

## Chapter 2

### Accumulated Oxygen Deficit Issues

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#### 1. Introduction

As detailed in the chapter 1 of section 1, muscles work by shortening the muscle fibers, a process driven by cross-bridge cycling. During each cycle one molecule of ATP is split to ADP and inorganic phosphate. Since the stores of ATP are very limited, ATP must be resynthesized as fast as it is broken down. The process of splitting and resynthesizing ATP is called ATP-turnover. ATP can be resynthesized by aerobic and by anaerobic processes (see chapter 1 of section 1 and chapter 5 of section 5 for more details). The first ones require O<sub>2</sub>, and aerobic ATP-turnover can thus be quantified by the O<sub>2</sub> consumption. Amounts of O<sub>2</sub> are thus an alternative measure of the ATP-turnover and of amounts of energy release. Anaerobic processes are per definition independent of O<sub>2</sub> consumption. However, since the stoichiometry between O<sub>2</sub> consumption and aerobic ATP-turnover is known from textbooks of biochemistry, also anaerobic ATP-turnover can be expressed in units of O<sub>2</sub>.

At rest and during continuous exercise of moderate intensity, ATP is resynthesized by aerobic processes only. At onset of exercise or during high-intensity exercise also anaerobic processes contribute. There is thus a gap between the total ATP-turnover rate (called O<sub>2</sub> demand when expressed in units of O<sub>2</sub>) and the measured O<sub>2</sub> uptake. This difference is called the O<sub>2</sub> deficit and reflects the anaerobic rate of the energy release. A central part of this presentation is to show how the O<sub>2</sub> deficit can be used to quantify rates of anaerobic ATP-resynthesis and further to address limitations of the principle.

This chapter focuses on how to quantify anaerobic energy release by the accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit principle during supramaximal exercise intensities (above that corresponding to maximal O<sub>2</sub> uptake). Thus, quantification of anaerobic energy release at the onset of exercise at moderate intensity proposed by Krogh and Lindhard [1] is not considered further. The basic ideas of the maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit principle were worked out independently by three groups [2-5] in the 1980-is.

#### 2. Quantitative concepts

When the anaerobic energy release is to be determined, terms both for the rate of energy release and for the amount of energy release are needed. We therefore suggested a set of terms of the aerobic, anaerobic and total energy release when the energy release is expressed in terms of units of O<sub>2</sub> to distinguish between rates and amounts of energy release [4]. These terms seem now largely accepted (Table 1).

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**Table 1.** Central terms of the accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit concepts

<i>Rate of energy release</i>	<i>Amount of energy release</i>
O <sub>2</sub> demand	Accumulated O <sub>2</sub> demand
– O <sub>2</sub> uptake	– Accumulated O <sub>2</sub> uptake
= O <sub>2</sub> deficit	= Accumulated O <sub>2</sub> deficit

Amounts of energy are the rates of energy integrated (by time) over the exercise period in question, indicated by adding “accumulated” to the corresponding term of rate. If the rate is constant, the integration reduces to a simple multiplication of rate and duration.

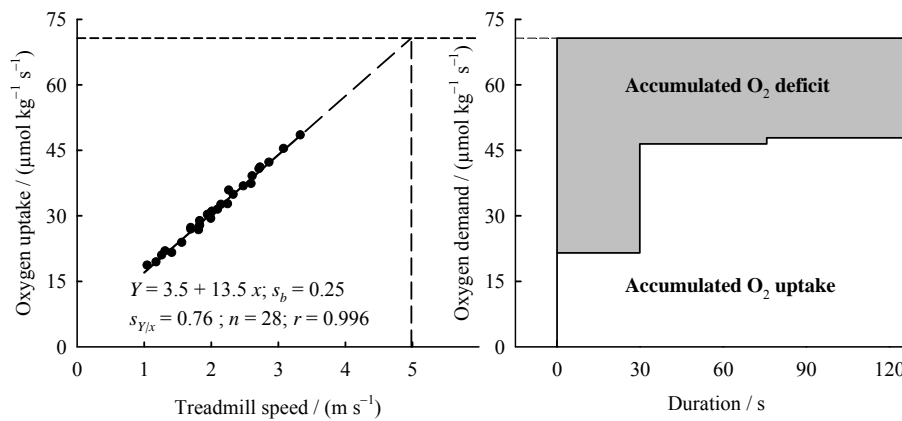
### 3. Principle of determining accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit

Accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit is in most studies apparently determined according to principles detailed elsewhere [4]. However, results obtained have been discussed, questioned, and criticized (e.g. [6,7]). The main reason for conflicting results appears to be that many studies have not paid proper attention to the main principles and possible problems and pitfalls addressed in detail elsewhere [4,8-10]. Thus, a presentation of the main principles and possible problems and limitations are needed.

The idea of using the accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit as a measure of the anaerobic energy release during exercise is based on the following four principles:

1. Energy release (ATP-resynthesis) is aerobic or anaerobic. The anaerobic part is thus the total energy release less the aerobic part. The aerobic part is taken from the measured O<sub>2</sub> uptake.
2. During exercise at moderate intensities where anaerobic processes are negligible, O<sub>2</sub> uptake increases linearly by exercise intensity taken as speed of treadmill running or as power of ergometer cycling at constant frequency (Figure 1, left panel). Since there is no anaerobic contribution, the measured O<sub>2</sub> uptake reflects the total rate of ATP-turnover or O<sub>2</sub> demand. Consequently, during these conditions the total ATP-turnover rate or O<sub>2</sub> demand increases linearly by exercise intensity. This linear relationship between exercise intensity and O<sub>2</sub> demand is extrapolated to supramaximal intensities where anaerobic contribution is considerable.
3. During exercise at constant intensity the rate of ATP-turnover is constant throughout the exercise even if continued to exhaustion (Figure 1, right panel).
4. The accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit is taken by integrating O<sub>2</sub> deficit over the exercise period in question (see grey area in Figure 1).

Points 1 and 4 above largely follow by definition. The basis for points 2 and 3 is summarized below and discussed in more detail elsewhere [4,8,9].



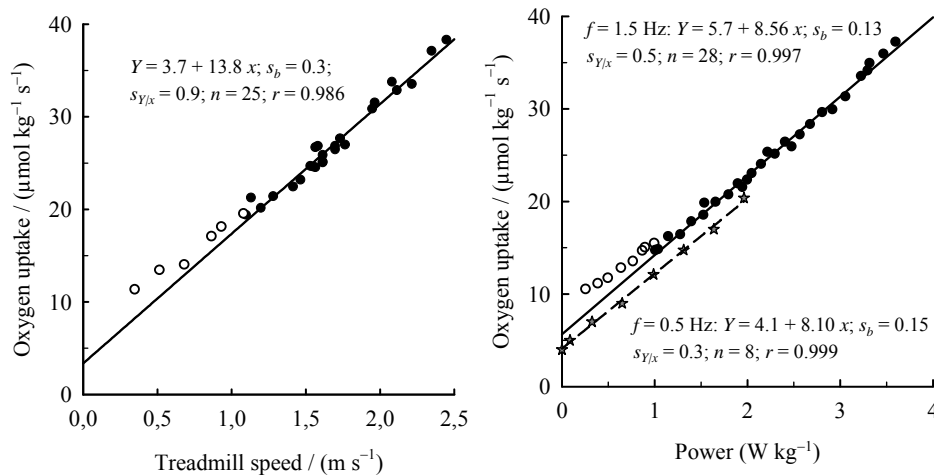
**Figure 1.** Principle of finding the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit during supramaximal exercise. *Left*, the subject exercised repeatedly for 10 min at constant intensity (here speed) during several days, and the  $O_2$  uptake was measured during the last 2 min of each exercise. A linear regression of steady state  $O_2$  uptake on exercise intensity was calculated from the data. On a separate day the subject exercised at  $4.98 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  for 127.8 s to exhaustion. By linear extrapolation (long dashed lines) the  $O_2$  demand of that exercise was estimated to be  $70.7 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  ( $95.0 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ; short dashed lines). *Right*, during the run to exhaustion expired air was collected in three Douglas bags, and the  $O_2$  uptake was measured. The difference between the estimated  $O_2$  demand and the measured  $O_2$  uptake was taken as  $O_2$  deficit. That quantity was integrated over the whole run to exhaustion, giving the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit of  $3.76 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  for that exercise (grey area). The data are for a well-trained young man with a maximal  $O_2$  uptake of  $48.6 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  ( $63.5 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) running on a treadmill at 10.5 % ( $6^\circ$ ) inclination.

#### 4. Requirements for obtaining reliable values of the accumulated $O_2$ deficit

Common principles of statistics together with simulations have shown that a minimum of 8–10 measurements of the steady state  $O_2$  uptake, taken as the  $O_2$  uptake in the period 8–10 min of exercise at constant intensity, is needed to find reliable relationships of  $O_2$  demand versus exercise intensity [4]. Intensities between 35 and 90% of maximal  $O_2$  uptake were used. At intensities below  $\approx 35\%$  of maximal  $O_2$  uptake there is often a disproportionately high  $O_2$  uptake (Figure 2), and this effect may have a simple biomechanical explanation [4,8,9]. While  $O_2$  uptake reaches a steady state within  $\approx 3$  min at moderate intensities, the presence of a slow component with a time constant of  $\approx 3$  min at higher intensities led us to use bouts of exercise of 10 min duration (see [10] for further details).

##### 4.1. Proposed short-cut approaches

The relationships between exercise intensity and  $O_2$  uptake vary between subjects, reflecting individual variations in exercise economy. Therefore a separate relationship should be established for each subject. This makes the procedure outlined above and detailed elsewhere [4] time consuming, and simpler procedures than that of at least 8–10 bouts of exercise each lasting 10 min for each subjects have been sought. Two possibilities appear acceptable, while others do not.



**Figure 2.** Nonlinearity in  $O_2$  uptake versus exercise intensity at low intensities. *Left*, treadmill running at  $6^\circ$  ( $10.5\%$ ). At speeds less than  $\approx 1.0 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  the  $O_2$  uptake is disproportionately high (open symbols, not included in calculating the regression line). *Right*, cycle exercise at  $1.5 \text{ Hz}$  (upper curve and circles) and at  $0.5 \text{ Hz}$  (lower curve and asterisks) for two different subjects. At powers less than  $\approx 1.0 \text{ W kg}^{-1}$  the  $O_2$  uptake is disproportionately high at  $1.5 \text{ Hz}$  (open symbols, not included in calculating the regression line). At  $0.5 \text{ Hz}$  the relationship was linear down to zero load, which equaled resting  $O_2$  uptake. The data sets are from three different healthy young men: [4] with permission of *J Appl Physiol*, [9] with permission of *Can J Appl Physiol/ Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* and [10] with permission of *Acta Kinesiol Univ Tartuensis*.

#### 4.1.1. Less than 10 min durations

One might suggest reduce the time for each exercise for establishing relationships between exercise intensity and  $O_2$  uptake. Reducing the duration to 6 min or less affected the relationships obtained significantly [11], probably because the slow component does not reach a steady state [10]. This approach is therefore not recommended.

#### 4.1.2. Fixed $Y$ -intercept

The  $Y$ -intercept does not vary much between subjects when properly established [4,10]. Thus, a fixed  $Y$ -intercept may be established for the specific exercise condition. Thereafter, for each subject 2–4 measurements of the  $O_2$  uptake after 8–10 min of exercise at 70–90% of the maximal  $O_2$  uptake is carried out. The  $O_2$  demand is then taken to increase linearly by intensity from the fixed  $Y$ -intercept through the measured values. This approach has been used in many studies [12–21], apparently with reliable outcome. Since the  $Y$ -intercept varies considerably between exercise conditions and models, it must be established for the specific exercise conditions in question.

#### 4.1.3. Step-wise increases in intensity with no rest between

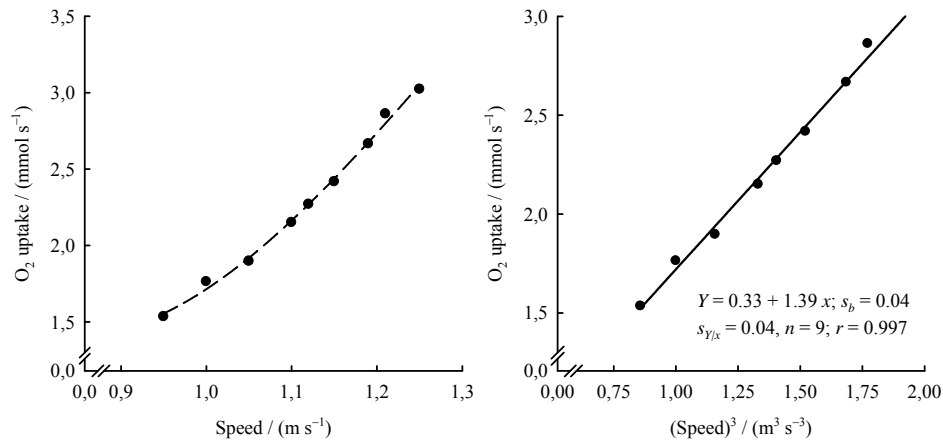
Another possibility is to use stepwise increases in exercise intensity, for example every 4<sup>th</sup> min, with no rest or break between each step, thus obtaining  $\approx 10$  measurements in the recommended range of intensities within 1 h [10]. The basic idea is that while the  $O_2$  uptake may not reach a complete steady state within 4 min, the mismatch for a small step is minimal and disappears almost completely during the next 4 min period, as shown mathematically [10]. Corresponding approaches have been used for humans

using some steps of 4 min [22] or 2 min [23,24] and on horses running for 1–2 min at each step [25–29], but with no further validation and justification.

#### 4.1.4. Reliable and unreliable short-cut approaches

The experiments for either optional procedure (points 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 above) can be carried out in less than one hour. One approach requires that the common  $Y$ -intercept has been established in advance, while the other one does not. A third and even better approach may be to combine the two summarized above.

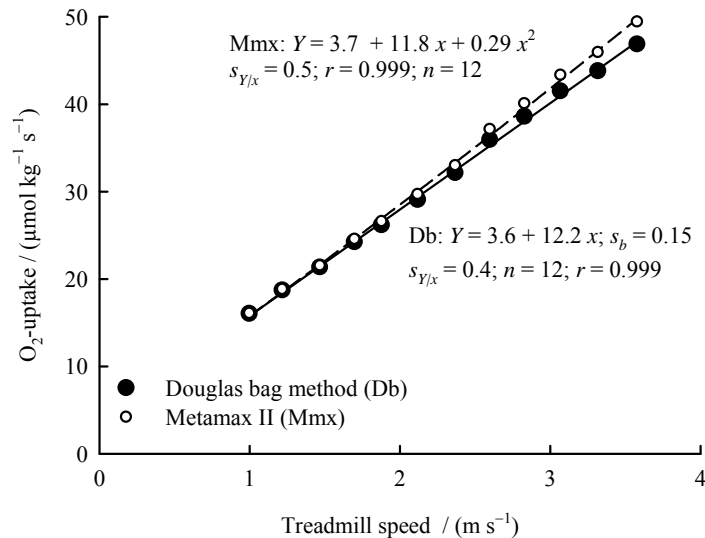
Some studies claim that the relationships may be nonlinear. Consequently, second-order fits have been tried using only 6–12 measurements over a quite narrow range of exercise intensities [30–32]. However, second-order fits based on at least 20 measurements appear numerically unstable and thus unreliable even when covering a wide range of intensities [33]. Nonlinear fits with no further validation are therefore not recommended.



**Figure 3.** Relationship between swimming speed and  $O_2$  uptake (left panel). The power needed to overcome water resistance increases by the cube of speed, and consequently the relationship is curved. When plotting  $O_2$  uptake versus the cube of speed, the relationship is linear (right panel). Data on a top Japanese swimmer, kindly provided by Dr.Ogita.

#### 4.2. Requirements to experimental design

The  $O_2$  demand is calculated from exercise intensity, which therefore must be precisely known. That is usually the case in laboratory experiments using a treadmill with known speed and fixed inclination or ergometers exerting known power outputs. Corresponding experiments have also been carried out for swimming in a flume where the speed of water is accurately known [34–36]. The  $O_2$  uptake was closely related to water speed, and by a proper mathematical transform linear relationships were obtained (Figure 3). Proper experiments have also been carried out on ergometers for kayaking [37–40]. The knee extensor model that has been used in some studies (e.g. [6,41]), does on the other hand have problems that make it unsuited for estimating the  $O_2$  demand and thus to calculate the accumulated  $O_2$  demand (see [8,9] for further details). One study has tried to determine the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit during track running [42], but the results are seriously influenced by limitations with portable analyzers addressed below.



**Figure 4.** Relationship between treadmill speed and  $O_2$  uptake measured by the Douglas bag method (Db) and the Metamax II instrument (Mmx). A healthy young man ran on the treadmill (10% inclination) while the speed was raised stepwise every 4<sup>th</sup> minute.  $O_2$  uptake was measured simultaneously by both methods (Db and Mmx) as detailed elsewhere [43]. At low speeds and thus moderate  $O_2$  uptakes the two sets of values were almost identical. At higher  $O_2$  uptakes built-in algorithms in the Metamax introduced a nonlinearity in the output as indicated by the significant second-order term. Reproduced from [10] with permission of *Acta Kinesiol Univ Tartuensis*.

#### 4.3. Requirements to instruments

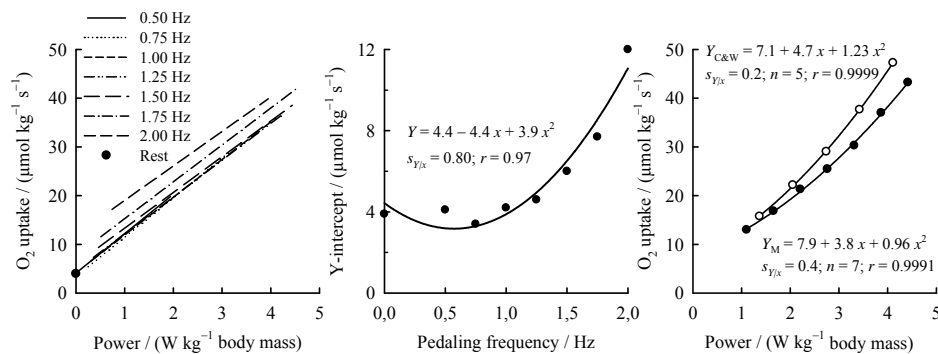
We have in all our experiments measure  $O_2$  uptake by the old-fashioned, manual Douglas bag method [3,4,8,10,33,44-47,47-52]. Air collected in Douglas bags was later analyzed for gas fractions by the Scholander technique [53] or by instruments from Applied Electrochemistry Instruments (AEI). Volumes of expired air were measured in a Tissot-type spirometer [54] or by a turbine-type gas flow meter from AEI. These methods and instruments are readily tested for accuracy and precision. Most laboratories today use fully automatic, computerized systems where the data are processed by unknown algorithms. Although not well explained in the instrument's manual, there may be built-in averagings and delays of 30–60 s in the recording. That is unacceptable when the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit is to be determined during exercise [55]. This is clearly a problem in some studies [42,56,57], but most studies do not report adequate data. Moreover, some instruments may have built-in corrections that distort the values [55], and therefore need corrections [58,59]. Consequently, relationships between exercise intensity that are linear when properly measured by the Douglas bag technique, may turn out as curved when processed by an automatic system (Figure 4). Most studies give no information on possible quality control of their methods and instruments. Thus, it is not known whether the problems addressed here are limited to a few studies and instruments or perhaps are being quite widespread but unrecognized by most users.

## 5. Precision

The error in accumulated  $O_2$  deficit increases by exercise duration. The largest terms in the error are those related to estimating  $O_2$  demand by extrapolation. When adequately carried out, the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit can be determined with an error of  $\leq 4\%$  for exercise lasting no more than 3 min [4,8,9]. Similar values have been reported by one study [60], while others have reported random errors twice as large [13,18,61].

### 5.1. Test-retest

During test-retest experiments accumulated  $O_2$  deficit is calculated using the same relationship of  $O_2$  demand versus intensity. This might reduce the test-retest-variability to less than that of single determinations since imprecision in the estimated  $O_2$  demand is the main term. However, data from our studies [4,46] suggest a random error (SD) of  $0.12 \text{ mmol.kg}^{-1}$  (4%) in test-retest-experiments, similar to that of another group [60,62]. Others have found test-retests-variabilities  $\approx 0.2 \text{ mmol.kg}^{-1}$  [13,18,61]. Thus, the test-retest-variability is at least as large as the statistical error in single determinations.



**Figure 5.** *Left*,  $O_2$  uptake versus the power at seven different pedaling frequencies and at rest for one subject. Data points have been excluded for sake of clarity except for the rest value. The length of each line shows the range of exercise intensities used for each frequency. *Middle*, Y-intercept of each relationship in the left panel versus pedaling frequency. *Right*,  $O_2$  uptake versus power if the braking force is kept constant and power is varied by varying the pedaling frequency only. Upper curve and open symbols are from ([63], C&W), while the lower curve and filled symbols are from ([10], M). Reproduced from [10] with permission of *Acta Kinesiol Univ Tartuensis*.

### 5.2. Variations in exercise conditions

For treadmill running  $O_2$  demand increases both with inclination and speed, and consequently either inclination or speed is kept constant. For cycling  $O_2$  demand likewise increases with power that can be varied by varying pedaling frequency or braking force.  $O_2$  demand increases with pedaling frequency even if the power is kept constant (Figure 5). The Y-intercept increases with frequency in approximately a second-order manner that may have a straight-forward biomechanical explanation [10]. Consequently, pedaling frequency should be kept constant. Many studies have nevertheless allowed the frequency to vary [64-71]. The effect on the outcome is difficult to estimate. Two recent studies tried to correct for varying frequencies during exercise [30,32], but

the values reported for accumulated  $O_2$  deficit appear unreliably high, probably because the relationships obtained were based on too few measurements.

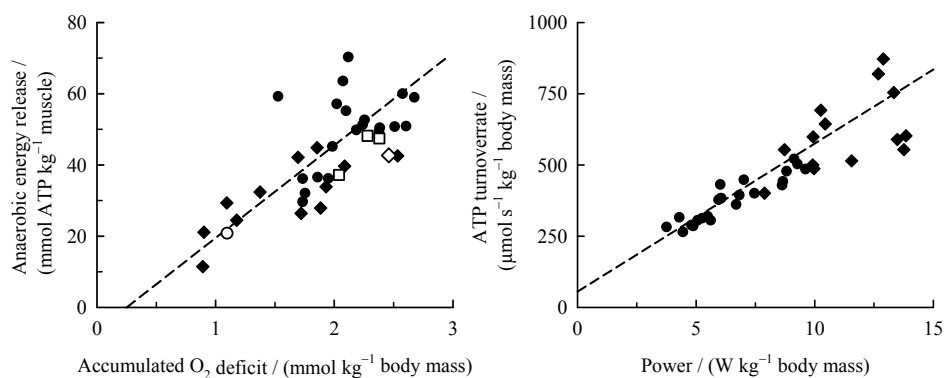
## 6. Accuracy

At onset of exercise  $O_2$  stores, mainly in venous blood, are reduced. Consequently, use of stored  $O_2$ , that per definition is an aerobic contribution, is included in the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit. This amounts to  $\approx 0.25 \text{ mmol } O_2 \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  body mass [4,8,9,45] and is thus a constant bias of  $\approx 10\%$  in most cases.

### 6.1 Comparisons with muscle metabolites

Anaerobic energy release in muscle can be determined directly from muscle biopsies taken before and immediately after exercise, and the values have been compared with accumulated  $O_2$  deficit in five different studies on cycling exercise (Figure 6). The results agree quite well when the assumed working muscle mass was taken to be 25% of the body mass and 1 mol  $O_2$  was taken equal to 6.5 mol of ATP (a value taken from textbooks of biochemistry). Bangsbo and coworkers [6,41] also reported an apparent excellent agreement between the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit for knee extensor cycling and measured muscle metabolites. However, that is a forced agreement obtained by taking 1 mol of  $O_2$  equal to 4.6 mol of ATP, a conversion factor at variance with that of textbooks of biochemistry.

The comparison of accumulated  $O_2$  deficit with muscle metabolites in figure 6 does not include release of lactate from muscle to blood during exercise. However, released lactate amounts to only a few percents even for cycling lasting 2–3 min [51,52].



**Figure 6.** *Left*, anaerobic energy release in muscle versus accumulated  $O_2$  deficit. The dashed line is the expected relationship provided the biopsy data are representative of a working muscle mass equal to 25% of the body mass and that use of stored  $O_2$  amounted to  $0.25 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  body mass.  $\square$ , individual data from [47];  $\square$ , individual data from [49];  $\square$ , mean of six subjects from [72];  $\square$ , mean of six subjects from [64];  $\square$ , mean of ten trained cyclists from [73]; all subjects were healthy young men. The data from Sahlin and coworkers [72] are from measurements of the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit at the onset of exercise where no extrapolation was involved (Krogh and Lindhard [1] principle). *Right*, total ATP-turnover rate versus power. The dashed line is a linear extrapolation of the subjects' relationship between power and  $O_2$  demand expressed as an ATP-turnover rate: The slope of  $52 \text{ } \mu\text{mol ATP} \cdot \text{J}^{-1}$  is the mean of the individual slopes and corresponds to a delta efficiency of 0.27 assuming ATP is produced by oxidation of glycogen. The line's Y-intercept of  $55 \text{ } \mu\text{mol ATP} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  body mass is the mean of all subjects' intercept. The aerobic energy release was taken

from the measured  $O_2$  uptake plus an assumed use of stored  $O_2$  of  $0.25 \text{ mmol.kg}^{-1}$  body mass, while the anaerobic energy release was taken from measured muscle metabolites assuming these values were representative of a working muscle mass of 25% of the body mass. The data are taken from [47, 49] for subjects cycling at preset powers leading to exhaustion between 10 s and 3 min. The figure is modified from [49] and reproduced with permission of *Acta Kinesiol Univ Tartuensis*.

### 6.2. Studies in hypoxia and normoxia

Anaerobic energy release is per definition independent of aerobic metabolism and  $O_2$ . If the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit reflects the anaerobic energy release accurately, it should be independent of the  $O_2$  uptake. Determinations of accumulated  $O_2$  deficit in hypoxia have given similar values to those on the same subjects in normoxia despite lower exercise intensity in hypoxia [4,74-76] and is illustrated further elsewhere [8,9]. Moreover, for exercise lasting 3–4 min or more the  $O_2$  demand in hypoxia was taken directly from the measured steady-state  $O_2$  during 10 min runs of the pre-tests in normoxia, and therefore no extrapolation was needed [4].

### 6.3. Comparisons with working muscle mass

The working muscle mass when cycling with one leg is half of that using two legs. The accumulated  $O_2$  deficit when cycling to exhaustion using one leg only was 52% of that when using both legs [66].

Maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit has been determined for resistance-trained, endurance-trained and untrained subjects [77]. The values for resistance-trained and endurance-trained were very close whether expressed relative to body mass ( $2.35 \text{ mmol kg}^{-1}$ ) or to leg muscle mass ( $8.3 \text{ mmol.kg}^{-1}$ ). The values for untrained subjects were on the other hand  $\approx 25\%$  less than those of the trained subjects. Thus, for trained subjects maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit may be proportional to active muscle mass.

### 6.4. Justification of linear extrapolation

Assumption number 2 of linear extrapolation to supramaximal exercise intensities has been examined further [49]. The rate of energy release was taken from the measured  $O_2$  uptake and changes in muscle metabolites during supramaximal exercise, and this rate was related to the power (Figure 6, right panel). The data obtained were distributed around linear extrapolations of relationships established at submaximal intensities, suggesting a constant mechanical efficiency and thus justifying the linear extrapolation.

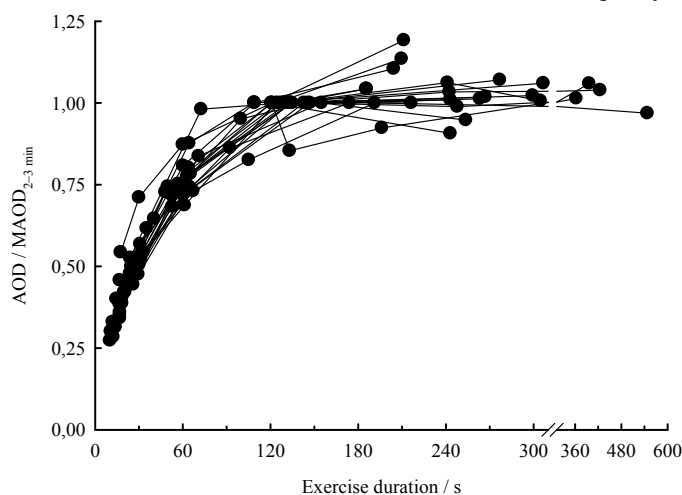
To sum up, data summarized above and detailed elsewhere [4,8-10,47,49,64,73] suggest that when properly determined, accumulated  $O_2$  deficit is an accurate measure of the anaerobic energy release during exercise when disregarding that use of stored  $O_2$  is a component of the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit. The random error in single determinations as well as the test-retest-variability is  $\approx 4\%$  when properly determined.

## 7. Physiological importance of accumulated $O_2$ deficit and implications

Accumulated  $O_2$  deficit depends on the working muscle mass and thus expectedly increases by body mass or by working muscle mass. All data reported below have therefore been expressed relative to body mass or to estimated active muscle mass.

### 7.1. A maximal accumulated $O_2$ deficit

If exercise is carried out at different intensities and thus for different durations to exhaustion, accumulated  $O_2$  deficit increases by duration before leveling off (Figure 7). For exercise lasting longer than 2 min there is no further increase [2,4,5,45,78-80], and that maximum is taken as the anaerobic capacity. For durations less than 1 min the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit is less than the maximum both for treadmill running [4,81] and for cycling [2,5,45,64-67,70]. When running on a treadmill, a minimum of 2 min exercise appears to be needed to reach the maximum value and thus to exhaust the anaerobic capacity [4,81]. During all-out cycling anaerobic capacity may be exhausted in  $\approx 1$  min [64-67,69,70]. For cycling at constant power to exhaustion the time needed to exhaust the anaerobic capacity is in the range 1–2 min [2,5,45,66]. Other exercise models have not been examined for time needed to exhaust anaerobic capacity.



**Figure 7.** Accumulated  $O_2$  deficit (AOD) for exhausting runs of different durations to exhaustion, relative to the maximum ( $MAOD_{2-3 \text{ min}}$ ), taken as the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit for a run leading to exhaustion in 2–3 min. The data are from 19 healthy young men with different background (sprint-trained, endurance-trained, untrained men [4,46]).

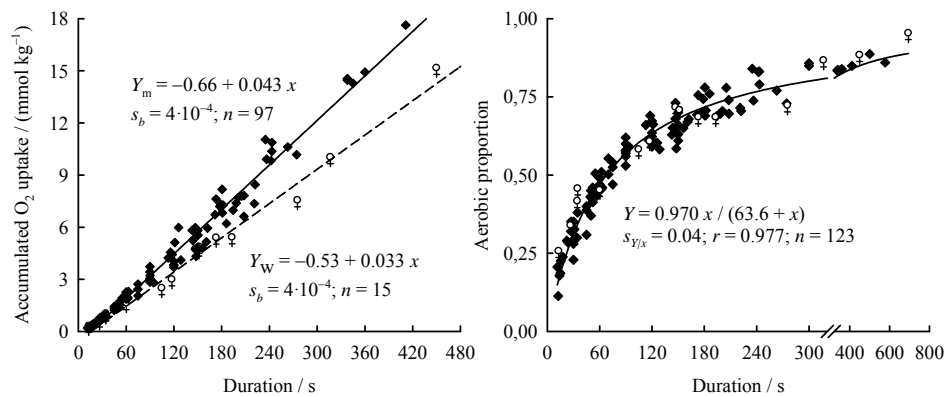
### 7.2. Relative importance of aerobic and anaerobic energy release

The relative aerobic and anaerobic contribution to exhausting exercise of different intensities and durations has been determined in many studies, and the results agree well (Figure 8). The hyperbolic curve fit is compatible with a constant anaerobic energy release plus an  $O_2$  uptake at a constant rate throughout the exercise. However, for exercise of short durations the accumulated  $O_2$  deficit is less than the maximum (see Figure 6). The reduced accumulated  $O_2$  deficit seems to be largely compensated for by an accelerated increase in the  $O_2$  uptake at the onset of exercise [45], probably because of the very high exercise intensity for short-lasting bouts.

### 7.3. $O_2$ uptake versus exercise duration – delay from onset of exercise

Determination of accumulated  $O_2$  deficit requires that  $O_2$  uptake is measured throughout the exercise. Krogh and Lindhard [82] showed in 1913 a major increase in  $O_2$  up-

take within 30 s of exercise (Figure 9, left). At moderate to high exercise intensities accumulated  $O_2$  uptake increases linearly by time after a delay of  $\approx 15$  s (e.g. [45,70,83,84], see also Figure 8). In a further study on very intense exercise leading to exhaustion in 10–30 s the delay was only 8 s ([49], Figure 9, right). Thus, the traditional view that aerobic processes need considerable time before contributing, needs revision.



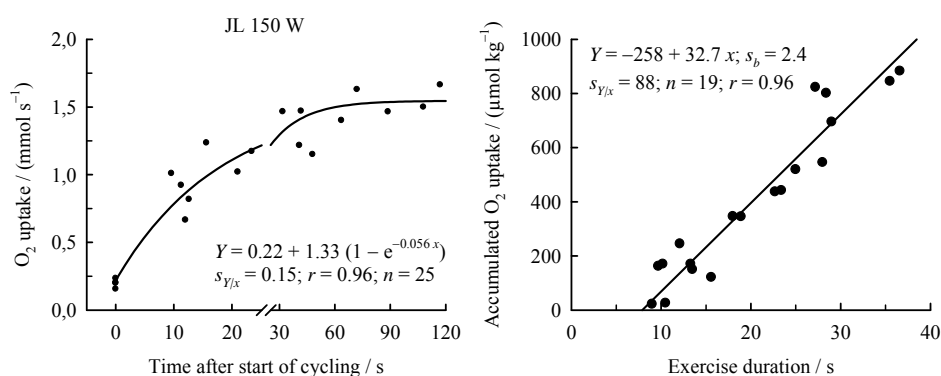
**Figure 8.** *Left*, accumulated  $O_2$  uptake versus exercise duration. The regression lines (separate lines for men [ $Y_m$ ] and women [ $Y_w$ ]) suggest that after a delay of 15 s accumulated  $O_2$  uptake rises linearly by time. *Right*, relative contribution of accumulated  $O_2$  uptake to total energy release versus exercise duration. The curve is a hyperbola fit to the data, and the standard error in the two parameters is 0.014 and 2.8 s, respectively. For 60 s duration accumulated  $O_2$  uptake is 47% and for 68 s duration 50% of the total as estimated from the fitted curve. The data have also been re-examined after subtracting  $0.25 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  of presumed use of stored  $O_2$  from accumulated  $O_2$  deficit and adding this amount to accumulated  $O_2$  uptake. After that correction the calculated aerobic proportion is 0.57 for exercise of 60 s duration. The data are pooled from 32 studies [4, 12-16, 19, 20, 39, 40, 44-46, 49, 58, 59, 64, 65, 67-69, 73, 81, 85-93] (right panel) and 30 studies (left panel; two studies reported only the relative aerobic contribution and not the accumulated  $O_2$  uptake). Each value is the mean of 2–18 subjects. The subjects were endurance-trained, middle-distance trained, sprint-trained, or untrained healthy young adults.  $\square$ , men;  $\circ$  women.

#### 7.4. Influence of maximal accumulated $O_2$ deficit on performance

Testing of athletes may be of interest to predict their performance. Maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit may predict the performance of 100–1500 m track running within  $\approx 10\%$  of the final time [94]. Two other studies suggest that the performance on a 100 m sprint may be predicted from maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit with an error of  $\approx 0.5$  s [13] or  $< 1$  s [21]. Thus, although factors like running economy (“technique”) and  $O_2$  uptake (or lactate threshold) are important, maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit alone appears to be an important predictor. There was on the other hand no relationship between maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit and performance on 800 m running among a homogenous group of runners, but the variability (SD) in performance in that study was only 4 s (3% [90]). This is close to the random error in single determinations of accumulated  $O_2$  deficit, and this example thus illustrates a limitation of the principle.

Accumulated  $O_2$  deficit together with either maximal  $O_2$  uptake or lactate threshold could predict the performance on 500 m kayaking with an error of only 1.6 s (1.3%) [37]. These parameters did on the other hand not predict the performance on repeated sprints among a group of Australian football players [17]. Thus, maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit may predict performance for simple and physically demanding exercises, but

for more compound or technically demanding tasks a possible effect of a large maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit is not clear.



**Figure 9.** *Left*,  $O_2$  uptake versus exercise duration [82]. Subject JL cycled at four different occasions at  $\approx 150$  W while the  $O_2$  uptake was measured before exercise (time zero) and at intervals. x-axis is broken at 25 s for change of scale, and five measurements beyond 2 min of exercise are not shown for sake of clarity. At onset of exercise the major increase in  $O_2$  uptake was seen before 30 s. *Right*, accumulated  $O_2$  uptake versus exercise duration from [49] (individual data from nine subjects) for cycling at constant power to exhaustion in either  $\approx 10$  or  $\approx 30$  s. After a delay of  $8 \pm 1$  s accumulated  $O_2$  uptake rose linearly by duration at a rate  $\geq 80\%$  of maximal  $O_2$  uptake. The Y-intercept of  $-0.26 \text{ mmol } O_2 \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  equals (with opposite sign) the assumed use of stored  $O_2$  at the onset of exercise. The data are compatible with no delay in the  $O_2$  consumption in working muscles from the onset of exercise, and if present, the delay is no more than 2 s.

## 7.5. Between-subjects variations on maximal accumulated $O_2$ deficit

### 7.5.1. Gender differences

When groups of men and women with similar background have been examined, maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit of women has been 12–17% less [46,95,96], 24% less [19] or 31–34% less than that of men [66,97]. Maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit for 11 yr old girls was 14% less than that of boys of similar age [98]. When expressed relative to lean body mass or estimated active muscle mass, maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit for women was 11–18% less than that of men [66,95].

### 7.5.2. Effect of age

Maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit of 12 yr old boys [99] was half of that of young men in similar studies [74,78,79,100]. More recent studies have found a similar ratio of maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit between 11 yr and 15 yr old boys, while the value of 11 yr old girls was 64% of that of 15 yr old girls [97,98]. Thus, during puberty maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit seems to be doubled in males and increase by at least 50% in females even when expressed relative to body mass. This suggests an increase in maximal accumulated  $O_2$  deficit as muscle mass increases during puberty.

The (maximal) accumulated  $O_2$  deficit of  $1.1 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  of 60–70 yr old persons may be around half of that of healthy young people [101], suggesting that the value decreases during aging, perhaps related to decreased muscle mass.

### 7.5.3. *Effect of training background and physical condition on accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit*

The (maximal) accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit may be more than 30% higher for sprint-trained subjects than for endurance-trained or untrained subjects [12,44,46], but a 20% excess has also been reported [68]. The difference is at least partly due to a larger muscle mass, since endurance-trained and resistance-trained subjects had similar values when expressed relative to the leg muscle mass [77].

The (maximal) accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit of 0.5 mmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> of elderly patients with chronic heart failure was only half of that of healthy, age-matched controls [101]. The low value for these patients may be no more than that accounted for by reduced O<sub>2</sub> stores and breakdown of phosphocreatine during exercise; 0.5 mmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> is also the threshold for lactate appearance observed on healthy untrained young men [102].

### 7.6. *Effect of training on maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit*

Regular aerobic type of training at moderate intensity for four months improved maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit by 11% for 11–12 yr old boys [99], while similar training for healthy young men did not improve maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit [103]. Intense interval-type of training three times per week for 6 wk, leading to considerable lactate production during each training session, may improve maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit by ≈10% for relatively untrained young men and women [46]. The anaerobic energy release during each training session was ≈75% of the maximum. More severe training may increase the maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit by 20–30% [96,104] or even more for relatively untrained subjects [19,105] and horses [106].

High-altitude training and training in hypoxia may improve aerobic performance. Maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit does not seem to improve much during periods of high-altitude training [36,107,108].

#### 7.6.1. *Proposed training for improving short-lasting, high-intensity performance – Irisawa-Tabata-protocol*

Aerobic processes are important even for exercise lasting less than 1 min (Figures 8 and 9). Consequently training principles improving both aerobic and anaerobic capabilities is wanted. A training program of 20 s intermittent exercise at 170% of maximal O<sub>2</sub> uptake, 10 s rest, repeated for 4 min (8 sets) was therefore designed [104]. During each training session the accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit over the eight sets equaled the maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit, and the O<sub>2</sub> uptake rose to its maximum value. After 6 wk of training 4–5 d/wk maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit rose by 28%, and in addition maximal O<sub>2</sub> uptake rose by 15% for a group of relatively untrained young men [103]. This protocol was first worked out by Irisawa, being coach of Japanese elite speed skaters, and further examined scientifically by Tabata and coworkers [103,104]. The principle is therefore called the Irisawa-Tabata protocol.

### 7.7. *Examination of effects of dietary supplements*

Maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit rose by 9% after five days of creatine supplement, and the performance improved accordingly [109]. Caffein may improve performance, and maximal accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit rose by 11% [16] and by 17% [110] after ingestion of

cafein. Thus, the accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit principle can provide information on why specific treatments do improve performance.

## 8. Final comments

In the 1990-is Saltin and Gastin stated that the accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit principle appears as the only likely candidate for a noninvasive method for determining anaerobic energy release during exercise [111,112]. The current principle of accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit has been used in more than 150 published studies according to searches in Pubmed and Sports discus. The principle and method has nevertheless been criticized and by some even been claimed invalid (e.g. [6,7]). The main reason for conflicting results and opinions may be that while nearly all studies refer to recommended principles [4], most studies have used short-cuts that have not been validated. Moreover, problems of non-linearity at low exercise intensities shown above (see Figure 2) have been disregarded, resulting in apparent negative values of the accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit [7,22]. Despite the request for further methodological investigations [112], not much has been done.

Few studies give any information on quality and possible problems in their studies. Hardly any study reports pertinent statistics as the error of regression and error of the slope. Instead statistics that leading statisticians disprove for such contexts like the correlation coefficient [113] and intraclass correlation [114-116], are often used.

To sum up, referring to Gastin [112]: The accumulated O<sub>2</sub> deficit principle still remains a promising measure of the anaerobic energy release during exercise if properly carried out. Further investigation on methodological issues is warranted, and standardization of procedures is still necessary. Data from numerous studies have given unambiguous results on the importance of both aerobic and anaerobic energy release during short-lasting, strenuous exercise (Figure 8), and further that aerobic processes are important even for exercise lasting ≤ 30 s (Figure 9). Thus, as concluded by others [21,88,117,118], current textbook dogma need revision.

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