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2 Characteristics

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 *Purpose* To profile the training characteristics of an elite team pursuit cycling squad, and  
30 assess variations in training intensity and load accumulation across the 36-week period prior  
31 to a world record performance at the 2018 Commonwealth Games.

32 *Methods* Training data of five male track endurance cyclists (mean [SD]; age 21.9 [3.52] yrs;  
33 4.4 [0.16] W.kg<sup>-1</sup> at LT<sub>2</sub>; 6.2 [0.28] W.kg<sup>-1</sup> MAP; maximal oxygen uptake 68.7 [2.99]  
34 ml.kg.min<sup>-1</sup>) were analysed with weekly total training volume, and heart rate, power output,  
35 and torque intensity distributions calculated with reference to their 3:49.804 min:sec.ms  
36 performance requirements for a 4-km team pursuit.

37 *Results* Athletes completed 543 [37] h<sup>-1</sup> of training across 436 [16] sessions. On-bike  
38 activities accounted for 69.9% of all training sessions, with participants cycling 11,246  
39 [1,139] km<sup>-1</sup> in the training period of interest, while 12.7% of sessions involved gym/strength  
40 training. A pyramidal intensity distribution was evident with over 65% and 70% of training,  
41 respectively, performed at low-intensity zone heart rate and power output, while 5.3% and  
42 7.7% of training was performed above anaerobic threshold (LT<sub>2</sub>). The athletes accumulated  
43 4.4% of total training volume at, or above, their world record team pursuit lead position  
44 torque (55 Nm).

45 *Conclusions* These data provide updated and novel insight to the power and torque demands,  
46 and load accumulation contributing to world record team pursuit performance. While the  
47 observed pyramidal intensity distribution is common in endurance sports, the lack of shift  
48 towards a polarised intensity distribution during taper and competition peaking differs from  
49 previous research.

50 **Keywords:** athletic performance; elite sport; training intensity distribution, track cycling,  
51 endurance

52

## 53 **1. Introduction**

54           The athlete training process involves the systematic planning and execution of  
55 exercises to develop mental, physical, tactical, and technical components of athletic  
56 performance. The periodisation of training across successive mesocycles, each with their own  
57 emphasis and targeted adaptations, allows for the accumulation of load in a manner that  
58 builds upon adaptations gained in prior phases<sup>1-3</sup> for the purpose of optimising performance  
59 at a predetermined time.

60           In track cycling, the team pursuit is completed by four riders in a pace line over a  
61 distance of 4000 metres, demanding highly-developed aerobic and anaerobic metabolic  
62 capacities<sup>4,5</sup>. The benefit of aerodynamics results in a variable power requirement for riders,  
63 from 100% at first wheel (lead position), to ~70% at second wheel, and ~64% at third- and  
64 fourth-wheels<sup>6,7</sup>; as riders change order (transition) within the race, they are permitted a brief  
65 active recovery period while not leading the pace line (follow positions)<sup>8</sup>. Studies have  
66 reported the measured and approximated power output requirements in the team pursuit.  
67 Schumacher & Mueller<sup>9</sup> estimated a 670 W lead power output, and 571 W average in the  
68 follow positions, would be required for a 4:00.0 min:sec.ms race time based on modelling by  
69 Broker and colleagues<sup>6</sup>. More recently, lead and race mean power have been measured as 658  
70  $\pm 13$  and 501  $\pm 26$  W, respectively, in an international calibre performance time of 3:49.9  
71 min:sec.ms<sup>7</sup>. Little has been published on the periodisation strategies used for team pursuit  
72 riders. How track cyclists train to enable these power outputs and the resultant performances  
73 is of interest to improve our understanding and guide practice.

74           The only training profile of a track cycling team pursuit squad previously published  
75 detailed the training characteristics of the German national team preparation for a world  
76 record performance (3:59.710) at the 2000 Sydney Olympics<sup>9</sup>. The general training concept  
77 involved aerobic base development through high-volume low-intensity load accumulation  
78 (29-35000 km.yr<sup>-1</sup>), along with multiple road stage races, and three short (4-6 day) track

79 cycling blocks performed 6-10 weeks apart, including the final competition preparatory/taper  
80 phase. For those athletes, 94% of training was performed below lactate threshold ( $LT_1$ ;  $< 2$   
81  $\text{mmol.L}^{-1}$ ). Training goals of their short track cycling blocks were to develop track-specific  
82 anaerobic capacities and technical refamiliarisation. In the 22 years since that world record  
83 performance, a new best time has been set 17 times, therefore changes in track endurance  
84 cyclists' physical capacities and how they train is of great interest.

85 In other endurance sports of similar event duration, elite athletes' weekly training  
86 volume typically ranges from 6-15 hours, with approximately 80% of training performed at  
87 intensities  $< 2 \text{ mmol.L}^{-1}$ ; the remaining training volume is completed at intensities  $> 4$   
88  $\text{mmol.L}^{-1}$  or between the two metabolic thresholds (e.g., 1500-m running<sup>10</sup>, rowing<sup>11</sup>, speed  
89 skating<sup>12</sup>). Track cycling training often involves short, high-intensity bouts that may  
90 confound heart rate-based estimation of metabolic load due to heart rate kinetics during and  
91 after these bouts. The availability of power output data in cycling allows quantification of  
92 external load to accurately measure the work performed, better accounting for the stochastic  
93 nature of cycling efforts (e.g., high-intensity interval training, racing). Kenneally and  
94 colleagues<sup>13</sup> offered an alternative to traditional training load measures by quantifying  
95 intensity distributions relative to competition requirements (i.e., race pace). Race-relative  
96 measures could be particularly useful in track cycling, where accumulation and intensity  
97 distributions can be calculated for multiple relevant measures (e.g., power output, torque).  
98 Still, it is valuable to quantify training intensity distributions using both internal and external  
99 load measures within the context of traditional models that typically guide training  
100 prescription for differentially targeting specific physiological adaptations.

101 To the authors' knowledge, only two published studies have documented the training  
102 or physiological characteristics of track cyclists for a prolonged period<sup>9,14</sup>. Of those, only  
103 Schumacher & Mueller<sup>9</sup> presented data from a world record performance season. The aim of

104 this study was to profile the physical training characteristics of an elite team pursuit squad,  
105 assessing variations in training intensity and load accumulation across a 36-week period in  
106 preparation for the 2018 Commonwealth Games. Through this profile, we examined the  
107 integration of specific and non-specific training modalities, and quantified training intensity  
108 distributions relative to metabolic and race pace thresholds. Within this paper we focus  
109 primarily on the physical component of performance (i.e., not mental, tactical, technical).  
110 These findings will help quantify the training demands enabling world-class performances,  
111 which may be useful for coaches, practitioners, and athletes in track cycling to improve  
112 training planning.

## 113 **2. Methods**

### 114 *2.1. Participants*

115 Five male track endurance cyclists (mean [SD] age, 21.9 [3.52] yrs; height, 183.0  
116 [5.24] cm; body mass, 78.6 [3.21] kg) participated in this study. All participants were  
117 members of the Australian Cycling Team, and research approval was provided by  
118 AusCycling (then Cycling Australia). After being provided information about the study and  
119 its requirements, participants provided informed consent, permitting the researchers access to  
120 their testing, training, and performance data for the study period of interest. The study was  
121 granted ethics approval (ETH19-3866) by the University of Technology Sydney Human  
122 Research Ethics Committee and complied with the Declaration of Helsinki. Participant  
123 characteristics are presented in Table 1.

### 124 *2.2. Training Data Analysis*

125 Athlete testing, training, and performance data were collected for every recorded  
126 activity in the 36-week study period of interest (1<sup>st</sup> August 2017 to 5<sup>th</sup> April 2018). Data were  
127 exported from the athletes' online training diaries (TrainingPeaks™, CO, USA), and  
128 Australian Cycling Team sport science databases. Training diaries were imported to Excel

129 2016 (Microsoft, USA), inspected for missing and outlier data, and systematically coded by  
130 training session type for analysis.

131 Individual workout files were uploaded to Golden Cheetah (v3.5 open-source license,  
132 UK), cleaned (i.e., heart rate and power data spikes removed), then exported as 1-Hz raw  
133 data. Torque (Nm) was derived from power output and cadence, as described by Gardner et  
134 al.<sup>15</sup>. Training session duration was determined from training diary and heart rate data to  
135 ensure agreement. Power output data were measured using instrumented cranks (SRM,  
136 Germany; Quarq, SRAM, USA; Rotor, Spain), and heart rate data collected using chest-worn  
137 heart rate monitors (Polar, Finland; Wahoo, USA). Power and heart rate data were available  
138 for 87% and 73% of sessions, respectively. Seventy percent of sessions had both variables  
139 recorded. In sessions where variables were missing, time in zone data were imputed by hot  
140 deck imputation method<sup>16,17</sup> using multiple-parameter inputs (athlete, week, coded session  
141 name, duration, distance, and available heart rate or power variables) in VIM<sup>18</sup>. Imputed  
142 variables (heart rate, power output, session duration) were plotted and visually inspected for  
143 discrepancies (e.g., outliers) between raw and imputed values.

144 Time in training intensity zones was calculated using zones identified from a lactate  
145 threshold step test (5 min, 50 W steps)<sup>19</sup>, performed by athletes within the first month of the  
146 study period of interest, and subsequently updated following testing on 2 further occasions  
147 between September and November. For this study, LT<sub>1</sub> is defined as the power output (and  
148 resultant heart rate) preceding the first > 0.4 mmol.L<sup>-1</sup> increase in blood lactate, and LT<sub>2</sub>  
149 identified using the Mod-Dmax method<sup>20</sup>.

150 Athletes were primarily based in Adelaide, SA, Australia, and the majority of track-  
151 based training sessions were conducted at the Adelaide SuperDrome – a 250-metre indoor  
152 wooden velodrome with maximum bank angle of 43°. The final race event was held at the  
153 Anna Meares Velodrome, Brisbane, QLD, Australia – a 250-metre indoor wooden velodrome

154 with 44° maximum bank angle. Each athlete's average lap pace in track training session  
155 efforts was calculated to analyse trends in pace evolution, along with the gear used in each  
156 effort. Race power outputs for each athlete in lead position (i.e., first wheel) were modelled  
157 using race simulation effort data (power, speed, cadence) collected in training sessions prior  
158 to the event, corrected for environmental conditions (temperature, humidity, barometric  
159 pressure, air density). A fixed proportion of the respective riders' lead position modelled  
160 power was used to calculate power output at each follow position (i.e., second, third, and  
161 fourth wheel) based on previous research<sup>6</sup>. These data were used to calculate time spent  
162 above each threshold (e.g., world record (WR) Lead, WR Follow, WR Average).  
163 Performance modelling was required because the athletes' track bike power meters were not  
164 in use during the competition.

### 165 *2.3. Statistical Analysis*

166 Data were analysed and figures plotted using R (version 4.0.2)<sup>21</sup>. All data are  
167 presented as mean  $\pm$  SD.

## 168 **3. Results**

### 169 *3.1. General Training Characteristics*

170 Participant baseline characteristics at the beginning of the training period are  
171 presented in Table 1. Riders were based in a centralised program for the majority of their  
172 preparation with regular breaks from the Training Centre where they continued to train in  
173 their own home environment (Figure 1). Training was periodised into defined blocks that  
174 progressed from riders having an individualised program to target specific aerobic, strength  
175 and skill goals, to a team and race-specific focus. In total, there were 2560 individual items  
176 stored in the participants' training diaries for the study period of interest. Of these, 2182  
177 (85.2%) were active (e.g., bike, gym) training or passive heat acclimation (e.g., sauna)  
178 sessions. Heat acclimation sessions were used both independently and immediately after

179 active training sessions to, respectively, induce or extend physiological stress. The remainder  
180 included non-active recovery (e.g., massage, illness, days off), testing (e.g., anthropometry or  
181 musculoskeletal screening), travel, and team meetings.

182 ##### Table 1 Approximate Position #####

183 ##### Figure 1 Approximate Position #####

184 Participants trained  $905.89 \pm 55.30 \text{ min}^{-1} \cdot \text{wk}^{-1}$  (Figure 2-A) and cycled  $312.40 \pm$   
185  $28.32 \text{ km}^{-1} \cdot \text{wk}^{-1}$  across the 36-week study period. Bike-based sessions (track, road, indoor)  
186 accounted for 69.9% of all sessions, while 12.7% were gym sessions. Heat acclimation stress  
187 was used either independently or as an adjunct stressor to exercise in 2.9% of sessions (for  
188 heat acclimation protocol see Tebeck et al.<sup>22</sup>). Riders competed in both track and road races  
189 throughout their preparation for the Commonwealth Games. The track events were not  
190 limited to team pursuit and a range of events (i.e., omnium, Madison) were contested by the  
191 riders.

192 ##### Figure 2 Approximate Position #####

### 193 3.2. Training Intensity Distribution

194 A pyramidal intensity distribution was evident in most training weeks for both heart  
195 rate (Figure 2-B) and power output (Figure 3-B). Across the 36 weeks, percentage of total  
196 time spent below  $LT_1$  was  $65.5 \pm 11.45\%$  and  $70.8 \pm 13.28\%$  for HR and power, respectively.  
197 Participants performed  $5.3 \pm 3.08\%$  and  $7.7 \pm 3.41\%$  of training above  $LT_2$  HR and power  
198 intensities, respectively, with the remainder ( $29.2 \pm 11.55\%$  and  $21.6 \pm 12.18\%$ ) between  $LT_1$   
199 and  $LT_2$ .

200 ##### Figure 3 Approximate Position #####

201 ##### Figure 4 Approximate Position #####





#### 226 4. Discussion

227 This was the first study to characterise team pursuit cyclists' training intensity and  
228 load accumulation relative to their own world-record performance power output and torque  
229 demands. We have also provided the first update to our understanding of the general training  
230 characteristics in elite team pursuit athletes in over 20 years. The team's performance at the  
231 2018 Commonwealth Games was a then-world record 3:49.804 min:sec.ms in the men's  
232 4000-metre team pursuit, beating the previous record (Great Britain, 2016) by 0.461 seconds.  
233 This analysis offers important insights to the training demands contributing to elite  
234 performance, with some findings in agreement, and others in conflict, with previous findings  
235 from multiple endurance sports.

236 In the 36-week preparation period prior to their world record performance, the team  
237 pursuit squad members completed ~540 training hours across multiple training modes, and  
238 ~11240 km<sup>-1</sup> cycled. Annualised volume (787 h<sup>-1</sup> and 16289 km<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) differs  
239 greatly from that reported by the 2000 team pursuit world record-setters involved in the study  
240 of Schumacher & Mueller<sup>9</sup>. The ~13000 km<sup>-1</sup> difference in total training distance was related  
241 to the track-specific training program of the present group that focussed on developing  
242 aerobic and anaerobic capacity and fatigue resistance via high-intensity training completed  
243 via multiple modalities (i.e., road, ergo, track, treadmill) compared to the low-intensity, high-  
244 volume road-based concept of the German program. The German concept was based on the  
245 development of aerobic power through volume and road stage races, with transfer to track-  
246 specific anaerobic demands using short (4-7 day) track training camps. The program resulted  
247 in 94% of athletes' training performed below LT<sub>1</sub>, while 2% was above LT<sub>2</sub> compared to  
248 68% and 4%, respectively, in the present study. Different methods were used for identifying  
249 metabolic thresholds, which may explain some of the proportional differences due to  
250 respective cut-offs<sup>23</sup>. Nonetheless, the training data clearly shows an evolution in approaches  
251 to prepare for the team pursuit from the year 2000 to 2018.

252 A large proportion of training was performed at low intensities, albeit less than the  
253 70-80% typically reported in endurance training<sup>24,25</sup>. Similar to previous training intensity  
254 distribution research<sup>13,26,27</sup>, a pyramidal training intensity distribution was evident for most of  
255 the preparation period. However, an often-observed shift toward a polarised distribution in  
256 the late phase was not seen<sup>26,27</sup>. To provide context to this observation, it is important to  
257 acknowledge in the quantification of time in heart rate zones is the incidental effect of  
258 transitional periods between LIT and HIT (e.g., during high-intensity interval training) on  
259 MIT volume. The majority of these athletes' track and ergometer sessions were performed as  
260 short duration (< 2 min) efforts. As a result of this training prescription, MIT volume would  
261 be inflated (compared to external work performed) due to time spent in the intermediate  
262 training zone during the ascending and descending heart rate response. For non-steady state  
263 training, as is common in track cycling, it is likely more appropriate to use external load  
264 when quantifying intensity distributions as a more accurate reflection of metabolic stress. It is  
265 also important to consider the impact of environmental stressors while using heart rate to  
266 quantify training load, particularly in elite athletes where heat and hypoxia are often used as  
267 additional training stimuli. In the present study, these effects are noted in the slightly higher  
268 heart rate relative to power during heat acclimation performed during the season (Figures 2-B  
269 and 3-B). The inclusion of heat acclimation was seen as an opportunity to achieve required  
270 metabolic stress to maintain aerobic capacity and blood volume with less mechanical stress  
271 (i.e., torque). Heat stress applied in various training sessions within these athletes was  
272 observed to induce elevations in heart rate >80% HR<sub>max</sub> and core temperature >38.5 °C (see  
273 Tebeck et al.<sup>22</sup>), indicating increased physiological stress and the induction of valuable  
274 metabolic responses<sup>22</sup>. This strategy allowed for reduced neuromuscular fatigue allowing for  
275 greater training quality in track and gym sessions.

276 Gym-based training was a major component of the performance program,  
277 representing 16% of total training time. Resistance training was prescribed to develop  
278 strength, power, and speed, periodised to complement on-bike training throughout the  
279 preparation period. A focus of this training was improving athlete robustness and resilience  
280 for injury prevention and load tolerance through development of movement competencies  
281 and core strength. The inclusion of 2-3 resistance training sessions per week has been shown  
282 to improve cycling efficiency and mean maximal power output in elite cyclists<sup>28</sup>. Multi-joint  
283 compound exercises – leg press, deadlift, and squat variations – were the principal  
284 movements of the program, with plyometric exercises used to further develop rate of force  
285 development. Training was not limited to lower-limb exercises, with upper-body movements  
286 incorporated along with extensive core training to aid posture and control in the highly  
287 demanding, aerodynamic team pursuit position. It is unclear what resistance training, if any,  
288 the athletes involved in the Schumacher & Mueller study<sup>9</sup> performed during their Olympic  
289 preparation; the large road-based training volume may have precluded the inclusion of  
290 resistance training in their program, or it simply may not have been considered necessary to  
291 develop requisite characteristics for track endurance or road cycling at that time.

292 Rapid production of large amounts of force, extensively and repeatedly, underpins  
293 team pursuit performance. Given the fixed-gear nature of track cycling, internally-driven  
294 (e.g., physiological, biomechanical) improvements in average speed may be achieved through  
295 combinations of increased cadence, increased gear size, or fatigue deferral. Increases in  
296 cadence result in a reduction of mechanical efficiency<sup>29</sup> and are likely impractical from the  
297 already high pedal velocities of this and more recent world-record performances. Conversely,  
298 larger gear sizes have the benefit of potential efficiency improvements with the trade-off of  
299 increased torque demands<sup>29,30</sup>. The large resistance training component of the athletes'  
300 preparation likely contributed to their ability to produce greater torque throughout the

301 performance. These increased torque demands are most pronounced in the standing start  
302 where track cyclists must overcome inertial resistance to reach target cadence/velocity. The  
303 energetic cost of this phase, which accounts for ~9% of the race duration, may have been  
304 proportionally lower due to the development of the athletes' maximal force-production  
305 capabilities through their resistance training programs. Furthermore, evidence of a positive  
306 relationship between anaerobic work capacity and lower limb mass and maximal force  
307 exists<sup>31-33</sup>. In the team pursuit, athletes perform repeated bouts above LT<sub>2</sub> that have a high  
308 anaerobic demand. Therefore, increases to the anaerobic work capacity would be beneficial  
309 both physically and tactically. The potential improvements in the athletes' work capacity may  
310 have enabled a reduced rate of fatigue while producing the power outputs required to enable  
311 their world-record performance.

312         Variations in torque/power occur throughout the team pursuit performance;  
313 oscillations that occur as cyclists travel from corners to straights (and vice versa) each lap and  
314 the more pronounced changes during rider transitions are unavoidable. While the riders'  
315 model-estimated power does fluctuate throughout the race, their pacing profile remains  
316 highly consistent with only minor changes in speed (Figure 6), reflecting a stable pedal  
317 cadence. A 1.5% pace change resulting from  $\pm 2$ -rpm variations in this world-record  
318 performance may seem minor, however the outcome would be a difference of 0.215 seconds  
319 per flying lap. Such fluctuations could impair riders' abilities to execute race strategy due to  
320 the metabolic consequences of the altered physiological load and recovery dynamics.  
321 Minimising excess variation through improved force modulation may be a trainable skill  
322 required to optimise race strategy execution. Additionally, some evidence exists to support  
323 tactical decisions for optimising the pacing and turn strategies of riders to minimise  
324 fluctuation and time loss resulting from fatigue<sup>34</sup>.

325        *4.1. Limitations*

326            Several limitations must be acknowledged in this exploratory analysis. The proportion  
327 of missing data for power output (13%), heart rate (27%), or both (30%) may have affected  
328 quantification of training intensity distributions. These data were missing completely at  
329 random (MCAR, i.e., unrelated to another measured variable), typically related to temporary  
330 unavailability of the measurement device (e.g., heart rate monitor/power meter not present,  
331 battery issues). The use of a hot deck imputation method, where missing values were  
332 estimated from similar complete observations and inspected against the raw data for outliers,  
333 allowed us to explore a complete and more accurate dataset. The use of modelling methods to  
334 quantify power output in the race could have introduced error in the analyses. However,  
335 recently published data of a near-identical performance time by an international team pursuit  
336 squad provide similar power data <sup>7</sup>, which supports the accuracy of the estimated data used in  
337 the present study.

338            Session durations stated in workout summaries, particularly for track sessions, were  
339 for the entirety of the session rather than only the active/work duration. As such, these  
340 session durations are inflated by the rest time between efforts, which can be >15 mins in  
341 some instances. Furthermore, several sessions had recorded durations much longer (>15 min)  
342 than the planned duration, possibly due to athletes forgetting to end sessions on bike  
343 computers. These sessions were visually inspected and erroneous data corrected to match the  
344 active period or session planned duration. Time in respective training zones were then  
345 recalculated based on the corrected durations.

346            Finally, no off-training activities were recorded, which may alter total training volume  
347 and load, particularly at low intensities<sup>11,35</sup>. Future studies of this nature should consider the  
348 potential influence of activities of daily living and incidental physical activity on  
349 quantification of training volume and intensity distribution.

#### 350 4.2. *Practical Applications*

351 Our study reveals that track cyclists can develop the physical characteristics required  
352 for world-class team pursuit performance by adopting a track-specific training philosophy  
353 that includes phases of individualised attribute development, team-based track focus and  
354 strength development, and race pace development. The inclusion of resistance training within  
355 athletes' programmes appears to contribute to force development, which is necessary for the  
356 use of larger fixed gear sizes that permit improved lap pace. Athletes perform a vast majority  
357 of training at low intensities (below  $LT_1$ ) – with the balance across moderate and high  
358 intensities – which aligns with the existing elite endurance athlete training intensity  
359 distribution literature. This low-intensity training volume is typically accumulated through  
360 road cycling sessions designed to complement the overall objectives of the training phase.  
361 Time spent at, or above, race-relevant thresholds (e.g., lead power/torque) may be a relevant  
362 measure to prescribe training in order to build capacity for the team pursuit event and may be  
363 worth further investigation in future research. Given the large improvements in team pursuit  
364 world record (Italy, 3:42.032 min:sec.ms, 2021) since the performances discussed here and in  
365 Part II of this study, it would be valuable to conduct further research investigating the  
366 interaction between physical characteristics and changes in tactical and technical aspects of  
367 these more recent performances. Differences in technology and aerodynamics, as well as race  
368 tactics, are important factors to understand for their contribution to improved performance. It  
369 may also be worthwhile monitoring additional measures, such as heart rate variability, sleep,  
370 and nutrition, to help understand and contextualise the athletes' training stress and recovery  
371 throughout the various training phases.

#### 372 **5. Conclusions**

373 These data provide valuable insight to the training performed prior to a world record  
374 performance in team pursuit cycling. The study shows that a track-specific training program –

375 complemented by road-based volume, structured resistance training programming, and well-  
376 planned adjunct environmental stress – supports the development of requisite aerobic,  
377 anaerobic, and neuromuscular characteristics for world-class track cycling. These findings  
378 stand out against the single prior study of team pursuit training in which a road-specific, high-  
379 volume philosophy underpinned training leading to that team’s own world record  
380 performance. In the present study, a performance improvement of 9.904 seconds (4.1%) from  
381 the world record in 2000 was achieved with approximately 44% less annualised volume by  
382 distance. We acknowledge the contribution of improved aerodynamics and equipment  
383 advancements to this improvement; however, it is likely that the training encountered by  
384 these athletes was a major factor in developing performance in the face of shifting demands  
385 of the event from aerobic focused toward power-endurance. We believe these exploratory  
386 studies, while descriptive in nature, are critical in progressing our understanding of the  
387 demands of sports so that they may guide practice and athlete development to advance  
388 performance.



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398 **Availability of Data and Material:** This survey was registered on Open Science  
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400 online at [osf.io/fdg2n](https://osf.io/fdg2n)

401 **Author Contributions:** Study design was conceived by AS, JS, and KS, with data collected  
402 by JS and TD. AS analysed all data, with KS, JS, and TD reviewing the analyses. AS wrote  
403 the first draft, with all authors contributing to the editing of drafts up to the final manuscript.

404 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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506 TABLES & FIGURES

507 **Table 1** Team pursuit squad characteristics at the beginning of the study period of interest

508 **Figure 1** Training and competition overview of the Australian Men's Track Endurance squad  
509 in preparation for the 2018 Commonwealth Games

510 **Figure 2** Weekly mean A) training volume performed in each activity type, and B) heart rate  
511 training intensity distributions by team pursuit squad athletes in 36-week period prior to  
512 world-record event

513 **Figure 3** Mean A) distribution of power outputs by athletes in team pursuit squad during 36-  
514 week training period prior to world-record performance with power outputs corresponding to  
515 relevant intensity and race-demand thresholds indicated; and, B) percentage time in power  
516 output intensity zones per training week

517 **Figure 4** Mean A) distribution of torque produced by team pursuit athletes during 36-week  
518 training period prior to world-record performance with lines corresponding to relevant  
519 metabolic and race-demand torque thresholds; and, B) percentage time in torque intensity  
520 zones per training week

521 **Figure 5** Within-season variation and trends of mean track session gear selection and effort  
522 pace (lap time) prior to world-record team pursuit performance

523 **Figure 6** Race analysis of the world-record performance in the 2018 Commonwealth Games  
524 4000m Men's Team Pursuit Final with lead rider speed (closed circles) and model-estimated  
525 power (open circles) at each half-lap split

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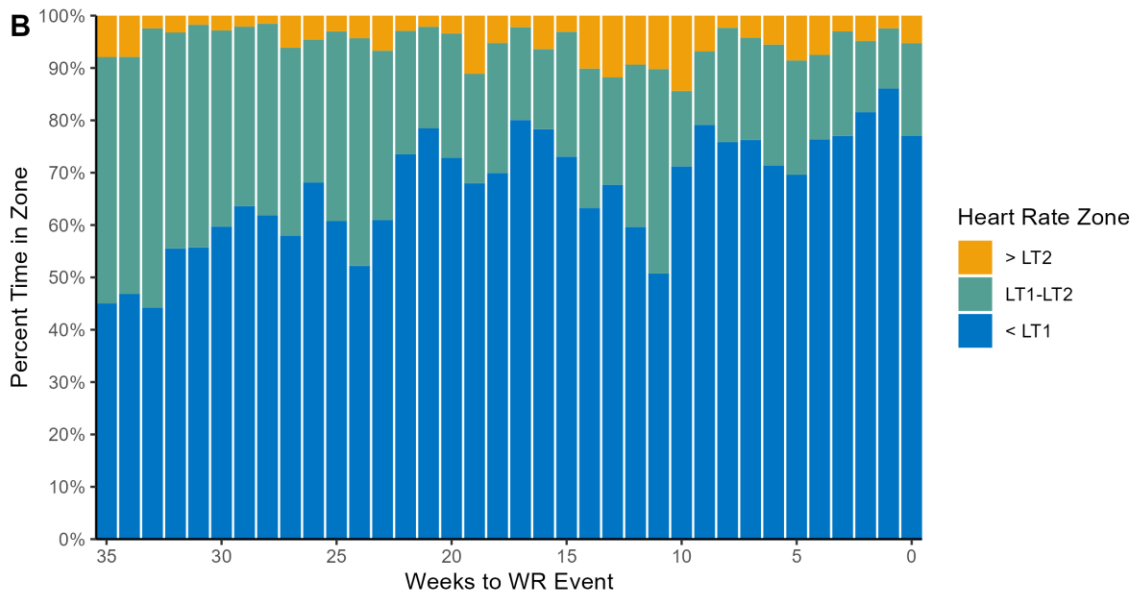
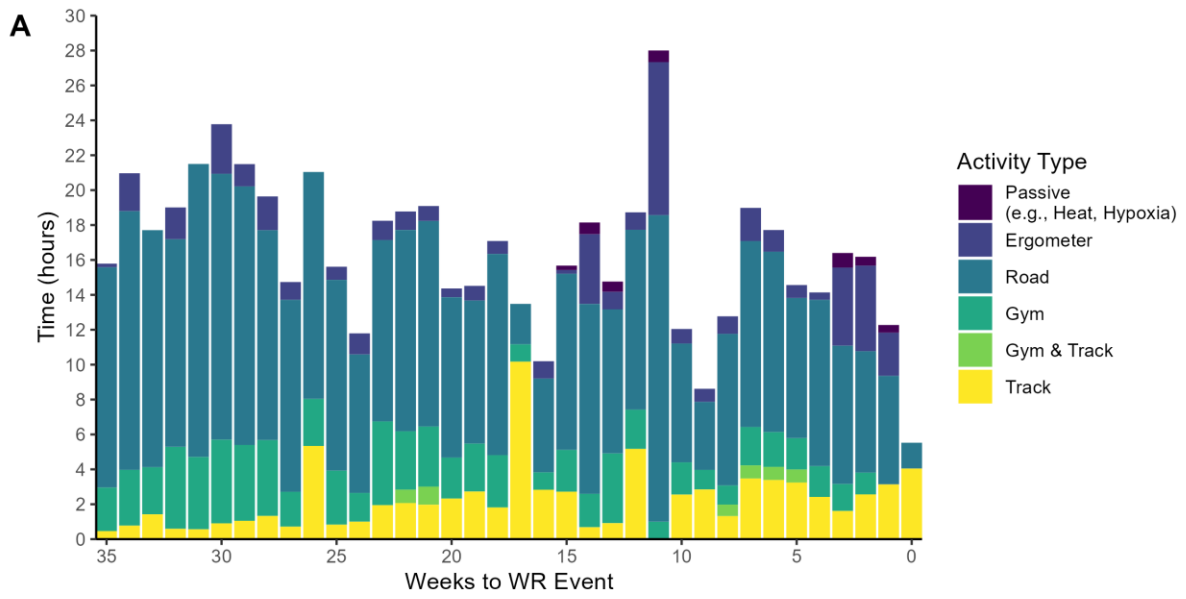
527 **Table 2** Team pursuit squad characteristics at the beginning of the study period of interest

	<b>Mean [SD]</b>	<b>Range</b>
<b>Age (years)</b>	21.9 [3.52]	19.2-27.9
<b>Height (cm)</b>	183.0 [5.24]	179.0-192.0
<b>Weight (kg)</b>	78.62 [3.21]	75.3-83.3
<b>W at LT<sub>2</sub></b>	344 [10.95]	331-354
<b>W.kg<sup>-1</sup> at LT<sub>2</sub></b>	4.4 [0.16]	4.2-4.6
<b>W at VO<sub>2peak</sub></b>	486 [24.40]	447-508
<b>W.kg<sup>-1</sup> at VO<sub>2peak</sub></b>	6.2 [0.28]	5.8-6.5
<b>VO<sub>2peak</sub> (L.min<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	5.40 [0.30]	5.0-5.8
<b>VO<sub>2peak</sub> (mL.kg.min<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	68.74 [2.99]	65.6-73.2
<b>BLa<sub>peak</sub> (mmol.L)</b>	16.9 [3.34]	14.2-22.3
<b>HR<sub>max</sub> (bpm)</b>	196 [9.39]	186-208

Abbreviations: W, power output, watts; LT<sub>2</sub>, anaerobic threshold; VO<sub>2peak</sub>, peak oxygen consumption; BLa<sub>peak</sub>, peak blood lactate

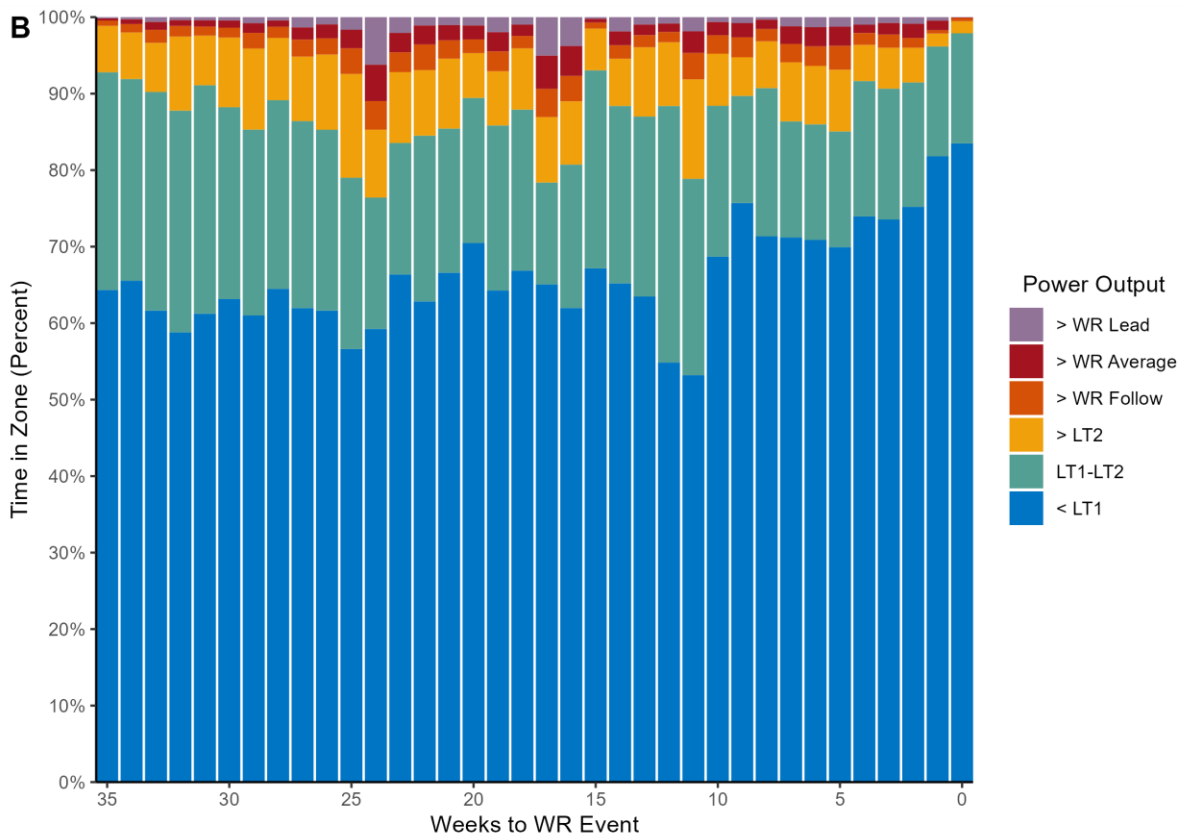
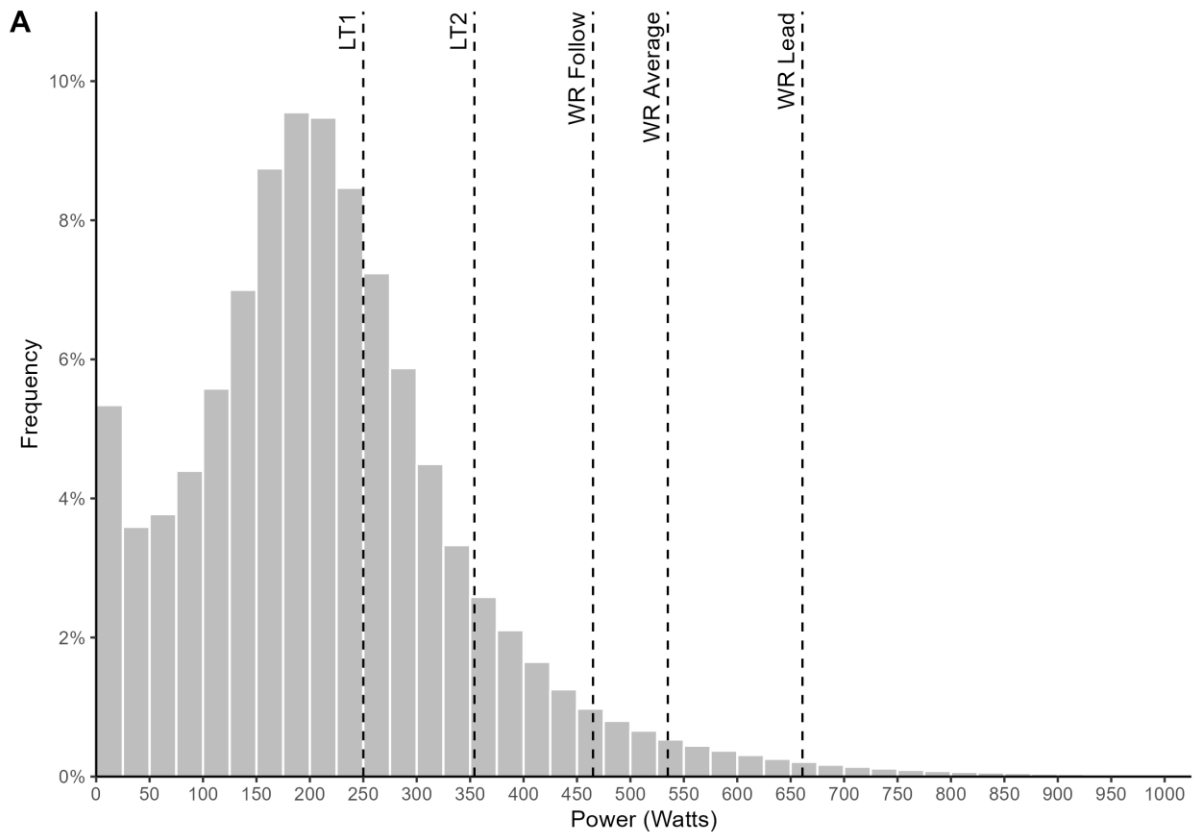
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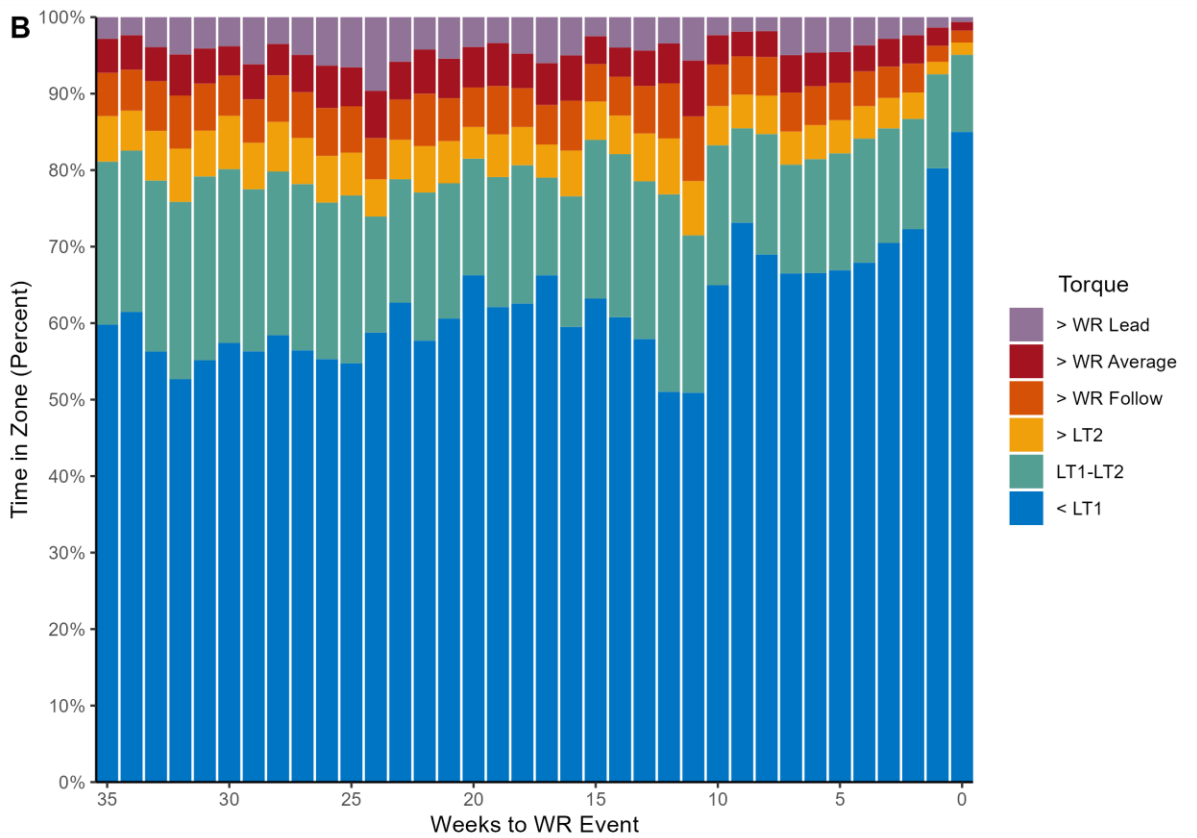
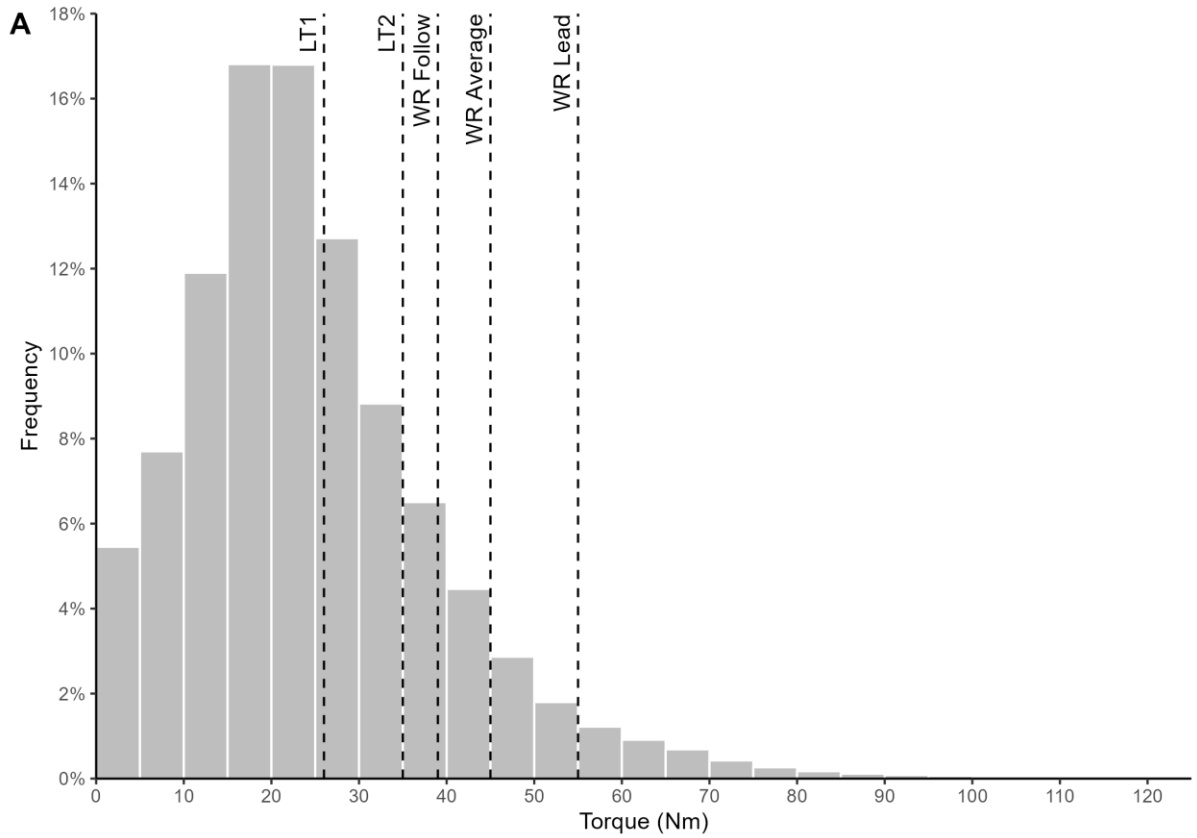




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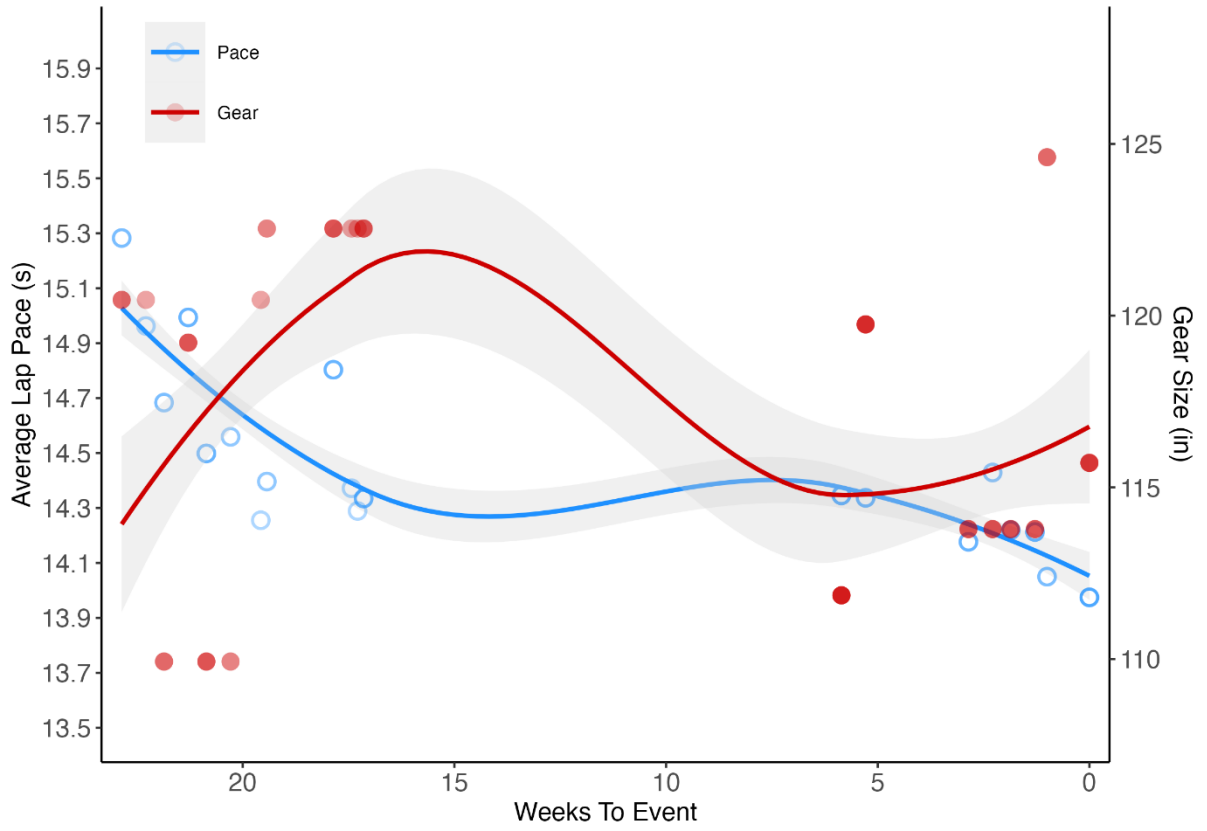






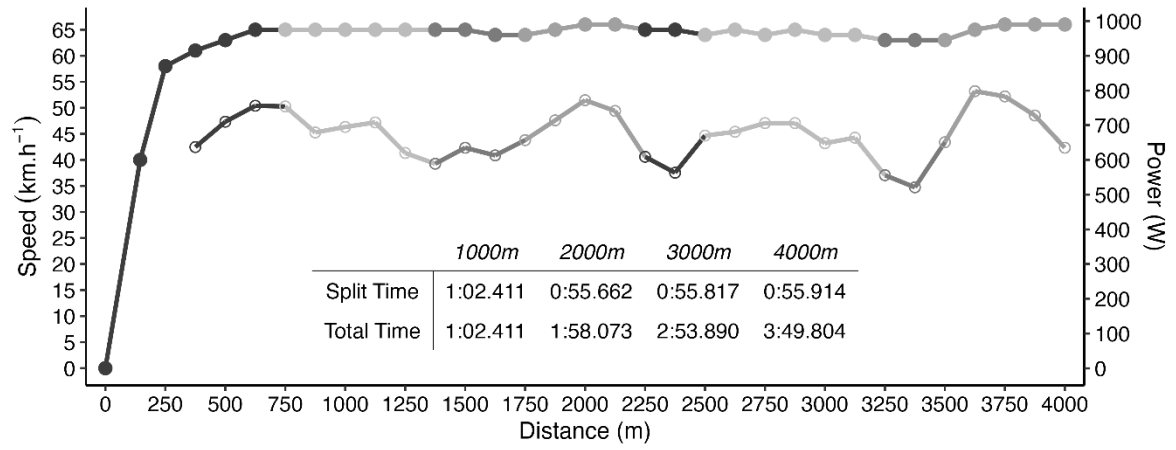
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