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AUTHOR

Dale, Julian and Glaister, Mark

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Review

1 **Moderate-intensity oxygen uptake kinetics: is a mono-exponential function always appropriate**
2 **to model the response?**

3

4 JULIAN DALE AND MARK GLAISTER.

5

6 *School of Sport, Health, and Applied Sciences, St Mary's University, Strawberry Hill, Twickenham*

7 *TW1 4SX, UK.*

8

9 Contact information

10 M. Glaister, School of Sport, Health, and Applied Sciences, St Mary's University, Waldegrave Road,

11 Strawberry Hill, Twickenham TW1 4SX, UK

12

13 Tel: 0208 240 4012

14 Fax: 0208 240 4212

15 E-mail: mark.glaister@stmarys.ac.uk

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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 ($\dot{V}O_2$) 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;
32 $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$: 59.0 ± 3.3 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) and eleven 'moderate-fitness' (age: 29 ± 5 years; height: $178.7 \pm$
33 7.5 cm; body-mass: 81.7 ± 10.9 kg; $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$: 45.2 ± 3.1 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) participants performed square-
34 wave transitions from unloaded cycling to three different intensities (70%, 82.5%, and 95% of gas
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 ($p = .002$)
39 and exercise intensity ($p < .001$). High-fitness participants displayed a smaller τ ($p < .05$), a larger
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 ($p \geq .05$) or the likelihood of
42 an overshoot occurring ($p = .389$). **Conclusion:** Whilst exercise intensity did not alter the $\dot{V}O_2$
43 response, fitness status affected τ and the likelihood of an overshoot occurring. The overshoot
44 questions the traditional approach to modelling moderate-intensity $\dot{V}O_2$ data.

45
46 **Key Words:** Phase II; Pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$; Tau; $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 ($\dot{V}O_2$) forming the
51 oxygen (O_2) deficit (Timmons, Gustafsson, Sundberg, Jansson, & Greenhaff, 1998). The mathematical
52 function used to model the $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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; Macphée,
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 Morrissey, 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 $\dot{V}O_2$

74 overshoot has not frequently been reported in the literature, the available evidence suggests that this
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
79 overshoot by subtracting the steady-state $\dot{V}O_2$ (the average $\dot{V}O_2$ during the last 30 s of exercise) from
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
83 determining the $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot. Indeed, Hoogeveen and Keizer (2003) proposed a function that
84 utilises the traditional mono-exponential equation with the addition of a 'switch-on' component to
85 account for the $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot. However, to-date, no study has attempted to fit $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot, and to examine the effects of fitness
88 status and exercise intensity on the pattern of the $\dot{V}O_2$ response.

89

90

Methods

91 Participants

92 Twelve endurance-trained ('high-fitness') cyclists ($\dot{V}O_{2peak} > 55 \text{ mLkg}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$) and eleven
93 active ('moderate-fitness') individuals ($\dot{V}O_{2peak} < 50 \text{ mLkg}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$), who participated in a variety of
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.

101

102 **Experimental Overview**

103 All participants were initially required to complete two incremental cycling tests to evaluate
104 the $\dot{V}O_2$ -power output relationship, the gas exchange threshold (GET), and $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$. 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 μL capillary blood sample to be taken from the earlobe, which was subsequently analysed for lactate
134 concentration. Exercise continued until a blood lactate concentration greater than $4 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ was
135 recorded. The mean value of the $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ data from the last 30 s of each stage was used to determine the
136 $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ -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. $\dot{V}\text{O}_{2\text{peak}}$ 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 ($\dot{V}\text{CO}_2$) versus
141 $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ 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 $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ values of 70%, 82.5%, and 95% of the GET were then
144 calculated using the $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ -power output relationship of each participant.

145 The remaining trials began with participants sitting passively on the ergometer for five
146 minutes before a resting $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ measurement (120 s average) was recorded. The participants then
147 performed three 10-minute cycling bouts consisting of four minutes of unloaded pedalling, followed
148 by six minutes at the desired intensity. As endurance-trained individuals have a higher $\dot{V}\text{O}_{2\text{peak}}$ and
149 GET than their untrained counterparts (Koga, Shiojiri, & Kondo, 2005), it was expected that the

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

155

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 $\dot{V}O_2(t)$ is the absolute
 167 $\dot{V}O_2$ at any given time greater than TD_0 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 TD_0 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
 170 the switch-on element, whereby the amplitude of the switch-on component (A_1) equates to $B \cdot (e^c)^{-1}$
 171 (Hoogeveen & Keizer, 2003).

172

$$173 \quad \dot{V}O_2(t) = \dot{V}O_{2baseline} + A * \left[1 - e^{-\frac{t-TD_0}{\tau}} \right] \quad (1)$$

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

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 ($> \text{mean} + 2 \times \text{SD}$, 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).

188

189 **Overshoot Quantification**

190

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

197

198 **Statistical Analyses**

199 All statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
200 software (SPSS Version 22, IBM, Armonk, United States of America). Independent t -tests were used
201 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). χ^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 $2 \times$
208 3 mixed ANOVA was used to assess the effects of fitness status and exercise intensity on $\dot{V}O_{2baseline}$,
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 $p < .05$.

217

218

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
223 model type ($F_{(1,21)} = 11.900, p = .002, \eta^2_{partial} = .362$) and exercise intensity ($F_{(2,42)} = 55.434, p < .001,$
224 $\eta^2_{partial} = .725$), with the goodness of fit increasing significantly with intensity. However, fitness status
225 did not significantly ($F_{(1,21)} = .739, p = .400, \eta^2_{partial} = .034$) affect the goodness of fit. $\dot{V}O_{2baseline}$ and
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 TD_1 are displayed in Table 3. $\dot{V}O_{2baseline}$, the amplitude

228 of the switch-on component, TD_0 (irrespective of model), and TD_1 were not significantly affected ($p \geq$
229 .05) by fitness status or exercise intensity. There was also no significant effect of exercise intensity on
230 τ (Model 1: $F_{(2,42)} = 1.002, p = .376, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .046$; Model 2: $F_{(2,42)} = 2.092, p = .136, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .091$).
231 However, there was a significant effect of exercise intensity on amplitude (Model 1: $F_{(1,308,27,471)} =$
232 $318.594, p < .001, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .938$; Model 2: $F_{(1,352,28,394)} = 290.752, p < .001, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .933$), with values
233 increasing progressively, and significantly, with increases in intensity. Fitness status had a significant
234 effect on amplitude (Model 1: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.992, p = .023, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 5.899, p =$
235 $.024, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .219$) and τ (Model 1: $F_{(1,21)} = 6.148, p = .022, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .226$; Model 2: $F_{(1,21)} = 11.274,$
236 $p = .003, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .349$), with the high-fitness group displaying a greater amplitude and a smaller τ . A
237 significant fitness status \times exercise intensity interaction was observed for amplitude (Model 1:
238 $F_{(1,308,27,471)} = 5.995, p = .015, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .222$; Model 2: $F_{(1,352,28,394)} = 5.099, p = .023, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .195$),
239 with the magnitude of the effect of fitness status increasing with increases in exercise intensity. In
240 contrast, there was no fitness status \times exercise intensity interaction on τ (Model 1: $F_{(2,42)} = .345, p =$
241 $.710, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .016$; Model 2: $F_{(2,42)} = .219, p = .804, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .010$).

242

243 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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
247 was greater than the steady-state (Table 4). The results of the X^2 tests of independence revealed a
248 significant relationship between fitness status [$X^2(1, n = 69) = 4.457, p = .035$] and the occurrence of
249 an overshoot, but not exercise intensity [$X^2(2, n = 69) = 1.888, p = .389$]. The integral volume and the
250 difference between the peak and steady-state values for the participants that displayed an overshoot
251 are shown in Table 5. Whilst weak to moderate correlations were found between $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ and the
252 magnitude of the overshoot (see Figure 5), in all cases, the relationship was found to be non-
253 significant ($p \geq .05$).

254

255 **Validity and Reliability**

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

263

264

Discussion

265 The aim of this study was to investigate the existence of the $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot, as well as the
266 effects of fitness status and exercise intensity on the $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ 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.

276

277

278

 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_{2max}$) on the $\dot{V}O_2$ 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) ($\dot{V}O_{2\max}$: $42.9 \pm 5.1 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$).

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
311 was not consistently found in participants that demonstrated a $\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot. Furthermore,
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 $\dot{V}O_2$, 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 $\dot{V}CO_2$, and respiratory exchange ratio were as expected. Kilding and Jones (2008) did, however,
320 speculate that the $\dot{V}O_2$ 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

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

338 From a methodological perspective, additional considerations include: the procedure that was
339 used to quantify the $\dot{V}O_2$ -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 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ would have been reduced. With regards to the $\dot{V}O_2$ -power output
346 relationship, within $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics research, this relationship has frequently been established using a
347 ramp exercise-test. However, the increase in $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ -power
351 output relationship was calculated by averaging the last 30 s of $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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.

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

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 $\dot{V}O_2$ -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.

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

376

377

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 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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 $\dot{V}O_2$ 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
385 function on the resultant amplitude, τ , and O_2 deficit requires further investigation. Additionally,

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

390

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394

395 **Conflict of Interest**

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

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

Fitness Status	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Body-mass (kg)	Body-fat (%)	Training volume (hours week ⁻¹)	Relative $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ (mL.kg ⁻¹ .min ⁻¹)	Power at GET (W)
High	26 \pm 5	184.1 \pm 5.4	76.6 \pm 8.9	14.7 \pm 3.5*	8.0 \pm 2.7	59.0 \pm 3.3*	155 \pm 30*
Moderate	29 \pm 5	178.7 \pm 7.5	81.7 \pm 10.9	18.5 \pm 4.9	7.8 \pm 3.0	45.2 \pm 3.1	127 \pm 33

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

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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		
	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.

For Peer Review

Table 3. The kinetic parameters of the two models for the two groups (high- versus moderate-fitness) over the three exercise intensities (70%, 82.5%, and 95% of the gas exchange threshold).

		70% GET		82.5% GET		95% GET		Significance
		High	Moderate	High	Moderate	High	Moderate	
	$\dot{V}O_{2\text{baseline}}$ (mL·min ⁻¹)	969 ± 106	994 ± 101	951 ± 106	993 ± 118	948 ± 93	994 ± 95	
Model 1	A_0 (mL·min ⁻¹)	697 ± 208	511 ± 242	988 ± 253*	722 ± 227	1296 ± 321*	967 ± 300	†, ‡, §
	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	
Model 2	A_0 (mL·min ⁻¹)	692 ± 205	507 ± 243	981 ± 251*	719 ± 225	1285 ± 321*	962 ± 296	†, ‡, §
	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: $\dot{V}O_{2\text{baseline}}$ denotes the average oxygen uptake recorded during the last 60 s of unloaded pedalling; A_0 is the amplitude, τ is the time constant and TD_0 is the time delay for the mono-exponential growth component for both Model 1 and Model 2; A_1 denotes the amplitude and TD_1 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.

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

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%)	

Note: GET denotes the gas exchange threshold.

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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 ($\dot{V}O_2$ overshoot) was computed.

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

Note: GET denotes the gas exchange threshold.

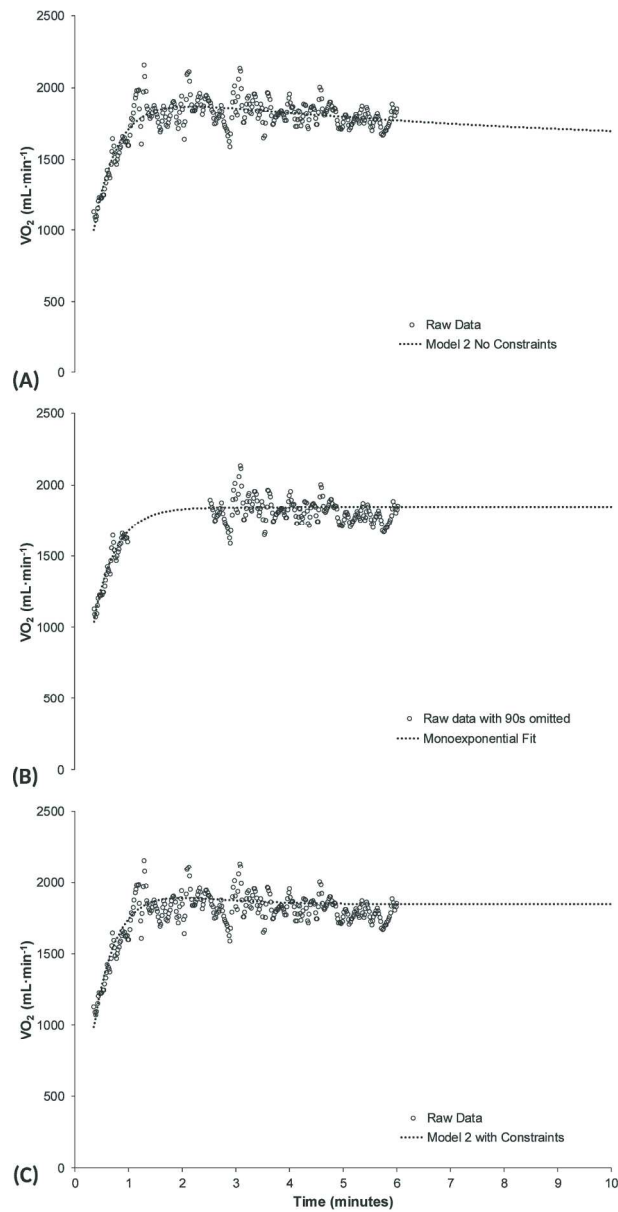


Figure 1. Application of Model 2 extrapolated for a further four minutes to an example data set with: (A) no constraints; (B) only the mono-exponential component applied to the data set with 90 s of data removed; and (C) with the mono-exponential parameters constrained.

113x224mm (300 x 300 DPI)

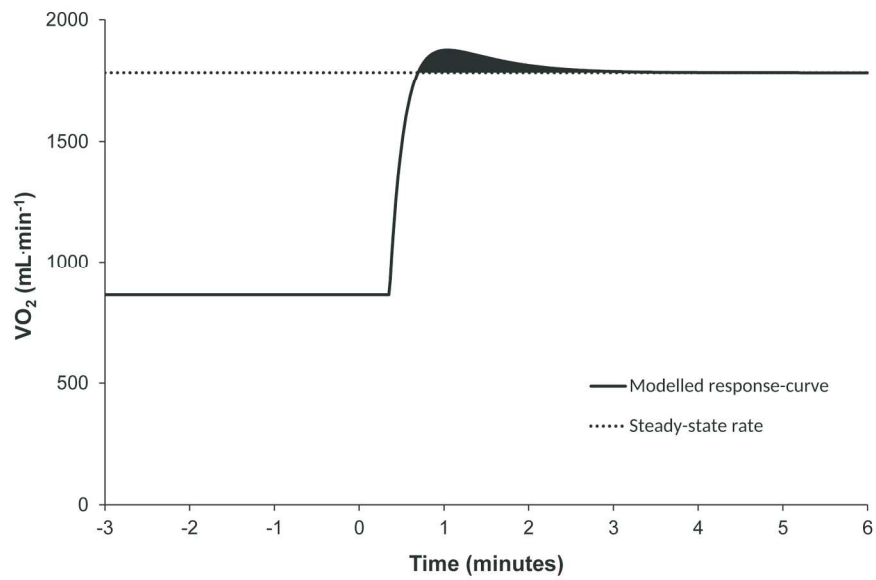


Figure 2. Quantification procedure for the VO_2 overshoot. The shaded area beneath the modelled response-curve that is greater than the steady-state rate depicts the overshoot.

168x110mm (300 x 300 DPI)

review

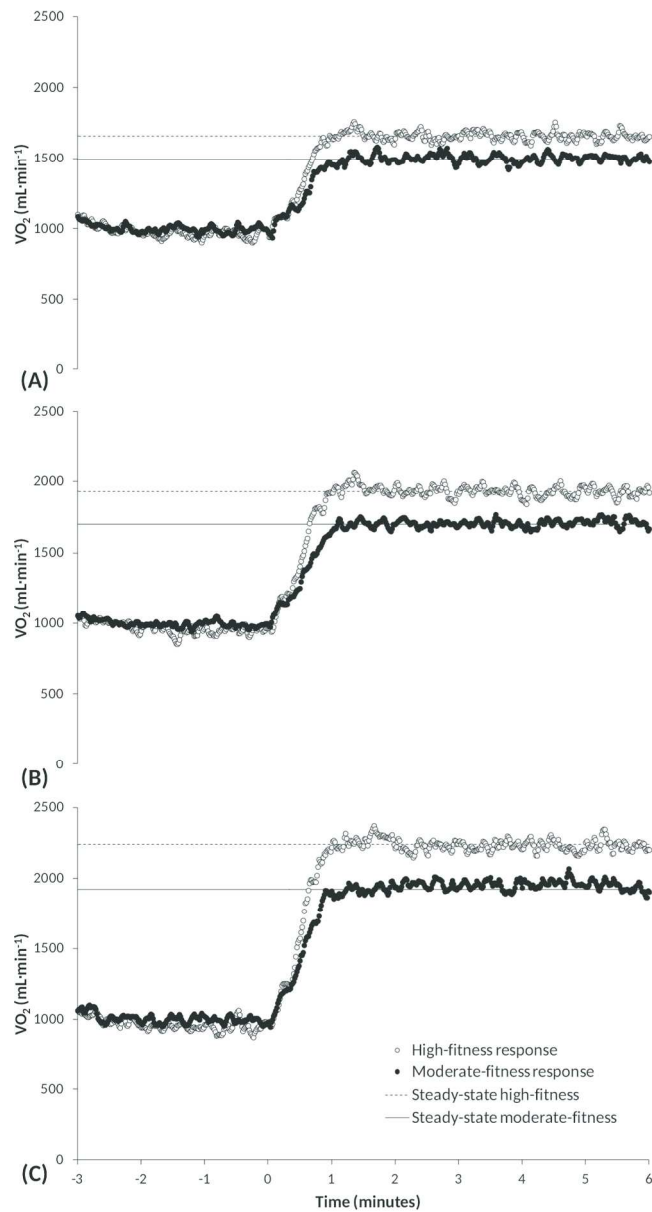


Figure 3. The mean VO_2 response for the high- and moderate-fitness groups during 10 minutes of cycling, transitioning from unloaded pedalling to (A) 70%, (B) 82.5%, and (C) 95% of the gas exchange threshold.

114x215mm (300 x 300 DPI)

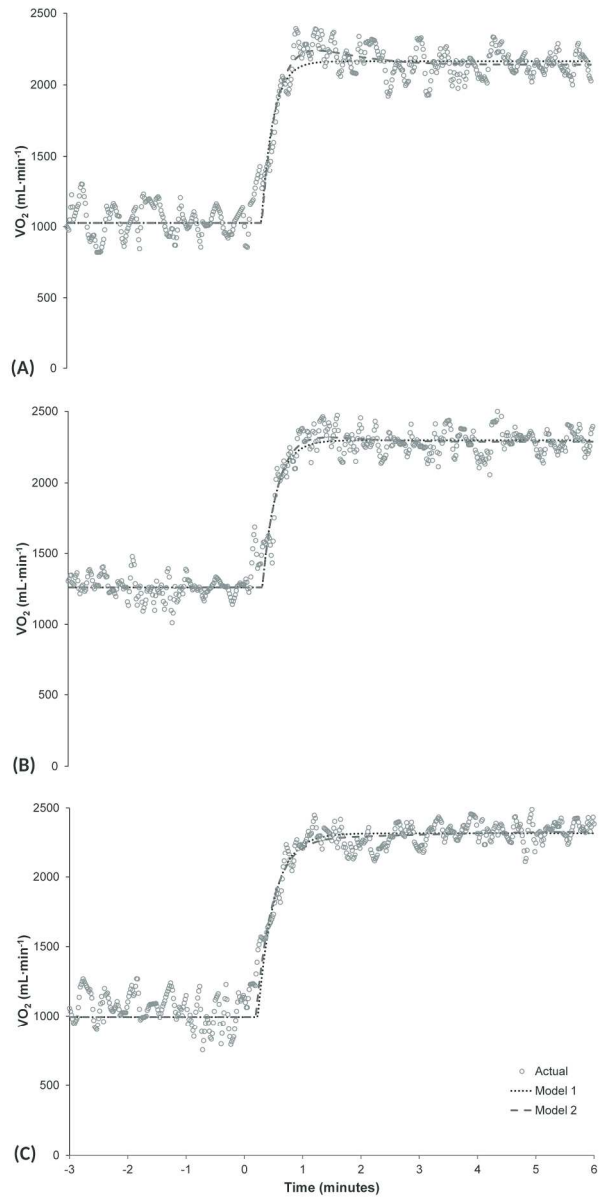


Figure 4. The actual oxygen uptake (VO_2) response, as well as the two model fits, over the 10 minute cycling period, for representative participants

122x236mm (300 x 300 DPI)

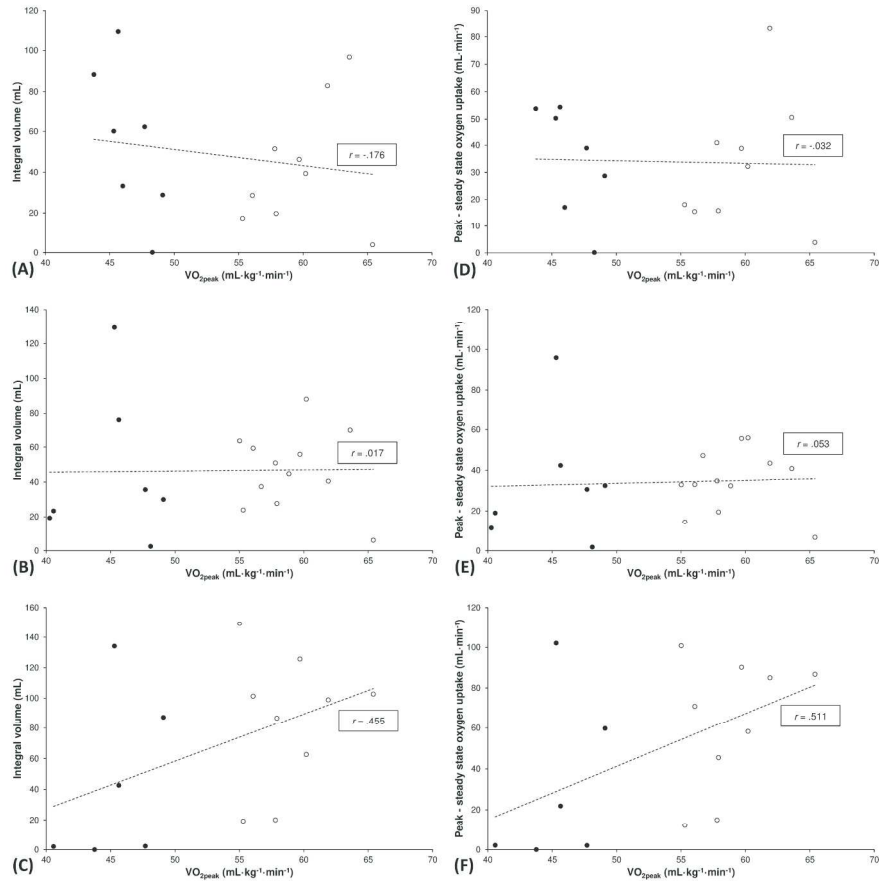


Figure 5. The relationship between the peak rate of oxygen uptake and the size of the VO_2 overshoot during bouts of submaximal exercise performed at three different intensities (70% [A & D], 82.5% [B & E] and 95% [C & F] of the gas exchange threshold). The size of the overshoot was quantified by two different methods (the integral volume [A, B, & C], and the difference between the peak and steady-state VO_2 responses [D, E, & F]). Dashed lines represent lines of best fit. Filled circles (\bullet) represent moderate-fitness individuals ($VO_{2peak} < 50 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$); open circles (\circ) represent high-fitness cyclists ($VO_{2peak} > 55 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$).

210x210mm (300 x 300 DPI)