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Influence of peak menstrual cycle hormonal changes on restoration of fluid balance after induced dehydration.

Paola Rodriguez-Giustiniani, Stuart D.R. Galloway

Physiology, Exercise and Nutrition Research Group, Faculty of Health Sciences and Sport University of Stirling, U.K.

Running head: Menstrual cycle and rehydration after exercise.

Corresponding author:

Dr Stuart Galloway

Physiology, Exercise and Nutrition Research Group

Faculty of Health Sciences and Sport

University of Stirling

Stirling

FK9 4LA

Telephone: +44 (0) 1786 466494

E-mail: s.d.r.galloway@stir.ac.uk

1 **Abstract**

2 The present study examined the impact of hormonal differences between late follicular (LF) and mid-
3 luteal (ML) phases on restoration of fluid balance following dehydration. Ten eumenorreheic female
4 participants were dehydrated by 2% of their body mass through overnight fluid restriction followed
5 by exercise-heat stress. Trials were undertaken during the LF (between day 10 and 13 of the menstrual
6 cycle) and ML phases (between day 18 and 23 of the menstrual cycle) with one phase repeated to
7 assess reliability of observations. Following dehydration, participants ingested a volume equivalent
8 to 100% of mass loss of a commercially available sports drink in 4 equal volumes over 30 minutes.
9 Mean serum values for steroid hormones during the ML (estradiol (E₂):92±11pg/mL;
10 progesterone:19±4ng/mL) and LF (estradiol (E₂):232±64pg/mL; progesterone:3±2ng/mL) were
11 significantly different between phases. Urine tests confirmed no luteinizing hormone surge evident
12 during LF trials. There was no effect of menstrual cycle phase on cumulative urine volume during the
13 3-h rehydration period (ML: 630(197-935) mL; LF: 649(180-845) mL) with percentage of fluid
14 retained being 47(33-85)% on ML and 46(37-89)% on LF, $p=0.29$). There was no association
15 between the progesterone:estradiol ratio and fluid retained in either phase. Net fluid balance, urine
16 osmolality, and thirst intensity were not different between phases. No differences in sodium (ML: -
17 61(-36-(-131)) mmol; LF: -73(-5-(-118)) mmol; $p=0.45$) or potassium (ML: -36(-11-(-80)) mmol;
18 LF: -30 (-19-(-89)) mmol; $p=0.96$) balance were observed. Fluid replacement after dehydration does
19 not appear to be affected by normal hormonal fluctuations during the menstrual cycle in
20 eumenorreheic young women.

21 Key words: electrolytes; rehydration; exercise; heat stress; female

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24

25 **Introduction**

26 Maintenance of fluid balance is a major consideration for recreational exercisers and athletes
27 (Maughan et al. 1997). Since hypohydration, defined as the the uncompensated loss of body water, is
28 known to influence exercise performance and health (Evans et al. 2017) it is recommended to start
29 exercise in a euhydrated state, and to replace lost fluids on cessation of exercise, however, most of
30 the research on this field has been done in males due to uncertainty about inclusion of females in
31 relation to menstrual cycle phase effects on fluid balance. Many factors affect fluid balance and
32 rehydration such as drink composition and volume (Shirreffs and Maughan 2000), but also it is
33 believed that hormonal changes associated with the menstrual cycle can influence fluid retention
34 (Fortney 1996).

35 Although fluid replacement after dehydration has been extensively studied in males, there have been
36 few attempts to address the influence of different levels of endogenous, circulating steroid hormones
37 on this topic in women. Key hormones such as progesterone and oestrogens could exert a profound
38 control over the regulation of fluid and electrolyte balance (Stachenfeld, 2009; Stachenfeld 2008;
39 Spruce et al. 1985; Vokes et al. 1988) but to date there is limited data examining these responses.
40 Since oestrogens promote fluid retention while progesterone has an opposite action, it has been
41 hypothesized that fluid and electrolyte balance in women may be affected by fluctuations of these
42 steroid hormones during the normal menstrual cycle phases (Stachenfeld, 2008). Indeed, differences
43 in urine volume have been reported in 24-hour collections between menstrual cycle phases, in spite
44 of constant fluid intake (Claybaugh et al. 2000; Fong and Kretsch 1993). However, these observations
45 raise the question of whether there is an acute effect of endogenous hormone status on fluid balance
46 (Ormerod, 2011).

47 Yasuda et al. (2013) evaluated the effects of menstrual cycle phase on hydration status following

48 exercise in nine eumenorrhic female basketball players. The hydration status in the mid-follicular
49 phase was similar to that of the mid-luteal phase. Similarly, the acute restoration of fluid balance after
50 exercise-induced hypohydration was unaffected between mid-follicular and mid-luteal and late-luteal
51 phases of the menstrual cycle in five healthy untrained eumenorrhic young women (Maughan et al.
52 1996). These findings suggest that post-exercise hydration/rehydration does not appear to be directly
53 affected by the menstrual cycle hormonal fluctuations. However, neither of these previous studies
54 measured hormone concentrations to verify phases, and to determine the magnitude of differences in
55 the hormonal milieu. This omission could be important as the balance between the effects of
56 oestrogens and those of progesterone at the mid-luteal or late-luteal versus the mid-follicular phase
57 does not maximise the potential impact upon fluid balance / rehydration. Fluid retention is thought to
58 occur near ovulation during the peak oestrogen surge and just before the onset of menses at a time
59 when progesterone concentration declines (late-follicular phase). High progesterone during the mid-
60 luteal phase would oppose any potential oestrogen action on fluid retention (Fortney, 1996)
61 suggesting that the progesterone:oestradiol ratio may play a role in influencing fluid retention.
62 Therefore, to fully evaluate any potential menstrual cycle phase effects it seems necessary to compare
63 restoration of fluid balance during the late follicular versus the mid-luteal phase and to include
64 hormonal validation. Thus, the aim of the present study was to determine whether any differences in
65 restoration of fluid balance and fluid retention occurred between late follicular and mid-luteal phases,
66 and to document any association between fluid retention and the progesterone:oestradiol ratio.

67

68 **Methods**

69 Ten healthy female volunteers were recruited to complete this investigation. Participants were able
70 to take part if they were between 18 to 40 years old, had regular menstrual cycles (25-32 d), were not
71 using hormonal contraceptive methods, and were physically active on a recreational basis (exercised
72 3-5 times per week for 60 minutes or more) but none engaged in any form of systematic training at

73 the time of the study (age: 25 (18-33) years, body mass: 63.1 ± 8.6 kg, stature: 167.6 ± 7.1 cm, menstrual
74 cycle length: 28.5 ± 1.6 days, cycling $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$: 44.4 ± 4.7 ml/kg/min). In order to confirm the regularity
75 and length of the menstrual cycle, all participants tracked their menstrual cycle over three cycles before
76 undertaking the experimental trials. The experimental procedures were approved by the local
77 Research Ethics Committee and all the participants were informed of the nature of the investigation
78 before they gave their written consent to participate.

79 *Preliminary testing*

80 As a preliminary procedure, $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ was determined during an incremental exercise test on a cycle
81 ergometer (participants began at 20W and the load was increased by 20W every 3 minutes until
82 volitional fatigue) in order to characterise the participants and to establish the workload at which each
83 individual exercised during the exercise-heat stress experimental trials (moderate intensity, calculated
84 to be approximately 60% of $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ for each subject).

85 *Experimental Trials*

86 Each individual participated in three experimental trials, the first was completed either during the late
87 follicular (LF) phase (between day 10 and 13 of the menstrual cycle), or in the mid-luteal (ML) phase
88 (between day 18 and 23 of the menstrual cycle), a second trial was conducted in the opposite phase,
89 and a third trial was a repeat of either the ML or LF trial, whichever was the first trial undertaken.
90 Five participants started with and repeated the LF trial with the remaining 5 starting with and
91 repeating the ML trial. In order to assess the stability of the participants' body mass before each trial,
92 they were provided with a set of scales to record their nude body mass over the three days preceding
93 each trial. The participants were also instructed to record their diet (food and fluid) and physical
94 activity over the 24-h preceding the first trial, and to replicate those patterns for subsequent trials. No
95 instructions were given to individuals as to what they could or could not eat during this period with
96 the exception of abstaining from alcohol.

97 Participants were asked to attend the laboratory at 17:30 the evening before the exercise-induced
98 dehydration session. They were instructed to drink 500 mL of water 2-h before arriving at the
99 laboratory to ensure they were euhydrated. Upon arrival, participants emptied their bladder and
100 provided a urine sample to assess osmolality. Subsequently, euhydrated nude body mass was
101 measured. A single 5-mL blood sample was collected via venepuncture from an antecubital vein, and
102 blood was dispensed into a serum tube for subsequent analysis of osmolality and hormones to verify
103 hydration status and menstrual cycle phase. Additionally, thirst intensity was subjectively assessed
104 through a 100-mm Visual Analogue Scale (VAS). Finally, participants were instructed to stop the
105 ingestion of foods and fluids at 20:00 that evening in order to begin the dehydration process. After
106 overnight dehydration and fasting, participants arrived at the laboratory at 08:00. They were first
107 asked to empty their bladder and provide a urine sample. Nude body mass was measured and the body
108 mass loss required to attain a 2% loss in relation to euhydrated nude body mass, measured the evening
109 before, was calculated. Also, thirst intensity was assessed before commencing the exercise-heat stress
110 induced dehydration protocol. A schematic of the study protocol can be found in Figure 1. When
111 participants arrived for the LF phase trial, part of the urine collected was assessed using a LH
112 (Luteinising Hormone) urine ovulation test kit (One Test®) in order to ensure that ovulation had not
113 yet occurred. Prior to exercise, the skin of the participants' right mid-thigh area was cleaned with
114 alcohol, rinsed with deionized water and then dried with paper towel in preparation for sweat
115 absorbent pad (3M™) application (as described by Patterson et al, 2000) for subsequent measurement
116 of sweat electrolyte losses (Na^+ and K^+) during exercise.

117 Participants exercised on a cycle ergometer in a warm environment (28 °C, relative humidity 30%) at
118 moderate intensity (~60% of $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$). Nude body mass was measured after 30-min of continuous
119 exercise. Individuals then continued exercising for periods of 10-min, interspersed by short rest
120 periods during which the participants towelled dry and nude body mass was recorded, to determine
121 body mass loss, and allow for calculation of sweat rate. Once 2% of body mass loss was achieved the

122 exercise was stopped. The sweat patch was removed using clean forceps and placed in a sterile plastic
123 filter tube. Participants then left the warm environment and sat quietly for a 15-min cool-down period
124 and were given a further 15-min to shower. Subsequently, participants emptied their bladder into a
125 urine container. Nude body mass was then measured in order to obtain the total body mass loss
126 through dehydration, and thirst intensity was recorded.

127 The rehydration process then began in which a commercially available sports drink (6.4%
128 carbohydrates, 25 mmol/L Na⁺, 3.5 mmol/L K⁺) was provided in a volume equivalent to 100% of
129 body mass loss. The total volume was divided into four equal aliquots, each of which was consumed
130 over a 7.5-min period to complete a 30-min drinking period. Immediately following the drinking
131 period, thirst intensity was assessed and the participants were asked to provide a urine sample. Further
132 urine samples were collected at 1, 2 and 3 h after the end of the rehydration period. For each urine
133 sample, the participants emptied their bladder as completely as possible and the entire volume was
134 collected. Nude body mass was measured 3-h after the rehydration period and thirst intensity was
135 assessed for the last time.

136 *Analytical procedures / calculations*

137 Whole blood in the serum tube was allowed to clot before centrifugation (15-min.; 4°C; 4000 X g).
138 Part of the serum was dispensed into eppendorf tubes and stored at -70°C for the subsequent
139 measurement of estradiol (E2) and progesterone using commercially available enzyme-linked
140 immunosorbent assays (ELISA). Progesterone:estradiol ratio was then calculated (Elgindy, 2011).
141 The remaining serum was stored in a microcentrifuge tube at 4 °C for measurement of osmolality
142 within 1-2 days. Assays were performed according to manufacturer recommendations to determine
143 serum concentration of estradiol (E2) (Abcam - ab108649) and progesterone (Abcam –
144 ab108654). Sweat was extracted from the absorbent pad through centrifugation (15-min.; 4°C; 4000
145 X g). The sweat obtained was placed into a microcentrifuge tube and stored at 4 °C for subsequent
146 electrolyte analyses.

147 Urine samples obtained during the study were collected in a 1-L plastic container. The total mass of
148 the sample in the container (to the nearest 0.1 g) was assessed to determine urine volume. A 5-mL
149 aliquot was then dispensed into a plain screw-capped tube. Urine samples were stored at 4 °C prior to
150 analysis of osmolality, sodium and potassium concentration. Duplicate measurements of serum and
151 urine osmolality were made using the freezing point depression method (Löser Micro-Digital
152 Osmometer M15). Sodium and potassium of urine, sweat and drink samples were determined in
153 duplicate by flame photometry (Jenway PFP7 Flame Photometer).

154 Net fluid balance was calculated from body mass loss, the volume of fluid ingested, and the volume
155 of urine excreted. Electrolyte (Na⁺ and K⁺) balance was determined from ingested electrolytes, sweat
156 losses, and urine losses.

157 *Statistical analyses*

158 Statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics statistical software package version
159 23 (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA). Data are presented as means±SD, or median (range) as
160 appropriate following Shapiro-Wilks analysis for normality of distribution. 95% confidence intervals
161 for mean differences are presented where possible. To identify differences in normally distributed
162 results, two-way (time-by-phase) repeated measures ANOVA were employed, and paired t-tests,
163 where appropriate. For non-parametric analysis Wilcoxon tests were used instead of t-tests. The effect
164 size based on using Cohen's d with threshold values for trivial, small, moderate, large, very large, and extremely
165 large effects set at <0.2, 0.2, 0.6, 1.2, 2.0, and 4.0 (Hopkins et al 2009) was reported along with a written
166 description for the main outcome (percentage of fluid retained). Test re-test reliability for duplicate trials
167 was assessed through Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) and coefficient of variation (CV). The
168 Associations between progesterone and estradiol ratios and fluid retention were investigated through
169 Pearson's correlation. For the purpose of hypothesis testing, the 95% level of confidence was
170 predetermined as the minimum criterion to denote a statistical difference ($p < 0.05$).

171 **Results**

172 Body mass was stable over the three days preceding the trials (day 1: 63.1±8.1 kg, day 2: 63.2±8.2
173 kg, day 3: 63.2±8.4 kg). The evening euhydrated body mass measurements did not differ between
174 menstrual cycle phases (ML:63.2±8.4 kg; LF:63.4±8.2 kg). There were no differences overnight fluid
175 losses (ML: 610±228mL; LF: 650±222mL), degree of dehydration achieved following exercise heat
176 stress (ML: 2.0±0.1%; LF: 2.0±0.1%), or estimated sweat rate during exercise (ML: 28±8mL/min;
177 LF: 28±6mL/min).

178 *Cumulative urine volume, net fluid balance, percentafe of fluid retained*

179 There was no effect of menstrual cycle phase on the urine volume excreted over the 3-h follow-up
180 period after rehydration ($p=0.33$; Figure 2A) or on net fluid balance ($p=0.33$) (Figure 2B). The
181 percentage of the ingested fluid which was retained at the end of the 3-h follow-up period after
182 rehydration was 47(33-85)% and 46(37-89)% in the ML and LF trials, respectively ($p=0.29$). The
183 mean difference (95% CI) in percentage of fluid retained between the ML and LF trials was +3.5(-
184 16.2, +23.2)% with an effect size (Cohen's d) of 0.1 (trivial effec).

185 *Electrolyte balance, urine osmolality and thirst*

186 There was no difference in sodium ($p=0.45$) or potassium ($p=0.96$) balance between the ML and LF
187 trials (Figure 3). The mean difference (95% CI) in sodium between the ML and LF trials was +6.9 (-
188 28.1, -41.8) mmol. The mean difference (95% CI) in percentage of fluid retained between the ML
189 and LF trials was +0.7 (-18.4, +19.8) mmol. There was no effect of menstrual cycle phase on urine
190 osmolality ($p=0.37$) (Figure 4A). Thirst intensity was not affected by menstrual cycle phase ($p=0.40$;
191 Figure 4B).

192 *Verification of phase, hormonal milieu, and reliability of response*

193 Mean and individual values for estradiol and progesterone are shown in Figure 5. These data confirm
194 that participants were in LF and ML phases on trial days. The absence of detection of an LH surge
195 also confirmed that the LF trial occurred prior to ovulation when oestrogen remains high and
196 progesterone is low. Despite finding significant differences ($p<0.05$) in hormone concentration
197 (estradiol, progesterone) between phases there were no differences in the percentage of fluid retained.
198 The progesterone:estradiol ratio in the ML phase (207 ± 37) was higher than in the LF phase (14 ± 11),
199 indicating the expected estradiol dominance during the LF phase. However, no association between
200 progesterone:estradiol ratio and percentage of fluid retained was observed in either the ML ($r=0.41$,
201 $p=0.91$) or the LF ($r=-0.39$, $p=0.26$) phase.

202 Test re-test reliability data between duplicate trials on the ML and LF phases is shown in Table 1.
203 These data indicate that the key outcome measures have good test–retest reliability based on ICC,
204 and variation around the mean is acceptable with CV% of 9-11%.

205 **Discussion**

206 To our knowledge, this is the first study that has evaluated the effect of the LF vs. ML phases of the
207 menstrual cycle on fluid and electrolyte restoration after induced dehydration. The LF phase is
208 characterised by peak levels of oestrogen and low progesterone versus the ML phase where
209 progesterone and oestrogen are both high. Previous studies reporting no effect of menstrual cycle
210 phase on body fluid balance (Maughan et al. 1996, Yasuda et al. 2013) may have failed to detect
211 differences due to phase selection in which oestrogen was not high, or its actions were
212 counterbalanced by high progesterone (Fortney 1996). Furthermore, the absence of hormonal
213 verification of phase in these previous studies did not allow examination of the potential impact of
214 progesterone to estradiol ratio on fluid retention. Despite choosing more extreme hormonal phase
215 differences in the present study we did not observe any impact of LF vs ML phase upon fluid balance
216 restoration.

217 The absence of any phase difference in restoration of fluid balance is consistent with the observations
218 of Maughan et al. (1996), and adds to the small body of evidence that acute restoration of fluid balance
219 between menstrual cycle phases is not different. Previous work has suggested a tendency toward
220 significant free water retention during periods of high oestrogen (Ormerod 2011; Stachenfeld 2008;
221 Stachenfeld et al. 1999; Vokes et al. 1988; Spruce et al. 1985; Forsling et al. 1981). It has been
222 suggested that progesterone may have opposing actions in the regulation of fluid balance during the
223 menstrual cycle (Calzone et al. 2001; Fortney 1996). However, in assessing these different influences
224 of the hormonal milieu, our data suggest that within the range of hormone responses observed in the
225 present study there is no impact upon short term fluid balance. The lack of effects on cumulative urine
226 output, net fluid balance, percentage of fluid retained, electrolyte balance, urine osmolality, or thirst
227 intensity between phases provides robust evidence for a lack of menstrual cycle phase effects.

228 It is worth noting that oral contraceptives alter the naturally occurring ovarian cycle by changing the
229 internal hormonal milieu (Elliot-Sale and Hicks 2018), this altered status reflects a significant down
230 regulation of endogenous sex hormones thereby negating the fluctuations in hormone concentration
231 seen in eumenorrhic females (Elliot-Sale et al. 2013). Stachenfeld et al. (1999) investigated the
232 oestrogen effects on body fluid regulation, dehydration, and rehydration through the administration
233 of oral contraceptives. These authors reported that there was an osmotically induced antidiuretic
234 hormone (ADH) secretion and thirst stimulation during dehydration, but there were no changes in
235 body fluid regulation during dehydration or subsequent *ad libitum* rehydration. Although their study
236 indicated a role of oestrogens in the osmotic regulation of ADH their oral contraceptive doses
237 delivered a much higher oestradiol concentration than endogenously produced oestrogens at any time
238 point during the menstrual cycle, and they also contained progestins.

239 To better isolate the effects of either oestradiol or progesterone on fluid regulatory systems,
240 Stachenfeld (2008) subsequently utilised a gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) agonist or
241 antagonist to suppress sex hormones, and then administered them to attain levels similar to those

242 occurring over a normal menstrual cycle in young women. Even though oestradiol was found once
243 again to alter the threshold of osmotically induced ADH release and thirst onset, as well as producing
244 alterations in the sodium-regulating hormones, water and sodium regulation seemed only minimally
245 affected by estradiol administration (Stachenfeld and Keefe 2002). These data combined with those
246 from the present study suggest that while oestrogen has primary effects on some aspects of body fluid
247 regulation, it has no effect on overall regulation of fluid balance after induced dehydration. In
248 addition, progesterone does not have a major effect on osmotic regulation of ADH, thirst (Calzone et
249 al. 2001; Vokes et al. 1988; Stachenfeld et al. 1999; Stachenfeld and Keefe 2002; Stachenfeld 2008)
250 or fluid balance. These findings likely explain the lack of difference in fluid retention during the LF
251 compared to the ML phases in the present study.

252 Since sodium is the major ion in the extracellular fluid, it is intuitive that sodium losses should be
253 replaced if plasma volume is to be maintained during exercise or restored after exercise (Shirreffs et
254 al. 2004), thus it is important to consider sodium balance when assessing hydration status. Stachenfeld
255 et al. (1999, 2002) have reported lower sodium excretion during the luteal phase of the menstrual
256 cycle, however, these studies have not assessed sodium balance and therefore the outcomes relating
257 to sodium excretion could be due to differences in intake. In the present study, we did not observe
258 differences in net sodium balance between the menstrual cycle phases evaluated.

259 Evidence suggests that when the sodium content of the ingested beverage is low (<23 mmol/L) a large
260 urinary excretion is stimulated if a large volume of fluid is consumed. However, with the ingestion
261 of a large volume of a high sodium beverage (61 mmol/L) a larger proportion of fluid is retained,
262 resulting in a better net fluid balance (Shirreffs et al. 1996). We used a commercially available sports
263 drink that had a relatively low sodium (25 mmol/L) content which could add water in excess of solute
264 to the blood and consequently increase blood volume and lower osmolality (Maughan and Leiper,
265 1995). These two effects suppress the release of ADH and consequently urine output is stimulated
266 (Maughan et al 1996). The fraction of the ingested fluid retained in this study was comparable to that

267 found in a previous studies (Maughan et al. 1996) where the participants ingested a beverage with a
268 similar sodium content. It could be proposed that by increasing the sodium concentration of the
269 beverage a greater proportion of the ingested fluid would be retained. However, as highlighted by
270 Maughan et al. (1996) the effect of the composition of the ingested fluid on fractional retention is
271 likely far greater than any variations across the menstrual cycle.

272 Although it has been reported that greater water retention could be induced by oestrogen dominance
273 (Stachenfeld, 2009), the present data demonstrate that during the LF phase (oestrogen dominance)
274 there was no difference in fluid retention during rehydration compared with ML. Furthermore, no
275 association between the progesterone:estradiol ratio and fluid retention was observed indicating that
276 within the range of hormone values obtained in the present study there was no relationship with fluid
277 retention. Nevertheless, our study did not discriminate between women experiencing pre-menstrual
278 water retention and/or tendency to present pre-menstrual syndrome; both of these conditions could
279 have an effect on fluid retention due to alterations on the progesterone:estradiol ratio. (Bäckstrom et
280 al. 1976).

281 In conclusion, this study provides further robust evidence suggesting that restoration of fluid and
282 electrolyte balance after dehydration is not affected by the normal menstrual cycle in healthy active
283 eumenorrhic young women. Concerns over the inclusion of females in fluid balance studies due to
284 the potential effects of menstrual cycle hormonal fluctuations on fluid retention appear unwarranted.
285 However, since many active female individuals and athletes can present with amenorrhoea or
286 oligomenorrhoea due to disturbances in hormonal status, the responses of those individuals may be
287 different (Baker, 1981). Therefore, studies on rehydration and fluid balance in women who experience
288 disturbances of their menstrual cycles or those taking different kinds of hormonal contraceptives are
289 still needed in the literature. Nevertheless, from a practical perspective it seems there is no reason to
290 exclude healthy active eumenorrhic young women, alongside males, when conducting acute fluid
291 balance studies.

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373 Table 1. Test-retest reliability for duplicate trials performed during ML (n=5) and LF (n=5) phases.

Outcome	ML		LF	
	<i>CV (%)</i>	<i>ICC (CI)</i>	<i>CV (%)</i>	<i>ICC (CI)</i>
Cumulative urine output	9.1	0.9 (0.6,0.9)	7.3	0.9 (0.7,0.9)
Net fluid balance	9.1	0.9 (0.6,0.9)	7.3	0.9 (0.7,0.9)
Percentage of fluid retained	11.2	0.8 (0.2,0.9)	8.1	0.8 (0.1, 0.9)

374 ML: Mid-Luteal. LF: Late Follicular. CV: Coefficient of Variation. ICC: Intraclass Correlation

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383 **Figure Legends**

384 **Figure 1.** Schematic of the study protocol.

385 **Figure 2.** Cumulative Urine Output (A) at each time point in the follow-up period after rehydration
386 on trials conducted in the mid-luteal (ML) and late follicular (LF) phases of the menstrual cycle; and
387 Net Fluid Balance (B) calculated from the volume of sweat loss, fluid ingested and urine output at
388 different times points (EU: euhydrated, OD: after overnight dehydration, EID: following exercise-
389 induced dehydration) during the trials conducted in the mid-luteal (ML) and late follicular (LF) phases
390 of the menstrual cycle. All values are mean±SD. No differences were observed between trials.

391 **Figure 3.** Electrolyte Balance calculated from the electrolyte content in the sports drink ingested and
392 the electrolytes lost in sweat and urine during the protocol on the trials conducted in the mid-luteal
393 (ML) and late follicular (LF). All values are mean±SD with individual data points shown. No
394 differences were observed between trials.

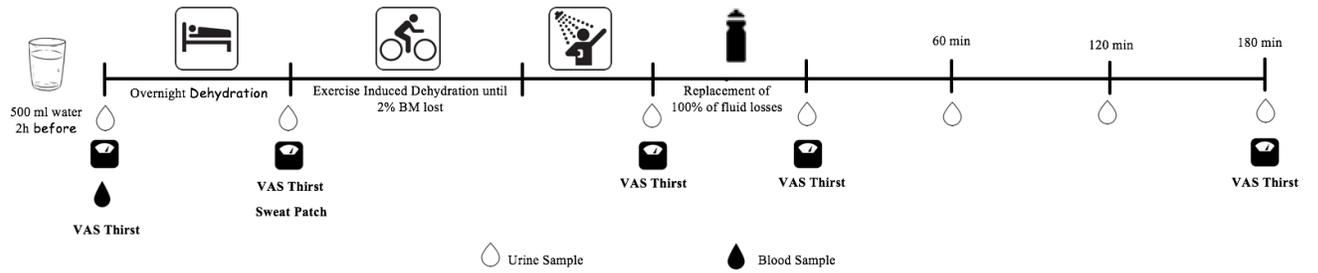
395 **Figure 4.** Urine Osmolality (A) at different time points (EU: euhydrated, OD: after overnight
396 dehydration, EID: following exercise-induced dehydration) over the trials conducted in the mid-luteal
397 (ML) and late follicular (LF) phases of the menstrual cycle ; and VAS Thirst Intensity (B) at different
398 time points (EU: euhydrated, OD: after overnight dehydration, EID: following exercise-induced
399 dehydration) over the trials conducted in the mid-luteal (ML) and late follicular (LF) phases of the
400 menstrual cycle. All values are mean±SD. No differences were observed between trials.

401 **Figure 5.** Serum estradiol E₂ (pg/mL) (A) and progesterone (ng/mL) (B) values during the trials
402 conducted in the mid-luteal (ML) and late follicular (LF) phases of the menstrual cycle. All values
403 are mean±SD with individual data points shown. Trials were significantly different for both
404 hormones.* indicates difference between trials.

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406 **Figure 1**

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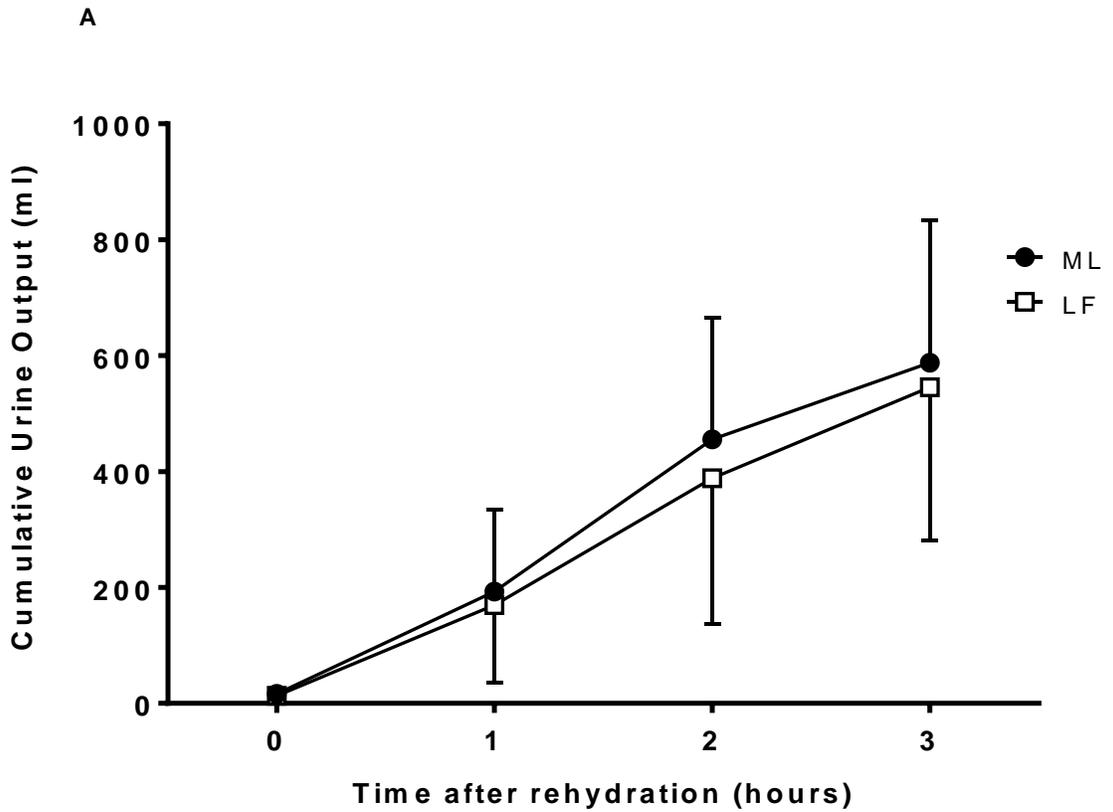
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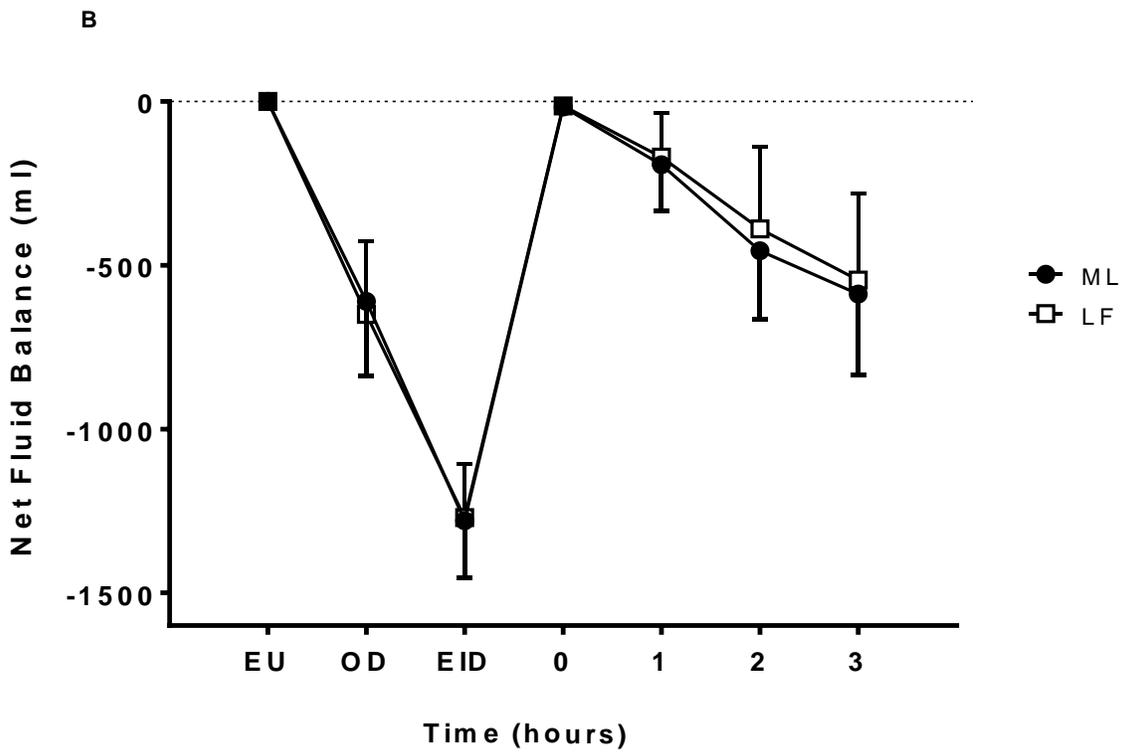
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422 **Figure 2**



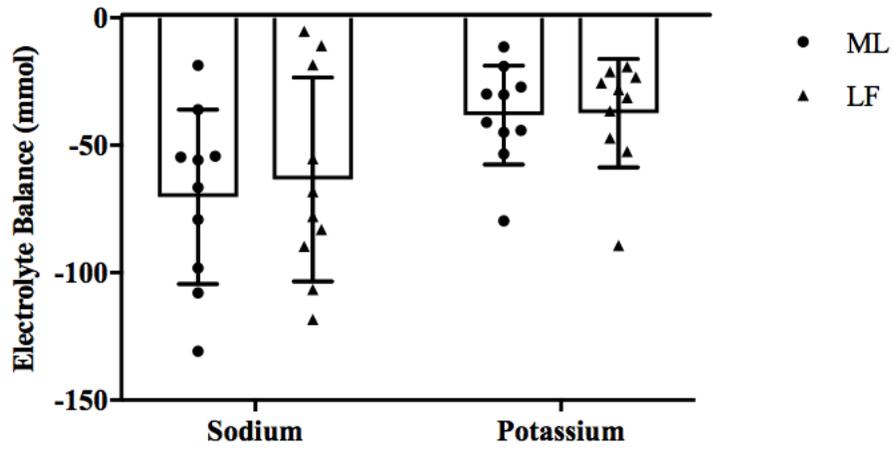
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426 **Figure 3**



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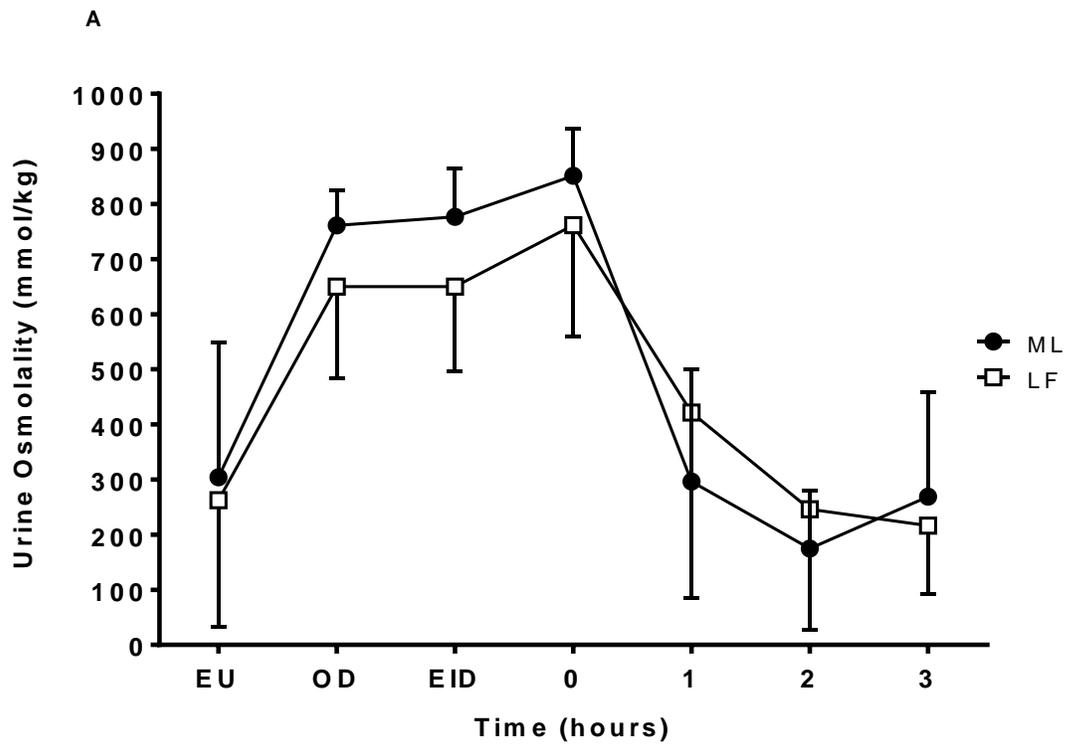
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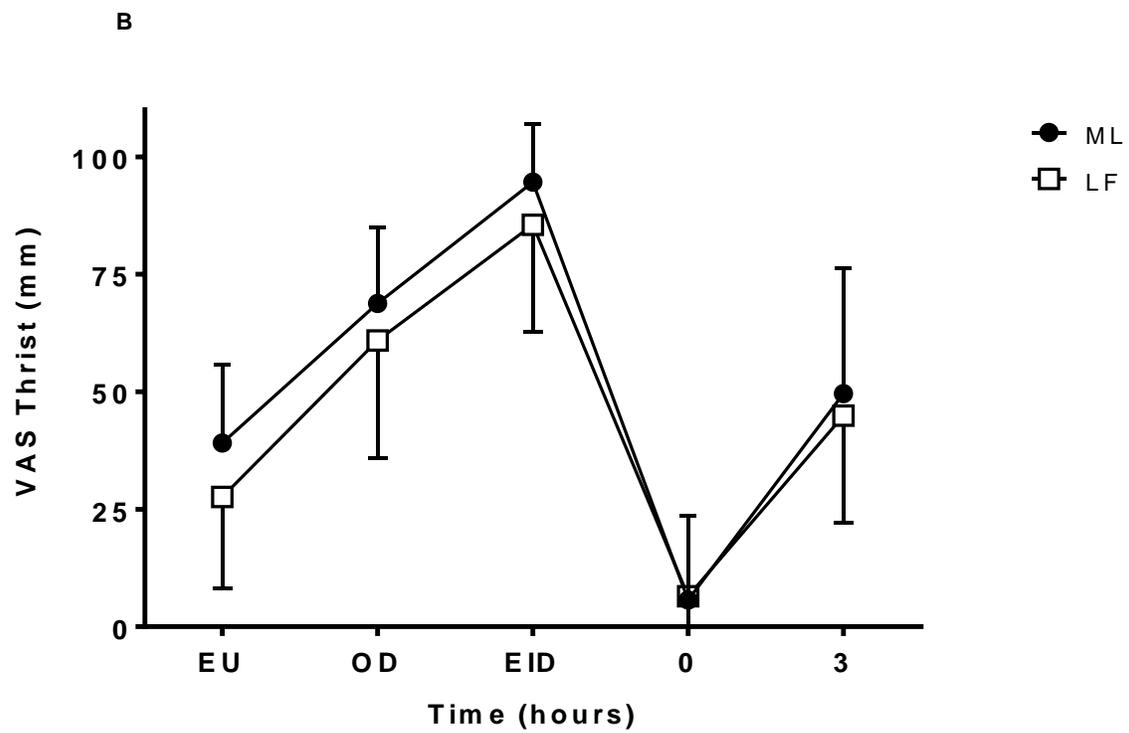
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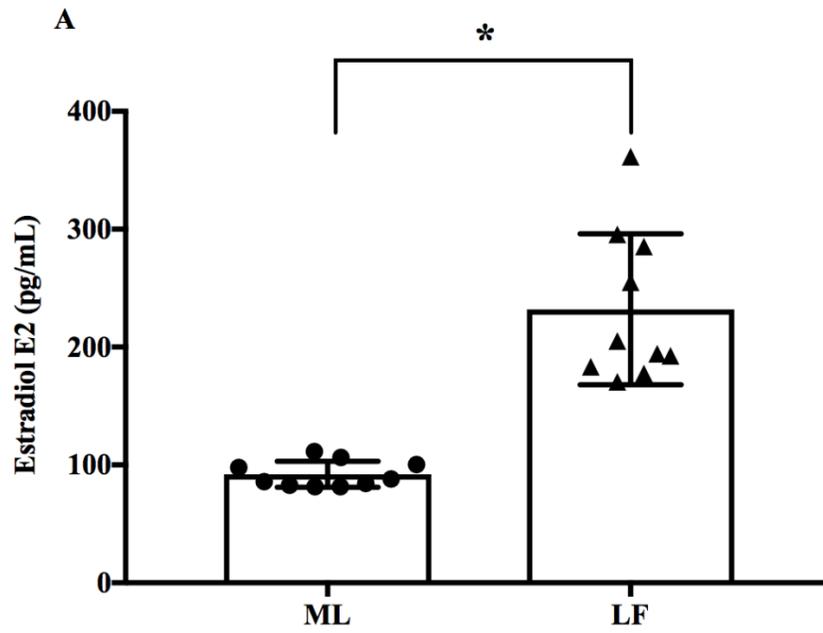
442 **Figure 4**



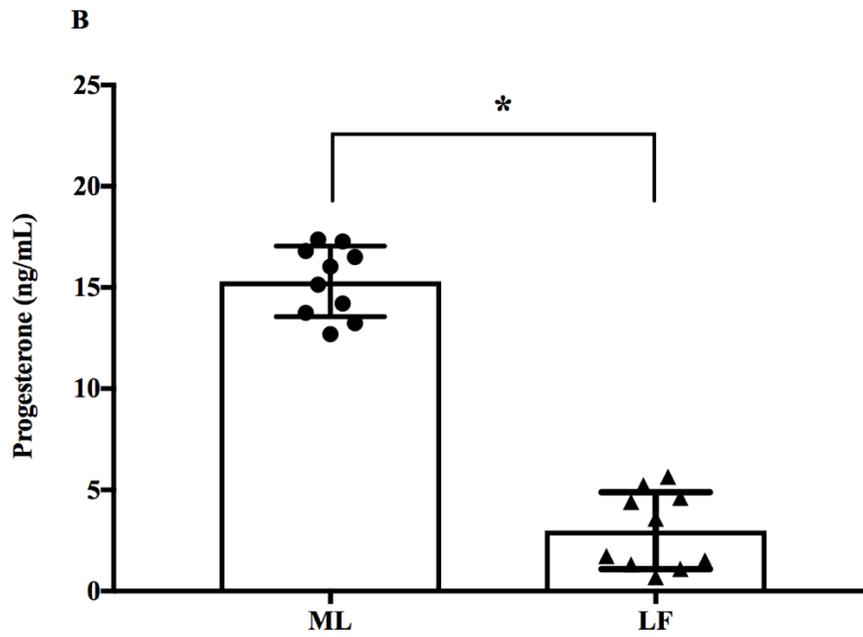
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ML: Midluteal
LF: Late Follicular



ML: Midluteal
LF: Late Follicular