



Plyometric exercise combined with high-intensity interval training improves metabolic abnormalities in young obese females more so than interval training alone

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Keyword:	obese children, intermittent exercise, strength training program, lean body mass, adipocytokines

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1 **Plyometric exercise combined with high-intensity interval training improves metabolic**
2 **abnormalities in young obese females more so than interval training alone**

3
4 **Running title:** Plyometric exercises plus high-intensity interval training and obesity

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26

27 **Abstract**

28 The aim of this study was to compare the effects of 12 weeks of high intensity interval
29 training (HIIT) vs plyometric exercise combined with HIIT (P+HIIT) on anthropometric,
30 biochemical and physical fitness data in young obese females. Sixty-eight participants (age:
31 16.6 ± 1.3 y, body mass: 82.8 ± 5.0 kg, body fat: $39.4 \pm 3.3\%$, body mass index Z-score: 2.9 ± 0.4)
32 were assigned to one of three groups: HIIT (2 blocks per session of 6-8 bouts of 30-s runs at
33 100% velocity at peak oxygen uptake: $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$, with 30-s active recovery between bouts at
34 50% $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$; $n=23$), P+HIIT (2 blocks per session of 3 different 15-s plyometric exercises
35 with 15-s passive recoveries, totaling 2 min for each plyometric exercise + the same HIIT
36 program; $n=26$) or control (no exercise; $n=19$). Anthropometric (body mass, body mass index
37 Z-score, body fat, lean body mass and waist circumference), biochemical (plasma glucose,
38 insulin, leptin and adiponectin concentrations, leptin/adiponectin ratio and homeostasis model
39 assessment-insulin resistance: HOMA-IR), physical fitness (peak oxygen uptake, $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$,
40 squat jump and countermovement jump performances), and energy intake data were collected.
41 Both training programs improved the anthropometric, biochemical and physical fitness
42 variables. However, the P+HIIT program induced greater improvements than the HIIT
43 program in lean body mass ($+3.0 \pm 1.7\%$), plasma glucose and leptin concentrations ($-$
44 $11.0 \pm 4.7\%$ and $-23.8 \pm 5.8\%$, respectively), plasma leptin/adiponectin ratio ($-40.9 \pm 10.9\%$),
45 HOMA-IR ($-37.3 \pm 6.2\%$) and squat jump performance ($22.2 \pm 7.5\%$). Taken together, these
46 findings suggest that adding plyometric exercises to a HIIT program may be more beneficial
47 than only HIIT in obese female adolescents.

48

49 **Keywords:** obese children, intermittent exercise, strength training program, lean body mass,
50 adipocytokines.

51

52 **Introduction**

53 The rising prevalence of adulthood overweight and obesity is a risk factor for many chronic
54 diseases and death (Zhou 2002). In addition, childhood and adolescent obesity have reached
55 unprecedented levels (Lobstein et al. 2015), and studies show that obese children and
56 adolescents are more likely to become obese adults (Serdula et al. 1993; Wotaker et al. 1997).
57 The prevention and treatment of obesity in young people is therefore crucial.

58

59 Several strategies have been recommended to treat obesity. One of the commonest strategies
60 is regular physical exercise. However, as Boutcher (2011) pointed out, most exercise
61 recommendations to induce weight loss have focused on steady-state exercise (or continuous
62 exercise). Yet the beneficial effects of this type of exercise are often disappointing over the
63 long run because of poor program adherence. Indeed, the monotony of this type of exercise
64 seems to be an obstacle to breaking the vicious circle of the sedentary lifestyle (Coquart et al.
65 2008). Other types of exercise have therefore been proposed, like interval training (*i.e.*,
66 exercise during which the intensity varies regularly) (Coquart et al. 2008; Racil et al. 2015),
67 which obese patients reported as being less difficult than steady-state exercise (Coquart et al.
68 2008). Moreover, its beneficial effects on anthropometric, physiological and physical fitness
69 variables in obese adults were demonstrated (Coquart et al. 2008). More recently, Racil et al.
70 (2013) compared the effects of moderate- vs high-intensity interval training (HIIT) on the
71 anthropometric, biochemical and physical fitness variables in obese female adolescents. Their
72 results indicated that both interval training programs had numerous beneficial effects in this
73 age group, although anthropometric (*i.e.*, body fat and body mass index Z-score: BMI Z-
74 score) and biological (*i.e.*, total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol and insulin
75 concentrations) improvements were significantly better with HIIT. Therefore, HIIT can be
76 recommended for young (Racil et al. 2013) and adult obese populations (Paoli et al. 2013).

77 On the other hand, plyometric is a type of training where muscles undergo a rapid elongation
78 followed by an immediate shortening (stretch-shortening contraction), utilizing the elastic
79 energy stored during the stretching phase (Cavagna, 1977). It has been demonstrated that
80 explosive-type resistance training is efficient in improving vertical jump and has been shown
81 to improve muscle strength (Mcbride et al. 2002).

82 Therefore, plyometric exercise may be considered an important component of exercise
83 programs for the obese. Russell et al. (2014) recently examined the effects of a resistance
84 training program including plyometric exercises on fasting plasma glucose concentration. The
85 results showed a significant decrease in glucose concentration and increased strength, which
86 were inversely correlated ($P \leq 0.05$; $r = -0.52$). Moreover, Shabi et al. (2006) reported that
87 male adolescents with high obesity risk were able to significantly increase insulin sensitivity
88 after 16 weeks of resistance training. These authors suggested indeed that the qualitative
89 changes in skeletal muscle have contributed to this enhancement. Further, it appears that the
90 impact of resistance training on muscle mass and strength in both young and older individuals
91 is more pronounced with high training intensities (Fielding, 1995), which can result
92 significant effects on insulin sensitivity (Miller et al. 1994; Ryan et al. 1996).

93 According to the previous studies, it has been indicated that muscle growth largely explain the
94 disparity between sexes, especially for absolute measures of muscular strength and power
95 (Neu et al. 2002; O'Brien et al. 2009). In this context, it is interesting to note that the sex-
96 related differences in muscular strength are more evident as children enter adolescence, with
97 males consistently outperforming females (O'Brien et al. 2010). However, to the best of the
98 authors' knowledge, no study has yet examined the effects of plyometric exercise combined
99 with HIIT (*i.e.*, P+HIIT) in the young obese population.

100

101 The adipocytokines, mainly leptin and adiponectin, are biologically active proteins that are
102 significantly correlated (negatively for adiponectin) with the body mass index percentile in
103 children (Chi-Jen et al. 2015). Moreover, leptin and adiponectin have been associated with
104 insulin resistance (Yamamoto et al. 2002), which is frequently observed in obese patients.
105 HIIT was demonstrated to significantly decrease plasma leptin concentration (Sartor et al.
106 2010) and increase plasma adiponectin concentration (Racil et al. 2013). However, no study
107 has yet compared HIIT with P+HIIT to determine which would be the optimal exercise
108 protocol to beneficially affect adipocytokines in the obese population. Therefore, the main
109 aim of the present study was to analyze the effects of HIIT and P+HIIT on anthropometric,
110 biochemical and physical fitness variables in obese female adolescents.

111 We hypothesized that the participants in the P+HIIT program would exhibit significantly
112 greater insulin sensitivity which decreases the plasma glucose concentration compared with
113 HIIT program.

114

115 **Materials and methods**

116

117 ***Participants***

118 Seventy-five obese female adolescents, recruited from five secondary schools of the same
119 region, volunteered to take part in this study. All participants were classified according to
120 BMI which was calculated in the standard way, using the algorithm provided by the Centers
121 for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Firstly, BMI was calculated from following
122 equation: $\text{BMI (in kg.m}^{-2}\text{)} = \text{body mass (in kg)} \div \text{height}^2 \text{ (in m)}$. Then, the BMI scores were
123 transformed to produce age- and sex-adjusted BMI percentiles using the CDC growth chart.
124 None of the participants was involved in systematic exercise training at the time of data
125 collection. Prior to data collection, all participants and parents provided written informed

126 consent in accordance with the international ethical standards and the 1964 Helsinki
127 Declaration and its later amendments. This study was approved by the local research ethics
128 committee.

129

130 *Anthropometric measures*

131 During a preliminary session, the height of each participant was measured using a wall
132 stadiometer, and body mass and percentages of body fat and lean body mass were assessed
133 with a calibrated bioelectrical impedance scale (TBF-300, Tanita[®], Tokyo, Japan). As
134 recommended for children and adolescents (Rolland-Cachera et al. 1991), BMI Z-scores were
135 calculated. Waist circumference was measured at the mid-point between the bottom of the rib
136 cage and the iliac crest. All measurements were conducted on the same morning between 8:30
137 a.m. and 12:30 p.m. by the same evaluator.

138

139 *Biochemical analysis*

140 Twelve-hour fasting blood samples were taken from an antecubital vein before the
141 intervention program; between 7:00 and 9:00 a.m. Samples were collected and then
142 centrifuged for 15 min at 3000 rpm. Plasma samples were stored at -80°C until assayed.
143 Plasma glucose concentration was measured by the hexokinase method using an automated
144 device (Architect c8000, Abbott[®], Quebec, Canada). Plasma insulin concentrations were
145 measured by radioimmunoassay kits (Immunotech A, Beckman Coulter Company[®],
146 Marseille, France). Insulin resistance was assessed using the homeostasis model assessment-
147 insulin resistance (HOMA-IR), computed as follows:

$$148 \text{HOMA-IR} = [\text{fasting insulin } (\mu\text{U}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}) \times \text{fasting glucose } (\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1})] \div 22.5$$

149 Plasma leptin and adiponectin were evaluated in duplicate runs using an enzyme-
150 linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Quantikine: human total adiponectin/acrp 30

151 immunoassay and human leptin immunoassay). From these plasma concentrations, the
152 adiponectin/leptin ratio was also calculated. This ratio is important since it has been proposed
153 as biological and potential index of insulin sensitivity during growth (Koebnick et al. 2007).

154

155 *Physical fitness evaluation*

156 Before the intervention period, all participants performed a graded exercise test until
157 exhaustion (Cazorla, 1990). This maximal test was carried out on 200-m outdoor track
158 calibrated with cones. The test starts at a running speed of 8.5 km.h⁻¹ and increases by 0.5
159 km.h⁻¹ every minute until exhaustion. During the test, respiratory gas exchange was measured
160 breath-by-breath using a calibrated portable telemetry system (K₄b², Cosmed[®], Rome, Italy).
161 Moreover, heart rate was monitored using a heart rate monitor (S-610, Polar[®], Kempele,
162 Finland). Exhaustion was verified based on the following criteria: 1) a plateau in oxygen
163 uptake, 2) respiratory exchange ratio ≥ 1.1 , 3) peak heart rate ± 10 bpm of the predicted
164 maximal heart rate (220 - age), and 4) apparent voluntary exhaustion. At least three of the
165 four criteria were met or the test was repeated. Once exhaustion was confirmed, peak oxygen
166 uptake ($\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$) and velocity at $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ (*i.e.*, $v\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$) were identified.

167

168 The squat jump (SJ) and countermovement jump (CMJ) were performed using an infrared
169 jump system (Optojump, Microgate[®], Bolzano, Italy) interfaced with a microcomputer.
170 Participants were asked to perform the SJ with feet parallel and shoulder-width apart, good
171 balance in an upright position with the trunk remaining as vertical as possible, and hands on
172 the hips throughout the test with a knee angle around 90°. The trial was not considered valid if
173 any movement was perceived with the increased knee flexion at the start of the jump. For the
174 CMJ, participants started from an upright standing position and made a preliminary
175 downward movement by flexing the knees and hips, with a knee angle around 90° at the end

176 of the countermovement. The trial was not considered valid if the knees did not bend quickly
177 and to the maximum. The best of three trials was recorded for SJ and CMJ.

178

179 *Energy intake*

180 All participants completed a 4-day dietary questionnaire (3 weekdays and 1 weekend day) in
181 the week prior to the intervention program. The questionnaire responses were then analyzed
182 with Bilnut 2.01 software (Nutrisoft[®], Cerelles, France) to determine energy intake (kcal.day⁻¹).
183

184

185 *Intervention protocol*

186 After the evaluations of baseline anthropometric, biochemical, physical fitness and energy
187 intake data, the participants were randomly assigned to one of the three following groups:
188 high-intensity interval training only (HIIT group, $n = 23$), combined plyometric exercise and
189 high-intensity interval training (P+HIIT group, $n = 26$), or no-exercise control ($n = 19$).

190

191 The high-intensity interval exercises in both training groups (*i.e.*, HIIT and P+HIIT) were
192 composed of two blocks of six (in the first 4 weeks) or eight bouts of 30-s runs at 100%
193 velocity at $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ ($v\dot{V}O_{2peak}$) with 30 s of active recovery between bouts at 50% $v\dot{V}O_{2peak}$, on
194 an 200-m outdoor track. The two blocks were separated by a 4-min passive recovery period.
195 The exercise intensities were increased by 5% $v\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ at the start of each consecutive 4-
196 week period. The training sessions were held 3 days per week for 12 weeks (*i.e.*, Monday,
197 Wednesday and Friday).

198

199 In the P+HIIT group, the high-intensity interval exercises were preceded by plyometric
200 exercises. Those exercises were based on findings from previous investigations (Chu et al.

201 2006; Myer et al. 2005). Two blocks of three different plyometric exercises : weeks 1-4:
202 double-leg jump, medicine ball overhead throw, and medicine ball single-leg dip; weeks 5-8:
203 hurdle hops, zig-zag jump drill, and medicine ball backward throw; weeks 9-12: single-leg
204 cone hops, single-leg zig-zag drill, and medicine ball partner push pass were performed in
205 each training session. It is worth noting that participants performed basic plyometric
206 movements in the first training period (weeks 1-4), which could provide the occasion to
207 participants to gain confidence in their abilities before progressing to more advanced drills at
208 second (weeks 5-8) and at the third training periods (weeks 9-12) (Myer et al. 2005). Each
209 plyometric exercise was maintained for 2 min (15 s of plyometric exercise vs 15 s of passive
210 recovery). Between each block and between each new exercise, the passive recovery periods
211 lasted 1 min and 30 s, respectively.

212 All training sessions (HIIT and P+HIIT) started with a standardized warm-up (*i.e.*, 10 min of
213 jogging at 50% $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ and then 5 min of dynamic stretching exercises and 5 accelerations
214 over 20 m with 1 min of recovery between) and ended with a cool-down at 50% $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ for
215 10 min followed by 5 min of static stretching. Throughout the study period and prior to each
216 test commencement, an experienced physical education teacher demonstrated the proper
217 exercise technique. All participants were consistently encouraged to maintain proper
218 technique performance for as long as possible.

219

220 ***General information***

221 Whatever the group, all participants were instructed to maintain their usual physical activity
222 level and their usual diet. After the 12-week intervention period, all anthropometric,
223 biochemical, physical fitness and energy intake data were collected again, in the same
224 conditions and by the same evaluators.

225

226 *Statistical analysis*

227 Data are reported as mean and standard deviation. The Shapiro-Wilk test was applied to
228 examine normality, whereas homogeneity of variance was assessed using Levene's test. Once
229 the assumption of normality was confirmed, parametric tests were performed. Data were
230 analyzed using a two-way analysis of variance with repeated measures (3 groups: HIIT vs
231 P+HIIT vs control \times 2 times: before vs after the intervention program). Whenever significant
232 differences in values occurred, a pairwise multiple comparisons test was performed using a
233 Bonferroni *post-hoc* test.

234 Percentage changes in the variables from pre- to post-intervention were calculated, and a one-
235 way ANOVA was conducted to identify the differences between groups. When data were not
236 normally distributed, the nonparametric Kruskal–Wallis test was used.

237 All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 20.0 (SPSS[®], Chicago, IL, USA).

238 The level of statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

239

240 **Results**

241 During the 12 weeks intervention period no injuries were reported but seven subjects were
242 unable to complete the training program or achieve all the tests at post-intervention for
243 personal reasons: two from (HIIT group), one from (P+HIIT group) and four from control
244 group, and their data are thus excluded from all analyses. Therefore, 68 obese female
245 adolescents (age: 16.6 ± 1.3 y, height: 1.63 ± 0.05 m, body mass: 82.8 ± 5.0 kg, body fat: 39.4
246 $\pm 3.3\%$, BMI Z-score: 2.9 ± 0.4) have fully completed the current study. The values of all
247 anthropometric, biochemical, and physical fitness variables and energy intake, measured
248 before and after the intervention period, are presented in Table 1. Moreover, the percentage
249 changes in these data are presented in Table 2.

250 Significant decreases were noted in body mass, BMI Z-score, body fat and waist
251 circumference in both training groups (*i.e.*, HIIT and P+HIIT; $P < 0.05$; Table 1), but only the
252 P+HIIT group showed a significant increase in lean body mass ($P = 0.021$). This increase was
253 significantly different from that of the other groups ($P = 0.012$; Table 2).

254 The plasma glucose and insulin concentrations were significantly decreased in the HIIT and
255 P+HIIT groups after the training program, resulting in a significant decrease in HOMA-IR in
256 both groups ($P < 0.05$; Table 1). The decreases in plasma glucose concentration and HOMA-
257 IR were significantly greater in the P+HIIT group than in the other groups ($P < 0.05$; Table
258 2). The HIIT and P+HIIT groups also showed a significant decrease in plasma leptin
259 concentration ($P = 0.033$ and $P = 0.019$, respectively) and an increase in plasma adiponectin
260 concentration ($P = 0.029$ and $P = 0.012$, respectively; Table 1). Moreover, the plasma
261 leptin/adiponectin ratio was significantly reduced in both training groups ($P < 0.01$; Table
262 1).

263 In the between-group comparison, P+HIIT showed a significant decrease in plasma leptin
264 concentration and the plasma leptin/adiponectin ratio, which were greater than in the other
265 groups ($P < 0.05$; Table 2).

266 $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$, $v\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ and SJ and CMJ performances were significantly increased in both trained
267 groups ($P < 0.05$; Table 1). The improvement in SJ was significantly greater in the P+HIIT
268 group compared with the other groups ($P = 0.035$ Table 2).

269 No significant change in energy intake was noted in any group ($P > 0.05$; Tables 1 and 2).

270

271 **Discussion**

272 The main aim of the present study was to analyze the effects of HIIT and P+HIIT on
273 anthropometric, biochemical and physical fitness data in obese female adolescents. The
274 results indicate that 12 weeks of HIIT or P+HIIT training (without dietary restriction)

275 improved these data in the adolescents (Table 1). However, the P+HIIT program induced
276 significantly greater improvements in lean body mass, plasma glucose and leptin
277 concentrations, HOMA-IR, the plasma leptin/adiponectin ratio and SJ performance (Table 2).

278

279 According to numerous studies (Boutcher 2011; Paoli et al. 2013; Racil et al. 2013), HIIT
280 (with or without plyometric exercises) is especially efficient to reduce body mass and fat in
281 the obese population. Consequently, adding to the fact that this training modality increases
282 insulin sensitivity (Racil et al. 2013), the plyometric exercises place significant stress on the
283 musculoskeletal system (Fowler et al. 1995). It is important to mention that following intense
284 exercises, a metabolic stress on active muscle fibers occurs, leading to increases in glucose
285 uptake resulting in enhanced insulin sensitivity (DiPietro et al. 2006; Rose and Richter, 2005).

286

287 However, to increase lean body mass, the recommendation is to associate HIIT with
288 resistance exercises (Table 2). Some authors have suggested that aerobic exercise is the
289 optimal training mode to reduce body mass and fat, whereas a training program including
290 resistance exercise (such as plyometric exercises) is advised to increase lean body mass
291 (Ghahramanloo et al. 2009; Willis et al. 2012). Thus, to further increase the beneficial effects
292 of HIIT on lean body mass, resistance exercise should be associated (Table 2). This latter type
293 of exercise is essential because it increases muscle mass, and skeletal muscle is the major site
294 of insulin-stimulated glucose utilization in the body (Joseph and Hood, 2014). Indeed, an
295 increase in muscle mass suggests an enhanced number of mitochondria, which improves the
296 ability of muscle to oxidize substrates (*i.e.*, glucose and free fatty acids), thus reducing plasma
297 glucose concentration, which we suppose was the case in our study in the P+HIIT group. In
298 fact, results have shown that glucose concentration was significantly lower in the P+HIIT
299 group compared with the HIIT and control groups (Table 2). In the same context an increase

300 in muscle mass suggests also an enhanced free fatty acid concentration and insulin resistance
301 as shown in our study with a significantly lower HOMA-IR in the P+HIIT group (Table 2).
302 This may prevent complications linked to obesity (*e.g.*, metabolic syndrome, type 2 diabetes,
303 myocardial infarction).

304

305 Furthermore, it is likely that the greater effect on insulin sensitivity may be the result of type
306 of training (*i.e.*, P+HIIT) and the intensity which induces the metabolic responses that
307 predominantly depend on carbohydrates as the main fuel source (*i.e.*, phosphocreatine and
308 anaerobic glycolysis systems). In fact, other studies have demonstrated that resistance training
309 at high intensity was safe and well tolerated by older patients with type 2 diabetes, was
310 effective in improving glycemic control (Dunstan et al. 2002), and has improved insulin
311 action in healthy young women (Poehlman et al. 2000).

312

313 On the other hand, leptin and adiponectin, two hormones secreted by adipocytes, are counter-
314 regulated *in vivo* and exert opposing effects on glucose metabolism, fat oxidation, and insulin
315 sensitivity (Ceddia 2005; Yamauchi et al. 2002). In this context, some authors have proposed
316 the leptin/adiponectin ratio as a potential marker for the comorbidities of childhood obesity
317 (Diamond et al. 2004). More recently, this hypothesis seems to have been confirmed because
318 the number of metabolic syndrome alterations was found to be correlated with the
319 leptin/adiponectin ratio in obese adolescents (Masquio et al. 2015). We therefore assume that
320 the significant decrease in this ratio in the present study indicated an improvement in the
321 health status of our obese female adolescents after participation in an interval training
322 program, and this was remarkably so in the P+HIIT group (Table 2).

323

324 The significantly greater decrease in the leptin/adiponectin ratio in the P+HIIT group seemed
325 mainly linked to a significantly greater reduction in the plasma leptin concentration (Table 2).
326 This latter decrease is important in obesity treatment because leptin increases the rate of
327 insulin-stimulated glucose uptake and glucose oxidation, and normalizes the rate of glycogen
328 synthesis (Yaspelkis et al. 2004), thus suggesting a reduction in plasma glucose concentration
329 (which decreased more in the P+HIIT group than the HIIT group; Table 2). Theoretically,
330 these responses might be due in part to the normalization of glucose transporter type-4 protein
331 (GLUT4) concentration in the muscle (Yaspelkis et al. 2004). However, since Donges et al.
332 (2013) recently showed an increase in insulin sensitivity after a training program (*i.e.*, aerobic
333 and/or resistance exercise) and did not note a change in GLUT4 muscle content in untrained
334 middle-aged men, further studies are needed to better understand the mechanisms linked to
335 the reduction in plasma glucose concentration in obese adolescents.

336

337 After the intervention period, HOMA-IR was reduced to 3.2 ± 0.4 and 2.7 ± 0.3 in the HIIT
338 and P+HIIT groups, respectively (Table 1). The HOMA-IR cut-off point for a diagnosis of
339 insulin resistance was reported to be 3.16 in adolescents (Keskin et al. 2005). As such 14 (*i.e.*,
340 60.8%) and 23 (*i.e.*, 88.5%) adolescents were below this threshold value after the HIIT and
341 P+HIIT programs, respectively. According to present results, it seems that this training
342 modality (*i.e.*, P+HIIT) can provide an opportunity for all youth, regardless of body mass and
343 fitness level, to experience success and feel good about their body. On the other hand, as
344 overweight/obese children and adolescents seem to demonstrate significantly lower motor
345 coordination than youth with 'normal' body mass index (D'hondt et al. 2011; Nunez-Gaunaud
346 et al. 2013), it is possible that HIIT associated to coordination exercises and/or conventional
347 resistance exercise would provide higher benefits to P+HIIT. Therefore, an additional work is
348 also required to assess even more the appropriateness of such programs for obese female

349 adolescents.

350

351 While both training groups (*i.e.*, HIIT and P+HIIT) improved SJ and CMJ performances
352 (Table 1), SJ improvement was greater in the P+HIIT group (Table 2). Recently, Russell et al.
353 (2014) showed strength improvement after a resistance training program including plyometric
354 exercise. Moreover, the authors reported that the strength changes were inversely correlated
355 with fasting plasma glucose concentration. The current study also suggests this because both
356 variables were significantly higher in the P+HIIT group than in the other groups (Table 2).
357 Consequently, to optimize strength gains, it seems necessary to include resistance exercises in
358 interval training programs.

359 Last, Coquart et al. (2008) proposed interval training as a way to increase adherence to
360 exercise programs and limit the monotony of steady-state exercise (or continuous exercise),
361 which is frequently offered in intervention programs. However, it now remains to be seen
362 whether the P+HIIT program confers more long-term adherence benefits for obese female
363 adolescents than HIIT alone.

364 Some limitations of this study are acknowledged. Firstly, cycling rather than running on the
365 track may be a more appropriate exercise modality, given orthopaedic issues that may occur
366 in obese population. However, the running exercise may be performed without ergometer and
367 thus in the daily life.

368 On the other hand, since the sex-related (anthropometric and physiological) differences begin
369 from the adolescence, and since the boys spend more time in physical exercise with vigorous-
370 or moderate-intensity than girls (Belsky et al. 2003), we opted in the current study to focus
371 only on obese adolescent females in order not to have any confounding effects of sex on the
372 collected results. Further study in obese male adolescents would also be useful.

373

374 **Conclusion**

375 The current study findings demonstrate that the HIIT appears to be an efficient strategy to
376 combat obesity. Moreover, as HIIT is less monotonous (because of intensity variation) than
377 traditional aerobic exercise (in which the exercise intensity is continuous), HIIT may be
378 recommended to improve the adherence in training program. Furthermore, to optimize the
379 taking over, P+HIIT must be preferred to only HIIT. Indeed, this training modality produces
380 better physiological adaptations (*e.g.*, management of glycemic control) than HIIT in obese
381 female adolescents. Additional studies are nevertheless needed to elucidate the mechanisms of
382 these specific adaptations.

383

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388

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390

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Draft

	HIIT group (<i>n</i> = 23)		P+HIIT group (<i>n</i> = 26)		Control group (<i>n</i> = 19)	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Age (y)	16.6 ± 0.9		16.5 ± 1.2		16.9 ± 1.0	
Height (m)	1.63 ± 0.05	1.63 ± 0.05	1.63 ± 0.02	1.64 ± 0.02	1.64 ± 0.06	1.64 ± 0.06
Body mass (kg)	83.9 ± 4.5	80.7 ± 5.7*	82.5 ± 5.4	80.8 ± 5.0*	81.8 ± 5.2	81.3 ± 4.9
Body mass index Z-score	2.9 ± 0.2	2.4 ± 0.3*	2.9 ± 0.3	2.6 ± 0.2*	2.8 ± 0.3	2.7 ± 0.3
Body fat (%)	39.3 ± 1.7	36.5 ± 1.3*	41.7 ± 3.6	38.8 ± 3.7*	36.7 ± 2.0	37.0 ± 1.9
Lean body mass (kg)	50.9 ± 2.9	51.2 ± 3.8	48.2 ± 5.6	49.6 ± 5.7*§	51.7 ± 3.1	51.3 ± 3.2
Waist circumference (cm)	93 ± 5	90 ± 6*	94 ± 5	90 ± 4*	93 ± 4	92 ± 3
Plasma glucose (mmol.l ⁻¹)	4.8 ± 0.5	4.6 ± 0.4*	4.6 ± 0.5	4.1 ± 0.4 ^{#§}	4.7 ± 0.3	4.8 ± 0.4
Plasma insulin (μU.ml ⁻¹)	21.1 ± 2.4	15.6 ± 1.2 [#]	20.8 ± 1.8	14.6 ± 1.0 ^{#£}	19.2 ± 2.0	18.6 ± 1.6
Homeostasis model assessment-insulin resistance	4.5 ± 0.7	3.2 ± 0.4 [#]	4.3 ± 0.6	2.7 ± 0.3 ^{Φ§}	4.1 ± 0.6	4.0 ± 0.5
Plasma leptin (ng.ml ⁻¹)	20.2 ± 2.6	17.3 ± 1.8*	17.6 ± 2.3	13.5 ± 2.0*§	18.5 ± 2.0	18.9 ± 1.8
Plasma adiponectin (μg.ml ⁻¹)	7.5 ± 1.5	9.4 ± 1.7*£	8.0 ± 1.3	10.5 ± 1.7*£	7.1 ± 1.1	7.4 ± 0.7
Plasma leptin/adiponectin ratio	2.8 ± 0.6	1.9 ± 0.4 [#]	2.3 ± 0.5	1.3 ± 0.3 ^{Φ§}	2.7 ± 0.6	2.6 ± 0.3
Peak oxygen uptake (ml.kg ⁻¹ .min ⁻¹)	36.7 ± 1.1	39.2 ± 1.0 [#]	36.0 ± 1.7	39.4 ± 1.8 [#]	38.3 ± 1.4	38.8 ± 1.5
Velocity at peak oxygen uptake (km.h ⁻¹)	10.1 ± 0.8	11.2 ± 0.9*	9.8 ± 0.7	10.9 ± 0.7*	10.2 ± 0.4	10.4 ± 0.7
Performance in squat jump (cm)	17.9 ± 2.3	19.7 ± 2.4*	17.1 ± 2.5	20.8 ± 2.2 ^{#£}	18.1 ± 1.5	18.4 ± 1.4
Performance in countermovement jump (cm)	18.9 ± 2.7	21.2 ± 2.9*	18.8 ± 2.7	22.5 ± 2.6 [#]	20.2 ± 2.0	20.6 ± 2.6
Energy intake (kcal.d ⁻¹)	3002 ± 107	2900 ± 93	2888 ± 96	2812 ± 92	2945 ± 96	2904 ± 99

Table 1. Anthropometric, biochemical, and physical fitness data and energy intake (mean ± standard deviation) pre- and post-intervention

program, in HIIT (high-intensity interval training), P+HIIT (plyometric exercises combined with HIIT) and control groups.

Significantly different within each group before vs after the intervention program *: $P < 0.05$, #: $P < 0.01$, Φ: $P < 0.001$. Significantly different from control £: $P < 0.05$. Significantly different from the other groups §: $P < 0.05$.

	HIIT group (<i>n</i> = 23)	P+HIIT group (<i>n</i> = 26)	Control group (<i>n</i> = 19)
Body mass	-3.8 ± 3.9 [‡]	-2.0 ± 1.0 [‡]	-0.6 ± 1.6
Body mass index Z-score	-15.9 ± 4.8 [‡]	-9.6 ± 2.6 [‡]	-3.7 ± 2.3
Body fat	-7.1 ± 1.7 [‡]	-7.2 ± 1.8 [‡]	0.6 ± 0.9
Lean body mass	0.6 ± 4.4	3.0 ± 1.7 [§]	-0.9 ± 1.5
Waist circumference	-3.2 ± 2.2 [‡]	-4.0 ± 1.0 [‡]	-0.6 ± 1.0
Plasma glucose	-3.4 ± 1.2 [‡]	-11.0 ± 4.7 [§]	1.3 ± 3.5
Plasma insulin	-25.8 ± 5.9 [‡]	-29.5 ± 5.6 [‡]	-3.2 ± 3.2
Homeostasis model assessment-insulin resistance	-28.3 ± 5.8 [‡]	-37.3 ± 6.2 [§]	-2.0 ± 2.8
Plasma leptin	-14.0 ± 5.4 [‡]	-23.8 ± 5.8 [§]	3.0 ± 10.3
Plasma adiponectin	27.3 ± 20.7 [‡]	32.8 ± 20.6 [‡]	5.7 ± 12.1
Plasma leptin/adiponectin ratio	-31.3 ± 8.9 [‡]	-40.9 ± 10.9 [§]	-0.8 ± 18.8
Peak oxygen uptake	7.0 ± 2.2 [‡]	9.5 ± 3.0 [‡]	1.2 ± 1.5
Velocity at peak oxygen uptake	10.9 ± 4.8 [‡]	11.7 ± 6.0 [‡]	2.1 ± 3.2
Performance in squat jump	10.4 ± 3.8 [‡]	22.2 ± 7.5 [§]	1.4 ± 1.9
Performance in countermovement jump	11.8 ± 4.2 [‡]	20.0 ± 10.2 [‡]	1.7 ± 3.6
Energy intake	-3.4 ± 2.4	-2.6 ± 1.7	-1.4 ± 1.6

Table 2. Percentage changes in anthropometric, biochemical, physical fitness data and energy intake (mean ± standard deviation) after the intervention program, in HIIT (high-intensity interval training), P+HIIT (plyometric exercises combined to HIIT) and control groups.

Significantly different from control [‡]: *P* < 0.05. Significantly different from the other groups [§]: *P* < 0.05.

Captions of tables.

Table 1. Anthropometric, biochemical, and physical fitness data and energy intake (mean \pm standard deviation) pre- and post-intervention program, in HIIT (high-intensity interval training), P+HIIT (plyometric exercises combined with HIIT) and control groups.

Significantly different within each group before vs after the intervention program *: $P < 0.05$, #: $P < 0.01$, Φ : $P < 0.001$. Significantly different from control £ : $P < 0.05$. Significantly different from the other groups § : $P < 0.05$.

Table 2. Percentage changes in anthropometric, biochemical, physical fitness data and energy intake (mean \pm standard deviation) after the intervention program, in HIIT (high-intensity interval training), P+HIIT (plyometric exercises combined to HIIT) and control groups.

Significantly different from control £ : $P < 0.05$. Significantly different from the other groups § : $P < 0.05$.