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**Chronic consumption of cocoa rich in procyanidins has a marginal impact on gut microbiota and on serum and fecal metabolomes in male endurance athletes**

Journal:	<i>Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry</i>
Manuscript ID	Draft
Manuscript Type:	Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
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Manuscripts

1 Chronic consumption of cocoa rich in procyanidins has a marginal impact on gut  
2 microbiota and on serum and fecal metabolomes in male endurance athletes

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Cocoa is rich in procyanidins and is used in the sports training world as a supplement because  
22 of its antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties, although there is no consensus on its use.  
23 We investigated the effect of cocoa intake on intestinal ischemia, serum lipopolysaccharide  
24 (LPS) levels, gastrointestinal symptoms and gut microbiota composition in endurance athletes  
25 during their training period on an unrestricted diet. We also performed a metabolomics analysis  
26 of serum and feces after a bout of physical exercise before and 10 weeks after cocoa  
27 consumption to explore potential mediators of the effect of cocoa on athletes' health. Cocoa  
28 consumption had no effect on the intestinal ischemia marker Intestinal fatty-acid binding protein,  
29 LPS or on gastrointestinal symptoms. Cocoa intake significantly increased the abundance of  
30 *Blautia* and *Lachnospira* genera and decreased the abundance of the *Agathobacter* genus,  
31 which was accompanied by elevated levels of the polyphenol fecal metabolites 4-hydroxy-5-  
32 (phenyl)-valeric acid and O-methyl-epicatechin-O-glucuronide. Our untargeted approach  
33 revealed that cocoa had no significant effects on serum and fecal metabolites and that its  
34 consumption had little impact on the metabolome after a bout of physical exercise.

35

36 **Keywords:** Cocoa; exercise; microbiota; serum metabolome, fecal metabolome.

37

## 38 Introduction

39 The performance of strenuous exercise is often accompanied by an increase in oxidative stress,  
40 the release of inflammatory cytokines, muscle damage and, occasionally, by adverse  
41 gastrointestinal events including diarrhea, nausea, cramping and gastric pain <sup>1,2</sup>. Gastrointestinal  
42 complaints occur in a significant percentage of athletes and, in some cases, can lead to  
43 withdrawal from competition <sup>3</sup>. Several studies have reported that the development of splanchnic  
44 hypoperfusion during exercise might lead to intestinal ischemia, which can damage intestinal  
45 epithelial cells and compromise the intestinal barrier <sup>4,5</sup>. The use of nutritional and dietary  
46 strategies including amino acids, carbohydrates, polyphenols, prebiotics and probiotics, has been  
47 proposed by several studies to alleviate exercise-induced gastrointestinal symptoms <sup>6,7</sup>. For  
48 example, cocoa is a rich source of antioxidant and anti-inflammatory compounds with prebiotic  
49 effects on intestinal microbiota, and has proven beneficial effects related to exercise practice <sup>8,9</sup>.  
50 The more relevant group of polyphenolic compounds present in cocoa are the flavonoids, to which  
51 many health benefits have been attributed such as improvements in blood pressure and in platelet  
52 and vascular functions, and enhancement of antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activity and insulin  
53 resistance <sup>10,11</sup>. In relation to the gut microbiota, cocoa flavonoids have been shown to increase  
54 the presence of *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* genera, which can improve barrier function and  
55 reduce symptoms and possible infections in athletes experiencing gastrointestinal barrier  
56 disorders <sup>8,9</sup>. Changes in the gut microbiota induce changes in microbial metabolites, which  
57 become integrated into the human blood metabolome and may also be partly responsible for the  
58 observed health benefits of cocoa <sup>12</sup>.

59 The effects of chronic cocoa intake and its synergetic effect with exercise training has yielded  
60 controversial results <sup>13,14</sup>. In part, this can be attributable to the lack of characterization of the  
61 product administered, failure to standardize the physical activity performed, differences in the  
62 level of physical activity of the participating athletes, and lack of approximation to real-life  
63 situations. We designed a randomized placebo-controlled study to assess the potential benefits  
64 of cocoa in endurance athletes using a cocoa supplement with a known nutritional and polyphenol  
65 content <sup>15</sup>. We selected a study population based on their high level of physical activity, and we  
66 administered the supplement during their controlled training period with no dietary restrictions.  
67 We assessed the health and performance effects of chronic cocoa consumption using a  
68 laboratory-based controlled exercise protocol. Untargeted and targeted metabolomics  
69 approaches were combined with 16S rRNA sequencing to explore the effect of chronic cocoa  
70 consumption during training on the gastrointestinal microbiota, and on the blood and fecal  
71 metabolome and the gut microbiota. This is the first study to our knowledge to examine the effect  
72 of chronic cocoa consumption on metabolomic and microbiota parameters in athletes and the  
73 results should provide a valuable resource for further research on the effects of cocoa as a  
74 supplementary diet complement.

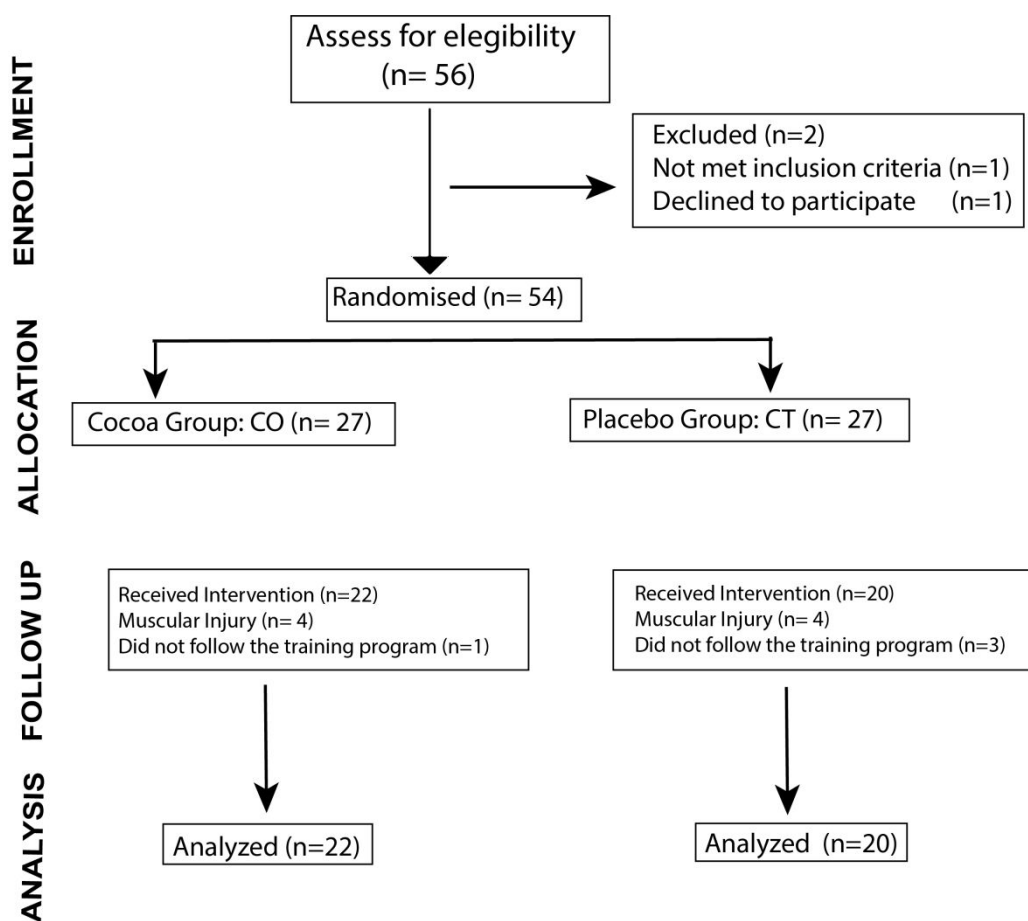
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76

77 **Materials and Methods**

## 78 Experimental design

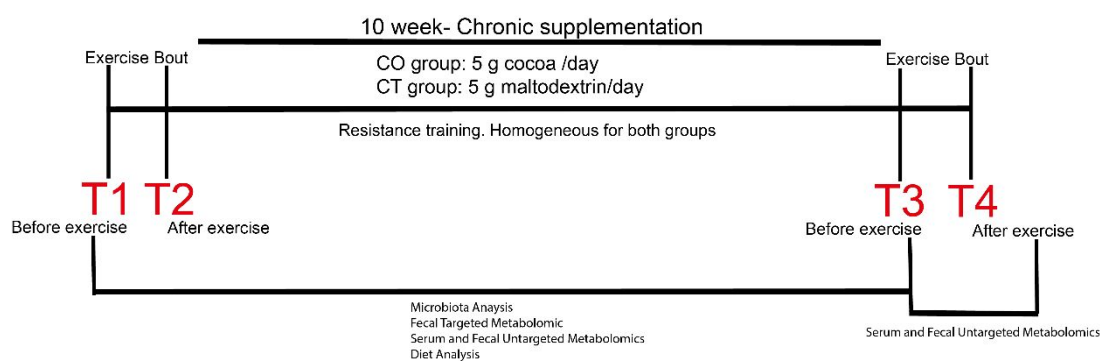
79 We designed a randomized, parallel-group, placebo-controlled trial. Participants were recruited  
 80 from several cross-country athletics teams in Madrid. Fifty-four male athletes met the following  
 81 inclusion criteria: 18–50 years of age, with a high physical condition (oxygen uptake [VO<sub>2</sub>] ≥55  
 82 mL/kg/min), body mass index 18–25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, and treadmill experience. Exclusion criteria included  
 83 smoking, being vegetarian or vegan, on chronic medication, gastrointestinal surgery, or any  
 84 diagnosed disease, antibiotics intake during 3 months prior to the study, nutritional or ergogenic  
 85 supplements, probiotics and prebiotics. Subjects were randomized to two equal-size treatment  
 86 groups using the RAND function of Excel (Microsoft Office Excel, 2019). The cocoa group (CO; n  
 87 = 22) received 5 g of fat-reduced cocoa containing 425 mg of flavonols and the control group (CT;  
 88 n = 20) received 5 g of maltodextrin (placebo) (Figure 1). The schedule was 10 weeks.



90 Figure 1: CONSORT diagram showing the flow of participants through each stage of the  
 91 randomized trial.

92 Supplements were provided in identical single-dose paper sachets to dissolve in semi-skimmed  
 93 milk, which does not affect the bioavailability of cocoa flavonoids <sup>16</sup>. Maltodextrin is used as a  
 94 carbohydrate supplement by athletes; however, a 5-g bolus provides insufficient carbohydrate or

95 energy to impact daily macronutrient and energy intake <sup>17</sup>. Sachets were dispensed by postal  
 96 mail and researchers that collected and analyzed the data were blinded. Supplements were  
 97 consumed daily during breakfast. During the 10-week intervention period, participants  
 98 were contacted by telephone every week to check that they were taking the corresponding  
 99 supplement. All measurements were recorded before and after the 10-week endurance training  
 100 intervention. The Ethics Committee for Clinical Research of the Community of Madrid Spain  
 101 approved the study (Ref: 07/694487.9/17), and all procedures were in accordance with the 1964  
 102 Helsinki Declaration and its later amendments. Written informed consent was obtained from all  
 103 the volunteers. The study was registered in the US National Library of Medicine  
 104 (<http://www.clinicaltrials.gov>) with the accession number NCT04444388. A schematic of the study  
 105 design is shown in Figure 2.



106

107 Figure 2: Schematic diagram of the overall study design and analyses.

108 Dietary habits

109 Dietary habits of participants were recorded at the beginning and after the 10-week intervention  
 110 period. Dietary pattern characterization was performed using a validated food frequency  
 111 questionnaire with 93 food items<sup>18</sup>, which was analyzed using DietSource software 3.0 (Novartis,  
 112 Barcelona, Spain) to obtain the total energy ingested (in kcals) of fat, carbohydrates, fiber and  
 113 proteins.

114 Exercise test

115 The exercise protocol was carried out at the beginning of the study and after 10-weeks of  
 116 cocoa/placebo supplementation. Participants started with a standardized warm-up of 10 minutes  
 117 of continuous treadmill running (H/P/Cosmos Venus, Nussdorf-Traunstein, Germany) at 60% of  
 118 their maximum heart rate. After the warm-up, they ran with a slope of 1% at a speed of 10 km/h,  
 119 with increments of 0.3 km/h every 30 s until volitional exhaustion. Participants were verbally  
 120 encouraged to give their maximal effort, particularly at the end of test. During the test oxygen  
 121 consumption values were monitored and the following variables were determined: oxygen uptake  
 122 ( $\text{VO}_2$ ), pulmonary ventilation, ventilatory equivalents for oxygen and carbon dioxide, and end-tidal  
 123 partial pressure of oxygen and carbon dioxide. These variables were used to calculate the  
 124 absolute maximal oxygen consumption ( $\text{VO}_{2\text{maxABS}}$ ), relative maximum oxygen consumption

125 ( $VO_{2\max\text{REL}}$ ), maximal aerobic speed (MAS), first ventilator threshold and second  
126 ventilator threshold. After the exercise bout, the participants performed a 1-km run on an outdoor  
127 athletics track at their maximum speed.

#### 128 Training sessions

129 The participants were committed to follow a 10-week training intervention period with a polarized  
130 endurance-training intensity distribution model based on the classical 3-phase model of Skinner  
131 and McLellan<sup>19</sup>. The distribution involves significant proportions of low-intensity (Zone 1) and  
132 high-intensity (Zone 3) training, and only a small proportion of moderate-intensity (Zone 2)  
133 training. The time expended in each training zone was as follows 75–80% in Zone 1, ~5% in Zone  
134 2, and 15–20% in Zone 3<sup>20</sup>. The total training load was approximately 43%-7%-50% for Zone 1;  
135 Zone 2 and Zone 3, respectively<sup>21</sup>. Participants trained in 5 to 6 sessions per week.

#### 136 Gastrointestinal symptoms

137 Assessment of gastrointestinal symptoms was performed before and after the exercise bout (T1  
138 and T2, respectively, Figure 2) using the questionnaire described by Pfeiffer et al.<sup>22</sup>. The  
139 questionnaire assesses upper abdominal problems (reflux/acidity, belching, bloating, stomach  
140 cramps/pain, nausea, vomiting), lower abdominal problems (intestinal or lower abdominal  
141 cramps, flatulence, urge to defecate, pain/punctures on one side, loose stools, diarrhea, intestinal  
142 bleeding) and systemic problems (dizziness, headache, muscle cramps, need to urinate). Each  
143 question was assessed on a 10-point scale, ranging from 0 or “no problem at all” to 9 or “the  
144 worst it has ever been.”

#### 145 Serum, plasma and stool sample collection

146 Venous blood samples were collected in vacutainer tubes immediately before and within 15  
147 minutes of finishing the exercise tests (T1, T2, T3 and T4, Figure 2). Serum was obtained after  
148 clotting and centrifugation at  $760 \times g$  for 10 min at 4°C; aliquots were immediately frozen and  
149 stored at -80°C. Plasma samples were obtained in EDTA vacutainers tubes and centrifuged as  
150 before. Stool samples were collected just before and just after the exercise session. Participants  
151 were provided with the Fe-col stool collection container device (Alpha Laboratories, Hampshire,  
152 UK), an insulated bag and ice blocks to preserve the samples until they were delivered to the  
153 laboratory. All post exercise, fecal samples were collected within four hours of the exercise bout  
154 to avoid diet interference. On arrival at the laboratory, stool samples were maintained at 80°C  
155 until they were processed. Stool samples for metabolomics analysis were lyophilized using the  
156 TFD5503 Bench Top freeze-dryer (ilShin Biobase, Ede, The Netherlands) and stored at -80°C.

#### 157 Intestinal Fatty Acid-Binding Protein and lipopolysaccharide determinations

158 Plasma Intestinal Fatty Acid Binding Protein (I-FABP) abundance was determined with the I-  
159 FABP Human ELISA kit (Hycult Biotech, Uden, The Netherlands) using a 1:2 dilution. Serum  
160 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) quantification of endotoxin units was measured using the Limulus

161 amebocyte lysate (LAL) chromogenic assay (Pierce® LAL Chromogenic Endotoxin Quantitation  
162 Kit, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) using a 1:25 serum dilution. All material used in LPS  
163 analysis (microtubes, tips, water and plates) was endotoxin-free.

164 Fecal bacterial DNA extraction, sequencing and bioinformatics

165 Fecal bacterial DNA was extracted using the E.Z.N.A. Kit (Omega-Biotek, Norcross, GA) and a  
166 bead homogenizer (Bullet Blender Storm, Next Advance, Averill Park, NY). A DNA fragment  
167 comprising the V3 and V4 hypervariable regions of the 16s rRNA gene was amplified for  
168 sequencing analysis<sup>23</sup>. Amplicons were sequenced on the MiSeq Illumina platform (Illumina, San  
169 Diego, CA). Sequence results were analyzed using Quantitative Insights into Microbial Ecology  
170 (QIIME2) v2019.7<sup>24</sup> and were processed with DADA2 for quality control<sup>25</sup>. The classify-sklearn  
171 method was used for taxonomy assignment<sup>26</sup> with an in-house customized classifier based on  
172 the SILVA reference database<sup>27,28</sup>. To construct the customized reference database, we  
173 extracted the sequences according to our primers (forward primer sequence:  
174 CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG, reverse primer sequence: GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC) from  
175 the SILVA 132 database clustered at 99% identity<sup>29</sup>. We trained the classifier using our tailored  
176 reference reads and SILVA 7-levels for reference taxonomy, including the species probability  
177 (weights) likely to be observed for human stool (downloaded from  
178 <https://github.com/BenKaehler/readytowear>)<sup>29,30</sup>.

179 Chemicals and reagents for untargeted metabolomics

180 All reference compounds were from Sigma Chemical Co. (Saint Quentin Fallavier, France). The  
181 standard mixtures used for the external calibration of the mass spectrometry (MS) instrument  
182 (Calmix-positive, for the positive ion mode, consisting of caffeine, L-methionyl-arginyl-  
183 phenylalanyl-alanine acetate; and Ultramark 1621, and Calmix-negative, for the negative ion  
184 mode, consisting of the same mixture plus sodium dodecyl sulfate and sodium taurocholate) were  
185 from ThermoFisher Scientific (Courtaboeuf, France). Acetonitrile was from SDS (Peypin, France),  
186 formic acid from Merck (Briare-le-Canal, France), methanol from VWR Chemicals (Fontenay-  
187 sous-Bois, France) and deionized water from Biosolve chemicals (Dieuse, France).

188 Untargeted metabolomics analysis by liquid chromatography coupled to high-resolution mass  
189 spectrometry

190 Metabolite extraction from stool and serum samples was performed essentially as described  
191 before<sup>31</sup>. Briefly, lyophilized stool samples (2 × 10 mg) were first resuspended in 150 µL of pure  
192 water, vortexed and then 600 µL of methanol were added. Samples were subjected to bead-  
193 assisted mechanical lysis and left on ice for 90 min. In parallel, serum samples (50 µL) were mixed  
194 with 200 µL of methanol and incubated on ice for 90 min to allow complete protein precipitation.  
195 After centrifugation, supernatants of both fecal and serum samples were removed and evaporated  
196 to dryness under a nitrogen stream at 30°C. Dried aliquots were resuspended in either 100 µL of  
197 water/acetonitrile (95:5, v/v) with 0.1% formic acid for C18 analysis or 100 µL of a mixture of 10



198 mM ammonium carbonate buffer (pH 10.5) and acetonitrile (40:60, v/v) for HILIC analysis (see  
199 below). A volume of 95  $\mu$ L of the supernatant obtained upon centrifugation was transferred to 0.2  
200 mL-vials and mixed with 5  $\mu$ L of a mixture of external standards ( $^{13}$ C-glucose,  $^{15}$ N-aspartate, ethyl  
201 malonic acid, amiloride, prednisone, metformin, atropine sulfate, colchicine, imipramine) to check  
202 for consistency of analytical results in terms of signal and retention time stability. Quality control  
203 samples were obtained by mixing aliquots of each sample and were injected every 5 to 10  
204 samples throughout the analysis for further data normalization/standardization purposes.  
205 Untargeted metabolomics experiments were performed by liquid chromatography coupled to  
206 high-resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS) using a combination of two complementary  
207 chromatographic methods <sup>32,33</sup>, consisting of reversed-phase chromatography (C18  
208 chromatographic column) and hydrophilic interaction chromatography (HILIC) for the analysis of  
209 hydrophobic and polar metabolites, respectively. LC-HRMS experiments were conducted on an  
210 Ultimate 3000 chromatographic system (ThermoFisher Scientific) coupled to an Exactive mass  
211 spectrometer from ThermoFisher fitted with an electrospray ionization (ESI) source and operating  
212 in the positive and negative ion modes for C18 and HILIC separations, respectively (designated  
213 as C18(+)) and HILIC(-), respectively). LC-HRMS conditions have been previously described  
214 before by us <sup>31,32</sup>.

#### 215 Metabolomic data processing and metabolite annotation

216 Metabolomic data processing and metabolite annotation were performed essentially as described  
217 <sup>31</sup>. Data processing and statistical analysis were achieved using the Workflow4Metabolomics  
218 (W4M) platform <sup>34</sup>. Annotation of metabolite features was first performed using our spectral  
219 database according to accurate measured masses and chromatographic retention times <sup>32</sup>.  
220 Verification of metabolite annotation was then conducted by performing additional LC-MS/MS  
221 experiments using a Dionex Ultimate chromatographic system combined with a Q-Exactive mass  
222 spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific) operated under non-resonant collision-induced  
223 dissociation conditions. Obtained MS/MS spectra were both manually and automatically matched  
224 using MS-DIAL software <sup>35</sup> to the spectra included in our in-house spectral database, as described  
225 <sup>36</sup>. To be identified, ions had to match at least 2 orthogonal criteria (accurately measured mass,  
226 isotopic pattern, MS/MS spectrum and retention time) to those of an authentic chemical standard  
227 analyzed under the same analytical conditions, as proposed by the Metabolomics Standards  
228 Initiative <sup>37</sup>.

#### 229 Sample preparation and polyphenol metabolite targeted metabolomic analysis

230 Hexane, acetone, formic acid, acetonitrile, methanol solvents and reagents were all from J.T.  
231 Baker (JT Baker Chemical Company, Phillipsburg, NJ). Pure chemical standards were obtained  
232 from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MI). One-hundred milligrams of freeze-dried stool samples were  
233 homogenized in an IKA-Ultraturrax T10 basic homogenizer (IKA, Wilmington, NC, USA) at 24,000  
234 rpm with a mixture of 1 mL of acetone/water/ hydrochloric acid (70:29.9:0.1) plus 0.1 mL of 4%  
235 phosphoric acid and 0.05 mL of 1% ascorbic acid on an ice bath and then sonicated for 10 min in

236 an ultrasonic ice bath. Samples were centrifuged at  $14,000 \times g$  10 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  and supernatants  
237 were recovered and dried in a vacuum concentrator (Labconco™ Centrivap™, ThermoFisher  
238 Scientific), and reconstituted in 1 mL of water that was extracted twice through vigorous vortexing  
239 with 0.5 mL ethyl acetate. Both supernatants were pooled and dried in the vacuum concentrator,  
240 reconstituted in 0.2 mL of methanol/water/12.1 M hydrochloric acid (50:49.9:0.1), and 2  $\mu\text{L}$  was  
241 injected for analysis. Analyses were carried out by ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography  
242 (Waters Corp., Milford, MA) coupled to tandem photodiode array detection and an ESI triple-  
243 quadrupole mass spectrometer (MS/MS) (Xevo TQS, Waters Corp., Wexford, Ireland). The  
244 polyphenolic compounds and metabolites were separated on a Acquity UPLC BEH-C18, 100 mm  
245  $\times$  2.1 mm, 1.7- $\mu\text{m}$  column (Waters Corp., Milford, MA), operated at  $40^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The elution gradient  
246 included two solvents: acidified Milli Q water with 0.2 % acetic acid (Solvent A) and  
247 acetonitrile:acetic acid (98.8:0.2) (Solvent B). Gradient was initial – 0.1% B, 1.5 min 0.1% B; 11.17  
248 min gradient to 16.3% B; 11.50 min gradient to 18.4% B; isocratic to 14 min, B at a flow rate of  
249 350  $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ . Acquisition was performed in the negative multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode.  
250 ESI operating conditions for the negative ionization mode were as follows: capillary voltage 2 kV,  
251 desolvation temperature  $400^{\circ}\text{C}$ , source temperature  $150^{\circ}\text{C}$ , desolvation gas flow 800 L/h. The  
252 liquid chromatography and triple quadrupole control and data processing was done using  
253 MassLinx v. 4.1 Software (Waters Corp.).

#### 254 Statistical analysis

255 Data are presented as the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. Data normality was analyzed using the  
256 Shapiro–Wilk test before analysis. Generally, data that met the assumption of normality were  
257 analyzed using two-tailed, paired-samples t-tests. For the remaining data, the non-parametric  
258 Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used. For metabolomics data, multivariate analyses were used to  
259 identify molecular features that discriminate metabolite differences in athletes before and after  
260 the supplementation, and in athletes before and after the supplementation after and before a bout  
261 of vigorous exercise. Principal component analysis (PCA) and partial least squares-discriminant  
262 analysis (PLS-DA) were performed using the W4M and Metaboanalyst 5.0 platform <sup>38</sup>, and were  
263 used to identify features with discriminative power and to maximize variation between the two  
264 groups (before and after the test). Also, permutation tests (200 cycles) were conducted to assess  
265 the robustness of the PLS-DA model when using a small sample size <sup>39</sup>. Univariate data analyses  
266 included a Wilcoxon signed-rank test, corrected for multiple testing by the Benjamini-Hochberg  
267 procedure, to assess the statistical significance of each compound. The generation of the  
268 clustered heatmap was performed using normalizing data, Pearson distance metric, and  
269 hierarchical clustering method. To detect changes in microbiota, beta-diversity analyses were  
270 assessed by permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) and alpha-diversity  
271 was compared by the Kruskal-Wallis test. Inter-group differences in gut microbiota were  
272 compared using the analysis of composition of microbiomes (ANCOM) <sup>40</sup> whereas longitudinal  
273 analyses (time  $\times$  group) were compared using the q2-longitudinal method <sup>41</sup>. For the longitudinal  
274 comparison, we first performed a feature volatility analysis to explore the data. This type of

275 analysis uses a supervised learning regressor to predict a continuous variable (time in this case)  
 276 as a function of feature composition (bacterial taxa). Based on volatility analysis, some bacterial  
 277 taxa were selected for subsequent analyses according to their importance and cumulative  
 278 average change. Selected taxa were analyzed using a linear mixed-effects model to detect  
 279 significant bacterial taxa. Cumulative sum scaling normalization was used. Diet macronutrients  
 280 data, fiber, age and VO<sub>2</sub> were used as covariates in the analyses. All p-values were corrected for  
 281 multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate.

## 282 RESULTS

### 283 Participant characteristics and dietary habits.

284 In total, 42 male athletes completed the intervention study. Participants characteristics including,  
 285 age, weight, body mass index and endurance fitness (VO<sub>2</sub>max obtained in the first exercise test)  
 286 are described in Table 1.

287 Table 1: Participants' characteristics.

288

	CT ( <i>n</i> = 20)	CO ( <i>n</i> = 22)	<i>p</i> -value
Age (y)	36.45 ± 9.03	35.18 ± 7.13	0.615
Weight (kg)	70.16 ± 8.70	71.98 ± 7.90	0.481
Height (cm)	176.20 ± 6.30	177.13 ± 5.84	0.620
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	22.56 ± 2.18	22.92 ± 2.09	0.582
VO <sub>2</sub> max (mL/kg/min)	59.70 ± 5.13	57.72 ± 5.10	0.217

289 BMI: Body mass index; VO<sub>2</sub>max: maximal oxygen consumption. CT, control group; CO, cocoa  
 290 group.

291 The dietary habits of the participants were determined at baseline and after 10 weeks of  
 292 supplementation. No differences were observed between groups initially or after 10 weeks, and  
 293 no significant changes were found in either group over time (Table 2).

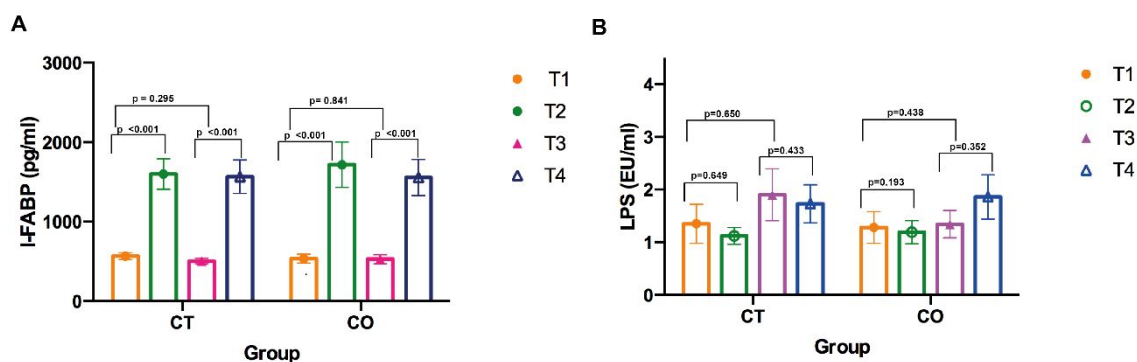
294 Table 2: Energy, macronutrients and fiber intake at baseline and after 10 weeks of intervention.

	CT T1	CT T3	<i>p</i>	CO T1	CO T3	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i> *	<i>p</i> **
Energy (kcal)	2496.21 ± 1515.72	2062.26 ± 608.86	0.117	2093.38 ± 609.34	2162.39 ± 589.89	0.669	0.241	0.600
Carbohydrates (g/1000 kcal)	113.94 ± 20.97	111.47 ± 24.71	0.635	157.72 ± 22.13	103.43 ± 28.63	0.290	0.394	0.348
Proteins (g/1000 kcal)	68.97 ± 9.43	49.49 ± 9.33	0.835	51.39 ± 11.14	49.76 ± 10.55	0.539	0.460	0.931
Lipids (g/1000 kcal)	38.42 ± 8.38	37.93 ± 9.84	0.635	38.70 ± 6.58	38.60 ± 11.57	0.964	0.915	0.846
Fiber (g/1000 kcal)	13.70 ± 4.05	14.09 ± 4.25	0.609	12.44 ± 4.73	13.21 ± 5.62	0.278	0.351	0.584

295 *p* = intragroup comparison between T1 and T3; *p*\* = intergroup comparison at T1; *p*\*\* = intergroup  
 296 comparison at T3.

297 **Effect of coca supplementation on the plasma levels of intestinal fatty acid-binding protein**  
 298 **and lipopolysaccharide after a bout of exercise.**

299 The intestinal ischemia biomarker I-FABP has been reported to increase in abundance after a  
 300 bout of strenuous exercise<sup>42</sup>. To determine whether the strenuous exercise session was sufficient  
 301 to increase intestinal permeability, we measured the plasma I-FABP before and after the exercise  
 302 session at baseline and after 10 weeks of cocoa supplementation. We found that I-FABP levels  
 303 were significantly elevated (up to 3-fold) after the exercise session, both at baseline and after 10  
 304 weeks of supplementation (Figure 3A), indicating that the exercise bout triggered a change in  
 305 intestinal permeability. However, cocoa or placebo supplementation had no effect on I-FABP  
 306 levels (Figure 3A). Increased intestinal permeability can lead to the release of LPS from gram-  
 307 negative bacteria to the systemic circulation, which might trigger low-grade inflammation. To  
 308 determine whether increased intestinal permeability was accompanied by an increase in  
 309 circulatory LPS, we determined its serum levels using a chromogenic assay. Results showed that  
 310 the increase in intestinal permeability was not accompanied by an increase in blood LPS levels,  
 311 either at baseline or after 10 weeks of supplementation, and no effect of cocoa on LPS levels was  
 312 observed after an acute exercise session (T3 vs T4) or after 10 weeks of supplementation (T1 vs  
 313 T3) (Figure 3B).



314

315 Figure 3: A) I-FABP plasma levels before and after a bout of vigorous exercise initially (T1, T2)  
 316 and after 10 weeks of supplementation (T3, T4). B) LPS serum levels before and after a bout of  
 317 vigorous exercise initially (T1, T2) and after 10 weeks of supplementation (T3, T4).

318 **Gastrointestinal symptoms**

319 Data on gastrointestinal symptoms were collected through questionnaires before and after 10  
 320 weeks of supplementation, and results were analyzed according to Pfeiffer et al.<sup>22</sup>. Symptoms  
 321 were grouped as explained in upper/lower abdominal problems and as systemic problems. No  
 322 differences were found between the groups before or after 10 weeks of supplementation,  
 323 indicating that cocoa supplementation exerted no effects on gastrointestinal symptoms.

324

325

326

327

328 Table 3: Gastrointestinal symptoms before and after 10 weeks of supplementation.

	CT T1	CT T3	<i>p</i> -value	CO T1	CO T3	<i>p</i> -value
Upper abdominal problems	0.82 ± 0.72	0.93 ± 0.72	0.322	0.77 ± 40.76	0.87 ± 0.78	0.242
Lower abdominal problems	1.51 ± 0.95	1.67 ± 0.99	0.319	1.62 ± 1.31	1.47 ± 0.95	0.536
Systemic problems	0.95 ± 0.57	0.93 ± 0.97	0.914	0.47 ± 0.52	0.52 ± 0.51	0.624

329 **Effect of chronic cocoa supplementation on gut microbiota**

330 Analysis of the gut microbiota after 10 weeks of cocoa supplementation (between T1 and T3)  
 331 revealed no changes in the structure of the bacterial community.  $\beta$ -diversity analyses (Bray-Curtis  
 332 distance, Jaccard index and weighted and unweighted Unifrac) revealed no change in the  
 333 analyzed parameters (PERMANOVA  $p > 0.05$ ) (Figure S1). Likewise,  $\alpha$ -diversity (observed  
 334 operational taxonomic unit [OTU], Shannon index and Faith's index) analyses revealed no  
 335 significant changes in the microbiota after supplementation (Figure S2). Volcano plots of ANCOM  
 336 analysis did not reveal any difference in OTU abundance. To evaluate longitudinal changes in  
 337 bacterial taxa, we used an exploratory analysis of bacterial taxa volatility—an approach that uses  
 338 machine-learning regressors to establish the important bacterial taxa that predict the T3 state.  
 339 The accuracy obtained for our model was significant (Mean squared error = 1.4475;  $R^2 = 0.6228$ ;  
 340  $p = 0.0001$ ). The bacterial taxa and those with higher cumulative average change between T1  
 341 and T3 identified by the volatility plot were used to test whether the relative abundances of these  
 342 features were impacted by cocoa supplementation using a linear mixed effects (LME) analysis,  
 343 in which time and treatment were included as forced predictors (fixed effect) and subject identifier  
 344 as a random effect. Only four bacterial taxa were identified as significantly and differentially  
 345 abundant between treatments in T3 (Table 4).

346 Table 4. LME model parameters calculated to measure changes over time in the cocoa group in  
 347 comparison with the control group.

Bacterial taxa	$\beta$ -coefficient	SE	Z-score	<i>p</i>	Taxa confidence
<i>D_5__Lachnospira;D_6__gut metagenome</i>	0.001	0.000	6.615	0.022	0.887
<i>D_5__Agathobacter;D_6__uncultured organism</i>	-0.002	0.001	-2.866	0.004	0.992
<i>D_5__Blautia;D_6__Blautia sp. Marseille-P3087</i>	0.000	0.000	5.694	0.000	0.936

348 Parameter estimate ( $\beta$ -coefficient), standard error (SE), Z-score, and *p*-value for each bacterial  
 349 taxa. A positive  $\beta$ -coefficient or Z-score indicates a higher relative abundance in T3

350

351 **Effect of chronic cocoa supplementation on the polyphenol profile in fecal samples**  
 352 **(targeted approach).**

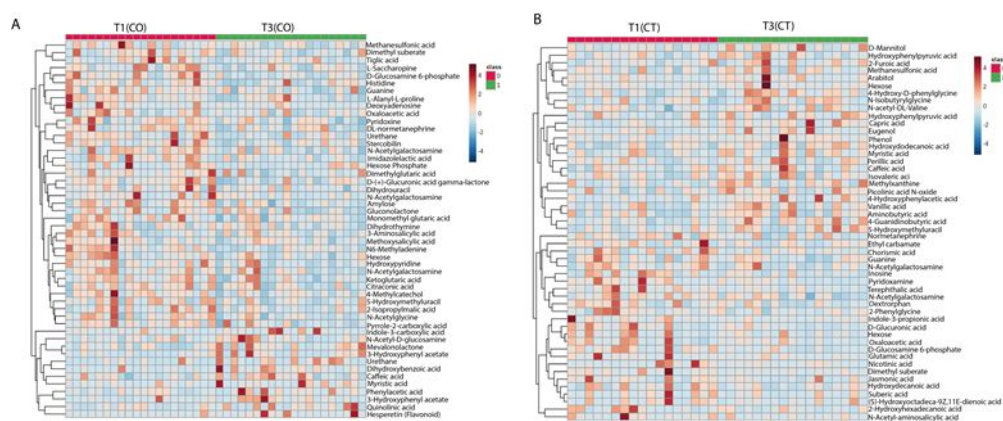
353 The daily intake of 425 mg of cocoa polyphenols during 10 weeks without any dietary restrictions  
 354 did not substantially change the profile of polyphenols and their derived metabolites in feces, with  
 355 no differences observed between the CT and CO groups (T1 vs T3) for most of the compounds  
 356 (Supplementary Table S1). Only 4-hydroxy-5-(phenyl)-valeric acid and O-methyl-epicatechin-O-  
 357 glucuronide were significantly different (Supplementary Table S1).

358 **Effect of chronic cocoa supplementation on the fecal metabolome (untargeted**  
 359 **metabolomics approach).**

360 LC-HRMS with a combination of two complementary chromatographic methods, reversed-phase  
 361 chromatography C18 (+) and HILIC (-), was used to analyze the effect of the 10 weeks-  
 362 consumption of cocoa on the fecal metabolome. Under these conditions, 10,866 and 6795  
 363 metabolite features were detected, of which 191 metabolite features from the C18(+) and 330  
 364 from the HILIC(-) analysis matched the accurate masses and retention times of the metabolites  
 365 included in our chemical database, yielding 411 unique annotated metabolites in total. The score  
 366 plot of the PCA and PLS-DA did not reveal any distinctions between T1 (CO) and T3 (CO), and  
 367 T1 (CT) and T3 (CT) groups (data not shown).

368 Clustered heatmap analysis of the whole set of annotated fecal metabolites (top 50 according to  
 369 ANOVA *p*-values) highlighted poorly consistent metabolic profiles across the population of  
 370 athletes when studying the effect of cocoa consumption: T1 (CO) and T3 (CO); T1 (CT) and T3  
 371 (CT) using HILIC (-) and C18 (+) analyses (Figure 4 and Figure S3). Also, no significant  
 372 metabolites were found when considering *p*-values after Benjamin-Hochberg correction. These  
 373 results might reflect highly variable inter-individual effects of cocoa consumption and/or the  
 374 difficulty in obtaining homogenous and representative fecal samples. Overall, these data indicate  
 375 that cocoa does not exert any robust changes in the fecal metabolome after chronic consumption  
 376 (10 weeks).

377



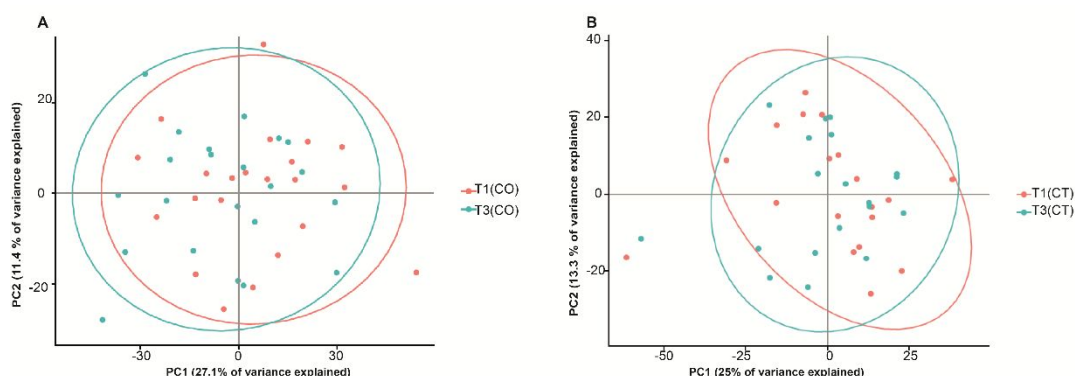
13

378 Figure 4: Hierarchical clustering heatmaps showing the top 50 fecal metabolites (according to  
379 ANOVA  $p$ -values) obtained from HILIC (-) LC HRMS analysis in T1 (before dietary intervention)  
380 and T3 (after dietary intervention) and in A) cocoa (CO) and B) maltodextrin (CT) groups.

381

### 382 **Effect of cocoa on the serum metabolome after 10 weeks of chronic consumption.**

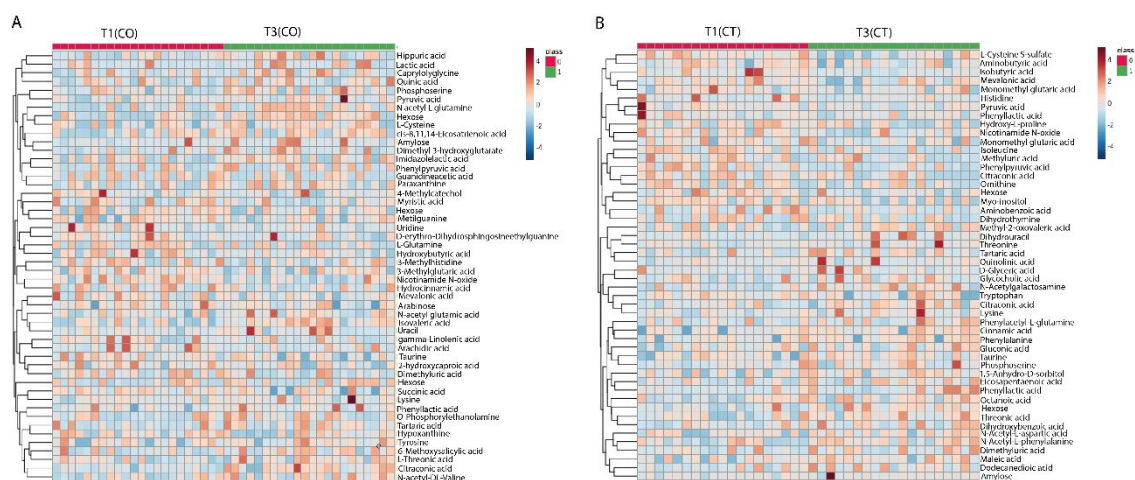
383 An experimental set-up similar to that described for untargeted fecal metabolomics was used for  
384 the analysis of the serum metabolome. A total of 3195 and 1600 metabolites features using C18  
385 (+) and HILIC (-), respectively, were found, of which 98 and 163, respectively, matched the  
386 accurate masses and retention times of the metabolites included in our chemical database,  
387 yielding 238 unique annotated metabolites in total. Differences between the two groups (CT and  
388 CO) after 10 weeks of intervention study was first investigated using PCA (Figure 5). The serum  
389 metabolome profiles of athletes that consumed or not cocoa for 10 weeks remained almost  
390 unchanged (Figure 5A), indicating that cocoa did not exert any significant effects on the serum  
391 metabolome. Also, and as expected, no differences between the serum metabolome of CT groups  
392 were observed before and after the supplementation with maltodextrin (Figure 5B).



393

394 Figure 5: Principal component analysis score plots obtained from HILIC (-) fingerprints of  
395 annotated metabolites at T1 [before consumption of cocoa (CO) and maltodextrin CT]] and T3  
396 [after chronic consumption of cocoa (CO and maltodextrin (CT)].

397 When the univariate clustered analysis heat map was generated using the whole set of annotated  
398 metabolites using HILIC (-) and C18 LC HRMS in serum samples (Figure 6, and Figure S4) (top  
399 50 ones by ANOVA  $p$ -values), no significant and consistent metabolite pattern was observed  
400 between the groups analyzed [T1 (CO) and T3 (CO), T1 (CT) and T3 (CT)]. These data indicate  
401 that chronic cocoa consumption does not exert important effects on the serum metabolome.

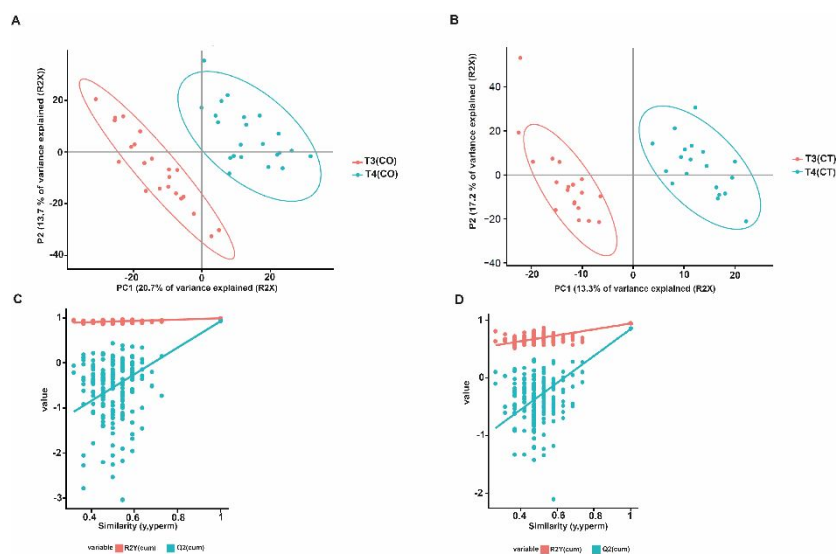


402  
 403 Figure 6: Hierarchical clustering heat map analyses representing 50 serum metabolite features  
 404 obtained from HILIC (-) LC HRMS analysis at T1 (before dietary intervention) and T3 (after dietary  
 405 intervention) in A) cocoa group (CO) and B) maltodextrin group (CT).

406

#### 407 Effect of chronic consumption of cocoa on the serum metabolome after a bout of exercise.

408 To assess the effects of chronic consumption of cocoa on athletic performance, athletes were  
 409 subjected to a bout of intense exercise and the serum metabolome was analyzed from samples  
 410 before and after the bout of intense exercise [T3 and T4 (CO) and T3 and T4 (CT)] by untargeted  
 411 metabolomics. Differences in the serum metabolomes were assessed using supervised PLS-DA.  
 412 As shown in Figures 7A,B, samples before a session of acute exercise (T3) could be distinguished  
 413 from those after a session of acute exercise (T4) in both cocoa and control groups. The cross-  
 414 validation parameters R2Y and Q2 indicated the variance and the predictive ability of the model.  
 415 Permutation tests (200 times) were conducted to assess the robustness of the PLS-DA model  
 416 when using a small sample size (Figure 7 C,D).

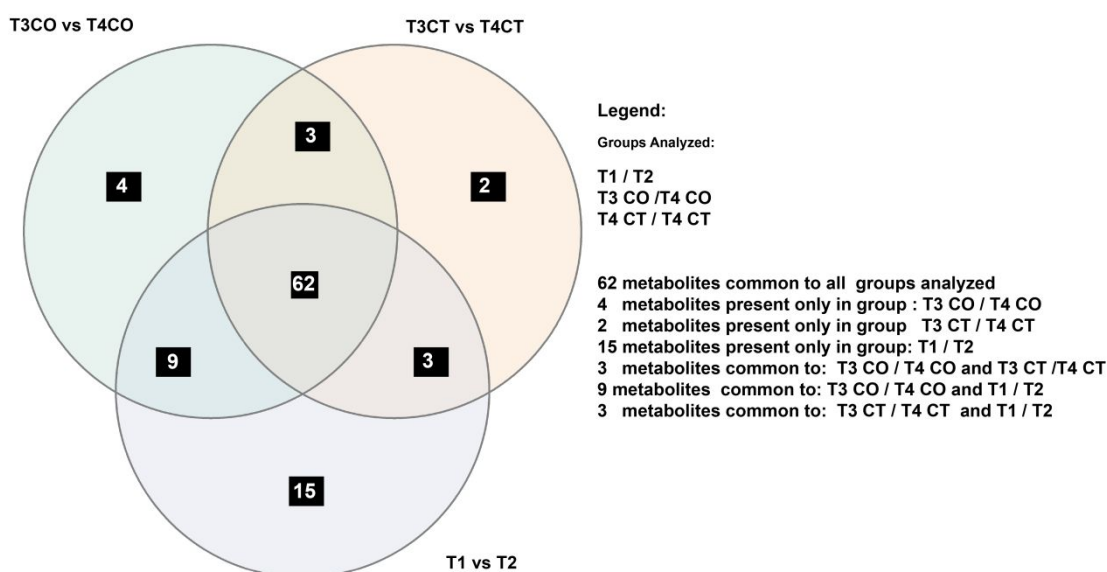


417



418 Figure 7: Partial least square discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) of the metabolites at T3 [(before  
 419 exercise and after 10 weeks of supplementation: cocoa (CO) and Maltodextrin (CT) and T4 (after  
 420 exercise and after 10 weeks' supplementation)]. The results are presented as principal  
 421 component score plots, with each point in the plot representing an individual sample. (A,B). PLS-  
 422 DA score plots obtained from LC-HRMS data in negative mode HILIC. (C,D). Statistical validation  
 423 of the PLS-DA model (A,B), showing R2Y (pink dots) and the Q2 (light-blue dots) values from the  
 424 permuted analysis (bottom left) lower than the corresponding original values (top right).

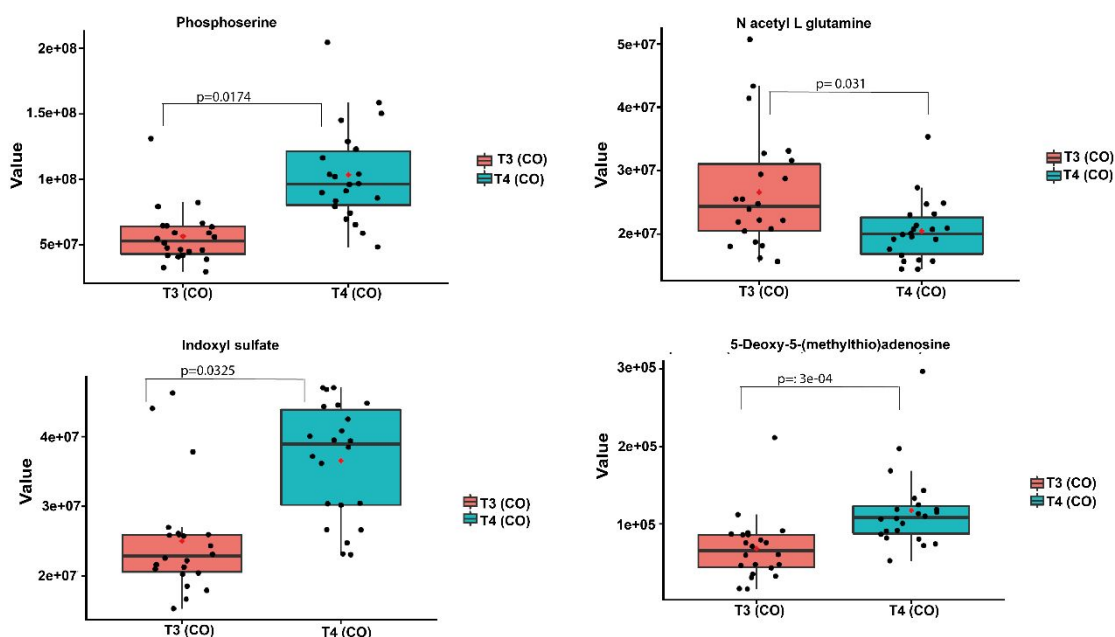
425 As we reported previously <sup>31</sup> a bout of intense exercise produced changes in the serum  
 426 metabolome affecting several metabolic pathways. To distinguish the true effect of cocoa from  
 427 the metabolic changes induced by the intense bout of exercise, we performed three distinct  
 428 pairwise comparisons: i) T1 vs T2, to analyze the effect of a bout of intense exercise <sup>31</sup>; ii) T3 CO  
 429 vs T4 CO, to evaluate the effect of the chronic supplementation of cocoa after a bout of intense  
 430 exercise; and iii) as a control, the serum metabolome of T3 CT / T4 CT groups was analyzed. As  
 431 indicated in Figure 8, sixty-two metabolites were common in the three comparisons made, 4  
 432 metabolites were found exclusively in the T3 CO / T4 CO group, 2 metabolites only in the T3 CT  
 433 / T4 CT group, 15 metabolites in the T1 / T2 group, while 9 metabolites were common to the T1 /  
 434 T2 and T3 CT / T4 CO groups and 3 metabolites were shared by T1 / T2 and T3 CO / T4 CO  
 435 groups (Table S2).



436

437 Figure 8: Venn diagram showing the overlap of serum metabolites significantly distinguishing  
 438 groups of athletes.

439 The performance of an exercise bout had the greatest effect on the metabolome of the athletes,  
 440 modifying a total of 89 metabolites (T1 vs T2, Figure 8). The chronic consumption of cocoa  
 441 produced only four significantly impacted metabolites during the exercise bout, which were  
 442 phosphoserine, N-acetyl-L-glutamine, indoxyl sulfate and 5-deoxy-5-(methylthio)adenosine  
 443 (Figure 9, T3 CO and T4 CO; Table S2).



444

445 Figure 9: Serum metabolites whose peak intensity was significant different between T3 CO and  
 446 T4 CO

447

#### 448 Discussion

449 Intense physical exercise often induces a series of gastrointestinal symptoms, which can  
 450 mediated by gastrointestinal ischemia, leading to mucosal damage, increased permeability and  
 451 bacterial translocation<sup>43</sup>. Some bacteria such as lactobacilli and bifidobacteria have the ability to  
 452 reinforce the intestinal barrier by increasing the abundance of mucins and tight junction proteins  
 453<sup>44</sup>. In addition to the anti-inflammatory, vasodilator and antioxidant properties for which cocoa has  
 454 been used as a supplement in athletes<sup>14,13</sup>, it has also been reported to have prebiotic properties.  
 455 The effects of cocoa on the gut microbiota have been addressed in several *in vitro* and animal  
 456 studies, which have shown that it enhances the presence of bacteria with potential health benefits  
 457 including lactobacilli and bifidobacteria<sup>45,46,47</sup>, and promotes gut barrier integrity by up-regulating  
 458 the levels of the tight junction protein Zonula occludens-1 and the glycoprotein mucin<sup>45</sup>. Studies  
 459 in humans are, however, scarce. For example, 4 weeks cocoa consumption in healthy humans  
 460 was found to increase the abundance of *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* genera and was  
 461 accompanied by a decrease in pathogenic bacteria<sup>9</sup>; in people with obesity, consumption of dark  
 462 chocolate triggered an increase in *Lactobacillus* spp<sup>48</sup>. Owing to its prebiotic properties, cocoa  
 463 supplementation of diets in athletes performing intense exercise might be a good option to  
 464 alleviate exercise-associated gastrointestinal symptoms. In addition, the metabolism of cocoa  
 465 polyphenols by gut microbiota yields metabolites with anti-inflammatory and vasodilator effects,  
 466 which could also help alleviate gastrointestinal symptoms<sup>49,50</sup>. For these reasons, the impact of  
 467 cocoa consumption on the microbiota and metabolome of athletes is of great interest<sup>51</sup>.

468 We found that an acute exercise session performed by athletes increased the abundance of I-  
469 FABP; however, cocoa supplementation had no effect on its levels. Likewise, cocoa had no effect  
470 on the gastrointestinal symptoms reported by athletes, or on the gut microbiota. Only three  
471 bacterial taxa were affected by cocoa supplementation: an increase in the *Lachnospira* and  
472 *Blautia* genera and a decrease in the *Agathobacter* genus. All three genera belong to the  
473 *Lachnospiraceae* family, which could indicate that cocoa modulates members of this family of  
474 short-chain fatty acid producers, possibly providing health-promoting effects. In a previous study  
475 in diabetic rats, a diet rich in cocoa was found to increase the proportion of the *Blautia* genus,  
476 which was also associated with increased expression of Zonula occludens-1<sup>45</sup>. Regarding the  
477 *Lachnospira* and *Agathobacter* (previously known as *Eubacterium rectale*), there is no report of  
478 the impact of cocoa on these genera; however, it has been reported that the abundance of the  
479 *Blautia coccoides-Eubacterium rectale* group increases after ingestion of red wine (also rich in  
480 flavan-3-ols)<sup>52</sup>. Some members of the *Lachnospiraceae* family are also related to the metabolism  
481 of aromatic amino acids and, therefore, with the production of the uremic toxins indoxyl sulfate  
482 and p-cresyl sulfate<sup>53</sup>. Indeed, one of the metabolites increased in the serum of athletes  
483 consuming cocoa specifically after a bout of exercise was indoxyl sulfate. This metabolite is  
484 derived from the breakdown of tryptophan by tryptophanase-expressing bacteria, and it has been  
485 associated in one study with the presence of the genus *Blautia*<sup>54</sup>. Indoxyl sulfate is also  
486 associated with the progression of kidney and cardiovascular disease, although the data on its  
487 toxicity in humans, or its effects on healthy people, are not entirely clear<sup>55</sup>. However, it should be  
488 noted that the athlete population has a high protein intake, and so the increase of indoxyl-  
489 sulphate-producing bacteria could have undesirable health effects. Our results also showed a  
490 significant increase in 5'-deoxy-5'-methylthioadenosine (MTA) following cocoa intake. MTA is an  
491 endogenous metabolite derived from polyamine metabolism, to which neuroprotective and  
492 immunosuppressive effects have been attributed<sup>56,57</sup>. Nevertheless, it has not been previously  
493 related to polyphenol consumption, nor have the other metabolites changed in the cocoa group,  
494 N-acetyl-L-glutamine and phosphoserine.

495 The minimal effect of cocoa supplementation on the microbiota of the athletes found here might  
496 be due to several factors. One such factor is the composition of cocoa, which in turn depends on  
497 other variables such as variety, cultivation and processing methods. More specifically, the degree  
498 of polymerization of the procyanidins present in cocoa determines their bioavailability; those  
499 procyanidins with a lower degree of polymerization are more bioavailable, while those with a  
500 higher degree are less well absorbed and reach the colon<sup>58</sup>, but the information about the  
501 procyanidins degree of polymerization (DP) is not usually provided in the studies carried out with  
502 cocoa. In our study, the mean degree of polymerization (mDP) of procyanidins was not high (mDP  
503 = 2.45<sup>15</sup>); nevertheless, we detected significant increases in two metabolites in feces: O-methyl-  
504 epicatechin-O-glucuronide and 4-hydroxy-5-(phenyl)-valeric acid. O-methyl-epicatechin-O-  
505 glucuronide is a phase II metabolite that has been previously described in human plasma<sup>59</sup> and  
506 urine<sup>60</sup>, and is likely excreted in feces *via* the enterohepatic circulation. 4-hydroxy-5-(phenyl)-  
507 valeric acid is a microbial metabolite derived from procyanidins<sup>61,62,63</sup>, and its presence could

508 indicate that part of the cocoa flavanols reach the colon where they are metabolized by the  
509 microbiota. However, the athletes' diet was not restricted in terms of any food containing  
510 polyphenols with the intention of making the study closer to real life. Furthermore, the diet was  
511 rich in fruits and vegetables (data not shown), and this could be another reason why we failed to  
512 observe an effect of cocoa supplementation. In a previous study, we observed that the diet of  
513 sedentary people is less rich in fruits and vegetables than that of physically active people <sup>23</sup>;  
514 accordingly, enhanced polyphenol intake may not be as relevant as in previous studies conducted  
515 in obese or healthy people <sup>48,9</sup>. This is, however, not verifiable, as the diet in the aforementioned  
516 studies was not reported. Another factor that may influence the effect of cocoa on the microbiota  
517 is the food matrix itself <sup>64</sup>. In our study, cocoa was consumed dissolved in milk, and although  
518 some studies indicate that the bioavailability of cocoa is not affected by milk or its proteins <sup>16,65</sup>  
519 other studies report that at least the urinary excretion of cocoa-derived metabolites is lower <sup>66,67</sup>.

520 We found that cocoa consumption for 10 weeks did not change the metabolomic profile of the  
521 plasma and feces of athletes. In agreement with our results, a study by Martin et al. examining  
522 the effects of 4-week cocoa consumption on the plasma metabolite profile of free-living subjects  
523 also found no significant differences <sup>68</sup>. Similarly, we found that cocoa consumption did not  
524 produce evident changes in the metabolic profile when athletes performed an exercise bout. This  
525 is the first study to address this issue.

## 526 **Conclusions**

527 Metabolomic and metagenomic studies are useful procedures to discern the metabolic pathways  
528 underlying the physiological effects associated with food intake and to examine for links between  
529 consumption and health benefits. Although other studies indicated a beneficial effect of cocoa  
530 consumption in athletes, here we found that the 10-week consumption of polyphenol-rich cocoa  
531 had only marginal effects on gut microbiota and plasma and fecal metabolomes in male athletes.  
532 As we move towards personalized nutrition and dietary strategies for specific populations, a  
533 deeper characterization of the foods tested and specific dietary framework will be needed.

534

## 535 **Funding**

536 This research was funded by the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness, Spain, project  
537 AGL2016-77288-R. MT received a short-term fellowship from the European Molecular Biology  
538 Organization (EMBO, STF 8131). JAGM holds a grant from the Ministry of Education, Culture and  
539 Sports Spain (FPU grant 2016/01110).

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