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Published in:

International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism

DOI:

10.1123/ijsnem.2018-0270

Licence: Unspecified

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Recommended citation(APA): McCubbin, A. J., Cox, G. R., & Costa, R. J. S. (2019). Sodium Intake Beliefs, Information Sources, and Intended Practices of Endurance Athletes Before and During Exercise. *International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism*, *29*(4), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1123/ijsnem.2018-0270

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Download date: 20 May 2024



Sodium intake beliefs, information sources and intended practices of endurance athletes before and during exercise

Journal:	International Journal of Sport Nutrition & Exercise Metabolism
Manuscript ID	IJSNEM.2018-0270.R2
Manuscript Type:	Original Research
Keywords:	Endurance athletes, Sodium intake, Hydration status

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Abstract

2	There is little information describing how endurance athletes perceive sodium intake in relation to
3	training and competition. Using an online questionnaire, this study assessed the beliefs, information
4	sources and intended practices regarding sodium ingestion for training and competition. Endurance
5	athletes (n= 344) from six English-speaking countries completed the questionnaire and were included
6	for analysis. The most cited information sources were social supports (63%), self-experimentation
7	(56%) and media (48%). Respondents generally believed (>50% on electronic Visual Analogue Scale
8	(VAS)) endurance athletes require additional sodium on a daily basis (median 67% (IQR 40-81%)),
9	benefit from increased sodium in the days preceding competition (60% (30-77%)), should replace
10	sodium losses during training (69% (48-83%)) and competition (74% (54-87%)), and would benefit
11	from sweat composition testing (82% (65-95%)). Respondents generally believed sodium ingestion
12	during endurance exercise prevents exercise-associated muscle cramps (75% (60-88%)) and exercise-
13	associated hyponatraemia (74% (62-89%)). The majority (58%) planned to consciously increase
14	sodium or total food intake (i.e. indirectly increasing sodium intake) in the days preceding
15	competition. Most (79%) were conscious of sodium intake during competition, but only 29% could
16	articulate a specific intake plan. A small minority (5%) reported using commercial sweat testing
17	services, of which 75% believed it was beneficial. We conclude that endurance athletes commonly
18	perceive sodium intake as important for their sporting activities. Many intend to consciously increase
19	sodium intake in the days preceding and during competition, although these views appear informed
20	mostly by non-scientific and/or non-evidence-based sources.

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Keywords: Ultra-endurance athletes, sodium intake, hydration status

Introduction

During endurance exercise, muscular contractions produce heat, resulting in sweating to support thermoregulation (Sawka et al., 2007). Considering sodium is the most abundant electrolyte present in sweat, prolonged heavy sweating can cause significant sodium losses (Baker, 2017). Whilst this is broadly reflected in sport and exercise nutrition guidelines, specific sodium recommendations for athletes are lacking (Shirreffs & Sawka, 2011; Thomas et al., 2016). Despite this, numerous businesses offer sweat composition testing, which combined with purpose-built sodium supplements allow quantifiable sodium replacement. Endurance athletes commonly believe sodium intake improves performance and prevents health consequences of endurance exercise, including exercise-associated muscle cramps (EAMC) and exercise-associated hyponatraemia (EAH) (Winger et al. 2011; Winger et al., 2013). Mechanisms cited include enhanced fluid absorption, maintenance of total body water, plasma volume and circulating sodium concentration (Sawka et al., 2007).

Despite this theoretical rationale, evidence that sodium replacement during exercise improves performance is scarce. A recent systematic literature review (SLR) found minimal evidence of performance benefits from sodium intake during exercise (2-13 h duration), although it was noted the quality of existing studies were poor (McCubbin & Costa, 2018a). In contrast, pre-exercise sodium loading (1500-3000 mg ingested 15-45 min prior to exercise stress) appears beneficial to performance during 1-2 h exercise durations due to expanded plasma volume, resulting in improved thermoregulation (Coles & Luetkemeier, 2005; Sims et al., 2007). In addition to performance, sodium replacement during endurance exercise may play a role in the prevention and/or management of negative exercise-associated health outcomes. The role of sodium in EAMC remains controversial, although the prevailing view is that neuromuscular fatigue is the more likely cause (Schwellnus, 2009). Sodium intake during exercise can influence serum sodium concentration, although not to the same extent as fluid intake (Hew-Butler et al., 2015). It has been suggested that significant unreplaced sodium losses may contribute to asymptomatic (Noakes et al., 2005; Hoffman et al., 2013) and in some cases symptomatic (Lewis et al., 2018) hypovolaemic EAH, representing a possible rationale for

sodium ingestion during prolonged exercise (Hew-Butler et al., 2015). It has also been suggested
sodium losses during ultra-endurance exercise may influence bone mineral content, through sodium
resorption to maintain circulating concentrations (Hew-Butler et al. 2013), although implications for
bone health are yet to be determined.
Whilst previous studies have investigated beliefs and strategies for sodium ingestion during endurance
events (Costa et al., 2014; Costa et al., 2013; Hoffman & Stuempfle, 2014; Pfeiffer et al., 2012;
Winger et al., 2013), little is known about how endurance athletes perceive the role of sodium in
relation to training, before and after competition. With this in mind, the purpose of this exploratory
study was to observe beliefs, information sources and intended practices of endurance athletes
regarding sodium for training and competition. Based on anecdotal evidence, we hypothesised
endurance athletes would; a) perceive increased daily sodium requirements; b) believe sodium
ingestion during exercise improves endurance performance and reduces EAMC and EAH risk; c) plan
to increase sodium intake 2-3 days before competition, and; d) deliberately ingest foods, fluids and
supplements during competition for their sodium content.
supplements during competition for their sodium content. Methods
Participants
This descriptive, cross sectional study, utilised an online questionnaire developed based on the
principles of Desbrow and Leveritt (2007). The questionnaire was circulated internationally via email
and social media, available in English. Respondents were endurance athletes ≥18 years of age, of any
competitive level, intending to compete in endurance events ≥2h duration in the following six months.
The study was approved by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (approval
number 12241).

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was conducted using Qualtrics (Provo, Utah, USA), an online platform for
questionnaire design, distribution and analysis that is well-established for exploratory research in
health care settings (Ogbogu & Necyk, 2016; Yoon et al. 2018). The questionnaire included five
sections as described below. Refer to Appendix 1 for the questionnaire in full.
Sodium Information Sources: Participants were asked to identify the information sources that had
influenced their sodium intake in respect to training and competition. These included advice from
health professionals, sport-specific (coaches, managers, and trainers) and social supports (fellow
athletes, friends and relatives), peer reviewed journals, media (television, magazines, internet, etc.),
self-experimentation, sales and marketing (advertising material, company sales representatives and
store attendants).
Sodium Beliefs: Two sets of questions investigated the beliefs of endurance athletes regarding the
consumption of sodium before and during endurance exercise. The first set asked participants to
indicate, using an electronic visual analogue scale (VAS), to what extent they agreed with statements
regarding a specific need for athletes to consume more sodium day-to-day, before, during and after
training and competition, and if measurement of sodium losses would be beneficial for endurance
athletes. The second section asked participants to indicate to what extent they agreed that increased
sodium intake would be beneficial for aspects of health (i.e., EAMC, EAH) and performance during
endurance exercise, using the same VAS. In both sections the <u>VAS ranged from 0% (strongly</u>
disagree) to 100% (strongly agree). An electronic slider commenced in the midway (50%) mm
position (neither agree or disagree), and results only recorded if the participant clicked on the slider,
to prevent data being recorded as 50% due to failure to answer the question.
Intended Practices: Participants were asked to indicate whether they were consciously aware of the
amount of sodium they consume in the days preceding competition. If so, they were then asked over
what time period, and whether they deliberately planned to increase, reduce or maintain sodium intake
compared to their usual day-to-day intake. They were asked to identify the foods, fluids and
supplements used to achieve a specific sodium intake in preparation for competition. All participants
were also asked whether they planned to change their overall food and fluid intake, regardless of

sodium, compared to usual intake. A second section asked participants to identify if they were consciously aware of their sodium intake during competition, and if so, if they identified a specific amount to consume. They were also asked what foods, fluid and supplements they intended to consume during a race, specifically for their sodium content.

Sweat Composition Testing: Participants were asked if they had previously had their sweat composition tested using commercial testing services (i.e., excluding research studies). Participants who had undertaken sweat testing were then asked their motivations for doing so, how the results were applied to their nutrition planning, and whether in hindsight they felt that the testing had achieved the goals they had for completing the test in the first place.

Statistical Analysis

Data are presented as median (inter-quartile range, IQR) based on distribution, which was assessed using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. Effects of sex, geographical region and competitive level on responses were analysed. For continuous variables, sex differences were analysed using the Mann-Whitney U test, differences by region and competitive level were analysed using the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance by ranks, with significant outcomes analysed using the Mann-Whitney U test to determine between-group differences. For categorical data, sex, region and competitive level effects were assessed using chi-square analysis, with categories collapsed when more than 20% of cells had an expected count of less than five. Where associations were found, post-hoc analysis was performed through two by two chi square tables for all category combinations. Analysis was performed using SPSS 24.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, New York, USA) with significance accepted at $p \le 0.05$, except where adjusted as described.

Results

Demographics

Three hundred and forty-four endurance athletes (*n*=199 males, *n*=145 females) from Australia and New Zealand (60.0%), North America (26.5%) and the United Kingdom (UK) and Ireland (7.7%) completed the questionnaire (see Table 1). A small number of respondents (n=22) resided elsewhere but were excluded to allow regional comparisons. Respondents were predominately competitive agegroup athletes (66%), of which most (79%) mainly compete in events longer than marathon (running) or Olympic distance (triathlon), or three hours in other sports. Sports included distance running, race walking, triathlon, cycling, mountain biking, open-water swimming, adventure racing, orienteering, endurance rowing, canoeing and kayaking, endurance winter sports and ocean sailing.

Information Sources

Reported information sources are shown in Table 2 – the average number cited was 3.7 per participant. Social supports (particularly fellow athletes) were most cited (63%), followed by self-experimentation (56%), media (48%), health professionals (38%) and sport-specific supports (35%). Males indicated greater media influence than females (χ^2 = 5.3, p< 0.05), while less UK and Irish athletes sourced information from health professionals (χ^2 = 6.0, p= 0.05) and sport-specific supports (χ^2 = 10.5, p< 0.01) but more from media (χ^2 = 13.5, p< 0.01). More professional and aspiring professionals sourced information from health practitioners (χ^2 = 7.4, p< 0.05) and scientific sources (e.g. peer-reviewed journals) (χ^2 = 7.3, p< 0.05) compared to lower competitive levels.

Sodium Beliefs

Agreement with statements about sodium for endurance athletes are shown in Figure 1. Respondents generally agreed (>50% on VAS) endurance athletes have increased daily sodium requirements (median 67% (IQR 40-81%)), would benefit from increasing sodium intake in the days preceding competition (60% (30-77%)), should replace sweat sodium losses during training (69% (48-83%)) and racing (74% (54-87%)), after training (75% (59-88%)) and racing (80% (64-91%)), and would benefit from sweat composition testing (82% (65-95%)) although individual responses varied markedly

(Figure 1). There were no sex, region or competitive level differences. There was some agreement that sodium intake during exercise improved physical endurance (65% (52-77%)), but less so speed (54% (50-69%)), power (55% (50-69%)) and mental alertness (58%, 50-71%). Respondents generally agreed with statements that sodium intake helped prevent EAMC (75% (60-88%)) or reduce their severity (71% (51-84%)), and helped prevent EAH (74% (62-89%)), but with marked variation in individual responses (Figure 2). There was less agreement that sodium ingestion reduced core body temperature (53% (50-71%)), or prevented bone mineral loss during exercise (53% (50-71%)). No sex or competitive level differences were observed, however Australian and New Zealand athletes agreed more strongly (p< 0.01) that sodium could prevent (77% (62-89%)) or treat (73% (56-86%)) EAMC compared to North American athletes (69% (52-79%) and 64% (50-78%) respectively).

Intended Practices Prior to Competition

Almost half (45%) of respondents indicated being conscious of sodium intake in the days preceding competition, always or specifically for hot or longer events. Of these, 64% intended to increase, 33% maintain, and 3% reduce sodium intake during this period. There were no sex, region or competitive level effects on intended sodium intake prior to competition. Most respondents (61%) indicated they would be conscious of sodium intake 1-5 days preceding competition, 24% for less than 1 day and 15% for more than 5 days. There were no sex, region or competitive level effects.

Strategies to increase sodium intake prior to competition are shown in Table 3. Females were more likely to choose high sodium foods compared to males (p< 0.05), who were more likely to choose powdered sports and rehydration drinks (p< 0.05). Australian and New Zealand athletes were less likely to add salt to food and fluids (p< 0.05). There was no competitive level effect on foods chosen. Because overall food quantity may unintentionally influence sodium intake, participants were asked about overall food quantity in the days preceding competition. Almost half (41%) indicated they intend to increase overall intake in the days preceding competition; only 3% would reduce during this

period. A region effect was found ($\chi^2 = 13.6$, p < 0.01), whereby Australian and New Zealand athletes were more likely to increase overall intake in the days preceding races (p< 0.01), and North American athletes less likely (p< 0.01). There were no sex or competitive level effects. Overall, 58% of respondents intend to consciously increase sodium intake, total food intake or both during this period.

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Intended Practices During Competition

Most respondents (79%) indicated being conscious of sodium intake during competition, an additional 6% if competing in longer events or in hot ambient conditions (≥30°C). There were no sex or competitive level effects. However, there was a region effect ($\chi^2 = 8.470$, p< 0.05), whereby UK and Irish athletes were less likely to be conscious of sodium intake than North American or Australian and New Zealand athletes (68%, 89% and 87% respectively, p< 0.01). Of those conscious of sodium intake, only 29% articulated specific plans for how much sodium they would consume, with no sex, region or competitive level effects. These respondents described either specific hourly sodium targets in milligrams, or quantified combinations of products. The foods and fluids athletes intend to consume during a race to obtain sodium were diverse, with some sex, region and competitive level effects (Table 4). 10/2

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Sweat Composition Testing

Only 16 respondents (5%) reported having sweat composition tested commercially (males n=10, females n=6). Motivations included a desire to improve competition performance (69%), prevent EAMC (50%), EAH (19%), and general interest (19%). Most (75%) felt assessing sweat composition had been beneficial, 19% not beneficial and 6% unsure. Whilst the lack of responses prevented chisquare analyses, males were more likely than females to undertake sweat testing to improve performance (90% and 33%, respectively), and more likely to believe testing had been beneficial (90% and 50%, respectively).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to describe beliefs, information sources and intended practices of endurance athletes regarding sodium intake for training and competition. In agreement with our hypotheses, respondents; a) believe daily sodium requirements are increased due to exercise, and quantifying sweat sodium losses would be beneficial; b) believe sodium intake during exercise improves endurance performance, prevents and/or attenuates EAMC and EAH; c) plan to increase either sodium or total food intake in the 1-5 days before competition; and d) plan to consume a variety of products during competition for their sodium content, but do not usually have a specific plan for the amount of sodium to consume. In addition, respondents mostly obtain information about sodium from people without sport and exercise nutrition qualifications or expertise (i.e., fellow athletes, friends and relatives, the media or self-experimentation), and whilst less than 5% had undergone commercial sweat testing, the majority of these athletes believed it was worthwhile.

Few studies have previously examined the beliefs, information sources, intended or actual sodium intakes of endurance athletes, and most are limited to sodium ingestion during competition (White & Hoffman, 2018; Hoffman & Stuempfle, 2014; (Winger, Dugas, & Dugas, 2011); Winger et al., 2013). In a recent questionnaire of ultramarathon runners, 85% believed salt tablets should be made available at races, with 65% and 58% of those stating that salt tablets prevent EAH and EAMC respectively. In addition, 43% stated that salt tablets aid hydration status White & Hoffman, 2018). The prevalence of sodium supplementation, in addition to sodium-containing food and fluids, was 90% and 95% in questionnaire respondents competing in the 2011 and 2013 Western States Endurance Run, respectively (Hoffman & Stuempfle, 2014; Winger et al., 2013). These data are consistent with our findings in athletes across a range of endurance sports, whereby median VAS scores indicated general agreement that sodium intake during endurance exercise prevented and/or attenuated EAMC and EAH. Furthermore, over 80% of respondents specifically considered sodium intake during competition either all the time or specifically in hot or long duration events.

In contrast, we are not aware of any well-controlled studies that investigated intended practices or quantified sodium intake in the days preceding endurance competition, compared to typical intake. This is important because of a possible interaction between dietary sodium intake in the preceding days and the sweat sodium concentration during exercise (McCubbin & Costa, 2018b). The majority of studies found in a recent SLR compared reduced dietary sodium to usual intake (McCubbin & Costa, 2018b), whereas the findings of the present study suggest the most likely change in sodium intake in the days preceding competition is an increase. We were unable to quantify the extent of the intended increase in sodium intake prior to competition. Because it is well established that dietary records are a poor indicator of sodium intake, such a study would require collection of all urine and sweat excreted over at least three days, since sweat sodium losses reduce urinary sodium excretion (Lichton 1957), and urinary sodium excretion is a poor predictor of intake unless collected for several consecutive days (Lerchl et al., 2015). This aspect of study design would be a major imposition on endurance athletes preparing for competition, and logistically challenging for researchers.

The current study demonstrated endurance athletes are more likely to seek information from fellow athletes, friends and family, the media and self-experimentation rather than health professionals, coaches or scientific literature. This is perhaps not surprising considering health professionals, coaches and scientific literature are less available and require increased time and financial commitment. Our findings are consistent with studies on information sources for other aspects of sports nutrition such as caffeine and fluid (Desbrow & Leveritt, 2007; Winger et al., 2011; Winger et al., 2013). Unsurprisingly, professional and aspiring professional athletes were more likely to seek advice from health professionals and peer-reviewed journals, given their career relies on this advice to optimise performance, and in some cases, advice is provided at no cost through team or sponsorship arrangements.

Many of the beliefs included in the questionnaire were not supported by scientific evidence, despite general agreement from participants. Statements with the highest agreement included sodium to improve endurance performance, prevent and/or attenuate EAMC and EAH. Evidence for sodium intake during exercise to improve performance (McCubbin & Costa, 2018b), prevent or manage EAMC is scarce (Schwellnus, 2009), and the role of sodium in preventing EAH appears minimal in comparison to fluid intake management and/or behaviours (Hew-Butler et al., 2015). Given professional and aspiring professional athletes more readily consult health professionals, but did not have different beliefs about sodium, this suggests either health professionals are not providing athletes advice in accordance with current scientific literature, are referring to guidelines that do not reflect findings of individual studies (Hoffman, Bross, & Hamilton, 2016), or athlete beliefs are more strongly influenced by other information sources, despite seeking information from qualified professionals.

Differences between sexes were minimal in the present study, except males were more likely to be influenced by non-scientific information sources and intended to consume more commercial sports nutrition products to obtain sodium compared to females. Whilst previous studies investigating beliefs and practices of sodium ingestion during exercise have included both male and female participants, we are unaware of any that have analysed the effect of sex in this way. There were also regional variations in our data, but in general most responses were remarkably similar. This may reflect commonality not only in language but sporting culture, marketing, food environment and access to sports nutrition information between Australia and New Zealand, the USA and Canada, and the UK and Ireland. These results should be interpreted with caution if extrapolating to countries with language, cultural and environmental differences.

Despite the strong belief amongst respondents that quantifying sodium losses was worthwhile, less than 5% reported doing so. This may reflect a lack of availability of sweat testing services, or that it is not prioritised amongst other factors during preparation for competition. In addition, despite 79%

reporting being conscious of sodium intake during competition, only 29% could articulate a specific strategy for doing so. A lack of investment by endurance athletes in quantifying sodium losses and developing replacement strategies may also reflect the absence of evidence-based guidelines to support this practice (Thomas et al., 2016). Future research should investigate the effect of targeted sodium replacement strategies during endurance exercise on health and performance outcomes and the potential role, if any, of sweat composition testing in informing this strategy.

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Limitations

There are several limitations to our study design, mainly relating to the methods used to obtain data from participants. The nature of recruitment for online questionnaires is likely to result in selfselection bias, whereby those with strong opinions on the topic of interest are most likely to complete the questionnaire (Khazaal et al., 2014). Whilst this is likely to have been the case here, we note great variance in responses regarding sodium beliefs, as well as demographic characteristics (age and competitive level) that closely align with previously published demographic information for competitors in ultramarathon (Hoffman & Fogard, 2012) and Ironman and Ironman 70.3 triathlon events (World Triathlon Corporation, 2018). It is noted that females appear over-represented in our dataset compared to the number of entrants in endurance competitions, however the separate analysis of data by sex allows for meaningful comparisons to be made despite this discrepancy. In addition, self-selection bias is also likely to be prevalent in most other study designs within the field of sport and exercise nutrition, due to the time commitment, and in many cases inconvenience and/or potential discomfort of body fluid and tissue sampling. It is also acknowledged that the number of responses per region varied markedly, with only 28 responses from the UK and Ireland. Caution should be applied when interpreting differences by region and competitive level, although more similarities than differences were observed between sub-groups. Finally, despite the wide variability in responses, the nature of the questions means that respondents may be more likely to agree than disagree with any proposed statement (Lavrakas, 2008ref). Therefore, care should be taken when interpreting sodium beliefs data, especially where the median value was close to 50%.

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Conclusion

From analysis of 344 responses to an online questionnaire across six English-speaking countries, we found endurance athletes commonly believe they have increased sodium needs before, during and after training and competition. Many endurance athletes intend to deliberately increase sodium intake before and during competition. These beliefs and intentions appear to be informed mostly by non-scientific information sources, although it has been noted that reliance on sports nutrition guidelines may lead to athletes receiving similar advice from health professionals. There remains a significant need for better evidence to inform sodium intake guidelines, that outline (if deemed relevant) specific sodium intake strategies to optimise performance and prevent adverse health outcomes in the short, or long-term for endurance athletes.

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326	Acknowledgements
327	The authors thank Ben Desbrow from Griffith University for his insights and suggestions on study
328	design, and the participants from around the world who took the time to complete the questionnaire.
329	AM, GC and RC were involved in the study design. AM recruited participants, collected and analysed
330	all data. Data interpretation and manuscript preparation were undertaken by AM, GC and RC. All
331	authors approved the final version of the paper.
332	
333	Conflicts of interest
334	All authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.
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458 **Table 1.** Participant characteristics

		Tot	al			Ma	le	Female				
	Australia/ New Zealand	USA/ Canada	UK/ Ireland	Total	Australia/ New Zealand	USA/ Canada	UK/ Ireland	Total	Australia/ New Zealand	USA/ Canada	UK/ Ireland	Total
Number of participants (n)	219	97	28	344	136	50	13	199	83	47	15	145
Age (median (IQR))	43 (14)	39 (18)	42 (9.5)	42 (15)	43 (14)	39 (18)	42 (9.5)	43 (16)	43 (11.5)	36 (14)	40 (10)	40 (14)
Years competing (median (IQR))	6 (8)	12 (14)	8 (8)	8 (11)	7 (11)	14.5 (19.25)	8 (12)	10 (14)	5 (7)	10 (10)	8 (7)	7 (8)
Competitive Level: Professional	0.9%	4.1%	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	4.0%	0.0%	1.0%	2.4%	4.3%	0.0%	2.8%
Aspiring Professional	4.1%	5.2%	10.7%	4.9%	4.4%	8.0%	15.4%	6.0%	3.6%	2.1%	6.7%	3.4%
Competitive age-group athlete	65.3%	73.2%	42.9%	65.7%	72.1%	80.0%	46.2%	72.4%	54.2%	66.0%	40.0%	56.6%
Training regularly for health & fitness	28.8%	16.5%	46.4%	26.7%	22.1%	8.0%	38.5%	19.6%	39.8%	25.5%	53.3%	36.6%
Training irregularly for health & fitness	0.9%	1.0%	0.0%	0.9%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	2.1%	0.0%	0.7%
Event participation:												
Events < 3h or less than marathon or Olympic distance (running and triathlon)	16.4%	27.8%	32.1%	20.9%	11.0%	16.0%	15.4%	12.6%	25.3%	40.4%	46.7%	32.4%
Events > 3h or greater than marathon or Olympic distance (running and triathlon)	83.6%	72.2%	67.9%	79.1%	89.0%	84.0%	84.6%	87.4%	74.7%	59.6%	53.3%	67.6%

Table 2. Sources of information about sodium consumption before, during and after endurance exercise by sex, region and performance level

	Total	Australia/ New Zealand	USA/ Canada	UK/ Ireland	Association between region and information source χ^2 (p)	Male	Female	Association between sex and information source χ^2 (p)	Health and Fitness	Competitive Age Group	Professional/ aspiring professional	Association between training level and information source χ^2 (p)
Number of participants (n)	344	219	97	28		199	145		95	226	23	
Never considered the use of sodium with sport	8.1%	10.0%	3.1%	10.7%	4.3 (0.117)	7.0%	9.7%	0.8 (0.380)	9.5%	7.5%	8.7%	0.4 (0.839)
Health Professionals	37.8%	37.9%	43.3%	17.9% ^{ab}	6.0 (0.05)	35.7%	40.7%	0.9 (0.344)	30.5%	38.5%	60.9% ^{cd}	7.4 (0.025)
Sport-specific supports	34.6%	36.1%	39.2%	7.1% ^{ab}	10.5 (0.005)	32.7%	37.2%	0.8 (0.378)	31.6%	35.0%	43.5%	1.2 (0.550)
Social supports	63.4%	63.0%	69.1%	46.4%	4.8 (0.09)	61.3%	66.2%	0.9 (0.352)	58.9%	65.9%	56.5%	1.9 (0.386)
Peer reviewed journals	29.7%	27.4%	32.0%	39.3%	2.0 (0.375)	32.2%	26.2%	1.4 (0.232)	21.1%	31.4%	47.8% °	7.3 (0.025)
Media	48.0%	42.5%	51.5%	78.6% ^{ab}	13.5 (0.001)	53.3%	40.7%	5.3 (0.021)	46.3%	50.4%	30.4%	3.5 (0.175)
Sales & Marketing	21.5%	21.5%	21.6%	21.4%	0.001 (1.000)	22.6%	20.0%	0.3 (0.560)	15.8%	23.0%	30.4%	3.2 (0.199)
Self- experimentation	55.8%	55.7%	57.7%	50.0%	0.5 (0.768)	57.3%	53.8%	0.4 (0.519)	49.5%	58.8%	51.2%	2.5 (0.284)

^a Significantly different from Australia/New Zealand (p < 0.05), ^b significantly different from USA/Canada (p < 0.05), ^c significantly different from Health and Fitness (p < 0.05), ^d significantly different from Competitive Age Group (p < 0.05).

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Table 3: Foods chosen for their sodium content in the days prior to competition.

	Total	Australia/ New Zealand	USA/ Canada	UK/ Ireland	Association between region and food choice χ² (p)	Male	Female	Association between sex and food choice χ^2 (p)	Health and Fitness	Competitive Age Group	Professional/ aspiring professional	Association between training level and food choice χ^2 (p)
Number of participants (n)	151	93	43	15		88	63		35	101	15	
Regular foods high in sodium	32.5%	28.0%	37.2%	46.7%	2.7 (0.261)	25.0%	42.9%	5.3 (0.021)	25.7%	36.6%	20%	2.6 (0.274)
Added salt to food and fluids	40.4%	32.3%	55.8% a	46.7% a	7.0 (0.029)	34.1%	49.2%	3.5 (0.062)	31.4%	43.6%	40.0%	1.6 (0.451)
Sports, rehydration and electrolyte drinks (ready to drink)	24.5%	20.4%	34.9%	20.0%	3.5 (0.174)	21.6%	28.6%	1.0 (0.325)	31.4%	24.8%	6.7%	3.5 (0.175)
Sports, rehydration and electrolyte drinks (made from powder)	41.1%	40.9%	48.8%	20.0%	3.8 (0.148)	48.9%	30.2%	5.3 (0.021)	31.4%	42.6%	53.3%	2.4 (0.306)
Sports, rehydration and electrolyte drinks (dissolvable tablets)	37.7%	36.6%	37.2%	46.7%	0.6 (0.752)	34.1%	42.9%	1.2 (0.273)	37.1%	34.7%	60.0%	3.6 (0.167)
Salt or electrolyte tablets or capsules	28.5%	28.0%	34.9%	13.3%	2.6 (0.277)	30.7%	25.4%	0.5 (0.478)	28.6%	26.7%	40.0%	1.1 (0.569)

^a Significantly different from Australia/New Zealand (p < 0.05), ^b significantly different from USA/Canada (p < 0.05), ^c significantly different from Health and Fitness (p < 0.05), ^d significantly different from Competitive Age Group (p < 0.05).

Table 4: Foods chosen for their sodium content during competition.

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	Total	Australia/ New Zealand	USA/ Canada	UK/ Ireland	Association between region and food choice χ² (p)	Male	Female	Association between sex and food choice χ^2 (p)	Health and Fitness	Competitive Age Group	Professional/ aspiring professional	Association between training level and food choice χ^2 (p)
Number of participants (n)	344	219	97	28		199	145		95	226	23	
Sports Drinks	57.8%	55.3%	67.0%	46.4%	5.3 (0.070)	57.8%	57.9%	0.001 (0.979)	60.0%	57.5%	52.2%	0.5 (0.781)
Rehydration Drinks	28.5%	33.8%	20.6% ^a	14.3% a	8.9 (0.012)	31.2%	24.8%	1.6 (0.199)	31.6%	27.4%	26.1%	0.6 (0.728)
Electrolyte capsules and tablets	50.9%	50.7%	51.5%	50.0%	0.02 (0.988)	50.3%	51.7%	0.07 (0.787)	48.4%	52.2%	47.8%	0.5 (0.788)
Energy Gels	67.7%	68.5%	69.1%	57.1%	1.6 (0.461)	67.8%	67.6%	0.002 (0.960)	62.1%	69.5%	73.9%	2.1 (0.352)
Energy bars/chews/foods	41.9%	42.0%	44.3%	32.1%	1.3 (0.515)	47.2%	34.5%	5.6 (0.018)	46.3%	40.3%	39.1%	1.1 (0.582)
Vegemite	8.4%	12.8%	0.0% ^a	3.6% a	15.2 (< 0.001)	6.0%	11.7%	3.5 (0.061)	14.7%	6.2% ^c	4.3%	6.9 (0.032)
Homemade, savoury snacks & coconut water	12.8%	13.7%	11.3%	10.7%	0.5 (0.789)	12.1%	13.8%	0.3 (0.635)	15.8%	11.9%	8.7%	1.3 (0.534)

^a Significantly different from Australia/New Zealand (p < 0.05), ^b significantly different from USA/Canada (p < 0.05), ^c significantly different from Health and Fitness (p < 0.05), ^d significantly different from Competitive Age Group (p < 0.05).

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Figure 1. Level of agreement of endurance athletes regarding aspects of sodium intake and sweat
sodium measurement for training and competition. Level of agreement is scored on a Visual Analogue
Scale (VAS), where 50% indicates neither agreement nor disagreement with the stated effect.
Figure 2. Level of agreement of endurance athletes regarding the effect of sodium intake during
endurance exercise on aspects of physiological function and health outcomes. Level of agreement is

scored on a Visual Analogue Scale (VAS), where 50% indicates neither agreement nor disagreement

with the stated effect. EAMC: exercise-associated muscle cramps, EAH: exercise-associated

hyponatraemia, BMC: bone mineral content.

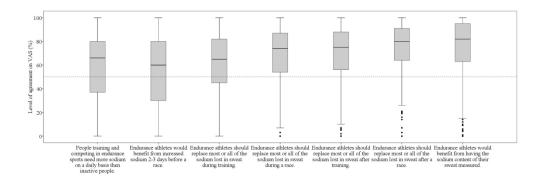


Figure 1. Level of agreement of endurance athletes regarding aspects of sodium intake and sweat sodium measurement for training and competition. Level of agreement is scored on a Visual Analogue Scale (VAS), where 50% indicates neither agreement nor disagreement with the stated effect.

893x317mm (72 x 72 DPI)

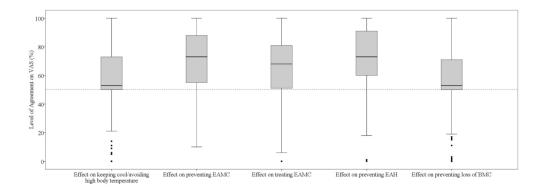


Figure 2. Level of agreement of endurance athletes regarding the effect of sodium intake during endurance exercise on aspects of physiological function and health outcomes. Level of agreement is scored on a Visual Analogue Scale (VAS), where 50% indicates neither agreement nor disagreement with the stated effect. EAMC: exercise-associated muscle cramps, EAH: exercise-associated hyponatraemia, BMC: bone mineral content.

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1	Supplementary Appendix – Endurance Athlete Questionnaire
2	
3	Demographics
4	Q1 What is your sex? Male Female
5	
6	Q2 What is your age in years?
7	
8	Q3 Which sport/sports do you currently train and compete in?
9	
10	Q4 For how many years have you been competing in endurance sports?
11	
12	Q5 How would you best describe yourself and your level of training?
13	☐ Professional athlete, training regularly
14	☐ Aspiring professional athlete, training regularly
15	☐ Actively competitive age group athlete, training regularly
16	☐ Interest in general health and fitness, training regularly
17	☐ Interest in general health and fitness, training sometimes
18	
19	Sodium Information Sources
20	Q26 From the following list, please select any individual(s) or information sources that have
21	influenced whether you choose/do not choose to consume a certain amount of sodium or sodium-
22	containing products relating to your endurance training or competition (please tick all responses that
23	apply to you – more than one answer is allowed).

24		I've neve	er consider	red the use of	fsod	lium with sport					
25		Doctor/P	hysician			Pharmacist] Dietitian	or Nutritio	nist	
26		Coach				Trainer] Manager			
27		Parent				Relative		☐ Fellow at	hlete		
28		Friend				Health food sto	ore atte	ndant			
29		TV/radio				Journal Article	S				
30		Food &/o	or supplen	nent company	y ad	vertising					
31		Magazino	es			Internet		☐ Self resea	arched/expe	erimented	
32		Other _									
33											
34											
35	Sodiu	m Beliefs									
36	Please	click and	drag the s	liders to indi	cate	how much you	agree 1	with each of	the followi	ing	
37	statem	ents:									
	ongly agree					Neither agree nor disagree					Strongly agree
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
38	O6 Pe	onle trainir	ng and cor	nneting in en	dur	ance sports need	to eat	more salt/so	odium/elect	rolytes on	a
39			_			re not exercising		or Sand So		. 51, 10 5 011	
~ =	, ••			Laskie W	•		<i>j</i> -				

41	Q7 Endurance sport competitors would benefit from increasing the amount of salt/sodium they
42	consume in the 2-3 days before a race.
43	
44	Q8 During training, endurance athletes should aim to replace most or all of the salt/sodium lost in
45	sweat.
46	
47	Q9 During a race, endurance athletes should aim to replace most or all of the salt/sodium lost in
48	sweat.
49	
50	Q10 After training, endurance athletes should aim to replace most or all of the salt/sodium lost in
51	sweat.
52	
53	Q12 After a race, endurance athletes should aim to replace most or all of the salt/sodium lost in sweat.
54	
55	Q13 Endurance athletes would benefit from having the amount of sodium measured in their sweat.
56	
57	If you were to specifically increase the amount of salt/sodium you consume on a day-to-day basis in
58	training (compare to a period of time when you are not training), what effect do YOU THINK it would
59	have on the following aspects of exercise performance? Click and drag the sliders to indicate your
60	response:
61	
62	
63	

67

69

71

73

75

77

79

Strong negative effect					No effect					Strong positive effect
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
_										_

- Q14 Endurance during exercise of more than 1 hour
- Q15 Speed in exercise of more than 1 hour
- Q16 Power in exercise of more than 1 hour
- 70 Q17 Concentration/alertness
- 72 Q18 Keeping cool or avoiding high body temperature
- 74 Q19 Preventing muscle cramping during exercise
- 76 Q20 Reducing the severity of muscle cramping once it has started
- 78 Q21 Preventing hyponatraemia (low blood sodium) during exercise
- 80 Q22 Preventing loss of bone minerals during exercise

82	Intended Practices
83	The following questions are about your use of sodium in the days and hours leading up to an
84	endurance race or competition. If you do not consciously focus on the amount of sodium in the days
85	or hours before competition, answer no to the first question and skip ahead to the next section.
86	
87	Q27 In the days leading up to a race (that will have a duration of more than 2 hours), would you be
88	aware of consuming a certain amount of salt/sodium from food, fluids or supplements?
89	□ Yes □ No
90	☐ Sometimes (please provide comments)
91	
92	Q28 Would you plan to eat more, less or the same amount of salt/sodium in the days leading up to a
93	race compared to day-to-day when you are training?
94	☐ I would plan to consume MORE sodium in the days before a race compared to when I'm training
95	☐ I would plan to consume LESS sodium in the days before a race compared to when I'm training
96	☐ I would plan to consume THE SAME AMOUNT of sodium in the days before a race compared to
97	when I'm training
98	
99	Q29 How long before a race (that will have a duration of more than 2 hours) would you be aware of
100	consuming a certain amount of sodium from food, fluids or supplements (answer can be in hours,
101	days or weeks)?
102	
103	

104	Q30 What foods, drinks or supplements do you plan to consume to increase the amount of salt/sodium
105	in the lead up to a race? (can choose more than one)
106	☐ Eat more regular foods that are higher in salt/sodium
107	☐ Adding salt (table salt, sea salt, rock salt, etc.) to food/drinks
108	☐ Sports, rehydration or other electrolyte drinks (bottled)
109	☐ Sports, rehydration or other electrolyte drinks (made from powder)
110	☐ Sports, rehydration or other electrolyte drinks (dissolvable tablets)
111	☐ Salt/electrolyte capsules or tablets
112	☐ Other – please specify:
113	
114	Q31 Regardless of sodium, would the overall amount of food you plan to eat change in the days
115	leading in to an endurance race or competition, compared to your day-to-day diet in training?
116	☐ I would eat MORE food overall
117	☐ I would eat LESS food overall
118	☐ I would eat about THE SAME amount of food overall
119	
120	This section relates to your consumption of sodium/salt DURING competition
121	
122	Q32 DURING a race (that will have a duration of more than 2 hours), would you be aware of
123	consuming sodium from food, fluids or supplements?

124	☐ Yes ☐ No	
125	☐ Sometimes (please provide comments)	_
126		
127	Q33 How much sodium would you aim to take (can answer in milligrams (mg) OR am	ounts of certain
128	foods and drinks OR based on a percentage of expected losses)?	
129	☐ Specify amount here)R
130	☐ I'm not sure	
131		
132	Q34 Please tick all of the sodium-containing products you are planning to consume im	mediately
133	before and during your next race/event	
134	☐ The sports drink provided by the race organisers	
135	☐ The gels provided by the race organisers	
136	☐ The energy bars/chews provided by the race organisers	
137	☐ My own sports drink (sold as a sports product, not a rehydration product)	
138	☐ My own rehydration drink (sold as a rehydration formula, not a sports product)	
139	☐ My own dissolvable electrolyte tablets	
140	☐ Salt or electrolyte tablets/capsules	
141	☐ My own homemade drink formula (please provide details if possible)	
142	☐ Energy gels I purchased myself	
143	☐ Energy bars/chews I purchased myself	

144	☐ Coconut water (plain or flavoured)
145	☐ Vegemite sandwich
146	☐ Other
147	
148	Commercial Sweat Testing Experiences
149	Q35 Have you PREVIOUSLY had your sweat tested to measure the amount of
150	salt/sodium/electrolytes in it (not including research studies)?
151	□ Yes □ No
152	
153	Q36 If yes, what was your main goal or motivation for having your sweat tested (can choose more
154	than 1 answer)?
155	☐ To improve my performance in training and/or competition
156	☐ To reduce the risk of muscle cramping during training and/or competition
157	☐ To reduce the risk of hyponatraemia during training and/or competition
158	☐ Other:
159	
160	Q37 Do you feel that the results of your sweat test allowed you to better reach the goal/s stated in
161	question 24 (above)?
162	□ Yes □ No □ Not Sure