

1 **Effect of exercise modality and intensity on endothelial function in patients with**
2 **cardiovascular disease: a systematic review and network meta-analysis**

3 **Running title:** Exercise modality and intensity on endothelial function

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Aims:** Endothelial dysfunction is a hallmark of cardiovascular disease (CVD). Exercise effectively
3 improves endothelial function, yet the impact of different modalities and intensities remains
4 unclear. This study evaluated the effect of aerobic (AE), resistance (RE), and combined exercise
5 (CE), on endothelial function measured by flow-mediated dilation (FMD).

6 **Methods:** A systematic review and frequentist network meta-analysis of randomised and non-
7 randomised trials in adults with coronary artery disease or chronic heart failure was conducted.
8 Electronic databases were searched up to April 2025. Interventions were classified as usual care
9 (UC), moderate-intensity AE (MAE), high-intensity interval AE (HIIE), moderate-intensity RE
10 (MRE), high-intensity RE (HRE), moderate-intensity CE (MCE), and high-intensity CE (HCE).
11 Mean differences (MD) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were used as effect size index, and
12 interventions ranked using surface under the cumulative ranking curve (SUCRA).

13 **Results:** Thirty-seven studies (80 groups; n = 6818) were included. Compared with UC, MAE
14 (2.04%; 95% CI: 1.01–3.07), HIIE (3.47%; 95% CI: 2.02–4.92), MCE (2.71%; 95% CI: 0.05–
15 5.36), and HCE (8.25%; 95% CI: 3.18–13.32) significantly improved brachial FMD, whereas
16 MRE did not. HIIE outperformed MAE (1.43%; 95% CI: 0.09–2.78). Although HCE showed the
17 highest surface under the cumulative ranking curve (SUCRA:98.2%), this relied on a single group.
18 Crucially, sensitivity analyses confirmed HIIE as the most robust high-performing intervention
19 (84.0%) compared to MRE (61.6%) and MCE (61.3%).

20 **Conclusion:** Exercise significantly enhances endothelial function in in patients with CVD. HIIE
21 emerged as the most robust and evidence-based modality, demonstrating superior efficacy over
22 moderate continuous exercise. While high-intensity combined protocols (HCE) show significant

1 theoretical potential, randomised trials are urgently needed to confirm their efficacy. Current
2 evidence supports HIIE as a primary strategy for vascular adaptation in cardiac rehabilitation.

3

4 **Lay Summary**

5 This network meta-analysis confirms that structured exercise training effectively improves
6 endothelial function in patients with cardiovascular disease.

7 • High-intensity interval training offers the most robust benefits across different ages and
8 conditions, proving superior to moderate-intensity continuous exercise.

9 • A progressive training strategy is recommended to maximise long-term results, starting
10 with moderate exercise for conditioning and advancing to high-intensity or resistance
11 exercise.

12

13 **Key words:** endothelial-dependent dilation; exercise modality; FMD; high-intensity interval
14 exercise; cardiac rehabilitation; cardiovascular disease.

15

1 Introduction

2 Cardiovascular disease (CVD) remains the leading cause of mortality globally, accounting
3 for 32% of deaths worldwide ^{1,2}. It also contributes substantially to morbidity, impairs quality
4 of life, and imposes a significant economic burden on healthcare systems ³. A hallmark of
5 CVD is endothelial dysfunction, characterised by impaired vasodilation due to reduced nitric
6 oxide (NO) bioavailability, promoting a pro-inflammatory and pro-thrombotic state ⁴. As a
7 key regulator of vascular homeostasis, endothelium dysfunction contributes to the
8 pathophysiology of various cardiovascular conditions, including coronary artery disease
9 (CAD), and chronic heart failure (CHF) ⁵⁻⁷. Flow-mediated dilation (FMD) is the most widely
10 used method for assessing endothelial function. It quantifies the percentage increase in
11 arterial diameter—typically brachial artery—in response to reactive hyperaemia. This
12 vasodilation, triggered by shear stress-induced NO release, reflects endothelium-dependent
13 function. To distinguish this from smooth muscle responsiveness, nitrate-mediated dilation
14 (NMD) is used as a complementary measure, assessing endothelium-independent
15 vasodilation via exogenous NO administration. Notably, FMD is recognised as an
16 independent predictor of cardiovascular events in both asymptomatic individuals and patients
17 with CVD ^{8,9}.

18 Exercise is one of the most effective interventions for improving endothelial function.
19 Cardiac rehabilitation (CR) offers a structured and cost-effective framework for delivering
20 these benefits, with class I, level A recommendation for all patients with CAD or CHF,
21 supported by strong evidence of reduced cardiovascular morbimortality and readmissions ¹⁰⁻
22 ¹². Exercise has also been shown to mitigate age-related vascular deterioration in healthy
23 individuals ¹³ and restore endothelial function in CVD ¹⁴. Exercise-induced enhancements in
24 flow-mediated dilation (FMD) have been consistently observed across a wide range of

1 populations, including those with cardiovascular risk factors ¹⁴, peripheral artery disease ¹⁵,
2 CAD ^{16,17}, CHF ¹⁸, and heart transplant recipients ¹⁹.

3 These vascular adaptations have been reported across different exercise modalities,
4 highlighting the importance of exercise prescription in clinical practice. While aerobic
5 exercise (AE) remains the most commonly prescribed exercise modality in CR, resistance
6 exercise (RE) and combined aerobic and resistance exercise (CE) are also employed ²⁰. AE
7 comprises moderate-intensity aerobic exercise (MAE) or high-intensity interval exercise
8 (HIIE) ²⁰. MAE is characterised by long-term exercise bouts (e.g., 30 min) performed at
9 moderate intensity (e.g., between the first [VT1] and second ventilatory thresholds [VT2])
10 and can be carried out continuously or intermittently ²¹. Conversely, HIIE comprises
11 alternating periods of high-intensity AE (e.g., > 85% peak oxygen uptake [VO₂ peak] or >
12 VT2) with active (e.g. < 60% VO₂ peak or < VT1) or passive recovery of shorter, equal, or
13 longer duration ²². RE intensity is defined as the percentage of one-repetition maximum
14 (1RM), which represents the maximum load a person can lift once with proper technique.
15 According to the American College of Sports Medicine, moderate-intensity resistance
16 exercise (MRE) involves loads below 70% 1RM, whereas high-intensity resistance exercise
17 (HRE) is performed at or above 70% 1RM ^{23,24}, a classification is grounded in the physiology
18 of motor unit recruitment

19 In recent years, HIIE has gained interest as a time-efficient and potentially superior AE
20 method for CVD ²⁵. Previous meta-analyses have shown that HIIE elicits greater
21 improvements in endothelial function than MAE across various clinical populations ^{26,27}. In
22 patients with CHF, HIIE has been associated with a 2.4% increase in FMD ²⁸. In contrast, a
23 separate meta-analysis in patients with CVD reported no overall superiority of HIIE over
24 MAE in improving endothelial function ²⁹. However, subgroup analyses within that study

1 revealed that long-interval HIIE (i.e., > 1 min) significantly improved brachial FMD
2 compared to MAE, whereas short-interval HIIE (i.e., ≤ 1 min) showed no such benefit ²⁹.
3 These findings underscore the importance of considering the duration of the high-intensity
4 bouts when assessing AE-induced effects on endothelial function.

5 Regarding exercise modality, a meta-analysis in individuals at elevated cardiovascular risk
6 demonstrated that AE, RE, and CE all significantly improved FMD ¹⁴. Chen, Gao ³⁰ reported
7 that CE yielded superior outcomes compared to RE alone in patients with CAD and CHF. To
8 date, no meta-analyses have examined the influence of RE intensity on FMD in patients with
9 CVD. Moreover, in prior meta-analyses, AE intensity (e.g., MAE or HIIE) has only been
10 considered when AE was the primary intervention, whereas AE intensity was not accounted
11 for when CE was implemented ³¹. Given the range of exercise modalities and intensities
12 applicable within CR programmes, a more comprehensive analytical framework is required.
13 Traditional pairwise meta-analyses are inherently limited in this context; thus, a network
14 meta-analysis is warranted.

15 This systematic review and network meta-analysis aims to bridge this gap by evaluating the
16 effects of exercise on endothelial function in patients with CVD. Specifically, it seeks to
17 evaluate how variations in exercise modality, intensity, and duration influence endothelial
18 adaptations, offering clinicians an evidence-based framework for optimising exercise
19 prescriptions to maximise vascular benefits.

20

21

1 **Method**

2 *Study design and protocol registration*

3 This systematic review and network meta-analysis (NMA) was prospectively registered on
4 the PROSPERO database (CRD42025641257). The protocol adhered to the Preferred
5 Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analysis guidelines for network meta-
6 analysis (PRISMA-NMA)³². A summary of the study design and main results can be found
7 in the Graphical Abstract.

8 *Data search*

9 Electronic searches were performed in PubMed, Embase, and Web of Science Core
10 Collection without language restriction, up to April 2025. Free-text terms were used to
11 structure the searches, based on participants, interventions, and outcomes, and were applied
12 to titles, abstracts, and keywords when available. Conference proceedings were also searched
13 in the Web of Science Core Collection. Authors of relevant abstracts were contacted to obtain
14 missing information; if no response was received, the abstract was excluded. In addition,
15 systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and the reference lists of included studies were manually
16 reviewed to identify further eligible studies. To identify unpublished or ongoing studies
17 meeting the inclusion criteria, corresponding authors were also contacted by email.

18 *Study selection*

19 Eligibility criteria were established according to the PICOS (participants, interventions,
20 comparisons, outcomes, and study design) guideline as follows: (a) participants: Adult
21 patients (≥ 18 years), both male and female, with CVD, specifically CAD and CHF with either
22 preserved (HFpEF; left ventricular ejection fraction [LVEF] $\geq 50\%$) or reduced (HFrEF;
23 LVEF $< 50\%$). Those with implantable devices were also included. Conversely, patients with

1 congenital cardiomyopathy or those who had undergone heart transplantation were excluded;

2 (b) interventions: The main classification of the interventions was: (1) usual care (UC) (i.e.,

3 non-exercise groups); (2) MAE (i.e., AE performed below the VT2); (3) HIIIE (i.e., AE bouts

4 performed above VT2); (4) MRE (i.e., RE performed below 70% 1RM); (5) HRE (i.e., RE

5 performed equal or above 70% 1RM); (6) moderate-intensity combined exercise (MCE) (i.e.,

6 MRE plus MAE); and (7) high-intensity combined exercise (HCE) (i.e., MRE plus HIIIE).

7 The classification of exercise intensity domains was based on physiological thresholds and

8 relative intensity percentages (aligned with ACSM/ESC guidelines), as detailed in Table S1

9 ³³. Additionally, a secondary classification considering the length of high-intensity bouts (i.e.,

10 short HIIIE [i.e., ≤ 1 min] and long HIIIE [i.e., > 1 min]) was established. Exercise modality

11 and intensity were carefully evaluated to ensure accurate classification. Studies involving

12 other forms of exercise (e.g., yoga, pilates, stretching) were excluded. However, studies

13 combining the defined exercise interventions with adjunct treatments (e.g., nutritional or

14 psychological counselling, inspiratory muscle training, and blood flow restriction) were

15 included. Only studies lasting at least four weeks were considered. Both supervised and

16 unsupervised exercise interventions were included; (c) comparisons: Only studies comparing

17 at least two of the predefined interventions were included; (d) outcomes: The primary

18 outcome was endothelial function, measured by FMD via ultrasound in upper (e.g., brachial,

19 radial) and/or lower (e.g., femoral, tibial) limb arteries, reported as relative (%) or absolute

20 (mm) changes. Additional outcomes included endothelial-independent dilation, measured by

21 NMD; (e) study design: Prospective randomised and non-randomised studies with two or

22 more arms were included. Observational and retrospective studies were excluded.

23

1 *Data extraction and coding study characteristics.*

2 Two authors independently assessed all studies for inclusion. Data extraction was performed
3 independently by two authors using a standardised form. Disagreements were resolved by
4 consensus, or by involving a third reviewer when necessary. Extracted information included:
5 (a) study characteristics: Year of publication and study design (i.e., randomised or non-
6 randomised studies); (b) patient characteristics: Sample size, sex, age, baseline FMD,
7 baseline cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF), medication, and pathology; (c) intervention
8 characteristics: Setting (i.e., home-based, supervised, or mixed), training frequency,
9 programme duration, and detailed session characteristics (e.g., modality, intensity, duration,
10 and repetitions); (d) endothelial function assessment characteristics: Artery assessed, cuff
11 placement (i.e., distal or proximal to the imaged artery), occlusion pressure, occlusion length,
12 hyperaemia window, and device; and (e) statistical information: Mean and standard deviation
13 (SD) pre- and post-intervention. Finally, adverse events and drop-outs across interventions
14 were also extracted.

15 *Dealing with missing data*

16 When necessary, corresponding authors were contacted to retrieve missing data. Studies with
17 unavailable information after contact attempts were excluded.

18 *Methodological quality assessment*

19 Methodological quality was assessed using the TESTEX scale, a 15-point tool specifically
20 designed for exercise training studies. This tool evaluates study quality and reporting (see
21 supplementary material [Table S2])³⁴. Based on total scores, studies were categorised as
22 “excellent” (12–15 points), “good” (9–11 points), “fair” (6–8 points), or “poor” (<6 points).
23 Two authors independently rated each study; disagreements were resolved by consensus or
24 by involving a third reviewer.

1 *Statistical analyses*

2 Mean differences (MD) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were used as the effect size index.
3 Separate meta-analyses were conducted for each outcome (i.e., FMD and NMD). The artery
4 measured was also considered to conduct network meta-analyses (e.g., brachial FMD).
5 Network evidence plots were created to visualise relationships between interventions: nodes
6 represented interventions, with node size proportional to sample size, and connecting lines
7 indicating direct comparisons (with line thickness proportional to the number of
8 comparisons). Closed loops allowed for mixed-treatment comparisons (direct and indirect).
9 Consistency between direct and indirect comparisons was evaluated globally (Wald test) and
10 locally (node-splitting method). Depending on results, either consistent or inconsistent
11 models were applied. Random-effects multivariate network meta-analyses were conducted
12 within a frequentist framework. Interventions were ranked based on the surface under the
13 cumulative ranking curve (SUCRA). Additionally, to avoid over-reliance on mean ranks and
14 better reflect statistical uncertainty, we calculated the cumulative probability of each
15 intervention being among the top two most effective treatments³⁵. On the other hand, we
16 investigated the influence of potential effect modifiers on the relative treatment effects by
17 fitting post hoc network meta-regression models within the consistency framework. We
18 assessed both quantitative covariates (i.e., intervention length, frequency, mean age, and
19 baseline CRF) and dichotomous characteristics (i.e., pathology [CAD vs. CHF], supervision
20 [yes vs. no], distal occlusion [yes vs. no], and co-interventions [yes vs. no]). On the other
21 hand, to assess the robustness of the findings, we performed sensitivity analyses by removing
22 nodes with $n = 1$, non-randomised studies, and poor methodological quality studies based on
23 the TESTEX scale results. Finally, the comparison-adjusted funnel plot and the Egger test
24 were used to evaluate the potential for publication bias and small-study effects for the primary

1 network meta-analysis (i.e., brachial FMD)³⁶. All analyses were conducted for the primary
2 and secondary treatment classifications and performed using Stata software (version 16;
3 StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA). Additionally, the certainty of the evidence for
4 the primary outcomes was assessed using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment,
5 Development and Evaluation (GRADE) framework³⁷.

6

7 **Results**

8 *Study selection*

9 The study selection process is shown in Figure 1. Briefly, 6818 studies were retrieved after
10 removing duplicates (n = 3158). After reviewing title and abstract, 44 references were
11 considered eligible for full-text analysis, of which, 37 were included in the qualitative
12 synthesis^{17,38-73} and seven excluded (see Figure 1 for exclusion reasons). No additional
13 studies were identified via other sources. Therefore, despite efforts were made, unpublished
14 studies were not included.

15 *****Insert Figure 1 near here**

16

17 *Study and participant characteristics*

18 Study and participant characteristics can be found in Table S3. The included studies were
19 published between 2001 and 2023. Thirty (81%) studies were randomised<sup>17,38-42,44-47,49-
20 51,53,56,58-68,70-73</sup> and seven (19%) non-randomised^{43,48,52,54,55,57,69}. Regarding sex, 31 (84%)
21 studies recruited both male and female patients^{17,38,39,42-47,50-52,54-72}, while six (16%) enrolled
22 exclusively male patients^{40,41,48,49,53,73}. Out of all the included studies, 19 (51%) included
23 patients with CAD^{17,44-48,52,55-57,60,61,64,65,67,68,70-72}, 15 (41%) patients with HF^{38,40-43,49-}

1 51,53,54,59,62,63,69,73, two (5%) patients with HFpEF^{39,58}, and one (3%) recruited both HFREF
2 and HFpEF⁶⁶. Group sample size ranged between six and 100 patients. The mean \pm SD age
3 was 60.9 ± 5.5 years (min – max: 52.0 – 76.5), while CRF, which was reported in 58 groups,
4 was 19.1 ± 4.3 ml⁻¹·kg⁻¹·min (min – max: 13.0 – 32.2).

5 Intervention characteristics and outcomes measured are reported in Table S4. Regarding
6 exercise intervention characteristics, 23 (62%) studies conducted a supervised-exercise
7 programme^{17,38,40-46,52-56,59-61,63,66-68,72,73}, one (3%) a home-based exercise programme⁴⁹, four
8 (11%) combined supervised and home-based exercise sessions^{47,50,64,65}, and nine (24%) did
9 not report this information^{39,48,51,57,58,62,69-71}. The intervention duration ranged between four
10 and 48 weeks, while training frequency ranged between two and seven sessions per week.
11 Eighty groups were obtained from the 37 included studies, of which, 27 (34%) were UC
12 groups, 31 (39%) MAE groups, 14 (17%) HIIE groups, three (4%) MRE groups, four (5%)
13 MCE groups, and one (1%) HCE group. None of the included studies used HRE. Among the
14 14 HIIE groups, 10 (71%) used long HIIE and four (29%) short HIIE.

15 Regarding outcomes, all included studies measured endothelial-dependent dilation (i.e.,
16 FMD), while 18 (49%) also measured endothelial-independent dilation (i.e., NMD)
17^{17,40,41,43,45-47,51-55,60,64,68,71,72}. Thirty-one (84%) studies measured endothelial function in the
18 brachial artery^{17,38-42,44-49,53-58,60,61,63-73}, two (5%) in the brachial and tibial arteries^{52,59}, one
19 (3%) in the brachial and femoral arteries⁴³, two (5%) in the radial artery^{50,51}, and one (3%)
20 in the femoral artery⁶². Nineteen (51%) studies positioned the cuff distal to the evaluated
21 artery^{38,41,42,46,49,51,53,56-60,63,64,67-72}, four (11%) proximal^{44,55,61,73}, and 14 (38%) did not
22 specifically disclose this information^{17,39-41,43,47,48,50,52,54,62,65,66,68}. Finally, adverse events and
23 drop-outs across studies can be found in Table S5. No major exercise-related adverse events

1 were reported across interventions and drop-out rates ranges from 0% to 31.7% with no
2 consistent pattern favouring any exercise modality.

3 *Methodological quality assessment*

4 The results of the methodological quality assessment are reported in Table S6. The mean \pm
5 SD TESTEX score was 7.6 ± 2.3 (min – max: 3 – 11). Reviewers judged six studies (16%)
6 to have poor quality ^{42,48,49,51,63,73}, 16 (43%) to have fair quality ^{39,43,46,47,52,54-57,59,64,65,68-70,72},
7 and 15 (40%) to have good quality ^{17,38,40,41,44,45,50,53,58,60-62,66,67,71}.

8 A domain-level analysis revealed specific deficits. regarding randomisation, the generation
9 of the random sequence and allocation concealment were not specified in 65% and 62% of
10 the studies, respectively. Blinding of the outcome assessor was not implemented in 49% of
11 the trials. Regarding attrition, intention-to-treat analysis was absent in 51% of the studies that
12 reported experimental mortality. Furthermore, activity monitoring in the control group and
13 adjustment of relative exercise intensity were not reported in 70% and 84% of the studies,
14 respectively.

15 *Network meta-analysis*

16 *Brachial flow-mediated dilation*

17 The specific characteristics of brachial FMD measurement can be found in Table S7. The
18 assumption of transitivity was supported by the balanced distribution of baseline
19 characteristics and medication across intervention nodes (Table S8). Consistent with this, the
20 results of the global inconsistency test did not reach statistical significance ($p = .412$).
21 Additionally, the node-splitting results did not show statistical significance ($p \geq .219$) (see
22 Table S9). However, no direct evidence was available for the comparisons of HIIE vs. MCE,
23 MRE vs. HCE, and MCE vs. HCE. Therefore, estimates for these pairs rely exclusively on

1 indirect evidence. Figure 2 depicts the network diagram for FMD for the primary treatment
2 classification.

3 *****Insert Figure 2 near here**

4 The results of the comparative network meta-analysis for the primary classification for
5 relative brachial FMD can be found in Figure 3. We found that MAE (2.04%: 95%CI = 1.01,
6 3.07), HIIE (3.47%: 95%CI = 2.02, 4.92), MCE (2.71%: 95%CI = 0.05, 5.36), and HCE
7 (8.25%: 95%CI = 3.18, 13.32) improve brachial FMD to a greater extent than UC.
8 Additionally, when comparing exercise treatments, the results showed that HIIE is better than
9 MAE (1.43%: 95%CI = 0.09, 2.78), as well as that HCE better than MAE (6.21%: 95%CI =
10 1.17, 11.26) to enhance brachial FMD. There were no other significant differences between
11 exercise treatments. The cumulative probability of each treatment for the network of FMD is
12 shown in Figure 4.

13 Based on SUCRA values, the intervention hierarchy in the primary model was ordered as
14 follows: HCE (98.2%), HIIE (67.5%), MCE (50.2%), MRE (49.9%), MAE (33.1%), and UC
15 (1.2%). Additionally, HCE displayed the highest certainty, with a 97.8% likelihood of ranking
16 in the top two. Among the standard exercise modalities, HIIE presented the most favorable
17 profile, with a 51.9% probability of ranking in the top two, compared to MRE (26.0%) and
18 MCE (23.8%). Notably, MAE had a near-zero probability (0.5%) of being a top-tier
19 intervention. However, these rankings must be interpreted with caution; the confidence
20 intervals for the mean differences overlapped substantially between the active treatments (see
21 Figure 3), suggesting that while HIIE is the leading candidate based on probability, the
22 statistical distinction between HIIE, MRE, and MCE entails a degree of uncertainty.

23 The results of univariate network meta-regressions are shown in Table S10. Between-study
24 variance (τ^2) ranged from 5.46 to 6.49, comparable to the main consistency model (6.03),

1 suggesting that these factors are not major drivers of global heterogeneity. However,
2 significant treatment-specific interactions were identified: Pathology moderated MAE
3 outcomes ($p = .016$), with smaller improvements in CHF patients than in CAD patients ($-$
4 2.42%: 95% CI = $-4.40, -0.45$). For HIIIE, older age was associated with larger improvements
5 ($p = .021$; 0.28%: 95% CI = $0.04, 0.52$), while supervision was associated with smaller effect
6 sizes ($p = .022$; -6.39% : 95% CI = $-11.87, -0.91$).

7 The robustness of this hierarchy was assessed through three sensitivity scenarios (results
8 detailed in Table S11). The primary findings remained largely consistent across all analyses.
9 First, the exclusion of studies with poor methodological quality did not alter the primary
10 hierarchy. Second, when the influential HCE node was removed, HIIIE emerged as the
11 highest-ranked intervention (SUCRA 84.0%), followed by MRE (61.6%) and MCE (61.3%).
12 Finally, after removing non-randomised studies, the results showed a slight shift in the middle
13 rankings; while HCE remained dominant (96.3%), MCE (62.7%) showed a marginally higher
14 SUCRA value than HIIIE (59.6%). Importantly, HIIIE consistently achieved higher rankings
15 than MAE across every sensitivity scenario (SUCRA range for HIIIE: 59.6% to 84.0% vs
16 MAE: 31.9% to 41.5%), indicating a robust probabilistic advantage of high-intensity
17 intervals over moderate continuous aerobic exercise.

18 Regarding publication bias, visual inspection of the funnel plot revealed a generally
19 symmetrical distribution of studies around the zero line (Figure S1). This was confirmed by
20 the statistical test, which showed no significant evidence of small-study effects or publication
21 bias across the network ($p = .322$).

22 The certainty of evidence was assessed using the GRADE framework (Table S12). For the
23 primary comparisons involving substantial data (i.e., MAE vs UC, HIIIE vs UC, and the head-
24 to-head comparison HIIIE vs MAE), the certainty was rated as moderate. These ratings were

1 downgraded due to serious risk of bias, primarily driven by deficits in allocation concealment
2 and the lack of intention-to-treat analyses. For comparisons with limited data or wide
3 confidence intervals (e.g., HCE vs MAE, and comparisons involving MRE or MCE), the
4 certainty was rated as low due to the combination of risk of bias and imprecision.

5 *****Insert Figures 3 and 4 near here**

6 The inconsistency analysis, network diagram, and comparative network meta-analysis for the
7 secondary classification for relative brachial FMD can be found in Table S13, Figure S2, and
8 Figure S3, respectively.

9 Network consistency assessments revealed no significant discrepancies between direct and
10 indirect evidence in the closed loops available ($p > .050$). Notably, direct evidence was
11 lacking for short vs long HIIE and short HIIE vs UC. Estimates for these pairs, as well as for
12 HCE vs MCE/MRE, rely exclusively on indirect evidence.

13 Regarding exercise intervention comparisons, results showed that only long HIIE (MD =
14 5.69%; 95% CI = 0.02, 11.37) and MCE (MD = 1.59%; 95% CI = 0.04, 3.15) were
15 significantly better than MAE for improving brachial FMD. No statistically significant
16 differences were found between long and short HIIE (MD = 5.01%; 95% CI = -1.28, 11.29).

17 When specifically analysing the influence of interval duration, long HIIE showed a superior
18 probability profile compared to short HIIE. The likelihood of being among the top two best
19 interventions was 41.3% for long HIIE versus 25.0% for short HIIE. In fact, short HIIE
20 clustered with moderate-intensity protocols, suggesting that shortening the intervals may
21 dilute the superior efficacy observed with longer high-intensity bouts.

22

1 *Brachial nitroglycerin-mediated dilation*

2 The inconsistency analysis, network diagram, and comparative meta-analyses for the primary
3 classification for relative brachial NMD can be found in Table S14, Figure S4, and Figure
4 S5, respectively. No statistically significant differences were found between treatments for
5 enhancing NMD. SUCRA plots for all treatments for NMD are showed in Figure S6.

7 **Discussion**

8 The current systematic review with network meta-analysis was conducted to evaluate the
9 effects of exercise, while consider modality, intensity, and high-intensity bout duration on
10 endothelial function in patients with CVD. The majority of studies performed supervised AE
11 as training modality and used MAE as exercise method, followed by long and short HIIIE.
12 All studies measured FMD, mainly in the brachial artery, positioning the cuff distal to
13 assessed artery.

14 Our key findings demonstrate that all exercise modalities, except for MRE, improve brachial
15 FMD more than UC. This finding should be interpreted cautiously, as the mean effect size
16 for MRE was comparable to that of other modalities, but the wide 95% CI suggests a lack of
17 statistical power due to the small number of studies evaluating MRE. Moreover, previous
18 research in healthy young men has indicated that shorter durations of MRE (e.g., six or 12
19 weeks)⁷⁸ are insufficient to improve FMD, whereas longer durations (e.g., six months) do
20 confer a benefit⁷⁹. In line with this, all three MRE studies included in our meta-analysis had
21 intervention durations of less than twelve weeks, which may partly explain the absence of a
22 significant effect^{62,66,70}. These findings suggests that a more extended period of MRE training
23 might be necessary for FMD improvement, potentially implying a distinct time course of
24 FMD adaptation between resistance and aerobic training, though this requires further

1 confirmation. While Ashor, Lara ¹⁴ identified a dose-dependent relationship between AE
2 intensity and endothelial function improvement, enhancements in FMD following RE appear
3 to be predicted more by exercise frequency than intensity. Therefore, heterogeneity in RE
4 duration and frequency across studies could account for the absence of statistically significant
5 differences in FMD compared to usual care within our analysis.

6 The mechanisms responsible for improved vascular function with exercise include
7 hemodynamic stimuli such as shear stress, as well as improvements in autonomic regulation,
8 oxidative stress, and modulation of cardiovascular risk factors, including blood pressure and
9 lipid profiles ⁸⁰⁻⁸². Among these, increased shear stress—the frictional force exerted by
10 flowing blood on the vascular endothelium—is a central mediator of endothelial health ⁸³.

11 Physical activity elevates shear stress, promoting NO release, a potent vasorelaxant. In CAD
12 patients, four weeks of supervised AE increased endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS)
13 expression and Akt-dependent phosphorylation at serine 1177 in internal mammary artery
14 tissue sampled during bypass surgery, with phospho-eNOS levels directly correlating with
15 improved FMD ⁸⁴. The pivotal role of shear stress is further supported by studies where its
16 attenuation abolished FMD improvements. For instance, Tinken, Thijssen ⁸⁵, conducted an
17 eight-week bilateral handgrip exercise intervention where shear stress was selectively
18 attenuated in one arm using a cuff; improvements in endothelial function were observed only
19 in the uncuffed arm. Repeated exposure to elevated shear stress not only improves NO
20 bioavailability but also upregulates atheroprotective endothelial gene expression ⁸⁵⁻⁸⁷.

21 Exercise also modulates oxidative stress through redox-dependent mechanisms. Excessive
22 reactive oxygen species (ROS) production impairs NO bioavailability ⁸⁸. Although a single
23 session of AE ⁸⁹ or RE ⁹⁰ can increase ROS production, regular exercise training has been
24 shown to enhance endogenous antioxidant capacity by upregulating extracellular superoxide

1 dismutase (SOD) expression, thereby reducing ROS accumulation and preserving NO
2 bioactivity ⁹¹. Supporting this, Donato, Uberoi ⁹² demonstrated that antioxidant
3 administration pre-training improved FMD in sedentary older men, suggesting a redox-
4 sensitive mechanism.

5 Importantly, the dissociation between enhanced FMD and unchanged NMD observed in our meta-analysis
6 provides mechanistic insight into the site-specificity of these exercise-induced adaptations. FMD reflects
7 endothelium-dependent vasodilation, predominantly mediated by NO release in response to shear stress,
8 whereas NMD assesses endothelium-independent smooth muscle responsiveness to exogenous NO donors
9 ^{75,93}. The paired observation of FMD improvement with stable NMD indicates that the vascular benefits
10 of exercise training in patients with CVD are localised to the endothelium, whilst smooth muscle
11 vasodilatory capacity remains unaltered. The stability of NMD across the 4-12 weeks intervention
12 durations included in this meta-analysis is biologically plausible, as exercise-induced vascular adaptations
13 follow a temporal hierarchy whereby functional endothelial changes precede structural vascular
14 remodeling ⁹⁴. Changes in smooth muscle structure and function—including alterations in collagen-to-
15 elastin ratio, intima-media thickness, and receptor sensitivity—require more prolonged stimuli and may
16 not manifest within typical cardiac rehabilitation programme durations ⁹⁵. Collectively, these findings
17 reinforce that the primary mechanism underlying exercise-induced vascular improvement in CVD patients
18 is enhanced endothelium-dependent NO bioavailability, mediated through shear stress-induced eNOS
19 upregulation and phosphorylation, coupled with improved redox balance—whilst vascular smooth muscle
20 function remains preserved. Although the majority of exercise types improved endothelial
21 function, the magnitude of this effect varied depending on exercise intensity and modality.
22 Regarding AE intensity, HIIE was significantly more effective than MAE in improving
23 brachial FMD (1.43%; 95%CI = 0.09, 2.78). This result is reinforced by our sensitivity
24 analyses, which demonstrated that HIIE consistently outranked MAE across all
25 methodological scenarios examined, whether excluding studies of poor quality, removing the
26 influential HCE node, or restricting analysis to randomised trials. These findings suggest that

1 the superiority of HIIE over MAE is not an artefact of specific methodological choices but
2 rather a consistent signal across the evidence base, positioning HIIE as a robust evidence-
3 based alternative to continuous training. The superior effect of HIIE has been replicated
4 across diverse populations, including patients with CHF ⁷⁷, individuals with type 2 diabetes
5 or obesity ²⁷, and at risk and healthy cohorts ²⁶. A possible explanation for these greater
6 benefits lies in the fact that shear stress responses vary according to exercise modality,
7 intensity, and the vascular territories involved ⁹⁶. Higher aerobic exercise intensities typically
8 induce greater shear stress than moderate aerobic intensities, thereby enhancing NO
9 production and potentially accounting for the superior endothelial effects observed with HIIE
10 ⁹⁷⁻⁹⁹. The result of our secondary analysis suggests that the duration of HIIE intervals also
11 plays a critical role in vascular adaptation. Long-interval HIIE was found to be significantly
12 more effective than MAE, aligning with our previous findings, which demonstrated that long-
13 interval HIIE improved brachial FMD compared to MAE (1.46%; 95% CI = 0.35–2.57),
14 whereas short-interval HIIE conferred no such benefit ²⁹. However, no statistically significant
15 difference was observed between long and short HIIE in the current network meta-analysis.
16 This may reflect limited statistical power or overlapping confidence intervals, rather than the
17 absence of a true effect. Such limitations are inherent to network meta-analytic approaches,
18 which synthesise both direct and indirect evidence from a broad range of studies, many of
19 which may not have directly compared HIIE interval durations ³⁸. While this methodology
20 enhances generalisability and allows for comprehensive comparisons across multiple
21 interventions, it may also attenuate effect estimates and reduce sensitivity to detect subtle
22 differences. Therefore, the nuanced impact of HIIE interval duration on endothelial function
23 merits further investigation through well-powered, direct head-to-head trials.

1 Regarding exercise modality, we found that HCE appeared to yield even greater vascular
2 benefits compared to MAE and HIIE. This was further supported by SUCRA rankings, which
3 indicated that HCE had the highest probability of being the most effective intervention
4 (98.2%), followed by HIIE (67.5%). These results suggest that combining MRE and HIIE
5 may confer synergistic vascular benefits. Combined training may activate complementary
6 pathways that enhance NO synthesis, which may explain the superior endothelial benefits of
7 HCE protocols ⁸⁵. One proposed mechanism involves transient skeletal muscle ischaemia
8 during contraction, followed by reactive hyperaemia upon relaxation, which markedly
9 increases shear stress and stimulates endothelial function ⁸⁵. However, this result warrants
10 careful consideration, as our findings are based on a single study evaluating HCE, and
11 previous evidence has not consistently confirmed that CE offers superior improvements in
12 endothelial function compared to single-modality exercise. For instance, a network meta-
13 analysis by Chen, Gao ³⁰ reported that MAE had the highest probability of being the best
14 intervention for improving FMD in middle-aged and older adults (SUCRA = 68.9%),
15 followed by HIIE, MRE, and MCE. Similarly, a randomised controlled trial in individuals
16 with prehypertension or hypertension showed comparable improvements in FMD across
17 exercise modalities, with MCE offering no statistically superior benefit, despite numerically
18 higher gains in some cases ¹⁰⁰. Conversely, other studies have found CE to be particularly
19 effective in specific populations, such as individuals with type 2 diabetes ¹⁰¹ and those
20 recovering from COVID-19-related endothelial dysfunction ¹⁰². These discrepancies likely
21 reflect heterogeneity in exercise protocols (e.g., intensity, duration, and frequency),
22 participant characteristics (e.g., age, comorbidities, and baseline vascular function), or
23 methodological differences across studies. Moreover, most previous studies have not
24 adequately considered or reported the intensity of the aerobic component within CE
25 protocols, limiting the interpretation of their findings. While MCE may not always yield the

1 largest improvements in FMD, it consistently offers broader cardiovascular benefits,
2 including enhanced blood pressure control, increased CRF, muscular strength, and lean body
3 mass—factors relevant for overall cardiovascular risk reduction ^{103,104}.

4 Our exploratory meta-regression analyses revealed treatment-covariate interactions that may
5 inform individualised exercise prescription. MAE yielded smaller improvements in patients
6 with CHF compared to CAD suggesting that moderate-intensity protocols may be insufficient
7 to overcome the more severe endothelial dysfunction in CHF ¹⁰⁵; in contrast, HIIE efficacy
8 was not moderated by pathology, implying preserved benefit regardless of underlying cardiac
9 condition. The positive association between age and HIIE-induced FMD improvements
10 warrants particular attention. Older patients, who typically exhibit more pronounced baseline
11 endothelial dysfunction ¹⁰⁶, may paradoxically represent the subgroup with the greatest
12 potential for vascular benefit from HIIE ¹⁰⁷. This finding challenges the conventional
13 tendency to prescribe conservative, low-to-moderate intensity regimens for older adults and
14 supports the growing body of evidence that appropriately supervised HIIE can be both safe
15 and particularly effective in this population ^{108,109}. The paradoxical observation that
16 supervised HIIE yielded smaller effect sizes than unsupervised programmes is
17 counterintuitive and merits cautious interpretation. This finding may reflect residual
18 confounding, rather than a true detrimental effect of supervision, and requires prospective
19 validation given the post-hoc nature of these analyses ¹¹⁰.

20 The findings of this network meta-analysis carry significant clinical implications for the
21 prescription of exercise in CR programmes. While AE is a cornerstone of current CR
22 guidelines, our results suggest that the intensity and modality of exercise play a critical role
23 in optimising endothelial benefits ^{111,112}. The superior effectiveness of HIIE in improving
24 FMD suggests that this modality should be strongly considered in exercise prescriptions for

1 patients with CVD. Importantly, HIIE has also been shown to be more cost-effective than
2 MAE. This evidence provides an updated framework for clinicians, indicating that pushing
3 beyond traditional MAE could lead to greater vascular adaptations. Incorporating RE
4 alongside AE, especially at higher intensities, might offer additional benefits for endothelial
5 health. These findings support a shift towards more tailored and intensified exercise
6 prescriptions within CR to maximise the physiological benefits.

7

8 **Strengths and limitations**

9 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first systematic review and network meta-analysis
10 to address the effect of exercise on endothelial function in patients with CVD. This
11 methodological approach is a significant strength, as it allowed for simultaneous comparisons
12 of multiple exercise interventions and their intensities, providing a more comprehensive
13 understanding of their relative effectiveness than traditional pairwise meta-analyses. This is
14 also the first meta-analysis to account for exercise intensity in the context of CE, and the first
15 to explore the influence of high-intensity interval duration on vascular outcomes.

16 On the contrary, several limitations warrant consideration. First, substantial heterogeneity in
17 exercise protocols and methodological flaws identified by TESTEX (e.g., lack of allocation
18 concealment and intention-to-treat analyses) resulted in a low-to-moderate certainty of
19 evidence according to GRADE. Second, the network structure contained sparse nodes;
20 notably, HCE relied on a single intervention group, and comparisons regarding HIIE duration
21 were derived exclusively from indirect evidence, necessitating cautious interpretation. Third,
22 meta-regression analyses were post-hoc and restricted to univariate models due to
23 collinearity. Finally, although cardiovascular medication was generally balanced, residual
24 confounding cannot be fully excluded; a detailed analysis of the potential confounding effect

1 of cardiovascular medications is provided in the supplementary material (see Supplementary
2 Material). **Conclusion**

3 This network meta-analysis confirms that structured exercise training improves endothelial
4 function. HIIE appears to offer the most robust benefits, being significantly superior to
5 moderate-intensity continuous training. While HCE showed the largest effect size, these
6 findings rely on indirect evidence from a single group and must be viewed as preliminary.
7 Specifically, the comparative efficacy between long and short HIIE remains inconclusive due
8 to the absence of head-to-head trials. Exploratory post-hoc analyses further suggest that
9 efficacy may be modulated by clinical characteristics; notably, MAE showed reduced
10 benefits in patients with CHF compared to CAD, whereas high-intensity protocols appeared
11 consistent across pathologies and particularly beneficial for older adults. Consequently, these
12 findings support the integration of HIIE into CR programmes as a time-efficient alternative
13 or complement to MAE. Future research should prioritize high-quality randomised trials to
14 validate the promising potential of HCE, explore underrepresented interventions such as
15 HRE, and directly compare long versus short HIIE protocols. If the ultimate goal is lifelong
16 exercise adherence, a pragmatic strategy would be to initiate training with MAE as a
17 conditioning phase, then progressively introduce HIIE and resistance exercise to sustain the
18 training stimulus.

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3 **Conflict of interest**

4 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest related to this work.

5 **Author Contributions**

6 L.F.K., A.M-R., and S.B. designed the systematic review, established the electronic search
7 equation, and performed the searches. S.B., L.F.K and A.M-R. performed the study selection,
8 S.B., L.F.K, and A.M-R. carried out the data extraction, and A.M-R, and J.M.S performed
9 the risk of bias assessment. A.M-R., C.B-P., and N.S-R. carried out analyses, and A.M-R. and
10 L.F.K. wrote the first draft of the manuscript. C.B-P., N.S-R., and J.M.S. critically revised
11 the content of the manuscript and wrote the final version of the manuscript, which was finally
12 approved by all authors. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the
13 manuscript.

14 **Availability of data and materials**

15 The dataset generated from the current study is available from the corresponding author on
16 reasonable request.

17

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1 **Figure legends**

2 **Figure 1.** Flow chart of the study selection process.

3 **Figure 2.** Network evidence map for the primary classification for flow-mediated dilation.

4 HCE, high-intensity combined exercise; HIIE, high-intensity interval exercise; MAE,
5 moderate-intensity aerobic exercise; MCE, moderate-intensity combined exercise; MRE,
6 moderate-intensity resistance exercise; UC, usual care.

7 **Figure 3.** Interval plot for the primary exercise classification for flow-mediated dilation.

8 HCE, high-intensity combined exercise; HIIE, high-intensity interval exercise; MAE,
9 moderate-intensity aerobic exercise; MCE, moderate-intensity combined exercise; MRE,
10 moderate-intensity resistance exercise; UC, usual care.

11 **Figure 4.** Plots of the surface under the cumulative ranking curves for all treatments. HCE,

12 high-intensity combined exercise; HIIE, high-intensity interval exercise; MAE, moderate-
13 intensity aerobic exercise; MCE, moderate-intensity combined exercise; MRE, moderate-
14 intensity resistance exercise; UC, usual care.

15

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

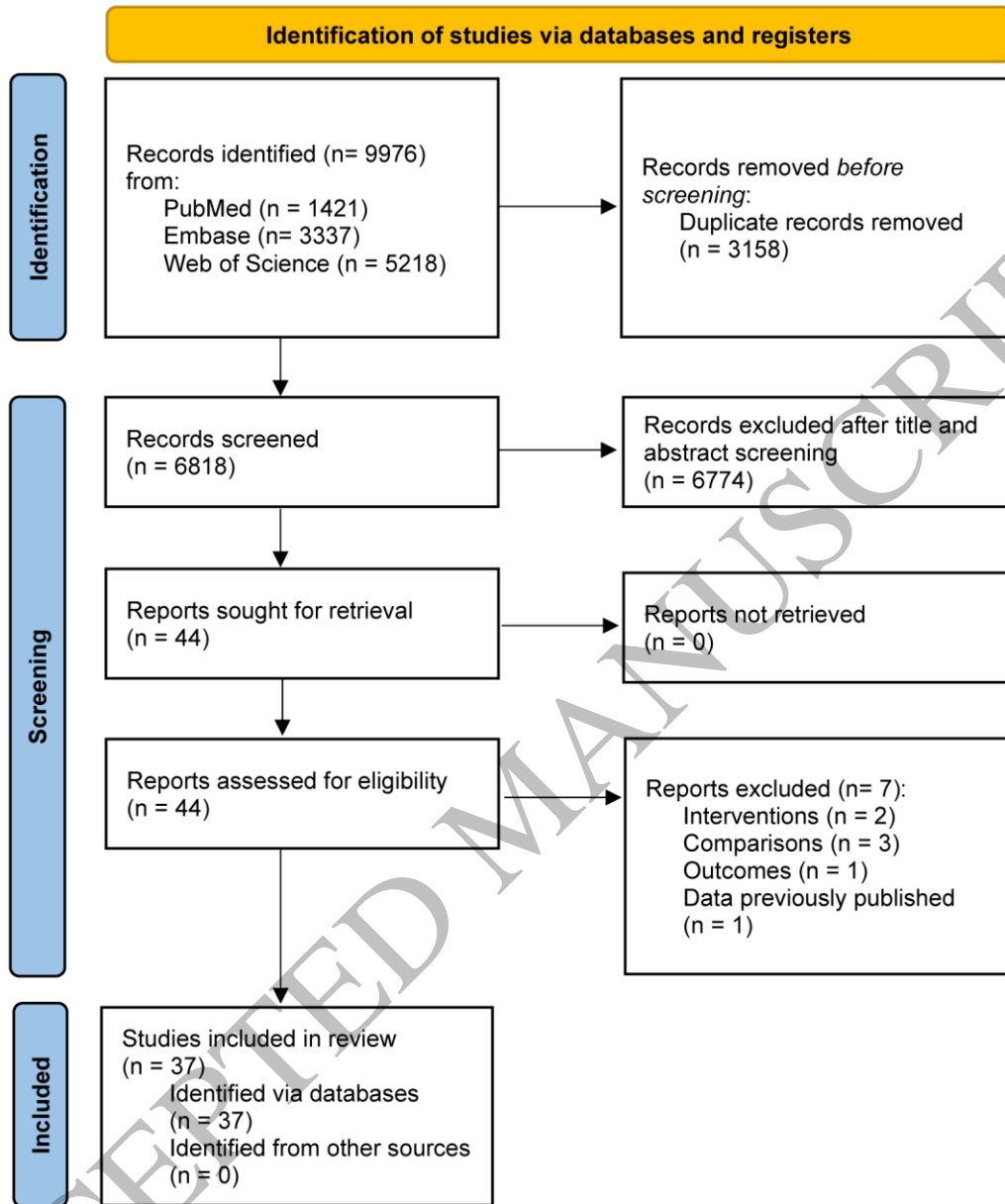


Figure 1
142x176 mm (x DPI)

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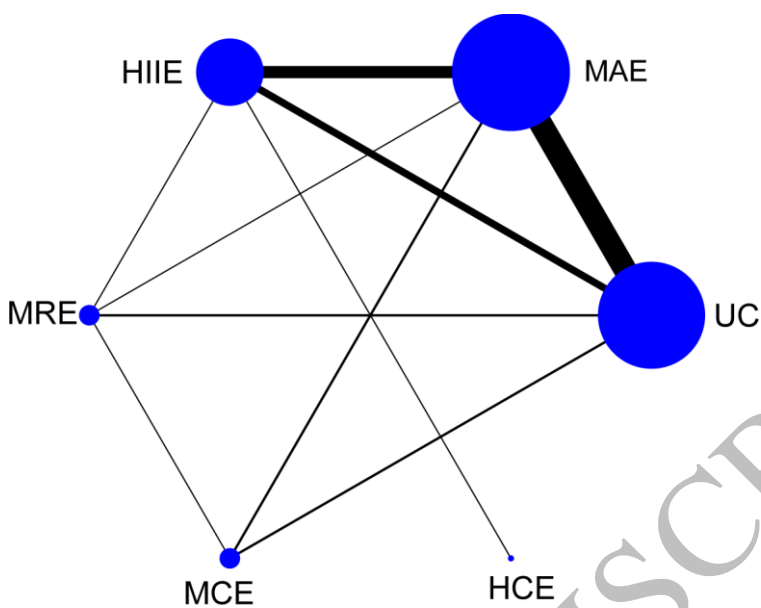


Figure 2
99x78 mm (x DPI)

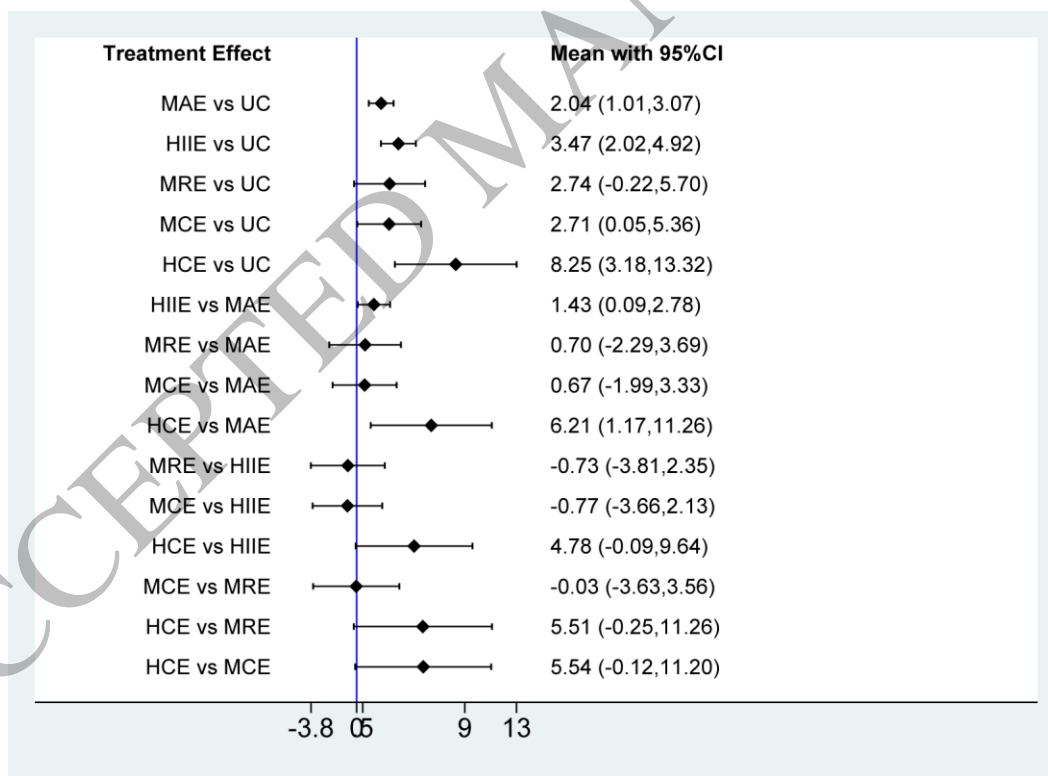


Figure 3
140x102 mm (x DPI)

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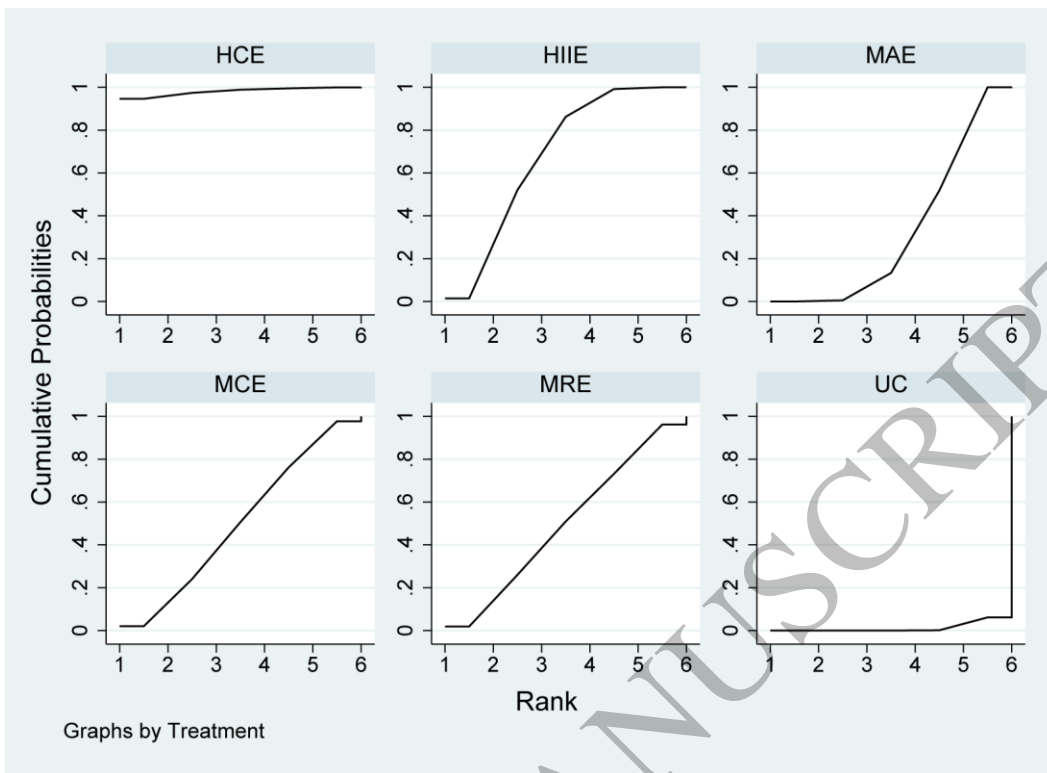


Figure 4
140x102 mm (x DPI)

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

STUDY DESIGN

Objective

FMD

Systematic review and NMA

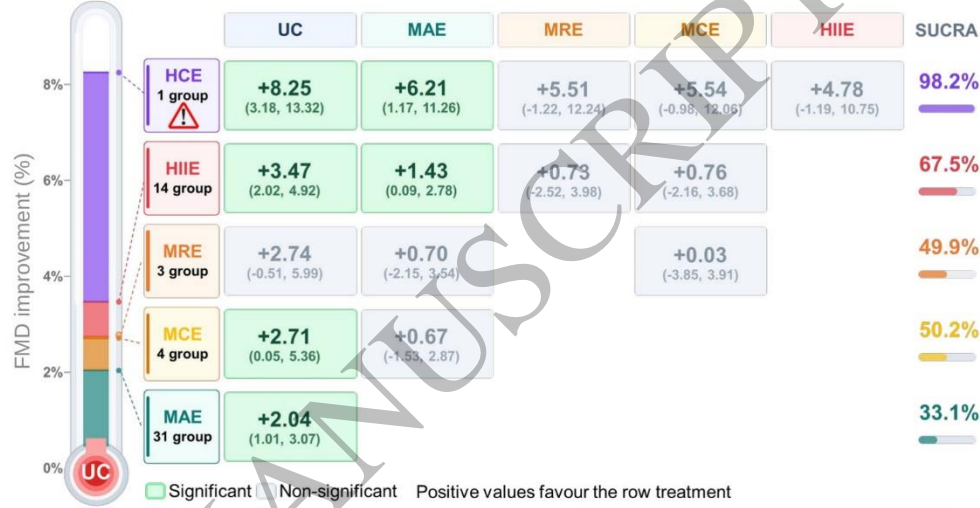
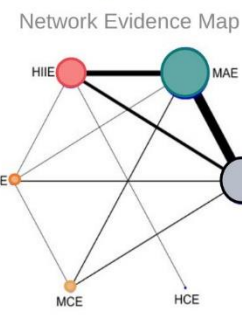
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Study Selection

P Patients with CVD (CAD, CHF)
 I Exercise > 4 weeks
 C ≥ 2 groups
 O Brachial FMD
 S RCTs & non-randomised

RESULTS

37 Studies included
 81% randomised
 80 groups



CONCLUSIONS

1 All exercise modalities (except MRE) significantly improve endothelial function in CVD.

2 HIIE: most effective and consistent in sensitivity analysis, regardless of pathology. Particularly beneficial in older patients.

3 HCE: largest effect
 Incorporating RE could have additive benefits
 Only 1 study → RCTs needed.

CLINICAL IMPLICATION

HIIE should be integrated in CR as alternative or complement to **MAE** to improve endothelial function in patients with CVD.

CAD, coronary artery disease; CHF, chronic heart failure; CR, cardiac rehabilitation; CVD, cardiovascular disease; FMD, flow-mediated dilation; HCE, high-intensity combined exercise; HIIE, high-intensity interval exercise; MAE, moderate-intensity aerobic exercise; MCE, moderate-intensity combined exercise; MRE, moderate-resistance exercise; NMA, network meta-analysis; RCT, randomised controlled trials; RE, resistance exercise; UC, usual care.

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Graphical Abstract
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