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1 **Effects of Moderate- and High-Intensity Acute Aerobic Exercise on Food Reward**
2 **and Appetite in Individuals with Methamphetamine Dependence**

3
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30 **Abstract**

31 **Purpose:** Drug addiction is characterised by overvaluation of drug-related rewards and
32 undervaluation of "natural", non-drug-related rewards. Methamphetamine (MA) is the
33 second largest illegally abused drug in the world. Studies have shown that acute aerobic
34 exercise can reduce the incidence of MA abusers' craving for drug-related cues, but the
35 impact of exercise on food reward in this population has yet to be established. The aim
36 of this study was to determine the effects of moderate and high-intensity acute aerobic
37 exercise on food reward and subjective feelings of appetite in MA abusers.

38 **Methods:** Forty-four men, who met the DSM-V criteria for MA dependence, with BMI
39 of 24.7 ± 3.1 kg/m² and age of 31.9 ± 3.8 years, were randomly assigned to two exercise
40 training groups: moderate- (n=22; 65%~75% HRmax) or high- (n=22; $\geq 85\%$ HRmax)
41 intensity. Each group performed a resting control or exercise session for 35 minutes,
42 1wk apart, in a counterbalanced order. Food reward (explicit liking, implicit wanting
43 and relative preference) for high or low fat and sweet or savoury food images was
44 assessed by the Leeds Food Preference Questionnaire and subjective feelings of
45 appetite were measured by VAS.

46 **Results:** Greater relative preference (high: $P=0.018$; moderate: $P=0.034$) and implicit
47 wanting (high: $P=0.018$; moderate: $P=0.034$) for high-fat savoury foods was noted
48 following acute aerobic exercise compared to the control session. Exercise also
49 increased subjective sensations of hunger ($F(1,42)=8.28$, $P=0.006$).

50 **Conclusions:** The current study provides the first evidence that acute aerobic exercise
51 can increase reward for high fat savoury foods and stimulate appetite in MA-dependent
52 individuals. In the context of exercise as a therapeutic option for MA dependence, these
53 changes suggest an improvement in responsiveness to natural, non-drug rewards.

54 **Keywords:** aerobic exercise; food reward; methamphetamine abuser

55 **1. Introduction**

56 Drug addiction is a major public health problem worldwide, impacting
57 significantly on the physical and mental health of abusers, facilitating the occurrence
58 of a variety of criminal acts and placing a huge burden on the national economy in drug

59 control and addiction treatment [1]. Worldwide, it is estimated that as many as 53.87
60 million people between the ages of 15 and 64 used amphetamine-type stimulants at
61 least once in 2013 for non-medical purposes and methamphetamine (MA) has become
62 the second largest illegally abused drug in the world after marijuana [2]. About two-
63 thirds of the world's MA/amphetamine users live in east and southeast Asia [3] and
64 methamphetamine dependence is rapidly increasing in China, almost 2.51 million
65 registered patients suffer from methamphetamine dependence, which accounts for 60.5%
66 of the total number of drug abusers [4]. Long-term use has been linked to repeated
67 relapse episodes, possibly exacerbated by cognitive impairment during drug withdrawal
68 [5].

69 Therefore, measures must be taken to diminish cognitive impairment during drug
70 withdrawal. Addicted individuals become more responsive to drug cues and stressful
71 stimuli, less responsive to natural rewards, and lose the flexibility to adjust the
72 significance of rewards according to the situation [6]. One of the core manifestations of
73 human substance dependence is a focus on finding and using drugs while neglecting
74 activities unrelated to drugs [7]. This leads to the hypothesis that drug addiction in
75 humans is associated with overestimation of drug-related rewards and underestimation
76 of natural, non-drug-related rewards [8-10]. Consequently, it may be beneficial to
77 reduce the value of drug-related rewards and improve the hedonic response to natural,
78 non-drug rewards during withdrawal through cognitive behavioral or pharmacological
79 intervention. At the same time, the hypothesis supports the potential utility of food
80 reward procedures in clinical research in order to evaluate treatment outcomes for
81 methamphetamine use disorder [11]. Food, as a potent natural reward, has been used to
82 evaluate the sensitivity and functioning of the reward system in drug abusers [12-15].

83 Aerobic exercise is currently proposed as a potential treatment for substance abuse
84 [16-18]. Studies have shown that exercise can reduce sensitivity to drug cues and
85 subsequent drug intake [19]. Several animal studies have found that exposure to
86 exercise reduces drug-related behaviours. For example, exercise has been shown to
87 reduce self-administration of morphine, ethanol and cocaine in rats [20-23]. There is

88 also evidence that exercise may "out-compete" drug self-administration, because when
89 both reinforcers were concurrently available, wheel running reduced amphetamine
90 intake in rats [24], Similarly, moderate intensity acute aerobic exercise was shown to
91 reduce drug cravings in methamphetamine-dependent individuals and promoted
92 inhibitory control over drug and non-drug-related cues [25, 26].

93 Since acute aerobic exercise appears to reduce MA-related cravings, it can be
94 questioned whether these effects are accompanied by changes in food preference or
95 food reward. There have been several investigations of the effect of acute exercise
96 interventions on food reward. Exercise has been shown to impact on food reward in
97 both normal weight [27] and overweight and obese [28, 29] subjects, after moderate
98 [30] or high intensity [31] aerobic exercise.

99 Food "liking" (*i.e.* the acute sensory pleasure elicited by food) and food "wanting"
100 (*i.e.* the objective, and sometimes implicit, motivation to seek and consume a target
101 food) have previously been identified as major forces in guiding human eating behavior
102 [32, 33]. In overweight and obese people, as well as those who exhibit binge eating,
103 liking and wanting responses to high fat or fat-sweet foods are exaggerated, as opposed
104 to drug addicts [34]. The Leeds Food Preference Questionnaire (LFPQ) has been shown
105 to demonstrate reliable immediate post-exercise changes [35] and is a good predictor
106 of food choice and intake in laboratory and community settings [36]. In addition to
107 measuring relative food preferences, the instantiation of food reward in the LFPQ is
108 conceptualized through separate "explicit liking" and "implicit wanting" responses to
109 different categories of food according to fat content and sweet taste. This procedure has
110 yet to be adapted for Chinese or drug-dependent individuals.

111 The objective of the current study was to examine the acute effects of moderate
112 and high intensity aerobic exercise training in MA-dependent individuals on implicit
113 wanting, explicit liking and relative preference for foods varying in fat content and taste.
114 Subjective sensations of hunger, fullness and desire to eat were also taken post exercise
115 to examine differences in appetite. Based on current literature, we hypothesized that
116 there would be a dose-response effect of exercise intensity leading to increased liking

117 and wanting for high fat and/or sweet foods relative to a non-exercise control condition
118 in MA-dependent individuals.

119 **2. Materials and Methods**

120 **2.1. Participants**

121 44 males (ages: 31.9 ± 3.8 years; BMI: 24.7 ± 3.1 kg/m²) were recruited from the
122 Drug Rehabilitation Bureau of the Shi Liping in Zhejiang province. Participants were
123 included if they met the following criteria: (1) All the participants met the criteria for
124 MA dependence according to the Structured Diagnostic Interview from the DSM-V,
125 who were incarcerated and actively receiving detoxification treatment; (2) weight stable
126 ($< \pm 3$ kg change over last 3 months); (3) aged 18~45 years; (4) no history of GI surgery
127 or disorder, non-diabetic, no medical conditions and not taking medication known to
128 influence gastric emptying or appetite.

129 This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration
130 of Helsinki and the institutional Review Board of Shanghai University of Sport. Written
131 informed consent was obtained from all participants before enrolling in the study.

132 **2.2. Study Design**

133 Seventy-three of 303 eligible participants were randomly assigned into either the
134 Moderate or High intensity aerobic exercise group, and 44 participants completed the
135 entire trial (figure 1). There were no significant differences between the Moderate
136 (n=22) and High intensity (n=22) exercise groups in age, BMI, cardiovascular fitness
137 (resting heart rate) or history of MA use prior to the exercise intervention (table 1).
138 Each group completed testing at baseline and post-exercise or rest, 1 week apart and
139 in a counterbalanced order. During the preliminary session, anthropometric data were
140 collected, participants were asked not to do strenuous exercise or drink alcohol for 24
141 hours prior to testing. Eating or drinking caloric or caffeinated beverages was
142 forbidden two hours prior to testing.

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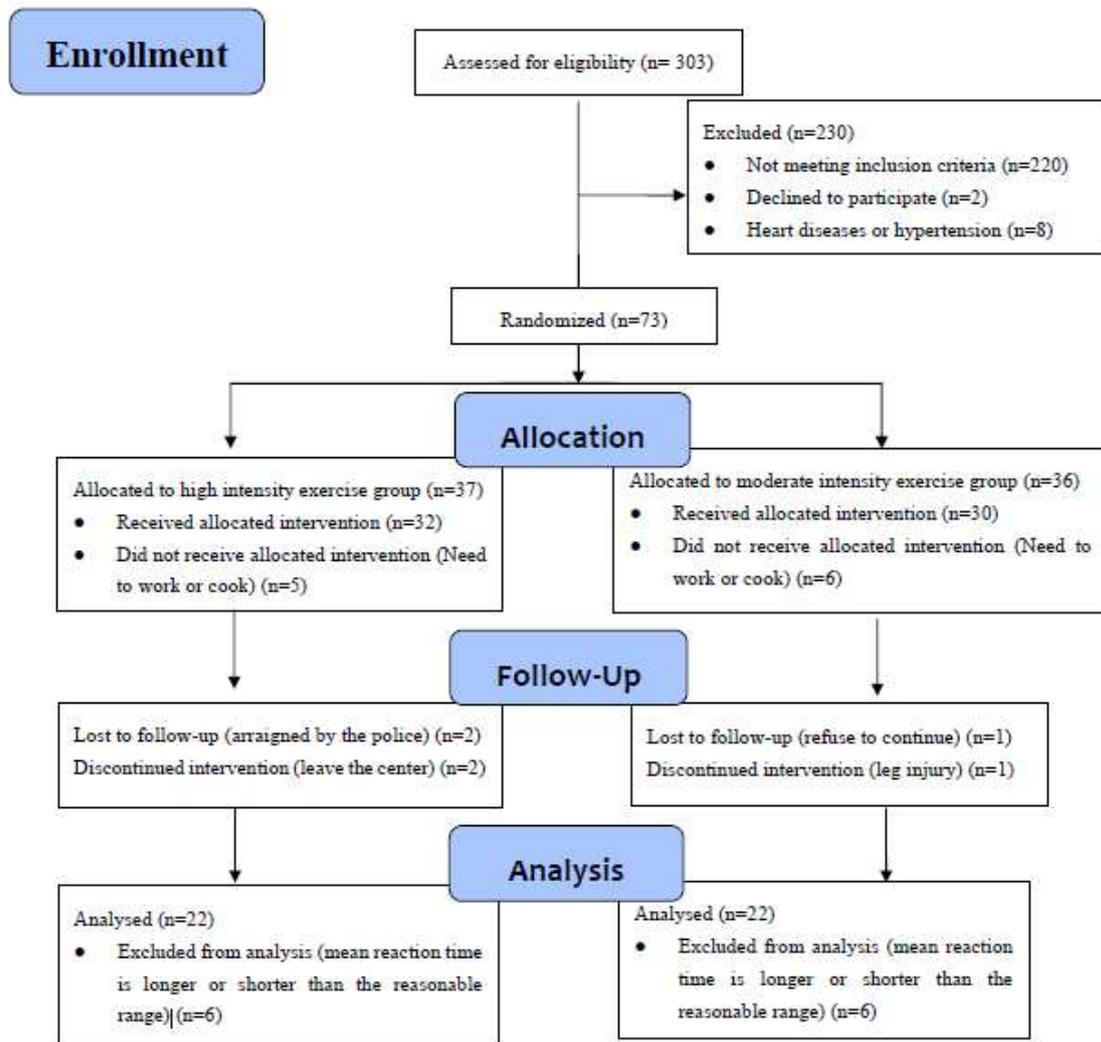
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	Total		Moderate		High		t-test
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Demographic							
Age (year)	31.9	3.8	31.2	3.3	32.6	4.2	0.22
Height (m)	1.7	0.1	1.7	0.1	1.7	0.1	0.67
Weight (kg)	71.7	10.1	71.4	9.9	71.9	10.5	0.86
Fitness							
BMI (kg/m ²)	24.7	3.1	24.6	3.1	24.9	3.1	0.71
Basal heart rate (time/min)	74.2	8.0	74.1	7.4	74.2	8.7	0.97
MA data							
Duration (years)	6.9	2.9	6.5	3.3	7.4	2.4	0.30
Usage (gram/time)	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.58
Frequency (day/wk)	2.8	2.7	2.3	2.3	3.2	2.9	0.29

149 **Table 1.** Details of the anthropometric information in all participants and the

150 comparison between the two groups.



151

152 **Figure 1.** Flowchart of participant enrollment in the study.

153 **2.3. Food Reward Assessment**

154 Participants completed the Leeds Food Preference Questionnaire (LFPQ) [37], a
 155 validated computer-based behavioural procedure administered using experiment
 156 software (E-prime v.2.0, Psychology Software Tools, ND), which was adapted and
 157 translated into Chinese. The original LFPQ was translated into Chinese by one of the
 158 authors (ZY) who is a Chinese native speaker. The translation was discussed with co-
 159 author and developer of the original LFPQ (GF) and reviewed and confirmed by a
 160 teacher of English as a second language from the staff of University of Nanjing. In
 161 addition, a culturally appropriate set of 50 food images were selected from the paid
 162 photo gallery website for use in Chinese (www.xxxxx.com). Ratings of the foods'

163 intensity of sweet taste (none-high), and the perceived fat content (low-high) were rated
 164 using 7-point Likert scales. The average means of participants' responses were
 165 compared with the reference mean using one-sample t-test, and the reference mean was
 166 determined as 6 for the high content of sweet and fat, and 2 for the low content of sweet
 167 and fat. The final four food images selected for each category were taken from the
 168 outcome of these results and are shown in Table 2.

169 Briefly, the LFPQ provides measures of implicit wanting, explicit liking and
 170 relative preference for an array of food images, varying along dimensions of fat content
 171 and sweet taste. A total of 16 different foods, divided into four categories (high-fat
 172 savoury, low-fat savoury, high-fat sweet and low-fat sweet) formed the array for this
 173 study.

Sweet		Savoury	
High fat	Low fat	High fat	Low fat
Ice-cream	Popcorn	Hamburger	Cucumber
Cream cake	Juice	Marble meat	Salad
Chocolate	Marshmallow	Pizza	Vegetables
Donuts	Mixed fruits	Chips (fries)	Bread

174 **Table 2.** Photographic food stimuli used in the computer task (grouped by food category)

175 **2.3.1. Implicit Wanting and Relative Preference**

176 In a forced-choice paradigm, each food image was randomly presented with every
 177 other image in a series of food pair trials. The participants were instructed to select the
 178 food they “most want to eat now” before each trial. The parameters were set as 96
 179 randomized food pair trials presented and each stimulus appearing 12 times. Stimuli
 180 were presented until a valid response was detected up to a maximum of 4000ms with a
 181 500ms washout between presentations in which a central fixation cross was displayed.
 182 A standardized implicit wanting score for each food category was calculated as a
 183 function of the mean reaction time in selecting a food category adjusted for the
 184 frequency of choice for each category [34]. A positive score on the implicit wanting
 185 measure indicates a more rapid selection for a given food category relative to the

186 alternatives in the task and a negative score indicates the opposite. In addition, the
187 frequency of selections made in each category (with a possible range of 0–48) was
188 measured which reveals a relative preference among the food categories.

189 **2.3.2. Explicit liking**

190 Explicit liking for the same images and categories in the forced-choice task was
191 measured from the 16 food stimuli presented one at a time and rated according to a 100-
192 mm VAS anchored at each end by the statements “not at all” and “extremely”. Subjects
193 were prompted with the statement “How pleasant would it be to experience a mouthful
194 of this food now?” The VAS was presented on-screen beneath each food stimulus and
195 subjects used the mouse to move a centred cursor along the line to indicate their
196 response. When a rating was made, the procedure automatically cycled to the next
197 stimulus trial in a randomized order.

198 **2.4. Subjective Appetite Sensations**

199 Subjective appetite sensations were measured immediately after exercise or
200 reading using visual analogue scales on an electronic appetite rating system [38].
201 Participants were asked to rate feelings of hunger, fullness and desire to eat on 100 mm
202 visual analogue scales, anchored at each end with the statements “not at all” and
203 “extremely”.

204 **2.5. Exercise Protocol**

205 The aerobic exercise was performed using a bicycle ergometer (SH-5000U) at 50
206 rpm and involved a 5-min warm-up, a 25-min main exercise period, and a 5-min cool-
207 down. During the main exercise, the participant was instructed to cycle while keeping
208 their heart rate at one of two exercise intensities, i.e., within the range of 65~75%
209 or $\geq 85\%$ of their estimated maximum heart rate ($206.9 - 0.67 \times \text{age}$) [39]. Heart rate
210 was monitored using a Suunto smart sensor (Suunto Oy, Vantaa, Finland). The
211 participants in the control group were required to read about drug abuse treatments,
212 including exercise- and fitness-related information, in a quiet room for 35 min.

213 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

214 Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS for Windows (Chicago,

215 Illinois, Version 20). Two-way repeated measures ANOVA were used to determine the
 216 main effects of exercise intervention (Control and Exercise) and exercise intensity
 217 (Moderate and High) on food reward and appetite measures. Post hoc tests with
 218 Bonferroni adjustments were used to determine where significant differences existed.
 219 Values are presented as means \pm standard deviations unless otherwise stated.
 220 Differences with P-values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

221 3. Results

222 3.1. Food reward

223 Firstly, on the three measures of relative preference, explicit liking and implicit
 224 wanting, the order of subjects' preference for the food categories was HFSA > HFSW >
 225 LFSW > LFSA (table 3). Independent of the exercise intervention, the high intensity
 226 group showed higher scores for LFSW foods compared to the moderate intensity group
 227 ($P < 0.025$). On comparison of the food reward measures after exercise compared to rest,
 228 the ANOVA showed that exercise regardless of intensity resulted in a greater relative
 229 preference (moderate: $P = 0.034$; high: $P = 0.018$, figure 2A) and implicit wanting (high:
 230 $P = 0.017$; moderate: $P = 0.044$, figure 2B) for HFSA. No other significant differences
 231 between exercise compared to control, intensity, or interactions between exercise and
 232 intensity were noted in the food reward variables for any food category (see table 3).
 233 Therefore, acute aerobic moderate and high intensity exercise both appeared to increase
 234 the relative preference and implicit wanting for high-fat savoury foods compared to rest.

235 A

Relative preference	Moderate		High		Exercise effect	Intensity effect	Exercise×Intensity effect
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
HFSW							
Control	26.7	7.5	26.3	9.1	F=1.59	F=0.72	F=1.59
Exercise	26.0	9.1	22.5	8.2	P=0.214	P=0.401	P=0.214
HFSA							
Control	36.0	6.1	33.5	8.8	F=10.83	F=1.27	F=0.02
Exercise	38.7	5.9	36.4	7.9	P=0.002	P=0.266	P=0.881
LFSW							
Control	18.7	8.2	22.8	6.5	F=0.06	F=8.12	F=1.16
Exercise	17.3	6.6	23.6	5.4	P=0.816	P=0.007	P=0.288
LFSA							
Control	16.3	6.3	15.5	7.7	F=0.65	F=1.14	F=0.03

Exercise	15.3	6.2	14.8	7.3	P=0.426	P=0.709	P=0.859
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236

237 B

Implicit wanting	Moderate		High		Exercise effect	Intensity effect	Exercise×Intensity effect
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
HFSW							
Control	5.6	16.6	6.6	21.7	F=2.6	F=0.56	F=2.1
Exercise	4.9	23.2	-4.0	20.4	P=0.112	P=0.458	P=0.158
HFSA							
Control	35.4	18.8	24.9	22.7	F= 10.51	F=2.82	F=0.05
Exercise	43.3	14.2	34.0	21.8	P=0.003	P=0.102	P=0.828
LFSW							
Control	-16.8	20.2	-7.1	19.7	F=0.05	F=5.38	F=0.64
Exercise	-18.3	19.7	-4.3	16.9	P=0.825	P=0.025	P=0.427
LFSA							
Control	-21.3	16.6	-21.7	16.0	F=0.97	F=0.01	F=0.08
Exercise	-24.9	18.5	-23.7	18.6	P=0.330	P=0.932	P=0.785

238 C

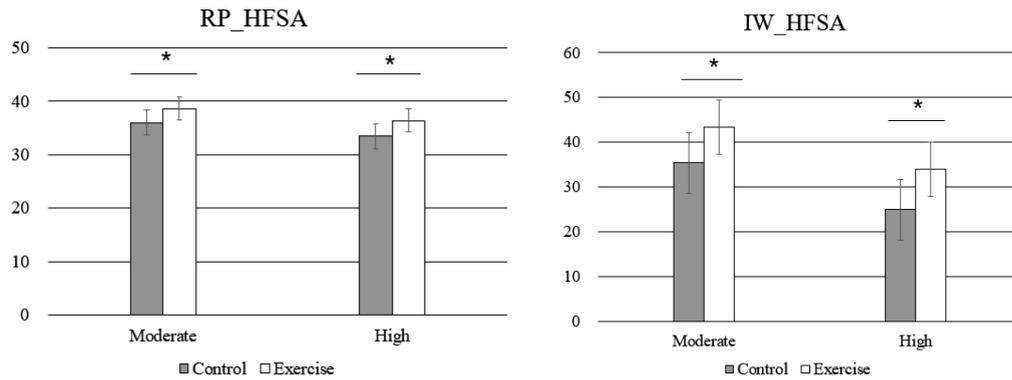
Explicit liking	Moderate		High		Exercise effect	Intensity effect	Exercise×Intensity effect
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
HFSW							
Control	56.4	17.6	65.0	16.2	F=0.76	F=1.08	F=2.85
Exercise	58.3	15.7	59.2	17.6	P=0.390	P=0.306	P=0.099
HFSA							
Control	63.1	20.1	68.3	19.0	F=0.08	F=0.36	F=0.92
Exercise	66.2	11.2	66.5	17.5	P=0.786	P=0.551	P=0.342
LFSW							
Control	52.7	16.7	62.1	8.8	F=0.40	F=7.20	F=0.02
Exercise	51.7	10.8	60.5	14.1	P=0.533	P=0.011	P=0.903
LFSA							
Control	48.7	14.9	52.1	14.4	F=0.75	F=0.07	F=1.39
Exercise	49.4	11.4	47.9	9.3	P=0.391	P=0.787	P=0.246

239 **Table 3.** The relative preference (A), implicit wanting (B) and explicit liking (C) for
 240 high-fat sweet (HFSW), high-fat savoury (HFSA), low-fat sweet (LFSW) and low-fat
 241 savoury (LFSA) foods between exercise conditions (exercise and control), exercise
 242 intensity (moderate and high).

243

244 A

B



245

246 **Figure 2.** Relative preference and implicit wanting for high-fat savoury foods between
 247 exercise conditions grouped by exercise intensity. After both intensities of exercise, the
 248 relative preference and implicit wanting are significantly increased. Values are
 249 presented as means for participants with standard errors of the mean represented by
 250 vertical bars. HFSA, high fat savoury; RP, relative preference; IW, implicit wanting.
 251 * $P < 0.05$.

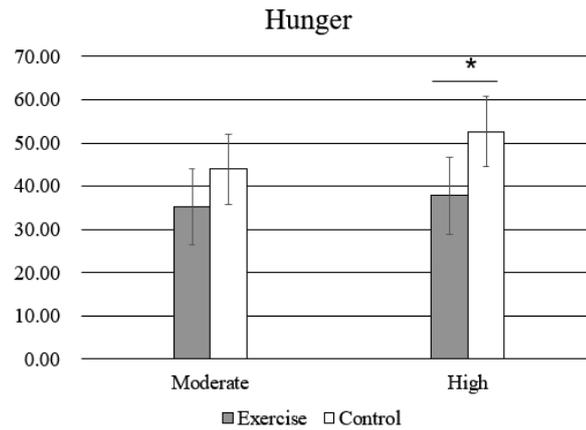
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253 3.2. Subjective sensations of appetite

254 Subjective feelings of appetite, in terms of hunger, fullness and desire to eat after
 255 exercise and control sessions are shown in table 4. There was a higher mean rating of
 256 hunger after high intensity exercise compared to moderate intensity (figure 3), but no
 257 main effect of exercise intensity or interaction effect. No significant effect of exercise,
 258 intensity or interaction was observed for subjective feelings of fullness or desire to eat.

	Moderate		High		Intensity effect	Exercise effect	Exercise×Intensity effect
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Desire							
Control	48.99	29.8	54.91	34.675	$F(1,42)=0.09$	$F(1,42)=0.75$	$F(1,42)=0.44$
Exercise	54.11	27.06	52.82	27.658	$P=0.766$	$P=0.748$	$P=0.444$
Fullness							
Control	54.7	27.13	48.41	30.844	$F(1,42)=0.10$	$F(1,42)=0.05$	$F(1,42)=1.30$
Exercise	49.81	21.89	51.73	22.455	$P=0.754$	$P=0.829$	$P=0.260$
Hunger							
Control	35.24	25.55	37.8	32.675	$F(1,42)=0.45$	$F(1,42)=8.28$	$F(1,42)=0.57$
Exercise	43.93	28.12	52.66	25.172	$P=0.450$	$P=0.006$	$P=0.456$

259 **Table 4.** Fasting subjective appetite sensations after high or moderate intensity exercise
 260 and control sessions. SD, standard deviation.



261

262 **Figure 3.** Subjective feeling of hunger after moderate or high intensity exercise
 263 and rest. * $P < 0.05$.

264 **4. Discussion**

265 This study examined the acute effects of moderate and high intensity aerobic
 266 exercise on food reward and appetite in individuals with methamphetamine dependence.
 267 In partial support of our hypotheses, the findings showed that the relative preference
 268 and implicit wanting for high-fat savoury foods increased following exercise compared
 269 to rest, but that this was independent of exercise intensity. Furthermore, high intensity
 270 exercise significantly increased subjective feelings of hunger, compared to the resting
 271 control session.

272 Contrary to our prediction, MA-independent people showed no change in
 273 preference, liking or wanting for sweet food. In opiate users, previous research has
 274 reported strong craving, preference for, and intake of sugary foodstuffs either when
 275 maintained on opiate agonists or when abstinent [40-42]. Moreover, changes in taste
 276 perception may underlie altered consumption of refined sugars in opiate users [10]. In
 277 the present study, only changes in the immediate reward value of high-fat savoury food
 278 was noted. The reason for the absence of an increase or decrease in liking or wanting
 279 for sweet taste foods could be that sweet taste preference is not diminished in drug
 280 addicts. Indeed, preference for sweetened water over cocaine has been shown in rats,
 281 even in animals with a history of drug intake [43]. In the present study, HFSA foods
 282 were the highest category on all measures of food reward after exercise and rest.
 283 Consequently, the observed increase in wanting and preference for HFSA may be due

284 the relatively high reward value of this category of food in these individuals. In healthy
285 individuals, one study found that a single bout of aerobic or resistance exercise led to a
286 decrease in neuronal activity in brain regions associated with food reward (insula,
287 orbitofrontal cortex, putamen) [31], which is opposite to this study. Furthermore, in
288 healthy non-obese adults, acute aerobic exercise tends to reduce subjective feelings of
289 hunger [31], which is contrary to the present finding in MA addicts.

290 The increase in subjective hunger, relative preference and implicit wanting for
291 high-fat savoury foods may be altogether indicative of an increase in the natural
292 motivation to eat in this clinical population. Preclinical drug versus food choice
293 procedures have been used for years to evaluate pharmacotherapy candidates for drug
294 dependence, such as cocaine [44] and heroin [45], however, the use of food choice
295 paradigms in evaluating the drug development process in methamphetamine abuse has
296 only occurred in recent years. The present findings suggest that the assessment of food
297 reward and appetite in the treatment of MA dependence could be beneficial as a clinical
298 endpoint.

299 There are a number of limitations to consider in the evaluation of this study. Firstly,
300 our experiment was conducted in a drug rehabilitation center, with many practical and
301 ethical restrictions over access to patients. Therefore, it was not possible to administer
302 test meals or measure food intake to assess the translation between the results of food
303 reward in MA dependent individuals to their actual eating behavior. Secondly, we opted
304 for a between-subjects design to compare exercise intensities to shorten the duration of
305 the study. A within-subjects design may have been more sensitive to reveal dose-
306 dependent effects of intensity, and only a single rating of hunger was taken at the end
307 of each condition. Hunger ratings before and after the exercise/rest and for a period
308 afterwards would be stronger for the measurement of subjective appetite. Thirdly, no
309 healthy control or non MA-dependent individuals were recruited into the trial to
310 compare with the MA-dependent sample and this should be addressed in future research
311 seeking to extend these findings. Finally, the standard deviation of the experimental
312 results was relatively large, indicating that further studies with bigger sample sizes may

313 be needed to confirm these results.

314 This randomized controlled trial found that 35 minutes of acute aerobic exercise
315 can affect food reward in MA-dependent individuals by increasing implicit wanting and
316 preference for high fat savoury foods and increasing post-exercise levels of hunger.
317 These changes offer preliminary evidence that may indicate a beneficial therapeutic
318 response to exercise with the normalization of appetite and natural food reward in place
319 of the reward for drugs of abuse in this population. In future research it would be useful
320 to examine different modalities, duration and intensities of exercise, in combination
321 with more detailed assessment of eating behaviour under laboratory and free-living
322 situations. Furthermore, more detailed assessments should be taken alongside food
323 reward, such as neurological and hormonal indicators. Secondly, the measurement of
324 food and drug reward should be combined to provide a reliable indicator of the
325 withdrawal status of drug addicts. Finally, because the neuropharmacological effects of
326 different dependent drugs on the brain are different, the degree of damage to cognitive
327 function are also different. For example, transition to addiction is faster after exposure
328 to methamphetamine compared to marijuana [6]. As a result, this research should be
329 extended to other types of drug dependence and other therapeutic interventions in the
330 future.

331 To conclude, the present study reports the novel finding that acute aerobic exercise
332 may improve food reward and appetite response in MA-dependent individuals.
333 Combined with previous research demonstrating that acute aerobic exercise can reduce
334 cravings for MA, the present findings support the notion that exercise could be used as
335 a therapeutic intervention to restore the balance between drug and non-drug rewards.
336 Our preliminary findings warrant future studies to explore the potential role of chronic
337 aerobic exercise in facilitating MA withdrawal.

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