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Moderate-intensity oxygen uptake kinetics: is a monoexponential function always appropriate to model the response?

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27	Running head: Moderate-intensity exercise oxygen uptake kinetics

28 ABSTRACT

29 **Purpose**: This study investigated the existence of the oxygen uptake (VO_2) overshoot, and the 30 effects of exercise intensity and fitness status on the $\dot{V}O_2$ response during moderate-intensity exercise. 31 **Methods:** Twelve 'high-fitness' (age: 26 ± 5 years; height: 184.1 ± 5.4 cm; body-mass: 76.6 ± 8.9 kg; \dot{VO}_{2peak} : 59.0 ± 3.3 mLkg⁻¹min⁻¹) and eleven 'moderate-fitness' (age: 29 ± 5 years; height: 178.7 ± 32 7.5 cm; body-mass: 81.7 ± 10.9 kg; \dot{VO}_{2peak} : 45.2 ± 3.1 mL/kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) participants performed square-33 wave transitions from unloaded cycling to three different intensities (70%, 82.5%, and 95% of gas 34 35 exchange threshold). The data were modelled using both a mono-exponential function (Model 1), and 36 a function that included a switch-on component (Model 2). The overshoot was computed by 37 subtracting the steady-state from the peak of the modelled response and by calculating the area of the 38 curve that was above steady-state. **Results:** The goodness of fit was affected by model type (p = .002) and exercise intensity (p < .001). High-fitness participants displayed a smaller τ (p < .05), a larger 39 40 amplitude (p < .05), and were more likely to overshoot the steady-state (p = .035). However, whilst 41 exercise intensity did affect the amplitude (p < .001), it did not affect τ ($p \ge .05$) or the likelihood of 42 an overshoot occurring (p = .389). Conclusion: Whilst exercise intensity did not alter the VO₂ 43 response, fitness status affected τ and the likelihood of an overshoot occurring. The overshoot questions the traditional approach to modelling moderate-intensity $\dot{V}O_2$ data. 44

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46 Key Words: Phase II; Pulmonary VO₂; Tau; VO₂ kinetics

47 Following a sudden step change in exercise intensity the new energetic requirement cannot be 48 met instantaneously by the aerobic energy-system. However, stored adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and 49 ATP that is re-synthesized by the anaerobic energy pathways allows this intensity of exercise to be 50 performed, with the difference between the desired and the actual oxygen uptake (\dot{VO}_2) forming the 51 oxygen (O_2) deficit (Timmons, Gustafsson, Sundberg, Jansson, & Greenhaff, 1998). The mathematical 52 function used to model the VO_2 response varies depending on the intensity of exercise performed. 53 Following the cardio-dynamic phase, during both moderate- and severe-intensity exercise, the $\dot{V}O_2$ 54 on-response is well described by a mono-exponential function, whereas during both heavy- and very-55 heavy-intensity exercise, the presence of the VO₂ slow component dictates that the addition of a 56 second, delayed, exponential component provides a preferred function for modelling the response 57 (Özyener, Rossiter, Ward, & Whipp, 2001).

58 The 'moderate-intensity' domain represents all exercise intensities beneath the lactate 59 threshold (Rossiter, 2011). During moderate-intensity exercise, it was traditionally believed that the 60 response adhered to the principles of first-order linear kinetics (McNarry, Kingsley, & Lewis, 2012), 61 implying that the time constant (τ) was unaffected by exercise intensity (DiMenna & Jones, 2009). 62 Whilst a substantial volume of research has found τ to be invariant within this domain (Barstow, 63 Casaburi, & Wasserman, 1993; Barstow & Mole, 1991; Hughson & Morrissey, 1982; Macphee, 64 Shoemaker, Paterson, & Kowalchuk, 2005; Wilkerson, Koppo, Barstow, & Jones, 2004), in a review 65 of the literature, Robergs (2014) presented evidence from several studies to suggest that τ actually 66 increases with intensity (Bowen et al., 2011; Brittain, Rossiter, Kowalchuk, & Whipp, 2001; Carter, 67 Pringle, Jones, & Doust, 2002; Casaburi, Barstow, Robinson, & Wasserman, 1989; Hughson & 68 Morrisey, 1983; Koppo, Bouckaert, & Jones, 2004a). Moreover, Robergs (2014) proposed that, based 69 on data from Hickson, Bomze, and Hollozy (1978), endurance training could dampen the increase in τ 70 with intensity, creating an interaction effect.

71 One issue that needs to be addressed, however, before revisiting the idea of differential effects 72 of fitness status on τ within the moderate-intensity domain, is the possibility that well-trained 73 individuals display a transient overshoot in $\dot{V}O_2$ before a steady-state is achieved. Whilst a $\dot{V}O_2$

overshoot has not frequently been reported in the literature, the available evidence suggests that this 74 75 response may occur in well-trained cyclists (Hoogeveen & Keizer, 2003; Kilding & Jones, 2008; 76 Koppo, Whipp, Jones, Aeyels, & Bouckaert, 2004b) and may be more commonly found when low-77 intensity exercise transitions are performed (Koppo et al., 2004b). Having averaged the response from 78 six identical transitions, both Kilding and Jones (2008) and Koppo et al. (2004b) quantified an overshoot by subtracting the steady-state $\dot{V}O_2$ (the average $\dot{V}O_2$ during the last 30 s of exercise) from 79 80 the peak of the response and by also calculating the area of overshoot that was greater than the steady-81 state using integration. Although the use of repeated transitions reduces the level of noise associated 82 with $\dot{V}O_2$ data, it may be more appropriate to use a mathematical model to fit the data before determining the VO₂ overshoot. Indeed, Hoogeveen and Keizer (2003) proposed a function that 83 84 utilises the traditional mono-exponential equation with the addition of a 'switch-on' component to 85 account for the \dot{VO}_2 overshoot. However, to-date, no study has attempted to fit \dot{VO}_2 data using this 86 function or to quantify the overshoot using a mathematical model. The purpose of the current study 87 was, therefore, to investigate the existence of the VO_2 overshoot, and to examine the effects of fitness 88 status and exercise intensity on the pattern of the $\dot{V}O_2$ response. Methods

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91 **Participants**

Twelve endurance-trained ('high-fitness') cyclists ($\dot{V}O_{2peak} > 55 \text{ mLkg}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$) and eleven 92 active ('moderate-fitness') individuals ($\dot{VO}_{2peak} < 50 \text{ mLkg}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$), who participated in a variety of 93 94 sports (five cyclists, three racket-sport players, two weight-trainers, and one runner), volunteered to 95 participate in this study. Participant characteristics for the high- and moderate-fitness groups are 96 displayed in Table 1. Prior to commencing the study, all participants completed a physical activity 97 readiness questionnaire and provided written informed consent. Participants were required to be at 98 least three hours post-prandial, to avoid strenuous exercise and alcohol for 24 hours, and caffeine for

- 99 12 hours, prior to testing. The study was performed under the guidelines of the Declaration of
 100 Helsinki and was granted ethical approval by St. Mary's University Ethics Committee.
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102 Experimental Overview

103 All participants were initially required to complete two incremental cycling tests to evaluate 104 the VO₂-power output relationship, the gas exchange threshold (GET), and VO_{2peak}. During each of 105 the subsequent trials, the participants performed three 10-minute cycling bouts at different exercise 106 intensities. The exercise intensities were selected following pilot testing, with the aim of spanning the 107 moderate-intensity spectrum. The order of the exercise bouts was randomised and 10 minutes 108 separated each transition to allow \dot{VO}_2 to return to its baseline level. Participants were required to 109 maintain a cadence of 80 rpm during all trials. To minimise diurnal variances, trials for each 110 participant were conducted at approximately the same time of day.

111

112 Equipment

113 All exercise was performed on an electromagnetically-braked cycle ergometer (Excalibur 114 Sport, Lode, Groningen, The Netherlands). During all trials, participants wore a facemask and head-115 cap assembly (7600 Series V2 Mask, Hans Rudolph, Shawnee, United States of America). A 116 computerised metabolic measurement system (Oxycon Pro, Erich Jaeger GmbH, Hoechberg, 117 Germany) was used to measure gas-exchange variables on a breath-by-breath basis. Prior to each trial, 118 the flow sensor was calibrated using a multi-flow 3 L syringe and the gas-analyser was calibrated 119 using gases of a known concentration (16% O₂; 5% CO₂) and the ambient conditions (temperature, 120 pressure, and relative humidity) at the time of testing. In Trial 1, capillary blood samples were 121 analysed for lactate concentration using an automated analyser (Biosen C-line Analyser, EFK 122 Diagnostics, Barleben, Germany), which was calibrated prior to each trial in accordance with the 123 manufacturer's guidelines.

124

125 **Procedures**

126 During the first visit to the laboratory measurements of height, body-mass, and body-fat 127 (determined from a four-site skinfold protocol [Durnin & Womersley, 1974]) were taken. The cycle 128 ergometer was then adjusted for the participant with the seat height and the handlebar positions 129 recorded to facilitate replication in the subsequent trials. The participants then performed a step-130 incremental exercise test which started at an intensity of 75 W for the moderate-fitness group and at 131 100 W for the high-fitness group. Intensity increased for both groups by 20 W per stage. Stages lasted 132 three minutes and at the end of each stage the participants stopped pedalling for 30 s to allow for a 20 133 μ L capillary blood sample to be taken from the earlobe, which was subsequently analysed for lactate concentration. Exercise continued until a blood lactate concentration greater than 4 mmol⁻¹ was 134 135 recorded. The mean value of the \dot{VO}_2 data from the last 30 s of each stage was used to determine the 136 $\dot{V}O_2$ -power output relationship for each participant via linear regression. After five minutes of passive 137 rest, participants performed a ramp test to exhaustion. The moderate-fitness group began at an 138 intensity of 75 W with a ramp-rate of 5 W every 12 s and the high-fitness group began at 100 W with 139 a ramp-rate of 5 W every 10 s. VO_{2peak} was calculated as the highest 30 s rolling average. The GET 140 was determined from visual inspection of a plot of the rate of carbon dioxide produced ($\dot{V}CO_2$) versus 141 VO₂ from the ramp test using the V-slope method (Beaver, Wasserman, & Whipp, 1986). The GET 142 was independently determined by two researchers, with the mean used as the confirmed value. 143 Cycling intensities designed to elicit VO₂ values of 70%, 82.5%, and 95% of the GET were then 144 calculated using the VO₂-power output relationship of each participant.

The remaining trials began with participants sitting passively on the ergometer for five minutes before a resting $\dot{V}O_2$ measurement (120 s average) was recorded. The participants then performed three 10-minute cycling bouts consisting of four minutes of unloaded pedalling, followed by six minutes at the desired intensity. As endurance-trained individuals have a higher $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ and GET than their untrained counterparts (Koga, Shiojiri, & Kondo, 2005), it was expected that the

amplitude (signal) would be greater in the high-fitness participants for each of the intensity transitions. A greater signal results in an improved signal-to-noise ratio, meaning that those participants would be required to perform fewer repetitions of the transitions (Koga et al., 2005). Therefore, the high-fitness participants performed three repetitions, whilst the moderate-fitness participants performed four repetitions of each intensity transition.

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156 Data Analysis

157 Analysis of the $\dot{V}O_2$ data began by removing any errant breaths that may have been caused by 158 coughing, swallowing or sighing. A breath was considered to be errant if the value was outside four 159 standard deviations of the local mean (the two breaths preceding and following the breath of interest). 160 The data were then linearly interpolated to give second-by-second values, which were time aligned, 161 and averaged to reduce the breath-by-breath noise. The onset of exercise was defined as time zero and 162 the first 20 s of data (the cardio-dynamic phase) were excluded from the fitting field (Koppo et al., 163 2004a). The data were then modelled using a mono-exponential function (Equation 1); after which, 164 the data were re-modelled with the inclusion of an additional 'switch on' component (Equation 2 165 [Hoogeveen & Keizer, 2003]). The parameters of both models were determined using non-linear 166 least-squares regression techniques (XLfit, IDBS Ltd, Guildford, UK), where $\dot{VO}_2(t)$ is the absolute 167 $\dot{V}O_2$ at any given time greater than TD₀ and $\dot{V}O_{2baseline}$ is the average $\dot{V}O_2$ during the last 60 s of 168 unloaded pedalling; A is the amplitude, τ is the time constant, and TD₀ the time delay for the classic 169 exponential equation; B represents a constant, TD_1 an independent time delay and c a rate constant for the switch-on element, whereby the amplitude of the switch-on component (A_1) equates to B $(ec)^{-1}$ 170 171 (Hoogeveen & Keizer, 2003).

172

173

$$\dot{V}O_2(t) = \dot{V}O_{2baseline} + A * \left[1 - e^{-\frac{t - TD_0}{\tau}}\right]$$
(1)

174
$$\dot{V}O_2(t) = \dot{V}O_{2baseline} + A * \left[1 - e^{-\frac{t - TD_0}{\tau}}\right] + B * (t - TD_1) * \left[e^{-((t - TD_1) * c)}\right]$$
 (2)

175

176	To deal with the possibility that Model 2, if unconstrained, might fail to achieve a steady-state
177	and instead decrease progressively over time (Figure 1A), the parameters of the mono-exponential
178	component were first derived with the possible overshoot data removed (Figure 1B). In the study by
179	Kilding and Jones (2008), the authors reported that the overshoot lasted 51 ± 15 s. Therefore, in the
180	current study, it was decided that 90 s of data (> mean + 2 \times SD, reported by Kilding and Jones
181	[2008]) would provide a sufficient duration of data removal to capture the overshoot. To select the
182	start-point for data removal, the time-point equating to TD_0 plus $2 \times \tau$ from Model 1 was chosen. This
183	was selected as the starting point as it kept a large percentage of the data during the initial growth-
184	phase of the response prior to any possible overshoot, and also provided an individualised approach to
185	the modelling process. The parameters of the switch-on component were then calculated by applying
186	Model 2 to the full data set with A, τ , and TD ₀ fixed (Figure 1C). The goodness of model fit (r ²) for
187	Model 1 and Model 2 was computed by software (XLfit, IDBS Ltd, Guildford, UK).

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189 **Overshoot Quantification**

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The overshoot was quantified using the steady-state of Model 2 (defined as the average of the last 60 s of the modelled data). If the modelled response displayed a continuous growth to the steadystate, no further action was taken. However, if the peak of the modelled response occurred prior to the steady-state being achieved the overshoot was computed by subtracting the steady-state from the peak of the response and then by determining (via integration) the area of the curve that was greater than the steady-state (Figure 2).

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198 Statistical Analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
 software (SPSS Version 22, IBM, Armonk, United States of America). Independent *t*-tests were used
 to assess differences between group characteristics (Table 1). Dependent *t*-tests were used to establish

202 whether the participants' steady-state $\dot{V}O_2$ in the experimental trials (average $\dot{V}O_2$ during the last 60 s 203 of exercise) matched the predicted values. The inter-rater reliability of the GET estimates was 204 evaluated using the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). X^2 tests of independence were used to 205 assess the effects of both fitness status and exercise intensity on the likelihood of an overshoot 206 occurring. In individuals where a positive integral was computed, Pearson's correlation coefficient 207 was calculated to evaluate the relationship between $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ and the magnitude of the overshoot. A 2 × 3 mixed ANOVA was used to assess the effects of fitness status and exercise intensity on VO_{2baseline}, 208 209 the parameters of the mono-exponential component, and the amplitude and the time delay of the 210 switch-on component. (If the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not satisfied, appropriate 211 transformations were made. If the data were not normally distributed, a Mann Whitney U test was 212 used to examine the effect of fitness status and a Friedman's ANOVA was used to examine the effect 213 of exercise intensity). Finally, a $2 \times 2 \times 3$ (model \times fitness status \times exercise intensity) mixed ANOVA 214 was used to evaluate the goodness of model fit. If the assumption of sphericity was violated, the 215 Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied. Post hoc tests were performed using a Bonferroni 216 correction. Statistical significance was set *a priori* at p < .05.

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Results

219 Model parameters

220 The average time course of $\dot{V}O_2$ over the 10-minute cycling period for the two groups at the 221 three intensities is displayed in Figure 3. The goodness of fit, for the two models, for the two groups, 222 over the three exercise intensities, is displayed in Table 2. A significant main effect was found for model type ($F_{(1,21)} = 11.900$, p = .002, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .362$) and exercise intensity ($F_{(2,42)} = 55.434$, p < .001, 223 224 $\eta^2_{partial} = .725$), with the goodness of fit increasing significantly with intensity. However, fitness status did not significantly ($F_{(1,21)} = .739$, p = .400, $\eta^2_{partial} = .034$) affect the goodness of fit. $\dot{VO}_{2baseline}$ and 225 226 the parameters of the classic mono-exponential component of both Model 1 and Model 2, as well as 227 the amplitude of the switch-on component and TD₁ are displayed in Table 3. $\dot{VO}_{2baseline}$, the amplitude 228 of the switch-on component, TD₀ (irrespective of model), and TD₁ were not significantly affected ($p \ge 1$ 229 .05) by fitness status or exercise intensity. There was also no significant effect of exercise intensity on τ (Model 1: $F_{(2,42)} = 1.002$, p = .376, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .046$; Model 2: $F_{(2,42)} = 2.092$, p = .136, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .091$). 230 However, there was a significant effect of exercise intensity on amplitude (Model 1: $F_{(1.308,27,471)}$ = 231 318.594, p < .001, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .938$; Model 2: $F_{(1.352, 28.394)} = 290.752$, p < .001, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .933$), with values 232 increasing progressively, and significantly, with increases in intensity. Fitness status had a significant 233 effect on amplitude (Model 1: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.992$, p = .023, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.899$, p = .023, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.899$, p = .023, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.899$, p = .023, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.899$, p = .023, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.899$, p = .023, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.899$, p = .023, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = .023$, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} =$ 234 .024, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .219$) and τ (Model 1: $F_{(1,21)} = 6.148$, p = .022, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .226$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 11.274$, 235 p = .003, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .349$), with the high-fitness group displaying a greater amplitude and a smaller τ . A 236 237 significant fitness status \times exercise intensity interaction was observed for amplitude (Model 1: $F_{(1.308,27.471)} = 5.995, p = .015, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222; \text{ Model } 2: F_{(1.352,28.394)} = 5.099, p = .023, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .195),$ 238 239 with the magnitude of the effect of fitness status increasing with increases in exercise intensity. In 240 contrast, there was no fitness status × exercise intensity interaction on τ (Model 1: $F_{(2,42)} = .345$, p =.710, $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .016$; Model 2: $F_{(2,42)} = .219, p = .804, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .010$). 241

242

243 **VO₂ overshoot**

244 Example transitions where a noticeable overshoot, a small overshoot, and no overshoot were 245 found are displayed in Figure 4. In 61% of the transitions performed by the moderate-fitness group 246 and in 83% of the transitions performed by the high-fitness group, the peak of the modelled response was greater than the steady-state (Table 4). The results of the X^2 tests of independence revealed a 247 significant relationship between fitness status $[X^2 (1, n = 69) = 4.457, p = .035]$ and the occurrence of 248 an overshoot, but not exercise intensity $[X^2(2, n = 69) = 1.888, p = .389]$. The integral volume and the 249 difference between the peak and steady-state values for the participants that displayed an overshoot 250 251 are shown in Table 5. Whilst weak to moderate correlations were found between VO_{2peak} and the 252 magnitude of the overshoot (see Figure 5), in all cases, the relationship was found to be non-253 significant ($p \ge .05$).

254

255 Validity and Reliability

The inter-rater level of agreement for the assessment of the GET was high (ICC = .972). In both the high- and moderate-fitness groups all steady-state values of $\dot{V}O_2$ were below the GET. However, the actual $\dot{V}O_2$ steady-state was lower than the predicted value (see Table 6) for both the high- (mean difference = 95 mLmin⁻¹; 95% likely range 43 to 147 mLmin⁻¹) and moderate-fitness (mean difference = 53 mLmin⁻¹; 95% likely range 5 to 101 mLmin⁻¹) groups during the 95% GET transition; as well as for the high-fitness group (mean difference = 96 mLmin⁻¹; 95% likely range 49 to 144 mLmin⁻¹) during the 82.5% GET transition.

263

264

Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate the existence of the $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot, as well as the 265 266 effects of fitness status and exercise intensity on the VO₂ response during moderate-intensity exercise. 267 The current study was the first to model $\dot{V}O_2$ data using a function that included a switch-on 268 component. The goodness of model fit was affected by both model type and exercise intensity. The 269 $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot was more likely to occur in individuals with a high level of aerobic fitness. However, 270 the relationship between the size of the overshoot and the individual's VO_{2peak} ranged from weak to 271 moderate and was not statistically significant. Individuals with a high aerobic fitness-status were also 272 found to have a significantly smaller τ . However, exercise intensity did not affect τ or the likelihood 273 of an overshoot occurring. There was also no evidence of an exercise intensity by fitness status 274 interaction on τ . However, an interaction effect was noted for the amplitude of the traditional 275 exponential equation.

The present study modelled data using the mathematical function that was proposed by Hoogeveen and Keizer (2003). The analysis revealed that model type and exercise intensity affected the goodness of model fit. An enhancement in the goodness of model fit alongside an increase in 279 exercise intensity was expected and was most likely explained by an improvement in the signal to 280 noise ratio (Koga et al., 2005). With regards to model type, it was not surprising that the goodness of 281 fit improved by applying a more complex function to the data set; especially when considering the 282 complex function included the components of the more basic model. However, in cases where a large 283 overshoot was computed (see Figure 4A), there was a clear discrepancy between the fit of the two 284 models. This finding not only raises questions about the suitability of applying a mono-exponential 285 growth function to all moderate-intensity data sets, but also raises concerns about the procedure used 286 to calculate the O_2 deficit (Hoogeveen & Keizer, 2003; Kilding & Jones, 2008). However, in cases 287 where a small overshoot was computed (see Figure 4B), the difference between the models becomes 288 less clear. Considering the mean overshoot values found, and the large levels of inter- and intra-289 participant variability, as well as the possibility that Model 2 may be biased towards suggesting that 290 an overshoot occurred, it would be advisable for criteria to be developed to determine the magnitude 291 of the change that depicts a meaningful overshoot.

292 The suggestion that the VO_2 response does not always rise to the new steady-state following a 293 mono-exponential time course has been made previously (Hoogeveen & Keizer, 2003; Kilding & 294 Jones, 2008; Koppo et al., 2004b). However, the current findings were not in absolute agreement with 295 those of Koppo et al. (2004b). Koppo et al. (2004b) examined the effects fitness status (well-trained 296 and untrained) and exercise intensity (60% GET, 80% GET, and 50% of the difference between GET 297 and \dot{VO}_{2max}) on the \dot{VO}_2 overshoot. From their findings, the authors suggested that an overshoot may 298 only occur during moderate-intensity exercise transitions, that it may be more prevalent at lower 299 work-rates, and that it may only occur in highly trained individuals. Whilst the current findings 300 indicated that an overshoot was more likely to occur in individuals with a high aerobic capacity, there 301 was no apparent relationship between $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ and the magnitude of the overshoot (both integral 302 volume and peak minus steady state), and a substantial percentage of the moderate-fitness group also 303 displayed this response. In addition, exercise intensity did not affect the likelihood of an overshoot 304 occurring. Overall, despite differences in the methods used to quantify the overshoot it is difficult to 305 explain between-study discrepancies in the prevalence of the response; particularly since the

306 'moderately-trained' participants of the current study were similar to the 'untrained' participants of 307 Koppo et al. (2004b) ($\dot{V}O_{2max}$: 42.9 ± 5.1 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹).

308 From a physiological perspective, the mechanisms that could account for the $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot 309 remain a topic for debate. Both Koppo et al. (2004b) and Kilding and Jones (2008) noted a heart-rate 310 overshoot in several of their data sets. However, both authors reported that the overshoot in heart-rate was not consistently found in participants that demonstrated a VO₂ overshoot. Furthermore, 311 312 Hoogeveen and Keizer (2003) did not see an overshoot in heart-rate in any of their participants; 313 although, the authors did suggest that alterations in stroke volume remain a possible explanatory 314 factor (Hoogeveen & Keizer, 2003). However, as heart-rate was not monitored during the constant 315 load trials in the current study, it is not possible to support or refute these suggestions. A transient 316 hyper-ventilatory response, which would result in an increase in diaphragmatic work and thus a 317 subsequent increase in whole-body VO₂, was also discounted by both Kilding and Jones (2008) and 318 Koppo et al. (2004b), as the responses in tidal volume, breathing frequency, end-tidal gas tensions, 319 VCO₂, and respiratory exchange ratio were as expected. Kilding and Jones (2008) did, however, 320 speculate that the VO₂ overshoot was most likely to have been caused by either a non-constant ATP 321 requirement, with the demand being greater at exercise onset, or by a transient over recruitment of 322 muscle fibres.

323 With regards to the kinetics of the response, irrespective of the model selected, the amplitude 324 increased with intensity and was greater in the high-fitness group, whereas τ was unaffected by 325 exercise intensity and was smaller in the high-fitness group. The amplitude response was in-line with 326 previous research (Koppo et al., 2004a) and was, therefore, as expected. A reduction in τ as a result of 327 endurance training is also in agreement with previous findings, having been demonstrated when 328 transitions are performed at the same absolute (Norris & Petersen, 1998) and the same relative 329 exercise-intensities (Cleuziou et al., 2005; Dogra, Spencer, Murias, & Paterson, 2013; Grey et al., 330 2015), and during both cross-sectional (Koppo et al., 2004a; Marwood, Roche, Rowland, Garrard, & 331 Unnithan, 2010) and longitudinal research (Norris & Petersen, 1998). With regards to exercise 332 intensity, when transitions have been performed from rest or a low baseline, several studies have

found τ to be unaffected by exercise intensity in the moderate domain (Barstow et al., 1993; Barstow & Mole, 1991; Hughson & Morrissey, 1982; Macphee et al., 2005; Wilkerson et al., 2004). However, this was contrary to the suggestion by Robergs (2014) that τ increases with intensity within this domain. The current data also provided no evidence to suggest that endurance training dampens the increase in τ with intensity.

338 From a methodological perspective, additional considerations include: the procedure that was 339 used to quantify the VO₂-power output relationship, as well as modifications that were made to the 340 modelling process. Initially, on a number of occasions, when Model 2 was applied to the data set, the 341 derived model parameters suggested that if the exercise bout was extended, then the \dot{VO}_2 requirement 342 would continue to decrease for some time. To overcome this issue, modifications were made to the 343 modelling procedure to ensure that a steady-state would be achieved. This restriction may not, 344 however, have been necessary if the constant load trials had been conducted over a greater duration, 345 as the impact of fluctuations in \dot{VO}_2 would have been reduced. With regards to the \dot{VO}_2 -power output 346 relationship, within \dot{VO}_2 kinetics research, this relationship has frequently been established using a 347 ramp exercise-test. However, the increase in VO₂ lags behind the increase in work-rate during a ramp 348 test (Faude, Meyer, & Kindermann, 2006) and if this lag is not accounted for then the derived power 349 outputs could be overestimated in the subsequent constant-load trials. Consequently, the participants 350 may not actually perform moderate-intensity exercise. Therefore, in the current study, the VO₂-power 351 output relationship was calculated by averaging the last 30 s of VO₂ data gathered during each three-352 minute stage of a step incremental exercise-test. During the subsequent constant-load trials, when 353 comparing the actual steady-state \dot{VO}_2 with the desired levels, this method appeared to be appropriate 354 for the lowest exercise intensity selected. However, the power outputs for both the 82.5% GET and 355 95% GET transitions in the high-fitness group and the 95% GET transition in the moderate-fitness 356 group appear to have been underestimated.

The deviations found in the $\dot{V}O_2$ -power output relationship could be explained by the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component. During exercise transitions at the same absolute intensity, endurance training has been shown to dampen the magnitude of the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component (Womack et al., 1995). However,

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360 when transitions were performed at the same relative intensity, Koppo et al. (2004a) found that the 361 onset of the slow component was earlier and the time constant smaller in trained individuals. This 362 could explain why the distortion of the relationship was relatively greater in the high-fitness group. 363 Then again, using an incremental exercise test similar to the protocol used in the current study, 364 Muniz-Pumares, Pedlar, Godfrey, and Glaister (2017) found that the VO₂-power output relationship 365 remained linear even when exercise intensity increased above the lactate threshold. Therefore, as it is 366 not currently possible to confidently account for the pattern of this response, to quantify the $\dot{V}O_2$ -367 power output relationship for exercise transitions in the moderate-intensity domain, it is suggested 368 that a series of constant load trials, at intensities beneath the GET, are performed.

In conclusion, the current investigation found that an overshoot was not exclusively found in individuals with a high aerobic capacity, but it was more likely to occur in these individuals. Irrespective of the model selected, the amplitude was found to be higher and τ smaller in the highfitness group. Whilst exercise intensity affected the amplitude, it did not affect τ or the likelihood of an overshoot occurring. Finally, deriving the $\dot{V}O_2$ -power output relationship from a three-minute stage-duration incremental test may underestimate the subsequent power outputs for exercise transitions in the upper regions of the moderate-intensity domain.

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What does this article add?

378 The use of a mono-exponential function to model data within the moderate intensity-domain 379 has been a central component of \dot{VO}_2 kinetics research, providing information on the magnitude and 380 the rate of the response. However, if, as observed in the present study and several others (Hoogeveen 381 & Keizer, 2003; Kilding & Jones, 2008; Koppo et al., 2004b), a VO₂ overshoot occurs, the approach 382 may not provide the best representation of the data. Modelling overshoot data using a mono-383 exponential function may result in a smaller τ and an amplitude that exceeds the eventual steady-state 384 (Kilding & Jones, 2008). However, the severity of the consequences of using a mono-exponential function on the resultant amplitude, τ , and O₂ deficit requires further investigation. Additionally, 385

given the possibility that the procedure used in the present study to identify the presence of an overshoot may be biased towards detecting this phenomenon, it is recommended that minimum thresholds are defined to identify when an elevation in $\dot{V}O_2$ above the steady-state depicts a meaningful overshoot.

390

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395 Conflict of Interest

396 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Fitness Status	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Body-mass (kg)	Body-fat (%)	Training volume (hours week-1)	Relative VO _{2peak} (mL kg ⁻¹ min ⁻¹)	Power at GET (W)	
High	26 ± 5	184.1 ± 5.4	76.6 ± 8.9	$14.7 \pm 3.5^{*}$	8.0 ± 2.7	$59.0 \pm 3.3^{*}$	$155\pm30^{\ast}$	
Moderate	29 ± 5	178.7 ± 7.5	81.7 ± 10.9	18.5 ± 4.9	7.8 ± 3.0	45.2 ± 3.1	127 ± 33	

Table 1. Participant characteristics for the two fitness groups. Data are displayed as mean ± standard deviation.

Note: GET = Gas Exchange Threshold; * denotes a significant difference (p < 0.05) from the moderate-fitness group.

to per period

Table 2. The goodness of model fit for the two model types over the three exercise intensities for the two groups. Significant main effects were found for both model type and exercise intensity.

Model Type		Model 1			Model 2	
Exercise Intensity	70% GET	82.5% GET	95% GET	70% GET	82.5% GET	95% GET
Moderate Fitness	0.42 ± 0.21	0.56 ± 0.17	0.69 ± 0.11	0.45 ± 0.21	0.58 ± 0.17	0.70 ± 0.11
High Fitness	0.39 ± 0.13	0.53 ± 0.09	0.61 ± 0.14	0.41 ± 0.13	0.54 ± 0.09	0.63 ± 0.14

Note: GET denotes the gas exchange threshold.

Table 3. The kind	etic parameters of t	he two models for	r the two groups (h	nigh- versus mod	erate-fitness) over the
three exercise inte	ensities (70%, 82.59	%, and 95% of the	gas exchange thres	shold).	

		70%	GET	82.5% GET		95% GET		Significance
		High	Moderate	High	Moderate	High	Moderate	
	$\dot{V}O_{2baseline}(mL{}^{\cdot}min{}^{\cdot1})$	969 ± 106	994 ± 101	951 ± 106	993 ± 118	948 ± 93	994 ± 95	
Model	$A_0 (mL^{-}min^{-1})$	697 ± 208	511 ± 242	$988 \pm 253^*$	722 ± 227	$1296 \pm 321^{*}$	967 ± 300	†, ‡, §
1	τ (s)	16.3 ± 4.9	21.7 ± 8.7	14.6 ± 3.2	22.6 ± 11.3	14.4 ± 4.7	21.2 ± 8.3	‡
	$TD_{0}(s)$	18.4 ± 4.7	19.2 ± 4.7	19.0 ± 1.8	17.6 ± 3.5	18.8 ± 3.2	17.0 ± 3.9	
	$A_0 (mL^{-1}min^{-1})$	692 ± 205	507 ± 243	$981 \pm 251^*$	719 ± 225	$1285 \pm 321^*$	962 ± 296	†, ‡, §
Model 2	τ (s)	18.6 ± 6.3	25.4 ± 9.3	18.2 ± 5.2	27.6 ± 10.6	16.5 ± 5.3	21.6 ± 6.5	‡
	$TD_{0}(s)$	16.9 ± 6.7	17.8 ± 5.4	17.2 ± 2.9	14.8 ± 5.2	17.8 ± 3.2	16.9 ± 3.3	
	A_1 (mL·min ⁻¹)	47.6 ± 34.8	27.8 ± 68.2	70.1 ± 33.2	43.7 ± 55.5	74.0 ± 65.2	31.7 ± 44.4	
	$TD_1(s)$	8.8 ± 71.8	27.2 ± 10.0	30.2 ± 4.1	29.7 ± 4.5	30.7 ± 6.8	26.9 ± 9.1	

Note: $\dot{V}O_{2baseline}$ denotes the average oxygen uptake recorded during the last 60 s of unloaded pedalling; A₀ is the amplitude, τ is the time constant and TD₀ is the time delay for the mono-exponential growth component for both Model 1 and Model 2; A₁ denotes the amplitude and TD₁ the time delay for the switch-on component for Model 2. GET denotes the gas exchange threshold. * denotes a significant difference (p < 0.05) between the high- and moderate-fitness groups at the same exercise intensity, † denotes a significant (p < 0.05) effect of exercise intensity, ‡ denotes a significant (p < 0.05) effect of fitness status, and § denotes a significant (p < 0.05) exercise intensity × fitness status interaction. The data are displayed as mean ± standard deviation.

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Fitness Status	70% GET	82.5% GET	95% GET	Overall
High	9/12 (75%)	12/12 (100%)	9/12 (75%)	30/36 (83%)
Moderate	7/11 (64%)	7/11 (64%)	6/11 (55%)	20/33 (61%)
Overall	16/23 (70%)	19/23 (83%)	15/23 (65%)	

Table 4. The number and percentage of participants where an overshoot was computed.

Note: GET denotes the gas exchange threshold.

Table 5. The mean \pm standard deviation of the peak minus the steady-state and the integral volume for high- and moderate-fitness participants where a positive integral (\dot{VO}_2 overshoot) was computed.

	High			Moderate			
	70% GET	82.5% GET	95% GET	70% GET	82.5% GET	95% GET	
	(n = 9)	(n = 12)	(n = 9)	(n = 7)	(n = 7)	(n = 6)	
Peak minus							
steady-state	33.2 ± 23.9	34.7 ± 15.4	62.7 ± 32.6	34.8 ± 20.6	33.3 ± 30.8	31.3 ± 41.5	
$(mLmin^{-1})$							
Integral volume							
(mL)	42.9 ± 30.7	47.3 ± 22.3	85.1 ± 44.1	54.6 ± 37.2	45.2 ± 43.5	44.8 ± 55.6	

Note: GET denotes the gas exchange threshold.



Figure 1. Application of Model 2 extrapolated for a further four minutes to an example data set with: (A) no constraints; (B) only the mono-exponential component applied to the data set with 90 s of data removed; and (C) with the mono-exponential parameters constrained.

113x224mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 2. Quantification procedure for the VO_2 overshoot. The shaded area beneath the modelled responsecurve that is greater than the steady-state rate depicts the overshoot.

168x110mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 3. The mean VO_2 response for the high- and moderate-fitness groups during 10 minutes of cycling, transitioning from unloaded pedalling to (A) 70%, (B) 82.5%, and (C) 95% of the gas exchange threshold.

114x215mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 4. The actual oxygen uptake (VO₂) response, as well as the two model fits, over the 10 minute cycling period, for representative participants

122x236mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 5. The relationship between the peak rate of oxygen uptake and the size of the VO₂ overshoot during bouts of submaximal exercise performed at three different intensities (70% [A & D], 82.5% [B & E] and 95% [C & F] of the gas exchange threshold). The size of the overshoot was quantified by two different methods (the integral volume [A, B, & C], and the difference between the peak and steady-state VO₂ responses [D, E, & F]). Dashed lines represent lines of best fit. Filled circles (•) represent moderate-fitness individuals (VO_{2peak} < 50 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹); open circles (•) represent high-fitness cyclists (VO_{2peak} > 55 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹).

210x210mm (300 x 300 DPI)