

1 **DIETARY NITRATE DOES NOT MODIFY BLOOD PRESSURE AND**  
2 **CARDIAC OUTPUT AT REST AND DURING EXERCISE IN OLDER**  
3 **ADULTS: A RANDOMISED CROSS OVER STUDY**

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21 #Equal Contribution

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43 **ABSTRACT**

44 Dietary nitrate ( $NO_3^-$ ) supplementation has been associated with improved vascular and  
45 metabolic health. We conducted a double-blind, cross-over, placebo-controlled RCT to  
46 investigate the effects of 7-day consumption of beetroot juice compared with placebo on 1)  
47 blood pressure (BP) measured in resting conditions and during exercise, 2) cardiac and  
48 peripheral vascular function and 3) biomarkers of inflammation, oxidative stress and  
49 endothelial integrity.

50 Twenty non-smoking healthy participants aged 60-75y and BMI 20.0-29.9kg/m<sup>2</sup> were  
51 recruited. Measurement were conducted before and after each 7-day intervention period.  
52 Consumption of  $NO_3^-$  had no effect on resting systolic and diastolic BP.  $NO_3^-$  consumption  
53 did not improve indexes of central and peripheral cardiac function responses during  
54 cardiopulmonary exercise testing. Dietary  $NO_3^-$  supplementation did not modify biomarkers  
55 of inflammation, oxidative stress and endothelial integrity.

56 This study do not support the short-term benefits of dietary  $NO_3^-$  supplementation on  
57 physiological and biochemical markers of vascular health in older healthy adults.

58 **Trial Registration:** ISRCTN19064955

## 59 INTRODUCTION

60 Ageing is a primary risk factor for atherosclerosis and cardiovascular diseases (CVD)(North  
61 and Sinclair 2012). Cardiac ageing is characterised by prominent changes in cardiovascular  
62 tissues including hypertrophy, altered left ventricular (LV) diastolic function and cardiac  
63 output (CO), and increased arterial stiffness. In older adults, resting CO is preserved by an  
64 increase in LV end-diastolic volume with a consequent augmentation of stroke volume (SV).  
65 With the increase in energy demands during exercise, older adults achieve people a higher  
66 SV and mean arterial blood pressure but lower heart rate and peak oxygen consumption  
67 compared to younger subjects. Therefore, SV during exercise in older adults is preserved by  
68 an increase in end-diastolic volume whereas in younger subjects is maintained by a  
69 progressive decrease in end-systolic volume(Cheitlin 2003, Houghton et al. 2016).  
70 Augmentation index was significantly higher in older than younger participants and was  
71 inversely related CO in older participants [3].

72 Nitric oxide (NO) appears to have pleiotropic effects on cardiac physiology(North and  
73 Sinclair 2012), being produced by all myocardial cells and is involved in the regulation of  
74 coronary vasodilation and cardiomyocyte contractility(Massion et al. 2003). NO is  
75 synthesised by vascular and endocardial endothelial nitric oxide synthases (NOS), as well as  
76 neuronal and inducible NOS(Rastaldo et al. 2007). The effects of NO on myocardial  
77 contractility appear to be mediated by the opening of sarcolemmal voltage-operated and  
78 sarcoplasmic ryanodin receptor  $Ca^{2+}$  channels(Rastaldo, et al. 2007). NO is also involved  
79 in the modulating post-ischemic cardiac remodeling infarction which may be mediated by a  
80 decreased mitochondrial permeability(Di Lisa et al. 2001).

81 NO is involved in several other physiological functions such as maintenance of vascular tone,  
82 platelet adhesion, angiogenesis, mitochondrial oxygen consumption, muscular performance  
83 and control of immunity and inflammation signalling pathways (Kelm 1999). Inorganic  $NO_3^-$

84 represents the final, stable end product of nitric oxide (NO) metabolism and it is mainly  
85 excreted in urine (~70%). Approximately 25-30% of circulating blood  $NO_3^-$  enters a non-  
86 enzymatic NO synthetic pathway involving salivary glands, oral microbiota and gastric acidic  
87 environment (Lundberg et al. 2009). Inorganic  $NO_3^-$  from food can also enter the non-  
88 enzymatic NO pathway, increase NO production and induce positive effects on  
89 cardiovascular function and muscle performance(Lundberg, et al. 2009). The role of ageing  
90 as a modifier of the effects of inorganic  $NO_3^-$  on cardiovascular outcomes remains unknown.  
91 Convincing evidence on health benefits of dietary  $NO_3^-$  on cardiovascular outcomes  
92 currently exists for young and middle-aged individuals (Gee and Ahluwalia 2016, Lara,  
93 Ashor, et al. 2015), whereas contrasting findings have been reported in older populations(Gee  
94 and Ahluwalia 2016, Lara, et al. 2015, Omar et al. 2016, Siervo et al. 2013). In addition,  
95 limited information is available on the effects of inorganic  $NO_3^-$  consumption on cardiac  
96 function at rest and during exercise in healthy adults (DeVan et al. 2015, Lee et al. 2015) and  
97 in patients with heart disease (Eggebeen et al. 2016, Zamani et al. 2015).

98 We hypothesise that dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption can increase systemic NO bio-availability and  
99 have a positive effect on central and peripheral hemodynamic responses of healthy older  
100 adults measured at rest, during different exercise intensities (low, moderate and high) and  
101 post-exercise recovery. We evaluated the effects of beetroot juice, chosen as a rich source of  
102 dietary  $NO_3^-$  , on blood pressure (BP), augmentation index (AIx) and hemodynamic  
103 parameters of cardiac function including CO, stroke volume (SV), cardiac index (CI) and  
104 heart rate (HR) measured at rest and during graded exercise on a stationary bike. We also  
105 evaluated whether dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption induced changes in circulating biomarkers of  
106 inflammation, oxidative stress and endothelial integrity to provide mechanistic insights into  
107 the effects of dietary  $NO_3^-$  on circulatory biomarkers closely involved in the regulation of  
108 vascular function.

109 **METHODS**

110 The trial was approved by the North of Scotland Research Ethics committee (14/NS/0061)  
111 and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was  
112 obtained from all participants. The study was a double-blind, cross-over, placebo-controlled  
113 RCT which took place between May and August 2014 across two sites (Newcastle upon Tyne  
114 and Sheffield). The duration of the each intervention was one week with a wash-out period  
115 between treatments of at least one week. This trial was registered in the International  
116 Standard Randomised Controlled Trial Number Register (ISRCTN19064955).

117 *Participants:* Twenty older healthy people (10 male, 10 female) were recruited (10  
118 participants per site). Participants were included in the study if they did not have medical  
119 conditions or were not taking medications that might influence the study outcomes. A full list  
120 of the inclusion and exclusion criteria is provided in the **Online Supplementary Material**.  
121 Participants were asked to maintain their habitual diet and to avoid using chewing gum or  
122 mouth wash for at least 48 prior to the baseline visits (first and third visit) and during each of  
123 the one-week supplementation periods.

124 *Study Overview:* A telephone screening was performed to check eligibility to the trial's  
125 inclusion and exclusion criteria. Eligible participants were asked to arrive at the research  
126 facilities after a 12-hour overnight fast and having avoided strenuous physical activity for  
127 three days preceding the visit. Eligibility to the study was confirmed by measuring BMI,  
128 resting blood pressure and conducting a resting 12 lead electrocardiogram. Participants were  
129 randomised to a cross-over intervention and the assessment continued with the measurement  
130 of body composition and collection of blood and urine samples and the assessment of  
131 physical capability (reported elsewhere). Participants then rested for one hour and consumed  
132 a meal providing approximately 300kcal (CHO=85%, PRO=3%, FAT=12%). After the 1  
133 hour rest period the exercise test was explained to the participants and they and they became

134 accustomed to the bicycle ergometer. The exercise protocol is described in **Figure S1 of the**  
135 **Online Supplementary Material**. After the vascular measurements and the exercise test,  
136 instructions were provided for self-administration of the nutritional intervention (14 bottles of  
137 either  $NO_3^-$ -rich or  $NO_3^-$ -depleted beetroot juice; 70ml x 2/day; Beet It, James White Ltd,  
138 UK) and asked to consume one bottle of beetroot juice each morning and evening for the  
139 subsequent 7 days. The daily dose of  $NO_3^-$ -rich (intervention) or  $NO_3^-$ -depleted (placebo)  
140 beetroot juice contained ~12mmol and ~0.003mmol of  $NO_3^-$ , respectively. This concluded  
141 Visit 1 of the trial. Participants returned to the research facilities in the morning of day eight  
142 after they had completed a seven-day supplementation period. Measurements were conducted  
143 approximately after 12 hours from drinking the beetroot juice as participants were asked to  
144 fast overnight before arriving to the research centre. The resting 12 lead ECG was performed  
145 and if normal the visit continued with a repeat of the assessments performed at visit 1. At the  
146 end of the second visit, participants were asked to resume their habitual diet and physical  
147 activity. After a wash out period of at least seven days the second phase (including Visits 3  
148 and 4) was conducted similar to the first phase with the exception that participants crossed-  
149 over experimental arms i.e. consumed the other intervention agent.

150 *Resting and Daily Blood Pressure:* Resting BP was measured in triplicate using an automated  
151 BP monitor (Omron M3, Omron Healthcare, UK) at each clinic visit with the participant  
152 seated comfortably for 15 min prior to the measurement and the arm supported at the level of  
153 the heart. The same BP monitor (Omron M3, Omron Healthcare, UK) was provided to each  
154 participant for the measurements of daily resting BP at home. Participants were asked to  
155 conduct duplicate measurements in a seated position in the morning before drinking the juice  
156 and in the evening before going to bed. Agreement of the daily BP monitoring was verified  
157 against the BP recordings obtained from the 24-hr ABPM (systolic BP,  $r=0.71$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  
158  $n=84$ ; diastolic BP,  $r=0.80$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $n=84$ )(Jajja et al. 2014).

159 *Resting and exercise central hemodynamics:* All subjects performed a maximal graded  
160 cardiopulmonary exercise test using an electro-magnetically controlled bicycle ergometer  
161 (Corival, Lode, Groningen, Netherlands) with online gas exchange measurements (Metalyzer  
162 3B, Cortex, Leipzig, Germany). The maximal progressive exercise test included cycling with  
163 10-watt increments every minute until volitional exhaustion. The 12-lead ECG (Custo,  
164 CustoMed GmbH, Ottobrunn, Germany) was continuously monitored and blood pressure  
165 (Tango, SunTech Medical, Morrisville, NS, USA) recorded at rest, during exercise and  
166 recovery (Newcastle Centre only, N=10). The test was terminated when the subject was  
167 unable to pedal at a cadence of 50 revolutions per minute or they reached maximal oxygen  
168 consumption. Peak oxygen consumption was defined as the average oxygen uptake during  
169 the last minute of exercise. Non-invasive central hemodynamics parameters (SV, CO and CI)  
170 were measured by bioreactance method (NICOM, Cheetah Medical, Delaware,  
171 USA).(Jakovljevic 2014) CO was estimated under resting and exercise stress testing  
172 conditions using the bio-reactance method which analysis the frequency of relative phase  
173 shifts of electrical current applied across the thorax using four dual-surface electrodes.  
174 Signals were applied to and recorded from the left and right sides of the thorax; these signals  
175 are processed separately and averaged after digital processing. The signal processing unit of  
176 the system determines the relative phase shift between the input signal relative to the output  
177 signal. The phase shift occurs due to instantaneous changes in blood flow in the aorta.  
178 Cardiac output is subsequently estimated as the product of stroke volume and heart rate.  
179 Cardiac Index (CI) is calculated by adjusting the CO for body surface area. A graphical  
180 description of the protocol is described in **Figure S2 of the Online Supplementary**  
181 **Material.**

182 *Augmentation Index:* A high fidelity micro-manometer was used to apply a gentle pressure  
183 and therefore flatten the radial artery in the non-dominant hand at the wrist under resting



184 condition using the SphygmoCor (AtCor Medical, NSW, Australia). Central aortic pressure  
185 and augmentation index was then calculated automatically using the SphygmoCor software.  
186 AIx was calculated as the difference between the first systolic peak and the second systolic  
187 peak of the central arterial waveform, which was expressed as a percentage of pulse pressure.

188 *Anthropometry, Dietary and Lifestyle Questionnaires:* Body weight and height were  
189 measured to the nearest 0.1 kg and 0.5 cm, respectively. The 9-item short form of the  
190 International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) was used to record levels of physical  
191 activity: 1) vigorous-intensity activity 2) moderate-intensity activity, 3) walking and 4)  
192 sitting. A combined total physical activity score was calculated and expressed in MET-  
193 minutes/week(CRAIG et al. 2003). The EPIC Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ) was  
194 administered at baseline and the FETA software used to extract dietary (energy and nutrient)  
195 information(Mulligan et al. 2014).

196 *Blood and Urine Collection:* Fasting blood samples were collected at the beginning of each  
197 visit and centrifuged at 3,000rpm for 10 min at 4 °C within 30min of collection. Aliquots of  
198 plasma and serum were frozen and stored at -80 °C for subsequent analyses. Mid-stream  
199 urine samples were collected, in fasting conditions, into sterile containers and stored at -20  
200 °C for subsequent analyses.

201 *Biomarker Analysis:* A modified version of the gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC-  
202 MS) method proposed by Tsikas et al(Tsikas 2000) was used to determine  $NO_3^-$  and  $NO_2^-$   
203 concentrations in urine and plasma samples and sum of  $NO_3^-$  and  $NO_2^-$  (NOx) was calculated.  
204 However, blood samples were not immediately processed (~30-45 minutes) to preserve  $NO_2^-$   
205 and therefore  $NO_3^-$  is the main contributor to the total concentration of NOx. The protocol  
206 and validation of the modified GC-MS method have been described elsewhere(Qadir et al.  
207 2013). Methods for the measurement of glucose, insulin, IL-6, 3-NT, cGMP, ET-1, P-

208 selectin, E-Selectin, intercellular adhesion molecule-3 (ICAM-3) and thrombomodulin are  
209 reported in the **Online Supplementary Material**.

210 *Statistical Analysis:* Repeated-Measures General Linear Models (GLM) were used to test the  
211 effect of  $NO_3^-$  consumption on measures of vascular function and blood biomarkers.  
212 Treatment (nitrate vs placebo) was entered as a group factor (Tr) and the time points of the  
213 incremental exercise test as the repeated factor (Ti). Post-hoc comparison between treatment  
214 groups at each time point was performed using the Fisher LSD test. Analyses were conducted  
215 using Statistica 10 for Windows (StatSoft.Inc, Tulsa, OK, USA). Statistical significance was  
216 set at  $<0.05$ .

## 217 **RESULTS**

218 *Participants' characteristics and safety:* Twenty participants were randomised to the  
219 interventions. One person developed an ischemic event during the physical exercise testing  
220 performed at the second visit and he was excluded from the study (**Figure 1**). The remaining  
221 19 participants (mean age  $64.7 \pm 3.0$  years) reported no side effects apart for the expected  
222 urine discoloration related to the excretion of beetroot juice pigment (beeturia). Baseline  $VO_2$   
223 max of participants was  $23.6 \pm 5.8$  ml/kg/min for men and  $20.5 \pm 2.8$  ml/kg/min for women.

224 *Body weight, dietary Intake and self-reported physical activity:* Mean baseline BMI was  
225  $25.6 \pm 3.4$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>. Body weight did not change during the study in either groups ( $p=0.51$ )  
226 (**Table S1 of the Online Supplementary Material**). Changes in self-reported physical  
227 activity were again not different between the placebo and the  $NO_3^-$  arms ( $p=0.99$ ) (**Table S1**  
228 **of the Online Supplementary Material**).

229 *Resting Clinic and Daily Blood Pressure:* **Baseline resting systolic and diastolic BP were**  
230  **$127.4 \pm 16.1$  mmHg (range: 100.0 – 168.0 mmHg) and  $76.2 \pm 9.6$  mmHg (range: 61.6 – 95.7**  
231 **mmHg), respectively.** Clinic systolic BP were not significant after  $NO_3^-$  consumption  
232 compared to placebo ( $-5.05 \pm 9.45$  vs  $-2.64 \pm 9.04$  mmHg respectively,  $p=0.42$ ) (**Figure 2a**).

233 Similarly, daily BP was not significant for both systolic ( $p=0.75$ ) and diastolic ( $p=0.63$ )  
234 readings measured over the 7-day period (**Figure 2b**).

235 *Augmentation Index:  $NO_3^-$  consumption did not have a significant effect on AIx ( $p=0.87$ ,*  
236 **Figure S3**).

237 *Blood Pressure and Cardiac Function during Standardised Exercise:  $NO_3^-$  consumption did*  
238 *not influence systolic BP response ( $p=0.92$ , **Figure 3a**) during exercise whereas a non-*  
239 *significant trend for lower diastolic BP after  $NO_3^-$  supplementation ( $p=0.08$ , **Figure 3b**).*  
240 *Specifically, lower diastolic BP readings were recorded during moderate sub-maximal*  
241 *exercise intensities (work rate: 40W, 60W and 80W). Dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption did not*  
242 *modify parameters of cardiac function (CO, HR, SV and CI) measured at rest, during*  
243 *exercise and post-exercise recovery (**Figure 4a-d**). In addition, one week dietary  $NO_3^-$*   
244 *consumption did not modify the association between CO and oxygen consumption ( $VO_2$ )*  
245 *(nitrate,  $B \pm SE = 6.04 \pm 0.34$ ,  $R^2 = 0.60$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; placebo,  $B \pm SE = 6.68 \pm 0.42$ ,  $R^2 = 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.001$ )*  
246 *measured at different levels of exercise intensities (**Figure S4 of the Online Supplementary***  
247 **Material**).

248 *Laboratory Biomarkers: Concentrations of nitrite plus nitrate ( $NO_2^- + NO_3^-$ ,  $NO_x$ ) in plasma*  
249 *and urine increased after  $NO_3^-$  consumption by  $150 \pm 77\%$  and  $979 \pm 488\%$  compared to*  
250 *placebo ( $-9 \pm 33\%$  and  $-13 \pm 34\%$ , respectively).  $NO_3^-$  consumption did not modify*  
251 *concentrations of fasting glucose ( $p=0.41$ ), insulin ( $p=0.95$ ) and HOMA-IR ( $p=0.88$ ).  $NO_3^-$*   
252 *consumption also did not induce any changes in biomarkers of endothelial function (cGMP,*  
253 *endothelin-1, E-Selectin, P-Selectin, thrombomodulin and ICAM-3), inflammation (IL-6) and*  
254 *oxidative stress (3-NT) (**Table 1**).*

## 255 **DISCUSSION**

256 This study does not support a beneficial effect in the short-term of dietary  $NO_3^-$  ingestion on  
257 cardiac and peripheral vascular health in older healthy adults. In particular, a lack of effect

258 was observed for BP and central hemodynamic responses measured both at rest and during  
259 increased metabolic demands. These physiological measurements were complemented by a  
260 panel of circulating biomarkers of metabolic control, oxidative stress and endothelial  
261 integrity. None of these measurements were altered by one-week dietary  $NO_3^-$  ingestion,  
262 which stimulate further discussion on uncovering the factors that may explain the lack of  
263 efficacy in older populations and the contrast with the more consistent beneficial effects  
264 observed in younger populations.

265 Extensive work has been conducted in the last decade to test the effects of dietary  $NO_3^-$  on  
266 BP but, despite numerous trials, the evidence is still limited due to the small sample size and  
267 short duration of completed trials(Gee and Ahluwalia 2016, Khatri et al. 2016, Mills et al.  
268 2016, Siervo, et al. 2013). Further research is especially needed in older populations,  
269 although patients with comorbidities such as peripheral arterial disease or heart failure (HF)  
270 appear to receive greater health benefits from dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption(Eggebeen, et al.  
271 2016, Kenjale et al. 2011, Zamani, et al. 2015). However, DeVan et al(DeVan, et al. 2015)  
272 have recently reported that sodium nitrite supplementation was well-tolerated and improved  
273 endothelial function and lessens carotid artery stiffening in middle-aged and older adults.  
274 Conversely, our group has recently reported non-significant effects of dietary  $NO_3^-$   
275 consumption on endothelial function and on 24-hr ambulatory blood pressure (BP) in older  
276 adults with and without type 2 diabetes (>60years)(Lara, Ogbonmwan, et al. 2015, Siervo et  
277 al. 2015). These results have also recently been corroborated by Bondonno et al who found  
278 no effect of seven-day dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption on home and 24-hr ambulatory BP in  
279 patients with raised BP (age range: 30-70y)(Bondonno et al. 2015, Bondonno et al. 2014).  
280 However, Kapil et al showed that a four-week intervention in drug-naïve hypertensive  
281 subjects (age range: 18-85y) significantly reduced clinic, home and 24-hr ambulatory BP and  
282 improved endothelial function(Kapil et al. 2015). The divergence of results is again part of

283 the discussion around the effects of dietary  $NO_3^-$  on health outcomes and priority is now  
284 being assigned to the identification of factors accounting for the mixed findings. These  
285 factors may include phenotypic characteristics (i.e., age, BMI, health status) of the  
286 populations, dose of dietary nitrate and duration of supplementation, study design,  
287 measurement protocols of BP and vascular health, type of cardiopulmonary fitness test  
288 protocols. The dynamic BP responses during exercise have been investigated in young,  
289 healthy populations (Bond et al. 2014, Lee, et al. 2015) and in patients with COPD (Berry et  
290 al. 2015) and HF (Coggan et al. 2015, Coggan and Peterson 2016, Eggebeen, et al. 2016). In  
291 healthy young populations, two studies reported a decline of sub-maximal systolic BP after  
292 acute (single dose) and short-term (15 days) dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption (Bond, et al. 2014,  
293 Lee, et al. 2015). In older COPD patients, dietary  $NO_3^-$  decreased systolic BP at rest whereas  
294 only diastolic BP showed a significant decline during 5W pedaling and 75% of maximal  
295 work rate (Berry, et al. 2015). In patients with HF, acute dietary  $NO_3^-$  did not improve BP  
296 responses during knee extension or cycle ergometry tests at sub-maximal and maximal  
297 efforts (Coggan and Peterson 2016). However, one week of daily dosing with dietary  $NO_3^-$   
298 significantly improved submaximal BP in elderly patients with HF with preserved ejection  
299 fraction (Eggebeen, et al. 2016). Our study is the first trial to investigate resting and dynamic  
300 BP responses in older healthy adults and our results do not support a beneficial effect of  
301 dietary  $NO_3^-$  on oxygen consumption (data not shown) as well as vascular responses during  
302 exercise. Precisely why there is a lack of response to dietary  $NO_3^-$  in our study is not known  
303 since we have supplemented subjects for one week and administered a  $NO_3^-$  dose  
304 considerably higher compared to other studies (>700mg/day). The factors explaining these  
305 divergent age-dependent responses are still largely undetermined, which could potentially be  
306 related to a decline in the reducing capacity to convert  $NO_3^-$  into  $NO_2^-$  or sensitivity of  
307 cellular targets to NO.

308 In mice,  $NO_3^-$  consumption have been showed to increase the expression of calcium handling  
309 proteins in the heart, resulting in increased cardiomyocyte calcium signaling and improved  
310 left ventricular contractile function(Pironti et al. 2016). These findings have provided  
311 preliminary support to the role of dietary  $NO_3^-$  as a cardiac modulator, which have then been  
312 translated into clinical interventions in populations without and with impaired cardiac  
313 function. In healthy populations, acute dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption did not modify resting or  
314 sub-maximal CO(Bond, et al. 2014) whereas an improvement of CO and SV was observed  
315 after a one-week dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption(Lee, et al. 2015). The only study testing the acute  
316 effects of dietary  $NO_3^-$  on cardiac function in HF patients with preserved ejection fraction  
317 found greater reductions in systemic vascular resistance, aortic augmentation index and  
318 increased CO during exercise(Zamani, et al. 2015). We tested whether dietary  $NO_3^-$  could  
319 minimise the age-related decline in myocardial contractility and ejection fraction, which  
320 could prompt compensatory myocardial cardiac hypertrophy(North and Sinclair 2012). This  
321 enhances in the short-term CO but the long-term effect of LV hypertrophy are known as  
322 represents an important step in the development of HF and coronary syndromes(Gosse 2005).  
323 Our scope was to evaluate whether dietary  $NO_3^-$  could represent an effective and simple  
324 nutritional intervention that may minimise age-related changes in cardiac function and  
325 impact, from a primary prevention perspective, on the risk for HF. However, these  
326 preliminary results may not support the beneficial effects of dietary  $NO_3^-$  on cardiac function  
327 in older healthy populations but, if confirmed in more robust trials, dietary  $NO_3^-$  may still  
328 represent a promising nutritional strategy in patients with impaired cardiac function.

329 The small sample size and the short duration are important limitations of this trial and a  
330 cautious interpretation of the results is needed; nevertheless, our study is to date one of the  
331 longest trials testing the effects of dietary  $NO_3^-$  on resting and exercise vascular responses in  
332 older participants. **We did not assess daily dietary intake during the trial. However,**

333 participants were asked to maintain their habitual dietary intake during the study and the  
334 differences in nitrate intake between intervention and placebo groups were clearly  
335 demonstrated by the large differences in plasma and urinary nitrate concentrations. Plasma  
336  $NO_2^-$  concentrations were not measured since it was not possible due to logistic constraints to  
337 process the samples immediately after collection to minimise the immediate  $NO_2^-$  degradation  
338 (half-life: ~5 minutes). However, in previous studies testing the effects of dietary  
339  $NO_3^-$  consumption in older participants where plasma  $NO_2^-$  concentration was measured, an  
340 increase in plasma  $NO_3^-$  and NOx concentrations similar to the amount observed in this study  
341 occurred alongside a significant rise in plasma  $NO_2^-$  concentrations (Gilchrist et al. 2013). In  
342 addition, the measurement of NOx was critical to assess the compliance to the interventions  
343 as well as the attainment of a significant rise in plasma  $NO_3^-$  to enable an increased NO  
344 generation via the NO non-enzymatic pathway. Finally, the limitations of bio-reactance for  
345 the assessment of cardiac hemodynamic profiles have to be taken into account for the  
346 interpretation of the results.

347 Testing the efficacy of dietary  $NO_3^-$  consumption on cardiovascular health is an attractive  
348 research area due to the potential use of natural products to increase  $NO_3^-$  intake and  
349 applicability in long-term dosing. However, this short term intervention showed that dietary  
350  $NO_3^-$  consumption did not modify physiological and biochemical markers of vascular health  
351 in healthy older adults. However, these findings are preliminary and require corroboration in  
352 studies with longer duration and larger samples of healthy older individuals as well as in  
353 older patients with increased cardiovascular risk.

354

355

356 **Author contributions**

357 M.S. is the guarantor of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the study and  
358 takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. M.S.  
359 and E.W. designed the study. M.S. wrote the manuscript and researched data; C.O., D.J.,  
360 C.C., A.W.A., A.R., M.R., M.K., E.W. collected the data. All authors contributed to  
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## 376 **Conflicts of interest**

377 **None to report**

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## FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 1:** Plasma and urinary nitrate after either 7-day consumption of nitrate-rich or nitrate-depleted beetroot juice. Data presented as mean $\pm$ 1SE.

**Figure 2:** Resting (Panel A) and daily (Panel B) systolic and diastolic blood pressure (BP) measured during a one week oral consumption (End) with either nitrate-rich or nitrate-depleted beetroot juice. Data presented as mean $\pm$ SEM. SBP= systolic blood pressure; DBP= diastolic blood pressure.

**Figure 3:** Systolic (Panel A) and diastolic (Panel B) blood pressure (BP) at rest, during incremental exercise and post-exercise recovery after one week oral consumption with either nitrate-rich or nitrate-depleted beetroot juice. Data presented as mean $\pm$ SEM.

**Figure 4:** Heart rate (Panel A), stroke volume (Panel B), cardiac output (Panel C) and cardiac index (Panel D) at rest, during incremental exercise and post-exercise recovery after one week oral consumption with either nitrate-rich or nitrate-depleted beetroot juice. Data presented as mean $\pm$ SEM.