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### The effect of post-meal walking on 24-hour central blood pressure in young women with and without excess adiposity

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The effect of post-meal walking on daytime blood pressure in young adult women

By  
Maison D'Amelio

A senior thesis submitted to the Faculty of the University of New Hampshire in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Honors in Biomedical Science.

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**The effect of post-meal walking on 24-hour central blood pressure in young women with and without excess adiposity**

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44 **ABSTRACT**

45 Post-meal walking (PMW) performed after breakfast, lunch, and dinner has been demonstrated  
46 to reduce blood glucose. However, no studies have examined the potential additive benefits of  
47 post-meal walking exercise on daytime central blood pressure (BP) in young women.

48 **METHODS:** Thirteen physically inactive, non-hypertensive women (Age:  $20 \pm 1$  years; percent  
49 body fat:  $28.2 \pm 13\%$ ) completed the study during the early follicular or placebo phase of their  
50 contraceptive cycle. Participants completed a control day (CON; no exercise/excess physical  
51 activity) and PMW day (3 bouts x 15 minutes of brisk walking) over five days in random order.  
52 Daytime ambulatory BP and accelerometry data (to estimate METs) were measured and  
53 compared. **RESULTS:** PMW increased metabolic expenditure (PMW=  $35.8 \pm 1.44$  vs. CON=  
54  $33.7 \pm 0.94$  METs,  $p < 0.05$ ). Daytime central BP trended to increase or was increased on the PMW  
55 day compared to the control day (Central Systolic BP: PWM=  $104 \pm 8$  vs. CON=  $101 \pm 9$  mmHg,  
56  $p = 0.054$ ; Central Diastolic BP: PWM=  $73 \pm 6.5$  vs. CON=  $70 \pm 7$  mmHg,  $p < 0.05$ ; Central Mean  
57 BP: PWM=  $88 \pm 8$  vs. CON=  $85 \pm 8$  mmHg,  $p < 0.05$ ). PMW also increased daytime heart rate  
58 (PWM=  $85 \pm 7$ . vs. CON=  $80 \pm 5$  bpm,  $p < 0.05$ ). Further, a median split based on adiposity did not  
59 lead to any meaningful reductions in daytime central BP ( $p > 0.05$  for all). **CONCLUSION:**  
60 PMW does not lead to reductions in central BP in young, physically inactive women.

61

62

63 **INTRODUCTION**

64

65 Excess adiposity, tobacco use, physical inactivity, and unhealthy diets are all risk factors  
66 for the development of hypertension (Artham et al., 2009). Hypertension is defined as a systolic  
67 blood pressure (BP) of 129 mmHg or higher and/or a diastolic BP of 79 mmHg or higher.  
68 Hypertension has been linked to an increased risk of cardiovascular disease (Fuchs & Whelton,  
69 2020) and is more prevalent in sedentary obese participants compared to their normotensive  
70 counterparts (Wildman et al., 2003). Therefore, interventions have been developed to improve  
71 modifiable risk factors to reduce adiposity, increase exercise, and dietary interventions to reduce  
72 the risk of hypertension and cardiovascular disease in our sedentary obese population.

73 Exercise has been demonstrated to help lower the risk of CVD independent of body  
74 weight and hypertension status (Lunde et al., 2012). As little as 10 minutes of acute moderate-  
75 intensity exercise has been demonstrated to acutely lower BP in a normotensive adults directly  
76 after exercise (MacDonald et al., 2000). The transient decrease in BP is known as post-exercise  
77 hypotension. Further, any decrease in post-exercise BP in normotensive participants are  
78 generally greater in overweight and hypertensive participants (Kenney & Seals, 1993).  
79 Importantly, the benefits of acute BP reductions may be beneficial in reducing daytime BP. A  
80 study by Quinn (2000) found that exercising at moderate (50%  $VO_{2max}$ ) and vigorous (75%  
81  $VO_{2max}$ ) intensity exercise decreased BP over a 24-hour period in hypertensive participants  
82 (Quinn, 2000). Although high-intensity exercise is recommended to meet exercise guidelines  
83 with benefits of acutely lowering BP (Angadi et al., 2015; Eicher et al., 2010), low-intensity  
84 exercise has similarly been demonstrated to reduce BP (Gomes et al., 2010). Therefore, low to  
85 moderate-intensity exercise may be a preferred low-risk exercise intervention for sedentary and  
86 obese adults.

87           The acute known reduction in BP following exercise might offer additional benefits  
88 following a meal, as previous studies have highlighted the benefit for reducing BP and blood  
89 glucose (Lunde et al., 2012; Nygaard et al., 2009). The post-meal effects of exercise provides a  
90 novel intervention mechanism, as insulin is known to promote smooth muscle vasodilation and  
91 reduce peripheral resistance. Previous research by Stevens and colleagues (2011) demonstrated  
92 that post-meal walking lowered blood glucose concentration over a 24-hour period following a  
93 single 45 minute bout of exercise in the morning or the afternoon in older individuals (Stevens et  
94 al., 2011). New ambulatory BP technology offers an enhanced ability to measure central BP,  
95 which has not been studied in an ecological setting. To this point, central BP provides a better  
96 prognostic assessment of cardiovascular health compared to brachial BP (Kollias et al., 2016).  
97 Central BP is pressure measured at the aorta, which nearby target organs receive (Kollias et al.,  
98 2016). As central BP increases, nearby target organs experience increased pressure leading to  
99 target organ damage (Mensah, 2016). A paucity of data exists assessing central BP and arterial  
100 stiffness following acute exercise. However, available data suggests that resistance exercise and  
101 maximal aerobic exercise does not affect central BP and arterial stiffness when measured in a  
102 laboratory-based setting (5-30 minutes post-exercise) (Bunsawat et al., 2017; Thiebaud et al.,  
103 2016). Acute reductions in central BP remains unknown beyond a laboratory setting.

104           In addition to understanding the daytime benefits to central BP, there are limited studies  
105 assessing the post-exercise hypotension response in women (Bonsu & Terblanche, 2016; Brito et  
106 al., 2015; Pescatello et al., 2003; Tibana et al., 2014) and the specific response to post-meal  
107 exercise remains unknown in physically inactive young women. Therefore, the purpose of the  
108 following study was to determine if three bouts of post-meal walking reduces daytime BP in  
109 women. We hypothesized post-meal walking would reduce daytime central BP compared to the

110 control day. Additionally, we examined if the magnitude of the central BP response was greater  
111 in young women with excess adiposity.

112

113

114 **METHODS**

115 All experimental procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board at the  
116 University of New Hampshire and were in compliance with the guidelines set forth by the  
117 Declaration of Helsinki. Healthy women (age 18-25) with no previous health conditions that  
118 were physically inactive were recruited in the study. Participants did not have diabetes,  
119 hypertension, cardiovascular disease, stroke, chronic kidney disease, cancer, neurological  
120 disease, asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and blood clotting diseases. They were  
121 also free of injury that prevented completing the post-meal walking regimen.

122 *Basic Health Profile & Familiarization*

123 Prior to entry into the study, all participants provided both verbal and written informed  
124 consent. All participants first completed a basic health assessment and familiarization session.  
125 Each participant was asked to fast and abstain from caffeine, physical exercise, and alcohol for  
126 24 hours before the basic health assessment. Upon arrival, each participant completed a brief  
127 health history questionnaire. Next, resting BP, heart rate, and a fasting blood sample were  
128 measured. Resting BP (Spot Vital Signs LXi, WelchAllyn; Skaneateles Falls, New York, USA)  
129 and heart rate were measured following 5-minutes of quiet rest in a seated position. Fasting  
130 blood glucose and lipid were measured from the fasting blood sample (Cholestech LDX  
131 Analyzer, Abbott; Chicago, Illinois, USA). Participants were excluded if they had resting  
132 hypertension (systolic BP >129 mmHg; diastolic BP > 79 mmHg) or if their fasting blood  
133 glucose was greater than or equal to 126 mg/dL. Height, weight, waist circumference, and body  
134 fat percentage were completed for Anthropometric measurements. Weight and body fat  
135 percentage were measured using bioelectrical impedance analysis (InBody770; Cerritos,  
136 California, USA). After completing the basic health profile, we reviewed and familiarized



137 participants to the post-meal walking regimen. During the familiarization, participants completed  
138 a walking bout at a Borg (6-20 scale) rating of perceived exertion at 13-14.

#### 139 *Control & Post-Meal Walking Day*

140 Over a 5-day period, participants completed a control day and post-meal walking day in  
141 random order. Participants wore a 24-hour BP monitor and the physical activity monitor during  
142 both the control and the post-meal walking day. On the control day, participants completed  
143 normal daily activities and avoided strenuous physical activity. On the post-meal walking day,  
144 participants maintained normal daily activities except for completing three 15-minute bouts of  
145 post-meal walking, one after each meal (breakfast, lunch, and dinner). The participant walked for  
146 15 minutes at a walking pace equal to 13-14 on the Borg rating of perceived exertion scale 30  
147 minutes after their meal.

#### 148 *Physical Activity Monitoring & Blood Pressure Instrumentation*

149 An ActivPal Physical Monitor (PAL Technologies Ltd; Glasgow, Scotland) was placed on  
150 the right thigh of the participant, 1/3 of the way down from the inguinal crease at their hip.  
151 Participants wore the physical activity monitor for each day of the 5-day study. A 24-hour  
152 ambulatory BP cuff was placed on the upper arm of the non-dominant arm. We reviewed the  
153 proper fitting of the BP cuff to allow the participant to remove for showering and place it again  
154 on their arm. The participant wore the BP cuff and the activity monitor for both days. The  
155 participant removed the BP cuff before the exercise bout and replaced it immediately after  
156 exercise, and immediately began BP measurements again. Daytime BP measurements were taken  
157 every 20 minutes. The participant recorded their sleep and wake times to determine daytime and  
158 nighttime periods. The participant recorded food intake and mealtime in a diet log on both the

159 control and post-meal walking day. Participants were instructed to consume the same meals and  
160 timing of meals as best as possible on the two study days.

161 *Data & Statistical Analysis*

162 All data was presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. Two-tail paired t-tests compared  
163 daytime brachial BP, central BP, heart rate, steps, metabolic equivalents, and arterial stiffness  
164 measures between control and post-meal walking days. In a sub-analysis, a median split was  
165 performed between women based on adiposity levels. A two-way ANOVA compared average  
166 daytime central BP measurements between the two groups and trials (Group x Time).

167

**168 RESULTS**

169 A total of 14 women participated in the study. One dropped out due to a non-study  
170 related illness and 13 women completed the study. Demographic and anthropometric data are  
171 presented in Table 1. Based on the basic health assessment, twelve of the thirteen participants  
172 were classified as normotensive and one participant was classified with elevated BP (systolic BP  
173 = 124 mmHg). All participants were inactive healthy women with no previous history of  
174 diagnosed hypertension, cardiovascular disease, diabetes, or chronic illness.

*175 Daytime Central BP Responses to Post-Meal Walking*

176 Figure 1 displays the difference in activity when comparing the post-meal walking and  
177 control day. Post-meal walking increased steps per day and metabolic equivalents compared to  
178 control day ( $p < 0.05$ ). Figure 2 displays the daytime brachial systolic, diastolic, and mean arterial  
179 pressure responses between control and post-meal walking. Both brachial systolic BP and mean  
180 arterial pressure trended to increase ( $p = 0.057$ ,  $p = 0.063$  respectively) on the post-meal walking  
181 day. Diastolic BP was not different between control and post-meal walking ( $p > 0.05$ ). Daytime  
182 central BP are provided in Figure 3. Central systolic BP trended towards significance on the  
183 post-meal walking day ( $p = 0.052$ ). Central diastolic BP was greater on the post-meal walking day  
184 compared to the control day. Central mean arterial pressure was higher on the post-meal walking  
185 day compared to the control. Daytime heart rate, central pulse pressure, and augmentation  
186 pressure are provided in Figure 4. Daytime heart rate was augmented on the post-meal walking  
187 day compared to the control day ( $p < 0.05$ ), but central pulse pressure and central augmentation  
188 pressure were not different ( $p > 0.05$ ).

*189 Central BP Responses in Adiposity Groups*

190 Demographic and anthropometric data are presented in Table 2 after a median split was  
191 performed on the participants. The participants in the excess adiposity group had a body fat

192 percentage greater than a 30%. Figure 5 displays the daytime central BP and heart rate  
193 comparisons between the normal adiposity group and the excess adiposity group. No difference  
194 was seen in either group when comparing the post-meal walking and control day for central  
195 systolic, diastolic BP, and mean arterial pressure. There was a significant increase in heart rate  
196 on the post-meal walking day compared to the control day in both groups.  
197

**198 DISCUSSION**

199           The novel findings of our study found that post-meal walking did not reduce daytime  
200 brachial BP in physically inactive young women. Instead of reducing daytime BP, post-meal  
201 walking increased heart rate, central diastolic BP, and mean arterial pressure. Contrary to our  
202 hypothesis, post-meal walking did not have a meaningful reduction in daytime BP in physically  
203 inactive young women. Additionally, a sub-analysis of young women with excess adiposity  
204 revealed no effect of PMW walking to reduce brachial and central BP.

205           We found no change in daytime brachial BP in physically inactive young women,  
206 however, the literature has found decreases in brachial BP. Vriz et al (2002) found that in those  
207 who were consistent, heavy (3+ days) exercisers, had a decrease in lab measured and 24-hour BP  
208 after 3 months in men with mild hypertension compared to those with less or no exercise.  
209 Guimaraes et al (2014) found that in inactive individuals between 40-65 with resistant  
210 hypertension, after completing 12 weeks of 3 times a week 60 minute exercise, a significant  
211 reduction in 24-hour SBP and DBP overall, including day and night periods. Brachial BP  
212 reductions have also been found in normotensive populations. Badrov et al (2016) found that  
213 isometric exercise training lowers resting brachial BP in normotensive men and women. Brachial  
214 BP reductions have been seen in middle-aged and older populations of women. Lunde et al  
215 (2012) found slow walking helps to reduce post-meal acute BP in middle-aged physically  
216 inactive women. Harvey et al (2005) found that in healthy postmenopausal women, exercise was  
217 found to decrease systolic and diastolic BP, but this was not found in premenopausal women.  
218 Brachial BP has been found to be reduced in multiple populations regardless of hypertension  
219 status, with most of the studies extending past a single week. It could be hypothesized that if our  
220 study was extended for a longer period of time, that we would see a similar reduction in brachial  
221 BP.

222 We found a significant increase in central BP measures in physically inactive young adult  
223 women. Central BP assesses the pressor load experienced by nearby target organs. Multiple  
224 studies have found a reduction in central BP following exercise in various populations of men.  
225 Heffernan et al (2009) found that resistance training led to reductions in central BP in young  
226 African American and white men. Croymans et al (2014) found that after high-intensity  
227 resistance training, there was a decrease in central systolic and diastolic BP in overweight and  
228 obese young men. Goeder et al (2019) found central systolic BP to be decreased up to five hours  
229 after a maximum effort of exercise in young, healthy males. There was also a study conducted  
230 including women and central BP. Tomschi et al (2018) compared upper and lower body  
231 resistance exercise in young adult women. In central systolic BP, they found a decrease in BP 10  
232 minutes following upper body resistance. When looking at central diastolic BP, they found a  
233 decrease in BP 10 minutes following exercise in both upper and lower body resistance, however,  
234 there was no difference in either central systolic or diastolic BP 60 minutes after the exercise  
235 bout. The studies with men saw a longer decrease in central BP than those women and with less  
236 studies including women, therefore, this suggests a sex difference response in central BP  
237 between sexes. The difference BP response might be due to altered cardiovascular responses to  
238 exercise between men and women. Women have been found to have a greater cardiac mediated  
239 exercise response than men (Samora et al., 2019).

240 Contrary to our hypothesis, we found no difference in daytime BP when comparing  
241 women with and without excess adiposity. Although obesity is linked to increases in BP and  
242 arterial stiffness, we found no meaningful differences in arterial stiffness measures. Mertens &  
243 Van Gaal (2000) found that a 5-10% decrease in body weight in obese hypertensive patients can  
244 help to normalize BP to normal weight patients. Hu et al (2005) discussed that both weight and

245 physical activity are important claiming that a high level of physical activity did not counteract  
246 the mortality associated with obesity and, in turn, that being lean does not eliminate mortality  
247 risk that is associated with inactivity. Our excess adiposity group contains women with  
248 percentage body fat greater than 30%, with the greatest percent body fat being 41.4%. The BMI  
249 range of our excessive adiposity group cohort was 22.4-30, placing them between normal BMI to  
250 one being classified as obese. Even though our study found no difference between adiposity  
251 levels and BP reduction, most of our cohort was of a lower BMI than the average American, so  
252 Americans within the overweight and/or obese category may see a difference in BP and should  
253 utilize exercise and healthy diet to decrease their weight.

254         The study had a few limitations. We tried to control for the menstrual cycle by having  
255 each of the participants complete the study during their early follicular phase or placebo phase of  
256 their oral contraceptive cycle, however, we do not know how other phases would affect these  
257 results. Although several control measures were in place, we only collected data from a small  
258 sample of physically inactive women, therefore further studies with larger sample sizes are  
259 needed to confirm the effects of PMW on daytime brachial and central BP. Lastly, the effects of  
260 diet were not explicitly controlled for therefore, we are unable to determine if participant to  
261 participant variations in diet affected our results.

## 262 **CONCLUSION**

263         Contrary to our hypothesis, post-meal walking led to increases in central diastolic and  
264 mean arterial pressure in physically inactive women. These central blood pressure responses  
265 appear to be cardiac driven blood pressure responses as heart rate was elevated, and arterial  
266 stiffness measures were not different between control and post-meal walking days. These data  
267 suggest the role of potential sex differences between men and women.

268

269

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## **FIGURE LEGENDS**

### **Figure 1.**

Post-meal walking increased step count and energy expenditure (METs) compared to the control day. PMW, post-meal walking. \* $p < 0.05$  vs. control.

### **Figure 2.**

Daytime brachial blood pressure did not decrease with PMW. However, there were trends for an increase in daytime systolic and mean arterial pressure. PMW, post-meal walking.

### **Figure 3.**

Post-meal walking increased day time central diastolic blood pressure and mean arterial pressure compared to the control day. PMW did not increase daytime central systolic blood pressure. PMW, post-meal walking. \* $p < 0.05$  vs. control.

### **Figure 4.**

Post-meal exercise increased daytime heart rate but had no effect on measures of arterial stiffness measures (central pulse pressure & central augmentation pressure). PMW, post-meal walking; HR, heart rate; PP, pulse pressure. \* $p < 0.05$  vs. control.

### **Figure 5.**

A median split based on adiposity found no difference in central BP responses to post-meal walking between normal and excess adiposity groups. However, both groups did have an elevated daytime heart rate on the post-meal walking day. PMW, post-meal walking; HR, heart rate; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; MAP, mean arterial pressure. \* $p < 0.05$  vs. control.

404 Table 1

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Table 1 - Participant Characteristics (n = 13)

Age, years	20 ± 1
Height, cm	163.8 ± 4.3
Weight, kg	63.2 ± 11
Body Mass Index, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	23.6 ± 4.4
Body Fat %	28.2 ± 13
Waist Circumference, cm	77.0 ± 10
Fasting Blood Glucose, mg/dL	90 ± 7
Total Cholesterol, mg/dL	186.0 ± 34
HDL, mg/dL	64.0 ± 13
LDL, mg/dL	105.0 ± 33
Triglycerides, mg/dL	95.0 ± 41
Resting Systolic Blood Pressure, mmHg	110 ± 6
Resting Diastolic Blood Pressure, mmHg	74 ± 4
Resting Heart Rate, bpm	86 ± 12

Bpm, beats per minute; cm, centimeter; HDL, high density lipoprotein; kg, kilograms; LDL, low density lipoprotein; mmHg, millimeters mercury; mg/dL, milligrams per deciliter

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408 Table 2

Table 2 - Median Split Characteristics

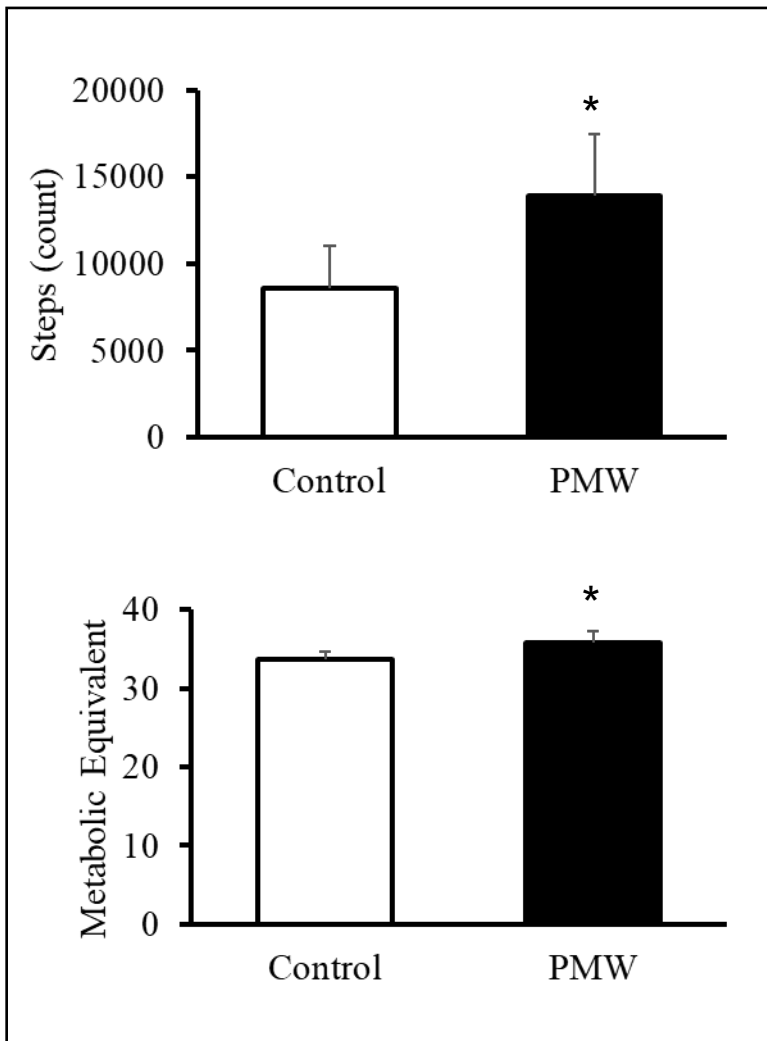
	Normal Adiposity (n=6)	Excess Adiposity (n=7)
Age, years	19.8 ± 1.2	20.4 ± 1.5
Height, cm	165 ± 3.8	162.8 ± 4.6
Weight, kg	56 ± 7.8	69.4 ± 10.4*
Body Mass Index, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	20.6 ± 2.8	26.2 ± 3.8*
Body Fat %	22.4 ± 6.8	37.2 ± 4.2*
Waist Circumference, cm	70.1 ± 6.8	82.9 ± 9*
Fasting Blood Glucose, mg/dL	91 ± 10.2	90 ± 4.7
Total Cholesterol, mg/dL	177.2 ± 18.4	194.3 ± 44
HDL, mg/dL	64.7 ± 13.7	63.9 ± 13.5
LDL, mg/dL	91.2 ± 6.3	115.8 ± 42.5
Triglycerides, mg/dL	89.3 ± 36.3	102.4 ± 50.3
Resting Systolic Blood Pressure, mmHg	108 ± 5	112 ± 7
Resting Diastolic Blood Pressure, mmHg	73 ± 3	75 ± 4
Resting Heart Rate, bpm	88 ± 13	85 ± 10

Bpm, beats per minute; cm, centimeter; HDL, high density lipoprotein; kg, kilograms; LDL, low density lipoprotein; mmHg, millimeters mercury; mg/dL, milligrams per deciliter

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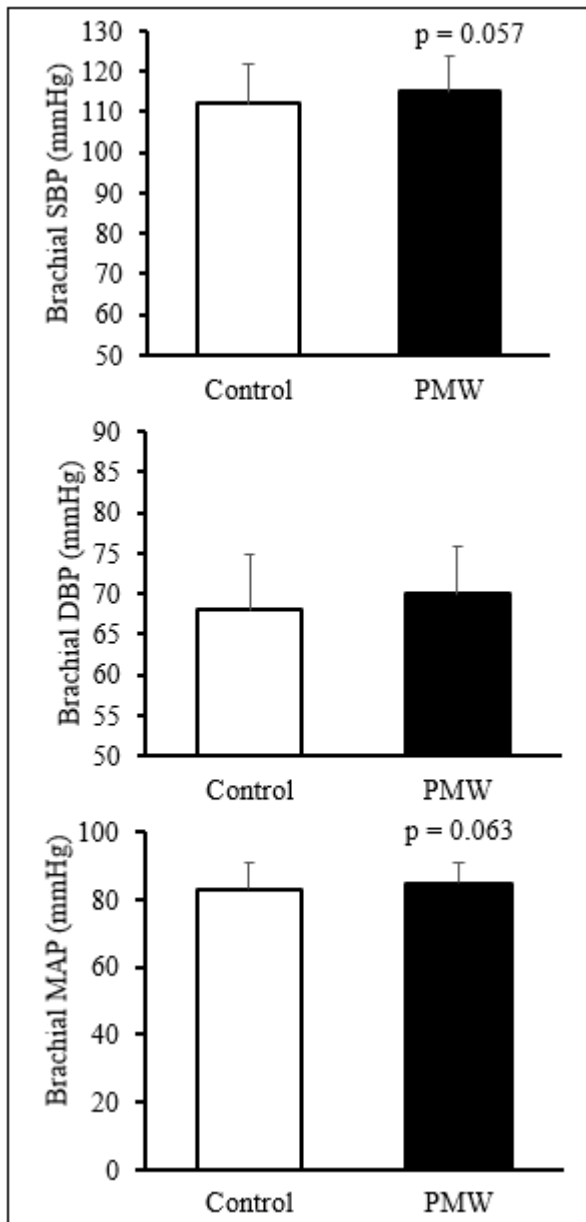
Figure 1.



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418 Figure 2.

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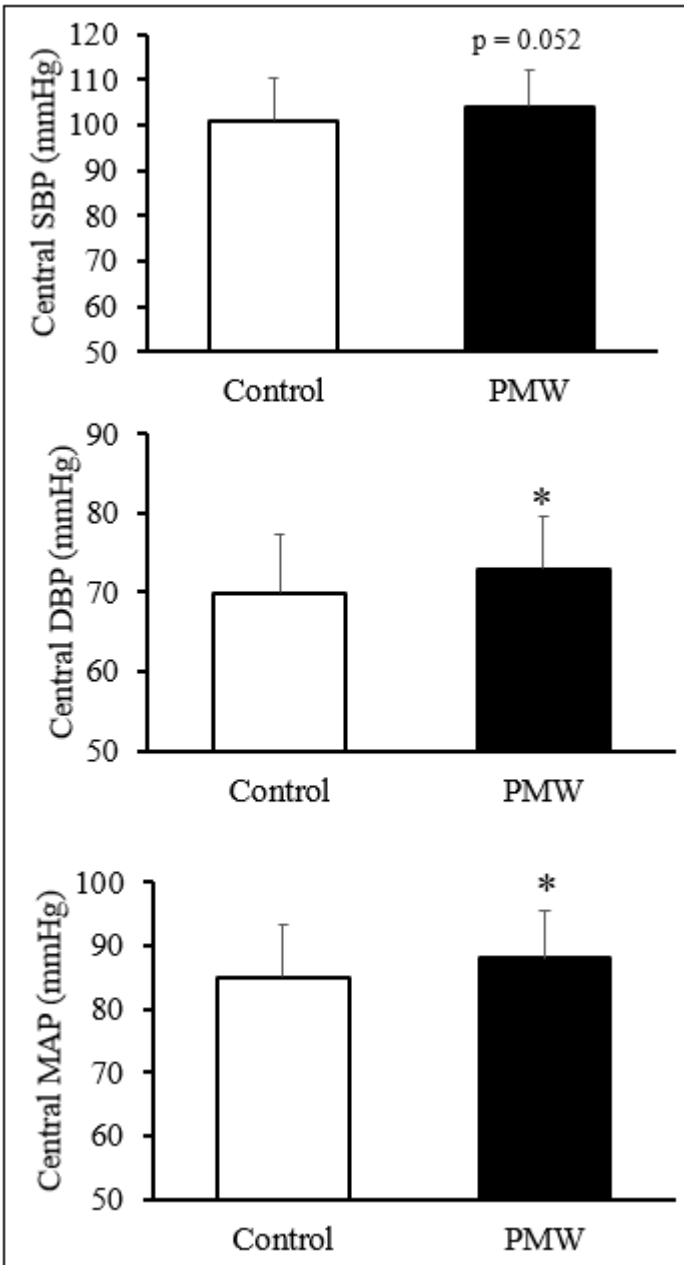


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422 Figure 3.

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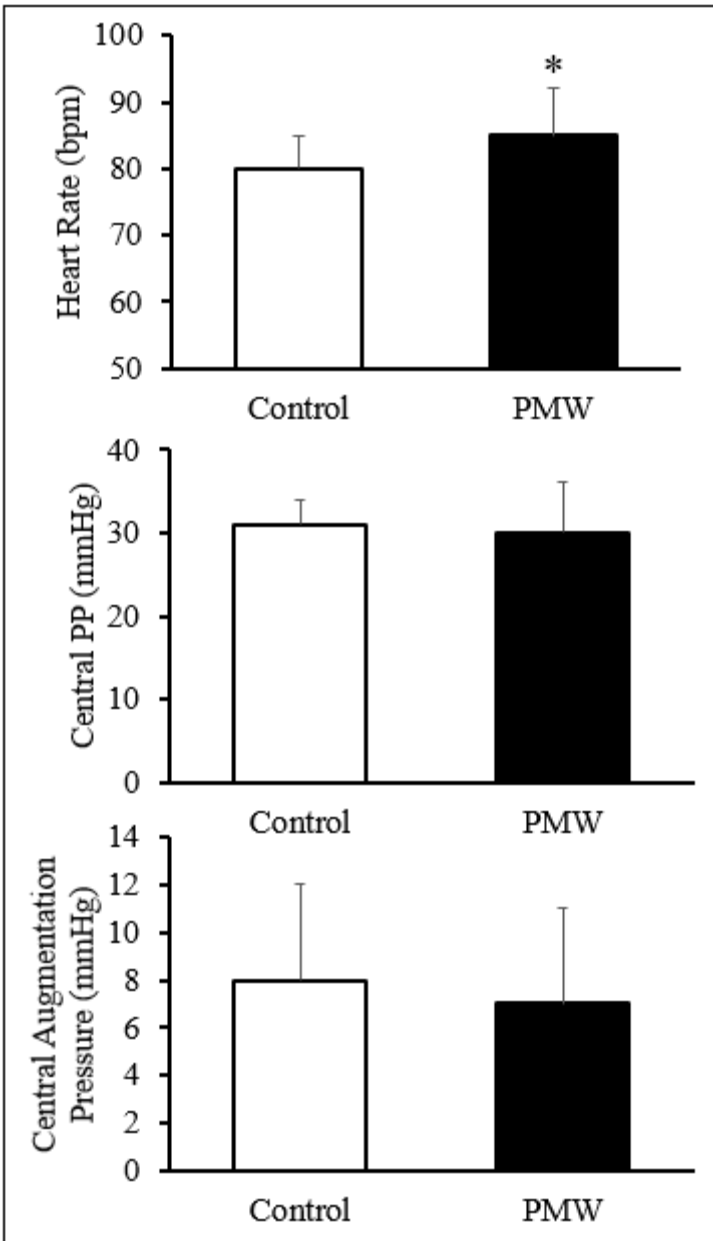


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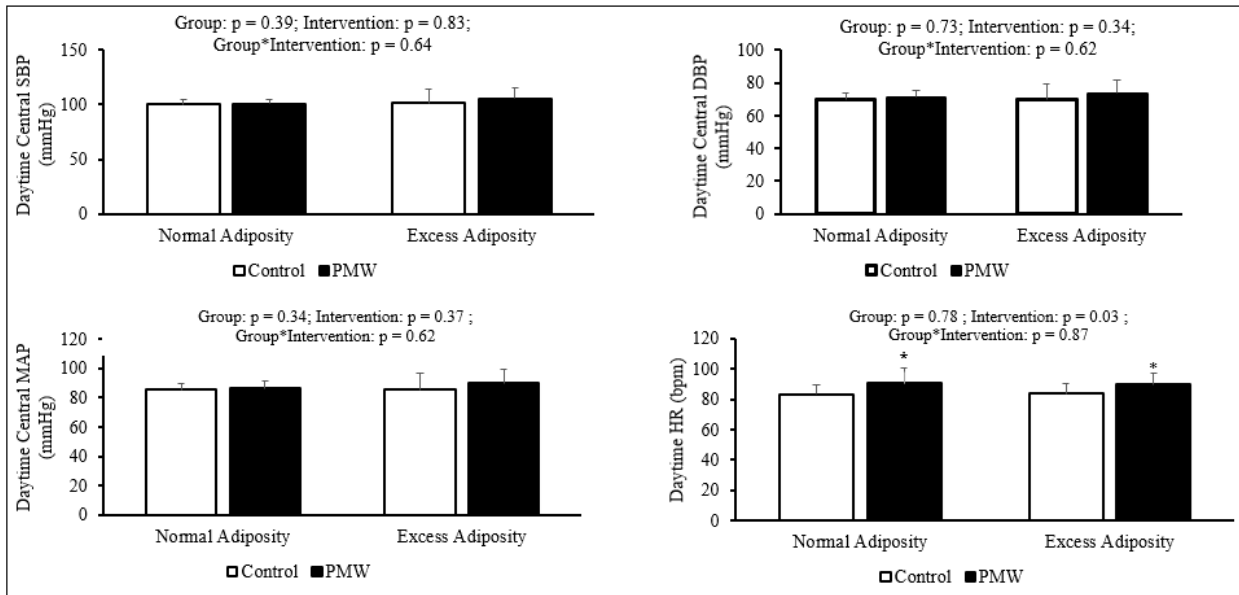
Figure 4.



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Figure 5.



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