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Longitudinal Changes in Body Composition and Resting Metabolic Rate in Male Professional Flat Jockeys: Preliminary Outcomes and Implications for Future Research Directions.

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Jockeys are unique given that they make-weight daily and therefore often resort to fasting and dehydration. Through increasing daily food frequency (during energy deficit), we have 3 reported short-term improvements in jockey's body composition. Whilst these changes were 4 5 observed over 6 -12 weeks with food provided, it is unclear if such improvements can be 6 maintained over an extended period during free-living conditions. We therefore assessed 7 jockeys over 5 years using DXA, RMR & hydration measurements. Following dietary and exercise advice, jockeys reduced fat mass from baseline of 7.1 ± 1.4 kg to 6.1 ± 0.7 kg and 8 6.1 \pm 0.6 kg (p < 0.001) at years 1 and 5 respectively. Additionally fat free mass was 9 maintained with RMR increasing significantly from 1500 ± 51 kcal.day⁻¹ at baseline to $1612 \pm$ 10 95 kcal.day⁻¹ & 1620 \pm 92 kcal.day⁻¹ (p < 0.001) at years 1 and 5 respectively. Urine osmolality 11 12 reduced from 816 \pm 236 mOsmol.L⁻¹ at baseline to 564 \pm 175 mOsmol.L⁻¹ & 524 \pm 156 mOsmol.L⁻¹ (p < 0.001) at years 1 and 5, respectively. The percent of jockeys consuming a 13 regular breakfast significantly increased from 48% at baseline to 83% (p = 0.009) & 87% (p =14 0.003) at years 1 and 5, alongside regular lunch from 35% to 92% (p < 0.001) & 96% (p <15 0.001) from baseline to years 1 and 5, respectively. In conclusion, we report that improved 16 17 body composition can be maintained in free-living jockeys over a 5-year period when appropriate guidance has been provided. 18

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Key words: Jockey, body composition, RMR, hydration, meal frequency

21 INTRODUCTION

22 Professional jockeys are unique in weight restricted sports given that when race riding, they are required to make weight daily. Typically, this will require riding at different weights 23 24 throughout the day since jockeys often have multiple rides which at certain meetings can be 25 as many as 10 rides (O'Reilly et al., 2017). Unlike combat sports, jockeys are not afforded the 26 opportunity to rehydrate after initial weight check (Burke et al., 2021) and must report the same 27 weight or within 1 lb post-race of the pre-race weight (Wilson, Drust, et al., 2014) and therefore 28 often compete in a dehydrated and under-fuelled condition. Within these unique 29 circumstances, it has been well documented that jockeys may resort to prolonged fasting and severe dehydration to achieve the stipulated race weights (Caulfield & Karageorghis, 2008; 30 Dolan et al., 2011; King & Mezey, 1987; Labadarios et al., 1993; O'Reilly et al., 2017; Wilson, 31 32 Drust, et al., 2014); practices that appear culturally engrained within the sport (Martin et al., 33 2017).

34

Over the past decade our research group and others have challenged this reliance on 35 unhealthy practices and devised safer alternatives for jockeys aiming to maintain race weight. 36 37 Indeed, in a 9-week case-study intervention of 30-min daily steady-state exercise (65 - 70% maximum heart rate) and targeted nutritional education consisting of high protein/high fibre 38 foods consumed at multiple points throughout the day, whilst maintaining a daily energy deficit 39 of 500 – 800 kcal.d⁻¹, we reported a professional jump jockey reduced fat mass (FM) by 7.0 40 kg (Wilson et al., 2012). This new diet contrasted with a typical jockeys' diet, which has been 41 42 suggested to consist of one convenience snack before noon and a large meal comprising energy-dense foods of an evening with prolonged fasting between (Wilson et al., 2015). The 43 44 revised diet and exercise plan resulted in the jockey being able to make minimum race weight 45 in Great Britain (GB) jump racing (64.0 kg) for the first time without the need to resort to deleterious practices. Following this pilot work, further research on 10 British-based 46 professional jockeys reported a mean loss of 2.5 kg body mass (BM) through adherence to 47 the diet and exercise advice outlined in the initial pilot work. In this study meals and snacks 48

were provided to the jockeys to ensure adherence to the diet plan. This intervention was designed to illicit a 500 – 800 kcal⁻¹ daily energy deficit and formulated from measures of daily energy expenditure previously reported in professional jockeys (Wilson et al., 2013). Whilst FM significantly decreased, fat free mass (FFM) was maintained, with a significant increase in resting metabolic rate (RMR) and improved hydration status. The findings in this study are now the basis for 'best' nutritional recommendations for jockeys by stakeholders within the racing industry (Martin et al., 2017).

56

57 Whilst our previous findings suggest that short-term exercise and nutritional interventions to 58 illicit a daily energy deficit can demonstrate positive changes in body composition, hydration 59 and RMR in jockeys, it is also important to evaluate if these can be maintained over a longer 60 period and in free-living conditions. The current study therefore assessed body composition, 61 RMR, hydration and meal and snack frequency following the provision of dietary and exercise 62 advice, to ascertain if the improvements observed in short-term studies can be maintained 63 over an extended period than our previous work and during free-living conditions.

64

65 **METHODS**

66 **Participants**

67 Twenty-three male professional flat jockeys (age: 32 ± 7 years; stature: 165.0 ± 6.9 cm; BM: 56.0 ± 2.9 kg) were recruited for the study. Criteria for inclusion were jockeys licensed to race 68 69 ride in GB, who could attend the laboratory on more than one occasion for retests following 70 baseline assessment. Although female jockeys did visit the laboratory for testing during the 71 study period, no female jockey met the full inclusion criteria of returning to be re-assessed 72 following baseline assessment, and therefore such data is not included. All male jockeys were 73 injury free and race riding at the time of this study. Additionally, all jockeys were non-smokers 74 and not known to be taking any medications.

75

77 Study Design

78 Assessments of body composition, RMR, hydration status and self-reported meal and snack 79 frequency were collected over a 5-year period. Initial study design included jockeys to undergo 80 retesting on an annual basis for the full study period and following their baseline assessment. 81 During this time and due to COVID restrictions preventing annual testing at our laboratories, 82 all jockey's data assessed is for those participants who returned throughout the study period 83 for follow up on two additional occasions, with the second visit occurring once restrictions were 84 removed (e.g., baseline = 0 - 12 months; follow up 1 (FU 1) = 13 - 24 months; and follow up 85 2 (FU 2) = 46 - 60 months). Prior to initial testing, jockeys were given participant information and provided written informed consent as mandated by National Research Ethics Service 86 approval (14/NW/0155). 87

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89 Experimental procedures

On each testing visit and following a 12 hour overnight fast, jockeys provided a mid-flow urine 90 91 sample for assessments of urine osmolality using a handheld refractometer (Osmocheck; 92 Vitech Scientific, West Sussex, UK) (Sparks & Close, 2013). Jockeys then underwent 93 measures of stature and BM using a dual scale and stadiometer (SECA 702 and 123 GmbH, Hamburg, Germany), whilst barefoot and wearing minimum undergarments. Jockeys then had 94 whole body composition assessed via Dual X-Ray Absorptiometry (DXA-QDR Series 95 Discovery, Horizon Hologic, Marlborough, USA) following best practice guidelines (Nana et 96 al., 2016). Following a period of rest in a supine position for 5 minutes, jockeys participated in 97 an RMR assessment via indirect calorimetry (RMR_{meas}; GEM Nutrition, Daresbury, UK) 98 calibrated via known concentrations of O_2/CO_2 = an established respiratory exchange ratio of 99 100 0.67 and utilising the same protocol as previously described (Wilson et al., 2015). Additionally, 101 predicted RMR (RMR_{pred}) (Cunningham, 1980) was established from DXA derived estimates 102 of FFM. An RMR ratio (RMR_{ratio}) was then calculated by dividing RMR_{meas}, by RMR_{pred}, whereby values of <0.90 were classified to define any instances of potential energy deficiency 103 104 (Sterringer & Larson-Meyer, 2022).

105 Following these assessments, jockeys were individually interviewed by a Sport & Exercise 106 Registered (SENr) Nutritionist regarding their current weight-making strategies and completed 107 a 24-hour meal and snack recall. From this self-reported information, meal and snack 108 frequency was chronologically classified as breakfast, morning snack, lunch, evening snack, 109 and dinner (see Figure 4). During the initial baseline interview, jockeys were given advice on 110 the health and performance benefits of 1) eating regularly whilst still maintaining an energy deficit to control race riding body weight; 2) focusing on high protein and high fibre based 111 112 foods to increase satiety (Martin et al., 2017) rather than a reliance upon convenience high 113 sugar foods (Wilson et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2013) and 3) maintaining hydration with regular fluid intake rather than intentional dehydration (Wilson, Drust, et al., 2014). All jockeys then 114 received nutritional information in sheet format for 'best' weight-making practices (high 115 fibre/high protein) and as described in our earlier work (Wilson et al., 2015). Jockeys were 116 117 also advised to undertake 30 minutes of steady-state aerobic exercise daily, to increase energy expenditure as utilised successfully in our previous work in weight reduction for 118 professional jockeys (Wilson et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2015) and to help create a daily energy 119 deficit. The dietary sheet information also included illustrated convenience foods to minimise. 120 121 Additionally, a hydration chart was included for jockeys to self-assess urine colour as an indicator of hydration status. It was advised that optimal food consumption be every 3 hours, 122 with (recommended) fluid consumption ad-libitum, as per previous research within 123 professional jockeys (Wilson et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2015) and combat sport athletes 124 (Langan-Evans et al., 2021; Morton et al., 2010). All information was in lay-friendly language 125 and the jockeys were afforded the opportunity to ask any questions on information that was 126 not understood and/or related to this alternative approach. 127

Upon follow up, jockeys were re-interviewed by the same accredited nutritionist for 24-hour meal and snack frequency recall and were again provided with the original advice sheets and with the same daily exercise advice. For FU 1 and 2, jockeys were requested to return approximately the same time as during the initial visit (i.e., morning between 0900-1100 am). For the baseline period of testing, n = 43 male professional flat jockeys attended the laboratory, with n = 27 returning for FU 1 (~63%) and n = 23 (~54%) for FU 2. Those jockeys who did not return on one or both occasions were contacted via telephone and/or text message regarding discontinuing the study. Responses were confined to five categories; retired, happy (with current dietary practices), unhappy (with suggested practices from the study), financial, and unknown. (Figure 1).

138 Statistical analyses

139 Data for those participants who attended all 3 visits to the laboratory were analysed for 140 potential differences in body composition (i.e., BM, FFM, FM, body fat percentage), hydration status (urine osmolality), RMR_{meas}/RMR_{pred} and number of main meals and snacks between 141 baseline, FU 1 and FU 2. All analyses were conducted in Statistical Package for the Social 142 Sciences (SPSS® version 28; IBM®, SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA). Descriptive statistics 143 144 inclusive of mean ± SD, 95 % confidence intervals (95 % CI) and frequency are provided for 145 all data where appropriate, with the alpha level of significance established at p < 0.05. Ratio data were initially examined for normality and outliers utilising histograms, boxplots and 146 Shapiro-Wilks tests. Parametric one-way within subject repeated measures ANOVAs with 147 sphericity assessed via the Mauchly test and non-parametric Friedman's tests were utilised 148 149 for normally and non-normally distributed data, respectively. During any relevant post hoc analysis, Bonferroni corrections were employed for multiple pairwise comparisons. 150 Additionally, partial eta squared (n^2) effect sizes were also calculated utilising the following 151 quantitative criteria to explain the practical significance of the findings: trivial <0.2, small 0.21-152 0.6, moderate 0.61–1.2, large 1.21–1.99, and very large \geq 2.0 (Hopkins et al., 2009). Given the 153 ordinal nature of the meal and snack frequency data, Cochran's Q tests were performed to 154 determine if the percentage of participant responses differed across visits. Sample size was 155 156 adequate to use the χ^2 distribution approximation and pairwise comparisons were performed using Dunn's procedure with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons presented as 157 adjusted *p* values. 158

Body composition and hydration status of GB-based professional flat jockeys can be seen in 160 Figure 2. There was a *small* difference in total BM between testing visits (Figure 2A; p < 0.001; 161 $n^2 = 0.54$), with FU 1 (54.8 ± 2.5 kg; p < 0.001; 95% CI = 0.7 to 1.6 kg) and FU 2 (54.9 ± 2.5 162 163 kg; p < 0.001; 95% CI = 0.7 to 1.5 kg) both 1.1 ± 0.2 and 1.0 ± 0.2 kg lower than baseline (55.9 164 \pm 2.9 kg) respectively, with no differences between follow up visits (0.1 \pm 0.1 kg; p = 0.63; 95% CI = -0.2 to 0.1 kg). Figure 2B highlights there were no differences in FFM (0.1 \pm 0.1 kg; p =165 0.48; $\eta^2 = 0.03$) between baseline (45.5 ± 2.3 kg), FU 1 (45.4 ± 2.3 kg) and FU 2 (45.4 ± 2.2 166 167 kg). However, changes in FM also exhibited a *small* difference between testing visits (Figure 2C; p < 0.001; $\eta^2 = 0.54$), with FU 1 (6.1 ± 0.6 kg; p < 0.001; 95% CI = 0.6 to 1.5 kg) and FU 168 2 (6.1 ± 0.5 kg; p < 0.001; 95% CI = 0.5 to 1.4 kg) both 1.0 ± 0.7 kg lower than baseline (7.1 169 \pm 1.4 kg), with no differences between follow up visits (0.1 \pm 0.1 kg; p = 0.34; 95% Cl = -0.2 to 170 171 0.1 kg). These outcomes resulted in a *small* difference across body fat percentages (Figure 2D; p < 0.001; $\eta^2 = 0.44$), whereby baseline (12.8 ± 2.3%) is 1.0 ± 0.8% higher than both FU 172 1 (11.8 ± 1.5%; p = 0.001; 95% CI = 0.5 to 1.5%) and FU 2 (11.8 ± 1.5%; p = 0.001; 95% CI 173 = 0.5 to 1.6%), with no differences between follow up visits (0.1 \pm 0.1%; p = 0.63; 95% CI = -174 175 0.2 to 0.3%). Urine osmolality was also higher by a *small* difference (Figure 2E; p < 0.001; η^2 = 0.56) at baseline (816 \pm 236 mOsmol.L⁻¹) in comparison to both FU 1 (564 \pm 175 mOsmol.L⁻¹ 176 ¹; p < 0.001; 95% CI = 159 to 344 mOsmol.L⁻¹) and FU 2 (524 ± 156 mOsmol.L⁻¹; p < 0.001; 177 95% CI = 194 to 388 mOsmol.L⁻¹) by 252 \pm 62 and 291 \pm 80 mOsmol.L⁻¹ respectively, yet also 178 with no differences between follow up visits (40 ± 18 mOsmol.L⁻¹; p = 0.26; 95% CI = -32 to 179 111 mOsmol.L⁻¹). 180

181

Figure 3 highlights a comparison of RMR_{meas}, RMR_{pred} and RMR_{ratio} of GB-based professional flat jockeys, demonstrating no differences in RMR_{pred} (2.0 ± 2.0 kcal.day-1; p = 0.49; $\eta^2 = 0.03$) between baseline (1500 ± 51 kcal.day⁻¹), FU 1 (1499 ± 49 kcal.day⁻¹) and FU 2 (1498 ± 50 kcal.day⁻¹). However, there were *moderate* differences between testing visits in RMR_{meas} (p < 0.001; $\eta^2 = 0.72$) whereby FU 1 (1612 ± 95 kcal.day⁻¹; p < 0.001; 95% CI = 69 to 123 kcal.day⁻¹ ¹) and FU 2 (1620 ± 92 kcal.day⁻¹; p < 0.001; 95% CI = 77 to 132 kcal.day⁻¹) were both 96 ± 12 and 104 ± 14 kcal.day⁻¹ higher than baseline (1516 ± 106 kcal.day⁻¹), with no differences between follow up visits (8 ± 2 kcal.day⁻¹; p = 0.06; 95% CI = -1 to 17 kcal.day⁻¹). This results in an increase in RMR_{ratio} from baseline to a consistent value across FU 1 and 2.

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192 Following initial and subsequent 24-hour meal and snack recalls, self-reported main meal and 193 snack frequencies categorised as all intakes consumed within a day, differed between 194 baseline and both follow up visits (2 intakes vs 4 intakes per day, respectively), but not 195 between follow ups. Figure 4 highlights the frequency of each main meal and snack intake across all visits. The percentage of jockeys who consumed breakfast was different between 196 visits $\chi^2(2) = 13.273$, p < 0.001, with an increase of 82.6% at FU 1 (p = 0.009) and 87.0% at 197 FU 2 (p = 0.003) when compared to 47.8% at baseline. Additionally, the percentage of jockeys 198 199 who consumed lunch was also different between visits $\chi^2(2) = 21.529$, p < 0.001, with an increase of 91.3% at FU 1 (p < 0.001) and 95.7% at FU 2 (p < 0.001) when compared to 34.8% 200 at baseline. However, there were no differences between visits for the percentage of jockeys 201 who consumed dinner (all; p = 1.00). Finally, there were differences in the percentage of 202 203 jockeys who consumed an evening snack across visits $\chi^2(2) = 11.231$, p = 0.004, with an increase of 39.1% at FU 1 (p = 0.02) and 43.5% at FU 2 (p = 0.007), when compared to 4.3% 204 at baseline. Nonetheless and despite an increase of 52.2% and 56.5% at FU 1 and 2 when 205 compared to 30.4% at baseline, there were no significant differences for jockeys who 206 207 consumed a morning snack across visits (p = 0.16).

208

209 DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to assess if dietary changes that have reported positive results in acute studies are maintainable over an extended period in free-living jockeys. To this end, we recruited 23 male GB-based professional flat jockeys and assessed physiological markers relative to weight-making on three separate occasions over the course of 5 years. We provide novel findings within a jockey population with longitudinal positive changes in BM and body composition, increased RMR, decreased urine osmolality and increased meal and
snack frequency following an initial assessment and the provision of 'best' weight-making
nutritional and daily steady-state aerobic exercise education. These data suggest that jockeys
can maintain beneficial changes for weight-making during free-living conditions and beyond
initial re-assessment.

220

The current study reports an initial reduction in FM without any loss of FFM from baseline to 221 222 follow up testing, with a maintenance of these improved markers at both 1 and 5 years post-223 initial testing. Importantly, measures were conducted with no additional interaction with researchers outside of the baseline and follow up measures, thereby placing the responsibility 224 on the individual jockey to control FM and FFM. Previously, we have reported the positive 225 benefits of reducing FM in jockeys to negate the need to dehydrate and maintaining FFM 226 227 whilst consuming a hypocaloric diet that can result in improved physicality, and potentially, for injury prevention (Pasiakos et al., 2013). Given the occupational risks associated with the 228 sport in that racehorses can reach peak speeds of >70 km hr⁻¹ (Turner et al., 2002), and 229 considering that as little as 2% reduction in BM through rapid weight loss can significantly 230 231 compromise a jockey's strength (Wilson, Hawken, et al., 2014), the findings here appear 232 relevant to jockey safety in competition.

233

234 In addition to the importance of maintaining FFM whilst in an energy deficit for performance 235 and injury prevention as discussed, it is also important to note that FFM is well-established as a major determinant of RMR (Müller et al., 2002; Zurlo et al., 1990) given it negates the 236 influences of age, gender, body weight and body fat upon RMR (Fontaine et al., 1985). Here, 237 238 we report a significantly increased RMR_{meas} from initial testing to both follow up visits of ~100 kcal.day⁻¹, and independent of changes to FFM. Moreover, no difference in RMR_{pred} between 239 baseline and subsequent follow ups were observed further highlighting the positive change in 240 RMR_{meas}. Additionally, RMR_{ratio} was established by the division of RMR_{meas} and RMR_{pred} and 241 242 where values of <0.90 indicate potential energy deficiency (Torstveit et al., 2018). Values for RMR_{ratio} reported an increase from baseline, whereby three jockeys were classed as being
energy deficient, to a consistent value across FU 1 and 2 and no jockeys being classed as
energy deficient.

246

247 In explaining potential reasons for the increased RMR_{meas} reported here, this may have 248 occurred due to the advised addition of daily aerobic exercise. Indeed, modulations of RMR due to increased physical activity and independent of changes to FFM tissues, have been 249 250 attributed to enhanced cellular respiration, heightened energy flux, augmented protein 251 turnover and increased activity of the sympathetic nervous system (Speakman & Selman, 2003; Stiegler & Cunliffe, 2006). The findings here agree with the increased RMR_{meas} reported 252 from our previous dietary intervention comprising 3 meals and 2 snacks per day and an 253 increase in daily exercise energy expenditure (Wilson et al., 2015). Furthermore, this study 254 255 also followed the same format of advised nutritional options and increasing meal and snack 256 frequency and daily exercise as our case study, where a jockey reduced FM by 7.0 kg in a 9week period. 257

258

259 Whereas increased meal and snack frequency and positive changes in body composition are 260 still a topic of debate in humans per se, interestingly, there does appear evidence of benefits for athletic populations particularly (La Bounty et al., 2011). In the limited studies to date, 261 Bernadot et al, (2005) reported significantly greater body fat percentage loss (<1.03%) and 262 263 increased FFM (>1.2 kg) for college athletes consuming 250 kcal snacks after main meals for 264 2 weeks, versus athletes consuming a non-caloric placebo. Interestingly, these positive changes in body composition reverted to baseline within 4 weeks of the 250 kcal snacks being 265 266 removed (Benardot et al., 2005). In earlier work, Iwao and colleagues (1996) reported boxers 267 (n = 6) consuming a hypercaloric diet of 1200 kcal per day as 6 feeds, experienced less loss of FFM versus boxers (n = 6) consuming the same energy intake across 2 meals. Whilst there 268 was no significant difference in BM between groups, the boxers eating less frequently reported 269 270 higher measures of urinary 3-methylhistidine/creatinine and the authors cite this as evidence 271 of greater myoprotein catabolism even when the same diet is consumed (Iwao et al., 1996). 272 In our own previous work where jockeys were prescribed a hypocaloric diet consumed as 5 273 feeds and evenly spaced throughout the day, we report a maintenance of FFM over 6 weeks, 274 which may therefore highlight the importance of increasing meal and snack frequency for 275 muscle protein synthesis in the presence of a daily energy deficit. Whilst the actual 276 mechanisms behind the maintenance of FFM reported in the present study are unknown, nonetheless, the present data clearly show that jockeys were able to make positive changes 277 278 in body composition that are maintained over a 5-year period without routine assessments in 279 free-living conditions.

280

Initial findings here demonstrated that the jockeys were typically dehydrated at baseline, with 281 mean urine osmolality of >700 mOsmol (Sawka et al., 2005). Dehydration is a common 282 283 practice used by jockeys to make racing weight and typically through rapid weight loss achieved by exercising in a sweat suit and heavy clothing (Dolan et al., 2011; O'Reilly et al., 284 2017; Wilson, Hawken, et al., 2014). Simulated riding performance (Wilson, Hawken, et al., 285 2014) and cycle ergomter (Dolan et al., 2013) have both been shown to be impaired in jockeys 286 287 following 2 and 4% dehydration, respectively. Given that jockeys have been reported to reduce BM through intentional sweating of up to 7% through rapid weight loss on a race day (Wilson 288 et al., 2012), the performance detriments in competition may be magnified. Previous work has 289 also highlighted the potential for increasing the occupational hazards associated with riding 290 291 racehorses at high speeds and over obstacles (Turner et al., 2002) through reduced strength 292 when dehydrated (Dolan et al., 2013). Importantly, the current study reports that from initial 'dehydrated' classification at baseline, most of those jockeys returning for retests did so in a 293 294 hydrated state, following the provision of 'healthier' dietary advice. Whilst accepting this finding 295 was established in a laboratory setting and not at the racecourse, it still provides positive proof for jockeys that they are able to reduce BM and maintain this lower weight and do so whilst 296 297 being hydrated.

299 Whilst the present study provides novel findings that jockeys improve body composition, 300 RMR_{meas}, hydration status, and increase meal and snack frequency following the provision of 301 dietary and exercise advice, it is not devoid of limitations. Notably, this study did not control 302 dietary intake or the recommended daily exercise advice modality, and therefore we do not 303 know if indeed jockeys were in a daily energy deficit? However, given that a key aim of the 304 study was to assess jockeys in free-living conditions, and to maintain ecological validity, we 305 therefore employed a 24-hour meal and snack frequency recall as a tool to assess the 306 frequency of food intake specifically, and as not to be constrained by food diaries and/or 'snap 307 and send'. Moreover, whereas the usefulness of 24-hour recall as an accurate assessment of energy intake in athletes appears particularly limited against measures of doubly labelled 308 water (Foster et al., 2019) or when compared with 24-hour portable metabolic monitor data in 309 jockeys (O'Loughlin et al., 2013), it is reported as a reliable method that correlates positively 310 311 with meal and snack frequency in self-reported diaries over longer periods and habitual eating behaviour in athletes (Sunami et al., 2016). Likewise, to maintain the jockey's independence, 312 we only requested that the jockeys provide verbal feedback regarding adherence to the 313 recommended daily exercise, and which collectively we can summarise that the jockeys did 314 315 confirm on both follow up occasions. Another notable limitation is the group of jockeys who did not return for follow up testing after baseline. However, whilst only 23 of the initial cohort 316 (n = 43) did complete the study, this is representative of 54% of the initial total group and 317 therefore it may be viewed that the majority felt it important to return on more than one 318 319 occasion for retesting. Indeed, in accounting for the non-returning jockeys, the main reason reported to the researchers was being 'happy' (n = 7) with their current weight-making 320 practices and that the advice provided had had a positive effect in helping those jockeys make 321 322 and maintain race riding weight (Figure 1). For the smaller number of 'unhappy' jockeys (n = 323 2), it was communicated that they did report finding it difficult to maintain the regime, although no (potentially) confounding factors were discussed or explored. As such, it may therefore be 324 that those jockeys may have reverted to previous practices for weight-making and, in the likely 325 event, we fully acknowledge that such recommendations as proposed in this study may not 326

327 be suited to all jockeys without further exploration into any confounding factors that may act328 as a barrier.

To conclude, the findings of the present study demonstrate that professional jockeys may improve body composition, RMR, hydration and eat more regularly following provision of educational advice and resources. These improvements were maintained over an extended period and in free-living conditions and suggest that jockeys may be positively influenced by targeted nutritional and exercise education. Given the main limitations highlighted, we would therefore suggest that future similar research include minimum assessments of energy intake and energy output to ascertain 'typical' daily energy balance, that could still maintain ecological validity in free-living athletes. This may then help to further strengthen any similar positive findings from such studies, as to the positive changes reported here. Additionally, further exploration into reasons that jockeys 'drop out' may act to enhance future work and perhaps help remove barriers to adherence, that again, may further benefit jockeys and the sport of horseracing long-term.

AUTHORSHIP

GW undertook all laboratory measurements. CLE undertook metabolic analysis, figure design,
statistical analysis and manuscript review. DM undertook behavioural analysis and overall
manuscript review. AK assisted with figure design, manuscript design and manuscript review,
JPM contributed to manuscript design and manuscript review. GLC oversaw dietary recall,
contributed to figure design, manuscript design and manuscript review.

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