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### Paper:

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1 **The influence of a six week exercise intervention on the pulmonary oxygen uptake kinetics in**  
2 **pre-pubertal obese and normal weight children**

3

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12

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16

17 **Running title:** Influence of a 6 week intervention on  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetic

18

19 There are no conflicts of interest

20

21

22

**Abstract**

Purpose: The pulmonary oxygen uptake ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) response is deleteriously influenced by obesity in pre-pubertal children, as evidenced by a slower phase II response relative to their normal-weight counterparts. To date, no studies have investigated the ability of an exercise intervention to ameliorate this deleterious influence. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the influence of a six week, high-intensity games orientated intervention on the  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetic response of pre-pubertal obese (OB) and normal-weight (NW) children during heavy intensity exercise.

Methods: Thirteen NW and fifteen OB children participated in a twice weekly exercise intervention involving repeated bouts of 6-minutes of high-intensity, games-orientated exercises followed by 2 minutes of recovery. Sixteen NW and eleven OB children served as a control group. At baseline and post-intervention, each participant completed a graded-exercise test to volitional exhaustion and constant work rate heavy intensity exercise (40% of the difference between the gas exchange threshold and peak  $\dot{V}O_2$ ).

Results: Following the intervention, OB children demonstrated a significantly reduced phase II  $\tau$  (Pre:  $30 \pm 8$  cf. Post:  $24 \pm 7$  s), MRT (Pre:  $50 \pm 10$  cf. Post:  $38 \pm 9$  s) and phase II amplitude (Pre:  $1.51 \pm 0.30$  cf. Post:  $1.34 \pm 0.27$ ). In contrast, the intervention did not elicit any changes in the dynamic  $\dot{V}O_2$  response in NW children.

Conclusions: The present findings demonstrate that a six-week, high-intensity intervention can have a significant positive impact on the dynamic  $\dot{V}O_2$  response of obese pre-pubertal children.

**Keywords:** High intensity; games;  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics; exercise intensity; training; BMI

46

47 **Introduction**

48 The prevalence of childhood obesity has reached epidemic proportions (Watts et al. 2005), with the  
49 World Health Organisation (WHO) recognising it as a major public health challenge of the 21<sup>st</sup>  
50 century (WHO 2010). This is of paramount importance considering that obesity is strongly associated  
51 with the occurrence of comorbidities such as insulin resistance, type II diabetes mellitus, coronary  
52 artery disease, stroke and heart failure (Poirier et al. 2006). Recent statistics suggest that ~30% of  
53 children are overweight or obese (Townsend et al. 2013). Furthermore, childhood obesity is known to  
54 track strongly into adolescence and adulthood, with evidence suggesting that 80% of obese  
55 adolescents will become obese adults (Schonfeld-Warden et al. 1997). Exercise has been widely  
56 recognised as pivotal to resolving this obesity epidemic, however, there is little agreement within the  
57 literature as to effective exercise interventions. Regular physical activity and exercise participation for  
58 children, therefore, may be important in attenuating or even alleviating the severity of childhood  
59 obesity.

60 Pulmonary oxygen uptake ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) kinetics describe the finite rate of adjustment to a sudden change in  
61 metabolic demand, thus providing a functional evaluation of the integration of the pulmonary,  
62 cardiovascular and skeletal systems (Whipp et al. 1990). During moderate intensity exercise below the  
63 gas exchange threshold (GET),  $\dot{V}O_2$  rises in a near-exponential manner (the so-called phase II  
64 response), attaining a steady-state within 2-3 minutes in young, healthy adults (Whipp et al. 1972;  
65 Whipp et al. 1982). The dynamic  $\dot{V}O_2$  response becomes appreciably more complex during exercise  
66 above the GET, with attainment of a steady state delayed, or even precluded, by the presence of a  
67 supplementary “slow component” of  $\dot{V}O_2$  (Whipp and Wasserman 1972; Barstow et al. 1991), that is  
68 thought to originate in the exercising muscle (Poole et al. 1991; Jones et al. 2011). This  $\dot{V}O_2$  response  
69 has been shown to be highly sensitive in children, for example, a higher cardiorespiratory fitness is  
70 associated with a faster phase II time constant ( $\tau$ ) (McNarry et al. 2010; Winlove et al. 2010).  
71 Conversely,  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics have also been shown to be deleteriously influenced by obesity during

72 weight-bearing exercise (Lambrick et al. 2013). The findings of this latter study are particularly  
73 pertinent given the utilisation of a weight-bearing exercise (i.e., walking, running) which is an  
74 important part of the daily activities of children. However, despite the sensitivity of  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics and  
75 the pivotal role of exercise and physical activity as an intervention to resolve obesity, no study to date  
76 has investigated the influence of an exercise intervention on the  $\dot{V}O_2$  response. Rather the reliance on  
77 peak  $\dot{V}O_2$  as an indicator of aerobic fitness, despite the common recognition that this parameter can  
78 lack sensitivity (Impellizzeri et al. 2005; Meyer et al. 2005), may explain, at least in part, the  
79 discrepancy in the literature with regard to the trainability of pre-pubertal children (e.g. Welsman et  
80 al. 1997; Obert et al. 2009; Rowland et al. 2009). The importance of using appropriate modalities and  
81 parameters to assess the influence of training and interventions is especially evident in paediatric  
82 populations, particularly when considering that a meta-analysis demonstrated that aerobic endurance  
83 training may only elicit a 5-6% increase in peak  $\dot{V}O_2$  (Baquet et al. 2003). The equivocal findings of  
84 previous studies may also be attributable to differences in the duration, intensity and/or type of  
85 exercise programme. Whilst the majority of previous studies have utilised continuous, sustained bouts  
86 of exercise, such bouts fail to reflect the highly sporadic nature of children's play patterns which are  
87 characterised by bursts of high-intensity, intermittent exercise (Bailey et al. 1995).

88

89 Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of a short-term exercise  
90 intervention on the pulmonary oxygen uptake response of obese and normal weight children. To  
91 ensure participant adherence and the relevance of the intervention to the daily physical activity  
92 patterns of children, a high-intensity games model was used. We hypothesised that the intervention  
93 would significantly speed the  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics in the obese children. Furthermore, we also hypothesised  
94 that the intervention would not influence the  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics of the normal weight children due to their  
95 assumed higher baseline aerobic fitness.

96

97 **Methods**

98 *Participants*

99 Twenty-six obese (OB) children (9.3±0.9 y, 143.5±8.8 cm, 48.9±10.6 kg, 23.5±3.6 kg·m<sup>2</sup>, 13 boys)  
100 and twenty-nine healthy normal weight (NW) children (9.2±0.8 y, 137.5±8.8 cm, 32.2±5.6 kg,  
101 16.9±1.6 kg·m<sup>2</sup>, 17 boys) volunteered for this study. BMI percentiles were used to classify children as  
102 either NW (5<sup>th</sup> to 85<sup>th</sup> percentile) or OB (≥ 95<sup>th</sup> percentile) (Cole et al. 2012). The participants were  
103 pre-pubescent, as determined by their predicted age at peak height velocity (Mirwald et al. 2002). On  
104 average, children took part in two or more weekly bouts of physical activity (i.e., football, netball,  
105 bike riding), as determined by parental-reports of activity status. Reported physical activity did not  
106 differ between the obese and normal weight children. Child assent and parent/guardian consent were  
107 obtained prior to participation. This research was conducted in agreement with the guidelines and  
108 policies of the institutional ethics committee.

109

110 *Procedure*

111 Participants took part in four laboratory-based exercise sessions; two maximal graded-exercise tests  
112 (GXT) to peak oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}O_2$  peak) and two repeated constant work rate exercise tests, all  
113 of which were conducted on a treadmill (True 825, Fitness Technologies, St Louis, USA).

114

115 Standing- and seated height (measured to the nearest 0.1cm; SECA, Hamburg, Germany), body  
116 weight, fat-free mass (measured to the nearest 0.1kg) and body fat percentage (% BF; measured with  
117 bioelectrical impedance analysis: InBody Biospace 230, Los Angeles, USA) were obtained on the  
118 initial visit to the laboratory. Following this, participants completed a baseline GXT to  $\dot{V}O_2$  peak.  
119 After a minimum 72 hour interim period, participants completed a baseline constant work-rate  
120 exercise test. OB and NW participants were then randomised to either a 6-week child-specific, high-  
121 intensity exercise intervention, completed during school hours, or to a usual care control group which  
122 incorporated normal classroom activities. On completion of the exercise programme, all participants  
123 completed a post-intervention GXT to  $\dot{V}O_2$  peak and constant work-rate exercise test, similar to  
124 baseline.

125

126 Throughout all exercise tests, the treadmill grade was set at 1%. On-line respiratory gas analysis was  
127 undertaken continuously using a breath-by-breath automatic gas exchange system (SensorMedics  
128 Corporation, Yorba Linda, CA, USA). Children wore a paediatric facemask while they exercised to  
129 allow respiratory variables to be monitored continuously. A paediatric wireless chest strap telemetry  
130 system (Polar Electro T31, Kempele, Finland) measured heart rate (HR) throughout each exercise test.  
131 All physical and physiological data were concealed from the participants for the duration of each test.

132

### 133 *Graded exercise test*

134 Children were firstly familiarised to a range of treadmill speeds (4, 6 & 8 km·h<sup>-1</sup>) and the testing  
135 equipment. Habituation to the apparatus was considered essential to reduce any potential bias in the  
136 measurements. The GXT followed a discontinuous incremental protocol to ascertain peak oxygen  
137 uptake ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) and maximal HR (HR<sub>max</sub>) (Lambrick et al. 2011; Lambrick, Faulkner et al. 2013).  
138 During this test participants completed a series of 1 minute exercise bouts with 1-minute recovery  
139 periods interspersed between each active bout of exercise until participants reported volitional  
140 exhaustion (For more details, see Lambrick, Faulkner et al. 2013) . The  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  was taken as the  
141 highest 10-s average value attained in the test. The GET was determined by the V-slope method  
142 (Beaver et al. 1986). Using the  $\dot{V}O_2$  values reported at GET and  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ , the running speeds  
143 equivalent to 90 % GET (moderate exercise) and 40% delta (difference between GET and  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ ;  
144 heavy exercise) were calculated for the constant work rate tests with the mean response time (MRT)  
145 for  $\dot{V}O_2$  during ramp exercise accounted for (i.e., two-thirds of the ramp rate was deducted from the  
146 work rate at the GET and  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  (Whipp et al. 1981).

147

### 148 *Constant work rate tests*

149 For the determination of  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics, participants completed a series of “step” tests. The protocol  
150 required participants to complete one moderate and one heavy intensity exercise bout, each of 6 min  
151 duration. Each bout was preceded by 5 min of rest followed by an abrupt transition to the target speed.

152

153 *Randomisation*

154 Participants were randomised to either a 6-week exercise programme (EX) or to a usual care control  
155 group (CON). OB and NW participants were randomly assigned using simple randomisation  
156 procedures (computerised random numbers). However, to ensure equal distribution of OB and NW  
157 children to both EX and CON the randomisation procedure was implemented separately for each  
158 group (OB, NW). Details of the allocated group were given on a piece of paper contained within  
159 sequentially numbered, opaque sealed envelopes. The randomisation procedures were prepared by an  
160 investigator with no involvement in the trial. Following randomisation, there were no significant  
161 differences between the exercise and control groups with regard to their anthropometrics, peak or  
162 constant work rate responses.

163

164 *Exercise intervention*

165 Participants randomised to EX completed a supervised high-intensity, child-specific, discontinuous  
166 games programme for 6 weeks. This included participation in twice weekly 60 minute exercise  
167 sessions, during which children were physically active for 40 minutes. There was a minimum 48 hour  
168 recovery period between sessions. These sessions were conducted outside of the children's normal  
169 Physical Education lessons (1 hr·wk<sup>-1</sup>) and were therefore considered supplementary exercise.

170

171 A two week pilot study demonstrated that children could manage repeated bouts of 6-minutes of high-  
172 intensity exercise followed by 2 minutes of recovery. To increase motivation, enjoyment and  
173 adherence, and to ensure children took part in each game at a high-intensity, different games (n=14)  
174 were used for each 6-minute exercise period (Howe et al. 2010). The 2-minute recovery period  
175 allowed researchers to provide instructions concerning the subsequent game activity. During each  
176 session, children took part in 6 child-specific games and a 4-minute circuit which included ladder  
177 running, step-ups, skipping, star jumps, high knees, shuttle runs, jumping jacks and lateral jumps. HR  
178 was constantly monitored throughout each exercise session (Polar Team<sup>2</sup> system, POLAR, Oulu,  
179 Finland).



180

181 The CON group continued to attend their weekly Physical Education classes, but no additional  
182 exercise sessions were implemented.

183

#### 184 *Data analysis*

185 The  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  from the GXT is reported in absolute ( $\text{L}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) and relative terms ( $\text{mL}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ;  
186  $\text{mL}\cdot\text{kg}^{\text{LBM}}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ [where LBM is  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  expressed relative to lean body mass]). Furthermore, the  
187 influence of body size was accounted for using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) on log transformed  
188 data to determine the allometric relationship between body mass and peak  $\dot{V}O_2$ . Common allometric  
189 exponents were confirmed for all groups and power function ratios ( $Y/X^b$ ) were computed.

190

191 Initially, the breath-by-breath  $\dot{V}O_2$  responses to each step transition were visually examined to  
192 remove any errant breaths caused by coughing, swallowing, sighing, etc., using a 5-s moving average  
193 to identify points lying in excess of 4 standard deviations from the local mean. Subsequently, each  
194 transition was interpolated to 1-s intervals, time aligned to the start of exercise and averaged. To  
195 remove the influence of the cardiodynamic phase on the analysis of the subsequent response, the first  
196 20s of data were ignored. Subsequently, following baseline correction, a mono-exponential model  
197 with a time delay (Eq.1) was then applied to this averaged response:

198

$$199 \quad \dot{V}O_{2(t)} = A_1 \cdot (1 - e^{-(t-\delta_1)/\tau_1}) \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

200

201 where  $\Delta\dot{V}O_2$  is the increase in  $\dot{V}O_2$  at time t above the baseline value (calculated as the mean  $\dot{V}O_2$   
202 from the first 45-s of the last min of baseline), and  $A_1$ ,  $\delta_1$  and  $\tau_1$  are the primary component amplitude,  
203 time delay (which was allowed to vary freely), and time constant, respectively. Kinetic variables ( $A_1$ ,  
204  $\delta_1$  and  $\tau_1$ ) and their 95% confidence intervals were determined by least squares non-linear regression  
205 analysis (Graphpad Prism, Graphpad Software, San Diego, CA). A mono-exponential model was  
206 ultimately used for both moderate and heavy intensity exercise as a bi-exponential ( $\Delta\dot{V}O_{2(t)} = A_1 \cdot$

207  $(1 - e^{-(t-\delta_1)/\tau_1}) + A_2 \cdot (1 - e^{-(t-\delta_2)/\tau_2})$  during heavy exercise was found to produce an inferior  
208 and ambiguous fit.

209

210 Given the failure of the bi-exponential model to describe the  $\dot{V}O_2$  response during heavy intensity  
211 exercise, the onset of the  $\dot{V}O_2$  slow component was determined using purpose designed LabVIEW  
212 software which iteratively fits a monoexponential function to the  $\dot{V}O_2$  data until the window  
213 encompasses the entire response. The resulting phase II time constants were plotted against time and  
214 the onset of the  $\dot{V}O_2$  slow component identified as the point at which the phase II time constant  
215 consistently deviates from the previously “flat” profile. The amplitude of the  $\dot{V}O_2$  peak slow  
216 component was subsequently determined by calculating the difference between the end exercise  $\dot{V}O_2$   
217 and the sum of the primary amplitude and baseline  $\dot{V}O_2$ . This was expressed both in absolute terms  
218 and relative to end exercise  $\dot{V}O_2$ . The functional gain of the phase II  $\dot{V}O_2$  response during both  
219 exercise intensities was also calculated by dividing the primary phase amplitude by the change in  
220 speed. The mean response time (MRT) was calculated by fitting a single exponential curve to the data  
221 with no time delay from the onset of exercise to the end of exercise. Finally, the oxygen deficit was  
222 determined using the MRT (expressed as a fraction of a minute) and the phase II amplitude.

223

224 Gaussian distribution was confirmed by the Shapiro-Wilks test. The influence of gender was assessed  
225 by an independent sample t-test which revealed no differences during either the incremental or  
226 constant work rate tests. Therefore, the data for boys and girls were pooled for all further analyses. A  
227 series of three-factor repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), with weight status (NW,  
228 OB) and exercise condition (EX, CON) as the between-participant factors and test (baseline, post-  
229 intervention) as the within-participant factor, were used to analyse maximal data from the GXT to  $\dot{V}$   
230  $O_2$ peak and the physiological data reported from the constant work rate tests (for both moderate &  
231 heavy intensity exercise). Where statistical differences were observed, post-hoc analyses using  
232 Tukey’s HSD were performed to identify where these differences lay. Where applicable, intention-to-  
233 treat analysis, whereby individual data recorded from the baseline assessment from a single

234 participant was carried forward and used in place of any missing data from the post-intervention  
235 assessment, was used on all relevant repeated-measures statistical procedures. All statistical analyses  
236 were conducted using PASW Statistics 21 (SPSS, Chicago, IL). All data are presented as means  $\pm$  SD.  
237 Statistical significance was accepted when  $P \leq 0.05$ .

238

## 239 **Results**

### 240 *Descriptive statistics*

241 Participant descriptives are summarised in Table 1. There were no anthropometrical differences  
242 following randomisation between the exercise and control groups. The obese children demonstrated a  
243 significantly higher weight (OB,  $49.2 \pm 8.9$  cf. NW,  $32.5 \pm 8.9$  kg;  $P < 0.05$ ), BMI (OB,  $23.3 \pm 2.9$  cf.  
244 NW,  $17.0 \pm 2.9$  kg·m<sup>-2</sup>;  $P < 0.05$ ) and %BF (OB,  $32.3 \pm 7.0$  cf. NW,  $20.7 \pm 6.9\%$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ) than their  
245 normal weight counterparts throughout the entire study. Irrespective of weight status, body mass  
246 increased from baseline to post-intervention ( $40.4 \pm 8.6$  cf.  $41.4 \pm 9.3$  kg, respectively;  $P < 0.05$ )

247

### 248 *Maximal physiological responses*

249 The physiological responses to the incremental exercise test are summarised in Table 2. Both at  
250 baseline and post-intervention, OB children demonstrated a higher  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  than NW children when  
251 expressed in absolute terms ( $2.4 \pm 0.4$  cf.  $2.0 \pm 0.4$  L·min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively;  $P < .001$ ), but no differences  
252 were observed when allometrically expressed relative to body mass. A significant increase in absolute  
253  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  was observed between baseline and post-intervention ( $2.1 \pm 0.4$  cf.  $2.2 \pm 0.4$  L·min<sup>-1</sup>,  
254 respectively;  $P < .001$ ), but relative peak  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  was unchanged. Furthermore, there were no main  
255 effects or interactions for HR (all  $P > .05$ ), GET (L·min<sup>-1</sup>) or the fraction of  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  at which the  
256 GET occurred, irrespective of weight status (OB, NW) or exercise condition (EX, CON) ( $P > .05$ ).

257

258 *VO<sub>2</sub> kinetics: Moderate intensity exercise*

259 During the moderate intensity exercise (Table 3), a trend was observed for a Test by Exercise  
260 Condition interaction for the phase II amplitude ( $P=0.061$ ). Follow-up analysis demonstrated a lower  
261 phase II amplitude at the post-intervention than baseline assessment for EX ( $0.44\pm 0.09$  cf.  $0.47\pm 0.09$   
262  $L\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ , respectively) but not for CON ( $0.46\pm 0.09$  cf.  $0.45\pm 0.09 L\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ , respectively). The phase II  
263 amplitude and gain were significantly higher in the OB children (all  $P<.01$ ).

264 *VO<sub>2</sub> kinetics: Heavy intensity exercise*

265 The physiological data from the Heavy intensity exercise are reported in Table 4.

266

267 *Phase II amplitude*

268 A significant Test (baseline, post-intervention) by Exercise Condition (EX, CON) by weight status  
269 (OB, NW) interaction was observed for the phase II amplitude ( $P<.05$ ). Post hoc analysis revealed the  
270 following: a significant decrease in the OB children phase II amplitude between baseline and post-  
271 intervention for EX ( $P<.01$ ), a significant increase in the OB children phase II amplitude between  
272 baseline and post-intervention for those in CON ( $P<.05$ ), a significantly lower phase II amplitude for  
273 OB children at post-intervention for EX compared to CON ( $P<.001$ ) and that NW children elicited a  
274 lower phase II amplitude than OB children, regardless of the Exercise Condition or Test (all  $P<.001$ ).

275

276 *Phase II gain*

277 A significant Test by Exercise Condition by weight status interaction was observed for the phase II  
278 gain ( $P<.05$ ). Post hoc analysis demonstrated the following: a significant decrease in the phase II gain  
279 between baseline and post-intervention for OB children taking part in EX ( $P<.001$ ), significantly  
280 lower values for OB children taking part in EX than OB children randomised to CON at the post-

281 intervention assessment ( $P < .001$ ), and that NW children (EX & CON) elicited lower values than OB  
282 children (EX & CON) at both the baseline and post-intervention assessments ( $P < .001$ ).

### 283 *MRT*

284 A Test by Exercise Condition interaction was observed for MRT, with a significant decrease reported  
285 from baseline to post-intervention for EX ( $47.4 \pm 8.8$  to  $40.5 \pm 9.7$  s, respectively), but not for CON  
286 ( $45.7 \pm 8.9$  to  $46.1 \pm 9.8$  s, respectively) ( $P < .05$ ).

287

### 288 *Phase II time delay*

289 A significant Test by Exercise Condition by weight status interaction was observed for the phase II  
290 time delay with the greatest change reported between the baseline and post-intervention assessment  
291 for OB children ( $P < .05$ ).

292

### 293 *Phase II $\tau$*

294 A significant Test by Exercise Condition by weight status interaction was also revealed for  $\tau$  ( $P < .05$ ).  
295 Post hoc analysis demonstrated a greater decrease in the OB children phase II  $\tau$  between baseline and  
296 post-intervention for EX than all other conditions ( $P < .01$ ), as shown in Figure 1.

297

### 298 *Slow Component*

299 A slow component was observed in all participants during heavy intensity exercise, but was not  
300 influenced by weight status, Exercise Condition or Test, irrespective of the method of expression (all  
301  $P > .05$ ).

302

### 303 **Discussion**

304 The main finding of the present study was that a six-week high-intensity, games-orientated  
305 intervention significantly influenced the  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetic response of obese pre-pubertal children.  
306 Specifically, and in accordance with our hypothesis, the obese children demonstrated a significantly  
307 faster phase II  $\tau$  and MRT and reduced phase II amplitude during heavy intensity exercise. The  
308 intervention did not influence the dynamic  $\dot{V}O_2$  response in the normal weight children. These  
309 findings demonstrate that positive improvements in the dynamic  $\dot{V}O_2$  response of obese children may  
310 be elicited following regular participation in just six weeks of high-intensity exercise.

311

312 The current study is the first to investigate the influence of an exercise intervention on the dynamic  $\dot{V}$   
313  $O_2$  response of obese pre-pubertal children. In this study, a slower phase II  $\tau$  was observed at baseline  
314 in the obese children, supporting some (Lambrick, Faulkner et al. 2013), but not all (Cooper et al.  
315 1990; Rasmussen et al. 2000; Unnithan et al. 2007), previous research. Interestingly, a significant  
316 speeding of the phase II  $\tau$  (20%) and MRT (24%) and reduction of the phase II amplitude (11%) was  
317 observed in obese children during heavy intensity exercise following the exercise intervention. Whilst  
318 direct comparisons are precluded, it is pertinent to note that long-term, intensive training has been  
319 reported to elicit a phase II  $\tau$  that is 32% faster than that observed in untrained counterparts (Winlove,  
320 Jones et al. 2010). This is remarkably similar to that observed in the present study and demonstrates  
321 the efficacy of our short-term exercise intervention; a programme which reflects the high-intensity  
322 nature of children's play patterns (Bailey, Olson et al. 1995). These findings further support those  
323 which suggest peak  $\dot{V}O_2$  may lack sensitivity to changes in fitness (Impellizzeri, Marcora et al. 2005;  
324 Meyer, Lucia et al. 2005) and highlight the superior sensitivity of  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics.

325

326 It is of interest to note that the influence of this exercise programme was weight-status dependent;  
327 specifically no change was observed following the intervention in the normal weight children  
328 irrespective of exercise intensity. As exercise-induced improvements are inversely related to the initial  
329 baseline fitness of an individual (Eliakim et al. 1996; Mandigout et al. 2001), the relatively high level

330 of fitness of the normal-weight children at the start of the programme may plausibly have necessitated  
331 a greater training stimulus for significant effects of the intervention to be observed in this population.

332

333 In healthy individuals during upright exercise, the dynamic  $\dot{V}O_2$  response is purported to be  
334 predominantly determined by factors inherent to the mitochondria. Specifically, the delayed activation  
335 of oxidative phosphorylation at the onset of exercise is suggested to be partially attributable to  
336 determinants such as pyruvate dehydrogenase (Grassi et al. 2002), nitric oxide (Jones et al. 2003;  
337 Jones et al. 2004) and the PC-Cr shuttle concept of regulation (Grassi 2005). However, there may be  
338 circumstances, such as certain pathologies or exercise conditions that are associated with an altered  
339 microvascular  $O_2$  partial pressure of a muscle fibre or the fibre type recruitment profile, in which rate  
340 of the  $\dot{V}O_2$  response is determined by oxygen delivery. Consequently, it is now widely accepted that  
341 these two factors may co-exist on a continuum, distinguished by a “tipping point” in muscle oxygen  
342 delivery. Therefore, the faster  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics observed post-intervention in the obese children in the  
343 present study may be attributable to an improved muscle oxygen delivery and/or to a greater muscle  
344 oxidative capacity. Indeed, while information regarding the muscle oxidative capacity of children is  
345 almost non-existent (Mahon 2008), the limited information available suggests that training may elicit  
346 an increased muscle oxidative enzyme activity (Eriksson et al. 1973; Fournier et al. 1982). An  
347 increased mitochondrial volume following endurance training would be predicted to result in faster  $\dot{V}$   
348  $O_2$  kinetics (Meyer 1988). Whether similar adaptations occurred in the present obese population  
349 remains to be elucidated. However, when considering the mechanistic basis for the significant  
350 speeding of the phase II response in the present obese children, it may be pertinent to consider the  
351 greater proportion of type II muscle fibres reported in obese participants (Kriketos et al. 1997). Type  
352 II muscle fibres are characterised by a higher glycolytic but lower oxidative capacity than type I fibres  
353 (Crow et al. 1982; Krstrup et al. 2008). In addition, evidence suggests that type II fibres are less  
354 efficient, fatigue more easily and elicit lower microvascular  $O_2$  partial pressures, both across the  
355 transient phase and during steady state exercise (Coyle et al. 1992; Behnke et al. 2003; McDonough et  
356 al. 2005). These differences are likely to exert considerable influence on the overall  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics

357 exhibited, as supported by the inherently slower  $\dot{V}O_2$  response reported in type II relative to type I  
358 muscle fibres (Crow and Kushmerick 1982; Krstrup, Secher et al. 2008). Thus, although it is  
359 presently uncertain whether the aforementioned findings are applicable to paediatric populations, an  
360 altered proportion or recruitment pattern of type II muscle fibres in the obese children post-  
361 intervention may contribute to the faster phase II  $\tau$  observed.

362

363 In accordance with our previous study (Lambrick, Faulkner et al. 2013), a similar  $\dot{V}O_2$  slow  
364 component amplitude was observed between the obese and normal weight children, irrespective of  
365 weight status, exercise participation (EX vs. CON) or assessment session (baseline, post-intervention).  
366 Although the aetiology of the slow component remains to be conclusively elucidated, ~90% of this  
367 component has been shown to arise from within the exercising muscle (Poole, Schaffartzik et al.  
368 1991; Rossiter et al. 2002b), with the recruitment of additional (less efficient) type II muscle fibres  
369 widely purported (Rossiter et al. 2002a; Krstrup et al. 2004). These findings are therefore contrary to  
370 what we would hypothesise, as a reduced reliance on type II fibres might be expected to be associated  
371 with a reduced slow component magnitude. However, since muscle fibre type distribution and  
372 abundance was not assessed in the present study, further interpretation is beyond the scope of the  
373 current study. It is prudent to note, however, that the similar slow component amplitudes observed in  
374 the present participants might be a reflection of a slower development of this component in the obese  
375 individuals, i.e. the slow component might not have been fully manifest at 6 minutes in the obese  
376 children, artificially causing it to appear diminished.

377

378 The exercise intervention utilised in the present study demonstrated high rates of adherence (94%)  
379 and consequently proved highly successful in eliciting significant physiological adaptations.  
380 However, the present study is not without its limitations. Bias may have been introduced into the  
381 study as a result of voluntary participant recruitment, i.e., children who 'like' exercise wished to be  
382 involved in the study and as such, this may be reflected in the high peak  $\dot{V}O_2$  values observed pre-  
383 intervention, irrespective of weight-status. In terms of the findings, whilst a high baseline fitness may



384 explain the absence of an effect within the normal-weight children, it also indicates that the  
385 intervention programme may have an even greater influence in a more representative obese  
386 population. No measures of habitual physical activity were taken post-intervention, therefore it is not  
387 presently possible to account for the effect of any potential changes in habitual physical activity and  
388 their influence of the results observed. Finally, It is suggested that several repeat transitions are  
389 needed for reliable characterisation of  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetic response (Lamarra et al. 1987). Although the  
390 current study only utilised one transition, the confidence intervals during heavy intensity exercise are  
391 nonetheless within those advocated by Fawkner and Armstrong (2007).

392

393 In conclusion, the present study demonstrates that a six week, high-intensity, games-orientated  
394 intervention significantly improved the  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetic response of obese, pre-pubertal children.  
395 Specifically, during heavy intensity exercise, the obese children demonstrated a 20% faster primary  
396 phase response, 24% faster MRT and an 11% lower phase II amplitude. These adaptations would be  
397 expected to reduce metabolic perturbation and fatigue development in the transition from a lower to a  
398 higher metabolic rate, and may therefore improve exercise tolerance. Furthermore, if sustained, they  
399 may directly translate to a reduced  $O_2$  cost of daily activities and thereby potentially enhance  
400 functional capacity and quality of life.

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543 Figure 1. Pulmonary oxygen uptake response during heavy intensity exercise in a representative A)  
544 obese and B) normal-weight participant pre (open circles) and post (closed circles) the exercise  
545 intervention.