

1 **HYPEROXIA SPEEDS PULMONARY OXYGEN UPTAKE KINETICS AND**
2 **INCREASES CRITICAL POWER DURING SUPINE CYCLING**

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6 **Running head:** Oxygen uptake kinetics and critical power

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22 **NEW FINDINGS:**

23 **What is the central question of this study?**

24 Critical power (CP) is a fundamental parameter defining high-intensity exercise tolerance,
25 and is related to the phase II time constant of pulmonary oxygen uptake kinetics ($\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$). To
26 test whether this relationship is causal, we assessed the impact of hyperoxia on $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and CP
27 during supine cycle exercise.

28 **What is the main finding and its importance?**

29 The results demonstrate that hyperoxia increased muscle oxygenation, reduced $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ (i.e. sped
30 the $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics), and subsequently, increased critical power when compared to normoxia.
31 These results therefore suggest that $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ is a determinant of the upper limit for steady-state
32 exercise, i.e. critical power.

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42 **ABSTRACT**

43 The present study determined the impact of hyperoxia on the phase II time constant of
44 pulmonary oxygen uptake kinetics ($\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$) and critical power (CP) during supine cycle
45 exercise. 8 healthy males completed an incremental test to determine maximal oxygen uptake
46 and the gas exchange threshold (GET). Eight separate visits followed, whereby CP, $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and
47 absolute concentrations of oxyhaemoglobin ([HbO₂]; via near-infrared spectroscopy) were
48 determined via four constant-power tests to exhaustion, each repeated once in normoxia and
49 once in hyperoxia (FiO₂ = 0.5). A 6-minute bout of moderate intensity exercise (70% GET)
50 was also undertaken prior to each severe intensity bout, in both conditions. CP was greater
51 (hyperoxia = 148 ± 29 W vs. normoxia = 134 ± 27 W, $P = 0.006$) and the $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ was reduced
52 (hyperoxia = 33 ± 12 s vs. normoxia = 52 ± 22 s, $P = 0.007$) during severe exercise in
53 hyperoxia when compared to normoxia. Furthermore, [HbO₂] was enhanced in hyperoxia
54 compared to normoxia (hyperoxia: 67 ± 10 *versus* normoxia: 63 ± 11 μM; $P = 0.020$). $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$
55 was significantly related to CP in hyperoxia ($R^2 = 0.89$, $P < 0.001$), however no relationship
56 was observed in normoxia ($R^2 = 0.03$, $P = 0.68$). Muscle oxygenation was increased, $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$
57 was reduced and CP was increased in hyperoxia compared to normoxia, suggesting that $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$
58 is an independent determinant of CP. That $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ was related to CP in hyperoxia but not
59 normoxia further supports this notion.

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61 *Keywords* critical power, exercise tolerance, oxidative metabolism, oxygen uptake kinetics,
62 power-duration relationship, hyperoxia.

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66 INTRODUCTION

67 The tolerable duration of high-intensity exercise is well described by a two-parameter
68 hyperbolic relationship between power and duration (Moritani et al., 1981; Poole et al.,
69 1988). The asymptote of this relationship is termed “critical power”, with W representing the
70 rectangular constant of the hyperbola, equivalent to a fixed quantity of work performable
71 above critical power. The functional significance of critical power is demonstrated by the
72 observation that pulmonary oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_2$) and muscle metabolic variables (e.g.
73 muscle lactate concentration, $[L^-]$; $[H^+]$; phosphocreatine concentration, $[PCr]$; $[P_i]$) do not
74 reach a steady-state during exercise above critical power. Instead these parameters achieve
75 consistently high (e.g. $\dot{V}O_2$, $[L^-]$, $[H^+]$, $[P_i]$) or low ($[PCr]$) values at the limit of tolerance
76 (Black et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2008; Vanhatalo et al., 2016). Critical power therefore
77 represents a metabolic rate (i.e. a “critical $\dot{V}O_2$ ”) that demarcates the boundary between
78 steady-state (heavy-intensity) and non-steady-state (severe-intensity) exercise (Poole et al.,
79 2016). Exercise performed at a metabolic rate exceeding critical power will therefore become
80 predictably limited in accordance with the parameters of the power-duration relationship and
81 their physiological corollaries. These physiological corollaries therefore define the tolerable
82 duration of severe-intensity exercise, yet remain incompletely understood.

83 At the onset of muscular work, pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics increase in a near-exponential
84 fashion with a time constant ($\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$) that closely approximates that of muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ (Grassi et
85 al., 1996). A strong inverse relationship has been observed between $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and critical power
86 during upright cycle exercise (Murgatroyd *et al.*, 2011; Goulding *et al.*, 2017, 2018a),
87 suggesting that these parameters may be causally related. In support of this we recently
88 showed that a prior bout of heavy-intensity “priming” exercise reduced $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and increased
89 critical power (Goulding et al., 2017). However the concomitant improvements in critical

90 power and $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ may have been due to the enhanced O_2 availability that attended priming
91 exercise, rather than a dependence of critical power on $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ *per se*. Subsequent to this study,
92 we demonstrated a concomitant increase in $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and reduction in critical power, independent
93 of O_2 availability, when exercise was initiated from an elevated moderate-intensity baseline
94 work rate compared to a baseline of unloaded cycling (i.e. “work-to-work” cycle exercise) in
95 both the upright and supine position (Goulding *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b). Taken together, these
96 findings strongly suggest a prevailing dependence of critical power on $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$.

97 Despite our recent data (Goulding *et al.*, 2017, 2018a, 2018b), stronger evidence for a
98 determining effect of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ on critical power would arguably come from the establishment of
99 a relationship between the changes in critical power (ΔCP) and $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ ($\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$) between two
100 conditions where $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ would be expected to differ. However, a valid assessment of this
101 relationship requires the precise characterisation of the value of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ via repeated, identical
102 exercise transitions in each condition (Lamarra *et al.*, 1987; Whipp *et al.*, 1982). In contrast,
103 our previously employed interventions (i.e. priming exercise and work-to-work exercise;
104 Goulding *et al.*, 2017, 2018a, 2018b) precluded the precise characterisation of the value of
105 $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ in each condition since this would have placed undue time commitments on the
106 participants. Conversely, inspired hyperoxic air has the potential to reduce $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$, at least
107 during supine exercise where O_2 delivery is rate-limiting (Macdonald *et al.*, 1997). However,
108 unlike our previously imposed interventions (Goulding *et al.*, 2017, 2018a, 2018b), hyperoxia
109 does not require a prolonged wash-out period before the physiological responses to further
110 exercise can be considered as being normal. Hence during supine exercise, hyperoxia
111 represents a convenient means by which to manipulate $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$, observe any effect on critical
112 power, and precisely characterise $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ via bouts of moderate intensity exercise undertaken
113 shortly prior to the criterion bouts that determine critical power. This enables a valid
114 assessment of $\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ versus ΔCP to be undertaken, with the establishment of a $\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}O_2} - \Delta CP$

115 relationship providing definitive support for a mechanistic role of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ in determining critical
116 power.

117 The aim of the present study was therefore to determine the impact of hyperoxia on $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and
118 critical power during supine exercise, with $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ precisely characterised via multiple bouts of
119 identical exercise in each condition. We hypothesised that (1) hyperoxia would reduce $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$
120 compared to normoxia, (2) hyperoxia would increase critical power compared to normoxia,
121 (3) ΔCP would correlate with $\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$.

122 **METHODS**

123 *Ethical approval.* The experiment was approved by Liverpool Hope University Research
124 Ethics Committee (approval reference number: S-15-06-2017 PA 015). The experiment
125 conformed to the standards set by the Declaration of Helsinki, except for registration in a
126 database. All participants provided written informed consent.

127 *Participants.* Eight healthy male subjects (mean \pm SD, age = 22 ± 3 years; height = 180 ± 9
128 cm; mass = 80 ± 9 kg) participated. Participants were instructed to avoid alcohol and
129 strenuous exercise 24 h prior to each visit, not to consume caffeine 3 h prior to each visit, and
130 to arrive 3 h postprandial. Tests were separated by at least 24 h, with each test performed at
131 the same time of day (± 2 h).

132 *Procedures.* All tests took place in a temperature-controlled laboratory (maintained between
133 $18-21$ °C). The experiment involved nine visits over a 3-5 week period, including one
134 preliminary trial and eight experimental trials. All tests were performed on a supine cycle
135 ergometer, which consisted of an electronically-braked ergometric unit (Lode Angio,
136 Groningen, The Netherlands) positioned on an Echo Cardiac Stress Table (Lode, Groningen,
137 The Netherlands). The ergometric unit was positioned such that the quadriceps were above
138 the level of the heart during exercise. Participants lay supine on the table whilst exercising,

139 and hand rails were available for participants to grip throughout the tests to prevent
140 backwards movements from occurring when forces were applied to the pedals. An adjustable
141 shoulder pad was positioned above the participant's shoulder to further impede any rear
142 movements. Participant's feet were securely strapped to the pedals throughout all tests. The
143 position of the shoulder pad and the distance between the hip and the crank, as well as each
144 participant's chosen hand grip position, was recorded at the first visit and replicated during
145 each subsequent visit. Throughout all exercise tests, participants were instructed to cycle at a
146 self-selected cadence between 70-90 rev/min (which was recorded and replicated in
147 subsequent visits), with task failure being defined as the point at which the cadence dropped
148 below 50 rev/min. The limit of tolerance was recorded to the nearest second in all tests.

149 *Preliminary trial.* Following measurement of height and weight, participants performed an
150 incremental ramp test to the limit of tolerance to determine $\dot{V}O_2$ max and the gas exchange
151 threshold (GET), such that the power outputs for subsequent visits could be calculated. The
152 ramp test consisted of 3 min baseline pedalling at 30 W, followed by a ramped increase in
153 power of $25 \text{ W}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ until task failure occurred. Ventilatory and gas exchange variables were
154 measured continuously breath-by-breath throughout each test. $\dot{V}O_2$ max was defined as the
155 highest 30 s value recorded throughout the test. The GET was estimated via visual
156 determination of the time point at which the following occurred: 1) increased CO_2 production
157 ($\dot{V}\text{CO}_2$) compared to $\dot{V}O_2$, 2) increased minute ventilation ($\dot{V}E$) relative to $\dot{V}O_2$ ($\dot{V}E/\dot{V}O_2$)
158 without an increase in $\dot{V}E/\dot{V}\text{CO}_2$, and 3) an increase in end tidal O_2 tension without
159 decreasing end tidal CO_2 tension. The mean response time (MRT) was defined as the time
160 between the beginning of the ramp test and intersection between baseline $\dot{V}O_2$ (average $\dot{V}O_2$
161 measured during last 30 s of baseline; $\dot{V}O_{2b}$) and backwards extrapolation of the $\dot{V}O_2$ -time
162 relationship (Boone *et al.*, 2008). This technique was also used to calculate power outputs for
163 subsequent visits.

164 *Experimental trials.* The eight experimental trials that followed required exercise at four
165 fixed severe-intensity power outputs performed until the limit of tolerance. Each power
166 output was repeated twice, i.e. once in normoxia (breathing room air) and once in hyperoxia
167 (fraction of inspired O₂ 0.5; British Oxygen Company). The power outputs were estimated to
168 be in the range of 50%Δ (i.e. 50% of the difference between the GET and $\dot{V}O_2$ max) – 110%
169 $\dot{V}O_2$ max, such that the range of exercise tolerance times was 2-15 minutes for each subject
170 (Hill, 1993). If tolerance time for a particular test fell outside of this range, the power output
171 was modified and the test repeated on a subsequent day. The four power outputs utilised for
172 each participant will hereafter be referred to as WR1, WR 2, WR 3, and WR 4, with WR 1
173 being the lowest and WR 4 being the highest power outputs, respectively. Power outputs
174 were presented in random order, with participants alternating between normoxic and
175 hyperoxic conditions. In both normoxia and hyperoxia, tests began with 3 minutes of 20 W
176 baseline cycling, before a step change in power output to 70% GET for 6 minutes. The
177 purpose of the 6 minute bout of moderate exercise was to precisely characterise $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics
178 in each condition via averaging of multiple identical trials (*see data analysis*) to facilitate
179 comparisons of the magnitude of change of related parameters between conditions. After
180 these 6 minutes of moderate cycling, the power output was reduced to 20 W for a further 10
181 minutes. Subsequent to these 10 minutes of 20 W cycling, a step increase in power output
182 was abruptly applied to the desired severe-intensity (i.e. WR's 1-4), and participants
183 exercised until the limit of tolerance was reached.

184 Participants wore a silicone face mask (Hans Rudolph, Kansas, United States) with a flow
185 sensor (Geratherm Respiratory, GmbH, Germany) attached, which was attached in turn via a
186 capillary line to a metabolic cart (Blue Cherry, Geratherm Respiratory, GmbH, Germany)
187 that was used to measure pulmonary gas exchange and ventilation breath-by-breath
188 throughout all tests. Gases of known concentration were used to calibrate gas analysers, and a

189 3-liter syringe (Hans Rudolph, Kansas City, MO) was used to calibrate flow sensors. A two-
190 way non-rebreathing valve (Hans Rudolph T-Shape Two-Way Non-Rebreathing Valve Series
191 2600; Hans Rudolph, Kansas, United States) was attached to the flow sensor via a piece of
192 rubber tubing. A 200 L Douglas bag was connected to the inlet port of this valve. In the
193 hyperoxic condition, Douglas bags were continuously filled with the 50% O₂ gas mixture via
194 a pressurised cylinder, and in the normoxic condition the Douglas bag was bypassed so that
195 participants breathed room air. In the hyperoxic condition, participants rested quietly on the
196 ergometer for 10 minutes before exercise to allow body O₂ stores to become equilibrated, a
197 procedure that was also replicated in the normoxic condition with participants inhaling room
198 air. Heart rate was determined every 1 s throughout all tests using short-range radiotelemetry
199 (Garmin FR70, Garmin Ltd., Switzerland). In both conditions, blood was drawn from the
200 thumb of the right hand at rest, during the final minute of baseline pedalling prior to the onset
201 of severe exercise, and immediately upon reaching the limit of tolerance. Whole blood [L⁻¹]
202 was determined using a Biosen C-Line lactate analyser (EKF, Germany).

203 Absolute concentrations of muscle and microvascular deoxyhaemoglobin + deoxymyoglobin
204 ([HHb + Mb]), oxyhaemoglobin + oxymyoglobin ([HbO₂ + MbO₂]), and total haemoglobin +
205 total myoglobin ([THb + Mb]) were determined using a frequency-domain multidistance
206 NIRS system (OxiplexTS, ISS, Champaign, IL, USA). This technique has been described in
207 detail previously (Broxterman *et al.*, 2014; Goulding *et al.*, 2017). Briefly, this device
208 consists of one detector fibre bundle and eight light-emitting diodes (LED) operating at
209 wavelengths of 690 and 830 nm (four LEDs per wavelength), with LED-detector fibre bundle
210 separation distances of 2.25, 2.75, 3.25 and 3.75. The device measures and incorporates
211 dynamic reduced scattering coefficients to provide absolute concentrations of [HHb + Mb]
212 and [HbO₂ + MbO₂]. The NIRS probe was calibrated prior to each test according to the
213 manufacturer's instructions. Two flexible NIRS probes were placed on the participant; one

214 longitudinally along the belly of the right vastus lateralis (VL), the other longitudinally along
215 the belly of the rectus femoris (RF) muscle. The probes were held firmly in place via Velcro
216 strapping, and the area underneath the probe was cleaned, shaved and marked with pen such
217 that probe position could be accurately replicated for each trial. Measurements began with
218 participants in a resting position on the ergometer, with feet strapped into the pedals and the
219 right leg extended. To account for the influence of adipose tissue thickness (ATT) on the
220 NIRS signal, we employed the correction factor employed by Craig *et al.* (2017), i.e. with
221 separate correction factors for the RF and VL (Figure 1).

222 *Data analysis.* Breath-by-breath $\dot{V}O_2$ data were edited to remove data points lying more than
223 4 standard deviations (SD) outside the local 5-breath mean (Lamarra *et al.*, 1987). These data
224 were then linearly interpolated to provide second-by-second values. For $\dot{V}O_2$, [HHb + Mb],
225 [HbO₂ + MbO₂] and heart rate data in response to moderate exercise transitions, second-by-
226 second data for the four identical transitions were averaged together to produce a single
227 dataset. The severe-intensity exercise bouts for each condition were not repeated and were
228 therefore modelled separately. The following mono-exponential function was then used to fit
229 the $\dot{V}O_2$, [HHb + Mb] and heart rate responses to exercise:

$$230 \quad (1) \quad Y_{(t)} = Y_{(b)} + A_Y * (1 - e^{-(t - TD/\tau)})$$

231

232 Where $Y_{(t)}$ is the value of the independent variable at time t , $Y_{(b)}$ is the baseline value
233 measured over the final 30 seconds of baseline pedalling, A_Y is the amplitude of increase in Y
234 above baseline, TD is the time delay and τ is the time constant of the response. For $\dot{V}O_2$, the
235 end of the “cardiodynamic” phase was determined to be the time at which a drop in
236 respiratory exchange ratio and end-tidal O₂ pressure was observed, and data preceding this
237 point were excluded from the modelling process. For moderate exercise, $\dot{V}O_2$ responses were

238 fit to 360 s. During severe transitions, the onset of the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component was determined
239 by progressively increasing the fitting window, beginning from the end of phase I to 60
240 seconds and then successively extending the window to the limit of tolerance. The onset of
241 the slow component was taken as the time point at which a departure from “flatness” in the
242 plot of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and/or χ^2 versus time was observed, as described previously (Rossiter *et al.*,
243 2001; Goulding *et al.*, 2017). This method allows fitting of the isolated fundamental
244 component without arbitrary parameterization of the slow component. The magnitude of the
245 $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component was calculated as the difference between end exercise $\dot{V}O_2$ (i.e. mean
246 $\dot{V}O_2$ over final 30 s of exercise) and $A_Y + Y_{(b)}$. For [HHb + Mb], data preceding the time point
247 at which the [HHb + Mb] signal increased above 1 SD of the pretransition baseline value
248 were removed. On occasions where [HHb + Mb] decreased after the exercise onset, data
249 preceding the first point showing a sustained increase in [HHb + Mb] were removed from the
250 modelling process. Although [HHb + Mb] data were modelled with the TD allowed to vary
251 freely such that the fit could be optimised, the time point at which [HHb + Mb] began to
252 increase is presented in the results (see Table 3) as this is the more physiologically relevant
253 parameter (Spencer *et al.*, 2011). Heart rate increased with no TD, therefore the response was
254 constrained to the start of exercise. For moderate exercise, [HHb + Mb] data were fit to Eq. 1
255 using the iterative procedures described for the determination of the $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics but with the
256 fitting window commencing at 20 s. This modelling strategy thus allows for the
257 determination of the optimum “phase II” fitting window even in the presence of a [HHb +
258 Mb] overshoot. By plotting the resultant $\tau_{[HHb+Mb]}$ values against time, and identifying the
259 point at which a sustained decrease (overshoot) or increase in $\tau_{[HHb+Mb]}$ was observed
260 alongside a sharp increase in the χ^2 value. For severe-intensity exercise for both [HHb + Mb]
261 and heart rate, the model window was constrained to the time of onset of the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow
262 component. The amplitude of the [HHb + Mb] and heart rate “slow component” during

263 severe exercise was calculated by subtracting $Y_{(b)} + A_Y$ from the mean value of Y during the
264 final 30 s of exercise. Intersite coefficient of variation ($CV\% = 100 * SD / \text{mean of the two}$
265 sites) was calculated to quantify the spatial heterogeneity for $TD_{[HHb+Mb]}$ and $\tau_{[HHb+Mb]}$.
266 Confidence intervals for all τ parameters were obtained in Origin 6.0 (OriginLab
267 Corporation, MA, USA). For $[HbO_2 + MbO_2]$ and $[THb + Mb]$ during moderate exercise, 30
268 second averages were determined at baseline, and every 30 seconds thereafter until the end of
269 the transition. For severe exercise, mean $[HbO_2 + MbO_2]$ and $[THb + Mb]$ was determined at
270 baseline, at 30 and 120 seconds into the transition (15 second bins centred on each time
271 point), and at end-exercise (final 30 seconds) to allow comparisons between conditions.

272 Critical power and W' were determined by inputting power output (P), time to task failure (T)
273 and work done (W) into three models: the hyperbolic power-time model (Eq. 2), the linear
274 work-time model (Eq. 3), and the linear power versus the inverse-of-time models (4):

275 (2)
$$P = W' / T + CP$$

276 (3)
$$W = CP * T + W'$$

277 (4)
$$P = W' * (1/T) + CP$$

278 The standard errors of the estimates (SEE) associated with critical power and W' were
279 expressed as a coefficient of variation (CV) relative to the parameter estimate. Best individual
280 fit parameter estimates were obtained for each participant by selecting the model producing
281 the lowest summed CV for both parameters across conditions. The same model was used in
282 both conditions for each individual participant.

283 *Statistical analyses.* All kinetic parameters (i.e. $\dot{V}O_2$, $[HHb + Mb]$, and heart rate), blood $[L^-]$,
284 $[HbO_2 + MbO_2]$, $[THb + Mb]$ and spatial heterogeneity of $[HHb + Mb]$ during severe
285 exercise were analysed using two- (condition * work rate or condition * muscle), three-
286 (condition * work rate * time or condition * muscle * time), or four-way (condition * muscle

287 * work rate * time) repeated measures ANOVAs, as appropriate. Where significant
288 differences were found, planned repeated and simple contrasts were used to identify the
289 location of these differences. $\dot{V}O_2$, heart rate and spatial heterogeneity of [HHb + Mb] for
290 moderate exercise as well as differences in critical power and W' between conditions were
291 compared using student's paired t-tests. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to
292 determine relationships between variables of interest. All data are presented as mean \pm SD
293 unless otherwise stated. For clarity, and to highlight values for parameters measured across
294 all four severe-intensity work rates, the overall mean across work rates \pm SD are presented in
295 text, with work rate-specific mean \pm SD presented in tables. Statistical significance was
296 accepted at $P < 0.05$.

297 RESULTS

298 Mode-specific $\dot{V}O_2$ max determined from the ramp test was 3.26 ± 0.75 L.min⁻¹ (40.8 ± 9.0
299 mL.kg.min⁻¹), and this was associated with a peak work-rate of 238 ± 39 W. The GET was
300 1.61 ± 0.21 L.min⁻¹ (87 ± 12 W), and as such the exercise bouts at 70% GET were conducted
301 at 61 ± 8 W. There was no main effect of condition [hyperoxia vs. normoxia] ($P = 0.51$) or
302 condition * time interaction effect ($P = 0.79$) on blood [L⁻], indicating that blood [L⁻]
303 accumulation did not differ between conditions. Blood [L⁻] did not differ between rest and
304 baseline (rest: 1.63 ± 0.29 mmol.L⁻¹ versus baseline: 1.63 ± 0.37 mmol.L⁻¹), however it rose
305 significantly at end-exercise (8.83 ± 1.90 mmol.L⁻¹, main effect of time, $P < 0.001$).

306 There was a main effect of condition on time to task failure ($P < 0.001$), with time to task
307 failure being greater at WR 1 (hyperoxia: 655 ± 158 , normoxia: 482 ± 176 s) and WR 2
308 (hyperoxia: 403 ± 95 , normoxia: 278 ± 60 s) in hyperoxia compared to normoxia. Individual
309 fit optimisation resulted in the W-T model being used for 3 participants and the hyperbolic P-
310 T model for 5 participants. CP was greater in hyperoxia than in normoxia (hyperoxia: $148 \pm$

311 29, normoxia: 134 ± 27 W; $P = 0.006$; Table 1), whereas W' was not different between
312 conditions (hyperoxia: 12.8 ± 4.7 kJ, normoxia: 13.9 ± 4.7 kJ; $P = 0.50$; Table 1). Figure 2
313 illustrates the effect of hyperoxia on the power-duration relationship in a representative
314 participant.

315 Group mean $\dot{V}O_2$ responses to moderate exercise in each condition are displayed in Figure 3,
316 whereas $\dot{V}O_2$ responses to severe exercise at a representative work rate from a representative
317 participant are displayed in Figure 4. $\dot{V}O_2$ peak did not differ between the constant work rate
318 prediction trials in normoxia and the ramp incremental test ($P = 0.94$), nor between any of the
319 constant work rate trials in hyperoxia ($P = 0.73$). $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ was reduced in hyperoxia compared to
320 normoxia during both moderate exercise (hyperoxia: 33 ± 14 versus normoxia: 49 ± 14 s, $P =$
321 0.019) and severe exercise (hyperoxia: 33 ± 12 versus normoxia: 52 ± 22 s, $P = 0.007$). There
322 were no other differences in any of the $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics parameters for moderate exercise (Figure
323 3). During severe exercise, there was an increased $\dot{V}O_2$ peak ($P = 0.007$) in hyperoxia, with a
324 concomitant increase in the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component amplitude ($P = 0.004$) (Table 2). There
325 were no other differences in any of the $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics parameters for severe exercise (Table 2).

326 $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ during moderate exercise in hyperoxia was inversely correlated to critical power in
327 hyperoxia ($r = -0.89$, $P < 0.001$, Figure 5B), however no relationship was observed between
328 $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ during moderate exercise in normoxia and normoxic critical power ($r = -0.07$, $P = 0.68$,
329 Figure 5A). There was no significant linear relationship between ΔCP and $\Delta \tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ derived from
330 the moderate intensity bouts ($r = -0.45$, $P = 0.27$, Figure 5C).

331 $[HbO_2 + MbO_2]$ was increased in hyperoxia during both moderate (hyperoxia: 67 ± 17
332 versus normoxia: 63 ± 14 μM ; $P = 0.004$, Figure 6A, 6B) and severe (hyperoxia: 67 ± 10
333 versus normoxia: 63 ± 11 μM ; $P = 0.020$) exercise. $[THb + Mb]$ was unchanged between
334 conditions during both moderate (hyperoxia: 92 ± 19 versus normoxia: 90 ± 19 μM , $P = 0.23$;

335 Figure 6C, D) and severe exercise (hyperoxia: 153 ± 82 versus normoxia: 152 ± 82 μM , $P =$
336 0.78). Baseline [HHb + Mb] was lower in hyperoxia compared to normoxia during moderate
337 exercise (hyperoxia: 19 ± 7 versus normoxia: 22 ± 8 μM , $P = 0.049$; Figure 7), however there
338 were no other differences in [HHb + Mb] kinetic parameters for either moderate (Figure 7A,
339 7B) or severe (Table 3) exercise. Furthermore, the CV for the $\text{TD}_{[\text{HHb} + \text{Mb}]}$ (moderate,
340 hyperoxia: 27 ± 14 versus normoxia: $31 \pm 17\%$, $P = 0.19$; severe, hyperoxia: 62 ± 38 versus
341 normoxia: $43 \pm 21\%$, $P = 0.65$) and the $\tau_{[\text{HHb} + \text{Mb}]}$ (moderate, hyperoxia: 41 ± 26 versus
342 normoxia: $21 \pm 15\%$, $P = 0.11$; severe, hyperoxia: 49 ± 14 versus normoxia: $57 \pm 13\%$, $P =$
343 0.21) did not differ between conditions. There were no differences in any parameters of the
344 heart rate kinetics, apart from a reduction in the absolute amplitude of the heart rate response
345 in hyperoxia (hyperoxia: 98 ± 2 $\text{beats}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ versus normoxia: 105 ± 6 $\text{beats}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, $P = 0.005$).

346 DISCUSSION

347 We have previously demonstrated a causal relationship between $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ kinetics (specifically
348 $\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$) and critical power (Goulding *et al.*, 2017, 2018a, 2018b). However, stronger evidence
349 in favour of a determining effect of $\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$ on critical power would come from the scaling of
350 any change in critical power (ΔCP) to that of the change in $\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$ ($\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$). We therefore
351 examined the effect of hyperoxia on $\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$ and critical power compared to normoxia during
352 supine exercise, with $\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$ being precisely determined via multiple repeated bouts of identical
353 exercise in each condition. Our data were consistent with our first two hypotheses; hyperoxia
354 induced a reduction in $\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$ when compared to normoxia during supine exercise, with this
355 speeding of pulmonary $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$ kinetics being coincident with an increased critical power.
356 However, the relationship between ΔCP and $\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$ was not sufficiently consistent across
357 participants to be able to confidently assert that ΔCP scales with $\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}\text{O}_2}$.

358 Pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics are typically slower during supine compared to upright cycle
359 exercise (Koga *et al.*, 1999; Jones *et al.*, 2006; Goulding *et al.*, 2017), typically attributed to a
360 loss of the effect of gravity, which impairs perfusion pressure due to the withdrawal of the
361 hydrostatic gradient. Furthermore, femoral artery leg blood flow kinetics are also slower at
362 the onset of exercise in this position (MacDonald *et al.*, 1998), possibly due to the exercising
363 muscles being positioned above the level of the heart, as in the present study, which has been
364 shown to impair heart rate kinetics (Schneider *et al.* 2002) and thus slow the adjustment of
365 convective O_2 delivery relative to exercise performed below the level of the heart (Hughson
366 *et al.* 1996). In the present study, therefore, it was reasoned that improvements in O_2 delivery
367 afforded by hyperoxia in this body position would be expected to mitigate the extant O_2
368 delivery limitation and result in a reduction in $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ during both moderate and severe exercise.
369 Consequently we observed a ~32 and 40% reduction in $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ in response to hyperoxia-induced
370 increases in O_2 delivery during moderate and severe exercise, respectively. The present study
371 therefore provides the first demonstration of a hyperoxia-induced speeding of the
372 fundamental phase of pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics in healthy humans performing whole-body
373 exercise. These findings are significant for the understanding of metabolic control since they
374 provide direct empirical support for the “tipping point” hypothesis proposed by Jones &
375 Poole (2005).

376 That hyperoxia alleviated an O_2 delivery limitation induced by the supine body position is
377 supported by our NIRS data. The [HHb + Mb] signal derived from NIRS represents the
378 relative balance between O_2 supply and O_2 utilization within the field of interrogation (De
379 Blasi *et al.*, 1993; Ferrari *et al.*, 1997; Grassi *et al.*, 2003). In hyperoxia, baseline [HHb +
380 Mb] was reduced prior to moderate exercise, and $\tau_{[HHb + Mb]}$ was unchanged in the face of
381 faster $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics, data which are suggestive of an increased O_2 availability. Furthermore,
382 [HbO₂ + MbO₂] was enhanced during both moderate and severe exercise in hyperoxia despite

383 no changes in [THb + Mb]. This observation is consistent with previous studies
384 demonstrating that hyperoxia affords meaningful increases in arterial O₂ content (CaO₂) with
385 unchanged muscle blood flow (\dot{Q}_m), such that muscle O₂ delivery (the product of CaO₂ and
386 \dot{Q}_m) and thus intracellular PO₂ is increased (Knight *et al.*, 1993; Richardson *et al.*, 1999).
387 Collectively therefore, the present results suggest that the increased CaO₂ afforded by
388 hyperoxia raised intracellular PO₂ and enabled faster $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics at exercise onset in
389 hyperoxia compared to normoxia.

390 Importantly, we observed a concomitant ~14 W increase in critical power in hyperoxia
391 compared with normoxia. This finding coheres with our previous investigations
392 demonstrating that critical power is increased when $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics are faster (Goulding *et al.*,
393 2017), and reduced when $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics are slower (Goulding *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b). It has
394 previously been suggested that the inability to attain a steady-state above critical power arises
395 because critical power represents the highest power output for which the O₂ deficit can be
396 stabilized (Rossiter, 2010; Murgatroyd *et al.*, 2011). Since a smaller $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ results in a smaller
397 O₂ deficit for a given step increase in power output, this would therefore also increase the
398 maximum power output for which the O₂ deficit can be stabilised (i.e. increased critical
399 power).

400 The metabolic basis for this effect is likely to reside, at least in part, with the products of ATP
401 hydrolysis within the exercising skeletal muscles. During high-intensity exercise (i.e. above
402 the GET), there is an additional increase in ATP hydrolysis with time, such that the ATP cost
403 of the work increases above that predicted from the linear relationship between ATP usage
404 and power output below the GET (Grassi *et al.*, 2015; Korzeniewski & Rossiter, 2015;
405 Korzeniewski, 2018). Given the sigmoidal relationship between [ADP] and $\dot{V}O_2$ *in vivo*
406 (Wüst *et al.*, 2011), this additional ATP breakdown during high-intensity exercise would

407 push [ADP] further towards the flatter portion of the curve, leading to a progressively smaller
408 $\dot{V}O_2$ response for a given elevation in [ADP]. If the exercise intensity is high enough,
409 eventually the $\dot{V}O_2$ response to further elevations in [ADP] would become too small to meet
410 the rising demand for ATP turnover, setting $\dot{V}O_2$ on an irrevocable trajectory towards $\dot{V}O_2$
411 max. Critical power may therefore represent the power output at which a “critical [ADP]” is
412 achieved during the rest-exercise transition; a low $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ would attenuate [ADP] accumulation
413 during the rest-work transition, thus enabling a higher power to be achieved before a critical
414 [ADP] is attained and accounting for a causal relationship with critical power.

415 Given this proposed mechanism for a causal relationship between $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and critical power, the
416 examination of the $\Delta CP - \Delta \tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ relationship between conditions was central to the present
417 study. Though our previous data suggests a determining effect of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ on critical power
418 (Goulding *et al.*, 2017, 2018a, 2018b); such causality would be more strongly inferred if ΔCP
419 scaled with $\Delta \tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$. Hence critical power and precise measures of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ were derived in each
420 condition, the latter via multiple bouts of identical exercise that were otherwise unobtainable
421 in previous investigations (Goulding *et al.*, 2017, 2018a, 2018b). Despite the observation of a
422 concomitant reduction in $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and increase in critical power in hyperoxia in the present
423 study, the $\Delta CP - \Delta \tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ relationship was not consistent across all participants (Fig. 5C). Such a
424 finding thus questions the ubiquity of a causal relationship between $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and critical power
425 and may indicate that, as previously suggested (Goulding *et al.*, 2017), the relative
426 importance of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ in determining critical power may be dependent upon the presence or
427 absence of an O_2 availability limitation to $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$. Indeed a consistent feature of exercise in the
428 supine position is the lack of an association between critical power and $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ (Goulding *et al.*,
429 2017, 2018b), which was restored in hyperoxia ($r = -0.89$, Figure 5B). Moreover, the
430 concentration of a given respiratory regulator (e.g. ADP, Pi, NADH + H⁺, etc.) required to
431 elicit a given $\dot{V}O_2$ is dependent upon the intracellular PO_2 (Wilson *et al.*, 1979; Wilson &

432 Erecińska, 1985; Rumsey *et al.*, 1990; Hogan *et al.*, 1992a, 1992b). Hence the increased
433 intracellular PO_2 afforded by hyperoxia could have reduced the intracellular perturbations in
434 [ADP] required to elicit a given $\dot{V}O_2$ and independently increased the work-rate at which a
435 “critical [ADP]”, and thus critical power, was attained.

436 However, this interpretation of the data in Figure 5 is not consistent with our previous study
437 in the supine position demonstrating that a slowing of $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics via work-to-work
438 exercise, independent of the extant O_2 delivery limitation, reduced critical power (Goulding
439 *et al.*, 2018b). The lack of association between $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and critical power in the supine position
440 can thus be alternatively explained by this body position introducing a kinetic dissociation
441 between pulmonary and muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ ($\dot{V}O_{2m}$; the former being a proxy of the latter) due to the
442 inherent low baseline O_2 availability and slow O_2 delivery kinetics (Barstow *et al.*, 1990;
443 Benson *et al.*, 2013). Computer modelling shows that this would cause pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$
444 kinetics to become faster than $\dot{V}O_{2m}$ kinetics (Benson *et al.*, 2013), dissociating $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ from
445 $\tau_{\dot{V}O_{2m}}$ and obscuring the critical power - $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ relationship. Improvements in O_2 availability
446 due to hyperoxia would thus reverse the otherwise impaired O_2 availability and restore the
447 kinetic coupling between pulmonary and muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ kinetics (see Figure 5B). Such an
448 explanation retains consistency with our previous data both in the upright and supine
449 positions (Goulding *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b) and thus supports the notion of a prevailing
450 dependency of critical power on $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$. The inconsistent $\Delta CP - \Delta \tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ relationship is therefore
451 likely due to moving between conditions where the absolute values of $\tau_{\dot{V}O_{2m}}$ and $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ are and
452 are not dissociated.

453 In contrast to other reports of the effect of hyperoxia on critical power & W' (Vanhatalo *et*
454 *al.*, 2010), whilst critical power increased, W' remained unchanged. We also observed an
455 increased $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component amplitude in the present study in hyperoxia, a finding that

456 contrasts with previous reports of a decreased slow component amplitude in hyperoxia
457 (Haseler *et al.*, 2004; Wilkerson *et al.*, 2006). However, in these studies the slow component
458 was measured over a 6 minute period, whereas in the present study exercise was continued
459 until the limit of tolerance. In contrast, in the present study, the fundamental $\dot{V}O_2$ amplitude
460 was unchanged with an increased $\dot{V}O_2$ peak, necessitating an increased $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component.
461 However, since there was a concomitant increase in critical power and $\dot{V}O_2$ peak, this likely
462 determined the unchanged W' . Additionally, the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component amplitude is greatest at
463 work rates nearest to critical power (Poole *et al.*, 1994); since critical power was increased in
464 hyperoxia, this would have caused the criterion trials to be conducted in closer proximity to
465 critical power and thus raise the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component relative to normoxia.

466 In summary, the present finding of a reduction in $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and increase in critical power during
467 supine exercise in hyperoxia provides further support for the notion that $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ is an
468 independent determinant of critical power. However, the inconsistent relationship between
469 ΔCP and $\Delta\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ does not permit the exclusion of a role for O_2 availability *per se*, at least in
470 the supine position where O_2 availability is limiting. Hence, despite our previous findings
471 (Goulding *et al.*, 2018b) the absence of a relationship between $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and critical power in
472 normoxia, and its subsequent restoration in hyperoxia may be considered as supportive for a
473 predominant role of O_2 availability in determining critical power during supine exercise.
474 Equally however, in line with our previous study this finding may reflect a kinetic distortion
475 between pulmonary and muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ in the supine position between $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and critical power
476 that is restored in hyperoxic conditions. Hence, despite our previous findings (Goulding *et*
477 *al.*, 2018b), further research is required to precisely elucidate the relative contributions of
478 $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ and O_2 as determining factors for critical power.

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480

481 **ADDITIONAL INFORMATION**

482 The authors declare no competing interests or external sources of funding. SM conceived the
483 idea for this project. SM, DMR and RPG design the experiments, RPG collected and
484 analysed the data and drafted the manuscript. SM, DMR and RPG revised it critically for
485 intellectual content and all authors approved the final version of the manuscript. All authors
486 agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

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646 **TABLES**

647

Table 1. The critical power and W' estimates for each participant in normoxia and hyperoxia

Participant	Critical power (W)			W' (kJ)		
	Normoxia	Hyperoxia	Δ (%)	Normoxia	Hyperoxia	Δ (%)
1	98	115	17.0	8.9	6.2	-30.9
2	130	133	2.1	13.3	13.9	4.1
3	181	196	8.8	19.0	21.3	12.3
4	154	159	3.0	7.9	7.9	-1.3
5	139	151	8.7	14.6	14.0	-4.5
6	111	124	12.0	10.9	14.6	33.9
7	146	183	25.2	21.7	10.6	-51.3
8	114	127	10.8	15.1	14.1	-6.3
Mean	134	149 *	10.9	13.9	12.8	-5.5
S.D	27	29	7.5	4.7	4.7	26.0

Δ is the percentage difference between conditions. * indicates significantly difference from normoxia ($P < 0.05$).

Table 2. Pulmonary oxygen uptake responses to severe-intensity constant work rate exercise in each condition.

Parameter	Normoxia	Hyperoxia
$\dot{V}O_2$ baseline, L.min ⁻¹		
WR 1	1.02 ± 0.07	1.03 ± 0.13
WR 2	1.12 ± 0.13	1.00 ± 0.12
WR 3	0.99 ± 0.10	1.00 ± 0.22
WR 4	1.04 ± 0.12	0.97 ± 0.12
$TD\dot{V}O_2$, s		
WR 1	9 ± 7	13 ± 6
WR 2	13 ± 12	14 ± 10
WR 3	6 ± 9	14 ± 11
WR 4	16 ± 9	18 ± 4
$\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$, s	*	
WR 1	51 ± 12	34 ± 15
WR 2	57 ± 21	39 ± 7
WR 3	54 ± 8	28 ± 13
WR 4	47 ± 17	32 ± 13
$A\dot{V}O_2$, L.min ⁻¹	‡	
WR 1	1.72 ± 0.36	1.71 ± 0.62
WR 2	1.94 ± 0.42	2.16 ± 0.48
WR 3	2.26 ± 0.52	2.15 ± 0.65
WR 4	2.28 ± 0.53	2.39 ± 0.43
Absolute $A\dot{V}O_2$, L.min ⁻¹	‡	
WR 1	2.72 ± 0.39	2.74 ± 0.62
WR 2	2.93 ± 0.41	3.07 ± 0.51
WR 3	3.26 ± 0.69	3.15 ± 0.73
WR 4	3.32 ± 0.49	3.36 ± 0.38
$SC\dot{V}O_2$, L.min ⁻¹	*‡	
WR 1	0.45 ± 0.34	0.81 ± 0.34
WR 2	0.27 ± 0.38	0.51 ± 0.34
WR 3	0.05 ± 0.09	0.45 ± 0.25
WR 4	0.00 ± 0.00	0.17 ± 0.51
End-exercise $\dot{V}O_2$ (L.min ⁻¹)	*	
WR 1	3.16 ± 0.44	3.55 ± 0.63

WR 2	3.31 ± 0.63	3.66 ± 0.73 ⁶⁴⁸
WR 3	3.14 ± 0.58	3.62 ± 0.68
WR 4	3.11 ± 0.51	3.54 ± 0.73 ⁶⁴⁹

$TD_{\dot{V}O_2}$, fundamental time delay; $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$, fundamental time constant; $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ 95% CI, 95% confidence interval associated with the fundamental time constant; $A_{\dot{V}O_2}$, fundamental amplitude; Absolute $A_{\dot{V}O_2}$, baseline $\dot{V}O_2$ + fundamental $\dot{V}O_2$ amplitude; Gain, increase in fundamental $\dot{V}O_2$ per unit increase in power output; $SC_{\dot{V}O_2}$, magnitude of the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component. * indicates significant main effect of condition; † indicates significant main effect of work rate ($P < 0.05$).

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Table 3. Muscle deoxygenation kinetic responses at each power output for both muscle sites in normoxia and hyperoxia.

Parameter	Rectus Femoris		Vastus Lateralis	
	Normoxia	Hyperoxia	Normoxia	Hyperoxia
$[\text{HHb}+\text{Mb}]_{(b)}$, μM				
WR 1	19.3 \pm 8.3	19.1 \pm 10.6	20.8 \pm 6.4	20.1 \pm 7.3
WR 2	21.7 \pm 9.5	19.2 \pm 8.6	18.9 \pm 7.7	22.5 \pm 8.2
WR 3	19.7 \pm 11.3	18.8 \pm 8.7	23.2 \pm 7.5	17.6 \pm 9.6
WR 4	16.7 \pm 8.3	18.7 \pm 8.1	20.5 \pm 9.4	18.9 \pm 4.3
$\text{TD}_{[\text{HHb}+\text{Mb}]}$, s				
WR 1	10 \pm 5	7 \pm 3	7 \pm 7	4 \pm 3
WR 2	4 \pm 2	7 \pm 7	6 \pm 6	5 \pm 3
WR 3	5 \pm 8	5 \pm 3	3 \pm 2	5 \pm 8
WR 4	4 \pm 3	10 \pm 5	5 \pm 3	11 \pm 6
$\tau_{[\text{HHb}+\text{Mb}]}$, s	# *			
WR 1	19 \pm 10	16 \pm 11	10 \pm 3	13 \pm 11
WR 2	24 \pm 15	21 \pm 21	9 \pm 4	9 \pm 3
WR 3	21 \pm 7	19 \pm 14	10 \pm 4	13 \pm 8
WR 4	21 \pm 10	19 \pm 10	9 \pm 3	6 \pm 3
$A_{[\text{HHb}+\text{Mb}]}$, μM				
WR 1	8.2 \pm 3.7	5.4 \pm 3.6	19.0 \pm 18.4	19.0 \pm 19.1
WR 2	9.3 \pm 5.5	7.2 \pm 5.6	20.5 \pm 16.2	19.8 \pm 16.6
WR 3	8.4 \pm 5.5	9.7 \pm 7.1	24.1 \pm 19.7	20.2 \pm 16.6
WR 4	10.9 \pm 6.5	11.3 \pm 5.2	18.7 \pm 16.5	18.0 \pm 17.5
Absolute $A_{[\text{HHb}+\text{Mb}]}$, μM				
WR 1	27.5 \pm 11.7	24.6 \pm 11.0	39.7 \pm 21.6	39.1 \pm 23.5
WR 2	29.9 \pm 11.9	26.4 \pm 11.5	36.9 \pm 22.2	42.4 \pm 21.7
WR 3	27.0 \pm 13.7	28.6 \pm 12.2	41.4 \pm 26.2	37.8 \pm 25.1
WR 4	27.5 \pm 14.2	30.0 \pm 12.0	39.1 \pm 24.3	36.9 \pm 20.3
$\text{SC}_{[\text{HHb}+\text{Mb}]}$, μM				
WR 1	2.6 \pm 3.7	6.2 \pm 17.0	2.3 \pm 2.9	0.0 \pm 9.8
WR 2	3.9 \pm 7.3	8.1 \pm 15.2	2.0 \pm 2.9	0.0 \pm 3.9
WR 3	1.1 \pm 1.7	0.0 \pm 2.6	0.0 \pm 4.9	1.6 \pm 3.7
WR 4	0.1 \pm 2.2	0.0 \pm 1.2	0.0 \pm 15.7	0.1 \pm 1.5
End-exercise $[\text{HHb} + \text{Mb}]$ (μM)				
WR 1	30.1 \pm 12.6	30.8 \pm 22.0	42.0 \pm 22.5	36.1 \pm 17.4
WR 2	33.7 \pm 14.1	34.5 \pm 18.4	39.4 \pm 23.5	42.3 \pm 21.2

WR 3	28.1 ± 14.4	28.5 ± 13.1	40.1 ± 23.8	39.4 ± 24.2
WR 4	27.6 ± 13.0	30.0 ± 11.7	34.2 ± 17.2	37.1 ± 19.6

[HHb+Mb]_(b), mean [HHb+Mb] over last 30 s of baseline; TD_[HHb+Mb], time delay before exponential rise in [HHb+Mb]; $\tau_{[HHb+Mb]}$, time constant of [HHb+Mb] response; $A_{[HHb+Mb]}$, amplitude of [HHb+Mb] response; Absolute $A_{[HHb+Mb]}$, baseline [HHb + Mb] + amplitude [HHb + Mb]; SC_[HHb+Mb], magnitude of the [HHb+Mb] slow component; End-exercise [HHb + Mb], mean [HHb + Mb] during finals 30 s of exercise. # indicates significant main effect of muscle ($P < 0.05$).

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685 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

686 Figure 1. Group relationship between subcutaneous adipose tissue thickness (ATT) and
687 resting total haemoglobin ([THb + Mb]) measured by NIRS in the rectus femoris (A; RF) and
688 vastus lateralis (B; VL). Normalization procedure is detailed in the *methods* section.

689 Figure 2. The hyperbolic power-duration relationship (A; equation 4) and the linear work-
690 time relationship (B; equation 5) in normoxia (clear circles) and hyperoxia (black circles) in
691 participant 5. In A, the critical power is the power asymptote and W' is the curvature constant.
692 In B, the critical power is the gradient and the W' is the y-intercept of the linear regression.

693 Figure 3. Group mean pulmonary oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_2$) responses to moderate exercise in
694 normoxia (dashed grey line) and hyperoxia (solid black line). Group mean exponential fits
695 are overlaid onto the $\dot{V}O_2$ responses as solid curved lines to highlight differences between
696 conditions. Error bars omitted for clarity. FiO_2 , fraction of inspired O_2 .

697 Figure 4. Pulmonary oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_2$) responses and best-fit modelled responses of a
698 representative participant at a single work rate during severe exercise in the normoxic (grey
699 line) and hyperoxic (black line) conditions. The time constant values for the fundamental
700 phase of pulmonary oxygen uptake kinetics ($\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$) are displayed for each transition, with the
701 solid curved lines representing the modelled fits. Lines of residuals for each condition are
702 displayed at the bottom.

703 Figure 5. Correlations between critical power normalized to body mass and the time constant
704 for the fundamental phase of pulmonary oxygen uptake kinetics ($\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$) for the normoxic (A)
705 and hyperoxic (B) conditions during moderate exercise. The relationship between the change
706 in critical power (ΔCP) and the change in $\tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$ ($\Delta \tau_{\dot{V}O_2}$) is also displayed. The correlation
707 shown in B was significant ($P < 0.001$).

708 Figure 6. Comparisons of group means \pm SD during moderate exercise across both muscles
709 for oxyhaemoglobin (*A* & *B*; [HbO₂ + MbO₂]) and total haemoglobin (*C* & *D*; [THb + Mb])
710 between conditions. Responses for the rectus femoris (RF) are displayed in *A* and *C*, whereas
711 vastus lateralis (VL) is displayed in *B* and *D*. Open circles, normoxia; closed circles,
712 hyperoxia. * indicates significant difference between conditions ($P > 0.05$).

713 Figure 7. Group mean muscle deoxyhaemoglobin (HHb + Mb) responses to moderate
714 exercise in the rectus femoris (*A*; RF) and the vastus lateralis (*B*; VL). Error bars omitted for
715 clarity. Dashed vertical line indicates exercise onset. FiO₂; fraction of inspired O₂.

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