

**Effects of three low-volume, high-intensity exercise conditions on affective valence**

HAINES, M, BROOM, David <<http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0305-937X>>, GILLIBRAND, W and STEPHENSON, J

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1 **Effects of three low-volume, high-intensity exercise conditions on affective**  
2 **valence**

3 Matthew Haines<sup>a\*</sup>, David Broom<sup>b</sup>, Warren Gillibrand<sup>a</sup>, and John Stephenson<sup>a</sup>

4 <sup>a</sup> School of Human and Health Sciences, University of Huddersfield, Huddersfield, United  
5 Kingdom; <sup>b</sup> Academy for Sport and Physical Activity, Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield,  
6 United Kingdom

7

8 **\* Corresponding author:**

9 Dr Matthew Haines

10 University of Huddersfield

11 School of Human and Health Sciences

12 Queensgate campus

13 Huddersfield, HD1 3DH, United Kingdom

14 *Email address:* M.Haines@hud.ac.uk

15

16 **Co-author contact details:**

17 Dr David Broom

18 Sheffield Hallam University

19 Sheffield, S1 1WB, United Kingdom

20 *Email address:* D.R.Broom@shu.ac.uk

21

22 Dr Warren Gillibrand

23 University of Huddersfield

24 Huddersfield, HD1 3DH, United Kingdom

25 *Email address:* W.P.Gillibrand@hud.ac.uk

26

27 Dr John Stephenson

28 University of Huddersfield

29 Huddersfield, HD1 3DH, United Kingdom

30 *Email address:* J.Stephenson@hud.ac.uk

31 **Effects of three low-volume, high-intensity exercise conditions on affective**  
32 **valence**

33 A common barrier to exercise is “lack of time”. Accordingly, interest in low-volume, high-  
34 intensity training has grown exponentially since this activity is considered time-efficient.  
35 However, the high-intensity nature of this exercise may frequently result in feelings of  
36 displeasure creating another barrier for many people. The purpose of this study was to  
37 compare affective (pleasure-displeasure) responses to three low-volume, high-intensity  
38 exercise conditions, including a novel shortened-sprint protocol. Using a within-subjects,  
39 randomised crossover experiment, healthy participants ( $N = 36$ ) undertook a single bout of:  
40 1) traditional reduced-exertion, high-intensity interval training (TREHIT), 2) a novel,  
41 shortened-sprint REHIT (SSREHIT) protocol, and 3) sprint continuous training (SCT). Affect  
42 and perceived effort were recorded throughout exercise using the Feeling Scale (FS) and the  
43 15-point Borg Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE) scale, respectively. Enjoyment was  
44 recorded 5 min post-exercise using the Exercise Enjoyment Scale (EES). Differences were  
45 found for FS (condition by time interaction:  $P = 0.01_{GG}$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.26$ ), RPE ( $P = 0.01_{GG}$ ,  $\eta^2 =$   
46  $0.23$ ), and enjoyment ( $P < 0.01$ ) with all outcomes favouring SSREHIT. Shortened-sprint  
47 protocols may diminish feelings of displeasure and might be a time-efficient yet tolerable  
48 exercise choice to help motivate some people to increase their physical activity and fitness.

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51 *Keywords:* adherence; affective valence; enjoyment; time-efficient; high-intensity interval  
52 training; low-volume

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55 Word count: 4630

## 56 Introduction

57 Interest in low-volume, high-intensity exercise has become ubiquitous in sport and exercise  
58 science research in recent years. Several approaches to this exercise have emerged alongside  
59 claims for a role in public health promotion (e.g. Francois & Little, 2015; Jung *et al.*, 2015;  
60 Rehn, Winett, Wisløff & Rognmo, 2013; Steele *et al.*, 2017a). High-intensity, interval  
61 training (HIT) is one such approach and is characterised by brief periods of repeated maximal  
62 or near-maximal exercise, interspersed with periods of recovery. Proponents emphasise  
63 relative time-efficiency as an important practical benefit to increase exercise adherence in  
64 those who otherwise would not engage with more time-consuming approaches. The *efficacy*  
65 of HIT as a potent means of inducing beneficial biochemical, cellular, and physiological  
66 adaptations is clear. Experimental mechanistic investigations (Burgomaster *et al.*, 2008;  
67 Gibla *et al.*, 2006), randomised controlled trials (Heydari *et al.*, 2012; Matsuo *et al.*, 2013),  
68 and meta-analyses (Weston, Taylor, Batterham & Hopkins, 2014; Weston, Wisløff &  
69 Coombes, 2014) attest this point. HIT improves cardiorespiratory fitness which exerts a  
70 powerful protective effect against all-cause mortality, with changes from low to intermediate  
71 or high fitness considered more important than the overall volume of exercise performed  
72 (Ehrman *et al.*, 2017; Lee *et al.*, 2011; Ross *et al.*, 2016). However, what is less clear is how  
73 *effective* HIT is likely to be in real-world settings. Concerns have been raised about the  
74 likelihood of HIT evoking a high degree of negative affect, or displeasure, which may in-turn  
75 lead to an avoidant response with the prospect of future exercise sessions (Hardcastle, Ray,  
76 Beale & Hagger, 2014).

77 Hedonistic theories of motivation, such as dual-mode theory, propose that exercise above a  
78 certain intensity threshold relies heavily on anaerobic substrate phosphorylation which results  
79 in a cascade of physiological responses that greatly challenge homeostasis (Ekkekakis, Hall  
80 & Petruzzello, 2008). These perturbations lead to a dramatic decline in pleasure (Cabanac,

81 2006; Ekkekakis, 2003), which could in-turn predict long-term exercise adherence (Williams  
82 *et al.*, 2008; 2012). Thus, one of the reasons for the advocacy of HIT, that it might appeal to  
83 individuals who otherwise would not engage with more time-consuming exercise, is  
84 juxtaposed with speculation that the potential consequences of high-intensity exercise may  
85 pose a significant barrier for many, since people typically choose not to engage in activities  
86 that they find overly challenging and aversive (Pollock, 1978). Yet, critiques based on  
87 hedonicity have mostly relied on *continuous* exercise above the ventilatory threshold (Del  
88 Vecchio, Gentil, Coswig, & Fukuda, 2015; Ekkekakis *et al.*, 2008) which may be wholly  
89 inappropriate for understanding intensity-affect-adherence relationships associated with HIT,  
90 since the intermittent nature of the activity fundamentally alters the exercise experience.

91 Affective responses observed in response to HIT are varied, explained by diverse protocols in  
92 terms of effort, frequency, duration, and recovery associated with the high-intensity periods  
93 of exercise. Research has shown HIT can produce affective and enjoyment responses that are  
94 similar to those of moderate-intensity continuous exercise (Kilpatrick, Greely, & Collins,  
95 2015) and more pleasant than heavy continuous exercise (Jung *et al.*, 2014). Similarly,  
96 greater enjoyment and improved confidence to engage with HIT have been reported in  
97 comparison to moderate-intensity exercise, despite more negative affective states (Bartlett *et*  
98 *al.*, 2011; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2015). Other research has reported lower pleasure and enjoyment  
99 for HIT compared to moderate-intensity and heavy continuous exercise (Decker &  
100 Ekkekakis, 2017; Oliveira *et al.*, 2013). However, the exercise conditions in these studies  
101 used intensities requiring sustained anaerobic metabolism, whereas more moderate  
102 approaches to HIT with different interval and recovery periods might yield different results.

103 Whilst affective and other perceptual responses to various iterations of HIT are uncertain,  
104 several attempts have been made to consider the minimal amount of exercise that can confer  
105 health benefits. Metcalfe *et al.* (2011) devised reduced-exertion, HIT (REHIT) with a total

106 duration of 10-min, inclusive of  $2 \times 10$ –20-s cycle sprints against a braking force equivalent  
107 to 7.5% of body mass. Despite the minimal volume of exercise, maximal oxygen uptake  
108 ( $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ ) improved by 12–15% in healthy participants. Studies using type 2 diabetics have  
109 shown similar increases (Revdal, Hollekim-Strand, & Ingul, 2016; Ruffino *et al.*, 2016).  
110 These changes are thought to be caused by activation of molecular signalling pathways that  
111 lead to increased gene expression of key transcription coactivators considered important for  
112 mitochondria biogenesis and energy metabolism under conditions of both health and disease  
113 (Finck & Kelly, 2006; Metcalfe *et al.*, 2015). As such, the acceptability of such a minimalist  
114 approach to exercise could be important for inactive individuals wanting to improve health  
115 outcomes in a time-efficient manner. One further study has used sprint continuous training  
116 (SCT), which involves a single sustained maximal effort sprint without rest periods (Harris *et*  
117 *al.*, 2014), and found similar improvements in  $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ . In this study, the volume of high-  
118 intensity exercise was work-matched (kJ) to higher-volume HIT protocols. The average total  
119 time commitment was ~3.5 min, excluding warm-up and cool down.

120 Despite the time-efficiency of these exercise choices, the ‘peak-end rule’ is a psychological  
121 heuristic that proposes that memory associated with pleasure or displeasure is influenced by  
122 the moment a peak response is experienced (Fredrickson, 2000). For REHIT and SCT the  
123 peak moment of displeasure is likely to be proximal to the high-intensity sprints and could  
124 influence retrospective evaluations of the activity, impacting motivational factors related to  
125 future adherence. Frequently, sprints result in considerable fatigue and feelings of nausea due  
126 to metabolic acidosis, particularly in inexperienced inactive individuals, thus duration and  
127 recovery between sprints is an important consideration. Perception of exercise is related to  
128 muscle resistance to external force but becomes a function of duration when work is extended  
129 over time resulting from change in exercise capacity due to fatigue (Cafarelli *et al.*, 1977).  
130 Currently, there is a paucity of methods for improving the affective experience of low-

131 volume, high-intensity exercise (Zenko, Ekkekakis, & Ariely, 2016), thus protocols with  
132 fewer or shorter sprints should be tested.

133 The affective response is important for the potential role of this type of exercise in health  
134 promotion and has not been explored. The challenge is to induce meaningful benefits to  
135 health without overly compromising perceptual response, making exercise acceptable and  
136 tolerable. Therefore, the objective of the present study was to consider differences between  
137 affective responses to three low-volume, high-intensity exercise protocols. Traditional  
138 REHIT (TREHIT) and SCT were compared to a novel, shortened-sprint REHIT condition  
139 (SSREHIT). The experimental hypothesis was that SSREHIT would result in more  
140 favourable affective responses.

## 141 **Methods**

### 142 *Participants and experimental approach*

143 Ratings of affective valence were designated the primary outcome variable. An a priori power  
144 analysis was performed using G\*Power© software (version 3.1.9.2, 2017) for comparison  
145 between three dependent means. This was based on an anticipated medium effect size (i.e.  
146 0.5), an alpha criterion of 0.05, and power of 0.8 (1 – beta), which are proportionate with  
147 effect size assumptions made in similar studies (e.g. Decker & Ekkekakis, 2017; Kilpatrick *et*  
148 *al.*, 2015; Martinez *et al.*, 2014). Analysis indicated that a total of 23 participants were  
149 required to reach 0.8 statistical power. After institutional ethical approval, a convenience  
150 sample of 36 participants (29 males, 7 females; age  $22.3 \pm 4.7$  years; stature,  $1.7 \pm 0.1$  m;  
151 body mass,  $73.2 \pm 12.3$  kg; Body Mass Index,  $24.2 \pm 2.6$  kg·m<sup>2</sup>) were recruited, consisting  
152 students (78% of the sample) and office-based employees. Participants were recreationally  
153 active (i.e. meeting physical activity guidelines) and healthy, determined via negative  
154 responses to a medical screening questionnaire.

155 Following familiarisation, consisting explanations and demonstrations of the exercise  
156 conditions and measures, participants commenced the first exercise training session within  
157 one week, undertaking three separate high-intensity exercise conditions: 1) SSREHIT, 2)  
158 TREHIT, and 3) SCT, with a minimum of 48 h washout between sessions. A counterbalanced  
159 crossover design was used to control for order effects, with the three conditions grouped into  
160 six possible orders and participants randomly assigned to these using a random number  
161 generator. Participants were instructed to consume their normal diet and asked to refrain from  
162 intense physical activity the day before each session delaying participation if they were  
163 experiencing fatigue or musculoskeletal injury. They were also instructed to refrain from  
164 engaging in any recovery modalities following exercise. Allocation concealment and blinding  
165 of assessors who measured outcome measures was not possible.

#### 166 *Exercise conditions*

167 All exercise conditions were performed on a Wattbike cycle ergometer (Wattbike Pro,  
168 Nottingham, UK) with pedal resistance for the sprints matched and set using the air and  
169 magnetic settings to create a flywheel braking force appropriate for peak power generation, as  
170 recommended by the manufacturer. Instructions on how to carry out each exercise condition  
171 were communicated before and during each session, with standardised verbal encouragement  
172 and feedback used throughout sprints to ensure maximal effort. Participants remained in the  
173 laboratory for 10-min post-exercise for monitoring of adverse events.

#### 174 *Traditional REHIT (TREHIT)*

175 TREHIT was performed as per Metcalfe *et al.* (2011) and totalled 10 minutes of cycling,  
176 inclusive of  $2 \times 20$  s maximal effort sprints. Exercise intensities between sprints were low  
177 ( $\sim 60$  W). A warm-up (3-min at  $\sim 30$ – $60$  W) and cool down (3-min at  $\sim 30$  W) were included  
178 within the 10-min session. A schematic overview of TREHIT can be seen in **Figure 1 a**.



179 *Shortened-sprint REHIT (SSREHIT)*

180 SSREHIT was designed to match the total time spent completing high-intensity exercise as  
181 per TREHIT (i.e. 40-s). However, with the aim of reducing affective response, the time was  
182 fractionalised into smaller periods. Thus, participants performed  $8 \times 5$  s maximal effort  
183 sprints, with low-intensity effort ( $\sim 60$  W) cycling between sprints, within a 10-min session.  
184 Again, this was inclusive of a warm-up (3-min at  $\sim 30$ – $60$  W) and cool down (2-min at  $\sim 30$   
185 W) (**Figure 1 b**).

186 *Sprint continuous training (SCT)*

187 Due to the other exercise conditions using disparate protocols, it was not possible to work  
188 match SCT. However, the total duration of the “extended sprint” was similar to previous  
189 studies (i.e. Harris *et al.*, 2014; Whyte *et al.*, 2013). SCT consisted a total of 8 minutes  
190 cycling, inclusive of a warm-up (3-min at  $\sim 30$ – $60$  W), a 3-min extended sprint, and a cool  
191 down (2-min at  $\sim 30$  W) (**Figure 1 c**). During the extended sprint, participants were  
192 encouraged to pedal with maximal effort whilst considering the duration of the sprint. Thus,  
193 an element of “pacing” was inherent to this. There was no requirement to reduce the braking  
194 force to ensure maintenance of an appropriate cadence ( $> 50$  rpm), because the Wattbike  
195 measures force applied through the cranks onto the chain and is independent of cadence, with  
196 power uninfluenced by resistance from the magnetic or airbrake systems.

197 *Measures*

198 *Affect (pleasure-displeasure)*

199 Affect was assessed using the single-item, 11-point Feeling Scale (FS) (Hardy & Rejeski,  
200 1989) which ranges from  $-5$  “very bad” to  $+5$  “very good”, with anchors designated for 0  
201 (“neutral”) and all odd integers in between. The stem “How do you currently feel?” was used

202 to measure pleasure throughout exercise at 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% of bout completion  
203 for all conditions (**Figure 1 a-c**). These times were selected to capture a representative  
204 depiction throughout each condition including responses during or shortly after sprints, and  
205 immediately upon exercise cessation. The FS was presented to participants using a visual cue  
206 card at each time point to ensure accurate reference to the scale.

#### 207 *Rating of perceived exertion*

208 Perceived intensity of effort for each condition was monitored using the 15-point rating of  
209 perceived exertion (RPE) Borg scale (Borg, 1970). The scale ranges from 6 “no exertion” to  
210 20 “maximal exertion” with anchors designated for all odd integers in between. As for  
211 recording of affect, RPE was measured using a visual cue card throughout exercise at 25%,  
212 50%, 75%, and 100% of bout completion, using the stem “How hard are you working at this  
213 moment in time?”

#### 214 *Enjoyment*

215 Enjoyment was assessed for each condition using the single-item, 7-point Exercise  
216 Enjoyment Scale (EES) (Stanley & Cumming, 2009). Anchors are given at every integer,  
217 ranging from 1 “not at all” to 7 “extremely”. The EES was used following the stem, “Use the  
218 following scale to indicate how much you enjoyed this exercise session,” and was recorded 5-  
219 min post-exercise.

#### 220 *Statistical analyses*

221 Statistical analyses were carried out using IBM SPSS Statistics version 24 (IBM, Armonk,  
222 USA) with the criterion for statistical significance set at  $P < 0.05$ . Possible covariates (age  
223 and body mass) and factors (sex) – that were not part of the main experimental manipulation  
224 but could influence the dependent variable – were included in a preliminary analysis to check

225 for independence of the predictor variable and were found to be non-significant. After  
226 checking test assumptions, including normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test, data were  
227 analysed in two phases.

228 For the first phase, a two-way (condition [3]  $\times$  time [4]) repeated measures analysis of  
229 variance (RMANOVA) was conducted for FS and RPE, applying the Greenhouse-Geisser  
230 correction when the sphericity assumption was violated. Significant main effects were  
231 considered using post-hoc Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons to control for  
232 familywise error rate. In addition, a one-way RMANOVA was conducted to examine  
233 differences in enjoyment. Effect sizes were quantified using the partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ )  
234 statistic with the magnitude of difference considered as small ( $< 0.1$ ), medium (0.1–0.3), or  
235 large ( $> 0.5$ ).

236 The second phase used separate one-way RMANOVA's to assess differences in FS and RPE  
237 for the three exercise conditions for each time point (i.e. 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% of bout  
238 completion). For post-hoc analyses, familywise error rate was controlled using Bonferroni  
239 corrections. The Cohen's  $d$  was used to assess effect size, with differences considered as  
240 trivial ( $< 0.20$ ), small (0.20–0.49), moderate (0.50–0.79), or large ( $> 0.80$ ).

## 241 **Results**

### 242 *Descriptive data*

243 All participants completed the three conditions (no dropouts) as allocated with outcome  
244 measures obtained from all participants for FS, RPE, and EES. Several adverse events,  
245 defined as any untoward occurrence that happened during the conduct of the study, were  
246 reported. Seven incidences of mild to moderate nausea or light headedness were reported for  
247 REHIT, five for SSREHIT, and three for SCT. Additionally, two participants vomited  
248 following REHIT and one participant vomited after SSREHIT. There were no instances of

249 syncope or musculoskeletal injuries in response to any of the conditions. All adverse events  
250 were classified as not serious as per National Institute for Health Research Good Clinical  
251 Practice guidelines.

### 252 *Affect (pleasure-displeasure)*

253 RMANOVA revealed a significant main effect of condition for FS ( $F_{2, 70} = 54.66, P = 0.01, \eta^2$   
254  $= 0.61$ ). FS ratings were lower (greater displeasure) during TREHIT and SCT compared to  
255 SSREHIT (both  $P = 0.001$ ), in addition to being lower for SCT compared to TREHIT ( $P =$   
256  $0.005$ ). There was also a main effect of time ( $F_{2,2, 77.08} = 197.29, P = 0.01_{GG}, \eta^2 = 0.85$ ) with  
257 an apparent quadratic trend. FS ratings declined across time in all three conditions, but the  
258 decrease was larger in the TREHIT and SCT conditions compared to SSREHIT (at 50%,  
259 75%, and 100% of bout duration, all  $P = 0.001$ ). The lowest values occurred at 75% of bout  
260 duration for all three conditions with FS values of  $1.4 \pm 1.7$  (“fairly good”),  $-0.2 \pm 1.9$  (near  
261 “neutral”) and  $-0.9 \pm 1.5$  (“fairly bad”) reported for SSREHIT, TREHIT and SCT,  
262 respectively. There was also a significant condition  $\times$  time interaction effect ( $F_{4,57, 159.91} =$   
263  $12.55, p = 0.01_{GG}, \eta^2 = 0.26$ ). This indicates that the condition had different effects on FS  
264 depending on the time point (% bout completion). **Figure 2** indicates that steeper slopes of  
265 change were evident for TREHIT and SCT compared to SSREHIT. These data are  
266 summarised in **table 1**.

### 267 *Rating of perceived exertion*

268 RMANOVA showed a significant main effect of condition for RPE ( $F_{2, 70} = 33.02, p = 0.01,$   
269  $\eta^2 = 0.46$ ). RPE was higher during TREHIT and SCT compared to SSREHIT (both  $P =$   
270  $0.001$ ). There was also a main effect of time ( $F_{2,27, 79.44} = 307.89, p = 0.01_{GG}, \eta^2 = 0.90$ ) with  
271 peak RPE occurring at 75% of bout duration for all three conditions with values of  $13.9 \pm 1.5$   
272 (“somewhat hard”),  $15.5 \pm 1.7$  (“hard”) and  $16.4 \pm 1.6$  (nearly “very hard”) reported for

273 SSREHIT, TREHIT and SCT, respectively. SSREHIT was perceived to be less strenuous  
274 than TREHIT and SCT at 50%, 75%, and 100% of bout duration (all  $P < 0.05$ ). There was  
275 also a significant condition  $\times$  time interaction effect ( $F_{4,01, 143.09} = 10.31, p = 0.01_{GG}, \eta^2 =$   
276 0.23). Examining **Figure 3**, the increase in RPE was steeper for TREHIT and SCT than for  
277 SSREHIT. These data are summarised in **table 1**.

## 278 *Enjoyment*

279 RMANOVA revealed a main effect between the conditions for enjoyment ( $F_{2,70} = 73.12, P =$   
280 0.01,  $\eta^2 = 0.68$ ). EES ratings were higher for SSREHIT ( $5.2 \pm 1.1$ , “quite a bit”) compared to  
281 TREHIT ( $4.2 \pm 1.4$ , “moderately”,  $P = 0.001, d = 0.79$ ) and SCT ( $3.4 \pm 1.3$ , “slightly”,  $P =$   
282 0.001,  $d = 1.49$ ), and ratings were also higher for TREHIT compared to SCT ( $P = 0.001, d =$   
283 0.59).

## 284 **Discussion**

285 The premise for advocating low-volume, high-intensity exercise as a means of achieving a  
286 more active lifestyle is predicated on the assumption that overcoming the most commonly  
287 cited barrier to exercise – “lack of time” – will lead to greater exercise adherence. However,  
288 the intensity of effort for this type of exercise could similarly discourage participation if it is  
289 deemed overly strenuous. Fundamentally, whether low-volume, high-intensity exercise is  
290 efficacious and safe, yet at the same time appealing, tolerable, and sustainable will be  
291 decisive in terms of its effectiveness in real-world settings and as a public health strategy. To  
292 the authors knowledge this is the first study to empirically compare affective responses  
293 between different low-volume, high-intensity exercise conditions.

294 The main finding was that SSREHIT was more enjoyable, with lower RPE, and more  
295 favourable affective responses compared to TREHIT and SCT. Although affect decreased  
296 throughout all conditions (i.e. diminishing pleasure over time), the slopes of change were

297 steeper during TREHIT and SCT, illustrated by significant and meaningful condition  $\times$  time  
298 interactions for FS. These data provide preliminary evidence to suggest that shorter sprints do  
299 not compromise affective response to the same degree as longer sprints, and therefore could  
300 reduce the likelihood of evoking a high degree of negative affect, which could in-turn  
301 improve exercise adherence. SSREHIT and TREHIT were matched for total time spent  
302 completing high-intensity exercise, yet despite the reduced recovery time between sprints, FS  
303 was more favourable for SSREHIT. This suggests perception is related to the duration of  
304 individual sprints rather than the number of high-intensity sprints.

305 Pleasure and displeasure responses are an important part of the exercise experience. The dual-  
306 mode theory describes such affective response to *continuous* exercise, where intensities  
307 above the ventilatory threshold are accompanied by a cascade of physiological responses that  
308 dramatically challenge maintenance of homeostasis (Ekkekakis *et al.*, 2008). Responses to  
309 intermittent exercise may be inherently different, thus the aim of the current study was to  
310 compare affective responses for approaches to low-volume, high-intensity exercise. It was  
311 deemed unnecessary to include a traditional continuous exercise condition because affective  
312 response to this type of exercise is well known (e.g. peak negative responses in the region of  
313 1 to 2.3 FS units; Decker & Ekkekakis, 2017; Jung *et al.*, 2014; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2015). In  
314 comparison to these studies, the peak negative FS response for SSREHIT was similar to  
315 responses for moderate-intensity continuous exercise and was more favourable than for  
316 higher-volume HIT (e.g. Decker & Ekkekakis, 2017).

317 Peak negative responses were observed during or immediately after high-intensity sprints at  
318 75% of bout completion in all three conditions. However, pleasure remained higher for  
319 SSREHIT with a large effect size ( $1.4 \pm 1.7$  FS units, “fairly good”) compared to TREHIT ( $-$   
320  $0.1 \pm 1.9$ , “neutral”,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $d = 0.83$ ) and SCT ( $-0.8 \pm 1.6$ , “fairly bad”,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $d = 1.15$ ).  
321 For SSREHIT, affective responses were more favourable than reported in some research on

322 higher-volume HIT (Decker & Ekkekakis, 2017; Jung *et al.*, 2014), but less favourable than  
323 others (Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2015; Martinez *et al.*, 2015). However, in these studies affect was  
324 recorded upon cessation of activity which reduces comparison to the current study, where  
325 responses were recorded during activity. It is reasonable to expect responses to be different,  
326 because there is a general shift in affective valence toward pleasure, regardless of intensity of  
327 effort, after the cessation of exercise. Also, dose-response effects may occur during exercise  
328 and then dissipate before post-exercise measurements of affect are recorded (Ekkekakis *et al.*,  
329 2008). Regardless, it has been suggested that minimising displeasure is key to achieving  
330 optimal behaviour (Cabanac, 2006). Therefore, it is unlikely that the SCT protocol used in the  
331 present study would be adhered to by most people in the long-term. However, responses  
332 relating to perception of displeasure were minimised during SSREHIT and TREHIT, so these  
333 may be genuinely time-efficient and tolerable approaches to exercise and a viable alternative  
334 to higher-volume exercise recommendations. Shorter sprints may provide additional benefit  
335 in this regard.

336 In their original study, Metcalfe *et al.* (2011) reported improvements in  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$  in healthy but  
337 sedentary participants despite modest required effort (RPE  $13 \pm 1$ ), whereas others observed  
338 higher values ( $17 \pm 1$ ) using the same protocol in recreationally active participants (Haines,  
339 2015). More recently, REHIT was well tolerated in inactive men and women (Metcalfe *et al.*,  
340 2016) and in men with type 2 diabetes (Ruffino *et al.*, 2016). However, in these studies RPE  
341 was again recorded at the end of training sessions with participants asked to retrospectively  
342 consider effort for the whole training session, not just the high-intensity sprints. It is  
343 important to consider that even if most of the time during REHIT is spent at a low-intensity,  
344 the high-intensity sprints could produce negative perceptual responses of which the  
345 magnitude could impact motivational factors related to future adherence. Indeed, the peak-  
346 end rule contests that memory associated with pleasure-displeasure responses are influenced  
347 by the moment a distinct peak is experienced, with the duration having little effect. As for FS,

348 peak RPE occurred at 75% of bout completion in all conditions and was more favourable for  
349 SSREHIT ( $13.9 \pm 1.5$ ) with large effect sizes compared to TREHIT ( $15.5 \pm 1.7$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $d =$   
350  $-1$ ) and SCT ( $16.4 \pm 1.6$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $d = -1.61$ ).

351 An important yet rarely considered issue when measuring theoretical constructs such as RPE,  
352 is that they are understood using arbitrary scales for which considerable interpretation and  
353 subjective thought processes influence results. Perceived exertion, or effort, is a cognitive  
354 feeling of work associated with voluntary actions during exercise, and is influenced by  
355 anticipatory regulation comprising efferent output such as awareness of central motor  
356 commands to recruit muscle motor units (Pageaux, 2016; Tucker, 2009). However, it is a  
357 common and inaccurate assumption that afferent feedback from homeostatic disturbance also  
358 contributes significantly to perception of effort (Marcora, 2009). Perceptions of “effort” and  
359 “discomfort” might be conflated if instructions given to participants do not clearly emphasise  
360 narrow definitions (i.e. perception of effort during exercise is independent of afferent  
361 feedback from skeletal muscles), reducing validity when implementing RPE scales. In the  
362 current study, participants were encouraged to pedal at maximal intensity for all three  
363 exercise conditions, which theoretically should have elicited maximal perceptions of effort.  
364 However, observed values were lower than maximal and varied between conditions  
365 suggesting that the measure of RPE might not be reflective of the intended construct. A  
366 possible explanation for this is that participants anchored their RPE values with discomfort or  
367 did not fully understand what they were rating. Furthermore, it is not clear how affect is  
368 influenced by perceived effort or discomfort, although the FS aims to measure core affect  
369 which is a neurophysiological state consciously accessible as a simple primitive non-  
370 reflective feeling (Russell and Feldman Barrett, 2009). Participants are able to differentiate  
371 between effort and discomfort during resistance training using novel scales (Steele *et al.*,  
372 2017b), but current research has not attempted to verify this finding in response to high-  
373 intensity repeated sprints. Examination of this issue would improve understanding of the role



374 these perceptions have in regulating exercise intensity providing practical information on  
375 exercise tolerance (Abbiss *et al.*, 2015; Steele *et al.*, 2017b).

376 Similarly, although affective valence and enjoyment overlap, they are not identical  
377 constructs. Indeed, an assumption of dual-mode theory is that there exists a distinction  
378 between core affect, such as hedonistic pleasure or pain, and more distinct emotional  
379 experiences such as enjoyment that require cognitive appraisal and appreciation of the totality  
380 of the experience (Russell & Barrett, 1999; Wankel, 1993). Research has revealed varied  
381 enjoyment responses for HIT compared to moderate-intensity continuous exercise (e.g.  
382 Decker & Ekkekakis, 2017; Jung *et al.*, 2015; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2015; Oliveira *et al.*, 2013;  
383 Thum, Parsons, Whittle & Astorino, 2017). In the current study, post-exercise enjoyment was  
384 higher for SSREHIT ( $5.2 \pm 1.1$  EES units, “quite a bit”) compared to TREHIT ( $4.2 \pm 1.4$ ,  
385 “moderately”,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $d = 0.79$ ), and SCT ( $3.4 \pm 1.3$ , “slightly”,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $d = 1.49$ ). This is  
386 in-line with the findings of Martinez *et al.* (2015) who reported greater enjoyment for shorter  
387 intervals over longer ones. It remains speculative why high-intensity intermittent exercise can  
388 result in more favourable affective and enjoyment responses compared to continuous  
389 exercise. The nature of the activity may provide a succession of positive accomplishments as  
390 high-intensity bouts are completed and breaking the activity into smaller bursts could make  
391 the activity appear more manageable preventing monotony. In the SSREHIT condition it is  
392 possible that the sprints were of insufficient duration to induce the physiological responses  
393 that are associated with more negative affective and enjoyment responses.

394 Several limitations should be considered when interpreting the findings of this study. The  
395 three exercise conditions were not work matched which limits comparison between protocols,  
396 although the difference in total work is unlikely to be the most salient consideration in  
397 relation to perception of exercise because a core principle of dual-mode theory is that  
398 intensity of effort, not duration or work completed, drives the affective response (Kilpatrick,

399 Kraemer, Bartholomew, Acevedo & Jarreau, 2007; Kilpatrick *et al.*, 2015). This also  
400 improves ecological validity, because participants had more flexibility and autonomy as they  
401 would in a real-world setting. Also, to capture a more complete depiction of perceptual  
402 responses, measurements were taken at standardised time points throughout each condition.  
403 Peak affect and RPE occurred at 75% of bout completion, but due to each condition using a  
404 different protocol, this was measured upon cessation of the extended sprint for SCT but  
405 shortly after cessation of sprints for SSREHIT and TREHIT. This could lead to  
406 underestimation of response for SSREHIT and TREHIT although it is unlikely that the  
407 physiological effects of the sprints dissipated in the short time before outcomes were  
408 recorded.

409 Although baseline fitness was not assessed, the participants were relatively young and met  
410 the physical activity guidelines limiting generalisability, particularly to those who are inactive  
411 or who have chronic disease. Future research should address affective response to SSREHIT  
412 in these populations. Consideration should also be given to the specific cycle ergometer used  
413 in this study. The Wattbike allows for a very rapid transition from low-intensity cycling to  
414 pedalling with a high electromagnetic braking force permitting generation of high peak power  
415 within the first few seconds of the high-intensity sprints, which may be required to elicit the  
416 metabolic adaptations associated with HIT (Whyte *et al.*, 2013). However, it is not clear if  
417 other cycle machines or leisure facility bikes could be used to perform REHIT as effectively.

418 In conclusion, this study highlights that perceptual responses to SSREHIT, in terms of affect,  
419 effort, and enjoyment were more favourable compared to TREHIT and SCT. Affective  
420 valence remained positive throughout exercise, although heterogeneity in individual  
421 responses should be considered. By reducing the duration of the high-intensity sprints, it is  
422 possible that SSREHIT could be a genuinely time-efficient, appealing, and tolerable form of  
423 exercise to combat the burden of physical inactivity. Moving forward, physiological

424 adaptations to SSREHIT should be monitored through longitudinal research to see if such  
425 approaches can confer the same health benefits as higher-volume HIT. A key challenge  
426 remains to translate current evidence to practical approaches that are both tolerable and time-  
427 efficient in real-world settings.

#### 428 **Disclosure of interest**

429 The authors report no conflict of interest. This research did not receive any specific grant  
430 from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

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**Tables**

**Table 1** Comparison of outcome measures for the three low-volume, high-intensity training conditions.

	SSREHIT	REHIT	SCT	SSREHIT vs REHIT		SSREHIT vs SCT		REHIT vs SCT	
				<i>P</i> =	<i>d</i> =	<i>P</i> =	<i>d</i> =	<i>P</i> =	<i>d</i> =
<b>FS</b>									
25%	3.9 ± 1.1	3.9 ± 0.6	3.8 ± 0.6	NS	0	NS	0.11	NS	0.17
50%	2.6 ± 1.7 <sup>a, b</sup>	1.7 ± 1.3 <sup>c</sup>	1.4 ± 0.9 <sup>c</sup>	0.01	0.59	0.01	0.88	0.51	0.27
75%	1.4 ± 1.7 <sup>a, b</sup>	-0.1 ± 1.9 <sup>b, c</sup>	-0.8 ± 1.6 <sup>a, c</sup>	0.01	0.83	0.01	1.15	0.03	-0.55
100%	1.5 ± 1.9 <sup>a, b</sup>	0 ± 1.7 <sup>b, c</sup>	-0.5 ± 1.5 <sup>a, c</sup>	0.01 <sub>GG</sub>	0.83	0.01 <sub>GG</sub>	1.17	0.02 <sub>GG</sub>	0.31
Average	2.3 ± 1.2	1.4 ± 1.9	1 ± 2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>RPE</b>									
25%	7.9 ± 1.1	8.3 ± 1.7	7.9 ± 1	NS	-0.28	NS	0	NS	0.29
50%	12 ± 1.7 <sup>a, b</sup>	12.6 ± 1.8 <sup>b</sup>	13.5 ± 1.5 <sup>a, c</sup>	0.04	-0.34	0.01	-0.94	0.4	-0.54
75%	13.9 ± 1.5 <sup>a, b</sup>	15.5 ± 1.7 <sup>b, c</sup>	16.4 ± 1.6 <sup>a, c</sup>	0.01	-1	0.01	-1.61	0.01	-0.55
100%	12.1 ± 2 <sup>a, b</sup>	13.2 ± 2.1 <sup>b</sup>	13.5 ± 2.3 <sup>a, c</sup>	0.01	-0.11	0.01	-0.23	0.49	-0.12
Average	11.5 ± 2.5	12.4 ± 3	12.8 ± 3.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>EES</b>	5.2 ± 1.1 <sup>a, b</sup>	4.2 ± 1.4 <sup>b, c</sup>	3.4 ± 1.3 <sup>a, c</sup>	0.01	0.79	0.01	1.49	0.01	0.59
<b>Blood</b>									
<b>Lactate</b> (mmol/L <sup>-1</sup> )	13.1 ± 3.5	13.5 ± 3.5	13 ± 3.2	NS	-0.11	NS	0.03	NS	0.15
<b>Total Work</b> (kJ)	507.2 ± 66.6 <sup>a, b</sup>	470.4 ± 71.2 <sup>b, c</sup>	438.5 ± 64.9 <sup>a, c</sup>	0.01	0.53	0.01	1.04	0.01	0.47

Note: Data are presented as mean ± standard deviations.

<sup>a</sup> Statistically significant in comparison to REHIT (*p* < 0.05)

<sup>b</sup> Statistically significant in comparison to SCT (*p* < 0.05)

<sup>c</sup> Statistically significant in comparison to SSREHIT (*p* < 0.05)

Abbreviations: *d* = Cohen's *d*, EES = exercise enjoyment scale, FS = Feeling Scale, GG = Greenhouse-Geisser, NS = not statistically significant, REHIT = reduced-exertion, high-intensity interval training, RPE = rating of perceived exertion, SCT = sprint continuous training, SSREHIT = shortened-sprint, reduced-exertion, high-intensity interval training

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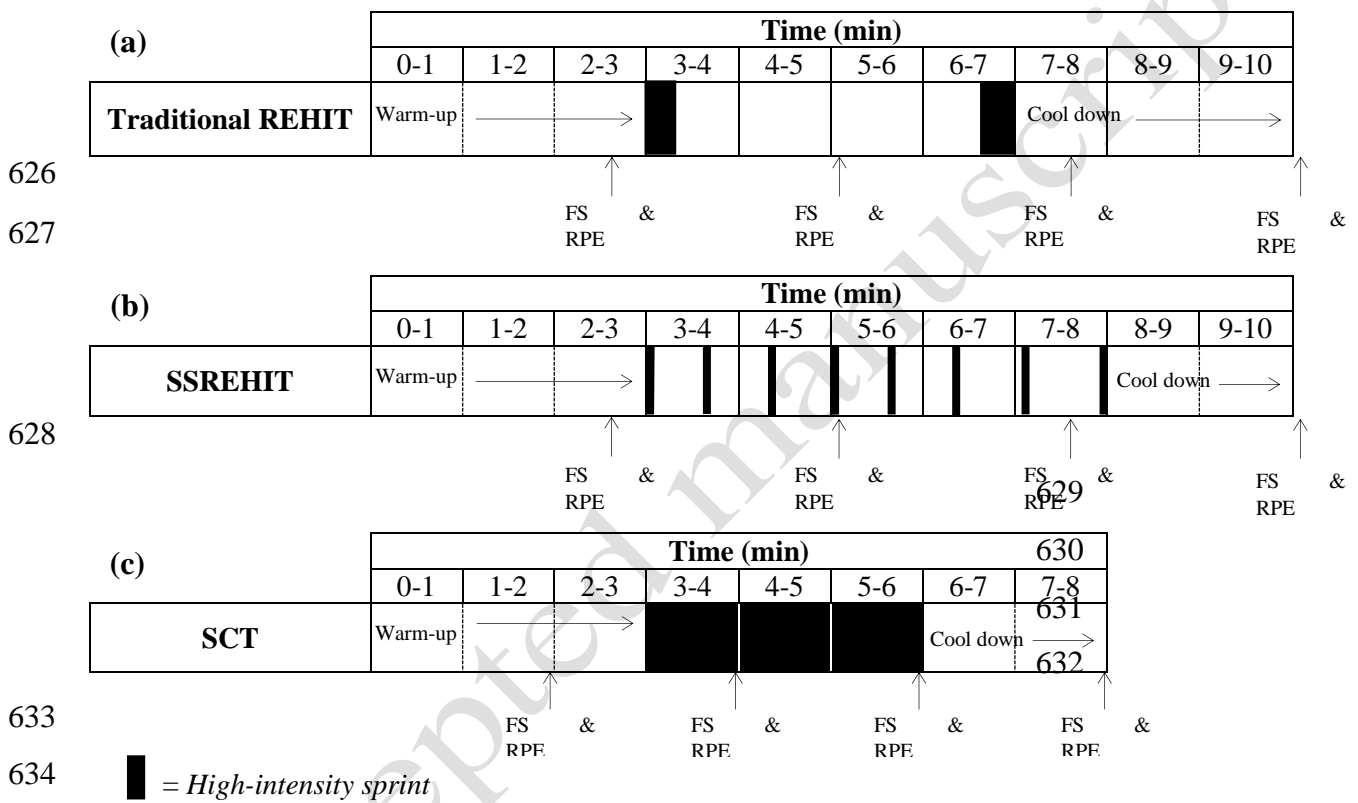
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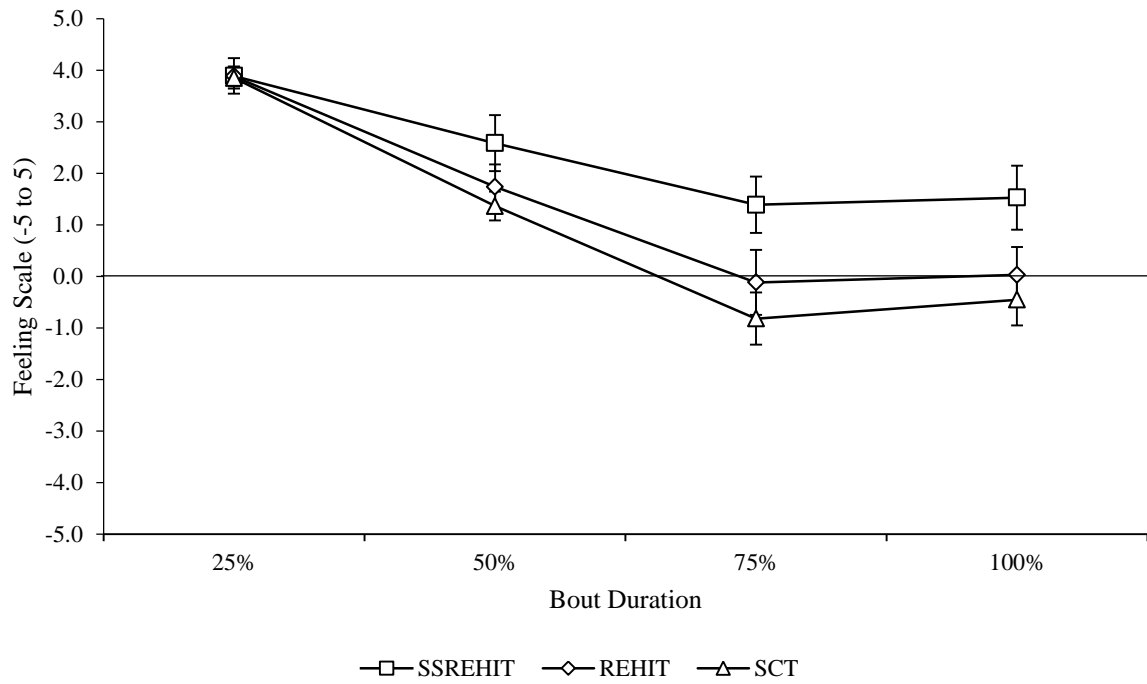
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625 **Figure 1**



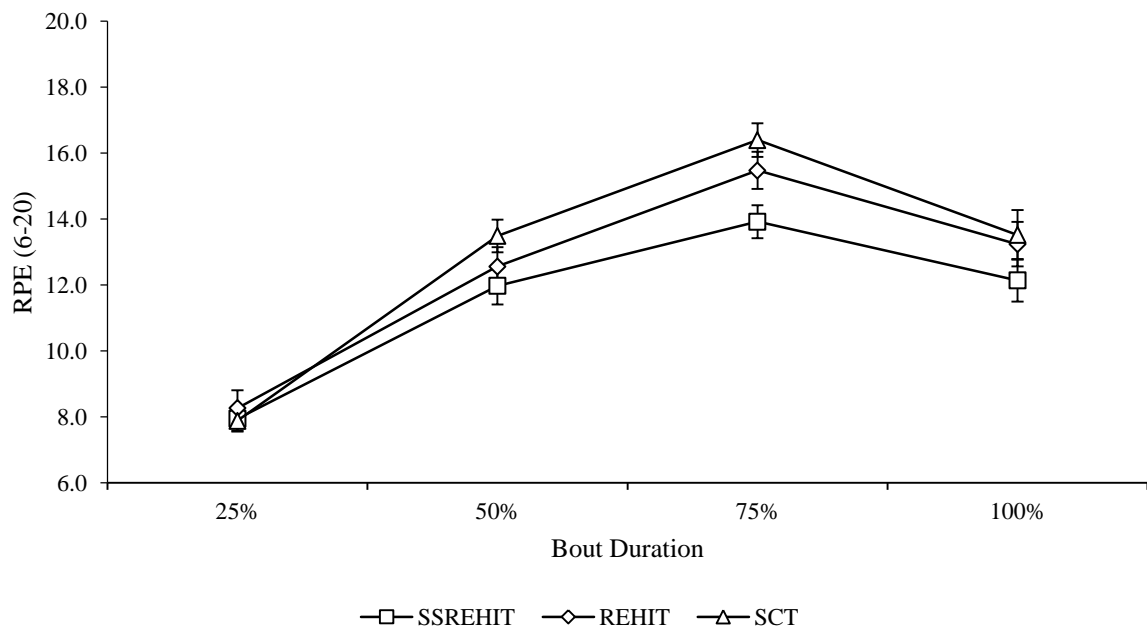
636 **Figure 2**



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639 **Figure 3**



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654 **Figure 1** Schematic overview of the three exercise conditions. Abbreviations: FS = feeling scale; REHIT =  
655 reduced-exertion high-intensity interval training, RPE = rating of perceived exertion; SCT = sprint continuous  
656 training; SSREHIT = shortened-sprint, reduced-exertion, high-intensity interval training

657

658 **Figure 2** Feeling Scale (FS) responses during the three low-volume, high-intensity training conditions.  
659 Abbreviations: REHIT = reduced-exertion, high-intensity interval training, SCT = sprint continuous training,  
660 SSREHIT = shortened-sprint, reduced-exertion, high-intensity interval training. Note: Data are presented as  
661 mean  $\pm$  95% confidence intervals.

662

663 **Figure 3** Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE) responses during the three low-volume, high-intensity training  
664 conditions. Abbreviations: REHIT = reduced-exertion, high-intensity interval training, RPE = Rating of  
665 Perceived Exertion, SCT = sprint continuous training, SSREHIT = shortened-sprint, reduced-exertion, high-  
666 intensity interval training. Note: Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  95% confidence intervals.

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