

# High Intensity Interval Training: A Potential Method for Treating Sarcopenia

Qian-Qi Liu<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Wen-Qing Xie<sup>1,3,\*</sup>, Yu-Xuan Luo<sup>1,2</sup>, Yi-Dan Li<sup>1,2</sup>, Wei-Hong Huang<sup>4</sup>, Yu-Xiang Wu<sup>5</sup>, Yu-Sheng Li<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Orthopedics, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, 410008, People's Republic of China; <sup>2</sup>Xiangya School of Medicine, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, 410083, People's Republic of China; <sup>3</sup>National Clinical Research Center for Geriatric Disorders, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, 410008, People's Republic of China; <sup>4</sup>Mobile Health Ministry of Education - China Mobile Joint Laboratory, Xiangya Hospital Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, 410008, People's Republic of China; <sup>5</sup>Department of Health and Kinesiology, School of Physical Education, Jiangnan University, Wuhan, Hubei, 430056, People's Republic of China

\*These authors contributed equally to this work

Correspondence: Yu-Sheng Li, Department of Orthopedics, Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, 87 Xiangya Road, Changsha, Hunan, 410008, People's Republic of China, Tel +86-13975889696, Email liyusheng@csu.edu.cn; Yu-Xiang Wu, Department of Health and Kinesiology, School of Physical Education, Jiangnan University, No. 8, Sanjiaohu Road, Wuhan, Hubei, 430056, People's Republic of China, Tel +86 27 8422 6921, Email yxwu@jhu.edu.cn

**Abstract:** Sarcopenia, an age-related disease characterized by loss of muscle strength and muscle mass, has attracted the attention of medical experts due to its severe morbidity, low living quality, high expenditure of health care, and mortality. Traditionally, persistent aerobic exercise (PAE) is considered as a valid way to attenuate muscular atrophy. However, nowadays, high intensity interval training (HIIT) has emerged as a more effective and time-efficient method to replace traditional exercise modes. HIIT displays comprehensive effects on exercise capacity and skeletal muscle metabolism, and it provides a time-out for the recovery of cardiopulmonary and muscular functions without causing severe adverse effects. Studies demonstrated that compared with PAE, HIIT showed similar or even higher effects in improving muscle strength, enhancing physical performances and increasing muscle mass of elder people. Therefore, HIIT might become a promising way to cope with the age-related loss of muscle mass and muscle function. However, it is worth mentioning that no study of HIIT was conducted directly on sarcopenia patients, which is attributed to the suspicious of safety and validity. In this review, we will assess the effects of different training parameters on muscle and sarcopenia, summarize previous papers which compared the effects of HIIT and PAE in improving muscle quality and function, and evaluate the potential of HIIT to replace the status of PAE in treating old people with muscle atrophy and low modality; and point out drawbacks of temporary experiments. Our aim is to discuss the feasibility of HIIT to treat sarcopenia and provide a reference for clinical scientists who want to utilize HIIT as a new way to cope with sarcopenia.

**Keywords:** Sarcopenia, high intensity interval training, persistent aerobic exercise, aging

## Introduction of Sarcopenia Definition, Prevalence, and Consequences

Sarcopenia is a disease closely related to aging.<sup>1</sup> The first meeting of the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People (EWGSOP) defined sarcopenia as “a syndrome characterized by progressive and generalized loss of skeletal muscle mass and strength with a risk of adverse outcomes such as physical disability, poor quality of life and death” performance.<sup>2</sup> The diagnostic criteria include three elements: low muscle mass, low muscle strength and low physical performance.<sup>2</sup> In 2018, EWGSOP2 prioritized decreased muscle strength as the most significant diagnostic parameter for sarcopenia,<sup>3</sup> and confirmed that this disease begins at an early age.<sup>3</sup> An updated consensus of Asia, the Asian Working Group for Sarcopenia (AWGS) 2019, defined sarcopenia as “age-related loss of skeletal muscle mass plus loss of muscle strength and/or reduced physical performance”, which suggested the decline of muscle strength and physical performance are attributed to the loss of muscle mass.<sup>4</sup> The Foundation for the National Institutes of Health

(FNIH) also diagnoses this disease by assessing muscle mass and muscle strength, but there are disparities in cut-off values and measurement modes between FNIH and EWGSOP2.<sup>5</sup> Through assessing the data from eight epidemiological cohorts with large scale, the 2020 Sarcopenia Definitions and Outcomes Consortium (SDOC) strongly emphasized the prognostic value of low grip strength and low gait speed on falls, low mobility, disability in daily life, and mortality, and SDOC suggested that weakness and slowness defined by low grip strength and low gait speed, respectively, should be included into the definition of sarcopenia. However, unlike other criteria, SDOC excluded the lean mass from the definition of sarcopenia.<sup>6</sup>

The prevalence of sarcopenia differs in ages, ethnicities, and sexes. In Europe, defined by EWGSOP standard, 5%–13% in people aged 60 to 70 and 11%–50% in people aged over 80 were suffered from sarcopenia, and the prevalence of sarcopenia was 1–29% (up to 30% in women) for older adults living in the community, 14–33% (up to 68% in men) for those living in long-term care institutions and 10% for those in acute hospital care.<sup>7,8</sup> In Asia, according to AWGS, the prevalence of sarcopenia was 5.5–25.7% in elderly people,<sup>4</sup> and in an elderly Chinese suburb dwelling population, 6.4% in men and 11.5% in women were diagnosed with sarcopenia.<sup>9</sup> Another report using AWGS criteria found that the prevalence of sarcopenia differed with ethnic groups in China, as 22.3% in Han ethnic, 18.2% in Tibetan, 11.8% in Qiang, 34.7% in Yi and 26.7% in Hui.<sup>10</sup> In the USA, the prevalence of sarcopenia ranges from 2.5% to 27.2% in women and ranges from 3.1% to 20.4% in men.<sup>11</sup> A meta-analysis synthesized the results of 41 studies which evaluated the prevalence of sarcopenia through different criteria (including the standard of EWGSOP, AWGS and so on).<sup>12</sup> On the whole, 14% (95% CI: 11–17%) men and 12% (95% CI: 10–15%) women were suffered from sarcopenia.<sup>12</sup> In community-dwelling individuals, the prevalence were 11% (95% CI: 8–13%) in men and 9% (95% CI: 7–11%) in women. 51% (95% CI: 37–66%) men and 31% (95% CI: 22–42%) women in nursing-home and 23% (95% CI: 15–30%) men and 24% (95% CI: 14–35%) women in hospitalized patients were attacked by sarcopenia.<sup>12</sup> Women are more likely to get sarcopenia than men.<sup>9,13,14</sup>

Sarcopenia causes serious loss of muscle quality and function, elderly people with sarcopenia have a higher risk of falling and fracture, difficulties in standing and walking, and they are prone to losing the ability to take care of themselves, causing a heavy burden on families and the society.<sup>1,15</sup> According to data from the UK and the USA, sarcopenia is associated with heavy cost of medical service.<sup>16</sup> And sarcopenia exacerbates heart failure and respiratory diseases, leading to low physical performance.<sup>17,18</sup> Because of inadequate movement, sarcopenia patients are easy to become obese, which further damages their health.<sup>19</sup> Sarcopenia is also associated with impaired cognitive function,<sup>20</sup> osteoporosis<sup>21</sup> and poorer prognosis in patients with surgery.<sup>7</sup>

## Risk Factors and Molecular Mechanisms of Sarcopenia

Aging is the primary risk factor for sarcopenia. Generally, muscle mass is maintained during early life, but then declines at a rate of 1% or 0.5% per year in men or women, respectively.<sup>22</sup> From 20- to 80- year-olds, about 30% of our muscle mass and 20% of our cross-sectional area (CSA) will be lost.<sup>22</sup> Muscle waste in the elderly is mainly due to an imbalance between muscle protein synthesis (MPS) and muscle protein breakdown (MPB),<sup>23</sup> which are balanced in younger individuals.<sup>24</sup> Reduction of type II muscle fiber size accounts for the majority of the muscle waste during aging.<sup>25</sup> During skeletal muscle aging, the mammalian target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1) pathway plays an important role. mTORC1 pathway is activated by phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)-Akt pathway, which is upregulated by food (especially by protein rich in leucine) or exercise.<sup>26,27</sup> Two downstream targets of mTORC1 pathway, the 70-kDa ribosomal protein S6 kinase 1 (S6K1) and eukaryotic initiation factor 4E (eIF4E)-binding protein-1 (4E-BP1), promote the initiation and elongation of translation. After activation, mTOR can phosphorylate 4E-BP1 and S6K1. Phosphorylation of 4E-BP1 will remove the inhibition of eIF4E by 4E-BP1. As a result, eIF4E can directly bind to the 5' end of mRNA and recruit eIF4G and eIF4A to form the translation preinitiation (eIF4F) complex.<sup>28</sup> Once phosphorylated, S6K1 will phosphorylate lots of translation-related factors, including the 40S ribosomal protein S6 (rpS6), eIF4B and eukaryotic elongation factor 2 (eEF2) kinase (phosphorylation of eEF2 kinase relieves the suppression of eEF2).<sup>28</sup> These events lead to hypertrophy of muscle cells.<sup>29</sup> In young adult muscles, anabolic stimuli such as exercise and feeding stimulate MPS and suppress MPB through mTORC1 signaling. Conversely, with aging, muscle becomes resistant or insensitive to anabolic stimuli, leading to impaired MPS and suppressed inhibition of MPB.<sup>24,30</sup> Twice as

much leucine is required in aged rats than in young rats to stimulate the MPS to a predefined level.<sup>31</sup> Genes related to mitochondria, insulin signaling, and muscle growth were downregulated by aging, which may trigger anabolic stimulus-resistance.<sup>32</sup> Scientists hypothesized this phenomenon as the primary cause of muscle mass wasting in the elderly.<sup>23</sup> Atrophy of aged muscle may also be associated with the denervation: a reduction of motor neuron population has been observed in old animals due to impairment of normal cycling of denervation-reinnervation, but the mechanism of age-related denervation remains unclear.<sup>33,34</sup>

Due to dysfunction of antioxidant enzymatic (such as peroxiredoxin 6) and increased oxidative stress in aging, telomere attrition and DNA damage appear.<sup>35,36</sup> Thus, abilities of muscle satellite cells to proliferate and regenerate are impaired.<sup>37</sup> In addition, reports showed that oxidative stress suppressed the phosphorylation of eIF4E and 4E-BP1, and thus inhibited the mTORC1 pathway.<sup>38,39</sup> Simultaneously, oxidative stress damages protein homeostasis and induces proteolysis,<sup>40</sup> and it is reported that protein abundance decreased in the elderly, especially mitochondrial proteins.<sup>32</sup> Moreover, aging downregulates hormones which are crucial for the maintenance of muscle mass, strength and proliferation of satellite cells, including growth hormone (GH), testosterone, thyroid hormone (TH) and insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1).<sup>41–46</sup>

Other risk factors associated with sarcopenia include malnutrition, inactivity, obesity, diseases, and early environment for growth. Dietary protein intake is pivotal in maintaining muscle mass of old people, as amino acids like leucine activate the mTORC1 pathway via the Rag guanosine triphosphatase (Rag GTPase) mechanism.<sup>26,47</sup> Malnutrition aggravates imbalance between MPS and MPB and significantly elevates the morbidity of sarcopenia in people aged over 65,<sup>48,49</sup> which could be prevented through high intake of protein and vitamin D,<sup>50–52</sup> exercise is a key stimulus for mTORC1 pathway,<sup>53–56</sup> but inactivity increases the risk of getting sarcopenia, an inactive period even as short as 2 days can significantly reduce muscle volume,<sup>57</sup> and one-hour increase in sedentary behavior per day led to 1.06 (95% CI = 1.04–1.10) times higher possibility for getting sarcopenia,<sup>58</sup> obesity promotes the infiltration of lipid into muscle, and thereby causing oxidative stress and impairment of mitochondria and leading to lipotoxicity,<sup>59</sup> diseases such as cancer often coincide with sarcopenia:<sup>60</sup> they raise abnormalities in glucose metabolisms,<sup>61</sup> upregulate pro-inflammatory cytokines, myostatin, and proteolysis-inducing factor (PIF), which activates forkhead box O (FOXO) (activation of FOXO causes autophagy and expression of the atrophy-related ubiquitin ligases Atrogin 1 and muscle RING finger-containing protein 1 (MURF1)).<sup>62,63</sup>

## Feasibility of High Intensity Interval Training (HIIT) to Deal with Sarcopenia

While exercise has been observed to play a pivotal role in health, various physical activity guidelines have persuaded people to take part in exercise. The American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM) proposed every adult to strengthen and maintain the functions of cardiopulmonary through moderate exercise 30–60 min per day ( $\geq 5$ d per week), or vigorous exercise 20–60 min per day ( $\geq 3$ d per week), or a combination of moderate and vigorous exercise per day ( $\geq 3$ –5d per week).<sup>64</sup> At present, no specific drug has been approved for the treatment of sarcopenia, and hence exercise remains the most effective strategy to deal with sarcopenia.<sup>1</sup> Traditionally, moderate intensity continuous exercise (MICT) with high exercise volume was recommended by most guidelines.<sup>65</sup> MICT is a modality of exercise at approximately 64%–76% of their  $HR_{max}$ , or exercised with prescribed intensity as a percentage of  $VO_{2max}$ ,  $VO_{2R}$ , HRR, or RPE equivalent to 64–76% of  $HR_{max}$  with long duration (more than 30 min).<sup>66,67</sup> However, high intensity interval training (HIIT), which is characterized by repeated short to long bouts of relatively high-intensity exercise ( $\geq 90\%VO_{2max}$  or  $>90$ –95%  $HR_{max}$  for 6 s to 4 min) alternate with recovery periods of either low-intensity exercise or rest (ranging from 20% to 40%  $VO_{2max}$  for 10 s to 5 min), emerged as an alternative for traditional continuous training.<sup>68,69</sup>

Firstly, HIIT displays comprehensive effects on exercise capacity and skeletal muscle metabolism. HIIT induces great growth of muscle, prevents skeletal muscle atrophy, and improves the motor function via promoting great phosphorylation of mTOR and rps6 and inducing the expression of transcriptional coactivator peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor  $\gamma$  coactivator 1 $\alpha$  (PGC-1 $\alpha$ ), which is crucial for mitochondrial biogenesis.<sup>70,71</sup> It is also of importance to the vascularization of muscle.<sup>72</sup> Animal studies have already proved that HIIT significantly enhances physical performance

and muscle mass in frail aged mice.<sup>73,74</sup> Some studies showed that elder people received HIIT protocol were observed to have significantly increased muscle mass, muscle quality, physical performance and muscle strength, compared with MICT or control groups.<sup>75–79</sup> In a scoping review, Hayes and colleagues summarized 32 articles related to HIIT. In this review, there were 20 papers tested the effect of HIIT on muscle function, and most of them reported that HIIT could enhance muscle strength and power; 12 studies focused on the effect of HIIT on physical function, all of which showed the improvement of physical performance after HIIT; nevertheless, 22 studies which analyzed the effect of HIIT on muscle quantity had contradictory conclusions, and generally speaking, the effect of HIIT on muscle quality and quantity is unclear.<sup>80</sup>

Secondly, HIIT provides a time-out for the recovery of cardiopulmonary and muscular functions without causing severe adverse effects.<sup>81–83</sup> A pilot study confirmed that HIIT was feasible and safe for hospitalized patients over 65 who were recovering from acute medical condition.<sup>84</sup> Rognum Ø et al assessed the risk of HIIT and MICT among 4846 coronary heart disease patients (mean age = 57.8), and the results reflected that only one fatal case occurred during MICT (129 456 exercise hours) and two non-fatal cases occurred during HIIT (23,182 hours).<sup>85</sup> Many other studies also showed that HIIT would not cause severe adverse effects on patients with coronary artery disease.<sup>86–88</sup> Interval exercise may be safer than continuous exercise for patients with cardiovascular disease (CVD).<sup>89</sup>

Furthermore, numerous studies have demonstrated that HIIT could improve the cardiopulmonary functions of patients with CVD and the outcomes of diabetes mellitus. CVD patients have been found to acquire higher quality of life and greater heart rate (HR) response to exercise after receiving HIIT.<sup>90</sup> HIIT also reduces insulin resistance and enhances skeletal muscle sugar intake.<sup>91</sup>

## Effects of Different Exercise Parameters on Sarcopenia

When evaluating the physiological responses raised by a specific type of exercise, multiple variables should be taken into consideration. The intensity, volume, rest interval between sets, order of exercises, movement velocity, load lifted and training frequency are the main methodological variables of prescription.<sup>92</sup> Exercise-induced physiological strain, also called training load, results from the combination of exercise intensity, volume, and frequency.<sup>93</sup> To demonstrate the rationality of HIIT in the treatment of sarcopenia, we will discuss the effects of different intensities and rest intervals between sets and volumes of exercise on sarcopenia and the elderly, and try to find an optimal combination of these parameters for sarcopenia treatment.

### Intensity

Exercise intensity is an important determinant of the physiological responses to exercise training. Methods measuring exercise intensity include percentage heart rate maximum (%HR<sub>max</sub>), percentage heart rate reserve (%HRR), percentage peak oxygen uptake (%VO<sub>2max</sub>), percentage VO<sub>2</sub> reserve (%VO<sub>2R</sub>), rating of perceived exertion (RPE), metabolic equivalent (MET), or competition pace.<sup>94</sup> VO<sub>2max</sub> (equation 1) is a physiological characteristic which presents the maximal rates of oxygen utilization in skeletal muscle. And it is determined by the ability of the heart and muscle to deliver and accommodate oxygen, respectively.<sup>95</sup>

Eq.1  $VO_{2max} = (\text{left ventricular (LV) end-diastolic volume} - \text{LV end-systolic volume}) \times \text{HR} \times \text{arterio-venous oxygen difference}$

VO<sub>2max</sub> reflects the exercise ability of a person, which is closely associated with endurance performance.<sup>95</sup> HR exhibits a linear relationship with VO<sub>2</sub>, particularly between HR of 110–150 beats per minute.<sup>96,97</sup> Because different people respond diversely to the same modality of exercise, scientists prefer to use %HR<sub>max</sub> and %VO<sub>2max</sub> for determining the optimal exercise intensity during HIIT.<sup>98</sup> As resting HR and HR<sub>max</sub> changes with age and fitness level, and therefore %HRR (equation 2) was recommended as a more accurate way to quantify and prescribe exercise intensity.<sup>99</sup>

$$\text{Eq.2 \% heart rate reserve} = \frac{(\text{HR}_{\text{ex}} - \text{HR}_{\text{rest}}) \times 100}{\text{HR}_{\text{max}} - \text{HR}_{\text{rest}}}$$

HR<sub>ex</sub>: average heart rate of the exercise session; HR<sub>rest</sub>: resting heart rate.

Metabolic Equivalent (MET), Borg's Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE) Scale and Repetition maximum (RM) are also being widely used to assess subjective perception of effort during exercise.<sup>100</sup> One MET is defined as the resting metabolic rate, which is the amount of oxygen consumed at rest, approximately 3.5 mL O<sub>2</sub>/kg/min (1.2 kcal/min for a 70-kg person);<sup>101</sup> the RPE (6–20) scale begins with “no exertion at all” (RPE = 6), and ends with “very, very hard,” (RPE = 20);<sup>102</sup> the 1-RM is defined as the greatest load that one can mobilize during the concentric phase of a movement in a single contraction, 40%–50% 1RM (very light to light intensity) was recommended by ACSM for older persons beginning exercise to improve strength.<sup>64</sup> The range of exercise intensity calculated by % HR<sub>max</sub>, % VO<sub>2max</sub>, % 1-RM, RPE scale and MET level is shown in Table 1.

High intensity exercise has already been studied to cope with sarcopenia. One research compared the effects of high intensity resistance training (HI-RT) and inactive state on sarcopenia patients. Participants in HI-RT group were observed to get an increase in skeletal muscle mass index (SMI) and gait velocity, and hand grip strength was maintained, while both SMI and hand grip strength were reduced in the inactive control group (CG).<sup>103</sup> Other studies also showed HI-RT was of benefit in keeping bone mineral density.<sup>81,104</sup>

Multiple groups investigated the effects of different intensities of resistance training (RT) on muscle quality and physical performance. Lasevicius et al designed a within-subject experiment, in which one leg and arm trained at 20% 1RM (G20) and the contralateral limb was randomly distributed to three groups: 40% (G40); 60% (G60), and 80% 1RM (G80). After 12 weeks, elbow flexion 1RM and muscle CSA increase in G80 condition was significantly higher than those in G20, G40, and G60 conditions.<sup>105</sup> There was no significant difference in the increase in unilateral leg press strength between G60 and G80, but they both displayed more obvious effect than G20 and G40.<sup>105</sup> Seynnes et al found that while both high intensity (HI) (80% 1RM) and low intensity (LI) training (40% 1RM) significantly improved muscle strength and endurance of frail elders compared with the control, high intensity training group elicited significantly better outcomes than low intensity training group.<sup>106</sup> A similar phenomenon was observed by other scientists.<sup>107,108</sup> Results from Sahin and colleagues showed that, though improvement of muscle strength in the HI group was not superior to the LI group, frail elders in the HI group displayed a better physical performance, which was analyzed by walking speed, balance while standing and standing up from a chair.<sup>109</sup> However, when it comes to the gains in muscle mass, low to moderate intensities (30–50% 1RM) have a similar or even greater effect compared with high intensities.<sup>105</sup>

Above all, all the low to high intensities training enhances muscle strength and muscle mass of the elderly, but high intensities displayed greater effect than low-intensity to moderate intensity on increasing strength without causing higher risks.

## Rest Interval Between Sets

The staple characters that differentiate HIIT from continuous training are the duration and ratio of high-intensity and low-intensity intervals, which play a pivotal role in the physiological response caused by HIIT.<sup>110</sup> Compared with continuous training, interval training induces greater health benefits when training volumes are equal or similar.<sup>111</sup>

The acute physiological requirements of different interval-training protocols are determined by VO<sub>2max</sub>, as the improvement of VO<sub>2max</sub> is linked with the duration of a high level of VO<sub>2</sub>. From the perspective of athletic training, three categories of interval training are usually described: long intervals (3–15 minutes, intensity 85–90% VO<sub>2max</sub>), moderate intervals (1–3 minutes, intensity 95–100% VO<sub>2max</sub>), short intervals (10 seconds to 1 minute, 100–120% VO<sub>2max</sub>).<sup>112</sup> From the perspective of the training for old people with CVD, there are also three categories of interval

**Table 1** Ranges of Exercise Intensity Calculated Through %hr<sub>max</sub>, %VO<sub>2max</sub>, %1-RM, RPE Scale and MET level<sup>64,101,102</sup>

Intensity	%HR <sub>max</sub>	%VO <sub>2max</sub>	% HRR	% 1-RM	RPE Scale	MET Level
Light	57 to <64	37 to <45	30 to <40	40–50	9–11	<3
Moderate	64 to <76	46 to <64	40 to <60	60–70	12–13	3 to <6
High	76 to <96	64 to <91	60 to <90	>80	14–17	6 to <8.8
Near maximal	≥96	≥91	≥90		≥18	≥8.8

training, which may be more appropriate for patients with sarcopenia: long intervals (high/low intensity interval: 3–4/3–4 minutes, intensity 85–95%  $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ ), moderate intervals (high/low intensity interval: 1–2/1–4 minutes, intensity 85–95%  $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ ), short intervals (high/low intensity interval: 15–60/15–120 seconds, 85–95%  $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ ).<sup>90</sup>

Multiple groups have studied the exercise performance for different rest interval lengths. Schoenfeld BJ and colleagues separated twenty-one young resistance-trained men to either a group that performed an RT program with 1-minute rest intervals (SHORT) or with 3-minute rest intervals (LONG), and they found that maximal strength and muscle thickness were significantly greater for LONG compared with SHORT;<sup>113</sup> results from another group suggested that 1-minute rest might be detrimental, which significantly elevates the blood lactate from baseline, compared with resting 3 or 5 minutes.<sup>114</sup> Traditionally, when training with the intention to enhance muscle strength, 3–5 minutes' rest between sets can produce greater effect, because longer rest intervals ensure higher intensities and volumes;<sup>92</sup> moderate-intensity sets combined with short rest intervals of 30–60 seconds might be the best choice for muscle hypertrophy, which induces a greater level of GH.<sup>92</sup>

Many studies compared the effects of HIIT protocols with different rest intervals. Edge and colleagues allocated 12 young women to two groups: subjects performed HIIT regimes with the same training intensity and volume, but either a short (1 min; HIT-1) or a long (3 min; HIT-3) rest intervals. There were no significant differences in the enhancement of physical performance and muscle adaptation (like Na(+), K(+)-ATPase content) between HIT-1 and HIT-3.<sup>115</sup> In the trial of Tucker et al, 14 recreationally active males participated in either a 4 × 4 (four 4-minute intervals at 90–95% HRpeak, separated by a 3-minute recovery at 50 W) or 16 × 1 (sixteen 1-minute intervals at 90–95% HRpeak, separated by a 1-minute recovery at 50 W) protocol on a cycle ergometer, and physiological responses elicited by these two protocols were similar.<sup>116</sup> Schoenmakers and colleagues showed that the total physiological strain endured during training was not greatly affected by the length of recovery durations.<sup>117</sup> However, these trials, as well as other similar studies,<sup>118–120</sup> were all focused on the athletic abilities of young people, which may not be practical for sarcopenia patients.

Efforts have been spent to find out whether interval exercise was suitable for old people. Previous study indicated that interval exercise could accelerate cerebral blood flow as effectively as continuous exercise, without leading to a large increase in blood pressure, and therefore interval exercise may be safer than continuous exercise for the elderly, especially for those suffering from CVD.<sup>89</sup> One paper pointed out that a 30-second rest interval was enough for older women to recover between sets of a knee flexor exercise, but younger women needed more time, which indicated that when prescribing rest interval between sets, practitioners should consider age differences.<sup>121</sup> Villanueva MG and colleagues conducted a study on elderly men to assess the different effects of short rest intervals (RI) in between sets (SS, 60 s) and extended RI (SL, 4 min) on body composition and performance. Outcomes showed that after 8 weeks of low-volume and high-intensity strength training, SS group presented a greater increase in lean body mass (LBM).<sup>122</sup> This result was consistent with previous findings which showed that short rest intervals were more beneficial in inducing hypertrophy.<sup>92</sup> However, SS group also showed greater improvement in strength and muscular performance,<sup>122</sup> while previous research suggested that long rest intervals (3–5 minutes) are required for optimizing strength improvement.<sup>92</sup>

So far, previous studies of interval training were mostly focused on young people, and experiments implemented on the elderly or sarcopenia patients are scarce. Additionally, no studies had compared the effects of HIIT with different rest intervals on sarcopenia patients or elderly people. Data from Villanueva et al indicated that a rest interval as short as 60 seconds was more beneficial than a long rest interval for elderly people in high intensity training, but this result was limited by a small sample size (only 22 participants) and short-term intervention (only 8 weeks).<sup>122</sup> Therefore, future research should test the effects of different lengths of rest intervals between sets on sarcopenia patients, and try to find a precise rest interval length in HIIT which can play the optimal role in treating sarcopenia. Furthermore, future research should be carried out with a larger sample size and longer training intervention to determine if the effects of different rest interval lengths led to chronic changes in body composition, muscular performance adaptations, and functional capacity of elderly people.

## Volume

Training volume is a measure of the total amount of work (joules) performed in a given time period. The number of sets, the total number of repetitions, the total duration of work and the total work are used to estimate the amount of training in

previous studies.<sup>123</sup> The amount of training is commonly described as the product of the number of repetitions  $\times$  number of sets  $\times$  intensity load.<sup>124</sup>

Schoenfeld et al studied the increase in strength and muscle mass after different volumes of training.<sup>125</sup> They classified training volume by total number of sets: low-volume group (1SET), moderate-volume group (3SET), high-volume group (5SET) performing one, three or five sets per exercise per training session, respectively. Each group trained three sessions per week. The training times of each session of different groups are 13 min for 1SET, 40 min and 68 min for 3SET and 5SET. Afterwards, 1SET had equal elevation of strength and muscular endurance compared with 3SET and 5SET. Therefore, low volume training can be used as a time-efficient way for strength training.<sup>125</sup> A study conducted on athletes showed that moderate volume exercise contributes more to strength gains in high intensity exercise than low volume and high volume, but this result needed to be verified if it can be applied to old people with sarcopenia.<sup>126</sup> Nevertheless, higher volume was more effective than lower volume training on inducing muscle hypertrophy.<sup>125,127</sup> Meta-analysis depicted the dose–response relationship between training volume and muscle hypertrophy, as a higher increase in muscle mass was induced by higher weekly training volumes.<sup>128</sup>

Physiological responses resulting from low volume HIIT have been studied. Low-volume HIIT (total volume: approximately 225 kJ week<sup>-1</sup>) was as effective as endurance training (total volume: approximately 2250 kJ week<sup>-1</sup>) in increasing skeletal muscle oxidative capacity and inducing specific metabolic adaptations.<sup>129</sup> Low volume HIIT and MICT exhibited similar effects on improvements of functional capacity in elderly women, while mean energy consumption of HIIT was only 45% of energy consumed by MICT.<sup>130</sup> Besides, low volume high intensity training may be even more enjoyable; as a result, prescriptions for low volume training may attract more sarcopenia patients to follow.<sup>131</sup>

To sum up, low volume HIIT might become a time-sufficient and pleasant way to treat old patients with sarcopenia. High volume training is more effective in improving muscle size, which seems to be more suitable for bodybuilders than sarcopenia patients. The time spent on training is negatively associated with the risk of CVD and type 2 diabetes, and therefore high-volume training is also beneficial to sarcopenia patients.<sup>124</sup> Furthermore, high training volume may complement the disadvantages of low intensity training compared with high intensity training, so when patients are reluctant to increase the intensity of load in their training, high volume and low intensity training is also effective.<sup>124</sup> However, no study has compared the effects of high-volume HIIT and low-volume HIIT on muscle, so above experiments can only be considered as indirect evidence, and efforts are needed to make up this problem.

## Comparison Between HIIT and Persistent Aerobic Exercise (PAE)

PAE is a traditional exercise method which has already been applied in various fields including management of obesity, maintenance of physical performance, treatment of hypertension and improvement of cardiopulmonary functions.<sup>132–135</sup> Aerobic exercises are cardiorespiratory endurance exercises, such as jogging, running, treadmill walking, stationary cycling, stair climbing and cycling.<sup>67,136</sup> MICT is the foundation of aerobic-based exercise prescription.<sup>90</sup> Most of the PAE training methods were carried out in the modality of MICT.<sup>137–139</sup>

However, the status of PAE is being challenged by HIIT. For instance, studies reported that, both in young and old people, HIIT was more effective than MICT in enhancing vascular function<sup>133</sup> and improving cardiorespiratory capacity;<sup>140–143</sup> oxidative stress of the myocardium after myocardial infarction can be better attenuated by HIIT than MICT;<sup>144</sup> and compared with MICT, HIIT displayed similar or greater impacts on reduction of adiposity,<sup>65,145</sup> increase in insulin sensitivity in obese people,<sup>146</sup> reduction of blood triglycerides (TGs) and glucose levels in older individuals,<sup>138,147</sup> and enhancement of immune system with significant reduction of the time commitment.<sup>148</sup> At the same time, both HIIT and MICT displayed similarly high rate of completion and attendance, and low rate of adverse events in patients with CVD.<sup>66,85</sup>

Studies comparing the effects of HIIT and MICT on aged skeletal muscles and sarcopenia are emerging. An animal experiment showed that both HIIT and MICT increased running time to exhaustion and maximum running speed of aged rats similarly, but HIIT improved grip power performance greater than MICT.<sup>74</sup> This phenomenon was also observed by Li and colleagues, and meanwhile they found that rats in HIIT group showed a larger increase in muscle weight compared with MICT group, and HIIT was more powerful than MICT in ameliorating oxidative stress and inflammation

aggravated by aging.<sup>149,150</sup> Multiple studies compared the effects of HIIT and MICT on muscle strength of the elderly. A study on older women (age =  $67.8 \pm 6.2$  years) showed that HIIT improved upper limb strength better than MICT, but there were no statistical differences between their effects on cardiorespiratory function, strength of lower limb and gait/dynamic balance.<sup>76</sup> Nemoto K and colleagues designed an experiment to test the effects of high-intensity interval walking training (3-minute low-intensity walking at 40% of peak aerobic capacity and 3-minute high-intensity walking above 70% of peak aerobic capacity) and moderate-intensity continuous walking training, and results showed that the high-intensity interval walking training was significantly better than MICT in increasing thigh muscle strength (examined by isometric knee extension and flexion), along with the peak aerobic capacity for cycling and walking.<sup>151</sup>

Some studies were concentrated on physical performance and muscle mass. A group of elderly people were randomly divided into three conditions: no walking training, moderate-intensity continuous walking training, or high-intensity interval walking training. Outcomes showed that in HIIT group, all of the isometric knee extension, isometric knee flexion, peak aerobic capacity for cycling, and peak aerobic capacity for walking got better augmentation than those in MICT group.<sup>151</sup> Keogh and colleagues tested the change in physical function (measured by Timed Up and Go (TUG), Sit to Stand (STS) and preferred gait speed) of osteoarthritis patients after receiving home-based HIIT or MICT. HIIT displayed superiority in improving TUG, but there were no statistical differences between the changes in STS, gait speed and muscle mass in HIIT and MICT groups.<sup>152</sup> However, for overweight/obese postmenopausal women, only the combination of HIIT and RT could significantly enhance muscle mass, while HIIT or MICT alone did not have this function.<sup>153</sup> Although in some cases, compared with MICT, HIIT did not present superior capacity in enhancing muscle function and physical performance, HIIT and MICT displayed similar effects, and HIIT seemed to be more acceptable: participants in HIIT group tended to complete more sessions than those in MICT group.<sup>84</sup>

Expressions of certain genes are influenced by HIIT and MICT, which might explain the phenomena happening in skeletal muscles after such training. Animal experiment revealed that while phosphorylated mTOR protein levels of sarcopenic rats were similarly elevated by HIIT and MICT, HIIT group exhibited higher level of PGC1- $\alpha$ .<sup>145</sup> Both MICT and HIIT can strengthen the antioxidative system through inducing the expression of succinate dehydrogenase (SDH) and superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD2), promote the function of mitochondria through upregulation of oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) proteins, and sustain the calcium homeostasis, but only HIIT can significantly upregulate levels of autophagy-related gene (Atg)-3, microtubule-associated protein 1 light-chain 3-II (LC3-II), B-cell lymphoma 2 (Bcl-2), the Bcl-2/Bcl-2-associated X protein (Bax) ratio, AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), p-AMPK, and ADP receptor 1.<sup>74</sup> Elevated expression of Bcl-2 and Bcl-2/Bax ratio prevent age-related apoptosis of skeletal muscle cells, and elevated expression of Atg-3, LC3-II, AMPK and ADP receptor 1 indicated that HIIT had a greater potential than MICT to improve autophagy damaged by aging.<sup>74</sup>

Overall, compared with PAE, HIIT is more effective at improving the physical performance and attenuating the process of sarcopenia. Simultaneously, HIIT is superior to PAE in ameliorating patients' physical fitness and motor function in various aspects. Furthermore, the time expenditure of HIIT is much less than MICT and HIIT is more enjoyable for people to perform.<sup>154,155</sup> Therefore, HIIT may be a valid and time-efficient way to slow down the progression of sarcopenia. However, the study performed directly on sarcopenia patients is devoid. Therefore, the above results still need to be further studied.

## Metabolic Changes During and After HIIT

HIIT will raise remarkable metabolic changes in sarcopenia patients. Firstly, acute skeletal muscle responses will occur. HIIT upregulates 22 mitochondrial genes in older people, including genes participating in translational regulation and mitochondrial tRNA transferase, thereby resulting in a significant increase in protein abundance.<sup>32</sup> HIIT's impact on mRNA expression and MPS is predominant in both young and older people, and even greater among the elderly, and thus HIIT may overcome the anabolic stimuli-resistance associated with aging.<sup>32</sup> Phosphorylation of AMPK and the p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) will increase after HIIT. During contraction, p38 MAPK, which might be activated by growing level of reactive oxygen species, stimulates upstream transcription factors of PGC-1 $\alpha$  gene.<sup>156,157</sup> AMPK directly phosphorylates PGC-1 $\alpha$  and activates Sirtuin 1 (Sirt1) by increasing the level of NAD<sup>+</sup>, and thereby Sirt1 can promote the deacetylation of PGC-1 $\alpha$ .<sup>158</sup> PGC-1 $\alpha$  coactivates two key nuclear respiratory factors (NRFs), NRF-1 and NRF-2, which activate mitochondrial



transcription factor A (Tfam) and bind to promoter regions of nuclear genes encoding subunits of complexes in mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC), thereby reinforcing respiratory capacity of mitochondria.<sup>159,160</sup> PGC-1 $\alpha$  protects muscle mass and retards the atrophy induced by denervation, and inhibits the ability of FOXO to bind to the promoter of atrogen-1.<sup>161,162</sup> Akt also can suppress FOXO pathway.<sup>161</sup> HIIT can enhance glucose transportation, insulin sensitivity and Ca<sup>2+</sup> reuptake of sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR), so as to improve energy supply and working ability.<sup>163</sup> Akt/PKB, which is required for the translocation of glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4), is upregulated by HIIT, and simultaneously, upregulation of AMPK, Ca<sup>2+</sup> and p38 MAPK during HIIT induces the expression of GLUT4 gene.<sup>164,165</sup> Then, GLUT4 can increase insulin sensitivity.<sup>156</sup>

Secondly, cardiac adaptation will be observed. Like skeletal muscles, the mTORC1 pathway in myocardium will also be activated, resulting in physiological hypertrophy.<sup>163</sup> Intermittent training can restore the contractile function damaged by sedentary, which reinforces synchronicity of SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release, density of T-tubule, and activity of SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> ATPase.<sup>166</sup> Furthermore, cardiac structure will be protected and improved by HIIT: HIIT could ameliorate end-diastolic pressure and systolic pressure, reduce left ventricular hypertrophy, and left ventricular end-diastolic diameter.<sup>167–169</sup> HRR, MET capacity and VO<sub>2max</sub> can all be improved by HIIT.<sup>167,170,171</sup>

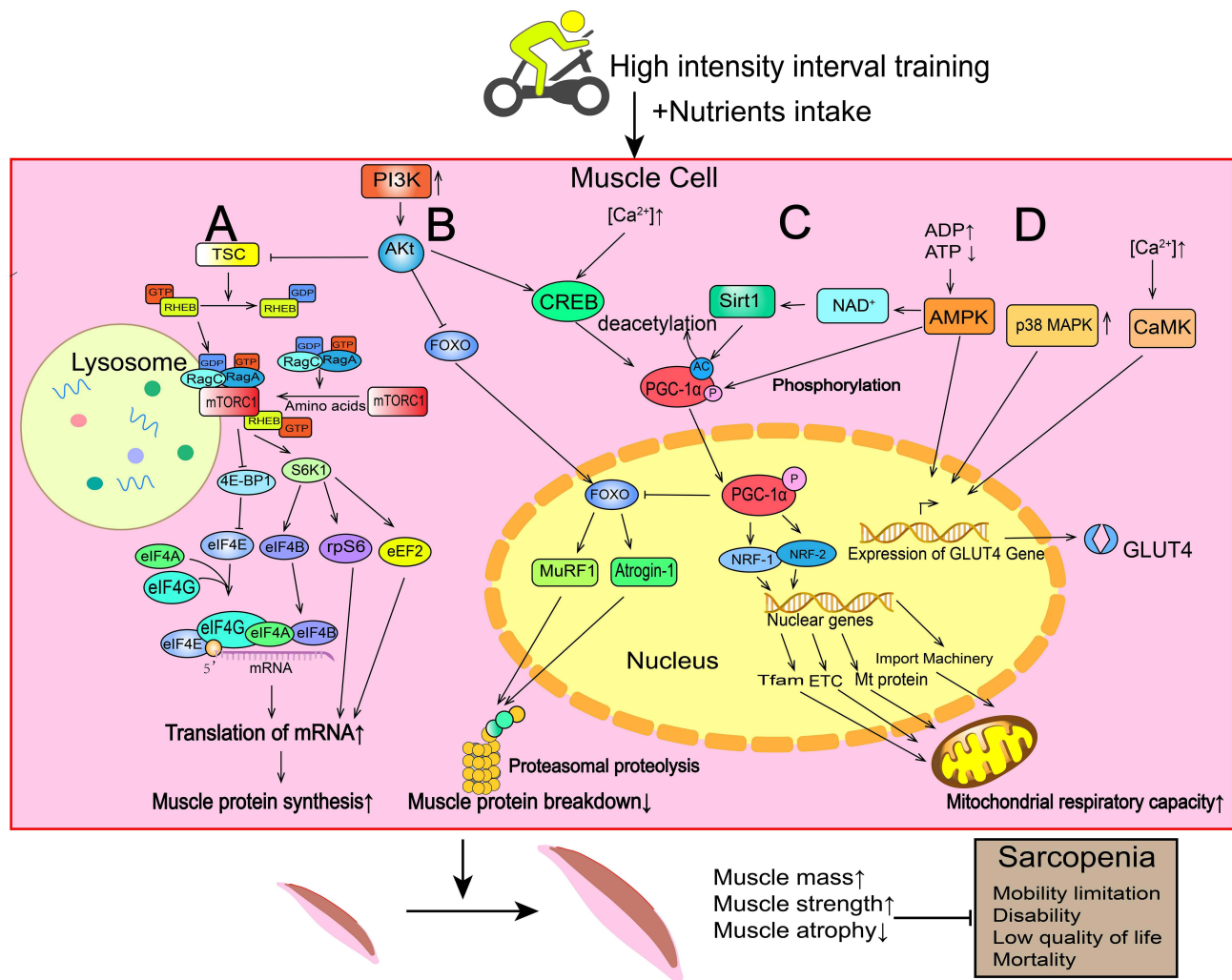
Furthermore, if patients suffer from obesity, which potentiates the progress of sarcopenia,<sup>59</sup> HIIT is capable of enhancing skeletal muscle and reducing adiposity at the same time. High-intensity exercise significantly increases catecholamine responses, which promotes fat oxidation (Fox) by  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors. Plasma catecholamine levels and sympathetic neural activity grow exponentially over intensity and time, especially at work intensity above 70% VO<sub>2max</sub>.<sup>172,173</sup> HIIT can also elevate  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptor sensitivity in adipose tissue.<sup>171</sup> Furthermore, the rise of  $\beta$ -Hydroxyacyl acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, citrate synthase and fatty acid-binding protein during HIIT promote the consumption and transportation of free fatty acid.<sup>174</sup> Collectively, HIIT significantly reduces fat in the blood and liver.<sup>163</sup> Nevertheless, HIIT may not reduce body weight while reducing body fat because of muscle hypertrophy.<sup>171</sup> The molecular mechanisms of HIIT on treating and preventing sarcopenia are shown in Figure 1.

## Conclusion

A growing number of scientists have realized the clinical importance of sarcopenia. Studies have revealed multiple risk factors for this disease, including genes, malnutrition, inactive lifestyle, obesity, hormone imbalance, evolutionary basis and so on. Despite spectacular progress in science and technology, effective treatments of sarcopenia are still devoid, and the specific pathophysiology of the age-related loss of muscle remains unclear.

HIIT is a potential method to treat sarcopenia, and its feasibility has been demonstrated in various aspects. High intensity training is more effective than low to moderate intensity in increasing strength without causing higher risks; compared with the continuous training, the interval training raises more acute physiological responses, and provides a rest time to restore muscle strength and cardiorespiratory functions, making it easier for body to adapt; low volume training elicits similar increase in strength compared with moderate-to-high volume training with less expenditure on time. In addition, relative to PAE, HIIT is more effective on improving the physical performance, and it also has greater impacts on reinforcing cardiorespiratory function for long-term training, reducing body fat and improving the effectiveness of energy use through managing diabetes, but the time expenditure of HIIT is much less than MICT, so HIIT is a potent alternative for PAE; moreover, HIIT elicits great level of mRNA expression and protein abundance in both young and old people, and therefore HIIT might overcome the anabolic-stimuli resistance in elderly. Above all, low HIIT is a time-efficient exercise strategy for attenuating the progress of sarcopenia and improving the living quality of patients.

However, multiple questions remain to be figured out. Short rest interval is demonstrated to be the best choice for inducing muscle hypertrophy, but there are controversial results of the effects of short or long rest interval between sets on the improvement of muscle strength, which is required to be elucidated; low volume HIIT is time-efficient and beneficial to muscle strength, but the effects of low to moderate intensity and high-volume training on promoting muscle hypertrophy and reducing the risks of CVD and type 2 diabetes should not be ignored; and experiment comparing the effects of HIIT protocols with different volumes or different rest intervals on the elderly was still scarce. Besides, previous studies were limited by short-term intervention and small sample size, and many results were achieved in animal experiments. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that no study was conducted directly on sarcopenia patients.



**Figure 1** Molecular mechanism of HIIT on treating and preventing sarcopenia. (A) Promotion of muscle protein synthesis. HIIT and enough nutrient supplementation upregulate PI3K/Akt pathway. Akt inhibits tuberous sclerosis complex (TSC) through phosphorylation. TSC facilitates the conversion of RHEB-GTP to RHEB-GDP, thereby inhibiting the function of RHEB-GTP to activate mTORC1. Thus, mTORC1 pathway is relieved from the inhibition of TSC. And with the existence of amino acids, Rag guanine triphosphatases (Rag GTPases) promote the translocation of mTORC1 to lysosome where RHEB-GTP activates mTORC1. Thus, muscle protein synthesis is triggered. (B) Inhibition of muscle protein breakdown. Akt-mediated phosphorylation inhibits FOXO and the expression of the atrophy-related ubiquitin ligases Atrogin 1 and MURF1, and thus suppresses muscle protein breakdown caused by Proteasomal proteolysis. (C) Enhancement of mitochondrial biogenesis. Concentration of Calcium ion and expression of AMPK in muscle cells are unregulated by HIIT. Calcium ion and Akt promote PGC-1 $\alpha$  pathway through CREB, and AMPK activates PGC-1 $\alpha$  through direct phosphorylation and SIRT1-dependent deacetylation. PGC-1 $\alpha$  enhances the expression of NRF1 and NRF2, which stimulate mitochondrial biogenesis and increase of mitochondrial respiratory capacity. (D) Promotion of the GLUT4 expression. AMPK, Ca<sup>2+</sup> and p38 MAPK can induce the expression of GLUT4 gene.

**Abbreviations:** Akt, protein kinase B; AMPK, AMP activated kinase; eIF, eukaryotic initiation factor; mTORC1, mammalian target of rapamycin complex 1; 4E-BP1, eukaryotic initiation factor 4E (eIF4E)-binding protein-1; Rag, Ras-related GTPase; rpS6, ribosomal protein S6; S6K1, p70 ribosomal S6 kinase 1; CaMK, calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase; CREB, cAMP response element-binding protein; ETC, electron transport chain; NRF, nuclear respiratory factor; PGC-1 $\alpha$ , proliferator-activated receptor  $\gamma$  coactivator 1 $\alpha$ ; SIRT1, sirtuin 1; Tfam, mitochondrial transcription factor A; Mt, mitochondria; GLUT4, glucose transporter 4; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase.

Hence, it is necessary to implement clinical trials on elderly people with long-term intervention and large sample size in the future.

## Funding

This work was supported by National Key R&D Program of China (2019YFA0111900), National Natural Science Foundation of China (82071970, 81874030, 82072506), Provincial Natural Science Foundation of Hunan (2020JJ3060), Provincial Clinical Medical Technology Innovation Project of Hunan (2020SK53709), the Administration of Traditional Chinese Medicine of Hunan Province (2021075), Innovation-Driven Project of Central South University (2020CX045), Science and Technology Innovation Project of Jiangnan University (2021kjzx008), Hunan Yong Talents of Science and

Technology (2021RC3025), Wu Jieping Medical Foundation (320.6750.2020-03-14), and the Independent Exploration and Innovation Project for Postgraduate Students of Central South University (2021zzts1024).

## Disclosure

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## References

1. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Sayer AA. Sarcopenia. *Lancet*. 2019;393(10191):2636–2646.
2. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Baeyens JP, Bauer JM, et al. Sarcopenia: European consensus on definition and diagnosis: report of the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People. *Age Ageing*. 2010;39(4):412–423.
3. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Bahat G, Bauer J, et al. Sarcopenia: revised European consensus on definition and diagnosis. *Age Ageing*. 2019;48(1):16–31.
4. Chen LK, Woo J, Assantachai P, et al. Asian Working Group for Sarcopenia: 2019 Consensus Update on Sarcopenia Diagnosis and Treatment. *J Am Med Dir Assoc*. 2020;21(3):300–307.e302.
5. Bianchi L, Maietti E, Abete P, et al. Comparing EWGSOP2 and FNIH Sarcopenia Definitions: agreement and 3-Year Survival Prognostic Value in Older Hospitalized Adults: the GLISTEN Study. *J Gerontol a Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2020;75(7):1331–1337.
6. Bhasin S, Travison TG, Manini TM, et al. Sarcopenia Definition: the Position Statements of the Sarcopenia Definition and Outcomes Consortium. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2020;68(7):1410–1418.
7. Dennison EM, Sayer AA, Cooper C. Epidemiology of sarcopenia and insight into possible therapeutic targets. *Nat Rev Rheumatol*. 2017;13(6):340–347.
8. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Landi F, Schneider SM, et al. Prevalence of and interventions for sarcopenia in ageing adults: a systematic review. Report of the International Sarcopenia Initiative (EWGSOP and IWGS). *Age Ageing*. 2014;43(6):748–759.
9. Han P, Kang L, Guo Q, et al. Prevalence and Factors Associated With Sarcopenia in Suburb-dwelling Older Chinese Using the Asian Working Group for Sarcopenia Definition. *J Gerontol a Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2016;71(4):529–535.
10. Liu X, Hao Q, Hou L, et al. Ethnic Groups Differences in the Prevalence of Sarcopenia Using the AWGS Criteria. *J Nutr Health Aging*. 2020;24(6):665–671.
11. Bischoff-Ferrari HA, Orav JE, Kanis JA, et al. Comparative performance of current definitions of sarcopenia against the prospective incidence of falls among community-dwelling seniors age 65 and older. *Osteoporos Int*. 2015;26(12):2793–2802.
12. Papadopoulou SK, Tsintavis P, Potsaki P, Papandreou D. Differences in the Prevalence of Sarcopenia in Community-Dwelling, Nursing Home and Hospitalized Individuals. A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Nutr Health Aging*. 2020;24(1):83–90.
13. Janssen I, Heymsfield SB, Ross R. Low relative skeletal muscle mass (sarcopenia) in older persons is associated with functional impairment and physical disability. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2002;50(5):889–896.
14. Dam TT, Peters KW, Fragala M, et al. An evidence-based comparison of operational criteria for the presence of sarcopenia. *J Gerontol a Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2014;69(5):584–590.
15. Yeung SSY, Reijnierse EM, Pham VK, et al. Sarcopenia and its association with falls and fractures in older adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle*. 2019;10(3):485–500.
16. Xie WQ, He M, Yu DJ, et al. Mouse models of sarcopenia: classification and evaluation. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle*. 2021;12(3):538–554.
17. Curcio F, Testa G, Liguori I, et al. Sarcopenia and Heart Failure. *Nutrients*. 2020;12(1):584.
18. Okazaki T, Ebihara S, Mori T, Izumi S, Ebihara T. Association between sarcopenia and pneumonia in older people. *Geriatr Gerontol Int*. 2020;20(1):7–13.
19. Choi KM. Sarcopenia and sarcopenic obesity. *Korean J Intern Med*. 2016;31(6):1054–1060.
20. Peng TC, Chen WL, Wu LW, Chang YW, Kao TW. Sarcopenia and cognitive impairment: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Nutr*. 2020;39(9):2695–2701.
21. Kirk B, Zanker J, Duque G. Osteosarcopenia: epidemiology, diagnosis, and treatment-facts and numbers. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle*. 2020;11(3):609–618.
22. Frontera WR, Hughes VA, Fielding RA, Fiatarone MA, Evans WJ, Roubenoff R. Aging of skeletal muscle: a 12-yr longitudinal study. *J Appl Physiol*. 2000;88(4):1321–1326.
23. Breen L, Phillips SM. Skeletal muscle protein metabolism in the elderly: interventions to counteract the ‘anabolic resistance’ of ageing. *Nutr Metab (Lond)*. 2011;8:68.
24. Wilkinson DJ, Piasecki M, Atherton PJ. The age-related loss of skeletal muscle mass and function: measurement and physiology of muscle fibre atrophy and muscle fibre loss in humans. *Ageing Res Rev*. 2018;47:123–132.
25. Nilwik R, Snijders T, Leenders M, et al. The decline in skeletal muscle mass with aging is mainly attributed to a reduction in type II muscle fiber size. *Exp Gerontol*. 2013;48(5):492–498.
26. Kimball SR. Integration of signals generated by nutrients, hormones, and exercise in skeletal muscle. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2014;99(1):237s–242s.
27. Manning BD, Toker A. AKT/PKB Signaling: navigating the Network. *Cell*. 2017;169(3):381–405.
28. Goodman CA. Role of mTORC1 in mechanically induced increases in translation and skeletal muscle mass. *J Appl Physiol*. 2019;127(2):581–590.
29. Naseeb MA, Volpe SL. Protein and exercise in the prevention of sarcopenia and aging. *Nutr Res*. 2017;40:1–20.
30. Traylor DA, Gorissen SHM, Phillips SM. Perspective: protein Requirements and Optimal Intakes in Aging: are We Ready to Recommend More Than the Recommended Daily Allowance? *Adv Nutr*. 2018;9(3):171–182.
31. Dardevet D, Sornet C, Balage M, Grizard J. Stimulation of in vitro rat muscle protein synthesis by leucine decreases with age. *J Nutr*. 2000;130(11):2630–2635.
32. Robinson MM, Dasari S, Konopka AR, et al. Enhanced Protein Translation Underlies Improved Metabolic and Physical Adaptations to Different Exercise Training Modes in Young and Old Humans. *Cell Metab*. 2017;25(3):581–592.

33. Rygiel KA, Picard M, Turnbull DM. The ageing neuromuscular system and sarcopenia: a mitochondrial perspective. *J Physiol.* 2016;594(16):4499–4512.
34. Deschenes MR. Effects of aging on muscle fibre type and size. *Sports Med.* 2004;34(12):809–824.
35. Rezuş E, Burlui A, Cardoneanu A, et al. Inactivity and Skeletal Muscle Metabolism: a Vicious Cycle in Old Age. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2020;21(2):547.
36. Finkel T, Holbrook NJ. Oxidants, oxidative stress and the biology of ageing. *Nature.* 2000;408(6809):239–247.
37. Yamakawa H, Kusumoto D, Hashimoto H, Yuasa S. Stem Cell Aging in Skeletal Muscle Regeneration and Disease. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2020;21(5):78.
38. Derbré F, Gratas-Delamarche A, Gómez-Cabrera MC, Viña J. Inactivity-induced oxidative stress: a central role in age-related sarcopenia? *Eur J Sport Sci.* 2014;14(Suppl 1):S98–108.
39. Wiedmer P, Jung T, Castro JP, et al. Sarcopenia - Molecular mechanisms and open questions. *Ageing Res Rev.* 2021;65:101200.
40. Cohen S, Nathan JA, Goldberg AL. Muscle wasting in disease: molecular mechanisms and promising therapies. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2015;14(1):58–74.
41. Ryall JG, Schertzer JD, Lynch GS. Cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying age-related skeletal muscle wasting and weakness. *Biogerontology.* 2008;9(4):213–228.
42. Morley JE, Malmstrom TK. Frailty, sarcopenia, and hormones. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am.* 2013;42(2):391–405.
43. Sinha-Hikim I, Cornford M, Gaytan H, Lee ML, Bhasin S. Effects of testosterone supplementation on skeletal muscle fiber hypertrophy and satellite cells in community-dwelling older men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2006;91(8):3024–3033.
44. Chen L, Hu Y. The correlation between serum thyroid hormone levels and hand grip among elderly male Chinese inpatients. *Aging Male.* 2020;23(5):928–933.
45. Milanese A, Lee JW, Yang A, et al. Thyroid Hormone Receptor Alpha is Essential to Maintain the Satellite Cell Niche During Skeletal Muscle Injury and Sarcopenia of Aging. *Thyroid.* 2017;27(10):1316–1322.
46. Sheng Y, Ma D, Zhou Q, et al. Association of thyroid function with sarcopenia in elderly Chinese euthyroid subjects. *Aging Clin Exp Res.* 2019;31(8):1113–1120.
47. Anthony JC, Yoshizawa F, Anthony TG, Vary TC, Jefferson LS, Kimball SR. Leucine stimulates translation initiation in skeletal muscle of postabsorptive rats via a rapamycin-sensitive pathway. *J Nutr.* 2000;130(10):2413–2419.
48. Beaudart C, Sanchez-Rodriguez D, Locquet M, Reginster JY, Lengelé L, Bruyère O. Malnutrition as a Strong Predictor of the Onset of Sarcopenia. *Nutrients.* 2019;11:12.
49. Brook MS, Wilkinson DJ, Phillips BE, et al. Skeletal muscle homeostasis and plasticity in youth and ageing: impact of nutrition and exercise. *Acta Physiol.* 2016;216(1):15–41.
50. Houston DK, Nicklas BJ, Ding J, et al. Dietary protein intake is associated with lean mass change in older, community-dwelling adults: the Health, Aging, and Body Composition (Health ABC) Study. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2008;87(1):150–155.
51. Verlaan S, Maier AB, Bauer JM, et al. Sufficient levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D and protein intake required to increase muscle mass in sarcopenic older adults - The PROVIDE study. *Clin Nutr.* 2018;37(2):551–557.
52. Park Y, Choi JE, Hwang HS. Protein supplementation improves muscle mass and physical performance in undernourished prefrail and frail elderly subjects: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2018;108(5):1026–1033.
53. Marzetti E, Calvani R, Tosato M, et al. Physical activity and exercise as countermeasures to physical frailty and sarcopenia. *Aging Clin Exp Res.* 2017;29(1):35–42.
54. Rowe GC, Saffdar A, Arany Z. Running forward: new frontiers in endurance exercise biology. *Circulation.* 2014;129(7):798–810.
55. Landi F, Marzetti E, Martone AM, Bernabei R, Onder G. Exercise as a remedy for sarcopenia. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care.* 2014;17(1):25–31.
56. Distefano G, Goodpaster BH. Effects of Exercise and Aging on Skeletal Muscle. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med.* 2018;8(3):487.
57. Kirwan R, McCullough D, Butler T. Sarcopenia during COVID-19 lockdown restrictions: long-term health effects of short-term muscle loss. *Geroscience.* 2020;42(6):1547–1578.
58. Smith L, Tully M, Jacob L, et al. The Association Between Sedentary Behavior and Sarcopenia Among Adults Aged  $\geq 65$  Years in Low- and Middle-Income Countries. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2020;17(5):65.
59. Kalinkovich A, Livshits G. Sarcopenic obesity or obese sarcopenia: a cross talk between age-associated adipose tissue and skeletal muscle inflammation as a main mechanism of the pathogenesis. *Ageing Res Rev.* 2017;35:200–221.
60. Bauer J, Morley JE, Schols A, et al. Sarcopenia: a Time for Action. An SCWD Position Paper. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle.* 2019;10(5):956–961.
61. Dasarthy S, Merli M. Sarcopenia from mechanism to diagnosis and treatment in liver disease. *J Hepatol.* 2016;65(6):1232–1244.
62. Peixoto da Silva S, Santos JMO, Costa ESMP. Cancer cachexia and its pathophysiology: links with sarcopenia, anorexia and asthenia. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle.* 2020;11(3):619–635.
63. Meyer F, Bannert K, Wiese M, et al. Molecular Mechanism Contributing to Malnutrition and Sarcopenia in Patients with Liver Cirrhosis. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2020;21:15.
64. Garber CE, Blissmer B, Deschenes MR, et al. American College of Sports Medicine position stand. Quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory, musculoskeletal, and neuromotor fitness in apparently healthy adults: guidance for prescribing exercise. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2011;43(7):1334–1359.
65. Viana RB, Naves JPA, Coswig VS, et al. Is interval training the magic bullet for fat loss? A systematic review and meta-analysis comparing moderate-intensity continuous training with high-intensity interval training (HIIT). *Br J Sports Med.* 2019;53(10):655–664.
66. Costa EC, Hay JL, Kehler DS, et al. Effects of High-Intensity Interval Training Versus Moderate-Intensity Continuous Training On Blood Pressure in Adults with Pre- to Established Hypertension: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomized Trials. *Sports Med.* 2018;48(9):2127–2142.
67. Villareal DT, Aguirre L, Gurney AB, et al. Aerobic or Resistance Exercise, or Both, in Dieting Obese Older Adults. *N Engl J Med.* 2017;376(20):1943–1955.
68. Billat LV. Interval training for performance: a scientific and empirical practice. Special recommendations for middle- and long-distance running. Part I: aerobic interval training. *Sports Med.* 2001;31(1):13–31.

69. Buchheit M, Laursen PB. High-intensity interval training, solutions to the programming puzzle: part I: cardiopulmonary emphasis. *Sports Med.* 2013;43(5):313–338.
70. Liu Y, Guo C, Liu S, Zhang S, Mao Y, Fang L. Eight Weeks of High-Intensity Interval Static Strength Training Improves Skeletal Muscle Atrophy and Motor Function in Aged Rats via the PGC-1 $\alpha$ /FNDC5/UCP1 Pathway. *Clin Interv Aging.* 2021;16:811–821.
71. Fyfe JJ, Bishop DJ, Zacharewicz E, Russell AP, Stepto NK. Concurrent exercise incorporating high-intensity interval or continuous training modulates mTORC1 signaling and microRNA expression in human skeletal muscle. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol.* 2016;310(11):R1297–1311.
72. Leuchtmann AB, Mueller SM, Aguayo D, et al. Resistance training preserves high-intensity interval training induced improvements in skeletal muscle capillarization of healthy old men: a randomized controlled trial. *Sci Rep.* 2020;10(1):6578.
73. Seldeen KL, Lasky G, Leiker MM, Pang M, Personius KE, Troen BR. High Intensity Interval Training Improves Physical Performance and Frailty in Aged Mice. *J Gerontol a Biol Sci Med Sci.* 2018;73(4):429–437.
74. Li FH, Sun L, Wu DS, Gao HE, Min Z. Proteomics-based identification of different training adaptations of aged skeletal muscle following long-term high-intensity interval and moderate-intensity continuous training in aged rats. *Aging.* 2019;11(12):4159–4182.
75. Martins FM, de Paula Souza A, Nunes PRP, et al. High-intensity body weight training is comparable to combined training in changes in muscle mass, physical performance, inflammatory markers and metabolic health in postmenopausal women at high risk for type 2 diabetes mellitus: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Exp Gerontol.* 2018;107:108–115.
76. Ballesta-García I, Martínez-González-Moro I, Rubio-Arias J, Carrasco-Poyatos M. High-Intensity Interval Circuit Training Versus Moderate-Intensity Continuous Training on Functional Ability and Body Mass Index in Middle-Aged and Older Women: a Randomized Controlled Trial. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2019;16:21.
77. Nunes PRP, Martins FM, Souza AP, et al. Comparative effects of high-intensity interval training with combined training on physical function markers in obese postmenopausal women: a randomized controlled trial. *Menopause.* 2019;26(11):1242–1249.
78. Wens I, Dalgas U, Vandenabeele F, et al. High Intensity Exercise in Multiple Sclerosis: effects on Muscle Contractile Characteristics and Exercise Capacity, a Randomised Controlled Trial. *PLoS One.* 2015;10(9):e0133697.
79. Aboarrage Junior AM, Teixeira CVS, Dos Santos RN, et al. A High-Intensity Jump-Based Aquatic Exercise Program Improves Bone Mineral Density and Functional Fitness in Postmenopausal Women. *Rejuvenation Res.* 2018;21(6):535–540.
80. Hayes LD, Elliott BT, Yasar Z, et al. High Intensity Interval Training (HIIT) as a Potential Countermeasure for Phenotypic Characteristics of Sarcopenia: a Scoping Review. *Front Physiol.* 2021;12:715044.
81. Kemmler W, Kohl M, Fröhlich M, et al. Effects of High-Intensity Resistance Training on Osteopenia and Sarcopenia Parameters in Older Men with Osteosarcopenia—One-Year Results of the Randomized Controlled Franconian Osteopenia and Sarcopenia Trial (FrOST). *J Bone Miner Res.* 2020;35(9):1634–1644.
82. Crozier J, Roig M, Eng JJ, et al. High-Intensity Interval Training After Stroke: an Opportunity to Promote Functional Recovery, Cardiovascular Health, and Neuroplasticity. *Neurorehabil Neural Repair.* 2018;32(6–7):543–556.
83. Weston KS, Wisløff U, Coombes JS. High-intensity interval training in patients with lifestyle-induced cardiometabolic disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med.* 2014;48(16):1227–1234.
84. Pires Peixoto R, Trombert V, Poncet A, et al. Feasibility and safety of high-intensity interval training for the rehabilitation of geriatric inpatients (HIITERGY) a pilot randomized study. *BMC Geriatr.* 2020;20(1):197.
85. Rognmo Ø, Moholdt T, Bakken H, et al. Cardiovascular risk of high- versus moderate-intensity aerobic exercise in coronary heart disease patients. *Circulation.* 2012;126(12):1436–1440.
86. Taylor JL, Holland DJ, Keating SE, et al. Short-term and Long-term Feasibility, Safety, and Efficacy of High-Intensity Interval Training in Cardiac Rehabilitation: the FITR Heart Study Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Cardiol.* 2020;5(12):1382–1389.
87. Moholdt T, Aamot IL, Granøien I, et al. Aerobic interval training increases peak oxygen uptake more than usual care exercise training in myocardial infarction patients: a randomized controlled study. *Clin Rehabil.* 2012;26(1):33–44.
88. Conraads VM, Pattyn N, De Maeyer C, et al. Aerobic interval training and continuous training equally improve aerobic exercise capacity in patients with coronary artery disease: the SAINTEX-CAD study. *Int J Cardiol.* 2015;179:203–210.
89. Klein T, Bailey TG, Abeln V, Schneider S, Askew CD. Cerebral Blood Flow during Interval and Continuous Exercise in Young and Old Men. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2019;51(7):1523–1531.
90. Dun Y, Smith JR, Liu S, Olson TP. High-Intensity Interval Training in Cardiac Rehabilitation. *Clin Geriatr Med.* 2019;35(4):469–487.
91. Jelleyman C, Yates T, O'Donovan G, et al. The effects of high-intensity interval training on glucose regulation and insulin resistance: a meta-analysis. *Obes Rev.* 2015;16(11):942–961.
92. de Salles BF, Simão R, Miranda F, Novaes Jda S, Lemos A, Willardson JM. Rest interval between sets in strength training. *Sports Med.* 2009;39(9):765–777.
93. McLaren SJ, Macpherson TW, Coutts AJ, Hurst C, Spears IR, Weston M. The Relationships Between Internal and External Measures of Training Load and Intensity in Team Sports: a Meta-Analysis. *Sports Med.* 2018;48(3):641–658.
94. Ross LM, Porter RR, Durstine JL. High-intensity interval training (HIIT) for patients with chronic diseases. *J Sport Health Sci.* 2016;5(2):139–144.
95. Levine BD. VO<sub>2</sub>max: what do we know, and what do we still need to know? *J Physiol.* 2008;586(1):25–34.
96. Arts FJ, Kuipers H. The relation between power output, oxygen uptake and heart rate in male athletes. *Int J Sports Med.* 1994;15(5):228–231.
97. Karvonen J, Vuorimaa T. Heart rate and exercise intensity during sports activities. Practical application. *Sports Med.* 1988;5(5):303–311.
98. Hopkins WG. Quantification of training in competitive sports. Methods and applications. *Sports Med.* 1991;12(3):161–183.
99. Borresen J, Lambert MI. The quantification of training load, the training response and the effect on performance. *Sports Med.* 2009;39(9):779–795.
100. Mann T, Lamberts RP, Lambert MI. Methods of prescribing relative exercise intensity: physiological and practical considerations. *Sports Med.* 2013;43(7):613–625.
101. Jetté M, Sidney K, Blümchen G. Metabolic equivalents (METs) in exercise testing, exercise prescription, and evaluation of functional capacity. *Clin Cardiol.* 1990;13(8):555–565.

102. Reed JL, Pipe AL. Practical Approaches to Prescribing Physical Activity and Monitoring Exercise Intensity. *Can J Cardiol.* 2016;32(4):514–522.
103. Lichtenberg T, von Stengel S, Sieber C, Kemmler W. The Favorable Effects of a High-Intensity Resistance Training on Sarcopenia in Older Community-Dwelling Men with Osteosarcopenia: the Randomized Controlled FrOST Study. *Clin Interv Aging.* 2019;14:2173–2186.
104. Kemmler W, Kohl M, Jakob F, Engelke K, von Stengel S. Effects of High Intensity Dynamic Resistance Exercise and Whey Protein Supplements on Osteosarcopenia in Older Men with Low Bone and Muscle Mass. Final Results of the Randomized Controlled FrOST Study. *Nutrients.* 2020;12(8):78.
105. Lasevicius T, Ugrinowitsch C, Schoenfeld BJ, et al. Effects of different intensities of resistance training with equated volume load on muscle strength and hypertrophy. *Eur J Sport Sci.* 2018;18(6):772–780.
106. Seynnes O, Fiatarone Singh MA, Hue O, Pras P, Legros P, Bernard PL. Physiological and functional responses to low-moderate versus high-intensity progressive resistance training in frail elders. *J Gerontol a Biol Sci Med Sci.* 2004;59(5):503–509.
107. Yasuda T, Ogasawara R, Sakamaki M, Ozaki H, Sato Y, Abe T. Combined effects of low-intensity blood flow restriction training and high-intensity resistance training on muscle strength and size. *Eur J Appl Physiol.* 2011;111(10):2525–2533.
108. Beneka A, Malliou P, Fatouros I, et al. Resistance training effects on muscular strength of elderly are related to intensity and gender. *J Sci Med Sport.* 2005;8(3):274–283.
109. Sahin UK, Kirdi N, Bozoglu E, et al. Effect of low-intensity versus high-intensity resistance training on the functioning of the institutionalized frail elderly. *Int J Rehabil Res.* 2018;41(3):211–217.
110. Townsend LK, Islam H, Dunn E, Eys M, Robertson-Wilson J, Hazell TJ. Modified sprint interval training protocols. Part II. Psychological responses. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab.* 2017;42(4):347–353.
111. MacInnis MJ, Gibala MJ. Physiological adaptations to interval training and the role of exercise intensity. *J Physiol.* 2017;595(9):2915–2930.
112. Guiraud T, Nigam A, Gremaux V, Meyer P, Juneau M, Bosquet L. High-intensity interval training in cardiac rehabilitation. *Sports Med.* 2012;42(7):587–605.
113. Schoenfeld BJ, Pope ZK, Benik FM, et al. Longer Interset Rest Periods Enhance Muscle Strength and Hypertrophy in Resistance-Trained Men. *J Strength Cond Res.* 2016;30(7):1805–1812.
114. Abdessemed D, Duché P, Hautier C, Poumarat G, Bedu M. Effect of recovery duration on muscular power and blood lactate during the bench press exercise. *Int J Sports Med.* 1999;20(6):368–373.
115. Edge J, Eynon N, McKenna MJ, Goodman CA, Harris RC, Bishop DJ. Altering the rest interval during high-intensity interval training does not affect muscle or performance adaptations. *Exp Physiol.* 2013;98(2):481–490.
116. Tucker WJ, Sawyer BJ, Jarrett CL, Bhammar DM, Gaesser GA. Physiological responses to high-intensity interval exercise differing in interval duration. *J Strength Cond Res.* 2015;29(12):3326–3335.
117. Schoenmakers P, Reed KE. The effects of recovery duration on physiological and perceptual responses of trained runners during four self-paced HIIT sessions. *J Sci Med Sport.* 2019;22(4):462–466.
118. Rozenek R, Salassi JW, Pinto NM, Fleming JD. Acute Cardiopulmonary and Metabolic Responses to High-Intensity Interval Training Protocols Using 60s of Work and 60s Recovery. *J Strength Cond Res.* 2016;30(11):3014–3023.
119. McGinley C, Bishop DJ. Rest interval duration does not influence adaptations in acid/base transport proteins following 10 wk of sprint-interval training in active women. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol.* 2017;312(5):R702–r717.
120. García-De Frutos JM, Orquín-Castrillón FJ, Marcos-Pardo PJ, Rubio-Arias J, Martínez-Rodríguez A. Acute Effects of Work Rest Interval Duration of 3 HIIT Protocols on Cycling Power in Trained Young Adults. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2021;18:8.
121. Theou O, Gareth JR, Brown LE. Effect of rest interval on strength recovery in young and old women. *J Strength Cond Res.* 2008;22(6):1876–1881.
122. Villanueva MG, Lane CJ, Schroeder ET. Short rest interval lengths between sets optimally enhance body composition and performance with 8 weeks of strength resistance training in older men. *Eur J Appl Physiol.* 2015;115(2):295–308.
123. Wernbom M, Augustsson J, Thomeé R. The influence of frequency, intensity, volume and mode of strength training on whole muscle cross-sectional area in humans. *Sports Med.* 2007;37(3):225–264.
124. Figueiredo VC, de Salles BF, Trajano GS. Volume for Muscle Hypertrophy and Health Outcomes: the Most Effective Variable in Resistance Training. *Sports Med.* 2018;48(3):499–505.
125. Schoenfeld BJ, Contreras B, Krieger J, et al. Resistance Training Volume Enhances Muscle Hypertrophy but Not Strength in Trained Men. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2019;51(1):94–103.
126. González-Badillo JJ, Gorostiaga EM, Arellano R, Izquierdo M. Moderate resistance training volume produces more favorable strength gains than high or low volumes during a short-term training cycle. *J Strength Cond Res.* 2005;19(3):689–697.
127. Peterson MD, Sen A, Gordon PM. Influence of resistance exercise on lean body mass in aging adults: a meta-analysis. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2011;43(2):249–258.
128. Schoenfeld BJ, Ogborn D, Krieger JW. Dose-response relationship between weekly resistance training volume and increases in muscle mass: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Sports Sci.* 2017;35(11):1073–1082.
129. Burgomaster KA, Howarth KR, Phillips SM, et al. Similar metabolic adaptations during exercise after low volume sprint interval and traditional endurance training in humans. *J Physiol.* 2008;586(1):151–160.
130. Boukabous I, Marcotte-Chénard A, Amamou T, et al. Low-Volume High-Intensity Interval Training (HIIT) versus Moderate-Intensity Continuous Training on Body Composition, Cardiometabolic Profile and Physical Capacity in Older Women. *J Aging Phys Act.* 2019;27(4):879–889.
131. Haines M, Broom D, Gillibrand W, Stephenson J. Effects of three low-volume, high-intensity exercise conditions on affective valence. *J Sports Sci.* 2020;38(2):121–129.
132. Pescatello LS, Franklin BA, Fagard R, Farquhar WB, Kelley GA, Ray CA. American College of Sports Medicine position stand. Exercise and hypertension. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2004;36(3):533–553.
133. Ramos JS, Dalleck LC, Tjonna AE, Beetham KS, Coombes JS. The impact of high-intensity interval training versus moderate-intensity continuous training on vascular function: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sports Med.* 2015;45(5):679–692.

134. Zhang YJ, Yao Y, Zhang PD, et al. Association of regular aerobic exercises and neuromuscular junction variants with incidence of frailty: an analysis of the Chinese Longitudinal Health and Longevity Survey. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle*. 2021;12(2):350–357.
135. Keating SE, Johnson NA, Mielke GI, Coombes JS. A systematic review and meta-analysis of interval training versus moderate-intensity continuous training on body adiposity. *Obes Rev*. 2017;18(8):943–964.
136. Mann S, Beedie C, Jimenez A. Differential effects of aerobic exercise, resistance training and combined exercise modalities on cholesterol and the lipid profile: review, synthesis and recommendations. *Sports Med*. 2014;44(2):211–221.
137. Angadi SS, Mookadam F, Lee CD, Tucker WJ, Haykowsky MJ, Gaesser GA. High-intensity interval training vs. moderate-intensity continuous exercise training in heart failure with preserved ejection fraction: a pilot study. *J Appl Physiol*. 2015;119(6):753–758.
138. Mendes R, Sousa N, Themudo-Barata JL, Reis VM. High-Intensity Interval Training Versus Moderate-Intensity Continuous Training in Middle-Aged and Older Patients with Type 2 Diabetes: a Randomized Controlled Crossover Trial of the Acute Effects of Treadmill Walking on Glycemic Control. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2019;16:21.
139. Van De Heyning CM, De Maeyer C, Pattyn N, et al. Impact of aerobic interval training and continuous training on left ventricular geometry and function: a SAINTEX-CAD substudy. *Int J Cardiol*. 2018;257:193–198.
140. Gomes Neto M, Durães AR, Conceição LSR, Saquetto MB, Ellingsen Ø, Carvalho VO. High intensity interval training versus moderate intensity continuous training on exercise capacity and quality of life in patients with heart failure with reduced ejection fraction: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Cardiol*. 2018;261:134–141.
141. Milanović Z, Sporiš G, Weston M. Effectiveness of High-Intensity Interval Training (HIT) and Continuous Endurance Training for VO<sub>2</sub>max Improvements: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Controlled Trials. *Sports Med*. 2015;45(10):1469–1481.
142. Sultana RN, Sabag A, Keating SE, Johnson NA. The Effect of Low-Volume High-Intensity Interval Training on Body Composition and Cardiorespiratory Fitness: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Sports Med*. 2019;49(11):1687–1721.
143. Wisløff U, Støylen A, Loennechen JP, et al. Superior cardiovascular effect of aerobic interval training versus moderate continuous training in heart failure patients: a randomized study. *Circulation*. 2007;115(24):3086–3094.
144. Lu K, Wang L, Wang C, Yang Y, Hu D, Ding R. Effects of high-intensity interval versus continuous moderate-intensity aerobic exercise on apoptosis, oxidative stress and metabolism of the infarcted myocardium in a rat model. *Mol Med Rep*. 2015;12(2):2374–2382.
145. França GO, Frantz EDC, Magliano DC, et al. Effects of short-term high-intensity interval and continuous exercise training on body composition and cardiac function in obese sarcopenic rats. *Life Sci*. 2020;256:117920.
146. Ryan BJ, Schleh MW, Ahn C, et al. Moderate-Intensity Exercise and High-Intensity Interval Training Affect Insulin Sensitivity Similarly in Obese Adults. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2020;105(8):e2941–2959.
147. Wu ZJ, Wang ZY, Gao HE, Zhou XF, Li FH. Impact of high-intensity interval training on cardiorespiratory fitness, body composition, physical fitness, and metabolic parameters in older adults: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Exp Gerontol*. 2021;150:111345.
148. Bartlett DB, Shepherd SO, Wilson OJ, et al. Neutrophil and Monocyte Bactericidal Responses to 10 Weeks of Low-Volume High-Intensity Interval or Moderate-Intensity Continuous Training in Sedentary Adults. *Oxid Med Cell Longev*. 2017;2017:8148742.
149. Li FH, Sun L, Zhu M, et al. Beneficial alterations in body composition, physical performance, oxidative stress, inflammatory markers, and adipocytokines induced by long-term high-intensity interval training in an aged rat model. *Exp Gerontol*. 2018;113:150–162.
150. Ferrucci L, Fabbri E. Inflammageing: chronic inflammation in ageing, cardiovascular disease, and frailty. *Nat Rev Cardiol*. 2018;15(9):505–522.
151. Nemoto K, Gen-no H, Masuki S, Okazaki K, Nose H. Effects of high-intensity interval walking training on physical fitness and blood pressure in middle-aged and older people. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2007;82(7):803–811.
152. Keogh JW, Grigg J, Vertullo CJ. Is high-intensity interval cycling feasible and more beneficial than continuous cycling for knee osteoarthritic patients? Results of a randomised control feasibility trial. *PeerJ*. 2018;6:e4738.
153. Dupuit M, Rance M, Morel C, et al. Moderate-Intensity Continuous Training or High-Intensity Interval Training with or without Resistance Training for Altering Body Composition in Postmenopausal Women. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2020;52(3):736–745.
154. Wewege M, van den Berg R, Ward RE, Keech A. The effects of high-intensity interval training vs. moderate-intensity continuous training on body composition in overweight and obese adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obes Rev*. 2017;18(6):635–646.
155. Kong Z, Fan X, Sun S, Song L, Shi Q, Nie J. Comparison of High-Intensity Interval Training and Moderate-to-Vigorous Continuous Training for Cardiometabolic Health and Exercise Enjoyment in Obese Young Women: a Randomized Controlled Trial. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(7):e0158589.
156. Gibala MJ, Little JP, Macdonald MJ, Hawley JA. Physiological adaptations to low-volume, high-intensity interval training in health and disease. *J Physiol*. 2012;590(5):1077–1084.
157. Gibala MJ, McGee SL, Garnham AP, Howlett KF, Snow RJ, Hargreaves M. Brief intense interval exercise activates AMPK and p38 MAPK signaling and increases the expression of PGC-1 $\alpha$  in human skeletal muscle. *J Appl Physiol*. 2009;106(3):929–934.
158. Lira VA, Benton CR, Yan Z, Bonen A. PGC-1 $\alpha$  regulation by exercise training and its influences on muscle function and insulin sensitivity. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*. 2010;299(2):E145–161.
159. Li PA, Hou X, Hao S. Mitochondrial biogenesis in neurodegeneration. *J Neurosci Res*. 2017;95(10):2025–2029.
160. Theilen NT, Kunkel GH, Tyagi SC. The Role of Exercise and TFAM in Preventing Skeletal Muscle Atrophy. *J Cell Physiol*. 2017;232(9):2348–2358.
161. Sandri M, Lin J, Handschin C, et al. PGC-1 $\alpha$  protects skeletal muscle from atrophy by suppressing FoxO3 action and atrophy-specific gene transcription. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2006;103(44):16260–16265.
162. Milan G, Romanello V, Pescatore F, et al. Regulation of autophagy and the ubiquitin-proteasome system by the FoxO transcriptional network during muscle atrophy. *Nat Commun*. 2015;6:6670.
163. Cassidy S, Thoma C, Houghton D, Trenell MI. High-intensity interval training: a review of its impact on glucose control and cardiometabolic health. *Diabetologia*. 2017;60(1):7–23.
164. Davis RAH, Halbrooks JE, Watkins EE, et al. High-intensity interval training and calorie restriction promote remodeling of glucose and lipid metabolism in diet-induced obesity. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*. 2017;313(2):E243–e256.
165. Richter EA, Hargreaves M. Exercise, GLUT4, and skeletal muscle glucose uptake. *Physiol Rev*. 2013;93(3):993–1017.
166. Stølen TO, Høydal MA, Kemi OJ, et al. Interval training normalizes cardiomyocyte function, diastolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> control, and SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release synchronicity in a mouse model of diabetic cardiomyopathy. *Circ Res*. 2009;105(6):527–536.

167. Wang B, Zhou R, Wang Y, et al. Effect of high-intensity interval training on cardiac structure and function in rats with acute myocardial infarct. *Biomed Pharmacother.* 2020;131:110690.
168. de Oliveira Sá G, Dos Santos Neves V, de Oliveira Fraga SR, Souza-Mello V, Barbosa-da-Silva S. High-intensity interval training has beneficial effects on cardiac remodeling through local renin-angiotensin system modulation in mice fed high-fat or high-fructose diets. *Life Sci.* 2017;189:8–17.
169. Ellingsen Ø, Halle M, Conraads V, et al. High-Intensity Interval Training in Patients With Heart Failure With Reduced Ejection Fraction. *Circulation.* 2017;135(9):839–849.
170. Grace F, Herbert P, Elliott AD, Richards J, Beaumont A, Sculthorpe NF. High intensity interval training (HIIT) improves resting blood pressure, metabolic (MET) capacity and heart rate reserve without compromising cardiac function in sedentary aging men. *Exp Gerontol.* 2018;109:75–81.
171. Batacan RB, Duncan MJ, Dalbo VJ, Tucker PS, Fenning AS. Effects of high-intensity interval training on cardiometabolic health: a systematic review and meta-analysis of intervention studies. *Br J Sports Med.* 2017;51(6):494–503.
172. Maillard F, Pereira B, Boisseau N. Effect of High-Intensity Interval Training on Total, Abdominal and Visceral Fat Mass: a Meta-Analysis. *Sports Med.* 2018;48(2):269–288.
173. Ranallo RF, Rhodes EC. Lipid metabolism during exercise. *Sports Med.* 1998;26(1):29–42.
174. Astorino TA, Schubert MM. Changes in fat oxidation in response to various regimes of high intensity interval training (HIIT). *Eur J Appl Physiol.* 2018;118(1):51–63.

### Clinical Interventions in Aging

Dovepress

### Publish your work in this journal

Clinical Interventions in Aging is an international, peer-reviewed journal focusing on evidence-based reports on the value or lack thereof of treatments intended to prevent or delay the onset of maladaptive correlates of aging in human beings. This journal is indexed on PubMed Central, MedLine, CAS, Scopus and the Elsevier Bibliographic databases. The manuscript management system is completely online and includes a very quick and fair peer-review system, which is all easy to use. Visit <http://www.dovepress.com/testimonials.php> to read real quotes from published authors.

Submit your manuscript here: <https://www.dovepress.com/clinical-interventions-in-aging-journal>