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1 **Title:**

2 Pectin-alginate does not further enhance exogenous carbohydrate oxidation in running.

3

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12 **Author Contributions:**

13 JFPB, JTG, GAW and JAB designed the research, JFPB, JT, AH, JTG and BN conducted the
14 research, JFPB and JTG analyzed the data, JTG performed the statistical analysis, JFPB and JTG
15 primarily wrote the paper and all authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

16

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21

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23 Hydrogel and exogenous carbohydrate oxidation

24

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27

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31 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

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37 Inc. and Volac International Ltd.

38 **ABSTRACT**

39 **PURPOSE:** Maximizing carbohydrate availability is important for many endurance events.
40 Combining pectin and sodium alginate with ingested maltodextrin-fructose
41 (MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG) has been suggested to enhance carbohydrate delivery via hydrogel
42 formation but the influence on exogenous carbohydrate oxidation remains unknown. The primary
43 aim of this study was to assess the effects of MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG on exogenous carbohydrate
44 oxidation during exercise compared to a maltodextrin-fructose mixture (MAL+FRU). MAL+FRU
45 has been well established to increase exogenous carbohydrate oxidation during cycling, compared to
46 glucose-based carbohydrates (MAL+GLU). However, much evidence focuses on cycling, and direct
47 evidence in running is lacking. Therefore, a secondary aim was to compare exogenous carbohydrate
48 oxidation rates with MAL+FRU *versus* MAL+GLU during running. **METHODS:** Nine trained
49 runners completed two trials (MAL+FRU and MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG) in a double-blind,
50 randomised crossover design. A subset (n=7) also completed a MAL+GLU trial to address the
51 secondary aim, and a water trial to establish background expired $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ enrichment. Participants ran
52 at 60% $\dot{V}\text{O}_2\text{peak}$ for 120 min while ingesting either water only, or carbohydrate solutions at a rate of
53 1.5 g carbohydrate $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$. **RESULTS:** At the end of 120 min of exercise, exogenous carbohydrate
54 oxidation rates were 0.9 (SD 0.5) g $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ with MAL+GLU ingestion. MAL+FRU ingestion increased
55 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates to 1.1 (SD 0.3) g $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ($p=0.038$), with no further increase
56 with MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG ingestion (1.1 (SD 0.3) g $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$; $p=1.0$). No time x treatment interaction
57 effects were observed for plasma glucose, lactate, insulin or non-esterified fatty acids, nor for ratings
58 of perceived exertion or gastrointestinal symptoms (all $p>0.05$). **CONCLUSION:** To maximise
59 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation during moderate-intensity running, athletes may benefit from
60 consuming glucose(polymer)-fructose mixtures over glucose-based carbohydrates alone, but the
61 addition of pectin and sodium alginate offers no further benefit.

62 INTRODUCTION

63 Carbohydrate availability is a key determinant of endurance exercise performance. Low muscle and
64 liver glycogen concentrations are strongly associated with fatigue during prolonged, moderate-to-
65 high intensity exercise (1, 2). The ingestion of carbohydrate during exercise provides an additional
66 (exogenous) source of carbohydrate, which can prevent or attenuate the decline in liver (3), and
67 sometimes muscle (4, 5), glycogen contents. Increasing exogenous carbohydrate oxidation via
68 altering the dose or type of carbohydrates ingested can improve endurance performance (6-9).
69 Strategies to maximise the ability to digest, absorb and oxidise ingested carbohydrate are therefore a
70 priority for endurance athletes during competition.

71

72 One well-established strategy for increasing exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates during exercise,
73 is the co-ingestion of glucose-fructose mixtures (10-12). When compared to glucose-based
74 carbohydrates alone, isocaloric co-ingestion of fructose with glucose-based carbohydrates typically
75 increases peak exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates from $\sim 1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ to up to $\sim 1.7 \text{ g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ (13),
76 which is thought to be (in part) due to fructose being absorbed by an additional intestinal transport
77 route (GLUT5), and thereby bypassing the limiting step of intestinal glucose transport (primarily
78 SGLT1)(14). A recent innovation in commercial carbohydrate sports drinks is the inclusion of pectin
79 and sodium alginate alongside maltodextrin and fructose (15). When combined with water, this
80 mixture can create a hydrogel upon exposure to a low pH environment such as the stomach (16). It is
81 hypothesized that the hydrogel will allow for greater rates of gastric emptying via a reduction in
82 nutrient sensing and thus increase intestinal carbohydrate delivery and absorption, thereby facilitating
83 improvements in endurance performance (15). Whilst some evidence does indicate that the addition
84 of pectin could accelerate gastric emptying during enteral feeding (17), other studies that have added
85 either pectin to a meal (18) or alginate to meal preloads (19) demonstrate that each of these can *delay*
86 gastric emptying at rest.

87

88 To date, only two studies have been conducted in which ingesting carbohydrate hydrogel has been
89 compared to typical carbohydrate ingestion during exercise. These recent studies indicate no benefit
90 to preloaded incremental time-to-exhaustion during running, or preloaded repeated sprint cycling
91 performance with the ingestion of a maltodextrin-fructose-hydrogel, over maltodextrin-fructose alone
92 (16, 20). It is possible, however, for hydrogels to only be relevant in specific contexts, such as when
93 gastric emptying and carbohydrate availability are both contributing to limiting performance. This
94 scenario may occur with high exercise intensities ($>80\% \dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$), combined with a prolonged
95 duration (>90 min), such as elite marathon racing. Methodological limitations mean that it is not yet
96 possible to accurately assess exogenous carbohydrate oxidation at such intensities. Therefore, the
97 current best approach to understand the physiology of carbohydrate hydrogels is likely to be to
98 understand the metabolic responses at moderate-intensity exercise, combined with performance and
99 gut comfort responses at race pace. This approach has been historically fruitful, as the primary
100 principles of glucose-fructose mixtures were developed with data collected at moderate-intensity
101 exercise (12), and have translated well into performances during high-intensity exercise (21). It is yet
102 to be established whether a maltodextrin-fructose-hydrogel can enhance exogenous carbohydrate
103 oxidation during exercise. It is also interesting to note that direct comparisons of exogenous
104 carbohydrate oxidation from glucose plus fructose ingestion *versus* glucose alone have, to date, only
105 been made during cycling-based exercise (13, 22). Given the substantial metabolic differences and
106 the potential for differences in gastrointestinal function with the mechanical action of running
107 compared to cycling (23), evidence derived from cycling cannot necessarily be extrapolated to
108 running.

109

110 Therefore, the primary aim of the present study was to assess whether the addition of sodium alginate
111 and pectin to a maltodextrin-fructose mixture enhances exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates
112 during running. A secondary aim was to assess whether a maltodextrin-fructose mixture enhances
113 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates during running, when compared to isocaloric ingestion of

114 glucose-based carbohydrates alone. It was hypothesized that a maltodextrin-fructose mixture would
115 enhance exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates compared to maltodextrin-glucose ingestion, and
116 that the addition of sodium alginate and pectin to a maltodextrin-fructose mixture would further
117 increase exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates.

118

119 **METHODS**

120 *Study design*

121 All participants completed preliminary testing followed by two main trials to address the primary
122 aim, in a randomised, double-blind, crossover design separated by 7-14 days ($n=9$). During main
123 trials, participants ingested a maltodextrin-fructose mixture either without (MAL+FRU), or with
124 pectin and sodium alginate to create a hydrogel (MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG). Trials were conducted at
125 the University of Bath, in accordance with the latest version of the Declaration of Helsinki and
126 following institutional ethical approval (MSES 18/19-001). Participants provided informed written
127 consent prior to participation. Randomisation was performed by JTG with online software
128 (<https://www.randomizer.org>). Blinding and preparation of the test drinks was performed by an
129 assistant who was not involved in the exercise tests.

130

131 Two subgroups of participants ($n=7$) also completed an additional trial with the ingestion of either
132 glucose-based carbohydrates alone (MAL+GLU) or water alone (WATER) to address the secondary
133 aim and to determine background $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ breath enrichment for calculation of exogenous carbohydrate
134 oxidation rates, respectively.

135

136 *Participants*

137 Ten trained male runners were recruited to the study (>1 year training in endurance running), but due
138 to dropouts nine participants completed the two main trials (MAL+FRU and
139 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG), and seven participants completed the MAL+GLU and the WATER trial,

140 respectively (**Table 1**). Exclusion criteria included: metabolic or gastrointestinal disorders, smokers
141 or failure to pass a physical activity readiness questionnaire. Females were excluded on the rationale
142 of studying a homogenous population, since there are potential sex differences in gastric emptying
143 (24).

144

145 *Preliminary testing*

146 Participants' height (Leicester Height Measure, Seca GmbH, Hamburg, Germany) and mass (Tanita,
147 Tokyo, Japan) were measured. To determine running economy and peak oxygen consumption
148 ($\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$), participants completed a graded exercise test to exhaustion on a motorised treadmill
149 (Ergo ELG70, Woodway, Weil am Rhein, Germany). Participants initially ran for 4 x 4 mins on a
150 0% gradient to establish the relationship between O_2 uptake and running speed ($8\text{-}12\text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) on a flat
151 treadmill. Following a 5-minute rest, participants then began the exhaustive test, whereby the
152 treadmill speed was fixed (at a speed based on participants perception in the 4-minute stages), and
153 the gradient was increased by 3% every 3 minutes, starting from a 1% gradient, until volitional
154 exhaustion. The running speed which elicited 60% $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ was interpolated and used for
155 prescribing running velocity during the experimental visits.

156

157 *Replication of usual diet and physical activity*

158 The approach to replication of usual diet and physical activity was based on the balance between
159 reducing day-to-day variability whilst minimizing participant burden (25). Participants recorded diet
160 and exercise for 2 days prior to the first experimental trial and replicated these prior to subsequent
161 trials. During this time, participants refrained from consuming foods with a high natural abundance
162 of ^{13}C to minimise background shifts in ^{13}C enrichment of expired gas arising from endogenous
163 carbohydrate stores being oxidized during exercise. For 24 h prior to each visit, participants refrained
164 from strenuous exercise, caffeine and alcohol. Participants also fasted for 8 h prior to each
165 experimental visit. Participants were reminded of these protocols 5 days and 3 days prior to trials.

166 Participants were also reminded of the fasting period 24 hours prior to trials. Adherence to these
167 protocols was confirmed verbally with participants prior to each trial. This relatively modest method
168 was thought to be appropriate for the current study design as the primary outcome measure
169 (exogenous carbohydrate oxidation) has been shown to be unaffected by pre-exercise glycogen status
170 (26), that would be influenced by dietary carbohydrate intake and physical activity levels.

171

172 *Main trials*

173 Participants arrived at the laboratory following pre-trial standardisation (confirmed by verbal
174 questioning) and at a similar time of day within participants (± 1 h). After a 5-min flush period (to
175 washout dead space in tubing and familiarise participants), a 5-min sample of expired breath was
176 taken using the Douglas bag method, and an additional breath sample was collected into an exetainer
177 for analysis of ^{13}C enrichment. A cannula was then inserted into an antecubital vein and a resting
178 blood sample was drawn. Participants then ran for 2 h at a speed eliciting 60% $\dot{V}\text{O}_2\text{peak}$. The run
179 was performed in standard environmental conditions (17-22 °C dry bulb temperature, 40-65% relative
180 humidity), and participants were fan cooled throughout.

181

182 *Carbohydrate drinks*

183 On all trials other than the WATER trial, participants ingested 140 mL of a 16% w/v solution upon
184 initiating running, and then every 15 min until 105 min providing an average intake of 1.5 g
185 carbohydrate $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$. The rate of carbohydrate intake was chosen to align with guidelines for prolonged
186 exercise. As the solution concentration may affect the ability to form a hydrogel in the stomach this
187 meant that fluid intake could not be tailored to expected sweat losses. This may have resulted in a
188 slight hypohydration on all trials. The MAL+GLU drink provided 0.87 g maltodextrin $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ and 0.63
189 g dextrose $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, whereas both the MAL+FRU and MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG drinks provided 0.87 g
190 maltodextrin $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ and 0.63 g fructose $\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$. The ratio of fructose/glucose to maltodextrin was
191 dictated by that present in the commercially available product at the time of testing. Systematic

192 review indicates that a ratio closer to unity might be more optimal for balancing exogenous oxidation,
193 gut comfort, and performance (14). MAL+GLU and MAL+FRU had 1 g sodium chloride·L⁻¹ added
194 to match the MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG drink. Consistent with manufacturer's instructions, all drinks
195 were made with low-calcium water (<40 mg·L⁻¹).

196

197 In order to quantify exogenous carbohydrate oxidation, carbohydrates with a high natural abundance
198 of ¹³C were used. The natural ¹³C abundance of the MAL+GLU, MAL+FRU and
199 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG were -11.37, -11.20 and -11.86 ‰ vs. Pee Dee Bellemnitella (PDB),
200 respectively. Maltodextrin, dextrose (both MyProtein, Cheshire, UK) and fructose (PeakSupps,
201 Bridgend, UK) were purchased as raw materials and mixed accordingly while the
202 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG, was purchased as a commercially available finished product (Maurten,
203 Gothenburg, Sweden).

204

205 *Expired breath analysis*

206 Expired breath samples were analyzed using the Douglas bag method to establish rates of oxygen
207 consumption and carbon dioxide production. At rest, a 5-min sample was collected after a 5-min
208 equilibration period. During exercise, 1-min samples were taken after 1-min equilibration periods.
209 Concurrently, ambient O₂ and CO₂ concentrations were measured to account for changes in inspired
210 gas concentrations (27). Concentrations of O₂ and CO₂ were measured in a known volume of sample
211 (Mini MP 5200, Servomex Ltd., Crowborough, UK), and the total volume of expired gas determined
212 by evacuation using a dry gas meter (Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, USA). To determine ¹³C
213 enrichment of expired CO₂, breath samples were collected in 10 mL exetainers (Labco Ltd, Lampeter,
214 UK), filled in duplicate by 10 s exhalation into a discard bag (Quintron Inc, Milwaukee, USA). At
215 rest, participants exhaled for 20 s to ensure sufficient collection of expired gas.

216

217 Whole-body substrate oxidation was calculated from $\dot{V}O_2$ and $\dot{V}CO_2$ according to stoichiometric
218 equations (28, 29). The $^{13}C/^{12}C$ ratio of expired CO_2 was determined by continuous flow isotope ratio
219 mass spectrometry, and the enrichment expressed as δ per mil difference between the $^{13}C/^{12}C$ ratio of
220 the sample and a known standard (30). The $\delta^{13}C$ was related to an international standard from which
221 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation was calculated according to the following equation (31):

222

$$223 \quad \text{Exogenous carbohydrate oxidation} = \dot{V}CO_2 \cdot \left(\frac{\delta_{Exp} - \delta_{EXP_{bkg}}}{\delta_{Ing} - \delta_{EXP_{bkg}}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{k} \right)$$

224

225 Where δ_{Exp} is the ^{13}C enrichment of expired CO_2 , δ_{Ing} is the ^{13}C enrichment of the drink, and
226 $\delta_{EXP_{bkg}}$ is the ^{13}C enrichment of expired CO_2 during the WATER trial. For participants who did not
227 complete a WATER trial, the group mean of the other participants was used for $\delta_{EXP_{bkg}}$. k is the
228 $\dot{V}CO_2$ with the oxidation of 1 g of glucose ($0.7467 \text{ L } CO_2 \cdot g^{-1}$).

229

230 Some ^{13}C can be trapped within the bicarbonate pool with implications for the quantification of
231 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation. However, during exercise, the increase in CO_2 production results
232 in a rapid equilibration of expired $^{13}CO_2$ with the $^{13}CO_2/H^{13}CO_3^-$ pool and recovery of $^{13}CO_2$ from
233 oxidation approaches 100% after 20 min of exercise at $\sim 60\% \dot{V}O_{2peak}$ (unpublished observations).
234 Therefore, calculations on substrate oxidation were performed on data from 30 mins of exercise
235 onwards.

236

237 *Blood sampling and analysis*

238 Venous blood samples (10 mL) were taken at rest and at 15, 30, 60, 90 and 120 min of exercise.
239 Samples were collected into EDTA-containing tubes (Sarstedt, Germany) and centrifuged for 10 min
240 at 4000 g and 4 °C. Aliquots of plasma were stored at -80 °C before analysis. Due to cost implications,
241 only blood samples from the trials that related to the primary aim were analyzed (MAL+FRU and

242 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG trials). Plasma was analyzed for glucose and lactate using an automated
243 analyzer (RX Daytona, Randox, UK). Insulin (IBL International, Hamburg, Germany), and non-
244 esterified fatty acid concentrations (NEFA, WAKO Diagnostics, Richmond, VA) were analyzed by
245 ELISA and colorimetric assays, respectively. For all analyses, intra- and inter-assay coefficients of
246 variation were below 10%.

247

248 *Subjective ratings*

249 Ratings of gastrointestinal distress were measured on a 7-point scale adapted from the
250 Gastrointestinal Symptoms Rating Scale (GSRS; (32)). Four questions related to upper, three to
251 central, and two to lower gastrointestinal symptoms. The GSRS has adequate internal consistence (α
252 > 0.61), construct and discriminant validity, and is suitable for comparisons over 6 weeks (32). Since
253 these ratings are subjective and cannot therefore be readily compared between groups of people, only
254 data for the primary comparison (MAL+FRU vs MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG) are presented.

255

256 *Statistical analysis*

257 An *a priori* sample size estimate was performed based on the effect size (Cohen's d) of exogenous
258 carbohydrate oxidation rates in response to glucose-fructose co-ingestion compared to glucose alone
259 based on the following equations:

260

$$261 \quad d = \frac{\text{mean}_{\text{experimental}} - \text{mean}_{\text{control}}}{\text{SD}_{\text{pooled}}}$$

262 where

$$263 \quad \text{SD}_{\text{pooled}} = \sqrt{\frac{(n_{\text{control}} - 1)\text{SD}_{\text{control}}^2 + (n_{\text{experimental}} - 1)\text{SD}_{\text{experimental}}^2}{n_{\text{control}} + n_{\text{experimental}} - 2}}$$

264

265 Peak exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates from glucose ingestion alone have been reported to be
266 1.06 (SD 0.11) $\text{g} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$, compared to 1.75 (SD 0.31) $\text{g} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ with glucose-fructose co-ingestion (n

267 = 8, in a crossover design)(12). Using this effect size ($d = 2.49$), 5 participants should provide power
268 >95% to detect a difference with a two-tailed test and an α -level of 0.05. To ensure adequate power
269 with the potential for dropouts, we aimed to recruit at least 7 participants.

270

271 Data were analyzed using Prism (v 8.2.1, GraphPad, San Diego, CA, USA) and SPSS (v24, IBM,
272 Armonk, NY, USA). Data expressed over time (e.g. expired $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ enrichment, exogenous
273 carbohydrate oxidation rates, $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$, $\dot{V}\text{CO}_2$, RER, plasma metabolite and hormone concentrations,
274 RPE, and gastrointestinal symptom ratings) were analyzed by repeated measures ANOVA or mixed-
275 effects model as appropriate. Summary statistics (e.g. peak exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates,
276 the percentage contribution of substrates to total energy expenditure) were analyzed by one-way
277 ANOVA or two-tailed, paired t -tests with Bonferroni correction, as appropriate. An exploratory
278 analysis was performed to assess whether baseline differences in NEFA concentrations were driving
279 differences in whole-body substrate use by ANCOVA analysis on whole-body fat oxidation rates
280 with baseline plasma NEFA concentrations as the covariate. Furthermore, data were checked for
281 order effects by repeated measures ANOVA (trial order x time interaction) and one-way ANOVA
282 (trial order) as appropriate. All data are expressed as means (SD) in the text and tables, and as means
283 \pm 95%CI in figures, other than subjective data, which are presented as medians \pm 95%CI. Differences
284 were considered significant if $p \leq 0.05$.

285

286 **RESULTS**

287 *Substrate oxidation and gas exchange*

288 No order effects were detected for either expired $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ enrichments (trial order: $p = 0.59$; trial order
289 x time interaction effect: $p = 1.0$) or exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates (trial order: $p = 0.61$;
290 trial order x time interaction effect: $p = 1.0$). Furthermore, no order effects were detected for the total
291 amount of fat ($p = 0.62$), endogenous carbohydrate ($p = 0.38$), or exogenous carbohydrate oxidised
292 ($p = 0.93$). Expired $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ enrichments increased during exercise (time effect, $p < 0.001$), and were

293 higher during MAL+FRU compared to MAL+GLU (treatment effect, $p < 0.001$, *post-hoc* comparison
294 $p < 0.001$), with no further increase seen with MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG compared to MAL+FRU ($p =$
295 0.11 ; **Figure 1A**). Differences across time were detected between the WATER trial and the
296 carbohydrate drink treatments (time x treatment interaction, $p < 0.001$). Exogenous carbohydrate
297 oxidation rates increased over time (time effect, $p < 0.001$), and to a greater extent with both of the
298 fructose-containing drinks compared to MAL+GLU (time x treatment interaction, $p < 0.001$; **Figure**
299 **1B**). At the end of exercise, exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates were higher with MAL+FRU,
300 compared to MAL+GLU ($p = 0.04$), but not further increased by MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG ($p = 1.0$).
301 The exogenous oxidation rate expressed relative to ingestion rate at this timepoint equated to 59 (SD
302 19)%, 70 (SD 19)%, and 71 (SD 21)% with MAL+GLU, MAL+FRU MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG,
303 respectively. Peak exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates were 0.92 (SD 0.29) $\text{g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, 1.08 (SD
304 0.26) $\text{g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ and 1.11 (SD 0.31) $\text{g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ with MAL+GLU, MAL+FRU MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG,
305 respectively (all $p > 0.05$).

306
307 During MAL+GLU and MAL+FRU trials, fat oxidation was 234 (SD 50) $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ and 165 (SD 83)
308 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ respectively ($p = 0.14$). Fat oxidation was 255 (SD 120) $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ during the
309 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG trial, which was higher than MAL+FRU ($p = 0.04$). During MAL+GLU and
310 MAL+FRU trials, endogenous carbohydrate oxidation was 525 (SD 89) $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ and 530 (SD 99)
311 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ respectively ($p = 0.93$). During the MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG endogenous carbohydrate
312 oxidation was lower compared to MAL+FRU (434 (SD 112) $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, $p = 0.05$). During MAL+GLU,
313 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation was 165 (SD 60) $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$. MAL+FRU increased exogenous
314 carbohydrate oxidation to 201 (SD 66) $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ($p = 0.05$), with no further increase from
315 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG ingestion (193 (SD 66) $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$; $p = 0.66$).

316
317 When expressed as the contribution to total energy expenditure, fat oxidation contributed ~20-25%
318 of total energy expenditure during MAL+GLU and MAL+FRU trials and increased to ~30% of total

319 energy expenditure during MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG ($p = 0.02$; **Figure 2**). However, this increase in
320 fat oxidation as a contribution to total energy expenditure between MAL+FRU and
321 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG (mean difference: 10.7%, 95%CI: 0.2 to 21.1%), did not remain after
322 baseline NEFA concentrations were added as a covariate (adjusted mean difference: 7.8%, 95%CI: -
323 0.6 to 16.1%, $p = 0.07$). Endogenous carbohydrate oxidation contributed ~60% of total energy
324 expenditure during MAL+GLU and MAL+FRU trials, and decreased to ~50% of total energy
325 expenditure during MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG ($p = 0.03$; **Figure 2**). Exogenous carbohydrate oxidation
326 contributed ~18% of total energy expenditure during MAL+GLU, and increased to ~22% of total
327 energy expenditure during MAL+FRU ($p = 0.05$; **Figure 2**). Exogenous carbohydrate oxidation was
328 not further increased with MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG compared to MAL+FRU ($p = 0.71$; **Figure 2**).

329

330 $\dot{V}O_2$, $\dot{V}CO_2$ and RER all displayed main effects of time (all $p < 0.05$), but no treatment effects were
331 detected (all $p > 0.29$; $p = 0.08$ for RER), and no differences over time were detected (time x treatment
332 interaction effects, all $p > 0.45$; **Figure 3**).

333

334 *Plasma insulin and metabolite concentrations*

335 Plasma glucose, lactate and insulin concentrations all rose slightly at the onset of exercise (time effect
336 for all, $p < 0.01$), to a similar extent across time in both MAL+FRU and MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG
337 trials (treatment effect and time x treatment interaction, all $p > 0.20$; **Figures 4A, 4B and 4C**,
338 respectively). Plasma NEFA concentrations were ~0.13 mmol·L⁻¹ higher at baseline in the
339 MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG trial compared to the MAL+FRU trial ($p = 0.03$; **Figure 4D**). During
340 exercise, plasma NEFA concentrations declined (time effect, $p < 0.001$), to a similar level across time
341 in both trials (treatment effect and time x treatment interaction, both $p = 0.12$).

342

343 *Subjective ratings*

344 RPE, upper, central and lower gastrointestinal symptom ratings all increased throughout exercise
345 (time effect, all $p < 0.01$), to a similar extent across time in both trials (treatment effect and time x
346 treatment interaction, all $p > 0.07$; **Figures 5A, 5B, 5C and 5D**, respectively).

347

348 **DISCUSSION**

349 The present data demonstrate that, when ingesting carbohydrates at 90 g per hour during running, the
350 addition of pectin and sodium alginate to ingested glucose-fructose does not further enhance
351 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates, when compared to a glucose-fructose mixture alone.
352 However, ingestion of glucose-fructose mixture can enhance exogenous carbohydrate oxidation
353 during running, when compared to isocaloric ingestion of glucose-based carbohydrates alone.

354

355 Maximizing carbohydrate availability during exercise is a key goal for many endurance athletes (22).

356 A novel nutrient blend of sodium alginate and pectin, combined with a maltodextrin-fructose mixture
357 has recently been developed, and has been proposed to further enhance exogenous carbohydrate
358 oxidation during exercise (15). This combination purports to produce a hydrogel when exposed to the
359 acidic environment of the stomach, thereby encapsulating the carbohydrate (15). It is expected that
360 this hydrogel may attenuate the reduction in gastric emptying rates seen with large amounts of
361 carbohydrate ingestion, thereby facilitating high exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates during
362 exercise. To the best of the authors' knowledge, there are currently only two randomised, controlled
363 trials that have examined the effects of co-ingesting pectin and sodium alginate with carbohydrates
364 during exercise. Both of these studies demonstrated no changes in whole-body metabolism, ratings
365 of gut discomfort or perception of effort, or performance during running (16), or cycling (20).

366 Consistent with this, we also observed no differences in ratings of gut discomfort or perception of
367 effort. However, it is possible that increased exogenous carbohydrate availability above that seen
368 with maltodextrin-fructose mixtures only enhances performance during very specific contexts.

369 Therefore, further insight about the potential for this nutritional strategy to influence performance

370 could be gained from establishing whether pectin and sodium alginate co-ingestion with carbohydrate
371 affects exogenous carbohydrate oxidation.

372

373 In the present study, exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates were not further increased by the co-
374 ingestion of pectin and sodium alginate with a maltodextrin-fructose mixture, compared to a
375 maltodextrin-fructose mixture alone. If the mechanism by which pectin and alginate are proposed to
376 enhance carbohydrate delivery is via accelerating gastric emptying, then the lack of effect on
377 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation is perhaps not surprising, as gastric emptying rates are not thought
378 to be limiting to exogenous carbohydrate oxidation when large amounts of carbohydrate are ingested
379 during exercise (33). These data demonstrate that there is no increase in exogenous carbohydrate
380 availability with the co-ingestion of alginate and pectin with a maltodextrin-fructose mixture, and
381 thereby can explain why recent studies have demonstrated a lack of effect on endurance performance
382 (16, 20).

383

384 It is well-established that the co-ingestion of fructose with glucose can enhance exogenous
385 carbohydrate oxidation rates during cycling-based exercise, when compared to the co-ingestion of
386 glucose-based carbohydrates alone (13, 34). However, the ability to extrapolate findings from cycling
387 to other modes of exercise is uncertain. When compared to cycling, running typically results in higher
388 rates of fat oxidation and a concomitant decrease in whole-body carbohydrate oxidation rates (35,
389 36). Furthermore, running is thought to pose a greater mechanical stress on the gastrointestinal
390 system, potentially altering the capacity for intestinal absorption and thus limiting the rate of
391 digestion, absorption and oxidation of exogenous carbohydrate (35). Nevertheless, the only direct
392 comparison to date of prolonged running *versus* cycling reported equivalent exogenous carbohydrate
393 oxidation rates with the ingestion of a glucose-fructose mixture (35). However, in that study,
394 participants exercised at the same relative intensity during both trials (60% $\dot{V}O_2$ peak), resulting in a
395 ~5% higher absolute exercise intensity (based on oxygen consumption and energy expenditure) with

396 running *versus* cycling (35). The higher absolute energy cost of exercise could have driven a higher
397 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rate in the running trial and offset any potential reduction in
398 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates seen with running. Therefore, whilst the present data
399 demonstrate that a glucose-fructose mixture can increase exogenous carbohydrate oxidation during
400 running, it remains to be established whether running *versus* cycling alters the efficiency or capacity
401 for digestion, absorption and oxidation of exogenous carbohydrate.

402

403 Unexpectedly, during the trial where pectin and sodium alginate were co-ingested with a
404 maltodextrin-fructose mixture, we observed a higher rate of fat oxidation compared to ingestion of a
405 maltodextrin-fructose mixture alone. Since there was no change in exogenous carbohydrate
406 oxidation, this resulted in a reduction in endogenous carbohydrate oxidation. It is tempting to
407 speculate that this could be a direct effect of the test drink. For example, it has been suggested that
408 hydrogels may attenuate nutrient-sensing in the proximal gastrointestinal tract (15), which would
409 result in higher gastric emptying rates and lower insulin secretion (37). However, plasma insulin
410 concentrations were unaffected by the addition of pectin and sodium alginate to carbohydrate in the
411 present study. Additionally, a baseline difference was observed in plasma NEFA concentrations,
412 which was higher in the MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG trial. Elevated baseline NEFA is one possible
413 explanation for the higher whole-body fat oxidation in that trial (38). Indeed, when baseline NEFA
414 concentrations are added as a covariate, the difference in fat oxidation between trials is no longer
415 statistically significant. The reasons for this baseline difference in NEFA concentrations are not clear.
416 Whilst participants were asked to replicate diet and activity in the days before trials, this was only
417 checked by verbal confirmation, and it is possible that this was not fully adhered to. Differences in
418 carbohydrate intake and/or physical activity levels could have caused baseline glycogen
419 concentrations to be lower in the MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG trial. Fortunately, this is unlikely to have
420 implications for our primary and secondary aims, as exercising with low glycogen contents does not
421 alter exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates (26). This highlights the importance of considering pre-

422 trial standardization with respect to the specific aims and methods of a study. If a study design
423 requires tighter control of pre-exercise carbohydrate availability, then researchers should consider
424 requesting participants to report back on the accuracy of diet and physical activity replication and/or
425 provide food packages to facilitate adherence (25).

426

427 A potential limitation with the present study is that it was not confirmed whether the addition of
428 pectin and sodium alginate to carbohydrate resulted in hydrogel formation within the stomach or
429 therefore altered gastric emptying. Nevertheless, the product was made accordingly to manufacturer's
430 instructions, and this method has been recently shown to produce a hydrogel within a low pH
431 environment *in vitro* (16). Furthermore, the measurement of exogenous carbohydrate oxidation
432 encapsulates the integrated sum of gastric emptying, intestinal absorption and oxidation of the
433 ingested carbohydrate. Therefore, if a carbohydrate hydrogel is to enhance carbohydrate delivery and
434 thereby performance, an increase in exogenous carbohydrate oxidation is most likely a requirement.
435 Whilst the study was powered for the outcome of exogenous carbohydrate oxidation with the
436 specified comparisons, the relatively small sample size has the potential to be underpowered for some
437 of our other outcome measures reported. Inadequate power for some outcomes has the potential to
438 result in either a type II error (false negative), but also overestimate the true effect size when an effect
439 is detected. It should also be acknowledged that the exercise intensity employed in the present study
440 is not relevant to elite-level marathon running, which occurs at $\sim 90\% \dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ (39). Given the
441 differences in gastric emptying rates at high- *versus* moderate-intensity exercise (40), it is not possible
442 to directly extrapolate the findings of the present study to exercise intensities above $\sim 80\% \dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$.
443 However, the measurement of exogenous carbohydrate oxidation also becomes problematic at high
444 exercise intensities, and therefore it is unlikely that measurements of exogenous carbohydrate
445 oxidation can be made at elite-level marathon race with the current methods available.

446

447 In conclusion, when carbohydrates are ingested at rates recommended for prolonged endurance-type
448 exercise (*i.e.* 90 grams per hour), maltodextrin-fructose mixtures increase exogenous carbohydrate
449 oxidation compared to the ingestion of glucose-based carbohydrates alone. The additional ingestion
450 of pectin and sodium alginate with a maltodextrin-fructose mixture does not further increase
451 exogenous carbohydrate oxidation, or alter the perception of effort or ratings of gastrointestinal
452 symptoms during moderate-intensity running. Given the technical difficulties in assessing exogenous
453 carbohydrate oxidation at exercise intensities reflective of elite marathon racing, decisions on the use
454 of hydrogels in elite sport should be based on the total balance of evidence from mechanistic studies
455 at moderate-intensity exercise, performance studies at race pace, combined with careful observations
456 in elite athletes during hard training and racing.

457

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467

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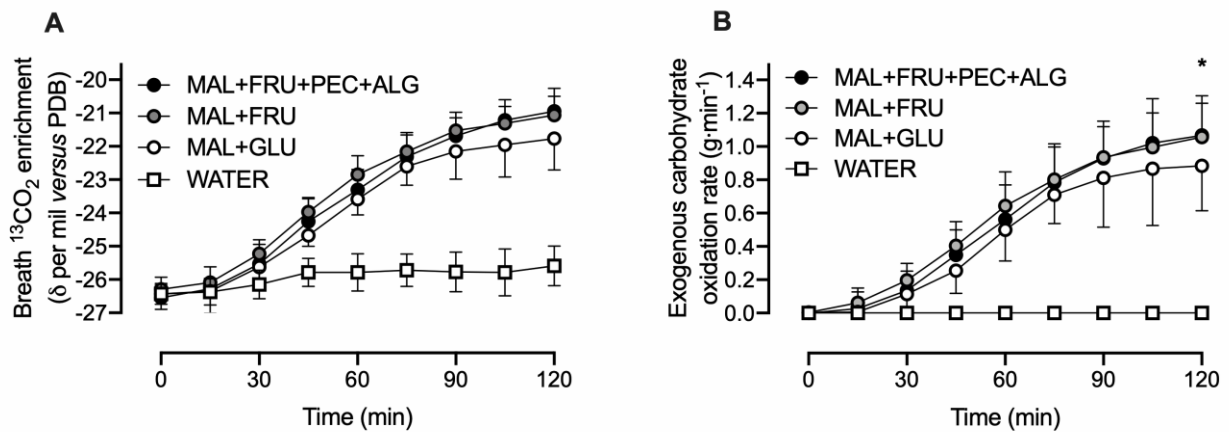
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568

569

570 **Figure legends**

571 **Figure 1.** Breath $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ enrichment (A), and exogenous carbohydrate oxidation rates (B) during 120
572 min of running at 60% $\dot{V}\text{O}_{2\text{peak}}$ with the ingestion of water (WATER; $n=7$), or 1.5 $\text{g}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ of
573 carbohydrate in the form of maltodextrin plus glucose (MAL+GLU; $n=7$), maltodextrin plus fructose
574 (MAL+FRU; $n=9$), or maltodextrin plus fructose with pectin and sodium alginate
575 (MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG; $n=9$). Data are means (error bars: 95%CI). * $p<0.05$ for MAL+GLU *versus*
576 MAL+FRU.



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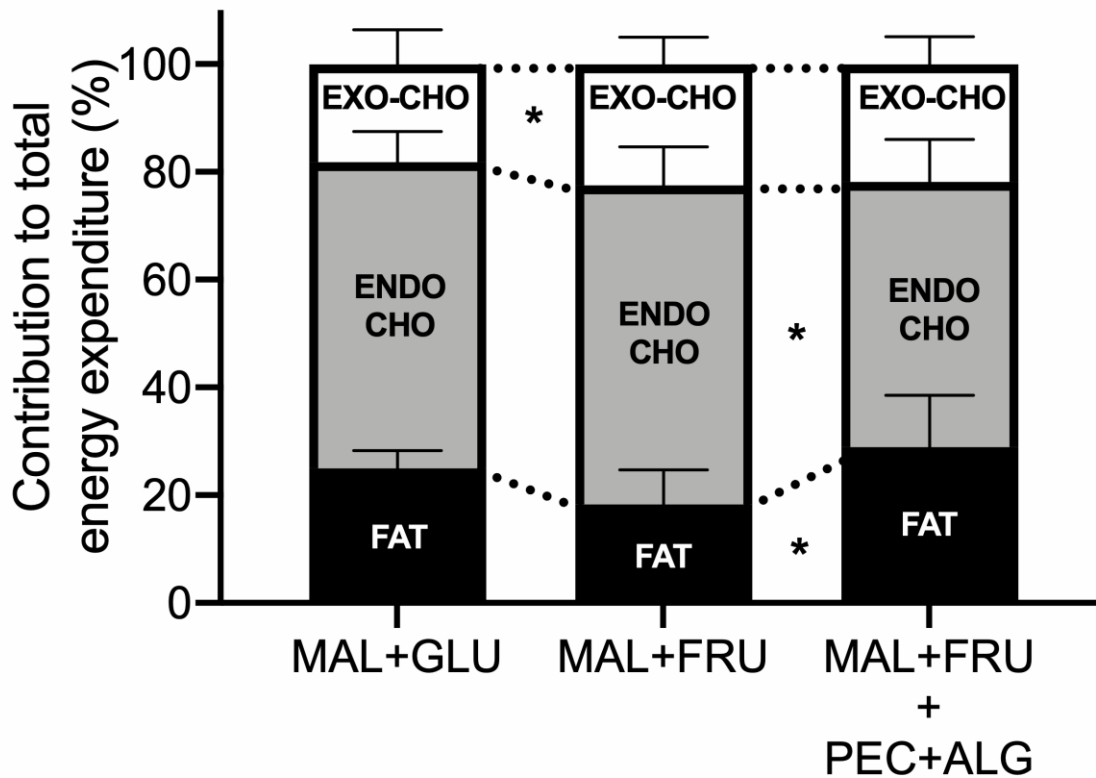
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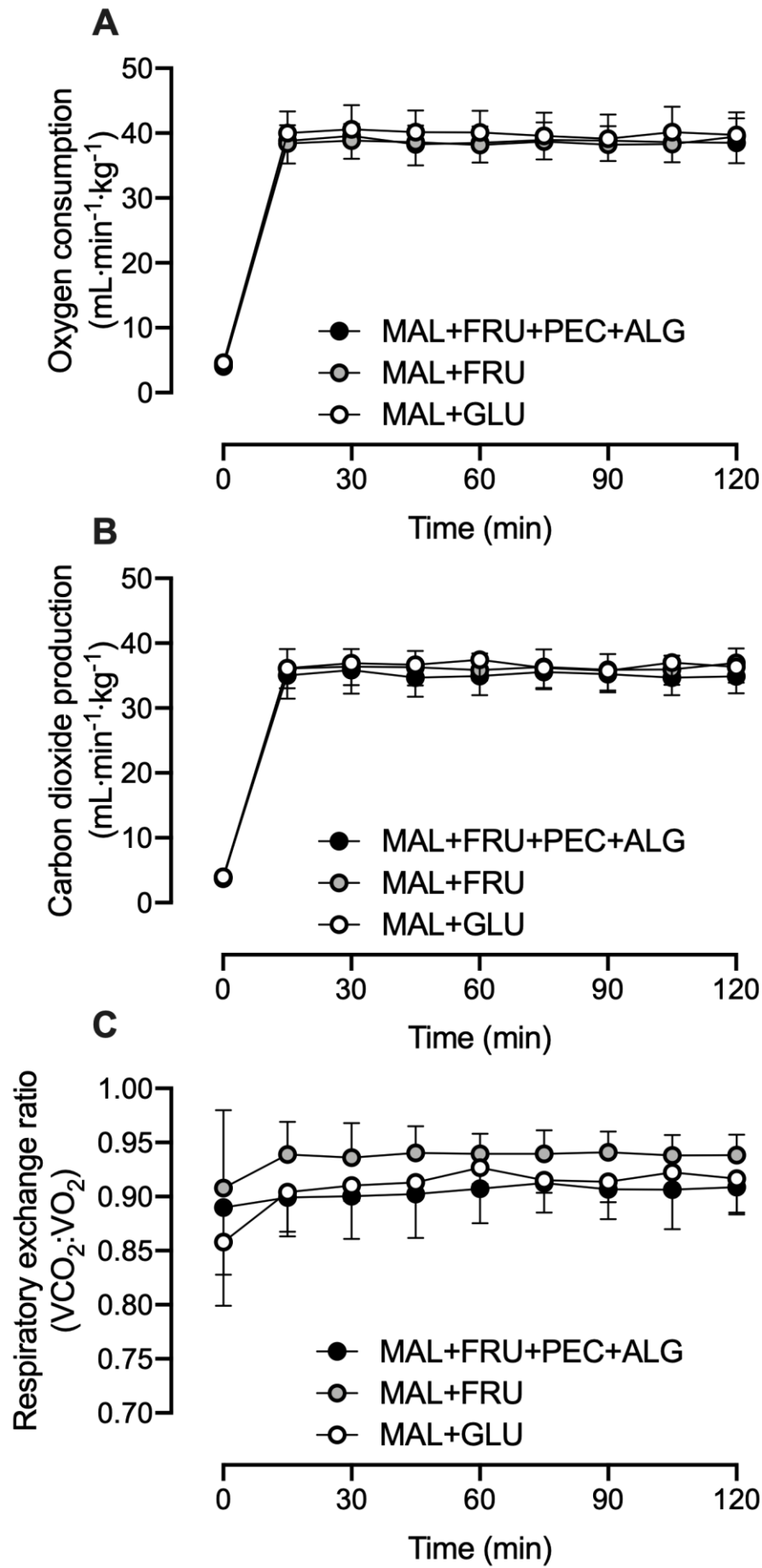
583 **Figure 2.** Whole-body fat (FAT), endogenous carbohydrate (ENDO CHO) and exogenous
584 carbohydrate oxidation rates (EXO CHO) during 120 min of running at 60% $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ with the
585 ingestion of 1.5 g·min⁻¹ of carbohydrate in the form of maltodextrin plus glucose (MAL+GLU; *n*=7),
586 maltodextrin plus fructose (MAL+FRU; *n*=9), or maltodextrin plus fructose with pectin and sodium
587 alginate (MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG; *n*=9). Data are means (error bars: 95%CI). **p*<0.05 for differences
588 between treatments. Data were calculated from minutes 30-120 of exercise.



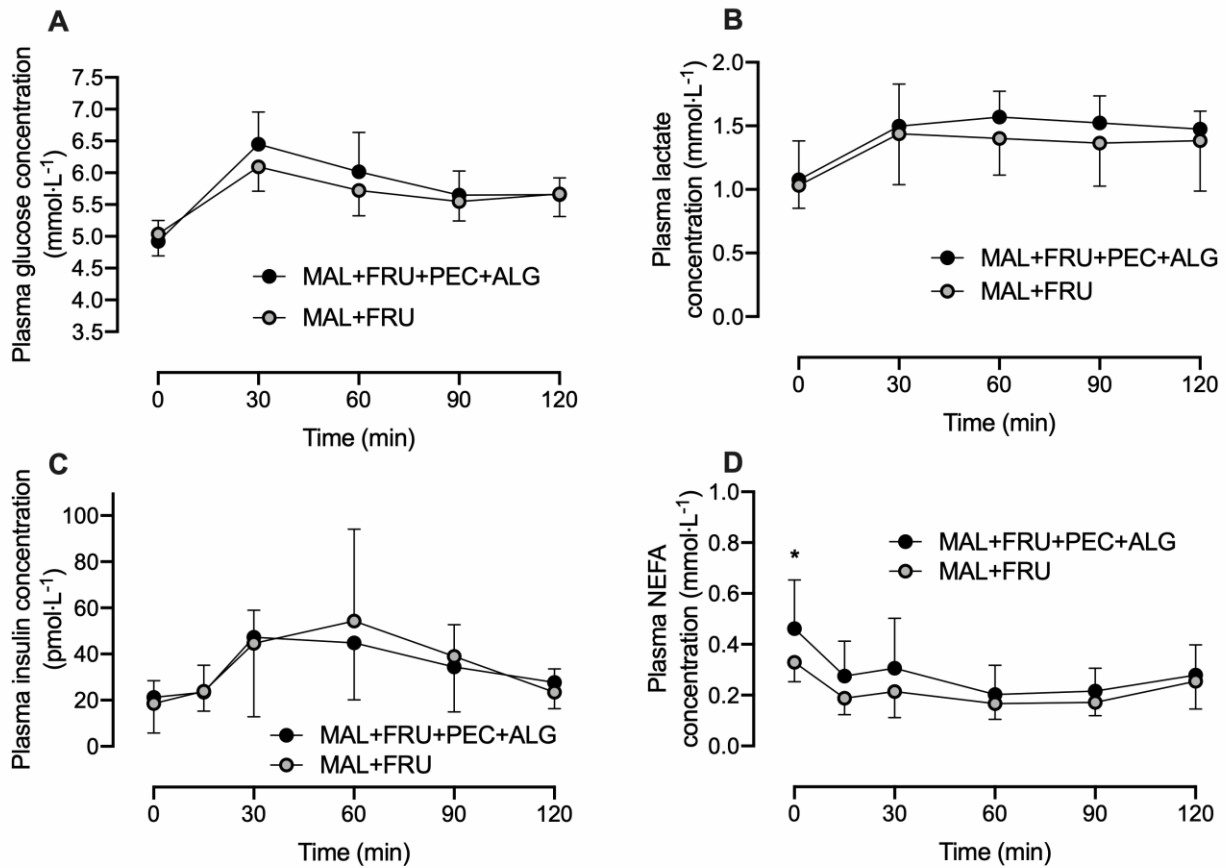
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591 **Figure 3.** Oxygen consumption (A), carbon dioxide production (B), and respiratory exchange ratio
592 (C) during 120 min of running at 60% $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ with the ingestion of 1.5 g·min⁻¹ of carbohydrate in
593 the form of maltodextrin plus glucose (MAL+GLU; *n*=7), maltodextrin plus fructose (MAL+FRU;
594 *n*=9), or maltodextrin plus fructose with pectin and sodium alginate (MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG; *n*=9).
595 Data are means (error bars: 95%CI).



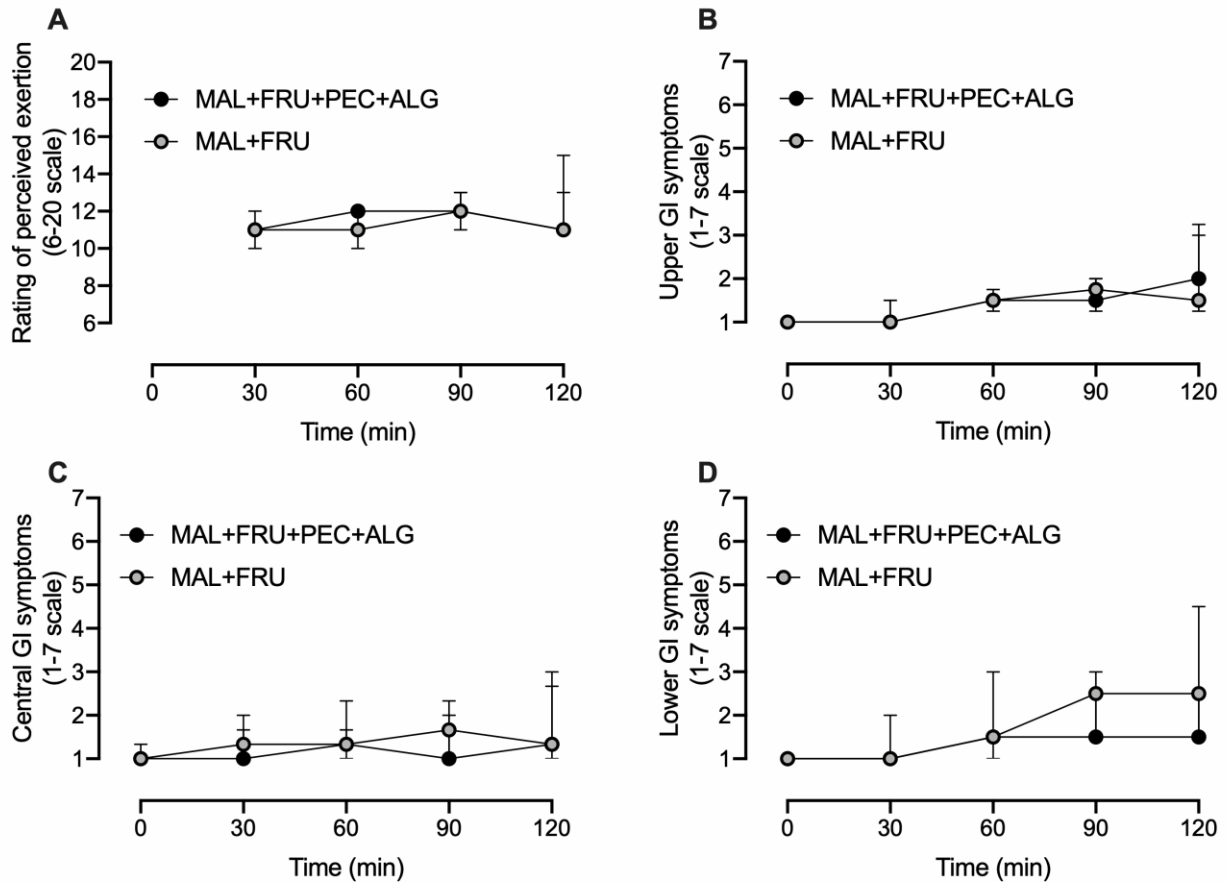
597 **Figure 4.** Plasma glucose (A), lactate (B), insulin (C), and non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA; D)
 598 concentrations during 120 min of running at 60% $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ with the ingestion of 1.5 g·min⁻¹ of
 599 carbohydrate in the form of, maltodextrin plus fructose (MAL+FRU; *n*=9), or maltodextrin plus
 600 fructose with pectin and sodium alginate (MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG; *n*=9). Data are means (error bars:
 601 95%CI). **p*<0.05 for MAL+FRU versus MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG.



602

603

604 **Figure 5.** Ratings of perceived exertion (A), upper (B), central (C), and lower (D) gastrointestinal
 605 (GI) symptoms during 120 min of running at 60% $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ with the ingestion of 1.5 g·min⁻¹ of
 606 carbohydrate in the form of, maltodextrin plus fructose (MAL+FRU; *n*=9), or maltodextrin plus
 607 fructose with pectin and sodium alginate (MAL+FRU+PEC+ALG; *n*=9). Data are medians (error
 608 bars: 95%CI).



609

610

611

612 **Table 1. Participant characteristics.**

	Characteristics
Age	22 (18-30) years
Body mass	69 (61-74) kg
Height	1.82 (1.74-1.88) m
$\dot{V}O_2$ peak	63 (56-72) mL·min ⁻¹ ·kg ⁻¹
Running speed to elicit 60% $\dot{V}O_2$ peak	10.7 (9.3-11.8) km·h ⁻¹

613 Data are means (ranges). $\dot{V}O_2$ peak, peak oxygen consumption.

614

615