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University of Alberta

Energy intake, resting energy expenditure, activity levels, energy balance and serum hormone concentrations in sedentary and athletic males.

By

Kelly Mackenzie



A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation

Edmonton, Alberta

Spring 2000



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Kelly Mackenzie

#11 - 10757 - 83 Avenue

Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

T6E 2E5

Submitted on:

University of Alberta

Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommended to
the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled

Energy intake, resting energy expenditure, activity levels, energy balance and serum
hormone concentrations in sedentary and athletic males
submitted by Kelly Mackenzie in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

Dr. Vicki J Harber, PhD

(Supervisor)

Dr. Gordon J Bell, PhD

bec.

Dr. David C Cumming, MBChB, FRCOG, FRCSC

Dated: January 28, 2000

ABSTRACT

Energy intake, resting energy expenditure, activity levels, energy balance and serum hormone concentrations in sedentary and athletic males.

Resting reproductive (total testosterone, free testosterone, LH, FSH, prolactin) and metabolic (T₃, T₄, cortisol) hormone concentrations were assessed in 16 sedentary males (SC, less than 4 hours aerobic training weekly), 20 moderate-endurance trained males (ME, 5 - 10 hours aerobic training weekly), and 16 high-endurance trained males (HE, greater than 11 hours aerobic training weekly). In addition, various energy balance markers (energy intake, resting energy expenditure (REE) and energy expenditure from exercise) were measured in these same 3 groups. Average energy intake (mean \pm SD, kcal/day) was higher in HE (3470 \pm 523) and ME (3445 \pm 449) than SC (2709 \pm 513) (p <0.05). REE was not different between groups. Energy expenditure from exercise (mean \pm SD, kcal/day) was higher in HE vs. ME or SC and ME vs. SC (HE = 951 \pm 245; ME = 695 \pm 150; SC = 413 \pm 127) (p<0.05). Energy balance (calculated as energy intake - [REE + thermic effect of feeding + exercise energy expenditure]) was not different between groups. With exception of T3, serum hormone concentrations were similar across groups. T_3 (mean \pm SD, ng/dl) was significantly lower in HE (102 \pm 79.7) than SC (117.8 \pm 92.3) (p<0.05).

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CNS Central nervous system

DEBQ-R Dutch eating behaviour questionnaire - Restraint

EDI Eating disorder inventory

FSH Follicle stimulating hormone

GnRH Gonadotropin releasing hormone

HE High-endurance athlete

H-P-G axis Hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis

hr/wk Hours per week

kcal/kgLBM/day Kilocalories per kilogram lean body mass per day

kcal/kgFFM/day Kilocalories per kilogram fat free mass per day

kgFFM Kilogram fat free mass

km/wk Kilometers per week

LH Luteinizing hormone

ME Moderate-endurance athlete

N.S. Not significant

REE Resting energy expenditure

RER Respiratory exchange ratio

RIA Radioimmunoassay

rpm Revolutions per minute

SC Sedentary control

TEF Thermic effect of feeding

T₃ Triiodothyronine

T₄ Thyroxin

VO₂ Ventilatory oxygen consumption

VO₂max Maximal ventilatory oxygen consumption

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. PURPOSE

The body of literature examining reproductive function in male athletes is small. However, there is sufficient information suggesting that endurance exercise may suppress hormones of the male reproductive axis as circulating testosterone levels, both total and free, in male endurance athletes are lower compared to sedentary controls (Arce et al, 1993b; Hackney et al, 1988; Wheeler et al, 1991; Wheeler et al, 1986; Wheeler et al, 1984). Luteinizing hormone, responsible for the production of testosterone, has been shown to be altered in frequency or amplitude by training (MacConnie et al, 1986; McColl et al, 1989), while others have found no change (Wheeler et al, 1984; Wheeler et al, 1991). Increased training has also been associated with changes in sperm characteristics (De Souza et al, 1994a). Although the mechanism underlying these physiological changes in active males is unclear, it has been proposed that a particular volume of exercise, once exceeded, may be responsible for this phenomena ("volume threshold") (De Souza et al, 1994a; De Souza et al, 1997).

Similarly, reproductive disorders and menstrual irregularities are well documented within the female athlete population. More information on females is available regarding variables that may lead to this phenomenon. The literature suggests that increased energy expenditure through exercise (Beitins et al, 1991) as well as decreased energy intake (Loucks, 1996; Loucks et al, 1994a; Williams et al.

1995) contribute to changes of the menstrual cycle. An abrupt change in energy availability, defined as acute differences in energy intake to expenditure, or a longer term energy imbalance, defined as a chronic state of insufficient energy intake for total energy expenditure, may lead to an interruption in menstrual function (Cumming et al, 1994; Loucks et al, 1994b) as a means to conserve energy. Observable clinical consequences such as oligomenorrhea or amenorrhea may present. In contrast, disruption to spermatogenesis may be undetected by males.

The research examining chronic states of energy balance in male athletes is limited. Recent studies have examined the effects of energy expenditure on male hormones related to reproductive function however the current literature has not calculated energy balance in male athletes and its impact on the reproductive axis. A "volume threshold" effect was examined in three groups of males and were distinguished using weekly running distance (km/wk and hr/wk) over the past 12 months (De Souza et al, 1994a). High-mileage runners ran a minimum of 104 km/wk, moderate-mileage runners ran between 40 to 56 km/wk, and sedentary controls performed no more than 1 hour of aerobic exercise per week. Decreased testosterone levels and alterations to spermatogenesis were more abundant in high mileage runners when compared to moderate mileage or controls (De Souza et al, 1994a) suggesting that running more than 100 km/wk may represent a "volume threshold" that if exceeded may lead to reproductive disturbances. De Souza et al (1997) further defined running distances for assessing a threshold effect as 1) Highmileage: greater than 100 km/wk and a minimum of 8 hrs/wk; 2) Moderate-mileage: 40 to 90 km/wk for 2 – 6 hrs/wk. Additional clarification is necessary to determine

total training volume (eg. modality, frequency, duration and intensity). Furthermore, the definitions of volume threshold provided by De Souza et al (1994a, 1997) are difficult to apply to sports other than running.

An increase in volume of training has been associated with a suppression of male hormones along the reproductive axis (De Souza et al, 1994a; De Souza et al, 1997). An increased energetic demand from exercise, perhaps superimposed with inadequate energy compensation, may result in a negative energy balance in highly trained male athletes. The parameters of an athlete's energy balance may be further explored beyond volume of exercise by assessing energy intake and eating attitudes as well as resting energy expenditure. Analysis of these variables may also distinguish differences in energy balance and, or hormones of the reproductive axis in high-endurance athletes from moderate-endurance athletes and sedentary controls.

This study intends to examine the relationship between energy intake, energy expenditure and hormones of the reproductive axis in male athletes. Markers of energy balance including energy intake and eating attitudes, resting energy expenditure, costs of physical exercise and daily active living, will be assessed to provide greater insight into an athlete's states of energy balance. Hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis hormones as well as cortisol and markers for energy deficiency (T₃ and T₄) will be measured. These findings will further our understanding energy balance and the accompanying hormonal profile found between groups of athletes when separated by volume of exercise.

2. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Suppressed concentrations of circulating reproductive hormones including reduced levels of testosterone as well as changes in spermatogenesis have been found in endurance-trained athletic males (De Souza et al, 1994a). Males who expend large amounts of energy yet deprive themselves of sufficient energy replenishment are at risk of developing physiological changes to semen including decreased sperm count. decreased sperm mobility, immature sperm development as well as impaired abilities of ovum penetration. Further, there is some research suggesting that decreased levels of testosterone may postpone the onset of puberty in males as well as have negative effects on bone mineral density (Bennell et al, 1996). Although endurance exercise has not been demonstrated to directly cause male infertility (Arce et al, 1993a), there is potential for a negative energy balance to exist in high-endurance males that may lead to physiologically suppressed hormones of the reproductive axis. Identification of factors associated with blunted gonadal steroid production at increased volumes of training may provide an insight to mechanisms underlying this phenomena as well as an opportunity for future prevention as well as reversibility of suppressed hormones and alterations to sperm in male endurance-trained athletes.

3. HYPOTHESIS

The hypotheses will be:

- 3.1 Circulating testosterone levels (total and free) will be significantly lower in the high-endurance group (HE) than the moderate-endurance group (ME) or the sedentary control (SC);
- 3.2 Luteinizing hormone and follicle stimulating hormone will be significantly lower in the HE than the ME or SC; prolactin will be significantly lower in the HE than the ME or SC; cortisol will be significantly higher in the HE than the ME or SC; T₃ and T₄ will be significantly lower in the HE than the ME or SC;
- 3.3 Resting energy expenditure will be significantly lower in the HE than the ME or SC; eating attitudes will not be significantly different between the three groups; energy expenditure reported as total time of training as well as measured with the TriTrac R3-D™ will be significantly higher in the HE than the ME and SC and significantly in higher in the ME than the SC; energy intake will be not be significantly different between the three groups; and energy balance will be a negative value in HE and a positive value for ME and SC.

4. **DELIMITATIONS**

Fifty-two healthy males, participating regularly in various durations of weekly aerobic training (cycling), with no history of illness or use of medications that are known to influence hormonal status will participate in a 4-day experiment in which

energy expenditure (resting energy expenditure and physical activity), energy intake and eating attitudes will be measured. Following informed consent and initial screening tests for eligibility, subjects will be placed into 1 of 3 groups based upon self-reported habitual hours of aerobic training per week: 1) High-endurance athletes (HE); 2) Moderate-endurance athletes (ME); and 3) Sedentary controls (SC). A single blood sample will be collected and analyzed for testosterone (free and total), luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), prolactin, cortisol, T₃ and T₄. Subjects will complete diet records for 4 days as well as complete 2 questionnaires on eating attitudes. Subjects will record all physical activity in a logbook for 4 days while also wearing a accelerometer (TriTrac R3-DTM monitor) for the same 4 days other than during sleep or water activities (ie. showers or swimming). The TriTrac R3-DTM monitor measures movement and is a valid and reliable method of calculating energy expenditure from exercise (Welk et al. 1995).

5. LIMITATIONS

The nature of this research has several inherent limitations:

- 5.1 Not true random selection: The participants will be recruited from various sports teams, recreational facilities, the University of Alberta, and word of mouth. The eligibility criteria may guide selection of volunteers in that those who do not meet established criteria will be prevented from participating in this study.
- **5.2 Not true random assignment:** The subjects will be assigned to 1 of 3 groups. based upon self-reported hours of aerobic training per week.

- 5.3 Experimenter and equipment error: It is recognized that errors in data collection and data analysis are potential limitations to this study. For example, hydrostatic weighing may have a 2-3 % body fat error due to technical error as well as estimations regarding volume of residual air and gastro-intestinal air. Further, the TriTrac R3-DTM may have limitations in its' sensitivity to intensity of movement while cycling as well as its' inability to be worn when swimming.
- 5.4 Dietary intake records: Although the use of 4-day dietary records has been chosen, it is recognized that there are inherent limitations with this method. Subject compliance and accuracy of self-reporting may be suspect (Mertz et al, 1991). There is potential for misrepresentation of habitual dietary intakes when individuals are conscious of their eating habits. As a result, the 4-day diet record may not represent chronic eating habits.
- 5.5 Resting energy expenditure (REE): Oxygen consumption at rest (REE test) is recognized as an estimation of energy expenditure. Subject compliance to fasting for 12 hours as well as adhering to a full 24 hours of rest are noted as potential limitations to the accuracy of the estimation of REE.
- 5.6 Activity logs & TriTrac R3-D™: Use of the TriTrac R3-D™ as well as the logbook will provide estimations of energy expenditure from exercise. The accuracy of these methods may be limited. Subject compliance to wearing TriTrac R3-D™ as well as varying interpretations of intensity of exercise are also limitations.

- **5.7 Reproductive status:** Although subjects will be asked about their known reproductive status on a questionnaire, it is recognized that the subclinical nature of sperm characteristics will be unknown for most males.
- 5.8 Single blood samples: Analysis of hormones from a single blood sample may be a limitation. Timing during the day for blood sample has been restricted to between 4:00 pm and 6:00 pm to avoid peak levels of testosterone, present in the mornings. However, the pulsatile nature of LH will not be represented in this blood analysis.

6. **DEFINITIONS**

- between energy intake and energy expenditure over a short period of time

 (Loucks et al. 1994b). The resulting available energy sustains the followings metabolic activities: cell maintenance, locomotion, thermoregulation, growth, and reproduction. Oxidizable metabolic fuels are also stored in adipose tissue

 (Wade et al. 1996). If available energy is limited, energy will be utilized to where it is needed to maintain basic life function (cell maintenance, locomotion and thermoregulation). Energy for growth, adipose tissue stores and reproductive function may then be jeopardized (Loucks, 1996; Wade et al, 1996).
- 6.2 Energy Balance: Energy balance is the difference between total energy intarke

 (from foods) and total energy expenditure (from rest, daily active living,
 thermic effect of feeding and exercise). It is reflective of a chronic energy

state. If energy intake is sufficient for energy expenditure, energy balance is established. Conversely, negative energy imbalance refers to inadequate energy intake for the expenditure performed. In this study, chronic energy intake will be calculated from the average of a 4-day dietary intake record. In addition, chronic energy expenditure will be determined from an accelerometer used to measure energy expenditure from exercise (averaged over 4 days) as well as measured resting energy expenditure and estimated thermic effect of feeding. Energy balance can thus be determined by subtracting average total daily energy expenditure from average total daily energy intake.

- 6.3 Volume Threshold: Beyond an identified volume of endurance training, there is an increased tendency for suppresses hormonal profiles of the H_P-G axis as well as alterations to spermatogenesis in males. This volume has been identified in male runners as greater than 104 kilometers per week (De Souza et al. 1994a). These athletes presented with significantly lower testosterone and alterations to spermatogenesis than males running 40 to 56 kilometers per week or sedentary controls.
- 6.4 High-endurance athletes: Endurance trained males who have self-reported aerobic training of a minimum of 11 − 15⁺ hours per week and whose predominant training modality is cycling.
- 6.5 Moderate-endurance athletes: Endurance trained males who have self-reported aerobic training between 5 10 hours per week and whose predominant training modality is cycling.

6.6 Sedentary control males: Untrained, healthy men who have self-reported less than 4 hours per week of aerobic exercise.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1. INTRODUCTION

Decrease in gonadal steroiid production as well as altered spermatogenesis have been identified in male endurance athletes (Arce et al, 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Hackney et al, 1990; Hackney et al, 1988; Jensen et al, 1995; McColl et al, 1989; Wheeler et al, 1991; Wheeler et al, 1986; Wheeler et al, 1984). Male athletes may be unaware of subclinical alterations to the male reproductive axis as most are not detectable without clinical evaluation (Arce et al, 1993a; Cumming, 1989b; De Souza et al, 1994a).

Insufficient energy intake and excessive volume of training may lead to a negative energy balance and have been identified as potential variables impeding gonadal function in both male and female athletes. As successful reproductive function requires energy (Bisdee et al. 1989; Wade et al. 1996), inadequate energy may lead to physiological problems. Determination of energy balance may further the understanding of relationships existing between energy intake, exercise energy expenditure and the reproductive exis. Currently, volume of training thresholds (De Souza et al. 1994a; De Souza et al. 1997) and energy availability models (Loucks et al. 1994b) have been described and provide insight to the roles of exercise and energy intake on changes in reproductive function. The literature describing the mechanism(s) underlying suppressed hormones of the reproductive axis and the possible role of negative energy belance in male athletes is sparse. The energy

balance literature in women athletes with suppressed reproductive hormone profiles is more abundant, hence these findings may help address this phenomena in males.

A discussion of normal male reproductive physiology, physiological changes to the reproductive system in active males as well as the role of energy balance in the male reproductive axis will follow. The exploration of energy balance will include energy intake and eating attitudes of male athletes. As well, the relationships between total daily energy expenditure including resting energy expenditure, thermic effect of feeding and exercise energy expenditure and suppressed gonadal hormone production in the male endurance athlete will be examined. Some discussion surrounding the physiological adaptations of the reproductive system in females will be presented to provide additional insight to the energetic challenge faced by male athletes.

2. MALE REPRODUCTIVE PHYSIOLOGY

2.1 Normal reproductive physiology

The hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis (H-P-G axis) is responsible for maintenance of normal reproductive function in both males and females. Normal reproductive function in males requires adequate healthy hormonal production and secretion that results in healthy gamete production. A conceptual figure of the interaction of the hormones responsible for the reproductive system in males aids in understanding the roles of each hormone (Figure 1). The hypothalamus secretes gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH) which in turn stimulates the anterior pituitary gland to produce and secrete luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-

stimulating hormone (FSH). GnRH and LH are both released in a pulsatile manner. Normal adult pulse frequency of GnRH is approximately every 15 minutes. Larger pulse amplitudes of LH occur approximately every 70 to 96 minutes in response to the release of GnRH (Filicori, 1986). LH stimulates the production of testosterone in the Leydig cells, which are present in the interstitial spaces within the seminiferous tubules of the gonads (Hadley, 1988). LH concentrations have been positively correlated to a lagged time release of testosterone (Veldhuis et al, 1987).

Testosterone appears to be secreted in a both a pulsatile and circadian pattern (Veldhuis et al, 1987). Presence of FSH as well as testosterone stimulate spermatogenesis within the Sertoli cells of the seminiferous tubules (Hadley, 1988).

The H-P-G axis in males is regulated by a negative feedback loop. Inhibin, which is secreted by the Sertoli cells in the testes, inhibits FSH production.

Testosterone released from the testes can also control the axis by acting at the pituitary and hypothalamus (refer to Figure 1). Prolactin is thought to enhance LH reception at the Leydig cell (Hadley, 1988). Increased cortisol levels may inhibit testosterone production while other adrenal and neural hormones may also contribute to the inhibition or stimulation of production of hormones within the H-P-G axis (Cumming et al, 1983). Amenorrheic runners present with mild hypercortisolism in comparison to eumenorrheic runners or controls, suggesting the adrenal axis may mediate disruption to the H-P-G axis through increased stress and, or decreased adrenal sensitivity (De Souza et al, 1994b; Loucks et al, 1989).

Testosterone is an androgen that is responsible for the development and maintenance of primary and secondary sex characteristics in males. These

characteristics include sexual organ development, hair growth, vocal deepening as well as skeletal development (Hadley, 1988; Mountcastle, 1980). Further, testosterone has effects on the central nervous system including sexual drive, libido as well as physical vigor (Hadley, 1988; Mountcastle, 1980).

Testosterone is a protein-bound steroid hormone. Approximately 50 percent of testosterone is bound to albumin while 45 percent is bound to sex-hormone binding globulin (SHBG) (Goodman, 1994). Free testosterone is unbound and accounts for the remainder of total testosterone. Ninety-five percent of plasma testosterone is produced in the testes while the remainder is produced by the adrenal gland (Mountcastle, 1980). Normal ranges of plasma testosterone in adult males are between 300 – 1000 ng/dl while plasma LH levels are between 5 – 20 mIU/ml (Wilson et al, 1985). Other circulating hormone ranges for healthy males are presented within tables 12 and 13 (Chapter 4).

Sperm, which is manufactured in the seminiferous tubules of the testes, carry and transmit the male genetic material to the female egg for conception. Quality of spermatogenesis is determined by sperm morphology, mobility and penetration capabilities as well as sperm count. These characteristics are important for evaluating fertility. Adequate hormonal regulation provided by the H-P-G axis is essential for spermatogenesis to occur.

2.2 Alterations of male reproductive physiology

Physiological suppression of hormones as well as alterations to sperm often remains undetected (Arce et al. 1993a; Cumming, 1989b; De Souza et al. 1994a).

Disrupted testicular androgenesis and spermatogenesis are not as apparent compared to those symptoms that have been observed with the female reproductive system (Cumming et al, 1994). Interruption to the H-P-G axis may occur at any level. The adrenal axis, the role of prolactin and other neuroendocrine disturbances may also contribute toward the suppression of circulating testosterone. It has been suggested that the reduction in testosterone within certain populations may be explained by a decrease in production of the gonadal steroid or the increase in clearance of the hormone (Cumming et al, 1989b; De Souza et al, 1997; Wheeler et al, 1984). Within the male athletic population, there remains uncertainty as to the mechanisms that lead to the disruption of the H-P-G axis.

Decreased circulating levels of testosterone may affect development and maintenance of secondary sex characteristics. Low androgen levels may also result in decreased sex drive and libido. Bone density has not been surveyed in males to the same extent as females, with respect to suppressed reproductive hormone profiles. However it is possible that reduced levels of circulating testosterone may affect skeletal development and maintenance as well as postpone the onset of puberty in males (Bennell et al, 1996). Sperm quality is also at risk, including altered and, or reduced sperm density, sperm motility, sperm morphology and in vitro penetration. These characteristics, specifically reduction of in vitro penetration capabilities, pose as potential complications associated with infertility (Arce et al, 1993a). Further understanding of the mechanisms responsible for alterations to the H-P-G axis and testicular function is needed.

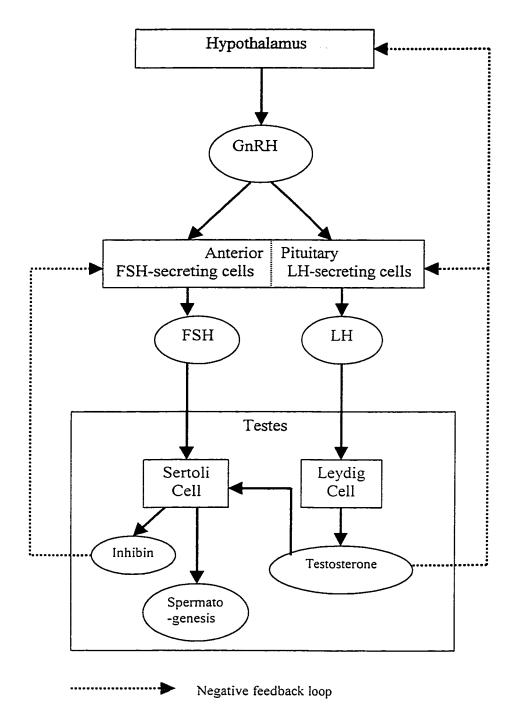


Figure 1. Control of testicular function. (Modified from Sherwood, 1991)

2.3 Alterations of reproductive physiology in male athletes

There is sufficient literature suggesting that male endurance athletes have a greater tendency for physiological changes of the reproductive axis compared to healthy sedentary males. High volumes of aerobic training are correlated with decreased levels of testosterone, altered LH production and release as well as decreased prolactin and increased cortisol (Arce et al, 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Griffith et al, 1990; Hackney et al, 1988; Hackney et al, 1990; Jensen et al, 1995; McColl et al, 1989; Roberts et al, 1993; Wheeler et al, 1984; Wheeler et al, 1991). Further, in comparison to non-athletic males, endurance-trained males have a greater tendency for decreased sperm production, motility and altered sperm morphology (Arce et al, 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Lucia et al, 1996). Similarly, female endurance-trained athletes also express a higher frequency of physiological changes to the reproductive axis when compared to healthy sedentary controls. Table 1 provides a summary of the literature regarding training and specific hormone profiles in male athletes.

Research exploring predisposing factors of alterations to reproductive hormones in male athletes is limited. Potential pathways leading to alterations in male reproduction have been proposed (Figure 2). Figure 2 illustrates the potential locations along the H-P-G axis where disturbances may occur for male athletes as well as illustrates potential outcomes of these disturbances including changes to endocrine profiles as well as to sperm quality (Arce et al. 1993a). Within the female athletic population, there is more information providing insight to alterations to the reproductive system. While one direct mechanism has not been identified, several

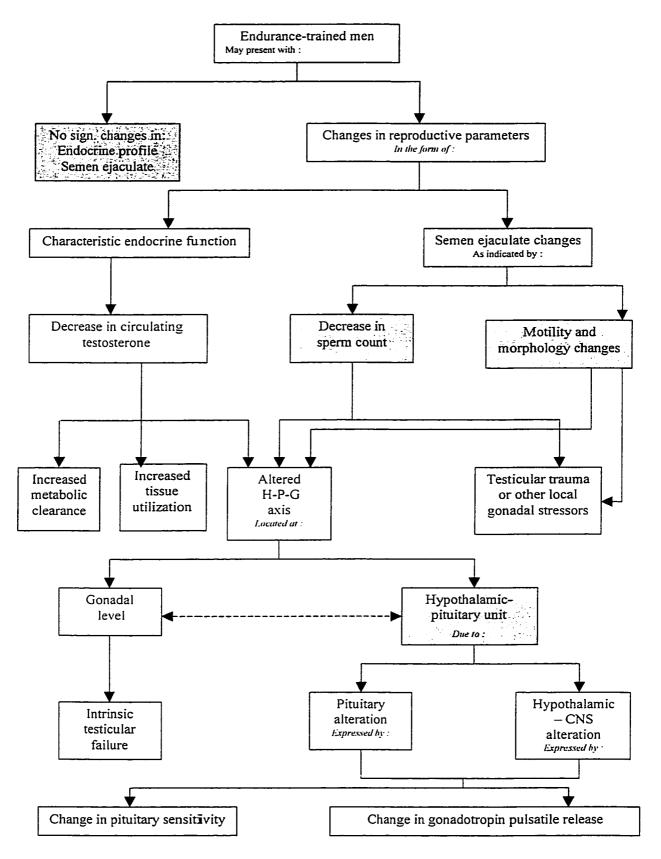


Figure 2. Potential alterations of reproductive function in male athletes. (Modified from Arce et al. 1993a)

Table 1 - Resting hormone concentrations in male endurance-trained athletes compared to sedentary controls.

Corrisol			SN	ı	NS	SN	ı	E	Increased	SN	í
Prolactin		NS	SN	\$	SN	SN	SN	8		Decreased	Decreased
FSH (ev.		NS	NS	t	8	6	NS	•	c	NS	NS
THE STATE OF THE S		SN	SN	I.	NS	NS	NS	Decreased (area under curve, amplitude)	5	NS	NS
Free	Testosterone	Decreased	Decreased	ı	Decrease	NS	ı	1	ı	Decreased	ı
Total	Testosterone	Decreased	Decreased	Decreased	Decrease	Decreased	NS	Decreased	Decreased	Decreased	Decreased
Exercise	parameters	Trained = 9.7 lrs/wk; 109.2 km/wk	Highly trained = >108km/wk (9.7 hrs/wk)	Training increase = overload total km/wk (overtraining)	Trained = 68.5 min/day; 6.6 days/wk	Trained = 17 km/day	Training increase = 60 - 100km/wk	Trained = > 80 km/wk	Training increase = increase total volume (overtraining)	Trained = > 64 km/wk	Training increase = 56 km/wk from 0 km/wk
Type of	Study	Cross- sectional	Cross- sectional	2 week prospective	Cross- sectional	Cross- sectional	Longi- tudinal	Cross- sectional	Inter- vention	Cross- sectional	Longi- tudinal
		Arce et al, 1993b	De Souza et al, 1994a	Griffith et al, 1990	Hackney et al, 1988	Hackney et al, 1990	Jensen et al, 1995	McColl et al, 1989	Roberts et al, 1993	Wheeler et al, 1984	Wheeler et al, 1991

Note: N.S. - Not significant

predisposing factors have been identified in female athletes experiencing menstrual irregularities. These include low body weight, low body fat, and increased stress levels (both physical and emotional) (Cumming et al, 1994). Other literature has examined the relationship between energy balance, energy intake and energy expenditure with reproductive hormonal profiles and menstrual cycle alterations in females (Beidleman et al, 1995; Horton et al, 1994). Within the male athletic population, research to date has been primarily restricted to volume of training when examining reproductive hormones. Further discussion of energy balance and its markers will follow.

3. VARIABLES AFFECTING REPRODUCTIVE PHYSIOLOGY

High levels of physical activity or stress as well as low body weight in males may affect fertility (Cumming et al, 1994). Where short-duration, intense exercise results in increased serum testosterone, prolonged submaximal exercise suppresses circulating serum testosterone (Cumming, 1989b). Long-term effects of endurance exercise in males often result in continual suppression of serum testosterone (Arce et al, 1993a; Cumming, 1989b). Some female athletes also display blunted gonadal steroid levels (Harber et al, 1998; Loucks et al, 1989; Lund-Hetland et al, 1993). Similar mechanisms may be operating in both males and females, hence data derived from women may facilitate uncovering factors responsible for reproductive alterations in males. In particular, the role of energy balance and its influence on reproductive hormonal profiles in female athletes has received much attention.

Similar investigations in males may elucidate the role of energy balance and reproductive hormonal profiles in males.

There is no literature that has calculated energy balance, encompassing energy intake, resting energy expenditure, thermic effect of feeding and exercise energy expenditure in males. Research has not been able to support that highly trained endurance male athletes are in a chronic state of negative energy balance, nor the potential impacts of this on the male reproductive system. Several studies of female athletes have evaluated energy balance (Beidleman et al, 1995; Horton et al, 1994), however standardized methods have not been established. Energy intake, food sources and eating attitudes of male athletes also require further research. Similarly, accurate measurements of energy expenditure from all sources (at rest, thermic effect of feeding, daily activity and physical activity) would be beneficial in understanding energy balance. Such in-depth exploration is required in the prevention and reversibility of physiological disruptions to the male reproductive system. Literature pertaining to energy balance markers will follow.

3.1 Energy Balance

Negative energy balance (defined as insufficient energy intake to meet the demands of energy expenditure) may be responsible for alterations in the female reproductive system (Beidleman et al, 1995). In absence of sufficient energy to support the menstrual cycle (Bisdee et al, 1989), the body may try to conserve energy through suppressing involvement of the reproductive system (Loucks et al, 1994b; Wade et al, 1996). Further, insufficient energy intake for energy expended has

resulted in no change to body weight (Drinkwater et al, 1984; Myerson et al, 1991), suggesting that energy conservation may be occurring. Others have found no evidence of energy conservation in female athletes (Wilmore et al, 1992). Although data are limited in the male population, information suggests that low energy intake as well as high energy expenditure may result in altered H-P-G endocrine profiles in males (De Souza et al, 1994a; McColl et al, 1989; MacConnie et al, 1986; Rojdmark et al, 1987; Cameron et al, 1991).

Energy availability (defined as dietary energy intake minus energy expenditure during exercise over a short period of time) has been studied in females (Loucks et al, 1994b). Circulating triiodothyronine (T₃) was evaluated after a 4-day energy availability treatment in females (Loucks et al. 1994b). Reduced levels of T₃. a marker of energetic challenge, were observed in subjects who received no dietary compensation for the exercise performed. Energy deficiency may be alleviated in endurance-trained females by increased energy intake. This may prevent the compensatory response of the H-P-G axis to conserve energy expenditure (Loucks et al, 1994b). There are no data at present investigating similar energetic challenges in male athletes.

Energy balance requires an examination of energy intake in addition to energy expenditure. Total energy expenditure encompasses energy expenditure from rest (REE), thermic effect of feeding (TEF) (calculated at 10% of REE), as well as energy from daily activity and physical activity. Negative energy balance, resulting from insufficient energy intake relative to total energy expenditure, may be a catalyst for disrupting the H-P-G axis (Loucks et al, 1994a). Although some aspects of energy

balance have been evaluated, no study to date has presented a complete analysis of energy balance in male athletes and related that to reproductive hormone profiles. In some females, energy intake does not match estimated energy expenditure from exercise (Beidleman et al, 1995; Cumming et al, 1994; Loucks, 1996). A chronic state of such may result in the body becoming more efficient to preserve energy necessary for life function, including thermoregulation, cellular maintenance and locomotion (Wade et al, 1996). Therefore, in these athletes suppressed physiological adaptations may present (Loucks et al. 1994b; Wade et al, 1996).

Studies that have measured components of energy balance in relation to reproductive physiology in females and males will be reviewed. Bullen et al (1985) employed an 8-week program of strenuous exercise in previously untrained females. Weight-loss occurred in one group while weight was maintained in the other by adjusting energy intake. Although both groups had disruptions to the menstrual cycle, the prevalence was lower in the weight-maintenance group. Habitual energy intake is often similar between amenorrheic and eumenorrheic endurance-trained athletes as well as non-athletic controls despite significantly higher duration of training per week in the amenorrheic group (Harber et al. 1998). Amenorrheic athletes also displayed significantly lower T₃ levels compared to eumenorrheic athletes and controls in this study (Harber et al, 1998) and suggests an association between insufficient energy intake, increased energy expenditure and alterations to reproductive hormone profiles. In males, insufficient energy intake during an extensive 95-day expedition coincided with a marked decrease in testosterone and mean LH values. Negative energy balance was suggested to have developed in these individuals (Stroud et al, 1997). Conversely, eight elite athletes participated in a 7-day study wherein they consented to have energy intake recorded and their energy turnovers measured through use of doubly-labeled water (Sjodin et al, 1994).

Positive energy balance (defined by authors as energy intake minus energy turnover) occurred over the 7 days however there were no endocrine measures taken. The extent to which the presence of a chronic state of negative energy balance exists in athletes is unclear.

3.2 Eating attitudes

Anorexic tendencies are associated with suppressed hormones of the reproductive system as well as menstrual cycle irregularities (Fichter et al, 1989). Although anorexia nervosa is less prevalent in males. Wheeler et al (1986) noted an increased tendency towards aberrant eating attitudes accompanied by lower levels of testosterone in high mileage runners in comparison to low mileage runners and sedentary males. Allotting time to train over to eat was a regular occurrence for 18% of male runners and an occasional occurrence for 55% (Wheeler et al, 1986).

Restrained eating is associated with reduced daily energy intake in males (Tepper et al, 1996) however, the extent to which eating attitudes in high endurance athletes may affect energy intake or reproduction in males is unknown. Examination of eating attitudes in male athletes is extremely limited, therefore conclusions cannot be drawn regarding differences of eating attitudes existing between male athletes and non-athletes.

3.3 Energy intake

There is much information regarding energy intake and the H-P-G axis in females but there are limited data describing energy intakes of the male athletic population. Both moderate and severe energy restriction have been studied with respect to female reproductive hormones and suggest that, in females, acute depression of energy intake results in disruptions to the H-P-G axis (Cameron, 1989; Loucks, 1996; Loucks et al., 1994a; Olson et al., 1995; Rosetta, 1993; Williams et al., 1995). Sedentary females experienced a decrease in LH pulse frequency with an increase in LH pulse amplitude with 4 days of restricted energy intake (10 kcal/kgLBM/day) (Loucks et al. 1994b). A three-day fast in females resulted in significantly decreased LH pulse frequency with no accompanying change in LH mean value or amplitude nor subsequent follicular development or ovulation (Olson et al, 1995). Anorexia nervosa patients, who are in a chronic state of caloric restriction, often have LH patterns resembling of those of young children (Fichter et al, 1989). These patterns of LH are of insufficient amplitude to elicit an LH surge. thus impacting the menstrual cycle.

Research on the effects of energy deficiency on male reproduction is limited. however acute responses of the hormonal axis to energy deprivation may provide insight to the mechanisms responsible. Cameron et al (1991) reported decreased testosterone, LH and FSH concentrations in healthy men within 48 hours of fasting. LH pulse frequency and mean value concentrations were suppressed, but amplitude was unaltered. Cortisol was also measured but unchanged, which suggested that fasting was not associated with an adequate stress to the adrenal axis and therefore the

dampening of the reproductive axis may be independent of the adrenal axis under these circumstances. Short-term fasting inhibited Leydig cell function as testosterone levels decreased by 34 % (Rojdmark, 1987). As blood glucose levels dropped significantly during the study, a second group was administered oral glucose supplementation during the same fasting period. The ingestion of the energy from the oral glucose supplement resulted in no decrease in testosterone as previously experienced with the fast (Rojdmark, 1987). The decreased secretion of testosterone in response to decreased energy intake may be attributed to LH responses as has been demonstrated in females in fasting environments. Weight fluctuation, imposed by alterations in energy intake, may also affect male reproductive hormones. Wrestlers, who need to reduce body weight during their competitive season, may be at risk of suppressed levels of circulating reproductive hormones. Male wrestlers often have decreased body fat and body weight during their in-season accompanied by decreased testosterone and prolactin in comparison with their post-season states (Strauss et al. 1985). There was a strong positive correlation between percent body fat and serum testosterone in the amateur wrestlers during their competitive season.

There has been minimal research on the effects of dietary components on physiological changes to the reproductive system in males. De Souza et al (1994a) analyzed 4-day habitual diet records and found no significant differences between males other than increased carbohydrate consumption in the high mileage runners compared to the moderate mileage runners and sedentary controls. Macronutrient intake of male endurance athletes whose energy consumption was considered "low" (negative energy balance) was compared to those whose intake was considered

"adequate" (positive energy balance). There was no difference in percent of fat, protein or carbohydrate intake between the groups (Thompson et al, 1995). However, when expressed as grams/day or grams/kilogram body weight, fat and protein were lower in the low energy group (negative energy balance) (Thompson et al, 1995). Further research is necessary to examine the effects of energy and macronutrient intake on reproductive hormone profiles in males.

3.4 Resting energy expenditure

Resting energy expenditure (REE) is a major contributor to total energy expenditure and is important when analyzing energy balance. Prediction formulas are often used as a means of estimating energy expenditure at rest. Insight to the influence of energy restriction as well as energy expenditure on REE may contribute to greater understanding of the role of REE in energy balance.

Inadequate energy intake for males who have high training volumes may result in a state of negative energy balance. The outcomes of this imbalance on REE are inconclusive. It had been hypothesized that resistance training would preserve REE (absolute) through increase in fat free mass during a weight-loss program in obese subjects (Geliebter et al. 1997). Compared to the other groups, who exercised aerobically or relied on diet alone for weight loss, there were no significant differences with respect to REE after the 8-week program. Ballor et al (1995) performed a meta-analysis on REE reported in previous studies. Results indicated that weight-loss from diet restriction had negative effects on REE while exercise during weight-loss had no significant effects.

Observed increases in REE (absolute) in athletes may be attributed to acute effects of exercise on metabolism rather than a chronic adaptation of the metabolic system (Bullough et al. 1995). It has been suggested that athletes with higher REE may be less efficient during non-exercise portions of the day compared to sedentary controls (Beidleman et al, 1995; Burke et al, 1993). However, much research suggests that the REE of endurance athletes may not be different or, conversely, slightly lower in comparison to non-athletes (Thompson et al, 1995; Tremblay et al, 1997). Where highly trained male endurance athletes of matched energy expenditure recorded caloric intake for 7 days, 6 of 10 participants were classified as having low energy intake, resulting in negative energy balance (Thompson et al. 1995). This group displayed significantly lower 24-hour energy expenditure (absolute), primarily accounted for by resting energy expenditure and sleeping energy expenditure. Endurance training resulted in an 8% decrease in REE (absolute) in males, even though fat-free mass was preserved (Tremblay et al. 1997). The effect of energy balance on REE may support the concept of conservation of energy when availability is compromised (Drinkwater et al. 1984; Myerson et al. 1991). This conservation could result in decreased REE accompanied by suppressed reproductive hormones as a means of maintaining energy for basic life function (Cumming et al, 1994; Loucks et al, 1994b; Wade et al, 1996).

3.5 Thermic effect of feeding

Thermic effect of feeding refers to the energetic demands on the body for ingesting and digesting foods. The average thermic effect of feeding (TEF) for adults is approximately 10 % of total daily energy expenditure (McArdle et al, 1991). Witt et al (1993) identified trained males to have significantly higher TEF than untrained males, independent of carbohydrate ingestion. Other research has measured TEF through indirect calorimetry following the ingestion of a known macronutrient liquid meal and found no significant differences between trained and untrained females (Beidleman et al, 1995; Burke et al, 1993). Although there is no literature addressing TEF with respect to hormonal profiles of the reproductive axis in males, it should be noted that it is a component of energy expenditure and should therefore be included in estimation of total daily energy expenditure.

3.6 Exercise energy expenditure

3.6.1 Volume of training and alterations of reproductive physiology

Extensive information is available regarding volume and intensity of activity in both male and female athletes as they pertain to physiological adaptations of the reproductive system, including suppressed hormones. In females, an exercise threshold at which menstrual cycle irregularities occurs in females has been defined using volume and intensity of exercise (Beitins et al, 1991; Bullen, 1984; Bullen et al, 1985; Rogol et al, 1992). More recently, a similar exploration of volume of exercise in male athletes has been completed. Volume threshold was defined as increased volume of endurance training and was associated with suppression of male

reproductive hormones as well as subclinical changes to semen quality (De Souza et al, 1994a). Although a specific volume of training was not identified where the male reproductive hormonal profile and, or semen characteristics were altered physiologically, the following categories were identified. High mileage runners defined as running a minimum of 104 kilometers per week (9.7 hours per week) had significantly lower total testosterone and free testosterone than moderate mileage runners (40 to 56 kilometers per week, averaging 3.2 hours per week) as well as sedentary controls (De Souza et al, 1994a). High mileage runners displayed lower motile sperm count, sperm density and penetration capabilities than controls. Sperm morphology was also significantly altered in the high mileage group compared to the moderate group or the controls. De Souza et al (1994a) found a significant correlation between these semen characteristics and volume of training (km) where r = 0.375 for semen volume, r = 0.484 for sperm motility, r = 0.376 for sperm density and r = 0.485 for sperm morphology (round cells). Habitual energy intake differed. when expressed as kcal/kg/day, in that high mileage runners consumed more than moderate or controls. However, it was not calculated as to whether the intake was sufficient compensation for expenditure of energy from the high mileage athletes. Conclusions were drawn that a threshold of training existed, above which male gonadal hormone and sperm production was suppressed. A similar threshold has been proposed in male athletes presenting with low testosterone with no change to LH. suggesting possible interruptions to the reproductive axis from exercise may be limited to the gonads (McColl et al, 1989). Investigation of other characteristics in a high mileage population, including exercise energy expenditure, energy intake, eating

attitudes and resting energy expenditure were not measured (McColl et al, 1989).

Further discussion on exercise energy expenditure through exercise will follow in the next section.

Volume and, or mileage of training, especially in runners, has been consistently correlated with lower total testosterone (Arce et al, 1993b; Hackney et al, 1990; Hackney et al, 1988; McColl et al, 1989; Wheeler et al, 1991; Wheeler et al, 1986; Wheeler et al, 1984). Free testosterone, the biologically active form of the gonadal sex steroid, was significantly decreased in endurance trained males (Arce et al, 1993b; Hackney et al, 1988; Wheeler et al, 1991; Wheeler et al, 1986; Wheeler et al, 1984). Further, there have been reports of decreased LH pulse frequency, decreased area under the LH curve (MacConnie et al, 1986; McColl et al, 1989) and changes in sperm quality (Arce et al, 1993b; Jensen et al, 1995). Exhaustive endurance training and over-trained states result in similar findings (Griffith et al., 1990; Roberts et al, 1993).

3.6.2 Exercise expenditure and the H-P-G

Two weeks of exhaustive endurance training (cycling and running) resulted in decreased plasma testosterone accompanied by a decline in sex drive and sexual activity (Griffith et al. 1990). The lower sex drive may have been a symptom of reproductive dysfunction, may have been from general fatigue or may have been a sign of overtraining (Griffith et al, 1990). However, as sex drive is a CNS response, it is possible that neuroendocrine stimulus at the hypothalamus may be affected with endurance exercise.

In females, routine training has been associated with a decrease in LH pulse frequency and increase in pulse amplitude (Cumming, 1989a; Loucks et al, 1989). The findings in males are less conclusive. Six male marathoners presented with decreased frequency and amplitude of LH compared to healthy controls (MacConnie et al, 1986). Gonadal hormones did not differ at baseline, but increased in response to an exercise bout. Temporary elevated concentrations of these hormones resulting from daily exercise may lead to suppression of GnRH. A deficiency in hypothalamic GnRH may have been present in male marathon runners (MacConnie et al, 1986). Blunted LH response to exogenous GnRH administration in endurance-trained males may have been indicative of alterations to the H-P-G axis not present in sedentary males (Hackney et al. 1990). Hormonal profiles of male athletes, with a training volume greater than 80 kilometers per week, revealed depressed LH levels without an effect on pulsatile release (McColl et al, 1989). In contrast to these findings, some find no differences in LH (Arce et al. 1993b; Wheeler et al. 1991) or an increase in LH (Hackney et al. 1990). Prolactin, as well, has been noted as reduced (Wheeler et al. 1984; Wheeler et al. 1991), unaltered (Arce et al. 1993b; Hackney et al. 1988) as well as elevated (Jensen et al, 1995) with endurance training.

Although methodological inconsistencies with respect to sampling for LH pulsatility can not be overlooked, evidence suggests that volume of endurance training may have an effect on hormonal changes at the levels of the gonads and the pituitary. The mechanisms for observed hormonal differences are not fully understood. It has been suggested that a threshold of exercise may exist where testosterone is altered at a certain volume of training, and a much greater volume is

necessary to evoke changes in LH (McColl et al, 1989). This would support data reporting decreased chronic testosterone response to endurance exercise with no alterations to the hypothalamic or pituitary hormones (Hackney et al, 1990; Wheeler et al, 1991; Wheeler et al, 1984).

In a cross-sectional study, both total and free testosterone were lower in runners than untrained males while prolactin and cortisol were not different (Hackney et al, 1988). LH was higher in these runners, reducing the possibility that the H-P-G axis was directly responsible for alterations to gonadal secretion of anabolic steroid hormones. The authors suggest that testicular function may have been altered and therefore related to the observed decrease in testosterone production. Further to this, a short-term over-training protocol in 5 endurance-trained males resulted in a significant decrease in testosterone and sperm concentration (Roberts et al., 1993). Three months post-training, testosterone levels had returned to baseline however sperm concentration remained significantly lower. This suggests that testicular function was altered, as previously proposed (Hackney et al, 1988). Although the previous studies were performed in runners, there are indications that exercising on a bicycle may directly affect the testes. It has been suggested that temperature control and, or microtrauma to the testes while cycling may partially accounted for noted alterations to sperm motility in competitive cyclists that were not observed in marathon runners (Lucia et al. 1996).

3.6.3 Methodological considerations of measuring energy expenditure

Volume of training, used as a measure for energy expenditure, may be essential information in evaluating the reproductive system in athletes. Failure to differentiate high endurance athletes from recreational athletes may result in no significant differences with respect to endocrine profiles. Comparison of endurance-trained males and resistance-trained males with untrained males resulted in alterations to reproductive hormonal profiles of athletes yet only endurance-trained males displayed altered sperm characteristics (Arce et al, 1993b). Therefore, details regarding training parameters (volume, duration, intensity, frequency) are needed when analyzing physiological changes to the reproductive system in male athletes. As such changes are often subclinical in males, appropriate attention regarding training volume may provide identification of males at risk of fertility complications. Therefore, it is imperative that training volume is better understood with respect to changes in reproductive physiology.

Few studies have accurately calculated energy expenditure from exercise. Speed of training may provide indication of training intensity, as would heart rate records however few studies have reported this information. Monitoring physical activity through self-reported measures are common methods for quantifying energy expenditure from exercise. Training volume, expressed as distance or hours per given time period, are generally reported. Ideal methods of closed chamber calorimetry are not practical in many sport settings, however accelerometers such as the TriTrac R3-DTM and CalTracTM monitors are both valid and reliable for extrapolating information regarding energy costs of movement (Welk et al. 1995).

There has been limited research on the effects of intensity of training or training modalities other than running with respect to energy expenditure and the male reproductive system. Lucia et al (1996) compared hormones and semen characteristics of competitive cyclists with triathletes, runners and controls across different periods of the training calendar. There were no significant differences in reproductive hormones or sperm quality, with exception of the cyclists portraying decreased sperm motility during the competitive season. Training characteristics for the different athletes were not well-described and energy expenditure was not measured. Neary et al (1994) also investigated hormonal alterations to training in male cyclists. However, most research has examined runners, therefore transferring these findings to other sports may be problematic.

4. SUMMARY

There is sufficient research to suggest that energy costs of endurance exercise may interrupt reproductive function in both females and males. Although insufficient energy intake for total energy expenditure may increase risk of suppressed reproductive hormone profiles, calculations of energy balance as they relate to such are limited. To date, a volume threshold effect has been identified in males, where exceeding the threshold with respect to volume of training, is associated with a decrease in circulating testosterone as well as alterations to spermatogenesis (De Souza et al, 1994a). Reduced energy availability has also been explored in females with respect to menstrual cycle properties (Loucks et al, 1994b). There is sufficient

evidence to suggest that the male H-P-G axis is affected in a similar manner to females, hence this information may relate to the male athletic population.

Information on energy intake has indicated that acute bouts of fasting may suppress pituitary and gonadal endocrine production (Cameron et al, 1991; Rojdmark, 1987).

Chronic effects of inadequate energy intake on the male reproductive system have not been measured. Eating attitudes and their influences on eating behaviors in male endurance athletes has not been measured in evaluating energy balance or suppressed reproductive hormones. Where much attention has been focused on volume of training, direct measurement of energy expenditure from exercise has not occurred. Further, most research on exercise and chronic hormonal changes have been limited to running as the primary modality.

Characteristics of highly trained endurance male athletes, who have disruptions to the H-P-G axis in comparison to athletes of moderate endurance and sedentary males, have not been clearly identified. Energy balance, energy intake, eating attitudes, resting energy expenditures and exercise energy expenditure need further investigation in endurance male athletes and sedentary individuals to determine the effects of these variables on the H-P-G axis.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

1. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The experimental design was a descriptive cross-sectional study consisting of three groups of young men. All groups completed similar measurements and questionnaires. Ethical approval was obtained from the Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation at the University of Alberta (Appendix A).

2. SUBJECT INFORMATION

Fifty-two healthy males, including athletic and sedentary individuals, volunteered to participate in this investigation. Athletes were engaged predominantly in cycle training. Subjects were recruited through word of mouth, posters at the University of Alberta campus and various cycling stores in Alberta as well as an advertisement in a provincial cycling newsletter. Samples of the recruitment posters are included in Appendix B. Upon completion of an informed consent (Appendix C). subjects were assigned to one of three groups depending upon their self-selected number of hours of aerobic training per week (Appendix D, Section A, Question 1) (Table 2). Each individual was interviewed at the time to confirm selection based upon yearly training schedule. Sample size for each group was 16 in the High Endurance (HE), 20 in the Moderate Endurance (ME) and 16 in the Sedentary Control (SC).

Table 2. Group categories determined by self-selected number of hours of training

Group 3	Self-selected Hours of Aerobic Training//Week
High- Endurance (HE)	11 – 15 †
Moderate Endurance(ME)	5-10
Sedentary Control (SC)	0-4

The following eligibility criteria were met by each subject:

- 1) Chronological age of 20 to 38 years.
- 2) Healthy individuals free from injury, with no reported history of thyroid or eating disorders, and free from use of medications within the last 6 months that are known to influence hormonal status.
- 3) Non-smoking.
- 4) Stable body weight over the last 6 months (± 3 kg); body fat < 26%, determined by hydrostatic weighing.
- 5) Intense regular resistance training was not a component of activity program.

 Resistance training was not performed more than 2 times per week and weight lifted was less than 75% of maximal effort.

3. SCREENING

3.1 Health Status and Reproductive Profile: Each subject completed a demographic questionnaire (Appendix D) that provided information about health status, medical history, use of medications, known reproductive problems or complications with regards to reproductive or metabolic hormones.

3.2 Physical Activity Status: The completed demographic questionnaire (Appendix D) provided information about subjects' training volume including modality, intensity, duration and frequency for the past 12 months as well as level of competition, if relevant. Subjects were asked to record the number of hours of aerobic exercise completed each week over 12 months. Each subject also documented his current training routine (where applicable). This information was used as a confirmation of hours of aerobic training per week as well as provides descriptive information regarding modality, intensity, duration and frequency of exercise in each group.

4. MEASUREMENT PROTOCOLS

A schematic diagram of the study protocol is illustrated in Figure 3.

4.1 Resting Energy Expenditure: Subjects reported to the Metabolic Testing Lab in the Faculty of Agricultural, Food and Nutritional Sciences at the University of Alberta between 7:00am and 9:00am. No exercise was permitted 24 hours prior to testing and subjects were fasted for 12 hours. Subjects were asked to arrive at the lab at a leisurely pace where they arrived by motor vehicle and took the elevator to the 4th floor to the Metabolic lab. Following an explanation of the test, each subject rested for 30 minutes in a supine position while lights were dimmed and relaxation music was played. A transparent ventilated hood was then placed over the subject while oxygen consumption was measured at rest for another 30 minutes. Subjects were not permitted to sleep or move during the 30 minutes of steady state measurements. Oxygen consumption was measured by indirect calorimetry using a

metabolic cart (Vmax 29N, Sensormedics, Yorba Linda, California). The metabolic cart was calibrated against a reference gas mixture and relevant information including height, weight, age, gender were entered into the metabolic software. Steady state values were for minute ventilation, VO₂ and respiratory exchange ratio (RER). The Weir equation was programmed into the computer to calculate resting energy expenditure (REE) (kcals/day). The Weir equation is as follows:

REE (kcals/day) = $3.9[VO_2(ml/min)] + 1.1[VCO_2(ml/min)] \times 1.41$

4.2 Body Composition: This was established through two methods of assessment: sum of five skinfolds (CSTF, 1986) and hydrostatic weighing (Brozek et al. 1963) using a helium dilution method for determining residual volume (Motley et al. 1957). Both sum of skinfolds and hydrostatic weighing were measured on the same day. All measurements were taken at the University of Alberta, Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation by the same technician. Subjects were asked to refrain from eating 4 hours prior to testing as well as to refrain from exercise, prior to testing. Skinfold sites included biceps, triceps, subscapularis, iliac crest and medial calf. Measures were taken twice and measurements of 0.4mm or less were averaged. A third measure was taken where values exceeded 0.4mm. The two closest measures were then averaged to determine individual site measures.

Residual volume was measured with the helium dilution technique on a SensorMedics 2450, Pulmonary Function Laboratory cart (Yorba Linda, California). Test procedures were explained to each subject.

- 4.3 Aerobic Fitness Assessment: Maximal aerobic consumption (VO₂max) was determined using an incremental protocol on a Monarch cycle ergometer (Varberg, Sweden). Subjects maintained a cadence not less than 60 rpm with increased resistance of 0.5 kp every 2 minutes until ventilatory threshold was indicated by a decrease and plateau in Ve/VCO₂ prior to a systematic increase with increased power output as well as a respiratory exchange ratio greater than 1.05 (Bhambhani et al, 1985). Resistance was then increased every minute by 0.5 kp to volitional exhaustion. Gases were analyzed every 20 seconds using an open circuit spirometer (SensorMedics Horizon Metabolic Cart, Anaheim, California). Heart rate was recorded every minute (Polar Electro Heart Rate Monitor, Polar USA Inc, Stanford, Connecticut). Criteria for peak VO₂ included: 1) no increase in O₂ uptake greater than 100 ml with increased exercise intensity (plateau criteria); 2) a respiratory exchange ratio greater than 1.1; 3) volitional exhaustion (Thoden, 1991).
- 4.4 Dietary Intake: Subjects were trained by the investigator to complete a 4-day dietary intake record. All details of food consumption were recorded in the booklets provided. Food labels and nutritional information sheets were also collected when possible. A sample of the dietary record sheet and hint sheet is provided in Appendix E. The 4-day diet collection coincided with the 4-day physical activity assessment to assist with energy balance determination. Diet records were analyzed using the Food Processor II ™ program (ESHA Research, Oregon). Accuracy checks were performed after the 4-day recording to ensure food measurements and food descriptors were detailed and accurate. The analyzed dietary intake record provided

information regarding habitual energy intake and macronutrient sources. Averages were obtained for total energy, carbohydrate, fat and protein intakes (g and % of total daily energy intake).

4.5 Physical Activity Assessment:

4.5.1 TriTrac R3-DTM: Subjects wore a portable accelerometer, the TriTrac R3-D™ calorimeter monitor (Hemokinetics, Madison, WI, 1996) on their hip in a special carrying case for 4 days other than while sleeping or engaged in water activities (ie. showers or swimming). Subjects' weight, height, age and gender were entered into the computer software program and the TriTrac R3-D™ was programmed to record motion at 1-minute intervals. Once the TriTrac R3-D™ was loaded with the subjects' information, the subject was instructed to wear the unit for the specified 4 days. The TriTrac R3-DTM measured activity on three planes: horizontal (y-axis), vertical (x-axis) and mediolateral (z-axis). It calculated and displayed resting energy expenditure, energy expenditure from exercise as well as total energy expenditure. Data were recorded in the TriTrac R3-DTM unit for these days and was then downloaded into the software program to display energy expenditure. The equation used to determine energy expenditure from exercise was based on the body mass multiplied by acceleration principle where vector magnitude was determined for each minute from the three planes measured. The equation is as follows:

Vector Magnitude =
$$\sqrt{(x-axis)^2 + (y-axis)^2 + (z-axis)^2}$$

(Hemokinetics, Madison, WI, 1996)

The equation for calculating metabolic calories (resting energy expenditure per minute) for men is as follows:

The TriTrac R3-DTM provides a reliable and valid measurement of energy expenditure in daily activities (Welk et al, 1995). The TriTrac R3-DTM has not been validated for cycling activity.

4.5.2 Physical Activity Logbook: For the same 4 days, subjects recorded all bouts of physical activity in a detailed logbook (Harber et al, 1998). A copy of this logbook is provided in Appendix F. Subjects were asked to continue their usual level of physical activity for the four days. They were required to record their activities, the number of minutes they participated in the activities as well as the perceived intensities of the activities. Perceived intensities from which to choose included: "1" (Very light, not vigorous at all), "2" (Light, somewhat vigorous), "3" (Medium, moderately vigorous). "4" (Heavy, vigorous) and "5" (Very very heavy. extremely vigorous). Duration of exercise at various intensities were recorded. The endurance athletes were provided an additional recording sheet for all cycling activity. This form was more detailed in that it required subjects to record distance traveled and average speed while cycling which was determined through using a cyclocomputer (provided by researcher where necessary) as well as intensity and duration of exercise.

4.6 Eating Attitudes: Subjects completed the Eating Disorder Inventory (EDI) (Garner et al, 1983) and the Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire - Restraint Subscale (DEBQ-R) (van Strien et al, 1986). The EDI questionnaire consisted of 64 questions including 8 subscales (drive for thinness, bulimia, body dissatisfaction, ineffectiveness, perfectionism, interpersonal distrust, interoceptive awareness and maturity fears). Test-retest reliability of the EDI subscales has been demonstrated in both males and females (Garner, 1991). The DEBQ-R has been reported as both reliable and valid in males and females (van Strein et al, 1986; Allison, 1995). These questionnaires were coded to establish anonymity. Questionnaires were completed following the 4-day diet and activity records. A sample of questions from these questionnaires is provided in Appendix G.

4.7 Serum Hormonal Concentration

4.7.1 Blood collection: A 20 ml blood sample was obtained from each subject at the anticubital region by trained personnel. Subjects were requested to arrive between 4 pm and 6 pm and rest for 15 minutes prior to sample being drawn to account for postural plasma shifts. They were requested to refrain from exercise that day prior to the blood sample being drawn. Subjects were asked to keep well hydrated throughout the day and requested to refrain from eating for 4 hours prior to sample collection. Samples were allowed to clot at room temperature for 45-60 min and then centrifuged at 4°C for 12 minutes at 2500 revolutions per minute. Serum was aliquotted and then stored at -80°C until RIA analysis

4.7.2 Analysis of blood: Serum was analyzed for free testosterone, total testosterone, cortisol, FSH, LH, Prolactin, T3 and T4. Serum samples were allowed to thaw one time and were then processed using radioimmunoassays (RIA) using reagent kits (Coat-A-Count, Diagnostic Products Corporation, Los Angeles, CA). All samples were analyzed in duplicate within a single assay according to the instructions provided by the manufacturers of the kits. Controls with known concentrations were added to each assay to determine intra-assay variation. Precision of each assay was measured by a computer-generated coefficient of variability (CV). Acceptable intra-assay CV's were 6 - 15% (Chard et al, 1987).

5. CALCULATION OF ESTIMATED TOTAL ENERGY BALANCE

Energy balance was derived from calculating total energy expenditure and subtracting that from total energy intake. Total energy intake was obtained from the average of the 4-day dietary intake (section 4.4). Total energy expenditure was calculated by combining resting energy expenditure, energy expenditure from exercise and thermic effect of feeding. Resting energy expenditure (REE) was estimated from the results of REE test at the Metabolic Testing Lab at the University of Alberta (section 4.1). Energy expenditure from daily active living and exercise was estimated from the average of the 4-day activity portion of results determined by the TriTrac R3-D (section 4.5.1). Thermic effect of feeding was estimated from calculating 10% of REE (McArdle et al, 1991, Melby et al, 1998). The product of the equation reflects estimated total energy balance where a negative value would reflect

negative energy balance and would suggest that energy intake may be insufficient for total energy expenditure.

6. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

One way ANOVA's were performed on all dependent variables for each of the three groups. Statistica 5.1 software program (Statsoft Inc., 1997, Tulso, OK) was used for all statistical analysis. An alpha of less than 0.05 was used to establish significance. Post-hoc analysis, using Neuman-Keuls, was conducted to determine differences between groups, when necessary.

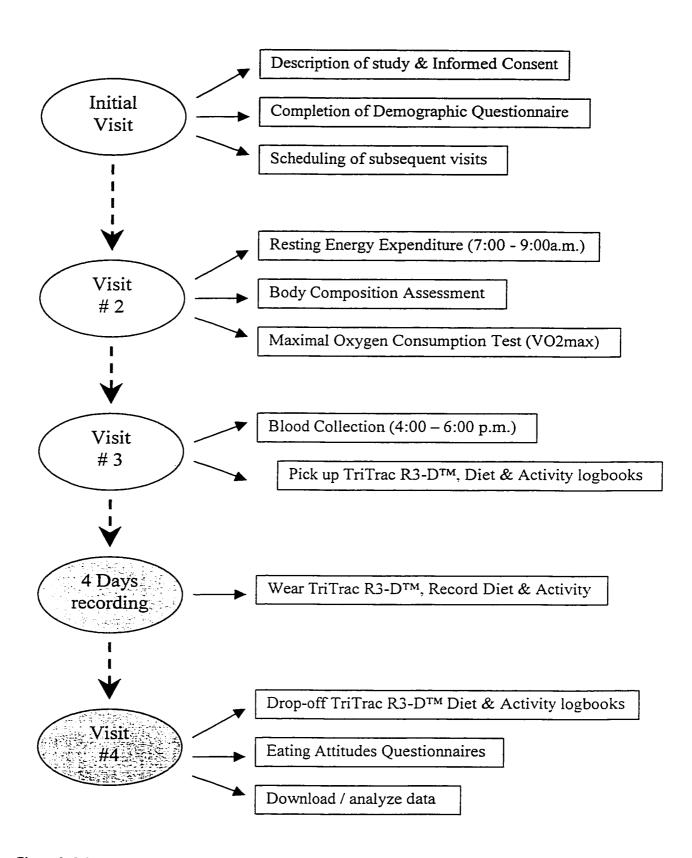


Figure 3. Schematic diagram of study protocol.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

1. Demographics and groupings

Fifty-two males completed the requirements of this study. All subjects reported being in good health and reported having no known reproductive problems or complications with regards to reproductive or metabolic hormones. Two subjects reported using medications or nutritional supplements but terminated their use at least 4 weeks prior to commencing the study.

Athletes selected for this study were engaged predominantly in cycle training. This included competitive road cyclists, mountain bikers and triathletes. Subjects were grouped through a self-selected aerobic activity question on a demographic questionnaire. Subjects identified their regular hours of aerobic training per week on a yearly basis on a multiple choice question (Appendix D, Section A, Question 1). This answer was used to distinguish groups. The high-endurance group (HE) was defined as greater than 10 hours of aerobic training per week on the multiple choice question. The moderate-endurance group (ME) was defined as 5 to 10 hours of aerobic training per week. The sedentary control group (SC) was defined as less than 5 hours per week of aerobic exercise. Further details pertaining to specific current training regiments were recorded in detail on the questionnaire (Appendix D, Section A, Question 7b) and results are shown in Table 3. There were significant differences with respect to hours of current weekly aerobic training.

Table 3 - Duration of self-reported detailed weekly aerobic activity. [mean, ± SD, (range)]

	1.	uo
Group	Sample size	Reported aerobic activities* (hours/week)
HE	16	16.0 ±5.4
ME	20	(8 – 28.5) 8.6 ±1.9
SC	16	(5.5 – 12)
	16	1.4 ±1.3 (0 - 4)
p value	-	.000117 ^a .000117 ^b .000126 ^c

Note: HE = High-endurance male cyclists

ME = Moderate-endurance male cyclists

SC = Male sedentary controls

a = ME significantly different than SC

b = HE significantly different than ME

c = HE significantly different than SC

2. Subject characteristics (Table 4)

There were no differences in age (years) between the three groups. Height (cm) was significantly lower in ME compared to HE, while weight (kg) was significantly lower in ME than SC. Body composition assessment resulted in significantly lower sum of skinfolds (mm), percent body fat as well as fat mass (kg) in both HE and ME in comparison to SC. Fat free mass (kg) was not different between groups.

3. Maximal aerobic consumption and ventilatory threshold (Table 5)

Maximal aerobic consumption, expressed in litres per minute, was significantly different between all three groups. HE was significantly higher than ME and SC and ME was also significantly higher than SC. Maximal aerobic

^{*}Reported aerobic activities = these data were taken from demographic questionnaire pertaining to detailed current specific training question (Appendix D, Section A, 7b).

consumption, expressed as either ml/kg/min or ml/kgFFM/min, resulted in HE and ME significantly higher than SC with no significance between HE and ME.

Ventilatory threshold was identified for each group and HE was significantly higher than ME and SC and ME was significantly higher than SC.

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Subject
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Table 4

	Fat Free Mass (kg)	67.8 ±7.3	(58.2 - 81.2)	62.6 ±6.5	(49.8 - 74.9)	•	66.1 ±8.5	(53.4 - 80.9)		.107871	
	Fat Mass (kg)	9.6 ±1.9	(6.8 - 13.1)	9.5 ±5.2	(4.5 - 26.2)	•	16.4 ±4.4	(10-25)		.000130°	.000162
	Percent Body Fat (%) Fat Mass (kg)	12.4 ±2.3	(7.8 - 17.4)	12.8 ±5.0	(6.1 - 26.7)		19.9 ±4.6	(14.5 - 27.7)		,000135°	.000125
	Height (cm) Weight (kg) Sum of Skinfolds (mm)	38.3 ±9.5	(26.4 – 65.05)	42.8 ±18.8	(24.9 – 71.65)		66.2 ±10.7	(48.4 – 84.65)		.000126	.000128
[/2	Weight (kg)	77.3 ±7.8	(66.6 - 90.4)	71.9±10.3	(55.5 - 98)		82.4 ±9.8	(62.4 – 97.4)		,005909 ^a	
and a canger characterishes, [mean, + on, (range)]	Height (cm)	181.8 ± 5.0	(173 - 193.2)	176.2 ± 6.0	(164.2 –	187.8)	180.0 ±7.5	(173.6 –	192.3)	.030836°	
בוומן מכוכו וזרובז. (וו	Group Age (years)	27.7 ±5.1	(22 – 38)	27.0 ±5.2	(20 – 38)		26.9 ±4.4	(21 - 35)		955068.	
anic + - sunical	Group	HE	(n = 16)	ME	(n = 20)		SC	(n = 16)		p values	

Note: a = ME significantly different than SC
b = HE significantly different than ME
c = HE significantly different than SC

Table 5 - Maximal oxygen consumption (VO₂max) and Ventilatory threshold. [mean, \pm SD, (range)]

	1			····, — · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Group:	VO ₂ max	VO ₂ max	VO₂max	Ventilatory
	(l/min)	(ml/kg/min)	(ml/kgFFM/min)	Threshold (l/min)
HE	4.8 ±0.5	62.0 ±5.7	71.0 ±6.29	3.9 ±0.6
(n = 16)	(3.6 - 5.5)	(52.3 - 72.2)	(60.1 - 80.7)	(3.1 - 4.8)
ME	4.2 ±0.6	59.3 ±6.5	68.0 ±6.4	3.4 ±0.5
(n = 20)	(3.3 ~ 5.3)	(43.7 - 70.7)	(57.6 – 77.7)	(2.5 - 4.3)
SC	3.5 ±0.6	42.6 ±5.9	53.2 ±5.8	2.7 ±0.5
(n = 16)	(2.5-4.6)	(31.8 - 51.4)	(44.1 – 63.5)	(1.8 - 3.5)
p values	.004901	.000126°	.000126°	.005276 ^b
1	.000126°	.000117ª	.000117ª	.000126°
	.000343ª			.000268ª

Note: a = ME significantly different than SC

b = HE significantly different than ME

c = HE significantly different than SC

4. 4-day energy intake (Table 6)

HE and ME had significantly higher 4-day average energy intake than SC when expressed as kcal/day and kcal/kgFFM/day. Percent fat intake was significantly higher in SC than ME whereas carbohydrate and protein did not differ between groups. Appendix H contains the daily diet record information for each group, including kcal/day, kcal/kg FFM/day, calories from fat (% and g), calories from carbohydrate (% and g) and calories from protein (% and g).

Table 6 - 4-day dietary intake. [mean, ± SD, (range)]

Group	Energy intake (kcal/day)	Energy intake (kcal/kgFFM/ day)	Calories from Fat (%)	Calories from Carbohydrate (%)	Calories from Protein (%)
HE (n = 16)	3470 ±523 (2718 – 4471)	52 ±8 (42 – 62)	25 ±7 (12 – 35)	59 ±9 (48 – 77)	15 ±2 (11 – 20)
ME (n = 20)	3445 ±499 (2523 – 4464)	55 ±8 (40 – 72)	25 ±6 (12 – 36)	58 ±8 (44 - 71)	14 ±2 (11 – 17)
SC (n = 16)	2709 ±513 (1771 – 3390)	42 ±9 (27 – 56)	30 ±5 (22 – 43)	53 ±7 (40 – 62)	15 ±3 (11 – 20)
p values	.000306° .000216°	.001418° .000173°	.046459ª	.082276	.652784

Note:

a = ME significantly different than SC

c = HE significantly different than SC

5. Resting energy expenditure (Table 7)

Oxygen consumption (l/min) at rest was not different between groups. Respiratory exchange ratio was significantly higher in HE than ME and SC. There were 8 ME and 7 SC with RER's below a physiological range (0.70). This may be a reflection of post-test gas calibrations having not been performed regularly.

Barometric pressure changes were not adjusted in the computer software, which may have also accounted for some values below physiological range. Predicted resting energy expenditure (REE) (kcal/day) (Vmax, Sensormedics, Yorba Linda, CA) was significantly lower in ME than SC. However, when measured REE was expressed as kcal/day or kcal/kgFFM/day, no differences were detected.

Table 7 - Resting energy expenditure. [mean, \pm SD, (range)]

			`		
Group	Predicted REE	VO ₂	REE (kcal/day)	REE	Respiratory
	(kcal/day)	(l/min)	(Keal/day)	(kcal/kgFFM/ day)	exchange ratio
HE	1772 ±114	0.299 ±0.036	2042 ±264	30 ±2	0.75 ±0.05
(n = 16)	(1603 – 1990)	(0.217 - 0.351)	(1478 – 2424)	(25 - 34)	(0.66 - 0.82)
ME	1698 ±130	0.289 ±0.029	1926 ±190	31 ±2	0.70 ±0.03
(n = 20)	(1460 – 2007)	(0.237 - 0.340)	(1606 - 2324)	(28 – 35)	(0.65 - 0.79)
SC	1836 ±132	0.289 ±0.031	1939 ±236	30 ±3	0.72 ±0.04
(n = 16)	(1592 – 2066)	(0.232 - 0.329)	(1511 - 2262)	(25 – 35)	(0.66 - 0.79)
p values	.006365ª	.570471	.281920	.252420	.003353 ^b
					.010871°

Note: a = ME significantly different than SC

b = HE significantly different than ME

c = HE significantly different than SC

6. 4-day energy expenditure and physical activity record

Energy expenditure was assessed over a 4-day period using the TriTrac R3-DTM accelerometer. Physical activity journals were used to record training duration and intensity.

6.1 TriTrac R3-DTM (Table 8)

The TriTrac R3-DTM provided values for REE (prediction equation), energy expenditure from activity as well as total energy expenditure (REE and activity energy). An average of the 4 days was calculated for each component of energy expenditure. Values were reported as both kcal/day as well as kcal/kgFFM/day. Results indicated that HE expended significantly higher total kcal/day than ME or SC. When expressed as kcal/kgFFM/day, HE and ME were significantly higher than SC although there was no difference between HE and ME. Estimation of REE from the TriTrac R3-DTM resulted in a significantly lower REE in ME than SC when expressed as kcal/day. However, estimated REE of the TriTrac R3-DTM (expressed as kcal/kgFFM/day) showed significant differences between both athlete groups and SC. These values were not used to calculate REE for the energy balance equation. Energy expenditure from exercise, using the TriTrac R3-DTM, indicated significantly higher activity calories in HE than ME and SC as well as in ME than SC (both kcal/day and kcal/kgFFM/day).

6.2 Self-reported activity logbook (Table 9)

Subjects recorded duration of exercise performed over the 4-day period.

Subjects reported perceived exertion for their activities on an intensity scale ranging from 1 to 5. Total time of exercise over the 4-day period was significantly lower in SC than HE and ME with no differences observed between HE and ME. Total time spent at intensity "1" and "2" were not different between groups. Total time spent at intensities of "3" and "4" were significantly higher in HE and ME than SC with no

differences between HE and ME. Total time spent at intensity "5" was significantly different between HE and SC.

7. Eating attitudes

Eating attitudes were assessed using the EDI and DEBQ-R questionnaires.

Scores for each EDI subscale and DEBQ-R are shown in Table 10. There were no significant differences between any of the groups.

Table 8 - Estimated energy expenditure assessment over 4-day period using TriTrac R3-DTM. [mean, ± SD, (range)]

	Activity 小型	(kcal/kgFFM/day)	14 ±3.0	(6 - 17)	11 ±3.0	(8 - 17)	6 ±2.1	(3 - 12)	.0001204	.000126°	.006367 ^b
[/_O	REE	(kcal/kgFFM/day)	30 ±1.4	(27 - 32)	31 ±1.6	(28 - 35)	32 ±1.8	(28 - 35)	.001668	.024671	
	Total	(kcal/kgFFM/day) (kcal/k	44 ±3.3	(38 - 48)	42 ±3.9	(37 - 50)	38 ±2.9	(34 - 47)	.004340ª	.000196°	
	Activity	(kcal/day)	951 ±245	(578 - 1496)	695±150	(441 – 977)	413±127	(208 – 667)	.000266 ^b	.000126°	.000153ª
	REE	(kcal/day)	2027±150	(1800 - 2318)	1921 ±166	(1684 - 2340)	2097 ±181	(1771 – 2390)	.009644		
ì	Total	(kcal/day)	2977 ±348	(2435 – 3815)	2616 ±212	(2298 – 2949)	2510 ±206	(2175 – 2928)	.000316 ^b	.000135°	
	Group		HE	(n = 16)	ME	(n = 20)	SC	(n = 15)*	p value		

a = ME significantly different than SC b = HE significantly different than ME c = HE significantly different than SC Note:

*SC = Missing data from one subject in SC group. Sample size for SC = 15.

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Table 9 - Duration of self-reported activity over 4-day period. [mean, ± SD, (range)]

	for man man and a man a	and fun a sain faring		T/,		
Group	Total time	Intensity "1"	Intensity "2"	Intensity "3"	Intensity "4"	F S. Thtensity "5" F
	exercising	(min)		(min)	(mm)	(min)
	(min)				では はない ない とき	
HE	442 ±184	101 ±66	73 ±59	176 ±150	29∓68	38 ±59
(91 = u)	(154 – 764)	(0 - 331)	(0-170)	(0 - 425)	(0 – 190)	(0 - 185)
ME	340±126	87 ±33	55±72	177 ±97	116 ± 91	20 ±35
(n = 20)	(169 - 582)	(0 – 390)	(0-230)	(0 - 408)	(0 – 343)	(0 - 120)
SC	129 ±118	42 ±22	32 ±61	49 ±79	26 ±46	0
(n = 16)	(0 – 315)	(0 – 120)	(0 ~ 180)	(0 - 300)	(0-175)	(O)
p values	,000126°	.284394	.203314	.001854 ^c	.013438 ^c	.018831°
	.000118"			.004676ª	,001905	-

Note: a = ME significantly different than SC c = HE significantly different than SC

		된 15년 강국 15	76			\vdash				-
	EDI :	. Distrust		0.8 ±1.6	(0-5)	2.4 ±3.0	(0 – 11)	2.2 ±2.4	(0 - 8)	150901.
	EDI	Perfection-	ism	3.4 ±2.7	(0 – 8)	4.1 ±3.2	(0 - 10)	4.1 ±3.9	(0 – 15)	.797871
	EDI :	Maturity	· 神(の)	2.3 ±1.9	(9-0)	1.4 ±2.0	(9-0)	3.0 ±3.2	(0 - 12)	.128830
	EDI	Ineffect-	iveness	0.2 ± 0.6	(0-2)	6.0∓ 9.0	(0 - 3)	1.8 ±4.0	(91 - 0)	.133182
EBQ-R scores. [mean, ± SD, (range)]	BDI	Dissatis-	faction	0.6 ± 1.1	(0 - 3)	1.6 ±3.0	(0 – 11)	1.6 ±2.4	(8 - 0)	.410625
	EDI	Sulimia Bulimia		0.7 ± 1.5	(0 - 5)	0.2 ±0.5	(0-2)	0.3 ±0.9	(0-3)	.225871
I DEBQ-R scor	: EDI	Awareness		0.8 ±1.8	(0-1)	0.5 ±0.6	(0-2)	0.8 ± 1.7	(0 - 5)	.756743
Table 10 - EDI subscale and DE	EDI 🔐	Thinness		1.1 ±1.7	(0-3)	0.6 ±1.7	(0-7)	0.8 ± 1.0	(0 - 3)	.598764
Table 10 - El	Group			里	(n = 15)*	ME	(n = 20)	SC	(n = 16)	p value

Restraint (4)

18.2 ±6.1

(10 – 30) 17.3 ±4.8 (12 – 32) 19.1 ±6.8 (10 – 32) .652024

.133182 (n = 16) (0 - 3) (0 - 5) (0 - 3) (0 - 8) (0 - 16) 156743 (225871 (410625 1.133182) Note: *HE = Missing data from one subject in HE group. Sample size for HE = 15.

8. Energy balance (Table 11)

Energy balance was calculated using the following variables: [measured REE (Vmax) (kcal/day) + TEF (10% of REE) (kcal/day) + activity calories from TriTrac R3-DTM (kcal/day)] subtracted from average total daily energy intake (kcal/day). A negative value reflects negative energy balance where a positive value reflects adequate energy intake for energy expenditure. When expressed as kcal/day, there were no significant differences between the three groups when Post Hoc analysis was performed (Neuman-Keuls). Energy balance (kcal/kgFFM/day) was significantly higher in ME than SC. Potential errors in REE (some subjects with RER's below 0.70) may account for inaccurate estimations of energy balance.

Table 11 - Energy balance* [mean, \pm SD, (range)]

Group	Energy Balance (kcal/day)	Energy Balance (kcal/kgFFM/day)
HE (n = 16)	273 ±543 (-373 – 1252)	4.4 ±8.9 (-6 – 21.5)
ME (n = 20)	631 ±523 (-378 – 1735)	10.2 ±8.4 (-6 – 28.7)
SC (n = 15)**	190 ±576 (-691 – 1091)	3.0 ±8.7 (-10.8 – 16.7)
p values	.043810***	.045887ª

Note: a = ME significantly different than SC

9. Hormonal concentrations (Table 12 and 13)

Total testosterone (Figure 4), free testosterone (Figure 5), prolactin (Figure 6), LH (Figure 7), FSH (Figure 8), total T₄ (Figure 10) and cortisol (Figure 11) were not significantly different between the three groups. Total T₃ (Figure 9) was significantly

^{*} Energy Balance = Average energy intake (kcal/day) – [measured resting energy expenditure (Vmax) (kcal/day) + thermic effect of feeding (10% of REE) (kcal/day) + energy expenditure from exercise (TriTrac R3-DTM) (kcal/day)]

^{**} SC = Missing data from one subject in SC group due to TriTrac R3-DTM data. Sample size for SC = 15.

^{***} p value after running ANOVA, however Post Hoc analysis (Neuman-Keuls) resulted in no significant differences between groups.

lower in the HE than SC. Intra-assay CV's for all hormones were acceptable (range of 2.02 to 5.52).

Table 12 - Total T_3 and Total T_4 concentrations [mean, \pm SD, (range)]

Group	Total T ₃ (ng/dl)*	Total T ₄ (μ1/dl)*
HE	102.0 ±11.4	6.3 ±0.7
(n = 16)	(79.7 – 120.0)	(4.8 – 7.9)
ME	110.2 ±19.5	6.8 ±1.1
(n = 20)	(84.7 – 144.2)	(5.1 – 8.6)
SC	117.8 ±16.2	6.8 ±1.1
(n = 16)	(92.3 – 157.5)	(5.3 – 9.6)
p values	.018706 ^e	.331258

Note: c = HE significantly different than SC

* SI Units = Conversion Factors

Hormone	Metric Unit	Conversion	SI Unit
		Factor	symbol
Total T ₃	ng/dl	0.01536	nmol/l
Total T ₄	μ1/dl	12.87	nmol/l

Expected values (DPC, 1999)

Hormone	Metric Unit	Median	Central 95% Range
Total T ₃	ng/dl	131	86 - 187
Total T ₄	μl/dl	n/a**	4.5 - 12.5

^{** =} Not available

Table 13 - Testosterone (free and total), L.H., FSH, Prolactin and Cortisol concentrations. [mean, ± SD, (range)]

							,
Cortisol (ug/dl)*	9.6 ±3.4	(4.1 – 18.4)	11.2 ±3.2	(7.1 - 17.4)	9.9 ±4.6	(4.3 - 18.8)	.400015
(ng/ml)*	8.0 ±3.5	(3.2 - 11.8)	7.1 ±2.2	(4.2 - 11.3)	6.0 ±1.9	(2.3 - 8.8)	.095491
FSH (mIU/ml)	3.2 ±2.1	(0.8 - 9.5)	4.0 ±3.1	(0.9 – 13.6)	2.6 ±1.5	(1.2 - 6.1)	.235960
LH (mIU/ml)	2.5 ±1.4	(0.5 - 5.6)	3.5 ±2.1	(0.7 - 10.8)	3.8 ±1.4	(0.7 - 5.5)	.191298
Total Testosterone (ng/dl)*	411.4 ±127.6	(269.0 – 727.0)	434.7 ±153.9	(256.5 – 707.1)	432.1 ±131.5	(161.5 - 642.4)	.868588
Free Testosterone (pg/ml)*	13.6 ±4.3	(8.5 - 24.2)	16.1 ±5.2	(6.1 - 26.7)	17.5 ±5.7	(7.0 – 30.1)	.100439
Group	HE	(n = 16)	ME	(n = 20)	SC	(n = 16)	p values

Note:

a = ME significantly different than SC b = HE significantly different than ME c = HE significantly different than SC

* SI Units = Conversion Factors

	SI Unit	symbol	[/Jowd	l/lomu	l/gn	I/Jomu	
	Conversion	Factor	3.467	0.03467	1.0	27.59	
I actors	Metric Unit Conversion		lm/gd	lp/gu	lm/gn	lb/gn	
of Office Confession Lactors	Hormone		Free Testosterone	Total Testosterone	Prolactin	Cortisol	

Expected values (DPC, 1999)

		_	_	_			_
Central 95% rånge	13 -40	262 - 1836	0.4 - 5.7	1.1 - 13.5	ND** - 15	am: 5 - 25; pm: 1/2 of am value	
Median	23	630	2.0	3.9	4.4	n/a***	
Metric Unit	pg/ml	lp/gu	mIU/ml	mIU/ml	lm/gu	lb/gn	***************************************
Hormone Metric Unit Median	Free Testosterone	Total Testosterone	НП	FSH	Prolactin	Cortisol	

**ND = Not detectable

***n/a - not available

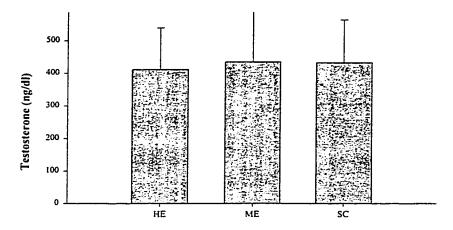


Figure 4 - Serum Testosterone concentration

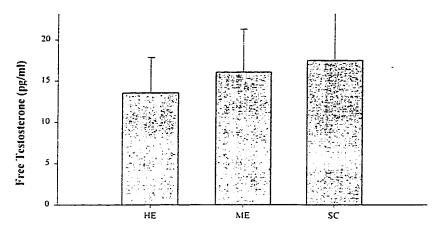


Figure 5 - Serum Free Testosterone concentration

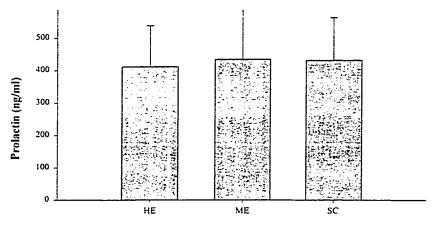


Figure 6 - Serum Prolactin concentration

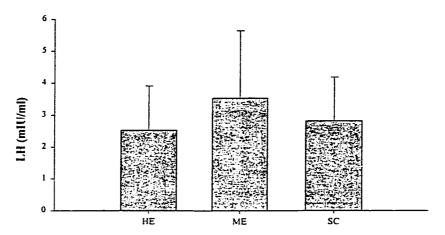


Figure 7 - Serum Luteinizing Hormone concentration

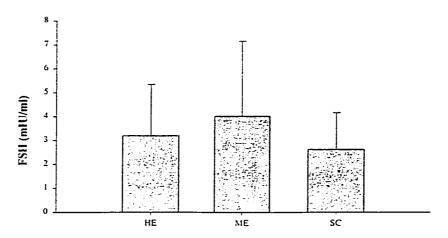
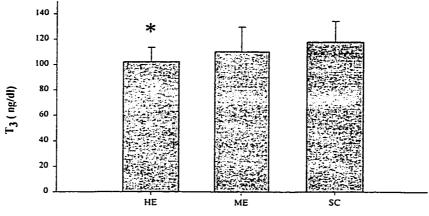


Figure 8 - Serum Follicle Stimulating Hormone concentration



* = HE significantly lower than SC (p = 0.18706)

Figure 9 - Serum T_3 concentration

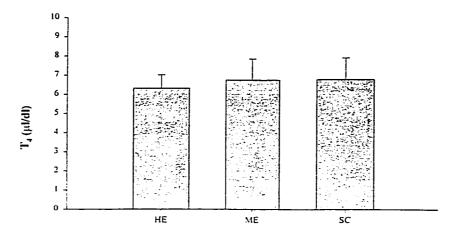


Figure 10 - Serum T_4 concentration

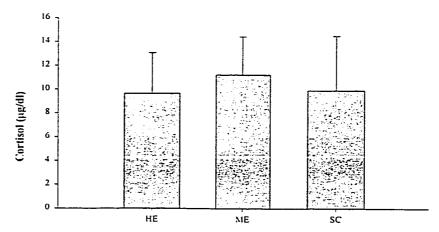


Figure 11 - Serum Cortisol concentration

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

1. Introduction

Total energy expenditure, including REE, TEF, energy from daily activities as well as from exercise, has not been measured in male athletes as it relates to suppressed reproductive hormones. However, volume of training has been shown to correlate with increased disturbances to the reproductive system in male athletes (De Souza et al, 1994a). The relationships of energy intake and macronutrient sources with physiological changes to the reproductive hormone profile have been evaluated in female athletes (Harber et al, 1998; Loucks et al, 1994a; Loucks et al, 1994b; Olson et al, 1995; Williams et al, 1995) and to a lesser extent, in male athletes (Cameron et al, 1991; De Souza et al, 1994a; Rojdmark, 1987). Insufficient energy intake for exercise performed in certain endurance athletes may contribute to the suppressed reproductive hormone profile observed in some male endurance-trained athletes.

This present study intended to examine the components of energy balance independently, and in combination, in highly-trained endurance (HE), moderately-trained endurance (ME) and sedentary (SC) males. The predominant modality of training for the athletes was cycling. These components included REE, estimated TEF (as 10% of REE), energy expenditure from activity and exercise as well as energy intake. In addition, total testosterone, free testosterone, LH, FSH, prolactin, cortisol, T₃, and T₄ were analyzed for each group. A discussion of the results of the

present study will follow. The hypotheses will be reviewed and where literature exists for comparison of the findings of this study, discussion will be included.

2. Subjects

Subjects were carefully screened regarding training parameters prior to being permitted into the study. Sedentary males (SC) reported exercising less than four hours per week over the last year. The researcher inquired about specific aerobic exercise performed regularly by SC to confirm miss-representation of grouping did not occur. Aerobic fitness tests (VO₂max) contributed to verifying grouping.

Athletes (ME and HE) were classified as cyclists, as the predominant mode of training was on bicycles. However, within this sample population there was lack of homogeneity as the term "cyclist" included road cyclists, mountain bikers and triathletes. Reported activities in the 4-day logbook reflected a variety of modes of training, including swimming and running. Whereas most research has been focused on runners (Are et al, 1993a; Hackney et al, 1988; Hackney et al, 1990; Jensen et al, 1995; MacConnie et al, 1986; McColl et al, 1989; Wheeler et al, 1984), few have analyzed athletes with reported diversity in training modalities (Lucia et al, 1996; Neary et al, 1994).

The marginal distinction between the athletic groups may have contributed to the lack of differences among HE and ME with respect energy balance measures as well as reproductive hormonal profiles. De Souza et al (1994a) were able to distinguish differences in circulating levels of testosterone between highly-trained runners and moderately-trained runners. Athlete classification based upon mileage

may have been sufficiently different in De Souza's (1994a) study whereas HE and ME may have been too similar. Comparison of mileage is not relevant, however, as the training modes varied. Collapsing athletes together and comparing with SC also resulted in no differences regarding energy balance variables or reproductive hormone profiles.

3. Energy intake

Energy intake was measured using a 4-day dietary analysis tool. It had been hypothesized that there would be no differences in energy intake between the athletes and controls as previous research in females has demonstrated (Harber et al, 1998), however this was not reproduced in this study of male endurance athletes. Average daily energy intake was significantly higher in the HE and ME than SC. There were no differences between HE and ME. Elevated energy intakes are consistent with estimated higher energy expenditure in the active males. In absence of measured energy expenditure one could not indicate whether the ME was ingesting excess energy or conversely, if the HE was ingesting insufficient energy. Further analysis of energy expenditure and state of energy balance is necessary to address this. Several studies have identified that highly trained female athletes report similar energy intake to sedentary females (Loucks et al, 1989; Myerson et al, 1991; Wilmore et al, 1992). This information has not been illustrated in males.

Macronutrient intake was also examined in the present study using the 4-day dietary analysis. No differences in macronutrient intake between groups were detected other than ME having lower fat intake than SC. Previous research has found

lower fat intake in female amenorrheic athletes than eumenorrheic athletes (Harber et al, 1998), as well as increased carbohydrate intake in high-mileage male runners compared to moderate-mileage runners or sedentary controls (De Souza et al, 1994a). HE, ME and SC may have had different dietary choices than De Souza et al's (1994a) groups.

Use of 4-day dietary records for assessing habitual energy and macronutrient intake has well-documented limitations. Subject compliance and accuracy of self-reporting may affect results (Mertz et al, 1991). Further, accurate representation of average diet is limited when assessing 4 days. Longer recording periods and repetitive measurements over time would strengthen certainty of representation of chronic eating habits. Use of the 4-day dietary record may have under-represented, or conversely, over-represented energy intake for the three groups.

In this study, it was hypothesized that aberrant eating attitudes would not be present in any group. The EDI-Subscales and DEBQ-Restraint questionnaires were administered as a process of identifying potential disordered eating attitudes. There were no differences between groups and there were no indications of disordered eating behaviors in any of the groups. This reduced the possibility that differences in hormones measured would be resultant from disordered eating tendencies rather than state of energy balance or its various components. Eating attitudes have been explored in female athletes and there is limited information regarding male athletes. Wheeler et al (1986) compared eating attitudes of high endurance male runners, moderate endurance male runners and sedentary controls. High endurance runners demonstrated increased tendency towards aberrant eating attitudes. Restrained eating

is also associated with decreased energy intake in males (Tepper et al, 1996).

Anorexic tendencies have been associated with altered hormones of the reproductive axis in females (Fichter et al, 1989). Similar research has not been done in males.

These tendencies were not observed in either HE or ME in this study.

4. Resting energy expenditure

It was hypothesized that REE of HE would be lower than ME or SC. REE obtained from indirect calorimetry did not differ between groups in this study. The measured REE differed from prediction equations. The prediction formula used with the TriTrac R3-DTM (Hemokinetics Inc., 1996) as well as the predicted measure provided by the metabolic cart (Vmax, Sensormedics) for REE resulted in ME having lower REE than SC. Previous research had suggested that high endurance athletes may have lower absolute REE than sedentary controls (Tremblay et al. 1997. Thompson et al, 1995). However, other research has found absolute REE values to be higher in female athletes than non-athletes unless expressed as kcal/kgFFM/day, where there were no differences observed (Wilmore et al, 1992). Further, other research has found no differences in absolute REE between trained athletes and untrained (Burke et al, 1993). As previous literature has reported varied REE values between trained and untrained, results of the present study are not inconsistent. This study suggests that HE and ME do not have different metabolic efficiency in nonactivity related energy expenditure as has been previously reported in female athletes (Burke et al, 1993; Myerson et al, 1991). Rather, training status may have had no effect on REE.

Limitations in REE values exited however, due to technical errors in performing the indirect calorimetry. There were 17 of the 52 subjects (representing the three groups) who had RER's below 0.70. This may have indicated some gas calibration errors during the testing. Gas calibrations were performed before and during testing, however post-test gas calibrations were not routinely performed. Recommendations for future testing would include performing both pre- and post-test gas calibrations as well as to ensure correct entry of air temperature and barometric pressure. Implications of the low RER's include less certainty in the accuracy of energy expenditure at rest for the groups. This may potentially impact the energy balance equation. Subject compliance to no exercise for 24 hours prior to testing, 12 hour fast prior to testing as well as arriving to the testing lab in a relaxed state are also inherent limiting factors associated with indirect calorimetry testing for REE. This, too, may have an impact upon the energy balance equation.

Thermic effect of feeding (TEF) was not different between groups as it was calculated as 10% of REE. Previous research on postprandial thermogenesis have shown male athletes to have lower TEF than sedentary controls (Poehlman et al, 1988) while other research has found no differences between athletic and non-athletic individuals (Beidleman et al, 1995; Burke et al, 1993). The previous studies utilized indirect calorimetry measurements following ingestion of a known mixed nutrient composition liquid meal. This method of measuring TEF differed from this study, therefore comparison of results is difficult.

In calculating energy balance, the values obtained from the indirect calorimetry for REE and in turn, TEF, were used. As there were no differences in

expended energy at rest between the three groups, energy expended from exercise and daily activity may be more influential in determining negative energy balance between groups.

5. Exercise energy expenditure

The TriTrac R3-DTM was used as a tool for assessing energy expenditure. It was capable of predicting REE per minute as well as determining energy expenditure from activity per minute (Hemokinetics, Madison, WI, 1996). Energy expenditure from activity, determined from the TriTrac R3-DTM, was used in calculating energy balance. The TriTrac R3-D™ does not differentiate between daily activity and exercise therefore these values were combined in the calculation of energy balance. It was hypothesized that energy expenditure from exercise would be higher in HE than ME or SC and higher in ME than SC. In this study, energy expenditure from activity measured from the TriTrac R3-DTM was significantly different, as hypothesized, between all three groups. This was an expected finding as it confirmed that the three groups were training at different durations. 4-day measurements of total energy expenditure (TEE) resulted in HE expending greater kcal/day than ME or SC. however when expressed as kcal/kgFFM/day, both HE and ME were higher than SC with no significant differences between HE and ME. Previous studies on energy expenditure in male athletes have not used the TriTrac R3-DTM as an analytical tool therefore there are no direct comparisons of the energy expenditure findings of this study with others. The TriTrac R3-DTM has not been validate for use in measuring energy expenditure for cycling activity. This may be limiting in interpreting energy

expenditure from activity. Swimming was also not measured by the TriTrac R3-DTM. It is possible that there was an under-estimation of energy expenditure from exercise with HE and ME who participated in these two activities frequently.

A second measure of energy expenditure from exercise was obtained from a self-reported activity logbook. Subjects recorded all exercises performed over the 4day period and indicated the perceived intensities of each activity. Previous research has distinguished HE and ME male runners through duration and mileage (De Souza et al, 1994a). As the athletes in this group were cyclists, it was expected to see time spent exercising to be greater in this population than previously observed durations of highly trained and moderately trained runners. It was also hypothesized that there would be significant differences of time spent at higher intensities of exercise ("3" to "5") in HE than ME or SC and ME than SC. Total time of exercise was significantly higher in HE and ME than SC with no differences between HE and ME. This did not support the hypothesis, however when distribution of intensities at which duration was spent was analyzed HE was significantly higher at "3" and "4" than ME or SC. HE was also significantly higher duration of time at an intensity of "5" than SC. This confirms that intensity of training as well as duration of training was significantly different between the three groups. This is congruent with previous research, which identified suppressed reproductive hormone profiles when differentiating athletic populations by volume/duration of training (De Souza et al., 1994a; Hackney et al., 1990; MacConnie et al, 1986; Wheeler et al, 1984).

6. Energy balance

It was hypothesized that an energy balance equation from the aforementioned components would result in HE being significantly lower (negative energy balance) than ME or SC. In this study, there were no differences between the three groups when expressed as kcal/day. However, when fat free mass was accounted for (kcal/kgFFM/day), ME was significantly higher than SC. There were no other differences observed. This was an unexpected finding. Reviewing the components of energy balance assists in understanding these results. Energy intake was higher in HE and ME compared to SC. On the expenditure portion of the equation, REE was similar between all groups. TEF was therefore similar between groups. Exercise energy expenditure obtained from the TriTrac R3-DTM was significantly higher in HE than ME or SC and higher in ME than SC. Therefore, the higher value for energy balance of ME is likely explained by the similar energy intakes (kcal/day) of ME to HE. It is possible that energy intake of HE and SC were sufficient for exercise performed where for ME, it was may have been excessive intake for expenditure. Conversely, the similar energy balance between HE and SC may indicate that both groups were in a lower state of energy balance, while ME was taking in sufficient energy for exercise performed. As this is the first research to develop an energy balance equation with these measurements, it is not possible to compare with other literature. Therefore, it is not known what absolute value indicates sufficient energy balance for the maintenance of all basic life functions, including reproductive function. Beidleman et al (1995) measured energy balance in female runners and sedentary controls. Methodological differences of calculating energy balance (energy

expenditure from exercise and TEF) may account for differences in results as their findings indicated an energy deficit (negative energy balance) in both populations, with no significant differences between groups unlike the positive energy balances among the three groups in this study. It is also possible that technical error previously described in measuring REE may have affect energy balance results for HE, ME and SC as values for REE and TEF may be inaccurate for some subjects.

7. Hormone concentrations

It was hypothesized that total and free testosterone would be significantly lower in HE than ME or SC. There were no significant differences between groups for either of these hormones. It was also hypothesized that LH, FSH and prolactin would be lower in HE than ME or SC. There were also no significant differences found between the three groups with respect to these hormones. Cortisol was hypothesized to be higher in the HE group than ME or SC and there were no differences observed between groups. These hormones fell within normal ranges for healthy males.

Training may not have been sufficiently different between HE and ME to elicit differences. Conversely, a positive energy balance for HE may eliminated energetic challenges, thus reproductive hormone profiles were not different than ME or SC. These results differ from previous research. There is sufficient literature indicating there to be lower total testosterone in the highly trained than sedentary males (Arce et al, 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Hackney et al, 1988; Hackney et al, 1990; Wheeler et al, 1984). An intervention of increase in training has also resulted

in a decrease in total testosterone (Griffith et al, 1990; Roberts et al, 1993; Wheeler et al, 1991). Further, distinction of weekly mileage or duration of running has been proposed as a potential variable for observed decreases in testosterone between highly trained and moderately trained male athletes (De Souza et al, 1994a). Along the H-P-G axis, there have also been noted decreases in LH (McColl et al. 1989) and prolacting (Wheeler et al, 1991; Wheeler et al, 1984) when comparing highly trained to sedentary males or the influence of increased training in previously sedentary males. However, there are also several studies that have found no differences in production of hormones along the H-P-G axis between highly trained and sedentary males or longitudinal studies of increased training in males. Jensen et al (1995) found no differences in total testosterone, LH, FSH or prolactin with increased training, although lack of a control group raises concerns with these findings (Miller et al. 1997). Hackney et al (1990) found no differences in free testosterone, LH or prolactin between trained and untrained males. Although modes of measuring LH and FSH, including single and multiple interval samples, have been used, other studies have also found no differences in these hormones between groups of athletic and non-athletic males (Arce et al, 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Hackney et al, 1988; Wheeler et al, 1984; Wheeler et al, 1991). Similarly, the results of prolacting between these populations have been controversial in that some studies have also found no differences (Arce et al, 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Hackney et al, 1988). Cortisol has not been reviewed to the same extent in high endurance males compared with moderate endurance or sedentary males in relation to energy expenditure and intake. Training intervention, with increased mileage, resulted in increased cortisol

levels (Roberts et al, 1993) and highly trained endurance athletes had elevated cortisol levels at rest compared to moderately-trained athletes or sedentary controls (Luger et al, 1987). Competitive cyclists had higher cortisol than sedentary controls and had increases in cortisol following a 7-week training Intervention (Neary et al, 1994).

Thyroid hormones were analyzed in this present study as well. It was hypothesized that T₃ and T₄ would be significantly lower fin HE than ME or SC. There were no differences observed between groups with respect to T₄, but HE had significantly lower T₃ than SC. T₃ for ME was not different compared with other groups. Lower T₃ in HE may be a marker of energy insufficiency. Although T₃ was lower in HE in this study, values fell within normal health yrange for males. Amenorrheic athletes have displayed lower T₃ than eumernorrheic athletes or sedentary females (Harber et al 1998). Similarly, reduced energy availability has resulted in decreased T₃ in females (Loucks et al, 1994b). There has been limited research on T₃ and reproductive function in females and there is no data presently available in males.

8. General discussion

The lower T₃ observed in HE in this study may provide further insight as to the role of exercise and energy balance on reproductive furnction in males. Although there were no differences in the hormones of the H-P-G axis (testosterone, LH, FSH or prolactin), a marker of insufficient energy (lower T₃) may have indicated a disruption to energy balance. As previously mentioned, it is not know at present what

values in an energy balance equation are considered as insufficient energy to maintain basic life function, including reproductive function. However, ME had significantly higher energy balance values than SC (kcal/kgFFM/day), where there were no differences in energy balance values between HE and SC. There were no differences in T₃ between ME and SC or ME and HE, yet T₃ was lower in HE than SC. In this study, HE may have displayed a marker of insufficient energy with significantly lower T₃ however, the data does not support that energy balance values were different between HE and SC. As has been previously discussed, there are inherent margins of error associated with measuring energy intake and energy expenditure (resting and from exercise). As some subjects' RER values were below physiological ranges during the REE measure, the values may not be reliable. This would discount the value of the REE contribution of the energy balance equation, thus miss-representing energy balance for those individuals. Conversely, it is possible that serum samples of T_3 are more sensitive measurements of energy insufficiency than the components of the energy balance equation. This may explain why T₃ was significantly lower in HE than SC, yet energy balance was not different. On the other hand, the difference in T₃ could be a result of a single serum sample. Had there been an observed trend in energy balance values and T₃, greater understanding of the implications of lower T₃ and, or energy balance values would exist. Currently, this hypothesis requires further investigation.

The research of De Souza et al (1994a) is very comprehensive in that it compares many hormones as well as sperm quality of male runners with sedentary males. Where differences were found in testosterone between high mileage and

moderate mileage runners, the possible variable analyzed by the researchers was volume of training. Although energy intake was evaluated, REE was not included nor was energy balance assessed. This present study was not able to reproduce the same hormonal differences observed in De Souza et al (1994a), although a more thorough analysis of variables was included. As there were no observed differences in hormones of the testes or the anterior pituitary between the three groups, the roles of energy intake, REE, TEF, exercise energy expenditure and energy balance in the maintenance of the H-P-G axis remain uncertain.

A positive relationship between duration and, or mileage of running and disruption to the H-P-G axis has been established in previous research (De Souza et al, 1994a). HE athletes in this study did not present with different hormonal profiles of the H-P-G than ME or SC, despite having different energy expenditures (TriTrac R3-DTM). However, as total duration of exercise (logbook) did not differ between HE and ME, there may not have been sufficient differentiation in training classifications. Conversely, it may also be suggested that all three groups, regardless of energy expenditure, ingested sufficient energy intake. This can be reflected in the higher energy intake in HE and ME than SC. Energy balance values were all positive for the three groups, therefore appeared to be sufficient for maintenance of basic life functions for all groups. Previous research that has identified alterations to reproductive function in highly trained athletes has failed to analyze energy balance. Further investigation of such populations may indicate that those athletes with lower total and free testosterone, LH, FSH, and prolactin may have higher energy expenditure and may also have negative energy balance.

There are several differences between this present study and previous research that may partially account for the unique findings of this study. Running has been the primary mode of training that has been analyzed in comparing reproductive function of male athletes and non-athletes (Are et al, 1993a; Hackney et al, 1988; Hackney et al, 1990; Jensen et al, 1995; MacConnie et al, 1986; McColl et al, 1989; Wheeler et al, 1984). Where mileage and duration of running have been correlated with lower circulating testosterone in males (De Souza et al, 1994a), this has not been explored with cyclists. Volume threshold identification (De Souza et al, 1994a) was considered when identifying group differentiation through duration of training per week in this study. It is possible that the duration of exercise chosen for differentiation of groups (training classification) in this study was not sufficient to elicit changes in hormonal profiles of the H-P-G axis between HE and ME or SC. The mechanical efficiency of cycling (Farcia, 1992) compared to running may also influence energy expenditure of exercise, thus impacting the energy balance equation. This may partially explain differences in hormonal profiles between this study and De Souza et al (1994a) as higher volumes of cycling than what was observed in this present study may be needed to elicit energy expenditure of highly-trained runners. Where energy balance and, or energy expenditure may be variables influencing various hormones, comparing differences in energy expenditure between sports may be difficult.

This study focused on male cyclists. This categorization of athletes included competitive and recreational road cyclist, mountain bikers and triathletes. As some of the males in HE and SC were not pure cyclists (performed cross-training activities

such as running, swimming), the lack of homogeneity in training regiments may have contributed to the findings. De Souza et al (1994a) did not report having diversity in training between subjects.

The self-recording of physical activity in the logbooks differed between SC and the athletes. SC tended to record daily active living activities ("walk to school", "shovel snow") amongst physical activities while the athletes strictly reported exercise bouts. This reflects differences between groups of perception on physical activity. This discrepancy may have affected energy expenditure expressed as "duration of self-reported activity" in that SC may have been over-represented or ME and HE may have been under-represented.

Another variable that is unique to this study is the use of an accelerometer for measuring energy expenditure. The TriTrac R3-DTM, which was used in this study, is able to measure movement of activity and calculate energy expenditure from this. However, it does not calculate the intensity of exercise when cycling. No other data using the TriTrac R3-DTM as a measure of energy expenditure when cycling are available. As well, there are currently no other data supporting the use of the TriTrac R3-DTM in analyzing energy expenditure as it relates to changes within the male reproductive system. Further, eleven subjects participated in swimming as part of their training or leisure and were unable to wear the TriTrac R3-DTM while exercising in the water. SC spent a total of 115 minutes swimming (among 3 subjects), ME spent 135 minutes swimming (among 2 people), while HE spent 625 minutes (among 6 subjects) in the water. These data could not be entered into the calculation of energy balance. Where the tool is informative regarding daily active living energy

expenditure, it may be limiting in its application to all sports. This could impact the calculation of total energy expenditure as well as energy balance. It should be noted, however, that analysis of energy expenditure from the TriTrac R3-DTM resulted in significant differences between all three groups. Whether the differences would have been larger with a more precise measurement of energy expenditure remains to be determined.

Subject compliance in wearing the TriTrac R3-DTM at all times (other than sleep or involvement in water activities) as well as subject compliance and accuracy in recording activities in logbooks (durations and intensities) and in recording dietary analysis were recognized limitations to the study. All activities were analyzed with respect to intensity and duration of training, however these values were not utilized in the energy balance equation. Several complications related to the TriTrac R3-DTM arose that may have also slightly affected expected results. The accelerometer failed on five occasions and these subjects were asked to repeat their 4-day analysis. Data were lost for one subject in the SC group with respect to TriTrac R3-DTM information. Ensuring subjects maintained their regular exercise and diet regimens during the 4-day analysis and that this was reflective of weekly lifestyle were also potential limitations. Under-representation of exercise in HE or conversely, over-representation of exercise or diet in ME would affect energy balance calculations as well as the various components of the energy balance equation.

To further investigate the characteristics of male athletes, HE and ME were collapsed into one group and compared with SC (Table 14). As expected, the athletes had significantly higher scores in total time exercising (min) and energy expenditure

from exercise (TriTrac R3-DTM) as well as total energy expenditure (TriTrac R3-DTM). REE was not different between the two groups and energy intake was significantly higher in the athletes. Energy balance values did not differ significantly between athletes and non-athletes. In analyzing the hormones, T₃ remained significantly lower in the athletes than the non-athletes. The previous profiles of the other hormones remained unchanged when the athletes were combined.

Table 14 – Comparison of various measures between athletes and non-athletes. [mean]

Group	VO ₂ max (ml/kg/min)		REE (kcal/day)	TriTrac R-3D™	Energy Intake	Energy Balance	T ₃ (ng/dl)
		(nin)		"activity" (kcal/day)	(kcal/day)	(kcal/day)	
Athletes $(n = 36)***$	60.5	418	1978	809	3456	472	106.6
SC (n = 16)	42.6	129	1939	413	2709	190	117.8
p value	.000115*	.000115*	.582839	.000117*	.000124*	.107812	.028758*

Note:

- * = Athletes significantly different than SC
- ** = Average of 4-day self-reported activity logbook

9. Summary

Although previous research has indicated that male endurance runners have significantly different hormonal profiles of the H-P-G than sedentary males (Arce et al, 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Hackney et al, 1988; Hackney et al, 1990; Wheeler et al, 1984), similar findings were not reproduced when high-endurance, moderate-endurance cyclists and sedentary males were evaluated in this study. A marker of insufficient energy (low T₃) was identified in HE male, however there were no further indications of suppressed reproductive hormones in this sample population. Energy expenditure was higher in athletes than non-athletes. Energy intake was not different between HE and ME, although both were higher than SC. REE did not differ

^{*** =} n = 35 for TriTrac R-3DTM "activity" as well as for Energy Balance.

between groups. Calculated energy balance resulted in no differences between groups, unless expressed as kcal/kgFFM/day, where there were no differences between HE and ME or SC yet energy balance for ME was significantly higher than SC.

The results of this study suggest that highly trained endurance males athletes may not have different hormonal profiles than moderately trained endurance males or sedentary males. These highly trained athletes may be ingesting sufficient energy for energy expenditure, thus resulting in a positive energy balance and therefore no disruption to the H-PG axis. Other research, which has identified differences in hormonal profiles of highly trained, moderately trained and non-athletic populations have not analyzed energy balance (Arce et al. 1993b; De Souza et al, 1994a; Hackney et al, 1988; Hackney et al, 1990; McColl et al, 1989; Wheeler et al, 1984). However, decreased T₃ in HE compared to SC may indicate insufficient energy balance which may not be detectable with the current method of calculating energy balance. Methodological limitations may also contribute to the uncertainty of state of energy balance in HE male cyclists.

Further investigation into energy balance and its various components as each relates the male reproductive system, both hormones and spermatogenesis, in male athletes is merited. This study provided insight into methods of calculating energy balance including the usage of the TriTrac R3-DTM. This study also provided information regarding male cyclists whereas research to date has focused predominantly on runners when assessing the effects of exercise on male reproductive hormones.

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APPENDIX A

Ethical Approval

Ethics Review Approval

The Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation (University of Alberta):

					•
Name		Position			
Dr. Jane Watkins	GN	Professor and Associa	te Dean		
Dr. Dick Jones		Professor, Pulmonary I	Medicine		
have reviewed th	e proposal enti	dea:			
Dietary intake. resubmitted by	esting metabo	lic rate and activity lev	rels in sedentary	and athletic men	
Vicki Harber. Ke	ily Mackenzie				
×	finds it within	acceptable standards	for human expe	erimentation	
	finds it within	acceptable standards	subject to the fo	ollowing revisions	:
	finds it unacc	eptable in its present	form		
Jan 2	a) a xi	0		Iura 5 : 1005	
Dr. Jane Watkir				Date	
Faculty of Phys	ical Education	and Recreation			

APPENDIX B

Recruitment Posters

Would you like to know your:

- VO2 max and Anaerobic threshold
- Body composition (Percentage body fat)
- Resting metabolic rate
- Dietary intake

Individuals who meet the following are encouraged to participate:

- Male
- 20 36 years old
- Non-smoking
- Free from injury or illness
- Cycle a minimum of four hours per week
- Road, mountain, and triathletes welcome

Total time commitment= 9 hours

Call Kelly Mackenzie @ 492.8739
University of Alberta Faculty of Phys Ed and Rec

Volunteers Needed

Would you like to know your:

- Aerobic Fitness
- Percentage body fat
- Resting metabolic rate
- Dietary intake

Individuals who meet the following are encouraged to participate:

- 9 Male
- 20 36 years old
- Non-smoking
- Free from injury or illness
- Exercise less than two hours per week

Total time commitment= 9 hours

Call Kelly Mackenzie @ 492.8739
University of Alberta Faculty of Phys Ed and Rec

APPENDIX C

Informed Consent

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

Dietary intake, resting metabolic rate and activity levels in sedentary and athletic men.

Investigators: Kelly Mackenzie, Dr. Vicki Harber, Dr. Gordon Bell, Dr. David Cumming

SUBJECT INFORMATION SHEET

PURPOSE:

Endurance exercise may have disruptive effects on the male reproductive hormonal axis. Testosterone levels in male endurance athletes may fall below those of sedentary controls. Within the female athlete population, similar disruptions to the reproductive axis have been noted. Increased energy expenditure through exercise as well as decreased caloric intake have been connected to menstrual dysfunction. An imbalance of energy (an energy gap) in the female athlete may interrupt the processes of the reproductive system as a means of conserving energy. Although reproductive production may have observable clinical consequences in women, disruption to the male reproductive system may be undetected by male athletes. This study intends to examine the relationship between a potential energy gap (energy intake - energy expenditure) and circulating hormone levels in men of varying levels of training.

STUDY PROTOCOL:

Sixty healthy males between the ages of 20 to 36, with no history of disorders or use of medications or ergogenic supplements known to affect hormonal status, will be recruited for this study and asked to complete the following:

Subject Participation will include:

- Health Status Questionnaire: Subjects will complete a questionnaire to establish medical
 history, use of medications, reproductive profile, physical activity history as well as other potential
 complications. (Time = 1 hour)
- ◆ Aerobic Fitness Assessment: Maximal aerobic consumption (VO₂max) will be determined through progressive exercise to volitional fatigue on a cycle ergometer. Muscle discomfort/soreness, shortness of breath, and abnormal heartbeat and blood pressure are possible side effects associated with maximal aerobic consumption (VO₂max) but are rare in healthy young individuals. (Time = ½ hour)

(please continue to next page)

Study Protocol...

- Body Composition: Sum of five skinfolds will be measured with skin calipers (biceps, triceps, subscapular, supra iliac, and calf muscle sites) and body density will be measured by underwater weighing at the University of Alberta. A swimsuit is worn and the water is pleasantly warm. Changing facilities are located adjacent to the test pool. (Time = ¾ hour)
- ◆ Blood Sample: A single blood sample (20 ml) will be taken between 4 and 6 pm by a physician, registered nurse, or trained personnel. Exercise will not be permitted until after the blood sample has been drawn (daytime workout will not be permitted on blood sample day). Bruising and a small risk of infection are possible (but rare) side effects associated with acute venipunctures. (Time = ½ hour)
- Resting Metabolic Rate: Oxygen consumption at rest will be measured at the University of Alberta. This will be done in the morning, following a day of rest (no physical activity) and 12 hours of fasting. Subject will arrive in a leisurely fashion and will rest for a ½ hour prior to test being performed. The test itself is approximately ¾ hour. The atmosphere is peaceful and relaxing. (Time = 1½ hours)
- Diet Records: A 4-day diet record will be completed. This will be analyzed on a computer program to determine each subject's usual caloric intakes. (Time = 2 hours)
- Monitoring of Physical Activity: A physical activity logbook will be completed over 4 days. A Tri-Trac monitor, which measures all movement and estimates caloric expenditure, will be worn for these same 4 days at all times other than sleep and water-related activities (ie. showers, swimming). It is worn like a beeper a belt will be supplied for comfort. A heart rate monitor will also be worn around the chest with a wrist receiver (watch band) during all bouts of exercise. (Time = 1 hour)
- ◆ Eating Attitudes Questionnaires: Two eating attitude questionnaires will be completed at one of the scheduled visits. (Time = ½ hour)

Total time commitment per subject will approximate 9 hours.

CONFIDENTIALITY:

To ensure confidentiality, raw data will be coded and stored in a locked filing cabinet in a locked office to which only the investigators will have access. Normally data is retained for a period of five years post-publication, after which it may be destroyed.

We strongly encourage questions for clarity and understanding of the above outlined experiment. For further information, please feel free to contact Kelly Mackenzie @ 492-8739 or Dr. Vicki Harber @ 492-1023.

e-mail: kam1@gpu.srv.ualberta.ca

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

Dietary intake, resting metabolic rate and activity levels in sedentary and athletic men.

Investigators: Kelly Mackenzie, Dr. Vicki Harber, Dr. Gordon Bell, Dr. David Cumming

SUBJECT CONSENT FORM

This study has been satisfactorily explained to me by Kelly Mackenzie, Dr. Vicki Harber or their designate. I understand the necessity for the protocol outlines in the Subject Information sheet. I know that I may contact the persons designated on this form at any time if I have further questions. I have been informed of the possible benefits of joining this research study as well as the possible risks and discomforts. I have been assured that the information obtained from my participation in this study may be published in medical reports, but that my personal records will be kept confidential. I understand that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without prejudice. I understand that I will be promptly informed of any findings, which may develop during the research period that may affect my willingness to continue participating in the study. I understand that I will be given a copy of the Subject Information Sheet and the signed Consent Form to keep.

Subject's Name (print)	Subject's Signature & Date
Witness' Name (print)	Witness' Signature & Date
Investigator's Name (print)	Investigator's Signature & Date

We strongly encourage questions for clarity and understanding of the above outlined experiment. For further information, please feel free to contact Kelly Mackenzie @ 492-8739 or Dr. Vicki Harber @ 492-1023.

e-mail: kam1@gpu.srv.ualberta.ca

APPENDIX D

Demographic Questionnaire

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Name:	Date:
Age:years	
Date of Birth:	
Phone #:(daytime)	(evening)
Mailing Address:	
Please fill out the following questions as accuraclarification where needed. All information pro-	
Section A	
 Over the last 12 months, describe your level of a) Less than 2 hours of exercise per week b) Between 2 - 4 hours per week c) Between 5 - 7 hours per week d) Between 8 - 10 hours per week e) Between 11 - 14 hours per week f) Over 15 hours per week 	physical activity (aerobic):
2) Do you belong to a sports team/club?Yes (please go to question 3)No (please go to question 7a)	
Questions 3 – 6 need only be filled out if "yes' 3) Name of team/club:	
4) Sport:	
5) Number of years competing in the sport:	years
6) What is the highest level of competition of whice ✓ and indicate year of competition):	ch you have been involved (please
City	
Provincial	
VarsityNational	
International	
Other (please specify)	
	-

Please go to Question 7b. Describe your workouts as well as other activities in which you also participate.

7 a) Do yo	ou participate regul	arly in leisure	sports or activi	ties?				
No	s(please	go to <i>Question</i> go to Section .	(n /o) B)					
	e list and describe	_						
Activity	Frequency (sessions/week)		Distance (km/wk) (if applicable)				tensit e belo	
				1	2	3	4	5
				1	2	3	4	5
		. L. 418		1	2	3	4	5
						3	4	5
				I	2	3	4	5
 				1	2	3	4	5
				1	2	3	4	5
	you had any known		2 = So 3 = Mo 4 = Vig 5 = Ex heavy) problems?	at vigorous a mewhat vigo oderately vig gorous (Hea tremely Vig	orous gorous vy) orous	(Ligh (Med (Very	t) dium)	
9) Do you	ı have any medical ny supplements (ie	conditions &	or have you be					
10) Do yo Yes No	u use anabolic ster 	oids?						
11) Do you Yes No								

Thank you for your time. All information will be kept confidential.

APPENDIX E

Diet Record Information Sheet

WHAT DO YOU EAT ???

You will be recording your daily intake of food and fluids for a series of consecutive days. They must include at least one weekend day (Saturday or Sunday).

It is imperative that you record EVERYTHING that you eat and drink (water as well!!). In addition, you must be as ACCURATE as possible when determining the amount (volume or weight) of the food and drink you are recording. It may be difficult for those in residence or for those who are not in complete control of your food intake (preparation, amount, etc.). Use measuring cups/spoons and weigh scales whenever possible.

HINTS FOR RECORDING DIETARY INTAKE

ACCURACY

- 1. Accurate Measurement Read the weights or volumes of foods or drinks from packages. Example: milk carton, juice box, chocolate bar, potato chips. A "fistful" of meat = 100 gm, "fistful" veggies = 1 cup. 1 cheese single = 1 oz.
- Method of cooking Indicate how your food was cooked. Example: fried, steamed, baked, broiled etc.
- 3. "Extras" Don't forget the EXTRAS. Example: ketchup, mustard, mayonnaise, gravy, or butter.
- Food Types Be specific about TYPES of food/drink. Example: cheddar cneese, 2% milk, margarine or butter. Whenever possible, identify <u>brand names</u> of the foods.
- Cooked or Orv Measurement Indicate whether the food measurement is "cooked" or "dry". Example: chicken weight before or after cooked.
- 5. <u>Specific Parts</u> Indicate the exact part of the food you are or what was removed before eating. Example: chicken (white or dark, bone in or out, skin or skinless), baked potato (skin or skinless), ground beer (lean, extra lean, or regular).
- 7. <u>Labers</u> Read the nutritional information laber from the container (box/con/pag). This will help identify specific brand food nutrients. If you can't find the specific food during your analysis, then you can enter the required data from the laber.

BEVERAGES

- TEA AND COFFEE should be included as well along with the cream, milk and sugar you add.
- Don't forget WATER.
- 10. Yes, you do have to record BEER and ALCOHOL as weil......!!

PREPARED OR RESTAURANT MEALS

- 11. Use PORTION PAKS whenever possible. Example: salad dressing, butter, jams, peanut butter, cheese. It is easier to quantify the volume of these foods...1 portion pak = 1 tablespoon.
- 12. Fast Foods Include FAST FOOD items by name. Example: McDonald's, Pizza Hut, Wendy's.
- 13. Recipes Record the amount/volume of ingredients, the number of servings or volume the entire recipe makes and how many servings or what volume you ate.
- 14. Restaurant Meals When you eat at a restaurant (other than a fast food place, eg. Ean's), record the name of the meal you ate, list the different ingredients on your plate and the quantities of each.

TAKE THE RECORD BOOK WITH YOU AT ALL TIMES......IT'S EASIER TO RECORD WHAT YOU'RE EATING.

••••••

DESCRIPTION OF MENU ITEM	Type Method of of of Flavour Cooking													DAY ONE	
EAS	vord: No. Of Units										- 				
UNIT OF MEAS	Enter the word: "cup" "ounce" "number" "teaspoon"		! ! !			[[[[-	i 	1			
MENUITEM	Enter all foods, beverages, etc. consumed as menu flems. For every menu flcm, include any toppings or additives added to the menu flem at the time of eating.									1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 1		Eaten at Your Home	Eaten Away From Your Home	Did Not Eat
	Enter con property of the metropies are to the metropies are to the metropies are metr	- Menu Item Toppings or Additives	Menu Item	Toppings or Additives	Menu Item	Toppings or Additives	Menu Item	Toppings or Additives	Menu Item	Toppings or Additives	Menu Item	Toppings or Additives	Mark (X)	One	Calegory
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APPENDIX F

Physical Activity Logbooks

Cycling Physical Activity Journal

		Intensity	12345	12345	12345
1		H. R. Monitor Worn			
		Average Speed (km/hr)			
		Distance (km)			
	Day 4:	Duration (min)			
		Intensity	12345	12345	12345
		H. R. Monitor Worn			
5 00		Average Speed (km/hr)	-		
cordin		Distance (km)			
Dates of Recording:	<i>Day 3:</i>	Duration (min)			
Dates		Intensity	12345	12345	12345
		H R. Monitor Wom?			
		Average Speed (km/hr)			
		Distance (km)			
		Duration (min)		<u>-</u>	
		Intensity	12345	12345	12345
		H R. Monitor Worn?	į	_	
		Average Speed (km/hr)			
Name:		Distance (km)			
Ž	Day I:	Duration (min)			

Intensity Scale: 1 = Not vigorous at all (Very Light)
2 = Somewhat vigorous (Light)
3 = Moderately vigorous (Medium)
4 = Vigorous (Heavy)
5 = Extremely Vigorous (Very Very Heavy)

Comments:

Non-Cycling Physical Activity Journal

		Intensity	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345
	Day 4:	Duration (min)								
		Intensity	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345
Dates of Recording:	<i>Day 3</i> :	Duration (min)								
tes of Re		Intensity	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345
Dat	<i>Day 2</i> :	Duration (min)								
ı		Intensity	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345	12345
	Day I:	Duration (min)								
Name:		Activity								

Intensity Scale: 1 = Not vigorous at all (Very Light)
2 = Somewhat vigorous (Light)
3 = Moderately vigorous (Medium)
4 = Vigorous (Heavy)
5 = Extremely Vigorous (Very Very Heavy)

Comments:

Physical Activity Journal

Name:			Dates	Dates of Recording:	rding:		1	
	Day I:		<i>Day 2:</i>		<i>Day 3</i> :		Day 4:	
Activity	Duration (min)	Intensity	Duration (min)	Intensity	Duration (min)	Intensity	Duration (min)	Intensity
		12345		12345		12345		12345
		12345		12345		12345		12345
		12345		12345		12345		12345
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Intensity Scale: 1 = Not vigorous at all (Very Light)
2 = Somewhat vigorous (Light)
3 = Moderately vigorous (Medium)
4 = Vigorous (Heavy)
5 = Extremely Vigorous (Very Very Heavy)

Comments:

APPENDIX G

Sample Questions from EDI & DEBQ-R

Sample questions form	ı EDI	questionnaire	(Garner et al,	1983)
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Al	ways	U	sually	0	ften	So	me	times	Ra	arely	N	¢١	/er	
())	1. I eat when I am upset.
()	()	()		()	()	()	7. I think about dieting.
()	()	()		()	()	()	19. I feel satisfied with the shape of my body.
()	()	()		()	()	()	38. I think about bingeing (overeating).
()	()	()		()	()	()	42. I feel that I can achieve my standards.
()	()	()		()	()	()	63. I have extremely high goals.

Sample questions from DEBQ-restraint questionnaire (van Strien et al. 1986)

	ery Iten	Ofte	2n	Some	etimes	Sele	dom	Nev	er	
()	()	()	()	()	1. When you put on weight, do you eat less than you usually do?
()	()	()	()	()	5. Do you deliberately eat foods that are slimming?
()	()	()	()	()	7. Do you deliberately eat less in order not to become heavier?
()	()	()	()	()	10. Do you take into account your weight with what you eat?

APPENDIX H

Daily Energy Intake Analysis

Table 15 - Daily energy intake analysis. (mean, ± SD)

できるという	Fig. 18.	Company of the Compan							
78 ±34	27 ±j 1	92 ±40	14 ±3	375±125	57±10	39 ±9	2572 ±638	4	သင
122 ±33	15±4	64 122 ±33	15 ±4	472 ±122	58 ±10	51 ±9	3193 ±562	7	MB
105 ±43	. 28 ±8	125 ±55	7∓ 7 [474±125	57 ±10	49 ±13	3338±934	4	HE
85 ±25	29 ±5	107 ±41	17 ±7	354 ±121	53 ±9	40±11	2596±660	3	SC
109 ±49	26 ±9	130 ±49	14 ±4	525 ±157	55 ±17	58 ±14	3616 ±755	3	ME
92 ±51	24 ±11	134 ±44	16 ±4	509 ±174	59 ±12	50 ±9	3418 ±711	3	HE
86 ±35	28 ±8	99 ±33	15±4	382 ±112	56±11	41±12	2677 ±666	2	SC
103 ±48	56 ±9	120 ±35	14 ±3	498 ±117	58 ±11	55±11	3439 ±694	2	ME
98 ±39	25±10	133 ±37	15±4	520 ±185	58 ±11	51 ±13	3469 ±832	2	HE
112 ±55	33±11	111 ±32	15±3	392 ±135	51 ±12	46±16	2995±890		SC
97 ±35	25 ±6	132 ±37	15 ±3	521 ±179	58 ±8	57±15	3532 ±959	-	ME
96 ±38	24 ±9	132 ±24	15±3	580 ±189	62 ±10	56±14	3655 ±754		HE
FAT (g)	% FAT	PRO (g)	% PRO	CHO(g)	%CHO	kcal/kgFFM	kcals	Day	Group

APPENDIX I

Raw Data

Group	Age (years)	Weight (kg)	Height (cm)
HE1	38	81.0	181.8
HE2	25	90.2	183.0
HE3	28	75.3	179.2
HE4	32	72.5	181.0
HE5	22	66.9	175.5
HE6	34	68.7	173.0
HE7	26	88.0	188.0
HE8	23	82.6	183.0
HE9	25	90.4	193.2
HE10	27	77.9	183.0
HE11	37	77.1	185.0
HE12	29	75.8	183.5
HE13	23	68.0	179.2
HE14	28	79.0	182.5
HE15	22	76.8	182.7
HE16	24	66.6	174.4
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Group	Biceps (mm)	Triceps (mm)	Subscap(mm)	Iliac (mm)	Calf (mm)	SOS (mm)
HE1	3.10	6.30	8.25	7.85	3.65	29.15
HE2	7.20	13.75	15.60	22.50	6.00	65.05
HE3	4.35	5.65	9.15	19.50	7.40	46.05
HE4	4.45	5.50	14.55	10.65	4.65	39.80
HE5	4.50	6.20	10.95	7.85	5.25	34.75
HE6	3.65	9.40	11.65	11.60	7.20	43.50
HE7	3.30	4.25	10.70	12.90	5.20	36.35
HE8	4.05	7.15	11.40	14.65	8.80	46.05
HE9	5.00	9.00	10.60	10.80	9.80	45.20
HE10	2.95	4.10	7.45	7.85	4.05	26.40
HE11	2.80	5.30	8.15	6.35	4.90	27.50
HE12	3.60	6.10	9.60	10.10	5.90	35.30
HE13	3.65	8.25	7.75	7.40	5.50	32.55
HE14	3.55	6.00	10.60	8.65	4.70	33.50
HE15	4.00	7.60	10.60	8.80	5.90	36.90
HE16	3.80	8.70	7.30	7.75	6.65	34.20
	3.85	8.20	: ar ref13≓10 = == :	14:10		
- ME2	3.05		7.15 seed			25.35
ME3	4:30	3.25		11.65		42.65
ME4	s :3:70≥ca		## ₹10.40		6:00	100000
ME5	3.35 €	公达7月52	海岸 - 10.15 点点		4.25	34.60
ME6.	3.15	5.85	=>> =10.25	14:45	₃₅ ≥ 5.50. ≥ ∶	==.39.20,
∍ME7⊴	4:30	8.40	≆ra, 13.85	13.55	6:15	46.25
	2.75	5.30	£35€8:95;±\$65	8:00	4.15	29.15
ME9	行。7.004%。	A 444 A	16.45	25.40	10,50	71.65
ME103	最高1270美元		25.85 Exa			元109.00 度
ME11	3.30		11.40	11.40 Sec	de 6.45 €	: 39.60
ME12	3.60		13.95	15.30	3 - 6.50 s	-48.30
ME13	4.10		12.00	13.05	7:85	46.80
ME15	3.40		345 7.65 - C	5.75 to 1	3.40	24.90
ME16:	4.60		13.50 (14.30)	2.06.75 2.8.65	4.60 6:10	35.95 ::
ME17	3:30		9:50	8.65 8 15 8	5.70	37.65 31.60
ME18			8.45	9.40	6:00	.33.75
ME19			15.25	16.40	4.70	48.75
ME20			8.85		8.75	33.25
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Group	Body Fat (%)	Fat Mass (kg)	Fat Free Mass (kg)	Actual RV (L)	Pred RV (L)
HE1	13.90	11.2	69.8	2.90	х
HE2	13.00	11.7	78.5	1.71	X
HE3	17.40	13.1	62.2	1.27	х
HE4	13.20	9.6	62.9	1.38	×
HE5	13.00	8.7	58.2	1.18	×
HE6	13.00	8.9	59.8	1.57	×
HE7	7.78	6.8	81.2	1.77	×
HE8	13.50	11.1	71.5	X	1.88
HE9	12.60	11.4	79.0	1.97	×
HE10	8.60	6.7	71.2	1.77	×
HE11	11.70	9.0	68.1	1.41	×
HE12	12.90	9.8	66.0	1.34	×
HE13	12.60	8.6	59.4	1.62	×
HE14	14.00	11.0	68.0	Х	1.97
HE15	10.80	8.3	68.5	0.97	X
HE16	10.40	6.9	59.7	1.29	×
ME1	130 ESE	6:66	51.25		SELEX LOSS
ME2				1.36	Wen XX
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ME7				135 - 1.10 puts	X
ME8.		3.96		X	1.90
ME9.			65.7	1.48	X
ME10	36.70 Child	=26.2±,<≥		- M	1:76
ME11		9.7: - 4.		1.34	- X
ME12		10:7:30:3	56.5	-1.66	saraha Xaharia
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ME14	8.10	5.3	60.5	1.25	1/24-07 Lat Y 6/2 1957-44
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ME16		3,5 × 56.5	65:3/-	1.67	reference XIII e. G. G.
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Group	VO2 (Vmin)	VO2 (ml/kg/min)	VO2 (ml/kgFFM/min)	Max HR (bpm)	VT (L/min)	HR @ VT (bpm)
HE1	5.133	63.2	73.5	188	4.427	168
HE2	4.719	52.3	60.1	188	4.038	164
HE3	4.175	55.3	67.1	184	3.087	161
HE4	4.666	64.2	74.2	188	3.941	188
HE5	3.939	58.8	67.7	197	3.166	159
HE6	3.635	52.9	60.8	196	3.035	180
HE7	5.462	61.9	67.3	185	4.701	162
HE8	5.102	61.6	71.4	199	3.912	187
HE9	5.152	56.9	65.2	182	4.468	169
HE10	4.772	61.3	67.0	175	3.768	150
HE11	5.276	68.3	77.5	179	4.823	154
HE12	4.999	65.8	75.7	197	3.932	176
HE13	4.794	69.2	80.7	181	3.79	166
HE14	5.048	63.5	74.2	176	3.395	157
HE15	4.96	64.5	72.4	193	4.566	172
HE16	4.816	72.2	80.7	200	3.352	173
ME1	3.406 ==	58:6	66.5	- 3197	2.516	162
ME2	4.431	64.1	73.9	186	3.458	166
ME3	4.532	59.7	67:5	196	3.708	3 171
-ME4	≟5.293≈ <i>≱</i> :	63.9	64 - 73.9 A	= 187 <i>us</i>	4.321	172
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ME9	4.822	56.9	64-473.4-6-14	186	3.422	165
ME10	4.281		2-1-4-59.6			
ME11	%-3.55×	49.8	57.6	209	2.455	5.00 180:
ME12	3.32.23	513/2	58.8	189	2.902	₹
ME13	4.658	63.38	69.1	175	3.915	162
ME14	4.601	69.8	76.0	. 197	3.683	183
ME15	3.447	62	69.2-	206	3.199	190
ME16	4.092	55.9	62.7	2. 177	3.538	165
	4:854	60.52	72.6	->>.481.≪	4.21.≈≈	42 163
ME18	4.568	70.7	2.02.247d/2/3752AC	- 5:197	3.548	5-5-5-000 - 5-5-5-5
ME19	4.235	65:5	76.3	197	2.958	166
ME20	4.73	54.8	63.2	190	3.6185	175
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Group	REE (kcal/day)	REE (kcal/kgFFM/day)	Pred REE (kcal/day)	VO2 @ REE (Umin)	RER
HE1	2299	32.9	1756	0.333	0.77
HE2	2424	30.9	1934	0.351	0.77
HE3	1871	30.1	1634	0.286	0.7
HE4	1983	31.5	1713	0.285	0.81
HE5	1860	32.0	1659	0.269	0.78
HE6	1786	29.9	1603	0.274	0.66
HE7	2281	28.1	1930	0.327	0.82
HE8	2077	29.0	1860	0.304	0.73
HE9	2344	29.7	1990	0.343	0.73
HE10	1886	26.5	1794	0.272	0.79
HE11	2240	32.9	1757	0.321	0.82
HE12	2084	31.6	1780	0.299	0.81
HE13	1478	24.9	1709	0.217	0.72
HE14	1977	29.1	1793	0.29	0.71
HE15	2328	34.0	1803	0.339	0.75
HE16	1757	29.4	1643	0.269	0.68
ME199			# 1506 to 100		0.00 0.79
ME25	1824		1650		-0.69
ME3	2142	******31:9	1768		0.73
ME4	1975		1844		0.66
ME5	27 - 1841 - C	29.7	1613		0.66
ME6	1928	307	1674		0.72
THE STATE OF THE PARTY	1907	31.0	41663	0.291	-0.7
ME8			1672	0.267	0.72 -
ME9	2156	32.8	1799	0.314	20.75
ME10	2148:		2007	0.329	0.68
ME11	-1795		1729	0.262	-0.74
ME12	1606	28.4	1544	0.245	0:7
ME13	1963	29.1	1692	0.287	0.73
ME14	2095	34.6	1661	0.321	0.67
ME15	1697	34.1	1460	0.26	0.66
ME16	1956	30.0.	1726	0.299	0.68
ME17	2086	31.2	1821	0.233	0.00
ME18	1870			0.287	0.65
ME19	1743	31:4	1614	0.256	0.03
ME20	2324	31.0	1873	0.230	0.73
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Group	Diet (kcal/day)	Diet (kcal/kgFFM/day)	Ave % Fat	Ave % CHO	Ave % Protein
HE1	3289	47.1	26	59	14
HE2	3509	44.7	23	61	13
HE3	2730	43.9	19	65	16
HE4	2718	43.2	22	61	16
HE5	4098	70.4	22	63	15
HE6	2762	46.2	27	55	16
HE7	4012	49.4	27	54	13
HE8	3292	46.0	29	51	20
HE9	4471	56.6	14	74	12
HE10	2958	41.5	16	67	12
HE11	3616	53.1	30	50	19
HE12	4075	61.7	12	77	11
HE13	3480	58.6	35	49	16
HE14	3465	51.0	32	54	15
HE15	3319	48.5	37	48	15
HE16	3721	62.3	32	52	15
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ME2	W-4-3326-WW	55.4	2022	53-6-6-5	Policies 7. Activities
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Group	Intens 1 (min)	Intens 2 (min)	Intens 3 (min)	Intens 4 (min)	Intens 5 (min)	Time Exercise (min)
HE1	0	120	298	0	0	418
HE2	0	75	190	175	0	440
HE3	112	0	225	135	0	472
HE4	0	60	62	0	32	154
HE5	0	145	333	70	0	548
HE6	30	0	60	125	Ō	215
HE7	240	170	145	188	Ö	743
HE8	0	55	20	60	90	225
HE9	Ō	40	425	60	0	525
HE10	30	105	0	93	80	308
HE11	331	70	93	0	185	679
HE12	0	0	367	20	0	387
HE13	0	135	90	155	135	515
HE14	68	150	0	60	0	278
HE15	180	45	80	90	Ö	395
HE16	70	0	424	190	80	764
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HE2	11 to 14	18
HE3	11 to 14	9
HE4	11 to 14	21
HE5	11 to 14	14
HE6	11 to 14	8
HE7	11 to 14	12
HE8	11 to 14	14
HE9	11 to 14	12.25
HE10	11 to 14	10.5
HE11	15+	21
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HE13	15+	20
HE14	15 +	16
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Group	Tritrac -Total kcal	Tritrac - Act kcal	Tritrac - REE kcal
HE1	12519.12	4512.72	8006.40
HE2	12556.84	3542.44	9014.40
HE3	11955.91	4179.91	7776.00
HE4	10821.95	3161.15	7660.80
HE5	10687.04	3199.04	7488.00
HE6	10864.30	3664.30	7200.00
HE7	14105.55	5235.15	8870.40
HE8	11709.37	2997.37	8712.00
HE9	15257.45	5983.85	9273.60
HE10	10752.32	2573.12	8179.20
HE11	11694.53	3860.93	7833.60
HE12	12336.25	4329.85	8006.40
HE13	11317.95	3599.55	7718.40
HE14	11175.41	2996.21	8179.20
HE15	13041.37	4689.37	8352.00
HE16	9741.20	2310.80	7430.40
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ME2	9349.90	37. 37. 37. 37. 37. 37. 37. 37. 37. 37.	7430.40
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HE1	44.8	16.2	28.7
HE2	40.0	11.3	28.7
HE3	48.1	16.8	31.3
HE4	43.0	12.6	30.4
HE5	45.9	13.7	32.2
HE6	45.4	15.3	30.1
HE7	43.4	16.1	27.3
HE8	40.9	10.5	30.5
HE9	48.3	18.9	29.3
HE10	37.8	9.0	28.7
HE11	42.9	14.2	28.8
HE12	46.7	16.4	30.3
HE13	47.6	15.1	32.5
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HE15	47.6	17.1	30.5
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HE2	0	1	0	0	0	5	4	1	24
HE3	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	10
HE4	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	22
HE5	1	0	2	0	0	1	4	0	13
HE6	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
HE7	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	4	17
HE8	6	7	0	1	1	2	7	5	29
HE9	0	0	0	0	0	6	2	0	17
HE10	3	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	14
HE11	0	1	0	0	2	2	8	0	16
HE12	2	0	0	1	0	3	1	0	30
HE13	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	11
HE14	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	16
HE15	3	0	5	0	0	2	4	0	22
HE16	0	1	0	3	0	3	8	0	13
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Group	Total Test (ng/dl)	Free Test (pg/ml)	LH (mlU/ml)	FSH (mIU/ml)	Prolactin (ng/ml)
HE1	301.227	10.294	4.285	9.454	3.487
HE2	726.992	24.239	3,769	2.105	8.106
HE3	319.722	10.963	2.831	2.007	10.752
HE4	435.932	14,192	4.040	2.358	3.210
HE5	294.161	11.321	0.537	3.366	5,949
HE6	553.640	17.456	1.813	4.847	4.652
HE7	533.064	15.733	1.605	1.854	9.983
HE8	557.179	19.016	0.717	1.024	15.964
HE9	450.253	14.331	3.478	2.073	9.012
HE10	268.993	8.515	1.799	3.765	8.998
HE11	305.744	10.021	2.068	2.236	5.747
HE12	298.012	10.432	1.562	0.793	4.933
HE13	386.016	11.225	2.020	2.288	5.440
HE14	435.501	17.878	5.598	5.213	8.699
HE15	338.843	10.016	1.497	2.740	11.082
HE16	376.904	11.634	2.774	5.087	11.794
METER	350.647			3.007 55-56-242845######	2.6.8.940
ME2	349:223	3.215235	2 201	8.516	4.993
ME3:	614.116	22.591	12 2.607	3.256	9.522
ME4	329.439	10.694			6.173
ME5	267.646		0.864	2.544	4.433
ME6	672.762	47.119	10.800	13:644	
ME7.s	417.606	18.437	2.834	1382	makeman roots, and for all and the results.
ME8	304.956₃≥	13:181	2.082	1.721	455 8.395 · · · ·
ME9		16.676	2.855	2.464	8.252
	312.304			2.404 1.096	8.166
ME11-	396.896		7-CF30-11-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-		## 24:283
ME12	275.405		2.850	6.091	8.402
ME13	510.253	E-17-176-223	1.210		4.482
ME14	658.450	26.686			25年11.260
ME15	348 194	13:895		2.965	7.070
ME16	675.063		4.402		4.151
ME17	707:121		3.703	2.679 8.919	6.032
ME18					5.311 3 11.289
ME19				3.807	7.759
ME20	256.542		4.331		6.647
-2-208-16-2					0.047
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Group	Cortisol (ug/dl)	Total T3 (ng/dl)	Total T4 (ul/dl)
HE1	13.740	120.018	6.487
HE2	10.817	105.632	6.197
HE3	7.041	97.652	5.757
HE4	9.529	108.047	6.049
HE5	18.351	107.611	6.970
HE6	9.934	100.118	7.101
HE7	8.038	114.278	6.465
HE8	10.038	115.512	7.918
HE9	5,516	109.326	6.159
HE10	11.069	80.650	4.833
HE11	8.632	79.757	6.275
HE12	4.056	93.034	5.746
HE13	10.245	96.614	5.604
HE14	9.880	100.424	6.538
HE15	11.624	96.442	6.743
HE16	5.693	107.060	6.256
			5:305
MF2	7-074	113.553	7.570
ME3	9.062	144.172	8.640
MF4	11:366	90.643	5.580
MF5	= 11104	92.101	7.203
ME6	8 845	130.516	7.003
	11 874	84.690	1.000 (Company)
MF8	9.617	110.300	7.773
ME9	8.500	103.395	6.349
		163.481	8:536 stand
ME11	9.304	103.701	6 030
ME12	8 045	93.936	6.583 APRIL
ME13	79-110-555	114.401	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1
ME14	14 940	110.672	5.758
ME15	14.940 9.431	110.672 108.364	6.349,
ME16	5.5.15.803	96 793	5.686
MF17	7-231	ca 114 234	8.197
ME18-	17.016	99.654	322 - 6 322 - F
ME19	17.365	~ 119.938	6 138
ME20	13 455	121.699	6.631
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