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1 **The influence of calcium supplementation on**  
2 **substrate metabolism during exercise in humans: a**  
3 **randomized controlled trial.**

4  
5 **Authors and Affiliations**

6 Javier T. Gonzalez<sup>1,2</sup>, Benjamin P. Green<sup>2</sup>, Matthew D.  
7 Campbell<sup>2</sup>, Penny L.S. Rumbold<sup>2</sup>, Emma J. Stevenson<sup>1,2</sup>.

8  
9 **1** Brain, Performance and Nutrition Research Centre, Faculty  
10 of Health and Life Sciences, Northumbria University,  
11 Newcastle-upon-Tyne, United Kingdom.

12 **2** Department of Sport, Exercise and Rehabilitation, Faculty of  
13 Health and Life Sciences, Northumbria University, Newcastle-  
14 upon-Tyne, United Kingdom.

15  
16 **Corresponding author**

17 Javier T. Gonzalez  
18 Faculty of Health and Life Sciences, Northumbria University,  
19 Newcastle-upon-Tyne, United Kingdom.

20 E-mail: [j.gonzalez@northumbria.ac.uk](mailto:j.gonzalez@northumbria.ac.uk)

21 Tel: 0(+44)191 243 4468

22  
23 **Running title:** Calcium, exercise and fat oxidation

24  
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28 funded solely by Northumbria University.

29 **Abstract**

30 **Background/Objectives:** High calcium intakes enhance fat  
31 loss under restricted energy intake. Mechanisms explaining this  
32 may involve reduced dietary fat absorption, enhanced lipid  
33 utilization and (or) reductions in appetite. This study aimed to  
34 assess the impact of two weeks of calcium supplementation on  
35 substrate utilization during exercise and appetite sensations at  
36 rest. **Subjects/Methods:** Thirteen physically-active males  
37 completed two 14-d supplemental periods, in a double-blind,  
38 randomized crossover design separated by a  $\geq 4$  week washout  
39 period. During supplementation, a test-drink was consumed  
40 daily containing 400 and 1400 mg of calcium during control  
41 (CON) and high-calcium (CAL) periods, respectively. Cycling-  
42 based exercise tests were conducted before and after each  
43 supplemental period to determine substrate utilization rates and  
44 circulating metabolic markers (non-esterified fatty acid,  
45 glycerol, glucose and lactate concentrations) across a range of  
46 exercise intensities. Visual analogue scales were completed  
47 fasted and at rest, to determine subjective appetite sensations.  
48 **Results:** No significant differences between supplements were  
49 observed in lipid or carbohydrate utilization rates, nor in  
50 circulating metabolic markers (both  $P > 0.05$ ). Maximum rates  
51 of lipid utilization were  $0.47 \pm 0.05$  and  $0.44 \pm 0.05$  g/min, for  
52 CON and CAL respectively, prior to supplementation, and  $0.44$   
53  $\pm 0.05$  and  $0.42 \pm 0.05$  g/min respectively, post-

54 supplementation (main effects of time, supplement, and time x  
55 supplement interaction effect all  $P > 0.05$ ). Furthermore, no  
56 significant differences were detected in any subjective appetite  
57 sensations (all  $P > 0.05$ ). **Conclusions:** Two weeks of calcium  
58 supplementation does not influence substrate utilization during  
59 exercise in physically-active males.

60

61 **Key words:** appetite, dairy, fat oxidation, lipid utilization, non-  
62 esterified fatty acids.

63

64

65 **Introduction**

66 A growing body of research implicates calcium intake in  
67 adipose regulation. Epidemiology links high-calcium intake  
68 with reduced body fat percentage<sup>1</sup>, and interventions  
69 demonstrate accelerated loss of adipose tissue<sup>2</sup>. Alongside  
70 decreased dietary fat absorption<sup>3</sup>, mechanisms possibly  
71 contributing to this effect are, elevated lipid utilization<sup>4,5</sup>  
72 and/or reduced appetite<sup>6-8</sup>. Consumption of high-calcium meals  
73 have been shown to enhance postprandial lipid utilization by  
74 some<sup>8,9</sup> but not others<sup>6,7,10</sup>. Meta-analyses suggest that  
75 evidence for chronic (>7 d) calcium intake (increase of ~958  
76 mg/d) and lipid utilization, is stronger than acute effects<sup>4</sup>. The  
77 reduction in appetite observed with acute calcium intake<sup>6-8</sup>,  
78 may translate into a chronic reduction in appetite<sup>11-14</sup>.

79         The mechanism(s) underlying a change in fat utilization  
80 with calcium intake, in humans, is not clear. Most evidence  
81 comes from *in vitro* or animal data, and the most prominent  
82 theory is currently that of parathyroid hormone (PTH) and/or  
83 1,25(OH)<sub>2</sub>D regulating lipid metabolism<sup>15,16</sup>. Dietary  
84 manipulation of 1,25(OH)<sub>2</sub>D in humans (oral vitamin D  
85 combined with low-calcium diet) however, does not influence  
86 whole-body lipid oxidation or lipolytic markers<sup>17</sup>. Similarly,  
87 increased lipid oxidation with calcium supplementation has  
88 been observed in the presence of similar PTH<sup>18</sup>, suggesting  
89 other mechanisms may be at play.

90           Increasing the calcium content of a meal by ~900 mg  
91   potentiates postprandial circulating glucose-dependent  
92   insulinotropic peptide<sub>1-42</sub> (GIP<sub>1-42</sub>), glucagon-like peptide-1  
93   (GLP-1) and insulin concentrations<sup>7</sup>. GLP-1 and insulin  
94   suppress appetite<sup>19-21</sup> and emerging evidence suggests that GIP  
95   and GLP-1 influence lipid metabolism. GIP stimulates adipose  
96   fatty acid re-esterification under hyperinsulinemic  
97   hyperglycemia<sup>22</sup>. GLP-1 positively associates with fasting lipid  
98   utilization<sup>23</sup>, and dipeptidyl peptidase-IV (DPP-IV; an enzyme  
99   that degrades the receptor-active form of GIP and GLP-1, but  
100   also of other peptides) inhibition, increases lipid utilization<sup>24</sup>.

101           The effect size that an elevated calcium intake has on  
102   lipid oxidation, tends to be greater when under energy deficit<sup>4</sup>.  
103   Melanson *et al.* used diet and exercise to produce negative  
104   energy balance after 7 d of high-calcium intake<sup>18</sup>. The  
105   respiratory quotient was only significantly lower during low-  
106   intensity (bench stepping) exercise with high-calcium intake.  
107   To our knowledge, this is the only study to examine the effect  
108   of a week of elevated calcium intake on lipid oxidation during  
109   exercise, and as bench stepping was standardized, it was not  
110   possible to discern the effect on maximal lipid utilization.

111           We therefore hypothesized that repeated (daily for 14 d)  
112   elevated exposure of GIP<sub>1-42</sub> and GLP-1 from calcium ingestion  
113   (as seen with a similar dose acutely<sup>7</sup>) may influence lipid  
114   utilization during exercise. Accordingly, we aimed to

115 investigate the effect of 2 weeks of high-calcium intake  
116 (increase of ~ 1000 mg) on maximal lipid utilization during  
117 exercise<sup>25</sup>. We also aimed to determine the impact of calcium  
118 supplementation on fasting concentrations of plasma GIP<sub>1-42</sub>,  
119 GLP-1 and insulin, along with subjective appetite sensations.

120

## 121 **Methods**

### 122 **Participants**

123 The sample size was based on the effect size (11%) for lipid  
124 utilization obtained by meta-analyses<sup>4</sup> and the typical error of  
125 the maximum rate of lipid utilization during exercise of 9%<sup>26</sup>.  
126 This calculated that 13 participants should provide statistical  
127 power above 80% with an alpha level of 0.05.

128 Thirteen physically active males were recruited from  
129 the student and staff population of Northumbria University  
130 between October 2012 and February 2013. Participants' age,  
131 stature, body mass and habitual calcium intakes were (mean ±  
132 SD: 26 ± 4 y, 177 ± 6 cm, 78 ± 6 kg, 1040 ± 445 mg/d; for  
133 aerobic capacity see Table 2). Participants were self-reportedly  
134 physically active (moderate-vigorous activity, ≥30 min, 5  
135 times/week<sup>27</sup>), non-smokers, and free of metabolic disease.  
136 This study received ethical approval from the Faculty of Health  
137 and Life Sciences Ethics Committee at Northumbria  
138 University, and participants provided written informed consent

139 prior to the study. This study was registered at  
140 ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT01779245).

141

#### 142 **Study design**

143 In a randomized (performed by J.T.G. using an online package:  
144 researchrandomizer.org), double-blind (both investigators and  
145 participants were blinded, an assistant who was not involved in  
146 data collection, prepared and labeled food packages), crossover  
147 design, participants underwent a control (CON) and a high-  
148 calcium (CAL) supplementation period. Before and after  
149 supplemental periods, exercise tests were conducted to  
150 determine substrate utilization (Figure 1). Prior to each exercise  
151 test participants were asked to replicate their diet for the  
152 preceding 24 h, and to abstain from exercise, caffeine and  
153 alcohol. Exercise tests began after a 10-14 h overnight fast,  
154 during which water was consumed *ad libitum*.

155

#### 156 **Exercise tests**

157 Upon arrival at the laboratory, an intravenous catheter was  
158 inserted into an antecubital vein for repeated blood sampling. A  
159 5-min resting sample of expired gas was collected in the supine  
160 position after an initial 5-min rest period.

161 Following baseline sampling, participants began the  
162 exercise test, established by others to assess maximal lipid  
163 utilization during exercise<sup>25</sup>. Participants cycled on a



164 mechanically-braked cycle ergometer (Monark Ergomedic  
165 874E, Vansbro, Sweden) at an initial power output of 95 W.  
166 Power output was increased by 35 W every 3 min until  
167 volitional tolerance, with cadence maintained at 70  
168 revolutions/min. Expired gas samples were collected for the  
169 final min of each of the first 5 stages, and then for the final min  
170 of the test, when the participant indicated that they would only  
171 be able to continue for a further min. If the participant was  
172 unable to complete the full 60 s for the final sample, then the  
173 time was recorded. A minimum sample of 30 s was used for  
174 analysis. On occasions where the participant was able to  
175 continue past this “final” min, an additional sample was  
176 collected.

177

#### 178 **Sampling and analysis of expired gases**

179 Expired gas analysis was performed using the Douglas bag  
180 technique (Supplementary Information 1) accounting for  
181 variance in ambient concentrations of oxygen and carbon  
182 dioxide<sup>28</sup>.

183

#### 184 **Estimation of carbohydrate and lipid utilization**

185 Substrate oxidation was estimated from oxygen consumption  
186 and carbon dioxide values using stoichiometric equations,  
187 adjusted for the contribution of glycogen to metabolism<sup>29</sup>:

188

189 LO rate at rest and during exercise =  
190  $(1.695 \times \dot{V}O_2) - (1.701 \times \dot{V}CO_2)$   
191 CO rate at rest =  $(4.585 \times \dot{V}CO_2) - (3.226 \times \dot{V}O_2)$

192 CO rate exercise at 40-50%  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  =  $(4.344 \times$   
193  $\dot{V}CO_2) - (3.061 \times \dot{V}O_2)$

194 CO rate exercise at 50-75%  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  =  
195  $(4.210 \times \dot{V}CO_2) - (2.962 \times \dot{V}O_2)$

196

197 LO = lipid oxidation (g/min)

198 CO = carbohydrate oxidation (g/min)

199  $\dot{V}O_2$  and  $\dot{V}CO_2$  are L/min

200

201 Carbohydrate utilization rates were only determined up until

202 75%  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ <sup>29</sup>.

203

#### 204 **Supplemental protocol**

205 Participants were provided with pre-packaged bags of

206 milkshake powder to consume once daily. For both

207 supplemental periods, bags contained cocoa powder (Tesco,

208 Dundee, UK) and dried skimmed milk (Tesco, Dundee, UK)

209 providing 987 kJ (235 kcal) energy; 13 g protein; 42 g

210 carbohydrate and 1 g fat. For the CAL supplement, 4 g of a

211 milk-extracted calcium powder (Capolac®, Arla Foods

212 Ingredients a/s, Denmark) was added to increase the calcium

213 content. Details of the supplementation, including independent  
214 verification are provided in Supplementary Information 2.

215

### 216 **Anthropometric variables**

217 Body mass was determined to the nearest 0.1 kg using balance  
218 scales (Seca, Birmingham, UK) upon arrival at the laboratory,  
219 where participants wore only light clothing. Stature was  
220 measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using a stadiometer (Seca,  
221 Birmingham, UK).

222

### 223 **Subjective ratings**

224 Subjective appetite ratings were assessed using previously  
225 validated, 100 mm VAS<sup>30</sup>, upon arrival at the laboratory (in the  
226 fasted, resting state). Questions asked included: “how hungry  
227 do you feel?”, “how full do you feel?”, “how satisfied do you  
228 feel?” and “how much do you think you can eat?”. A  
229 combined-appetite score which has been used previously<sup>31</sup> was  
230 also employed. Participants rated the palatability of the test  
231 drinks following consumption of the first drink using VAS with  
232 questions pertaining to visual appeal, smell, taste and overall  
233 palatability.

234

### 235 **Blood sampling and analysis**

236 Blood was sampled at baseline, during the final min of each of  
237 the first 5 stages, and immediately after termination of the

238 exercise test, to determine NEFA and glycerol (both kits from  
239 RX Daytona, Randox Laboratories Ltd, London, UK) and  
240 glucose and lactate (both measured by Biosen C\_line, EKF  
241 Diagnostics, Magdeberg, Germany) concentrations. Samples  
242 were collected into EDTA Vacutainers and immediately  
243 centrifuged (10 min, 1509 g, 4°C). At baseline, an additional  
244 sample was collected into a non-anticoagulant tube and allowed  
245 to stand for 30 min before centrifugation (10 min, 1509 g, 4°C)  
246 for PTH (Immunotopics, San Clemente, USA) and insulin (IBL  
247 International GmbH, Hamburg, Germany) concentrations. A  
248 further EDTA tube with 25 µL aprotinin/mL whole blood was  
249 taken at baseline and immediately centrifuged (10 min, 1509 g,  
250 4°C) for plasma GIP<sub>1-42</sub> (Immuno-Biological Laboratories Co.,  
251 Ltd, Japan) and total GLP-1 (Epitope Diagnostics, San Diego,  
252 CA) concentrations. Samples were stored at -80°C before  
253 analysis. Inter-assay CVs for NEFA and glycerol were 1.2 and  
254 2.1%, respectively. The intra-assay CV reported by the  
255 manufacturers was 4.74 and 1.34% for NEFA and glycerol,  
256 respectively.

257

### 258 **Statistical analysis**

259 Due to difficulties with blood sampling from one participant,  
260 data for all blood variables are  $n = 12$  apart from when  
261 relationships between baseline variables were assessed. As all  
262 participants completed all trials, all other data are  $n = 13$  and

263 are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) unless stated  
264 otherwise. Data were tested for normal distribution using the  
265 Anderson-Darling normality test. Data not displaying normal  
266 distribution were log-transformed prior to statistical analysis.  
267 Insulin sensitivity was assessed by HOMA-IR<sup>32</sup>.

268 Two-way (supplement x time) repeated-measures  
269 ANOVA were used to detect differences between resting  
270 variables, maximal fat oxidation, total fat and carbohydrate  
271 oxidation, variables assessed at exhaustion and appetite. Three-  
272 way (supplement x time x power output) repeated-measures  
273 ANOVA were used to assess differences between circulating  
274 variables and substrate utilization during exercise.

275 Following a significant interaction effect, Holm-  
276 Bonferroni post-hoc test was used to determine the location of  
277 variance and all *P* values reported have been adjusted for  
278 multiple-comparisons. Differences between CON and CAL in  
279 the change from pre- to post-supplementation were assessed by  
280 paired t-tests. Differences were considered significant at *P* <  
281 0.05. Relationships between variables were assessed by  
282 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

283

## 284 **Results**

### 285 **Palatability**

286 Ratings of visual appeal (CON: 76  $\pm$  14, CAL: 79  $\pm$  14), smell  
287 (CON: 73  $\pm$  15, CAL: 73  $\pm$  17), taste (CON: 79  $\pm$  13, CAL: 82

288  $\pm 15$ ) and palatability (CON:  $78 \pm 15$ , CAL:  $82 \pm 13$ ) of the test  
289 drinks did not significantly differ (paired t-tests:  $P = 0.467$ ,  $P =$   
290  $0.946$ ,  $P = 0.464$ ,  $P = 0.210$ , respectively).

291

## 292 **Resting measures**

293 Resting energy expenditure, lipid and carbohydrate utilization,  
294 and circulating metabolites and hormones are displayed in  
295 Table 1. A significant interaction effect (supplement x time)  
296 was observed for insulin concentration and HOMA-IR, but not  
297 for any other resting variables (Table 1). Post-hoc analyses  
298 revealed that insulinemia was lower prior to supplementation  
299 with CAL vs. CON, but rose during supplementation to a  
300 concentration that was higher than both CON post-  
301 supplementation and CAL pre-supplementation (Table 1). The  
302 pre- to post-supplementation change in insulin concentrations  
303 was significantly different between CON and CAL as assessed  
304 by paired t-test ( $P = 0.006$ ; Figure 2), as was HOMA-IR ( $P =$   
305  $0.029$ ).

306 No significant main (time or supplement), or interaction  
307 (supplement x time) effects were detected for any other resting  
308 variable (Table 1; all  $P > 0.5$ ). Similarly, no differences were  
309 observed in body mass or subjective appetite (Supplementary  
310 Table 1).

311

## 312 **Exercise measures**

313  $\dot{V}O_2$  peak did not significantly differ between tests (Table 2),  
314 nor did any of the metabolic variables measured (Table 2). A  
315 main effect of power output was detected for plasma lactate  
316 concentration and lipid and carbohydrate utilization (all  $P <$   
317 0.001). However, no main effects for trial or interaction effects  
318 (supplement x time, supplement x power output, time x power,  
319 or supplement x time x power output) were observed for any  
320 exercise variable (all  $P > 0.05$ ). Figure 3 displays pre- to post-  
321 supplementation change in the maximum lipid utilization,  
322 which was not significantly different between CON and CAL  
323 (paired t-test,  $P = 0.619$ ). NEFA and glycerol concentrations  
324 during exercise are displayed in Figure 4, and glucose and  
325 lactate concentrations during exercise in Supplementary Figure  
326 1.

327

### 328 **Correlations between variables**

329 No significant relationships were observed between the change  
330 in PTH and, resting, maximal or total lipid utilization ( $r = -$   
331 0.09,  $r = 0.17$  and  $r = 0.04$ , respectively, all  $P > 0.05$ ). Pre-  
332 supplementation (mean of CON and CAL)  $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  however,  
333 inversely correlated with pre-supplementation insulinemia  
334 (Supplementary Figure 2;  $r = -0.65$ ,  $P = 0.016$ ) and HOMA-IR  
335 ( $r = -0.72$ ,  $P = 0.006$ ).

336

### 337 **Discussion**

338 The main findings indicated by these data are three-fold. 1)  
339 two-weeks of calcium supplementation does not influence  
340 whole-body lipid metabolism during exercise, in young  
341 physically active males; 2) calcium supplementation does not  
342 influence circulating concentrations of GIP<sub>1-42</sub> or total GLP-1,  
343 or appetite sensations in the fasted state; 3) calcium  
344 supplementation elevated serum insulin concentrations in the  
345 fasted state.

346 High-calcium intake for 7 d increases 24-h lipid  
347 utilization in overweight individuals, achieved by increasing  
348 the consumption of dairy products<sup>18</sup>. The change in substrate  
349 metabolism was most apparent during activity. Additionally,  
350 meta-analyses indicate that a ~1000 mg increase in calcium  
351 intake for  $\geq 7$  d increases fat utilization<sup>4</sup>. Therefore, we  
352 investigated the effects of a ~1000 mg/d increase in calcium  
353 intake for 14 d, on fat utilization during exercise. In the present  
354 study, neither maximal fat utilization rates, nor the total amount  
355 of fat utilized during exercise were influenced by consumption  
356 of additional calcium. Other markers of substrate metabolism  
357 support this, as plasma NEFA, glycerol, glucose and lactate  
358 concentrations during exercise were unaffected by  
359 supplementation, suggesting lipolytic rate<sup>33</sup> and glycolytic  
360 flux<sup>34</sup> were unchanged.

361 Participants in the present study and that of Melanson *et*  
362 *al.*<sup>18</sup>, were both non-obese, healthy and had similar habitual



363 calcium intakes (1040 mg/d vs. ~1100 mg/d, respectively). The  
364 only major difference in the participants was the use of  
365 physically active individuals in the present study.  
366 Consequently, the  $\dot{V}O_2$  peak of the participants in the present  
367 study was ~ 51 mL/kg/min, compared to ~ 32 mL/kg/min<sup>18</sup>. As  
368 training status has a major influence on substrate metabolism  
369 during exercise<sup>35, 36</sup>, it is conceivable that calcium  
370 supplementation is only effective at increasing fat utilization in  
371 untrained individuals with limited capacity for fat oxidation.  
372 Notwithstanding this, given the higher basal insulin  
373 concentrations in response to calcium supplementation seen in  
374 the present study, it could be viewed that the absence of  
375 suppressed NEFA and glycerol concentrations, or rates of fat  
376 utilization somewhat *corroborate* the findings of Melanson *et*  
377 *al.*<sup>18</sup> (greater fat utilization under similar insulinemia), as both  
378 indicate reduced insulin-suppression of lipid  
379 mobilization/utilization.

380           A negative relationship between the change in PTH and  
381 the change in fat utilization in response to calcium  
382 supplementation was previously reported<sup>10</sup>, suggesting reduced  
383 PTH was (partially) responsible changes in fat oxidation seen  
384 by Gunther *et al.*<sup>37</sup>. PTH was unaffected by calcium  
385 supplementation in the present study, although others have  
386 shown enhanced fat oxidation with calcium supplementation  
387 with no change in PTH<sup>18</sup>. Hence it is presently unclear whether

388 PTH suppression is necessary for calcium supplementation to  
389 influence fat oxidation. Both the previous studies used dairy  
390 products to increase calcium intake, with potential for  
391 confounding from dairy protein, or other bioactive  
392 components<sup>38, 39</sup>.

393         The present study also indicates that calcium  
394 supplementation does not influence appetite sensations, or  
395 concentrations of GIP<sub>1-42</sub> or total GLP-1, when fasted.  
396 Although some show high-calcium intake reduces appetite,  
397 these responses have, to date, been exclusively studied under  
398 energy-restriction<sup>11-14</sup>. The present study provides evidence that  
399 calcium supplementation, may not influence appetite sensations  
400 (in the fasted state) under *ad libitum* feeding, and therefore,  
401 might not result in spontaneous energy restriction. This should  
402 however, be confirmed by measures of energy intake under  
403 free-living conditions and with postprandial measures of  
404 appetite and metabolism, as nutritional status can influence  
405 appetite and metabolic responses to exercise<sup>40, 41</sup>. Ingestion of a  
406 high-calcium meal transiently enhances postprandial plasma  
407 GIP<sub>1-42</sub> and total GLP-1 concentrations<sup>7</sup>. The present findings  
408 indicate that this does not result in upregulation of these  
409 peptides when fasted. Supporting this, others have reported that  
410 1000 mg of calcium supplementation for 3 weeks does not  
411 influence fasting concentrations of total GLP-1 or GLP-1<sub>7-36</sub><sup>42</sup>,  
412 although postprandial concentrations were enhanced,

413 suggesting that the acute response that we previously reported<sup>7</sup>  
414 translates into chronic adaptation manifest in the postprandial  
415 state.

416 An interesting finding was that fasting insulinemia was  
417 elevated by 2 weeks of calcium supplementation. Taken in  
418 aggregate with elevated HOMA-IR, this suggests reduced  
419 insulin sensitivity. These were not primary outcomes of the  
420 study and thus should be interpreted with caution.

421 Notwithstanding this, we previously reported elevated  
422 postprandial insulinemia following the consumption of a single  
423 high-calcium meal<sup>6, 7</sup>. Physiological hyperinsulinemia induces  
424 insulin resistance<sup>43</sup>. Accordingly, it is not inconceivable that  
425 this transient elevation, which would likely occur following  
426 each CAL test drink ingested (relative to control) over the 14-d  
427 supplemental period, underlies the increase in insulinemia and  
428 HOMA-IR in the basal state. These findings conflict with some  
429 previous work whereby calcium supplementation improves<sup>44, 45</sup>  
430 or does not influence<sup>46</sup> insulin sensitivity. These studies  
431 however, were performed in individuals at risk of, or diagnosed  
432 with, type 2 diabetes.

433 In 314 individuals randomized to calcium plus vitamin  
434 D supplementation for 3 y, those with impaired fasting glucose  
435 (5.6-6.9 mmol/L;  $n = 92$ ) improved their insulin sensitivity  
436 (assessed by HOMA-IR), whereas those with normal fasting  
437 glucose showed no change. Therefore the effects of calcium

438 supplementation may need to be considered in context of the  
439 individual's metabolic health. In a metabolically-healthy  
440 population, high calcium intake appears to have no benefit (and  
441 could possibly be detrimental) for insulin sensitivity. This  
442 effect of calcium supplementation on insulin resistance in  
443 healthy individuals should be confirmed by a postprandial  
444 measure, or a euglycemic hyperinsulinemic clamp. The  
445 interpretation of this finding should be taken with caution as  
446 pre-intervention insulin and HOMA-IR differed, and this was a  
447 secondary outcome. Serum insulin concentrations negatively  
448 correlated with  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ . This is not a novel finding<sup>47</sup>, but  
449 provides support that the measures of insulin concentration and  
450 of oxygen uptake were valid on an inter-individual level.

451         There are some limitations with this study that deserve  
452 acknowledgement. The power calculation was based on the  
453 primary outcome of whole-body lipid utilization, therefore the  
454 blood-based and appetite variables should be interpreted with  
455 caution. The method of participant recruitment may have led to  
456 a degree of selection bias and, finally we cannot be certain that  
457 the CON period resulted in sufficient "calcium deficiency" to  
458 influence lipid utilization. Nevertheless, the dietary restrictions  
459 imposed (described in Supplementary Information 2), would  
460 likely result in a calcium intake approximating ~700 mg/d  
461 (including the CON drink). Which, given that physically active  
462 individuals likely experience calcium losses during exercise<sup>48</sup>,

463 it could be assumed that this produces a similar calcium  
464 balance to Melanson *et al.*<sup>18</sup>.

465           This is the first double-blind, randomized controlled  
466 study to investigate the effects of chronic (> 7 d) high-calcium  
467 intake on substrate metabolism during exercise. The blinding  
468 was effective, as evidenced by the incapability to correctly  
469 identify the test drinks. The supplement was independently  
470 verified, and increased calcium intake was not confounded by  
471 additional dairy components such as specific amino acids and  
472 fatty acids. In conclusion, two-weeks of calcium  
473 supplementation (~ 1000 mg/d) in physically active males, does  
474 not influence substrate metabolism during exercise or appetite  
475 sensations at rest, but does elevate fasting insulin  
476 concentrations in serum.

477

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#### 487 **Author contributions**

488 Critically reviewed the paper: JTG, BPG, MDC, PLSR, EJS.  
489 Conceived and designed the experiments: JTG, EJS. Performed  
490 the experiments: JTG, BPG, MDC. Analyzed the data: JTG,  
491 EJS. Wrote the paper: JTG, EJS.  
492  
493 Supplementary information is available at the *European*  
494 *Journal of Clinical Nutrition* website  
495 (<http://www.nature.com/ejcn>)

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772 **Figure legends**

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775 **Figure 1.** Overview of the study design. CAL, high calcium;

776 CON, control.

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778 **Figure 2.** Change in serum insulin concentration pre- to post-

779 supplementation with CON and CAL. CAL, high-calcium;

780 CON, control. Individual data are presented with group means

781  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal lines.  $n = 12$ . Paired t-test:

782 \*Significantly different to CON,  $P = 0.006$ .

783

784 **Figure 3.** Change in maximum rates of lipid utilization during

785 exercise pre- to post-supplementation with CON and CAL.

786 CAL, high-calcium; CON, control. Individual data are

787 presented with group means  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal

788 lines.  $n = 13$ .

789

790 **Figure 4.** Plasma NEFA and glycerol concentrations during

791 exercise before and after CON and CAL. a, NEFA

792 concentrations with CON supplementation. b, NEFA

793 concentrations with CAL supplementation. c, glycerol

794 concentrations with CON supplementation. d, glycerol

795 concentrations with CAL supplementation. CAL, high-calcium;

796 CON, control; NEFA, non-esterified fatty acid. Data are mean

797  $\pm$  SEM.  $n = 12$ . Interaction effect (supplement x time x power

798 output),  $P = 0.883$  and  $P = 0.401$  for NEFA and glycerol,

799 respectively.

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