META-ANALYSIS

The effects of exercise training in adult solid organ transplant recipients: A systematic review and meta-analysis

Tania Janaudis-Ferreira^{1,2,3,[4](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0944-3791)} (D, Catherine M. Tansey¹, Sunita Mathur^{4,5}, Tom Blydt-Hansen^{4,6} (D, Julie Lamoureaux⁷, Agnès Räkel⁸, Nathalia Parente de Sousa Maia⁵, André Bussières^{1,7,9}, Sara Ahmed^{1,2,7} & Jill Boruff¹⁰

1 School of Physical and Occupational Therapy, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada

2 Centre for Outcomes Research and Evaluation (CORE), Research Institute of the McGill University Health Centre, Montreal, QC, Canada

3 Translational Research in Respiratory Diseases Program, Research Institute of the McGill University Health Centre, Montreal, QC, Canada

4 Canadian Donation and Transplantation Research Program, Edmonton, AB, Canada

5 Department of Physical Therapy, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada

6 British Columbia Children's Hospital, Vancouver, BC, Canada

7 Centre de Recherche Interdisciplinaire en Réadaptation du Montréal metropolitain, Montreal, QC, Canada

8 Centre Hospitalier de l'Université de

Montréal, Montreal, QC, Canada 9 Département Chiropratique, Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières, Trois-Rivières,

QC, Canada

10 Schulich Library of Physical Sciences, Life Sciences, and Engineering, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada

Correspondence

Tania Janaudis-Ferreira, School of Physical and Occupational Therapy, McGill University, 5252 de Maisonneuve Blvd. W., room # 3E01, Montreal, QC H4A 3J1, Canada. Tel.: 514-398-5325; Fax: 514-398-8193; e-mail: [Tania.janaudis](mailto:)[ferreira@mcgill.ca](mailto:)

ABSTRACT

Reduced exercise capacity can predispose solid organ transplant (SOT) recipients to higher risk of diabetes, cardiovascular complications, and mortality and impact their quality of life. This systematic review and meta-analysis investigated the effects of exercise training (versus no training) in adult SOT recipients. We conducted an electronic search of randomized controlled trials reporting on exercise interventions in SOT recipients. Primary outcomes were exercise capacity, quadriceps muscle strength, and health-related quality of life (HRQoL). Twenty-nine articles met the inclusion criteria. In 24 studies, there were either high risk of bias or some concerns about the potential risk of bias. There was an increase in exercise capacity (VO₂ peak) (SMD: 0.40; 95%CI 0.22–0.57; $P = 0.0$) and quadriceps muscle strength (SMD: 0.38; 95%CI 0.16–0.60; $P = 0.001$) in the exercise vs control groups. There were also improvements in several domains of the SF-36. Diastolic blood pressure improved in the exercise group compared to controls (SMD: -0.22 ; 95%CI -0.41 -0.03; P = 0.02). Despite the considerable variation in exercise training characteristics and high risk of bias in the included studies, exercise training improved maximal exercise capacity, quadriceps muscle strength, HRQoL, and diastolic blood pressure and should be an essential part of the post-transplant care.

Transplant International 2021; 34: 801–824

Key words

exercise, exercise capacity, HRQoL, solid organ transplant, transplantation

Received: 7 July 2020; Revision requested: 16 September 2020; Accepted: 17 February 2021; Published online: 22 March 2021

Introduction

Although transplantation provides individuals with endstage diseases of the heart, lung, kidney, pancreas, or liver with a second chance of life and the opportunity to regain physical function and improve their health-related quality of life (HRQoL), these individuals continue to experience impaired exercise capacity [1] and low levels of physical activity (PA) [2,3] after transplantation. Impaired exercise capacity and low levels of PA can predispose transplant recipients to a higher risk of diabetes, cardiovascular complications, and mortality [4,5], and impact their HRQoL and ability to return to work [1,6,7].

Exercise training improves exercise capacity, muscle strength, glycemic control, and cardiovascular risk factors across many chronic diseases [8]. In recent years, there has been an increased number of publications on exercise interventions following solid organ transplantation (SOT) [9,10]. Most of these studies are limited by small sample size and were conducted on recipients of a single transplant type (i.e., organ specific) [9]. The literature across transplant types suggests that exercise intolerance is not completely related to the pretransplant condition and that many of the factors that affect exercise capacity following transplant are common across transplant types [1]. These factors include deconditioning, skeletal muscle dysfunction, episodes of organ rejection, and side effects of immunosuppressant medications [1].

Available systematic reviews on the effects of exercise training in SOT have generally focused on one type of transplant [11-16]. In contrast, a 2013 systematic review and meta-analysis by Did bury et al. [17] included 15 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) covering all SOT recipient types and most of the relevant outcomes. However, the authors were able to conduct meta-analysis on only one outcome (maximum oxygen consumption $(VO_{2 \text{max}})$ and subgroup analysis only in heart transplant studies. Our preliminary search yielded at least 10 new RCTs since Didsbury et al.'s publication [17], suggesting it is timely to conduct an update of this work. Our primary objective is to investigate the effects of exercise training (versus no training) on maximal or functional exercise capacity, quadriceps muscle strength, and health-related quality of life (HRQoL) across the SOT types. A secondary objective is to investigate the effects of exercise training on cardiovascular risk factors, body composition, bone mineral density (BMD), systemic inflammation, anxiety and depression, physical activity, physical function, activities of daily living (ADL), return to work, healthcare utilization, adherence to the exercise program, and adverse events. The ultimate goal of our systematic review is to inform best practice in transplant rehabilitation and future research in the area of exercise in SOT.

Methods

The PRISMA guidelines for reporting systematic reviews [18] were followed and fulfilled. We registered our protocol on PROSPERO (International Prospective Register for Systematic Reviews) (registration number: CRD42016050648).

Search strategy

In collaboration with the research team, a health sciences librarian developed a search strategy to identify randomized controlled trials reporting on exercise interventions in heart, lung, kidney, liver, and pancreas transplant recipients (supporting document). The MEDLINE (Ovid) strategy was then adapted for Embase (Ovid), CINAHL, and Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials from inception to May 1, 2019. We did not limit the search by language or by year of publication [19]. ClinicalTrials.gov was used to identify clinical trials that were under way or recently completed. References of included studies and pertinent reviews [11,17,20] were hand-searched by one investigator, and forward searches for older studies (prior to 2014) were performed. The results were compiled, and duplicates removed using EndNote X9 (EndNote, Clarivate Analytics, Boston, MA) and Covidence systematic review software [21].

Inclusion criteria

To be eligible, published RCTs needed to meet the following "PICOT" criteria [22]:

1. Population: Adults recipients $(> 18 \text{ years})$ of any solid organ transplant (SOT) (heart, lung, kidney, pancreas, or liver).

2. Intervention: any inpatient, outpatient, or homebased exercise program that lasted more than 3 weeks.

3. Comparison: Nonexercise program or a sham intervention (i.e., flexibility exercises or education).

4. Outcomes: Our primary outcomes were maximal or functional exercise capacity, quadriceps muscle strength, and HRQoL. Any HRQoL measure used in the articles was considered. We defined "maximal exercise capacity" as the peak exercise capacity measured using an incremental exercise test (treadmill or cycle ergometer).

Functional exercise capacity was defined as the results of field walking tests (e.g., six-minute walk test). Any measure of quadriceps muscle strength was considered.

Our secondary outcomes included cardiovascular risk factors (blood pressure, fasting glucose, cholesterol, and triglycerides), body composition (fat mass, fat-free mass, body mass index (BMI), and bone mineral density (BMD)), systemic inflammation (IL-6 and TNF-alpha), anxiety and depression, measurements of physical activity measured either with a questionnaire or an activity monitor/pedometer, physical function, ADL, return to work, healthcare utilization (defined as family doctor visits, emergency visits, and hospital length of stay), adherence to the exercise program, and adverse events. 5Time: The intervention could have been offered any time post-transplant.

Exclusion criteria

Studies that compared two types of exercise training programs with no nonexercise control group were excluded. We also excluded nonrandomized trials, conference abstracts, articles published in nonpeer-reviewed journals, and in languages other than English, French, Spanish, or Portuguese.

Screening process and data extraction

Two researchers independently screened all titles and abstracts identified by the literature searches using Covidence software [21]. The same pair of reviewers applied the inclusion/exclusion criteria on the full text of the potentially eligible studies. Disagreements were resolved by consensus between the two reviewers. Reasons for exclusion of ineligible studies were recorded. Data extraction and verification were carried out by two reviewers and entered onto a standardized data extraction spreadsheet in Microsoft Excel. Details about study design, patient characteristics, details about the interventions, and primary and secondary outcomes were recorded. Discrepancies were resolved by consensus. When multiple articles reported different outcomes from the same study, this was noted on the tables. Authors of the primary studies were contacted when additional data were needed.

Assessing the risk of bias

Two reviewers independently assessed included RCTs for risk of bias using the criteria outlined in the RoB 2 tool, a revised Cochrane risk of bias tool for randomized trials [23], and includes the following domains: randomization process, deviation from intended interventions, missing outcome data, measurement of the outcomes, and incomplete outcome data. Disagreements on quality assessments were resolved by consensus in consultation with a third team member.

Data analysis and synthesis

Meta-analyses were performed when data of four or more studies were available [24]. Only data collected before and immediately after the training period were included in the meta-analysis. All analyses were done using Stata 15.1 (StataCorp, Texas). The effect size for each study was expressed as standardized mean differences (SMD) for continuous outcomes. The SMD allowed the comparison of study effect even when the tools used to measure the outcomes were in different units. Studies were weighted using sample size. The meta-analyses used the fixed effects model with inverse variance method. Heterogeneity was assessed using I^2 statistic.

For each study, all outcomes reported were treated as separate data points; several studies provided data on more than one outcome. Because measures from the same study are not independent from one another, the P-values were adjusted using Huber's formula as available in Stata [25]. Subgroup analyses (by level of supervision, timing post-transplant, frequency of the training, duration of the program, and type of training) were conducted when three or more studies contributed to a subgroup. Exercise training programs that lasted less than 3 months were considered as "short duration" and if they lasted more than 3 months as "long duration." Similarly, exercise training offered 3 times a week or less were considered as "less frequent" and those offered more than 3 times a week were considered as "more frequent." Exercise training programs that commenced within 12 months of transplantation were considered "early post-transplant" while those offered after 12 months post-transplant were considered "late posttransplant." None of the analysis showed significant heterogeneity as indicated by I^2 with *P*-values > 0.05.

Results

Search results

1490 unique manuscripts were identified by our search strategy of which 29 met our inclusion criteria. (Fig. 1). Twenty-one of the publications were unique studies.

Figure 1 Study flow from identification to final inclusion of studies.

Eight of the publications [26-33] were reports of different outcomes from one of the 21 unique studies. Table 1 shows the characteristics of the studies. Seven hundred thirty-six patients were randomized to either an intervention exercise group or a control group where no exercise was expressly prescribed. Eleven of the 21 unique studies included recipients of a kidney transplant, six studied heart transplant recipients, two included lung transplant recipients, and two examined liver transplant recipients (Table 1). No study in pancreas transplant recipients was found.

Risk of bias assessment

Table 2 reports the risk of bias of the included RCTs. In the domain of measurement of outcomes, most studies were judged to be of high bias, since it was not known whether the outcome assessors were aware of the group to which the participants were randomized. Eight studies [26,34-40] were judged to have a high risk of bias, and in another sixteen there were some concerns about the potential for bias, usually because the

necessary information was not included in the article. Five studies were judged to have a low risk of bias [29,33,41-43].

Exercise interventions

The exercise interventions varied in their delivery with two designed for patients to carry out the exercise at home, 17 were completely based at a central supervised location, and two used a combination of these strategies (Table 3). Seven programs included only aerobic training [41,43-48], six only resistance training [35,37,40,41,49,50], and nine used a combination of both types of training [34,36,38,39,42,51-54]. The frequency of training sessions varied between two and five times a week and programs lasted from 8 to 52 weeks in length. The timing of the intervention (number of years since transplantation) also varied across studies, ranging from one-week post-op [49] to approximately seven years post-transplant [47]. The majority of the studies measured outcomes immediately after the training period, and three studies also measured outcomes at

ª 2021 Steunstichting ESOT. Published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd

Table 1. Continued.

808 Transplant International 2021; 34: 801–824 ª 2021 Steunstichting ESOT. Published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd

810 Transplant International 2021; 34: 801–824 ª 2021 Steunstichting ESOT. Published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd

Transplant International 2021; 34: 801-824 811

ª 2021 Steunstichting ESOT. Published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd

ا نہا –triglycerides; –low-density lipoprotein; HR –heart rate; 1RM –one-repetition maximum; GFR –glomerular filtration rate; PWV –pulse wave velocity; TNF –tumor necrosis factor; STS-60 Sit-to-stand 60; A1C –glycated hemoglobin; WHO –World Health Organization; DASS-21 –Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale - 21 Items; 8-iso-PGF2– 8-isoprostane-prostaglandin F_2 ; sICAM-1 –soluble intercellular adhesion molecule-1; CMV IgG –cytomegalovirus Immunoglobulin G; hsCRP –high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; VEmax בער השטיעפות אין שואף ווירופות והיי באפשר וויות ויו
1996) Sit-to-stand 60; A1C–glycated hemoglobin; WHO–World Health Organization; DASS-21–Depression, Anxiety an mum ventilation; HADS – hospital anxiety and depression scale; 6MWD – 6-minute walk distance.

Table 2. Risk of bias of the included studies

a later timepoint (one or five years) [30,33,42] to assess maintenance of the training outcomes.

Primary outcomes

Maximal exercise capacity $(VO₂$ peak)

Thirteen studies [41-48,50-54] assessed maximal exercise capacity ($VO₂$ peak) immediately after the training period. All of these studies had a component of aerobic training in their program except the study by Karelis et al. [50] which only included resistance training. Two studies [30,33] measured $VO₂$ peak at 9-month and 5year follow-up. To reduce clinical heterogeneity, only studies that measured $VO₂$ peak immediately after the training period were included in the meta-analysis. There was an increase in $VO₂$ peak after the training period (SMD: 0.40; 95%CI 0.22–0.57; $P = 0.0$; $n = 521$; 13 trials (Fig. 2).

Subgroup analysis with $VO₂$ peak data

Type of training

Only studies that offered aerobic exercise alone (SMD: 0.47; 95%CI 0.22-0.71; $P < 0.001$; $n = 283$; 7 trials) and

814 Transplant International 2021; 34: 801–824 ª 2021 Steunstichting ESOT. Published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd

Study ID		$\%$ Weight
Liver Moya-Najera (2017) Subtotal (I-squared = \mathcal{N} , p = .)		9.97 9.97
Kidney Karelis (2016) Greenwood aerobic (2015) Greenwood resistance (2015) Riess (2014) Kouidi (2013) Painter (2002) Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0% , $p = 0.883$)		4.05 6.31 6.30 6.25 $+ 4.19$ 18.80 45.90
Heart Pascoalino (2015) Nytrøen (2012) Herman (2011) Haykowsky (2009) Braith (2008) Bernardi (2007) Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0% , $p = 0.982$)		5.61 9.49 5.11 8.58 3.07 4.62 36.48
Lung Langer (2012) Subtotal (I-squared = $.%$, p = .)		7.65 7.65
Heterogeneity between groups: $p = 0.636$ Overall (I-squared = 0.0% , $p = 0.989$)		100.00
-1.78		1.78
Favours Control Favours Treatment		

Figure 2 Effects of exercise training on peak exercise capacity (VO₂ peak).

a combination of aerobic with resistance training (SMD: 0.32; 95%CI 0.03–0.61; $P = 0.03$; $n = 185$; 5 trials) showed improvements in $VO₂$ peak (Fig. 3a).

Duration

Exercise training programs with both short (less than 3 months) (SMD: 0.37; 95%CI 0.12–0.62; $P = 0.004$; $n = 261$; 7 trials) and long durations (more than 3 months) (SMD: 0.43; 95%CI 0.18–0.67; $P = 0.001$; $n = 260$; 6 trials) were associated with improvements in $VO₂$ peak (Fig. 3b).

Frequency

Exercise training programs that were both less frequent (3 times a week or less) (SMD: 0.36; 95%CI 0.12–0.59; $P = 0.002$; $n = 305$; 8 trials) and more frequent (more than 3 times a week) (SMD: 0.45; 95%CI 0.18–0.72; $P = 0.001$; $n = 216$; 5 trials) were significantly associated with improvements in $VO₂$ peak (Fig. 3c).

Time post-transplant

Exercise training programs that commenced early (within 12 months) (SMD: 0.34; 95%CI 0.11–0.56; $P = 0.003$; $n = 309$; 7 trials) and late (more than 12 months) (SMD: 0.49; 95%CI 0.21-0.77; $P = 0.001$; $n = 212$; 6 trials) post-transplant were significantly associated with improvements in $VO₂$ peak (Fig. 3d).

Level of supervision

Only supervised exercise programs were effective in improving VO2 peak (SMD: 0.39; 95%CI 0.21–0.57; $P = 0.000$; $n = 497$; 12 trials). However, only one study [45] offered an unsupervised program (Fig. 3e).

Functional exercise capacity

Only one study included a measure of functional exercise capacity [42]. Langer et al. observed a statistically significant difference between groups in 6-minute-walk

Figure 3 (a) Subgroup analyses of the VO₂ peak by type of training. (b) Subgroup analyses of the VO₂ peak by duration of the program. (c) Subgroup analyses of the VO₂ peak by frequency of the training. (d) Subgroup analyses of the VO₂ peak by timing post-transplant. (e) Subgroup analyses of the $VO₂$ peak by level of supervision.

distance (mean difference of 9 meters (% predicted)) immediately following the exercise training intervention (3 months after hospital discharge from lung transplantation), and this improvement was maintained at the 12 month follow-up (mean difference of 12 meters (% predicted)) despite no further formal exercise program [42].

Quadriceps muscle strength

Seven studies [36,41,42,44,48,53,54] assessed quadriceps muscle strength after the training period. Overall, there was an increase in quadriceps muscle strength after the training period (SMD: 0.38; 95%CI 0.16–0.60; $P = 0.001$; $n = 329$; 7 trials) (Fig. 4a). Subgroup analysis showed that quadriceps muscle strength improved significantly in the groups that received a combination of aerobic and resistance training (SMD: 0.54; 95%CI 0.17–0.91; $P = 0.04$; $n = 120$; 4 trials) but not in the groups that received aerobic and/or resistance training alone (Fig. 4b).

Health-related quality of life

Of the 10 studies reporting HRQoL, nine [27,30,40- 42,44,48,53,54] used the SF-36TM, and one used the WHO-5 Well-being Index [50]. Meta-analysis was performed with the SF-36 data that were collected immediately after the training program. Yardley et al. [30] reported data only from 5 years after the training program and was not included in the meta-analysis. There were improvements in the physical function (SMD: 0.27; 95%CI 0.05–0.48; $P = 0.015$; $n = 345$; 7 trials), physical role functioning (SMD: 0.26; 95%CI 0.005–0.51; $P = 0.046$; $n = 248$; 6 trials), general health (SMD: 0.43; 95%CI 0.17–0.69; $P = 0.001$; $n = 248$; 6 trials), social role functioning (SMD: 0.26; 95%CI 0.005–0.69; $P = 0.045$; $n = 248$; 6 trials), and mental health (SMD: 0.30; 95%CI 0.046-0.56; $P = 0.021$; $n = 248$; 6 trials) domains of the SF-36 after the training period (Fig. 5a–e). There were no improvements in the bodily pain, vitality, or emotional role functioning domains (Fig. 5f–g). Four studies [41,44,48,54] reported the composite scores for physical and mental functioning, but no significant improvement was seen in these composites scores after the training period.

Secondary outcomes

Cardiovascular risk factors

A meta-analysis including 11 articles (7 in kidney [33,39,41,44,50,52,54] and 4 in heart [26,43,47,48])

Figure 4 (a) Effects of exercise training on quadriceps muscle strength. (b) Subgroup analyses of quadriceps muscle strength by type of training.

Figure 5 (a) Effects of exercise training on the physical function domain of the SF-36. (b) Effects of exercise training on the physical role functioning domain of the SF-36. (c) Effects of exercise training on the general health domain of the SF-36. (d) Effects of exercise training on the social role functioning domain of the SF-36. (e) Effects of exercise training on the mental health domain of the SF-36. (f) Effects of exercise training on the bodily pain domain of the SF-36. (g) Effects of exercise training on the vitality domain of the SF-36. (h) Effects of exercise training on the emotional role functioning of the SF-36.

showed no significant difference between groups in systolic blood pressure (SMD: -0.11 ; 95%CI $-0.30-0.08$; $P = 0.25$; $n = 483$; 11 trials) but showed an overall improvement in diastolic blood pressure (SMD: -0.22 ; 95%CI $-0.41-0.03$; $P = 0.02$; $n = 552$; 11 trials) in the exercise group compared to the control group. Five studies (two in kidney [49,50] and three in heart [46- 48]) measured fasting glucose immediately after the training period but showed no significant difference between groups (SMD: 0.13 ; $95\%CI$ -0.16-0.43; $P = 0.37$; $n = 175$; 5 trials). Pooled data from 8 trials (4 in kidney [32,38,49,50], 1 in liver [34] and 3 in heart [26,46,47]) showed no significant difference between groups in total cholesterol (SMD: -0.09 ; 95%CI $-0.32-$ 0.13; $P = 0.39$; $n = 316$; 8 trials) at the end of the exercise training period.

Adverse events

Adverse events were explicitly reported in only eight studies (4 in heart [31,47,48,51], 3 in kidney [41,50,54], and 1 in lung [37]). Six studies [31,41,47,50,51,54] reported no adverse events during the period of the study. Nytrøen et al. [48] reported that one of their patients in the control group had a myocardial infarction and Mitchell et al. [37] reported an increase in rejection episodes in the exercise group, although this was not statistically significant.

Table 4 presents a summary of the findings of the primary outcomes of this systematic review. Data on adherence to exercise, body composition, inflammatory markers, physical function, depression and anxiety, ADL, PA, return to work, and healthcare utilization are presented in the supporting document.

Discussion

Our systematic review showed that exercise training improves maximal exercise capacity, HRQoL, quadriceps muscle strength, and diastolic blood pressure in SOT recipients when compared to a control group who received no exercise. It also revealed that there is limited evidence that exercise training improves other cardiovascular risk factors, body composition, inflammatory markers, physical activity, physical function, return to work or depression, and anxiety in this population. However, these results must be interpreted with caution as there were fewer studies reporting these secondary outcomes. In addition, these outcomes were often not the primary endpoint in the articles reviewed and therefore the studies were likely not powered to show an effect. In 24 studies, there were either high risk of bias or some concerns about the potential risk of bias.

Our meta-analysis showed an overall improvement in exercise capacity $(VO₂$ peak) in SOT recipients as did Didsbury et al. [17]. Other reviews have shown improvements in $VO₂$ peak in several single organ groups [11-16,20,55], but none of them conducted meta-analyses including liver and lung transplant recipients. Low $VO₂$ peak has been associated with higher risk for cardiovascular disease and is a predictor of mortality in chronic disease populations [8] and SOT recipients $[1]$ so an improvement in $VO₂$ peak may improve prognosis and reduce risk for cardiovascular disease post-transplant. Indeed, our meta-analysis showed an improvement in diastolic blood pressure in the exercise group compared to the control group. The lack of significant difference in other cardiovascular risk factors may be related to the small number of studies that reported these outcomes, the short-term follow-up, and that the studies were not adequately powered to detect differences in these outcomes. In addition, we noted that the mean cholesterol and fasting glucose values at outset (pre-intervention) were normal in most of the studies which may explain the lack of change. Our findings related to cardiovascular risk factors are in contrast with the review by Li et al. [56] which showed significant reductions in fasting blood glucose, triglycerides, and body mass index in SOT recipients after exercise training. However, we noticed that Li et al. [56] included studies that did not meet our inclusion criteria (e.g., randomization was not respected [57] and Chinese language). Finally, it is important to note that most of the studies included in our meta-analysis of the $VO₂$ data included heart and kidney recipients; therefore, more studies including lung and liver groups are needed.

In contrast to the previous meta-analysis in SOT by Didsbury et al. [17], which showed that only exercise programs longer than 3 months in duration and

Table 4. Summary of the findings of the primary outcomes

HRQoL: Health-related quality of life; VO₂ peak: peak oxygen consumption; SMD: standardized mean difference; CI: confidence interval.

commenced within one year after the transplant were effective in improving $VO₂$ peak in heart transplant recipients, results of our subgroup analysis showed that exercise training improved VO₂ peak regardless of duration, frequency, and timing of commencement in SOT recipients. The results are likely different because Didsbury et al. [17] included only heart transplant recipients in their subgroup analysis. In addition, in this review, the majority of the studies classified as offering a shorter and less frequent exercise program provided sessions at least 3 times a week for 8 weeks which is considered the optimal minimum frequency and duration of an exercise program to confer benefits to SOT recipients [9]. The fact that there was improvement in $VO₂$ peak regardless of timing of commencement of the program shows that exercise limitation in SOT recipients can persist years post-transplant and is amenable to improvement with exercise [1,9]. We did observe, however, that the exercise program needs to offer aerobic training (either alone or in combination with resistance training) to increase $VO₂$ peak.

Our meta-analysis showed improvements in several domains of the SF-36. Although other reviews have shown similar improvements in HRQoL in kidney transplant recipients [14-16], our study is the first to include all SOT types in a meta-analysis. So far, other authors reporting on other organ groups have not been able to conduct meta-analysis with data from HRQoL tools due to the paucity of studies evaluating this outcome [11,17,55]. One of the primary goals of transplant is to improve HRQoL, so these findings support the importance of exercise in post-transplant management.

Of the eight [31,37,41,47,48,50,51,54] studies that included data on adverse events, two [37,48] reported some adverse events during the period of the study which do not appear to be related to the exercise. More information can perhaps be gleaned from the discussions of dropout rates (Table 1). For example, Langer et al. [42] had five patients lost to follow-up (3 in exercise group and 2 in the control group) due to "severe medical complications." It was not stated what these complications were or whether the authors thought that they were related to exercise. Braith et al. [46] reported that one patient withdrew from the exercise group because of a complication that was not related to the study. The study by Painter et al. [44] reported 70 dropouts, many for medical reasons (6 in the exercise group, 15 in the control group). These data suggest that SOT recipients' early post-transplant may be prone to many complications post-transplant. In fact, a study by Patcai et al. [58] showed that SOT recipients attending an

inpatient rehabilitation program early post-transplant were ten times more likely to be readmitted to an acute hospital compared to other inpatient rehabilitation populations (e.g., cardiac, neurological, and amputee patients). Both in Langer et al.'s [42] and Painter et al.'s [32] studies, exercise training was offered quite early post-transplant (4-8 weeks in Painter et al. and 1-2 week in Langer et al.) which may explain the higher dropout rates. These findings have implications for the interaction between rehabilitation programs offering programs early posttransplant and the transplant programs.

Our review has some strengths and limitations. Strengths include a rigorous methodology (with an experienced librarian and statistician conducting the searches and statistical analysis) and expertise of the research team in knowledge synthesis and exercise in transplantation [9,10,59,60]. Another strength is the novel contributions of our study compared to previous reviews. Prior reviews were conducted on recipients of a single transplant type (i.e., organ specific) and included a smaller number of studies [11-16,20,55] preventing the pooling of results or were focused on a narrower list of outcome measures [56]. We have included 20 new studies [26,28-36,38-41,43,48,50,52-54] not included in Didsbury's review [17]. Interestingly, 11 of the newer studies involved kidney transplant recipients. In addition, Didsbury et al. were only able to conduct metaanalysis with data of $VO₂$ peak while we had enough data to conduct meta-analysis using data of $VO₂$ peak, SF-36, quadriceps muscle strength, and several additional secondary outcomes. Limitations of our review include the limited number of RCTs studying liver and lung transplant recipients (none in pancreas), as well as the small number of studies including our secondary outcomes of interest and long-term evaluation of the effects of exercise in this population. Eight studies were deemed to have high risk of bias, and the risk of bias of many other studies was unclear (Table 2).

Implications for clinical practice and research

Most of the exercise programs offered in the studies included in this review were supervised and hospitalbased (only three studies offered a home-based exercise program). This mode of delivery is usually costly and recommended only for the early post-transplant phase [1-6months] and/or in case of medical instability [9]. Alternative ways of delivery such as home or community-based programs as well as tele-rehabilitation programs should be considered to increase access and keep the costs low, especially late post-transplant (>6 months) [9]. Future research should investigate whether the effects of exercise on $VO₂$ peak, muscle strength, HRQoL, and diastolic blood pressure in SOT recipients can be maintained in the long term. Exercise training studies should also focus on outcomes such as cardiovascular risk factors, immune and graft function, healthcare utilization, and survival. These studies will need to include a long-term follow-up and likely be multi-centric to be statistically powered for these outcomes. Finally, more studies in liver, lung, and pancreas transplant recipients are needed.

In conclusion, despite the considerable variation in exercise training characteristics and high risk of bias in the included studies, this systematic review revealed that exercise training improves $VO₂$ peak, quadriceps muscle strength, HRQoL, and diastolic blood pressure in SOT recipients. Despite the underreporting of adverse events, exercise training should be considered as an essential part of the post-transplant care. SOT recipients early post-transplant may be more prone to complications post-transplant. To date, there is insufficient evidence that exercise training improves other cardiovascular risk factors, inflammatory markers, and healthcare utilization in SOT recipients. However, these findings must be interpreted with caution as there are few studies reporting these secondary outcomes which were likely not powered to show an effect.

Authorship

Tania Janaudis-Ferreira: designed the study, performed the study, assisted with data extraction, assisted with data analysis, interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript. Catherine M. Tansey: extracted the data, and assisted with interpretation of the data and manuscript writing. Sunita Mathur, Tom Blydt-Hansen Agnès

Räkel André Bussières, and Sara Ahmed: designed the study, assisted with interpretation of the data, and provided critical feedback on the manuscript. Nathalia Parente de Sousa Maia: assisted with data extraction and provided critical feedback on the manuscript. Julie Lamoureaux: performed the meta-analysis and provided critical feedback on the manuscript. Jill Boruff: designed the search strategy and provided critical feedback on the manuscript.

Funding

This study was funded by an Edith Strauss Knowledge Translation Grant. Dr. Janaudis-Ferreira holds a salary award from Fonds de Recherche Santé-Ouébec.

Conflict of interest

The authors of this manuscript have no conflicts of interest to disclose as described by Transplant International.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Appendix S1. Ovid Medline (All) Search Strategy. Appendix S2. Other Secondary Outcomes

REFERENCES

- 1. Williams TJ, McKenna MJ. Exercise limitation following transplantation. Comprehensive. Physiology. 2012.
- 2. Berben L, Engberg SJ, Rossmeissl A, et al. Correlates and Outcomes of Low Physical Activity Posttransplant: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Transplantation 2019; 103: 679.
- 3. Gustaw T, Schoo E, Barbalinardo C, et al. Physical activity in solid organ transplant recipients: Participation, predictors, barriers, and facilitators. Clin Transplant 2017; 31: 1–9.
- 4. Ting SM, Iqbal H, Kanji H, et al. Functional cardiovascular reserve predicts survival pre-kidney and post-kidney transplantation. J Am Soc Nephrol 2014; 25: 187.
- 5. Zelle DM, Corpeleijn E, Stolk RP, et al. Low physical activity and risk of cardiovascular and all-cause mortality in renal transplant recipients. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 2011; 6: 898.
- 6. Macdonald JH, Kirkman D, Jibani M. Kidney transplantation: a systematic

review of interventional and observational studies of physical activity on intermediate outcomes. Adv Chronic Kidney Dis 2009; 16: 482.

- 7. Langer D, Gosselink R, Pitta F, et al. Physical activity in daily life 1 year after lung transplantation. J Heart Lung Transplant 2009; 28: 572.
- 8. Pedersen BK, Saltin B. Exercise as medicine–evidence for prescribing exercise as therapy in 26 different chronic diseases. Scand J Med Sci Sports 2015; 25: 1.
- 9. Janaudis-Ferreira T, Mathur S, Deliva R, et al. Exercise for Solid Organ Transplant Candidates and Recipients: A Joint Position Statement of the Canadian Society of Transplantation and CAN-RESTORE. Transplantation 2019; 103: e220.
- 10. Janaudis-Ferreira T, Mathur S, Konidis S, Tansey CM, Beaurepaire C. Outcomes in randomized controlled trials of exercise interventions in solid organ transplant. World J Transplant 2016; 6: 774.
- 11. Anderson L, Dall CH, Nguyen TT, Burgess L, Taylor RS. Exercise-based cardiac rehabilitation in heart transplant recipients. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2016; 2016: 4.
- 12. de Andrade PHC, Cordeiro ALL, Petto J. Effects of physical exercise in patients after cardiac transplantation: a systematic review. Revista Pesquisa em Fisioterapia 2017; 7: 87.
- 13. Langer D. Rehabilitation in patients before and after lung transplantation. Respiration 2015; 89: 353.
- 14. Chen G, Gao L, Li X. Effects of exercise training on cardiovascular risk factors in kidney transplant recipients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Ren Fail 2019; 41: 408.
- 15. Calella P, Hernández-Sánchez S, Garofalo C, Ruiz JR, Carrero JJ, Bellizzi V. Exercise training in kidney transplant recipients: A systematic review. J Nephrol 2019; 32: 1.
- 16. Oguchi H, Tsujita M, Yazawa M, et al. The efficacy of exercise training in kidney transplant recipients: a meta-analysis and systematic review. Clin Exp Nephrol 2019; 23: 275.
- 17. Didsbury M, McGee RG, Tong A, et al. Exercise training in solid organ transplant recipients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Transplantation 2013; 95: 679.
- 18. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, et al. The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and metaanalyses of studies that evaluate health care interventions: explanation and elaboration. Ann Intern Med 2009; 151: W-65.
- 19. Morton S, Berg A, Levit L, Eden J. Finding what works in health care: standards for systematic reviews. National Academies Press; 2011.
- 20. Wickerson L, Rozenberg D, Janaudis-Ferreira T, et al. Physical rehabilitation for lung transplant candidates and recipients: An evidence. 2016.
- 21. Covidence systematic review software, Veritas Health Innovation, Melbourne, Australia. Available from: [www.covide](http://www.covidence.org) [nce.org.](http://www.covidence.org)
- 22. Riva JJ, Malik KM, Burnie SJ, Endicott AR, Busse JW. What is your research question? An introduction to the PICOT format for clinicians. J Can Chiropr Assoc 2012; 56: 167.
- 23. Sterne JAC, Savovic J, Page MJ, et al. RoB 2: a revised tool for assessing risk of bias in randomised trials. BMJ 2019; 366: l4898.
- 24. Ioannidis JP, Patsopoulos NA, Evangelou E. Uncertainty in heterogeneity estimates in meta-analyses. BMJ 2007; 335: 914.
- 25. Huber PJ. editor The behavior of maximum likelihood estimates under nonstandard conditions. Proceedings of the fifth Berkeley symposium on mathematical statistics and probability; 1967: University of California Press.
- 26. Pierce GL, Schofield RS, Casey DP, Hamlin SA, Hill JA, Braith RW. Effects of exercise training on forearm and calf vasodilation and proinflammatory markers in recent heart transplant recipients: a pilot study. Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil 2008; 15: 10.
- 27. Christensen SB, Dall CH, Prescott E, Pedersen SS, Gustafsson F. A high-intensity exercise program improves exercise capacity, self-perceived health, anxiety and depression in heart transplant recipients: a randomized, controlled trial. J Heart Lung Transplant 2012; 31: 106.
- 28. Monk-Hansen T, Dall CH, Christensen SB, et al. Interval training does not modulate diastolic function in heart transplant recipients. Scand Cardiovasc J 2014; 48: 91.
- 29. Nytrøen K, Rustad LA, Erikstad I, et al. Effect of high-intensity interval training on progression of cardiac allograft vasculopathy. J Heart Lung Transplant 2013; 32: 1073.
- 30. Yardley M, Gullestad L, Bendz B, et al. Long-term effects of high-intensity interval training in heart transplant recipients: A 5-year follow-up study of a randomized controlled trial. Clin Transplant 2017; 31: 1.
- 31. Rustad LA, Nytrøen K, Amundsen BH, Gullestad L, Aakhus S. One year of highintensity interval training improves exercise capacity, but not left ventricular function in stable heart transplant recipients: A randomised controlled trial. Eur J Prev Cardiol 2014; 21: 181.
- 32. Painter PL, Hector L, Ray K, et al. Effects of exercise training on coronary heart disease risk factors in renal transplant recipients. Am J Kidney Dis 2003; 42: 362.
- 33. O'Connor EM, Koufaki P, Mercer TH, et al. Long-term pulse wave velocity outcomes with aerobic and resistance training in kidney transplant recipients–A

pilot randomised controlled trial. PLoS One 2017; 12: e0171063.

- 34. Basha MA, Mowafy ZE, Morsy EA. Sarcopenic obesity and dyslipidemia response to selective exercise program after liver transplantation. Egyptian J Med Human Genet 2015; 16: 263.
- 35. Eatemadololama A, Karimi MT, Rahnama N, Rasolzadegan MH. Resistance exercise training restores bone mineral density in renal transplant recipients. Clin Cases Miner Bone Metab 2017; 14: 157.
- 36. Leasure R, Belknap D, Burks C, Schlegel J. The effects of structured exercise on muscle mass, strength, and endurance of immunosuppressed adult renal transplant patients: A pilot study. Rehabil Nurs Res. 1995; 4: 199.
- 37. Mitchell MJ, Baz MA, Fulton MN, Lisor CF, Braith RW. Resistance training prevents vertebral osteoporosis in lung transplant recipients. Transplantation 2003; 76: 557.
- 38. Pooranfar S, Shakoor E, Shafahi M, et al. The effect of exercise training on quality and quantity of sleep and lipid profile in renal transplant patients: a randomized clinical trial. Int J Organ Transplant Med 2014; 5: 157.
- 39. Shakoor E, Salesi M, Koushki M, Asadmanesh E, Willoughby DS, Qassemian A. The effect of concurrent aerobic and anaerobic exercise on stress, anxiety, depressive symptoms, and blood pressure in renal transplant female patients: A randomized control trial. Int J Kinesiol Sports Sci 2016; 4: 25.
- 40. Tzvetanov I, West-Thielke P, D'Amico G, et al. A novel and personalized rehabilitation program for obese kidney transplant recipients. Transpl Proc 2014; 46: 3431.
- 41. Greenwood SA, Koufaki P, Mercer TH, et al. Aerobic or resistance training and pulse wave velocity in kidney transplant recipients: a 12-week pilot randomized controlled trial (the Exercise in Renal Transplant [ExeRT] Trial). Am J Kidney Dis 2015; 66: 689.
- 42. Langer D, Burtin C, Schepers L, et al. Exercise training after lung transplantation improves participation in daily activity: a randomized controlled trial. Am J Transplant 2012; 12: 1584.
- 43. Pascoalino LN, Ciolac EG, Tavares AC, et al. Exercise training improves ambulatory blood pressure but not arterial stiffness in heart transplant recipients. J Heart Lung Transplant 2015; 34: 693.
- 44. Painter PL, Hector L, Ray K, et al. A randomized trial of exercise training after renal transplantation. Transplantation 2002; 74: 42.
- 45. Bernardi L, Radaelli A, Passino C, et al. Effects of physical training on cardiovascular control after heart transplantation. Int J Cardiol 2007; 118: 356.
- 46. Braith RW, Schofield RS, Hill JA, Casey DP, Pierce GL. Exercise training attenuates progressive decline in brachial artery reactivity in heart transplant recipients. J Heart Lung Transplant 2008; 27: 52.
- 47. Hermann TS, Dall C, Christensen S, Goetze J, Prescott E, Gustafsson F. Effect of High Intensity Exercise on Peak Oxygen Uptake and Endothelial Function in Long-Term Heart Transplant Recipients. Am J Transplant 2011; 11: 536.
- 48. Nytrøen K, Rustad LA, Aukrust P, et al. High-Intensity Interval Training Improves Peak Oxygen Uptake and Muscular Exercise Capacity in Heart Transplant Recipients. Am J Transplant 2012; 12: 3134.
- 49. Juskowa J, Lewandowska M, Bartłomiejczyk I, et al. Physical rehabilitation and risk of atherosclerosis after successful kidney transplantation. Transpl Proc 2006; 38: 157.
- 50. Karelis AD, Hebert M-J, Rabasa-Lhoret R, Räkel A. Impact of resistance training on factors involved in the

development of new-onset diabetes after transplantation in renal transplant recipients: An open randomized pilot study. Can J Diabetes 2016; 40: 382.

- 51. Haykowsky M, Taylor D, Kim D, Exercise training improves aerobic capacity and skeletal muscle function in heart transplant recipients. Am J Transplant 2009; 9: 734.
- 52. Kouidi E, Vergoulas G, Anifanti M, Deligiannis A. A randomized controlled trial of exercise training on cardiovascular and autonomic function among renal transplant recipients. Nephrol Dial Transplant 2013; 28: 1294.
- 53. Moya-Najera D, Moya-Herraiz A, Compte-Torrero L, et al. Combined resistance and endurance training at a moderate-to-high intensity improves physical condition and quality of life in liver transplant patients. Liver Transpl 2017; 23: 1273.
- 54. Riess KJ, Haykowsky M, Lawrance R, et al. Exercise training improves aerobic capacity, muscle strength, and quality of life in renal transplant recipients. Appl Physiol Nutr Metab 2013; 39: 566.
- 55. Hsieh P-L, Wu Y-T, Chao W-J. Effects of exercise training in heart transplant

recipients: a meta-analysis. Cardiology 2011; 120: 27.

- 56. Li C, Xu J, Qin W, Hu Y, Lu H. Metaanalysis of the effects of exercise training on markers of metabolic syndrome in solid organ transplant recipients. Prog Transplant 2018; 28: 278.
- 57. Wu YT, Chien CL, Chou NK, Wang SS, Lai JS, Wu YW. Efficacy of a home-based exercise program for orthotopic heart transplant recipients. Cardiology 2008; 111: 87.
- 58. Patcai JT. Inpatient rehabilitation outcomes in solid organ transplantation: Results of a unique partnership between the rehabilitation hospital and the multi-organ transplant unit in an acute hospital. Open J Therapy Rehabil 2013; 1: 52.
- 59. Janaudis-Ferreira T, Mathur S, Tansey CM, Blydt-Hansen T, Hartell D. Disseminating knowledge to providers on exercise training after solid organ transplantation. Prog Transplant 2020; 30: 125–131. [https://doi.org/10.1177/](https://doi.org/10.1177/1526924820913506) [1526924820913506.](https://doi.org/10.1177/1526924820913506)
- 60. Mathur S, Janaudis-Ferreira T, Wickerson L, et al. Meeting report: consensus recommendations for a research agenda in exercise in solid organ transplantation. Am J Transplant 2014; 14: 2235.