

# 1 **The frequency and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms in rugby players**

## 2 **Abstract**

3 Assess self-reported frequency and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms (GIS) at rest and around  
4 rugby training and match play in male and female rugby union players. An online questionnaire was  
5 sent to registered rugby union players (sevens or fifteens). Thirteen GIS were assessed alongside  
6 perceptions of appetite around rugby and rest using Likert and visual analogue scales. Questions  
7 investigating a range of medical and dietary factors were included. 325 players (male n=271, female  
8 n=54) participated in the study. More frequent GIS (at least one GIS experienced weekly/more  
9 often) was reported by players at rest (n=203; 62%) compared to around rugby (n=154; 47%).  
10 Overall severity of GIS was low (mild discomfort), but a portion of players (33%) did report  
11 symptoms of moderate severity around rugby. Female players reported more frequent and severe  
12 symptoms compared to male counterparts ( $p<0.001$ ). Self-reported appetite was significantly lower  
13 after matches compared to training. There were no dietary or medical factors associated with GIS  
14 severity scores. This study describes GIS characteristics in male and female rugby union players.  
15 Half of players experienced some form of GIS which may affect nutrition, training, or performance,  
16 thus should be a consideration for practitioners supporting this cohort.

17 **Keywords:** rugby, gastrointestinal symptoms, appetite, sport

## 18 **The frequency and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms in rugby players**

19

### 20 **Introduction**

21 Depending on the style and duration of the activity, 30-93% of athletes report a range of  
22 gastrointestinal symptoms (GIS) around exercise [1]. Different symptoms, often categorised into  
23 upper or lower gastrointestinal tract, can impair training, performance, or wellbeing [2]. The  
24 aetiology of GIS around exercise can be complex, with no single causal factor. Exercise-associated  
25 gastrointestinal syndrome highlights two mechanistic avenues for GIS [3]: the circulatory  
26 gastrointestinal and the neuroendocrine gastrointestinal pathways. Exercise intensity, duration,  
27 dietary intake, time of day, sleep, medication and the external environment may influence the  
28 experience of GIS in athletes [4–9].

29 Data describing the frequency and severity of GIS in athletes is predominantly from endurance  
30 exercise and there is limited research investigating GIS in team sports[10]. Rugby union is a high  
31 intensity intermittent team sport that includes specific risk factors which may predispose players to  
32 gastrointestinal distress and changes in appetite (e.g. high training volume, collisions, use of pain  
33 medication). Repeated training sessions with high intensity efforts and collisions contribute to the  
34 physical demands on players and reflect in their recovery and energy demands thus creating a  
35 unique team sport environment [11–13]. Food choices, food volume and energy balance may  
36 influence GIS [14,15] but gastrointestinal profiles have not been included in any investigations of  
37 dietary intakes in rugby players thus far.

38 Changes in appetite do not appear part of the traditional assessment of gastrointestinal distress  
39 around exercise, although loss of appetite may be a barrier to exogenous fuelling. Loss of appetite  
40 may be experienced concomitant to other GIS, such as nausea or bloating [14]. Appetite is likely  
41 critical in the post-exercise period for team sports when nutrition is prioritised as part of recovery  
42 and where high daily calorie intakes are necessary, as is the case in rugby [16]. The continued  
43 growth of women's rugby is an important consideration, as female athletes report higher levels of  
44 GIS compared to males in endurance athletes but is unknown in team sport athletes [17,18].

45 Therefore, the aim of this study was to establish self-reported frequency and severity of GIS and  
46 appetite responses associated with rugby and rest in rugby union players.

### 47 **Materials and Methods**

#### 48 *Participants*

49 Male and female senior rugby union players, from both fifteens and sevens, were invited to  
50 participate in the study. Online anonymous questionnaires were sent via coaches or national  
51 governing body. Coaches were recruited through existing rugby networks across different levels of  
52 play. Multiple governing bodies were invited to participate. Those who participated distributed the

53 questionnaire via the lead nutritionist, the nutritionist at the club or the players association. The  
54 participant information sheet was shared prior to the study and this information and informed  
55 consent were included in the online questionnaire (Supplementary material). Informed consent was  
56 obtained from all participants. Ethics approval was granted by the Ethics Advisory Committee at an  
57 institution affiliated with one of the authors. Additional permissions were obtained from the Irish and  
58 South African rugby federations.

### 59 *Questionnaire*

60 An online questionnaire (Qualtrics<sup>XM</sup>), written in the English language, was used for convenience  
61 and effective distribution (Supplementary material). Self-reported characteristics (age, body mass,  
62 height, playing level, primary position of play, training hours/week) were included to define  
63 participants [19]. Modified Likert scales were used to assess the frequency and severity of thirteen  
64 GIS [20,21] at rest and around rugby. Rest and around rugby were not pre-defined for participants  
65 and left to the participants interpretation. The lack of specific definition to the rugby and rest  
66 environments was identified as a limitation after the study. Perceptions of appetite pre and post-  
67 training and pre and post-match were included as a separate GIS using visual analogue scales  
68 (VAS) [22,23]. Two items relating to constructs of appetite: feelings of hunger and desire to eat  
69 were included. A combination of dichotomous and ranking questions were used to assess the  
70 various associated risk factors for GIS reported in other studies. Risk factors included antibiotic  
71 use, NSAIDs, fibre intakes (via fruit and vegetables), alcohol post-exercise, hydration pre-exercise,  
72 probiotics (in supplements), fermented foods and high protein intakes. These risk factors were  
73 drawn from a variety of research [24–29].

### 74 *Statistical analyses*

75 Statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software  
76 programme (SPSS, Version 26). Data are presented as median (interquartile range (IQR)). VAS  
77 data for perceptions of appetite are reported in arbitrary units (AU) rather than millimetres, due to  
78 screen/phone size. All GIS data were non-normally distributed. Wilcoxon rank tests were used to  
79 compare differences in GIS frequencies at rest and around rugby (separate GIS), as well as  
80 changes in GIS severity scores between rest and rugby conditions in all, male and female groups.  
81 Chi-squared tests were used to compare the frequencies of any GIS (weekly or more often) or GIS  
82 severity (>4) between rest and rugby conditions. Spearman rank-order correlation was used to  
83 analyse the relationship between GIS severity scores and associated risk factors mentioned above.  
84 Statistical significance was accepted at a level of  $p < 0.05$ . Graphs were created by the authors using  
85 R (version 4.2.0).

## 86 **Results**

### 87 *Participant characteristics*

88 A total of 325 players (271 male and 54 female) completed the questionnaire. Characteristics of the  
89 sample are presented in Table 1. Half the sample were International/National level [19]. None of  
90 the characteristics (e.g., body mass, age, training hours/week) had any significant relationship with  
91 GIS frequency or severity ( $p>0.05$ ).

92 *Insert Table 1*

### 93 *Gastrointestinal symptom frequency and severity*

94 At least one GIS (experienced weekly or more often) was reported by 62% (n=203) of players at  
95 rest and by 47% (n=154) of players around rugby (Table 2,  $p<0.001$ ). In a separate question, almost  
96 half of the players (48%) reported that they 'probably' or 'definitely' experienced more severe GIS  
97 around matches compared to training (any symptom), however only diarrhoea ( $p<0.001$ ) and urgent  
98 need to defecate ( $p=0.48$ ) had a higher frequency reported around rugby compared to rest for  
99 females, whilst diarrhoea ( $p=0.05$ ) had a higher frequency around rugby compared to rest for males  
100 (Table 2). Other GIS were reported as higher at rest compared to rugby conditions.

101 *Insert Table 2*

102 Median rating of severity of individual symptoms ranged between 1-3 (no discomfort to mild  
103 discomfort) (Figure 1). However, 42% and 33% of players reported at least one symptom with  
104 moderate discomfort or worse ( $\geq 4$ ) at rest or around rugby, respectively (Table 2).

105 *Insert Figure 1*

106 Combined severity scores for upper, lower and total GIS were significantly higher at rest compared  
107 to around rugby for the whole group (Table 3,  $p<0.001$ ,  $p=0.002$ ,  $p<0.001$  for upper, lower, and total  
108 GIS scores respectively).

109 *Insert Table 3*

### 110 *Changes in appetite*

111 Sixty percent of players reported lower feelings of hunger and desire to eat after a match compared  
112 with before a match, while 40% reported lower feelings of hunger and desire to eat after training  
113 compared with before training (Figure 2). After matches, 39% of all participants reported that their  
114 loss of appetite resolved within an hour, while 46% reported they needed one to two hours for their  
115 appetite to return to normal.

116 *Insert Figure 2*

### 117 *Sex-based differences*

118 Female participants reported higher frequency and severity of GIS (Table 2, Table 3, Figure 1) and  
119 lower feelings of hunger and desire to eat around rugby compared to males (Figure 2). Male players  
120 reported lower total severity of GIS around rugby compared to rest ( $p<0.001$ ), whereas female

121 players reported no difference between severity scores around rugby compared to rest (Table 3).  
122 The median scores translate as minor discomfort (rating of 2), apart from diarrhoea (around rugby)  
123 which had a median severity of mild discomfort (rating of 3). In male players, median feelings of  
124 hunger after matches were lower than after training (35 vs. 45 AU,  $p=0.54$ , Figure 2) as was desire  
125 to eat (34 vs. 45 AU,  $p=0.003$ , Figure 2).which was similar for female players (feelings of hunger;  
126 35 vs 53 AU,  $p<0.001$ , desire to eat; 31 vs. 52 AU,  $p<0.001$ , Figure 2).

#### 127 *Risk Factors for GIS*

128 None of the risk factors assessed (medication or dietary) in the questionnaire were found to be  
129 associated to the frequency or severity of GIS scores (Table 4, all  $p>0.05$ ).

130 *Insert Table 4*

## 131 **Discussion**

132 This is the first study of self-reported GIS characteristics and perceptions of appetite in high level  
133 rugby union players. Approximately half of players experienced at least one symptom weekly or  
134 more often at rest or around rugby. Players reported more frequent and severe GIS at rest  
135 compared to rugby for the majority of symptoms, but the overall severity was low. Female players  
136 experienced more frequent and severe GIS compared to their male counterparts. Measures of  
137 appetite were lower post-match compared to post-training, with females reporting lower levels of  
138 hunger and desire to eat compared to males. There were no associations between the frequency  
139 or severity of GIS and any of the external factors assessed. GIS profiles in rugby players should be  
140 assessed in order to highlight risk factors and possible intervention options for those who are  
141 affected.

142 The frequency of reported GIS is lower than in a previous mixed sport sample (86%) [30] but aligns  
143 with findings from various endurance studies [1,31]. The range of frequencies across individual  
144 symptoms (4-48%) in this study mirrors those previously reported where certain GIS (e.g. bloating)  
145 are more common than others [30,32]. Diarrhoea and urge to defecate were two GIS that were  
146 elevated around rugby compared to rest. This may be as a response to sympathetic activation that  
147 may influence specific lower GIS [33]. Rugby may expose players to higher rates of psychological  
148 stress due to concerns about performance. Psychological stress has been correlated with GIS  
149 during endurance running [34]. Unfortunately, there is no published research on the psychological  
150 stress state in rugby players but a 'nervous tummy' is supported anecdotally by players and in  
151 recent studies in runners [35] and team athletes [10].

152 The lower overall frequency and severity of GIS around rugby compared to rest (47% vs. 62%) may  
153 be influenced by training or dietary adaptations. Players involved in a fulltime rugby programmes  
154 (~50% of participants) will participate in a range of training modalities [36]. Rugby training sessions  
155 can be 45-60 minutes [36,37]; a duration that may be too short to elicit significant GIS but may still

156 contribute to positive adaptations [38]. Hypothetically, repeated rugby sessions may improve  
157 gastrointestinal tolerance over time, via decreasing levels of splanchnic hypoperfusion in response  
158 to increasing cardiovascular fitness. Different exercise modalities and different styles of training  
159 (fifteens vs. sevens) may also alter the magnitude of the GI response [29,38–40]. In this current  
160 study, participants did not report any perceived difference in GIS between different training  
161 sessions, including sessions with contact-based drills. Full contact-based drills or collisions in  
162 match play increase the metabolic requirements of players [36,41], but seem not to influence the  
163 experience of GIS reported here. This may also be in part to the limits placed on contact-based  
164 drills during training over time[42]. Further, there may be a secondary improvement mediated via  
165 the microbiome [7,43]. Specific symptom frequency, for example flatulence, may be influenced or  
166 modulated by certain bacterial species [44]. Athletes have been found to have altered microbiome  
167 profiles compared to non-athletes, including rugby players [45–47]. However, the impact of these  
168 differences in microbiome on GIS is unknown. A third of players still reported GIS of moderate  
169 severity or worse around rugby which may cause discomfort around training or rugby matches,  
170 possibly negatively influencing performance [48]. The experience of athletes of GIS in relation to  
171 match day performance will be useful to explore further.

172 Dietary adaptations may include pre-training dietary exclusions [49], or training in a euhydrated,  
173 healthy state [50]. Participants in this study at elite/sub-elite level may approach rugby training with  
174 specific dietary habits learned through experience, limiting risk of GI distress. This may go alongside  
175 adaptations to higher carbohydrate intakes. High volumes of carbohydrate fluid given repeatedly  
176 over two weeks has been shown to reduce GIS during exercise [51], while high carbohydrate  
177 intakes may also induce an increased content of glucose transporter protein (GLUT4 and GLUT5)  
178 in the gastrointestinal tract [52]. Conversely, higher volumes of food eaten to meet higher caloric  
179 requirements may aggravate specific GIS such as flatulence and bloating at rest [43,53]. Therefore,  
180 dietary exposures aligned with a training programme may minimise GIS around rugby. Monitoring  
181 GIS frequency and severity reported over a preseason and during a season may give more insight  
182 around possible training and dietary adaptations.

183 This study showed GIS to be more common in female compared to males, with sex-based changes  
184 in colonic transit time and visceral hypersensitivity being proposed amongst the possible  
185 mechanisms [17,18,48]. Menstrual phase may affect female rugby players, who previously reported  
186 abdominal pain, nausea or cramping as common GIS that negatively affect training during their  
187 menstrual cycle [54]. Unfortunately, neither menstrual phase nor contraceptive use were assessed  
188 in this study in the female players. As there appears to be no sex-based difference seen in the  
189 gastrointestinal endothelial response to exercise [55], an endocrine related mechanism may be  
190 more likely. Female players may need screening for GIS and changes in relation to their menstrual  
191 cycle phase. Female participants in this study, although from national representative teams, may  
192 train and compete in part-time environments and have less nutrition support compared to males,

193 as well as lower training ages. This may also differentiate any training and dietary associated  
194 adaptations mentioned above.

195 Self-reported measures of appetite (feelings of hunger, desire to eat) were lower post-match  
196 compared to post-training and most players reported this took an hour or more to resolve. This  
197 coincides with the clearance time for markers of gut endothelial damage, splanchnic reperfusion  
198 [56,57] and metabolites such as lactate [58,59]. The reported suppression of appetite seen here  
199 with rugby is concordant with appetite responses after continuous [60,61]; and intermittent high-  
200 intensity exercise in laboratory studies of non-athletic populations [62,63]. Previous data has not  
201 demonstrated any differences in appetite responses to exercise in male and female athletes [64,65].  
202 These data may reflect both the physiological intensity and psychological stress of match scenarios  
203 as mentioned previously. More investigation into the differences between sevens and fifteens  
204 players would be useful, but were not within the scope of this study. Appetite, as a GIS, requires  
205 practical nutrition support; however, validated nutritional strategies for increasing appetite and  
206 promoting feeding post-exercise have yet to be established.

207 Based on the current literature, this is the first study to describe self-reported rates of NSAIDs use  
208 in rugby players. Acute NSAID use has been shown to increase gut cell damage with and without  
209 exercise [66–68]. Chronic NSAID use has been associated to higher levels of GIS in non-athletes  
210 [69], but there is limited consensus on the impact of chronic NSAID use on GIS and performance  
211 in athletes [70]. Rates of reported NSAID use were lower than studies in endurance runners (57-  
212 60% of race finishers) [2,71] and collegiate American football players (~50% players during the  
213 season) [72]. Lower levels seen here may reflect improved awareness in players and stricter  
214 protocols around NSAID prescription due to publicised reports of now-retired rugby players  
215 describing high NSAID use for pain management and consequent GIS. Continued education to  
216 players of all levels around appropriate NSAID use will only benefit future gastrointestinal outcomes.  
217 A third of players reported antibiotics in the previous year, but this is difficult to contextualise with  
218 limited data on antibiotic use in team sport outside of major competitions [73]. Antibiotics have been  
219 shown to disrupt host microbiome, aggravate GIS (antibiotic associated diarrhoea) and recurrent  
220 use may impact long term gastrointestinal outcomes [74] and performance [75]. It would be  
221 important for future research to elucidate microbiome recovery in athletes post-antibiotics, or any  
222 concomitant strategies (e.g. probiotics) that may limit any detrimental effects of antibiotics on  
223 gastrointestinal health [76].

224 Dietary factors may influence GIS. Fruit and vegetable, alcohol, probiotic, and prebiotic intakes and  
225 pre-match hydration status were included in the questionnaire as these have been implicated in  
226 general gastrointestinal health and GIS around exercise [25,77–79]. Although there were no  
227 relationships found with GIS in this study, practitioners can still consider that these factors may play  
228 a role in GIS in individual cases. Investigation of dietary strategies used in endurance athletes to

229 proactively manage GIS has been published [80] which may give some insight into other dietary  
230 interactions.

### 231 *Limitations*

232 Using an online questionnaire has limitations. Although efforts were made to be comprehensive,  
233 superficial questions make some of the application of these data challenging. While rest and rugby  
234 were chosen to establish the change in environment, there may be differences in interpretation  
235 around when a player would transition from one to the other. More in depth studies should consider  
236 the differences between sevens and fifteens environments. There is currently no consensus on  
237 what frequency (e.g., weekly) or severity (e.g., moderate) of GIS is meaningful to athletes for  
238 wellbeing or performance. This is especially relevant for GIS like burping compared to diarrhoea,  
239 where performance associated impact may not be equivalent. This questionnaire was cross-  
240 sectional and some form of season-wide surveillance from a baseline would give more insight into  
241 the ability for the gut to adapt in contact-based, highly demanding sports. Ensuring that the current  
242 GIS questionnaires available is validated for team sports, as they have been done for endurance  
243 exercise, may be useful as there are limited data from team sports [48,81,82].

244 This study highlights self-reported GIS in high level male and female rugby players. Low severity  
245 GIS are common, but more so at rest. With limited data in team sport, these data may assist with  
246 the awareness for practitioners and development of interventions for the individuals who are  
247 affected. Future research focusing on the chronic impact of rugby training, NSAID use, collisions  
248 and dietary changes on the GIS profile over time (a season) would be useful to promote  
249 gastrointestinal health for wellbeing and performance.



250 **References**  
251

- 252 [1] De Oliveira EP, Burini RC, Jeukendrup A. Gastrointestinal complaints during  
253 exercise: Prevalence, etiology, and nutritional recommendations. *Sports Medicine*  
254 2014; 44: 79–85. doi:10.1007/s40279-014-0153-2
- 255 [2] Hoffman MD, Fogard K. Factors related to successful completion of a 161-km  
256 ultramarathon. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 2011; 6: 25–37. doi:10.1123/ijsp.6.1.25
- 257 [3] Costa RJS, Snipe RMJ, Kitic CM, et al. Systematic review : exercise-induced  
258 gastrointestinal syndrome — implications for health and intestinal disease. *Aliment*  
259 *Pharmacol Ther* 2017; 246–265. doi:10.1111/apt.14157
- 260 [4] Costa RJS, Gaskell SK, McCubbin AJ, et al. Exertional-heat stress-associated  
261 gastrointestinal perturbations during Olympic sports: Management strategies for  
262 athletes preparing and competing in the 2020 Tokyo Olympic Games. *Temperature*  
263 2020; 7: 58–88. doi:10.1080/23328940.2019.1597676
- 264 [5] Gaskell SK, Rauch CE, Parr A, et al. Diurnal versus Nocturnal Exercise-Impact on  
265 the Gastrointestinal Tract. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2020;  
266 doi:10.1249/MSS.0000000000002546
- 267 [6] Pals KL, Chang RT, Ryan AJ, et al. Effect of running intensity on intestinal  
268 permeability. *J Appl Physiol* 1997; 82: 571–576. doi:10.1152/jappl.1997.82.2.571
- 269 [7] Smith KA, Pugh JN, Duca FA, et al. Gastrointestinal pathophysiology during  
270 endurance exercise: endocrine, microbiome, and nutritional influences. *Eur J Appl*  
271 *Physiol* 2021;
- 272 [8] Wilson PB. Associations between sleep and in-race gastrointestinal symptoms: An  
273 observational study of running and triathlon race competitors. *Sleep Science* 2020;  
274 13: 293–297. doi:10.5935/1984-0063.20200029
- 275 [9] Wilson PB, Ingraham SJ. Glucose-fructose likely improves gastrointestinal comfort  
276 and endurance running performance relative to glucose-only. *Scand J Med Sci*  
277 *Sports* 2015; 25: e613–e620. doi:10.1111/sms.12386
- 278 [10] Wilson PB, Fearn R, Pugh J. Occurrence and Impacts of Gastrointestinal Symptoms  
279 in Team-Sport Athletes: A Preliminary Survey. *Clin J Sport Med* 2022;  
280 doi:10.1097/JSM.0000000000001113
- 281 [11] Roe G, Till K, Darrall-Jones J, et al. Changes in markers of fatigue following a  
282 competitive match in elite academy rugby union players. *South African Journal of*  
283 *Sports Medicine* 2016; 28: 2. doi:10.17159/2078-516x/2016/v28i1a1411
- 284 [12] Bradley WJ, Cavanagh BP, Douglas W, et al. Quantification of training load, energy  
285 intake, and physiological adaptations during a rugby preseason: A case study from  
286 an elite European rugby union squad. *J Strength Cond Res* 2015; 29: 534–544.  
287 doi:10.1519/JSC.0000000000000631
- 288 [13] Costello N, Deighton K, Preston T, et al. Collision activity during training increases  
289 total energy expenditure measured via doubly labelled water. *Eur J Appl Physiol*  
290 2018; 118: 1169–1177. doi:10.1007/s00421-018-3846-7

- 291 [14] Costa RJS, Gill SK, Hankey J, et al. Perturbed energy balance and hydration status  
292 in ultra-endurance runners during a 24 h ultra-marathon. *British Journal of Nutrition*  
293 2014; 112: 428–437. doi:10.1017/S0007114514000907
- 294 [15] Wilson PB, Rhodes GS, Ingraham SJ. Saccharide Composition of Carbohydrates  
295 Consumed during an Ultra-endurance Triathlon. *J Am Coll Nutr* 2015; 34: 497–506.  
296 doi:10.1080/07315724.2014.996830
- 297 [16] Costello N, Deighton K, Preston T, et al. Are professional young rugby league  
298 players eating enough? Energy intake, expenditure and balance during a pre-  
299 season. *Eur J Sport Sci* 2019; 19: 123–132. doi:10.1080/17461391.2018.1527950
- 300 [17] Pugh JN, Lydon K, O'Donovan CM, et al. More than a gut feeling: What is the role of  
301 the gastrointestinal tract in female athlete health? *Eur J Sport Sci* 2021; 1–10.  
302 doi:10.1080/17461391.2021.1921853
- 303 [18] Ter Steege RWF, Van Der Palen J, Kolkman JJ. Prevalence of gastrointestinal  
304 complaints in runners competing in a long-distance run: An internet-based  
305 observational study in 1281 subjects. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2008; 43: 1477–1482.  
306 doi:10.1080/00365520802321170
- 307 [19] McKay AKA, Stellingwerff T, Smith ES, et al. Defining Training and Performance  
308 Caliber: A Participant Classification Framework. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 2022;  
309 17: 317–331. doi:10.1123/ijsp.2021-0451
- 310 [20] Pugh JN, Sage S, Hutson M, et al. Glutamine supplementation reduces markers of  
311 intestinal permeability during running in the heat in a dose-dependent manner. *Eur J*  
312 *Appl Physiol* 2017; 117: 2569–2577. doi:10.1007/s00421-017-3744-4
- 313 [21] Svedlund J, Sjodin I, Dotevall G. GSRS-A Clinical Rating Scale for Gastrointestinal  
314 Symptoms in Patients with Irritable Bowel Syndrome and Peptic Ulcer Disease. 1988
- 315 [22] Blundell J, De Graaf C, Hulshof T, et al. Appetite control: Methodological aspects of  
316 the evaluation of foods. *Obesity Reviews* 2010; 11: 251–270. doi:10.1111/j.1467-  
317 789X.2010.00714.x
- 318 [23] Flint A, Raben A, Blundell J, et al. Reproducibility, power and validity of visual  
319 analogue scales in assessment of appetite sensation in single test meal studies  
320 Obesity-associated arterial hypertension-pathophysiology and treatment View  
321 project Collaboration with NIHS on RNA-seq data View. Article in *International*  
322 *Journal of Obesity* 2000; 24: 38–48
- 323 [24] Snipe RMJ, Costa RJS. Does the temperature of water ingested during exertional-  
324 heat stress influence gastrointestinal injury, symptoms, and systemic inflammatory  
325 profile? *J Sci Med Sport* 2018; 21: 771–776. doi:10.1016/j.jsams.2017.12.014
- 326 [25] Costa RJS, Camões-Costa V, Snipe RMJ, et al. Impact of exercise-induced  
327 hypohydration on gastrointestinal integrity, function, symptoms, and systemic  
328 endotoxin and inflammatory profile. *J Appl Physiol* 2019; 126: 1281–1291.  
329 doi:10.1152/jappphysiol.01032.2018
- 330 [26] Fujimori S, Gudis K, Sakamoto C. A review of anti-inflammatory drug-induced  
331 gastrointestinal injury: Focus on prevention of small intestinal injury.  
332 *Pharmaceuticals* 2010; 3: 1187–1201. doi:10.3390/ph3041187

- 333 [27] Hsu YJ, Huang WC, Lin JS, et al. Kefir supplementation modifies gut microbiota  
334 composition, reduces physical fatigue, and improves exercise performance in mice.  
335 *Nutrients* 2018; 10. doi:10.3390/nu10070862
- 336 [28] Shing CM, Peake JM, Lim CL, et al. Effects of probiotics supplementation on  
337 gastrointestinal permeability, inflammation and exercise performance in the heat.  
338 *Eur J Appl Physiol* 2014; 114: 93–103. doi:10.1007/s00421-013-2748-y
- 339 [29] van Wijck K, Pennings B, van Bijnen AA, et al. Dietary protein digestion and  
340 absorption are impaired during acute postexercise recovery in young men. *Am J*  
341 *Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2013; 304. doi:10.1152/ajpregu.00294.2012
- 342 [30] Pugh JN, Fearn R, Morton JP, et al. Gastrointestinal symptoms in elite athletes:  
343 Time to recognise the problem? *Br J Sports Med* 2018; 52: 487–488.  
344 doi:10.1136/bjsports-2017-098376
- 345 [31] Pugh JN, Kirk B, Fearn R, et al. Prevalence, severity and potential nutritional causes  
346 of gastrointestinal symptoms during a marathon in recreational runners. *Nutrients*  
347 2018; 10. doi:10.3390/nu10070811
- 348 [32] de Lira CAB, Viana RB, Mesquista KP, et al. Frequency and intensity of  
349 gastrointestinal symptoms in exercisers individuals at rest and during physical  
350 exercise: An internet-based survey. *Intest Res* 2019; 17: 537–545.  
351 doi:10.5217/IR.2018.00162
- 352 [33] Brouns F, Beckers E. Is the Gut an Athletic Organ? *Digestion, Absorption and*  
353 *Exercise. Sports Medicine* 1993; 15: 242–257. doi:10.2165/00007256-199315040-  
354 00003
- 355 [34] Wilson PB. Perceived life stress and anxiety correlate with chronic gastrointestinal  
356 symptoms in runners. *J Sports Sci* 2018; 36: 1713–1719.  
357 doi:10.1080/02640414.2017.1411175
- 358 [35] Urwin CS, Main LC, Mikocka-Walus A, et al. The Relationship Between  
359 Psychological Stress and Anxiety with Gastrointestinal Symptoms Before and During  
360 a 56 km Ultramarathon Running Race. *Sports Med Open* 2021; 7.  
361 doi:10.1186/s40798-021-00389-5
- 362 [36] Bradley WJ, Cavanagh BP, Douglas W, et al. Quantification of training load, energy  
363 intake, and physiological adaptations during a rugby preseason: A case study from  
364 an elite European rugby union squad. *J Strength Cond Res* 2015; 29: 534–544.  
365 doi:10.1519/JSC.0000000000000631
- 366 [37] Morehen JC, Bradley WJ, Clarke J, et al. The assessment of total energy  
367 expenditure during a 14-day in-season period of professional rugby league players  
368 using the doubly labelled water method. *Int J Sport Nutr Exerc Metab* 2016; 26: 464–  
369 472. doi:10.1123/ijsnem.2015-0335
- 370 [38] Stuempfle KJ, Hoffman MD. Gastrointestinal distress is common during a 161-km  
371 ultramarathon. *J Sports Sci* 2015; 33: 1814–1821.  
372 doi:10.1080/02640414.2015.1012104
- 373 [39] Edwards KH, Ahuja KD, Watson G, et al. The influence of exercise intensity and  
374 exercise mode on gastrointestinal damage. *Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and*  
375 *Metabolism* 2021; 6: 1–6. doi:10.1139/apnm-2020-0883

- 376 [40] Pfeiffer B, Stellingwerff T, Hodgson AB, et al. Nutritional intake and gastrointestinal  
377 problems during competitive endurance events. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2012; 44:  
378 344–351. doi:10.1249/MSS.0b013e31822dc809
- 379 [41] Costello N, Deighton K, Preston T, et al. Collision activity during training increases  
380 total energy expenditure measured via doubly labelled water. *Eur J Appl Physiol*  
381 2018; 118: 1169–1177. doi:10.1007/s00421-018-3846-7
- 382 [42] World Rugby. Contact load guidelines. 2021
- 383 [43] Clarke SF, Murphy EF, O’Sullivan O, et al. Exercise and associated dietary  
384 extremes impact on gut microbial diversity. *Gut* 2014; 63: 1913–1920.  
385 doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2013-306541
- 386 [44] Seo M, Heo J, Yoon J, et al. Methanobrevibacter attenuation via probiotic  
387 intervention reduces flatulence in adult human: A non-randomised paired-design  
388 clinical trial of efficacy. *PLoS One* 2017; 12: 1–20.  
389 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0184547
- 390 [45] Petersen LM, Bautista EJ, Nguyen H, et al. Community characteristics of the gut  
391 microbiomes of competitive cyclists. *Microbiome* 2017; 1–13. doi:10.1186/s40168-  
392 017-0320-4
- 393 [46] Barton W, Penney NC, Cronin O, et al. The microbiome of professional athletes  
394 differs from that of more sedentary subjects in composition and particularly at the  
395 functional metabolic level. *Gut* 2018; 67: 625–633. doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2016-313627
- 396 [47] Chong PP, Chin VK, Looi CY, et al. The microbiome and irritable bowel syndrome -  
397 A review on the pathophysiology, current research and future therapy. *Front*  
398 *Microbiol* 2019; 10: 1–23. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2019.01136
- 399 [48] Wilson PB, Fearn R, Pugh J. Occurrence and Impacts of Gastrointestinal Symptoms  
400 in Team-Sport Athletes: A Preliminary Survey. *Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine*  
401 9900;
- 402 [49] Parnell JA, Wagner-Jones K, Madden RF, et al. Dietary restrictions in endurance  
403 runners to mitigate exercise-induced gastrointestinal symptoms. *J Int Soc Sports*  
404 *Nutr* 2020; 17: 1–10. doi:10.1186/s12970-020-00361-w
- 405 [50] Pugh JN, Impey SG, Doran DA, et al. Acute high-intensity interval running increases  
406 markers of gastrointestinal damage and permeability but not gastrointestinal  
407 symptoms. *Applied Physiology, Nutrition and Metabolism* 2017; 42: 941–947.  
408 doi:10.1139/apnm-2016-0646
- 409 [51] Miall A, Khoo A, Rauch C, et al. Two weeks of repetitive gut-challenge reduce  
410 exercise-associated gastrointestinal symptoms and malabsorption. *Scand J Med Sci*  
411 *Sports* 2018; 28: 630–640. doi:10.1111/sms.12912
- 412 [52] Horowitz M, Cunningham KM, Wishart JM, et al. The effect of short-term dietary  
413 supplementation with glucose on gastric emptying of glucose and fructose and oral  
414 glucose tolerance in normal subjects. *Diabetologia* 1996; 39: 481–486.  
415 doi:10.1007/BF00400681
- 416 [53] Cremonini F, Camilleri M, Clark MM, et al. Associations among binge eating  
417 behavior patterns and gastrointestinal symptoms: A population-based study. *Int J*  
418 *Obes* 2009; 33: 342–353. doi:10.1038/ijo.2008.272

- 419 [54] Findlay RJ, Macrae EHR, Whyte IY, et al. How the menstrual cycle and  
420 menstruation affect sporting performance: Experiences and perceptions of elite  
421 female rugby players. *Br J Sports Med* 2020; 1–7. doi:10.1136/bjsports-2019-  
422 101486
- 423 [55] Snipe RMJ, Costa RJS. Does biological sex impact intestinal epithelial injury, small  
424 intestine permeability, gastrointestinal symptoms and systemic cytokine profile in  
425 response to exertional-heat stress? *J Sports Sci* 2018; 36: 2827–2835.  
426 doi:10.1080/02640414.2018.1478612
- 427 [56] van Wijck K, Lenaerts K, van Loon LJC, et al. Exercise-Induced splanchnic  
428 hypoperfusion results in gut dysfunction in healthy men. *PLoS One* 2011; 6: e22366.  
429 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0022366
- 430 [57] Schellekens DHSM, Hundscheid IHR, Leenarts CAJ, et al. Human small intestine is  
431 capable of restoring barrier function after short ischemic periods. *World J*  
432 *Gastroenterol* 2017; 23: 8452–8464. doi:10.3748/wjg.v23.i48.8452
- 433 [58] Coutts A, Reaburn P, Abt G. Heart rate, blood lactate concentration and estimated  
434 energy expenditure in a semi-professional rugby league team during a match: a  
435 case study. *J Sports Sci* 2003; 21: 97–103. doi:10.1080/0264041031000070831
- 436 [59] Islam H, Townsend LK, McKie GL, et al. Potential involvement of lactate and  
437 interleukin-6 in the appetite-regulatory hormonal response to an acute exercise bout.  
438 *J Appl Physiol* 2017; 123: 614–623. doi:10.1152/jappphysiol.00218.2017
- 439 [60] Broom DR, Stensel DJ, Bishop NC, et al. Exercise-induced suppression of acylated  
440 ghrelin in humans. *J Appl Physiol* 2007; 102: 2165–2171.  
441 doi:10.1152/jappphysiol.00759.2006
- 442 [61] King NA, Burley VJ, Blundell JE. Exercise-induced suppression of appetite: effects  
443 on food intake and implications for energy balance. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 1994; 48: 715–  
444 724
- 445 [62] Deighton K, Barry R, Connon CE, et al. Appetite, gut hormone and energy intake  
446 responses to low volume sprint interval and traditional endurance exercise. *Eur J*  
447 *Appl Physiol* 2013; 113: 1147–1156. doi:10.1007/s00421-012-2535-1
- 448 [63] Holliday A, Blannin A. Appetite, food intake and gut hormone responses to intense  
449 aerobic exercise of different duration. *Journal of Endocrinology* 2017; 235: 193–205.  
450 doi:10.1530/JOE-16-0570
- 451 [64] Alajmi N, Deighton K, King JA, et al. Appetite and Energy Intake Responses to  
452 Acute Energy Deficits in Females versus Males. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2016; 48:  
453 412–420. doi:10.1249/MSS.0000000000000793
- 454 [65] Thackray AE, Deighton K, King JA, et al. Exercise, appetite and weight control: Are  
455 there differences between men and women? *Nutrients* 2016; 8: 1–18.  
456 doi:10.3390/nu8090583
- 457 [66] Clarkson PM. Exertional rhabdomyolysis and acute renal failure in marathon  
458 runners. *Sports Medicine* 2007; 37: 361–363. doi:10.2165/00007256-200737040-  
459 00022
- 460 [67] Lambert GP, Boylan M, Laventure JP, et al. Effect of aspirin and ibuprofen on GI  
461 permeability during exercise. *Int J Sports Med* 2007; 28: 722–726. doi:10.1055/s-  
462 2007-964891

- 463 [68] Van Wijck K, Lenaerts K, Van Bijnen AA, et al. Aggravation of exercise-induced  
464 intestinal injury by ibuprofen in athletes. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2012; 44: 2257–2262.  
465 doi:10.1249/MSS.0b013e318265dd3d
- 466 [69] Sostres C, Gargallo CJ, Lanas A. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and upper  
467 and lower gastrointestinal mucosal damage. *Arthritis Res Ther* 2013; 15: 1–8
- 468 [70] Cornu C, Grange C, Regalin A, et al. Effect of Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory  
469 Drugs on Sport Performance Indices in Healthy People: a Meta-Analysis of  
470 Randomized Controlled Trials. *Sports Med Open* 2020; 6. doi:10.1186/s40798-020-  
471 00247-w
- 472 [71] Whatmough S, Mears S, Kipps C. The use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatories  
473 (NSAIDs) at the 2016 London marathon. *Br J Sports Med* 2017; 51: 409 LP – 409.  
474 doi:10.1136/bjsports-2016-097372.317
- 475 [72] Holmes N, Cronholm PF, Duffy AJIII, et al. Nonsteroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drug Use  
476 in Collegiate Football Players. *Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine* 2013; 23
- 477 [73] Drew MK, Vlahovich N, Hughes D, et al. A multifactorial evaluation of illness risk  
478 factors in athletes preparing for the Summer Olympic Games. *J Sci Med Sport* 2017;  
479 20: 745–750. doi:10.1016/j.jsams.2017.02.010
- 480 [74] Francino MP. Antibiotics and the human gut microbiome: Dysbioses and  
481 accumulation of resistances. *Front Microbiol* 2016; 6: 1–11.  
482 doi:10.3389/fmicb.2015.01543
- 483 [75] Hughes RL. A Review of the Role of the Gut Microbiome in Personalized Sports  
484 Nutrition. *Front Nutr* 2020; 6. doi:10.3389/fnut.2019.00191
- 485 [76] McFarland L V. Meta-analysis of probiotics for the prevention of antibiotic associated  
486 diarrhea and the treatment of *Clostridium difficile* disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2006;  
487 101: 812–822. doi:10.1111/j.1572-0241.2006.00465.x
- 488 [77] Conlon MA, Bird AR. The impact of diet and lifestyle on gut microbiota and human  
489 health. *Nutrients* 2015; 7: 17–44. doi:10.3390/nu7010017
- 490 [78] Bishehsari F, Ph D, Desai V, et al. Alcohol and Gut-Derived Inflammation. *Alcohol*  
491 *Res* 2013; 38: 163–171
- 492 [79] West NP, Colbey C, Vider J, et al. Nutrition Strategies for Gut Health and Immune  
493 Function — What Do We Know and What Are the Gaps? *Sports Science Exchange*  
494 2017; 28: 1–5
- 495 [80] Scrivin R, Costa RJS, Pelly F, et al. An exploratory study of the management  
496 strategies reported by endurance athletes with exercise-associated gastrointestinal  
497 symptoms. *Front Nutr* 2022; 9. doi:10.3389/fnut.2022.1003445
- 498 [81] Scrivin R, Costa RJ, Pelly F, et al. Development and validation of a questionnaire  
499 investigating endurance athletes practices to manage gastrointestinal symptoms  
500 around exercise. *Nutrition & Dietetics* 2021; 1–10. doi:10.1111/1747-0080.12674
- 501 [82] Gaskell SK, Snipe RMJ, Costa RJS. Test–retest reliability of a modified visual  
502 analog scale assessment tool for determining incidence and severity of  
503 gastrointestinal symptoms in response to exercise stress. *Int J Sport Nutr Exerc*  
504 *Metab* 2019; 29: 411–419. doi:10.1123/ijsnem.2018-0215

506 **Figure legends:**

507 **Figure 1:** Median (IQR) gastrointestinal symptom severity scores by symptom between female  
508 (grey) and male (dark grey) players; at rest (A) and around rugby (B); Hburn, Heartburn; Burp,  
509 Burping; U.abp, Upper abdominal pain; Naus, Nausea; Vomit, Vomiting; Cramp, Cramping; Bloat,  
510 Bloating; L. abp, Lower abdominal pain; Flat, Flatulence; Const, Constipation; Defec, , Urgent  
511 need to defecate; Stool, change in stool consistency; \* denotes a significant difference between  
512 male and female players ( $p<0.05$ ) Gastrointestinal symptom severity; 1. No discomfort 2. Minor  
513 discomfort 3. Mild discomfort 4. Moderate discomfort 5. Moderately severe discomfort 6. Severe  
514 discomfort 7. Very severe discomfort

515 **Figure 2:** Median (IQR) and range of ratings of perceived feelings of hunger and desire to eat  
516 after training and matches using a Visual analogue scale (Hunger training; feeling of hunger post  
517 training Hunger match, feelings of hunger post match, Desire training, desire to eat post training,  
518 Desire match, desire to eat post match) in male (A) and female (B) and players; \* denotes a  
519 significant difference between pre and post training or pre and post match,  $p<0.01$

520

521 Table titles and legends

522 **Table 1.** Characteristics of participants

523 Data are presented as percentage (number) of players; kg, kilograms; cm, centimetres;  
524 #denotes a significant difference between males and females; \* denotes a significant difference  
525 between forwards and backs of the same sex,  $p<0.05$   
526

527 **Table 2.** Self-reported frequency and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms reported at rest and  
528 around rugby

529 Data are presented as the percentage (number) of players who reported any gastrointestinal  
530 symptom experienced weekly or more often (weekly, more than once a week or daily); GIS,  
531 gastrointestinal symptom, <sup>a</sup> denotes a significant difference the frequencies reported between rest  
532 and rugby, ( $p<0.05$ ), <sup>b</sup> denotes a significant difference between male and female players for the  
533 reported frequency of an individual GIS ( $p<0.05$ ), \*denotes a significance between rest and rugby  
534 for any GIS reported as a severity of  $\geq 4$ , ( $p<0.05$ )

535

536 **Table 3** Severity scores of self-reported gastrointestinal symptoms reported by rugby players at  
537 rest and around rugby

538 Data is reported as median [interquartile range] of the GIS severity scores, \* denotes a significant  
539 difference between female and male players for the comparative score, ( $p<0.05$ ), <sup>a</sup> denotes a  
540 significant difference between rest and rugby environments, ( $p<0.05$ )

541

542 **Table 4.** Frequency of participants reporting different non-exercise associated risk factors for  
543 gastrointestinal symptoms (all) and in relation to reported GIS at rest or around rugby (n=329)

544 NSAIDs, Non-steroidal anti-inflammation medication, GIS represents players who reports one of  
545 more gastrointestinal symptom with a frequency of weekly or more often at rest or around rugby

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572 Table 1. Characteristics of participants

---

Characteristics	Male (n=271)	Female (n=54)
-----------------	--------------	---------------

---



Country of origin	<i>Ireland</i>	42% (115)	63% (34)
	<i>England</i>	32% (86)	2% (1)
	<i>South Africa</i>	24% (64)	17% (9)
	<i>Scotland</i>	1% (3)	18% (10)
	<i>Australia</i>	1% (2)	
Rugby union format	<i>Fifteens</i>	84% (226)	52% (28)
	<i>Sevens</i>	4% (11)	22% (12)
	<i>Both</i>	12% (32)	14% (14)
Level of play	<i>Elite/International</i>	21% (58)	
	<i>Highly trained/ National level</i>	59% (158)	100% (54)
	<i>Trained / Amateur divisions</i>	20% (54)	
Age (years)	<i>18-24</i>	63% (171)	48% (26)
	<i>25-35</i>	35% (96)	50% (27)
	<i>&gt;35</i>	1% (3)	2% (1)
Primary playing position	<i>Forwards</i>	53% (143)	40% (22)
	<i>Backs</i>	43% (118)	52% (28)
	<i>n/a</i>	4% (9)	8% (4)
Hours of training/week	<i>3-&lt;5</i>	3% (8)	
	<i>5-&lt;7</i>	15% (40)	2% (1)
	<i>7-10</i>	27% (74)	30% (16)
	<i>&gt;10</i>	49% (132)	63% (34)
Self-reported body mass (kg)	<i>All</i>	100.0 ± 12.9 <sup>#</sup>	72.2 ± 9.9
	<i>Forwards</i>	108.1 ± 8.8 <sup>*</sup>	78.7 ± 9.8 <sup>*</sup>
	<i>Backs</i>	89.1 ± 8.4	66.3 ± 5.9
Self-reported stature (cm)	<i>All</i>	185.2 ± 7.5 <sup>#</sup>	167.7 ± 6.5
	<i>Forwards</i>	188.2 ± 7.0 <sup>*</sup>	170.4 ± 5.6
	<i>Backs</i>	181.6 ± 6.5	165.9 ± 6.9

573 Data are presented as percentage (number) of players; kg, kilograms; cm, centimetres;  
574 <sup>#</sup>denotes a significant difference between males and females; <sup>\*</sup> denotes a significant difference  
575 between forwards and backs of the same sex,  $p < 0.05$   
576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584 Table 2. Self-reported frequency and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms reported at rest and  
585 around rugby

**All (n=325)**

**Male (n=271)**

**Female (n=54)**

	At rest	Around rugby	At rest	Around rugby	At rest	Around rugby
<b>Upper GIS % (n)</b>						
Heartburn	6% (22) <sup>a</sup>	4% (14)	7% (21) <sup>a</sup>	4% (13)	1% (1)	1% (1)
Burping	27% (88) <sup>a</sup>	11% (35)	27% (74) <sup>a</sup>	9% (24)	25% (14) <sup>a</sup>	16% (9)
Upper abdominal pain	4% (12)	4% (13)	2% (5)	2% (6)	13% (7)	13% (7)
Nausea	7% (23)	7% (24)	6% (18)	7% (19)	7% (4)	9% (5)
Vomiting	1% (4)	1% (4)	1% (2) <sup>a</sup>	1% (4)	3% (2)	0% (0)
Stomach cramps/ gurgling	14% (45)	15% (48)	11% (29)	13% (34)	30% (16)	26% (14)
<b>Lower GIS % (n)</b>						
Bloating	20% (65)	15% (48)	15% (41) <sup>a</sup>	11% (30)	44% (24) <sup>a</sup>	33% (18)
Lower abdominal pain	6% (20)	6% (20)	4% (10)	4% (10)	19% (10)	19% (10)
Flatulence	48% (156)	28% (92)	48% (129) <sup>a</sup>	27% (73)	50% (27) <sup>a</sup>	37% (20)
Constipation	5% (15)	5% (17)	4% (10)	4% (10)	9% (5)	13% (7)
Diarrhoea	8% (27)	19% (61)	7% (20) <sup>a</sup>	15% (42)	13% (7) <sup>a</sup>	35% (19)
Urgent need to defecate	11% (35)	13% (43)	11% (29)	13% (35)	11% (6) <sup>a</sup>	15% (8)
Change in stool consistency	25% (80)	22% (71)	25% (68) <sup>a</sup>	18% (46)	22% (12)	28% (15)
Any upper GIS ≥ once a week	37% (120)	28% (93)	34% (92) <sup>a</sup>	26% (71)	52% (28)	41% (22)
Any lower GIS ≥ once a week	59% (189)	42% (137)	57% (153)	39% (104)	67% (36)	61% (33)
Any GIS ≥ once a week	62% (203)	47% (164) <sup>a</sup>	60% (164)	43% (118) <sup>a</sup>	72% (39) <sup>b</sup>	67% (36)
Players reporting any GIS severity ≥4	42% (138)	33% (106)*	40% (108)	29% (75)*	64% (35)	57% (31)

586 Data are presented as the percentage (number) of players who reported any gastrointestinal  
587 symptom experienced weekly or more often (weekly, more than once a week or daily); GIS,  
588 gastrointestinal symptom, <sup>a</sup> denotes a significant difference the frequencies reported between rest  
589 and rugby, ( $p < 0.05$ ), <sup>b</sup> denotes a significant difference between male and female players for the  
590 reported frequency of an individual GIS ( $p < 0.05$ ), \*denotes a significance between rest and rugby  
591 for GIS severity, reported as a severity of  $\geq 4$ , ( $p < 0.05$ )

592

593

594

595

596 Table 3: Severity scores of self-reported gastrointestinal symptoms reported by rugby players at  
597 rest and around rugby

	<b>All (n=325)</b>	<b>Male (n=271)</b>	<b>Female (n=54)</b>
--	--------------------	---------------------	----------------------

	At rest	Around rugby	At rest	Around rugby	At rest	Around rugby
GIS severity score: upper	9 [7-13]	8 [6-11] <sup>a</sup>	9 [7-12]	7 [6-11] <sup>a</sup>	12 [8-15]	9 [7-13]*
GIS severity score: lower	11 [8-16]	11 [7-16] <sup>a</sup>	11 [8-15]	10 [7-14] <sup>a</sup>	15 [11 – 21]	17 [11-22]*
Total GIS severity score	21 [16-29]	19 [14-27] <sup>a</sup>	20 [15-27]	18 [13-26] <sup>a</sup>	26 [20 – 38]	26 [19-36]*

598 Data is reported as median [interquartile range] of the GIS severity scores, \*denotes a significant  
599 difference between female and male players for the comparative score, ( $p < 0.05$ ), <sup>a</sup> denotes a  
600 significant difference between rest and rugby environments, ( $p < 0.05$ )

601

602 Table 4. Frequency of participants reporting different non-exercise associated risk factors for  
603 gastrointestinal symptoms (all) and in relation to reported GIS at rest or around rugby (n=329)

Non-exercise risk factors	Overall frequency	GIS at rest	GIS around rugby
Take oral probiotics regularly (>70% of the time)	23%	14% (47)	14% (44)
Include prebiotic or fermented food at least once a week	22%	12% (39)	10% (31)
Eat 5 or more servings of vegetables per day	32%	21% (69)	17% (53)
Include an alcoholic drink once a week or more after rugby	34%	24% (78)	16% (51)
Take NSAIDs 2-3 times a month or more often	22%	14% (44)	12% (39)
Take antibiotics once or more over the last 12 months	33%	7% (24)	20% (64)

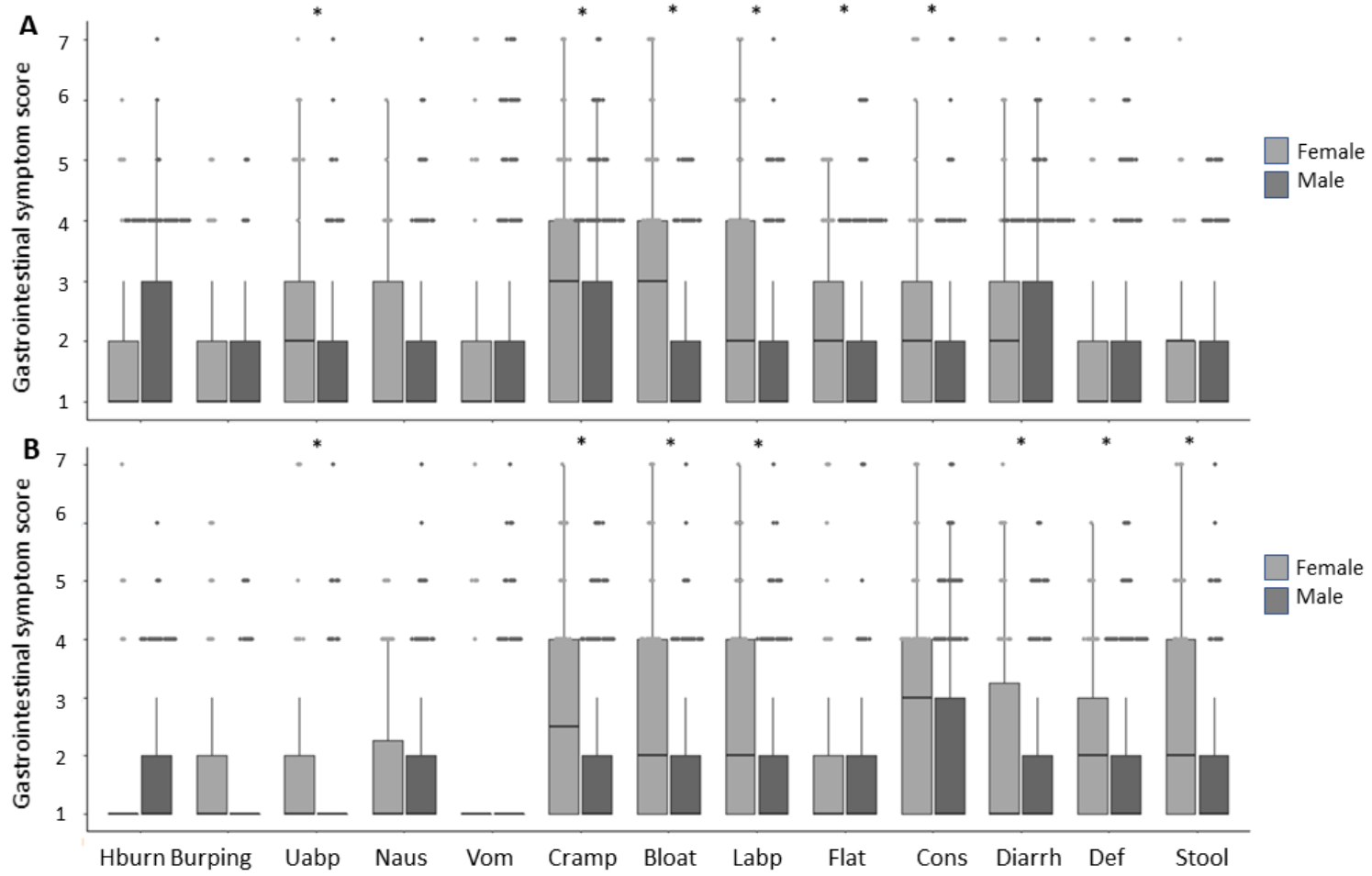
604 NSAIDs, Non-steroidal anti-inflammation medication, GIS represents players who reports one of  
605 more gastrointestinal symptom with a frequency of weekly or more often at rest or around rugby

606

607

608

609



611

612

613

