

Citation for the published version:

Tack, C., Shorthouse, F., & Kass, L. (2018). The Physiological Mechanisms of Effect of Vitamins and Amino Acids on Tendon and Muscle Healing: A Systematic Review. *International Journal of Sports Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism*, 28(3), 294-311. DOI:10.1123/ijsnem.2017-0267

Document Version: Accepted Version

Link to the final published version available at the publisher:

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International Journal of Sports Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism

<https://doi.org/10.1123/ijsnem.2017-0267> © Human Kinetics, Inc.

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Aims/ Objectives**

3 To evaluate current literature via systematic review to ascertain whether amino acids/
4 vitamins provide any influence on musculotendinous healing, and by which physiological
5 mechanisms.

6 **Methods**

7 EBSCO, PUBMED, Science Direct, Embase Classic/ Embase, and MEDLINE were searched
8 using terms including “vitamins”, “amino acids”, “healing”, “muscle” and “tendon”. The
9 primary search had 479 citations, 466 of which were excluded predominantly due to non-
10 randomised design. Randomised human and animal studies investigating all supplement
11 types/ forms of administration were included. Critical appraisal of internal validity was
12 assessed using the Cochrane risk of bias tool or the Systematic Review Centre for Laboratory
13 Animal Experimentation (SYRCLE) risk of bias tool for human and animal studies,
14 respectively. 2 reviewers performed dual data extraction.

15 **Results**

16 Twelve studies met criteria for inclusion: 8 examined tendon healing, 4 examined muscle
17 healing. All studies used animal models, except 2 human trials using a combined integrator.

18 Narrative synthesis was performed via content analysis of demonstrated statistically
19 significant effects, and thematic analysis of proposed physiological mechanisms of
20 intervention. Vitamin C/ taurine demonstrated indirect effects on tendon healing through
21 anti-oxidant activity. Vitamin A/ glycine showed direct effects on extra-cellular matrix tissue
22 synthesis. Vitamin E shows an anti-proliferative influence on collagen deposition. Leucine
23 directly influences signalling pathways to promote muscle protein synthesis.

24 **Discussion**

25 Preliminary evidence exists demonstrating vitamins and amino acids may facilitate multi-
26 level changes in musculotendinous healing; however recommendations on clinical utility
27 should be made with caution. All animal studies and one human study show high risk of bias
28 with moderate inter-observer agreement ($k=0.46$).

29 Currently, there is limited evidence to support the use of vitamins and amino acids for
30 musculotendinous injury. Both high quality animal experimentation of the proposed
31 mechanisms confirming the physiological influence of supplementation; and human studies
32 evaluating effects on tissue morphology and biochemistry are required before practical
33 application.

34 [299 words]

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44 **Introduction**

45 Dietary supplements are defined as any concentrated source of a nutritional compound
46 demonstrating a physiological effect (Department of Health, 2011). A meta-analysis (n=159)
47 shows greater usage of supplements in athletes compared to non-athletes with increasing
48 frequency in elite performers (Knapik et al., 2016). Despite heterogeneity between studies,
49 a pooled prevalence estimate of 60% indicates high usage in the athletic population.
50 Furthermore, supplement use guidelines are inadequate; athletes may misunderstand
51 supplement effects; and display insufficient knowledge to independently plan their diet
52 (Molinero & Márquez, 2009; Petróczi et al., 2007; Torres-McGehee et al., 2012). This may
53 lead to disordered eating behaviours and in extreme cases may leave them at heightened
54 risk of musculoskeletal injury such as fracture (Bonci et al., 2008). Dietary management
55 strategy can also be misinterpreted by coaches who discourage supplement use due to the
56 potential risks of contamination and inadvertent doping (Judkins & Prock, 2012), but who
57 have inadequate knowledge in nutritional practices to plan effectively during injury recovery
58 (Tipton, 2011). Thus, leaving athletes reticent to supplement their diet during rehabilitation
59 (Tack, 2016). This is despite evidence from randomised controlled trials that supplements
60 can provide therapeutic effects on muscle morphometry and strength following injury
61 (Hespel et al., 2001; Holm et al., 2006); and muscular metabolic efficiency following
62 immobility (Eijnde et al., 2001). A survey of 145 athletes demonstrated only 34% considered
63 supplementation to improve musculoskeletal tissue repair (e.g. chondroitin, glucosamine,
64 methyl-sulfonyl-methane and omega-3 fatty acids) (Malinauskas et al., 2007). In similar
65 surveys, maintaining strength/endurance and avoiding sickness were more commonly cited
66 reasons for supplementation (Petróczi et al., 2007a/b; Petróczi et al., 2008).

67 Animal experiments investigating skin wound healing indicate supplementation can elicit
68 positive effects on collagen synthesis (Ejaz et al., 2009; Uzgare et al., 2009) and tensile
69 breaking-strength (Shukla et al., 1999). More specifically, vitamins and vitamin-related-
70 compounds can increase growth factor release (retinoids) (Wicke et al., 2000); as well as
71 enhancing tensile breaking-strength (vitamin E-like antioxidant, Raxofelast) (Galeano et al.,
72 2001). Other supplements, such as olive oil, can reduce oxidative damage during healing
73 (Rosa et al., 2014); whilst the amino acid arginine can improve wound angiogenesis
74 (Raynaud-Simon et al., 2012). The choice of supplement is therefore critical. Additionally,
75 there is evidence of negative effects through excessive facilitation of pro-inflammatory
76 pathways by omega-3 fatty acids (McDaniel et al., 2008); and in the case linseed and fish
77 oils, of reduced tissue angiogenesis (Otranto et al., 2010). Human trials with arginine
78 demonstrate improvements in blastogenic response to injury (Barbul et al., 1990; Sax,
79 1994); and improved collagen deposition seen following supplementation with amino acid
80 mixture containing arginine, beta-hydroxy beta-methylbutyrate and glutamine (Williams et
81 al., 2002). Additionally, time to wound healing is reduced following supplementation of a
82 mixture containing protein, zinc, iron and vitamin C (Collins et al., 2005).

83 This review elaborates on a multi-topic feasibility search which incorporated all supplement
84 types and the influence on musculotendinous tissue healing. Subsequently a PICO
85 (population, intervention, comparator, outcome) question was devised: “what is the effect
86 of dietary supplements on musculoskeletal tissue (e.g. cartilage, tendon, muscle, ligament)
87 healing compared to placebo or other control?”, and was used to formulate a search of
88 Google Scholar and PUBMED to evaluate the quality/ volume of existing literature. This
89 search produced 95 papers which when assessed for eligibility was reduced to 24 studies.

90 Amino acids and vitamins demonstrated sufficient literature to perform a more specific
91 systematic review and consequently these classifications of supplements encapsulated all
92 literature found to evaluate the effect of supplements in muscle and tendon.

93 The specific research question “what is the effect of vitamins and/ or amino acids on
94 musculoskeletal tissue (e.g. cartilage, tendon, muscle, ligament) healing parameters
95 compared to placebo or other control?” was then devised. This methodology (systematic
96 review via content and thematic analysis) was chosen to synthesise findings of animal and
97 human model experiments, previously undertaken in other areas of medicine (Sallis, 2000;
98 Virmani et al., 2003), and in response to the call for methodologically sound reviews to
99 evolve the research base (Reagan-Shaw et al., 2008).

100 As such this review aims to identify whether these selected dietary supplements (amino
101 acids and vitamins) provide any influence on muscle and tendon tissue healing in animal and
102 human models of injury (traumatic, degenerative or exercise induced); and if so, what
103 mechanisms underpin this influence.

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120 **Methods**

121 This review followed specific methodology guidelines (Centre for Reviews and
122 Dissemination, 2009), and reported in accordance with the Preferred reporting items for
123 systematic review and meta-analysis (PRISMA) statement for reporting systematic reviews
124 (Moher et al. 2015). The review was based upon an *a priori* protocol which described
125 essential procedures to be followed (e.g. the PICO question of issue, comprehensive search
126 strategy and a piloted data extraction pro forma).

127

128 **Eligibility Criteria**

129 This review followed the following inclusion criteria:

- 130 • Randomised controlled trials of human and animal models of tendon and muscle
131 injury. Although it has been reported that randomisation and blinding in animal
132 studies is often not stringently adhered to (Hess, 2011); the choice was made to
133 include these trials but be explicit in critique of these processes. Despite continuing
134 debate around the poor predictive value of animal experiments for humans
135 (McGonigle & Ruggeri, 2014); this review includes animal models to support findings
136 from human trials. Methodological flaws (e.g. insufficient, allocation concealment/
137 blinding) (Kilkenny et al., 2009) can limit prediction from animals to humans (Hackam

138 & Redelmeier, 2006; Henderson et al., 2013); leading to problems such as outcome
139 reporting bias (Tsilidis et al., 2013). To attenuate these risks (Sena et al., 2010)
140 explicit application of randomisation and control group use is specified for inclusion.

- 141 • Trials examining the influence of vitamins and/ or amino acid compounds applied
142 orally, by injection or topically (either alone or in combination).
- 143 • The studies must use outcomes indicative of physiological changes in healing (e.g.
144 ultimate tensile strain, cellular tissue proliferation, and vascularisation).

145

146 Non-randomised trials were excluded to reduce selection bias (Hahn et al. 2005). Only
147 English language papers were included due to a lack of translation services. Papers were
148 initially screened by title/ abstract. Potentially relevant abstracts were sourced in full text
149 and assessed independently against distinct inclusion criteria by two reviewers (CT/ FS) for
150 eligibility. A third reviewer was available for consultation and consensus (LK).

151

152 Non-randomised experimental or observational studies (including *in vitro* studies), and
153 those investigating pharmaceutical drugs were excluded from the review.

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155 **Search**

156 EBSCO, PUBMED, Science Direct and- via the OVID platform- Embase Classic/ Embase,
157 MEDLINE and Global Health databases were searched from inception (1947) to 11th June
158 2017.

159 The following search field was used: (("muscle"[All Fields] OR "musculoskeletal"[All Fields]
160 OR "tendon"[All Fields] NOT "cartilage"[All Fields] NOT "skin"[All Fields] NOT
161 "cutaneous"[All Fields] NOT "bone"[All Fields]) AND ("Amino acid"[All Fields] OR

162 "vitamin"[All Fields] OR "arginine"[All Fields] OR "leucine"[All Fields] OR "phenol"[All Fields]
163 OR "beta-Hydroxy beta-methylbutyric acid"[All Fields] OR "retinol"[All Fields] OR
164 "ascorbic"[All Fields] OR "taurine"[All Fields])) AND ("healing"[All Fields] OR "repair"[All
165 Fields] OR "collagen"[All Fields]) AND dietsuppl[sb].

166 Search terms were informed by a feasibility search, and in conjunction with a health
167 information librarian. Citations of key articles found in the feasibility search were evaluated
168 as a grey literature search.

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170 **Data Extraction**

171 Data extraction was undertaken by two reviewers using a piloted form. Reasons for
172 exclusion were noted. Data extraction included: date of study, animal or human model, type
173 of tissue, subject details (animal type, age, sex), dosage and type of supplement (compound,
174 administration or consumption), dosage and type of control or comparator, duration of
175 supplementation, follow up times and losses to follow up, outcomes.

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177 Primary outcomes were pre-determined to be:

- 178 - Histological changes to tissue collagen content or rate of synthesis
- 179 - Biochemical changes in serum composition
- 180 - Biomechanical alterations in force tolerance of healing tissue (e.g. ultimate tensile
181 strength)

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183 Secondary outcomes were examined for clinical relevance and collected as appropriate (e.g.
184 radiographic evidence of morphological change).

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186 **Data analysis**

187 Although the optimal synthesis method to strengthen findings of treatment effect from
188 randomised trials is considered to be meta-analysis (DerSimonian & Laird, 1986) in this case
189 it was deemed inappropriate as there was insufficient homogeneity of data across tissue
190 types, interventions and outcomes to conform to data pooling. Instead a narrative synthesis
191 was undertaken as per the method described by Popay et al. (2006) combining content
192 analysis of the frequency of outcomes demonstrating statistically significant treatment
193 effects, and thematic analysis of the mechanisms of identified effects. This method provides
194 a framework appropriate for the analysis of intervention effectiveness when statistical
195 means are not applicable (Rodgers et al., 2009); providing flexibility in structure to develop a
196 theory of intervention effect by exploring relationships in the evidence base. This method
197 has been applied previously with success (Arai et al., 2007) with conclusions similar to meta-
198 analysis on the same group of randomised trials (DiGuseppi & Higgins, 2001). The
199 comparison of narrative synthesis to meta-analysis on the same topic demonstrates the
200 importance of using structure to maintain transparency of the process and establishes
201 trustworthiness of the synthesis product by reducing selection bias (Rodgers et al., 2009).

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203 **Critical Appraisal**

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205 Evaluation of risk of bias was undertaken using the Cochrane risk of bias tool (Higgins et al.,
206 2011) for human studies or the Systematic Review Centre for Laboratory Animal
207 Experimentation (SYRCLE) risk of bias tool for animal studies (Hooijmans et al., 2014). Two
208 reviewers examined the studies for risk of bias and internal validity. Specifically the

209 appraisers evaluated the studies relative to sources of bias (e.g. allocation concealment,
210 blinding, selective outcome reporting) and classified to low, high or unclear risk of bias. In
211 order to assess inter-observer agreement of the risk of bias, the Kappa Statistic was used
212 (Cohen, 1960).

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230 **Results**

231 **Search**

232 Figure 1 presents the study selection process. Primary search results found 479 papers. 416
233 articles were excluded after comparison against the research question, on the basis of title
234 and abstract, with 63 remaining for evaluation of full text. 44 of these were excluded due to
235 methodology inclusion criteria (non-randomised studies, narrative and systematic reviews);
236 or due to examining incorrect tissue type (bone, cartilage, ligament, skin wounds). 7 were
237 excluded on the basis of examining a supplement type different to amino acids/ vitamins
238 (e.g. fatty acids), however these studies additionally had non-randomised designs. 12
239 articles fulfilled the inclusion criteria.

ADD FIGURE 1: PRISMA Flow diagram with the following:

Figure 1. PRISMA flow diagram showing study selection process (Moher et al. 2009)

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242 **Data Extraction**

243 Tables 1 and 2 provide a summary of the characteristics and findings of included studies. 8
244 studies examined tendon healing (Table 1): 1 assessing vitamin A and E (Greenwald et al.,
245 1990); 2 assessing vitamin C (Hung et al., 2013; Ömeroğlu et al., 2009); 1 assessing taurine

246 (Akdemir et al., 2015); 2 assessing glycine (Vieira, Guerra et al., 2015; Vieira, De Oliveira et
247 al., 2015), and 2 assessing nutrient complexes which included various supplements, (e.g.
248 arginine, methylsulfonylmethane and vitamin C) (Gumina et al., 2012; Notarnicola et al.,
249 2012). Only the integrator articles used human models. The animal experiments examined
250 models of various injury types (e.g. incision/ repair, collagenase-induced, partial tear).
251 Human studies examined surgical repair and tendinopathy models.

252 4 studies examined the effect of leucine supplementation of muscle healing in animal
253 models (Table 2). 2 studies examined healing following cryolesion, with the other studies
254 examining exercise-induced muscle exhaustion and electrically-stimulated contraction-
255 induced injury.

256 Tissue healing outcomes included biomechanical measures of tissue integrity;
257 histopathological assessment of tissue via various procedures (e.g. immunostaining,
258 biochemical assay, birefringence analysis); blood serum testing; and morphometric analysis
259 (e.g. gross analysis of limb, microscopic examination of tissue).

260 **Quality Assessment**

261 All animal model studies demonstrated a high risk of bias. This was due to a number of
262 common deficiencies in the methodological quality of these studies. For example, allocation
263 concealment was not described in any of the papers, and as per the review decision rules
264 lack of reporting was assumed to demonstrate failure to complete. Blinding was only
265 undertaken in 1 paper (Kato et al., 2016), however this study did not randomise at the point
266 of allocation and only prior to histochemical analysis. 2 studies (Vieira, De Oliveira et al.,
267 2015; Vieira, Guerra et al., 2015) randomised only prior to light microscopy analysis.

268 Of the two human studies, one was measured as a high risk of bias (Gumina et al., 2012) due
269 to failure to blind assessors and complete intention-to-treat analysis. However, this study
270 did demonstrate excellent randomisation and allocation concealment and undertook a
271 power calculation to reduce likelihood of type II error. The other human study (Notarnicola
272 et al., 2012) showed low risk of bias, due to computer-assisted randomisation/ allocation
273 concealment, double-blinding, group matching of homogeneity and intention-to-treat
274 analysis.

275 Inter-observer agreement regarding the risk of bias was considered 'moderate' ($k=0.46$)
276 according to the Viera and Garrett (2005) Kappa interpretation model. Moderate interrater
277 reliability may suggest an incorrect representation of the studies' risk of bias (McHugh,
278 2012). However, with most studies demonstrating high risk of bias, caution is already
279 suggested when generalising the results.

		Outcomes			FINDINGS	Summary RISK OF BIAS
		Biomechanical	Histopathological	Biochemical		
ANIMAL STUDIES						
Akdemir et al., (2015)	Dosage: 200mg Taurine Model: Rodent [Achilles tendon incision/repair] N= 16 Supplement: Taurine	↑ Mean max load (p=0.025) ↑ Mean max stress (p=0.025) ↑ Mean energy uptake (p <0.05)	(Verhodstd- modified score) ↓ mean fibrosis, fibroblast proliferation (p <0.05), oedema. ↑ neutrophil infiltration (p <0.05)		Efficiency of tendon gliding improved over 6 weeks with a reduction in tissue adhesion due to fibrosis, and increased biomechanical integrity.	R1- High R2- High
Greenwald et al., (1990)	Dosage: Vitamin A (150,000 IU/kg) (once daily for 45 days) Route: Oral Control: Standard chow (vit. A = 22,000 IU/kg; vit. E = 35 IU/kg; betacarotene = 1 mg/kg) Follow up: 7/ 45 days Dosage: Vitamin E (1000 IU/kg) [Otherwise as above] Dosage: Beta-carotene (90mg/kg) [Otherwise as above]	↑ UTS at 7 days (p=0.007), 30 days (p=0.06), 45 days (p<0.001) ↓ UTS at 7 days (p=0.004), 45 days (p<0.001) Margin ↑ UTS (p>0.05)			Vitamin A elevates UTS during early healing, but perhaps at the risk of preventing true internal tendon strength. Conversely, vitamin E reduces UTS perhaps due to the reduction in peri-tendon adhesions by anti-oxidant activity. Beta-carotene shows margin elevation of UTS.	R1- High R2- High
Ömeroğlu et al., (2009)	Dosage: 150mg vitamin C Model: Rodent [experimental Achilles rupture] N= 42 Supplement: Vitamin C		↑ revascularisation at day 3 (p=0.01) ↑ collagen production at day 10 (p=0.021), day 21 (p=0.103) ↑ collagen diameter at day 3/10/21 (p<0.001) ↑ fibroblast proliferation at day 3 (p=0.042)		Vitamin C facilitates histological changes in increased collagen proliferation and collagen fibre diameter, as well as increased numbers of fibroblasts.	R1- High R2- High
Vieira, De Oliveira et al. (2015)	Dosage: 5% glycine diet, daily for 7-21 days Route: Oral Control: Standard chow and water	↑ UTS and maximum displacement load at 21 days (p<0.05)	↑ birefringence of collagen at 7 days ↑ epitenon thickness at 7 days (p<0.05)	↑ GAGs at 7 (p<0.01) and 21 days (p<0.05) ↑ hydroxyproline at 7 and 21 days (p<0.05)	Glycine enhances tissue levels of GAGs, hydroxyproline and NCPs during early healing, leading to greater collagen	R1- High R2- High

N= 50 Supplement: Glycine	Follow up: 7/21 days			↑ NCPs at 7 days (reduced by 21 days) (p<0.01)		synthesis and enhanced extracellular matrix re-modelling. Thus leading to greater biomechanical strength.	
Vieira, Guerra et al., (2015) Model: Rodent [collagenase induced Achilles tendon injury] N= 35 Supplement: Glycine +/- green tea	Dosage: <i>Camellia sinensis</i> (green tea/ GT) [700 mg/kg/day] +/- 5% glycine diet (daily for 7-21 days) Route: Oral, daily for 7-21 days Control: Standard chow and water Follow up: 7/21 days	↑ UTS at 21 days (GT and glycine) (p<0.05)	↑ birefringence of collagen at 7 days (GT and glycine) (p<0.05)	↑ GAGs at 21 days (GT and glycine) (p<0.05) ↑ hydroxyproline at 7 days (GT and glycine) and 21 days (GT only) (p<0.05) ↓ NCP at 7 and 21 days (GT and glycine) (p<0.05)		The combination of glycine and GT shows greater benefits to early collagen organisation at 7 days, leading to enhanced fibre stability and load tolerance.	R1- High R2- High
Hung et al., (2013) Model: Chicken [incisional injury to the flexor digitorum profundus tendon] N= 57 Supplement: Vitamin C	Dosage: Vitamin C (5mg/ml or 50mg/ml) Route: Injection immediately post injury Control: Saline Follow up: 14/ 42 days	↓ tendon gliding resistance at 6 weeks (both dosages) (p=0.010)	↓ swelling at 2 weeks (50ml) ↓ tendon adhesions and fibrosis at 2 weeks (5ml)	↑ glutathione at 2 weeks (p=0.05)	↓ fibrotic size at 6 weeks (5mg) (p=0.013)	Vitamin C injection enhances anti-oxidant action, leading to reduced tendon adhesion and restoration of glutathione levels. There is a greater response for gliding resistance and fibrotic size with a lower dose (5mg).	R1- High R2- High
HUMAN STUDIES							
Gumina et al., (2012) Model: Human [Arthroscopic repair of a large postero-superior rotator cuff tear] N= 90 Supplement: Combined integrator (Tenosan: arginine L-alpha-ketoglutarate, methylsulfonylmethane, hydrolyzed type I collagen and bromelain)	Dosage not given. Route: Oral (2 sachets per day for 12 weeks) Control: No supplement Follow up: 84 days				↓ incidence of post repair classification type I-III (Sugaya's classification) (p=0.045) ↓ percentage re-rupture (p=0.111) ↑ percentage of type I-II repair integrity (p<0.05)	There is a higher incidence of type I-II classification of repair intensity and a reduced rate of re-rupture in the intervention group.	R1- High R2- Unclear

<p>Notarnicola et al., (2012)</p> <p>Model: Human [Insertional Achilles tendinopathy] N= 64 Combined integrator (Tenosan: arginine-L-alpha-ketoglutarate (500 mg), MSM (550 mg), hydrolyzed collagen type I (300 mg), Vinitrox (125 mg), bromelain (50 mg), and vitamin C (60 mg).</p>	<p>Dosage: arginine-L-alpha-ketoglutarate (500 mg), MSM (550 mg), hydrolyzed collagen type I (300 mg), Vinitrox (125 mg), bromelain (50 mg), and vitamin C (60 mg [+ extra-corporeal shockwave therapy]) Route: Oral (2 sachets per day for 60 days) Control: Placebo [+ extra-corporeal shockwave therapy] Follow up: 6 months</p>	<p>↓ mean oximetry value at 6 months (p<0.0001)</p>	<p>Despite small effect sizes, the findings suggest ECSWT and a combined integrator can reduce tissue perfusion at 6 months in Achilles tendinopathy.</p>	<p>R1- Low R2- Unclear</p>
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Table 1

Summary of study characteristics and findings of selected supplements on tendon healing

<i>[UTS- Ultimate tensile strength</i>	<i>GAGs- Glycosaminoglycans</i>	<i>NCP- Non-collagenous proteins</i>	<i>MSM- Methylsulfonylmethane</i> <i>ECSWT- extra-corporeal shockwave therapy</i>	<i>R1- Reviewer 1 [CT]</i>	<i>R2- Reviewer 2 [FS]</i>
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		Outcomes			Summary FINDINGS	RISK OF BIAS
		Biomechanical	Histopathological	Biochemical		
ANIMAL STUDIES						
Anthony et al., (1999)	Dosage: a) Leucine + exercise (54g/L), b) Leucine (54g/L) + exercise + carbohydrate (235.5g glucose/ 235.5g sucrose) Route: Oral diet provided immediately post exercise. Control: c) Sedentary control (no supplement), d) Exercise + dietary deprivation, e) exercise + carbohydrates (262.5g glucose/ 262.5g sucrose) Follow up: (outcomes taken 1 hour post eating)		↑ fractional rate of protein synthesis [Protein synthesis elevated to the same as non-exercise controls 1 hour after exercise] (leucine +/- carbohydrates) (p<0.05)	↑ recovery of skeletal muscle glycogen 1 hour post exercise (carbohydrate +/- leucine only) (p<0.05) ↑ plasma insulin and muscle glycogen (carbohydrate + leucine) vs carbohydrate only (p<0.05)	Leucine may stimulate protein synthesis by enhancing muscle sensitivity to available insulin immediately after ingestion. Leucine works independently to stimulate protein synthesis (almost as effectively as leucine combined with carbohydrate) despite not raising insulin levels.	R1- High R2- High
Kato et al., (2016)	Dosage: Essential amino acids: leucine (1g/kg) Route: Oral (2 days pre-exercise and 1-14 days post) Control: Oral saline gavage Follow up: 1-14 days	↑ speed of return to stronger muscle function (3 days in leucine group) (p<0.05) Return of isometric dorsiflexion torque to the level of controls in 14 days (leucine only)	↓ numbers of damaged fibres (leucine) (p<0.001)	↓ interleukin-6 expression 1 day post exercise (leucine only) (p<0.001)	Provision of leucine enhances muscle healing by suppressing inflammation (indicated by reduced IL-6). Thus leading to attenuation of muscle damage and earlier return of muscle function following exercise.	R1- High R2- High
Pereira, Baptista et al., (2014)	Dosage: Leucine (1.35g/kg) Route: Oral gavage (13 days pre-injury, 10 days post) Control: Oral saline gavage	↓ reduction in strength production between pre and post fatigue tetanic stimulus (compared to the reduction shown in control animals)		↑ myofiber cross sectional area at day 10 (p<0.05) ↓ inflammatory cell infiltration at day 10 (p<0.05)	Leucine improves recovery of muscle fibre size and function (resistance to fatigue) post injury. The mechanism of these changes involves	R1- High R2- High

	Follow up: 1-10 days		<p>↓ area density of collagen type III at day 10 (p<0.05)</p> <p>↓ macrophage infiltration on day 3 (p<0.05)</p> <p>↓ expression of mTOR/ p-mTOR at day 10 (p<0.05)</p> <p>↓ activation of FOXO3a at day 3 and 10 (p<0.05) Cryolesion-induced increase in ubiquitinated protein was attenuated (p0.05)</p>		<p>the protein ubiquitination pathway. Changes include a slight reduction in mTOR expression (but no other alteration to the PI3K/Akt/ mTOR pathway); and reduced FOXO3a activation/ ubiquitinated protein content. This would indicate reduced post exercise proteolysis.</p>	
Pereira, Silva et al., (2014)	<p>Dosage: Leucine (1.35g/kg)</p> <p>Route: Oral gavage (13 days pre-injury, 10 days post)</p> <p>Control: Oral saline gavage</p> <p>Follow up: 10 days</p>	Prevention of reduction in pre-fatigued tetanic strength (however not sustained during fatigue protocol)	<p>↓ expression of phosphorylated TGF-beta receptor type-1 at day 10 (p<0.05)</p> <p>↓ Smad2/3-positive nuclei at day 10 (p<0.05)</p> <p>↓ MyHC-n positive regenerating myofibers at day 10 (p<0.05)</p> <p>↑ MyHC-II at day 10 (p<0.05)</p> <p>↓ hydroxyproline to levels of control (p<0.05)</p> <p>↑ fractional rate of protein synthesis (p<0.05)</p>	<p>↓ procollagen/ thin collagen fibers.</p> <p>↓ inflammatory area (p<0.05)</p>	<p>Leucine supplementation improves muscle contractile performance, without change in myofiber size. There is an accelerated shift from neonatal MyHC to adult MyHC and attenuation of proteins which promote excessive collagen synthesis.</p>	<p>R1- High</p> <p>R2- High</p>

Table 2

Summary of study characteristics and findings of selected supplements on muscle healing

CSA- cross sectional area FOXO3- Forkhead box O3 GAGs- glycosaminoglycans IL-6- interleukin 6 MDA- malondialdehyde mTOR- Mechanistic target of rapamycin myHC-II- myosin heavy chain II (adult)
NCP- non-collagenous proteins TGF-β- transforming growth factor beta]

287 **Data Analysis**

288 Table 3 illustrates the results of the content analysis showing the common tissue healing
289 outcomes and mechanisms of supplementation effect across studies. Outcomes with
290 statistically significant effect only are displayed (p values <0.05). Whilst there is debate
291 around the appropriate use of p-values as a measure of significance (Wasserstein & Lazar,
292 2016), these tables aim to represent the key findings of the studies examined, rather than
293 making any judgements as to the degree of intervention effect each supplement provides.
294 This allows presentation of the large variability of heterogenous outcomes upon which the
295 reviewer can base the theoretical examination of underlying mechanisms whilst reducing
296 the probability of chance and providing evidence against the null hypothesis. Interestingly,
297 inclusion of outcomes with no significant effect or negative effect did not influence the final
298 conclusions in this review and were removed to focus the analysis.

299 Thematic analysis indicates that various characteristics of tissue healing effect are shared
300 across studies. Tables 1 and 2 delineate themes of the treatment effects by the outcomes
301 presented in the studies (e.g. biomechanical, biochemical, etc.). However, as the content
302 analysis displays only the outcomes chosen by the original researchers they may be open to
303 publication bias, and other mechanisms may be possible.

304 Themes were also extracted relative to when mechanisms were observed within normal
305 healing phases (Watson, 2006) and are displayed in figures 2 and 3. Figure 2 illustrates that
306 the changes in the extra-cellular matrix in response to tendon injury (beyond those seen in
307 controls) occur predominantly throughout the inflammatory and proliferation phases of
308 healing (within the first 21 days), but that changes are sustained into the remodelling phase
309 (beyond 42 days). Morphological benefits remain evident for 6 months. Figure 3

310 demonstrates that the mechanisms of effect in muscle tissue occur earlier and are
311 commenced almost immediately (1 hour) post injury during the bleeding phase.
312 Modification of muscle protein synthesis balance is then sustained during the inflammatory
313 phases, where inflammation and oxidation is attenuated by supplementation.

314 Further themes are apparent relative to how healing is influenced by supplementation, and
315 patterns are observed relative to whether there is evidence of direct effects on cellular
316 proliferation, or indirect physiological processes which precede healing. Of course, this
317 observation is dependent upon which outcomes are used, but allows exploration of the
318 effects of supplements on the response to injury. Within tendon tissues, mechanisms
319 include enhanced anti-oxidant action; control of immune response; and modification of
320 elements of the extra-cellular matrix (ECM) content. The former effects (anti-oxidant action
321 and immune response control) could be themed as indirect actions to cellular proliferation
322 as they show changes which facilitate the tissues response to allow improved cellular
323 regeneration, but do not directly cause cell synthesis. The latter mechanism (proliferation of
324 ECM constituent components) includes increases in cellular components of collagen
325 (hydroxyproline); balance of fibroblastic response; increases in glycosaminoglycan levels;
326 reduction in non-collagenous proteins; and increases in the size and amount of collagen
327 produced. These could be categorised as direct changes which facilitate proliferation and
328 remodelling of regenerating tissue. In muscle healing, indirect mechanisms are also
329 apparent (e.g. increased anti-oxidant or inflammatory action). However, rather than
330 alterations to the extra-cellular matrix (as direct actions), biomechanical and muscular
331 efficiency changes occur alongside promotion of plasma insulin sensitivity and a reduction in
332 proteolysis. Following injury this would mean the number of damaged muscle fibres is

333 reduced, and there is improved functional rate of protein synthesis, leading to improved
334 muscle tissue integrity, function and cross-sectional area.

335 A final theme is apparent relative to the physiological level at which supplements act. The
336 variety of outcomes show effects on tissue at a molecular biological level (e.g. biochemical
337 or genetic change); a cellular biological level (e.g. protein signalling pathways); a
338 histopathological level (e.g. tissue biopsy and microscopic evaluation); and a morphological
339 level (e.g. radiological or clinical examination). The themes show the supplements
340 contribute to healing at various cellular levels, at various times alongside the healing phases,
341 with both indirect and direct effects on the proliferation of tissue. As such there are a
342 variety of outcomes which can be used to demonstrate their effect on healing and the
343 structural integrity of the healing tissue.

344

TENDON		↓ NCP	↑ hydroxyproline concentration	↑ GAGs	↑ anti-oxidant action (reduced MDA/ elevated glutathione)	↑ fibroblast differentiation	↓ immune cell response (macrophages, lymphocytes)	↓ fibroblast proliferation	↑ collagen diameter	↑ collagen proliferation	↓ swelling	↑ tissue perfusion/ oximetry	↓ UTS	↑ UTS or mean maximum stress	Morphological evidence of enhanced healing
ANIMAL STUDIES															
Akdemir et al. (2015)	Taurine					✓	✓	✓			✓			✓	
Vieira et al (2015a)	Glycine		✓	✓						✓				✓	✓
Vieira et al. (2015b)	Glycine, green tea	✓	✓	✓						✓				✓	
Greenwald et al. (1990)	Vitamin A														✓
Greenwald et al. (1990)	Vitamin E												✓		
Ömeroğlu et al. (2009)	Vitamin C								✓	✓		✓			
Hung et al. (2013)	Vitamin C				✓			✓			✓				
HUMAN STUDIES															
Gumina et al. (2012)	Combined integrator 1														✓
Notarnicola et al. (2012)	Combined integrator 2											✓			

Table 3

Effects of supplementation on physiological parameters of healing in tendon and muscle tissue (statistically significant changes in response to intervention over control presented)

345

346

MUSCLE

		↑ plasma changes to insulin/ glycogen	↓ interleukin 6	↑ MyHC-II gene expression	↓ transcription factor protein encoding relative to cell proliferation (mTOR, FOXO3)	↓ Smad2/3 + nucleus	↓ expression of phosphorylated TGF-β	↓ hydroxyproline	↓ ubiquitinated protein	↓ number of damaged fibres	↑ muscle strength or function	↑ functional rate of protein synthesis	↑ muscle CSA
ANIMAL STUDIES													
Anthony et al. (1999)	Leucine	✓										✓	
Kato et al. (2016)	Leucine		✓							✓	✓		
Pereira, Baptista et al. (2014)	Leucine		✓		✓				✓				✓
Pereira, Silva et al. (2014)	Leucine		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓				✓	

Table 3 continued

Effects of supplementation on physiological parameters of healing in tendon and muscle tissue (statistically significant changes in response to intervention over control presented)

[Combined integrator 1- Arginine L-α- ketoglutarate, MSM, hydrolysed collagen I, bromelain Combined integrator 2- Arginine L-α- ketoglutarate, MSM, hydrolysed collagen I, bromelain, Vinitrox, vitamin C

CSA- cross sectional area FOXO3- Forkhead box O3 GAGs- glycosaminoglycans IL-6- interleukin 6 MDA- malondialdehyde mTOR- Mechanistic target of rapamycin myHC-II- myosin heavy chain II (adult NCP- non-collagenous proteins TGF-β- transforming growth factor beta]

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ADD FIGURE 2: Mechanisms of tendon issue change with the following:

Figure 2. Graphical representation of mechanisms of supplement effect on tendon tissue relative to musculoskeletal healing phases

(modified as described by Watson, 2006)

ADD FIGURE 3: Mechanisms of muscle tissue change with the following:

Figure 3. Graphical representation of mechanisms of leucine effect on muscle tissue relative to musculoskeletal healing phases (modified as described by Watson, 2006)

353

354

355 **Discussion**

356 This review shows that specific amino acids (leucine, glycine, taurine) and vitamins (A, E and
357 C) provide particular effects on the physiology of musculoskeletal tissue healing. These
358 mechanisms occur at multiple levels (from molecular physiology to morphological tissue
359 structure) and influence cell regeneration directly (cell proliferation) and indirectly (cellular
360 environment enhancement). These changes occur alongside improvements in
361 biomechanical integrity. The findings are predominantly guided by animal experiments, due
362 to the ethical difficulties of performing histological examination of human tissue. The
363 mechanisms described are indicative of the outcomes which demonstrated a degree of
364 statistical significance, and perhaps do not outline all potential mechanisms. Similar effects
365 in skin and experimental models are provided as comparative effects, with awareness that
366 specific regenerative effects are dependent upon the host tissue cells.

367

368 A number of studies describe effects on anti-oxidant capacity of the supplements as an
369 indirect influence on tendon healing. Two studies (Hung et al., 2013; Ömeroğlu et al., 2009)
370 examined vitamin C and its role as a free radical scavenger (Buettner & Moseley, 1993). In
371 the presence of reactive oxygen species, vitamin C donates two electrons to reduce the free
372 radical, and a less reactive ascorbyl radical is released. Ömeroğlu et al. (2009) examined a
373 rodent model of Achilles tendon rupture and provided injections of 150mg vitamin C every
374 other day for 21 days. In comparison to saline injections the study found that vitamin C
375 increased tissue perfusion in the early proliferative phase of healing alongside increased
376 fibroblast proliferation (3 days post). At 10 and 21 days, collagen proliferation and diameter
377 is elevated, and at 43 days tendon swelling is less. This may indicate an early healing
378 response, leading to elevated collagen development and longer term benefits. Hung et al.

379 (2013) demonstrated reductions in fibroblast proliferation at 10 and 43 days (corresponding
380 with the findings of greater balance between collagen formation and fibrosis) and increased
381 glutathione at 14 days, indicating enhanced anti-oxidant action. These changes contributed
382 to reduced fibrotic size and resistance to tendon gliding at 43 days. The influence of a mixed
383 anti-oxidant supplementation (including vitamin C) was measured in a double-blind,
384 randomised, placebo controlled trial of trauma patients with non-musculoskeletal wounds
385 (Blass et al., 2012). The results indicated that anti-oxidants (alongside glutamine) increased
386 rate of healing by faster wound closure time in the supplement group versus placebo (35
387 days \pm 22 vs. 70 days \pm 35, $p < 0.01$). Examination of topical vitamin C showed similar results,
388 alongside increased collagen fiber density ($p < 0.05$) (Lima et al., 2009). These results,
389 alongside the findings of this review, demonstrate an apparent anti-oxidant mechanism to
390 promote similar enhancement of healing in tendon.

391

392 Another anti-oxidant is taurine; an amino acid which has been found to regulate collagen
393 production and inhibit fibrosis (Gordon et al., 1986). A controlled animal study examined
394 taurine's effect on skin wound tensile strength and malondialdehyde (MDA) content- a
395 measure of lipid peroxidation and oxidative stress following injury (Abuja and Albertini,
396 2001; Dinçer et al., 1996). The results demonstrate taurine enhanced wound content and
397 strength relative to histological evidence of enhanced collagen production and greater force
398 displacement ($p < 0.01$), and that topical application reduced MDA content more than
399 injection. It could be suggested that increases in wound strength are secondary to increased
400 anti-oxidant capacity and collagen synthesis, and assisted by taurine's ability to aid vitamin C
401 metabolism (Kaplan et al., 2004). Akdemir et al. (2015) examined the effect of 200mg
402 taurine injections post rodent Achilles tendon repair, measuring UTS and histopathological

403 assessment after 42 days. Their results found reductions in immune cell activity, reduced
404 fibroblast proliferation/ increased fibroblast differentiation, and increased UTS compared to
405 saline control. The authors suggest taurine may reduce fibrosis and elevate repair integrity,
406 and postulate this is due to both anti-oxidant and anti-inflammatory effects, and inhibition
407 of fibronectin expression and fibrin formation during healing. This suggests that the
408 influence of taurine on tendon wounds, is at least in part, in concurrence to the findings in
409 skin wounds.

410 Other supplements included in this review demonstrate more direct influences on tendon
411 healing. Previous work by Ehrlich et al. (1973) examined the effect of vitamin A on the
412 restoration of hydroxyproline content and histological tissue grading after provision of
413 glucocorticoid which inhibits collagen synthesis and connective tissue repair. A rodent model
414 of implanted polyvinyl sponge granuloma was used with sub-grouping into control, corticoid
415 alone, vitamin A alone and combined corticoid and vitamin A. Injection was the route of
416 administration for all groups. The results indicated vitamin A was able to partial reverse
417 declines in fibroblast, collagen and hydroxyproline content diminished by glucocorticoid
418 injection. Previous work by the same authors show that healing rate of skin wounds, not
419 inhibited by cortisone, is not enhanced by vitamin A provided topically or via intramuscular
420 systemic administration (Hunt et al., 1969). There is therefore some confusion as to whether
421 vitamin A can influence collagen accumulation. One study in this review examined the
422 effects of vitamins A (150,00 IU/kg) and E (1000 IU/kg) in a model of tendon repair healing
423 in chickens (Greenwald et al., 1990). The animals were given daily oral doses and ultimate
424 tensile stress (UTS) was evaluated at 7 and 45 days post repair. The results show an increase
425 in UTS at both 7 days (897g +/- 164 vs. 356g +/- 68, $p < 0.007$) and 45 days (1972g +/- 255 vs.

426 915g +/- 113, $p < 0.001$) which supports the findings of Ehrlich et al. (1973), however without
427 concurrent histopathological evidence of collagen change, this is speculative.

428 A systematic review examining the effectiveness of vitamin E on measures on cell
429 proliferation, infection and wound healing found a dearth of robust studies in this area
430 (Hobson, 2016). This is despite the search finding a high number of primary research studies
431 ($n=31$) and representing a reasonable level of quality (level 2b). Greenwald et al. (1990)
432 found a reduction in UTS compared to control at 7 (163g +/- 81 vs. 356 +/- 68, $P < 0.004$) and
433 45 days (445g +/- 125 vs. 915g +/- 113, $p < 0.001$) indicating vitamin E has a deleterious
434 influence on healing tendon. Vitamin E has been shown to act as a lysosomal membrane
435 stabiliser (Ehrlich et al., 1972). Lysosomes- organelles responsible for the enzymatic
436 responses to injury to balance matrix regeneration (Stromberg et al., 1977)- have been
437 found to inhibit tendon healing (Ehrlich et al., 1972) leading to a reduction in collagen cell
438 number and decreased UTS. It is possible that similar mechanisms may explain these
439 results.

440 Dietary arginine above recommended daily allowance has been shown to increase collagen
441 accumulation in healthy animals (Barbul et al., 1990; Kirk et al., 1993). This review found no
442 studies investigating the effect of this amino acid in animal models. Two human studies
443 examined the effects of arginine L- α -ketglutarate within a combined integrator. The studies
444 examined the effect of the supplement on rotator cuff repair integrity (Gumina et al., 2012);
445 and tissue oximetry in Achilles tendinopathy (Notarnicola et al., 2012). Gumina et al. (2012)
446 combined arginine with methylsulfonylmethane, hydrolysed collagen I and bromelain, for a
447 dosing period of 12 weeks. Subsequently, they evaluated repair integrity in the intervention
448 group against a no-supplement control and found a higher incidence of more favourable

449 Sugaya classification type I-II repair intensity (Sugaya et al., 2007); and a lower rate of re-
450 rupture. Unfortunately, whilst the trial randomised and concealed allocation, they failed to
451 report the dosage of supplements provided in the integrator. Additionally, the trial did not
452 incorporate drop outs to the final analysis and failed to utilise a placebo control, and
453 subsequently demonstrates a high risk of bias.

454

455 Polytetrafluoroethylene implants allow researchers to evaluate deposition of fibroblasts and
456 extracellular matrix tissue. A double-blind trial (Williams et al., 2002) randomised healthy
457 adults (n=18) to receive daily amino acids (14g arginine, 3g HMB, 14g glutamine) or an
458 isonitrogenous, isocaloric control supplement of non-essential amino acids. Implants
459 removed at 7 or 14 days were analysed for hydroxyproline and amino-nitrogen. Whilst no
460 significant differences in collagen accumulation (measured by hydroxyproline) were evident
461 at 7 days, at 14 days there were significant increases in hydroxyproline content accumulated
462 (+67%, $p < 0.03$); occurring independent of an increase in total protein deposition. Evidence
463 from elderly humans (Kirk, 1993) supports these results, demonstrating a 52% collagen
464 increase, via a pro-inflammatory mechanism of action and enhancement of fibroblastic
465 synthesis. During healing fibroblasts stimulate collagen synthesis deposition within the ECM
466 (Stechmiller et al., 2005); and the production of growth factors (e.g. insulin-like growth
467 factor 1, transforming growth factor β) promotes proliferation, angiogenesis and protein
468 synthesis (Schultz & Mast, 1998). During the remodelling phase fibroblasts produce ECM
469 components (collagen, gelatin and proteoglycans), and release metalloproteinases and
470 tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases to orchestrate tissue remodelling (Bryant, 2000;
471 Schultz & Mast, 1998; Tarnuzzer & Schultz, 1996).

472 The other human study in this review (Notarnicola et al., 2012) used the same combined
473 integrator, however also added 60mg vitamin C. Subjects (n=64) were randomised and
474 matched for age and gender and the integrator (or placebo) was provided orally for 60 days
475 with or without extra-corporeal shockwave therapy (ESWT). The findings show that the
476 supplement/ ESWT group had a reduced oximetry value at 6 months indicating a reduction
477 in tendon micro-circulation and neovessel development; a component of the
478 pathophysiology of tendinopathy (Knobloch, 2008). This study demonstrates a low risk of
479 bias as it appropriately used randomisation, blinding, allocation concealment, intention-to-
480 treat analysis and group matching for homogeneity. However, for both studies using the
481 combined integrator, effects are confounded by the use of multiple ingredients and caution
482 is needed in extrapolating these results.

483

484 The final supplement which evaluated an effect on tendon tissue is glycine; an amino acid
485 synthesised by other amino acids, including hydroxyproline. Experiments demonstrate
486 glycine's capacity to prevent inflammatory cell infiltration and reduce joint oedema
487 following injuries of experimental arthritis (Li et al., 2001). It is proposed that this anti-
488 inflammatory effect involves glycine receptor activation in leukocytes and suppression of
489 immunocytes (Li et al., 2007). Two studies (Vieira, De Oliveira et al., 2015; Vieira, Guerra et
490 al., 2015) assessed the effect of glycine (with or without green tea) in a rodent collagenase-
491 induced Achilles' tendon injury model. Each provided a 5% glycine diet and showed
492 increases in collagen proliferation, alongside elevated hydroxyproline, non-collagenous
493 protein content and glycosaminoglycan content at 7 days. Hydroxyproline,
494 glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) and non-collagenous proteins (NCPs) are components of the
495 extracellular matrix. Hydroxyproline is a dominant protein of the ECM, comprising 20% of

496 fibrillary collagen structure; contributing to its molecular stability (Mouw et al., 2014). The
497 non-collagenous matrix consists of GAGs (and other molecules including glycoproteins,
498 proteoglycans) which surround collagen fibrils and bind water to assist mechanical tolerance
499 to stress (Kannus, 2000). Increased tendon content of these ECM constituents, through
500 glycine supplementation, may enhance collagen synthesis during the early proliferation
501 phase, augmenting tensile strength. The addition of green tea to the glycine diet seems to
502 enhance collagen organisation at 7 days leading to further fibre stability and load tolerance.

503

504 *In vivo* and *in vitro* experiments indicate that the branched chain amino acid leucine acts as
505 a signalling molecule to regulate protein synthesis in skeletal muscle (Anthony, Anthony et
506 al., 2000; Kimball & Jefferson, 2001; Norton & Layman, 2006). Leucine effects at a
507 posttranscriptional level as a critical regulator of mRNA translation initiation (Anthony et al.,
508 2001) which facilitates protein synthesis (Svanberg et al. 1997, Yoshizawa et al., 1998). The
509 role of mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) signalling is essential for translation
510 initiation (Anthony, Yoshizawa et al., 2000). Leucine facilitates an initial release of insulin
511 (or increased insulin sensitivity in muscle); alongside a signalling cascade independent of
512 phosphoinositol 3-kinase (PI3-K), protein kinase B (PKB/ Akt) or 3-phosphoinositide
513 dependent protein kinase 1 (PDK1) activation (Anthony et al. 2001). At mTOR these
514 processes facilitate optimal activation of translation initiation, and are fine-tuned by other
515 unidentified pathways (Anthony et al., 2001). Four studies found in this review evaluated
516 the effect of leucine on healing muscle tissue (Anthony et al., 1999; Kato et al., 2016;
517 Pereira, Baptista et al., 2014; Pereira, Silva et al., 2014). The studies outline a process of an
518 immediate response in the bleeding phase to attenuate inflammation and increase protein
519 synthesis, starting with increased serum insulin and glycogen within one hour and elevated

520 fractional rate of protein (FRP) synthesis (Anthony et al., 1999). Reduction of the pro-
521 inflammatory cytokine, interleukin-6, occurs alongside reduction in muscle fibre damage.
522 Subsequently, cross sectional muscle area is increased, with reduction in protein
523 ubiquitination; reduction in hydroxyproline as a proxy for reduced collagen; and modification
524 of transcription signalling pathways to attenuate cell proliferation (e.g. expression of
525 phosphorylated TGF-beta/ reduced Smad2/3+ nucleus). Pereira, Baptista et al. (2014)
526 identify that the reduction in mTOR expression occurs without other changes to the PI3K/
527 Akt/ mTOR pathways and that the change in FOXO3a expression is indicative of reduced
528 post exercise proteolysis. Additionally, Pereira, Silva et al., (2014) also demonstrates a
529 genetic shift towards adult Myosin Heavy Chain which assists muscle action. Alongside the
530 leucine-assisted changes to collagen synthesis, this may suggest a fine tuning of healing
531 response to ensure muscle contractile action is balanced with collagen formation. In
532 summation leucine acts during bleeding/ early proliferation to enhance muscle
533 regeneration.

534

535 **Implications/ Limitations**

536

537 This review summarises potential mechanisms for how selected supplements can influence
538 tendon and muscle healing, the basis of which are limited to the outcomes used by the
539 original studies. As no consensus is clear across the literature, minimal recommendations
540 can be given as to the clinical utility of such supplements for musculoskeletal healing.
541 Clinicians should however remain cognisant of nutritional practices throughout
542 rehabilitation, particularly in respect to the regenerative influences of vitamins and amino
543 acids.

544

545 As the predominant source of this data is from animal models it is essential to reflect on
546 their use to guide human consumption. Animal models can approximate human
547 physiological response to injury (Woo & Buckwalter, 1988) and act as a test for wound
548 healing agents (Gottrup et al., 2000). However, all animal studies analysed showed a high
549 risk of bias, indicating common methodological shortcomings. Lack of blinding,
550 randomisation, or simply poor reporting would be assisted by adherence to the Animals in
551 Research: Reporting in vivo experiments (ARRIVE) guidelines (Kilkenny et al., 2009) and
552 support future developments in research. Additionally, two articles are likely influenced by
553 confounding variables; specifically extra-corporeal shockwave therapy (Notarnicola et al.
554 2012) and the addition of green tea (Vierra, Guerra et al. 2015), which must be considered
555 when evaluating supplement effects. An additional limitation of this research is that the
556 search results did not produce evidence for effects of supplements commonly associated
557 with recovery such as branched-chain amino acids (Negro et al., 2008; Sharp and Pearson,
558 2010). This is likely due to the strict inclusion criteria of randomised trial design. As such this
559 review may not sufficiently elucidate all mechanisms of tissue response to injury related to
560 amino acids supplementation.

561

562 **Future Research**

563

564 High quality animal experimentation studies investigating the effects of supplements on
565 molecular, cellular and whole tissue levels; utilising outcomes of histological evidence of
566 tissue synthesis and biomechanical integrity; and at time points throughout the healing
567 process, need to be conducted to elaborate further on these findings. Human studies should

568 concentrate on assessing the effectiveness of supplements compared to isocaloric/
569 isonitrogenous placebo and be investigated with clinical and radiological outcomes to
570 evaluate whether the proposed mechanisms translate to practice.

571

572

573 **Conclusions**

574 Amino acids and vitamins demonstrate both indirect (anti-oxidant) and direct (synthesis rate
575 modifying) mechanisms of action in healing of tendon and muscle in animal models. These
576 mechanisms act at various stages of the healing cycle, and work on all physiological levels
577 from molecular to morphological. The translation of these mechanisms in humans is
578 speculative, however there is potential that supplements may provide some clinical utility.
579 Further research is required to test these hypotheses.

580 [Words 4484]

581

582

583 **Authorship and Conflict of interest**

584 All below stated authors have made contributions to this thesis.

585 Mr Christopher Tack- Primary investigator and author

586 Mrs Faye Shorthouse- Secondary data extraction and critical appraiser

587 Ms Lindsay Kass- Dissertation supervisor

588 I declare that I am the primary author of this article and that I have not used any sources
589 other than those listed in the bibliography and identified as references. I further declare
590 that I have not submitted this article to any other publication.

591 I declare that I have no affiliations with or involvement with any entity or organisation with
592 any financial interest or non-financial interest in the subject matter of this manuscript.

593

594

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