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1 **Fluid, Energy and Nutrient Recovery via *Ad Libitum* Intake of Different**
2 **Commercial Beverages and Food in Female Athletes**

3

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14 **Abstract:**

15 **Purpose:** This study investigated the effect of consuming different commercial beverages with food *ad libitum* post-
16 exercise on fluid, energy and nutrient recovery in trained females. **Methods:** On 4 separate occasions, 8 females
17 (body mass [BM]: 61.8±10.7 kg; VO_{2max}: 46.3±7.5 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) lost 2.0±0.3% BM cycling at ~75%VO_{2max} before
18 completing a 4 h recovery period with *ad libitum* access to one of 4 beverages: Water, Powerade[®] (Sports Drink),
19 Up & Go Reduced Sugar[™] (Lower Sugar [LS]-MILK) or Up & Go Energize[™] (Higher Protein [HP]-MILK).
20 Participants also had 2×15 min opportunities to access food within the first 2 h of the recovery period. Beverage
21 intake; total water/nutrient intake; and indicators of fluid recovery (BM, urine output, plasma osmolality [P_{OSM}]),
22 gastrointestinal (GI) tolerance and palatability were assessed periodically. **Results:** While total water intake (from
23 food *and* beverage) (Water: 1918±580g; Sports Drink: 1809±338g; LS-MILK: 1458±431g; HP-MILK: 1523±472g;
24 *p*=0.010) and total urine output (Water: 566±314g; Sports Drink: 459±290g; LS-MILK: 220±53g; HP-MILK:
25 230±117g; *p*=0.009) differed significantly by beverage, the quantity of ingested water retained was similar across
26 treatments (Water: 1352±462g; Sports Drink: 1349±407g; LS-MILK: 1238±400g; HP-MILK: 1293±453g;
27 *p*=0.691). Total energy intake (from food *and* beverage) increased in proportion to the energy density of the
28 beverage (Water: 4129±1080kJ; Sports Drink: 5167±643kJ; LS-MILK: 6019±1925kJ; HP-MILK: 7096±2058kJ;
29 *p*=0.014). **Conclusion:** When consumed voluntarily and with food, different beverages promote similar levels of
30 fluid recovery, but alter energy/nutrient intakes. Providing access to food and understanding the longer-term dietary
31 goals of female athletes are important considerations when recommending a recovery beverage.

32

33 **Key words:** Exercise Nutrition; Exercise Recovery; Hydration; Female Athlete; Eating Behavior

34 1.0. Introduction

35 Athletes regularly complete competitive events and training sessions that result in substantial sweat loss
36 (O'Neal et al. 2012). Typically, the quantity of fluid consumed during exercise is inadequate to replace these losses
37 (Garth and Burke 2013). Hence, individuals often finish activity in a state of body water deficit (dehydration).
38 Exercise may also be accompanied by the depletion of endogenous substrate stores and damage to skeletal muscle
39 tissue (Moore 2015). Nutritional strategies that maximize recovery ahead of a subsequent exercise session are,
40 therefore, important. Given the frequency with which athletes train, acute recovery strategies also have the potential
41 to influence chronic nutrient/exercise interactions (e.g. metabolic adaptation and body composition changes). Hence,
42 nutritional recovery recommendations should align with an athlete's broader dietary goals.

43 Nutrient recommendations designed to optimize recovery after exercise have been published by the American
44 College of Sports Medicine and the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (Sawka et al. 2007; Thomas et al. 2016).
45 These recommendations encourage individuals to ingest fluid (i.e. 1.25–1.50 L·kg BM lost⁻¹) to restore euhydration
46 and consume carbohydrate (CHO) and protein to promote glycogen and muscle protein synthesis. Recent meta-
47 analyses also highlight the importance of fluid and CHO intake between consecutive exercise sessions to enhance
48 performance on the subsequent task (McCartney et al. 2017; McCartney et al. 2018). Given their ability to deliver
49 both fluid *and* nutrients, beverages have received considerable scientific attention in regard to their influence on
50 recovery.

51 Most studies investigating the effect of beverage type and composition on fluid recovery following exercise
52 have employed “prescribed” drinking protocols, where participants consume a fixed quantity of fluid at a
53 predetermined rate. Findings generally indicate that beverages with complex nutritional profiles (i.e. milk/milk-
54 based formulations) are more effective rehydration agents than beverages with basic nutritional profiles (i.e. water
55 and sports beverages) (Shirreffs et al. 2007b; Watson et al. 2008; Desbrow et al. 2014; Seery and Jakeman 2016). In
56 addition to fluid, these beverages also typically provide additional CHO and protein, making them ideal candidates
57 to aid post-exercise recovery. However, other factors such as thirst, palatability and gastrointestinal (GI) tolerance,
58 which are likely to influence the volume of fluid consumed in practice, are overlooked in studies where fluid intake
59 is prescribed. A small body of research investigating *ad libitum* fluid consumption behavior suggests that individuals
60 may consume different fluids in different quantities post-exercise (Nose et al. 1988; Wemple et al. 1997; Evans et al.
61 2009a; Park et al. 2012; Baguley et al. 2016), influencing their effectiveness as a recovery option. In addition to

62 “prescribing” drinking, many studies also deny participants access to food: an approach with limited ecological
63 validity. Findings from studies that have allowed participants to eat as part of the experimental protocol generally
64 suggest that co-ingesting food and fluid improves rehydration, such that the magnitude of difference between
65 beverages with different nutrient profiles (i.e. in terms of their potential to rehydrate) is attenuated (Maughan et al.
66 1996; Brouns et al. 1998; Ray et al. 1998; Jones et al. 2010; Pryor et al. 2015; Campagnolo et al. 2017; Evans et al.
67 2017). Still, most studies have prescribed a small number of food items that may not reflect the participants’ usual
68 dietary behavior.

69 To date, one only study (Campagnolo et al. 2017) has investigated the ability of different beverages to
70 rehydrate participants when the drink *and* a variety of foods are consumed *ad libitum* post-exercise. The study,
71 which involved 10 endurance-trained males, demonstrated that fluid recovery was *similar*, regardless of the type of
72 beverage consumed. This suggests that, with the co-ingestion of food, fluid restoration following exercise may not
73 be influenced by beverage choice. The type of beverage did, however, affect nutrient intake during the post-exercise
74 period. Specifically, the provision of a sports beverage or a milk-based formulation increased total (i.e. food *and*
75 beverage) energy (~2500 kJ) and CHO (~200 g) intake compared to water; the milk-based formulation also
76 increased total protein consumption (~70 g) compared to the other beverages. Hence, the choice of post-exercise
77 beverage may affect aspects of recovery and the suitability of certain beverages for athletes with specific dietary
78 goals. Different energy and nutrient requirements, dietary preferences and motives influencing food choice have the
79 potential to limit the generalizability of previous results. Indeed, it is currently unclear if these effects persist in
80 trained females, who may exhibit contrasting dietary behaviors (Leblanc et al. 2015). Furthermore, it remains
81 unclear how beverages with similar sensory characteristics (i.e. taste, aroma, appearance) but with contrasting
82 nutrient profiles affect fluid, energy and nutrient recovery following acute exercise, when consumed *ad libitum* and
83 when access to food is provided.

84
85 This study aimed to investigate the effect of consuming different commercial beverages (including milk-
86 based beverages with contrasting formulations) with food *ad libitum* post-exercise on fluid, energy and nutrient
87 recovery in active female subjects. We hypothesized that, when consumed voluntarily and with food, these
88 beverages would result in similar levels of fluid recovery, but different energy/nutrient intakes.

89

90 2.0 Materials and Methods

91 2.1 Participant Characteristics

92 Female cyclists/triathletes (≥ 3 h cycling \cdot week $^{-1}$) aged 18–45 y were eligible to participate in this
93 investigation. Sample size was determined using power calculation software (G*Power Version 3.1.9.2, University
94 Kiel Germany, 2014). A comparable study of male cyclists (Campagnolo et al. 2017) detected a significant effect of
95 rehydration beverage (Water vs. Sustagen Sport[®] vs. Powerade[®]) on energy intake ($\eta_p^2=0.62$). Using a power (1- β)
96 of 0.95 and $\alpha=0.05$ with an equivalent effect, we predicted that 8 subjects would be required to detect a significant
97 change. Ten participants were recruited to account for attrition. One participant withdrew after the familiarization
98 because trials conflicted with her training schedule; a second individual withdrew after the first experimental trial
99 due to poor availability. The 8 remaining participants (age: 33.2 \pm 7.4 y; VO_{2 max}: 46.3 \pm 7.5 mL \cdot kg $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$; PPO:
100 244 \pm 32 W; cycling: 115 \pm 60 km \cdot week $^{-1}$; Mean \pm SD) completed all 4 experimental trials. This investigation was
101 approved by the University's Human Ethics Committee (GU 2017/730) and procedures were conducted in
102 accordance with principles outlined in the agreement of Helsinki.

103

104 2.2 Study Design

105 The experimental procedures are summarized in Figure 1. Each participant attended the laboratory on 6
106 separate occasions to complete one preliminary screening visit, one familiarization, and 4 repeated-measures
107 experimental trials (≥ 5 d apart). Trials were counterbalanced for order using an incomplete Latin square design and
108 scheduled during the first 14 days of the menstrual cycle (follicular phase) to minimize the confounding influence of
109 hormonal changes on appetite and substrate utilization (Dye and Blundell 1997; Zderic et al. 2001). Participants
110 using hormonal contraceptives at the time of the investigation ($n=3$) completed testing whilst administering the
111 active medication. Each experimental trial involved exercise-induced dehydration followed by a 4 h recovery period,
112 with *ad libitum* access to one of 4 commercial beverages: (1) Water, (2) Powerade[®] Isotonic (Coca Cola Ltd.)
113 (Sports Drink), (3) Up & Go Reduced Sugar^s (Sanitarium[®], Australia) (Reduced Sugar [RS]-MILK), and (4) Up &
114 Go EnergizeTM (Sanitarium[®], Australia) (Higher Protein [HP]-MILK). Drinking was permitted throughout the 4 h
115 recovery period. Participants also had 15 min to access food at the end of the 1st and 2nd hour. Individuals were
116 unaware that their food intake was being monitored. They were instead told that the purpose of the study was to
117 investigate the influence of different beverages on recovery of cognitive function (sham questions and cognitive

118 function tasks were administered throughout the trials to maintain this deception). Each participant was fully
119 informed of the purpose of the study (and given the opportunity to withdraw their data) once data collection
120 activities for the entire study were complete.

121

122 **2.3 Eligibility and Participant Screening**

123 On arrival at the initial visit, individuals completed a medical questionnaire and the Eating Attitudes Test-26
124 (Garner 1982) (Part C only, to deemphasize the importance of dietary behavior to this study). Those with a history
125 of cardiovascular, metabolic and/or kidney disease, or currently taking medications known to influence substrate
126 metabolism were ineligible to participate. Individuals were also excluded if their responses indicated probable
127 disordered eating, as were volunteers who reported an allergy, intolerance or dislike towards the food items or test
128 beverages used in the investigation. Next, a self-reported body mass (BM) history (~6 m) was collected and
129 anthropometric measurements were obtained using digital scales (HW-PW200; A&D Company Ltd, Tokyo, Japan)
130 and a stadiometer. Participants had to be weight stable (BM change $\leq 5\%$ in 1 m or $\leq 10\%$ in 6 m) and not followed
131 an energy-restricted diet during the previous 6 m. Once eligibility was verified, participant's drink flavor preferences
132 were recorded and they were trained by a qualified dietitian on how to keep a 24 h diet record. Finally, participants
133 completed a graded exercise test on an electronically braked cycle ergometer (Lode Excalibur Sport; Lode BV,
134 Groningen, Netherlands) for determination of VO_{2max} . The exercise protocol began at 50 W, and increased in 30 W
135 increments every 2.5 min until volitional exhaustion. Participants' respiratory gases were sampled continuously by
136 breathing into a calibrated gas analysis system (Medgraphic Ultima, MGC Diagnostics and Medisoft, USA). Peak
137 sustainable power output (PPO) was also calculated (Jeukendrup et al. 1997) and used to establish the exercise
138 intensity on subsequent trials.

139

140 **2.4 Familiarization**

141 Participants completed a full familiarization trial which employed a chocolate-flavored milk beverage
142 (different from those used in the experimental trials) as the recovery fluid. This allowed individuals to become
143 accustomed to the research protocol and the effects of consuming milk-products post-exercise.

144

145 **2.5 Pre-Trial Procedures**

146 Prior to each trial, participants were instructed to: (1) abstain from alcohol for 24 h; (2) avoid caffeine-
147 containing products and moderate-strenuous exercise for 12 h; (3) keep a written record of the food/fluid consumed
148 for 24 h; (4) consume a standardized pre-packaged evening meal ($\sim 60 \text{ kJ}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) (Campagnolo et al. 2017); and, (5)
149 fast from all food/fluid (including water) for ~ 10 h (overnight). Food records were submitted to an investigator and
150 analyzed (FoodWorks[®] Version 8, Xyris Software Pty Ltd, Spring Hill, Australia) by one dietitian using the relevant
151 national food database. Following the initial trial, a copy of the food record was returned to the participant to assist
152 in the replication of the pre-trial dietary intake.

153

154 **2.6 Experimental Procedures**

155 **2.6.1 Pre-Exercise Period**

156 Participants verbally acknowledged compliance to the pre-trial procedures and self-reported the onset of
157 menstruation on arrival at the laboratory (~ 7 AM). A urine sample was collected to monitor hydration status (Urine
158 Specific Gravity (U_{SG}) (Palette Digital Refractometer, ATAGO, USA). One participant had a pre-exercise U_{SG}
159 ≥ 1.024 on the familiarization trial, indicating some level of dehydration (Armstrong et al. 2010). This individual was
160 administered water (600 mL) and, when reassessed 30 min later, U_{SG} was < 1.024 . This practice was repeated on all
161 subsequent trials to ensure consistency. All remaining subjects produced initial U_{SG} samples < 1.024 at each
162 attendance. Euhydrated participants rested in the supine position for 15 min prior to respiratory gases (VO_2 and
163 VCO_2) (Medgraphic Ultima, MGC Diagnostic Corporation, USA) being measured continuously for 10 min to
164 determine baseline metabolic rate. Following the respiratory measures, participants provided a blood sample, and
165 completed the cognitive function test and subjective feelings questionnaire (Adaptive Visual Analogue Scale
166 (AVAS); Marsh-Richard et al. (2009)). Individuals then voided their bladder completely and a pre-exercise nude
167 BM measurement was obtained.

168

169 **2.6.2 Dehydration and Exercise Protocol**

170 Dehydration was induced via passive heat exposure (10 min, $\sim 70^\circ\text{C}$, sauna) followed immediately by
171 exercise on a cycle ergometer. Exercise commenced at a workload of 60% PPO ($24.2 \pm 0.9^\circ\text{C}$; $66 \pm 11\%$ RH).
172 However, subjects who expressed likely volitional exhaustion prior to achieving the required BM loss (1.8%) could
173 choose to reduce the workload by 5% PPO after 20 and 40 min of exercise (the minimum allowable workload was

174 50% PPO). Heart rate (HR) and ratings of perceived exertion (RPE) on the Borg scale (Borg 1998) were collected at
175 10 min intervals throughout exercise. Respiratory gases (VO_2 and VCO_2) were measured continuously between ~12-
176 20 min, ~32-40 min and ~52-60 min of exercise for determination of energy expended during exercise. Nude BM
177 was measured after 60 min of cycling. If BM loss was $<1.8\%$ from baseline, participants were required to continue
178 exercise in 10 min intervals (respiratory gasses were collected across the final 5 min of each additional 10 min
179 block). Once a BM loss $\geq 1.8\%$ was achieved, exercise ceased. The duration and intensity of the exercise was
180 documented during the familiarization and replicated on all subsequent trials. Participants repeated the cognitive
181 function test and responded to the subjective feelings questionnaire immediately after exercise. Individuals then
182 rested in a supine position and a blood sample was drawn. After resting ~15 min, respiratory gases were collected
183 continuously for a final 10 min. Individuals then showered and dried themselves before a final nude BM
184 measurement was obtained. The change in BM due to fluid loss was calculated by subtracting the final post-exercise
185 BM from the pre-exercise BM.

186

187 **2.6.3 Nutrition Recovery Period**

188 Participants completed a 4 h recovery period in an observation room adjacent to the exercise laboratory,
189 where they were allowed to undertake sedentary activities. Participants were given immediate access to one of 4
190 commercial beverages (Water, Sports Drink [Energy: $103 \text{ kJ}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; CHO: $5.8 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; Sodium: $28 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$; Water: 95.0
191 $\text{g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$], LS-MILK [Energy: $279 \text{ kJ}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; CHO: $8.9 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; Protein: $3.4 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; Fat: $1.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; Sodium: $65 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$;
192 Water: $84.4 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$], or HP-MILK [Energy: $344 \text{ kJ}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; CHO: $9.9 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; Protein: $6.7 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$; Fat: $1.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$;
193 Sodium: $100 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$; Water: $84.4 \text{ g}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$]) in excess of expected consumption ($\sim 3.0 \text{ L}$). They were told that the two
194 milk-drinks were *different*, but no further product information was provided. (Participants were not permitted to
195 change flavors between milk trials). All beverages were stored in refrigerators ($\sim 4^\circ\text{C}$) in opaque jugs. Participants
196 were instructed to “*self-serve*” into cups and to “*drink as much as they liked*”, as additional fluid would be provided
197 upon request. The beverage vessels did not have volume increments. Palatability was evaluated at the onset of
198 drinking and at the conclusion of the recovery period.

199 After 1 h, participants completed the subjective feelings questionnaire, collected urine output, provided a
200 blood sample, and measured nude BM. They were then given access to a variety of foods for 15 min. Participants
201 entered a private room containing food and a computer (set up for the cognitive function task). They were allowed to

202 bring their beverage, but were asked to refrain from taking other external items. This approach was designed to
203 avoid social interactions which may influence eating behaviors and to reinforce the importance of the cognitive task.
204 Food items included sports bars, fresh fruit, breads and condiments (Supplementary Table S1) with participants
205 being instructed to “*eat as much as they liked*” and that “*more of the same food would be provided in 1 h but no*
206 *food could be removed from the private room due to health and safety regulations*”. Participants were also informed
207 that no food would be provided in the 3rd and 4th hour of recovery. In the final 2 min, participants completed the
208 cognitive function test and then returned to the main observation room. These procedures (excluding blood
209 sampling) were repeated at the end of the 2nd hour of the recovery period. At the end of the 3rd and 4th hour,
210 participants completed the cognitive function test and subjective feelings questionnaire, collected urine output and
211 measured nude BM. Blood sampling was also performed at the end of the 4th hour.

212

213 **2.7 Post-Trial Procedures**

214 On leaving the laboratory, participants were required to keep a record of the food/fluid they consumed over
215 the remainder of the day, and to capture images of each item using a tablet device (iPad, Apple[®], Cupertino, USA).
216 Participants were encouraged to include a fiducial marker in each image, to assist the investigator in the estimation
217 of portion size. Food records and accompanying images were submitted to an investigator and checked for
218 completeness. Diet records were analyzed using the method previously described. A limit of up to two standard
219 alcoholic drinks (20 g alcohol) was imposed on trial days to avoid alcohol’s influence on appetitive responses
220 (Poppitt 1996).

221

222 **2.8 Study Completion Procedures**

223 At the conclusion of the experiment, participants were asked what they believed the true purpose of the
224 investigation was, and, how confident they were that their answer was correct to verify that deception was effective.
225 Individuals also completed the R18 Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire (de Lauzon et al. 2004) to measure
226 influencers of eating behavior.

227

228 **2.9 Data Collection**

229 **2.9.1 Food and Fluid Intake Measures**

230 Energy, macronutrient, sodium and water intake during the recovery period was determined by weighing the
231 food (covertly) and beverages to the nearest 1 g after each hour. Participants were aware that beverage intake was
232 being monitored, but no information was provided to participants on how much fluid they consumed. Nutritional
233 values for packaged foods were taken from the product nutrition information panel; values for fresh food items and
234 product water content were derived from the dietary analysis software.

235

236 **2.9.2 Estimated Energy Expenditure**

237 Gas exchange data was averaged in 30 s segments over the final ~8 min of each collection period. Estimated
238 energy expenditure (eEE) was then quantified in the following increments: pre-exercise (-20–0 min), exercise blocks
239 1 (0–20 min), 2 (20–40 min) and 3 (40–60 min), post-exercise (60–80 min), and total trial (100 min). (Where
240 participants continued exercise in 10 min intervals after 60 min, eEE was also quantified at exercise block 4 (60–70
241 min), such that the total trial time increased to 110 min). Rates and total substrate oxidation were calculated using
242 the equations of Frayn (1983) (assuming negligible protein oxidation). Energy equivalents of 16.75 kJ·g⁻¹ of CHO
243 and 37.68 kJ·g⁻¹ of fat were utilized to calculate eEE from substrate oxidation (Schubert et al. 2014).

244

245 **2.9.3 Urine Sampling and Water Retention**

246 At the end of each hour of the recovery period, participants voided their bladder completely into an empty
247 container for measures of hourly urine output and hourly U_{SG} . Participants were permitted to urinate throughout the
248 observation period, and on each occasion, the void was collected and added to the hourly urine output. Total urine
249 loss was calculated as the accumulated urine output from the onset of drinking until the end of the observation
250 period. The proportion of ingested water retained at the end of the 4 h recovery period was calculated as total water
251 intake (i.e. food and beverage) minus total urine output and converted to a percentage of total water intake.

252

253 **2.9.4 Body Mass (BM) Measurements**

254 Nude BM measures were obtained pre- and ~30 min post-exercise (i.e. after sweating had ceased) and at the
255 end of each hour of the recovery period. All BM measurements were adjusted to account for the non-water mass of
256 the food and beverages consumed.

257

258 **2.9.5 Subjective Feelings and Beverage Palatability Questionnaires**

259 Visual analogue scales (VAS) were used to measure subjective feelings of hunger, thirst and fullness pre- and
260 post-exercise and at each hour of the recovery period. To distract participants from the primary outcomes of the
261 study, individuals were also required to indicate feelings of alertness, concentration, muscle soreness and energy
262 levels. VAS were also used to assess palatability ('pleasantness') at the onset of drinking and at the conclusion of
263 the recovery period. Beverages were subsequently ranked from most to least palatable (1st – 4th) (based on individual
264 participants' preferences) using the average pre/post-recovery palatability rating. All measures were conducted on a
265 100 mm scale, with 0 mm representing 'not at all' and 100 mm representing 'extremely' using a computerized
266 modifiable software program (AVAS; Marsh-Richard et al. (2009)).

267

268 **2.9.6 Blood Sampling**

269 Participants rested for ~5 min in a supine position prior to a 5 mL blood sample being drawn from an
270 antecubital vein. Blood samples were obtained pre-exercise, post-exercise and at the end of the 1st and 4th hour of the
271 recovery period. All samples were collected into pre-treated lithium heparin vacutainers (Becton Dickson
272 vacutainers[®]) and centrifuged for 10 min (~1350×g). Aliquots of plasma supernatant were stored (-80°C) and later
273 analyzed in duplicate for plasma osmolality (P_{OSM}) using a calibrated, freezing-point depression osmometer
274 (Osmomat 030, Gonotec).

275

276 **2.10 Statistical Analysis**

277 Statistical analyses were completed using SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 21.0 (IBM Corp. 2012,
278 Armonk, N.Y., USA). All measures were examined for normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and sphericity (Mauchly's
279 test). Where assumptions of sphericity in repeated measures analyses were violated, the Greenhouse-Geisser statistic
280 was applied. Comparisons between experimental trials for baseline measures (BM, U_{SG}, and P_{OSM}); exercise-induced
281 fluid loss; eEE; previous-day energy and water intake; beverage intake; water intake from beverage (WI_{Beverage}), food
282 (WI_{Food}) and beverage plus food (WI_{Total}); energy intake from beverage (EI_{Beverage}), food (EI_{Food}) and beverage plus
283 food (EI_{Total}); nutrient intake; urine output; and water retention were performed using one-way repeated measures
284 analysis of variance (ANOVA). The remaining variables were examined using a two-way (Treatment × Time)
285 repeated-measures ANOVA. Pairwise comparisons were performed where significant main effects were present

286 (Bonferroni). One-way ANOVA (Bonferroni) were used to conduct post hoc comparisons where significant
287 interaction effects were present. Each of the 18 items on the Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire was given a score
288 between 1 and 4 and item scores were summated into raw scores for cognitive restraint, uncontrolled eating, and
289 emotional eating. Raw scale scores were then transformed to a 0–100 scale [((raw score – lowest possible raw
290 score)/possible raw score range) × 100]. Higher scores in the respective scales are indicative of greater cognitive
291 restraint, uncontrolled, or emotional eating (de Lauzon et al. 2004). Effect sizes are reported as partial eta squared
292 (η_p^2). Significant differences were accepted as $p < 0.05$. Data are Mean±SD, unless otherwise indicated.

293

294 **3.0 Results**

295 **3.1 Standardization Procedures**

296 All 8 participants verbally acknowledged compliance to the pre-experimental procedures on arrival at the
297 laboratory. Participants' pre-trial records indicated similar energy, $F(3,21)=1.78$, $p=0.182$; and water,
298 $F(3,21)=0.555$, $p=0.651$; intakes 24 h prior to each experimental trial (Water: 9.2 ± 1.8 MJ, 4.5 ± 0.7 L; Sports Drink:
299 8.3 ± 2.2 MJ, 4.0 ± 1.3 L; LS-MILK: 8.5 ± 2.0 MJ, 4.3 ± 0.5 L; HP-MILK: 9.0 ± 2.6 MJ, 4.3 ± 1.2 L). Pre-exercise values
300 for BM, U_{SG} and P_{OSM} were also similar across treatments (Table 1).

301

302 **3.2 Exercise-Induced Dehydration**

303 All participants successfully replicated the same exercise protocol at each experimental trial. For three
304 individuals, the total exercise duration was 70 min; the remainder cycled 60 min to achieve the target BM loss. Gas
305 exchange data indicate that participants exercised at an intensity corresponding to $76 \pm 5\%$ VO_{2max} . Neither BM loss
306 nor eEE differed significantly by treatment (Table 1) or by trial order, $F(3,21)=0.279$, $p=0.840$; $F(3,21)=0.806$,
307 $p=0.504$, respectively. 4 (Treatment) × 6 (Time) analyses of RPE and HR identified a significant main effect of time
308 on each variable, $F(1.3,9.1)=16.79$, $p=0.002$; $F(1.8,12.5)=16.0$, $p < 0.001$, respectively. A significant main effect of
309 treatment was also observed on HR, $F(3,12)=3.21$, $p=0.044$; however, pairwise comparisons did not detect any
310 differences across trials ($p > 0.05$). No main effect of treatment was observed on RPE, $F(3,21)=2.07$, $p=0.134$.

311

312 **3.3 Water Intake from Food and Beverages**

313 Water and beverage intakes are displayed in Table 2; beverage intake for individual participants is provided
 314 in Supplementary Table S2. Beverage intake did not differ significantly by treatment (Table 2) or by trial order,
 315 $F(1.8,12.3)=0.569, p=0.558$. However, WI_{Beverage} was significantly lower with LS-MILK and HP-MILK compared to
 316 Sports Drink ($p=0.040$) and Water ($p=0.022$), respectively. Whilst WI_{Total} also differed significantly across
 317 treatments, pairwise comparisons only indicated a trend for a difference in WI_{Total} between HP-MILK and Water
 318 ($p=0.080$); no other differences were observed ($p's>0.05$). A 4 (Treatment) \times 4 (Time) analysis of mean hourly
 319 WI_{Total} identified a significant main effect of time, $F(3,21)=62.4, p<0.001, \eta_p^2=0.90$; such that WI_{Total} was greater in
 320 the 1st hour of recovery (864 \pm 195 g) than all subsequent time points ($p's\leq 0.001$); WI_{Total} did not differ across the 2nd
 321 (315 \pm 42 g), 3rd (307 \pm 119 g) and 4th (191 \pm 140 g) hours of recovery ($p's>0.05$). No significant treatment \times time
 322 interaction was observed, $F(9,63)=1.66, p=0.118, \eta_p^2=0.19$.

323

324 3.4 Urine Output and Water Retention

325 Total urine output differed significantly across treatments (Water: 556 \pm 314 g; Sports Drink: 459 \pm 290 g; LS-
 326 MILK: 220 \pm 53 g; HP-MILK: 230 \pm 117 g; $F(2.0,14.3)=6.57, p=0.009, \eta_p^2=0.48$). Pairwise comparisons revealed that
 327 urine output was elevated with Water compared to HP-MILK ($p=0.048$) and tended to be elevated compared to LS-
 328 MILK ($p=0.073$); urine output was similar between all other treatments ($p's>0.05$). A 4 (Treatment) \times 4 (Time)
 329 analysis of mean hourly urine outputs (Figure 2) indicated a main effect of time, $F(3,21)=4.544, p=0.013, \eta_p^2=0.48$;
 330 such that mean urine output was greater during the 4th hour of recovery than the 1st hour ($p=0.027$); but comparable
 331 across all other time points ($p's>0.05$). No treatment \times time interaction was observed, $F(9,63)=1.25, p=0.281,$
 332 $\eta_p^2=0.15$. A 4 (Treatment) \times 4 (Time) analysis of mean hourly U_{SG} (Figure 2) values identified significant main
 333 effects of treatment, $F(3,21)=17.7, p<0.001, \eta_p^2=0.72$; and time, $F(3,21)=5.62, p=0.005, \eta_p^2=0.45$; and a significant
 334 treatment \times time interaction, $F(9,63)=5.70, p<0.001, \eta_p^2=0.45$. Post hoc comparisons revealed that Water decreased
 335 U_{SG} compared to LS-MILK and HP-MILK between the 2nd and 4th hours of recovery ($p's<0.05$); Sports Drink also
 336 decreased U_{SG} compared to LS-MILK ($p=0.031$) and HP-MILK ($p=0.032$) during the 3rd hour of recovery, and
 337 tended to decrease U_{SG} compared to LS-MILK ($p=0.084$) and HP-MILK ($p=0.054$) during the 3rd hour of recovery,
 338 although this was not at a level of statistical significance. The proportion (%) of WI_{Total} retained differed
 339 significantly across treatments (Water: 70.2 \pm 13.6%; Sports Drink: 74.2 \pm 18.1%; LS-MILK: 84.1 \pm 83.7%; HP-MILK:
 340 83.7 \pm 9.5%; $F(3,21)=5.09, p=0.008, \eta_p^2=0.42$). Pairwise comparisons revealed that water retention increased with

341 LS-MILK compared to Water ($p=0.043$), but similar across all other treatments ($p's>0.05$). The overall quantity (g)
 342 of WI_{Total} retained at the conclusion of the experimental protocol did not differ significantly by treatment (Water:
 343 1352 ± 462 g; Sports Drink: 1349 ± 407 g; LS-MILK: 1238 ± 400 g; HP-MILK: 1293 ± 453 g; $F(3,21)=0.493$, $p=0.691$,
 344 $\eta_p^2=0.07$)

345

346 3.5 Body Mass Changes

347 Net BM changes are displayed in Figure 3. All trials concluded with participants in a state of negative net
 348 BM relative to pre-exercise values (Water: -91 ± 430 g; SD: -93 ± 470 g; LS-MILK: -260 ± 450 g; HP-MILK: -179 ± 419
 349 g). A 4 (Treatment) \times 6 (Time) analysis of BM changes identified a significant main effect of time, $F(1.4,$
 350 $10.0)=51.0$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.88$; and a trend for a significant treatment \times time interaction, $F(15,105)=1.65$, $p=0.074$,
 351 $\eta_p^2=0.19$. However, post hoc comparisons failed to detect a difference between treatments at any time points
 352 ($p's>0.05$).

353

354 3.6 Plasma Osmolality

355 A 4 (Treatment) \times 4 (Time) analysis of P_{OSM} values identified significant main effects of treatment,
 356 $F(3,18)=6.41$, $p=0.004$, $\eta_p^2=0.52$; and time, $F(3,18)=46.7$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.89$; and a significant treatment \times time
 357 interaction, $F(9,54)=15.5$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.72$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that P_{OSM} increased following the
 358 exercise-dehydration protocol (287 ± 5 vs. 297 ± 5 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$, $p<0.001$). Post hoc comparisons suggested that Water
 359 elicited lower P_{OSM} values than LS-MILK ($p=0.001$) and HP-MILK ($p=0.008$) after the 1st hour of recovery; Sports
 360 Drink also reduced P_{OSM} compared to LS-MILK ($p=0.012$) at this time (Water: 287 ± 5 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$; Sports Drink:
 361 291 ± 8 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$; LS-MILK: 298 ± 7 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$; HP-MILK: 296 ± 4 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$). After the 4th hour of recovery,
 362 Water again elicited lower P_{OSM} values than LS-MILK ($p=0.013$) and HP-MILK ($p=0.004$); Sports Drink also
 363 reduced P_{OSM} compared to HP-MILK ($p=0.021$) and tended to reduce P_{OSM} compared in LS-MILK ($p=0.066$) at this
 364 time (Water: 288 ± 5 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$; Sports Drink: 288 ± 5 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$; LS-MILK: 295 ± 5 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$; HP-MILK: 299 ± 4
 365 $mOsm\cdot kg^{-1}$).

366

367 3.7 Food and Nutrient Intakes

368 Nutrient intakes during the 4 h recovery period and across the entire trial day (trial intake *plus* post-trial diet
 369 record) are displayed in Table 2; total energy consumed by individual participants is included in Supplementary
 370 Table S2. Mean energy intake (food, beverage and total) differed significantly across treatments during the 4 h
 371 recovery period. Pairwise comparisons revealed that EI_{Food} was significantly lower with HP-MILK compared to
 372 Water ($p=0.005$) and Sports Drink ($p=0.006$); EI_{Food} was also lower with LS-MILK compared to Water ($p=0.033$)
 373 and tended to suppress intake compared to Sports Drink ($p=0.086$). EI_{Food} did not differ significantly between Water
 374 and Sports Drink ($p>0.05$). Although not statistically significant, EI_{Total} tended to be increased with HP-MILK
 375 compared to Water ($p=0.071$) and Sports Drink ($p=0.085$). Total CHO and protein intakes also differed significantly
 376 across treatments during the 4 h recovery period. Pairwise comparisons revealed that Sports Drink ($p=0.004$), LS-
 377 MILK ($p=0.026$) and HP-MILK ($p=0.014$) increased total CHO intake compared to Water; CHO intake was not
 378 different between the other beverages ($p's>0.05$). LS-MILK and HP-MILK also increased total protein intake
 379 compared to Water and Sports Drink ($p's<0.05$); protein intake was also higher with HP-MILK compared to LS-
 380 MILK ($p=0.006$). Participants' post-trial intake of energy, water, CHO, fat and sodium did not differ significantly by
 381 treatment ($p's>0.05$); only dietary protein intake was influenced by the beverage consumed post-exercise. Pairwise
 382 comparisons revealed a trend for decreased protein ingestion post-trial with HP-MILK compared to Sports Drink
 383 ($p=0.065$). Nonetheless, 24 h protein intake with HP-MILK was higher than with all other beverages ($p's<0.05$). 24
 384 h energy, CHO and sodium intakes differed significantly by treatment ($p's<0.05$). Although pairwise comparisons
 385 did not detect differences in total energy intake between trials ($p's>0.05$), LS-MILK and HP-MILK appeared to
 386 increase intake in comparison to Water and Sports Drink. Sports Drink ($p=0.076$), LS-MILK ($p=0.022$) and HP-
 387 MILK ($p=0.087$) all tended to increase 24 h CHO intake compared to Water.

388

389 3.8 Gastrointestinal Tolerance

390 A 4 (Treatment) \times 6 (Time) analysis of hunger ratings identified a significant main effect of time,
 391 $F(5,35)=11.5$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.62$; and a significant treatment \times time interaction, $F(15,105)=2.27$, $p=0.008$, $\eta_p^2=0.25$.
 392 Post hoc comparisons revealed that LS-MILK and HP-MILK decreased subjective hunger compared to Water and
 393 Sports Drink during the 1st hour of recovery ($p's<0.05$). Hunger ratings were not significantly different at any other
 394 point in time ($p's>0.05$). 4 (Treatment) \times 6 (Time) analyses revealed significant main effects of treatment on thirst,
 395 $F(1.4,9.7)=34.4$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.83$; and fullness ratings, $F(3,21)=3.81$, $p=0.025$, $\eta_p^2=0.35$; significant main effects

396 of time on thirst, $F(5,35)=22.1$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.76$; and fullness ratings, $F(5,35)=27.9$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.80$; and
 397 significant treatment \times time interactions on thirst, $F(15,105)=10.4$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.60$; and fullness ratings,
 398 $F(15,105)=2.12$, $p=0.014$, $\eta_p^2=0.23$. Post hoc comparisons demonstrated that LS-MILK and HP-MILK increased
 399 subjective fullness compared to Water during the 1st hour of recovery (p 's <0.05). Fullness ratings were not
 400 significantly different between treatments at any other point in time (p 's >0.05). Ingestion of LS-MILK and HP-
 401 MILK increased thirst ratings compared to Water and Sports Drink at all stages of recovery (p 's <0.05).

402

403 3.9 Beverage Palatability

404 A 4 (Treatment) \times 2 (Time) analysis of beverage pleasantness ratings failed to indicate a significant main
 405 effect of beverage, $F(1.5,10.6)=1.97$, $p=0.150$, $\eta_p^2=0.22$; although, pleasantness ratings were generally increased
 406 with Water (79 ± 30 mm) and Sports Drink (70 ± 33 mm) compared to LS-MILK (50 ± 16 mm) and HP-MILK (56
 407 ± 15 mm). The analysis identified a significant main effect of time, $F(3,7)=10.4$, $p=0.015$, $\eta_p^2=0.60$; such that
 408 pleasantness decreased between the onset and conclusion of the drinking period (67 ± 9 mm vs. 60 ± 10 mm). Total
 409 beverage intake also differed by palatability, $F(3,21)=10.6$, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.60$; such that the participants consumed a
 410 significantly greater quantity of their most preferred beverage than their least- ($p=0.007$) and second-least ($p=0.004$)
 411 preferred beverages (1st: 2057 ± 498 g; 2nd: 1662 ± 370 g; 3rd: 1471 ± 389 g; 4th: 1515 ± 496 g).. Average ratings for
 412 the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th most palatable beverages were 95 ± 5 mm, 72 ± 19 mm, 52 ± 14 mm and 34 ± 12 mm, respectively.

413

414 3.10 Post-Study Survey

415 All 8 participants indicated that the purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of consuming different
 416 beverages on recovery of cognitive function. Of these, 7 indicated they were either *absolutely* or *very confident* in
 417 this response; one subject was *somewhat confident*. Mean \pm SD (Range) scores for Uncontrolled Eating, Cognitive
 418 Restraint and Emotional Eating on the R18 Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire were: $33 \pm 11\%$ (19–53%), $23 \pm 18\%$
 419 (0–50%), and $25 \pm 26\%$ (0–75%), respectively. No participant exceeded clinical thresholds for any of these
 420 characteristics.

421

422

423

424 4.0 Discussion

425 This study investigated the effect of consuming different commercial beverages (including milk-based
426 beverages with contrasting formulations) with food *ad libitum* post-exercise on fluid, energy and nutrient recovery
427 in females. Overall, results indicate that, when consumed voluntarily and with food, different beverages are likely to
428 elicit *similar* levels of fluid recovery. However, caloric beverages, particularly milk-based formulations, appear to
429 increase energy consumption and alter nutrient provision compared to when water is consumed. Findings from this
430 study suggest that, when food is available post-exercise, the type of recovery beverage ingested will influence daily
431 nutrient intake and nutrient intake immediately post-exercise, rather than acute measures of fluid recovery.

432
433 Previous research investigating the impact of beverage type on fluid recovery post-exercise generally
434 indicates that milk/milk-based formulations are more effective rehydration agents than water and sports beverages
435 (Shirreffs et al. 2007b; Watson et al. 2008; Desbrow et al. 2014; Seery and Jakeman 2016). However, the majority
436 of studies have “prescribed” fluid intake and denied participants access to food: an approach with limited ecological
437 validity. The current investigation administered beverages and a variety of foods *ad libitum* in an attempt to simulate
438 real-life post-exercise conditions. Under these circumstances, the different commercial beverages promoted *similar*
439 levels of fluid recovery (Water: 1352±462 g; Sports Drink: 1349±407 g; LS-MILK: 1238±400 g; HP-MILK:
440 1293±453 g); despite differences in the quantity of water consumed and the proportion of water retained between
441 treatments. The only other study employing directly comparable methodology (Campagnolo et al. 2017)
442 demonstrated similar effects in male participants (fluid recovery was not influenced by the choice of water, a sports
443 beverage [Powerade[®]] or a milk-based formulation [Sustagen Sport[®]] when food and fluid were consumed *ad*
444 *libitum*). This suggests that post-exercise rehydration is complex and likely to be influenced by the type of beverage
445 provided and the availability of food during recovery. However, additional studies employing protocols that better
446 reflect real-life post-exercise conditions are still required to improve our understanding of the interaction between
447 fluid, food and nutrients in rehydration and recovery after exercise.

448 Previous research suggests that sports drinks, water and milk-based formulations are typically ingested in
449 different quantities when individuals are permitted to consume these beverages *ad libitum* (Maughan and Leiper
450 1994; Brouns et al. 1998; Park et al. 2012; Baguley et al. 2016; Campagnolo et al. 2017). Indeed, studies
451 consistently report that sports drinks or carbohydrate-electrolyte solutions (CES) increase voluntary fluid

452 consumption by ~30–42% compared to water (Maughan and Leiper 1994; Brouns et al. 1998; Park et al. 2012;
453 Campagnolo et al. 2017) and by >50% compared to milk-based beverages post-exercise (Baguley et al. 2016;
454 Campagnolo et al. 2017). Each of the different test beverages in the present study were consumed in roughly similar
455 volumes. The inconsistency in findings between the current and previous reports may reflect gender differences.
456 That is, the former studies have predominantly been conducted using male participants and some evidence (albeit in
457 older individuals and/or during exercise) suggests sex differences exist in voluntary fluid consumption for different
458 beverages (Baker et al. 2005). Indeed, Baker et al. (2005) observed that females consumed more water but not CES
459 than males relative to BM. Furthermore, males consumed significantly more CES than water, but intakes between
460 the two beverages for females were not statistically different. Whilst this study examined fluid intake during rest
461 periods interspersed throughout an exercise protocol (and is therefore not directly comparable to the present study),
462 similar behaviors may apply post-exercise.

463 While beverage intakes were similar *on average* in this study, it is worthwhile noting that volumes varied
464 considerably at an individual-level (Supplementary Table S2). This may be due to participants having different taste
465 preferences. On examining the data, we can see that participants who indicated Sports Drink was “more pleasant”
466 than Water ($n=2$) did in fact, consume ~40% more Sports Drink; whilst those who perceived Sports Drink as “more
467 pleasant” than LS-MILK ($n=5$) and HP-MILK ($n=5$) also consumed ~40% more of the preferred beverage. The
468 influence of palatability is further demonstrated by the fact that participants consumed a greater amount of their
469 most preferred beverage than their least- and second-least preferred beverages. These data indicate that palatability
470 is an important determinant of fluid intake and that taste preferences can vary greatly amongst individuals. The
471 importance of thirst and beverage palatability as factors influencing fluid intake post-exercise is further supported by
472 results of the current study, where HP-MILK and LS-MILK were consumed in similar volumes. These two
473 beverages had similar sensory characteristics (flavor, mouth-feel, appearance, aroma), yet contrasting nutrient
474 profiles. Clearly, physiological/psychological cues provided when consuming similar tasting beverages with
475 different nutrition are too subtle or participants are unable to detect them to moderate drinking behavior. Thus,
476 individuals likely revert to consuming the beverage to relieve thirst and/or on the basis that they find it
477 palatable/pleasant, which influences intake volume.

478 Findings from this study indicate that food plays an important role in mediating fluid recovery following
479 exercise when beverages with basic nutrient profiles are consumed. Although the present investigation did not

480 incorporate a “beverage only” trial for direct comparisons, the available evidence suggests that if food is *not*
481 consumed, just ~30–56% of water (Maughan and Leiper 1995; Shirreffs and Maughan 1998; Shirreffs et al. 2007a;
482 Shirreffs et al. 2007b; Merson et al. 2008; Wong and Chen 2011; James et al. 2014; Stasiule et al. 2014; Tai et al.
483 2014; Wong et al. 2014; Seery and Jakeman 2016) and ~38–64% of sports drink (Wong et al. 2000; Shirreffs et al.
484 2007a; Shirreffs et al. 2007b; Watson et al. 2008; Evans et al. 2009b; James et al. 2011; Wong and Chen 2011;
485 James et al. 2012; James et al. 2013; Clayton et al. 2014; Desbrow et al. 2014; Tai et al. 2014; Wong et al. 2014; Li
486 et al. 2015; Seery and Jakeman 2016) is typically retained post-ingestion (1.50 L·kg BM lost⁻¹). Values indicated in
487 the current investigation are noticeably higher (Water: 70.2±13.6%; Sports Drink: 74.2±18.1%). This observation is
488 consistent with results from previous experiments suggesting that the consumption of food (providing energy and
489 nutrients) enhances fluid retention (Maughan et al. 1996; Pryor et al. 2015) by delaying gastric emptying and
490 attenuating osmotic diuresis (Nose et al. 1988). It is important to note that the male subjects in Campagnolo et al.
491 (2017) retained a *very similar* proportion of ingested water (Trial #1: 72±8%; Trial #2: 73±11%) and Powerade®
492 (74±17%) as the female participants in the current study, even though females derived roughly half the amount of
493 energy, CHO, protein and sodium (relative to BM) from food across on all beverage treatments. The fact that
494 individuals retained a similar proportion of Water and Sports Drink is also interesting, as it suggests that water may,
495 in fact (contrary to popular belief), be an appropriate rehydration solution when co-ingested with food; particularly,
496 if the calories delivered in sports beverages are not desired. Collectively, these data suggest that consuming food *ad*
497 *libitum* after exercise is likely to enhance fluid retention similarly in males and females, despite differences in their
498 dietary behavior.

499 Results from the present study indicate that the choice of recovery beverage can have a profound effect on
500 overall dietary intake. Total energy intake during the 4 h recovery period increased proportionately to the energy-
501 density of the experimental beverage (even despite an opposing step-wise reduction in energy consumed from food).
502 An analysis of the participants’ post-trial diet records revealed that individuals did not modify their dietary behavior
503 over the remainder of the day to offset this difference in energy consumption. While the caloric beverages increased
504 CHO intake post-exercise (Water: 0.4±0.2 g CHO ·kg⁻¹·h⁻¹; all other treatments: 0.8±0.2 g·kg⁻¹·h⁻¹), it is worth noting
505 that *ad libitum* intake of food and any beverage included in this study failed to meet recommended CHO intakes for
506 “rapid refueling” after exercise; though total daily intakes were within the recommended range (~3.0–5.0 g CHO·kg⁻¹·
507 d⁻¹) (Thomas et al. 2016). Protein consumption during the first 2 h after exercise was in excess of recommendations

508 (0.25–0.30 g·kg⁻¹); particularly, when the milk-based beverages were consumed (Water: 0.47±0.17 g·kg⁻¹; Sports
509 Drink: 0.39±0.09 g·kg⁻¹; LS-MILK: 0.81±0.28 g·kg⁻¹; HP-MILK: 1.49±0.41 g·kg⁻¹) (Thomas et al. 2016). Total daily
510 protein intakes were generally appropriate (i.e. ~1.2–2.0 g·kg⁻¹·d⁻¹), but exceeded recommended levels on the HP-
511 MILK (2.6±0.8 g·kg⁻¹·d⁻¹) (Thomas et al. 2016). Hence, the type of beverage consumed may influence aspects of
512 post-exercise recovery and the suitability of certain beverages for individuals with specific dietary goals). For
513 instance, caloric beverages may facilitate rehydration, substrate repletion and positive energy balance in situations
514 where weight gain or large nutritional intakes are required. Whereas, the consumption of water (with food) should
515 be encouraged to facilitate rehydration without excessive caloric intake in circumstances where weight loss or
516 maintenance is desirable.

517
518 This investigation (and results from Campagnolo et al. (2017)) provides evidence that different commercial
519 beverages promote similar levels of fluid recovery after exercise. However, it is important to consider that “rapid
520 rehydration” is typically utilized to facilitate recovery *ahead of a subsequent exercise session*. Under these
521 circumstances, individuals may restrict their intake of food/fluid to avoid GI discomfort during exercise; potentially
522 affecting fluid and nutrient recovery. Additional research is required to determine the behaviors of athletes given
523 access to *ad libitum* food and different beverages when they are required to perform a subsequent exercise session;
524 and impact of these behaviors on post-exercise recovery and subsequent exercise performance.

525
526 In summary, this study demonstrates that different beverages are similarly effective at replenishing exercise-
527 induced sweat loss, but result in different energy/nutrient intakes, when consumed *ad libitum* with food. An athlete’s
528 acute nutritional requirements to support recovery, broader dietary goals, taste preferences and access to food should
529 therefore inform selection of the most appropriate recovery beverage.

530

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534

535

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Tables

Table 1. Pre-trial conditions and exercise-induced dehydration

	Water	Sports Drink	LS-MILK	HP-MILK	F-ratio	<i>p</i> -value
Pre-exercise U_{SG}	1.012 ± 0.005	1.014 ± 0.007	1.013 ± 0.005	1.014 ± 0.008	F(3, 21) = 0.547	0.656
Pre-exercise P_{OSM} (mOsm·kg ⁻¹)	286 ± 5	286 ± 8	287 ± 4	287 ± 3	F(1.4, 8.4) = 0.172	0.770
Pre-exercise BM (kg)	61.98 ± 10.78	61.68 ± 10.86	61.28 ± 10.53	61.56 ± 10.80	F(3, 21) = 1.69	0.201
BM loss (kg)	1.20 ± 0.19	1.21 ± 0.15	1.22 ± 0.16	1.23 ± 0.10	F(3, 21) = 0.151	0.928
BM loss (%)	1.96 ± 0.28	2.00 ± 0.43	2.03 ± 0.31	2.03 ± 0.26	F(3, 21) = 0.388	0.763
Total eEE (kJ)	3241 ± 349	3289 ± 388	3270 ± 457	3164 ± 264	F(3, 21) = 0.805	0.505

BM: Body mass; eEE: Estimated energy expenditure; HP-MILK: Up & Go Energize™; P_{OSM} : Plasma osmolality; LS-MILK: Up & Go Reduced Sugar™; U_{SG} : Urine specific gravity. Plasma osmolality values from $n=7$ participants where blood sampling was performed. Values are Mean±SD.

Table 2. Total nutrient intake from food and beverages during the 4 h recovery period and entire trial day (trial *plus* post-trial diet).

	Water	Sports Drink	LS-MILK	HP-MILK	F-ratio	<i>p</i> -value	η_p^2
Nutrient Intake From Beverage							
Beverage Intake (g)	1790 ± 540	1801 ± 359	1538 ± 485	1639 ± 587	F(3, 21) = 1.32	0.294	0.16
Water (g)	1790 ± 540 ^c	1711 ± 339 ^b	1299 ± 410	1383 ± 495	F(3, 21) = 5.72	0.005	0.45
Energy (kJ)	0 ± 0 ^{a,b,c}	1874 ± 371 ^{b,c}	4282 ± 1337	5639 ± 2019	F(1.3, 9.3) = 48.8	<0.001	0.88
CHO (g)	0 ± 0 ^{a,b,c}	104 ± 21	136 ± 42	162 ± 58	F(3, 21) = 45.8	<0.001	0.87
Protein (g)	0 ± 0 ^{b,c}	0 ± 0 ^{b,c}	52 ± 16 ^c	110 ± 39	F(3, 21) = 59.6	<0.001	0.90
Fat (g)	0 ± 0 ^{b,c}	0 ± 0 ^{b,c}	23 ± 7	25 ± 9	F(3, 21) = 63.2	<0.001	0.90
Sodium (mg)	0 ± 0 ^{a,b,c}	504 ± 101 ^{b,c}	1000 ± 315 ^c	1639 ± 587	F(1.2, 8.7) = 48.3	<0.001	0.87
Beverage Mass (kg)	1.79 ± 0.54	1.80 ± 0.36	1.54 ± 0.48	1.64 ± 0.59	F(3, 21) = 1.32	0.294	0.16
Nutrient Intake From Food							
Water (g)	128 ± 59	98 ± 57	160 ± 75	140 ± 78	F(3, 21) = 1.66	0.206	0.19
Energy (kJ)	4129 ± 1080 ^{b,c}	3292 ± 633 ^c	1737 ± 1171	1457 ± 797	F(3, 21) = 17.4	<0.001	0.71
CHO (g)	107 ± 34 ^{b,c}	75 ± 18 ^c	52 ± 25	42 ± 19	F(3, 21) = 17.0	<0.001	0.71
Protein (g)	29 ± 9 ^c	24 ± 8	10 ± 10	8 ± 7	F(3, 21) = 12.4	<0.001	0.64
Fat (g)	47 ± 14 ^c	42 ± 13 ^c	17 ± 21	15 ± 15	F(3, 21) = 11.8	<0.001	0.63
Sodium (mg)	735 ± 334 ^{b,c}	738 ± 345 ^c	208 ± 241	205 ± 208	F(1.4, 9.7) = 12.9	0.003	0.65
Food Mass (kg)	0.32 ± 0.86 ^c	0.25 ± 0.74	0.25 ± 0.11	0.21 ± 0.88	F(3, 21) = 4.13	0.019	0.37
Total Nutrient Intake (Food & Beverage)							
Water (g)	1918 ± 580	1809 ± 338	1458 ± 431	1523 ± 472	F(3, 21) = 4.92	0.010	0.41
Energy (kJ)	4129 ± 1080	5167 ± 643	6019 ± 1925	7096 ± 2058	F(1.5, 10.4) = 7.37	0.014	0.51
CHO (g)	107 ± 34 ^{a,b,c}	180 ± 30	188 ± 46	204 ± 47	F(3, 12) = 12.9	<0.001	0.65
Protein (g)	29 ± 9 ^{b,c}	24 ± 8 ^{b,c}	63 ± 20 ^c	118 ± 41	F(1.3, 9.1) = 33.8	<0.001	0.83
Fat (g)	47 ± 14	42 ± 13	40 ± 24	40 ± 19	F(1.4, 9.8) = 0.437	0.590	0.06
Sodium (mg)	735 ± 334 ^{a,c}	1242 ± 322	1208 ± 298 ^c	1844 ± 488	F(1.5, 10.5) = 10.7	0.005	0.61
Total Mass (kg)	2.11 ± 0.57	2.05 ± 0.35	1.79 ± 0.52	1.85 ± 0.55	F(3, 21) = 2.27	0.110	0.25
Nutrient Intake For Entire Trial Day							
Water (L)	4.0 ± 1.4	4.0 ± 1.1	3.9 ± 1.0	3.7 ± 1.4	F(3, 21) = 0.65	0.592	0.09
Energy (MJ)	8.4 ± 2.4	9.9 ± 2.2	11.0 ± 3.1	10.8 ± 2.5	F(3, 21) = 3.71	0.028	0.35
CHO (g)	201 ± 77 ^b	285 ± 65	323 ± 85	295 ± 69	F(3, 21) = 6.83	0.002	0.49
Protein (g)	89 ± 33 ^c	93 ± 35 ^c	110 ± 30 ^c	156 ± 41	F(3, 21) = 10.8	<0.001	0.61
Fat (g)	86 ± 23	84 ± 29	88 ± 34	73 ± 26	F(3, 21) = 0.98	0.365	0.12
Sodium (g)	2.1 ± 0.3	2.5 ± 0.2	3.3 ± 0.5	3.1 ± 0.3	F(3, 21) = 4.68	0.012	0.40

CHO: Carbohydrate; HP-MILK: Up & Go Energize™, LS-MILK: Up & Go Reduced Sugar™. Values are Mean±SD. *a*, mean value significantly different from Sports Drink; *b*, mean value significantly different from LS-MILK; *c*, mean value significantly different from HP-MILK.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Schematic representation of the experimental procedures. BM: nude body mass; CRT: choice reaction time cognitive task (for experimental blinding); Food: *ad libitum* access to snack foods for 15 min; Met: metabolic gas measurements; P_{OSM} : blood collection for plasma osmolality analyses; SFQ: Subjective Feelings Questionnaire; U_{SG} : urine specific gravity.

Figure 2. Hourly urine output (A) and U_{SG} values (B) under each of the experimental treatments. Values are Mean \pm SEM for Water (●); Sports Drink (○); LS-MILK (■); HP-MILK (□). a, Water significantly different to LS-MILK and HP-MILK; b, Sports Drink significantly different to LS-MILK and HP-MILK; c, Sports Drink trending for a significant difference from LS-MILK and HP-MILK ($p < 0.100$). H1–4: Hours 1 to 4 of the recovery period.

Figure 3. Net BM responses under each of the experimental treatments. Values are Mean \pm SEM for Water (●); Sports Drink (○); LS-MILK (■); HP-MILK (□). H1–4: Hours 1 to 4 of the recovery period.

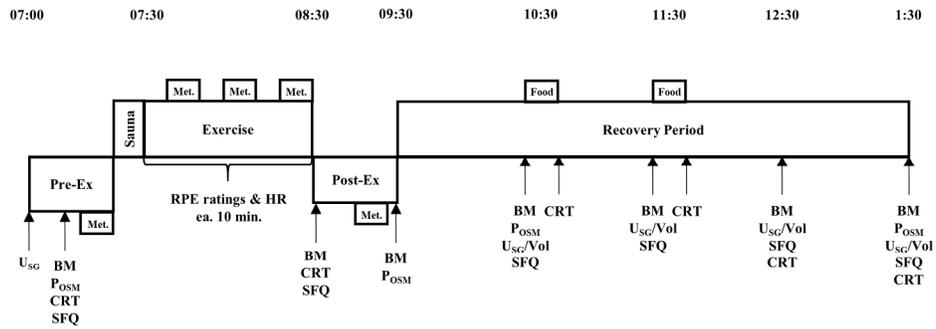


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the experimental procedures. BM: nude body mass; CRT: choice reaction time cognitive task (for experimental blinding); Food: *ad libitum* access to snack foods for 15 min; Met: metabolic gas measurements; P_{osm} : blood collection for plasma osmolality analyses; SFQ: Subjective Feelings Questionnaire; U_{sg} : urine specific gravity.

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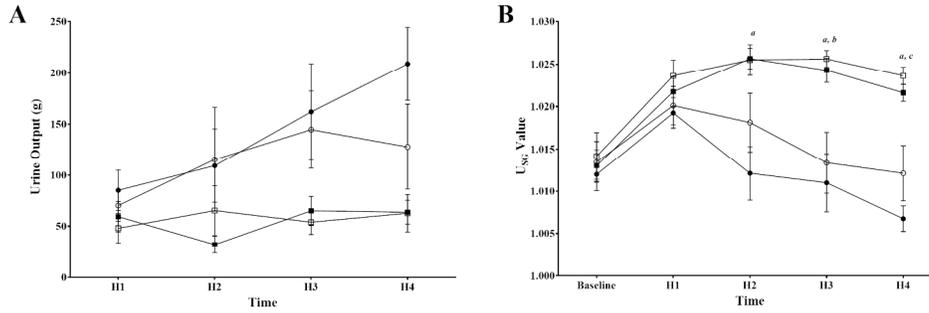


Figure 2. Hourly urine output (A) and U_{SG} values (B) under each of the experimental treatments. Values are Mean \pm SEM for Water (●); Sports Drink (○); LS-MILK (■); HP-MILK (□). *a*, Water significantly different to LS-MILK and HP-MILK; *b*, Sports Drink significantly different to LS-MILK and HP-MILK; *c*, Sports Drink trending for a significant difference from LS-MILK and HP-MILK ($p < 0.100$). H1–4: Hours 1 to 4 of the recovery period.

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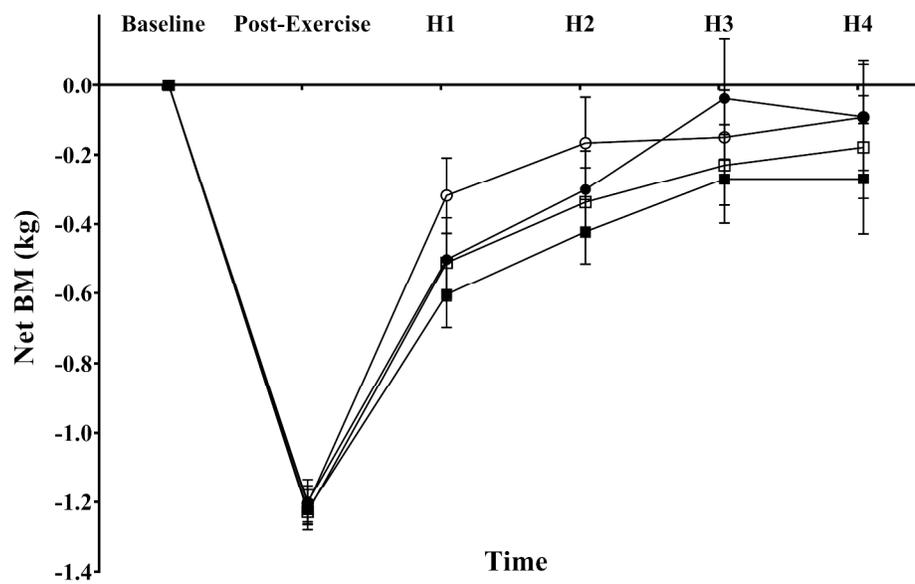


Figure 3. Net BM responses under each of the experimental treatments. Values are Mean \pm SEM for Water (●); Sports Drink (○); LS-MILK (■); HP-MILK (□). H1–4: Hours 1 to 4 of the recovery period.

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