

37 **Introduction**

38 There has been renewed interest in the use of sprint interval training (SIT) as an exercise
39 intervention in athletic, recreational and sedentary populations.¹⁻² Despite total exercise time
40 being considerably lower in comparison with traditional endurance training approaches,
41 similar increases in VO_{2max} (defined as the maximum rate at which an individual can take up
42 and utilise oxygen), muscle oxidative capacity and exercise performance have been
43 observed.³⁻⁷ This training approach is characterised by repeated bouts of relatively brief
44 intermittent exercise, with an 'all-out' effort⁸, and may be more enjoyable than prolonged
45 endurance training.⁹⁻¹⁰

46 Many studies looking into the effect of SIT have used a 30 second supramaximal exercise
47 sprint bout with 4 minutes recovery (1:8, work to rest ratio (W:R)), and have reported a range
48 of central adaptations, such as increased cardiac output and stroke volume, and peripheral
49 adaptations including increases in a range of enzymatic concentrations, in both trained and
50 untrained individuals.¹¹⁻¹⁵ It has been hypothesised that some of the adaptations to this type
51 of training are associated with the metabolic demands and signalling responses which occur
52 in the early stages of a sprint. Studies have therefore also investigated shorter exercise
53 bouts to determine whether adaptations similar to those observed following 30 second
54 sprints can be elicited.¹⁶⁻¹⁸

55 Taylor *et al.*¹⁹ investigated the acute effects of SIT on cell signalling responses in matched
56 duration interval and continuous protocols, reporting no difference between the two distinct
57 bouts of exercise despite differences in total work done, which suggests that total work is not
58 necessarily a crucial factor when monitoring adaptations to such protocols. Chia-Lun *et al.*³
59 studied the more chronic effect of high intensity training when matched for total time.
60 Although they reported significant improvements in VO_{2max} , neither of the interval training
61 groups were supramaximal, nor did they utilise any form of performance test. Jakeman *et al.*¹⁶
62 reported an improvement in time trial performance and time to exhaustion following 2
63 weeks of SIT consisting of 10x6 second sprints, with the improvements in time trial
64 performance being associated with a prolonged time to reach the onset of blood lactate
65 accumulation (OBLA – defined¹⁶ as a blood lactate concentration of 4 mmol.L⁻¹). Such
66 enhancements in time trial performance have also been reported following a 30 seconds SIT
67 programme.^{7,20} While these, and other studies¹⁷⁻¹⁸ have reported similar adaptations, there
68 are frequent differences between training protocols and consequently, the importance of
69 aspects such as work:rest ratio and the duration of each individual sprint is unclear. Despite
70 the range of SIT paradigms which have been used, there is very little information to compare
71 very short duration (<10 sec) sprint training directly with the more traditional 30 sec SIT
72 approach. It is therefore unknown if the adaptive mechanisms causing improvements in
73 performance following SIT will generate similar adaptations with different sprint durations.
74 Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of individual sprint
75 duration on time trial performance and VO_{2max} when W:R and total sprint duration are
76 matched. It was hypothesised that the shorter, 6 second SIT would be at least as effective
77 as the 30 second SIT intervention in improving these parameters.

79 **Methods**

80 Thirty physically active (minimum of 5 hours week⁻¹ in a range of sports) males volunteered
81 to participate in this study, which received ethical approval from the local university ethics
82 committee, and was carried out in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki. Participants
83 were randomly allocated, by blind draw, to one of three groups and completed either two
84 weeks training (3 sessions week⁻¹ with a minimum of 24hours between sessions) or were
85 asked to follow their normal training programme. Participants in the treatment groups could
86 continue exercising outside of the experimental conditions, however all participants were
87 informed that this must not be exhaustive exercise. Outcome measures were a VO_{2max} test
88 and a 10km time trial; both completed on a cycle ergometer and were assessed before and
89 after two weeks of SIT or normal training (control group).

90 **Participant characteristics**

91 On the first visit to the laboratory, basic anthropometric measures were taken, height was
92 measured to the nearest 0.1cm using a stadiometer (Holtain, Crosswell, Wales), weight and
93 body composition were measured using bioelectrical impedance analysis (BIA) (Tanita, BC-
94 418MA, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) to the nearest 0.1kg (table 1).

95 Insert table 1 here

96 **VO_{2max} test and Time Trial**

97 During visits one and nine, participants completed an incremental VO_{2max} test, on a Lode
98 Excaliber cycle ergometer. Following a 5-minute warm up against a 50Watt (W) load,
99 participants cycled against a progressively increasing resistance (25W/min) until volitional
100 exhaustion. During the VO_{2max} test, heart rate (Polar, FT1, England) and RPE (Borg scale 6-
101 20) were recorded every minute, with respiratory variables monitored continuously (Cortex
102 Metalyzer 3B, Leipzig, Germany). Mean VO₂ during the final 30 seconds of each maximal
103 test was recorded, and the highest value within 2SD of this mean was taken as recorded as
104 the VO_{2max}. Prior to all sessions, gas analysers were calibrated using a gas standard and the
105 volume transducer was calibrated with a 3L syringe following manufacturers guidelines.

106 24-48 hours following the VO_{2max} test (session 2 and 10), participants completed a self-
107 paced 10km time trial on a Lode Excaliber cycle ergometer. The ergometer was set in linear
108 mode, and the linear factor was calculated according to the participants' average cadence
109 and maximum work rate from the VO_{2max} test. Participants were aware of the distance cycled
110 but were blinded to time.

111

112 **Training intervention**

113 Volunteers in the treatment groups were randomly assigned to one of the sprint training
114 programmes, with both set at a resistance of 7.5% of body weight on a Lode Excaliber cycle
115 ergometer (LEM Software, Lode, The Netherlands). Both protocols used a W:R of 1:8, such
116 that all participants completed 2 minutes of sprint work. Each volunteer completed 6 sprint
117 sessions spread over 14 days, with a minimum of 24 hours rest in between each session.
118 Those in the 6 sec group completed 20x6 second sprints with a 48s recovery, and the 30

119 sec group completed 4x30 second sprints with a 4-minute recovery to replicate commonly
120 used SIT protocols. Participants were given a 10 second countdown before each sprint and
121 were instructed to increase the cadence so they were at their maximal sprint velocity at the
122 start of each sprint. Throughout each sprint the participants were given encouragement to
123 ensure an 'all-out' effort. Power output was recorded throughout sprints using LEM software,
124 at a sampling frequency of 5Hz. Peak power output was calculated as the highest recorded
125 power output per sprint. Total work per session was calculated from the mean power output
126 per sprint, multiplied by sprint time. The sum of the four or 20 sprints was then converted to
127 kJ.

128 **Data Analysis**

129 Data were analysed using SPSS v21.0, and are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation,
130 unless otherwise stated. Outcome measures were analysed using a repeated measures
131 (RM) ANOVA. VO_{2max} and time trial performance were analysed using a 3 x 2 (group x time)
132 RM ANOVA, and power output data were analysed using a 2 x 6 (group x time) RM ANOVA.
133 The Mauchly sphericity test was used to assess the assumption of sphericity, with the
134 Greenhouse-Geisser correction used for violations. Statistical significance level was set at
135 $p \leq 0.05$, and the Scheffé post hoc test was used where appropriate. Cohens D effect sizes
136 were calculated, with 0.2, 0.5 and 0.8 being considered a small, medium or large effect size
137 respectively.²¹

138 **Results**

139 There were no significant differences between groups in participant characteristics, 10km
140 time trial, VO_{2max} and peak power output at baseline.

141

142 There was a main effect of time for time trial performance, which improved significantly in
143 both training groups (Figure 1), by 5.1% in 6 sec ($d=0.31$), 6.2% in 30 sec ($d=0.47$) ($p < 0.05$),
144 but there was no change in the control group (-1.0%; $p > 0.05$). An interaction effect was also
145 observed, with post hoc analysis showing no significant difference between the 6 sec and 30
146 sec groups ($p > 0.05$). There was a significant difference between the 30 sec and control
147 groups ($p < 0.05$), but no statistically significant difference between the 6 sec and control
148 groups ($p > 0.05$). There was no significant main effect for time in VO_{2max} in either
149 intervention, and there was no group*time interaction ($p > 0.05$).

150

151 Insert Figure 1 here

152

153 Peak power output was achieved on either the first or second sprint of each training session.
154 While there was no significant difference in peak power output between training groups
155 ($p > 0.05$), there was a significant time and group*time interaction effect for peak power in
156 both conditions ($p < 0.05$; Figure 2a). Peak power output in 6 sec increased significantly by
157 9% from session 1 to session 6 ($d=0.3$), and by 20% in 30 sec ($d=1.2$) from session 1 to the
158 final sprint session (Figure 2a). There was a significant group and group*time interaction for

159 total work done (kJ; $p < 0.05$), with the 6 sec group doing significantly more work than the 30
160 sec group ($d = 2.1$), however, there was no main effect of time for total work done (Figure 2b).

161

162 Insert Figure 2 here

163

164 **Discussion**

165 The main finding of this study is that both a 6 and 30 second repeated sprint intervention for
166 2 weeks, that were matched for total sprint time and W:R, resulted in similar improvement in
167 time trial performance compared to a control group. There were, however, no effects of
168 either training protocol on VO_{2max} .

169 Time trial (TT) performance improved significantly in both the 30 sec and 6 sec training
170 group, and remained unchanged in the control group. The improvement in performance of
171 the 30 sec group (6.2%) is similar to that reported by Burgomaster *et al.*²⁰, who used the
172 same 30 sec training protocol, reporting a 9.6% improvement. TT performance in the 6 sec
173 group also improved (5.1%). In a training study paper by Taylor *et al.*²³ their training control
174 group followed a similar programme as to the 30 sec group in this current study.

175 Interestingly, they reported no improvement in time trial performance following the training
176 period. The difference in the findings of this work and the current study could be firstly that
177 their work was conducted on trained cyclists and also that the time trial distance was of a
178 longer duration. SIT seems to be a potent method for improving performance over shorter
179 time trials.

180 Although not directly measured in the current study, an increase in mitochondrial enzymes
181 including citrate synthase activity have previously been reported following 30 second SIT
182 protocols^{6,15,20,24}, and changes such as these may have improved the oxidative potential of
183 the muscle and subsequent exercise performance during the current study in both training
184 groups. Although still not clear, the increased flux between rest and exercise may have
185 caused greater perturbations to the muscle milieu during the 6s supramaximal efforts is a
186 possible factor for the adaptations reported following such training bouts.¹⁹ Recent work of
187 Taylor *et al.*¹⁹ evaluating duration matched interval and continuous exercise demonstrated
188 that, despite completing significantly more work in their interval training group, the magnitude
189 of AMPK phosphorylation did not differ between groups. This work supports that of the
190 current study in that a major determinant for adaptation stems from the ability to achieve
191 repeated peak power outputs during the intervals rather than complete more work as
192 demonstrated in the 6s training group. It has previously been suggested that the major
193 drivers of performance improvements may occur in the first 6-10 seconds of SIT, with a 6
194 second training approach being sufficient to elicit significant performance benefits.¹⁶ While
195 there was a slightly greater time trial improvement in the 30 sec group, the lack of significant
196 performance differences between groups would suggest that a 6 second protocol can be as
197 equally beneficial method to elicit performance adaptations when matched for total sprint
198 time, and W:R. Peak power output is typically observed within the early portion of the sprint,
199 and as similar adaptations occurred following both sprint protocols, achieving peak power
200 may be an important feature of performance related adaptations.¹⁸ In the current study,
201 participants accelerated to their top speed at the start of the sprint, ensuring that peak power

202 output was achieved and sustained for as long as possible. Zelt *et al.*²⁵ compared a 30 and
203 15 second sprint, and found performance adaptations including an increased VO_{2max} and
204 critical power, but found no difference between conditions. It may therefore be that
205 repeatedly reaching peak power, rather than sprint duration or total work completed, is the
206 determining factor for improvements in exercise performance. To our knowledge, this current
207 study is the first to attempt to investigate this by controlling for the work:rest ratio in this way.

208

209 Following two weeks of SIT, peak power output per session significantly increased in both
210 the 30 sec (+20%) and the 6 sec groups (+9%) (Figure 2a). Burgomaster *et al.*²⁰ reported an
211 increase in peak power output by 5.4% following 6 sessions of 30 sec sprints in 2 weeks,
212 however the increase in the current study is more similar to that of Burgomaster *et al.*⁷, who
213 reported a 17% increase in peak power output following 6 weeks of the 30 sec SIT protocol.
214 Improvement in peak power output has also been reported in studies utilizing shorter (<10
215 seconds) supramaximal bouts, including repeated 5 second and 6 second sprints^{17,16}, which
216 may be linked with an increase in the activity of glycolytic enzymes phosphofructokinase
217 (PFK) and Hexokinase (Hex)²⁶⁻²⁷ and the improved resynthesis of PCr during the recovery
218 period.²⁸ While not assessed in the current study, increases in PFK have been shown to
219 occur as pH increases and accelerates the rate of glycolysis, fuelling the initial 5-10 seconds
220 of sprinting.²⁹ Despite the significant increase in peak power, analysis of total work done
221 during the training sessions indicated that there was no significant change in either training
222 group. This therefore indicates a poorer fatigue index following training, particularly in the 30
223 sec group, and although participants were able to achieve similar peak power outputs, these
224 data suggest that restoration of mean power output was slower.²⁸ In addition, those in the 6
225 sec group did significantly more work than those in the 30 sec group, which is likely to reflect
226 the fact that the shorter sprint resulted in less depletion in stored glycogen, and an ability to
227 better resynthesize PCr needed to achieve repeated peak performance. This may also have
228 resulted in the process of glycolysis becoming the dominant driver of exercise¹⁸, potentially
229 increasing glycolytic enzyme activity including Hex and PFK to fuel the sprint during the
230 latter sprints. This again may indicate that total work done is not necessarily the main driver
231 of adaptation. It should be noted, that while the differences in work done between the two
232 training groups was significant, individual pacing strategies may have contributed to a
233 portion of this difference. We did not specifically look to protect against pacing, aside from
234 giving strong verbal encouragement, and this is a potential limitation of this study, which
235 future designs may wish to consider guarding against.

236 Similar to previous studies, which have implemented a 2-week SIT programme²⁰, there was
237 no significant change in VO_{2max} in either group. Previous research has indicated that
238 changes in the activity of oxidative enzymes associated with improvements in VO_{2max} , such
239 as citrate synthase, can take up to 6 weeks to reach a higher steady state.³⁰ Additionally,
240 central adaptations that influence VO_{2max} may take longer to occur than the 2-week
241 intervention used in the present study.³¹ While there were no statistically significant
242 improvements observed in the current study, it would be of interest to further investigate
243 responses to SIT over a more prolonged period.

244

245

246 **Conclusion**

247 This study found that two-weeks of SIT comprising either a 6 or 30 second repeated bouts of
248 exercise which were matched for total sprint time and work:rest ratio elicited similar changes
249 in performance. In comparison with a control group, there were significant improvements in
250 time trial performance, and sprint power output significantly increased for both groups.
251 Adaptations due to the shorter sprint bout may be due to the greater amount and quality of
252 work that can be completed during the 6 sec protocol. This study is the first to match
253 duration and work:rest ratio in this way, and provides interesting insight into adaptations to
254 this type of training.

255

256

257

258

259

260 **Practical applications**

- 261 • Two-weeks of SIT using either a 6 or 30 second repeated bouts significantly
262 improved athletic performance in comparison with a control group on a 10km TT
- 263 • As long as work:rest ratio and total sprint duration are matched, either 6 or 30 second
264 SIT programme is beneficial for performance adaptations

265

266 **Acknowledgements**

267 We would like to thank the volunteers who participated in this study. No financial assistance
268 was provided for the project, and the authors report no conflict of interest

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

References

- 279 1. Babraj, J., Volvaard, N., Keast, C. *et al.* (2009). Extremely short duration high
280 intensity interval training substantially improves insulin action in young health males.
281 *BMC Endocrine Disorders*, 9(3).
- 282 2. Adamson, S., Lorimer, R., Cobley, J. *et al.* (2014). High intensity training improves
283 health and physical function in middle aged adults. *Biol*, 3, 333-344.
- 284 3. Chia-Lun, L., Wei-Chieh, H., Ching-Feng, C. (2016). Physiological Adaptations to
285 Sprint Interval Training with Matched Exercise Volume. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*, *in*
286 *press*, DOI: 10.1249/MSS.0000000000001083.
- 287 4. Nybo, L., Sundstrup, E., Jakobsen, M.D. *et al.* (2010). High-Intensity Training versus
288 Traditional Exercise Interventions for Promoting Health. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 42
289 (10), 1951-1958.
- 290 5. Helgerud, J., Høydal, K., Wang, E. *et al.* (2007). Aerobic High-Intensity Intervals
291 Improve VO_{2max} More Than Moderate Training. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 39 (4), 665-
292 671.
- 293 6. Gibala, M.J., Little, J.P., Essen, M.V. *et al.* (2006). Short-term Sprint Interval versus
294 Traditional Endurance Training: Similar Initial Adaptations in Human Skeletal Muscle
295 and Exercise Performance. *J Physiol*. 575 (3), 901-911.
- 296 7. Burgomaster, K.A., Howarth, K.R., Phillips, S.M. *et al.* (2008). Similar Metabolic
297 Adaptations During Exercise After Low Volume Sprint Interval and Traditional
298 Endurance Training in Humans. *J Physiol*. 586 (1), 151-160.
- 299 8. Gibala, M.J. & McGee, S.L. (2008). Metabolic Adaptations to Short-term High-
300 Intensity Interval Training: A Little Pain for a Lot of Gain? *Exerc Sport Sci Reviews*.
301 36 (2), 58-63.
- 302 9. Bartlett, J.D., Close, G.L., Maclaren, D.P.M. *et al.* (2011). High-Intensity Interval
303 Running is Perceived to be More Enjoyable than Moderate-Intensity Continuous
304 Exercise: Implications for Exercise Adherence. *J Sport Sci*. 29 (6), 547-553.
- 305 10. Kong, Z., Fan, X., Sun, S. *et al.* (2016). Comparison of high-intensity interval training
306 and moderate-to-vigorous continuous training for cardiometabolic health and
307 exercise enjoyment in obese young women: A randomized controlled trial. *PLoS*
308 *ONE*. 11(7), e0158589. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0158589.
- 309 11. Laursen, P.B. & Jenkins, D.G. (2002). The Scientific Basis for High Intensity Interval
310 Training. *Sports Med*. 32 (1), 53-73.
- 311 12. Bayati, M., Farzad, B., Gharakhanlou, R. *et al.* (2011). A Practical Model of Low-
312 Volume High-Intensity Interval Training Induces Performance and Metabolic
313 Adaptations that Resemble 'all-out' Sprint Interval Training. *J Sport Sci Med*. 10 (1),
314 571-576.

- 315 13. Harmer, A.R., McKenna, M.J., Sutton, J.R. *et al.* (2000). Skeletal Muscle Metabolic
316 and Ionic Adaptations During Intense Exercise Following Sprint Training in Humans.
317 *J Appl Physiol.* 89 (1), 1793-1803.
- 318 14. Creer, A.R., Ricard, M.D., Conlee, R.K. *et al.* (2004). Neural, Metabolic, and
319 Performance Adaptations to Four Weeks of High Intensity Sprint-Interval Training in
320 Trained Cyclists. *Int J Sports Med.* 25 (1), 92-98.
- 321 15. Burgomaster, K.A., Hughes, S.C., Heigenhauser, G.J.F. *et al.* (2005). Six Sessions of
322 Sprint Interval Training Increases Muscle Oxidative Potential and Cycle Endurance
323 Capacity in Humans. *J Appl Physiol.* 98 (1), 1985-1990.
- 324 16. Jakeman, J., Adamson, S. & Babraj, J. (2012). Extremely short duration high
325 intensity training substantially improves endurance performance in triathletes. *Appl*
326 *Physiol, Nut Metabol.* 37 (5), 976-981.
- 327 17. Linossier, M.T., Denis, C., Dormois, D. *et al.* (1993). Ergometric and Metabolic
328 Adaptation to a 5-s Sprint Training Programme. *Eur J Physiol.* 67 (1), 408-414.
- 329 18. Hazell, T.J., MacPherson, R.E.K., Gravelle, B.M.R. *et al.* (2010). 10 or 30-s Sprint
330 Interval Training Bouts Enhance Both Aerobic and Anaerobic Performance. *Eur J*
331 *Appl Physiol Occ Physiol.* 110 (1), 153-160.
- 332 19. Taylor, C.W., Ingham, S.A., Hunt, J.E.A. *et al.* (2016a). Exercise duration-matched
333 interval and continuous sprint cycling induce similar increases in AMPK
334 phosphorylation, PGC-1 α and VEGF mRNA expression in trained individuals. *Eur J*
335 *Physiol*, 116, 1445-1454.
- 336 20. Burgomaster, K.A., Heigenhauser, G.J.F. & Gibala, .M.J. (2006). Effect of Short-
337 Term Sprint Interval Training on Human Skeletal Muscle Carbohydrate Metabolism
338 During Exercise and Time-Trial Performance. *J Appl Physiol.* 100 (1), 2041-2047.
- 339 21. Cohen, J (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioural Sci.* 2nd ed. Hillsdale:
340 NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- 341 22. Paton, C.D. & Hopkins, W.G. (2006). Variation in Performance of Elite Cyclists from
342 Race to Race. *Eur J Sport Sci.* 6 (1), 25-31.
- 343 23. Taylor, C.W., Ingham, S.A., and Ferguson, R.A. (2016b). Acute and chronic effect of
344 sprint interval training combined with postexercise blood-flow restriction in trained
345 individuals. *Exp Physiol*, 101.1, 143-154.
- 346 24. Little, J.P., Safdar, A., Wilkin, G.P. *et al.* (2010). A practical model of low-volume
347 high-intensity interval training induces mitochondrial biogenesis in human skeletal
348 muscle: potential mechanisms. *J Physiol.* 588 (6), 1011-1022.
- 349 25. Zelt, J.G.E., Hankinson, P.B., Foster, W.S. *et al.* (2014). Reducing the Volume of
350 Sprint Interval Training Does Not Diminish Maximal and Submaximal Performance
351 Gains in Healthy Men. *Eur J Physiol.* 114 (11), 2427-2436.

- 352 26. Rodas, G., Ventura, J.L., Cadefau, J.A. *et al.* (2000). A Short Training Programme for
353 the Rapid Improvement of Both Aerobic and Anaerobic Metabolism. *Eur J Physiol.* 82
354 (5-6), 480-486.
- 355 27. MacDougall, J.D., Hicks, A.L., MacDonald, J.R. *et al.* (1998). Muscle Performance
356 and Enzymatic Adaptations to Sprint Interval Training. *J Appl Physiol.* 84 (6), 2138-
357 2142.
- 358 28. Bogdanis, G.C., Nevill, M.E., Boobis, L.H. *et al.* (1995). Recovery of power output
359 and muscle metabolites following 30 s of maximal sprint cycling in man. *J Appl*
360 *Physiol*, 482(2), 467-480.
- 361 29. Beneke, R., Pollman, C., Bleif, I. *et al.* (2002). How Anaerobic is the Wingate
362 Anaerobic Test for Humans? *Eur J Physiol.* 87 (4-5), 388-392.
- 363 30. Hood, D.A. (2001). Invited Review: Contractile Activity-Induced Mitochondrial
364 Biogenesis in Skeletal Muscle. *J Appl Physiol.* 90 (3), 1137-1157.
- 365 31. Gist, N.H., Freese, E.C. & Cureton, K.J. (2014). Comparison of Responses to Two
366 High-Intensity Intermittent Exercise Protocols. *J Strength Cond Res.* 28 (11), 3033-
367 3040.

368

369

370

371

372

373 **Figure 1: 10km time trial performance; * denotes a significant difference from baseline**

374

375 **Figure 2: Panel a) Peak power output; * denotes a significant increase from session 1**
376 **to session 6; Panel b) Total work done; * denotes a significant difference between**
377 **groups**

Group	Age (yrs)	Height (m)	Body Mass (kg)	Body Fat (%)
6 sec (n=10)	21 ± 4	1.78 ± 0.06	75.7 ± 13.9	14.0 ± 5.9
30 sec (n=10)	21 ± 4	1.84 ± 0.06	83.0 ± 10.2	14.0 ± 3.3
Con (n=10)	23 ± 3	1.82 ± 0.07	82.4 ± 7.6	14.9 ± 3.6

Table 1. Participant anthropometric characteristics

Variable	Condition		Pre	Post	<i>d</i>
TT (Seconds)	6 sec	Mean ± SD	630 ± 115	598 ± 92*	0.31
		95% CI	559-701	541-655	
	30 sec	Mean ± SD	579 ± 68	543 ± 85*	0.47
		95% CI	537- 621	490-596	
	Con	Mean ± SD	631± 104	634 ± 99	0.03
		95% CI	567- 695	573-695	
VO _{2max} (ml.kg.min ⁻¹)	6 sec	Mean ± SD	57 ± 8	59 ± 10	0.22
		95% CI	52-62	53-65	
	30 sec	Mean ± SD	57 ± 6	58 ± 9	0.13
		95% CI	53-61	52-64	
	Con	Mean ± SD	52 ± 9	52 ± 6	0.13
		95% CI	47-59	48-56	

Table 2: Time trial and VO_{2max} data

*Denotes a significant difference from baseline (p<0.05).

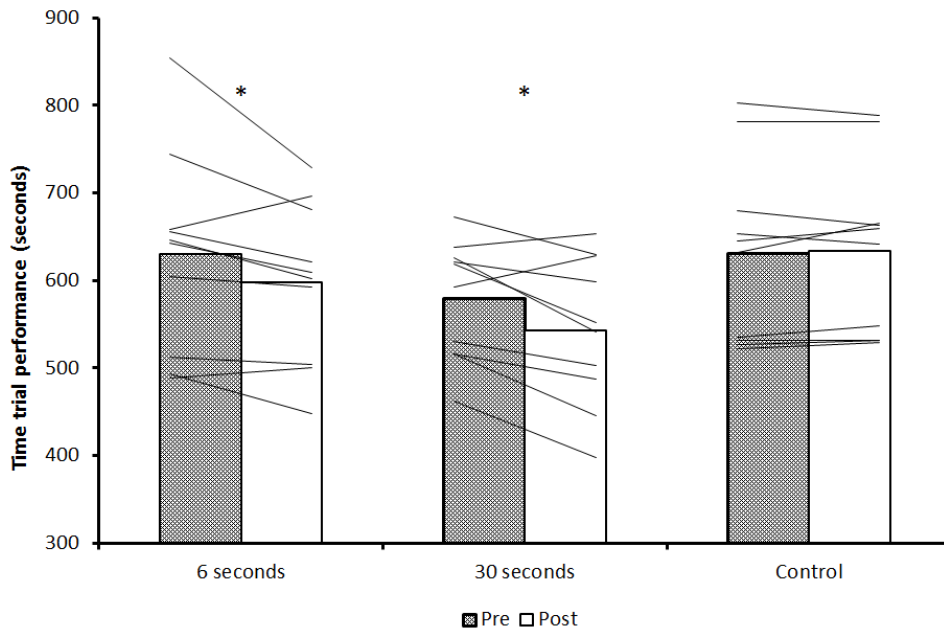


Fig 1. 10km time trial performance; * denotes a significant difference from baseline.

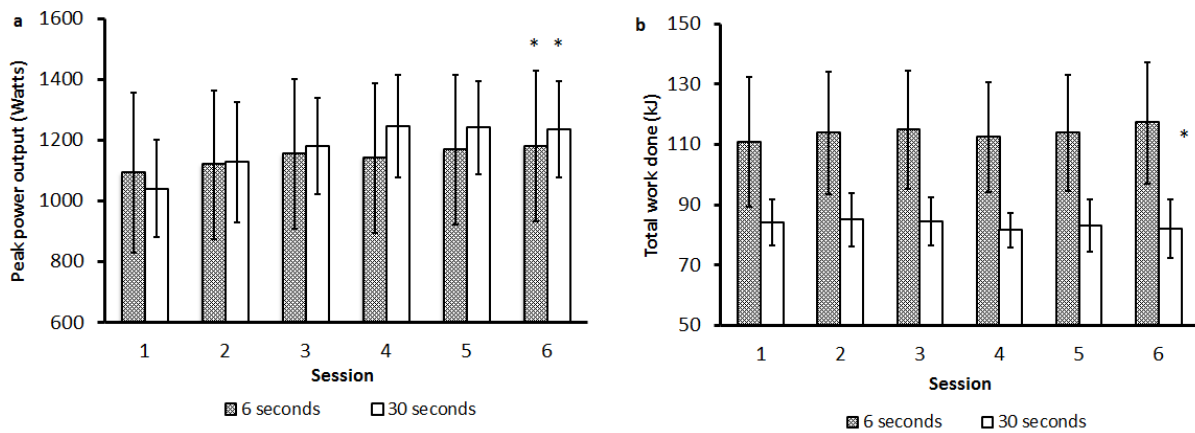


Fig 2. Panel (a) Peak power output; * denotes a significant increase from session 1 to session 6; Panel (b) Total work done; * denotes a significant difference between groups.