Accepted Manuscript

Title: The effects of lower-body compression garments on walking performance and perceived exertion in adults with CVD risk factors

Author: Katharine E. Reed Amanda L. White Spiros Logothetis Christopher J. McManus Gavin R.H. Sandercock



PII:	S1440-2440(16)30205-5
DOI:	http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1016/j.jsams.2016.09.005
Reference:	JSAMS 1391
To appear in:	Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport
Received date:	8-7-2016
Revised date:	30-8-2016
Accepted date:	11-9-2016

Please cite this article as: Reed KE, White AL, Logothetis S, McManus CJ, Sandercock GRH, The effects of lower-body compression garments on walking performance and perceived exertion in adults with CVD risk factors, *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport* (2016), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsams.2016.09.005

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

- 1 The effects of lower-body compression garments on walking performance and perceived exertion
- 2 in adults with CVD risk factors.
- 3 Katharine E Reed, Amanda L White, Spiros Logothetis, Christopher J McManus, Gavin RH Sandercock.
- 4 Centre for Sports and Exercise Science, University of Essex, United Kingdom, CO4 3SQ,
- 5
- 6 **Corresponding author:**
- 7 Katharine Reed
- 8 Centre for Sports and Exercise Science,
- 9 University of Essex,
- 10 United Kingdom, CO4 3SQ
- 11 E mail : <u>reedk@essex.ac.uk</u>
- 12 TEL: 01206 873326
- 13
- 14 Word count : 2876
- 15

7 ABSTRACT

8 Objectives. Compression garments (CG) are used by athletes in attempts to enhance performance 9 and recovery, although evidence to support their use is equivocal. Reducing the exertion 10 experienced during exercise may encourage sedentary individuals to increase physical activity. The 11 aim of this study was to assess the effect of CG on walking performance (self-paced and enforced 12 pace) and rate of perceived exertion (RPE) in adults who presented with two or more CVD risk 13 factors. Participants (n=15, 10 female, 58.9 \pm 11.5 years, BMI 27.5 \pm 4.5 kg m²) were recruited. 14 Design. A repeated measures design. Methods. Participants were randomised to Modified Bruce Protocol (MPB, enforced pace), or the 6 minute walk test (6 MWT, self-paced), and completed the 15 16 test wearing compression garments (CG) or normal exercise clothes (CON). Outcome measures 17 included stage completed, gross efficiency (%) and RPE in MBP, and distance walked (m) and RPE in 6 MWT. Results. In the MBP participants had a higher RPE (15.5 ±2.5 vs 14.3 ±2.2) and a lower 18 19 efficiency (19.1 \pm 5.9 vs 21.1 \pm 6.7) in the CG condition compared with CON, p <0.05. In the 6 MWT 20 participants walked 9% less in the CG condition (p<0.05) but did not have a lower RPE. Conclusion. 21 Compared with previous studies reporting enhanced or no effects of CG on performance or RPE, this 22 study shows adverse effects of CG in untrained individuals with CVD risk factors. The mechanisms 23 underlying this negative effect require further exploration. Use of garments designed for the athletic individuals may not be suitable for the wider population. 24

- 25 Keywords: Adult, physical activity, exercise, risk, effort
- 26
- 27

28 INTRODUCTION

29 The use of compression garments (CG) to facilitate sports performance and recovery is becoming 30 increasingly popular. Originally designed for post-surgical use, with compression graduated from 31 ankle to hip, they were used to enhance blood flow. They are also used to prevent venous pooling 32 that frequently occurs during pregnancy and long distance travel. The commercial claims for CG suggest they can improve sports performance, and reduce fatigue and muscle injury. Investigations 33 into CG effects on speed¹, endurance², running economy³, oxygen consumption⁴ and recovery⁵ 34 provide mixed results. The strongest support from these studies is for a type of 'placebo effect' 35 mediated by heightened feelings of support⁶. Wearers report lower ratings of perceived exertion 36 37 (RPE) although this is not usually accompanied by improvements in performance⁷. In older athletes (age 63 years) CG worn during recovery increased power output during a subsequent cycling bout⁸. 38 Further, the subjects reported reduced leg discomfort during cycling, although this pain rating was 39 40 not associated improved performance.

As age increases, physical activity declines. Even adults that have been prescribed exercise for health
reasons, frequently fail to achieve a target amount of activity. For instance, only 36% of subjects who
were referred to cardiac rehabilitation fully completed their prescribed exercise sessions⁹. Many
barriers to adherence to exercise programmes, such as access to facilities, are difficult to address.
However, if the activity was made to feel more comfortable and less demanding adherence may
increase.

Studies to date assessing the effect of CG on performance may be limited in that participants have already have a high work capacity, so any changes seen would be minimal. Older and less physically fit individuals may have more potential for increasing performance. Theoretically, compression will increase pressure in lower limb vessels, so enhancing diffusion capacity, and enhancing exercise capacity.

Thus, the aim of this study was to determine the effects of wearing CG on RPE and walking performance in adults with CVD risk factors during prescribed workload and self-paced walking; Modified Bruce Protocol [MBP] and self-paced 6 minute walk test [6 MWT]. Externally guided exercise facilitates comparison of RPE at the same workload. In self-paced exercise, workload varies according to RPE. This dual-protocol approach was chosen in an attempt to allow better understanding of the mechanisms by which CG may influence responses to exercise and exercise performance.

59

The primary hypothesis was that wearing CG would reduce RPE during a treadmill-based walking
protocol. The second hypothesis was that wearing CG would increase walking performance in terms
of stage reached (MBP) or distance walked (6 MWT).

63 METHODS

Five males and 10 females, ages 58.9 years (±11.5, range 40 to 73 years), with a BMI 27.5 (±4.5 range
20.4 to 36.1 kg m²) were recruited. Ethical approval for the study was given by the University of
Essex Ethics Committee. Inclusion criteria were current diagnosis of cardiovascular disease, previous
myocardial infarction, type 2 diabetes or clustered metabolic risk¹⁰. Unstable angina was an
exclusion criterion. Details of participant risk factors are available as supplementary material.

69 We used a repeated measures, double randomised cross-over design that required participants to 70 attend two separate testing sessions, one week apart, at the same time of day. Participants were 71 asked to maintain normal activity between trials, and refrain from strenuous activity 24 hours prior to testing. Room temperature was the same in each trial (19 °C). Participants were randomly 72 73 selected to either MBP or 6 MWT group, then randomly assigned to wear CG during their first trial 74 (Time 1) or their second trial (Time 2, see Figure 1). When not wearing CG, participants wore their 75 own loose exercise trousers. Both walking protocols took place on a motorised treadmill (Saturn, HP-76 Cosmos, Germany).

77 78 After 3 minutes of quiet sitting, duplicate resting blood pressure was measured (MX3Plus Omron 79 digital blood pressure monitor HEM-742-E), with the lowest value recorded. Expired gases (Oxycon-80 MasterScreen[™] CPX) and heart rate (Polar RCX5 G5 Oy, Finland) were continually recorded 81 throughout the test. At the end of each stage (MPB) or each minute (6 MWT), participants were asked to report their RPE¹¹. RPE was assessed on a 6-20 point scale (shown on a large chart) with 82 participants verbally stating the number which best reflected their effort. Upon cessation of the test, 83 84 blood pressure was recorded. Expired gas data were exported in 5 second epochs for analysis. In the 85 CG condition, BP was measured whilst participants were wearing the CG both pre and post exercise. 86 Height (m), weight (kg) and waist circumference (cm) were measured in duplicate using standard 87 procedure. 88 The Bruce Protocol has seven stages, each lasting three minutes, with speed and incline increasing at 89 each stage. The first stage starts 2.7 km h⁻¹ at a 10% incline and reaches 8.8 km h⁻¹ (at 20% incline 90 The Modified Bruce protocol has two additional; stage 1 is at 2.7 km h⁻¹ at 0% incline, stage 2 is at 91

92 2.7 km h⁻¹ at 5% incline, and then stage 3 is the start (Stage 1) of the Bruce protocol, and continues
93 to increase in the same manner. The test was terminated when subjects could no longer maintain
94 the required pace (volitional exhaustion) or when heart rate exceeded age –related predicted
95 maximum (220-age).

96

97 The 6 MWT test is used to assess functional capacity in a wide range of populations with varying 98 levels of exercise capacity. Participants usually perform the 6 MWT by walking shuttles across the 99 ground but in the current study the test was conducted on a treadmill in order to make it more 100 comparable to the MBP. The treadmill was set at a 1% incline to reflect natural walking. Participants 101 were instructed to "Adjust the speed accordingly and try to go as far as you can in 6 minutes".

- Participants were allowed to increase and decrease the speed at will, but were encouraged tomaintain a fast pace. Participants were blinded to speed but not to time.
- 104

The CG used in the current study were Skins [™] Compression A400 Long (ankle to waist) Tights 105 106 (Riverwood, Australia) and were fit for each subject according to the manufacturer's instructions. 107 Fabric is 76% nylon and 24% elastane. The purpose of the CG fit is to ensure that garment movement 108 is minimal and congruent with the skin. Participants put on the CG 5 minutes before the exercise 109 commenced. The exerted pressure was evaluated by the Picopress® pressure monitor. Coefficient of variation for this has been reported as 2.8%¹². Pressure measures were recorded at 5 anatomical 110 locations; medial calf and posterior calf (at widest part), anterior thigh and posterior thigh (midpoint 111 112 between greater trochanter and lateral epicondyle), and gluteus maximus (widest part). A pressure 113 bladder was placed between the subject's skin and the CG to access the pressure on each landmark. 114

Data from MPB and 6 MWT were analysed separately. For the MBP, final completed stage, RPE, VO₂ (ml kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) and GE (gross efficiency as %) were compared using paired t-tests at the final stage that was completed across conditions. For example if stage 4 was completed in trial 1, but only stage 3 competed in trial 2, then stage 3 was compared across trials. GE was calculated as mechanical power / metabolic power; GE=PO/P_{met} *100, where PO is the work output (Watts) and P_{met} is VO₂ * [(4940*RER +16090)/60]¹³. RPE at exhaustion (not matched stage) is also given.

121

122 For 6 MWT, distance walked (m), speed at 3 and 6 minutes (km h⁻¹), RPE at 3 minutes and final RPE,

and peak VO₂ (ml kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) were compared between conditions using paired t-tests.

124 Percent change from baseline was calculated for systolic and diastolic blood pressure (mmHg) and

125 compared using paired t-tests, for both MBP and 6 MWT.

126 Statistical significance was set at alpha =0.05. Cohen's d (difference in group mean / average SD) was

127 calculated, with effect size of 0.2 considered 'small', 0.5 as 'medium' and 0.8 as 'large'.

128	
129	RESULTS
130	Compression values (mmHg) at the five measurement points were as follows; medial calf 12.5 (±3.6),
131	posterior calf 11.4 (±2.8), anterior thigh 5.3 (±1.7), posterior thigh 5.1 (±1.8) gluteus 5.7 (±2.0).
132	
133	Modified Bruce Protocol: Four of the eight participants achieved a VO_2 peak more than 1SD below
134	their age and gender predicted value ¹⁴ in the CON condition. One participant continued longer in the
135	CG condition, three continued longer in the CON condition, and four continued for a similar time (i.e.
136	reached exhaustion during the same level) in each trial.
137	
138	Participants rated the CON condition as requiring less exertion (RPE at final completed stage, t (7)
139	=3.0, p =0.02) and had a lower VO ₂ in the final completed stage (t (7) =3.4, p =0.01). GE was lower in
140	the CON condition in the final stage completed across both trials (t (7) =2.8, p =0.03), see table 1. RPE
141	at exhaustion was higher in CG condition but there was no difference between trials (p>0.05)
142	
143	At baseline mean blood pressure (mmHg) prior to the CON trial was $137/81 (\pm 22/14)$, and in the CG
144	trial was 138/79 (\pm 21/11). After exercise this increased to 168/85 (\pm 28/13) in CON and 160/82
145	(±20/10) in the CG condition. There was no significant difference in percent change in SBP or DBP
146	across trials (table 1).
147	
148	6MWT: All participants walked within age expected norms, except one male who walked >1 SD
149	above predicted ¹⁵ All participants walked further in the CON condition. In the CON condition,
150	participants walked an average of 9% further compared with the CG condition (t (6)=3.3, p =0.02),

151 table 2.

- 153 Mean blood pressure (mmHg) prior to the CON trial was 139/78mmHg (±21/10), increasing to 159
- 154 /72 (±29/9) and in the CG trial was 141/77 mmHg (±17/10) increasing to 172/74 (±28/9). There was
- 155 no significant difference in change in SBP or DBP across trials.
- 156

157 DISCUSSION

158 The aims of this study were to examine the effects of CG on performance and RPE during externally

and self-paced walking in adults at risk of CVD.

- 160
- 161 Participants' RPE was 1.2 points higher when wearing CG compared with CON in the MBP (with a
- 162 moderate effect size of d=0.51) at a comparable time point. RPE was slightly higher (non-significant,
- 163 effect size d=0.20) in the CG toward the end of 6 MWT, despite a lower self-selected walking pace.

164

Part of the perceived exertion may have been due to the unfamiliarity with tight compression 165 166 clothing. Even trained athletes, who are likely used to wearing Lycra based clothing rate CG that have a high compression value as uncomfortable. All et al⁴ found that compression above 23 mmHg 167 168 was rated as uncomfortable. The compression values in the current study are much lower (rated as a 169 medium or low compression in Ali et al's study), but still higher than the CON (no compression) 170 condition. Although participants used 'positive' words or phrases to describe the comfort of the 171 garments, such as 'supportive' and 'made me feel lighter', the unfamiliar sensation may have altered 172 perception. Similarly, it is possible that the increased skin temperature reported in several studies ^{5,16,17} but not measured here, may influence the participants' perceived exertion. 173

174

Few studies to date report a positive influence of CG on whole body RPE. For example, Born et al¹⁸ and Miyamoto & Kawakami¹⁹ report reduced leg muscle 'RPE' as a result of CG, but did not find a reduced whole body perceived exertion. However, Faulkner et al²⁰ found both knee length and full length CG resulted in a lower RPE when completing a 400m run, compared with no compression.

Compression values (mmHg) for the full length garments reported by Faulkner²⁰ were similar to 179 180 those reported in the current study. However, participants in Faulkner's study were young male athletes and so not comparable in terms of training status or importantly body composition. BMI of 181 subjects in the current study ranged from 20.4 to 36.1 kg m². Fitting of compression garments is 182 183 based on weight and height, but people in the same dimensional range are likely to vary extensively in morphology²¹. Given the low training status of the subjects in the current study, along with the 184 185 high BMI of some, it is likely that many subjects had a high fat mass. The effects of compression on 186 fat mass as opposed to muscle mass, and the consequent physiological effects are likely to be very different. 187

188

Across both walking protocols, performance was reduced in the CG condition. In MBP participants
completed fewer stages whilst wearing the CG (although there was no significant difference
between trials in this protocol).

192

193 Distance walked was 9% less in the CG trial in the 6 MWT (p<0.05). This is of particular importance as 194 it more reflective of the self-paced nature of physical activity that is common in rehabilitation classes. Although some studies report increases in explosive power measures (such as counter 195 movement jumps)^{16,22} few studies have found positive effects of CG on endurance performance. 196 197 Kemmler et al¹ showed increases in total work and work duration as part of a running to exhaustion trial as a result of lower leg CG. Similarly, Bringard et al³ reported a reduced oxygen cost of running 198 (only at 12 km h⁻¹). This reduced oxygen cost implies a greater efficiency. However, a far greater 199 200 number of studies that used a similar protocol to the current study report no effect of CG on performance or economy. 4,6,23 In the MBP we found a higher VO₂ at the same comparable stage in 201 202 the CG condition. The mechanisms by which CG may increase oxygen requirement in the current 203 study are unclear. Again, alterations in temperature will alter local, and potentially central, 204 haemodynamics, potentially altering whole body oxygen demand. Similarly, the compression may

have altered flow rate and perfusion. Bochmannet al²⁴ reported increases in forearm blood flow and perfusion as a result of external compression, which was enhanced by light exercise. If a similar increase in perfusion was occurring in participants in the CG condition in the current study, this may explain the increased VO₂. However, if an increase in perfusion did occur, it was not accompanied by an increase in performance or a decrease in perceived exertion, so the increase in VO₂ in CG was likely due to other reasons.

211

Lack of familiarisation to compressive clothing may have altered the normal gait of the participants. 212 Compression alters many factors that contribute to normal gait; proprioception and balance²⁵ and 213 range of motion¹⁶. The reduction in range of motion was shown at the hip joint during a 60m run in 214 215 healthy males wearing knee length compression shorts by Doan and colleagues. Although the 216 demographic of the participants and the nature of the test differ in Doan's study to the current 217 study, it is possible that the increased resistance altered gait during the CG condition. This may have negatively influenced normal walking economy, i.e. increasing VO₂. It is a limitation of this study that 218 219 gait was not analysed during the exercise.

220

Systolic blood pressure increased in all conditions as a result of exercise, as would be expected. 221 222 The effect of compression of venous pooling is unclear, especially in upright postures or during 223 exercise. At compressions of 20 to 30 mmHg (higher than reported in the current study) there is little evidence of decreased venous diameter or altered flow in healthy subjects in upright positions²⁶. 224 Privett and colleagues²⁷ showed that compression stockings can help maintain blood pressure in 225 226 orthostatically intolerant athletes post-exercise, but few studies report the effect of compression garments on blood pressure either during or post-exercise. MacRae and colleagues²⁸ report small 227 228 limited effects of CG on CV variables (increased cardiac output and HR drift but no effect on arterial 229 pressure) during submaximal exercise. They conclude the mild compression commercial garments 230 provide fails to add to the effectiveness of skeletal muscle pumps and venous valves in healthy

231	individuals. The current study involved adults with potentially compromised CV systems who may
232	have limited exercise tolerance, and possibly a different response to CG. This was apparent in the
233	MBP where four participants achieved a VO_2 max lower than age expected norms. The limited
234	exercise tolerance displayed makes comparison with athlete based studies difficult. However use of
235	a repeated measures design reduces variability between conditions. Further the participants are
236	highly representative of the type of individuals who receive GP exercise referral.
237	
238	Increases in blood pressure above normal exercise related changes could be potentially harmful for
239	subjects who are already hypertensive. Conclusions regarding the effect of compression on blood
240	pressure cannot be gained from this study due to the range of cardiovascular risk factors presented,
241	the degree of hypertension and the fact that 2 participants were taking medication that mediated
242	blood pressure.
243	
244	Conclusion
245	If participants perceive exercise to be easier and more comfortable whilst wearing CG they may be
246	encouraged to do more activity. However, walking performance and perceived effort were
247	negatively affected by the use of compression garments in this population. It is possible that further
248	familiarisation with the garments may reduce the participants RPE, which likely affected their
249	performance, particularly in the 6 MWT. The effect of compression on gait and on CV strain in 'non-
250	healthy' populations, and also requires further assessment.
251	
252	Practical implications
253	• Commercially available garments, such as the ones used in this study, are not designed for
254	use outside the athletic population and so caution is advised in relation to their widespread
255	use.

256	•	Familiarisation with the garments is recommended as the constriction experienced will likely
257		alter RPE and potentially gait.
258	•	The effects of compression garments on blood pressure in hypertensive subjects should be
259		monitored.
260		
261		
262		
263		
264		
265		

262 Acknowledgements: Thanks to SKINS for providing the compression garments used in this study.

267	References			
268	1	Kemmler W, Von Stengel S, Kockritz C, et al. Effect of compression stockings on running		
269		performance in men runners. <i>J Strength Cond Res</i> 2009; 23(1):101–105.		
270	2	Duffield R, Portus M. Comparison of three types of full-body compression garments on		
271		throwing and repeat-sprint performance in cricket players. Br J Sports Med 2007; 41(7):409-		
272		414; discussion 414.		
273	3	Bringard A, Perrey S, Belluye N. Aerobic energy cost and sensation responses during		
274		submaximal running exercise - Positive effects of wearing compression tights. Int J Sports		
275		Med 2006; 27(5):373–378.		
276	4	Ali A, Creasy RH, Edge JA. Physiological effects of wearing graduated compression stockings		
277		during running. <i>Eur J Appl Physiol</i> 2010; 109(6):1017–1025.		
278	5	Duffield R, Cannon J, King M. The effects of compression garments on recovery of muscle		
279		performance following high-intensity sprint and plyometric exercise. J Sci Med Sport 2010;		
280		13(1):136–140.		
281	6	Ali A, Caine MP, Snow BG. Graduated compression stockings: physiological and perceptual		
282		responses during and after exercise. <i>J Sports Sci</i> 2007; 25(4):413–419.		
283	7	Goh S, Laursen P, Dascombe B, et al. Effect of lower body compression garments on		
284		submaximal and maximal running performance in cold (10 $^\circ$ C) and hot (32 $^\circ$ C)		
285		environments. Eur J Appl Physiol 2011; 111(5):819–826.		
286	8	Chatard JC, Atlaoui D, Farjanel J, et al. Elastic stockings, performance and leg pain recovery in		
287		63-year-old sportsmen. Eur J Appl Physiol 2004; 93(3):347–352.		
288	9	Martin B, Hauer T, Arena R, et al. Cardiac Rehabilitation Attendance and Outcomes in		
289		Coronary Artery Disease patients. Circulation 2012; 126(6):677–687.		
290	10	International Diabetes Foundation. IDF Consensus. Available at:		
291		http://www.idf.org/webdata/docs/MetS_def_update2006.pdf. Accessed 5 th May 2016		
292	11	Borg G . Psychophysical bases of perceived exertion. <i>Med Sci Sports Exerc</i> 1982; 14(5):377–		
293		381.		
294	12	Partsch H, Mosti G. Comparison of three portable instruments to measure compression		
295		pressure. Int Angiol 2010; 29(5):426–430.		

296	13	Garby L, Astrup A. The relationship between the respiratory quotient and the energy
297		equivalent of oxygen. Acta Physiol Scand 1987; 129(3):443–444.
298	14	Fletcher GF, Balady GJ, Amsterdam EA, et al. Exercise Standards for Testing and Training: A
299		Statement for Healthcare Professionals From the American Heart Association. Circulation
300		2001; 104(14):1694–1740.
301	15	Enright PL, Sherrill DL. Reference Equations for the Six-Minute Walk in Healthy Adults. Am J
302		Clin Care Med 1998; (6):1384–1387.
303	16	Doan BK, Kwon Y, Newton RU, et al. Evaluation of a lower-body compression garment. J
304		Sports Sci 2003; 21(8):601–610.
305	17	Houghton LA, Dawson B, Maloney SK. Effects of wearing compression garments on
306		thermoregulation during simulated team sport activity in temperate environmental
307		conditions. <i>J Sci Med Sport</i> 2009; 12(2):303–309.
308	18	Born D, Holmberg H-C, Goernert F, et al. A novel compression garment with adhesive silicone
309		stripes improves repeated sprint performance - a multi-experimental approach on the
310		underlying mechanisms. BMC Sports Sci Med Rehabil 2014; 6(1):1–21.
311	19	Miyamoto N, Kawakami Y. Effect of pressure intensity of compression short-tight on fatigue
312		of thigh muscles. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2014; 46(11):2168–2174.
313	20	Faulkner J, Gleadon D, McLaren J, et al. Effect of lower limb compression clothing on 400m
314		sprint performance. J Strength Cond Reasearch 2013; 27(3):669–676.
315	21	Macrae B, Cotter J, Laing R. Garment Considerations , Physiology and Performance. Sport
316		Med 2011; 41(10):815–843.
317	22	Kraemer WJ, Bush JA, Bauer JA, et al. Influence of Compression Garments on Vertical Jump
318		Performance in NCAA Division I Volleyball Players. J Strength Cond Res 1996; 10(3):180.
319	23	Sperlich B, Haegele M, Achtzehn S, et al. Different types of compression clothing do not
320		increase sub-maximal and maximal endurance performance in well-trained athletes. J Sports
321		<i>Sci</i> 2010; 28(6):609–614.
322	24	Bochmann RP, Seibel W, Haase E, et al. External compression increases forearm perfusion. J
323		Appl Physiol 2005; 99(6):2337–2344.
324	25	Michael JS, Dogramaci SN, Steel KA, et al. Gait & Posture What is the effect of compression

325 garments on a balance task in female athletes ? *Gait Posture* 2014; 39(2):804–809.

- Lord R. Graduated compression stockings do not compress leg veins in the standing position.
 ANZ J Surg 2004; 74(7):581–585.
- 328 27 Privett S, George K, Whyte G, et al. The effectiveness of compression garments and lower
- 329 limb exercise on post exercise blood pressure in orthostatically intolerant athletes. *Clin J Sci*330 *Med* 2010; 20(6):362–367.
- MacRae BA, Laing RM, Niven BE, et al. Pressure and coverage effects of sporting compression
 garments on cardiovascular function , thermoregulatory function , and exercise performance.
 Eur J Appl Physiol 2012; 112:1783–1795.
- 334

- 336 Table 1. Performance, physiological and perception of effort data for Modified Bruce Protocol across
- two conditions (CG and CON), n=8. Data are mean ±SD.

	CG	CON	Effect size (Cohen)
Final completed stage	4.75 ±1.6	5.00 ±1.3	
RPE at final completed	15.5 ±2.5*	14.3 ±2.2*	<i>d</i> =0.51
stage [†]			
RPE at exhaustion	15.6 ±2.4	14.8 ±2.0	d=0.36
(regardless of stage)			
$\dot{V}\mathrm{O}_2$ at final stage (ml kg ⁻¹	27.3 ±5.6*	24.8 ±5.6*	<i>d</i> =0.45
min ⁻¹) [†]			
GE (%) at final stage [†]	19.1 ±5.9*	21.1 ±6.7*	<i>d</i> =0.31
HR peak (bpm)	139 ±26.2	141 ±22.7	<i>d</i> =0.20
% change in SBP	20.9 ±11.2	24.1 ±10.8	<i>d</i> =0.29
% change in DBP	7.9 ±20.0	4.1 ±20.0	<i>d</i> =0.19

338 \uparrow individual stage completed across both trials, * significant difference between groups, p < 0.05.

Received to the second se

339

Table 2. Performance, physiological and perception of effort data for 6 minute Walk Test across two

	342	conditions (CG and CON	N), n=7. Data are mean ±SD.
--	-----	------------------------	-----------------------------

	CG	CON	Effect size (Cohen)
Distance walked (m)	562 ±126*	612 ±115*	<i>d</i> =0.44
Final RPE	16.0 ±1.8	15.6 ±2.4	<i>d</i> =0.20
Speed at 3 min (km ^{h -1})	5.85 ±0.85	6.03 ±0.74	<i>d</i> =0.22
(m s ⁻¹)	1.6 ±0.2	1.7 ±0.2	
Speed at 6 min (km h ⁻¹)	6.7 ±0.9	7.2 ±0.6	<i>d</i> =0.65
(m s⁻¹)	1.9 ±0.2	2.0 ± 0.2	
Peak VO ₂ (ml kg min ⁻¹)	23.4 ± 4.3	22.7 ± 4.6	<i>d</i> =0.16
% change in SBP	26.6 ±22.0	14.6 ±9.8	<i>d</i> =0.70
% change in DBP	1.2 ±11.0	-6.5 ±10.1	<i>d</i> =0.50

343 * significant difference between groups, p<0.05

345 Figure 1. Double randomised cross over design.

- 346 6MWT (6 minute walk test), MPB (Modified Bruce Protocol), CG (Compression Garment), CON
- 347 (Control condition), T1 (time1), T2 (time2)

348



Figure 1. Double randomised cross over design.