- 1 Review Article: High intensity interval exercise and postprandial triacylglycerol.
- 2 Stephen F. Burns<sup>1</sup>, Masashi Miyashita<sup>2</sup> & David J. Stensel<sup>3</sup>
- <sup>3</sup> <sup>1</sup>Physical Education and Sports Science Academic Group
- 4 Nanyang Technological University, Singapore 637616
- 5 <sup>2</sup>Department of Health and Sports Sciences
- 6 Tokyo Gakugei University, Tokyo 184-8501, Japan
- <sup>3</sup>School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences,
- 8 Loughborough University, Leicestershire, LE11 3TU, U.K.
- 9
- 10 Short title: Interval exercise and postprandial triacylglycerol
- 11 Word count (excl title page, abstract, key points, acknowledgements, references, tables): 4,960
- 12 Abstract word count: 250
- 13 References: 71
- 14 **Tables:** 2
- 15
- 16 Correspondence:
- 17 Stephen F. Burns
- 18 Physical Education and Sports Science Academic Group
- 19 National Institute of Education
- 20 Nanyang Technological University,
- 21 1 Nanyang Walk, Singapore 637616
- 22 Phone: (+65) 6219 6214
- 23 Fax: (+65) 6896 9260
- 24 Email: stephen.burns@nie.edu.sg
- 25
- 26
- 27
- 28

### 29 Abstract

30 This review examined if high intensity interval exercise (HIIE) reduces postprandial triacylglycerol 31 (TAG) concentrations. Fifteen studies were identified, in which the effect of interval exercise 32 conducted at an intensity of >65% of maximal oxygen uptake was evaluated on postprandial TAG 33 concentrations. Analysis was divided between studies which included supramaximal exercise and 34 those which included submaximal interval exercise. Ten studies examined the effect of a single 35 session of low-volume HIIE including supramaximal sprints on postprandial TAG. Seven of these 36 studies noted reductions in postprandial total TAG area under the curve the morning after exercise of 37 between  $\sim 10\% - 21\%$  compared with rest but three investigations found no significant difference in 38 TAG concentrations. Variations in the HIIE protocol used, inter-individual variation or insufficient 39 time post-exercise for an increase in lipoprotein lipase activity are proposed reasons for the divergent 40 results among studies. Five studies examined the effect of high-volume submaximal interval exercise 41 on postprandial TAG. Four of these studies were characterised by high exercise energy expenditure 42 and effectively attenuated total postprandial TAG concentrations by  $\sim 15\%$ -30% but one study with a 43 lower energy expenditure found no effect on TAG. The evidence suggests that supramaximal HIIE 44 can induce large reductions in postprandial TAG concentrations but findings are inconsistent. 45 Submaximal interval exercise offers no TAG metabolic or time advantage over continuous aerobic 46 exercise but could be appealing in nature to some individuals. Future research should examine if 47 submaximal interval exercise can reduce TAG concentrations in line with more realistic and 48 achievable exercise durations of 30 minutes per day. 49

- 50 **Keywords:** cardiovascular diseases; lipid metabolism; physical activity; postprandial period;
- 51 triglyceride

- 53
- 54
- 55
- 56

57	Key P	pints
58	•	High intensity interval exercise (HIIE) has been proposed as a time efficient method of
59		improving metabolic health. The present article reviews the evidence for an effect of HIIE on
60		postprandial triacylglycerol (TAG) concentrations.
61	•	Seven studies have found single sessions of low-volume, supramaximal HIIE can reduce
62		postprandial TAG to a similar extent as continuous aerobic exercise but the evidence is
63		inconsistent.
64	•	Single sessions of high-volume submaximal interval exercise can reduce postprandial TAG to
65		a similar extent as continuous aerobic exercise but offer no time or metabolic advantage.
66		
67		
68		
69		
70		
71		
72		
73		
74		
75		
76		
77		
78		
79		
80		
81		
82		
83		

### 84 **1. Introduction**

85 Postprandial triacylglycerol (TAG) concentrations were first proposed as a risk factor for 86 atherosclerosis by Zilversmit in 1979 [1]. Since Zilversmit's original hypothesis, experimental 87 evidence has implicated elevated postprandial TAG in atherogenesis whilst prospective epidemiology 88 studies have shown high non-fasting TAG to be an independent risk factor for cardiovascular disease 89 in men and women [2-4]. Given that most individuals consume several meals throughout the day the 90 postprandial state represents the usual metabolic state. This is opposed to the fasted state which 91 usually only occurs in the first few hours of the early morning [2, 4, 5]. The macronutrient 92 composition of meals including the total amount and type of dietary fat, amount of carbohydrate – 93 particularly fructose – and possibly protein are also important contributors which can lead to 94 exaggerated and extended elevations in postprandial TAG [6]. The postprandial period, therefore, 95 represents a period of exaggerated TAG concentrations which can promote atherosclerosis by 96 encouraging: a) an accumulation of TAG-rich lipoprotein remnants in the plasma; b) the catabolism of 97 high-density lipoprotein and; c) formation of small, dense low-density lipoproteins which have 98 increased susceptibility to oxidation [2, 7]. Given the importance of the postprandial period several 99 strategies have been proposed to reduce TAG after meals. Exercise is one important strategy that has 100 been shown to consistently induce a moderate reduction in postprandial TAG across various different 101 populations [6, 8-11].

102

103

### 2. Aerobic exercise and postprandial TAG

104 International public health guidelines recommend that adults complete a minimum of 150 minutes of 105 moderate intensity aerobic activity, accumulated in bouts of 10 minutes or more, each week, or 106 alternatively, 75 minutes of more vigorous intensity aerobic activity each week [12]. Experimental 107 studies demonstrate that performing continuous aerobic exercise can reduce postprandial TAG 108 concentrations. However, many of these studies, though not all, have used acute aerobic exercise 109 bouts where the duration of the exercise performed is well beyond that suggested in physical activity 110 recommendations [6, 8-11, 13, 14]. The size of the exercise-induced energy deficit has been 111 suggested to be the prime exercise variable determining the extent of any TAG reduction [6, 8-11, 13,

112 14]. The importance of the energy deficit was shown in one study where walking at different 113 intensities reduced postprandial TAG concentrations to the same extent when the duration of exercise 114 was manipulated to expend the same overall energy [13]. In a similar manner, walking at the same 115 intensity but for twice the duration leads to an approximate doubling of the reduction in postprandial 116 TAG [14]. However, the effect of aerobic exercise on postprandial TAG goes beyond producing a 117 simple energy deficit as inducing dietary energy restriction equal to that of an exercise-induced 118 energy deficit does not produce a similar reduction in postprandial TAG [15]. Thus, exercise appears 119 to stimulate some factor(s) which influence either the rate of appearance or clearance of TAG-rich 120 lipoprotein particles in the postprandial period. Moreover, it is important to note that the effects seen 121 with aerobic exercise on postprandial TAG concentrations are substantially diminished when the 122 energy used during exercise is replaced afterward [16, 17]. Nevertheless, meta-analyses [10, 11] and 123 several systematic reviews [6, 8, 9] support the reduction in postprandial TAG with continuous 124 aerobic exercise with the most recent meta-analysis reporting a significant correlation existing 125 between the exercise energy expenditure and the effect size [11].

126

127

### 3. High intensity interval exercise (HIIE)

128 Whilst continuous aerobic exercise has a positive effect on many aspects of health, including 129 postprandial TAG concentrations, many individuals still fail to achieve the minimal levels of activity 130 set out in guidelines with 'lack of time' cited as the most common barrier for regular exercise 131 participation [18, 19]. For example, in the U.K. ~60% of men and ~70% of women did not meet 132 physical activity recommendations with the most common barriers identified as 'work commitment' 133 (45% men and 34% women) and 'a lack of leisure time' (38% men and 37% women) [19]. Thus, to 134 promote health in a shorter time HIIE has been proposed as a viable alternative to continuous aerobic 135 activity [20]. This type of exercise has existed for some time [21,22] but gained more prominence in 136 2005 as a potential replacement for endurance exercise training when 2 weeks of HIIE training was 137 shown to increase muscle oxidative capacity and double endurance capacity in recreationally active 138 young individuals [23]. Accumulating evidence has since shown that HIIE induces multiple 139 physiological adaptations similar to traditional endurance training [24-34]. The lower total exercise

volume and training time involved has led to the suggestion that HIIE training represents a valuable
alternative to the current aerobic exercise guidelines which could encourage physical activity

- 142 participation and reduce the risk of chronic diseases [20].
- 143

144 Early studies using HIIE training sessions were characterised by low work volume. The initial 145 protocol involved four to six 30 second all-out sprint efforts on a cycle ergometer (Wingate tests) per 146 session with recovery periods of 4 minutes between each sprint [23]. However, Wingate tests require 147 specialised cycle ergometers and the nature of the exercise sessions means that participants have to be 148 highly motivated casting doubt on the applicability of this type of training in unfit populations [20]. 149 Subsequently, variations on the original protocol emerged. These include eight to twelve 1 minute 150 intervals at an intensity corresponding to  $\sim 100\%$  of maximal oxygen uptake [30], extremely short 151 duration sprints of between 6 and 15 seconds [35-38], a single maximal extended sprint [39], or the 152 use of sprint running [40,41] as an alternative to cycling. Another approach has been to investigate 153 the effect of interval exercise sessions conducted at submaximal intensities [42-47]. It is debatable 154 whether interval exercise conducted at <100% of maximal oxygen uptake should be compared with 155 the original supramaximal protocol [23] as submaximal interval exercise sessions involve a much 156 higher work volume and longer duration exercise sessions. Nevertheless, current US Physical 157 Activity Guidelines classify activity of 65-85% of maximal oxygen uptake as hard and >85% as very 158 hard [48] suggesting that interval sessions conducted at these loads should be considered high 159 intensity. Moreover, physiological adaptations benefitting health still occur with submaximal interval 160 sessions [42-47]. Importantly, both supramaximal and submaximal protocols have been used as 161 successful interventions for improving health outcomes or indicators in moderately overweight and 162 obese individuals [31, 32], older adults [35], paediatric populations [32, 38, 41, 49], individuals with 163 metabolic syndrome [50] and individuals with established coronary artery disease [42]. 164

165

# 4. High intensity interval exercise and postprandial TAG

Given the substantial effect of continuous aerobic exercise on postprandial TAG concentrations andthe extent of the physiological adaptations associated with HIIE, it is not surprising that investigations

168 have now examined how HIIE effects postprandial TAG concentrations. The aims of the present 169 review were: (i) to discuss the evidence for an effect of HIIE on postprandial TAG concentrations, (ii) 170 to evaluate the effectiveness of HIIE versus continuous aerobic exercise for lowering postprandial 171 TAG concentrations and (iii) to discuss the mechanisms responsible for HIIE induced reductions in 172 postprandial TAG. A search was made in PubMed using the following key words in combination: 173 "postprandial triacylglycerol AND interval exercise", "postprandial triacylglycerol AND high 174 intensity exercise" or "postprandial triacylglycerol AND sprint exercise". The same search was made 175 using "postprandial triglyceride", "postprandial lipemia", or "postprandial lipaemia" as alternatives to 176 "postprandial triacylglycerol". The search incorporated any article published in English and was 177 cross-checked and supplemented using the authors' personal libraries. Criteria for inclusion in this 178 review were: 1) the dependent variable was postprandial TAG concentration in humans, 2) studies 179 were designed to evaluate the effect of interval exercise at an intensity >65% of maximal oxygen 180 uptake. Criteria for exclusion of a study were: 1) continuous aerobic exercise only, 2) resistance 181 exercise, or 3) protocols which examined the issue of accumulating exercise on postprandial lipaemia 182 which has been reviewed previously [51]. Definition of a protocol as one examining accumulation 183 was where the rest period between bouts of exercise was  $\geq 10$  minutes. None of the studies in the 184 present review involved rest periods between exercise bouts of >5 minutes, although the recovery 185 periods differed in nature with some using only passive recovery whilst others included low-intensity 186 active recovery.

187

Fifteen studies met the inclusion criteria from fifty-nine studies retrieved. For our analysis we chose to divide studies into two types: (i) those involving low-volume HIIE sessions at supramaximal intensities (≥100% of maximal oxygen uptake) and (ii) high-volume interval exercise protocols conducted at submaximal intensities (65-<100% of maximal oxygen uptake). This is because the latter typically involve greater exercise volumes of longer duration at a submaximal level which detracts from the original time saving premise and supramaximal intensity associated with early HIIE training.</p>

196

#### 5. Effects of low-volume supramaximal HIIE on postprandial TAG

197 Ten studies were identified which examined the effect of low-volume HIIE using protocols >100% of 198 maximal oxygen uptake on postprandial TAG [36-38, 41, 50, 52-56]. Table 1 provides a summary of 199 the study designs and findings. The first published work was conducted by Freese and colleagues 200 [52] and followed the original HIIE protocol previously described of four Wingate tests interspersed 201 with 4 minutes of recovery [23]. Total postprandial TAG responses to a single high fat test meal were 202 21% lower the morning after HIIE compared with a rest day. Interestingly, also included was a 203 condition where the energy expended in HIIE was replaced by a post-exercise meal, with the premise 204 being that any exercise-induced reduction in TAG is due to the energy deficit of exercise. As noted 205 previously, energy expenditure is a key factor in postprandial TAG reductions following aerobic 206 exercise [6, 8-11, 13, 14] and energy replacement significantly mitigates reductions in TAG 207 concentrations with aerobic exercise [16, 17]. Nevertheless, Freese and colleagues reported that a 208 10% reduction in total TAG concentrations persisted after HIIE despite energy replacement compared 209 with the resting condition [52]. However, the extent of the mitigation meant that TAG concentrations 210 after energy deficit were still significantly lower than when in energy replacement reinforcing the 211 importance of this variable on exercise-induced reductions of postprandial TAG.

212

213 Two other important aspects of this seminal work by Freese and colleagues [52] are noted. Firstly, 214 postprandial TAG responses were measured over a 3 hour period. Most studies examining aerobic 215 exercise have used longer postprandial protocols; typically 6 hours [9]. Justification for a shortened 216 protocol as a valid assessment of the overall TAG response was provided by a study where the 217 postprandial TAG response over 4 hours was shown to be highly predictive of the response over 8 218 hours in five lean and four obese subjects [57]. However, subsequent work by another group in a 219 larger cohort reported that whilst the total and incremental TAG 4 hour area resulted in a moderate to 220 high prediction of the 6 hour area, further reduction to 3 hours resulted in less predictability [58]. The 221 second aspect of note was that, despite significantly reduced postprandial TAG concentrations, the 222 study failed to address the question of whether HIIE was an equally effective or more effective 223 strategy for reducing TAG concentrations than aerobic exercise. For HIIE to be considered for

224 inclusion in physical activity recommendations then changes in risk markers for health with this type 225 of exercise should be compared in relation to those produced by continuous aerobic exercise whilst 226 taking into consideration any time advantage. These criticisms of the original paper by Freese were 227 addressed by another group of researchers. Gabriel and colleagues examined 7 hour postprandial 228 TAG responses to two high fat test meals, given 3 hours apart, in 9 young healthy males the morning 229 after five Wingate tests, 30 minutes of brisk walking or a rest day [53]. An ~18% borderline 230 reduction in total TAG (P=0.056) and a significant ~34% reduction in the TAG incremental area under the curve (HIIE: 6.42 (2.24) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·7h<sup>-1</sup> vs. Rest: 9.68 (4.77) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·7h<sup>-1</sup>, P<0.05) occurred 231 232 only after HIIE compared with rest, demonstrating it as a viable alternative to aerobic exercise whilst 233 addressing the criticism of a shorter postprandial assessment period [53]. A follow-up study from the 234 same group using the same HIIE protocol showed similar findings, with a 21% reduction in the total 235 TAG area under the curve in response to two high fat test meals in comparison with rest the day after 236 exercise but the effect did not last for two days post-exercise [54].

237

238 Important successful modifications to the Wingate protocol were made in three studies. Compared 239 with rest, Thackray and colleagues found an ~10% decrease in postprandial capillary TAG in 240 response to a single high fat test meal the morning after ten 1 minute running intervals at maximal 241 aerobic speed in healthy boys aged 11-12 years [41]. The authors suggested that HIIE should be 242 investigated as an exercise strategy to improve children's health as interspersing moderate exercise 243 with high intensity work periods is associated with greater perceived exercise enjoyment in youth than 244 continuous moderate intensity exercise alone [59]. In two recent investigations, the influence of very 245 short duration sprints on postprandial TAG was evaluated [38, 56]. In the first of these, sixty 8 246 second sprints, interspersed with 12 seconds of moderate cycling, reduced TAG concentrations by 247  $\sim$ 13% assessed over 4 hours the next morning compared with a resting control day in 12 sedentary 248 young women [56]. Importantly, the total exercise session lasted 20 minutes, similar to the time 249 needed for four to six Wingate tests with 4 minute recovery periods, and all women were reported to 250 complete the exercise protocol even though they were sedentary [56]. In the second study, forty 6 251 second maximal sprints were found to reduce postprandial TAG concentrations by ~13% the next day

in nine adolescent boys compared with a rest day prior to a postprandial TAG assessment [38]. One noteworthy aspect of this study was the high dropout rate as 5 boys did not complete due to what was described as, 'a failure to tolerate the exercise' [38]. Whilst other researchers have raised concerns of issues of motivation and safety surrounding low-volume supramaximal HIIE [20], in the nine studies described here, only this one [38] reported any dropouts from the HIIE protocol. Moreover, this inability to complete the HIIE protocol contrasts starkly with the earlier Thackray study described in adolescents [41] and the similar protocol used in sedentary women [56].

259

260 Most recently, the acute and chronic effects of HIIE were examined in 45 women with metabolic 261 syndrome [50]. The effect of a single bout of HIIE and 6 weeks of HIIE training was evaluated in 22 262 of the women whilst 23 women were assigned to a non-exercise control group. All HIIE sessions 263 involved 30 second maximal sprints with 4-8 sprints per session. Compared to their baseline 264 evaluation of postprandial TAG a single session of HIIE reduced the total TAG response by 13.1% 265 and after 6 weeks by 9.7%, whilst there was no significant change in postprandial TAG in the control 266 group over the same time. Given that all other studies evaluating the effect of low-volume 267 supramaximal HIIE on postprandial TAG have examined either healthy adolescents or young, healthy 268 adults this work represents an important step by addressing individuals with lipid and metabolic 269 disturbances who are at an increased risk of cardiovascular disease. Interestingly, the findings 270 suggests that, as with continuous aerobic exercise [60], much of the benefit of HIIE on TAG 271 concentrations is from a last bout effect as 6 weeks of training failed to magnify the effect of the 272 single session of HIIE [50].

273

Not all studies have noted significant mean reductions in postprandial TAG the morning after HIIE sessions [36, 37, 55]. Tan and colleagues reported no difference in the TAG response to a single high fat meal in 9 healthy young individuals the morning after four Wingate tests in comparison with a control trial [55]. Of note, in the same study, 20 minutes of cycling at 70% of maximal oxygen uptake also failed to mitigate postprandial TAG. The authors suggested wide inter-individual responses to the interventions as a possible factor for the failure of either exercise session to reduce

TAG concentrations [55]. However, 30 minutes of brisk walking also failed to impact TAG responses in the study by Gabriel and colleagues whilst HIIE was able to induce a substantial reduction [53]. Two other studies have also failed to find changes in postprandial TAG with HIIE [36, 37]. The first found no effect of twenty 6 second maximal sprints on postprandial TAG metabolism when a single high fat test meal was consumed 18.5 hours later [36]. The second found no effect of either five 60 second sprints at 100% of maximal aerobic capacity or ten 15 second sprints at 200% of maximal aerobic capacity on postprandial TAG responses to a test meal given 1 hour later [37].

287

288 A variety of factors should be considered in studies where no effect of HIIE on postprandial TAG was 289 observed [36, 37, 55]. Sample sizes were relatively small, ranging from 9-15 participants per study. 290 However, similar sample sizes were used in six of the studies where TAG concentrations were 291 reduced after supramaximal HIIE [38, 41, 52-54, 56] and studies where aerobic exercise attenuated 292 postprandial TAG concentrations have also used similar numbers [6, 8-11, 13-15]. Inter-individual 293 variance could account for the negative findings and the issue was highlighted in the study by 294 Thackray and colleagues where one-third of participants - 5 out of 15 children - had an increase or no 295 change in TAG concentrations after HIIE compared with control [41]. Apolipoprotein E genotype 296 may partly explain the inter-individual variance as one study found continuous moderate aerobic 297 exercise was effective in attenuating postprandial TAG only in individuals who carried the \varepsilon 2 or \varepsilon 3 298 allele but had no effect on those with the  $\varepsilon 4$  allele [61]. The sprint protocol in two of the studies 299 where no effect was seen on postprandial TAG [36, 37] was modified from the original Wingate 300 protocol but the third study did employ Wingate tests without any effect on TAG concentrations [55]. 301 Moreover, one investigation used both longer and shorter sprints and saw no effect of either on TAG 302 concentrations [37] which contrasts with the significant ~13% reductions in TAG after sixty 8 second 303 sprints [56] or forty 6 second sprints [38] described previously. The test meal is another potential 304 source of variance. High fat test meal responses are reproducible [57, 62] but unlike glucose 305 tolerance tests there is no standardised version despite a recent expert panel recommendation [63]. 306 Nevertheless, all the studies reported gave at least >0.8g of fat/kg of body mass, which is regarded as 307 a high rather than moderate fat load [6, 11, 63]. Time of meal consumption is another factor. One

308 systematic review noted that in more than 40 studies of aerobic or resistance exercise, where a 12-18 309 hour window was used between exercise and consumption of the fat meal, only 3 failed to find an 310 exercise-induced decrease in postprandial TAG [6]. This compared with 6 out of 15 studies which 311 found no effect on postprandial TAG when only a 3 hour window was used [6]. Only a 1 hour break 312 between exercise and meal consumption was used in the study by Canale and colleagues [37] but a 313  $\sim$ 14 and  $\sim$ 18.5 hour window in the other two studies [36, 55] that failed to find a difference with HIIE. 314 Another possibility relates to activity of the enzyme lipoprotein lipase (LPL) which is a suggested 315 likely mechanism to explain decreased postprandial TAG after HIIE sessions [52-54]. Activity of 316 LPL has been noted to peak  $\geq 8$  hours after a bout of aerobic exercise [64]. If the enzyme activity is 317 increased in the same way after HIIE it could explain why a shorter interval between exercise and the 318 test meal was insufficient to reduce TAG in the study by Canale and colleagues [37] but not the other 319 two investigations [36, 55].

320

321 In summary, seven studies have found significant postprandial total TAG reductions of 10-21% after 322 HIIE but comparable findings have not been seen in three recent publications questioning the 323 consistency of HIIE as a mode of exercise for TAG reductions. No single explanation is currently 324 satisfactory to explain the division among studies. Moreover, whilst total HIIE work time in all 325 studies reported ranged from 2-10 minutes the actual total protocol length in most, including rest or 326 low-intensity exercise time, was nearer 25 minutes, not including warm-up or cool-down. Thus, the 327 time saving factor highlighted as a major benefit of this type of exercise is not visible if the exercise 328 needs to be performed five or more times per week for regular benefit [50, 54] to postprandial TAG. 329 The recent study in women with metabolic syndrome has provided evidence that HIIE effects 330 postprandial TAG in individuals at an increased risk of cardiovascular disease. Future research needs 331 to focus more on these individuals who benefit the most from reductions in postprandial TAG 332 achieved with HIIE. The plausibility of using a single extended sprint - as has been done by others in 333 overweight and obese men to examine fat oxidation and insulin sensitivity [39] - might provide a time 334 efficient method which is attractive to these individuals with elevated postprandial TAG.

336

#### 6. Effects of high-volume submaximal interval exercise on postprandial TAG

337 Five studies have examined how high volume submaximal interval exercise sessions influence 338 postprandial TAG concentrations (Table 2) [43-47]. An investigation by Ferreira and colleagues 339 examined expending 500 kcal in running in 3 minute intervals at 115% of the anaerobic threshold 340 with 1.5 minutes recovery [43]. They found a 15% decrease in total postprandial TAG over 4 hours 341 in response to a single high fat meal given 1 hour post-exercise compared with a resting control trial. 342 The extent of the decrease was similar to that produced by continuous running at 85% of the 343 anaerobic threshold (an 18% decrease). In a later study, cycling for 2 minute intervals at 90% of peak 344 oxygen uptake, with recovery periods of 2 minutes at 25% of peak oxygen uptake, decreased 345 postprandial total and incremental TAG concentrations to a large mixed meal by~30% and ~45%, 346 respectively, compared with rest [44]. Moreover, cycling for 1 hour at 50% of peak oxygen uptake, 347 with the same energy expenditure (~660 kcal) as the interval session, only produced an ~25% 348 significant decrease in incremental TAG concentrations; significantly lower than the decrease found 349 with intermittent cycling [44]. These two studies demonstrate that submaximal interval exercise 350 sessions can diminish postprandial TAG to an extent similar to, and possibly greater than, aerobic 351 exercise when energy expenditure is similar. However, one aspect of both studies to highlight is that 352 the total exercise volume (40-42 minutes) is higher than the currently accepted minimum which 353 approximates to 30 minutes over 5 days per week [12]. From this perspective, an early study found 354 that four, 4 minute sprints at 85-95% of maximal heart rate or a work-matched continuous exercise 355 protocol 60-70% of maximal heart rate had no effect on postprandial TAG the next day [45]. Thus, as 356 with aerobic exercise, energy expenditure appears likely to be an important variable determining 357 exercise-induced reductions in TAG during submaximal interval exercise. Rather than any TAG 358 metabolic or time advantage this type of exercise might instead appeal to those individuals who enjoy 359 intermittent work-outs of higher exercise volume.

360

Barrett and colleagues examined the effect of a protocol designed to imitate the demands of field
sports on postprandial TAG. The protocol consisted of four 15 minute blocks, separated by 3 minutes
rest, with each block divided into a continuous period of walking, jogging, cruise running, and

364 sprinting in order to simulate games activity in 12 young males [46]. The cruise section involved 365 running at 70% of maximal oxygen uptake whilst the 15 metre sprint was maximal. In comparison 366 with rest, total TAG concentrations were reduced over 6 hours by 25% and the extent of this reduction 367 was similar to that of continuous walking (19% reduction) at 60% of maximal oxygen uptake with an 368 average energy expenditure of 3.1 MJ in the same subjects [46]. Subsequent investigation in healthy 369 adolescent boys using the same protocol showed similar findings with a 26% reduction after the 370 simulated games activity protocol [47]. These two studies demonstrate that engaging in field and 371 racquet sports or other activities characterised by intermittent periods of high and low intensity work 372 can produce similar effects on postprandial TAG as more traditional continuous aerobic exercise. 373 Such activities have been shown to appeal to certain groups of adults and youth [65, 66].

- 374
- 375

### 7. Mechanisms for TAG reduction with high intensity interval exercise

376 Most TAG is carried in intestinal derived chylomicrons and hepatically-derived very low density 377 lipoproteins (VLDL) and the concentration of TAG in the circulation reflects a balance in the rate of 378 appearance and clearance of these two particles [67]. The primary proposed mechanism for increased 379 TAG clearance with aerobic exercise is an increase in the activity of the enzyme LPL which is 380 expressed on the capillary endothelium of skeletal muscle and has been shown to correlate with 381 changes in TAG [68]. Heavy or prolonged aerobic exercise bouts can substantially increase post-382 heparin plasma LPL activity - an indicator of whole body LPL activity from all tissues [69]. The time 383 course for changes in LPL with exercise is delayed, however, and increases in LPL mRNA levels are 384 reported to peak 4 hours post-exercise whilst LPL mass peaks ≥8 hours after exercise, with both 385 returning to baseline within 24 hours [64]. These facts led to the hypothesis that increased LPL 386 activity is the likely mechanism for reductions in postprandial TAG after HIE [52, 53]. Indirect 387 support for this proposal came from Gabriel and colleagues who found that HIIE had no effect on 388 plasma levels of  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate, a marker of hepatic fatty acid oxidation indicating altered VLDL 389 synthesis [53]. Subsequently, the same group found an increase in LPL dependent TAG breakdown 390 the morning after HIIE, compared with a control trial, which was associated with the reduction in total 391 plasma TAG [54]. If increased LPL activity is responsible for TAG reductions following HIIE it

392 would be surprising. The energy expenditure of low-volume HIIE is well below any threshold 393 associated with increases in LPL activity after aerobic exercise [69]. However, one suggestion is that 394 LPL activation is fibre specific with increases in activity occurring because HIIE recruits fast twitch 395 fibres [54]. Some support for this comes from observations in rats where LPL mRNA levels and mass 396 and LPL enzyme activity were all increased in white but not red hind-limb skeletal muscles after 397 short-term run training [70]. Moreover, as noted early on, the effect of aerobic exercise on 398 postprandial TAG has been shown to be greater than that of a simple energy deficit [15] suggesting 399 that exercise stimulates some factor(s) which influences either the rate of appearance or clearance of 400 TAG-rich lipoprotein particles in the postprandial period. If LPL is that factor, it is possible that HIIE 401 has a greater effect on its activity than aerobic exercise of lower intensity and this would help explain 402 why replacement of the post-exercise energy deficit did not completely mitigate postprandial TAG 403 concentrations in the study by Freese and colleagues [52]. Future studies should investigate this 404 mechanism further using a direct measurement of TAG clearance, such as arterio-venous TAG 405 differences across previously exercised muscle.

406

407 Studies of moderate intensity aerobic activity suggest that reduced hepatic VLDL secretion may be a 408 more important method in postprandial TAG reduction than increased LPL activity and/or mass [67]. 409 However, evidence for a decrease in the appearance of hepatically-derived VLDL as a mechanism for 410 TAG-reduction with HIIE is limited. An increased fasting and steeper postprandial rise in plasma 411 β-hydroxybutyrate was seen after a single session of high volume submaximal interval exercise whilst 412 at the same time total and incremental postprandial TAG were attenuated by ~30% and ~45%, 413 respectively, compared with a no-exercise control trial [44]. However, as previously noted, another 414 study found no change in  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate after low volume HIIE despite postprandial TAG 415 attenuation [53]. Another investigation used stable isotopes to calculate changes in fasting, but not 416 postprandial, VLDL-TAG secretion and clearance rates in 8 healthy sedentary young men after a 417 single bout of HIIE at intensities of 60% and 90% of peak oxygen uptake taken for 32 minutes. They 418 found that fasting VLDL-TAG was reduced 14 hours post-exercise due to an ~21% increase in 419 clearance rate and no change in VLDL-secretion which would suggest increased skeletal muscle LPL

mass and/or activity post-exercise [71]. In summary, most evidence suggests HIIE elicits increased
clearance of postprandial TAG via increased skeletal muscle LPL activity and/or mass at this time.
However, support for this hypothesis comes from single sessions of HIIE and there has been little
direct examination of VLDL secretion and clearance in the postprandial state.

424

### 425 **8.** Conclusions

426 In conclusion, seven studies have found that a single session of low-volume, supramaximal HIIE 427 induced large reductions in postprandial TAG concentrations but three recent works have failed to 428 consistently replicate this. Differences in exercise protocols, inter-individual participant variation, or 429 insufficient time post-exercise for increases in LPL activity may be reasons for the divergent results. 430 Thus, whilst the efficacy of low-volume HIIE to attenuate postprandial TAG has been shown, the 431 variability suggests that a prudent approach should be taken when recommending this type of exercise 432 as an alternative strategy to continuous aerobic exercise in individuals who need to reduce their TAG 433 concentrations. Given there is only one study in individuals with high TAG concentrations [50], 434 future research should examine the potential of supramaximal HIIE to mitigate postprandial TAG in 435 individuals with both monogenic and polygenic hypertriglyceridemia. This would help to diversify 436 and explain individual differences in the TAG lowering response to this type of exercise. High 437 volume submaximal interval exercise is effective in reducing postprandial TAG but it appears to offer 438 no benefit over continuous aerobic exercise in terms of TAG metabolic or time advantage. Future 439 research should examine if submaximal interval exercise can reduce TAG concentrations in line with 440 more realistic and socially acceptable durations of exercise of 30 minutes per day.

441

## 442 Acknowledgements

443 The research was supported by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Diet,

444 Lifestyle & Physical Activity Biomedical Research Unit based at University Hospitals of

Leicester and Loughborough University. The views expressed are those of the authors and

446 not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR or the Department of Health. The authors have no

447	conflic	et of interest to disclose with respect to this work. SB wrote the first version of the manuscript.
448	All aut	thors contributed to the conceptual idea and critically reviewed and edited the manuscript.
449		
450	Refere	ences
451	1.	Zilversmit DB. Atherogenesis: a postprandial phenomenon. Circulation. 1979; 60:473-485.
452	2.	Nordestgaard BG, Varbo A. Triglycerides and cardiovascular disease. Lancet. 2014; 384:626-
453		635.
454	3.	Bansal S, Buring JE, Rifai N, et al. Fasting compared with nonfasting triglycerides and risk of
455		cardiovascular events in women. JAMA. 2007; 298:309-316.
456	4.	Nordestgaard BG, Benn M, Schnohr P, et al. Nonfasting triglycerides and risk of myocardial
457		infarction, ischemic heart disease, and death in men and women. JAMA. 2007; 298:299-308.
458	5.	Hegele RA, Ginsberg HN, Chapman MJ, et al.; European Atherosclerosis Society Consensus
459		Panel. The polygenic nature of hypertriglyceridaemia: implications for definition, diagnosis,
460		and management. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2014; 2:655-666.
461	6.	Peddie MC, Rehrer NJ, Perry TL. Physical activity and postprandial lipidemia: are energy
462		expenditure and lipoprotein lipase activity the real modulators of the positive effect? Prog
463		Lipid Res. 2012; 51:11-22.
464	7.	Cohn JS. Postprandial lipemia: emerging evidence for atherogenicity of remnant lipoproteins.
465		Can J Cardiol. 1998; 14(Suppl B):18B-27B.
466	8.	Katsanos CS. Prescribing aerobic exercise for the regulation of postprandial lipid metabolism:
467		current research and recommendations. Sports Med. 2006; 36:547-560.
468	9.	Maraki MI, Sidossis LS. The latest on the effect of prior exercise on postprandial lipaemia.
469		Sports Med. 2013; 43:463-481.
470	10	Petitt DS, Cureton KJ. Effects of prior exercise on postprandial lipemia: a quantitative review.
471		Metabolism. 2003; 52:418-424.
472	11	. Freese EC, Gist NH, Cureton KJ. Effect of prior exercise on postprandial lipemia: an updated
473		quantitative review. J Appl Physiol. 2014; 116:67-75.

- 474 12. World Health Organization. Global Recommendations on Physical Activity for Health. World
  475 Health Organization 2010. ISBN: 978 92 4 159 997 9.
- 476 13. Tsetsonis NV, Hardman AE. Reduction in postprandial lipemia after walking: influence of
  477 exercise intensity. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 1996; 28:1235-1242.
- 478 14. Gill JM, Herd SL, Hardman AE. Moderate exercise and post-prandial metabolism: issues of
  479 dose-response. J Sports Sci. 2002; 20:961-967.
- 480 15. Gill JM, Hardman AE. Postprandial lipemia: effects of exercise and restriction of energy
  481 intake compared. Am J Clin Nutr. 2000; 71:465-471.
- 482 16. Burton FL, Malkova D, Caslake MJ, et al. Energy replacement attenuates the effects of prior
  483 moderate exercise on postprandial metabolism in overweight/obese men. Int J Obes (Lond).
  484 2008; 32:481-489.
- 485 17. Harrison M, O'Gorman DJ, McCaffrey N, et al. Influence of acute exercise with and without
  486 carbohydrate replacement on postprandial lipid metabolism. J Appl Physiol. 2009; 106:943487 949.
- 488 18. Ministry of Health. National Health Survey 2010 Singapore. Epidemiology and Disease
  489 Control Division, Ministry of Health, Singapore 2010. ISBN:978-981-08-8540-3.
- 490 19. Townsend N, Bhatnagar P, Wickramasinghe K, et al. Physical activity statistics 2012. British
  491 Heart Foundation 2012: London.
- 492 20. Gibala MJ, Little JP. Just HIT it! A time-efficient exercise strategy to improve muscle insulin
  493 sensitivity. J Physiol. 2010; 588:3341-3342.
- 494 21. McKenna MJ, Schmidt TA, Hargreaves M, et al. Sprint training increases human skeletal
  495 muscle Na(+)-K(+)-ATPase concentration and improves K+ regulation. J Appl Physiol. 1993;
  496 75:173-180.
- 497 22. MacDougall JD, Hicks AL, MacDonald JR, et al. Muscle performance and enzymatic
  498 adaptations to sprint interval training. J Appl Physiol. 1998; 84:2138-2142.
- Burgomaster KA, Hughes SC, Heigenhauser GJ, et al. Six sessions of sprint interval training
   increases muscle oxidative potential and cycle endurance capacity in humans. J Appl Physiol.
- 501 2005; 98:1985-1990.

502 24. Gist NH, Fedewa MV, Dishman RK, et al. Sprint interval training effects on aerobic capacity: 503 a systematic review and meta-analysis. Sports Med. 2014; 44:269-279. 504 25. Weston M, Taylor KL, Batterham AM, et al. Effects of low-volume high-intensity interval 505 training (HIT) on fitness in adults: a meta-analysis of controlled and non-controlled trials. 506 Sports Med. 2014; 44:1005-1017. 507 26. Gibala MJ, Little JP, van Essen M, et al. Short-term sprint interval versus traditional 508 endurance training: similar initial adaptations in human skeletal muscle and exercise 509 performance. J Physiol. 2006; 575:901-911. 510 27. Burgomaster KA, Howarth KR, Phillips SM, et al. Similar metabolic adaptations during 511 exercise after low volume sprint interval and traditional endurance training in humans. J 512 Physiol. 2008; 586:151-160. 513 28. Rakobowchuk M, Tanguay S, Burgomaster KA, et al. Sprint interval and traditional 514 endurance training induce similar improvements in peripheral arterial stiffness and flow-515 mediated dilation in healthy humans. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol. 2008; 516 295:R236-R242. 517 29. Babraj JA, Vollaard NB, Keast C, et al. Extremely short duration high intensity interval 518 training substantially improves insulin action in young healthy males. BMC Endocr Disord. 519 2009; 9:3. 520 30. Little JP, Safdar A, Wilkin GP, et al. A practical model of low-volume high-intensity interval 521 training induces mitochondrial biogenesis in human skeletal muscle: potential mechanisms. J 522 Physiol. 2010; 588:1011-1022. 523 31. Whyte LJ, Gill JM, Cathcart AJ. Effect of 2 weeks of sprint interval training on health-related 524 outcomes in sedentary overweight/obese men. Metabolism. 2010; 59:1421-1428. 525 32. Corte de Araujo AC, Roschel H, Picanço AR, et al. Similar health benefits of endurance and 526 high-intensity interval training in obese children. PLoS One. 2012; 7(8):e42747. 527 33. Cocks M, Shaw CS, Shepherd SO, et al. Sprint interval and endurance training are equally 528 effective in increasing muscle microvascular density and eNOS content in sedentary males. J 529 Physiol. 2013; 591:641-656.

530	34.	Shepherd SO, Cocks M, Tipton KD, et al. Sprint interval and traditional endurance training
531		increase net intramuscular triglyceride breakdown and expression of perilipin 2 and 5. J
532		Physiol. 2013; 591:657-675.
533	35.	Adamson SB, Lorimer R, Cobley JN, et al. Extremely short-duration high-intensity training
534		substantially improves the physical function and self-reported health status of elderly adults. J
535		Am Geriatr Soc. 2014; 62:1380-1381.
536	36.	Allen E, Gray P, Kollias-Pearson A, et al. The effect of short-duration sprint interval exercise
537		on plasma postprandial triacylglycerol levels in young men. J Sports Sci. 2014; 32:911-916.
538	37.	Canale RE, Farney TM, McCarthy CG, et al. Influence of acute exercise of varying intensity
539		and duration on postprandial oxidative stress. Eur J Appl Physiol. 2014; 114:1913-1924.
540	38.	Sedgwick MJ, Morris JG, Nevill ME, et al. Effect of repeated sprints on postprandial
541		endothelial function and triacylglycerol concentrations in adolescent boys. J Sports Sci. 2014
542		Oct 30:1-11. [Epub ahead of print]
543	39.	Whyte LJ, Ferguson C, Wilson J, et al. Effects of single bout of very high-intensity exercise
544		on metabolic health biomarkers in overweight/obese sedentary men. Metabolism. 2013;
545		62:212-219.
546	40.	Macpherson RE, Hazell TJ, Olver TD, et al. Run sprint interval training improves aerobic
547		performance but not maximal cardiac output. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2011; 43:115-122.
548	41.	Thackray AE, Barrett LA, Tolfrey K. Acute high-intensity interval running reduces
549		postprandial lipemia in boys. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2013; 45:1277-1284.
550	42.	Currie KD, Dubberley JB, McKelvie RS, et al. Low-volume, high-intensity interval training
551		in patients with CAD. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2013; 45:1436-1442.
552	43.	Ferreira AP, Ferreira CB, Souza VC, et al. The influence of intense intermittent versus
553		moderate continuous exercise on postprandial lipemia. Clinics (Sao Paulo). 2011; 66:535-541.
554	44.	Trombold JR, Christmas KM, Machin DR, et al. Acute high-intensity endurance exercise is
555		more effective than moderate-intensity exercise for attenuation of postprandial triglyceride
556		elevation. J Appl Physiol. 2013; 114:792-800.

557	45.	Tyldum GA, Schjerve IE, Tjønna AE, et al. Endothelial dysfunction induced by post-prandial
558		lipemia: complete protection afforded by high-intensity aerobic interval exercise. J Am Coll
559		Cardiol. 2009; 53:200-206.
560	46.	Barrett LA, Morris JG, Stensel DJ, et al. Effects of intermittent games activity on postprandial
561		lipemia in young adults. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2006; 38:1282-1287.
562	47.	Barrett LA, Morris JG, Stensel DJ, et al. Exercise and postprandial plasma triacylglycerol
563		concentrations in healthy adolescent boys. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2007; 39:116-122.
564	48.	U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory
565		Committee Report, 2008. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2008. Washington
566		DC, U.S.
567	49.	Burns SF, Oo HH, Tran AT. Effect of sprint interval exercise on postexercise metabolism and
568		blood pressure in adolescents. Int J Sport Nutr Exerc Metab. 2012; 22:47-54.
569	50.	Freese EC, Gist NH, Acitelli RM, et al. Acute and chronic effects of sprint interval exercise
570		on postprandial lipemia in women at-risk for the metabolic syndrome. J Appl Physiol. 2015
571		Jan 15:jap.00380.2014. doi: 10.1152/japplphysiol.00380.2014. [Epub ahead of print]
572	51.	Miyashita M, Burns SF, Stensel DJ. An update on accumulating exercise and postprandial
573		lipaemia: translating theory into practice. J Prev Med Public Health. 2013; 46 Suppl 1:S3-
574		S11.
575	52.	Freese EC, Levine AS, Chapman DP, et al. Effects of acute sprint interval cycling and energy
576		replacement on postprandial lipemia. J Appl Physiol. 2011; 111:1584-1589.
577	53.	Gabriel B, Ratkevicius A, Gray P, et al. High-intensity exercise attenuates postprandial
578		lipaemia and markers of oxidative stress. Clin Sci (Lond). 2012; 123:313-321.
579	54.	Gabriel BM, Pugh J, Pruneta-Deloche V, et al. The effect of high intensity interval exercise
580		on postprandial triacylglycerol and leukocyte activationmonitored for 48 h post exercise.
581		PLoS One. 2013; 8:e82669.
582	55.	Tan MS, Mok A, Yap MC, et al. Effect of sprint interval versus continuous cycling on
583		postprandial lipaemia. J Sports Sci. 2013; 31:989-995.

- 584 56. Tan M, Chan Moy Fat R, Boutcher YN, et al. Effect of high-intensity intermittent exercise on
  585 postprandial plasma triacylglycerol in sedentary young women. Int J Sport Nutr Exerc Metab.
  586 2014; 24:110-118.
- 587 57. Weiss EP, Fields DA, Mittendorfer B, et al. Reproducibility of postprandial lipemia tests and
  588 validity of an abbreviated 4-hour test. Metabolism. 2008; 57:1479-1485.
- 589 58. Maraki M, Aggelopoulou N, Christodoulou N, et al. Validity of abbreviated oral fat tolerance
  590 tests for assessing postprandial lipemia. Clin Nutr. 2011; 30:852-857.
- 59. Crisp NA, Fournier PA, Licari MK, et al. Optimising sprint interval exercise to maximise
  592 energy expenditure and enjoyment in overweight boys. Appl Physiol Nutr Metab. 2012;
- **593 37:1222-1231**.
- 594 60. Herd SL, Hardman AE, Boobis LH, et al. The effect of 13 weeks of running training followed
  595 by 9 d of detraining on postprandial lipaemia. Br J Nutr. 1998; 80:57-66.
- 596 61. Ferreira AP, Ferreira CB, Brito CJ, et al. The effect of aerobic exercise intensity on
  597 attenuation of postprandial lipemia is dependent on apolipoprotein E genotype.
- 598 Atherosclerosis. 2013; 229:139-144.
- 62. Gill JM, Malkova D, Hardman AE. Reproducibility of an oral fat tolerance test is influenced
  by phase of menstrual cycle. Horm Metab Res. 2005; 37:336-341.
- 601 63. Kolovou GD, Mikhailidis DP, Kovar J, et al. Assessment and clinical relevance of non-fasting
  602 and postprandial triglycerides: an expert panel statement. Curr Vasc Pharmacol. 2011; 9:258603 270.
- 604 64. Seip RL, Mair K, Cole TG, et al. Induction of human skeletal muscle lipoprotein lipase gene
  605 expression by short-term exercise is transient. Am J Physiol. 1997; 272:E255-E261.
- 606 65. Hunt K, Wyke S, Gray CM, et al. A gender-sensitised weight loss and healthy living
- programme for overweight and obese men delivered by Scottish Premier League football
  clubs (FFIT): a pragmatic randomised controlled trial. Lancet. 2014; 383:1211-1221.
- 609 66. Ratel S, Lazaar N, Dore E, et al. High-intensity intermittent activities at school: controversies
  610 and facts. J Sports Med Phys Fitness. 2004; 44:272-280.

611	67. Malkova D, Gill JM. Effects of exercise on postprandial lipoprotein metabolism. Future
612	Lipidol. 2006; 1:743-755.
613	68. Seip RL, Angelopoulos TJ, Semenkovich CF. Exercise induces human lipoprotein lipase gene
614	expression in skeletal muscle but not adipose tissue. Am J Physiol. 1995; 268:E229-E236.
615	69. Ferguson MA, Alderson NL, Trost SG, et al. Effects of four different single exercise sessions
616	on lipids, lipoproteins, and lipoprotein lipase. J Appl Physiol. 1998; 85:1169-1174.
617	70. Hamilton MT, Etienne J, McClure WC, et al. Role of local contractile activity and muscle
618	fiber type on LPL regulation during exercise. Am J Physiol. 1998; 275:E1016-E1022.
619	71. Bellou E, Magkos F, Kouka T, et al. Effect of high-intensity interval exercise on basal
620	triglyceride metabolism in non-obese men. Appl Physiol Nutr Metab. 2013; 38:823-829.
621	

Reference	n	Age (y)		Study design	Test meal energy	Time from	Main findings
	Sex				and fat content	exercise cessation	
						to test meal	
						consumption (h)	
Allen et	15M	25 (4)	i.	Twenty 6-s maximal	Standardised:	18.5	TAG AUC:
al 2014				cycle sprints	5.3 MJ		i. Sprints: 7.26 (2.49) mmol·1 <sup>-1</sup> ·4h <sup>-1</sup>
[36]			ii.	Rest (control)	64% energy fat		ii. Rest: 7.67 (2.37) mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> ·4h <sup>-1</sup>
							P>0.05 between trials
Canale et	12M	23.7 (1.1)	i.	Five 60-s cycle sprints	51 kJ/kg bm	1.0	No interaction or condition effect noted
al 2014				at 100% of maximal	0.8 g fat/kg bm		among trials, both P>0.05
[37]				capacity			
			ii.	Ten 15-s cycle sprints			
				at 200% of maximal			
				capacity			
			iii.	60-min continuous			
				cycling at 70% of			
				HRR			

**Table 1.** Studies examining the effect of low-volume supramaximal high intensity interval exercise on postprandial triacylglycerol.

			iv.	Rest (control)			
Sedgwick	9M	13.1 (0.6)	i.	Forty 6-s maximal	Breakfast:	16	TAG AUC:
et al 2014				cycle sprints	93 kJ/kg bm		Sprints: 8.65 (0.97) mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> ·6.5h <sup>-1</sup>
[38]			ii.	Rest (control)	1.5 g fat/ kg bm		Rest: 9.92 (1.16) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·6.5h <sup>-1</sup>
					Lunch:		P=0.023 between trials
					85 kJ/kg bm		Effect size = $0.40$
					1.1 g fat/ kg bm		
Thackray	15M	11.8 (0.4)	i.	Ten 1-min running	Breakfast:	15.5	TAG AUC:
et al 2013				intervals at 100%	93 kJ/kg bm		Sprints: 5.2 (1.1) mmol·1 <sup>-1</sup> ·6.5h <sup>-1</sup>
[41]				MAS	1.5 g fat/ kg bm		Rest: 5.8 (1.5) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·6.5h <sup>-1</sup>
			ii.	Rest (control)	Lunch:		Effect size = $0.50$
					86 kJ/kg bm		
					1.1 g fat/ kg bm		
Freese et	22F	52.0 (10.6)	i.	Single session of four	84 kJ/kg ffm	14	i. 13.1% reduction in TAG AUC after
al 2011				30-s maximal cycle	1.6 g fat/ kg ffm		single sprint session, P<0.05 vs. rest
[50]				sprints			Effect size = $0.32$
			ii.	6 weeks of four to			ii. 9.7% reduction in TAG AUC after 6
				eight 30-s maximal			weeks of sprint training, P<0.05 vs.

				cycle sprints for 3			rest	
				bouts/week			Effect size $= 0$ .	23
			iii.	Rest (control)				
Freese et	6M	22.0 (3.2)	i.	Four 30-s maximal	68 kJ/kg bm	14	i. 21% reduction	n in TAG AUC after
al 2011	6F	20.8 (0.8)		cycle sprints	1.2 g fat/ kg bm		sprints in ener	rgy deficit, P=0.006
[52]			ii.	Four 30-s maximal			vs. rest	
				cycle sprints with			ii. 10% reduction	n in TAG AUC after
				energy replacement			sprints in ener	rgy balance, P=0.044
				post-exercise			vs. rest	
			iii.	Rest (control)			iii. 12% reduction	n in TAG AUC after
							sprints in ener	rgy deficit vs energy
							balance, P=0.	032
Gabriel et	9M	24 (3)	i.	Five 30-s maximal	Two identical	18-21	TAG AUC:	
al 2012				cycle sprints	meals 3 hours		i. Sprints: 14.13 (	(2.83) mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> ·7h <sup>-1</sup>
[53]			ii.	30 min continuous	apart:		ii. Walking: 16.33	$(3.51) \text{ mmol} \cdot 1^{-1} \cdot 7\text{h}^{-1}$
				walking at 6.7 (0.2)	46 kJ/kg bm		iii. Rest: 17.18 (3.9	$(92) \text{ mmol} \cdot l^{-1} \cdot 7h^{-1}$
				km/h	0.7 g fat/ kg bm		P=0.056 sprint vs.	rest
			iii.	Rest (control)			P>0.05 walking vs.	rest

					P>0.05 sprints vs. walking
Gabriel et	8M 25(4)	i. Five 30-s maximal	Two identical	i. 19-22	TAG AUC Day 2 (19-22 h):
al 2013		cycle sprints	meals 3 hours	ii. 43-46	i. Sprints: 7.46 (1.53) mmol· $l^{-1}$ ·7 $h^{-1}$
[54]		ii. Rest (control)	apart:		ii. Rest: 9.47 (3.04) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·7h <sup>-1</sup>
			46 kJ/kg bm		P<0.05 between trials
			0.7 g fat/ kg bm		TG AUC Day 3 (43-46 h):
					i. Sprints: 9.05 (0.92) mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> ·7h <sup>-1</sup>
					ii. Rest: 9.36 (1.07) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·7h <sup>-1</sup>
					P>0.05 between trials
Tan et al	5M 22.9 (2.2)	i. Four 30-s maximal	56 kJ/kg bm	14	TAG AUC:
2013	4F	cycle sprints	1.11 g fat/ kg bm		i. Sprints: 9.5 (3.5) mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> ·6h <sup>-1</sup>
[55]		ii. 20-min continuous			ii. Continuous: 8.6 (3.1) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·6h <sup>-1</sup>
		cycling at 70% of			iii. Rest: 9.3 (1.9) mmol· $1^{-1}$ ·6h <sup>-1</sup>
		maximal oxygen			No difference among trials, P>0.05
		uptake			
		iii. Rest (control)			
Tan et al	12 F 21.3 (2.1)	i. Sixty 8-s cycle sprints	Standardised:	13.5	TAG AUC:
2014		ii. Rest (control)	4.17 MJ		i. Sprints: 5.84 (1.08) mmol·1 <sup>-1</sup> ·4h <sup>-1</sup>

98 g fat

ii. Rest: 6.71 (1.63)  $\text{mmol} \cdot l^{-1} \cdot 4h^{-1}$ 

P<0.05 between trials

Reported values for all studies are mean (SD)

M, male; F, female; HRR, heart rate reserve; MAS, maximal aerobic speed; bm, body mass; ffm, fat free mass; TAG, triacylglycerol; AUC, total

area under the concentration versus time curve.

Reference	n	Age (y)		Study design	Test meal energy	Time from	Main findings
	Sex				and fat content	exercise	
						cessation to test	
						meal	
						consumption	
						(h)	
Ferreira et al	20M	21.5 (3.5)	i.	3-min interval sprint	50 kJ/kg bm	0.5	TAG AUC:
2011				runs at 115% of AT	1.0 g fat/ kg bm		i. Sprints: 9.49 (3.64) mmol·1 <sup>-1</sup> ·4h <sup>-1</sup>
[43]				until 500 kcal			ii. Continuous: 9.16 (3.05) mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> ·4h <sup>-1</sup>
			ii.	Continuous running at			iii. Rest: 11.22 (4.38) mmol· $l^{-1}$ ·4 $h^{-1}$
				85% of AT until 500			Sprints & continuous P<0.05 vs. rest
				kcal			
			iii.	Rest (control)			
Trombold et	6M	25.0 (2.9)	i.	Interval exercise: 2	67 kJ/kg bm	12	i. Mean TAG AUC after interval
al 2013				min cycling at 90%	1.02 g fat/ kg bm		exercise 69.4 (17.1) % of rest,
[44]				peak oxygen uptake			P=0.021 vs. rest
				followed by 2 min at			ii. Mean TAG AUC after continuous

**Table 2.** Studies examining the effect of high-volume submaximal interval exercise on postprandial triacylglycerol.

				25% peak oxygen			exercise 81.1 (16.0)% of rest,
				uptake; isoenergetic to			P=0.102 vs. rest
				continuous cycling			iii. No difference in TAG AUC after
			ii.	Continuous cycling at			interval and continuous cycling
				50% peak oxygen			(P=0.276)
				uptake for 60 minutes			
			iii.	Rest (control)			
Tyldum et al	8M	$42 \pm 4$	i.	Four 4-min sprints at	Standardised:	16-18	No significant difference among trials,
2009		(mean ± SE)		85-95% of HRmax	3.8 MJ		P>0.05
[45]				isoenergetic to	48.3 g fat		
				continuous exercise			
			ii.	Continuous exercise at			
				60-70 HRmax			
			iii.	Rest (control)			
Barrett et al	12M	$21.1\pm0.4$	i.	Four blocks of interval	69 kJ/kg bm	16	TAG AUC:
2006		(mean ± SE)		exercise of walk,	1.25 g fat/ kg bm		i. Interval: 7.41 $\pm$ 0.61 mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> ·6h <sup>-1</sup>
[46]				sprint, cruise and jog <sup>a</sup>			ii. Continuous: $8.02 \pm 0.85 \text{ mmol} \cdot 1^{-1} \cdot 6h^{-1}$
			ii.	Four 15-min blocks of			iii. Rest: $9.85 \pm 0.77 \text{ mmol} \cdot 1^{-1} \cdot 6h^{-1}$

	continuous uphill		P=0.001 interval vs. rest
	walking at 60% of		P=0.028 continuous vs. rest
	maximal oxygen		(mean ± SE)
	uptake		
	iii. Rest (control)		
Barrett et al 19M $15.4 \pm 0.1$	9 boys: 69 kJ/kg bm	16	TAG AUC:
2007 (mean ± SE)	i. Four blocks of interval 1.25 g fat/ kg bm		i. Interval: $6.92 \pm 0.79 \text{ mmol} \cdot 1^{-1} \cdot 6h^{-1}$
[47]	exercise of walk,		ii. Rest: $9.38 \pm 1.25 \text{ mmol} \cdot 1^{-1} \cdot 6h^{-1}$
	sprint, cruise and jog <sup>a</sup>		P=0.002 interval vs. rest
	ii. Rest (control)		i. Continuous: $7.26 \pm 0.82 \text{ mmol} \cdot 1^{-1} \cdot 6h^{-1}$
	10 boys:		ii. Rest: $8.39 \pm 0.75 \text{ mmol} \cdot 1^{-1} \cdot 6h^{-1}$
	i. Four 15-min blocks of		P=0.050 continuous vs. rest
	continuous uphill		(mean ± SE)
	walking at 60% of		
	maximal oxygen		
	uptake		
	ii. Rest (control)		

<sup>a</sup>Protocol is Loughborough Intermittent Shuttle Test (LIST)

Reported values for are mean (SD) excepted where stated

M, male; HRmax, maximal heart rate; bm, body mass; SE, standard error; TAG, triacylglycerol; AUC, area under the concentration versus time curve; AT, anaerobic threshold.