High-intensity interval training blunts exercise-induced changes in markers of

mitochondrial biogenesis in human skeletal muscle

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ABSTRACT

Exercise-induced increases in peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator-1α (PGC-

1α) and p53 protein content in the nucleus mediate the initial phase of exercise-induced

mitochondrial biogenesis. Here we investigated, for the first time, if these exercise-induced

increases in these and other markers of mitochondrial biogenesis were altered after 40 sessions of

twice-daily high-volume high-intensity interval training (HVT) in human skeletal muscle. Vastus

lateralis muscle biopsies were collected from 10 healthy participants before, immediately post,

and 3h after a session of HIIE performed at the same absolute exercise intensity before and after

HVT (Pre-HVT and Post-HVT, respectively). Protein contents of common markers of exercise-

induced mitochondrial biogenesis were assessed in nuclear- and cytosolic-enriched fractions by

immunoblotting; mRNA contents of key transcription factors and mitochondrial genes were

assessed by qPCR. Despite exercise-induced increases in PGC-1α, p53, and plant homeodomain

finger-containing protein 20 (PHF20) protein content, the phosphorylation of p53 and acetyl-

CoA carboxylase (p-p53^{Ser15} and p-ACC^{Ser79}, respectively), and PGC-1α mRNA Pre-HVT, no

significant changes were observed Post-HVT. Forty sessions of twice-daily high-intensity

interval training blunted all of the measured exercise-induced molecular events associated with

mitochondrial biogenesis that were observed Pre-HVT. Future studies should determine if this

loss relates to the decrease in relative exercise intensity, habituation to the same exercise

stimulus, or a combination of both.

Keywords: endurance exercise, HIIT, mitochondrial adaptations, p53, PGC-1α

Introduction

Mitochondria are responsible for the production of the majority of the energy required to sustain

daily activities and are a key regulator of energy homeostasis (26). The importance of

mitochondria is underlined by the links between a healthy mitochondrial pool and enhanced

endurance performance (32), improved health (45), and a reduced risk of several lifestyle-related

chronic diseases (6, 40). Exercise has long been known to induce mitochondrial biogenesis (29) -

the making of new components of the mitochondrial reticulum (19). However, while much is

known about changes in molecular signals mediating mitochondrial adaptations in response to a

single session of exercise (16, 18, 30), no studies have investigated if the nuclear abundance of

important transcription factors and cofactors post-exercise, is altered by training. This is

important information that may help explain the common observation of smaller fitness gains as

training progresses (36, 39). Furthermore, a better understanding of how molecular signals are

altered when an exercise stimulus is repeated may inform strategies to maintain the effectiveness

of exercise to stimulate mitochondrial biogenesis.

A key regulator of exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis is peroxisome proliferator-

activated receptor γ coactivator-1α (PGC-1α) (65). In both rat (64) and human (21, 28, 37, 38)

skeletal muscle it has been observed that there is a post-exercise increase of PGC-1α protein

content in the nucleus, where PGC-1α performs its transcriptional activity (54). In addition, the

PGC-1α protein itself (25), as well as other proteins (e.g., p53 (31)), contribute to the exercise-

induced upregulation of PGC-1α mRNA (50), the upregulation of which has been shown to be

reduced as a training intervention progresses (42, 48, 61). Despite this, no study has investigated

exercise-induced changes in the content of nuclear proteins before and after a training

intervention. Given that increased PGC-1α protein content in the nucleus represents an important

process that contributes to the initial phase of exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis (64), it

is important to better understand how the molecular response to exercise changes with training.

p53 is another important regulator of exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis in human

skeletal muscle (56). Nuclear accumulation of p53 protein has been reported immediately (21),

or 3 hours (62), after a single session of exercise. While the mechanisms underlying the nuclear

accumulation of p53 are complex (41, 46), they have partly been attributed to phosphorylation of

p53 at serine 15 (p-p53^{Ser15}) (46) - a posttranslational modification that enhances p53 protein

stability (60) and prevents its nuclear export and cytosolic degradation (27, 46). However, once

again, these molecular events have only been investigated following a single exercise session,

and it is not known if they are altered by training. Given that the majority of the p53 activity

takes place in the nucleus (46), it is important to determine if the early events of the p53-

mediated exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis are differentially regulated in this

subcellular compartment as the training intervention progresses.

Therefore, the aim of our study was to investigate if a session of high-intensity interval exercise

(HIIE), performed at the same absolute workload before and after a period of high-volume

training (HVT; 40 sessions of high-intensity interval training [HIIT] performed twice-daily for

20 consecutive days), induces similar increases in the protein content of PGC-1α, p53, and p-

p53^{Ser15} in the nucleus. Upstream signaling, as well as mRNA content of several genes involved

in exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis, were also investigated before and after HVT. The

same absolute workload was chosen as this approach is often used in training studies (19), as

well as in practice, where individuals regularly repeat the same exercise session. We

hypothesized that 40 sessions of HIIT would result in significantly reduced exercise-induced

increases in these events mediating exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis.

Materials and methods

Participants

Ten healthy men (20 ± 2 y; 180 ± 12 cm; 80 ± 15 kg; 46.2 ± 7.6 mL · min^{-1} · kg^{-1}), who were not regularly engaged in cycling-based sports, were moderately-trained (i.e., undertaking moderate, unstructured aerobic activity for less than 3 to 4 hours per week for at least 6 months prior to the study), and were non-smokers and free of medications, volunteered to participate in this study. Upon passing an initial medical screening participants were informed of the study requirements, risks, and benefits, before giving written informed consent. All experimental protocols and study's procedures were approved by the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee and conformed to the standards set by the latest revision of the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants completed the study; however, due to the limited amount of muscle tissue harvested during the second biopsy trial, data from one participant were excluded (including physiological and performance data).

Study design and testing

This research was part of a larger, previously-published study investigating the effect of different training volumes on mitochondrial adaptations (20). The experimental protocol specific to the portion of the study described in this manuscript consisted of three tests, each separated by 48 to 72 hours, repeated before and after the HVT: a 20-km cycling time trial (20k-TT), a graded exercise test (GXT) and a HIIE biopsy trial (Pre-HVT and Post-HVT). During the 20 days of HVT participants performed HIIT twice a day (Figure 1). Prior to beginning this phase of the larger study, participants were familiarized with the 20k-TT, the GXT and the HIIE, and completed the normal volume training (NVT) phase, (12 HIIT sessions in 4 weeks; Figure 1). It

has been reported that the transcriptional response to the first session of exercise is reflective of

muscle damage (43) and can differ significantly from the response to subsequent exercise

sessions (48). Thus, the NVT phase served to habituate participants to the exercise stimulus.

Participants were required to refrain from vigorous exercise for the 72 h preceding each test,

from alcohol for 24 h before testing, and from food and caffeine consumption for 3 h before each

test.

20k-TT. Cycling time trials were performed on an electronically-braked cycle ergometer

(Velotron, RacerMate, USA) after a 6-min warm-up were participants cycled for 4 min at 66% of

the power attained at the lactate threshold ($\dot{W}_{LT}$), followed by 2 min at $\dot{W}_{LT}$, and 2 min of rest.

During these tests, participants were only allowed access to cadence and completed distance.

Heart rate was monitored (Polar-Electro, Finland) during all exercise trials and training sessions.

GXT. A discontinuous graded exercise test was performed on an electronically-braked cycle

ergometer (Lode Excalibur, v2.0, The Netherlands) to determine peak oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_{2peak}$),

peak power ($\dot{W}_{peak}$), and $\dot{W}_{LT}$ (using the modified D_{max} method (5)), and the exercise intensity for

both the biopsy trial and the HVT training sessions, as previously described (22). Briefly, the test

began at 60, 90, or 120 W, depending on participants' fitness levels, and was increased by 30 W

every 4 min. Stages were interspersed with 30-s breaks for measurement of fingertip capillary

blood lactate concentration using a pre-calibrated blood-lactate analyzer (YSI 2300 STAT Plus,

YSI, USA). Participants were instructed to keep a cadence above 60 rpm and were only allowed

access to cadence and elapsed time; the GXT was terminated when participants reached

volitional exhaustion or cadence dropped below 60 rpm. The $\dot{W}_{peak}$ was determined as the power

of the last completed stage plus 7.5 W for every additional minute completed. O_2 and CO_2

concentrations were analyzed from expired air using a pre-calibrated gas analyzer (Moxus 2010,

AEI technologies, USA), and $\dot{V}O_2$ values were recorded every 15 s. The average of the two

highest consecutive 15-s values was recorded as a participant's $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$. The same GXT was

performed after 20 days of training to determine the relative exercise intensity of the Post-HVT

biopsy trial.

Pre- and Post-HVT HIIE biopsy trials. Each participant performed the two biopsy trials in the

morning and at the same time, to avoid variations caused by circadian rhythms. Participants were

provided with a standardized dinner (55 kJ·kg^{-1} body mass (BM), providing 2.1 g

carbohydrate·kg^{-1} BM, 0.3 g fat·kg^{-1} BM, and 0.6 g protein·kg^{-1} BM) and breakfast (41 kJ·kg^{-1}

BM, providing 1.8 g carbohydrate·kg^{-1} BM, 0.2 g fat·kg^{-1} BM, and 0.3 g protein·kg^{-1} BM) to

minimize variability in muscle gene and protein expression attributable to diet, as previously

described (20). While participants rested in the supine position, and after injection of local

anesthetic (1% xylocaine) into the skin and fascia of the vastus lateralis muscle, three small

incisions were made about 2-3 cm apart. A resting muscle biopsy was taken (Rest) using a

biopsy needle with suction. Approximately ten minutes after participants were helped to an

electronically-braked cycle ergometer (Velotron, RacerMate, USA) and began a warm up

consisting of cycling for four minutes at 66% of $\dot{W}_{LT}$, followed by 2 min at $\dot{W}_{LT}$, and 2 min of

rest, after which the Pre-HVT HIIE session began. HIIE consisted of five 4-min intervals at an

exercise intensity equal to $\dot{W}_{LT} + 0.2$ ($\dot{W}_{peak} - \dot{W}_{LT}$), interspersed with two minutes of recovery at

60 W. Immediately after termination of HIIE (~5 to 10 s) a second skeletal muscle biopsy was

taken (+0 h), while a third one was obtained after three hours of recovery (+3 h), during which

time participants were allowed access to water *ab libitum* and had no access to food. Skeletal

muscle samples were rapidly cleaned of excess blood, fat, and connective tissue, were snap

frozen in liquid nitrogen, and later stored at -80°C for subsequent analyses. By design, the Post-

HVT HIIE biopsy trial was performed at the same absolute exercise intensity used during the

Pre-HVT trial, and followed an identical format.

HVT. The day following the Pre-HVT HIIE biopsy trial participants began HIIT twice a day for

20 consecutive days. Training sessions were performed in the morning and afternoon and

consisted of either five to twelve 4-min intervals at relative exercise intensities ranging from $\dot{W}_{LT}$

$+ 0.3$ ($\dot{W}_{peak}$ - $\dot{W}_{LT}$) to $\dot{W}_{LT} + 0.8$ ($\dot{W}_{peak}$ - $\dot{W}_{LT}$), interspersed with a 2-min recovery at 60 W, or

eight to twenty-two 2-min intervals at relative exercise intensities ranging from $\dot{W}_{LT} + 0.5$ ($\dot{W}_{peak}$

- $\dot{W}_{LT}$) to $\dot{W}_{LT} + 0.8$ ($\dot{W}_{peak}$ - $\dot{W}_{LT}$), interspersed with a 1-min recovery at 60 W (20). Single-

session duration increased from 30–35 min to 70–80 min. A 10 km cycling time trial was

performed before, and at regular weekly intervals during, the HVT to monitor participants for

signs of overreaching, as previously described (20). If performance would have decreased by

more than 10%, the training load would have been reduced to prevent overreaching (23). No

participants experienced a performance loss throughout the entire study, and the training protocol

was completed as planned. All participants completed a minimum of 36 (equivalent to 90%)

training sessions; average compliance was 96.5% of the prescribed number of sessions.

Skeletal muscle analyses

Subcellular fractionation. Nuclear and cytosolic fractions were prepared from 35 to 50 mg of

skeletal muscle using a commercially-available nuclear extraction kit (NE-PER, Pierce, USA).

Briefly, muscle samples were washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), homogenized in CER-

I buffer containing a protease/phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Cell Signaling Technology [CST],

5872) and centrifuged at ~16,000 g. The supernatant was taken as the crude cytosolic fraction.

The pellets containing nuclei was washed six times in PBS to minimize cytosolic contamination

and nuclear protein were extracted by centrifugation (~16,000 g) in a high-salt NER buffer

supplemented with the same inhibitors cocktail and following the manufacturers' instructions.

Protein concentration was determined in triplicate using a commercial colorimetric assay (Bio-

Rad Protein Assay kit-II; Bio-Rad, Gladesville, NSW, Australia). Nuclear and cytosolic fraction

enrichment was confirmed by blotting the separated fractions against a nuclear (histone H3) and

a cytosolic (lactate dehydrogenase A [LDHA]) protein; histone H3 was mainly detected in

nuclear fractions, whereas LDHA was mainly detected in cytosolic fractions (Figure 2A),

indicating the subcellular fractionation enrichment was successful.

Immunoblotting. Muscle lysates (10 to 50 μg) were separated by electrophoresis using SDS-

PAGE gels (8-15%) as previously described (21). An internal standard was loaded in each gel,

and each lane was normalized to this value to reduce gel-to-gel variability. Whole-lane

Coomassie blue staining (63) was performed to verify correct loading and equal transfer between

lanes (Figure 2B). The following primary antibodies were used (supplier, catalogue number):

histone H3 (CST, 9715), LDHA (CST, 2012), p53 (CST, 2527), p-acetyl-CoA carboxylase (p-

ACC^{Ser79}; CST, 3661), PGC-1α (Calbiochem, st-1202), plant homeodomain finger-containing

protein 20 (PHF20; CST, 3934), and p-p53^{Ser15} (CST, 9284). Representative images for all target

proteins are presented in Figure 2C.

Total RNA isolation. Total RNA was isolated from ~15 mg of muscle tissue as previously

described (13). Briefly, samples were homogenized (FastPrep FP120 Homogenizer; Thermo

Savant) in the presence of 1 g of zirconia/silica beads (1.0 mm; Daintree Scientific, St. Helens,

TAS, Australia) and 800 μL of TRIzol® Reagent (Invitrogen, Melbourne, Australia). Lysates

were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C; the supernatant was collected, combined with

chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, USA), and total RNA was extracted using the TRIzol®

protocol as per manufacturer's instructions. RNA precipitation was performed for at least 2 h at -

20°C in the presence of 400 μL of isopropanol and 10 μL of 5 M NaCl (both Sigma-Aldrich, St

Louis, USA). RNA concentration was determined spectrophotometrically (Nanodrop ND1000,

Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) by measuring the absorbance at 260 (A260) and 280 (A280) nm,

with A260/A280 ratios > 1.8 indicating high-quality RNA (35). To ensure RNA was free of

DNA contamination samples were DNase treated using an RQ1 RNase-free DNase kit (Promega

Corporations, Madison, USA).

Real-time PCR (qPCR). First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed on 300 ng of total RNA

using a thermal cycler (S1000 Thermal Cycler; Bio-Rad; Bio-Rad, Gladesville, NSW, Australia)

and the commercially available iScript™ cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad, Gladesville, NSW,

Australia) in the presence of random hexamers and oligo(dT)s, according to the manufacturer's

directions. Forward and reverse primers for all genes investigated (Table 1) were designed based

on NCBI RefSeq using NCBI Primer-BLAST (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/), and specificity

of the amplified product was confirmed by melting point dissociation curves. The mRNA

expression of cytochrome *c* (cyt *c*), nuclear respiratory factor 1 (NRF-1) and 2 (NRF-2), p53,

PGC-1α, PHF20, and mitochondrial transcription factor A (TFAM) were quantified by

quantitative real-time PCR (Mastercycler® RealPlex2, Eppendorf, Germany), using SYBR

Green chemistry (iTaqTM Universal SYBR® Green Supermix; Bio-Rad, Gladesville, NSW,

Australia) (10 μL PCR reaction volume). All samples were run in duplicate simultaneously with

template free controls, using an automated pipetting system (epMotion 5070, Eppendorf,

Germany) to reduce technical variation (35). The following PCR cycling patterns were used:

initial denaturation at 95°C (3 min), 40 cycles of 95°C (15 s) and 60°C (60 s). Relative changes

in mRNA content were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method. To account for the efficiency of RT

and initial RNA concentration, the mRNA expression of four housekeeping genes was

quantified, and their stability was determined using the BestKeeper software (49). Cyclophilin,

glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), and beta-2-microglobulin (B2M) were

classified as stable, whereas TATA-binging protein (TBP) was reported as unstable and was

therefore excluded. These results were confirmed by the Normfinder algorithm (2).

Statistical analysis

All values are reported as mean ± SD unless otherwise specified. To investigate the influence of

exercise (Rest, +0 h, and +3 h) and training (Pre-HVT and Post-HVT), and the interaction

between these two variables, two-way ANOVA with repeated measures were performed on

absolute values, followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc tests to assess

differences between time points. Specifically, significant interactions and main effects were

further analyzed with pre-planned contrasts comparing the Pre- and Post-HVT trials separately.

Resting protein and mRNA content values in the Pre- and Post-HVT trials were also compared

with a pre-planned paired t-test. Sigma Stat software (Jandel Scientific, USA) was used for all

statistical analyses. The level of statistical significance was set a priori at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Total work during the biopsy trials

By design, the Pre- and Post-HVT HIIE sessions were performed at the same absolute exercise

intensity (231.1 ± 33.1 W, Figure 3) and resulted in the same total work (277.3 ± 39.8 kJ). There

was an increase (9.0 ± 6.1%, $P = 0.002$) in the power attained at the lactate threshold ($\dot{W}_{LT}$)

following training (215.5 ± 32.2 *vs.* 234.7 ± 36.8 W, Pre- and Post-HVT, respectively; Figure 3),

which resulted in the relative exercise intensity of the Pre-HVT biopsy trial (107.4 ± 1.2% of

$\dot{W}_{LT}$) being greater than the Post-HVT biopsy trial (98.8 ± 5.2% of $\dot{W}_{LT}$). Following training,

there was also an increase in peak power ($\dot{W}_{peak}$) (7.8 ± 4.4%, $P = 0.001$; 292.5 ± 37.9 *vs.* 315.2

± 42.3 W, Pre- and Post-HVT, respectively; Figure 3); consequently, the exercise intensity

expressed relative to $\dot{W}_{peak}$ was also greater in the Pre-HVT biopsy trial (78.9 ± 2.4% of $\dot{W}_{peak}$)

than the Post-HVT biopsy trial (73.3 ± 3.7% of $\dot{W}_{peak}$). Post-HVT, there was an increase in peak

oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_{2peak}$) (11.7 ± 7.6%, $P = 0.001$; 46.2 ± 7.6 *vs.* 51.4 ± 7.8 mL · min^{-1} · kg^{-1}, Pre-

and Post-HVT, respectively), whereas 20-km cycling time trial (20k-TT) time was decreased

(5.2 ± 2.3%, $P < 0.001$; 2140.8 ± 99.9 *vs.* 2028.1 ± 87.5 s, Pre- and Post-HVT, respectively). The

participants' BM did not change post training (0.2 ± 1.6 %, $P = 0.720$; 80.4 ± 14.8 *vs.* 80.6 ±

14.5 kg, Pre- and Post-HVT, respectively).

Muscle analyses (representative immunoblots are presented in Figure 2C)

PGC-1α protein content. There was an interaction effect in both subcellular compartments

(nucleus: $P = 0.044$, cytosol: $P = 0.004$). In the nucleus (Figure 4A), PGC-1α was increased at

+3 h compared with Rest during the Pre-HVT (3.1-fold, $P = 0.002$), but not during the Post-HVT

(1.0-fold, $P = 0.869$) biopsy trial. During the Pre-HVT, nuclear PGC-1α was also greater at +3 h

compared with Post-HVT (3.1-fold, $P = 0.015$). There was no significant difference in nuclear

PGC-1α protein content at Rest between the two biopsy trials (1.8-fold, $P = 0.178$).

In the cytosol (Figure 4B), PGC-1α increased compared with Rest both at +0 h (1.8-fold, $P =$

0.036) and +3 h (2.2-fold, $P < 0.001$) during the Pre-HVT, but not during the Post-HVT (1.1-

fold, $P = 1.000$ at +0 h; 0.8-fold, $P = 0.070$ at +3 h) biopsy trial. During the Pre-HVT biopsy

trial, cytosolic PGC-1α was also greater at +3 h (1.5-fold, $P = 0.017$) compared with the same

time point of the Post-HVT biopsy trial. At Rest, cytosolic PGC-1α was greater Post-HVT

compared with Pre-HVT (2.0-fold, $P = 0.002$).

Gene expression. There was an interaction effect for PGC-1α mRNA content ($P = 0.020$; Figure

5A), which was increased at +3 h compared with Rest during the Pre-HVT (3.6-fold, $P < 0.001$),

but not during the Post-HVT (2.0-fold, $P = 0.129$) biopsy trial. During the Pre-HVT biopsy trial,

the mRNA content of PGC-1α at +3 h was also greater (1.9-fold, $P < 0.001$) compared with that

recorded at the same time point during the Post-HVT biopsy trial. There was no change in p53

mRNA content throughout (interaction: $P = 0.425$; main effect of exercise: $P = 0.379$; Figure

5B). Results for the mRNA content of cyt *c*, NRF-1 and NRF-2, PHF20, and TFAM are reported

in Table 2.

Phosphorylation of acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) at serine 79 (p-ACC^{Ser79}) protein content. p-

ACC^{Ser79} was not detected in nuclear fractions (Figure 2C). In the cytosol (Figure 6), no

interaction effect was reported ($P = 0.774$); however, there was a main effect of exercise ($P <$

0.001), whereby p-ACC^{Ser79} was greater compared with Rest at +0 h (1.7-fold, $P < 0.001$). Pre-

planned comparisons within biopsy trials indicated that at +0 h cytosolic p-ACC^{Ser79} was greater

compared with Rest during the Pre-HVT (2.0-fold, $P = 0.013$), but not during the Post-HVT (1.4-

fold, $P = 0.114$) biopsy trial.

p53 protein content. In the nucleus (Figure 7A), there was an interaction effect ($P = 0.016$);

nuclear p53 was increased at +3 h compared with Rest during the Pre-HVT (2.8-fold; $P = 0.004$),

but not during the Post-HVT (1.2-fold, $P = 0.328$) biopsy trial. At Rest, nuclear p53 was greater

Post-HVT compared with Pre-HVT (1.6-fold, $P = 0.042$)

In the cytosol (Figure 7B), the interaction effect was not statistically significant ($P = 0.051$);

however, there was a main effect of exercise ($P = 0.003$). Cytosolic p53 increased compared with

Rest both at +0 h (1.9-fold, $P = 0.019$) and +3 h (2.2-fold, $P = 0.004$). Pre-planned comparisons

within trials revealed that during the Pre-HVT biopsy trial cytosolic p53 was greater compared

with Rest at both +0 h (2.6-fold, $P = 0.020$) and +3 h (3.2-fold, $P < 0.001$); however, during the

Post-HVT biopsy trial no differences compared with Rest were reported at +0h (1.3-fold, $P =$

0.440) and +3 h (1.2-fold, $P = 0.835$). There was no difference between the two biopsy trials at

Rest (1.9-fold, $P = 0.108$).

PHF20 protein content. No interaction effects were observed in the nuclear ($P = 0.151$) and

cytosolic ($P = 0.132$) fractions. In the nucleus (Figure 7C), there was a main effect of exercise (P

$= 0.049$), and PHF20 was greater compared with Rest at +3 h (2.0-fold, $P = 0.040$). Pre-planned

comparisons within biopsy trials indicated that at +3 h nuclear PHF20 was greater compared

with Rest during the Pre-HVT (2.8-fold, $P = 0.025$), but not during the Post-HVT (1.3-fold, $P =$

0.991) biopsy trial. There was no difference between the two biopsy trials at Rest (1.9-fold, $P =$

0.339).

In the cytosol (Figure 7D), a main effect of exercise ($P = 0.014$) was also reported; cytosolic

PHF20 was increased compared with Rest at +3 h (1.6-fold, $P = 0.012$). Pre-planned

comparisons within biopsy trials indicated that at +3 h cytosolic PHF20 was greater compared

with Rest during the Pre-HVT (2.2-fold, $P = 0.016$), but not the Post-HVT (1.1-fold, $P = 0.988$)

biopsy trial. There was no difference between the two biopsy trials at Rest (1.5-fold, $P = 0.618$).

p-p53^{Ser15} protein content. In the nucleus (Figure 7E), there was an interaction effect ($P = 0.021$);

nuclear p-p53^{Ser15} was increased compared with Rest at +3 h during the Pre-HVT (2.2-fold; $P =$

0.001), but not during the Post-HVT (1.3-fold, $P = 0.970$) biopsy trial.

In the cytosol (Figure 7F), there was no interaction effect ($P = 0.136$); however, there was a main

effect of exercise ($P = 0.017$). Cytosolic p-p53^{Ser15} was increased compared with Rest at +3 h

(2.1-fold, $P = 0.014$). Pre-planned comparisons within biopsy trials indicated that cytosolic p-

p53^{Ser15} was greater compared with Rest at +3 h during the Pre-HVT (3.2-fold, $P = 0.003$), but

not during the Post-HVT (1.1-fold, $P = 0.963$) biopsy trial.

Discussion

We report for the first time that 40 sessions of HIIT resulted in the loss of all measured exercise-

induced molecular changes recorded Pre-HVT. Despite exercise-induced increases in the protein

content of PGC-1α, p-ACC^{Ser79}, p53, PHF20, and p-p53^{Ser15}, and the mRNA content of PGC-1α,

prior to the HVT, there were no significant changes in any of these parameters when a session of

HIIE was repeated at the same absolute exercise intensity post training. In most instances, this

did not seem to be explained by increases in resting protein values post HVT. It remains to be

determined if this loss stems from the decrease in the relative exercise intensity post-training

(98.8 *vs.* 107.4% of $\dot{W}_{LT}$ for Post- and Pre-HVT, respectively), habituation to the HIIE stimulus,

or a combination of both.

We observed a significant exercise-induced increase in PGC-1α protein content in both the

nuclear and cytosolic fractions Pre-HVT, consistent with most previous research (21, 28, 37, 38).

However, for the first time we report that these exercise-induced increases were absent post

training in both subcellular fractions. A possible explanation for our findings is that Post-HVT

the relative exercise intensity elicited during the session was lower compared with Pre-HVT

(98.8 *vs.* 107.4% of $\dot{W}_{LT}$ for Post- and Pre-HVT, respectively), suggesting that metabolic

perturbations may also have been reduced post-training. It has been proposed that metabolic

perturbations (e.g., increases in intracellular calcium [Ca^{2+}], adenosine monophosphate [AMP] to

adenosine triphosphate [ATP] ratio, oxidized nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide [NAD^+] to

NADH ratio, reactive oxygen species [ROS] production) provide an important stimulus for

exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis (16), and promote an increase in the nuclear content

of PGC-1α protein (64). Indeed, as described more in depth later in the discussion, we also

observed no significant changes in cytosolic p-ACC[Ser79] Post-HVT, which supports this

hypothesis.

A strength of our study design is that participants were habituated to HIIE (12 sessions) during

the NVT phase (20). This reduces the possibility that the different molecular responses to the

Pre- and Post-HVT trials were due to muscle damage (43) or being unfamiliar with this type of

exercise during the Pre-HVT trial (4). Future studies should investigate the effects of a single

session of exercise performed at the same relative exercise intensity before, at different time

points during, and after, a high volume of training (e.g., >25-30 sessions), to determine if the

complete loss of the exercise-induced increases in nuclear and cytosolic PGC-1α protein content

also occurs if the relative exercise intensity is maintained pre- and post-training.

The reported increase in PGC-1α protein content in both the nucleus and the cytosol may be

attributable, at least in part, to increased protein stability (55). Both p38 mitogen-activated

protein kinase (MAPK) (53) and AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) (7) act as signaling

proteins that increase PGC-1α stability via phosphorylation (and they act in similar fashion to

also increase the stability of the p53 protein (34, 59)). Due to the limited amount of enriched

lysates obtained during subcellular fractionation, we could not measure phosphorylation of p38

MAPK and/or AMPK directly. However, due to its molecular weight (~280 kDa), when blotting

for lower molecular weight proteins we were also able to measure p-ACC^{Ser79}, a downstream

target and commonly-used marker of AMPK activation (9, 10, 33). As previously reported, p-

ACC^{Ser79} was not detected in nuclear fractions as (21, 38). However, we were able to measure

cytosolic p-ACC^{Ser79} and make the novel observation that despite a robust post-exercise increase

Pre-HVT, there was no significant change Post-HVT. This suggests that abrogation of AMPK

signaling may have contributed to the abrogation of exercise-induced increases in PGC-1α (and

p53) protein content post-training. Subcellular translocation is another factor that has been

associated with increased PGC-1α protein content in the nucleus (64). While our data do not

seem to indicate cytosolic/nuclear shuttling of PGC-1α, protein translocation is a complex series

of cellular processes that cannot be assessed by subcellular fractionation coupled with the

immunoblotting technique (1).

The PGC-1α protein itself has been reported to increase PGC-1α transcriptional activity

following exercise (31, 50) via an autoregulatory loop (25). The exercise-induced increase in

PGC-1α mRNA content observed Pre-HVT is consistent with previous findings investigating

HIIE (12, 14, 42, 44, 48, 51, 52) and with the notion that increased nuclear PGC-1α protein

content and stability is associated with greater PGC-1α transcriptional activity (3). No exercise-

induced increase in PGC-1α mRNA content was reported Post-HVT, suggesting that 20 days of

HVT also blunted the exercise-induced increase in PGC-1α transcription. However, previous

studies have reported a reduction (rather than complete loss) of the exercise-induced

upregulation of PGC-1α mRNA content post-training compared to pre-training when the exercise

session was repeated at the same relative (48) or absolute (42, 61) exercise intensity. This

discrepancy may relate to the much greater number of sessions performed between exercise

biopsy trials in our study compared with these three previous studies (40 *vs.* 7 to 12,

respectively), and a likely greater reduction in the relative exercise intensity between the Pre-

and Post-HVT trials. Moreover, in contrast to the three previous studies, our participants were

habituated to HIIE; this raises the possibility that the greater molecular response recorded pre-

training in the previous studies may be partly attributable to the "first bout" effect (4, 43).

To better characterize the effect of 40 sessions of HIIT on exercise-induced mitochondrial

adaptations to HIIE, we also measured the mRNA content of nuclear (NRF-1 and NRF-2 (57))

and mitochondrial (TFAM (58)) transcription factors regulating mitochondrial biogenesis that

are transcriptionally controlled by PGC-1α (65). The mRNA content of cyt *c* (a gene under the

regulation of PGC-1α and NRF1 (65)), p53 (a transcriptional regulator of PGC-1α gene

expression (31)) and PHF20 (a transcription factor that activates p53 gene expression (47)), were

also measured. Apart from a decrease in cyt *c* mRNA content at +0 h in both HIIE trials, we

observed no exercise-induced increases in any other gene either Pre- or Post-HVT. A possible

explanation for our findings may relate to biopsy timing, as there is some evidence that the

exercise-induced upregulation of some of these genes peaks more than 3 hours post-exercise (8,

12, 15, 18, 24, 47).

Similar to our results for PGC-1α protein we observed an exercise-induced increase in p53

protein content pre-training in the nuclear and cytosolic fractions, as previously demonstrated

(21, 62). However, this exercise-induced increase in both subcellular fractions was blunted

following 40 training sessions. No other study has investigated exercise-induced changes in p53

protein content pre- and post-training in subcellular fractions. Nonetheless, our results are

consistent with findings showing reduced/blunted exercise-induced mitochondrial adaptations

(e.g., PGC-1α mRNA, PGC-1α protein in whole-muscle lysates) when the same exercise session

is repeated post-training both at the same absolute (42, 61) or relative (48) exercise intensity.

A possible factor contributing to the lack of exercise-induced changes in nuclear p53 protein

content Post-HVT is that 40 sessions of HIIT increased the resting values of p53 in the nucleus.

This does not apply to the cytosolic fraction, however, given that resting values of p53 protein

remained unchanged. A second factor relates to a possible decrease in subcellular shuttling (17);

however, simply immunoblotting subcellular enriched fractions for p53 (or PGC-1α) protein is

not a valid technique to demonstrate p53 (similar to PGC-1α) nuclear/cytosolic shuttling - a

process requiring an intricate and tightly synchronized series of events (17, 41). Nonetheless, a

further novel observation is that there was a concomitant increase in p53 and PHF20 protein

content in the nucleus pre-HVT, but not Post-HVT. In this regard, PHF20 has been reported to

increase p53 protein stability (46) by disrupting the murine double minute-2 (MDM2)-p53

interaction (11) responsible for p53 protein degradation (27, 46). Although we were not able to

measure the interaction between these two proteins due to limited lysate availability, it is

plausible that our findings may indicate greater p53-PHF20, and reduced p53-MDM2,

interaction Pre- vs Post-HVT. In the cytosolic enriched fractions, findings are similar; however,

the increase in p53 protein content at +0 h was not matched by an increase in PHF20 protein

content. This could suggest that cellular events other than the p53 interaction with PHF20 may

also induce p53 protein stability.

A second important event disrupting the p53-MDM2 interaction and promoting p53 stability is

phosphorylation of p53 at serine 15 (60). Pre-HVT, and consistent with this notion, nuclear p-

p53^{Ser15} increased in parallel with the increase in p53 protein content, as previously reported (21).

In the cytosol, however, p53 protein content increased earlier than p-p53^{Ser15} (+0 h *vs.* +3 h,

respectively), indicating once again that other cellular mechanisms may be involved in the

regulation of the p53 protein stability. In contrast, we report for the first time that there were no

exercise-induced changes in p-p53^{Ser15} in either the nuclear or cytosolic fractions after a period of

training (i.e., post-HVT).

This research adds novel information regarding the early molecular events regulating the

exercise-induced mitochondrial adaptations and how these are altered by an exercise training

intervention. We provide evidence that 40 sessions of HIIT blunted the exercise-induced

increases recorded pre-training in all of the molecular events measured. Future studies should

investigate if the loss (or reduction) of the exercise-induced increases in markers of

mitochondrial adaptations post-training relates solely to the decrease in relative exercise

intensity, and/or if this is exacerbated by the continuous repetition of the same exercise stimulus

during the training intervention. Well-designed experiments comparing exercise sessions

repeated pre- and post-training at the same relative exercise intensity and at different time points

during the training intervention (even after only 1 or 2 training sessions to determine the role, if

any, of the "first bout effect") should provide valuable insight into the mechanisms driving this

phenomenon.

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Author contributions

D. J. Bishop and C. Granata designed the research; C. Granata and R. S. F. Oliveira conducted the research; C. Granata, R. S. F. Oliveira, J. P. Little, and D. J. Bishop analyzed and interpreted the data; C. Granata wrote the manuscript; C. Granata, R. S. F. Oliveira, J. P. Little, and D. J. Bishop critically revised and contributed to the manuscript; C. Granata and D. J. Bishop have primary responsibility for final content. Data collection took place at Victoria University. Muscle analysis took place at Victoria University and the University of British Columbia Okanagan. All persons designated as authors qualify for authorship, and all those qualifying for authorship are listed. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Tables

Table 1. Primers used for real-time PCR analyses of mRNA expression.

Gene	Primer efficiency	Forward primer (5'→3')	Reverse primer (5'→3')
ACTB	107%	GAGCACAGAGCCTCGCCTTT	TCATCATCCATGGTGAGCTGGC
B2M	98%	TGCTGTCTCCATGTTTGATGTATCT	TCTCTGCTCCCCACCTCTAAGT
cyt *c*	98.8%	GGGCCAAATCTCCATGGTCT	TCTCCCCAGATGATGCCTTT
GAPDH	106%	AATCCCATCACCATCTTCCA	TGGACTCCACGACGTACTCA
NRF-1	80.7%	CTACTCGTGTGGGACAGCAA	AGCAGACTCCAGGTCTTCCA
NRF-2	92%	AAGTGACAAGATGGGCTGCT	TGGACCACTGTATGGGATCA
p53	101.8%	GTTCCGAGAGCTGAATGAGG	TTATGGCGGGAGGTAGACTG
PGC-1α	103.6%	GGCAGAAGGCAATTGAAGAG	TCAAAACGGTCCCTCAGTTC
PHF20	117.5%	GTGGGGCCGTGAGGAGAATA	AACTGGGCTCCCACTTCAAA
TBP	99%	CAGTGACCCAGCAGCATCACT	AGGCCAAGCCCTGAGCGTAA
TFAM	109.3%	CCGAGGTGGTTTTCATCTGT	GCATCTGGGTTCTGAGCTTT

ACTB, β-actin; B2M, beta-2-microglobulin; cyt *c*, cytochrome *c*; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate

dehydrogenase; NRF1, nuclear respiratory factor 1; NRF2, nuclear respiratory factor 2; PGC-1α,

peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator-1α; PHF20, plant homeodomain finger-

containing protein 20; TBP, TATA-binging protein; TFAM, mitochondrial transcription factor A.

Table 2. mRNA content of cytochrome *c* (cyt *c*), nuclear respiratory factor 1 (NRF-1) and 2

(NRF-2), plant homeodomain finger-containing protein 20 (PHF20), and mitochondrial

transcription factor A (TFAM) measured immediately post (+0 h) and 3 h (+3 h) after a single

session of high-intensity interval exercise (HIIE) performed at the same absolute intensity before

(Pre-HVT) and after (Post-HVT) 40 sessions of twice-daily high-volume high-intensity interval

training (HVT), in the vastus lateralis muscle of young healthy men. Values are expressed

relative to TATA-binging protein (TBP), glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH),

and β-actin (ACTB) housekeeping genes.

Gene	Time Point	Pre-HVT	Post-HVT
cyt *c*	Rest	2.06 ± 0.89	2.79 ± 1.55
	+0 h [#]	1.63 ± 0.44	1.46 ± 0.67
	+3 h	1.70 ± 0.64	2.48 ± 1.37
NRF-1	Rest	0.14 ± 0.08	0.13 ± 0.06
	+0 h	0.19 ± 0.09	0.14 ± 0.04
	+3 h	0.15 ± 0.05	0.16 ± 0.05
NRF-2	Rest	0.23 ± 0.07	0.21 ± 0.06
	+0 h	0.23 ± 0.09	0.19 ± 0.05
	+3 h	0.28 ± 0.13	0.26 ± 0.15
PHF20	Rest	0.33 ± 0.08	0.27 ± 0.04
	+0 h	0.31 ± 0.07	0.24 ± 0.05
	+3 h	0.31 ± 0.08	0.46 ± 0.50
TFAM	Rest	0.48 ± 0.14	0.44 ± 0.09
	+0 h	0.40 ± 0.11	0.37 ± 0.08
	+3 h	0.47 ± 0.13	0.44 ± 0.12

647 [#] Main effect of exercise ($P < 0.05$) *vs.* Rest by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures followed by

648 Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test. All values are mean $\pm$ SD. n = 9 for NRF1; n = 8 for

649 all other genes.

Figure 1. **Study design.** Grey rectangles indicate a HIIE session; grey triangles within HVT indicate a 10-km cycling time trial; each rectangle and/or vertical pair of rectangles and/or vertical pair of rectangles and triangles represents a training day; arrows indicate a skeletal muscle biopsy. 20k-TT: 20-km cycling time trial; GXT: graded exercise test; HIIE: high-intensity interval exercise; Rest: skeletal muscle biopsy at rest; +0 h: skeletal muscle biopsy taken at the end of the HIIE session; +3 h: skeletal muscle biopsy taken three hours after the completion of the HIIE session.

Figure 2. **Representative immunoblots, subcellular enrichment and protein loading controls.** (a)

Representative immunoblots of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator-1α (PGC-1α),

acetyl-CoA carboxylase phosphorylated at serine 79 (p-ACC^{Ser79}), p53, plant homeodomain finger-

containing protein 20 (PHF20), and p53 phosphorylated at serine 15 (p-p53^{Ser15}) measured in the nuclear

and cytosolic fractions obtained from human vastus lateralis muscle biopsies, before (Rest), immediately

post (+0 h), and 3 h (+3 h) after a single session of high-intensity interval exercise (HIIE) performed at

the same absolute intensity before (Pre-HVT) and after (Post-HVT) 40 sessions of twice-daily high-

volume high-intensity interval training (HVT). PHF20: top band at ~105 kDa. No band was detected in

the nuclear fractions for p-ACC^{Ser79}. (b) Histone H3 and lactate dehydrogenase A (LDHA) were used as

indicators of cytosolic and nuclear enrichment, respectively. N: nuclear fractions; C: cytosolic fractions.

(c) Whole-lane Coomassie blue staining for both nuclear and cytosolic fractions was used to verify equal

loading between lanes. The immunoblot and whole-lane Coomassie images in this figure were cropped to

improve the conciseness and clarity of the presentation.

Figure 3. **Power attained at the lactate threshold ($\dot{W}_{LT}$), peak power achieved during the graded**

exercise test ($\dot{W}_{peak}$), and mean power of the Pre- and Post-HVT high-intensity interval exercise

(HIIE) biopsy trials. $\dot{W}_{LT}$ and $\dot{W}_{peak}$ were assessed before (Pre-HVT) and after (Post-HVT) 40 sessions

of twice-daily high-volume high-intensity interval training (HVT). Open circles (Pre-HVT) and open

diamonds (Post-HVT) represent individual values; white (Pre-HVT) and grey (Post-HVT) bars represent

mean values; the dotted line represents the mean power during the Pre- and Post-HVT HIIE biopsy trials.

n = 9. [$] *P* < 0.05 *vs.* Pre-HVT Rest by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures followed by Tukey's

honestly significant difference post-hoc test.

Figure 4. **Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator-1α (PGC-1α) protein.** Protein

content of PGC-1α in nuclear (a), and cytosolic (b) sub fractions before (Rest), immediately post (+0 h),

and 3 h (+3 h) after a single session of high-intensity interval exercise (HIIE) performed at the same

absolute intensity before (Pre-HVT) and (Post-HVT) 40 sessions of twice-daily high-volume high-

intensity interval training (HVT), in the vastus lateralis muscle of young healthy men (n = 9). Open

circles (Pre-HVT) and open diamonds (Post-HVT) represent individual values; white (Pre-HVT) and grey

(Post-HVT) bars represent mean values. * $P < 0.05$ *vs.* Rest of the same group; [†] $P < 0.05$ *vs.* same time

point of Post-HVT trial by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures followed by Tukey's honestly

significant difference post-hoc test. To more clearly depict fold-changes in post-exercise values from

potentially different Rest values in the untrained and trained state, an inset has been added to each main

figure (note, significant differences between trained and untrained values at Rest are not reported in insets

as these values are both normalized to 1).

Figure 5. **Gene expression.** mRNA content of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator-1α

(PGC-1α) (a), and p53 (b) before (Rest), immediately post (+0 h), and 3 h (+3 h) after a single session of

high-intensity interval exercise (HIIE) performed at the same absolute intensity before (Pre-HVT) and

after (Post-HVT) 40 sessions of twice-daily high-volume high-intensity interval training (HVT), in the

vastus lateralis muscle of young healthy men (n = 9). Values are expressed relative to TATA-binging

protein (TBP), glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), and β-actin (ACTB) housekeeping

genes (Ctrl in the figure). Open circles (Pre-HVT) and open diamonds (Post-HVT) represent individual

values; white (Pre-HVT) and grey (Post-HVT) bars represent mean values. * $P < 0.05$ *vs.* Rest of the

same group; † $P < 0.05$ *vs.* same time point of Post-HVT trial by two-way ANOVA with repeated

measures followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test. To more clearly depict fold-

changes in post-exercise values from potentially different Rest values in the untrained and trained state,

an inset has been added to each main figure.

Figure 6. **Phosphorylation of acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) at serine 79 (p-ACC^{Ser79}).** Protein content of cytosolic p-ACC^{Ser79} before (Rest), immediately post (+0 h), and 3 h (+3 h) after a single session of high-intensity interval exercise (HIIE) performed at the same absolute intensity before (Pre-HVT) and after (Post-HVT) 40 sessions of twice-daily high-volume high-intensity interval training (HVT), in the vastus lateralis muscle of young healthy men (n = 9). Open circles (Pre-HVT) and open diamonds (Post-HVT) represent individual values; white (Pre-HVT) and grey (Post-HVT) bars represent mean values. [#] main effect of exercise ($P < 0.05$) *vs.* Rest; * $P < 0.05$ vs. Rest of the same group by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures followed by Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test. To more clearly depict fold-changes in post-exercise values from potentially different Rest values in the untrained and trained state, an inset has been added to each main figure.

Figure 7. **p53 and plant homeodomain finger-containing protein 20 (PHF20) protein.** Protein content

of nuclear (a) and cytosolic (b) p53, of nuclear (c) and cytosolic (d) PHF20, and of nuclear (e) and

cytosolic (f) p-p53^{Ser15} assessed before (Rest), immediately post (+0 h), and 3 h (+3 h) after a single

session of high-intensity interval exercise (HIIE) performed at the same absolute intensity before (Pre-

HVT) and after (Post-HVT) 40 sessions of twice-daily high-volume high-intensity interval training

(HVT), in the vastus lateralis muscle of young healthy men (n = 9). Open circles (Pre-HVT) and open

diamonds (Post-HVT) represent individual values; white (Pre-HVT) and grey (Post-HVT) bars represent

mean values. $^\#$ main effect of exercise ($P < 0.05$) *vs.* Rest; * $P < 0.05$ *vs.* Rest of the same group; † $P <$

0.05 *vs.* same time point of Post-HVT trial by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures followed by

Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test. To more clearly depict fold-changes in post-

exercise values from potentially different Rest values in the untrained and trained state, an inset has been

added to each main figure (note, significant differences between trained and untrained values at Rest are

not reported in insets as these values are both normalized to 1).