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## Weight gain in first-semester university students: Positive sleep and diet practices associated with protective effects

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1 **Title: Weight gain in first-semester university students: Positive sleep and diet**  
2 **practices associated with protective effects**

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**17 Abstract**

18 For university students, alterations in sleep and diet quality are common, and the  
19 propensity for weight gain is well established. The role of sleep duration during periods  
20 of rapid weight gain is understudied. This study explored the relationships between sleep  
21 duration, diet patterns, and body composition in first-year university students. Data  
22 collection occurred during the beginning of the fall (August) and spring semesters  
23 (January). Anthropometric measures included weight, height, and percent body fat  
24 (%BF). Survey questions assessed sleep and diet quality. As a group, participants (N =  
25 60) gained weight ( $1.8 \pm 2.1$  kg) over the 4.5-month period of study. Hierarchical cluster  
26 analysis (HCA) identified three groups based on weight change between baseline and  
27 follow-up visits. Group 1 (“maintainers”) (N = 21) gained  $0.1 \pm 1.3$  kg, group 2 (“modest  
28 gainers”) (N = 24) gained  $2.0 \pm 1.7$  kg, and group 3 (“major gainers”) (N = 15) gained  $3.8$   
29  $\pm 1.8$  kg. No differences in weight, body mass index (BMI), %BF, or average sleep  
30 duration existed between clusters at baseline. Minimal differences in baseline dietary  
31 behaviors between groups were noted other than maintainers used more fat, e.g., butter,  
32 to season vegetables, bread, and potatoes compared to modest gainers ( $p = 0.010$ ). At  
33 follow-up, sleep duration significantly decreased from baseline among major gainers ( $7.1$   
34  $\pm 0.7$  vs.  $6.8 \pm 0.7$  h;  $p = 0.017$ ) while sleep duration increased from baseline among  
35 maintainers ( $7.3 \pm 0.9$  vs.  $7.6 \pm 1.0$  h,  $p = 0.048$ ). Sleep duration at follow-up was  
36 significantly shorter among major gainers compared to maintainers ( $p = 0.016$ ). Total diet  
37 scores for maintainers and modest gainers improved between visits ( $p = 0.038$  and  $0.002$ ,  
38 respectively) but did not change among major gainers. Combining sleep and diet

39 education may increase the effectiveness of interventions designed to mitigate weight  
40 gain in this high-risk population.

41

42 **Key words:** sleep; diet quality; weight gain; college students; public health

## 43 **1 Introduction**

44 Dietary behaviors play an important role in determining body weight and body  
45 composition [1]. While these relationships are well established, more recent data suggest  
46 that sleep is also associated with these factors. Recent meta-analyses suggest that shorter  
47 sleep duration is correlated with higher body mass index (BMI) [2–7], with the strongest  
48 associations observed in younger children, adolescents, and young adults. Most studies  
49 examining weight gain longitudinally have lengthy follow-up times (e.g., 3.4 years) [6],  
50 obscuring the time course of weight change. Since first-year university students are at  
51 increased risk of gaining weight over the course of the academic year [8,9], including  
52 during the first semester [10], they are an ideal population to assess associations between  
53 sleep, diet, and weight changes over a shorter time frame.

54 Guidelines put forth by the National Sleep Foundation in the United States (US)  
55 recommend that adults ages 18-25 should sleep 7-9 hours per night [11]. Popular thought  
56 frequently associates college life with “all nighters” and other behaviors not conducive to  
57 adequate sleep. Contrary to this perception, evidence suggests that the majority of college  
58 students, both in the US and abroad, appear to meet sleep recommendations; however,  
59 some students do not. The prevalence of failing to meet sleep recommendations ranges  
60 from 12 – 40%, depending on the definition of insufficient sleep used in these studies  
61 [12–15]. Given the associations between sleep duration and BMI [2–7], students who do  
62 not meet sleep recommendations may be at higher risk for weight gain.

63 Cross-sectional reports frequently identify negative correlations between self-reported  
64 sleep duration and adiposity [13,16–19], but few longitudinal studies have examined  
65 relationships between sleep duration and weight or body composition in college students.

66 The findings of these studies are mixed [20–22]. Several factors could contribute to these  
67 variable results. First, the duration and design of the studies differed, ranging from  
68 approximately 12 days [22] to 9 weeks [20] to 6 months retrospectively and prospectively  
69 [21]. Second, retrospective studies can suffer from recall bias. Third, weight information  
70 was self-reported in one study [20], which could be subject to misreporting. Thus, given  
71 the varying study designs, contradicting results are not surprising.

72 The purpose of this study was to examine relationships between self-reported sleep  
73 duration, dietary behaviors, and objectively measured body composition over the course  
74 of an academic semester (late August/early September – January). The primary  
75 hypothesis was that students reporting the least amount of sleep would gain the most  
76 weight – predominantly as body fat – over the study’s time course. A secondary  
77 hypothesis was that desirable dietary behaviors would decrease in those who gained the  
78 most weight, given the associations between poorer diet quality and obesity [23].

79

## 80 **2 Methods**

### 81 2.1 Participants

82 As part of a larger investigation [10], newly enrolled first-year students living on the  
83 campus of a large, Midwestern university were invited to participate via flyers, social  
84 media, e-mail, and new-student orientation activities. Participants were informed that  
85 anthropometric measurements would be taken, but study advertising emphasized an  
86 interest in characterizing health patterns to avoid self-selection bias of students only  
87 concerned about weight. For inclusion in the study, participants had to: be  $\geq 18$  years old;  
88 live on-campus; not be pregnant or planning pregnancy; weigh  $\leq 250$  kg (scale capacity);

89 and have no implanted medical device(s) (contraindicated for bioelectrical impedance  
90 analysis (BIA) testing).

## 91 2.2 Testing Protocol

92 The study lasted 4.5 months. Baseline testing occurred in late August/early  
93 September (beginning of the academic year) with follow-up in mid-January (after winter  
94 holidays). Each visit consisted of body composition measurement and survey completion.  
95 Upon providing written informed consent, participants came to the laboratory twice for  
96 testing and were instructed not to exercise or eat or drink anything except water for at  
97 least two hours prior to each visit to minimize errors in body composition testing [24].

### 98 2.2.1 Measures of sleep and dietary patterns

99 Two survey questions assessed sleep duration. The first question, taken from the  
100 Youth Risk Behavior Survey asked: “On an average night, how many hours of sleep do  
101 you get?” [25]. When answering the question, participants were instructed to think about  
102 the last 7 days. The second question asked: “How many hours of sleep did you get last  
103 night?”, and is frequently used in sleep research, e.g., [26–29]. Diet was assessed using  
104 the validated Starting the Conversation (STC) food frequency questionnaire [30]. The  
105 STC survey consists of eight questions and was found to be sensitive to changes in  
106 dietary patterns over a four-month period [30]. Questions on the STC survey ask about  
107 consumption of fast food; fruit; vegetables; soda and sweet tea; beans, chicken, or fish;  
108 snack chips or crackers; desserts and other sweets; and butter, margarine, or meat fat used  
109 to season breads, vegetables, or potatoes. The answers to these questions were summed to  
110 provide a total diet quality score; a lower score indicates a more healthful diet (minimum  
111 = 0, maximum = 16) [30]. The university’s institutional review board approved the study,

112 and all participants received a small item (e.g., Frisbee, t-shirt) for their participation after  
113 each visit.

#### 114 2.2.2 Anthropometric measures

115 Anthropometric indices were assessed by measuring height to the nearest 0.1 cm  
116 using a stadiometer and weight to the nearest 0.1 kg using a calibrated electronic scale  
117 coupled with the BIA machine. BMI was calculated from these measurements ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ).  
118 Percent body fat (%BF) was assessed by BIA (InBody 230; Biospace, Seoul, Korea).  
119 Participants wore compression shorts/tops to provide consistency in apparel worn during  
120 testing.

#### 121 2.3 Data analysis

122 Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 24.0, IBM Corporation,  
123 2015). Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Hierarchical cluster  
124 analysis (HCA) was used to place similar participants into groups that significantly  
125 differed by the amount of weight change between baseline and follow-up. The HCA  
126 technique allows for data exploration without requiring *a priori* decisions regarding the  
127 number of clusters [31,32]. Appropriate cut-offs for cluster membership were based on  
128 numerical (agglomeration schedule) and visual (dendrogram) output. Differences  
129 between groups were evaluated using ANOVA and Tukey's HSD post hoc tests. Within  
130 each group, comparisons between baseline and follow-up were assessed using paired t-  
131 tests [33]. Given the small number of males who completed testing, and that  
132 interpretation of BMI, sleep duration, and STC scores did not vary by sex, data from  
133 males and females were combined. Statistical significance was determined by a two-  
134 tailed p-value  $\leq 0.05$ .

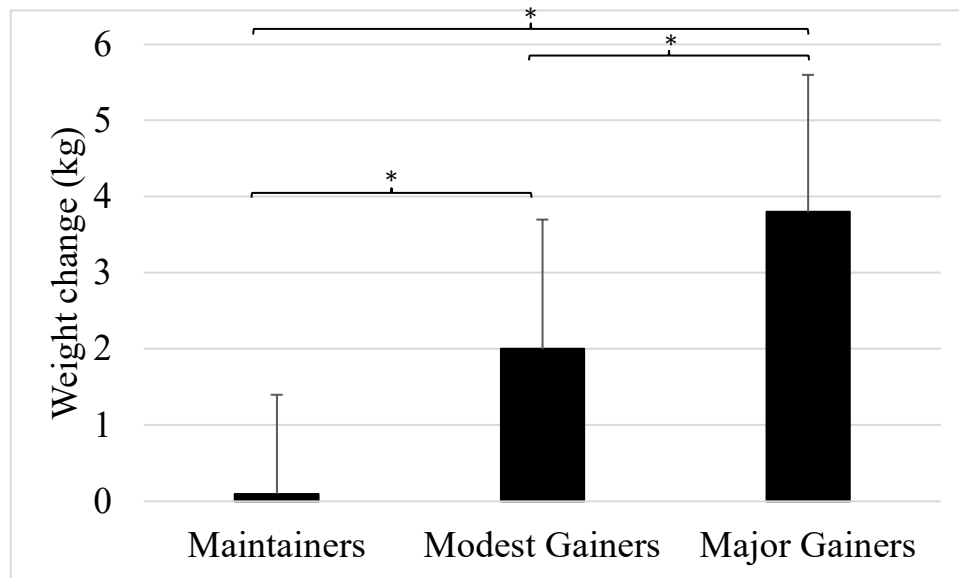


### 135 3 Results

136 A total of 60 participants completed testing at both baseline and follow-up. The  
137 majority of the participants were female (N = 49, 82.0%) and white (N = 54, 90.0%). The  
138 average age was  $18.1 \pm 0.3$  years at baseline. The range of weight change among  
139 participants spanned from -2.9 to +9.1 kg, with a mean weight change of  $1.8 \pm 2.1$  kg.  
140 The majority of participants reported sleeping  $\geq 7$  h per night the week prior to testing (N  
141 = 42, 70.0%), and a similar number reported sleeping  $\geq 7$  h the night before testing (N =  
142 41, 68.3%) ( $p = 0.341$ ). Compared to baseline, 42 participants (70.0%) indicated that they  
143 slept  $\geq 7$  h per night the week prior to testing, while 46 (78.0%) reported sleeping  $\geq 7$  h  
144 the night before testing ( $p < 0.001$ ) at the final visit. For the total group, sleep duration  
145 for both the night and week before testing were not significantly different compared to  
146 baseline (night before:  $7.1 \pm 0.9$  h (baseline) vs.  $7.2 \pm 1.0$  h (follow-up) ( $p = 0.498$ );  
147 weekly average:  $7.1 \pm 1.3$  h (baseline) vs.  $7.3 \pm 1.2$  h (follow-up) ( $p = 0.633$ )).

148 HCA identified three groups that differed in terms of weight change ( $p < 0.003$  for  
149 all). Group 1 (“maintainers”) (N = 21) gained just  $0.1 \pm 1.3$  kg. The two other groups  
150 both gained weight but differed by the amount gained. Group 2 (“modest gainers”) (N =  
151 24) gained  $2.0 \pm 1.7$  kg, while group 3 (“major gainers”) (N = 15) gained  $3.8 \pm 1.8$  kg  
152 (Figure 1). No differences between weight, BMI, %BF, sleep duration the night before, or  
153 sleep duration the week before testing existed at baseline between the groups. Changes in  
154 %BF between baseline and follow-up occurred in both the modest ( $21.7 \pm 9.6$  vs.  $25.9 \pm$   
155  $9.0$ ,  $p = 0.008$ ) and major gainers ( $24.1 \pm 5.4$  vs.  $27.4 \pm 6.3$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

156  
157  
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161 Figure 1. Weight change by the three groups identified by HCA (mean  $\pm$  SD). All three  
162 groups differed in weight change. \*Denotes  $p < 0.05$ .

163

164 Changes in reported average nightly sleep duration over the past week were noted  
165 both within groups over time and between groups at follow-up. Average nightly sleep  
166 duration significantly decreased from baseline for major gainers ( $7.1 \pm 0.7$  vs.  $6.7 \pm 0.8$  h;  
167  $p = 0.017$ ) while sleep duration increased from baseline for maintainers ( $7.3 \pm 0.9$  vs.  $7.6$   
168  $\pm 1.0$  h,  $p = 0.048$ ). No differences in sleep duration were noted at baseline, but sleep  
169 duration at follow-up was nearly an hour shorter among major gainers compared to  
170 maintainers ( $6.7 \pm 0.8$  h vs.  $7.6 \pm 1.0$  h;  $p = 0.016$ ). Modest gainers did not differ from  
171 either group, nor did they alter their sleep duration between baseline and follow-up ( $7.0 \pm$   
172  $1.0$  h vs.  $7.1 \pm 1.0$  h,  $p = 0.641$ ). There were no differences in the previous night's  
173 reported sleep duration between groups or within groups over time.

174 In terms of dietary intake patterns, no differences in total STC scores were observed  
175 between groups at either baseline or follow-up (Table 1). However, both maintainers and

176 modest gainers experienced significant improvements in total STC scores between the  
 177 two visits ( $p = 0.038$  and  $p = 0.002$ , respectively). While major gainers also reported  
 178 improvement in total STC scores, the improvement was not significant. In terms of intake  
 179 of specific foods, the only difference in dietary intake at baseline was that maintainers  
 180 used more fat, e.g., butter, margarine, or meat fat to season vegetables, bread, and  
 181 potatoes at baseline compared to modest gainers ( $p = 0.010$ ). At follow-up, modest  
 182 gainers reported consuming fewer desserts and sweets compared to major gainers ( $p =$   
 183  $0.047$ ).

184

185 Table 1. Measurements of BMI, sleep duration, and STC score at baseline and follow-up  
 186 by weight gain pattern

	Maintainers (N=21)		Modest Gainers (N=24)		Major Gainers (N=15)	
	Baseline	Follow-up	Baseline	Follow-up	Baseline	Follow-up
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	23.2±3.1	23.3±3.2	22.5±2.9	23.1±3.1*	21.8±2.3	23.2±2.6*
Weekly average sleep duration (h)	7.3±0.9	7.6±1.0*#	7.0±1.0	7.1±1.0	7.1±0.7	6.7±0.8*#
STC score	8.6±3.1	7.3±2.8*	7.8±2.3	6.2±2.4*	7.6±2.2	7.0±2.7

187

188 Measures taken at baseline and follow-up based on the weight gain patterns identified by  
 189 HCA. STC score reflects the sum of all responses from STC survey, with possible scores  
 190 ranging from 0-16; higher scores reflect poorer dietary quality. \*Denotes a significant  
 191 change between baseline and follow-up. #Denotes a significant difference between  
 192 groups. No differences between groups were observed at baseline.

193

#### 194 4 Discussion

195 While long-term excess energy intake – derived from dietary choices and resulting  
 196 patterns of intake – has a well-established role in weight gain [34], there is limited  
 197 information regarding relationships between college students' sleep duration and weight

198 gain over time. In this study, HCA was used to identify three categories of participants  
199 based on weight change during a 4.5-month period: maintainers, modest gainers, and  
200 major gainers. Significant differences in average nightly sleep duration over the past  
201 week were observed between maintainers and major gainers, and major gainers reported  
202 sleeping significantly less, while maintainers reported sleeping significantly more at  
203 follow-up. Maintainers and modest gainers reported improvements in STC scores,  
204 suggesting that a healthier diet was consumed, but unlike maintainers, modest gainers  
205 also experienced decreased sleep duration. Percent body fat increased for both modest  
206 and major gainers, indicating that the weight gained was comprised of more fat mass than  
207 lean body mass.

208       Insufficient sleep promotes weight gain through a variety of mechanisms. First, sleep  
209 curtailment results in increased sedentary behavior [7] and increased energy intake [35],  
210 favoring the consumption of carbohydrates and fat [36–39]. Second, appetite hormones  
211 are also negatively affected by sleep deficit [36,40–42]. Most proposed mechanisms  
212 whereby sleep curtailment leads to increased energy intake involve hedonic (eating for  
213 pleasure) rather than homeostatic (eating for hunger) drivers, with increased sensitivity to  
214 the rewarding properties of food [41,43,44]. Given this evidence, reduced sleep duration  
215 appears to prime individuals to make unhealthy food choices with negative consequences  
216 on body weight and composition. In the present study, significantly healthier dietary  
217 patterns emerged among maintainers and modest gainers over time. These same groups  
218 increased or maintained their sleep duration, respectively. Thus, improved dietary  
219 behaviors and protected sleep time were associated with lower weight gain in this  
220 population.

221 In terms of average nightly sleep duration over the past week, major gainers reported  
222 sleeping nearly an entire hour less per night than maintainers at follow-up (6.7 vs. 7.6 h),  
223 and maintainers reported increased sleep (7.3 vs. 7.6 h) at follow-up. The relationship  
224 between BMI and sleep appears to be a U-shaped curve, with an ideal amount between 7-  
225 8 h/night and problems occurring with too much or too little [5]. Whether the slight  
226 increase in sleep duration by maintainers or simply maintaining sleep duration within the  
227 recommended amount helped to protect against weight gain cannot be assessed due to the  
228 observational nature of the study. While it remains to be seen if increasing sleep duration  
229 facilitates weight loss [5,45], evidence suggests that college students are willing to  
230 change sleep behaviors. For example, students who received e-mail messages about the  
231 importance of sleep maintained their self-reported sleep duration over the course of the  
232 10-month follow-up period, unlike the control group whose sleep duration decreased  
233 [46]. Others reported that two 90-minute programs reduced the latency of sleep onset  
234 [47]. Further work exploring how increasing sleep duration affects weight change is  
235 needed.

236 The self-reported sleep duration in this sample is in agreement with numerous  
237 studies among college-aged populations [12–15,48]. While self-reported sleep duration is  
238 frequently used as a measure of sleep time [49–51], little work has been done to compare  
239 self-reported sleep to objective measurements. One such study reported a moderate  
240 correlation ( $r=0.45$ ) between self-reported sleep duration and objective measurement  
241 using actigraphy [52], while another reported correlations of 0.34 [53]. Another study  
242 observed that correlations between self-reported sleep and FitBit data ranged from 0.56 –  
243 0.82 [54]. In all studies, participants were found to over-estimate the amount of sleep

244 they actually experienced. Participants in this study may also have overestimated their  
245 sleep, but this overestimation likely pertains to participants in all three groups as,  
246 previously, the correlation between self-reported and actigraphy-measured sleep was not  
247 found to differ by BMI category [53].

#### 248 *4.1 Strengths and Limitations*

249 The longitudinal design of this study is a strength. Much of the work on sleep and  
250 dietary intake or weight gain/status in this population has been cross sectional or of  
251 limited duration (i.e., 1 - 2 weeks) [13,16–19,22], making it difficult to assess true  
252 changes in fat mass over time. Additionally, the study's duration of 4.5 months allowed  
253 for the inclusion of recovery sleep on the weekends. Recovery sleep has been shown to  
254 be important in preventing insufficient-sleep-related weight gain [55].

255 The use of hierarchical cluster analysis to identify different weight change patterns is  
256 also a strength. HCA allows the researcher to select a variable or variables that can be  
257 used to group participants into clusters of individuals with similar response patterns [32].  
258 These clusters then differ from each other, facilitating the exploration of which factors  
259 contribute to the observed differences.

260 Limitations of the study include a lack of sleep quality measures. Sleep quality, like  
261 sleep duration, has been negatively associated with BMI [19,56,57]. Sleep quality is not  
262 necessarily associated with quantity, as other sleep-related factors, such as depth and time  
263 spent in various sleep stages, can contribute to the perception of quality [11]. While sleep  
264 quality lacks generally agreed upon measures [58] making it difficult to quantify, the  
265 sleep quality of college students has been shown to be poor in segments of this

266 population [15,59]. In order to parse how sleep duration and quality affect weight gain  
267 among university students, future work should explore these factors.

268 A further limitation stems from the fact that information on other behaviors and  
269 environmental factors that can contribute to weight gain, such as exercise, sedentary  
270 behavior, and stress were not monitored. These factors can also contribute to reductions  
271 in sleep duration and quality [60,61].

272 Finally, the use of a convenience sample of students responding to advertisements to  
273 participate in a research study about health may make generalization to a wider  
274 population difficult [62]; however, it is likely that these participants would bias the  
275 results in the direction of not observing differences. That is, if they are health conscious,  
276 they are likely to be eating better and engaging in more health promoting behaviors. Still,  
277 changes and differences were observed. The fact that our study population was lean and  
278 the lack of diversity in terms of sex and race should also be noted. Exploring if and how  
279 these factors might contribute to different results in a larger sample size is worthy of  
280 future consideration.

281

## 282 **5 Conclusions**

283 The relationships between sleep duration and weight gain among university students  
284 are not well understood. Among the three patterns of weight change identified, students  
285 who avoided major weight gain either maintained or increased their average weekly sleep  
286 duration and engaged in improved dietary behaviors. Future work examining objective  
287 sleep duration as well as objective and subjective sleep quality will provide additional  
288 insight into these relationships.

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296

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