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Dietary nitrate supplementation: effects on plasma nitrite and 1 pulmonary O2 uptake dynamics during exercise in hypoxia and 2 normoxia 3 4 James Kelly¹, Anni Vanhatalo¹, Stephen J Bailey¹, Lee J Wylie¹, Christopher Tucker¹, 5 Stephen List¹, Paul G Winyard², and Andrew M Jones¹ 6 7 ¹Sport and Health Sciences, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, and ²University of Exeter Medical School, St. Luke's Campus, University of Exeter, Heavitree Road, Exeter, 9 EX1 2LU, United Kingdom. 10 11 **Running Head:** Nitrate supplementation in hypoxia and normoxia 12 13 14 Correspondence to: Andrew M Jones, PhD 15 Professor of Applied Physiology 16 Sport and Health Sciences 17 St. Luke's Campus 18 19 University of Exeter 20 Exeter EX1 2LU United Kingdom 21 22 23

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Abstract

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We investigated the effects of dietary nitrate (NO₃⁻) supplementation on the concentration of 29 plasma nitrite ($[NO_2^-]$), oxygen uptake (\dot{V}_{O_2}) kinetics and exercise tolerance in normoxia (N) 30 and hypoxia (H). In a double-blind, crossover study, twelve healthy subjects completed cycle 31 32 exercise tests, twice in N (20.9% O₂) and twice in H (13.1% O₂). Subjects ingested either 140 ml·d⁻¹ of NO₃-rich beetroot juice (8.4 mmol NO₃; BR) or NO₃-depleted beetroot juice (PL) 33 34 for 3-days prior to moderate-intensity and severe-intensity exercise tests in H and N. Preexercise plasma [NO₂⁻] was significantly elevated in H-BR and N-BR compared to H-PL (P 35 = 0.00) and N-PL (P = 0.00). The rate of decline in plasma [NO₂] was greater during severe-36 intensity exercise in H-BR (-30±22 nM·min⁻¹, 95% CI; -44, -16) compared to H-PL (-7±10 37 $nM \cdot min^{-1}$, 95% CI; -13, -1; P = 0.00) and in N-BR (-26±19 $nM \cdot min^{-1}$, 95% CI; -38, -14) 38 compared to N-PL (-1 \pm 6 nM· min⁻¹, 95% CI; -5, 2; P = 0.00). During moderate-intensity 39 exercise, steady-state pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} was lower in H-BR (1.91±0.28 L·min⁻¹, 95% CI; 1.77, 40 2.13) compared to H-PL (2.05 \pm 0.25 L·min⁻¹, 95% CI; 1.93, 2.26, P = 0.02) and \dot{V}_{02} kinetics 41 42 was faster in H-BR (τ: 24±13 s, 95% CI; 15, 32) compared to H-PL (31±11 s, 95% CI; 23, 38; P = 0.04). NO₃ supplementation had no significant effect on \dot{V}_{O_2} kinetics during severe-43 44 intensity exercise in hypoxia, or during moderate-intensity or severe-intensity exercise in normoxia. Tolerance to severe-intensity exercise was improved by NO₃ in hypoxia (H-PL: 45 197 ± 28 ; 95% CI; 173, 220 vs. H-BR: 214±43 s, 95% CI; 177, 249; P = 0.04) but not 46 normoxia. The metabolism of NO₂ during exercise is altered by NO₃ supplementation, 47 exercise and to a lesser extent, hypoxia. In hypoxia, NO_3 supplementation enhances \dot{V} o₂ 48 49 kinetics during moderate-intensity exercise and improves severe-intensity exercise tolerance. These findings may have important implications for individuals exercising at altitude. 50

51 **Key Words:** hypoxia; beetroot juice; nitric oxide, efficiency, performance.

Introduction

- Nitric oxide (NO) is a ubiquitous, water soluble, free radical gas which plays a crucial role in
- 55 many biological processes. Effective NO production is important in normal physiological
- 56 functioning, from the regulation of blood flow, muscle contractility and mitochondrial
- 57 respiration, to host defence, neurotransmission and glucose and calcium homeostasis (11, 17,
- 58 60). NO production via the oxidation of L-arginine, in a process catalysed by nitric oxide
- synthase (NOS), may be blunted in conditions of reduced O₂ availability (52). It is now
- widely accepted that NO can also be generated via an alternative pathway, whereby inorganic
- nitrate (NO_3^-) is reduced to nitrite (NO_2^-) and further to NO. This NOS- and O_2 independent
- 62 NO₃ -NO₂ -NO pathway represents a complementary system for NO synthesis spanning a
- broad range of redox states (49). In addition to being produced endogenously, the body's
- NO₃ stores can be increased via the diet, with green leafy vegetables and beetroot being
- particularly rich in NO₃. Upon ingestion, inorganic NO₃ is absorbed from the gut and passes
- into the systemic circulation where $\sim 25\%$ of it is concentrated in the saliva (50). Commensal
- bacteria in the oral cavity then reduce the NO_3^- to NO_2^- (21). Some salivary NO_2^- is converted
- into NO when swallowed into the acidic environment of the stomach (7), whilst the
- remainder is absorbed, increasing circulating plasma NO₂ concentration [NO₂]. This NO₂
- 70 may be reduced to NO via a number of enzymatic and non-enzymatic pathways (e.g.,
- 71 xanthine oxidoreductase and deoxyhemoglobin), which are potentiated in hypoxic
- environments, such as may be evident in contracting skeletal muscle (55).
- 73 NO plays a key role in the physiological response and adaptation to hypoxia. A reduced
- 74 fraction of O₂ in inspired air results in reductions in arterial O₂ concentration and intracellular
- partial pressure of O₂ (PO₂). The development of muscle hypoxia leads to increased
- metabolic perturbation (46) and reduced functional capacity at altitude (2) and in several
- disease conditions (22, 34). In order to restore sufficient O_2 supply, local blood flow is
- 78 increased via hypoxia-induced vasodilatation with NO being implicated as a major mediator
- of this process (12). NO₂ may also promote hypoxic vasodilatation in an NO-independent
- 80 manner (16).
- Dietary NO₃ supplementation, in the form of nitrate salts and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BR),
- 82 represents a practical method of increasing circulating plasma [NO₃] (31, 42, 67) and [NO₂]
- 83 (4, 33, 62). NO₃ supplementation has been shown to reduce resting blood pressure (3, 33, 42)
- and oxygen uptake (\dot{V}_{02}) during submaximal exercise (4, 39, 40, 41, 62, 67), and to improve

85 exercise performance in young, healthy individuals exercising in normoxic conditions (14, 86 38), but not necessarily in well trained athletes (5-6, 66). These changes may be related to NO-mediated alterations in mitochondrial efficiency (39), muscle contractile function (3, 28) 87 and enhanced muscle blood flow, with preferential distribution to type II fibers (23). These 88 89 physiological alterations could be particularly beneficial when normal O_2 availability (~21%) 90 is reduced. Indeed, NO₃ supplementation in the form of BR has recently been shown to 91 reduce muscle metabolic perturbation during exercise in hypoxia and to restore constant-92 work-rate exercise tolerance and post-exercise indices of oxidative function to values 93 observed in normoxia (64). BR supplementation has also been shown to extend incremental 94 exercise tolerance, improve arterial and skeletal muscle oxygenation (50), and to enhance 95 cycling economy and time-trial performance (51), in hypoxia. However, while these studies 96 suggest that BR can improve physiological responses and exercise performance in hypoxia, it 97 has yet to be determined whether the effects BR are more pronounced in hypoxia relative to 98 normoxia. 99 The dose-response and pharmacodynamic relationships of BR supplementation have recently 100 been investigated in normoxia (67) and provides a guide to enable optimal timing and dosing 101 of BR intake to elicit peak circulating plasma [NO₂-] values. However, the kinetics of plasma 102 [NO₂] during hypoxic exercise and subsequent recovery, and possible changes elicited by 103 BR supplementation, are presently not known. It was recently reported that during high-104 intensity, intermittent running exercise, plasma [NO₂] declined significantly during 105 exhaustive exercise and showed a tendency to recover back to baseline following 15 min of passive rest (68). Previous research has reported increases (1, 54) but, more commonly, 106 107 decreases (6, 19, 26, 42, 63) in plasma [NO₂] during exercise. In addition to exercise, the 108 metabolism of NO and its derivatives are known to be influenced by intracellular PO₂ and the 109 fraction of inspired oxygen (FIO₂). In vitro, endothelial NOS (eNOS) expression and eNOS-110 derived NO production in human endothelial cells are reduced in hypoxia (25, 53). However, 111 in vivo, eNOS expression and activity can be up- or down-regulated by hypoxia, with both 112 decreased (58) and increased (44, 48) NO bioavailability being reported in hypoxia. 113 Characterizing the kinetic changes in [NO₂] during exercise and recovery at different FIO₂ 114 may offer insight into NO metabolism during exercise in normoxia and hypoxia. This 115 understanding may have important implications for athletes exercising in hypoxic 116 environments.

- 117 Considering that the NO₃⁻-NO₂ -NO pathway is facilitated in hypoxic conditions (48), we
- reasoned that BR supplementation may modulate the changes in [NO₂] during exercise and
- recovery and may help to ameliorate the negative effects of hypoxia on exercise tolerance.
- The primary aim of this study was to investigate the effects of BR supplementation on
- physiological responses (plasma $[NO_2]$ dynamics, pulmonary \dot{V}_{O_2} and muscle oxygenation)
- and exercise tolerance, in both normoxia and hypoxia. We hypothesized that the reduction of
- [NO_2] during exercise would be greater in hypoxia compared to normoxia but that [NO_2]
- would be higher at the same iso-time during exercise following BR compared to PL
- supplementation. We also hypothesized that BR supplementation would improve moderate-
- intensity exercise economy and severe-intensity exercise tolerance in both hypoxia and
- normoxia, with greater effects being evident in hypoxia.

Methods

129 Subjects

- Twelve physically active male subjects (mean \pm SD; age = 22 \pm 4 yr, height = 1.80 \pm 0.06 m,
- body mass = $78 \pm 6 \text{ kg}$, $\dot{V}_{\text{O2peak}} = 58.3 \pm 6.3 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) volunteered to take part in this
- study. The protocol and procedures used in this study were approved by the Institutional
- Research Ethics Committee. All subjects gave written, fully informed consent prior to
- commencement of the study, once the experimental protocol, associated risks, and potential
- benefits of participation had been outlined. Subjects were instructed to arrive at the
- laboratory, at least 3 h postprandial, and to avoid strenuous exercise in the 24 h preceding
- each testing session. Subjects were asked to refrain from caffeine and alcohol intake 6 and 24
- h before each test, respectively, and to consume the same light pre-exercise meal of their
- choice 4-5 h before testing. In addition to this, subjects were asked to abstain from using
- antibacterial mouthwash and chewing gum for the duration of the study since this has been
- shown to blunt the conversion of NO_3^- to NO_2^- in the oral cavity (27). Subjects were also
- instructed to maintain their normal dietary intake for the duration of the study. All exercise
- tests were performed at the same time of day (± 1 h) for each subject.
- 144 Procedures
- Subjects were required to attend the laboratory on six occasions over a 4-wk period. All
- exercise tests were performed using an electronically braked cycle ergometer (Lode
- Excalibur Sport, Groningen, the Netherlands). During visit 1, subjects completed a ramp

incremental test to exhaustion for the determination of the maximal O_2 uptake ($\dot{V}o_{2peak}$) and 148 the gas exchange threshold (GET). Subjects performed 3 min of baseline cycling at 20 W and 149 80 rpm, after which the power output was increased at a rate of 30 W·min⁻¹ in a linear fashion 150 151 until volitional exhaustion. The height and configuration of the saddle and handlebars were 152 recorded and reproduced in subsequent tests. The breath-by-breath pulmonary gas-exchange 153 data were collected continuously during the incremental test and averaged over 10-s periods. $\dot{V}_{\rm O_{2peak}}$ was determined as the highest mean $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ during any 30-s period. The GET was 154 155 determined from a number of measurements, including: 1) the first disproportionate increase 156 in CO₂ production (\dot{V} co₂) from visual inspection of individual plots of \dot{V} co₂ and \dot{V} o₂; and 2) an increase in expired ventilation ($\dot{V}_{\rm E}/\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$) with no increase in $\dot{V}_{\rm E}/\dot{V}_{\rm CO_2}$. Power outputs 157 158 representing moderate- and severe-intensity exercise for each individual were calculated, 159 with account taken of the mean response time for $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ during ramp exercise (i.e., two-thirds 160 of the ramp rate was deducted from the power output at GET). 161 All subjects were familiar with laboratory exercise testing procedures, having previously 162 participated in studies employing cycle ergometry in our laboratory. Visit 2 served as a 163 familiarization to exercising in normobaric hypoxia. Following completion of the 164 familiarization session, subjects were randomly assigned to receive 3 days of dietary supplementation with 140 ml·d⁻¹ of NO₃⁻-rich BR or 140 ml·d⁻¹ of NO₃⁻-depleted BR 165 166 concentrate as a placebo (PL), (see 'Supplementation' below), prior to the subsequent 167 exercise trials. During visits 3-6, the subjects completed step-transition, cycling exercise for the 168 169 determination of pulmonary \dot{V}_{0_2} and plasma [NO₂] kinetics. In total, there were four 170 different experimental conditions: 1) Hypoxia-BR (H-BR); 2) Hypoxia-PL (H-PL); 3) Normoxia-BR (N-BR); and 4) Normoxia-PL (N-PL). Trial order was randomly assigned in a 171 balanced fashion such that three subjects started on H-BR, three started on H-PL, three 172 173 started on N-BR and three started on the N-PL condition. Upon arrival at the laboratory, a cannula (Insyte-W TM Becton-Dickinson, Madrid, Spain) 174 was inserted into the subject's antecubital vein to enable frequent blood sampling before, 175 176 during and after the exercise protocol. Prior to the exercise protocol, subjects lay in a supine 177 position for 10 min breathing normoxic inspirate. A further 10-min period elapsed with 178 subjects breathing either the hypoxic or normoxic inspirate. The exercise protocol involved two 5-min bouts of moderate-intensity cycling at 80% GET, and one bout of severe-intensity 179

cycling at $75\% \Delta$ (a power output representing GET plus 75% of the difference between the 181 power outputs at GET and $\dot{V}_{O_{2peak}}$) (65) which was continued to volitional exhaustion. Each 182 exercise bout involved an abrupt transition to the target power output initiated from a 20 W 183 baseline, with the three exercise bouts separated by 6 min of passive recovery. The severe-184 intensity exercise bout was continued until task failure as a measure of exercise tolerance. 185 The time to exhaustion was recorded when the pedal rate fell by > 10 rpm below the 80 rpm 186 pedal rate. In these bouts, the subjects were verbally encouraged to continue for as long as 187 possible. Following exhaustion, a further 10-min recovery period elapsed with subjects 188 continuing to breathe either the hypoxic or normoxic inspirate. 189 The \dot{V}_{02} responses for the two moderate bouts were averaged before analysis to reduce 190 breath-to-breath noise and enhance confidence in the parameters derived from the modelling 191 process (36). Blood was sampled pre-exercise (prior to any exercise and breathing of experimental inspirate), then during the baseline 20 W cycling preceding the first moderate 192 transition (ModBL) and at 1(Mod1), 3 (Mod3) and 5 (Mod5) min of the first moderate-193 194 intensity exercise bout. Further samples were drawn during the 20 W baseline preceding the 195 severe transition (SevBL) and after 1 (Sev1) and 3 (Sev3) min of severe-intensity exercise 196 and at exhaustion (Exh). Finally, samples were drawn during recovery from the severe bout at 197 1.5 (Rec1.5), 3 (Rec3) and 10 (Rec10) min. 198 Inspirate 199 The inspirate was generated using a Hypoxico HYP 100 filtration system (Sporting Edge UK 200 Ltd, Basingstoke, UK), with the generator supplying the inspirate via an extension conduit to 201 a 150 L Douglas Bag (Cranlea & Co., Birmingham, UK). This acted as a reservoir and 202 mixing chamber, and had a separate outlet tube feeding into a two-way breathing valve 203 system (Hans Rudolph, Cranlea & Co.). The two-way valve was connected to the mouthpiece 204 which provided a constant, unidirectional flow rate and ensured that no re-breathing of 205 expired air occurred. The O₂ and CO₂ concentration of the inspirate was monitored during 206 each test using a Servomex 5200 High Accuracy Paramagnetic O₂ and CO₂ Analyzer 207 (Servomex, Crowborough, UK). The gas analyzer was calibrated prior to each test with a 208 16.0% O₂, 8.0% CO₂ and 76.0% N₂ gas mix (BOC Special Gases, Guildford, UK). For the N-209 PL and N-BR trials, the Hypoxico HYP-100 generator was switched to normoxic mode (i.e. 210 all O₂ filters were turned off so that no O₂ was removed from the ambient air). However,

- during the H-PL and H-BR trials, the generator was set to maximum O₂ filtration, which
- supplied an FIO₂ of 0.131 ± 0.02 , and an FICO₂ of 0.004 ± 0.00 .
- 213 Supplementation
- 214 After completion of the non-supplemented visits 1 and 2, subjects were assigned in a double-
- blind, randomized, crossover design to receive a course of dietary NO₃ supplementation
- before visits 3-6. The supplements were either concentrated, NO₃-rich BR (2 x 70 mL·d⁻¹ of
- BR providing ~8.4 mmol NO₃ per day; Beet it, James White Drinks, Ipswich, UK) or
- concentrated, NO₃-depleted PL (2 x 70 ml·d⁻¹ of PL providing ~0.006 mmol NO₃ per day;
- Beet it, James White Drinks, Ipswich, UK). The PL beverage was created by passing the
- juice, before pasteurization, through a column containing Purolite A520E ion exchange resin,
- 221 which selectively removes nitrate ions. The PL was identical to the BR in appearance, taste
- and smell. Subjects were instructed to consume the beverages in the morning and afternoon
- of days 1 and 2 of supplementation, and then in the morning and 2.5 h before the exercise test
- on day 3. A washout period of at least 72 h separated each supplementation period. Subjects
- were instructed to follow their normal dietary habits throughout the testing period and to
- replicate their diet and timing of supplementation across conditions. Subjects were informed
- that the supplementation may cause beeturia (red urine) and red stools temporarily but that
- this side effect was harmless.
- 229 Measurements
- Blood samples were drawn into 5-ml lithium-heparin tubes (Vacutainer, Becton-Dickinson,
- New Jersey, USA). 200 µl of blood was immediately hemolyzed in 200 µl of cold Triton X-
- 232 100 buffer solution (Triton X-100, Amresco, Salon, OH) and analyzed to determine blood
- [lactate] and [glucose] (YSI 2300, Yellow Springs Instruments, Yellow Springs, OH). Blood
- samples for the determination of plasma $[NO_2]$ and $[NO_3]$ were collected into lithium-
- heparin tubes and immediately centrifuged at 4000 rpm and 4 °C for 8 min. Plasma was
- extracted and immediately frozen at -80 °C for later analysis of $[NO_2^-]$ and $[NO_3^-]$.
- 237 Prior to and regularly during analysis, all glassware, utensils, and surfaces were rinsed with
- deionized water to remove any residual NO_2^- . Plasma $[NO_2^-]$ and $[NO_3^-]$ were analysed using
- gas phase chemiluminescence. This initially required NO₂ and NO₃ to be reduced to NO gas.
- For reduction of NO₂, undiluted plasma was injected into a glass purge vessel containing 5
- ml glacial acetic acid and 1ml NaI solution. For NO₃ reduction, plasma samples were

242 deproteinized in an aqueous solution of zinc sulphate (10% w/v) and 1 M sodium hydroxide, 243 prior to reduction to NO in a solution of vanadium (III) chloride in 1 M hydrochloric acid 244 (0.8% w/v). Quantification of NO was enabled by the detection of light emitted during the 245 production of nitrogen dioxide formed upon reaction of NO with ozone. Luminescence was 246 detected by a thermoelectrically cooled, red-sensitive photomultiplier tube housed in a 247 Sievers gas-phase chemiluminescence NO analyzer (Sievers NOA 280i, Analytix Ltd., 248 Durham, UK). The concentrations of NO₂ and NO₃ were determined by plotting signal area (mV) against a calibration plot of 25nM to 1μM sodium nitrite and 100nM to 10μM sodium 249 250 nitrate respectively. The rate of change in plasma [NO₂] during the severe exercise bout was 251 calculated as the difference between pre-exercise baseline and exercise [NO₂⁻] values relative 252 to exercise duration. 253 During all laboratory exercise tests, pulmonary gas exchange and ventilation were measured continuously with subjects wearing a nose clip and breathing through a mouthpiece and 254 255 impeller turbine assembly (Triple V, Jaeger, Hoechburg, Germany). The inspired and expired 256 gas volume and gas concentration signals were continuously sampled at 100 Hz, the latter 257 using paramagnetic (O₂) and infrared (CO₂) analyzers (Oxycon Pro, Jaeger, Hoechburg, 258 Germany) via a capillary line connected to the mouthpiece. Pulmonary gas exchange 259 variables were calculated and displayed breath-by-breath. Heart rate (HR) and arterial oxygen 260 saturation (SaO₂) were continuously measured during the test protocol using a pulse oximeter 261 device (Rad-87, Masimo, Irvine, CA), which was attached to the subject's right index finger. 262 The oxygenation status of the m. vastus lateralis of the right leg was monitored via near 263 infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) (NIRO 200, Hamamatsu Photonics KK, Hamamatsu-City, 264 Japan) during the exercise protocol, as described previously (4). Deoxyhemoglobin 265 concentration ([HHb]), oxyhemoglobin concentration ([HbO₂]), total hemoglobin 266 concentration ([Hb_{tot}]) and tissue oxygenation index (TOI) were measured. 267 Data analysis 268 The breath-by-breath V_{02} data from each exercise test were initially examined to exclude 269 errant breaths caused by coughing and swallowing with those values lying more than four SD 270 from the local mean being removed. The breath-by-breath data were subsequently linearly 271 interpolated to provide second-by-second values, and, for each individual, identical 272 moderate-intensity repetitions were time-aligned to the start of exercise and ensemble-273 averaged. This approach enhances the signal-to-noise ratio and improves confidence in the

parameters derived from the modelling process. The first 20 s of data after the onset of exercise (the phase I response) were deleted, and a non-linear least squares algorithm was used to fit the data thereafter. A single-exponential model was used to characterize the phase II \dot{V}_{02} responses to both moderate- and severe- intensity exercise, as described in following equation:

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$$\dot{V}_{O_2}(t) = \dot{V}_{O_2 \text{ baseline}} + A_p \left[1 - e^{-(t-\text{TDp/\tau p})} \right]$$
 Eqn. 1

Where $\dot{V}_{O_2}(t)$ represents the absolute \dot{V}_{O_2} at a given time t; \dot{V}_{O_2} baseline represents the mean \dot{V}_{O_2} over the final 60 s of baseline cycling; A_p , TD_p , and τ_p represent the amplitude, time delay and time constant, respectively, describing the phase II increase in \dot{V}_{O_2} above baseline. An iterative process was used to minimize the sum of the squared errors between the fitted function and the observed values. The end-exercise \dot{V}_{O_2} was defined as the mean \dot{V}_{O_2} measured over the final 30 s of exercise.

The fitting strategy was subsequently used to identify the onset of any 'slow component' in the $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ response to severe-intensity exercise as previously described (56). The fitting window was lengthened iteratively until the exponential model-fit demonstrated a discernible departure from the measured response profile. Identification, via visual inspection, of the flat residual plot profile (signifying a good fit to measured data) systematically differing from zero, gave indication of the delayed slow component onset. The magnitude of the slow component for $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ was measured as the difference between the phase II steady state amplitude and the final $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ value, averaged over the last 30 s of exercise.

To obtain information on muscle oxygenation, the [HHb] response to exercise was also modelled, as described previously (4). The [HHb] kinetics for moderate- and severe-intensity exercise were determined using a single-exponential model similar to that described above (Eqn. 1), with the exception that the fitting window commenced at the time at which the [HHb] signal increased 1 SD above the baseline mean (18). For moderate-intensity exercise, the fitting window was constrained to the point at which mono-exponentiality became distorted, consequent to a gradual fall in [HHb], as determined by visual inspection of the residual plots. For severe-intensity exercise, the [HHb] fast and slow phase responses were determined as described above for the \dot{V}_{02} . The [HbO₂], [Hb_{tot}] and TOI responses were not modelled as they do not approximate an exponential. Rather, the changes in these variables were assessed by determining the [HbO₂], [Hb_{tot}] and TOI at baseline (60 s preceding step

- transition), at 120 s and at end-exercise during moderate exercise and at baseline, 60 s, 120 s
- and exhaustion for severe exercise.
- 307 Statistical analyses
- Differences in the cardio-respiratory, NIRS-derived, pulse-oximetry and exercise tolerance
- variables between conditions were analyzed using two-way (supplement x FIO₂) repeated
- 310 measures ANOVA. Blood metabolites were analyzed via two-way (condition x time)
- repeated measures ANOVA, during moderate-, severe-intensity- and in recovery from-
- exercise (Condition refers to H-BR, H-PL, N-BR or N-PL). Significant effects were further
- explored using simple contrasts with Fisher's LSD. One-tailed paired t-tests were used to
- compare differences in exercise tolerance between BR and PL treatments in hypoxia and
- normoxia. Correlations were assessed via Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient
- between physiological and performance variables. All data are presented as mean \pm SD with
- statistical significance being accepted when P < 0.05.

318 Results

- 319 Self-reported compliance to the supplementation regimen was 100% and subjects' food
- diaries confirmed that the timing of supplement taken on the morning of the laboratory tests
- was consistent across the experimental conditions. No deleterious side-effects were reported.
- 322 Plasma $[NO_2]$ and $[NO_3]$
- Pre-exercise, plasma [NO₂] was significantly elevated in H-BR compared to H-PL (H-BR:
- 324 $301 \pm 89 \text{ vs. H-PL}$: $88 \pm 56 \text{ nM}$; P = 0.02) and N-BR relative to N-PL (N-BR: $401 \pm 276 \text{ vs.}$
- N-PL: 61 ± 28 nM; P = 0.01) but did not differ between H-BR and N-BR (P = 0.54) or H-PL
- 326 and N-PL (P = 0.66).
- Plasma [NO₃] was significantly elevated at all time-points following BR compared to PL in
- both hypoxia and normoxia although no differences were evident in the kinetic response
- during exercise and recovery (data not shown).
- The group mean kinetic profiles of plasma $[NO_2]$ during moderate- and severe- intensity
- exercise and subsequent recovery are presented in Figure 1.
- 332 *Moderate exercise.* ANOVA revealed there were significant main effects by condition and
- time on plasma [NO₂] during moderate-intensity exercise. BR supplementation significantly

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elevated plasma [NO<sub>2</sub>] across all time points compared to PL in both hypoxic and normoxic
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- conditions (all P < 0.05). In N-BR, plasma [NO₂⁻] was significantly decreased after 5 min of
- moderate-intensity exercise (Mod5) compared to ModBL (ModBL: 332 ± 184 vs. Mod5: 290
- ± 207 nM, P = 0.04). However, the decrease in plasma [NO₂⁻] in H-BR only showed a trend
- towards a reduction (ModBL: 306 ± 109 vs. Mod5: 270 ± 125 nM, P = 0.10). The rate of
- decline in plasma [NO_2^-] from ModBL to Mod5 was not significantly different in H-BR (-7 ±
- 340 11.7 nM·min⁻¹) compared to N-BR ($-10.6 \pm 15.9 \text{ nM·min}^{-1}$), H-PL ($-3.9 \pm 6.1 \text{ nM·min}^{-1}$)
- 341 compared to N-PL (-2.1 \pm 4 nM·min⁻¹), H-BR (-7 \pm 11.7 nM·min⁻¹) compared to N-PL (-2.1 \pm
- 342 4 nM·min⁻¹) or N-BR ($-10.6 \pm 15.9 \text{ nM·min}^{-1}$) compared to N-PL ($-2.1 \pm 4 \text{ nM·min}^{-1}$).
- 343 Severe exercise. There were significant main effects by condition and time and an interaction
- effect for plasma [NO₂] during severe-intensity exercise to exhaustion. BR supplementation
- significantly elevated plasma [NO₂] across all time points compared to PL in both hypoxic
- and normoxic conditions (all P < 0.05). In N-BR, plasma [NO₂] significantly decreased after
- 3 min of severe-intensity exercise (Sev3) and at exhaustion, compared to SevBL (SevBL: 271
- \pm 177; Sev3: 206 \pm 129; P = 0.01; Exhaustion: 132 \pm 117 nM, P = 0.00). In H-BR, plasma
- $[NO_2^-]$ decreased from SevBL (277 ± 142 nM) to Sev1 (229 ± 123 nM, P = 0.01), Sev3
- 350 (n=10, 164 ± 64 nM, P = 0.03) and exhaustion (171 ± 115 nM, P = 0.00). The absolute
- decline in plasma [NO₂] from SevBL to exhaustion showed a trend toward being smaller in
- H-BR (106 ± 60 nM) compared to N-BR (138 ± 79 nM, P = 0.10). In N-PL, plasma [NO₂⁻]
- decreased from SevBL (40 ± 23 nM) to exhaustion (22 ± 19 nM, P = 0.02). This decrease
- was not significant in H-PL (SevBL: 53 ± 65 vs. Exhaustion: 37 ± 45 nM, P = 0.52). The
- rate of decline in plasma [NO₂] was significantly greater from SevBL to exhaustion in H-BR
- 356 compared to H-PL (H-BR: -30 ± 22 vs. H-PL: -7 ± 10 nM·min⁻¹, P = 0.00) and in N-BR
- 357 compared to N-PL (N-BR: -26 ± 19 vs. N-PL: -1 ± 6 nM· min⁻¹, P = 0.00), but was not
- 358 different between N-BR and H-BR (P = 0.66) or N-PL and H-PL (P = 0.13). (Figure 1).
- 359 Recovery. During the 10-min recovery from exhaustive exercise, ANOVA revealed
- significant main effects by condition and time and an interaction effect for plasma $[NO_2]$
- 361 (Figure 1). BR supplementation significantly elevated plasma [NO₂] across all time points
- compared to PL in both hypoxic and normoxic conditions (all P < 0.05). In N-BR, plasma
- $[NO_2]$ was significantly lower at exhaustion compared to 3 min into the recovery period (P =
- 364 0.05), with a significant difference also evident between Rec1.5 and Rec3 (P = 0.01). Plasma
- $[NO_2]$ was significantly higher in H-BR compared to N-BR at Rec1.5 (P = 0.04). In N-PL,
- recovery of plasma $[NO_2]$ was evident between exhaustion and Rec10 (P = 0.04), with a

- significant increase in $[NO_2]$ from Rec3 to Rec10 also evident (P = 0.04). In H-PL, plasma
- $[NO_2]$ tended to recover between Rec1.5 and Rec3 (P = 0.06), with a further increase evident
- 369 between Rec3 and Rec10 (P < 0.00).
- Blood [glucose] was significantly reduced in H-BR compared to N-BR at Rec1.5 (H-BR: 4.3
- $\pm 1.0 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L vs. N-BR}$: $5.5 \pm 1.2 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}$; P = 0.01), Rec3 (H-BR: $4.5 \pm 1.1 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L vs. N-}$
- 372 BR: 5.6 ± 1.3 mmol·L; P = 0.02) and Rec10 (H-BR: 4.7 ± 1.0 mmol·L vs. N-BR: 5.3 ± 1.0
- mmol·L; P = 0.03). No differences were evident between PL and BR conditions.

- 375 Arterial O_2 saturation and heart rate
- 376 The SaO₂ data at rest and during moderate- and severe-intensity exercise are reported in
- Table 1. Resting SaO₂ and HR prior to the administration of inspirate were not significantly
- 378 different between conditions. However, ANOVA revealed a significant main effect by FIO₂
- following 10 min of breathing the hypoxic or normoxic inspirate, with SaO₂ being
- significantly reduced in H-PL compared to N-PL (P = 0.00) and H-BR compared to N-BR (P = 0.00)
- = 0.00). HR was significantly elevated in H-PL compared to N-PL (P = 0.00) and H-BR
- compared to N-BR (P = 0.02) in the final 30 s of gas inspiration.
- 383 *Moderate exercise*. During moderate-intensity exercise, SaO₂ was significantly reduced in
- both hypoxic conditions compared to the normoxic conditions (both P = 0.00) (Table 1). HR
- was significantly elevated in both hypoxic conditions compared to the normoxic conditions in
- the final 30 s of exercise (both P = 0.00), with H-BR being lower than H-PL (P = 0.05) over
- 387 the entire 6-min duration.
- Severe exercise. SaO₂ was significantly lower in H-PL compared to N-PL (P = 0.00) and in
- H-BR compared to N-BR (P = 0.00) at exhaustion following severe-intensity exercise. There
- were no differences in SaO₂ between BR and PL in either hypoxia or normoxia. Also, there
- were no differences in HR between conditions (Table 1).
- 392 $\dot{V}o_2$ kinetics
- Pulmonary \dot{V}_{02} responses across the four experimental conditions are presented in Figures 2
- and 3, and the parameters derived from the model fits are summarized in Table 2.
- 395 *Moderate exercise*. ANOVA revealed a significant main effect by supplement and an
- interaction effect on the \dot{V}_{02} response to moderate-intensity exercise. The \dot{V}_{02} in the final 30 s

- of exercise in H-BR was significantly lower compared to H-PL (P = 0.02) and N-PL (P = 0.02)
- 398 0.01). BR supplementation also resulted in a reduced \dot{V}_{02} during baseline (20 W) exercise in
- hypoxia compared to PL (P = 0.02). The \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ tended to be increased (i.e., slower
- kinetics) in hypoxia (P = 0.07). Post-hoc analyses revealed that the \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ was smaller
- 401 (i.e., faster kinetics) in H-BR compared to H-PL (P = 0.04).
- Severe exercise. During severe-intensity exercise, the $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ slow component amplitude (P =
- 403 0.00) and \dot{V}_{02} at exhaustion (P = 0.00) were significantly reduced as a result of the hypoxic
- inspirate in both PL and BR (Table 2). In hypoxia, BR tended to further reduce the end-
- exercise \dot{V}_{02} compared to H-PL (P = 0.07), while BR had no effect upon end-exercise \dot{V}_{02} in
- 406 normoxia.
- 407 *NIRS*
- The [HHb], [HbO₂], [Hb_{tot}] and TOI values measured during moderate- and severe-intensity
- 409 exercise are shown in Table 3.
- 410 *Moderate exercise.* During moderate-intensity exercise, ANOVA revealed a significant main
- effect by FIO₂. The modelled [HHb] amplitude was significantly greater in hypoxia
- compared to normoxia in both supplemented conditions across all time points (all P < 0.05).
- The end-exercise [HbO₂] was lower in H-BR compared to N-BR (P = 0.02) and H-PL
- 414 compared to N-PL (P = 0.01). TOI at baseline and throughout exercise was also significantly
- reduced in hypoxia compared to normoxia (P < 0.05). Post-hoc analyses revealed that BR
- 416 tended to offset the negative effects of hypoxia on TOI when compared with PL (P = 0.08).
- 417 Severe exercise. During severe-intensity exercise, ANOVA revealed a significant main effect
- 418 by FIO₂. [HHb] was significantly increased in H-BR and H-PL compared to N-BR and N-PL
- 419 (P < 0.05), whereas the [HHb] slow phase amplitude was larger in normoxia compared to
- 420 hypoxia (P < 0.05). [HbO₂] was reduced in hypoxia compared to normoxia (P < 0.05) and
- TOI was lower as a result of hypoxia throughout exercise (P < 0.05). No differences in NIRS
- data between BR and PL were evident during severe-intensity exercise.
- 423 Exercise tolerance
- 424 ANOVA revealed that hypoxia resulted in a significant reduction in exercise tolerance when
- 425 compared to normoxia in both PL (H-PL: 197 ± 28 vs. N-PL: 431 ± 124 s, P = 0.00) and BR
- 426 conditions (H-BR: 214 ± 43 vs. N-BR 412 ± 139 s, P = 0.00). Although the unspecific *F*-test

- for interaction effect across all four conditions did not attain significance at the 95% level, it
- should be noted that the specific test for a difference between exercise tolerance in H-BR and
- 429 H-PL was significant (H-BR: 214 ± 43 vs. H-PL: 197 ± 28 s, P = 0.04), whereas the
- 430 comparison between N-BR and N-PL was not (N-BR: 412 ± 139 vs. N-PL: 431 ± 124 s, P =
- 431 0.50). The change in severe-intensity exercise tolerance was correlated with the change in
- moderate steady-state $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ following BR supplementation in hypoxia (r = -0.96; P = 0.00).

Discussion

- Consistent with previous findings, the decline of plasma $[NO_2]$ during exercise was greater
- following BR compared to PL supplementation. However, in contrast to our experimental
- hypothesis, the decline of plasma [NO₂] during exercise was similar or slightly smaller in
- 437 hypoxia compared to normoxia. Nonetheless, 3 days of BR supplementation significantly
- speeded \dot{V}_{0_2} kinetics and lowered the steady-state \dot{V}_{0_2} during moderate-intensity cycle
- exercise in hypoxia, but not normoxia. Furthermore, BR supplementation improved severe-
- intensity exercise tolerance in hypoxia (P < 0.05), but not normoxia (P > 0.05). These
- 441 findings suggest that BR is more effective at improving exercise economy and exercise
- tolerance in hypoxia than normoxia.
- 443 Effects of BR supplementation on the kinetic profile of plasma $[NO_2]$
- Plasma [NO₂] increased significantly following BR supplementation compared with PL, at
- rest and prior to administration of the inspirate. These findings are consistent with previous
- research which has consistently reported elevations in plasma [NO₂] (3, 4, 33, 34, 51, 62,
- 447 67), following BR supplementation.
- Previous studies have suggested that baseline plasma [NO₂] and/or the change in the
- concentrations of this metabolite during exercise may be associated with exercise
- performance (19, 53, 61, 68). This study is the first to characterise [NO₂] dynamics during
- and following exercise of different intensities in hypoxia and normoxia with and without
- NO₃ supplementation. The results suggest that the metabolism of NO and its derivatives are
- altered by exercise and NO₃ supplementation and, to a lesser extent, FIO₂. The interpretation
- of these data is not straightforward, however. NO₃ can be reduced *in vivo* to bioactive NO₂
- and further to NO (47) and this reduction of NO₂ to NO is expected to be facilitated in
- hypoxia (13). However, NO₂ is also an oxidation product of NO generation via the NOS
- pathway (30) with plasma $[NO_2]$ providing a sensitive marker of NO production through

- 458 NOS (43). Therefore, the dynamics of plasma $[NO_2]$ over the exercise bouts is likely
- reflective of the dynamic balance between NOS-derived NO and NO₂ reduction to NO. In
- the present study, plasma [NO₂] declined during both moderate- and severe-intensity
- exercise (Figure 1) with the magnitude and rate of plasma $[NO_2]$ decline being significantly
- 462 greater in the BR trials compared to PL trials, in both normoxia and hypoxia. These findings
- suggest that the reduction of NO₂ to NO appeared to outweigh the synthesis of NO through
- 464 NOS during exercise.
- The rate of plasma $[NO_2]$ decline over the 5-min moderate-intensity bout was not
- significantly different between N-BR and H-BR, and N-PL and H-PL. However, following
- 5-min of moderate-intensity exercise, plasma [NO₂] had fallen significantly below ModBL in
- N-BR; whereas, there was only a trend for a lower plasma [NO₂] in H-BR. Similarly, the rate
- of plasma [NO₂] decline over the severe-intensity exercise bout was not significantly
- different between N-BR and H-BR or N-PL and H-PL, but the absolute fall in plasma [NO₂⁻]
- 471 tended to be less in H-BR than in N-BR, in spite of a longer exercise duration in N-BR. These
- results are contrary to our hypothesis and suggest that, in hypoxia, the contribution of NOS to
- NO production (30), and subsequently to the regulation of muscle perfusion and matching of
- 474 O_2 supply, may be greater (12).
- During the 10-min passive recovery from exhaustive exercise, plasma $[NO_2]$ increased in a
- similar fashion in H-PL and N-PL. Specifically, plasma [NO₂] increased after 3 min of
- 477 recovery and plateaued after 10 min. The increases in plasma [NO₂] may represent an
- 478 increase in NO oxidation (as NO is continuing to contribute to muscle perfusion and
- matching of O₂ supply and demand; 12) during recovery. Following BR supplementation, the
- recovery profile of plasma [NO₂] was slightly different between normoxia and hypoxia.
- Plasma [NO₂] was higher in H-BR than N-BR following 1.5 min of recovery, although the
- difference between Exh and 1.5Rec was not different between conditions. It is important to
- note that differences in plasma $[NO_2]$ dynamics between hypoxia and normoxia were not
- substantial either during exercise or in recovery.
- 485 Effects of BR supplementation on the physiological response to moderate-intensity exercise
- 486 BR supplementation significantly reduced the O₂ cost of sub-maximal cycle exercise in
- hypoxia. \dot{V}_{02} during baseline cycling in H-BR was reduced by 10% compared to H-PL and
- 488 by 4% compared to N-PL. Furthermore, a 7% reduction in the end-exercise (steady-state) $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$
- was found in H-BR compared to H-PL. These findings are consistent with previous studies

which have reported reductions in submaximal cycling \dot{V}_{0_2} in varying severities of hypoxia. 490 For example, Masschelein et al. (50) reported a 4% reduction in steady state \dot{V}_{02} with an FIO₂ 491 of 0.11 during cycle exercise at 45% peak \dot{V}_{02} and Muggeridge et al. (51) reported a ~6-8% 492 reduction in steady-state $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ at an FIO₂ of 0.15 during cycle exercise at 60% of maximum 493 494 work rate, following BR supplementation. A reduction in muscle metabolic perturbation (i.e. 495 slower rates of change of muscle pH and phosphocreatine (PCr) and inorganic phosphate 496 concentrations) during severe-intensity knee-extensor exercise in hypoxia has also been 497 reported following BR supplementation (64). In the present study, the \dot{V}_{02} phase II τ during moderate-intensity exercise was reduced by BR 498 499 supplementation in hypoxia. This finding is consistent with a recent study in older individuals, where the $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ mean response time was speeded with BR supplementation (32). 500 This may be related to the slower \dot{V}_{02} kinetics that is typically found in older individuals and 501 the potential to abate this through enhancing muscle O₂ delivery (57), via increasing NO 502 bioavailability. Similarly, hypoxia tended to slow \dot{V}_{02} kinetics in the young healthy 503 504 participants in the present study. Specifically, the phase II τ tended to be slowed in hypoxia 505 compared to normoxia (from ~22 to ~31 s; Table 2). This observation is consistent with 506 previous reports of slower \dot{V}_{02} kinetics in hypoxia (29, 59). BR supplementation speeded the phase II τ in hypoxia toward values recorded in normoxia, thereby helping to reverse the 507 detrimental effect of a reduced FIO₂ on \dot{V}_{O_2} kinetics. These findings are consistent with a 508 509 recent study which showed that muscle PCr recovery kinetics, which reflects the maximal 510 rate of mitochondrial ATP resynthesis and is influenced by O₂ availability, were speeded by 511 BR supplementation in hypoxia (64). These data suggest that, in addition to reducing O₂ demand during exercise (50, 51, present study), BR may enhance skeletal muscle O₂ 512 513 availability in hypoxia. In contrast to some (3, 4, 14, 40, 41, 62), but not all (5, 8, 32, 65), previous studies, 3-days of 514 BR supplementation did not significantly reduce $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ during sub-maximal exercise in 515 normoxia. Previous studies have typically reported reductions in steady state $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ of ~3-5% 516 517 following several days of NO₃ supplementation (4, 40, 62). The mechanistic bases for this 518 lower O₂ cost of exercise have been suggested to include improved mitochondrial efficiency 519 (39) and/or reductions in the ATP cost of muscle force production (3) which may be linked to enhanced Ca²⁺-related muscle contractility (28). NO is involved in the regulation of 520

cytochrome-c oxidase (COX) (9). It has been suggested that competition for the COX binding

mitochondrial O₂ consumption and it is well established that NO has a strong affinity for

site between NO and O₂ may be responsible, in part, for the reduced O₂ cost of exercise 523 524 following NO₃⁻ supplementation (4, 41), with this initiating a signalling cascade resulting in 525 mitochondrial protein changes which collectively enhance respiratory chain efficiency (39). 526 Interestingly, hypoxia, per se, may also result in an acute, reversible inhibition of COX (10). 527 The combination of hypoxia and BR supplementation may therefore make it more likely for these effects to be manifest. It is also noteworthy that reductions in \dot{V}_{02} during moderate-528 529 intensity exercise were recently reported to be evident following acute supplementation with 530 16.8 mmol NO₃ (4 x 70 ml BR shots), tended to be evident with 8.4 mmol NO₃ (2 x 70 ml 531 BR shots), but were not evident with 4.2 mmol NO_3 (1 x 70 ml BR shot) (67). It is therefore 532 possible that an insufficient NO₃ dose was consumed immediately prior to the tests to 533 significantly influence the \dot{V}_{02} response to exercise in normoxia in the present study. 534 Furthermore, the inter-individual differences in the \dot{V}_{02} response to exercise in normoxia 535 evident in the current study, may have also contributed to the lack of statistically significant 536 effects. It may be concluded that BR supplementation can (3, 4, 14, 40, 41, 62), but does not always (present study, 5, 8, 32, 66), alter the O₂ cost of exercise in normoxia. 537 538 Indices of muscle oxygenation measured with NIRS were altered as a result of the 539 manipulation of FIO₂ during moderate-intensity exercise but BR supplementation did not 540 significantly influence this response. Consistent with a previous study (49), [HHb] was 541 greater in hypoxia indicating that muscle fractional O₂ extraction was increased, while 542 [HbO₂] and TOI were significantly reduced in hypoxia compared to normoxia. Although not 543 significant, BR supplementation tended to ameliorate the negative effects of hypoxia upon 544 TOI during moderate-intensity exercise in the current study (a 3.6% increase in TOI), in a 545 similar fashion to that reported by Masschelein et al. (50) (a 4% increase in TOI). These 546 effects are consistent with observations that the arterial-venous nitrite difference is associated 547 with limb vasodilatation and increased skeletal muscle blood flow during exercise performed 548 in hypoxia (20). The trend for an improved TOI with BR supplementation indicates better muscle oxygenation (24) which may have been responsible for the speeding of the \dot{V}_{02} 549 550 kinetics observed in hypoxia. Consistent with a possible improvement in oxygenation status, the typical compensatory rise in HR in hypoxia was attenuated by BR compared to PL during 551 moderate-intensity exercise. Specifically, HR was 5-6 b·min⁻¹ lower in the H-BR compared to 552 the H-PL condition. There were no differences between H-BR and H-PL in indices of muscle 553 554 oxygenation or HR during severe-intensity exercise.

Whether the reduction in cardiac work (lower HR) and metabolic requirement (lower $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$) 555 556 with BR observed in the present study might translate into enhanced performance during 557 prolonged low-intensity exercise at altitude remains to be determined. Furthermore, older age 558 and a number of disease conditions including peripheral arterial disease, diabetes, COPD and 559 anaemia are associated with tissue hypoxia. A reduced O₂ cost of moderate-intensity exercise 560 (i.e. walking) and reduced muscle metabolic perturbation during physical activity may 561 improve the quality of life in individuals with these diseases (34, 64). However, further research is required to explore the effects of BR supplementation on health and functional 562 563 capacity in patient populations. 564 Effects of BR supplementation on the physiological response to severe-intensity exercise The end-exercise \dot{V}_{O_2} was significantly reduced in hypoxia compared to normoxia. Moreover, 565 566 [HbO₂] and TOI of the m. vastus lateralis were significantly reduced, while [HHb] and HR 567 were significantly increased in hypoxia compared to normoxia, consistent with previous findings (50). There was a trend toward a reduction in end-exercise \dot{V}_{02} with BR compared to 568 PL supplementation in hypoxia of $\sim 6\%$. This finding indicates the $\dot{V}_{\rm O2peak}$ may be reduced by 569 570 NO₃ supplementation and is consistent with some (6, 42) but not all previous studies (4, 33, 571 62) conducted in normoxia. 572 Tolerance to severe-intensity cycle exercise in hypoxia in the present study was significantly improved (9%, P < 0.05) following BR supplementation. This finding is consistent with 573 574 earlier studies which reported that BR supplementation increased exercise tolerance during 575 constant-work-rate (64) and incremental (50) exercise protocols and also enhanced cycling 576 time-trial performance (51) in hypoxia. However, in contrast to previous findings (3, 4, 8, 33, 577 37), we found no effect of BR supplementation on exercise tolerance in normoxia. An interesting observation in the present study was the significant correlation between the 578 579 reduction in steady-state $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ and the improvement in exercise tolerance following BR 580 supplementation in hypoxia (r = -0.96). Therefore, the lack of effect on \dot{V}_{02} during sub-581 maximal exercise in normoxia following BR supplementation may explain the lack of effect 582 on exercise tolerance. Further research is required to address the physiological bases for 583 responders and non-responders to dietary nitrate supplementation.

Perspectives

This study provides the first description of the influence of FIO₂ and BR supplementation on 585 586 plasma [NO₂-] dynamics during moderate- and severe-intensity exercise and subsequent recovery in humans. The greater rate of decline of plasma [NO₂] during exercise following 587 588 BR compared to PL supplementation suggests that elevating plasma [NO₂] prior to exercise 589 may promote NO production through the nitrate-nitrite-NO pathway. In hypoxia, but not 590 normoxia, BR supplementation reduced the O₂ cost of moderate-intensity exercise, speeded 591 $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ kinetics, and improved severe-intensity exercise tolerance. These findings may have 592 important implications for individuals exercising at altitude. 593 Acknowledgements 594 We thank Sarah Jackman, Sinead McDonough, Matthew Black and Jamie Blackwell for 595 technical support, and Beet It Ltd. for providing the beverages used in this study, gratis. 596 597

598 Figure Legends 599 Figure 1. Plasma [NO₂] response during moderate- and severe-intensity exercise and recovery following BR and PL, in normoxia and hypoxia. Error bars indicate SE. H-BR was 600 601 greater than H-PL at each time point and N-BR was greater than N-PL at each time point. a = P < 0.05 for N-BR compared to H-BR; b = P < 0.05 compared to moderate baseline; c = P < 0.05602 603 0.05 compared to severe baseline. Where error bars are not visible, the size of the data point exceeds the error. 604 605 **Figure 2.** Pulmonary O_2 uptake $(\dot{V}o_2)$ responses during a step increment to a moderateintensity work rate, following PL and BR supplementation. Responses following BR are 606 607 represented as solid circles, with the PL responses being shown as open circles. The dotted vertical line denotes the abrupt 'step' transition from baseline to moderate-intensity cycling 608 609 exercise. Error bars indicate the SE. A: Group mean response to moderate-intensity exercise 610 in normoxia (~21% FIO₂); B: Group mean response to moderate-intensity exercise in hypoxia 611 $(\sim 13.2 \text{ FIO}_2)$; * = P < 0.05 compared to H-PL. **Figure 3.** Pulmonary O_2 uptake (\dot{V}_{O_2}) responses and time-to exhaustion during a step 612 613 increment to a severe-intensity work rate, following PL and BR supplementation. Responses 614 following BR are represented as solid circles, with the PL responses being shown as open 615 circles. The dotted vertical line denotes the abrupt 'step' transition from baseline to moderate-616 intensity cycling exercise. Error bars indicate the SE. A: Group mean response to severe-617 intensity exercise in normoxia (\sim 21% FIO₂); B: Group mean response to severe-intensity exercise in hypoxia ($\sim 13.2 \text{ FIO}_2$). * = Time to exhaustion greater in H-BR compared to H-PL 618 619 (P < 0.05; one-tailed t-test).620 621 622 623 624

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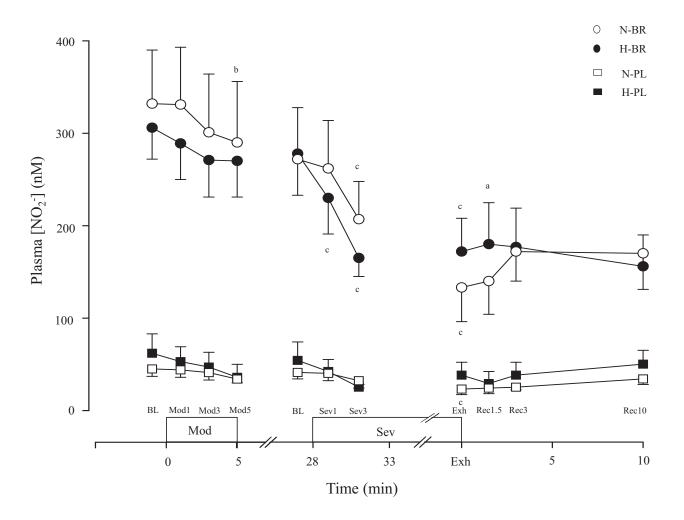
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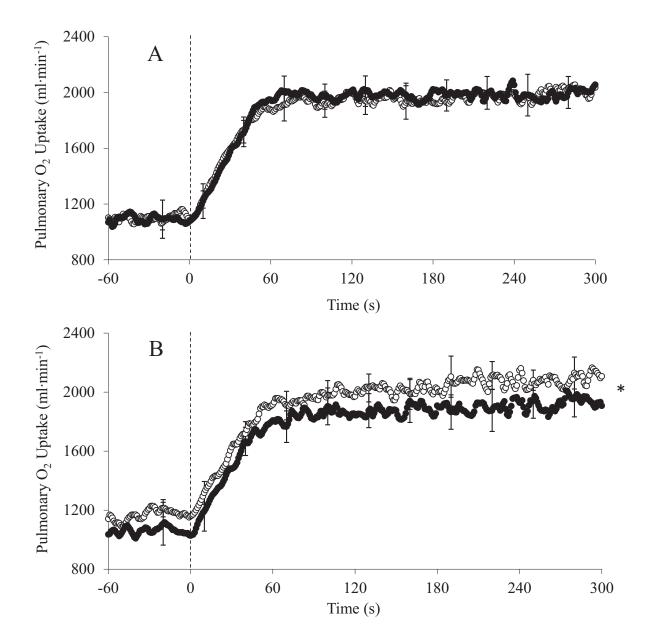
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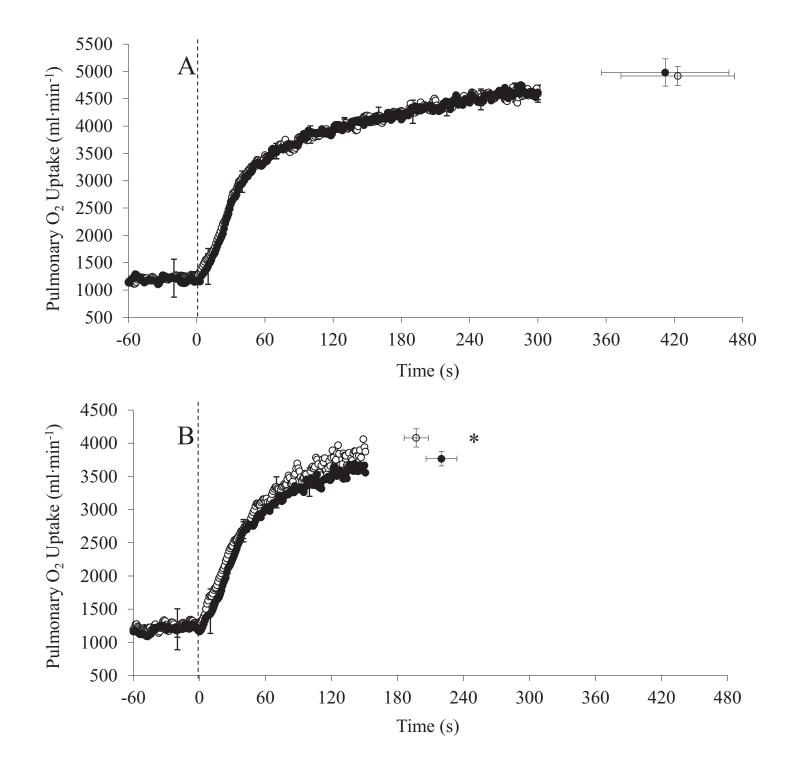


Table 1. Arterial oxygen saturation and heart rate during rest and in response to moderate- and severe-intensity exercise.

	N-PL	N-BR	H-PL	H-BR
Resting without inspirate				
SaO_2 (%)				
10 min period	99 ± 1	99 ± 1	99 ± 1	99 ± 1
End	99 ± 1	99 ± 1	99 ± 1	99 ± 1
HR (b/min)				
10 min period	59 ± 9	61 ± 10	61 ± 10	61 ± 9
End	60 ± 9	61 ± 9	61 ± 10	61 ± 9
Resting with inspirate				
SaO_2 (%)				
10 min period	99 ± 1	99 ± 1	$93 \pm 2^{+}$	$93 \pm 2*$
End	99 ± 1	99 ± 1	$90 \pm 3^{+}$	91 ± 1*
HR (b/min)				
10 min period	58 ± 9	60 ± 11	68 ± 11	$66 \pm 10^{\#}$
End	60 ± 8	60 ± 11	$68 \pm 11 \dagger$	66 ± 10*
Moderate-intensity exercise				
SaO_2 (%)				
Baseline	97 ± 3	98 ± 2	87 ± 4	85 ± 4
6 min period	97 ± 3	98 ± 2	$83 \pm 3 \dagger$	$84 \pm 4*$
End	97 ± 3	97 ± 3	$81 \pm 4 \dagger$	$82 \pm 5*$
HR (b/min)				
Baseline	82 ± 10	86 ± 12	101 ± 16	94 ± 13
6 min period	102 ± 15	107 ± 15	122 ± 15	$117 \pm 19^{\#}$
End	105 ± 16	111 ± 17	$130 \pm 15 \dagger$	$124 \pm 19*$
Severe-intensity exercise				
SaO_2 (%)				
Baseline	98 ± 2	97 ± 3	86 ± 4	87 ± 4
Exhaustion	94 ± 4	94 ± 4	$80 \pm 3 \dagger$	$80 \pm 4*$
HR (b/min)				
Baseline	97 ± 9	103 ± 12	113 ± 9	114 ± 12
Exhaustion	179 ± 4	180 ± 5	172 ± 6	171 ± 6

[#] P < 0.05 compared to H-PL; * P < 0.05 compared to N-BR; † P < 0.05 compared to N-PL.

Table 2. Oxygen uptake kinetics in response to moderate- and severe-intensity exercise in hypoxic and normoxic conditions.

	N-PL	N-BR	H-PL	H-BR
Moderate-intensity exercise				
$\dot{V}O_2$ (ml/min)				
Baseline	1102 ± 156	1010 ± 343	1167 ± 123	$1056 \pm 133^{\#}$
End Exercise	1970 ± 251	1908 ± 340	2049 ± 247	$1905 \pm 275^{\#}$
Phase II τ , (s)	22 ± 10	$17 \pm 4^{\#}$	31 ± 11	$24 \pm 13^{\#}$
Primary amplitude	868 ± 210	899 ± 256	882 ± 214	849 ± 208
Severe-intensity exercise				
$\dot{V}O_2$ (ml/min)				
Baseline	1212 ± 179	1205 ± 158	1244 ± 175	1193 ± 177
End Exercise	4814 ± 470	4721 ± 434	$3986 \pm 300 \dagger$	$3751 \pm 249*$
Phase II τ , (s)	30 ± 6	28 ± 9	35 ± 14	31 ± 11
Primary amplitude	2716 ± 398	2636 ± 486	2450 ± 497	2264 ± 386
Slow Component Amplitude	886 ± 235	881 ± 259	$302\pm290\dagger$	$301 \pm 274*$

[#] P < 0.05 compared to H-PL; * P < 0.05 compared to N-BR; † P < 0.05 compared to N-PL.

Table 3. Near-infrared spectroscopy- derived HHb, HbO_2 , Hb_{tot} and TOI dynamics during moderate- and severe-intensity exercise.

	N-PL	N-BR	H-PL	H-BR
Moderate-intensity exercise [HHb] (AU)				
Baseline	7 ± 5	6 ± 5	11 ± 5 †	10 ± 5*
120 s	11 ± 8	0 ± 3 11 ± 7	$18 \pm 8 \dagger$	$17 \pm 10*$
End Exercise	12 ± 8	11 ± 7 11 ± 7	$20 \pm 8 \dagger$	$17 \pm 10^{*}$ $18 \pm 10^{*}$
Time Constant, (s)	23 ± 7	19 ± 6	20 ± 61 22 ± 9	23 ± 7
Amplitude	5 ± 4	6 ± 4	$8 \pm 5 \dagger$	$7 \pm 6*$
$[HbO_2]$ (AU)	2	2	0 . 7	2 . 5
Baseline	2 ± 6	3 ± 6	2 ± 5	2 ± 7
120 s	1 ± 6	2 ± 6	-2 ± 4	-2 ± 8
End Exercise	4 ± 5	5 ± 5	$0\pm 3\dagger$	-2 ± 9*
$[Hb_{tot}]$ (AU)			4 0	
Baseline	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0
120 s	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0
End Exercise	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0
TOI (AU)				
Baseline	65 ± 3	65 ± 4	$61 \pm 4 \dagger$	$63 \pm 4*$
120 s	61 ± 5	60 ± 6	$52 \pm 5 \dagger$	$54 \pm 6*$
End Exercise	62 ± 7	61 ± 7	$52 \pm 6 \dagger$	54 ± 6*
Severe-intensity exercise				
[HHb] (AU)				
Baseline	5 ± 5	5 ± 5	$10 \pm 6 \dagger$	$10 \pm 6*$
120 s	19 ± 13	18 ± 11	$25 \pm 12 \dagger$	$24 \pm 14*$
End Exercise	22 ± 14	21 ± 12	$26 \pm 12 \dagger$	$26 \pm 14*$
Time Constant, (s)	13 ± 5	11 ± 5	11 ± 3	12 ± 6
Primary amplitude	14 ± 10	14 ± 8	14 ± 9	14 ± 10
Slow phase amplitude	3 ± 2	3 ± 2	$2\pm2\dagger$	2 ± 2*
$[HbO_2]$ (AU)				
Baseline	7 ± 7	8 ± 7	$6 \pm 5 \dagger$	$5 \pm 8*$
120 s	-4 ± 7	-3 ± 7	$-9 \pm 4 †$	$-10 \pm 8*$
End Exercise	-7 ± 9	-7 ± 7	-11 ± 5 †	-12 ± 7 *
$[Hb_{tot}]$ (AU)				
Baseline	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0
120 s	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0
End Exercise	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0	1 ± 0
TOI (AU)				
Baseline	70 ± 5	69 ± 4	64 ± 4	64 ± 4
120 s	52 ± 12	51 ± 10	44 ± 9	44 ± 10
End Exercise	48 ± 11	47 ± 9	$41 \pm 9 \dagger$	$41 \pm 8*$

Deoxygenated hemoglobin concentration ([HHb]), oxygenated hemoglobin concentration ([HbO₂]), total hemoglobin concentration ([Hb $_{tot}$]) and total oxygenation index (TOI) are shown. * P < 0.05 compared to N-BR; † P < 0.05 compared to N-PL. AU = arbitrary units.