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Abstract

Enhanced buffering capacity following sodium citrate (SC) ingestion may be optimised when subsequent exercise commences at individual time-to-peak (TTP) alkalosis (blood pH or 7 bicarbonate concentration ($[HCO₃$]). While accounting for considerable inter-individual variation in TTP (188-300 min), a reliable blood alkalotic response is required for practical 9 use. This study evaluated the reliability of blood pH, [HCO₃] and [Na⁺] following acute SC 10 ingestion. Fourteen recreationally active males ingested 0.4 or 0.5 g kg⁻¹ body mass (BM) of 11 SC on two occasions each and 0.07 g kg⁻¹ BM of sodium chloride (CON), once. Blood pH and [HCO₃⁻] were measured for 4 h post-ingestion. Blood pH and [HCO₃⁻] displayed good reliability 13 following 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.819, p = 0.002, sTE = 0.67 and r = 0.840, p < 0.001, sTE = 14 0.63, respectively). Following 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC, blood [HCO₃⁻] retained good reliability (*r* = 0.771, *p* = 0.006, sTE = 0.78), versus moderate for blood pH (*r* = 0.520, *p* = 0.099, sTE = 1.36). TTP pH was moderately reliable following 0.5 (r = 0.676, *p* = 0.026, sTE = 1.05) and 17 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.679, $p = 0.025$, sTE = 0.91) versus poor for [HCO₃] following 0.5 (r = 18 0.183, $p = 0.361$, sTE = 5.38) and 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.290, $p = 0.273$, sTE = 2.50). While 19 the magnitude of (and displacement in) blood alkalosis, particularly [HCO $_3$] appears reliable following potentially ergogenic doses of SC, strategies based on individual TTP cannot be recommended.

Keywords

- Acidity, buffering and individual response
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32 **Introduction**

33 Exercise bouts including high-intensity and endurance-intensive efforts (>6 s to ≥1 min) are 34 associated with high levels of glycolytic flux (van Loon et al., 2001; Romjin et al., 1993) and 35 reductions in muscle and blood pH and bicarbonate concentration ([HCO $_3$]) (Fitts, 1994). 36 Peripheral fatigue may develop when any of the associated regulatory/support systems cannot 37 promote the necessary muscular contractile force and/or sustain the bioenergetics and 38 metabolic biproduct removal required to maintain exercise intensity (Keyser, 2010). For 39 example, greater hydrogen ion $(H⁺)$ production versus removal, represents the limits of 40 $\,$ endogenous HCO₃ buffering capacity. Buffering agents such as sodium citrate (SC) are 41 ingested to increase blood alkalosis (increasing both blood $[HCO₃]$ and pH), with 42 simultaneous increases in blood electrolytes, particularly sodium (Na⁺). The resultant 43 alteration to the intracellular-extracellular pH gradient promotes upregulation of the lactate-H⁺ 44 co-transporter, supporting greater efflux of H⁺ from the muscle (Bishop et al., 2004). Current 45 recommendations propose ingesting 0.4-0.5 g kg⁻¹ body mass (BM) SC to ensure sufficient 46 alkalosis to improve performance, while greater doses may promote additional gastrointestinal 47 symptoms (GIS) (Urwin et al., 2021b; Cerullo et al., 2020). Urwin et al. (2021b) found that SC 48 was most frequently associated with performance improvements when 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM was 49 ingested, relative to < 0.5 or > 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM. McNaughton et al. (1990) partly support this, 50 observing greater total work and peak power output during a 60 s cycle sprint post-ingestion 51 of 0.5 compared to 0.4, 0.3, 0.2 and 0.1 $g \, kg^{-1}$ BM SC and a placebo. In their review, Urwin et 52 al. (2021b) noted that no studies implementing > 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM SC reported a performance 53 benefit versus placebo, irrespective of exercise duration/intensity. Cerullo et al. (2020) 54 recommend 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM based on a lone study by Hausswirth et al. (1995) who linked 0.4 55 gkg⁻¹ BM SC with increased endurance time during prolonged isometric knee extension at 56 35% of the maximum voluntary contraction (MVC). Therefore, 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC potentially represents a minimum effective dose. Greater effects post-ingestion of extracellular buffers 58 are purported when increases in blood $[HCO₃]$ are medium (4-6 mmol L⁻¹) and large (> 6 59 mmol L⁻¹) compared to small (≤ 4 mmol L⁻¹) (de Oliveira et al., 2021). Accordingly, SC induces 60 large increases in blood [HCO₃] of up to 8.9 mmol L^{-1} , although the time-to-peak (TTP) is subject to substantial inter-individual variability (Urwin et al., 2022; 2021a; 2019).

63 Post-ingestion of 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM SC, individual TTP [HCO₃] may range between 148-212 min when administered aqueously (Urwin et al., 2016; 2019), compared to 188-300 (Urwin et al., 65 2022; 2021a; 2019) and \sim 145 (\pm 28) min (Peacock et al., 2021) when encapsulated in gelatine and delayed-release forms, respectively. Given SC has typically been administered at generalised timepoints pre-exercise (i.e., 60 or 90 min), replicating responses following SB (de Salles Painelli & Junior, 2018), it is unlikely that research has appropriately timed exercise 69 with increases in blood [HCO₃] at/around peak (Urwin et al., 2021b). Accordingly, an unclear effect of SC (0.0% (±1.3%)) on performance remains (Carr, Hopkins & Gore, 2011).

72 Commencing exercise alongside individual TTP alkalosis (blood pH and/or $[HCO₃$]) provides a potential strategy to account for inter-individual variation post-ingestion of buffering agents, with a growing body of research in SB (Lassen et al., 2021; Boegman et al., 2020; Gough et al., 2017a; 2017b; Miller et al., 2016). Only Boegman et al. (2020) directly compared an individualised (40-160 min pre-exercise) to a generalised approach (60 min pre-exercise). They observed significantly improved 2000 m rowing time-trial performance for 18/23 world-78 class rowers (individualised = 367.0 ± 10.5 s vs. generalised = 369.0 ± 10.3 s). This followed 79 only small differences in pre-exercise blood $[HCO₃]$ 80 (individualised = + 6 mmol L⁻¹ vs. generalised = + 5.5 mmol L⁻¹) suggesting that a maximal 81 increase rather than 'meaningful' increase within proposed thresholds (i.e., 4-6 mmol L^{-1} +) could provide added benefit, although other mechanisms/perspectives are plausible (Newbury et al., 2021; de Oliveira et al., 2020).

85 For application of TTP, understanding the reliability of the blood alkalotic response ([HCO $_3$] and pH) following acute SC is necessary. Many metabolic reactions either produce or consume acids and bases, with net endogenous acid production (NEAP) regulated primarily by diet. Given variations in NEAP may impact acid-base balance, the applicability of an individualised approach based on blood alkalosis is contingent on the reliability of these analytes day-to-day (Poupin et al., 2012; Remer, 2001).

 Gough et al. (2017a) previously investigated the reliability of the blood alkalotic response post-93 ingestion of 0.2-0.3 g kg⁻¹ BM SB, provided aqueously. Data support the use of an 94 individualised strategy, with blood [HCO₃⁻] and pH demonstrating good reliability for TTP and absolute change. No such investigation has explored this following acute SC ingestion. Moreover, building evidence now favours encapsulation over solution to mitigate GIS post- ingestion of extracellular buffers (Peacock et al., 2021; Urwin et al. 2021b; 2019). Therefore, 98 the aim of the current research was to evaluate the reliability of individual blood pH, HCO₃ 99 and Na⁺ responses post-ingestion of 0.4 and 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM of SC, provided in gelatine capsules.

Method

Participants

 Participants were invited based on their engagement in any sport/activity that may benefit from an enhanced buffering capacity (Urwin et al. 2021b). Fourteen recreationally active males 106 (height 1.81 \pm 0.55 m, BM 81.4 \pm 8.9 kg, age 27 \pm 4 years, peak oxygen uptake [VO_{2peak}] 41.4 107 ± 13.0 ml kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) volunteered for this double-blind, randomised crossover study. Ethical approval was granted by institutional research ethics sub-committee (SPA-REC-2019-252R1). Each participant provided written informed consent and completed health screening before commencing data collection. Participants were also screened to confirm they had not ingested 111 intra- or extracellular buffering agents within the last six months and were not restricting Na⁺ intake.

Pre-experimental Procedures

 Participants reported to the laboratory on six separate occasions, 4 h postprandial and at the 116 same time of day (~09:00) to minimise circadian variability (Johnston, 2014). Participants were asked to avoid alcohol and any strenuous/unaccustomed exercise for 24 h prior to each visit (Lieber, 2000). Caffeine was also prohibited 12 h before each visit to limit disturbances to metabolic regulation (Westerterp-Platenga et al., 2006) and mitigate additional GIS risk (Boekama et al., 1999). Adherence to pre-experimental controls was confirmed verbally prior to each trial. Visits were conducted at least 48 h apart to facilitate washout of residual SC (Urwin et al., 2021a).

124 **Determination of VO**_{2peak}

125 Peak VO₂ was determined utilising a ramp test. This test began with 5-min unloaded pedalling 126 into a ramped increase of 0.5 Watts per second (Ws⁻¹), equating to 30 W·min⁻¹. A preferred cadence between 70-90 rpm was selected pre-test, with participants asked to maintain this cadence to within 10 rpm, until volitional exhaustion despite strong encouragement for 10 s. Tests were performed on an electromagnetically braked cycle ergometer (Lode Excalibur, Germany). Breath-by-breath gases were continuously analysed using a gas analyser (K5, 131 Cosmed, Italy) to measure oxygen uptake (VO_2) , carbon dioxide production (CO_2) and the 132 respiratory exchange ratio (RER). The VO_{2peak} was determined by averaging VO₂ over the final 30 s of exercise.

Supplementation Trials

 The five supplementation trials were randomised using a Latin square and involved one control 137 trial requiring the ingestion of 0.07 g kg⁻¹ BM of sodium chloride (CON), two trials requiring the 138 ingestion of 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM (SC4a and SC4b) or 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM (SC5a and SC5b) SC. Both sodium chloride and SC (Pro Athlete Supplementation, Rhymney, UK) were administered in 140 opaque (white), size '00' gelatine capsules (Bulk PowdersTM, Colchester, UK), which were 141 prepared by a laboratory technician not involved with the research. Capsules were consumed with 500 ml of room temperature (18°C) water within 15 minutes (Urwin et al., 2021a). To aid 143 blinding, capsule number was matched to that provided in the 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM trials (55 \pm 6), using cornflour to fill the remaining capsules.

 An initial arterialised fingertip capillary blood sample was obtained from participants whilst seated and rested pre-ingestion. After capsules were ingested (<10 min), blood samples were 147 taken every 17 min for 4 h. A heated blanket (45°C) was used to warm the hand prior to each sample to assist with blood sampling (Gough et al., 2017a). At each interval, a GIS questionnaire was completed to assess the severity of a range of symptoms on a visual analogue scale (VAS) where 0 = no symptom and 10 = most severe (Gough et al., 2024). Participants were asked to remain seated with only toilet breaks allowed. No food was consumed during testing, although water was consumed *ad libitum* in the first trial and replicated thereafter. Blood samples were collected in 100 µl heparin-coated clinitubes 154 (Radiometer Medical Ltd, Denmark) and analysed for blood pH, HCO_3 and Na⁺ using a blood gas analyser (ABL800 BASIC, Radiometer Medical Ltd). This device has demonstrated low 156 bias in the measurement of pH, partial pressure of $CO₂ (PCO₂)$ and Na⁺ (Radiometer Medical, 157 2015) and a correlation coefficient of $r > 0.98$ for both HCO₃ and pH, against other blood gas analysers (Stadlbauer et al., 2011).

Statistical Analysis

161 An a priori power calculation was completed using SPSS Sample Power 3 (IBM, Chicago, IL, USA) based upon an expected population correlation of *r* = 0.80, suggesting that a minimum of 11 participants were required to achieve 80% power (*P* < 0.05). An additional 3 participants were recruited to account for any potential dropouts. Assessed variables were initially analysed for normality (Shapiro-Wilks and Q-Q plots) and homogeneity of variance/sphericity (Mauchly). Both one-way (treatment) and two-way (treatment/time) repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to deduce differences in blood parameters with Bonferroni pairwise comparisons. Where sphericity was violated, the Greenhouse Geiser

169 correction was applied. Effect sizes were calculated using generalised eta squared (η_G^2) , where 0.099-0.0587, 0.0588-0.1378 and \geq 0.1379 represent small, medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). For nonparametric data, where the distribution of data was similar between groups, such as GI symptom scores, the median test was used with H scores, degrees of freedom and significance reported. For GIS, total symptoms (sum of each individual reported score) and TTP severity (first instance at which the largest individual score occurred) were used to determine overall GIS responses. Statistical significance was set at *p* <0.05. Heteroscedasticity was assessed using Bland-Altman plots. Test-retest reliability between conditions was evaluated using intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs), coefficient of variation (CV) [(SD)/mean x 100] and standardised technical error (sTE) (Hopkins, 2000), based on dose-response, determined using area under the curve (AUC) analyses. For ICCs, *r* < 0.5 = poor, 0.5-0.75 = moderate, 0.75-0.9 = good and > 0.9 = excellent reliability (Koo and Li, 2016). Ranges for CV (%) are interpreted as >20% (very poor), >10% (poor), <10% (acceptable), <5% (good) and >2% (excellent) (Stables et al., 2021). Interpretation of sTE utilised a modified Cohen scale, describing < 0.2 as trivial, 0.2-0.6 as small, 0.6-1.2 as moderate, 1.2-2.0 as large and > 2.0 as very large (Sparks et al., 2016). Where data was non- normally distributed, log transformation was performed. Non-linear correlation (Spearman's) 186 between absolute change and TTP was determined for both pH and $[HCO₃]$. Absolute change in pH and [HCO₃⁻] and TTP pH and [HCO₃⁻] were also assessed using Spearman's correlation. Calculations were completed using Microsoft® Excel 2019 (Microsoft Inc, Redmond, WA, USA) and statistical procedures were completed using SPSS version 29 (IBM, Chicago, IL, USA).

Results

Differences Between Ingestion Volumes

194 A significant effect of condition was observed for blood $[HCO₃^-]$ (F (1.8,24.0) = 5.836, $p =$

195 0.002, (η_G^2) , = 0.0982), pH (F (3, 39) = 3.195, $p = 0.034$, (η_G^2) , = 0.0509) and [Na⁺] (F (3,39) =

196 13.444, $p < 0.001$, (η_G^2) , = 0.2716) (Figure 1). Mean blood [HCO₃] was ~1 mmol L⁻¹ greater 197 following 0.5 versus 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC, which was significant in SC5b (29.26 \pm 0.30) but not 198 SC5a (29.36 ± 0.42). Small elevations in blood pH from baseline were also apparent following 199 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM, although further analysis was unable to detect any specific differences between 200 each condition. Lastly, small significant increases (\leq 2 mmol $\vert x \vert$) in blood [Na⁺], were noted 201 for SC5a (145 \pm 0.5 mmol L⁻¹) and SC5b (146 \pm 0.6 mmol L⁻¹) compared to SC4a (142 \pm 0.5 202 mmol^{L-1}, both $p < 0.05$) but not SC4b (144 ± 0.5 mmol L^{-1}). 203 --- 204 **Figure 1 About Here** 205 --- 206 A significant effect of time, with no combined interaction effects, was demonstrated for blood 207 [HCO₃⁻] (F (2.0, 25.8) = 212.3, $p < 0.001$, (η_G^2), = 0.6544), pH (F (14, 182) = 71.638, $p < 0.001$, 208 (η_G^2) , = 0.4342) and [Na⁺] (F (14, 182) = 40.116, *p* < 0.001, (η_G^2), = 0.2016). Comparing blood 209 [HCO₃] at individual timepoints, a notable increase relative to the control was observed in all 210 conditions from 68 min post-ingestion (F (4, 52) = 23.862, $p < 0.001$, (η_G^2) , = 0.7525), and 211 remained 238 min post-ingestion (F (4,52) = 87.449, $p < 0.001$, (η_G^2), = 0.7234). Differences 212 relative to control arose earlier for blood pH, starting from 51 min (F (2.6, 33.3) = 18.909, *p* < 213 0.001, (η_G^2) , = 0.3962) and again remaining 238 min post-ingestion (F (4, 52) = 46.890, *p* < 214 0.001, (η_G^2) , = 0.6543) in all conditions. While differences were highlighted at 102 and 153+ 215 min, blood [Na⁺] was similar between conditions throughout the sampling window. Further 216 analysis revealed no difference between conditions for absolute change in blood [HCO₃] or 217 pH (both *p* > 0.05). For TTP pH, a difference of ~40 min emerged between SC5b and SC4b 218 (182 ± 51 vs. 143 ± 47 min, *p* = 0.048), with no further differences between conditions, nor for 219 TTP[HCO₃⁻]. 220

221 A moderate correlation between TTP and absolute change in $[HCO₃]$ was observed post-222 ingestion of 0.5 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC (r_s (26) = 0.398, $p = 0.036$) but not 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC (r_s (26) =

223 0.245, $p = 0.209$). Neither 0.5 or 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM demonstrated an acceptable correlation 224 between TTP and absolute change in blood pH $(r_s (26) = -0.033, p = 0.866$ and $r_s (26) = 0.201$, 225 $p = 0.305$, respectively). There was no correlation between TTP blood [HCO₃] and TTP blood 226 pH following 0.5 (r_s (26) = 0.286, $p = 0.141$) or 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM (r_s (26) = 0.235, $p = 0.228$). For 227 absolute change in both measures, a moderate correlation was apparent following 0.5 g $kg⁻¹$ 228 BM SC $(r_s(26) = 0.416, p = 0.028)$, but not 0.4 g kg⁻¹ $(r_s(26) = 0.329, p = 0.087)$.

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231 Reliability of blood HCO₃, pH and Na⁺

232 Blood [HCO₃⁻] displayed good reliability post-ingestion of both 0.5 ($r = 0.840$, $p < 0.001$) and 233 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.771, p = 0.006), with moderate sTE (0.63 and 0.78, respectively) 234 (Figure 2a). Blood pH also displayed good reliability following 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.819, p = 235 0.002, sTE = 0.67), but only moderate reliability following 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC, although this was 236 non-significant ($r = 0.520$, $p = 0.099$, sTE = 1.36) (Figure 2b). Blood [Na⁺] displayed moderate 237 reliability for both 0.5 ($r = 0.728$, $p = 0.013$, sTE = 0.86) and 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC ($r = 0.667$, $p =$ 238 0.029, sTE = 1.00) (Figure 2c).

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240 **Figure 2 About Here**
241 **Figure 2 About Here** 241 ---

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243 243 Reliability of TTP was greater for pH, with moderate reliability following both 0.5 (r = 0.676, *p* 244 $= 0.026$, sTE = 1.05) and 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.679, $pp = 0.025$, sTE = 0.91). Comparatively, 245 blood [HCO₃] displayed poor reliability for both 0.5 (r = 0.183, $p = 0.361$, sTE = 5.38) and 0.4 246 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.290, $p = 0.273$, sTE = 2.50). Absolute change in blood [HCO₃] and pH 247 both demonstrated good reliability following 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.844, $p =$ < 0.001, sTE = 248 0.81 and r = 0.811, $p = 0.003$, sTE = 0.01, respectively). Post-ingestion of 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC, 249 absolute change was moderately reliable for both $[HCO₃]₁$ (r = 0.505, $p = 0.109$, sTE = 1.29) 250 and pH ($r = 0.536$, $p = 0.090$, sTE = 0.02). Both TTP and absolute change in [HCO₃] and pH 251 displayed large inter-individual variation (Table 1).

280 gkg⁻¹ BM SC, blood [HCO₃⁻] maintained good reliability, versus moderate reliability for pH. The

 blood [Na⁺] response was moderately reliable post-ingestion of both 0.5 and 282 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC. Secondly, TTP alkalosis demonstrated limited reliability for both blood pH 283 and [HCO₃]. Blood pH displayed moderate reliability between repeated ingestion of 0.5 and $\,$ 0.4 g $\,$ kg⁻¹ BM SC against poor reliability for [HCO₃]. Collectively, data suggest that while the magnitude of blood alkalosis, particularly $[HCO₃]$, appears reliable between repeated ingestion of potentially ergogenic doses of SC (Urwin et al., 2021b; Cerullo et al., 2020), a 287 strategy based on individual TTP alkalosis cannot be recommended. Indeed, blood [HCO $_3$] $$ peaked earlier (102-221 min) post-ingestion of 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM SC than previously reported (188-300 min) (Urwin et al., 2021a; 2021b; Cerullo et al., 2020), which was similar within-and-between doses. This may be partly explained by the provision of a carbohydrate meal (1.75 291 gkg⁻¹ BM) in some studies (Urwin et al., 2021a), opting to resemble real-world practice rather 292 than isolate supplementation effects through a 4 h fast. Whilst 10% of food may remain in the stomach after this period (Joneset al. 2016), meaning residual effects may remain even when fasted, it is possible that meal volume, composition and texture may have contributed to the differing timeframes (Gough et al. 2017a). Herein, it is also possible that capsule volume and size may have contributed to variability in TTP. Indeed, Middlebrook et al. (2021) 297 demonstrated that TTP [HCO₃] was significantly faster in smaller (size '0' = 94 ± 24 min) 298 compared to medium (size '00' = 141 \pm 27 min) and larger capsules (size '000' = 121 \pm 29 min) demonstrating a non-linear relationship between capsule size and TTP.

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301 Previous discussion has criticised individualised TTP as a strategy to optimise extracellular 302 buffer ingestion (de Oliveira et al., 2020). This approach requires access to a blood gas 303 analyser, for lengthy time-course measurement of blood $[HCO₃]$ responses. de Oliveira et al., 304 (2020) also suggest that TTP assumes that increases in circulating [HCO₃] are substantially 305 greater at peak, versus standardised timepoints. When provided aqueously, mean increases 306 in [HCO₃] shown at TTP by Gough et al. (2017b) (6.5 \pm 1.3 mmol \pm ⁻¹) were similar to increases 307 shown following 60 min; 6.1, 5.1 and 5.7 mmol L^{-1} (Gough et al., 2017a; Jones et al., 2016; 308 Dias et al., 2015), 90 min; 6.5 and 6.1 mmol L^{-1} (Gough et al., 2017a; Jones et al., 2016) and

309 120 min; 6.5 and 5.6 mmol L⁻¹ (Gough et al., 2017a; Jones et al., 2016) post-ingestion of 0.3 310 $\,$ g kg⁻¹ BM SB. Blood [HCO₃⁻] was also similar 60, 120 and 180 min post-ingestion of gelatine-311 encapsulated SB (Siegler et al., 2012), leading de Oliveira et al. (2020) to question the utility 312 of ingestion timing overall. Authors proposed a "window of ergogenicity", estimating that >80% 313 of individuals from the population may experience increased blood [HCO₃] of +5 mmolL⁻¹ 314 between 75-240 min post-ingestion and +6 mmolL⁻¹ between 90-225 min. Subsequently, de 315 Oliveira et al. (2021) linked greater exercise performance effects to medium (4-6 mmol L^{-1}) 316 and large (> 6 mmol L^{-1}) increases in blood [HCO₃], relative to small (≤ 4 mmol L^{-1}). While 317 blood acid-base kinetics may vary, a similar window of ergogenicity may exist for SC.

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319 Blood [HCO₃] was elevated above control in all conditions from 68 min, remaining elevated at 320 $\,$ 238 min post-ingestion. Absolute change ranged between 1.8-8.3 mmol L⁻¹ post-ingestion of 321 $\,$ 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM SC and 4.6-8.6 mmol L⁻¹ following 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC. Except four instances (all 322 SC5) where absolute change did not exceed 4 mmol $L^{-1}(1.5, 1.8, 2.9)$ and 3.8 mmol L^{-1}), SC 323 increased by 4, 5 and $6+$ mmol L^{-1} in 93%, 76% and 48% of all instances, respectively. 324 Excluding outliers, absolute change in blood $[HCO₃]$ remained lower than the 325 6.8-8.9 mmol L⁻¹ previously reported (Urwin et al., 2022; 2021a; 2019), demonstrating variable 326 HCO₃ kinetics, albeit within a potentially ergogenic range. Moreover, absolute change in blood 327 [HCO₃] displayed good reliability ($r = 0.844$) post-ingestion of 0.5 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC, versus 328 moderate reliability following 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.505). An ingestion strategy based on 329 absolute, rather than TTP responses post-ingestion of 0.5 g $kg⁻¹$ BM SC, may present the most 330 effective strategy to achieve an ergogenic effect.

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Alongside inducing sufficient blood alkalosis, reducing the incidence/severity of GIS remains a key component of effective SC ingestion strategies. Previously, SC has been associated with reduced incidence of GIS versus SB (Requena et al., 2005) although recently, GIS has been found to be minor for both substances, emerging 80-90 min post-ingestion for encapsulated SC, compared to 35-50 min for SB (Urwin et al., 2022). In total, 8 of 14 (57%) participants reported zero GIS. However, one participant experienced marked symptoms, representing 63% of the total pooled AU (357/566), suggesting that while GIS may be minor for most, some participants may still respond negatively to SC. Despite associations between greater ingested dose and GIS incidence/severity (Urwin et al., 2019; McNaughton, 1990), GIS was similar between conditions. Furthermore, both TTP peak and total symptoms 342 provided excellent-to-good reliability for 0.5 and 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC, respectively. This may be 343 explained by 7/9 instances (78%) of peak symptoms following 0.5 g $kg⁻¹$ BM SC emerging at the first timepoint post-ingestion (17 min). Participants linked this finding to the large volume of capsules ingested, contributing to a less palatable experience. Palatability may be characterized as the overall sensory experiences and level of preference for a food/fluid. Urwin et al. (2019) observed an improved palatability for encapsulated over aqueous SC, with similar GIS. This preference may relate to the excessively salty taste in the latter, an effect potentially 349 lost here due to the larger volumes of capsules (55 \pm 6 vs. 36 \pm 6) ingested – without a carbohydrate-rich meal. Individuals may seek to utilize split-dosing (Heibel et al., 2018) or more novel carbohydrate hydrogel delivery systems (Gough & Sparks, 2024) to limit the total capsules consumed, without impacting GIS.

Conclusion

 The magnitude of (and displacement in) blood alkalosis following acute, individualized doses 357 of SC, particularly [HCO₃], displays good reliability. Conversely, TTP blood alkalosis was not reliable. This may be explained by the impact of capsule volume/size on blood acid-base kinetics, which may also explainto reported GIS.. Alternatively to TTP approaches, strategies 360 supported by the sustained/absolute increases in [HCO₃] observed between 68-238 min post-361 ingestion, may commence exercise within a generalised timeframe post-ingestion of 0.5 g kg ¹ BM SC (>68 min) for a more precise, reliable response than previously reported. The reliability of subsequent exercise performance thereafter should be addressed, alongside alternate, practical approaches to SC ingestion than large quantities of capsules.

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- **Figure titles**
- **Figure 1.** Mean blood analyte responses for bicarbonate (top), pH (middle) and sodium
- 533 (bottom) following the ingestion of 0.5 (left) and 0.4 (right) $g \text{ kg}^{-1}$ BM sodium citrate (SC)
- 534 (repeated 'A' and 'B') or 0.07 g kg⁻¹ BM sodium chloride control (all). *Some error bars are*
- *omitted for clarity.*
-
- 537 **Figure 2.** Mean (±SD) area under the curve (AUC) for blood bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) (A), pH (B) 538 and sodium (Na⁺) (C) responses, following the ingestion of either 0.5 g kg⁻¹ (SC5) or 0.4 g kg⁻¹ ¹ (SC4) body mass (BM) sodium citrate (SC). Where 'r' represents the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC), '*' denotes a significant correlation between conditions and 'CV' illustrates 541 the technical error, expressed as a coefficient of variation (%).

Figure 1. Mean blood analyte responses for bicarbonate (top), pH (middle) and sodium (bottom) following the ingestion of 0.5 (left) and 0.4 (right) g·kg⁻¹ BM sodium citrate (SC) (repeated 'A' and 'B') or 0.07 g·kg⁻¹ BM sodium chloride control (all). Some error bars are omitted for clarity.

Figure 2. Mean (\pm SD) area under the curve (AUC) for blood bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) (A), pH (B) and sodium (Na⁺) (C) responses, following the ingestion of either 0.5 g kg^{-1} (SC5) or 0.4 g kg⁻¹ (SC4) body mass (BM) sodium citrate (SC). Where 'r' represents the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC), "*' denotes a signficant correlation between conditions and 'CV' illustrates the technical error, expressed as a coefficient of variation (%).

23 **Table 1.** Individual time to peak and peak absolute change from baseline in both blood pH and bicarbonate (HCO $_3$ ⁻) following 0.5 (SC5) and 0.4 (SC4) $\,$ g $\,$ kg⁻¹ BM sodium citrate.

CI = Confidence interval**, SD** = Standard Deviation, **CV** = Coefficient of Variation, **SEM** = Standard Error of Mean

Table 2. Individual gastrointestinal symptoms experienced following ingestion of sodium citrate 0.5 (SC5) and0.4 (SC4) g[.]kg⁻¹ BM sodium citrate (SC).

Where more than one symptom of equally high severity occurred at the same time point, both symptoms are noted.

Where more than one symptom of equally high severity occurred at different time points, only the symptom which occurred earliest is noted.

DT, LM and AS contributed to the study conception and design. DT, BD and NH aided with data collection. DT, BD and AS worked on the analysis and interpretation of results. DT, BD, NH, LM and AS were all involved in manuscript preparation

Authors confirm that there are no funding or potential conflicts of interest to be declared.