1	Title: Locomotor muscle fatigue is not critically regulated after prior upper body exercise
2	
3	Authors: Johnson MA ¹ , Sharpe GR ¹ , Williams NC ¹ , Hannah R ²
4	
5	Affiliations: ¹ Sport, Health and Performance Enhancement (SHAPE) Research Group,
6	Department of Sports Science, School of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent
7	University, Nottingham, UK; ² Sobell Department of Motor Neuroscience and Movement
8	Disorders, Institute of Neurology, University College London, London, UK.
9	
10	Author Contributions: M.A.J., N.C.W., G.R.S., and R.H., conception and design of
11	research; M.A.J., N.C.W., and R.H. performed experiments; M.A.J. and R.H. analyzed data;
12	M.A.J., G.R.S., and R.H. interpreted results of experiments; M.A.J. prepared figures; M.A.J.
13	drafted manuscript; M.A.J., G.R.S., and R.H. edited and revised manuscript; M.A.J., N.C.W.,
14	G.R.S., and R.H. approved final version of manuscript.
15	
16	Running head: Prior upper body exercise and locomotor muscle fatigue
17	
18	Corresponding Author:
19	Dr Michael A Johnson, School of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent University,
20	Nottingham, NG11 8NS, UK
21	Telephone: +44 (0)115 8483362
22	Fax: +44 (0)115 8486680
23	E-mail: Michael.johnson@ntu.ac.uk

24 ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of prior upper body exercise on subsequent high-intensity 25 cycling exercise tolerance and associated changes in neuromuscular function and perceptual 26 responses. Eight males performed 3 fixed work-rate (85% peak power) cycling tests: (1) to 27 the limit of tolerance (CYC); (2) to the limit of tolerance after prior high-intensity arm-28 cranking exercise (ARM-CYC); (3) without prior exercise and for an equal duration as ARM-29 CYC (ISOTIME). Peripheral fatigue was assessed via changes in potentiated quadriceps 30 twitch force during supramaximal electrical femoral nerve stimulation. Voluntary activation 31 was assessed using twitch interpolation during maximal voluntary contractions. Cycling time 32 during ARM-CYC and ISOTIME (4.33 ± 1.10 min) was 38% shorter than CYC (7.46 ± 2.79 33 min) (P < 0.001). Twitch force decreased more after CYC (-38 ± 13%) than ARM-CYC (-26 34 \pm 10%) (P = 0.004) and ISOTIME (-24 \pm 10%) (P = 0.003). Voluntary activation was 94 \pm 5% 35 at rest and decreased after CYC ($89 \pm 9\%$, P = 0.012) and ARM-CYC ($91 \pm 8\%$, P = 0.047). 36 Rating of perceived exertion for limb discomfort increased more quickly during cycling in 37 ARM-CYC $(1.83 \pm 0.46 \text{ AU} \cdot \text{min}^{-1})$ than CYC $(1.10 \pm 0.38 \text{ AU} \cdot \text{min}^{-1})$ and 38 ISOTIME (1.05 \pm 0.43 AU·min⁻¹, P = 0.002), and this was correlated with the reduced 39 cycling time in ARM-CYC (r = -0.72, P = 0.045). In conclusion, cycling exercise tolerance 40 after prior upper body exercise is potentially mediated by central fatigue and intolerable 41 42 levels of sensory perception rather than a critical peripheral fatigue limit.

43

44

45

47 INTRODUCTION

A consistent reduction (~35%) in the potentiated quadriceps twitch force is observed 48 after high-intensity cycling (4-6, 66, 73, 79). It is proposed that this reduction represents an 49 "individual critical threshold" of peripheral locomotor muscle fatigue beyond which the 50 degree of associated sensory perception would not be tolerable (3). The observation of similar 51 intramuscular metabolic perturbation at the end of exhaustive exercise irrespective of the 52 53 work-rate (20, 77) supports the notion that it is probably not peripheral fatigue per se that is monitored / regulated but the associated fatigue-inducing biochemical changes within the 54 55 muscle (3). The critical limit of peripheral fatigue observed under "normal" conditions is also unchanged when exercise tolerance is reduced (i.e. the critical limit is reached more quickly) 56 due to moderate hypoxia (F₁O₂ 0.13-0.15) (7, 66), superimposed inspiratory muscle loading 57 (67), volitionally-induced inspiratory or expiratory muscle fatigue (73, 80), prior high-58 intensity cycling exercise (5), and prior electrically-induced quadriceps muscle fatigue (34). 59 Conversely, the degree of peripheral fatigue observed after cycling exercise in severe hypoxia 60 (F_IO₂ 0.10) is about two-thirds of that observed in normoxia, suggesting that the major 61 determinant of exercise tolerance switches from a peripheral to central origin, possibly due to 62 brain hypoxia (8). Individual critical limits to peripheral fatigue are thought to be mediated 63 by thin fiber group III/IV muscle afferents (3, 31), which may influence central motor drive, 64 and thereby exercise tolerance, by providing inhibitory feedback to the central nervous 65 system in response to intramuscular metabolic perturbation (1, 10, 25, 51). However, despite 66 growing support for an important role of peripheral fatigue in determining exercise tolerance, 67 this notion has been challenged (53, 54). Marcora (53) has proposed a psychobiological 68 model of endurance exercise tolerance, which primarily attributes exercise intolerance to a 69 conscious decision to stop exercise due to perception of effort, mediated exclusively by feed-70 forward mechanisms (i.e. corollary discharge), reaching a level that the individual is 71

72 unwilling to tolerate. A pivotal role for the rating of perceived exertion (RPE) in limiting exercise tolerance is also depicted in the 'flush model' proposed by Millet (57). However, 73 this model differs from the psychobiological model because it attributes RPE to both feed-74 75 forward and feedback (i.e. peripheral) mechanisms, thereby also emphasizing the importance of intramuscular metabolic perturbation and peripheral fatigue. The importance of sensory 76 perception in influencing exercise tolerance is also evident in the striking ability of the RPE 77 to predict the tolerable duration of exercise after prior fatiguing exercise (32), and at various 78 exercise intensities (64), muscle glycogen concentrations (59) and ambient temperatures (24). 79 80 Thus the rate of increase in RPE ($\Delta RPE/\Delta time$), and possibly dyspnea ($\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time$), may be considered major contributors to the attainment of a "critical sensory tolerance limit" 81 (35, 57) and subsequent cessation of exercise. 82

Several studies have also shed light on the determinants of exercise tolerance by 83 showing reduced lower body exercise tolerance after prior high-intensity upper body exercise 84 (12, 17, 36, 44, 46, 47, 61). This has been attributed to an accelerated development of 85 86 peripheral locomotor muscle fatigue secondary to faster intramuscular metabolite (i.e. K⁺, H⁺, 87 and La⁻) accumulation resulting from the prior upper body exercise. However, this explanation remains conjecture because peripheral fatigue was not evaluated in these studies. 88 An alternative explanation is that rather than accelerating the development of peripheral 89 fatigue, prior upper body exercise might reduce lower body exercise tolerance by accelerating 90 the attainment of an intolerable level of sensory perception that is mediated, in part, by the 91 ensemble input of group III/IV muscle afferents. Specifically, since group III/IV muscle 92 93 afferent input may remain elevated for up to 15 min after high-intensity upper body exercise (25, 45), the ensemble group III/IV muscle afferent input would be elevated during 94 95 subsequent high-intensity lower body exercise. Subsequently, increases in $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ and/or $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time may reduce exercise tolerance with$ *less*lower body peripheral96

fatigue incurred. This notion is supported by the observation of increased RPE and reduced
exercise tolerance with less peripheral fatigue incurred during single-leg knee extensor
exercise preceded by fatiguing knee extensor exercise using the contralateral leg (10).

100 Therefore, the present study aimed to elucidate the mechanism(s) by which prior 101 high-intensity upper body exercise reduces subsequent leg cycling exercise tolerance. 102 Specifically, we tested the hypothesis that prior upper body exercise reduces subsequent leg 103 cycling exercise tolerance and that this is associated with less peripheral fatigue, but an 104 accelerated rise in $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ and $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time$.

105 METHODS

106 **Participants**

Eight healthy, non-smoking, moderately trained males (age: 26 ± 4 years; height: 182 107 \pm 4 cm; body mass: 83 \pm 4 kg; peak oxygen uptake: 50 \pm 10 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) provided written 108 informed consent to participate in the study. Five of the participants had previously taken part 109 110 in investigations that included assessment of neuromuscular function using the methods 111 described in the present study (38-41). Participants refrained from strenuous exercise and alcohol the day preceding and the day of an exercise test, abstained from caffeine on test 112 days, and reported to the laboratory at least 2 h post-prandial. The study was approved by the 113 Nottingham Trent University Human Ethics Committee, and all procedures were conducted 114 in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. 115

116 Experimental design

117 Participants attended the laboratory on five separate occasions, at a similar time of 118 day, separated by at least 48 h. The initial visit comprised a maximal incremental cycling test 119 for the determination of peak oxygen uptake and peak cycling power (\dot{W}_{peak}). The second 120 visit comprised familiarization with the knee extensor neuromuscular function assessments 121 and arm-cranking protocol. The subsequent three visits comprised the experimental trials. The first two experimental trials were performed in a randomized order and comprised a 122 fixed work-rate cycling test at 85% \dot{W}_{peak} , and exercise was performed to the limit of 123 tolerance. These two cycling tests were performed without (hereafter termed CYC) and with 124 (hereafter termed ARM-CYC) prior high-intensity arm-cranking exercise. For the third 125 experimental trial, the CYC protocol was repeated except that the cycling test was terminated 126 after an identical duration to that achieved during ARM-CYC (hereafter termed ISOTIME). 127 128 Knee extensor force and surface electromyographic (EMG) signals were recorded during a series of electrically-evoked and voluntary isometric contractions of the dominant leg to 129 quantify the presence and magnitude of central and peripheral locomotor muscle fatigue. For 130 131 an illustration of the protocol for the experimental trials please refer to Figure 1.

132 Neuromuscular Function

Dynamometer Participants were seated in a rigid, custom built dynamometer adapted from 133 Hannah et al. (40), with hip and knee joint angles of 100° and 95° (180° = full extension) 134 respectively. Adjustable strapping across the pelvis and shoulders prevented extraneous 135 movement during muscle activation. A non-compliant strap was attached to the dominant leg 136 of the participant ~2 cm proximal to the medial malleolus and was in series with a linear 137 strain gauge (615, Tedea-Huntleigh, Herzliya, Israel) oriented perpendicular to the tibia. The 138 139 dynamometer configuration was established during the familiarization session and replicated thereafter. The force signal was amplified (×1000) in the frequency range 0-500 Hz, and 140 sampled at 2000 Hz using an external A/D converter (1401; CED, Cambridge, UK) 141 142 interfaced with a personal computer using Spike 2 software (CED). Force data were low-pass filtered in both directions at 450 Hz using a fourth-order zero-lag Butterworth filter prior to 143 analysis. Baseline resting force was subtracted from all force recordings to correct for the 144 effect of gravity. 145

146 *Electromyography* EMG signals were recorded from the superficial quadriceps (rectus femoris, vastus medialis, and vastus lateralis) and hamstring (biceps femoris) muscles, as 147 described previously (40). After preparation of the skin by shaving, light abrasion, and 148 149 cleaning with alcohol, bipolar surface electrodes (2.5 cm inter-electrode distance; silver/silver chloride, 95 mm² area, Ambu Blue Sensor; Ambu, Ballerup, Denmark) were attached over 150 each muscle at standardized percentages of thigh length measured from the knee joint space 151 152 to the greater trochanter (rectus femoris, 55%; vastus medialis, 25%; vastus lateralis and biceps femoris, 45%). These sites were selected to avoid the innervation zones of each 153 154 muscle (65). Electrodes were positioned parallel to the presumed orientation of the muscle fibers. EMG signals were pre-amplified by active EMG leads (input impedance 100 M Ω , 155 common mode rejection ratio > 100 dB, base gain 500, 1st order high pass filter set to 10 Hz; 156 157 Noraxon, Scottsdale, USA) connected in series to a custom-built junction box and subsequently to the same A/D converter and computer software that enabled synchronization 158 with the force data. The signals were sampled at 2000 Hz. Prior to analysis EMG data were 159 band-pass filtered in both directions between 20 and 450 Hz using a fourth-order zero-lag 160 Butterworth filter (26, 27, 55). 161

Electrical stimulation Equipment and procedures for electrical stimulation have been 162 described previously (41). A constant current variable voltage stimulator (DS7AH; Digitimer 163 Ltd, Welwyn Garden City, UK) was used to assess knee extensor contractile properties whilst 164 165 the participant was voluntarily passive. Square-wave pulses (0.2 ms duration) were delivered via supramaximal femoral nerve stimulation to evoke maximal potentiated twitch and triplet 166 (3 pulses at 300 Hz) contractions (24, 41). Stimulation of the femoral nerve was achieved via 167 168 a 1 cm diameter cathode stimulation probe (Electro Medical Supplies, Wantage, UK) pressed into the femoral triangle. The surface of the anode, a 4×7 cm carbon rubber electrode 169 (Electro Medical Supplies), was coated in electrode gel and located over the greater 170

trochanter. The precise location of the cathode was determined as the position that evoked the
greatest twitch response for a particular submaximal electrical current (typically 30–50 mA),
and was marked on the skin using indelible ink to ensure accurate repositioning within each
trial.

Procedure Initially discrete electrical stimuli were delivered via percutaneous stimulation of 175 the femoral nerve in the femoral triangle to elicit twitch contractions of the quadriceps. 176 Stepwise increments in the current were delivered, separated by 10 s to allow for 177 neuromuscular recovery, until plateaus were reached in the amplitude of twitch force and 178 179 compound muscle action potentials (M-waves). The stimulus intensity was then increased by 25% above the value required to elicit a plateau to ensure supramaximal stimulation. 180 Participants subsequently performed sub-maximal warm-up contractions of the knee 181 182 extensors, lasting ~3 s and interspersed by ~30 s rest, at ~50, 75 and 90% of their perceived maximal force. Thereafter, and following baseline measurements for heart rate and $[La]_B$, 183 participants performed four maximum voluntary contractions (MVCs) lasting 3-4 s and 184 interspersed by ~30 s rest. Participants were instructed to extend the knee "as hard and as fast 185 as possible". During and after each contraction participants received strong verbal 186 encouragement. Online feedback of the force signal was provided and a marker showing 187 maximum force during that session was displayed onscreen in order to assist participants in 188 attempting to maintain a high and stable force level. Each MVC was followed within 1-2 s by 189 190 two supramaximal electrical stimuli, separated by 1 s, delivered to the femoral nerve to elicit maximal potentiated twitches (49). Single electrically-evoked triplet contractions (3 191 supramaximal stimuli delivered at 300 Hz) were superimposed on the 3rd and 4th MVC, and at 192 rest ~1-2 s after the two potentiated twitch contractions (29, 48). Triplets were used in the 193 calculation of voluntary activation (see below), because the detection of single superimposed 194 twitches becomes increasingly difficult at high forces as a result of the decreasing signal-to-195

noise ratio. This may lead to the erroneous conclusion that voluntary activation is maximal
(i.e. 100%). Consequently, some studies have suggested the use of multiple stimuli (48, 63,
72). Furthermore, triplets may offer advantages over potentiated twitches as an indicator of
peripheral fatigue since pilot data from our lab and that of de Haan (28, 29) has found the
force evoked by 300 Hz bursts (3-8 pulses) to be insensitive to potentiation, and because they
evoke much greater force than potentiated twitches they may better reflect the functional
changes observed during maximal voluntary contractions.

The maximum voluntary force (MVF) of the quadriceps was defined as the greatest 203 instantaneous force produced during the relevant series of MVCs. The root mean square 204 (RMS) amplitude of the EMG signal for each agonist muscle (vastus medialis, vastus lateralis 205 and rectus femoris) was calculated over a 500 ms epoch surrounding MVF (250 ms either 206 side) (19). Agonist EMG RMS values were averaged to calculate a mean quadriceps 207 208 (QEMG_{max}) value and normalized to the peak-to-peak amplitude of the M-wave (see below) to provide a measure of neuromuscular activation. Potentiated twitches were measured for 209 210 peak force and the amplitude of M-wave response for the three quadriceps electrodes, which were then averaged across the three sites to provide a mean quadriceps value. Mean 211 quadriceps M-wave amplitude and potentiated peak twitch force were averaged across the 212 latter four twitch contractions (i.e. after the 3rd and 4th MVC) within each time period because 213 it typically takes three MVC's to fully potentiate twitches (49). The mean quadriceps M-wave 214 amplitude across the four potentiated twitches was defined as the maximal M-wave amplitude 215 (M_{max}) and was used for normalization of voluntary quadriceps EMG RMS (19). Measures of 216 triplet peak force were averaged across the two contractions within each time period. To 217 evaluate the presence and magnitude of central fatigue voluntary activation was evaluated for 218 the 3rd and 4th MVC using the formula for the twitch interpolation technique (56) as described 219 previously (29, 48): 220

where the triplet force increment refers to that produced by superimposed triplet stimulation.
The highest voluntary activation of the two MVCs was retained for analysis. Assessment of
neuromuscular function (from the first MVC to the last triplet) took ~2 min.

Voluntary activation (%) = $100 - [(triplet force increment / resting triplet force) \times 100]$

225

221

Maximal incremental cycling test

Participants initially performed a maximal incremental cycling test using an 226 electromagnetically-braked cycle ergometer (Excalibur Sport; Lode, Groningen, The 227 228 Netherlands). Tests began at 0 W and power was increased by discrete 20 W increments every 60 s and exercise was performed to the limit of volitional tolerance or task failure (i.e. 229 cycling cadence below 60 rpm) (46). Participants wore a facemask (model 7940; Hans 230 Rudolph, Missouri, USA) connected to a flow sensor (ZAN variable orifice pneumotach; 231 Nspire Health, Oberthulba, Germany) that was calibrated using a 3 L syringe. Gas 232 concentrations were measured using fast responding laser diode absorption spectroscopy 233 sensors, which were calibrated using gases of known concentration (5% CO₂, 15% O₂, 234 235 balance N₂; BOC, Guilford, UK), and ventilatory and pulmonary gas exchange variables were 236 measured breath-by-breath (ZAN 600USB; Nspire Health) as described previously (46). Peak oxygen uptake was defined as the highest recorded value over any 30 s period, and \dot{W}_{peak} was 237 calculated as the sum of the power output in the last completed stage plus the product of ramp 238 increment (20 W) and the fraction of the final stage actually completed. 239

240 Experimental trials

During the experimental trials (CYC, ARM-CYC, and ISOTIME) heart rate was measured using short-range telemetry (Polar S610; Polar, Kempele, Finland) and fingertip capillary blood samples were taken and analyzed for blood lactate concentration ([La⁻]_B)
using an automated analyzer (Biosen C_line Sport; EKF Diagnostics, Barleben, Germany).

An illustration of the timing of measurements taken during the experimental trials is shown in Figure 1. Each experimental trial comprised a fixed work-rate cycling test at 85% \dot{W}_{peak} preceded by a standardized 23.5 min period. During the first 6 min of this period baseline measures of heart rate, [La⁻]_B, and neuromuscular function were taken.

After baseline measurements, participants remained seated in the dynamometer and 249 then either rested (CYC and ISOTIME) or performed intense intermittent arm-cranking 250 exercise (ARM-CYC) using an electromagnetically-braked arm-cranking ergometer (Angio; 251 Lode). The arm-cranking protocol comprised 8×1 min arm-cranking bouts, interspersed with 252 30 s rest, at a fixed work-rate of 1.0-1.5 W·kg⁻¹ body mass (mean: 1.2 ± 0.2 W·kg⁻¹ body 253 mass, 100 ± 15 W) (46). As in our previous study (46), the arm-cranking work-rate for each 254 individual was selected based on their habitual upper body exercise regimen. This work-rate 255 was trialed during the familiarization session and, based on successful completion by all 256 participants, was deemed suitable for subsequent testing. Cadence was maintained between 257 90-110 rpm. Heart rate was measured at the end of each arm-cranking bout during ARM-258 259 CYC, and [La⁻]_B was also measured after the final arm-cranking bout. These measurements 260 were taken at equivalent time points whilst participants rested during CYC and ISOTIME. 261 Quadriceps and hamstring muscle EMG was recorded throughout the arm-cranking protocol and displayed online with a high gain to aid visual detection of EMG activity. Participants 262 received verbal feedback regarding EMG activity in order to ensure minimal activation of the 263 leg muscles. 264

Arm-cranking (ARM-CYC) or seated rest (CYC and ISOTIME) was followed by another 6 min period before the start of the fixed work-rate cycling test. During this period

measures of neuromuscular function were taken and participants then transferred to the cycle ergometer (positioned ~2 m from the dynamometer). Immediately before the start of the cycling test heart rate and $[La^-]_B$ were measured along with dyspnea (defined as breathing "effort") and RPE for leg discomfort using Borg's modified CR10 scale (18).

Participants adopted a self-selected cadence between 80-100 rpm during the first 271 cycling test and this was replicated during subsequent tests. Quadriceps and hamstring 272 273 muscle EMG was synchronized with the cycle ergometer crank position via a reed switch attached to the crank and ergometer. The RMS amplitude of the EMG signal of the 274 275 quadriceps muscle was measured at the start and end of each minute during each armcranking exercise bout and normalized to QEMG_{max} to quantify quadriceps neuromuscular 276 activation. EMG RMS amplitude of the quadriceps and hamstring muscles was also measured 277 over 10 consecutive pedal revolutions at the end of the first, third and final minute of cycling 278 exercise and normalized to M_{max} (quadriceps only) to quantify changes in neuromuscular 279 280 activation during cycling. Onsets and offsets of EMG bursts were determined visually by the same investigator according to a previously published method (22, 23). Threshold methods 281 for determining EMG onsets and offsets are sensitive to changes in background EMG (42) 282 283 and are unsuitable for this type of analysis because bursts of EMG activity occur with background activity already present in the muscles and the amplitude of background activity 284 varies between muscles (22, 23). Heart rate, RPE and dyspnea were measured after 3 min of 285 286 cycling. During CYC and ARM-CYC, cycling exercise was performed to the limit of volitional tolerance. An additional criterion for terminating a cycling test was a fall in 287 cadence below 60 rpm. During ISOTIME, cycling exercise was terminated by the 288 investigators after an identical duration to that achieved during ARM-CYC. 289

Upon cessation of cycling exercise heart rate, $[La^-]_B$, RPE and dyspnea were measured immediately and participants were assisted to the dynamometer for neuromuscular function evaluation with the first MVC initiated after 2 min (\pm 9 s).

293 Statistical analyses

Data were analyzed using SPSS for Windows (IBM, Chicago, IL). Trial-to-trial 294 variation in baseline neuromuscular function was calculated as the within-participant 295 coefficient of variation (CV). Measurement error and reproducibility of baseline 296 neuromuscular function were calculated, and the smallest meaningful change was 297 298 subsequently determined (16, 43). A one-way repeated measures ANOVA followed by 299 Tukey's post-hoc test was used to analyze differences between trials for cycling exercise duration and rates of change in perceptual responses expressed relative to absolute exercise 300 time ($\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ and $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time$) and when normalized to total cycling exercise 301 duration (ΔRPE /%time and $\Delta dyspnea$ /%time). All other data were analyzed using a two-way 302 $(trial \times time)$ repeated measures ANOVA. Significant interactions were further explored by 303 304 performing one-way repeated measures ANOVA: (i) within each trial, and (ii) across trials at individual time-points, followed by Tukey's post-hoc test. When differences were observed 305 within or between trials, 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the difference were calculated (2). 306 Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between selected 307 variables. Statistical significance was set at P < 0.05. Results are presented as mean \pm SD. 308

309 **RESULTS**

310 Cycling exercise tolerance

There was an effect of trial on cycling exercise duration at 85% \dot{W}_{peak} (273 ± 26 W) [F(2,14) = 16.8, P < 0.001], which was, as expected, identical (4.33 ± 1.10 min) during ARM-CYC and ISOTIME and $38 \pm 17\%$ shorter than CYC (7.46 ± 2.79 min) (mean difference = 3.13 ± 2.15 min, 95% CI = 1.50 to 4.75 min, *P* < 0.001). Cycling cadence at the termination of cycling exercise in CYC (68 ± 6 rpm, range: 61-78 rpm), ARM-CYC (66 ± 5 rpm, range: 60-74 rpm) and ISOTIME (92 ± 10 rpm, range: 85-104 rpm) was always ≥60 rpm. Therefore, cycling exercise during CYC and ARM-CYC was always performed to the limit of volitional tolerance rather than being terminated by the investigators.

319 Neuromuscular function

Baseline measures of neuromuscular function are shown in Table 1 and these were highly reproducible between trials. Raw traces of force from a representative participant at baseline performing a MVC with superimposed triplet, followed by twitch and triplet contractions, are shown in Figure 2. In all trials measures of neuromuscular function were unchanged from baseline to pre-cycling (data not shown). Thus arm-cranking *per se* did not result in central or peripheral locomotor muscle fatigue.

For MVF, there was a trial \times time interaction [F(4,28) = 6.2, P < 0.001] and an effect 326 of time in CYC [F(2,14) = 14.3, P < 0.001], ARM-CYC [F(2,14) = 11.5, P = 0.001] and 327 ISOTIME [F(2,14) = 8.5, P = 0.003]. MVF decreased from baseline to post-cycling in CYC 328 (mean difference = 95 ± 70 N, 95% CI = 45 to 145 N, P < 0.001), ARM-CYC (mean 329 difference = 56 ± 39 N, 95% CI = 22 to 89 N, P = 0.002) and ISOTIME (mean difference = 330 49 ± 48 N, 95% CI = 13 to 85 N, P = 0.008). Furthermore, there was an effect of trial on the 331 decrease in MVF [F(2,14) = 8.3, P = 0.004], which was greater in CYC than ARM-CYC 332 (mean difference = 39 ± 38 N, 95% CI = 7 to 71 N, P = 0.02) and ISOTIME (mean difference 333 $= 46 \pm 43$ N, 95% CI = 14 to 78 N, P = 0.005) (Fig. 3A). 334

For voluntary activation, there was a trial \times time interaction [F(4,28) = 3.8, P = 0.013] 335 and an effect of time in CYC [F(2,14) = 8.0, P = 0.005] and ARM-CYC [F(2,14) = 4.7, P = 0.005]336 337 0.027], but not ISOTIME [F(2,14) = 0.8, P = 0.46]. Voluntary activation decreased from baseline (see Table 1) to post-cycling in CYC ($89 \pm 9\%$, mean difference = $5.0 \pm 4.8\%$, 95%338 CI = 1.4 to 8.7%, P = 0.012) and ARM-CYC (91 ± 8%, mean difference = $3.8 \pm 4.7\%$, 95% 339 CI = 0.1 to 7.4%, P = 0.047). Furthermore, there was an effect of trial on the decrease in 340 voluntary activation [F(2,14) = 5.2, P = 0.021], which was greater in CYC than ISOTIME 341 (mean difference = $4.4 \pm 4.9\%$, 95% CI = 0.7 to 8.0%, P = 0.019) (Fig. 3B). 342

For potentiated twitch force, there was a trial \times time interaction [F(4,28) = 8.8, P < 343 0.001] and an effect of time in CYC [F(2,14) = 49.4, P < 0.001], ARM-CYC [F(2,14) = 48.3, 344 P < 0.001], and ISOTIME [F(2,14) = 22.7, P < 0.001]. Potentiated twitch force decreased 345 from baseline to post-cycling in CYC (mean difference = 77 ± 30 N, 95% CI = 55 to 98 N, P 346 < 0.001), ARM-CYC (mean difference = 52 ± 21 N, 95% CI = 38 to 66 N, P < 0.001) and 347 348 ISOTIME (mean difference = 50 ± 24 N, 95% CI = 30 to 70 N, P < 0.001). Furthermore, there was an effect of trial on the decrease in potentiated twitch force [F(2,14) = 10.9, P =349 350 0.001], which was greater in CYC than ARM-CYC (mean difference = 25 ± 17 N, 95% CI = 351 8 to 41 N, P = 0.004) and ISOTIME (mean difference = 27 ± 22 N, 95% CI = 10 to 43 N, P =0.003) (Fig. 3C). 352

For potentiated triplet force, there was a trial × time interaction [F(4,28) = 9.1, P < 0.001] and an effect of time in CYC [F(2,14) = 11.1, P = 0.001], ARM-CYC [F(2,14) = 5.4, P = 0.018], and ISOTIME [F(2,14) = 7.2, P = 0.007]. Potentiated triplet force decreased from baseline to post-cycling in CYC (mean difference = 63 ± 50 N, 95% CI = 26 to 100 N, P = 0.001), ARM-CYC (mean difference = 37 ± 40 N, 95% CI = 7 to 66 N, P = 0.014) and ISOTIME (mean difference = 31 ± 26 N, 95% CI = 9 to 52 N, P < 0.001). Furthermore, there was an effect of trial on the decrease in potentiated triplet force [F(2,14) = 9.0, P = 0.003], which was greater in CYC than ARM-CYC (mean difference = 27 ± 18 N, 95% CI = 5 to 48 N, P = 0.015) and ISOTIME (mean difference = 33 ± 28 N, 95% CI = 11 to 54 N, P = 0.004). (Fig. 3D).

363 Quadriceps M_{max} and neuromuscular activation (i.e. RMS EMG normalized to M_{max})
 364 at MVF remained unchanged in all trials.

365 Leg muscle EMG during cycling

Quadriceps EMG RMS during arm-cranking was $\leq 3\%$ of the QEMG_{max} during an 366 MVC (data not shown), thus demonstrating minimal leg activation. For quadriceps 367 neuromuscular activation (EMG RMS normalized to M_{max}) during cycling, there was a trial \times 368 369 time interaction [F(4,28) = 6.1, P = 0.001] and an effect of time in CYC $[F(2,14) = 36.3, P < 10^{-1}]$ 0.001], ARM-CYC [F(2,14) = 11.6, P = 0.001] and ISOTIME [F(2,14) = 36.3, P = 0.012]. 370 There was also an effect of trial on neuromuscular activation in the final minute of cycling 371 [F(2,14) = 6.2, P = 0.012], which was greater in CYC than ARM-CYC (mean difference = 372 0.76 ± 0.84 %M_{max}, 95% CI = 0.03 to 1.5 %M_{max}, P = 0.040) and ISOTIME (mean difference 373 $= 0.91 \pm 0.87$ %M_{max}, 95% CI = 0.18 to 1.64 %M_{max}, P = 0.014). (Fig. 4). The absolute 374 hamstrings EMG RMS remained constant during cycling and was not different between trials 375 (pooled data: 0.08 ± 0.05 mV). 376

377 Heart rate and blood lactate concentration

For heart rate, there was a trial × time interaction [F(24,168) = 81.7, P < 0.001] and an effect of trial on the mean of the eight heart rate measurements taken during the 11.5 min period of arm-cranking in ARM-CYC or seated rest in CYC and ISOTIME (see Fig. 1) [F(2,24) = 144.3, P < 0.001]. The mean heart rate during this period was higher in ARM-

CYC (153 \pm 19 bpm) than CYC (72 \pm 14 bpm) (mean difference = 81 \pm 20 bpm, 95% CI = 382 67 to 96 bpm, P < 0.001) and ISOTIME (73 ± 11 bpm) (mean difference = 80 ± 16 bpm, 95%) 383 CI = 66 to 95 bpm, P < 0.001). There was also an effect of trial on heart rate measured pre-384 cycling [F(2,14) = 21.7, P < 0.001], after 3 min of cycling [F(2,14) = 17.8, P < 0.001], and 385 post-cycling [F(2,14) = 12.3, P < 0.001]. Pre-cycling, heart rate was higher in ARM-CYC 386 than CYC (mean difference = 34 ± 21 bpm, 95% CI = 18 to 49 bpm, P < 0.001) and 387 ISOTIME (mean difference = 34 ± 15 bpm, 95% CI = 18 to 49 bpm, P < 0.001). After 3 min 388 of cycling, heart rate was higher in ARM-CYC than CYC and ISOTIME (mean difference 389 from both trials = 10 ± 6 bpm, 95% CI = 5 to 15 bpm, P < 0.001). Post-cycling, heart rate 390 was lower in ISOTIME than CYC (mean difference = 10 ± 6 bpm, 95% CI = 3 to 16 bpm, P 391 = 0.005) and ARM-CYC (mean difference $= 12 \pm 8$ bpm, 95% CI = 5 to 18 bpm, P = 0.001) 392 (Fig. 5A). 393

For [La]_B, there was a trial × time interaction [F(6,42) = 79.7, P < 0.001] and an 394 effect of trial on [La⁻]_B measured immediately after the period of arm-cranking in ARM-CYC 395 or seated rest in CYC and ISOTIME [F(2,14) = 167.2, P < 0.001]. Immediately after this 396 397 period, [La⁻]_B was higher in ARM-CYC than CYC and ISOTIME (mean difference from both trials = $10.3 \pm 2.2 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, 95% CI = 8.6 to 12.0 mmol $\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, P < 0.001). There was also an 398 effect of trial on [La⁻]_B measured pre-cycling [F(2,14) = 158.2, P < 0.001], which was higher 399 in ARM-CYC than CYC (mean difference = $8.5 \pm 2.0 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, 95% CI = 7.0 to 10.0 400 mmol·L⁻¹, P < 0.001) and ISOTIME (mean difference = $8.6 \pm 1.8 \text{ mmol·L}^{-1}$, 95% CI = 7.2 to 401 10.1 mmol·L⁻¹, P < 0.001). Furthermore, there was an effect of trial on [La⁻]_B measured post-402 cycling [F(2,14) = 31.9, P < 0.001], which was higher in ARM-CYC than CYC (mean 403 difference = $2.3 \pm 1.0 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, 95% CI = 0.8 to 3.9 mmol $\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, P = 0.003) and ISOTIME 404 (mean difference = $4.6 \pm 1.8 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, 95% CI = 3.1 to 6.1 mmol $\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, P < 0.001). Post-405

406 cycling, $[La^-]_B$ was also higher in CYC than ISOTIME (mean difference = $2.3 \pm 2.0 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, 407 95% CI = 0.8 to 3.8 mmol·L⁻¹, P = 0.004) (Fig. 5B).

408 Rating of perceived exertion and dyspnea

There was a trial \times time interaction for RPE [F(4,28) = 14.7, P < 0.001] and an effect 409 of trial on RPE measured after 3 min of cycling [F(2,14) = 11.7, P = 0.001], which was 410 higher in ARM-CYC than CYC (mean difference = 2.4 ± 1.7 AU, 95% CI = 1.0 to 3.9 AU, P 411 = 0.002) and ISOTIME (mean difference = 2.3 ± 1.9 AU, 95% CI = 0.8 to 3.8 AU, P = 412 0.003). There was also an effect of trial on RPE measured post-cycling [F(2,14) = 18.4, P < 10.003]413 414 0.001], which was lower in ISOTIME than CYC (mean difference = 3.3 ± 1.9 AU, 95% CI = 1.4 to 5.2 AU, P = 0.001) and ARM-CYC (mean difference = 4.1 ± 2.6 AU, 95% CI = 2.2 to 415 416 5.9 AU, *P* < 0.001) (Fig. 6A).

There was a trial \times time interaction for dyspnea [F(4,28) = 5.8, P < 0.001] and an 417 effect of trial on dyspnea measured after 3 min of cycling [F(2,14) = 16.3, P < 0.001], which 418 was higher in ARM-CYC than CYC (mean difference = 1.9 ± 1.4 AU, 95% CI = 0.9 to 3.0 419 AU, P < 0.001) and ISOTIME (mean difference = 2.1 ± 1.1 AU, 95% CI = 1.0 to 3.2 AU, P < 0.001) 420 0.001). There was also a main effect of trial on dyspnea measured post-cycling [F(2,14) =421 422 11.8, P = 0.001], which was lower in ISOTIME than CYC (mean difference = 2.8 ± 2.4 AU, 95% CI = 0.9 to 4.6 AU, P = 0.004) and ARM-CYC (mean difference = 3.1 ± 2.6 AU, 95% 423 CI = 1.3 to 5.0 AU, *P* = 0.002) (Fig. 6B). 424

There was an effect of trial on $\Delta RPE/\Delta time [F(2,14) = 11.7, P = 0.001]$, which was higher in ARM-CYC than CYC (mean difference = 0.72 ± 0.63 AU·min⁻¹, 95% CI = 0.25 to 1.21 AU·min⁻¹, P = 0.003) and ISOTIME (mean difference = 0.79 ± 0.55 AU·min⁻¹, 95% CI = 0.31 to 1.27 AU·min⁻¹, P = 0.002) (Table 2). There was also an effect of trial on 429 Δ dyspnea/ Δ time [F(2,14) = 4.5, P = 0.031], which was higher in ARM-CYC than ISOTIME 430 (mean difference = 0.46 ± 0.58 AU·min⁻¹, 95% CI = 0.02 to 0.90 AU·min⁻¹, P = 0.038) (Table 431 2).

There was an effect of trial on $\Delta RPE/\Delta\%$ time [F(2,14) = 19.1, P < 0.001] (Fig. 6C 432 and Table 2), which was lower in ISOTIME than CYC (mean difference = 0.03 ± 0.01 433 AU.%time⁻¹, 95% CI = 0.01 to 0.05 AU.%time⁻¹, P < 0.001) and ARM-CYC (mean 434 difference = 0.04 ± 0.02 AU·%time⁻¹, 95% CI = 0.02 to 0.05 AU·%time⁻¹, P < 0.001). There 435 436 was also an effect of trial on $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta\%$ time [F(2,14) = 7.5, P = 0.006] (Fig. 6D and Table 2), which was lower in ISOTIME than CYC (mean difference = 0.03 ± 0.01 AU·% time⁻¹, 95% 437 CI = 0.01 to 0.05 AU·% time⁻¹, P = 0.006) and ARM-CYC (mean difference = 0.02 ± 0.01 438 AU·% time⁻¹, 95% CI = 0.001 to 0.04 AU·% time⁻¹, P = 0.036). 439

When data from CYC and ARM-CYC were pooled, $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ was negatively correlated with the time to the limit of cycling exercise tolerance (r = -0.74, P = 0.001). Furthermore, the reduction in cycling exercise tolerance during ARM-CYC compared with CYC was negatively correlated with the increases in $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ (r = -0.72, P = 0.045) and $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time$ (r = -0.80, P = 0.018).

445 **DISCUSSION**

The present study examined the effects of prior high-intensity upper body exercise on subsequent high-intensity leg cycling exercise tolerance and associated changes in neuromuscular function and perceptual responses. Our main findings were threefold: (I) prior upper body exercise in ARM-CYC reduced subsequent cycling exercise tolerance by 38%; (II) the reduced cycling exercise tolerance in ARM-CYC was associated with less peripheral muscle fatigue incurred but a similar reduction in voluntary activation compared with CYC; and (III) the reduced cycling exercise tolerance in ARM-CYC was related to increases in $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ and $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time$. These findings suggest that exercise tolerance is not regulated by a critical level of peripheral fatigue. Instead, central fatigue and an exacerbation of perceptual responses are the potential mechanisms underlying the reduced cycling exercise tolerance after prior upper body exercise.

457 We recently showed that high-intensity cycling exercise tolerance was reduced by a 458 strikingly similar extent after an identical upper body exercise protocol (46). Several authors suggest that reduced lower limb exercise tolerance after prior upper body exercise occurs 459 because of accelerated development of peripheral fatigue caused by greater intramuscular 460 461 metabolic perturbation (12, 17, 36, 44, 46, 61). This notion is supported, indirectly, by the observation that prior high-intensity upper body exercise elevated leg muscle [La⁻] and [H⁺] 462 at the onset of isolated knee extensor exercise (11, 12), accelerated the exercise-induced 463 increase in interstitial [K⁺] (61), and reduced exercise tolerance (12, 61). However, although 464 such metabolite accumulation has been implicated in the etiology of peripheral fatigue (21, 465 466 33), previous prior upper body exercise studies did not measure peripheral fatigue or neuromuscular activation. Comparisons of our work with isolated knee extensor exercise 467 studies are also complicated by the task-specificity of fatigue etiology (13, 74). Two 468 observations from the present study suggest that peripheral fatigue during cycling exercise 469 was not accelerated by prior upper body exercise. Firstly, the extent of peripheral fatigue in 470 ARM-CYC and ISOTIME was the same even though there was considerable systemic 471 metabolic perturbation in ARM-CYC. Indeed, in our previous study the same upper body 472 exercise protocol reduced the strong ion difference by 15%, increased plasma [H⁺] by 33%, 473 reduced $[HCO_{2}]$ by 29%, and accelerated the increase in plasma $[K^{+}]$ during subsequent 474 475 cycling exercise by 56% (46). Secondly, if peripheral fatigue during cycling exercise was accelerated this would be expected to result in greater neuromuscular activation (i.e. 476

increased motor unit recruitment and/or firing frequency) to compensate for the reduced force
generating capacity (14, 30); however, this was not observed. Collectively, these observations
therefore suggest that systemic metabolite perturbation plays a minor role in peripheral
fatigue generation.

Our findings contrast previous cycling exercise studies in which moderate hypoxia (7, 481 66), superimposed inspiratory muscle loading (67), volitionally-induced inspiratory or 482 expiratory muscle fatigue (73, 80), prior high-intensity cycling exercise (5), and prior 483 electrically-induced quadriceps muscle fatigue (34), reduced exercise tolerance but resulted 484 in the same degree of peripheral fatigue incurred compared with control conditions. These 485 486 observations are taken as evidence for inhibitory group III/IV muscle afferent feedback to the central nervous system regulating central motor drive to confine the development of 487 peripheral fatigue to a critical threshold (3, 31). However, although the 38% reduction in 488 twitch force after CYC is comparable to the proposed critical threshold of peripheral fatigue 489 previously reported after high-intensity fixed work-rate cycling exercise (4, 5, 66, 73, 80), 490 491 this degree of peripheral fatigue was not reached during ARM-CYC (26% reduction in twitch 492 force). This finding is similar to the observation of less peripheral fatigue incurred after highintensity cycling exercise in severe hypoxia (F_IO_2 0.10) compared with normoxia (8). The 493 notion that peripheral fatigue is not critically regulated is also supported by two recent 494 isolated muscle studies: Rossman et al. (68) observed greater quadriceps muscle fatigue 495 during single-leg compared with double-leg knee extensor exercise, whereas Amann et al. (10) 496 observed less quadriceps muscle fatigue during single-leg knee extensor exercise after 497 fatiguing knee extensor exercise with the contralateral leg. The present study thus extends 498 these observations to whole-body exercise by providing novel evidence that peripheral 499 500 fatigue is not independently regulated during high-intensity fixed work-rate cycling exercise to volitional tolerance. 501

502 Whether peripheral fatigue plays an important role in governing exercise tolerance remains controversial (9, 53, 54, 60). Consistent with previous observations (5, 7, 54, 71, 75), 503 submaximal quadriceps muscle recruitment was observed at the limit of exercise tolerance in 504 CYC and ARM-CYC (~55% and 50%, respectively, of the QEMG_{max}) and Noakes (58) 505 argues that this negates peripheral fatigue as the single limiting factor to exercise tolerance. 506 Furthermore, Decorte et al. (30) have shown that peripheral fatigue during cycling exercise at 507 80% W_{peak} develops mostly during the first half of the test, such that the limit of tolerance 508 509 approaches without further peripheral fatigue, but with a significant reduction in voluntary activation. The similar reduction in voluntary activation after CYC and ARM-CYC indicates 510 that central fatigue developed more quickly in ARM-CYC, possibly due to a 'spill-over' of 511 512 central fatigue from the exercised upper body muscles to the leg locomotor muscles. In support, it was recently demonstrated that fatiguing leg cycling exercise resulted in a 'spill-513 over' of central fatigue (i.e. reduced voluntary activation) to the remote unexercised elbow 514 flexors (69). This effect was attributed to inhibitory group III/IV muscle afferent feedback 515 originating in fatigued leg muscle since attenuating this feedback using intrathecal fentanyl 516 517 abolished the decline in voluntary activation of the elbow flexors. Whether a fall in voluntary activation limits cycling exercise that is characterized by submaximal muscle contractions 518 remains uncertain (74). However, it is also recognized that a limiting influence of central 519 fatigue on exercise tolerance may be manifest by changes in sensory perception (57, 74). 520

The conscious perception of fatigue is thought to reflect the complex integration and interpretation of central motor drive and an associated corollary discharge, somatosensory feedback (4, 50, 70, 78), and cognitive functions such as motivation and emotional state (70). After 3 min of cycling, RPE for leg discomfort was greater in ARM-CYC compared with CYC and ISOTIME despite similar levels of quadriceps neuromuscular activation, which supports observations made during single-leg knee extensor exercise after fatiguing knee 527 extensor exercise with the contralateral leg (10). Furthermore, at the end of cycling, RPE was greater in ARM-CYC compared with ISOTIME despite similar levels of peripheral fatigue 528 incurred, whereas RPE was similar at the end of cycling in CYC and ARM-CYC despite less 529 530 peripheral fatigue incurred during ARM-CYC. Collectively, our findings suggest that the perception of leg discomfort during cycling exercise does not exclusively reflect the extent of 531 quadriceps neuromuscular activation or degree of peripheral fatigue incurred. Similar 532 observations have been made in COPD patients who sometimes stop exercise because of leg 533 discomfort and in the absence of quadriceps muscle fatigue (52). These observations suggest 534 535 that the conscious perception of leg discomfort likely reflects a complex interplay between multiple factors other than peripheral fatigue and neuromuscular activation (70). Minute 536 ventilation was not measured in the present study and thus it cannot be ruled out that the 537 538 greater Δ dyspnea/ Δ time during ARM-CYC resulted, in part, from a greater ventilatory 539 response (10). However, afferents involved in the perception of dyspnea and limb discomfort project to the same sensorimotor brain areas (62) and, therefore, a heightened level of one 540 541 perception may potentiate the other. In support, quadriceps fatigue induced by sustained contractions increased dyspnea during a subsequent inspiratory loaded breathing challenge 542 without affecting breathing pattern or pleural pressure swings (37). Thus although we could 543 not elucidate the precise causative mechanism(s), we propose that the greater $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ 544 and Adyspnea/Atime during ARM-CYC reflects, in part, greater ensemble group III/IV 545 546 afferent projections to integrated sensorimotor brain structures due to cycling commencing with pre-existing afferent input originating from the previously exercised respiratory (50) and 547 upper body musculature (10, 25, 45), lungs (50), and heart (78). During cycling exercise the 548 549 pre-existing afferent input would have been added to the prevailing inputs related to central motor drive, and locomotor muscle (10) and cardiorespiratory (50, 78) activity, thereby 550 accelerating the increase in perceptual responses and reducing exercise tolerance. The 551

correlation between increased $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ and $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time$ and reduced cycling exercise tolerance in ARM-CYC also supports sensory perception as an important mediator of exercise tolerance. Our findings are therefore consistent with the 'flush model' proposed by Millet (57), which suggests that exercise tolerance is mediated primarily by $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ which, in turn, depends mainly on feedback (i.e. peripheral) and feed-forward (i.e. central) mechanisms.

The greater $\Delta RPE/\Delta time$ and $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time$ during ARM-CYC compared with 558 CYC, but similar $\Delta RPE/\Delta\%$ time and $\Delta dyspnea/\Delta\%$ time, suggests that the pre-existing 559 afferent input at the onset of cycling in ARM-CYC affected perceptual responses by 560 increasing their gain. Similar effects on the absolute and normalized RPE are observed when 561 exercise tolerance is reduced by muscle glycogen depletion (59), warm and cold ambient 562 temperatures (24), and prior fatiguing activity using the same muscle groups (32). These 563 564 observations underpin the notion that perceptual responses are set in anticipation, otherwise known as teleoanticipation (76), so that exercise terminates at a critical sensory tolerance 565 566 limit (32, 58, 60, 75). By limiting exercise tolerance the sensory tolerance limit will, therefore, also mediate the degree of peripheral fatigue incurred, which is consistent with the findings 567 of recent studies using the isolated knee extensor exercise model (10, 68). We note, however, 568 that the limit of cycling exercise tolerance during CYC and ARM-CYC was sometimes 569 associated with submaximal RPE and dyspnea, suggesting that additional influences, such as 570 psychological factors (15, 54), were also mediating the limit of exercise tolerance. 571

In conclusion, reductions in cycling exercise tolerance due to prior upper body exercise are associated with an acceleration of central fatigue and greater perceptual responses rather than an accelerated development of peripheral fatigue. These findings suggest that peripheral fatigue is not independently regulated during high-intensity fixed work-rate cycling exercise to volitional tolerance, and that exercise tolerance, and thus the 577 degree of peripheral fatigue incurred, is potentially determined by intolerable levels of578 sensory perception.

580 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

581 None.

582 GRANTS

583 No funding was received for this research.

DISCLOSURES

585 The authors report no conflicts of interest.

596 **REFERENCES**

- 597 1. Adreani CM, Hill JM and Kaufman MP. Responses of group III and IV muscle
 598 afferents to dynamic exercise. *J Appl Physiol* 82: 1811-1817, 1997.
- 2. Altman DG and Gardner MJ. Means and their differences. In: *Statistics with Confidence*,
 edited by Altman DG, Machin D, Bryant TN and Gardner MJ. London: BMJ Books, 2000, p.
 28-35.
- Amann M. Central and peripheral fatigue: interaction during cycling exercise in humans.
 Med Sci Sports Exerc 43: 2039-2045, 2011.
- 4. Amann M, Blain GM, Proctor LT, Sebranek JJ, Pegelow DF and Dempsey JA.
 Implications of group III and IV muscle afferents for high-intensity endurance exercise
 performance in humans. *J Physiol* 589: 5299-5309, 2011.
- 5. Amann M and Dempsey JA. Locomotor muscle fatigue modifies central motor drive in
 healthy humans and imposes a limitation to exercise performance. *J Physiol* 586: 161-173,
 2008.
- 610 6. Amann M, Proctor LT, Sebranek JJ, Pegelow DF and Dempsey JA. Opioid-mediated
- 611 muscle afferents inhibit central motor drive and limit peripheral muscle fatigue development 612 in humans. *J Physiol* 587: 271-283, 2009.
- 613 7. Amann M, Romer LM, Pegelow DF, Jacques AJ, Hess CJ and Dempsey JA. Effects of
- arterial oxygen content on peripheral locomotor muscle fatigue. *J Appl Physiol* 101: 119-127,
 2006.
- 616 8. Amann M, Romer LM, Subudhi AW, Pegelow DF and Dempsey JA. Severity of 617 arterial hypoxaemia affects the relative contributions of peripheral muscle fatigue to exercise 618 performance in healthy humans. *J Physiol* 581: 389-403, 2007.
- 619 9. Amann M and Secher NH. Point: Afferent feedback from fatigued locomotor muscles is
- an important determinant of endurance exercise performance. *J Appl Physiol* 108: 452-454,
 2010.
- 10. Amann M, Venturelli M, Ives SJ, McDaniel J, Layec G, Rossman MJ and
 Richardson RS. Peripheral fatigue limits endurance exercise via a sensory feedbackmediated reduction in spinal motoneuronal output. *J Appl Physiol* 115: 355-364, 2013.
- 11. Bangsbo J, Aagaard T, Olsen M, Kiens B, Turcotte LP and Richter EA. Lactate and
 H⁺ uptake in inactive muscles during intense exercise in man. *J Physiol* 488: 219-229, 1995.
- Bangsbo J, Madsen K, Kiens B and Richter EA. Effect of muscle acidity on muscle
 metabolism and fatigue during intense exercise in man. *J Physiol* 495: 587-596, 1996.
- 629 13. Barry BK and Enoka RM. The neurobiology of muscle fatigue: 15 years later. *Integr*630 *Comp Biol* 47: 465-473, 2007.
- 14. Bigland-Ritchie BR, Dawson NJ, Johansson RS and Lippold OC. Reflex origin for
 the slowing of motoneurone firing rates in fatigue of human voluntary contractions. *J Physiol*379: 451-459, 1986.
- 15. Blanchfield AW, Hardy J, De Morree HM, Staiano W and Marcora SM. Talking
- yourself out of exhaustion: the effects of self-talk on endurance performance. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 46: 998-1007, 2014.
- 16. Bland JM and Altman DG. Measurement error. *BMJ* 313: 744, 1996.
- 17. Bogdanis GC, Nevill ME and Lakomy HK. Effects of previous dynamic arm exercise
- 639 on power output during repeated maximal sprint cycling. *J Sports Sci* 12: 363-370, 1994.
- 640 18. Borg G. Borg's Perceived Exertion and Pain Scales. IL: Human Kinetics, 1998.
- 19. Buckthorpe MW, Hannah R, Pain TG and Folland JP. Reliability of neuromuscular
- 642 measurements during explosive isometric contractions, with special reference to 643 electromyography normalization techniques. *Muscle Nerve* 46: 566-576, 2012.

- 644 20. **Burnley M, Vanhatalo A, Fulford J and Jones AM.** Similar metabolic perturbations 645 during all-out and constant force exhaustive exercise in humans: a (31)P magnetic resonance 646 spectroscopy study. *Exp Physiol* 95: 798-807, 2010.
- 647 21. Cairns SP and Lindinger MI. Do multiple ionic interactions contribute to skeletal
 648 muscle fatigue? *J Physiol* 586: 4039-4054, 2008.
- 649 22. Chapman AR, Vicenzino B, Blanch P and Hodges PW. Patterns of leg muscle
 650 recruitment vary between novice and highly trained cyclists. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 18:
 651 359-371, 2008.
- 652 23. Chapman AR, Vicenzino B, Blanch P, Knox JJ and Hodges PW. Leg muscle
 653 recruitment in highly trained cyclists. *J Sports Sci* 24: 115-124, 2006.
- 654 24. Crewe H, Tucker R and Noakes TD. The rate of increase in rating of perceived exertion
 655 predicts the duration of exercise to fatigue at a fixed power output in different environmental
 656 conditions. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 103: 569-577, 2008.
- Darques JL, Decherchi P and Jammes Y. Mechanisms of fatigue-induced activation of
 group IV muscle afferents: the roles played by lactic acid and inflammatory mediators.
 Neurosci Lett 257: 109-112, 1998.
- 26. De Luca CJ. The use of electromyography in biomechanics. *J Appl Biomech* 13: 135-163, 1997.
- 27. De Luca CJ, Gilmore LD, Kuznetsov M and Roy SH. Filtering the surface EMG signal:
 Movement artifact and baseline noise contamination. *J Biomech* 43: 1573-1579, 2010.
- 664 28. de Ruiter CJ, Hoddenbach JG, Huurnink A and de Haan A. Relative torque
 665 contribution of vastus medialis muscle at different knee angles. *Acta Physiol* 194: 223-237,
 666 2008.
- 667 29. de Ruiter CJ, Kooistra RD, Paalman MI and de Haan A. Initial phase of maximal
 668 voluntary and electrically stimulated knee extension torque development at different knee
 669 angles. *J Appl Physiol* 97: 1693-1701, 2004.
- 30. Decorte N, Lafaix PA, Millet GY, Wuyam B and Verges S. Central and peripheral
 fatigue kinetics during exhaustive constant-load cycling. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 22: 381-391,
 2012.
- 31. Dempsey JA. New perspectives concerning feedback influences on cardiorespiratory
 control during rhythmic exercise and on exercise performance. *J Physiol* 590: 4129-4144,
 2012.
- 676 32. Eston R, Faulkner J, St Clair Gibson A, Noakes T and Parfitt G. The effect of
 677 antecedent fatiguing activity on the relationship between perceived exertion and
 678 physiological activity during a constant load exercise task. *Psychophysiology* 44: 779-786,
 679 2007.
- 33. Fitts RH. The cross-bridge cycle and skeletal muscle fatigue. *J Appl Physiol* 104: 551558, 2008.
- 34. Gagnon P, Saey D, Vivodtzev I, Laviolette L, Mainguy V, Milot J, Provencher S and
 Maltais F. Impact of preinduced quadriceps fatigue on exercise response in chronic
- obstructive pulmonary disease and healthy subjects. *J Appl Physiol* 107: 832-840, 2009.
- 685 35. Gandevia SC. Spinal and supraspinal factors in human muscle fatigue. *Physiol Rev* 81:
 686 1725-1789, 2001.
- 687 36. Grant MC, Robergs R, Baird MF and Baker JS. The effect of prior upper body
 688 exercise on subsequent wingate performance. *Biomed Res Int* 2014: 329328, 2014.
- 689 37. Grippo A, Carrai R, Chiti L, Bruni GI, Scano G and Duranti R. Effect of limb
- muscle fatigue on perception of respiratory effort in healthy subjects. J Appl Physiol 109:
 367-376, 2010.
- 38. Hannah R, Minshull C, Buckthorpe MW and Folland JP. Explosive neuromuscular
 performance of males versus females. *Exp Physiol* 97: 618-629, 2012.

- 694 39. Hannah R, Minshull C and Folland JP. Whole-body vibration does not influence knee 695 joint neuromuscular function or proprioception. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 23: 96-104, 2013.
- 40. Hannah R, Minshull C, Smith SL and Folland JP. Longer electromechanical delay
 impairs hamstrings explosive force versus quadriceps. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 46: 963-972,
 2014.
- 41. Hannah R, Stannard RL, Minshull C, Artioli GG, Harris RC and Sale C. betaAlanine supplementation enhances human skeletal muscle relaxation speed but not force
 production capacity. *J Appl Physiol* 118: 604-612, 2015.
- 42. Hodges PW and Bui BH. A comparison of computer-based methods for the
 determination of onset of muscle contraction using electromyography. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 101: 511-519, 1996.
- 43. **Hopkins WG.** Measures of reliability in sports medicine and science. *Sports Med* 30: 1-15, 2000.
- 44. Jacobs I, Hermiston AJ and Symons JD. Effects of prior exercise or ammonium
 chloride ingestion on muscular strength and endurance. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 25: 809-814,
 1993.
- 45. Jammes Y and Balzamo E. Changes in afferent and efferent phrenic activities with
 electrically induced diaphragmatic fatigue. *J Appl Physiol* 73: 894-902, 1992.
- 46. Johnson MA, Mills DE, Brown PI and Sharpe GR. Prior upper body exercise reduces
 cycling work capacity but not critical power. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 46: 802-808, 2014.
- 47. Karlsson J, Bonde-Petersen F, Henriksson J and Knuttgen HG. Effects of previous
- exercise with arms or legs on metabolism and performance in exhaustive exercise. J Appl
 Physiol 38: 763-767, 1975.
- 48. Kooistra RD, de Ruiter CJ and de Haan A. Conventionally assessed voluntary
 activation does not represent relative voluntary torque production. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 100:
 309-320, 2007.
- 49. Kufel TJ, Pineda LA and Mador MJ. Comparison of potentiated and unpotentiated
 twitches as an index of muscle fatigue. *Muscle Nerve* 25: 438-444, 2002.
- 50. Laviolette L, Laveneziana P and ERS Research Seminar Faculty. Dyspnoea: a
 multidimensional and multidisciplinary approach. *Eur Respir J* 43: 1750-1762, 2014.
- 51. Light AR, Hughen RW, Zhang J, Rainier J, Liu Z and Lee J. Dorsal root ganglion
 neurons innervating skeletal muscle respond to physiological combinations of protons, ATP,
 and lactate mediated by ASIC, P2X, and TRPV1. *J Neurophysiol* 100: 1184-1201, 2008.
- 727 52. Mador MJ, Kufel TJ and Pineda L. Quadriceps fatigue after cycle exercise in patients
- with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 161: 447-453, 2000.
- 53. **Marcora S.** Counterpoint: Afferent feedback from fatigued locomotor muscles is not an
- important determinant of endurance exercise performance. J Appl Physiol 108: 454-456,2010.
- 54. Marcora SM and Staiano W. The limit to exercise tolerance in humans: mind over
 muscle? *Eur J Appl Physiol* 109: 763-770, 2010.
- 55. Merletti R and di Torino P. Standards for reporting EMG data. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol*9: III-IV, 1999.
- 56. Merton PA. Voluntary strength and fatigue. *J Physiol* 123: 553-564, 1954.
- 57. **Millet GY.** Can neuromuscular fatigue explain running strategies and performance in ultra-marathons?: the flush model. *Sports Med* 41: 489-506, 2011.
- 58. Noakes TD. Fatigue is a Brain-Derived Emotion that Regulates the Exercise Behavior to
 Ensure the Protection of Whole Body Homeostasis. *Front Physiol* 3: 82, 2012.
- 59. Noakes TD. Linear relationship between the perception of effort and the duration of
- constant load exercise that remains. *J Appl Physiol* 96: 1571-1572, 2004.

- 60. Noakes TD and Marino FE. Arterial oxygenation, central motor output and exercise
 performance in humans. *J Physiol* 585: 919-921, 2007.
- 61. Nordsborg N, Mohr M, Pedersen LD, Nielsen JJ, Langberg H and Bangsbo J.
 Muscle interstitial potassium kinetics during intense exhaustive exercise: effect of previous arm exercise. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 285: R143-R148, 2003.
- 62. O'Donnell DE, Banzett RB, Carrieri-Kohlman V, Casaburi R, Davenport PW,
- Gandevia SC, Gelb AF, Mahler DA and Webb KA. Pathophysiology of dyspnea in
 chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a roundtable. *Proc Am Thorac Soc* 4: 145-168, 2007.
- 63. Oskouei MA, Van Mazijk BC, Schuiling MH and Herzog W. Variability in the interpolated twitch torque for maximal and submaximal voluntary contractions. *J Appl*
- interpolated twitch torque for maximal and submaximal volunt*Physiol* 95: 1648-1655, 2003.
- 754 64. Pires FO, Noakes TD, Lima-Silva AE, Bertuzzi R, Ugrinowitsch C, Lira FS and Kiss
- MA. Cardiopulmonary, blood metabolite and rating of perceived exertion responses to
 constant exercises performed at different intensities until exhaustion. *Br J Sports Med* 45:
 1119-1125, 2011.
- 758 65. Rainoldi A, Melchiorri G and Caruso I. A method for positioning electrodes during
 759 surface EMG recordings in lower limb muscles. *J Neurosci Methods* 134: 37-43, 2004.
- 760 66. Romer LM, Haverkamp HC, Amann M, Lovering AT, Pegelow DF and Dempsey JA.
- 761 Effect of acute severe hypoxia on peripheral fatigue and endurance capacity in healthy
 762 humans. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 292: R598-R606, 2007.
- 67. Romer LM, Lovering AT, Haverkamp HC, Pegelow DF and Dempsey JA. Effect of
 inspiratory muscle work on peripheral fatigue of locomotor muscles in healthy humans. J
 Physiol 571: 425-439, 2006.
- 68. Rossman MJ, Garten RS, Venturelli M, Amann M and Richardson RS. The role of
 active muscle mass in determining the magnitude of peripheral fatigue during dynamic
 exercise. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 306: R934-R940, 2014.
- 769 69. Sidhu SK, Weavil JC, Venturelli M, Garten RS, Rossman MJ, Richardson RS,
- Gmelch BS, Morgan DE and Amann M. Spinal mu-opioid receptor-sensitive lower limb
- muscle afferents determine corticospinal responsiveness and promote central fatigue in upper
 limb muscle. *J Physiol* 592: 5011-5024, 2014.
- 773 70. St Clair Gibson A, Baden DA, Lambert MI, Lambert EV, Harley YX, Hampson D,
- **Russell VA and Noakes TD.** The conscious perception of the sensation of fatigue. *Sports Med* 33: 167-176, 2003.
- 776 71. St Clair Gibson A, Schabort EJ and Noakes TD. Reduced neuromuscular activity and
 777 force generation during prolonged cycling. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 281:
 778 R187-R196, 2001.
- 779 72. **Suter E and Herzog W.** Effect of number of stimuli and timing of twitch application on variability in interpolated twitch torque. *J Appl Physiol* 90: 1036-1040, 2001.
- 781 73. Taylor BJ and Romer LM. Effect of expiratory muscle fatigue on exercise tolerance and
 locomotor muscle fatigue in healthy humans. *J Appl Physiol* 104: 1442-1451, 2008.
- 783 74. Taylor JL and Gandevia SC. A comparison of central aspects of fatigue in submaximal
 and maximal voluntary contractions. *J Appl Physiol* 104: 542-550, 2008.
- 785 75. Tucker R, Marle T, Lambert EV and Noakes TD. The rate of heat storage mediates an
 786 anticipatory reduction in exercise intensity during cycling at a fixed rating of perceived
 787 exertion. *J Physiol* 574: 905-915, 2006.
- 788 76. **Ulmer HV.** Concept of an extracellular regulation of muscular metabolic rate during
- heavy exercise in humans by psychophysiological feedback. *Experientia* 52: 416-420, 1996.
 77. Vanhatalo A, Fulford J, DiMenna FJ and Jones AM. Influence of hyperoxia on
- muscle metabolic responses and the power-duration relationship during severe-intensity

- exercise in humans: a 31P magnetic resonance spectroscopy study. *Exp Physiol* 95: 528-540,
 2010.
- 78. Williamson JW. The relevance of central command for the neural cardiovascular control
 of exercise. *Exp Physiol* 95: 1043-1048, 2010.
- 796 79. Wuthrich TU, Eberle EC and Spengler CM. Locomotor and diaphragm muscle fatigue
- in endurance athletes performing time-trials of different durations. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 114:
 1619-1633, 2014.
- 80. Wuthrich TU, Notter DA and Spengler CM. Effect of inspiratory muscle fatigue on
 exercise performance taking into account the fatigue-induced excess respiratory drive. *Exp Physiol* 98: 1705-1717, 2013.
- 802
- 803

Table 1. Baseline neuromuscular function and between-trial reproducibility. Measured variables are shown as mean \pm SD. CV, coefficient of variation; SMC, smallest meaningful change.

	СҮС	ARM-CYC	ISOTIME	Within- participant CV (%)	Measurement error	Reproducibility	SMC
MVF (N)	616 ± 75	602 ± 84	616 ± 73	4	19	53	27
Potentiated twitch force (N)	201 ± 33	200 ± 20	203 ± 22	3	11	29	15
Potentiated triplet force (N)	339 ± 35	328 ± 37	337 ± 33	3	10	28	14
Voluntary activation (%)	94 ± 5	95 ± 6	94 ± 6	2	1.8	5.1	2.6
Quadriceps M-wave amplitude (mV)	6.3 ± 2.1	6.1 ± 1.9	5.8 ± 2.5	10	0.6	1.7	0.8
Quadriceps EMG RMS at MVF	8.8 ± 2.9	8.5 ± 2.9	8.9 ± 2.5	11	1.0	2.7	1.3
(%M _{max} amplitude)							

807 MVF, maximal voluntary force.

808

Table 2. Rates of change in the rating of perceived exertion (RPE) and dyspnea expressed relative to absolute exercise time and when normalized to total cycling exercise duration.

811 Data are mean \pm SD.

	CYC	ARM-CYC	ISOTIME
$\Delta RPE/\Delta time (AU \cdot min^{-1})$	1.10 ± 0.38	$1.83 \pm 0.46 **$	1.05 ± 0.43
$\Delta RPE/\Delta\%$ time (AU·% time ⁻¹)	0.07 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.02	$0.04 \pm 0.02^{**}$
$\Delta dyspnea/\Delta time (AU \cdot min^{-1})$	0.93 ± 0.39	$1.33 \pm 0.55*$	0.87 ± 0.03
Δ dyspnea/ Δ %time (AU·%time ⁻¹)	0.07 ± 0.03	0.06 ± 0.02	$0.04\pm0.02^{\text{\#}\dagger}$

812 **P < 0.01 vs. other two trials; *P < 0.05 vs. ISOTIME; *P < 0.01 vs. CYC; *P < 0.05 vs.

813 ARM-CYC.

815 Figuress



816

Fig. 1. Experimental protocol. Arrows denote timing of measurement. Note that $[La]_B$, heart

818 rate, rating of perceived exertion (RPE) and dyspnea were measured immediately before the 819 start of leg cycling exercise.

820



Fig. 2. Raw traces of force at baseline from a representative participant. Force was measured during a maximal voluntary contraction with superimposed triplet, and subsequently during two potentiated twitch contractions and one triplet contraction. Inset figure provides a close up view of changes in force with the superimposed triplet.

- 826
- 827
- 828
- 829
- 830
- 050
- 831



832

Fig. 3. Reductions in maximal voluntary force (MVF) (A), voluntary activation (B), and electrically-evoked potentiated twitch (C) and triplet (D) force after cycling exercise. Data are mean \pm SD. Reduction from baseline ($^+P < 0.05$, $^{++}P < 0.01$). *Greater reduction compared with ISOTIME (P < 0.05). **Greater reduction compared with ARM-CYC and ISOTIME (P < 0.01).

838



Fig. 4. Quadriceps neuromuscular activation measured as EMG RMS normalized to M_{max} during cycling in CYC (•), ARM-CYC (□) and ISOTIME (Δ). Data are mean ± SD with xerror bars omitted at the end of cycling exercise to improve clarity. *Significant difference: CYC vs. ARM-CYC and ISOTIME at the end of cycling (P < 0.05).



844

Fig. 5. Heart rate (A) and blood lactate concentration ([La⁻]_B) (B) during CYC (\bullet), ARM-CYC (\Box) and ISOTIME (Δ). Data are mean ± SD and x-error bars are omitted at the end of cycling exercise to improve clarity. Measurements at 0 min were taken immediately before the start of cycling exercise. Significant difference between trials (*P* < 0.01): **ARM-CYC vs. CYC and ISOTIME; ⁺CYC and ARM-CYC vs. ISOTIME at the end of cycling; [#]all trials at the end of cycling.

851



Fig. 6. Rating of perceived exertion (RPE) and dyspnea during cycling exercise in CYC (\bullet), ARM-CYC (\Box) and ISOTIME (Δ). Data are mean \pm SD and expressed relative to absolute exercise time (A and B) and when normalized to total cycling exercise duration (C and D). Measurements at 0 min and 0 %time were taken immediately before the start of cycling exercise. X-error bars in A and B are omitted at the end of cycling exercise to improve clarity. Significant difference (P < 0.01): **ARM-CYC vs. CYC and ISOTIME; ⁺CYC and ARM-CYC vs. ISOTIME at the end of cycling.