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1 **Title** Dietary nitrate supplementation enhances high-intensity running performance in  
2 moderate normobaric hypoxia, independent of aerobic fitness

3

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## 22 **Abstract**

23 Nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BRJ) increases plasma nitrite concentration, lowers the oxygen cost  
24 ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) of steady-state exercise and improves exercise performance in sedentary and  
25 moderately-trained, but rarely in well-trained individuals exercising at sea-level. BRJ  
26 supplementation may be more effective in a hypoxic environment, where the reduction of  
27 nitrite into nitric oxide (NO) is potentiated, such that well-trained and less well-trained  
28 individuals may derive a similar ergogenic effect. We conducted a randomised,  
29 counterbalanced, double-blind placebo controlled trial to determine the effects of BRJ on  
30 treadmill running performance in moderate normobaric hypoxia (equivalent to 2500 m altitude)  
31 in participants with a range of aerobic fitness levels. Twelve healthy males ( $\dot{V}O_{2max}$  ranging  
32 from 47.1 - 76.8 ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>) ingested 138 ml concentrated BRJ (~ 15.2 mmol nitrate) or a  
33 nitrate-deplete placebo (PLA) (~ 0.2 mmol nitrate). Three hours later, participants completed  
34 steady-state moderate intensity running, and a 1500 m time-trial (TT) in a normobaric hypoxic  
35 chamber ( $F_{I}O_2$  ~15 %). Plasma nitrite concentration was significantly greater following BRJ  
36 versus PLA 1 hour post supplementation, and remained higher in BRJ throughout the testing  
37 session ( $p < 0.01$ ). Average  $\dot{V}O_2$  was significantly lower (BRJ: 18.4 ± 2.0, PLA: 20.4 ± 12.6  
38 ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>;  $p = 0.002$ ), whilst arterial oxygen saturation ( $S_aO_2$ ) was significantly greater  
39 (BRJ: 88.4 ± 2.7, PLA: 86.5 ± 3.3 %;  $p < 0.001$ ) following BRJ. BRJ improved TT  
40 performance in all 12 participants by an average of 3.2 % (BRJ: 331.1 ± 45.3 vs. PL: 341.9 ±  
41 46.1 s;  $p < 0.001$ ). There was no apparent relationship between aerobic fitness and the  
42 improvement in performance following BRJ ( $r^2 = 0.05$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). These findings suggests that  
43 a high nitrate dose in the form of a BRJ supplement may improve running performance in  
44 individuals with a range of aerobic fitness levels conducting moderate and high-intensity  
45 exercise in a normobaric hypoxic environment.

46 **Key words:** Nitric Oxide, Nitrate, Exercise performance, Hypoxia

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Supplementation with dietary nitrate via nitrate-rich foods or nitrate salts elicits an array of  
49 potentially beneficial physiological changes. These include, but are not restricted to: lower  
50 blood pressure [1–3], reduced O<sub>2</sub> consumption ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) during steady-state exercise [4–6],  
51 attenuated muscle metabolic perturbations [7,8], and enhanced muscle force production [9,10].  
52 These effects are not directly attributable to the nitrate anion, which is relatively inert [11].  
53 Instead, the benefits of nitrate supplementation appear to be related to an increased production  
54 of the multifunctional signalling molecule nitric oxide (NO). Ingested nitrate is reduced to  
55 nitrite by symbiotic bacteria residing predominantly on the dorsal surface of the tongue [12,13].  
56 A portion of the nitrite is converted into NO in the acidic environment of the stomach [14,15],  
57 but the majority enters systemic circulation where it may be reduced to NO and other bioactive  
58 nitrogen oxides in the blood and tissue via various nitrite reductases [11].

59

60 Increasing NO bioavailability via nitrate supplementation has been reported to improve  
61 exercise time to exhaustion (TTE) or time-trial (TT) performance in the majority [5,16–18],  
62 but not all [23,24] previous investigations in untrained and moderately-trained individuals.  
63 Conversely, well-trained participants ( $\dot{V}O_{2max} > 60 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) are typically less responsive  
64 to dietary nitrate supplementation [17,19–21,25–27], even when very high nitrate doses (~ 19.5  
65 mmol) are administered [28]. Highly-trained individuals are known to possess elevated  
66 baseline nitrate/ nitrite reserves [29], may habitually consume large amounts of nitrate,  
67 subsequent to their increased calorie consumption [30], and exhibit greater presence and  
68 activity of the NOS enzymes, relative to the untrained [31]. Such differences may reasonably  
69 be expected to lessen the ergogenic effect of nitrate supplementation [30].

70

71 The reduction of nitrite to NO, and hence the capacity to influence NO mediated physiological  
72 processes, is potentiated when muscle pH [32] and PO<sub>2</sub> [33] decline. Conversely, the L-  
73 arginine NOS pathway becomes dysfunctional with low O<sub>2</sub> tensions and pH [33]. Such cellular  
74 conditions are likely to be especially prevalent during exercise in a hypoxic environment [8,34],  
75 such as experienced on ascent to terrestrial altitude. This suggests that nitrate supplementation  
76 may be more likely to enhance NO generation and therefore improve performance in hypoxia  
77 relative to normoxia. Moreover, an improvement in mitochondrial [35] and/ or muscle  
78 contractile efficiency [7] subsequent to nitrate supplementation which reduces  $\dot{V}O_2$  is likely to  
79 be especially advantageous when O<sub>2</sub> availability is low. This is supported by the findings of a  
80 recent study, in which nitrate supplementation improved tolerance to severe intensity cycling  
81 in hypoxia (F<sub>I</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 13.1 %) but not normoxia [36]. However, in other studies, nitrate  
82 supplementation has been shown both to improve [8,22,37] and have no effect [38–40] on  
83 hypoxic exercise performance. These equivocal findings may be attributed to differences in  
84 the training status of participants, exercise protocol, supplementation protocol, and hypoxic  
85 stimuli applied, and warrant further exploration.

86

87 Evidence from murine models suggests that the effects of dietary nitrate supplementation may  
88 be fibre type specific, increasing muscle perfusion and oxygenation [41,42], and enhancing  
89 calcium handling and force production [9] in type II muscle fibres only, as may be recruited  
90 during high-intensity exercise (for review, see Jones et al. [43]). Moreover, nitrate  
91 supplementation has been demonstrated to elicit beneficial effects when the contribution of  
92 type II muscle towards force generation is high, including at fast but not slow muscle  
93 contraction frequencies [44], and during the transition from moderate to severe but not  
94 unloaded to moderate intensity exercise [45].

95

96 It is possible that nitrate supplementation is especially effective when conducting high-  
97 intensity exercise in a hypoxic environment, such that individuals across a range of aerobic  
98 fitness levels may derive a similar performance enhancing benefit from dietary nitrate  
99 supplementation. This has considerable relevance, given the widespread popularity of travel  
100 to high-altitude (i.e. hypobaric hypoxia) each year for recreational (e.g. hiking, skiing,  
101 mountaineering) and sporting (e.g. training camps, high-altitude running events, and cycle  
102 mountain stages) purposes in individuals with a range of different fitness levels. Therefore,  
103 the purpose of this study was to assess the effect of nitrate supplementation on physiological  
104 functioning and TT performance in moderate normobaric hypoxia (equivalent to 2500 m) in  
105 individuals with varying aerobic fitness levels ( $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ ). We hypothesised that: (1) dietary  
106 nitrate supplementation would enhance exercise performance in hypoxia and (2) this effect  
107 would be consistent across a range of aerobic fitness levels.

108

## 109 **2. Methods**

### 110 **2.1 Participants**

111 Twelve healthy men aged  $24.4 \pm 4.3$  years, with a body mass of  $76.4 \pm 9.6$  kg, stature of  $181.6$   
112  $\pm 6.4$  cm, and maximal  $O_2$  uptake ( $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ ) at sea-level (normoxia) of  $62.1 \pm 9.3$  ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>  
113 <sup>1</sup> (range: 47.1 to 76.8 ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>) and simulated altitude (2500 m) of  $52.2 \pm 7.5$  ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>  
114 <sup>1</sup> (range: 40.8 to 61.8 ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>) volunteered to take part in this study. Participants were  
115 recruited across a range of aerobic fitness levels to assess the relationship between  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$  and  
116 the change in hypoxic exercise performance consequent to nitrate supplementation. The  
117 participant cohort comprised six competitive runners / triathletes (all with experience racing  
118 over 1500 m), four individuals who regularly took part in recreational sport but were not  
119 competitive athletes, and two individuals who were physically active, yet did not take part in  
120 any sport. The study received institutional ethical approval and was conducted in accordance

121 with the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants provided written informed consent prior to  
122 testing.

123

## 124 **2.2 Overview**

125 Participants visited the laboratory on five occasions within a six week period. On the first visit  
126 to the laboratory, participants completed an incremental running test to volitional exhaustion  
127 in normoxia to determine  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ . The values obtained were used to define training status.  
128 Each subsequent session involved exercise in a normobaric hypoxic chamber (TISS, Alton,  
129 UK, and Sporting Edge, Sherfield on Loddon, UK) situated at ~ 113 m above sea-level at a  
130 simulated altitude of 2500 m ( $F_{I}O_2 \sim 15.0\%$ ).  $F_{I}O_2$  was adjusted daily based around  
131 fluctuations in barometric pressure, and accounting for 47 mmHg water vapour pressure [46].  
132 Ambient air temperature and relative humidity were maintained at 20 °C and 50 % respectively.  
133 On the second visit to the laboratory, participants completed an incremental running test in  
134 hypoxia, to define altitude specific  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ , and elucidate suitable relative exercise intensities  
135 for the experimental trials. The third visit involved a familiarisation session, replicating the  
136 experimental trials but without any intervention. The fourth and fifth visits constituted the  
137 experimental trials. Experimental trials were preceded by the consumption of 138 ml  
138 concentrated nitrate-rich (BRJ) (~ 15.2 mmol nitrate) or nitrate-deplete (PLA) (~ 0.2 mmol  
139 nitrate) beetroot juice (BEET IT, James White Drinks Ltd., Ipswich, UK), administered in a  
140 randomised double-blind cross-over design three hours before exercise. Participants were  
141 asked to abstain from intense exercise, alcohol, and caffeine for 24 hours prior to each trial.  
142 Antibacterial mouthwash and chewing gum, known to ablate the oral bacteria responsible for  
143 nitrate reduction into nitrite, was also avoided [47].

144

145

### 146 **2.3. Preliminary trials**

147 A two-part incremental running test was conducted on a motorised treadmill (Woodway,  
148 Cranlea, Birmingham, UK) [48], once in normoxia and once in normobaric hypoxia.  
149 Participants completed five to eight sub-maximal stages lasting three minutes, separated with  
150 one minute recovery periods. Starting speed was determined based around perceived  
151 participant fitness. Running speed was increased by 1 km·h<sup>-1</sup> each stage, and a 1 % treadmill  
152 gradient was applied to approximate the energetic cost of outdoor running [49]. Finger-tip  
153 blood samples were obtained between stages to determine blood lactate concentration (YSI  
154 2300 STAT plus, Yellow Springs, Ohio). Exercise was ceased when blood lactate  
155 concentration reached 4 mM. The second phase of the test commenced following 5 minutes  
156 recovery. A fixed running speed equal to the final speed obtained during the first part of the  
157 test, minus 2 km·h<sup>-1</sup> was applied. The gradient was increased by 1 % every minute, until  
158 volitional exhaustion. Respiratory variables were monitored continuously via an online gas  
159 analysis system, calibrated before each trial according to the manufacturer's instructions  
160 (MedGraphics Ultima CPX, MGC Diagnostics, MN, USA).

161

### 162 **2.4. Experimental trials**

#### 163 **2.4.1. Protocol**

164 On the morning of each experimental session, participants arrived at the laboratory between 7  
165 and 9 am following an overnight fast. A cannula was fitted by a trained phlebotomist into a  
166 vein in the arm to enable repeated blood sampling. Participants then ingested BRJ or PLA  
167 within a 5 minute period and consumed a standardised breakfast (360 kcal, carbohydrates 62  
168 %, fat 22 %, protein 16 %) within a 10 minute period. They then rested in normoxia for 2.5  
169 hours, during which time water was permitted *ad libitum*. Participants then entered the hypoxic  
170 chamber, where they rested for a further 30 minutes. Exercise commenced 3 hours post-



171 supplementation, and included 2 x 15 minute bouts of steady-state running at 45 % and 65 %  
172 altitude-specific  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ , each followed by a 5 minute recover period. A 1500 m TT then  
173 commenced. Participants ran at a speed approximating 80 % altitude-specific  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$  for 30  
174 seconds as a 'rolling start', before the TT commenced. Participants were asked to run the 1500  
175 m TT as fast as possible. Running speed and time were not visible during the TT, although  
176 participants were informed of the distance they had covered at 200 m intervals. The treadmill  
177 gradient was set to 1 % throughout exercise [49]. We have previously demonstrated excellent  
178 reliability of this performance test (CV < 1 %)[50]. Participants rested in normobaric hypoxia  
179 for 10 minutes following TT, after which they were free to leave.

180

#### 181 **2.4.2. Measurements**

182 Ten blood samples were drawn throughout each experimental trial, comprising two, 4 ml  
183 lithium heparin containing vacutainers (Becton Dickinson, Plymouth, UK) for later  
184 determination of plasma nitrate and nitrite. Measurement points included pre-supplementation,  
185 30, 60, 90, 120, 150 (pre-hypoxic exposure), and 180 (pre-exercise) minutes post-  
186 supplementation, following each bout of steady-state exercise, and immediately post-TT.  
187 Blood pressure (BP) of the brachial artery was measured using an automated  
188 sphygmomanometer (Omron Healthcare Ltd., Kyoto, Japan) pre-supplementation, pre-hypoxic  
189 exposure, pre-exercise, and 5 minutes post-TT. Mean arterial pressure (MAP) was calculated  
190 as  $1/3 \cdot \text{systolic pressure} + 2/3 \cdot \text{diastolic pressure}$  [51]. At the same time points, a measure of  
191 exhaled NO was also recorded, using a hand-held electrochemical analyser (NObreath, Bedfont  
192 Scientific Ltd., UK). Four measures were obtained for BP and exhaled NO, and the mean value  
193 of the final three measurements was used for data analysis. Heart rate (HR) was measured via  
194 a chest worn heart-rate monitor strap (Polar Electro, Oy, Finland) pre-supplementation, pre-  
195 hypoxic exposure, pre-exercise, during the final 2 minutes of each steady-state exercise bout,

196 and immediately post-TT. Arterial O<sub>2</sub> saturation (S<sub>a</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) was monitored via pulse oximetry  
197 (Nellcor, Medtronic, Minneapolis, MN) pre-hypoxic exposure, pre-exercise, during the final 2  
198 minutes of each steady-state exercise bout, and immediately post-TT. Expired gas was  
199 monitored as previously described for 10 minutes pre-exercise, and during steady-state  
200 exercise. Data obtained during the final 5 minutes of rest and each steady-state exercise bout  
201 was averaged and used for subsequent analysis. Perceptions of exertion were also monitored  
202 during the final 2 minutes of each steady-state exercise bout and immediately post-TT using a  
203 15 point (6 – 20) ratings of perceived exertion (RPE) scale [52].

204

## 205 **2.5. Assessment of NO blood metabolites**

### 206 **2.5.1. Blood handling**

207 Blood samples were centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 3 minutes immediately post-collection.  
208 Plasma (1 ml) was drawn from each vacutainer into opaque cryotubes (Argos Technologies,  
209 IL, USA), each containing 6.5 mM N-ethylmaleimide (NEM) and 0.1 mM  
210 Diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA). NEM and DTPA were added to prevent the  
211 interchange between NO metabolites [53]. Cryotubes were immediately placed in a freezer at  
212 – 80 °C, for later analysis of nitrate and nitrite. 1 ml was also extracted from each 70 ml  
213 beetroot juice ‘shot’ prior to administration, and frozen in untreated opaque cryotubes at – 80  
214 °C for subsequent determination of nitrate concentration.

215

### 216 **2.5.2. Ozone-based chemiluminescence**

217 Plasma nitrate and nitrite concentration, and the nitrate content of administered beetroot juice  
218 were measured by ozone-based chemiluminescence as per the manufacturer’s instructions  
219 (Sievers NOA 280i, Analytix, UK). Briefly, nitrite was determined by addition of samples to  
220 0.17M sodium iodide in glacial acetic acid under nitrogen at room temperature. Sodium iodide

221 in acetic acid has the capacity to convert nitrite to NO, but is unable to reduce any higher oxides  
222 of nitrogen such as nitrate and thus is relatively specific for nitrite. To obtain concentration of  
223 total plasma nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>), we used the same apparatus with a stronger reducing agent  
224 vanadium chloride (0.1M) in hydrochloric acid (1M) at 95 °C. These stronger conditions reduce  
225 the sum of all nitrogen oxides, which is predominantly nitrate (μM) but also includes both  
226 nitrite (nM) and nitrosothiols (nM). Nitrate concentration was calculated by subtraction of the  
227 nitrite from NO<sub>x</sub>.

228

## 229 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

230 Data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 22. An  $\alpha$  level of  $p < 0.05$  was accepted for  
231 significance. Normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Non-normal data was log-  
232 transformed ( $\log_{10}$ ) prior to analysis. Physiological data was compared between trials using a  
233 two-way (time and condition) ANOVA. To adjust for asphericity, the Greinhouse Geisser  
234 correction was applied for  $\epsilon < 0.75$ , and the Huynh-Feldt correction was adopted for  $\epsilon > 0.75$ .  
235 Post-hoc analysis was conducted using t-tests with a Bonferroni adjustment. A paired t-test was  
236 used to compare TT performance between conditions. The square of Pearson's correlation  
237 coefficient ( $r^2$ ) was used to explicate the relationship between variables. A statistical  
238 spreadsheet was also used to derive a qualitative probabilistic inference for performance data  
239 [54]. One of the following verbal descriptors was assigned to describe the likelihood of a  
240 practically beneficial effect of BRJ on performance:  $< 0.5\%$ , 'almost certainly not';  $0.5 - 5\%$ ,  
241 'very unlikely not';  $5 - 25\%$ , 'unlikely';  $25 - 75\%$ , 'possibly';  $75 - 95\%$ , 'likely'; '95-99.5  
242 %', 'very likely';  $> 99.5\%$ , 'almost certainly'. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SD, unless  
243 otherwise stated.

244

245

## 246 **3. Results**

### 247 **3.1. Plasma nitrate and nitrite and exhaled NO**

248 Plasma nitrate, nitrite and exhaled NO data are presented in Figure 1. Pre-supplementation  
249 plasma nitrate concentration was no different between BRJ ( $28.8 \pm 14.3 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) and PLA  
250 ( $30.1 \pm 29.4 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was a marked increase in plasma nitrate concentration  
251 (i.e. a condition effect) in BRJ ( $493.0 \pm 174.4 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) versus PLA ( $32.5 \pm 34.6 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ,  $p$   
252  $< 0.01$ ). Significant effects for time ( $p < 0.001$ ) and time \* condition interaction effects ( $p <$   
253  $0.001$ ) were observed. Post-hoc analysis revealed significantly elevated plasma nitrate  
254 concentration in BRJ compared to PLA and pre-supplementation baseline values, 30 minutes  
255 post-supplementation, and at all subsequent measurement points ( $p < 0.001$ ). Peak plasma  
256 nitrate concentration occurred on average approximately 2 hours post-supplementation (BRJ =  
257  $594.1 \pm 90.5$  vs. PLA =  $33.9 \pm 35.6 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Plasma nitrate concentration was  
258 unchanged relative to pre-supplementation in PLA ( $p > 0.05$ ).

259

260 Pre-supplementation plasma nitrite concentration did not differ between BRJ ( $87.5 \pm 65.7$   
261  $\text{nmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) and PLA ( $91.7 \pm 70.8 \text{nmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) ( $p > 0.05$ ). Conversion of nitrate into nitrite was  
262 evident, with a significant effect of condition on plasma nitrite concentration (BRJ:  $468.0 \pm$   
263  $252.5$  vs.  $105.4 \pm 57.5 \text{nmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Significant effects for time ( $p < 0.001$ ) and time \*  
264 condition interaction effects ( $p < 0.001$ ) were observed. Post-hoc analysis revealed that plasma  
265 nitrite was significantly greater in BRJ versus PLA and pre-supplementation baseline values,  
266 1 hour post-supplementation ( $p < 0.01$ ), and remained higher in BRJ across all subsequent  
267 measurement points ( $p < 0.001$ ). Peak plasma nitrite concentration occurred on average  
268 approximately 2.5 hours post-supplementation (BRJ =  $660.4 \pm 265.0$  vs. PLA =  $109.7 \pm 61.0$   
269  $\text{nmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Plasma nitrite concentration was unchanged relative to pre-  
270 supplementation values in PLA ( $p > 0.05$ ).

271 Pre-supplementation concentration of exhaled NO was no different between BRJ ( $32.1 \pm 34.7$   
272 p.p.b.) and PLA ( $36.8 \pm 31.5$  p.p.b.) ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was a significant condition effect on  
273 exhaled NO (BRJ =  $54.1 \pm 39.8$  vs. PLA =  $33.6 \pm 31.1$  p.p.b.,  $p = 0.002$ ). Significant effects  
274 for time ( $p = 0.021$ ) and time \* condition interaction effects ( $p = 0.002$ ) were observed. Post-  
275 hoc analysis revealed exhaled NO was significantly elevated in BRJ compared with PLA and  
276 pre-supplementation values at all post-supplementation measurement points ( $p < 0.05$ ), but  
277 were unchanged in PLA ( $p > 0.05$ ).

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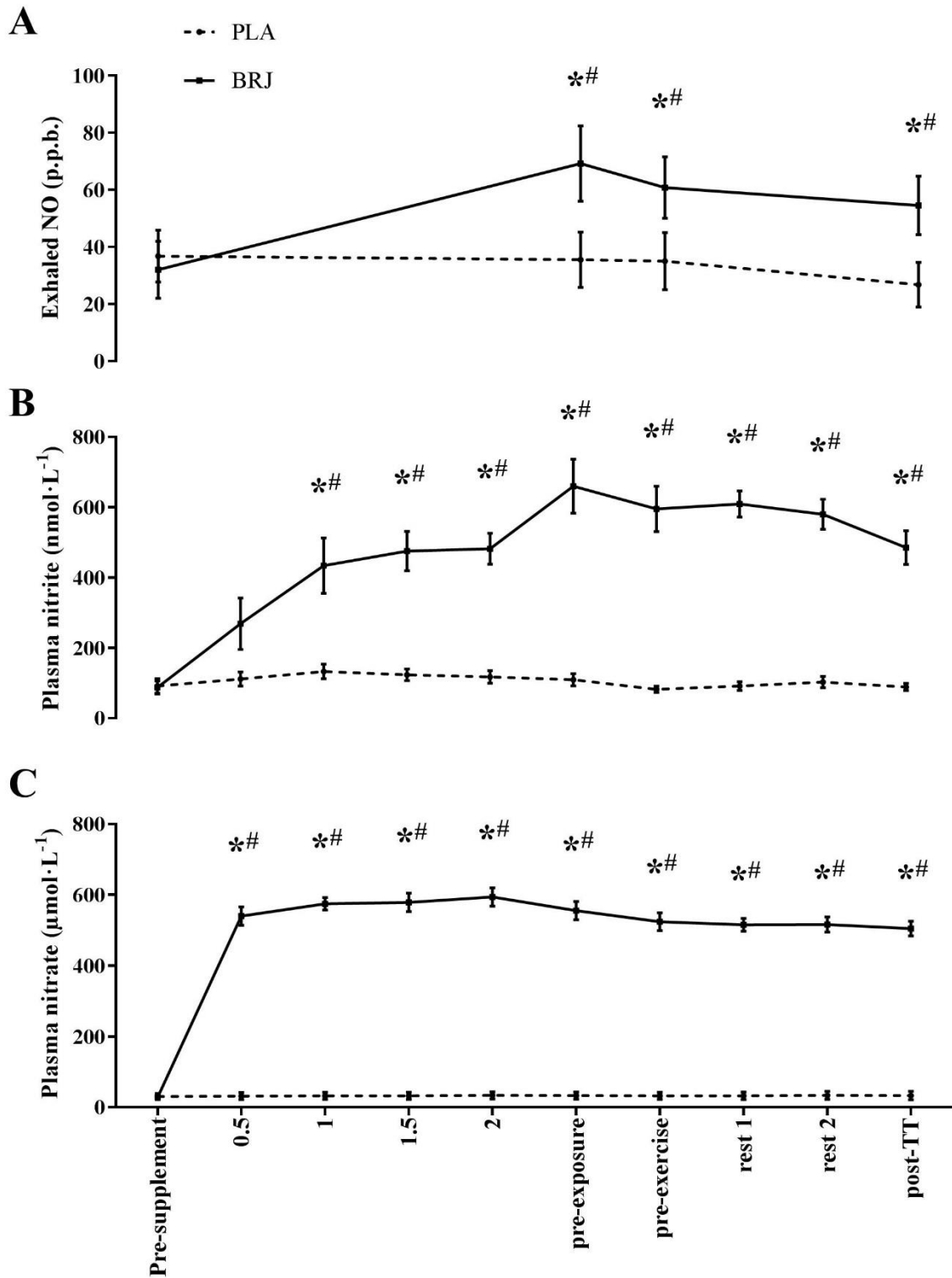
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297 **Figure 1** Exhaled NO (A), Plasma nitrite (B) and plasma nitrate (C) throughout experimental trials in the placebo (PLA) (dashed lines) and

298 nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BRJ) (solid lines) conditions. Values are mean ± SEM. \* Time points significantly different between BRJ and

299 PLA conditions ( $p < 0.05$ ). # Time points significantly different from baseline in the BRJ condition.

300

### 301 3.2. Perceived exertion and cardio-respiratory variables

302 Data for RPE, HR, MAP,  $\dot{V}O_2$ , and  $S_aO_2$  is presented in Table 1. There was a significant  
303 condition effect for RPE (BRJ:  $13 \pm 4$  vs. PLA:  $14 \pm 4$ ,  $p = 0.037$ ), and a clear effect of time  
304 on RPE ( $p < 0.001$ ), although no time \* condition interaction effects were observed ( $p = 0.152$ ).  
305 There was a significant time effect on HR ( $p < 0.001$ ), but no condition ( $p = 0.495$ ) or time \*  
306 condition interaction effects ( $p = 0.383$ ) were observed. MAP showed a significant effect of  
307 condition (BRJ:  $83 \pm 7$  vs. PLA:  $86 \pm 7$  mmHg,  $p = 0.006$ ), but no time ( $p = 0.187$ ) or time \*  
308 condition interaction effects ( $p = 0.646$ ). There was a significant effect of condition on  $\dot{V}O_2$   
309 (BRJ:  $18.4 \pm 12.0$  vs.  $20.4 \pm 12.6$  ml·kg<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>,  $p = 0.002$ ). Likewise, there were significant  
310 effects of time ( $p < 0.001$ ) and time \* condition interaction effects ( $p = 0.005$ ) on  $\dot{V}O_2$ . Post-  
311 hoc analysis revealed significantly lower  $\dot{V}O_2$  in BRJ during exercise at 45 % ( $p = 0.014$ ) and  
312 65 % ( $p = 0.002$ )  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ . There was a significant effect of condition (BRJ:  $88 \pm 3$  vs. PLA:  
313  $87 \pm 3$  %,  $p < 0.001$ ), time ( $p < 0.001$ ) and time \* condition interaction effects ( $p = 0.034$ ) on  
314  $S_aO_2$ . Post-hoc analysis revealed significant differences in  $S_aO_2$  during the pre-exercise rest  
315 period ( $p = 0.012$ ) and during exercise at 45 %  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$  ( $p = 0.003$ ). There was no significant  
316 relationship between the reduction in  $\dot{V}O_2$  and increase in  $S_aO_2$  consequent to BRJ ( $r^2 = 0.13$ ,  
317  $p = 0.242$ ).

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329 **Table 1** Ratings of perceived exertion, heart rate, mean arterial blood pressure, oxygen consumption, and arterial oxygen saturation  
 330 throughout experimental trials in the placebo (PLA) and nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BRJ) conditions

Variable and condition	Arrival	Pre-exposure	Pre-exercise	45 % $\dot{V}O_{2max}$	65 % $\dot{V}O_{2max}$	TT
<b>RPE</b>						
PLA				10 ± 1	12 ± 1	19 ± 1
BRJ <sup>a</sup>				9 ± 1	12 ± 1	19 ± 1
<b>HR</b> (b·min <sup>-1</sup> )						
PLA	61 ± 8	60 ± 9	58 ± 9	107 ± 16	146 ± 13	183 ± 9
BRJ	58 ± 9	60 ± 8	59 ± 7	105 ± 18	144 ± 12	183 ± 8
<b>MAP</b> (mmHg)						
PLA	87 ± 8	86 ± 5	85 ± 7			85 ± 10
BRJ <sup>a</sup>	87 ± 10	81 ± 10	83 ± 7			82 ± 5
<b>VO<sub>2</sub></b> (ml·kg <sup>-1</sup> ·min <sup>-1</sup> )						
PLA			4.8 ± 1.0	21.4 ± 6.0	33.7 ± 4.3	
BRJ <sup>a</sup>			4.5 ± 0.7	19.2 ± 5.9 <sup>b</sup>	31.4 ± 3.9 <sup>b</sup>	
<b>S<sub>a</sub>O<sub>2</sub></b> (%)						
PLA		98 ± 1	91 ± 3	85 ± 2	81 ± 3	78 ± 7
BRJ <sup>a</sup>		97 ± 2	94 ± 2 <sup>b</sup>	88 ± 2 <sup>b</sup>	83 ± 2	80 ± 6

<sup>a</sup> denotes significant difference overall (condition effect) versus PLA

<sup>b</sup> denotes significant difference (time \* condition interaction effect) versus PLA

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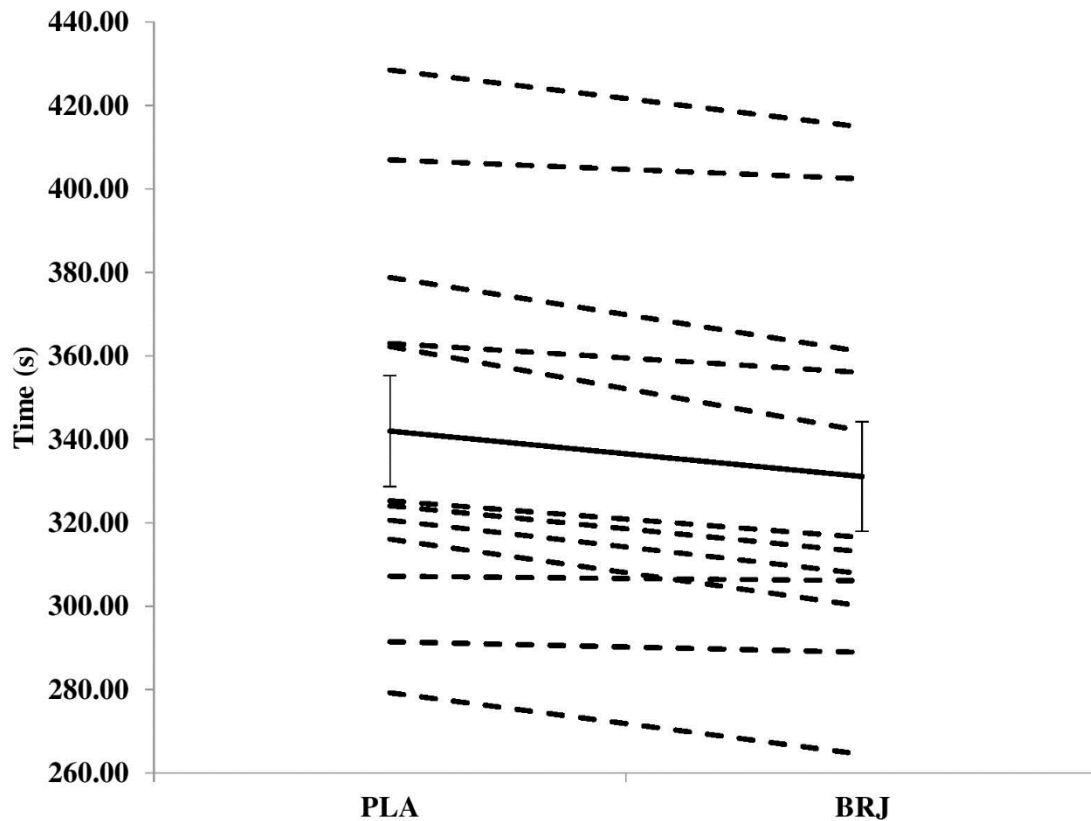
### 334 3.5. TT performance

335 BRJ improved 1500 m TT performance by 3.2 % (BRJ = 331.1 ± 45.3 s) versus PLA (341.9 ±  
 336 46.1 s, p < 0.001). Magnitude based inferences [54] indicated that the true value of the effect  
 337 would ‘almost certainly’ be practically beneficial to an athlete. All 12 participants completed  
 338 the TT quicker following BRJ ingestion (Figure 2.), with the range of improvement between  
 339 1.1 and 20.2 s. There was no significant correlation between  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$  measured at sea-level ( $r^2$   
 340 = 0.05; p = 0.48) nor simulated-altitude ( $r^2$  = 0.05, p = 0.46) and the change in performance  
 341 following BRJ supplementation. The observed  $r^2$  value indicates that 5 % of the 1500 m TT  
 342 variability can be explained in terms of differences in  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ . There was no significant



343 correlation between the change in  $\dot{V}O_2$  ( $r^2 = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.84$ ) nor  $S_aO_2$  ( $r^2 = 0.001$ ,  $p = 0.90$ ) and  
344 the change in performance following BRJ.

345



346

347 **Figure 2** 1500 m TT performance following ingestion of placebo (PLA) or nitrate-rich beetroot juice (BRJ).

348

#### 349 **4. Discussion**

350 Nitrate-rich beetroot juice has emerged as a popular ergogenic aid, although previous research  
351 suggests that this supplement has limited effects in well-trained individuals ( $\dot{V}O_{2max} > 60$   
352  $ml \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot min^{-1}$ ). In contrast, the results of this study suggest that nitrate-rich beetroot juice may  
353 reduce the  $O_2$  cost of exercise, elevate  $S_aO_2$ , and enhance 1500 m TT performance in  
354 individuals across a range of different fitness levels exercising in moderate-normobaric  
355 hypoxia. These data have relevance for the thousands of recreational and competitive athletes  
356 ascending to altitude each year for sporting purposes.

#### 357 **4.1. Plasma nitrate, nitrite, and exhaled NO**

358 Consistent with previous investigations, plasma nitrate and nitrite, and exhaled NO  
359 concentrations were significantly elevated following dietary nitrate supplementation  
360 [1,2,5,8,55,22,39,38], signifying an increase in the ‘substrates’ available for NO generation via  
361 the nitrate-nitrite-NO pathway [11]. Peak plasma nitrite concentration was 602 % higher in  
362 BRJ versus PLA, similar to Arnold et al. [38] (775 %) (~ 7 mmol nitrate), but considerably  
363 greater than reported by Muggeridge et al. [22] (134 %) (~ 5 mmol nitrate) and Vanhatalo et  
364 al. [8] (150 %) (~ 9.3 mmol). Importantly, all participants increased plasma nitrite  
365 concentration by substantially greater than 30 % - a cut off proposed by Wilkerson [20] for  
366 identifying ‘non-responders’. This may, in part, be a consequence of the high nitrate dose  
367 administered, and may help explain the consistent ergogenic effect observed in this study.  
368 Nevertheless, there was substantial inter-individual variability in baseline plasma nitrite  
369 concentration (range: 40 – 300 nmol·L<sup>-1</sup>), the magnitude of the increase in plasma nitrite  
370 concentration post-supplementation ( $\Delta$  range: 160 – 1335 nmol·L<sup>-1</sup>), and the time at which  
371 peak plasma nitrite concentration occurred (1 – 3 hours post-supplementation). A variable  
372 response to nitrate supplementation has been well-reported in the literature [56]. Inter-  
373 individual differences could not be explained by participant aerobic fitness in this study.  
374 Genetic factors, chronobiology, variations in the quantity and/or taxa of oral nitrate reducing  
375 bacteria, and study protocol variables may be important in explaining this phenomenon, and  
376 require further investigation [56].

377

#### 378 **4.2. Effect of nitrate supplementation on cardiorespiratory variables and RPE**

379 In the present study,  $\dot{V}O_2$  did not differ significantly between BRJ and PLA during rest in  
380 hypoxia, but was significantly lower in BRJ versus PLA during steady-state exercise. These  
381 findings are in line with most previous investigations [4,5,22,37], and similar to the results of

382 a recent meta-analysis [6]. The physiological mechanisms underlying the decreased  $\dot{V}O_2$   
383 subsequent to nitrate supplementation have not been fully elucidated, but may be accounted for  
384 by: a) an improvement in the efficiency of mitochondrial respiration [35] and/or b) enhanced  
385 efficiency of muscle force production [7].

386

387 Larsen and co-workers [35] reported an improvement in the phosphate/ $O_2$  (P/O) ratio (i.e. the  
388 amount of ATP produced per mole  $O_2$  consumed) in mitochondria harvested from the vastus  
389 lateralis of healthy men following three days supplementation with sodium nitrate (0.1  
390  $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$ ). This effect was attributed to decreased proton leak during oxidative  
391 phosphorylation, and was associated with a reduced expression of the ATP/ADP translocase  
392 protein (ANT) and a tendency towards downregulation of uncoupling protein 3 (UCP3). The  
393 change in the mitochondrial P/O ratio correlated with the reduced *in vivo*  $\dot{V}O_2$  measured during  
394 moderate-intensity cycle ergometry. In contrast to the findings of Larsen et al. [47] with  
395 sodium nitrate, a recent investigation by Whitfield and colleagues [57] reported no change in  
396 mitochondrial efficiency despite a reduced  $\dot{V}O_2$ , following seven days supplementation with  
397 nitrate-rich beetroot juice (26  $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$ ). There is presently no explanation as to why sodium  
398 nitrate and nitrate-rich beetroot juice may have different effects on the mitochondria, and direct  
399 comparison is therefore warranted to rule out other methodological differences [58].  
400 Nevertheless, alterations in mitochondrial efficiency are not necessarily required to explain the  
401 reduction in  $\dot{V}O_2$  reported in this study following BRJ supplementation.

402

403 Bailey et al. [7] reported reduced intramuscular PCr, ADP, and  $P_i$  perturbations and lower  $\dot{V}O_2$   
404 during leg extension exercise following nitrate-rich beetroot juice supplementation (5.1  
405  $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$  x 6 days), reflecting a lower ATP turnover for a given work rate. It was suggested  
406 that the decreased ATP turnover occurring after nitrate supplementation might be related to a

407 reduced ATP requirement for actin-myosin cross-bridge cycling and/or calcium handling,  
408 given previous reports that NO slows actin-myosin cross-bridge cycling [59,60] and inhibits  
409 calcium-ATPase activity [61,62]. Interestingly, a recent murine model investigation reported  
410 greater force production, and increased expression of the calcium handling protein  
411 calsoquestrin 1 and the dihydropyridine receptor in type II muscle fibres following nitrate  
412 supplementation [9]. It was speculated that such effects in humans may allow muscle  
413 activation at a lower frequency for an equivalent force production, lowering motor unit  
414 recruitment and concomitantly the ATP cost of exercise.

415

416 In the present study,  $S_aO_2$  was significantly elevated overall in BRJ compared to PLA. These  
417 findings are similar to those of Masschelein and colleagues [37] who reported a significant  
418 increase in  $S_aO_2$  during cycle ergometry exercise in severe hypoxia ( $F_I O_2$  11 %) following 6  
419 days nitrate supplementation ( $\sim 5 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{d}^{-1}$ ). Tissue oxygenation in the vastus lateralis was  
420 also elevated following nitrate supplementation in that study. These findings are supportive of  
421 the notion that nitrate supplementation may reduce muscle  $O_2$  consumption during exercise in  
422 hypoxia, presumably via the aforementioned mitochondrial [35] and/or muscle [7] alterations  
423 that also manifest as a reduced  $\dot{V}O_2$ . Interestingly, Arnold et al. [38] found that runners  
424 identified as ‘responders’ to nitrate supplementation during a 10,000 m TT in moderate hypoxia  
425 ( $F_I O_2$  15.4 %) typically experienced a lower  $S_aO_2$  during the placebo TT than ‘non-responders’  
426 (82 vs 84 %). This suggests that the  $S_aO_2$  response to hypoxia may moderate the performance  
427 effects of nitrate supplementation, possibly due to greater nitrite reduction into NO at lower  $O_2$   
428 tensions [33]. In this study, there was no apparent relationship between average nor post-TT  
429  $S_aO_2$  values and the percentage improvement in performance ( $r^2 = 0.05$ ). However,  $S_aO_2$   
430 reached lower values in the present investigation (post TT PLA:  $77.8 \pm 6.9 \%$ ) than observed

431 by Arnold et al. [38], presumably due to the shorter higher-intensity TT, which may be  
432 important.

433

434 Interestingly, RPE was significantly lower overall in BRJ versus PLA, suggesting reduced  
435 overall physiological ‘strain’ [52], which may in part be reflective of the lower  $\dot{V}O_2$  and/or  
436 elevated  $S_aO_2$  with BRJ. In normoxia, Murphy and colleagues [63] reported lower RPE during  
437 the first mile of a 5 km running TT, although others have reported no effect of nitrate  
438 supplementation on RPE during sub-maximal and maximal exercise in hypoxia following  
439 nitrate supplementation [37,38].

440

#### 441 **4.3. Effect of nitrate supplementation on running performance in hypoxia**

442 The main finding of the present study was that BRJ improved 1500 m running performance in  
443 moderate normobaric hypoxia by 3.2 % versus PLA. Magnitude based inferences suggested  
444 an ‘almost certain’ chance that the true value of the effect would be practically beneficial. In  
445 agreement with our hypothesis, there was no apparent relationship between the change in  
446 exercise performance post-BRJ supplementation and  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$  measured in normoxia nor  
447 hypoxia, suggesting a similar effect of BRJ on TT performance across a range of fitness levels  
448 under these experimental conditions.

449

450 A number of previous investigations have confirmed the beneficial effect of nitrate  
451 supplementation on TTE [8,24,37] and TT performance [22] in hypoxia. Conversely, studies  
452 in well-trained individuals exercising in hypoxia have typically found no effect of nitrate  
453 supplementation [38–40]. Well-trained individuals exhibit increased presence and activity of  
454 the NOS enzymes [31]; possess higher baseline nitrate/nitrite concentration [29]; may  
455 habitually consume high levels of nitrate as a consequence of their large daily energy intake

456 [30]; and experience lower tissue acidosis and hypoxia [20] relative to the untrained.  
457 Moreover, a recent investigation in normoxia observed an inverse correlation between aerobic  
458 fitness and the response to nitrate supplementation [17]. It is therefore reasonable to assume  
459 that adaptations elicited by endurance training may blunt the response to nitrate  
460 supplementation. Nevertheless, our results suggest a high training status does not necessarily  
461 preclude an ergogenic effect of nitrate supplementation. Instead, it is suggested that individuals  
462 across a spectrum of aerobic fitness levels may derive similar performance enhancing benefits  
463 of nitrate supplementation under specific experimental conditions, including a hypoxic  
464 exercise environment, short-duration high-intensity TT protocol, and high nitrate dose.

465

466 Considering generation of NO via the L-arginine NOS pathway is suppressed in hypoxia, yet  
467 the nitrate-nitrite-NO pathway is potentiated as O<sub>2</sub> tensions fall [11,33], it is likely that nitrate  
468 supplementation is more effective in hypoxia than normoxia. Supportive evidence is provided  
469 by Kelly et al. [36], who subjected healthy male participants to identical exercise regimes  
470 preceded by the same nitrate supplement strategy (8.4 mmol·d<sup>-1</sup> x 3 days), but with exercise  
471 varied between normoxia and hypoxia (F<sub>I</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 13.1 %). Nitrate supplementation had no effect  
472 on severe-intensity cycling TTE in normoxia, but improved TTE by ~ 8.6 % in hypoxia relative  
473 to placebo. Further, there is evidence from murine model investigations that nitrate  
474 supplementation may enhance tissue blood flow [41,42] and muscle contractile function [9]  
475 preferentially in type II muscle fibres. It is therefore possible that nitrate supplementation is  
476 more effective during shorter more high-intensity exercise, during which these muscle fibres  
477 are more heavily recruited [9,43–45,64], or else in individuals with greater distribution of type  
478 II muscle fibres [43]. The time-trial duration employed in this study (< 6 minutes) was  
479 considerably less than other investigations (~ 17 - 48 minutes) which have not observed an  
480 ergogenic effect of nitrate supplementation in hypoxia [38–40], and may be important. Thus,

481 the combination of a hypoxic exercise environment and high-intensity TT may have maximised  
482 the effects of nitrate supplementation.

483

484 Finally, there is some evidence of a dose-response to nitrate supplementation [55,65,66], and  
485 it is possible that well-trained athletes may require a high nitrate dose to appreciably alter  
486 plasma nitrite concentration relative to untrained individuals [30]. Therefore, the high nitrate  
487 dose administered in this study relative to investigations which have not observed an effect of  
488 nitrate supplementation (~ 5 – 7 mmol) [38–40] may have also contributed towards the  
489 consistent ergogenic effect observed here.

490

#### 491 **4.4. Strengths and limitations**

492 The current study has several strengths. In particular, the broad spectrum of participant aerobic  
493 fitness levels allowed us to assess the relationship between  $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$  and the improvement in  
494 hypoxic exercise performance following nitrate supplementation. Nevertheless, none of our  
495 participants were elite athletes nor entirely sedentary, and it is possible that individuals outside  
496 of the present fitness range may respond differently to nitrate supplementation. Moreover, we  
497 only included healthy male participants, and further research is warranted in other populations  
498 who may respond differently to nitrate supplementation [67]. A further strength of this  
499 investigation was that the consumption of nitrate-rich foods was not restricted during the study  
500 period. This approach, first employed by Vanhatalo and colleagues [51] and later adopted in  
501 several subsequent investigations [25,68], preserves ecological validity and demonstrates that  
502 nitrate supplementation can alter physiological functioning and exercise performance when  
503 participants are consuming their normal diet.

504

505

506 **4.5. Conclusion**

507 The present study reported an increase in plasma nitrite concentration, reduction in steady-state  
508  $\dot{V}O_2$ , elevation in  $S_aO_2$ , and enhancement of 1500 m running performance in normobaric  
509 hypoxia following supplementation with dietary nitrate. Further, this effect did not appear to  
510 be related to the aerobic fitness of participants. This suggests that individuals across a range  
511 of different aerobic fitness levels may derive a similar performance enhancing benefits of  
512 dietary nitrate when consuming a high nitrate dose, and conducting moderate and high-intensity  
513 exercise in a hypoxic environment.

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