1 The effect of heavy resistance exercise on repeated sprint performance in youth athletes.

2 Abstract

3 This investigation assessed whether using prior heavy resistance exercise would improve the repeated sprint performance of 16 trained youth apprentice soccer players (Age 17.05 ± 0.65 4 5 years; height 182.6 \pm 8.9 cm; body mass 77.8 \pm 8.2 kg). In the first session individual 1 repetition max was measured. In sessions 2 and 3, participants performed a running-based 6 repeated anaerobic sprint test with and without prior heavy resistance exercise of 91% 1 7 8 repetition max utilising a squat movement. Times were recorded for each of the 6 sprints 9 performed in the repeated anaerobic sprint test and summed to provide total time. T-tests 10 were used to compare times for the two exercise conditions for corresponding sprint within each repeated anaerobic sprint test as well as the total time. Analysis revealed significantly 11 reduced total time with use of heavy resistance exercise (33.48 (\pm 1.27) vs. 33.59 (\pm 1.27); p 12 = 0.01). Sprints 1 (p = 0.05) and 2 (p = 0.02) were also faster in heavy resistance exercise 13 14 condition (5.09 (\pm 0.16) vs. 5.11 (\pm 0.16) and 5.36 (\pm 0.24) vs. 5.45 (\pm 0.26) seconds respectively) although no other differences were shown. Findings demonstrate improved 15 16 sprint times of trained adolescent soccer players after heavy resistance exercise although this benefit appears not as sustained as in adult participants. 17

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19 Key Words

20 repeated anaerobic sprint test, post-activation potentiation, sprint performance.

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22 Word count: 2805

24 **1. Introduction**

At the start of the sprint action, a performer produces powerful extensions of the hip, knee 25 and ankle joints to accelerate their body mass (Delecluse, 1997). Strategies to maximise 26 sprint performance are viewed as essential by both coaches and athletes (Bishop & Claudius, 27 2005; Onkuno et al., 2013). One way in which sprint performance can be improved is through 28 the generation of greater muscular power, leading to improved peak acceleration and 29 30 increased maximal force output, muscle twitch force, H-reflex amplitude and rate of force development (Chiu et al., 2003; Hilficker, Klaus, Lorenz, & Marti, 2007; Hodgson, Docherty, 31 32 & Robbins, 2005; Sale, 2002; Xenofondos et al., 2010).

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Acute enhancement of muscular power has been shown to occur following a bout of heavy 34 resistance exercise. This exercise elicits post-activation potentiation which increases force 35 and power production in excess of what can be achieved without the use of heavy resistance 36 exercise (Bevan et al., 2010; Khamoui et al., 2009; Needham, Morse, & Degens, 2009; 37 Robins, 2005; Till & Cooke, 2009; Weber, Brown, Coburn, & Zinder, 2008; Yetter & Moir, 38 2008). When utilising this potentiation, time taken to complete a 30m sprint has been shown 39 to decrease (Bevan et al., 2010; Chatzopoulos et al., 2007; Linder et al., 2010). Heavy 40 resistance exercise has also been shown to be effective for adult handball players during 41 repeated sprint tests, suggesting its applicability to team sports (Okuno et al., 2013). The 42 43 ability to attain these physiological benefits are however, thought to relate to the condition of the participants (Berning et al., 2010; Gourgoulis, Aggeloussis, Kasimatis, Mavromatis, & 44 Garas, 2003; Okuno et al. 2013) and level of musculature tissue development (Ausubel, 45 2002). These characteristics can be directly influenced by the age of the participant as 46 children possess less voluntary muscle speed, strength and power, even when corrected for 47 age or maturation state (Van Praagh & Dore, 2002). Likewise, children and adolescents 48

possess less quantity of type II muscle fibres in the vastus lateralis muscle compared to adults 49 (Lexell, Sjöström, Nordlund, & Taylor, 1992; Sjöström, Lexell, & Downham, 1992) and have 50 a reduced ability to utilize these higher-threshold motor units (Cohen et al., 2010; Dotan et 51 al., 2012) which are more responsive to heavy resistance exercise (Hamada, Sale, 52 MacDougall, & Tarnopolsky, 2000; Howarth & Kravitz, 2008). The combination of these 53 factors may influence the ability of adolescent participants to derive benefits from heavy 54 55 resistance exercise. However, these characteristics can be enhanced through training (Sale, 2002) and thus a trained adolescent population may be receptive to heavy resistance exercise. 56

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This investigation measures the repeated sprint times of trained adolescent apprentice soccer 58 players during a Repeated anaerobic sprint test with and without performing prior heavy 59 60 resistance exercise. The study also investigates whether the effectiveness of the heavy 61 resistance exercise to change sprint time correlates with the magnitude of 1 repetition max of individual participants. It is hypothesized that the heavy resistance exercise condition will 62 63 result in a significant decrease in time compared to the corresponding sprint time collected without heavy resistance exercise. Total time taken to perform a repeated anaerobic sprint test 64 is also thought to be significantly reduced follow heavy resistance exercise. There will also 65 be a positive correlation between individual 1 repetition max and difference between with 66 67 and without heavy resistance exercise sprint times.

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69 **2. Methods**

Sixteen adolescent male apprentice soccer players participated in this investigation (age 17.1 ± 0.65 years; height 182.6 ± 8.9 cm; weight 77.8 ± 8.2kg). Participants were deemed athletically trained as they trained twice a day (90 - 120 min per session), five days a week (Smith, 2012). All participants wore suitable running shoes and the same club issue training

kit (t-shirt, shorts and socks) to alleviate possible variability within the testing procedures. Each participant had a minimum of 6 months experience in performing back squats, the task utilised for the initiation of post-activation potentiation. All participants were informed about the procedures and any potential risks involved within the study; parental written consent was obtained before participation. Participants were also informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any time. The ethics board at the University Centre, North Lindsey College, approved this study.

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82 Each participant completed a repeated anaerobic sprint test on two separate occasions. The repeated anaerobic sprint test was used as it is a reliable and simple field test to measure 83 repeated sprint ability (Zacharogiannis, Paradisis, & Tziortzis, 2004). Prior to each repeated 84 85 anaerobic sprint test, an identical 10-minute moderate intensity warm up consisting of 86 jogging and dynamic stretches was performed. repeated anaerobic sprint tests were then carried out following the warm up alone (control) and after the warm up with additional 87 88 heavy resistance exercise. The order that the tests were completed was counterbalanced for each participant. Each test was carried out at the same time on two subsequent Wednesdays 89 90 to ensure adequate recovery from a competitive fixture on the previous Saturday. This also maintains test validity and reliability with regards to any influence of circadian rhythms and 91 92 diurnal variation (Drust, Waterhouse, Atkinson, Edwards, & Reilly, 2005). Prior to each 93 repeated anaerobic sprint test, participants were told not to partake in any exhaustive exercise in the preceding 24 hours of testing. They were also told to eat and drink the same during the 94 24 hours before each test. This included the avoidance of food and caffeine 2 hours prior to 95 96 the testing procedure. This was verbally confirmed by each participant.

The repeated anaerobic sprint test was conducted on an outdoor 3rd generation Astroturf 98 surface to eliminate possible variance in underfoot conditions. The procedure for the repeated 99 anaerobic sprint test without heavy resistance exercise followed those reported in the 100 literature (Zacharogiannis et al., 2004). Each participant was required to perform a maximal 101 linear sprint for 35 meters. Ten seconds recovery time was then observed before the next 35 102 metre sprint began in the opposite direction; six sprints were conducted in total. Participants 103 104 were given loud vocal encouragement throughout the repeated anaerobic sprint test and were instructed to perform each sprint in an all-out manner without any consideration towards 105 106 conservation of energy and to avoid pacing strategies. To measure the times for each sprint, two electronic single beam timing gates (Brower Timing, Utah, USA) were used. The first 107 gate was positioned on the start line and the second positioned on a line 35 metres away. 108 109 Participants started each sprint by placing their toes against the line as directed by Ellis et al. (2000) in an attempt to assure the same starting body position and location for each sprint. 110 Such consideration aimed to minimise the degree of momentum developed before the start of 111 the action which effects the reliability of the data obtained (Duthie et al., 2006). This position 112 was visually monitored by the investigators. 113

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For the repeated anaerobic sprint test with the heavy resistance exercise, 91% of each 115 participant's 1 RM was calculated for a back squat movement. The back squat was utilised as 116 117 it activates the quadriceps muscle group, which generates power and contributes to running speed (Doscher, 2009; Newman, Tarpenning, & Marino, 2004). 91% 1 repetition max was 118 used during the squat movement as it has been shown by Bevan et al. (2010) to be effective 119 120 in eliciting improved linear sprint performance. One repetition max values were determined during a pre-test executed 7 days prior to conducting any repeated anaerobic sprint test. To 121 maintain reliability and validity in the back squat protocol, a goniometer was used to 122

accurately measure a 90 degree knee flexion angle at the bottom of a practice squat exercise. 123 This was checked by the investigator and a wooden box was adjusted behind the participant 124 so that at 90 degree knee flexion their buttocks touched the box, letting them know that they 125 had completed the downward phase of the movement. Participants then extended their legs 126 until they were straight. The procedure for calculating each participant's 1 repetition max 127 started with the participant warming up with a light resistance exercise. Each participant 128 129 performed between 5-10 back squat repetitions with a self-selected load using a standard 20kg Olympic lifting bar and free weights. A 60 second rest period then commenced before 130 participants repeated 5 lifts with between 5-10% additional load added to the previous weight 131 of the bar. A further 2 minute rest period was then observed prior to adding an additional 5-132 10% to the bar and completing another 3 repetitions. A further 3 minute recovery period was 133 allowed and an additional 5-10% load was added to the bar. This process was repeated until 134 the participant failed to complete a 1 repetition max whilst maintaining proper technique 135 (Beachle & Earle, 2008). 136

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Prior to the heavy resistance exercise trial, 91% of each individual's 1 repetition max was lifted 3 times in the same manner as was described during the calculation of 1 repetition max. This was followed by a recovery period of 8 minutes before the repeated anaerobic sprint test protocol was performed. This was deemed an optimal recovery period length to help overcome the fatigue effects from the protocol whilst still maintaining the potential benefit that post-activation potentiation would offer (Bevan et al., 2010).

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All statistical analyses were completed using IBM SPSS Statistics 21 (SPSS Inc., Chicago,
IL). The difference in overall sprint time as well as the difference measured between
corresponding sprints within the repeated anaerobic sprint test with and without heavy

resistance exercise was analysed using paired t-tests. Pearson's correlations coefficients (r)148 indicated the level of agreement between participants' 1 RM and the difference in sprint time 149 with and without heavy resistance exercise for each individual sprint. For all statistical tests, 150 statistical significance was accepted at p < 0.05 and a 95% confidence interval was reported 151 for all raw data presented from the difference tests. Cohen's d effect size (d) was determined 152 for all paired t-tests performed and relative changes in performance are expressed as 95% 153 154 confidence interval (CI) for the effect size. Hopkins' (2002) definitions of Cohen's d effect sizes identified those that were trivial (<0.2), small (0.2 - 0.6), moderate (0.6 - 1.2) and large 155 156 (1.2 - 2).

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158 **3. Results**

Significant differences were demonstrated between corresponding sprints within the repeated 159 anaerobic sprint test. Sprints 1 (p = 0.05) and 2 (p = 0.02) were faster in heavy resistance 160 exercise condition (5.09 (\pm 0.16) vs. 5.11 (\pm 0.16) and 5.36 (\pm 0.24) vs. 5.45 (\pm 0.26) seconds 161 respectively) although no other paired differences were shown ($p \ge 0.21$). A statistically 162 significant effect for total time was also observed where a decrease in time was observed with 163 the heavy resistance exercise condition (p = 0.01; Table 1). Effect sizes for comparisons of 164 time with and without heavy resistance exercise during the individual sprint were trivial (d <165 0.2) for sprints 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6, as well as for the total time. The effect size for sprint 2 was 166 167 small (d = 0.36).

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169 The Pearson's correlation coefficients indicated small relationships between the 1 repetition 170 max and difference in sprint time for each of the 6 sprints (r = -0.16 to 0.24) but none were 171 statistically significant (p > 0.05; Figure 1).

173 **4. Discussion**

In the current study, trained adolescent participants performed heavy resistance exercise to investigate whether this intervention would reduce sprint times during a repeated anaerobic sprint test. A major finding of this study was that total time to complete the repeated anaerobic sprint test as well as sprint times within the repeated anaerobic sprint test were reduced with the heavy resistance exercise intervention. These observations are in line with previous study findings on single and multi-sprint performance (Okuno et al., 2013; Requena et al., 2011).

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The observation of reduced running time with heavy resistance exercise has been associated 182 with post-activation potentiation, a phenomenon described as leading to increased synaptic 183 excitation within the spinal cord, resulting in an improved capacity for force generation and 184 increased post-synaptic potential of the involved muscle groups (Lorenz, 2011; Rassier & 185 Herzog, 2002). These physiological enhancements lead to intensified type II motor unit 186 recruitment, increased actin-myosin cross bridge activity within muscle fibres and decreased 187 inhibition of the Golgi apparatus (Chiu et al., 2003; Hilficker et al., 2007; Sale, 2002; 188 Xenofondos et al., 2010) causing a more powerful contraction of the muscle and the observed 189 improvement in anaerobic sprint speed. The improved performance in the adolescent 190 191 population used in the present investigation is contrary to the findings reported in similar 192 aged populations (Arabatzi et al., 2013; Till & Cooke, 2009). This finding may relate to the repeated sprint task being more sensitive to the physiological changes that occur than events 193 such as squat and counter jump tasks. Alternatively, by the age of 20, up to 50% of certain 194 195 quadricep muscles have been converted into type II fibre type (Lexell et al., 1992) which exhibit greater post-activation potentiation (Hamada et al., 2000) and are more receptive to 196 heavy resistance exercise. Owing to the population being approximately 17 years of age and 197

the trained nature of the participants, sufficient development of these characteristics may have been accelerated resulting in the greater responsiveness to heavy resistance exercise being shown. The reporting of chronological age may not have been the best indicator of the maturation state of the participants. Instead, biological age may have provided a better characterization of the participants used in this study.

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204 Despite the benefit of overall sprint time being reduced following the heavy resistance exercise, it was only improvements in sprints 1 and 2 that contributed to this overall finding. 205 206 Participants seemed to experience an inability for sustained improvements for the remaining sprints which is contrary to the findings of Okuno et al. (2013) seen during repeated 30 m 207 sprints in trained adult handball players. It could be speculated that whilst appropriate for 208 209 adult participants, the length of the recovery time between conditioning exercise and the sprints may have been too long, resulting in a higher rate of decay in the post-activation 210 potentiation mechanism (Sale, 2002) and a less sustained improvement in sprint time for the 211 adolescent athletes used. Likewise, despite their trained status, the age of the participants may 212 mean that they still have insufficient number and conditioning of type II muscle fibres which 213 are more responsive to heavy resistance exercise (Ausubel, 2002; Hamada, Sale, 214 MacDougall, & Tarnopolsky, 2000; Howarth & Kravitz, 2008). Consequently, the type II 215 fibres that are available are more heavily loaded and thus are fatigued more quickly following 216 217 the initial sprints; they are then unable to sustain the improved sprint performance.

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Hopkins (2000) suggested that effect size of 0.2 multiplied by the between subject standard deviation represents the threshold for the smallest worthwhile change for substantial sprint performance modification. When performing short maximal sprints over 10 to 40 m, typical error in the measurement has been shown to be between 1 and 2.6% (Buchheit & Mendez-

Villanveva, 2013; Duthie et al., 2006; Moir, Button, Glaister, & Stone, 2004) representing a 223 good test, but which results in error that is much greater than the smallest worthwhile change 224 for sprinting (Duthie et al., 2006). Because of this discrepancy, when using a single beam 225 timing gate as utilised in the current investigation, there is only a marginal chance of reliably 226 detecting a change of sufficient magnitude to be worthwhile in practical terms (Duthie et al., 227 2006). Owing to this error, it is possible that larger, more meaningful effects are actually 228 229 experienced during repeated sprints following heavy resistance exercise. Use of a dual beam timing gate and strict starting procedures can lower this error substantially and increase the 230 231 possibility to detect these differences in a future investigation (Duthie et al., 2006).

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Application of the study results to real world scenarios may be problematic. The general 233 moderate warm-up procedure used in both the experimental and control conditions is similar 234 235 to that used in studies utilising the repeated anaerobic sprint test (Zagatto et al., 2009; Balciunas et al., 2006). However, the warm-up procedure may not have been as thorough as 236 that found in real life settings and thus may not be deemed optimal for the repeated anaerobic 237 sprint test. The addition of the heavy resistance exercise may therefore have enabled 238 improvement to be made yet had a more intense warm up been implemented there may not 239 have been the same trends observed due to less physiological capacity to benefit further 240 following the heavy resistance exercise. This speculation however needs consideration in 241 242 future research. Likewise the small changes in time following the heavy resistance exercise demonstrated by trivial and small effect sizes may also lead us to question the practical 243 implications of such findings. However, such margins may be the difference in achieving the 244 245 desired goal such as winning a race or getting to the ball before the opponent. Similarly, the larger changes experienced during the first and second sprints may act as a training stimulus 246 for adolescent athletes potentially benefiting those in future repeated sprint events. 247

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The magnitude of response to the heavy resistance exercise has also been shown to correlate 249 with the absolute load magnitude lifted by the participant, whereby those who lift greater 250 251 amounts tend to be more responsive to the intervention (Okuno et al., 2013). The statistical analysis revealed no significant correlations between difference in sprint time and 1 repetition 252 max for any of the six sprints. This is contrary to both the study hypothesis and the evidence 253 presented in the literature (Duthie, Young, & Aitken, 2002; Kilduff et al., 2008; Okuno et al., 254 2013; Young, Jenner, & Griffiths, 1998). This suggests that magnitude of load has a limited 255 256 role when attempting to elicit post-activation potentiation in trained adolescent athletes.

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258 **5.** Conclusions

Training for speed is an important consideration for many intermittent sports such as soccer, and data in the current investigation shows that overall repeated sprint speed in trained adolescent soccer players can be improved using heavy resistance exercise, which was the result of improved initial sprint speed. It is however, important to acknowledge, that the specific effect of using heavy resistance exercise in speed training is yet to be comprehensively studied. Similarly the level of change demonstrated in the current investigation may question the practical meaningfulness of the study findings.

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Having only observed benefit of heavy resistance exercise for the first and second sprints and that there appears no relationship between the difference in sprint time with 1 repetition max magnitude, developing sustained improvements from heavy resistance exercise may relate to the biological age, muscle fibre type and overall muscle condition. This may influence the capacity to derive prolonged benefits for the heavy resistance exercise intervention. This lack

of significant differences may also relate to issues in data reliability when using a singlebeam time gate and thus requires further investigation.

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