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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
Intentional exposure to LEA	
<i>Intentional reduction in body weight or body fat</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implement in elite athletes only • Obtain athlete consent and only share results with athlete approval • 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 • Ensure athlete physical and psychological readiness (e.g., pre-screening of disordered eating behaviour) • Utilise evidence-based rationale and set realistic goals for body weight and body composition • Employ appropriate weight and body composition methods used by licensed personnel who are trained in the specific methods • Maintain energy deficits in moderation • No assessment of body weight and composition unless for medical purposes for athletes < 18 years old
Inadvertent exposure to LEA	
<i>Lack of knowledge</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educate about the importance of adequate energy availability to ensure optimal health and performance • Teach adequate fuelling strategies for various training durations and intensities as well as growth
<i>Behaviours associated with LEA (e.g., restrictive diet, compulsive exercise)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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) • Reduce risk factors (e.g., internalization of an ‘ideal body type’, body dissatisfaction, peer pressure, fat shaming) • Involve teammates and the athlete entourage (e.g., coaches)
<i>Non-modifiable risk factors</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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)

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- β -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 (5th 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- β 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.

Prevention	Athlete health and performance team	Athlete entourage	Sport organizations
PRIMARY	<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>
SECONDARY	<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>	
TERTIARY	<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.

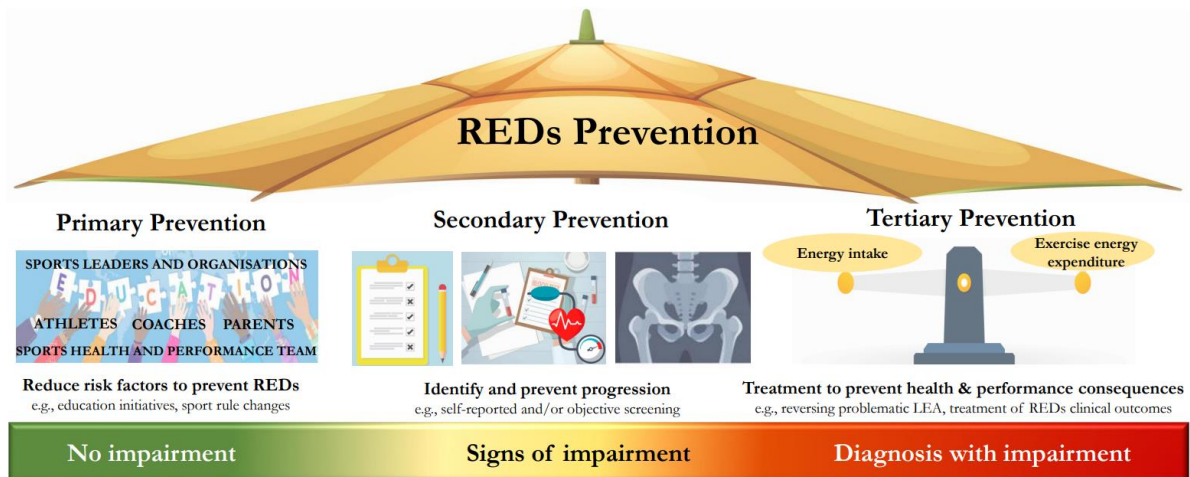
- 447 • Evaluation of multiple REDs signs and symptoms, of both physiological,
448 psychological, and behavioural origin, is necessary for optimal identification and
449 management of REDs.
- 450 • The REDs CAT2 provides a clinical framework to operationalise the secondary (early
451 identification)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

452

453

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

475 **Ethical approval**

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477

478 **Patient consent for publication**

479 Not required.

480

481 **Data availability statement**

482 No data is available.

483

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