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30

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ABSTRACT

38 **Background:** We investigated the effects of sex, energy availability (EA), and health status on
39 the change in hemoglobin mass (ΔHbmass) in elite endurance athletes over ~3 to 4 weeks of
40 Live-High/Train-High altitude training (Flagstaff, AZ, 2135m; n=27 females; n=21 males; 27%
41 2016 Olympians). **Methods:** Pre- and post-camp Hbmass (optimized CO re-breathing method)
42 and iron status were measured, EA was estimated via food and training logs and Low Energy
43 Availability in Females Questionnaire (LEAF-Q) and a general injury/illness questionnaire was
44 completed. Hypoxic exposure (hours) was calculated with low (<500h), moderate (500-600h)
45 and high (>600h) groupings. **Results:** Absolute and relative percentage ΔHbmass ($\%\Delta\text{Hbmass}$)
46 was significantly greater in females ($6.2\pm 4.0\%$, $p<0.001$) than in males ($3.2\pm 3.3\%$, $p=0.008$).
47 ($\%\Delta\text{Hbmass}$) showed a dose-response with hypoxic exposure (3.1 ± 3.8 vs 4.9 ± 3.8 vs $6.8\pm 3.7\%$;
48 $p=0.013$). $\text{Hbmass}_{\text{pre}}$ was significantly higher in eumenorrheic vs amenorrheic females (12.2 ± 1.0
49 vs 11.3 ± 0.5 g/kg; $p=0.004$). Although statistically under-powered, $\%\Delta\text{Hbmass}$ was significantly
50 less in sick (n=4, $-0.5\pm 0.4\%$) versus healthy (n=44 athletes; $5.4\pm 3.8\%$; $p<0.001$). There were no
51 significant correlations between self-reported iron intake, sex hormones or EA on Hbmass
52 outcomes. However, there was a trend for a negative correlation between LEAF-Q score and
53 $\%\Delta\text{Hbmass}$ ($r=-.353$, $p=0.07$). **Conclusion:** Our findings confirm the importance of baseline
54 Hbmass and exposure to hypoxia on increases in Hbmass during altitude training, while
55 emphasizing the importance of athlete health and indices of EA on an optimal baseline Hbmass
56 and hematological response to hypoxia.

57 **Key words:** world-class athletes, athlete health, adaptations to altitude, altitude training,
58 hemoglobin mass

60 Many high performance endurance athletes undertake specialized forms of altitude training.
61 The lack of agreement regarding the effects of altitude training on hematology and performance
62 is partially explained by various differences in the methodology of altitude training studies¹. For
63 example, there are different modalities of altitude exposure, with several common options being
64 Live High-Train High (LHTH) or Live High-Train Low (LHTL) with hypobaric or normobaric
65 hypoxia, or intermittent hypoxic exposure at rest (IHE) or during training (IHT)². Nevertheless,
66 irrespective of changes in performance, a change in hemoglobin mass (Hbmass) is considered an
67 objective and relatively easily measured outcome of altitude exposure within a standardized
68 altitude training protocol, with typical increase of 2–5% following a block of altitude training
69 being reported³⁻⁷. However, the mechanisms associated with optimizing Hbmass increases are
70 multifactorial and include the type of altitude modality, the duration and level of exposure (also
71 termed hypoxic dose⁸) and possibly the initial Hbmass level⁹. Indeed, there is consistent
72 evidence of a progressive increase in Hbmass with three weeks of altitude training^{3,7,10}, with
73 supportive factors including the adequacy of baseline ferritin concentrations and doses of iron
74 supplementation^{11,12}. Meanwhile, only two studies have reported that injury and/or illness tends
75 to negatively affect Hbmass changes^{6,13}. One aspect of athlete health is optimal energy
76 availability (EA), which is defined as the dietary energy available to support body function once
77 the energy cost of exercise has been deducted from daily energy intake¹⁴. Low EA has
78 detrimental effects on many areas of health and training adaptation, including impairment of
79 menstrual status, protein synthesis and iron status and an increased risk of illness and injury¹⁵.
80 However, to our knowledge no study has investigated the effects of symptoms of low EA on
81 altitude-induced hematological adaptations.

82 There are conflicting findings in the literature regarding factors which alter the Hbmass
83 response to altitude. For example, Wachsmuth *et al.*⁶ found no sex based differences in 45 elite
84 swimmers in the relative Hbmass response with 3-4 weeks of LHTH over multiple camps;
85 however the absolute change was higher in males, which they hypothesized to be due to higher
86 baseline values. Conversely, in a meta-analysis Rasmussen *et al.* calculated lower Hbmass
87 changes in athletes with high baseline values following various altitude training protocols⁹. In
88 contrast, Heinicke *et al.*¹⁶ investigated the effects of 3-weeks of LHTH altitude training at 2050m
89 on Hbmass in 6 male and 4 female world class biathletes and reported that Hbmass improved by
90 ~9% in both males and females despite differences in baseline levels and very low subject
91 numbers. Athlete calibre is another factor that may affect the hematological adaptations to
92 altitude. Indeed, while some studies have shown increased Hbmass in elite athletes^{6,17}, others^{18,19}
93 have failed to do so, leading some experts to question the usefulness of altitude training in
94 athletes with already high Hbmass levels²⁰. Obviously, the impact of baseline Hbmass values,
95 which are greater in males than females and in elite versus non-elite, and the subsequent hypoxic
96 induced changes in Hbmass, is far from being completely understood. Finally, the beneficial
97 effects of altitude training on other body systems such as angiogenesis and increased buffering
98 capacity²¹ are often forgotten. Indeed, even if no hematological improvements are seen after
99 altitude training, an athlete may have benefited from the camp via improvements in non-
100 hematological outcomes.

101 Due to lack of studies on the effects of EA and hormonal health (i.e. reproductive, metabolic
102 and anabolic hormones) on the Hbmass response at altitude, and due to contrasting results
103 regarding other factors that may influence this response in males vs. females and elite athletes,
104 our aim was to investigate the changes in Hbmass following LHTH altitude training in one of the

105 largest to date single cohort of elite female and male endurance athletes (27% Olympians) over a
106 single training camp. Specifically, we aimed to confirm previous findings on the effects of length
107 of exposure to hypoxia on change in Hbmass. However, we also wanted to investigate whether
108 additional factors including sex, pre-camp Hbmass, health status (illness/injuries), EA sex
109 hormone concentrations and bone health would affect Hbmass changes. Our hypothesis was that
110 the magnitude of increase in Hbmass would depend primarily on hypoxic exposure, and possibly
111 also on pre-camp Hbmass levels and health status.

112 **METHODS**

113 **Participants**

114 World-class middle- and long-distance runners and racewalkers (females, n=27; males,
115 n=21) were recruited. The inclusion criteria was 18–40 years of age and having an IAAF score
116 (International Association of Athletics Federations Scoring Tables 2011²²) of at least 1050
117 points (corresponds to 13:45.20min and 16:00.04min in the 5000m in males and females,
118 respectively) scored within the preceding two years prior to study (baseline IAAF score). The
119 study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of University of Jyväskylä and conducted
120 according to the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants were enrolled in, and regularly
121 screened by, anti-doping monitoring programs. No participants have ever served any anti-doping
122 rule violation, and thus, to the best of our knowledge, were not involved with the use of any
123 prohibited substances.

124 **Study design**

125 In a non-blinded longitudinal study design, we investigated pre- (Hbmass_{pre}) and post-
126 altitude (Hbmass_{post}) Hbmass, iron and health status (sex hormones, bone mineral density

127 (BMD), injury/illness frequency) during a pre-competition LHTH altitude training camp in
128 Flagstaff, AZ (2135m altitude; spring 2016). The measurements included baseline fasted blood
129 samples, body composition and BMD measurements via Dual-energy X-ray Absorptiometry
130 (DXA), followed by 7-day food and training logs on the second week of the camp. Female
131 athletes filled out a validated Low Energy Availability in Females Questionnaire (LEAF-Q²³).

132 **Hemoglobin mass**

133 Total Hbmass was measured with the adapted two-minute carbon monoxide (CO)
134 rebreathing protocol²⁴. In brief, subjects rebreathed a dose of CO based on body mass (BM)
135 (1.25 ml/kg BM for males and 1.00 ml/kg BM for females) and ~4 L pure oxygen for 2 minutes
136 via closed circuit spirometer. A nose clip was worn and a portable CO meter (FLUKE CO-220,
137 Everett, Washington) was used to detect possible CO leakage via the nose, mouthpiece and
138 spirometer throughout the 2 minutes of CO rebreathing. Determination of %HbCO was
139 measured for baseline and 6 and 8 minutes after rebreathing from capillary fingertip blood
140 samples tested with OSM3 hemoximeter (Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark). Hbmass was
141 calculated from the mean change in %HbCO before and after CO rebreathing. Measurements
142 were conducted pre- (within ~48-72h of arrival) and post-camp (within ~48-72 h from departure)
143 by the same technician at Hypo2 High Performance Sport Center in Flagstaff, AZ. The typical
144 error reported for the measurement done at Hypo2 is 1.9%. Throughout this manuscript, Hbmass
145 values are reported as absolute (absolute total Hbmass), relative (Hbmass relative to BM) and
146 percentage (percentage change in Hbmass, % Δ Hbmass).

147 **Hematology and anthropometry**

148 Resting overnight fasted venous blood samples were collected at the beginning and at the
149 end of the camp. Venous blood was collected into 8.5 mL SST gel tubes (BD Vacutainer,
150 Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) and centrifuged at 3400rpm for 10min using a Mini E Horizon
151 centrifuge (Drucker Company, Philipsburg, PA, USA). The fasted samples were analyzed for
152 serum iron, ferritin, testosterone and estradiol and measured via electrochemiluminescence
153 immunoassay (ECLIA) method. Body composition and BMD was measured in a fasted state by a
154 trained technician with DXA (GE Lunar DPX-IQ).

155 **Dietary intakes and training characteristics**

156 To avoid the possible effects of the initial altitude acclimatization on training and eating
157 habits the athletes were asked to keep food and training logs concurrently on the second week of
158 the altitude training camp. The principal investigator met each athlete to provide detailed
159 instructions on how to record all food and fluid intake accurately. The participants were asked to
160 record the time of all meals and training sessions, the type of food (brand names, flavors, etc.)
161 and amounts. Participants were provided with kitchen scales and measurement cups to facilitate
162 the recording process. If the participants ate out, they were asked to provide photos of meals with
163 verbal description to facilitate cross-checking. Athletes were free to supplement with iron
164 according to self-chosen protocols (e.g. brand and dosage) during the camp, however details of
165 this were recorded.

166 The participants were asked to record training for seven days including total distance, time
167 and session rating of perceived exertion (sRPE²⁵). The use of sRPE is validated to reflect training
168 load, and sRPE values of <4 (zone 1), 4–7 (zone 2) and >7 (zone 3) have been shown to
169 correspond well to the heart rate and blood lactate values²⁶.

170 **Analysis of nutrient intake, energy expenditure and energy availability**

171 The principal investigator analyzed all dietary records with ESHA Food Processor (Oregon,
172 US, 2016). EA was estimated from food and training diaries as energy intake minus EEE and
173 expressed in $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\text{ FFM}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ ¹⁴. Detailed information on methodology used and outcomes of
174 these analyses is reported elsewhere²⁷.

175 **Statistical analysis**

176 Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS Statistics 22 (INM, Armonk, New York,
177 USA) with data normality assessed via Shapiro-Wilk. Data were analysed for all athletes pooled,
178 and with comparisons for sex and for female menstrual status (eumenorrheic vs. amenorrheic,
179 defined as the absence of \geq three consecutive menses). Hypoxic dose⁸ at 2135m was stratified
180 into low (LOW: $<1200\text{ km.h}$; $<23\text{ days}$; $n=27$), moderate (MOD: $1200\text{--}1400\text{ km.h}$; $23\text{--}27\text{ days}$;
181 $n=13$) and high (HIGH: $>1400\text{ km.h}$; $>27\text{ days}$; $n=8$) groups. For further comparison, athletes
182 were also categorized based on hours of exposure³ as follows: low ($<500\text{ hours}$; $n=18$), moderate
183 ($500\text{--}600\text{ hours}$; $n=14$) and high ($>600\text{ hours}$; $n=16$). Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was
184 used to test the differences in the change in Hbmass with different hypoxic doses when
185 controlling for $\text{Hbmass}_{\text{pre}}$. Athletes were divided into healthy and sick (with an illness being
186 defined as anything that caused overall decrease in training/alteration to an athletes' training
187 program, but excluded minor routine injuries where training could be modified or training load
188 was not reduced due to cross-training) groups for further analysis. Baseline IAAF scores were
189 compared to the best race performance (IAAF score) within three weeks of descent from altitude
190 (Post IAAF score).

191 Differences in pre-camp body composition, Hbmass, iron status, EA, sex hormones and
192 BMD between sexes, amenorrheic vs eumenorrheic females, and healthy vs sick athletes were
193 analyzed with Student's t-test (parametric data) or Mann-Whitney U-test (nonparametric data).
194 Changes in pre- to post-iron status, Hbmass and IAAF score were analyzed with Student's paired
195 t-test (parametric data) or Wilcoxon signed rank test (nonparametric). Correlations were
196 analyzed using Pearson's correlation coefficient (parametric) or Spearman's test
197 (nonparametric). Data are presented as means±standard deviations (SD). Statistical significance
198 was set at $p \leq 0.05$.

199 **RESULTS**

200 Table 1 summarizes athlete characteristics, dietary and training data, iron status parameters and
201 raw Hbmass changes during the altitude camp. Pre- and post-camp Hbmass were higher in
202 males than in females. $\% \Delta \text{Hbmass}$ (g/kg) was $4.9 \pm 4.0\%$ ($p < 0.001$) in all athletes pooled, with
203 significantly higher percentage ($p = 0.008$) and absolute ($p = 0.033$) increases in relative Hbmass
204 values in females vs males. Relative $\text{Hbmass}_{\text{pre}}$ was significantly higher in eumenorrheic ($n = 20$)
205 vs amenorrheic ($n = 7$) females (12.2 ± 1.0 vs 11.3 ± 0.5 g/kg; $p = 0.004$). LOW hypoxic dose
206 ($+3.7 \pm 3.9\%$; $1013 \pm 137 \text{ km.h}$) increased relative Hbmass significantly less than MOD
207 ($+7.3 \pm 3.4\%$; $1320 \pm 70 \text{ km.h}$; $p = 0.018$) and, although not statistically significant, less than HIGH
208 ($4.8 \pm 3.6\%$; $1563 \pm 95 \text{ km.h}$) groups. In contrast, when hypoxic dose was characterized as hours of
209 exposure, there was a trend for higher response with increasing hours of exposure, and a
210 significant difference between low and high in all athletes pooled ($F(2,48) = 8.192$, $p = 0.017$).
211 However, when females and males were analysed separately, only males showed a difference in
212 the $\% \Delta \text{Hbmass}$ response based on hours of exposure ($F(2,20) = 10.21$, $p = 0.001$; Figure 2). Also,
213 ANCOVA showed that there was a significant difference in the relative Hbmass response

214 between hours of exposure groups when controlling for Hbmass_{pre} (F(2, 44)=4.413, p=0.018,
215 partial eta squared=0.167). In addition, there was a strong relationship between HBmass_{pre} and
216 Hbmass_{post} (partial eta squared=0.928)

217 The relative Hbmass_{pre} negatively and significantly correlated with the %ΔHbmass (females
218 $r=-.406$, $p=0.035$; males $r=-.470$, $p=0.032$; Figure 1). In addition, hypoxic dose as km.h ($r=.333$,
219 $p=0.021$) and as hours of exposure ($r=.374$, $p=0.009$) positively correlated with %ΔHbmass.
220 Relative Hbmass increased significantly more in healthy athletes (n=44, 26 females and 18
221 males) compared to those who suffered from illness (n=4, 1 females and 3 males) during the
222 camp (Figure 3; $p<0.001$). Two females (%ΔHbmass +7.1 and +14.6%) suffered mild injuries
223 but continued cross-training to maintain training load during the camp and thus, were not
224 considered as having an illness. When these athletes were included in the analysis as
225 “sick/injured”, the difference in the %ΔHbmass between sick and healthy athletes became non-
226 significant (3.3 ± 6.3 vs $5.1\pm 3.6\%$, respectively; $p=0.11$). No correlations were found between
227 baseline IAAF score, change in IAAF from baseline to post-camp or EA and %ΔHbmass. In
228 females, LEAF-Q score showed a strong trend for a negative correlation with %ΔHbmass (g/kg;
229 $r=-.353$, $p=0.07$). There were no correlations or effect of self-reported iron supplementation
230 protocols, baseline ferritin levels, sex hormones (data in our companion paper²⁷), body
231 composition parameters or BMD (data in our companion paper²⁷) on Hbmass outcomes.

232 **DISCUSSION**

233 This is one of the largest studies to date to investigate the contribution of hours of exposure to
234 hypoxia, Hbmass_{pre} and aspects of health status (e.g. outcomes of EA and illness incidence at
235 altitude) to the Hbmass response to altitude training in a single camp and single cohort of male

236 and female world-class endurance athletes (27% Olympians). Furthermore, our large subject
237 pool allowed for sufficient statistical power to allow a comparison of sex-based differences in
238 responses. Our main findings were that Hbmass increased significantly in both female and males,
239 with significantly greater relative and percentage increases in females. In addition, Hbmass_{pre}
240 was higher in eumenorrheic compared to amenorrheic females, and the increase in Hbmass was
241 more prominent in athletes who remained healthy throughout. Finally, in line with previous
242 studies, we found superior increases in Hbmass with greater hypoxic exposures and in those with
243 lower initial Hbmass_{pre} values.

244 Our investigation further expands the current literature on altitude training in elite athletes in
245 which studies are commonly characterised by the collection of data over multiple time periods⁶,
246 with varying altitude exposures²⁸ and/or use of simulated hypoxia¹¹, or in the absence of
247 measures of changes in Hbmass²⁹⁻³³. Unlike a few previous studies (^{18,19}) that have failed to find
248 an increase in Hbmass in elite athletes, and contrary to speculations on whether elite athletes
249 with already high Hbmass benefit from altitude training²⁰, we found significant Hbmass
250 increases in our group of world-class distance athletes. This is in line with a recent study by
251 Hauser et al.³⁴, who showed increases in Hbmass after 200-230 hours of exposure to a LHTL
252 protocol in male endurance and team sport athletes. Indeed, despite a moderate inverse
253 relationship between baseline Hbmass and change in Hbmass, even athletes with high initial
254 Hbmass levels (13.1g/kg in endurance athletes) showed ~4% increases following exposure to
255 hypoxia³⁴. Interestingly, despite similarities in the calibre of our female and male athletes, as
256 shown by their identical baseline IAAF scores, females were more successful in improving their
257 Hbmass over the camp (6.2 vs 3.2%; Table 1). While previous studies have failed to find a
258 difference in Hbmass response to altitude between sexes^{6,16}, these have generally involved

259 smaller numbers of female-to-male comparisons^{5,13,16,35,36} or have investigated only females^{4,10} or
260 males^{18,19,34,37,38}. The findings of the current study could be explained by the fact that males had
261 significantly higher relative Hbmass_{pre} levels (14.4 vs 12.0 g/kg; Table 1), although this is just
262 speculation. Nevertheless, we found a negative relationship between Hbmass_{pre} and change in
263 Hbmass (Δ Hbmass; Figure 1); previous investigations have also suggested that initial Hbmass
264 play a role in the magnitude of the hematological adaptations at altitude^{9,20,34}, although not all
265 studies support this finding⁶.

266 The magnitude and length of exposure to hypoxia are crucial for altitude-induced
267 hematological adaptations. Based on several studies, an increase of 1% per week¹⁰ or 1% per 100
268 hours of exposure³ can be expected, although an exponential model of hypoxic dose has also
269 been proposed by Garvican-Lewis and colleagues⁸. Indeed, we found increases of 3.7, 7.3, and
270 4.8% at low (1013 km.h), moderate (1320 km.h) and high (1563 km.h) hypoxic doses,
271 respectively, which resulted in a significant positive correlation between hypoxic dose and
272 Δ Hbmass. Interestingly, comparison of changes in Hbmass with differing hours of exposure
273 showed greater increases in Hbmass with increasing hours of exposure (3.6 vs 4.0 vs 6.2% with
274 <500, 500-600, and >600 hours of exposure; Figure 2), which is in line with a meta-analysis
275 showing that even shorter exposures of LHTH or LHTL are able to increase Hbmass ~3% given
276 the athlete is free from injury/illness and has adequate iron supplementation³⁹. Considering the
277 same elevation for each athlete in the current study, perhaps the difference in findings between
278 hypoxic dose and hours of exposure comparisons can be explained with different cut-off points
279 that resulted in different categorization of athletes into low, moderate and high groups.
280 Alternatively, our analysis between hypoxic dose groups may have been under-powered (n=8 in
281 high hypoxic dose group). However, although exposure to hypoxia is important, our findings

282 suggest that initial Hbmass levels (Figure 1) appear to have an even greater effect on the
283 magnitude of hematological adaptations following altitude training.

284 There have been previous indications that athlete health is associated with changes in
285 erythropoiesis in athletes. Gough *et al.*¹³ tracked changes in Hbmass in 15 athletes over lengthy
286 periods (162±198 days) of training interruptions due to illness and injury, showing that reduced
287 training and surgery (n=3) led to 2.3 and 2.7% decreases in Hbmass, respectively. Furthermore,
288 Wachsmuth *et al.*⁶ showed a 7.2% increase in Hbmass following 3-4 weeks of LHTH training at
289 2320m in swimmers, while no increase was observed in ill/injured athletes (n=8). The results of
290 our study show several new insights into the importance of health status in optimizing the
291 response to altitude training. Principally, healthy athletes were able to increase Hbmass
292 significantly more than athletes who became sick during the training camp (+5.4 vs -0.5%;
293 Figure 3), which confirms the findings of previous research. While we acknowledge that our
294 sample size of injured athletes was small and thus may have reduced the statistical power, as
295 mentioned earlier, this finding is in line with previous studies showing an impaired response to
296 hypoxia in athletes who were not healthy^{6,13}. Interestingly, despite suffering minor injuries
297 during the camp, two females who managed to maintain their training loads via cross-training
298 did not show Hbmass erosion, with an average Hbmass increase of ~10%. This novel finding
299 suggests that athletes suffering from minor injuries (where serious inflammation may not
300 present) may still be able to benefit from altitude training where training volume is not
301 compromised (via inclusion of cross-training) and where non-steroid anti-inflammatory drugs are
302 not used (may compromise response). This is aligned with Gough *et al.*¹³ who also showed
303 training reductions causing decreases in Hbmass. However, these findings should be interpreted

304 with caution as we only had a very small number of athletes who developed illnesses during the
305 camp.

306 We were also interested to look at the effect of low EA (based on food and training records
307 as well as physiological outcomes²⁷) on adaptations to altitude training, since it has previously
308 been shown to impair health and performance¹⁵, including processes such as the protein synthetic
309 response to exercise⁴⁰ that are likely to be important in hemapoiesis. Our estimations from food
310 and training logs captured during the mid-period of the altitude training camp identified a range
311 of EA scores among both male and female cohorts spanning healthy ($\sim 45 \text{ kcal.kg BM}^{-1}.\text{d}^{-1}$) to
312 low ($<30 \text{ kcal.kg BM}^{-1}.\text{d}^{-1}$)¹⁴. However, we failed to identify a correlation between these
313 estimates and Hbmass changes. This is not entirely surprising since these EA calculations are
314 based on self-reports from a single time period of 1 week which are fraught with methodological
315 issues, as well as not necessarily representative of earlier behaviors which may have caused
316 chronic metabolic and hormonal perturbations²⁷. Indeed, it is likely that athletes' eating and
317 exercise activities during the camp were different to their habitual practices due to deliberate
318 alterations in nutrition practices and training program to accommodate the special needs of
319 altitude training, as well as secondary changes due to a new food environment and daily routine.
320 These changes may have altered both the magnitude and direction of habitual EA compared to
321 the optimal levels. Surprisingly and contrary to our hypothesis, we failed to find correlations or
322 effects of sex hormones or BMD on Hbmass outcomes. Indeed, we assumed that low sex
323 hormone or BMD status would negatively affect ΔHbmass , however this was not the case.
324 Nevertheless, other data collected in our study which identified a high risk of chronic low EA
325 was correlated with Hbmass responses to the altitude training. We found significantly lower
326 $\text{Hbmass}_{\text{pre}}$ in amenorrheic vs eumenorrheic females (amenorrhea signals of chronic low EA¹⁵)

327 and a trend for higher increases in Hbmass with lower LEAF-Q scores (LEAF-Q scores of >8 are
328 likely to be indicative of low EA in females²³), which indicates that menstrual dysfunction, an
329 indicator of long-term low EA, may influence these adaptations or their magnitude. However,
330 despite this trend, this association between LEAF-Q and Hbmass changes at altitude requires
331 further validation.

332 *Strengths and limitations.* The major strength of the current study is that it was conducted
333 during the preparation period for the 2016 Olympic Games and thus, unlike several other
334 previous studies, reflects the true training characteristics and altitude camp outcomes of elite
335 athlete in preparation for a major competition. The sample size for the current study is one of the
336 largest to date reported in the literature in an elite athlete population, with a single camp and a
337 single time period protocol allowing us to detect differences that might not otherwise be
338 detectable when using other forms of data collection. Furthermore, to our knowledge, we have
339 highest numbers of female-to-male comparisons within these conditions. Finally, our study adds
340 to the growing literature of the likely detrimental effects of low EA and/or menstrual dysfunction
341 on athlete health. However, there are several limitations. First, due to the involvement of truly
342 world-class athletes in preparation in the Olympic year, we were not able to standardise factors
343 such as duration of altitude exposure and use or dose of iron supplementation (although all were
344 recommended to take iron between 100 to 200mg/day). In addition, we were not able to include
345 performance tests to provide physiological characteristics of the athletes. Therefore, it is
346 impossible to estimate the effects of altitude exposure or changes in Hbmass on performance
347 outcomes in these athletes. In addition, the dietary and training information was collected from a
348 single week of the camp and may not represent habitual practices and/or the practices over the
349 entire camp. However, since the reliability and accuracy of food records decreases with

350 increasing recording periods, and since elite athletes tend to keep their dietary intakes relatively
351 stable over a microcycle (*personal observations*), we believe this time period was sufficient to
352 yield an idea of the dietary patterns of these athletes. Given the study design, and the fact that
353 altitude training tends to enhance performance, we were unable to add a sea-level control group.
354 Finally, we acknowledge that comparing the results of the current study to the findings of
355 previous altitude training literature, where a different study population (calibre and sport),
356 different altitude exposure (length and elevation) and different protocol (LHTH, LHTL, IHE,
357 IHT in normobaric or hypobaric hypoxia) make it challenging to make direct comparisons across
358 studies. Nonetheless, we believe that our study adds novel information to the existing literature
359 on altitude training.

360

361 **Conclusions**

362 These data represent one of the largest investigations to date of the effects of various factors
363 on the Hbmass response to LHTH altitude training in world-class endurance athletes, including a
364 robust comparison of responses in males versus females, during a pre-season preparation camp
365 before the 2016 Olympic Games. We showed that females have significantly lower Hbmass_{pre}
366 than males, with a negative correlation between Hbmass_{pre} and change in Hbmass over the camp.
367 However, we would like to highlight the fact that despite previous expert opinions on the lack of
368 effectiveness of altitude training in elite athletes, our cohort of world-class athletes were able to
369 benefit from the hematological effects of the altitude camp despite being elite and possessing
370 high initial Hbmass levels. Furthermore, our findings emphasize and confirm the previous
371 findings on the importance of athlete health in the optimal hematological response to altitude
372 exposure. Indeed, to our knowledge, we are the first to show that menstrual function is correlated

373 with baseline Hbmass levels and that a higher risk score for low EA in females shows a trend to
374 correlate with less favorable changes in Hbmass following altitude training. We also found a
375 significant difference in the Hbmass response to altitude, where healthy athletes were able to
376 increase Hbmass on average by 5.4% compared to an average decrease of -0.5% in those who
377 were sick during the camp, although it should be emphasized that our small sample size (n=4) of
378 sick athletes may have reduced the statistical power. Finally, we confirm previous findings of the
379 importance of sufficient exposure to hypoxia on hematological adaptations to altitude, where
380 increasing hours of exposure seem to provide increasing hematological benefits independent of
381 initial Hbmass levels.

382

383

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392

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

393 The authors and funding agents do not have any conflicts of interests.

394

396

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- 503

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Correlation between pre-camp hemoglobin mass ($Hbmass_{pre}$) and the relative change in Hbmass ($\% \Delta Hbmass$) in females (A) and males (B). *Open circles*, low hypoxic dose group (<1200km.h); *open triangles*, moderate hypoxic dose group (1200-1400 km.h); *open squares*, high hypoxic dose group (>1400 km.h).

Figure 2. Differences in the percentage hemoglobin mass response ($\% \Delta Hbmass$) to altitude in low (LOW: <500 hours of exposure, corresponds to <21 days at 2135 m), moderate (MOD: 500-600 hours of exposure, corresponds to 21-25 days at 2135 m) and high (HIGH: >600hours of exposure, corresponds to >25 days at 2135 m) hypoxic exposure groups in females and males. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ significant difference between groups.

Figure 3. The magnitude of percentage change in hemoglobin mass ($\% \Delta Hbmass$) in athletes who were not sick or injured during the altitude camp (healthy athletes; *white bar*) and athletes who were sick or injured during the camp (*black bar*). *** $p < 0.001$ significant difference between groups

TABLES

Table 1. Athlete characteristics, dietary and training data, iron status parameters and Hbmass outcomes in elite female and male distance athletes. Values are means \pm SD.

	Females (n=23)	Males (n=15)
<i>Athlete characteristics</i>		
Age (yr)	26.0 \pm 3.2	27.2 \pm 4.1
Height (m) ***	1.68 \pm 0.05	1.80 \pm 0.06
Weight pre (kg) ***	54.1 \pm 4.5	68.0 \pm 5.9
Weight post (kg) ***	53.7 \pm 4.5	68.2 \pm 5.8
Body fat (%) ***	11.7 \pm 2.7	6.7 \pm 1.2
Baseline IAAF score	1113 \pm 39	1109 \pm 45
Post IAAF score # \$\$	1090 \pm 39	1072 \pm 67
<i>Altitude camp activities</i>		
EA (kcal/kg FFM/day)	33 \pm 7	36 \pm 6
Iron supplement (mg elemental iron)	110 \pm 61	142 \pm 68
Dietary iron (mg.d ⁻¹) **	16.6 \pm 5.1	24.7 \pm 8.6
Running (km.wk ⁻¹) *	94 \pm 27	114 \pm 30
TRIMP (AU)	1998 \pm 601	2363 \pm 1424
Hypoxic dose (km.h ⁻¹) *	1180 \pm 193	1038 \pm 235
<i>Iron status parameters</i>		
Pre serum iron	121 \pm 42	112 \pm 31
Post serum iron	134 \pm 44	113 \pm 58
Pre serum ferritin	87 \pm 50	106 \pm 37
Post serum ferritin ###	83 \pm 45	82 \pm 24
<i>Hbmass parameters</i>		
Hbmass _{pre} (g) ***	646 \pm 57	979 \pm 103
Hbmass _{post} (g) *** ### \$\$\$	681 \pm 67	1013 \pm 109
Hbmass _{pre} (g/kg) ***	12.0 \pm 1.0	14.4 \pm 1.1
Hbmass _{post} (g/kg) *** ### \$\$\$	12.7 \pm 0.9	14.9 \pm 1.0
Δ Hbmass (g)	36 \pm 25	34 \pm 28
Δ Hbmass (g/kg) *	0.7 \pm 0.5	0.4 \pm 0.4
% Δ Hbmass (g) *	5.5 \pm 3.8	3.4 \pm 3.0
% Δ Hbmass (g/kg) **	6.2 \pm 4.0	3.2 \pm 3.3

Baseline IAAF score, IAAF score (International Association of Athletics Federations scoring table 2011) prior to the camp; Post IAAF score, race IAAF score in the three-week post-camp period; EA, energy availability; TRIMP, training impulse; AU, arbitrary unit; Hbmass, hemoglobin mass; Δ Hbmass, absolute change in Hbmass; % Δ Hbmass, relative change in Hbmass. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ significant difference between females and males; $^{\$}$ $p < 0.05$, $^{\$\$}$ $p < 0.01$, $^{\$\$\$}$ $p < 0.001$ significant difference from pre to post in females; $^{\#}$ $p < 0.05$, $^{\#\#}$ $p < 0.01$, $^{\#\#\#}$ $p < 0.001$ significant difference from pre to post in males

FIGURES

Figure 1.

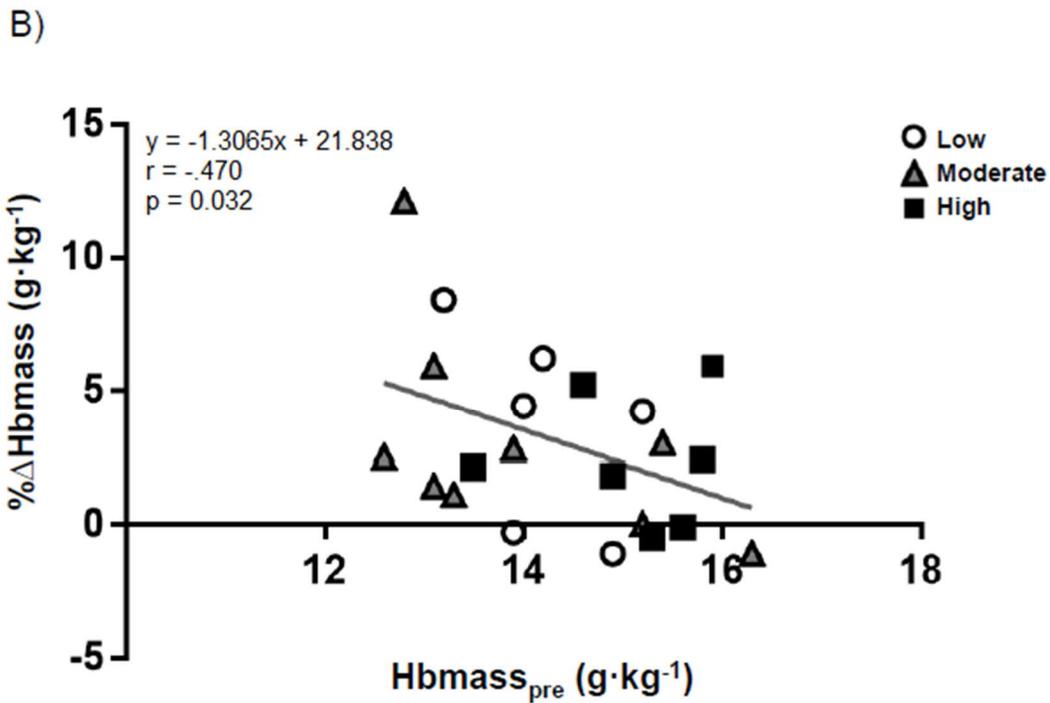
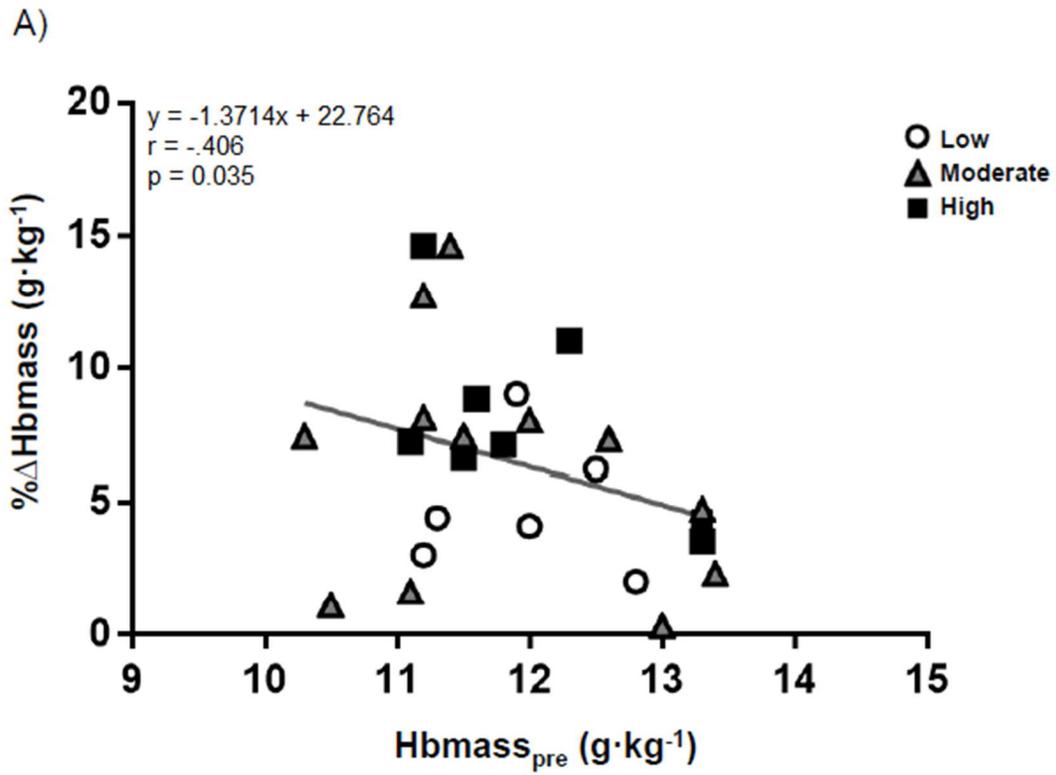


Figure 2.

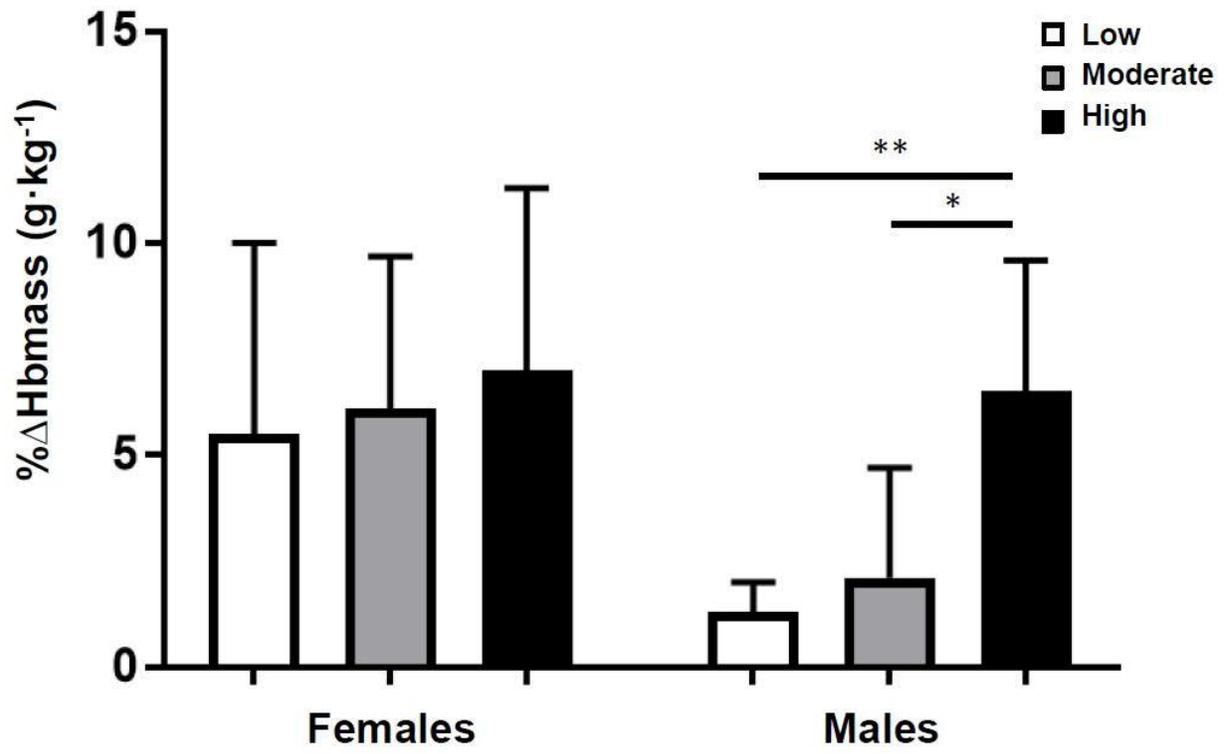


Figure 3.

