

**Full title:** Chronic ingestion of a low-dose of caffeine induces tolerance to the performance benefits of caffeine

**Running title:** Caffeine tolerance and endurance performance

Ross Beaumont<sup>1</sup>, Phillip Cordery<sup>1</sup>, Mark Funnell<sup>1</sup>, Stephen Mears<sup>1</sup>, Lewis James<sup>1</sup>  
and Phillip Watson<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences, Loughborough University,  
Leicestershire, LE11 3TU, UK.

<sup>2</sup>Department of Human Physiology and Sports Medicine, Vrije Universiteit Brussel,  
Brussels B-1050, Belgium.

**Correspondence:** Ross Beaumont,  
School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences,  
Loughborough University,  
Leicestershire,  
LE11 3TU,  
UK

**Email:** [r.e.beaumont@lboro.ac.uk](mailto:r.e.beaumont@lboro.ac.uk)

**Key words:** Fatigue, habituation, exercise metabolism, stimulants, supplements

## Abstract

This study examined effects of four weeks of caffeine supplementation on endurance performance. Eighteen low-habitual caffeine consumers ( $<75 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ ) were randomly assigned to ingest caffeine ( $1.5 - 3.0 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{day}^{-1}$ ; titrated) or placebo for 28 days. Groups were matched for age, body mass,  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  and  $W_{\text{max}}$  ( $P>0.05$ ). Before supplementation, all participants completed one  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  test, one practice trial and two experimental trials (acute  $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  caffeine [precaf] and placebo [testpla]). During the supplementation period a second  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  test was completed on day 21 before a final, acute  $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  caffeine trial (postcaf) on day 29. Trials consisted of 60 min cycle exercise at  $60\% \dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  followed by a 30 min performance task. All participants produced more external work during the precaf trial than testpla, with increases in the caffeine ( $383.3 \pm 75 \text{ kJ}$  vs.  $344.9 \pm 80.3 \text{ kJ}$ ; Cohen's  $d$  effect size [ES] =  $0.49$ ;  $P=0.001$ ) and placebo ( $354.5 \pm 55.2 \text{ kJ}$  vs.  $333.1 \pm 56.4 \text{ kJ}$ ; ES =  $0.38$ ;  $P=0.004$ ) supplementation group, respectively. This performance benefit was no longer apparent after four weeks of caffeine supplementation (precaf:  $383.3 \pm 75.0 \text{ kJ}$  vs. postcaf:  $358.0 \pm 89.8 \text{ kJ}$ ; ES =  $0.31$ ;  $P=0.025$ ), but was retained in the placebo group (precaf:  $354.5 \pm 55.2 \text{ kJ}$  vs. postcaf:  $351.8 \pm 49.4 \text{ kJ}$ ; ES =  $0.05$ ;  $P>0.05$ ). Circulating caffeine, hormonal concentrations and substrate oxidation did not differ between groups (all  $P>0.05$ ). Chronic ingestion of a low dose of caffeine develops tolerance in low-caffeine consumers. Therefore, individuals with low-habitual intakes should refrain from chronic caffeine supplementation to maximise performance benefits from acute caffeine ingestion.

Key words: Fatigue, habituation, exercise metabolism, stimulants, supplements

## 1 Introduction

2 Acute caffeine (1,3,7-trimethylxanthine) supplementation approximately one hour  
3 before exercise improves endurance performance in laboratory-based studies (Burke,  
4 2008). The same occurs in the field (Berglund & Hemmingsson, 1982), leading to its  
5 widespread use by athletes during competition (Desbrow & Leveritt, 2006). To  
6 determine optimum conditions by which caffeine improves performance, factors such  
7 as dose (Desbrow et al., 2012), source (Hodgson, Randell, & Jeukendrup, 2013),  
8 and the timing of intake (Cox et al., 2002) have been investigated. However,  
9 habituation to chronic caffeine intake has received less attention (Bell & McLellan,  
10 2002). This is important from a practical standpoint given the high prevalence of daily  
11 caffeine intake in the general population (Fitt, Pell, & Cole, 2013) and by athletes  
12 during competition (Desbrow & Leveritt, 2006).

13 Caffeine probably improves exercise performance through its role as a non-selective  
14 adenosine receptor antagonist (Fredholm, Bättig, Holmén, Nehlig, & Zwartau, 1999).  
15 A prominent role for the adenosine A<sub>1</sub> receptor in mediating the acute performance  
16 enhancing effects of caffeine has been demonstrated (Snyder, Katims, Annau, Bruns,  
17 & Daly, 1981). However, more recent studies with adenosine A<sub>2A</sub> receptor knockout  
18 mice confirmed that central blockade of this adenosine receptor isoform is largely  
19 responsible for the performance enhancing properties of the drug (El Yacoubi et al.,  
20 2000). Chronic caffeine intake influences the concentration of A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>2A</sub> receptors in  
21 several brain regions (Svenningsson, Nomikos, & Fredholm, 1999; Johansson et al.,  
22 1993). This includes A<sub>2A</sub> expression in the striatum (Svenningsson et al., 1999), a  
23 sub-cortical region essential for coordinating voluntary actions (Tepper, Wilson, &  
24 Koós, 2008). Therefore it is possible that habituation influences performance benefits  
25 typical of acute caffeine supplementation. Data from animal studies support this

26 hypothesis, as chronic exposure to caffeine in the drinking water of rats resulted in  
27 tolerance to the performance benefit of a subsequent acute caffeine dose (Karcz-  
28 Kubicha et al., 2003). Although these findings have been confirmed in other animal  
29 models (Quarta et al., 2004), the doses administered have been large (i.e. 130  
30  $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ ) and much greater than those typically consumed by the general  
31 population (Fitt et al., 2013). Whether the same tolerance develops after habituation  
32 to doses typically consumed by the general population is not clear.

33 The magnitude of performance benefit after an acute  $5 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  caffeine dose was  
34 less pronounced in individuals already habituated to caffeine ( $>300 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ ) than  
35 their caffeine-naive counterparts (Bell & McLellan, 2002). Similar metabolic  
36 responses have occurred after an acute caffeine dose in comparisons of low-and  
37 high-habitual caffeine users (Bangsbo, Jacobsen, Nordberg, Christensen, & Graham,  
38 1992). However, sub-chronic intake (5 days) both of low ( $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ) and moderate  
39 ( $6 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ) caffeine doses did not influence thermoregulatory or cardiovascular  
40 responses during exercise in the heat (Roti et al., 2006). Furthermore, time-trial  
41 performance was similar when individuals received an acute  $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  caffeine dose  
42 subsequent to either a four-day habituation ( $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{day}^{-1}$ ) or withdrawal period  
43 (Irwin et al., 2011). These data suggest that a greater duration of supplementation is  
44 required before the performance benefit of an acute caffeine dose becomes  
45 compromised. To date, no study has systematically evaluated a prolonged period of  
46 controlled caffeine intake and its influence on endurance performance. Hence, the  
47 aim of this study was to examine the effect of a four-week period of controlled  
48 caffeine supplementation on endurance performance.

49

## 50 Methods

### 51 *Participants*

52 Eighteen healthy, recreationally active men (age:  $21.2 \pm 1.8$  y; body mass:  $74.1 \pm 8.6$   
53 kg; stature:  $1.75 \pm 0.06$  m;  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ :  $51.4 \pm 8.7$  ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>;  $W_{\text{max}}$ :  $289 \pm 46$  W) were  
54 recruited and completed this study. All participants were free from chronic disease  
55 and deemed eligible to participate after the completion of a health screen  
56 questionnaire. Habitual caffeine intake was assessed using a modified version of a  
57 semi-quantitative food-frequency questionnaire (Addicot, Yang, Peiffer, & Laurienti,  
58 2008) to ensure intake did not exceed 75 mg·day<sup>-1</sup>. This cut-off point was chosen as  
59 it equates to approximately one cup of caffeinated instant coffee (Fitt et al., 2013)  
60 and is similar to what has been used previously (Bell & McLellan, 2002). The study  
61 was approved by the Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee at  
62 Loughborough University, UK.

63

### 64 *Experimental Design*

65 The experimental design is illustrated in Fig 1. All participants attended the  
66 laboratory on six occasions. During the initial visit each participant undertook an  
67 incremental exercise test to volitional exhaustion on an electronically braked cycle  
68 ergometer (Lode Corival, Groningen, the Netherlands) to determine  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  and  
69 peak power output at  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  ( $W_{\text{max}}$ ). After this visit, each participant completed one  
70 practice trial. This was undertaken to ensure that all participants were accustomed to  
71 procedures, to minimise order effects from learning or anxiety and ensure attainment  
72 of a maximal effort during the performance task.

73 After these initial tests, each participant completed one acute caffeine trial (precaf)  
74 and one placebo trial (testpla), each separated by 5-7 days. Thereafter, participants  
75 were randomly assigned to ingest daily doses of caffeine (BDH Ltd, Poole, UK) or  
76 starch (250 mg: BHD Ltd, Poole, UK) for 28 days. Both supplementation groups  
77 were matched for age, stature, body mass,  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  and  $W_{max}$  ( $P>0.05$ ). During the  
78 first seven days of supplementation, the caffeine group ingested half of the  
79 prescribed caffeine dose ( $1.5 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ) in their morning capsule (7-9 am) followed by  
80 a placebo capsule (250 mg starch) in the afternoon (1-3 pm). From days 8 to 28, the  
81 caffeine group received the full  $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  dose, equally divided between the morning  
82 and afternoon capsules. This titrated approach minimised negative influences of  
83 caffeine on daily activities in caffeine-naive individuals (e.g. jitteriness, disturbed  
84 sleep etc). The placebo group followed the same pattern of intake, but received  
85 starch (250 mg) in both capsules. All participants were instructed to ingest the  
86 capsules at the same time of day throughout the supplementation period and  
87 compliance was verified by telephone contact, email and in person. Both the placebo  
88 and caffeine capsules were visually identical and blinded by an external party not  
89 involved in any stage of data collection. A second incremental exercise test was  
90 completed on the morning of day 21, before the ingestion of any capsules. This  
91 followed the same procedure as the initial visit and was undertaken to account for  
92 any changes in  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  before the final single-blind acute  $3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  caffeine trial on  
93 day 29 (postcaf).

94 The order of the testpla and precaf trials and assignment to either supplementation  
95 group was via a double-blind, randomised design. Participants were instructed to  
96 record their dietary intake and physical activity patterns in the 24 hr before their first  
97 experimental trial and replicate this on the day before each subsequent experimental

98 trial. No strenuous exercise, alcohol, or caffeine ingestion was permitted during the  
99 24 hr before any laboratory visit. However, the caffeine provided in the capsules was  
100 permitted during the 24 hr before the postcaf trial (caffeine group). No additional  
101 dietary caffeine was permitted during the supplementation period in both groups and  
102 participants were provided with a list of commonly consumed caffeinated foods and  
103 beverage to help achieve this. Participants were also instructed to maintain their  
104 usual dietary and exercise patterns throughout the supplementation period.  
105 Compliance to these measures was verified at the start of each visit, before any data  
106 collection. Finally, all trials were performed at the same time of day to minimise  
107 circadian-type variations in performance.

108

#### 109 *Experimental trials*

110 Participants arrived at the laboratory after an overnight fast (8-10 hr) with the  
111 exception of ingesting 500 mL of plain water approximately 90 min before. Upon  
112 arrival, post-void nude body mass was recorded to the nearest 10 g (Adam AFW-  
113 120K, Milton Keynes, UK) and a heart rate telemetry band (Polar Beat, Kempele,  
114 Finland) positioned. After 10 min of supine rest, a 21g cannula was inserted into an  
115 antecubital vein to allow repeated blood sampling. The cannula was flushed with a  
116 small volume of saline after each sample to ensure patency. A baseline blood  
117 sample (7 mL) was collected before participants ingested either 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> of  
118 anhydrous caffeine (precaf and postcaf) or 250 mg of starch (testpla). After 60 min  
119 rest, a second 7 mL venous blood sample was drawn before participants cycled for  
120 60 min at an intensity equivalent to 60%  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ . During this period heart rate and  
121 rating of perceived exertion (RPE) were recorded every 5 and 10 min, respectively

122 (Borg, 1982). One-minute expired air samples were collected into Douglas bags  
123 every 15 min to determine the rates of fat and carbohydrate oxidation (Peronnet &  
124 Massicotte, 1991). Oxygen and carbon dioxide concentrations in each bag were  
125 determined with a paramagnetic analyser (Servomex 1400, Sussex, UK) calibrated  
126 against gases of known concentration on the morning of each trial. Total volume was  
127 quantified (Harvard Dry Gas Meter, Harvard Apparatus, USA) and gas values were  
128 expressed as STPD. After each sample was collected, participants were provided  
129 with 100 mL of plain water. A third 7 mL blood sample was collected immediately  
130 after the fixed-intensity exercise.

131 After this, there was a 2-3 min delay while the ergometer was set for the  
132 performance task. Performance was assessed as the maximum amount of external  
133 work (kJ) that could be completed in 30 min. This method is consistent with previous  
134 studies (Jenkins, Trilk, Singhal, O'Connor, & Cureton, 2008) and reflected the high  
135 ecological validity associated with similar cycle-based performance tests  
136 (Jeukendrup, Saris, Brouns, & Kester, 1996). Participants began exercise at 75%  
137  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ , but were free to adjust the intensity of exercise from the outset. During the  
138 performance task participants were instructed to maintain a constant cadence. No  
139 verbal encouragement was given during this period and contact was limited to the  
140 recording of the physiological and perceptual variables. Heart rate was recorded  
141 every 5 min and RPE at 10 and 20 min, respectively. A final 7 mL blood sample was  
142 collected at completion of exercise, after which the cannula was removed.

143

144

145

146 *Blood collection and analysis*

147 Blood samples (7 mL) were collected directly into dry syringes. A small sample (2 mL)  
148 was dispensed into tubes containing K<sub>2</sub>EDTA. Duplicate 100 µL sub-samples were  
149 rapidly deproteinised in 1 mL of ice-cold 0.3 M perchloric acid. These were  
150 centrifuged and the resulting supernatant was used to determine blood glucose  
151 concentrations (GOD-PAP, Randox Ltd, UK). Haemoglobin was measured in  
152 duplicate (cyanmethemoglobin method) and haematocrit in triplicate  
153 (microcentrifugation). These values were used to estimate percentage changes in  
154 blood and plasma volumes relative to the resting sample (Dill & Costill, 1974). The  
155 remaining blood (5 mL) was dispensed into tubes containing clotting activator and  
156 left at room temperature for at least 60 min before centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 10  
157 min at 4°C. The supernatant was stored at -21°C for the determination of serum  
158 prolactin and cortisol in duplicate via ELISA (DRG diagnostics, Germany) and serum  
159 caffeine in duplicate with reverse-phase HPLC as previously described (Holland,  
160 Godfredsen, Page, & Connor, 1998). The intra-assay coefficient of variation (CV) for  
161 serum prolactin, cortisol and caffeine was 4.9%, 5.3% and 2.9%, respectively.

162

163 *Statistical analysis*

164 All data were analysed using IBM SPSS statistics version 21.0. Normality was  
165 assessed with the Shapiro Wilk test. Between-group comparisons of self-reported  
166 habitual caffeine intake, stature, body mass, age,  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  and  $W_{max}$  were determined  
167 with *t*-tests for independent samples. Repeated measurements of body mass,  
168  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  and  $W_{max}$  were analysed using a two-way (group x time) mixed-design  
169 factorial ANOVA. Exercise performance and fasting plasma glucose were analysed

170 using a two-way (group x trial) mixed-design factorial ANOVA. Variables measured  
171 throughout each trial were analysed using a three-way (group x trial x time) mixed-  
172 design factorial ANOVA. Where a main effect or interaction occurred, Bonferroni  
173 adjusted paired *t*-tests for normally distributed data or Wilcoxon Signed Rank tests  
174 for non-normally distributed data were used. Between-group comparisons during the  
175 testpla, precaf and postcaf trials were determined with *t*-tests for independent  
176 samples. In addition to null-hypothesis testing, magnitude-based inferences were  
177 made to examine whether the observed differences in total external work produced  
178 were meaningful (Hopkins, 2000). The magnitude of the smallest worthwhile change  
179 in performance was set at 3% (~12 kJ), based on the findings of Jenkins et al. (2008)  
180 using habituated, recreationally active participants. Cohen's *d* effect size (ES)  
181 examined the magnitude of individual differences in total external work produced  
182 ( $[(\text{Mean } 1 - \text{Mean } 2)/\text{pooled SD}]$ ) and were interpreted as trivial (0-0.19), small (0.2-  
183 0.49), medium (0.5-0.79) or large ( $>0.8$ ) as previously described (Cohen, 1992).  
184 Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SD unless otherwise stated. Statistical significance  
185 was accepted at  $P < 0.05$ .

186

## 187 Results

### 188 *Baseline measures*

189 Self-reported habitual caffeine intake was similar between groups (placebo:  $66 \pm 6$   
190  $\text{mg}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$  vs. caffeine:  $60 \pm 8 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ ;  $P=0.076$ ) There were no between-group  
191 differences for baseline measures of age (placebo:  $21.3 \pm 2.2 \text{ y}$ ; caffeine:  $21.0 \pm 1.5$   
192  $\text{y}$ ;  $P=0.710$ ), stature (placebo:  $1.75 \pm 0.06 \text{ m}$ ; caffeine:  $1.76 \pm 0.08 \text{ m}$ ;  $P=0.781$ ),  
193 body mass (placebo:  $73.3 \pm 7.4 \text{ kg}$ ; caffeine:  $74.8 \pm 10.1 \text{ kg}$ ;  $P=0.708$ ),  $\dot{V}\text{O}_{2\text{peak}}$

194 (placebo:  $51.6 \pm 9.6 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ; caffeine:  $51.2 \pm 8.4 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ;  $P=0.860$ ) or  
195  $W_{\max}$  (placebo:  $286 \pm 47 \text{ w}$ ; caffeine:  $296 \pm 55 \text{ w}$ ;  $P=0.667$ ). Day 21 body mass  
196 (placebo:  $73.1 \pm 6.8 \text{ kg}$ ; caffeine:  $74.8 \pm 10.2 \text{ kg}$ ),  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  (placebo:  $51.0 \pm 9.2$   
197  $\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ; caffeine:  $50.6 \pm 8.3 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) and  $W_{\max}$  (placebo:  $282 \pm 43 \text{ W}$ ;  
198 caffeine:  $289 \pm 47 \text{ W}$ ) was similar to baseline between both supplementation groups  
199 (trial x group interactions,  $P>0.646$ ).

200

### 201 *Exercise performance*

202 Total external work produced during the testpla trial was similar between the caffeine  
203 ( $344.9 \pm 80.3 \text{ kJ}$ ) and placebo ( $333.1 \pm 56.4 \text{ kJ}$ ) group ( $ES=0.17$ ;  $P=0.723$ ; Fig. 2A).  
204 Compared with testpla, total external work produced during the precaf trial increased  
205  $12.0 \pm 7.4\%$  in the caffeine group ( $383.3 \pm 75 \text{ kJ}$  vs.  $344.9 \pm 80.3 \text{ kJ}$ ;  $ES=0.49$ ;  
206  $P=0.001$ ) and  $6.7 \pm 4.2\%$  in the placebo group ( $354.4 \pm 55.2 \text{ kJ}$  vs.  $333.1 \pm 56.4 \text{ kJ}$ ;  
207  $ES=0.38$ ;  $P=0.004$ ; Fig. 2A). Based on a smallest worthwhile change in performance  
208 of  $12 \text{ kJ}$ , these within-group increases represent an 'almost certainly beneficial'  
209 (caffeine group) and 'probably beneficial' (placebo group) effect on performance,  
210 respectively (Table. 1).

211 Chronic caffeine supplementation resulted in a  $7.3 \pm 6.3\%$  decrease in total external  
212 work produced during the postcaf trial compared with precaf ( $358 \pm 89 \text{ kJ}$  vs.  $383.3 \pm$   
213  $75 \text{ kJ}$ ;  $ES=-0.31$ ;  $P=0.025$ ; Fig. 2A). This diminished response represents a 'probably  
214 harmful' effect on performance (Table. 1). Total external work produced during the  
215 postcaf trial and tetspla was not statistically different ( $358 \pm 89 \text{ kJ}$  vs.  $344.9 \pm 80.3 \text{ kJ}$ ;  
216  $ES=0.16$ ;  $P=0.188$ ). However, inferences suggest the difference between these trials  
217 represents a 'possibly beneficial' effect (Table. 1). Hence, chronic caffeine

218 supplementation might have not completely eliminated the performance benefit of  
219 caffeine (i.e. postcaf vs. testpla; Table. 1).

220 Participants in the placebo group produced  $6.1 \pm 2.4\%$  more external work during the  
221 postcaf trial than testpla ( $351.8 \pm 49.4$  kJ vs.  $333.1 \pm 56.4$ ;  $ES=0.33$ ;  $P=0.004$ ; Fig.  
222 2A), with this increase representing a 'probably beneficial' effect on performance  
223 (Table. 1). Accordingly, there was no difference between the precaf and postcaf trials  
224 ( $354.4 \pm 55.2$  kJ vs.  $351.8 \pm 49.4$  kJ;  $ES=0.05$ ;  $P>0.05$ ).

225 There were no between-group differences during the precaf ( $28.7 \pm 74.8$  kJ;  
226  $ES=0.44$ ;  $P=0.368$ ) or postcaf ( $6.2 \pm 90.7$  kJ;  $ES=0.09$ ;  $P=0.858$ ) trials (Fig. 2A;  
227 Table. 1).

228 The order of the experimental trials was correctly guessed by two participants in  
229 each supplementation group. Furthermore, three participants in each  
230 supplementation group correctly guessed whether they received the caffeine or  
231 placebo treatment during the habituation period. Therefore, blinding can be  
232 considered successful as these odds are less than what could occur purely by  
233 chance.

234

#### 235 *Blood data*

236 Circulating caffeine, cortisol, prolactin and glucose values recorded during exercise  
237 are shown in table 2. Acute caffeine supplementation increased serum  
238 concentrations during the precaf and postcaf trials, peaking 60 min after ingestion  
239 and remaining greater throughout exercise than baseline and testpla (trial x time  
240 interaction,  $P<0.05$ ). There were no changes in serum caffeine concentrations during

241 testpla, with values remaining close to baseline throughout exercise in both groups.  
242 The habituation protocol did not influence caffeine metabolism ( $P=0.605$ ).

243 Serum cortisol increased progressively throughout exercise ( $P<0.05$ ), peaking at the  
244 end of the performance task in both groups. No influence from trial ( $P=0.535$ ) or  
245 supplementation group ( $P=0.628$ ) occurred. Similarly, prolactin concentrations  
246 increased during exercise ( $P<0.05$ ), but the rate of increase was similar across trials  
247 ( $P=0.498$ ) and between groups ( $P=0.649$ ). The greatest concentrations were at the  
248 end of the performance task across all trials in both groups ( $P<0.05$ ). Neither cortisol  
249 ( $P=0.552$ ) or prolactin ( $P=0.965$ ) were influenced by the habituation protocol.

250 Fasting plasma glucose was similar across all three trials in both supplementation  
251 groups ( $P=0.465$ ). During exercise, plasma concentrations increased steadily  
252 ( $P<0.05$ ), with similar values across trials ( $P=0.096$ ) and between groups ( $P=0.443$ ).  
253 Compared with baseline, both blood and plasma volumes were reduced during  
254 exercise ( $P<0.05$ ). No influence of trial ( $P>0.135$ ) or group ( $P>0.649$ ) occurred.

255

#### 256 *Heart rate, substrate oxidation and RPE*

257 Mean heart rate, expired gas and RPE values recorded during exercise are shown in  
258 table 3. Exercise caused a progressive increase in heart rate throughout the fixed-  
259 intensity exercise ( $P<0.05$ ). This increase remained similar across trials ( $P=0.169$ )  
260 and between supplementation groups ( $P=0.984$ ). Similarly, heart rate increased  
261 during the performance task ( $P<0.05$ ), but this increase was similar across trials  
262 ( $P=0.891$ ) and between groups ( $P=0.887$ ). Within-group differences in mean heart

263 rate occurred across trials. The greatest values were during the precaf trial in both  
264 groups (Table. 3). There were no between-group differences ( $P>0.274$ ).

265 Rates of carbohydrate oxidation decreased ( $P=0.026$ ) while rates of fat oxidation  
266 increased ( $P<0.05$ ) during the fixed-intensity exercise. Neither of these were  
267 influenced by trial ( $P>0.784$ ) or group ( $P>0.328$ ). Furthermore, RER values  
268 decreased ( $P<0.05$ ) while  $\dot{V}O_2$  increased ( $P<0.05$ ) during exercise. No influence  
269 from trial ( $P>0.691$ ) or group ( $P>0.189$ ) occurred.

270 Exercise induced a steady increase in RPE during the fixed intensity exercise  
271 ( $P<0.05$ ), with similar values across trials ( $P=0.265$ ) and between groups ( $P=0.441$ ).  
272 Similarly, RPE increased throughout the performance task ( $P<0.05$ ), but this  
273 response was independent of trial ( $P=0.174$ ) and group ( $P>0.05$ ).

274

275 Discussion:

276 This study examined whether four weeks of controlled caffeine intake influenced  
277 endurance performance in a group of recreationally active men with low-habitual  
278 caffeine intakes. The results of the present study indicate that chronic  
279 supplementation with a titrated low dose of caffeine developed tolerance to the  
280 ergogenic effect a subsequent acute caffeine dose. While these results contrast with  
281 previous studies that have examined effects of sub-chronic caffeine supplementation  
282 (Irwin et al., 2011), this is the first study to examine effects of a prolonged period of  
283 controlled caffeine intake typical of the general population (Fitt et al., 2013). This  
284 suggests that supplementation protocols in previous studies (Irwin et al., 2011) were  
285 too short to influence mechanisms that develop tolerance.

286 Previous research demonstrated caffeine prolonged time-to-exhaustion because it  
287 enhanced fat oxidation late in exercise with a subsequent sparing of muscle  
288 glycogen (Costill, Dalsky, & Fink, 1978). The results of the present study are contrary  
289 to this as substrate oxidation was not influenced either by acute or chronic caffeine  
290 supplementation. Alternatively, chronic caffeine intake could influence caffeine  
291 metabolism (Svenningsson et al., 1999). This might lead to an increase in the  
292 concentrations of paraxanthine and theophylline, caffeine's primary metabolites  
293 (Svenningsson et al., 1999). As these possess a greater affinity for adenosine  
294 receptors than caffeine (Fredholm et al., 1999), this could result in enhanced  
295 development of tolerance. However, caffeine concentrations were similar between  
296 the precaf and postcaf trials in the caffeine group (Table. 2), suggesting the  
297 habituation protocol failed to influence caffeine metabolism. Although paraxanthine  
298 and theophylline concentrations were not measured, these methylxanthines do not  
299 penetrate the blood-brain-barrier with the same efficacy as caffeine (Svenningsson  
300 et al., 1999). Therefore, any subtle change in the peripheral concentrations of these  
301 metabolites attributable to the chronic supplementation protocol is unlikely to explain  
302 the development of tolerance.

303 Serum cortisol and prolactin were assessed as these are indirect indicators of central  
304 noradrenergic (Tsigos & Chrousos, 2002) and dopaminergic (Ben-Jonathan &  
305 Hnasko, 2001) activity, respectively. Chronic caffeine supplementation did not  
306 influence the circulating concentrations of these hormones (Table. 2), suggesting  
307 that neurotransmitter release along these neural pathways does not explain the  
308 development of tolerance. Direct analysis of neurotransmitter release with  
309 microdialysis (Acquas, Tanda, & Di Chiara, 2002; De Luca, Bassareo, Bauer, & Di  
310 Chiara, 2007) and brain imaging techniques (Volkow et al., 2015) also support this

311 hypothesis. Although high acute caffeine doses increase striatal dopamine release  
312 (i.e. 30 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>; Solinas et al., 2002), lower doses (i.e. 0.25-5 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>), typically  
313 consumed by the general population (Fitt et al., 2013), have not influenced dopamine  
314 release both in rat (Acquas et al., 2002; De Luca et al., 2007) and human (Volkow et  
315 al., 2015) striatum. Therefore, an alternative mechanism is likely responsible.  
316 Chronic caffeine supplementation has been associated with changes in A<sub>2A</sub>  
317 expression across several brain regions (Svenningsson et al., 1999). However, a  
318 cross-tolerance to the A<sub>1</sub> receptor probably plays a more important role in mediating  
319 the development of tolerance (Karcz-Kubicha et al., 2003). This could involve a  
320 functional change in the striatal A<sub>1</sub>/A<sub>2A</sub> heteromer (Ciruela et al., 2006), while others  
321 have reported changes in A<sub>1</sub> receptor expression throughout the brain after chronic  
322 caffeine supplementation (Johansson et al., 1993). A recent positron emission  
323 topography study demonstrated that almost half of *in vivo* cerebral A<sub>1</sub> receptors were  
324 occupied by caffeine when participants received an intravenous dose of 4.3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>,  
325 which corresponded to a plasma concentration of ~8 µg·mL<sup>-1</sup> (Elmenhorst, Meyer,  
326 Matusch, Winz, & Bauer, 2012). Participants in the present study were habituated to  
327 daily doses of 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> from days 8 to 28, resulting in serum concentrations of  
328 approximately 3.5 µg·mL<sup>-1</sup> (Table. 2). Based on these observations, it could be that  
329 the 3 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> caffeine dose administered in the present study resulted in the  
330 occupation of approximately a quarter of cerebral A<sub>1</sub> receptors. This suggests  
331 supplementation with larger daily caffeine doses (i.e. 6-9 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>), which will  
332 ultimately occupy more A<sub>1</sub> receptors, results in accelerated and/or total development  
333 of tolerance.

334 The influence of caffeine habituation in participants is often overlooked in many  
335 studies, despite evidence which demonstrates that this influences effects after acute

336 supplementation (Bell & McLellan, 2002). To minimise this confounder, all  
337 participants in the present study were low caffeine consumers before participation.  
338 Differences in habitual caffeine consumption are associated with single nucleotide  
339 polymorphisms in the ADORA2A gene encoding for the A<sub>2A</sub> receptor (Cornelis, El-  
340 Sohemy, & Campos, 2007). These findings demonstrated individuals with the  
341 homozygous recessive (TT) genotype consumed less caffeine than their  
342 homozygous dominant (CC) counterparts (Cornelis et al., 2007). Recently, TT  
343 carriers performed better during a short performance task (10 min) than CC carriers  
344 when supplemented with an acute 5 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> caffeine dose (Loy, O'Connor,  
345 Lindheimer, & Covert, 2015). Perhaps this could explain the small between-group  
346 difference in total external work produced during the precaf trial (28.7 ± 74.8 kJ;  
347 ES=0.44), with more TT carriers present in the caffeine group. However, genotype  
348 determination was not undertaken in the present study, which limits the extent to  
349 which this relationship can be inferred.

350 Well-trained individuals produce more reliable performance data during cycle-based  
351 time-trials than their recreationally active counterparts (Zavorsky et al., 2007).  
352 However, recreationally active individuals produced a CV of 1.7% (Zavorsky et al.,  
353 2007) and 0.7% (Fleming and James, 2014) during cycle and running-based time-  
354 trials, respectively. Furthermore, similar performance tests to that in the present  
355 study had a CV of approximately 3% (Jeukendrup et al., 1996). This variability is less  
356 than the percentage increase in performance during the precaf trials (caffeine: 12.0 ±  
357 7.4%; placebo: 6.7 ± 4.2%) and the percentage decrease in performance during the  
358 postcaf trial compared with precaf in the caffeine group (-7.3 ± 6.3%). Therefore,  
359 neither the participant group nor the performance test used in the present study  
360 adversely influenced the validity of the performance data.

361 Ideally, the study design would have incorporated a post-supplementation placebo  
362 trial, hence providing a direct comparison with the postcaf trial after the chronic  
363 supplementation protocol. It was deemed difficult to implement as timing both trials  
364 to occur at the end of the supplementation period was not possible. For example,  
365 two randomised trials, undertaken seven days apart, means the supplementation  
366 period before the postcaf trial would be twenty-eight days for half the participants  
367 and thirty-five days for the remaining participants. Importantly, peak power output  
368 and maximal oxygen uptake were similar between the two  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  tests. Furthermore,  
369 heart rate and oxygen uptake during the fixed-intensity exercise was similar during  
370 all three trials. This suggests participants maintained similar fitness throughout the  
371 study period and exercise intensity was matched before the performance task during  
372 each of the experimental trials. Hence, any influence on performance during the  
373 postcaf trial in either supplementation group is likely due to participants receiving  
374 caffeine or placebo during the chronic supplementation period.

375 In conclusion, the present findings demonstrate that chronic ingestion of a titrated  
376 low dose of caffeine results in the development of tolerance in a group of healthy,  
377 recreationally active males with low-habitual caffeine intakes. This occurred despite  
378 no changes before and after supplementation in circulating caffeine, hormonal  
379 concentrations or substrate oxidation. The influence of chronic caffeine intake should  
380 be examined in well-trained individuals with low-habitual caffeine intakes. In addition,  
381 futures studies should identify when the tolerance to caffeine occurs and examine  
382 whether supplementation with larger daily doses (i.e. 6-9 mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>) influences the  
383 rate and extent of the development of tolerance.

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Table 1: Differences in total external work produced (kJ) during the experimental trials within and between supplementation groups

Treatment comparison	Mean $\pm$ SD difference and 95% confidence interval (kJ)	ES	Qualitative outcome (beneficial/trivial/harmful)
CAF			Almost certainly beneficial
Precaf-testpla	38.4 $\pm$ 19.9 (18.4 to 58.4)	0.49	(100/0/0)
Postcaf-testpla	13.1 $\pm$ 18.2 (-5.2 to 31.3)	0.16	Possibly beneficial (55/44/1)
Postcaf-precaf	-25.3 $\pm$ 21.9 (-47.3 to -3.4)	-0.31	Probably harmful (0/9/91)
PLA			Probably beneficial
Precaf-testpla	21.4 $\pm$ 13.1 (8.3 to 34.7)	0.38	(94/6/0)
Postcaf-testpla	18.7 $\pm$ 11.9 (6.8 to 30.6)	0.33	Probably beneficial (91/9/0)
Postcaf-precaf	-2.8 $\pm$ 9.8 (-12.7 to 7.1)	-0.05	Unclear (50/0/50)
Testpla			Unclear
CAF-PLA	11.8 $\pm$ 89.7 (-58.3 to 81.9)	0.17	(50/26/24)
Precaf			Unclear
CAF-PLA	28.7 $\pm$ 74.8 (-37.7 to 95.2)	0.44	(70/19/11)
Postcaf			Unclear
CAF-PLA	6.2 $\pm$ 90.7 (-68.1 to 80.5)	0.09	(43/26/30)

PLA, Placebo group; CAF, Caffeine group; ES, Cohen's *d* effect size. Qualitative outcome numbers indicate the percentage chance the true value is beneficial, trivial or harmful based on a 12 kJ difference in external work produced during the performance task. An effect was deemed unclear when the percentage chances of benefit and harm were >5%.

Table 2: Circulating caffeine, cortisol, prolactin and glucose concentrations during the experimental trials.

Variable	PLA				CAF			
	-60	0	60	90	-60	0	60	90
Caffeine ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ )								
Testpla	0.06 $\pm$ 0.07	0.06 $\pm$ 0.07	0.06 $\pm$ 0.07	0.07 $\pm$ 0.06	0.13 $\pm$ 0.07	0.08 $\pm$ 0.10	0.10 $\pm$ 0.08	0.05 $\pm$ 0.08
Precaf	0.09 $\pm$ 0.07	3.54 $\pm$ 0.59* <sup>#</sup>	3.17 $\pm$ 0.44* <sup>#</sup>	2.97 $\pm$ 0.23* <sup>#</sup>	0.28 $\pm$ 0.29	3.48 $\pm$ 0.57* <sup>#</sup>	3.40 $\pm$ 0.53* <sup>#</sup>	3.03 $\pm$ 0.56* <sup>#</sup>
Postcaf	0.10 $\pm$ 0.09	3.54 $\pm$ 0.65* <sup>#</sup>	3.22 $\pm$ 0.44* <sup>#</sup>	2.97 $\pm$ 0.55* <sup>#</sup>	0.49 $\pm$ 0.37	3.69 $\pm$ 0.60* <sup>#</sup>	3.26 $\pm$ 0.53* <sup>#</sup>	3.09 $\pm$ 0.66* <sup>#</sup>
Cortisol ( $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ )								
Testpla	131.55 $\pm$ 37.22	125.29 $\pm$ 59.77	153.22 $\pm$ 75.59	211.17 $\pm$ 90.96	115.47 $\pm$ 14.78	85.30 $\pm$ 33.50	163.73 $\pm$ 20.75*	236.10 $\pm$ 51.18*
Precaf	142.13 $\pm$ 26.85	118.00 $\pm$ 50.96	177.90 $\pm$ 86.66	227.32 $\pm$ 90.89	136.25 $\pm$ 34.27	104.55 $\pm$ 26.11	159.76 $\pm$ 46.14	225.63 $\pm$ 48.25
Postcaf	146.42 $\pm$ 33.79	122.48 $\pm$ 36.89	185.70 $\pm$ 63.54	249.50 $\pm$ 71.88	121.87 $\pm$ 42.89	80.30 $\pm$ 38.35	168.10 $\pm$ 42.36	234.73 $\pm$ 38.28*
Prolactin ( $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ )								
Testpla	8.13 $\pm$ 2.68	7.80 $\pm$ 3.16	10.01 $\pm$ 2.80	19.65 $\pm$ 4.43*	7.83 $\pm$ 3.86	7.84 $\pm$ 3.02	9.99 $\pm$ 2.79	20.53 $\pm$ 4.99*
Precaf	7.91 $\pm$ 1.78	7.43 $\pm$ 1.46	10.39 $\pm$ 2.13	19.42 $\pm$ 3.18*	7.89 $\pm$ 3.65	7.57 $\pm$ 3.31	10.23 $\pm$ 2.10	20.03 $\pm$ 5.22*
Postcaf	7.59 $\pm$ 2.50	8.78 $\pm$ 3.27	10.37 $\pm$ 1.16*	19.25 $\pm$ 3.69*	8.33 $\pm$ 3.31	7.94 $\pm$ 3.66	9.79 $\pm$ 3.06	19.68 $\pm$ 5.06*
Glucose ( $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ )								
Testpla	4.17 $\pm$ 0.27	4.18 $\pm$ 0.38	4.45 $\pm$ 0.51	4.71 $\pm$ 0.82	4.26 $\pm$ 0.28	4.21 $\pm$ 0.35	4.50 $\pm$ 0.39	5.03 $\pm$ 0.57
Precaf	4.10 $\pm$ 0.30	4.10 $\pm$ 0.35	4.52 $\pm$ 0.51	4.99 $\pm$ 1.03	4.19 $\pm$ 0.42	4.21 $\pm$ 0.35	4.49 $\pm$ 0.32	5.35 $\pm$ 0.77
Postcaf	4.18 $\pm$ 0.22	4.22 $\pm$ 0.17	4.70 $\pm$ 0.48	5.06 $\pm$ 0.75	4.41 $\pm$ 0.39	4.25 $\pm$ 0.25	4.57 $\pm$ 0.37	5.32 $\pm$ 0.76

Values are mean  $\pm$  SD. PLA, Placebo group; CAF, Caffeine group. \*denotes a within-trial significant difference ( $P < 0.05$ ) compared with -60. <sup>#</sup>denotes a significant difference ( $P < 0.05$ ) compared with the corresponding time point in the testpla trial. There were no significant trial x group ( $P > 0.552$ ), time x group ( $P > 0.443$ ) or trial x time x group ( $P > 0.512$ ) interactions for any variable.

Table 3: Mean heart rate, RPE and substrate oxidation during the experimental trials.

Variable	testpla	precaf	postcaf	<i>P</i>
Heart rate (beats·min <sup>-1</sup> ), fixed				
PLA	146 ± 7	145 ± 7	145 ± 8	0.312
CAF	145 ± 6	144 ± 7	146 ± 7	
Heart rate (beats·min <sup>-1</sup> ), PT				
PLA	167 ± 13	172 ± 12*	172 ± 12*	0.034
CAF	169 ± 9	177 ± 5*	171 ± 9†	
RPE, fixed				
PLA	12.7 ± 0.3	12.1 ± 0.8	11.9 ± 1.2	0.219
CAF	12.9 ± 1.2	12.7 ± 1.1	13.0 ± 1.1	
RPE, PT				
PLA	15.8 ± 0.8	15.8 ± 1.0	15.6 ± 1.3	0.478
CAF	16.4 ± 1.0	16.8 ± 1.3	16.6 ± 0.9	
CHO Ox (g·min <sup>-1</sup> )				
PLA	2.02 ± 0.09	2.07 ± 0.05	1.97 ± 0.10	0.871
CAF	2.25 ± 0.09	2.37 ± 0.09	2.16 ± 0.21	
Fat Ox (g·min <sup>-1</sup> )				
PLA	0.40 ± 0.06	0.38 ± 0.04	0.42 ± 0.05	0.794
CAF	0.32 ± 0.05	0.29 ± 0.06	0.37 ± 0.09	
RER				
PLA	0.90 ± 0.01	0.90 ± 0.01	0.89 ± 0.01	0.882
CAF	0.92 ± 0.01	0.92 ± 0.01	0.91 ± 0.02	
VO <sub>2</sub> (L·min <sup>-1</sup> )				
PLA	2.32 ± 0.06	2.30 ± 0.06	2.30 ± 0.09	0.472
CAF	2.31 ± 0.04	2.34 ± 0.06	2.34 ± 0.04	

Values are mean ± SD. PLA, Placebo group; CAF, Caffeine group; CHO Ox, carbohydrate oxidation; Fat Ox, fat oxidation; RER, respiratory exchange ratio; VO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub> consumption; RPE, rating of perceived exertion. Fixed, values recorded during the fixed-intensity exercise; PT, values recorded during the performance task. *P* values are derived from trial x group interactions. \*denotes a within-group significant difference (*P*<0.05) compared with testpla. †denotes a within-group comparison (*P*=0.061) to precaf.

## Figure Captions

Fig. 1: Schematic of the study design

Fig. 2: Total external work produced (kJ) during the experimental trials (A) and individual responses by participants in the placebo (B) and caffeine (C) supplementation group, respectively. A: Trial x group interaction ( $P=0.017$ ). \* and # denote a within-group significant difference ( $P<0.05$ ) compared with testpla and precaf, respectively.



