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1 **The effect of caffeine mouth rinse on self paced cycling performance**

2

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 The aim of the study was to determine whether caffeine mouth rinse would improve 30  
27 minutes self-paced cycling trial. Twelve healthy active males (age  $20.5 \pm 0.7$  yrs, mass  $87.4$   
28  $\pm 18.3$  kg) volunteered for the study. They attended the laboratory on 3 separate occasions  
29 performing a 30 minute self-paced cycling trial. On one occasion water was given as a  
30 mouth rinse for 5 s (PLA), on another occasion a 6.4% CHO solution was given for 5 s and  
31 finally a caffeine solution (containing 32 mg of caffeine dissolved in 125ml water; CAF) was  
32 given for 5s. Distance cycled, heart rate, ratings of perceived exertion, cadence, speed and  
33 power output were recorded throughout all trials. Distance cycled during the CAF mouth  
34 rinse trial ( $16.2 \pm 2.8$  km) was significantly greater compared to PLA trial ( $14.9 \pm 2.6$ km).  
35 There was no difference between CHO and CAF trials ( $P=0.89$ ). Cadence, power and  
36 velocity were significantly greater during the CAF trial compared to both PLA and CHO  
37 ( $P<0.05$ ). There were no differences between trials for HR and RPE ( $P>0.05$ ). Caffeine  
38 mouth rinse improves 30 minute cycling performance by allowing the participant to increase  
39 cadence, power and velocity without a concurrent increase in perceived exertion and heart  
40 rate.

41

42 **Key words:** carbohydrate, oral receptors, ergogenic

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## 46 Introduction

47 Caffeine has been unequivocally shown to improve cycling endurance performance either by  
48 prolonging time to exhaustion (Graham *et al.*, 1998; Van Soeren & Graham, 1998) or by  
49 decreasing time to complete set distances (Bridge & Jones, 2006). In fact, very few research  
50 studies have found caffeine to have no effect on aerobic performance (Roelands *et al.*, 2011).  
51 Although caffeine has been shown to improve endurance performance, the exact mechanism  
52 by which this is achieved remains unknown. Caffeine has been found to counter the effects  
53 of adenosine, which is a compound similar to caffeine (Davis & Green, 2009). As such,  
54 caffeine is believed to enhance motor unit recruitment, bronchodilation, vasodilation, arousal,  
55 neuro-excitability, catecholamine secretion, lipolysis, plus reduce sleep and pain perception  
56 (Astorino & Roberson, 2010; Beck *et al.*, 2008; Hendrix *et al.*, 2010; Hudson *et al.*, 2008;  
57 Sokmen *et al.*, 2008; Warren *et al.*, 2010; Woolf *et al.*, 2008).

58 The dampened pain perception causes an ergogenic effect on performance, via greater  
59 exercise duration (Beck *et al.*, 2008; Bruce *et al.*, 2000). Davis & Green (2009) propose that  
60 performance decrements correlate with increases in muscle pain and a reduction in motor unit  
61 recruitment. However, Sokmen *et al.* (2008), Davis & Green, 2009 and Warren *et al.* (2010)  
62 advocate that pain perception does not influence muscular performance; rather,  
63 improvements in performance are mediated through maintenance of the Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> gradient and  
64 increases in calcium ions allowing more forceful contractions to occur and preventing plasma  
65 K<sup>+</sup> to rise. Caffeine also promotes the release of calcium ions from the sarcoplasmic  
66 reticulum, which ultimately allows more muscular contractions to take place, increasing  
67 strength and muscular endurance (Bellar *et al.*, 2011; Jacobson *et al.*, 1992; Warren *et al.*,  
68 2010). Conversely, Davis & Green (2009) state that the concentrations of caffeine required to  
69 elicit this effect on the sarcoplasmic reticulum would be toxic to humans. In a recent review  
70 by Meeusen *et al.* (2013) they suggest that the main mechanism of action of caffeine is  
71 through antagonism of adenosine receptors, influencing the dopaminergic and other  
72 neurotransmitter systems. Adenosine and dopamine act on the brain and can influence  
73 factors such as motivation (Meeusen *et al.*, 2013) and therefore this may be a large factor in  
74 the improvement of endurance performance with caffeine ingestion.

75 Previous research has shown that the optimum time for complete caffeine absorption is  
76 between 15 and 120 minutes post ingestion (Blanchard & Sawers, 1983; Bonati *et al.*, 1982;  
77 Kamimori *et al.*, 1995; Kamimori *et al.*, 2000) therefore researchers have often tested  
78 performance 1 hour post ingestion (Ryan *et al.*, 2013). However, research has shown that  
79 absorption at the mouth is much more rapid and can produce quicker response to caffeine  
80 ingestion than capsule ingestion (Kamimori *et al.*, 2002). This observation led researchers to  
81 use caffeine chewing gum to improve cycling performance with positive effects (Ryan *et al.*,  
82 2013; Paton *et al.*, 2010). Caffeine can be absorbed through the buccal mucoa and therefore  
83 does not appear to require ingestion in order to produce ergogenic benefits (Nicolazzo *et al.*,  
84 2003; Thakur *et al.*, 2007). Caffeine could then potentially increase performance by  
85 decreasing perceived exertion and reducing pain perception as mentioned previously as  
86 potential mechanisms for the ergogenic effect. Other mechanisms require a longer period of  
87 time for absorption therefore performance improvements are most likely pain perception and  
88 perceived exertion.

89 Carbohydrate mouth rinsing has been shown to improve high intensity cycling performance  
90 (Sinclair *et al.*, 2014; Chambers *et al.*, 2009; Pottier *et al.*, 2010; Rollo *et al.*, 2008) and is  
91 thought to improve performance through carbohydrate mouth receptors which control central

92 mechanisms associated with motivation (Chambers *et al.*, 2009). As the presence of caffeine  
93 receptors in the oral cavity is now established it could be hypothesised that a caffeine mouth  
94 rinse will also improve self paced cycling performance. Recent work by Beaven *et al.* (2013)  
95 has shown that a 1.2% caffeine mouth rinse solution improved repeated sprint performance  
96 which further supports the notion that caffeine mouth rinsing could improve high intensity  
97 cycling performance. However, more recent work of Doering *et al.* (2014) observed no  
98 improvements in time trial cycling performance when mouth rinsing 35mg of caffeine for  
99 10s, nor was there an increase in plasma caffeine concentrations. These conflicting results  
100 show that further research is needed. Therefore the aim of the current investigation was to  
101 determine whether caffeine mouth rinse improves 30 minute cycling time trial performance  
102 and whether there is a difference compared to a carbohydrate mouth rinse.

103

## 104 **Materials and Methods**

### 105 *Participants*

106 Twelve male participants (age 20.5 ±0.7 yrs, height 170.5 ±18.8 cm, mass 87.4 ±18.3 kg)  
107 were recruited for this investigation. Participants were recreationally trained cyclists and free  
108 from musculoskeletal pathology at the time of data collection. All participants also provided  
109 written informed consent. The procedure utilised for this investigation was approved by the  
110 University of Central Lancashire, School of Sport Tourism and Outdoors, ethical committee.

111

### 112 *Procedure*

113 Data collection involved four laboratory sessions. Participants were familiarized with the  
114 experimental procedure in session 1, whereas sessions 2-4 were utilized for data collection.  
115 Participants completed 30 minute simulated time trials for maximum distance using a cycle  
116 ergometer (Monark Ergomedic 874E, Monark Exercise, AB, Varberg, Sweden). For sessions  
117 2-4 in which experimental data was collected participants were administered either 25ml of a  
118 tasteless 6.4 % maltodextrin (Maltodextrin, My Protein) solution (CHO), 0.032 % caffeine  
119 (My Protein; this was selected as being the concentration of caffeine found typically in  
120 commercially available caffeinated drinks) solution (CAF) or a water bolus (PLA) which  
121 were rinsed for 5s at each 6 minute interval of the cycling time trial in accordance with the  
122 overall time intervals utilised by Sinclair *et al.* (2014). This study utilized a blinded  
123 counterbalanced design, and each session was separated by 7 days.

124

### 125 *Visit 1*

126 This session represented a familiarization visit during which participants completed a 30 min  
127 time-trial in the same manner as the experimental conditions. From this session ergonomic  
128 aspects such as seat height and ergometer resistance could be obtained and maintained during  
129 data collection. In accordance with Sinclair *et al.* (2014) a resistance of 2.0 kg was selected  
130 which was deemed to be adequate and achievable for all participants at a cadence of 60  
131 revs.min<sup>-1</sup>.

### 132 *Visits 2-4*

133 Participants were examined 4 hours post prandial and had not consumed any alcohol/ caffeine  
134 or conducted any vigorous exercise in previous 24 hours prior to the commencement of data

135 collection. Immediately preceding data collection all participants were fitted with a heart rate  
136 monitor (Polar RS100, Polar Electro), and then asked to position themselves in a comfortable  
137 position on the cycle ergometer. Prior to the data collection procedure a standardized warm-  
138 up was conducted which consisted of 5 min of cycling using a resistance of 50 W in  
139 agreement with the warm up protocol utilized by Sinclair *et al.* (2014) for the same protocol.  
140 Data collection was conducted at the same time of day to avoid natural fluctuations in  
141 physiological parameters due to variations in circadian rhythmicity.

142

143 The cycling ergometer was connected to a computer using Monark software (Varberg,  
144 Sweden) in which the outcome measures of heart rate (HR), cadence ( $\text{rev}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ), power  
145 output (W) and distance covered (km) were obtained at 6 min intervals throughout the trials.  
146 In addition, participants were also required to state their perceived exertion (RPE) using the 6  
147 to 20 point Borg scale (Borg, 1982) also at 6 min intervals. No interaction beyond requests  
148 for RPE and administration of the appropriate mouth rinse occurred between researchers and  
149 participants.

150

#### 151 *Mouth rinse administration*

152 Each participant was given a 25 ml bolus of a tasteless CHO, CAF or PLA for every 6 min of  
153 the total protocol. Participants rinsed the fluid around their mouths for 5s, and then spat the  
154 fluid back into a bowl.

#### 155 *Statistical analyses*

156 Descriptive statistics of means  $\pm$  standard deviation were obtained for each condition. To  
157 compare total distance covered using the three solutions during the 30 min protocol a one-  
158 way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted. To examine any effects of mouth rinse on  
159 pacing, HR and RPE 5 x 3 (time x trial) repeated measures ANOVA's were also conducted  
160 Statistical significance was accepted at the  $p \leq 0.05$  level. If the sphericity assumption was  
161 violated then the degrees of freedom were adjusted using the Greenhouse–Geisser correction.  
162 Effect sizes were calculated using and  $\eta^2$  ( $\eta^2$ ). All statistical procedures were conducted  
163 using SPSS v20.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

164

## 165 **Results**

### 166 *Distance cycled:*

167 @@@ **FIGURE I NEAR HERE** @@@ Figure I: Mean ( $\pm$ SD) distance completed in 30  
168 minutes during each condition (n=12). \* denotes significant difference from PLA.

169

170 There was a main effect for distance ( $P < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .51$ ). Distance cycled during the CAF  
171 mouth rinse trial ( $16.2 \pm 2.8$  km) was significantly greater compared to the PLA trial ( $14.9$   
172  $\pm 2.6$  km;  $P < .01$ ) (Figure I). Distance cycled during the CHO trial ( $15.9 \pm 2.9$  km) was also  
173 significantly greater than the PLA trial ( $P = .03$ ). There was no significant difference between  
174 CAF and CHO ( $P = .90$ ). However, 10 out of 12 participants cycled further during the CAF  
175 trial compared to CHO, and 11 cycled further during the CAF trial compared to the PLA.

176

177 *Pacing:*

178 Table I: Mean ( $\pm$ SD) overall values for HR, RPE, cadence, power and speed for each  
179 condition (n=12).

Mean ( $\pm$ SD)	Placebo	CHO	CAF
<b>Cadence (RPM)</b>	72.3 $\pm$ 12.5	77.0 $\pm$ 13.7*	77.6 $\pm$ 13.6*
<b>Speed (km.h<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	30.0 $\pm$ 5.4	32.3 $\pm$ 5.6*	32.3 $\pm$ 5.9*
<b>Power Output (W)</b>	145.3 $\pm$ 23.5	153.3 $\pm$ 29.0	155.2 $\pm$ 27.5*
<b>Heart Rate (beats.min<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	160 $\pm$ 26	162 $\pm$ 24	156 $\pm$ 24
<b>RPE (Borg Scale)</b>	13 $\pm$ 1	13 $\pm$ 2	13 $\pm$ 2

180 \*denotes significant difference from placebo.

181 Table I illustrates the mean overall values for each rinse condition. As can be seen in Figure  
182 IIa, there was a main effect for time for cadence ( $P<.01$ ,  $\eta^2= .49$ ) with post hoc analysis  
183 showing cadence being significantly greater during the last 6 minutes of the trial ( $P=.04$ ).  
184 There was a main effect for trial, therefore mouth rinse had an effect on cadence ( $P=.01$ ,  $\eta^2=$   
185  $.34$ ), with CAF ( $80 \pm 17$  rev.min<sup>-1</sup>) producing a significantly greater cadence than PLA ( $74$   
186  $\pm 17$  rev.min<sup>-1</sup>;  $P=.03$ ) with no difference to CHO ( $77 \pm 17$  rev.min<sup>-1</sup>;  $P=.65$ ). Speed also  
187 increased during the last 6 minutes of the trial (main effect for time;  $P<.01$ ,  $\eta^2= .40$ ). There  
188 was a main effect for trial ( $P=.02$ ,  $\eta^2= .29$ ) with CAF mouth rinse producing a significantly  
189 greater speed ( $35.1 \pm 8.3$  km.hr<sup>-1</sup>) than PLA ( $31.1 \pm 7.6$  km.hr<sup>-1</sup>;  $P<.01$ ; Figure IIb). There was  
190 no difference between CAF and CHO ( $P=.57$ ) and between CHO and PLA ( $P=.10$ ). There  
191 was a main effect for time ( $P<.01$ ,  $\eta^2= .49$ ) with power being greater during the last 6  
192 minutes of the trial ( $P=.03$ ). There was also an effect of trial ( $P=0.01$ ,  $\eta^2= .34$ ) with CAF  
193 producing the greatest power output ( $161 \pm 34$ W) compared to PLA ( $148 \pm 33$ W;  $P<.01$ ).

194

195 @@@ **FIGURE II NEAR HERE**@@@ Figure II: Mean ( $\pm$ SD) cadence (a) and speed (b)  
196 during the 30 minute exercise for each condition (n=12).

197

198 *Heart rate and RPE*

199 HR increased throughout all trials with a main effect for time ( $P=.00$ ,  $\eta^2= .79$ ; Figure III)  
200 averaging at  $160 \pm 26$ ,  $162 \pm 24$  and  $156 \pm 24$  beats.min<sup>-1</sup> for PLA, CHO and CAF respectively  
201 (Table I). There were no differences between trials ( $P=0.15$ ,  $\eta^2= .16$ ). RPE increased with  
202 exercise duration with a main effect for time ( $P<0.01$ ,  $\eta^2= .93$ ). There was also no difference  
203 between trials ( $P=0.65$ ,  $\eta^2= .04$ ; Table I).

204

205 @@@ **FIGURE III NEAR HERE**@@@ Figure III: Mean ( $\pm$ SD) heart rate (a) and RPE (b)  
206 during 30 minute exercise in each condition (n=12).

207

### 208 *Blinding efficacy*

209 For the CAF rinse trial 5 out of 12 participants correctly identified that they were on a  
210 performance enhancing solution, for the CHO rinse trial 5 out of 12 identified the  
211 performance enhancing solution. Finally 7 out of 12 guessed the placebo solution correctly.  
212

### 213 **Discussion**

214 The aim of the current study was to determine whether caffeine mouth rinse improved 30  
215 minute cycling time trial performance and whether there was a difference compared to a  
216 CHO mouth rinse. This study **represents only the second study** to examine the ergogenic  
217 effect of caffeine mouth rinsing on cycling time trial performance.

218

219 The results demonstrated both caffeine and CHO mouth rinse increased distance cycled  
220 during 30 minutes of self-selected paced cycling. This supports previous observations in that  
221 carbohydrate mouth rinse improved high intensity performance (Sinclair *et al.*, 2014;  
222 Chambers *et al.*, 2009; Pottier *et al.*, 2010; Rollo *et al.*, 2008). The results also support those  
223 of Beaven *et al.* (2013) who found 1.2% caffeine mouth rinse improved repeated sprint  
224 performance. **However, the results conflicted with Doering et al. (2014) who found no**  
225 **improvement in cycling time trial performance with caffeine mouth rinse. These are the only**  
226 **previous research to have investigated caffeine mouth rinse on exercise performance.**

227

228 Beaven *et al.* (2013) **demonstrated that 1.2%** caffeine mouth rinse improved repeated sprint  
229 performance. The present study examined a 0.032% caffeine solution as this is the quantity  
230 commonly found in commercially available caffeinated drinks. Studies investigating the  
231 effect of caffeine chewing gum on exercise performance (Ryan *et al.*, 2013; Paton *et al.*,  
232 2010) used similar quantities (300mg and 240mg respectively) to that of the present study  
233 (128mg). Unfortunately, the different mode of exercise and the concentrations of caffeine  
234 make cross comparisons between these studies difficult. However, it is recommended that  
235 future research could be performed to determine whether there is a dose response to  
236 performance. Since caffeine is absorbed through the buccal mucosa (Nicolazzo *et al.*, 2003;  
237 Thakur *et al.*, 2007) it could be hypothesized that absorption is positively correlated with the  
238 concentration of caffeine that is present in the rinse solution which would produce and  
239 enhanced ergogenic effect. **However, as previously mentioned Doering et al. (2014)**  
240 **observed no increases in plasma caffeine concentrations, so may be mouth rinsing will not**  
241 **produce a dose response due to absorption. The ergogenic effect could be due to receptors**  
242 **detecting caffeine in the mouth, rather than absorption similar to CHO rinsing. Recent**  
243 **research by Sinclair et al. (2014) demonstrated that 10 second CHO mouth rinse produced a**  
244 **greater performance enhancement than 5 seconds. This could be similar for caffeine mouth**  
245 **rinse suggesting that more caffeine activates more receptors in the mouth the longer the**  
246 **mouth rinse.**



247

248 The mechanism of action of caffeine is most likely to be adenosine antagonism (Meeusen *et al.*, 2013). This then influences the dopaminergic and other neurotransmitter systems. In the  
249 present study there was no differences observed in RPE between trials, even though distance  
250 covered was greater during the caffeine trial as was power, speed and cadence. This  
251 suggests that the participants were able to perform at a greater intensity at a similar RPE,  
252 indicating that there was an increase in motivation with caffeine ingestion. The increase in  
253 motivation is thought to be a result of adenosine and dopamine acting on the brain following  
254 antagonism of the adenosine receptors (Meeusen *et al.*, 2013). Improvement in performance  
255 may also be a result of a reduction in pain perception which is also thought to be one of  
256 caffeine's' ergogenic benefits (Davis & Green, 2009). Chambers *et al.* (2009) investigated  
257 functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) during carbohydrate mouth rinsing and  
258 determined that a CHO mouth rinse enhanced motivation and activity of motor control  
259 centres of the brain. It would of interests to both physiological and neurological populations  
260 to repeat this study using a caffeine mouth rinse to determine whether similar areas of the  
261 brain were stimulated.  
262

263

264 The key practical implication of this research is that athletes/active individuals involved in  
265 moderate to high intensity exercise can use CHO and CAF mouths rinses instead of ingesting  
266 these solutions and still achieve meaningful physiological benefits. It appears based on the  
267 current findings that a CAF mouth rinse will mediate greater ergogenic improvements in  
268 comparison to CHO; combining the two may improve performance to a greater extent as  
269 suggested by Beaven *et al.* (2013). Furthermore, the ingestion of both CAF and CHO has  
270 been associated with gastrointestinal distress during high intensity exercise as such the  
271 observations from the current investigation may have implications for the reduction of  
272 discomfort during exercise as rinsing the solution around the mouth does not require  
273 ingestion but still appears to provide ergogenic benefits.

274

275 In conclusion, the current investigation provides an addition to the current knowledge  
276 regarding the influence of both CHO and CAF mouth rinse on exercise performance and  
277 provides evidence to suggest that both CHO and CAF rinse can improve moderate to high  
278 intensity cycling performance. The underlying mechanisms behind these improvements in  
279 performance with the absence of solution ingestion remain undetermined currently and future  
280 work is required to determine the physiological processes that produce these performance  
281 enhancements. Nonetheless, this study shows that athletes performing in short duration  
282 cycling events could improve their overall performance by a CHO of CAF mouth rinse.

283

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