1	Dissociating external power from intramuscular exercise intensity during intermittent
2	bilateral knee-extension in humans
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31 Key points summary

• Continuous high-intensity constant-power exercise is unsustainable, with maximal oxygen uptake (\dot{VO}_{2max}) and the limit of tolerance attained after only a few minutes.

Performing the same power intermittently reduces the O₂ cost of exercise and
 increases tolerance. The extent to which this dissociation is reflected in the
 intramuscular bioenergetics is unknown.

We used pulmonary gas exchange and ³¹P magnetic resonance spectroscopy to
 measure whole-body VO₂, quadriceps phosphate metabolism and pH during
 continuous and intermittent exercise of different work:recovery durations.

Shortening the work:recovery durations (16:32 s vs. 32:64 s vs. 64:128 s vs.
 continuous) at a work rate estimated to require 110 % peak aerobic power reduced
 VO₂, muscle phosphocreatine breakdown and muscle acidification, eliminated the
 glycolytic-associated contribution to ATP synthesis, and increased exercise
 tolerance.

Exercise intensity (i.e. magnitude of intramuscular metabolic perturbations) can be
 dissociated from the external power using intermittent exercise with short
 work:recovery durations.

49 Abstract

Compared with work-matched high-intensity continuous exercise, intermittent exercise 50 dissociates pulmonary oxygen uptake (\dot{VO}_2) from the accumulated work. The extent to which 51 52 this reflects differences in O₂ storage fluctuations and/or contributions from oxidative and 53 substrate-level bioenergetics is unknown. Using pulmonary gas-exchange and intramuscular ³¹P magnetic resonance spectroscopy, we tested the hypotheses that at the same power: 54 ATP synthesis rates are similar; but peak $\dot{V}O_2$ amplitude is lower in intermittent vs. 55 continuous exercise. Thus, we expected that: intermittent exercise relies less upon 56 anaerobic glycolysis for ATP provision than continuous exercise: shorter intervals would 57 require relatively greater fluctuations in intramuscular bioenergetics than in $\dot{V}O_2$ compared 58 with longer intervals. Six men performed bilateral knee-extensor exercise (estimated to 59 60 require 110% peak aerobic power) continuously and with three different intermittent 61 work:recovery durations (16:32; 32:64; 64:128s). Target work duration (576s) was achieved in all intermittent protocols; greater than continuous (252±174s; p<0.05). Mean ATP turnover 62 rate was not different between protocols (~43mM·min⁻¹ on average). However, the 63 intramuscular PCr component of ATP generation was greatest (~30mM min⁻¹), and oxidative 64 (~10mM·min⁻¹) and anaerobic glycolytic (~1mM·min⁻¹) components lowest for 16:32 and 65 32:64s intermittent protocols, compared with 64:128s (18±6, 21±10 and 10±4mM·min⁻¹, 66 respectively) and continuous protocols (8±6, 20±9 and 16±14mM·min⁻¹, respectively). As 67 intermittent work duration increased towards continuous, ATP production relied 68 proportionally more upon anaerobic glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation, and less upon 69 70 PCr breakdown. However, performing the same high-intensity power intermittently vs. continuously reduced the amplitude of fluctuations in $\dot{V}O_2$ and intramuscular metabolism, 71 dissociating exercise intensity from the power output and work done. 72

73 Abbreviations

³¹P, phosphorus; MRS, magnetic resonance spectroscopy; ATP, adenosine triphosphate;
FIDs, free induction decays; H⁺, hydrogen; L⁻, blood lactate; LT, lactate threshold; MR,
magnetic resonance; NADH⁺, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide; P:O, oxygen cost of ATP
resynthesis; P:W, ATP cost of force production; PCr, phosphocreatine; Pi, inorganic
phosphate; pH_i, intramuscular pH; PO₂, partial pressure of oxygen; RF coil, radiofrequency
coil; RIT, ramp-incremental test; VO₂, oxygen uptake; VO_{2max}, maximal oxygen uptake;
VO_{2peak}, peak oxygen uptake; VO_{2SC}, slow component of oxygen uptake.

82 Introduction

83 The coupling of internal (capillary-to-myocyte) to external (capillary-to-alveolus) O₂ exchange during dynamic exercise is dependent on muscular oxidative ATP synthesis, the dynamics of 84 85 the circulation, and volume of the intervening O₂ stores, predominantly in the form of oxyhaemoglobin in the venous blood. At the onset of continuous constant-power exercise, 86 the kinetics of pulmonary oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_2$) are supplemented by contributions to energy 87 transfer from utilisation of O₂ stores and, proportionally more significant, from substrate-level 88 89 phosphorylation (phosphocreatine (PCr) breakdown, glycolysis/glycogenolysis accumulating lactate); termed the O₂ deficit. The O₂ deficit is associated with accumulation of products 90 linked to muscle fatigue, such as intramuscular inorganic phosphate (Pi) and H⁺ (Allen *et al.*, 91 2008), and hence VO₂ kinetics are strongly associated with exercise tolerance (Whipp & 92 Ward 1992; Burnley & Jones, 2007; Sperandio et al., 2009; Murgatroyd et al., 2011): a fast 93 94 response proffering greater exercise tolerance (Murgatroyd & Wylde, 2011; Rossiter, 2011).

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VO₂ kinetics are intensity dependent (Özyener *et al.,* 2011). Critical power (the asymptote of 96 97 the relationship between power and tolerable duration, which occurs between ~60-80 % VO_{2max}; Poole *et al.*, 1988; van der Vaart *et al.*, 2014) marks the individual threshold in the 98 rate of metabolic power production below which the bodily demands for ATP resynthesis are 99 100 met by wholly-aerobic energy transfer (Poole et al., 1988; Jones et al., 2008). During 101 continuous exercise exceeding critical power, \dot{VO}_2 continues to rise (through the action of the 102 slow component; \dot{VO}_{2SC}), and intramuscular PCr breakdown and Pi and H⁺ accumulation are progressive (Poole et al., 1988; Jones et al., 2008; Vanhatalo et al., 2010). During constant 103 power exercise above critical power, where duration exceeds ~ 2 min (Hill et al., 2002), the 104 105 limit of tolerance is commonly associated with the attainment of VO_{2max}, a minimum intramuscular [PCr] and pH_i and maximum [Pi] (Jones et al., 2008; Vanhatalo et al., 2010). 106 This limits the volume of work that can be accumulated during constant power exercise 107 above critical power (Monod & Scherrer, 1965; Moritani et al., 1981), where exercise can 108

only be continued once a reduction in power to a value equal or below critical power is made
(Gaesser & Poole, 1996; Coats *et al.*, 2003; Ferguson *et al.*, 2010).

111

112 Intermittent exercise, in which periods of supra-critical-power work are interspersed with 113 periods of recovery, dissociates the work done from systemic ($\dot{V}O_2$ and blood lactate, [L⁻]) responses. Thus, the volume of work tolerated is increased, and the associated metabolic 114 strain is reduced, using intermittent compared with continuous exercise (Astrand et al., 1960; 115 116 Margaria et al., 1969; Turner et al., 2006; Combes et al., 2017). The magnitude of this 117 mechanical-to-metabolic dissociation is dependent on the work:recovery duration, and is greatest when the work periods are short (e.g. 10-30 s; Turner et al., 2006; Combes et al., 118 2017). The effect is that homeostasis of \dot{VO}_2 and blood [L⁻] is less disturbed during 119 120 intermittent compared to continuous exercise performed at the same power and 121 accumulating the same volume of work. By the same notion, intermittent exercise can be used to provide a greater volume of supra-critical power work in a given duration (Chidnok et 122 al., 2013). This approach has been used in an attempt to enhance the stimulus for 123 physiological adaptations by exercise training (e.g. Kemi et al. 2005; Helgerud et al. 2007; 124 125 Wisløff et al. 2007; MacInnis et al. 2017).

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It remains unclear the extent to which the systemic mechanical-to-metabolic dissociation by 127 intermittent exercise (e.g. as frequently observed in pulmonary VO₂; Turner et al., 2006; 128 Guiraud et al., 2010; Chidnok et al., 2012; Combes et al., 2017) is matched by a similarly 129 attenuated response of intramuscular phosphate metabolism. For example, intermittent 130 exercise with short work bouts (10-30 s) and a low work:recovery ratio is hypothesised to 131 have a relatively greater reliance on depletion of oxymyoglobin and venous oxyhaemoglobin 132 O₂ stores compared to exercise with longer work bouts (Astrand *et al.*, 1960). This, coupled 133 with a limb-lung vascular transient delay, temporally dissociates cardiac output and O₂ 134 extraction responses at the lung, damping the response amplitude compared to the active 135 136 muscles (Barstow & Mole, 1987; Barstow et al., 1990; Rossiter, 2011; Benson et al., 2013).

137 This infers that intramuscular oxidative phosphorylation and PCr breakdown, and thus the intramuscular bioenergetic strain, would be increased (in comparison to the pulmonary VO₂ 138 response) in short vs. longer intermittent work bouts or continuous exercise at the same 139 power. However, this contradicts our knowledge of the progressive decrease in work 140 141 efficiency during long intermittent or continuous exercise during which a $\dot{V}O_{2SC}$ is observed, consequent to greater PCr breakdown resulting from increases in both intramuscular ATP 142 cost of force production (P:W) and O₂ cost of ATP production (P:O) (Rossiter et al., 2002; 143 Krustrup et al., 2003; Turner et al., 2006; Bailey et al., 2010; Cannon et al., 2014). 144

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We aimed to investigate the coupling dynamics of intramuscular bioenergetics to pulmonary 146 gas exchange during continuous and intermittent exercise at the same power. We used ³¹P 147 148 magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) to measure intramuscular phosphate responses 149 during bilateral knee-extensor exercise in continuous and intermittent exercise of different work: recovery durations in comparison to pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$; each performed at the same 150 power. We hypothesised that: (1) ATP synthesis rates are similar in intermittent and 151 continuous exercise at the same power; but (2) the peak pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ amplitude will be 152 153 lower in work-matched intermittent vs. continuous exercise. Thus, we expect that: (3) intermittent exercise relies less upon anaerobic glycolysis for ATP provision than continuous 154 exercise, and is associated with greater exercise tolerance; despite (4) short intervals 155 requiring relatively greater fluctuations in intramuscular bioenergetics than in systemic 156 pulmonary gas exchange compared with longer intervals. 157

158

159 Materials and methods

160 Ethical approval

Liverpool Hope Faculty of Sciences and Social Sciences Research Ethics committee and the University of Liverpool Committee on Research Ethics approved the study, and all procedures complied with the latest version of the Declaration of Helsinki. Prior to participating all volunteers provided written informed consent.

166 Participants

Six healthy men (mean \pm SD: age 24 \pm 5 yr; height: 176 \pm 7 cm; weight: 80 \pm 12 kg) volunteered to participate. All participants regularly undertook exercise, and any contraindications that would have precluded involvement in the study, including contraindications to MRS, were identified using a pre-exercise assessment questionnaire.

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172 Exercise protocols

Ergometry. All exercise tests were performed on a computer-controlled electromagnetically 173 braked MR compatible bilateral knee-extension ergometer (MRI Ergometer Up/Down, Lode 174 BV, Groningen, The Netherlands). As described previously, this ergometer was customised 175 176 for use in a Siemens 3T MR scanner using extended carbon-fibre lever arms (Cannon et al., 177 2014). Participants lay prone with their feet secured into plastic stirrups using Velcro straps. 178 The stirrups were connected to the extended ergometer lever arms and attached to a drive crank for the electromagnetically braked flywheel. To isolate the work to the guadriceps 179 180 Velcro strapping was also used to secure participants' hips to the patient bed, minimising 181 contributions from the hip flexors and extensors. Using this ergometer the external resistance is only applied during knee-extension. The only work during knee-flexion is that 182 183 required to lift the mass of the lower leg. The range of motion is limited by the scanner dimensions to between ~30 degrees flexion and full extension. Participants were familiarised 184 with performing a constant knee-extension frequency of 90 kicks min⁻¹ set using a 185 metronome. This kick frequency also allowed the flywheel speed to be maintained above the 186 minimum operating speed and aligned MR scanner acquisitions with muscle contractions. 187

188

Familiarisation. The exercise protocols were completed in two phases – familiarisation and testing. The familiarisation phase took place in a temperature-controlled human physiology laboratory. All exercise protocols began with a period of rest (~1-3 min) and then kneeextension exercise at 5 W (~2-4 min), with each of these phases continued until a steady
state was attained.

194

Participants first completed a ramp-incremental exercise test (RIT; 3 W·min⁻¹) to the limit of 195 196 tolerance; defined as the point at which the participant was unable to maintain the full range of motion at the target kicking frequency (90 kicks min⁻¹) or when the flywheel speed 197 decreased below the minimum operating speed, despite strong verbal encouragement. 198 Participants were familiarised with the protocol by repeating it until the performance (power 199 and duration) and physiologic responses (VO2 etc.) were reproducible between visits 200 (minimum of 3 repeats performed). Once familiarised, the power corresponding to 110 % of 201 RIT peak power was calculated and used in all subsequent exercise protocols. Comparison 202 203 of VO_{2peak} at the limit of RIT and continuous exercise was used to confirm VO_{2max} (Poole & Jones, 2017). Continuous and intermittent protocols were also repeated until reproducible 204 205 physiological responses were obtained (typically requiring 2 repeats).

206

207 Testing. The collection of pulmonary gas exchange data for matching to MRS data was 208 performed in the same temperature-controlled human physiology laboratory as the familiarisation phase. Following a period of rest and warm-up at 5 W, for the continuous 209 210 exercise protocol, power was instantaneously applied at the power equivalent to 110 % of RIT peak, and the participants were required to continue the exercise to the limit of 211 tolerance. Intermittent protocols comprised periods of work at a power equivalent to 110 % 212 of RIT peak, and periods of recovery at 5 W. The three intermittent protocols performed by 213 all participants had work: recovery durations of 16:32 s, 32:64 s and 64:128 s. These 214 durations were chosen to align with MRS data acquisition, there being one ³¹P spectrum 215 acquired every 8 s. Each intermittent protocol was continued until a total of 576 s of work 216 was accumulated (at a 1:2 work:recovery duty cycle this corresponded to a total duration of 217 28 minutes 48 seconds, allowing 216 complete ³¹P spectra to be collected), or to the limit of 218

tolerance, whichever was the shorter. Only one exercise protocol was performed on a given
day, with at least 24 hr between visits, and protocols were performed in a random order.

221

Subsequently, continuous and intermittent exercise protocols were repeated inside the bore of a 3T superconducting magnet for measurement of intramuscular phosphate responses by ³¹P MRS using the same ergometer and the same exercise protocol as used for pulmonary gas exchange data collection.

226

227 Pulmonary gas exchange

Participants breathed through a facemask for measurement of respired gases (Zan 600, Geratherm, Germany). Volume and flow rates were sampled at 125 Hz and measured using a pneumotach; with O_2 and CO_2 gas concentrations measured using electrochemical cell and infrared gas analysers, respectively. Using BlueCherry software, gas concentration and volume signals were time-aligned for online calculation of breath-by-breath pulmonary gas exchange and ventilatory variables.

234

Prior to each test the flow sensor and gas analysers were calibrated according to the manufacturers' guidelines. The pneumotach was calibrated using a 3 L syringe across a range of flow rates, with the gas analysers calibrated using certified gas mixtures that spanned the expected inspired and expired ranges of both O₂ and CO₂.

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²⁴⁰ ³¹*P* Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy

Relative concentrations of intramuscular phosphates (ATP, PCr, Pi) were measured using a 3T superconducting magnet (Magnetom Trio, Siemens AG, Erlangen, DE), and pH_i was calculated from the chemical shift of Pi to PCr (Moon & Richards,1973). A one-pulse ³¹P MRS acquisition was employed using a dual-tuned (¹H, 15 cm diameter; ³¹P 18 cm diameter) surface RF coil (RAPID Biomedical GmbH, Rimpar, Germany) placed under the knee extensors of the right leg and positioned halfway between the hip and knee. This provided a 247 metabolic signal from a mid-thigh slice of the *rectus femoris*, *vastus medialis*, *vastus* 248 *intermedialis* and *vastus lateralis* (Cannon *et al.*, 2014). Once in the correct position, the 249 participants' hips were secured to the scanner bed using non-distensible Velcro straps. 250 Participants were then moved inside the bore of the magnet and the scanning procedure 251 commenced.

252

Sagittal and coronal gradient-recalled echo images of the thigh were taken to confirm 253 placement of the RF coil in relation to the knee extensors. ¹H shimming was performed to 254 optimise magnetic field homogeneity. Subsequently, a fully relaxed high-resolution 255 unsaturated spectrum and 32-scan spectrum (repetition time of 10 s) were obtained, with 256 this used as the reference baseline spectra. Throughout the protocol ³¹P free induction 257 258 decays (FIDs) were collected every 2 s, with four FIDs used to provide a spectrum every 8 s. 259 The continuous and intermittent exercise protocols were aligned to ensure that each 260 spectrum did not straddle work-recovery transitions.

261

262 Data Analyses

All breath-by-breath $\dot{V}O_2$ responses were filtered to remove any erroneous breaths (defined as those occurring outside the 99 % prediction limits of the local mean) resulting from sighs, coughs or swallowing etc. (Lamarra *et al.*, 1987). For the RIT, lactate threshold (LT) was estimated non-invasively using standard ventilatory and pulmonary gas exchange criteria (Whipp *et al.*, 1986). In both RIT and continuous constant-power exercise $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ was identified as the greatest 12-breath (~20 s) moving average prior to the limit of tolerance.

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For the intermittent responses, breath-by-breath data were linearly interpolated to provide a value every second. $\dot{V}O_2$ data were then phase-aligned to PCr to account for the limb-lung vascular transit delay (Rossiter *et al.*, 1999), and then averaged to provide a datum every 8 s – i.e. to match the intervals of ³¹P data collection. Intermittent exercise was characterised by an expected transient phase where the amplitude of the work-recovery fluctuations in $\dot{V}O_2$ 275 were climbing (in this study, the first 192 s), and a subsequent periodic steady-state phase where the amplitude of $\dot{V}O_2$ fluctuations stabilised between exercise and recovery phases. 276 For this reason, to analyse the time course of the intramuscular and pulmonary responses to 277 intermittent exercise, the first 192 s were eliminated and the subsequent \dot{VO}_2 and phosphate 278 data sorted into time-bins of 384 s each, resulting in a total of 4 repeats (or bins) of 279 intermittent work-recovery phases (Figure 1). Within each time-bin, like transitions were 280 aligned to the onset of work at 110 % of RIT peak power and averaged to increase the 281 signal:noise (Lamarra et al., 1987; Rossiter et al., 2000). The peak, nadir and peak-to-nadir 282 283 amplitude of fluctuations in each variable were identified within each bin. All data were then normalised to the amplitudes measured during continuous exercise between 5 W (0 %) and 284 peak (100 %). 285

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287 Kinetic analysis of ³¹P MRS data

288 This has been described in detail elsewhere (Cannon et al., 2014). Briefly, PCr kinetics were modelled using non-linear least-squares regression (implemented in Excel, Microsoft Office 289 290 2016). The rate of ATP turnover was estimated from the contributions of PCr breakdown (D), 291 oxidative phosphorylation (Q) and glycogenolysis (L), which were determined from the PCr, Pi and pH_i data acquired during exercise and recovery, using methods explained in detail 292 293 elsewhere (Kemp, 2015; Kemp, 2016). To improve the signal:noise ATP turnover was calculated as a mean rate throughout the work phases of the protocols (i.e. mean of the 4 294 bins). 295

296

Estimating ATP turnover using ³¹P MRS *in vivo* relies on some assumptions, particularly in relation to the estimated contribution of oxidative phosphorylation (Q) (discussed in detail elsewhere; Kemp, 2015; Kemp, 2016). However, sensitivity analysis suggests that none of the calculations used depended substantially on any particular assumption. Using initial PCr breakdown rate (D) as a measure of initial ATP turnover, and initial recovery PCr resynthesis as a measure of end-exercise supra-basal oxidative ATP synthesis rate (Q) depends on only 303 the most general of assumptions about closed-loop feedback control of oxidative ATP synthesis; the use of the relationship between Q and [ADP] established by analysis of 304 recovery kinetics to 'predict' Q during exercise assumes only one of several possible modes 305 of mitochondrial feedback control (Kemp, 2015), which each provide very similar results 306 307 during exercise of this kind. Finally, the calculated contribution of glycolytic ATP production is small in the present study, and depends on uncontroversial models of cellular pH 308 buffering, and assumptions of approximately linear pH-dependence of acid efflux to which 309 the detailed results are rather insensitive (Kemp, 2015; Kemp, 2016). 310

311

312 Statistics

Metabolic perturbations (peak, nadir and peak-to-nadir amplitude) were initially compared 313 314 among the four time-bins using a one-way repeated measured ANOVA, to investigate the effect of time on metabolic disturbances. Subsequently, peak continuous exercise values, 315 and final time-bin values for all intermittent protocols were compared using a one-way 316 repeated measures ANOVA to investigate the effect of exercise protocol (continuous and 3 317 intermittent protocols) on metabolic disturbances. Finally a two-way repeated measured 318 ANOVA was used to compare the relative amplitude of change (VO₂ vs. PCr), and 319 investigate how this changed between intermittent protocols (16:32 vs. 32:64 vs. 64:128 s). 320 Post hoc Tukey-corrected pairwise comparisons were performed where appropriate. 321 Statistical significance was set at p < 0.05. All values are reported as mean \pm SD. 322

323

324 **Results**

325 *Ramp incremental responses*

The estimated LT was 1.46 ± 0.26 L·min⁻¹ (72 ± 2 % $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$), with the tolerable limit attained at a $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ of 2.04 ± 0.36 L·min⁻¹ and peak power of 34 ± 7 W.

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329 ATP turnover and exercise tolerance during continuous and intermittent exercise

330 Continuous constant-power exercise at 110 % RIT peak power (38 ± 7 W) was sustained for 252 ± 174 s, and $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ at the limit of tolerance (2.03 ± 0.26 L·min⁻¹) was not different from 331 RIT $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$, confirming $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ (p = 0.891). The mean rate of ATP turnover during 332 continuous exercise performed to the limit of tolerance was 44.7 \pm 18.4 mM min⁻¹, with large 333 334 contributions from anaerobic glycolysis (L; 33 ± 19 %) and oxidative phosphorylation (Q; 50 ± 23 %) compared with and PCr breakdown (D; 17 ± 6 %) (Table 1 and Figure 2). At 335 intolerance in continuous exercise PCr declined to 38 ± 13 % of baseline and pH_i reached a 336 337 nadir of 6.67 ± 0.07 (cf. 7.07 ± 0.04 at rest).

338

In all intermittent protocols the 576 s target of work at 110 % RIT peak power was 339 accumulated. This equated to 327 ± 180 % more work done during intermittent exercise than 340 with continuous exercise at the same power. Mean ATP turnover was not different among 341 342 continuous and the work phases of intermittent exercise protocols (p > 0.05; Table 1). Following removal of the initial kinetic phase (first 192 s), the 4 binned-repeats of the work-343 recovery phases of intermittent exercise did not differ (p > 0.05) within the 16:32 s or 32:64 s 344 intermittent protocols. In other words, the $\dot{V}O_2$, PCr and pH_i fluctuation peak, fluctuation 345 346 nadir and fluctuation amplitude were constant following the removal of the initial 192 s kinetic phase (Figure 3). However, for the 64:128 s intermittent protocol peak metabolic disturbance 347 (PCr; p < 0.05) and fluctuation amplitude ($\dot{V}O_2$; p < 0.05) increased between time-bins 1 and 348 4. For these reasons, the $\dot{V}O_2$, PCr and pH_i peak values used for all subsequent analyses 349 were those from the final bin of intermittent exercise in all protocols (i.e. the values 350 measured in the 4^{th} time-bin of Figure 1). 351

352

Absolute bioenergetic and pulmonary responses during continuous and intermittent exercise Comparing within variables across the four different exercise protocols, the absolute $\dot{V}O_2$ increase, PCr breakdown and pH_i fall were less during short work:recovery intermittent exercise versus long work:recovery duration exercise (*p* < 0.05; Table 2, Figure 3). The peak values of the disturbance in $\dot{V}O_2$, PCr and pH_i during the 16:32 s intermittent protocol did not reach those seen during continuous exercise (p < 0.05). Similarly, the peak values of the disturbance in $\dot{V}O_2$ and pH_i during the 32:64 s intermittent protocol were less than those during continuous (p < 0.05), although peak PCr was not different (p = 0.07). However, the absolute peak value of the disturbance of $\dot{V}O_2$ (p = 0.06), PCr (p = 0.72) and pH_i (p = 0.08) during 64:128 s intermittent exercise were not different to those at the limit of tolerance in continuous exercise (Table 2, Figure 3).

364

Relative fluctuations in intramuscular bioenergetics and pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ during intermittent compared with continuous exercise

In order to compare the relative excursion between intramuscular and pulmonary variables, 367 responses were normalised between 5 W baseline and peak values of continuous exercise. 368 369 Comparing between $\dot{V}O_2$ and PCr during intermittent exercise, the relative peak to nadir amplitude of $\dot{V}O_2$ and PCr fluctuations increased with work bout duration (p < 0.05; Table 3), 370 with a strong inverse relationship between PCr breakdown and $\dot{V}O_2$ (r² = 0.88; p < 0.05). 371 However, the amplitude of the $\dot{V}O_2$ fluctuation was less than that of PCr for 16:32 and 32:64 372 s protocols (p < 0.05; Table 3; Figure 3). The relative contribution of PCr breakdown to 373 374 intramuscular ATP production was greatest during the short intermittent cycles (16:32 and 32:64 s). At the longer cycles (64:128 s and continuous) the contributions from oxidative 375 376 phosphorylation (Q) and anaerobic glycolysis (L) were at their greatest (p < 0.05; Figure 2).

377

378 Discussion

The major finding of this study was that the metabolic strain of exercise ($\dot{V}O_2$, intramuscular PCr breakdown, pH_i) is dissociated from the external power and cellular demand for ATP production by performing the exercise intermittently. While continuous constant-power exercise at 110 % peak RIT power could only be sustained for ~ 4 minutes, our findings are consistent with previous reports that exercise tolerance was increased by at least 3-fold, and a greater volume of work accumulated, when the same power is performed intermittently (Astrand *et al.* 1960; Margaria *et al.* 1969; Turner *et al.* 2006; Chidnok *et al.* 2013; Skiba *et* *al.* 2014). We found that mean ATP turnover during the work phases were not different for both continuous and intermittent exercise at the same external power (Table 1), such that alterations in work efficiency could not explain the differences in tolerance. Nevertheless, the magnitude of intramuscular metabolic fluctuations was attenuated during intermittent exercise. This dissociation was greatest when the work:recovery durations were shorter (Figure 3), despite the work:recovery duty cycle (1:2) and power output remaining constant for all intermittent protocols.

393

These data support our hypotheses that ATP synthesis rates would be similar in intermittent 394 and continuous exercise at the same external power (110 % peak RIT power; hypothesis 1), 395 despite pulmonary \dot{VO}_2 fluctuations being lower in intermittent exercise (hypothesis 2). We 396 397 also found, contrary to some suggestions (Rossiter et al. 2002; Krustrup et al. 2003; Cannon 398 et al. 2014), that the small fluctuations in pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ during the shorter vs. longer work:recovery durations, were not mirrored in the intramuscular responses. As intermittent 399 400 work interval duration increased towards matching the continuous protocol, the mean ATP production relied increasingly upon anaerobic glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation and 401 402 less upon PCr breakdown (hypothesis 3). On the other hand, during short work:recovery intermittent exercise, the relative amplitude of the $\dot{V}O_2$ fluctuations were damped compared 403 404 to those of intramuscular PCr (hypothesis 4): The ratio between relative amplitudes of $\dot{V}O_2$ and PCr fluctuations were 53 % during 16:32 s, 69 % during 32:64 s, rising to 90 % during 405 64:128 s (Figure 3; Table 3). This is consistent with proportionally greater contributions to 406 the ATP turnover from PCr hydrolysis and suggests proportionally greater stored O₂ usage 407 during short work:recovery intermittent exercise than longer work:recovery intermittent 408 exercise or continuous constant-power exercise (Figure 2; cf. Turner et al. 2006). It also 409 suggests that the capacitance of the intervening energy and O₂ stores has a significant 410 impact in damping the external (pulmonary) respiratory responses to intermittent exercise 411 relative to the internal (intramuscular) bioenergetics. 412

414 Intermittent exercise tolerance

At the onset of continuous exercise, the ability of intramuscular oxidative phosphorylation to 415 meet the cellular ATP requirement is dependent on its kinetics, with any shortfall 416 compensated for by substrate-level phosphorylation (O_2 deficit). This non-oxidative ATP 417 418 supply is capacity-limited, and propagates a 'fatigue cascade' (Murgatroyd & Wylde, 2011). This cascade leads to the accumulation of fatigue-related metabolites, exercise inefficiency 419 420 (reflected in the VO_{2SC}), intramuscular PCr depletion and, ultimately, exercise intolerance 421 (Jones et al. 2008; Vanhatalo et al. 2010). Consequently, the rate at which intramuscular oxidative phosphorylation responds to alterations in ATP demand (VO₂ kinetics) is a key 422 determinant of high-intensity exercise tolerance (Whipp & Ward, 1992; Jones & Burnley, 423 2009; Murgatroyd et al. 2011). Mean ATP turnover was not different between protocols 424 425 (Table 1), and therefore the initial rate of \dot{VO}_2 change was the same at the onset of both 426 continuous and intermittent exercise regardless of work:recovery duration (DiMenna et al. 2010). Consequently, the amplitude of the intramuscular VO₂ fluctuation, and requirement for 427 substrate-level phosphorylation, was determined by the intermittent work duration. While 428 shortening the intermittent duration resulted in a relatively greater proportional contribution 429 430 by PCr breakdown to overall ATP synthesis, it also resulted in increased system stability and exercise tolerance. That is, $\dot{V}O_2$, PCr and pH_i fluctuations were small and there was no 431 measurable cellular contribution to the exercise task from anaerobic glycolysis. Indeed, the 432 VO₂ fluctuations during the shortest intermittent protocol remained below the estimated 433 lactate threshold throughout. This cellular bioenergetics response is consistent with the 434 observations that exercise was better sustained, and more work done, during intermittent 435 compared with continuous exercise. 436

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438 Damping of pulmonary respiration by cellular bioenergetics

During short work:recovery intermittent exercise the peak fluctuation in $\dot{V}O_2$ vs. PCr (17.0 ± 6.9 vs. 32.1 ± 20.6 %) suggests that the relative intramuscular metabolic strain is greater than that extrapolated from the $\dot{V}O_2$ measured at the mouth. The dissociation between 442 muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ (inferred from PCr) and pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ (measured) during short work bouts is likely due to rapid transients in intramuscular and venous O₂ storage. The ~10 s delay after 443 the onset of high-intensity exercise in the appearance of deoxygenated myoglobin 444 (Richardson et al. 2015) suggests that venous haemoglobin deoxygenation (Turner et al. 445 446 2006) bears the brunt of this damping process (cf. Astrand et al. 1960), and may result in a narrowing of the capillary-to-myocyte PO₂ driving pressure. This finding is also consistent 447 with slow activation of muscle oxidative phosphorylation at exercise onset (e.g. Korzeneiski 448 & Rossiter, 2015). Given that the $\dot{V}O_2$ in this study was measured at the mouth without use 449 of an algorithm to estimate alveolar gas exchange, there is also the potential for a 450 451 contribution from changes in pulmonary O_2 stores (Beaver *et al.* 1981; Aliverti *et al.* 2004; Wüst et al. 2008). While the degree of this effect is unknown, any changes in end-expiratory 452 453 lung volume are anticipated to be small during this prone exercise task.

454

455 Dissociating exercise intensity from power output

The phrases 'exercise intensity' and (relative) 'power output' are commonly used 456 interchangeably. The finding that intensity and power output can be completely dissociated 457 458 depending on the work: recovery duration highlights the importance of providing these two terms with distinct definitions. The dissociation here occurred to the degree that a severe 459 460 intensity exercise bout (where VO₂ exceeded critical power) could be reduced to moderate intensity (where $\dot{V}O_2$ remained below the lactate threshold) through shortening the duration 461 of work intervals, despite the power output and total work done remaining constant. Thus, 462 the term power output refers to a rate of energy transfer from the skeletal muscle to perform 463 external work (mechanical power), while the intensity that a given power output engenders 464 depends on the peak magnitude of the metabolic fluctuation(s) evoked during the task. By 465 shortening the work:recovery durations, intensity (including the requirement for anaerobic 466 glycolysis to contribute to the ATP turnover) is minimised and exercise better sustained. 467

469 In our study the fluctuation in the $\dot{V}O_2$ response to intermittent exercise was considerably damped compared to intramuscular PCr. Nevertheless, in the short-duration intermittent 470 protocol (16:32 s), where the magnitude of this effect was greatest, there remained a large 471 dissociation between the external power and the intramuscular metabolic strain. This was 472 473 achieved by terminating the work bout before intramuscular PCr substantially decreased, and allowing PCr to increase during the intervening recovery interval. During the shortest 474 work: recovery duration of intermittent exercise we found that the peak and nadir of the $\dot{V}O_2$ 475 476 and PCr fluctuations remained below values associated with the lactate threshold and there 477 were no net contributions from anaerobic glycolysis to meet the cellular demands for ATP turnover, despite power exceeding that achieved at $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ in the RIT. This bioenergetics 478 479 behaviour is consistent with responses observed during continuous exercise at far lower 480 powers that are termed moderate intensity (Wasserman et al. 1967; Rossiter et al. 2002). 481 The accumulation of lactate and the associated intramuscular acidosis occurs relatively 482 slowly after exercise onset, e.g. glycolysis itself is not activated for ~10-15 s after exercise onset (Conley et al. 1998; Walsh et al. 2008). However, any delayed activation of glycolytic 483 484 flux is unlikely to be a major contributor to the relative preservation of muscle pH_i and lack of 485 muscle acidification in this protocol because the 16 s exercise bout was repeated many times over the ~30 minute protocol; which would certainly be sufficient to identify any 486 487 activation of glycolytic flux. The strong probability is that any cytosolic redox challenge consequent to increased glycolytic flux was met either by intramitochondrial transport of 488 accumulated pyruvate (effectively reversing any lactate formation during the work bout), or 489 of NADH⁺, during the recovery phases of the intermittent bouts. Because sustained energy 490 provision was not required, the very short work bouts and interspersed recovery intervals 491 allowed aerobic energy provision to remain below the lactate threshold and the substrate-492 level contributions to the exercise energetics in short intermittent work bouts appear to be 493 essentially limited to PCr breakdown (Figure 2). 494

496 We also observed (Figure 3) that during the work phases of intermittent exercise pH_i increases while PCr is falling (as H⁺ is sequestered in the Lohmann reaction: ADP + PCr + 497 $H+ \leftarrow \rightarrow ATP + Cr$). This means that during short intermittent bouts, the lowest pH_i occurs 498 during recovery where PCr is greatest and the muscle is alkalotic during the work phase 499 when PCr is lowest. This is unlike during longer duration intermittent bouts (64:128 s) or 500 continuous exercise where PCr and pH_i are both low during the muscular activity. Whether 501 this alkalinising effect during short intermittent exercise is protective of muscle fatigue is 502 currently unclear, but clearly the lesser magnitude of PCr breakdown (and Pi accumulation) 503 is associated with increased exercise tolerance and a prolongation of work capacity. 504 Furthermore, the influence of this effect on the cellular transduction of training responses is 505 currently unknown (see Implications below). 506

507

Extending the work: recovery durations predictably increased the intramuscular metabolic 508 509 strain. In the 32:64 s protocol, the peak $\dot{V}O_2$ fluctuation (1.54 ± 0.36 L min⁻¹) exceeded the estimated lactate threshold (1.46 \pm 0.26 L·min⁻¹), which was associated with a cellular 510 acidosis (pH_i; 6.84 ± 0.12), and an increased contribution from anaerobic glycolysis to ATP 511 turnover. These features are consistent with heavy-intensity exercise (where metabolic 512 power production is between the lactate threshold and critical power). The sustained 513 decrease in pH_i in the 32:64 s protocol demonstrates that the O₂ deficit accumulated during 514 the work phase to the extent that anaerobic glycolysis became a necessary contributor to 515 the energy transfer (Figure 2). The magnitudes of the intramuscular energetic strain and 516 acidosis are consistent with those in continuous exercise at a power just below critical power 517 518 (estimated to be ~60-80 % peak aerobic power during cycle ergometry; Wasserman et al. 1967; Rossiter et al. 2002; Jones et al. 2008). Again, the peak intramuscular acidosis 519 occurred during recovery, rather than during the work phase of the intermittent exercise. Our 520 data emphasise that it is not the mean metabolic response during intermittent exercise, but 521 rather the peak of the metabolic perturbation that is likely important in determining the 522 intramuscular metabolic strain: The mean $\dot{V}O_2$ during the 32:64 s intermittent protocol was 523

below the lactate threshold $(1.18 \pm 0.17 \text{ vs. } 1.46 \pm 0.26 \text{ L} \cdot \text{min}^{-1})$, which reflects an average of the entire work:recovery cycle.

526

We would expect the sustained metabolic acidosis during the 32:64 s intermittent protocol to 527 528 be associated with a slow component in both $\dot{V}O_2$ and PCr. However, there was no progressive increase in VO₂ and decrease in PCr between time bins during either 16:32 s or 529 32:64 s protocols. This, together with a mean ATP turnover rate among protocols that was 530 not different, suggests that there was no change in either the efficiency of force production 531 (P:W) or mitochondrial efficiency (P:O) during the acidifying heavy-intensity intermittent 532 protocol. This has implications for work efficiency and the mechanisms contributing to the 533 $\dot{V}O_{2sc}$. Work efficiency is typically assumed constant during the early transient (e.g. first 60 s) 534 535 of either sub- or supra-LT exercise. However, findings in stimulated dog muscle (Wust et al., 536 2011) and in some human studies (Bangsbo et al., 2001; Koppo et al., 2004) suggest that work efficiency may be initially high and rapidly decline over the first ~15-30 s of contraction 537 before rebounding and levelling out after ~1-2 min. For exercise above LT, a second decline 538 in work efficiency is observed after ~2 min as the $\dot{V}O_{2sc}$ develops. Our data that ATP 539 540 turnover appeared greater at 16:32 s compared with 32:64 s (albeit non-significant) may reflect some effect of rapid changes in work efficiency in the very early transient. 541 542 Subsequently, for the longer intermittent and the continuous protocol, work inefficiencies associated with the VO_{2sc} became increasingly evident. We speculate that, as the peak of 543 the metabolic fluctuation in the 32:64 s protocol only exceeded the LT for a few seconds (~8 544 s, on average) at the end of each work phase, the intervening recovery was sufficient to 545 constrain any transient fatiguing processes that contribute to the VO_{2sc}. Without the 546 accumulation of muscle fatigue, the drive for progressive work inefficiency in the form of a 547 VO₂ or PCr slow component was absent (Cannon *et al.* 2011; Grassi *et al.* 2015; Keir *et al.* 548 2016). While prolonging the work: recovery duration increased the magnitude of metabolic 549 perturbations and exercise intensity above that seen during 16:32 s, there was still a clear 550

551 dissociation between the external mechanical power and the exercise intensity 552 (intramuscular metabolic strain).

553

During exercise with the longest work:recovery (64:128 s) protocol there was an increase in 554 555 the intramuscular strain (Figure 2, 3). The peak intramuscular responses during the 64:128 s intermittent protocol were consistent with those during continuous exercise above critical 556 557 power (Jones et al. 2008). A progressive reduction in work efficiency was present, with the \dot{VO}_2 and PCr fluctuations in the final work phases (bin 4; Figure 1, 3) exceeding those of the 558 first work phase (bin 1; p < 0.05). Despite this, we did not observe this effect in the ATP 559 turnover rate during the 64:128 s intermittent protocol. This may be influenced by the 560 necessity to calculate ATP turnover as the mean rate of the work phases to increase 561 562 signal:noise, which also reduced the ability to detect an inefficiency by this method. The 563 reduction in work efficiency (as reflected in the \dot{VO}_2 and PCr responses; Figure 3) is likely to be consequent to an increase in the ATP requirement to maintain power production (Cannon 564 et al. 2014). While the mechanism(s) responsible for a progressive reduction in work 565 efficiency during the VO_{2sc} remain controversial, the prevailing suggestion during voluntary 566 567 exercise is that progressive recruitment of motor units innervating low oxidative and/or type II muscle fibres may be responsible (Pringle et al., 2003; Krustrup et al., 2004). Although a 568 reduction in the mitochondrial P:O has yet to be completely ruled out (Cannon et al. 2014), 569 this seems unlikely (Korzeneiski & Rossiter, 2015). In the 64:128 s protocol the contribution 570 of cellular anaerobic glycolysis to ATP production became increasingly evident (Figure 2), 571 and pH_i fell during the exercise (unlike in the shorter intermittent protocols). This fall in pH_i 572 during the work phase is consequent to a metabolic acidosis and associated lactate 573 accumulation, and appeared to become more pronounced as the ~30 minute intermittent 574 exercise progressed. Although this long duration intermittent protocol led to a more extreme 575 cellular energetic strain, the intervening recovery bouts damped the magnitude of cellular 576 energetic swings, thus prolonging exercise tolerance and increasing the volume of work 577 578 accumulated (compared with continuous exercise at the same power output).

579 Implications

Although the 64:128 s protocol was sustainable for the target duration and total accumulated 580 work, the intramuscular and systemic metabolic responses suggest that participants were 581 close to intolerance by the end of this protocol: peak $\dot{V}O_2$ and PCr response were not 582 583 different from continuous exercise (Table 2, Figure 3). This greatly contrasts the 16:32 and 32:64 s intermittent protocols, where systemic and intramuscular response were of moderate 584 and heavy intensity respectively, and exercise could likely be sustained far beyond the \sim 30 585 minute protocol. This was despite accumulating the same amount of total work, in the same 586 amount of time, in all three intermittent protocols. Thus, during shorter duration 587 work:recovery bouts the internal and external bioenergetic homeostasis was better 588 589 maintained, and intensity reduced, during work- and duration-matched exercise.

590

591 The dissociation between power output and bioenergetic function may have important implications for understanding the variability in the physiologic adaptations to intermittent 592 exercise, or for tailoring intermittent exercise training protocols to target specific 593 physiological adaptations. While intermittent exercise can be superior to traditional 594 continuous moderate-intensity exercise for increasing whole-body VO_{2max}, muscle oxidative 595 capacity, angiogenesis or stroke volume (e.g. Kemi et al. 2005; Helgerud et al. 2007; Wisløff 596 597 et al. 2007; MacInnis et al. 2017), other studies find no difference between the training interventions (e.g. Gibala et al. 2006; Burgomaster et al. 2008; Bartlett et al. 2012; Ellingsen 598 et al. 2017). In instances of no difference between training approaches, the specific power 599 and intermittent duration of the protocols used may not optimise the intramuscular energetic 600 response to promote remodelling (assuming intramuscular biogenic adaptations are a goal 601 of the training). Our data emphasise that, for example, intermittent exercise at 60 % of peak 602 aerobic power with a 60:60 work:recovery duration is likely to induce a greater intramuscular 603 bioenergetics homeostatic challenge than a protocol using 110 % of peak aerobic power and 604 605 a 15:15 s work:recovery intermittent protocol (cf. Gayda et al. 2012).

607 Given the protocol dependence of the dissociation between the external power and intramuscular metabolic strain, intermittent exercise allows a greater mechanical power to be 608 609 achieved during training interventions than would otherwise be possible during continuous exercise. This dissociation also ameliorates the ventilatory demands and perceived exertion 610 611 from the metabolic requirement of this mechanical power that would otherwise be associated with high-intensity exercise. Given the mechanical load on the skeletal muscle is, in and of 612 itself, an important signal for driving skeletal muscle adaptation in the absence of a 613 metabolic challenge (Hellsten et al. 2008; Høier et al. 2010) our data have implications for 614 615 the optimisation of rehabilitation in clinical populations. For example, a high relative power with short work:recovery durations would provide a high mechanical strain without the 616 associated metabolic response. This allows for a functional improvement by overcoming 617 618 pathological pulmonary or cardiovascular system limitations that would normally limit the 619 external power output that could be achieved during training. Conversely, the relative importance of metabolic signalling (e.g. by AMPK) in driving beneficial muscular adaptations 620 means that the stimulus during short work bouts may not be sufficient to optimise the 621 training stimulus. Thus, our findings of dissociating muscle metabolic responses from 622 623 mechanical power require further systematic investigation in relation to intermittent exercise training protocols. 624

625

626 Conclusion

Performing dynamic knee-extensor exercise at the same high-intensity power intermittently 627 reduces the O₂ cost and the intramuscular metabolic strain of performing the same power 628 during continuous exercise. Mean intramuscular ATP production rates are not different in 629 intermittent and continuous exercise at the same power output. Despite this, pulmonary VO2 630 631 increases less during short intermittent exercise (work:recovery 16:32 s), than during longer intermittent exercise (32:64 s or 64:128 s), and PCr contributes relatively more to ATP 632 production during short vs. longer intermittent or continuous exercise. The latter suggests 633 634 proportionally greater stored O₂ usage during short work:recovery intermittent exercise than longer intermittent or continuous exercise. In addition, as intermittent exercise work bout duration increases towards becoming continuous, relative ATP production relies increasingly upon anaerobic glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation and less upon PCr breakdown. Our data are also consistent with $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics being an important determinant of exercise tolerance, through the rate of O_2 deficit accumulation; even during intermittent exercise. The extent we could dissociate power output and exercise intensity was greatest at the shortest work:recovery durations and was observable within the intramuscular bioenergetics.

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- 846 Additional information
- 847 Competing interests
- 848 None declared.

850 *Author contributions*

MD, CF conceived the study, and all authors contributed to the design of the study. MD, GJK CF collected the data. MD, GJK, CF analysed the data, all authors contributed to the interpretation of the data. MD, CF prepared the first draft of the manuscript. All authors critically reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript, and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work. All persons designated as authors qualify for authorship, and all those who qualify for authorship are listed.

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870 Tables

Table 1. Mean ATP turnover, and contributions from phosphocreatine breakdown (D), oxidative phosphorylation (Q), and anaerobic glycolysis (L) during continuous and intermittent bilateral knee-extension exercise. Continuous exercise was performed to the limit of tolerance (252 ± 174 s). Intermittent exercise was performed with work:recovery durations of 16:32 s, 32:64 s and 64:128 s, each for a total duration of 28 minutes 48 seconds.

Protocol	ATP	D	Q	L
	mM∙min ⁻¹	mM∙min ⁻¹	mM∙min⁻¹	mM∙min⁻¹
Continuous	44.7 ± 18.4	$8.3 \pm 5.7^{(2,3)}$	$19.9 \pm 8.8^{(2,3)}$	16.4 ± 14.4 ^(2,3)
16:32	45.0 ± 19.5	34.4 ± 15.7 ^(1,4)	$10.5 \pm 4.8^{(1,4)}$	$0.1 \pm 0.0^{(1)}$
32:64	34.8 ± 8.8	$25.3 \pm 6.1^{(1)}$	$8.5 \pm 2.5^{(1,4)}$	$1.0 \pm 1.7^{(1)}$
64:128	49.1 ± 17.5	17.5 ± 6.1 ⁽²⁾	21.4 ± 9.8 ^(2,3)	10.2 ± 4.3

Values are presented as mean \pm SD. ⁽¹⁾p < 0.05 vs. continuous; ⁽²⁾p < 0.05 vs. 16:32 s intermittent exercise; ⁽³⁾p < 0.05 vs. 32:64 s intermittent exercise; ⁽⁴⁾p < 0.05 vs. 64:128 s intermittent exercise.

Table 2. Absolute and relative [normalised between 5 W baseline (0 %) and the limit of tolerance during continuous exercise (100 %)] peak metabolic responses during continuous and intermittent exercise at 110 % of ramp incremental peak power. Continuous exercise was performed to the limit of tolerance (252 ± 174 s). Intermittent exercise was performed with work:recovery durations of 16:32 s, 32:64 s and 64:128 s, each for a total duration of 28 minutes 48 seconds.

		Continuous	Intermittent exercise		
		exercise	16:32	32:64	64:128
N'IO	L∙min ⁻¹	2.03 ± 0.26	1.28 ± 0.24 ^(1, 3, 4)	1.54 ± 0.36 ^(1, 2, 4)	$1.80 \pm 0.31^{(2, 3)}$
VO ₂	% Continuous	100 ± 0	45.1 ± 7.0 ⁽⁴⁾	63.7 ± 14.8 ⁽⁴⁾	83.6 ± 13.1 ^(2, 3)
DCr	% Baseline	38.2 ± 13.0	73.1 ± 16.2 ^(1,4)	55.8 ± 16.5	45.0 ± 15.8
PCI	% Continuous	0 ± 0	54.4 ± 27.2 ^(3, 4)	$29.9 \pm 21.7^{(2)}$	$9.6 \pm 25.3^{(2)}$
~ L		6.67 ± 0.07	6.92 ± 0.07 ^(1, 4)	$6.84 \pm 0.12^{(1)}$	6.77 ± 0.12 ⁽²⁾
μu	% Continuous	100 ± 0	38.4 ± 11.3 ⁽⁴⁾	60.0 ± 23.8	77.5 ± 31.2
Values are presented as mean \pm SD. ⁽¹⁾ $p < 0.05$ vs. continuous; ⁽²⁾ $p < 0.05$ vs. 16:32 s					

intermittent exercise; ${}^{(3)}p < 0.05$ vs. 32:64 s intermittent exercise; ${}^{(4)}p < 0.05$ vs. 64:128 s intermittent exercise.

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Table 3. The relative amplitudes of $\dot{V}O_2$, PCr and pH_i fluctuations during intermittent bilateral knee-extension exercise compared with continuous exercise. Values are normalised between 5 W baseline (0 %) and the limit of tolerance during continuous exercise (100 %). Power is 110 % of ramp incremental peak power. Continuous exercise was performed to the limit of tolerance (252 ± 174 s). Intermittent exercise was performed with work:recovery durations of 16:32 s, 32:64 s and 64:128 s, each for a total duration of 28 minutes 48 seconds.

work:recovery duration	ΫO ₂ (%)	PCr (%)	pH _i (%)
16:32	17.0 ± 6.9	32.1 ± 20.6 ⁽¹⁾	21.3 ± 7.7
32:64	41.3 ± 15.0 ^(a)	60.2 ± 12.5 ^(1; a)	48.3 ± 23.9 ^(a)
64:128	77.2 ± 18.1 ^(a, b)	85.7 ± 21.3 ^(a, b)	74.4 ± 30.3 ^(a, b)

Values are presented as mean \pm SD. ⁽¹⁾p < 0.05 between $\dot{V}O_2$ and PCr in the same exercise protocol. Within variables (i.e. within $\dot{V}O_2$, PCr or pH_i): ^(a)p < 0.05 from the 16:32 s intermittent protocol; ^(b)p < 0.05 vs. both 16:32 and 32:64 s intermittent protocols.

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903 Figures

Figure 1. Schematic of the intermittent exercise protocols and time-bins used for $\dot{V}O_2$ and ³¹P MRS measures. Following a warm-up at 5W, intermittent exercise with work phases performed at 110 % of ramp-incremental peak power was initiated with work:recovery durations of either 16:32 s (top), 32:64 s (middle) or 64:128 s (bottom). The first 192 s of each test was eliminated (grey box) to exclude a kinetic transient phase that preceded the stabilisation of $\dot{V}O_2$ and ³¹P MRS fluctuations, with like transitions in each time-bin timealigned to exercise onset and data averaged to improve signal:noise.



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Figure 2. Contributions from phosphocreatine breakdown (D), oxidative phosphorylation (Q),
and anaerobic glycolysis (L) to the mean ATP turnover rate at 110 % of ramp-incremental
peak power during continuous and intermittent exercise comprising work:recovery durations
of 16:32 s, 32:64 s and 64:128 s. Upper: Absolute energetic system contributions to mean
ATP turnover. Lower: Relative energetic system contributions to mean ATP turnover.



Figure 3. $\dot{V}O_2$, PCr (top row) and pH_i (bottom row) responses to work:recovery durations of 16:32 s (first column), 32:64 s (second column), 64:128 s (third column) or continuous exercise (forth column). Also displayed is the lactate threshold (LT) from the ramp-incremental exercise test (dotted line), and the $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ (top row, dashed line) and pH_i (bottom row, dashed line) attained at the limit of tolerance of the continuous exercise protocol. Grey areas indicate the exercise period performed at 110 % of ramp incremental peak power. Note in the 16:32 s protocol that $\dot{V}O_2$ never exceeds the LT, and there are only minor changes in pH_i, consistent with the 16:32 s intermittent protocol being moderateintensity. The peak $\dot{V}O_2$ amplitude exceeds the LT in 32:64 and 64:128 s intermittent protocols and during continuous exercise, with this accompanied by a metabolic acidosis (decline in pH_i), consistent with a greater exercise metabolic strain in these protocols.

