

1 **Title:**

2 Adequacy of usual intake of Japanese college athletes in various sports clubs

3

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17 **Running Head:** Adequacy of intake of Japanese college athletes

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 **Background:** While many studies have been published on nutrient intake assessment
30 for performance improvement and deficiency prevention in single-sport athletes, few
31 studies have addressed nutrient intakes in athletes from a various sports.

32 **Aim:** The aim of this study was to determine whether Japanese college athletes meet
33 the Dietary Reference Intakes (DRIs) and sports nutrition recommendations (SNRs).

34 **Methods:** Dietary intake was assessed in 1,049 Japanese college athletes from a variety
35 of sports using a validated brief-type self-administered diet history questionnaire. The
36 prevalence of inadequate intakes was estimated by comparing the DRIs and SNRs.

37 **Results:** For protein, riboflavin, niacin, vitamins B-6, vitamins B-12, folate,
38 magnesium, zinc, and copper, < 10% of females and males consumed diets that fell below
39 the estimated average requirement (EAR) in the DRIs. A large proportion of female and
40 male college athletes demonstrated intakes that were below the EAR for vitamin A (7.8%
41 and 19.0%, respectively), thiamin (10.4% and 23.9%, respectively), calcium (20.4% and
42 29.7%, respectively), and iron (24.2% and 2.5%, respectively). Regarding DG for chronic
43 disease prevention in the DRIs, over half of both female and male athletes exceeded the
44 DG for saturated fat acid and sodium, and fell below the DG for dietary fiber. Few of both
45 female and male had intakes below the SNRs for protein and carbohydrates.

46 **Conclusion:** The results of the present study reveal the nutrient intake status of Japanese
47 college athletes by comparing the DRIs and SNRs. Most meet the SNRs for optimal
48 performance, but not the DRIs for health.

49

50

51 **Introduction**

52

53 For athletes, adequate nutrition intakes have an important role in improving
54 performance, conditioning, and recovery (Bonilla et al., 2020; Burke and Hawley, 2018).
55 Given that athletes are likely to continue their dietary habits after retirement (Arliani et
56 al., 2014; Yao et al., 2020), assessing athletes' nutrient intake is important not only for
57 their athletic success but also for their post-retirement health (Hołowko-Ziółek et al.,
58 2020).

59 Several papers have been published that assess whether athletes were meeting the
60 Dietary Reference Intakes (DRIs) and sports nutrition recommendations (SNRs) (Gibson
61 et al., 2011; Heaney et al., 2010; Ishizu et al., 2022; Jenner et al., 2019; Juzwiak et al.,
62 2008; Kim et al., 2019; McCrink et al., 2021; Steffl et al., 2019). Steffl et al. published a
63 meta-analysis describing the current state of macronutrient intake in junior and senior
64 soccer players (Steffl et al., 2019). Jenner et al. published a systematic review of the
65 literature to assess the dietary intakes of professional and semi-professional team sport
66 athletes over the age of 18 years (Jenner et al., 2019). According to these reviews, protein
67 intake is adequate, but carbohydrate intake is inadequate in terms of macronutrient intake
68 (Jenner et al., 2019; Steffl et al., 2019). Next, micronutrients adequacy studies revealed
69 suboptimal folate (Gibson et al., 2011; Heaney et al., 2010; Juzwiak et al., 2008), calcium
70 (Gibson et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2019), and magnesium levels (Gibson et al., 2011).

71 While many studies have been published on the assessment of nutrient intakes for
72 performance improvement and deficiency prevention in single-sport athletes, few studies
73 have addressed nutrient intakes in athletes from a various sports (Gibson et al., 2011;
74 McCrink et al., 2021). The aim of this study was to determine whether Japanese college
75 athletes in various sports clubs were meeting the DRIs and SNRs.

76

77 Methods

78

79 *Participants and study design.*

80 From October to December 2014, a self-administered questionnaire was used to conduct
81 a cross-sectional study on college athletes who belonged to the club of University of
82 Tsukuba (Ibaraki, Japan). The research was carried out after receiving approval from the
83 ethics committee of Tsukuba (tai26-49). This research was carried out following the
84 Helsinki Declaration.

85 Each club's survey method was set to be a collective survey method. Details about the
86 study's design and participant characteristics have already been published elsewhere
87 (Kakutani et al., 2019).

88 We requested a survey from representatives of all 46 sports-oriented clubs at University
89 of Tsukuba that have a school of health and physical education, excluding clubs in school
90 medicine and medical science, and circles. A total of 1,451 college athletes belonged to
91 the 46 clubs that requested the survey. Athletes from a variety of sports disciplines,
92 including individual sports (i.e., track & field, judo, tennis, swimming, gymnastics, and
93 skiing) and team sports (i.e., football, baseball, rugby, American football, basketball,
94 handball, and volleyball) were welcome to participate in the survey. We conducted the
95 survey with 42 clubs that agreed to participate. There were four clubs that did not
96 participate in the survey; two clubs were out of communication, one club has suspended
97 its activities, and one club was close the convention. 1,049 college athletes took part in
98 the survey. All participants provided written informed consent. Subjects with missing data
99 on sex (gender) or resident type (n = 4) were excluded. As students over 25 years of age
100 are extremely rare in Japanese universities, those over the age of 25 years (n = 1) were
101 excluded. As dietary assessment by questionnaire has the potential for reporting error,
102 subjects suspected of under- or over-reporting their energy intake were excluded (Okubo

103 and Sasaki, 2004). Subjects with a reported energy intake of less than half the energy
104 requirement for the lowest physical activity category according to the recommended
105 Dietary Reference Intakes for Japanese, 2020 (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare,
106 2020) were excluded. Those with a reported energy intake greater than or equal to 1.5
107 times the energy requirement of the highest physical activity category (n = 65) were also
108 excluded. The final sample included 979 students, 269 females and 710 males, between
109 the age of 18 and 24. No students who meet both of these exclusion criteria were found.

110

111 *Dietary assessment*

112 Dietary habits over the previous month were assessed using a previously validated brief-
113 type self-administered diet history questionnaire (BDHQ)(Sasaki, 2004), which is a
114 condensed version of a validated self-administered diet history questionnaire (Sasaki et
115 al., 1998).

116 The BDHQ estimates the dietary intake of 58 food and beverage items and 99
117 nutrients with reference to the Standard Tables of Food Composition in Japan (Council
118 for Science and Technology, 2015). The dietary intake of the 58 food and beverage items
119 was classified based on previously validated food groups (Kobayashi et al., 2011). The
120 BDHQ was validated for the intake of nutrients and food group intake using 16-day
121 weighed dietary records from Japanese adults as the gold standard (Kobayashi et al., 2011,
122 2012). The average correlation coefficients used in the this study ranged from 0.17 to 0.52
123 for the food groups and from 0.27 to 0.65 for the nutrients (Kobayashi et al., 2011, 2012).

124 To allow for a comparison of nutrient intake and the Japanese DRIs values, we
125 adjusted the reported dietary intake based on the assumption that each participant's energy
126 intake was equal to her/his estimated energy requirement (EER) rather than her/his
127 reported energy intake (Okubo et al., 2010). The formula is as follows: energy-adjusted
128 nutrient intake (unit/day) = reported nutrient intake (unit/day) × EER (kcal/day)/reported

129 energy intake (kcal/day). Because the intensity and amount of training varied by sports,
130 the EER value was calculated based on the individual's physical activity level estimated
131 from the sports (2.0 for skill sports; 2.5 for ball game sports and martial arts sports; 2.8
132 for endurance spots). This level for each sport was based on previous studies using the
133 double-labeled water method (Sagayama et al., 2019; Sagayama, Hamaguchi, et al., 2017;
134 Sagayama, Kondo, et al., 2017; Yoshida et al., 2019).

135

136

137 *Determination of Nutrient Intake Adequacy*

138 To assess nutrient intake adequacy, nutrient intakes were compared with age and gender-
139 specific reference values in the Japanese DRIs using a cut-point method, as previously
140 reported (Carriquiry, 1999; Murakami et al., 2018; Okubo et al., 2010).

141 Biotin, iodine, selenium, chromium, and molybdenum were excluded from the current
142 study due to a lack of adequate food-composition tables in Japan (Council for Science
143 and Technology, 2015).

144 Different reference values are established in DRIs based on their purpose (Institute of
145 Medicine, 2000). The estimated average requirement (EAR) is defined as “the average
146 daily-nutrient-intake level estimated to meet the requirements of half the healthy
147 individuals in a particular life stage and gender group.” The Adequate Intake (AI) is
148 defined as “a recommended average daily-nutrient-intake level based on observed or
149 experimentally determined approximations or estimates of nutrient intake by a group (or
150 groups) of apparently healthy people that are assumed to be adequate.” The DG is defined
151 as “the average daily-nutrient-intake level (or ranges) that Japanese should currently aim
152 to consume primarily to prevent chronic diseases” (Ministry of Health, Labour and
153 Welfare, 2020).

154 We calculated the percentage of college athletes who consumed less than the EAR for

155 protein, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, vitamin B-6, vitamin B-12, folate, vitamin
156 C, calcium, magnesium, iron, zinc, and copper. Additionally, we calculated the percentage
157 of athletes who consumed greater than or equal to the AI for n-6 PUFA, n-3 PUFA,
158 vitamins D, E, and K, pantothenic acid, potassium, phosphorus, and manganese. The
159 Tolerable Upper Intake Level (UL) of several nutrients has been established in the
160 Japanese DRIs for males and females aged 18–29 years (i.e., vitamins A, D, E, and B-6,
161 niacin, folate, and iron). We calculated the proportion of college athletes who consumed
162 more than the UL.

163 A Tentative Dietary Goal for Preventing Lifestyle-related Diseases (DG) is provided in
164 the Japanese DRIs for macronutrient balance (% of energy from protein, total fat, SFA,
165 and carbohydrate), dietary fiber, sodium, and potassium (Ministry of Health, Labour and
166 Welfare, 2020). DG has not been established for other nutrients. We calculated the
167 percentage of college athletes who consumed nutrient intake that was outside (below or
168 above) the DG range.

169 Furthermore, protein and carbohydrate intakes (g/kg weight) were also compared with
170 SNRs (Thomas et al., 2016).

171

172 *Data Organization and Processing*

173 Data were organized and processed using Microsoft® Excel for Mac 2024 and IBM SPSS
174 Statistics version 27. Energy and nutrient intakes were presented in units of daily intake
175 (e.g. g/day). Protein, total fat, saturated fatty acid (SFA), and carbohydrate intakes were
176 also calculated as a percentage of the daily energy intake using crude values for
177 comparison with DG in the DRIs. In addition, protein and carbohydrate were also
178 calculated in g/kg weight/day to match the units in SNRs.

179

180 Results

181 [insert Table1]

182 Table 1 shows the basic characteristics of the 979 Japanese college athletes from 34 sports.

183 Next, table 2 and 3 show the participants' mean macronutrient intake in comparison with

184 DRIs for people aged 18–29, as well as SNRs. None of the females and males

185 demonstrated usual protein intakes below the EAR, and 0.7% of females and 4.8% of

186 males demonstrated diets that fell below the SNR. The 10th percentile value for usual

187 protein intake was about twice the EAR and was higher than the lower limit of the SNRs.

188 In contrast, 43.9% of females and 54.8% of males demonstrated diets that below the DG

189 for protein. In terms of SFA, researchers estimated that 56.1% of females and 33.7% of

190 males exceeded the DG. The 90th percentile value for SFA intake was less than 1.5 times

191 the DG for both female and male. Female and male median usual intake of n-6 PUFA and

192 n-3 PUFA were both higher than the AI for both nutrients. Few females and males

193 exhibited usual carbohydrate intakes below the DG (> 13%), and 5.2% of females and

194 5.2% of males exhibited diets that were below the SNR. An estimated 50.6% of females

195 and 59.2% of males demonstrated diets that fell short of the DG for dietary fiber. The 10th

196 percentile value for dietary fiber intake was above half of the DG for both female and

197 male.

198

199 [insert Table2]

200 [insert Table3]

201

202 Also, we compared female and male vitamins and minerals intakes to the corresponding

203 DRIs (Tables 4 and 5, respectively). For riboflavin, niacin, vitamins B-6, vitamins B-12,

204 folate, magnesium, zinc and copper, < 10% of females and males consumed diets that fell

205 below the EAR. In contrast, a moderate percentage of females and males demonstrated

206 usual intakes of thiamin (10.4% and 23.9%, respectively), calcium (20.4% and 29.7%,
207 respectively), and iron that were below the EAR (24.2% and 2.5%, respectively). In terms
208 of potassium, 17.5% of females and 21.5% of males demonstrated diets that were less
209 than the DG. Furthermore, 99.6% females and 99.2% of males demonstrated sodium
210 intake that exceeded the DG. For sodium in both females and males, the 10th percentile
211 value was higher than the DG and the 50th percentile value was more than twice the DG.
212 It is worth noting that none of the college athletes in this study exceeded the UL for
213 vitamin D, niacin, vitamin B-6, folate, calcium, iron, and copper.

214

215 [insert Table4]

216 [insert Table5]

217

218

219 **Discussion**

220 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to assess the adequacy of usual
221 macronutrients and micronutrients intakes of Japanese college athletes from various
222 sports clubs. The primary findings of this study indicate inadequate dietary intakes of
223 SFA, dietary fiber, vitamin A (male), thiamin (male), sodium, potassium, calcium, and
224 iron (female) in comparison to Japanese DRIs. In contrast, the protein and carbohydrate
225 intake of Japanese college athletes in this study was shown to be adequate in comparison
226 to SNRs required to improve performance and enhance recovery. Previous of elite female
227 athletes (Heaney et al., 2010), junior elite female soccer athletes (Gibson et al., 2011),
228 male football players (McCrink et al., 2021), and non-athlete Japanese female college
229 students yielded results that were generally consistent with the current study (Okubo et
230 al., 2010).

231

232 Next, although the SNR for protein is set higher than the EAR in this study, a low
233 percentage of participants demonstrated intakes below the SNR, 0.7 percent for females
234 and 4.8 percent for males. The EAR for protein is based on an amount that maintains the
235 concentration in the body at half of the population (Ministry of Health, Labour and
236 Welfare, 2020). The SNR for dietary protein is the general range needed to support
237 metabolic adaptation, repair, remodeling, and protein turnover in athletes (Thomas et al.,
238 2016). A systematic review of studies on professional and semi-professional athletes
239 found that they consume enough protein in comparison to the SNR (Jenner et al., 2019).
240 Several studies of late-teenage athletes reported rates comparable to the current study for
241 athletes who did not meet the SNR (Gibson et al., 2011; Heaney et al., 2010). For example,
242 Heaney et al. discovered that 30% of elite female athletes consumed less protein than the
243 SNR (Heaney et al., 2010). Protein SNR is an amount that can be adequately obtained in
244 a typical diet, but some athletes, such as students with inadequate support and

245 environment and female athletes with low energy intake, may be at risk of deficiency and
246 require attention.

247 In this study, the dietary protein intake of Japanese college athletes met the EAR and SNR
248 but was below the DG recommended lower limit for dietary protein. This discrepancy
249 may stem from a predominant preference for carbohydrates and fats as primary energy
250 sources among the athletes. Notably, 56.1% of the female athletes surveyed exceeded the
251 DG for SFA intake. Excessive SFA intake is positively associated with elevated blood
252 total cholesterol and LDL cholesterol levels, both established risk factors for
253 cardiovascular disease (Mensink et al., 2003). Consequently, the DRIs for Japanese set
254 the DG of SFA as a nutrient whose intake should be reduced (Ministry of Health, Labour
255 and Welfare, 2020). The results of the present study showed that many athletes have
256 intakes above DG for SFA, but less than 10% have intakes above 1.5 times DG. Therefore,
257 it would not be difficult to increase the number of those with an adequate intake of SFA.

258

259 The percentage of those who consumed carbohydrates below the SNR in the present study
260 was as high as 64.7% in females and 41.7% in males. The SNR for carbohydrate is the
261 range of intake needed for fuel and recovery in athletes participating in endurance
262 programs (eg, 1–3 h/day mod-high-intensity exercise) (Thomas et al., 2016). Since
263 carbohydrate are extremely unlikely to be deficient in Japanese, the EAR and AI in DRIs
264 have not been established (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, 2020). Consistent
265 with the results of the present study, inadequate carbohydrate intake in athletes has been
266 reported in previous United States and European studies. According to a systematic
267 review of studies of professional and semi-professional athletes, they consume
268 insufficient amounts of carbohydrates in comparison to the SNR (Jenner et al., 2019).
269 Many other studies found that many athletes with carbohydrate intakes below the SNR
270 perform better (Heaney et al., 2010; McCrink et al., 2021; Steffl et al., 2019). A study of

271 Gaelic male football players, for example, discovered that 95.2% demonstrated
272 carbohydrate intakes below the SNR (McCrink et al., 2021). Because the Japanese diet is
273 characterized by grains such as rice, beans such as soybeans, and fish, the carbohydrates
274 intake is higher than in the United States and European countries (Menotti et al., 1999).
275 However, carbohydrate consumption is declining among Japanese people, particularly
276 among young women, as a result of dietary changes such as reduced rice consumption
277 (Otsuka et al., 2014). As a result, consuming a diet that meet the SNR for carbohydrates
278 may be more difficult for Japanese athletes, particularly young females, as well as for
279 United States or European athlete. In fact, a study of Japanese female athletes found that
280 they were not getting enough carbohydrate (Ishizu et al., 2022). As previously stated,
281 dietary protein intake is also insufficient, so care should be taken not to reduce protein
282 intake as a result of increased carbohydrate intake.

283

284 In the current study, more than half of both female and male athletes demonstrated
285 inadequate dietary fiber intake below the DG of DRIs Japan (50.6% and 59.2%,
286 respectively). Previous studies with athletes yielded similar results (Gibson et al., 2011;
287 McCrink et al., 2021). According to the findings of a meta-analysis of prospective studies
288 and clinical trials, striking dose-response evidence suggests that the relationship between
289 relatively high dietary fiber intake and several non-communicable diseases may be causal
290 (Reynolds et al., 2019). As a result, the DRIs for Japanese establish the DG of dietary
291 fiber as a nutrient to be increased in intake (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare,
292 2020). For health reasons, athletes need to pay attention not only to their carbohydrate
293 intake per body weight, but also to their dietary fiber intake in carbohydrates. Since most
294 of the athletes in the current study have dietary fiber intakes greater than half the DG,
295 there does not appear to be a need to double their intake.

296

297 The percentage of those with inadequate intake of VB group, particularly VB1, is
298 moderate in the current study consistent with the results of previous studies (Gibson et
299 al., 2011; Heaney et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2019). The VB group of nutrients, including
300 VB1, plays an important role in energy metabolism, and several studies have indicated
301 that severe deficiencies may result in decreased performance (van der Beek et al., 1988).
302 However, in studies reporting performance decrements, the intake of VB1 is roughly 0.43
303 mg/day (0.13 mg/1,000kcal/day) (van der Beek et al., 1988), which is even lower than
304 the 10th percentile value in the current study participants. The 10th percentile values for
305 female participants in the current study were 0.90 mg/day and 0.97 mg/day for male
306 participants. Next, VB1 is a nutrient with EAR in Japanese DRIs based on the amount
307 that saturates the concentration in the body in half of the population, rather than the
308 amount that would cause symptoms of insufficiency or deficiency (Ministry of Health,
309 Labour and Welfare, 2020). This could be one of the reasons for the higher percentage of
310 those in our study who demonstrated inadequate VB1 intake. Overall, while increasing
311 VB1 intake is desirable to improve VB1 nutritional status in Japanese college student
312 athletes, the proportion of those at high risk of immediate VB1 deficiency and decreased
313 performance is likely to be small.

314

315 The results of this study indicate that there is some variation in nutrient intake among
316 Japanese college student athletes. This variation may be due to differences in dietary
317 patterns among generations in Japan. A recommended dietary pattern in Japan is meals
318 that combines a staple, main and side dishes. Some studies have reported an association
319 between the frequency of meals combining a staple, main, and side dishes and adequate
320 nutrient intake (Ishikawa-Takata et al., 2021; Kakutani et al., 2015). However, young
321 adults in Japan are less likely than other age groups to have meals that combine a staple,
322 main, and side dishes (Ishikawa-Takata et al., 2021). This may have influenced the

323 variation in nutrient intake among Japanese college student athletes.

324

325 The current study exhibits at least three significant limitations.

326 First, while the BDHQ used for the dietary assessment was a validated questionnaire, the
327 foods asked for were limited. As a result, we must be cautious about misestimating some
328 nutrients, particularly SFA (underestimation) and vitamin A (overestimation) (Kobayashi
329 et al., 2012). However, in the current study, energy adjustment using EER is used to
330 reduce the impact of misestimation. We did not measure physical activity in the current
331 study, for feasibility reasons. Physical activity should be measured in future studies, if
332 possible, to ensure adequate energy adjustment.

333

334 Second, because DRIs for Japanese does not adequately account for changes in
335 requirements in athletes with extremely high physical activity, Japanese DRIs for athletes
336 may be inappropriate (too low), at least for some nutrients (Ministry of Health, Labour
337 and Welfare, 2020). Calcium and iron requirements, for example, may increase as a result
338 of increased loss caused by heavy sweating and increased sweat concentration associated
339 with physical activity (Baker and Wolfe, 2020). However, no micronutrient DRIs are
340 available for athletes. Future research should look into how much micronutrient
341 requirements increase with increased physical activity and what level of recommendation
342 is appropriate.

343

344 Finally, participants for this study were drawn from a single university. Furthermore,
345 when compared to percentage of Japanese university students who living alone, which is
346 about 40%, the participants in this study were more likely to live alone (JASSO, 2018).
347 The sample of Japanese college athletes enrolled in this study, conversely, came from 33
348 different competition events. As a result, the findings of this study can be applied to

349 college athletes with similar characteristics to those evaluated in this study.

350

351

352 **Conclusion**

353 When compared with the current Japanese DRIs, this sample of Japanese college athletes'
354 usual intake was adequate for some nutrients, including protein, VB group (except
355 thiamin), magnesium, zinc, and copper (assessed based on EAR), as well as n-6 PUFA,
356 n-3 PUFA, vitamin D, E, and K, pantothenic acid, potassium, phosphorus, and manganese
357 (assessed based on AI). However, we discovered insufficient intakes of vitamin A (male),
358 thiamin (male), calcium and iron (female). Also, we discovered excess intakes of SFA
359 and sodium, as well as insufficient intake of protein (% energy), dietary fiber, and
360 potassium. When compared with the SNRs, the usual intakes were moderate adequate for
361 protein and carbohydrates.

362 The results of the present study reveal the nutrient intake status of Japanese college
363 athletes by comparing the DRIs and SNRs. The results of the present study indicate that
364 most of them meet the SNRs to promote optimal performance, but not the DRIs to
365 maintain and improve health. Japanese college athletes face a significant nutrient intake
366 problem. However, in order to improve the nutrient intake of Japanese college athletes,
367 there is insufficient evidence on the dietary cultural and lifestyle factors that influence the
368 dietary choices of athletes. Therefore, the impact of dietary culture and lifestyle factors
369 would need to investigate in future studies.

370

371

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379

380 **Data availability statement**

381 Data generated during this study are available from the corresponding author upon
382 reasonable request.

383

384 **Authors' contributions**

385 YK, NO, MO and IS designed for the study. YK collected and analyzed the data. YK
386 wrote the main manuscript text. All authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

387

388 **Declaration of conflicting interests**

389 Miho Ono and Ikuko Sasahara are employees of Ajinomoto co., Inc. The other authors
390 have no conflicts of interest to declare.

391

392 **Consent for publication.**

393 Written informed consent was obtained from the participants for publication of this article.

394

395 **Ethical Statement**

396 The research was carried out after receiving approval from the ethics committee of
397 Tsukuba (tai26-49). This research was carried out following the Helsinki Declaration.

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