



The impact of different modes of exercise training on GLP-1: a systematic review and meta-analysis research

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Abstract

Background The impact of exercise training on glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) of people with type 2 diabetes has been investigated and it has been found that it can improve their levels of blood glucose; however, the effect of exercise intervention mode on GLP-1 levels is still controversial.

Objective The purpose of this study was to investigate the duration, mode, and intensity of exercise intervention effect on the levels of GLP-1 by a systematic review and meta-analysis.

Data sources By March 29, 2020, Google Scholar, PubMed, Medline, Scopus database, Science Direct, and reference lists of articles had been randomly dealing with the subject matter with the purpose of investigating the effect of different variables of duration and short-term and long-term exercise training on GLP-1 through pre-test and post-tests. Thus, to strengthen the outcome of the present study, sixteen studies with 1562 subjects were included.

Results In the present study, we found a significant change on GLP-1 levels in both types of duration exercise intervention groups (MD: -1.60 pmol/l; 95% CI $[-2.20, -1.01]$; $p < 0.00001$). Separately investigated, the level of GLP-1 in short-term training was MD -1.26 pmol/l, 95% CI $(-1.79, -0.73)$, $p < 0.00001$, and in long-term training, it was -2.76 pmol/l, 95% CI $(-5.10, -0.43)$, $p = 0.02$. The intensity of short-term training was between 55 and 65% max HR, and for the long-term-training, it was 65–85% max HR.

Conclusion In this meta-analysis, it was found that the levels of GLP-1 could be affected by short-term and long-term training with different modes and intensity. As a result, current evidence shows that it may be a good choice for patients with type 2 diabetes to control their blood glucose. The mechanism of this GLP-1 increase has not yet been fully discovered. Further longitudinal studies and exploration into mechanisms of action are required in order to determine the precise role of GLP-1 in insulin responses to an exercise intervention.

Keywords GLP-1 · Exercise training · Short-term training · Long-term training · Meta-analysis

Introduction

Over the past three decades, the number of people with type 2 diabetes (T2DM) has more than doubled globally, making it one of the most important public health

challenges for all nations [1]. The progress of T2DM is characterized by insulin resistance and insulin secretion from beta cells in the pancreas [2–4]. On the one hand, the cell membranes via the glucose transport (GLUT) allow insulin to bring glucose into the cells; on the other hand, insulin by the Akt substrate of 160 kDa (AS160) pathway has increased the regulation of GLUTs [5]. It has been observed that the other receptors can act like insulin receptors and change the blood glucose levels [6]. In this regard, glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) is a gastric hormone and plays an important role in responding to the increase of blood glucose after meal ingestion [4, 7], and GLP-1 receptors (GLP-1Rs) represent a unique approach to the treatment of diabetes with benefits extending outside

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53	glucose control and including positive effects on weight,	106
54	blood pressure, cholesterol levels, and beta cell functions	107
55	[8]. A little amplification of GLP-1 can improve beta cells	108
56	and their function to increase insulin secretion and gluca-	
57	gon suppression [9] where binding GLP-1 to GLP-1Rs can	
58	bring about cell proliferation via distinct intracellular sig-	
59	naling pathway and can improve glycemic control with	
60	similar mechanisms of glucose-dependent insulin secre-	
61	tion from the beta cells. GLP-1Rs act like the insulin re-	
62	ceptor and GLP-1 binds the specific G-proteins, increasing	
63	intracellular Ca ²⁺ and adenylate cyclase. It activates PKC	
64	(protein kinase c) and PI3k (phosphoinositide 3-kinase)	
65	and conveyors GLUT towards the membranes to reduce	
66	the blood glucose [2, 10]. It has also been shown that	
67	GLP-1Rs preserve and improve the markers of beta cell	
68	function [11]. Thus, it is suggested that therapy with the	
69	addition of a short-acting GLP-1Rs be incorporated into	
70	the programs to bring about some advantages such as the	
71	effects on slowing gastric emptying [11]. Slower gastric	
72	delivery of meal contents leads to smaller glucose re-	
73	sponse excursion [12] since glucose and energy intakes	
74	are closely related [13]. Therefore, the effect of exercise	
75	training on energy intake to reduce the glucose levels can	
76	be impressive [4]. In line with this, there is plenty of re-	
77	search on exercise which shows that it reduces the blood	
78	glucose and it has proved to be healthier than the other	
79	ways in controlling diabetes. Thus, it is becoming increas-	
80	ingly clear that exercise and any kind of physical activity	
81	can be a therapeutic tool in a variety of ways for patients	
82	with or at the risk of diabetes, though the regulation of	
83	GLP-1 and insulin secretion through an exercise program	
84	for T2DM patients is still under investigation and question	
85	[4, 14, 15]. Nevertheless, according to some articles, the	
86	expression of GLP-1 from L-distal ileum has been proven	
87	to increase by an exercise program and it can improve	
88	pancreatic beta cell function [2, 7]. In the same way, some	
89	systematic reviews have measured the efficacy of duration	
90	of the exercise training [16], and the mechanism pathways	
91	to influence glucose uptake in short-term training versus	
92	long-term training have been shown to be different [17].	
93	Scientifically speaking, it has been observed that the blood	
94	glucose plays an important role in acute training and decreases	
95	rapidly after 15–45 min, depending on the workload. These	
96	feedback signals can affect the levels of GLP-1 [18], and in	
97	patients with T2DM, for example, it is characterized by a re-	
98	duced incretin effect. Seemingly, a single bout of exercise can	
99	bring about a remarkable development in the plasma levels of	
100	GLP-1 to reduce energy intake through AS160 pathway, so it	
101	can be the cornerstone as the diabetes management [7, 19]. A	
102	study recommended a 90-min free weight lifting session	
103	followed by a 6.5-h rest period in a 12-repetition round of	
104	resistance training and a 60-min running speed required to elicit	
105	70% maximum heart rate. It should be followed by a 7-h rest	
	period with aerobic exercise that can eventually regulate GLP-1	106
	and increase GLUTs in the cell membrane [20]. How long this	107
	effect can last has not yet been examined [17].	108
	In the same line, it was observed that weekly exercise vol-	109
	ume was positively related with the improvement of T2DM	110
	status [21]. The findings showed statistically and clinically	111
	significant improvement of glycemic control on the diabetic	112
	patients [22]. Respectively, research studies have compared	113
	either type of exercise with the control group [19]. On the	114
	other hand, not much research has been devoted to the effect	115
	of long-term or short-term training on GLP-1 [20]. Although	116
	previous findings from aerobic training studies indicated the	117
	exercise intensity, they found that structured exercise duration	118
	of more than 150 min/week was associated with a decrease in	119
	blood glucose and increase in GLP-1 in type 2 diabetes pa-	120
	tients [19, 23]. Thus, it seems that the short-term training can	121
	bring about more advantages, but since the research of long-	122
	term training on GLP-1 is limited, the aim of this study was set	123
	to systematically review the literature on the effect of exercise	124
	and find out about the best methods that are used in exercise	125
	training on GLP-1 and insulin sensitivity in people with	126
	T2DM.	127
	Methods	128
	Data sources and searches	129
	We searched and utilized the database in English language on	130
	PubMed, CINAHL, Google Scholar, Medline, and Scopus.	131
	Pre-specified search terms were GLP-1, incretin, insulin and	132
	insulin resistance, blood glucose, aerobic training, long-terms,	133
	and acute training. We precisely searched titles, abstracts, sub-	134
	jects, headings, and the contents, and employed the Boolean	135
	search terms (AND, OR, or NOT) to create the search strate-	136
	gy. Meta-analyses, systematic reviews, and all references were	137
	included. This thorough search was conducted in a time limit	138
	of March 29, 2020.	139
	Study selection	140
	The long-term group of exercise training in these analyses was	141
	randomly assigned to pre-test and post-test of ≥ 12 -week du-	142
	ration and one session of acute training. In our meta-analyses,	143
	exercise training included resistance exercise (including full-	144
	body training with machine or weight-bearing including at	145
	least 6 movements in the upper and lower body), aerobic	146
	exercise (including walking, running, and aerobic training),	147
	and concurrent exercise (resistance + aerobic). Two authors	148
	validated the studies, treatment guidelines, titles, summaries,	149
	and full-texts of the appropriate articles to gain qualified	150
	analyses.	151

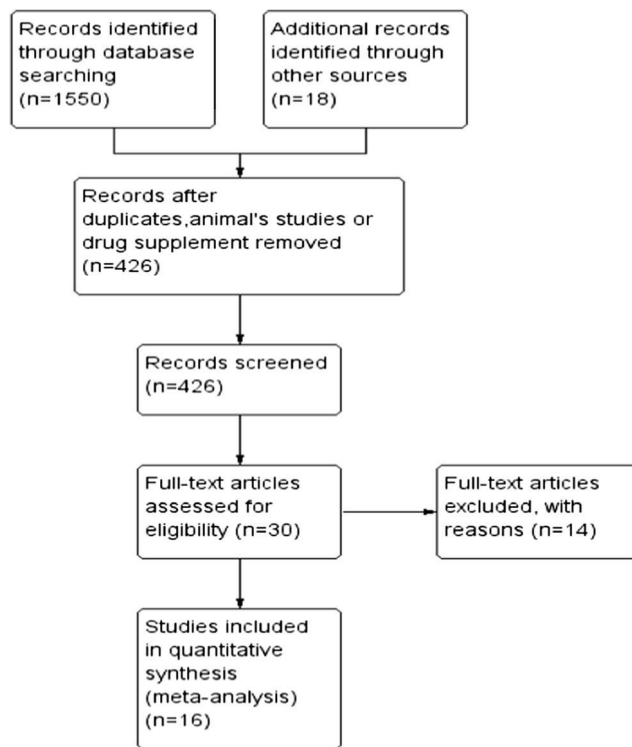


Fig. 1 PRISMA flow diagram

Inclusion/exclusion criteria

Q5 153 In these studies, the following criteria were employed for
 154 identification and selection: average age between 35 and
 155 60 years old, T2DM for more than 1 year (fasting blood glu-
 156 cose greater than 126 mg/dl or 7 mmol/l, 2-h plasma glucose
 157 equal to or greater than 200 Mg/dl, glycosylated hemoglobin

6.5% or higher). The subjects did not take insulin; rather, they
 158 only took their daily requirements like metformin during the
 159 treatment period. In this review research, the study protocols
 160 used were aerobic, resistance, and concurrent training with an
 161 intervention period of ≥ 6 months by a pre-post-test design
 162 compared to the control group. Some systematic review arti-
 163 cles, conferences, abstracts, and study protocols, as well as
 164 studies in which the subjects took part in an exercise regimen
 165 during the last 6 months, were excluded. 166

Data extraction

167
 168 Three authors collected the data from the articles included in the
 169 review. The data were inclusive of subjects' characteristics (age,
 170 gender, body mass index [BMI]), the number of subjects, exer-
 171 cise intervention features (frequency, intensity, duration, and
 172 mode of exercise), methods and procedures of measuring the
 173 levels of GLP-1, authors, year of publication, study design,
 174 mean, standard deviation (SD) of continuous outcomes, and de-
 175 tails of the biomarker evaluation methodology. 175

Data synthesis

176
 177 In contrast to all studies, we extracted the effect size for
 178 any findings by measuring the mean difference between
 179 the pre- and post-tests. All the results were reported sepa-
 180 rately and were analyzed by using the same methods of
 181 reporting techniques for the findings. The mean difference
 182 for GLP-1 (pmol L⁻¹) in pre- and post-test conditions,
 183 sample size, participant characteristics, blood analytical
 184 methods, and exercise treatment information was the 184

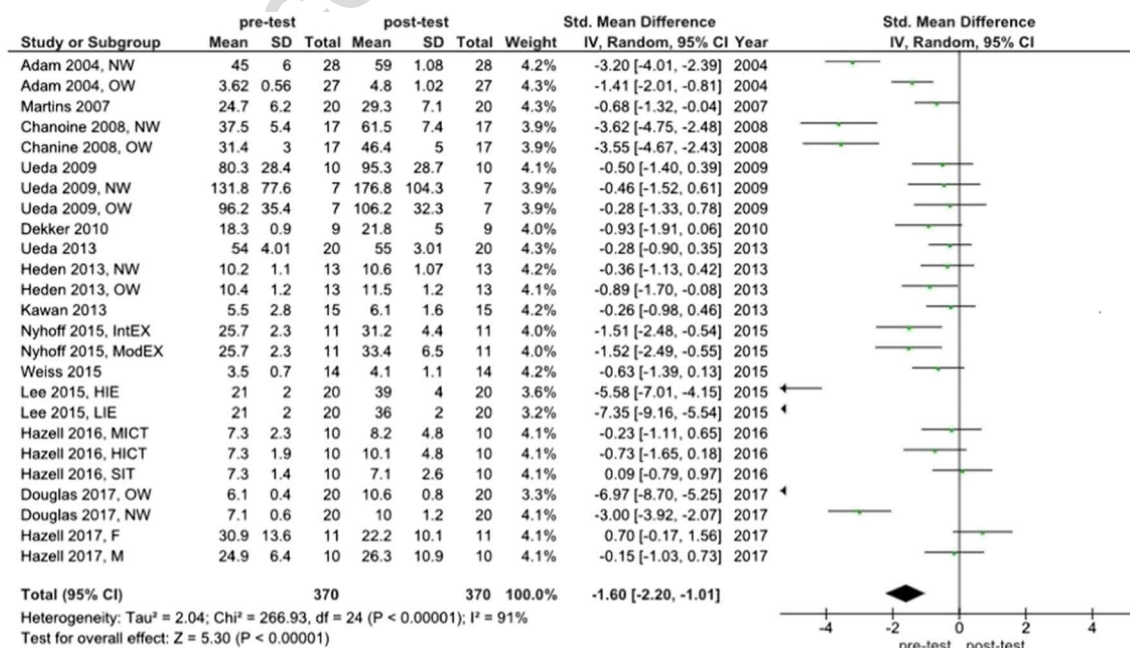


Fig. 2 Forest plot on levels of GLP-1 in exercise intervention

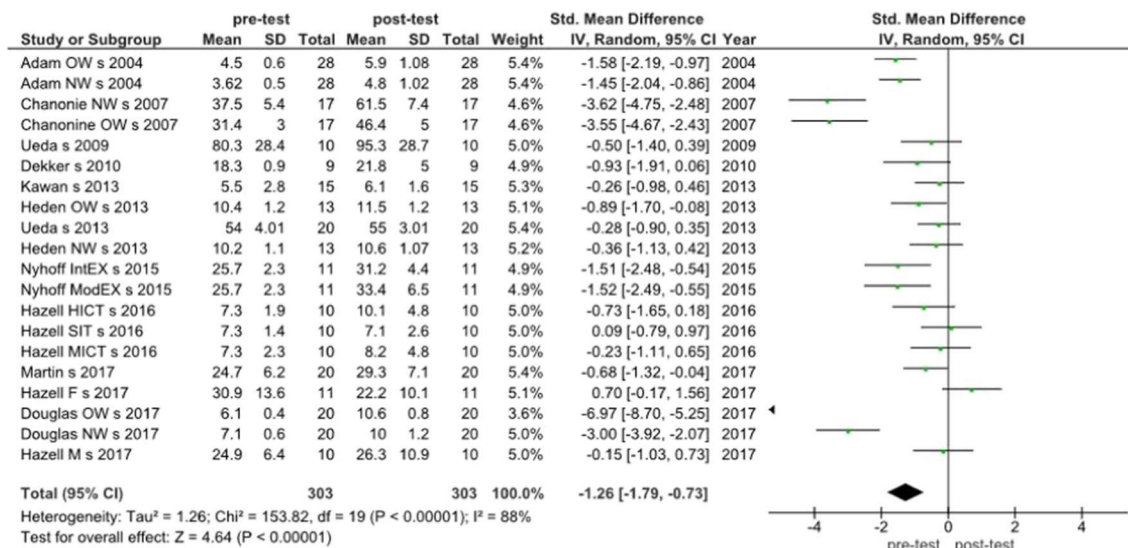


Fig. 3 Forest plot on levels of GLP-1 in short-term training

185 measures applied. The analysis was done by using the
 186 Review Manager 5.3 (The Nordic Cochrane Center,
 187 Copenhagen, Denmark). The post-test mean was
 188 subtracted from the pre-test mean, and the standard error
 189 of means (SEM) value was changed to standard deviation
 190 values. If any data was not shown in the texts or tables and
 191 we were unable to reach the authors, the data displayed in
 192 figures was extracted by employing the TA TechTip and
 193 GetData Graph Digitizer software. Where a subject was
 194 included in the control group or in more than one inter-
 195 vention group, we reported each group separately and
 196 fitted the sample size to the number of other groups.
 197 Therefore, heterogeneity was calculated as Cochrane's *Q*
 198 and *I*² index and it was > 50%. Eventually, we presented a
 199 5% level of significance for the forest plot to describe the
 200 results.

201 **Study quality**

202 To describe the quality of the studies, we evaluated the data by
 203 using the fifteen-point tool in exercise reporting (TESTEX)
 204 scales. Two reviewers (RN and MMR) performed the quality
 205 control of the studies and reported the assessment.

206 **Results**

207 **Study and subject characteristics**

208 One thousand five hundred sixty-two articles were investigat-
 209 ed having been searched in the major databases (Google
 210 Scholar, PubMed, Scopus, Science Direct, and hand
 211 searching). We eliminated animal studies, drug intervention,
 212 and duplicate titles. Four hundred twenty-six full-text articles
 213 were screened, and after eliminating the irrelevant records,
 214 excluded through reading titles and abstracts, we first chose
 215 30 studies and finally 16 articles were selected for the moder-
 216 ator variables through the inclusion and exclusion criteria
 217 (PRISMA flow diagram; Fig. 1). Through these 16 studies,
 218 370 subjects had been investigated through a pre-test/post-test
 219 design.

220 **Intervention details**

221 The time period during which the selected studies had been
 222 conducted ranged from 24 h to 12 weeks. Accordingly, the
 223 short-term training interventions ranged from 30 to 60 min at
 224 an intensity of 60–85% VO_{2max}, and in the long-term training,
 225 it ranged from 45 to 80% VO_{2max}. These findings came out

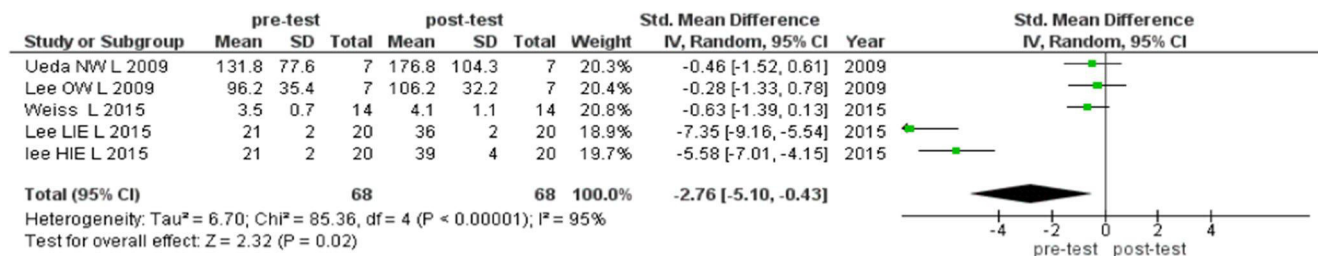


Fig. 4 Forest plot on levels of GLP-1 in long-term training

Q7 t1.1 Characteristic of included studies in the meta-analysis

t1.2	Study	Age mean ± SD	BMI mean ± SD	Disease	Gender	N E X (CON)	Modes of exercise	Intervention group: frequency and duration	Assessment measure/units
t1.3	Martins et al. [24]	25.9±4.6	22.0±3.2	None	6 males, 6 females	12 (8)	Short-term aerobic	65% max HR, 60-min interval exercise	GLP-1
t1.4	Chanoine et al. [15]	15.3±0.2	NW (20.7±0.5) OW (32.4±1.7)	None obese	36 boys	36	Short-term aerobic	5 days aerobic training (1 h/day)	GLP-1
t1.5	Ueda et al. [4]	23.4±4.3	22.5±1.0	None	10 males	10	Short-term aerobic	3 sessions (75% VO _{2max}) (50% VO _{2max}) and resting session	GLP-1
t1.6	Lee et al. [25]	15.3±2.2	24.0±3.8	T2DM	Not mention	20	Long-term aerobic	12 weeks (HIE group: ≥ 80% HR, LIE group: ≤ 45% HR)	GLP-1
t1.7	Ueda et al. [26]	NW (22.4±4.2) OW (22.9±3.4)	NW (22.4±2.4) OW (30.0±3.1)	None obese	Male	7 (7)	Short-term aerobic	2 sessions (50% VO _{2max} for 60 min)	GLP-1
t1.8	Hazell et al. [27]	30.5±7.9	23.5±2.8	None	27 female	18 (9)	Short-term aerobic	3 sessions (MICT; 65% VO _{2max}), (SIT)	GLP-1
t1.9	Hazell et al. [28]	M (28.6±5.9) F (30.5 ±7.9)	M (23.7±2.2) F (23.5±2.8)	None	11 female, 10 male	21	Short-term aerobic	3 sessions (MICT: 30 min cycling at 65% VO _{2max}), (SIT: 6×30 s with 4-min recovery)	GLP-1
t1.10	Ueda et al. [29]	49.1±0.8	27.6±0.4	None	28 female	20	Long-term aerobic	12 weeks, 3 times per week(10-m warm-up, 60-m jogging), 65%HR	GLP-1
t1.11	Heden et al. [30]	NM (26.0±2) OW (25.4±1)	NM (23.0±0.5) OW (34.6±1)	None obese	NM (7 M, 6F) OW (M, 7F)	26	Short-term aerobic	1 h of treadmill walking (55–60% VO _{2 peak})	GLP-1
t1.12	Hazell et al. [31]	29±6	23.7±2.2	None	Male	10	Short-term aerobic	4 sessions (MICT; 30-m cycling at 65% VO _{2max}), (HICT; 30-m cycling at 85% VO _{2max}), (SIT: 6×30-s cycling)	GLP-1
t1.13	Adam et al. [32]	NW (F: 35±12.7) OW (47.1±11.9)	NW (22.9±1.4) OW (30.9±2.7)	None obese	NW (F: 16, M: 12) OW (F: 6, M: 21)	NW = 28 OW = 27	Short-term aerobic	60-min cycling at 25% maximal power output	GLP-1
t1.14	Weiss et al. [33]	EX (56±9) CON (57± 9)	EX (23.1±1.6) CON (25.3±2.3)	None	EX (M: 13, F: 1) CON (M: 13, F: 1)	14 (14)	Long-term aerobic	Balk treadmill test	GLP-1
t1.15	Dekker et al. [34]	59±2	33.8±1.5	Hypertriacylgly cerolemic	Male	9	Short-term aerobic	60 min of treadmill walking (55% VO _{2peak})	GLP-1
t1.16	Nyhoff et al. [35]	24.3±4.6	37.3±7.0	Obese	Female	11	Short-term aerobic	ModEX (55% VO _{2max}), IntEX (4 min (80% VO _{2max})/3 min (50%VO _{2max}))	GLP-1
t1.17	Douglas et al. [36]	L (37.5±15.2) O (45.0 ±12.4)	L (22.4±1.5) O (29.2±2.9)	Lean obese	Female	40	Short-term aerobic	60-min treadmill (59.4% peak oxygen uptake)	GLP-1
t1.18	Kawano et al. [37]	24.4±1.7	22.1±2.0	None	Male	15	Short-term aerobic	Rope skipping (3 sets × 10 m with 5-m interval), bicycle ergometer (3 sets × 10 m with 5-m interval)	GLP-1

226 from the aerobic training investigations and there is no study
227 for resistance training on GLP-1 concentration.

228 **GLP-1 assessment**

229 All the studies reported hormone values in pmol/l. If any study
230 reported them otherwise, we converted them to pmol/l.

231 **Outcome measures**

232 **Change in GLP-1**

233 Sixteen studies in which a total of 370 subjects had been
234 investigated through 25 pre-test- and post-test-reported chang-
235 es in GLP-1 levels. We mixed the outcomes to make use of
236 random-effect model and revealed a significant change in
237 GLP-1 after post-test exercise intervention (MD: -
238 1.60 pmol/l; 95% CI [- 2.20, - 1.01]; $p < 0.00001$); Fig.2).

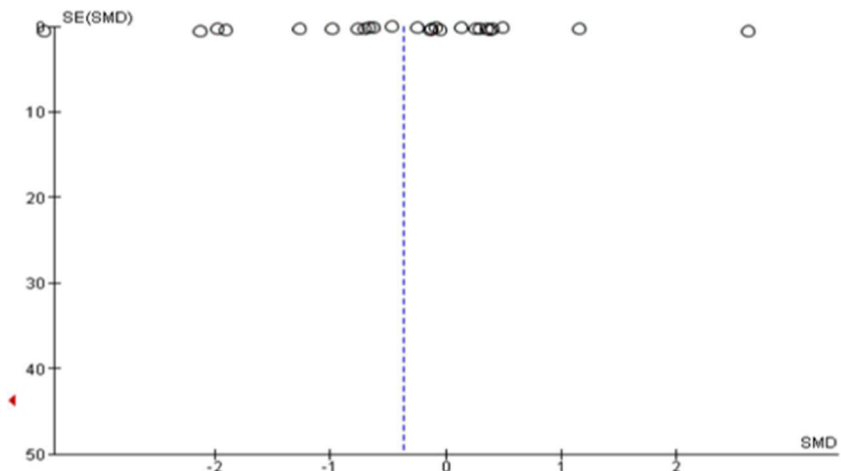
239 **Analysis of the mode of exercise training**

240 We examined the duration of short-term and long-term train-
241 ing intervention for the levels of GLP-1. These analyses re-
242 vealed that GLP-1 increased significantly in both types of
243 interventions compared to the values gained through the pre-
244 tests. The results obtained were MD - 1.26 pmol/l, 95% CI (-
245 1.79, - 0.73), $p < 0.00001$, for the short-term intervention
246 training, and MD -2.76 pmol/l, 95% CI (- 5.10, - 0.43),
247 $p = 0.02$, for the long- term intervention; however, the levels
248 of GLP-1 grew in the two types (Figs. 3 and 4).

249 **Analysis of intensity of exercise training**

250 In all the studies that examined the intensity of short-term
251 training, the value was between 55 and 65% max HR, and
Q6 252 for the long-term training, it was 65–85% max HR (Table 1).

Q8 **Fig. 5** Funnel plot aerobic and resistance



Heterogeneity and publication bias

253

Publication bias was utilized by the funnel plot as described in 254
the subgroup analysis; however, we distributed the mean ES 255
cause of random sampling error if there was no study bias 256
(Fig. 5). 257

Study quality

258

The quality of all the studies was judged to be moderate to 259
good, with an average TESTEX score of 10 (ranging between 260
7 and 12) of a maximum score of 15 (Table 2). Each one of the 261
criteria of monitoring the physical activity was met in all the 262
studies, with the intention-to-treat analysis in 5 studies and 263
relative exercise intensity in 11 studies. The criteria of asses- 264
sor blinding were also met in 4 studies; however, the criteria of 265
allocation concealment were met in only 3 studies. The other 266
TESTEX criteria were each met in at least 50% of trials. 267

Discussion

268

As exercise intolerance is well recognized in patients with 269
type 2 diabetes, the main purpose of this review was to per- 270
form a meta-analysis to investigate the impact of duration, 271
mode, and intensity of exercise intervention on the levels of 272
GLP-1 of the subjects. 273

Our primary analysis shows that the levels of GLP-1 were 274
affected by two types of exercise duration (long-term and 275
short-term training), mode, and intensity. Yet, the effect of 276
short-term training with 55–65% max HR intensity protocol 277
and long-term training with 65–85% max HR might also 278
change GLP-1 concentration. 279

As the overall analysis of short-term training and GLP-1 280
shows, the GLP-1 concentration can be enhanced following a 281
bout of exercise session. According to the overall analysis in 282
participants, our short-term training findings differ from the 283

t2.1 **Table 2** (TESTEX)

t2.2 Study	Eligibility criteria specified	Randomization details specified	Allocation concealed	Groups similar at baseline	Assessors blinded	Outcome measures assessed > 85% participants [#]	Intention to treat analysis	Reporting between group statistical comparison	Point measures and measures of variability	Activity of monitoring in control group	Relative intensity constant	Exercise volume and energy expenditure	Overall TESTEX [15]
t2.3 Martin et al.	1	1	0	1	1	3	1	2	1	0	1	0	12
t2.4 Chanoine et al.	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	1	0	1	1	10
t2.5 Ueda et al.	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	1	0	1	1	10
t2.6 Lee et al.	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	1	1	7
t2.7 Ueda et al.	1	1	0	1	0	3	0	2	1	0	1	1	11
t2.8 Hazell et al.	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	1	0	1	1	10
t2.9 Hazell et al.	1	1	1	1	1	2	0	2	1	1	0	1	12
t2.10 Ueda et al.	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	1	8
t2.11 Heden et al.	1	0	0	1	1	3	1	2	1	0	1	1	12
t2.12 Hazell et al.	1	1	1	1	0	2	0	2	1	0	0	1	10
t2.13 Adam et al.	1	1	0	1	0	3	1	2	1	0	0	0	10
t2.14 Weiss et al.	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	1	0	7
t2.15 Dekker et al.	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	0	1	1	9
t2.16 Nyhoff et al.	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	1	1	1	1	10
t2.17 Douglas et al.	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	2	1	0	1	1	12
t2.18 Kawan et al.	1	1	0	0	1	2	1	2	1	1	0	0	10

findings of Heden et al. (2013) who found that 1 h of treadmill walking did not change the GLP-1 concentration between trials [26]. In addition, Ueda et al. (2009) reported that a session of cycling exercise at 50% VO_{2max} significantly did not change the GLP-1 levels [26], which differs from our findings. Our short-term training group analysis indicated a positive effect of exercise training on GLP-1 concentration. According to the findings of Heden et al., exercise training may decrease postprandial insulin levels via reduced pancreatic β cell insulin secretion. Interestingly, the reduction in insulin secretion in the exercise training happened in the face of similar plasma glucose and GLP-1 levels as compared to the control group [30]. They also suggested that GLP-1 concentration is not only modulated by blood glucose, but it is as well impressed by other hormones and nervous system. It is possible that these levels are masked by alterations in the other variables. Yet, care shall be taken in explaining the findings because the short-term training group analysis only contained a small number of studies.

From the clinical research in short-term training group, our findings are close to the findings of Martin et al. (2007) who found that GLP-1 concentration is related with 1 h of 65% HR cycling and it can significantly increase the GLP-1 concentration [24]. In addition, Adams et al. (2004) reported that a 60-min cycling at 25% maximum power output significantly changes the GLP-1 concentration compared with that of the pre-test group.

Although other articles had reported the positive change in GLP-1 concentration that increases immediately after an acute session, these studies investigated only one session of exercise training effects. In this regard, Chanoine et al. (2008) reported that 5 days of aerobic exercise training increases the GLP-1 concentration [15]. Hazell et al. (2017) reported the sessions of MICT and SIT only increased the GLP-1 concentration in females following MICT training compared to the CTRL group [28].

Compared to the pre-test results, the long-term training group's GLP-1 concentration was highly affected and increased as the post-test results indicated. To explain this, Lee et al. (2015) found that 12 weeks of exercise training with an intensity of ≤ 45 to $\geq 80\%$ significantly increased the GLP-1 concentration in patients with type 2 diabetes [25]. In the same line, Ueda et al. (2013) reported that 12 weeks of exercise training with 65% max HR significantly increased the GLP-1 concentration compared with the findings in the pre-test [29]. However, a cross-sectional study reported that post-exercise GLP-1 levels do not differ between the control group and non-obese control subjects who had higher insulin levels. These findings suggest that the lower levels of insulin in the control group are not mediated by the reduction in GLP-1 concentration. It also reported that lower blood glucose might provide less β cell stimulus for insulin. This stimulus to GLP-1 might be reduced in exercise-trained individuals.

Regarding the GLP-1 function on pancreas, the mechanism pathway by exercise is still unclear. Exercise training including short-term or long-term training has been prescribed for increasing GLP-1 concentration and appears to be one of the safest treatments for the patients with type 2 diabetes. Furthermore, some investigations suggested that the exercise training can prevent blood glucose in patients with type 2 diabetes from increasing [38]. As far as our knowledge allows, this is the first systematic review and meta-analysis to investigate the effect of long-term and short-term training with the mode and intensity suggestions on the GLP-1 concentration. There are, of course, some limitations in our meta-analysis that need to be reported. First of all, some studies have been conducted only on animals and few studies on humans; secondly, some studies have used several types of medicines which limited us; thirdly, the number of the articles that worked on different types of training was limited; and finally, the studies were limited to English language, so we could not extract all the data to obtain all potentially relevant studies.

Conclusion

Through this meta-analysis, we found that short-term and long-term training with different modes and intensities could influence the levels of GLP-1. The mechanism of this increase has not yet fully been discovered and many questions still exist.

Abbreviations GLP-1, Glucagon-like peptide-1; GLP-1Rs, Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptors; T2DM, Type 2 diabetes mellitus; BMI, Body mass index; VO_{2max} , Maximal oxygen uptake; 1RM, One repetition maximum; Max HR, Maximum heart rate; HIE, High-intensity interval exercise; LIE, Low-intensity interval exercise; MICT, Moderate-intensity continuous training; SIT, Sprint interval training; HICT, High-intensity continuous training; NW, No overweight; OW, Overweight; ModEX, Moderate-intensity aerobic continuous exercise; IntEX, High-intensity aerobic interval exercise; NOEX, No exercise; Vs, Versus; GLUT, Glucose transport; AS160, Akt substrate of 160 kDa; AMPK, 5' AMP-activated protein kinase; MD, Mean difference; PKC, Protein kinase C; EI, Exercise intensity; PI3K, Phosphoinositide 3-kinase

Data availability The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no competing interests.

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