

Comparison of flywheel versus traditional resistance training in elite academy male Rugby union players

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Published in:
Research in Sports Medicine

Publication date:
2023

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The final published version is available direct from the publisher website at:
[10.1080/15438627.2021.1954518](https://doi.org/10.1080/15438627.2021.1954518)

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Citation for published version (APA):
Murton, J., Eager, R., & Drury, B. (2023). Comparison of flywheel versus traditional resistance training in elite academy male Rugby union players. *Research in Sports Medicine*, 31(3), 214-227.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15438627.2021.1954518>

30 Abstract

31 This study investigated the effects of flywheel inertia training (FIT) vs traditional resistance training
32 (TRT) over four-weeks in academy male rugby union (RU) players. 16 elite male academy RU players
33 (age = 18.0 ± 1.0 years, body mass = 93.0 ± 13.1 kg) were allocated into either FIT (n = 8) or TRT (n = 8)
34 groups. Pre and post measures of countermovement jump (CMJ), squat jump (SJ) and drop jump (DJ)
35 were completed. Relative peak force (PF), relative peak power (PP) and jump height (H) were measured
36 for CMJ and SJ with reactive strength index measured for the DJ. Both groups showed improvements in
37 all measures, except for SJ peak power, following TRT. Within-group analysis showed significant
38 increases following TRT in CMJ-H (2.79cm, 90% CI = -0.70, 4.89cm; p = 0.002; ES = 0.51) and SJ-H
39 (3.68cm, 90% CI = 1.25, 6.11cm; p = 0.002; ES = 0.88) with a significant improvement following FIT for
40 CMJ-PP (1.96Wkg⁻¹, 90% CI = -0.89, 4.80 Wkg⁻¹; p = 0.022; ES = 0.55). No statistically significant
41 between-group differences (p > 0.05) were evident. These findings suggest both FIT and TRT are effective
42 for developing lower-body strength and power qualities in male academy RU players.

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55 **Introduction**

56 Rugby union (RU) is a contact sport that involves high-intensity bouts of exercise exertion, contact,
57 tackling, acceleration and scrummaging (Duthie, Pyne, Marsh, & Hooper, 2006). To meet the physical
58 demands of RU, high levels of strength and power are required (Argus, Gill & Keogh, 2012). The
59 development of these physical qualities is particularly important in academy RU players as these
60 distinguish between playing levels (Jones et al., 2018) and age groups (Darrall-Jones, Jones, & Till, 2015).
61 Therefore, to support the long-term athletic development (LTAD) of youth RU players the training of
62 strength and power is necessary (Durguerian, Piscione, Mathieu & Lacombe, 2019). Moreover, the specific
63 targeting of these qualities becomes more vital as the youth athlete reaches adolescence as both during
64 and after peak height velocity greater increases in strength and power occur (Moran et al., 2017). This can
65 have important consequences for youth RU players since strength and power can also predict future senior
66 level placings (Fontana, Colosio, Da Lozzo, & Pogliaghi, 2017). Consequently, the inclusion of training
67 activities that maximises the development of strength and power in youth RU players is advocated (Till et
68 al., 2020).

69

70 In youth athletes, the inclusion of resistance training (RT) has been shown to be highly effective for
71 improving strength and power (Behm et al., 2017) as well as reducing injury risk (Soomro et al., 2016).
72 Previous research investigating the effects of RT on strength and power in youth RU players has focused
73 upon traditional resistance-training (TRT) in which equalised loads are used for both the concentric and
74 eccentric phases of an exercise (Weakley et al., 2019; Smart & Gill, 2013; Harries, Lubans, Buxton,
75 MacDougall, & Callister, 2018). However, this may provide a sub-optimal stimulus since greater forces
76 are produced during eccentric muscle actions compared to concentric actions (Westing Seger, Karlson,
77 Ekblom, 1988). Subsequently, the use of eccentric resistance training (ERT), to overload the eccentric

78 phase of a given movement, is recommended (Wagle et al., 2017). This has importance for youth RU
79 players as eccentric strength in academy RU players is associated with integral match activities such as
80 sprinting (Bridgeman, McGuigan, Gill & Dulson, 2020). Also, the inclusion of lower-body eccentric
81 injury prevention exercises has been reported to reduce injury incidence and severity in RU players (Evans
82 and Williams, 2017). However, to the authors knowledge, previous research has not investigated the
83 efficacy of ERT within this population.

84

85 Flywheel inertia training (FIT) is an effective ERT modality due to the accentuated eccentric muscle action
86 that occurs from the energy stored in the flywheel system from the preceding concentric action (Martinez-
87 Aranda & Fernandez-Gonzalo, 2017). Increases in strength and power in youth male adolescent team sport
88 athletes following have been reported following 10-weeks of FIT (Raya-Gonzalez, Castillo, Domínguez-
89 Díez & Hernández-Davó, 2021; de Hoyo et al., 2015). However, a limitation of these studies is that the
90 control group did not complete any form of RT (Beato and Dello Iacono, 2020). Additionally, though
91 Stojanović et al., (2021) reported greater improvements in power following eight-weeks of FIT compared
92 to TRT in youth male basketball players, no differences in strength were observed. Furthermore, whilst
93 increases in lower-body strength and power were found following six-weeks of FIT in adult RU players,
94 both the experimental groups performed FIT but at just different intensities (Sabido, Pombero &
95 Hernández-Davó, 2019). Consequently, the benefits of implementing FIT for youth male RU remains
96 unclear. Since the development of physical qualities to optimise LTAD in young RU players is essential
97 (Owen, Till, Weakley & Jones, 2020), further knowledge on the effects of ERT within this population will
98 provide practitioners with important training guidance. Accordingly, the aim of this study was to
99 investigate the effects of FIT, compared to TRT, on changes in lower-body strength and power in elite
100 academy male RU players.

101 **Methods**

102 *Study Design*

103 A randomised-controlled trial, with a repeated measures design, was undertaken to assess lower-body
104 strength and power changes following four-weeks of either TRT or FIT in elite academy RU players.
105 Before and after the training intervention, measures of lower-body strength and power were assessed using
106 the countermovement jump (CMJ), squat jump (SJ) and drop jump (DJ) tests. These tests were specifically
107 chosen as they have been shown to be associated with performance measures and KPI's during RU match
108 play (Cunningham et al., 2018) as well as sprint performance in RU players (Furlong, Harrison and Jensen,
109 2018). Training sessions were performed twice per week, in the evening, during the off-season period and
110 were separated by 48-72 hours in line with players' training schedule. All participants achieved 100%
111 compliance with the scheduled RT sessions. Testing sessions occurred at the same time of day (evening)
112 to correspond with the participants normal training sessions.

113

114 *Participants*

115 An *a priori* power analysis (G*Power; University of Düsseldorf, Dusseldorf, Germany) was conducted to
116 determine a minimum sample size for the study. Sample size was calculated on a power of $(1-\beta)$ 0.90, an
117 alpha error of 0.05 and an effect size of 0.58 based on previous research investigating the effects of FIT
118 training in young male team sport athletes (de Hoyo et al., 2015). As a result, a minimum total sample
119 size of 12 participants was required. Subsequently, 16 elite male academy RU players (age = 18.0 ± 1.0
120 years, body mass = 93.0 ± 13.1 kg) volunteered to participate in the study. Players were randomly assigned
121 to either TRT or FIT groups according to a computer generated sequence (www.randomizer.org). No
122 control group was used (i.e. players who did not perform any training), since this would have resulted in
123 an impractical approach that would not be representative of the participants training. Participants were

124 physically active and were members of an elite club academy pathway with at least two years of RT
125 experience within a supervised program. All participants were free from injury at the time of the
126 intervention. After explaining the scope of the study, written informed consent was obtained from all
127 players. Parental consent was obtained for participants under 18 years of age. The Hartpury University
128 Research Committee provided ethical approval (ETHICS2019-77) prior to the beginning of testing, and
129 the study was completed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

130

131 *Procedures*

132 Participants in the FIT group were familiarised with the flywheel device in the weeks leading up to the
133 training intervention during their routine RT sessions. In the week before the start of the training
134 intervention, both groups undertook baseline measures of jumping performance. All participants
135 performed a standardised warm-up, similar to that which preceded their typical strength training
136 programme, including lunge variations, mobility exercises and activation/potentialisation exercises.
137 Participants were familiar with the testing measures as these had been previously performed as part of
138 their strength and power testing battery. Specifically, measures of bilateral CMJ, SJ and DJ were obtained.
139 To collect all jumping measures, participants stood upon a force platform (Pasco, Rosedale, USA)
140 sampling at 1000 Hz. A total of two trials were performed for each jump measure with each trial separated
141 by a minimum of two minutes of rest. The same measures were again assessed upon completion of the
142 training intervention.

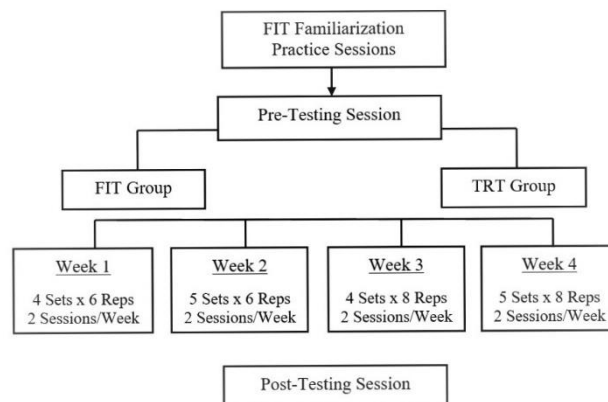
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144 *Training Programme*

145 The four-week training intervention was performed alongside the athletes' rugby training commitments.
146 Both groups performed one upper-body, one lower-body and one total-body RT session per week. Both

147 the TRT and FIT groups completed the same training volume of upper-body and lower-body exercises
 148 although the RT method for the lower-body exercises were dictated by the respective training conditions
 149 which the participants were allocated to. The FIT group performed all lower-body exercises on an inertial
 150 flywheel training device (K-box, Bromma, Sweden) including the squat, Romanian deadlift and Bulgarian
 151 split squat. Similarly, the TRT group performed the same exercises but used barbells for the back squat
 152 and Romanian deadlift exercises and dumbbells for the Bulgarian split squat exercise. These exercises
 153 were specifically chosen due to their inclusion within the athletes current training programme as well as
 154 their biomechanical similarity (i.e. lower body bilateral, lower-body unilateral, hip hinge). The loading
 155 for the FIT group was guided by previous research with increases in weekly training volume, rather than
 156 intensity, prescribed over the course of the training intervention (de Hoyo et al., 2015). A breakdown of
 157 weekly training volume during the meso-cycle can be viewed in Figure 1. An inertia flywheel intensity of
 158 $0.05 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2$ was used throughout the intervention and participants utilised a self-selected rest period
 159 between sets to ensure maximum performance. All training sessions were supervised by the club's strength
 160 and conditioning staff.

161



162

163 *Figure 1. Overview of experimental procedures*

164 ***Anthropometrics***

165 Prior to performance testing, data on age and body mass was recorded. Participants' body mass was
166 measured, using a calibrated electronic scale (SECA model 813, Birmingham, United Kingdom), to the
167 nearest 0.1 kg.

168

169

170 *Vertical Jumps*

171 Participants started in a tall standing position on the dual-force platforms, with feet placed hip width to
172 shoulder width apart and hands akimbo. If a participant removed their hands from the hips or flexed the
173 knees during the jump, that jump was discarded and participants were asked to repeat the trial. Once in
174 the correct starting position, participants were required to quickly descend into the countermovement
175 position, to a self-selected depth, before immediately executing a maximal effort vertical jump and landing
176 back in the start position on the force platforms (Van Hooren & Zolotarjova, 2017). The same protocol
177 was completed for the SJ except that participants were required to slowly descend into their self-selected
178 depth where they paused for three-seconds prior to performing the ascent phase of the jump (Van Hooren
179 & Zolotarjova, 2017). Measures of relative concentric peak force ($\text{N}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), relative concentric peak power
180 ($\text{W}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) and jump height (cm) were recorded for each effort with the average of the two trials used for
181 further analysis.

182

183 *Drop Jump*

184 The drop jump (DJ) was performed from a box height of 0.40m. Participants were required to step off the
185 box with hands akimbo and immediately rebound off the force platform with maximal intent, with
186 emphasis also on minimising ground contact time whilst maximising jump height (Pedley, Lloyd, Read,
187 Moore, & Oliver, 2017). Participants' technique was visually inspected for each trial and if technique was

188 deemed incorrect, the trial was discarded and an additional trial performed. The average of the two
189 accepted trials was recorded for further analysis.

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192

193 *Force Platform Analysis*

194 All jumping measures collected were analysed using commercially available software (ForceDecks, Vald
195 Performance Pty Ltd., Brisbane, Australia). The onset of movement was defined as the point when the
196 total vertical ground reaction force (vGRF) deviated -20 N from body weight, and the take-off (TO) was
197 set to the point when the total vGRF dropped below 20 N. Maximal vertical jump height (H) was
198 calculated using the flight time method in which flight time was calculated as the time interval between
199 take-off and touch down. Peak force (PF) and peak power (PP) values were defined as the highest values
200 of force and power that were achieved during the concentric phase of the movement, respectively. Values
201 for PF and PP were normalised to body mass to allow comparisons between groups and for any post
202 intervention changes in body mass to be taken into consideration. To calculate RSI, jump height (cm) was
203 divided by ground contact time (s).

204

205 *Statistical Analysis*

206 Statistical analysis was performed using JASP (version 13.1, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam,
207 Netherlands) with statistical significance set at $p < 0.05$. The normality of data was assessed via the
208 Shapiro-Wilk test and visual inspection of the Q-Q plots with the homogeneity of variances tested using
209 the Levene test. Within-session relative reliability was calculated using intraclass correlation coefficient
210 (ICC), and absolute reliability was calculated via typical error expressed as a coefficient of variation

211 (CV%) \pm 90% confidence limits using a customised Excel spreadsheet (Hopkins, 2015). Good and
212 acceptable CV values were considered <5% and between 5% and 10%, respectively (Cormack, Newton,
213 McGuigan & Doyle 2008). The ICC was interpreted in line with previous recommendations where values
214 >0.90 = excellent, 0.75–0.90 = good, 0.50–0.75 = moderate, and <0.50 = poor (Koo & Li, 2016). A paired-
215 samples t-test was used to evaluate within-group differences, and an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)
216 was performed to detect possible between-group differences, assuming baseline values as covariates. Due
217 to sample size per group being below 20 participants, effect sizes (ES) for within-group changes and
218 between-group differences were calculated using Hedges g (Goulet-Pelletier & Cousineau, 2018) by
219 dividing the difference between groups' change scores by their pooled SD for each performance variable.
220 ES were interpreted using previously outlined ranges; <0.19 = trivial, 0.2-0.59 = small, 0.6-1.19 =
221 moderate, 1.2-1.99 = large and 2.0-4.0 = very large (Hopkins, Marshall, Batterham & Hanin 2009).

222

223 **Results**

224 Within-session reliability data are presented in Table 1 and show that data reported excellent absolute
225 (ICC) and acceptable relative (CV%) reliability scores. Table 2 shows the changes in strength and power
226 measures for both groups. Within-group analysis showed significant improvements in the TRT group for
227 CMJ-H ($p = 0.002$, ES = *moderate*) and SJ-H ($p = 0.002$, ES = *moderate*). In the FIT group, a within-
228 group significant improvement was found for CMJ-PP ($p = 0.022$, ES = *small*) with a trend for
229 improvement in CMJ-H also noted ($p = 0.054$, ES = *small*). No statistically significant between-group
230 differences ($p > 0.05$) were found for all measures. However, between-group standardised differences
231 (Figure 2) showed greater improvements for TRT in CMJ-PF, CMJ-H, SJ-H and RSI whilst SJ-PP was
232 greater for FIT. Figure 3 displays the individual changes in the TRT and FIT groups for all measures.

Table 1. Reliability data with 90% confidence intervals for pre and post tests in both traditional resistance training (TRT) and flywheel inertia training (FIT) groups.

Test	Baseline TRT		Post TRT		Baseline FIT		Post FIT	
	ICC	CV%	ICC	CV%	ICC	CV%	ICC	CV%
CMJ-PP	0.97 (0.97-0.99)	1.14 (0.80-2.40)	0.98 (0.92-0.99)	1.83 (1.29-3.30)	0.96 (0.84-0.99)	1.83 (1.29-3.29)	0.95 (0.77-0.99)	1.92 (1.35-3.44)
CMJ-PF	0.99 (0.77-0.99)	2.41 (1.70-4.32)	0.95 (0.78-0.99)	2.97 (2.10-5.34)	0.98 (0.90-0.99)	2.05 (1.45-3.68)	0.93 (0.66-0.98)	3.48 (2.46-6.26)
CMJ-H	0.98 (0.90-0.99)	2.62 (1.85-4.71)	0.99 (0.96-0.99)	1.69 (1.19-3.04)	0.97 (0.85-0.99)	2.84 (1.99-5.08)	0.98 (0.90-0.99)	1.89 (1.33-3.40)
SJ-PP	0.90 (0.52-0.98)	5.20 (3.67-9.34)	0.98 (0.91-0.99)	2.19 (1.54-3.93)	0.96 (0.83-0.99)	2.76 (3.41-4.96)	0.99 (0.96-0.99)	1.98 (1.39-3.55)
SJ-PF	0.96 (0.81-0.99)	2.65 (1.87-4.76)	0.95 (0.75-0.99)	2.14 (1.51-3.85)	0.95 (0.76-0.99)	2.23 (1.57-4.00)	0.92 (0.64-0.98)	2.44 (1.72-4.39)
SJ-H	0.98 (0.92-0.99)	2.11 (1.49-3.79)	0.98 (0.93-0.99)	2.31 (1.63-4.14)	0.97 (0.87-0.99)	2.47 (1.75-4.42)	0.99 (0.96-0.99)	0.87 (0.61-1.56)
RSI	0.99 (0.98-0.99)	1.51 (1.06-2.71)	0.98 (0.93-0.99)	3.42 (2.41-6.14)	0.99 (0.97-0.99)	2.05 (1.54-4.10)	0.96 (0.81-0.99)	5.64 (3.98-10.14)

ICC = intraclass correlation coefficient; CV% = coefficient of variation; CMJ-PP = countermovement jump relative peak power; CMJ-PF = countermovement jump relative peak force; CMJ-H = countermovement jump height; SJ-PP = squat jump relative peak power; SJ-PF = squat jump relative peak force; CMJ-H = squat jump height; RSI = reactive strength index.

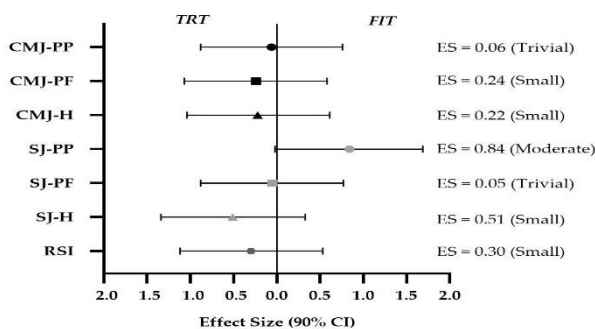
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Table 2. Baseline vs Post Intervention Changes in Strength and Power Measures for Traditional (TRT) and Flywheel Inertia Training (FIT) Groups.

Variables	TRT (n = 8)				FIT (n = 8)				Between Group Differences	
	Baseline	Post	Difference (90% CI)	Effect Size (90% CI)	Baseline	Post	Difference (90% CI)	Effect Size (90% CI)	F	p
CMJ-PP (W·kg ⁻¹)	50.59 ± 6.04	52.85 ± 5.43	2.26 (-0.58, 5.11)	0.39 (-0.46, 1.20)	48.70 ± 3.53	50.66 ± 3.23	1.96 (-0.89, 4.80)	0.55 (-0.29, <u>1.39</u>)*	0.145	0.710
CMJ-PF (N·kg ⁻¹)	22.18 ± 1.77	23.11 ± 2.35	0.93 (-0.61, 2.47)	0.42 (-0.41, 1.25)	24.65 ± 2.26	25.10 ± 2.40	0.45 (-1.09, 1.99)	0.18 (-0.64, 1.01)	0.356	0.561
CMJ-H (cm)	36.66 ± 4.92	39.45 ± 5.36	2.79 (-0.70, 4.89)	0.51 (-0.32, <u>1.35</u>)*	36.64 ± 4.31	38.45 ± 3.64	1.81 (-0.29, 3.90)	0.43 (-0.40, 1.26)	1.031	0.328
SJ-PP (W·kg ⁻¹)	50.48 ± 6.02	50.19 ± 5.98	-0.29 (-6.38, 5.80)	-0.05 (-0.87, 0.78)	46.98 ± 4.94	51.24 ± 7.95	4.27 (-1.82, 10.36)	0.22 (-0.60, 1.05)	1.627	0.224
SJ-PF (N·kg ⁻¹)	20.75 ± 1.99	21.25 ± 1.44	0.50 (-0.81, 1.82)	0.27 (-0.55, 1.10)	20.98 ± 1.52	21.40 ± 1.39	0.42 (-1.71, 3.02)	0.27 (-0.55, 1.10)	2.454	0.988
SJ-H (cm)	35.63 ± 4.23	39.31 ± 5.53	3.68 (1.25, 6.11)	0.88 (0.02, <u>1.74</u>)*	34.89 ± 3.89	36.54 ± 2.63	1.65 (-0.78, 4.08)	0.47 (-0.36, 1.30)	3.292	0.093
RSI	<u>1.97</u> ± 0.35	2.22 ± 0.47	0.25 (-0.16, 0.65)	0.57 (-0.27, 1.41)	1.94 ± 0.40	2.07 ± 0.42	0.13 (-0.27, 0.54)	0.30 (-0.53, 1.13)	0.436	0.521

CMJ-PP = countermovement jump relative peak power; CMJ-PF = countermovement jump relative peak force; CMJ-H = countermovement jump height; SJ-PP = squat jump relative peak power; SJ-PF = squat jump relative peak force; SJ-H = squat jump height; RSI = reactive strength index; CI = confidence interval; * = within-group statistical significance (p < 0.05).

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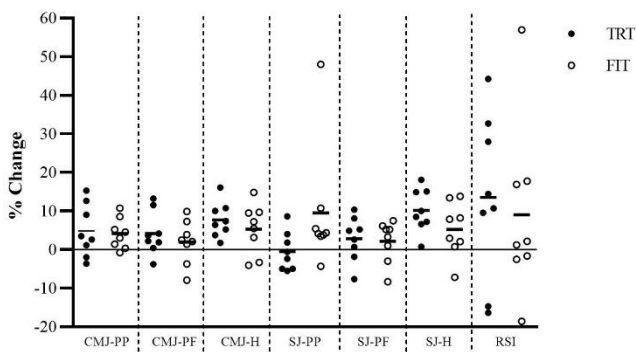


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236 Figure 2. Between group standardised differences with 90% Confidence Intervals for Traditional
237 Resistance Training (TRT) vs Flywheel Inertia Training (FIT).

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239



240

241 *Figure 3. Individual % changes in all strength and power measures following the four-week training*
 242 *intervention in both Traditional Resistance Training (TRT) and Flywheel Inertia Training (FIT) groups.*

243

244

245 Discussion

246 This study investigated the effects of FIT compared to TRT in elite male academy RU players. Our
 247 findings showed that both FIT and TRT were effective in increasing lower-body strength and power
 248 measures following a four-week off-season RT programme. However, despite no between-group
 249 statistically significant differences, the magnitude of the changes tended to favour the TRT group to a
 250 small effect for all measures except SJ-PP. Overall, our findings suggest that both TRT and FIT improve
 251 lower-body strength and power qualities in elite academy male RU players to a similar extent.

252

253 The increases in vertical jump performance over four-weeks in the TRT group in our study are similar to
 254 those previously reported in male academy RU players following between 12-15 weeks of TRT (Harries
 255 et al., 2018; Smart & Gill, 2013; Weakley et al., 2019). Our changes, which occurred in a shorter time
 256 period, may be explained by the elite playing status of our participants. Indeed, factors such as training
 257 age (Till, Darrall-Jones, Weakley, Roe & Jones, 2017) and strength level (Cormie, McGuigan & Newton,

258 2010) have been shown to influence changes in strength and power following RT. Alternatively, whilst
259 the FIT group showed increases in all vertical jump measures these were smaller compared to those
260 recently reported after ten-weeks in young elite male soccer players (Raya-González et al., 2021) and
261 eight-weeks in elite adolescent male basketball players (Stojanović et al., 2021). Similar to the
262 aforementioned studies though, our participants had no previously exposure to FIT. Therefore, our smaller
263 increases are likely explained by the shorter training intervention we used since a longer training duration
264 and more training sessions have a greater effect on adaptations to RT in adolescent males (Moran et al.,
265 2017). Overall, our findings demonstrate that in well-trained youth male adolescent athletes, increases in
266 lower-limb strength and power measures can occur within as little as four-weeks following either TRT or
267 FIT.

268 Whilst limited research exists examining the effects of TRT or ERT in academy rugby players on RSI,
269 our changes are greater than those previously reported within a similar population. Douglas et al., (2018)
270 reported *trivial* changes after four-weeks of either lower-body TRT (ES = 0.07) or accentuated eccentric
271 loading (ES = -0.03) in resistance-trained academy RU players (19.4 years). In contrary to our study
272 though, participants competed in weekly pitch-based training and match play which may have negatively
273 impacted training adaptations. Indeed, previous research in RU athletes has found that the concurrent
274 training prescription of both RT and endurance can impair strength improvement (Robineau, Babault,
275 Piscione, Lacombe & Bigard, 2016). Interestingly though, despite our participants training programme not
276 including plyometric exercises, the improvements in RSI are similar to those reported (ES = 0.58) in young
277 male collegiate RU players following six-weeks of plyometric training (Jeffreys et al., 2019). Since the
278 RSI is associated with both concentric (Beattie, Carson, Lyons & Kenny, 2017) and eccentric (Kipp et al.,
279 2018) forces, it is likely that both RT methods can positively influence performance. Thus, our results
280 would suggest that both TRT and FIT are useful strategies for enhancing RSI in male academy RU players.

281

282 Although we reported no statistically significant between-group differences, between-group standardised
283 differences marginally favored TRT. The lower effects for FIT may be related to the novelty of the ERT
284 stimulus for the participants. Tous-Fajardo, Maldonado, Quintana, Pozzo & Tesch (2006) showed that
285 individuals with more experience of FIT achieved greater eccentric and concentric peak forces than
286 athletes of the same caliber who were novices to the exercise. Therefore, whilst our participants were
287 familiarised with the FIT device, the short-term nature of our intervention may have limited its
288 effectiveness compared to TRT. Additionally, the training intervention prescribed for the FIT group may
289 have not been optimal due to their limited prior exposure to ERT. Stojanović et al., (2021) only included
290 two flywheel exercises per session with a frequency of one to two times per week and a maximum of four
291 sets per exercises, in which their participants, like ours, had not performed FIT previously. Therefore, our
292 participants may have benefited from a less progressive training programme to facilitate adequate recovery
293 and adaptation. Indeed, regular intense eccentric training in novice individuals has been shown to not
294 allow for complete repair of muscle damage which subsequently impairs strength (Krentz & Farthing,
295 2010).

296

297 Our study is not without limitations. Firstly, as our data was collected from a small sample size, the results
298 are generalizable only to similar samples of subjects and levels of competition. Secondly, due to the
299 training intervention taking place within the off-season it was not within the scope of this study to
300 investigate the effects of FIT on field-based measures of performance such as sprint speed and COD.
301 However, such measurements could have provided further information regarding the transfer of FIT to
302 sport specific RU tasks as greater improvements in speed and COD have been shown after FIT compared
303 to TRT (Maroto-Izquierdo, García-López, & De Paz, 2017). Finally, whilst the focus of our study was on

304 the lower-body, future research should also investigate the effects of upper-body FIT. This may have
305 important implications for both performance and injury prevention for RU players since the upper-body
306 is heavily involved in physical contact (i.e. tackling, scrums, fending, rucks and mauls) during training
307 sessions and competition (Twist, Waldron, Highton, Burt & Daniels, 2012).

308

309 **Conclusion**

310 Our findings have important implications for practitioners working with elite male academy RU players.
311 Considering the importance of developing strength and power in young male RU players, the training
312 interventions used here provide guidance on the TRT and FIT methods that can be used to enhance these
313 qualities. Whilst our findings showed that TRT may, overall, be favorable to FIT, it is important to note
314 that the magnitude of this was marginal and therefore both are valuable RT methods to incorporate into
315 training to improve lower-body strength and power. Future research investigating FIT in youth male
316 athletes should examine the effects of different training prescription factors (e.g. intensity, volume,
317 frequency) and the concurrent integration of both FIT and TRT to optimise strength, power and speed.

318

319 **Disclosure Statement**

320 The authors declare no conflict of interest and received no external funding for this study.

321

322 **Acknowledgements**

323 The authors would like to express sincere thanks to Kevin Mannion, Academy Head of Performance at
324 Gloucester Rugby, in assisting with the organisation for this study.

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