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1 **TITLE PAGE**

2

3 **Title of the article:**

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6

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9

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28 **Preferred running head:**

29 Resisted sprint training in youth soccer

30 **ABSTRACT**

31 **Purpose:** This study compared the effects of heavy resisted
32 sprint training (RST) versus unresisted sprint training (UST) on
33 sprint performance among adolescent soccer players. **Methods:**
34 Twenty-four male soccer players (age: 15.7 ± 0.5 years; body
35 height: 175.7 ± 9.4 cm; body mass: 62.5 ± 9.2 kg) were randomly
36 assigned to the RST group ($n = 8$), the UST group ($n = 10$), or
37 the control (CON) group ($n = 6$). The UST group performed $8 \times$
38 20 m unresisted sprints twice weekly for four weeks whereas the
39 RST group performed 5×20 m heavy resisted sprints with a
40 resistance set to maximize horizontal power output. The CON
41 group performed only ordinary soccer training and match play.
42 Magnitude-based decision and linear regression were used to
43 analyse the data. **Results:** The RST group improved sprint
44 performances with moderate to large effect sizes (0.76–1.41)
45 across all distances, both within and between groups (>92%
46 beneficial effect likelihood). Conversely, there were no clear
47 improvements in the UST and CON groups. RST evoked the
48 largest improvements over short distances (6%–8%) and was
49 strongly associated with increased maximum horizontal force
50 capacities ($r = 0.9$). Players with a pre-intervention deficit in
51 force capacity appeared to benefit the most from RST.
52 **Conclusions:** Four weeks of heavy RST led to superior
53 improvements in short-sprint performance compared with UST
54 among adolescent soccer players. Heavy RST, using a load
55 individually selected to maximize horizontal power, is therefore
56 highly recommended as a method to improve sprint acceleration
57 in youth athletes.

58

59 **Keywords:** team sport, resistance training, force–velocity
60 profiling, youth athletes, $50\%v_{dec}$

61

62 INTRODUCTION

63 The ability to accelerate over short distances is essential in field-
64 based team sports such as soccer.^{1, 2} Since 90% of sprints
65 performed during a soccer match are shorter than 20 m, maximal
66 sprinting speed is likely less important than acceleration.³ Short-
67 sprint performance mirrors actual game situations and is an
68 important determinant of match-winning actions. For example,
69 straight-line sprinting is the most frequent action during goal
70 situations in professional soccer.^{4, 5} Top-level players perform
71 numerous intense actions every match and are significantly
72 faster in the first 10–15 m than are lower-level players.⁶⁻⁸ Thus,
73 the fastest players will be approximately 1 m ahead of slower
74 players after only 10 m of sprinting, which could be a decisive
75 advantage in a match.⁸

76

77 Short-sprint performance is primarily determined by two
78 abilities: the generation of large ground reaction forces, and the
79 technical ability to apply a proportion in the direction of the
80 sprint (i.e., horizontally).^{9, 10} Researchers have investigated
81 various means of training these physical and technical qualities
82 with the aim of targeting the development of sprinting
83 performance parameters. Notably, resisted sprint training (RST)
84 is a popular method of providing resistance in a specific
85 “horizontal” manner. In this method, where the resistance
86 usually is created by towing a sled, the user can target the
87 development of various sprint phases by increasing or decreasing
88 the load.¹¹ This loading represents a continuum, with heavy
89 loads roughly corresponding to horizontal force at low speeds,
90 early sprint phases, and short distances, and lighter loads
91 corresponding to horizontal force at high speeds, late
92 acceleration (or perhaps maximum velocity), and long
93 distances.¹²

94

95 RST with light loads [$\sim 10\%$ body mass (BM) or $\sim 10\%$ reduction
96 of maximal speed (v_{dec})] has traditionally been studied and
97 recommended for improving sprint acceleration.^{13, 14} However,
98 RST using low resistance has been criticized because it only
99 targets one part of the loading continuum (high speed and late
100 acceleration) and often results in similar performance outcomes
101 as non-resisted sprinting, particularly in well-trained
102 individuals.¹⁵ This likely occurs because RST with light loads
103 does not acutely deviate much from unresisted sprinting and
104 therefore results in a training outcome that is not substantially

105 different. Accordingly, recent studies show that heavier loads
106 (>30% BM and >30% v_{dec}) during RST are necessary to improve
107 short-distance sprint performance among team sport athletes.¹⁶⁻
108 ¹⁸

109

110 RST based on %BM reduces the maximal velocity to different
111 degrees depending on the athlete's level of development, and the
112 actual resistance determined via friction.¹⁹ The amount of
113 velocity reduction, and not the absolute load, determines the
114 training-induced stress and the type and magnitude of the
115 adaptations.^{20, 21} Individual-force velocity (F-v) profiling and
116 load-velocity (L-v) profiling can be used to identify whether an
117 athlete is proficient or deficient and to prescribe the suitable load
118 for a specific velocity reduction.^{12, 22} Values extracted from the
119 latter profile characterize the neuromuscular limits of the system
120 for force production. Notably, the maximal horizontal force (F_0),
121 maximal running velocity (v_0), and maximal horizontal power
122 (P_{max}). Additionally, individual profiling also enable analysis of
123 the ratio of force produced in the horizontal direction (RF%) and
124 a theoretical maximal value of RF% (RF_{max}), which is a measure
125 of the maximal mechanical effectiveness of force application in
126 the forward direction at the sprint start.²³ Currently, individual
127 F-v and L-v profiling can be more easily achieved using a robotic
128 system because the actual resistance is programmable and
129 standardized across environments.²⁴

130

131 Recent studies examining RST in elite athletes show a
132 relationship between pre-training F-v profiles and how these
133 profiles are affected by training.^{25, 26} For example, athletes with
134 low initial F_0 values show larger improvements in F_0 and short
135 sprint performance compared with F_0 -proficient athletes.²⁶ Thus,
136 individualized resistance based on F-v profiling is recommended
137 in elite athletes.²⁷ However, F-v profiling is time-consuming,
138 particularly in a team-sport setting where many athletes must be
139 tested and trained in quick succession. Moreover, adolescent
140 athletes often have imbalanced F-v profiles, displaying a force
141 deficiency.^{20, 21} Therefore, a more generalized method that
142 specifically targets this deficiency, such as power optimized
143 RST, may be helpful for youth athletes. This method
144 characterizes the "optimal load" (L_{opt}) as that which allows P_{max}
145 to be reached during the maximum resisted-velocity plateau (i.e.,
146 50% v_{dec}) and thus maintained for longer than a single instant
147 during training.^{11, 19, 24} Consequently, L_{opt} represents the loading

148 at which the athletes can maximize the time spent in conditions
149 close to maximum horizontal power.

150

151 Although a growing number of studies show positive effects of
152 RST at or close to L_{opt} on short-sprint performance,^{18, 20, 21, 24, 26,}
153 ²⁸ limited research among youth athletes is available.^{20, 21}
154 Furthermore, there are few short duration studies (<8 weeks),
155 with most examining the effects of RST during 8–12 week
156 periods. The multi-factorial physical, tactical and technical
157 demands of team sports together with the tight competitive
158 schedule reduces the applicability of such long training periods.
159 Therefore, the present study aimed to compare the effects of a
160 four-week heavy RST program, using a robotic resistance
161 system applying a power optimized loading, with an unresisted
162 sprint training (UST) program on sprint performance among
163 adolescent soccer players. We hypothesized that RST would lead
164 to the largest improvement in sprint performance and that
165 changes in F_0 would be associated with pre-training F_0 values
166 and changes in sprint performance.

167

168 **METHODS**

169 *Subjects*

170 Twenty-seven adolescent male soccer players volunteered to
171 participate in this study, with a mean (\pm standard deviation (SD))
172 age of 15.7 ± 0.5 years, a mean height of 175.7 ± 9.4 cm, and a
173 mean weight of 62.5 ± 9.2 kg. All participants competed at the
174 highest national level (per their age group) in Sweden. They
175 were familiar with strength training, but not on a regular basis,
176 and they had no previous RST experience (except for the three
177 familiarization sessions). The study inclusion criteria were as
178 follows: the absence of lower limb injury and the ability to
179 perform maximal sprints and jumps. After baseline testing, the
180 participants were assigned to either the RST group ($n = 9$), the
181 UST group ($n = 10$), or the control (CON) group ($n = 8$). There
182 were no statistically significant differences in age or
183 anthropometrics between the groups at baseline or after the
184 training intervention. All three groups followed the same soccer
185 training routine. At the end of the intervention, three participants
186 (two from the CON group and one from the RST group) could
187 not undergo post-testing because of personal reasons. Hence, the
188 final analysis ultimately included test data from 24 participants.
189 All subjects were informed about the risks and benefits of the
190 study via an institutionally approved document, and they or their

191 guardians signed written consent forms. The Stockholm
192 Regional Board of Ethics approved this study (ref. number DNR
193 2018/746-31/1).

194

195 *Design*

196 A four-week randomized controlled trial was conducted to
197 compare the effects of two different sprint training programs
198 among adolescent soccer players: heavy RST vs. UST. The
199 effects of these two training programs were evaluated against the
200 CON group. To ensure as much similarity between experimental
201 groups as possible, both groups were matched based on the
202 participants' F-v profiles obtained from baseline testing.
203 Specifically, participants with similar results were paired,
204 followed by a random division into the RST or UST group. In
205 addition to the four weeks of training, the participants underwent
206 full familiarization, baseline and post-testing. Both experimental
207 groups performed the training twice a week, with each session
208 consisting of five heavy resisted sprints for the RST group and
209 eight unresisted sprints for the UST group. The accumulated
210 duration of the sprints was balanced between the groups. The
211 CON group performed standard soccer training without any
212 additional activities. The sample size was based on previous
213 studies in this field.^{18, 19} The primary outcome variables were 5,
214 10, 20, and 30 m sprint performances, and the secondary
215 outcomes were counter movement jump (CMJ), standing long
216 jump (SLJ), F_0 , P_{max} , RF_{max} , and maximal velocity during 30 m
217 sprinting (v_{max}). The variables were measured at baseline and
218 after the training intervention in a fully rested state. We used
219 magnitude-based decision (MBD) with compatibility intervals
220 (CIs) and probabilities based on the t-distribution to provide
221 estimates of the uncertainty in the mean effect size within and
222 between groups.²⁹ Magnitude-based inference has been
223 criticized because of its increased risk of type I errors.³⁰
224 However, this criticism has been addressed ³¹, and given the
225 small sample size, the study was likely underpowered for null
226 hypothesis significance testing.³⁰

227

228 *Equipment*

229 A computerized sprint resistance system (1080 Motion AB,
230 Lidingö, Sweden) was used for training, testing, and data
231 collection. The unit provided isotonic horizontal resistance in
232 increment loads of 1 kg to target the appropriate resistance.
233 Instantaneous velocity time data was then collected from the

234 manufacturer software, at a rate of 333 Hz. The manufacturer has
235 previously reported the repeatability ($\pm 0.7\%$) and accuracy of
236 velocity ($\pm 0.5\%$) and force ($\pm 4.8\text{N}$) for the 1080 Sprint system
237 (www.1080motion.com/science). Baseline and post-training
238 measurements were performed with the same protocol and
239 equipment. Vertical jump trials were performed using OptoJump
240 hardware and software (MicroGate, Bolzano, Italy).

241

242 *General testing procedures*

243 Testing was completed during the participants' late pre-season
244 and early in-season period. The same researchers who
245 supervised all training performed the pre- and post-testing. To
246 minimize possible learning effects, the participants underwent
247 full familiarization (i.e., three familiarization sessions >48 h
248 prior to baseline testing). Testing was performed on two separate
249 days. Day 1 began with two unloaded (1 kg resistance, as the
250 practical minimum provided by the machine) maximal effort 30
251 m sprints (T30 m) to measure 5, 10, 20, and 30 m split times and
252 to create F-v profiles. The raw velocity-time data and Samozino's
253 inverse dynamics method was used to compile the F-v
254 relationships.²³ Next, four progressively loaded 20 m sprints
255 were performed to compute the participants' L-v profile. The F-
256 v and L-v profiles were used to calculate and measure the
257 individual training load, F_0 , P_{\max} , RF_{\max} , and v_{\max} . Day 2 began
258 with three CMJs followed by three SLJs. Prior to any testing, the
259 participants performed a standardized 20 min warm-up (SWU)
260 consisting of jogging, dynamic stretching, technical drills, and
261 four submaximal 30 m stride outs. All sprint tests were
262 conducted outdoors on the same soccer pitch with an artificial
263 "astro" turf surface; the jumps were performed on a hard, flat
264 asphalt surface. All groups performed the tests on the same days
265 during similar weather conditions, and the participants wore the
266 same clothes and footwear during the pre- and post-testing.

267

268 *Sprint testing and F-v and L-v profiling*

269 Post-SWU, the participants rested for 5 min before being
270 attached to the 1080 Sprint device via a hip belt. The participants
271 positioned themselves in a standing split stance at the starting
272 line, after which they initiated the first T30 m. They were
273 instructed to "lean" into their first step (removing the slack from
274 the line), push off with their front leg, and start sprinting when
275 they felt like they were about to fall. The selected starting leg
276 remained constant throughout all training and testing sessions.

277 Although sprint data were gathered over a distance of 30 m, an
278 actual sprinting distance of 35 m was utilized to ensure that the
279 participants did not slow down before reaching 30 m. The second
280 T30 m was performed after a 3 min rest. The faster of the two
281 trials was used to compute split times and F-v profiles.

282

283 After the T30 m testing, individual horizontal L-v profiles were
284 assessed by utilizing a testing battery of resisted sprints based on
285 the procedures outlined by Cross et al.^{16, 19, 24} The testing battery
286 consisted of four 20 m sprints performed with increasing loads.
287 The loads were adjusted to approximately equal weighted sleds
288 loaded with 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% of the participants' BM.
289 This loading span was selected to facilitate proper plotting of the
290 participants' L-v profiles and to determine each athlete's L_{opt} .
291 Specifically, L_{opt} represents the load that allows maximum
292 power (i.e., aligned with the apex of their individual horizontal
293 power-velocity relationship) to be developed at the maximum
294 resisted-velocity plateau, and subsequently a larger proportion of
295 training to be performed around P_{max} by attaining and
296 maintaining maximum resisted velocity.¹⁹ Table 1 displays an
297 overview of the sprint testing procedure.

298

299 **Table 1 “Sprint testing procedure” about here.**

300

301 *Vertical and horizontal jump testing*

302 Three CMJs, interspersed by 1 min of rest, were performed 5 min
303 after a SWU, with the highest jump recorded as the test result.
304 The participants were instructed to place their hands slightly
305 above their hips and keep them there throughout the entire jump.
306 Moreover, they were instructed to go “fast down fast up”, land
307 on their toes, and not bend their knees during the flight phase or
308 landing.

309

310 The SLJ was performed 2 min after the CMJ testing using an
311 extended measuring tape placed on the ground that marked
312 distances of 1, 2, and 3 m with red tape for the participants to
313 see. Three attempts were allowed with 1 min of rest between
314 each jump. The participants were instructed to stand erect with
315 their feet parallel behind the given zero line, to use their arms as
316 a pendulum, and to jump as far as possible, landing on both feet.
317 The jump was measured as the distance from the starting point

318 to the heel of the foot that was furthest back, with the furthest
319 jump recorded as the test result.

320

321 *Training regimen*

322 Training was performed prior to the regular soccer training and
323 consisted of linear maximal effort sprints. The RST group
324 performed a SWU prior to 5×20 m maximal effort resisted
325 sprints. The 1080 Sprint system was used during the resisted
326 sprints, with the load optimized such that the participant's
327 maximal velocity was reduced by half ($50\%V_{dec}$). The training
328 was performed in this manner for every session apart from the
329 first training session during which the participants only
330 performed three resisted sprints. The UST group performed a
331 SWU prior to 8×20 m maximal effort unresisted sprints. Each
332 sprint was interspersed by a 3 min rest, and the training was
333 conducted twice a week for four weeks on nonconsecutive days.
334 The remaining team-specific training included four soccer
335 sessions/week ranging from 45 to 90 min. After the fifth
336 intervention session, the participants' regular game season
337 began, and one competitive soccer match/week was added to the
338 weekly load. The CON group performed only regular soccer-
339 specific team training and matches. The participants of all three
340 groups were instructed not to expose themselves to any other
341 training stimuli during the intervention. Table 2 provides further
342 details on the intervention design.

343

344 **Table 2 “Training intervention design” about here.**

345

346 *Statistical analysis*

347 All data were imported and processed in Microsoft Excel 2016
348 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA, USA). Linear
349 regression models were analyzed in IBM SPSS statistics version
350 26.0.01, and Figures 2 and 3 were processed in Graph Pad Prism
351 8.3.0. Data in the text and figures are presented as the mean \pm
352 SD or \pm 90% compatibility intervals, CIs. The practical
353 relevance of the outcome variables was assessed using
354 magnitude-based decisions.²⁹ The effects of the training (RST,
355 UST, or CON) differences over time (pre to post) and the
356 differences between groups were calculated. The smallest
357 worthwhile change (SWC) was set to $0.2 \times SD$. Since the sample
358 sizes were small ($n = 8, 10, \text{ or } 6$), we used a t-distribution to
359 calculate the 90% CIs and the chances of beneficial, harmful, or

360 trivial changes. Qualitative statements were assessed as follows:
361 25% to 75%, possibly; 75%–95%, likely; 95%–99.5%, very
362 likely; >99.5%, most likely. If the chances of having
363 beneficial/higher or harmful/lower performances were both
364 >5%, the true difference was considered unclear. Effect sizes
365 were qualitatively described as trivial, small, moderate, large,
366 very large, and extremely large for standardized thresholds of
367 <0.2, ≥0.2, ≥0.6, ≥1.2, ≥2, and ≥4 and for regression coefficients
368 of <0.1, ≥0.1, ≥0.3, ≥0.5, ≥0.7, and ≥0.9, respectively.²⁹ To
369 provide information about individual responses, we presented
370 the number of individuals who displayed changes that were
371 better, worse, or within the SWC.

372 To test our hypothesis that pre-training F_0 values were associated
373 with improvements in F_0 , we performed a linear regression with
374 group and initial F_0 values as independent variables and changes
375 in F_0 as the dependent variables. The same method was used to
376 test whether the association between changes in F_0 (independent)
377 were associated with changes in 20 m sprint performance
378 (dependent) and training group (independent). Changes in 20 m
379 sprint time (T_{20}) was chosen as the primary outcome variable for
380 sprint performance since 20 m sprinting was the basis of the
381 training interventions.

382

383 RESULTS

384 The RST group likely improved sprinting performance across all
385 time points and comparisons. The improvement increased
386 progressively with decreasing distance from ~4% at 30 m to ~8%
387 at 5 m. Conversely, there were no clear changes in sprinting
388 performance for the UST or CON groups at any time point or for
389 any comparison (Table 3). Thus, there was a likely to very likely
390 beneficial effect for the RST group compared with the UST and
391 CON groups for all sprinting distances. No clear between-group
392 differences were observed when comparing the UST and CON
393 groups (Figure 1).

394

395 **Table 3 about here**

396 **Figure 1 about here**

397

398 CMJ height possibly increased for the UST group (~6%) but not
399 for the other two groups. SLJ length likely increased for both the
400 RST and UST groups (~6%–7%) but not for the CON group

401 (Table 4). Thus, there was a very likely, to most likely, better
402 effect in jumping performance for the two intervention groups
403 compared with the CON group (Figure 2).

404

405 The performance-related variables F_0 , P_{\max} , and RF_{\max} likely
406 improved in the RST group (~9%–18%). Conversely, there were
407 no improvements in the UST group, but a possible decrease for
408 F_0 (~4%) (Table 4). This resulted in a likely better effect for the
409 RST group compared with the other two groups for F_0 , P_{\max} , and
410 RF_{\max} (Figure 2). v_{\max} was unaffected in the RST and UST
411 groups whereas the CON group displayed a very likely decrease
412 (~3%) (Table 4).

413

414 **Table 4 about here**

415 **Figure 2 about here**

416

417 Change in F_0 was a very large predictor for changes in 20 m
418 sprinting time ($P < 0.001$, $r = -0.84$), and the pre-intervention F_0
419 was a large predictor for improvements in F_0 ($P < 0.001$, $r =$
420 -0.70) (Table 5). The intervention group was a significant
421 predictor for changes in F_0 ($P < 0.006$, $r = -0.48$) but not for
422 changes in sprint performance ($P < 0.079$, $r = 0.18$). The overall
423 models explained 80% of the improvement in sprint performance
424 and 48% of the change in F_0 .

425

426 **Table 5 about here**

427

428 **DISCUSSION**

429 This is the first study to compare the effects of a short, power
430 optimized, heavy RST program with a UST program among
431 youth athletes. Our primary finding was that four weeks of heavy
432 RST improved sprint performance among late pubertal
433 adolescent soccer players, while the UST group displayed no
434 improvement. The improved sprint performance was primarily
435 due to increases in maximal horizontal force production and
436 improvements in early sprint acceleration, which was in line with
437 our hypothesis. The CON group, which only received regular
438 soccer training, showed no performance improvements in any of
439 the measured outcome variables.

440

441 The RST group displayed similar or greater improvement in
442 sprint performance than that reported in previous studies^{17, 18, 24,}
443 ³² despite a shorter training period (4 vs. 8–12 weeks), supporting
444 the effectiveness of the training protocol. This can be explained
445 by several factors. First, we used a resistance that reduces
446 velocity by 50% to maximally stimulate the ability to produce
447 horizontal power. Additionally, the resistance was applied by a
448 robotic system, via a hip harness, which is ideal for providing
449 the right amount of horizontal resistance while maintaining an
450 optimal sprinting position. Together, this may be a highly
451 efficient way for stimulating power adaptations. Secondly, the
452 participants in the present study were younger than those in most
453 previous studies. Adolescent athletes may be more sensitive to
454 training-induced adaptations that improve sprint performance.³³
455 In line with this, the participants had relatively low starting
456 values of F_0 , which have been shown to correlate with
457 improvements in horizontal force production and sprint
458 performance.²⁶ Furthermore, the individual changes in F_0 ,
459 together with the assigned training group, explained 80% of the
460 improvement in 20 m sprint performance. Therefore, the
461 comparatively large effect of this short training intervention is
462 likely a consequence of a good match between an effective
463 training method and population.

464

465 The short training intervention utilized in the present study was
466 primarily chosen to mimic real-world team-sport periodization.
467 Short periods of specific training, called block mesocycles, have
468 been frequently used among team-sport athletes, with studies
469 recommending that these periods last between two and four
470 weeks.³⁴ The present intervention spanned both the pre- and
471 competitive seasons (two weeks in each); therefore, our results
472 indicate that heavy RST is a suitable training form during this
473 important transition period, particularly because the CON group
474 experienced a performance decrease in some of the measured
475 variables (P_{\max} and v_{\max}). This decrease may have occurred
476 because the CON group was less prepared for intense match play
477 and became more fatigued compared with the other two groups.
478 Therefore, the CON group might not have been fully recovered
479 when performing the post-tests. Multiple post-intervention
480 assessment points would have enabled these factors to be more
481 clearly elucidated,²⁸ but the competitive schedules of the athletes
482 did not permit such a design.

483

484 Previous studies have demonstrated the importance of
485 developing maximal horizontal force production to improve the
486 early acceleration phase of sprinting.^{35, 36} Since team-sport
487 athletes primarily perform short sprints, there is a compelling
488 argument to target the development of this ability during
489 training. Interestingly, the present study indicated that the
490 improvement in sprint performance in the RST group increased
491 gradually from the 30 m to the 5 m sprint ($T_{30} = 3.8\%$, $T_{20} =$
492 4.2% , $T_{10} = 5.6\%$, $T_5 = 7.9\%$). This finding, combined with the
493 large increases in F_0 , P_{\max} , and RF_{\max} , but not in v_{\max} , confirms
494 that RST mainly improved sprint acceleration, which agrees with
495 results from both adult and adolescent populations.^{17, 18, 20, 21, 26,}
496 ^{32, 35} The fact that these changes were observed after only four
497 weeks of training indicates that the changes were primarily
498 driven by neural and technical improvements. This in
499 combination with our finding that horizontal jump length, but
500 not vertical jump height, increased, demonstrates that the
501 athletes appear to have disproportionately developed technical
502 capacities, rather than gross physical ones.

503

504 Importantly, we did not detect a decrease in v_{\max} in the RST
505 group. This agrees with recent findings showing a decrease in
506 v_{\max} when applying very heavy loads ($75\%v_{\text{dec}}$) but not for loads
507 close to L_{opt} ($50\%v_{\text{dec}}$).²¹ A possible explanation is that, in
508 theory, RST at L_{opt} would improve both maximum velocity and
509 maximum force since it targets the development of the middle
510 portion of the F-v relationship. However, in light of this, and
511 recent studies, the most efficient training to improve maximal
512 velocity seems to be sprinting at velocities close to or above v_{\max}
513 (i.e., assisted sprint training).²⁵ Nevertheless, our results indicate
514 that power optimized RST does not longitudinally impede the
515 v_{\max} of young soccer players following a short intervention.

516

517 The present study has some limitations. First, we used MBD to
518 provide usable results from this otherwise small dataset.
519 Therefore, the results should be interpreted with the relatively
520 underpowered nature of this dataset in mind. Secondly, although
521 sprint performance increased by $\sim 4\%$ – 8% , which is an unusually
522 large increase for athletes, one should be careful when
523 translating this improvement directly to sport-specific
524 performance. The improved acceleration and horizontal forces
525 could be partly due to improved body orientation during early
526 sprinting phases.²⁶ Although this improves sprint acceleration, it
527 might not be practically relevant for a soccer player who requires

528 an upright posture throughout the game. Additionally, many
529 accelerations in soccer are performed from a flying start and not
530 from a dead start (e.g., from jogging to sprinting). Future studies
531 should therefore include sprint testing with a flying start and
532 examine the effect of training on the starting angle. Finally,
533 completely unloaded sprinting is not possible when using the
534 1080 system (see methods section for details). This might have
535 affected v_{\max} and the results should therefore be interpreted with
536 this in mind.

537

538 PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

- 539 • A loading prescription, applied to stimulate the
540 development of maximal horizontal power, appears to be
541 more beneficial to short-sprint performance than unresisted
542 sprinting. This method could be integrated into the training
543 of youth athletes to enhance sport-specific performance.
- 544 • L-v profiling and loading of the desired resistance is greatly
545 simplified by a robotic system. However, this can also be
546 done by more cost-efficient devices such as timing gates,
547 smart phone applications, and a weight adjustable sled.²³
- 548 • Only four weeks of power optimized RST, performed two
549 times per week, was sufficient to improve performance.
550 This greatly improves the applicability of the described
551 method; i.e., it can be used as a block mesocycle during the
552 late pre-season or in-season periods.

553

554 CONCLUSIONS

555 We showed that four weeks of power optimized RST was more
556 beneficial than UST at improving short-sprint performance in
557 adolescent soccer players. The improvement in sprint times
558 increased gradually with decreasing distance. Additionally,
559 maximal horizontal power, maximal horizontal force
560 application, and maximal effectiveness of force application
561 improved, indicating that the training primarily affected sprint
562 acceleration performance. Maximal velocity remained
563 unchanged. Finally, the effect was more pronounced in athletes
564 who were force deficit at baseline. Overall, these results show
565 that power optimized RST is a very efficient and easy method
566 for improving sprint performance in youth athletes.

567

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572

573 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

574 No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by
575 the authors.

576

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733 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

734 **Figure 1.** Pairwise comparison of the changes in sprint
735 performance between A. the RST and UST groups, B. the RST
736 and CON groups, and C. the UST and CON groups. T5–T30
737 denotes the standardized change in sprint performance at 5, 10,
738 20, and 30 m, respectively. Error bars represent the 90%
739 compatibility intervals of the mean change in performance. The
740 gray area marks the limits of a trivial change. Numbers separated
741 by a slash are the probability (in percentage) of an improvement
742 that is better for the left group/within the trivial range/better for
743 the right group. Abbreviations: RST, resisted sprint training
744 group; UST, unresisted sprint training group; CON, control
745 group only performing ordinary soccer training.

746

747 **Figure 2.** Pairwise comparison of the changes in secondary
748 outcome variables between A. the RST and UST groups, B. the
749 RST and CON groups, and C. the UST and CON groups. Error
750 bars represent the 90% compatibility intervals of the mean
751 change in performance. The gray area marks the limits of a trivial
752 change. Numbers separated by a slash are the probability (in
753 percentage) of an improvement that is better for the left
754 group/within the trivial range/better for the right group.
755 Abbreviations: RST, resisted sprint training group; UST,
756 unresisted sprint training group; CON, control group only
757 performing ordinary soccer training; RF_{\max} , maximum ratio of
758 force produced in the forward direction at sprint start; v_{\max} ,
759 maximal velocity during 30 m sprinting; P_{\max} , maximal
760 horizontal power; SLJ, standing long jump; CMJ, counter
761 movement jump; F_0 , theoretical maximal horizontal force.

762

763 **Table 1.** Sprint testing procedure

~20 min of SWU followed by 5 min of passive rest prior to sprint testing procedure

Sprint nr	Load	T30 m	F–v profiling	L–v profiling	Rest period
1	Unloaded	✓	✓	-	3 min
2	Unloaded	✓	✓	-	3 min
3	25% BM	-	-	✓	3 min
4	50% BM	-	-	✓	3 min
5	75% BM	-	-	✓	3 min
6	100% BM	-	-	✓	3 min

764 Abbreviations: SWU, standardized warm up; BM, body mass; F–v
 765 profiling, force–velocity profiling; L–v profiling, load–velocity
 766 profiling.

767

768 **Table 2.** Intervention design

RST				
Session	Reps × Distance	Sprint type, Load	Total sprint duration	Warm-up
1	3 × 20 m	Maximal effort, individual L_{opt}	20–21 s	SWU
2–9	5 × 20 m	Maximal effort, individual L_{opt}	32–35 s	SWU
UST				
Session	Reps × Distance	Sprint type, Load	Total sprint duration	Warm-up
1–9	8 × 20 m	Maximal effort, unloaded	32–35 s	SWU

769 Abbreviations: RST, resisted sprint training group; UST, unresisted
770 sprint training group; L_{opt} , optimal load for the subjects to work at their
771 P_{max} ; SWU, standardized warm-up.

772

773 **Table 3.** Descriptive statistics (mean (SD)) and changes (with 90% CI) in sprint performance in the RST, UST, and CON groups.

Group	Pre Mean (SD)	Post Mean (SD)	% Change (90% CI)	ES (90% CI)	Chances (B/T/H)	Ind. Resp. (B/T/H)	Outcomes
<i>T30 (s)</i>							
RST	5.34 (0.24)	5.15 (0.20)	-3.67 (-6.43 to -0.92)	-0.89 (-1.56 to -0.22)	95/4/1	6/1/1	Very likely beneficial
UST	5.42 (0.47)	5.45 (0.38)	0.54 (-3.98 to 5.06)	0.07 (-0.51 to +0.65)	21/45/35	3/4/3	Unclear
CON	5.39 (0.10)	5.48 (0.20)	1.70 (-0.56 to 3.97)	0.62 (-0.20 to 1.44)	5/13/82	1/1/4	Unclear
<i>T20 (s)</i>							
RST	3.96 (0.22)	3.79 (0.17)	-4.20 (-7.46 to -0.94)	-0.86 (-1.53 to -0.19)	95/4/1	6/1/1	Likely beneficial
UST	4.0 (0.36)	4.06 (0.28)	1.52 (-3.15 to 6.19)	0.19 (-0.39 to 0.77)	12/39/49	4/1/5	Unclear
CON	4.06 (0.1)	4.11 (0.18)	1.27 (-1.60 to 4.14)	0.36 (-0.46 to 1.19)	11/24/65	1/3/2	Unclear
<i>T10 (s)</i>							
RST	2.50 (0.2)	2.36 (0.15)	-5.69 (-10.41 to -0.97)	-0.81 (-1.48 to -0.14)	94/5/1	6/1/1	Likely beneficial
UST	2.55 (0.30)	2.61 (0.21)	2.23 (-3.52 to 7.99)	0.23 (-0.35 to 0.80)	11/36/53	3/2/5	Unclear
CON	2.65 (0.11)	2.68 (0.17)	1.01 (-3.30 to 5.31)	0.19 (-0.63 to 1.02)	19/32/49	2/2/2	Unclear
<i>T5 (s)</i>							
RST	1.67 (0.20)	1.54 (0.15)	-7.87 (-14.85 to -0.89)	-0.76 (-1.43 to -0.09)	92/6/2	7/0/1	Likely beneficial
UST	1.71 (0.26)	1.77 (0.18)	3.45 (-3.93 to 10.82)	0.27 (-0.31 to 0.85)	9/33/59	3/3/4	Unclear
CON	1.84 (0.11)	1.84 (0.16)	0.45 (-5.49 to 6.40)	0.06 (-0.76 to 0.89)	27/35/38	2/2/2	Unclear

774 Abbreviations: RST, resisted sprint training group; UST, unresisted sprint training group; CON, control group only performing ordinary soccer training; B,
775 beneficial; T, trivial; H, harmful; CI, compatibility interval; T30-T5, time at 30-5 m during sprint testing.

776

777 **Table 4.** Descriptive statistics (mean (SD)) and changes (with 90% CI) in physical performance in the RST, UST, and CON groups.

Group	Pre Mean (SD)	Post Mean (SD)	% Change (90% CI)	ES (90% CI)	Chances (B/T/H)	Ind. Resp. (B/T/H)	Outcomes
<i>CMJ (cm)</i>							
RST	31.1 (3.9)	32.6 (4.9)	4.66 (-4.73 to 14.05)	0.33 (-0.34 to 1.00)	64/27/9	3/5/0	Unclear
UST	29.2 (4.8)	31.01 (4.9)	6.34 (-3.33 to 16.02)	0.38 (-0.20 to 0.96)	71/24/5	8/1/1	Possibly beneficial
CON	32.0 (4.5)	31.35 (3.6)	-1.98 (-12.48 to 8.52)	-0.16 (-0.98 to 0.67)	21/33/46	1/4/1	Unclear
<i>SLJ (cm)</i>							
RST	211.3 (17.9)	226.4 (20.0)	7.16 (4.16 to 13.16)	0.80 (0.01 to 1.47)	93/5/1	7/1/0	Likely beneficial
UST	206.9 (14.2)	219.10 (17.7)	5.90 (1.43 to 10.37)	0.76 (0.01 to 1.34)	95/5/1	8/2/0	Likely beneficial
CON	226.3 (11.5)	224.0 (13.8)	-0.99 (-5.59 to 3.60)	-0.18 (-1.00 to 0.64)	20/32/48	0/4/2	Unclear
<i>P_{max} (W/kg)</i>							
RST	11.7 (2.4)	13.4 (2.5)	14.38 (0.19 to 28.56)	0.68 (0.01 to 1.35)	89/9/2	6/1/1	Likely beneficial
UST	11.6 (4.0)	10.84 (2.1)	-8.62 (-23.66 to 6.42)	-0.33 (-0.91 to 0.17)	6/28/66	3/3/4	Unclear
CON	10.8 (0.5)	10.29 (0.8)	-4.34 (-9.08 to -0.40)	-0.75 (-1.58 to -0.07)	3/8/88	1/0/5	Likely harmful
<i>RF_{max}(%)</i>							
RST	36.8 (5.1)	40 (3.8)	8.84 (0.78 to 16.90)	0.74 (0.07 to 1.40)	91/7/2	7/0/1	Likely beneficial
UST	35.6 (6.7)	34.2 (4.2)	-3.93 (-12.87 to 5.00)	-0.26 (-0.83 to 0.32)	9/34/57	3/3/4	Unclear
CON	32.67 (2.58)	32.50 (3.6)	-0.51 (-8.32 to 7.30)	-0.26 (-1.08 to 0.56)	28/35/37	3/1/2	Unclear
<i>v_{max}(m/s)</i>							
RST	7.54 (0.42)	7.56 (0.51)	0.23 (-3.89 to 4.35)	0.04 (-0.63 to 0.71)	33/41/26	4/1/3	Unclear
UST	7.62 (0.38)	7.70 (0.61)	1.05 (-2.72 to 4.82)	0.16 (-0.42 to 0.74)	45/40/14	6/0/4	Unclear
CON	8.15 (0.24)	7.91 (0.18)	-2.99 (-4.68 to -1.29)	-1.45 (-2.27 to -0.63)	1/1/99	0/1/5	Very likely harmful
<i>F₀(N/kg)</i>							
RST	5.50 (1.66)	6.50 (1.70)	18.17 (0.65 to 35.68)	0.70 (0.03 to 1.37)	90/8/2	7/0/1	Likely beneficial
UST	5.33 (2.17)	4.66 (1.04)	-12.46 (-30.93 to 6.00)	-0.39 (-0.97 to 0.19)	5/23/72	3/3/4	Possibly harmful
CON	4.13 (0.59)	4.18 (0.80)	1.33 (-8.68 to 11.34)	0.11 (-0.71 to 0.93)	42/34/24	4/0/2	Unclear

778 Abbreviations: RST, resisted sprint training group; UST, unresisted sprint training group; CON, control group only performing ordinary soccer training; B,
779 beneficial; T, trivial; H, harmful; CI, compatibility interval; CMJ, countermovement jump; SLJ, standing long jump; P_{max}, peak power; RF_{max}, maximal
780 effectiveness of total force produced in the forward direction at sprint start; v_{max}, maximal velocity; F₀, theoretical maximal horizontal force.

782 **Table 5.** Results from linear regression models with two predictors, n = 24.

Dependent variable = changes in 20 m sprint performance				
Predictors	r	r²	Adjusted r²	P-value
Training group	0.180	0.032	-	0.079
Changes in F ₀	-0.836	0.699	-	<0.001
Overall model	0.903	0.815	0.798	<0.001
Dependent variable = changes in F₀				
Predictors	r	r²	Adjusted r²	P-value
Training group	-0.478	0.228	-	0.006
Initial F ₀	-0.698	0.487	-	<0.001
Overall model	0.722	0.522	0.476	<0.001

783 Abbreviations: r, correlation coefficient; F₀; theoretical maximal horizontal force.