

1 **Caffeinated carbohydrate gel ingestion improves 2000 metre**  
2 **rowing performance**

3 Original Investigation

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19 Abstract: 271 words

20 Text: 3,469 words

21 Eight Figures

22

23 **Abstract**

24 **Purpose** The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of ingesting a caffeinated  
25 carbohydrate gel (CC) 10 minutes prior on 2000 m rowing performance compared with a  
26 carbohydrate-only placebo gel (CP). **Methods** A counterbalanced, single-blind, cross-over  
27 study was employed (n=13). All participants completed one familiarisation trial followed by  
28 two experimental time trials (TT). The experimental trials were performed 10 minutes after  
29 ingesting CP (21.6 g of carbohydrate, 0 mg caffeine) or CC (21.6 g carbohydrate, 100 mg  
30 caffeine), and heart rate (HR), oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ), carbon dioxide production  
31 ( $\dot{V}CO_2$ ), minute ventilation ( $\dot{V}_E$ ), respiratory exchange ratio (RER), rating of perceived  
32 exertion (RPE), gastrointestinal discomfort (GI) and thirst perception (Thirst) were recorded  
33 every 200 m. Blood lactate [ $La^-$ ] was recorded immediately before and after exercise. **Results**  
34 A paired samples t-test identified a significant improvement in 2000 m performance of  $5.2 \pm$   
35  $3.9$  s ( $1.1 \pm 1.7\%$ ;  $p=0.034$ ). Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed no significant  
36 treatment effect for HR ( $177 \pm 8$  b $\cdot$ min $^{-1}$  vs  $177 \pm 9$  b $\cdot$ min $^{-1}$ ;  $p=0.817$ ),  $\dot{V}O_2$  ( $46.1 \pm 6.5$   
37 ml $\cdot$ kg $\cdot$ min $^{-1}$  vs  $46.6 \pm 6.2$  ml $\cdot$ kg $\cdot$ min $^{-1}$ ;  $p=0.590$ ),  $\dot{V}_E$  ( $121.8 \pm 14.7$  L $\cdot$ min $^{-1}$  vs  $124.8 \pm 15.7$   
38 L $\cdot$ min $^{-1}$ ;  $p=0.490$ ), or for RPE, GI) or Thirst for CP and CC, respectively. Paired samples t-  
39 tests revealed no treatment effect for post-exercise [ $La^-$ ] between CP and CC ( $11.72 \pm 2.69$   
40 mmol $\cdot$ L $^{-1}$  vs  $12.26 \pm 3.13$  mmol $\cdot$ L $^{-1}$ ;  $p=0.534$ ). **Conclusion** A relatively low dose of caffeine  
41 ( $1.3 \pm 0.1$  mg $\cdot$ kg $^{-1}$ BM) in an isotonic CHO gel ingested only 10 minutes prior to  
42 performance, improved 2000 m rowing time by  $5.2 \pm 7.8$  s ( $1.1 \pm 1.7\%$ ).

43

44 **Keywords:** *Caffeine, Isotonic gel, High intensity, Time trial*

## 45 Introduction

46 Research has demonstrated that caffeine significantly improves performance during rowing,  
47 cycling, running, and weight-lifting, however some studies show no performance change<sup>1</sup>.  
48 Contrasting findings may be a result of the lack of testing protocol standardisation such as  
49 differing doses, timing of ingestion and exercise mode.

50  
51 Bruce et al.<sup>2</sup> and Anderson et al.<sup>3</sup> both demonstrated improved 2000 m following the  
52 ingestion of either 6 and 9 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>BM of caffeine 1 hour prior to rowing in competitive  
53 oarsmen and women, respectively. A more recent, but differently designed study, found that  
54 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>BM of caffeine significantly increased distance completed during 6 minutes of  
55 rowing by 1.0 ± 0.8% in light-weight rowers and by 0.3% ± 0.8% in open-weight rowers<sup>4</sup>.  
56 Skinner et al.'s study<sup>5</sup> demonstrated that there was no dose-response relationship between 2, 4  
57 or 6 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> BM of caffeine on 2000 m rowing performance and concluded that inter-  
58 individual characteristics affect the response to caffeine more than the dose itself, such as diet  
59 and nutritional status. The implication here was that the type of pre-exercise meal may impact  
60 upon caffeine absorption, therefore exercising following a fast may allow for expedited  
61 caffeine absorption. Recent research has provided further evidence that a linear dose-response  
62 relationship between caffeine and cycling time trial performance may not exist, where the  
63 provision of 6 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> BM 90 minutes prior to performing a set amount of work equivalent to  
64 75% of VO<sub>2peak</sub> for 60 minutes was not more effective than 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> BM<sup>6</sup>. Compared to the  
65 placebo trial the lower dose improved cycling performance by 164 s (4.2%) while the higher  
66 dose improved performance by only 2.9%. This research suggests that the presence of  
67 caffeine may be enough and that increasing the dose has no additional ergogenic value.

68  
69 During a 4 km cycling time trial the ingestion of 5 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> BM of caffeine by recreationally-  
70 trained male cyclists significantly improved their time to completion by 10 s (419 ± 13 s vs  
71 409 ± 12 s) compared to the placebo, which is of a similar time and energy requirement of the  
72 2000 m rowing time trial<sup>7</sup>. Interestingly, despite the significant improvement in performance  
73 only power output was significantly different between the trials with no differences observed  
74 in integrated electromyography, blood lactate concentration, heart rate, and ratings of  
75 perceived exertion between the conditions. Furthermore, the ingestion of 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> BM of  
76 caffeine in a commercial energy drink during a simulated female international rugby 7s  
77 tournament significantly increased power output during a 15 s maximal jump test compared  
78 to the caffeine-free placebo (23.5 ± 10.1 kW vs. 25.6 ± 11.8 kW) performed before the  
79 tournament<sup>8</sup>. Running pace during the games (87.5 ± 8.3 m·min<sup>-1</sup> vs. 95.4 ± 12.7 m·min<sup>-1</sup>)  
80 and pace at sprint velocity (4.6 ± 3.3 m·min<sup>-1</sup> vs 6.1 ± 3.4 m·min<sup>-1</sup>) were also significantly  
81 increased compared to the placebo drink demonstrating the potential for caffeine to improve  
82 high intensity sport performance. Research from the same group found that when elite female  
83 volleyball players ingested 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> BM of caffeine in a commercial energy drink 60  
84 minutes prior to a power-based skills test that ball velocity in the standing spike (19.7 ± 1.9  
85 vs 19.2 ± 2.1 m·s<sup>-1</sup>), jumping spike (18.8 ± 2.2 vs 17.9 ± 2.2 m·s<sup>-1</sup>), squat jump height (29.4 ±  
86 3.6 vs 28.1 ± 3.2 cm), countermovement jump height (33.1 ± 4.5 vs 32.0 ± 4.6 cm), spike  
87 jump height (44.4 ± 5.0 vs 43.3 ± 4.7 cm), block jump height (36.1 ± 5.1 vs 35.2 ± 5.1 cm)  
88 significantly increased and the time to complete the agility T-test (10.9 ± 0.3 s vs 11.1 ± 0.5)  
89 decreased significantly compared to placebo<sup>9</sup>.

90  
91 The ingestion of 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> BM of caffeine in a low glycogen state has been found to improve  
92 power output during intermittent high intensity cycling by 3.5% compared to only a 2.8%  
93 improvement in the 'normal' muscle glycogen state, suggesting that the effect of caffeine on  
94 performance may be augmented in the fasted state<sup>10</sup>. A meta-analysis of caffeine and

95 endurance performance studies concluded that the magnitude of the performance benefit of  
96 caffeine is lower when taken with CHO ( $6.9 \pm 9.2\%$ ) than when taken on its own ( $16.1 \pm$   
97  $12.5\%$ ), suggesting that the ergogenic effects of these well-known ergogenic aids are not  
98 completely additive. The authors suggested that caffeine is a more robust ergogenic aid than  
99 CHO and the favourable improvements found with the ingestion of caffeine are largely  
100 parallel to performance gains found through CHO ingestion<sup>11</sup>.

101

102 The caffeine dose administered in the various studies has varied, with caffeine provided in  
103 absolute doses, per unit of lean mass, repeated doses and more typically relative to body  
104 mass<sup>1</sup>. The ergogenic effect of caffeine has been evident with doses ranging from  $1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$   
105  $\text{BM}^{12}$  to  $13 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ BM}^{13}$ . Caffeine has also been shown to increase glucose absorption from  
106 the intestine and increasing plasma glucose levels, which is vital to improve high-intensity  
107 exercise performance<sup>14</sup>. Despite evidence supporting the metabolic effect of caffeine when  
108 co-ingested with carbohydrate, research is still limited on the effect of combining  
109 carbohydrate (CHO) and caffeine on exercise performance<sup>15</sup>. The timing of ingestion has also  
110 varied with the majority of investigators performing testing 1 h after ingestion<sup>1</sup>, however  
111 protocols with testing 6 h after ingestion have also been successful with non-habitual caffeine  
112 users<sup>16</sup>. However, in the sport situation it is not always possible to optimise the ingestion of  
113 nutritional products or to have custom-made products produced that are provided with ideal  
114 formulations especially relative to an athlete's body mass. Therefore, the aim of this study is  
115 to investigate the effect of ingesting a commercially-available carbohydrate gel containing  
116 only 100 mg of caffeine consumed only 10 minutes prior to performing a 2000 m rowing  
117 time trial compared to a carbohydrate gel. It was hypothesised that the caffeine CHO gel  
118 would improve 2000 m rowing performance compared to the CHO gel.

119

## 120 **Methods**

### 121 *Participant Characteristics*

122 Thirteen males (mean  $\pm$  SD, age  $21 \pm 2$  years, height  $1.78 \pm 0.04$  m, mass  $77.5 \pm 9.1$  kg, a  
123 mean caffeine intake  $82 \pm 59 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$ ) who competed in the British Universities and Colleges  
124 Sport competition in a variety of sports participated in the study, which was approved by the  
125 BioSciences Research Ethics Committee on behalf of the University of Portsmouth, in the  
126 spirit of the Helsinki Declaration. Participants provided written informed consent prior to  
127 participation.

128

### 129 *Study design*

130 The study employed a single-blind placebo-controlled, counterbalanced, repeated-measures  
131 design involving three 2000 m rowing time-trials (TT) on a rowing ergometer (Concept II,  
132 USA). The first trial was a familiarisation trial in order to reduce learning effects, while the  
133 second and third trials were performed after ingesting 60 mL of a CHO gel (CP) or a  
134 caffeinated CHO gel (CC). The CP contained 21.6 g of carbohydrate (Go Isotonic Energy  
135 Gel, Science in Sport, energy 367.2 kJ, carbohydrate 21.6 g). The CC contained 21.6 g of  
136 carbohydrate and 100 mg of caffeine (Smart 1 Energizer Gel, Science in Sport, energy 367.2  
137 kJ, carbohydrate 21.6 g, caffeine (100 mg), anthocyanins (12.6 mg) and bioflavonoids (1.8  
138 mg)). Both gels were isotonic ( $290 \text{ mOsmol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ).

139

### 140 *Pre-trial procedures*

141 All participants were instructed to abstain from all caffeine-containing foodstuffs, and alcohol  
142 and strenuous exercise for 24 hours prior to each trial, and to fast for 12 hours before each  
143 trial to ensure that intra-participant energy substrate stores were uniform before time trials.  
144 Participants were asked to keep a record of their food intake 24 hours prior to the first trial

145 and instructed to replicate the same diet 24 hours prior to the second and third trials. This was  
146 in order to reduce the possibility that prior exercise/diet could influence measures of substrate  
147 metabolism and exercise performance<sup>17</sup>. Participants were instructed to maintain their usual  
148 exercise patterns outside of these limitations. The participants completed a self-report  
149 questionnaire to determine their habitual caffeine intakes to aid in comparing the effects of  
150 caffeine on performance<sup>1</sup>.

151

### 152 *Familiarisation and experimental trials*

153 Participants arrived at the physiology laboratory in the morning after a 12 hour overnight fast  
154 and their height (Harpenden stadiometer, Holtain, UK) and body mass (770, Seca, Germany)  
155 were recorded. Before the second and third trials, each participant consumed either the CP or  
156 CC 10 minutes before each exercise trial. The rowing ergometer was adjusted to a  
157 comfortable position as specified by the participant and set to a maximum resistance of 10.

158

159 Once mounted, participants were requested to remain stationary for 2 minutes to enable  
160 resting data to be recorded. Each participant then performed a self-paced warm-up for 2  
161 minutes followed by 1 minute of rest before the trial began, as used previously<sup>3</sup>. Oxygen  
162 consumption ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ), carbon dioxide production ( $\dot{V}CO_2$ ), minute ventilation ( $\dot{V}_E$ ) and  
163 respiratory exchange ratio (RER) were recorded breath-by-breath using an online gas  
164 analyser (Oxcon Delta 4.5, Jaeger, Germany) via a face mask (7400 series, Hans Rudolph,  
165 USA). Heart rate (HR) (T31, Polar, UK), RPE using the Borg 6–20 Scale, gastrointestinal  
166 discomfort (GI) using a 1–10 visual analogue scale and thirst perception (Thirst) using a 1-9  
167 visual analogue scale were recorded at rest and after every 200 m. Time to complete each 200  
168 m was also recorded. A fingerprick capillary blood sample was taken to determine  $[La^-]$  at  
169 rest and 30 s post-exercise (EFK-diagnostics GmbH, Biosen C\_line sport, UK). Participants  
170 were instructed to complete the 2000 m at maximum effort, were only allowed to see distance  
171 left to complete and kcal expended, and blinded of the time taken to complete the 2000 m  
172 until all trials were completed. This ensured the participants did not have increased  
173 motivation to beat previous times<sup>3</sup>. Each test was conducted at the same time of day (9.00  
174 am) in order to reduce the effect of biological variation and circadian variance. Each trial was  
175 separated by a minimum of 3 days and a maximum of 14 days.

176

### 177 *Data analyses*

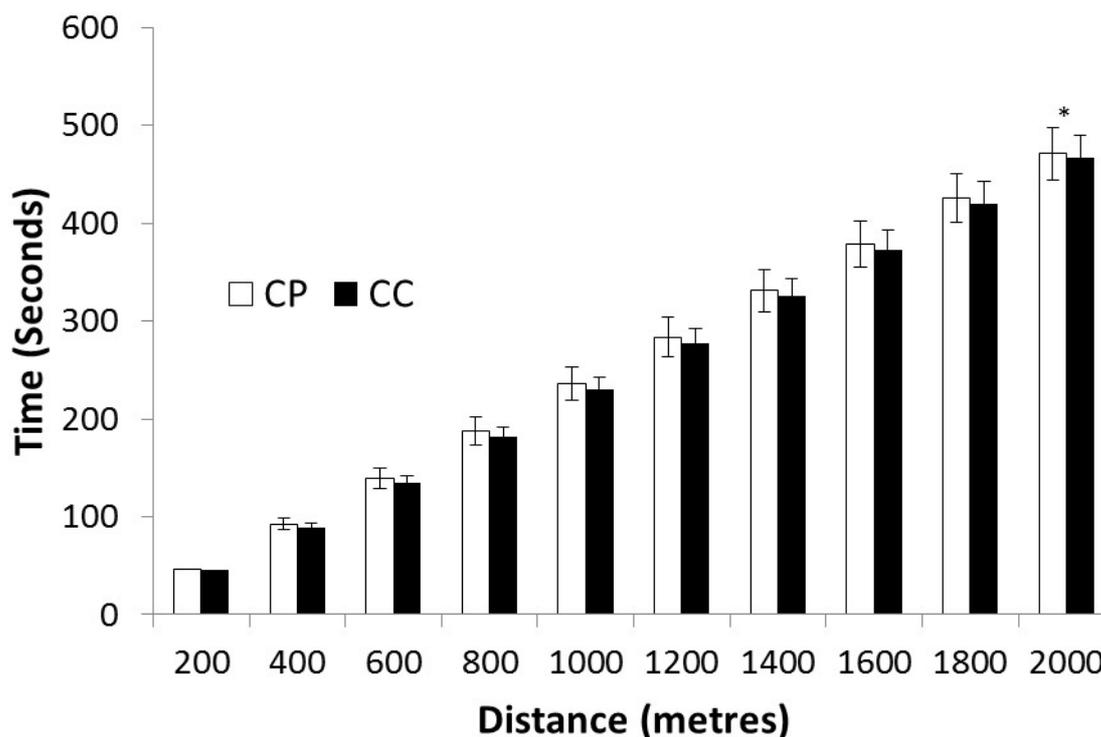
178 Data were explored for normality and then paired samples T-tests were applied to  
179 performance time and the pre- and post-exercise  $[La^-]$  deltas ( $\Delta[La^-]$ ) using PASW statistics  
180 v18 (SPSS, Chicago, USA). A Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to explore  
181 relationships between habitual caffeine intake and performance change. Repeated-measures  
182 two-way ANOVAs were applied to all remaining dependent variables. The alpha was  
183 accepted at  $p < .05$  and all data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD.

184

### 185 **Results**

186 The caffeine dose administered (100 mg) resulted in a mean relative dose of  $1.3 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$   
187  $^1\text{BM}$  (range 0.98-1.47  $\text{mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$ ). Mean performance time was  $471.4 \pm 28.5 \text{ s}$  and  $466.2 \pm$   
188  $26.6 \text{ s}$  for CP and CC, respectively, a mean improvement of  $5.2 \pm 7.8 \text{ s}$  ( $1.1 \pm 1.7\%$ ) (range -  
189  $28$  to  $2 \text{ s}$ ) ( $t_{12}=2.390$ ;  $p=0.034$ ). There was a non-significant trend for the time difference  
190 between conditions to reach  $6.3 \pm 11.9 \text{ s}$  by 1200 m. Of the 13 participants 10 were faster  
191 with the gel and one participant achieved the same time in both experimental trials. The  
192 improvement in performance time between conditions was not significant until the 2000 m  
193 was completed, highlighting the variety of pacing strategies between the participants (Figure  
194 1). The participants' mean habitual caffeine intake was  $507 \pm 418 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{wk}^{-1}$  (range: 0-1110

195  $\text{mg}\cdot\text{wk}^{-1}$ ) and there was a non-significant negative correlation between self-reported habitual  
 196 caffeine intake and time difference between trials ( $r=-0.510$ ;  $p=0.075$ ).



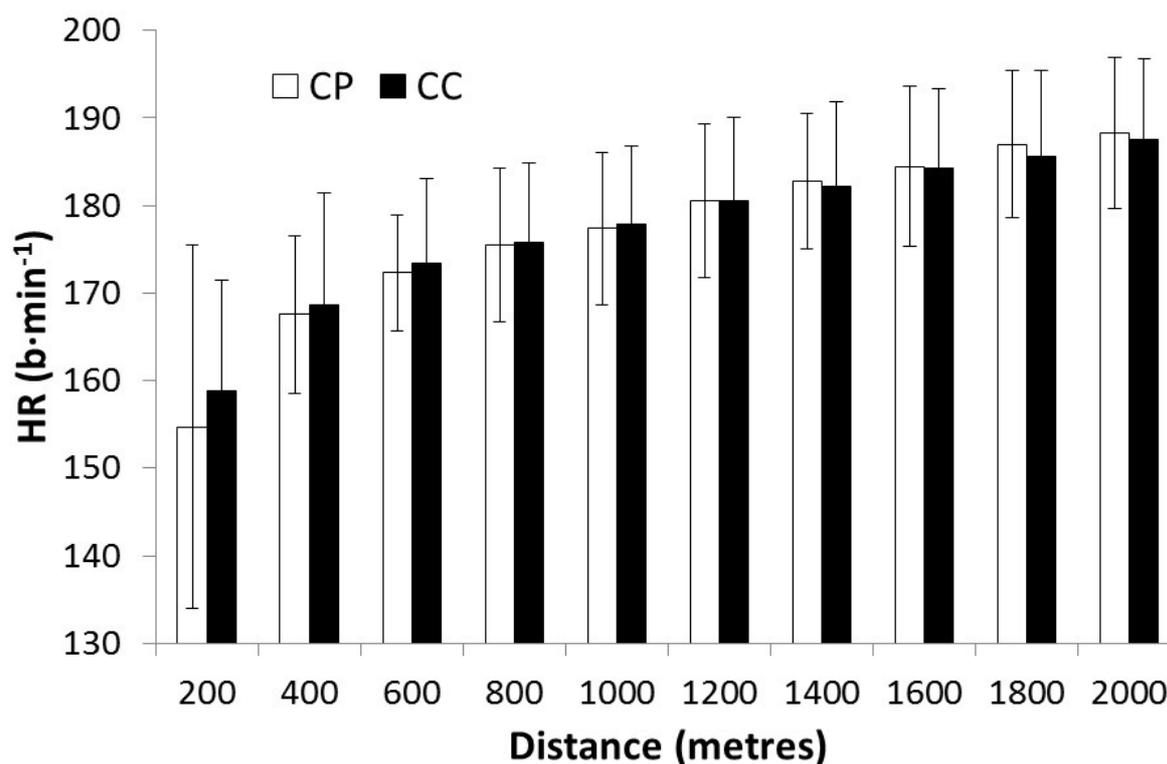
197  
 198 **Figure 1** Mean 2000 m performance times \* $p=0.034$   
 199

200 There was no significant treatment effect on HR ( $F=0.056_{12,1}$   $P=0.817$ ; Figure 2), where mean  
 201 pre-exercise HR was  $77 \pm 9 \text{ b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  in CP and  $77 \pm 14 \text{ b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  in CC and mean HR  
 202 throughout the 2000 m rowing TT was  $177 \pm 8 \text{ b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  and  $177 \pm 9 \text{ b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  for CP and CC,  
 203 respectively. There were no significant differences between treatments for  $\Delta[\text{La}^-]$  ( $9.99 \pm$   
 204  $2.67 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  for CP and  $10.89 \pm 3.26 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  for CC;  $p=0.275$ ) and similar mean post-  
 205 exercise  $[\text{La}^-]$  ( $11.72 \pm 2.69 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  for CP and  $12.26 \pm 3.13 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  for CC).

206  
 207 There was no significant difference between treatments for  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  ( $46.1 \pm 6.5 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  for  
 208 CP and  $46.6 \pm 6.2 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  for CC;  $F_{12,1}=0.308$ ,  $p=0.590$ ), where mean resting  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  was  
 209  $8.4 \pm 4.3 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  for CP and  $7.5 \pm 1.3 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  for CC. There was no significant  
 210 difference between treatments for mean  $\dot{V}\text{E}$  ( $121.8 \pm 14.7 \text{ L}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  for CP and  $124.8 \pm 15.7$   
 211  $\text{L}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  for CC;  $F_{12,1}=0.508$ ,  $p=0.490$ ). There was no significant difference between  
 212 treatments for mean RER ( $1.15 \pm 0.09$  for CP and  $1.16 \pm 0.09$  for CC;  $F_{12,1}=0.000$ ,  $p=0.984$ ).

213  
 214 There was no significant difference between treatments for mean RPE ( $13.0 \pm 2.2$  for CP and  
 215  $13.0 \pm 2.1$  for CC;  $F=0.23_{12,1}$ ,  $p=0.881$ ) with an end RPE of  $17.3 \pm 3.0$  and  $17.2 \pm 3.1$  for CP  
 216 and CC, respectively. There was no significant difference between treatments for mean GI  
 217 ( $1.3 \pm 0.4$  for CP and  $1.3 \pm 0.5$  for CC;  $F=0.316_{12,1}$ ,  $p=0.584$ ), where mean GI remained fairly  
 218 constant with an end GI of  $1.5 \pm 0.5$  for CP and  $1.5 \pm 0.7$  for CC. There was no significant  
 219 difference between treatments for mean Thirst ( $3.6 \pm 1.1$  for the CP and  $3.6 \pm 1.6$  for CC;  
 220  $F_{12,1}=0.001$ ;  $p=0.981$ ).

221  
 222



223 **Figure 2** Mean heart rate (HR) during the 2000 m rowing time trials

224  
225  
226 **Discussion**

227 The aim of the present study was to investigate the influence of a caffeinated isotonic CHO  
228 gel on 2000 m rowing performance. The primary finding was that CC improved performance  
229 by  $5.2 \pm 7.8$  s ( $1.1 \pm 1.7\%$ ) compared to CP, therefore our hypothesis can be accepted. This is  
230 nearly as large as the difference between first and third place (5.5 s) in the Men's Single  
231 Sculls at the London 2012 Olympics.

232  
233 Other studies have also reported improvements in short-term, high-intensity exercise  
234 performance following caffeine ingestion<sup>2,3</sup>. Bruce et al.<sup>2</sup> reported that ingestion of 6 or 9  
235 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>·BM<sup>-1</sup> caffeine 1 hour before exercise resulted in a 1.2% improvement in 2000 m  
236 rowing time, a similar finding to the present study but with significantly higher caffeine doses  
237 consumed a greater duration prior- to the time trials, and also reported no effect of caffeine  
238 on HR,  $\dot{V}O_2$ ,  $\dot{V}_E$ , RER and RPE. Anderson et al.<sup>3</sup> reported that the ingestion of 6 or 9 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>  
239 <sup>1</sup>·BM<sup>-1</sup> caffeine 1 hour before exercise resulted in a 0.7% and 1.3% improvement in 2000 m  
240 rowing time, respectively, a finding similar to the present study and also with significantly  
241 higher doses consumed a greater duration before the rowing time trials. The competitive  
242 oarswomen (n=8) completed the first 500-m ~3 s and ~1 s significantly faster for the 9 and 6  
243 mg·kg·BM<sup>-1</sup> doses, respectively. The present study found that the majority of the gains in  
244 performance were found by 1200 m, but the difference was not significant until 2000 m due  
245 to a variety of pacing strategies in the participants. Conversely, another study reported no  
246 effect of caffeine on short-term high-intensity exercise performance. Skinner et al.<sup>18</sup> reported  
247 that the ingestion of 2, 4 and 6 mg·kg·BM<sup>-1</sup> caffeine 1 hour before exercise had no effect on  
248 2000 m rowing time. Furthermore, Crowe et al.<sup>19</sup> reported that the ingestion of 6 mg·kg·BM<sup>-1</sup>  
249 caffeine 90 minutes before 2 x 60 s maximal cycling bouts increased time to obtain peak  
250 power, possibly explained by increased [La<sup>-</sup>] following caffeine ingestion.

252 There were no significant treatment effects on HR,  $[La^-]$ ,  $\dot{V}O_2$ ,  $\dot{V}_E$ , RER, RPE, GI and Thirst  
253 between the treatments, therefore failing to provide significant evidence of the underlying  
254 ergogenic mechanisms. In other studies caffeine ingestion has been shown to increase HR,  
255  $\dot{V}O_2$  and  $\dot{V}_E$ <sup>19</sup>, fat oxidation and spare muscle glycogen during moderate to high-intensity  
256 endurance exercise<sup>20</sup>. The “metabolic” theory had previously gained widespread acceptance  
257 as the mechanism by which caffeine improves endurance, however the view that caffeine  
258 enhances fat oxidation is equivocal and is an incomplete explanation of the ergogenic effect  
259 of caffeine on short-term exercise performance (<30 minutes)<sup>1</sup>. In the present study, RER and  
260  $[La^-]$  values were not significantly different between treatments, whereas caffeine has been  
261 shown to increase  $[La^-]$ <sup>21</sup>. The enhanced 2000 m rowing performance was therefore likely to  
262 be independent of any effect of caffeine on substrate metabolism. The mechanism responsible  
263 for performance enhancement was more likely through a direct effect on the central nervous  
264 system (CNS) or skeletal muscle<sup>22</sup>. It is well known that caffeine affects the CNS by eliciting  
265 greater motor unit recruitment causing alterations in neurotransmitter function and enhanced  
266 neuromuscular function increasing muscular force<sup>23</sup>. Caffeine could also affect the CNS to  
267 override fatigue signals, since performance significantly improved without increasing RPE,  
268 and there is support for decreases in RPE in other studies<sup>23</sup>. It has also been previously  
269 reported that there are no clear mechanisms for caffeine’s ergogenic effect to emerge despite  
270 significant rowing performance enhancements<sup>3</sup>.

271

272 To the authors’ knowledge this is the first study to demonstrate an ergogenic effect on rowing  
273 with such a low caffeine dose ( $\sim 1.3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$ ). Caffeine dose-response studies suggest the  
274 absence of a dose-response relationship, where caffeine has been shown to increase  
275 endurance similarly for all doses ( $58 \pm 11$  minutes,  $59 \pm 12$  minutes and  $58 \pm 12$  minutes for  
276 5, 9 and  $13 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$ , respectively) compared to placebo ( $47 \pm 13$  minutes)<sup>23</sup>. Smaller  
277 doses of 1, 2 and  $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{BM}^{-1}$  have been investigated and while no ergogenic effect was  
278 found with  $1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{BM}^{-1}$ , doses of 2 and  $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{BM}^{-1}$  increased performance by 4% and  
279 3%, respectively<sup>12</sup>.

280

281 The timing of caffeine ingestion was also substantially reduced in the present study at 10  
282 minutes prior to commencing exercise. Many studies utilise a 1 hour period between caffeine  
283 ingestion and commencing performance since this is when plasma caffeine levels were  
284 assumed to peak<sup>20</sup>. However, Skinner et al.<sup>24</sup> demonstrated that commencing a 40 km  
285 cycling time trial to coincide with peak serum caffeine concentrations, 120-150 minutes post-  
286 ingestion of  $6 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$  caffeine, did not significantly improve performance. However,  
287 consuming the same dose of caffeine 60 minutes prior to the onset of exercise was  
288 significantly effective. Therefore, it is plausible, as indicated by the findings of the present  
289 study, that it is not necessary to leave 60 minutes between the ingestion of caffeine and the  
290 onset of exercise. The same research team have also demonstrated that the ingestion of a  
291 standard high CHO meal ( $2 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$ ) 20 minutes prior to the ingestion of 6 or  $9 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$   
292 of caffeine increased the duration to achieve peak serum caffeine concentrations from 60  
293 minutes to 120 and 180 minutes, respectively. However, the co-ingestion of caffeine with an  
294 isotonic CHO source may enhance the intestinal absorption and physiological availability of  
295 both<sup>25</sup>. Caffeine ( $2.1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{BM}^{-1}$ ) co-ingested with a 7% CHO-electrolyte solution (CES)  
296 improved 1 h TT cycling compared to either caffeine or the CES alone<sup>19</sup>. Yeo et al.<sup>14</sup>  
297 investigated the effect of caffeine on exogenous carbohydrate oxidation in eight males  
298 cycling at 55% peak power output ( $\sim 64\% \dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ ) for 120 minutes. Participants ingested a  
299 5.8% glucose solution ( $0.8 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ), glucose/caffeine ( $5 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{BM}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) or water.  
300 Exogenous carbohydrate oxidation from 90-120 minutes was 26% higher with  
301 glucose/caffeine ( $0.72 \pm 0.04 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) compared with glucose ( $0.57 \pm 0.04 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ). Total

302 oxidation rates were highest with glucose/caffeine ( $2.47 \pm 0.23 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) compared with  
303 glucose ( $1.84 \pm 0.14 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) and water ( $1.21 \pm 0.37 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ). There was a trend towards  
304 increased endogenous carbohydrate oxidation with glucose/caffeine ( $1.81 \pm 0.22 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ )  
305 compared with glucose ( $1.27 \pm 0.13 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) and water ( $1.12 \pm 0.37 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ). However, such  
306 trends in elevated overall CHO oxidation with the addition of caffeine were not demonstrated  
307 by changes in RER in the present study.

308  
309 The administration of an absolute caffeine dose (100 mg) rather than relative to body mass  
310 may have contributed to the variability in responses<sup>20</sup>, however caffeine doses in foodstuffs  
311 and carbohydrate gels are not prescribed to performers according to body mass so this could  
312 be perceived as an ecological strength. The caffeinated gel also contained blackcurrant  
313 anthocyanins ( $0.16 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$ ) that were not included in the CHO only gel. Such a low dose  
314 may have been unlikely to have affected the outcomes of the study, however future studies  
315 may wish to investigate the effect of removing this component from the caffeine-anthocyanin  
316 CHO gel. This study also used males who participate in University sport rather than high  
317 level competition and may perform less reliably compared to their highly-trained  
318 counterparts<sup>26</sup>. Future research should repeat the study with highly-trained rowers to limit  
319 inter-individual fitness/ability levels and to be more ecologically valid for elite sport  
320 performance. Research should also determine whether the significant effect remains if a  
321 standard pre-competition meal was provided 3 h before CHO gel ingestion.

322  
323 In conclusion, a relatively low dose of caffeine ( $1.3 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{BM}$ ) in an isotonic CHO  
324 gel ingested only 10 minutes prior to performance, improved 2000 m rowing performance by  
325  $5.2 \pm 3.9 \text{ s}$  ( $1.1 \pm 1.7\%$ ) in University sports performers.

326  
327 **Acknowledgments, authorships, declarations of funding sources and conflicts of interest**

328 The study was designed by TO, SW, RO and AS; data were collected and analyzed by TO,  
329 SW and RO; data interpretation and manuscript preparation were undertaken by AS and TO.  
330 All authors approved the final version of the paper. The authors would like to thank all the  
331 participants that took part in the study, technical support received and the gels were provided  
332 by Science in Sport, Blackburn, UK. The results of the current study do not constitute  
333 endorsement of the product by the authors or the journal.

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