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1	A combination of amino acids and caffeine enhances sprint running capacity in a hot,
2	hypoxic environment
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24	

Abstract

Heat and hypoxia exacerbate central nervous system (CNS) fatigue. We therefore investigated
whether essential-amino-acid (EAA) and caffeine ingestion attenuates CNS fatigue in a
simulated team-sport specific running protocol in a hot and hypoxic environment.
Sub-elite male team-sport athletes (n=8) performed a repeat-sprint running protocol on a non-
motorized treadmill in an extreme environment on four separate occasions. Participants ingested
one of four supplements: a double placebo, 3 mg.kg ⁻¹ body mass of caffeine+placebo, 2x7 g
EAA (Musashi Create TM)+placebo, or caffeine+EAA prior to each exercise session using a
randomized, double-blind crossover design. Electromyography (EMG) activity and quadriceps
evoked responses to magnetic stimulation were assessed from the dominant leg at pre-, half-time,
and post-exercise. Central activation ratio (CAR) was used to quantify completeness of
quadriceps activation. Oxygenation of the pre-frontal cortex was measured via near-infrared
spectroscopy. Mean sprint work was higher (+174J, 23-24J; mean, 95% confidence interval,
d=0.30; effect size, likely beneficial) in the caffeine+EAA condition versus EAAs alone, but not
caffeine or a placebo. The decline in EMG activity was less (13%, 0–26%; $d=0.58$, likely) in
caffeine+EAA versus EAA alone. Similarly, the pre-to-post exercise decrement in CAR was
significantly less (-2.7%, 0.4–5.4%; $d=0.50$, likely) when caffeine+EAA were ingested
compared to placebo. Cerebral oxygenation was lower (-5.6%, 1.0–10.1%; $d=0.60$, very likely)
in the caffeine+EAA condition compared to LNAA alone. Co-ingestion of caffeine and EAA
appears to maintain muscle activation and central drive, with a small improvement in running
performance relative to EAA alone in hot, hypoxic environments.

46 Key words – Repeated sprint exercise, Central fatigue, Hypoxia, Heat, Amino acids, Caffeine

47 Introduction

Fatigue is characterized by the inability of skeletal muscle to maintain the required power output 48 (Allen et al. 2008), and may occur at a muscular level (peripheral fatigue) or in the central 49 nervous system (CNS, central fatigue). Central fatigue manifests as the inadequacy to voluntarily 50 51 activate muscles (Gandevia 2001), alterations in cognitive function, perception of effort, and 52 pain (Meeusen et al. 2006). The Central Governor theory highlights the importance of the CNS and the potential role of accumulation and/or depletion of neurotransmitters in fatigue (Noakes 53 2011). Because neurotransmitter synthesis and function can be manipulated using nutritional 54 55 strategies, it may be possible to use these strategies to reduce central fatigue (Pardridge 1998; Meeusen et al. 2006). 56

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Caffeine is considered a legitimate nutritional supplement in competitive sport to delay the onset 58 of fatigue. Research on the impact of EAA on fatigue, however, has been equivocal (Davis et al. 59 1999; Watson et al. 2004; Stepto et al. 2011). EAA supplementation did not improve 60 performance in endurance exercise (Madsen et al. 1996; Davis et al. 1999) in normal conditions 61 (thermoneutral, normoxic environment), but may do so in the heat when production of dopamine 62 63 is augmented. (Mittleman et al. 1998; Tumilty et al. 2011) Reducing dopamine synthesis is associated with a quicker onset of fatigue (Bailey et al. 1993). To our knowledge no studies have 64 65 examined the effect of EAA supplementation on exercise performance in hypoxia. 66

Caffeine may enhance performance in endurance exercise, (Doherty & Smith 2004; Ganio et al.
2009), high-intensity running, and sprint activity (Glaister et al. 2008; Astorino & Roberson

69 2010) in normal conditions. Caffeine ingestion prior to exercise can reduce ratings of perceived

exertion (RPE) (Doherty & Smith 2005), improve running power (Schneiker et al. 2006), and
decrease sprint times (Glaister et al. 2008; Gant et al. 2010). Evidence for an ergogenic effect of
caffeine in hypoxia is limited or equivocal when exercise is performed in the heat (Del Coso et
al. 2008; Roelands et al. 2011).

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75 Exercise in the heat and/or at altitude represents a situation of maximal environmental stress that could accelerate the development of central fatigue. Voluntary muscle activation is reduced after 76 exercise in the heat (Skein et al. 2012), possibly related to altered dopamine activity and 77 78 inhibitory signals from thermore ceptors in the hypothalamus (Nybo 2008). Similarly, voluntary activation is reduced after exercising in hypoxia (Verges et al. 2012; Billaut et al. 2013) as a 79 result of cerebral deoxygenation (Smith & Billaut 2010; Billaut et al. 2013). Therefore, 80 manipulating environmental conditions in combination with nutritional interventions can provide 81 insights into novel supplementation strategies and the mechanisms of CNS fatigue. 82 83 The aim of this study was to investigate whether nutritional supplementation can attenuate 84 central fatigue and reduce performance decrements under conditions of environmental stress 85 86 (simulated heat and hypoxia). Although these conditions are uncommon, it provides an opportunity to observe the potentially beneficial effects of nutritional manipulations under 87 standardized conditions. Nutritional supplementation, in combination with assessing markers of 88

90 changes in neurotransmitter concentration in relation to central fatigue. We hypothesized that

central fatigue (e.g., muscle recruitment, central drive), will clarify the viability of invoking

91 central fatigue and decrements in intermittent-exercise performance induced by environmental

stress would be attenuated by targeted nutritional supplementation strategies utilizing a

93 combination of both caffeine and EAAs.

94

95 Materials and Methods

96 **Participants**

97 Ten male, sub-elite football players regularly competing and training (~60 min, 3 times per
98 week) volunteered for the study (Table 1). Two athletes were unable to complete the study, due
99 to issues and/or injuries unrelated to the study. Prior to participation, each subject provided
100 written informed consent for their voluntary participation in the study. The study was approved
101 by the local Human Research Ethics Committee.

102

103 Participant characterisation/familiarisation

Participants reported to the laboratory 10-14 days prior to the experimental protocols on two
occasions. On the first visit, age, height and body mass were recorded, body composition
assessed by a whole body light scanner ([TC]², Cary, U.S.A., (Ryder & Ball 2012)), and
participants were familiarized with the exercise protocol. On the second visit, participants
performed a 20-m sprint followed, 30 min later, by the Yo-Yo intermittent recovery test (Mohr et
al. 2003).

110

111 Diet and exercise control

112 Two days prior to each experimental trial participants consumed a moderate-high carbohydrate 113 diet (4 g.kg⁻¹ body mass) that provided ~106 kJ.kg⁻¹ body mass per day (70% CHO, 15% protein 114 and 15% fat), while controlling protein intake in line with Australian dietary recommendations. Participants were also instructed to abstain from any caffeinated products, alcohol and formalexercise training 24 h prior to testing.

117

118 Study design

119 In each session, after voiding, and being weighed, athletes consumed the initial supplement

120 (EAA or Placebo) and remained in the laboratory at normoxic and thermoneutral conditions for

the first 2 hours prior to exercise (Figure 1). At the end of this period, one hour before exercise,

athletes consumed the second dose of supplements (caffeine, placebo and/or EAA) and rested in

123 the environmental exercise laboratory (15% O_2 [~2700m above sea level], 30°C and 20% relative

124 humidity). Although this combination of conditions is uncommon, in research studies it provides

125 a unique opportunity to invoke central fatigue under standardized conditions and observe the

126 potentially-beneficial effects of nutritional manipulations.

127

Table 1 : Participant characteristics				
Age	22 ± 2			
Height (cm)	181 ± 6			
Body mass (kg)	77 ± 11			
Estimated body fat (%)	14.7 ± 4.4			
20m sprint time (sec)	3.1 ± 0.1			
Yo-Yo IR1 distance (m)	1320 ± 528			
Estimated VO2 max (ml/kg.min ⁻¹)	47.5 ± 4.4			

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Figure 1: Schematic diagram of the study design. Supp = Supplement, Magstim = Central

activation and MVC assessment, BW = Body Weight.

133

134 Exercise Protocol

135 The exercise protocol (Figure 2) was designed to mimic the running profile of team-sport

136 athletes (Sirotic & Coutts 2008; Zois et al. 2013). During each session, participants completed a

total of 6 sets of 4 s sprints with 8 s of rest between each sprint on a non-motorized treadmill

138 (Woodway Force, Waukesha, U.S.A.). The time between each sprint set was interspersed with

- standing (22% of total time), walking (27%), jogging (22%), running (12%) and fast running
- 140 (9%). Mean power, peak power and peak velocities during the exercise protocol were recorded

141 by the treadmill force transducer at 25 Hz. Performance data were stored and analyzed as





143

Figure 2: Graphical representation of one half of the exercise protocol, including $3 \times 4 \times 4$ second sprints and intermittent activity for participants with a maximal sprint speed of 4.8 - 5.2m.s⁻¹. This protocol was completed twice with a 10 minute break in-between to simulate halftime.

148

149 Supplementation regimens

150 Four supplement protocols were undertaken in a counterbalanced, randomized and double-blind

151 fashion to provide the participants with a placebo, caffeine only, EAA only, or caffeine + EAA

152 (Figure 1). The EAA was provided in two 7 g doses of Musashi CreateTM powder, dissolved in

153	250 ml of water containing; arginine (854 mg), leucine (837 mg), phenylalanine (794 mg), lysine
154	(709 mg), valine (598 mg), histidine (555 mg), isoleucine (512 mg), threonine (418 mg) and
155	methionine (162 mg), to reduce serotonin, and increase dopamine production within the CNS.
156	Musashi also provided an inactive placebo that was indistinguishable in color and taste.
157	Anecdotally, participants were unable to correctly identify any of the treatments. The EAAs or
158	placebos were given to the participants 3 h and 1 h prior to commencing exercise trials. Caffeine
159	(to block the action of adenosine; No-Doz TM ; 3 mg.kg ⁻¹ body mass) or placebo (CaCO ₃) was
160	given to participants as a capsule (blinded) 1 h before exercise. Immediately before the warm-up,
161	participants also consumed a carbohydrate gel (27 g; Powerbar Gel TM , Musashi Performance
162	Nutrition, Nestle, Australia) to ensure adequate provision of carbohydrate (Figure 1).
163	
164	Blood sampling
165	Six 5ml blood samples were taken at regular intervals in each trial (Figure 1). Baseline blood
166	samples (3 h pre-) were taken prior to the ingestion of the initial supplement. Blood samples
167	were analyzed immediately for partial pressure of oxygen (pO ₂), partial pressure of carbon
168	dioxide (pCO ₂), oxygen saturation (sO ₂) (Siemens, Henkestrasse, Germany) and lactate and
169	glucose concentrations (YSI, Yellow Springs, U.S.A).
170	

171 Central fatigue assessment

The knee extension protocol used has been described in detail elsewhere (Billaut et al. 2013).
Before, at half-time, and immediately after exercise, participants were instructed to perform a
maximum voluntary contraction (MVC) of the quadriceps (dominant leg) against the strain
gauge. In this position, a magnetic stimulator (Magstim RAPID; JLM Accutek Healthcare,

stimulate each participant's quadriceps during the MVC (Amann et al. 2007; Billaut et al. 2013).

178 The central activation ratio (CAR) was calculated as described previously, where

179 CAR=MVC/(MVC + superimposed twitch) (Gandevia 2001).

180

181 Surface electromyography (EMG) acquisition and analysis

EMG signals were recorded via skin surface electrodes over the vastus lateralis, rectus femoris, 182 tibialis anterior, biceps femoris, gluteus maximus and lateral gastrocnemius of the dominant 183 184 lower limb. In each trial, electrodes were secured to the skin with tape and an elastic tubing to prevent cable movements. In the first trial, electrode placement was marked with a permanent 185 marker to ensure that the position of the electrodes was replicated on subsequent visits. 186 EMG signals were collected using the Delsys system (Delsys Inc., Boston, MA) at 2 kHz after 187 being filtered with a 50-Hz line filter. Muscle activity was quantified as the integrated EMG of 188 the signal between the onset and offset of activation of each burst in the last 2 s of every 4 s 189 190 sprint. EMG signal from all muscles were added together to provide a value representative of overall muscle activation in the lower limb. Data were normalized to the first sprint set to 191 192 provide a percentage change for total electrical activity to account for a potential disproportionate effect of the first sprint. 193

194

195 Near-Infrared Spectroscopy (NIRS) measurement and analysis

196 Brain oxygenation was measured using NIRS (Artinis Medical Systems, AS Zetten,

197 Netherlands). The protocol allowed the calculation of the tissue saturation index (TSI) for

198 cerebral tissue (Smith & Billaut 2010; Billaut et al. 2013).

199 Plasma amino acid analysis

200 Concentrations of the free amino acids histidine, arginine, threonine, lysine, methionine, valine,

201 isoleucine, leucine, phenylalanine, and tryptophanin in plasma were determined using reversed-

202 phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC) as previously reported (Stepto et al.

203 2011). The limit of quantitation for this study was 0.5μ mol.L⁻¹ with intra- and inter-assay

variability of 4.5% and 5.1%, respectively, for tryptophan, and <2.3% and 3.8%, respectively, for
the other EAAs.

206

207 Caffeine analysis

- 208 Plasma caffeine concentrations were assessed via RP-HPLC (GBC Scientific HPLC system,
- 209 GBC Scientific, Victoria, Australia) according to the method of Alvi & Hammami (2011). The
- 210 internal standard was antipyrine in 30% HClO₄ [40 μg/ml]) A 5μm, 4.6x150mm RP C18 column
- and a 5µm, 4.6x20mm Guard Cartridge insert (Water Atlantis[®] T3) were used for the separation.
- The mobile phase consisted of 15 mM potassium phosphate (pH 3.5) and acetonitrile (83:17,
- v/v), The analysis was performed under isocratic conditions using a flow rate of 1.0 mL.min⁻¹.
- 214 Chromatograms were recorded at 274 nm with a run time of 10 min. The data were collected
- with a personal computer using EZChrom Elite Chromatography Manager Software and plasma
- 216 caffeine concentration determined using peak area ratio (caffeine to antipyrine). The assays limit
- of quantification in plasma was 0.05 mg.L^{-1} with an intra- and inter- assay variability of 2.5%
- and 5.6% respectively.
- 219
- 220
- 221

222 Statistical analysis

Data for the 8 participants are expressed as mean \pm SD (see Supplementary Tables 1-4). All data 223 were analyzed using a linear mixed model of the estimated true difference between 224 supplementation protocols with Bonferroni post hoc adjustments used where appropriate. 225 Estimated mean differences for the fixed effects of time and supplementation strategy, and the 226 227 interaction of both (time × supplement) were determined for each parameter. Precision of estimation was indicated with 95% confidence intervals (95%CI). Magnitudes of difference 228 229 between treatments were determined using the standardized mean difference (effect size), the 230 within-subject placebo standard deviation, and are expressed as Cohen's d. Chances of the true 231 value of the effect being possibly (\geq 75%), likely (\geq 95%), very likely (\geq 99.5%), or most likely 232 (=100%), were calculated according to established criteria (Hopkins et al. 2009), with clinical 233 chances of benefit or harm considered for running performance variables. An n=8 subjects provided adequate statistical power in a post-only cross-over design assuming a reference 234 difference (between treatments) in work done of 7%, a typical error in repeat sprints of 4.5%, 235 236 and Type I and II errors of 5% and 20% respectively.

237

238 **Results**

Running performance: Participants ingesting a combination of caffeine + EAAs completed more mean sprint work (+174 J, 23–324 J; mean difference, 95%CI; d=0.30, likely beneficial ; Table 2) and mean sprint power (43 W, 6–81 W; d=0.30, likely beneficial), and had higher peak sprint velocity (0.17 m.s⁻¹, 0.04–0.31 m.s⁻¹; d=0.50, very likely beneficial) compared to EAA's alone (Table 2). Mean sprint work, power and velocity were greater in set 1 compared to all other sets (Supplementary Table 1). There was no interaction effect between time and

- supplement for any running performance variables. Total work performed excluding the sprints
- showed no significant differences between supplementation protocols.

247

Table 2: Comparison of mechanical data between supplementation strategies. Data are mean ± SD

	Placebo	Caffeine	LNAA	Caffeine + LNAA
Mean Sprint Work (J)	2705 ± 581	2791 ± 604	2678 ± 664	$2858 \pm 763^{*}$
Mean Sprint Power (W)	676 ± 145	698 ± 151	669 ± 166	715 ± 191*
Peak Sprint Velocity (m.s- ¹)	5.78 ± 0.34	5.83 ± 0.35	5.76 ± 0.44	5.94 ± 0.37*
Total Work (Without Sprints) (J)	104894 ± 18359	108638 ± 15593	105047 ± 14985	103086 ± 18698
* denotes statistical significant diffe	erence from LNAA who	ere p ≤ 0.05		

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249 Blood parameters: All supplementation strategies were effective in elevating protein and

caffeine concentration (Figure 3, Supplementary table 2).

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EAA: In particular, supplementing with EAAs reduced the plasma free tryptophan:LNAA ratio

in the caffeine + EAA condition compared to placebo (0.0009, 0.0005-0.0013; d=0.76, most

likely) and caffeine alone (0.0014, 0.0010-0.0018; d=1.21, most likely). There was an effect of

time on the plasma free tryptophan:LNAA ratio consistent with ingestion timing.

256

257 **Caffeine**: As expected, plasma caffeine was increased in the caffeine only condition when

258 compared to placebo (4.3 μ mol.L⁻¹, 3.2–5.4 μ mol.L⁻¹; *d*=2.65, most likely), and EAA only (4.4

- μ mol.L⁻¹, 3.4–5.5 μ mol.L⁻¹; *d*=2.74, most likely). Plasma caffeine was also higher in the caffeine
- 260 + EAA condition compared to placebo (4.7 μmol.L⁻¹, 3.6–5.7 μmol.L⁻¹; d=2.88, most likely) and

261	EAA alone (4.8 μ mol.L ⁻¹ , 3.7-5.9 μ mol.L ⁻¹ ; $d=2.97$, most likely; Figure 3B) There was also an
262	effect of time on caffeine concentration, relevant to when caffeine was ingested.
263	
264	$pO_2 \& SO_2$: Venous blood pO_2 was substantially higher in the caffeine + EAA treatment
265	compared to caffeine alone (7.0 mmHg, $1.7-12.3$ mmHg; $d=0.39$, likely) and placebo (6.2
266	mmHg, 1.1–11.2 mmHg; 0.35, likely) across the exercise protocol (Supplementary Table 2).
267	Oxygen saturation, as indicated by venous blood SO ₂ , increased from pre- to post-exercise by
268	37% (23-50%; $d=2.28$, most likely) across treatments (Supplementary Table 2).
269	
270	Lactate : Blood lactate was also substantially higher (0.55 mmol L ⁻¹ , 0.15–0.95; $d=0.17$,
271	possibly; Supplementary Table 2) in the caffeine + EAA group compared to a placebo across all
272	time points.
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Figure 3: Comparison of Free Tryptophan:LNAA ratio and caffeine concentrations between supplementation strategies. Data are estimated mean \pm 95% CI. * denotes significant difference from EAA at time point where $p \le 0.05$. + denotes significant difference from placebo at time point where $p \le 0.05$. ^ denotes significant difference from EAA overall where $p \le 0.05$. # denotes significant difference from placebo overall where $p \le 0.05$. # indicates supplement ingestion time.

MVC: Overall, MVC force was higher (31nM, 8–54nM; *d*=0.62, likely beneficial) when caffeine
+ EAA were ingested compared to a placebo (Figure 4A).

286

287 Peripheral Twitch: Peripheral twitch force was not different between supplementation protocols
288 across all time points.

289

Central Activation Ratio and EMG: The decline in normalized EMG activity was attenuated 290 with caffeine + EAA compared with placebo (19%, 9–29%; d=0.84, most likely beneficial) and 291 EAA alone (13%, 0-26%; d=0.58, likely beneficial). Supplementing with 'caffeine only' 292 resulted in a lower reduction in normalized EMG compared to placebo (15%, 1-29%; d=0.67, 293 likely beneficial; Figure 4B). There was no effect of time and no interaction between time and 294 295 supplement for decline in EMG activity (Supplementary Table 1). Ingesting a combination of caffeine + EAA resulted in a higher overall CAR (2.7%, -5.4 to -0.4%; d=0.5, likely beneficial; 296 Figure 4C) compared to a placebo. There was no effect of time, and no interaction between time 297 298 and supplement. 299

NIRS: Greater mean declines in TSI across the exercise protocol were observed when caffeine (-8.3%, 3.7–13.0%; d=0.9, most likely beneficial) and caffeine + EAA (-5.6%, 1.0–10.1%; d=0.6, very likely beneficial) were ingested (the two conditions that produced the highest amount of work), compared with EAAs alone (Figure 4D, Supplementary Table 1).

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Figure 4: Comparison of central fatigue markers and total work (J) between supplementation strategies. Data are estimated mean \pm 95%CI. * denotes significant difference from EAA at time point where p \leq 0.05. + denotes significant difference from placebo at time point where p \leq 0.05. ^ denotes significant difference from EAA overall where p \leq 0.05. # denotes significant difference from placebo overall where p \leq 0.05.

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317 Discussion

This study demonstrated, for the first time, that nutritional supplementation with a combination of caffeine and EAAs attenuated the development of central fatigue in response to simulated team-sport exercise in hot and hypoxic environmental conditions. Using EMG activity and CAR as markers of muscle recruitment and central activation, respectively, supplementation with caffeine + EAA delayed the onset of central fatigue in team-sport players, but this effect did not translate into clear performance benefits.

324

325 Our supplementation protocol was designed to target two different neurotransmitter pathways to reduce central fatigue, based on previous literature (Pardridge 1998). Due to the challenges of 326 measuring neurotransmitter concentrations in vivo in humans, we can only use a conceptual 327 framework based on prior literature using EAA's containing LNAA's to manipulate 328 neurotransmitters (Pardridge 1998). Our supplementation protocol used EAA's (including 329 LNAA's) to inhibit serotonin synthesis as indicated by a lower free tryptophan:LNAA ratio 330 331 (Figure 4A; (Pardridge 1998). Additionally, we aimed to promoting dopamine production in the CNS via phenylalanine ingestion (Pardridge 1998). We believe this was achieved, as 332 333 indicated by the lower ratio of free tryptophan:LNAA and increased phenylalanine concentrations in the plasma when EAAs were ingested with or without caffeine (Figure 4A, 334 Supplementary Table 3). We believe this effectively lowered the serotonin:dopamine ratio, 335 336 which is considered important in attenuating central fatigue (Fernstrom 2013). Secondly, we aimed to antagonise adenosine receptors via caffeine supplementation (Figure 4, Supplementary 337 338 Table 3). Isolated EAA and caffeine supplementation are known to effect central drive and motor 339 unit recruitment in thermoneutral (Meeusen et al. 2006) and hot environments (Del Coso et al.

2008; Meeusen & Roelands 2010). Antagonizing adenosine or increasing dopamine synthesis
has been linked to maintenance of motor unit recruitment and frequency of activation concurrent
with improved exercise performance (Del Coso et al. 2008). It is surprising that only caffeine
and caffeine + EAA had a clear influence on central fatigue variables. We consider that changes
in markers of central drive (CAR and EMG) are likely due to caffeine, and a minor contribution
from the EAA's in our combined supplementation protocol.

346

Physiological changes in central fatigue variables induced by caffeine and/or EAA, did not 347 348 translate into a substantial performance benefit. Participants who ingested a combination of caffeine and EAAs performed more work during sprints than with EAA alone, but not 349 significantly more than with a placebo. This is surprising given that supplementation with 3– 350 6mg.kg⁻¹ of caffeine has previously shown to improve sprint times and repeated-sprint 351 performance (Glaister et al. 2008; Gant et al. 2010) compared to a placebo. While EAA 352 supplementation may not improve performance in normal conditions, there is evidence it is 353 354 beneficial when exercise is performed in the heat (Mittleman et al. 1998; Tumilty et al. 2011). However, the effect of EAA supplementation on high-intensity exercise performance is 355 356 unknown. Our findings provide new insight into the influence of isolated and combined supplementation protocols on repeat-sprint performance. 357

358

Cerebral oxygenation impairs central drive and motor unit recruitment during repeated-sprint performance in hypoxic conditions (Smith & Billaut 2010; Billaut et al. 2013), and other forms of high-intensity exercise (Rooks et al. 2010). Caffeine ingestion may reduce cerebral blood flow and oxygen availability (Kennedy & Haskell 2011), which could explain the observed reductions in cerebral oxygenation in the final sets of sprints. However, our data appear to dissociate
cerebral oxygenation as a mechanism for central fatigue in hot and hypoxic conditions. We
consider that reduced cerebral oxygenation observed in the caffeine only and caffeine + EAA
trials is a likely consequence of caffeine ingestion and/or the somewhat greater mechanical work
produced.

368

To our knowledge, this is the first study to measure central fatigue via EMG and magnetic 369 stimulation in conjunction with nutritional supplementation. Although we used a simulated 370 371 exercise protocol and unique environmental conditions, we believe our data provide novel insights into central fatigue and match performance. This study highlights the potential for 372 nutritional interventions to sustain or enhance exercise performance in challenging 373 environmental conditions. We observed large standard deviations in our performance data, which 374 may be responsible for the lack of significant difference between caffeine + EAA and placebo 375 supplementation protocols. Furthermore, the dose of caffeine used in the study is at the bottom of 376 377 the recommended range for ergogenic benefit, which may explain why we observed no performance improvements with caffeine supplementation alone. We acknowledge that there 378 379 may also have been an unaccounted for interaction between pre-exercise carbohydrate feeding and AA supplement on performance. Finally, it is plausible that the environmental conditions 380 chosen for the study induced a level of fatigue that was too great for supplementation alone to 381 382 overcome, again contributing to the lack of running performance improvements. The observed changes in central fatigue variables may have been too small to enhance performance and these 383 384 relationships warrant further investigation.

386 In conclusion, team-sport athletes who ingest a combination of caffeine and EAA may attenuate central fatigue and perform more work than when ingesting EAA's alone during repeated sprint 387 exercise in hot, hypoxic conditions. The mechanisms explaining this improved performance 388 appear to be associated with central drive and muscle activation, and, possibly, altered 389 neurotransmitter production or function influencing the motivation to exercise. Further work 390 391 should evaluate similar supplementation and exercise protocols in thermoneutral and normoxic conditions. This line of investigation would help establish the effectiveness of combining 392 supplements for team-sport athletes in more common match and training environments. 393

394

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Variable	Condition	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4	Set 5	Set 6		
Mean sprint work	Placebo	2860 ± 458	2719 ± 466	2510 ± 766	2819 ± 567	2599 ± 638	2722 ± 657		
(J)	Caffeine	2940 ± 484	2775 ± 687	2829 ± 664	2811 ± 610	2686 ± 671	2708 ± 660		
	LNAA	2911 ± 530	2620 ± 798	2513 ± 826	2820 ± 595	2525 ± 680	2679 ± 634		
	Caffeine + LNAA	2974 ± 677	2888 ± 860	2837 ± 814	2858 ± 781	2742 ± 821	2867 ± 868		
(J) (J) (J) (J) (J) (J) (J) (J) (J) (J) (M)	Placebo	715 ± 115	680 ± 117	628 ± 191	705 ± 142	650 ± 159	681 ± 164		
(W)	Caffeine	735 ± 121	694 ± 172	707 ± 166	703 ± 152	672 ± 167	677 ± 165		
	LNAA	$728 \pm \ 132$	655 ± 199	628 ± 206	705 ± 149	631 ± 170	670 ± 158		
	Caffeine + LNAA	743 ± 169	722 ± 215	709 ± 203	715 ± 195	686 ± 205	717 ± 217		
Peak sprint	Placebo	5.71 ± 0.35	5.78 ± 0.29	5.79 ± 0.41	5.74 ± 0.35	5.69 ± 0.40	5.97 ± 0.34		
$(\mathbf{m} \mathbf{s}^{-1})$	Caffeine	5.81 ± 0.26	5.77 ± 0.32	6.00 ± 0.30	5.64 ± 0.44	5.75 ± 0.39	6.02 ± 0.29		
(111.5)	LNAA	5.79 ± 0.32	5.73 ± 0.47	5.79 ± 0.50	5.68 ± 0.47	5.63 ± 0.50	5.92 ± 0.45		
	Caffeine + LNAA	5.93 ± 0.29	5.91 ± 0.30	6.00 ± 0.39	5.79 ± 0.30	5.87 ± 0.44	6.13 ± 0.46		
Mean EMG	Placebo	100 ± 0	31.5 ± 31.1	26.5 ± 9.2	26.7 ± 21.4	30.0 ± 17.7	38.2 ± 30.2		
decline (%)	Caffeine	100 ± 0	9.9 ± 9.7	20.9 ± 6.6					
	LNAA	100 ± 0	25.2 ± 7.1	27.7 ± 4.3	11.8 ± 9.1	28.6 ± 4.0	30.2 ± 10.2		
	Caffeine + LNAA	100 ± 0	4.9 ± 4.9	11.8 ± 5.8	15.4 ± 10.5	17.0 ± 8.5	11.9 ± 10.4		
Tissue saturation	Placebo	66.8 ± 6.2	51.5 ± 4.9	55.6 ± 9.2	65.8 ± 7.1	60.2 ± 9.2	61.5 ± 9.8		
index (%)	Caffeine	62.4 ± 9.3	49.1 ± 10.8	49.8 ± 11.8	56.4 ± 9.7	56.5 ± 10.5	53.2 ± 14.5		
	LNAA	70.7 ± 8.3	58.1 ± 10.0	60.2 ± 9.3	67.9 ± 6.9	60.2 ± 9.4	60.8 ± 9.6		
	Caffeine + LNAA	65.6 ± 9.5	46.7 ± 12.7	52.4 ± 7.9	62.3 ± 11.5	60.8 ± 16.9	57.1 ± 11.6		

Supplementary Table 1. Individual time point data for performance outcome variables (6 time points) Data are mean ± SD

Variable	Condition	3hr pre	2hr pre	1hr pre	Pre	Half time	Post
pCO ₂ (mmHg)	Placebo	57 ± 7	59 ± 4	62 ± 5	54 ± 9	33 ± 4	30 ± 5
	Caffeine	53 ± 9	55 ± 9	60 ± 5	56 ± 9	32 ± 7	30 ± 6
	LNAA	56 ± 7	57 ± 5	59 ± 4	50 ± 7	31 ± 6	31 ± 6
	Caffeine + LNAA*	59 ± 8	56 ± 8	57 ± 9	51 ± 8	28 ± 4	26 ± 3
pO ₂ (mmHg)	Placebo	31 ± 4	24 ± 3	20 ± 4	27 ± 10	53 ± 14	63 ± 9
	Caffeine	34 ± 8	27 ± 12	20 ± 4	24 ± 8	55 ± 17	54 ± 17
	LNAA	33 ± 11	24 ± 4	20 ± 4	33 ± 9	64 ± 13	60 ± 10
	Caffeine + LNAA*^	33 ± 9	29 ± 8	24 ± 9	30 ± 10	65 ± 4	71 ± 3
sO ₂ (%)	Placebo	52 ± 11	39 ± 10	34 ± 12	46 ± 23	82 ± 12	89 ± 8
	Caffeine	65 ± 18	45 ± 23	31 ± 10	43 ± 19	80 ± 16	79 ± 16
	LNAA	58 ± 20	40 ± 12	30 ± 12	60 ± 19	88 ± 10	87 ± 8
	Caffeine + LNAA*^	60 ± 13	51 ± 17	41 ± 20	53 ± 21	90 ± 1	92 ± 1
Lactate	Placebo	0.9 ± 0.2	$0.8\ \pm 0.2$	0.8 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.1	7.1 ± 1.9	7.3 ± 1.9
(mmol/L)	Caffeine	1.1 ± 0.5	$0.9\ \pm 0.3$	0.8 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.3	7.4 ± 2.0	8.5 ± 1.8
	LNAA	1.2 ± 0.7	0.9 ± 0.3	0.9 ± 0.6	1.2 ± 0.5	7.5 ± 1.9	7.1 ± 1.5
	Caffeine + LNAA*	0.9 ± 0.3	0.8 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.5	1.3 ± 0.9	8.2 ± 2.4	9.4 ± 2.4
Glucose	Placebo	4.0 ± 0.9	4.1 ± 0.6	4.0 ± 0.4	4.7 ± 0.8	5.9 ± 0.9	5.6 ± 1.7
(mmol/L)	Caffeine	4.5 ± 0.5	4.5 ± 0.8	4.5 ± 1.1	4.6 ± 0.7	6.1 ± 1.9	6.8 ± 1.8
	LNAA^	4.5 ± 1.0	3.7 ± 0.3	4.4 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 0.5	6.3 ± 1.5	5.7 ± 1.3
	Caffeine + LNAA	3.9 ± 1.0	3.7 ± 0.3	4.2 ± 1.1	4.6 ± 0.9	6.8 ± 2.2	6.3 ± 1.8

Supplementary Table 2. Venous pCO_2 , pO_2 , sO_2 , lactate, and glucose concentrations between supplementation strategies. Data are mean \pm SD

* denotes significant difference from placebo treatment over all time points where $p \leq 0.05$

^ denotes significant difference from caffeine treatment over all time points where $p \leq 0.05$

Variable	Condition	3hr pre	2hr pre	1hr pre	Pre	Half time	Post
Histidine (µmol/L)	Placebo*^	82 ± 6	78 ± 6	78 ± 5	75 ± 8	82 ± 10	77 ±112
	Caffeine	80 ± 5	83 ± 7	81 ± 9	76 ± 10	77 ± 10	85 ± 9
	LNAA#	80 ± 9	104 ± 11	84 ± 9	109 ± 21	87 ± 9	85 ± 7
	Caffeine + LNAA	84 ± 12	119 ± 23	90 ± 11	116 ± 17	94 ± 14	91 ± 13
Arginine (µmol/L)	Placebo*	92 ± 9	84 ± 11	84 ± 9	76 ± 11	83 ± 15	81 ± 19
	Caffeine*	91 ± 14	90 ± 14	87 ± 13	77 ± 11	74 ± 12	82 ± 11
	LNAA	90 ± 19	124 ± 18	105 ± 14	139 ± 39	103 ± 15	96 ± 16
	Caffeine + LNAA	95 ± 16	145 ± 24	110 ± 11	138 ± 23	105 ± 9	91 ± 6
Threonine	Placebo*^	129 ± 23	122 ± 22	116 ± 15	108 ± 18	110 ± 17	105 ± 24
(µmol/L)	Caffeine*^	132 ± 29	131 ± 26	126 ± 22	116 ± 28	105 ± 20	115 ± 25
	LNAA	128 ± 32	141 ± 23	125 ± 19	153 ± 37	122 ± 18	121 ± 15
	Caffeine + LNAA*	136 ± 22	163 ± 24	137 ± 17	157 ± 32	129 ± 20	122 ± 16
Lysine (µmol/L)	Placebo*^	167 ± 26	151 ± 21	146 ± 17	134 ± 22	147 ± 22	132 ± 27
	Caffeine*^	170 ± 40	166 ± 30	158 ± 27	139 ± 33	126 ± 20	136 ± 16
	LNAA*	165 ± 51	196 ± 36	165 ± 31	200 ± 52	150 ± 28	136 ± 24
	Caffeine + LNAA	178 ± 48	238 ± 57	179 ± 22	211 ± 40	159 ± 24	143 ± 22

Supplementary Table 3. Change in individual LNAA concentrations between supplementation strategies. Data are mean ± SD

Methionine	Placebo*	28 ± 6	25 ± 5	23 ± 4	22 ± 4	24 ± 4	26 ± 6
(µmol/L)	Caffeine	32 ± 6	29 ± 4	27 ± 4	24 ± 6	24 ± 5	28 ± 4
	LNAA	28 ± 7	34 ± 6	28 ± 4	34 ± 10	28 ± 4	28 ± 4
	Caffeine + LNAA	32 ± 7	40 ± 7	28 ± 5	34 ± 8	28 ± 5	27 ± 3
Valine (µmol/L)	Placebo*^	255 ± 33	249 ± 62	241 ± 46	237 ± 33	240 ± 36	237 ± 49
	Caffeine*^	257 ± 25	245 ± 28	240 ± 44	220 ± 21	211 ± 26	224 ± 43
	LNAA*	250 ± 46	320 ± 41	284 ± 22	372 ± 72	305 ± 40	285 ± 36
	Caffeine + LNAA	280 ± 45	391 ± 67	320 ± 50	402 ± 47	324 ± 38	301 ± 47
Isoleucine	Placebo*^	65 ± 15	60 ± 25	58 ± 17	62 ± 11	62 ± 14	65 ± 24
(µmol/L)	Caffeine*^	72 ± 13	62 ± 12	63 ± 21	55 ± 10	55 ± 8	61 ± 12
	LNAA	65 ± 17	100 ± 17	82 ± 19	122 ± 30	87 ± 14	77 ± 20
	Caffeine + LNAA	78 ± 15	125 ± 32	87 ± 24	121 ± 24	89 ± 21	69 ± 20
Leucine (µmol/L)	Placebo*^	129 ± 23	118 ± 34	113 ± 25	116 ± 17	118 ± 19	120 ± 37
	Caffeine*^	140 ± 25	125 ± 21	123 ± 35	108 ± 18	106 ± 13	116 ± 22
	LNAA	126 ± 29	179 ± 25	151 ± 25	213 ± 50	160 ± 23	142 ± 29
	Caffeine + LNAA	148 ± 8	222 ± 52	162 ± 38	220 ± 38	161 ± 27	136 ± 33

Phenylalanine	Placebo*^	57 ± 7	52 ± 7	51 ± 8	52 ± 7	55 ± 7	57 ± 10
(µmol/L)	Caffeine*^	60 ± 10	58 ± 9	55 ± 10	52 ± 7	54 ± 6	60 ± 9
	LNAA*	55 ± 11	81 ± 14	73 ± 15	102 ± 23	88 ± 18	86 ± 12
	Caffeine + LNAA	62 ± 13	99 ± 24	75 ± 4	112 ± 22	96 ± 18	93 ± 14
Tryptophan	Placebo^+	4.0 ± 0.7	3.8 ± 0.8	3.6 ± 0.8	3.9 ± 0.6	5.1 ± 1.8	5.4 ± 1.0
(µmol/L)	Caffeine^	4.6 ± 0.4	4.2 ± 0.7	4.0 ± 1.0	3.9 ± 0.4	5.5 ± 1.2	6.2 ± 0.8
	LNAA*	4.3 ± 0.7	3.6 ± 0.5	3.4 ± 0.9	3.3 ± 1.1	4.2 ± 1.1	4.8 ± 1.2
	Caffeine + LNAA*	4.9 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 0.8	3.9 ± 0.7	4.1 ± 1.4	4.9 ± 0.8	5.2 ± 0.8
 * denotes significant difference between treatment and caffeine + LNAA treatment over all time points where p ≤ 0.05 ^ denotes significant difference between treatment and LNAA treatment over all time points where p ≤ 0.05 							

+ denotes significant difference between treatment and caffeine treatment over all time points where $p \le 0.05$ # denotes significant difference between treatment and placebo treatment over all time points where $p \le 0.05$

Variable	Condition	Pre	Half-Time	Post
Mean MVC force	Iean MVC force Placebo (nM)		188 ± 48	195 ± 53
(IIIVI)	Caffeine	218 ± 43	213 ± 44	226 ± 62
	LNAA	212 ± 46	204 ± 36	216 ± 40
	Caffeine + LNAA	215 ± 35	223 ± 41	231 ± 33
Mean twitch force	Placebo	68.5 ± 21.6	62.7 ± 22.9	71.2 ± 24.5
(IIIVI)	Caffeine	68.1 ± 19.3	65.8 ± 22.9	69.5 ± 15.6
	LNAA	68.9 ± 20.9	65.0 ± 17.5	66.1 ± 14.5
	Caffeine + LNAA	62.8 ± 17.4	59.5 ± 12.2	71.0 ± 16.3
Central activation	Placebo	92.6 ± 2.9	91.1 ± 5.3	90.7 ± 7.6
(%)	Caffeine	93.5 ± 1.5	92.5 ± 2.5	92.3 ± 5.5
	LNAA	92.9 ± 4.2	92.5 ± 4.7	92.9 ± 4.5
	Caffeine + LNAA	94.5 ± 2.0	93.9 ± 3.8	96.1 ± 2.2

Supplementary Table 4. Individual time point data (3 time points) for main outcome variables. Data are mean \pm SD