

1 **Original article**

2 **Title**

3 Shorter constant work rate cycling tests as proxies for longer tests in highly trained cyclists

4 **Authors and affiliations**

5 Chantelle du Plessis<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Mark Andrews<sup>2</sup>, Lachlan J G Mitchell<sup>2</sup>, Jodie Cochrane Wilkie<sup>1</sup>, Trish  
6 King<sup>2</sup>, Anthony J Blazeovich<sup>1</sup>

7 <sup>1</sup> Centre of Exercise and Sport Science Research, School of Medical and Health Sciences, Edith  
8 Cowan University, Joondalup, Western Australia, Australia

9 <sup>2</sup> Performance Science Unit, Queensland Academy of Sport, Nathan, Queensland, Australia

10 <sup>3</sup> Queensland Academy of Sport, Sport Performance Innovation and Knowledge Excellence,  
11 Nathan, Queensland, Australia

12 **Corresponding author**

13 Chantelle du Plessis, MSc

14 Telephone: +61 41030 1773

15 E-mail: [chantelle.duplessis@dtis.qld.gov.au](mailto:chantelle.duplessis@dtis.qld.gov.au)

16 ORCHID: 0000 0003 2050 7186

17

## 18 **Abstract**

19 Severe-intensity constant work rate (CWR) cycling tests are useful for monitoring training  
20 progression and adaptation as they impose significant physiological and psychological strain  
21 and thus simulate the high-intensity competition environment. However, fatiguing tests require  
22 substantial recovery and may disrupt athlete training or competition preparation. Therefore, the  
23 development of a brief, minimally fatiguing test providing comparable information is desirable.  
24 **Purpose:** To determine whether physiological variables measured during, and functional  
25 decline in maximal power output immediately after, a 2-min CWR test can act as a proxy for  
26 4-min test outcomes. **Methods:** Physiological stress was monitored and pre-to-post-CWR  
27 changes in 10-s sprint power computed (to estimate performance fatigability) during 2- and 4-  
28 min CWR tests in high-level cyclists. **Results:** The 2-min CWR test evoked a smaller decline  
29 in sprint mechanical power (32% vs. 47%,  $p < 0.001$ ), however both the physiological variables  
30 and sprint mechanical power were independently and strongly correlated between 2- and 4-min  
31 tests. Differences in  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$  and blood lactate concentration in both CWR tests were strongly  
32 associated with the decline in sprint mechanical power. **Conclusion:** Physiological variables  
33 measured during, and the loss in sprint mechanical power measured after, a severe-intensity 2-  
34 min CWR test were less than in the 4-min test. Yet strong correlations between 2- and 4-min  
35 test outcomes indicated that the 2-min test can be used as a proxy for the longer test. Because  
36 shorter tests are less strenuous, they should have less impact on training and competition  
37 preparation and may therefore be more practically applicable within the elite performance  
38 environment.

## 39 **Key words**

40 Fatigue, maximal power, severe-intensity, oxygen uptake kinetics, track cycling

## 41 **Introduction**

42 Regular monitoring of both athlete performance and overall fatigue levels are necessary to  
43 maximise physiological adaptation, manage recovery and training load, and to test the effects  
44 of interventions such as technique or equipment alterations. To do so, specific tests with  
45 sufficient precision are needed to detect relevant and meaningful changes. Appropriate testing  
46 protocols that can be used frequently without negatively impacting subsequent, prescribed  
47 training sessions or competition preparation are therefore required. Constant work rate (CWR)  
48 cycling tests are widely used to assess and monitor physiological and functional performance  
49 capacity in various athlete, clinical and rehabilitation environments. In athlete environments,  
50 these tests are typically performed at intensities within the severe domain (i.e., greater than the  
51 critical power threshold) for durations ranging 2-15 min (1). Their aim is to evoke a maximal  
52 effort that achieves the highest sustained average power output for the duration of the test, with  
53 minimal or no functional decline in mechanical power.

54 In cycling, an athlete's ability to generate high power outputs during these tests should  
55 ultimately translate to a faster bicycle velocity in the field (e.g., during a time trial), which is  
56 critical to performance success. However, the maintenance of a high mechanical work rate  
57 (power output) requires a high muscle contractile force production at fast muscle shortening  
58 speeds, and therefore a high adenosine triphosphate (ATP) turnover rate and metabolic energy  
59 cost (2-4). The associated unstable metabolic environment can impact function at multiple sites  
60 within the muscle excitation-contraction coupling process at the sarcomere level and influence  
61 efferent output by the central nervous system (for reviews see (5-7)). Regardless of the  
62 mechanism, muscle function will be compromised irrespective of a participant's voluntary  
63 effort capacity when exercising within the severe-intensity domain, leading to fatigue (8-11).

64 To monitor and maximise physiological adaptation, it is necessary to understand the effects of  
65 the fatiguing CWR test on the energetic state of the muscle. Needle muscle biopsies or  
66 phospho-nuclear magnetic spectroscopy can be used to study the accumulation and depletion  
67 of fatigue-related metabolites (i.e., decreasing intramuscular phosphocreatine concentrations  
68 [PCr] and increasing muscle lactate, adenosine diphosphate [ADP], inorganic phosphate [Pi]  
69 and hydrogen ion [H<sup>+</sup>] accumulation) during severe-intensity CWR tests (12, 13). However,  
70 while these methods provide clear insights into muscular metabolic changes, they are invasive,  
71 expensive, and not easily accessible, and are therefore traditionally impractical in the elite  
72 sporting environment. Alternatively, the temporal pulmonary rate of oxygen consumption  
73 (VO<sub>2</sub>) profile may indirectly provide insights into the energetic state of the muscle (9, 13-15).  
74 For example, slower O<sub>2</sub> onset kinetics can reflect a greater O<sub>2</sub> deficit, which is associated with  
75 greater substrate-level phosphorylation and anaerobic metabolism (i.e., decreased [PCr] and  
76 increased blood lactate concentration), resulting in greater homeostatic disturbance and  
77 reduced exercise tolerance. Theoretically, assessing VO<sub>2</sub> kinetics during CWR tests can  
78 provide considerable insight into the energetic state of the muscle, allowing assessment of the  
79 effectiveness of training programs as a whole and other interventions (e.g., biomechanical).

80 Although the measurement of key physiological factors underlying test performances are  
81 essential, there is also a need to determine the most relevant outcomes relating to performance  
82 success: the functional performance outcome. Since the goal of a CWR test is to maintain a  
83 constant work output, fatigue assessment is problematic as no external power loss occurs  
84 (unless the limit of tolerance, or exhaustion, is reached). One solution is to perform a maximal,  
85 movement-specific sprint test immediately after a CWR test to assess the muscle's capacity for  
86 maximal, explosive output (16-19). Greater decrements in maximal sprint power have been  
87 observed as the duration (30 s – 10 min) of prior exercise is increased (when performed at 60-  
88 98% of the mechanical power output at VO<sub>2max</sub>) (16, 17, 20). Assuming that athletes are highly

89 motivated to produce maximal effort and are familiar with the testing procedures, the functional  
90 loss in maximal sprint power immediately after a CWR test should provide information about  
91 the functional state of the muscles; and, therefore, information about the task fatigability.

92 Submaximal (60-90% of the mechanical power at  $VO_{2max}$ ) exercise tests are commonly used  
93 to predict maximal cycling performance (e.g. YMCA, Astrand- Ryhming, Physical Work  
94 Capacity 170, etc.) (21, 22). Yet to truly translate controlled laboratory test results to field  
95 performance, the conditions under which the physiological limitations are manifested should  
96 be simulated (19). Maximal effort laboratory tests are therefore needed to accurately reflect  
97 competition intensities. However, highly fatiguing tests require hours, or days, of recovery due  
98 to resulting physiological and psychological deficits and may disrupt an athlete's training  
99 schedule. Consequently, it is of interest to coaches and athletes to determine whether the data  
100 of shorter, less fatiguing tests provide comparable information to longer, more fatiguing tests.

101 The main purpose of this study was to determine whether the physiological variables measured  
102 during a shorter CWR test (2 min, 50% of the complete test duration) as well as the functional  
103 mechanical capacity measured immediately after it can be used as proxies for the fatigability  
104 results obtained in a longer (4-min) test. Because fatigue assessment is problematic during  
105 CWR tests, a secondary aim was to assess the relationship between the physiological changes,  
106 particularly  $VO_2$  kinetics, measured during the CWR tests and the decline in maximal sprint  
107 power measured after the CWR tests. Cycling was chosen as the model within which to test  
108 the hypothesis as it is a widely used exercise testing and training modality with both sporting  
109 and clinical applications, as well as being task-specific to the track cycling population that  
110 formed the current study cohort. We hypothesised that both the measured physiological  
111 variables and functional decline in the shorter test would be of lesser magnitude, and be  
112 associated with the outcomes of the longer test.

## 113 **Materials and Methods**

### 114 **Participants**

115 Sixteen highly trained male ( $n=13$ ) and female ( $n=3$ ) cyclists (age  $18.7 \pm 2.2$  y; height  $180.8 \pm$   
116  $8.0$  cm; mass  $73.2 \pm 10.1$  kg;  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$   $64.4 \pm 6.0$  ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>; estimated mechanical power at  
117  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$   $353.3 \pm 58.9$  W) volunteered to participate in the study. All participants were involved  
118 in an Australian State Institute of Sport Track Cycling program, completed  $\geq 4$  cycling and two  
119 resistance training sessions a week, and were free from injury at the time of data collection. All  
120 cyclists had  $\geq 2$  years' experience in the high-performance environment and were familiar with  
121 high-intensity ergometer testing. Written informed consent was given prior to participation and  
122 the study was approved by the Human Research Ethical Committee of Edith Cowan University  
123 (project number 2019-00505-DUPLESIS).

### 124 **Data collection**

#### 125 **Experimental design**

126 Data were collected across two days separated by at least 48 h but at the same time of day using  
127 a stationary electromagnetically braked cycle ergometer (LODE Excalibur, Groningen,  
128 Netherlands). On Day 1, an industry-modified incremental step test (23) was completed  
129 including a submaximal component, a 20-min recovery, and a constant work rate (CWR) test  
130 of 4 min. This “2-in-1” test was designed to replicate a track cyclist's pursuit time trial (i.e., an  
131 individual pursuit across 4 km for men, and 3 km for women). The purpose was to record the  
132 cyclist's highest sustained average power output during the 4-min CWR test. The maximal rate  
133 of oxygen uptake ( $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ ),  $\dot{V}O_2$  kinetics, heart rate, and blood lactate concentrations ( $[\text{La}^-]_b$ )  
134 were measured to indicate physiological stress, i.e., to infer the chemo-energetic state of the  
135 muscles across the 4-min CWR test. A 10-s maximal cycle sprint was performed before and

136 immediately after the 4-min CWR test to assess the loss in maximal mechanical functional  
137 capacity (i.e., task fatigability). On Day 2, a shorter (2-min) CWR test was completed at the  
138 same intensity as the 4-min test, with a maximal 10-s sprint also performed before and after.

## 139 **Experimental procedures**

### 140 Day 1: “2-in-1” test

141 On Day 1, the seat, handlebar positions and crank length of the cycle ergometer were adjusted  
142 to match the participant’s own track racing bicycle. The participants were required to use their  
143 own pedals and cycling cleats as well as to perform a 15-min warm-up at a self-selected  
144 intensity, which was recorded and then repeated on Day 2. The warm-up procedures  
145 subsequently included a low-intensity bout at 50-100 W for 5 min, a 5-min ramp between 125-  
146 300 W, a 6-s maximal seated sprint, and finally a non-fatigued 10-s all-out seated sprint (PRE-  
147  $CWR_{4min}$ ), with each sprint separated by a 5-min active recovery at 50-100 W. All sprint  
148 components of the warm-up were completed in the cadence-dependent linear mode (i.e., in  
149 ‘Wingate’ isoinertial mode) of the ergometer with a torque factor load of  $0.6 \text{ Nm}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ . All other  
150 warm-up components were completed using a constant power mode of the ergometer, which  
151 allows the power output to be set independent of the freely chosen cadence.

152 After the 15-min standardised warm up, participants performed a modified  $VO_{2max}$  test, i.e.,  
153 the “2-in-1” test, using methods currently employed in the State Institute system in Australia.  
154 This test comprised two components separated by 20 min of active or passive rest as selected  
155 by the participant (and repeated on Day 2). The first component involved 5-7  $\times$  5-min stages  
156 of increasing intensity, starting at 100 W (women) or 150 W (men) and increasing by 25 W  
157 (women) and 50 W (men), using the constant power mode of the ergometer. Rating of  
158 perceived exertion (RPE (24)) was obtained at the end of each stage. Blood lactate samples

159 were taken from the earlobe and analysed (Lactate Pro2, Kyoto, Japan) during the 4<sup>th</sup> minute  
160 of each stage, and the test ceased when  $[La^-]_b$  exceeded 4 mmol·l<sup>-1</sup>. VO<sub>2</sub> and carbon dioxide  
161 production (VCO<sub>2</sub>) data were continuously collected using a ParvoMedics metabolic cart  
162 system (ParvoMedics TrueOne 2400 diagnostic system, USA) and averaged over 10-s  
163 windows during the last 2 min of each stage. Heart rate was continuously measured (RS800  
164 Polar Heart Rate Monitor, Finland).

165 Following the 20-min recovery, a warm-up of 5 min at a self-selected intensity was mandated  
166 after which the second component of the test, a 4-min CWR test, was performed. This 4-min  
167 CWR test was designed to imitate a pursuit race in which bicycle gears are fixed and power  
168 output is highly cadence-dependent. Therefore, the CWR test was completed using the  
169 cadence-dependent mode of the ergometer with careful consideration of the torque factor load  
170 setting. Through consultation with the high-performance coaches and considering each  
171 participant's recent (<6 months) race history, one of two processes was followed to determine  
172 test power output and cadence, and therefore the appropriate torque factor load:

173 For the minority of participants ( $n=5$ ) who used power meters on their track bicycles, the target  
174 power and cadence were set to their most recent Individual Pursuit power output and cadence;

175 For the remaining participants, the VO<sub>2</sub> during the last 2-min of each submaximal workload of  
176 the “2-in-1” test was averaged. Based on the linear regression equation of the submaximal VO<sub>2</sub>  
177 and power output, the VO<sub>2peak</sub> (determined from the cyclists' previous test conducted within  
178 the last year) was used to predict the mechanical power output at VO<sub>2peak</sub>. The target power  
179 output of CWR test was estimated between 105-110% of this mechanical power output at  
180 VO<sub>2peak</sub>, with the estimation based on previous research (25, 26) and retrospective analysis of  
181 all athlete data collected in the “2-in-1” test at the State Sports Institute in the three years  
182 preceding testing.



183 The torque factor load was subsequently calculated as:

184 
$$\text{Torque (Nm} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}) = [\text{Power (W)} \div \text{Angular velocity (rad} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})] \div \text{Body mass (kg)}$$

185 with power being the predicted 4-min CWR test power output, and angular velocity calculated  
186 as:

187 
$$2\pi \times \text{cadence (revolutions} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})$$

188 The participants were familiar with performing this severe-intensity CWR test and therefore  
189 strongly encouraged to provide a maximal but evenly-paced effort, and to maintain the target  
190 cadence for the duration of the test. The aim was to attain the highest average sustained power  
191 output, even if it resulted in a small cadence variation (of less than 5 rpm). A head unit secured  
192 to the ergometer provided visual feedback on both cadence and power. They were instructed  
193 to remain seated throughout the test. Torque and angular velocity (and power) data were  
194 sampled every 2° of a pedal stroke by the LODE ergometer mechanical system, and  
195 subsequently averaged per pedal revolution. The average power and cadence of the 4-min  
196 CWR test were calculated and used as reference for testing on Day 2.  $\text{VO}_2$ ,  $\text{VCO}_2$  and heart  
197 rate data were continuously collected throughout the 4-min CWR test.

198 At the immediate conclusion of the 4-min CWR test, without pause, a 10-s all-out seated sprint  
199 (a “fatigued sprint”,  $\text{POST-CWR}_{4\text{min}}$ ) was performed (18, 19). No pause was allowed after the  
200 4-min CWR test to prevent recovery of central or peripheral aspects of fatigue. A cycling-  
201 specific maximal sprint was selected to assess fatigue (i.e., rather than a knee extension, leg  
202 press or other test) to prevent any perseveration effect (i.e., a motor pattern interference)  
203 influencing the test performance, which may occur when movement patterns differ between  
204 tasks (27, 28). Blood was obtained from the ear lobe before and 1, 3, 5 and 7 min after the  
205 sprints that followed the CWR tests.  $[\text{La}^-]_{\text{b}}$  was analysed within 15 s using the Lactate Pro2  
206 analyser and the peak  $[\text{La}^-]_{\text{b}}$  value retained for further analysis. RPE was obtained immediately  
207 following PRE-CWR and POST-CWR.

208 Day 2: 2-min CWR test

209 On Day 2, participants completed the pre-test preparations as on Day 1, including the same  
210 warm-up that ended with a 10-s all-out seated sprint (PRE-CWR<sub>2min</sub>). After 5 min active  
211 recovery (50-100 W), participants were equipped with the same metabolic mouthpiece, and  
212 then performed a 2-min CWR test at the same intensity (i.e. the same torque factor, cadence  
213 and power) as the 4-min CWR test. This 2-min CWR test was also immediately followed by a  
214 10-s all-out seated sprint effort (POST-CWR<sub>2min</sub>). VO<sub>2</sub>, VCO<sub>2</sub>, heart rate, [La<sup>-</sup>]<sub>b</sub> and RPE data  
215 were collected as in the 4-min CWR test.

## 216 Data Analysis

### 217 Physiological variables

218 VO<sub>2peak</sub>, minute ventilation (VE<sub>peak</sub>), the respiratory exchange ratio (RER<sub>peak</sub>), and heart rate  
219 (HR<sub>peak</sub>) were calculated as the highest average values attained over any 30-s interval during  
220 both the 2- and 4-min CWR tests. The mean response time (MRT) represented the time taken  
221 from the baseline to achieve 63% of the final response VO<sub>2</sub>, and was estimated for both the 2-  
222 and 4-min CWR tests using a mono-exponential model fitted to each VO<sub>2</sub> data set, as follows  
223 (9, 15, 29, 30):

$$224 \quad \dot{V}O_{2(t)} = \dot{V}O_{2\text{ Baseline}} + \dot{V}O_{2\text{ Amplitude}} \times (1 - e^{-(t \div MRT)})$$

225 where VO<sub>2(t)</sub> is the VO<sub>2</sub> at any time point, VO<sub>2 Baseline</sub> is the baseline VO<sub>2</sub> calculated as the 1-  
226 min average VO<sub>2</sub> before the start of the 2- and 4-min CWR tests, VO<sub>2 Amplitude</sub> is calculated as  
227 the difference between the steady state VO<sub>2</sub> asymptote and baseline, and (1-e<sup>-(time ÷ MRT)</sup>) is the  
228 exponential function that describes the rate of VO<sub>2</sub> rise towards the steady state amplitude. For  
229 each participant, the Microsoft Excel solver function was used as an iterative fitting procedure

230 to solve for the smallest sum of squares differences between the projected  $VO_{2(t)}$  (calculated  
231 using the exponential function) and the experimental data(9).  $VO_{2 \text{ Baseline}}$  was used as a fixed  
232 parameter and the  $VO_{2 \text{ Amplitude}}$  and the estimated MRT parameters for the 2- and 4 min CWR  
233 tests were subsequently computed.

234 The estimated MRT for the 2-min CWR test was factored since a steady-state (required for the  
235 exponential function above) could not always be clearly defined for  $VO_2$  data collected during  
236 the 2-min CWR test. That is, in addition to calculating MRT for the 4-min CWR test from Day  
237 1 (with a clearly defined steady-state), the first 2-min of the same  $VO_2$  data set was used  
238 separately to calculate the 2-min MRT. The linear relationship (i.e., the slope and intercept)  
239 between the MRT of the first 2-min of the 4-min CWR test and the MRT of the 4-min CWR  
240 test was subsequently calculated for all individuals. This slope and intercept were then used to  
241 correct the MRT for the standalone 2-min CWR test from Day 2:

$$242 \quad \textit{Corrected MRT}_{2min} = (MRT_{2min} \times \textit{slope}) + \textit{intercept}$$

### 243 **Mechanical variables**

244 The functional decline in mechanical power output was determined by the fatigue-related  
245 decrements in peak and average power between the PRE-CWR and POST-CWR sprints. Only  
246 the first 8 s of the 10-s all-out sprints were used to remove any change in effort as the test  
247 neared completion. In addition, the peak cadence decrement during the sprints were calculated  
248 as indicators of the velocity-specific effect of the functional decline.

249 It should be noted that PRE-CWR was performed from a stationary start whereas POST-CWR  
250 was performed without delay from a rolling start following the 2- and 4-min CWR tests (i.e.,  
251 the starting pedalling rates of the sprints were different). To eliminate the confounding effects  
252 of the pedalling rate on fatigue estimation, the average power was also calculated for a pedal

253 rate-specific region (31). This region consisted of the minimal-to-maximal cadence range  
254 recorded during POST-CWR and compared to PRE-CWR within this region (see Fig 4).

## 255 **Statistical Analysis**

256 All statistical analyses were performed using R software package (v 1.4). Data are presented  
257 as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, statistical significance was accepted at an alpha level of 0.05,  
258 and 95% confidence intervals (CI) with upper and lower limits were computed. Preliminary  
259 tests assessed and verified all test assumptions of multivariate normality (mvnormtest),  
260 multicollinearity (rstatix), homogeneity of variances (rstatix), and sphericity of the data, where  
261 relevant.

262 One-way repeated measures ANOVAs were used to test for differences between the 2- and 4-  
263 min CWR tests for i) the physiological variables obtained during the CWR tests [peak oxygen  
264 consumption ( $VO_{2\text{peak}}$ ), estimated mean  $VO_2$  response time (MRT), peak heart rate ( $HR_{\text{peak}}$ ),  
265 peak respiratory exchange ratio ( $RER_{\text{peak}}$ ), peak minute ventilation relative to body mass  
266 ( $VE_{\text{peak}}$ ), and peak blood lactate concentration ( $[La^-]_{b,\text{peak}}$ ), as well as the perceived exertion  
267 (RPE)], and ii) changes in mechanical variables obtained during sprints performed before and  
268 after the CWR tests [peak power ( $\Delta Power_{\text{peak}}$ ), average power ( $\Delta Power_{\text{av}}$ ), average power  
269 calculated during the pedal-rate-specific region of POST-CWR ( $\Delta Power_{\text{av,PRS}}$ ), and peak  
270 cadence ( $\Delta Cadence_{\text{peak}}$ )].

271 Pearson's correlations were computed to quantify the linear relationships between the  
272 physiological and mechanical variables between the 2- and 4-min CWR tests. These were  
273 interpreted as r: 0.10-0.39, weak; 0.40-0.69, moderate; 0.70-0.89, strong and 0.90-1.00 very  
274 strong relationship (32). The standard error of the estimate (SEE) of the regression was used to  
275 assess the accuracy of the 2-min test's data to predict the outcomes of the 4-min test. Smaller

276 SEEs represent a smaller prediction error. To assist in the interpretation of the statistical  
277 confidence, the relative SEE was presented as a percentage of the 4-min CWR test mean: SEE  
278 (%) =  $(SEE \div \text{mean}) \times 100$ .

279 Relationships between the physiological and mechanical variables were analysed using a fixed-  
280 slopes linear mixed effect model approach using R package lmerTest (33). Visual inspection  
281 of residual plots confirmed that linear modelling assumptions were met. The response variable  
282 was the relative change in average power ( $\text{W} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) between the sprints across the 2- and 4-min  
283 CWR tests. The fixed effects were the physiological variables ( $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ ,  $[\text{La}^-]_{\text{b, peak}}$ , MRT,  
284  $\text{HR}_{\text{peak}}$ ,  $\text{RER}_{\text{peak}}$ ) as well as the duration (i.e., 2- and 4-min) of the CWR test. The random effect  
285 was set for the individual participants to account for intraindividual dependencies  
286 interindividual heterogeneity.

## 287 **Results**

### 288 **2-and 4-min CWR test outcomes**

289 CWR tests were completed at  $109 \pm 0.1\%$  of the predicted mechanical power output at  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$   
290 as determined from the incremental step test. Average power output and cadence for the 2- and  
291 4-min CWR cycling tests were  $384.0 \pm 67.2 \text{ W}$  ( $5.2 \text{ W} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) and  $106.6 \pm 4.0 \text{ rpm}$  vs.  $383.4 \pm$   
292  $67.7 \text{ W}$  ( $5.2 \text{ W} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) and  $105.5 \pm 7.1 \text{ rpm}$ , respectively.

### 293 **Physiological variables and perceived exertion between 2- and 4- 294 min CWR tests**

295 No differences were observed in  $\text{VO}_2$  kinetics (including  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ , and MRT) or  $\text{RER}_{\text{peak}}$   
296 between the 2- and 4-min tests ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 1). Differences were observed in  $\text{HR}_{\text{peak}}$   
297 ( $p = 0.022$ ),  $[\text{La}^-]_{\text{b, peak}}$  ( $p = 0.019$ ),  $\text{VE}_{\text{peak}}$  ( $p = 0.003$ ) and RPE ( $p < 0.001$ ). Moderate to very strong

298 correlations were found between 2- and 4-min CWR tests for all physiological variables  
299 (ranging from  $r=0.66$  for MRT to  $r=0.96$  for  $VO_{2peak}$ ), but not for RPE ( $r=-0.21$ ) (Fig 1).  
300 Relative to the 4-min CWR test mean values, SEEs ranged from 2.6% to 16.3%. Participants  
301 reached the same fraction of  $VO_{2peak}$  at the end of the 2-min CWR test ( $93.4 \pm 2.6\%$ ) as at the  
302 2-min point of the 4-min CWR test ( $92.4 \pm 2.8\%$ ) (Fig 2). In some cases, the 2-min CWR test  
303 was too short to clearly show a  $VO_2$ -time asymptote. Therefore, the MRT from the 2-min CWR  
304 test was corrected from  $34.9 \pm 6.1$  s to  $36.5 \pm 5.1$  s based on the linear relationship between the  
305 estimated MRT in the first 2-min of the 4-min CWR test and the estimated MRT of the 4-min  
306 test: [Corrected  $MRT_{2min} = 0.845 (MRT_{2min}) + 7.02$ ].

307

308 **Table 1.** Physiological variables and perceived exertion observed in the 2-and 4-min CWR tests ( $n=16$ ).

	2-min	4-min	Mean Difference [95% CI]	p-value	r [95% CI]	SEE	SEE (%)
VO <sub>2peak</sub> (ml·kg <sup>-1</sup> ·min <sup>-1</sup> )	60.1 ± 5.9	64.4 ± 6.0	4.2 [3.3, 5.2]	0.083	0.96 [0.88, 0.98]	1.8	2.8
MRT (s)	36.5 ± 5.1 †	35.5 ± 5.7	-1.0 [-3.4, 1.3]	0.767	0.66 [0.25, 0.87]	4.4	12.4
RER <sub>peak</sub>	1.15 ± 0.07	1.16 ± 0.05	0.01 [-0.01, 0.03]	0.500	0.77 [0.45, 0.92]	0.03	2.6
HR <sub>peak</sub> (bpm)	181.5 ± 9.0	188.6 ± 8.5	7.1 [3.7, 10.5]	0.022*	0.75 [0.39, 0.91]	5.8	3.1
[La <sup>-</sup> ] <sub>b,peak</sub> (mmol·l <sup>-1</sup> )	9.5 ± 2.1	11.7 ± 2.9	2.2 [1.2, 3.1]	0.019*	0.76 [0.43, 0.91]	1.9	16.3
VE <sub>peak</sub> (l·kg <sup>-1</sup> ·min <sup>-1</sup> )	1.9 ± 0.3	2.3 ± 0.3	0.4 [0.3, 0.5]	0.003*	0.83 [0.57, 0.94]	0.2	8.7
RPE (6-20 Borg scale)	15.8 ± 1.5	18.8 ± 0.7	3.0 [2.1, 4.0]	<0.001*	-0.21 [-0.64, 0.31]	0.8	4.4

309 *Data presented as mean ± standard deviation. SEE: standard error of the estimate; smaller SEE represents a smaller prediction error. SEE (%): SEE relative to 4-min CWR*  
 310 *test mean. MRT: Estimated mean response time; time taken to reach 63% of the VO<sub>2</sub> asymptote. †Corrected mean response time: MRT corrected by the relationship between*  
 311 *the MRT of the 4-min CWR test and the first 2-min within the 4-min CWR test. \*p<0.001, significant difference between sprints performed before and after the CWR tests.*

312

313 **Fig 1. Relationships between physiological changes induced by 2- and 4-min CWR tests.**  
314 Correlation and absolute standard error of the estimates (SEE) between the CWR tests are displayed on  
315 the top left corner of each graph. Dotted lines indicate the 95% CI. Physiological variables obtained  
316 during the 2-min CWR test show moderate to strong correlations and can predict the outcomes of the  
317 4-min CWR test within a 2.6-16.3% error range (relative SEE), although a portion of this error relates  
318 to the tests being conducted on different days (see text for details).

319 **Fig 2. VO<sub>2</sub>-time profiles for 2- and 4-min CWR tests in a representative participant performed**  
320 **on different days.** VO<sub>2</sub> kinetics are inferred by the mean response times (Corrected MRT<sub>2min</sub>=25.3 s  
321 vs. MRT<sub>4min</sub>=23.6 s) and the VO<sub>2</sub> steady state, as fitted by a mono-exponential function which were  
322 similar for both tests. The bottom black and grey lines represent the residuals. The darker and lighter  
323 grey shaded regions show the 2- and 4-min CWR test durations, respectively.

## 324 **Mechanical variables of the sprints performed before and after the**

### 325 **2-and 4-min CWR tests**

326 Changes ( $\Delta$ ) in mechanical variables from the sprints performed before and after the 2-min  
327 CWR test were significantly smaller ( $p < 0.001$ ) than changes in the sprints performed before  
328 and after the 4-min test (Table 2). Moderate to very strong correlations were observed in  
329 mechanical variables between the 2 and 4-min test (ranging from  $r = 0.67$  for  $\Delta \text{Cadence}_{\text{peak}}$  to  
330  $r = 0.92$  for  $\Delta \text{Power}_{\text{peak}}$ ) (Fig 3). Relative to the 4-min CWR test mean values, SEEs ranged from  
331 14.2% to 26.1%. Fig 4 shows the power- and torque-cadence relationships of the sprints  
332 performed before and after the CWR tests and its downward shift in the fatigued conditions.  
333 Fig 5 shows the changes in peak power relative to body mass for the individual groups of  
334 cyclists. Irrespective of some individual variation, an overall trend of a functional mechanical  
335 decline in sprint capacity after the longer vs. the shorter test is indicated.



336 **Table 2.** Differences in the changes in mechanical variables recorded during sprints performed before (PRE-CWR) and after (POST-CWR) the 2-and 4-min CWR tests ( $n=16$ ).

	$\Delta$ Sprint 2-min CWR	$\Delta$ Sprint 4-min CWR	Mean Difference [95% CI]	p-value	r [95% CI]	SEE	SEE (%)
$\Delta$ Power <sub>peak</sub> (W)	-379.1 $\pm$ 153.9*	-553.2 $\pm$ 215.9*	174.1 [124.0, 224.3]	< 0.001**	0.92 [0.79, 0.97]	85.1	15.4
$\Delta$ Power <sub>ave</sub> (W)	-305.2 $\pm$ 83.2*	-455.8 $\pm$ 126.1*	150.6 [111.1, 190.0]	< 0.001**	0.83 [0.56, 0.94]	73.5	16.1
$\Delta$ Power <sub>ave,PRS</sub> (W)	-420.7 $\pm$ 113.1*	-540.7 $\pm$ 164.4*	120.0 [79.7, 160.2]	< 0.001**	0.89 [0.71, 0.96]	76.9	14.2
$\Delta$ Cadence <sub>peak</sub> (rpm)	-28.6 $\pm$ 9.1*	-49.0 $\pm$ 16.7*	20.4 [13.7, 27.1]	< 0.001**	0.67 [0.26, 0.88]	12.8	26.1

337 *Data presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. SEE: standard error of the estimate; smaller SEE represents a smaller prediction error. SEE (%): SEE relative to 4-min CWR*  
 338 *test mean.  $\Delta$ : changes between sprints performed before and after CWR tests. Power<sub>ave,PRS</sub>: average power during the pedal rate-specific region, i.e., specific to the cadence*  
 339 *range of the fatigued sprint performed after the CWR tests. \*: significant difference between sprints performed before and after CWR tests,  $p < 0.001$ . \*\*: significant difference*  
 340 *between changes in sprints across the 2- and 4- min test durations,  $p < 0.001$ .*

341

**Fig 3. Relationships between 2-min and 4-min CWR tests for changes in ( $\Delta$ ) mechanical variables obtained in the sprints.** Correlation and standard error of the estimates (SEE) between the CWR tests are displayed on the top left corner of each graph. Dotted lines indicate 95% CIs. Relative SEEs show that  $\Delta$ Power (average, peak and within the pedal rate specific region) between the pre- and post-CWR sprints of the 2-min test can predict the outcomes of the 4-min test within 14.2-16.1% error, although a portion of this error relates to the tests being conducted on different days (see text for details).

**Fig 4. Power-cadence (left) and torque-cadence (right) relationships obtained in the sprints performed before and after the 2-min (black shapes) and 4-min (grey shapes) CWR tests from a representative subject.** Triangles represent PRE-CWR sprints and the dots represent POST-CWR sprints. The downward shift of power- and torque-cadence relationships after CWRs demonstrate that power was severely compromised by the increase in CWR test duration. Shaded boxed regions represent the differences between the pedal rate ranges for POST-CWR<sub>2min</sub> (lighter grey region) and POST-CWR<sub>4min</sub> (darker grey region) zones used for  $\Delta$ Power<sub>ave, PRS</sub> calculation.

**Fig 5. Peak power (relative to body mass) before and after the 2- and 4-min CWR tests for all participants.** Irrespective of individual variation, a greater overall functional deficit was observed for the longer test duration. Sprint time point '0' represents the relative peak power in pre-CWR sprints whereas time points '2' and '4' represent the relative peak power in sprints performed after the 2-min and 4-min CWR tests, respectively. Shapes represent the different groups of cyclists: black dots = elite men, light grey squares = junior (U19) men, dark grey triangles = women.

## Physiological variables of the CWR tests vs. changes in sprint mechanical variables

The linear mixed model was generated as:  $\Delta$ Power<sub>ave</sub> relative to body mass =  $(0.07 \times \text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}) + (0.14 \times [\text{La}^-]_{\text{b,peak}}) - (0.01 \times \text{MRT}) + (1.65 \times \text{RER}_{\text{peak}}) + (0.02 \times \text{HR}_{\text{peak}}) - (1.26 \times \text{CWR test duration}) - 5.49$ , with a random effect for individual participants. An ANOVA of the model revealed significant effects for  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ ,  $[\text{La}^-]_{\text{b,peak}}$  and CWR test duration ( $p < 0.05$ ). As a result, these physiological variables were found to be best related to the functional mechanical decline after the CWR tests.

## Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to determine whether a shorter (2-min), severe-intensity constant work rate (CWR) cycling test could be used as a proxy for a longer (4-min) test. This CWR test was selected to simulate a 4-km pursuit time trial in track cycling where performance is influenced by the ability to mitigate reductions in the power output and tolerate the inevitable

peripheral muscle fatigue developed at these high physiological work rates. The findings confirmed our hypotheses. First, the CWR test of 50% of the original duration was sufficient to elicit substantial fatigue, as indicated by the significant loss in mechanical power, and this magnitude of reduction was strongly correlated with the power loss measured in the longer test. Additionally, both the physiological and mechanical variables (i.e., the fatigability estimates) were independently and strongly correlated between the CWR tests despite the tests being performed on different days, and thus being influenced by between-day variability. This highlights the comparable nature of the tests. Second, the differences in  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ , blood lactate concentration, and the duration of the CWR tests were strongly associated with the decline in mechanical power output measured across the sprints. Although no single physiological variable can be used to predict the loss in mechanical power (i.e., fatigability) independently, explosive sprints both before and after a shorter CWR test can allow an estimate of fatigue that would be obtained in the longer test, without causing the same extent of fatigue. Shorter CWR tests followed by maximal sprints may therefore be useful as a (regular) fatigue assessment and monitoring tool in athletic testing environments.

The participants completed 2- and 4-min CWR tests at 109% of their predicted mechanical power output at  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ , which reflected their individual track cycling pursuit power capacity. A decline of  $32 \pm 8\%$  and  $47 \pm 9\%$  in mechanical power (i.e., functional capacity) was caused by the 2- and 4-min CWR tests, respectively. Analogous to our findings, others (16, 17, 20, 34-36) have shown maximal power reductions of 25-32% after submaximal CWR cycling tests performed at 60-98% of the mechanical power reached at  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$  for durations of 3-10 min. It is likely that the greater (47%) decrease in power output after the 4-min CWR test in the present study reflects the higher workloads (i.e., 109% vs. 60-98% of the mechanical power output at  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ ) and cadences (100-110 rpm vs. ~60-90 rpm), higher level of athletic training ability,

and potentially, the different sprint modality (i.e., isoinertial vs. isokinetic, as discussed below) used in the present study.

In addition to changes in functional mechanical power output, differences in the torque-angular velocity (or cadence) and power-angular velocity relationships during maximal cycling present valid estimates of performance fatigue (31, 36, 37). As done by Capelli and colleagues (17) and Marcora and Staiano (8), we employed a cadence-dependent mode (i.e. an isoinertial mode) on the cycle ergometer, allowing the participants to accelerate to a maximal cadence in each sprint. As illustrated in Fig 4, the linear torque-cadence and parabolic power-cadence relationships of the fatigued sprints shifted downwards, indicating that the athletes' functional performance abilities were severely compromised by the prior CWR tests; i.e. they were highly fatigued (8, 31, 37). This was particularly evident after the 4-min CWR test. Evidently the participants were unable to re-generate the same level of torque and angular velocity after the CWR tests despite producing maximal voluntary effort. One may therefore gain insight into task fatigability by imposing a maximal sprint immediately after a CWR test, which highlights that greater performance fatigability was induced by the longer CWR test. This fatigability would otherwise not have been quantified since there was no mechanical drop in power during CWR tests. More importantly, the shorter test was discernibly less strenuous and should thus have less impact on subsequent recovery and training. This possibility should be explicitly determined in a future study.

As the cycle sprints were used to predict the functional loss rather than muscle fatigue specifically, sprint cadence was not fixed to the cadence of the CWR test. Thus, the velocity-dependent effect of fatigue was not accounted for (34, 38). Because a cadence-dependent mode was used, participants could increase cadence as a means of increasing power, which reflects the temporal and kinetic patterns obtained when using fixed gears on a track bicycle (where

cadence must increase when power increases). Not only did the CWR tests compromise the maximal cadence achieved compared to a non-fatigued sprint, but the acceleration was also severely impacted. This is evidenced by similarities between the average CWR test cadence ( $105.5 \pm 7.1$  rpm) and peak sprint cadence ( $105.5 \pm 11.1$  rpm), which may partly be explained by the non-fatigued sprint commencing from a stationary start whilst the fatigued sprint commenced, without pause, at the final cadence of the CWR test (i.e., from a rolling start). To account for this limitation, we calculated the average difference in mechanical power for the ‘pedal rate-specific region’: i.e., the cadence range of the fatigued sprint. However, like the decline in peak power (32% and 47%), decrements in average power during the pedal rate-specific region were found after the 2- ( $37 \pm 5\%$ ) and 4-min ( $51 \pm 6\%$ ) CWR tests. Therefore, the functional performance outcomes were severely affected by both 2-and 4 min CWR tests even when partly accounting for velocity-dependent differences.

As illustrated by the loss in functional mechanical power, the present results show that a CWR test of 50% of the original duration was sufficient to induce fatigue, regardless of the exact mechanisms underpinning the fatigue (i.e., in the muscular system, cardiovascular system, or central nervous system) (11). Moreover, strong correlations ( $r=0.83-0.92$ ) were found between the functional decline in power induced by the 2 and 4-min CWR tests within a prediction error (SEE) of 14-16%. (Fig 3). Considering that the tests were done on the separate days, part of the SEE can be attributed to *between-subject* differences in the rate of fatigability (Fig 5) but the remainder can be attributed to the additional *between-day* variability of the sprint tests. For example, the PRE-CWR sprint alone showed a SEE of 2.7% (26.3 W difference in average power,  $r=0.99$ ) between days whereas the fatigued POST-CWR showed a higher SEE of 8.5% (42.6 W difference in average power,  $r=0.91$ ). Therefore, the 16% prediction error of the change score (i.e., the fatigue estimate) will be elevated due to the between-day variability in the sprints themselves. It is also important to consider that tests done in the fatigued state also

show greater variability. Previous researchers (39, 40) showed good reliability (SEE <5%,  $r > 0.9$ ) both within and between days for peak and mean power achieved in repeated maximal explosive ergometer tests, however their estimated fatigue indices indicated poor reliability ( $r=0.43$  or ICC= 0.34 and CV= 21.3%). Due to the strong association between the 2-and 4-min CWR tests obtained in the present study, despite the tests being done on different days, one can be confident that the estimated functional decline estimated in the 2-min test is strongly reflective of that which would be obtained in a 4-min CWR test. Further research is required to specifically assess the systematic error between tests when they are performed on the same day with sufficient recovery, which was not possible in the present study.

In addition to the power loss, an important aim was to assess differences in the physiological demands between the CWR tests to provide insight into the energetic state of the muscles and their influence on the subsequent maximal mechanical power loss. All physiological variables increased in magnitude with a similar trajectory between the tests, which eventually resulted in a greater decrease in mechanical power after the 4-min CWR test. Other researchers have found that exhaustive cycling exercise within the severe-intensity domain, regardless of work rate or test duration, is associated with the same level of depletion of high energy phosphates [PCr] and the accumulation of  $[H^+]$ , [ADP] and [Pi], as well as lactate due to the greater rate of glycolysis, and that the  $VO_2$  will continue to rise until reaching  $VO_{2max}$  (i.e.  $VO_2$  slow component) (4, 10, 12, 13). This resulting muscular homeostatic imbalance can influence various components within the sarcomeric excitation-contraction coupling process, resulting in a functional decline manifested as a reduced external power output. As these methods are impractical for use within the elite sporting environment, alternative methods such as the temporal pulmonary  $VO_2$  profile may provide insight into the energetic state of the muscle during severe-intensity exercise.

$\text{VO}_2$  kinetics (i.e.,  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$  and estimated mean response time), peak heart rate and blood lactate concentrations were measured as physiological stress indicators, i.e., to infer the chemoenergetic state of the muscles across the 2- and 4-min CWR tests. Strong relationships and small SEEs indicated that the physiological variables obtained in the 2-min CWR test can be used to predict the outcomes of the 4-min CWR test, at least within a 2.6-16.3% error range (Fig 1). It was identified that neither the duration of the CWR test nor the fact that the CWR tests were performed on different days affected  $\text{VO}_2$  kinetics (and therefore the oxygen deficit) or  $\text{RER}_{\text{peak}}$ . Alternatively, significant increases were found in peak blood lactate concentration, peak heart rate and minute ventilation as well as RPE for the longer CWR test. It can be assumed that the greater rise in these physiological variables during the 4-min CWR test would be associated with a greater anaerobic metabolism (i.e., decreased [PCr] and increased muscle lactate concentrations and therefore  $[\text{H}^+]$  accumulation). This would result in a greater homeostatic disturbance and reduced exercise tolerance, or in our case lead to a greater change in mechanical power output measured immediately after the 4-min CWR test. Consequently, for the same power output within the severe intensity domain, exercising for a longer duration resulted in a greater instability of the internal metabolic environment, which was subsequently expressed as a greater loss in functional explosive power.

The findings from the mixed linear regression model suggest that  $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ , peak blood lactate concentrations and the duration of the CWR tests were significantly associated with the decline in the average power measured across the sprints. Thus, irrespective of the physiological variables measured in the 4-min test being strongly predicted by the outcomes of the 2-min test, no single physiological variable could predict mechanical power loss (i.e., fatigability) independently. Alternatively, pre- to post-CWR changes in explosive sprint performance may provide a useful fatigue estimate for use in training monitoring in athletic environments. Furthermore, whilst the change in sprint power from before to immediately after a shorter CWR

test can be used to predict (at least within a 14-16% error range) the power loss induced by the longer CWR test, the opportunity also exists to use the post-CWR power alone (with SEE of 8.5%) as long as one is confident that the athlete started the CWR in the same state as the previous test; variability of a complex variable (e.g. post – pre score) should always be greater than a simple variable (e.g. post score alone).

Whilst taking into account the predictive error, a shorter CWR test may provide a valid substitute for the longer tests, which are significantly physiologically and psychologically taxing and induce substantial residual fatigue. Although the exact temporal recovery response remains to be tested in future studies, the shorter test was more tolerable as it induced less fatigue, and is not expected to substantively impact long-term athlete fatigue or training schedules. Consequently, it may be more frequently used in a training season (including at the start of a training session) to monitor performance and fatigue levels. The shorter test also introduces the possibility of completing multiple shorter tests within a single session in order to assess the effects of various interventions (such as bicycle-set up variations, recovery or nutritional interventions, etc.) and thus with reduced error imposed by between-day changes.

In conclusion, severe-intensity CWR tests of fixed duration may simulate track cycling individual pursuit performances, however a CWR test in itself rarely allows estimation of performance fatigue (unless the test results in task failure). Alternatively, fatigability can be estimated as the change in maximal sprint power from before to after a CWR test. The present results demonstrate that the physiological variables measured during, and the loss in mechanical (cycling) power measured immediately after, a severe-intensity 2-min CWR test may be used as a proxy for outcomes that would be obtained in a test of twice the duration (4 min) despite the test evoking less fatigue. Because the 2-min test is significantly less fatiguing, and thus more physiologically and psychologically tolerable, recovery time should be reduced



and training and competition preparations less impacted; the specific magnitudes of these effects require further study. A shorter test might therefore be employed in athlete (or clinical) environments to minimise the ongoing impact of testing, and may speculatively allow for multiple tests to be completed within a single session, assuming adequate recovery time is provided, to assess the acute effects of specific interventions without between-day effects on test reliability.

## **Conclusion**

The CWR test lasting 50% of the original duration (i.e. 2 min vs. 4 min) was sufficient to evoke fatigue by detecting meaningful changes in maximal cycling power output, and both physiological and psychological strain without overly taxing the athletes. Laboratory tests that simulate competition intensities (such as an individual pursuit) can therefore be performed more regularly by using a shorter-duration CWR test that subsequently requires less recovery time and thus impacts subsequent training and competition preparation to a lesser extent. Such tests could be used to monitor training adaptation or to assess the effects of acute and chronic interventions, such as changing bicycle-rider biomechanics, recovery or nutritional strategies, equipment, etc. In well trained athletes, it is likely that multiple tests could be conducted on the same day, assuming adequate recovery is provided, increasing testing efficiency. Additionally, as the capacity to produce and maintain high power outputs after a prior fatiguing exercise bout is essential for performance success, the ability to produce higher power output for a given level of fatigue or produce the same power after a CWR of higher mean power would indicate a performance improvement. Importantly, end-burst power following sustained, high-power cycling has implications for other track (e.g. Keirin or bunch races) and road cycling race events where a final sprint often dictates race outcomes.

## Statements and Declarations

The authors have no conflict of interest or funding to declare in the publication of this manuscript.

## Acknowledgement

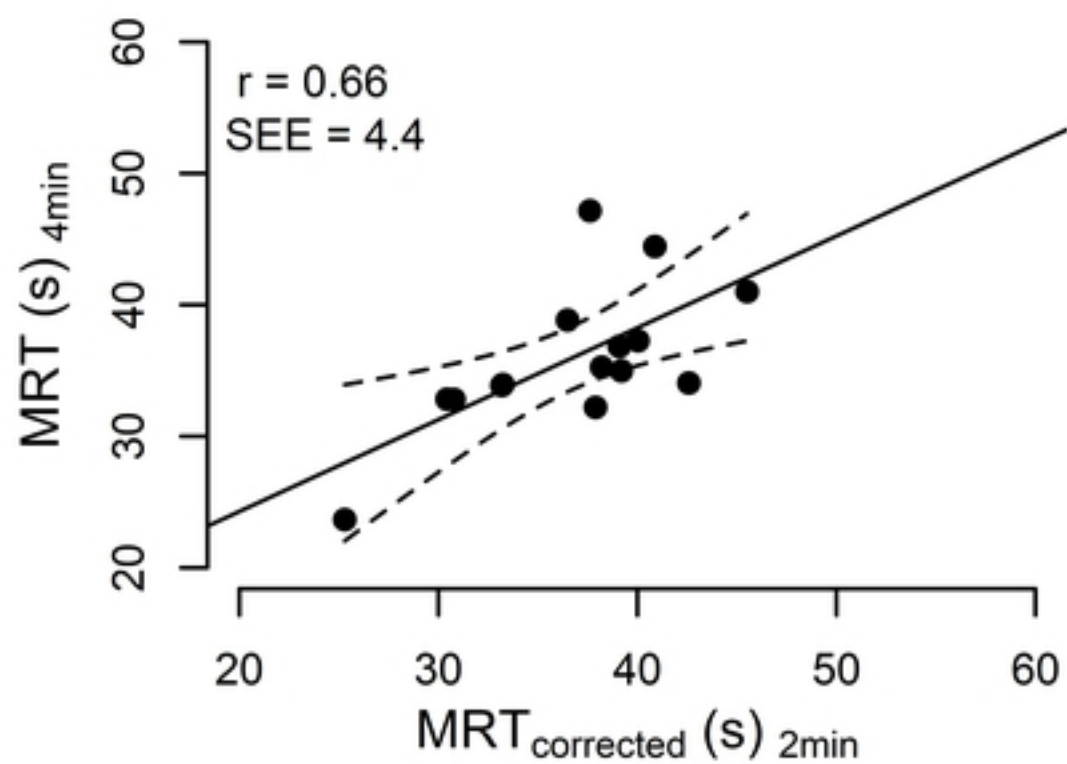
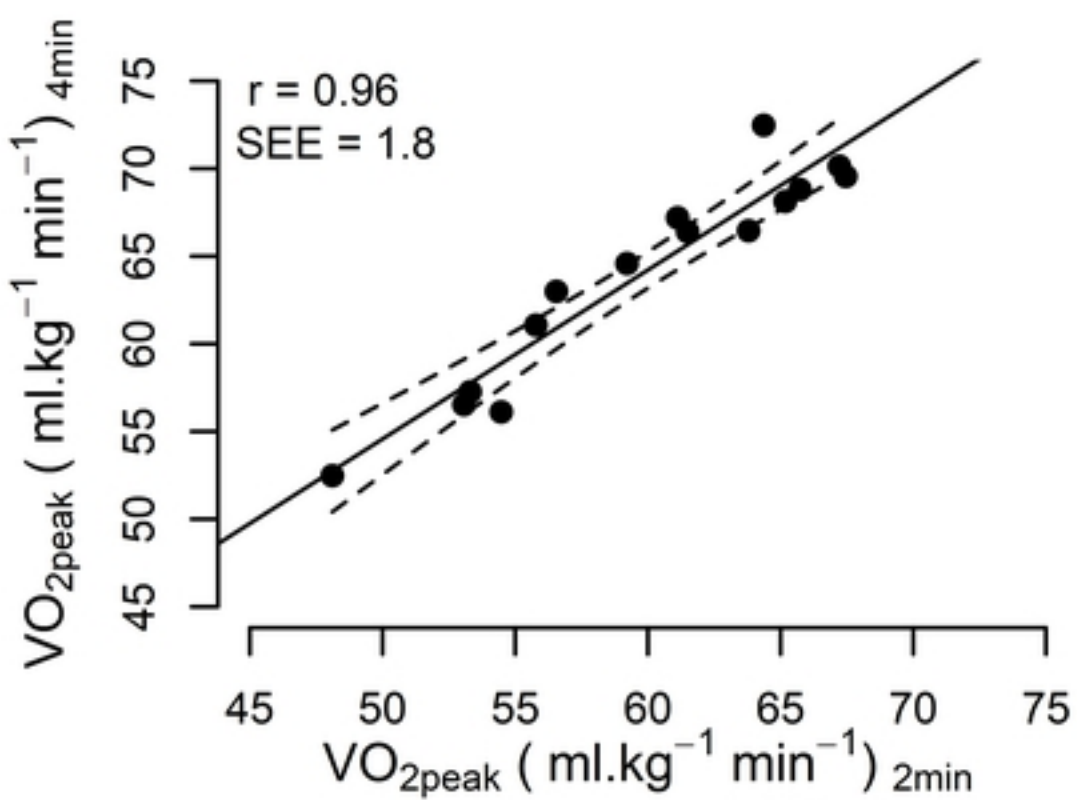
The authors would like to thank all participants for volunteering their time to complete the study. We also thank Kirstin Morris and Katie McGibbon for valuable feedback on a draft version of the manuscript, and Shih Ching Fu for his statistical advice. This work was supported by the Industry Engagement Scholarship between the Queensland Academy of Sport's Sport Performance Innovation and Knowledge Excellence unit and Edith Cowan University.

## References

1. Craig JC, Vanhatalo A, Burnley M, Jones AM, Poole DC. Critical power: possibly the most important fatigue threshold in exercise physiology. In: Jerzy AZ, editor. *Muscle and Exercise Physiology*. Manhattan, United States: Elsevier; 2019. p. 159-81.
2. Fletcher JR, Groves EM, Pfister TR, MacIntosh BR. Can muscle shortening alone, explain the energy cost of muscle contraction in vivo? *European Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2013;113(9):2313-22.
3. Fenn WO. The relation between the work performed and the energy liberated in muscular contraction. *The Journal of Physiology*. 1924;58(6):373-95.
4. Broxterman RM, Layec G, Hureau TJ, Amann M, Richardson RS. Skeletal muscle bioenergetics during all-out exercise: mechanistic insight into the oxygen uptake slow component and neuromuscular fatigue. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2017;122(5):1208-17.
5. Fitts RH. Mechanisms of muscular fatigue. In: Poortmans JR, editor. *Principles of Exercise Biochemistry*. 46. 3rd ed. Basel: Basel, Karger; 2004. p. 279-300.
6. MacIntosh BR, Holash RJ, Renaud J-M. Skeletal muscle fatigue—regulation of excitation–contraction coupling to avoid metabolic catastrophe. *Journal of Cell Science*. 2012;125(9):2105-14.
7. Fitts RH. Cellular mechanisms of muscle fatigue. *Physiological Reviews*. 1994;74(1):49-94.
8. Marcora SM, Staiano W. The limit to exercise tolerance in humans: mind over muscle? *European Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2010;109(4):763-70.

9. Whipp BJ, Rossiter HB. The kinetics of oxygen uptake: physiological inferences from the parameters. In: Jones A, Poole D, editors. *Oxygen Uptake Kinetics in Sport, Exercise and Medicine*. 1st ed. London: Routledge; 2005. p. 62-94.
10. Black MI, Jones AM, Blackwell JR, Bailey SJ, Wylie LJ, McDonagh ST, et al. Muscle metabolic and neuromuscular determinants of fatigue during cycling in different exercise intensity domains. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2017;122(3):446-59.
11. Abbiss CR, Laursen PB. Models to explain fatigue during prolonged endurance cycling. *Sports Medicine*. 2005;35(10):865-98.
12. Jones AM, Wilkerson DP, DiMenna F, Fulford J, Poole DC. Muscle metabolic responses to exercise above and below the “critical power” assessed using P-MRS. *American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology*. 2008;294(2):R585-R93.
13. Hogan MC, Richardson RS, Haseler LJ. Human muscle performance and PCr hydrolysis with varied inspired oxygen fractions: a P-MRS study. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 1999;86(4):1367-73.
14. Knight DR, Poole DC, Schaffartzik W, Guy HJ, Prediletto R, Hogan MC, et al. Relationship between body and leg VO<sub>2</sub> during maximal cycle ergometry. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 1992;73(3):1114-21.
15. Poole DC, Jones AM. Oxygen uptake kinetics. *Comprehensive Physiology*. 2012;2(2):933-96.
16. Sargeant A, Dolan P. Effect of prior exercise on maximal short-term power output in humans. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 1987;63(4):1475-80.
17. Capelli C, Antonutto G, Zamparo P, Girardis M, di Prampero PE. Effects of prolonged cycle ergometer exercise on maximal muscle power and oxygen uptake in humans. *European Journal of Applied Physiology and Occupational physiology*. 1993;66(3):189-95.
18. Froyd C, Millet GY, Noakes TD. The development of peripheral fatigue and short-term recovery during self-paced high-intensity exercise. *The Journal of Physiology*. 2013;591(5):1339-46.
19. Coelho AC, Cannon DT, Cao R, Porszasz J, Casaburi R, Knorst MM, et al. Instantaneous quantification of skeletal muscle activation, power production, and fatigue during cycle ergometry. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2015;118(5):646-54.
20. Elmer SJ, Marshall CS, Wehmanen K, Amann M, McDaniel J, Martin DT, et al. Effects of locomotor muscle fatigue on joint-specific power production during cycling. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*. 2012;44(8):1504-11.
21. Lamberts RP, Swart J, Noakes TD, Lambert MI. A novel submaximal cycle test to monitor fatigue and predict cycling performance. *British Journal of Sports Medicine*. 2011;45(10):797-804.
22. Åstrand P-O, Ryhming I. A nomogram for calculation of aerobic capacity (physical fitness) from pulse rate during submaximal work. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 1954;7(2):218-21.
23. Tanner R, Gore C. *Physiological tests for elite athletes*. 2 ed: Human kinetics; 2012.
24. Borg GA. Psychophysical bases of perceived exertion. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*. 1982.

25. Mildenhall M. The effect of acidosis on peak power after a simulated 4000-m individual pursuit on a bicycle ergometer. Auckland, New Zealand: Auckland University of Technology; 2019.
26. Craig NP, Norton KI. Characteristics of track cycling. *Sports Medicine*. 2001;31(7):457-68.
27. Gottschall JS, Palmer BM. The acute effects of prior cycling cadence on running performance and kinematics. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*. 2002;34(9):1518-22.
28. Gurfinkel V, Levik YS, Kazennikov O, Selionov V. Locomotor-like movements evoked by leg muscle vibration in humans. *European Journal of Neuroscience*. 1998;10(5):1608-12.
29. Hill DW, Poole DC, Smith JC. The relationship between power and the time to achieve VO<sub>2</sub>max. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*. 2002;34(4):709-14.
30. Whipp BJ, Ward SA, Rossiter HB. Pulmonary O<sub>2</sub> uptake during exercise: conflating muscular and cardiovascular responses. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*. 2005;37(9):1574-85.
31. Gardner AS, Martin DT, Jenkins DG, Dyer I, Van Eiden J, Barras M, et al. Velocity-specific fatigue: quantifying fatigue during variable velocity cycling. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*. 2009;41(4):904-11.
32. Schober P, Boer C, Schwarte LA. Correlation coefficients: appropriate use and interpretation. *Anesthesia and Analgesia*. 2018;126(5):1763-8.
33. Kuznetsova A, Brockhoff PB, Christensen RH. lmerTest package: tests in linear mixed effects models. *Journal of Statistical Software*. 2017;82(1):1-26.
34. Beelen A, Sargeant A. Effect of fatigue on maximal power output at different contraction velocities in humans. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 1991;71(6):2332-7.
35. Marcora SM, Staiano W. The parabolic power-velocity relationship does not apply to fatigued states. *European Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2010;109(4):787-8.
36. Buttelli O, Vandewalle H, Peres G. The relationship between maximal power and maximal torque-velocity using an electronic ergometer. *European Journal of Applied Physiology and Occupational Physiology*. 1996;73(5):479-83.
37. MacIntosh BR, Svedahl K, Kim M. Fatigue and optimal conditions for short-term work capacity. *European Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2004;92(4):369-75.
38. Burnley M. The limit to exercise tolerance in humans: validity compromised by failing to account for the power-velocity relationship. *European Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2010;109(6):1225.
39. Driss T, Vandewalle H. The measurement of maximal (anaerobic) power output on a cycle ergometer: a critical review. *BioMed Research International*. 2013;2013.
40. Coso JD, Mora-Rodríguez R. Validity of cycling peak power as measured by a short-sprint test versus the Wingate anaerobic test. *Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism*. 2006;31(3):186-9.



bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.10.12.464126>; this version posted October 12, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

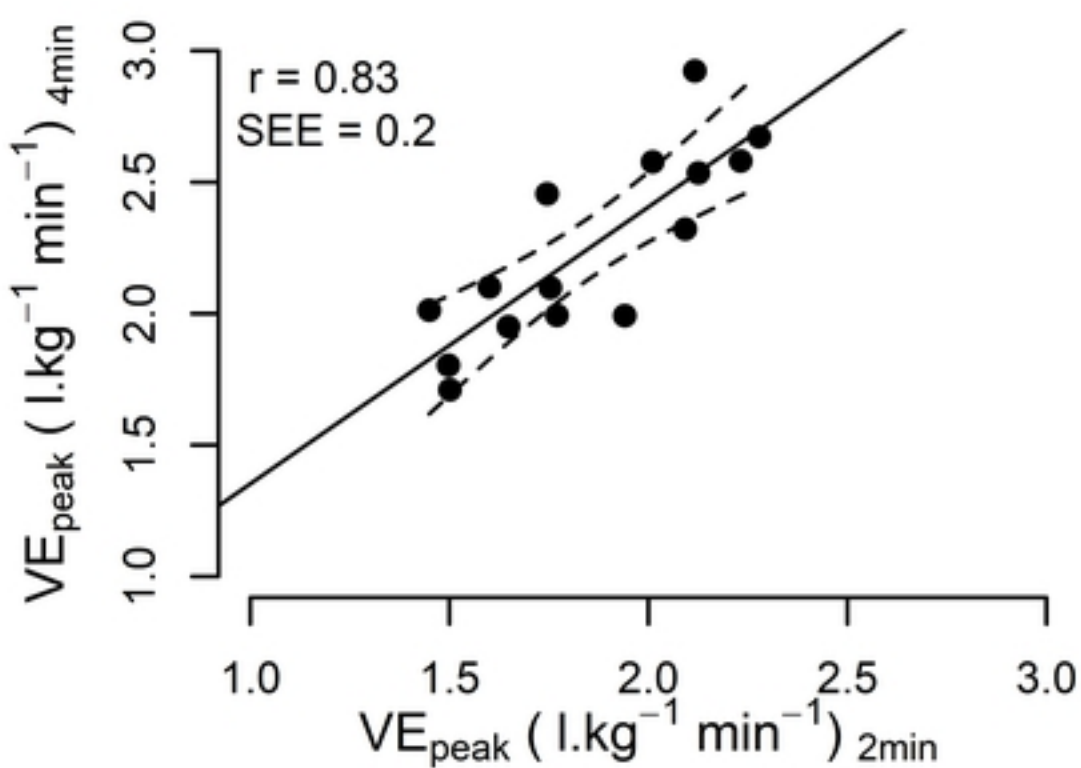
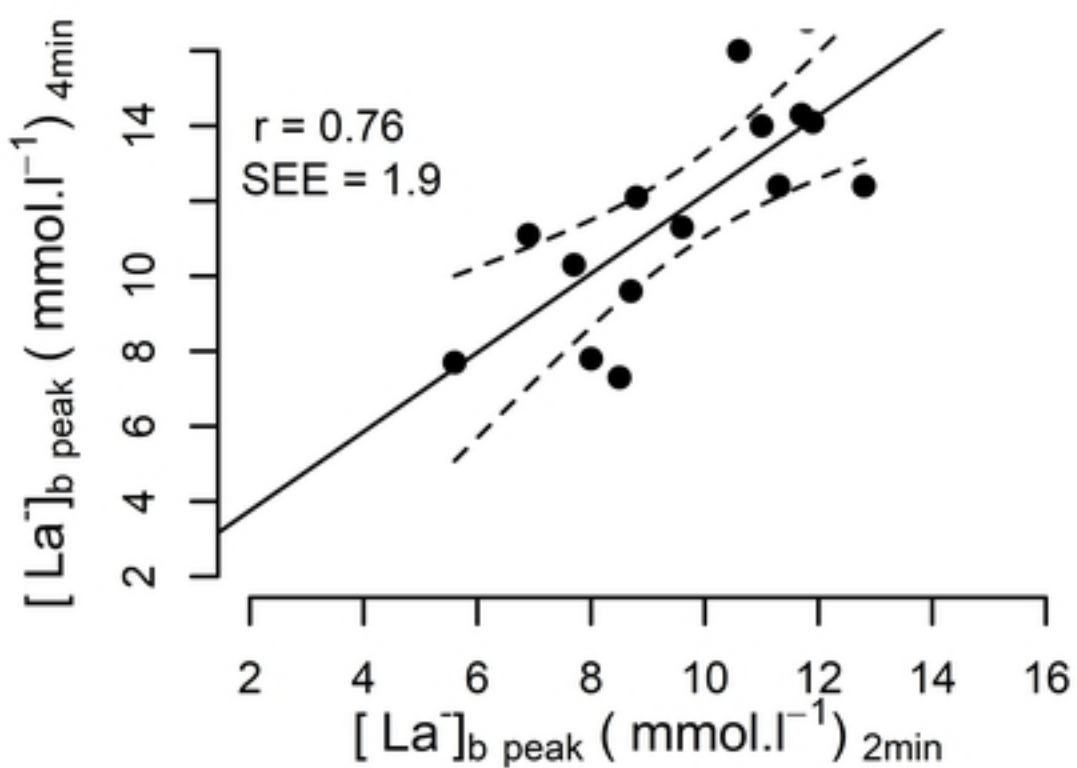
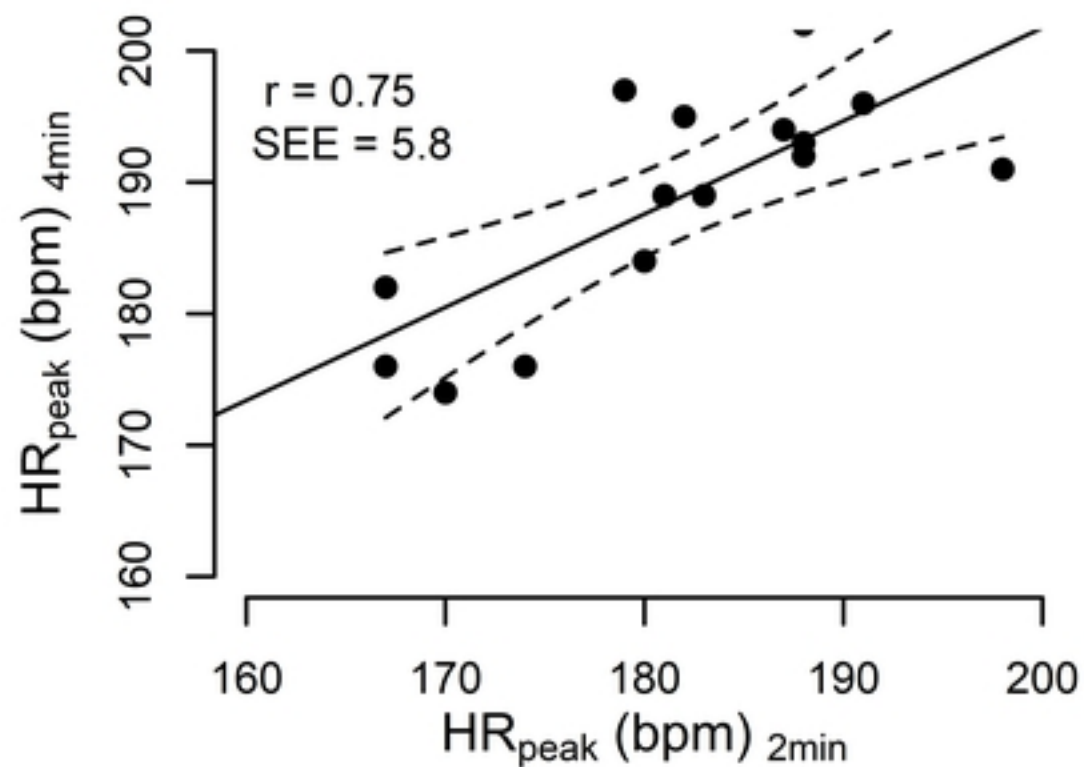
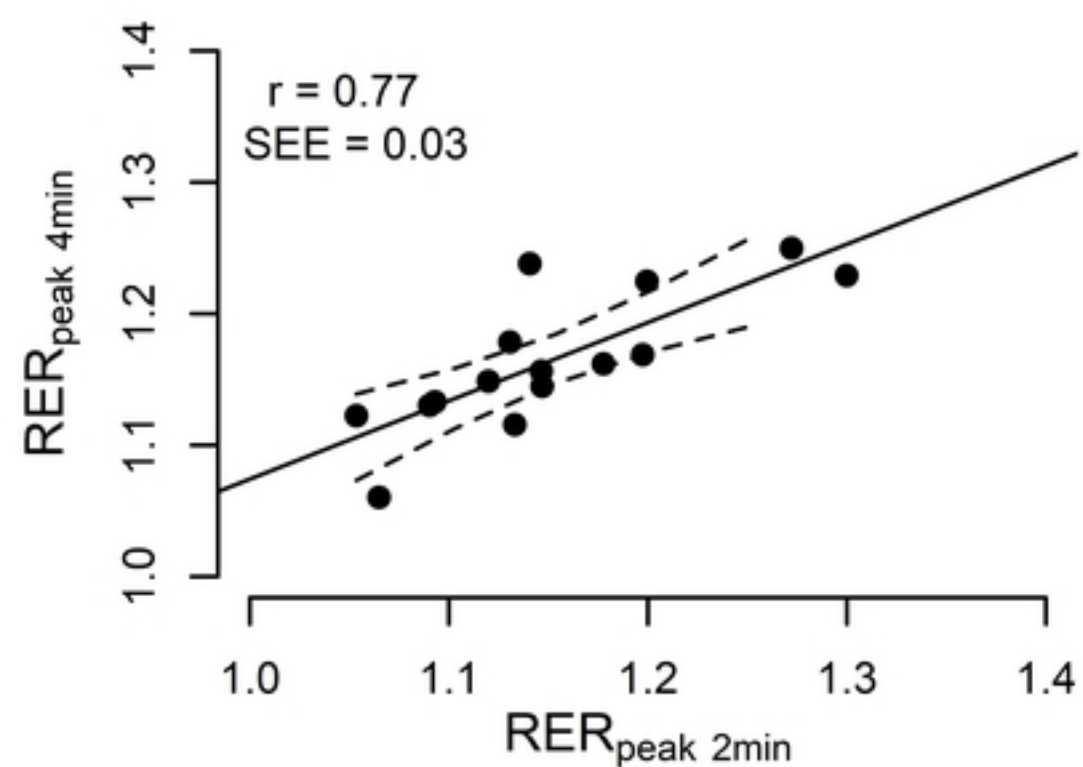


Figure 1



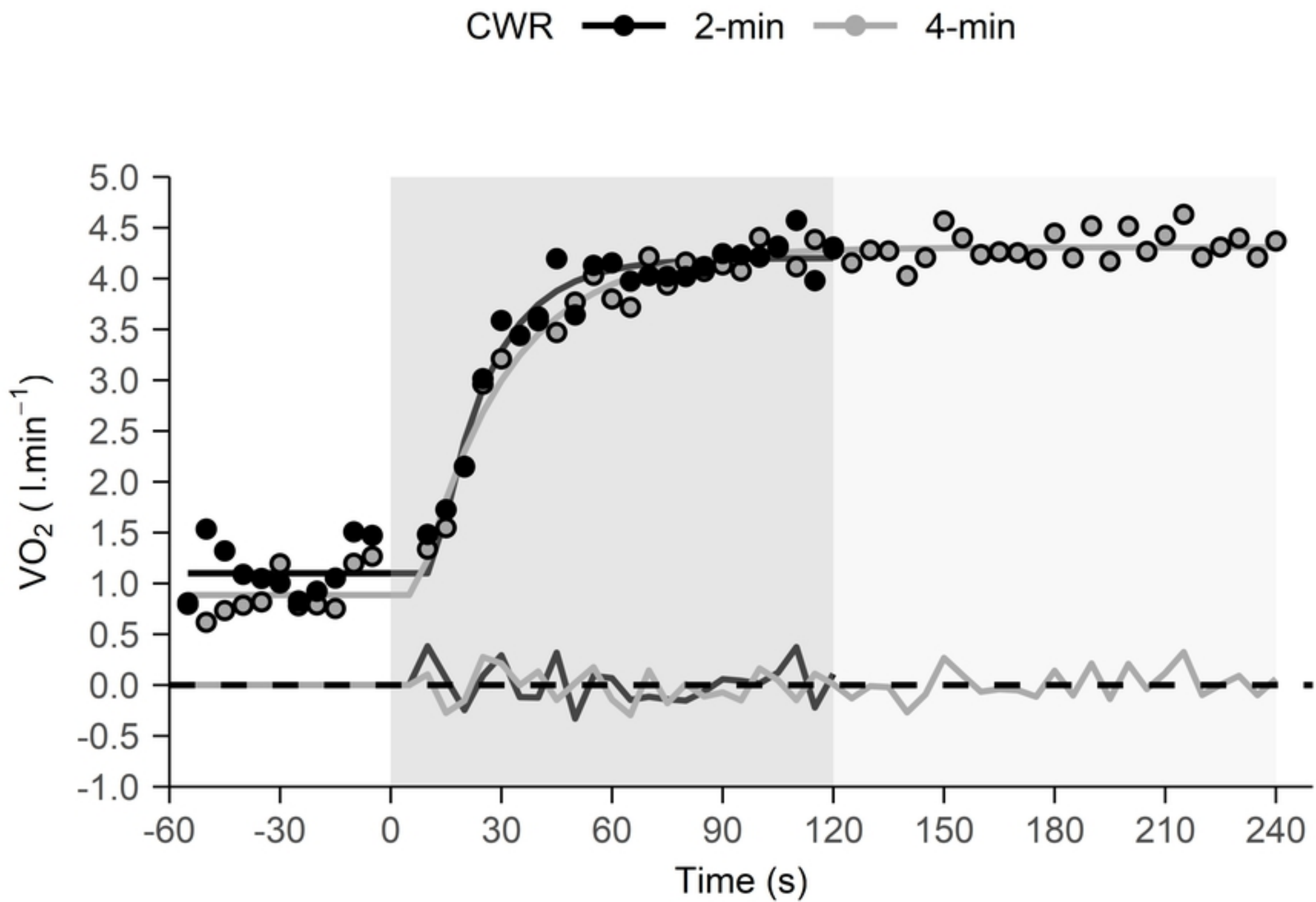


Figure 2

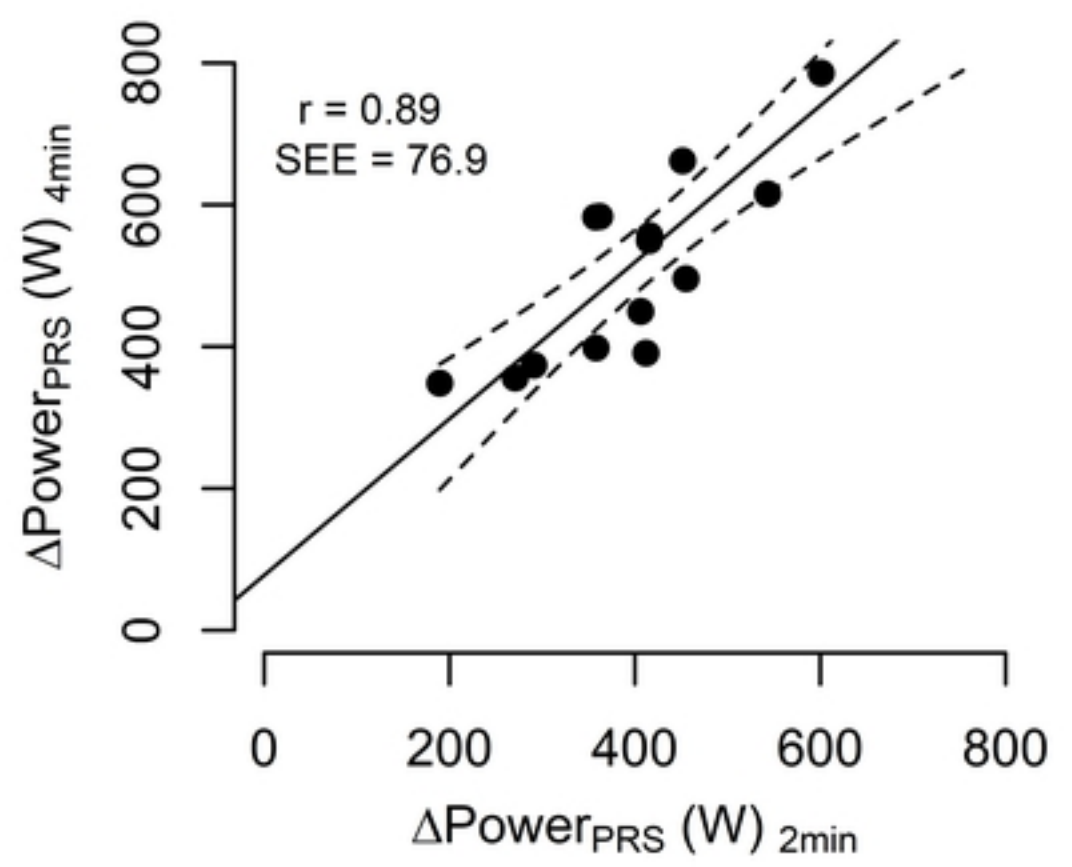
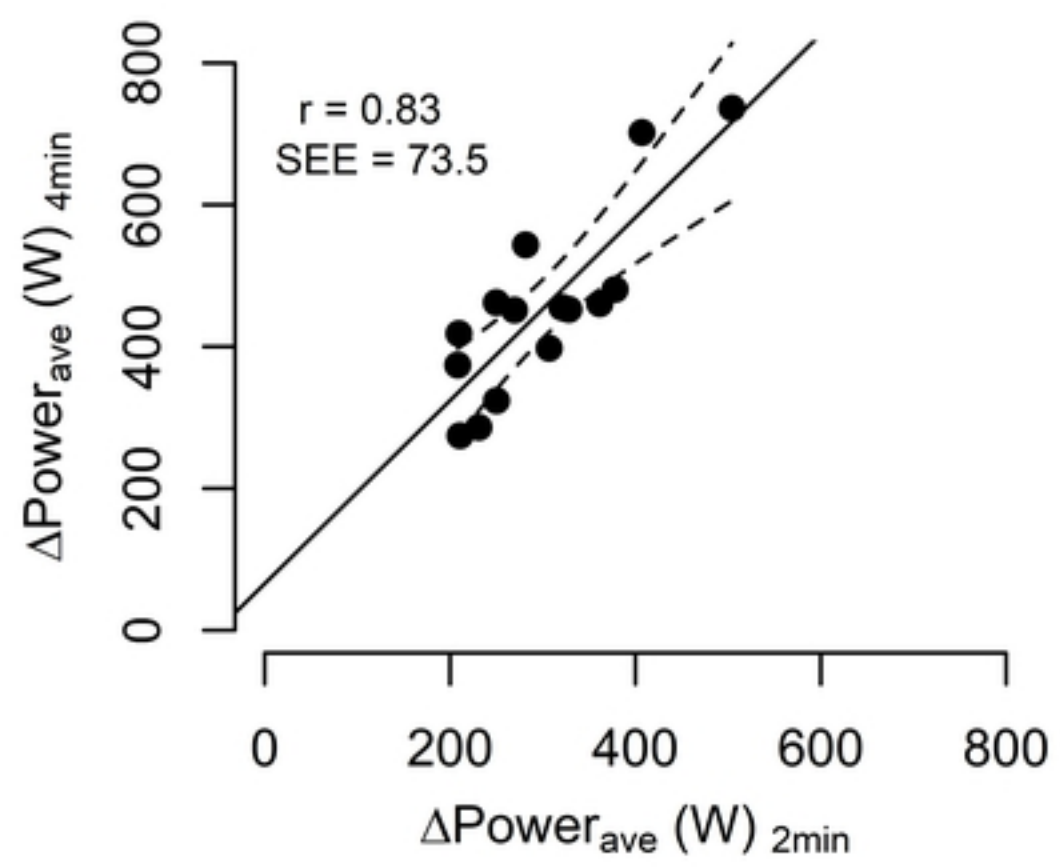
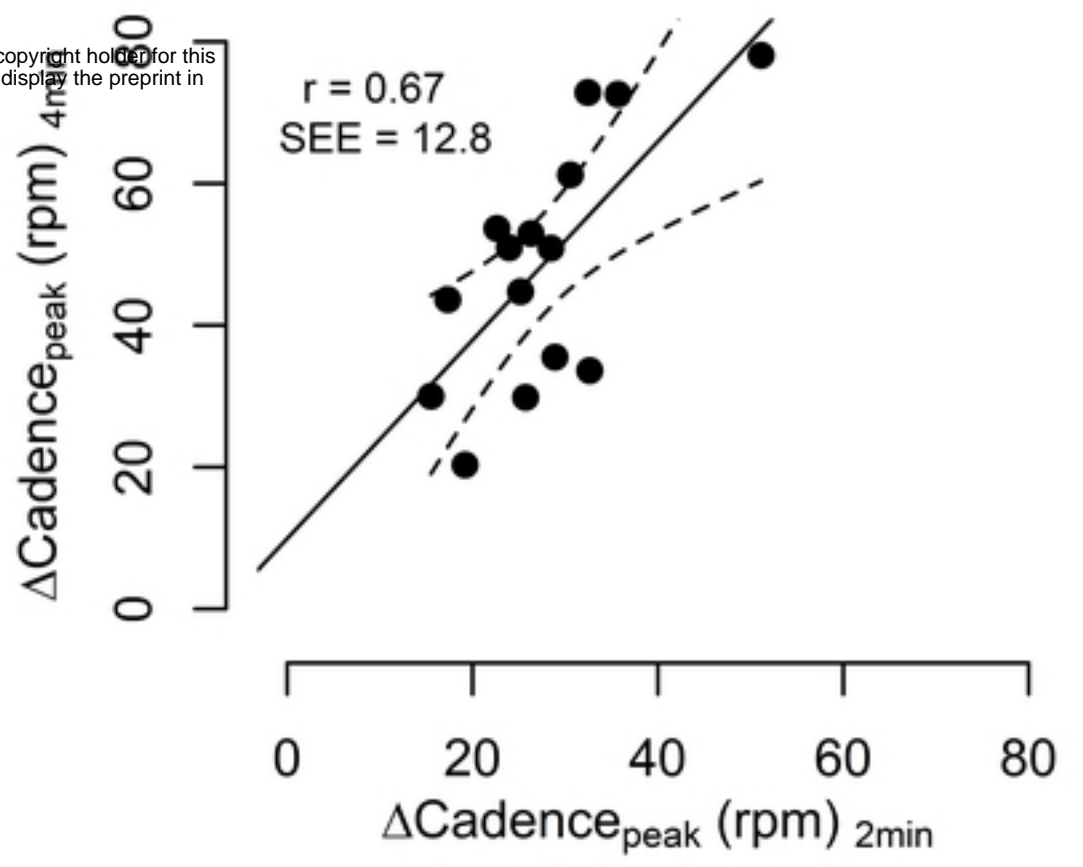
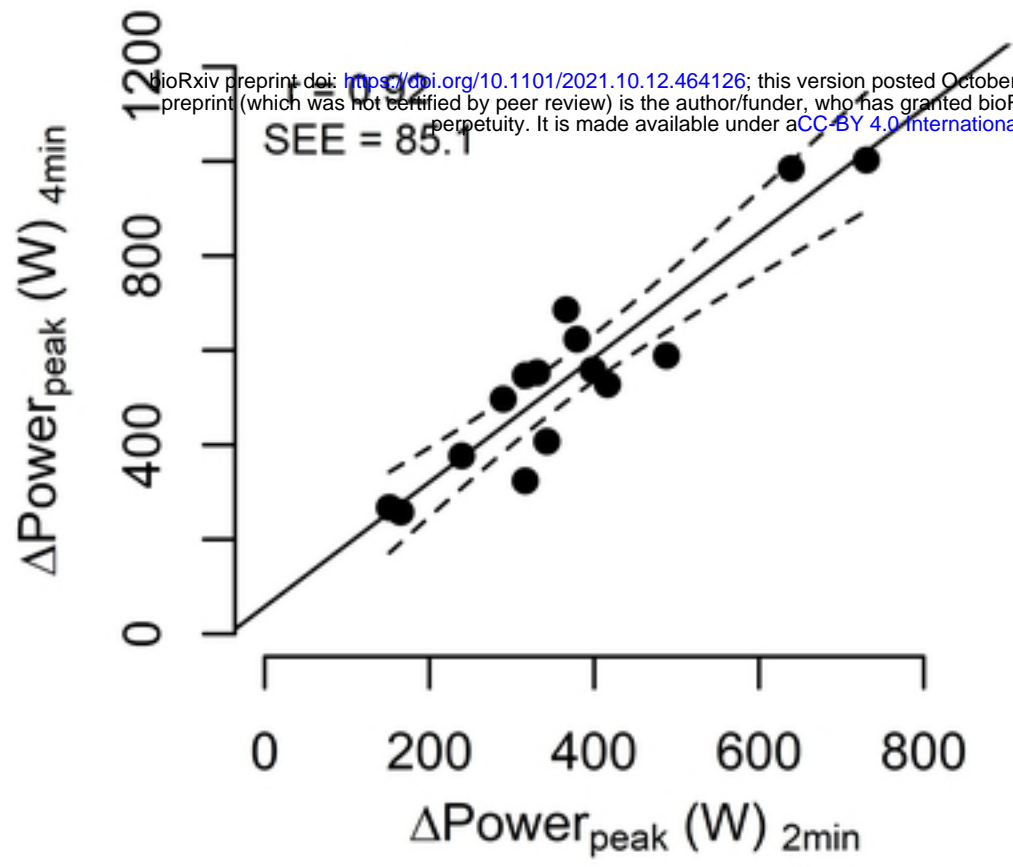


Figure 3

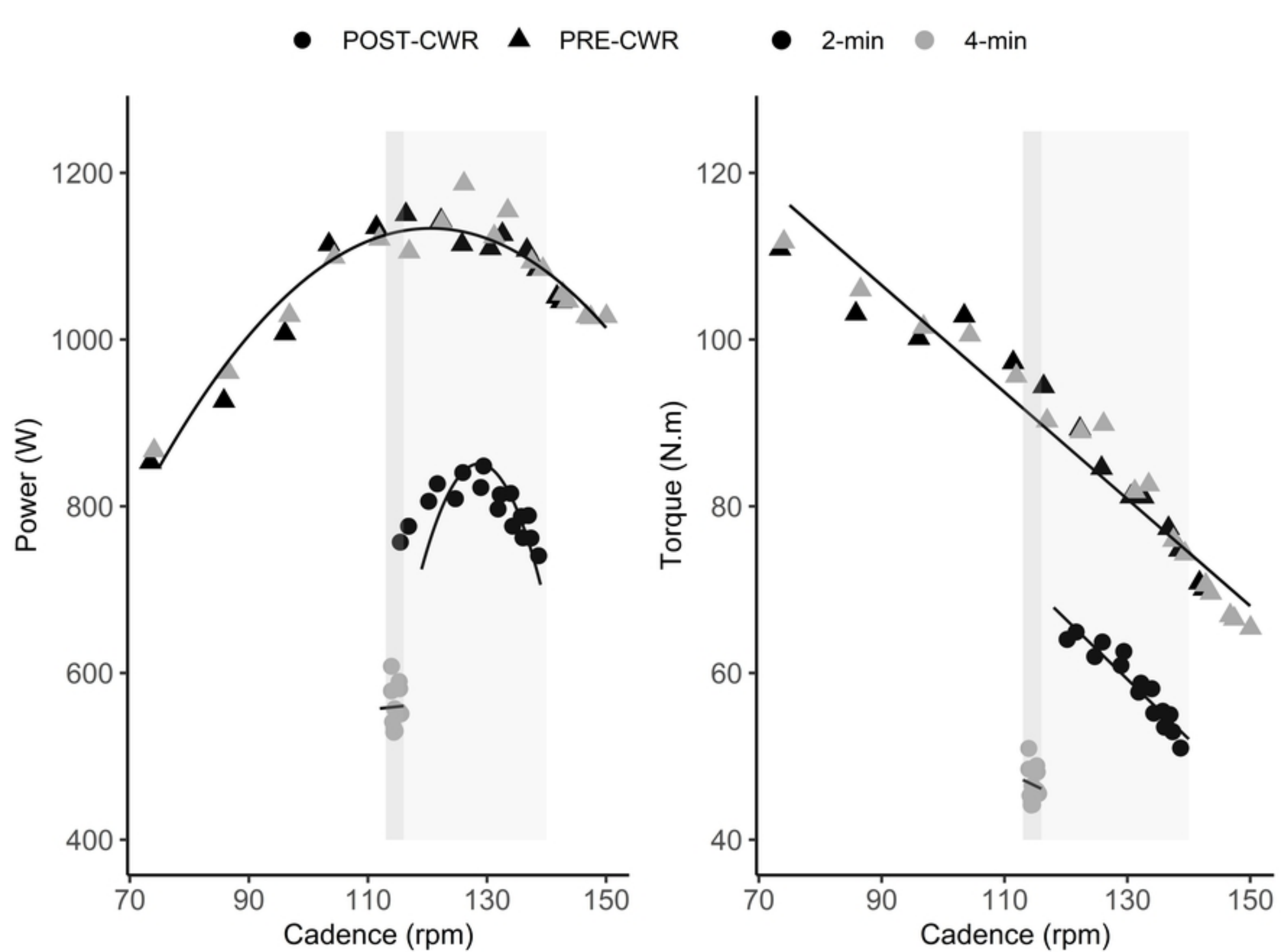


Figure 4



-●- Elite male    -▲- Female    -■- Junior male

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.10.12.464126>; this version posted October 12, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

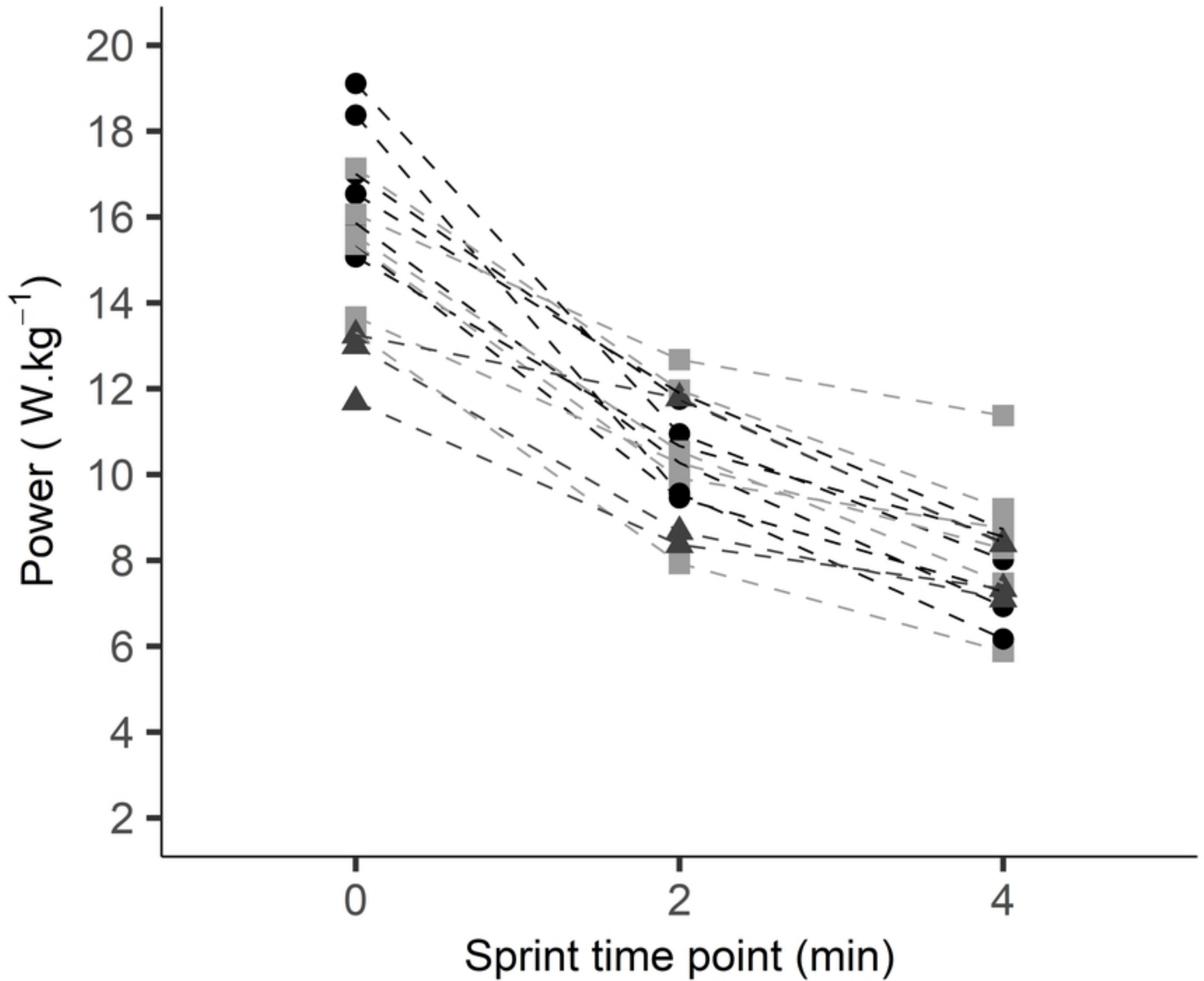


Figure 5