

Impact of caffeine and information relating to caffeine on young adults' liking, healthiness perception and intended use of model energy drinks

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- 1 Impact of caffeine and information relating to caffeine on young adults' liking, healthiness
- 2 perception and intended use of model energy drinks
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16 Abstract

Caffeine is added to energy drinks to boost energy levels however, there is little information 17 on its impact on taste, healthiness image and how it impacts on intended use. The aim of 18 this project was to understand the impact of caffeine and information relating to caffeine on 19 20 young adults' perception of model energy drinks. A consumer panel of 107 young adults was 21 recruited to assess one caffeinated and one caffeine free model drink in blind condition (no 22 information about the presence of caffeine) and informed condition (with appropriate 23 information about whether the drink contained caffeine or not). Energy drinks only 24 contributed 5.2% to the participants' overall caffeine intake behind coffee and tea and their consumption appeared to be irregular rather than habitual. Caffeine in concentrations 25 26 found in energy drinks could be detected by consumers and both caffeine presence and caffeine information had a small but significant detrimental effect on overall liking and liking 27

of the bitterness level. Information relating to caffeine presence significantly decreased
healthiness perception; however, it had a minimum impact on intended use. The most
popular intended use for both the caffeine free and caffeinated model energy drinks was
with alcohol.

32 Key words: sensory; alcohol; bitterness; sweetness

33

34 1. Introduction

There has recently been a lot of interest in the impact of energy drinks on teenagers and young adults (BBC News 2018a, 2018b, 2019), however, very little is known about the impact of the key ingredient of concern (caffeine) on taste and intended use. The aim of this study was to explore the role of caffeine on young adults' perception of model energy drinks.

In the European Union (EU), there is a statutory requirement to provide the warning "High 40 caffeine content. Not recommended for children or pregnant or breast-feeding women" on 41 42 drinks containing more than 150 mg/L (0.77 mmol/L) of caffeine. Recently, the UK Department of Health and Social Care launched a consultation on the ban of energy drink 43 sales to children (Department of Health & Social Care, 2018). The Royal College of 44 45 Paediatrics and Child Health's response has been to support the restriction of energy drink sales to under 16s (Viner, 2018). In the UK, the average caffeine concentration in energy 46 47 drinks has remained fairly constant between 2015 and 2017 at around 310-320 mg/L 48 (Hashem, He, & MacGregor, 2017) with cans typically containing 80 mg of caffeine; however, with the rapid growth in the caffeinated energy drink sales despite the recent 49

introduction of the sugar levy in the United Kingdom (UK) (Mintel, 2019), there has been a 50 51 lot of interest in their potential effects on health (Al-Shaar et al., 2017; Reissig, Strain, & Griffiths, 2009) including reviews of caffeine safety intake levels (EFSA, 2015a; EFSA, 2015b). 52 It is estimated that in the EU, 68% of adolescents consume at least one energy drink per 53 54 year, 12% of whom drinking 4-5 energy drinks per week or more (Zucconi et al., 2013). Energy drinks were found to be the 3rd source of caffeine intake after coffee and tea in 55 56 Dutch students (Mackus, van de Loo, Benson, Scholey, & Verster, 2016). Children and 57 adolescents consuming energy drinks are more likely to report issues such as headaches, sleep problems and depressive symptoms (Department of Health & Social Care, 2018). 58 59 Moreover, although causality cannot be inferred, energy drink consumption has consistently been associated with sensation seeking, risk taking, smoking, substance and alcohol use and 60 may represent a marker for other activities that may negatively affect adolescents (Arria et 61 62 al., 2011; Azagba, Langille, & Asbridge, 2014; Miller, 2008; Scalese et al., 2017) although this 63 is not exclusive to energy drinks as significant positive correlations between all sources of 64 caffeine and smoking or alcohol intake have been reported (Hewlett & Smith, 2006). Risk 65 taking behaviours in young people may stem from an underlying sense of invulnerability (Szabo, Piko, & Fitzpatrick, 2019) rather than a misperception of actual risks; this may partly 66 explain why energy drinks remain popular even though they are generally seen as unhealthy 67 68 by young people (Cormier, Reid, & Hammond, 2018; Kozirok, 2017; Mintel, 2019). Energy 69 drinks were first introduced as a tool for athletes to enhance their physical performance (Corbo, Bevilacqua, Petruzzi, Casanova, & Sinigaglia, 2014; Duncan & Hankey, 2013). One of 70 the key ingredients of energy drinks is caffeine, a mildly addictive psychoactive substance 71 72 which deprivation in habitual users can trigger withdrawal symptoms (Evans & Griffiths, 73 1999; Schuh & Griffiths, 1997). It is also known to elicit a strong bitter taste (Calvino,

74 Garciamedina, & Comettomuniz, 1990; Keast, Sayompark, Sacks, Swinburn, & Riddell, 2011) and is often added to soft drinks as a 'flavouring agent'. This can be easily understood when 75 76 taking into account the fact that caffeine, even at reasonably low concentrations, has been consistently shown to increase liking of soft drinks over time (Dack & Reed, 2009; Keast, 77 Swinburn, Sayompark, Whitelock, & Riddell, 2015; Temple et al., 2012; Tinley, Durlach, & 78 79 Yeomans, 2004; Yeomans, Ripley, Lee, & Durlach, 2001; Yeomans, Pryke, & Durlach, 2002). 80 More surprisingly, this effect was also observed when the caffeine is ingested as a capsule 81 alongside the target drink rather than dissolved in the drink (Richardson, Rogers, & Elliman, 1996) or when the caffeine is consumed as a drink alongside the target food (Panek, 82 83 Swoboda, Bendlin, & Temple, 2013), dissociating thus taste from liking or consumption pattern. The observed increased liking with exposure has therefore been explained by 84 invoking learned associations between taste and alleviation of caffeine withdrawal 85 86 symptoms. In this respect, the influence of caffeine on liking has been likened to a Pavlovian 87 association (Yeomans, Durlach, & Tinley, 2005) and this has led to question the functional role of caffeine as a 'flavouring agent' (Griffiths & Vernotica, 2000). In spite of this, only a 88 89 small number of studies (Table 1) have sought to test whether caffeine, at concentrations typically found in soft drinks, could be detected within a complex matrix (aroma 90 91 compounds, sweeteners, acids and carbonation).

92

Table 1: impact of caffeine in soft carbonated drinks on taste, existing literature.

Article	No. of panellists	Caffeine concentration*	Results	Outcome
Keast & Riddell, (2007)	30	0.333mmol/L in sucrose (64.7 mg/L), 0.467mmol/L (90.7 mg/L) in aspartame, 0.462 mmol/L (89.7	Caffeine could be detected in the sweet solutions (p<0.001) but was not detectable in cola solutions (p=1.0)	Caffeine not detected in complex system at concentrations

		mg/L) in sucralose, and 0.67mmol/L (130.1 mg/L) in cola beverages		lower than 150 mg/L
Griffiths & Vernotica, (2000)	25	50, 100, 200, 400, 800 and 1600 mg/L in cola beverages	Identification of the caffeinated sample for the 2 lower concentrations was not better than chance Ability to detect caffeine at higher concentration was significantly greater than chance	Caffeine not detected in complex system at concentrations lower than 150 mg/L
Keast, Swinburn, Sayompark, Whitelock & Riddell, (2015)	30	0.57mmol/L (110.7 mg/L) in soft carbonated drinks	Trained panellist found no flavour difference between the caffeine free and caffeinated samples (p>0.05)	Caffeine not detected in complex system at concentrations lower than 150 mg/L

* For reference, typical cola drinks contain 110 mg/L of caffeine and energy drinks 320 mg/L

95	Although the amount of evidence is limited (only 3 studies with low participant numbers);
96	the findings are consistent and it is therefore likely that caffeine, at concentrations generally
97	found in carbonated soft drinks (typically 110 mg/L) and as part of a complex matrix cannot
98	be easily detected by trained panellists or consumers. Only one study (Griffiths & Vernotica,
99	2000) investigated greater caffeine concentrations which resulted in improved detection
100	rates. At concentrations of 200 mg/L and 400 mg/L; respectively 56% and 96% of
101	participants correctly identified the samples containing caffeine. These are important
102	findings, however, only 25 participants were used and the caffeine concentration most
103	commonly used in energy drinks (320 mg/L) was not investigated; it is therefore important
104	to address that gap.

In the light of the sustained growth in the market of energy drinks and paucity of evidence 105 106 with respect to the sensory effect of caffeine; it is critical to understand better the impact of 107 caffeine and information relating to caffeine on consumer perception of model energy drinks. Specifically, the study aimed to test whether 1) caffeine, at concentrations found in 108 109 energy drinks, could be detected by consumers; 2) caffeine, at concentrations found in 110 energy drinks, had an impact on consumer overall liking, liking of key tastes and flavour 111 attributes and 3) information relating to caffeine presence (or absence) had an impact on 112 liking, healthiness perception and intended use.

113

114 2. Materials and Methods

115 2.1. Participants

Participants were recruited by word of mouth. The inclusion / exclusion criteria were to be 116 117 between 16 and 26 years of age, to be a regular consumer of carbonated drinks (at least 118 once a month), not to be pregnant or breastfeeding and not to suffer from food allergies or a history of anxiety, caffeine hypersensitivity, Type I or Type II diabetes, heart disease, 119 kidney disease, gastrointestinal problems or high blood pressure. This study was conducted 120 121 according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the 122 Faculty Research Ethics Committee of Sheffield Hallam University (SBS-254). Written 123 informed consent was obtained from all participants. 124 One hundred and seven participants aged between 18 and 26 (average age 21.7 years) were recruited (26 males). Habitual caffeine intake was estimated using a method adapted from 125 Dack & Reed (2009) whereby questions relating to consumption frequency of caffeine 126

127 containing commercial products were asked once the participants had completed the sensory testing. Typical caffeine contents for different items were taken as: coffee 70 mg; 128 tea 60 mg; caffeinated carbonated soft drink 30 mg; energy drinks 77 mg; hot chocolate 5 129 130 mg (Dack & Reed, 2009; Richardson et al., 1996; Tinley, Yeomans, & Durlach, 2003; Tinley et al., 2004). The energy drinks contribution to overall caffeine intake was estimated by 131 132 dividing the estimated caffeine intake from energy drinks by the estimated caffeine intake 133 from all sources for each participant. The average caffeine daily intake was estimated at 170 134 mg (standard deviation 148 mg) and ranged from 0.2 mg to 718 mg; 50% of participants had 135 an average daily caffeine intake greater than 120 mg. There were no significant differences 136 in discrimination ability or liking by either course type or habitual caffeine intake, therefore 137 only the aggregated results, rather than the split analysis, are presented.

138 2.2. Samples

139 Two model carbonated drinks were prepared for this study. To ensure that participants would not have any preconceived idea as to whether the drinks would contain caffeine, an 140 141 unfamiliar flavour was created using strawberry flavouring (Synergy, 2SX-74444, final 142 concentration in test samples 150 ppm), garden mint flavouring (Synergy, 2SX-86580, final concentration in test samples 150 ppm) and a base of lemonade (Schweppes Lemonade, 143 144 Coca-Cola European Partners). Although a lemon base is quite common for both caffeinated and caffeine free commercial soft drinks; the mint and strawberry flavourings made these 145 model drinks completely unique and quite distinct from what is currently commercially 146 147 available in the United Kingdom. In order to keep the carbonation levels identical between 148 the drinks and between the sessions, fresh drinks were prepared hourly and both the caffeine free and caffeinated drinks were prepared from the same flavoured stock solution. 149

150 Briefly, the flavoured stock solution was mixed 50-50 with either regular (caffeine free)

151 lemonade or lemonade to which caffeine had been added in concentration of 640 mg/L to

152 produce a caffeine free drink and a caffeinated drink with caffeine concentration similar to

that found in energy drinks (320 mg/L). All the drinks were served at room temperature.

154 2.3. Experimental design

155 The session was split in 2 stages to mirror the objectives.

156 Objective 1: In order to test whether caffeine, at concentrations found in energy drinks,

157 could be detected by consumers, a triangle test was performed using the caffeine free and

158 caffeinated drinks. Three samples (including 2 identical ones) were presented

simultaneously and panellists were asked to identify the odd sample and explain the reason
why they selected that sample. The 6 possible presentation orders were balanced between
the panellists (BS EN ISO 4120, 2007).

Objectives 2 and 3: In order to test whether caffeine, at concentrations found in energy 162 163 drinks, impacts on consumer overall liking and liking of key taste and flavour attributes and whether knowing that a drink contains caffeine impacts on liking, healthiness perception 164 and intended use; the caffeine free and caffeinated drinks were presented monadically in 165 166 blind conditions (labelled with 3 digit codes) and then again in informed conditions (labelled with 3 digit codes and either "caffeine free" or "contains caffeine" as appropriate). All the 167 panellists tested the 2 samples (caffeinated / caffeine-free) in blind then informed 168 169 condition; the presentation order was balanced between the caffeinated and caffeine-free drink within the test conditions. Panellists were asked to rate each sample for overall and 170 flavour liking on a 9 point hedonic scale. They were also asked to rate their liking of the 171

172 sweetness and bitterness levels on 5 point Just-About-Right scales. In order to test their 173 perception of the drinks, panellists were also asked to rate how healthy they perceived the drink to be (9 point scale going from extremely unhealthy to extremely healthy) and in what 174 occasion they would consume the drink using a Check All That Apply (CATA) scale with the 175 176 following options: Breakfast; lunch; dinner; throughout the day (anytime); at night; when 177 working and/or studying; when socialising; when driving; when tired; when feeling ill or sick; 178 when exercising; for performance enhancement; mixed with alcohol; if on promotion; 179 never; other (specify). Those options were derived from published information (Agoston et 180 al., 2018; Attila & Cakir, 2011; Malinauskas, Aeby, Overton, Carpenter-Aeby, & Barber-181 Heidal, 2007) and internal focus groups with students.

All sensory testing took place in individual sensory booths under "northern daylight" lighting as specified in BS EN ISO 8589 (2014). The participants were instructed to cleanse their palates with water and crackers (Carr's table water crackers) in between samples.

185 2.4. Data analysis

The triangle test results were analysed by comparing the number of correct answers 186 187 required to reach statistical significance in the corresponding standard table (BS EN ISO 188 4120, 2007). The number of discriminators was estimated using Abbott's formula (Lawless and Heymann, 2010). The overall liking, flavour liking and healthiness ratings were analysed 189 190 using a two-factor repeated measures ANOVA. The factors were caffeine (2 levels: absence and presence) and information (2 levels: blind and informed). Post-hoc, where appropriate, 191 192 means were compared, and adjustment for multiple comparisons was performed using a 193 Bonferroni test. The nature of the difference between caffeinated and caffeine free samples 194 and the Just-About-Right data were analysed using chi square tests. The intended use data

- (blind vs. informed) was analysed using a McNemar test. Significance level was set at 0.05
- 196 for all statistical analyses. All analyses were performed using SPSS v24 (IBM Corp; Armonk,
- 197 NY).
- 198
- 199 3. Results
- 200 3.1. Participants' intake of energy drinks: the energy drink consumption pattern and energy
- 201 drink contribution to caffeine intake are presented in Table 2. Although energy drinks
- 202 contribution to overall caffeine intake varied widely between participants; it remained fairly
- stable across high and low caffeine users.
- Table 2: Energy drink consumption pattern for study participants (*N* = 107) and energy drink contribution to overall caffeine intake

Frequency of energy drink consumption	Participants (%)
At least once a day	3%
At least once a week but less often than once a day	8%
At least once a month but less often than once a week	12%
Less often than once a month	26%
Never	51%
Energy drinks contribution to overall caffeine intake (%)	
All participants	5.2% (range: 0.0% - 99.9%)
High caffeine users (>120 mg/day)	5.7%
Low caffeine users (<120 mg/day)	4.8%

- 206
- 3.2. Detection of caffeine (320 mg/L) in a model energy drink
- An overall significant difference (p = 0.01) between the caffeine free and caffeinated
- samples was observed with 47 out of 107 participants correctly identifying the odd sample.
- 210 Accounting for the correct answers obtained by chance, this yields that the number of
- 211 discriminators must have been 17 (6% of participants).

212	The comments (Table 3) provided by the participants for the basis of their decision show
213	that the sweetness level, the flavour quality and intensity as well as the bitterness level
214	were the 3 most common reasons mentioned for the difference between the samples.
215	Although "bitterness level" was cited more often by participants who correctly identified the
216	odd sample; it did not reach statistical significance and overall, there were no significant
217	differences in reasons cited by participants who could identify the odd sample and those
218	who could not.

Table 3: reasons provided for selecting the odd sample in the triangle test by participants

220	who correctly identified the odd sample ($N = 47$) and those who did not ($N = 60$)
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Nature of the difference	Participants correctly identifying the odd sample* (%)	Participants unable to identify the odd sample* (%)	Pearson chi square
Sweetness level	51.1	46.5	$\chi^2(1, N = 107) = 0.186$ p = 0.666
Bitterness level	31.1	18.6	$\chi^2(1, N = 107) = 1.834$ p = 0.176
Flavour Intensity	26.7	25.6	$\chi^2(1, N = 107) = 0.130$ p = 0.908
Flavour quality**	15.6	20.9	$\chi^2(1, N = 107) = 0.427$ p = 0.513
Acidity level	11.1	9.3	χ^2 (1, N = 107) = 0.078 p = 0.780
Carbonation level	11.1	4.7	$\chi^2(1, N = 107) = 1.253$ p = 0.263
No perceivable difference	0.0	4.7	n/a

221

222 3.3. Impact of caffeine and information relating to caffeine

223 The overall liking, flavour liking and healthiness ratings for the caffeinated and caffeine free

samples in blind and informed conditions are presented in Figure 1.



225

Figure 1: liking and healthiness perception of caffeinated (\blacksquare) and caffeine free (\blacklozenge) model energy drinks in blind and informed conditions (N = 107). Error bars represent one standard deviation.

230	Both the presence of caffeine and knowing that the drink contained caffeine had a
231	significant negative impact on overall liking (respectively $F(1,106) = 8.320$, $p = 0.005$ and
232	F(1,106) = 4.825, $p = 0.030$). The interaction was not significant ($F(1,106) = 0.038$, $p = 0.846$).
233	The presence of caffeine had a strong negative impact on flavour liking ($F(1,106) = 17.553$, p
234	< 0.001); however, the impact of information relating to caffeine did not reach statistical
235	significance ($F(1,106) = 2.972$, $p = 0.088$) and the interaction was not significant ($F(1,106) =$
236	0.066, <i>p</i> = 0.797).
237	With respect to healthiness perception, a strong interaction caffeine x information effect
238	was observed ($F(1,104) = 7.918$, $p = 0.006$) with no difference observed between the

caffeinated and caffeine free samples in blind conditions (t(106) = -0.502, p = 0.617) whilst it became strongly significant in informed conditions (t(104) = -3.965, p < 0.001).

241 In terms of taste quality, there was a significant interaction between sample (caffeinated /

242 caffeine free) and condition (blind / informed); the impact of caffeine was amplified when

243 participants were informed of its presence (Figure 2).



244

Figure 2: liking of key attributes for caffeinated and caffeine free model energy drinks in blind and informed conditions (N = 107). Too sweet/bitter (\blacksquare); Just about right (); Not sweet/bitter enough (\Box).

248

In blind conditions, the presence of caffeine did not have a significant impact on the liking of sweetness level ($\chi^2(2, N = 107) = 0.000, p = 1.000$) and although slightly more participants felt that the caffeinated sample was "too bitter" compared to the caffeine free sample, this did not reach statistical significance ($\chi^2(2, N = 107) = 4.674, p = 0.097$). In contrast, in

informed conditions, there was a strong significant difference in the bitterness level liking 253 between the caffeinated and caffeine free samples ($\chi^2(2, N = 107) = 15.761, p < 0.001$) which 254 was not observed for the liking of sweetness level ($\chi^2(2, N = 107) = 2.460, p = 0.292$). 255 Although the condition (blind / informed) had no impact on the liking of sweetness level 256 $(\chi^2(2, N = 107) = 4.579, p = 0.101)$ or bitterness level $(\chi^2(2, N = 107) = 0.088, p = 0.957)$ when 257 the sample was caffeine free; it had an effect on the sweetness level liking ($\chi^2(2, N = 107) =$ 258 7.665, p = 0.022) for the caffeinated sample with fewer participants finding it "too sweet" in 259 informed condition than blind condition. A condition effect was also observed for the liking 260 of the bitterness level for the caffeinated sample ($\chi^2(2, N = 107) = 6.304, p = 0.043$) with 261 fewer participants rating the sample as "not bitter enough" and "too bitter" in informed 262 condition than blind condition. 263

264

3.4. Impact of the information relating to caffeine presence on intended use

The data relating to occasions where less than 20% of participants indicated they would consume the drinks are not presented as those were deemed less relevant. The most popular intended use for both all drinks / condition was 'with alcohol' (Figure 3); this was the only occasion for which more than 30% of participants indicated they would consume the model energy drinks.



Figure 3: intended use for caffeine free and caffeinated model energy drinks on different occasions in blind (\Box) and informed (\blacksquare) conditions (N = 107).

274

There were no significant differences in frequency of intended use between the blind and informed conditions for either sample on any of the occasions except for the caffeine free sample which was more likely to be consumed at dinner when participants were informed it was caffeine free than in blind condition (p = 0.022). Conversely; although it did not reach statistical significance (p = 0.064), participants were more likely to consume the caffeinated drink when tired if they knew that it contained caffeine than in blind condition.

281

283 4. Discussion

284 Considering the different recruitment strategies, target population and countries, the average caffeine intake and energy drink consumption pattern observed for this sample 285 286 were similar to those reported elsewhere (Arria et al., 2011; Attila & Cakir, 2011; Azagba et 287 al., 2014; Malinauskas et al., 2007; Miller, 2008; Mintel, 2019; Scalese et al., 2017): in 288 general reports estimate that between 34% and 59% of the population studied never 289 consume energy drinks and between 13% and 51% do so at least once a month. In this 290 respect, as observed elsewhere, our study confirms irregular consumption patterns rather than habitual intake (Agoston et al., 2018; Kozirok, 2017); moreover, it provides further 291 292 evidence that energy drinks remain low contributors to overall caffeine intake some way behind coffee and tea (Mackus et al., 2016). 293

294 Adding caffeine at a concentration typically found in energy drinks altered its sensory profile 295 sufficiently to be detectable and impact on liking. This is not surprising as caffeine is known to not only elicit an intense bitter taste but also to suppress sweetness (Calvino et al., 1990; 296 297 Keast et al., 2015). In this respect, caffeine does act as a flavouring agent when added in 298 concentrations found in energy drinks even if this is not the case at lower concentrations 299 typically found in colas (Griffiths & Vernotica, 2000; Keast & Riddell, 2007; Keast et al., 300 2015). In this instance, the high caffeine concentration had a significant detrimental impact on liking; however, the effect size was small and of borderline practical relevance as 301 suggested by the low number of discriminators. Although there is currently no data 302 303 available on caffeinated model energy drinks and liking; high caffeine concentrations (220 to 304 1034 mg/L) in model energy drinks have been shown to increase bitterness and decrease sweetness and fruity flavour perception in a trained panel (Tamamoto, Schmidt, & Lee, 305

306 2010). Notwithstanding the fact that this was not tested with a consumer panel, it is 307 possible that these changes would decrease acceptance as bitterness generally reduces acceptance (Mennella & Bobowski, 2015). There are notable exceptions to this for specific 308 product categories (Cavallo, Cicia, Del Giudice, Sacchi, & Vecchio, 2019) and coffee in 309 310 particular (Geel, Kinnear, & de Kock, 2005), however, energy drinks do not tend to be associated with a pleasant bitter taste which may partly explain why sugar content tends to 311 312 be slightly higher in energy drinks than in soft drinks with lower caffeine contents (Hashem, 313 He, & MacGregor, 2017).

314 We found that information about the presence of caffeine had a significant effect on overall liking and bitterness perception. The fact that information can impact on liking is a well-315 316 known concept (Fernqvist & Ekelund, 2014) and information has been shown to impact on 317 overall liking of coffees but not on bitterness perception although, this may be explained by the nature of the information provided which did not mention caffeine (Li, Streletskaya, & 318 Gómez, 2019). Knowing that the model drink contained caffeine also significantly decreased 319 320 its healthiness rating; the unhealthy image of caffeinated energy drinks has been observed 321 before; for example, 33% of respondents stated that the reason why they do not drink 322 energy drinks was because they contained too much caffeine (Mintel, 2019). Recently, in 323 Canada, 76.2% of 12-24 year olds polled thought that energy drinks were either bad or very bad for your health (Cormier et al., 2018) and concerns around their impact on health were 324 325 also noted with a sample of Polish consumers (Kozirok, 2017). In spite of this, younger 326 participants (16 to 21 years old) felt that energy drinks must be safe to consume or they 327 would not be sold (Bunting, Baggett, & Grigor, 2013). These results show that although the 328 target consumers for these products perceive them as safe albeit unhealthy; this is not in

329 itself, a deterrent to consumption. Indeed, it is well known that the relationship between healthiness perception and behaviours is a complex one at the best of times but especially 330 331 in adolescents and young adults, this feature has been observed elsewhere in the context of 332 children and young people's perception of energy drinks (Visram, Crossley, Cheetham, & Lake, 2017). Considering that young people use food and food rituals to facilitate integration 333 and reinforce social ties (Neely, Walton, & Stephens, 2014), it is particularly pertinent to 334 335 assess whether mentioning that a drink contains caffeine is likely to increase its use 336 alongside alcohol compared to a non-caffeinated drink. The most popular intended use for our model drink was as a mixer, with alcohol. About 44% of our participants stated that they 337 338 would consume the caffeinated model drink mixed with alcohol; that figure is reminiscent of 339 data from different countries: about 40% of Turkish energy drink user students stated they mixed them with alcohol (Attila & Cakir, 2011); 56% of Italian adolescents who consume 340 341 energy drinks mixed them with alcohol (Scalese et al., 2017) and 49.1% of Polish students 342 polled stated that they combined energy drinks with alcohol (Kozirok, 2017). Consumers tend to have only one energy drink unless they are mixed with alcohol (Malinauskas et al., 343 344 2007) which in itself may be an issue as combining energy drinks with alcohol has been shown to increase the urge to carry on drinking compared to drinking alcohol alone 345 346 (McKetin & Coen, 2014). Despite concerns over the prevalence of alcohol mixed with energy 347 drinks consumption; it is the first time that the intended use of alcohol mixed with 348 caffeinated mixers is compared to that for alcohol mixed with caffeine free mixers. Whether the model energy drink contained caffeine or not had no impact on intended use of young 349 adults, this confirms recent findings from a meta-analysis showing that people did not 350 351 consume more alcohol on occasions when they mixed it with energy drinks even though, 352 people who tend to mix energy drinks with alcohol are more likely to have a higher alcohol

353 intake than those who do not (Verster, Benson, Johnson, Alford, Benjereb Godefroy & 354 Scholey, 2018). It is therefore likely that purposefully selecting mixers with high caffeine 355 content to drink with alcohol is not a widespread practice in young adults; this is supported by recent findings which have shown that student alcohol intake was not greater when 356 357 alcohol was consumed with energy drinks rather than with other caffeinated soft drinks such as colas (Johnson, Alford, Stewart & Verster, 2018). This is not entirely surprising as 358 359 taste has consistently been highlighted as a key driver for choosing soft drinks (Agoston et 360 al., 2018; Attila & Cakir, 2011; Bunting et al., 2013; Kozirok, 2017).

361 Study limitations and future work: although typical for sensory studies, the number of 362 participants remains small and our participants were students, in this respect the results may not be generalisable to all young UK adults. Critically, there is a need to gather 363 364 information with younger consumers, in particular where consumption patterns and intended use are concerned. Although the impact of caffeine, at concentrations found in 365 energy drinks, ie increased bitterness and suppression of sweetness and fruity flavours is 366 367 more likely to decrease acceptance (as observed here); the results could be confirmed with 368 a broader range of flavour combinations.

369 5. Conclusions

Overall, this set of data shows that caffeine, at concentrations typically found in energy drinks, can be detected by consumers and impacts negatively, albeit moderately, on overall liking and taste profile of the drink. The information "contains caffeine" also has a negative impact both on liking and healthiness perception although it did not alter intended use notably. In a context where the consumption of energy drinks remains irregular rather than habitual and represents a small contribution to overall caffeine intake; these findings should

partly assuage concerns with respect to young adults' use of energy drinks and caffeine
intake however, the trend to consume them in combination with alcohol may be seen as
slightly more problematic.

379

380 Declarations of interest: none.

381 CRediT author statement:

382 Cecile Morris: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, data curation,

383 writing - original draft, writing - review and editing, visualization, supervision, project

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