



ULTRA TRAIL PERFORMANCE IS DIFFERENTLY PREDICTED BY ENDURANCE VARIABLES IN MEN AND WOMEN

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Key word:	sex, ultraendurance, maximal oxygen uptake, ventilatory thresholds, maximal fat oxidation
Abstract:	<p>The study aimed to assess the relationship between peak oxygen uptake, ventilatory thresholds and maximal fat oxidation with ultra trail male and female performance. 47 athletes (29 men and 18 women) completed a cardiopulmonary exercise test between 2 to 4 weeks before a 107-km ultra trail. Body composition was also analyzed using a bioelectrical impedance weight scale. Exploratory correlation analyses showed that peak oxygen uptake (men: $r=-0.63$, $p=0.004$; women: $r=-0.85$, $p<0.001$), peak speed (men: $r=-0.74$, $p<0.001$; women: $r=-0.69$, $p=0.009$), speed at first (men: $r=-0.49$, $p=0.035$; women: $r=-0.76$, $p=0.003$) and second (men: $r=-0.73$, $p<0.001$; women: $r=-0.76$, $p=0.003$) ventilatory threshold, and maximal fat oxidation (men: $r=-0.53$, $p=0.019$; women: $r=-0.59$, $p=0.033$) were linked to race time in male and female athletes. Percentage of fat mass (men: $r=0.58$, $p=0.010$; women: $r=0.62$, $p=0.024$) and lean body mass (men: $r=-0.61$, $p=0.006$; women: $r=-0.61$, $p=0.026$) were also associated with performance in both sexes. Subsequent multiple regression analyses revealed that peak speed and maximal fat oxidation together were able to predict 66% of male performance; while peak oxygen uptake was the only statistically significant variable explaining 69% of the variation in women's race time. These results, although exploratory in nature, suggest that ultra trail performance is differently predicted by endurance variables in men and women.</p>

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- 1 **Title: ULTRA TRAIL PERFORMANCE IS DIFFERENTLY PREDICTED BY**
- 2 **ENDURANCE VARIABLES IN MEN AND WOMEN**
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- 4 **Heading title: Ultra trail performance prediction in men and women**

For Peer Review

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3 **Abstract**
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7 The study aimed to assess the relationship between peak oxygen uptake, ventilatory thresholds
8 and maximal fat oxidation with ultra trail male and female performance. 47 athletes (29 men and
9 18 women) completed a cardiopulmonary exercise test between 2 to 4 weeks before a 107-km
10 ultra trail. Body composition was also analyzed using a bioelectrical impedance weight scale.
11 Exploratory correlation analyses showed that peak oxygen uptake (men: $r=-0.63$, $p=0.004$;
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14 women: $r=-0.76$, $p=0.003$) ventilatory threshold, and maximal fat oxidation (men: $r=-0.53$,
15 $p=0.019$; women: $r=-0.59$, $p=0.033$) were linked to race time in male and female athletes.
16 Percentage of fat mass (men: $r=0.58$, $p=0.010$; women: $r=0.62$, $p=0.024$) and lean body mass
17 (men: $r=-0.61$, $p=0.006$; women: $r=-0.61$, $p=0.026$) were also associated with performance in both
18 sexes. Subsequent multiple regression analyses revealed that peak speed and maximal fat
19 oxidation together were able to predict 66% of male performance; while peak oxygen uptake was
20 the only statistically significant variable explaining 69% of the variation in women's race time.
21 These results, although exploratory in nature, suggest that ultra trail performance is differently
22 predicted by endurance variables in men and women.
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24 **Keywords:** sex, ultraendurance, maximal oxygen uptake, ventilatory thresholds, maximal fat
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1. Introduction

Ultra trail races (UT) have become extremely popular in recent years and the physiological and health consequences of performing such demanding efforts have increasingly awakened the interest of the scientific community [1, 2]. Additionally, trail running has recently been recognized by the World Athletics as a new running discipline hosting its own Trail World Championships [2]. It is therefore of interest for athletes and coaches to identify those factors that play a critical role in performance in order to improve training strategies and competition results. Previous studies have explored possible factors related with race time in trail running races ranging from 21 km to 75 km [3-8]. It remains unclear, however, whether the classical physiological variables of endurance running performance (i.e., maximal oxygen uptake, ventilatory thresholds) [9] hold for longer trail running races (i.e., >100 km). Moreover, the abovementioned studies were conducted in male samples and there is lack of investigations comparing performance factors in male and female athletes competing in ultramarathon races [10].

Indeed, controversy remains regarding the importance of running economy (i.e., energy demand for a given velocity of submaximal running) upon trail running performance [11, 12], with some authors reporting a correlation to race time [8, 13] while others do not [4-6]. In addition, the importance of substrate utilization is being increasingly emphasized to predict endurance performance [14, 15]. It is well known that human carbohydrate stores are limited and exogenous carbohydrate uptake cannot match utilization rates during prolonged endurance exercise, leading in turn to muscle and liver glycogen depletion and thus fatigue and decreased performance [16]. This has sparked interest into strategies to augment fat oxidation during endurance exercise to preserve endogenous carbohydrate stores [15, 17]. Yet, no previous research regarding trail running performance factors have examined whether fat metabolism keeps a significant relationship with race time, as it has been demonstrated for Ironman triathlon [16, 18].

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3 53 The main aim of the present study was therefore to investigate whether the classical physiological
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5 54 variables of endurance running performance, as well as maximal fat oxidation capacity, were
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7 55 linked to performance in an UT race. Secondly, we wanted to assess whether the abovementioned
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9 56 relationships varied between male and female participants. Lastly, we were interested in exploring
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11 57 possible associations between body composition and race time. Our hypothesis were: (1) peak
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13 58 oxygen uptake, peak speed and speed at first and second ventilatory thresholds would be related
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15 59 with performance; (2) maximal fat oxidation capacity would be independently associated with
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17 60 performance in male but not in female athletes [16, 18].
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61 **2. Material and methods**

63 **2.1. Participants**

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65 Forty seven ultra-endurance athletes (29 men and 18 women) were recruited to participate in the
66 study. This research was developed at the Penyagolosa Trails CSP race in 2019. The track
67 consisted of 107.4 km, starting at an altitude of 40 m and finishing at 1280 m above the sea level,
68 with a total positive and negative elevation of 5604 and 4356 m respectively (**Figure 1**).
69 Temperature at the start was 17.2°C and it ranged between 18 and 10.6°C at mid-race (km 66),
70 and between 20.1 and 1.5°C at the finish line. All subjects were fully informed of the procedure
71 and gave their written consent to participate. They were also allowed to withdraw from the study
72 at will. A questionnaire was used to collect demographic information as well as training and
73 competition history. The investigation was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki, it
74 obtained the approval from the research Ethics Committee of the XXX (Expedient Number XXX)
75 to be conducted and it met the ethical standards of the International Journal of Sports Medicine
76 [19]. This study is enrolled in the ClinicalTrials.gov database, with the code number XXX
77 (www.clinicaltrials.gov).

79 **** Insert Figure 1 near here ****

81 **2.2. Body composition**

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83 Body Mass Index (BMI), percentage of fat mass (%FM) and percentage of lean body mass
84 (%LBM) were evaluated using a bioelectrical impedance weight scale (Tanita BC-780MA, Tanita
85 Corp., Tokyo, Japan). Measurements were performed in a fasted state (>6 h) with minimal
86 clothing (i.e., running shorts and t-shirt), following the manufacturer's guidelines. The skin and
87 the electrodes were cleaned and dried before testing.

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89 **2.3. Cardiopulmonary exercise test**

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91 Cardiopulmonary exercise tests (CPET) were performed on a treadmill (H/P/cosmos pulsar,
92 H/P/cosmos sports & medical GmbH, Nussdorf-Traunstein, Germany) between 2 to 4 weeks prior
93 to the race. Participants were asked to attend the laboratory in a fasted state (>6 h) and maintain
94 their habitual mixed macronutrient diet the day before the test. Vigorous exercise was not allowed
95 for 48 h before and no training was permitted for 24 h before. All these pre-trial standardisation
96 measures were verbally checked with each participant at his/her arrival to the laboratory. Tests
97 were performed in standard environmental conditions (room temperature between 20°C and
98 22°C) within the same time frame (between 16 PM and 18 PM). Pulmonary VO_2 and VCO_2 were
99 measured breath-by-breath using an automated online system (Oxycon Pro system, Jaeger,
100 Würzburg, Germany). Gas analysis system was calibrated for ambient temperature and humidity,
101 air flow and VO_2 and VCO_2 concentrations (with a 4.96% CO_2 – 12.10% O_2 gas mixture) before
102 each testing session according to manufacturer instructions [20]. After a 4 min warm up at 6 km·h⁻¹,
103 CPET protocol started at 8 km·h⁻¹ and speed was increased 1 km·h⁻¹ every 2 min. When subjects
104 reached a respiratory exchange ratio (RER) > 1.0 increments of 1 km·h⁻¹ were induced every
105 minute until voluntary exhaustion. $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ values were accepted when a plateau (an increase of
106 <2ml/kg/min) or a decline in VO_2 was reached despite increasing workloads and an RER above
107 1.15 was achieved. If this criteria was not met, a $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ value was taken, defined as the highest
108 VO_2 measured over a 30 seconds period. First and second ventilatory thresholds (VT_1 and VT_2)
109 were determined using Skinner and McLellan [21] guidelines by two independent researchers.
110 Peak speed (V_{peak}) Speed and percentage of $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ at VT_1 and VT_2 (V_{VT_1} , V_{VT_2} , % VT_1 and
111 % VT_2) were retained for statistical analysis. Subsequently, VO_2 , VCO_2 and ventilation data were
112 averaged over the last 60 s of each 2-min stages and stoichiometric equations described by Frayn
113 [22] were used to calculate fat oxidation rates with the assumption that urinary nitrogen excretion
114 was negligible. Fat oxidation rates were then plotted against the relative exercise intensity
115 (% $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$) and a third-degree polynomial regression was used to determine maximal fat
116 oxidation (MFO) and the exercise intensity eliciting MFO (FAT_{max}) for each participant [23].

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3 117 MFO was normalized to lean body mass (mg/min/kg LBM). Finishing times were obtained from
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5 118 the official timer of the race (LiveTrail®, LiveTrail SARL, France).
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9 120 **2.4. Statistical analysis**
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13 122 Statistical analyses were carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software
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15 123 (IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 22.0, IBM Corp., Armonk, NY). Normality was
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17 124 checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test and all variables met normality assumptions. Possible sex
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19 125 differences in FAT_{max} and MFO were assessed using an independent samples Student's t-test.
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21 126 Pearson product-moment correlations were computed to assess whether the primary outcome,
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23 127 race time, was associated with body composition variables (BMI, %FM and %LBM) and CPET-
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25 128 derived variables (VO_{2peak} , V_{peak} , V_{VT1} , V_{VT2} , % VT_1 , % VT_2 , FAT_{max} and MFO). This analysis
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27 129 was carried out for the whole sample and for the men and women sample sets. The following
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29 130 criteria were adopted to interpret the magnitude of the correlations: $r \leq 0.1$, trivial; $0.1 < r \leq 0.3$,
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31 131 small; $0.3 < r \leq 0.5$, moderate; $0.5 < r \leq 0.7$, large; $0.7 < r \leq 0.9$, very large; and $r > 0.9$, almost
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33 132 perfect [24]. Afterwards, body composition and CPET-derived variables were entered as
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35 133 independent variables into a stepwise multiple regression analysis with race time as the dependent
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37 134 variable. This analysis was conducted on both the whole sample and the men and women sample
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39 135 sets. Additionally, using the percentage of winning time as a splitting variable, we divided the
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41 136 sample into faster and slower runners (i.e., below and above the mean value **for our sample**) and
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43 137 we also conducted the abovementioned analysis on those sample sets. Assumptions of linearity,
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45 138 normality, independence (Durbin-Watson statistic values were between 1.5 and 2.5),
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47 139 homoscedasticity and absence of collinearity (all VIF values were below 1.3) were checked in all
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49 140 the multiple regression analyses performed. The significance level was set at $p < 0.05$ and data are
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51 141 presented as means and standard deviations ($\pm SD$).
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142 3. Results

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144 From the initial sample (47 athletes), 4 participants did not start the race due to injury and 32
145 athletes (19 men and 13 women) successfully completed the race. The finishers/starters ratio for
146 the subjects of the present study (i.e. 74.4%) was similar to the ratio when all race participants
147 were considered (73.8%). Male athletes' average finish time was 20 h 43 min \pm 3 h 58 min, 174%
148 of winning time; while females athletes' average finish time was 22 h 20 min \pm 2 h 24 min, 157%
149 of winning time. All levels of performance were represented in our sample, as shown by their
150 rank ranging from 13th to 395th place (of 397 finishers) in male category, and from 7th to 32th
151 place (of 47 finishers) in female category. Participant characteristics, including demographic
152 information, training and competition history and data from the cardiopulmonary exercise test,
153 are presented in **Table 1**.

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155 **** Insert Table 1 and 2 near here ****

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157 No significant sex differences were noted in MFO and FAT_{max} . Results from correlational analysis
158 are depicted in **Table 2**. Both among men and women, %FM and %LBM were significantly and
159 largely associated with race time. V_{VT1} was significantly correlated with performance in men and
160 women, although the magnitude of the correlation was greater for the women sample set (very
161 large vs moderate). V_{VT2} was significantly and very largely correlated with race time in both sexes.
162 Conversely, neither in women nor in men %VT1 was associated with performance; whereas
163 %VT2 was linked with race time only in the women sample set. VO_{2peak} was significantly
164 correlated with performance in men and women, although the magnitude of the correlation was
165 greater for the women sample set (very large vs large) (**Figure 2**). V_{peak} was significantly
166 correlated with race time in both sexes, but the magnitude of the correlation was greater for the
167 men sample set (very large vs large). Lastly, neither in women nor in men FAT_{max} was associated
168 with performance, while MFO was largely correlated with race time in both sexes (**Figure 3**).

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7 172 Results from multiple regression analysis are reported in **Table 3**. Considering the whole sample,
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9 173 V_{VT2} and MFO together explained 55% of the variation observed in race time (adj $R^2 = 0.549$;
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11 174 $F_{2,29} = 19.89$; $p < 0.001$). For the men sample set, V_{peak} and MFO together explained 66% of the
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13 175 variation observed in race time (adj $R^2 = 0.658$; $F_{2,16} = 18.32$; $p < 0.001$). Meanwhile, for the
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15 176 women sample set, VO_{2peak} was the only statistically significant variable explaining 69% of the
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17 177 variation in race time (adj $R^2 = 0.693$; $F_{1,11} = 28.14$; $p < 0.001$). Lastly, when splitting the sample
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19 178 by relative race time, for the faster runners sample set, V_{peak} was the only statistically significant
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21 179 variable explaining 75% of the variation in race time (adj $R^2 = 0.748$; $F_{1,16} = 47.46$; $p < 0.001$);
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23 180 while for the slower runners sample set, VO_{2peak} was the only statistically significant variable
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25 181 explaining 33% of the variation in race time (adj $R^2 = 0.326$; $F_{1,12} = 5.77$; $p = 0.033$).
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30 183 **** Insert Table 3 near here ****
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184 4. Discussion

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186 The main finding of this study was that UT performance, both in men and women, was correlated
187 with classical physiological variables of endurance running performance (V_{VT1} , V_{VT2} , V_{peak} and
188 VO_{2peak}), as well as with MFO and body composition factors (%FM and %LBM). **However**,
189 multiple regression analysis indicated that V_{VT2} and MFO explained 55% of the variation
190 observed in all participants' race times. Regarding possible sex differences, men performance was
191 independently predicted by V_{peak} and MFO; while VO_{2peak} was the only statistically significant
192 variable explaining the variation in women's race times. **The** abovementioned regression models
193 were able to explain 66% of the variation in men performance and 69% of the variation in women
194 performance. Lastly, the magnitude of the correlation with performance of V_{VT1} and VO_{2peak}
195 was larger among women; whereas the magnitude of the correlation with performance of V_{peak}
196 was larger among men.

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198 The significant association found between VO_{2peak} and performance coincides with most of
199 previous research in the field [3, 5-7], although not all [8]. Besides, our results highlight a large
200 association between race time and V_{VT1} and V_{VT2} . This relationship contrasts with two recent
201 studies undertaken in shorter trail races (i.e., 27 and 31 km), where authors found no correlation
202 between race time and those two variables [3, 8]. However, it is in agreement with Fornasiero et
203 al. [7], who showed that power output at VT_1 and VT_2 (in W/kg) was associated with performance
204 in a 65-km trail race. Despite keeping in mind that correlation does not imply causation, our
205 results suggest that the importance of submaximal parameters associated with exercise thresholds
206 increases as competition length does, even though peak speed and oxygen uptake remain
207 associated with performance in UT races.

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209 On the other hand, in Ironman triathletes it has been shown that the relationship between MFO
210 and performance is slightly stronger among women, as compared to men [16, 18]. However, when
211 VO_{2peak} was integrated in the analysis, the abovementioned association in women disappeared,

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3 212 unlike the association in men. Authors showed that VO_{2peak} was the only independent variable
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5 213 that predicted women performance. Our results matches with those previously published and
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7 214 extend it to the UT field. Moreover, as far as we are concerned, no study had previously compared
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9 215 the association of V_{VT1} with ultraendurance performance between men and women. The stronger
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11 216 relationship we found between race time and V_{VT1} in women, as compared with men, suggest it
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13 217 could be related with the lower absolute speed at which they performed the race. Notwithstanding,
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15 218 further studies in the field are required to clarify this assumption.

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20 220 MFO values in our sample were largely higher than previously reported in male ultramarathon
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22 221 runners (12.85 ± 2.64 vs 7.3 ± 2.5 mg/min/kg LBM) [25]; and compared to previous studies in
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24 222 Ironman athletes [16, 18], values for male runners were also higher (12.85 ± 2.64 vs 9.05 ± 0.27
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26 223 mg/min/kg LBM), whereas values for female runners were slightly lower (11.74 ± 3.58 vs $12.9 \pm$
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28 224 0.5 mg/min/kg LBM). Interestingly, contrary to prior investigation [15, 16, 18], our results failed
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30 225 to show a higher MFO for female participants compared to male participants. Overall, our UT
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32 226 runners seem to possess a high fat oxidative capacity. Notwithstanding, differences in CPET
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34 227 protocol (cycling vs running; 2-min vs 3-min stages) and time frame of testing (morning vs
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36 228 afternoon) are known to affect MFO [23, 26].

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41 230 On the other hand, as far as we are concerned, no previous studies have assessed the possible
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43 231 relationship between fat metabolism and performance in UT. Investigations conducted on
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45 232 Ironman triathlon have showed that MFO is associated with finishing time [16, 18], whereas
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47 233 Lima-Silva et al. [27] reported no relationship between 10-km running performance and fat
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49 234 oxidation parameters. Our results thus contribute to propose a greater relevance of fat metabolism
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51 235 in long-lasting endurance events (i.e., Ironman triathlon and UT races) compared to shorter
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53 236 competitions (10-km running). Moreover, the fact that MFO appeared an independent
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55 237 performance predictor in the multiple regression analysis when considering the whole sample and
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57 238 the male sample set highlights the **important** role of fat metabolism in UT events. Considering
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59 239 that these races are performed at a HR around 90% of VT_1 [7], thus a moderate intensity where

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3 240 fat metabolism could supply a large percentage of the required energy, faster UT runners may
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5 241 elicit higher rates of fat oxidation and/or have a greater reliance upon fat as a fuel source during
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7 242 UT races [15, 28]. However, a recent study has failed to show an improvement in fat metabolism
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9 243 among recreational ultramarathon runners following either a polarized or a threshold 12-week
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11 244 training program [25]. Therefore, further research is advocated to aid in establishing training
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13 245 recommendations to increase fat use during UT races and thus preserve carbohydrate stores.
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15 246 Additionally, further studies are needed to confirm whether possessing a high MFO during fasted
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17 247 conditions translates to high rates of fat oxidation during prolonged exercise in a fed state.
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22 249 Previous research has consistently demonstrated the importance of body composition upon trail
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24 250 running performance [3, 5, 7, 29]. Some studies reported an inverse relationship between %FM
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26 251 and race time [3, 7, 29] whereas others found a positive association between %LBM and
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28 252 performance [5]. In our study both %FM and %LBM appeared correlated to race time. Although
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30 253 these relationships with performance were not independent from the other variables assessed in
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32 254 the study and the usage of bioelectrical impedance analysis leads us to be cautious, current results
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34 255 seem to reinforce previous assumptions regarding the important of body composition in trail
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36 256 running performance, both in male and female athletes.
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41 258 The predictive strength of our performance model (55% for the whole sample, 66% for the men
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43 259 sample set and 69% for the women sample set) matches Fornasiero et al. [7] results in a 65-km
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45 260 trail race, but it is lower than those previously reported in shorter trail running races (between 27
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47 261 and 31 km) [3, 6, 8]. Consequently, it could be argued that finishing times are less predictable
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49 262 from laboratory variables in UT races as compared with shorter trail running races. Nevertheless,
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51 263 although our study was performed on a larger sample (even when considering men and women
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53 264 sample sets) than most of previous studies in the field, the sample was not yet large enough to
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55 265 draw robust conclusions and further studies are required to confirm our results. In addition, we
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57 266 acknowledge that additional neuromuscular factors (isometric strength, local endurance strength
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59 267 or downhill running ability) could improve the predictive strength of the proposed UT

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3 268 performance model [4, 6, 30]. Even more, as previously suggested, in UT races factors difficult
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5 269 to objectively measure such as mental toughness or avoidance of gastrointestinal symptoms
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7 270 probably play a relevant role in determining the final result [11].
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11 272 There are some limitations in our study that should be acknowledged. Although participants were
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13 273 asked to attend the laboratory for the cardiopulmonary exercise test with at least 6 h of fasting,
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15 274 we do not record fasting times of each participant and we recognize that differences in the length
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17 275 of fast may have impacted estimates of MFO and FAT_{max} . It is also acknowledged that testing in
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19 276 a fasted state may entail a limitation to the study design as UT races are performed in fed state.
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21 277 Notwithstanding, as it is known that exogenous carbohydrate uptake cannot match utilization
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23 278 rates during prolonged endurance exercise, running with low carbohydrate availability is not an
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25 279 uncommon situation in the final stages of UT races. Lastly, we must recognize that the results are
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27 280 based on a single race with its own characteristics (race profile, terrain, etc.) and cannot be
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29 281 generalized to any UT race. This fact jointly with sample size prevent us from establishing a
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31 282 robust UT performance model (especially when considering sex specific models).
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3 283 **5. Conclusions**
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7 285 Although the nature of the study and the sample size lead us to be cautious in reaching definitive
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9 286 conclusions, maximal fat oxidation appears to be an important determinant of final race time in
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11 287 UT competitions. At the same time, peak speed and submaximal speeds associated with exercise
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13 288 thresholds, maximal aerobic capacity (VO_{2peak}), and body composition (percentage of fat mass
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15 289 and lean body mass) are also linked to performance in those races. Moreover, in male athletes,
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17 290 maximal fat oxidation is associated with race time independently of the classical physiological
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19 291 variables of endurance running performance; while maximal aerobic capacity and V_{VT1} seem to
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21 292 be stronger performance predictors among female athletes.
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26 294 Therefore, current results support that UT coaches should undertake training strategies to
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30 296 improving submaximal (V_{VT1} and V_{VT2}) and maximal (V_{peak} and VO_{2peak}) capacities. In a similar
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32 297 way, clinicians are encouraged to assess fat metabolism, as well as VO_{2peak} and ventilatory
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34 298 thresholds, when performing CPET in ultraendurance athletes. Further research is needed in order
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36 299 to establish the mechanisms responsible for training-induced changes in MFO. Future studies
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38 300 should also look into additional variables that could have an impact on UT performance, and
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40 301 investigate whether the application of the abovementioned training strategies improve athletes'
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42 302 performance in UT races.
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3 387 **Figure legend**
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7 389 **Figure 1.** Altitude profile of the race including aid stations (reproduced with permission from
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9 race organization)
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13 392 **Figure 2.** Relationship between race time and peak oxygen uptake (VO_{2peak}).
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15 393 Men results are depicted in full circles and women results in empty circles
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19 395 **Figure 3.** Relationship between race time and maximal fat oxidation (MFO).
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21 396 Men results are depicted in full circles and women results in empty circles
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26 398 **Table legend**
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30 400 **Table 1.** Sample main characteristics (mean \pm SD)
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34 402 **Table 2.** Results from correlational analysis
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38 404 **Table 3.** Model summary resulting from stepwise multiple regression analyses
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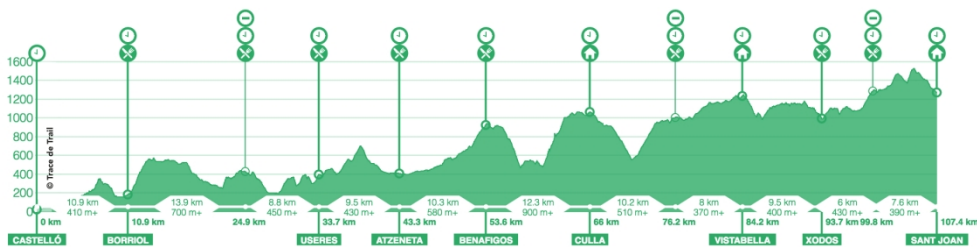


Figure 1. Altitude profile of the race including aid stations (reproduced with permission from race organization)

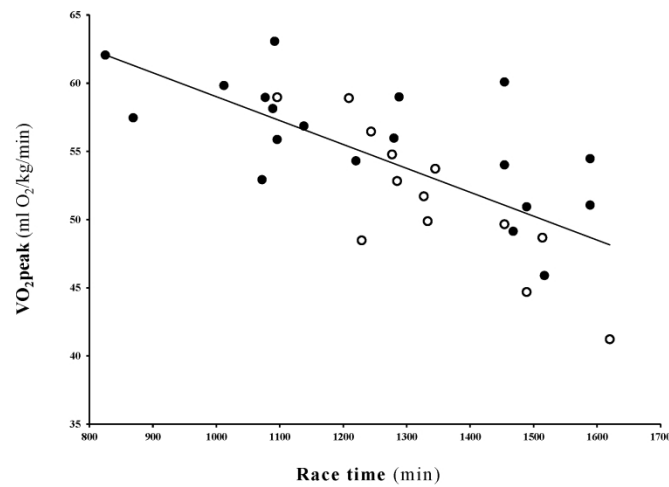


Figure 2. Relationship between race time and peak oxygen uptake (VO₂peak).
Men results are depicted in full circles and women results in empty circles

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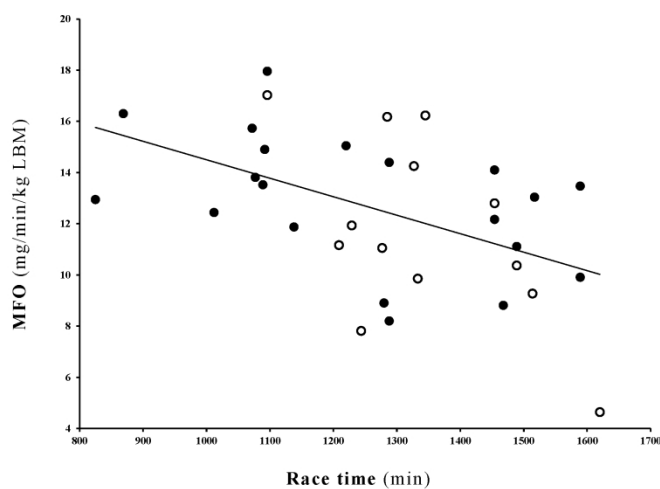


Figure 3. Relationship between race time and maximal fat oxidation (MFO).
Men results are depicted in full circles and women results in empty circles

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Table 1. Sample main characteristics (mean \pm SD)

	All sample (n = 32)	Males (n = 19)	Females (n = 13)
Age (years)	41 \pm 6	40 \pm 5	42 \pm 6
Number of years running	8 \pm 3	8 \pm 2	8 \pm 3
Number of races >100 km	2 \pm 3	2 \pm 3	2 \pm 4
Weekly training days	5 \pm 1	5 \pm 1	5 \pm 1
Weekly running volume (km)	70 \pm 22	76 \pm 25	61 \pm 13
Weekly positive elevation (m)	1772 \pm 691	1868 \pm 765	1631 \pm 565
Weekly training hours	10 \pm 4	10 \pm 4	9 \pm 5
Strength training (%)	81.3%	73.7%	92.3%
BMI (kg/m²)	22.8 \pm 2	23.6 \pm 1.6	21.7 \pm 2
FM (%)	15.4 \pm 4.9	12.9 \pm 3.5	19.1 \pm 4.5
LBM (%)	80.3 \pm 4.7	82.7 \pm 3.4	76.8 \pm 4.4
V_{VT1} (km/h)	10.8 \pm 1.2	11.2 \pm 1.1	10.1 \pm 0.9
%VT₁ (% VO₂peak)	71.9 \pm 5.4	71.8 \pm 6.1	72.1 \pm 4.4
V_{VT2} (km/h)	13.3 \pm 1.4	13.8 \pm 1.2	12.5 \pm 1.3
%VT₂ (% VO₂peak)	85.6 \pm 5.3	85.3 \pm 4.7	86.1 \pm 6.2
VO₂peak (ml O₂/kg/min)	54.1 \pm 5.2	55.8 \pm 4.5	51.5 \pm 5.2
V_{peak} (km/h)	15.9 \pm 1.9	16.9 \pm 1.5	14.4 \pm 1.4
FAT_{max} (%VO₂peak)	64.3 \pm 9.4	64.9 \pm 10.7	63.4 \pm 7.3
MFO (mg/min/kg LBM)	12.4 \pm 3.1	12.9 \pm 2.6	11.7 \pm 3.6

Abbreviations: Strength training (%), percentage of participants who performed at least one weekly lower-limb strength training in the previous 3 months; BMI, Body mass index; FM, fat mass; LBM, lean body mass; V_{VT1}, speed at the first ventilatory threshold; %VT₁, percentage of VO₂peak at the first

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3 ventilatory threshold; V_{VT2} , speed at the second ventilatory threshold; $\%VT_2$, percentage of VO_{2peak} at
4 the second ventilatory threshold; VO_{2peak} , peak oxygen uptake; V_{peak} , peak speed reached at the CPET;
5 FAT_{max} , exercise intensity eliciting MFO; MFO, maximal fat oxidation.
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Table 2. Results from correlational analysis

	Correlation with race time (<i>r</i> / <i>p</i>)		
	All sample (n=32)	Men (n=19)	Women (n=13)
BMI (kg/m ²)	0.253 / 0.163	0.482 / 0.037	0.523 / 0.066
FM (%)	0.575 / 0.001	0.577 / 0.010	0.618 / 0.024
LBM (%)	-0.586 / <0.001	-0.608 / 0.006	-0.612 / 0.026
V_{VT1} (km/h)	-0.579 / 0.001	-0.486 / 0.035	-0.757 / 0.003
%VT₁ (% VO ₂ peak)	-0.199 / 0.275	-0.148 / 0.547	-0.526 / 0.065
V_{VT2} (km/h)	-0.717 / <0.001	-0.730 / <0.001	-0.755 / 0.003
%VT₂ (% VO ₂ peak)	-0.393 / 0.026	-0.408 / 0.083	-0.652 / 0.016
VO₂peak (ml O ₂ /kg/min)	-0.670 / <0.001	-0.629 / 0.004	-0.848 / <0.001
V_{peak} (km/h)	-0.693 / <0.001	-0.743 / <0.001	-0.692 / 0.009
FAT_{max} (%VO ₂ peak)	0.195 / 0.285	0.353 / 0.138	0.344 / 0.250
MFO (mg/min/kg LBM)	-0.538 / 0.001	-0.530 / 0.019	-0.592 / 0.033

Abbreviations: BMI, Body mass index; FM, fat mass; LBM, lean body mass; V_{VT1}, speed at the first ventilatory threshold; %VT₁, percentage of VO₂peak at the first ventilatory threshold; V_{VT2}, speed at the second ventilatory threshold; %VT₂, percentage of VO₂peak at the second ventilatory threshold; VO₂peak, peak oxygen uptake; V_{peak}, peak speed reached at the CPET; FAT_{max}, exercise intensity eliciting MFO; MFO, maximal fat oxidation.

Table 3. Model summary resulting from stepwise multiple regression analyses**Analysis 1: All sample (n=32)**

	Model	Coefficients B	95% CI for B		Standardized Coefficient	p-value	Partial R	R ²	R ² Change
			Lower	Upper					
1	(Constant)	-1.894	-5.441	1.653		0.284		0.514	
	V _{VT2}	0.734	0.468	1.001	0.717	<0.001	0.717		
2	(Constant)	-1.720	-5.091	1.651		0.305		0.578	0.064
	V _{VT2}	0.610	0.330	0.890	0.596	<0.001	0.637		
	MFO	0.147	0.004	0.291	0.280	0.045	0.538		

Analysis 2: Men sample set (n=19)

	Model	Coefficients B	95% CI for B		Standardized Coefficient	p-value	Partial R	R ²	R ² Change
			Lower	Upper					
1	(Constant)	-5.995	-12.539	0.548		0.070		0.553	
	V _{peak}	0.839	0.453	1.225	0.743	<0.001	0.743		
2	(Constant)	-7.299	-12.975	-1.626		0.015		0.696	0.143
	V _{peak}	0.744	0.406	1.082	0.660	<0.001	0.760		
	MFO	0.272	0.062	0.482	0.388	0.014	0.566		

Analysis 3: Women sample set (n=13)

	Model	Coefficients B	95% CI for B		Standardized Coefficient	p-value	Partial R	R ²	R ² Change
			Lower	Upper					
1	(Constant)	0.836	-1.891	3.562		0.514		0.719	
	VO ₂ peak	0.127	0.074	0.180	0.848	<0.001	0.848		

Analysis 4: Faster runners sample set (n=18)

	Model	Coefficients B	95% CI for B		Standardized Coefficient	p-value	Partial R	R ²	R ² Change
			Lower	Upper					
1	(Constant)	-2.493	-5.952	0.966		0.146		0.748	
	V _{peak}	0.681	0.471	0.890	0.865	<0.001	0.865		

Analysis 5: Slower runners sample set (n=14)

	Model	Coefficients B	95% CI for B		Standardized Coefficient	p-value	Partial R	R ²	R ² Change
			Lower	Upper					
1	(Constant)	3.510	0.556	6.464		0.024		0.325	
	VO ₂ peak	0.063	0.006	0.120	0.570	0.033	0.570		

Abbreviations: V_{VT2}, speed at the second ventilatory threshold; MFO, maximal fat oxidation; V_{peak}, peak speed reached at the CPET; VO₂peak, peak oxygen uptake.