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1 **Exceeding a “critical” muscle P_i : implications for $\dot{V}O_2$ and**
2 **metabolite slow components, muscle fatigue and the**
3 **power-duration relationship**

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5
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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 **Purpose**

20 Consequences of the assumption that the additional ATP usage (corresponding to
21 power output), underlying the slow component of oxygen consumption ($\dot{V}O_2$) and
22 metabolite on-kinetics, starts when cytosolic inorganic phosphate (P_i) exceeds a
23 certain “critical” P_i concentration, and muscle work terminates because of fatigue
24 when P_i exceeds a certain, higher, “peak” P_i concentration, are investigated.

25 **Methods**

26 A previously-developed computer model of the myocyte bioenergetic system is used.

27 **Results**

28 Simulated time-courses of muscle $\dot{V}O_2$, cytosolic ADP, pH, PCr and P_i at various
29 ATP usage activities agreed well with experimental data. Computer simulations
30 resulted in a hyperbolic power-duration relationship, with critical power (CP) as an
31 asymptote. CP was increased, and phase II $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics was accelerated, by
32 progressive increase in oxygen tension (hyperoxia).

33 **Conclusions**

34 P_i is a major factor responsible for the slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolite on-
35 kinetics, fatigue-related muscle work termination and hyperbolic power-duration
36 relationship. The successful generation of experimental system properties suggests
37 that the additional ATP usage, underlying the slow component, indeed starts when
38 cytosolic P_i exceeds a “critical” P_i concentration, and muscle work terminates when P_i
39 exceeds a “peak” P_i concentration. The contribution of other factors, such as
40 cytosolic acidification, or glycogen depletion and central fatigue should not be
41 excluded. Thus, a detailed quantitative unifying mechanism underlying various
42 phenomena related to skeletal muscle fatigue and exercise tolerance is offered that
43 was absent in the literature. This mechanism is driven by reciprocal stimulation of P_i
44 increase and additional ATP usage when “critical” P_i is exceeded.

45

46 **Keywords:** $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics; power output; critical power; exercise duration; computer
47 model.

48

49 **Abbreviations:** A_{UT} , relative of ATP usage activity; CP, critical power; OXPHOS,
50 oxidative phosphorylation; PCr, phosphocreatine; P_i , inorganic phosphate; PO, power
51 output; $\dot{V}O_2$, oxygen uptake (muscle or pulmonary).

52

53

54 INTRODUCTION

55 The understanding of the mechanisms underlying neuromuscular fatigue,
56 decreased work efficiency and of the factors that bring about exercise intolerance is
57 of fundamental importance for muscle and exercise physiology, sport sciences and
58 medicine. Unfortunately, the factors leading to, and mechanisms involved in, these
59 phenomena are still to a large extent unknown.

60 Muscle fatigue causes a loss of muscle performance (Allen *et al.* 2008; Allen
61 and Westerblad 2001) characterized by a reduction of muscle force or power for a
62 given muscle activation (Enoka and Duchateau 2008; Grassi *et al.* 2015). During
63 voluntary exercise, peripheral fatigue contributes to task failure, by reducing the
64 ability of muscle force or power production to meet the requirements of the task.
65 Central fatigue may also contribute via a reduction in the intensity of nervous
66 stimulation of active muscles despite maximal voluntary effort (Gandevia, 2001).
67 Central fatigue is associated with stimulation of mechano- and/or metabo-receptors in
68 working muscle and a consequent reduction in cortical, spinal, motor neuron or
69 sarcolemmal activity.

70 The precise mechanisms of peripheral fatigue are not known, but include
71 change in myocyte metabolites and pH, reduced Ca^{2+} release and sensitivity,
72 reactive oxygen species (ROS) and/or glycogen depletion (Allen *et al.* 2008; Wan *et*
73 *al.* 2018; Cooke *et al.* 1988). Intramuscular metabolites including P_i , H^+ , ADP, lactate,
74 ATP, and Mg^{2+} have been implicated in mediating peripheral fatigue (see Allen *et al.*
75 2008 for review). Among these, P_i is thought to be the primary fatigue-causing
76 metabolite (Allen *et al.* 2008). P_i inhibits the transition to high-force cross-bridge
77 states and decreases myofibrillar Ca^{2+} sensitivity. P_i can also precipitate with Ca^{2+}
78 ions in sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR), depleting Ca^{2+} release following excitation (Allen
79 *et al.* 2008; Allen and Westerblad, 2001). This process is somewhat delayed by the
80 time needed for P_i to enter SR (Allen and Westerblad, 2001). The precipitation of
81 Ca^{2+} with P_i may explain why, towards the limit of sustained muscle contractions,
82 only a small increase in P_i may cause a significant depletion of free Ca^{2+} (Allen and
83 Westerblad, 2001), interfering with excitation-contraction coupling and thus
84 contributing to termination of muscle work.

85 The dependence of power output (PO) on the tolerable duration of voluntary
86 constant-power exercise is essentially hyperbolic, at least for exercise lasting about 2
87 – 15 min (Jones *et al.* 2010; Poole *et al.* 2016). The asymptote of this hyperbola is
88 termed critical power (CP). During exercise above CP, muscle metabolic demand is
89 unable to stabilize, as reflected in the progressive non-steady-state behavior of $\dot{\text{V}}\text{O}_2$,
90 cytosolic metabolite concentrations or pH (Poole *et al.* 1988; Jones *et al.* 2010; Poole
91 *et al.* 2016). The non-steady-state behavior in oxidative metabolism during exercise
92 above CP is termed the $\dot{\text{V}}\text{O}_2$ slow component. It is proposed to result from additional
93 intramuscular ATP usage, resulting in a progressive loss of work efficiency (Rossiter
94 *et al.* 2002; Rossiter, 2011; Jones *et al.* 2011). CP can be modulated within
95 individuals by endurance training (Jenkins and Quigley, 1992), or acutely, by using

96 different cycling frequencies (Barker *et al.* 2006) or by breathing hypoxic or hyperoxic
97 gas mixtures (Vanhatalo *et al.* 2010; Goulding *et al.* 2019).

98 The mechanisms underlying the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolite slow components,
99 muscle work termination because of peripheral fatigue and hyperbolic shape of the
100 power-duration relationship are still unclear. We postulated recently that P_i
101 accumulation is a major factor responsible for fatigue-related exercise cessation and
102 the parameters of the hyperbolic power-duration relationship, at least for exercise
103 durations of approximately 1 – 10 min (Korzeniewski, 2019). This simulation was built
104 on assumptions that: 1) additional ATP usage underlies the slow component of the
105 $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolites on-kinetics (Rossiter *et al.* 2002; Rossiter, 2011; Jones *et al.*
106 2011); 2) additional ATP usage starts at the very beginning of exercise (Korzeniewski
107 and Zoladz, 2015; Korzeniewski and Rossiter, 2015); and 3) additional ATP usage
108 increases linearly with the difference between the current ATP usage activity A_{UT}
109 (proportional to PO for a given type of exercise) and the critical ATP usage activity
110 A_{UTcrit} (corresponding to CP) ($A_{UT}-A_{UTcrit}$) (Korzeniewski, 2018b). These assumptions
111 led generally to a good agreement of computer simulations with experimental data for
112 constant-power, step-incremental and ramp-incremental exercise (Korzeniewski and
113 Rossiter, 2015; Korzeniewski 2018a, 2018b, 2019). Nevertheless, the simulation
114 output relied in part on the phenomenological descriptions of a fixed CP, independent
115 of experimental conditions, and on a linear increase of additional ATP usage with
116 time and PO above CP.

117 This theoretical study tested the hypothesis that P_i accumulation can be not
118 only a major factor responsible for fatigue-related termination of exercise (at peak P_i)
119 (Korzeniewski, 2019), but also for the initiation, magnitude and time course of the
120 additional ATP usage, and thus for the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolite slow component.
121 Exceeding a “critical” P_i accumulation (where critical P_i is lower than peak P_i) would
122 initiate the onset of additional ATP usage, which in turn underlies the slow
123 component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics and metabolite levels. A general reciprocal
124 stimulating relationship between metabolic fluxes and/or metabolite concentrations
125 on the one hand, and muscle fatigue on the other hand, was proposed previously
126 (Korzeniewski and Zoladz, 2003; Murgatroyd and Wydle, 2011). The present study
127 offers a detailed concrete mechanism of the relation among metabolite accumulation,
128 muscle fatigue, exercise inefficiency and intolerance via the concept of “critical” P_i
129 accumulation. It is hypothesized that the additional ATP usage appears with some
130 delay after exercise onset and becomes activated with a characteristic activation time
131 when cytosolic P_i concentration exceeds critical P_i . It is also supposed that a
132 mechanism of exercise termination based on peak P_i will result in a power-duration
133 relationship that closely conforms to the expected hyperbolic shape, and which does
134 not rely upon the phenomenological mechanisms (direct dependence on power
135 output) used previously (Korzeniewski, 2019). Thus, P_i accumulation would be a
136 unifying mechanism underlying various phenomena related to muscle fatigue,
137 inefficiency and exercise limitation. Despite the consensus for the role of P_i in

138 metabolic control and the etiology of fatigue, no detailed mechanism of its action has
139 been proposed or modelled.

140

141 **THEORETICAL METHODS**

142 ***Ethical approval***

143 This is a purely theoretical study that did not involve any experiments on
144 humans or animals.

145 ***Computer model***

146 For these simulations we used an established computer model of OXPHOS
147 and the entire bioenergetic system in intact skeletal muscle (Korzeniewski and
148 Zoladz, 2001; Korzeniewski and Liguzinski, 2004; Korzeniewski and Rossiter, 2015;
149 Korzeniewski, 2018a, 2018b)-The complete model description is given in
150 (Korzeniewski, 2019) and located on the web site: <http://awe.mol.uj.edu.pl/~benio/>.

151 In previous research, this model was used to identify several, and seemingly
152 unrelated, kinetic properties of the skeletal muscle bioenergetic system during
153 exercise (see Korzeniewski, 2017a for a recent review, and Korzeniewski, 2018a,
154 2018b, 2019).

155 ***Simulation procedures***

156 A range of rest-to-work transitions for voluntary constant-power exercise was
157 simulated as described in (Korzeniewski, 2018a).

158 The relative activity of ATP usage A_{UT} (relative increase in its rate constant k_{UT}
159 in relation to rest) between 50 and 110 (maximum A_{UT}) was used in computer
160 simulations. It was demonstrated that one A_{UT} unit corresponds to approximately 3 W
161 during cycle ergometer exercise (Korzeniewski, 2018a). We note that this value may
162 vary between about 2-4 W, depending on e.g. the mass of the working musculature
163 or mode of exercise.

164 It was assumed that the additional ATP usage (Korzeniewski and Rossiter,
165 2015) starts above a certain critical P_i concentration, $P_{i,crit} = 18$ mM. The choice of
166 this value was empirical. It was based within the approximate range of values from
167 rest to peak exercise that are encountered in human ^{31}P MRS studies of skeletal
168 muscle bioenergetics and the approximate concentration when the metabolite and
169 $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component begins (e.g. Jones *et al.* 2008); although of course it can be
170 somewhat different in different experiments. Additional ATP usage is that in excess of
171 regular ATP usage, which, itself, is proportional to PO for any given mode of
172 exercise. In order to avoid excessive mutual self-acceleration of the additional ATP
173 usage and P_i increase resulting from positive feedback (P_i stimulates additional ATP
174 usage, and additional ATP usage elevates P_i), it was assumed that the additional
175 ATP usage depends linearly on the square root of the difference between the actual

176 P_i and $P_{i_{crit}}$ ($P_i - P_{i_{crit}}$) and that it starts gradually with some characteristic activation
 177 time t_a . The following kinetic expression for the additional ATP usage was used in the
 178 present study.

$$179 \quad v_{add} = k_{add} \cdot v_{UT} \cdot (P_i - P_{i_{crit}})^{0.5} \cdot 10^{-t_a/t_{add}} \quad (1)$$

180 where v_{add} is the rate of additional ATP usage (mM min^{-1}), $k_{add} = 0.2 \text{ mM}^{-1}$ is the 'rate
 181 constant' of the additional ATP usage, v_{UT} is the rate of the regular ATP usage (mM
 182 min^{-1}), P_i is the current inorganic phosphate concentration (mM), $P_{i_{crit}} = 18 \text{ mM}$ is the
 183 critical P_i for the initiation of the additional ATP usage, $t_a = 2 \text{ min}$ is the characteristic
 184 time of the activation of the additional ATP usage and t_{add} is the time after reaching
 185 $P_{i_{crit}}$ (min). Thus, v_{add} begins when P_i exceeds $P_{i_{crit}}$ and depends linearly on the
 186 square root of $(P_i - P_{i_{crit}})$. Its activation increases gradually with time according to the
 187 exponential dependence: $10^{-t_a/t_{add}}$. As mentioned above, the last two properties were
 188 introduced to prevent a too strong positive feedback loop leading to a very rapid
 189 increase in time of P_i , additional ATP usage and $\dot{V}O_2$ that would contradict
 190 experimental data. Some experimental findings to support this assumption are
 191 presented in the Discussion.

192 The mechanism underlying the additional ATP usage, based on the difference
 193 between the current ATP usage activity (proportional to PO in a given type of
 194 exercise) and the critical ATP usage activity (corresponding to CP), involving linear
 195 increase in time, used in previous studies (Korzeniewski, 2018a, 1028b, 2019 and
 196 earlier), can be regarded as a phenomenological approximation of the mechanism
 197 based on the $P_i - P_{i_{crit}}$ difference used in this study. Here, CP and the $\dot{V}O_2$ and
 198 metabolite slow components emerge from the dependence of the additional ATP
 199 usage on P_i described by Equ. 1.

200 The total absolute ATP usage flux $v_{UT_{tot}}$ (in mM min^{-1}) is equal to the sum of
 201 the regular and additional absolute ATP usage rate:

$$202 \quad v_{UT_{tot}} = v_{UT} + v_{UT_{add}} \quad (2)$$

203 It was assumed in this study, as in (Korzeniewski, 2019), that muscular work is
 204 stopped when P_i accumulates to a pre-specified peak P_i concentration, $P_{i_{peak}} = 25$
 205 mM . We have chosen this value, because this is more or less the maximum P_i
 206 observed in many experimental studies, although of course it can be somewhat
 207 different in different experiments (some studies report significantly higher maximum
 208 P_i values). Therefore, each simulation was continued until P_i reached 25 mM , and
 209 then terminated. The values of variables of interest were recorded at the point of
 210 termination. We found very similar results when $P_{i_{peak}} = 27 \text{ mM}$ was assumed (not
 211 shown). Therefore, we propose that the specific value of $P_{i_{peak}}$ is of minor
 212 importance; the feature that $P_{i_{peak}}$ is identical for different ATP usage intensities is
 213 that which conveys the information relevant for the investigation of the hyperbolic
 214 power-duration relationship.

215 The power-duration (ATP usage activity-duration) relationship emerges from
216 the above assumptions, especially those describing that additional ATP usage is a
217 concrete function of the P_i concentration above $P_{i,crit}$ and that muscle work is
218 terminated when P_i exceeds $P_{i,peak}$. Thus, intrinsic features that contribute to the rate
219 of increase in $P_i - P_{i,crit}$, such as absolute PO, OXPHOS activity and ESA (Each Step
220 Activation) intensity, therefore determine the development of v_{add} and the $\dot{V}O_2$ and
221 metabolite slow components, which eventually cause P_i to reach $P_{i,peak}$ and
222 termination of exercise. Therefore, in these simulations, P_i accumulation plays a
223 central role as a factor underlying various fatigue-related phenomena in skeletal
224 muscle.

225

226 THEORETICAL RESULTS

227 The simulated time course after the onset of exercise of the total (regular +
228 additional) ATP usage for different ATP usage activities (A_{UT}), obtained using the
229 kinetics of the additional ATP usage described in Equ. 1, are presented in Fig. 1.
230 Additional ATP usage does not start at the very onset of exercise, but somewhat
231 later, after P_i exceeds the $P_{i,crit}$ (18 mM) (the regular ATP usage remains essentially
232 constant for a given A_{UT}). From this point, the additional (and total) ATP usage begins
233 to increase. This increase first accelerates, because of the characteristic activation
234 time of the additional ATP usage ($t_a = 2$ min) and moderate reciprocal stimulation by
235 P_i accumulation and the additional ATP usage, and then slows, according to the
236 square root dependence of the additional ATP usage on $P_i - P_{i,crit}$. For $A_{UT} = 50$ the
237 additional ATP usage does not appear, as P_i never reaches $P_{i,crit}$. For $A_{UT} = 70$ the
238 additional ATP usage starts to rise after about 1.5 min after the onset of exercise,
239 when P_i exceeds $P_{i,crit}$, but afterwards stabilizes (reaches a delayed steady-state).
240 Therefore, this exercise intensity is likely to be above the lactate threshold (LT), but
241 below critical power (CP). The exercise at $A_{UT} = 76$ is very close to the critical A_{UT}
242 ($A_{UT,crit}$, corresponding to CP), equal to 75 (see below), and therefore the additional
243 ATP usage increases here very slowly with time.

244

FIGURE 1

245 The time courses of particular processes supplying ATP are also presented in
246 Fig. 1. The on-kinetics of the ATP supply by OXPHOS and aerobic glycolysis,
247 equivalent to the $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics, exhibits a principal phase, which is analogous to
248 phase II of pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics, at $A_{UT} = 50$. At the same time, both a principal
249 phase and a slow-component phase can be observed at higher ATP usage activities.
250 Creatine kinase is the main source of ATP during the first seconds of exercise, but
251 the intensity of this process quickly falls to near zero. The ATP production by
252 anaerobic glycolysis first increases significantly after the onset of exercise, reaching
253 maximum after 20-30 s, and then gradually falls to very low values within about first 2
254 min of exercise. Anaerobic glycolysis is first stimulated by a direct activation and

255 increase in ADP, and afterwards inhibited by accumulating protons (see
256 Korzeniewski and Liguzinski, 2004; Korzeniewski and Rossiter, 2015).

257 Simulations of the time course of muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ increase over a range of
258 different ATP usage activities (A_{UT}) during constant-power exercise is shown in Fig. 2
259 A. As in the case of ATP supply by OXPHOS, muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ exhibits both a principal
260 phase II component and a slow component for the ATP usage activities above $A_{UT} =$
261 50. Above the critical A_{UT} ($A_{UTcrit} = 75$; analogous to CP; see below), a continuous
262 increase in $\dot{V}O_2$ with time is observed until the exercise cessation. The characteristic
263 delayed-phase behavior of the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component kinetics is for the first time
264 observed in these simulations (at approximately 1-2 minutes after exercise onset). At
265 the moment of exercise termination, muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ is essentially identical (13.3 mM
266 min^{-1}) for all rates of A_{UT} simulated that exceed $A_{UTcrit} = 75$.

267 **FIGURE 2**

268 Fig. 2 B shows that simulated ADP increases and pH decreases (after an
269 initial rise) during exercise, with rates of change that slow over time, especially for
270 lower ATP usage activities. In these computer simulations, different ATP usage
271 activities resulted in similar values, although not identical, for end-exercise ADP and
272 also for pH. The greatest end-exercise ADP is seen at the highest exercise
273 intensities, while lowest pH values are seen at ATP usage activities from 80 to 85.

274 During simulated exercise P_i increased, PCr decreased, and ATP remained
275 approximately constant-(these simulations assume no AMP deamination) (Fig. 2 C).
276 The end-exercise P_i was, by definition, the same for each different ATP usage
277 activity investigated. End-exercise PCr was also essentially identical for all ATP
278 usage activities.

279 The time course of $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolites exhibit a characteristic time-based
280 phases, or 'notch', for $A_{UT} = 70$. It is underlain by the sudden start of the additional
281 ATP usage shown in Fig. 1. Although it may look artificial, such 'notch' is sometimes
282 observed in experimental studies (see Discussion).

283 The results of these simulations give rise to an almost perfect hyperbolic
284 relationship between ATP usage activity (A_{UT}) and time to termination of exercise;
285 consequently the $A_{UT} \cdot 1/t$ (1/duration) relationship is (by definition) almost perfectly
286 linear. This is shown in Fig. 3. The parameter B in the fitted hyperbolic curve
287 corresponds to the critical ATP usage activity (A_{UTcrit} , analogous to CP) equal to 75.
288 This corresponds roughly to CP equal to 222 W for total power output or 210 W for
289 external power output, under the assumption that one A_{UT} unit corresponds to about
290 3 W (this correspondence can vary depending e.g. on the working muscle mass;
291 compare Korzeniewski, 2018b).

292 **FIGURE 3**

293 The influence of myocyte oxygen concentration on the ATP usage activity
294 (A_{UT})-duration relationship and the $A_{UT} \cdot 1/t$ (1/duration) relationship is shown in Fig. 4

295 and Fig. 5, respectively. It is assumed within the model that $O_2 = 30 \mu\text{M}$ corresponds
296 to normoxia, lower oxygen concentration to hypoxia, and higher to hyperoxia;
297 although it is the relative effect of O_2 concentration that is most important. It can be
298 seen that both the value of ATP usage activity (corresponding to PO) for a given
299 exercise duration time and the critical ATP usage activity (analogous to CP)
300 (estimated in Fig. 5) increases significantly with a rise in O_2 concentration. Also the
301 simulated characteristic transition time for $\dot{V}O_2 t_{0.63}$ (time to reach 63 % of the $\dot{V}O_2$
302 amplitude, analogous to τ_p , characteristic transition time of the principal phase II of
303 the $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics; see Korzeniewski *et al.* 2018) depends on the O_2 concentration;
304 it equals 28.2 s, 25.6 s, 24.6 s, 24.1 s and 23.6 s for O_2 concentration of 10 μM , 20
305 μM , 30 μM , 40 μM and 50 μM , respectively.

306 **FIGURE 4**

307 **FIGURE 5**

308

309

310 **DISCUSSION**

311 The findings of this theoretical study demonstrate that the following
312 assumptions results in numerous various properties of the skeletal muscle
313 bioenergetic system encountered in experimental studies: (1) in voluntary constant-
314 power skeletal muscle exercise the additional ATP usage, underlying the slow
315 component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolite on-kinetics, starts when P_i concentration
316 exceeds a certain critical value ($P_{i,crit}$); (2) the additional ATP usage increases as a
317 function of current the $P_i - P_{i,crit}$ difference; (3) muscle work terminates when P_i
318 concentration exceeds a certain (higher) peak value ($P_{i,peak}$). These demonstrations
319 include several features of muscle bioenergetics and muscle fatigue that are
320 consistent with experimental data: (1) changes in muscle $\dot{V}O_2$, cytosolic ADP, pH,
321 PCr and P_i as a function of time during on-transitions at various ATP usage activities
322 (corresponding to power outputs, POs); (2) shapes of the time courses of $\dot{V}O_2$ and
323 metabolites, including the slow components of $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolites, characteristic of
324 moderate, heavy and very heavy intensity exercise; (3) identical end-exercise $\dot{V}O_2$
325 and metabolite values at high rates of ATP usage activity; (4) the hyperbolic shape of
326 the power-duration relationship, with critical power (CP) as an asymptote; (5) the
327 hyperoxia-induced increase in CP and decrease in the characteristic transition time of
328 the principal phase II of the $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics ($t_{0.63}$, related to τ_p).

329 Thus, it is demonstrated that P_i is a plausible candidate for a major factor
330 responsible for the initiation and kinetics of the slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and
331 metabolites on-kinetics, muscle work termination because of fatigue, and the
332 hyperbolic power-duration relationship. Exceeding a “critical” threshold in P_i gives rise
333 to a series of events that presage muscle fatigue, and eventually, exercise
334 intolerance. The earlier this threshold is reached during exercise e.g. due to

335 increased PO, lowered O₂ or decreased OXPHOS activity, the earlier the onset and
336 greater the magnitude of the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component and the sooner the exercise
337 becomes limited. This critical P_i model provides the first working cellular simulation of
338 muscle bioenergetics that contains the inherent features required to both give rise to,
339 and determine the magnitude of, the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow component and characteristics of the
340 power-duration relationship. Overall, this can be called the “critical P_i” concept.

341 **Study logic**

342 This study is based on the following simple logic. Additional ATP usage
343 (Korzeniewski and Rossiter, 2015), which results in a decreased work efficiency
344 (PO/ATP ratio) and underlies the slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolite on-
345 kinetics (Jones *et al.* 2010; Poole *et al.* 2016), is initiated when cytosolic P_i exceeds a
346 certain critical P_i concentration (here set at 18 mM). We assume that the additional
347 ATP is activated with a characteristic activation time t_a (= 2 min) and is proportional to
348 the square root of the difference between the current P_i concentration and the critical
349 P_i concentration ($P_i - P_{i,crit}$). Subsequently, a self-driving mutual stimulation takes
350 place where a continuous increase in additional ATP usage gives rise to a
351 continuous increase in P_i concentration and so on. This mutual stimulation continues
352 until P_i reaches its peak P_i concentration (here set to 25 mM), and exercise is
353 terminated because of muscle fatigue (compare Korzeniewski, 2019). The resulting
354 relationship between $A_{UT}-t_{term}$ is strikingly similar to the hyperbolic ATP usage activity-
355 duration curve, with an asymptote at the critical ATP usage activity ($A_{UT,crit}$). Because
356 for any given mode of exercise, A_{UT} is proportional to PO, $A_{UT,crit}$ therefore
357 corresponds to CP and the hyperbolic ATP usage activity-duration curve corresponds
358 to power-duration curve. Overall, this logic provides a detailed concrete mechanism
359 of the general hypothesis outlined in (Murgatroyd and Wylde, 2011) and to fatigue
360 ‘factor F’ described in a more explicit way in (Korzeniewski and Zoladz, 2003). This
361 mechanism appears sufficient to produce simulated exercise responses that conform
362 well to experimental data (see below).

363 In short, continuous accumulation of cytosolic P_i over time leads to initiation of
364 the additional ATP usage once critical P_i is exceeded, and thus to appearance of the
365 slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolite on-kinetics. In turn, the additional ATP
366 usage stimulates P_i increase. The further P_i accumulation causes the termination of
367 exercise at peak P_i ($P_{i,peak}$) because of fatigue at time t_{term} . This results, for the
368 determined kinetic properties of the system, in the hyperbolic ATP usage activity-
369 duration relationship (hyperbolic power-duration curve).

370 The additional ATP usage does not (there is no known physical mechanism)
371 stimulate directly $\dot{V}O_2$, and thus does not itself cause the slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$
372 on-kinetics. Rather, the accelerated ATP hydrolysis causes faster ADP and P_i
373 production, which stimulates $\dot{V}O_2$. Therefore, the slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ on-
374 kinetics is somewhat delayed in relation to the increase in the additional ATP usage.

375 We anticipate that critical P_i and peak P_i will vary among different muscles,
376 exercise modes, training status and other individual subject characteristics. For
377 instance, the peak P_i can be 27 mM rather than 25 mM (Korzeniewski, 2019), while
378 the critical P_i may be 15 or 20 mM instead of 18 mM. What is most important, is that
379 these “critical / peak thresholds” are identical for different ATP usage activities (power
380 outputs) for a given muscle, subject, training status and exercise type, and, as such,
381 give rise to features of bioenergetics, fatigue and intolerance encountered in
382 experimental studies.

383 ***Comparison of computer model simulations with experimental data***

384 Only indirect measurements of the additional and total ATP usage as a
385 function of time have been carried out (e.g., Cannon *et al.* 2014). However, the
386 assumed delay in the start of the additional ATP usage after the onset of exercise,
387 and the gradual activation of this process (the characteristic activation time t_a) - that
388 together co-determine the time course of the additional and total ATP usage during
389 on-transient (Fig. 1) - seem to comply well with the delay in the precipitation of Ca^{2+}
390 ions with P_i within SR, which is related to muscle fatigue, and caused by the time
391 necessary for P_i entry to SR cisterns (Allen and Westerblad, 2001; Allen *et al.* 2008).
392 Additionally, no additional ATP usage was observed in intermittent exercise with
393 sufficiently short high-intensity intervals, suggesting that this process does not start
394 immediately after the onset of exercise (Davies *et al.*, 2017).

395 An indirect, but comprehensive verification of the kinetic description of the
396 additional ATP usage used in this study (Equ. 1) is constituted by the simulated time
397 courses of $\dot{V}O_2$, metabolites and pH during the on-transient. The shape of the slow
398 components of these variables on-kinetics, as well as their end-exercise values,
399 agrees well with experimental data. For example, the simulated time course of
400 muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ for different ATP usage activities (Fig. 2 A) was similar to the time course
401 of pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ at various power outputs (Özyener *et al.* 2001; Wilkerson *et al.*
402 2004; Burnley and Jones, 2007; Murgatroyd *et al.* 2011; Rossiter, 2011; Keir *et al.*
403 2018). On the other hand, Jones *et al.* (2009) showed that ATP turnover normalized
404 for isometric force does not change with time in human anterior tibialis muscle.
405 However, this result was obtained for isometric contraction (electrical stimulation)
406 with decreasing force in ischemia, while the present study concerns voluntary
407 constant-power large muscle group exercise in normoxia. In our simulations, the slow
408 component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics appeared when P_i exceeded critical P_i (= 18 Mm)
409 and therefore the additional ATP usage was only initiated at higher rates of A_{UT} , and
410 was initiated at an earlier time after onset of the higher the exercise intensity. This
411 suggests that there is a certain degree of P_i accumulation (<18 mM, in this
412 simulation) that can be produced without resulting overt muscle fatigue and exercise
413 inefficiency, which corresponds with experimental data (Cannon *et al.* 2011; Keir *et*
414 *al.* 2016).

415 The simulated muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ that was reached at the end of exercise ($\dot{V}O_{2end}$),
416 terminated because of muscle fatigue when P_i reached peak P_i (= 25 Mm), was

417 identical for all ATP usage intensities and equaled 13.3 mM min^{-1} . This is analogous
418 to the findings in most experimental studies that pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ at intolerance is
419 similar over a wide range of power outputs (Murgatroyd *et al.* 2011; Burnley and
420 Jones 2007; Özyener *et al.* 2001; Rossiter 2011; Keir *et al.* 2018), at least for
421 exercise between CP and the very highest power outputs, where it can be lower
422 (Wilkerson *et al.* 2004). These latter may be explained by a large contribution of
423 anaerobic glycolysis to ATP supply and/or O_2 transport limitations (see e.g., Rossiter,
424 2011; Korzeniewski, 2019). According to our simulations, limitations in O_2 transport at
425 low muscle PO_2 acts through elevation of P_i (lowered muscle PO_2 elevates P_i). The
426 identical $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ at different supra-CP power outputs in most whole-body exercise
427 experiments would therefore indicate that peripheral fatigue, acting through e.g. P_i
428 concentration, provides the primary stimulus to limit muscle activation independent of
429 limitations to maximal O_2 delivery (Hureau *et al.* 2018; Hureau *et al.* 2019).

430 The $\dot{V}O_2$ time course for the activity of ATP usage $A_{UT} = 70$ exhibited a
431 characteristic 'notch', underlain by a discontinuous start of the additional ATP usage
432 for this exercise intensity (compare Fig. 1). Such a 'notch' is sometimes observed in
433 experimental studies (Paterson and Whipp, 1991; Barstow and Molé, 2001; Özyener
434 *et al.* 2001; compare Stirling and Zakythinaki, 2009). While $\dot{V}O_2$ for exercises with
435 $A_{UT} > 75$ ($A_{UT\text{crit}}$) was increasing continuously until the termination of exercise, it
436 stabilized quickly for $A_{UT} = 50$, and approached a steady-state after the secondary
437 rise above the 'notch' for $A_{UT} = 70$. In addition, the magnitude of the ATP usage
438 activity $A_{UT} = 76$ reaches values of $\sim 130\text{-}140\%$ of the regular ATP usage expected
439 based on sub-lactate threshold exercise; values consistent with the magnitude of
440 inefficiency observed during exercise just above CP (Özyener *et al.* 2001) – where
441 inefficiency becomes greatest. Therefore, $A_{UT} = 50$ seems to represent moderate
442 exercise below lactate threshold (LT), $A_{UT} = 70$ seems to represent heavy exercise
443 between LT and CP, while $A_{UT} > 75$ is characteristic of very heavy and severe
444 exercise.

445 The simulated time course of PCr, P_i and pH change (Fig. 2 B and 2 C) agrees
446 closely to experimental data using ^{31}P MRS studies (Vanhatalo *et al.* 2010; Jones *et al.*
447 *et al.* 2010; Cannon *et al.* 2014). PCr was reduced to about 9 % of rest (from 27.7 mM
448 to 2.5 mM), while experimental data show PCr reaches 5-12 % at intolerance
449 (Vanhatalo *et al.* 2010). The reduction in pH (from 7.0 to 6.75) in our simulations was
450 also similar to the 0.3 pH unit reduction in Jones *et al.* (2008) or 0.32 pH unit
451 reduction in Vanhatalo *et al.* (2010). Overall, our simulations compare favorably with
452 experimental data of pH fall during either bipedal exercise (0.2-0.3 pH units; Cannon
453 *et al.* 2014), or all-out intermittent isometric single-leg knee-extensor exercise (> 0.5
454 pH units; Broxterman *et al.* 2018).

455 Our simulations resulted in P_i concentration that was 6.8 times above rest
456 (from 3.7 mM to 25 mM), while Jones *et al.* (2008) measured an approximate 8-fold
457 increase *in vivo*. These findings, together with the fact that end-exercise PCr is
458 relatively constant, implies a constant end-exercise P_i concentration in real systems.

459 This supports one of the main assumptions of this study (and of the previous study:
460 Korzeniewski, 2019) that exercise is terminated when muscle P_i concentration
461 reaches a specific peak value. This conforms well with the fact that P_i increases
462 about 4.5-5.0 times in relation to rest at different work intensities in Vanhatalo et al.
463 (2010).

464 In these simulations, the dependence of ATP usage activity on exercise
465 duration is almost perfectly hyperbolic, while the simulated dependence of ATP
466 usage activity on 1/time to exercise termination (1/duration) is, consequently, almost
467 perfectly linear (Fig. 3), which agrees well with the hyperbolic power-duration
468 relationship and linear power-1/duration relationship reported in many experimental
469 studies (e.g., Wilkerson *et al.* 2004; Burnley and Jones 2007; Vanhatalo *et al.* 2010;
470 Murgatroyd *et al.* 2011; see also Jones *et al.* 2010; Poole *et al.* 2016 for review).

471 In these computer simulations, hyperoxia elevates the simulated critical ATP
472 usage activity and shortens the characteristic transition time of the principal phase II
473 of the $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics $t_{0.63}$ (analogous to τ_p) (Figs. 4 and 5). This agrees well with the
474 hyperoxia-induced increase in CP (Vanhatalo *et al.* 2010; Goulding *et al.* 2019) and
475 decrease in τ_p (Goulding *et al.* 2019). Nevertheless, it is noted that computer
476 simulations used a constant oxygen concentration during the on-transient, which
477 certainly constitutes a simplification.

478 These simulations also fit well with the finding of slower PCr and P_i on-kinetics,
479 increased P_i accumulation, and greater muscle fatigue observed during exercise
480 older compared with younger participants (Sundberg *et al.* 2019). In those studies, a
481 critical P_i concentration was reached sooner in exercise in older participants and P_i
482 accumulation (and pH fall) at end exercise was greater, and were strongly associated
483 with the magnitude of muscle fatigue.

484

485 The role and limitations of P_i as a fatigue-terminating factor and possible
486 factors underlying the additional ATP usage were discussed in a previous article
487 (Korzeniewski, 2019). We consider P_i rather than phosphorylation potential ΔG_P as a
488 fatigue-related factor, as the latter is not a causal physical factor that can directly
489 affect something in the system – these are its “components” (P_i , ADP, ATP, pH) that
490 can. Generally, many factors, like O_2 transport / concentration or type of exercise
491 may affect critical power. However, in our opinion, they all act through muscle P_i
492 concentration.

493 The theoretical predictions obtained are by no means trivial consequences of
494 the assumptions made. Several properties of computer simulations were not
495 anticipated. For instance, the almost perfect hyperbolic power-duration relationship
496 and the heavy exercise-like behavior were unexpected, but evident. The main
497 purpose of this study was to show that the assumptions made resulted in simulations
498 that reproduced a wide range of, apparently unrelated, system properties related to
499 muscle bioenergetics and fatigue. Overall, the assumption that attainment of a

500 “critical” P_i concentration initiates and maintains the metabolite and $\dot{V}O_2$ slow
501 component, appears to generate simulations that conform well with experimental
502 data from a wide range of participants and conditions.

503 Our hypothesis that exceeding the critical P_i initiates the additional ATP usage
504 could be tested e.g. by measuring P_i concentration at the beginning of the $\dot{V}O_2$ slow
505 component for different power outputs in a given type of exercise. If we are right,
506 after accounting for appropriate kinetics among the involved reactions, the P_i
507 concentration should be similar during different power outputs. Experimentally
508 intervening on this relationship using altered rates of oxygen delivery would add
509 further support. Another possibility would be a discovery that exceeding a certain P_i
510 level causes a progressive increase in the contribution of Ca^{2+} -ATPase (SERCA) to
511 ATP usage, and thus an appearance of the additional ATP usage (Korzeniewski,
512 2019).

513 ***Study limitations***

514 These computer simulations rely on a single fatigue factor – P_i – that
515 determines the additional ATP usage, slow component and exercise intolerance. This
516 undoubtedly constitutes a significant simplification. Of course, this study cannot prove
517 that P_i is the only metabolite relevant for the induction of fatigue and the slow
518 components. This is not our intention. These data identify that that a known major
519 fatigue-inducing metabolite can also bring about a decrease in muscle efficiency
520 $\dot{V}O_2/PO$, and cause work termination with hyperbolic characteristics similar to those
521 observed in vivo.

522 The kinetics of the additional ATP usage applied in the present study was
523 partly based on known system properties and partly fitted in order to reproduce the
524 time courses of $\dot{V}O_2$, metabolites and pH during on-transient encountered in
525 experimental studies. Nevertheless, it produced the outcome that was able to
526 account for various, apparently unrelated, dynamic system behaviors. It would be
527 very difficult, if possible at all, to identify other kinetic characteristics that would fit so
528 well to a broad range of experimental data / system properties.

529 The simulations assumed there was no AMP deamination (modelled in
530 Korzeniewski, 2006), and therefore ATP concentration remained essentially constant
531 during exercise. Nevertheless, this did not affect significantly the theoretical results
532 (see discussion in Korzeniewski, 2019).

533 It was previously suggested that fatigue correlates more strongly with $H_2PO_4^-$,
534 than with pH (Wilson *et al.* 1985; Sundberg *et al.* 2019). As $H_2PO_4^-$ concentration is a
535 function of total P_i and pH, a drop in pH increases the fraction of P_i that is held in the
536 deprotonated form. Therefore, the $H_2PO_4^-$ concentration involves implicitly the H^+
537 concentration. However, the assumption that $H_2PO_4^-$, instead of total P_i , is the
538 fatigue-generating factor does not affect significantly the system behavior
539 (Korzeniewski, 2019).

540 The model used is a “one-compartment” model, as it does consider particular
541 muscle fiber types. Rather it simulates just “one-compartment” of experimental data,
542 averaged over the whole muscle mass: muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ and P_i , PCr, ATP and pH
543 measured using the ^{31}P MRS method. It would be difficult to develop a reliable two-
544 or multi-compartment model because of lack of sufficient data for its verification.

545

546 **CONCLUSIONS**

547 This theoretical study decidedly supports the hypothesis that P_i accumulation
548 above a certain “critical” level can be a major factor responsible for the additional
549 ATP usage, underlying the slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolites on-kinetics,
550 for the fatigue-related termination of exercise and for the hyperbolic shape of the
551 power-duration relationship. It is postulated that the additional ATP usage appears
552 with some delay after the onset of exercise when P_i concentration exceeds the critical
553 P_i value ($P_{i,crit}$), is gradually activated, following a certain characteristic activation time,
554 and further increases as a function of $P_i - P_{i,crit}$. On the other hand, the elevated
555 additional ATP usage reciprocally stimulates a further increase in P_i . It is also
556 postulated that muscle exercise is terminated because of fatigue, when P_i reaches a
557 peak P_i value (which is greater than the critical P_i). It is shown that these
558 assumptions can explain many various, apparently unrelated, system properties
559 encountered in experimental studies, including changes in muscle $\dot{V}O_2$, cytosolic
560 ADP, pH, PCr and P_i as a function of time and their end-exercise constancy at
561 various ATP usage activities (corresponding to power outputs), the hyperbolic shape
562 of the power-duration relationship, with critical power (CP) as an asymptote, and the
563 hypo/hyperoxia-induced changes in CP and principal phase II $\dot{V}O_2$ on-kinetics ($t_{0.63}$,
564 related to τ_p).

565 Overall, it is postulated that P_i accumulation above a critical P_i concentration
566 can be a major factor responsible for the initiation and time course of the additional
567 ATP usage underlying the slow component of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolites on-kinetics in
568 skeletal muscle. This self-perpetuating process eventually brings the muscle to peak
569 P_i values and fatigue-related muscle work termination. Together, these two
570 processes determine the shape of the power-duration curve for isolated muscle work.
571 The CP and the characteristics of the time course of the $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolite slow
572 components emerge from the assumed dependence of the additional ATP usage on
573 P_i concentration. Therefore, P_i accumulation is a plausible candidate for a unifying
574 mechanism underlying various phenomena related to muscle fatigue, inefficiency and
575 intolerance. No such detailed mechanism has been postulated so far in the literature.
576 Nevertheless, the contribution of other fatigue-related factors, such as pH, glycogen
577 depletion and peripheral fatigue, should be also taken into account.

578

579 ***Competing interests***

580 None.

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583

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724
725
726

727 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

728

729 **Fig. 1.** Simulated on-kinetics of total (regular + additional) ATP usage (v_{UT}) as well
730 as ATP supply by OXPHOS (v_{OX}), creatine kinase (v_{CK}) and anaerobic glycolysis
731 (v_{GL}) for various ATP usage activities (A_{UT}). One A_{UT} unit corresponds roughly to 3
732 W of total work (power output). It was assumed that additional ATP usage starts
733 when P_i exceeds critical $P_{i,crit} = 18$ mM and exercise is terminated when P_i exceeds
734 peak $P_{i,peak} = 25$ mM.

735

736 **Fig. 2.** Simulated muscle $\dot{V}O_2$ and metabolites on-kinetics for various ATP usage
737 activities (A_{UT}). A, time courses of muscle $\dot{V}O_2$; B, time courses of cytosolic free ADP
738 and pH; C, time courses of cytosolic PCr, P_i and ATP. It was assumed that additional
739 ATP usage starts when P_i exceeds critical $P_{i,crit} = 18$ mM and exercise is terminated
740 when P_i exceeds peak $P_{i,peak} = 25$ mM.

741

742 **Fig. 3.** Simulated ATP usage activity (A_{UT})-duration relationship and ATP usage
743 activity (A_{UT})-1/time (1/duration) relationship. One A_{UT} unit corresponds roughly to 3
744 W of total work (power output). Hyperbolic fit of the simulated A_{UT} -duration
745 relationship is also shown. Parameter $B = 75$ is the critical ATP usage activity $A_{UT,crit}$,
746 which corresponds approximately to critical power (CP) of 222 W of total work or 210
747 W of loaded (external) work ($A_{UT} = 1$ corresponds to ATP usage activity at rest).

748

749 **Fig. 4.** Simulated ATP usage activity (A_{UT})-duration relationship for different constant
750 cellular oxygen concentrations. It was assumed that $O_2 = 30$ μ M corresponds to
751 normoxia, $O_2 = 10$ μ M and $O_2 = 20$ μ M represent different degrees of hypoxia, while
752 $O_2 = 40$ μ M and $O_2 = 50$ μ M represent different degrees of hyperoxia.

753

754 **Fig. 5.** Simulated ATP usage activity (A_{UT})-1/time (1/duration) relationship for
755 different constant cellular oxygen concentrations. Values of critical ATP usage activity
756 $A_{UT,crit}$ are determined from linear extrapolation to zero 1/time value (infinite time).