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15 **Abstract**

16 Purpose: To examine the effect on short duration, high intensity cycling time trial
17 performance when a semi-solid breakfast containing carbohydrate or a taste and texture
18 matched placebo is ingested 90 minutes pre-exercise compared to a water control.

19 Methods: Thirteen well trained cyclists (25 ± 8 years, 71.1 ± 5.9 kg, 1.76 ± 0.04 m, 383
20 ± 46 W_{\max} , $VO_{2\text{peak}} 4.42 \pm 0.53$ $L \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) performed three experimental trials examining
21 breakfast ingestion 90 minutes before a 10 minute steady state cycle (60% W_{\max}) and a
22 ~20 minute time trial (to complete a workload target of 376 ± 36 kJ). Subjects
23 consumed either water (WAT), a semi-solid carbohydrate breakfast (2 g
24 carbohydrate·kg⁻¹ body mass; CHO) or a taste and texture matched placebo (PLA).
25 Blood lactate and glucose concentrations were measured periodically throughout the
26 rest and exercise periods.

27 Results: The time trial was completed quicker in CHO (1120 ± 69 s; $P=0.006$) and PLA
28 (1112 ± 50 s; $P=0.030$) compared to WAT (1146 ± 74 s). Ingestion of carbohydrate
29 caused an increase in blood glucose concentration throughout the rest period in CHO
30 (peak at 30 minutes rest: 7.37 ± 1.10 $\text{mmol} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$; $P<0.0001$) before dropping below
31 baseline levels after the steady state cycling.

32 Conclusion: A short duration cycling time trial was completed quicker when subjects
33 perceived that they consumed breakfast (PLA or CHO) 90 minutes prior to the start of
34 exercise. The improvement in performance is likely attributable to a psychological
35 rather than physiological effect.

36 Key words: carbohydrate, exercise, time trial, fasted, placebo

37 Introduction

38 The benefits of carbohydrate feeding prior to prolonged bouts of endurance exercise are
39 well established¹⁻⁶. When exercise duration is longer than 60 minutes it is generally
40 advised that athletes consume carbohydrate in the 1-4 hours before exercise⁷. For
41 exercise lasting less than 45 minutes there appears to be little evidence, if any, to
42 suggest pre-exercise carbohydrate ingestion will enhance performance. It is generally
43 perceived that muscle glycogen depletion is not the limiting factor for short duration
44 exercise and therefore prior ingestion of carbohydrate will serve little benefit^{7,8}.
45 However, for many athletes common practice often dictates consumption of
46 carbohydrate prior to training sessions and competition regardless of the duration and
47 particularly if the training is at a high intensity.

48 Endurance athletes will regularly train in the morning, but for many, the logistics of
49 consuming carbohydrate 1 to 4 hours prior to exercise may be difficult and therefore
50 result in some sessions completed in a fasted state. Training in a fasted state and thereby
51 reducing carbohydrate availability has been shown to potentiate cellular and molecular
52 adaptations to endurance training⁹. This may be of advantage to endurance athletes if
53 correctly integrated into a periodised training programme¹⁰, however, other methods of
54 reducing carbohydrate availability (i.e. 'sleep low' and 'train low' paradigms) have
55 resulted in reduced self-selected intensity, which might attenuate the training
56 stimulus^{11,12}. From a physiological standpoint, despite small decreases in liver glycogen
57 stores overnight¹³, fasted exercise should not impair short duration performance, and
58 therefore any influences on performance or self-selected intensity may be as a result of a
59 placebo effect.

60 The placebo effect has been commonly observed in exercise performance settings,
61 arising from the belief that one is receiving a treatment or product that will result in a
62 favourable outcome¹⁴. In exercise lasting approximately 1 hour, Clark and colleagues¹⁴
63 observed a 4% improvement in cycling performance when a placebo drink thought to be
64 containing carbohydrate was consumed during exercise, yet for longer periods of
65 exercise (~3h), no placebo effect has been reported¹⁵. Although these results are based
66 on feeding during exercise, it appears that there is more likely to be a placebo effect
67 when the exercise bout is short in duration and muscle glycogen use is not the limiting
68 factor. For a cycling time trial lasting ~20 minutes (i.e. comparable to a 10-mile time
69 trial), a placebo effect may therefore be of substantial significance, with those
70 consuming carbohydrate or breakfast potentially perceiving this to be advantageous and
71 increasing self-selected intensity.

72 Therefore the aim of this study was to examine the effect of pre-exercise carbohydrate
73 intake (i.e. breakfast) on cycling time trial performance compared to a taste and flavour-
74 matched placebo and a water control. A semi-solid breakfast was used to enhance the
75 perception of energy/ nutrient intake and facilitate blinding. It was hypothesised that a
76 carbohydrate breakfast would have no effect on performance compared to the placebo,
77 but both would be advantageous compared to water.

78

79 **Methods**

80 Thirteen well-trained male cyclists (age 25 ± 8 years, body mass (BM) 71.1 ± 5.9 kg,
81 height 1.76 ± 0.04 m, maximum power output 383 ± 46 W, VO_{2peak} 4.42 ± 0.53 L·min⁻¹)
82 were recruited to take part in three trials, undertaken in a randomised order. The study
83 protocol was explained to all subjects both verbally and in writing before they provided
84 written informed consent. The study was approved by the Loughborough University
85 Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee and conformed to the
86 Declaration of Helsinki. It was estimated that 12 subjects were required to detect a 2.5%
87 (30 sec) difference between trials based on an α of 0.05 and a statistical power of 0.8.
88 Thirteen were recruited to provide adequate power and account for dropouts.

89 Subjects visited the laboratory on 5 occasions: a VO_{2peak} test, a time trial familiarisation
90 and three experimental trials (water (CON), placebo (PLA) and carbohydrate (CHO);
91 figure 1). Subjects were recruited on the premise that the investigation was examining
92 two breakfast drinks. Trials were performed in a randomised cross-over design. The
93 PLA and CHO trials were administered in a double-blind manner, although it was
94 impossible to blind the WAT trial from either experimenters or subjects.

95 During the first visit, subjects performed a VO_{2peak} test using a continuous incremental
96 protocol on an electronically braked cycle ergometer (Lode Excalibur; Lode BV,
97 Groningen, Netherlands). Commencing at 95 W, subjects completed three minutes
98 stages increasing by 35 W until volitional exhaustion. Maximal power output (W_{max})
99 was calculated as the power of the last completed stage plus the fraction of time spent in
100 the next stage multiplied by the intensity increment. W_{max} values determined 60% W_{max}
101 used for the experimental trials. During the final minute of each stage and the final
102 minute of the test, expired gases were collected into a Douglas bag and analysed for
103 oxygen and carbon dioxide concentration (Servomex 1400 Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide
104 Gas Analyser; Servomex, Crowborough, UK). Using a Harvard dry gas meter (Harvard
105 Apparatus Ltd., Edenbridge, UK) and thermometer (Edale Digital Thermometer D515:
106 Edale Instruments Ltd., Cambridge, UK), gas volumes and temperature were measured,
107 respectively and corrected to STPD (standard temperature and pressure, dry). Following
108 the VO_{2peak} test, subjects performed at least 50% of the time trial protocol used in the
109 experimental trials to initially familiarise with the method. During the second visit,
110 subjects performed a familiarisation of the exercise portion of the experimental trial.
111 This involved a 10 minute bout at 60% W_{max} , 5 minute rest, and a cadence dependent
112 linear-factor time trial (similar to that used by Hulston and Jeukendrup¹⁵), where
113 subjects were asked to reach a target workload, based on cycling at 80% W_{max} for 20
114 minutes, as quickly as possible. The following formula was used to calculate work
115 required:

$$Target\ kJ = \frac{(W_{max} \times 0.8 \times 1200s)}{1000}$$

116 Subjects were able to see work completed and received verbal notification upon
117 completion of 25, 50 and 75% of the time trial. The time trial was completed in silence,
118 in an enclosed area of the laboratory with no additional feedback provided. Time to
119 complete each 25% segment and heart rate at every 25% were recorded. No food or
120 fluid was ingested during either the steady-state exercise or TT.

121 In the 24 h prior to the first experimental trial, subjects recorded all food and fluid
122 intake, and any low-intensity habitual physical activity, and repeated these patterns

123 before the two remaining trials. Subjects arrived overnight fasted between 0700 and
124 0900 h, with the specific time standardised for each individual.

125 On arrival, subjects provided a urine sample, and had nude body mass measured. A
126 heart rate monitor (Polar Vantage; Kempele, Finland) was fitted before the subject sat
127 for 5 minutes and resting heart rate recorded. At the end of the rest period a capillary
128 fingertip blood sample (20 μ l) was collected and later analysed for whole blood lactate
129 and glucose concentrations. Subjects were also asked to rate their gastrointestinal (GI)
130 comfort (1 = neutral; 12 = painful). Subjects were then asked to consume one of three
131 breakfasts within 5 minutes: CON (7 ml·kg body mass(BM)⁻¹ water), PLA (6 ml·kg
132 BM⁻¹ water, 1 ml·kg BM⁻¹ orange squash (Robinson's, Britvic, Hemel Hempstead, UK),
133 0.67 g·kg BM⁻¹ xanthan gum (Doves Farm, Hungerford, UK) and 0.067 g·kg BM⁻¹
134 artificial sweetener (Canderel, Merisant, High Wycombe, UK)) and CHO (6 ml·kg BM⁻¹
135 water, 1 ml·kg BM⁻¹ orange squash, 2 g·kg BM⁻¹ maltodextrin (MyProtein, Northwich,
136 UK), 0.67 g·kg BM⁻¹ xanthan gum and 0.067 g·kg BM⁻¹ artificial sweetener). PLA and
137 CHO were matched for taste and texture. Xanthan gum was used to produce a semi-
138 solid meal and increase the perception of 'energy intake'. When provided with either
139 the PLA or CHO breakfast, subjects were told, "this is one of the two breakfast drinks".
140 At 15, 30, 60 and 90 minutes post-ingestion, heart rate and GI comfort were measured
141 and blood samples were collected.

142 Subjects then completed 10 minutes at 60% W_{max} . During the final minute of exercise,
143 heart rate and rating of perceived exertion were measured, and a sample of expired gas
144 was collected. On completion, a blood sample was collected and subjects rated GI
145 comfort. Following a 5 minute period of rest, subjects began the time trial. Final
146 measurements (blood and GI comfort) were collected at the end of the time trial. After
147 the final trial, subjects were asked a series of questions: "Was there a difference
148 between the drinks?", "If so, can you identify this difference?", "One of the drinks
149 contained carbohydrate, which one was it?" and "Do you ever complete aspects of your
150 training in the morning after an overnight fast?"

151 *Sample analysis*

152 Each 20 μ l whole blood sample was collected in a capillary tube and placed in an
153 Eppendorf containing 1 ml of haemolysing solution (EKF Diagnostics, Cardiff, UK).
154 This was stored on ice until analysis for glucose and lactate concentrations (Biosen C-
155 Line, EKF Diagnostics). Urine samples were analysed in duplicate for osmolality by
156 freezing-point depression (Gonotec Osmomat auto Cryoscopic Osmometer; Gonotec,
157 Berlin, Germany).

158 *Statistical analysis*

159 Data were checked for normality of distribution using Shapiro-Wilks tests. All data
160 were normally distributed. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to analyse
161 data containing one factor (performance time, urine osmolality, expired air and substrate
162 use). Data with two factors (pacing, blood lactate/ glucose concentrations, heart rate and
163 scales) were analysed using a two-way repeated measures ANOVA. If a significant
164 ANOVA was observed, paired samples t-test with Holm-Bonferroni correction were
165 used to identify where the difference occurred. Statistical significance was accepted
166 when $P < 0.05$. Data is expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Statistical
167 Package for the Social Sciences for Windows, version 22.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL,
168 USA) was used to conduct the statistical analysis.

169 **Results**

170 Pre-trial urine osmolality was similar between trials (WAT: 670 ± 195 mOsmol \cdot kg $^{-1}$,
171 PLA: 801 ± 199 mOsmol \cdot kg $^{-1}$, CHO: 754 ± 226 mOsmol \cdot kg $^{-1}$; $P = 0.158$), suggesting
172 subjects arrived in a similar state of hydration.

173 *Performance measures*

174 Time to complete the time trial was quicker in both the CHO (1120 ± 69 s; $P = 0.005$)
175 and PLA (1112 ± 50 s; $P = 0.030$) trials compared to the WAT trial (1146 ± 74 s; figure
176 2), however, there was no difference in performance between the CHO and PLA trial (P
177 $= 0.544$). No trial order effect was observed ($P = 0.841$).

178 Analysis of pacing strategy showed a time effect, with the first 25% TT section of all
179 trials completed quicker than the 25-50% and 50-75% sections ($P < 0.0001$; figure 3)
180 but similar to the final 25% ($P = 0.141$). The second 25% section was also completed
181 faster than the third section ($P = 0.004$). There was a significant trial effect ($P < 0.0001$)
182 but no interaction effect ($P = 0.298$).

183 Heart rate was similar between trials at baseline (61 ± 11 beat \cdot min $^{-1}$; grouped mean and
184 SD of trials; $P = 0.780$), during the rest period (58 ± 10 bpm; grouped mean and SD of
185 trials; $P = 0.316$) and in the 10 minute steady state period of cycling (140 ± 19 bpm;
186 grouped mean and SD of trials; $P = 0.312$). Mean heart rate was slightly lower during
187 the TT in the WAT trial (174 ± 8 bpm) compared to the PLA (175 ± 6 bpm; $P = 0.006$)
188 and CHO (177 ± 9 bpm; $P = 0.003$) trials.

189 *Blood analysis*

190 A significant time, trial and trial x time interaction effect was observed for blood
191 glucose concentrations ($P < 0.0001$; figure 4a). Following breakfast in the CHO trial,
192 blood glucose concentrations increased above baseline and remained elevated until 90
193 minutes, before dropping below baseline concentrations following the 10 minute steady
194 state cycling. Blood glucose concentrations then increased above baseline following
195 completion of the TT. This increase following the TT also occurred in the WAT and
196 PLA trials. In the CHO trial, blood glucose concentrations were greater at 15, 30, 60
197 and 90 minutes and lower following steady state compared to the corresponding
198 samples in both the WAT and PLA trials ($P < 0.05$).

199 Blood lactate concentrations were not influenced by trial ($P = 0.088$), however there
200 was a time effect with concentrations peaking following the completion of the TT ($P <$
201 0.0001 ; figure 4b).

202 *Substrate utilisation*

203 Due to problems with expired gas analysis, respiratory exchange ratio (RER) and
204 substrate utilisation during the period of steady state cycling were only available for 10
205 out of 13 subjects. RER was greater in the CHO trial (0.94 ± 0.03) compared to the PLA
206 trial (0.89 ± 0.04 ; $P < 0.0001$). RER during the WAT trial was not different to the other
207 trials (0.92 ± 0.03 ; $P = 0.112$ v PLA; $P = 0.117$ v CHO). Carbohydrate oxidation was
208 greater in the CHO trial (3.10 ± 0.17 g \cdot min $^{-1}$) compared to the PLA trial (2.41 ± 0.53
209 g \cdot min $^{-1}$; $P < 0.0001$), however during the WAT trial (2.82 ± 0.48 g \cdot min $^{-1}$), carbohydrate
210 oxidation was similar to the two other trials ($P = 0.088$ v PLA; $P = 0.148$ v CHO). Fat
211 oxidation was greater in the PLA trial (0.52 ± 0.23 g \cdot min $^{-1}$) compared to the CHO trial

212 (0.26 ± 0.17 g·min⁻¹; *P* = 0.003), but similar in the WAT trial compared to the two other
213 trials (0.36 ± 0.16 g·min⁻¹; *P* = 0.108 v PLA; *P* = 0.121 v CHO).

214 There was no difference in GI comfort between trials (time x trial interaction, *P* = 0.446)
215 and no rise from baseline values of 1 ± 1 (WAT), 1 ± 1 (PLA) and 1 ± 1 (CHO, all *P* >
216 0.05) throughout the trials.

217 *Questionnaire data*

218 Out of thirteen subjects, five stated they felt there was a difference in the drinks, with all
219 of these subjects correctly identifying the CHO trial as either containing ‘carbohydrate’
220 or ‘energy’. Of these five subjects, two subjects performed better on the PLA trial (by
221 38 s and 83 s), one performed better on the CHO trial (by 50 s) and two had very similar
222 performance times (both 5 s faster on the CHO trial). Of the remaining eight subjects,
223 four correctly guessed the order of the PLA and CHO trials. Seven subjects completed
224 little to none of their training in a fasted state, with the remaining six subjects
225 performing a fraction (1-2 rides per week) of their training in a fasted state.

226 Discussion

227 The aim of the study was to examine the effect of a pre-exercise carbohydrate intake in
228 the form of maltodextrin (i.e breakfast) on a short duration high intensity cycling time
229 trial, compared to a placebo and water control. Performance was improved in both the
230 CHO and PLA trials suggesting there was a placebo effect of ingesting breakfast. This
231 would indicate that with the length and intensity of the exercise used in the current
232 study, nutritional intake may be of psychological benefit, rather than physiological.

233 The main result of the study was the placebo effect observed on performance. The
234 placebo effect has been observed in 60 minute performance trials¹⁴ when perhaps the
235 metabolic and psychological effects of carbohydrate ingestion may cross. However,
236 when exercise is of longer duration and the metabolic benefits of carbohydrate intake
237 are clearer, no placebo effect was observed¹⁵. The interesting aspect of this study was
238 the short duration nature of the time trial in combination with a water control to
239 maximise the perception of carbohydrate/ breakfast consumption. Pre-exercise
240 carbohydrate studies tend to compare a carbohydrate drink with a taste-matched
241 placebo^{5,8}, but have not increased the viscosity to create the perception of ingesting a
242 meal. Few include a water control¹⁵, preventing the investigation of knowingly
243 ingesting nothing which may dampen any placebo effect. Palmer and colleagues⁸
244 provided a 6.8% carbohydrate drink or a coloured and flavoured placebo 10 minutes
245 prior to a cycle test of similar duration to the current study (20 km) but did not have a
246 water control. Whilst no performance difference was observed between the trials, this
247 does not discount the positive effect that both drinks may have had on performance. In
248 the current study, it is possible the perception of nutritional intake resulted in an
249 anticipatory effect encouraging increased self-selected intensity as evidenced by an
250 increased HR in the PLA and CHO trials. Although more commonly practiced during
251 exercise, this effect is not too dissimilar from the suggested mechanistic action of
252 carbohydrate mouth rinsing, where oral sensing of carbohydrate has enhanced
253 endurance performance^{16,17}. It has been proposed that there is an increase in central
254 motor drive rather than any metabolic effects¹⁶. In the present study the increased
255 viscosity of the drink may have contributed to the sensing or perception of substrate and
256 an increase in central motor drive.

257 The general trend of the time trials were to start quickly, slow in the second and third
258 quarters before a tendency to speed up at the end. The lack of difference between
259 segments in trials, particularly between the PLA and CHO trials suggests that substrate
260 availability, or rather the increased availability from maltodextrin ingestion did not
261 contribute to pacing. In addition, although non-significant, small differences in time to
262 complete the first two WAT segments appeared to contribute to the overall slower time
263 compared to the perception of breakfast.

264 Ingestion of maltodextrin increased carbohydrate oxidation during the steady state
265 exercise in CHO compared to PLA and likely during the time trial. Maltodextrin
266 ingestion would have stimulated insulin release and in combination with high blood
267 glucose would decrease fatty acid oxidation¹⁸, as well as increasing glucose uptake into
268 the muscle¹⁹. In the current study, this did not appear to influence performance, either
269 because the time trial was too short in duration for substrate utilisation to have a
270 meaningful influence or the placebo effect of breakfast was greater than any metabolic
271 effects and had greater regulation over pacing.

272 One of the main aims of a carbohydrate meal after an overnight fast is to replenish liver
273 glycogen¹³. In the current study this did not appear to enhance performance as there was
274 no difference between the PLA and CHO performance times. The absence of a
275 difference is likely explained by the short duration of the time trial, where less glycogen
276 availability is required compared to longer performance tests in which differences have
277 been observed⁵.

278

279 The pre-exercise feeding recommendation for exercise greater than 60 minutes is to
280 ingest carbohydrate in the 1-4 hours before exercise⁷. The 90 minutes pre-exercise
281 breakfast ingestion in the current study found similar results to Galloway and
282 colleagues²⁰ when ingestion occurred 2 hours before a shorter exercise capacity test
283 (~7.5-9.0 minutes). The amount of carbohydrate provided by Galloway et al.²⁰ used was
284 32 g (the present study used approximately 142 g) and there was no water control to
285 determine if there was a placebo effect. In an interesting caveat, in the same study, a
286 performance difference was observed when the 32 g of carbohydrate was ingested 30
287 minutes before exercise compared to a placebo. This was attributed to an increase in
288 glucose uptake and oxidation in the early stages of exercise as well as possible non-
289 metabolic effects such as positive alterations in mood and arousal. When carbohydrate
290 is ingested close to exercise there is the possibility of rebound hypoglycaemia during
291 the initial stages of exercise. Although the general results are mixed, the effect on
292 performance has been largely refuted (reviewed by²¹). Whilst hypoglycaemia did not
293 occur in the present study there was a small decrease in blood glucose concentrations
294 following the 10 minute steady state. It therefore seems that for short duration exercise
295 carbohydrate ingestion close to exercise may improve performance through a partial
296 metabolic effect, however, when ingested around 90 minutes before exercise the
297 improvement in performance is likely psychological hence the similar performance
298 observed between the PLA and CHO trials.

299 The present research was conducted in well-trained cyclists, however experience of
300 fasted training was limited to only 6 subjects and this largely comprised of low intensity
301 or short duration rides. As the results appeared to be driven by psychological
302 determinants it would be of interest to study a chronic effect of fasted high intensity
303 training to determine if cyclists could become accustomed to the effort and alter their
304 self-selected intensity without the perception of ingesting a CHO or PLA drink.

305 **Practical Applications**

306 Many athletes will complete some training sessions in a fasted state, however these are
307 often limited to recovery and low intensity sessions. Typically, athletes will ingest a
308 pre-exercise meal or source of carbohydrate prior to engaging in high quality and
309 intense bouts of exercise, even if guidelines do not necessarily suggest consumption
310 when exercise duration is less than 60 minutes⁷. The results of this study suggest that
311 from a physiological perspective this is not necessary; however the act of ingesting a
312 perceived breakfast improved performance regardless of energy content. Studies
313 examining alternative methods of low carbohydrate availability (i.e. training after an
314 overnight fast or in a depleted state – in both situations the athlete is not blinded to the
315 condition) have repeatedly demonstrated a reduction in self-selected intensity^{11,12}, yet
316 also beneficial cell signalling responses and the increasing of mitochondrial
317 biogenesis^{9,12,22}. This study poses the question of the possibility that the benefits of both

318 high (maintained self-selected intensity) and low (increased cellular adaptations)
319 carbohydrate availability can be achieved through a placebo breakfast. The placebo
320 effect is unlikely to last chronically so a carefully planned approach by the coaching
321 team is required to maximise adaptations by selecting key sessions for acute
322 implementation.

323 **Conclusion**

324 In conclusion, subjects in this study were able to complete a short duration
325 (approximately 20 minutes) cycling time trial quicker when they consumed a PLA or
326 CHO breakfast 90 minutes prior to the start of exercise compared to a water control.
327 The improvement in performance was due to a psychological rather than physiological
328 cause, with the subjects perceiving the ingestion of breakfast and nutrients as beneficial,
329 resulting in an increased self-selected intensity.

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395 **List of figures**

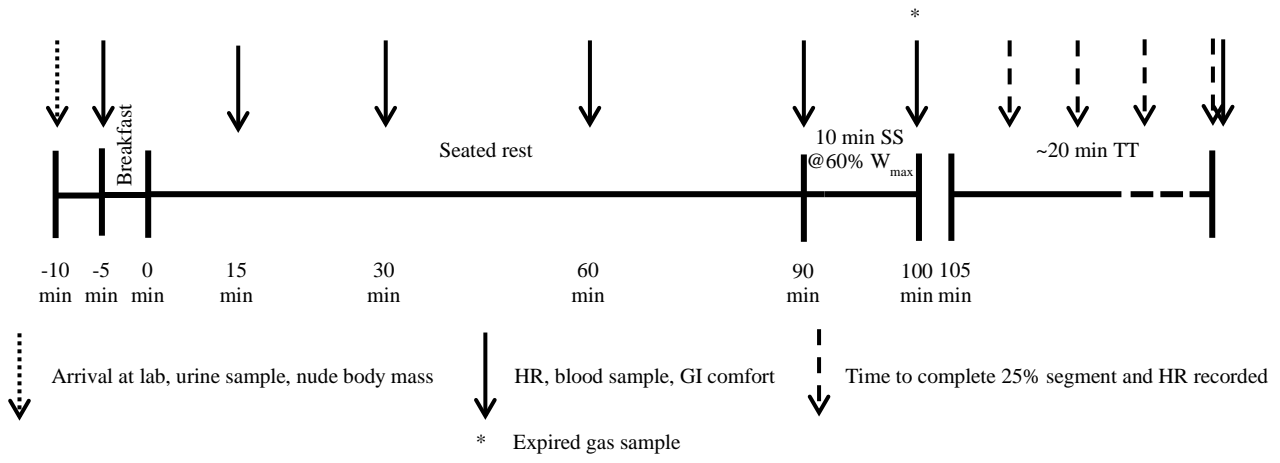
396 Figure 1. Schematic overview of the experimental trial

397 Figure 2. Time to complete the time trial. Lines denote individual performances. *
398 denotes different to WAT trial ($P < 0.05$). Mean \pm SD

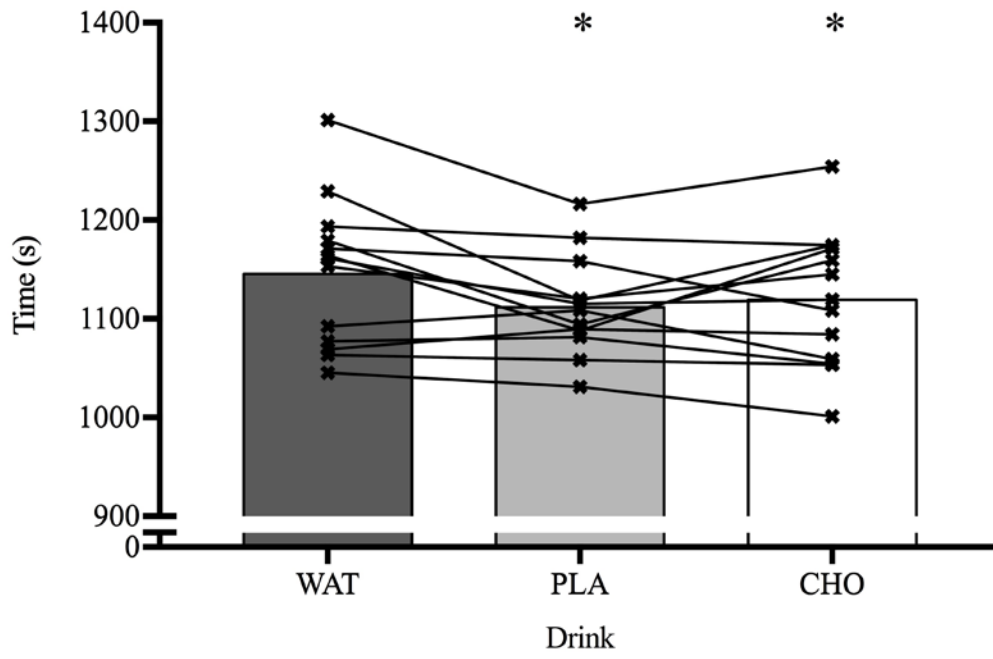
399 Figure 3. Time splits for each 25% segment. * denotes quicker completion of segment
400 compared to 50-75%. # denotes quicker completion of segment compared to 25-50% (P
401 < 0.05). Mean \pm SD

402 Figure 4. Blood (a) glucose and (b) lactate concentrations during the recovery and
403 exercise periods. * denotes different to WAT and PLA trials. # denotes different to
404 baseline in CHO trial. § denotes different to baseline in all trials ($P < 0.05$). Mean \pm SD

405 Figure 1



406 Figure 2

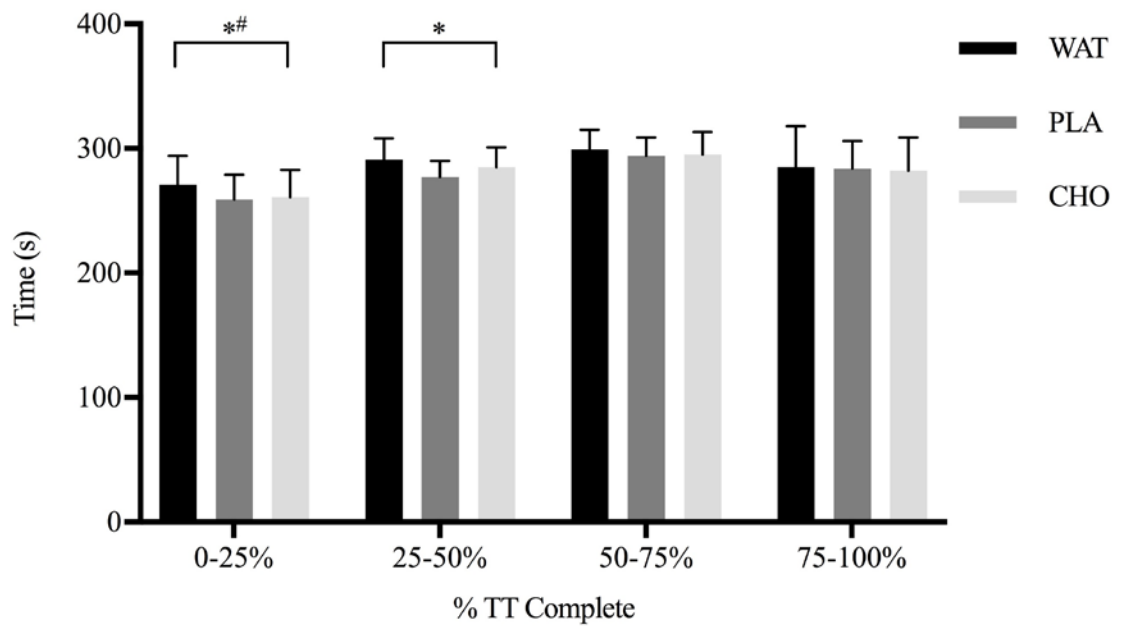


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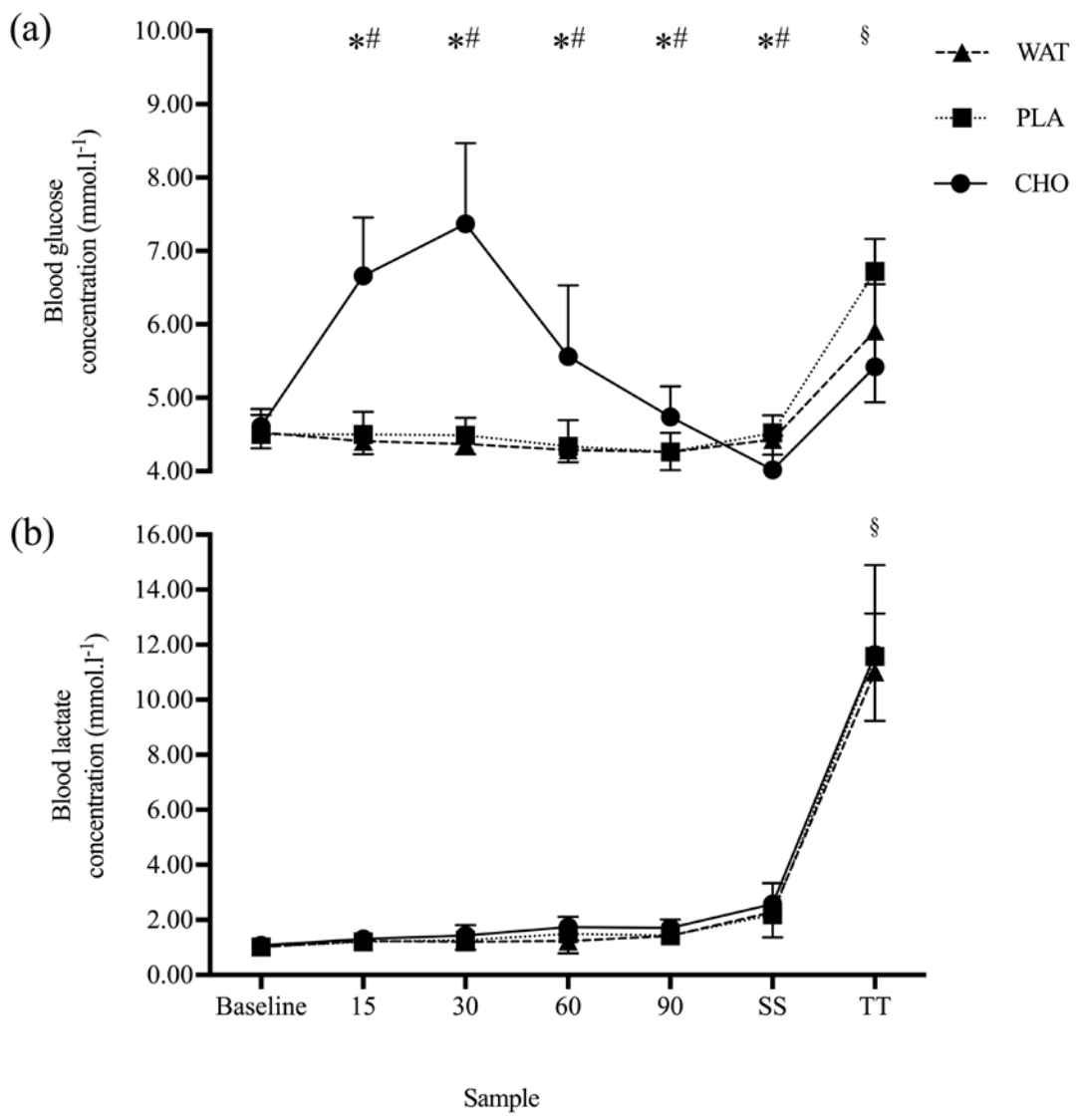
409 Figure 3

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411

412 Figure 4



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414