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Tomlinson, D, Erskine, RM, Morse, C and Onambélé, G Adiposity, BMI, FMI and the ageing bone: their singular and combined roles linked to physical activity and diet. Nutrients. ISSN 2072-6643 (Accepted)

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1 Article

2 Adiposity, BMI, FMI and the ageing bone: their 3 singular and combined roles linked to physical 4 activity and diet

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11 Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date

12 **Abstract:** This study took a multi-analytical approach including group differences, correlations and
13 unit-weighted directional z-scores comparisons to identify key mediators of bone health. 190
14 participants (18-80yrs) were categorized by body fat%, body mass index (BMI) and fat mass index
15 (FMI) to examine the effect of differing obesity criteria on bone characteristics. A subset of 50
16 healthy-eating middle to older aged adults (44-80yrs) were randomly selected to examine any added
17 impact of lifestyle and inflammatory profiles. Diet was assessed using a 3-day food diary, bone
18 mineral density (BMD) and content (BMC) by dual energy x-ray absorptiometry in the lumbar,
19 thoracic, (upper and lower) appendicular and pelvic areas, physical activity using the Baecke
20 questionnaire, and endocrine profiling using multiplex luminometry. Obesity classed via BMI
21 positively affected 20 out of 22 BMC and BMD-related outcome measures, whereas FMI was
22 associated with 14 outcome measures and adiposity only modulated 9 out of 22 BMC and BMD-
23 related outcome measures. Whilst bivariate correlations only linked Vitamin A and relative protein
24 intake with BMD, the Z-score composite summary presented a significantly different overall dietary
25 quality between healthy and osteopenic individuals. In addition, bivariate correlations from the
26 subset revealed daily energy intake, sport-based physical activity and BMI positive mediator of 7
27 out of 10 BMD sites with age and body fat% shown to be negative mediators of bone characteristics.
28 In conclusion, whilst BMI is a good indicator of bone characteristics, high body fat% should be the
29 focus of osteoporosis risk with ageing. Interestingly, high BMI in conjunction with moderate to
30 vigorous activity supplemented with an optimal diet (quality and quantity) are identified as positive
31 modulators of bone health.

32

33 **Keywords:** nutrition; aging; adiposity; physical activity; bone; inflammation.

34

35 1. Introduction

36 Bone loss in men and women is a consequential process of ageing [1] with mean variations
37 estimated to range between 0.86% to 1.12% bone loss per year in elderly men and women [2].
38 However, at its extreme, age-related bone loss can lead to osteoporosis, a condition characterized by
39 an increased risk of bone fractures [3] through a reduction in bone tissue altering the structural
40 integrity/architecture [4] and even leading to premature mortality [5]. Previous research has
41 identified independent accelerants of poor bone health such as decreased physical activity (PA)
42 caused by the reduction of mechanical loading/stress placed on bone [6], poor quality and inadequate
43 nutritional intake [4] and obesity [7]. Whilst existing research has independently examined how each
44 of these lifestyle behaviors influence bone health, questions remain on the cumulative effect of dietary

45 content/quality, type of PA in conjunction with age. Moreover, whether obesity definition and/or
46 classification has any effect on the conclusion regarding bone health modulation, has yet to be
47 categorically understood, especially in a middle to older age adult population.

48 Diet and PA are two modifiable behaviors that have the potential to affect numerous systems
49 that regulate bone homeostasis through influencing key endocrine regulators of bone metabolism [4].
50 Key nutrients positively associated with bone health include calcium [8], magnesium [9], phosphorus
51 [10], potassium [11], Vitamin D (VitD) [12], Vitamin K [13], protein [14] and omega 3 fatty acids [15].
52 A number of dietary elements in fact negatively influence bone health including saturated fat [16]
53 and Vitamin A [17]. However, the consensus within the literature focuses on two nutrients with
54 regards to bone health, that being calcium and VitD. Calcium is the key nutrient involved in bone
55 homeostasis due to its role in bone growth and development [4,8] with current UK guidelines
56 recommending >700mg/day [18] and various research studies utilizing doses as high as 1600mg [19].
57 Interestingly, whilst calcium supplementation may influence bone health, it cannot be used as a
58 replacement for prescribed estrogen, bisphosphonates, or calcitonin therapy, but only as a
59 preventative measure when individuals are still within a normal T-score range [19]. Nevertheless, it
60 remains to be seen if any specific interaction exists between dietary calcium and other nutrients
61 positively associated with bone dimensional characteristics or that may aid in the absorption of
62 calcium such as oligosaccharides [20] and VitD [21]. Then, and only then, might the optimum effect
63 of calcium supplementation on bone health be conclusive.

64 The second key nutrient is VitD, as it is purported to being crucial not only for bone health but
65 previous research has also reported its positive association with muscle strength prominently
66 through improved neuromuscular function [22] and stimulation of protein synthesis [23]. The current
67 literature however suggests the benefits of VitD supplementation may only be beneficial in
68 individuals who are VitD deficient [24] especially for musculoskeletal parameters [25,26]. VitD
69 deficiency impacts bone in two different ways, the first resulting in inadequate mineralization of the
70 skeleton potentially causing osteomalacia, yet this may be related to primary hyperparathyroidism
71 created by the VitD deficiency [27] and the second through negatively affecting intestinal absorption
72 of calcium [27]. Therefore, if conforming to the recommended daily VitD 10µg intake [18], questions
73 remain whether (a) a linear relationship between bone health and VitD exists where the individual is
74 not VitD deficient [24], or (b) VitD benefits are only observed when combined with sufficient
75 nutrients positively related to bone health (e.g. calcium, phosphorus, magnesium and Vitamin K).

76 As mentioned above, negative dietary contributors of bone health include high saturated fat
77 intake [16] and Vitamin A [17]. The evidence demonstrates an inverse relationship between dietary
78 saturated fat intake and BMD potentially due to inhibiting calcium absorption and down regulating
79 osteoblast formation [16]. Similarly, a high level of Vitamin A triggers production of osteoclasts
80 subsequently causing bone breakdown [17]. Therefore, this demonstrates that independent
81 associations and the interaction between nutrients need further scrutiny to aid understanding of how
82 nutrients interact to influence bone health and ultimately help formulate individualized habitual
83 nutritional guidelines.

84 In conjunction with habitual diet, placing mechanical load/stress on bones is known to stimulate
85 an increase in bone formation [28] and resultant bone strength [29]. This has been shown from
86 adolescents to the elderly [30,31]. Thus impactful PA maintains its status as an effective mechanism
87 in combating age-related decrease in BMD. Interestingly, PA is generally grouped as one behavior in
88 large cross-sectional or longitudinal studies in regression models. Arguably, for all and especially a
89 middle aged or an elderly population group, PA ought to be broken down into different strands (e.g.
90 work, leisure and sport), modalities (e.g. aerobic vs. resistance) or intensity (e.g. bowls vs. gym
91 sessions) in order to distinguish appropriate, effective and palatable lifestyle PA interventions.
92 However, the focus of the existing body of research on PA and BMD is between structured
93 resistance/weight bearing and aerobic exercise [32,33]. Selection of a preference for modality is
94 however intuitive, as both forms of exercise elicit similar increases in spine BMD following 12-24
95 months of structured PA (resistance 0.8-6.8% increase [32-34] vs. aerobic 1.4-7.8% increase [32,35-37]).
96 Interestingly, structured PA only constitutes ~3% of an individual's waking hours if just achieving

97 the recommended daily 30 minutes of moderate to PA [38] (assuming 16 hours awake), thus
98 potentially missing quantifiable daily activity markers that may influence bone health. Therefore,
99 accurate representations of an individual's activity profile may aid in the development of detailed
100 predictions models and sustainable prescription guidelines to prevent the escalation of bone health
101 towards an osteoporotic profile.

102 Thus, the present study was spilt into two sections, with the primary aim to examine how obesity
103 defined through 3 different methods affects bone as we age. The second aim was to take a multi-
104 analytical approach to examining the lifestyle factors of bone mass homeostasis ranging from
105 habitual nutritional intake to PA. In this way, the study aimed to prioritize key identifiable areas that
106 may aid in the reduction of ageing-associated osteoporosis risk. It was hypothesized that: (1) High
107 adiposity would increase osteoporosis risk with age; (2) optimal dietary composition (low saturated
108 fats, high Calcium, Vitamin D, Vitamin C, oligosaccharide, Protein, Omega 3 and 6 Fatty Acids,
109 Vitamin K, Zinc, Magnesium and Phosphorus) would promote bone health; (3) the negative impact
110 of high adiposity would be greater on under-loaded bone sites; (4) high levels of structured PA (more
111 so than work or leisure-based PA) would improve BMD; (5) endocrine profiling would be linearly
112 associated with diet and hence bone health.

113

114 2. Materials and Methods

115 3.1. Participants

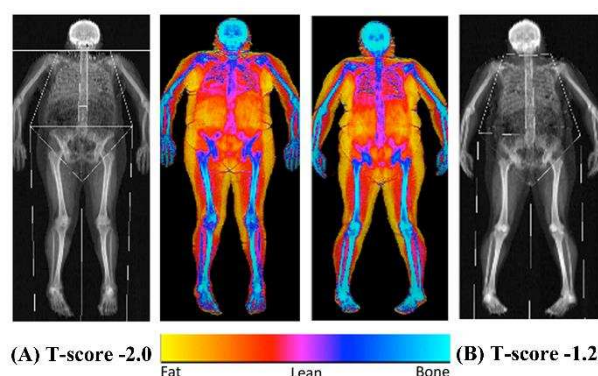
116 One hundred and ninety participants (males=65 and females=125) aged 18-80yrs were recruited
117 and screened prior to undertaking any assessments through a general health questionnaire, where
118 their PA level was ascertained. Participants were spilt into two groups either trained ($n=27$) and
119 untrained ($n=163$) with untrained individuals the main focus of analyses with regard to impact of
120 obesity on bone health. Classification of being trained was denoted by undertaking structured
121 exercise of over 3 hours per week. Primarily participants were categorized by three different methods
122 of classifying obesity to determine the effect of obesity classification on bone characteristics. These
123 were: **Body Fat%** - (Male = normal adipose (NA) $<28\%$: high adiposity (HA) $\geq 28\%$; NA; female = NA
124 $<40\%$: HA $\geq 40\%$); **BMI** (Underweight (BMI <19) Normal weight (NW; BMI $\geq 19 - <25$), Overweight
125 (BMI $\geq 25 - <30$) and Obese (BMI ≥ 30)), and **fat mass index** (FMI; Fat deficit male <3 , female <5 ; Normal
126 male 3-6, female 5-9; Excess fat male $>6-9$, female $>9-13$ and Obese male >9 , female >13).

127 Secondly, to determine the effect of obesity, PA and nutrition on bone health with ageing, 50
128 untrained participants (males=15 and females=35) aged 43-80 yrs (see Supplementary Table 1) were
129 randomly selected to cover the body composition and age spectra, and then categorized by their **bone**
130 **health** (Normal range T-score ≥ -1.0 $n=42$ and Osteopenia T-score < -1.0 $n=8$) for Z-score comparisons.
131 Participants were excluded if they had changed their diet and/or PA levels in the past 12 months and
132 were taking any medication related to osteoporosis/bone health. On completion of the health and PA
133 questionnaire, their dominant arm and leg were ascertained through verbal questioning. Prior to the
134 commencement of the study, participants gave their written informed consent and all the procedures
135 in this study were in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and had approval from the
136 Manchester Metropolitan University ethics committee (Ethics Committee Reference Number:
137 09.03.11 (ii)).

138 3.2. Measurement of Body Composition

139 BMC, BMD and overall body composition (both fat and lean mass) were established using a dual
140 energy x-ray absorptiometry scanner (Hologic Discovery: Vertec Scientific Ltd, Reading, UK) to
141 accurately quantify bone characteristics and define obesity following a 12-hour fasted period. Prior
142 to the arrival of each participant, a control phantom was scanned to ensure the reliability and
143 reproducibility of BMC, BMD and area scan results (accepted coefficient variation of $<0.6\%$). On
144 arrival, participants were given a hospital gown and asked to remove all clothing and jewelry to
145 ensure the process was standardized between participants. Participants were then asked to lay in

146 the center of the scanning bed in a supine position with their head positioned in the center just inside
 147 of the scanners viewing field. The investigator ensured the participant's whole body was positioned
 148 correctly to guarantee there was no contact between their trunk and appendicular mass, with their
 149 legs internally rotated (10-25°) to expose the fibula and the neck of femur and then strapped in
 150 position using micropore tape (3M, Bracknell, Berkshire, U.K.) to avoid any discomfort and
 151 movement during the 7-min scanning procedure (whole body, EF 8.4 ISv). Scan results were
 152 calculated using the Hologic APEX software (version 3.3) and presented in terms of whole body lean
 153 mass, fat mass, BMC, BMD and manually digitized using anatomical markers classifying defined
 154 body segments by their dominant and non-dominant side (arm, ribs, thoracic and lumbar spine,
 155 pelvis and legs). The same researcher completed analysis of defined body segments during the entire
 156 study period. Both T and Z-scores were calculated using gender and ethnic group specific data from
 157 the national health and nutrition examination database (NHANES III).



158

159 **Figure 1.** Representative dual energy x-ray absorptiometry scans of a female (A; T-score: -2.0) and male (B; T-
 160 score: -1.2) with osteopenia.

161 3.3. Nutrition Intake & Analysis

162 Habitual dietary intake was assessed in 50 participants using a three-day food diary recorded
 163 over two weekdays and one weekend day [39]. At the point of handing out a blank food diary,
 164 participants were also given in depth instructions on the level of detail to record daily food and drink
 165 intakes including meal time, food/ingredients weight and drinks volume, commercial brand names
 166 of food/ingredients and drink, any leftovers and cooking preparation methods. Participants were
 167 asked to maintain their normal eating habits over the three-day period. Dietary analysis was
 168 conducted using Nutritics software (version 1.8, Nutritics Ltd., Co. Dublin, Ireland) with one
 169 researcher completing all analyses. Participants' total nutritional intake and identified positive bone
 170 health related nutrients were scored against recommended daily values [40,41] (see Supplementary
 171 Table 2). Estimation of participants' metabolic balance (defined in Supplementary Table 2) was
 172 ascertained using the Harris Benedict equation [42], through the calculation of participants' basal
 173 metabolic rate when accounting for PA levels. This method of quantifying energy expenditure has
 174 been previously validated in mid to older aged adults [43].

175 3.4. PA Questionnaire

176 Participants PA status in 50 participants (the same subsample who also completed the food
 177 diaries) was established using the Baecke PA questionnaire [44]. The questionnaire is split into three
 178 sections that denote work, sport and leisure based PA and furthermore, gives a combined score
 179 categorized as a global index of all these sub-sections. Participants that did not work due to retirement
 180 from their previous job were asked to fill in the work section as if their daily life/activities were their
 181 job. Each section was scored using a five-point scale and was calculated using a predetermined
 182 formula [44]. Work scoring focused on the physical intensity of working and factored in time spent
 183 sitting, whilst leisure scoring focused upon leisure based non-structured PA and factored in time

184 spent watching television. Sport scoring denoted structured PA categorized by the intensity,
185 repetition and duration of the activity undertaken.

186 3.5. Serum Inflammatory Cytokine Concentration

187 Prior to any physical testing, the same 50 participants who had provided food and PA data, were
188 also asked to consent to the blood sampling. Thus, our results include data from the 33 participants
189 able to provide the required 10 ml fasted (12 hours) blood sample between 8am and 9am, having not
190 performed vigorous exercise for 48 hours prior. Blood samples were unobtainable for 17 participants
191 due to either sampling failure or withheld consent. Blood was collected in anticoagulant-free
192 vacutainers (BD Vacutainer Systems, Plymouth, UK) and rested on crushed ice for 10-15 minutes.
193 Samples were then placed into a centrifuge (IEC CL31R, Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, United
194 States) for 10 minutes at 4000rpm (2700 × g) after which serum was extracted and stored in 2 ml
195 aliquots at -20 °C until subsequent analysis.

196 Multiplex luminometry was used to measure the serum concentrations of nine inflammatory
197 cytokines (pro-inflammatory: interleukin (IL)-1 β , IL-6, tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , Granulocyte-
198 colony stimulating factor (G-CSF), interferon gamma (IFN γ); anti-inflammatory: IL-10, transforming
199 growth factor (TGF)- β 1, β 2 and β 3) and five chemokines (IL-8, monocyte chemoattractant protein
200 (MCP)-1, macrophage inflammatory protein (MIP)-1 α , MIP-1 β), regulated on activation, normal T
201 cell expressed and secreted (RANTES). A 3-plex panel was used to measure TGF- β 1, TGF- β 2 and
202 TGF- β 3 concentrations (R&D Systems Europe Ltd, Abingdon, UK) and a Bio-Plex Pro Human
203 Inflammation Panel Assay (Bio-Rad laboratories Ltd., Hemel Hempstead, UK) was used to measure
204 the remaining 11 cytokines, following the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were analyzed using
205 a Bio-Plex 200 system (Bio-Rad laboratories Ltd., Hemel Hempstead, UK).

206 3.6. Statistical Analyses

207 Statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS (Version 22, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). To
208 determine parametricity (for adiposity, BMI, FMI, bone health), Kolmogorov-Smirnov (whole
209 sample $n > 50$) or Shapiro-Wilk (if sub-sample $n < 50$) were utilized to determine if the sample was
210 normally distributed and Levene's tests to determine homogeneity of variance between groups. If
211 parametric assumptions were met, between group differences were examined by independent t-tests
212 (for adiposity and bone health) or one-way ANOVA (for BMI and FMI) with post hoc pairwise
213 comparisons conducted using the Bonferroni correction. However, if parametric assumptions were
214 breached, between group differences were examined by Mann-Whitney U test (for adiposity) or a
215 Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric ANOVA (for BMI and FMI) with post hoc pairwise comparisons
216 being examined by Dunn correction. Pearson (or Spearman rank order for non-parametric data sets)
217 bivariate correlations were used to define any associations between bone vs. age, PA scores,
218 adiposity, BMI and nutritional variables, as well as serum cytokine concentration vs. bone health.
219 Overall synthesis, including radar graphs (Microsoft Excel, Version 2013 Washington, USA), of
220 participants habitual diet, participant characteristics and endocrine profile categorized by bone
221 health (normal range vs. osteopenia) was computed through Z-scores (i.e. [mean of group - mean
222 of sample population] \div standard deviation of sample population). Comparisons between Z-scores
223 of the grouping variables were conducted by converting Z-scores into percentages using a Z-score
224 comparison table. Calculation of unit-weighted Z-scores including direction for habitual nutritional
225 intake was done for all nutrients of interest. Unit-weighted Z-score for participant characteristics
226 including direction was calculated through positive signs for PA characteristics and lean mass, versus
227 negative signs for age, BMI, body fat% and fat mass. Finally, unit-weighted Z-scores including
228 direction was calculated for participants' endocrine profile using negative signs for IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF-
229 α , G-CSF, IFN γ , IL-8, MCP-1, MIP-1 α , MIP-1 β and RANTES, versus positive signs for IL-10, TGF- β 1,
230 β 2 and β 3. Data are reported as mean (SD) and statistical significance was accepted when $P \leq 0.05$.

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232

233 3. Results

234 3.1. Descriptive characteristics of participants

235 Table 1 displays the descriptive characteristics of 163 untrained participants' categorized by 3
236 different methods of classifying obesity: Body fat%, BMI and FMI (Table 1). Descriptive
237 characteristics, habitual nutritional intake, PA scores and endocrine profile of the 50 untrained 43-80
238 yrs old middle to older aged sub-sample are reported in Supplementary Table 1, where it was
239 observed that there were no differences in PA scores in the 50 participants between body fat%, BMI, FMI
240 and bone health classifications.

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263 **Table 1.** 163 Untrained participants' anthropometric characteristics categorized by three methods of classifying obesity (body fat%, BMI and FMI).

Characteristics	Body Fat%		Body Mass Index				Fat Mass Index			
	NA (n=83)	HA/Ob (n=80)	U (n=9)	NW (n=53)	Ov (n=54)	Ob (n=47)	FD (n=8)	NW (n=53)	EF (n=62)	Ob (n=40)
Age (yrs)	38 ± 21 ^a	49 ± 22 ^b	34 ± 19 ^{ab}	41 ± 22 ^a	50 ± 23 ^b	39 ± 19 ^{ab}	36 ± 21 ^{ab}	38 ± 21 ^a	50 ± 23 ^b	40 ± 19 ^{ab}
Height (m)	1.67 ± 0.09 ^a	1.66 ± 0.08 ^a	1.66 ± 0.06 ^a	1.66 ± 0.09 ^a	1.68 ± 0.09 ^a	1.66 ± 0.08 ^a	1.65 ± 0.07 ^a	1.66 ± 0.09 ^a	1.67 ± 0.09 ^a	1.66 ± 0.08 ^a
Body Mass (kg)	65.5 ± 14.1 ^a	85.4 ± 15.8 ^b	50.0 ± 4.3 ^a	60.3 ± 7.8 ^a	77.1 ± 9.1 ^b	94.8 ± 13.8 ^c	50.3 ± 4.5 ^a	61.3 ± 10.1 ^a	77.0 ± 10.3 ^b	96.1 ± 13.7 ^c
BMI (kg/m ²)	23.4 ± 3.8 ^a	30.9 ± 3.8 ^b	18.2 ± 0.6 ^a	21.8 ± 1.6 ^a	27.2 ± 1.2 ^b	34.5 ± 4.5 ^c	18.4 ± 1.0 ^a	22.0 ± 2.4 ^a	27.4 ± 2.0 ^b	35.0 ± 4.7 ^c
Body Fat (%)	30.3 ± 6.1 ^a	41.5 ± 6.7 ^b	25.8 ± 4.6 ^a	30.4 ± 6.4 ^a	36.2 ± 7.0 ^b	43.3 ± 5.8 ^c	23.7 ± 2.1 ^a	29.7 ± 5.6 ^b	37.1 ± 6.4 ^c	44.3 ± 5.7 ^d
Fat Mass (kg)	19.4 ± 6.0 ^a	34.7 ± 9.6 ^b	12.5 ± 2.2 ^a	17.7 ± 3.8 ^b	26.9 ± 4.1 ^c	40.1 ± 8.6 ^d	11.6 ± 1.3 ^a	17.5 ± 3.4 ^a	27.5 ± 4.2 ^b	41.6 ± 8.4 ^c
FMI (kg/m ²)	7.0 ± 2.2 ^a	12.7 ± 3.8 ^b	4.6 ± 0.9 ^a	6.5 ± 1.6 ^a	9.6 ± 1.9 ^b	14.7 ± 3.5 ^c	4.3 ± 0.5 ^a	6.4 ± 1.4 ^a	9.9 ± 1.9 ^b	15.3 ± 3.5 ^c
Lean Mass (kg)	42.1 ± 11.0 ^a	46.1 ± 9.4 ^b	34.1 ± 4.1 ^a	38.8 ± 7.3 ^a	45.8 ± 9.7 ^b	49.9 ± 8.6 ^c	35.3 ± 3.7 ^a	39.8 ± 8.5 ^a	45.1 ± 9.7 ^b	49.8 ± 8.6 ^b
Android Fat Mass (kg)	1.43 ± 0.71 ^a	3.14 ± 1.07 ^b	0.72 ± 0.26 ^a	1.23 ± 0.43 ^a	2.29 ± 0.49 ^b	3.74 ± 1.02 ^c	0.58 ± 0.09 ^a	1.20 ± 0.41 ^a	2.36 ± 0.48 ^b	3.92 ± 0.98 ^c
Gynoid Fat Mass (kg)	3.61 ± 1.02 ^a	5.88 ± 1.67 ^b	2.61 ± 0.42 ^a	3.33 ± 0.76 ^a	4.73 ± 1.14 ^b	6.69 ± 1.41 ^c	2.47 ± 1.02 ^a	3.31 ± 0.63 ^a	4.82 ± 1.13 ^b	6.90 ± 1.43 ^c
Android:Gynoid Ratio	0.89 ± 0.19 ^a	1.07 ± 0.15 ^b	0.69 ± 0.12 ^a	0.86 ± 0.19 ^a	1.04 ± 0.17 ^{bc}	1.08 ± 0.10 ^{bc}	0.66 ± 0.08 ^a	0.85 ± 0.17 ^a	1.05 ± 0.17 ^b	1.09 ± 0.10 ^b

264 ¹Data are Mean ± Standard Deviation. Group significant differences are highlighted in bold. Labelled Adiposity, BMI and FMI pairwise means in a row without a common letter differ, P < 0.05. Non-
 265 parametric tests are highlighted in grey shading. Abbreviations: EF, Excess Fat; FD, Fat Deficit; HA, High Adipose; NA, Normal Adipose; NW, Normal Weight; Ob, Obese; Ov, Overweight; U, Underweight

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271 3.2. *Body fat%, BMI and FMI's impact on bone mineral content and density*

272 The positive effect of obesity on bone was demonstrated in all three classifications to differing
273 degrees. BMI was found to have the greatest effect on bone properties through increasing BMI
274 classification being positively associated with 20/22 measured bone characteristics (Table 2). This
275 was followed by increasing FMI classification being positively associated with 14/22 bone
276 characteristics and finally through a higher body fat% being positively associated with 9/22 positive
277 bone characteristics (Table 2). Interpretation of these results would suggest as expected BMI to have
278 greatest loading effect of bone. Interestingly though, the effect of loading on bone appeared to be
279 uniform across loaded (lumbar, pelvis and lower limbs) and unloaded (thoracic, ribs and upper
280 limbs) bone sites (Table 2). The same pattern was continued to lesser extent in the randomly
281 selected 50 middle to older aged adults (as observed in Supplementary Table 3). However, there
282 was a reduction in the number of significant effects of FMI on bone characteristics, which may be
283 explained by a reduction in total mass due to lower lean mass in the older cohort.

284 When comparing the 3 definitions of obesity classified by bodyfat%, BMI and FMI utilizing
285 spearman rho correlations of osteoporosis risk (T score) vs age, the only significant negative
286 correlation observed was for obesity classified by body fat% ($r=-0.43$; $P<0.0061$). These findings were
287 confirmed in the middle to older age group, as a linear regression revealed only obese individuals
288 classified by body fat% to be negatively associated with increasing age and T score ($r=0.46$; $r^2=0.21$;
289 $\beta=-0.084$; $P=0.008$).

290 Finally of secondary note, comparison of bone characteristics between the untrained and
291 trained participants revealed the trained participants to have 7-50% significantly greater BMC and
292 BMD characteristics at all body locations.

Table 2. Bone mineral content (BMC) and bone mineral density (BMD) characteristics in 163 untrained participants categorized by body fat%, body mass index (BMI) and fat mass index (FMI) classifications.

	Body Fat%		BMI				FMI			
	NA (n=83)	HA/Ob (n=80)	U (n=9)	NW (n=53)	Ov (n=54)	Ob (n=47)	FD (n=8)	NW (n=53)	EF (n=62)	Ob (n=40)
BMC (g)										
Total	2404 ± 499 ^a	2532 ± 528 ^a	2000 ± 348 ^a	2280 ± 401 ^a	2603 ± 599 ^b	2609 ± 443 ^b	2123 ± 370 ^a	2324 ± 457 ^a	2540 ± 566 ^b	2609 ± 469 ^b
Thoracic	111 ± 28 ^a	127 ± 32 ^b	91 ± 16 ^a	107 ± 22 ^a	129 ± 37 ^b	127 ± 28 ^b	89 ± 18 ^a	111 ± 29 ^b	124 ± 32 ^c	129 ± 30 ^c
Lumbar	66 ± 17 ^a	66 ± 17 ^a	59 ± 18 ^a	64 ± 15 ^a	69 ± 20 ^a	67 ± 16 ^a	62 ± 18 ^a	65 ± 14 ^a	68 ± 20 ^a	67 ± 16 ^a
Pelvis	267 ± 78 ^a	260 ± 82 ^a	219 ± 69 ^a	250 ± 68 ^a	267 ± 93 ^a	283 ± 74 ^a	228 ± 78 ^a	259 ± 72 ^a	262 ± 86 ^a	280 ± 80 ^a
<i>Dominant</i>										
Ribs	95 ± 26 ^a	115 ± 29 ^b	74 ± 13 ^a	87 ± 21 ^a	108 ± 26 ^b	128 ± 24 ^c	79 ± 15 ^a	88 ± 20 ^a	106 ± 28 ^b	130 ± 28 ^c
Arm	162 ± 40 ^a	178 ± 46 ^b	132 ± 16 ^a	156 ± 34 ^{ab}	180 ± 50 ^{bc}	181 ± 42 ^c	140 ± 24 ^a	159 ± 39 ^a	175 ± 47 ^b	182 ± 42 ^b
Leg	452 ± 114 ^a	479 ± 119 ^a	363 ± 59 ^a	424 ± 93 ^a	494 ± 130 ^b	499 ± 108 ^b	391 ± 61 ^a	435 ± 107 ^a	481 ± 123 ^b	495 ± 115 ^b
<i>Non-Dominant</i>										
Ribs	96 ± 27 ^a	108 ± 33 ^b	72 ± 14 ^a	87 ± 17 ^a	107 ± 30 ^b	118 ± 33 ^c	77 ± 16 ^a	88 ± 19 ^a	106 ± 30 ^b	117 ± 35 ^c
Arm	154 ± 38 ^a	170 ± 51 ^b	123 ± 15 ^a	147 ± 32 ^a	175 ± 50 ^b	172 ± 50 ^b	131 ± 19 ^a	151 ± 38 ^a	169 ± 47 ^b	173 ± 52 ^b
Leg	438 ± 121 ^a	460 ± 129 ^a	352 ± 69 ^a	407 ± 96 ^a	486 ± 142 ^b	471 ± 123 ^b	378 ± 69 ^a	418 ± 112 ^a	471 ± 132 ^b	469 ± 131 ^b
BMD (g/cm³)										
Total	1.190 ± 0.121 ^a	1.206 ± 0.139 ^a	1.097 ± 0.076 ^a	1.160 ± 0.108 ^a	1.227 ± 0.156 ^b	1.227 ± 0.111 ^b	1.136 ± 0.077 ^a	1.173 ± 0.119 ^a	1.209 ± 0.148 ^a	1.225 ± 0.118 ^a
Thoracic	1.001 ± 0.147 ^a	1.084 ± 0.175 ^b	0.909 ± 0.083 ^a	0.978 ± 0.123 ^{ab}	1.060 ± 0.190 ^{bc}	1.118 ± 0.153 ^c	0.944 ± 0.075 ^a	0.999 ± 0.135 ^a	1.038 ± 0.188 ^a	1.125 ± 0.151 ^b
Lumbar	1.001 ± 0.148 ^a	1.149 ± 0.198 ^a	1.068 ± 0.152 ^a	1.125 ± 0.164 ^a	1.161 ± 0.229 ^a	1.177 ± 0.182 ^a	1.118 ± 0.168 ^a	1.136 ± 0.151 ^a	1.144 ± 0.232 ^a	1.178 ± 0.198 ^a
Pelvis	1.001 ± 0.149 ^a	1.266 ± 0.177 ^a	1.009 ± 0.095 ^a	1.172 ± 0.156 ^a	1.270 ± 0.187 ^b	1.322 ± 0.161 ^b	1.100 ± 0.132 ^a	1.201 ± 0.163 ^a	1.256 ± 0.184 ^{ab}	1.310 ± 0.169 ^b
<i>Dominant</i>										
Ribs	0.711 ± 0.089 ^a	0.713 ± 0.100 ^a	0.650 ± 0.062 ^a	0.691 ± 0.081 ^a	0.724 ± 0.116 ^a	0.731 ± 0.078 ^a	0.690 ± 0.070 ^a	0.702 ± 0.089 ^a	0.711 ± 0.111 ^a	0.729 ± 0.078 ^a
Arm	0.797 ± 0.132 ^a	0.848 ± 0.154 ^b	0.700 ± 0.025 ^a	0.786 ± 0.127 ^{ab}	0.842 ± 0.164 ^{bc}	0.863 ± 0.133 ^c	0.715 ± 0.052 ^a	0.801 ± 0.155 ^{ab}	0.829 ± 0.144 ^{bc}	0.860 ± 0.132 ^c
Leg	1.209 ± 0.172 ^a	1.254 ± 0.179 ^a	1.090 ± 0.052 ^a	1.166 ± 0.180 ^a	1.267 ± 0.177 ^b	1.291 ± 0.148 ^b	1.126 ± 0.061 ^{ab}	1.183 ± 0.191 ^a	1.245 ± 0.169 ^{ab}	1.293 ± 0.159 ^b
<i>Non-Dominant</i>										
Ribs	0.716 ± 0.102 ^a	0.714 ± 0.083 ^a	0.628 ± 0.064 ^a	0.693 ± 0.085 ^{ab}	0.730 ± 0.111 ^{bc}	0.740 ± 0.067 ^c	0.672 ± 0.057 ^a	0.702 ± 0.098 ^a	0.718 ± 0.104 ^a	0.736 ± 0.069 ^a
Arm	0.769 ± 0.119 ^a	0.817 ± 0.128 ^b	0.685 ± 0.035 ^a	0.735 ± 0.075 ^a	0.823 ± 0.149 ^b	0.844 ± 0.115 ^b	0.700 ± 0.036 ^a	0.750 ± 0.103 ^a	0.808 ± 0.141 ^b	0.843 ± 0.112 ^c
Leg	1.200 ± 0.214 ^a	1.251 ± 0.169 ^a	1.076 ± 0.061 ^a	1.180 ± 0.145 ^{ab}	1.268 ± 0.196 ^{bc}	1.254 ± 0.233 ^c	1.108 ± 0.077 ^a	1.199 ± 0.159 ^{ab}	1.225 ± 0.243 ^{bc}	1.283 ± 0.149 ^c
Z-score	0.91 ± 1.11 ^a	1.07 ± 0.98 ^a	0.03 ± 0.83 ^a	0.67 ± 1.06 ^a	1.25 ± 0.90 ^b	1.25 ± 1.03 ^b	0.46 ± 0.55 ^a	0.77 ± 1.11 ^a	1.10 ± 0.97 ^a	1.22 ± 1.08 ^a
T-score	0.68 ± 1.22 ^a	0.73 ± 1.32 ^a	-0.09 ± 0.91 ^a	0.34 ± 1.17 ^a	0.80 ± 1.32 ^{ab}	1.17 ± 1.20 ^b	0.29 ± 0.77 ^a	0.48 ± 1.20 ^a	0.70 ± 1.34 ^a	1.11 ± 1.27 ^a

296 ^aData are Mean ± Standard Deviation. Group significant differences are highlighted in bold. Labelled Adiposity, BMI and FMI pairwise means in a row without a common letter differ, P < 0.05. Non-
297 parametric tests are highlighted in grey shading. Abbreviations: EF, Excess Fat; FD, Fat Deficit; HA, High Adipose; NA, Normal Adipose; NW, Normal Weight; Ob, Obese; Ov, Overweight; U, Underweight

298 *Habitual dietary intake*

299 Analysis of participants habitual diet revealed the entire sample to consume low amounts of
300 trans fats (<2% daily total calories), with 98% of participants also consuming below the recommended
301 daily maximum intake for saturated fat (<11% daily total calories). Nutrients that are positively
302 associated with bone health revealed 90% of participants achieved the recommended daily intake of
303 calcium (>700mg/day), 84% met the requirements for Zinc (Male= ≥ 9.5 mg/day; Female= ≥ 7 mg/day),
304 80% met the requirements for Magnesium (Male= ≥ 300 mg/day; Female= ≥ 270 mg/day) and 100% met
305 the requirements for Phosphorus (≥ 550 mg). The incidence of adequate intake of other bone-impacting
306 nutrients of note that participants achieved in their daily intake were vitamin C (94% participants),
307 Vitamin E (84% participants), Vitamin K (14% participants), Vitamin B-12 (100% participants),
308 Sodium (78% participants), Omega-3 fatty acids (32% participants), Omega-6 fatty acids (10%
309 participants) and oligosaccharides (2% participants) (see supplementary Table 2 for both participants
310 scoring and the criteria utilized). In other words, our sample's diet was commendably good.

311 *Bivariate Correlations*

312 Table 3 displays the correlation coefficients between bone characteristics against age, PA scores,
313 indices of body composition and nutritional intake of 50 middle-older aged adults. Sport-based PA
314 was revealed to be the most prolific predictor of bone structural characteristics with 8 out of 12
315 significant positive associations, followed by BMI and total calorie intake with 7 out of 12 significant
316 positive associations. Age and body fat% revealed negative associations with 6/12 and 4/12 significant
317 negative associations respectively, and global PA with 3 positive associations. Finally, adiposity
318 revealed 2 significant positive associations and surprisingly bone nutrient score revealed 2 significant
319 negative associations (Table 3). Surprisingly, independent analysis of macro and micronutrient
320 intake between segmental BMD locations revealed significant associations including: (a) Positive
321 associations between Vitamin A against Total BMD ($r=0.329$; $P=0.020$), Thoracic BMD ($r=0.324$;
322 $P=0.022$), Lumbar BMD ($r=0.301$; $P=0.034$), Pelvis BMD ($r=0.331$; $P=0.019$), dominant ribs ($r=0.329$;
323 $P=0.020$) and non-dominant ribs ($r=0.418$; $P=0.002$). (b) A negative association between relative
324 protein intake vs. dominant arm BMD ($r=-0.330$; $P=0.019$) and non-dominant arm BMD ($r=-0.359$;
325 $P=0.011$). Aligned with our hypothesis, there was a significant positive association between relative
326 protein intake vs. non-dominant leg BMD ($r=0.418$; $P=0.002$). However a partial correlation
327 controlling for BMI removed this association between relative protein intake vs. non-dominant leg
328 BMD ($r=-0.132$; $P=0.364$).
329

330

Table 3. Bivariate correlations between habitual lifestyle factors against bone mineral density (BMD) characteristics in designated body locations in 50 43–80yr old adults.

BMD Location	Age	Physical Activity Score							Nutrition			
		Work	Sport	Leisure	Global	Adiposity	Body Fat %	BMI	FMI	Daily Nutrition Score	Bone Score	Total Calorie Intake
Total	-0.42**	0.10	0.35*	-0.12	0.21	0.06	-0.33*	0.26	-0.46	-0.16	-0.28	0.40**
Thoracic	-0.20	0.10	0.23	-0.18	-0.03	0.25	0.06	0.38**	0.21	-0.08	-0.07	0.22
Lumbar	-0.24	-0.12	0.31*	-0.17	0.01	-0.06	-0.24	0.04	-0.10	-0.04	-0.09	0.15
Pelvis	-0.45**	0.09	0.40**	0.10	0.36*	0.17	-0.07	0.28*	0.10	-0.20	-0.27	0.19
Dominant												
Rib	-0.24	0.14	0.37**	-0.03	0.20	-0.05	-0.37**	0.13	-0.16	-0.04	-0.14	0.52***
Arm	-0.19	0.11	0.26	-0.06	0.17	0.31*	-0.11	0.50***	0.18	-0.17	-0.23	0.47**
Leg	-0.28*	0.14	0.35*	-0.09	0.25	0.18	-0.26	0.39**	0.06	-0.16	-0.21	0.48***
Non-Dominant												
Rib	-0.31*	0.23	0.34*	-0.05	0.29*	0.07	-0.31*	0.32*	-0.02	-0.08	-0.19	0.43**
Arm	-0.21	0.09	0.21	-0.05	0.16	0.33*	-0.08	0.53***	0.21	-0.13	-0.24	0.44**
Leg	-0.34*	0.24	0.34*	-0.08	0.24	0.19	-0.28*	0.40**	0.06	-0.19	-0.25	0.48***
Z-score	-0.11	0.02	0.24	0.07	0.18	-0.03	-0.18	0.06	-0.08	-0.24	-0.28*	0.07
T-score	-0.45**	0.05	0.37**	0.01	0.30*	0.08	-0.21	0.23	0.01	-0.19	-0.33*	0.21

331

[†]Spearman rank order correlations highlighted in grey. Significant correlations are highlighted in bold (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$). Abbreviations: BMI, Body Mass Index; FMI, Fat Mass Index

332

333

334 *Serum Cytokine Concentrations vs BMC and BMD*

335 There were no significant associations between IFN γ , IL-8, IL-10, TGF β -1 and TGF β -2 against a
336 series of bone characteristics (BMC, BMD, T-score and Z-score), and/or 30 nutrition variables.
337 However, the remaining 9 cytokines and chemokines (G-CSF, TNF α , IL1 β , IL-6, MCP-1, MCP-1 β ,
338 MIP1 α , RANTES, TGF β -3) showed statistically significant associations, all positive with the exception
339 of RANTES and MCP-1 which were negatively associated ($P < 0.05$) or trends ($P < 0.1$) against BMC
340 and/or BMD parameters (see Table 4).

341 **Table 4.** Spearman rank order correlations between serum cytokine concentrations in 33 participants against participants' bone characteristics.

	Correlation Coefficient (r)																						
	Bone Mineral Density											Bone Mineral Content											
					Dominant			Non-Dominant				T-score	Z-score					Dominant			Non-Dominant		
Total	Thoracic	Lumbar	Pelvis	Rib	Arm	Leg	Rib	Arm	Leg	Rib	Arm			Leg	Total	Thoracic	Lumbar	Pelvis	Rib	Arm	Leg	Rib	Arm
IL-1 β	0.25	0.16	0.10	0.13	0.05	0.15	0.25	0.22	0.16	0.29	0.26	0.36*	0.27	0.04	0.16	0.22	-0.24	0.31	0.33	0.11	0.25	0.32	
IL-6	0.22	0.20	-0.02	0.16	0.03	0.13	0.19	0.22	0.17	0.21	0.24	0.32	0.25	0.18	0.01	0.26	-0.15	0.27	0.24	0.12	0.26	0.24	
TNF α	0.25	0.19	0.07	0.12	0.05	0.18	0.26	0.21	0.18	0.29	0.28	0.35*	0.32	0.14	0.17	0.22	-0.07	0.33	0.39*	0.09	0.27	0.39*	
G-CSF	0.27	0.05	0.04	0.19	0.26	0.07	0.12	0.21	0.10	0.20	0.31	0.29	0.22	0.26	0.17	0.23	0.13	0.11	0.26	0.18	0.08	0.26	
IFN γ	0.04	-0.07	-0.09	-0.16	0.07	0.12	0.04	0.02	0.06	0.02	-0.04	0.00	0.00	-0.12	0.05	-0.17	-0.05	-0.01	0.07	0.02	0.00	0.06	
IL-10	0.13	0.16	0.00	0.11	0.02	0.09	0.13	0.20	0.11	0.13	0.16	0.26	0.20	0.15	-0.03	0.19	-0.21	0.22	0.17	0.06	0.18	0.14	
TGF β -1	0.02	-0.31	-0.06	0.05	-0.05	-0.10	-0.12	-0.22	-0.06	-0.07	-0.04	-0.06	-0.22	-0.05	0.04	0.09	-0.08	-0.11	-0.14	-0.16	-0.05	-0.05	
TGF β -2	0.05	-0.16	0.06	0.05	-0.16	0.02	-0.02	-0.20	0.03	0.00	-0.04	0.09	-0.17	-0.10	0.11	-0.01	0.02	0.01	-0.03	-0.19	0.09	0.04	
TGF β -3	0.44*	0.45*	0.25	0.48**	0.235	0.55**	0.46*	0.27	0.55**	0.51**	0.36	0.27	0.334	0.50**	0.27	0.39*	0.60**	0.41*	0.41*	0.43*	0.41*	0.47*	
IL-8	0.08	0.11	-0.12	-0.04	-0.08	-0.03	0.07	0.03	0.07	0.12	0.04	0.17	0.03	0.05	-0.17	0.07	-0.16	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.13	
MCP-1	-0.13	-0.15	-0.26	-0.14	-0.29	0.00	-0.09	-0.35*	0.09	-0.08	-0.24	-0.18	-0.30	-0.03	-0.19	-0.01	-0.11	-0.13	-0.16	-0.17	-0.07	-0.07	
MIP-1 α	0.44*	0.20	0.16	0.30	0.39*	0.22	0.32	0.42*	0.29	0.38*	0.48**	0.47**	0.39*	0.24	0.21	0.43*	0.09	0.36*	0.43*	0.34	0.31	0.42*	
MIP-1 β	0.31	0.19	0.15	0.25	0.19	0.14	0.19	0.21	0.18	0.22	0.29	0.25	0.20	0.14	0.19	0.34	0.10	0.16	0.25	0.23	0.24	0.28	
RANTES	-0.27	-0.30	-0.31	-0.22	-0.18	-0.18	-0.28	-0.39*	-0.14	-0.26	-0.31	-0.40*	-0.35*	0.02	-0.21	-0.18	0.10	-0.31	-0.30	-0.12	-0.24	-0.22	

342

343 ¹Significant correlations highlighted in black box (* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$) and Trends ($P < 0.1$) are highlighted in grey box. Abbreviations: G-CSF= Granulocyte-colony stimulating factor; IFN γ = interferon gamma;

344 IL= interleukin; MIP= macrophage inflammatory protein; MCP-1= monocyte chemoattractant protein; TGF= transforming growth factor; TNF= tumor necrosis factor; RANTES= regulated on activation,

345 normal T cell expressed and secreted.

346

347

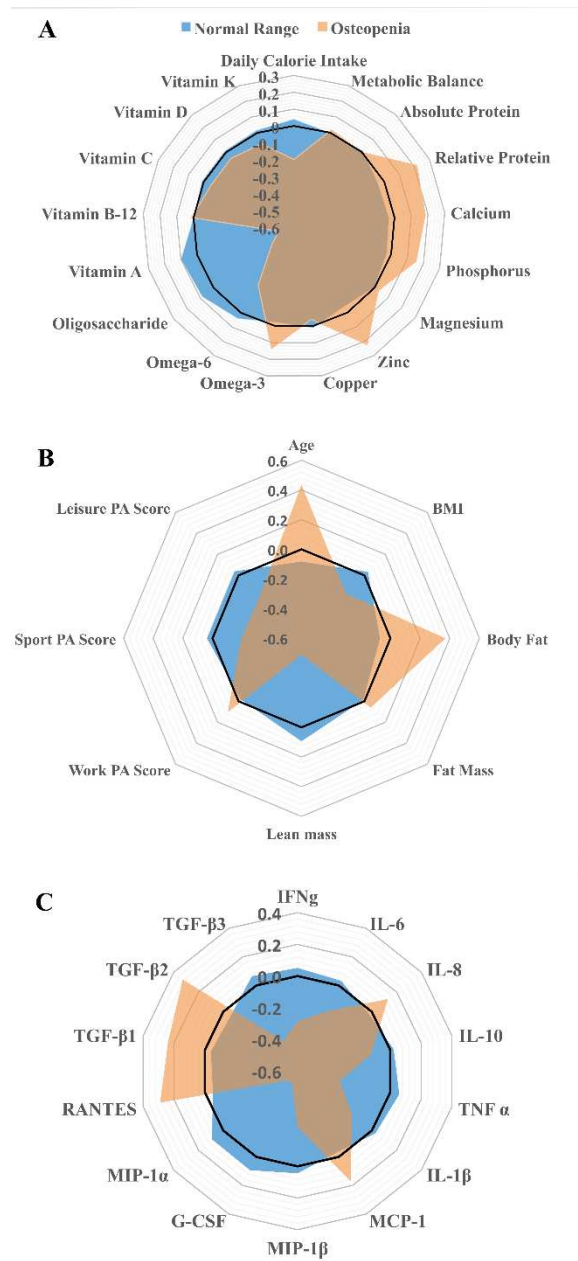
348 *Z-Score comparisons of nutrition characteristics with study sample classified by Bone Health*

349 Figures 2A, 2B and 2C graphically summarizes the overall dietary habits, characteristics of 50
350 participants and endocrine profile grouped by their general bone health utilizing their T-score to
351 define osteopenia (T-score < -1.0) through the dimensionless variable Z-scores. Z-score differences
352 between relative and absolute protein intake between bone health classifications differed, as
353 illustrated by similar absolute intake between groups, yet greater relative intake for those classified
354 within the normal T-score range. This is demonstrated by the percentage difference between Z-scores
355 for absolute protein intake was only 0.4% between classification groups, thus interpreting this finding
356 for both groups to be well matched. However, when expressing protein intake relative to body mass
357 (g/kg) the percentage difference between Z-scores was 10.2% with normal range classified group
358 having a lower relative protein intake. This pattern was continued for nutrients presumed beneficial
359 to bone as demonstrated by calcium (-8.7%), phosphorus (-7.3%) and zinc (-10.5%), but differed for
360 vitamin A (+23.3%), oligosaccharides (+20.2%), omega-6 fatty acid (+9.2%) intake between bone health
361 classifications. Interestingly, individuals classified within the normal range had 9.4% higher Z-score
362 for total calorie intake than those classified with osteopenia. The unit weighted Z-score for all
363 nutrients classified from Figure 2A was calculated to be 0.118 (55%) for individuals scored within a
364 normal range T-score and -0.578 (28%) for individuals classified as osteopenic. Therefore, the
365 difference in percentage between the unit-weighted Z-scores equated to 26.5% between bone health
366 classifications.

367 In figure 2B, the pattern of Z-scores of participant characteristics revealed osteopenic
368 participants to have a higher percentage difference for age (+20.1%), BMI (+8.3%) and body relative
369 fat content (+17.3%), but lower lean mass (-22.5%), sport-based PA (-9.2%) and leisure-based PA (-
370 9.5%). The unit-weighted score for participant characteristics accounting for both positive and
371 negative direction between osteopenic vs. normal range T-score adults was 60.2% lower in the
372 osteopenic group.

373 Finally in figure 2C, the pattern of Z-scores of participants' endocrine profile revealed osteopenic
374 participants to have a higher percentage difference for IL-8 (+6.1%), RANTES (+13.4%) TGF β -1
375 (+11.0%) and TGF β -2 (+15.0%), but lower IFN γ (-13.4%), IL-6 (-8.5%), IL-10 (-5.9%), IL-1 β (-7.5%),
376 TNF α (-15.1%), G-CSF (-23.5%), MIP-1 α (-22.9%), MIP-1 β (-11.6%) and TGF β -3 (-17.7%). The unit-
377 weighted score for endocrine profile accounting for both positive and negative direction between
378 osteopenic vs. normal range T-score adults was 57.2% lower in the healthy bone group.

379
380



381
 382 **Figure 2.** Comparison of patterns of nutrient z-scores (A) associated with bone health [4] taken from participants'
 383 habitual diet, participant characteristics (B) and endocrine levels (C) categorized by their T-score computed from
 384 reference data from the national health and nutrition examination database (Normal range vs. Osteopenia T-
 385 score <-1.0).
 386

387 **Discussion**

388 The present study recognized key elements that influence BMD and potentially alleviate age-
 389 related BMC and BMD loss. These included a varying combinations of optimizing total calorie intake,
 390 nutrient profile, sport-based PA body fat percentage, and BMI as we age. This was demonstrated by
 391 osteopenic participants having a higher body fat%, undertaking less moderate to vigorous activity,
 392 whilst taking in lower total daily calories and participants with a healthy bone profile habitually
 393 consuming more oligosaccharides, omega-6 fatty acids and surprisingly also, Vitamin A. The results
 394 thus support our first hypothesis and partially support our second. Interestingly, additional nutrients
 395 positively associated with bone health were not identified in individuals already within a healthy T-

396 score range. However, our data should be contextualized in the fact that the greatest proportion of
397 the study sample in fact habitually achieved the recommended intake for principal nutrients
398 concerning bone health (calcium, zinc, magnesium and phosphorus). With regards to the third
399 hypothesis when participants were grouped by body fat% and FMI classification, HA and Obese
400 individuals were not found to be negatively affected/disadvantaged by high adiposity with regards
401 to either BMC or BMC and in fact demonstrated higher BMC and BMD in their non-dominant arm,
402 thus rejecting our third hypothesis. Interestingly, individuals with a high BMI appeared to exhibit a
403 loading response as demonstrated by significantly greater BMC and BMD in both their dominant and
404 non-dominant lower limbs. However, in conjunction with this finding, it is interesting that this effect
405 should also be seen to occur in their upper limbs. This latter observation would suggest that the
406 healthier bone in high BMI adults in this age group is not just through additional mechanical loading.
407 We propose that another, equally significant modulator of the greater bone health in high BMI
408 individuals, is the greater total calorie intake. Indeed a covariate analysis correcting for dietary
409 quantity removed the significant difference in bone health between BMI classifications. It is important
410 to note that a strength of the current study design is that the sample was well matched with regards
411 to PA for all group comparisons including between body fat%, BMI, FMI and bone health, even
412 gender grouping. Interestingly and in agreement with the current PA recommendations, we found
413 that sport-based PA significantly positively correlated with the majority of bone sites (7 out of a
414 possible 10 and T score). The latter, as expected, was true on both dominant and non-dominant lower
415 limb bone sites, thus supporting our fourth hypothesis. No correlations were observed between either
416 work or leisure-based PA, which may be due to the age of the sample utilized and their current work
417 status with the majority of individuals either retired or in part time work.

418 When analyzing the effect of nutrition on bone health in the current study, it was expected that
419 particular nutrients already associated with good bone health would exhibit similar and positive
420 correlations. Whilst, there were only two nutrients (including Vitamin A and relative protein intake)
421 associated with BMD characteristics in bivariate correlation, others were highlighted as being
422 important in the modulation of bone health through Z-score analyses including omega 6 fatty acids
423 and oligosaccharides.

424 In the case of Vitamin A, the current body of the literature suggests that there is a U-shaped
425 association with fracture risk [45,46]. Given that within this study, we observed a series of positive
426 correlations ($n=6$) between Vitamin A and a number of BMD sites, it would seem that our population
427 in terms of diet was in the ascending limb of this U-shape relationship ($<3000\mu\text{g}$ [47]). The mechanism
428 suggested for the positive association of Vitamin A and fracture risk is via stimulation of osteoclast
429 formation [48] and/or suppression of osteoblast activity [49], potentially through neutralizing the
430 capability of vitamin D to maintain normal calcium levels [50]. The positive association between
431 Vitamin A and bone health on the other hand is thought to be explained by vitamin A intake (Mean
432 (SD): $1361 (1131\mu\text{g})$) and not exceeding either upper limits of $>3000\mu\text{g}$, where fracture risk increased
433 by 48% when compared to individuals taking less than $1250\mu\text{g}$ [47], which was similar to our sample's
434 average intake.

435 Another initially surprising negative correlation was that between relative protein intake BMD
436 (dominant and non-dominant arm, and non-dominant leg). However, it is notable that following a
437 partial correlation controlling for BMI this relationship was removed suggesting that differences may
438 have been attributed to the strong association between BMI and BMD. Protein intake is reported to
439 positively influence not only musculoskeletal health (increasing or maintaining muscle mass) but is
440 noted to play a role in bone [51]. The recommended intake for adult is the same for optimum
441 musculoskeletal health starting at $0.8\text{g}/\text{kg}$ body mass rising to $1.2\text{--}1.6\text{g}/\text{kg}$ body mass in elderly
442 individuals [52]. The mean for the pooled study population was $1.17\text{g}/\text{kg}$ body mass with 96% of the
443 pooled sample achieving the recommended target intake of $0.8\text{g}/\text{kg}$ body mass demonstrating the
444 high quality diet observed in this study population habitual lifestyle. This healthy dietary pattern is
445 continued throughout the selected nutrients analyzed and may partially explain the lack of
446 associations between nutritional variables and either BMC or BMD characteristics. Interestingly, the

447 best predictors of bone characteristics within the study was both diet quantity and quality, suggesting
448 that adequate food consumption and quality is needed to ensure bone maintenance or growth can be
449 achieved either through diet alone or in conjunction with structured PA. It should be noted that
450 excess calorie intake above one's metabolic demand may increase adipose tissue content and increase
451 obesity risk.

452 The literature shows that obesity and bone health are negatively correlated, potentially through
453 pro-inflammatory cytokines influencing the promotion of osteoclast activity [53] and bone resorption
454 [7], thus negativity impacting bone characteristics. The pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β , IL-6, and
455 TNF- α are important regulators of bone resorption and may play an important role in age-related
456 bone loss [54]. Similarly, the TGF family plays a key role in bone homeostasis whereby therapies
457 using these proteins seem to positively affect bone healing. Interestingly however, chronic
458 inflammation (as normally expected in ageing and/or obesity), is associated with augmented levels
459 of TGF- β 1, and subsequently reduced bone mineral content and/or disturbed bone healing [55].
460 Overexpression of G-CSF (as seen in obesity for instance) induces severe osteopenia [56]. In parallel
461 IFN γ stimulates osteoclast formation and hence bone loss via antigen driven T-cell activation [57]. As
462 for the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10, it deficiency is associated with osteopenia, decreased bone
463 formation, and mechanical fragility of bones [58]. On the other hand, high levels of IL-8 are associated
464 with bone mineral accrual [59]. MCP-1 is thought to have beneficial effects on bone via stimulating
465 the parathyroid hormone [60]. The MIP family has been associated with an acceleration of osteogenic
466 differentiation and mineralization [61]. Last but not least, RANTES overexpression is associated with
467 osteogenic differentiation [62]. Surprisingly though this was not observed within this study, as we
468 noted positive associations (either correlation or trend) between 4 pro-inflammatory cytokines and 3
469 chemokines against both BMD and BMC site locations (see Table 4). We would argue that our data
470 demonstrate that, given the positive relationship between impact based sport/exercise and bone
471 health [63], the deleterious effects of concurrent high cytokines (TNF α , IL-1 β , G-CSF, IL-6) and
472 chemokines (MCP-1, MIP-1 α , MIP-1 β) was outweighed by the impact of a higher BMI adding much
473 needed loading to the skeletal structure [64]. Whilst within our study adiposity appeared positively
474 associated with both dominant and non-dominant arm BMD, it is noteworthy that ~63% of the
475 osteopenic participants were also high adipose. Therefore, whilst no negative association existed
476 within this study, high levels of adiposity may instigate a poorer bone health, which may worsen
477 with duration of exposure to obesity (number of years) and suboptimal diet i.e. relatively low in bone
478 health nutrients (see Figure 2A). However, in view of our findings and limitation of our study, it is
479 noted that blood samples were taken on a single occasion and were not taken over a course of a few
480 months to confirm the average pro-inflammatory levels of each participant. Thus, future
481 investigations should analyze the levels of vitamin and minerals within the blood alongside
482 nutritional intake to examine the interactive of any potential nutrient deficiencies have upon bone
483 health and osteoporosis risk.

484 Finally, it is already widely accepted that PA is a preventative therapy for a number of
485 deleterious ageing-related changes such as low skeletal muscle mass and strength [65], decreased
486 physical function [66], and/or decreasing bone health [30,31]. Our data confirm these findings with
487 regards to bone health, as noted by both classification of training status of participants and structured
488 sport-based PA shown to correlate with 8/12 bone health variables. Also noteworthy, the largest
489 impact of sport-based PA was in the loaded bones sites (both dominant and non-dominant legs and
490 pelvis). With the benefits of PA reported to decrease the risk of hip fractures approximately by 20-
491 40% [67-69] when compared to sedentary inactive individuals, our findings lend further support of
492 the association between increased PA and better BMD in vulnerable bone sites such as the hip and
493 pelvis. Our study also demonstrates the importance of structured intense sport-based PA sessions in
494 comparison to increasing either work or leisure-based PA as a tool to limit the risk of developing
495 osteopenia or ultimately osteoporosis, with ageing. Ultimately also, our data suggest that extra
496 calorie burning when performing sport based PA in those with a higher BMI may be partly

497 responsible for the increased bone mineral density and counterintuitively, a relatively higher level of
 498 pro-inflammatory cytokine levels (due to the prolonged sport based PA).
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501 Conclusion

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This study revealed total calorie intake, sport-based PA, BMI, adiposity, endocrine profile and age to be significant predictors of BMD characteristics in middle to older aged adults, with the main modifiable risk factor of developing osteoporosis being high body fat%. Analysis of nutritional profiles characterized by participants' bone health (normal vs osteopenia), revealed a pattern of positively associated nutrients related to bone health (omega-6 fatty acids, vitamin A and oligosaccharides) within the normal range group. Thus, application of this data suggests both diet quantity and quality, supplemented with structured sport-based PA at a sufficient intensity for the intended age group is associated with a healthy bone profile in later life. Future research should investigate how varying forms of PA impacts on bone health to provide more prescriptive guidelines dependent on either age classification or existing bone health status.

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Author Contributions: Conceptualization, D.J.T and G.L.P.; methodology, D.J.T, R.M.E., C.I.M. and G.L.P.; validation, D.J.T, R.M.E., C.I.M. and G.L.P.; formal analysis, D.J.T. ; investigation, D.J.T, R.M.E., C.I.M. and G.L.P.; resources, D.J.T. and G.L.P; data curation, D.J.T and G.L.P.; writing—original draft preparation, D.J.T. and G.L.P.; writing—review and editing, D.J.T, R.M.E., C.I.M. and G.L.P; visualization, D.J.T; supervision, G.L.P; project administration, D.J.T.

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Funding: This research received no external funding.

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Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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525 Appendix A

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Supplementary Table 1. Participants' anthropometric, nutritional, physical activity (PA) and endocrine characteristics.

Characteristics		Nutritional Intake		PA Scores		Endocrine Profile	
Age (yrs)	64 ± 9	Daily Calorie intake (kcal/d)	1992 ± 389	Work	2.59 ± 0.39	Pro-Inflammatory	
Height (cm)	165 ± 7	Carbohydrate intake (g)	230 ± 56	Sport	2.33 ± 0.55	IL-1β (pg/ml)	2.91 ± 2.64
Body Mass (kg)	75 ± 16	Protein intake (g)	86 ± 20	leisure	2.82 ± 0.50	IL-6 (pg/ml)	11.5 ± 46.3
BMI (kg/m ²)	27.7 ± 5.4	Fat intake (g)	72 ± 18	Global	7.73 ± 0.83	TNFα (pg/ml)	11.0 ± 13.5
Fat Mass (kg)	28.0 ± 9.5	Metabolic Balance (kcal/d)	-26 ± 321			G-CSF (pg/ml)	99.0 ± 157
Body Fat (%)	37.7 ± 7.7	Relative Protein (g/kg)	1.17 ± 0.29			IFNγ (pg/ml)	35.2 ± 117
Lean Mass (kg)	42.8 ± 9.2	Omega 3 Fatty Acid (g)	1.40 ± 1.49			Anti-Inflammatory	
		Omega 6 Fatty Acid (g)	5.94 ± 3.39			IL-10 (pg/ml)	18.4 ± 53.9
		Vitamin A (μg)	1361 ± 1131			TGFβ-1 (pg/ml)	32267 ± 38860
		Vitamin D (μg)	5.35 ± 7.72			TGFβ-2 (pg/ml)	296 ± 220
		Calcium (mg)	1019 ± 304			TGFβ-3 (pg/ml)	221 ± 285
		Zinc (mg)	10.1 ± 2.7			Chemokines	
		Vitamin C (mg)	115 ± 65			IL-8 (pg/ml)	41.4 ± 23.2

Magnesium (mg)	356 ± 90	MCP-1 (pg/ml)	76.7 ± 99.4
Phosphorus (mg)	1526 ± 353	MIP-1 α (pg/ml)	9.16 ± 7.6
Vitamin K (μ g)	58.9 ± 78.1	MIP-1 β (pg/ml)	513 ± 650
Oligosaccharide (g)	0.86 ± 1.54	RANTES (pg/ml)	86869 ± 47873

529 **Supplementary Table 2.** Participant scoring and criteria utilized for participants' habitual daily nutritional intake
530 and nutrients positively associated with bone health.

		Scoring Criteria							
Daily Nutrition		Points	Participants		Points	Participants		Points	Participants
Protein Intake	≥1.2 g/day	2	25/50	0.8-1.19 g/day	1	23/50	<0.8 g/day	0	2/50
Carbohydrate Intake	Within 45-65% DI	2	28/50	Below/Above 45-65% DI	0	22/50			
Metabolic Score	10% within CDI	2	20/50	±10-20% outside CDI	0	20/50	>±20% outside CDI	-1	10/50
Fat	Within +5% of 35% DI	2	31/50	Outside ±5% of 35% DI	1	19/50			
Saturated Fat	<11% of DI	1	49/50	≥11% of DI	-2	1/50			
Trans Fat	<2% of DI	1	50/50	≥2% of DI	-2	0/50			
Polyunsaturated Fat	Within ±10% 19-64yrs M=18g F=14g 65+yrs M=17g F=14g	1	9/50	Outside ±10-20%	-1	11/50	> ±20%	-2	30/50
Monounsaturated Fat	Within ±10% 19-64yrs M=36g F=29g 65+yrs M=34g F=28g	1	8/50	Outside ±10-20%	-1	12/50	> ±20%	-2	30/50
Free Sugars	19-64yrs M=<33g F=<27g 65+yrs M=<31g F=<26g	1	12/50	19-64yrs M=>33g F=>27g 65+yrs M=>31g F=>26g	-1	38/50			
Omega-3 Fatty Acid	≥1.6 g/day	2	16/50	<1.6 g/day	0	34/50			
Omega-6 Fatty Acid	≥10 g/day	2	5/50	<10 g/day	0	45/50			
Vitamin A	Within 700µg/day- 3000µg/day	1	37/50	<700µg/day >3000µg/day	-	13/50			
Vitamin D	≥10 µg/day	2	4/50	<10 µg/day	0	46/50			
Vitamin E	>3 mg/day	1	50/50	<3 mg/day	0	50/50			
Vitamin C	≥40 µg/day	1	47/50	<40 µg/day	0	3/50			
Vitamin B-12	≥1.5 µg/day	1	50/50	<1.5 µg/day	0	50/50			
Fibre	≥30 g/day	1	4/50	<30 g/day	0	46/50			
Calcium	≥700 mg/day	1	45/50	<700 mg/day	0	5/50			
Zinc	M = ≥9.5 mg/day F = ≥7 mg/day	1	42/50	M = <9.5 mg/day F = <7 mg/day	0	8/50			
Iron	≥8.7 mg/day	1	45/50	<8.7 mg/day	0	5/50			
Sodium	<2.4 g/day	1	39/50	≥2.4 g/day	0	11/50			
Magnesium	M = ≥300mg/day F= ≥270mg/day	1	40/50	M = <300mg/day F= <270mg/day	0	10/50			
Vitamin K	>109 µg/day	1	7/50	<109 µg/day	0	43/50			
Phosphorus	≥550mg	1	50/50	<550mg	0	0/50			
Copper	≥1.2mg/day	1	36/50	<1.2mg/day	0	14/50			
Oligosaccharide	≥8g/day	1	1/50	<8g/day	0	49/50			
Bone Scoring									
Calcium	≥700 mg/day	1	45/50	<700 mg/day	0	5/50			
Vitamin D	≥10 µg/day	2	4/50	<10 µg/day	0	46/50			
Vitamin C	≥40 µg/day	1	47/50	<40 µg/day	0	3/50			
Protein Intake	≥1.2 g/day	2	25/50	0.8-1.19 g/day	1	23/50	<0.8 g/day	0	2/50
Omega-3 Fatty Acid	≥1.6 g/day	2	16/50	<1.6 g/day	0	34/50			
Vitamin K	≥109 µg/day	1	7/50	<109 µg/day	0	43/50			
Oligosaccharide	≥8g/day	1	1/50	<8g/day	0	49/50			
Zinc	M = ≥9.5 mg/day F = ≥7 mg/day	1	42/50	M = <9.5 mg/day F = <7 mg/day	0	8/50			
Magnesium	M = ≥300mg/day F= ≥270mg/day	1	40/50	M = <300mg/day F= <270mg/day	0	10/50			
Phosphorus	≥550mg	1	50/50	<550mg	0	0/50			

531 ¹Dietary reference values are composed from both UK and US guidelines [40,41,70]. Abbreviations: CDI, corrected daily intake;
532 DI, daily intake; F, female; M, male

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534**Supplementary Table 3.** Bone mineral content (BMC) and bone mineral density (BMD) characteristics in 50 randomly selected untrained 43-80 yrs old adults categorized by body fat%, body mass index (BMI) and fat mass index (FMI) classifications.

	Body Fat%		Main Effect	Body Mass Index			Main Effect	FMI				Main Effect
	NA (n=18)	HA/Ob (n=32)	P	NW (n=15)	Ov (n=19)	Ob (n=16)	P	FD (n=2)	NW (n=12)	EF (n=23)	Ob (n=13)	P
BMC (g)												
Total	2258 ± 450 ^a	2367 ± 405 ^a	0.385	2151 ± 433^a	2294 ± 370 ^{ab}	2532 ± 401 ^b	0.023	2364 ± 710 ^a	2185 ± 509 ^a	2308 ± 339 ^a	2488 ± 426 ^a	0.226
Thoracic	111 ± 23^a	136 ± 33^b	0.006	111 ± 23^a	129 ± 37^{ab}	139 ± 27^b	0.026	102 ± 29 ^a	115 ± 42 ^a	128 ± 24 ^a	138 ± 29 ^a	0.051
Lumbar	66 ± 16 ^a	66 ± 20 ^a	0.911	65 ± 21 ^a	65 ± 18 ^a	69 ± 18 ^a	0.800	72 ± 40 ^a	63 ± 11 ^a	67 ± 21 ^a	67 ± 19 ^a	0.972
Pelvis	238 ± 78 ^a	224 ± 63 ^a	0.762	222 ± 75	216 ± 65 ^a	250 ± 64 ^a	0.171	259 ± 171 ^a	225 ± 70 ^a	220 ± 62 ^a	243 ± 68 ^a	0.796
Dominant												
Ribs	86 ± 25^a	107 ± 25^b	0.007	76 ± 16^a	100 ± 20^b	121 ± 23^c	<0.001	81 ± 17^{ab}	79 ± 19^b	100 ± 21^b	121 ± 25^a	<0.001
Arm	162 ± 50 ^a	175 ± 41 ^a	0.146	151 ± 43^a	174 ± 43^a	185 ± 44^a	0.034	137 ± 26 ^a	154 ± 52 ^a	177 ± 41 ^a	179 ± 42 ^a	0.081
Leg	418 ± 90 ^a	452 ± 96 ^a	0.225	390 ± 82^a	448 ± 103^a	477 ± 83^b	0.033	435 ± 94 ^a	398 ± 110 ^a	447 ± 91 ^a	468 ± 88 ^a	0.151
Non-Dominant												
Ribs	87 ± 22 ^a	98 ± 28 ^a	0.139	79 ± 18^a	98 ± 24^b	104 ± 30^b	0.004	79 ± 24^a	81 ± 20^a	99 ± 24^a	101 ± 32^a	0.044
Arm	152 ± 48^a	177 ± 50^b	0.036	137 ± 37^a	175 ± 53^b	189 ± 47^b	0.002	128 ± 29^{ab}	142 ± 47^b	174 ± 48^{ab}	188 ± 49^a	0.011
Leg	416 ± 129 ^a	437 ± 96 ^a	0.196	375 ± 92^a	439 ± 123^a	470 ± 85^b	0.009	433 ± 125 ^a	382 ± 118 ^a	435 ± 109 ^a	464 ± 90 ^a	0.058
BMD (g/cm²)												
Total	1.168 ± 0.12 ^a	1.166 ± 0.13 ^a	0.958	1.125 ± 0.11 ^a	1.165 ± 0.14 ^a	1.208 ± 0.12 ^a	0.198	1.165 ± 0.134 ^a	1.150 ± 0.138 ^a	1.161 ± 0.129 ^a	1.192 ± 0.126 ^a	0.870
Thoracic	1.007 ± 0.11^a	1.090 ± 0.18 ^a	0.093	1.009 ± 0.13^a	1.034 ± 0.16^a	1.141 ± 0.16^a	0.045	0.970 ± 0.052 ^a	1.032 ± 0.138 ^a	1.036 ± 0.168 ^a	1.145 ± 0.158 ^a	0.207
Lumbar	1.117 ± 0.17 ^a	1.131 ± 0.22 ^a	0.812	1.144 ± 0.19 ^a	1.100 ± 0.23 ^a	1.140 ± 0.20 ^a	0.564	1.152 ± 0.281 ^a	1.150 ± 0.147 ^a	1.105 ± 0.239 ^a	1.135 ± 0.198 ^a	0.933
Pelvis	1.189 (0.18) ^a	1.203 ± 0.18 ^a	0.792	1.129 ± 0.17 ^a	1.199 ± 0.16 ^a	1.262 ± 0.19 ^a	0.115	1.058 ± 0.249 ^a	1.198 ± 0.158 ^a	1.182 ± 0.171 ^a	1.249 ± 0.205 ^a	0.541
Dominant												
Ribs	0.693 ± 0.09 ^a	0.689 ± 0.11 ^a	0.613	0.662 ± 0.08 ^a	0.700 ± 0.14 ^a	0.706 ± 0.09 ^a	0.383	0.704 ± 0.069 ^a	0.682 ± 0.098 ^a	0.696 ± 0.131 ^a	0.686 ± 0.074 ^a	0.917
Arm	0.778 ± 0.15 ^a	0.840 ± 0.14 ^a	0.066	0.734 ± 0.10^a	0.818 ± 0.16^{ab}	0.884 ± 0.15^b	0.009	0.678 ± 0.038^a	0.765 ± 0.169^a	0.824 ± 0.143^a	0.864 ± 0.139^a	0.036
Leg	1.165 ± 0.15 ^a	1.209 ± 0.14 ^a	0.310	1.122 ± 0.14^a	1.195 ± 0.14^{ab}	1.257 ± 0.13^b	0.024	1.137 ± 0.054 ^a	1.144 ± 0.179 ^a	1.192 ± 0.132 ^a	1.248 ± 0.144 ^a	0.337
Non-Dominant												
Ribs	0.690 ± 0.08 ^a	0.699 ± 0.08 ^a	0.700	0.664 ± 0.08 ^a	0.692 ± 0.08 ^a	0.728 ± 0.07 ^a	0.067	0.703 ± 0.064 ^a	0.681 ± 0.096 ^a	0.694 ± 0.077 ^a	0.710 ± 0.066 ^a	0.827
Arm	0.759 ± 0.15^a	0.825 ± 0.14^b	0.041	0.709 ± 0.08^a	0.822 ± 0.17^b	0.864 ± 0.13^b	0.004	0.674 ± 0.059^a	0.733 ± 0.138^a	0.821 ± 0.156^a	0.850 ± 0.118^a	0.023
Leg	1.166 ± 0.19 ^a	1.199 ± 0.15 ^a	0.495	1.108 ± 0.15^a	1.186 ± 0.17^{ab}	1.261 ± 0.13^b	0.027	1.126 ± 0.101 ^a	1.128 ± 0.182 ^a	1.186 ± 0.160 ^a	1.251 ± 0.142 ^a	0.133
Z-score												
	1.144 ± 1.08 ^a	0.922 ± 0.92 ^a	0.450	0.827 ± 1.19 ^a	1.000 ± 0.75 ^a	1.169 ± 1.06 ^a	0.638	1.00 ± 0.57 ^a	1.14 ± 1.33 ^a	0.89 ± 0.77 ^a	1.07 ± 1.11 ^a	0.905
T-score												
	0.478 ± 1.21 ^a	0.334 ± 1.37 ^a	0.713	-0.033 ± 1.18 ^a	0.300 ± 1.21 ^a	0.881 ± 1.44 ^a	0.140	0.70 ± 1.56 ^a	0.26 ± 1.27 ^a	0.24 ± 1.22 ^a	0.72 ± 1.53 ^a	0.730

535 Data are Mean ± Standard Deviation. Group significant differences are highlighted in bold. Labelled Adiposity, BMI and FMI pairwise means in a row without a common letter differ, $P < 0.05$. Non-parametric tests are
536 highlighted in grey shading. Abbreviations: EF, Excess Fat; FD, Fat Deficit; HA, High Adipose; NA, Normal Adipose; NW, Normal Weight; Ob, Obese; Ov, Overweight; U, Underweight



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