

The Effects of Low and Moderate Dose Caffeine Supplementation on Upper and Lower Body Maximal Voluntary Concentric and Eccentric Muscle Force

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# 1THE EFFECTS OF LOW AND MODERATE DOSE CAFFEINE2SUPPLEMENTATION ON UPPER AND LOWER BODY MAXIMAL VOLUNTARY3CONCENTRIC AND ECCENTRIC MUSCLE FORCE

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#### 20 ABSTRACT

Despite the growing quantity of literature exploring the effect of caffeine on muscular 21 strength, there is a dearth of data that directly explores differences in erogenicity 22 between upper and lower body musculature and the dose response effect. The 23 present study sought to investigate the effects of low and moderate dose caffeine on 24 the maximal voluntary strength of the elbow flexors and knee extensors. Ten non-25 specifically strength trained, recreationally active participants ( $21 \pm 0.3$  yrs) completed 26 the study. Using a randomised, counterbalanced and double blind approach, isokinetic 27 concentric and eccentric strength was measured at 60 and 180 deg/s following 28 administration of a placebo,  $3 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg-1}$  body mass caffeine and  $6 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg-1}$  body 29 mass caffeine. There was no effect of caffeine on the maximal voluntary concentric 30 and eccentric strength of the elbow flexors, or the eccentric strength of the knee 31 extensors. Both 3 and 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caffeine caused a significant increase 32 in peak concentric force of the knee extensors at 180 deg/s. No difference was 33 34 apparent between the two concentrations. Only 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caused an 35 increase in peak concentric force during repeated contractions. The results infer that the effective caffeine concentration to evoke improved muscle performance may be 36 related to muscle mass and contraction type. The present work indicates that relatively 37 low dose caffeine treatment may be effective for improving lower body muscular 38 strength, but may have little benefit for the strength of major muscular groups of the 39 upper body. 40

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42 Key Words: Ergogenic Aids, Isokinetic Dynamometry, Skeletal Muscle, Strength,
43 Maximal Voluntary Contraction, Repeated Contractions

#### 44 **INTRODUCTION**

Caffeine (common name for 1,3,7-trimethlyxanthine) is one of the most commonly 45 consumed drugs in the world (Nawrot et al. 2003), and the vast quantity of scientific 46 literature documenting its ability to elicit improvements in both cognition (Nehlig 2010) 47 and exercise performance (Graham 2001: Davis et al. 2009) have made it a popular 48 nutritional supplement consumed by recreational and elite athletes as a method to 49 evoke a legal, and sometimes substantial, improvement in performance. Generally, it 50 is considered that caffeine has the potential to improve performance in endurance, 51 power and strength based activities (Graham 2001), and there are a number of 52 53 published literature reviews and meta-analyses (Graham 2001; Magkos et al. 2005; Burke 2008; Davis and Green 2009; Astorino et al. 2010a; Warren et al. 2010) that 54 substantiate this. 55

Although generally there seems to be support for a caffeine induced improvement in 56 strength performance (Astorino and Roberson 2010a; Warren, Park et al. 2010), 57 findings from research exploring the caffeine effect using such exercise modalities 58 appear to be more equivocal than studies examining the ergogenic properties of 59 caffeine using endurance based exercise protocols. Despite the likely publication bias 60 that exist within this field, where research studies showing effects are favoured, there 61 are still many studies that fail to demonstrate an effect of caffeine on muscular strength 62 (Bond et al. 1986; Jacobson et al. 1991; Jacobs et al. 2003; Astorino et al. 2008; 63 Williams et al. 2008; Tallis et al. 2013). The degree of ambiguity can largely be 64 attributed to differences in the caffeine dose and method of administration, the 65 exercise protocol (i.e. 1 repetition maximum, repetitions until failure, maximal voluntary 66 contractions), the muscle group tested, the possibility of habituation in high caffeine 67 users, and differences that may be apparent between specifically trained and novice 68

participants. Despite this, caffeine use amongst strength and power athletes is rife
(Van Thuyne et al. 2005; Del Coso et al. 2011), and as such, further research is
needed to more accurately quantify the caffeine effect.

72 A meta-analysis by Warren, Park et al. (2010), demonstrated that caffeine elicited a small ergogenic effect on measures of maximal voluntary force, with lower body or 73 larger muscle groups demonstrating a greater benefit compared to upper body or small 74 muscle groups. This phenomenon was attributed to a lower neural activation of larger 75 muscle groups and the mechanistic action of caffeine to act via the central nervous 76 system (CNS) to promote greater muscular recruitment. As such, these findings further 77 78 rationalise the equivocal results demonstrated in studies evaluating the effect of caffeine on muscular strength. Interestingly, conclusions by Warren, Park et al. (2010) 79 are based largely on indirect comparisons of studies that have assessed the effect of 80 81 caffeine on one of either upper body or lower body strength. Black et al. (2015) demonstrated that a 5 mg · kg-1 caffeine treatment resulted in an increased maximal 82 voluntary isometric force and motor unit activation of the knee extensors. However, 83 this dose failed to elicit any effect on the muscular strength of the elbow flexors in the 84 same set of participants. Beyond this work there is a distinct lack of research data that 85 examines the effect of caffeine on maximal voluntary force using different muscle 86 groups in the same participant. The present study builds on work by Black, Waddell et 87 al. (2015) by examining the effect of caffeine dose on upper body and lower body 88 maximal voluntary force during concentric and eccentric muscle activity. 89

Typically, researchers' examining the ergogenic effect of caffeine on exercise
performance have done so using moderate doses (5-6 mg · kg-1 body mass) that are
dissolved in fluid and consumed orally (Plaskett et al. 2001; Green et al. 2007; Astorino

et al. 2010b; Timmins et al. 2014; Tallis et al. 2016). Doses between 2.5 to 7 mg · 93 kg-1 body mass has been reported to improve high intensity exercise performance 94 (Astorino and Roberson 2010a), however it is widely accepted that within and above 95 this concentration range, caffeine fails to elicit a dose dependent effect irrespective of 96 exercise modality. It is surprising however that based on an evaluation of the available 97 literature, this conclusion has been derived from a relatively small number of studies, 98 with a fewer number directly assessing dose response effects in measurements of 99 100 muscular strength (Jacobson and Edwards 1991; Astorino, Terzi et al. 2010b; Del Coso et al. 2012). Of these studies, Jacobson and Edwards (1991) failed to 101 demonstrate any performance enhancing benefit irrespective of treatment dose, while 102 Del Coso, Salinero et al. (2012) demonstrated that  $3 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg-1}$  body mass elicited an 103 improvement in half-squat and bench-press performance that was not seen using a 1 104 mg · kg-1 body mass treatment. Similarly, Astorino, Terzi et al. (2010b) demonstrated 105 a positive effect of 5 mg · kg-1 body mass caffeine on peak knee flexion torque, knee 106 extension/flexion total work, and knee extension/flexion power, but no effect on the 107 same measures when using a 2 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass concentration. 108

Given the ambiguity in research examining the effect of caffeine on muscle strength 109 and the distinct lack of studies examining the dose response relationship, further 110 111 research is warranted to evaluate the dose dependant effects of caffeine on maximal voluntary muscle force in both the upper and lower body using concentrations between 112 2.5 and 7 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass, which has previously been outlined as the dose 113 needed to elicit a positive response (Astorino and Roberson 2010a). In addition, there 114 needs to be further focus of the dose response effect of caffeine treatment on eccentric 115 measures of muscle contractility, given the importance of this type of muscle activity 116

for sports performance (i.e. change of direction, declaration, movement control). Considering this, the present study aimed to assess the effects of low and moderate dose caffeine supplementation on the maximal voluntary concentric and eccentric force of the elbow flexors and knee extensors in the same participant. As such, the study provides important insight as to whether caffeine elicits a dose response effect on both concentric and eccentric measurements of muscle strength, and further considers whether caffeine supplementation has a greater performance enhancing benefit in upper or lower body regions. It is hypothesised that only the moderate 5 mg · kg-1 body mass caffeine treatment will elicit improved muscular strength of the elbow flexors. However, the low 3 mg · kg-1 body mass dose will induce improved performance of the knee extensor musculature, with a trend for a greater ergogenic benefit with the moderate dose. 

#### 138 MATERIALS & METHOD

Following ethical approval from the host institute and completion of informed consent, ten apparently healthy, recreationally active (participating in physical activity 2-3 times per week for longer than 6 months), but non-specifically strength trained males (Mean  $\pm$  SE: Age: 21  $\pm$  0.3 yrs; height: 176  $\pm$  2.1; body mass: 73.9  $\pm$  3.4) agreed to participate in the study. Participants were low habitual caffeine users (Mean  $\pm$  SE; 122  $\pm$  40.9 mg/day) as identified by the completion of a caffeine consumption questionnaire (Maughan 1999).

Participants were asked to attend the human performance laboratory at Coventry University on four occasions. As per the procedures of previous research investigating the performance enhancing effect of caffeine, participants were asked to abstain from caffeine consumption and physical activity 48 hours prior to each session (Astorino, Rohmann et al. 2008; Tallis, Muhammad et al. 2016). Each visit to the laboratory was separated by at least 48 hours, and participants were asked to attend at the same time of day to avoid circadian variation.

## 153 Familiarisation

The intention of the first visit was to familiarise participants to the experimental procedures to be used in the study. Initially, shoes and heavy clothing were removed and measures of height (cm) and body mass (kg) were taken using a stadiometer (SECA Instruments Ltd., Germany) and electronic weighing scales (SECA Instruments Ltd., Germany). Participants then completed a standardised upper body warm-up consisting of 5 minutes of arm crank ergometry (Monark 857E Ergomedic, Monark, Varberg, Sweden) using an unloaded cradle and a fixed cadence of 70rpm,

immediately followed by 5 minutes of static and dynamic stretches, focusing on theelbow flexors (biceps brachii and brachialis).

Average and maximal voluntary isokinetic force (N) of the elbow flexors for the 163 dominant side was then measured using an isokinetic dynamometer (Kin-Com 125 164 AP, Chattanooga Tennessee USA), which was set up in accordance with the 165 manufacturer's instructions. Each participant was strapped to the dynamometer chair 166 in a seated position with the ipsilateral leg anchored behind the shin attachment. The 167 rotational axis of the dynamometer head was aligned with the lateral epicondyle of the 168 humorous on the dominant side, with an elbow rest positioned relative to this. A hand 169 170 grip bar at the opposing end of the leaver arm was adjusted relative to the length of the hand and forearm to allow the participant a comfortable grip. During concentric 171 measures, participants were instructed to pull upwards on the bar as hard a possible 172 through a fixed range of 80° - 120° (relative to anatomical zero for the elbow). During 173 eccentric measures, participants were asked to resist the movement of the leaver arm 174 moving from 120° - 80°. Measures of average and maximal concentric and eccentric 175 force were measured at fixed speeds of 60 deg/s and 180 deg/s. Participants used the 176 inbuilt warm-up feature of the dynamometer to become familiarised with the 177 movements and test speeds. During the assessment of maximal voluntary force, 178 participants performed a series of tests at each speed until maximal force was 179 determined (usually within 3 attempts). Attempts were separated by a 60 second rest 180 period. On completion, participants performed 30 consecutive repetitions at 180 deg/s, 181 and maximal concentric and eccentric force was recorded for each repetition. All force 182 values collected were corrected for gravity effects by estimation of limb weight (elbow 183 fixed at 90°) prior to the assessment of maximal voluntary force. 184

Participants then completed a standardised warm up of the lower body, consisting of 5 minutes of cycling (Monark 824E Ergomedic, Monark, Varberg, Sweden) using an unloaded cradle and a fixed cadence of 70rpm, immediately followed by 5 minutes of static and dynamic stretches, focusing on the knee extensors (vastus intermedius, vastus medialis, vastus lateralis and rectus remoris).

The isokinetic dynamometer was then set up for the assessment of the average and 190 maximal voluntary isokinetic force (N) of knee extensors in accordance with published 191 protocols (Tallis, Duncan et al. 2013; Tallis, Muhammad et al. 2016). Each participant 192 was strapped to the dynamometer chair in a seated position, and the leaver arm axis 193 194 of rotation was aligned with the lateral femoral epicondyle of the dominant limb. The distal end of the leaver arm was fitted with a shin pad which was aligned with the lateral 195 malleolus. A strap was placed across the midpoint of the upper limb of the test leg. 196 Throughout the duration of the test participants were instructed to keep their arms 197 fixed across the chest. The range of motion was fixed 10°-80° (relative to anatomical 198 zero for the knee). The testing protocol was then carried out in the way as that 199 described for the assessment of maximal voluntary force of the elbow flexors. All force 200 values collected were corrected for gravity effects by estimation of limb weight carried 201 202 out according to the manufacturer's instructions (knee fixed at anatomical zero). This was measured prior to the assessment of maximal voluntary force. 203

The dynamometer positions for upper and lower body assessments were stored and recalled during subsequent visits.

206 Experimental Procedures

207 Participants were asked to consume a similar diet for the 24h prior to each 208 experimental trial. Compliance was verbally acknowledged on arrival to the laboratory

at each visit. Upon arrival to the laboratory, participants were fitted with telemetric HR monitor (Polar FS1, Kempele, Finland), and then began 5 minutes of seated rest. Upon completion HR was measured. Participants then consumed one of the three experimental solutions; placebo, 3 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caffeine, 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caffeine.

Experimental solutions were administered in a double-blinded, counterbalanced and 214 215 randomised fashion. Caffeine drinks contained either 3 or 6 mg · kg-1 body mass of caffeine (Myprotein, UK) diluted in 4 ml · kg-1 body mass water and 1 ml · kg-1 body 216 mass double concentrate sugar free orange cordial (Sainsbury's, UK), and were 217 artificially sweetened with 3 mg · kg-1 body mass sucralose (Myprotein, UK). Placebo 218 solutions were prepared in the same way with the absence of caffeine.  $3 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg-1}$ 219 body mass caffeine has commonly been cited as the lowest concentration needed to 220 elicit a performance enhancing effect (Graham 2001; Astorino and Roberson 2010a), 221 whilst 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass is used regularly to represent a moderate caffeine dose 222 (Plaskett and Cafarelli 2001; Green, Wickwire et al. 2007; Astorino, Terzi et al. 2010b; 223 Timmins and Saunders 2014; Tallis, Muhammad et al. 2016). Each solution was 224 served in an identical opaque sports bottle and on no occasion did participants 225 disclose to the research team they knew the content of the solution. Participants were 226 asked to fully consume the contents within 5 minutes and then rested for 45 minutes, 227 which was immediately followed by a measure of resting HR. Participants then 228 completed the warm up procedure as previously described. The strength assessments 229 began 60 minutes post-ingestion in line with previous evidence that demonstrates 230 maximal blood plasma concentration of caffeine occurs one hour post-consumption 231 (Graham 2001). The strength assessments were carried out using the isokinetic 232

dynamometer in the same manner as previously described. Prior to and immediately
following the 30 repeated contractions, HR and Perception of pain using Cook's Pain
scale (Cook et al. 1998) were measured.

#### 236 Statistical Method

Normality and homogeneity of variance were tested using Shapiro–Wilk and Mauchly 237 tests respectively. Where data was non-normally distributed, log10 transformation was 238 performed and normality re-assessed. Eight 3 (treatment) x 2 (speed) factor repeated 239 measures ANOVA's were performed on both biceps and guadriceps maximal and 240 average eccentric and concentric force data. This was repeated in order to assess a 241 242 potential order effect of treatment administration. In order to determine the effect of caffeine treatment on muscle performance during the repeated contractions protocol, 243 four 3 (treatment) x 30 (rep) factor repeated measures ANOVA's were performed for 244 both the biceps and quadriceps concentric and eccentric data. Violations of sphericity 245 were corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser where applicable. 246

HR was analysed using a 3 (treatment) x 6 (time) repeated measures ANOVA.
Similarly, perception of pain was analysed using a 3 (treatment) x 2 (time) repeated
measure ANOVA, using non-normally distributed data in order to avoid type one error
when performing multiple non-parametric tests.

Where appropriate, pairwise comparisons with LSD corrections were performed to identify differences between each treatment. Partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) was used as a measure of effect size and was reported for significant ANOVA main effects. Partial  $\eta^2$ is commonly used in analysis of variance and provides a measure of the variance in the dependent variable attributable to the factor in guestion (Tabachnick et al. 2006).

256	In other instances, effect size (d) was calculated using the differences in means
257	divided by the pooled SD of the compared trials (Nakagawa et al. 2007)
258	Data are presented as mean ± SE. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS
259	22.0 (Chicago, IL, USA). Statistical significance was set at a level of <i>P</i> <0.05.
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#### 275 **RESULTS**

The statistical results indicate that there was no order effect of treatment administration ( $F_{(2, 18)}$ <2.79; P>0.07). This therefore dictates that any treatment effect on the measured variables herein were due to an effect of caffeine.

279 Upper Body

Maximal concentric and eccentric force of the elbow flexors was not significantly 280 affected by treatment (Fig 1A & B. F<sub>(2, 18)</sub>=<0.53; P>0.72). The maximal concentric 281 force of the elbow flexors was significantly reduced at 180 deg/s compared to 60 deg/s 282 (Fig 1A.  $F_{(1, 9)}$ =9.63; P=0.013; P $\eta^2$ =0.52), however the maximal eccentric force was 283 unaffected by speed (Fig 1B  $F_{(1, 9)}=0.14$ ; P=0.72). There was no significant 284 treatment\*speed interaction in each case (Fig 1A & B. F<sub>(2, 18)</sub>=0.759 & F<sub>(1, 11)</sub>=0.607 285 286 receptively; P>0.48). Similarly, the average concentric and eccentric work of the elbow flexors was unaffected by treatment (Fig 1C & D. F<sub>(2, 18)</sub><0.25; P>0.77). The average 287 concentric and eccentric force of the elbow flexors was significantly lower at the 288 greater angular velocity (Fig 1C & D.  $F_{(1, 9)}$ >6.39; P<0.04; Pn<sup>2</sup>>0.41). There was no 289 significant treatment\*speed interaction in each case (Fig 1C & D. F<sub>(2, 18)</sub>< 1.9; P>0.17). 290

291 Lower Body

Two factor repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant treatment\*speed interaction for maximal concentric force of the knee extensors ( $F_{(2, 18)}=4.64$ ; P=0.024), and subsequently the effect of treatment was analysed independently at each speed using single factor ANOVA. There was no effect of caffeine treatment on maximal concentric force tested at 60 deg/s (Fig 2A.  $F_{(2, 18)}=0.334$ ; P=0.721). The main effect for treatment was significant for tests at 180 deg/s (Fig 2A.  $F_{(2, 18)}=4.16$ ; P=0.033;

P $\eta^2$ =0.316). LSD Pairwise comparisons demonstrated that force was significantly greater following consumption of the moderate dose caffeine (P=0.033; *d*=0.68) and had a statistical tendency to be greater following consumption of the low dose of caffeine (P=0.083; *d*=0.83), when compared to the placebo control. There was however no difference in response between the low and moderate caffeine dose (P=0.643).

Average concentric and maximal and average eccentric force of the knee extensors was not affected by treatment (Fig 2B, C & D.  $F_{(2, 18)}<2.60$ ; P>0.104). Average concentric and eccentric force was significantly lower at the higher test speeds (Fig 2C & D.  $F_{(1, 9)}>26.04$ ; P<0.001; P $\eta^2>0.74$ ), but maximal eccentric force was unaffected by speed (Fig 2B.  $F_{(1, 9)}=0.595$ ; P=0.460). No significant treatment\*speed interactions were found for these variables ( $F_{(2, 18)}<2.31$ ; P>0.128 in each case).

#### 310 Maximal Repeated Contractions

The main effect for treatment was approaching significance for the maximal concentric force of the knee extensors during the repeated contractions protocol (Fig 3C. F  $F_{(2, 18)}$ =3.04; P=0.073; P $\eta^2$ =0.253), with pairwise comparisons demonstrating that this difference was apparent in the moderate caffeine dose (P=0.059; *d*=0.47), but not the low caffeine dose (P=0.241) when compared to the placebo trial.

The repeated maximal performance of the knee extensors activated eccentrically and the elbow flexors activated both concentrically and eccentrically were not significantly different between the treatments (Fig 3A, B & D.  $F_{(2, 18)}<2.46$ ; P>0.123). For all four of the dependant variables, force over the time course of the test was significantly affected by time (Fig 3.  $F_{(29, 261)}>1.9$ ; P<0.005; P $\eta^2>0.17$ ), and there was no significant treatment\*rep interaction (Fig 3. $F_{(58, 522)}<1.296$ ; P>0.081).

# 322 HR & Perception of Pain

323	Perception of pain for the arms and the legs was not significantly affected by treatment
324	(Fig 4A. $F_{(2, 18)}$ <1.00 P>0.386), although in both cases the perception of pain was
325	significantly higher immediately following completion of the respective repeated
326	contractions protocol (Fig 4A. $F_{(1, 9)}$ >11.00; P<0.01 P $\eta^2$ >0.54). There was no significant
327	treatment*time interaction (Fig 4A. $F_{(2, 18)}$ <0.195; P>0.825).
328	HR was not significantly affected by treatment (Fig 4B. ANOVA $F_{(2, 18)}$ =0.39; P=0.704),
329	but was significantly affected by time (Fig 4B. $F_{(3, 22)}$ =82.70; P<0.001; P $\eta^2$ =902). There
330	was no significant treatment*time interaction (Fig 4B. F(12, 108)=0.97; P=0.480).
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#### 342 **DISCUSSION**

343 Results from the present study indicate that caffeine may be an effective nutritional supplement to induce some improvements in the maximal voluntary strength of non-344 specifically trained individuals. It appears however that these benefits may be limited 345 to the concentric activity of lower limb muscle working at a higher contraction velocity, 346 as there were no measured effects of caffeine (irrespective of concentration) on the 347 contractile measures of the elbow flexors or eccentric measures of the knee extensors. 348 Although some aspects of contractility appeared to be improved using the low 3 mg · 349 kg-1 body mass caffeine dose, the 6 mg · kg-1 body mass caffeine treatment 350 appeared to be more effective in eliciting a performance enhancing response. Despite 351 this, the results fail to demonstrate a clear dose response relationship, rather the 352 effective caffeine concentration to evoke improved muscle performance may be 353 354 related to muscle mass and contraction type.

The demonstrated increase in peak concentric strength of the knee extensors and 355 performance during the repeated repetitions protocol, adds further weight to the 356 growing body of evidence that demonstrates that caffeine may be effective in 357 improving strength performance (Jacobson et al. 1992; Hoffman et al. 2008; Woolf et 358 al. 2008; Astorino, Terzi et al. 2010b; Del Coso, Salinero et al. 2012; Tallis, 359 Muhammad et al. 2016). The lack of response in all other measures however help to 360 further rationalise the equivalent evidence in this area of research (Bond, Gresham et 361 al. 1986; Jacobson and Edwards 1991; Jacobs, Pasternak et al. 2003; Astorino, 362 Rohmann et al. 2008; Williams, Cribb et al. 2008; Tallis, Duncan et al. 2013). The 363 present findings infer that the caffeine response may be effected by treatment 364 concentration, muscle group tested, and elicit diverse effects during different 365

366 contractile activity within the same individual. As such these findings demonstrate a
 367 further complexity with respect to identifying the optimum conditions for a caffeine
 368 induced increase in muscle strength.

369 Upper Body vs. Lower Body

This data fills a gap in the literature whereby there is a distinct lack of studies that 370 directly examine the effect of caffeine on upper body and lower body maximal 371 voluntary force. Timmins and Saunders (2014) demonstrated that a 6 mg · kg-1 body 372 mass was effective at increasing the peak concentric torque of the knee, elbow and 373 wrist flexors, and the ankle plantar flexors in resistance trained participants. However, 374 the performance enhancing benefit was greatest in the knee extensors, and was 375 reduced in the smaller elbow and wrist flexor muscle groups. The lack of response 376 seen in the elbow flexors of the present study is in agreement with work conducted by 377 Black, Waddell et al. (2015) and would appear to contradict this previous work. This 378 may therefore indicate that the performance enhancing benefit of caffeine is not 379 concurrent across all muscles. This discrepancy is likely to relate to differences 380 between the trained and the untrained participants used in the present study compared 381 to previous work. It is considered that the ergogenic benefit is greater in specifically 382 trained participants, rationalised by a greater motivation to repeatedly produce 383 maximal efforts (Astorino and Roberson 2010a). This could further relate to the ability 384 of caffeine to act directly at the muscle (Tallis et al. 2015) via increased Ca<sup>2+</sup> release 385 from the sarcoplasmic reticulum, the efficiency of which is likely to be improved in 386 387 trained individuals (Munkvik et al. 2010).

In general, the current findings further support the conclusion of Warren, Park et al. (2010), who demonstrated using indirect comparisons, that caffeine would elicit a

390 greater improvement in muscular strength of lower body or larger muscle groups 391 compared to upper body or small muscle groups. The present findings also further 392 previous work examining the effect of caffeine on upper and lower body maximal 393 voluntary force (Timmins and Saunders 2014), by uniquely demonstrating that the 394 discrepancies between the improvement in maximal force of lower body musculature 395 and the lack of response seen in upper body musculature is concurrent across acute, 396 one-off maximal contractile function and a protocol of sustained contractions.

### 397 Dose Response Effect

Given the ambiguity and the distinct lack of evidence, the present study sought to 398 further examine the dose response effect of caffeine on muscular strength. The data 399 indicates that where caffeine acted to elicit a performance enhancing response, there 400 was no clear dose response effect. The lower dose of caffeine (3 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body 401 mass) elected an increase in the peak concentric force of the knee extensors at 180 402 deg/s that was approaching significance and equal in magnitude to the increase seen 403 using the moderate caffeine dose (6 mg · kg-1 body mass), which did reach statistical 404 significance when compared to the placebo condition. Given that there was no 405 significant difference in the response between the low and moderate caffeine doses, 406 these results indicate that lower doses of caffeine, which are closer in concentration 407 to that of commercially available products, may be effective in increasing some 408 aspects of muscular strength in an equal proportion to that achieved using a much 409 higher concentration. The present results infer that greater doses fail to elicit a superior 410 response, rather there is a threshold concentration whereby caffeine either elicits a 411 positive outcome, or fails to have an effect. A similar conclusion has been 412 demonstrated in a study examining the dose response effect of physiological 413

414 concentrations of caffeine on mammalian isolated skeletal muscle contractility (Tallis415 et al. 2012).

Astorino, Terzi et al. (2010b) demonstrated a positive effect of 5 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass 416 caffeine on peak knee flexion torque, knee extension/flexion total work, and knee 417 extension/flexion power, but no effect of the same measures when using a 2 mg · 418 kg-1 body mass concentration. Our results in part support these findings 419 demonstrating that the higher 6 mg · kg-1 body mass dose was effective in inducing 420 421 improvements in peak concentric force of the knee extensors at 180 deg/s and sustained performance during repeated contractions. However, unlike the 2 mg · kg-1 422 423 body mass concentration used by Astorino, Terzi et al. (2010b), 3 mg · kg-1 body mass caffeine treatment in the present study was effective at eliciting an improvement 424 in peak muscular strength. This difference may be apparent as lower dose of caffeine 425 used in the current study falls within the 2.5 - 7 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass that has been 426 shown to be the effective range for inducing improved muscular strength (Astorino and 427 428 Roberson 2010a).

Interestingly, the present work is the first to show variation in contractile response 429 430 between different concentrations of caffeine. Whilst both the low and moderate caffeine dose appeared to be effective in increasing peak concentric force of the knee 431 extensors at 180 deg/s, only the moderate dose induced an improvement in the 432 sustained contractile performance at this angular velocity. These results indicate that 433 the effectiveness of different caffeine doses may further depend on the measured 434 contractile parameter, where some contractility types favour lower caffeine 435 436 concentrations.

The present work is the first to examine the dose response effect of caffeine on 437 maximal voluntary force of upper body musculature. The lack of any demonstrated 438 effect contradicts work conducted by Del Coso, Salinero et al. (2012) who 439 demonstrated that 3 mg · kg-1 body mass caffeine increased maximal power output 440 in the bench press, although no effect was demonstrated using a 1 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body 441 mass treatment. As such, it is recommended that more work is conducted to evaluate 442 the dose response effects of caffeine on fixed load strength measures, as these may 443 offer different results to measures of maximal voluntary force. 444

445 Effect of Caffeine on Pain Perception

446 The present findings demonstrate that during the protocol of repeated contractions for both the elbow flexors and the knee extensors, there was no effect of either caffeine 447 dose on pain perception. There is evidence to suggest that mechanistically caffeine 448 can induce performance enhancing benefits by manipulating pain perception (Doherty 449 et al. 2005). As there was no change in performance during the repeated contraction 450 protocol of the elbow flexors, it was unsurprising that perception of pain was not 451 affected by the caffeine treatment. The improved performance of the knee extensors 452 during repeated contractions, coincides with the growing body of evidence that 453 demonstrates a caffeine induced increase in performance without notable modulation 454 of pain perception (Tallis, Duncan et al. 2013; Duncan et al. 2014; Tallis, Muhammad 455 et al. 2016). As such, the given improvement in muscle performance demonstrated in 456 the present study is likely to relate to the action of caffeine as a CNS stimulant (Nehlig 457 et al. 1992) and (or) its ability to act directly on skeletal muscle (Tallis, Duncan et al. 458 2015). 459

460 Limitations & Future Direction

A small number of research studies that have examined the effect of caffeine on 461 exercise performance have used doses greater than the moderate 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body 462 mass used in the present study (Perkins et al. 1975; Williams et al. 1987; Graham et 463 al. 1991; Jacobson, Weber et al. 1992; Cohen et al. 1996; Glaister et al. 2012), with 464 doses up to 13 mg · kg-1 body mass being reported (Pasman et al. 1995). As such, 465 there is the possibility that higher doses of caffeine may elicit a greater response with 466 respect to measures of muscular strength. Currently this remains un-researched, as 467 high doses of caffeine have been associated with adverse effects such as anxiety, 468 gastrointestinal discomfort, and impairment of fine motor control (Smith 2002; Burke 469 2008). Such side effects may cause performance to be decreased. Furthermore, it 470 would have been useful to measure salivary or plasma caffeine concentration following 471 the administration of each dose. Previous work has indicated a genetic influence with 472 respect to speed of caffeine metabolism (Yang et al. 2010), and as such, this may 473 result in an individual dose response effect. 474

As a positive caffeine response in the concentric action of the knee extensors was 475 seen at 180 deg/s and not 60 deg/s, future work should consider evaluating the dose 476 response effect of caffeine using faster contraction speeds. Irrespective of the dose 477 response relationship, there is a lack of studies that have examined the effect of 478 caffeine using high speed isokinetic assessments. Furthermore, the present work and 479 previous literature (Jacobson and Edwards 1991; Astorino, Terzi et al. 2010b; Del 480 481 Coso, Salinero et al. 2012) has focused on evaluating the dose response effects of caffeine in non-specifically trained athletes. Future work should adopt a similar 482 experimental approach to assess dose response effects of caffeine in resistance 483 484 trained participants, where it is proposed that caffeine elicits a greater benefit.

The present work examines the dose response effect of caffeine at a group level. Previous literature has indicated that the rate of caffeine digestion and metabolism may differ between individuals, which has mechanistically been accounted for by differences in genotype (Astorino and Roberson 2010a). As such, future work should consider a greater sample size to better understand the dose response effect on an individual level.

#### 491 Conclusion

The results of the present study demonstrate that both low and moderate dose caffeine 492 were effective in increasing peak concentric force of the knee extensors at faster 493 contraction velocities. There was no effect of either caffeine dose on the concentric or 494 eccentric action of the elbow flexors, or the eccentric action of the knee extensors. As 495 such, the findings demonstrate that relatively low doses of caffeine may be effective 496 to induce some improvements in muscular strength in non-specifically trained 497 individuals, but this is limited to larger muscle groups of the lower limb. Where caffeine 498 499 elicited a performance enhancing effect, there was no clear dose response relationship with both the low and moderate doses eliciting similar benefits. Only the 500 moderate dose of caffeine caused an improvement in performance during repeated 501 concentric contractions of the knee extensors, indicating that the effective caffeine 502 concentration may be further related to contraction type. The findings demonstrate a 503 further level of complexity with respect to identifying the optimum conditions for a 504 caffeine induced increase in muscle strength. 505

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# 508 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

509	The authors report no conflicts of interest associated with this manuscript.
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664 **FIGURES** 

Figure 1. The effect of 3 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 and 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caffeine treatment on peak and average isokinetic concentric (A & C) and eccentric force (B & D) of the elbow flexor muscles at 60 and 180 deg/s [Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  SE; n=10]

Figure 2. The effect of 3 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 and 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caffeine treatment on peak and average isokinetic concentric (A & C) and eccentric force (B & D) of the knee extensor muscles at 60 and 180 deg/s [Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  SE; n=10; \* represents statistically significant difference (P=0.033; *d*=0.68) between Placebo and 6 mg/kg caffeine; # represents statistical tendency (P=0.083; *d*=0.83) between Placebo and 3 mg/kg caffeine]

Figure 3. The effect of 3 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 and 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caffeine treatment on peak isokinetic concentric and eccentric force of the elbow flexors (A & B) and knee extensors (C & D) over 30 repeated maximal voluntary contractions at 180 deg/s [Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  SE; n=10; # represents statistical tendency (P=0.059; d=0.47) between Placebo and 6 mg/kg caffeine]

Figure 4. The effect of 3 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 and 6 mg  $\cdot$  kg-1 body mass caffeine treatment on perception of pain and HR during measures of isokinetic muscle force [Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  SE; n=10; UReps indicates upper body repetitions, LReps indicates lower body repetitions]