Inorganic nitrate supplementation improves muscle
 oxygenation, O₂ uptake kinetics and exercise tolerance at
 high but not low pedal rates

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- 25 Running Head: Dietary nitrate and pedal cadence
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28 Abstract

The purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis that inorganic nitrate (NO_3) supplementation would improve muscle oxygenation, pulmonary O_2 uptake ($\dot{V}O_2$) kinetics and exercise tolerance (Tlim) to a greater extent when cycling at high compared low pedal rates. In a randomised, placebo-controlled, cross-over study, seven subjects (mean \pm SD, age 21 ± 2 yr, body mass 86 \pm 10 kg) completed severe-intensity step cycle tests at pedal cadences of 35 rpm and 115 rpm during separate 9 day supplementation periods with NO₃⁻rich beetroot juice (BR; providing 8.4 mmol NO_3^{-1} day⁻¹) and placebo (PLA). Compared to PLA, plasma nitrite concentration increased 178% with BR (P<0.01). There were no significant differences in muscle oxyhemoglobin concentration ([O₂Hb]), phase II \dot{V}_{O_2} kinetics or Tlim between BR and PLA when cycling at 35 rpm (P>0.05). However, when cycling at 115 rpm, muscle [O₂Hb] was higher at baseline and throughout exercise, phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics was faster (47 ± 16 s vs. 61 ± 25 s; P<0.05) and Tlim was greater (362 ± 137 s vs. 297 ± 79 s; P<0.05) with BR compared to PLA. In conclusion, these results suggest that short-term BR supplementation can increase muscle oxygenation, expedite the adjustment of oxidative metabolism and enhance exercise tolerance when cycling at a high, but not a low, pedal cadence in healthy recreationally-active subjects. These findings support recent observations that NO_3^- supplementation may be particularly effective at improving physiological and functional responses in type II muscle fibers. Key Words: nitric oxide; vascular function; oxidative metabolism; exercise performance; fatigue

62 Introduction

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64 Nitric oxide (NO) is a diffusible gas that positively impacts a plethora of physiological responses including skeletal muscle perfusion, metabolism, force production and fatigue 65 66 resistance (53). It is well documented that NO is produced by the nitric oxide synthase 67 enzymes, which catalyze the complex five-electron oxidation of the semi-essential amino 68 acid, L-arginine (10). More recently, there has been a growing appreciation of the potential 69 for NO synthesis from the simple one-electron reduction of nitrite (NO_2) , in a reaction 70 catalyzed by numerous NO_2^- reductases (42, 54). Importantly, increasing the intake of 71 dietary inorganic nitrate (NO₃), which passes into the enterosalivary circulation for 72 subsequent reduction to NO_2^- by oral anaerobes (20), has been shown to positively impact 73 NO biomarkers, exercise efficiency and exercise tolerance in recreationally active subjects 74 (3-4, 12, 40-41, 55, 58). Therefore, supplementation with NO₃⁻ appears to represent an 75 effective dietary intervention to improve NO bioavailability, contractile efficiency, and 76 fatigue resistance.

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78 Results from in vitro studies suggest that the effect of NO donors on mammalian skeletal 79 muscle contractility is influenced by contraction frequency (5, 21, 43, 46). Hernandez et al. 80 (33) harvested whole EDL muscles and single FDB muscle fibers from NO_3^- supplemented 81 mice and reported increased in vitro contractile force up to 50 Hz stimulation and a more 82 rapid rate of force development in the single FDB muscle fibers at 100 Hz stimulation. 83 Similarly, increased evoked contractile force has been observed in human skeletal muscle in vivo during low-frequency sub-maximal stimulation and over the initial stages of high-84 frequency maximal stimulation following NO_3^- supplementation (29). However, NO_3^- 85 ingestion has been shown to increase human peak knee extensor torque at $360^{\circ} \cdot s^{-1}$, but not 86 $90^{\circ} \cdot s^{-1}$, $180^{\circ} \cdot s^{-1}$ and $270^{\circ} \cdot s^{-1}$, *in vivo* (16). Collectively, these findings suggest that dietary 87 NO₃⁻ supplementation enhances skeletal muscle contractile function, and that it might be 88 89 particularly effective at augmenting contractility at higher contraction velocities. However, 90 heretofore, human *in vivo* studies reporting improvements in exercise tolerance following 91 NO_3^- supplementation have utilized cycle ergometer exercise with pedal cadences of 70-90 92 rpm (i.e., at "mid-range" contraction frequency/velocity; e.g., see 4, 12, 55, 58). 93 Consequently, it is unclear whether NO_3^- supplementation may be more effective at 94 improving skeletal muscle fatigue resistance at a higher contraction frequency/velocity.

95 Relative to a lower contraction frequency (60 rpm), a higher contraction frequency (100 rpm) has been shown to increase \dot{V}_{02} and to reduce contractile efficiency in human skeletal muscle 96 97 in vivo (22). Similarly, when contraction duration is shortened, \dot{V}_{02} (30, 34) and the ATP 98 cost of force production (34) are increased in mammalian skeletal muscle in situ relative to 99 contractions of longer duration when the same work-rest ratio is applied. There is also 100 evidence to suggest that pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} kinetics is slower (11, 19) and the \dot{V}_{02} slow 101 component is increased (11, 49) when cycling at very high compared to very low pedal 102 cadences. Dietary NO_3^- supplementation has been shown to increase muscle blood flow (23), 103 lower the O₂ (3-4, 40-41, 55, 58) and ATP (3) requirements of muscle contraction and improve the matching between muscle O₂ supply and muscle O₂ utilization (4, 24). 104 105 Therefore, this potential for enhanced contractile efficiency and perfusion distribution with 106 NO_3 supplementation might improve muscle oxygenation, $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics and exercise 107 tolerance, particularly when more rapid muscle contractions are completed.

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109 In addition to compromising muscle contractile efficiency, it has been suggested that the 110 proportional contribution of fast-twitch muscle fibers to force production is greater at higher 111 pedal cadences (6-7, but see 1). Importantly, dietary NO₃⁻ supplementation has been shown, 112 at least in rodent models, to: 1) increase bulk muscle blood flow and preferentially distribute 113 this towards fast-twitch muscle fibers (23); and 2) increase calcium handling proteins and 114 twitch and tetanic force production in fast-twitch muscle, but not in slow-twitch muscle (33). 115 In support of a targeted effect of NO₃⁻ supplementation on fast-twitch muscle, Breese et al. 116 (12) have recently reported that NO₃⁻ supplementation speeds oxygen uptake (\dot{V} _{O2}) and 117 muscle deoxyhemoglobin (HHb; reflective of the balance between muscle O₂ utilization and 118 muscle O₂ delivery [25, 36]) kinetics during a severe-intensity step exercise test initiated 119 from a moderate-intensity baseline. Conversely, there was no effect when a moderate-120 intensity step test was initiated from a low-intensity baseline. This is important because, 121 compared to the latter, the former would be expected to involve a greater recruitment of fast-122 Taken together, these findings suggest that dietary NO₃⁻ twitch fibers (37-38). 123 supplementation may preferentially augment physiological responses within, and in the 124 miscrovasculature surrounding, fast-twitch muscle fibers. Based on these observations, the effects of NO₃⁻ might be more pronounced when humans cycle at a very high compared to a 125 126 very low pedal cadence; however, this has yet to be investigated.

128 The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effects of short term dietary NO_3^{-1} supplementation on muscle oxygenation, pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and exercise tolerance 129 130 when cycling at a very high (115 rpm) and a very low (35 rpm) pedal cadence at the same 131 relative exercise intensity. Given the effects of cadence on the physiological responses 132 evoked during cycling and the physiological benefits afforded by NO₃⁻ supplementation (see 133 above), we hypothesized that muscle oxygenation, pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and exercise 134 tolerance would be improved to a greater extent with NO_3^- when cycling at 115 rpm than at 135 35 rpm.

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137 Methods

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139 Subjects

140 Seven healthy male subjects (mean \pm SD age, 21 ± 2 yrs; body mass, 86 ± 10 kg; height, 1.82 141 \pm 0.08 m) volunteered to participate in this study. None of the subjects were tobacco smokers or users of dietary supplements. The subjects participated in exercise at a 142 143 recreational level, but were not highly trained. All subjects were familiar with laboratory 144 exercise testing procedures, having previously participated in studies employing cycle 145 ergometry in our laboratory. The procedures employed in this study were approved by the Institutional Research Ethics Committee and all subjects were required to give their written 146 147 informed consent prior to the commencement of the study after the experimental procedures, 148 associated risks, and potential benefits of participation had been explained. Subjects were 149 instructed to arrive at the laboratory in a rested and fully hydrated state, at least 3 h 150 postprandial, and to avoid strenuous exercise in the 24 h preceding each testing session. All 151 tests were performed at the same time of day $(\pm 2 h)$. Each subject was asked to refrain from 152 caffeine and alcohol intake for 6 h and 24 h before each test, respectively. Subjects were also 153 provided with a list of foods rich in NO_3^- and instructed to avoid the consumption of these 154 foods and to abstain from the use of antibacterial mouthwash, which eliminates the oral 155 bacteria that reduce NO_3^- to NO_2^- (26), for the duration of the study.

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157 Experimental Design

Subjects were required to report to the laboratory on 10 occasions over a 5-7 week timeframe.
Prior to the experimental testing, subjects completed cadence-specific ramp incremental tests

160 at 35 and 115 rpm in a randomised order so that the same relative exercise intensity could be

161 prescribed at both pedal cadences during the experimental tests. Over the remaining eight 162 laboratory visits, subjects completed severe-intensity step exercise tests at 35 and 115 rpm 163 during separate 9-day supplementation periods with BR (35-BR and 115-BR, respectively) 164 and PLA (35-PLA and 115-PLA, respectively) for determination of heart rate (HR), stroke 165 volume (SV), cardiac output (\dot{Q}), muscle oxygenation, \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and exercise tolerance. 166 The two supplementation periods were administered as part of a randomised (3 subjects 167 started on BR), cross-over, double-blinded experimental design.

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169 Incremental Tests

170 Before the intervention period, subjects completed a ramp incremental test at 35 and 115 rpm 171 on an electronically-braked cycle ergometer (Lode Excalibur Sport, Groningen, the 172 Netherlands) in a randomized order. At least 48 hours separated the two ramp incremental 173 tests. Initially, subjects performed 3 min of baseline cycling at 20 W, after which the work 174 rate was increased by 30 W/min until the limit of tolerance. The saddle and handle bar height 175 and configuration during the first incremental test was recorded and reproduced in subsequent 176 tests. During the baseline period and the incremental test, subjects cycled at a pre-determined pedal rate (either 35 or 115 rpm) until volitional exhaustion or the cadence fell by > 10 rpm 177 178 for 3 consecutive seconds. Breath-by-breath pulmonary gas-exchange data were collected 179 continuously during the incremental tests and averaged over consecutive 10-s periods. The $\dot{V}o_{2max}$ was taken as the highest 30-s mean value attained prior to exhaustion in the test. The 180 181 GET was determined from a cluster of measurements including: 1) the first disproportionate increase in CO₂ production (\dot{V} co₂) from visual inspection of individual plots of \dot{V} co₂ vs. \dot{V} 182 o₂; 2) an increase in expired ventilation (\dot{V}_E) / \dot{V}_{O_2} with no increase in \dot{V}_E / \dot{V}_{CO_2} ; and 3) an 183 increase in end-tidal O₂ tension with no fall in end-tidal CO₂ tension. The data collected 184 185 during the incremental tests were used to calculate cadence-specific work rates which were employed during the subsequent severe-intensity step tests. Specifically, the work rates that 186 would require 80% of the difference between the \dot{V}_{02} at the GET and \dot{V}_{02max} (80% Δ) were 187 188 estimated with account taken of the mean response time of the \dot{V}_{02} response to ramp exercise 189 (57).

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191 Step Exercise Tests

192 Subjects completed one severe-intensity step test on days 4, 5, 8 and 9 of each dietary 193 condition (PLA and BR). The same pedal cadence (either 35 or 115 rpm) was applied on 194 days 4 and 5 of the supplementation period with the other cadence applied on days 8 and 9 of 195 the supplementation period. The order in which the 35 and 115 rpm tests were administered 196 over the first supplementation period was randomised (3 subjects started on 35 rpm) and this 197 order was replicated over the second supplementation period. The step tests comprised 4 198 minutes of baseline cycling at 20 W, followed by a step increment to a severe-intensity 199 $(80\%\Delta)$ constant work rate that was continued until exhaustion (same criteria as described 200 above for the incremental exercise test). For each condition, the mean time to exhaustion was 201 used for subsequent analysis.

202

203 Supplementation Procedures

204 Following the initial ramp tests, subjects underwent two 9-day supplementation periods with 205 BR and PLA, with each period separated by at least ten-days of washout. Subjects recorded 206 an 11-day food diary, which commenced two days prior to the first 9-day supplementation 207 period, and were asked to use the diary to replicate and record their diet in the second supplementation period. The BR (Beet It Sport, James White Drinks, Ipswich, UK) was 208 209 administered in 70 ml doses providing 6.2 mmol NO_3^- per serving. Sodium chloride (NaCl) 210 was administered as the PLA in doses of 0.1 mmol·kg⁻¹ body mass (41). Subjects were informed that the PLA was NaNO₃, and that the purpose of the study was to compare the 211 212 effects of 'NaNO3' relative to NO₃⁻-rich BR. All labels and packaging were removed from 213 the BR supplements and the PLA was provided in transparent plastic capsules which were 214 placed in a small transparent plastic bag labelled sodium nitrate. Subjects were instructed to 215 open the PLA capsules and mix the content with 200-300 ml of water for consumption. On 216 days 1-3 and 6-7 of the supplementation periods (when no exercise tests were conducted), 217 one dose of supplement was consumed in the morning and evening. On the days of the 218 experimental testing (days 4-5 and 8-9), subjects were instructed to consume both supplement 219 doses 2.5 hours before arriving at the laboratory (58). An additional dose of supplement was 220 consumed 2 hours following each experimental exercise test to counteract the marked 221 depletion in plasma $[NO_2]$ that occurs during intense exhaustive exercise (59).

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223 Measurements

After reporting to the laboratory on days 4 and 8 of each dietary intervention (the first day that each cadence-specific step test was performed), a venous blood sample was drawn into a lithium-heparin tube and centrifuged at 4000 rpm and 4°C for 10 min, within 3 min of 227 collection. Plasma was subsequently extracted and immediately frozen at -80° C for later 228 analysis of [NO₂⁻] in duplicate via ozone-based chemiluminescence (58).

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230 During all tests, pulmonary gas exchange and ventilation were measured breath-by-breath 231 with subjects wearing a nose clip and breathing through a low-dead-space, low-resistance 232 mouthpiece and impeller turbine assembly (Jaeger Triple V). The inspired and expired gas 233 volume and gas concentration signals were continuously sampled at 100 Hz, the latter using 234 paramagnetic (O₂) and infrared (CO₂) analyzers (Jaeger Oxycon Pro, Hoechberg, Germany) 235 via a capillary line connected to the mouthpiece. The gas analyzers were calibrated before 236 each test with gases of known concentration and the turbine volume transducer was calibrated 237 with a 3-liter syringe (Hans Rudolph, Kansas City, MO). The volume and concentration 238 signals were time-aligned by accounting for the delay in the capillary gas transit and the 239 analyzer rise time relative to the volume signal. Pulmonary gas exchange and ventilation 240 were calculated and displayed breath-by-breath.

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242 HR, SV and \dot{Q} data were recorded beat-by-beat using thoracic impedance cardiography 243 (PhysioFlow PF-05; Manatec Biomedical, Paris, France) on days 4 and 8 of each dietary 244 intervention. The PhysioFlow measures impedance to a high-frequency (75 kHz), low-245 magnitude (3.8 mA) alternating electrical current applied across the thorax and subsequently 246 estimates SV based on changes in impedance over the cardiac cycle. The current was 247 transmitted through two electrodes placed superior to the supraclavicular fossa on the left 248 lateral triangle of the neck and detected through two electrodes placed on the xiphoid process. 249 To acquire an electrocardiogram (ECG) signal, two additional electrodes were placed at the 250 V1 and V6 positions. Body surface area was estimated using the Haycock formula (32) 251 which, along with estimated SV and ECG-derived HR, was used to calculate \dot{Q} . The 252 PhysioFlow method and calculations have been described previously (15) and, when 253 compared to the direct Fick method, the PhysioFlow has been shown to provide a valid 254 estimate of \dot{O} during exhaustive exercise (50). All of the relevant skin sites were treated with 255 an abrasive skin gel and alcohol prior to the application of the electrodes (Blue Sensor R; 256 Ambu, Ballerup, Denmark), and leads were secured to the subjects using an adhesive tape. 257 Following the application of the electrodes, subject rested for 10 min on the cycle ergometer. 258 Four resting blood pressure measurements were taken using automated an 259 sphygmomanometer (Dinamap Pro, GE Medical Systems, Tampa, FL) with the arm supported at the level of the heart. The mean of the final 3 measurements was recorded. The PhysioFlow device was auto-calibrated prior to exercise using the manufacture's software that gathered impedance waveforms throughout 30 cardiac cycles. Following the test, data were downloaded onto a personal computer for subsequent analysis.

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265 The oxygenation status of the *m. vastus lateralis* of the right leg was monitored using a 266 commercially available NIRS system (model NIRO 300, Hamamatsu Photonics KK, 267 Hiugashi-ku, Japan) on days 4 and 8 of each dietary intervention. The system consisted of an 268 emission probe that irradiates laser beams and a detection probe. Four different wavelength 269 laser diodes provided the light source (776, 826, 845, and 905 nm) and the light returning 270 from the tissue was detected by a photomultiplier tube in the spectrometer. The intensity of 271 incident and transmitted light was recorded continuously at 2 Hz and used to estimate 272 concentration changes from the resting baseline for oxygenated, deoxygenated, and total 273 tissue hemoglobin/myoglobin. Therefore, the NIRS data represent a relative change based on 274 the optical density measured in the first datum collected. The deoxygenated 275 hemoglobin/myoglobin concentration ([HHb]) signal was assumed to provide an estimate of 276 changes in fractional O_2 extraction in the field of interrogation (25, 27, 36). It should be 277 noted here that the contribution of deoxygenated myoglobin to the NIRS signal is presently 278 unclear, and, as such, the terms [O₂Hb], and [HHb] used in this paper should be considered to 279 refer to the combined concentrations of oxygenated and deoxygenated hemoglobin and 280 myoglobin, respectively.

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282 The leg was initially cleaned and shaved around the belly of the muscle, and the optodes were 283 placed in the holder, which was secured to the skin with adhesive at 20 cm above the fibular 284 head. To secure the holder and wires in place, an elastic bandage was wrapped around the 285 subject's leg. The wrap helped to minimize the possibility that extraneous light could 286 influence the signal and also ensured that the optodes did not move during exercise. Indelible pen marks were made around the holder to enable precise reproduction of the placement in 287 288 subsequent tests. The probe gain was set with the subject at rest in a seated position with the 289 leg extended at down stroke on the cycle ergometer before the first exercise bout, and NIRS 290 data were collected continuously throughout the exercise protocols. The data were 291 subsequently downloaded onto a personal computer, and the resulting text files were stored 292 for later analysis.

Fingertip capillary blood samples (~20µl) were collected during the final 30 seconds of baseline cycling and at exhaustion. Blood [lactate] was determined using an automated analyser (YSI 2300, Yellow Springs Instruments, Yellow Springs, OH, USA). The mean of the two baseline and exhaustion blood [lactate] values were calculated for each experimental condition prior to analysis. Blood [lactate] accumulation during exercise was taken as the change in the values from baseline to exhaustion.

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301 Data Analysis Procedures

The breath-by-breath \dot{V}_{02} data from each test were initially examined to exclude errant 302 303 breaths caused by coughing, swallowing, sighing, etc., and those values lying more than four 304 standard deviations from the local mean were removed. The breath-by-breath data were 305 subsequently linearly interpolated to provide second-by-second values and, for each 306 individual, the two identical repetitions for each experimental condition were time-aligned to the start of exercise and ensemble-averaged. The first 20 s of data after the onset of exercise 307 (i.e., the phase I response) were deleted and a nonlinear least-square algorithm was used to fit 308 309 the data thereafter until the point of exhaustion. A bi-exponential model was used to characterize the \dot{V}_{02} responses to severe exercise, as described in the following equation: 310

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$$\dot{V}o_2(t) = \dot{V}o_2 \text{ baseline} + A_p(1-e^{-(t-TDp/\tau p)}) + A_s(1-e^{-(t-TDs/\tau s)})$$
 (Eqn. 2)

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where $\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{o_2}(t)$ represents the absolute $\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{o_2}$ at a given time *t*; $\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{o_{2baseline}}$ represents the mean $\dot{\mathbf{V}}$ o₂ in the baseline period; A_p, TD_p, and τ_p represent the amplitude, time delay, and time constant, respectively, describing the phase II increase in $\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{o_2}$ above baseline; and A_s, TD_s, and τ_s represent the amplitude of, time delay before the onset of, and time constant describing the development of, the $\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{o_2}$ slow component, respectively.

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An iterative process was used to minimize the sum of the squared errors between the fitted function and the observed values. $\dot{V}_{\text{O}2\text{baseline}}$ was defined as the mean $\dot{V}_{\text{O}2}$ measured over the final 90 s of the resting baseline period. The $\dot{V}_{\text{O}2}$ at the limit of tolerance (T_{lim}) was defined as the mean $\dot{V}_{\text{O}2}$ measured over the final 30 s of the exhaustive exercise bout. Because the asymptotic value (A_s) of the exponential term describing the $\dot{V}_{\text{O}2}$ slow component may represent a higher value than is actually reached at the end of the exercise, the actual amplitude of the $\dot{V}_{\text{O}2}$ slow component at exhaustion was defined as A_s'.

The beat-by-beat HR, SV and \dot{Q} data from each test were averaged into 5-s bins prior to analysis. To determine the overall kinetics (the mean response time [MRT]) of the central cardiovascular responses, the data were fit with a mono-exponential model from 0-s to exhaustion without time delay using the following equation:

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Y (t) = Y _{baseline} + A(1- $e^{-(t-/MRT)}$)

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where Y (*t*) represents the absolute value of the parameter of interest at a given time *t*; Y masseline represents the mean value of the parameter of interest in the baseline period; A and MRT represent the amplitude and mean response time, respectively, describing the increase in Y above baseline.

(Eqn. 3)

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340 To provide information on muscle oxygenation, we also modelled the [HHb] response to 341 exercise. A mono-exponential model was applied to the data with the fitting window 342 commencing at the time at which the [HHb] signal increased 1 SD above the baseline mean. 343 The [HHb] kinetics were determined by constraining the fitting window to the point at which 344 mono-exponentiality became distorted, consequent to a [HHb] slow component, as 345 determined by visual inspection of the residual plots. The [HHb] TD and τ values were 346 summed to provide information on the overall [HHb] response dynamics in the fundamental 347 phase of the response.

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The $[O_2Hb]$ response does not approximate an exponential and was, therefore, not modelled. Rather, we determined the $[O_2Hb]$ at baseline (90-s preceding step transition), 120 s (30 s mean surrounding 120 s) and exhaustion (mean response over the final 30 s of exercise). The muscle [HHb] and $[O_2Hb]$ responses were summed at these time points ([Hb_{tot}]) to provide information on the total [Hb] in the NIRS area of interrogation.

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355 Statistics

A two-way, treatment (PLA and BR) × cadence (35 and 115 rpm), repeated-measures ANOVA was employed to assess differences in plasma $[NO_2^-]$, $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics, HR, SV, \dot{Q} , muscle [HHb], muscle $[O_2Hb]$, muscle $[Hb_{tot}]$ and exercise tolerance across the experimental conditions. Significant effects were further explored using post-hoc *t*-tests with the alpha level adjusted via a Fisher's LSD correction. Relationships between the outcome variables were assessed using Pearson's correlation coefficient (*r*). Data are presented as mean \pm SD, unless otherwise stated. Statistical significance was accepted when *P*<0.05.

363

364 **Results**

365

The PLA and BR supplements administered in this study were well tolerated by all subjects with no negative side effects reported. Subjects consumed all doses of the supplement for each experimental condition and their diet was consistent across all the dietary interventions. After all experimental testing for the study was completed, all subjects confirmed that they were unaware that the PLA condition was not NaNO₃.

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The $\dot{V}_{\text{O}_{2\text{peak}}}$ and peak work rate attained in the ramp incremental tests at 35 rpm and 115 rpm 372 373 52 W. The \dot{V}_{02} and work rate at the GET during the incremental tests were 1.62 \pm 0.31 374 L·min⁻¹ and 122 \pm 18 W at 35 rpm, and 2.53 \pm 0.33 L·min⁻¹ and 122 \pm 8 W at 115 rpm, 375 respectively. There were no significant differences in $\dot{V}_{O_{2peak}}$ or peak work rate attained 376 during the ramp tests at 35 rpm and 115 rpm. However, the \dot{V}_{02} at the GET was significantly 377 378 greater during the 115 rpm incremental test than the 35 rpm incremental test (P < 0.001). The 379 work rates which corresponded to 80% Δ , which were imposed during the experimental tests 380 conducted at 35 rpm and 115 rpm, were 244 ± 35 W and 258 ± 47 W, respectively. These 381 work rates were not significantly different from each other (P>0.05).

382

383 Plasma [NO₂⁻] and Blood Pressure

384 There was a significant main effect for supplement on plasma $[NO_2^-]$ (P<0.01), systolic blood 385 pressure (SBP; P<0.05) and mean arterial pressure (MAP; P<0.05), but not diastolic blood 386 pressure (DBP; P>0.05). Plasma [NO₂⁻] was significantly higher in both 35-BR and 115-BR 387 compared to 35-PLA and 115-PLA (P<0.01), with plasma [NO₂⁻] increased by 179% above 388 PLA conditions with BR when all data were pooled (P<0.01; Figure 1). There were no 389 differences in plasma [NO₂⁻] between 35-PLA and 115-PLA, and 35-BR and 115-BR 390 (P>0.05). Systolic blood pressure and mean arterial pressure were lowered by 8 mmHg and 4 391 mmHg across the BR conditions when all data were pooled (P < 0.05).

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394 \dot{V} ₀₂ Kinetics

Pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} at designated time points and the key parameters derived from the bi-395 396 exponential modelling are presented in Table 1 and illustrated for a representative individual in Figure 2. There was a significant main effect for cadence on \dot{V}_{02} baseline and the \dot{V}_{02} at 397 120 s and exhaustion (P<0.01) with \dot{V}_{02} at these time points being higher in both 115-PLA 398 399 and 115-BR compared to both 35-PLA and 35-BR (P<0.05; Table 1). The \dot{V} ₀₂ at exhaustion 400 was not significantly between 35-PLA and 35-BR and these values were not different to the 401 $\dot{V}_{\text{O}_{2\text{peak}}}$ attained in the incremental test at 35 rpm (P>0.05). Likewise, the $\dot{V}_{\text{O}_{2}}$ at exhaustion in 115-PLA and 115-BR and the $\dot{V}_{\text{O}_{2\text{peak}}}$ attained in the incremental test at 115 rpm were not 402 significantly different from each other (P>0.05). However, the \dot{V}_{0_2} at exhaustion was higher 403 404 in 115-PLA relative to 35-PLA and 115-BR relative to 35-BR (both P<0.01). There was a 405 significant main effect for cadence on the \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ with a higher \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ (slower 406 \dot{V} ₀₂ kinetics) in 115-PLA (61 ± 25 s) and 115-BR (47 ± 16 s) compared to both 35-PLA (32 \pm 10 s) and 35-BR (32 \pm 6 s; P<0.05; Table 1). In addition there was a significant treatment 407 × cadence interaction effect on the \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ (P<0.05). Post hoc analyses demonstrated 408 409 that there was no significant difference in the \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ between 35-PLA and 35-BR 410 (P>0.05), but the \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ was lower in 115-BR compared to 115-PLA (P<0.05; Table 1; Figure 2). There were no significant between-supplement differences in the \dot{V}_{02} 411 fundamental amplitude (P>0.05), but there were significant between-cadence differences in 412 the \dot{V}_{02} fundamental amplitude (P<0.05; Table 1). The \dot{V}_{02} slow component amplitude was 413 414 not significantly different between any of the experimental conditions (P<0.05; Table 1).

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416 Central Cardiovascular Parameters

There were no significant between-supplement differences in HR, SV or \dot{Q} at baseline, 120 s or exhaustion (*P*>0.05 Table 2); however, there was a trend towards a main effect for cadence on the HR (*P*=0.071) and \dot{Q} (*P*=0.079) MRT. Indeed, the HR MRT tended to be lower in 35-PLA and 35-BR compared to both 115-PLA and 115-BR (*P*=0.07-0.08), but the HR MRT was not significantly different within cadences (*P*>0.05). The \dot{Q} MRT was lower in 35-PLA and 35-BR compared to 115-PLA (*P*<0.05) with no differences between the other experimental conditions.

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427 Muscle Oxygenation Parameters

NIRS-derived [HHb], [O₂Hb] and [Hb_{tot}] responses are presented in Table 3 with group mean 428 429 [HHb] and [O₂Hb] responses illustrated in Figures 3 and 4, respectively. There were no 430 significant main effects or interaction effects on the [HHb] at baseline or throughout the step 431 exercise test (P>0.05; Table 3). The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of 432 supplement on the [HHb] τ + TD (P<0.05) and a significant main effect of cadence on the 433 [HHb] amplitude (P<0.05; Table 3; Figure 3). There were no significant differences in these 434 variables across the individual experimental conditions (P>0.05). There were significant 435 main effects of cadence and a significant treatment \times cadence interaction effect on the [O₂Hb] 436 at baseline, 120 s and at exhaustion (P < 0.05). Further analyses revealed that the [O₂Hb] was greater in 115-BR at baseline compared to 115-PLA, at 120 s compared to all other 437 438 conditions and at exhaustion compared to 35-PLA and 35-BR (P<0.05). There were no 439 significant main or interaction effects on [Hb_{tot}].

440

441 *Exercise Tolerance*

442 The effects of BR on Tlim at 35 rpm and 115 rpm are illustrated in Figure 5. 443 Supplementation with BR significantly increased Tlim when cycling at 115 rpm (115-PLA: 444 297 ± 79 s vs. 115-BR: 362 ± 137 s; P<0.05), but did not significantly alter Tlim at 35 rpm (35-PLA: 341 ± 99 s vs. 35-BR: 344 ± 74 s; P>0.05; Figure 5). There was a significant 445 446 correlation between the change in Tlim and muscle [O₂Hb] at 120 s in 115-BR compared to 115-PLA (r = 0.76, P < 0.05) and a trend for a correlation between the change in muscle 447 448 $[O_2Hb]$ at Tlim and the change in Tlim in 115-BR compared to 115-PLA (r = 0.76, P=0.07). 449 There were no other correlations between the physiological and performance variables 450 assessed in this study (P>0.05).

451

452 **Discussion**

The principal novel findings from this study are that short term dietary NO₃⁻ supplementation, which enhanced the potential for O₂-independent NO synthesis by elevating plasma [NO₂⁻], increased muscle oxygenation, speeded phase II \dot{V} o₂ kinetics and improved severe-intensity exercise tolerance (Tlim) when cycling at 115 rpm. In contrast, there were no changes in muscle oxygenation, \dot{V} o₂ kinetics or exercise tolerance with BR at 35 rpm. There were no changes in \dot{Q} with BR at either cadence, but muscle [O₂Hb] was higher in 115-BR compared to 115-PLA. These findings suggest that BR increased muscle O₂ delivery at 115 rpm 460 facilitating faster phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and improved severe-intensity exercise tolerance. 461 This is consistent with our experimental hypothesis and suggests that BR supplementation is 462 more effective at improving muscle O₂ delivery, phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and fatigue resistance 463 at higher pedal cadences.

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In line with other studies administering NO₃⁻-rich BR (3-4, 12, 40-41, 55, 58), plasma [NO₂⁻] 465 466 was increased in this study. Importantly, plasma [NO₂⁻] was not significantly different 467 between the 2 BR trials and between the 2 PLA trials. This observation is consistent with our 468 previous finding that plasma $[NO_2^-]$ remains consistently elevated above baseline with BR, at 469 least up to 15 days of supplementation (55). An increase in the circulating plasma $[NO_2]$ 470 reflects an increase in the reserve for NOS-independent NO production given that NO₂⁻ 471 undergoes a simple one-electron reduction to NO through numerous NO₂⁻ reductatses (42, 472 54). The reduction of NO_2^- to NO is upregulated as O_2 tension (14) and pH (45) decline and, 473 since muscle Po_2 (51) and pH (3) are lowered during intense muscle contractions, NO_2^{-1} 474 reduction is likely to be an important source of NO during exercise. Aside from its reduction 475 to NO, it should be acknowledged that NO₂⁻ itself can participate in post-translational protein 476 modifications that positively impact on physiological processes (2). Moreover, a few days of 477 NO_3^- supplementation can increase mitochondrial (40) and calcium-handling (33) proteins 478 promoting enhanced metabolic and contractile function, respectively. Therefore, the short 479 term exposure to inorganic NO_3^- and the associated increase in plasma $[NO_2^-]$ in this study may have been sufficient to increase NO signalling and elicit favorable physiological and 480 481 functional responses. Indeed, resting arterial blood pressure was lowered by BR 482 supplementation in this study, in accord with established effects of elevated NO on vascular 483 tone (28).

484

Pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} was significantly higher at baseline and throughout exercise when cycling at 485 486 115 rpm compared to 35 rpm, as reported previously (19, 25, 60). While subjects were cycling at the same external work rate at baseline (20 W), and the same relative exercise 487 488 intensity (80% Δ) during the step tests, internal work (56) and muscle ATP turnover rate and 489 \dot{V}_{02} (22) are increased at higher contraction frequencies, which accounts for the higher pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} observed in the 115 rpm trials. The phase II $\dot{V}_{02} \tau$ was higher (\dot{V}_{02} kinetics 490 491 was slower) when cycling at 115 rpm than 35 rpm, which corroborates findings of a slower adjustment of \dot{V}_{02} when cycling at a higher pedal cadence (11, 19). 492

In concert with slower phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics, there was a trend for slower \dot{Q} kinetics in the 494 115 rpm trials, suggesting that the slower \dot{V}_{02} kinetics might have been related to a slower 495 496 adjustment of bulk blood flow and O₂ delivery to the contracting muscles in the higher 497 cadence condition. However, there is strong evidence that bulk muscle blood flow is 498 enhanced at higher contraction frequencies (22, 30, 47, 52). Despite slower phase II \dot{V}_{02} 499 kinetics at the higher pedal cadence, there were no differences in muscle microvascular 500 [HHb] kinetics (τ + TD) between 115 rpm and 35 rpm. Since muscle [HHb] is considered a 501 non-invasive proxy for muscle O₂ extraction (25, 36), this suggests that the slower phase II \dot{V} o₂ kinetics at 115 rpm might be a function of slower microvascular blood flow kinetics and, 502 503 therefore, to a relative shortfall in muscle O2 delivery compared to muscle O2 demand over 504 the initial stages of the severe-intensity step test. The slower phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics at the 505 higher pedal cadence might also reflect increased fast-twitch fiber recruitment (7), because fast-twitch fibers are believed to exhibit slower \dot{V}_{02} kinetics (18, 39). Alternatively, the 506 507 higher baseline metabolic rate that is elicited by cycling at a higher pedal cadence might have 508 slowed phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics due to the altered energetic state (9, 12).

509

Supplementation with BR did not significantly impact HR, SV, \dot{Q} , muscle oxygenation or \dot{V} 510 o_2 kinetics when cycling at 35 rpm in this study. Conversely, phase II $\dot{V}o_2$ kinetics was 23% 511 faster in 115-BR than 115-PLA. The faster \dot{V}_{02} kinetics in 115-BR was not a function of 512 513 enhanced HR, SV or \dot{Q} , as these were similar in 115-BR and 115-PLA. However, muscle 514 [O₂Hb] was increased at baseline and throughout exercise in 115-BR compared to 115-PLA 515 suggesting that the faster phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics in 115-BR might have been linked to increased delivery of O_2 to the muscle microvasculature. Since the slower \dot{V}_{O_2} kinetics in the 516 517 115 rpm trials compared to the 35 rpm trials appears to be linked to slower muscle O₂ 518 delivery (as described above), the increase in muscle O₂ delivery at the higher cadence with 519 BR might have partly corrected for the compromised muscle O_2 delivery permitting faster \dot{V} 520 o_2 kinetics in 115-BR compared to 115-PLA. This interpretation is in keeping with the O_2 tipping point theory proposed by Poole and Jones (48), which stipulates that phase II \dot{V}_{02} 521 522 kinetics is only speeded by interventions which enhance muscle O₂ delivery when muscle O₂ 523 delivery is initially limited, at least in healthy adults.

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525 A more rapid adjustment in oxidative metabolism following the onset of exercise would be 526 expected to spare the utilization of the finite anaerobic energy reserves and attenuate the 527 accumulation of fatigue-related metabolites, thereby promoting enhanced exercise tolerance (13, 35). This is supported by our observation that exercise tolerance was enhanced by $\sim 22\%$ 528 529 when phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics was speeded by BR (i.e., at 115 rpm where the phase II τ was 530 ~23% shorter after supplementation) and unchanged when no speeding was present (i.e., at 531 35 rpm; see figure 5). Furthermore, the improvements in exercise tolerance and muscle 532 [O₂Hb] at 120 s with BR at 115 rpm were significantly correlated. This suggests that the 533 increase in muscle O₂ delivery with BR was an important contributor to the ergogenic effects 534 of BR at 115 rpm. Plasma [NO₂⁻] was increased with BR and since NO₂⁻ can positively 535 impact on vascular function directly (2), or indirectly through its reduction to NO (28, 42, 54), this is likely to account for the improved muscle O₂ delivery with BR. Indeed, previous 536 537 studies have shown that NO₃⁻ supplementation can increase muscle blood flow in the running 538 rat (23) and that NO_2^- infusion can increase blood flow in humans completing forearm 539 exercise (17). The potential for enhanced perfusion with BR is likely to be more pronounced 540 in the microvasculature of fast-twitch muscle, where Po_2 during contractions is lower (8, 44), 541 since the reduction of NO_2^- to NO is augmented as Po_2 declines (14). This might explain why 542 NO_3 supplementation has been shown to preferentially distribute blood flow towards the more fatigue-susceptible fast-twitch muscle fibers in rats (23) and to speed phase II \dot{V}_{02} 543 544 kinetics when a greater proportion of fast-twitch muscle fibers are likely to be recruited (12). 545 Therefore, assuming the recruitment of fast-twitch muscle was greater at the higher cadence 546 (6-7, but see 1), this might account for the increased muscle [O₂Hb] in 115-BR, but not 35-547 BR, in this study. This increased muscle O₂ delivery in 115-BR likely reduced the mismatch 548 between muscle O₂ delivery and muscle O₂ utilization at the higher pedal cadence which, in 549 turn, promoted a more rapid adjustment of phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and improved exercise 550 tolerance in 115-BR relative to 115-PLA. Alternatively, or in conjunction with enhanced 551 fast-twitch muscle perfusion, inorganic NO₃⁻ supplementation has been shown to enhance 552 calcium-handling proteins in fast-twitch muscle and to increase cytoplasmic [calcium] (33). 553 This might provide a greater stimulus for oxidative phosphorylation in fast-twitch muscle fibers, potentially promoting faster \dot{V}_{02} kinetics in 115-BR (31). It is also possible that the 554 555 higher baseline metabolic rate evoked by the higher pedal cadence was responsible for the effects of BR at 115 rpm, but not 35 rpm, in this study (12). Bowen et al. (9) suggested that 556 557 elevating metabolic rate during cycling exercise negatively impacted the intramuscular 558 energy state leading to slower phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics. Since NO₃ supplementation has been 559 shown to blunt intramuscular adenosine diphosphate and inorganic phosphate accumulation, 560 and phosphocreatine utilization during exercise (3), the faster \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and improved exercise tolerance in 115-BR might be linked to an improved intramuscular energy state,
 regardless of muscle fiber recruitment patterns, in the higher cadence condition.

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In addition to the faster phase II $\dot{V}o_2$ kinetics in 115-BR, there is also evidence to 564 565 demonstrate that NO₃⁻ supplementation can increase force during the initial stages of highfrequency maximal stimulation (29) and at high but not low contraction velocities (16) in 566 567 human skeletal muscle in vivo. Moreover, NO₃ supplementation can increase the rate of 568 force development during high-frequency stimulation in mouse skeletal muscle in vitro (33). Taken together with the enhanced muscle oxygenation and faster phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics 569 observed in this study, these findings suggest that the effects of NO_3^- supplementation on 570 571 skeletal muscle vascular function, metabolism and force production are enhanced at higher 572 contraction velocities and frequencies and that these positive physiological responses are 573 likely to account for the improved fatigue resistance observed with BR at 115 rpm, but not 35 574 rpm, in the current study. The results of this study might have important implications for 575 improving skeletal muscle fatigue resistance at a high muscle contractile frequency or 576 velocity, when greater recruitment of type II muscle fibers and a lower contractile efficacy 577 might be expected.

578

579 In conclusion, short-term dietary supplementation with inorganic NO₃⁻ increased muscle 580 [O₂Hb] during cycling at 115 rpm, without changing muscle [Hb_{tot}], suggesting improved 581 muscle oxygenation. This increase in muscle oxygenation was accompanied by faster phase 582 II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and was correlated with improved exercise tolerance in 115-BR. There were 583 no changes in muscle oxygenation, phase II \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and exercise tolerance with BR 584 when cycling at very slow pedal cadence (35 rpm). Considered together, our findings suggest 585 that NO₃⁻ supplementation is more effective at improving muscle microvascular oxygenation, pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} kinetics and exercise tolerance during cycle ergometry exercise when a 586 587 higher pedal cadence is employed. These findings might have important implications for speeding the adjustment of pulmonary \dot{V}_{O_2} and improving fatigue resistance in exercise 588 589 settings where more type II muscle fibers are recruited and/or muscle O2 delivery is 590 compromised.

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858 Figure Legends

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Figure 1: Resting plasma nitrite concentration ($[NO_2^-]$) following placebo (PLA) and nitraterich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation. The *open bar* represents the group mean ± SEM plasma $[NO_2^-]$ from the PLA trials, while the *filled bar* represents the group mean ± SEM plasma $[NO_2^-]$ from the BR trials. The solid grey lines represent the individual changes in plasma $[NO_2^-]$ following BR supplementation. * indicates significantly different from PLA (*P*<0.01). Note the increase in plasma $[NO_2^-]$ with BR supplementation.

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Figure 2: Pulmonary oxygen uptake (\dot{V}_{O_2}) responses to a step increment from an unloaded 867 baseline to a severe-intensity work rate in a representative subject. The upper panel 868 869 illustrates the \dot{V}_{02} responses whilst cycling at a cadence of 35 rpm following placebo (PLA) 870 and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation. The lower panel shows the \dot{V}_{02} responses whilst cycling at a cadence of 115 rpm following placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich 871 beetroot juice (BR) supplementation. Data are expressed as a percentage of the \dot{V}_{02} during 872 873 baseline cycling and displayed as 5-s averages. The dashed vertical line indicates the point of 874 the abrupt increase in work rate. Note the more rapid increase in \dot{V}_{02} with BR following the 875 step increment in work rate at 115 rpm, but not 35 rpm. Data are truncated at 180 s.

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877 Figure 3: Muscle deoxyhemoglobin concentration ([HHb]) group mean responses to a step increment from an unloaded baseline to a severe-intensity work rate. The upper panel 878 879 illustrates the [HHb] responses whilst cycling at a cadence of 35 rpm following placebo 880 (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation. The lower panel shows the 881 [HHb] responses whilst cycling at a cadence of 115 rpm following placebo (PLA) and nitrate-882 rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation. Data are expressed as the change in muscle [HHb] 883 above baseline values and displayed as 5-s averages. The dashed vertical line indicates the point of the abrupt increase in work rate. Note the slower adjustment of muscle [HHb] 884 following the step increment in work rate with BR for both conditions. Data are truncated at 885 180 s. 886

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Figure 4: Muscle oxyhemoglobin concentration ($[O_2Hb]$) group mean responses to a step increment from an unloaded baseline to a severe-intensity work rate. The *upper panel* illustrates the $[O_2Hb]$ responses whilst cycling at a cadence of 35 rpm following placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation. The *lower panel* shows the $[O_2Hb]$ responses whilst cycling at a cadence of 115 rpm following placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation. Data are expressed as 5-s averages and the dashed vertical line indicates the point of the abrupt increase in work rate. Note the significantly higher $[O_2Hb]$ during baseline cycling and during the severe-intensity cycling bout with BR at 115 rpm, but not 35 rpm.

Figure 5: Time-to-exhaustion responses during a step increment from an unloaded baseline to a severe-intensity constant work rate. The upper panel compares time-to-exhaustion following placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation whilst cycling at 35 rpm. The lower panel compares time-to-exhaustion following placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation whilst cycling at 115 rpm. The open bars represent the group mean \pm SEM responses after PLA supplementation, while the *filled bars* represent the group mean \pm SEM responses after BR supplementation. The solid grey lines represent the individual changes in time-to-exhaustion following BR supplementation. * indicates significantly different from PLA (P<0.05). Note the significant increase in exercise tolerance after BR at 115 rpm, but not 35 rpm.

924Table 1. Pulmonary oxygen uptake (\dot{V}_{02}) measures during severe-intensity cycle exercise925at 35 rpm and 115 rpm after placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR)926supplementation.

	35-PLA	35-BR	115-PLA	115-BR
Oxygen Uptake (Vo ₂)				
Baseline (L·min ⁻¹)	0.92 ± 0.14	0.89 ± 0.07	$1.93\pm0.34^{*}\varphi$	$1.89\pm0.25^{*}\varphi$
120 s (L·min ⁻¹)	3.41 ± 0.55	3.45 ± 0.51	$3.65 \pm 0.49^* \phi$	$3.68\pm0.47^{*}\varphi$
Exhaustion (L·min ⁻¹)	3.83 ± 0.58	3.86 ± 0.52	$4.24\pm0.61^{*}\varphi$	$4.32\pm0.75^{*}\varphi$
Phase II τ (s)	32 ± 10	32 ± 6	$61 \pm 25^{*} \phi$	$47 \pm 16^{*} \phi \Psi$
Fundamental amplitude (L·min ⁻¹)	2.58 ± 0.40	2.61 ± 0.43	$2.01\pm0.24^{*}\varphi$	$1.92\pm0.30^{*}\varphi$
Slow component amplitude $(L \cdot min^{-1})$	0.44 ± 0.15	0.35 ± 0.18	0.38 ± 0.32	0.53 ± 0.42
928 Values are presented as the mean	$n \pm SD. * = signif$	icantly different f	rom 35-PLA (<i>P</i> <0	.05); φ =
929 significantly different from 35	-BR (P<0.05); Y	P = significantly	different from	115-PLA
930 (<i>P</i> <0.05).				
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948 Table 2. Heart rate (HR), stroke volume (SV) and cardiac output (\dot{Q}) measures during

949 severe-intensity cycle exercise at 35 rpm and 115 rpm after placebo (PLA) and nitrate-

950	rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation.
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	35-PLA	35-BR	115-PLA	115-BR	
Heart Rate (HR)					
Baseline (beats·min ⁻¹)	89 ± 10	88 ± 11	$124 \pm 19*\phi$	$131 \pm 21*\phi$	
$120 \text{ s} (\text{beats} \cdot \text{min}^{-1})$	153 ± 15	153 ± 13	$162 \pm 17^{*}$	165 ± 13*¢	
Exhaustion (beats·min ⁻¹)	168 ± 16	166 ± 15	$178 \pm 17^{*} \phi$	$178 \pm 12^{*}\phi$	
Stroke Volume (SV)					
Baseline (mL·beat ⁻¹)	93 ± 6	87 ± 15	$102 \pm 14\phi$	98 ± 17	
120 s (mL·beat ⁻¹)	108 ± 12	100 ± 19	111 ± 14	105 ± 11	
Exhaustion (mL·beat ⁻¹)	102 ± 13	99 ± 16	111 ± 17	104 ± 13	
Cardiac Output (\dot{Q})					
Baseline (L·min ⁻¹)	8 ± 1	8 ± 2	$12 \pm 2*\phi$	$13 \pm 4*\phi$	
120 s (L·min ⁻¹)	16 ± 2	15 ± 4	18 ± 2	17 ± 3	
Exhaustion $(L \cdot min^{-1})$	17 ± 2	16 ± 4	$20 \pm 3\phi$	18 ± 2	
951 Values are presented as the mean + SD * - significantly different from 35-PI Λ (P<0.05); $\Lambda =$					

Values are presented as the mean \pm SD. * = significantly different from 35-PLA (*P*<0.05); ϕ =

952 significantly different from 35-BR (*P*<0.05);

- 965 Table 3. Near-infrared spectroscopy determined muscle oxyhemoglobin concentration
- 966 ([O₂Hb]), deoxyhemoglobin concentration ([HHb]) and total hemoglobin concentration
- 967 ([Hb_{tot}]) measures during severe-intensity cycle exercise at 35 rpm and 115 rpm after
- 968 placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR) supplementation.

	35-PLA	35-BR	115-PLA	115-BR
Muscle [HHb]				
Baseline (A.U.)	-4.0 ± 3.8	-3.9 ± 2.5	-2.0 ± 4.2	-3.0 ± 3.9
120 s (A.U.)	5.8 ± 6.1	5.4 ± 5.8	4.3 ± 4.2	2.9 ± 5.9
Exhaustion (A.U.)	6.4 ± 6.7	7.0 ± 7.0	4.9 ± 4.3	4.1 ± 6.5
$[HHb] \tau + TD (s)$	19 ± 6	23 ± 13	24 ± 14	36 ± 24
[HHb] amplitude (A.U.)	10 ± 5	9 ± 6	6 ± 4	6 ± 3
Muscle [O ₂ Hb]				
Baseline (A.U.)	1.8 ± 3.1	0.1 ± 4.5	-1.1 ± 3.5*	$3.4 \pm 4.9 \Psi$
120 s (A.U.)	-6.9 ± 2.9	-7.7 ± 7.1	-6.1 ± 3.7	$-1.0 \pm 6.3^{*} \phi \Psi$
Exhaustion (A.U.)	-6.9 ± 3.1	-7.0 ± 6.7	-6.0 ± 5.4	$-0.6 \pm 7.8 * \phi$
Muscle [Hb _{tot}]				
Baseline (A.U.)	-2.2 ± 3.2	-3.8 ± 6.4	-3.1 ± 3.1	0.3 ± 5.5
120 s (A.U.)	-1.1 ± 5.9	-2.3 ± 8.1	-1.8 ± 3.2	1.9 ± 5.5
Exhaustion (A.U.)	-0.5 ± 5.7	-0.1 ± 8.9	-1.2 ± 4.3	3.5 ± 7.0

969 Values are presented as the mean \pm SD. * = significantly different from 35-PLA (*P*<0.05); ϕ =

970 significantly different from 35-BR (P<0.05); Ψ = significantly different from 115-PLA

971 (*P*<0.05). A.U., arbitrary units.













Fig 4

Time (s)



Fig 5

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