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EFEITOS DA FOTOBIOMODULAÇÃO SOBRE A FADIGA E DANO MUSCULAR INDUZIDOS POR ESTIMULAÇÃO ELÉTRICA NEUROMUSCULAR: UMA REVISÃO SISTEMÁTICA.

> PORTO ALEGRE – RS 2022

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APRESENTAÇÃO

Os conhecimentos utilizados na Fisioterapia em busca de avanços no tratamento e reabilitação, motivaram a realização de um estudo acerca dos efeitos da fotobiomodulação (FBM) sobre a fadiga muscular periférica e o dano muscular induzidos por estimulação elétrica neuromuscular (EENM). Com intenção de aprofundar os saberes acerca desta temática, um estudo de revisão sistemática foi realizado durante o meu período de mestrado junto ao Grupo de Pesquisa em Biomecânica e Cinesiologia da UFRGS, e que constitui o ponto central da presente dissertação, que está dividida em três capítulos.

O Capítulo I apresenta uma revisão narrativa contextualizando a temática sobre a EENM, a fadiga muscular (central e periferica), o dano muscular e a FBM.

O Capítulo II apresenta uma revisão sistemática, que teve como objetivo revisar sistematicamente os efeitos da FBM na fadiga muscular periférica e no dano muscular induzido pela EENM.

Por fim, o Capítulo III apresenta uma breve consideração final sobre as principais contribuições da presente dissertação.

RESUMO

Objetivo: Revisar sistematicamente os efeitos da fotobiomodulação (FBM) na fadiga muscular periférica e no dano muscular induzido pela estimulação elétrica neuromuscular (EENM).

Fontes de dados: PubMed, Physiotherapy Evidence Database (PEDro), Embase e Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (Cochrane CENTRAL) foram usados para busca de dados até maio de 2022.

Risco de viés: O risco de viés foi avaliado usando o Centro de Revisão Sistemática para Experimentação em Animais de Laboratório (SYRCLE) e a escala PEDro.

Síntese dos resultados: Uma análise qualitativa dos dados foi realizada por meio de uma revisão sistemática registrada no PROSPERO (CRD42022291195).

Resultados: Foram encontrados 661 artigos e incluídos sete estudos, quatro ensaios pré-clínicos randomizados (EPCRs) e três ensaios clínicos randomizados (ECRs). O risco de viés avaliado pela ferramenta SYRCLE variou de 4 a 6 pontos para EPCRs e a escala PEDro variou de 7 a 10 pontos para ECRs. Os EPCRs avaliaram os efeitos da FBM com comprimentos de onda de 655 nm, 660 nm, 904 nm e 905 nm e doses de 0,08 J, 0,1 J, 0,2 J, 0,3 J, 0,4 J, 1,0 J e 3,0 J. Os ECRs avaliaram os efeitos da FBM com comprimentos de onda de 808 nm e 830 nm e doses de 3,0 J, 7,0 J e 30,0 J. Tanto a fadiga muscular periférica quanto o dano muscular foram atenuados nos EPCRs. No entanto, os ECRs não mostraram atenuação na fadiga muscular periférica e dano muscular por FBM.

Conclusão: Apesar da plausibilidade biológica evidenciada nos EPCRs apresentando atenuação da fadiga muscular periférica e dano muscular, as evidências existentes não suportam o uso de FBM para atenuar os efeitos da fadiga muscular periférica e dano muscular causados pela EENM em humanos.

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Palavras-chave: Terapia com laser de baixa potência; Terapia de estimulação elétrica; Fadiga muscular; Dano muscular; Revisão sistemática

ABSTRACT

Objective: To systematically review the photobiomodulation (PBM) effects on peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage induced by neuromuscular electrical stimulation (NMES).

Data sources: PubMed, Physiotherapy Evidence Database (PEDro), Embase, and Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (Cochrane CENTRAL) were used for data search up to May 2022.

Risk of bias: it was assessed using the Systematic Review Center for Laboratory Animal Experimentation (SYRCLE) and PEDro scale.

Synthesis of results: A qualitative analysis of the data was performed through a systematic review registered in PROSPERO (CRD42022291195).

Results: Six hundred and sixty-one articles were found, and seven studies were included, four randomized preclinical trials (RPCTs) and three randomized controlled trials (RCTs). Risk of bias by the SYRCLE tool ranged from 4 to 6 points for RPCTs and the PEDro scale ranged from 7 to 10 points for RCTs. RPCTs evaluated PBM effects with wavelengths of 655 nm, 660 nm, 904 nm, and 905 nm and doses of 0.08 J, 0.1 J, 0.2 J, 0.3 J, 0.4 J, 1.0 J, and 3.0 J. RCTs evaluated the PBM effects with 808 nm and 830 nm wavelengths and doses of 3.0 J, 7.0 J and 30.0 J. Both peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage were attenuated in the RPCTs. However, RCTs showed no attenuation in peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage by PBM.

Conclusion: Despite the biological plausibility evidenced in EPCRs showing attenuation of peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage, existing evidence does not support the use of FBM to attenuate the effects of peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage caused by NMES in humans.

Keywords: Low-level laser therapy; Electric stimulation therapy; Muscle fatigue;

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Muscle damage; Systematic Review.

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LISTA DE ABREVIAÇÕES

- ADP Adenosina difosfato, adenosine diphosphate
- ATP Adenosina trifosfato, adenosine triphosphate
- CK Creatina Quinase, Creatine Kinase
- CMV Contração voluntaria máxima
- CMVI Contração voluntaria máxima isométrica
- DMIT Dor Muscular de Início Tardio
- DOMS delayed onset muscle soreness
- EROs- Espécies reativas de oxigênio
- ECRs Ensaios clínicos randomizados
- EENM Estimulação Elétrica Neuromuscular
- EPCRs Ensaios pré-clínicos randomizados
- EVA Escala visual analógica
- FAF fadiga de alta frequência
- FBF Fadiga de baixa frequência
- FBM Fotobiomodulação
- LASER Light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation
- LED Light emitting diode
- Mg Magnésio, magnesium
- MVC maximal voluntary contraction
- MVIC maximal voluntary isometric contraction
- PBM photobiomodulation
- PEDro Physiotherapy Evidence Database
- RCTs Randomized clinical trials
- RPCTs randomized ore-clinical trials
- Ums unidades motoras
- VAS-visual analogue scale

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CAPÍTULO 1

1.1 CONTEXTUALIZAÇÃO DO TEMA

1.1.1 Estimulação Elétrica Neuromuscular (EENM)

A terapia de estimulação elétrica consiste na aplicação de estímulos elétricos por meio de eletrodos de superfície posicionados sobre a pele para nervos, músculos ou articulações (MAFFIULETTI *et al.*, 2018). Três modalidades de eletroterapia são distinguidas de acordo com sua indicação de uso, sendo elas: (1) estimulação elétrica nervosa transcutânea, consiste em uma corrente de baixa intensidade sobre as fibras nervosas cutâneas geralmente para tratamento de dores agudas e crônicas; (2) estimulação elétrica funcional, consiste em uma corrente de intensidade moderada sobre músculos selecionados para gerar movimentos funcionais com a finalidade de restaurar funções perdidas; (3) estimulação elétrica neuromuscular (EENM), consiste em uma corrente de alta intensidade e intermitente para gerar contrações musculares relativamente fortes, na maioria das vezes em condições tetânicas isométricas (MAFFIULETTI *et al.*, 2018).

Portanto, a EENM é um recurso terapêutico que utiliza uma série de estímulos elétricos intermitentes por via transcutânea. Ao ativar ramos nervosos intramusculares em músculos esqueléticos superficiais, ela desencadeia contrações musculares involuntárias e visíveis, onde as unidades motoras (Ums) são recrutadas de forma não seletiva a partir da despolarização dos axônios motores localizados nas proximidades dos eletrodos (MAFFIULETTI, 2010; VAZ e FRASSON, 2018; RABELLO et al., 2020).

Na EENM existem dois tipos de correntes que são comumente utilizadas, a corrente pulsada e a corrente alternada. A corrente pulsada é definida como uni ou bidirecional com intervalo de tempo entre os pulsos. Pode ser gerada com formato de onda retangular, sinusoidal ou assimétrico, com uma fase positiva (corrente monofásica), ou uma fase positiva seguida de uma fase negativa (corrente bifásica), com faixas de frequências de 1 a 200Hz (sendo classificada como de baixa frequência) e duração de pulso frequentemente utilizada de 100 a 1000µs. A corrente alternada é definida como bifásica, com pulsos contínuos e não intervalados, com formato senoidal, triangular ou retangular, com faixas de frequências de 1kHz a

10kHz, modulada em burst ou rajadas de baixa frequência entre 1-200Hz (WARD e ROBERTSON, 2000; WARD e CHUEN, 2009; VAZ e FRASSON, 2018).

A EENM é amplamente utilizada no cenário de reabilitação clínica, para melhorar a força muscular e prevenir o processo fisiológico de perda/redução da capacidade de produção de força e de quadros de atrofia, principalmente no caso de imobilização do membro (MAFFIULETTI et al., 2013; DIRKS et al., 2015; HASHIDA et al., 2016). Já foi utilizada em diferentes populações, como pacientes em estado crítico e acamados (DIRKS et al., 2015), em idosos (LANGEARD et al., 2017) e em atletas (GONDIN; COZZONE e BENDAHAN, 2011). Adicionalmente, a EENM tem mostrado resultados positivos em protocolos de reabilitação (HONG et al., 2018; MAFFIULETTI et al., 2013; HERZIG; MAFFIULETTI; ESER, 2015), no pós-operatório de reconstrução do ligamento cruzado anterior (KIM et al., 2010), na reabilitação de pacientes com osteoartrite do joelho (VAZ et al., 2013), para o ganho de força e funcionalidade (DOUCET et al., 2012), na melhora do desempenho de resistência (VELDMAN et al., 2016), no retorno mais rápido às atividades de vida diária (STEVENS-LAPSLEY et al., 2012; VAZ et al., 2013) e na recuperação da fadiga neuromuscular de atletas no pós-exercício (BABAULT et al., 2011).

No entanto, apesar das inúmeras vantagens da EENM para prática clínica e para a melhora do desempenho, sua eficiência e tempo de aplicação podem ser limitados devido à fadiga neuromuscular (YU; CHANG, 2010; OLIVEIRA et al., 2018) e ao dano muscular (FOURÉ e GONDIN, 2020), frequentemente presentes após protocolos de EENM (JUBEAU *et al.*, 2008; NOSAKA *et al.*, 2011; KRUEGER *et al.*, 2013).

1.1.2 Processo de ativação muscular

A fim de entendermos como a EENM ativa os músculos esqueléticos, faz-se necessário primeiro revisar alguns conceitos referentes ao processo de ativação voluntária dos músculos esqueléticos e o processo de contração muscular para a geração de força.

O processo de contração muscular voluntária ocorre nas seguintes etapas sequenciais: (1) no córtex cerebral ocorre o planejamento de ações e o controle dos movimentos voluntários; (2) essa informação se propaga por meio de potenciais elétricos para os núcleos da base do telencéfalo e, posteriormente, para a medula

espinhal; (3) esses potenciais de ação se dirigem do H-medular para os motoneurônios, até chegarem na placa motora (i.e., sinapse entre os motoneurônios e as fibras musculares); (4) em cada placa motora, o neurônio motor secreta e libera pequena quantidade de substância neurotransmissora (i.e., do neurotransmissor acetilcolina); (5) a acetilcolina atua sobre a área da membrana plasmática da fibra muscular (i.e., sarcolema) abaixo dos botões terminais dos axônios, para abrir múltiplos canais regulados pela acetilcolina; (6) a abertura dos canais de acetilcolina faz com que grande quantidade de íons sódio possa fluir para o interior da fibra muscular, desencadeando um potencial de ação na fibra muscular; (7) o potencial de ação se propaga ao longo do sarcolema e dos túbulos transversos ou túbulos-T; (8) o potencial de ação no túbulo-T altera a conformação do receptor dihidropiridina; (9) o receptor dihidropiridina abre os canais de rianodina localizados no retículo sarcoplasmático, liberando o cálcio (Ca2+) no citoplasma da fibra muscular; (10) o Ca2+ age sobre os sarcômeros (i.e., unidades contráteis que constituem as miofibrilas) ao se ligar à proteína troponina nos filamentos finos do sarcômero; (11) a mudança conformacional da troponina, causada pelo Ca²⁺, desloca a proteína tropomiosina sobre o filamento fino, expondo o sítio de ligação da actina glomerular ou actina-G; (12) em presença da adenosina trifosfato ou ATP no citoplasma, ocorre a conexão dessa molécula com a proteína ATPase localizada nas cabeças de miosina do filamento grosso do sarcômero; (13) a molécula de ATP é quebrada pela ATPase, ativando a cabeça de miosina ou ponte cruzada; (14) no estado ativado, a miosina se liga à actina, e as cabeças da miosina executam o movimento angular potente de rotação; (15) o movimento potente das pontes cruzadas deslocam os filamentos de actina que deslizam em direção ao centro do sarcômero provocando o encurtamento deste (ENOKA, 2000; BADILLO; AYESTARÁN, 2001; GUYTON; HALL, 2002; AIRES, 2008).

A EENM age sobre a membrana plasmática dos axônios motores excitando-os e gerando um potencial de ação. Portanto, a EENM age a partir da etapa 3 da descrição acima. Entretanto, a forma como a EENM age sobre as UMs difere daquela determinada pelo recrutamento durante a contração voluntária. Enquanto na contração voluntária o sistema nervoso central recruta as UMs de acordo com o princípio do tamanho (i.e., das menores para as maiores), nas contrações evocadas pela EENM os motoneurônios não são recrutados pelo seu tamanho, mas sim pelo seu posicionamento em relação ao eletrodo de estimulação. Portanto, as UMs cujos motoneurônios têm seus axônios mais próximos da pele onde se encontra o eletrodo de EENM são as recrutadas, e todas elas são recrutadas de forma sincrônica, diferente do recrutamento assincrônico da contração voluntária. Em função disso, somente uma parte das UMs de músculos superficiais é recrutada pela EENM, não havendo rotatividade no recrutamento das UMS com as alterações na capacidade de geração de força das estruturas contráteis. Isso faz com que essas UMs entrem em fadiga rapidamente, um dos efeitos deletérios e limitadores do uso da EENM na prática clínica (WAN et al., 2017).

1.1.3 Fadiga muscular

A fadiga muscular é definida como uma redução na capacidade dos músculos esqueléticos em produzir ou sustentar a força em resposta à atividade contrátil prolongada ou repetida, durante a realização de exercícios musculares máximos ou submáximos. Portanto, a fadiga é a perda da capacidade de um músculo em realizar trabalho (GANDEVIA, 2001; BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011; SHEI e MICKLEBOROUGH, 2013). Entretanto, é uma condição transitória que pode ser revertida com o repouso (SHEI e MICKLEBOROUGH, 2013). Ela pode se originar em diferentes níveis do trajeto motor anteriormente descrito, sendo geralmente dividida em componentes de origem central ou periférica. A fadiga central pode ser causada pela diminuição da ativação do sistema nervoso central e a fadiga periférica, por fatores ao nível da junção neuromuscular ou no interior das fibras musculares. (BIGLAND-RITCHIE et al., 1978; WESTERBLAD; ALLEN, 2002; SESBOÜÉ e GUINCESTRE, 2006; WAN et al., 2017).

Fadiga central

A fadiga central se origina no sistema nervoso central, o qual diminui o drive central para o músculo (BIGLAND-RITCHIE et al., 1978; GANDEVIA, 2001; WAN et al., 2017). Assim, a fadiga central determina uma diminuição na ativação voluntária ou involuntária do músculo pela redução no número e nas taxas de disparo dos potenciais de ação das UMs recrutadas no início da geração da força muscular. Portanto, fenômenos fisiológicos supraespinhais e espinhais são capazes de induzir uma diminuição na excitação dos motoneurônios (BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011; LIMA et al., 2018).

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A fadiga central pode ser decorrente de fatores deletérios agindo sobre os seguintes sítios: (1) ativação do córtex motor primário; (2) reflexos periféricos provenientes dos mecanoceptores; (3) ativação das UMs (SHEI e MICKLEBOROUGH, 2013).

A redução da ativação do córtex motor primário pode estar ligada à acúmulo ou depleção de certos neurotransmissores cerebrais (e.g., a serotonina), induzindo uma diminuição da excitação descendente corticoespinhal. O principal fator sugerido para o aumento dos níveis na concentração de serotonina no cérebro, está associado à elevação dos níveis de seu precursor, o triptofano. Durante o exercício físico intenso e prolongado, ocorre uma maior utilização de aminoácidos da cadeia ramificada (ACR) pelo músculo esquelético para a produção de energia. A redução de ACR na barreira hematoencefálica, leva ao aumento da captação do triptofano. O triptofano compete pelo mesmo transportador dos ácidos graxos e, como consequência, aumenta a disponibilidade de triptofano livre levando a uma maior produção de serotonina GUÉVEL. cerebral (ROSSI е TIRAPEGUI. 2004: BOYAS е 2011). Consequentemente, está ligado à redução do comando central e do recrutamento das UMs, desencadeando a fadiga central e diminuição do desempenho (ROSSI e TIRAPEGUI, 2004; BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011).

Outros neurotransmissores que podem influenciar na fadiga central são a dopamina (que está ligada à inibição da síntese de serotonina), as catecolaminas (por exemplo, adrenalina, noradrenalina e dopamina, que podem ter um efeito sobre a fadiga devido ao seu efeito na motivação e na ação motora), e a anfetamina (que melhora o desempenho físico). No entanto, há poucos dados publicados para tirar conclusões claras sobre a influência desses neurotransmissores no início da fadiga central (BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011; SHEI e MICKLEBOROUGH, 2013).

Além disso, a fadiga central também pode estar relacionada à um feedback sensorial que reduz/inibe a taxa de disparos dos motoneurônios regulada por reflexos periféricos provenientes dos mecanoceptores. Dentre esses receptores estão os fusos neuromusculares, os órgãos tendinosos de Golgi, e as terminações nervosas do tipo III e IV (em resposta à acumulação de alguns metabólitos a nível muscular durante o exercício) (DAVIS e BAILEY, 1997).

Os fusos neuromusculares (que possuem fibras nervosas aferentes dos grupos la e II) estão localizados paralelos às fibras musculares, fornecendo informação ao sistema nervoso sobre o comprimento e alterações do comprimento do músculo. Alterações estruturais no músculo induzidas por contrações ou alongamento repetidos ou a variação da rigidez, levam a uma redução nas taxas de disparos dos fusos neuromusculares contribuindo para o aumentando da inibição pré-sináptica e induzindo à limitação dos disparos dos motoneurônios alfa (BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011; WAN et al., 2017).

Os órgãos tendinosos de Golgi (com fibras nervosas aferentes do grupo lb) estão localizados nos tendões e fornecem informações ao sistema nervoso central sobre a tensão intramuscular. Os sinais emitidos por esses mecanorreceptores inibem a atividade neuronal. Entretanto, as descrições dos efeitos dos órgãos tendinosos de Golgi durante uma tarefa exaustiva não são exatas, devido à dificuldade de isolar os sinais emitidos por suas fibras nervosas e por suas projeções incluírem interneurônios que recebem sinais de aferentes la (BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011).

O aumento dos disparos dos aferentes musculares dos grupos III e IV diminui a taxa de disparos dos motoneurônios durante um exercício fatigante. Isso ocorre em função desses mecanorreceptores serem estimulados pela isquemia, hipoxemia e pelo acúmulo extracelular de potássio (K⁺) e lactato (BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011; WAN et al., 2017).

As UMs são constituídas por um motoneurônio e as fibras musculares que ele inerva (SALE, 1992; KOMI, 2006). Têm a função de propagar e transformar o sinal elétrico em força muscular, a qual pode variar pelo número de UMs recrutadas e pela variação na taxa de disparo das UMs (DUCHATEAU *et al.*, 2006; CORMIE, 2011). As UMs, quando recrutadas inicialmente, geram disparos entre 5-8Hz. Durante breves contrações voluntárias não fatigantes, as taxas médias de disparo das UMs são de 50-60Hz. Entretanto, a ativação repetitiva das UMs e dos seus motoneurônios leva a uma diminuição em sua excitabilidade, contribuindo para a perda de força que define a fadiga (WAN et al., 2017).

Fadiga periférica

A fadiga periférica ocorre em decorrência de uma diminuição na força contrátil das fibras musculares e de mudanças nos mecanismos subjacentes à transmissão dos potenciais de ação muscular, sendo produzida por alterações na junção neuromuscular ou distalmente a ela (BIGLAND-RITCHIE et al., 1978; GANDEVIA, 2001; BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011; WAN et al., 2017). Em relação às questões de uma possível redução da ativação neural, essa redução está relacionada, por exemplo, com alterações na função da placa motora pela redução na síntese e liberação do neurotransmissor. Já em relação às questões intrínsecas musculares, essas estão relacionadas com as diferentes etapas do processo de acoplamento excitação-contração. Dentre essas etapas temos uma possível diminuição na atividade elétrica do sarcolema, uma atenuação da liberação de Ca²⁺ pelo retículo sarcoplasmático e uma inibição das pontes cruzadas impossibilitando a interação entre os filamentos de actina e miosina (SESBOÜÉ e GUINCESTRE, 2006; WAN et al., 2017). Cabe ressaltar que estas etapas são inter-relacionadas, o que pode indicar que a fadiga pode ter início em todos estes sítios, de forma simultânea ou com temporalidades distintas (SESBOÜÉ e GUINCESTRE, 2006), o que torna a avaliação da fadiga periférica uma tarefa de grande complexidade.

Para melhor entendermos os mecanismos da fadiga periférica, procuramos destacar os sítios do sistema de acoplamento excitação-contração das UMs e os prováveis efeitos sobre os mesmos e que explicam a fadiga periférica. Dentre esses sítios e alterações respectivas estão: (1) redução na entrada de Ca²⁺ nos botões terminais, o que reduz o processo de exocitose e liberação da acetilcolina na fenda sináptica, (2) redução na re-síntese de acetilcolina pelos motoneurônios, com consequente redução na ativação dos canais de acetilcolina no sarcolema; (3) redução na despolarização do sarcolema em função do que ocorre no item dois; (4) redução da velocidade de condução e da amplitude dos potenciais de ação em decorrência do efluxo de K+; (5) redução na liberação de Ca2+ pelo retículo sarcoplasmático pelo aumento nas concentrações de íons magnésio (Mg2+) e de fostado inorgânico (Pi) no sarcoplasma; (6) redução na ação da troponina por falta de Ca2+ no sarcoplasma, o que impede o deslocamento da tropomiosina sobre o filamento de actina; (7) sem a liberação dos sítios de ligação para as pontes cruzadas nos glomérulos de actina, que permanecem bloqueados pela tropomiosina, não são estabelecidas as pontes cruzadas e a força não é gerada; (8) depleção das reservas de Ca²⁺ ao nível do retículo sarcoplasmático pelo acumulo de H⁺; (9) depleção das reservas de ATP dentro da fibra muscular devido à queda dos estoques de fosfocreatina e glicogênio muscular, comprometendo a ação das bombas de Na⁺/K⁺

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(induzindo a alterações no limiar de excitabilidade das fibras musculares e impedindo o restabelecimento das concentrações iônicas de repouso) e redução do bombeamento do Ca²⁺ para o retículo sarcoplasmático atrasando a fase de relaxamento muscular e a reposição das reservas de Ca²⁺ para que novo estímulo possa dar continuidade a geração de força (WESTERBLAD e ALLEN, 2002; BOYAS e GUÉVEL, 2011; WAN et al., 2017; LIMA et al., 2018).

A fadiga periférica tem sido dividida em fadiga de baixa frequência (FBF) e fadiga de alta frequência (FAF). A FBF é caracterizada por uma diminuição seletiva da força de forma mais severa quando os músculos são estimulados por baixa frequência (10-30 Hz). Também é chamada de fadiga de longa duração devido à recuperação lenta (JONES, 1996; BAPTISTA *et al.*, 2009). EENM de baixas frequências e estímulos elétricos com contrações de longa duração induzem a FBF (KEETON; A BINDER-MACLEOD, 2006; BAPTISTA *et al.*, 2009). Sua origem é devida a uma falha no processo de acoplamento excitação-contração (KEETON; A BINDER-MACLEOD, 2018). Conforme mencionado acima, o processo de acoplamento excitação-contração do Ca²⁺ à troponina, e o retorno do Ca²⁺ para o retículo sarcoplasma estão ligadas diretamente à FBF (LIMA *et al.*, 2018).

Já a FAF é caracterizada por uma diminuição da força evocada por estímulos de alta frequência (50-100 Hz) e que pode ser rapidamente revertida quando a frequência de estimulação cessa (JONES, 1996). A FAF é atribuída ao acúmulo extracelular de K⁺, decorrente do grande número de estímulos elétricos. Quando a frequência do estímulo é alta, há incapacidade da fibra muscular em gerar um potencial de ação, pois a repolarização da membrana sarcoplasmática fica comprometida se os íons K⁺ não são levados para o interior da célula e o Na⁺ não é transportado de volta para o meio extracelular, bloqueando ou prejudicando o processo de geração de um novo potencial de ação na fibra muscular (GERMINARIO *et al.*, 2008; LIMA *et al.*, 2018).

Métodos de avaliação da fadiga

A fadiga neuromuscular pode ser avaliada por diferentes técnicas, como por exemplo (1) a eletromiografia (EMG) de superfície; (2) a estimulação magnética transcraniana (EMT); (3) a estimulação elétrica na região cervicomedular; (4) a estimulação elétrica de baixa intensidade do nervo periférico; (5) a estimulação de alta intensidade do nervo periférico; (6) os biomarcadores. Estimulações magnéticas ou elétricas não invasivas são utilizadas para gerar potenciais motores evocados e registrados por EMG (BERCHICCI et al., 2013; WAN et al., 2017).

A EMG de superfície permite a avaliação dos potenciais de ação das UMs de modo não invasivo, fornecendo informações sobre o comportamento temporal (ou no domínio do tempo) e alterações no espectro de potência (domínio da frequência) da ativação dessas UMs durante uma contração muscular (BIGLAND-RITCHIE *et al.*, 1978; STASHUK, 2001). Mais especificamente, os valores *root mean square* ou valores RMS nos permitem identificar possíveis alterações na magnitude do sinal EMG, que está diretamente relacionado com alterações (aumento ou diminuição) no recrutamento das UMs devido à fadiga. Já a mediana da frequência dos sinais EMG tem sido associada à velocidade de condução dos potenciais de ação das UMs, a qual sofre uma redução durante o processo de fadiga (AKIMA; TOMITA; ANDO, 2019; BERGSTROM *et al.*, 2020). Portanto, a EMG de superfície nos permite detectar o ponto em que os componentes neurais da fadiga ocorrem.

A EMT é uma técnica não invasiva de investigação e modulação da excitabilidade cortical em humanos e é otimizada para ativar o músculo de interesse. Através de uma bobina sobre o couro cabeludo e eletrodos de superfície colocados sobre músculos contralaterais ao hemisfério estimulado, registra-se o potencial motor evocado (PME) por meio da EMG. A depressão do PME pode ocorrer no músculo relaxado após um exercício fatigante. Na fadiga periférica, durante estímulos de contrações isométricas submáximas, ocorre um aumento do PME nos músculos dos membros superiores e inferiores devido um aumento dos impulsos centrais para o conjunto de motoneurônios inferiores (WAN et al., 2017). Já em contrações máximas sustentadas, observa-se uma redução do PME em função do desrecrutamento de UMs decorrente da fadiga.

A estimulação elétrica na região cervicomedular visa ativar o trato corticoespinhal em nível subcortical, eliminando assim as contribuições corticais para a resposta muscular evocada. Eletrodos fixados sobre os processos mastóides geram

potencial motor cervicomedular evocado (PMCE) registrados pela EMG. O exame de PMCE durante e após as contrações voluntárias revela alterações na excitabilidade do motoneurônio, mas também sugere alterações na eficácia da via corticoespinhal dependentes da atividade executada. A comparação de PME e PMCE é útil para a localização da excitabilidade no nível cortical ou subcortical. Como eles testam a mesma via subcortical que a EMT, mas não são afetados pela excitabilidade alterada em nível cortical, os PMCEs geralmente oferecem a comparação mais apropriada para permitir a interpretação de alterações nos potenciais evocados motores (TAYLOR, 2006; WAN et al., 2017).

A estimulação elétrica de baixa intensidade do nervo periférico ativa preferencialmente as fibras sensoriais la, que fazem sinapse com o motoneurônio-α na medula espinhal. O sinal transportado pelos neurônios motores para o músculo é conhecido como reflexo de Hoffmann (reflexo H). Um declínio geral na amplitude do reflexo H com o desenvolvimento da fadiga muscular, indica uma diminuição na excitabilidade espinhal (WAN et al., 2017).

A estimulação de alta intensidade do nervo periférico ativa diretamente o motoneurônio-α, evocando uma resposta motora (onda M), registrada com EMG de superfície. A onda M é usada para avaliar a excitabilidade periférica da membrana muscular e a transmissão na junção neuromuscular. Ela possibilita identificar uma falha no acoplamento excitação-contração quando ocorre uma mudança na força de contração sem alteração na onda M. Em contrações de sustentação máxima com longa duração não ocorre alteração na amplitude da onda M; entretanto, ocorre um declínio na ativação central, sugerindo que os fatores centrais podem contribuir para a fadiga, sem alteração induzem um aumento na amplitude e na área da onda M. Entretanto, contrações de maior duração que induzem fadiga podem levar a um declínio na excitabilidade do sarcolema e no tamanho da onda M (WAN et al., 2017).

Biomarcadores para o diagnóstico da fadiga muscular

Durante a fadiga muscular, alterações metabólicas são observadas. Portanto, alguns biomarcadores são utilizados para avaliar a fadiga muscular, sendo eles: (1) biomarcadores do metabolismo do ATP, como lactato, amônia e hipoxantina; (2) biomarcadores de estresse oxidativo, como peroxidação lipídica, peroxidação de

proteínas e capacidade antioxidante; e (3) biomarcadores inflamatórios, como TNF- α , leucócitos e interleucinas (WAN et al., 2017).

Biomarcadores do metabolismo de ATP

Em circunstâncias normais, o conjunto total de nucleotídeos de adenina do ATP, da adenosina difosfato (ADP), e da adenosina monofosfato (AMP) permanece constante. Entretanto, quando o suprimento de ATP está reduzido durante (ou ainda após) o exercício, observa-se a fadiga. Os biomarcadores mais conhecidos da fadiga muscular decorrentes do metabolismo do ATP incluem lactato, amônia e hipoxantina. Devido à redução do suprimento de oxigênio, a produção de ATP muda de processos aeróbicos para glicólise anaeróbica ou glicogenólise elevando o acúmulo de lactato. Em outra condição para manter o nível de ATP e ADP, duas moléculas de ADP são convertidas em uma molécula de ATP e uma de AMP. A AMP quando degradada pela AMP-desaminase se converte em inosina monofosfato (IMP) e amônia. A IMP é degradada em inosina e hipoxantina. Lactato e amônia são geralmente determinados no soro sanguíneo, enquanto a hipoxantina é geralmente analisada no soro ou na urina (WAN et al., 2017).

Biomarcadores de estresse oxidativo

Durante o repouso, as espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROs) permanecem em um nível baixo. Já ao realizar atividades envolvendo o processo contrátil, ocorre o aumento das EROs. Os produtos de EROs levam à oxidação de proteínas, lipídios ou ácidos nucléicos, que são acompanhados por uma diminuição da capacidade antioxidante das fibras musculares, induzindo à fadiga. Biomarcadores promissores para avaliar o dano oxidativo na fadiga muscular incluem biomarcadores de peroxidação lipídica (ou seja, substâncias reativas ao ácido tiobarbitúrico e isoprostanos) e biomarcadores de oxidação de proteínas (ou seja, carbonilas de proteínas). Biomarcadores para avaliar a capacidade antioxidante incluem glutationa, glutationa peroxidase, catalase e o antioxidante total (WAN et al., 2017).

Biomarcadores inflamatórios

Além da depleção da produção de ATP e EROs, o exercício e a fadiga também induzem a uma reação inflamatória local ou sistêmica. Biomarcadores promissores

para avaliar a inflamação na fadiga muscular incluem leucócitos, IL-6 e TNF-α (Wan et al., 2017).

1.1.4 Dano muscular

O dano muscular é definido como "lesão ou dano que prejudica a função ou condição muscular" e varia de microlesão de um pequeno número de fibras musculares a uma ruptura de um músculo inteiro, dependendo da causa e extensão do dano (ARMSTRONG, 1990). Quando o músculo é danificado, rupturas estruturais são observadas, levando a alterações histológicas musculares que ocorrem ao nível da linha Z (sendo esta a mais vulnerável), na membrana sarcoplasmática, no retículo sarcoplasmático, nos túbulos T, nas miofibrilas, no sistema citoesquelético (e.g. titina e desmina). Observam-se também, um alto conteúdo de células satélites miogênicas (CRAMERI et al., 2007) e aumentos nos colágenos tipos I e III (FOURÉ e GONDIN, 2020), ocorrendo predominantemente nas fibras musculares de contração rápida ou do tipo II (CRAMERI et al., 2007; FOURÉ et al., 2019).

Esse dano estrutural microscópico promove comprometimento funcional em todo o músculo, resultando em diminuição da capacidade de produção de força, alteração no comprimento ideal de produção de força e aumento da tensão passiva (MORGAN e ALLEN, 1999; PROSKE e MORGAN, 2001), e dor muscular de início tardio (DMIT). Aumento de proteínas musculares no sangue, inchaço e resposta inflamatória também estão associados ao dano muscular (MORGAN e ALLEN, 1999; PROSKE e MORGAN, 2002; CHEUNG; A HUME e MAXWELL, 2003). Em conjunto, essas mudanças levam à limitação do desempenho atlético (BYRNE; TWIST e ESTON, 2004) e aumento do risco de lesão (CHEUNG; A HUME e MAXWELL, 2003).

A avaliação direta de dano muscular é possível através de imagens de ressonância magnética (RM) com tempo de relaxamento transversal (T2) e análise por biópsias musculares. Contudo, a avaliação de imagens de RM ainda gera controvérsias relacionadas aos métodos de análise de imagem na determinação do dano muscular. Além disso, devido à natureza invasiva e erros inerentes ao uso da técnica de biópsia (CLARKSON e HUBAL, 2002), outras técnicas indiretas, tais como ultrassom (US), os níveis de proteínas musculares no sangue (por exemplo, atividade de CK, concentração de mioglobina), a fraqueza muscular (durante contração

voluntária máxima), a dor muscular (medida por meio da escala visual analógica), o aumento da rigidez muscular, e o inchaço muscular, são utilizadas para avaliar o dano muscular (NOSAKA et al., 2011).

Os níveis de microlesões estão relacionados com os estímulos de exercícios físicos propostos, sendo que contrações excêntricas de máxima intensidade (quando um músculo em contração é forçado a se alongar enquanto produz tensão) e contrações isométricas voluntárias máximas induzem ao dano muscular (BARONI et al., 2010; FOURÉ et al., 2019). Durante as contrações excêntricas, o dano muscular é maior nos músculos dos membros superiores em comparação com os dos membros inferiores, uma vez que os grupos musculares dos membros superiores apresentam um menor comprimento muscular (JAMURTAS et al., 2005; SAKA et al., 2009).

Embora o modelo de exercício mais amplamente utilizado para estudar dano/dor muscular seja aquele envolvendo contrações excêntricas, há evidências de que a estimulação elétrica, ao ser utilizada para o fortalecimento muscular, pode induzir maior dano associado às contrações isométricas evocadas (JUBEAU et al., 2008). Mackey et al. (2008) induziram dano muscular nos gastrocnêmicos evocados por EENM (60 Hz, duração 300 us, relação on-off 4-6 s), enquanto Fouré et al. (2019) induziram o dano muscular por contrações isométricas evocadas por EENM (100 Hz, duração on-off 5-35 s) nos extensores do joelho. Esses achados foram apoiados pelo uso da RM com aumento de T2 nos músculos localizados diretamente abaixo dos eletrodos de estimulação.

Outro aspecto importante sobre a geração de dano muscular pela EENM é a forma como as UMs são recrutadas pela EENM. Conforme mencionado anteriormente, enquanto contrações voluntárias são decorrentes de um recrutamento progressivo de UMs menores para maiores durante o processo de fadiga, já durante a EENM as mesmas UMs são recrutadas com uma intensidade de corrente constante ou muitas vezes crescente, o que leva a uma fadiga periférica rápida e ao dano muscular dessas UMs.

1.1.5 Fotobiomodulação

Na tentativa de amenizar a fadiga muscular periférica e o dano muscular, a fotobiomodulação (FBM) é uma técnica terapêutica que vem sendo utilizada (IBITOYE et al., 2016). A FBM ocorre através da aplicação de fontes não ionizantes de luz,

incluindo LASER (do acrônimo inglês "Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation") e LED (Light-Emitting Diode) nos tecidos, e pode influenciar a atividade celular por estimulação ou inibição de funções químicas e fisiológicas pelo chamado efeito fotoquímico (KARU, 1989). A FBM diz respeito a um conjunto de reações que envolvem a absorção de fótons por moléculas especializadas chamadas de fotorreceptores ou cromóforos (SUTHERLAND, 2002). Esses fotorreceptores em humanos estão presentes na hemoglobina, melanina, mitocôndrias, citocromo C oxidase (CCO), mioglobina, flavinas, flavoproteínas, porfirinas, entre outras (KARU, 1999; HUANG et al., 2011). A absorção dos fótons por essas estruturas é dependente do comprimento de onda (HAMBLIN; DEMIDOVA 2006), e uma maior penetração da luz sobre os tecidos ou células ocorre dentro de uma janela óptica com comprimento de onda entre 650 a 1200 nm (HUANG et al., 2011).

O LASER, teve sua aplicação desenvolvida na década de 1960 por Theodore Harold Maiman (LEAL JUNIOR et al., 2010). O LASER produz radiação eletromagnética não ionizante e caracteriza-se por apresentar luz monocromática (comprimento de onda definido), coerente (todos os fótons que compõem o feixe emitido estão em fase) e colimada (propaga-se como um feixe de ondas praticamente paralelas). Os LASERS podem ser classificados em dois tipos fundamentais. Os lasers de alta potência ou lasers cirúrgicos ou HILT (High Intensity Laser Treatment) possuem indicações para cirurgia (corte, coagulação, cauterização) e efeitos de ablação (preparações cavitárias, prevenção.). Já os lasers de baixa potência ou lasers terapêuticos ou LLLT (Low Level Laser Therapy), são amplamente utilizados para fins terapêuticos e bioestimulantes (CAVALCANTI et al., 2011). O tipo de laser é determinado pelo seu comprimento de onda (λ) e pelo meio usado para produzi-lo.

A LLLT geralmente é utilizada com dois comprimentos de onda na faixa do visível, vermelha e em nível infravermelho. O Hélio–Neônio (He-Ne) emite uma luz visível, vermelha com seu λ = 632,8 nm, sua potência é limitada praticamente entre 30 mW a 50 mW e a penetração da luz se dá numa faixa de 0,8 mm até 15 mm. O LASER infravermelho emite λ a partir de 770 nm até 1550 nm, sendo constituídos pelo cristal de arseneto de gálio (Ga-As), e pelo arseneto de gálio e alumínio (Ga-Al-As). O Ga-As possui seu λ = 904 nm, com uma potência (de pico) entre 10-15 Watts (W) e uma penetração de 30 a 50 mm. O Ga-Al-As possui seu λ entre 780 e 870 nm, (comprimentos de onda mais comumente utilizados, λ =820 nm e 830 nm), com

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potências de pico variando entre 20 e 100 mW e uma penetração de 30 a 50 mm (PARIZOTTO, 2016; HUANG et al., 2011).

O LED é produzido por meio da transformação de energia elétrica em luz, sendo uma fonte de luz semicondutora. Foi desenvolvido em 1963 por Nick Halonyac, e inicialmente os primeiros LEDs emitiam somente luz vermelha de baixa intensidade. Atualmente, estão disponíveis nos comprimentos de onda da luz visível, ultravioleta e infravermelho. Dependendo do semicondutor utilizado, será produzida uma cor de luz com determinados comprimentos de onda. Por exemplo, se o semicondutor for composto por arseneto de gálio e alumínio, a luz será infravermelha com comprimento de onda de 880 nm. Se o semicondutor utilizado for o nitreto de gálio, o LED irá produzir luz de cor azul com um comprimento de onda de 430 nm (CORAZZA, 2005).

As mitocôndrias são as organelas responsáveis pela produção de energia nas células e, por esta razão, têm um papel muito importante na função celular e na manutenção da homeostase. As mitocôndrias contêm uma cadeia respiratória de transporte de elétrons (CRTE) capaz de transferir elétrons através dos complexos I, II, III e IV, realizando várias reações redox de nicotinamida adenina dinucleotídeo (NAD+/NADH) ou flavina-adenina dinucleotídeo (FAD/FADH 2) em conjunto com o bombeamento de íons de hidrogênio (H⁺) da matriz mitocondrial para o espaço intermembranar. Esses processos geram água como produto final metabólico, pois o oxigênio é o aceptor final de elétrons da CRTE, que é acoplado à síntese de ATP quando os íons H⁺ retornam à matriz mitocondrial através do complexo V (ATP sintase), completando assim a CRTE. Mudanças no fluxo de elétrons através da CRTE e, consequentemente, o bombeamento de H⁺, produzem modulações significativas na força motriz total de prótons e na síntese de ATP. Essas alterações podem ser medidas pelo potencial de membrana mitocondrial (MMP) e conteúdo de ATP (PERRY et al., 2011).

Karu (1989) descreve que o mecanismo primário da FBM está atribuído a absorção de radiação monocromática visível e próxima ao infravermelho por componentes da CRTE, CCO. Absorção dos fótons pelos CCO levam a um aumento no potencial eletroquímico de prótons, ao aumento de RNA e síntese proteica, aumentos no consumo de oxigênio, aumentos nos potenciais de membrana e aumento na síntese ATP (CHUNG et al., 2011; HUANG et al., 2011; ALVES et al., 2019).

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A atividade mitocondrial gera as espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROs) como um produto natural do metabolismo aeróbico (AMAROLI et al., 2021). Em condições fisiológicas normais as mitocôndrias regulam os níveis de EROs evitando assim o dano celular (ALMANSA-ORDONEZ *et al.*, 2020). Estudos demonstram que a FBM pode diminuir os níveis de EROs e o estresse oxidativo (SANTOS et al., 2010).

O óxido nítrico (ON) produzido na mitocôndria pode inibir a respiração celular ligando-se à CCO e deslocando competitivamente o oxigênio, especialmente em células estressadas ou hipóxicas (BROWN, 2001; SAMOILOVA et al., 2008; MITCHELL e MACK, 2013). A aplicação da FBM leva a fotodissociação do ON com o CCO, essa dissociação resulta no aumento da produção de ATP (CHUNG et al., 2011).

Alterações distintas na homeostase tecidual, cicatrização e regeneração podem ser esperadas após a FBM, A FBM demonstrou aumentar a proliferação celular in vitro em vários tipos de células: fibroblastos (PEREIRA et al., 2002), queratinócitos (GROSSMAN et al., 1998), células endoteliais (MOORE et al., 2005) e linfócitos (MUSAWI et al., 2017). As alterações nos níveis de expressão de proteínas envolvidas na regulação antioxidante e redox, antiapoptótica e pró-sobrevivência, proliferação celular, significam que alterações distintas na homeostase tecidual, cicatrização e regeneração podem ser esperadas após a FBM. Estudos em modelo animal demonstraram efeitos para cicatrização de feridas (REZENDE et al., 2007), regeneração de nervos periféricos e centrais (SNYDER et al., 2002), regeneração óssea (PARK e PARK, 2016), e regeneração de tendões (AKAMATSU et al., 2021).

Em estudos com seres humanos saudáveis, a FBM demonstrou melhora na função cerebral (BARRETT e GONZALEZ-LIMA, 2013; BLANCO et al., 2015), e atenuação da fadiga induzida por exercícios (BARONI et al., 2010; LEAL-JUNIOR et al., 2013; ROSSATO et al., 2016; LANFERDINI et al., 2017). Em relação ao dano muscular induzido pelo exercício, alguns estudos demonstraram que a FBM promoveu menor mudança na CK (presente logo após um dano muscular) e lactato desidrogenase (presente vários dias após um dano muscular), principalmente 24h e 48h após o exercício (LEAL-JUNIOR et al., 2009a; BARONI et al., 2010).

A FBM também está sendo considerada como um tratamento viável para condições neurológicas graves, como lesão cerebral traumática, acidente vascular cerebral (SHEN et al., 2008), lesão da medula espinhal, lesão no nervo periférico (ROCHKIND et al., 2007). Na artrite em crianças e adultos (AILIOAIE e LITSCHER, 2020), a redução da dor (TANBOGA et al., 2011).

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CAPITULO 2

PHOTOBIOMODULATION EFFECTS ON MUSCLE FATIGUE AND MUSCLE DAMAGE INDUCED BY NEUROMUSCULAR ELECTRICAL STIMULATION: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW.

(Artigo submetido ao periódico Clinical Rehabilitation)

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2.1 INTRODUCTION

Neuromuscular Electrical Stimulation (NMES) is a therapeutic resource that uses intermittent electrical stimuli in superficial skeletal muscles to trigger visible muscle contractions¹. NMES is used to restore, preserve or improve muscle strength and functional capacity^{2,3}. Furthermore, NMES has been adopted in clinical practice as a method of rehabilitation and training, in isolation or associated with resistance exercise^{4,5}. NMES has been applied to different populations¹, such as in bedridden critically ill patients^{2,6}, patients with knee osteoarthritis^{7,8}, in the elderly⁹ and athletes¹⁰. However, some adverse effects, such as peripheral muscle fatigue¹¹ and muscle damage¹² may limit NMES application time, thereby limiting and/or reducing its therapeutic effects.

Muscle fatigue is defined as a reduction in the ability of skeletal muscles to produce or sustain force in response to contractile activity¹³. Muscle fatigue can originate at different levels of the motor pathway, being generally divided into components of central or peripheral origin¹⁴⁻¹⁶. Central fatigue originates in the central nervous system, which decreases the central drive for muscle^{13,14,16}, while peripheral fatigue is produced by changes at or distal to the neuromuscular junction^{13,14,16}.

Muscle fatigue can be assessed by changes in maximal voluntary contraction (MVC) capacity, as well as changes in the time and frequency domains of electromyographic signals^{16,17}. It can also be evaluated through several biomarkers, such as adenosine triphosphate (ATP) metabolism biomarkers (e.g., lactate, ammonia, and hypoxanthine); oxidative stress biomarkers (ROS) (e.g., lipid peroxidation, protein peroxidation, and antioxidant capacity); and inflammatory biomarkers (e.g., TNF- α ,

leukocytes, and interleukins)¹⁶.

Muscle damage is defined as injury or damage that impairs muscle function^{18,19}. It ranges from microinjury to a small number of muscle fibers with sarcolemma rupture to a rupture of an entire muscle, depending on the cause and damage extent^{18,19}. Muscle damage is characterized by histological changes in muscle fibers and connective tissue that can cause muscle strength decrease and delayed onset muscle soreness (DOMS)¹⁹. Rupture of the sarcolemma promotes muscle cells' death, and the entire cells' contents are released into the extracellular environment, causing inflammation (i.e., degradation of cell contents), swelling, pain, and loss of contractile function²⁰. In this process, blood levels of muscle creatine kinase (CK) increase, therefore, CK is a useful marker for measuring muscle damage²¹. Direct assessment of muscle damage performed in humans is possible through magnetic resonance imaging with transverse relaxation time T2 and analysis by muscle biopsies²². Indirect techniques such as ultrasound, blood muscle protein levels (e.g., CK activity, myoglobin concentration), muscle weakness (determined by a reduction in MVC), muscle pain (obtained through visual analog scale), increased muscle stiffness and muscle swelling are used to assess muscle damage¹⁹.

Both fatigue and muscle damage are undesirable NMES effects since they limit possibilities of using this technique in rehabilitation and training protocols. More specifically, muscle fatigue limits the volume and total work of the exercise session. In contrast, muscle damage can generate an exaggerated inflammatory process with possible unwanted effects on the renal system (i.e., rhabdomyolysis)²³ and late manifestations of pain and/or discomfort²⁴.

Photobiomodulation (PBM) is a therapeutic technique that can be used to alleviate peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage^{25,26}. PBM determines a set of reactions that involve the absorption of photons by specialized molecules called photoreceptors or chromophores²⁷. These photoreceptors in humans are present, for example, in hemoglobin, melanin, mitochondria, cytochrome C oxidase (CCO), myoglobin, flavins, flavoproteins, and porphyrins^{26,28,29}. The absorption of photons by these structures is dependent on the light wavelength³⁰.

PBM's primary mechanism of action is attributed to the absorption of visible and near-infrared monochromatic radiation by components of the respiratory chain of mitochondrial electron transport and CCO³¹. Photon absorption by CCO leads to an

increase in the electrochemical potential of protons, in ribonucleic acid (RNA) and protein synthesis, in oxygen consumption, in membrane potentials, and in the synthesis of Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide (NADH) and ATP^{26,29,32}.

PBM has shown positive effects as a fatigue attenuator³³⁻³⁶ and muscle damage reducer^{33,35,37} when applied before an exercise protocol. However, the few studies that evaluated the PBM effects when applied before a NMES protocol³⁸⁻⁴⁴ showed positive results on muscle fatigue and muscle damage in animal models^{38,40-42}, while human model studies did not show positive results^{39,43,44}. These discrepancies may be due to between-studies very heterogeneous protocols, different instruments used for the outcomes' analyses, sample size differences, and population heterogeneity. In addition, the clinical trial studies are of low-to-moderate quality according to the PEDro scale due to problems regarding the participants' concealed allocation³⁹, and blinding of therapists³⁹ and outcome evaluators³⁹. Therefore, to shed some light on the abovementioned problems/limitations, as well as better understand the PBM effects, a systematic review of the literature was performed. Our goal was to verify the PBM effects on peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage caused by the application of NMES, compared to PBM-placebo or to a control group, both in randomized preclinical studies (RPCTs) and randomized clinical trials (RCTs) in animal models and in healthy individuals, respectively.

2.2 METHODS

2.2.1 Study Design

A systematic review was performed following the recommendations proposed by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analysis for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) and was registered in PROSPERO (CRD42022291195). PRISMA 2020 checklist is available in the supplementary material.

2.2.2 Eligibility Criteria

This review included RPCTs and RCTs that evaluated the PBM effects, compared to PBM-placebo or to the control group, on (1) peripheral muscle fatigue assessed by muscle strength, electromyographic signals, metabolism biomarkers of ATP, ROS biomarkers, and inflammatory biomarkers, and (2) muscle damage assessed by drop in force or torque, biopsy technique, magnetic resonance imaging,

ultrasound imaging, blood's muscular protein levels, discomfort level, delayed onset muscle soreness, increased muscle stiffness and muscle swelling. Studies that (1) did not involve the PBM application on muscle tissue, (2) did not show comparisons with control or PBM-placebo groups, (3) did not specify the NMES-evoked fatigue protocol; (4) did not present at least one of the analyzed outcomes, were excluded.

2.2.3 Information Sources

The searches were performed in the following electronic databases: PUBMED, Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (Cochrane CENTRAL), EMBASE, and Physiotherapy Evidence Database (PEDro). Searches were carried out in May 2022.

2.2.4 Search Strategy

The searches were performed using the following controlled and uncontrolled terms related to the intervention: "Low-level Light Therapy" OR "Photobiomodulation" OR "LLLT" AND "Electric Stimulation Therapy" OR "Therapeutic Electrical Stimulation". There were no restrictions on language, date, or publication status. The complete search strategy used in all databases is shown in Chart 1.

Database	Search Strategy	Number of Items Extracted	Search Date
PUBMED	"Low-Level Light Therapy"[Mesh] OR "Light Therapies, Low-Level" OR "Light Therapy, Low-Level" OR "Low Level Light Therapy" OR "Low-Level Light Therapies" OR "Therapies, Low-Level Light" OR "Therapy, Low-Level Light" OR "Photobiomodulation Therapy" OR "Photobiomodulation Therapies" OR "Therapies, Photobiomodulation" OR "Therapy, Photobiomodulation" OR "LLLT" OR "Laser Therapy, Low-Level" OR "Laser Therapies, Low-Level" OR "Laser Therapy, Low Level" OR "Low-Level Laser Therapies" OR "Laser Irradiation, Low-Power" OR "Irradiation, Low-Power Laser" OR "Laser Irradiation, Low Power" OR "Low-Power Laser Therapy" OR "Low Power Caser Therapy" OR "Laser Therapy" OR "Low Power OR "Low-Power Laser Therapy" OR "Low Power" OR "Low-Power Laser Therapy" OR "Low Power" OR "Low-Power Laser Therapies" OR "Low-Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low-Power Laser Therapies" OR "Low-Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low-Power Laser Therapies" OR "Low-Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low-Power Laser Therapies" OR "Low-Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low-Power Laser Therapies" OR "Low-Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low Level Laser Therapy" OR "Low-Power Laser Biostimulation" OR "Biostimulation, Laser" OR "Laser Phototherapy" OR "Phototherapy, Laser" AND "Electric Stimulation Therapy"[Mesh] OR "Therapeutic Electrical Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical" OR "Therapeutic" OR "Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical" OR "Therapeutic" OR "Electric Stimulation, Therapeutic Electric" OR "Electric Stimulation Therapy" OR "Stimulation, Therapeutic" OR "Stimulation, Therapeutic Electric" OR "Electrical Stimulation Therapy" OR "Stimulation	165	May 2022

Chart 1. Database Search Strategy

	Therapy, Electrical" OR "Therapy, Electrical Stimulation"		
Cochrane CENTRAL	MeSH descriptor: [Low-Level Light Therapy] explode all trees AND MeSH descriptor: [Electric Stimulation Therapy] explode all trees	15	May 2022
EMBASE	('Low Level light Therapy'/exp OR 'Low-Level Light Therapy' 'Light Therapies, Low-Level' OR 'Light Therapy, Low-Level' OR 'Low Level Light Therapy' OR 'Low-Level Light Therapies' OR 'Therapies, Low-Level Light' OR 'Therapy, Low-Level Light' OR 'Photobiomodulation Therapy, CR 'Photobiomodulation' OR 'Therapy, Photobiomodulation' OR 'Therapy, Photobiomodulation' OR 'Inerapy, Photobiomodulation' OR 'LLLT' OR 'Laser Therapy, Low- Level' OR 'Laser Therapies, Low-Level' OR 'Laser Therapy, Low Level' OR 'Low-Level Laser Therapies' OR 'Laser Irradiation, Low-Power' OR 'Irradiation, Low- Power Laser' OR 'Laser Irradiation, Low Power' OR 'Low- Power Laser Therapy' OR 'Low Power' OR 'Low- Power Laser Therapy' OR 'Low Power' OR 'Low- Power Laser Therapy' OR 'Low Power' OR 'Low- Power Laser Therapy' OR 'Low-Level Laser Therapies, Low-Power' OR 'Laser Therapy' OR 'Laser Therapies, Low-Power' OR 'Laser Therapy' OR 'Low-Power' OR 'Laser Irradiation' OR 'Biostimulation, Laser' OR 'Laser Irradiation' OR 'Biostimulation, Laser' OR 'Laser Phototherapy' OR 'Phototherapy, Laser') AND ('electrotherapy'/exp OR 'Electric Stimulation Therapy' OR 'Therapeutic Electrical Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical OR 'Therapeutic' OR 'Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical OR 'Therapeutic Cor 'Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical Stimulation, Therapeutic' OR 'Stimulation, Therapeutic Electric' OR 'Electrical Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical Stimulation, Therapeutic Electrical Stimulation, Thera	195	May 2022
PEDro	Low-Level light Therapy OR Photobiomodulation AND Electric Stimulation Therapy	286	May 2022

2.2.5 Selection of Studies and Data Extraction

Two authors (RSS and LR) independently reviewed the list of titles and abstracts of recruited articles and selected only those potentially relevant for a more detailed review at the full-text level using the Endnote tool. Reviewers independently extracted data from included studies and compared their data extraction worksheets to confirm data accuracy. Retrieved data had participants' characteristics, NMES parameters, PBM parameters, assessed muscle groups, and primary outcomes of peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage.

2.2.6 Peripheral Fatigue and Muscle Damage Outcomes

Peripheral muscle fatigue was assessed by extracting the following data: reduction in voluntary and/or evoked force/torque, percentage reduction of peak force/torque, sustaining capacity of force/torque, total work, work performed in each contraction, and blood lactate.

Muscle damage was assessed by extracting the following data: CK activity, delayed onset muscle soreness, and discomfort level.

2.2.7 Methodological Quality Assessment

Two authors (RSS and LR) independently assessed the methodological quality of animal model studies using the Systematic Review Center for Laboratory Animal Experimentation (SYRCLE) scale, which is based on 10 items to assess scientific rigor: sequence generation, baseline characteristics, allocation concealment, random housing, blinding to caregivers and researchers, random outcome assessment, blinding of outcome raters, incomplete outcome data, selective outcome reporting, and other sources of bias⁴⁵.

The same authors independently evaluated human model studies using the Physiotherapy Evidence Database (PEDro) scale, widely used in the methodological evaluation of review studies, with good validity and reliability^{46,47}. The scale is based on 11 items to assess scientific rigor: eligibility criteria, participants' random allocation to groups, concealed allocation, between-groups similarity at baseline, subjects' blinding, therapists' blinding, raters' blinding, measurements of at least one key outcome from more than 85% of the subjects in each group, intention-to-treat analysis, between-group comparisons for at least one outcome, measures' point estimates and variability for at least one outcome. For this review, the following PEDro scale score ranges were adopted: scores from 0-4 were considered low quality; 4-5 were considered of acceptable quality; 6-8 were considered of good quality; and 9-10 were considered of excellent methodological quality⁴⁸.

2.2.8 Synthesis Methods

Due to studies' heterogeneity, insufficient data comparisons between studies, and to the variety of protocols for evaluating the outcomes and PBM parameters, it was not possible to perform statistical analysis. Therefore, a qualitative evaluation was carried out through a systematic review of the included studies.

2.2.9 Reporting Bias Assessment

The researchers contacted the authors of the respective articles to request data that were not included in the manuscripts.

2.2.10 Certainty Assessment

PEDro and SYRCLE scales was used to assess the methodological quality scores. The included studies were classified according to criteria previously established by Van Tulder et al⁴⁹ and categorized into five levels of evidence: (1) strong evidence, findings consistent with several high-quality studies; (2) moderate evidence, consistent findings in one high-quality study and one or more low-quality studies; (3) limited evidence, consistent findings in one or more low-quality studies; (4) indicative findings, findings consistent with two studies of a non-experimental nature of sufficient quality; (5) none or insufficient evidence if there were no trials or if the results were conflicting.

2.3 RESULTS

2.3.1 Study selection

The search in the electronic databases revealed 661 articles. After removing duplicates, 447 potentially relevant studies were identified. From these trials, 426 were excluded based on title and/or abstract. From the remaining 21 studies, we were unable to obtain the full text of one study, and 14 studies were excluded after reading the full text based on the intervention type or outcomes. Therefore, seven trials were included for full reading (Figure 1).

2.3.2 Characteristics of the included studies

From the included studies, four were RPCTs^{38,40-42,} and three were cross-over RCTs^{39,43,44}. The four RPCTs were performed on the tibialis anterior muscle of male Wistar rats, divided into groups that received PBM (experimental), PBM-sham, or no intervention (control group) (Table 1). All used the same muscle activation protocol through NMES, with a current intensity of 6 to 7 V and a 2-ms pulse duration to induce a tetanic contraction. Stimulation frequency was increased from 0.2 to 60 Hz and maintained constant until muscle force dropped to 50% of its initial value. This procedure was repeated six times every 10 minutes for the next 60 minutes.

The three RCTs (cross-over) in a human model performed the intervention on the knee extensors of healthy men, randomized between PBM (experimental), PBMplacebo or no intervention (control group) groups (Table 2).



Figure 1. Flowchart for identification and selection of articles for final inclusion (based on the Prisma Flowchart Model).

Table 1. Preclinical studies indicating sample size, intervention groups, and outcomes related to muscle fatigue and muscle damage.

Study	Sample	ble Group (sample size) Muscle Fa Outcon		Muscle Damage Outcome	Muscle Fatigue Results	Muscle Damage Results	
Lopes- Martins et al. 2006	32 Male Wistar rats	Control (n=8) PBM 655 nm [0.1 J (n=8)] PBM 655 nm [0.2 J (n=8)] PBM 655 nm [0.4 J (n=8)]	 I) % of peak force II) 50% force fall time III) work performed in each contraction 	I) percentage of CK activity after the third and sixth contractions	655 nm (0.08 J,0.2 J and 0.4 J) attenuated fatigue	655 nm (0.2 J and 0.4 J) attenuated muscle damage	
Leal Junior et al, 2010	30 Male Wistar rats	Control (n=6) PBM 904 nm [0.1 J (n=6)] PBM 904 nm [0.3 J (n=6)] PBM 904 nm [1.0 J (n=6)] PBM 904 nm [3.0 J (n=6)]	 I) % of peak force II) 50% force fall time III) work performed in each contraction IV) %Δ Blood lactate 	I) percentage of CK activity after the sixth contractions	904 nm (0.1 J,1.0 J and 3.0 J) attenuated fatigue	904 nm (0.1 J and 1.0 J) attenuated muscle damage	
De-Almeida et al, 2011	30 Male Wistar rats	Control (n=6) PBM 904 nm [0.1 J (n=6)] PBM 904 nm [0.3 J (n=6)] PBM 904 nm [1.0 J (n=6)] PBM 904 nm [3.0 J (n=6)]	l) total work of six contractions	I) percentage of CK activity after the sixth contractions	904 nm (1.0 J and 3.0 J) attenuated fatigue	904 nm (1.0 J and 3.0 J) attenuated muscle damage	
Santos et al, 2014	66 Male Wistar rats	Control (n=6) and Placebo (n=6) PBM 660 nm [1.0 J (n=6); 3.0 J (n=6); 10 J (n=6)] PBM 830 nm [1.0 J (n=6); 3.0 J (n=6); 10 J (n=6)] PBM 905 nm [1.0 J (n=6); 3.0 J (n=6); 10 J (n=6)]	 I) % of peak force II) 50% force fall time III) total work of six contractions 	I) Δ of CK activity after the sixth contraction	660 nm (1.0 J and 3.0 J) and 905 nm (1.0 J and 3.0 J) attenuated fatigue	660 nm (1.0 J) and 905 nm (1.0 J, 3.0 J and 10 J)	

Abbreviations: CK, creatine kinase; PBM, photobiomodulation; J, joule; %, percentage; Δ, delta.

Study	Sample	Group (N)	NMES Protocol	Muscle Fatigue Outcome	Muscle Damage Outcome	Muscle Fatigue Results	Muscle Damage Results
Gorgey et al, 2008	5 healthy men 19±0.7 years	Control (n=5) PBM 808 nm [3 J (n=5) PBM 808 nm [7 J (n=5)]	Intensity: maximum tolerated Wave type: rectangular pulsed (FR: 50Hz; PD: 500µs) Duty cycle: 2s ON; 2s OFF	I) % reduction in peak torque in the 1st, 15th, and 45th contractions evoked by NMES	did not evaluate	did not attenuate fatigue	did not evaluate
Cieśliński et al, 2018	24 healthy men 20.9 ± 0.82 years	PBM-Sham (n=12) PBM 830 nm [30 J (n=12)]	Intensity: maximum tolerated Wave type: biphasic rectangular pulsed (FR: 80Hz; PD: 300µs) Duty cycle: 5s ON; 15s OFF	I) peak torque MVC pre- intervention, post-immediate, 24h, 48h, 72h, and 96h	I) VAS to digital pressure II) VAS to the squat	did not attenuate fatigue	did not attenuate muscle damage
Jówko et al., 2019	24 healthy men 21.9±0.3 years	PBM-Sham (n=12) PBM 830 nm [30 J (n=12)]	Intensity: maximum tolerated Wave type: biphasic rectangular pulsed (FR: 80Hz; PD: 300µs) Duty cycle: 5s ON; 15s OFF	I) % MVC peak torque over 45 NMES-evoked contractions II) peak torque MVC pre- intervention, post-immediate, 24h, 48h, 72h, and 96h III) Δ % for baseline peak torque MVC pre-intervention, post- intervention, 24h, 48h, 72h, and 96h	I) CK level II) VAS to digital pressure III) VAS to the squat	did not attenuate fatigue	did not attenuate muscle damage

Table 2. Clinical studies indicating sample size, intervention groups, activation protocol, and outcomes related to muscle fatigue and muscle damage.

Abbreviations: PBM, photobiomodulation; J, joule; FR, frequency; PD, pulse duration; Hz, hertz; μs, microseconds; s, seconds %, percentage; Δ, delta; MVC, maximum voluntary contraction; NMES, neuromuscular electrical stimulation; VAS, visual analogic scale; h, hours; CK, creatine kinase.

2.3.3 Methodological Quality

2.3.3.1 Pre-clinical trials

SYRCLE scale scores ranged from 5 to 7 points out of a maximum of 10 points for RPCTs. The studies by Lopes-Martins et al³⁸, Leal Junior et al^{40,} and Almeida et al⁴¹ obtained a total of 5 points, presenting an acceptable quality and the study by Santos et al⁴² obtained a total of 7 points being considered of good quality. No studies scored on allocation concealment, random outcome assessment, or selective outcome reporting. Three studies did not score on caregivers' blinding (75%) and blinding of outcome assessors (75%), while Santos et al⁴² was the only study to score (25%). The reviewers judged item 10 (other sources of bias) as negative, as they did not identify other sources of bias in the evaluated studies (Table 3).

2.3.3.2 Clinical trials

The PEDro scale scores were 7 in the study by Gorgey et al³⁹ and 10 points in the studies by Cieśliński et al⁴³ and Jówko et al⁴⁴, with a maximum of 10 points. The study by Gorgey et al³⁹ did not score on the concealed allocation of participants and blinding of therapists and outcome evaluators (Table 4). Therefore, the study by Gorgey et al³⁹ was considered of good quality, while the studies by Cieśliński et al⁴³ and Jówko et al⁴⁴ were of excellent quality.

Study	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Total
Sludy	(Selection)	(Selection)	(Selection)	(Performance)	(Performance)	(Detection)	(Detection)	(Attrition)	(Reporting)	(Other)	Score
Lopes- Martins et al, 2006	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes	N/A	Yes	5
Leal Junior et al. De-	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes	N/A	Yes	5
Almeida et al,	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes	N/A	Yes	5
Santos et al, 2014	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes	7

Table 3. Randomized pre-clinical trials' risk of biases.

This table presents the individual analysis of each manuscript using the risk of biases (RoB) assessment tool developed by SYRCLE. Biases are grouped into selection, performance, detection, attrition, reporting, and other biases. The responses were "yes" for low risk of bias, "no" for high RoB, and "not available (N/A)" for unclear or unreported risk. Q1 Allocation Sequence Adequately Generated and Applied? Q2 Were the Groups Similar at Baseline? Q3 Was the Allocation Adequately Concealed? Q4 Were the Animals Randomly Housed during the Experiment? Q5 Were the Caregivers and/or Investigators Blinded to the Knowledge? Q6 Were Animals Selected at Random for the Outcome Assessment? Q7 Was the Outcome Assessor Blinded? Q8 Were Incomplete Outcome Data Adequately Addressed? Q9 Are Reports of the Study Free of Selective Outcome Reporting? Q10 Was the Study Apparently Free of Other Problems that Could Pose a High Risk of Bias?

Study	Eligibility Criteria	Random Allocation	Concealed Allocation	Similarity at Baseline	Subjects Blinding	Therapists Blinding	Blinding Assessors	>85% Outcome	Intention to Treat	Between- Group Differences	Point / Variability Measures	Total Score
Gorgey et al, 2008	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes	Yes	N/A	N/A	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	7
Cieslinski et al, 2018	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	10
Jówko et al, 2019	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	10
Total	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	

Table 4. The randomized clinical trials risk of biases.

The responses were "yes" for low risk of bias (RoB), "no" for high RoB, and "not available (N/A)" for unclear or unreported risk.

2.3.4 OUTCOMES

2.3.4.1 PBM Effects on Peripheral Muscle Fatigue

Strength-related variables were evaluated by the four RPCTs^{38,40-42}, and only one study used the percentage of blood lactate⁴⁰ to assess peripheral muscle fatigue. All these studies demonstrated that PBM was able to attenuate muscle fatigue when compared to the control group.

Lopes-Martins et al³⁸ evaluated peripheral muscle fatigue by the maximal force elicited at the onset of each of six electrically-induced tetanic contractions, by the time for an electrically-induced tetanic force to drop 50% of the value at the onset of each tetanic contraction, and by the work performed (area under the force-time curve) by each electrically-induced tetanic contraction. They observed that PBM with a wavelength of 655 nm and doses of 0.08 J, 0.2 J, and 0.4 J attenuated fatigue.

Leal Junior et al⁴⁰ demonstrated that PBM with a 904 nm wavelength attenuated peripheral muscle fatigue. The smaller evoked peak force percentage reduction from the beginning of each of the six tetanic contractions for the groups with doses of 1.0 J and 3.0 J, the higher sustained force time before the 50% force drop for the 0.1 J, 1.0 J and 3.0 J groups, the higher work performed in each contraction for the 1.0 J and 3.0 J groups, and the smaller blood lactate levels for all irradiated groups evidenced the smaller fatigue.

Almeida et al⁴¹ identified that PBM with a 904 nm wavelength attenuated muscle fatigue by the higher total work observed on the six tetanic contractions for the groups with doses of 1.0 J and 3.0 J. Santos et al⁴² reported that PBM attenuated peripheral muscle fatigue assessed by peak force evoked at the beginning of each of the six tetanic contractions for the groups with 660 nm wavelength and doses of 1.0 J and 3.0 J and 3.0 J and the group with 905 nm wavelength and a 1.0 J dose. The mean sustained-force time (i.e., meantime for the force to fall 50% of the initial force) for the groups irradiated with 660 nm and 830 nm with doses of 3.0 J and 10 J and for the 905 nm group with doses of 1.0 J, 3.0 J, and 10 J, and the total work of the six evoked contractions for the group irradiated with 660 nm with a dose of 3.0 J and the group of 905 nm with a dose of 1.0 J, were higher compared to the NMES control group.

As for the RCT studies (human model) evaluated the PBM effects on the peak force evoked by NMES^{39,44}, and two evaluated peak knee extensor torque in MVC^{43,44}. None of these studies identified PBM effects attenuating muscle fatigue.

Gorgey et al³⁹ evaluated muscle fatigue by the percentage of peak torque reduction in the 1st, 15^{th,} and 45th evoked contractions. They identified that PBM with a wavelength of 808 nm with doses of 3 J and 7 J did not show attenuation of muscle fatigue.

Cieslinski et al⁴³ evaluated muscle fatigue by peak isometric MVC torque drop from pre-intervention to immediately post, and after 24h, 48h, 72h and 96h of the fatigue protocol. They identified that PBM with 830 nm wavelength and 30 J dose did not attenuate muscle fatigue.

Jówko et al⁴⁴ evaluated peripheral muscle fatigue by the % of peak MVC torque over 45 NMES-evoked contractions, by the MVC peak torque difference between preintervention values compared to immediate post, and after 24h, 48h, 72h, and 96h of the fatigue protocol, and by the percentage variation (Δ %) of peak MVC torque immediately after, and post 24h, 48h, 72h, and 96h compared to the pre-intervention MVC. They identified that PBM with 830 nm wavelength and 30 J dose did not attenuate muscle fatigue.

2.3.4.2 PBM Effects on Muscle Damage

The four RPCTs38,40-42 assessed muscle damage, and all of them found a PBM effect in reducing muscle damage by CK activity reduction post-fatigue. However, only one RCT study analyzed CK activity⁴⁴, noting no significant differences between the PBM and control groups. The other muscle damage outcomes evaluated in the RCTs were VAS for digit pressure^{43,44} and squatting^{43,44}, with no differences between the PBM groups and their controls. Lopes-Martins et al³⁸ evaluated muscle damage by CK levels from blood samples collected between NMES sessions. They observed that PBM with a wavelength of 655 nm and doses of 0.2 J and 0.4 J attenuated muscle damage.

Leal Junior et al⁴⁰ observed that PBM with a wavelength of 904 nm and doses of 0.1 J, 1.0 J and 3.0 J attenuated muscle damage by reducing CK activity after the sixth contraction for the irradiated groups, except the 3.0 J group.

Almeida et al⁴¹ identified that PBM with a wavelength of 904 nm attenuated muscle damage by CK activity after the sixth evoked tetanic contraction for the groups with irradiated doses of 1.0 J and 3.0 J.

Santos et al⁴² reported that PBM attenuated muscle damage evaluated by the variation of CK activity after the sixth contraction for the groups irradiated with 660 nm

and a dose of 1.0 J and with 905 nm and doses of 1.0 J, 3.0 J and 10 J.

Cieslinski et al⁴³ evaluated muscle damage by the level of discomfort from VAS during digitopression and during squatting pre-intervention, immediately post, and after 24h, 48h, 72h and 96h of the fatigue protocol. They observed that PBM with 830 nm of wavelength and a 30 J dose did not attenuate muscle damage.

Jówko et al⁴⁴ evaluated muscle damage by the level of CK activity and by the level of discomfort obtained by VAS during digitopression and during squatting before the intervention, immediately after, and post 24h, 48h, 72h and 96h of the fatigue protocol. They identified that PBM with a wavelength of 830 nm at a dose of 30 J did not attenuate muscle damage.

2.3.5 Reporting Biases

The present study could not extract some mean and standard deviation values from the results in the following outcomes: peak force^{40,42}, strength-sustaining time^{38,40,42}, muscle work^{38,40}, and evoked peak torque^{39,44}.

2.3.6 Certainty of Evidence

For the four RPCTs, three studies^{38,40,41} presented an acceptable methodological quality, and one study⁴² presented a good methodological quality. A moderate level of evidence was found for PBM to attenuate peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage.

Among the three RCTs, two studies^{43,44} had excellent methodological quality and one study³⁹ was classified as good methodological quality. Therefore, we considered a strong level of evidence that PBM has no efficacy on peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage outcomes in humans.

2.4 DISCUSSION

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first systematic review to verify the PBM effects on peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage induced by NMES in preclinical and clinical trials. Preclinical trials showed that PBM attenuated both peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage^{38,40-42}. However, clinical trials did not observe these effects^{39,43,44}.

The divergence between the RPCTs and RCTs may be related to the different methods of PBM application since the preclinical studies used the in situ application, with the rat tibialis anterior muscle exposed (PBM application was performed directly on the muscle), which facilitates the light interaction directly with the muscle tissue. In clinical studies, however, interference from the skin and adipose tissues may have reduced the light signals' action on neuromuscular structures. It is also important to point out that there are anatomical and proportional differences in the irradiated areas, where the size of the tibialis anterior muscle of rats is smaller than that of the human quadriceps (evaluated in RCTs). Therefore, the irradiated areas in preclinical animal studies probably covered a larger muscle area than the human model studies.

Another explanation may be the different PBM wavelengths used in RPCTs (660, 830, and 905 nm⁴², 655 nm³⁶, 904 nm^{40,41}) and RCTs (808 nm³⁹ and 830 nm^{43,44}). RCTs used PBM with wavelengths of 808 nm and 830 nm, values similar and identical to the wavelength used by Santos et al.^{42,} who did not obtain significant results regarding peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage induced by NMES. Although Santos et al.⁴² did not provide a clear explanation for why the 830 nm wavelength did not produce similar effects to those observed with shorter (660 nm) and longer (905 nm) wavelengths (except for the similar time for the evoked force to decay 50% of the initial value), there could exist specific wavelengths and doses that are optimal for reducing muscle fatigue and muscle damage in humans. It has been shown that longer wavelengths are required for penetrating human skin⁵⁰, and the 905 nm wavelength in Santos et al.⁴² study showed the best results for reducing peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage. This suggests that PBM with longer wavelengths may be required to produce a positive effect on muscle fatigue and muscle damage in human studies.

PBM acts on cellular metabolism by photochemical stimulation of cellular mitochondria, resulting in an increase in mitochondrial membrane potential⁵¹, the formation of giant mitochondria through the membranes' fusion of smaller and neighboring mitochondria, and the improvement of the enzymatic activity of the CCO chromophore, responsible by the transport of electrons from complex III to complex IV of the electron transport chain, directly involved in ATP synthesis⁵²⁻⁵⁴. The hypotheses suggested for the mechanisms that explain the PBM effects on peripheral muscle fatigue are related to the increased of mitochondrial activity that contributes to increased levels of cellular respiration and ATP synthesis, increased cellular energy, phosphocreatine resynthesis, and removal and lactic acid oxidation by increased microcirculation^{40,51,55}. The increased maturation of young myofibrils⁵⁶ and the increase in the number and activation of satellite cells around the myofibrils57 may

explain the PBM effects in reducing muscle damage. In addition to satellite cells, PBM has been shown to promote the control of inflammation⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰ and synthesis and remodeling of collagen levels^{52,61}, which may also contribute in reducing the NMES-evoked muscle damage deleterious effects.

A limitation of the revised studies is their risk of bias. In general, the RPCTs did not score allocation concealment, random outcome assessment, selective outcome reporting, caregiver blinding, or outcome assessor blinding, which may have influenced their positive results. Gorgey et al³⁹ study was the only RCT that did not score on the hidden allocation of participants and blinding of therapists and outcome assessors. Their small sample size may also have influenced their results. The lack of allocation concealment may overestimate the therapeutic effects, and the moderate methodological quality may partly explain the differences in some results.

Based on the available evidence, we conclude that there is a divergence between the evaluations and results of pre-clinical and clinical studies regarding the PBM effects on peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage caused by NMES. Despite the biological plausibility brought in pre-clinical studies, additional clinical studies with high methodological quality, comparing different PBM doses, different irradiation areas, and different muscles, are still needed to determine if PBM has indeed a positive effect in reducing the NMES harmful effects in human muscles as it did in animal studies.

2.5 CONCLUSION

Despite the biological plausibility evidenced in RPCTs, the evidence does not support the use of PBM to attenuate the effects of peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage caused by NMES in humans.

CLINICAL MESSAGES (2-4 bullet points, 50 words or less)

• PBM in pre-clinical trials in an animal model can attenuate peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage evoked by NMES, suggesting that PBM can optimize long-term NMES usage.

• PBM in human clinical trials is not able to attenuate peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage evoked by NMES.

• New clinical trials with different PBM parameters (doses and wavelengths) and new protocols need to be tested before we can reach definitive conclusion about the PBM effects on peripheral muscle fatigue and muscle damage in humans.

• Moderate methodological quality of most studies and the high-quality scores in two clinical trials suggest that the observed evidence adequately supports the abovementioned conclusions for clinical practice in the human model.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors made a substantial contribution to the concept and design of the work, acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data, drafted the article and revised it critically for important intellectual content, and approved the final version to be published.

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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CAPITULO 3

CONCLUSÃO

A presente dissertação teve como objetivo verificar os efeitos da FBM na fadiga muscular periférica e no dano muscular causados pela aplicação da EENM, tanto em EPCRs em ratos saudáveis, como em ECRs em indivíduos saudáveis. Uma revisão sistemática foi conduzida na qual foram incluídos EPCRs e ECRs que compararam os efeitos da FBM com FBM-placebo ou com grupo controle na fadiga muscular periférica e no dano muscular induzidos por EENM. Sumarização dos estudos e avaliação da qualidade metodológica foram realizadas no modelo animal e humano. Entretanto, resultados controversos foram encontrados entre os estudos de ensaios pré-clínicos e clínicos, sendo que os EPCRs apresentaram resultados positivos da FBM na atenuação da fadiga muscular periférica e dano muscular induzidos por EENM, enquanto os ECRs não apresentaram atenuação da fadiga e dano muscular.

Essa divergência pode estar relacionada aos diferentes métodos de aplicação da FBM e aos diferentes comprimentos de onda da FBM utilizados nos diferentes estudos. Outro fator que pode ter influenciado os resultados é a qualidade metodológica dos estudos incluídos, uma vez que a ausência da ocultação de alocação, avaliação aleatória de resultados ou relatórios seletivos de resultados, cegamento do cuidador e cegamento do avaliador de resultados, e seu pequeno tamanho de amostra, podem ter superestimado os resultados dos EPCRs. O reduzido número de estudos não permitiu a realização de uma metanalise, o que impossibilitou avaliar a qualidade da evidência utilizando o GRADE. Entretanto, foi realizada uma avaliação da qualidade das evidências com base no estudo de Van Tulder et al. (1999). Ainda assim, não podemos inferir se qualquer estimativa de efeito seria incerta ou não, nem que prováveis novos estudos tenham um impacto mais importante sobre a nossa confiança para estimar o efeito.

Por fim, esses resultados podem impactar diretamente na tomada de decisão clínica para o uso da FBM, uma vez que é fundamental identificar os melhores parâmetros de FBM para podermos estabelecer sua eficácia em humanos. Recomendamos fortemente novos ECRs com maior rigor metodológico e que testem novos parâmetros de FBM em humanos.

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ANEXOS

Anexo 1. E-mail de submissão do primeiro artigo ao periódico Journal of Applied Biomechanics.



Rodrigo Silva Santos <rodrigofisio.santos@gmail.com>

9 de agosto de 2022 02:04

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Journal of Applied Biomechanics <onbehalfof@manuscriptcentral.com> Responder a: kboyer@kin.umass.edu Para: rodrigofisio.santos@gmail.com

09-Aug-2022

Dear Mr. Santos:

A manuscript titled Hip joint biomechanical parameters and their relationship with the aesthetic functional performance of the développé à la seconde movement in classical ballet dancers (JAB.2022-0200) has been submitted by Mr. João Breno Ribeiro-Alvares to the Journal of Applied Biomechanics.

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Figura 2 E-mail de submissão do primeiro artigo ao periódico Journal of Applied Biomechanics.

Anexo 2. E-mail de submissão do segundo artigo ao periódico Clinical Rehabilitation.

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Marco Aurélio Vaz <marcogabbardo@gmail.com>

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Clinical Rehabilitation <onbehalfof@manuscriptcentral.com> Responder a: avril.drummond@nottingham.ac.uk 23 de setembro de 2022 04:18

23-Sep-2022

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The attached documents, "Editorial process after submission" and "Editorial process pathways", show the various decisions that may be made, and the possible pathways your paper may follow. We recommend that you download these documents and save them with your other files relating to this paper.

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Figura 3 E-mail de submissão do segundo artigo ao periódico Clinical Rehabilitation.

MATERIAL SUPLEMENTAR

Suplementar 1. Checklist para Resumos PRISMA 2020

Section and Topic	ltem #	Checklist item	Reported (Yes/No)			
TITLE						
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review.	Yes.			
BACKGROUND						
Objectives	2	Provide an explicit statement of the main objective(s) or question(s) the review addresses.	Yes.			
METHODS						
Eligibility criteria	3	Specify the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the review.	No.			
Information sources	4	Specify the information sources (e.g. databases, registers) used to identify studies and the date when each was last searched.	Yes.			
Risk of bias	5	Specify the methods used to assess risk of bias in the included studies.	Yes.			
Synthesis of results	6	Specify the methods used to present and synthesise results.	Yes.			
RESULTS						
Included studies	7	Give the total number of included studies and participants and summarise relevant characteristics of studies.	Yes.			
Synthesis of results	8	Present results for main outcomes, preferably indicating the number of included studies and participants for each. If meta-analysis was done, report the summary estimate and confidence/credible interval. If comparing groups, indicate the direction of the effect (i.e. which group is favoured).	Yes.			
DISCUSSION						
Limitations of evidence	9	Provide a brief summary of the limitations of the evidence included in the review (e.g. study risk of bias, inconsistency and imprecision).	No.			
Interpretation	10	Provide a general interpretation of the results and important implications.	No.			
OTHER						
Funding	11	Specify the primary source of funding for the review.	No.			
Registration	12	Provide the register name and registration number.	No.			

From: Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. BMJ 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71

Suplementar 2. Checklist PRISMA 2020

Section and Topic	ltem #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported	
TITLE				
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review.		
ABSTRACT				
Abstract	2	See the PRISMA 2020 for Abstracts checklist.	7	
INTRODUCTION				
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of existing knowledge.		
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of the objective(s) or question(s) the review addresses.		
METHODS				
Eligibilitycriteria	5	Specify the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the review and how studies were grouped for the syntheses.	49	
Information sources	6	Specify all databases, registers, websites, organisations, reference lists and other sources searched or consulted to identify studies. Specify the date when each source was last searched or consulted.	50	
Search strategy	7	Present the full search strategies for all databases, registers and websites, including any filters and limits used.	50	
Selection process	8	Specify the methods used to decide whether a study met the inclusion criteria of the review, including how many reviewers screened each record and each report retrieved, whether they worked independently, and if applicable, details of au tomation tools used in the process.		
Data collection process	9	Specify the methods used to collect data from reports, including how many reviewers collected data from each report, whether they worked independently, any processes for obtaining or confirming data from study investigators, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.		
Data items	10a	List and define all outcomes for which data were sought. Specify whether all results that were compatible with each outcome domain in each study were sought (e.g. for all measures, time points, analyses), and if not, the methods used to decide which results to collect.	52	
	10b	List and define all other variables for which data were sought (e.g. participant and intervention characteris tics, funding sources). Describe any assumptions made about any missing or unclear information.	52	
Study risk of bias assessment	11	Specify the methods used to assess risk of bias in the included studies, including details of the tool(s) used, how many reviewers assessed each study and whether they worked independently, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.	52	
Effect measures	12	Specify for each outcome the effect measure(s) (e.g. risk ratio, mean difference) used in the syn thesis or presentation of results.		
Synthesis methods	13a	Describe the processes used to decide which studies were eligible for each synthesis (e.g. tabulating the study intervention characteristics and comparing against the planned groups for each synthesis (item #5)).	52	
	13b	Describe any methods required to prepare the data for presentation or synthesis, such as handling of missing summary statistics, or data conversions.	52	

Section and Topic	ltem #	Checklist item	
	13c	Describe any methods used to tabulate or visually display results of individual studies and syntheses.	52
	13d	Describe any methods used to synthesize results and provide a rationale for the choice(s). If meta -analysis was performed, describe the model(s), method(s) to identify the presence and extent of statistical heterogeneity, and software package(s) used.	52
	13e	Describe any methods used to explore possible causes of heterogeneity among study results (e.g. subgroup analysis, meta-regression).	
	13f	Describe any sensitivity analyses conducted to assess robustness of the synthesized results.	
Reporting bias assessment	14	Describe any methods used to assess risk of bias due to missing results in a synthesis (arising from reporting biases).	
Certainty assessment	15	Describe any methods used to assess certainty (or confidence) in the body of evidence for an outcome.	
RESULTS			
Study selection	16a	Describe the results of the search and selection process, from the number of records identified in the search to the number of studies included in the review, ideally using a flow diagram.	54
	16b	Cite studies that might appear to meet the inclusion criteria, but which were excluded, and explain why they were excluded.	54
Study characteristics	17	Cite each included study and present its characteristics.	53
Risk of bias in studies	18	Present assessments of risk of bias for each included study.	
Results of individual studies	19	all outcomes, present, for each study: (a) summary statistics for each group (where appropriate) and (b) an effect estimate and its precision confidence/credible interval), ideally using structured tables or plots.	
Results of syntheses	20a	For each synthesis, briefly summarise the characteristics and risk of bias among contributing studies.	57
	20b	Present results of all statistical syntheses conducted. If meta-analysis was done, present for each the summary estimate and its precision (e.g. confidence/credible interval) and measures of statistical heterogeneity. If comparing groups, describe the direction of the effect.	
	20c	Present results of all investigations of possible causes of heterogeneity among study results.	
	20d	Present results of all sensitivity analyses conducted to assess the robustness of the synthesized results.	
Reporting biases	21	Present assessments of risk of bias due to missing results (arising from reporting biases) for each synthesis assessed.	62
Certainty of evidence	22	Present assessments of certainty (or confidence) in the body of evidence for each outcome assessed.	62
DISCUSSION	-		
Discussion	23a	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence.	62
	23b	Discuss any limitations of the evidence included in the review.	63

Section and Topic	ltem #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
	23c	Discuss any limitations of the review processes used.	63
	23d	Discuss implications of the results for practice, policy, and future research.	64
OTHER INFORMATION			
Registration and protocol	24a	Provide registration information for the review, including register name and registration number, or state that the review was not registered.	49
	24b	Indicate where the review protocol can be accessed, or state that a protocol was not prepared.	49
	24c	Describe and explain any amendments to information provided at registration or in the protocol.	
Support	25	Describe sources of financial or non-financial support for the review, and the role of the funders or sponsors in the review.	65
Competing interests	26	Declare any competing interests of review authors.	65
Availability of data, code and other materials	27	Report which of the following are publicly available and where they can be found: template data collection forms; data extracted from included studies; data used for all analyses; analytic code; any other materials used in the review.	

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