	Improve skeletal muscle autophagic flux and proteostasis	/
320	1 h of treadmill exercise at 60% of the maximal speed that corresponds to the maximal lactate steady state workload per day, 5 days/week for 8 weeks	Rat model of MI	Re-establish cardiac protein quality control and reduce ER stress	/
321	1 h of swimming exercise, 5 days/week for 8 weeks	Aged mice (20 months)	Suppress aging-induced ER stress	Enhance cGMP-PKG signaling
323	1 h of treadmill exercise at 16 m/min and 5° incline, 5 days/week for 10-12 weeks	Mouse model of AD	Attenuate ER stress in AD mice brain	/
324	90 min downhill run with a slope of -16° and a speed of 16 m/min	Rat	Activate ER-phagy	FAM134B anchors and fragments ER, and then binds with LC3 to promote ER membrane degradation
327	3 h/day of chronic contractile activity, tibialis anterior and extensor digitorum longus muscles were subjected to stimulation (6 V, 10 Hz continuous, 0.1-ms pulse duration, 999 ms of rest per second), 2 days	Rat	Activate UPR ^{mt}	
333	30 min/day of running exercise on a rotarod for	HFD-fed rat	Mitigate the HFD-associated lysosomal	Reduce ROS

	4 weeks		membrane permeabilization	
339	3 weeks of swimming exercise, began with 10 min twice a day and increased by 10 min/day until reaching 90 min twice a day	Mouse	Physiological cardiac growth	Increase lymph-angiogenesis via VEGFR3 activation
343	30 min/day of treadmill running at 12 m/min and 5°, 4 days/week for 4 weeks	Mouse	Improve muscle regeneration and induce muscle hypertrophy	Igfbp7-Akt-mTOR signaling
344	Running 30 min/day at 13 m/min, 5 days for 4 weeks	Aging rat (20 months old)	Improve tendon injury healing	Proliferation of tendon stem/progenitor cells
345	60 min/day of treadmill running at 12-20 m/min, 5 times/week for 16 weeks	HFD-fed mice	Induce the macrophage phenotypic switching from M1 to M2 in adipose tissue	/
346	3 days/week of treadmill running for 10 weeks, the speed of running began at 14 m/min for 45 min (week 1) and increased to 24 m/min for 45 min (week 10), the training protocol was always preceded by a 10 min warm-up at 10 m/min and followed by a 5 min cool-down at 10 m/min	Mouse	Promote the differentiation of mesenchymal stem cells into osteoblasts	
347	1 h of treadmill running at 12.5 m/min per day, 5 days/week for 4 weeks	Mouse	Anti-inflammatory trained immunity of Kupffer cells	Metabolic reprogramming

Note: / stands for unknown.

Abbreviations: ACE2 = angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; AD = Alzheimer's disease; ADAR2 = adenosine deaminases acting on RNA2; AngII = angiotensin II; BBB = blood–brain barrier; BDNF = brain-derived neurotrophic factor; cAMP = cyclic adenosine monophosphate; cGMP = cyclic guanosine monophosphate; CPhar = cardiac physiological hypertrophy-associated regulator; CryAB^{R120G} = αB-crystallin mutated; DCM = dilated cardiomyopathy; DSS = dextran sodium sulfate; ER = endoplasmic reticulum; eNOS = endothelial nitric oxide synthase; FABPpm =

plasma membrane fatty acid-binding protein; FAM134B = family with sequence similarity 134, member B; FAT = fatty acid translocase; HCAR1 = hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1; HFD = high-fat diet; HIPK2 = homeodomain interacting protein kinase 2; HMGB1 = high mobility group box 1; HPA = hydroxyphenylacetic acid; IGF1 = insulin-like growth factor 1; Igfbp7 = insulin-like growth factor-binding protein 7; IL = interleukin; LC3 = microtubule-associated protein light-chain-3; MI = myocardial infarction; miR = microRNA; mPTP = mitochondrial permeability transition pore; Mst1 = mammalian sterile 20-like kinase 1; mTOR = mammalian target of rapamycin; NASH = non-alcoholic steatohepatitis; NE = nuclear envelope; NF-κB = nuclear factor-kappa B; NK cells = natural killer cells; NPC = nuclear pore complex; PC = phosphatidylcholine; PE = phosphatidylethanolamine; PECAM-1 = platelet and endothelial cell adhesion molecule 1; PI3K = phosphoinositide 3-kinase; PKG = protein kinase G; PM = plasma membrane; POMC = proopiomelanocortin; PPARγ = peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma; REDD1 = regulated in development and DNA damage 1; ROS = reactive oxygen species; SARS-CoV-2 = severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; TERT = telomerase reverse transcriptase; TMPRSS2 = transmembrane protease serine 2; TLR4 = toll-like receptor 4; UPR^{mt} = mitochondrial unfolded protein responses; VEGFR3 = vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 3; VO_{2max} = maximal oxygen uptake.