

1 **Supplement use and behaviours of athletes**
2 **affiliated with an Australian state-based sports**
3 **institute**

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16 **Running title**

17 Supplement use and behaviours of athletes.

18

19 **Abstract**

20 We aimed to update knowledge of the use surrounding supplements
21 amongst Australian athletes at a state-based sports institute. We
22 conducted a cross-sectional survey using an online questionnaire to
23 assess the influence of age, sports category, and scholarship
24 category on supplement use. Of 94 completed questionnaires, 82
25 (87%) indicated supplements in the previous 12 months
26 (mean=4.9±3.3). No significant difference in supplement usage rate
27 was identified when considering age, scholarship category, or sport
28 category. The most frequently used supplements were sports drinks
29 (70%), caffeine (48%), protein powder (42%), and sports bars
30 (42%). Recovery (63%), health maintenance (59%) and improved
31 energy (50%) were the most frequently reported rationale to use
32 supplements. Allied health professionals and credible on-line
33 resources were the predominant sources of influence regarding use.
34 However, athletes from lower scholarship categories were more
35 likely to have social media, parents and siblings influence usage, and
36 age was inversely related to increased influence from parents, social
37 media, physicians not associated with the institute, the internet and
38 siblings. Older athletes and those on higher scholarships were more
39 likely to source supplements from training facilities and sports
40 nutrition staff outside of the institute or direct from a supplier,
41 whereas those on lower scholarships tended to rely more on family

42 and friends for their supplements. Findings from this study show a
43 high prevalence of supplement use, and are the first to show an
44 influence of social media, particularly in younger athletes.
45 Opportunities exist to optimise how athletes are informed regarding
46 supplement use, and organisational and supplement policy.

47

48 **Key words:** ergogenic aid, sports nutrition, questionnaire.

49

50 **Introduction**

51 Supplements are often used to optimise nutrition, or to enhance
52 health and performance, with usage rates of 37-93% among elite
53 athletes (Giannopoulou, Noutsos, Apostolidis, Bayios, & Nassis,
54 2013; Knapik et al., 2016; Sato et al., 2015). The large variance in
55 supplement usage rates may be due to the varying definitions of
56 supplements and time periods in which athletes' usage were
57 assessed (Knapik et al., 2016). Only two studies have assessed
58 supplement usage rates in Australian athletes, with 88 – 97% of
59 athletes reporting supplement use (Dascombe, Karunaratna,
60 Cartoon, Fergie, & Goodman, 2010; Shaw, Slater, & Burke, 2016).
61 However, a reassessment of this population is vital as there has not
62 been a survey since 2009 and during that time there have been
63 several high profile intentional and unintentional doping cases, both
64 domestically and internationally (CAS, 2015, 2016; USADA, 2012;
65 "World Anti-doping Agency v. Thomas Bellchambers, et al.,
66 Australian Football League, Australian Sports Anti-doping
67 Authority," 2015). Anecdotal evidence from institute staff suggests
68 that these incidents have affected the attitudes of both athletes and
69 coaching staff towards supplements, even including the use of basic
70 sports foods.

71 Enhancing performance, recovery and health are the most
72 commonly cited reasons that athletes use supplements (Kim et al.,

73 2011; Sato et al., 2015). Athletes often report that family and friends
74 (Braun et al., 2009; Erdman, Fung, & Reimer, 2006),
75 coaches/trainers (Deihl et al., 2012; Sato et al., 2015), physicians
76 and allied health professionals (Aljaloud & Ibrahim, 2013;
77 Dascombe et al., 2010) are their key influences when considering
78 whether or not to use supplements. However, media (Deihl et al.,
79 2012) and online sources (Aljaloud & Ibrahim, 2013) have emerged
80 as important sources of information and influence, and the influence
81 of these factors has not yet been assessed in Australian athletes. This
82 is vital as the increasingly pervasive nature of these influences (*Like,*
83 *post, share: young Australians' experience of social media*, 2013),
84 and reliance on people without specific nutritional training,
85 potentially compromises the safety and efficacy of supplement
86 programs. Therefore, gaining an understanding of the level of
87 knowledge that athletes possess regarding supplements and the
88 policies that guide their use is important in guiding education
89 programs to combat or reinforce current supplement behaviours.

90 Recent reports have suggested that 15-30% of supplements exclude
91 the listed amounts of active ingredients or contain unlisted
92 substances (Hall & Judkins, 2012; Maughan, 2013). This omission
93 increases the risk of unintentional doping and is an issue requiring
94 ongoing vigilance by athletes and support personnel (Maughan,
95 2013; Outram & Stewart, 2015). Therefore, ongoing assessment of

96 factors affecting supplement usage is required to minimise the risks
97 associated with poorly informed behaviours.

98 Researchers have previously investigated the factors that affect
99 supplement usage. Braun et al. (2009) and Erdman et al. (2006)
100 identified older athletes as more frequent supplement users, whereas
101 Giannopoulou et al. (2013) and Kim et al. (2011) found no
102 correlation between age and supplement use. Higher competitive
103 level has been identified within a number of studies as correlating
104 with increased supplement use, however age has frequently been
105 identified as a dependant factor (Braun et al., 2009; Erdman et al.,
106 2006; Giannopoulou et al., 2013). It has also been reported that
107 athletes from endurance, power, and individual sports are greater
108 users of supplements when compared to technical and team sports,
109 however reasons for this are yet to be clearly identified (Deihl et al.,
110 2012; Giannopoulou et al., 2013). Importantly, although there is a
111 wealth of research investigating the various elements affecting
112 supplement use, there are relatively few that have assessed a broad
113 range of these factors in a single population to allow for a thorough
114 examination.

115 Therefore, the aims of this study were to evaluate the use and
116 behaviours surrounding supplements amongst Australian athletes
117 affiliated with a state-based sporting institute, and assess the
118 influence of age, sports category and scholarship category. A

119 secondary aim was to identify temporal changes in this population
120 via comparison to a previously published study conducted within the
121 same sports institute (Dascombe et al., 2010).

122

123 **Methods**

124 **Participants**

125 All athletes 242 athletes who were currently on scholarship to train
126 at a state-based sports institute were emailed to invite them to
127 participate in this cross-sectional survey design study. A total of 112
128 (46%) responses were received (n=94 [39%] complete, n=18 [7%]
129 partially complete [excluded]), leaving 94 responses (females =
130 59%) for the final analysis (see Table 1). Consent was obtained from
131 all participants. Approval for the research procedures was obtained
132 from the host institution Human Research Ethics Committee.

133 **Questionnaire**

134 Athletes were directed to follow a link that was emailed to them to
135 complete a short 10 min online questionnaire on their mobile
136 phone/tablet/computer (Qualtrics LLC, Utah, USA). After reading
137 through the literature to determine what questionnaires had been
138 used, and having had discussions with colleagues that had attempted
139 to capture similar information, it was decided that creating our own
140 would minimise some of the limitations of previous work and allow

141 us to assess a breadth of factors. This questionnaire was developed
142 in consultation with a team of sports dietitians, physiologists and a
143 physician and sports psychologist (with significant experience in
144 questionnaire development). The questionnaire gathered
145 information regarding demographic information and supplement
146 use in the last 12 months. Scholarship categories were defined by
147 the institute standards and for the purposes of analysis, athletes were
148 characterised as belonging to the upper (podium – currently top 3 in
149 the world; potential podium - international senior competitor in an
150 individual event or team with a 4-8 placing at benchmark
151 competitions and considered capable of progressing to medal
152 performance within 2 y; international - international senior
153 competitor in an individual event or team at benchmark
154 competitions and considered capable of retaining or progressing this
155 level of performance) or lower three scholarship levels (developing
156 international - athlete with the capability to achieve at least
157 international class athlete status within 3 y; emerging international -
158 athlete with the capability to achieve at least international class
159 athlete status within 4-7 y; training only agreement - athletes who
160 are likely to enter into emerging international level in the next
161 annual intake).

162 Due to a lack of standard nomenclature for sport categorisation, the
163 sample was classified as team and individual sports by the

164 predominant category in which the event could be contested in an
165 Olympic competition (IOC, 2016). Supplements were defined as per
166 the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) Sports Supplements
167 Framework (AIS, 2017) as sports foods (i.e., normal food items to
168 support training, competition and recovery), medical supplements
169 (i.e., supplements prescribed to correct a deficiency), and
170 performance supplements (i.e., supplements used specifically to
171 enhance performance). Reasons for use/non-use of supplements,
172 where athletes sourced their supplements, influences on supplement
173 use/non-use and self-reported knowledge of supplements was
174 assessed. Additionally, knowledge of national sporting organisation
175 (NSO), institute and anti-doping policies (Australian Sports Anti-
176 doping Authority – ASADA; World Anti-Doping Agency –
177 WADA) that govern supplement use were assessed.

178 **Statistical analysis**

179 Statistical analysis was completed using IBM SPSS Statistics
180 (V24.0, IBM Corporation, New York, USA). Descriptive statistics
181 were reported as mean \pm SD or as frequencies and percentages.
182 Pearson's chi-square and post hoc Fishers exact test were used to
183 assess differences between categorical variables. Independent
184 samples t-test were used to compare group means by sport and
185 scholarship category with statistical significance accepted at $p\leq 0.05$.

186 Where the data was not normally distributed, results were analysed
187 using the Mann-Whitney test and medians reported.

188 Logistic regression was used to assess the relationship between age
189 and each categorical variable, with B, standard error (SE) and odds-
190 ratios (OR) reported. Based on previous research (Erdman, Fung,
191 Doyle-Baker, Verhoef, & Reimer, 2007), if age is at its mean, then
192 $H_0=88\%$ and $H_1=76\%$. Therefore, to achieve a power of 80% to
193 capture type II error, we required a sample of $n=85$. Age was not
194 normally distributed, therefore Spearman's RHO correlation was
195 used to assess the relationship between age and number of
196 supplements used.

197

198 **Results**

199 **Prevalence of use**

200 In total, 87% of athletes used one or more supplements in the 12
201 months prior to survey completion (see Table 1). Age was unrelated
202 to supplement usage ($B=0.09$, $SE =0.08$, $p=0.32$, $OR[95\%$
203 $CI]=1.09[0.92,1.28]$). No significant difference was found in the
204 number of athletes that used supplements when considering sport
205 ($p=0.76$) or scholarship category ($p=0.50$).

206

207 ****Table 1 near here****

208

209 The mean number of supplements used was 4.3 ± 3.5 (range=0–18).

210 A significant weak positive correlation was found between age and

211 number of supplements used ($r=0.22$, $p=0.03$). No significant

212 differences were identified between sport ($p=0.64$; team

213 median=4.0; individual median=4.0) or scholarship categories

214 ($p=0.52$; upper median=4.0; lower median=4.0).

215

216 ****Figure 1 near here****

217

218 **Types of supplements**

219 The most frequently reported supplements used were sports drinks

220 (70%), caffeine (48%), protein powder (42%), and sports bars (42%;

221 see Figure 2). Within the AIS supplement classifications, athletes

222 most frequently reported using sports foods (90%), medical

223 supplements (55%), and performance supplements (55%).

224 Age was positively associated with usage of sports bars ($B=0.11$,

225 $SE=0.05$, $p=0.04$, $OR=1.11[1.01,1.23]$), sports gels ($B=0.18$,

226 $SE=0.06$, $p=0.004$, $OR=1.19[1.06,1.34]$), protein powder ($B=0.18$,

227 $SE=0.06$, $p=0.002$, $OR=1.20[1.07,1.34]$), beta-alanine ($B=0.21$,

228 $SE=0.08$, $p=0.01$, $OR=1.23[1.05,1.45]$) and creatine ($B=0.26$,

229 $SE=0.08$, $p=0.001$, $OR=1.29[1.11,1.50]$).

230 Athletes from the upper three scholarship categories most frequently
231 reported using sports drinks (75%), protein powder (60%) and sports
232 bars (55%). Those from the lower three scholarship categories most
233 frequently reported using sports drinks (68%), caffeine (48%) and
234 sports bars (37%). However, there were no significant differences in
235 the supplements used between scholarship categories ($p=0.07-1.00$).

236 Team sport and individual athletes most frequently reported using
237 sports drinks (67% and 52%) and caffeine (42% and 41%).
238 Individual sport athletes used significantly more sports gels than
239 team sport athletes (26% vs. 10%; $p=0.047$).

240

241 ****Figure 2 near here****

242

243 **Sources of supplements**

244 The majority of supplements were sourced from the supermarket
245 (54%), pharmacy (39%), and directly from institute staff (26%). Age
246 was positively associated with sourcing supplements at training
247 facilities not associated with the institute ($B=0.19$, $SE=0.08$, $p=0.01$,
248 $OR=1.21[1.04,1.41]$), nutritionists or dietitians not associated with
249 the institute ($B=0.18$, $SE=0.07$, $p=0.01$, OR , $1.20[1.05,1.38]$), or
250 direct from a supplier ($B=0.17$, $SE=0.06$, $p=0.01$,
251 $OR=1.19[1.05,1.35]$).

252 Athletes from the upper scholarship categories were more likely to
253 source their supplements from nutritionists or dietitians not
254 associated with the institute (26% vs. 5%, $p=0.02$) or direct from a
255 supplier (41% vs. 6%, $p=0.01$). Athletes in the lower scholarship
256 categories and team-sport athletes were more likely to be supplied
257 by family and/or friends (32% vs. 4%, $p=0.02$; 44% vs. 5%,
258 $p=0.001$, respectively) than athletes from the upper scholarship
259 categories and individual athletes.

260

261 **Reasons for supplement use/non-use**

262 Reasons for using and not using supplements are detailed in Table
263 2. Athletes most commonly reported using supplements to enhance
264 recovery (63%), maintain health (59%), and improve energy (50%).
265 Age was positively associated with reasons to improve training
266 ($B=0.18$, $SE=0.06$, $p=0.003$, $OR=1.19[1.06,1.33]$), and competition
267 ($B=0.14$, $SE=0.06$, $p=0.01$, $OR=1.15[1.04,1.28]$) performance, and
268 enhance recovery ($B=0.14$, $SE=0.06$, $p=0.02$, $OR=1.15[1.02,1.28]$).
269 No significant differences were found between scholarship
270 ($p=0.07-0.83$), or sport categories ($p=0.07-0.98$).

271

272 ****Table 2 near here****

273

274 Factors influencing usage

275 Supplement usage was most influenced by information on the
276 ASADA “check your substances” website (4.03 ± 1.10), sports
277 nutrition staff (3.68 ± 1.10) and medical staff (3.40 ± 1.31 ; see Figure
278 3).

279 Age was inversely associated with influence of parents (moderately
280 $B = -0.20$, $SE = 0.08$, $p = 0.04$, $OR = 0.84[0.70, 0.97]$; very $B = -0.30$,
281 $SE = 0.11$, $p = 0.012$, $OR = 0.74[0.60, 0.93]$; extremely $B = -0.75$,
282 $SE = 0.31$, $p = 0.02$, $OR = 0.47[0.26, 0.87]$), social media (slightly $B = -$
283 0.31 , $SE = 0.10$, $p = 0.003$, $OR = 0.74[0.60, 0.90]$; moderately $B = -0.21$,
284 $SE = 0.09$, $p = 0.03$, $OR = 0.81[0.68, 0.98]$), physicians not associated
285 with the institute (moderately $B = -0.21$, $SE = 0.09$, $p = 0.03$,
286 $OR = 0.81[0.67, 0.97]$), the internet (slightly $B = -0.17$, $SE = 0.08$,
287 $p = 0.03$, $OR = 0.84[0.73, 0.98]$) and siblings (slightly $B = -0.17$,
288 $SE = 0.08$, $p = 0.04$, $OR = 0.84[0.72, 0.99]$). Age was positively
289 associated with influence of seeing other athletes sanctioned for
290 unintentional doping (slightly $B = 0.32$, $SE = 0.11$, $p = 0.003$,
291 $OR = 1.37[1.11, 1.70]$; moderately $B = 0.24$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = 0.02$,
292 $OR = 1.27[1.05, 1.54]$).

293 Athletes from the lower three scholarship categories were more
294 likely to be influenced by their parents (2.39 ± 1.22 vs. 1.54 ± 0.88 ;
295 $p = 0.002$) and siblings (1.84 ± 1.09 vs. 1.29 ± 0.62 ; $p = 0.02$) when
296 compared to those athletes in the upper three categories. No other

297 significant differences were identified between any of the
298 groupings.

299

300 ****Figure 3 near here****

301

302 **Self-reported knowledge**

303 When assessing the self-reported supplement knowledge of users,
304 71% knew the main ingredient, 65% knew what it does to their body,
305 51% knew the timing and dose required for the supplement to work
306 effectively, and 33% said they knew what the scientific literature
307 said about the supplement and its proposed effect. Only 2% reported
308 having no knowledge. Age was positively associated with
309 knowledge of the correct dose and timing of supplements for them
310 to work effectively (B=0.11, SE=0.05, p=0.04,
311 OR=1.11[1.01,1.23]). There were no significant differences
312 between the self-reported knowledge of supplements in scholarship
313 (p=0.33-0.81) or sport category (p=0.11-0.50).

314 Self-reported knowledge of relevant anti-doping, institute and NSO
315 guidelines controlling supplement use are detailed in Figure 4. Age
316 was unrelated to the level of self-reported knowledge of guidelines.
317 There were no significant differences between the self-reported

318 knowledge of relevant guidelines in scholarship ($p=0.29-0.92$) or
319 sport category ($p=0.07-0.48$).

320

321 ****Figure 4 near here****

322

323 **Discussion**

324 The aim of this study was to evaluate supplement use and
325 behaviours of Australian athletes affiliated with a state-based
326 sporting institute. Supplement use was high (87%) but in-line with
327 usage rates of similar international populations (Aljaloud &
328 Ibrahim, 2013; Kim et al., 2011; Sato et al., 2015), however making
329 comparisons to previous studies is hampered by differences in the
330 survey, recall period, and definition or categorisation of
331 supplements. Importantly, this study is the first to survey of a sample
332 of Australian athletes since 2009 (Dascombe et al., 2010; Shaw et
333 al., 2016), and we identified that supplement usage was almost
334 identical (87% vs. 88%) to athletes at this institute in 2009, and
335 lower than that of a sample of elite Australian swimmers (97%).
336 Several studies have assessed temporal changes in supplement use
337 and reported increased (+5%; Huang, Johnson, and Pipe, 2006),
338 steady (-3%; Shaw, Slater, and Burke, 2016) and reduced (-8%;
339 Heikkinen et al., 2011) usage. Shaw et al. (2016) investigated

340 supplement use amongst elite Australian swimmers from 1998-2009
341 and reported unchanged usage (-3%), and our data suggests that
342 usage rates within Australia may have remained relatively stable
343 from 2009-2016 despite our predictions that usage may have
344 declined over time given the perceived negative impact of recent
345 doping violations. This may be a result of clear, contemporary
346 supplement policies developed by the AIS and NSO's.

347 Sports foods and caffeine are commonly reported as the most
348 frequently used by elite athletes (Aljaloud & Ibrahim, 2013; Erdman
349 et al., 2006), which matches our results and fits with common
350 dietary patterns and sports nutrition guidelines (AIS, 2017;
351 Goldstein et al., 2010; Jäger et al., 2017). Potentially usage rates of
352 these supplements link with the predominant reasons for using
353 supplements that we identified (i.e., to enhance recovery, maintain
354 health and improve energy), which was particularly evident in our
355 population as age increased. However, it is important to remember
356 the minority of athletes who continue to use inappropriate
357 supplements (e.g., several athletes reported using mixed ingredient
358 supplements despite warnings about high contamination rates).

359 Athletes reported sourcing their supplements from easily available
360 sources such as the supermarket, pharmacy and directly from
361 institute staff. However, older athletes and those on higher
362 scholarships were more likely to source supplements from training

363 facilities and sports nutrition staff outside of the institute (likely at
364 national program centres) or direct from a supplier, whereas those
365 on lower scholarships, who are also commonly younger, tend to rely
366 more on family and friends for their supplements. It has been
367 reported that age and supplement use are positively related (Braun
368 et al., 2009; Erdman et al., 2007). Although increasing age did not
369 predict greater usage rates, they were more likely to use a greater
370 number of supplements, some sports foods (protein, bars and gels),
371 beta-alanine and creatine. This finding meets expectations that older
372 athletes in our sample may have exhausted dietary interventions and
373 be pursuing marginal gains.

374 We also identified a positive association between age and
375 knowledge of the correct dose and timing of supplements for them
376 to work effectively. This suggests that older athletes may be more
377 confident with using supplements appropriately, possibly as a result
378 of increased exposure to education and supplement policies, as well
379 as interactions with expert support staff. Although our data
380 suggested no difference in self-reported knowledge of supplement
381 between groups, a concerted approach by this institute to enhance
382 its supplement education since the previous survey appears to have
383 led to an improvement (~6%) in knowledge about supplements
384 (Dascombe et al., 2010), which may support the differences
385 observed. Supporting this, Wardenaar et al. (2017) recently

386 identified that dietary counselling results in increased supplement
387 use and better informed choices.

388 Not only did those on lower scholarships tend to rely more on family
389 and friends for sourcing their supplements, but they were also more
390 influenced by their parents and siblings. Further, lower age
391 predicted increased influence from their parents, social media,
392 physicians not associate with the institute, the internet and siblings
393 to guide their supplement usage. Importantly, this study is the first
394 time that social media has been directly identified as an influential
395 factor for athletes, particularly younger athletes, which is consistent
396 with similar findings in the general young Australian population
397 (*Like, post, share: young Australians' experience of social media,*
398 2013). The growing influence of online and social media (Aljaloud
399 & Ibrahim, 2013; Deihl et al., 2012) represents an important area of
400 influence for athletes, and pathway to improve athlete engagement,
401 particularly in younger athletes.

402 The breadth of influences on athletes suggests the importance of
403 spreading supplement education to the athlete support network,
404 particularly with younger athletes. Prior studies with elite athletes
405 have identified family/friends (Braun et al., 2009; Erdman et al.,
406 2006), coaches/trainers (Deihl et al., 2012; Sato et al., 2015) and
407 themselves (Dascombe et al., 2010) as the predominant sources of
408 influence. As a cohort, and with older athletes particularly there

409 appears to have been a positive shift towards a higher reliance on
410 reputable sports science, nutrition and medical staff. Increasing age
411 seems to increase the probability of athletes being influenced by
412 seeing athletes sanctioned for unintentional doping. Additionally,
413 there seems to be positive influence from appropriate online
414 information sources (e.g., ASADA “check your substances” web
415 page), which may all be a result of targeted supplement education at
416 this institute since 2009.

417 We believe that we may be the first to report athletes’ self-rated
418 knowledge of anti-doping and governing body guidelines around
419 supplement usage. The majority of our athletes (>75%) reported
420 good to extensive self-reported knowledge of these guidelines, and
421 generally good self-reports of knowledge about supplements, yet
422 there was still many athletes (8–25%) that had limited or no
423 knowledge of anti-doping and governing body guidelines. Given
424 that the responsibility for abiding by these regulations is the
425 responsibility of the individual athlete, this represents an important
426 group of athletes who need to be engaged, potentially guided by our
427 findings of the most influential sources, to ensure that all athletes
428 are fully aware of their obligations.

429 The current data suggested little difference between team and
430 individual sport athletes, other than individual sport athletes using
431 more sports gels and team-sport athletes being supplied their

432 supplements more from family and friends. Previous studies have
433 identified that similar types of supplements are used in these
434 categories, however individual athletes tend to have higher usage
435 rates (Giannopoulou et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2006; Lazic et al.,
436 2011). The reasons for this difference are unclear and future research
437 should look to identify any root causes of the difference.

438 The current study had several limitations. First, although the
439 response rate was reasonable (~39%) and in-line with studies that
440 have utilised similar study designs (Slater, Tan, & Teh, 2003;
441 Striegel, Simon, Wurster, Niess, & Ulrich, 2006; Wardenaar et al.,
442 2017), there may be athletes who use supplements contrary to
443 guidelines and therefore didn't complete the survey. Second, we
444 were limited in assessing how behaviours and influences differ
445 when considering individual or categories of supplements, as
446 opposed to supplements generally. For example, we would expect
447 our athletes to be large users of sports foods and their usage rates
448 and attitudes towards them should be different to performance
449 enhancing or medical supplements targeted at specific purposes
450 (e.g., beta-alanine, iron). Such information would allow for targeted
451 education programs to reduce the risks associated with poorly
452 informed supplement behaviours. Future research should also look
453 to identify whether specific supplements are being used

454 appropriately (e.g., is caffeine used as part of a regular diet or for
455 enhancing competition or training performance?).

456 Findings from this study show a high prevalence of supplement use
457 within this population, and identified some unique influences on
458 supplement use (e.g., social media). Our results show that
459 opportunities exist to develop the best means by which to inform
460 athletes regarding supplement use, organisational guidelines and
461 anti-doping policy, particularly among younger athletes.

462

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466

467 **Authorship Declaration**

468 Study and survey designed by all authors. Data collection facilitated
469 by MB, EE, CW and TS. Data analysis and interpretation by MW,
470 KD, DG and DK. Manuscript preparation by MW, KD and DK. All
471 authors approved the final version of paper.

472

473 **Conflicts of Interest**

474 The authors declare that there were no conflicts of interest.

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597 Sport 2015).
598

599 **Table 1.** Demographic characteristics and prevalence of use of nutritional and sports supplements
 600 by age, scholarship category and sports category.

		Overall	Supplement users	Supplement non-users
Total participants, n	-	94	82 (87)	12 (13)
Age (y), mean \pm SD	-	20.4 \pm 4.5 (range=12-38)	-	-
Scholarship category, n (%)	Podium	4 (4)	3 (75)	1 (25)
	Potential podium	5 (5)	3 (60)	2 (40)
	International	15 (16)	14 (93)	1 (7)
	Developing international	22 (23)	20 (90)	2 (10)
	Emerging international	36 (38)	31 (86)	5 (14)
	Training only agreement	12 (13)	11 (92)	1 (8)
Scholarship category groupings, n (%)	Upper 3	24 (26)	20 (83)	4 (17)
	Lower 3	70 (75)	62 (89)	8 (11)
Sport, n (%)	Water polo	16 (17)	14 (88)	2 (12)
	Cycling	11 (12)	10 (91)	1 (9)
	Sailing	9 (10)	8 (89)	1 (11)
	Swimming	8 (9)	7 (88)	1 (12)
	Hockey	8 (9)	7 (88)	1 (12)
	Rowing	7 (7)	7 (100)	0 (0)
	Netball	7 (7)	5 (71)	2 (29)
	Gymnastics	6 (6)	4 (67)	2 (33)
	Canoeing	6 (6)	5 (83)	1 (17)
	Athletics	4 (4)	4 (100)	0 (0)
	Synchronised swimming	2 (2)	2 (100)	0 (0)
	Diving	2 (2)	1 (50)	1 (50)
	Basketball - wheelchair	2 (2)	2 (100)	0 (0)
	Winter sports	1 (1)	1 (100)	0 (0)
	Weightlifting	1 (1)	1 (100)	0 (0)
	Triathlon	1 (1)	1 (100)	0 (0)
	Trampoline	1 (1)	1 (100)	0 (0)
	Cycling - BMX	1 (1)	1 (100)	0 (0)
	Boxing	1 (1)	1 (100)	0 (0)
Sport category, n (%)	Team	52 (55)	46 (89)	6 (11)
	Individual	42 (45)	36 (86)	6 (14)

602 **Table 2.** Reported frequency of reasons for athletes for using and not using nutritional and sports
 603 supplements.

	Total n (%)
Reasons for using supplements	
Enhances recovery	52 (63)
Maintain health	48 (59)
Improves energy	41 (50)
Boost immunity	35 (43)
Improved training performance	28 (34)
Improves competition performance	27 (33)
To increase muscle	23 (28)
Improves strength	18 (22)
Dietary routine	18 (22)
To change my body composition to achieve sports goals	14 (17)
Recommendations from others	14 (17)
Reasons for not using supplements	
A healthy diet makes them unnecessary	8 (75)
I don't think that I need them to improve my training recovery or competition performance	5 (42)
Concerns about the risk of doping violations from ASADA or WADA	4 (33)

604

605 **Figure Legends**

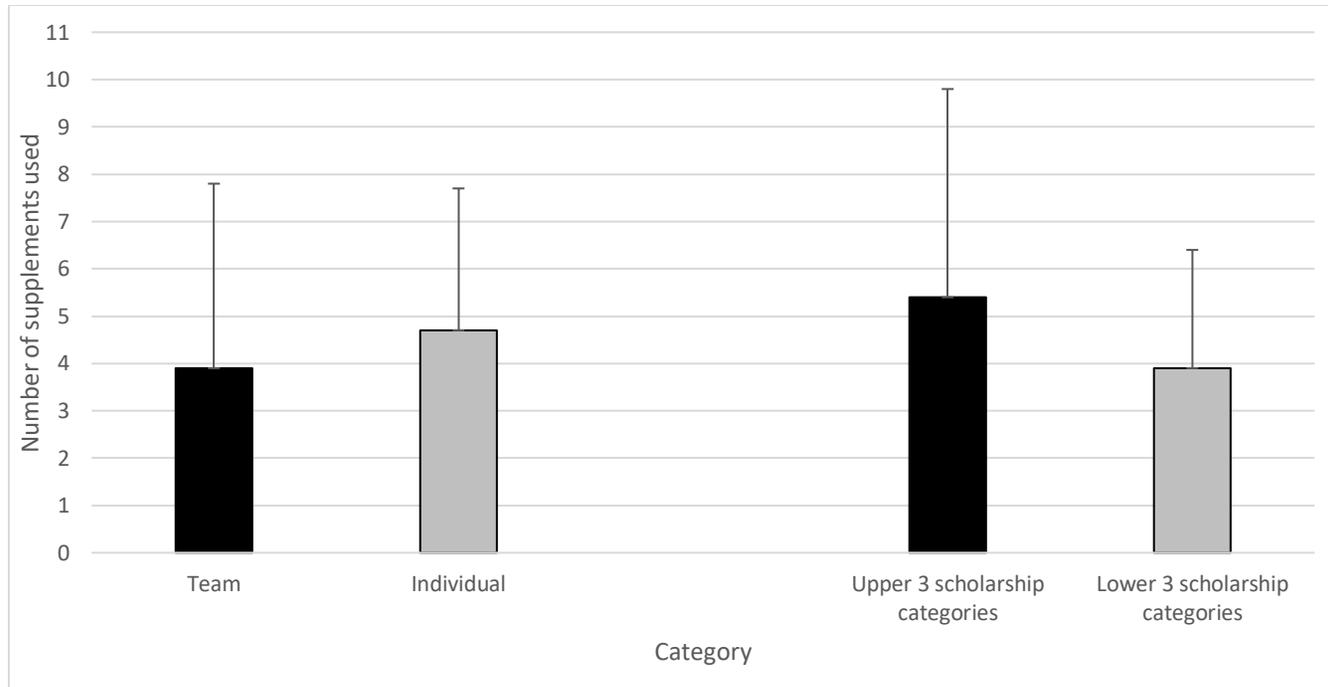
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607 **Figure 1.** Mean number of supplements used by scholarship and sport category.

608 **Figure 2.** Percentage of cohort that reported using nutritional and sports supplements amongst
609 elite athletes characterised by AIS Supplement classification (AIS, 2017).

610 **Figure 3.** Sources of influence to use or not use sports and nutritional supplements. ASADA –
611 Australian Sports Anti-Doping Authority; AIS – Australian Institute of Sport; S&C – strength and
612 conditioning.

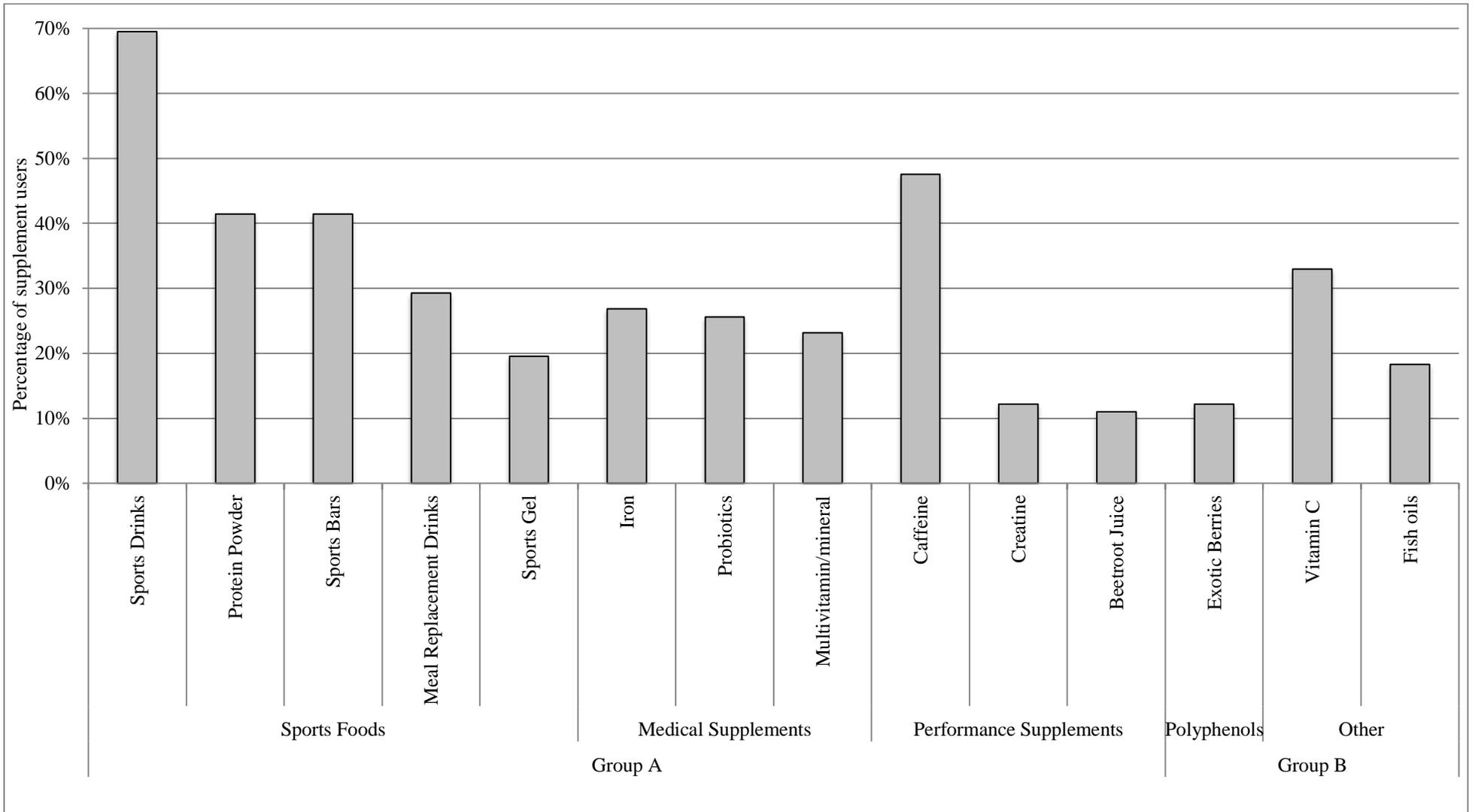
613 **Figure 4.** Knowledge of anti-doping organisation (World Anti-Doping Agency – WADA;
614 Australian Sports Anti-Doping Authority – ASADA), institute and national sporting body
615 guidelines controlling nutritional and sports supplement use.



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617 **Figure 1.** Mean number of supplements used by scholarship and sport category.

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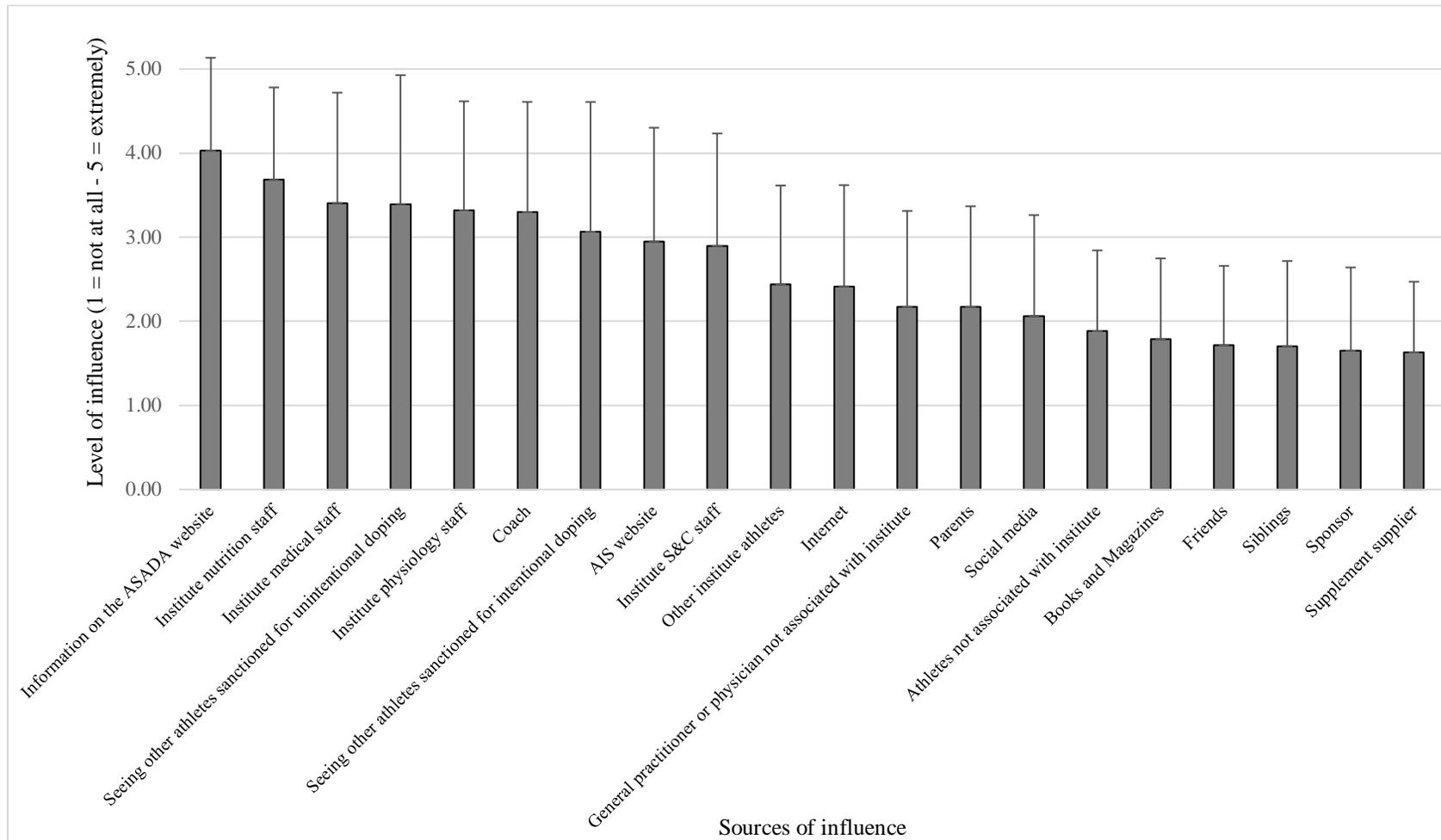
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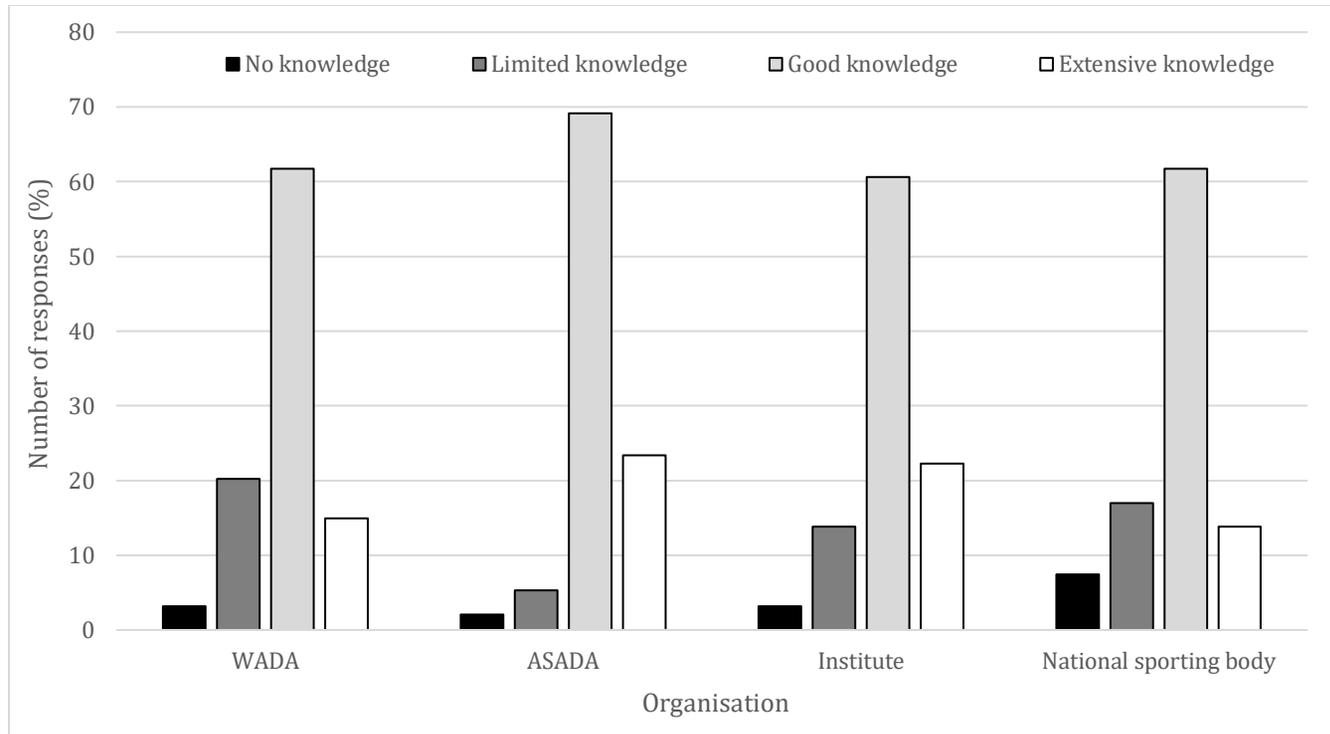
Figure 2. Percentage of supplement users that reported using nutritional and sports supplements amongst elite athletes characterised by AIS Supplement classification (AIS, 2017).

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624 **Figure 3.** Sources of influence to use or not use sports and nutritional supplements. ASADA – Australian Sports Anti-Doping Authority;
 625 AIS – Australian Institute of Sport; S&C – strength and conditioning.



626

627 **Figure 4.** Knowledge of anti-doping organisation (World Anti-Doping Agency – WADA; Australian Sports Anti-Doping Authority –
628 ASADA), institute and national sporting body guidelines controlling nutritional and sports supplement use.