

1 **The effects of repeated backward running training on measures of physical fitness in youth male**
2 **soccer players**

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12
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49 ABSTRACT

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51 This study explored the effects of an 8-week repeated backward running training (RBRT) programme
52 on measures of physical fitness in youth male soccer players. Youth male soccer players were
53 randomly allocated into a RBRT group (n=20; 13.95±0.22y) or a control group (CG; n=16;
54 14.86±0.29y). The CG continued normal soccer training, while the RBRT group replaced some soccer
55 drills with RBRT twice per week. Within-group analysis revealed that RBRT improved all performance
56 variables (Δ -9.99% to 14.50%; effect size [ES] = -1.79 to 1.29; $p \leq 0.001$). Meanwhile, trivial-to-
57 moderate detrimental effects on sprinting and change of direction (CoD) speed (Δ 1.55% to 10.40%;
58 $p \leq 0.05$) were noted in the CG. The number of individuals improving performance above the smallest
59 worthwhile change ranged from 65-100% across all performance variables in the RBRT group,
60 whereas <50% in the CG reached that threshold. The between-group analysis indicated that the RBRT
61 group improved performance on all performance tasks more than the CG (ES = -2.23 to 1.10; $p \leq 0.05$).
62 These findings demonstrate that substituting part of a standard soccer training regimen with RBRT can
63 enhance youth soccer players' sprinting, CoD, jumping, and RSA performance.
64

65 **Keywords:** musculoskeletal and neural physiological phenomena, human physical conditioning,
66 movement, muscle strength, youth team sports.
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84 INTRODUCTION

85 Soccer players' athletic qualities such as sprinting, jumping, change of direction (CoD) speed and
86 repeated sprint ability (RSA) are major determinants of performance (32, 33), and largely influence
87 soccer match performance in young players (32, 33, 34). Indeed, elite soccer players are characterised
88 by high levels of muscular strength, speed, and derivatives thereof (i.e., acceleration, sprinting,
89 jumping, CoD, and RSA), when compared to sub-elite soccer players (32, 33, 34). While these athletic
90 qualities naturally improve in youth athletes due to growth and maturation (12), the development of
91 these traits can be further enhanced through focused training interventions (18).
92

93 To develop athletic qualities in youth soccer players, both specific and non-specific training methods
94 can be used (19). The principle of training specificity suggests that to achieve the best possible
95 outcome, a training modality should be closely related to the neuromuscular and physiological
96 characteristics of the particular athletic task it is intended to enhance (20). This principle is
97 substantiated by findings that specific training methods, which have high biomechanical and

98 physiological resemblance to soccer-related tasks, and are produced through shared locomotive neural
99 networks (13), demonstrate a high transfer to athletic movements such as sprinting, CoD ability,
100 jumping and RSA (19,36). Whilst specific training methods are commonly thought to imitate athletic
101 tasks (7,49), there is emerging evidence that performing athletic movements in reverse can also
102 stimulate positive adaptations, enhancing the performance of movements executed in forward
103 directions (43). In particular, backward running (BR), has been proposed to be a training method that
104 can improve forward running (FR) (45) due to both tasks originating from the same locomotive central
105 pattern generators (21).
106

107 Similar to FR, BR is a movement strategy that occurs in sporadic bursts during soccer play (31).
108 Indeed, elite soccer players may spend 3-4% of the match in a BR motion with FR movements
109 representing 0.9-1.4% only (31, 43). According to the same authors (31, 43), top-class soccer players
110 (ranked 1–10 on the official FIFA list) spend significantly more time in BR motion compared to
111 moderately ranked soccer players (ranked higher than 20 on the official FIFA list) ($3.7\pm 0.3\%$ vs.
112 $2.9\pm 0.2\%$, respectively). This shows that BR is an important locomotor parameter during soccer games.
113 Compared to FR, BR is characterised by an increased reliance on isometric and concentric muscular
114 actions (9), decreased elastic utilization (8,38), and greater muscle activation in the lower limbs
115 (17,48). Given the unique demands of BR on musculotendinous functioning, it has been implemented
116 as a training protocol to enhance athletic qualities such as sprinting performance (44), CoD speed (42),
117 and jumping height (44). Besides improving these relatively high-velocity movements related to
118 maximal neuromuscular capabilities, BR training has also been found to promote positive adaptations
119 in cardiovascular fitness (35,41). Since BR results in approximately 28-35% greater energy expenditure
120 compared to FR at similar running velocities (11,38), it may be a particularly effective method for
121 stimulating positive adaptations in athletic qualities that are dependent on cardiorespiratory capabilities
122 (45), such as RSA (4). However, while previous findings indicated that BR training can improve
123 running economy (35) and oxygen consumption (41), there are no empirical investigations as of yet on
124 the effectiveness of BR training on RSA.
125

126 In addition, readers should be cognisant that all previous training studies which utilised BR,
127 implemented either steady-state low-velocity running (35,41) or maximal effort BR sprinting with
128 work-to-rest ratios $>1:3$ (42,44). Furthermore, only the study by Uthoff and colleagues (44) explored
129 the effects of BR training on speed and power measures in adolescent male athletes ($\text{age}=14.59 \pm 0.29$),
130 and no studies have explicitly investigated the effects of repeated BR training (RBRT) on physical
131 fitness capabilities in youth male soccer players. This highlights a dearth of empirical evidence on the
132 utility and effectiveness of RBRT using maximal efforts, with minimal rest, on youth soccer players'
133 physical fitness. Accordingly, this study aimed to investigate the effects of an 8-week RBRT program
134 on youth male soccer players' linear (5-, 10-, and 20-m) and CoD (505 test) sprint times,
135 countermovement jump (CMJ) height, standing long jump (SLJ) distance and RSA for both fastest
136 (RSA_{best}) and total ($\text{RSA}_{\text{total}}$) time. We hypothesised that, compared to regular soccer training,
137 substituting parts of a standard soccer training regimen with RBRT would induce larger improvements
138 in measures of physical fitness in youth male soccer players (43).
139

140 **METHODS**

142 *Experimental approach to the problem*

143 A randomized controlled trial was undertaken to study the effects of an 8-week RBRT programme on
144 measures of physical fitness in youth male soccer players. The training programme was conducted
145 during the in-season period of the year 2021 (February-March). All participants were habituated to the
146 physical fitness tests from their routine physical preparation programme prior to testing. All tests were

147 scheduled at least 48 hours after the last executed training session or soccer match and were conducted
148 at the same time of day (7:30–9:30 AM) under the same environmental conditions (30–33° C, no
149 wind). Testing occurred over three days with linear sprint speed and CoD speed testing conducted on
150 the first day, jump testing on the second day, and RSA on the third day. Youth players were assessed
151 before and after an 8-week RBRT programme. No specific nutritional supplements were taken by the
152 players. During testing, participants were instructed to follow their normal consumption of food and
153 fluids. In addition, the players were told to abstain from physical exercise for one day before testing.
154

155 ***Participants***

156 Thirty-six male youth soccer players from a regional soccer team were randomly assigned to an RBRT
157 group (n=20) or a control group (CG, n =16). The anthropometric characteristics of both groups are
158 displayed in Table 1. The assigned groups were determined by a chance process (a random number
159 generator on a computer) and could not be predicted. This procedure was established according to the
160 “CONSORT” statement (<http://www.consort-statement.org>). Figure 1 displays a CONSORT diagram
161 of the levels of reporting and participant flow. The participants had 6.0 ± 1.3 years of systematic soccer
162 competition and training, involving five training sessions (80-90 min each) per week and a competitive
163 game on weekends. Athletes who missed more than 20% of the total training sessions and/or more than
164 two consecutive sessions were excluded from the study (32). Biological maturity status was estimated
165 using the maturity offset (MO) method. The MO was calculated by predicting age at peak height
166 velocity using the estimation equation established by Mirwald et al (30). $MO = -9.236 +$
167 $(0.0002708 \cdot \text{leg length and sitting height interaction}) - (0.001663 \cdot \text{age and leg length interaction}) +$
168 $(0.007216 \cdot \text{age and sitting height interaction}) + (0.02292 \cdot \text{weight by height ratio} \cdot 100)$.
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171 *****Figure 1 near here*****

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174 *****Table 1 near here*****

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176 All players met the following inclusion and exclusion criteria: (i) continuous soccer training over the
177 past three months with no serious musculoskeletal injuries (i.e., no more than one session missed), (ii)
178 absence of potential medical problems that could compromise participation or performance in the
179 study, and (iii) no lower-extremity surgery in the past two years before the study. All procedures were
180 approved by the Institutional Review Committee for the ethical use of human subjects at ******blind to***
181 ***reviewers******. Written informed parental consent and participant assent were obtained before the start
182 of the study. All participants and their parents/legal representatives were informed about the
183 experimental protocol and its potential risks and benefits before the commencement of the research
184 project. Participants were permitted to withdraw from the study at any time and without having to
185 provide a reason for doing so.
186

187 ***Training Programme***

188 Both groups participated in the same regular soccer-specific training programme over the 8-week
189 intervention period. Soccer training sessions for both groups included fast footwork drills, technical
190 skills and moves, position games and tactical games. Both the RBRT group and the CG completed 40
191 soccer training sessions during the intervention period and competed in seven matches.
192

193 ***Repeated backward sprint training programme***

194 The RBRT sessions were integrated into the regular soccer training routine of the intervention group
195 after their standard warm-up, replacing 15 to 20 minutes of low-intensity soccer drills, on Tuesdays and

196 Thursdays, over 8 weeks, on an artificial grass soccer pitch (Table 2). Coaching cues (i.e., “slight lean
197 of the chest forward”, “use similar arm action to forward running”, and “high heel recovery of the
198 swing leg”) similar to those used by Uthoff et al. (44) were used to reinforce the BR techniques.
199 Players were instructed to exert maximal effort, across all repetitions, by covering the prescribed
200 running distance (20-m) as fast as possible. Overall, players performed between two and four sets with
201 seven repetitions in each set. The inter-set and inter-repetition rests were 4 minutes and 20 seconds,
202 respectively. After the RBRT session, the players completed the remainder of their regular soccer
203 training.

204
205 ****Table 2 near here****
206

207 ***Linear sprint speed time***

208 Twenty-meter linear sprint performance was assessed at 5-, 10-, and 20-m intervals using a single beam
209 electronic timing system (Microgate SRL, Bolzano, Italy). Participants started in a standing split stance
210 position with their lead foot 0.3 m behind the first infrared photoelectric gate, which was placed 0.75 m
211 above the ground to ensure that it captured trunk movement and avoided false signals through limb
212 motion. In total, four single-beam photoelectric gates were used. No rocking or false steps were
213 permitted before starting. The between-trial recovery time was three minutes. The best performance out
214 of two trials was used for further analysis. The intra-class correlation coefficients (ICCs) for test-retest
215 reliability were 0.91, 0.93, and 0.90 for 5-, 10- and 20-m respectively.

216 217 ***505 change of direction speed time***

218 The 505 CoD test was administered using the protocol previously outlined by Negra et al. (33) using an
219 electronic timing system (Microgate, Bolzano, Italy). Players assumed a standing split stance position
220 10-m from the start line, ran as quickly as possible through the start/finish line, pivoted 180° at the 15-
221 m line indicated by a cone marker, and returned as fast as possible through the start/finish line. To
222 ensure proper execution of the test, a researcher was positioned at the turning line and if the participant
223 changed direction before reaching the turning point, or turned off the incorrect foot, the trial was
224 disregarded and reattempted after the recovery period. A between-trial rest period of three minutes was
225 provided. The best performance out of two trials was used for further analysis. The ICC for test-retest
226 trials was 0.95.

227 228 ***Countermovement jump height***

229 For this test, participants started from an upright standing position and performed a fast downward
230 movement by flexing the knees and hips before rapidly extending the legs and performing a maximal
231 vertical jump. During the test, participants were instructed to maintain their arms akimbo. Jump height
232 was recorded using a floor-level optoelectric system (Optojump, Microgate, SRL, Bolzano, Italy). A
233 rest period of one minute was allowed between trials. Participants’ best performance out of three trials
234 was retained for further analysis. The ICC for test-retest reliability was 0.92.

235 236 ***Standing-long-jump distance***

237 During the bilateral SLJ test, participants stood with their feet shoulder-width apart and toes behind a
238 starting line. On the command of “ready, set, go”, participants performed a fast flexion of the legs and
239 downward movement of the arms, before jumping as far as possible in a horizontal direction.
240 Participants were instructed to land with both feet at the same time and were not allowed to fall forward
241 or backward. The horizontal distance between the starting line and the position of the heel of the rear
242 foot upon landing was recorded using a tape measure to the nearest 1-cm. A between-trial rest period of
243 one minute was allowed. The best of three trials was recorded for further analysis. The ICC for test-
244 retest reliability was 0.91.

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Repeated sprint ability

The RSA test was assessed via the same photocell system used for the linear speed and 505 CoD tests (Microgate, Bolzano, Italy). Immediately after a standardised warm-up, participants completed a preliminary single shuttle-sprint test (20+20 m with 180° CoD). The first trial provided the criterion score for the actual shuttle-sprint test (34). Participants then rested for five minutes before starting the RSA test. During the first sprint, participants had to achieve at least 97.5% of their criterion score, otherwise, they rested for five minutes and then restarted the test (34). We used such an approach to determine if participants adopted a coping strategy for performance. Of note, all participants attained their criterion score during the first sprint. All performed six 20-m shuttle sprints with 180° turns, separated by 25 seconds of passive recovery (34). Three seconds prior to the commencement of each sprint, players were asked to adopt the ready position using a split stance, with their front foot 0.3 m behind the starting line, until the next start signal. From the starting line, they sprinted for 20-m and touched the second line with one foot before performing a 180° CoD and returning to the starting line as quickly as possible. Participants were instructed to complete all sprints as fast as possible. The RSA_{best} and RSA_{total} were determined. Due to the fatigue induced by the test, only one maximal attempt was made i.e., no ICC was calculated.

Statistical Analyses

The normality of all variables was tested and confirmed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The homogeneity of variance was assessed using Leven's test. Within-group training-related effects from pre- to post-training were analyzed using paired sample t-tests. A one-way analysis of variance was used to assess the training-related effects between the groups on the change score (mean difference from pre-training to post-training). Additionally, effect sizes (ES) and percentage changes were calculated to determine the magnitude of the performance change both within- and between-group. The ES was calculated by dividing the mean change in performance by the pooled standard deviation (SD) of the sample scores (24) and classified as trivial (<0.20), small (0.20 ≤ ES ≤ 0.59), medium (0.60 ≤ ES ≤ 1.19), and large (ES ≥ 1.20) (23). The smallest worthwhile individual change (SWC) was calculated on the pooled standard deviation of pre-training performance scores for both groups and converted to a percentage for each performance variable. The worthwhile changes were considered small (0.2 * SD), moderate (0.6 * SD), and large (1.2 * SD) (22,23). Note that the SWC for sprinting, 505 CoD, and RSA performance is negative to reflect that decreases in times are associated with performance improvements. Test-retest reliability was assessed using the ICC_(3,1). Data were presented as group means and SD. The level of significance was set a priori at $p \leq 0.05$ and 95% confidence limits were used. Data analyses were conducted using Microsoft Excel (version 22.04; Microsoft, Seattle, WA, USA) and SPSS 24.0 program for Windows (SPSS, Inc, Chicago, IL, USA).

RESULTS

All participants (n=36) received the treatment conditions as allocated. The adherence rate to training was 96% for both groups. None of the participants reported any training- or test-related injuries. Within-group changes from pre- to post-training and between-group differences in the performance tests for the RBRT and CG groups are displayed in Table 3. The within-group analysis found that RBRT elicited significant improvements in all performance variables (Δ -9.99% to 14.5%; $d = -1.79$ to 1.29; $p \leq 0.001$). Meanwhile, the CG significantly decreased sprinting and 505 CoD performance (Δ 1.55% to 10.40%; $p \leq 0.05$) with effects ranging from trivial-to-moderate. For the other measures of physical fitness, no significant changes were observed in the CG ($p > 0.05$).

*****Table 3 near here*****

294 In terms of individual responses, Figure 2 illustrates the individual percentage changes relative to
295 small, moderate, and large worthwhile changes detected for the RBRT group and CG. The RBRT
296 group had the highest relative number of individual responses above the SWC for 5- (95%), 10- (75%),
297 and 20-m (65%), 505 CoD (85%), CMJ (100%), SLJ (95%), RSA_{best} (80%) and RSA_{total} (80%).
298 Whereas only 25% to 50% of the participants of the CG improved performance above the SWC for any
299 of the performance tests.

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302

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

303 The one-way ANOVA on the change scores revealed a significant difference between groups for all
304 performance tests ($p \leq 0.001$). Compared with the CG, significant favorable differences were found for
305 the RBRT group for all sprinting distances, 505 CoD, CMJ height, SLJ distance, and RSA performance
306 ($d = -2.23$ to 1.10).

307

308 **DISCUSSION**

309 The present study is the first to explore the effects of performing RBRT on measures of physical fitness
310 in male youth soccer players. Our findings demonstrated that substituting part of a standard soccer
311 training regimen with RBRT improved short sprint performance, 505 CoD time, jumping ability, and
312 RSA. Regular soccer training on the other hand impaired sprinting and CoD performance with no
313 effects on the other physical fitness parameters. These results are important for researchers and
314 practitioners, given the lack of published literature on the effects of RBRT on measures of physical
315 fitness in youth athletes.

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318 Sprinting ability is critical for success in soccer with sprinting activities frequently performed prior to
319 decisive moments in games such as scoring a goal (15). The findings from our study revealed that
320 RBRT resulted in moderate to large within-group improvements in short sprint performance over
321 distances up to 20-m (5-m: absolute change=0.11; ES=-1.79 [-9.99%]; 10-m: absolute change=0.05;
322 ES=-0.74 [-2.39%]; 20-m: absolute change =0.07; ES=-0.75 [-2.24%]). A similar trend was observed in
323 our between-group analysis with significantly larger training-related increases in 5-, 10- and 20-m
324 performance (ES=-2.23, -1.24, and -0.70, respectively) in the RBRT group compared to the CG.
325 Indeed, 65 to 95% of the RBRT group improved sprint performance over all of the measured distances
326 to a level that exceeded the SWC compared to only 25 to 31% in the CG. These results are in
327 agreement with those of Uthoff and colleagues (44) who demonstrated that eight weeks of BR training
328 resulted in moderate-to-large within-group improvements (-5.01% to -7.47%; ES = -1.04 to -1.56) in
329 forward sprint performance in male youth athletes and moderate-to-large performance gains (ES = -
330 1.05 to -1.59) when compared to a CG performing normal physical education training. Likewise, Negra
331 and colleagues (34) reported a moderate improvement in 10-m (0.08 s; ES=0.68) and 20-m (0.17s; ES=
332 0.67) sprint performance after nine weeks of a forward repeated sprint training (FRST) programme,
333 with and without CoD in male youth soccer players aged 16 years. The present findings suggest that
334 performing RBRT during the in-season period can induce preferential adaptations in short sprint
335 performance in a forward direction in male youth soccer players, findings that are reinforced by
336 previous literature (34). However, it must be highlighted that, similar to other BR training research
337 (44), this study found that RBRT resulted in greater adaptations during short accelerative tasks (i.e., 5-
338 m: -9.99%) relative to long accelerative tasks or maximal velocity sprints (i.e., 20-m: -2.24%). These
339 findings are further supported by the average absolute changes in performance and individual responses
340 of participants. Indeed, the absolute changes in performance for 5-, 10-, and 20-m were 0.11, 0.05, and
341 0.07 s, respectively, with the highest number of individual responses above the SWC observed for 5-
342 (95%) followed by 10- (75%) and 20-m (65%). These findings support the result that BR preferentially

343 transfers to early phases of sprint performance in youth male athletes. Further, compared to forward
344 running, BR is achieved through higher step frequencies and lower step lengths (43, 44, 45).
345 Therefore, improvements in sprint performance could mainly be attributed to alterations in steps
346 kinematics which are representative of early accelerative sprinting (i.e., 10-m) (47). Overall, an
347 absolute change in sprint performance equal to the above mentioned values would be indicative of a
348 meaningful improvement in most participants. Of note, results indicated decreased sprint performance
349 across 5-, 10-, and 20-m distances in the CG. This may be associated to non-optimal training load
350 associated with regular soccer practice (26). This further support the need to integrate other training
351 methods, such as RBRT, to stimulate positive sprint performance adaptation in youth male soccer
352 players.

353
354 Change of direction ability is a key determinant of high-performance play in the sport of soccer (29).
355 Our results showed moderate (absolute change = 0.15s; ES=-1.12 [5.67%]) within-group improvements
356 in the 505 CoD test after RBRT, and large (ES=-2.16) improvements compared to the CG.
357 Interestingly, 85% of the participants of the RBRT group improved 505 CoD performance to a level
358 that was greater than the SWC with none in the CG. This suggests that an absolute change equal to
359 0.15s after eight weeks of RBST is indicative of a meaningful improvement in most participants. These
360 findings are in agreement with results from previous research that found 3.00 to 3.37% improvements
361 in 505 CoD performance in ~18-20-year-old female netball athletes after six weeks of BR training (42).
362 Furthermore, the results of the current study align with previous reports that nine weeks of repeated
363 forward sprint training (FRST) can be used to induce large gains in 505 CoD performance in male
364 youth soccer players (34). Similarly, Beato et al. (2) observed moderate (ES=0.62) improvements in the
365 505 CoD test after eight weeks of FRST, combined with CoD, in elite young male soccer players.
366 While FRST can be used to improve CoD ability in youth male soccer players, the greater coordination
367 demands associated with BR (27) may help to provide a unique training stimulus to further develop this
368 athletic quality through adaptations towards being able to position oneself to change directions more
369 effectively (i.e., more optimal movement policies) (1). While the unique responses to BR such as a
370 reliance on isometric and concentric muscular action (9) and large magnitudes of muscle activation in
371 the lower limbs (17,48) are considered important elements during CoD (40), a direct comparison
372 between repeated backward versus RFST on CoD ability needs to be conducted to support this position.
373 Of note, CoD performance decreased in the CG. Similar to sprint performance, regular soccer training
374 alone does not seem to provide adequate training stimuli to trigger positive adaptations in CoD
375 performance in male youth soccer players. Although the underlying mechanisms of such sub-optimal
376 CoD response are unclear, unchanged or even reduced linear and non-linear sprinting performances in
377 soccer players (26) (and other athletes) have been associated with non-optimal sport-specific stimuli,
378 e.g. predominance of *aerobic* training dose (46). Further, such reduction may be particularly notable
379 during the in-season (as in our study), due to limited time for strength and conditioning, with more
380 focus on technical-tactical aspects. Therefore, the integration of RBRT during the in-season period of
381 the year is advisable to induce positive adaptive responses in CoD performance in youth male soccer
382 players.

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384
385 Jumping performance can be used to discriminate between elite and non-elite youth soccer players
386 (10). The results of our study revealed that RBRT yielded large within-group enhancements for both
387 CMJ (absolute change = 4.4 cm; ES=1.19 [14.5%]) and SLJ (absolute change = 17.8 cm; ES=1.29
388 [9.38%]) performance, and moderate (ES=1.10, and 1.05, respectively for CMJ and SLJ) improvements
389 compared to the CG. These changes are greater than the moderate (9.9%) improvements in CMJ height
390 previously reported following eight weeks of progressive BR training (44) and provide the first insight
391 into the effects of BR training on horizontal jump performance. Notably, ≥95% of the participants in

392 the RBRT group improved both CMJ and SLJ performance above the SWC, while only about half of
393 the CG experienced increases above that level. This suggests that absolute changes of 4.4cm in CMJ
394 and 17.8cm in SLJ after RBST represent meaningful gains in the vast majority of participants. Though
395 no previous direct comparisons between RBRT and RFRT exist, the relative improvements in CMJ
396 following RBRT in the current study are over twice as large as those previously found following
397 repeated forward running shuttle sprints (7.04%) in a group of 14.5-year-old elite soccer players (5).
398 Since BR relies predominantly on isometric and concentric actions of the contractile tissues to produce
399 movements (8,9), this direction of running may lead to muscle action-specific strength improvements
400 which transfer to athletic movements that depend primarily on concentric muscle functioning of the
401 quadriceps, such as vertical and horizontal countermovement jumps (45). While interesting to suggest,
402 the veracity of this theory still requires further investigations to fully support a causal link between
403 lower body muscle actions and adaptations to jumping ability following BR training.
404

405 The ability to repeatedly produce maximal sprint efforts with minimal recovery time is necessary for
406 highly-trained youth soccer players due to the nature of the bouts of intermittent activity that
407 characterise match play and training (6). The current RBRT intervention induced moderate within-
408 group improvements in RSA_{best} (absolute change = 0.25s; ES=-1.01 [-3.19%]), and RSA_{total} (absolute
409 change = 1.3s; ES=-0.94 [-2.76%]) and moderate (ES=-1.11 and -0.77, respectively for RSA_{best} and
410 RSA_{total}) increases in these metrics relative to the CG. Furthermore, 80% of the RBRT group improved
411 both RSA_{best} and RSA_{total} above the SWC, suggesting that alteration in performance equal to the above-
412 mentioned absolute change values represent meaningful improvements in most participants. These
413 results are similar to the moderate improvements in RSA_{best} (-2.90%) and RSA_{mean} (-2.61%) observed
414 in 14-year-old elite male soccer players following repeated forward sprint training in a previous
415 investigation (5). Together, these findings suggest that RBRT can result in positive meaningful changes
416 in RSA in youth soccer players which are comparable to the adaptations seen after forward sprint
417 training. Indeed, performing repeated sprints backward may constitute a more cost-effective means to
418 improve RSA since BR exerts a high metabolic demand on an individual (16,48), ultimately leading to
419 approximately 28% greater energy expenditure compared to FR at similar relative intensities (11).
420 However, further research is necessary to support this position given the lack of direct comparisons
421 between programmes of volume-equated repeated backward and forward running training.
422

423 This study comes with some limitations that the reader should be aware of. Firstly, it was limited to
424 youth male soccer players meaning it may have low applicability to a youth female population given
425 the growth and maturational difference between the sexes during adolescence. Secondly, save for
426 accounting for the number of sessions completed, we did not monitor training load throughout the
427 intervention by using external and/or internal measures. Thirdly, no direct physiological (e.g.,
428 electromyography) or biomechanical (e.g., vertical ground reaction force) measures were conducted in
429 the study. On this basis, future research should include more direct kinetic and kinematic analyses on
430 the effects of volume-equated repeated backward versus forward sprint training on measures of
431 strength, speed, and RSA in male youth soccer players.

432 To sum up, this randomised controlled trial demonstrates that male youth soccer players, who are
433 already participating in a demanding training schedule, can make further gains in physical fitness if
434 they replace a part of their standard regimen with an in-season eight weeks twice-weekly programme of
435 RBRT. While the exact mechanisms underpinning these adaptations remain somewhat ambiguous, the
436 novel isometric and concentric-focused movement strategy associated with BR appears to produce
437 unique neuromuscular and metabolic responses which transfer particularly well to the early
438 acceleration phase of forward sprinting, 180° CoD, slow stretch-shortening cycle jumping (i.e., CMJ
439 and SLJ) and RSA in youth male soccer players.
440

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447 **Authors' contributions**

448 YN collected the data, analysed the data, and wrote the manuscript; AU analysed the data and wrote the
449 manuscript; SS collected the data and wrote the manuscript; RRC wrote the manuscript; JM and HC
450 conceived the study, and wrote the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the final version of
451 the manuscript, and agree with the order of presentation of the authors.

452

453 **Competing interests**

454 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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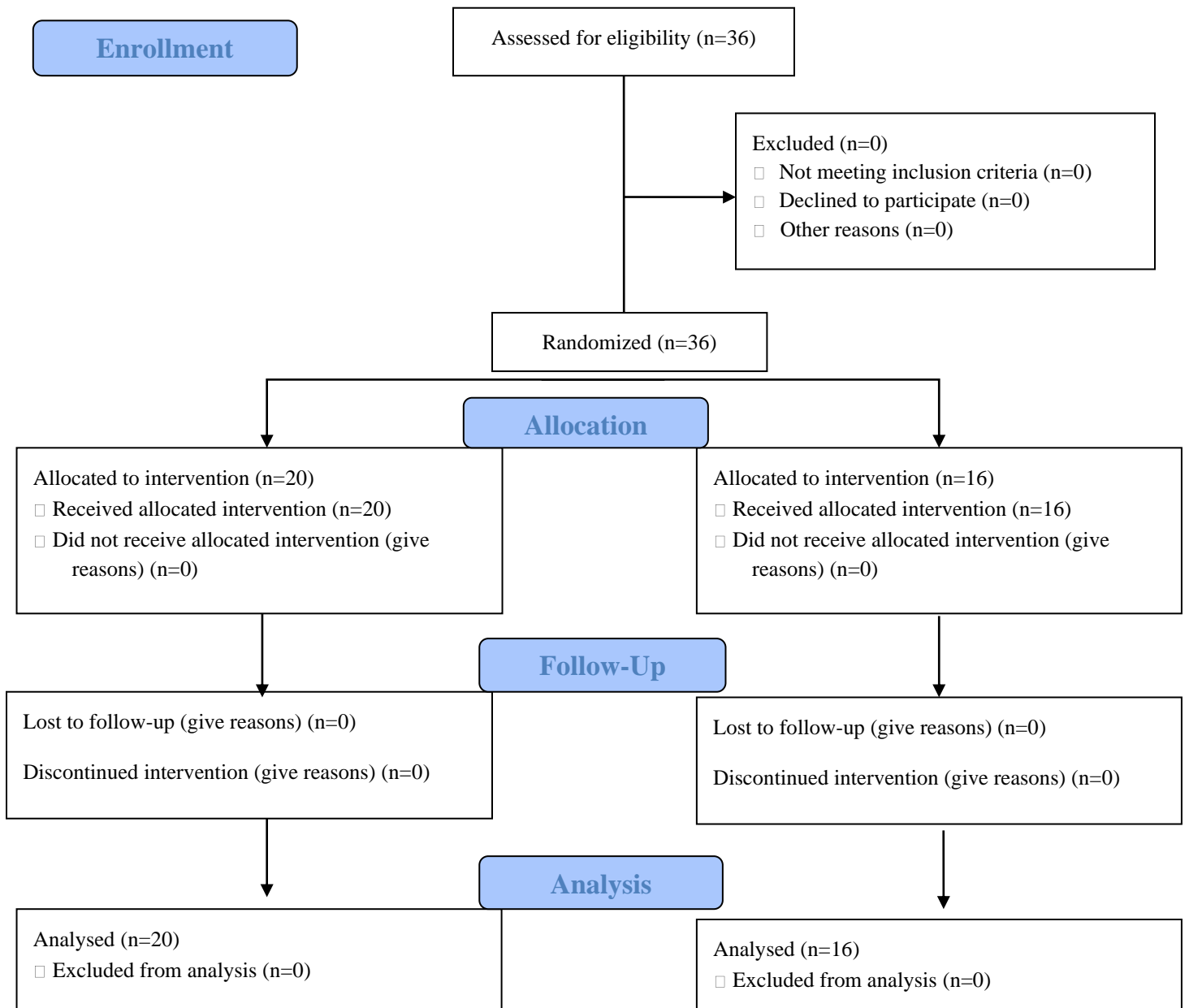


Figure 1. The diagram (The CONSORT: Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials) includes detailed information on the interventions received.

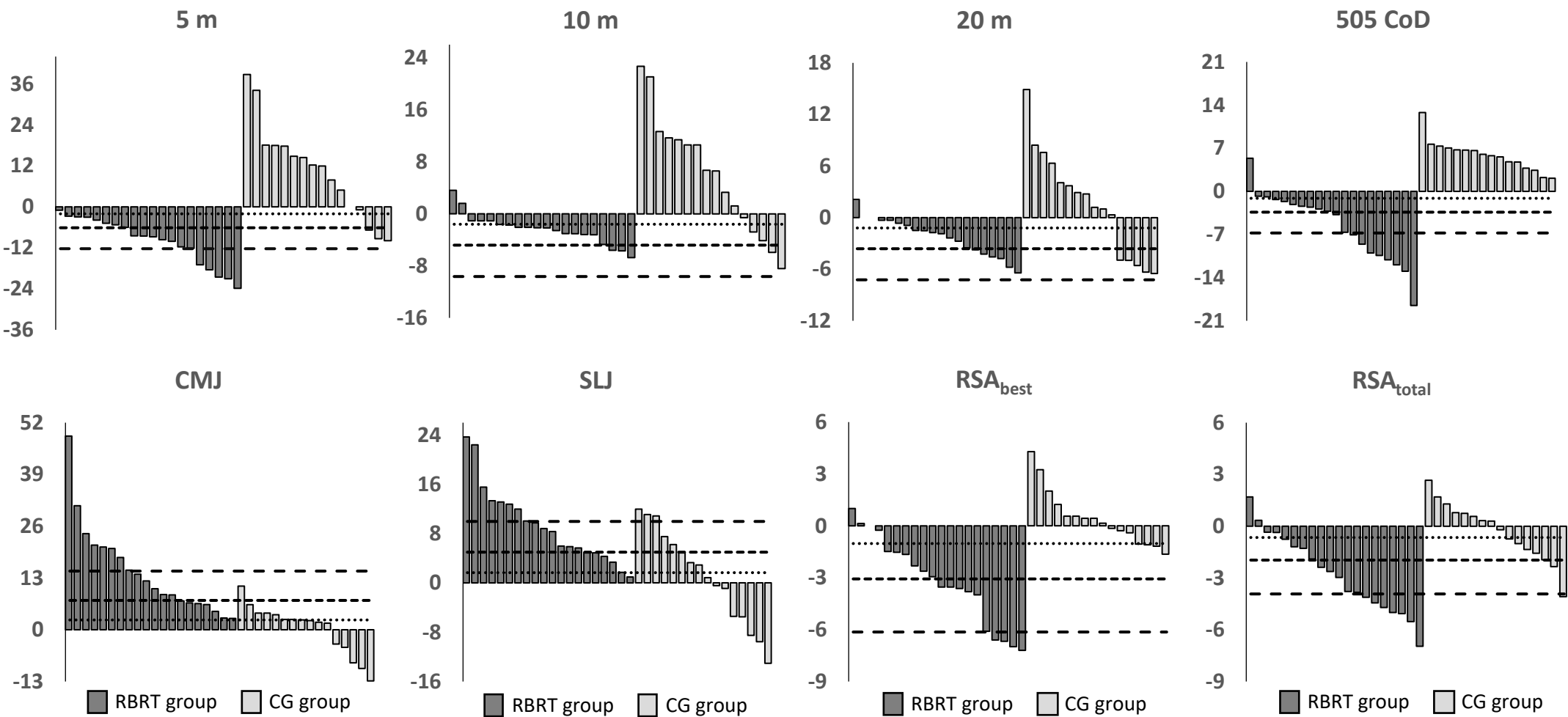


Figure 2. Individual relative percentage change from pre- to post-intervention in repeated backward **running** training group (**RBRT**) group and control group (CG). SWC = smallest worthwhile change pre SD * 0.2); ---- MWC = moderate worthwhile change (pre SD * 0.6); - - - LWC = large worthwhile change (pre SD * 1.2). 5 m, 10 m, 20 m: linear sprints; CoD: change of direction; CMJ: countermovement jump height; SLJ: standing long jump; RSA: repeated sprint ability.

Table 1. Anthropometric characteristics of the included participants.

	RBRT group (n= 20)	CG (n= 16)
Age (years)	13.95±0.22	14.86±0.29
Height (m)	166.49±8.91	170.31±3.82
Body mass (kg)	50.96±6.82	56.49±5.09
Maturity offset (years)*	-0.62±0.61	0.14±0.63

Notes: Data are presented as means and standard deviations; RBRT= repeated backward running training; CG = control group; *: as years from peak height velocity.

Table 2. Repeated backward running training program.

Week 1	3 × 7 × 20*
Week 2	3 × 7 × 20
Week 3	3 × 7 × 20
Week 4	2 × 7 × 20
Week 5	4 × 7 × 20
Week 6	4 × 7 × 20
Week 7	4 × 7 × 20
Week 8	3 × 7 × 20

*: denotes sets × repetitions × distance (m).

Table 3. Descriptive performance testing results for RBRT and CG groups, including within-group changes from pre-training to post-training and between-group differences in the mean changes.

	Group	Pre (μ ± SD)	Post (μ ± SD)	Post-Pre % Difference (95% CL)	Post-Pre Training Effect Size (95% CL)	Difference RBST - CG (μ ± SE)	RBRT - CG Effect Size (95% CL)
5m sprint (s)	RBST	1.07±0.06	0.96±0.06	-9.99 (-13.0 to -6.99) †	-1.79 (-2.52 to -1.06)	-0.20±0.04 †	-2.23 (-3.06 to -1.39) ^B
	CG	0.96±0.11	1.04±0.07	10.4 (3.51 to 17.3) *	0.91 (-0.39 to 1.06)		
10m sprint (s)	RBRT	1.89±0.06	1.84±0.06	-2.39 (-3.42 to -1.32) †	-0.74 (-1.38 to -0.10)	-0.14±0.04 †	-1.24 (-1.96 to -0.52) ^B
	CG	1.70±0.15	1.79±0.09	6.03 (1.55 to 10.5) *	0.73 (-0.45 to 0.98)		
20m sprint (s)	RBRT	3.31±0.11	3.24±0.09	-2.24 (-3.21 to -1.28) †	-0.75 (-1.39 to -0.11)	-0.11±0.05 *	-0.70 (-1.37 to -0.02) ^B
	CG	3.10±0.21	3.14±0.13	1.55 (-1.45 to 4.56)	0.22 (-0.62 to 0.77)		
505 CoD (s)	RBRT	2.50±0.14	2.35±0.12	-5.67 (-8.12 to -3.22) †	-1.12 (-1.79 to -0.45)	-0.29±0.04 †	-2.16 (-2.99 to -1.34) ^B
	CG	2.41±0.12	2.55±0.12	5.84 (4.59 to 7.08) †	1.17 (-0.30 to 1.20)		
CMJ (cm)	RBRT	31.0±3.47	35.4±3.78	14.5 (9.65 to 12.1) †	1.19 (0.52 to 1.86)	4.27±0.82 †	1.10 (0.40 to 1.81) ^B
	CG	32.7±4.32	32.2±4.51	0.25 (-2.85 to 3.35)	0.01 (-0.69 to 0.70)		
SLJ (cm)	RBRT	191.1±12.08	208.9±15.3	9.38 (6.66 to 12.1) †	1.29 (0.61 to 1.97)	16.1±3.93 †	1.05 (0.35 to 1.75) ^B
	CG	203.6±18.61	205.2±20.2	1.02 (2.78 to 4.82)	0.08 (-0.66 to 0.72)		
RSA _{best} (s)	RBRT	7.77±0.22	7.52±0.27	-3.19 (-4.29 to -2.08) †	-1.01 (-1.67 to -0.35)	-0.28±0.05 †	-1.11 (-1.82 to -0.41) ^B
	CG	7.19±0.28	7.22±0.26	0.45 (-0.34 to 1.24)	0.11 (-0.65 to 0.73)		
RSA _{total} (s)	RBRT	45.3±1.27	44.0±1.40	-2.76 (-3.75 to -1.77) †	-0.94 (-1.59 to -0.29)	-1.12±0.30 †	-0.77 (-1.45 to 0.09) ^B
	CG	44.6±1.65	44.5±1.63	-0.30 (-1.14 to 0.53)	-0.09 (-0.72 to 0.66)		

RBRT = repeated backward running training group; CG = control group; CL = confidence limit; μ = mean; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error; CoD= change of direction; CMJ=countermovement jump; SLJ= standing long jump; RSA_{best}= repeated sprint ability for fastest time; RSA_{total}= repeated sprint ability of total time; ^B = training effect towards RBST; * = $p \leq 0.05$; † = $p \leq 0.001$.