1 Reducing prolonged sedentary time using a treadmill desk acutely improves

2 cardiometabolic risk markers in male and female adults

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18 Abstract

The objectives of this study were to evaluate the acute effects of interrupting prolonged sitting 19 20 with an accumulated 2 h of light-intensity walking on postprandial cardiometabolic risk 21 markers. In this randomised crossover trial, 24 participants (twelve males) aged 18-55 years took part in two. 6.5 h conditions: 1) prolonged sitting (SIT) and 2) sitting interrupted hourly 22 with 20 min light-intensity treadmill desk walking at between 1.2-3.5 km/h⁻¹ (INT-SIT). 23 24 Standardized meals were provided at 0 h and 3 h. Blood samples and blood pressure 25 measures were taken hourly. Statistical analyses were completed using linear mixed models. Postprandial incremental area under the curve responses (mmol/L·6.5 h) for glucose (4.52 26 27 [3.47, 5.56] and 6.66 [5.62, 7.71] for INT-SIT and SIT, respectively) and triglycerides (1.96 [0.96, 2.96] and 2.71 [1.70, 3.71] mmol/L·6.5 h, for INT-SIT and SIT, respectively) were 28 29 significantly lower in INT-SIT than SIT. Mean systolic and diastolic blood pressure responses 30 were lower by 3% and 4%, respectively, in INT-SIT than SIT (P<0.05). There was no significant condition x sex interaction effect for any outcomes (P>0.05). These findings suggest that 31 32 interrupting sitting with an accumulated 2 h of light-intensity walking acutely improves 33 cardiometabolic risk levels in males and females compared with prolonged sitting.

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36 **Keywords**: Sedentary bout; sedentary time; physical activity; cardiometabolic risk;

37 cardiorespiratory fitness

38 Introduction

Elevated postprandial glucose and triglycerides are significant risk factors for cardiovascular disease and Type 2 diabetes (D'Agostino et al., 2004; Einarson, Machado, & Henk Hemels, 2011). Evidence supports the notion that impaired levels of these cardiometabolic risk markers are associated with high amounts of sedentary behaviour (Healy, Matthews, Dunstan, Winkler, & Owen, 2011), which is defined as any waking behaviour characterized by an energy expenditure ≤1.5 metabolic equivalents (METs), while in a sitting, reclining, or lying posture (Tremblay et al., 2017).

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Experimental research has reported that prolonged sedentary behaviour leads to an acute 47 impairment in cardiometabolic risk markers (Stephens, Granados, Zderic, Hamilton, & Braun, 48 49 2011). This may be particularly relevant to office-based workers who spend >70% of their 50 working hours seated (Clemes, O'Connell, & Edwardson, 2014). Breaking up prolonged sitting with short, frequent bouts of light-intensity walking imparts beneficial postprandial 51 52 cardiometabolic responses (Bailey & Locke, 2015; Dunstan et al., 2012; Larsen et al., 2014). 53 In light of such evidence, an expert statement on reducing prolonged periods of sedentary 54 work recommended that desk-based employees should initially accumulate a minimum of 2 h/day of light-intensity activity (standing or light walking) during working hours (Buckley et al., 55 2015). There is currently limited research evaluating the effects of accumulating ≥2 h of light-56 57 intensity walking over a single work day on postprandial cardiometabolic risk (Zeigler, Mullane, Crespo, Buman, & Gaesser, 2016; Zeigler, Swan, Bhammar, & Gaesser, 2015) and none of 58 these studies have examined glucose, insulin, or triglyceride responses. Furthermore, there 59 is limited understanding regarding the influence of sex on cardiometabolic responses to 60 interrupting sedentary time (Dempsey et al., 2016a; Dunstan et al., 2012). One study reported 61 a greater suppression in postprandial glucose in females than males with Type 2 diabetes in 62 response to interrupting sitting (Dempsey et al., 2016a), whereas Dunstan et al. (2012) did not 63 64 observe any difference in postprandial glucose or insulin responses between male and 65 females who were overweight and obese.

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The objectives of this study were, therefore, to evaluate the effects of interrupting prolonged sitting with an accumulated 2 h of light-intensity walking during a simulated work day on postprandial cardiometabolic risk marker responses in sedentary male and females. It was hypothesised that sitting interrupted with 2 h of light-intensity walking would lead to beneficial acute postprandial cardiometabolic responses in both males and females compared with prolonged sitting.

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74 Methods

75 Study overview

This two-way randomised crossover design study was ethically approved by the University of 76 77 Bedfordshire School of Sport Science and Physical Activity Ethics Review Committee. All study procedures were undertaken at the University of Bedfordshire Sport and Exercise 78 Science Laboratories. Subsequent to a preliminary testing visit, participants completed two 79 experimental conditions: (1) prolonged sitting and (2) sitting interrupted hourly with 20 min 80 81 light-intensity treadmill desk walking. Each condition was separated by ≥6 days. Order of the 82 experimental conditions was randomised using a simple computer generated randomisation method (www.randomizer.org). Due to the transient changes that occur in glucose metabolism 83 during the female menstrual cycle (Valdes & Elkind-Hirsch, 1991), females were tested in the 84 85 follicular phase only.

86

87 Participants

Twelve male and twelve female participants aged 18-55 years gave informed consent to take part prior to any test procedures. Participants were required to be sedentary for ≥7 h/day. Exclusion criteria were self-reported diabetes, any known blood borne disease, pregnancy, current or recent smoker, allergy or dislike to foods included in the experimental test meals, and any other health issues that would limit the participant's ability to engage in the activity bouts.

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95 Sample size calculations

96 The primary outcome was postprandial glucose incremental area under the curve (iAUC). 97 Allowing for an intervention effect of 16% change in glucose iAUC, 10% within-group error 98 variance, a within-person correlation of 0.6, 90% power, and an α of 0.05, it was estimated 99 that 22 participants (eleven male and eleven female) would be required for this two-group, 100 two-treatment crossover design. These estimates were based on previous experimental 101 research reporting a significant reduction in postprandial glucose total area under the curve 102 (AUC) in response to interrupting sitting with light-intensity walking (Bailey & Locke, 2015). The study was also powered to detect a main effect of sex based on a difference of 32% 103 change in glucose iAUC between males and females (Dempsey et al., 2016b), 10% within-104 105 group error variance, a within-person correlation of 0.6, 95% power, and an α of 0.05

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107 *Preliminary measures*

Stature and weight were measured using a stadiometer (Harpenden 98.602, Holtain Ltd., 108 109 Crymych) and electronic weighing scales (Tanita Corp., Tokyo, Japan), respectively. 110 Participants were then familiarised with the Borg Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE) scale (Borg, 1982) and the Lifespan TR800-DT5 treadmill desk (LifeSpan, Salt Lake City, UT, USA) 111 that was used during the experimental conditions. Participants then walked on the treadmill 112 113 desk to determine a perceived light-intensity walking speed (RPE of 6-9) and this speed was 114 then used for that respective participant in the relevant experimental condition. The treadmill desk walking speeds selected by the participants ranged between 1.2 and 3.5 km/h⁻¹. Once 115 the appropriate walking speed had been determined, participants walked at this speed for 15 116 117 min whilst typing about something meaningful to them on a laptop computer. The purpose of 118 this was to confirm that the desk height and walking speed selected would be comfortable for the walking bouts performed in the relevant experimental condition (Alderman, Olson, & 119 120 Mattina, 2014).

- 122 Experimental protocol
- Figure 1 shows the experimental protocol. The 6.5 h experimental conditions were as follows:
- (1) Prolonged sitting (SIT): participants remained seated at a desk and were instructed to
 minimise excessive movement.
- (2) Interrupted sitting (INT-SIT): participants interrupted their sitting with 20 min of lightintensity walking on a treadmill desk at 20 min, 80 min, 140 min, 200 min, 260 min,
 and 320 min. This resulted in an accumulation of 2 h of light-intensity walking, which
 was based on recommendations for reducing sedentary work in desk-based
 employees (Buckley et al., 2015).
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133 Participants attended the laboratories at ~08:30 after an overnight fast. Participants were asked to refrain from caffeine and alcohol for 24 h and avoid exercise for 72 h before 134 experimental conditions based on evidence that a single session of exercise may enhance 135 insulin sensitivity for at least the next 48 h (Mikines, Sonne, Farrell, Tronier, & Galbo, 1988). 136 137 Participants were asked to weigh and record all food and drink consumed for 24 h preceding 138 the first experimental condition and replicate the quantity and timings of eating for the 24 h period prior to the second experimental condition (Bailey et al., 2016). Participants were asked 139 to travel to the laboratories via motorised transport to minimise physical activity prior to the 140 141 experimental conditions.

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Upon arrival, participants sat for a minimum of 10 min and resting blood pressure (BP) was then measured. Body fat% was then estimated using the Tanita BC-418 Segmental Body Composition Analyzer (Tanita Corp., Tokyo, Japan); this occurred during the first experimental condition only. An activPAL device (PAL Technologies, Glasgow, Scotland) was then attached to the participants' left thigh to be worn during the experimental period. A fasting blood sample was then taken immediately before consumption of a standardised breakfast. The 6.5 h experimental condition began upon the first mouthful of the breakfast meal. Breakfast and

150 lunch were provided at 0 h and 3 h, respectively, during each experimental condition. During 151 conditions, participants were permitted to read, talk, or work on a laptop computer; this 152 included the treadmill desk walking bouts. To ensure participants remained sedentary during 153 sitting periods, they were pushed in a wheelchair by a researcher when visiting the toilet and 154 the food consumption area.

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156 Meals and water consumption

157 The standardised breakfast and lunch meals each provided 30% of estimated daily energy requirements for each participant. Energy requirements were estimated for each individual 158 based on body mass using the Mifflin equations (Mifflin et al., 1990). A physical activity factor 159 of 1.4 was applied to represent a sedentary day. Breakfast consisted of cornflakes and whole 160 161 milk providing 57% carbohydrate, 29% fat and 14% protein. Lunch consisted of a chicken sandwich, salted crisps and chocolate providing 47% carbohydrate, 39% fat, 14% protein. The 162 glycaemic index of the breakfast and lunch meals was 87 and 71, respectively, which was 163 calculated using weighted means of the glycaemic index values for the component foods 164 165 (Wolever & Jenkins, 1986). Participants were asked to consume each meal within 15 min. The 166 time taken to consume each meal during the first experimental condition was recorded and participants were asked to replicate this as closely as possible during their second 167 experimental condition. During the first condition, water was provided ad libitum and the total 168 169 volume consumed was recorded. This quantity was replicated during the second condition by 170 provision of three equal volumes of water at 0, 120 and 240 min.

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172 Blood collection and biochemistry

During experimental conditions, eight capillary finger prick blood samples were collected using a lancet (Haemolance Plus Lancet, Prospect Diagnostics, Dronfield, UK). The first sample was taken in a fasted state followed by subsequent samples at 45, 105, 165, 225, 285, 345 and 390 min into two EDTA-containing microvettes (Microvette CB300 EDTA, Sarstedt Ltd, Leicester, UK). Approximately 600 µL of whole blood was collected at each time point. From

178 one microvette, 30 µL of whole blood was used to immediately analyse blood glucose concentration using the YSI 2300 STAT plus glucose and lactate analyzer (YSI Inc., Yellow 179 180 Springs, OH, USA). The remaining whole blood from both microvettes was centrifuged 181 (Heraeus Pico 17 microcentrifuge, Thermo Scientific, Loughborough, UK) at 2000 × g for 5 182 min. Plasma was then extracted and stored at -80 °C for later batch analysis of insulin and 183 triglyceride concentrations. Plasma insulin concentrations were determined using an enzyme linked immunosorbent assay technique (Mercodia, Uppsala Sweden) and plasma triglyceride 184 185 concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically using the lipase hydrolysis method 186 (GOP-PAP; Randox, Crumlin, Ireland). Samples from each participant were analysed in the same run to eliminate inter-assay variation. 187

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189 Blood pressure measurements

During experimental conditions, resting brachial BP was measured on the left arm with participants seated in an upright position using an automatic device (Omron M5-I, Omron Matsusaka Co. Ltd., Matsusaka, Japan). To determine baseline values, BP was measured three times with a 2 min rest between each measure and an average of the three readings was taken. Single measures were then taken at 60, 120, 180, 240, 300, 360, and 390 min.

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196 Calculation of outcome variables

For physical activity outcomes, activPAL manufacturer software (ActivPAL[™] Professional 197 V7.2.32) was used to classify data into sitting, standing and stepping categories and generate 198 199 csv event files for each experimental condition. Data was then trimmed based on condition 200 start/end times prior to data extraction using tailored Microsoft Excel 2017 formulas. Light and 201 moderate-intensity stepping was classified as <3 Metabolic Equivalents (METs) and >3 METs, 202 respectively. Postprandial glucose, insulin, and triglyceride iAUC was calculated for each 6.5 h experimental period using the trapezoidal rule. Mean arterial pressure (MAP) was calculated 203 as: $MAP \cong P_{Dias} + \frac{1}{3}(P_{Sys} - P_{Dias}).$ 204

206 Statistical analyses

207 Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS v23.0 (SPSS Inc., Armonk, N.Y., USA). 208 Normality was checked using standard graphical procedures (Grafen & Hails, 2002). Insulin 209 iAUC was non-normally distributed and was log transformed prior to analysis. The data for this 210 variable was then back-transformed to natural units for reporting to provide meaningful 211 information. Linear mixed models were used to assess the main effect of condition and sex and the condition x sex interaction for the cardiometabolic outcomes. Condition and sex were 212 213 fixed factors and participants were random factors and these models adjusted for potential confounders (age, body fat% and baseline outcome values). For analysis of physical activity 214 outcomes, linear mixed models were used to assess the main effect of condition, with 215 condition as a fixed factor and participants as random factors. These models did not adjust for 216 217 any confounders. A two-tailed significance level of ≤0.05 was set. Cohens' d effect sizes were calculated to describe the magnitude of differences between conditions; 0.2, 0.5 and 0.8 218 indicated a small, medium or large effect, respectively (Cohen, 1988). All data are expressed 219 220 as mean (95% confidence interval [CI]) unless stated otherwise.

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222 Results

223 Descriptive characteristics of the participants are reported in Table 1. Participants spent 224 significantly less time sitting and significantly higher time in light and moderate-intensity 225 stepping in INT-SIT compared with SIT (Table 2).

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Baseline and iAUC values for each cardiometabolic outcome can be seen separately for males
and females in Table 3. Baseline concentrations of insulin were significantly higher in INT-SIT
than SIT (12.4 [10.4, 14.7] and 9.3 [7.8, 11.0] μU/mL, respectively) and significantly higher in
males than females (13.7 [10.8, 17.3] and 8.4 [6.6, 10.6] μU/mL, respectively). There were no
significant differences in baseline values between SIT and INT-SIT for glucose (4.39 [4.24,
4.55] and 4.45 [4.30, 4.61] mmol/L, respectively), triglycerides (0.88 [0.67, 1.10] and 0.97
[0.76, 1.19] mmol/L, respectively), systolic BP (119 [114, 123] and 120 [115, 124] mmHg,

respectively), and diastolic BP (78 [74, 81] and 78 [75, 81] mmHg, respectively). Males had
significantly higher baseline values than females for glucose (4.75 [4.53, 4.96] and 4.10 [3.88,
4.31] mmol/L, respectively), triglycerides (1.36 [1.08, 1.63] and 0.50 [0.22, 0.78] mmol/L,
respectively), systolic BP (129 [123, 136] and 109 [103, 116] mmHg, respectively), and
diastolic BP (84 [80, 89] and 71 [67, 76] mmHg, respectively).

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Figure 2 shows glucose, insulin, triglyceride, and BP responses over time for each condition. There was a significant main effect of condition for glucose iAUC with concentrations being 38% lower in INT-SIT compared with SIT (4.52 [3.47, 5.56] and 6.66 [5.62, 7.71] mmol/L·6.5 h, respectively); large effect size (d=1.07). The main effect of sex was not significant (6.74 [5.19, 8.29] and 4.44 [2.89, 5.99] mmol/L·6.5 h for males and females, respectively) and neither was the condition x sex interaction for glucose iAUC.

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The main effect of condition (138.0 [109.9, 173.4] and 160.7 [127.8, 201.7] μ U/mL·6.5 h for INT-SIT and SIT, respectively) and the condition x sex interaction effect for insulin iAUC were not significant. There was a significant main effect of sex for insulin iAUC with females having lower concentrations than males (91.2 [65.3, 127.4] and 242.7 [173.9, 339.1] μ U/mL·6.5, respectively).

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There was a significant main effect of condition for triglyceride iAUC with concentrations being 32% lower in INT-SIT compared with SIT (1.96 [0.96, 2.96] and 2.71 [1.70, 3.71] mmol/L·6.5 h, respectively); medium effect size (d=0.38). There was a significant main effect of sex with females having lower triglyceride iAUC responses than males (-0.60 [-2.13, 0.93] and 5.27 [3.74, 6.79] mmol/L·6.5 h, respectively). The condition x sex interaction was not significant.

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There was a significant main effect of condition for mean resting systolic BP, diastolic BP, and MAP. Systolic BP was 3% lower in INT-SIT than SIT (118 [116, 119] and 122 [120, 124] mmHg, respectively; d=1.15), while diastolic BP was 4% lower (74 [73, 76] and 77 [75, 78]

262 mmHg, respectively; d=0.70) and MAP 2% lower (89 [87, 90] and 91 [90, 93] mmHg, 263 respectively; d=0.91) in INT-SIT than SIT. The effect size for each of these differences was 264 large. There was a significant main effect of sex for each of these variables with females 265 having lower systolic BP (117 [115, 119] and 123 [120, 125] mmHg, respectively), diastolic BP 266 (74 [71, 76] and 77 [75, 80] mmHg, respectively) and MAP (87 [85, 89] and 93 [91, 95] mmHg, 267 respectively) compared with males.

268

269 Discussion

The main findings of this study were that interrupting sitting with an accumulated 2 hours of light-intensity treadmill desk walking leads to an acute improvement in postprandial glucose, triglycerides and BP in sedentary males and females.

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274 The total accumulated 2 h volume of light-intensity walking was based on recommendations that desk-based employees should initially accumulate a minimum of 2 h/day of light-intensity 275 276 activity during working hours to benefit their health (Buckley et al., 2015). There is limited 277 evidence evaluating the cardiometabolic response to accumulating ≥ 2 h of light activity in a 278 single work day (Buckley, Mellor, Morris, & Joseph, 2014; Hawari, Al-Shayji, Wilson, & Gill, 2016; Thorp et al., 2014; Zeigler et al., 2016; Zeigler et al., 2015). The majority of these studies 279 evaluated responses to standing protocols (Buckley et al., 2014; Hawari et al., 2016; Thorp et 280 281 al., 2014). Standing continuously for 185 min in an afternoon significantly attenuated postprandial glucose responses by 43% (Buckley et al., 2014), whereas alternating between 282 a sitting and standing posture every 30 min (2 h standing in total) significantly attenuated 283 postprandial glucose by 11% (Thorp et al., 2014). However, accumulating 4 h of standing in 284 prolonged bouts (alternating between sitting and standing every 15 min) or short intermittent 285 286 bouts (standing for 90 s at a time interspersed with 30 s sitting) did not lead to any significant differences in postprandial glucose, insulin or triglycerides compared with prolonged sitting 287 288 (Hawari et al., 2016). It is possible that the standing bouts were not long enough in duration in 289 the study by Hawari et al. (2016) to elicit a beneficial response. In the present study, engaging

in shorter light-intensity walking bouts (20 min) was sufficient to significantly attenuate 290 postprandial glucose and triglycerides by 38% and 32%, respectively, potentially due to 291 292 increased muscular-contraction mediated disposal of these metabolites (Bailey & Locke, 293 2015). Similar to the current study, engaging in progressively longer treadmill desk walking 294 bouts over the course of the day (from 10 min up to 30 min; total volume of 2.5 h) significantly 295 lowered systolic and diastolic BP compared with prolonged sitting (Zeigler et al., 2016; Zeigler et al., 2015). The study by Zeigler et al. (2015) that was performed in the participants' normal 296 297 office environment also reported a significant decrease in fatigue following the treadmill desk 298 walking day. These findings suggest that treadmill desk walking may be an effective 299 intervention for reducing cardiometabolic disease risk in office workers.

300

301 Although several studies have reported beneficial cardiometabolic responses to

302 accumulating ≥ 2 h of light activity in a single work day, interrupting sitting with a lower total volume of light activity may also be effective. Several studies report attenuations in glucose 303 when non-overweight, overweight/obese, and dysglycaemic participants engage in light-304 305 intensity walking for 2-5 min every 20-30 min (Bailey & Locke, 2015; Bergouignan et al., 306 2016; Dunstan et al., 2012; Henson et al., 2016; Pulsford, Blackwell, Hillsdon, & Kos, 2017). However, some studies did not observe significant changes in glucose in response to 2 min 307 light-intensity walking every 20 min (Bailey et al., 2016; Hansen, Andersen, Vinther, 308 309 Pielmeier, & Larsen, 2016). It is difficult to explain the disparity in findings from Bailey et al. (2016) and Hansen et al. (2016) as these studies used similar designs and study samples to 310 other studies (Bailey & Locke, 2015; Pulsford et al., 2017), however, this may be due to 311 312 differences in the composition of the meals provided during the experimental conditions. It is 313 unknown whether the participants in the studies that reported negligible responses would 314 have benefited from longer duration light-intensity walking bouts and further research is required to elucidate the differential effects of interrupting sitting with varying frequency and 315 316 duration of physical activity.

317

318 Unlike the present study, previous research has reported attenuated insulin responses to 319 interrupting sitting with 2-5 min of light-intensity walking every 20-30 min (Dunstan et al., 320 2012; Henson et al., 2016; Pulsford et al., 2017). The sample in the current study were in 321 good general health and may have been more insulin sensitive than the participants in the 322 studies by Dunstan et al. (2012) and Henson et al. (2016). This may thus explain the lack of 323 change in insulin in the present study. However, the participants in the study by Pulsford et al. (2017) were of a similar health status to the present study. The use of capillary blood for 324 325 determination of plasma insulin concentrations in the present study, rather than venous 326 blood as used in previous studies, could therefore partly explain the disparity in findings. Indeed, prior exercise may alter the difference between arterialised and venous insulin 327 sensitivity responses (Edinburgh et al., 2017), which may limit direct comparisons being 328 329 made between studies.

330

Research evaluating BP responses to interrupting sitting with light-intensity activity is limited. 331 In addition to the studies by Zeigler et al. (Zeigler et al., 2016; Zeigler et al., 2015) discussed 332 333 above, Larsen et al. (2014) observed a significant reduction in systolic and diastolic BP in 334 response to 2 min light-intensity walking every 20 min. It is likely that a complex interaction of exercise-induced mechanisms can account for the reduced BP responses, including changes 335 in cardiac output and peripheral vascular resistance that are regulated by thermoregulation, 336 337 blood volume, sympathetic and afferent nerve activity, and vasoactive substances (MacDonald, 2002). However, there were no differences in MAP in the study by Larsen et al. 338 339 (2014), which is in contrast to the present study. It is possible that the longer walking bouts in 340 the present study caused more pronounced vascular responses.

341

In the limited research evaluating triglyceride responses to interrupting sitting with lightintensity activity, 3-5 min of light-intensity walking every 30 min did not result in a significant attenuation compared with prolonged sitting in Type 2 diabetes and dysglycaemic participants (Dempsey et al., 2016a; Henson et al., 2016). This is in contrast to the current study that

346 demonstrated a significant 32% triglyceride attenuation in the interrupted sitting condition. This 347 might suggest that interrupting sitting with longer bouts of light-intensity walking may be more effective in attenuating the rapid inactivity-induced decrease in lipoprotein lipase activity that 348 349 occurs in animal models (Bey & Hamilton, 2003). Future research should therefore investigate 350 lipoprotein lipase responses to the experimental protocols in the present study to provide 351 mechanistic explanations. Furthermore, the potential for interrupting sitting with longer bouts of light-intensity walking should be studied as a potential therapeutic intervention in at-risk 352 353 populations, such as Type 2 diabetes and dysglycaemia.

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There was no significant condition x sex interaction effect in the present study for any of the 355 cardiometabolic outcomes, indicating that males and females responded similarly to 356 357 interrupting sitting. This is in contrast to Dempsey et al. (2016a) who observed a significant condition x sex interaction for the difference in glucose responses between prolonged sitting 358 and interrupting sitting with light-intensity walking (no condition x sex interactions were 359 observed for insulin or triglycerides). The results indicated that the magnitude of attenuation 360 361 from interrupting sitting was greater in women than in men (Dempsey et al., 2016a). Previous 362 research also suggests that young women have greater protection from adverse macrovascular responses to prolonged sitting, whereas young men exhibit more consistent 363 declines in flow mediated dilation (Vranish et al., 2017). More research is required to establish 364 365 sex differences in response to interrupting sitting to identify mechanistic explanations of any differences observed and appropriately inform intervention strategies targeting population 366 367 subgroups.

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As elevated postprandial glucose and triglyceride responses are associated with oxidative stress-induced atherogenic changes and increases in cardiometabolic disease risk (O'Keefe & Bell, 2007), the findings of the present study have potential clinical importance. The 3-4 mmHg lower systolic and diastolic BP responses in the current study could be clinically meaningful if they were sustained, which could extrapolate to a reduced risk of stroke and

ischemic heart attacks by 15% and coronary heart disease by 6% (Cook, Cohen, Hebert,
Taylor, & Hennekens, 1995). Interrupting sitting with light-intensity treadmill desk walking
could be an effective strategy to reduce cardiometabolic disease risk in office workers. Studies
are now needed to determine postprandial cardiometabolic responses to longer-term
interventions targeting reductions in prolonged sitting.

379

This study has some limitations that should be considered. Although the purpose of the 380 381 study was to examine cardiometabolic responses to standardised meals, normal dietary intake is likely to vary in free-living settings with regards to macronutrient composition, 382 glycaemic index, meal size and frequency. Thus, the interaction between interrupting sitting 383 and habitual dietary patterns remains unclear. The controlled laboratory environment in 384 385 which the conditions took place limits the ability to generalise the findings to free-living settings where habitual behaviours, such as workload and stress, may affect glucose and BP 386 control. The total volume of walking in the interrupted sitting condition amounted to 2 h, 387 which may be difficult for office workers to achieve who are unable to gain access to a 388 389 treadmill workstation. Furthermore, the feasibility of treadmill desk workstations in the 390 workplace remains to be determined. It is possible that short-term use of a treadmill desk may decrease work productivity and performance (Ojo, Bailey, Chater, & Hewson, 2018) and 391 future research should thus establish the long term effects of these workstations in the 392 393 workplace. Lastly, as the study sample were in good general health, it may not be 394 appropriate to generalise the findings to clinical populations.

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In conclusion, this study demonstrates that interrupting sitting with an accumulated 2 h of
light-intensity walking acutely improves postprandial glucose, triglyceride, and BP responses
in males and females compared with prolonged sitting. The findings have application to
workplace settings in which treadmill desk walking may be an effective approach for
reducing sedentary time and cardiometabolic disease risk in office workers.

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Table 1 Descriptive participant characteristics (mean ± SD)

	Males	Females		
Age (years)	32.0 ± 10.5	39.5 ± 10.3		
Height (cm)	176.7 ± 5.5	166.3 ± 5.1		
Weight (kg)	83.4 ± 15.9	68.8 ± 16.2		
Body mass index (kg/m²)	26.6 ± 4.5	24.8 ± 5.1		
Body fat%	22.5 ± 5.0	29.8 ± 7.6		
Sitting time (h/day)	9.4 ± 2.4	9.2 ± 2.4		
Physical activity (MET-min/week)	1823 ± 1658	1618 ± 1182		

Table 2 Physical activity during the experimental conditions.

Prolonged sitting		Interrupted sitting		P value for main effect of
				condition
377.8	(372.2, 383.3)	250.7	(238.8, 262.7)	<0.001
11.0	(5.4, 16.5)	18.8	(7.6, 29.9)	0.247
0.9	(0.6, 1.1)	35.3	(18, 52.6)	<0.001
0.4	(0.3, 0.5)	85.2	(67.1, 103.2)	<0.001
1.3	(0.9, 1.6)	120.5	(117.7, 123.3)	<0.001
17	(12, 22)	1045	(539, 1550)	<0.001
19	(13, 25)	3734	(2920, 4549)	<0.001
36	(26, 45)	4779	(4423, 5134)	<0.001
	11.0 0.9 0.4 1.3 17 19	 11.0 (5.4, 16.5) 0.9 (0.6, 1.1) 0.4 (0.3, 0.5) 1.3 (0.9, 1.6) 17 (12, 22) 19 (13, 25) 	11.0(5.4, 16.5)18.80.9(0.6, 1.1)35.30.4(0.3, 0.5)85.21.3(0.9, 1.6)120.517(12, 22)104519(13, 25)3734	11.0 (5.4, 16.5) 18.8 (7.6, 29.9) 0.9 (0.6, 1.1) 35.3 (18, 52.6) 0.4 (0.3, 0.5) 85.2 (67.1, 103.2) 1.3 (0.9, 1.6) 120.5 (117.7, 123.3) 17 (12, 22) 1045 (539, 1550) 19 (13, 25) 3734 (2920, 4549)

	Prolonge	ed sitting	Interrupted sitting		P value for main effect of condition	P value for main effect of sex	P value for condition x sex interaction
	Males	Females	Males	Females			
Baseline blood glucose (mmol/L)	4.69 (4.45, 4.92)	4.09 (3.86, 4.33)	4.81 (4.57, 5.04)	4.10 (3.86, 4.33)	0.404	0.001	0.436
Baseline plasma insulin (µU/mL)	11.9 (9.2, 15.4)	7.2 (5.6, 9.3)	15.7 (12.2, 20.4)	9.7 (7.5, 12.6)	0.002	0.009	0.869
Baseline triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.23 (0.90, 1.55)	0.54 (0.22, 0.87)	1.49 (1.16, 1.81)	0.46 (0.14, 0.79)	0.479	<0.001	0.187
Baseline systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	129 (123, 136)	108 (102, 115)	129 (122, 136)	110 (103, 117)	0.651	<0.001	0.609
Baseline diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	84 (79, 89)	71 (66, 76)	84 (79, 89)	71 (67, 76)	0.818	0.001	0.959
Blood glucose iAUC (mmol/L·6.5 h)	8.19 (6.51, 9.86)	5.14 (3.41, 6.87)	5.29 (3.50, 7.07)	3.75 (2.02, 5.47)	0.001	0.074	0.198
Plasma insulin iAUC (μU/mL·6.5 h)	266.7 (189.1, 375.4)	96.8 (67.5, 138.6)	221.3 (154.2, 317.6)	86.1 (61.1, 121.3)	0.110	0.001	0.665
Triglycerides iAUC (mmol/L·6.5 h)	5.66 (4.11, 7.21)	-0.25 (-1.82)	4.88 (3.27, 6.48)	-0.95 (-2.54, 0.63)	0.022	<0.001	0.895
Mean systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	124 (121, 127)	119 (116, 122)	121 (118, 124)	115 (112, 117)	0.010	0.003	0.765
Mean diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	79 (76, 81)	74 (72, 77)	76 (74, 79)	73 (70, 75)	0.016	0.049	0.636
Mean arterial pressure (mmHg)	94 (92, 97)	89 (86, 91)	92 (89, 94)	86 (83, 88)	0.011	0.004	0.768

Data presented as mean (95% Cl) Statistically significant differences highlighted in bold iAUC, incremental area under the curve

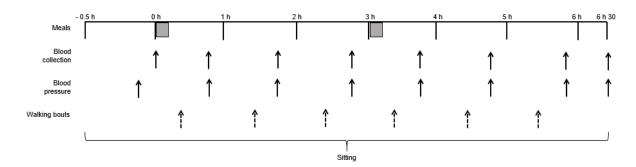


Figure 1 Schematic of experimental protocol

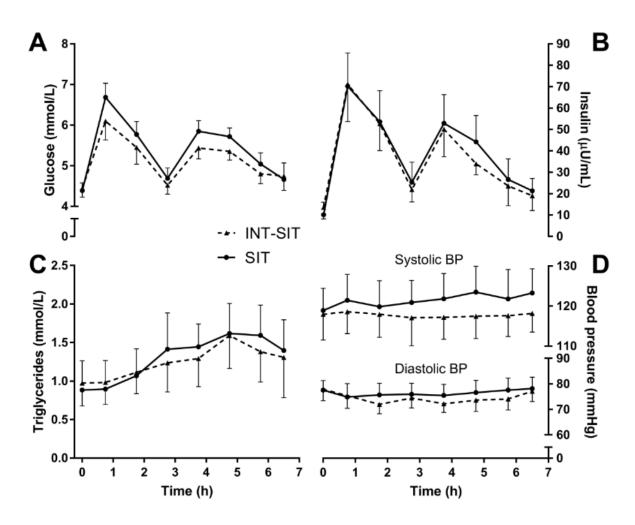


Figure 2 Changes in glucose (A), insulin (B), triglycerides (C), and blood pressure during the prolonged sitting (SIT) and interrupted sitting (INT-SIT) conditions. Data are mean and 95% confidence interval. Some error bars have been omitted for clarity.