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Journal article

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**1Ambulatory blood pressure adaptations to high intensity interval training: A
2randomised controlled study.**

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25

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27intensity interval training.

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32 Abbreviations

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34 ABPM - ambulatory blood pressure monitoring

35 BP - blood pressure

36 BPV - blood pressure variability

37 dBp - diastolic blood pressure

38 HR - heart rate

39 HIIT - high-intensity interval training

40 mBP - mean blood pressure

41 MICT - moderate intensity continuous training

42 PP - pulse pressure

43 RPP - rate pressure product

44 sBP - systolic blood pressure

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65 Abstract

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67 **Objective:** Hypertension remains the leading cause of cardiovascular disease and premature
68 mortality globally. While high-intensity interval training (HIIT) is an effective non-
69 pharmacological intervention for the reduction of clinic blood pressure (BP), very little
70 research exists regarding its effects on ambulatory BP. The aim of this study was to measure
71 alterations in ambulatory and clinic BP following HIIT in physically inactive adults.

72

73 **Methods:** Forty-one participants (22.8 ± 2.7 years) were randomly assigned to a 4-week
74 HIIT intervention or control group. The HIIT protocol was performed on a cycle ergometer
75 set against a resistance of 7.5% bodyweight and consisted of 3 X 30-s maximal sprints
76 separated with 2-mins active recovery. Clinic and ambulatory BP was recorded pre and post
77 the control period and HIIT intervention.

78

79 **Results:** Following the HIIT intervention, 24-hour ambulatory BP significantly decreased by
80 5.1 mmHg in systolic BP (sBP) and 2.3 mmHg in diastolic BP (dBP) ($p=0.011$ and $p=0.012$,
81 respectively), compared to the control group. Additionally, clinic sBP significantly decreased
82 by 6.6 mmHg compared to the control group ($p=0.021$), with no significant changes in dBP
83 and mean BP (mBP). Finally, 24-hour ambulatory diastolic, daytime sBP, mBP and dBP, and
84 night-time sBP and mBP variability significantly decreased post-HIIT compared with the
85 control group.

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87 **Conclusion:** HIIT remains an effective intervention for the management of BP. Our findings
88 support enduring BP reduction and improved BP variability, which are important independent
89 risk factors for cardiovascular disease.

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99Introduction

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101Hypertension, characterised as a chronic elevation in resting arterial blood pressure (BP), is
102the leading attributable risk factor for cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality [1,2].
103Globally, hypertension is estimated to affect 1.13 billion people and due to its asymptomatic
104nature, this figure may be significantly underestimated [3,4]. Given that the use of
105hypertensive medication has considerable economic burden, is often associated with
106undesirable side-effects and appears to only be efficacious in approximately 50% of patients,
107it is imperative that effective non-pharmacological approaches are utilised to tackle the
108current hypertension crisis [5,6].

109

110The current global physical activity guidelines recommend a minimum of 150 minutes of
111moderate-intensity or 75 minutes of vigorous-intensity exercise per week, with the inclusion
112of strength training twice per week [7]. While the benefits of such exercise on BP are well-
113established, adherence to these guidelines is alarmingly low [8]. Thus, establishing novel
114exercise modes which promote better adherence while achieving significant reductions in BP
115is crucial to global health.

116

117High-intensity interval training (HIIT) is a highly practical, time-efficient exercise modality
118which typically involves short bouts of maximal intensity work separated with appropriate
119recovery periods. HIIT has previously been demonstrated to produce significant reductions in
120resting arterial BP, with the magnitude of reductions comparable to traditional moderate-
121intensity continuous exercise (MICT) [9,10]. Specifically, a recent meta-analysis [10]
122reported statistically significant reductions in systolic (sBP) and diastolic (dBP) BP of 6.3 and
1233.8 mmHg respectively, with no significant difference to the reductions observed in the
124MICT group (-5.8 sBP and -3.5 dBP). While this provides strong evidence for the efficacy of
125HIIT, there are clear gaps in the current literature. Particularly, this meta-analysis identified
126an insufficient number of HIIT studies (two) utilising an ambulatory BP monitoring (ABPM)
127technique and were therefore compelled to exclude such methodology from the analysis [10].
128This is detrimental as ABPM is recognised as a more reliable measure of BP through its
129increased precision, elimination of observer bias and its eradication of potential 'white-coat
130hypertension' [11]. Additionally, ABPM provides information regarding BP variability
131(BPV) and non-dipping, which are important independent predictors for cardiovascular risk
132[12,13]. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to investigate the ambulatory BP responses

133to a short-term HIIT intervention in a cohort of physically inactive adults. We hypothesise
134that a 4-week randomised HIIT intervention will statistically significantly reduce clinic and
135ambulatory BP compared to a control group.

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167 **Methodology**

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169 ***Participant population and ethical approval***

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171 Forty-four volunteers were recruited; however, three participants dropped out prior to
172 baseline testing, leaving a final study population of forty-one (20 males and 21 females). All
173 participants were healthy (22.8 ± 2.7 years), but physically inactive (self-reported in
174 accordance with the current guidelines) [7], were within the normal resting BP range [14] and
175 reported no previous history of cardiovascular disease.

176

177 Through stratifying the randomization on gender, participants were assigned into the 4-week
178 HIIT intervention or control group [15]. This research study conformed to the Declaration of
179 Helsinki principles, and was approved by the Canterbury Christ Church Universities Ethics
180 Committee. All participants completed and signed informed consent prior to testing.

181

182 ***Blood pressure measurements***

183

184 All participants were required to fast for at least 4 hours and refrain from alcohol and caffeine
185 consumption 24-hours before testing, whilst maintaining normal dietary and circadian
186 routines throughout the study and each phase of testing.

187

188 Participants attended a temperature-controlled laboratory for baseline BP screening using an
189 automated oscillometric BP monitor (Dinamap Pro 200 Critikon; GE Medical Systems,
190 Freiburg, Germany). Resting sBP, dBP and mean BP (mBP) from the brachial artery were
191 recorded as an average of 3 measures separated by 5-min following 15-min of seated rest in
192 accordance with current guidelines [16].

193

194 ABPMs were acquired pre and post the HIIT intervention and control period over 24-hours
195 using a commercially available and validated oscillometric sphygmomanometer measured at
196 the brachial artery (Welch Allyn 6100 ambulatory BP monitor; Welch Allyn Inc., Skaneateles
197 Falls, New York, USA). An appropriately sized cuff was set to inflate at 20-minute intervals
198 between 06.00 and 22.00 h and every 30-minutes in the remaining time period. Data was
199 analysed for the entire 24-h period, as well as separately for day time (08.00 to 22.00) and
200 night-time (24.00 to 06.00) periods [17]. Acceptable recordings were determined by ≥ 14

201successful measurements during daytime hours and ≥ 7 measurements at night-time [18]. All
202participants confirmed that they had slept during the specified night-time period. During the
20324-hour measurement, participants were asked to perform usual daily activities, but were
204prohibited from exercise. All BP readings were stored on the device during the measurement
205period and were then transferred to a computer for evaluation (Welch Allyn Cardio Perfect
206Workstation Software for Windows; Welch Allyn Inc.). The average real variability of
207ambulatory sBP, mBP and dBP were calculated to determine BP variability as described in
208previous research [19].

209

210 ***High intensity interval training intervention***

211

212The HIIT intervention was performed over 4-weeks, with participants attending the
213laboratory for training (group sessions) 3 times per week. The exercise protocol was
214performed on a Wattbike cycle ergometer (Wattbike Ltd, Nottingham, UK), and was based
215on a Wingate test protocol. Participants performed a 5-minute steady state warm-up, followed
216by 3 x 30-s maximum effort sprint intervals, each separated by 2 minutes of active recovery.
217Participants were asked to perform 2 to 3, 5-second high revolution spins during their warm-
218up period to ensure they were familiarised with the pedalling speed requirement of the
219Wingate test. Resistance during the sprint intervals was calculated at 7.5% of the individuals
220body mass. Following the 4-week intervention period, post HIIT laboratory assessments were
221performed 48 hours after the final HIIT session in order to avoid any residual effects of post
222exercise hypotension. During the control period, participants were requested to maintain their
223usual routine and daily activities and adherence to this was confirmed prior to laboratory
224assessment.

225

226 ***Sample size estimation***

227

228A reduction of 5 mmHg in sBP from resting and ambulatory measures is considered clinically
229significant [20]. Based on instrument coefficient of variation (3-3.4%) from resting BP
230measures (Dinamap BP monitor) in our laboratory, a sample size of 20-participants in each
231group has 80% power to detect this difference with a 2-sided $p < 0.05$. We estimated a dropout
232rate of between 5-10% leading to an overall sample size of 44 participants.

233

234

235 ***Statistical analysis***

236

237 All data was analysed using a statistical package for social sciences (SPSS V22.0, release
238 version for windows; SPSs Ins., Chicago, IL, USA). Continuous variables are presented as
239 mean \pm standard deviation unless stated otherwise. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was
240 performed, which used baseline values as covariates to assess whether changes in resting and
241 ambulatory BP parameters following both intervention and control group was influenced by
242 the initial resting values. All data was assessed using 2-tailed analysis and was reported as
243 statistically significant when $p < 0.05$.

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269 Results

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271 Participants randomised to the intervention group (n=21) completed a total of 12 training
272 sessions during the 4-week study period. Adherence to the exercise sessions was 100% for all
273 participants with no withdrawals.

274

275 *Resting office blood pressure*

276

277 Following the 4-week HIIT intervention, there was a significant reduction in resting sBP (-
278 6.6 mmHg) compared with the control group (-1.2 mmHg, $p=0.021$). However, there were no
279 significant differences in resting dBP, mBP or pulse pressure (PP) in either the HIIT or
280 control groups (Table 1).

281

282 *Ambulatory blood pressure*

283

284 As shown in Table 2, 24-hour sBP, mBP and dBP significantly decreased following the HIIT
285 intervention (-5.1 mmHg, $p=0.011$; -3.1 mmHg, $p=0.002$; and -2.3 mmHg $p=0.012$
286 respectively), compared to the control group. Figure 1 illustrates the 24-hour BP responses
287 following the HIIT and control period. The reduction in sBP resulted in a significant
288 reduction in 24-hour rate pressure product (RPP) following HIIT (-473.6 mmHg*b·min⁻¹,
289 $p=0.025$) compared to the control group.

290

291 For daytime ambulatory BP, there was a significant reduction in sBP (-3.7 mmHg, $p=0.032$)
292 and dBP (-2.8 mmHg, $p=0.046$) compared to the control group; however, there were no
293 significant changes in daytime mBP. For night-time ambulatory BP, there was a significant
294 reduction in sBP (-6.8 mmHg, $p=0.001$), and mBP (-2.9 mmHg, $p=0.016$), but no significant
295 changes in dBP, compared to the control group. Figure 2 demonstrates daytime and night-
296 time BP responses following the HIIT and control period. The reduction in night-time
297 ambulatory sBP resulted in a significant reduction in 24-hour night-time RPP following HIIT
298 (-67.3 mmHg*b·min⁻¹, $p=0.035$) compared to the control group. Mean hourly sBP, mBP and
299 dBP pre and post HIIT intervention are displayed in Figure 3.

300

301 Following the 4-week intervention, 13 control participants were classified as dippers pre-
302 intervention and 14 participants post intervention. Of the HIIT group, 9 participants were

303classified as dippers pre-intervention and 11 participants post intervention. There was no
304significant difference in the proportion of dippers following HIIT compared to the control
305group.

306

307*Blood pressure variability*

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309As presented in Table 2, following the HIIT intervention, 24-hour diastolic BP variability
310(BPV) significantly decreased (-0.9, $p=0.032$), whereas there were no significant changes in
311systolic or mean BPV compared to the control group. Additionally, there were significant
312decreases in systolic (-1.6 mmHg, $p=0.023$), mean (-1.57 mmHg, $p=0.027$) and diastolic (-1.7
313mmHg, $p=0.037$) daytime ambulatory BPV, and a significant decrease in systolic and mean
314night-time ambulatory BPV (-3.3 mmHg, $p=0.008$ and -1 mmHg, $p=0.003$, respectively)
315compared to the control group. However, there was no significant reduction in night-time
316diastolic BPV compared to the control group.

317

318*Heart rate, pulse pressure and body mass*

319

320No significant differences were recorded in heart rate (HR) or pulse pressure (PP) in 24-hour,
321daytime, or night-time ambulatory measurements for the HIIT intervention compared to the
322control group. In addition, there was no significant change in body mass in following HIIT
323compared to the control group.

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337 Discussion

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339 The present randomised controlled study demonstrated significant reductions in 24-hour
340 ambulatory sBP, mBP, and dBP of -5.1 mmHg, -3.1 mmHg, and -2.3 mmHg, respectively, as
341 well as a significant reduction in clinic sBP of -6.6 mmHg following 4-weeks of HIIT
342 compared to a control group. A decrease of this magnitude is considered clinically significant
343 and similar to the BP reducing effects observed using drug monotherapy [21]. While the
344 results compliment many studies that have reported the beneficial effects of HIIT on resting
345 office BP, ABPM provides valuable information regarding the continued BP response over
346 the 24-hour period, which is crucial in understanding the chronic BP lowering effect of any
347 intervention. In accordance with previous meta-analysis evidence, the magnitude of 24-hour
348 ambulatory BP reduction following our HIIT intervention is comparable to other ambulatory
349 BP reducing exercise interventions including traditional MICT [22,23]. Importantly, such
350 results are associated with statistically significant reductions in the risk of cardiovascular
351 disease and all-cause mortality [24,25]. This is fundamental as ABPM has been reported to
352 provide superior prognostic information regarding cardiovascular risk compared to office or
353 home BP, thus enhancing the implications of such results [26].

354

355 In general, the ambulatory BP responses from this study support the findings from previous
356 research in this limited evidence base; however, the primary differences are centred around
357 the magnitude of reduction. Specifically, previous evidence [27] reported significant
358 reductions ($p < 0.001$) in 24-hour ambulatory BP by a substantial 12 mmHg sBP and 8 mmHg
359 dBP following a 12-week HIIT intervention. In addition to the prolonged intervention
360 duration (8 weeks longer), the increased magnitude of BP reduction observed in their study
361 may be linked to the cohort recruited being Stage 2 hypertensive ($>140/90$ mmHg), as similar
362 anti-hypertensive interventions have reported greater reductions in groups with higher
363 baseline BP values [27,28]. This is potentially due to a lower threshold of BP response, where
364 it cannot be decreased further below its homeostatic clinical level without producing a
365 mechanistic response to prevent hypotension [29]. Separately, the observed differences in the
366 magnitude of BP response can be potentially linked to the differences in HIIT protocol. Our
367 study incorporated a time-efficient Wingate protocol, whereas previous research commonly
368 utilise protocols employing prolonged work periods, as highlighted in intervals of 4-minutes
369 [27]. While the optimal HIIT protocol is yet to be established, these separate findings provide
370 support for HIIT as a flexible training modality, which can be successfully applied through

371various effective protocols. Regardless of these methodological differences, the limited
372number of studies investigating the effects of HIIT on ambulatory BP have reported similar
373results to ours, thus reinforcing the role of HIIT in the management of BP [29–32].

374

375Although complex, the mechanisms whereby BP is reduced following HIIT must involve a
376change in cardiac output and/or total peripheral vascular resistance as the two determining
377factors of arterial pressure. Typically, the mechanisms following HIIT have been primarily
378associated with changes in peripheral vascular resistance due to reports of a significant
379decrease in BP without accompanying decreases in cardiac output [33]; which tends to be
380supported by the unchanged heart rate results of the present study. Additionally, previous
381research [33] reported no significant changes in cardiac dimensions or left ventricular
382ejection fraction following HIIT, which further supports this concept. Despite no likelihood
383of any change in cardiac output, significant improvements in systolic and diastolic left-
384ventricular mechanical adaptations were reported, which affirms the value of HIIT on cardiac
385health [33].

386

387Our results also show a significant reduction in RPP, which is a non-invasive indices of
388myocardial oxygen consumption. This reduction in RPP following the 4-week HIIT
389intervention suggests a reduction in myocardial workload, which may improve myocardial
390efficiency as well as have important long-term clinical implications regarding cardiac health
391and thus cardiovascular risk [34]. Conversely, our results show no significant changes in PP,
392which is a known indicator of arterial stiffness. However, this result is probably not
393surprising when considering the population recruited in this study were young, and arterial
394stiffness generally increases linearly with increasing age. As such, the measured cohort are
395less likely to evidence a decline in vascular function, and thus have a limited capacity for
396change. Conversely, as opposed to arterial stiffness, previous evidence has shown stroke
397volume to be a significant independent contributor to clinic and 24-hr PP in young, healthy
398participants through the expression of a hyperkinetic state, potentially explaining the non-
399significant change in our study [35–37].

400

401In addition, we found significant reductions in daytime sBP (-3.7 mmHg) and dBp (-2.8
402mmHg) as well as night-time sBP (-6.8 mmHg) and mBP (-2.9 mmHg), but not dBp. These
403substantial reductions in night-time ABP are potentially important as nocturnal BP is a
404significant risk factor for mortality and cardiovascular morbidity in both normotensive and

405hypertensive populations [38]. Particularly, sleeping systolic BP should be >10% lower than
406daytime sBP which is termed ‘dipping’ [39]. Despite the observed reductions in night-time
407sBP and mBP, there was no significant difference in proportion of dippers following HIIT
408compared to the control group, thus limiting the implications of such findings.

409

410*Blood pressure variability*

411

412To our knowledge, this is the first study to measure the chronic effects of HIIT on BPV.
413Increased variability in BP over a 24-hour period is well established for its role as a
414prognostic marker for health, independent of mean BP values [40]. Our results show a
415significant reduction in daytime (sBP, mBP and dBp), night-time (sBP and mBP) and
416diastolic 24-hour BPV; however, a non-significant reduction in 24-hour systolic and mean
417BPV. While further research is required, these results may have prognostic importance.
418Specifically, previous evidence has reported significant associations between increased
419daytime BPV and early development of atherosclerosis [41], target organ damage [42] and
420cardiovascular and stroke mortality [43], thus providing implications for these reductions. As
421BP is typically at its peak during waking hours, these reductions in daytime variability
422suggest an improvement in BP regulation in response to daily activities. The mechanisms
423responsible for reductions in BPV remain inconclusively understood; however, fluctuations
424of BP over the course of 24-hours generally reflect central and autonomic modulation and
425arterial elasticity [44]. This is supported in previous evidence [33] which reported a
426significant increase in total power spectrum of heart rate variability with a significant
427decrease in the R-R low frequency/high frequency ratio following a 2-week HIIT
428intervention, indicating enhanced cardiac autonomic modulation with increased
429parasympathetic activity parallel to decreased sympathetic activity; which are understood to
430play a role in the regulation of short-term BPV [33,45,46]. Despite our PP results, the effect
431of HIIT on vascular health are well established, with meta-analysis evidence reporting greater
432vascular function adaptations following HIIT compared to MICT [47]. Although complex,
433these enhanced vascular adaptations have been linked to the promotion of greater shear
434stress-induced nitric oxide bioavailability as a result of the increased blood flow from such
435high intensity exercise [47,48]. However, further research is required to ascertain the effects
436of exercise training on BPV and the mechanisms underlying such adaptations.

437

438

439 **Limitations**

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441 It is important to consider the limitations of this study. In particular, this is a single-centre
442 trial and all sessions of HIIT were performed in a laboratory environment as a group. While
443 this is beneficial for adherence and accurate performance of the intervention, this potentially
444 limits the clinical implications of our results. Additionally, as we recruited a young
445 normotensive population, it is unknown if our findings have application to hypertensive and
446 elderly populations, highlighting the need for future research in these groups. It is also
447 important to consider the safety of HIIT in hypertensive populations at greater cardiovascular
448 disease risk. Furthermore, using a traditional Wingate protocol, we applied the same
449 resistance to both males and females, which may be a suboptimal workload considering
450 gender differences [49–51]. Finally, power output produced during the Wingate sessions was
451 not recorded; therefore, it is unclear if participants undertaking HIIT produced physiological
452 adaptations to generate greater power output following the intervention.

453

454 **Conclusion**

455

456 The results of the present study further support the role of HIIT in the management of BP,
457 with clinically significant reductions in ambulatory and resting BP. These results are
458 imperative due to the current inadequate evidence base surrounding the effects of HIIT on
459 ambulatory BP. To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the effects of HIIT on
460 BPV, with preliminary findings showing important implications for cardiovascular health.
461 Future research into the long-term effects and adherence to HIIT are crucial for establishing
462 its use as a prolonged nonpharmacological intervention for the management of BP.

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643 **Figure legends**

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645 Figure 1: Mean systolic (A), mean (B) and diastolic (C) blood pressure change values
646 following control (closed circles) and HIIT (open circles) conditions. Note: Error bars
647 indicate standard error of the mean; * = Significant ($p < 0.05$) difference in the control and
648 HIIT change value.

649

650 Figure 2: Mean day time systolic (A), day time mean (B), day time diastolic (C), night time
651 systolic (D), night time mean (F) and night time diastolic (F) blood pressure change values
652 following control (closed circles) and HIIT (open circles) conditions. Note: Error bars
653 indicate standard error of the mean; * = Significant ($p < 0.05$) difference in the control and
654 HIIT change value.

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656 Figure 3: Illustrates the difference in mean hour-by-hour ambulatory BP, pre and post HIIT
657 for (A) ambulatory sBP; (b) ambulatory mBP; (c) ambulatory dBP.