

# Physiological aspects and energetic contribution in 20s:10s high-intensity interval exercise at different intensities

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**Background.** One of the most popular High-Intensity Interval Exercises is the called “Tabata Protocol”. However, most investigations have limitations in describing the work intensity, and this fact appears to be due to the protocol unfeasibility. Furthermore, the physiological demands and energetic contribution during this kind of exercise remain unclear.

**Methods.** Eight physically active students ( $21.8 \pm 3.7$  years) and eight well-trained cycling athletes ( $27.8 \pm 6.4$  years) were enrolled. In the first visit, we collected descriptive data and the peak power output (PPO). On the next three visits, in random order, participants performed interval training with the same time structure (effort:rest 20s:10s) but using different intensities (115%, 130%, and 170% of PPO). We collected the number of sprints, power output, oxygen consumption, blood lactate, and heart rate.

**Results.** The analysis of variance for multivariate test (number of sprints, power output, blood lactate, peak heart rate and percentage of maximal heart rate) showed significant differences between groups ( $F=9.62$ ;  $p=0.001$ ) and intensities ( $F=384.05$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), with no interactions ( $F=0.94$ ;  $p=0.57$ ). All three energetic contributions and intensities were different between protocols. The higher contribution was aerobic, followed by alactic and lactic. The aerobic contribution was higher at 115%PPO, while the alactic system showed higher contribution at 130%PPO. In conclusion, the aerobic system was predominant in the three exercise protocols, and we observed a higher contribution at lower intensities.

# 1 Physiological aspects and energetic contribution in 2 20s:10s high-intensity interval exercise at different 3 intensities

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33 130%PPO. In conclusion, the aerobic system was predominant in the three exercise protocols,  
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## 35 Introduction

36 High-intensity interval exercise (HIIE) is repeated efforts with intensity above 90% of the  
37 intensity related to maximal oxygen consumption ( $i\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ ) followed by active or passive  
38 recovery (Buchheit & Laursen 2013b; MacInnis & Gibala 2017). Effort and recovery duration  
39 and intensity are the mainly manipulated variables during HIIE, which distinctly affect acute and  
40 chronic metabolic responses (MacInnis & Gibala 2017). However, the inconsistency and  
41 variability in HIIE protocols may limit its external validity and the data extrapolation to different  
42 populations (Viana et al. 2018b).

43 One of the most popular HIIE structure (Tabata 2019) was proposed by Tabata et al.  
44 (Tabata et al. 1996), which is also one of the most inconsistently applied protocols (Gentil et al.  
45 2016). It is 7 to 8 repetitions of 20 seconds of effort and 10 seconds of passive recovery  
46 (20s:10s) performed until the participant was unable to keep at least 85 rpm. This HIIE model is  
47 at an intensity equivalent to 1.7 times the measured  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ , which was calculated by the  
48 extrapolation of the linear relationship between submaximal exercise intensity and oxygen  
49 uptake (7-8x 20s @170 $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ : 10s of passive recovery). Previously, in this type of HIIE, acute  
50 studies observed high oxygen consumption (Viana et al. 2018c), elevated glycolysis, pronounced  
51 glycogen depletion (Scribbans et al. 2014), and high parasympathetic inhibition (Schaun & Del  
52 Vecchio 2018). Intermittent efforts at 170% of  $i\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ , obtained with a graded exercise test,  
53 are indicated for sprint interval training or repeated sprint training, but not for short HIIE  
54 (Buchheit & Laursen 2013b). In a study carried out with physically active young men on  
55 magnetic bikes, Viana et al. (Viana et al. 2018c) verified that the 170% of  $i\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$  intensity  
56 allowed an average of only 4 repetitions, and induced a very short period at high oxygen  
57 consumption rates. However, to date, the effect of this type of exercise in highly trained cycling  
58 athletes habituated to this exercise model is unknown.

59 Notwithstanding, HIIE models based on Tabata et al. (1996) have been widely used to  
60 improve the metabolic profile or increase physical fitness (Bonafiglia et al. 2017; Domaradzki et  
61 al. 2020; Logan et al. 2016; Ma et al. 2013; McRae et al. 2012; Scribbans et al. 2014). However,  
62 many investigations (Domaradzki et al. 2020; Logan et al. 2016; Ma et al. 2013; Scribbans et al.  
63 2014) have limitations in describing effort intensity, using all-out efforts or different from the  
64 intensity corresponding to 170% of  $i\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ , therefore, differs from the original protocol  
65 (Tabata et al. 1996; Viana et al. 2018a).

66 Regarding energetic responses, the authors claimed that the 20s:10s protocol reached  
67 maximal aerobic and anaerobic demands (Tabata 2019; Tabata et al. 1996). This statement was  
68 because, at the end of the protocol, the subjects reached their maximal accumulated oxygen  
69 deficit (MAOD) and an oxygen uptake equal to their  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ . However, the model applied has  
70 been previously questioned (Bangsbo 1992), and the acute physiological impact of different  
71 intensities in 20s:10s HIIE on cardiorespiratory and neuromuscular variables is unknown.  
72 Information about the contribution of energetic systems during the 20s:10s protocol is essential  
73 to understand its physiological demands, and to date, we are aware of no studies have analysed  
74 such responses.

75 Therefore, considering that this knowledge is relevant to the exercise organisation, as it  
76 allows to drive physiological stimuli according to the training status, the objectives of the present  
77 study were to measure the physiological demands (oxygen uptake, heart rate, and blood lactate),  
78 to access the contribution of energy systems, as well as neuromuscular parameters (total sprint  
79 number, mean, and maximum power output) in the 20s:10s HIIE protocol in three different  
80 intensities, in cycling athletes and non-athletes.

81

## 82 **Materials & Methods**

83 Experimental approach to the problem

84 The study involved four visits, with minimum rest of 48h and a maximum of 72h  
85 between them. Participants were instructed not to ingest caffeine or alcohol and not practice  
86 intense physical exercises in the 48h before each trial. On the first day, the ethical research  
87 aspects, body mass measurement (Soehnle®, Backnang, Denmark), and height (Standard,  
88 Sanny®, São Paulo, Brazil) were collected. On the same day, participants completed an  
89 incremental maximal effort test to identify: i) maximal oxygen consumption ( $VO_{2MAX}$ ); ii)  
90 maximum heart rate ( $HR_{MAX}$ ); iii) power associated with the maximum oxygen consumption  
91 ( $pVO_{2MAX}$ ) for sample characterisation and determination of training load.

92 In the following days, the participants performed the HIIE training sessions in three  
93 different intensities in a random order, separated by a minimum and maximum interval of 48 to  
94 72 hours, respectively. Subjects performed the training in a mechanical braking cycle ergometer  
95 (Biotec 2100, Cefise®, São Paulo, Brazil). Specific software was used to calculate the power  
96 output based on wheel speed and previously informed load (Ergometric 6.0, Cefise®, São Paulo,  
97 Brazil). The sessions were conducted by previously trained researchers, following the  
98 institutional safety manual.

99 Subjects

100 We based the sample size calculation on data from Lopes-Silva *et al.* (2015). The authors  
101 observed that the mean difference for aerobic contribution during HIIE between the two  
102 conditions (placebo or substance) was 3%, with standard deviation from means of 2.5%. Seven  
103 individuals per group would be required, when assuming 80% power and 5% significance level  
104 in a two-tailed test. Considering sample loss of 10%, eight individuals participated per group.

105 The inclusion criteria were: i) to be physically active (more than 150 minutes of physical activity  
106 per week); ii) have no musculoskeletal, respiratory, or cardiovascular problems; (iii) non-  
107 smoker; iv) declare not to be anabolic androgenic steroids user. Besides, cyclists should: (i)  
108 practice road cycling or mountain bike marathon for more than two years and (ii) have a relative  
109  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$  equal to or greater than  $50 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ . The sample consisted of 16 males, of whom  
110 eight sports-engaged physical education students (age:  $21.8\pm 3.7$ ; body mass:  $65.5\pm 5.4 \text{ kg}$ ;  
111  $\text{HR}_{\text{MAX}}$ :  $192.7\pm 2.6 \text{ bpm}$ ;  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ :  $3375.5\pm 331.4 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{O}_2\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{pVO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ :  $238.1\pm 18.0 \text{ W}$ ) and  
112 eight road cycling or mountain-bike athletes (age:  $27.8\pm 6.4$ ; body mass:  $70.3\pm 9.5 \text{ kg}$ ;  $\text{HR}_{\text{MAX}}$ :  
113  $188.4\pm 4.5 \text{ bpm}$ ;  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ :  $4122.2\pm 506.7 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{O}_2\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{pVO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ :  $351.8\pm 42.6 \text{ W}$ ). All cyclists  
114 reported doing at least eight hours of weekly training. All subjects filled informed consent, and  
115 the Federal University of Pelotas Research Ethical Committee approved the research project  
116 (protocol number 77729517.1.0000.5313).

#### 117 *Incremental maximal effort test*

118 The incremental test started with a 2-min continuous warm-up with 0.5 kgf load. After  
119 warming up, we increased the load every minute by 0.25 kgf, which corresponds to  
120 approximately 25w, until the participant reached exhaustion, or not was able not to maintain the  
121 minimum cadence of 90rpm.

#### 122 *Training protocols*

123 The experimental sessions began with a 5-min warm-up using a 0.5 kgf load with a  
124 cadence between 90 and 100 rpm.

125 The training protocol followed the previously published pattern of effort:pause of the  
126 20s:10s proposed by Tabata et al. (1996), and was performed using the following intensities: i)  
127 115%; ii) 130%; iii) 170% of  $i\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$  (denominated 115%PPO, 130%PPO, and 170%PPO,

128 respectively), with a cadence control between 90 and 100 rpm. The subjects were oriented to  
129 perform as many sprints as possible and to remain seated on the bicycle. The handlebar and  
130 saddle were individually adjusted, and we used the same settings in all experimental sessions.  
131 The training was interrupted when the subject could not maintain the minimum predefined  
132 cadence of 90 rpm or declared voluntary exhaustion.

### 133 *Gas exchanges collection*

134 The  $\text{VO}_2$  was estimated at every three breaths using an open-circuit gas analyser  
135 ( $\text{VO}2000^{\text{TM}}$ , Medical Graphics, Minnesota, US), previously calibrated and following the  
136 manufacturer's guidelines. In order to collect gas exchange, a Neoprene<sup>TM</sup> mask with a high flow  
137 pneumotachograph was connected by an umbilical to  $\text{VO}2000$ .

138 Gas exchanges were recorded with the participant sitting on the cycle ergometer for 5  
139 minutes (Campos et al. 2012), to measure oxygen consumption associated with relative rest  
140 before the maximal incremental test. This monitoring also occurred during the test to identify the  
141  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ , which was considered as the mean of last-minute values. During training, were  
142 collected  $\text{VO}_2$  data in three different moments in each exercise protocols: i) relative rest, ii)  
143 during the whole activity, and iii) after the end of the exercise, for seven minutes (Brooks &  
144 Mercier 1994).

### 145 *Blood lactate analysis*

146 A sample of 15 $\mu\text{L}$  of blood was obtained from the finger, drained to a heparinised  
147 capillary, and transferred to a microtube (Eppendorf<sup>TM</sup>) with 30 $\mu\text{L}$  of EDTA anticoagulant to  
148 measure the blood lactate concentration ( $[\text{La}^-]$ ). We performed the analysis on a lactate analyser  
149 (YSI 2300<sup>TM</sup> Stat Plus, Yellow Springs, Ohio, US). Blood was collected in relative rest and

150 minutes 1, 3, 5, and 7 after the end of each training protocols, in order to obtain the peak lactate  
151 concentration  $[La^-]_{PEAK}$ ).

#### 152 *Heart rate data collection*

153 The heart rate measured by a specific monitor (V800™, Polar Electro, Kempele, FI), previously  
154 validated (Giles et al. 2016). Participants wore a thoracic strip with a cardiac sensor and data  
155 recorded in the watch. These procedures were used during the incremental test to obtain maximal  
156 heart rate ( $HR_{MAX}$ ) and during each trial (115%PPO, 130%PPO, and 170%PPO) to obtain the  
157 peak heart rate ( $HR_{PEAK}$ ) in order to characterise the cardiovascular requirements of an exercise  
158 model.

#### 159 *Calculation of energy system contributions*

160 We presented the energy contribution in relative (%) and absolute (kilocalories and  
161 kilojoules) values. We assumed that one litre of oxygen is calorically equivalent to 20.9  
162 kilojoules and 5 kilocalories. Aerobic energy was estimated using the  $VO_2$  during exercise  
163 protocols subtracted by the  $VO_{2rest}$  through the trapezoidal method (Bertuzzi et al. 2007). The  
164  $VO_{2rest}$  was obtained five minutes before the beginning of the protocol, with the subjects seated.  
165 The difference between the  $[La^-]_{peak}$  and the  $[La^-]_{rest}$  was used in the equation to estimate the  
166 energy production from the anaerobic lactic system, assuming that the accumulation of 1  
167  $mmol.L^{-1}$  is equivalent to 3  $ml.O_2.kg^{-1}$  of body mass (di Prampero & Ferretti 1999; Margaria et  
168 al. 1963). The fast component of the excess post-exercise oxygen consumption ( $EPOC_{fast}$ ), which  
169 is similar to maximal accumulated oxygen deficit (Zagatto et al. 2019), was used to estimate the  
170 production of alactic energy (di Prampero & Ferretti 1999; Haseler et al. 1999). We observed  
171 that the slow component of the bi-exponential model was insignificant. Therefore, we used the  
172 monoexponential model. These procedures were applied in previous research (Bertuzzi et al.

173 2007; Campos et al. 2012) and follow previously described assumptions (di Prampero & Ferretti  
 174 1999). We used specific software (GEDAE-LaB, São Paulo, Brazil) to calculate the energetic  
 175 contributions. The procedure was tested and validated against traditional calculations, with an  
 176 intraclass correlation coefficient of 0.94 for energy expenditure and energy contribution  
 177 calculation (Bertuzzi et al. 2016). Following, we provided the equations used by the software and  
 178 their respective description; all data were extracted from Bertuzzi et al. (2016).

$$179 \quad \text{VO}_{2(t)} = \text{VO}_{2\text{baseline}} + A_1 [e^{-\frac{(t-td)}{\tau_1}}]$$

$$180 \quad \text{VO}_{2(t)} = \text{VO}_{2\text{baseline}} + A_1 [e^{-\frac{(t-td)}{\tau_1}}] + A_2 [e^{-\frac{(t-td)}{\tau_2}}]$$

$$181 \quad \text{AL}_{\text{MET}} = A_1 \cdot \tau_1$$

182 Where  $\text{AL}_{\text{MET}}$  is alactic anaerobic system estimated by the fast component of excess post-  
 183 exercise oxygen consumption,  $\text{VO}_{2(t)}$  is the oxygen uptake at time  $t$ ,  $\text{VO}_{2\text{baseline}}$  is the oxygen  
 184 uptake at baseline,  $A$  is the amplitude,  $td$  is the time delay,  $\tau$  is the time constant,  
 185 and  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  denote the fast and slow components, respectively.

186

### 187 *Statistical analysis*

188 A Shapiro-Wilk test confirmed the data normality distribution, and we present data as  
 189 mean and standard deviation (SD). Independent t-tests compared subjects' physical  
 190 characteristics. We compared training protocols, energy systems, and power output with a two-  
 191 way analysis of variance (variable x group) with repeated measures. We tested the sphericity of  
 192 the data by Mauchly's test, and, when violated, applied Greenhouse-Geisser correction.  
 193 Bonferroni *posthoc* identified the significant differences in power output, and Scheffé *posthoc*  
 194 determined the differences between training protocols and energy systems.

## 195 **Results**

196 Independent t-tests indicated that athletes had lower maximal heart rate ( $p=0.04$ ) and  
197 higher absolute oxygen uptake ( $p=0.02$ ), age ( $p=0.04$ ), and peak power output ( $p<0.001$ ) than  
198 non-athletes.

199 The analysis of variance for the multivariate test (number of sprints, power output, blood  
200 lactate, peak heart rate and percentage of maximal heart rate) resulted in significant differences  
201 between groups ( $F=9.62$ ;  $p=0.001$ ) and intensities ( $F=384.05$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), with no interactions.

202 The results of univariate tests indicated that the number of sprints and peak heart rate were  
203 higher in lower intensities, while peak power output was higher at higher intensities (Table 1).  
204 The mean duration of each protocol was: 488, 258 and 127 seconds, for 115%PPO, 130%PPO,  
205 and 170%PPO, respectively. Besides, athletes reached higher levels of blood lactate  
206 concentration than non-athletes.

207 Considering absolute contribution (Figure 1, Panel C), there were significant differences  
208 between energetic systems ( $F=20.86$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and intensities ( $F=12.65$ ;  $p=0.001$ ), with no  
209 interactions between systems and groups, intensities and groups, nor systems x intensities x  
210 groups. Pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni *posthoc* test localised differences between the  
211 three energetic systems, with a p-value lower than 0.01, as well as between the three intensities,  
212 with p-values lower than 0.001. Repeated measures showed a linear trend for decrease the  
213 participation of energetic system contribution (aerobic, lactic, and alactic) for kcal ( $F=98.49$ ;  
214  $p<0.001$ ), kJ ( $F=98.48$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and litres of  $O_2$  ( $F=98.45$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), as well as a linear  
215 reduction of kcal amount ( $F=110.2$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), kJ amount ( $F=110.22$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and litres of  $O_2$   
216 consumed ( $F=109.87$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) considering all intensities (115%, 130%, and 170%). For the  
217 total amount of kcal, kJ, and litres of  $O_2$ , no differences were found between non-athletes and  
218 athletes, but there were significant differences between intensities ( $F=22.81$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), with no

219 interactions between groups and intensity. As a partial analysis by each energetic system, in total  
220 amount were found a linear trend for intensity in kcal ( $F=106.52$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), kJ ( $F=106.52$ ;  
221  $p<0.001$ ) and litres of  $O_2$  ( $F=109.9$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), with p-values lower than 0.001 for all comparisons  
222 (115%PPO vs 130%PPO; 115%PPO vs 170%PPO and 130%PPO vs 170%PPO).

223 Concerning relative energetic contribution system, there was no effect of group (non-  
224 athletes vs cycling athletes), but there were significant differences between intensities ( $F=39.3$ ;  
225  $p<0.001$ ), and systems ( $F=411.0$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), with no significant interactions between group and  
226 intensity, group and energetic system. There was no interaction between intensity and energetic  
227 systems contribution ( $F=47.81$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Finally, we found no interaction between group,  
228 intensity, and energetic system.

229 Considering the intensity and energetic systems (Figure 1, Panel A), at 115%PPO and  
230 130%PPO, the aerobic contribution was higher than lactic ( $p<0.001$ ) and alactic ( $p<0.001$ ), with  
231 no difference between lactic and alactic. At 170%PPO, the aerobic contribution was different  
232 from lactic ( $p<0.001$ ) and alactic ( $p=0.02$ ), and lactic was different from alactic ( $p=0.04$ ).  
233 Additionally, the aerobic contribution was different considering the three selected intensities,  
234 115%PPO was higher than both 130%PPO ( $p<0.001$ ) and 170%PPO ( $p<0.001$ ), and 130%PPO  
235 was higher than 170%PPO ( $p<0.001$ ). The lactic contribution was higher at 170%PPO in  
236 comparison to 115%PPO, and alactic contribution was higher at 170%PPO in comparison to  
237 115%PPO ( $p<0.001$ ) and 130%PPO ( $p=0.02$ ).

238 In absolute values (Figure 2, panel A), we found significant differences for intensity  
239 ( $F=8.35$ ;  $p=0.05$ ), with increased  $O_2$  consumption at 130%PPO (p-value = 0.005 in comparison  
240 to 115%PPO and 170%PPO), and higher  $O_2$  consumption in athletes ( $F=6.20$ ;  $p=0.02$ ), with no  
241 interactions between intensities and groups ( $F=4.36$ ;  $p=0.05$ ). The panel B from figure 2 shows

242 that the three intensities reached different relative values to  $VO_{2MAX}$  ( $F=3.25$ ;  $p=0.05$ ), and the  
243 *post-hoc* test pointed difference between 115%PPO and 130%PPO ( $p=0.008$ ), with no  
244 differences between non-athletes and athletes, nor interactions. Additionally, there was a  
245 quadratic trend in these relative values ( $F=11.30$ ;  $p=0.005$ ).

246

247 *Please, insert table 1 near here.*

248 *Please, insert figure 1 near here.*

249 *Please, insert figure 2 near here.*

250

## 251 **Discussion**

252 The present study aimed to analyse and compare the energetic system contribution in the  
253 20s:10s HIIE with three different intensities in cycling athletes and non-athletes. As main  
254 findings, we found: i) the relative dominance of the aerobic system in all three intensities when  
255 compared with lactic and alactic systems; ii) the inability to perform the initially proposed  
256 number of sprints associated with 170%PPO when the load is calculated from graded exercise  
257 test; iii) the 130%PPO promoted higher oxygen consumption, but only in cyclists.

258 Previously, Gaitanos et al. (1993) showed that the lactic system participation reduced  
259 significantly from the first to the tenth sprint of 6s:30s, and, at the end of the exercise, the energy  
260 was predominantly from the alactic system, followed by an increase in aerobic contribution.  
261 Trump et al. (1996) applied intermittent exercise with different effort:pause structure (30s:240s).  
262 However, the results have a similar reduction in anaerobic systems participation and an increase  
263 in the aerobic system participation. Recently, Panissa et al. (2018) studied a short-form of HIIE,  
264 and their findings also reinforced the raising of aerobic contribution during HIIE. Most of the  
265 findings regarding energy systems contributions could be related to training volume, total effort

266 duration, or, specifically in HIIE, the sum of repeated efforts (Buchheit & Laursen 2013b). As  
267 these variables increase, the contribution of the aerobic system also rises (Gastin 2001; Glaister  
268 2005; Trump et al. 1996).

269         Based on this, it was not surprising that the protocols showed high aerobic contribution  
270 (Gaitanos et al. 1993). Even the low exercise duration, found in the 170%PPO condition, had an  
271 average length of approximately 120 seconds. About 1/3 of this time involved pause periods, in  
272 which aerobic contribution is very high (Brooks & Mercier 1994). The more substantial aerobic  
273 contribution found in the 115%PPO would be explained by the relatively lower required  
274 anaerobic contribution for lower exercise intensities. Furthermore, 115%PPO allowed more  
275 repetitions, contributing to a longer duration in the session (488 seconds, vs 258 and 128 in  
276 130%PPO and 170%PPO, respectively). We also observed that, as the intensity increases, the  
277 anaerobic systems exert a higher relative, but not absolute, contribution. This higher relative  
278 contribution might have occurred because, when exercising at higher intensities, it allowed a  
279 lower number of bouts, reducing the total duration of the effort.

280         Despite the high blood [La-], frequently higher than 11 mmol.L<sup>-1</sup>, the relative glycolytic  
281 contribution was not so high, probably since each lactate unit corresponds to only 3 ml.O<sub>2</sub>.kg<sup>-1</sup>  
282 (Bertuzzi et al. 2016; Bertuzzi et al. 2007; Campos et al. 2012), and the participants had higher  
283 oxygen consumption than accumulated lactate, even after respective conversion. This fact  
284 reinforces the hypothesis that measuring the glycolytic contribution of a given exercise  
285 considering only the blood [La-] might not be recommended (Bertuzzi et al. 2016), or the  
286 glycolytic contribution is quite small during some HIIE (Gaitanos et al. 1993; Trump et al.  
287 1996). Another possibility is that a greater amount of lactate was metabolised within the muscle  
288 when the exercise was longer (Brooks 1986); possibly reducing the lactic contribution. It is

289 important to highlight that the assumption of equating  $1 \text{ mmol.L}^{-1}$  of lactate to  $3 \text{ ml.O}_2.\text{kg}^{-1}$   
290 stands for submaximal exercises. However, many other studies used that to access supramaximal  
291 exercises lactic contribution (Bertuzzi et al. 2007; Campos et al. 2012; Lopes-Silva et al. 2015).  
292 Further comparisons using direct measurements (i.e., muscle biopsy) should be made to confirm  
293 the reliability and replicability of this method.

294         The athletes presented higher blood  $[\text{La}^-]$  for all intensities, therefore, also presented a  
295 higher absolute lactic contribution, this occurred probably due to the greater anaerobic capacity  
296 of this population (Ponorac et al. 2007), which contributed to the higher power output during the  
297 efforts. Regarding oxygen consumption in athletes, the highest value was in 130%PPO.  
298 Considering that maintaining higher  $\text{VO}_2$  values during exercise is essential for  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$  increase  
299 (Midgley & Mc Naughton 2006), the optimal intensity for aerobic power development in  
300 athletes, in this time structure, would be near to 130%PPO. Previously, on a treadmill, other  
301 studies demonstrated that for 30s:15s training in active young men and 15s:15s in middle-aged  
302 runners, the intensities of  $110\%v\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$  and  $100\%v\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ , respectively, presented the higher  
303 oxygen consumption (Aguiar et al. 2013; Billat et al. 2001). Otherwise, subjects maintained the  
304  $\text{VO}_2$  closed to 90-95% of the  $\text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$ , which is lower than the 100% reached in the original  
305 study and questioned the author's statement that the 'Tabata training' should be considered as  
306 "one of the most energetically effective exercise training protocols for maximally improving  
307 both the aerobic and anaerobic energy-supplying systems" (Tabata 2019).

308         Interestingly, at the initially suggested intensity of  $170\% \text{VO}_{2\text{MAX}}$  (Tabata et al. 1996),  
309 most of the athletes and non-athletes were unable to complete the 7-8 sprints. This aspect was  
310 previously questioned (Viana et al. 2018c), and these incompatibilities are possibly due to the  
311 differences between the tests used to obtain the training loads (Tabata 2019), which put some

312 light in this debatable point from the findings of the present investigation. While Tabata et al.  
313 (1996) used an obsolete, unpractical and questionable protocol that requires a large number of  
314 10-min visits to the laboratory (Bangsbo 1992; Medbo et al. 1988), Viana et al. (2018c) and we  
315 used the traditional, worldwide-used, and very practical maximal graded exercise test (Buchheit  
316 & Laursen 2013b).

317       Even using a similar graded testing protocol, our findings are different from those found  
318 by Viana et al. (Viana et al. 2018c), in which the intensity of 115%PPO allowed the  
319 accomplishment of  $7 \pm 1$  sprints, our results suggest that it is possible to perform this same  
320 number of bouts at a higher intensity (130% PPO). Probably this difference is due to the type of  
321 ergometer used since previous authors used a magnetic locking model. In contrast, the present  
322 study used a mechanical braking device, similar to that used by Tabata et al. (1996). Such  
323 differences further reinforce the problem of generalisation of interval protocols reported in  
324 previous studies (Viana et al. 2018c), especially regarding the protocol proposed by Tabata et al.  
325 (Tabata et al. 1996; Viana et al. 2018a).

326       There seems to be an apparent conflict in the structural variables of the HIIE protocol  
327 with the 20s:10s effort:pause structure as commonly used (Tabata et al. 1996). According to  
328 previous studies, we classify as a short HIIE model (effort and pause block lasting less than one  
329 minute). However, the intensity close to 170% $VO_{2MAX}$  is characteristic of Sprint Interval  
330 Training models (Buchheit & Laursen 2013a). Notwithstanding, the effort:pause ratio for sprint  
331 interval training is 1:4-8 due to the need to recover anaerobic pathways to maintain an elevated  
332 power output (Brooks & Mercier 1994; Glaister 2005), whereas in the classic 20s:10s protocol  
333 this ratio is 2:1. This conflict might explain why it was not possible to reach 7-8 bouts when  
334 using 20s:10s, with a load equivalent to 170% $VO_{2MAX}$ , even in athletes.

335 Finally, despite the methodological issues that we should consider regarding this specific  
336 HIIE protocol (Gentil et al. 2016; Tabata et al. 1996; Viana et al. 2018c), its potential to induce  
337 positive physiological changes should be recognised (Ma et al. 2013; Miyamoto-Mikami et al.  
338 2018; Scribbans et al. 2014; Tabata et al. 1996). Both "classical" studies by the "Tabata" group  
339 showed that participants could achieve relevant aerobic and anaerobic improvements in a very  
340 high time-efficient manner (Tabata et al. 1996). More recently, the same group showed that this  
341 protocol could significantly increase aerobic power, maximal accumulated oxygen deficit, and  
342 thigh muscle cross-sectional area (Miyamoto-Mikami et al. 2018). Further longitudinal studies  
343 should investigate this 20s:10s protocol at an intensity range of 115 to 130%PPO in order to raise  
344 the time near and at  $VO_{2MAX}$ .

## 345 **Conclusions**

346 In conclusion, to a 20s:10s HIIE protocol, the aerobic contribution is predominant,  
347 independently of the intensity applied in a range from 115%PPO to 170%PPO. Despite that, the  
348 lower the intensity, the higher is the aerobic contribution, and 130%PPO is the suggested  
349 intensity to induce higher  $VO_2$  in trained cyclists. Finally, to reach about eight sprints, we  
350 propose the intensity of 130% the power at  $VO_{2MAX}$  obtained in a graded test, either for athletes  
351 or non-athletes.

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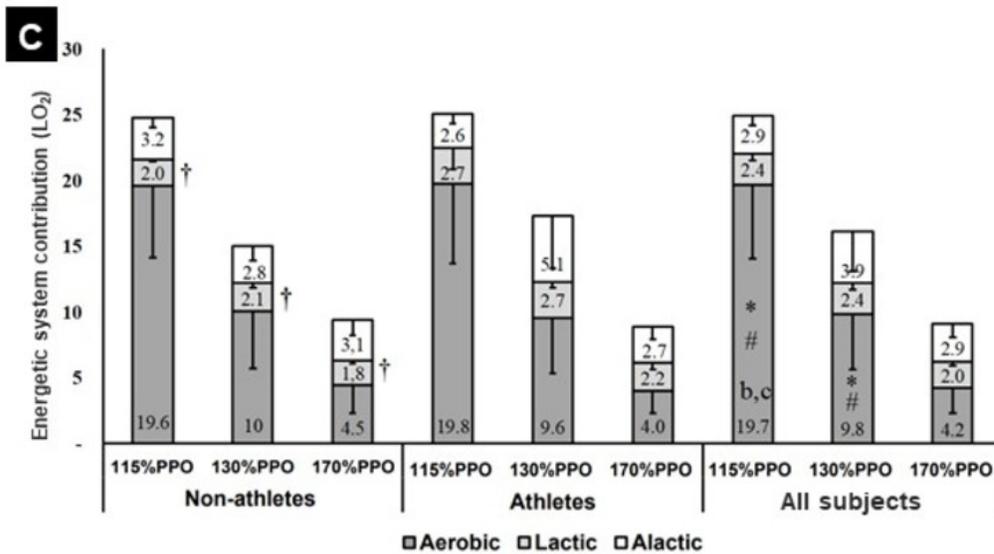
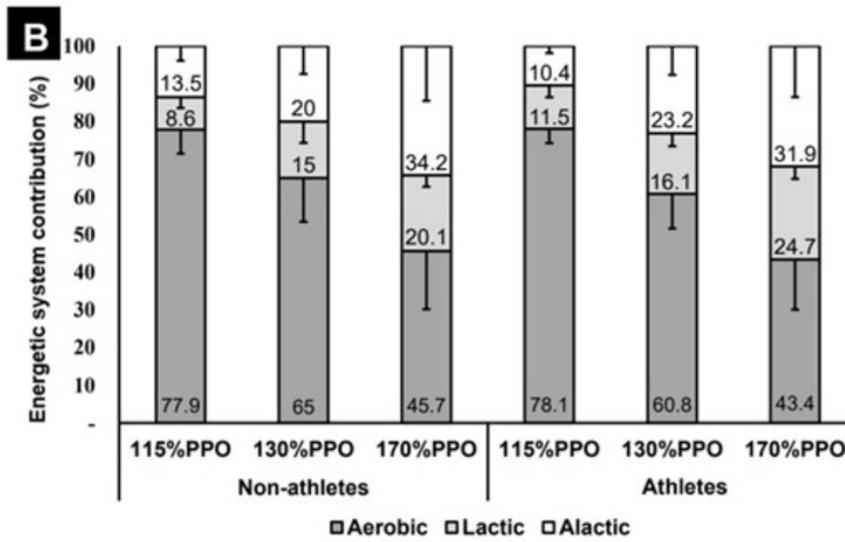
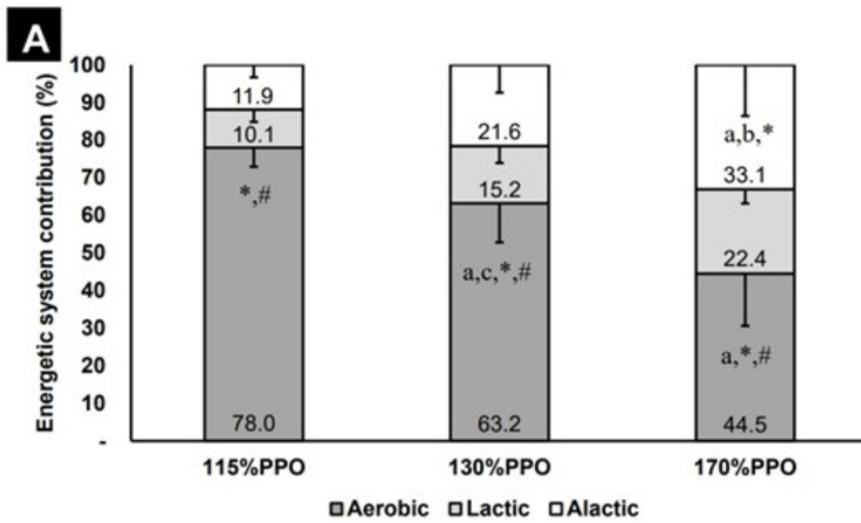
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# Figure 1

Energetic system contribution during the 20s:10s protocol at different intensities (n = 16).

(A) The relative contribution of the energetic system in all subjects. (B) Comparison between athletes and non-athletes of the relative contribution of the energetic system. (C) The absolute contribution of the energetic systems in non-athletes, athletes, and all subjects.

\* = different from lactic contribution; # = different from alactic contribution; a, b, c = different from 115%PPO, 130%PPO, and 170%PPO respectively, considering each energetic system; † = different from cycling athletes, for the same intensity and energetic system; PPO = peak power output.

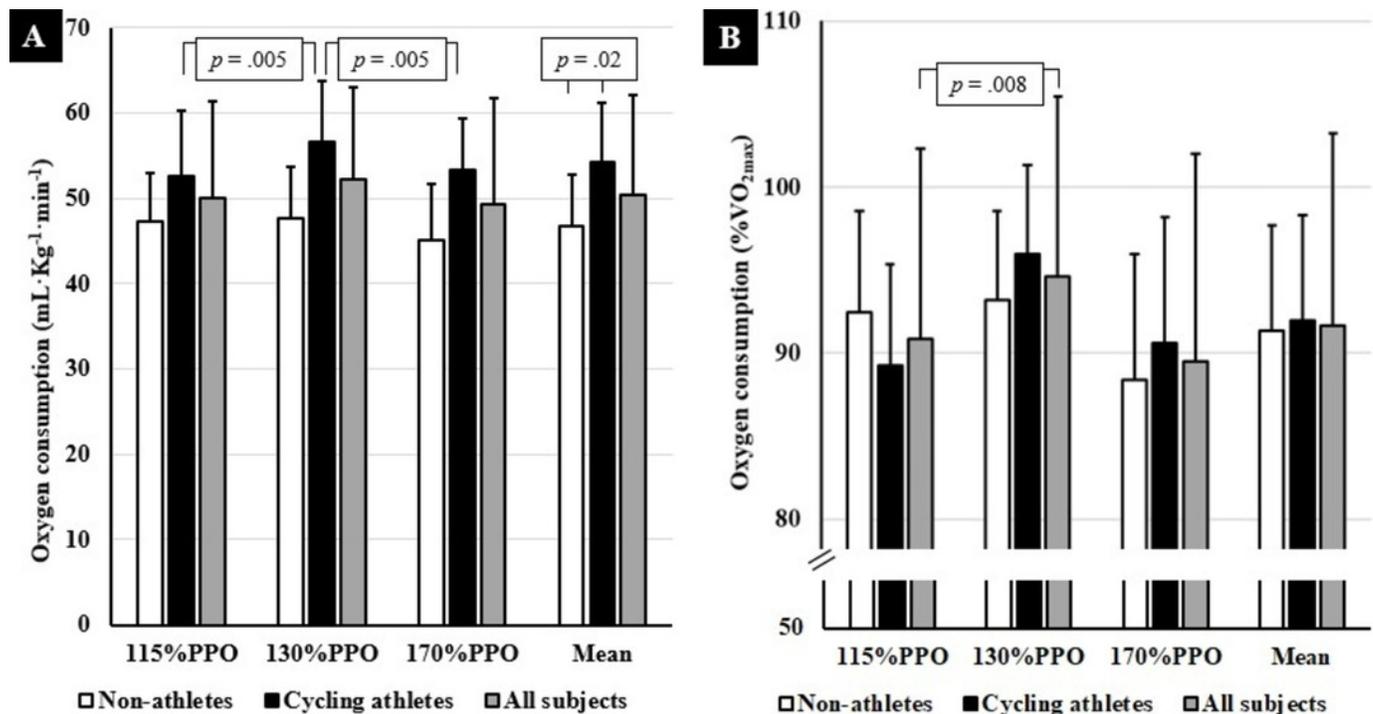


## Figure 2

Oxygen consumption during the 20s:10s exercise at different intensities (n=16).

(A) Relative to body mass and (B) relative to the maximal oxygen consumption, at 115%PPO, 130%PPO, and 170%PPO, in non-athletes and athletes.

PPO = Peak power output.



**Table 1** (on next page)

Descriptive data from mechanical and physiological variables (n=16).

\* = all intensities are different between them ( $p < 0.001$ ); # = difference between 115% and 170% ( $p < 0.001$ ).

Variable	Non-athletes (n=8)		Athletes (n=8)		Total		Group F (p)	Intensity F (p)	Interaction F (p)
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD			
Number of sprints (reps)*							1.2 (0.28)	173.3 (<0.001)	0.2 (0.79)
115%PPO	17.13	±3.60	15.50	±3.34	16.31	±3.46			
130%PPO	9.13	±2.53	8.13	±1.81	8.63	±2.19			
170%PPO	4.63	±1.60	3.88	±1.25	4.25	±1.44			
Mean power output (w)*							18.2 (0.001)	104.5 (<0.001)	4.0 (0.65)
115%PPO	339.75	±28.69	411.25	±52.21	375.50	±54.95			
130%PPO	392.88	±44.05	515.38	±60.18	454.13	±81.22			
170%PPO	503.00	±50.50	653.38	±110.10	578.19	±113.48			
Blood lactate (mmol.L <sup>-1</sup> )							13.9 (0.002)	4.46 (0.021)	1.9 (0.16)
115%PPO	12.07	±0.82	14.37	±1.53	13.22	±1.68			
130%PPO	12.99	±1.53	13.66	±0.88	13.32	±1.25			
170%PPO	11.28	±1.60	13.07	±1.21	12.17	±1.65			
Peak heart rate (bpm)#							2.3 (0.15)	309.6 (<0.001)	0.3 (0.74)
115%PPO	180.88	±9.19	187.50	±8.72	184.19	±9.30			
130%PPO	180.63	±9.78	185.25	±9.15	182.94	±9.45			
170%PPO	174.13	±12.32	178.00	±10.45	176.06	±11.22			
Heart rate (%HRmax)							1.5 (0.24)	162.2 (<0.001)	0.02 (0.98)
115%PPO	93.88	±4.63	99.49	±4.02	96.68	±5.09			
130%PPO	93.76	±5.28	98.28	±4.17	96.02	±5.16			
170%PPO	90.37	±6.27	94.41	±4.34	92.39	±5.61			