1 Title Page

2	A 9-month	Jumping	Intervention	to	Improve	Bone	Geometry	in	Adolescent	Male
3	Athletes									

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21 JUMPING, SPORTS.

22 ABSTRACT

Purpose: Weight-bearing and non weight-bearing sports have different effects on bone 23 geometry during growth and there is need to identify effective interventions to improve bone 24 geometry of adolescent athletes. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of a 9-25 month jumping intervention on bone geometry and metabolism in adolescent male athletes 26 Methods: Nighty three adolescent (14.1 years old) male swimmers (SWI), footballers (FOO) 27 and cyclists (CYC) were randomized to an intervention and sport (INT-SWI=19, INT-28 FOO=15, INT-CYC=14) or sport only control (CON-SWI =18, CON-FOO =15, CON-CYC 29 =12) groups. Cross-sectional area (CSA), cross-sectional moment of inertia (CSMI) and 30 section modulus (Z) at the femoral neck were assessed using hip structural analysis, and 31 trabecular texture of the lumbar spine using trabecular bone score (TBS). Bone mineral content 32 33 (BMC) at femoral neck and lumbar spine was assessed using dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry. Serum N-terminal propeptide of procollagen type I (PINP), isomer of the Carboxi-terminal 34 telopeptide of type 1 collagen (CTX-I), total serum calcium and 25 hydroxyvitamin D 35 [25(OH)D] were analysed. **Results:** INT-CYC gained significantly higher lumbar spine BMC 36 (4.6%) and femoral neck BMC (9.8%) than CON-CYC. INT-CYC gained significantly higher 37 CSA (11.0 %), CSMI (10.1 %) and TBS (4.4 %) than CON-CYC. INT-SWI gained 38 significantly higher femoral neck BMC (6.0 %) and CSMI (10.9 %) than CON-SWI. There 39 were no significant differences between INT-FOO and CON-FOO in any bone outcomes. PINP 40 significantly decreased in CON-SWI, INT-FOO, CON-FOO and CON-CYC. CTX-I 41 significantly decreased in CON-SWI and CON-CYC. 25(OH)D significantly increased in INT-42 CYC, CON-CYC, INT-FOO and CON-FOO. Conclusions: A 9-month jumping intervention 43 improved bone outcomes in adolescent swimmers and cyclists, but not in footballers. This 44 intervention might be used by sports clubs to improve bone health of adolescent athletes. 45

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47 INTRODUCTION

Exercise during childhood and adolescence can improve bone mineral content (BMC) and areal 48 bone mineral density (aBMD) with benefits maintained into adulthood (1). Low bone mass 49 during adolescence is associated with increased fracture risk and osteoporosis later in life (2, 50 3). The adolescent years are critical for bone development with up to 43 % of peak bone mass 51 acquired during the 5-year period surrounding peak height velocity (PHV) (4). Bone 52 acquisition depends on the ground reaction forces applied to the skeleton and the muscular 53 contractions produced during exercise (5), therefore not all the types of sport can improve bone 54 geometry and structure (6, 7). 55 Previous evidence indicates that weight-bearing sports, such us football, have higher aBMD 56 57 and BMC at the loaded sites of the skeleton compared to non-weight bearing sports, such as cycling and swimming (8-10). Prolonged participation in non-weight-bearing sports, such as 58 swimming and cycling, may have a negative or no impact on bone status compared to controls 59 (11, 12), which may compromise the achievement of a higher peak bone mass (13). As part of 60 the cross-sectional analysis of the PRO-BONE study we have recently shown that footballers 61 had significantly higher bone outcomes compared to swimming and cycling participation in 62 adolescent males at baseline (10). Additionally, we followed the adolescent athletes for 12 63 months and found that cyclists and swimmers had lower bone BMC (14) and bone geometry 64 (15) compared to footballers after controlling for baseline bone outcomes, lean mass, age, 65 height and moderate to vigorous physical activity. Collectively, these studies highlight the need 66 to improve bone development of athletes involved in non-weight-bearing sports, such as 67 swimming and cycling. 68 69 Football, cycling and swimming are among the most popular sports worldwide for adolescents,

however there is currently no evidence on the effectiveness of interventions to improve bone
 mineralization in athletes during this period of life. Previous intervention studies were

conducted in the school environment (16, 17) and have shown that jumping can improve bone 72 73 outcomes in non-athletic prepubertal and pubertal children (17, 18). Adolescent footballers have been found to obtain the weight-bearing stimulus needed to optimise their bone health 74 through the sport specific weight-bearing training (10), but there is no evidence whether a 75 jumping intervention can improve further their bone health. In contrast, adolescent swimmers 76 and cyclists, despite having muscle contractions during sport specific practise, may not obtain 77 the optimal bone mineralisation during this critical period due to the lack of weight-bearing 78 stimulus in the unloaded sites of the skeleton, such as lower limbs for swimmers (11, 12). 79 80 However, it is not known whether a jumping intervention can counteract the lack of weightbearing stimulus in non-weight bearing adolescent athletes, such as swimmers and cyclists. 81

Changes in BMC and aBMD and bone area (19) due to external mechanical loading can be 82 measured by dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA), but adaptations in strength, structure 83 84 and geometry during growth or following an intervention such as jumping, may not be detected due to the two dimensional nature of DXA (20). However, there are studies using techniques 85 such as hip structural analysis (HSA) to assess bone geometry estimates, such as cross-sectional 86 area (CSA), cross-sectional moment of inertia (CSMI) and section modulus at the femoral neck 87 in adolescents (8). In addition, the recently developed trabecular bone score (TBS), which can 88 predict fracture risk and fragility of the lumbar spine, can provide an indirect textural index of 89 trabecular microarchitecture in the lumbar spine (21). Moreover, the assessment of bone 90 turnover and nutrition markers, such as N-terminal propeptide of procollagen type I (PINP), 91 isomer of the Carboxi-terminal telopeptide of type 1 collagen (CTX-I), total serum calcium 92 and 25 hydroxyvitamin D [25(OH)D] can provide important information about bone formation 93 and resorption in relation to the sports practised during adolescence (22). We recently found 94 95 that footballers gained significantly higher HSA and TBS outcomes compared to swimmers

and cyclists after one year of sport specific training, and footballers had significantly higherbone formation compared to both non weight-bearing sports (15).

The scope of the study was to examine the effects of a 9-month progressive jumping intervention programme on BMC, hip geometry estimates, TBS at the clinically relevant skeletal sites of lumbar spine and femoral neck, and bone turnover markers in adolescent male swimmers (SWI), footballers (FOO) and cyclists (CYC). It was hypothesised that the intervention will induce significantly positive changes on bone outcomes in swimmers and cyclists but not in footballers.

104 METHODS

105 Cohort and study design

- 106 The present 9-month randomized controlled trial intervention is the last part of the 21-month
- 107 longitudinal PRO-BONE study that consisted of three measurement points (baseline, 12-
- 108 months and 21-months), and the methodology has been described previously (23). We have
- 109 published the findings from: i) the cross-sectional differences in bone outcomes between the
- studies groups at baseline (10), ii) the longitudinally after 12 months of sport specific practise
- in bone mass (14) and geometry and metabolism (15). The present novel 9-month randomized
- 112 controlled trial jumping intervention includes bone mass and geometry outcomes at the lumbar
- spine and femoral neck and metabolism markers of the athletic groups.

The initial inclusion criteria of the study were adolescent males 12-14 years old, engaged (≥ 3 h/week) in weight-bearing (football) and/or non weight-bearing (swimming and cycling) sports in the last 3 years or more. The exclusion criteria were participation in another clinical trial, any acute infection lasting until < 1 week before inclusion, medical history of diseases or medications affecting bone metabolism or the presence of an injury (before inclusion) that may

affect participation in their respective sports and/or any variable considered in the present study 119 and non-Caucasian participants. Informed consent was obtained from all parents and 120 participants included in the study. All procedures performed in studies involving human 121 participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national 122 research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or 123 comparable ethical standards. Ethics approval received from the following committees: 1) the 124 Ethics Review Sector of Directorate-General of Research (European Commission, ref. number 125 618496); 2) the Sport and Health Sciences Ethics Committee (University of Exeter, ref. number 126 127 2014/766) and 3) the National Research Ethics Service Committee (NRES Committee South West – Cornwall & Plymouth, ref. number 14/SW/0060). For the present study, data obtained 128 at pre (autumn/winter 2015/16) and post (summer/autumn 2016) the intervention programme 129 130 (mean difference of visits = 289 days) are used. The Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) flow diagram is presented in Figure 1. A total of 93 adolescent males (14.1±1.0 131 years at PRE-intervention) completed all pre and post measurements. The sports groups were 132 simply randomized by an independent researcher into two different groups: INT and sport 133 (INT-SWI=19, INT-FOO=15, INT-CYC=14) and sport only (without any additional 134 intervention) (CON-SWI=18, CON-FOO=15, CON-CYC=12). 135

136 (Figure 1 here)

137 PRO-BONE study jumping intervention programme

The 9-month progressive jump intervention programme (~10 min/day) consisted of counter movement jumps (CMJ) and was performed by participants in the INT groups. The intervention consisted of 3 levels (12 weeks each) using adjustable weight vests (The Sports HQ, UK) and was performed on a hard surface. The intensity and the volume increased progressively by modifying the weight in the vests and the number of sets performed at each level (Level 1= 20

jumps, 0 kg, 3 sets/day, 3 times/week; Level 2= 20 jumps, 2 kg, 4 sets/day, 3 times/week; Level 143 3= 20 jumps, 5 kg, 4 sets/day, 4 times/week). A jump diary was used to record the number of 144 jumps performed at each level and was returned to the research group every 3 months. Before 145 the intervention, trained research assistants explained and demonstrated the CMJ only to INT 146 groups, and participants executed the CMJ to ensure proper technique. The CMJ was chosen 147 for the intervention as it has a high rate of change in force (493 times body weight/s) and ground 148 149 reaction forces (5 times body weight) in 8.3 - 11.7 years old boys and girls (24). The reliability and validity of the CMJ has been previously reported (25). 150

151 (Table 1 here)

152 Bone outcomes: DXA, HSA, TBS and biochemical markers

A Lunar Prodigy DXA scanner (GE Healthcare Inc., Wisconsin, USA) was used to measure 153 154 BMC (g), fat mass (g) and lean mass (g). The lumbar spine (LS, L1-L4) and bilateral proximal femora scans were used to assess BMC. All DXA scans and subsequent in-software analyses 155 were completed by the same researcher using the same Lunar Prodigy DXA scanner and the 156 enCORE software version 14.10.022 (GE Healthcare Inc, Wisconsin, USA) and following the 157 International Society of Clinical Densitometry guidelines (26). The coefficient of variation 158 (CV) was not determined in the present study, but previous paediatric studies have shown that 159 the DXA percentage CV was between 0.64 % and 1.16 % at femoral neck and lumbar spine 160 regions (27). 161

The HSA software analysed the hip scans at the narrow neck region across the narrowest point of the femoral neck. The HSA software uses the distribution of bone mineral mass in line of pixels across the bone axis to measure the structural dimensions of bone cross sections (28). The hip geometry estimates of the femoral neck were obtained and the following variables used: 1) the cross sectional area (CSA, mm²), which is the total bone surface area of the hip excluding the soft tissue area and the trabecular bone; 2) the cross-sectional moment of inertia (CSMI, mm⁴), which is an index of structural rigidity and reflects the distribution of mass in the centre of a structural element; and 3) section modulus (Z, mm³), which is an indicator of maximum bending strength in a cross section. The CVs of these variables has been reported to be between 7.9 % and 11.7 % (29).

TBS is a DXA based technological tool that provides an indirect textural index of trabecular 172 microarchitecture in the lumbar spine and has been shown to significantly predict fracture risk 173 independent of BMC (21). TBS assesses DXA images of the lumbar spine scans using a grey-174 level analysis as the slope at the origin of the log-log representation of the experimental 175 variogram (30). All TBS analyses were performed by the same trained researcher using the 176 TBS iNsight Software (Medimaps, research version 3.0, Pessac, France). The calculation was 177 performed at the lumbar spine region of interest as in the BMC measurement. The CVs of TBS 178 in relation to BMC has been reported to be 1.1 % to 1.9 % (31). 179

180 Capillary blood samples were collected in the morning of non-training weekends using heparin 181 fluoride coated microvettes (CB 300 tubes, Sarstedt Ltd, Leicester, UK) and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C. Serum samples were stored at -80°C until later analysis. Total 182 serum levels of PINP, CTX-I, 25(OH)D and total calcium were analysed. ELISA kits (Abbexa 183 Ltd., Cambridge, UK) for PINP (test range: 6-400 pg·mL⁻¹, sensitivity: 1.2 pg·mL⁻¹, inter and 184 intra-assay CVs: 8.6 % and 9.1 % respectively), CTX-I (test range: 0.1-7.0 ng·mL⁻¹, sensitivity: 185 0.03 ng·mL⁻¹, inter and intra-assay CVs: 8.3 % and 9.2 % respectively), and 25(OH)D (test 186 range: 3-80 ng·mL⁻¹, sensitivity: 1.2 ng·mL⁻¹, inter and intra-assay CVs: 6.4 % and 8.0 % 187 respectively) were used. Total calcium serum was measured using direct colorimetric assay 188 (Cayman Chemical Company, MI, U.S.A.) and had a sensitivity of 0.25 mg·dL⁻¹ and the 189 absorbance was read at 570-590 nm (inter and intra-assay CVs: 7.9 % and 9.0 % respectively). 190

191 Anthropometry and maturity status

Stature (cm) and body mass (kg) were measured by using a stadiometer (Harpenden, Holtain Ltd, Crymych, UK) and an electronic scale (Seca 877, Seca Ltd, Birmingham, UK), respectively. Somatic maturity status was assessed using predicted age at peak height velocity (PHV) which is a somatic biological maturity indicator and reflects the maximum growth velocity during adolescence. The age at PHV was predicted using age and height in validated algorithm showing how far an individual is from this maturity milestone (years from age at PHV). The coefficient of determination has been reported ($R^2 = 0.90$; standard error = 0.5) (32).

199 Physical activity and training characteristics

Physical activity was measured for seven consecutive days at PRE- and POST-intervention
using wrist accelerometers (GENEA, Cambridgeshire, UK). The validity and reliability of the
accelerometer has been established previously in children and adolescents (33). Data were
collected at 100 Hz and analysed at 1 s epoch intervals to establish time spent in MVPA using
a validated cut-point (33). Weekly training hours were obtained by face to face interviews at
PRE- and POST-intervention.

206 Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS version 21.0 for Windows (IBM Corp, New York, USA). The sample size was calculated according to achieve at least 90 % of statistical power as previously described (23). Data were checked for normality and presented as mean and standard deviation (SD). Data were analysed for each sport group separately using: 1) paired t-tests to detect mean differences in descriptive characteristics and blood marker outcomes between PRE- and POST-intervention visits, 2) one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni post hoc to detect differences in the bone outcomes and blood

markers between the intervention and the non-intervention groups of each specific sport at 214 PRE- and POST-intervention, and 3) one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with 215 Bonferroni post hoc was used after controlling for PRE bone status, change in lean mass and 216 POST maturity status (years from PHV) to detect differences between the intervention and the 217 non-intervention groups in 9-month adjusted gains (Δ BMC, Δ HSA and Δ TBS). The selection 218 of the covariates was based on relevant predictors of bone outcomes in adolescents (34-36). 219 220 Percentages of difference between the intervention and non-intervention groups were used to quantify the magnitude of the differences in adjusted bone outcome gains. Significance was set 221 222 at p<0.05.

223 **RESULTS**

224 Cohort characteristics

Table 1 shows the mean total compliance of the intervention. There were no differences 225 between the groups on the number of jumps performed. Table 2 presents the descriptive 226 227 characteristics of the participants PRE- and POST-intervention. No differences were observed in the descriptive characteristics presented at table 2 between INT and CON groups at PRE-228 and POST-intervention for each specific sport, p>0.05. The footballers reported significantly 229 higher levels of participation in plyometric training (INT-FOO= 57%, CON-FOO= 55%) 230 compared to cyclists (INT-CYC= 29%, CON-CYC= 26%) and swimmers (INT-SWI= 43%, 231 CON-SWI= 41%). In all INT groups, all variables significantly increased from PRE- and 232 POST-intervention, except fat mass in INT-CYC and MVPA in all groups. Similarly, all 233 variables significantly increased from pre to post in CON-SWI, CON-FOO and CON-CYC 234 235 except MVPA and fat mass.

236 (Table 2 here)

Bone quantity, geometry and texture

- Figure 2 shows the percentage of difference on 9-month adjusted bone change in BMC between
- the sport specific intervention and control groups. INT-CYC group gained significantly higher

240 lumbar spine BMC (4.6 %) and femoral neck BMC (9.8 %) than CON-CYC. Figure 3 shows

the percentage of difference on 9-month adjusted bone change in HSA and TBS outcomes

242 between the sport specific intervention and control groups. INT-CYC gained significantly

- higher CSA (11.0 %), CSMI (10.1 %) and TBS (4.4 %) than CON-CYC. INT-SWI gained
- significantly higher femoral neck BMC (6.0 %) and CSMI (10.9 %) than CON-SWI. There
- were no significant differences between INT-FOO and CON-FOO for any of the boneoutcomes.
- 247 (Figures 2 and 3 here)

248 Bone turnover and nutrition markers

Table 3 shows the biochemical markers of the participants PRE- and POST-intervention. Bone 249 formation, as measured by PINP, was reduced in all CON sport groups (4.4 % in SWI, 3.3%) 250 in FOO and 4.2% in CYC). Interestingly, bone formation did not decline in INT-SWI and INT-251 CYC but it slightly did in INT-FOO (1.8 %). Bone resorption, as measured by CTX-I, was 252 reduced by 3.8% in CON-SWI and CON-CYC. However, bone resorption did not vary in any 253 of the INT groups or in CON-FOO. 25(OH)D significantly increased in INT-CYC (3.1 %), 254 CON-CYC (3.7 %), INT-FOO (3.1 %) and CON-FOO (3.5 %), but not in INT-SWI and CON-255 SWI. In all groups serum calcium significantly increased from PRE- and POST-intervention. 256

257 (Table 3 here)

258 **DISCUSSION**

This is the first study to examine the effect of jumping intervention on BMC at clinically 259 relevant sites, hip geometry estimates, TBS and bone turnover markers in adolescent male 260 athletes involved in weight-bearing (football) and non weight-bearing sports (swimming and 261 cycling). The findings demonstrate that a 9-month progressive jumping intervention 262 programme can significantly improve BMC, HSA and TBS bone outcomes at the clinically 263 relevant skeletal sites of lumbar spine and femoral neck in non weight-bearing sport athletes, 264 such as swimmers and cyclists, but not in the weight-bearing sport athletes, such as footballers. 265 In addition, bone formation (PINP) was maintained in the non weight-bearing INT sport groups 266 267 while decreased in the CON non weight-bearing sport groups. Moreover, bone resorption (CTX-I) significantly decreased in the CON non weight-bearing sport groups but did not vary 268 in any of the INT groups, suggesting an increased bone turnover in these groups. 269

270 Jumping intervention effects on BMC at femoral neck and lumbar spine

Currently, there are no jumping intervention studies conducted in an athletic population to 271 272 improve bone outcomes, therefore the findings of the present study were compared with 273 jumping interventions applied in non-athletic children and adolescents (16-18). The present jumping intervention significantly improved femoral neck BMC (6.0 - 9.8 %) in INT-SWI and 274 INT-CYC compared to CON-SWI and CON-CYC, and lumbar spine BMC (4.6) % in INT-275 CYC compared to CON-CYC. Previously, an 8-month school-based jumping intervention 276 reported that non-athletic adolescent males and females gained 6.0 % higher femoral neck 277 BMC and 2.3 % higher lumbar spine BMC compared to controls (17). Also, a 7-month school-278 based jumping intervention reported that non-athletic prepubescent children had 4.5 % and 3.1 279 280 % significantly higher gains at femoral neck and lumbar spine BMC respectively compared to age-matched controls (37). The greater magnitude of improvements observed in HSA at the 281 femoral neck and TBS at lumbar spine of swimmers and cyclists in the current study may be 282 283 explained by the ability of the unloaded skeletons of the non weight-bearing groups to respond

better to the external stimulus of the jumping intervention (8). Another explanation might be 284 the longer duration of the present intervention (9 months vs 7-8 months) and the greater number 285 of jumps performed in the present study (160 vs 90 jumps per week) (18, 20) by increasing the 286 ground reaction forces applied to the skeleton progressively using the weight vests. These 287 improvements may indicate a window of opportunity to counteract the lack of weight-bearing 288 stimulus observed in adolescent swimmers and cyclists (10, 12, 38). In contrast, but consistent 289 with our hypothesis, the stimulus provided by the jumping intervention was not enough to 290 induce significant bone gains in INT-FOO compared to CON-FOO. This is in accordance with 291 292 the mechanostat theory indicating that the bones adapt their strength and content to respond to the strain caused by external physiological loads up to a certain point (39). Footballers may 293 have reached a threshold for bone improvements as we have previously shown to have greater 294 295 bone outcomes compared to swimmers and cyclists (10). However, a longer duration jumping intervention programme may be needed to improve further bone outcomes in weight-bearing 296 sports, such as football. 297

298 Jumping intervention effects on HSA and TBS outcomes

In addition to BMC adaptations, the present 9-month jumping intervention significantly 299 improved HSA and TBS bone parameters. More specifically, INT-CYC gained significantly 300 higher CSA (11.0%), CSMI (10.1%) and TBS (4.4%) compared to CON-CYC, and INT-SWI 301 gained significantly higher CSMI (10.9 %) compared to CON-SWI. Previously, only two 302 303 studies previously used HSA to describe bone geometry and structural strength adaptations from a jumping intervention in non-athletic populations (18). Petit et al (20) reported that a 7-304 305 month jumping intervention induced significantly greater increase in CSA (2.3 %) and section modulus (4.0 %) in the intervention group compared to an age-matched non-athletic control 306 group. McKay et al (18) did not find significant improvements in HSA parameters after an 8-307 308 month jumping intervention in non-athletic pubertal children, but section modulus (3.3 %) and

CSA (2.0 %) had similar magnitude of increase with the study of Petit et al. In the present 309 study, the greater improvements in bone outcomes of swimmers and cyclists compared to 310 footballers may be explained by mechanoadaptation that converts the external stimulus of the 311 jumping intervention to greater structural adaptations of previously unloaded bones (40). The 312 present study is the first to present findings on TBS adaptations after a jumping intervention in 313 adolescent athletes. Currently, there are no jumping intervention studies using TBS and only a 314 315 recent cross-sectional study in adults reported that moderate impact loading sports was associated with a lower TBS score and increased fracture risk compared to high impact loading 316 317 sports (41). The present study indicates that trabecular structure at the lumbar spine may be adapted to the forces produced from the jumping intervention after controlling for potential 318 confounders (42). The compliance in the present study was slightly lower compared to a 319 320 different study (70 % vs 80 %) (16) and this might be due to the longer duration of the present intervention (9 months vs 7 months) (16). However, the present jumping intervention had 1-2 321 months greater duration and progressive loading compared to previous studies, which might be 322 responsible for the higher gains observed. The latter is similar with a 20-month exercise 323 randomized control trial in prepubertal non-athletic males that found greater magnitude of 324 improvements in CSMI (12.3 %) and section modulus (7.4 %) in the intervention group 325 compared to age-matched controls (43). 326

327 Jumping intervention effects on biochemical markers

The analysis of biochemical markers in the present study showed that the jumping intervention prevented the significant decline of bone formation (PINP) and resorption (CTX-I) markers in INT-SWI and INT-CYC. In contrast, bone formation significantly decreased in INT-FOO and all CON-SPORT groups, and bone resorption significantly decreased in CON-SWI and CON-CYC. Previous studies have shown that bone turnover markers are associated with bone outcomes during growth and can provide additional information about bone remodelling (22).

In addition, the intensity of physical activity and the type of sports practised may be potent 334 regulators of bone remodelling (15). Recently, a study has shown that one session of plyometric 335 jumping exercises can stimulate bone formation in in boys and young men, with boy's response 336 337 to be more pronounced (44). However, there are no studies investigating the response of bone turnover markers after a longer jumping intervention in combination with clinically relevant 338 bone outcomes. The findings of the present study suggest that the cellular activity of bone 339 turnover markers (both formation and resorption) in INT-SWI and INT-CYC was protected 340 from declining due to the jumping intervention. In addition, serum calcium significantly 341 342 increased from PRE- and POST-intervention, and 25(OH)D significantly increased in INT-CYC, CON-CYC, INT-FOO and CON-FOO, but not in INT-SWI and CON-SWI. There was 343 an expected increase in serum calcium levels by age in adolescents, and the significant increase 344 345 of 25(OH)D in cyclists and footballers might be explained by the higher exposure to sunlight during training in these sports, although other parameters such as dietary intake and the 346 sampling period have been reported to affect 25(OH)D levels (45). 347

348 Strengths and limitations

The strengths of the present study include the evaluation for first time of a novel 9-month 349 progressive jumping intervention programme in adolescent athletes participating in weight-350 bearing and non weight-bearing sports. In addition, the combination of DXA, HSA, TBS and 351 biochemical markers can provide novel and clinically relevant findings regarding the bone 352 changes induced from a jumping intervention programme in adolescent male athletes. The low 353 cost and relative ease jumping programme for young athletes represents an additional strength, 354 355 and almost any sport club could implement the programme with minimal training for the coach and the athlete. The limitations of this intervention include the lack of genetic data, and the 356 unavailability of three dimensional imaging techniques to assess bone strength and structure, 357 such as peripheral quantitative computed tomography. We studied Caucasian athletes due to 358

the evidence that each ethnicity can have different bone acquisition and responses to an intervention (16, 46), which requires a larger sample size and resources. Future interventions could be conducted in more diverse population including females, other ethnic and sports groups.

363

364 CONCLUSIONS

This is the first randomized control trial to investigate the effects of a 9-month progressive jumping intervention programme on bone mass, geometry, texture and biochemical markers in adolescent male athletes. The findings indicate that the jumping intervention programme can significantly improve bone quantity, geometry and TBS bone outcomes at the femoral neck and lumbar spine, and maintain the bone turnover in adolescent male athletes involved in swimming and cycling, but not in football. The present jumping intervention programme can be implemented by non weight-bearing sports clubs and athletes to improve bone health.

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376 **Author contributions**

377 DV collected the data and drafted the manuscript. LGM designed the study and approved the 378 final manuscript as submitted. ARB and CAW coordinated and supervised data collection 379 critically reviewed the manuscript and approved the final manuscript as submitted. EUG 380 contributed to data collection and critically reviewed the manuscript, and approved the final 381 manuscript as submitted. All authors have read and approved this work.

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389 Ethical approvals

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

Ethics approval received from the following committees: 1) the Ethics Review Sector of Directorate-General of Research (European Commission, ref. number 618496); 2) the Sport and Health Sciences Ethics Committee (University of Exeter, ref. number 2014/766) and 3) the National Research Ethics Service Committee (NRES Committee South West – Cornwall &

Plymouth, ref. number 14/SW/0060).

398 List of abbreviations

399 25(OH)D: 25-hydroxyvitamin D, BMC: Areal Bone mineral content; aBMD: Bone mineral

400 density; CTX-I: Carboxi-terminal telopeptide of type 1 collagen, CON: Controls; CSA: Cross-

401 sectional area; CSMI: cross-sectional moment of inertia; CYC: Cyclists; DXA: Dual Energy

- X-Ray Absorptiometry; FOO: Footballers; HSA: Hip structural analysis, INT: Intervention;
 MVPA: Moderate to vigorous physical activity; PHV: Peak height velocity; PINP: N-terminal
- 404 propeptide of procollagen type I, TBS: SWI: Swimmers; Trabecular bone score; Z: Section
 405 modulus.
 406

407 **Conflict of interest**

- 408 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 409 The results of the study are presented clearly, honestly, and without fabrication, falsification,
- 410 or inappropriate data manipulation, and the present study do not constitute endorsement by
- 411 ACSM.

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535

536 **Figure captions**

Figure 1. PRO-BONE study flow chart. CONSORT, Consolidated Standards of ReportingTrials.

Figure 2. Nine-month adjusted changes (%) in Bone Mineral Content (BMC) at femoral neck
and lumber spine between the sport specific intervention and control groups. Results were
adjusted for baseline bone outcomes, changes in lean mass and post peak height velocity. *
denotes significant differences compared to the sport specific control group, p<0.05.

Figure 3. Nine-month adjusted changes (%) in HSA and TBS bone outcomes at PRE and POST of the jumping intervention in footballers, swimmers and cyclists. The results were adjusted for baseline bone outcomes, change in lean mass and post peak height velocity. CSMI: Cross sectional moment of inertia, CSA: cross-sectional area, TBS: Trabecular Bone score, Z: Section modulus. The figures represent unadjusted results of participants of similar peak height velocity and training hours. *denotes significant differences compared to the sport specific control group, p<0.05.

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TABLES

Table 1. PRO BOINE study plyometric jump intervention training progression and compliance.													
Level	Exercise	Vest weights	Repetitions	² Sets / day	⁴ Trainings /	Jumps /	⁵ Compliance in % and number (SD) of jumps completed						
		(kg)		("Rest)	week	week	INT-SWI	INT-FOO	INT-CYC				
1	¹ CMJ	-	20	3	3	180	90.3 %	95.3 %	91.3 %				
Total level 1	(12 weeks)				180 x 12 =	2160	1949 (204)	2059 (155)	1971 (240)				
2	¹ CMJ	2	20	4	3	240	75.0 %	83.9 %	83.1 %				
Total level 2	(12 weeks)				240 x 12 =	2880	2159 (434)	2416 (444)	2393 (454)				
3	¹ CMJ	5	20	4	4	320	46.0 %	56.8 %	47.1 %				
Total level 3 (12 weeks)					320 x 12 =	3840	1765 (298)	2181 (434)	1807 (598)				
Total intervention (36 weeks)						8880	66.0 %	75.0 %	69.5 %				
						0000	5858 (1051)	6656 (1281)	6171 (1097)				

Table 1. PRO BONE study plyometric jump intervention training progression and compliance.

¹Countermovement jump. ²Sets = 20 Counter Movement Jump. ³Rest between sets = 30 seconds. ⁴When 3 sets/day, jumps suggested to be performed in the morning before going to school (1 set) and before going to bed (1 set). When 4 sets/day, jumps performed in the morning before going to school (1 set), after school (2 sets) and before going to bed (1 set). ⁵No significant differences between the intervention groups at any level of the intervention.

		SWIM	MERS			FOOTBA	ALLERS		CYCLISTS				
TOTAL (N=105)	INTERVENTION (N=19)		CONTROL (N=18)		INTERVENTION (N=15)		CONTROL (N=15)		INTERVENTION (N=14)		CONTROL (N=12)		
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	
Age (years)	14.5 ± 0.9	15.3 ± 0.9	14.7 ± 1.1	15.4 ± 1.1	13.8 ± 1.0	14.6 ± 1.0	13.7 ± 0.8	14.5 ± 0.8	14.1 ± 1.1	14.9 ± 1.1	14.1 ± 0.9	14.9 ± 0.9	
Height (cm)	170.3 ± 10.0	174.1 ± 9.6	172.8 ± 7.6	176.0 ± 6.9	160.5 ± 11.0	165.4 ± 11.1	163.3 ± 9.3	168.9 ± 9.1	168.2 ± 10.7	174.5 ± 8.2	162.7 ± 9.7	166.4 ± 9.6	
Body mass (kg)	57.2 ± 9.0	62.6 ± 7.8	60.6 ± 7.2	63.6 ± 7.7	49.3 ± 10.8	54.8 ± 11.6	49.6 ± 7.4	55.4 ± 7.1	57.7 ± 13.0	62.6 ± 12.2	51.0 ± 12.4	55.2 ± 13.9	
Lean mass (kg)	46.7 ± 9.4	51.2 ± 8.5	48.7 ± 8.2	51.9 ± 6.7	41.5 ± 10.0	46.1 ± 10.5	39.6 ± 7.4	44.9 ± 7.2	45.0 ± 7.9	49.5 ± 7.6	40.3 ± 8.6	44.0 ± 9.2	
Fat mass (kg)	7.6 ± 3.1	8.5 ± 2.9	8.2 ± 3.4	8.7 ± 3.8	5.4 ± 2.2	6.1 ± 2.3	7.1 ± 2.3	7.6 ± 3.5	9.9 ± 9.7	10.0 ± 9.7	8.1 ± 5.5	8.3 ± 6.5	
Years from PHV	1.0 ± 1.0	1.7 ± 1.0	1.2 ± 1.0	1.8 ± 0.9	0.0 ± 1.0	0.7 ± 1.0	0.1 ± 0.8	0.9 ± 0.8	0.7 ± 1.1	1.4 ± 1.0	0.3 ± 0.9	1.0 ± 1.0	
Maturation (I/II/III/ IV/V) (%)	<mark>(10/10/10</mark> /50/20)	<mark>(0/0/11</mark> /52/37)	<mark>(0/11/16</mark> /47/26)	<mark>(0/0/6</mark> <mark>/61/33)</mark>	<mark>(10/10/4</mark> <mark>3/37/0)</mark>	<mark>(0/13/13</mark> /40/34)	(0/22/28 /50/0)	<mark>(0/7/27</mark> <mark>/40/27)</mark>	<mark>(7/7/20</mark> /53/13)	<mark>(0/0/14</mark> /43/43)	<mark>(8/15/8</mark> <mark>/61/8)</mark>	<mark>(0/8/17</mark> /42/33)	
MVPA (min/day)	61.3 ± 19.6	67.5 ± 19.6	59.6 ± 25.2	60.0 ± 18.1	97.7 ± 18.8	83.3 ± 18.5	89.6 ± 33.5	76.3 ± 22.4	85.6 ± 22.1	93.9 ± 15.7	88.9 ± 21.8	78.7 ± 13.4	
Training volume (hrs/week)	7.9 ± 3.6	11.8 ± 5.4	10.2 ± 3.1	12.9 ± 5.4	10.2 ± 1.2	12.0 ± 2.8	8.8± 2.0	10.7 ± 1.8	5.3 ± 2.0	7.9 ± 3.8	5.3 ± 1.6	8.2 ± 2.8	
Energy intake (kcal/day)	2534 ± 382	2465 ± 221	2603 ± 425	2386 ± 133	2237 ± 517	$\begin{array}{c} 2379 \pm \\ 262 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2419 \pm \\ 620 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2309 \pm \\ 234 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2320 \pm \\ 280 \end{array}$	2244 ± 166	2221 ± 325	2226 ± 152	
Protein intake (g/day)	85.8± 30.9	89.8±31.2	77.9 ± 28.5	82.8 ± 24.8	95.3 ± 21.6	97.1 ± 29.3	92.0 ± 35.3	90.1 ± 20.4	80.3 ± 13.3	88.0 ± 23.0	84.9 ± 28.9	86.4 ± 21.1	
intake (mg/day)	$\begin{array}{c} 1237 \pm \\ 280 \end{array}$	1118 ± 289	1155 ± 257	1109 ± 189	$\begin{array}{c} 1342 \pm \\ 350 \end{array}$	1231 ± 167	1177 ± 378	1179 ± 178	1183 ± 370	1253 ± 196	$\begin{array}{c} 1385 \pm \\ 280 \end{array}$	1279 ± 149	

Table 2. Characteristics of the sports groups and the control group before (PRE) and after (POST) the 9-month intervention programme.

Values are mean \pm standard deviation. No differences observed at PRE and POST between INT and CON groups of each specific sport, p>0.05. Bold values denote significant different values between PRE and POST, p<0.05. MVPA: Moderate to vigorous physical activity; PHV: peak height velocity.

		SWIM	IMERS			FOOTB	ALLERS		CYCLISTS			
TOTAL (N=105)	INTERVENTION (N=19)		CONTROL (N=18)		INTERVENTION (N=15)		CONTROL (N=15)		INTERVENTION (N=14)		CONTROL (N=12)	
	PRE	9-month adjusted gains Δ (95% CI)	PRE	9-month adjusted gains Δ (95% CI)	PRE	9-month adjusted gains Δ (95% CI)	PRE	9-month adjusted gains Δ (95% CI)	PRE	9-month adjusted gains Δ (95% CI)	PRE	9-month adjusted gains Δ (95% CI)
TBLH	1892 ±	322	1952 ±	251	1730 ±	386	1769 ±	325	1848 ±	341	1582 ±	203
BMC	339	(276-368)	325	(203-300)	479	(335-438)	398	(274-377)	379	(290-394)	401	(145-260)
Legs	888 ±	141	922 ±	95	877 ±	150	886 ±	131	899 ±	148	759 ±	87
BMC	147	(124-159)	135	(77-114)	246	(130-170)	201	(111-150)	170	(129-168)	168	(65-109)
Arms	290 ±	44	303 ±	40	226 ±	46	228 ±	48	271 ±	49	233 ±	40
BMC	68	(37-51)	67	(33-47)	76	(38-53)	61	(41-56)	68	(40-56)	74	(32-48)
Bone	95.9 ±	10.3	94.5 ±	-1.8	104.4 ±	15.3	105.7 ± 12.4	10.9	95.6±	9.5	93.6 ±	-2.2
stiffness	12.0	(7.2-13.5)	16.3	(-5.1-1.6)	11.9	(11.6-8.9)		(7.2-14.6)	15.6	(5.9-13.1)	14	(-6.0-1.7)
Raw values at PRE are mean \pm standard deviation. Values at 9-month were adjusted for pre bone values, change in lean mass and post peak height velocity, and presented as mean and 95% CI. BMC: Bone mineral content, TBLH: Total body less head. No differences observed in bone outcomes at PRE between INT and CON groups of each specific sport, p>0.05. Bold values denote significant higher adjusted bone gains between the intervention and control group of each specific sport, p<0.05.												

Table 3. PRE and 9-month adjusted gain in bone mineral content (BMC, g) and bone stiffness of the intervention and control groups.

Table 4. Physical fitness measurements of the sports groups and the control group before (PRE) and after (POST) the 9-month intervention programme.

		SWIM	IMERS			FOOTBA	ALLERS		CYCLISTS				
TOTAL (N=105)	INTERVENTION (N=19)		CONTROL (N=18)		INTERVENTION (N=15)		CONTROL (N=15)		INTERVENTION (N=14)		CONTROL (N=12)		
	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	PRE	POST	
Counter movement jump (cm)	46.8 ± 7.2	<mark>49.9 ±</mark> 7.7*	46.5 ± 9.4	45.9 ± 8.8	45.3 ± 6.1	47.5 ± 5.7	41.7 ± 5.8	43.4 ± 6.4	42.7 ± 5.9	45.9 ± 5.3*	45.4 ± 7.8	46.1 ± 8.0	
Standing Long Jump (cm)	195.8± 27.8	203.1 ± 27.9	191.1 ± 27.7	194.7± 28.1	188.1± 24.9	194.6 ± 23.4	184.1 ± 21.2	191.7±22.3	173.8± 34.1	182.9 ± 31.8	180.7±24.5	185.3 ± 28.4	
20mSRT (shuttles)	79.2 ± 17.6	85.7 ± 17.3	74.2 ± 24.4	76.1 ± 18.0	94.5 ± 14.4	98.3 ± 16.1	92.0 ± 21.9	94.9 ± 25.0	82.4 ± 24.2	88.5 ± 22.6	82.8 ± 19.2	85.6±25.1	

20mSRT: 20meter shuttle run test. Values are mean \pm standard deviation. No differences observed at PRE and POST between INT and CON groups of each specific sport, p>0.05. Bold values denote significant different values between PRE and POST, p<0.05. * denote significant higher 9-month increase in CMJ of the INT group compared to the CON group of the specific sport, p<0.05.

Table 4. Physical fitness measurements of the sports groups and the control group before (PRE) and after (POST) the 9-month intervention programme.

		SWIM	IMERS			FOOTBA	ALLERS		CYCLISTS			
TOTAL (N=105)	INTERVENTION (N=19)		CONTROL (N=18)		INTERVENTION (N=15)		CONTROL (N=15)		INTERVENTION (N=14)		CONTROL (N=12)	
	PRE	9-month change	PRE	9-month change	PRE	9-month change	PRE	9-month change	PRE	9-month change	PRE	9-month change
Counter movement jump (cm)	46.8 ± 7.2	<mark>3.1 ±</mark> 0.4*	46.5 ± 9.4	-0.6 ± 0.3	45.3 ± 6.1	2.2 ± 0.3	41.7 ± 5.8	1.7 ± 0.5	42.7 ± 5.9	<mark>3.2 ±</mark> 0.6*	45.4± 7.8	0.7 ± 0.4
Long Jump (cm)	195.8± 27.8	7.3 ± 1.8	191.1 ± 27.7	3.6 ± 2.0	188.1 ± 24.9	6.5 ± 2.6	184.1 ± 21.2	7.6±3.8	173.8± 34.1	9.1 ± 2.2	180.7±24.5	4.6 ± 3.6
20mSRT (shuttles)	79.2 ± 17.6	6.5 ± 1.7	74.2 ± 24.4	1.9 ± 1.4	94.5 ± 14.4	3.8 ± 1.3	92.0 ± 21.9	2.9 ± 1.6	82.4 ± 24.2	6.1 ± 1.0	82.8 ± 19.2	2.8 ± 1.6

20mSRT: 20meter shuttle run test. Values are mean \pm standard deviation. No differences observed at PRE between INT and CON groups of each specific sport, p>0.05. Bold <u>values letters</u> denote significant differents values between PRE and POST, p<0.05. * denotes a significant higher 9 month increase in CML of the INT group compared to the CON group of the specific sport, p<0.05.







Figure 2. Adjusted percent change on Bone Mineral Content (BMC, g) and Quantitative Ultrasound (QUS) in the intervention groups over control groups. Results were adjusted for initial bone outcomes, change in lean mass and post peak height velocity. Superscript * denotes significant higher change compared to the sport specific control group, p<0.05.