

Children and Resistance Tra

After studying this chapter, you should be able to

1. outline training adaptations in preadolescents and adolescents,
 2. discuss acute and chronic injuries due to training in preadolescents and adolescents,
 3. describe the steps in developing a safe, effective weight training program for preadolescents and adolescents,
 4. describe resistance training program differences in children of varying ages,
 5. develop a periodized resistance training program for preadolescents and adolescents,
 6. describe equipment modifications that may be needed when children perform resistance training, including appropriate resistance increases during the program.
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The popularity of resistance training among prepubescents and adolescents has increased dramatically. The acceptance of youth resistance training by qualified professional organizations is becoming universal. The following organizations have produced statements indicating that youth resistance training is both effective and safe when properly supervised: American Academy of Pediatrics (2008), American College of Sports

Medicine (2008), National Strength and Conditioning Association (2009), and National Athletic Trainers' Association (2010). What type of weight training program is most appropriate for a pubescent, and how does it differ from a prepubertal program? How can resistance training be safely implemented in youth? All of these questions have been addressed in the literature based on research. However, some common misunderstandings still exist.

When evaluating information



BOX 10.1 RESEARCH

Puberty and Maximal Strength Gains

It is generally believed, and some research supports this belief, that during puberty maximal strength significantly increases. However, this does not mean that resistance training of postpubertal children results in greater strength gains than training of prepubertal children. A meta-analysis concluded that the maturity of both prepubertal and postpubertal children significantly affect strength gains as a result of weight training (Behringer et al. 2010). However, there is no significant difference in strength gains due to resistance training during puberty compared to prepuberty. This meta-analysis also concluded that longer-duration studies and increased training frequency significantly affect strength gains. The conclusion that longer-duration studies result in greater strength gains indirectly supports the belief that hypertrophy contributes to strength gains. Although the conclusion that increased frequency (e.g., two or three sessions per week) results in greater strength gains, the meta-analysis also showed that strength increases are related to



BOX 10.2 PRACTICAL QUESTION

To Cause Muscle Hypertrophy, Does the Resistance Training Program Need to Be Unique?

Weight training programs do not need to be unique to bring about significant hypertrophy in children. For example, overweight children (pretraining BMI of 32.5) performing eight weeks of resistance training with 10 machine exercises for two circuits of eight repetitions per exercise, 70% of 1RM and progressing to 90% of 1RM, with one minute of rest between exercises, showed a significant increase in total lean body mass of 2% (Naylor, Watts et al. 2008). This increase was significantly greater than the change shown in a group of nonexercising children. The control group performing weight training showed a nonsignificant decrease in fat mass. The combination of the increase in total lean body mass and decrease in fat mass resulted in a significant decrease in body fat of 1% (49.6 to 48.5%). Programs used in other studies showing a significant increase in lean body mass are also not unique from a program design perspective.



BOX 10.3 RESEARCH

Motor Performance Improvements as a Child's Age Increases

Changes in mean motor performance of adolescent soccer players indicate that sprint performance improves in the early teenage years, whereas vertical jump performance improves at a slower rate throughout the teenage years (Williams, Oliver, and Faulkner 2010). It is important that this information is longitudinal, and not cross-sectional, which makes it more reliable as a measure of improvement from year to year. Even though mean changes can be calculated, there are still variations in motor performance test improvements that do exist. The total percentage change in the 10 m sprint, 30 m sprint, and vertical jump from under 12 years to under 13 years was 5%, 1%, and 28%, respectively (see table 10.2).

TABLE 10.2 Motor Performance Changes From 12 to 16 Years of Age

Age (years)	Mean 10 m sprint (sec)	10 m sprint % improvement from previous year	Mean 30 m sprint (sec)	30 m sprint % improvement from previous year	Vertical jump (cm)
Under 12	1.98	—	5.04	—	44.9
Under 13	1.97	0	4.97	1	47.9

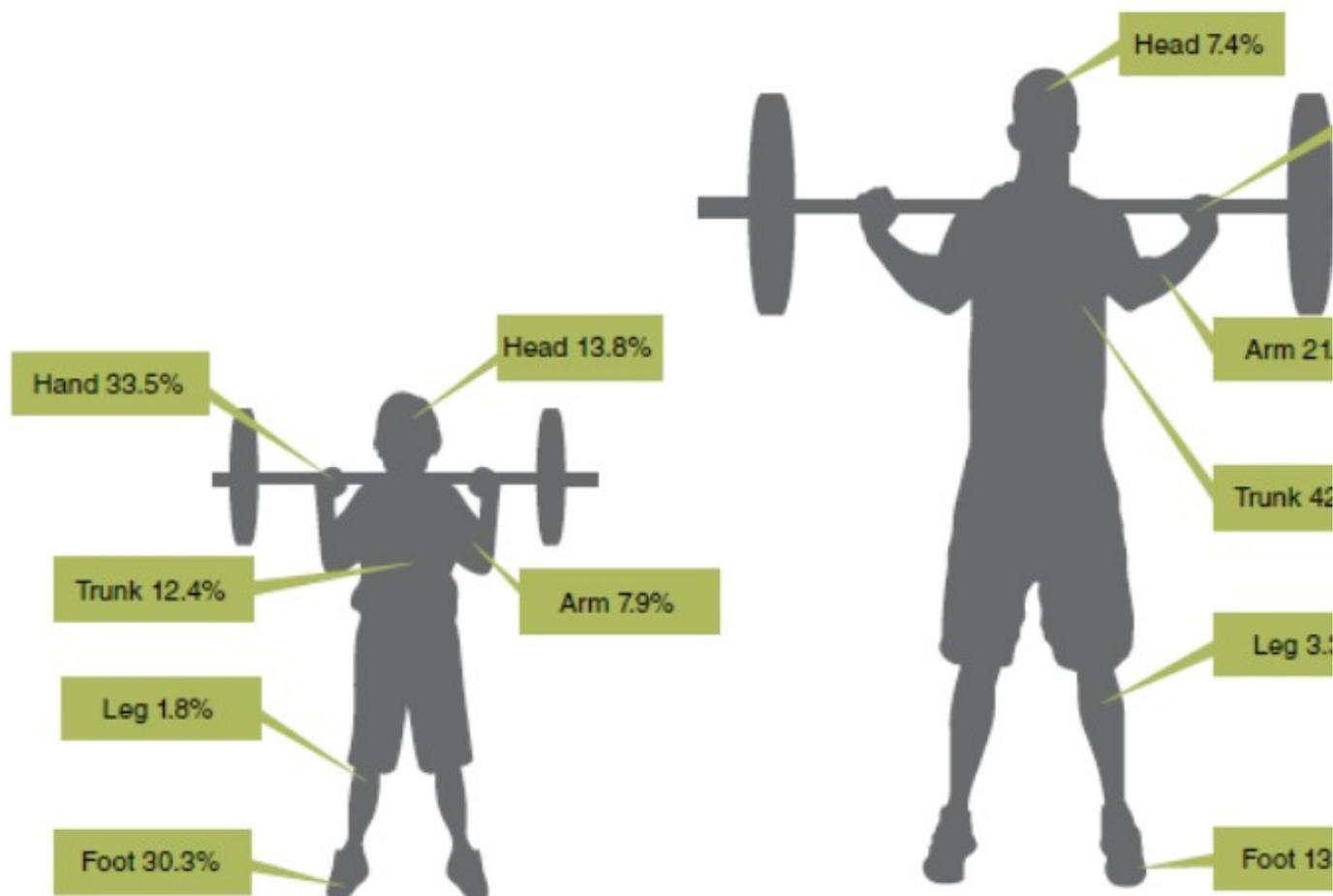
sport-specific motor performance in preadolescents and adolescents.

Bone Development

Resistance training can have a favorable effect on bone mineral density in prepubescents and adolescents of both sexes (National Strength and Conditioning Association 2009; Naughton et al. 2000). Moreover, weight training has no detrimental effect on linear growth in children and adolescents (National Strength and Conditioning Association 2009; Malina 2006). However, not all studies report an effect on bone mineral density in children. It has been hypothesized that mechanical loading of bone has a threshold that must be met to have a positive effect on factors related to bone health, such as bone mineral density (Twisk 2001). Thus, studies that report no effect on bone mineral density as a result of resistance training may not have reached the threshold of mechanical

Unfortunately, the minimal amount necessary to bring about change is not known.

Increased bone density from training may be one of the primary factors involved in empirical observations that resistance training prevents injury in youth (Naughton et al. 1982). Prepubescence can be an opportune time to increase bone density and periosteal expansion (compact bone) through physical activity (National Strength and Conditioning Association 2009). An important consideration for long-term bone health is that bone density gained because training increases is often lost over time when physical activity is reduced (National Strength and Conditioning Association 2009). Athletes who increase bone density in adolescence appear to suffer less injury in later years despite reduced physical activity (Naughton et al. 2000; Nordstrom, Olsson,



Muscle Strains and Sprains

Muscle strains and sprains are common injuries in all age groups (Meyer et al. 2009). Strains and sprains account for 18, 44, 60, and 66% of all injuries in 8- to 13-, 14- to 18-, 19- to 22-, and 23- to 30-year-olds (Meyer et al. 2009). The risk of sprains and strains significantly increases with increasing age. Strains and sprains can be the result of not warming up properly before a training session. Trainees should perform several sets of exercise before beginning the actual training sets of a workout. Other common causes of muscle strain or sprain are attempting to lift too much weight for a given number of repetitions and improper exercise technique. Children should understand that the suggested number of repetitions is merely a guideline, and that they can perform fewer repetitions than prescribed in the training program. The incidence of this type of injury, as with all injury types, can be reduced by taking proper safety precautions.

Growth Cartilage Damage

Growth cartilage damage is historically a traditional concern for children performing weight

long bones of the body grow epiphyseal plates. Damage to the plates, but not to the other types of growth cartilage, decrease linear bone growth. Due to changes of hormonal changes, the epiphyseal plates close after puberty. Once this happens, the long bones, and therefore increase in length, are no longer possible.

The epiphyseal plate is weak during the period of rapid growth during pubescence (Meyer and Maffulli 2006). Additionally, the ossification may lag behind linear bone growth, making the bone more susceptible to injury (Meyer and Maffulli 2006). The cartilage acts as a shock absorber between the bones to form a joint. Damage to this cartilage results in a rough articular surface and can lead to osteoarthritis during joint movement. The apophyseal insertions of major muscles are a solid connection between the bone and the muscle. Damage to apophyseal insertions can result in tendonitis and also increase the chance of tendon tears. The tendon and bone, result in a **fracture**. It has also been proposed that the growth spurt muscle tendon



BOX 10.4 PRACTICAL QUESTION

What Are Recommendations for a Beginning Resistance Training Program for Adolescents?

Weight training program recommendations for a beginning adolescent lifter include (Miller, Cheatham, and Patel 2010):

- Primary training goal: increase strength
- Number of sets: one to three
- Repetitions per set: 10-15, depending on previous weight training experience
- Resistance: one that allows the performance of the desired number of repetitions
- Training frequency: two or three sessions per week on nonconsecutive days
- Exercises: involve all the major muscle groups—chin-up, bench press, lat pull-down, knee flexion, knee extension, abdominal crunch, biceps curl, triceps

TABLE 10.6 Resistance Training Workout for Children Using Body We and Self-Resistance

Exercise	Sets × repetitions
Push-up	1-3 × 10-20
Bent-leg sit-up	1-3 × 15-20
Parallel squat	1-3 × 10-20
Self-resistance arm curl using opposite arm as resistance	1-3 × 10 actions 6 sec in duration
Toe raise	1-3 × 20-30

resisted exercises, fit is typically not a concern. With resistance training weight machines, however, fit can be critical. Although several companies now manufacture machines specifically for children, most resistance training machines are designed to fit adults (see figure 10.7). Most prepubescents lack the height and arm and leg length to properly fit many adult resistance training machines. If the machine does not fit the child properly, correct technique and full exercise range of motion are impossible. A critical danger of an ill-fitting machine is that a body part such as a foot or an arm may slip off its point of contact, resulting in injury.

Another common fit problem is a bench for machine or free weight exercises that is too wide to allow free movement of the shoulder during the exercise. When children perform exercises with inappropriate technique because of ill-fitting equipment, their joints and musculature can be exposed to undue stress, resulting in an injury.

Children should not use equipment that cannot be safely adapted to fit properly. Simple alterations of some machines, such as additional seat pads, can allow a trainee to use the machine safely. However, just adjusting the seat is often not enough. Although the seat adjustment may be appropriate, adjustments may also be needed to allow proper positioning of the arms or legs on the contact points of the machine. In addition, raising the seat may make it impossible for the child's feet to reach the floor, compromising balance. Placing blocks under the feet can help in such cases.

Altering a piece of equipment to fit one child does not guarantee that the equipment will fit another child. Proper fit must be checked before the equipment is used by each child. Care must be taken to ensure that additional padding or blocks do not slide during the exercise, which could result in injury. Sliding can be avoided in some alterations by attaching nonskid material to the top and bottom of blocks and the backs of additional

especially important when children are training in the same facility. This philosophy can be promoted in several ways:

- Posting age-related instructions for children next to the adult instructions can include both prepubescents and adolescents using proper resistance training technique.
- Using posters and pictorial media for prepubescents and adolescents using proper resistance training technique.
- Using charts, contests, and awards to promote the principles of total conditioning and endurance. Prepubescents and adolescents need to be motivated for training consistency and total conditioning and endurance (and other aspects of total fitness), and preparation for training consistency and endurance within a sports season.

The environment, exercise equipment, and awards should all reflect the philosophy. Because prepubescents and adolescents have difficulty retaining information in different formats, the weight training program should include the expectations and philosophy through verbal communication, including video, and pictorial media. A communication need to be clear and concise for prepubescents and adolescents to avoid confusion, or misunderstanding any aspect of the program.

Summary

Resistance training for prepubescents has gained acceptance because strength, power, and endurance can occur, bone development can be promoted, and injuries may be prevented. The key is to use developmentally appropriate

Resistance Training for Seniors

After studying this chapter, you should be able to

1. distinguish between modifiable and non-modifiable factors as they relate to the senior population,
2. describe the hormonal changes of aging men and women with respect to testosterone and menopause and the overall implications relative to the senior population,
3. list the changes in body composition associated with aging and the implications of these changes and their cumulative impacts,
4. explain the phenomenon of muscular strength and power loss seen, at least in part, in the senior population.

Those who design programs for senior populations need to understand the physiological changes that occur with age. Endocrine secretions of such hormones as testosterone, growth hormone, and estrogen decrease with age. We begin this

Body Composition Changes in Seniors

Body composition describes the percentage of fat-free mass and various components of fat-free mass including muscle, bone, tissue, and organ mass in the body. With age, all components of body composition tend to change. This section is a review of the effects of body composition change on metabolic rate and includes a discussion of the effects of resistance training on bone, tissue, and muscle with aging. Resistance training's effects on metabolic rate, muscle mass, and tendon can help people maintain functional independence during aging. The overall performance

Hormonal Changes With Aging and Resistance Training

It is well established that, with age, the endocrine glands' ability to secrete hormones decreases. In any of the body's structures, endocrine glands go through a cellular aging process. However, exercise and training may offset the

of decreases in the endocrine system's ability to secrete hormones and function. This appears to be mediated by the stimulation of endocrine glands with resistance exercise, which results in their synthesis and secretion of the hormones needed for maintaining homeostasis (during exercise) and for signaling (during recovery).

Despite exercise training, as we age the endocrine system loses its ability to secrete hormones in response to exercise; however, without resistance training this process can be more dramatic as a result of disuse. Compromised glandular function results in reductions in resting concentrations of hormones, including anabolic hormones. The concept of a compromised endocrine system is supported by early studies of testosterone and growth hormone, in which a reduced responsiveness to resistance exercise stimuli in old



BOX 11.1 RESEARCH

Resistance Training and Age-Related Obesity

One might ask the question, Is obesity related only to age, and what might resistance help? Obesity appears to increase with normal aging, from 18% in young adults to 24.7% in middle age. At the age range of 45 to 65 years, obesity affects 9% of Asian Americans, 35% of Hispanic Americans, and 41% of black Americans. Although obesity up to age 65 appears to support an association between age and obesity, it falls to 24.7% after age 65 (Mendez 2010). The rationale for this is not entirely clear, but it is related to decreased life expectancy in those with obesity, resulting in a greater proportion of people surviving long enough to be surveyed after age 65. In nonsmokers who are nonsmokers, life expectancy drops from 81 years to between 68 and 76 years in white men and between 59 and 74 years in black men (Finkelstein et al 2010). The decrease in life expectancy could also be a function of malnutrition in seniors.

The prevalence of obesity at any age warrants action. In conjunction with nutrition and cardiorespiratory exercise, resistance training may help to address the issue of fat. Resistance training for 26 weeks increased total energy expenditure in older adults and contributed to greater oxidation of lipids (Hunter et al. 2000). The increase in energy expenditure and spontaneous activity in seniors may have been related to increase in mitochondrial oxidative ability caused by resistance training (Jubrias et al. 2001). With six months of resistance training, oxidative ability increased 57%, muscle size increased 10%, and mitochondrial oxidative capacity increased 31%. Thus, along with other treatments, resistance training can help combat fat mass in seniors.

Finkelstein, E.A., Brown, D.S., Wrage, L.A., Allaire, B.T., and Thomas, J.H. 2010. Individual and aggregate obesity associated with overweight and obesity. *Obesity* 18: 333-339.



BOX 11.2 RESEARCH

What Are the Benefits of Resistance Exercise for Joint Pain?

Osteoarthritis (OA) is one of the most common diseases of old age and is frequently diagnosed by practitioners who work with seniors. It is characterized by loss of cartilage and subsequent overcompensation of bone growth to repair the damage. This growth overcompensation causes a painful, joint-wide problem (Fransen et al. 2009). OA is a joint ailment with the effects specific to the joint affected (e.g., hip, knee, shoulder) and location within that joint (medial, lateral, anterior, posterior, combination), and grade of severity (grade 1 is the mildest; grade 4 is the most severe). Resistance exercise is beneficial for older people with OA because it results in increased strength, improved function, and reduced pain (Latham and Liu 2010).

Many people avoid exercise when joint pain is present, but exercise can improve joint function. A recent meta-analysis examined the effect of resistance training interventions on pain and physical function in people with rheumatoid arthritis, and fibromyalgia in people with an average age of over 50 years (Latham et al. 2011). The meta-analysis found significant improvements in pain and physical function, and a lower rate of adverse events across studies. The improvements were also clinically important, similar to those expected from analgesic agents such as acetaminophen and NSAIDs. Thus, resistance training interventions can be an important therapeutic aid for joint pain in seniors.

Fransen, M., McConnell, S., Hernandez-Molina, G., and Reichenbach, S. 2009. Exercise for osteoarthritis



BOX 11.4 PRACTICAL QUESTION

What Is the Minimal Amount of Protein Needed by Seniors?

Inadequate energy intake may reduce the body's ability to remodel tissues and is one of the factors in the decrease of muscle mass with age. In addition a lack of sufficient protein intake may result in a lack of sufficient protein accretion and muscle fiber hypertrophy that can occur with resistance training. Although many have voiced concerns that higher protein intake could have negative consequences, research has demonstrated that, with the exception of specific medical conditions, there are no contraindications for higher protein intake in seniors (Wolfe, Miller, and Mitchell 2003). In fact, given their increased needs for immune function and healing, it appears that seniors require up to $1 \text{ g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ regardless of training status. With whole-body resistance training they may need even more protein to allow for adequate nitrogen availability. Protein requirements increase with whole-body programs (Chernoff 2004; Evans 2001). Thus, when muscle hypertrophy are factored in, adequate protein intake may exceed the recommended of $0.8 \text{ g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ (Campbell and Evans 1996; Campbell et al. 2001).

Subjects who consumed a supplement containing protein, carbohydrate, vitamin, and fat (accounting for an additional 8 kilocalories and 0.33 grams of protein per kilogram mass per day) during a 12-week resistance training study showed a greater increase in muscle mass than those who did not receive supplementation (Meredith et al. 1992). It has also been shown that protein supplementation before and after a workout (nutrient timing) optimizes protein accretion for both younger and older people (Esmarck et al. 2001). Whether through supplementation or diet, adequate protein intake is an important factor in health and for optimal adaptation of the neuromuscular system when seniors perform resistance training.

Campbell, W.W., and Evans, W.J. 1996. Protein requirements of elderly people. *European Journal of Applied Physiology* 73: 519-529.

Summary

Resistance training can be safely and successfully implemented in older populations. Even frail and very sick elderly can gain benefits that positively affect their quality of life. Muscle mass and power carries over into the enhanced performance of everyday activities and quality of life, affecting a long list of physiological characteristics, especially in muscle, bone, and connective tissue. Some of the findings in this chapter challenge common beliefs that power training and traditional resistance training are inappropriate for elderly people. Traditional resistance training and power training for this population are appropriate as long as the program is properly designed, supervised, and appropriately accounts for individual characteristics, such as clinical conditions and social, psychological, and economic factors.

Women and Resistance Training

After studying this chapter, you should be able to

1. understand the performance differences between men and women,
2. identify sex differences between men and women in upper- and lower-body strength, both a relative and absolute perspective,
3. understand sex differences related to hormonal function and response to exercise,
4. identify the key sex differences between men and women in muscle fiber composition,
5. understand the effects of different resistance training programs for women,
6. understand the different phases of the menstrual cycle and factors related to menstrual dysfunction.

Women of all ages have realized the benefits of resistance exercise and an overall active lifestyle. Resistance exercise is common among women, particularly those who are fitness enthusiasts, soldiers, and other tactical professionals (e.g., police officers and firefighters). Whether for health and fitness benefits or strength, power, and performance (or both), resistance training is a necessary component of a total conditioning program (see figure 9.1).

This chapter addresses an array of issues related to training for women. With few exceptions, women can perform almost identical programs as men because few major sex differences exist that affect resistance training program design. Women experience the same physiological acute and chronic responses to resistance training as men.

Physiological and Performance Differences Between Men and Women

The sex differences between men and women are often obvious. Underscoring a fundamental fact of biology is the presence of testosterone on muscle cells during development along with the androgenic effects of testosterone on both boys and girls as they mature. These differences in physiological responses lead to performance differences related to strength and power. Even at the highest level of training, men are superior in weightlifting and powerlifting for body weight classification. Women are superior than men in lifting performance relative to body weight.

Differences in Muscle Fiber Size, Type, and Composition

Prior to describing the sex differences in performance parameters (strength and endurance) between men and women, it is important to understand any underlying differences in muscle fiber characteristics. First, although men and women both possess the same types of muscle fibers, some of the characteristics might be different in some comparisons. In addition, from person to the next, muscle fiber characteristics vary according to total muscle and muscle fiber size.

Body Composition

Body composition changes are a goal of many women and men performing resistance training. Increases in fat-free mass and decreases in percent body fat from short-term (8 to 20 weeks) resistance training programs are of the same magnitude in both sexes. Men and women performing identical short-term weight training programs have both shown significant decreases in percent body fat with no significant difference shown between the sexes (Staron et al. 2000). It has also been reported that both sexes show a significant increase in fat-free mass and no change in percent body fat when performing the identical weight training program for 24 weeks (Lemmer et al. 2001). In this study only men showed a significant reduction in fat mass, indicating that women may have a more difficult time losing body fat during resistance training.

Body composition changes in various regions of the body after training may also be an important consideration in women (Nindl et al. 2000). After six months of performing a periodized weight training program and endurance training exercise, women showed a 31% loss in fat mass with no change in lean mass in the arms. They also showed a 5.5% gain in lean mass in the legs, but no change in fat mass. These results indicate that women may have more difficulty increasing lean mass in the upper body than in the lower body. However, other data dramatically contradict this assertion. After performing several weight training programs for six months, untrained women demonstrated upper-arm muscle cross-sectional area increases from approximately 15 to 19% and increases in thigh muscle cross-sectional area from approximately 5 to 9% (Kraemer et al. 2004). This indicates that the upper-arm musculature undergoes greater hypertrophy than the thigh (again, see figure 9.8).

This conclusion is supported by another report of increased lean tissue in the upper but not

Women's Hormones to Resistance

The acute and chronic hormonal response to resistance training affects the environment to which muscles are exposed. This is true for both sexes as they gain muscle size and strength from resistance training. When interpreting the response to training, the phase of the menstrual cycle must be considered. Hormone concentrations can vary throughout the phase of the menstrual cycle. It should be remembered that a low concentration of a hormone does not necessarily mean the hormone does not have an active role in a bodily function or process. Hormones at low concentrations can still bind to receptors, higher rates of binding with receptors, higher rates of activation, and possible effect of a low hormone concentration are discussed in box 9.1.

Testosterone

At rest, men normally have higher testosterone in circulation than women (Lemmer et al. 1991; Vingren et al. 2008). This may account in part for the greater muscle mass of men compared to women. Testosterone affects the developmental signaling pathway to make protein, and it is involved in cell-signaling processes in muscle, including satellite cells and neurons (see chapter 3). Testosterone release and its effects on exercise depend on several factors, including amount of muscle mass activated, intensity of the acute program, and volume of exercise (Fragala et al. 2011a; Kraemer et al. 2004).

Even though the resting concentrations of women are low, they can experience small changes in their



BOX 9.2 RESEARCH

The Role of Estradiol in Exercise-Induced Endocrine R

Compared to men, women have an attenuated inflammatory response to muscle fatigue more slowly than men do in response to acute exercise stress (Fragala et al., 2015). These differences are generally in part attributed to sex-specific circulating hormones: estradiol in women and testosterone in men. In women, estradiol functions as an antioxidant and membrane stabilizer during exercise, particularly exercise that induces high levels of oxidative stress, such as intense aerobic and resistance exercise. The protective role of estradiol is a primary factor in mitigating muscle damage due to exercise stress and is evident in the attenuated inflammatory response seen in women. Even at rest, women have lower levels of creatine kinase, one of the most commonly measured markers of muscle damage, in the blood compared to men. Although estradiol response to resistance exercise must be further researched, the protective role of estradiol indicates that it has important implications for women in terms of recovery and performance.

Performance During the Menstrual Cycle and Menstrual Problems

Lebrun (1994) noted little or no difference in aerobic and anaerobic performance at various times during the menstrual cycle. No differences in anaerobic capacity were seen between the midluteal and midfollicular phases with cycle sprint (Shaharudin, Ghosh, and Ismail 2011). However, decrements in performance during the premenstrual or menstrual phase have been shown; the best performances occur during the immediate postmenstrual period and the 15th day of the menstrual cycle (Allsen, Parsons, and Bryce 1977; Doolittle and Engebretsen 1972; Lebrun 1994). Likewise, peak power, anaerobic capacity, and fatigue rate (Wingate test) have been shown to be negatively affected during the follicular phase compared to the luteal phase (Masterson 1999). Individual variations in the effects of menstrual cycle phase on performance can be substantial; some athletes even notice an improvement in performance during menstruation (Lebrun 1994).

Reasons for decreased performance during the premenstrual or menstrual phase may be associated with many factors, including self-expectancies, negative attitudes toward menstruation, and weight gain. Although the effect of controlling premenstrual symptoms and dysmenorrhea with oral contraceptives is unclear, some anecdotal and retrospective studies have reported increases in performance with the use of oral contraceptives (Lebrun 1994). The possible detrimental effect on athletic performance of premenstrual symptoms or dysmenorrhea has led some researchers to recommend the use of oral contraceptives (



BOX 9.3 PRACTICAL QUESTION

Can Strength Training Be Beneficial to Menopausal Women?

With an increasing life span, more females are living longer after menopause. Menopause is associated with many physiological changes that increase the risk of many diseases, such as diabetes, osteoporosis, and hypertension as well as changes in body composition. Diet and exercise are recommended to help manage these changes. Menopause is associated with sarcopenia and osteopenia (Leite et al. 2010). While resistance training has been shown to increase bone and muscle mass as well as strength, it is not clear if it is to be an appropriate treatment for some of the changes that occur during menopause. Despite the potential benefits, studies examining the effects of resistance training in postmenopausal women are lacking. Studies are needed for elucidating the precise molecular and cellular mechanisms that lead to the negative responses of the body during menopause, and to determine the optimal response for the prescription of resistance training for menopausal women.



BOX 9.4 PRACTICAL QUESTION

Can Strength Training Reduce the Risk of Knee Injuries in Women?

When quadriceps strength is significantly greater than the strength of the hamstrings, the anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) becomes more susceptible to injury. The ACL is responsible for preventing anterior translation of the tibia on the femur. If the quadriceps are stronger than the hamstrings, the ACL can produce more anterior translation than the hamstrings and ACL can tolerate. Therefore, increasing the strength of the hamstrings in relation to the quadriceps can reduce the risk of ACL injury in women.

Six weeks of emphasizing hamstring-strengthening exercises in the strength training of 12 NCAA Division I female soccer players showed a possible reduction of knee injury risk. In addition to other strength and conditioning exercises, the straight-leg deadlift, good morning, hamstring hyperextension, resistance machine single-leg curl, resisted sled walking, and exercise ball hamstring curls were performed twice per week. All of these exercises involve the hamstring muscles. After the six weeks of training the functional ratio increased from 0.96 to 1.08 (Holmes et al. 2008). Functional ratio was calculated as eccentric hamstring isokinetic torque divided by quadriceps isokinetic torque. This ratio when greater than 1.0 indicates a decrease in the risk of ACL injury (Li et al. 1996). Therefore, strength training may be beneficial in reducing ACL injuries, which are particularly common in females.

Summary

Although women's absolute strength is lower than men's, the difference is greatly reduced when expressed relative to fat-free muscle cross-sectional area. Women's lower strength relative to fat-free mass is more evident in the upper body than in the lower body. Women's adaptations to resistance training programs are generally similar to men's for some variables. This emphasizes that, in general, resistance training programs for women do not need to be different from those for men, except that the absolute resistance used by women will be less. A focus on the use of more upper-body exercises to stimulate and maximize the use of available motor units might be one important aspect to optimize upper-body development. In addition, the use of periodized training programs is paramount to ensure long-term resistance training adherence and adaptational effectiveness.

In most cases, physical activity has beneficial impacts on the menstrual cycle and premenstrual syndrome in women. Menstrual irregularities such as amenorrhea may be more prevalent in women performing strenuous activity than in the general population, particularly in sports emphasizing low lean body mass and subjective scoring. These menstrual irregularities typically result from an energy imbalance and may be associated with the female athlete triad of amenorrhea, disordered eating, and osteoporosis. In the case of disordered eating, screening for eating disorders and appropriate medical follow-up, if necessary, is essential. Once the energy level is restored, menstrual anomalies typically disappear and bone density often improves, although the person should be monitored.