

submissions

From: Ken Harvey [REDACTED]
Sent: Tuesday, 30 September 2014 1:37 PM
To: submissions
Subject: Re: FSANZ Proposal P1030 - Health Claims - Formulated Supplementary Sports Foods & Electrolyte Drinks
Attachments: Mythbusting sports and exercise products.pdf; The truth about sports drinks.pdf; Forty years of sports performance research and little insight gained.pdf

Dear Madam / Sir,

Submission on FSANZ Proposal P1030 - Health Claims - Formulated Supplementary Sports Foods & Electrolyte Drinks

I oppose this proposal which appears to be more about increasing the sales of largely unnecessary products rather than improving the public health.

I have attached three relevant references:

1. "Mythbusting sports and exercise products" BMJ 2012;345:e4848 doi: 10.1136/bmj.e4848 (Published 18 July 2012).
2. "The truth about sports drinks" BMJ 2012;345:e4737 doi: 10.1136/bmj.e4737 (Published 18 July 2012).
3. "Forty years of sports performance research and little insight gained" BMJ 2012;345:e4797 doi: 10.1136/bmj.e4797.

In summary, there is no evidence that these drinks are required by anyone doing less than 2 hours of endurance activity. For most people engaging in moderate exercise, water (drunk according to thirst) is the best option for rehydration.

Although originally designed for athletes, sports drinks are now promoted and consumed outside of strenuous exercise or sporting events, commonly by people who are not athletes. Sports drinks are flavoursome because they contain lots of sugar. Drinking them regularly in the absence of strenuous exercise while eating a normal diet will lead to weight gain and obesity. In addition, the high levels of sugar contained has potentially serious long-term consequences for dental health; both for athletes and non-athletes alike.

These drinks should only be used by athletes actively involved in training for competitive endurance sports. Adding claims to labels about their health benefits will mislead the public and be to the detriment of public health.

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FEATURE

Mythbusting sports and exercise products

Carl Heneghan and colleagues examine the evidence behind the claims made for sports and exercise products

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There is no doubt that sport and exercise are beneficial for health and wellbeing. Yet, one might be fooled into thinking it is more important to heed correct nutrition and hydration advice than to actually exercise. In our analysis of the evidence of sports products¹ there were six claims that were so pertinent in terms of performance that we wanted to answer them with evidence. To find the evidence we searched PubMed Clinical Queries using systematic reviews and randomised controlled trial filters.

In terms of hydration we wanted to know if the colour of urine accurately reflects hydration and whether you should hydrate before exercise or just when you feel thirsty? For nutrition, we wanted to know whether carbohydrate protein combinations and branched chain amino acids improve performance or recovery after exercise. Finally, we wanted to determine the benefits of caffeine ingestion and analyse whether wearing compression garments helps improve overall performance?

The colour of urine accurately reflects hydration

The qualitative measure of urine colour is viewed as a simple way to assess hydration status. Athletes are advised to “observe urine output over the course of a day and notice changes in urine flow and colour. Output volume and frequency should be consistent and the colour should be getting lighter towards the end of the day, aiming for the last outputs of the day being close to clear.”² But recommendations from the American College of Sports Medicine state that urine colour is often subjective and might be confounded. Many companies also provide a “urine colour chart” allowing athletes to quantify their level of hydration.^{4 5}

Science behind the claim

Antidiuretic hormone is secreted by the posterior pituitary gland as a result of dehydration, resulting in increased water absorption in the collecting ducts of the kidneys. This decreases urine output and concentrates the solutes (including urea, uric acid, creatinine), leading to a darker colour of urine. After fluid

ingestion less water needs to be reabsorbed to maintain homeostasis so larger quantities of pale urine are produced.

What the evidence says

We found eight low quality studies published with no systematic reviews. As there is no objective measure of hydration, all of these studies compared urine colour to surrogate markers: none directly investigated the correlation between urine colour and performance or the correlation between urine colour and thirst. The results are divided. Three studies recommend urine colour as a tool to roughly estimate hydration status, albeit when accurate results are not required or other assessment tools are not available,^{5 7} while three conclude urine colour is too inaccurate to be useful.^{8 10} Two further studies suggest urine colour can be useful but only in specific situations (such as first morning void) or in combination with other measures of hydration such as body mass.^{11 12}

The three studies that support the use of urine colour include several caveats: vitamins and medicines interfere with the results by making urine darker,¹ variations in diet and dietary supplements affect accuracy, and, if large volumes of hypotonic drink are consumed following exercise,^{10 14} copious volumes of dilute urine will be produced before normal hydration is achieved.¹⁵ Despite this, no study has looked at the correlation of urine colour with hydration when different fluids are used for rehydration.

None of the eight studies looked at the correlation between urine colour and overhydration. This important oversight makes it difficult to recommend urine colour as a safe hydration assessment tool: attempts to produce pale or straw coloured urine may go too far, potentially leading to overhydration and hyponatraemia.¹⁶ Many of the studies recommend a stopping point, often using the 8 point scale to assess urine colour described by Armstrong and colleagues,⁵ but this seems to be based on speculation rather than research.

Finally, one study showed that 66 people were less reliable at distinguishing their urine colour than trained investigators.¹⁶

However, all eight trials used trained investigators to interpret urine colour but they were unblinded to the results of other measurements of hydration status. This alone seriously undermines the use of urine colour for assessing hydration. In the practical sports setting it is likely to be misleading.

You should drink before you feel thirsty

The website for sports drink Gatorade says “Your brain may know a lot, but it doesn’t know when your body is thirsty. You need to drink during exercise before you feel thirsty in order to get enough fluids in your body to maintain your performance level” ([wardmulroy.com/gatorade/DOCS/4/content\(13\).html](http://wardmulroy.com/gatorade/DOCS/4/content(13).html)). Powerade advises customers that “To avoid dehydration ... you should drink before, during, and after sport” and that, “You may be able to train your gut to tolerate more fluid if you build your fluid intake gradually” (www.powerade.com.au/SportsHydration/UsingPoweradeforTrainingandCompetition.html).

Science behind the claim

When the body loses fluid due to sweat, the extracellular concentration of sodium rises leading to a subsequent increase in osmotic pressure and intracellular dehydration. Osmoreceptors in the hypothalamus detect dehydration and signal other parts of the brain to stimulate the sensation of thirst.¹⁷ In extreme conditions such as malnutrition¹⁸ or when children are left in hot cars¹⁹ failure to react to thirst sensations by consuming fluid can have fatal consequences.

Drinking too much leads to other potential problems. If the body takes in more water than the kidneys can excrete, body solutes become diluted. Hyponatraemia occurs when the sodium concentration in the blood drops below 136 mmol/L.²⁰ The effects of hyponatraemia range from mild (asymptomatic) to fatal.²¹

What the evidence says

One systematic review of the effects of glycerol induced hyperhydration on fluid retention and endurance performance in long cycling time trials found performance was maintained provided loss of body water is kept between 1.8% and 3.2% of body weight (roughly 1.5 L of sweat for a 60 kg human).²¹

A more recent systematic review of the effects of exercise induced dehydration on performance in long cycling time trials suggested that drinking according to thirst sensations (as opposed to drinking more or less frequently) was associated with better sports outcomes.²² One of the studies in the review found that exercise induced dehydration of up to 2.3% of body weight significantly improved performance.² The explanation for how exercise induced dehydration might improve performance is straightforward: you carry less weight, and you don’t have to interrupt your exercise.

Although we could not find a report in the medical literature of dehydration being a direct cause of death in marathon runners, we did find overhydration was responsible for several deaths.^{24 25} By following advice to “drink before thirst,” many athletes are drinking too much, which does not help performance and puts them at risk. A recent study of 88 participants in the London marathon found that 11 (12.5%) developed asymptomatic hyponatraemia.²⁶

Energy drinks with caffeine and other compounds improve sports performance

Drinks manufacturers claim that “Stimulants such as caffeine, guarana and taurine with energising fast and slow release carbohydrates produces a scientifically proven range designed to enhance your overall performance (www.maxifuel.com/maxifuelranges/focus). Red Bull says “In extensive studies it has been repeatedly proven that Red Bull increases performance” (www.redbull.co.uk/cs/Satellite/en_UK/RedBullEnergyDrink/001243026254412).

Science behind the claims

Caffeine has long been used to enhance sports performance,²⁷ and energy supplements containing caffeine, in addition to other compounds, are purported to be uniquely performance enhancing when taken together. These include taurine, a sulphonic amino acid that is thought to increase skeletal muscle contractility while decreasing systemic vascular resistance^{28 29}; and guarana, which contains caffeine and related xanthines.³⁰ Caffeine acts as a competitive inhibitor of adenosine on central nervous system receptors,¹ and an inhibitor of phosphodiesterase.² It increases heart rate and induces glycogen sparing,³ and is believed to enhance available energy stores.

What the evidence says

One systematic review of adding caffeine to carbohydrate⁴ and several other reviews of caffeine alone^{5 8} suggest that it enhances endurance performance, with these effects being most marked after at least seven days’ abstinence from caffeine.

We found nine randomised controlled trials investigating the effects of caffeine energy drinks.^{9 47} Four trials recruited the general public^{9 46} and five trained athletes.^{40 47} Seven tested a caffeine energy drink in addition to guarana and/or taurine.^{9 47}

Four studies reported positive effects: a study of 15 “healthy young adults” reported an energy drink increased mean bench press repetitions, but not anaerobic peak or average power during a cycling test.⁴ Aerobic and anaerobic endurance was increased in 14 habitual caffeine users⁹ and two trials demonstrated improved endurance in trained athletes.^{45 47}

Three studies found energy drinks did not improve sports performance: for running time to exhaustion among physically active university students,⁴¹ mean sprint time among female collegiate soccer players engaged in repeated running trials,⁴⁰ and sprint performance or anaerobic power in American college football players.⁴⁴

Two studies tested the effect of a caffeine only energy drink and did not include other supposedly performance enhancing compounds.^{46 47} One study of a caffeine taurine energy drink reported its effect on echocardiographic findings and did not report sports outcomes.⁴⁸

We did not find any research comparing the effectiveness of energy drinks versus caffeine alone on sports performance.

On the negative side, effects of caffeine consumption can include insomnia, headache, and gastrointestinal bleeding.²⁷ The harms of energy supplements include nausea and vomiting, tachycardia, tremors, seizures, and sleep disturbances, particularly in adolescents.^{49 51} There are several reports of cardiac arrhythmia and death,⁵⁰ as well as reports of adolescents requiring hospital admission as a result of consuming energy drinks.⁵²

We could not identify any research that assesses the additional benefit energy drinks provide in addition to moderate caffeine

Bottom line: urine colour as a measure of hydration

General public Evidence is lacking to suggest that urine colour is a useful, safe, or accurate marker of hydration.

Professional athletes Limited evidence to show that first morning urine colour can be reliably used to assess dehydration and rehydration.

Required research A high quality study evaluating the use of urine colour in detecting hydration with blinding of participants and researchers to other assessment tools when measuring urine colour ideally this should look at the relation between urine colour and other markers of hydration including thirst and body mass.

Bottom line: drinking ahead of thirst

General public Drinking ahead of thirst may worsen performance in endurance exercise and carries a rare but serious risk of hyponatraemia. The body's internal mechanism for sensing hydrated is cheaper, easier, and seems to be the best way to optimise performance.

Professional athletes Elite endurance athletes perform best when they drink to thirst. Some studies suggest exercise induced dehydration can improve performance.

Required research A high quality randomised trial measuring the performance effects of different hydration regimes during shorter exercise (sprint type) would determine whether the results of systematic reviews are generalisable beyond endurance athletes.

doses, and we found no systematic reviews of these products and sports performance.

Carbohydrate and protein combinations improve post-workout performance and recovery

“The combination of protein and carbohydrates has been shown to stimulate increased uptake of glucose by the cells, resulting in faster glycogen storage compared to carbohydrates or proteins alone (www.myprotein.com/uk/products/recovery_evo).”

Science behind the claims

After exercise, 24 hours of rest are usually sufficient to replenish glycogen stores alongside a regular diet.⁵⁴ Ingesting carbohydrate during recovery from exercise may improve subsequent sports performance by increasing the rate of glycogen synthesis.^{55, 56} However, combined ingestion of both protein and carbohydrate has been shown to synergistically influence the release of insulin,^{57, 58} increase the rate of muscle glycogen storage,⁵⁹ and reduce markers of exercise induced muscle damage.⁵⁶

What the evidence says

We identified 21 trials (15 randomised with 322 participants), of which fewer than half reported an overall benefit of combined protein and carbohydrate compared with carbohydrate alone. One systematic review concluded that the available evidence fails to show a relation between increased muscle glycogen synthesis and improved sports performance.⁵⁴

Studies varied considerably in the outcomes and the ratio of carbohydrate to protein used: from 2:1 up to 6:1. Four studies that evaluated the effects of a 2:1 ratio on cycling performance were inconclusive.^{60, 61} A 2006 study reported no difference in total distance cycled with supplementation, but two years later the same group reported the effect was significant.^{60, 61} Similarly, another group found added protein improved sprint cycling performance in men 60 hours after exercise but not at 15 hours after exercise.^{62, 63}

The five studies evaluating a 4:1 protein to carbohydrate ratio had contrasting results.^{64, 65} Only one study evaluated performance in a competition and reported no change in cross country race times.⁶⁶

Four of six studies^{69, 74} evaluating a 3:1 ratio, used an isocaloric control, enabling comparison between two products of the same

caloric content.^{69, 71} Two reported improved cycling performance^{69, 71} while the other two reported no change in running time to exhaustion or performance tests for football players.^{70, 71} The improvement reported in the most recent study was trivial: a small increase in mean sprint cycling power of 2.5% with overlapping confidence intervals.⁶⁹

One study evaluated a 6:1 ratio and found no change in running time to exhaustion in 16 recreationally active men.⁷⁵

Experts have suggested there is little additional benefit of protein in supplements when carbohydrate is ingested in adequate quantities (≥ 1 g/kg/hour).⁵⁷ If carbohydrate content reduces to below 1 g/kg/hour, then adding protein will produce similar results to carbohydrate alone.⁵⁷ We found little consistent evidence across all included studies to support this claim.

Six studies looked at whether carbohydrate and protein improved muscle recovery.^{72, 80} Only one found that carbohydrate and protein after exercise induced muscle damage resulted in smaller decreases in muscle performance (such as knee flexion repetitions) compared with carbohydrate alone.⁸⁰ However, the main findings were post hoc analyses, and two follow up studies failed to definitively replicate the findings.^{78, 79} Three further studies looking at similar measures found no effects on muscle recovery.^{72, 77}

The lack of benefit from protein supplements on performance or muscle is probably due to the fact that most athletes consume adequate amounts of protein in their diets.⁸¹

Branched chain amino acids improve performance or recovery after exercise

Pure branch chain amino acids are claimed to help hard training athletes recover faster after intense exercise, combat muscle damage during exercise, and support peak endurance performance (www.maxifuel.com/bcaas). Manufacturers also maintain that they can “help to sustain a healthy immune system during periods of intense training and play an important role in fatigue and performance” (www.maximuscle.com/viper).

Science behind the claims

Branched chain amino acids (leucine, isoleucine and valine) are termed essential amino acids because they cannot be synthesised by humans and therefore have to be obtained from the diet. They are incorporated into all protein structures and are an essential precursor for muscle protein.⁸² Muscle fibres are disrupted during exercise and essential amino acids are therefore required for repair, remodelling, and synthesis.⁸ Ingesting excess branch

Bottom line: energy drinks containing caffeine and other stimulants

General public Low quality evidence supports the use of energy drinks containing caffeine, aurine, or guarana to improve acute strength performance and aerobic and anaerobic endurance. No studies compare the effectiveness of these products with ingesting caffeine alone and there are important concerns regarding harms.

Professional athletes Limited low quality evidence supports the use of energy drinks containing caffeine, aurine, or guarana to improve endurance in moderate intensity activity of around 60 minutes. No studies compare the effectiveness of these products with ingesting caffeine alone and there are important concerns regarding harms.

Required research High quality randomised trials in real world settings evaluating the comparative effectiveness of energy drinks and caffeine alone on sports performance.

Bottom line: protein and carbohydrate supplements

General public There is a lack of evidence to support combined carbohydrate and protein supplements after exercise to improve recovery and reduce muscle breakdown.

Professional athletes The results of studies of supplements containing a variety of carbohydrate or protein ratios show inconsistent and generally small benefits in some measures of sports performance, but generally do not show benefits over and above a balanced and nutritious diet.

Required research High quality randomised controlled trials evaluating specific ratios of carbohydrates and proteins have adequately powered to detect a meaningful increase in subsequent sports performance.

chain amino acids around the time of exercise is proposed to ensure maximum availability for synthesis of muscle.⁸⁴ High blood levels of amino acids stimulate insulin release, which also promotes muscle synthesis. They also increase the activity of the mTOR (mammalian target of rapamycin) pathway, which regulates muscle cell growth and protein synthesis.⁸

What the evidence says

We found two systematic reviews; one did not report the inclusion criteria and the search strategy was poor quality,⁸⁵ and the other concluded that any performance improvement was due to the energy value of the amino acids rather than muscle protein metabolism.⁸⁶ We identified 27 randomised controlled trials, of which 20 (with 641 participants) measured athletic performance or recovery. There was no consistent use of objective measures for athletic performance or recovery and adverse effects of amino acid administration were not recorded across studies.

Crossover studies, which used a single dose of amino acids at the time of exercise testing, found no effect on work done during cycling sprints,⁸⁷ distance travelled in a cycling time trial,⁸⁸ maximum oxygen consumption,⁸⁹ or time to exertion during cycling,⁹⁰ and no effect was seen in parallel group studies on running to exhaustion⁹¹ or strength during squat weight lifting.⁹²

Trial designs with longer durations of amino acid supplementation showed variable effects. One trial showed no effect over the course of a 32 hour yachting race on hand grip strength and vertical jump height.⁹ Studies using amino acid supplementation of up to one week reported no effect on cycling sprint power⁹⁴ but found small increases in maximum oxygen consumption,⁹⁵ increased time to exhaustion,⁹⁶ and increased hand grip strength.⁹⁷ Supplementation for more than three weeks alongside regular weight training had no effect compared with standard protein on maximum leg and bench presses,⁹⁸ but compared with placebo increased leg strength,⁹⁹ upper body strength,^{100 101} and rowing time to exhaustion.¹⁰²

Short term ingestion of branched chain amino acids reduced perceived exhaustion at the time of testing independently of changes in performance. Significant reductions in fatigue have been reported in studies over the first hour of exercise,⁸⁶ a reduction of 2.9 points on a 16 point exertion scale at 90 minutes⁸⁷ and a 2.6 point difference on a 20 point scale at 120 minutes after exercise.¹⁰ Studies of longer term supplementation also showed subjective mean improvements on a 0 to 10 cm

visual analogue scale (VAS) of 1.1 cm,¹⁰⁴ small improvements on arbitrary indices from a VAS 12, and a difference of 2 points between BCAA and placebo on a 15 point scale.¹⁰¹ Amino acids significantly attenuated the reduction in leg flexion torque and maximal isometric leg muscle contraction observed in the placebo groups.^{105 106}

Three trials reported the effect of amino acids on delayed onset muscle soreness after exercise. Amino acids significantly reduced muscle soreness by 1.2 points on a 10 point scale at 24 hours after endurance training¹⁰⁵ but had inconsistent effects after intensive squats, with one trial showing no effect over 72 hours⁹¹ and another showing a reduction of 2 points on a 10 point scale at 24 hours.¹⁰⁶

Trials with a high risk of bias that use longer term supplementation report improved athletic performance under laboratory conditions. All trials reporting subjective measures of endurance showed positive effects, irrespective of objective measures of performance.

Compression garments improve performance or enhance recovery

"This ultra tight, second skin fit delivers a locked in feel that keeps your muscles fresh and your recovery time fast" (www.underarmour.com/shop/uk/en/mens_coldgear_action_legging/pid1000525).

Science behind the claims

Sports compression garments are made of body hugging fabric that exerts various degrees of pressure and are designed to be worn next to the skin. They can cover the entire body or only the lower or upper halves.

Wearing compression garments during exercise is thought to improve venous return and increase removal of metabolites such as lactic acid. Additionally the garments are claimed to work by reducing the oscillation (or "wobble") of muscles and tendons that occurs during repetitive exercise, thus reducing muscle pain and fatigue. By reducing damage the garments may reduce the predisposition to serious injury later.¹⁰⁷ Finally, for contact sports such as rugby or American football, compression garments may cushion direct trauma to the body.¹⁰⁷

Bottom line: branched chain amino acids

General public High quality evidence is lacking that branched chain amino acids enhance performance or recovery

Professional athletes There is no evidence that branched chain amino acids enhance performance in competitive settings. There is limited evidence to suggest that muscle soreness and recovery may be reduced and that longer term supplementation may increase some strength and endurance measures

Required research High quality large randomised trials evaluating the effect on outcomes that are directly relevant to athletes such as run times or maximal weight lift in the competitive setting

What the evidence says

We identified three trials that examined the effect of compression garments on actual sporting performance measures, all of which had negative results. One study of cyclists found no difference in 1 hour time trial performance,¹⁰⁸ and two studies of runners found no significant difference in 10 km time trial performance or lactic acid levels.^{109 110}

A further 10 studies found no benefit from compression garments on various exercise protocols in controlled or laboratory settings. This included treadmill running or sprinting performance,^{111 115} performance in a netball specific circuit,¹¹⁶ cricket players' sprinting performance and ball throwing distance,¹¹⁷ sprinting performance or lactate levels in hockey players,¹¹⁸ and tests on speed, aerobic endurance, agility, or power.¹¹⁹ Finally, a small study of cycling on ergometers found participants wearing compression stockings had significantly higher blood lactate levels at the end of exercise period and during the recovery period.¹²⁰

Four studies reported improvements in exercise performance and reduced lactic acid levels in participants wearing compression garments; however, effects sizes were generally small.^{121 124}

In terms of recovery from exercise, one study found compression substantially improved performance in a 40 km cycling time trial by a mean of 1.2%.¹²⁵

Six studies reported a beneficial effect of compression garments (worn during or after exercise) on muscle soreness in runners,^{109 110} cricket players,¹¹⁷ weight lifters, general sprinting and jumping exercise session,¹²⁶ untrained women doing arm exercises,¹²⁸ and rugby players.¹²⁷ Of these, three reported significantly lower levels of creatine kinase in the compression groups, a surrogate marker of muscle damage.^{117 128}

Finally, three studies that compared recovery using compression garments to other forms of recovery treatment (such as massage, hot and icy cold water therapy, low intensity exercise) found that all strategies were better than nothing but that compression garments had similar effects to those of these other treatments.^{107 110}

Several studies have found that compression garments increased skin temperature compared with normal clothing. Although the single study that examined core temperature was done in cool conditions,¹¹⁸ it found no effect on core temperature. But for exercise in hot or humid environments, the alteration of normal skin thermoregulation could be important. One study of compression garments noted a reduced range of motion of the hips during exercise.¹¹⁹

Competing interests: All authors have completed the CMJE uniform disclosure form at www.icmje.org/competing-interests.pdf (available on request from the corresponding author) and declare: no support from any organisation for the submitted work; no financial relationships with any organisations that might have an interest in the submitted work in the previous three years; no other relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

Provenance and peer review: Commissioned; externally peer reviewed

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Bottom line: compression garments

General public There is a lack of evidence to support use of compression garments to improve sporting performance. They may reduce muscle soreness if worn for 24 hours after an exercise session.

Professional athletes There is no consistent evidence that compression garments improve sporting performance. Muscle soreness seems to be reduced if garments are worn for 24 hours after exercise but objective measures of recovery are less consistent and compression garments seem to work no better than other recovery strategies such as low grade exercise or contrast bathing. Potential adverse effects of these garments may include increased skin temperature, decreased thermoregulation and reduced range of motion.

Required research Larger studies in individual sports and research generalisable to either highly trained athletes or the general population with outcomes related to sports performance and examination of adverse effects and acceptability of compression garments.

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FEATURE

SPORTS DRINKS

The truth about sports drinks

Sports drinks are increasingly regarded as an essential adjunct for anyone doing exercise, but the evidence for this view is lacking. **Deborah Cohen** investigates the links between the sports drinks industry and academia that have helped market the science of hydration

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Prehydrate; drink ahead of thirst; train your gut to tolerate more fluid; your brain doesn't know you're thirsty – the public and athletes alike are bombarded with messages about what they should drink, and when, during exercise. But these drinking dogmas are relatively new. In the 1970s, marathon runners were discouraged from drinking fluids for fear that it would slow them down, says Professor Tim Noakes, Discovery health chair of exercise and sports science at Cape Town University. At the first New York marathon in 1970, there was little discussion about the role of hydration – it was thought to have little scientific value.

So how did the importance of hydration gain traction? An investigation by the *BMJ* has found that companies have sponsored scientists, who have gone on to develop a whole area of science dedicated to hydration. These same scientists advise influential sports medicine organisations, which have developed guidelines that have filtered down to everyday health advice. These guidelines have influenced the European Food Safety Authority, the EU agency that provides independent advice on

the evidence underpinning health claims relating to food and drink. And they have spread fear about the dangers of dehydration.

Much of the focus on hydration can be traced back to the boom in road running, which began with the New York marathon. Manufacturers of sports shoes and the drink and nutritional supplement industries spotted a growing market.

One drink in particular was quick to capitalise on the burgeoning market. Robert Cade, a renal physician from the University of Florida, had produced a sports drink in the 1960s that contained water, sodium, sugar, and monopotassium phosphate with a dash of lemon flavouring.^{1 2}

Gatorade – named after the American Football team, the Gators, that it was developed to help – could prevent and cure dehydration, heat stroke, and muscle cramps, and improve performance, it was claimed.²

The first experimental batch of the sports drink cost \$43 (£28; €35) to produce but has spawned an industry with sales of

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Video on bmj.com (see also <http://bmj.com/video>)



Tim Noakes talks about the myths perpetuated around hydration for sports people.



Tim Noakes talks about what stimulates thirst, and how isotonic drinks won't quench it more effectively than water.



Hydration grabs the headlines, but hyponatremia is more dangerous for marathon runners. Arthur Seigel explains the physiology and Jonathan Williams explains treatment during a marathon.

around £260m a year in the UK alone and consumption is increasing steadily.

"The buzz around sports and energy drinks is here to stay. This has remained the fastest growing sector in the UK soft drinks market in recent years," an industry report suggests. In the US the market is even bigger. In 2009, forecasters, Mintel, valued it at \$1.6bn, and the market is projected to reach \$2bn by 2016.⁴

The rapid rise in consumption is hardly surprising sports drinks have the might of multinationals behind them. PepsiCo bought Gatorade in 2001 and both Coca Cola and GlaxoSmithKline (GSK) have their own sports drinks Powerade and Lucozade respectively. The companies are a partner and service provider, respectively, to the London 2012 Olympics.

The key behind the meteoric rise in consumption of sports drinks lies in the coupling of science with creative marketing. What started life as a mixture of simple kitchen food stuffs has become an "essential piece of sporting equipment."⁵

According to Noakes, the sports drink industry needed to inculcate the idea that fluid intake was as critical for athletic performance as proper training. "It became common for athletes to state that the reason why they ran poorly during a race was not because they had trained either too little or too much, but because they had dehydrated. This was a measure of the success of the industry in conditioning athletes to believe that what they drank during exercise was as important a determinant of their performance as their training," he says.

Indeed, after the "invincible" Australian cricket team lost the 2005 Ashes test series to rivals England, a research fellow at the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) started to monitor players' levels of dehydration.⁶

The previous year (2004), the institute had entered a partnership with Gatorade. The AIS's first Gatorade fellow, Kelly Drew, conducted a study on hydration among the cricketers, taking urine samples and testing their sweat.

"We do know that 50% of them turned up today dehydrated, which is not a good sign," she told the Australian press.⁶

The AIS is just one organisation backed by Gatorade other powerful sports medicine organisations also receive funding from drinks companies. The US National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA), a representative body of sports health professionals with over 35 000 members, works closely with Gatorade.

The company has taken out advertisements in NATA's newssheet that look like academic papers. These "research adverts" are just one example of how companies promote the idea that the benefits of their drinks are based on decades of thorough scientific research.

Selling science

Gatorade documents from 2010 show that sales staff are encouraged to watch an internal video called "Selling the Science" and told to "make sure consumers understand the science behind Gatorade." Promotion also hinges on the notion that sports drinks are among the "best researched food products on the planet," Bob Murray, a former director of the Gatorade Sports Science Institute wrote in 2001.⁷

And they're not the only ones when GSK reshuffled its entire communications department earlier this year, it said a key part of its strategy would be promoting the science behind its products. "The science that goes into our brands is a competitive advantage. Lucozade, for example, is subject to more than 100 clinical trials," a spokesperson said.^{8,9} The company has suggested that the "market is all about credibility."¹⁰

In recognition of this, GSK set up the Lucozade Sports Science Academy (LSSA) in 2003, comprising a sports nutrition website, links with leading universities, and a high tech gym at the company's headquarters.¹⁰ Marketers intended that bottles of the drink would be stamped with the LSSA insignia to reaffirm the scientific credibility when sports nutrition toolkits were handed out to gym instructors to educate them in the use of Lucozade Sport products.¹⁰

Indeed, just as drug companies have appointed key opinion leaders to influence doctors' prescribing patterns, sports drink and supplement companies seek to work with gyms and instructors. Virgin Active has a partnership with Powerade, for example,¹¹ and the GSK owned supplement brand, Maximuscle, has a partnership with LA Fitness.¹²

Like GSK, Gatorade has pushed heavily on the science. In 1985, Gatorade, then owned by Quaker Oats, set up its Gatorade Sports Science Institute (GSSI) in Barrington, Illinois, to conduct and publish research and to educate sports health professionals and athletes on sports nutrition and exercise science.

Just as drug companies held sponsored symposiums in exotic locations, Quaker Oats held invitation only annual conferences in locations around the world. Attendees included advisers to the world's most influential sports authorities.

Indeed, the editors of a sports medicine book on performance were among them. Ron Maughan, Louise Burke, and Edward Coyle, coeditors of *Food, Nutrition and Sports Performance II: The International Olympic Committee Consensus on Sports Nutrition*, published in 2004, all have financial links (personal or institutional) to Gatorade and their book was supported by Coca Cola, the makers of Powerade.

Taking on thirst

Perhaps one of GSSI's greatest successes was to undermine the idea that the body has a perfectly good homeostatic mechanism for detecting and responding to dehydration thirst. "The human thirst mechanism is an inaccurate short term indicator of fluid needs . . . Unfortunately, there is no clear physiological signal that dehydration is occurring," Bob Murray from the Gatorade Sports Science Institute declared in 2008.¹

Others have followed suit. Powerade say: "Without realising, you may not be drinking enough to restore your fluid balance after working out."¹⁴

And the International Olympic Committee's nutrition advice for athletes published in 2003 and updated in 2008 in conjunction with Powerade doesn't mention thirst once, even though it includes detailed advice on fluid intake. "Dehydration impairs performance in most events, and athletes should be well hydrated before exercise," it says in its booklet, *Athletes Medical Information*.¹⁵

Athletes are bombarded with different advice and given complex algorithms to calculate their individual hydration needs. They are told, for example, to rehydrate with a pint for every pound in body weight lost a drop of 2% is considered a cause for concern. They are also told how to calculate their sweat rate and to check the colour of their urine (box).^{15,16}

This advice has filtered down to healthcare organisations giving advice to patients playing sport. Diabetes UK, for example, advises people: "Drink small amounts frequently, even if you are not thirsty approximately 150 ml of fluid every 15 minutes because dehydration dramatically affects performance."²⁰

"P" charts and urine tests

The science of dehydration has led to another widely held belief that is not based on robust evidence – that the colour of urine is a good guide to hydration levels.

Like a handful of British soldiers are told to check their urine. The Ministry of Defence signed a £1.5m three year deal with GSK in 2005 to supply soldiers with Lucozade – is only recently have we heard to examine the science behind what our soldiers drink. The defence secretary John Reid said at the time:

The drink's packaging includes a "P chart" – a colour code allowing soldiers to check their hydration levels by studying the colour of their urine.⁷

The Mayo Clinic's online guidance also suggests urine is a good guide of hydration. "Unfortunately, this isn't always a reliable gauge of the body's need for water, especially in children and older adults. A better indicator is the color of your urine. Clear or light colored urine means you're well hydrated, whereas a dark yellow or amber color usually signals dehydration," it says.⁸

However, a review of the evidence Oxford University's Centre of Evidence Based Medicine linked to this investigation has assessed the predictive value of urine colour as a diagnostic.

"There is a lack of evidence for the widely recommended practice of assessing hydration status by looking at the colour of urine," it suggests.⁹

"The limited evidence shows that only first morning urine colour can be reliably used to assess dehydration and rehydration," it adds.

Studies suggest that thirst is a more reliable trigger. A meta-analysis of data from cyclists in time trials concluded that relying on thirst to gauge the need for fluid replacement was the best strategy.²¹

"The problem was industry wanted to sell more products so it had to say that thirst was not adequate," Noakes says. And he should know. Noakes developed a sports drink with South African company, Leppin, in the early 1980s.

Link ups with industry**Academics were in the vanguard of the drive against thirst and the promotion of the dangers of dehydration.**

In 1993, a group of experts led by Ron Maughan, professor of sport and exercise nutrition at Loughborough University and a member of GSSI's sports medicine review board since 1990, produced a consensus statement at a meeting funded by Isostar, a sports drink then owned by drug company, Novartis. "There is a need to make athletes more aware of the dangers of dehydration and of the importance of adequate fluid intake. Water is not the best fluid for rehydration, either during or after exercise," they wrote in an article published in the *British Journal of Sports Medicine*.²²

In America, the sports drinks industry also made a push into the area of clinical science. In 1992, the American College of Sports Medicine – the "premier organization in sports medicine and exercise science" with over 45 000 members – accepted a \$250,000 donation from Gatorade.

Four years later, in 1996, the American College of Sports Medicine produced guidelines that adopted a "zero % dehydration" doctrine, advising athletes to "drink as much as tolerable."²³ This guidance grew out of a roundtable meeting in 1993 "supported" by Gatorade.²⁴

Half the guideline's authors either worked with the US military – the world's biggest customer of Gatorade – or had a financial relationship with the Gatorade institute. Over time, these authors would strengthen their relationship with the college, with Lawrence Armstrong and Michael Sawka – who both work for the United States Army Research Institute of Environmental Medicine – becoming senior editors of the college's journal in the past 10 years.

The college's president during the 2000s, W. Larry Kenny, even wrote that the college cautioned against physically active people "letting their thirst guide them."²⁵

The 1996 guidance stood until 2007, when in updated guidance the college acknowledged that people should drink according to the dictates of thirst. However, it still promoted the idea that

people should lose no more than 2% of body weight during exercise, and this remains the position in the published literature – although how people are meant to know how much weight they are losing while exercising isn't made clear.²⁶

Three of the six authors of the updated guidance declared major financial conflicts of interest. Randy Eichner and Nina Stachenfeld had financial ties to Gatorade, and Ronald Maughan had received funding from Coca-Cola and GSK, as well as being on the GSSI review board. Louise Burke had no personal financial ties, although her institution, the AIS, received funding from Gatorade. The other two authors, Michael Sawka (chair of the committee) and Scott Montain, worked for the US military and had attended the exclusive Quaker Oats meetings in the 1990s. Even two of the five reviewers – Michael Bergeron and Mark Hargreaves – declared financial links to Gatorade.

There is nothing wrong with working with industry. Indeed, a UK parliamentary select committee heard in 2006 that "sports science tends to be a Cinderella subject, which does not have the drivers. A lot of the money does come from the drinks industry and so on but it cannot be entirely independent." Links with industry are also seen as a badge of honour.

However, Paul Laursen, adjunct professor at the Sports Performance Research Institute in New Zealand, thinks that people with conflicts of interest shouldn't be writing guidance.

"Those people would say that 'we've done all the research, so we know the subject'. You need people who are more objective than that – who can put the studies into context and account for important limitations to the research," he says.

The *BMJ* asked the college why it chose people with such conflicts of interest to produce its guidance. A spokesperson said: "ACSM follows best practices regarding corporate relationships, disclosures, and conflicts of interest," adding that the college has "demanding requirements in the areas of disclosure and avoidance of conflict of interest." The college also maintains that the "chairs of both the 1996 and 2007 Position Stands on fluid replacement were US federal government employees with no professional affiliations with the sports beverage industry."

Despite all the guidance about the dangers of dehydration during exercise, Arthur Siegel, associate professor of medicine at Harvard University and adviser to the Boston marathon, says that there is no evidence that anyone doing a marathon has ever died from it.

"Dehydration has gotten all the press and attention partly because of sports medicine associations who have endorsed the dangers of dehydration, but in fact dehydration is not life threatening," Siegel says.

Fluid is freely available throughout the races should a runner need to drink – they are not stranded in the desert with no access to fluids, he says.

“It [dehydration] is a normal biological response to exercise. You lose water; you get thirsty; you drink. End of story,” Noakes adds. He is, however, considered maverick in his views.

Hyponatraemia

Against this background of what Noakes says is disease mongering, a genuine illness associated with sport has become a real concern – that of exercise associated hyponatraemia. There have been 16 recorded deaths and 1600 people taken critically ill during competitive marathon running due to a drop in their serum sodium (see linked commentary).²⁷

The cause of this is keenly debated – in particular whether it is the volume or type of fluid consumption that is most to blame. The largest prospective study, conducted in a diverse group of marathon runners (funded by the National Institutes of Health and published in the *New England Journal of Medicine*), found no association with the composition of fluids consumed and concluded that it is the volume of fluid that is the main factor leading to hyponatraemia.²⁸

According to lead author Christopher Almond, assistant professor of paediatrics at Boston Children’s Hospital: “The available evidence indicates that the most effective way to prevent hyponatremia during marathon running is to avoid a positive fluid balance.”²⁸

A literature review in a nephrology journal also backed this up saying there is no evidence that “consumption of sports drinks (electrolyte containing hypotonic fluids) can prevent the development of exercise associated hyponatraemia.”²⁹

However, companies are keen to imply that it is water that is the problem.

Coca Cola, for example, acknowledges that hyponatraemia is a cause for concern “for anyone doing endurance sports,” but says that this is due to the failure to “replace the sodium lost through sweat or drinking a very large volume of very low sodium beverages such as water.” The Powerade webpage describing hyponatraemia does not mention that it can also happen if sports drinks are consumed.³⁰ The company has subsequently said it has updated the advice on its website “to ensure that it is clear that athletes should not over consume any liquids.”

Again, the message that sports drinks confer protection has filtered down. “To prevent hyponatremia and electrolyte imbalances, athletes should replace lost body fluid with drinks that contain electrolytes, such as sports drinks,” MedicineNet website says.¹

Outreach to schools

The industry push has not stopped with adults participating in sports. GSK has developed an educational outreach programme called Scientists in Sport (www.scientistsinsport.com) as part of its involvement in the Olympic antidoping operations. The programme includes materials for “GSK Ambassadors to take into schools, and free classroom resources.”

One lesson looks at osmosis and water: “During intense exercise, heavy sweating removes water and salts from the body. If large quantities of water alone are consumed, this will dilute the normal concentrations of sugars and ions in the blood and tissues. Water will enter, by osmosis, and stop the muscles, nerves and the brain from working properly. In extreme cases,

water intoxication can occur and may lead to death,” it says. Students are then asked which drinks are closest to being isotonic and whether sports drinks justify their prices.

GSK maintains that the programme does not specifically mention its sports drink. However, it admits that the introduction to the osmosis lesson – as quoted above – could be “made more relevant to the subject.” “We are therefore going to update this section,” a spokesperson told the *BMJ*.

But efforts to encourage children to drink sports drinks do not end there. This year, Gatorade and the National Athletic Trainers’ Association united to declare 11 July the first annual National Recovery Day for high school athletes. This was “to focus the attention of athletes on the importance of proper athletic recovery.” Children were told to “drink 16–24 ounces of fluid with sodium for each pound of body weight lost during exercise following a workout or game.”²

Many schools in the UK now encourage children to stop every 15–20 minutes during exercise to drink. Football teams also instruct children to bring a bottle – no football field is seen without a colourful array of sports drinks.

This practice may be one that originated with Gatorade. In 2000, a former professor of paediatrics at McMaster University in Canada, Oded Bar Or, who was also a member of the GSSI medicine review board, promoted the need for children to stop during sporting activities in order to drink.

“One should make certain that children arrive fully hydrated for a practice session or for competition and enforce drink pauses every 15–20 min during prolonged activities, even when the child does not feel thirsty. If necessary, rules of the sport should be modified to facilitate periodic drinking,” he wrote in 2000. That same year he was the main consultant to the American Academy of Pediatrics guidance on heat illness and exercise.⁴

“Children frequently do not feel the need to drink enough to replenish fluid loss during prolonged exercise. This may lead to severe dehydration,” it said, adding: “A major consequence of dehydration is an excessive increase in core body temperature.”

Updated advice in 2011 had Michael Bergeron – who has financial ties to Gatorade – as the main consultant and one of the lead authors. “Appropriate fluid should be readily accessible and consumed at regular intervals before, during, and after all sports participation,” it added giving specific details about sweat replacement and amounts to drink. All references to this were to studies either funded by Gatorade or included authors with financial ties.⁵ The Institute of Medicine, however, says: “Thirst and consumption of beverages at meals are adequate to maintain hydration.”⁶

A spokesperson for Gatorade also confirmed that there were no systematic reviews on hydration in children. Instead, it pointed to three position papers that consider the relation between exertional heat related illness and hydration. These were from the American College of Sports Medicine and the National Athletic Trainers’ Association and cite “carbohydrate electrolyte solutions as one of many potential preventative steps.”

In the UK, Maughan took a similar view. He wrote in 2001: “Children are particularly likely to forget to drink unless reminded to do so,” adding that “mild levels of dehydration and hyperthermia will reduce exercise capacity.”⁷

This advice was soon adopted by groups lobbying for increased attention to hydration in schools. In the UK, an expert group on hydration was launched in June 2005, supported by the British

Soft Drinks Association, with the “goal of improving the nation’s hydration.” Maughan was a key adviser.⁷

“If children have no understanding of why they need to drink frequently, and little or no encouragement is given, their health, wellbeing and performance may be at risk,” the group’s report concludes. It also laments the “demonisation of vending machines” in schools.⁷

War on water

The promotion of hydration has created a battle ground for the fight between bottled water companies and the sports drinks industry. While they both agree about the need to drink plenty of fluids,⁸ there is disagreement on what that fluid should be.

The Natural Hydration Council—which represents the bottled water industry—warns that one in four adults drink sports drinks at their desk, thereby consuming unnecessary calories.⁹ It urges that people should be encouraged to drink water rather than sugary drinks.⁹ Sports drinks companies, however, promote the notion that their products are a superior source of hydration.

In its guidelines to casual runners taking part in the Lucozade sponsored national UK event Parkrun—Lucozade say that “water alone isn’t enough to maintain hydration.”⁴⁰ Powerade’s website also suggests “Water is not enough.” “Water doesn’t have the performance benefits of a sports drink,” it says—but it does not go on to quantify what those benefits are.⁴¹

However, this is permitted. Earlier this year, the UK’s Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) rejected a complaint against Powerade for television advertisements featuring Olympic heptathlon medal hopeful, Jessica Ennis, that said, “Powerade ION4 hydrates better than water.” A national press advert running around the same featured Ennis saying: “So it hydrates me better than water.”⁴²

How good is the evidence?

Companies claim that the sodium in sports drinks stimulates thirst, resulting in the consumption of a higher volume of fluid and better retention compared with drinking water. Their claims also hinge on the physiological observation that the carbohydrate content of sports drinks aids water absorption from the small intestine. Consumers are told that another key benefit is the taste, as this encourages higher fluid intake.

The ASA’s judgment in favour of Powerade was revealing. Despite over 38 years of research, there was no published meta analysis of studies in this area to help uphold the complaint.⁴² But the reason for this lack of evidence is clear, says Noakes. “A commercial company would never do research that it was not certain of the answer before it did the study,” he says.

Yet Coca Cola, GSK, and PepsiCo maintain that the scientific evidence supports their case—and they’re not the only ones. In 2006, the European Union adopted new regulation that aimed “to ensure that consumers are not misled by unsubstantiated, exaggerated or untruthful claims about foodstuffs.” The European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) was charged with assessing the evidence supporting health claims.

Two related to sports drinks have been upheld: that they hydrate better than water and that they help maintain performance in athletes doing endurance exercise. This judgment did not apply to the ordinary person going to the gym or children playing football for an hour a week. Albert Flynn, chair of EFSA’s dietetic products, nutrition, and allergies panel, told the BBC.

Because EFSA has reviewed the literature, companies say the evidence supporting the performance benefits of sports drinks is “very strong.” But an analysis of the studies submitted to EFSA accompanying the investigation does not uphold this view. It also finds a troubling circularity in the industry influenced evidence base—and this does not just apply to the funding of the studies. EFSA also says it relied on the American College of Sports Medicine’s 2007 review on hydration.⁴ The *BMJ* asked the college about its methodology. While not providing substantive comment on the methods used in the past, it said it “now uses an independent expert consultant in meta analysis process.”

When the Institute of Medicine analysed the same dataset in 2004 they concluded that “many of the questions raised about the requirements for and recommended intakes of these electrolytes and of water cannot be fully answered because of inadequacies in the present database.”⁴⁴

In their determination to show that a solution of salt and sugar can produce a beneficial effect, companies have funded hundreds of studies over the past 40 years. The *BMJ* asked several companies for lists of these studies (see box for overview of research). GSK was the only one willing to provide such a list, comprising references to the “100 clinical trials” that suggest its sports drinks have important benefits. Gatorade did not respond, and Coca Cola sent a detailed response explaining how their drink works.⁴⁵ An accompanying analysis of the studies found that the quality of the evidence was so poor that it was impossible to draw firm conclusions about the effects of the sports drink (box).⁹

Marketing to athletes or ordinary people?

Noakes has other concerns about the evidence. He questions how generalisable the results are to the ordinary population. The studies feature highly trained volunteers who sustain exercise at high intensity for long periods. “They are never going to study a person who trains for two hours per week, who walks most of the marathon—which form the majority of users of sports drinks.”

Yet it’s precisely these people that companies are targeting. Kelly Brownell, director of the Rudd Center for Food Policy and Obesity at Yale University has studied the way sports drinks are marketed. “They are marketed through a general route rather than just in runners’ magazines, which shows they actually want a broad audience,” he says.

Not all companies shy away from this description of their activities. John Brewer, director of the Lucozade Sport Science Academy, told a parliamentary select committee in 2006 that “It is really looking to get elite endorsement for high quality products that would then be preferred by the consumer at the mass market level.”

But GSK’s response suggests it would prefer not to be viewed in this light. A spokesperson told the *BMJ*: “Lucozade Sport is for adults who train and take part in sport and other vigorous physical exercise and this is stated on the bottle.” The company also says that Lucozade is not marketed to children under 16.

Despite such reassurances, last year the company turned to pop stars Tinie Tempah and Blink 182 drummer, Travis Parker—both popular with younger children—to become “brand ambassadors” and attract “sporty teenagers.”⁴⁶

Assessment of evidence behind sports products

A team at the Centre of Evidence Based Medicine at Oxford University assessed the evidence behind 431 performance enhancing claims in adverts for 104 different sports products including sports drinks, protein shakes andainers.

If the evidence wasn't clear from the adverts, they contacted the companies for more information. Some like Puma did not provide any evidence, while others like GlaxoSmithKline, makers of Lucozade Sport, provided hundreds of studies.

Yet only three (2.7%) of the studies the team was able to assess were judged to be of high quality and at a low risk of bias. They say the absence of high quality evidence is "worrying" and call for better research in this area to help inform decisions.

What the research found

As part of the BMJ's analysis of the evidence underpinning sports performance products, it asked manufacturers to supply details of the studies. Only one manufacturer, GlaxoSmithKline, provided a comprehensive bibliography of the trials used to underpin its product claims for Lucozade, a carbohydrate containing sports drink.⁵ Other manufacturers of leading sports drinks did not, and in the absence of systematic reviews we surmise that the methodological issues raised apply to all other sports drinks.

Carl Heneghan, Rafael Perera, David Nunan, Kamal Mahani, and Peter Gill set out to appraise the evidence and found a series of problems with the studies (see online for full article).⁹

Small sample sizes limit the applicability of results Only one of the 106 studies in 257 marathon runners exceeded the acceptable range for a small study of 100 participants per group. The next largest had 52 participants and the median sample size was nine. Thus the results cannot be generalised beyond people within the study group characteristics.

Poor quality surrogate outcomes undermine the validity Many studies used time to exhaustion or other outcomes that are not directly relevant to performance in real life events.

Poorly designed research offers little to instil confidence in product claims Most studies (76%) were low in quality because of a lack of allocation concealment and blinding, and often the findings contradicted with each other. The studies often had substantial problems because of use of different protocols, temperatures, work intensities, and outcomes.

Data dredging leads to spurious statistical results Studies often failed to define outcome measures before the study, leaving open the possibility of numerous analyses and increasing the risk of finding a positive result by chance.

Biological outcomes do not necessarily correlate with improved performance Reductions in use of muscle glycogen, for example, did not correlate with improved athletic performance. Physiological outcomes such as maximal oxygen consumption have also been shown to be poor predictors of performance, even among elite athletes.

Inappropriate use of relative measures inflates the outcome and can easily mislead One study inflated the relative effect of carbohydrate drinks from 3% to 33% by excluding from the analysis the 75 minutes of exercise both groups undertook before an exhaustion test.

Studies that lack blinding are likely to be false Studies that used plain water as the control found positive effects, whereas those that used as a matched placebo didn't.

Manipulation of nutrition in the run in phase significantly affects subsequent outcomes Many studies seemingly save participants high before and on the morning of the research study.

Changes in environmental factors lead to wide variation in outcomes Although dilute carbohydrate drinks may have some benefit in heat, studies found no effect in cold environments. No plausible reason given for benefits.

There was no substantial evidence to suggest that liquid is any better than solid carbohydrate intake and there were no studies in children. Given the high sugar content and the propensity of dental erosions, children should be discouraged from using sports drinks. Through our analysis of the current sports performance research, we have come to one conclusion: people should develop their own strategies for carbohydrate intake largely by trial and error.

Influence over journals

Another problem with the research is transparency. Even though a large proportion of the studies have been conducted by scientists with financial ties to Gatorade (PepsiCo), GSK, and Coca-Cola, the authors' individual conflicts of interest are either not published or not declared. Conflicts of interest also exist within the key journals in sports medicine. GSSI funded scientists pepper their editorial boards and editorships.

Around half of the studies supplied by GSK appeared in four journals: the *Journal of Applied Physiology* (20), *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* (24), *International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism* (11) and the *Journal of Sports Science* (9). Several of these journals belong to organisations that have long relationships with Gatorade (box). These links between sports medicine journals and the sports drinks industry may help to explain a characteristic of the sports drinks literature that is familiar to those who have analysed drug trials over the past 30 years: the relative (or almost complete) absence of negative studies.

Several people have told the BMJ how difficult it is to publish studies that question the role of hydration. Paul Laursen is one of them. "[A negative study] gets rejected by reviewers and the editors for really spurious reasons—particularly when you consider what does get published. It's a frustrating experience and it makes you wonder if it's a case of money winning out."

In response to concerns that drug companies were burying negative studies or those that demonstrated harm, the US government implemented the FDA Amendment Act. This stipulated that prospective studies had to be registered on a publicly accessible database. However, this has not caught on in nutrition.

When the BMJ asked companies if they had any knowledge of negative trials where sports drinks have not shown improvement in outcomes, Coca-Cola responded that it didn't. "We would suggest you direct this question to an active researcher in the field," a spokesperson said. But finding out what studies are being conducted isn't easy.

The BMJ turned to Loughborough University, which will form one of the UK's main hubs directing research into sport and exercise as part of delivering the Olympic legacy. The university receives funding from Gatorade.

Using the Freedom of Information Act, the BMJ asked for the university's contract with Gatorade and for the protocols of studies conducted on humans. The request was turned down under a commercial interests exemption. A subsequent letter said they didn't have any studies underway, yet declined to say what they receive funding for.

"The public interest in maintaining the exemption outweighs the public interest in disclosing the information," the Freedom of Information officer said.

UK Sport, a quango accountable to the UK's Department for Culture, Media and Sport, has also entered into a "research and

Journals' links to industry

While many journals have scientists on their editorial boards who have links with the manufacturers of sports drinks including the BMJ Group's *British Journal of Sports Medicine* some have such people in prominent editorial roles

The one with the biggest reach is *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* – owned by the American College of Sports Medicine which has a longstanding financial relationship with Gatorade and now Powerade. Since 1999 there has been a steady increase in the number of Gatorade affiliated scientists who are editors on the editorial board. Over the past 12 years the editors in chief have been Ken Pandolf and Andrew Young both of whom work for the US military. Gatorade's biggest customer and have been instrumental in the science of hydration. Pandolf has been a speaker at invitation only GSS conferences. Another senior editor Michael Sawka was chair of the committee who drafted the ACSM's 1996 "zero% dehydration" guidance on fluids. This was based on a round table funded by Gatorade. Sawka has been and continues to be a speaker at Gatorade sponsored events since 1989 – is no clear if he receives funding directly.

Ron Maughan is also a senior editor of the journal. He has a longstanding financial relationship with Gatorade as well as financial relationships with Coca Cola and GSK. Maughan has played senior editorial roles on several other journals over the past 20 years including the *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, *Nutrition*, the *European Journal of Applied Physiology* and the *Journal of Sports Sciences* – the official journal of the British Association of Sports and Exercise Science which has a financial relationship with Gatorade.⁵²

Maughan is also co-editor of the *International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism* with Louise Burke who works at the Australian Institute of Sport which has a partnership with Gatorade. This journal also has several Gatorade affiliated scientists on its editorial board.

Several other prominent Gatorade scientists sit on the board of the *Journal of Sports Science*. Mark Hargreaves, professor of exercise physiology and metabolism at Melbourne University and a member of the Science Advisory Board of the Gatorade Sports Science Institute (GSSI) is a consulting editor for the *Journal of Applied Physiology* along with Sawka. This journal is owned by the American Physiological Society which again has financial links to Gatorade.

Another prominent editor of *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* was Oded Bar Or – a professor of paediatrics who had a longstanding financial relationship with GSSI. He has been a key consultant to the American Academy of Pediatrics on its hydration strategy.

Most of the scientists identified as being on the GSSI board have prominent roles in journals. Even its global senior director Asker Jeukendrup, professor of exercise metabolism at Birmingham University is an editor of the *European Journal of Sport Science* – the official journal of the European College of Sports Science. His biography states that "he has been a member of the advisory editorial board of the *Journal of Sports Sciences* and served on the editorial board of the *International Journal of Sports Medicine* and *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*. To date Asker has served as a reviewer for 35 different scientific journals."⁵³ Jeukendrup is one of the main authors of a series of research papers given to the BMJ by GSK to demonstrate the effectiveness of its sports drinks.⁹

development partnership" with GSK. This is "to investigate the role that nutrition has in improving athletic performance through the training process." They too turned down the Freedom of Information requests for study protocols, calling them "commercial in confidence."

Links to obesity

As sports drinks rise in popularity among children, there is concern their consumption is contributing to obesity levels. A 500 mL bottle of Powerade Ion4 contains 19.6 g of sugar, and the same sized bottles of Lucozade Sport and Gatorade Perform contain 17.5 g (32g carbohydrate) and 30 g respectively (a teaspoon of sugar weighs about 4 g).

A report in June 2012 by the US philanthropic organisation, the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, says that "the increased consumption of sports drinks in recent years is of growing concern for parents, health professionals, and public health advocates."⁴⁷

Coca Cola denies that the drinks are a problem. "No one single food or drink alone is responsible for people being overweight or obese. All foods and soft drinks can have a place in a sensible, balanced diet, as long as over time you do not take in more calories than you burn," it said.

However, endorsement by elite athletes and claims of hydration benefits have meant that sports drinks have been able to shrug off any unhealthy associations. An analysis by Yale University's Rudd Center for Food Policy and Obesity found that over a quarter of American parents believe that sports drinks are healthy for children.⁴⁸

A recent campaign against the UK government levying value added tax on "sports nutrition drinks" by UK Sports Specialist Nutrition Alliance also shows how sport products are now thought of as essential. "You complain about obesity then charge us to live a healthy lifestyle!" says one signatory. "Why penalise individuals for choosing to use products designed to maintain health and vitality which ultimately help reduce the burden on the already stretched and under resourced NHS. We're sitting on a diabetes and obesity time bomb," says another.

This is why New York City's mayor, Michael Bloomberg, has proposed a ban on supersized bottles of soft drinks, including sports drinks. As one marketing pundit put it, drinking a sports drink "may be a way for consumers to convince themselves that they are looking after the bodies without having to break out into a sweat."⁹

Far from sports drinks turning casual runners into Olympic athletes, Noakes suggests: "If they avoided the sports drink they would get thinner and run faster."

Competing interests: The author has completed the CMJE unified disclosure form at www.icmje.org/coin_disclosure.pdf (available on request from the corresponding author) and declares no support from any organisation for the submitted work; no financial relationships with any organisation that might have an interest in the submitted work in the previous three years; and no other relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

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Lucozade's transformation

Although it is now associated with sports, Lucozade had a sickly start in life. Initially developed by a pharmacist in Newcastle, Glucozade—as it was then called—was launched as a glucose supplement to help people recover from common illnesses such as influenza and was soon snapped up by Beecham (now part of GSK's Nutritional Healthcare division). But illness doesn't sell in quite the same way as strength and health. The Lucozade that is familiar today was effectively created in 1983 by UK branding agency Ogilvy & Mather. It was relaunched with British Olympic gold medal winner Daley Thompson under the proposition that energy and empowerment was a stronger sell than recovery.

Scaremongering over the effects of dehydration

The American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM) guidelines also emphasised the relationship between dehydration and serious illness in sport, saying that it causes heat exhaustion, heat stroke, muscle cramps, and exacerbates rhabdomyolysis. As well as a few laboratory studies, the ACSM draws on findings that dehydration was present in 17% of hospital admissions for heat stroke in the US military and a similar number in Israel.² It did not conduct a systematic review on heat area.

Sandy Fowkes Godek, director of the HEAT Centre and a professor of sports medicine at Western Chesapeake University, has conducted dozens of studies on National Football League players in the US and failed to show that dehydration has any effect on core temperature. "It's a scare tactic that has worked very well," she says. "We don't understand what causes exertional heat stroke."

Studies that have shown that dehydration causes heat illness, she argues, have been set up to show it. Paul Laursen agrees.

"What is done in a lab doesn't always turn out to be true in outdoor conditions. Studies in hydration are often conducted in a climate chamber with inappropriate airflow. They typically don't use a good fan, so the ability to remove heat from the body is reduced, and core temperature rises. While this might be what happens in an indoor fitness class, it isn't applicable to what goes on outside. But companies have taken this lab finding and made it gospel," he says.

A review in the *British Journal of Sports Medicine* supports his view. "There are very few recent, well-controlled exercise physiology studies of heat and exercise in children that are directly applicable to the real world, field conditions," it says.⁹ Indeed, a spokesperson from Gatorade confirmed that there have been no systematic reviews that address the relationship between exertional heat-related illness and hydration.

From a health perspective, Fowkes Godek worries that if people are going to be fooled into thinking that drinking fluids is going to stop them getting heat stroke, they won't take other preventive measures. This advice has been picked up widely. NHS Choices website says that dehydration in exercise "is the primary cause of heat exhaustion," it says.⁵⁰

Disease mongering is a well-documented phenomenon in healthcare⁵ and Noakes suggests that industry has followed a similar pattern with dehydration and exercise.

"When industry wanted to sell more product, it had to develop a new disease that would encourage people to overdrink," he said, adding "Here's a disease that you will get if you run. Here's a product that is going to save your life. That's exactly what they did. They said dehydration is a dreaded disease of exercise."

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FEATURE

SPORTS DRINKS

Forty years of sports performance research and little insight gained

Carl Heneghan and colleagues take a critical look at the evidence used to back up claims that Lucozade enhances sporting performance

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Sports drinks manufacturers are keen to emphasise that their products are supported by science, although they are more reticent about the details. As part of the *BMJ*'s analysis of the evidence underpinning sports performance products, it asked manufacturers to supply details of the studies. Only one manufacturer, GlaxoSmithKline, complied. It provided us with a comprehensive bibliography of the trials used to underpin its product claims for Lucozade – a carbohydrate containing sports drink.¹ Other manufacturers of leading sports drinks did not supply us with comprehensive bibliographies, and in the absence of systematic reviews we surmise that the methodological issues raised in this article could apply to all other sports drinks.

Of this list of 176 studies, we were able to critically review 106 studies (101 clinical trials) dating from 1971 through to 2012. We did not review posters, supplements, theses, or unavailable articles (see the linked data supplement).

Clinical trials are the best study design we have to evaluate what effect a “treatment” in this case Lucozade sports drinks will have on performance. However, not all trials are created equal,² and the label of randomised controlled trial is no guarantee that a study will provide adequate or useful evidence. As it turns out, if you apply evidence based methods, 40 years of sports drinks research does not seemingly add up to much, particularly when applying the results to the general public. Below we set out the main problems we identified together with some examples.

The smaller the sample size, the lower the confidence around the reported effect

Only four studies included a power calculation at the outset,⁶ and very few studies discussed the importance of statistical power: we identified only one study, in seven moderately trained subjects, that reported the inability to detect significant

differences in muscle glycogen use between treatments “may be due to a lack of statistical power given the small number of subjects.”⁷ Within sports science, given the small sample sizes, it is plausible that any hypothesis could be tested and subsequently reported in a peer reviewed journal as positive.⁸ Small studies are known to be systematically biased towards the effectiveness of the interventions they are testing. Researchers have previously defined “small” as less than an average of 100 participants in each arm.⁹ Yet, only one of the 106 studies in 257 marathon runners exceeded this target.¹⁰ The next largest had 52 participants,¹¹ and the median sample size was nine.

There is one caveat to the requirements for larger sample sizes: where the variability in the outcome measure is low. The greater the level of variability, the higher the sample size required to detect the same effect.¹² By choosing homogenous groups of athletes and physiological measures, studies aimed to reduce variability and thus negate the need for larger sample sizes; however, this means that the results apply only to these highly selected groups.¹

Poor quality surrogate outcomes undermine the validity of reported effects

A study of carbohydrate ingestion among 16 university football players with compromised glycogen stores (that is, after overnight fasting) reported participants significantly differed in the mean points scored per shot on the Loughborough Soccer Shooting Test (LSST).¹⁴ Yet, this test does not discriminate elite from non elite players.¹⁵ Although plasma glucose concentrations and carbohydrate oxidation rates were significantly increased in 12 football players during football specific exercises, sprint power was not significantly affected by the ingestion of

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Details of studies included in the analysis (see <http://www.bmj.com/content/345/bmj.e4797?tab=related#webextra>)

carbohydrate or placebo. Studies that provided no exercise or performance outcomes were even more difficult to interpret.^{16 17}

Moreover, tests with a high coefficient of variation, such as time to exhaustion, are often misleading. Cycling at 75% maximal oxygen consumption to exhaustion has a coefficient of variation as high as 27%, whereas time trial cycling has been shown to have a coefficient as low as 3.8%.¹⁸ Thus time trials are likely to be a more valid measure of cycling performance.¹⁹ Also poor reproducibility of a test, such as time to exhaustion, means psychological factors may contribute significantly to performance, independent of the intervention under scrutiny. Worryingly, most performance tests used to assess sports drinks have never been validated.²⁰ Furthermore, we are not aware of any major sporting events that use time to exhaustion as the outcome. Yet it was used in 17 of the included studies and is often used as a performance measure in sports research.

Poorly designed research offers little to instil confidence in product claims

Most studies (76%) were low in quality because of a lack of allocation concealment and blinding, and often the findings contrasted with each other. One of the few trials that used a sports related outcome, long distance canoeing, shows some of the design problems.²¹ The study found that use of a glucose syrup drink meant canoeists were able to maintain a consistent lap time whereas there was a gradual worsening of performance in the placebo group. But, the “effect is masked to some extent by the fact that four of the volunteers participated in two man kayaks.” This resulted in each two man crew having one person taking the drink and the other placebo; inevitably the times recorded for both were virtually identical, despite the difference in drinks being used. The studies often had substantial problems because of use of different protocols, temperatures, work intensities, and outcomes.²²

Data dredging leads to spurious statistical results

Data dredging is the inappropriate use of statistics to uncover misleading relations within the data and is common in studies where a clear protocol with a primary outcome of interest has not been defined. When glucose syrup was given to one football team before matches over a season the number of goals scored in the second half was double that scored by the control team, with 15/20 being scored in the final half hour of the match. The goals conceded in both halves without glucose, and in the first half with glucose, were almost identical. However, the data showed a marked improvement in defensive performance, with only one goal conceded during the final 30 minutes of the 20 matches.² Since outcomes were not defined beforehand, it is possible that the researchers also examined the last 20 minutes, the last 10, or even extra time, thus increasing the chance of a type I error (false positive) arising because of the number of outcome tests.

Biological outcomes do not necessarily correlate with improved performance

In a study of six trained soccer, hockey, or rugby players use of muscle glycogen during high intensity running was reduced in those who had a carbohydrate drink compared with those who had a non carbohydrate drink. Yet, the average sprint times were the same for both groups.²⁴ Several of the outcomes used are subject to higher order interactions that is, they are affected

by two or more variables.²⁵ For example, several factors independently influence the oxidation of ingested carbohydrate, including the timing, the exercise intensity, and the type of carbohydrate. These interactions can mask the effectiveness of the intervention, making it hard to determine causation from association. In addition, physiological outcomes such as maximal oxygen consumption, used in many studies, have been shown to be poor predictors of performance, even among elite athletes.²⁶

Inappropriate use of relative measures inflates the outcome and can easily mislead

The finding that consuming carbohydrate containing drinks during high intensity exercise “delayed fatigue and improved endurance running capacity by 33% when compared with the same volume of artificially sweetened water” sounds impressive. However, the crossover study that reported this result was in nine participants who had fasted overnight for at least 10 hours, done a 15 minute warm up followed by 75 minutes of exercise, and then ran to exhaustion. In one arm they consumed a carbohydrate drink (concentration 6.9%) while in the other they consumed a non carbohydrate placebo. The absolute difference in run time to exhaustion was 2.2 minutes (8.9 min v 6.7 min). By the time of the exhaustion run, the control group had not eaten for at least 11.5 hours.²⁷ In addition, exclusion of the initial first 75 minutes from the outcome calculation dramatically inflates the relative effect. If this is included the difference is 83.9 min v 81.7 min, an improvement of only 3% rather than the claimed 33%. Improved running capacity by 33% for sports performance is implausible – it would be the difference between running a marathon in two hours rather than three.

Studies that lack blinding are likely to be false

In a study where the control group drank plain water with no artificial sweetener, the endurance running capacity of nine participants was measured after a 12 hour fast and the 6.9% carbohydrate drink was found to give better performance.²⁸ Yet, a study of high intensity running that used correct blinding “the solutions ingested were of the same colour, texture, and taste, and were administered in a double blind fashion” found no difference in the run time to exhaustion after 100 minutes of exercise.²⁹ A study using the Loughborough Intermittent Shuttle running Test (90 minutes in six blocks of 15 minutes separated by 3 minute rest periods) in which the placebo was taste matched found that mean 15 m sprint times were similar in both groups after 90 minutes and there was no effect on muscle glycogen use.³⁰ Of the 106 studies, only 38 (36%) reported blinding but even these gave poor descriptions of who exactly was blinded, particularly outcome assessors.

Manipulation of nutrition in the run-in phase significantly affects subsequent outcomes

Many studies seemingly starve participants the night before and on the morning of the research study. However, in one study that gave subjects breakfast¹ the high glycogen levels at the outset of exercise negated the effects of carbohydrate ingestion during exercise. The study, among eight cyclists, gave high or low glycogen food before exercise in a factorial crossover design

with either a carbohydrate or non carbohydrate drink during exercise. Over the final period of the time trial, power output and pace were significantly lower only during the arm in which participants had low glycogen food before exercise and non carbohydrate drinks during exercise.² It is important that studies represent real life situations: when would an athlete fast for 12 hours before a major performance event?

Biological gradients are useful to establish the relation between cause and effect

Studying the dose response relation reveals important differences. For example, a study analysing carbohydrate feedings and exercise performance showed glucose solutions at a concentration of 4% or more delayed gastric emptying compared with more dilute solutions. The 20 g/L glucose solution was emptied at the same rate as water and the 40 and 60g/L solutions were emptied at a slower rate. In a crossover study of carbohydrate versus water in marathon running a lemon drink containing 5.5% carbohydrate was the preferred option among endurance trained runners and performed better than an orange 6.9% carbohydrate drink.²⁸

Changes in environmental factors lead to wide variation in outcomes

Fluid replacement with dilute carbohydrate drink (2%) was found to be beneficial when exercising in heat (ambient temperature 30.2°C) compared with a 15% carbohydrate electrolyte drink, which was no better than no drink at all. The mechanisms for the improvements in exercise capacity reported were unclear. Many of the suggested benefits across trials did not seemingly have a plausible or known mechanism of why they would even work.⁴ Although drinking a carbohydrate electrolyte solution after a 12 hour fast induced greater metabolic changes than flavoured water and placebo solutions, endurance capacity (intermittent running of high intensity in hot environmental conditions at 30°C) was not significantly affected.⁵ In a cold environment (mean temperature 10°C), the effect of carbohydrate drinks (glucose concentrations of 2%, 6%, and 12%) on exercise capacity was no better than that of flavoured water, as measured by cycle rides to exhaustion.⁶

Studying the general population requires larger samples

Larger sample sizes are required to take account of the substantial variability in sports performance among untrained people. Of note, the study of 257 participants in the 2009 London marathon¹⁰ concluded that, in addition to sex, body size, and training, pre race day carbohydrate intake can significantly and independently influence marathon running performance. Interestingly, there was no mention of carbohydrate feeding as a factor in predicting improved performance for marathon runners.

From our analysis of the current evidence, we conclude that over prolonged periods carbohydrate ingestion can improve exercise performance, but consuming large amounts is not a good strategy particularly at low and moderate exercise intensities and in exercise lasting less than 90 minutes. There was no substantial evidence to suggest that liquid is any better than solid carbohydrate intake and there were no studies in children. Given the high sugar content and the propensity to dental erosions children should be discouraged from using sports

drinks.⁷ Through our analysis of the current sports performance research, we have come to one conclusion: people should develop their own strategies for carbohydrate intake largely by trial and error.

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