

1 **The influence of habitual endurance exercise on carotid artery strain and strain-rate in**
2 **young and middle-aged men.**

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35 **New Findings:**

36 What is the central question of this study?

- 37 • Carotid artery peak circumferential strain (PCS) and strain-rate attenuate with age, but
38 appear to be modulated by cardiorespiratory fitness status in young males. However,
39 the relationship between habitual endurance exercise (running) and these parameters
40 has not been studied in young and middle-aged men.

41 What is the main finding and its importance?

- 42 • Young and middle-aged runners exhibited elevated PCS and systolic strain-rate (S-SR)
43 compared to nonrunners, but habitual running did not influence diastolic strain-rate (D-
44 SR).
- 45 • Habitual exercise is associated with comparable improvements in carotid strain
46 parameters in young and middle-aged men, but the age-related decline in PCS and S-
47 SR may be more amenable to habitual endurance exercise than D-SR.

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66 **ABSTRACT**

67 Central arterial stiffness is an independent predictor of cardiovascular risk that can be modified
68 by exercise training. However, conventional local measures of carotid artery stiffness display
69 conflicting responses to habitual endurance exercise in young and older adults. 2D-Strain
70 imaging of the common carotid artery (CCA) quantifies circumferential deformation (strain)
71 of the arterial wall across the cardiac cycle, which is more sensitive at detecting age-related
72 alterations in CCA stiffness than conventional methods. Therefore, the study was designed to
73 examine the relationship between habitual endurance exercise (running) and CCA 2D-Strain
74 parameters in young and middle-aged men. Short-axis ultrasound images of the CCA
75 were obtained from 13 young nonrunners (23 years [95% CI: 21-26]), 19 young runners (24
76 [22-26]), 13 middle-aged nonrunners (54 [52-56]) and 19 middle-aged runners (56 [54-
77 58]). Images were analysed for peak circumferential strain (PCS; magnitude of deformation)
78 as well as systolic and diastolic strain-rate (S-SR and D-SR; deformation velocity) and group
79 differences were examined via two-way ANOVA. PCS, S-SR and D-SR were attenuated in
80 middle-aged males when compared to young men (all $P \leq 0.001$). PCS and S-SR were elevated
81 in young and middle-aged runners when compared to nonrunners ($P = 0.002$ and $P = 0.009$
82 respectively), but no age*training status interaction was observed. In contrast, there was no
83 influence of habitual running on D-SR. Habitual exercise is associated with comparable
84 improvements in CCA 2D-Strain parameters in young and middle-aged men, but the age-
85 related decline in PCS and S-SR may be more amenable to habitual endurance exercise than
86 D-SR.

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99 **Introduction**

100 Arteriosclerosis, a hallmark of advanced ageing, is characterised by alterations to the elastic
101 composition of the arterial wall matrix of large central arteries, which promotes arterial
102 stiffening (Lakatta & Levy, 2003) and impairs a vessel's ability to buffer pulsatile blood flow
103 during systole (Liao et al., 1999). Consequently, increased aortic and common carotid artery
104 (CCA) stiffness are both associated with elevated blood pressure (Kaess et al., 2012; Liao et
105 al., 1999), impaired cardiac function (Bruno et al., 2017; Kawaguchi, Hay, Fetis, & Kass,
106 2003) and target organ microvessel damage (O'Rourke & Safar, 2005; van Sloten & Stehouwer,
107 2016) and are independent predictors of cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality (Laurent
108 et al., 2006; van Sloten et al., 2014). Therefore, management strategies capable of attenuating
109 the age-related progression of aortic and CCA stiffening have considerable clinical
110 implications.

111
112 Regular endurance exercise can attenuate both aortic and CCA stiffening in middle-aged and
113 older healthy adults (Tanaka et al., 2000; Tanaka & Safar, 2005; Vaitkevicius et al., 1993),
114 while cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) is inversely associated with aortic and CCA stiffness in
115 ageing populations (Tanaka, DeSouza, & Seals, 1998; Vaitkevicius et al., 1993). However, the
116 influence of CRF (Ferreira et al., 2005; Ferreira, Twisk, Stehouwer, van Mechelen, & Kemper,
117 2003; Tanaka et al., 2000) and exercise training (Heydari, Boutcher, & Boutcher, 2013;
118 Kakiyama et al., 2005; Montero, Breenfeldt-Andersen, Oberholzer, & Haider, 2017; Tanaka et
119 al., 2000) on aortic and CCA stiffness appears to be less consistent in young asymptomatic
120 individuals, leading some to propose that only aged arteries can be modulated by exercise
121 (Montero et al., 2017).

122
123 The majority of these studies utilised aortic pulse wave velocity (aPWV) as the 'gold-standard'
124 non-invasive measurement of 'central' arterial stiffness. Whilst aPWV is a valuable marker of
125 central artery stiffness and an independent predictor of cardiovascular risk (Laurent et al.,
126 2006), it is limited to the aorta and assumes vascular homogeneity. This is problematic, as
127 adults with similar aPWV can demonstrate differences in local indices of CCA stiffness (Priest,
128 Shenouda, & MacDonald, 2018), inferring that arteriosclerosis has a heterogeneous effect at
129 distinct regions of the central arterial tree. Since the CCA is a frequent site of atheroma
130 formation (Laurent et al., 2006), local measures of CCA stiffness provide important prognostic
131 information beyond aPWV and are independently associated with incident stroke (van Sloten
132 et al., 2015). Accordingly, sensitive measures of local CCA stiffness are required alongside

133 aPWV to comprehensively characterise artery stiffness across the arterial tree. Although
134 conventional CCA stiffness indices, such as β -stiffness index (β -stiffness), Peterson's Elastic
135 Modulus (E_p) and distensibility coefficient have valuable reference standards (Engelen et al.,
136 2015; Uejima et al., 2020), these parameters also assume vascular homogeneity, are limited to
137 one-dimensional measurement of lumen distension and display low intra- and inter-observer
138 reliability (Bjallmark et al., 2010). This emphasizes that a sensitive 'gold-standard' measure of
139 CCA stiffness does not yet exist, and may explain why the influence of exercise training on
140 conventional CCA stiffness parameters is varied in young individuals (Montero et al., 2017;
141 Tanaka et al., 2000) and not always consistent with aPWV responses in older populations
142 (Shibata et al., 2018).

143
144 Recently, two-dimensional strain imaging (2D-Strain) has emerged as a valuable technique to
145 detect heterogeneous wall motion of the CCA, which provides localised deformation
146 characteristics of the entire arterial wall (Bjallmark et al., 2010; Pugh et al., 2018; Rosenberg
147 et al., 2018; W. I. Yang et al., 2018). This technique quantifies the magnitude and rate of
148 circumferential deformation (strain) of the CCA wall across the cardiac cycle (Bjallmark et al.,
149 2010); which has been reported to offer a more sensitive characterisation of age-related
150 increases in CCA stiffness than conventional measures, as well as superior intra- and inter-
151 observer reliability (Bjallmark et al., 2010; Rosenberg et al., 2018). Specifically, peak
152 circumferential strain (PCS) as well as systolic and diastolic strain rate (S-SR and D-SR) are
153 attenuated in healthy middle-aged adults compared to younger counterparts (Bjallmark et al.,
154 2010), and are further diminished in stroke patients (W. I. Yang et al., 2018). Furthermore, we
155 have recently demonstrated that CCA PCS and S-SR are elevated in young males with high
156 CRF compared to those with lower CRF, despite no differences in conventional indices of CCA
157 stiffness or blood pressure (Pugh et al., 2018). As PCS likely reflects overall loading capacity
158 of the CCA, whereas S-SR and D-SR relate more to the intrinsic elastic properties of the vessel
159 (Teixeira et al., 2015), it is plausible that the influence of habitual endurance exercise on these
160 distinct CCA stiffness parameters may differ between young and middle-aged individuals.
161 Therefore, 2D-Strain imaging may provide novel insight into the interaction between habitual
162 endurance exercise and healthy ageing of large elastic central arteries. Accordingly, the
163 primary aim of this study was to examine the relationship between habitual endurance exercise
164 and CCA 2D-Strain parameters in young and middle-aged men. We hypothesised that male
165 habitual runners would exhibit elevated 2D-Strain parameters compared to age-matched male
166 nonrunners, while ageing would attenuate 2D-Strain parameters irrespective of training status.

167 **Methods**

168 *Participants*

169 Sixty-four male participants were recruited, including 13 young nonrunners (23yrs [95% CI;
170 21 - 26]) 19 young runners (24yrs [22, 26]), 13 middle-aged nonrunners (54yrs [52, 56])
171 and 19 middle-aged runners (56yrs [54, 58]). All participants were normotensive non-smokers
172 with no history of cardiovascular, metabolic or renal disease or any contraindications to
173 exercise. None of the participants reported taking prescribed medication and all middle-aged
174 participants were screened for ECG abnormalities at rest and during exercise (SECA
175 CT8000P, Vogel & Halke, Hamburg, Germany) (Drezner et al., 2013). Middle-aged runners
176 had performed ≥ 15 miles per week of moderate to intense training for ≥ 10 years, whereas
177 young runners had performed ≥ 30 miles per week of moderate to intense training for ≥ 2 years.
178 Middle-aged and young male nonrunners were recreationally active i.e. ≤ 3 hours of structured
179 physical activity per week for ≥ 10 years and ≥ 2 years respectively. We specifically chose to
180 recruit middle-aged runners (i.e. 50-60 years), rather than older runners onto the study, as this
181 decade appears to represent a focal point during which central arterial stiffness (as determined
182 by aPWV) exponentially increases as part of healthy vascular ageing (AlGhatrif et al., 2013).
183 In addition, due to the recognised differences in haemodynamic regulation between men and
184 women (Hart & Charkoudian, 2014), temporal changes in arterial function across the menstrual
185 cycle (Green et al., 2016) and well-established fluctuations in haemodynamic and vascular
186 control during menopause (Low, Hubing, Del Coso, & Crandall, 2011), only male participants
187 were recruited onto the study. Ethical approval was provided by Cardiff Metropolitan University's
188 School of Sport and Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee (16/7/02R) and the study conformed
189 to the Declaration of Helsinki (2008) except for registration in a database. All participants were
190 informed of the methods and study design verbally and in writing before providing written informed
191 consent.

192

193 *Experimental Procedures*

194 The study implemented a cross-sectional design and was conducted in a quiet, temperature
195 controlled room. Participants reported to the laboratory on two separate occasions having
196 refrained from strenuous exercise, alcohol, and caffeine intake for 24 hours prior to each visit.
197 During visit one, preliminary screening was conducted including anthropometric
198 measurements, brachial blood pressure via manual sphygmomanometry and a maximal
199 exercise test on an upright cycle ergometer (Corival, Lode B.V., Gronigen, Netherlands) to

200 obtain $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ as previously described (Wakeham et al., 2019). For visit two, participants
201 attended the laboratory having fasted for a minimum of 6 hours. Participants rested supine for
202 10 minutes before aPWV and central blood pressure were assessed. Additionally, short-axis
203 and longitudinal ultrasound images of the right CCA were recorded for post-hoc analysis of
204 2D-Strain parameters and conventional measures of CCA stiffness.

205

206 *Aortic Pulse Wave Velocity (aPWV)*

207 A high-fidelity micromanometer tipped probe was used to obtain sequential ECG-gated
208 pressure waveforms at the site of maximal arterial pulsation of the carotid and femoral arteries
209 to calculate aPWV in accordance to applanation tonometry guidelines (Van Bortel et al.,
210 2012). Central blood pressure was estimated by applying a validated transfer function (Van
211 Bortel et al., 2012) to radial artery waveforms collected via the same probe
212 (SphygmoCor, AtCor Medical, Sydney, AUS).

213

214 *Carotid Artery Ultrasonography and Two-Dimensional Strain Imaging*

215 Short-axis grey-scale cine loops of the right CCA were recorded 1-2cm proximal to the carotid
216 bulb using a commercially available ultrasound system (Vivid Q, GE Medical, Norway) and a
217 12-MHz linear array transducer at a consistent frame rate of 92.3 frames per second.
218 Longitudinal B-mode images were then obtained at an insonation angle $<60^\circ$ to simultaneously
219 record CCA diameter and mean blood flow velocity. All images were acquired by a single
220 trained sonographer at a constant depth.

221

222 *Ultrasound Image Analysis*

223 *2D-Strain.* Speckle-tracking software quantifies the motion of the arterial wall by automatically
224 identifying speckles in the short-axis ultrasound image, which are subsequently tracked across
225 the cardiac cycle (Catalano, Lamberti-Castronuovo, Catalano, Filocamo, & Zimbalatti, 2011).
226 For quantification of strain and strain rates, a region of interest (ROI) was manually placed
227 over the entire CCA wall circumference, ensuring accurate alignment with the lumen-wall
228 interface. Within this ROI, movement of speckles were tracked frame by frame throughout
229 systole and diastole within six evenly distributed segments using a speckle-tracking algorithm
230 inherent to the software (EchoPac Version 112, GE Vingmed Ultrasound, Horten Norway),
231 which generated strain and strain rate curves. PCS, S-SR and D-SR were measured as ‘global’
232 values reflecting the averaged values obtained from each ROI segment over three consecutive
233 cardiac cycles and therefore represent the circumferential motion of the entire CCA wall. PCS

234 was identified as the greatest peak in the interpolated circumferential strain curve and
235 represents the magnitude of CCA circumferential deformation from diastole to peak systole.
236 S-SR was identified as the largest positive peak in the strain rate curve that occurred after the
237 QRS complex, while D-SR was determined as the largest negative peak in the strain rate curve
238 after the T-wave of the ECG.

239

240 *CCA Blood Flow.* Analysis of CCA diameter and flow were performed using semi-automated
241 custom-designed edge-detection and wall-tracking software, which is independent of
242 investigator bias and has been comprehensively described elsewhere (Townsend et al., 2015;
243 Woodman et al., 2001). From synchronized diameter and velocity data, blood flow (the product
244 of lumen cross-sectional area and Doppler velocity) was calculated at 30 Hz. Longitudinal B-
245 mode ultrasound images were analysed continuously over 1 minute of recording to acquire
246 average systolic (maximum) and diastolic (minimum) CCA diameter, as well as mean CCA
247 blood flow. CCA systolic and diastolic diameters were then used to calculate CCA E_p and β -
248 stiffness (Bjallmark et al., 2010; Pugh et al., 2018).

249

250 *Statistical Analysis*

251 Power analyses of CCA 2D-Strain parameters were conducted *a priori* by sampling data from
252 two separate studies; one investigating the effect of ageing on 2D-Strain parameters in
253 untrained individuals (Bjallmark et al., 2010) and the other investigating the effect of high CRF
254 on 2D-Strain parameters in young males (Pugh et al., 2018). A mean difference in PCS of 3.8%
255 ($d = 4.19$) was detected between young and old individuals, whereas a mean difference of 2.3%
256 ($d = 0.7$) was detected between high and moderately fit young males. Accordingly, we
257 estimated that a sample of 60 participants within a four-group cross-sectional study design
258 would detect a 2.3% ($d=0.7$) difference in PCS with 90% power at a two-sided 0.05
259 significance level. Statistical analysis was conducted on SPSS statistical software package
260 (Version 23.0, Chicago, USA). All data are presented as mean differences and confidence
261 intervals (95% CI) with statistical significance set to $P \leq 0.05$. A two-factor analysis of variance
262 (ANOVA) was used to determine the main effects of age, training status and whether there was
263 an interaction between these factors (age*training status). When a significant interaction was
264 observed, post-hoc comparisons with Bonferroni corrections were conducted to identify
265 significant differences among group mean values. Additionally, analysis of covariance
266 (ANCOVA) was conducted with central mean arterial pressure and CCA diastolic diameter
267 individually set as covariates to control for their potential confounding influence on 2D-Strain

268 parameters. Finally, linear regression analysis was also conducted to quantify the relationship
269 between CRF ($\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$), 2D-Strain parameters and aortic stiffness (aPWV) in young and
270 middle-aged males by grouping all of the young and middle-aged participants into two separate
271 groups.

272

273 **Results**

274 *Participant Characteristics*

275 $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ was higher in runners compared to nonrunners ($P \leq 0.001$) and lower with age ($P \leq$
276 0.001 ; Table 1), but no age*training status interaction was observed. Nonrunners had a greater
277 BMI than runners ($P \leq 0.001$), but there were no age-related differences. Runners demonstrated
278 lower resting heart rates than nonrunners ($P = 0.001$), as well as lower brachial systolic and
279 diastolic blood pressure ($P = 0.032$ and $P = 0.003$ respectively), whereas diastolic pressure was
280 elevated with age irrespective of training status ($P \leq 0.001$). No age*training status interaction
281 was observed for any of these parameters (Table 1).

282

283 **(TABLE 1)**

284

285 *Central Haemodynamics and Aortic Pulse Wave Velocity*

286 Central systolic blood pressure and pulse pressure were higher in middle-aged men compared
287 to young men (both $P \leq 0.001$), whereas both central diastolic and mean arterial pressure were
288 lower in runners compared to nonrunners ($P = 0.018$ and $P = 0.008$ respectively; Table 2). No
289 other main effects of age or training status were observed for central pressures, nor were any
290 age*training status interactions. aPWV was elevated in middle-aged men compared to young
291 men ($P \leq 0.001$) and lower in runners than nonrunners ($P \leq 0.001$). However, no age*training
292 status interaction was observed (Table 2).

293

294 *Common Carotid Artery Morphology & Conventional Stiffness Indices*

295 Systolic, diastolic and mean CCA diameters were elevated in middle-aged men compared to
296 young men ($P = 0.015$, $P \leq 0.001$ and $P = 0.005$ respectively). However, there was no main
297 effect of training status or an age*training status interaction for any of these parameters (Table
298 2). There were no main effects of age or training status on mean blood flow. CCA distension,
299 EM_p and β -stiffness were all lower with age (all $P \leq 0.001$) and elevated in runners compared

300 to nonrunners ($P \leq 0.001$, $P = 0.016$ and $P = 0.039$ respectively), but no age*training status
 301 interaction was observed for any of these parameters (Table 2).

302

303 **(TABLE 2)**

304

305 ***Carotid Artery 2D-Strain Parameters***

306 PCS, S-SR and D-SR were attenuated in middle-aged males when compared to young men (all
 307 $P \leq 0.001$). PCS and S-SR were elevated in runners when compared to nonrunners ($P = 0.002$
 308 and $P = 0.009$ respectively), but no age*training status interaction was observed for either
 309 parameter (Figure 1). In contrast, there was no main effect of training status on D-SR, however
 310 a significant age*training status interaction was observed ($P = 0.024$; Figure 1C). Subsequent
 311 pairwise analysis revealed that D-SR was significantly reduced in middle-aged runners when
 312 compared to young runners ($-0.16 \text{ l}\cdot\text{s}^{-1} [-0.10, -0.22]$; $P \leq 0.001$), but no other differences were
 313 observed between the groups. All significant main effects of age and training status for PCS
 314 and S-SR remained following covariate adjustment for both CCA diastolic diameter and central
 315 mean arterial pressure, as did the main effect of age and age*training status interaction for D-
 316 SR.

317

318 **(FIGURE 1)**

319

320 ***Relationship between Cardiorespiratory Fitness and Carotid Artery 2D-Strain Parameters***

321 CRF was associated with PCS ($r^2 = 0.26$, $P \leq 0.001$) and S-SR ($r^2 = 0.25$, $P \leq 0.001$) when data
 322 from all groups were pooled, but there was no association between CRF and D-SR. When
 323 grouped by age (young vs. middle-aged), the relationship between CRF and PCS remained in
 324 both groups (young: $r^2 = 0.18$. middle-aged: $r^2 = 0.18$; both $P = 0.015$; Figure 2A). Conversely,
 325 the relationship between CRF and S-SR remained in young males ($r^2 = 0.31$; $P \leq 0.001$) but
 326 abolished in middle-aged males ($r^2 = 0.07$; $P = 0.133$; Figure 2B).

327

328 ***Relationship between Aortic Pulse Wave Velocity and Carotid Artery 2D-Strain Parameters***

329 aPWV was associated with PCS ($r^2 = 0.32$, $P \leq 0.001$), S-SR ($r^2 = 0.32$, $P \leq 0.001$) and D-SR
 330 ($r^2 = 0.15$, $P = 0.002$) when data from all groups were pooled. When grouped by age (young
 331 vs. middle-aged), the relationship between aPWV and PCS remained in the young and
 332 disappeared in the middle-aged group ($r^2 = 0.18$; $P = 0.016$ and $r^2 = 0.03$; $P = 0.381$

333 respectively; Figure 2C). Grouping by age had a similar effect on the relationship between
334 aPWV and S-SR (young: $r^2 = 0.19$; $P \leq 0.013$; middle-aged: $r^2 = 0.0$; $P = 0.975$; Figure 2D).
335 There was no relationship between aPWV and D-SR when grouped by age (young: $P = 0.389$;
336 middle-age: $P = 0.600$).

337

338 **(FIGURE 2)**

339

340 **Discussion**

341 The primary aim of this study was to examine the relationship between habitual endurance
342 exercise and CCA 2D-Strain parameters in young and middle-aged men. Our main findings
343 were as follows: (1) PCS, S-SR and D-SR were attenuated in middle-aged males compared to
344 young males, and (2) young and middle-aged runners exhibited elevated PCS and S-SR
345 compared to nonrunners. To our knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate that habitual
346 endurance exercise is associated with superior CCA 2D-Strain parameters in both young and
347 middle-aged males, which provides novel insight into the benefits of regular exercise on
348 healthy arterial ageing.

349 In agreement with the literature, PCS, S-SR and D-SR were attenuated in healthy middle-aged
350 males compared to young counterparts (Bjallmark et al., 2010; Rosenberg et al., 2018) and this
351 age-related decline occurred irrespective of training status. However, we also observed that
352 PCS and S-SR were elevated in runners compared to nonrunners and the lack of an age*training
353 status interaction would indicate that the influence of habitual running on these parameters is
354 comparable in young and middle-aged men. In contrast, we did not observe any differences in
355 D-SR between runners and non-runners, suggesting that D-SR may be less amenable to
356 habitual endurance exercise than PCS and S-SR in young and middle-aged men. A superior
357 magnitude (PCS) and rate (S-SR) of deformation during cardiac systole likely reflects a
358 training-induced improvement in the capacity of the CCA to buffer pulsatile ejection and thus
359 ensure smooth consistent blood flow to the cerebral circulation (Tomoto, Sugawara, Nogami,
360 Aonuma, & Maeda, 2015). The precise reason why we did not also observe a main effect of
361 training status on D-SR is unclear, but may relate to the fact that during the diastolic phase of
362 the cardiac cycle, there is less of a requirement to buffer pulsatile pressure and therefore less
363 demand for an increased rate of arterial recoil (D-SR). Furthermore, D-SR is likely to be more
364 *passive* in nature and may be influenced by a greater reliance on stiffer collagen fibres within

365 the arterial wall in order to maintain structural integrity during arterial recoil (Rossow et al.,
366 2010).

367 Healthy arterial ageing is characterized by alterations to the composition of the extracellular
368 matrix within the arterial wall, including the degeneration of elastin fibres, as well as the
369 accumulation of collagen, connective tissue and advanced glycation end-products, all of which
370 promote arterial stiffening (Lakatta & Levy, 2003). In rat models, exercise training has been
371 shown to improve the elastin-to-collagen ratio within the extracellular matrix of central arteries
372 (Matsuda, Nosaka, Sato, & Ohshima, 1993), supporting that our observation of modulated 2D-
373 Strain parameters in endurance trained males may reflect favourable alterations to the elastic
374 properties of the CCA. It should be noted that we did not observe an age*training status
375 interaction for PCS or S-SR. However, our regression analysis revealed a similar linear
376 relationship between CRF and PCS in both young and middle-aged men, whereas CRF was
377 only associated with S-SR in young males and not in middle-aged males (Figure 2). Although
378 more research across a wider age range is required, this distinction may indicate that the relative
379 influence of habitual endurance training (high CRF levels) on PCS and S-SR differs with
380 advancing age.

381 Indeed, it is plausible that the constraining effect of age-related accumulation of irreversible
382 cross-linked collagen and advanced glycation-end products may limit the extent to which
383 habitual endurance exercise can improve '*global*' CCA elasticity in ageing males (Fujimoto et
384 al., 2010; Lakatta & Levy, 2003). Exercise-mediated improvements in the relative contribution
385 of elastin within the CCA extracellular matrix may be sufficient to increase the magnitude of
386 circumferential deformation (PCS), but irreversible cross-linked collagen accumulation may
387 hinder any concomitant improvement in the rate of deformation (S-SR). This supposition is
388 supported by a recent animal study that reported exercise training improved arterial elasticity
389 solely via increasing elastin content despite negligible changes to collagen accumulation
390 (Hanna et al., 2014). This constraining remodelling may also explain our surprising observation
391 that the age-related decline in D-SR appears to be exacerbated in middle-aged male runners;
392 where the inherent accumulation of cross-linked collagen coupled with a greater magnitude of
393 deformation during systole gives rise to a blunted elastic transfer of potential energy and a
394 slower rate of diastolic recoil. Clearly, without being able to obtain in-vitro CCA samples in
395 humans, attributing age- and training-induced changes in 2D-Strain derived parameters to
396 alterations in the composition of the extracellular matrix is speculative. Nevertheless, our data

397 demonstrate that 2D-Strain parameters provide novel insight into the varied and intricate
398 effects of habitual endurance exercise on CCA elasticity in young and middle-aged men.

399 Importantly, PCS and S-SR were elevated in young and middle-aged runners, despite
400 displaying similar CCA diameter and blood flow to their untrained counterparts. Although not
401 measured in the present study, it is well established that total blood- and stroke volume increase
402 with long-term endurance exercise training (Carrick-Ranson et al., 2014). However, it would
403 seem that this increase in volume is not proportionately distributed to the carotid region at rest,
404 presumably due to an unaltered demand in basal cerebral perfusion. Rather, we speculate that
405 the increase in PCS represents a chronic training adaptation required to buffer repeated bouts
406 of high CCA blood flow and normalise wall stress during intensive exercise. This proposition
407 is consistent with the Law of Laplace and would explain the lack of association between PCS
408 and CCA flow or diameter at rest. Furthermore, our ANCOVA confirmed that neither the age
409 nor habitual exercise related differences in 2D-Strain parameters were influenced by CCA
410 diastolic diameter. Similarly, all age-related differences in 2D-Strain parameters remained
411 following covariate adjustment for central mean arterial pressure, as did all differences between
412 runners and nonrunners. Taken together, these observations indicate that both age- and
413 exercise-related alterations in 2D-Strain parameters are largely independent of CCA diameter,
414 blood flow and central arterial pressure at rest.

415 Similar to our PCS and S-SR observations, significant main effects of age and training status
416 were observed for conventional measures of CCA (EMp and β) and aortic (aPWV) stiffness,
417 but no age*training status interaction was seen in any of these parameters. Although several
418 previous studies have demonstrated that regular exercise attenuates the age-related increase in
419 β -stiffness and aPWV (Tanaka et al., 2000; Vaitkevicius et al., 1993), those investigating the
420 effect of exercise in young healthy individuals report far less consistent results (Heydari et al.,
421 2013; Kakiyama et al., 2005; Montero et al., 2017; Pugh et al., 2018; Tanaka et al., 2000).
422 However, the findings of the present study infer that, like PCS and S-SR, the positive influence
423 of habitual exercise on EMp, β -stiffness and aPWV is similar in young and middle-aged males.
424 This finding is arguably in tension with our previous observation that PCS and S-SR are
425 elevated in young males with high CRF compared to less fit counterparts, despite no differences
426 in EMp, β -stiffness and aPWV (Pugh et al., 2018). However, this apparent discrepancy is likely
427 explained by the considerable differences in both training history and volume between the two
428 respective cohorts of young males. Interestingly, our regression analysis (Figure 2) reveals that
429 whilst PCS and SSR are closely related to aPWV in young males, this relationship disappears

430 during middle-age. This observation suggests that the mechanisms that influence aortic and
431 CCA stiffness are similar during early adulthood, but become distinct during middle-age,
432 which may relate to the reported exponential increase in aortic stiffness beyond 50 years of age
433 (AlGhatrif et al., 2013; McEniery et al., 2005). Accordingly, future longitudinal training studies
434 should include 2D-Strain parameters alongside aPWV in order to gain greater insight into any
435 age-related differences in the therapeutic effects of endurance exercise at distinct regions of the
436 central arterial tree.

437 Our findings have a number of important implications that relate to the cardio-protective role
438 of habitual exercise throughout healthy ageing. Increased CCA stiffness is associated with a
439 variety of age-related cerebrovascular diseases (van Sloten & Stehouwer, 2016) and is an
440 independent predictor of cardiovascular events and all-cause mortality (van Sloten et al., 2014).
441 Specifically, as a primary role of the CCA is to aid the regulation of cerebral blood flow (Hirata,
442 Yaginuma, O'Rourke, & Kawakami, 2006), the observation of enhanced PCS and reduced EMP
443 and β -stiffness in young and middle-aged runners may offer cerebral protection, including a
444 reduced risk of stroke (Mattace-Raso et al., 2006; E. Y. Yang et al., 2012). Furthermore,
445 effective buffering of dynamic elevations in blood flow throughout the central arterial tree may
446 also reduce the age-related increase in peripheral artery dysfunction and microvessel damage
447 (O'Rourke & Safar, 2005), which are hallmark morbidities of sedentary cardiovascular ageing.

448

449 **Study Limitations**

450 Although this study benefitted from a number of methodological strengths, including the
451 comprehensive range of arterial stiffness measures and high training status of both the young
452 and middle-aged runners, there are some noteworthy limitations. Firstly, our findings are
453 restricted to the CCA and therefore cannot be applied systemically. Peripheral muscular arteries
454 may be more susceptible to endurance-training than elastic central arteries (Dawson et al.,
455 2008), therefore, 2D-Strain parameters should also be studied in peripheral vascular beds in
456 the future. Secondly, data reported are only relevant for healthy young and middle-aged males.
457 Due to recognised sex differences in haemodynamic regulation (Hart & Charkoudian, 2014)
458 and vascular function (Green, Hopman, Padilla, Laughlin, & Thijssen, 2017), we acknowledge
459 that females might display different age- and exercise-related changes in 2D-Strain parameters.
460 Therefore, specific studies that are adequately powered to explore sex differences and examine
461 whether sex hormones and/or the menopause influence the effect of habitual endurance

462 exercise on healthy arterial aging are warranted. Third, although the reported training volumes
463 were sufficiently high and ecologically realistic for the respective age-groups, the middle-aged
464 male runners demonstrated a lower training volume than the younger runners.

465 **Conclusions**

466 In conclusion, this is the first study to demonstrate that habitual endurance exercise is
467 associated with enhanced PCS and S-SR in young and middle-aged males, but does not
468 influence D-SR in either age group. This novel insight indicates that regular exercise is
469 associated with comparable improvements in CCA 2D-Strain parameters in young and middle-
470 aged men, but the age-related decline in PCS and S-SR may be more amenable to habitual
471 endurance exercise than D-SR.

472 **Competing Interests**

473 The authors have no competing interests to report.

474

475 **Author Contributions**

476 The study was performed in the physiology laboratories in the Cardiff School of Sport and
477 Health Sciences at Cardiff Metropolitan University **JT**: Conception of study design, data
478 acquisition, analysis, interpretation and drafting of final manuscript. **RNL**: Data acquisition
479 and critical revision of final manuscript. **DJW**: Data acquisition and critical revision of final
480 manuscript. **TGD**: Data acquisition and critical revision of final manuscript. **BAC**: Data
481 acquisition and critical revision of final manuscript. **MB**: Data acquisition and critical revision
482 of final manuscript. **FML**: Data acquisition and critical revision of final manuscript. **CJP**:
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490 **Data Availability**

491 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author
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493

494 **References**

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Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of young male nonrunners, young male runners, middle-aged male nonrunners and middle-aged male runners. Data reported as group mean (95% CI). Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; PB, personal best; $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$, maximal aerobic capacity; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; MAP, mean arterial pressure; PP, pulse pressure.

	Young male nonrunners	Young male runners	Middle-aged male nonrunners	Middle-aged male runners	Age Effect (P-value)	Training Status Effect (P-value)	Age*Training Status Interaction (P-value)
Age (y)	23 (21, 26)	24 (22, 26)	54 (52, 56)	56 (54, 58)	≤0.001	0.220	0.577
Resting Heart Rate (bpm)	63 (58, 67)	45 (41, 49)	59 (54, 63)	45 (41, 48)	0.259	≤0.001	0.393
Anthropometrics							
Body Mass (kg)	82.0 (76.6, 87.5)	69.4 (64.9, 73.9)	80.4 (74.9, 85.8)	67.7 (63.2, 72.2)	0.502	≤0.001	0.999
Height (cm)	177.8 (174.4, 181.1)	180.6 (177.8, 183.3)	175.3 (171.9, 178.6)	177.2 (174.4, 179.9)	0.058	0.127	0.770
BMI (kg·m ⁻²)	25.9 (24.4, 27.4)	21.3 (20.0, 22.5)	26.2 (24.7, 27.7)	21.5 (20.3, 22.8)	0.719	≤0.001	0.992
Training Status							
Training History (y)	-	7 (2, 11)	-	27 (22, 31)	≤0.001	-	-
Weekly Running (miles)	-	57 (51, 64)	-	33 (26, 40)	≤0.001	-	-
Recent 5km PB (mm:ss)	-	16:12 (15:33, 16:50)	-	19:54 (19:11, 20:28)	≤0.001	-	-
$\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ (ml·kg ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹)	37.7 (33.7, 41.7)	61.0 (57.7, 64.3)	31.8 (27.8, 35.8)	51.3 (48.0, 54.6)	≤0.001	≤0.001	0.294
Brachial Blood Pressure							
SBP (mmHg)	122 (117, 127)	113 (109, 117)	119 (114, 124)	118 (114, 122)	0.642	0.032	0.101
DBP (mmHg)	72 (68, 75)	65 (62, 68)	77 (73, 80)	73 (70, 76)	≤0.001	0.003	0.458
MAP (mmHg)	86 (82, 89)	78 (75, 81)	91 (87, 95)	87 (84, 94)	≤0.001	≤0.001	0.217
PP (mmHg)	50 (46, 54)	48 (44, 51)	42 (38, 47)	45 (41, 48)	0.110	0.955	0.199

Table 2. Central haemodynamics, carotid artery morphology and conventional indices of arterial stiffness for young male nonrunners, young male runners, middle-aged male nonrunners and middle-aged male runners. Data reported as group mean (95% CI). Abbreviations: cSBP, central systolic blood pressure; cDBP, central diastolic blood pressure; cMAP, central mean arterial pressure; cPP, central pulse pressure; aPWV, aortic pulse wave velocity; EMP, Peterson's elastic modulus.

	Young male nonrunners	Young male runners	Middle-aged male nonrunners	Middle-aged male runners	Age Effect (P-value)	Training Status Effect (P-value)	Age*Training Status Interaction (P-value)
Central Blood Pressure							
cSBP (mmHg)	102 (97, 107)	95 (91, 99)	106 (101, 111)	106 (102, 110)	≤0.001	0.106	0.126
cDBP (mmHg)	74 (70, 77)	68 (65, 71)	75 (71, 79)	71 (68, 75)	0.223	0.018	0.535
cMAP (mmHg)	86 (81, 90)	77 (73, 81)	87 (82, 92)	84 (80, 88)	0.062	0.008	0.192
cPP (mmHg)	28 (26, 31)	27 (25, 30)	31 (28, 34)	34 (32, 37)	≤0.001	0.451	0.092
CCA Diameters & Blood Flow							
Systolic Diameter (mm)	6.57 (6.26, 6.89)	6.45 (6.19, 6.71)	6.83 (6.52, 7.15)	6.90 (6.65, 7.16)	0.015	0.843	0.500
Diastole Diastolic (mm)	5.88 (5.57, 6.18)	5.66 (5.40, 5.91)	6.34 (6.03, 6.65)	6.26 (6.01, 6.52)	≤0.001	0.289	0.605
Mean Diameter (mm)	6.22 (5.94, 6.51)	6.12 (5.88, 6.36)	6.64 (6.36, 6.93)	6.47 (6.23, 6.70)	0.005	0.289	0.763
Distension (mm)	0.69 (0.61, 0.78)	0.79 (0.72, 0.86)	0.49 (0.41, 0.58)	0.64 (0.57, 0.71)	≤0.001	0.004	0.559
Blood Flow (ml·min ⁻¹)	570 (500, 640)	602 (549, 655)	660 (586, 732)	615 (558, 673)	0.362	0.861	0.238
Conventional Arterial Stiffness Indices							
aPWV (m·s ⁻¹)	5.8 (5.4, 6.3)	5.1 (4.7, 5.4)	7.4 (7.0, 7.9)	6.7 (6.3, 7.1)	≤0.001	≤0.001	0.986
EM _p (kPa)	33.1 (26.3, 39.9)	26.1 (20.4, 31.7)	57.5(50.7, 64.3)	48.1 (42.5, 53.7)	≤0.001	0.016	0.706
B-stiffness (cm ² ·kPa)	2.87 (2.3, 3.5)	2.43 (1.9, 2.9)	4.85 (4.3, 5.4)	4.16 (3.7, 4.6)	≤0.001	0.039	0.634

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. CCA 2D-Strain parameters in the young male nonrunners (YNR), young male runners (YR), middle-aged male nonrunners (MNR) and middle-aged male runners (MR) (Panel A – PCS [%], Panel B – S-SR [$l \cdot s^{-1}$] and Panel C – D-SR [$l \cdot s^{-1}$]). Data are reported as individual participant data points with corresponding group means (95% CI). * Indicates a significant post-hoc difference between groups ($P \leq 0.05$).

Figure 2. Panel A (PCS [%], Young: 18%. Middle-aged: 18%; both $P = 0.015$) and Panel B (S-SR [$l \cdot s^{-1}$], Young: 31%; $P \leq 0.001$. Middle-aged: 7%; $P = 0.133$) illustrate regression analyses examining the relationship of CCA 2D-Strain parameters and $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ in Young (\circ) and Middle-aged (\blacksquare) males. Panel C (PCS, Young: $r^2 = 0.18$; $P = 0.016$. Middle-aged: $r^2 = 0.30$; $P = 0.381$) and Panel D (S-SR, Young: $r^2 = 0.19$; $P = 0.013$. Middle-aged: $r^2 = 0.0$; $P = 0.975$) illustrate regression analyses examining the relationship of CCA 2D-Strain parameters and aPWV.