

Research Bank

Journal article

The frequency and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms in rugby players**Chantler, Sarah, Wood-Martin, Ruth, Holliday, Adrian, Davison, Glen, Crabtree, Daniel R., Readhead, Clint and Jones, Ben**

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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

The frequency and severity of gastrointestinal symptoms in rugby players

Introduction

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

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

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

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

Materials and Methods

Participants

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

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

Questionnaire

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

Statistical analyses

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

Results

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 (≥ 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.

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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, ^a denotes a significant difference the frequencies reported between rest
532 and rugby, ($p<0.05$), ^b 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 ≥ 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, ($p<0.05$), ^a 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

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572 Table 1. Characteristics of participants

Characteristics	Male (n=271)	Female (n=54)
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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>>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-<5</i>	3% (8)	
	<i>5-<7</i>	15% (40)	2% (1)
	<i>7-10</i>	27% (74)	30% (16)
	<i>>10</i>	49% (132)	63% (34)
Self-reported body mass (kg)	<i>All</i>	100.0 ± 12.9 [#]	72.2 ± 9.9
	<i>Forwards</i>	108.1 ± 8.8 [*]	78.7 ± 9.8 [*]
	<i>Backs</i>	89.1 ± 8.4	66.3 ± 5.9
Self-reported stature (cm)	<i>All</i>	185.2 ± 7.5 [#]	167.7 ± 6.5
	<i>Forwards</i>	188.2 ± 7.0 [*]	170.4 ± 5.6
	<i>Backs</i>	181.6 ± 6.5	165.9 ± 6.9

Data are presented as percentage (number) of players; kg, kilograms; cm, centimetres;
[#]denotes a significant difference between males and females; ^{*} denotes a significant difference
between forwards and backs of the same sex, $p < 0.05$

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

All (n=325)

Male (n=271)

Female (n=54)

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

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

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

<i>All (n=325)</i>	<i>Male (n=271)</i>	<i>Female (n=54)</i>
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	At rest	Around rugby	At rest	Around rugby	At rest	Around rugby
GIS severity score: upper	9 [7-13]	8 [6-11] ^a	9 [7-12]	7 [6-11] ^a	12 [8-15]	9 [7-13]*
GIS severity score: lower	11 [8-16]	11 [7-16] ^a	11 [8-15]	10 [7-14] ^a	15 [11 – 21]	17 [11-22]*
Total GIS severity score	21 [16-29]	19 [14-27] ^a	20 [15-27]	18 [13-26] ^a	26 [20 – 38]	26 [19-36]*

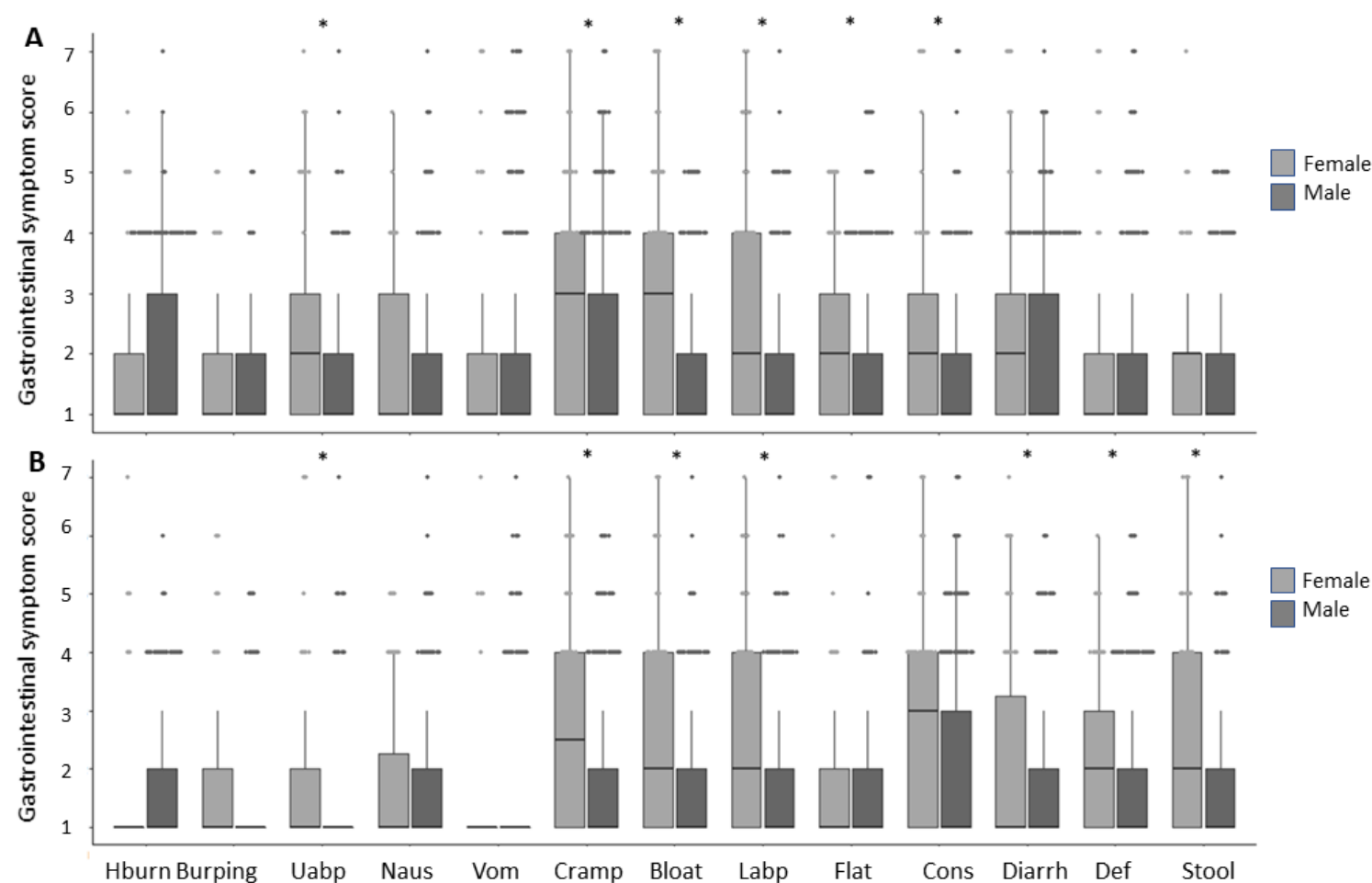
Data is reported as median [interquartile range] of the GIS severity scores, *denotes a significant difference between female and male players for the comparative score, ($p<0.05$), ^a denotes a significant difference between rest and rugby environments, ($p<0.05$)

Table 4. Frequency of participants reporting different non-exercise associated risk factors for 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)

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

610 Figure 1



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