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1 The magnitude of the blood acid-base response but not time to peak is reliable

following the ingestion of acute individualized sodium citrate

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Abstract

5 Enhanced buffering capacity following sodium citrate (SC) ingestion may be optimised when 6 subsequent exercise commences at individual time-to-peak (TTP) alkalosis (blood pH or 7 bicarbonate concentration ([HCO₃-]). While accounting for considerable inter-individual 8 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 12 [HCO₃-] were measured for 4 h post-ingestion. Blood pH and [HCO₃-] displayed good reliability 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 = 13 14 0.63, respectively). Following 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC, blood [HCO₃-] retained good reliability (r =15 0.771, p = 0.006, sTE = 0.78), versus moderate for blood pH (r = 0.520, p = 0.099, sTE = 16 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 [HCO₃-] appears reliable 20 following potentially ergogenic doses of SC, strategies based on individual TTP cannot be 21 recommended.

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Keywords

Acidity, buffering and individual response

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Introduction

Exercise bouts including high-intensity and endurance-intensive efforts (>6 s to ≥1 min) are associated with high levels of glycolytic flux (van Loon et al., 2001; Romjin et al., 1993) and reductions in muscle and blood pH and bicarbonate concentration ([HCO₃-]) (Fitts, 1994). Peripheral fatigue may develop when any of the associated regulatory/support systems cannot promote the necessary muscular contractile force and/or sustain the bioenergetics and metabolic biproduct removal required to maintain exercise intensity (Keyser, 2010). For example, greater hydrogen ion (H⁺) production versus removal, represents the limits of endogenous HCO₃- buffering capacity. Buffering agents such as sodium citrate (SC) are ingested to increase blood alkalosis (increasing both blood [HCO₃-] and pH), with simultaneous increases in blood electrolytes, particularly sodium (Na+). The resultant alteration to the intracellular-extracellular pH gradient promotes upregulation of the lactate-H⁺ co-transporter, supporting greater efflux of H⁺ from the muscle (Bishop et al., 2004). Current recommendations propose ingesting 0.4-0.5 g kg⁻¹ body mass (BM) SC to ensure sufficient alkalosis to improve performance, while greater doses may promote additional gastrointestinal symptoms (GIS) (Urwin et al., 2021b; Cerullo et al., 2020). Urwin et al. (2021b) found that SC was most frequently associated with performance improvements when 0.5 g·kg⁻¹ BM was ingested, relative to < 0.5 or > 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM. McNaughton et al. (1990) partly support this, observing greater total work and peak power output during a 60 s cycle sprint post-ingestion 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 al. (2021b) noted that no studies implementing > 0.5 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC reported a performance benefit versus placebo, irrespective of exercise duration/intensity. Cerullo et al. (2020) recommend 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ BM based on a lone study by Hausswirth et al. (1995) who linked 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC with increased endurance time during prolonged isometric knee extension at 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 are purported when increases in blood [HCO₃-] are medium (4-6 mmol·L⁻¹) and large (> 6 mmol·L⁻¹) compared to small (\leq 4 mmol·L⁻¹) (de Oliveira et al., 2021). Accordingly, SC induces 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).

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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., 2022; 2021a; 2019) and ~145 (± 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 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).

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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 worldclass rowers (individualised = 367.0 ± 10.5 s vs. generalised = 369.0 ± 10.3 s). This followed differences only small pre-exercise blood [HCO₃-] in (individualised = + 6 mmol·L⁻¹ vs. generalised = + 5.5 mmol·L⁻¹) suggesting that a maximal 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).

For application of TTP, understanding the reliability of the blood alkalotic response ([HCO₃-] 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 postingestion of 0.2-0.3 g·kg⁻¹ BM SB, provided aqueously. Data support the use of an 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 postingestion of extracellular buffers (Peacock et al., 2021; Urwin et al. 2021b; 2019). Therefore, the aim of the current research was to evaluate the reliability of individual blood pH, HCO₃- 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 (height 1.81 ± 0.55 m, BM 81.4 ± 8.9 kg, age 27 ± 4 years, peak oxygen uptake [VO_{2peak}] 41.4 ± 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 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 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).

Determination of VO_{2peak}

Peak VO₂ was determined utilising a ramp test. This test began with 5-min unloaded pedalling into a ramped increase of 0.5 Watts per second (W·s·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, Cosmed, Italy) to measure oxygen uptake (VO₂), carbon dioxide production (CO₂) and the 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 trial requiring the ingestion of 0.07 g·kg⁻¹ BM of sodium chloride (CON), two trials requiring the 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 opaque (white), size '00' gelatine capsules (Bulk Powders[™], Colchester, UK), which were

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 blinding, capsule number was matched to that provided in the 0.5 g kg⁻¹ BM trials (55 ± 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 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 (Radiometer Medical Ltd, Denmark) and analysed for blood pH, HCO₃ and Na⁺ using a blood gas analyser (ABL800 BASIC, Radiometer Medical Ltd). This device has demonstrated low bias in the measurement of pH, partial pressure of CO₂ (PCO₂) and Na⁺ (Radiometer Medical, 2015) and a correlation coefficient of r > 0.98 for both HCO₃- and pH, against other blood gas analysers (Stadlbauer et al., 2011).

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Statistical Analysis

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

correction was applied. Effect sizes were calculated using generalised eta squared (η_G^2) , where 0.099-0.0587, 0.0588-0.1378 and ≥ 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 nonnormally distributed, log transformation was performed. Non-linear correlation (Spearman's) 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).

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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) =

13.444, p < 0.001, (η_G^2) , = 0.2716) (Figure 1). Mean blood [HCO₃-] was ~1 mmol·L⁻¹ greater following 0.5 versus 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC, which was significant in SC5b (29.26 ± 0.30) but not SC5a (29.36 ± 0.42). Small elevations in blood pH from baseline were also apparent following 0.5 g·kg⁻¹ BM, although further analysis was unable to detect any specific differences between each condition. Lastly, small significant increases ($\leq 2 \text{ mmol·L}^{-1}$) in blood [Na⁺], were noted for SC5a (145 ± 0.5 mmol·L⁻¹) and SC5b (146 ± 0.6 mmol·L⁻¹) compared to SC4a (142 ± 0.5 mmol·L⁻¹, both p < 0.05) but not SC4b (144 ± 0.5 mmol·L⁻¹).

Figure 1 About Here

A significant effect of time, with no combined interaction effects, was demonstrated for blood [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, (η_G^2), = 0.4342) and [Na*] (F (14, 182) = 40.116, p < 0.001, (η_G^2), = 0.2016). Comparing blood [HCO3] at individual timepoints, a notable increase relative to the control was observed in all conditions from 68 min post-ingestion (F (4, 52) = 23.862, p < 0.001, (η_G^2), = 0.7525), and remained 238 min post-ingestion (F (4,52) = 87.449, p < 0.001, (η_G^2), = 0.7234). Differences relative to control arose earlier for blood pH, starting from 51 min (F (2.6, 33.3) = 18.909, p < 0.001, (η_G^2), = 0.3962) and again remaining 238 min post-ingestion (F (4, 52) = 46.890, p < 0.001, (η_G^2), = 0.6543) in all conditions. While differences were highlighted at 102 and 153+ min, blood [Na*] was similar between conditions throughout the sampling window. Further analysis revealed no difference between conditions for absolute change in blood [HCO3] or pH (both p > 0.05). For TTP pH, a difference of ~40 min emerged between SC5b and SC4b (182 ± 51 vs. 143 ± 47 min, p = 0.048), with no further differences between conditions, nor for TTP[HCO3].

A moderate correlation between TTP and absolute change in [HCO₃-] was observed post-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) =

0.245, p = 0.209). Neither 0.5 or 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ BM demonstrated an acceptable correlation between TTP and absolute change in blood pH (r_s (26) = -0.033, p = 0.866 and r_s (26) = 0.201, p = 0.305, respectively). There was no correlation between TTP blood [HCO₃-] and TTP blood 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 absolute change in both measures, a moderate correlation was apparent following 0.5 g·kg⁻¹ 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).

Reliability of blood HCO₃-, pH and Na⁺

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

Figure 2 About Here

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

253	Table 1 About Here
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255	Gastrointestinal Symptoms
256	Total symptoms displayed excellent reliability following 0.5 g·kg ⁻¹ BM SC (r = 0.932, p < 0.001,
257	sTE = 0.38) and good reliability post-ingestion of 0.4 g·kg ⁻¹ BM (r = 0.863, p < 0.001, sTE =
258	0.56). Across all conditions, all participants reported a pooled total GIS of 566 AU. In total, 8
259	of 14 participants reported no GIS across SC5 and SC4 (see Table 2 for individual symptoms).
260	One participant (14) reported a total GIS of 357 AU across all conditions, equating to 63% of
261	all AU. Total symptom scores (ranks) were similar between conditions (H(3) = 0.929, p =
262	0.818) with the highest score in SC5a (30.43), compared to SC4a (29.39), SC5b (27.93) and
263	SC4b (26.25), respectively.
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266	Table 2 About Here
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268	Overall, TTP GIS was not significantly different between conditions (H(3) = 0.929, p = 0.818).
269	Reliability of TTP GIS following 0.5 g·kg ⁻¹ BM SC was excellent (r = 0.918, p < 0.001, sTE =
270	0.42) demonstrating a range of 85 (102-17) and 34 (51-17) min for SC5b and SC5a,
271	respectively. The largest range in TTP GIS occurred in SC4a (204 min (221-17)) compared to
272	SC4b (34 min (64-34)), corresponding to good reliability for 0.4 g·kg ⁻¹ BM ($r = 0.791$, $p = 0.004$,
273	sTE = 0.73).
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275	Discussion
276	This study determined the reliability of blood [HCO3-], pH and [Na+] following acute,
277	individualised doses of encapsulated SC, to inform the efficacy of an approach to SC ingestion
278	based on individual TTP alkalosis (blood [HCO ₃ -] and/or pH). Firstly, blood [HCO ₃ -] and pH
279	responses displayed good reliability post-ingestion of 0.5 g kg ⁻¹ BM SC. Post-ingestion of 0.4
280	g·kg ⁻¹ BM SC, blood [HCO ₃ -] maintained good reliability, versus moderate reliability for pH. The

blood [Na⁺] response was moderately reliable post-ingestion of both 0.5 and 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ BM SC. Secondly, TTP alkalosis demonstrated limited reliability for both blood pH 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 strategy based on individual TTP alkalosis cannot be recommended. Indeed, blood [HCO₃-] 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-andbetween doses. This may be partly explained by the provision of a carbohydrate meal (1.75 g kg⁻¹ BM) in some studies (Urwin et al., 2021a), opting to resemble real-world practice rather 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) demonstrated that TTP [HCO₃] was significantly faster in smaller (size '0' = 94 \pm 24 min) 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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Previous discussion has criticised individualised TTP as a strategy to optimise extracellular buffer ingestion (de Oliveira et al., 2020). This approach requires access to a blood gas analyser, for lengthy time-course measurement of blood [HCO₃-] responses. de Oliveira et al., (2020) also suggest that TTP assumes that increases in circulating [HCO₃-] are substantially greater at peak, versus standardised timepoints. When provided aqueously, mean increases in [HCO₃-] shown at TTP by Gough et al. (2017b) (6.5 ± 1.3 mmol·L-1) were similar to increases shown following 60 min; 6.1, 5.1 and 5.7 mmol·L-1 (Gough et al., 2017a; Jones et al., 2016; Dias et al., 2015), 90 min; 6.5 and 6.1 mmol·L-1 (Gough et al., 2017a; Jones et al., 2016) and

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

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

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 provided excellent-to-good reliability for 0.5 and 0.4 g kg⁻¹ BM SC, respectively. This may be 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 lost here due to the larger volumes of capsules (55 ± 6 vs. 36 ± 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 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 supported by the sustained/absolute increases in [HCO₃-] observed between 68-238 min postingestion, 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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531	Figure titles
532	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·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
535	omitted for clarity.
536	
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
539	¹ (SC4) body mass (BM) sodium citrate (SC). Where 'r' represents the intraclass correlation
540	coefficient (ICC), '*' denotes a significant correlation between conditions and 'CV' illustrates
541	the technical error, expressed as a coefficient of variation (%).
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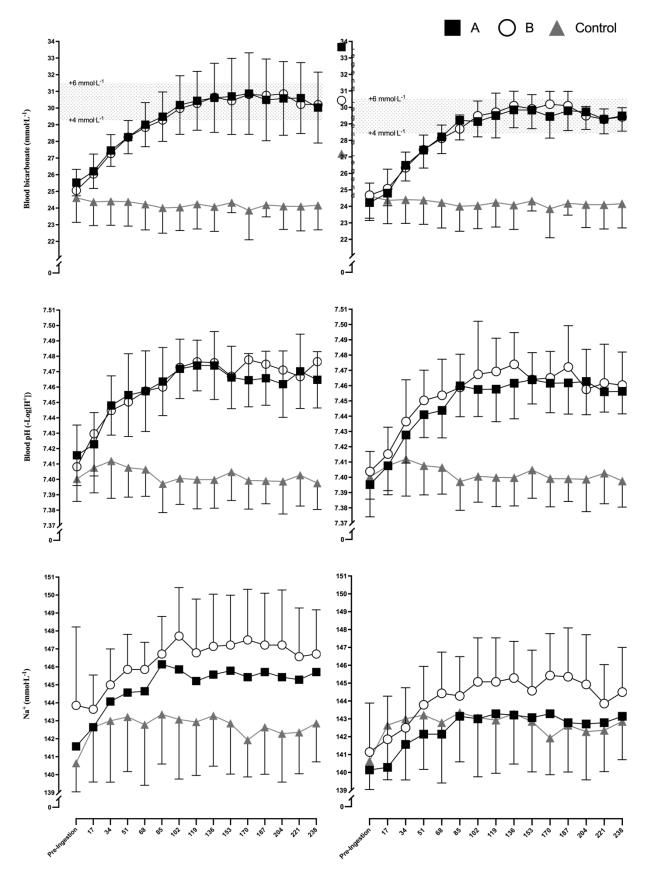


Figure 1. Mean blood analyte responses for bicarbonate (top), pH (middle) and sodium (bottom) following the ingestion of 0.5 (left) and 0.4 (right) g·kg⁻¹ BM sodium citrate (SC) (repeated 'A' and 'B') or 0.07 g·kg⁻¹ BM sodium chloride control (all). Some error bars are omitted for clarity.

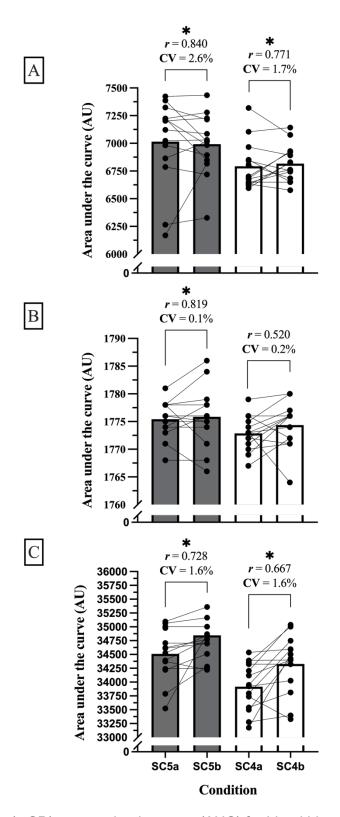


Figure 2. Mean (\pm SD) area under the curve (AUC) for blood bicarbonate (HCO $_3$ -) (A), pH (B) and sodium (Na+) (C) responses, following the ingestion of either 0.5 g·kg⁻¹ (SC5) or 0.4 g·kg⁻¹ (SC4) body mass (BM) sodium citrate (SC). Where 'r' represents the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC), '*' denotes a signficant correlation between conditions and 'CV' illustrates the technical error, expressed as a coefficient of variation (%).

Table 1. Individual time to peak and peak absolute change from baseline in both blood pH and bicarbonate (HCO₃-) following 0.5 (SC5) and 0.4 (SC4) g·kg⁻¹ BM sodium citrate.

	Time to peak (min)							Peak absolute change from baseline								
Participant	рН				HCO ₃ - (mmol·L ⁻¹)				рН				HCO ₃ - (mmol·L-1)			
	SC5a	SC5b	SC4a	SC4b	SC5a	SC5b	SC4a	SC4b	SC5a	SC5b	SC4a	SC4b	SC5a	SC5b	SC4a	SC4b
1	170	170	204	187	170	102	153	136	0.08	0.7	0.08	0.06	7.5	5.9	5.0	4.9
2	136	153	204	119	170	170	187	136	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.08	7.6	7.3	7.5	6.1
3	170	238	153	136	102	204	85	153	0.07	0.10	0.03	0.05	6.0	7.2	5.7	4.5
4	102	85	187	102	136	136	153	170	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.09	3.8	4.9	5.1	5.7
5	119	119	136	136	221	204	136	136	0.11	0.13	0.11	0.09	6.6	5.4	4.9	4.9
6	136	136	204	136	170	136	204	170	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.07	6.2	6.2	7.2	5.8
7	119	204	119	85	119	204	102	153	0.03	0.06	0.07	0.08	1.8	2.9	5.4	5.8
8	68	136	85	102	119	170	102	187	0.10	0.14	0.07	0.13	1.5	5.4	4.6	5.0
9	238	238	153	170	187	187	238	170	0.06	0.10	0.08	0.10	5.9	7.0	6.1	7.1
10	85	238	187	187	136	136	187	187	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.14	7.0	8.2	5.0	7.4
11	153	187	136	136	187	187	153	119	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.07	8.3	8.3	6.3	7.0
12	136	187	187	187	102	136	170	187	0.03	0.05	0.09	0.08	4.8	4.6	6.7	5.5
13	153	238	204	136	153	204	85	136	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.06	6.8	7.2	6.6	5.6
14	221	221	204	187	153	119	119	170	0.09	0.07	0.09	0.09	5.9	6.1	8.6	6.7
Mean	143	182	169	143	152	164	148	158	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.09	5.7	6.2	6.1	5.9
Range	170	153	119	102	119	102	153	68	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.09	6.8	5.4	4.0	2.9
95% CI	96-190	131-233	130-208	108-178	117-187	128-200	102-194	136-181	0.05-0.09	0.06-0.12	0.06-0.10	0.07-0.11	3.6-7.8	4.7-7.7	4.9-7.3	5.0-6.8
SD	47	51	39	35	35	36	46	23	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	2.1	1.5	1.2	0.9
cv	32.8	27.7	22.9	24.5	23.0	21.8	31.3	14.3	33.9	29.8	23.1	29	36.1	24.1	19.3	15.4
SEM	12.6	13.5	10.3	9.4	9.3	9.5	12.4	6.0	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2

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) and 0.4 (SC4) g·kg⁻¹ BM sodium citrate (SC).

Participant	SC	5a	SC5I)	SC	C4a	SC4b		
Farticipant	Total symptoms (AU)	Peak symptom	Total symptoms (AU)	Peak symptom	Total symptoms (AU)	Peak symptom	Total symptoms (AU)	Peak symptom	
1	47	Stomach bloating	10	Nausea	14	Nausea/stomach ache	32	Nausea	
2	8	Nausea/stomach ache	None	None	40	Nausea	2	Nausea/stomach ache	
3	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
4	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
5	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
6	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
7	8	Nausea	7	Nausea	None	None	None	None	
8	23	Vomiting	12	Diarrhoea	2	Flatulence	None	None	
9	None	None	None	None	4	Bowel urgency	None	None	
10	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
11	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
12	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
13	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	
14	49	Stomach bloating	54	Nausea	16	Bowel urgency	238	Bowel urgency	

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

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