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# Lung function and oxygen saturation after participation in Norseman Xtreme Triathlon

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## ABSTRACT

**Objectives:** To examine development of exercise-induced bronchoconstriction (EIB) defined as  $\geq 10\%$  reduction in forced expiratory volume in one second ( $FEV_1$ ) and exercise-induced arterial hypoxemia (EIAH) defined as  $\geq 4\%$  reduction in oxygen saturation ( $SpO_2$ ) from before to after participation in the Norseman Xtreme Triathlon. Secondly, to assess if changes in  $FEV_1$  and  $SpO_2$ , are related to respiratory symptoms, training volume and race time.

**Methods:** In this quasi-experimental non-controlled study, we included 63 triathletes (50♂/13♀) aged 40.3 ( $\pm 9.0$ ) years (mean  $\pm$ SD). Fifty-seven (46♂/11♀) measured lung function and 54 (44♂/10♀) measured  $SpO_2$  the day before the race, 8-10 minutes after finishing the race (post-test 1) and the day after the race (post-test 2). Respiratory symptoms and weekly training volume were recorded with a modified AQUA questionnaire. ANOVA for repeated measures was used to detect differences in lung function and  $SpO_2$ . Statistical significance was accepted at 0.05 level.

**Results:** Twenty-six participants (46%) developed EIB at post-test 1 and 16 (28%) at post-test 2. All lung function variables were significantly reduced from baseline to post-test 1 and 2. Thirty-five participants (65%) developed mild to moderate EIAH. No significant correlations were observed except a weak correlation between maximal reduction in  $FEV_1$  and respiratory symptoms ( $r=0.35$ ,  $p=0.016$ ).

**Conclusion:** Our results demonstrated that 46% of the participants developed EIB and 65% developed EIAH after the Norseman Xtreme Triathlon. Changes in  $FEV_1$  and  $SpO_2$  were not correlated to weekly training hours or race time. We observed a weak correlation between maximal reduction in  $FEV_1$  and respiratory symptoms.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Increasing interest of participation in extreme long-distance races such as ultra-marathon, open water  
3 swim and extreme triathlon, is reported over the last decades (1). One of these is the Norseman Xtreme  
4 Triathlon, held in Norway in August. Participation has become more and more popular and in 2019  
5 about 4300 athletes, representing 84 nations, registered for 250 slots. The race is known as one of the  
6 toughest triathlons in the world (2) and consists of a 3.8 km open water swim in Eidfjord followed by  
7 180 km cycling, crossing two mountain plateaus (Hardangervidda and Mt. Imingfjell), and a full  
8 distance marathon (42 km) finishing at the top of Mt. Gaustatoppen, 1883 meters above sea level  
9 (m.a.s.l.). However, the current knowledge of the acute effect of extreme and long-lasting endurance  
10 exercise on physiological variables, including pulmonary responses, in recreational triathletes is scarce.

11 A significant reduction in lung function, measured as the forced expiratory volume in one second  
12 ( $FEV_1$ ), has previously been reported after long distance endurance competitions such as triathlons,  
13 marathons, and ultra-marathons, including ultra-mountain marathons (3-5). Respiratory muscle fatigue  
14 has been suggested as one possible mechanism of reduced lung function (3, 6, 7). Blaber et al. (4)  
15 investigated changes in pulmonary function and autonomic cardiovascular control in eight ultra-  
16 marathon athletes. They observed that 30s maximal voluntary ventilation ( $MVV_{30s}$ ) and  $MVV_{30s}$  tidal  
17 volume (TV) were reduced after the race as compared to baseline measurements. In addition, the ratio  
18 of  $FEV_1$  and forced vital capacity (FVC),  $FEV_1/FVC$ , was reduced after the race. However, only  
19 baseline MVV was correlated to race performance and not the changes in MVV from pre to post-race  
20 (4). Moreover, Hue et al. (8) demonstrated that a cycle-run succession (30 minutes cycling followed by  
21 20 minutes running) induced changes in pulmonary function in 8 national level and 6 elite level  
22 triathletes. They reported an increase in residual volume (RV) and functional residual capacity (FRC) in  
23 the elite level triathletes after the cycling session and a decrease in diffusion capacity (DLCO) in both  
24 groups. The decrease in DLCO persisted at the end of the cycle-run session in the national level group  
25 only (8).

26 In elite endurance athletes, bronchial hyper-responsiveness (BHR) and exercise-induced  
27 bronchoconstriction (EIB), defined as  $\geq 10\%$  reduction in FEV<sub>1</sub> from before to after exercise, are  
28 frequently observed, especially in cold air athletes and swimmers (9) but also in triathletes (9, 10).  
29 Airway inflammation due to the mechanical, osmotic and thermal stress from repeated high ventilation  
30 rates during training and competitions in unfavourable environments is suggested as the mechanism for  
31 development of BHR and EIB in endurance-trained athletes (11). Couto et al. (12) suggested "sports  
32 asthma" as a new distinct asthma phenotype, based on the presence of respiratory symptoms, BHR/EIB  
33 and associated with "autonomic dysautonomy" induced by systematic high-intensity endurance exercise  
34 (12). Previous studies have shown increased parasympathetic activity in endurance-trained athletes (13)  
35 as well as associations to BHR (14)

36 Exercise-induced arterial hypoxemia (EIAH) has been observed in high level endurance athletes (15)  
37 and this may be due to EIB and hypoventilation or exercise-induced pulmonary edema (EIPE) (16)  
38 Exercise-induced pulmonary edema is most common in water sport athletes, including triathletes, and is  
39 often reported as swimming-induced pulmonary edema (SIPE) (17, 18).

40 As triathlon consists of swimming, cycling and running, we hypothesized that triathletes are at  
41 significant risk to develop EIB and EIAH due to the increased ventilatory demands of the three different  
42 sports and environmental conditions during the competition. Therefore, the primary aim of the present  
43 study was to examine lung function and oxygen saturation by pulse oximetry (SpO<sub>2</sub>) the day before the  
44 race, immediately after the race and 12-18 hours after finishing the Norseman Xtreme Triathlon.  
45 Secondly, we aimed to assess possible relationships between changes in lung function and oxygen  
46 saturation as well as respiratory symptoms, training volume and race time.

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## 50 **METHODS**

51 The Regional Ethics Committee for Medical and Health Research (REK-number 2016/932) approved  
52 the present study and it was carried out according to the principles stated in the Declaration of Helsinki.  
53 Each subject provided a signed consent before inclusion.

54 The present study is part of a larger study aiming to assess core temperature, changes in biomarkers  
55 from blood samples and changes in lung function from before to after the Norseman Xtreme Triathlon  
56 race. Lung function and oxygen saturation results from the races in 2016 (n=36) and 2017 (n=27) are  
57 combined. Data was collected with identical protocols before and after both races. According to the  
58 Norwegian Meteorological Institute the range in temperature in this location and time period was 3.2-  
59 11.3°C and 4.4-14.2°C in 2016 and 2017, respectively. Relative humidity ranged from 69-88% in 2016  
60 and 72-93% in 2017, respectively. There were no observed differences between the baseline  
61 characteristics, nor the lung function and SpO<sub>2</sub> results between the participants in 2016 and 2017.

62 We collected baseline data in Eidfjord, about 7 m.a.s.l. The first 160 of the 250 participants in the  
63 Norseman cross the finish line at Mt. Gaustatoppen (1883 m.a.s.l.) and the remaining 90 participants  
64 cross the finish line at Gaustablikk Hotel (1100 m.a.s.l.) due to safety reasons. However, all participants  
65 complete an equal distance of 3.8 km open water swim, 180 km cycling, and a full distance marathon  
66 (42.2km). The air temperature and humidity during the races ranged between 3.8 - 10.8°C and 71-90%,  
67 respectively. The mean water temperature during the swim was 14.3°C. We performed all  
68 measurements indoor before and after the race. The mean room temperatures were 21°C (±2°C).

### 69 **Design and subjects**

70 Sixty-three Norseman participants (50♂/13♀) with a mean age of 40.3 years, ranging from 22-62 years,  
71 were included in the present quasi-experimental non-controlled study with pre-post testing (**Table 1**).  
72 Data were collected at baseline (the day before the competition, in Eidfjord), 8-10 minutes after  
73 crossing the finish line at Mt. Gaustatoppen or Gaustablikk hotel (post-test 1) and the day after the race

74 (post-test 2). Twenty-seven participants came from Norway, 22 from 9 other European countries and 14  
75 participants from 7 different countries outside of Europe. Participants from all continents except Africa  
76 and Antarctica are included in the present study.

77 Two participants aborted the race due to respiratory disorders, one of whom was hospitalized. Two  
78 participants aborted the race due to injuries after cycle accidents, and two of the included participants  
79 missed the time deadline to finish at Gaustatoppen and thus we were not able to measure them after the  
80 race. Hence, the total sample includes 57 participants (46♂/11♀) with lung function and 54 participants  
81 (44♂/10 ♀) with oxygen saturation test results.

82 Measurements of lung function and oxygen saturation by pulse oximetry (SpO<sub>2</sub>) were performed at all  
83 three time points (**Table 2 and Figure 1**) and blood pressure (BP) and heart rate (HR) were measured at  
84 baseline (**Table 1**). Prior diagnoses of asthma and allergy, use of anti-asthmatic medication the last year  
85 and the presence of respiratory symptoms (cough, phlegm, wheeze and heavy breathing) during or after  
86 exercise, as well as use of diet supplements and training volume were recorded with the modified  
87 AQUA-questionnaire (19) at baseline. Ten participants reported to use anti-asthmatic medication (beta<sub>2</sub>-  
88 agonists) regularly and used their asthma treatment as prescribed at all time points.

## 89 **Lung function**

90 Lung function was measured by maximum expiratory flow-volume loops using a MasterScreen Pneumo  
91 spirometer (Jaeger GmbH, Würzburg, Germany). The best of three measurements, regarding FEV<sub>1</sub> and  
92 FVC, with acceptable technique was used in the analysis. The following variables were recorded: FVC,  
93 FEV<sub>1</sub>, forced expiratory flow at 50% of vital capacity (FEF<sub>50</sub>) and FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC ratio. All manoeuvres  
94 complied with the general acceptability criteria of the European Respiratory Society (ERS) (20). Lung  
95 function values are expressed as percentage of predicted, according to Quanjer et al. (21). A reduction  
96 in FEV<sub>1</sub> from baseline to after the race was defined as exercise-induced bronchoconstriction (EIB)  
97 according to the ERS (21). The spirometer was corrected for temperature, humidity and altitude before

98 volume calibration, according to the suppliers' manual, prior to all lung function measurements in  
99 Eidfjord, at Mt. Gaustatoppen and at Gaustablikk Hotel.

#### 100 **Oxygen saturation, blood pressure and heart rate**

101 Oxygen saturation (SpO<sub>2</sub>), blood pressure (BP), systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood  
102 pressure (DBP) and resting heart rate (HR) were measured with a Welch Allyn Spot Vital Signs (LXi,  
103 New York, USA) recorder after sitting upright on a chair for 5 minutes. The mean of two BP measures,  
104 the mean of the two highest stable SpO<sub>2</sub> measures and the lowest measure of HR were used in our  
105 analyses. Exercise-induced arterial hypoxemia (EIAH) was defined as a reduction in SpO<sub>2</sub> of 4% or  
106 more from baseline according to Prefaut et al. (22)

107

#### 108 **STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

109 Demographic data are presented with mean and standard deviation (SD). Results are expressed as mean  
110 with 95% confidence intervals (CI), unless otherwise stated. Categorical data are presented as counts  
111 and proportions (%).

112 Power calculations are based on the changes in FEV<sub>1</sub>. Twenty participants were estimated to be a  
113 sufficient number to detect a difference of 10% with 80% power.

114 The changes in FEV<sub>1</sub> and SpO<sub>2</sub> from baseline to post-race are analysed using per protocol analysis.  
115 Differences between males and females are analysed by independent T-test and differences from  
116 baseline to post-test 1 and 2 are analysed using repeated measures ANOVA. Categorical variables are  
117 compared by Chi Square or Fisher's Exact tests and Spearman's correlation coefficient is used for  
118 analysing correlations between continuous variables. Statistical analyses are performed with Statistical  
119 Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 21.0; Chicago, IL, USA). A p-value less than or equal to  
120 0.05 is considered statistically significant.

121



122 **RESULTS**

123 **Participants**

124 The characteristics of the participants are presented in **Table 1**. Sixty-three participants were  
125 recruited and performed lung function measurements at baseline, 54 participants measured  
126 BP, HR and SpO<sub>2</sub> at baseline and 55 participants answered the questionnaire. Six (4♂/2♀)  
127 dropped out as previously described. The 57 included participating triathletes had a mean race  
128 time of 14 hours (h) and 55 minutes (min), ranging from 10 h and 5 min to 18 h and 15 min.

129 **[Insert Table 1]**

130 Twenty-six participants (46%) developed EIB immediately after the race and 16 participants  
131 (28%) still had bronchial constriction ( $\geq 10\%$  reduction in FEV<sub>1</sub> from baseline) the day after  
132 the race (**Table 2**).

133 **[Insert Table 2]**

134 In total, 35 participants (65%) developed mild to moderate EIAH defined as  $\geq 4\%$  reduction  
135 in SpO<sub>2</sub>, of which 32 participants from baseline to post-test 1 and 3 participants from baseline  
136 to post-test 2, respectively. Mean oxygen saturation was significantly reduced from baseline,  
137 99.0% (98.7, 99.3) [95% CI] to post-test 1, 94.4% (93.7, 95.1 by 4.6%) and to post-test 2, 96.6  
138 (96.2, 97.0) by 2.4%, respectively (**Figure 1**).

139 **[Insert Figure 1]**

140 **[Insert Table 3]**

141

142

143 Self-reported doctor diagnosed asthma and allergy, respiratory symptoms, nutritional  
144 supplements and training volume are presented in **Table 3**. Ten participants (18%) reported  
145 doctor diagnosed allergy and all used antihistamines regularly or as needed. In addition, 10  
146 participants (18%) reported to use beta<sub>2</sub>-agonists regularly or as needed. However, only 4 of  
147 them reported a previous doctor diagnosed asthma and used both inhaled steroids and beta<sub>2</sub>-

148 agonists. Thirty-six participants (66%) reported respiratory symptoms during or after  
149 training/competition and the most frequently reported symptoms were cough (29%) followed  
150 by phlegm (13%) and wheeze (13%), respectively. All participants used one or more dietary  
151 supplements. Multivitamins were most frequently reported (31%) followed by Omega 3  
152 (26%) and magnesium (26%). Male and female participants reported similar training volume  
153 per week, 13.2 and 13.6 hours per week, respectively (**Table 3**).

154 A weak, but significant correlation was found between maximal reduction in FEV<sub>1</sub> and  
155 respiratory symptoms ( $r = 0.35$ ,  $p=0.016$ ). We did not observe any significant correlation  
156 between maximal reduction in FEV<sub>1</sub> and maximal reduction in SpO<sub>2</sub> nor between maximal  
157 reduction in FEV<sub>1</sub> and training hours per week, race time or use of dietary supplements.

## 158 **DISCUSSION**

159 The main results from the present study were that nearly half of the Norseman participants  
160 developed EIB immediately after the race and almost two thirds of the athletes developed  
161 EIAH. Moreover, 28% had still reduced lung function (EIB) the day after the race. All lung  
162 function variables and SpO<sub>2</sub> were significantly reduced from baseline to post-test 1 and 2  
163 (**Table 2 and Figure 1**). A weak, but significant, correlation was observed between  
164 maximal reduction in FEV<sub>1</sub> post-race and self-reported respiratory symptoms at baseline.

### 165 **Exercise-induced bronchoconstriction and lung function**

166 The pulmonary response after a long-distance triathlon such as the Norseman is, to our  
167 knowledge, scarcely described in the literature. However, the high prevalence of EIB in  
168 our group of recreational triathletes is in line with previous studies (10, 23). Knöpfli et al.  
169 (10) investigated seven elite triathletes in the Swiss national team and found that three out  
170 of seven (43%) developed EIB after a sport-specific 8-minute running test on a 400 meters  
171 athletics track. Langdeau et al. (23) reported a prevalence of BHR (measured as a positive  
172 methacholine provocation test <16mg/ml) of 32% among well-trained triathletes. In  
173 addition, a high prevalence in the use of beta<sub>2</sub>-agonists among triathletes (24.9%) are  
174 reported from the summer Olympics in 2004 and 2008 (9). The low sample size in the  
175 study of Knöpfli et al. (10), different methodology of diagnosing EIB and that the  
176 participants were elite or well-trained triathletes in the above mentioned studies makes it  
177 challenging to compare with our group of recreational triathletes completing an extreme  
178 triathlon competition.

179 In line with studies from Hill et al. (3) and Blaber et al. (4), we found significant reductions in  
180 all lung function variables after the race (**Table 2**). Blaber et al. (4) observed that FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC,

181 MVV<sub>30s</sub> and MVV<sub>30s</sub> TV were reduced from baseline to after an ultra-marathon in eight  
182 runners and Hill et al. (3) reported declines in FVC (7,1%), FEV<sub>1</sub> (8,4%) and FEF<sub>50</sub> (18,6%),  
183 but not in MVV in 12 participants after a long distance triathlon. Contrary to our results  
184 (Table 2), Hill et al (3) found that only FEV<sub>1</sub> was significantly reduced the morning after the  
185 race.

## 186 **Mechanisms**

187 The mechanisms leading to reduced lung function after long distance endurance races are not  
188 known. Only four participants (7.3%) in the present study reported doctor diagnosed asthma  
189 and 10 participants (18.2%) used anti-asthmatic medication regularly (**Table 3**). However,  
190 none of the asthmatic triathletes developed EIB after the race, which may be due to the use of  
191 medication. Participants reporting respiratory symptoms during or after exercise (**Table 3**)  
192 had significantly greater mean reduction in FEV<sub>1</sub> after the race (15.7%) as compared to  
193 participants who did not (8.4%). Although previous studies have shown that respiratory  
194 symptoms are not associated with BHR or EIB (12, 24) we cannot exclude asthma as a  
195 contributing factor to EIB in the present study. We could have measured fractional exhaled  
196 nitric oxide (FE<sub>NO</sub>), an eosinophilic inflammatory marker from the airways, and thus have a  
197 measure of eosinophilic inflammation and /or atopic asthma. However, according to Couto et  
198 al. (12), FE<sub>NO</sub> is not associated with “sports asthma” and we could then probably lost potential  
199 asthmatic athletes. As previously mentioned, Hue et al. (8) observed an increase in RV and  
200 FRC and a decrease in DLCO after a cycle-run succession in 14 high-level triathletes. As we  
201 did not measure MVV, RV, FRC or DLCO in the present study, we cannot confirm or exclude  
202 similar findings among our participants. Further, increased parasympathetic activity (13, 25),  
203 respiratory muscle fatigue (3, 5) and EIPE/SIPE (17, 18, 26) have previously been proposed  
204 as possible mechanisms to reduced lung function in connection with exercise.  
205 Parasympathetic activity measured as heart rate variability (HRV) and pupillometry, is shown

206 to be increased (13, 27) and correlate with  $VO_{2max}$  in endurance trained athletes (28). In  
207 addition, Pichon et al. (29) reported increased parasympathetic activity in subjects with BHR  
208 to methacholine. This is in line with Stang et al. (14) who observed a strong association  
209 between BHR and parasympathetic activity in high-level swimmers, but not in cross country  
210 skiers. However, in the present study, we did not measure parasympathetic activity, but  
211 speculate that increased parasympathetic activity is involved in the mechanisms of EIB in our  
212 participants.

213 It has been suggested in the literature that respiratory muscle fatigue may cause reduced  
214 lung function after long duration endurance competitions, such as triathlon (3, 5, 7).  
215 However, results regarding the change in respiratory muscle strength, measured as  
216 maximal inspiratory pressure (MIP) and maximal expiratory pressure (MEP), after such  
217 competitions are conflicting. Warren et al. (30) did not find significant reduction in  
218 spirometry variables after a 24-hour run, but Mahler & Loke (31) did after an ultra-  
219 marathon. However, neither group observed changes in MIP and MEP (30, 31). Others  
220 have reported significantly reduced MIP (3, 6, 32) and MEP (32, 33) after triathlons and  
221 marathons, respectively. Hence, it seems likely that increased ventilation over time causes  
222 respiratory muscle fatigue and reduced lung function (7). However, of practical reason we  
223 did not measure MIP or MEP in the present study, but we agree with Wüthrich et al. (32)  
224 who urges more investigation of the association between reduced lung function and  
225 respiratory muscle strength during and after long duration endurance races.

## 226 **Oxygen saturation**

227 A significant reduction ( $p < 0.05$ ) in  $SpO_2$  from baseline to post-test 1 (4.6%) and 2 (2.4%),  
228 was seen in the present study. Thirty-five of 54 participants (29♂/6♀) (64.8%) developed  
229 mild EIAH immediately after the race, defined as  $> 4\%$  reduction in  $SpO_2$  from baseline

230 **(Figure 1)**. Reduction in SpO<sub>2</sub> has previously been reported among triathletes after  
231 competitions and shorter intense exercise sessions (34-36). Guenette et al. (37) reported  
232 that 61.9% of well-trained cyclists and triathletes had > 4% reduction in SpO<sub>2</sub> after a  
233 maximal endurance bike test using a finger sensor. Laursen et al. (38) observed a  
234 surprisingly high prevalence of EIAH among triathletes (84.6%) after a treadmill  
235 endurance test as well as on a cycle ergometer, using an ear sensor. They defined EIAH as  
236 SaO<sub>2</sub> < 93% and resting values were not accounted for. A meta-analysis by Jensen et al.  
237 (39) showed that finger-sensors were more accurate than ear-sensors for measuring SpO<sub>2</sub>  
238 and this may explain the difference in prevalence of SpO<sub>2</sub> between our results and Laursen  
239 et al.(38) . Different methodology and definitions have been used to identify EIAH among  
240 athletes (22, 40), which makes it challenging to compare our results with others. It is  
241 debated whether reduced PaO<sub>2</sub> of 8-10 mmHg during intensive exercise can be defined as  
242 EIAH (22). Nielsen (40) proposed that EIAH should be defined as SaO<sub>2</sub><95%, but he does  
243 not take individual resting values into account. However, other authors recommend  
244 defining EIAH as >4% reduction from baseline (22, 41).

245 In the present study, 49 out of 57 triathletes passed the finish line at 1883 m.a.s.l. and  
246 reduced oxygen pressure (PiO<sub>2</sub>) probably influenced the desaturation (22, 40, 42). In 1982,  
247 Squires & Buskirk (43) showed significantly reduction in SaO<sub>2</sub> after maximal treadmill  
248 exercise in runners at increasing altitudes. This is in line with Siegler et al. (44) who  
249 reported similar results among cyclists. Gaston et al. (42) reported that athletes with EIAH  
250 at sea level had a greater aerobic impairment than non-EIAH athletes after maximal  
251 exercise at 2150 m.a.s.l., probably due to hypoventilation. In contrast, Vernillo et al. (45)  
252 did not find any significant reduction in SpO<sub>2</sub> after a mountain marathon with a peak  
253 altitude of 3329 m.a.s.l. However, they measured SpO<sub>2</sub> at 1224 m.a.s.l. both at baseline  
254 and post marathon. Hence, it seems that there is individual adaptation to exercise at

255 altitude. Most studies include EIAH after maximal short-term exercise (41) and different  
256 test protocols makes it challenging to compare. Unfortunately, there is limited research of  
257 EIAH after prolonged endurance competitions at different altitudes.

## 258 **PERSPECTIVES**

259 In the present sport specific study, we demonstrate that 46% of the recreational triathletes  
260 developed EIB and 65% developed EIAH after the Norseman Xtreme Triathlon. The day after  
261 the race, 28% still had obstructive features with a reduction in  $FEV_1 \geq 10\%$ . This is in line  
262 with previous studies in triathletes (3, 8, 10, 16, 37) as well as in marathon and ultra-marathon  
263 runners (4, 7). However, the sample size is small in most studies and the included athletes are  
264 often at elite level (3, 4, 7, 8, 10). Research performed in recreational triathletes participating  
265 in a real competition is scarce and thus a strength of the present study. Compared to marathon  
266 and ultra-marathon, long distance triathlon consists of three different exercises and further  
267 investigations are needed to confirm our results in recreational triathletes. We did not observe  
268 correlations between changes in  $FEV_1$  and  $SpO_2$ , nor between changes in  $FEV_1$  and training  
269 hours per week or race time, only a weak correlation between maximal reduction in  $FEV_1$  and  
270 self-reported respiratory symptoms. The mechanisms of reduced lung function and oxygen  
271 saturation in long distance triathletes should thus be emphasized in further research. The  
272 practical impact of the present study is that both athletes, crew and medical staff, should be  
273 aware of pulmonary challenges, both the obstructive pattern observed in the present study as  
274 well as the common symptoms of severe lung disease such as exercise/swimming-induced  
275 pulmonary edema (EIPE/SIPE). Prior to the event, the race organizers should recommend  
276 triathletes with respiratory symptoms to be thoroughly examined for EIB by a doctor to  
277 ensure effective treatment. Asthmatic athletes should be encouraged to use their anti-  
278 asthmatic medication as usual before the race.

279

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283 least, thanks to the other researchers in the team for great support.

## 284 **DISCLOSURES**

285 The authors have no conflicts of interest or financial ties to disclose.

## 286 **DECLARATION**

287 The authors declare that the results of the study are presented clearly, honestly, and without  
288 fabrication, falsification, or inappropriate data manipulation.

289

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415 **Table 1.** Subject demographics, heart rate (HR) and blood pressure (BP) at baseline. Results

416 are given as mean with standard deviation (SD) (n=63 and 54<sup>a</sup>).

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	<b>Males n=50 (44)<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>Females n=13 (10)<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>All n=63 (54)<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>p</b>
Age (years)	41.2 (9.2)	36.9 (7.5)	40.3 (9.0)	0.125
Height (cm)	179.1(6.2)	166.7 (4.3) *	176.5 (7.7)	<0.001
Weight (kg)	76.7 (7.8)	61.4 (6.2) *	73.6 (9.7)	<0.001
BMI ( $w/h^2$ )	23.9 (2.0)	22.1 (1.9) *	23.6 (2.1)	<0.005
<sup>a</sup> HR ( $beats \cdot min^{-1}$ )	57.9 (8.0)	60.2 (6.7)	58.3 (7.8)	0.415
<sup>a</sup> BP <sub>sys</sub> (mm Hg)	131.7 (14.3)	119.1 (9.5)*	129.4 (14.3)	<0.05
<sup>a</sup> BP <sub>dia</sub> (mm Hg)	78.4 (9.0)	75.5 (4.8)	77.9 (8.5)	0.330

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\*= significant different ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) from males; <sup>a</sup> n= 54 (♂=44, ♀=10); BMI= body mass index; HR= heart rate; BP<sub>sys</sub>= systolic blood pressure; BP<sub>dia</sub> = diastolic blood pressure

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423 **Table 2.** Lung function (forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV<sub>1</sub>), forced vital capacity

424 (FVC), forced expiratory flow at 50% of vital capacity (FEF<sub>50</sub>) and FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC measured at

425 baseline, 5-10 minutes after the race (post-test 1) and the day after the race (post-test 2). All

426 variables are expressed in absolute values and percent predicted (% pred.) except for  
 427 FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC. Values are given as mean with 95% confidence intervals (CI) (n=57).

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	<b>Baseline</b> <i>n=57(45♂/12♀)</i>	<b>Post-test 1</b> <i>n=57(45♂/12♀)</i>	<b>Post-test 2</b> <i>n=57(45♂/12♀)</i>
<b>FEV<sub>1</sub>(L)</b>	4.24 (3.99, 4.48)	3.76 (3.48, 4.04)**	3.90 (3.64, 4.17) <sup>#</sup>
<b>FEV<sub>1</sub>(%pred)</b>	110,9 (106.7, 115.1)	98.7 (92.3, 105.1)**	102.3 (96.7, 107.9) <sup>#</sup>
<b>FVC (L)</b>	5.56 (5.26, 5.86)	5.07 (4.77, 5.36)**	5.24 (4.92, 5.56) <sup>#</sup>
<b>FVC (%pred)</b>	120.4 (116.7, 124.2)	110.0 (105.1, 115.1)**	113.4 (108.8, 118.1) <sup>#</sup>
<b>FEF<sub>50</sub> (L·sec)</b>	4.32 (3.93, 4.72)	3.75 (3.26, 4.24)**	3.82 (3.43, 4.23) <sup>#</sup>
<b>FEF<sub>50</sub> (%pred)</b>	86.7 (79.4, 94.1)	75.4 (65.7, 85.0)**	76.8 (68.9, 84.8) <sup>#</sup>
<b>FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC (%)</b>	76.16 (74.51, 77.82)	74.03 (71.03,77.02)*	74.49 (72.26, 76.72) <sup>#</sup>

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\* = significantly different from baseline to post-test 1 (p≤0.05), \*\*= p≤0.001, # = significantly different from baseline to post-test 2 (p≤0.05), <sup>#</sup>= p≤0.001, ♀= female, ♂= male

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441 **Table 3.** Self-reported doctor diagnosed allergy and asthma, most frequent respiratory  
 442 symptom during or after exercise, use of diet supplements and training hours/week, (*n*=55).  
 443 Results are given as numbers with percentage (%) for categorical data and mean  $\pm$  standard  
 444 deviation (SD) for continuous data.

	<b>Males <i>n</i>=43</b>	<b>Females <i>n</i>=12</b>	<b>All <i>n</i>=55</b>
<b>Doctor diagnosed allergy</b>	7 (16.3%)	3 (25.0%)	10 (18.2%)
<b>Doctor diagnosed asthma</b>	3 (7.0%)	1 (8.3%)	4 (7.3%)
<b>Anti-asthmatic medication</b>	9 (20.9%)	1 (8.3%)	10 (18.2%)
<b>Most frequent respiratory symptom during exercise:</b>			
<b>-Cough</b>	13 (30.2%)	3 (25.0%)	16 (29.1%)
<b>-Phlegm</b>	7 (16.3%)	0 (0%)	7 (12.7%)
<b>-Dyspnea</b>	4 (9.3%)	2 (16.7%)	6 (10.9%)
<b>-Wheeze</b>	6 (14.0%)	1 (8.3%)	7 (12.7%)
<b>Use of diet supplements:</b>			
<b>-Magnesium</b>	11 (25.6%)	3 (25.0%)	14 (25.5%)
<b>-Iron</b>	4 (9.3%)	0 (0%)	4 (7.3%)
<b>-Omega 3</b>	12 (27.9%)	2 (16.7%)	14 (25.5%)
<b>-Omega 6</b>	0 (0%)	1 (8.3%)	1 (1.8%)
<b>-Multivitamins</b>	11 (25.6%)	6 (50.0%)	17 (30.9%)
<b>-Protein</b>	7 (16.3%)	1 (8.3%)	8 (14.5%)
<b>-Others</b>	5 (11.6%)	1 (8.3%)	6 (10.9%)
<b>Training hours per week</b>	13.2 ( $\pm$ 4.2)	13.6 ( $\pm$ 7.6)	13.3 ( $\pm$ 5)

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453 **Caption figure 1**

454 **Figure 1.** Arterial oxygen saturation measured at baseline, 5-10 minutes after the race (post-  
455 test 1) and the day after the race (post-test 2). Results are given as mean with 95% confidence  
456 intervals (CI), \*= significant changes from baseline to post-test 1, #= significant changes from  
457 baseline to post-test 2 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ), (n=54).

