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# **Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Prevention of Relative Energy Deficiency in Sport (REDs). A Narrative Review by a sub-group of the IOC consensus on REDs.**

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## 1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Relative Energy Deficiency in Sport (REDs) is common among female and male athletes  
3 representing various sports at different performance levels, and the underlying cause is  
4 problematic low energy availability (LEA). It is essential to prevent problematic LEA to  
5 decrease the risk of serious health and performance consequences. This narrative review  
6 addresses REDs primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention strategies and recommends best  
7 practice prevention guidelines targeting the athlete health and performance team, athlete  
8 entourage (coaches, parents, managers), and sport organizations. Primary prevention of REDs  
9 seeks to minimize exposure to and reduce behaviours associated with problematic LEA. Some of  
10 the important strategies are educational initiatives and de-emphasizing body weight and leanness,  
11 particularly in young and sub-elite athletes. Secondary prevention encourages the early  
12 identification and management of REDs signs or symptoms to facilitate early treatment to

13 prevent development of more serious REDs outcomes. Recommended strategies for identifying  
14 athletes at risk are self-reported screening instruments, individual health interviews, and/or  
15 objective assessment of REDs markers. Tertiary prevention (clinical treatment) seeks to limit  
16 short- and long-term severe health consequences of REDs. The cornerstone of tertiary prevention  
17 is identifying the source of and treating problematic LEA. Best practice guidelines to prevent  
18 REDs and related consequences include a multi-pronged approach targeting the athlete health  
19 and performance team, the athlete entourage, and sport organizations, who all need to ensure a  
20 supportive and safe sporting environment, have sufficient REDs knowledge, and remain  
21 observant for the early signs and symptoms of REDs.

22

23 **Key words:** Relative, Energy, Deficiency, Athletes, Preventive medicine

24 **INTRODUCTION**

25 Relative Energy Deficiency in Sport (REDs) is a syndrome caused by exposure to problematic  
26 (prolonged and/or severe) low energy availability (LEA) (1). Problematic LEA and REDs are  
27 common among both female and male athletes at different ages and performance levels and may  
28 result in serious health and performance consequences (1). Hence, there is a need for prevention  
29 strategies to mitigate REDs.

30 Prevention of a health condition may be described in terms of primary, secondary, and  
31 tertiary prevention where primary prevention aims to prevent a disease from ever occurring,  
32 secondary prevention emphasises early disease detection, and tertiary prevention targets both the  
33 clinical and outcome stages of a disease, also commonly used synonymously with treatment (2).  
34 Transferring these definitions to the syndrome of REDs and considering that problematic LEA is  
35 the underlying etiological factor, primary prevention should prioritize modifying risk factors for  
36 problematic LEA exposure, secondary prevention should encourage early identification and  
37 management of REDs signs and symptoms, and tertiary prevention should seek to limit the  
38 longer-term health and performance consequences of the syndrome (Figure 1). To date, there are  
39 no publications detailing a broad and thorough understanding of the prevention of REDs.

40 The main aim of this narrative review is therefore to address REDs primary, secondary,  
41 and tertiary prevention strategies. A secondary aim is to recommend best practice guidelines  
42 targeting the athlete health and performance team, the athlete entourage, and sport organizations.

43

44 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

45

## 46 **METHODS**

47 We conducted a narrative review aimed to provide a general overview of the existing literature  
48 on the prevention strategies related to REDs, rather than to answer a focused research question or  
49 to conduct an exhaustive literature review, as appropriate for a systematic or scoping review. The  
50 co-author subgroups working with primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention were tasked to  
51 explore relevant databases for inclusion of scientific literature related to their specific prevention  
52 area.

53

### 54 **Equity, diversity, and inclusion statement**

55 The author group included six women and two men representing a variety of disciplines to cover  
56 the holistic perspective of this review paper (e.g., sports medicine, endocrinology, pediatrics,  
57 internal medicine, psychology, nutrition, exercise physiology). The authors represented the  
58 following nationalities: American, Canadian, German, Israeli, Norwegian, and Swedish. Our  
59 review paper examined the topic of REDs prevention in a broad perspective in terms of gender,  
60 race, age, demographics, sport disciplines, and socioeconomic status.

61

## 62 **PRIMARY PREVENTION**

### 63 **Background**

64 Primary prevention aims to prevent a disease prior to its occurrence by minimizing  
65 exposure to hazards and increasing resistance in case of exposure (Figure 1) (2). Target groups  
66 for primary prevention of REDs should include the athlete health and performance team (e.g.,  
67 physicians, physiotherapists, dietitians, psychologists, and physiologists), athlete entourage (e.g.,

68 coaches, parents, and managers), and sport organizations. Specific at-risk groups, including  
69 athletes in weight-sensitive and leanness-demanding sports, and female and adolescent athletes,  
70 warrant particular focus (3). As problematic LEA is the underlying cause of REDs, the objectives  
71 of primary prevention are to minimize exposure to and reduce behaviours associated with LEA  
72 (Table 1).

73 1. *Exposure to LEA.* LEA can result from intentional dietary restriction to reduce  
74 body weight or achieve leanness (4, 5). LEA can also occur inadvertently from poor nutritional  
75 knowledge, lack of time, food insecurity, low energy density diets, or exercise-related changes in  
76 appetite (4, 6, 7). Given that LEA is a mismatch between dietary energy intake and exercise  
77 energy expenditure, increases in training volume or intensity may also contribute to LEA.

78 2. *Behaviours associated with LEA.* Restrictive eating is often associated with  
79 concerns around body weight and shape, which occur frequently in weight-sensitive and  
80 leanness-demanding sports (8). Weight and shape concerns can be exacerbated from within and  
81 outside the athletic community. Although assessment and management of body weight and  
82 composition are often considered important for optimizing athletic performance (9), focus from  
83 coaches on athletes' body composition and weight often cause concerns (10, 11), especially for  
84 young athletes who are at increased risk of developing negative physical and mental health  
85 outcomes (1, 5). Peers (teammates, competitors) can also be sources for unhealthy dieting  
86 behaviours (10) since influential athletes may intentionally or unintentionally put pressure on  
87 others (5). Social media exposes athletes to potential behaviours in a variety of ways, including  
88 issues related to body image, body shaming, and bullying (12, 13). Independent of the source,  
89 negative comments and weight pressure can reinforce body dissatisfaction and restrictive eating



90 behaviour (8, 11, 12). Recent literature suggests that exercise addiction may present an additional  
91 risk factor for REDs (14, 15).

92 3. *Non-modifiable risk factors for LEA.* Although any athlete can develop REDs, the  
93 risk is highest in weight-sensitive and leanness-demanding sports, including but not limited to  
94 weight class sports (e.g., combat disciplines), aesthetically judged sports (e.g., gymnastics),  
95 sports in which a low body weight might provide a performance advantage (e.g., anti-gravity  
96 disciplines, such as high jump), and in sports with high exercise energy expenditure (e.g.,  
97 endurance disciplines) (9). Due to the prominence of menstrual disturbances as a symptom of  
98 exposure to problematic LEA and the greater prevalence of risk behaviours associated with  
99 REDs [e.g., disordered eating (DE) behaviour], female athletes have historically been, and still  
100 are considered at high risk of problematic LEA and associated symptoms (1, 16)]. While other  
101 non-modifiable risks such as genetic factors may exist, there is currently insufficient scientific  
102 evidence to support genetic factors contributing to REDs (17).

103

### 104 **Primary prevention strategies**

105 The central roles of unhealthy dietary and/or exercise behaviours in the development of  
106 problematic LEA and REDs necessitate that primary prevention strategies focus on education  
107 about the importance of adequate energy availability to ensure optimal health and performance  
108 (1, 3, 18). Educational initiatives targeting all individuals in the athlete's ecosystem (the athlete  
109 health and performance team and members of the entourage) should include strengthening of  
110 protective factors and reducing risk factors (see Table 1) (1, 3, 9, 19).

111

112

113 **Table 1. Risk factors and approaches for primary prevention of REDs in healthy athletes.**  
 114

Risk Factors	Primary Prevention Recommendations
<b>Intentional exposure to LEA</b>	
<i>Intentional reduction in body weight or body fat</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Implement in elite athletes only</li> <li>• Obtain athlete consent and only share results with athlete approval</li> <li>• Careful planning (e.g., consider the athlete’s season) and follow-up (e.g., communication strategy, close compliance monitoring, and adequate recovery) by the multidisciplinary health and performance team</li> <li>• Ensure athlete physical and psychological readiness (e.g., pre-screening of disordered eating behaviour)</li> <li>• Utilise evidence-based rationale and set realistic goals for body weight and body composition</li> <li>• Employ appropriate weight and body composition methods used by licensed personnel who are trained in the specific methods</li> <li>• Maintain energy deficits in moderation</li> <li>• No assessment of body weight and composition unless for medical purposes for athletes &lt; 18 years old</li> </ul>
<b>Inadvertent exposure to LEA</b>	
<i>Lack of knowledge</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Educate about the importance of adequate energy availability to ensure optimal health and performance</li> <li>• Teach adequate fuelling strategies for various training durations and intensities as well as growth</li> </ul>
<i>Behaviours associated with LEA (e.g., restrictive diet, compulsive exercise)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strengthen protective factors (e.g., self-esteem and inspirations, positive body image, acceptance of physical changes related to adolescence, media literacy, balanced nutrition, and training)</li> <li>• Reduce risk factors (e.g., internalization of an ‘ideal body type’, body dissatisfaction, peer pressure, fat shaming)</li> <li>• Involve teammates and the athlete entourage (e.g., coaches)</li> </ul>
<i>Non-modifiable risk factors</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advocate for/implement sport rule and regulation changes to minimise emphasis on body weight (e.g., weight categories, timing of weigh-ins, course profiles) and appearance (e.g., sport uniforms)</li> </ul>

115  
 116           Studies on the prevention of eating disorders (EDs) among adolescent and collegiate  
 117 athletes suggest that interactive workshops involving discussions or cognitive dissonance tasks  
 118 can promote a positive body image, encourage self-care, and reduce ED risk factors (19-21).  
 119 Similar findings have been reported in female dancers (22), and in female and male collegiate  
 120 athletes (20, 23, 24). Considering these promising findings in light of the established links  
 121 between body dissatisfaction, DE behaviour/EDs, and LEA (25), a similar approach may be  
 122 effective in preventing problematic LEA and REDs.

123 Prevention strategies should be appropriate for age, gender, competition level, and sport  
124 discipline, and account for socio-cultural aspects of the target audience (26). A critical period for  
125 primary prevention is the transitional time of puberty. Communication with this age group  
126 should focus on themes related to variations in body shape, natural biological and psychological  
127 changes, maturation, and how these factors relate to athletic performance, positive behaviours,  
128 peer pressure resistance, and building an environment that supports a positive body image (19).  
129 To minimize the risk of developing REDs, athletes and their health and performance team should  
130 aim to de-emphasize body weight and leanness, particularly in young and sub-elite athletes (9).  
131 Except for medical purposes (e.g., growth progression), assessment of body weight and  
132 composition are not recommended for underage athletes (1, 8, 27). When weight loss or  
133 reduction in body fat are recommended for elite athletes, careful planning and realistic body  
134 weight/composition goals are essential, and necessary energy deficits should be kept in  
135 moderation to avoid problematic LEA (Table 1). Ideally, the elite athletes and their health and  
136 performance team initiate an evidence-based management and rationale for weight or body fat  
137 reductions (Table 1) (1, 5). Sport organizations should be aware of the implications of rules  
138 related to body weight (e.g., weight-category sports) and sport uniforms (e.g., female beach  
139 volleyball), and course designs that include more climbing and thereby favor lighter athletes  
140 (e.g., cross country skiing, road cycling) that might create a culture of dieting and unhealthy  
141 eating practices (Table 1).

142 There is little evidence of REDs primary prevention programs' efficacy in healthy  
143 athletes. Although education interventions may improve knowledge (1, 28, 29), it remains  
144 unclear if they result in behaviour changes that reduce the risk of developing REDs (18).

145

## 146 **SECONDARY PREVENTION**

147         Secondary prevention encourages the early identification and management of REDs signs  
148 or symptoms to facilitate early treatment, thus preventing the development of more serious REDs  
149 outcomes (e.g., osteoporosis, EDs) (Figure 1). Self-reported screening instruments, individual  
150 health interviews, and objective assessment of REDs markers may be useful strategies for  
151 secondary prevention.

152

### 153 **Subjective assessment of symptoms**

154         Screening of self-reported symptoms either by questionnaires or individual health  
155 interviews are convenient and simple methods for the early identification of REDs. Relevant  
156 *physical symptoms* include menstrual dysfunction in females (30-32), reduced erectile function in  
157 males (33), recurrent illnesses (34), and injuries (31, 35). *Psychological symptoms* may include  
158 mood changes, reduced well-being, and depression (1, 36). Symptoms can also be related to an  
159 athlete's *behaviour*, such as excessive exercise, frequent non-performance-related measurements  
160 of body weight or composition, or DE behaviour/EDs (1). To date, no validated screening  
161 instrument includes all of these aspects. Hence, a combination of instruments should be used to  
162 increase the possibility of optimal secondary prevention of REDs.

163         Validated or tested questionnaires used in athletic populations to assess LEA, REDs, and  
164 DE behaviour are summarized in Table 2. For a more complete list of questionnaires frequently  
165 used in athletic populations, also including non-validated/tested questionnaires (37-43), see  
166 Supplemental Table 1.

167         The Low Energy Availability in Females Questionnaire (LEAF-Q) was originally  
168 validated against clinical signs of LEA [e.g., functional hypothalamic amenorrhea (FHA)

169 assessed by gynaecological examination, low bone mineral density (BMD) assessed by dual  
170 energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA), and blood biomarkers] in female endurance athletes (31)  
171 and is also commonly used for assessing physiological symptoms of LEA in other female athletic  
172 groups (44). To date, only one questionnaire has been developed and tested for use in male  
173 athletes [the Low Energy Availability in Males Questionnaire (LEAM-Q)] (45). Validation of  
174 the LEAM-Q was based on clinical verification of signs of LEA (e.g., blood biomarkers and low  
175 BMD) in elite and sub-elite male athletes from multiple countries and ethnicities, including  
176 athletes from a variety of endurance and weight-sensitive sports. While several questionnaire  
177 variables had sufficient sensitivity, only low sex drive score was associated with perturbations in  
178 key clinical REDs signs (e.g., low blood testosterone concentrations) (45).

179         It is recommended that questionnaires identifying symptoms of EDs should be included  
180 in REDs screening (1). The Eating Disorder Examination Questionnaire (EDE-Q) (46) is  
181 frequently used to assess behavioural and cognitive symptoms of EDs. Other DE/EDs screening  
182 instruments used in athletic populations are shown in Table 2. Furthermore, exercise addiction  
183 has been shown to be related to REDs in both male and female athletes (14, 15, 47).  
184 Consequently, validated questionnaires about excessive training behaviour may prove useful in a  
185 REDs assessment, although none have been validated yet for this purpose (Table 2). There is  
186 some evidence that other psychological symptoms, such as mood disturbances/fluctuations,  
187 cognitive dietary restraint, perfectionistic tendencies, sleep disturbances, depressive symptoms,  
188 anxiety, and reduced well-being, are associated with REDs (1, 36). Therefore, screening for  
189 psychological and behavioural symptoms should also be considered in future research and  
190 clinical practice.

191           Most questionnaires have been developed and validated for an adult athletic population;  
192 adolescent athletes, however, are at high risk for REDs and stand to benefit substantially from  
193 secondary prevention. Of note, the Brief Eating Disorder in Athletes Questionnaire (BEDA-Q)  
194 (48), the REDs Screening Tool (RST) (49), and the Disordered Eating Screen for Athletes  
195 (DESA-6) (50) show promising results for screening adolescent athletes (Table 2). To date, no  
196 validated screening questionnaire for REDs in para athletes has been published.

197 **Table 2:** Questionnaires validated/tested in athletic populations to assess LEA, REDs, and DE behaviour.

Questionnaire	Validated in population	Main findings
LEAM-Q, 33 items (45)	Elite and sub elite male athletes representing a variety of endurance and weight-sensitive sports	Validated against clinically verified REDs conditions and biomarkers. Sufficient sensitivity of dizziness, illness, fatigue, and sex drive scores. Only low sex drive could distinguish between LEA cases and controls
LEAF-Q, 25 items (31)  (44)	Elite female endurance athletes  Elite and pre-elite female athletes in a mixed-sport cohort	Validated against clinically verified REDs conditions and biomarkers. Sufficient sensitivity (78%) and specificity (90%) to identify LEA, FHA and/or low BMD  Validated against clinically verified REDs conditions and biomarkers. Sufficient sensitivity to identify low BMD (100%) and FHA (80%)
RST, 7 components (49)	Middle and high school female and male athletes	Tested against the PPGE, with a positive correlation between RST and PPGE (female version). The male version has not been tested
DESA-6, 6 items (50)	Adolescent female and male high school athletes	Validated against clinical interview. Sufficient sensitivity (92%) and specificity (86%) to identify DE
BEDA-Q, 9 items (48)	Adolescent female elite athletes	Validated against EDI-2 and clinical interview. Sufficient sensitivity (82%) and specificity (85%) to identify EDs
PST, 18 items (51)	Female collegiate athletes	Validated against clinical interview. Sufficient sensitivity (87%) and specificity (78%) to identify EDs
FAST, 33 items (52)	Female athletes	Tested against EDE-Q, EDI-2, and BTR with positive correlations between FAST and EDE-Q and EDI-2

SCOFF, 5 items (53)  (54)]	Females  Female and male national level athletes	Tested against EDI and BIT in EDs patients and controls. Sufficient sensitivity (100%) and specificity (88%) to identify DE/EDs  Validated against clinical interview. Sufficient sensitivity (94%) and specificity (88%) to identify EDs
AMDQ, 119 items (55)	Female college athletes	Validated against EDI-2, BTR and clinical interview. Sufficient sensitivity (80%) and specificity (77%) to identify DE/EDs
EDE-Q, 28 items (56)  (54)	Female general population and female EDs patients  Female and male national team level athletes	Validated against clinical interview. Close agreement between EDE-Q and the interview concerning frequency of purging and dietary restraint severity  Validated against clinical interview. Sufficient sensitivity (90%) and specificity (100%) to identify DE/EDs
EAI, 6 items (57)  (58)	Females and males mixed exerciser sample  Female and male athletes	Tested against EDS and OEQ. Positive correlations between EAI, EDS and OEQ  Tested against 3 questions supposedly reflecting EA. Positive correlation between EAI and all questions

198 Abbreviations: *AMDQ*=Athletic Milieu Direct Questionnaire; *BEDA-Q*=Brief Eating Disorder in Athletes Questionnaire; *BMD*=Bone Mineral Density; *DE*=Disordered  
199 Eating; *BIT*= Bulimic Investigatory Test; *BTR*= Bulimia Test-Revised; *DESA-6*=The Disordered Eating Screen for Athletes; *EA*=Exercise Addiction; *EAI*=Exercise  
200 Addiction Inventory; *EDE-Q*= Eating Disorder Examination Questionnaire; *EDs*=Eating Disorders; *FAST*= The Female Athlete Screening Tool; *GI*=Gastrointestinal; *LEAF-*  
201 *Q*= Low Energy Availability in Female Questionnaire; *LEAM-Q*=Low Energy Availability in Males Questionnaire; *MD*=Menstrual Dysfunction; *OEQ*=Obligatory Exercise  
202 Questionnaire; *PPGE*=Pre-Participation Gynaecological Examination; *PST*=The Physiologic Screening Test; *RST*=RED-S Specific Screening Tool; *SCOFF*=Sick, Control,  
203 One stone, Fat and Food questionnaire.



204           While questionnaires are easy to use, response bias and under-reporting may occur.  
205   Thus, to allow a more in-depth athlete clinical assessment, questionnaires should be  
206   accompanied by other information-gathering tools, such as personal interviews (59).  
207   Observation from coaches, parents, health personnel or others may serve as an opportunity to  
208   identify symptoms, such as excessive exercise behaviour, expressed need for recurrent and  
209   non-performance-related measures of body weight and composition, or concerning eating or  
210   dieting related behaviours.

211

## 212   **Objective assessment of symptoms**

213           Objective assessment of REDs signs may be used for the early identification of REDs  
214   and verification of self-reported symptoms (Table 3). For example, self-reported menstrual  
215   dysfunction is strongly associated with clinically verified FHA in female endurance athletes  
216   (31). Furthermore, FHA is associated with lower female sex hormones and lower BMD (60).  
217   In males, sub-clinically or clinically low testosterone levels are potential biomarkers of  
218   problematic LEA (61, 62) and are associated with low libido (45) and bone stress injuries  
219   (63).

220           Evaluation of multiple REDs signs is necessary to accurately diagnose and determine  
221   the severity of REDs (Table 3) (1). For example, although FHA is commonly reported among  
222   female athletes (64), polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) is one of the most frequent  
223   menstrual disturbances in the general population, and athletes with PCOS may concomitantly  
224   have problematic LEA with FHA (65), EDs, or low BMD (31). Therefore, FHA is a diagnosis  
225   of exclusion (Table 3). Studies in recreationally active women have reported a 12–30%  
226   prevalence of asymptomatic anovulation (64). It is recommended to confirm ovulation over at  
227   least 3 consecutive menstrual cycles to verify eumenorrhea in female athletes (66).

228 It is important to note that many female athletes use contraceptives containing  
229 exogenous hormones (67) and may or may not have a withdrawal bleed, which is not  
230 equivalent to a menstrual cycle. Hence, assessing normal reproductive function can only be  
231 performed in the absence of exogenous hormones.

232 There are strong associations between signs of problematic LEA (e.g., low  
233 oestrogen/testosterone levels) and adverse bone parameters (1, 63). Bone health can be  
234 assessed by DXA in the setting of suspected problematic LEA or recurrent bone stress  
235 injuries. Because of the osteogenic stimulus of weight-bearing exercise, low BMD in athletes  
236 has been defined as a Z-score  $< -1.0$ , as opposed to  $< -2.0$  in the general population (16), and  
237 warrants further clinical evaluation. However, it has recently been proposed that there is a  
238 need for sport discipline-specific Z-score ranges in order not to underestimate low BMD in  
239 athletes representing high impact sports (68).

240 Sub-clinically or clinically low serum concentration of total or free triiodothyronine  
241 (T3) is a valid LEA biomarker in both male and female athletes (31, 61, 63).

242 Many athletes with REDs have a body weight within the normal reference range and  
243 may be lean or have more body fat than expected (69), and athletes with EDs may have a  
244 body weight that is under, within or above the normal reference range (70). Thus, it is  
245 important to assess athletes for REDs independent of percent body fat, body weight and body  
246 mass index.

247 Secondary prevention is embodied in step one and two of the IOC REDs Clinical  
248 Assessment Tool 2 (REDs CAT2), which is a three-step approach framework to  
249 operationalise the secondary and tertiary prevention of REDs (1). When early signs or  
250 symptoms of REDs are identified, it is necessary to progress to tertiary prevention  
251 corresponding to step three of the REDs CAT2, with focus on clinical diagnosis and treatment  
252 to safeguard athletes' health.

253

## 254 **TERTIARY PREVENTION**

### 255 **General principles**

256           The objective of tertiary prevention (clinical treatment) is to promote rehabilitation to  
257 prevent or limit short- and long-term severe health consequences of REDs (Figure 1).  
258 Accurate diagnosis of REDs vs. other causes of the clinical presentation is essential for  
259 determining correct treatment and subsequent commencement of an effective management  
260 program. The cornerstone of treatment is to identify the source of and treat the underlying  
261 cause: problematic LEA. Reversing LEA can be achieved by increasing energy intake,  
262 decreasing exercise energy expenditure, or a combination of both. A multidisciplinary clinical  
263 team is recommended for comprehensive treatment. This team can include clinicians  
264 specializing in sports medicine, sports nutrition, sports psychiatry, sports psychology, exercise  
265 physiology, endocrinology, and gynaecology (3). The expected timeline for recovery from  
266 REDs is variable and depends on multiple factors, such as the specific REDs condition, the  
267 severity, the presence of other medical issues, and the underlying cause of LEA (71-74). The  
268 following section outlines treatment principles for the possible clinical sequelae of REDs  
269 (Table 3).

270 **Table 3:** Recommended treatment of outcomes of Relative Energy Deficiency in Sport (REDs).

Body system dysfunction	Examples of clinical presentations	Examples of differential diagnoses	Examples of treatment recommendations in addition to increasing energy availability
Impaired reproductive function among females	Primary/secondary amenorrhea/oligomenorrhea; Anovulation; Short luteal phase	Pregnancy; Use of hormonal contraceptives; Polycystic ovary syndrome; Pituitary mass (e.g., prolactinoma)	Avoid use of combined oral contraceptive pills to induce monthly bleeding
Impaired reproductive function among males	Reduced libido and/or erectile function	Medication/drug side effects; Mental disorders (e.g., depression); Primary hypogonadism	Avoid use of exogenous hormone administration
Impaired bone health	Recurrent and/or high-risk BSI (e.g., femoral neck); Fragility fracture; Low BMD	Malabsorption syndromes Other metabolic bone diseases; Medication/drug side effects; Low sex hormones from other causes	Ensure sufficient calcium and vitamin D intake and correct vitamin D level if low Adolescents and women without menstrual resumption after a reasonable trial of EA improvement: consider transdermal 17- $\beta$ -oestradiol with cyclic oral progesterone
Impaired gastrointestinal function	Bloating; Diarrhoea; Subjective fullness; Constipation	Irritable bowel syndrome; Inflammatory bowel disease; Celiac disease; Food intolerances	Cognitive behavioural therapy for functional gastrointestinal disorders; Medications can be used to improve specific symptoms on an interim basis, such as: Metoclopramide for gastroparesis; Ondansetron for nausea; and Sufficient fluid intake and/or polyethylene glycol for constipation
Other endocrine system impairments		Pituitary mass (e.g., prolactinoma); Primary hypothyroidism; Overtraining syndrome; Fatigue; Hair loss	Consider referral to endocrinologist for assessment and monitoring Avoid hormonal replacement for transient hormonal dysfunction of REDs, such as decreased T3 Impairments should improve with EA improvement

Iron deficiency	Fatigue, compromised physical and cognitive function	Other diet- or exercise related causes (e.g., low iron intake or bioavailability) Menorrhagia; Metrorrhagia; Menometrorrhagia	Iron supplementation to ensure ferritin level above 30 mcg/l
Urinary incontinence	Stress and urge urinary incontinence	Pelvic floor trauma (e.g., childbirth, surgery); Radiation; Nerve/muscle damage from traumatic injury; Urinary tract infection	Pelvic floor muscle training; Lifestyle modification; Pessaries; Surgery
Mental health symptoms and disorders	EDs/DE behaviours  Depressed mood Anxiety Sleep disturbances	Substance misuse; General medical conditions; Post-traumatic stress disorder; Obsessive compulsive disorder  Primary underlying mood disorder Primary underlying anxiety disorder Apnoea; Drug side effects	Specialized ED/DE inpatient or outpatient clinic treatment therapy  Adjuvant pharmacotherapy as clinically indicated (e.g., SSRI) Adjuvant pharmacotherapy as clinically indicated (e.g., anxiolytics) Sleep hygiene education; Cognitive behavioural therapy
Cardiovascular complications	Hypotension; Orthostatic hypotension; Bradycardia; Endothelial dysfunction; Unfavourable lipid profiles	For endurance athletes, 40-60 beats/min can be a normal training adaptation; Drug side effects (e.g., beta blockers); Familial hypercholesterolemia; Structural heart disease; Conduction disease	Severe bradycardia with orthostatic hypotension can be life-threatening; consider training restrictions until HR and orthostatic BP are corrected
Attenuated growth and development	Stunted growth and delayed non-constitutional pubertal development	Primary GH or IGF-1 deficiency; Pituitary disorders	Monitor growth over time Consider referral to endocrinologist if not improving with EA improvement
Compromised immune system	Increased illness susceptibility mostly URTI symptoms	Low CHO and/or micronutrient intake; Malignancy, Other chronic conditions; Poor sleep; Stress	Sufficient CHO and/or micronutrient intake

271 Abbreviations: *BP*=Blood Pressure; *BSI*=Bone Stress Injury; *CHO*=Carbohydrates; *DE*=Disordered Eating Behaviour; *EA*= Energy Availability; *ED*=Eating Disorder;  
272 *DSM-5-TR*=Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of mental disorders (5<sup>th</sup> edition) text revision; *GH*=Growth Hormone; *GI*=Gastrointestinal; *HR*=Heart Rate; *IGF-1*=Insulin-  
273 like Growth Factor-1; *SSRI*=Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor; *T3*=Triiodothyronine; *URTI*=Upper Respiratory Tract Infection.

274 **Impaired reproductive function**

275           Correcting LEA is the mainstay of treatment for hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal  
276 (HPG) axis dysfunction in both sexes (1, 60), but few intervention studies have been  
277 performed (72, 73, 75). There is limited evidence in women with FHA that cognitive  
278 behavioural therapy lowers circulating cortisol levels and improves reproductive function  
279 (76).

280

281 **Impaired bone health**

282           Both the timing and duration of LEA are particularly relevant when considering bone-  
283 related REDs outcomes (e.g., bone stress injuries, low BMD). Adolescence is a critical time  
284 of peak bone mineral accrual for both females and males, with peak bone mass typically  
285 achieved around the end of the third decade and most bone accrual having occurred by age 20  
286 years (77). Development of REDs in childhood or adolescence necessitates swift treatment to  
287 prevent long-term consequences. With nutritional and menstrual recovery in REDs, some  
288 “catch-up” bone accrual may occur, but less so if problematic LEA continues into young  
289 adulthood and beyond with increased risk for bone stress injuries, premature osteoporosis, and  
290 full fractures over time (78).

291           Recommendations regarding optimal calcium and vitamin D intake vary depending on  
292 national recommendations; correcting LEA and optimizing these bone-building nutrients is  
293 important (Table 3).

294           In adolescent and young adult female athletes with FHA, 12 months of transdermal  
295 17- $\beta$  oestradiol with cyclic oral progesterone improved DXA-measured BMD and was  
296 superior to oral contraceptives and no hormonal treatment (79). Thus, in female adolescents  
297 and adults, this treatment may be an appropriate adjunct to nutritional intervention (60).

298           The negative bone consequences of LEA are less studied in male athletes than female  
299 athletes, though it has been shown that low BMD and bone stress injuries occur in LEA-  
300 exposed exercising men (63, 80). As with female athletes, correcting LEA is the mainstay of  
301 treatment, but adjunctive treatment with exogenous male reproductive hormones in male  
302 athletes has not been studied and is not recommended. While oestrogen is an important  
303 hormone for bone development for males, exogenous oestrogen treatment would lead to  
304 potentially unwanted feminizing effects (81).

305

### 306 **Impaired gastrointestinal function**

307           Cross-sectional studies have demonstrated higher prevalence of gastrointestinal (GI)  
308 issues in female athletes with LEA compared to those with adequate energy availability (31,  
309 47), and in male athletes with DE behaviours compared to controls (47). The treatment of GI  
310 consequences of REDs is derived from studies of patients with EDs, where GI complications  
311 are thought to stem from a) poorly managed medical conditions that have GI-predominant  
312 symptoms (e.g., celiac disease); b) physiological and anatomical changes that result from EDs  
313 and malnutrition; and c) functional GI diseases that frequently accompany malnutrition (e.g.,  
314 motility disturbances, visceral hypersensitivity, mucosal changes, altered gut microbiome)  
315 (82).

316           As athletes attempt to increase energy availability, it is important to determine the  
317 cause of various GI complaints, such as clarifying if abdominal pain or diarrhoea are from an  
318 underlying condition (e.g., celiac disease, inflammatory bowel disease). Consultation with a  
319 physician and/or a registered dietitian can aid in narrowing the differential diagnosis or when  
320 GI-specific adjunctive treatment is needed. Medications can be used to improve specific  
321 symptoms (e.g., constipation, diarrhoea, bloating) on an interim basis until symptoms improve  
322 with improvement in EA.



323

## 324 **Other endocrine system impairments**

325           Various endocrine systems are interconnected and disrupted with LEA (83). Most  
326 hormonal disruptions seen in REDs [e.g., decreased T3 and insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-  
327 1), increased cortisol] are the result of problematic LEA exposure, and resolution of LEA  
328 typically improves the hormonal disruptions (1).

329

## 330 **Iron deficiency**

331           LEA may increase the risk of iron deficiency due to a lower dietary iron intake and/or  
332 a lower iron bioavailability (84). Dietary factors (e.g., vegan diet) may reduce iron absorption  
333 (84), as well as elevated hepatic hepcidin levels post-training (85). LEA may increase the  
334 hepcidin concentration directly or indirectly via low carbohydrate availability, low oestrogen  
335 or testosterone levels, and/or interleukin (IL)-6 induced alterations in hepcidin levels post-  
336 exercise, and thereby increase the risk of iron deficiency (85). Consequently, iron intake to  
337 ensure a ferritin level above 30 mcg/l, in addition to general nutritional rehabilitation to  
338 improve LEA, is appropriate (86). Consuming a diet high in iron is often not enough to  
339 replete iron stores in an athlete with iron deficiency, and 100 to 200 mg of elementary iron  
340 intake every other day until ferritin normalises is recommended (84). Iron supplementation  
341 alone, however, is not a panacea for an athlete's iron deficiency, and diagnosing and treating  
342 the underlying cause is paramount (85).

343

## 344 **Growth and development**

345           In young athletes with stunted growth and delayed non-constitutional pubertal  
346 development due to REDs, the treatment is restoring energy availability and body weight (74,  
347 87). Growth hormone (GH) and IGF-1 therapy have been studied in non-athletes with

348 anorexia nervosa, but currently are indicated only if there is a primary GH deficiency or other  
349 endocrinopathy (1, 88).

350

## 351 **Mental health**

352 Treatment of mental health symptoms related to REDs may occur in outpatient or  
353 inpatient settings depending on the severity. Psychotherapy is an integral component to the  
354 treatment of DE behaviour/EDs and can occur simultaneously with or subsequent to  
355 nutritional rehabilitation; the order of treatment is determined on a case-by-case basis.

356 Weight-restoration with repletion of energy availability has been shown to improve cognitive  
357 function and mood in anorexia nervosa (89). Additionally, treatment of other underlying  
358 psychologic illnesses (e.g., depression, anxiety, sleep disorders) should be prioritized in the  
359 overall treatment scheme. Pharmacotherapy is typically recommended for treating comorbid  
360 psychiatric illnesses, not primary treatment of DE behaviour/EDs. Bupropion is  
361 contraindicated in anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa treatment because of an association  
362 with higher seizure incidence (90). Patients with anorexia nervosa have an increased risk of  
363 suicide (91). Therefore, REDs and sports-related presentations of DE behaviour/EDs must  
364 include a suicide risk assessment.

365 Other potential mental health outcomes of REDs include depression, anxiety, and  
366 sleep disturbances (36). As an adjunct to correcting the underlying LEA and psychotherapy,  
367 relevant pharmacotherapies should be implemented with consideration of the potential  
368 negative impacts on sport performance, safety risks, and limitations imposed by the World  
369 Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) Prohibited List. Sleep hygiene education and cognitive  
370 behavioural therapy have been helpful in treating sleep disturbances in the athlete population  
371 (92).

372

373 **Cardiovascular**

374 Cardiovascular complications of severe LEA have been well-described in patients with  
375 anorexia nervosa (93). Bradycardia can be a normal training adaptation (94). However,  
376 bradycardia and orthostatic hypotension are seen in severe LEA states (e.g., anorexia nervosa)  
377 and can be life-threatening (93). Thus, bradycardia and orthostatic hypotension should be  
378 considered in the context of suspected problematic LEA and may require a higher level of  
379 care and abrupt cessation of training (95).

380 Endothelial dysfunction and unfavourable lipid profiles [high total cholesterol and  
381 low-density lipoprotein (LDL)-cholesterol] have been reported in athletes with FHA (96).  
382 Improved energy availability with resumption of menses may reduce cholesterol levels and  
383 improve vascular endothelial function (97). Endothelial dysfunction, however, has not been  
384 demonstrated in males.

385

386 **Immune system**

387 Impaired immune function, primarily demonstrated as increased viral illness  
388 susceptibility (e.g., upper respiratory tract infections), is a potential presentation of REDs (34,  
389 98). The link between LEA and immunity in athletes is complex, and many factors may  
390 mediate this relationship (98)]. Recent data suggest that low carbohydrate availability may  
391 play a significant role in negatively affecting the immune system (99). Therefore, the best  
392 treatment to offset the impaired immune function would be restoring energy and carbohydrate  
393 availability (99, 100), and may also include supplementation of probiotics, vitamin C and  
394 vitamin D (100).

395

396 **Urinary incontinence (female athletes)**

397 In a cross-sectional study of 1000 female athletes, those with indicators of LEA  
398 reported more urinary incontinence (UI) than those without LEA indicators (101). It is  
399 important to confirm the aetiology of UI by ruling out causes other than problematic LEA  
400 (Table 3). UI can be classified as stress, urge, overflow, or mixed based on the underlying  
401 cause, with stress and urge incontinence more common in female athletes with EDs than those  
402 without (102-104). As with all REDs health outcomes, attention to reversing the LEA is  
403 paramount. The most recommended treatment for UI is pelvic floor muscle training (with or  
404 without biofeedback); other treatments include lifestyle interventions, electrical stimulation,  
405 or surgery (105).

406

## 407 **RECOMMENDED GUIDELINES FOR REDs PREVENTION**

408 The best approach to preserve health and improve performance is primary prevention  
409 of REDs. A multi-pronged approach is recommended, targeting the athlete health and  
410 performance team, athlete entourage, and sport organizations, which together need to create a  
411 supportive and safe sport environment, have sufficient REDs knowledge, and be observant for  
412 the early signs and symptoms of REDs (Table 4).

413 Early identification of athletes at risk is critical to prevent the progression of REDs.  
414 Before screening for REDs, it is important to have a multidisciplinary athlete health and  
415 performance team available to identify and respond to signs and symptoms of REDs.  
416 Screening for REDs by a sports medicine physician should be included in the periodic health  
417 evaluation or by clinical indication (Table 4). The treatment strategy recommended by the  
418 athlete health and performance team should be supported by the sports organization and  
419 coaching staff to optimise athlete compliance and treatment outcomes (Table 4).

420 **Table 4:** Suggested guidelines for prevention of REDs, targeting the athlete health and performance team, athlete entourage, and sport organizations.

<b>Prevention</b>	<b>Athlete health and performance team</b>	<b>Athlete entourage</b>	<b>Sport organizations</b>
<b>PRIMARY</b>	<p>Identify a rationale for altering body composition in adult elite athletes, and ensure appropriate measurement and follow-up strategies performed only by qualified/certified practitioners</p> <p>Provide education for athletes and coaches</p>	<p>Decrease focus on body weight/composition</p> <p>Increase REDs knowledge (e.g., early signs and how to respond to athletes with symptoms)</p> <p>Provide psychologically safe training environments</p>	<p>Develop and support a healthy sport environment around eating, fuelling, body image, and body composition</p> <p>Implement rule changes to decrease emphasis on body shape/weight and body composition on performance outcomes</p> <p>Implement sport-specific REDs-related educational programs</p>
<b>SECONDARY</b>	<p>Implement regular and evidence-based screening</p> <p>Conduct clinical assessments of signs of REDs (e.g., blood biomarkers, blood pressure, bone mineral density)</p>	<p>Be observant of early physical, psychological, and/or behavioural symptoms</p>	<p>Provide financial and organisational support for the early identification of REDs</p>

		<p>Refer athletes with symptoms to the athlete health and performance team for assessment</p> <p>Be supportive of the athlete and the athletes' health and performance team</p>	
<b>TERTIARY</b>	<p>Ensure accurate diagnosis</p> <p>Collaborate in a multidisciplinary team</p> <p>Reverse problematic LEA</p> <p>Implement adjuvant pharmacotherapies or psychotherapies as needed</p> <p>Implement a graduated return to play program adjusting for energy requirements as needed</p>	<p>Be supportive of the athlete and the treatment regimen</p>	<p>Provide financial and organisational support for the treatment and return to play for athletes with REDs</p>

## 422 **CONCLUSION**

423           The current review highlights that primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention  
424 strategies of problematic LEA and REDs are necessary to promote and protect athlete health  
425 and performance. Firstly, primary prevention is crucial to minimize exposure to and reduce  
426 behaviours associated with problematic LEA. A special focus on at-risk groups is  
427 recommended. Secondly, early identification of athletes with symptoms or signs of  
428 problematic LEA is important to prevent the progression of REDs. Recommended secondary  
429 prevention tools are questionnaires, health interviews, and objective REDs markers. Finally,  
430 tertiary prevention strategies include clinical treatment to prevent or limit short- and long-  
431 term severe health consequences of REDs. Reversing the underlying cause of REDs, namely  
432 problematic LEA, can be achieved by increasing energy intake, decreasing exercise energy  
433 expenditure, or a combination of both. A multidisciplinary approach that targets the athlete  
434 health and performance team, coaches, and sport organizations, focussing on a supportive and  
435 safe sporting environment, is recommended for the prevention of REDs.

436

## 437 **SUMMARY BOX**

### 438 **What is already known?**

- 439       • Male and female athletes in various sports may be at risk for developing REDs.
- 440       • Questionnaires are frequently used to identify athletes at risk of LEA and/or REDs.
- 441       • Reversal of problematic LEA is the cornerstone of treatment of REDs.

442

### 443 **What are the new findings?**

- 444       • Special consideration should be aimed towards young female athletes during the  
445       adolescent transition period that is considered high risk for problematic LEA/REDs.
- 446       • Few questionnaires used to identify athletes at risk of LEA and/or REDs are validated.

- 447       • Evaluation of multiple REDs signs and symptoms, of both physiological,  
448           psychological, and behavioural origin, is necessary for optimal identification and  
449           management of REDs.
- 450       • The REDs CAT2 provides a clinical framework to operationalise the secondary (early  
451           identification) and tertiary (treatment) prevention of REDs.

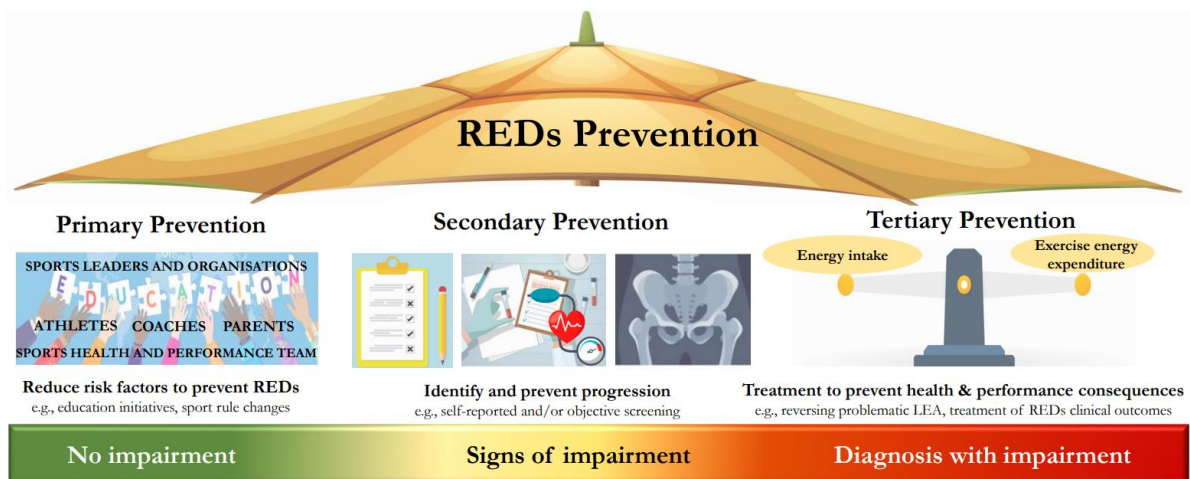
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454 **Figure legend**

455 **Figure 1** A primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention model of Relative Energy Deficiency in Sport  
456 (REDs). Pictures from pixabay.com.



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474

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477

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480

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482 No data is available.

483

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