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**Title:** Sex differences in fatigability and recovery relative to the intensity-duration relationship

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1	Sex differences in fatigability and recovery relative to the intensity-
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34 Females are less fatigable than males during isometric exercise at intensities relative to maximal 35 voluntary contraction (MVC), however whether a sex difference in fatigability exists when exercise is 36 prescribed relative to a critical intensity is unknown. This study established the intensity-duration 37 relationship, and compared fatigability and recovery between sexes following intermittent isometric 38 contractions normalised to critical intensity. Twenty participants (10 females) completed four 39 intermittent isometric knee extension trials to task failure to determine critical intensity and the 40 curvature constant (W'), followed by fatiguing tasks at +10 and -10% relative to critical intensity. 41 Neuromuscular assessments were completed at baseline and for 45 minutes post-exercise. Non-42 invasive neurostimulation, near-infrared spectroscopy, and non-invasive haemodynamic monitoring 43 were used to elucidate the physiological mechanisms responsible for sex differences. Females 44 demonstrated a greater critical intensity relative to MVC than males (25±3 vs. 21±2% MVC, P=0.003), 45 with no sex difference for W' (18,206±6,331 vs. 18,756±5,762 N.s<sup>-1</sup>, P=0.850). Time to task-failure was greater for females (62.37±17.25 vs. 30.43±12.75 min, P<0.001) during the +10% trial, and contractile 46 47 function recovered faster post-exercise (P=0.034). During the -10% trial females experienced less 48 contractile dysfunction (P=0.011). Throughout both tasks, females demonstrated greater increases in 49 oxyhaemoglobin ( $P \le 0.044$ ) and an attenuated exercise pressor reflex. These data show that a sex 50 difference in fatigability exists even when exercise is matched for critical intensity. We propose that 51 greater oxygen availability during exercise permits females to sustain a higher relative intensity than 52 males, and is an explanatory factor for the sex difference in fatigability during intermittent, isometric 53 contractions.

ABSTRACT

54	KEY POINTS
55 • 56 57 58	Females demonstrate greater fatigue-resistance than males during contractions at intensities relative to maximum force. However, previous studies haven't accounted for the influence of metabolic thresholds on fatigability.
<ul> <li>59</li> <li>60</li> <li>61</li> <li>62</li> </ul>	This study is the first to test whether sex differences in fatigability exist when exercise intensity is normalised relative to a metabolic threshold: the critical intensity derived from assessment of the intensity-duration relationship during intermittent, isometric knee extensor contractions.
63 • 64 65 66	We show that critical intensity in females occured at a higher percentage of maximum force compared to males. Furthermore, females demonstrated greater fatigue resistance at exercise intensities above and below this metabolic threshold.
67 • 68 69	Our data suggests that the sex difference was mediated by a greater capacity for females to maintain oxygenation of the knee-extensors during exercise.
70 • 71 72	These data highlight the importance of accounting for metabolic thresholds when comparing fatigability between sexes, whilst emphasising the notion that male data is not generalisable to female populations.

#### INTRODUCTION

74 Insight into the metabolic demands of a fatiguing task and the mechanisms responsible for the 75 attainment of task failure can be gained by determining the intensity-duration relationship, which is 76 well described in males (Poole et al., 1988; Dekerle et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2008; Vanhatalo et al., 77 2010). The duration that exercise can be maintained is progressively reduced as the intensity of the 78 contraction increases, and the relationship becomes hyperbolic once a metabolic threshold, hereafter 79 termed the critical intensity, has been exceeded (Jones et al., 2010; Poole et al., 2016). This 80 phenomenon has been frequently reported during dynamic tasks (e.g. cycling and knee extension, 81 Jones et al., 2008; Vanhatalo et al., 2010), and a similar relationship exists for intermittent, isometric 82 tasks (Burnley, 2009; Burnley et al., 2012). The critical intensity, the asymptote of the hyperbolic curve, 83 represents the maximal sustainable work rate at which energy supply can be provided and sustained 84 from oxidative metabolism (Poole et al., 2016; Burnley & Jones, 2018). Below the critical intensity, 85 substrate-level phosphorylation and the production of intramuscular metabolites are maintained at a 86 steady state (Jones et al., 2008; Black et al., 2016). Exercise performed at intensities above the critical 87 intensity requires ATP to be resynthesized from anaerobic metabolism, leading to a progressive loss 88 of intramuscular homeostasis and a shorter time to task failure (Jones et al., 2008; Vanhatalo et al., 89 2010; Schäfer et al., 2019). Exercise above the threshold is associated with progressive intramuscular 90 perturbations that can accelerate fatigability 4-5 times faster (Burnley et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 91 2016). However, this has been described primarily in young males (Burnley, 2009; Burnley et al., 2012). 92 One study included both sexes, but did not conduct a sex comparison of the intensity-duration 93 relationship (Pethick et al., 2016). Whether the critical intensity differs between males and females 94 for tasks where the sex difference in fatigability is commonly reported (e.g. intermittent isometric 95 contractions, Hunter et al., 2004; Ansdell et al., 2018) is unknown, and could provide a physiological 96 mechanism to explain these previous findings.

97 A range of reported physiological differences between males and females would suggest the critical 98 intensity could differ between sexes for intermittent isometric tasks. Females are reported to be less 99 fatigable than males across a range of exercise tasks and muscle groups, for contractions performed 100 at the same intensity relative to maximal strength (Hunter, 2009, 2016a). The sex difference in 101 fatigability is dependent upon the intensity and contraction modality of the task (Yoon et al., 2007; 102 Russ et al., 2008; Hunter, 2016a, 2016b). During intermittent isometric contractions, females 103 demonstrate greater fatigue-resistance compared to males, even when matched for maximal 104 strength. The magnitude of the sex difference in fatigability might also be magnified at lower 105 contraction intensities (Hunter et al., 2004; Ansdell et al., 2018), but it remains unclear whether the 106 relationship between contraction intensity and task duration (time to task failure, i.e. fatigability)

107 differs between males and females, and whether the underlying mechanisms of fatigue differ. A 108 crucial determinant of the intensity-duration relationship is oxygen delivery to the skeletal muscle, 109 with positive correlations between critical intensity and the fraction of inspired oxygen (Vanhatalo et 110 al., 2010; Dekerle et al., 2012). Critical power (during cycling exercise), for example, is positively 111 correlated with type I fibre proportion and muscle capillarity of the knee extensor muscles (Vanhatalo 112 et al., 2016; Mitchell et al., 2018). Typically, females have a greater proportion of type I muscle fibres 113 (Simoneau & Bouchard, 1989; Staron et al., 2000; Roepstorff et al., 2006), which are less fatigable than 114 type 2 fibres (Schiaffino & Reggiani, 2011). Females also exhibit greater capillarisation per unit of 115 vastus lateralis muscle (Roepstorff et al., 2006), and an augmented vasodilatory response of the 116 femoral artery during exercise (Parker et al., 2007). Furthermore, females exhibit greater skeletal 117 muscle oxygenation and less deoxygenation during upper and lower limb exercise than males when 118 assessed with near infrared spectroscopy; NIRS (Mantooth et al., 2018; Marshall et al., 2019). Whether 119 these physiological sex differences could influence the critical intensity of the intensity –duration 120 relationship for intermittent isometric contraction task is unknown.

121 Finally, recovery of exercise is also influenced by the aforementioned properties of skeletal muscle 122 and could therefore differ between males and females; however, the extent of possible sex 123 differences and the involved mechanisms of neuromuscular revcovery are not understood. Limited 124 evidence exists examining the sex difference of recovery for short durations after exercise (10-20 125 minutes), showing that force producing capacity of female knee extensors recovers more rapidly than 126 males (Senefeld et al., 2018). Greater capillary density of the exercising muscle(s) can increase the 127 rate of recovery from fatigue (Tesch & Wright, 1983; Casey et al., 1996), possibly due to an increased 128 rate of metabolite clearance and ATP/phosphocreatine re-synthesis post-exercise (Casey et al., 1996; 129 McDonough et al., 2004), or a reversal in disruptions to calcium handling (Fitts & Balog, 1996). The 130 latter has been shown to differ between sexes during exercise (Harmer et al., 2014). There is a paucity 131 of data relating to sex differences in recovery, and of the neural and contractile mechanisms involved 132 following fatiguing exercise.

The present study had three primary aims: 1) to compare the relative torque (% MVC) at which critical intensity is achieved within the intensity-duration relationship for intermittent, isometric tasks in males and females; 2) determine the mechanisms that contribute to fatigability during intermittent isometric tasks at intensities of torque above and below the critical intensity in males and females; and 3) compare the rate of recovery following fatiguing exercise and the underpinning neuromuscular mechanisms. We *hypothesised* that: 1) due to greater oxygen availability within the muscle, females would demonstrate a higher critical intensity than men when expressed relative to MVC. 2) There would be no sex difference in the time to task failure when the tasks were compared at the same metabolic intensity of contraction, relative to critical intensity. 3) Recovery from fatiguing exercise would be more rapid in females than males due to the properties of contractile elements of the muscle. To understand the mechanisms of fatigability and recovery both above and below the critical intensity in males and females, we used motor nerve and cortical stimulation to delineate the contractile and neural responses to exercise, as well as NIRS to determine the oxygenation of the muscles.

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#### 148

#### METHODS

149 Ethical Approval

The study received institutional ethical approval from the Northumbria University Health and Life Sciences Research Ethics Committee (submission reference: 2434) and was conducted according to all aspects of the Declaration of Helsinki, apart from registration in a database. Participants provided written, informed consent to volunteer for the study.

154

### 155 Participants

156 Using the effect size for the sex difference in exercise tolerance at 50% MVC from Ansdell et al. (2017), 157 a power calculation (alpha = 0.05, power 0.80) determined that a sample size of 16 participants was 158 required. Therefore, to maximise statistical power, ten males (mean  $\pm$  SD age: 26  $\pm$  5 years, height: 159  $178 \pm 8$  cm, mass:  $83.4 \pm 14.4$  kg) and ten females (age:  $24 \pm 2$  years, height:  $168 \pm 9$  cm, mass  $68.5 \pm 100$ 160 7.7 kg) were recruited to take part in the study. The females that volunteered were all using 161 monophasic oral contraceptive pills (>6 months), and were tested in the 21-day consumption period 162 of the pill cycle in order to negate the effects of endogenous hormones on neuromuscular function 163 and fatigability (Ansdell et al., 2019). Participants arrived at the laboratory rested and hydrated, with 164 strenuous physical activity avoided for 48 hours, and caffeine and alcohol prohibited for 24 hours.

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#### 166 Experimental Design

All participants visited the laboratory seven times, completing a familiarisation visit, four constant load trials to estimate critical intensity, then trials 10% above and below critical torque (see *Experimental Protocol*). Testing took place over a three to five week period, with a minimum of 48 h between visits to permit full recovery of fatigue (Carroll *et al.*, 2016). The time of day for each testing session was replicated (± 1 h) to account for diurnal variations in maximal force generating capacity and corticospinal excitability (Tamm *et al.*, 2009).

#### 174 Experimental Protocol

175 Visit 1: Familiarisation. Participants were sat in the isometric dynamometer with hip and knee angles 176 at 90°. This set up was replicated for all visits. Electrical nerve stimulation threshold was determined, 177 followed by TMS hotspot, active motor threshold (aMT) and voluntary activation (VA) stimulator 178 intensity determination (described below). Following this, a baseline neuromuscular function 179 assessment was performed. After five minutes of passive rest, participants performed the fatiguing 180 task at 60% MVC. An MVC and electrical stimulation was performed, each minute throughout the 181 fatiguing task. Immediately following the fatiguing task, participants performed a 'post-exercise' 182 neuromuscular assessment.

183

184 Visits 2-5: Critical Intensity Estimation Trials. To establish critical intensity, participants performed four 185 trials to task failure. These involved intermittent isometric knee-extensor contractions at submaximal 186 intensities between 40-80% MVC. The first trial was set at 60% MVC, based on the pre-exercise MVC 187 in the first trial. The following three estimation trials were set at intensities that elicit task failure 188 between 2 and 15 minutes in a randomised order (Burnley, 2009; Burnley et al., 2012). Participants 189 were instructed to match a target force displayed using a visual guideline on a computer screen ~1 m 190 in front of them, and were blinded to the time elapsed in each trial. The contraction regime for all 191 trials involved 3 s contractions interspersed with 2 s rest, with an MVC and electrical stimulation 192 performed at the end of each minute. This contraction duty cycle has previously displayed sex 193 differences independent of strength, and therefore occlusion differences between males and females 194 (Ansdell et al., 2017; Hunter et al., 2006). Task failure was deemed as a failure to meet the target force 195 three consecutive times despite strong verbal encouragement. Participants were informed each time 196 they failed to reach the target force. Before the submaximal task, participants performed five 3 s MVCs 197 separated by 30 s, with electrical stimulation during and 2 s after the final three contractions. 198 Immediately following task failure this was repeated with three MVCs and superimposed electrical 199 stimulations.

200

Visits 6 and 7: Critical Intensity Trials. The supra (+10%) and sub (-10%) critical intensity trials began with electrical nerve stimulation and TMS thresholds being determined. Baseline near infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) values were recorded once participants were sat in the dynamometer in the same position as the fatiguing task. NIRS data was captured for the entirety of the trials, and was used to measure changes in muscle oxygenation during the fatiguing task. Cardiac output (Q), heart rate (HR), and mean arterial pressure (MAP) were measured throughout the trial via a fingertip arterial pressure cuff (Finometer Midi, Finapres Medical System, Arnhem, The Netherlands). Participants completed a 208 standardised isometric warm up (Gruet et al., 2014), before a baseline neuromuscular function 209 assessment. After five minutes of passive rest participants completed an intermittent isometric 210 fatiguing task to failure at an intensity relative to their critical intensity (+10 or -10%). An MVC with 211 electrical stimulation during and ~2 s following was performed and delivered at the end of each 212 minute of the task to assess neuromuscular function (see below). The -10% trial was terminated after 213 45 minutes, as this intensity contraction could theoretically be maintained indefinitely without task 214 failure (Burnley et al., 2012). Therefore, male and female fatigability was compared after an identical 215 'dose' of exercise. The intensity for the first critical intensity trial was randomised and 216 counterbalanced. Upon task failure or termination, a post-test neuromuscular function assessment 217 (see below) was immediately performed, then repeated at 15, 30 and 45 minutes post-exercise.

218

#### 219 Intensity-Duration Relationship

Critical intensity and curvature constant (W') were estimated from the force-impulse relationship of the four submaximal trials. A linear regression between force impulse at task failure from the four submaximal trials against time to task failure was plotted to determine the characteristics of the relationship. The slope of the regression determined critical intensity, and the y-intercept determined W' (Burnley et al., 2009, 2012). Critical intensity was expressed in Newtons, and as %MVC to account for sex differences in absolute force production.

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227 Measurements

228 Neuromuscular Function

Participants completed five isometric knee-extensor MVCs separated by 30 s, with electrical nerve
stimulation delivered during and after the final three contractions to quantify voluntary activation
(VA<sub>MNS</sub>) and quadriceps potentiated twitch force (Q<sub>tw.pot</sub>). In the final two visits (critical intensity trials)
voluntary activation was also assessed with TMS (VA<sub>TMS</sub>) using two sets of five contractions (100, 87.5,
75, 62.5, and 50% MVC, Dekerle *et al.*, 2019); single pulse TMS was delivered during each contraction.
Finally, short interval cortical inhibition (SICI) and corticospinal excitability (MEP/M<sub>max</sub>) were assessed
during a 10% MVC contraction.

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239 Force and EMG

Participants were seated on a custom-built chair, with force (N) measured using a calibrated load cell
(MuscleLab force sensor 300, Ergotest technology, Norway). The load cell was attached to the

242 participant's dominant right leg, superior to the ankle malleoli, using a cuff. The load cell height was 243 adjusted to ensure a direct line with the applied force for each participant. Participants were sat 244 upright with knee and hip angles kept at 90° flexion. Electromyography (EMG) of the knee extensors 245 was recorded from the rectus femoris (RF), with antagonist knee flexor activity recorded from the long 246 head of the biceps femoris (BF). Skin was shaved and cleaned, surface electrodes (Ag/AgCl; Kendall 247 H87PG/F, Covidien, Mansfield, MA, USA) were then placed 2 cm apart over the muscle belly, according 248 to SENIAM guidelines (Hermens et al., 2000), with a reference electrode placed over the patella. EMG 249 electrodes recorded signals during maximal and submaximal contractions and were quantified as root-250 mean-square amplitude (rmsEMG). Compound muscle action potentials (maximal M-wave) following 251 motor nerve stimulation, and MEPs elicited by TMS were also recorded. Surface electrode signals were 252 amplified (×1,000; 1902, Cambridge Electronic Design, Cambridge), band-pass filtered (20-2,000 Hz), 253 digitized (4 kHz, micro 1401, Cambridge Electronic Design) and acquired for off-line analysis (Spike2 254 version 7.01, Cambridge Electronic Design).

255

256 Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation

257 Single and paired pulse magnetic stimuli of 1 ms duration were delivered over the contralateral motor 258 cortex (postero-anterior intracranial current flow) with a concave double cone coil (110 mm diameter, 259 maximum output 1.4 Tesla) powered by a BiStim unit and two Magstim 200<sup>2</sup> stimulators (The Magstim 260 Company, Whitland, UK). Optimal stimulation location was located by stimulating at ~50% maximum 261 stimulator output during a 10% MVC contraction. The position eliciting the greatest MEP amplitude in 262 the RF, and a concurrent small MEP in the antagonist BF muscle, was marked with indelible ink to 263 ensure consistent placement within trials. Stimulator output for aMT was defined as the lowest 264 stimulus intensity required to elicit a MEP of at least 0.2 mV in three out five stimulation in the RF 265 during a 10% MVC contraction. Mean aMT was not different between males and females ( $39 \pm 7$  vs. 266  $43 \pm 10\%$ , P = 0.379), or between visits ( $41 \pm 9$  vs.  $41 \pm 9\%$ , P = 0.423). The conditioning pulses were 267 delivered at 70% aMT, 2 ms prior to a test stimulus at 120% aMT during a 10% MVC contraction 268 (Brownstein et al., 2018). Ten unconditioned and ten conditioned stimuli were delivered and the 269 resultant motor evoked potential (MEP) amplitudes were averaged and presented as a normalised 270 value ((conditioned MEP/unconditioned MEP)×100) as an index of SICI. The average amplitude of the 271 unconditioned pulse normalised to maximal M-wave was used as an index of corticospinal excitability. 272 Stimulator output for VATMS was determined as the greatest mean SIT elicited by two pulses delivered 273 during a ~6 s contraction at 50% MVC, as TMS intensity was increased in a step-wise (i.e. 5% 274 increments) fashion from 50% maximal stimulator output (Thomas et al., 2016; Brownstein et al., 275 2017). Each contraction was separated by 30 s rest. Mean stimulator intensity was not different between males and females ( $63 \pm 6\%$  vs.  $66 \pm 11\%$ , P = 0.462) or between visits ( $66 \pm 10\%$  vs.  $63 \pm 7\%$ , P = 0.218). The intensities used activated a large proportion of the motoneuron pool for the RF that was not different between trials at baseline ( $53 \pm 13\%$  M<sub>MAX</sub> vs.  $53 \pm 16\%$  M<sub>MAX</sub>, P = 0.920). The TMS pulse also avoided substantial activation of the antagonist (*biceps femoris*) with small incidental MEPs recorded at baseline ( $0.68 \pm 0.52$  mV vs.  $0.70 \pm 0.1$  mV, P = 0.902).

281

282 Motor Nerve Stimulation

283 Single electrical stimuli (200  $\mu$ s duration) were delivered to the femoral nerve via 32 mm-diameter 284 surface electrodes (CF3200; Nidd Valley Medical, North Yorkshire, UK) using a constant-current 285 stimulator (DS7AH, Digitimer, Welwyn Garden City, Hertfordshire, UK). The cathode was placed high 286 in the femoral triangle over the nerve, and the anode positioned midway between the greater 287 trochanter and iliac crest. The cathode was repositioned until the largest knee extensor twitch 288 amplitude ( $Q_{tw}$ ) and maximal RF M-wave ( $M_{MAX}$ ) was elicited at rest. Stimulations began at 20 mA, and 289 increased by 20 mA until a plateau in Q<sub>tw</sub> and M-wave amplitude occurred. This value was then be 290 increased by 30% to ensure supramaximal stimulations during the protocol. Mean stimulus intensity 291 was not different between sexes (276  $\pm$  142 vs. 190  $\pm$  75 mA, P = 0.057) or between visits (241  $\pm$  104 292 vs. 229 ± 107 mA, P = 0.492).

293

### 294 Near Infrared Spectroscopy

295 A multi-distance, continuous-wave, single channel NIRS (NIRO-200NX, Hamamatsu, Hamamatsu City, 296 Japan) evaluated changes in vastus lateralis muscle oxy- (HbO<sub>2</sub>), and deoxy- (HHb) haemoglobin 297 concentrations  $[\mu M]$ , as well as tissue oxygenation index (TOI = HbO<sub>2</sub> ÷ [HbO<sub>2</sub> + HHb] × 100), sampled 298 at a rate of 1 Hz. The light-emitting probe comprised of diodes operating at three wavelengths (735, 299 810, and 850 nm). The probe was placed on the vastus lateralis, 20 cm above the fibular head lateral 300 side of the patella (Keane et al., 2018). Optodes were held in place by an elasticised, tensor bandage 301 and covered by an opaque, dark material to avoid motion and ambient light influences. Pre-exercise, 302 participants remained seated and avoided muscle contraction for five minutes to establish baseline 303 muscle oxygenation, with the final 30 s used as the pre-exercise value. During the fatiguing tasks, the 304 30 s window around 25, 50, 75% of the task, as well as the final 30 s of the task (100%), were expressed 305 as changes from baseline ( $\Delta$ %).

306

### 307 Haemodynamic Monitoring

308 Mean arterial blood pressure and heart rate were measured continuously throughout the final two
 309 testing visits using finger arterial pressure pulse wave analysis (Finometer Midi, Finapres Medical

310 System, Arnhem, The Netherlands). This system was also used to estimate Q using the Modelfow 311 equation (Wesseling et al., 1993). An appropriately sized cuff was placed between the distal proximal 312 inter-phalangeal joint of the middle finger. To minimise the effect of arm and hand movement during 313 the trials, arm position was maintained stationary throughout the trial. To account for hydrostatic 314 pressure differences between the level of the hand and heart, a height correction unit was used. The 315 Finapres was activated prior to the exercise tasks to allow calibration via the Physiocal function within 316 the BeatScope software. This technique has previously been validated and shown to be reliable at rest 317 and in exercise conditions (Parati et al., 1989; Waldron et al., 2017). Signals were linearly interpolated 318 and resampled at 1 Hz (Faisal et al., 2009), then a 5 s rolling average was used to smooth the data 319 (Beltrame et al., 2017), before 30 s time intervals were taken pre-exercise, 25, 50, 75 and 100% of 320 time to task failure. Pre-exercise, participants remained seated for five minutes to establish baseline 321 values, with the final 30 s used as pre-exercise values.

322

#### 323 Data Analysis

324 Voluntary activation using motor nerve stimulation was determined using the twitch interpolation 325 method (Merton 1954) by comparing the amplitude of the superimposed twitch (SIT) with the 326 amplitude of the potentiated resting twitch ( $Q_{tw.pot}$ ) using the following formula: VA<sub>MNS</sub> (%) = (1 – [SIT 327  $\div Q_{tw,pot}$ ]) × 100]. Voluntary activation using TMS was assessed during two sets of contractions at 100, 328 87.5, 75, 62.5 and 50% MVC (Dekerle et al. 2019). Single pulse TMS was delivered during each 329 contraction, and the linear regression between SIT amplitude and contraction intensity was 330 extrapolated to the y intercept to obtain an estimated resting twitch (ERT; Todd et al. 2003). In order 331 to achieve significant linearity (P < 0.05), a total of five out of 850 SITs across all trials were excluded 332 (0.6%), which led to five regressions containing 9 data points rather than 10 (1 pre-exercise, 4 post-333 exercise). As a result, mean  $r^2$  values for ERTs were linear throughout the study (0.93 ± 0.06). The SIT 334 during 100% MVC was compared with the ERT using the following formula:  $VA_{TMS}$  (%) = (1 – [SIT ÷ ERT]) 335 × 100. Short interval intracortical inhibition was quantified as the percentage ratio between the 336 amplitude of conditioned MEPs to the amplitude of unconditioned MEPs. Corticospinal excitability 337 was determined by expressing the mean MEP amplitude during the 10% MVC as a percentage of M<sub>MAX</sub>. 338 The root-mean-square of EMG activity (rmsEMG) was recorded during the preceding 100 ms before 339 each stimulation, and the middle 500 ms epoch of each 3 s contraction during the fatiguing task. 340 rmsEMG was then expressed as a percentage of  $M_{max}$ . The NIRS (O<sub>2</sub>Hb, HHb, TOI, and cHb) and 341 Finapres (HR, Q, MAP) data were expressed as a percentage of baseline, and the 30 s epochs 342 throughout exercise are presented as  $\Delta$ %.

Despite a linear relationship between TTF and work done in the estimation trials ( $r^2 = 0.98$ ), and a physiologically normal value for the critical intensity (22.7% MVC), one female participant demonstrated no signs of fatigability during the supra-critical intensity trial (i.e. MVC did not decrease), thus the trial was terminated after 90 minutes, and the participant was excluded from further analyses. Similarly, one male was excluded due to the intensity-duration relationship residing >3 SDs from the mean value for males (critical intensity = 31.3% MVC, W' = 2005 N.s<sup>-1</sup>), likely caused by premature task failure in the higher intensity estimation trial(s).

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### 352 Statistical Analysis

Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD within the text and figures. Normal Gaussian distribution of data was confirmed using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. If a violation was detected, the data was logarithmically transformed. This occurred for rmsEMG/M<sub>max</sub> during the fatiguing tasks, therefore, statistical tests were run on the transformed data, but in text and figures the non-transformed data is presented. The alpha for all statistical tests was set at *P* < 0.05.

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359 For variables assessed pre-, during, and post- exercise (MVC, VA<sub>MNS</sub>,  $Q_{tw.pot}$ , rmsEMG,  $O_2$ Hb, HHb, TOI, 360 HR, CO, and MAP) a two-way (2×5) repeated measures ANOVA was used to assess differences 361 between sex (male vs. female) and over time (Pre, 25, 50, 75% TTF, and Post). For variables that were 362 assessed pre and post-exercise (ERT, VA<sub>TMS</sub>, M<sub>MAX</sub>, MEP/M<sub>max</sub>, SICI) a two-way 2×2 repeated measures 363 ANOVA was used to assess differences between sex (male vs. female) and over time (Pre vs. Post). For 364 variables that were assessed during the recovery period (MVC, VA<sub>MNS</sub>, Q<sub>tw.pot</sub>, ERT, VA<sub>TMS</sub>, M<sub>MAX</sub>, 365 MEP/M, SICI) a two way (2×4) repeated measures ANOVA was used to assess difference between sex 366 (male vs. female) and over time (Post, and 15, 30 and 45 min post-exercise). If significant main or 367 interaction effects were observed, these were followed up by post-hoc Bonferroni-corrected pairwise 368 comparisons.

369	RESULTS							
370	Intensity-Duration Relationship							
371	The trials to estimate the intensity-duration relationship ranged from 1.6 – 16.0 minutes in duration							
372	(Table 1). In order to match the TTFs between sexes, the trial intensities were required to be greater							
373	in females than the males (mean difference of 10-11% MVC for the four trials, all $P$ < 0.001).							
374	Furthermore, the relationship between TTF and impulse across the four trials was linear ( $r^2$ range: 0.89							
375	- 1.00) for all participants (Figure 1A).							
376								
377	*Figure 1 here*							
378								
379	Maximal voluntary contraction was greater in males compared to females (708 $\pm$ 119 N vs. 458 $\pm$ 59							
380	N, P < 0.001); however, absolute critical intensity was not significantly different (143 $\pm$ 26 N vs. 123 $\pm$							
381	26 N, $P = 0.109$ ). When normalised to MVC, females had a greater critical intensity compared to							
382	males (24.7 $\pm$ 2.5 vs. 20.8 $\pm$ 2.3% MVC, P = 0.003, Figure 1B), however, there was no difference in W'							
383	(18,206 ± 6,331 vs. 18,765 ± 5,762 N.s <sup>-1</sup> , <i>P</i> = 0.850, Figure 1C).							
384								
385	Males and females demonstrated a consistent decline in MVC, $Q_{\text{tw.pot}}$ and $\text{VA}_{\text{MNS}}$ across the four							
386	estimation trials (Figure 2, Trial × Time interactions $P \ge 0.144$ ), confirming that all trials took place in							
387	the same exercise intensity domain.							
388								
389	*Figure 2 here*							
390								
391	Supra (+10%) Critical Intensity Trials							
392	Fatigability							
393	Compared to males, females had a greater time to task failure for the intermittent isometric							
394	contraction tasks performed at 110% of critical intensity (3,742 $\pm$ 1,035 vs. 1,826 $\pm$ 765 s, $P$ < 0.001,							
395	Figure 3).							
396								
397	*Figure 3 here*							
398								
399	Throughout the +10% task and at task failure MVC, $Q_{tw.pot},VA_{\text{MNS}},VA_{\text{TMS}},andMEP/M_{\text{max}}$ all decreased							
400	(all time effects $P < 0.001$ , Figures 4 and 5), whilst rmsEMG/M <sub>max</sub> increased ( $P < 0.001$ , Table 2).							
401	However, SICI ( $P$ = 0.232) and M <sub>max</sub> ( $P$ = 0.109) did not change. When comparing the changes between							
402	sexes, MVC (F <sub>2.2,34.5</sub> = 4.36, $P$ = 0.017, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.214), and Q <sub>tw.pot</sub> (F <sub>4,64</sub> = 2.52, $P$ = 0.049, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.136)							

4	103	decreased more in males compared with the females (Figure 4, panel A & B), whilst the rmsEMG/M $_{ m max}$
4	104	increased more in the males than the females ( $F_{2.2,34.5}$ = 7.33, $P$ = 0.002, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.314). However, VA <sub>MNS</sub> ,
4	105	VA <sub>TMS</sub> , MEP/M <sub>max</sub> , and SICI were not different between the sexes ( $P \ge 0.062$ ).
4	106	
4	107	*Figure 4 here*
4	804	
4	109	Recovery
4	10	In the 45 minute recovery period, MVC, $Q_{tw.pot}$ , $VA_{MNS}$ , $VA_{TMS}$ , and $MEP/M_{max}$ all demonstrated a return
4	11	towards baseline (recovery effects all $P < 0.001$ , Figures 4 and 5). Females however, demonstrated a
4	12	faster recovery for $Q_{tw.pot}$ ( $F_{3,48}$ = 3.13, $P$ = 0.034, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.164), and $VA_{TMS}$ ( $F_{1.8,25.4}$ = 3.63, $P$ = 0.045, $\eta_p^2$
4	13	= 0.206), with no difference in recovery for MVC, VA <sub>MNS</sub> , or MEP/M ( $P \ge 0.096$ ).
4	14	
4	15	*Figure 5 here*
4	16	
4	17	Oxygenation and Haemodynamics
4	18	Muscle oxygenation was altered during the +10% fatiguing task (Figure 6), with $O_2Hb$ ( $F_{1.4,22.5}$ = 7.00, P
4	19	= 0.009, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.304), HHb (F <sub>1.4,22.5</sub> = 11.53, <i>P</i> = 0.003, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.419), and TOI (F <sub>1.1,18.3</sub> = 7.12, <i>P</i> = 0.004, $\eta_p^2$
4	20	= 0.393) all demonstrating changes from baseline. Females demonstrated a lesser increase in HHb
4	21	$(F_{1.4,22.5} = 8.96, P = 0.007, \eta_p^2 = 0.359)$ , and decrease in TOI $(F_{1.2,18.3} = 7.12, P = 0.013, \eta_p^2 = 0.308)$ than
4	22	males (Figure 6B and C). For $O_2Hb$ , females demonstrated an increase from baseline, whilst males
4	23	decreased ( $F_{1.4,22.5} = 8.05$ , $P = 0.005$ , $\eta_p^2 = 0.335$ , Figure 6A).
4	124	
4	25	*Figure 6 here*
4	26	
4	127	The +10% fatiguing task induced changes in cardiovascular function (Table 2) with HR ( $F_{4,64}$ = 47.39, P
4	28	< 0.001, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.748), $\dot{Q}$ (F <sub>4,64</sub> = 19.70, <i>P</i> < 0.001, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.552), and MAP (F <sub>4,64</sub> = 12.24, <i>P</i> < 0.001, $\eta_p^2$ =
4	129	0.433) all increasesing. Females demonstrated a lesser increase in HR (F <sub>4,64</sub> = 8.99, P < 0.001, $\eta_p^2$ =
4	130	0.360) and $\dot{Q}$ (F <sub>4,64</sub> = 4.02, <i>P</i> = 0.006, $\eta_p^2$ = 0.201), but not MAP ( <i>P</i> = 0.175).
4	131	
4	132	Sub (–10%) Critical Intensity Trials
4	133	Fatigability
4	134	All participants successfully completed the 45 minutes of exercise below critical intensity and did not
4	135	reach task failure. MVC, $Q_{tw.pot}$ , $M_{max}$ , $VA_{MNS}$ , and $VA_{TMS}$ all decreased (time effects: $P \leq 0.016$ )
4	136	throughout the intermittent isometric task, whereas rmsEMG/M <sub>max</sub> ( $P$ = 0.020), and MEP/M ( $P$ =

437 (0.017) increased. Short interval intracortical inhibition did not change (P = 0.061). Of these variables, 438 a sex × time interaction was demonstrated for  $Q_{tw.pot}$  ( $F_{1.97,31.49} = 5.31$ , P = 0.011,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.249$ ) indicating 439 a lesser decrease over the course of the intermittent isometric task. Post-hoc differences are displayed 440 in Figure 7 and Table 2. 441 442 Recovery 443 In the 45 minute recovery period the MVC,  $Q_{tw.pot}$ , VA<sub>MNS</sub>, and VA<sub>TMS</sub> increased (recovery effects:  $P \leq$ 444 0.032). Conversely,  $M_{max}$  (P = 0.267), MEP/M (P = 0.080), and SICI (P = 0.085) demonstrated no 445 recovery effects. Of the variables demonstrating recovery effects, VA<sub>TMS</sub> demonstrated a sex × time 446 interaction ( $F_{1.45,20.26} = 4.57$ , P = 0.033,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.246$ ), indicating a faster recovery in females compared 447 with males. No other variables (MVC, Qtw.pot, and VAMNS) demonstrated this sex by time interaction (P 448 ≥ 0.069). 449 450 \*Figure 7 here\* 451 452 Oxygenation and Haemodynamics 453 Muscle oxygenation was altered during the intermittent isometric task (Figure 8). Whilst O<sub>2</sub>Hb (F<sub>1.6.26.5</sub> 454 = 10.27, P = 0.001,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.391$ ) increased, HHb did not change (P = 0.945), and TOI decreased ( $F_{1.36,21.71}$ = 4.98, P = 0.027,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.237$ ). Of these variables, O<sub>2</sub>Hb demonstrated a sex × time interaction (F<sub>1.64,26.25</sub> 455 = 3.77, P = 0.044,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.191$ ), indicating a greater increase in females compared with males. 456 457 458 \*Figure 8 here\* 459 460 Heart rate ( $F_{2.6,41.5} = 18.42$ , P < 0.001,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.535$ ),  $\dot{Q}$  ( $F_{2.83,45.23} = 4.06$ , P = 0.014,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.380$ ) and MAP 461  $(F_{1.96,31.37} = 6.72, P = 0.004, \eta_p^2 = 0.296)$  all increased throughout the intermittent isometric task (Table 462 2), with a sex × time interaction for HR ( $F_{2.59,41.49} = 5.59$ , P = 0.004,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.259$ ), indicating a greater 463 increase in HR in males than females. 464

#### DISCUSSION

466 The present study aimed to compare the intensity-duration relationship between males and females 467 during intermittent, isometric knee extensor exercise, and assess whether a sex difference in 468 fatigability and recovery existed when exercise was normalised to the critical intensity. We found that 469 females demonstrated a greater relative critical intensity during intermittent isometric knee extensor 470 exercise compared with males. Contrary to our hypothesis however, females lasted approximately 471 twice as long than males for an open-ended exercise 10% above this threshold. Following exercise 472 normalised to 110% and 90% of critical intensity, females demonstrated a lower degree of contractile 473 impairment, and a faster rate of recovery following the 110% trial. Furthermore, females were able to 474 better maintain muscle oxygenation during exercise, which provides a plausible explanation for the 475 observed sex differences in exercise tolerance and fatigability. These data are the first to demonstrate 476 that when normalised to a maximum, critical intensity is greater for females during intermittent 477 isometric contractions. This was likely underpinned by a greater ability to maintain muscle 478 oxygenation, observed via NIRS, and led to a more fatigue-resistant muscle in females.

479

#### 480 Intensity-Duration Relationship

481 Of the two parameters of the intensity-duration relationship, a sex difference was observed for critical 482 intensity, but not W'. Females had a critical threshold ~4% MVC greater than males, due to a steeper 483 slope in the TTF-impulse relationship (Figure 1A) and smaller absolute MVC. Critical intensity notes 484 the maximal sustainable metabolic rate during exercise, at which oxidative energy provision is 485 sufficient and reaches a steady state (Poole et al., 2016). Increasing the fraction of inspired oxygen 486 (FiO<sub>2</sub>) during exercise increases critical intensity (Vanhatalo et al., 2010), whereas decreasing FiO<sub>2</sub> 487 reduces the maximal sustainable intensity (Dekerle et al., 2012). Similarly, complete blood flow 488 occlusion reduces critical power to less than zero (Broxterman et al., 2015a). Differences in skeletal 489 muscle properties between males and females could explain the difference in critical intensity. It is 490 well established that in the vastus lateralis, females possess a greater relative proportion of type I 491 muscle fibres (Simoneau & Bouchard, 1989; Staron et al., 2000; Roepstorff et al., 2006) and greater 492 capillary density (Roepstorff et al., 2006) than males. When combined with a greater vasodilatory 493 response of the femoral artery to exercise in females (Parker et al., 2007), it is likely that these factors 494 permit greater delivery of oxygenated blood to the muscle tissues of the knee-extensors, contributing 495 to an ability to sustain greater rates of oxidative metabolism (i.e. critical intensity) than males. These 496 observations could explain why females were able to attain a higher relative critical intensity than 497 males in the present study. Indeed, recent evidence suggests that type I fibre % and muscle 498 capillarisation are positively correlated with critical power during cycling exercise (Vanhatalo et al.,

2016; Mitchell *et al.*, 2018). Mitchell *et al.* (2018) suggested that greater capillary supply likely leads to greater oxygen supply and extraction during exercise. To support this, during both +10% and -10%trials in the present study, a sex difference was observed for O<sub>2</sub>Hb, with females demonstrating greater increases from resting values (Figures 5 and 7). Therefore, the present data suggest that females are able to maintain elevated delivery of oxygen to the knee-extensors, leading to a greater relative rate of maximal sustainable oxidative metabolism.

505

506 The curvature constant of the intensity-duration relationship (W'), was not different between sexes. 507 Whilst less is known about the origins and determinants of W' (Poole et al., 2016), evidence suggests 508 that there is no relationship between it and skeletal muscle properties (Vanhatalo et al., 2016; Mitchell 509 et al., 2018). More likely, W' is related to the depletion of intramuscular energy stores (e.g. 510 phosphocreatine, PCr) and accumulation of metabolites (e.g. Pi, H+, ADP; Vanhatalo et al., 2010). This 511 notion has been suggested to oversimplify such a concept, with the possibility of a different source in 512 W' between whole-body and single-muscle exercise (Poole *et al.*, 2016). However, in single-muscle 513 exercise, Broxterman et al. (2015b) suggested that W' might be related to the maximum tolerable 514 degree of neuromuscular dysfunction. Considering there was no difference in the  $\Delta$ % in MVC,  $Q_{tw.pot}$ , 515 and VA<sub>MNS</sub> between males and females at task-failure in the +10% trial (Figure 3A), this notion could 516 explain why W' was not different between sexes in the intermittent, isometric model used in the 517 present study.

518

## 519 Fatigability and Recovery above Critical Intensity

520 Despite normalising exercise to the intensity-duration relationship, which is a key step when modelling 521 fatigability (Burnley & Jones, 2018), females outlasted males during the open-ended isometric 522 intermittent contraction task (Figure 3). A similar W' in males and females would suggest that task 523 failure should occur in a similar time, as evidence previously suggested task failure occurs once this 524 work capacity is completely utilised and a 'critical metabolic milleu' is attained (Vanhatalo et al., 2010). 525 One potential explaination could be the absolute force produced by females was ~40% lower than 526 males in the present study. This meant for a male and female with identical critical intensity (%MVC) 527 and W', the impulse (N·s<sup>-1</sup>) per contraction was lower in absolute terms during the +10% fatiguing task 528 for contractions at similar %MVC. This led to a slower rate of W' utilisation and decrease in indices of 529 neuromuscular function during the fatiguing task (e.g. MVC, Q<sub>tw.pot</sub>, VA<sub>MNS</sub>), until a constant degree of 530 post-exercise dysfunction was reached at task failure (Figure 4). In the present dataset it was not 531 possible to post hoc match individual male and female participants for critical intensity, W' and MVC 532 within <10% of each other, thus, it is not possible to discount the potential effect of absolute force. The sex difference in critical intensity and fatigability above critical intensity can therefore explain previous studies that have normalised to an arbitrary % of MVC and shown a sex difference in fatigability (e.g. 50% MVC, Hunter *et al.*, 2004; Ansdell *et al.*, 2018). For example, at 50% MVC, males would be exercising at a greater relative intensity above their threshold, therefore would experience a faster rate of fatigue (Burnley *et al.*, 2012), but also as a consequence of greater absolute force production, deplete W' faster.

539

540 Following the +10% trial, females demonstrated a faster rate of recovery for  $Q_{tw.oot}$  (Figure 3B), which 541 supports the conclusions of (Senefeld et al., 2018) who demonstrated a similar pattern following a 542 fixed-duration dynamic fatiguing task. Recovery of contractile function following long-duration 543 isometric exercise is related predominantly to restoration of intracellular calcium handling/sensitivity, 544 rather than metabolite clearance (Carroll et al., 2016). Female skeletal muscle demonstrates a 24% 545 lower maximal rate of Ca<sup>2+</sup>ATPase activity (Harmer *et al.*, 2014), which has previously been suggested 546 to lead to lower calcium-related impairments during exercise, and create a more fatigue-resistant 547 muscle compared to males (Hunter, 2014). Thus, it could be the case that differences in calcium 548 handling in female skeletal muscle translated to better post-exercise recovery kinetics. Although 549 somewhat speculative, calcium handling has been studied in vitro to support the sex difference in 550 fatigability (Harmer et al., 2014), but no similar data in cell models exists to compare recovery of 551 calcium handling between males and females after exercise. Therefore, calcium-related properties of 552 skeletal muscle could help to explain why female contractile function recovered quicker in the present 553 study, but further research to support this proposition is warranted.

554

#### 555 Fatigability and Recovery below Critical intensity

556 For the same duration of exercise below critical intensity, both sexes experienced an initial decrease 557 in MVC and Q<sub>tw.pot</sub>, then no further impairment throughout the fatiguing task (Figure 6). Whilst females 558 experienced a lesser decrease from baseline, the attainment of a constant degree of contractile 559 dysfunction is consistent with the notion that exercise below the critical intensity reaches a 'steady-560 state' of metabolic adjustment (Burnley & Jones, 2018). A similar study in males (Burnley et al., 2012) 561 speculated that the origins of contractile dysfunction below threshold might be related to the effects 562 glycogen depletion had on calcium transients in skeletal muscle (Ørtenblad et al., 2013). During whole-563 body exercise, females oxidise relatively more fat than carbohydrate compared to males (Roepstorff 564 et al., 2002, 2006); when combined with the more fatigue-resistant calcium properties in female 565 muscles (Harmer *et al.*, 2014), this could explain why the post-exercise  $\Delta$ % in  $Q_{tw.pot}$  was less in females 566 (Figure 7C). Similar to the +10% trial, females were better able to maintain oxygen availability within

the working muscles (Figure 7A), however, this is not thought to be a limiting factor to exercise performance below critical intensity (Poole *et al.*, 2016), as oxidative metabolism is not at maximal rates. Post-exercise, MVC, Q<sub>tw.pot</sub> and VA all demonstrated returns towards baseline, however, male Q<sub>tw.pot</sub> was still reduced 45 minutes post-exercise. If muscle glycogen-related factors are the cause of this contractile impairment below threshold, the continued impairment at 45 minutes would be expected, as complete re-synthesis can take >2 hours following single-limb exercise (Pascoe *et al.*, 1993).

574

575 Further Considerations

576 The responses to corticospinal stimulation (MEP/M<sub>max</sub>) showed divergent effects when comparing 577 pre-post exercise changes above and below critical intensity. Following the +10% trial, a depression 578 was observed (Figure 4E), whereas following the -10% trial, a facilitatory effect occurred (Figure 6E). 579 During whole-body exercise, fatigue induced at high-intensities is suggested to activate group III/IV 580 afferent neurons, causing inhibition of spinal motoneurons (Weavil et al., 2016) and increasing 581 GABAergic inhibition within the motor cortex (Sidhu et al., 2018). These adjustments are suggested to 582 reduce the capacity of the central nervous system to activate the working muscles during exercise 583 (Sidhu et al., 2017); this could explain why the reduction in corticospinal excitability was only observed 584 above critical intensity, when decreases in measures of VA were also demonstrated. The present study 585 assessed the activity of group III/IV neurons indirectly through the monitoring of the metaboreflex, 586 and demonstrated an augmented response above threshold (Table 2). Interestingly, females had a 587 lesser increase in HR and Q during the +10% trial, which could explain the slower rate of central 588 nervous system dysfunction (Figure 4C). On the contrary, moderate intensity exercise increases 589 corticospinal excitability (Lulic et al., 2017). This effect occurs at lower intensities without the 590 development of fatigue or the attainment of task failure; such an effect was observed in the present 591 study, where facilitatory effects were only evident during exercise below critical intensity, alongside 592 minor decrements in VA. The critical intensity might therefore provide an integrative neuromuscular 593 threshold at which facilitatory neuroplasticity is attainable after exercise beneath. Future research 594 should investigate the effects of exercise intensity on both MEPs and spinal evoked potentials in the 595 lower limbs (e.g. Škarabot et al., 2019) to discern the aetiology of exercise-induced neuroplasticity.

596

The present study utilised an intermittent, isometric model of exercise (Burnley, 2009; Burnley *et al.*, 2012) to compare the intensity-duration relationship between sexes. Whilst the principles of the model remain the same across different exercise modalities (Jones *et al.*, 2010), it is well established that the determinants of exercise tolerance differ between single-limb and whole-body exercise

601 (Hureau et al., 2018; Thomas et al., 2018). Indeed Poole et al. (2016) suggested that in single-limb 602 exercise, W' likely constitutes of substrate depletion and metabolite accumulation, whereas during 603 whole-body exercise, W' is likely influenced by cardiopulmonary limiting factors to exercise. Indeed, 604 despite a sex difference present for the cardiovascular response to isometric exercise (HR and Q, Table 605 2), the present study showed submaximal end-exercise values for these parameters, implying that 606 oxygen delivery was not the limiting factor to exercise, but rather oxygen extraction determined 607 exercise tolerance. Therefore, whether the conclusions of the present study apply to whole-body 608 exercise remains to be determined.

609

610 To further support the notion that females possess more fatigue-resistant knee extensors, the rise in 611 rmsEMG/M<sub>max</sub> was smaller compared to males during the +10% task (Table 2). Despite the known 612 limitations (Farina et al., 2014; Enoka & Duchateau, 2015) associated with surface EMG, increases are 613 suggested to reflect additional neural drive and recruitment of further motor units, as the contractile 614 apparatus become fatigued (Gandevia, 2001). Therefore the smaller increase in rmsEMG/M<sub>max</sub> could 615 suggest that female musculature was able to sustain the required intensity with a reduced need for 616 additional neural drive and motor unit activation. This could also explain the smallerr decrease in 617 Q<sub>tw.pot</sub> experienced during the tasks, further supporting the notion that the sex differences in skeletal 618 muscle properties influence fatigability during intermittent isometric exercise. Further research could 619 employ the use of high density EMG, which is capable of discerning motor unit properties (Merletti et 620 al., 2008), without the limitations associated with bipolar surface EMG (Farina et al., 2014; Enoka & 621 Duchateau, 2015).

622

623 Conclusions

624 The present study is the first to demonstrate that females can sustain a greater relative work intensity 625 compared with males during single limb exercise, as shown by the greater critical intensity. 626 Importantly, when exercise intensity was normalised to this threshold, females out-performed males 627 during the open-ended task (+10%), and showed reduced fatigability during a fixed workload task 628 (-10%). These sex differences in the intensity-duration relationship and fatigue resistance are likely 629 related to a greater ability to preserve oxygen availability within the knee-extensors during exercise, 630 as demonstrated by the NIRS data. Following exercise, a faster rate of recovery was observed for 631 contractile function in females, suggesting that, in addition to possessing more fatigue-resistant 632 skeletal muscle, females are able to resolve exercise-induced dysfunction at a faster rate. These data 633 explain previous findings related to sex differences in fatigability tasks, whilst providing the first sex-634 comparison of fatigability during work normalised to a metabolic threshold. Furthermore, the

- 635 difference between sexes highlights the importance of individualising exercise and recovery 636 prescription to males and females, rather than generalising from previously generated male-only data within the literature.
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- 638
- 639 640

#### 641 **Conflicts of Interest**

- 642 No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.
- 643

#### 644 **Author Contributions**

- 645 PA, GH, KT, and SG conceived and designed the experiments; PA, CB, and JS performed the
- 646 experiments; PA analysed the data; PA, KMH, KT, GH, SKH, and SG interpreted the results of the
- 647 experiments; PA drafted the manuscript; PA, CB, JS, KMH, GH, KT, SKH, and SG edited the manuscript;
- 648 all authors approved the final manuscript and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.
- 649

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## 821 Table 1: Intensity, times to task failure and impulse for the critical intensity estimation

		Males			Females		
Trial	% MVC	TTF (s)	Impulse (N·s⁻¹)	% MVC	TTF (s)	Impulse (N·s <sup>-1</sup> )	
1	61 ± 2	217 ± 38	50,188 ± 10,600	71 ± 3*	216 ± 139	52,353 ± 22,164	
2	<b>2</b> 56 ± 2 335 ± 102		74,185 ± 27,746	74,185 ± 27,746 66 ± 3*		70,105 ± 23,355	
3	51 ± 2	427 ± 117	82,614 ± 22,044	61 ± 3*	486 ± 163	94,263 ± 33,207	
4	46 ± 2 647 ± 186		120,318 ± 33,089 57 ± 4*		760 ± 148	141,504 ± 4,7839	
r²		0.98 ± 0.03			0.99 ± 0.01		

## 822 trials. Values are mean ± SD

MVC: maximal voluntary contraction, TTF: time to task failure; \* = greater than males (P < 0.001)

			110% Critical Intensity				90% Critical Intensity				
		Neuromuscular Function									
		Pre	Post	Post 15	Post 30	Post 45	Pre	Post	Post15	Post30	Post 45
ERT (N)	Males	167 ± 66	130 ± 67*	135 ± 60#	133 ± 66	132 ± 63	167 ± 63	124 ± 52*	122 ± 47	120 ± 44	110 ± 39
	Females	151 ± 43	101 ± 23*	134 ± 27#	127 ± 23	129 ± 45	149 ± 33	131 ± 37*	123 ± 37	135 ± 39	132 ± 30
M <sub>MAX</sub> (mV)	Males	6.55 ± 2.57	5.89 ± 2.54	5.86 ± 2.28	5.95 ± 2.51	6.41 ± 2.56	6.33 ± 2.44	5.52 ± 2.58*	5.61 ± 2.39	5.75 ± 2.48	5.19 ± 2.32
	Females	5.18 ± 2.95	4.75 ± 2.28	4.36 ± 2.32	4.47 ± 2.07	4.59 ± 2.80	4.98 ± 2.40	4.39 ± 1.66	4.43 ± 1.57	4.27 ± 1.63	4.2 ± 1.52
Pre-Stimulus rmsEMG (% M <sub>MAX</sub> )	Males	0.62 ± 0.27	0.65 ± 0.28	0.67 ± 0.28	0.70 ± 0.29	0.66 ± 0.30	0.64 ± 0.23	0.84 ± 0.34	0.80 ± 0.33	0.81 ± 0.32	0.90 ± 0.36
	Females	$0.75\pm0.34$	$0.8\pm0.77$	$0.82 \pm 0.56$	$0.87 \pm 0.49$	$0.87\pm0.64$	0.73 ± 0.39	$0.85 \pm 0.53$	$0.79 \pm 0.54$	0.79 ± 0.46	0.77 ± 0.46
rmsEMG during task (% M <sub>MAX</sub> )	Males	<b>1</b> <sup>st</sup> <b>Set</b> 16 ± 8	<b>25% TTF</b> 22 ± 13*	<b>50% TTF</b> 24 ± 12*	<b>75% TTF</b> 25 ± 10* <sup>\$</sup>	<b>100% TTF</b> 27 ± 11* <sup>\$</sup>	<b>1</b> <sup>st</sup> <b>Set</b> 8 ± 3	<b>25% TTF</b> 8 ± 3	<b>50% TTF</b> 8 ± 3	<b>75% TTF</b> 8 ± 4	<b>100% TTF</b> 8 ± 3
	Females	16 ± 5	19 ± 8	17 ± 5	17 ± 4	17± 4	8 ± 4	9 ± 3	9 ± 4	8 ± 4	9 ± 4
		Cardiovascular Function									
		Pre	25% TTF	50% TTF	75% TTF	100% TTF	Pre	25% TTF	50% TTF	75% TTF	100% TTF
Heart Rate (bpm)	Males	78 ± 5	95 ± 12*	99 ± 10*	$108 \pm 16^{*}$	$116 \pm 16^{*\$}$	$71 \pm 11^{*}$	88 ± 20*	92 ± 18*	91 ± 19*	91 ± 17*
	Females	80 ± 13	91 ± 18*	94 ± 21*	94 ± 21*	96 ± 19*	81 ± 14	86 ± 13	87 ± 13	87 ± 12	87 ± 12
Cardiac Output (L·min <sup>-1</sup> )	Males	8.1 ± 2.2* <sup>\$</sup>	10.0 ± 2.3*\$	10.3 ± 2.0*\$	10.6 ± 2.2*\$	10.4 ± 2.2*\$	$6.8 \pm 1.6$	$7.4 \pm 1.8$	7.5 ± 1.7*	7.6 ± 1.8*	7.6 ± 1.7*
	Females	$6.0 \pm 1.8$	7.2 ± 1.9*	$7.0 \pm 1.6^{*}$	$6.9 \pm 1.6$	$6.8 \pm 1.5$	$6.0 \pm 1.3$	$6.2 \pm 1.3$	$6.3 \pm 1.4$	$6.3 \pm 1.4$	6.3 ± 1.2
Mean Arterial Pressure (mmHg)	Males	90 ± 13	98± 13	100 ± 15	104 ± 18*	107 ± 15*	94 ± 8	94 ± 10	95 ± 13	97 ± 10	101 ± 13
	Females	93 ± 11	104 ± 12*	104 ± 12	101 ± 12	105 ± 11*	93 ± 14	98 ± 15	99 ± 13	100 ± 13	100 ± 15

#### 824 Table 2: Neuromuscular and cardiovascular function throughout the fatigue and recovery periods in both +10% and -10% trials.

\* = significantly different from Pre (P < 0.05), # = significantly different from Post (P < 0.05), <sup>\$</sup> = significantly greater than Females. ERT: estimated resting twitch; M<sub>max</sub>: maximal compound action potential; rmsEMG: root mean squared EMG; TTF: time to task failure.

## 826 Figure Captions:

- 827
- Figure 1: Characteristics of the intensity duration relationship for males and females. Panel
  A: The linear relationships between impulse and time to task failure across the four estimation
  trials. Panel B: Critical intensities expressed as a percentage of MVC. Panel C: W' in both sexes.
- 831

# 832 **Figure 2: Pre-post changes in neuromuscular function across the four estimation trials.** A:

- 833 maximum voluntary contraction (MVC); B: voluntary activation (assessed with motor nerve 834 stimulation, VA<sub>MNS</sub>); C: potentiated quadriceps twitch force (Q<sub>tw.pot</sub>). TTF: time to task failure.
- 835

Figure 3: Time to task failure during intermittent, isometric knee extensor exercise at 110%
 of critical intensity. Individual participants are represented as the dots, and group mean and
 standard deviations are illustrated by the horizontal bars.

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Figure 4: Changes in neuromuscular parameters assessed during the +10% exercise task and recovery period. Panel A: maximum voluntary contraction (MVC); Panel B: potentiated quadriceps twitch force ( $Q_{tw.pot}$ ); Panel C: voluntary activation assessed with motor nerve stimulation (VA<sub>MNS</sub>). Filled lines and circles represent the group mean values, and the dashed lines represent individual participants. \* = different from Pre (P < 0.05), \$ = significantly different from Post (P < 0.05), # = different between males and females (P < 0.05).

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# Figure 5: Neuromuscular changes across the fatiguing task (+10%) and the recovery period.

848 A: voluntary activation (transcranial magnetic stimulation, VATMS); B: motor evoked 849 potentials (normalised to  $M_{max}$ , MEP/ $M_{max}$ ), C: short interval intracortical inhibition (SICI). \* = 850 different from Pre (P < 0.05), \$ = significantly different from Post (P < 0.05), # = different 851 between males and females (P < 0.05).

852

Figure 6: Near Infrared Spectroscopy variables throughout the fatiguing task (+10%). A: Oxyhaemoglobin ( $O_2Hb$ ), B: Deoxyhaemoglobin (HHb), C: Tissue oxygenation index (TOI). # = significantly different between males and females (P < 0.05), \* = significantly different from Pre (P < 0.05).

857

858Figure 7: Neuromuscular changes across the fatiguing task (-10%) and the recovery period.859A: maximal voluntary contraction, B: voluntary activation (transcranial magnetic stimulation),860C: potentiated twitch force, D: motor evoked potential amplitude normalised to MMAX, E:861voluntary activation (motor nerve stimulation), F: short interval intracortical inhibition. \* =862significantly different from Pre (P < 0.05), \$ = significantly different from Post (P < 0.05).</td>

863

Figure 8: Near Infrared Spectroscopy variables throughout the fatiguing task (-10%). A:
Oxyhaemoglobin, B: Deoxyhaemoglobin, C: Tissue oxygenation index. # = significantly
different between males and females (P < 0.05).</li>

























