

1 **Inducing hypertrophic effects of type I skeletal muscle fibers: A hypothetical role of time**
2 **under load in resistance training aimed at muscular hypertrophy**

3

4 Jozo Grgic¹ Jan Homolak² Pavle Mikulic³ Javier Botella¹ Brad J. Schoenfeld⁴

5 ¹Institute of Sport, Exercise and Active Living (ISEAL), Victoria University, Melbourne,
6 Australia

7 ²School of Medicine, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

8 ³Faculty of Kinesiology, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

9 ⁴Department of Health Sciences, CUNY Lehman College, Bronx, NY, USA

10

11

12

13 **Word count:** 2054 words

14

15 **Corresponding Author**

16 **Jozo Grgic**

17 Institute of Sport, Exercise and Active Living (ISEAL), Victoria University, Melbourne,
18 Australia

19 **E-Mail:** jozo.grgic@live.vu.edu.au

20

21 **Abstract**

22 An emerging body of evidence is starting to suggest that the hypertrophy of skeletal
23 muscle fibers might be load specific. In other words, it may be that resistance training with
24 high loads (i.e., $\geq 60\%$ of 1 repetition maximum [RM]) emphasizes a greater growth of type II
25 muscle fibers, while resistance training with low loads (i.e., $< 60\%$ of 1RM) might primarily
26 augment hypertrophy of type I muscle fibers. Type I and type II muscle fibers possess certain
27 distinct characteristics, with type II muscle fibers having faster calcium kinetics, faster
28 shortening velocities, and ability to generate more power than type I muscle fibers.
29 Alternatively, compared to type II fibers, type I muscle fibers have a higher oxidative capacity
30 and a higher fatigue threshold. Due to the lower fatigability of type I muscle fibers, it may be
31 hypothesized that a greater time under load is necessary to stimulate an accentuated growth of
32 these fibers. An increase in time under load can be achieved when training with lower loads
33 (e.g., 30% of 1RM) and to momentary muscular failure. The present paper discusses the
34 hypothesis that a greater hypertrophy of type I muscle fibers may be induced with low load
35 resistance training.

36

37

38

39 **Introduction**

40 Resistance training is a popular form of physical exercise in people across all age
41 groups. It is commonly performed with a goal of achieving skeletal muscle hypertrophy.
42 Current guidelines state that, within a structured resistance training session, loads that
43 correspond to 70-85% of 1 repetition maximum (RM) are necessary for achieving skeletal
44 muscle hypertrophy [1]. However, recent evidence suggests that, provided a set is performed
45 to momentary muscular failure, skeletal muscle hypertrophy can be achieved across a broad
46 range of loading zones [2].

47 The findings mentioned above have been observed in studies that used different
48 methods for assessing muscular hypertrophy, including ultrasound, magnetic resonance
49 imaging, and computed tomography [2]. In contrast to these methods, muscular hypertrophy
50 can also be assessed using muscle biopsy sampling. This approach allows for differentiation
51 of various types of muscle fibers, most commonly identified as type I and type II muscle
52 fibers (in human skeletal muscle further divided to type IIa and IIx muscle fibers); adding
53 more information about the specificity of hypertrophy across the muscle fibers. It is often
54 purported that type II muscle fibers have a greater hypertrophic potential with resistance
55 training [3]. However, an emerging body of evidence suggests that the hypertrophy of muscle
56 fibers may be load specific. In other words, it might be that training with higher loads (i.e.,
57 $\geq 60\%$ of 1RM) results in greater growth of type II muscle fibers, while training with lower
58 loads (i.e., $< 60\%$ of 1RM) might primarily augment hypertrophy in type I muscle fibers [4, 5].
59 The present paper discusses the hypothesis that greater hypertrophy of type I muscle fibers
60 may be induced with low load resistance training.

61

62 **Physiological differences between type I and type II muscle fibers**

63 It is important to note that type I and type II muscle fibers possess certain distinct
64 features, with type II muscle fibers having faster calcium kinetics, faster shortening velocities,
65 and ability to generate more power than type I muscle fibers [6]. Alternatively, compared to
66 type II fibers, type I muscle fibers have a higher oxidative capacity and a higher fatigue
67 threshold. Because methods for studying muscular hypertrophy primarily focused on heavier
68 loading schemes, the data important for understanding the physiology of hypertrophy in type I
69 muscle fibers are scarce and difficult to interpret.

70 Changes in skeletal muscle growth are the result of changes in the balance between
71 protein synthesis and protein degradation. Muscle fibers with high oxidative metabolism (i.e.,
72 type I muscle fibers) also have a substantial capacity for protein synthesis; one of the factors
73 important for muscular hypertrophy [7]. In human skeletal muscle, protein synthesis rates and
74 total ribonucleic acid (RNA) content correlate with the abundance of type I myosin heavy
75 chain (MHC) mRNA and are inversely correlated with the expression of MHC II [7, 8].
76 Muscle fibers with higher oxidative capacity also show a high rate of amino acid uptake [9].
77 Moreover, oxidative fibers contain more myonuclei per volume cytoplasm, a greater
78 percentage of myonuclei that belong to satellite cells and a higher rate of addition of new
79 myonuclei through nuclear accretion. These are all important factors in the process of
80 muscular hypertrophy [7, 10].

81 The above discussed anabolic-related factors point to type I muscle fibers as having
82 significant hypertrophic potential. Despite this modestly increased protein synthesis capacity,
83 protein degradation mechanisms, such as autophagy, are known to be increased in the
84 oxidative fibers [7]. This is supported by findings that cathepsins, important factors in
85 lysosomal proteolysis that are usually abundant in tissues with high protein turnover, are
86 present in higher concentrations in muscle fibers with a high oxidative capacity [11, 12]. Due
87 to a greater oxidative capacity of type I muscle fibers, higher accumulation of reactive oxygen

88 species and metabolites are expected to occur, lowering the biological potential for
89 hypertrophy due to activation of the pathways responsible for the protein degradation, acting
90 as a quality control system [13, 14]. The high rate of protein turnover present in type I muscle
91 fibers reflects the high adaptive potential of the tissue. In the context of hypertrophy, future
92 research should focus on stimuli that upregulate the protein synthesis machinery without
93 largely increasing protein degradation, which in turn would facilitate a net increase in protein
94 aggregation.

95 The body of knowledge on molecular pathways mediating skeletal muscle hypertrophy
96 is considerable, and it is now known that the mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) is the
97 master kinase controlling the protein synthesis pathway [15]. Furthermore, protein
98 degradation is known to be promoted by the energy sensor AMP-activated protein kinase
99 (AMPK) [16]. Multiple proteins have been involved in the interaction between these
100 pathways; however, the current knowledge is still insufficient to provide a clear answer to the
101 intriguing question of fiber-type differences in the regulation of hypertrophic adaptability.
102 Nonetheless, it can be hypothesized that a different stimulus might be needed to elicit a
103 maximal hypertrophic response in different types of muscle fibers due to the nature of their
104 machinery. Recent evidence seems to support this hypothesis, pointing towards preferential
105 hypertrophy of type I muscle fibers when resistance training is carried out with low loads. The
106 molecular pathways underlying this adaptation are still poorly understood, although they
107 already captured the attention of some scientists [17]. If this hypothesis is confirmed, further
108 investigation of molecular pathways regulating hypertrophy in type I muscle fibers following
109 low load resistance training will provide a valuable piece of the physiological puzzle.

110

111 **Time under load**

112 There is evidence that aerobic exercise, specifically cycling, leads to type I, but not
113 type II muscle fiber hypertrophy, and that this effect is independent of age [18, 19]. These
114 findings are specific to aerobic exercise; however, they do suggest that longer-duration
115 activities with a prolonged loading time on the activated muscle, may predominantly result in
116 hypertrophy of type I muscle fibers (i.e., muscle fibers with a lower fatigability). Therefore, in
117 resistance training, it can be hypothesized that a greater time under load (TUL) is necessary to
118 stimulate an accentuated growth of these fibers [20, 21]. In this regard, training with low
119 loads will necessarily result in a greater TUL compared to high load training given that
120 repetition duration is controlled between conditions. For example, a low load set of 20 RM
121 performed with a 3-second repetition duration would result in a TUL of 60 seconds; a higher
122 load set of 8 RM performed with the same repetition duration would last just 24 seconds.
123 Conceivably, the longer TUL in the lower load condition would provide a superior growth
124 stimulus to type I fibers by taxing their endurance capacity. Research by Lamas and
125 colleagues [22] provides intriguing findings in this context. They compared two groups, of
126 which one performed high load training (4-10 RM), while the other group performed a power-
127 type training routine consisting of loads in the 30-60% of 1RM range, performed for 6-8
128 repetitions. Both groups were instructed to perform each repetition at maximum speed
129 through both the concentric and eccentric phases. Following the 8-week training period, the
130 high load group experienced an increase in the cross-sectional area of type I, type IIa and type
131 IIx muscle fibers by 15%, 18%, and 41%, respectively. In contrast, the low load, power
132 training group, increased the cross-sectional area of type IIa and type IIx muscle fibers by
133 15% and 19%, respectively. However, type I muscle fibers in this group experienced atrophy
134 following the training intervention and decreased in size by 5%. By observing the training
135 protocol, it is evident that TUL in the power group was around 10-15 seconds per set, which
136 may be inadequate to induce sufficient muscular fatigue, and thus hypertrophy of type I

137 muscle fibers. This would, at least in part, explain the reasons for the lack of growth of type I
138 muscle fibers in the power-type training group.

139 Vinogradova and colleagues [4] also compared the effects of high and low load
140 resistance training; however, in contrast to Lamas et al. [22], they used a protocol in which the
141 low load group performed sets with loads corresponding to 50% of 1RM without relaxation
142 (i.e., with continuous maintenance of muscle tension), whereby the total duration of sets was
143 50–60 seconds. The high load group used a load corresponding to 80-85% of 1RM. The
144 researchers reported that a greater growth of type I muscle fibers occurred in the low load
145 group while a greater growth of type II muscle fibers occurred in the high load group. Using a
146 similar protocol, Natreba and colleagues [5] observed the same results in 14 untrained men,
147 which further supports the notion that TUL may be an important variable for inducing a
148 greater growth of type I muscle fibers.

149 Despite the suggested benefits of using low loads regarding hypertrophy of type I
150 muscle fibers, it is possible that, when the load is too low, it may be difficult to maximize
151 peripheral fatigue with resistance training [23-26]. This effect was shown in a study by
152 Mackey and colleagues [27]. The researchers employed a protocol in which the low load
153 group trained with 15% of 1RM for ten sets of 36 repetitions. Albeit TUL was high, the
154 protocol was insufficient to induce significant hypertrophic effects in type I and type II
155 muscle fibers. If greater TUL is the primary factor in inducing greater hypertrophic effects in
156 type I muscle fibers when using lower loads, the group mentioned above should have
157 experienced robust growth of these fibers following the protocol. One confounding variable to
158 these results is the fact that sets in the training routine were stopped well short of volitional
159 failure. It seems that training to momentary muscular failure is needed for the activation of the
160 entire motor unit pool and thus, for maximizing growth across fiber types [28]. Therefore, it
161 may be hypothesized that an interplay between external load, training to momentary muscular

162 failure, and greater TUL might determine the extent of the hypertrophic effects of type I
163 muscle fibers. Surprisingly, in the same study [27], a high load protocol that consisted of 10
164 sets of 8 repetitions at 70% of 1RM was also insufficient to result in any evident hypertrophy
165 of either fiber type. The possible reasons for the absence of hypertrophic effects in both
166 groups remain unclear, especially since the study involved resistance training-naïve
167 individuals. It is well documented that such individuals can experience robust gains in muscle
168 fiber size following similar loading programs [29], which might call into question the
169 robustness of the findings reported by Mackey and colleagues [27].

170 Metabolic stress has been suggested to play an important role in muscular hypertrophy
171 [30]. Of relevance are also the findings that show that high-intensity training (i.e., 30 seconds
172 maximal isokinetic contractions) induces higher metabolic stress in type II versus type I
173 muscle fibers [31]. Therefore, such training schemes may stimulate anabolic signaling to a
174 greater extent in type II muscle fibers, and thus, result in greater type II muscle fiber
175 hypertrophy. In contrast, according to the size principle, low load resistance exercise
176 performed to momentary muscular failure firstly recruits the lower-threshold motor units, and
177 as these motor units become fatigued, the higher-threshold motor units are sequentially
178 recruited; therefore, at the end of the training set, the metabolic stress across the muscle fiber
179 types may be comparable. This also can be the case in low load exercise with partial blood
180 flow restriction, which has been shown to exert an acute preferential stress of type I fibers
181 [32]. Studies that investigated the effect of isometric contraction (in essence, an exercise with
182 partial blood flow restriction) found a greater concentration of lactate in type I muscle fibers
183 compared to type II muscle fibers [33, 34]. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that when low
184 load resistance training is performed with a high TUL (and to momentary muscular failure)
185 elevated anabolic signaling in type I muscle fibers might be stimulated, and thus, result in the
186 greater growth of these fibers.

187 **Conclusions**

188 In conclusion, a greater TUL might play a role in inducing greater hypertrophic effects
189 in type I muscle fibers. Despite emerging research supporting this hypothesis, evidence to
190 date remains equivocal, and thus future studies should seek to provide clarity on the topic. If
191 TUL is indeed an important factor in inducing greater hypertrophic effects in type I muscle
192 fibers, individuals interested in maximizing muscular growth across the muscle fibers should
193 consider including both high load and low load resistance training schemes in their training
194 routines.

195

196 **Financial support and conflict of interest disclosure:** None

197

198 **References**

- 199 [1] American College of Sports Medicine. American College of Sports Medicine position
200 stand. Progression models in resistance training for healthy adults. *Med Sci Sports*
201 *Exerc* 2009;41:687–708.
- 202 [2] Schoenfeld BJ, Grgic J, Ogborn D, Krieger JW. Strength and hypertrophy adaptations
203 between low- versus high-load resistance training: A systematic review and meta-
204 analysis. *J Strength Cond Res* 2017;31:3508–23.
- 205 [3] Fry AC. The role of resistance exercise intensity on muscle fibre adaptations. *Sports Med*
206 2004;34:663–79.
- 207 [4] Vinogradova OL, Popov DV, Netroba AI, et al. Optimization of training: development of
208 a new partial load mode of strength training. *Fiziol Cheloveka* 2013;39:71–85.
- 209 [5] Netroba A, Popov D, Bravyy Y, et al. Responses of knee extensor muscles to leg press
210 training of various types in human. *Russ Fiziol Zh Im I M Sechenova* 2013;99:406–
211 16.
- 212 [6] Schiaffino S, Reggiani C. Fiber types in mammalian skeletal muscles. *Physiol Rev*
213 2011;91:1447–531.
- 214 [7] van Wessel T, de Haan A, van der Laarse WJ, et al. The muscle fiber type-fiber size
215 paradox: hypertrophy or oxidative metabolism? *Eur J Appl Physiol* 2010;110:665–94.
- 216 [8] Toth MJ, Tchernof A. Effect of age on skeletal muscle myofibrillar mRNA abundance:
217 Relationship to myosin heavy chain protein synthesis rate. *Exp Gerontol*
218 2006;41:1195–200.
- 219 [9] Hood DA, Terjung RL. Leucine metabolism in perfused rat skeletal muscle during
220 contractions. *Am J Physiol* 1987;253:E636–47.

- 221 [10] Tseng BS, Kasper CE, Edgerton, VR. Cytoplasm-to-myonucleus ratios and succinate
222 dehydrogenase activities in adult rat slow and fast muscle fibers. *Cell Tissue Res*
223 1994;275:39–49.
- 224 [11] Parreño M, Pol A, Cadefau J, et al. Changes of skeletal muscle proteases activities during
225 a chronic low-frequency stimulation period. *Pflügers Archiv* 2001;442:745–51.
- 226 [12] Soori M, Lu G, Mason RW. Cathepsin inhibition prevents autophagic protein turnover
227 and downregulates insulin growth factor-1 receptor-mediated signaling in
228 neuroblastoma. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 2016;356:375–86.
- 229 [13] Steinbacher P, Eckl P. Impact of oxidative stress on exercising skeletal muscle.
230 *Biomolecules* 2015;5:356–77.
- 231 [14] Powers SK, Kavazis AN, McClung JM. Oxidative stress and disuse muscle atrophy. *J*
232 *Appl Physiol* 2007;102:2389–97.
- 233 [15] Wang X, Proud CG. The mTOR pathway in the control of protein synthesis. *Physiology*
234 2006;21:362–9.
- 235 [16] Sanchez AM, Candau RB, Csibi A, Pagano AF, Raibon A, Bernardi H. The role of AMP-
236 activated protein kinase in the coordination of skeletal muscle turnover and energy
237 homeostasis. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* 2012;303:C475–85.
- 238 [17] Popov DV, Lysenko EA, Bachinin AV, et al. Influence of resistance exercise intensity
239 and metabolic stress on anabolic signaling and expression of myogenic genes in
240 skeletal muscle. *Muscle Nerve* 2015;51:434–42.
- 241 [18] Harber MP, Konopka AR, Douglass MD, et al. Aerobic exercise training improves whole
242 muscle and single myofiber size and function in older women. *Am J Physiol Regul*
243 *Integr Comp Physiol* 2009;297:R1452–9.

- 244 [19] Harber MP, Konopka AR, Udem MK, et al. Aerobic exercise training induces skeletal
245 muscle hypertrophy and age-dependent adaptations in myofiber function in young and
246 older men. *J Appl Physiol* 2012;113:1495–504.
- 247 [20] Schoenfeld BJ, Contreras B, Willardson JM, Fontana F, Tiriyaki-Sonmez G. Muscle
248 activation during low- versus high-load resistance training in well-trained men. *Eur J*
249 *Appl Physiol* 2014;114:2491–7.
- 250 [21] Ogborn D, Schoenfeld BJ. The role of fiber types in muscle hypertrophy: Implications
251 for loading strategies. *Strength Cond J* 2014;36:20–5.
- 252 [22] Lamas L, Aoki MS, Ugrinowitsch C, et al. Expression of genes related to muscle
253 plasticity after strength and power training regimens. *Scand J Med Sci Sports*
254 2010;20:216–25.
- 255 [23] West W, Hicks A, Clements L, Dowling J. The relationship between voluntary
256 electromyogram, endurance time and intensity of effort in isometric handgrip exercise.
257 *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 1995;71:301–5.
- 258 [24] Hunter SK, Enoka RM. Sex differences in the fatigability of arm muscles depends on
259 absolute force during isometric contractions. *J Appl Physiol* 2001;91:2686–94.
- 260 [25] Yoon T, Delap BS, Griffith EE, Hunter SK. Mechanisms of fatigue differ after low- and
261 high-force fatiguing contractions in men and women. *Muscle Nerve* 2007;36:515–24.
- 262 [26] Ozaki H, Loenneke JP, Buckner SL, Abe T. Muscle growth across a variety of exercise
263 modalities and intensities: Contributions of mechanical and metabolic stimuli. *Med*
264 *Hypotheses* 2016;88:22–6.

- 265 [27] Mackey AL, Holm L, Reitelseder S, et al. Myogenic response of human skeletal muscle
266 to 12 weeks of resistance training at light loading intensity. *Scand J Med Sci Sports*
267 2011;21:773–82.
- 268 [28] Henneman E. The size-principle: a deterministic output emerges from a set of
269 probabilistic connections. *J Exp Biol* 1985;115:105–12.
- 270 [29] Mitchell CJ, Churchward-Venne TA, West DW, et al. Resistance exercise load does not
271 determine training-mediated hypertrophic gains in young men. *J Appl Physiol*
272 2012;113:71–7.
- 273 [30] Schoenfeld BJ. Potential mechanisms for a role of metabolic stress in hypertrophic
274 adaptations to resistance training. *Sports Med* 2013;43:179–94.
- 275 [31] Tesch P, Sjödín B, Karlsson J. Relationship between lactate accumulation, LDH activity,
276 LDH isozyme and fibre type distribution in human skeletal muscle. *Acta Physiol*
277 *Scand* 1978;103:40–6.
- 278 [32] Cumming KT, Paulsen G, Wernbom M, Ugelstad I, Raastad T. Acute response and
279 subcellular movement of HSP27, α B-crystallin and HSP70 in human skeletal muscle
280 after blood-flow-restricted low-load resistance exercise. *Acta Physiol* 2014;211:634–
281 46.
- 282 [33] Tesch P, Karlsson J. Lactate in fast and slow twitch skeletal muscle fibres of man during
283 isometric contraction. *Acta Physiol Scand* 1977;99:230–6.
- 284 [34] Humphreys PW, Lind AR. The blood flow through active and inactive muscles of the
285 forearm during sustained hand-grip contractions. *J Physiol* 1963;166:120–35.