

1 **Magnesium Status in Elite Track & Field Athletes: An 8-year Analysis of the British Athletics**

2 **World Class Performance team**

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23 **Magnesium Status in Elite Track & Field Athletes: An 8-year Analysis of the British Athletics**

24 **World Class Performance team**

25 **Abstract**

26 Magnesium plays a critical role in athlete health and performance. It is involved in numerous
27 physiological mechanisms that support energy production, immune function, pain modulation, muscle
28 function and bone health. Athletes may be susceptible to magnesium deficiency due to an increased
29 utilisation during exercise.

30 *Objective*

31 This study reports on the magnesium status of 192 Olympic and Paralympic athletes over the course of
32 eight years.

33 *Methods*

34 Athletes on the British Athletics world class performance plan undertook blood testing for Red Cell
35 Magnesium status. Their history of tendon pain, muscle and bone injury, ethnicity, sporting event and
36 gender were also recorded. 510 samples from 192 athletes were included in the study.

37 *Results*

38 On at least one blood test during the study time, 22% of athletes were identified as clinically deficient
39 (<1.19 mmol/L). The average red cell magnesium concentration was 1.34 nmol/L. Magnesium was
40 significantly lower in female athletes and those with Black or Mixed-Race ethnicity and was higher in
41 Throws athletes and Paralympians with Cerebral Palsy. Athletes with a history of achilles or patella
42 tendon pain had significantly lower magnesium levels than average.

43 *Conclusions*

44 This study highlights the importance of investigating magnesium within this population to identify
45 deficiency and mitigate against potential performance reduction or increased injury risk. Several areas

46 for future work are identified to explore the relationship between magnesium and gender, ethnicity and
47 tendon pain and muscle injury in athletes. Furthermore, new guidelines for magnesium status within
48 athletics populations are proposed.

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50 Key Words: Magnesium; Athletics; Sport; Performance; Tendon; Nutrition; Micronutrients

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70 **Introduction**

71 Magnesium (Mg) is an intracellular mineral ion that plays a vital role in muscle function, bone
72 metabolism and respiratory health [1]. Magnesium is involved in intracellular enzymatic reactions that
73 drive protein synthesis and energy production [2], and it has an important role in immune function,
74 recovery from oxidative stress and pain modulation [3,4]. As a result, Mg status is likely to be of
75 importance in the athletic population for whom bone health and optimal muscular, immune and
76 respiratory function is required for consistent training and athletic performance.

77
78 Magnesium has an important role in the maintenance of normal muscle contraction and relaxation[5],
79 and Mg intake has been associated with improved muscle function and reduced sarcopenia in elderly
80 populations and male athletes [6,7]. Magnesium also is an N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor
81 antagonist and therefore may have an important role in pain transduction and hypersensitivity.[8]
82 NMDA activation and upregulation is recognised in the central sensitisation associated with painful
83 tendinopathy [9–11], although the specific role of Mg in tendon pain has not been previously
84 investigated. Magnesium is also required for the conversion of 25(OH)D to its active form which
85 supports calcium absorption and bone metabolism. Magnesium deficiency is directly associated with a
86 negative impact on bone metabolism by decreasing osteoblastic and increasing osteoclastic activity
87 [12–14]. Lower dietary Mg intake has been associated with reduced bone mineral density which is a risk
88 factor for bone stress injury in athletes [15,16].

89
90 The Reference Nutrient Intakes (RNI) for Mg in the UK is 300 mg and 270 mg for males and females,
91 respectively. Unlike other micronutrients, Mg is easily obtained in the diet from foods such as fruits and
92 vegetables, dairy, and nuts and seeds. Despite this, Mg deficiency is not uncommon, with subclinical
93 deficiency estimated at 40% in young adults [17]. Many athletes may not meet the recommended Mg

94 intakes [18–21] and Olympic athletes have significantly lower resting plasma Mg status compared with
95 non-athletes [22].

96
97 Potential reasons for deficiency include diminished Mg intake via processed and boiled foods and
98 reduced absorption in vitamin D deficient individuals [23]. Athletes may be predisposed to Mg
99 deficiency as the recommended daily requirements are likely to be 10-20% higher than a sedentary
100 population [4,24] due to increased requirements of Mg during exercise. Decreased Mg absorption is also
101 associated with high fibre diets [25] which are often advocated by performance nutritionists.
102 Furthermore, intense prolonged physical exercise increases Mg sweat loss and anaerobic exercise
103 increases urinary Mg loss, possibly due to decreased tubular resorption [2,26–29]. A transient reduction
104 in Mg after endurance running has also been identified, possibly due to a loss of muscle membrane
105 integrity [28,30].

106
107 The correction of Mg deficiency has been associated with performance improvements in bench press,
108 jump height, knee extension torque and cardiorespiratory function [7,27,31–33]. A recent review
109 concluded that increased intakes of Mg will likely have beneficial effects on exercise performance in Mg
110 deficient individuals.[4] However, the impact of Mg supplementation on physical performance in
111 physically active individuals with adequate Mg status is uncertain.[5]

112
113 The assessment of Mg status is challenging as less than 1% of Mg in the body circulates within the blood,
114 with more than 50% stored in bone and the remainder stored in cells within muscle tissue and organs
115 [34]. As plasma and serum Mg are prone to fluctuations, diurnal, dietary and exercise induced, these
116 markers are not considered as reliable indicators of Mg status [35]. Whole blood and red blood cell Mg
117 (RCMg) are considered to be more accurate markers of long term Mg status as they are more stable and

118 can detect the depletion of cellular stores [36]. Ionised Mg (iMg) may be a useful marker of Mg status as
119 this is the active form of Mg, however methods of iMg analysis are limited and therefore not easily
120 accessible for regular analysis within athletics populations [30]. A gold standard method of status
121 assessment is the intravenous Mg loading test which detects the dose retained after Mg injection. This
122 requires a 24 h collection of urine and is an impractical test for mass screening of athletes. Due to the
123 challenges of assessing Mg status and the limited studies performed on athletes, the prevalence of Mg
124 deficiency in athletes, and indeed the appropriate range for athletes are both uncertain [37].

125

126 This study reports on the RCMg status of a cohort of British Olympic and Paralympic track and field
127 athletes over an eight year period and its association with gender, ethnicity, athletic event and clinical
128 history of bone stress, muscle injury and tendon pain.

129

130 **Materials and Methods**

131 All Track and Field athletes who formed part of the British World Class Performance Programme (WCPP)
132 between September 2010 and February 2017 were eligible for inclusion in this study. Athletes are only
133 included in the WCPP if they are considered by performance coaches to have potential to win a medal at
134 an Olympic or Paralympic Games due to their current level of athletic performance. Informed consent
135 was provided by all athletes at the point of joining the WCPP and the study was approved by the
136 University of Loughborough Ethics Committee.

137

138 Blood screening for RCMg status was conducted as part of general performance screening all athletes
139 between 2-4 times per year. These were always performed during athlete training phases between
140 October and August, when athletes were undertaking regular running and strength and conditioning
141 sessions. Blood screening was not taken during rest phases of the training cycle. Athletes were asked to

142 avoid high intensity strength and running training or competition for at least 12 h prior to the blood test
143 but no other restrictions were placed on training. Subjects were not asked to fast prior to the test.
144 Venepuncture was performed with a 21- or 23-gauge butterfly needle with the athlete seated or prone
145 lying at 45 degrees and collected into a vacutainer (BD Vacutainer® lithium heparin blood collection
146 tubes). All blood samples were analysed by The Doctor's Laboratory (TDL Ltd, London) using RCMg
147 analysis. The analysis performed was inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) with a
148 known laboratory coefficient of variation of 2.5%. Demographic information including age, gender and
149 athletic event was recorded.

150

151 A review of the British Athletics electronic medical record was performed and, due to the potential
152 relationship with RCMg status, the presence of the following clinical conditions was recorded: a history
153 of painful Achilles or Patella tendinopathy, defined as a greater than 3 month history of Achilles or
154 Patella tendon pain that caused some modification to training; a history of bone stress injury; and
155 number of muscle injuries in the same year of the test.

156

157 Data Analysis

158 In total, 510 blood samples were obtained from athletes across 8 years (from 2010-17) and used in the
159 data analysis. The data had a hierarchically nested structure with blood samples (Level 1) nested within
160 athletes (Level 2). As a result, we constructed a series of multilevel regression models to carry out the
161 analysis using MLwiN software (version 2.34)[38]. Multilevel regression models account for this
162 hierarchical data structure by modelling separate, but related equations at the within- and between-
163 person levels. Multilevel modelling provides enormous flexibility when analysing longitudinal data, such
164 that any analysis stays faithful to the true structure of the data. In this case we labelled the beginning of
165 the study (September 2010) as zero, with each passing month labelled relative to this anchor (i.e.,

166 October 2010 = 1, November 2010 = 2, and so on). Therefore, there are no artificially created groups
167 and the data point is accurately placed in time to the nearest month.

168

169 Prior to the substantive analysis, an intercept-only model was constructed (i.e., no predictor variables
170 included) to explore the degree of variance in Mg attributable to the within- and between-athlete levels.
171 That is, what percentage of variance in Mg can be associated with fluctuations within athletes or
172 differences between athletes? Next, this baseline model was extended with the addition of a series of
173 categorical predictor variables to examine gender (Female as the reference category), ethnicity (White
174 as the reference category), type of athletic event (Power and Endurance as the reference categories,
175 respectively), history of tendon pain (No history of AT/PT as the reference category), and diagnosis of
176 Cerebral Palsy, as the largest disability group in the Paralympic program (No Cerebral Palsy as the
177 reference category) as predictors of Mg. Using continuous predictor variables, clinical history (i.e. total
178 number) of bone stress complications and muscle injuries as predictors of Mg was also assessed. The
179 model examining type of event was only conducted on Olympic athletes due to the complexity and
180 diversity of event classification in Paralympic sport. Only Olympic athletes were used for the analysis of
181 history of AT/PT due to the low incidence of these injuries in Paralympic athletes. Each variable was
182 examined in a separate model. By examining the regression coefficients and standard errors of each
183 predictor variable within these equations, we calculated the predicted Mg for each sub-population (e.g.,
184 males, Black athletes, and so on), as well as the 95% confidence intervals.

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190 Results

191 The data set comprises 510 samples taken from 192 athletes aged between 16-49 y (mean 24.2 ± 5.7 y).
192 (Table 1.)

193

194 Sixty-nine samples from 42 athletes were noted to have magnesium deficiency, diagnosed as an RCMg
195 level less than 1.19 mmol/L as predefined by the laboratory range. The average RCMg across the
196 Olympic program was 1.34 ± 0.14 mmol/l.

197

198 The results of the multilevel regression models can be seen in Table 2. In the categorical variable
199 models, the intercept refers to the predicted Mg level for the reference category (which are identified in
200 the table). The regression coefficients refer to the difference in Mg between the reference category and
201 the comparison category. In the continuous variable models (i.e., bone and muscle injuries), the
202 intercept term refers to the predicted Mg level in athletes without any history of the injury. The
203 regression coefficient reflects the predicted Mg status for every instance of the injury occurring. The
204 random effects are displayed in the table should readers wish to evaluate all parameters in the models.
205 The variance terms in the intercept-only model revealed that 60 % of the variance in Mg was
206 attributable to differences across athletes, and 40 % was attributable to fluctuations within athletes
207 across time. Both variance terms were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), justifying the use of multilevel
208 modelling. Results of the conditional regression models revealed that Mg was higher in males compared
209 to females ($b = .05$; $p = .01$). White athletes had higher Mg concentrations than Black athletes ($b = .08$; p
210 $< .001$) and Mixed-Race athletes ($b = .07$; $p = .06$). A second model, testing ethnicity with Black athletes
211 as the reference category, revealed no differences between Mixed Race and Black athletes ($b = .01$; $p =$
212 $.71$).

213

214 *Athlete Specific Observations*

215 RCM status was higher in Throwers compared to Power athletes ($b = .07$; $p = .02$), with no differences
216 observed between Endurance athletes and the other groups (Throwers: $b = .04$; $p = .21$; Power: $b = -.03$;
217 $p = .21$). Paralympic athletes with cerebral palsy had higher levels of RCMg, relative to all other athletes
218 ($b = .09$; $p < .001$)

219

220 *Clinical History*

221 The models investigating clinical history revealed that athletes with a history of tendon pain recorded
222 lower RCMg, compared to athletes without history of tendon pain ($b = -.05$; $p = .03$). Every muscle injury
223 sustained was associated with 0.01 mmol/L decreases in RCMg (95% CIs = 0.00 - 0.02, $p = .05$). Bone
224 stress injuries were not associated with RCMg status ($b = -.01$; 95% CIs = -0.04 - 0.02, $p = .48$).

225

226 The predicted Mg levels of the sub-categories of athletes and associated 95% confidence intervals based
227 on the multilevel regression equations described below (Fig. 1 and Table 2). These values account for
228 the fact that some athletes' blood was sampled more times than other athletes, thus offering
229 advantages over simple mean values.

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238 Discussion

239 This is the first study to investigate RCMg status in a large group of elite athletes and reports an average
240 RCMg status of 1.34 ± 0.14 mmol/L. The main findings are: 22% of athletes were found to have a
241 Magnesium deficiency (<1.19 mmol/l) during the study; higher levels of Magnesium in male athletes and
242 those with white skin colour and athletes with Cerebral Palsy; and an association between low RCMg
243 and a history of muscle injury or tendon pain.

244
245 Lower RCMg was associated with muscle injury rate over the course of this study. Mg deficiency has
246 been associated with disrupted neuromuscular function, through central and peripheral mechanisms
247 [5,39,40]. Energy production is dependent on cellular Mg status, as Mg has a key role in glucose
248 metabolism.[41,42] Animal models have demonstrated that Mg supplementation increases muscle
249 glucose availability and reduces lactate accumulation [43]. The accumulation of lactate, which may
250 therefore be increased in Mg deficiency, may induce muscle fatigue which is a recognised risk factor for
251 muscle injury [41,44]. Magnesium also has a key role in the regulation of cerebral glucose levels and
252 therefore suboptimal Mg levels may reduce the central coordination of complex movements that
253 require a high percentage of muscle recruitment and subsequently increase muscle injury risk in
254 sprinting [43,45]. Further work is required to explore the role of Mg in muscle injury and in exercise
255 associated muscle cramping which was beyond the scope of this study.

256
257 Magnesium status was also reported to be significantly lower in athletes with a history of achilles or
258 patella tendon pain. Magnesium is known to play an important role in chronic pain[8,9] as an antagonist
259 of the N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor, a receptor involved in the propagation of chronic pain
260 [8]. Central sensitization appears to be an important mechanism in the presence of persistent pain in
261 patients with tendinopathy [46–48]. NMDA receptors are also significantly elevated in the tendon tissue

262 of patients with chronically painful tendons [10]. Magnesium deficiency may be related to an
263 upregulation of glutamate-NMDA signalling and related to tendon pain in athletes.

264
265 It is known that Mg absorption is reduced in individuals with Vitamin D deficiency. [49] Furthermore, it is
266 commonly reported that Vitamin D deficiency is more prevalent in black athletes [50] due to reduced
267 absorption of Vitamin D in those with darker skin pigment.[51,52] Within the current study, RCMg status
268 was reported to be significantly lower in Black and Mixed-Race athletes relative to White athletes.
269 Furthermore, RCMg levels were higher in males compared with females and this pattern is also noted
270 with Vitamin D deficiency [50]. Further work into the relationship between Vitamin D and Magnesium
271 should be explored and screening of Magnesium status in athletes with low Vitamin D is advisable[53].

272
273 A few notable discipline-specific observations include RCMg levels as higher in Throws athletes
274 compared with Sprint and Jumps athletes. No differences were reported between Endurance athletes
275 and other disciplines. Future work investigating RCMg status across a wide range of athletic disciplines
276 would help to establish if RCMg status is impacted by the nature of the sporting discipline or by
277 alternative, but associated factors, such as body composition, total training load, aerobic vs anaerobic
278 metabolism or predominant muscle fibre type.

279
280 A novel finding of this study was that Mg levels were significantly higher in athletes with Cerebral Palsy
281 (CP). This has not been noted in any previous work. This may relate to the relative reduction in total
282 muscle mass and/or levels muscle contraction and activation in athletes with CP, thus decreasing Mg
283 utilisation [54]. Muscles in patients with CP are also noted to have an increase in extracellular matrix and
284 reduced contractile tissue which would potentially reduce Mg utilisation [55]. Further work in the area
285 of CP muscle physiology, particularly in regard to athletic performance is required.

286
287 Practical dietary strategies to help athletes increase intakes of Mg should be employed before
288 supplementation is considered. Dietary sources of Mg can be found in foods such as; nuts, seeds, green
289 leafy vegetables, fish, beans and wholegrains. The timing of ingestion of Magnesium-rich foods may be
290 an important factor for athletes to consider. It is reported that plasma Mg status transiently decreases
291 during exercise, before returning to baseline values within 2.5 h of exercise cessation [30]. Unpublished
292 preliminary data from our laboratory has demonstrated that pre-loading athletes with 250 mg Mg 1 h
293 prior to 30 min treadmill running at 75 % VO_{2max} prevented a fall in plasma Mg status. The repeated
294 fluctuations in plasma Mg status caused by the rigorous training regimes of elite athletes may attenuate
295 the risk of chronically low RCMg status.

296
297 However, there are some limitations of the study of 192 elite track and field athletes over eight years.
298 While all athletes had the support of the team nutritionist, regular, consistent dietary analyses were not
299 performed on all athletes. This may limit conclusions with respect to the impact of exercise type or
300 other variables on Mg status, as Mg intake or supplementation was not controlled. While athletes were
301 recommended to avoid heavy training prior to their blood tests, the pre-test conditions were not
302 carefully controlled. While all athletes were in training, overall load, hydration status, nutritional intake
303 or specific training sessions were not standardised prior to each screen which may limit conclusions,
304 although this is the nature of working with individual elite athletes. However, the large number of
305 samples; the use of RCMg for analysis, which is more stable and less prone to diurnal fluctuation than
306 plasma or serum Mg; and the longevity of the study adds support to the validity of the findings. In
307 addition, this is an elite athlete group which will assist clinicians in the practical application of this study
308 to other athlete groups.

309

310 This study is the first to report the prevalence of Mg deficiency in a large cohort of elite athletes. The
311 observed associations between Mg status and soft-tissue related issues suggest that the monitoring of
312 Mg status and the treatment of Mg insufficiency to improve athlete health and performance should
313 form part of regular sports nutrition and medicine screening. Due to a paucity of data within athletic
314 populations, normal ranges for RCMg status and considerations around athlete-specific sufficiency,
315 insufficiency and deficiency guidelines are yet to be established. Based on the findings of this study,
316 predicted RCMg status and the potential importance of RCMg and until further work is performed, the
317 authors suggest the following RCMg guidelines for clinicians working with elite athletes; Optimal:
318 >1.34mmol/l, Suboptimal:1.30-1.34mmol/l; Insufficient: 1.25-1.30mmol/L and Deficient: <1.25mmol/l.
319 Magnesium is an important, and potentially undervalued, mineral in athletic performance and further
320 work is required to understand the impact of Mg status and supplementation in this population with
321 respect to health, injury and performance.

322

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328 the final version.

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485 Table 1: Sample size for each sub-group of athletes

Characteristic:		Number of athletes
Gender	Male	104
	Female	88
Ethnicity	White	113
	Black	51
	Mixed Race	13
	Unreported	15
Discipline:		
Olympic	Sprint/Power	85

	Endurance	39
	Throws	19
Paralympic Classification	Cerebral Palsy	25
	Spinal Injury	12
	Amputation	9
	Other	3
Clinical History:		
	Tendon Pain	52
	Bone Stress Injury	12
	Muscle Injury	84

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488 Table 2: Multilevel Regression Models Examining Predictors of Mg Status

	Multilevel regression model (Coefficients are followed by standard errors are parentheses)							
Predictor Variable	Intercept Only	Gender	Ethnicity	Ethnicity 2	Type of Event	Type of Event 2	Muscle Injury	Bone Injury
Fixed Effects								
Intercept	1.36(.01)	1.33(.01)	1.38(.01)	1.30(.02)	1.32(.02)	1.35(.02)	1.37(.01)	1.36(.01)
Gender (Female as ref category)		.05(.02)						
Black Ethnicity (White as ref category)			-.08(.02)					
Mixed Race Ethnicity (White as ref category)			-.07(.04)					

White Ethnicity (Black as ref category)				.08(.02)				
Mixed Race Ethnicity (Black as ref category)				.01(.04)				
Endurance Event (Power events as ref category)					.03(.02)			
Throws Event (Power events as ref category)					.07(.03)			
Power Event (Endurance events as ref category)						-.03(.02)		
Throws Event (Endurance events as ref category)						.04(.03)		
Number of muscle injuries							-.01(.005)	
Number of bone injuries								-.01(.005)
Random Effects								
Intercept	.012(.002)	.011(.002)	.010(.002)	.010(.002)	.010(.002)	.010(.002)	.011(.002)	.012(.002)
Level 1 error	.008(.001)	.008(.001)	.008(.001)	.008(.001)	.008(.001)	.008(.001)	.008(.001)	.008(.001)

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491 Table 3: Regression-based predicted RCMg levels and 95% confidence intervals (*statistically significant

492 differences between categories $p < .05$).

	Regression-based predicted Mg (mmol/L)	95% confidence intervals
<i>Whole Sample</i>	1.36	1.34 – 1.38
<i>Gender</i>		

Males	1.38*	1.36 – 1.40
Females	1.33	1.30 – 1.36
<i>Ethnicity</i>		
White	1.38*	1.36 – 1.40
Black	1.30	1.27 – 1.34
Mixed Race	1.32	1.25 – 1.38
<i>Event Category</i>		
Throwers	1.39*	1.33 – 1.45
Power	1.32	1.29 – 1.35
Endurance	1.35	1.31 – 1.39
<i>Cerebral Palsy</i>		
Yes	1.44*	1.39 – 1.49
No	1.35	1.33 – 1.37
<i>Tendon Pain History</i>		
Yes	1.31*	1.27 – 1.34
No	1.35	1.33 – 1.38

Fig. 1 Mean and 95% confidence levels for RCMg for subgroups (*p<0.05)

