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Effects of high-speed versus traditional resistance training in older adults

Background: The losses of strength, agility, balance and functionality caused by aging are harmful to the elderly population. Resistance training (TR) may be an efficient tool to mitigate such neuromuscular decline and different RT methods can be used. Therefore, it is important to investigate the different responses to different training methods. **Hypothesis:** Eight weeks of traditional resistance training (TRT) are expected to promote similar results to high-speed training (HST) in physical functional performance (PFP) and quality of life in the elderly. **Methods:** Participants (n=24) with a mean age of 67.8 ± 6.3 years completed eight weeks of RT. Participants were randomized into HST (n=12) and TRT (n=12). TRT involved training with 10-12 repetitions at controlled velocity until momentary muscle failure; while HST involved performing 6-8 repetitions at 40-60% of 1RM at maximum velocity. Pre-and post-training, the participants were tested for: i) maximum strength in the 45° leg press and chest press; ii) PFP in the 30-second chair stand, timed-up-and-go (TUG); and medicine ball throw test; and iii) quality of life. **Results:** Both groups improved muscle strength in the 45° leg press, with greater increases for TRT (HST: +21% vs. TRT: +49%, $p=0.019$). There was no change in chest press strength for HST (-0.6%) ($p=0.607$), but there was a significant increase for the TRT group (+21%, $p=0.001$). There was a similar improvement ($p<0.05$) for both groups in TUG (HST: 7%; TRT: 10%), chair stand (HST: 18%; TRT: 21%), and medicine ball throwing performance (HST: 9%; TRT: 9%), with no difference between groups ($p=0.081-0.944$). Emotional aspect significantly increased by 20% ($p=0.042$) in HST and 50% ($p=0.043$) in TRT. **Conclusions:** Both TRT and HST are able to promote improvements in functional performance in the elderly with greater in strength gains for TRT. Therefore, exercise professionals could choose based on individual characteristics and preferences. **Clinical Relevance:** The findings provide important insights into how healthcare professionals can prescribe HST and TRT, considering efficiency, safety and individual aspects.

Keywords: Muscle strength; plyometric exercise; muscle fatigue; activities of daily living; physical conditioning.

43 **Introduction**

44

45 From 30 to 50 years of life, adults lose 5 to 10 percent of skeletal muscle
46 mass, and the losses rise to 40 percent more at 80 years¹⁹. Functional measures such as
47 strength, endurance and walking ability appear to follow a similar loss as muscle mass⁷.
48 In addition, as fast-twitch muscle fiber decrease with age, the ability to perform tasks
49 that require speed and power may become challenging for the elderly².

50 Although reduction in strength-producing capacity, protein synthesis
51 (especially in type II fibers), functionality and aerobic capacity occur with advancing
52 age, high-intensity (high relative loads, low volume, momentary muscle failure and
53 speed-controlled repetitions) RT may slow or reverse these adverse effects²⁰.
54 Therefore, the decreases in functional performance, muscle strength and mass may be
55 related to disuse and not an inevitable effect of aging¹⁸.

56 Exercise may be an important strategy to prevent or reverse the functional
57 declines that accompany aging¹⁸. Regarding training models, important benefits may be
58 obtained through low-volume, high relative loads and speed-controlled repetitions, total
59 training times of less than 60 minutes per week¹⁵.

60 However, the use of maximal intensity training (until near the momentary
61 muscle failure) for the elderly population has been questioned^{8,9,35,41}, as it may not
62 promote additional neuromuscular gains and expose the elderly to unnecessary risks and
63 discomfort.

64 An alternative strategy may be the use of high speed training (HST) which
65 has been widely used and recommended for providing various benefits to the elderly
66 population^{10,16,23}. HST has been advocated as an important strategy for this population⁹,

67 due to its safety, possibility of improving functional capacities, reducing the incidence
68 of falls, and increasing the independence of this age group^{8,9,35}.

69 Considering the benefits of physical exercise for older people, RT, whether
70 traditional or high-speed, may be an important tool to enhance independent and quality
71 living conditions for this population. However, few previous studies have actually
72 compared the results between TRT and HST in the promotion of physical functional
73 performance (PFP), making it difficult to decide which RT strategy to choose.
74 Moreover, the previous literature that compared TRT and HST did not control for
75 training effort (i.e. volitional failure) during TRT^{4,26}, which seems to be a key factor for
76 these groups¹⁸.

77 Thus, research is needed to examine the two training models and provide
78 information about their outcomes and benefits in gains in muscle strength and
79 functional capacity. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the effects of
80 TRT and HST on PFP, muscle strength and quality of life in the elderly.

81

82 **Methods**

83

84 **Participants**

85

86 Twenty-four volunteers of both genders (17 females and seven males) with
87 no prior RT experience (≥ 60 years old) participated in the study. The participants were
88 invited through social media, direct invitation and by referrals from third parties. All
89 volunteers were informed about the objectives, procedures and potential risks of the
90 study. The project was approved by the research ethics committee of the [REDACTED]

91 [REDACTED] and also registered in the
92 [REDACTED].

93 *A priori* sample size calculation was obtained by the G*Power[®] 3.1.9.2
94 software with the ANCOVA test for fixed effects, main effects and interactions, using
95 two groups, with effect size 0.6, 5% alpha error and test power 1- beta to 80, which
96 resulted in a total sample of 24 volunteers. The study included participants who had no
97 history of resistance training in the last six months. The participants had no health
98 problems and received clearance to participate from a physician. Exclusion criteria
99 included acute or terminal musculoskeletal disease, skeletal muscle limitation that
100 prevented the execution of the training protocol, severe cardiovascular disease, recent
101 history of acute myocardial infarction, or any other medical contraindication for
102 resistance training.

103 After recruitment, 62 individuals were selected according to the inclusion
104 criteria, of which 17 did not attend the initial meeting. The remaining 45 were assigned
105 to the two training groups, 23 to the HST group and 22 to the TRT group. After loss of
106 follow-up, 12 volunteers from the HST and 12 from the TRT group were reevaluated.
107 The characteristics of the participants are shown in table 1.

108

109 Experimental procedures

110

111 The first two weeks of the study consisted of questionnaires, tests and
112 retests and familiarization with the RT exercises^{1,21}. All tests were performed between
113 14:00 and 16:00 hours. At the initial meeting, the researchers explained the research
114 details and, if the participant agreed to participate they signed the free and informed

115 consent form (ICF) and the International Physical Activity questionnaire (IPAQ
116 www.ipaq.ki.se) was applied ¹³.

117 The participants then initiated two weeks of RT familiarization. During the
118 familiarization, two submaximal sets of ten to twelve repetitions were performed for
119 each exercise (leg press 45°, deadlift, chest press and pulldown) at a self-selected load.
120 Strength assessments, PFP tests and quality of life questionnaires were applied after the
121 familiarization period and after the training period.

122 The tests involved i) ten maximum repetitions (10RM) in the leg press 45°
123 and chest press; ii) PFP assessment through the 30-second chair stand test, timed up and
124 go (TUG) test ³³ and medicine ball throwing ²⁴; and iii) quality of life assessment using
125 the SF-36 questionnaire. ¹¹ Additionally, 24-hour dietary recalls (two weekdays and one
126 weekend) were applied. After initial testing, the participants performed eight weeks of
127 either TRT or HST and were re tested five to seven days after the last training session.

128

129 *Strength tests*

130

131 At the beginning of the intervention, the 10RM tests were performed on the
132 leg press 45°, deadlift, chest press and pulldown (Technogym®, Biomedical Line,
133 Gambettola, Italy) for subsequent load determination. Participants were instructed in the
134 correct techniques for all exercises. The procedures were based on the recommendations
135 described by Kraemer and Fry²². Participants warmed up with two sets of ten repetitions
136 with a self-selected comfortable load. After three-minutes of rest, the estimated 10RM
137 load was adjusted. If the volunteer could not perform ten repetitions or perform more
138 than ten repetitions, the load was adjusted for the next attempt. Up to four attempts were
139 allowed, with a four-minute break between each attempt. The tests were ceased when

140 participants could not perform the movement properly (i.e. full range of motion without
141 relevant changes in technique).

142 *Physical functional capacity tests*

143

144 The 30-second chair stand involves the ability to sit and lift from a chair as
145 many times as possible in 30 seconds without using the arms in a single attempt³³. The
146 TUG test consisted of moving from a seated position to a distance of 2.44 meters and
147 returning as quickly and comfortable as possible. Each participant had two attempts³³.
148 The medicine ball throw (chest pass) test consisted of three attempts of throwing a 1.5
149 kg medicine ball as far as possible while sitting in a chair with the trunk supported²⁴.
150 For TUG and medicine ball throw, the best score was used in the analysis.

151

152 *Quality of Life Questionnaire*

153

154 Quality of life was assessed using the SF-36 questionnaire¹¹. The domains
155 evaluated were: functional capacity, physical aspects, vitality, emotional aspects, social
156 aspects, pain, general health status and health perception. The questionnaire was applied
157 by the same evaluator pre and post intervention.

158

159 *Training protocol*

160

161 Exercise protocols were designed according to the minimum dose approach
162 using multiarticular exercises^{15,18} as describe below. The eight weeks of training
163 included a total of 16 training sessions divided into two training days/week. Each
164 session lasted approximately 20 minutes. The program incorporated the following

165 exercises: leg press 45°, deadlift, chest press and latissimus pulldown (Technogym®,
166 Biomedical Line, Gambettola, Italy), with 90-second recovery intervals between sets
167 and exercises.

168 The HST group performed two sets of six to eight repetitions at 40 to 60%
169 of 1RM (estimated by the Brzycki's equation⁵) during the 8-week intervention. The
170 concentric phase was performed as fast as possible and the eccentric phase was
171 performed in two seconds (Total repetitions per exercise: \cong 16; Total seconds under
172 tension per exercise: \cong 24 seconds). At all times, the participants were monitored by a
173 trainer and strong encouragement was provided to ensure maximal concentric velocity.
174 The TRT group performed two sets of 10 to 12 repetitions to momentary muscle failure,
175 as defined by Steele et al.³⁷, taking two seconds for the concentric and two seconds for
176 the eccentric phase. During TRT, the load was adjusted whenever necessary to maintain
177 the repetitions inside the proposed range (Total repetitions per exercise: \cong 24; Total
178 seconds under tension per exercise: \cong 48 seconds). The supervision ratio was 1:1 for
179 both groups (**Table 1**).

180

181 *Food Intake Assessment*

182

183 The participants were advised to maintain their normal eating habits and
184 food intake over the period of the study. Dietary assessment was performed using six
185 24-hour food recalls, three in the first week and three in the last week of the study,
186 compose of a weekend and two weekdays. The data collection method was
187 standardized, as well as the conversion into home measurements and insertion in the
188 food intake assessment software.

189 Dietary data obtained from home measurements were converted to grams
190 and milliliters using a home measurement table²⁷ for further analysis of dietary intake in
191 the Diet Pro Clinical® software, version 6.0, (Viçosa, Brazil), which results in total
192 energy (kcal), macro and micronutrients (in grams). The National Nutrient Database of
193 the United States Department of Agriculture⁴² and non-protein regional foods from the
194 Brazilian Food Composition Table⁴⁰ and of the Nutritional Composition Tables of the
195 Foods Consumed in Brazil³ were used to estimate protein consumption in grams.

196

197 *Statistical analysis*

198

199 Data normality was confirmed by the Shapiro-Wilk test. Data are presented
200 as average \pm standard deviation. An independent t test was performed to compare pre-
201 intervention data between groups. A paired t test was performed to compare the pre-
202 and-post intragroup differences. A covariance analysis (ANCOVA) compared the post
203 intervention values of both groups using the initial values as covariates. An alpha level
204 of $p < 0.05$ was accepted as of significance. Statistical analyzes were performed using
205 Statistical Package for Social Sciences 17.0 software (SPSS, Chicago, IL).
206 Interpretation of effect size between groups took place according to Cohen¹²
207 (confidence interval: 95%) and were classified as: $d < 0.2$ as “trivial”; $d > 0.2 - < 0.5$ as
208 “small”; $d > 0.5 - < 0.8$ as “medium” and $d > 0.8$ as large.

209

210 **Results**

211

212 All 24 elderly, completed all assessments and were included in the final
213 analysis (HST: $n = 12$; TRT: $n = 12$) (**table 2**). No difference, in food intake, was

214 observed during the study, except for protein intake that increased in the TRT
215 group($p=0.046$) (**Table 3**).

216 Performance of the maximal and functional muscle strength tests are
217 presented in figures 1a to 3. Both groups showed significant improvements in the 10RM
218 test in the leg press (HST 21% and TRT 49%) and effect size 0.74 (**Figure 1a**), with a
219 significant difference between groups ($p=0.019$) in favor of the TRT group. The HST
220 group did not significantly improve in the chest press 10RM test (-0.6% $p=0.913$), while
221 the TRT group significantly increased the performance by 21% and effect size 0.85,
222 with a significant difference between groups ($p=0.001$) (**Figure 1b**), in favor of the TRT
223 group.

224 There was a significant increase in TUG performance over time for both
225 HST and TRT groups (**Figure 2a**). The HST group decreased the time by 7%, and the
226 TRT decreased the time by 10% and effect size 1.29, with no significant difference
227 ($p=0.300$) between groups. Both groups exhibited significant improvements in the chair
228 stand performance test (**Figure 2b**). The HST group increased the number of repetitions
229 performed by 18% and the TRT by 21% and effect size 6.85, with no significant
230 difference ($p=0.081$) between groups. Significant improvements were also observed in
231 both groups for medicine ball throwing performances (**Figure 3**). The HST group
232 increased the throwing capacity by 9% and the TRT by 9% and effect size 0.35, with no
233 difference between the groups ($p= 0.524$).

234 Table 4 presents the values of the nine domains of the SF-36 quality of life
235 questionnaire. There was a significant change in the emotional aspect domain of 20% (p
236 = 0.042) in the HST and 50% ($p = 0.043$) in the TRT group following the intervention.
237 The only significant difference between the groups after the intervention was on pain,
238 with a greater improvement in the HST group compared to the TRT group ($p= 0.006$).

239

240 **Discussion**

241

242 The present study aimed to compare and contrast the effects of TRT and
243 HST programs on PFP, muscle strength and quality of life in older adults. The main
244 findings of the study suggest that, aside from greater maximal strength increases after
245 TRT compared to HST, both groups achieved similar improvement in physical
246 functional capacity and quality of life.

247 The benefits of RT for the elderly and its importance for maintaining their
248 independence in daily life activities are already well established³⁶. The present results
249 reaffirm the benefits of resistance training for this population. Both groups significantly
250 improved in all functionality tests performed, which is in agreement with previous
251 findings^{8,31,32,35}. Current data showed that eight weeks of RT, regardless of the HST or
252 TRT methodology, was effective in improving most strength and functionality tests in
253 older men and women³⁶. The effects sizes obtained in the current study were generally
254 moderate to high, which could be explained by the low initial values of the participants.

255 Prior to the study participants exhibited functional values lower than fitness
256 reference values³³. However, after the period of RT, there were significant
257 improvements in TUG of 7.2% for HST and 10.1% in TRT, and chair stand of 18.1%
258 for HST and 20.8% in TRT, placing them on average reference values for tests. By the
259 end of the study, the mean for TUG and chair stand were above the reference values
260 both for TRT and HST.

261 Previous studies have shown a superiority of HST over TRT in improving
262 muscle function and power^{4,38}. Different outcomes may be explained by the different
263 method of determining and controlling loads and/or RT intensity. The high intensity RT

264 efforts may be necessary to activate fast-twitch fibers, which are the most affected with
265 advancing age^{17,25}. Thus, the fact that RT is performed to failure may explain similar
266 results between HST and TRT and also why the present results were different from
267 those obtained in previous studies^{4,26}. The superior strength gains observed in the TRT
268 in all exercises compared to the HST may be due to specificity, as the training
269 performed by the TRT was closer to the test protocol⁶.

270 Prior research²⁸⁻³⁰ has shown a relationship between improved
271 neuromuscular performance and quality of life. Nevertheless, the present data did not
272 show a relationship between improved muscle performance and improved quality of
273 life.

274 However, there was improvement in both groups in the emotional aspect.
275 When performed at low intensity and high execution speed, RT has been show to result
276 in reduced pain perceptions, which might explain the more favorable result in this
277 domain in the HST group²⁸. The TRT group presented an increase in the pain domain in
278 the SF-36 questionnaire, which might be due to the high intensity of effort associated
279 with TRT. The greater effort may have promoted greater inflammation and
280 consequently increased pain, as commonly reported with TRT^{14,34,39}. It was not possible
281 to measure the extent to which pain interfered with the daily activities of participants, as
282 the other domains of quality of life did not worsen. However, this information may be
283 important for cases of people with chronic pain.

284 Our results suggest that both TRT and HST might have important practical
285 and clinical applications in increasing functionality in older people. Considering the
286 similarity in most functional parameters, the choice between the protocols should be
287 based on logistical and individual aspects, depending on the context. For example, when
288 there are limitations for training with high efforts, due to cardiovascular or

289 musculoskeletal limitations, HST might be used. On the other hand, when the
290 performance of high velocity exercises is not recommended, due to lack of coordination
291 or poor movement quality, TRT might be preferable.

292

293 **Conclusion**

294

295 In summary, the present findings suggest that TRT and HST produce similar
296 improvements in functional performance and quality of life in the elderly. However,
297 TRT promoted greater increases in strength. Importantly, both interventions of RT were
298 effective in promoting neuromuscular improvements and these benefits may contribute
299 to greater independence and maintenance of daily life activities.

300

301 **Limitations and strengths**

302

303 A limitation of the present study is the possible lack of control of body
304 composition, since this aspect may interfere with the relative strength gains. The
305 heterogeneous sample may also have affected the interpretation of the results. The
306 strengths of the study include the control of the intensity of the traditional group
307 through repetition zones, the high 1:1 direct supervision, and dietary monitoring through
308 food intake records. Although an increase of protein intake was observed in TRT group,
309 both groups maintained the normal protein consumption during the intervention period.

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487 Table and figure captions

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489 Titles: Table 1. Training Protocol

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491 Titles: Table 2. Initial characteristics of volunteers (n=24)

492 Captions: Table 2. †Obtained by Test t; * $p \leq 0.05$; SD: standard deviation; MET:

493 Metabolic equivalent;

494 Titles: Table 3. Pre and post food intake values of both groups

495 Captions: Table 3. ¹Paired Student T test; ²ANCOVA: Covariance analysis; †Difference496 between post-moment groups; * $p < 0.05$; Effect size: size of made according to Cohen,497 1988. And were classified as: $d < 0.2$ as “trivial”; $d > 0.2 - < 0.5$ as “small”; $d > 0.5 - < 0.8$ 498 as “medium” and $d > 0.8$ as large.

499 Titles: Table 4. Quality of life measured through the Medical Outcomes Study 36 - Item

500 short form health survey (SF-36)

501 Captions: Table 4. Paired Student T test; ²ANCOVA: Covariance analysis; †Difference502 between post-moment groups; * $p < 0.05$; ^TEffect size: size of made according to Cohen,503 1988. And were classified as: $d < 0.2$ as “trivial”; $d > 0.2 - < 0.5$ as “small”; $d > 0.5 - < 0.8$ 504 as “medium” and $d > 0.8$ as large.

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506 Captions: Figure 1a: Difference in (kg) in Leg press; Figure 1b: Difference in (kg) in
 507 Chest press; Figure 2a: Difference in (s) in TUG (timed-up-and-go); s:seconds; Figure
 508 2b: Difference in (rep) Chair Stand; rep: repetitions; Figure 3: Difference in (cm)
 509 Medicine ball; cm: centimeters; p: Covariance analysis; EF: effect size

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512 **Table 1.** Training Protocol

	HST	TRT
Training period	8 weeks	8 weeks
Frequency	2x	2x
Session duration	≅ 20 min	≅ 20 min
Training load	40 to 60% 1 RM	10-12 rep. max.
Execution speed	Concentric: As fast as possible Eccentric: 2 second	Concentric: 2 second Eccentric: 2 second
Recovery interval	90-second	90-second
Exercises	leg press 45°, deadlift, chest press and latissimus pulldown	
Supervision	1:1	

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516 **Table 2.** Initial characteristics of volunteers (n=24)

	HST (n=12)	TRT(n=12)	
	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	p[†]
Age (years)	69.4±6.0	63.3±7.1	0.269
MET/min/week	894.8±995.7	861.6±759.6	0.928
Body mass (Kg)	70.5±10.7	68.8±7.5	0.284

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Table 3. Pre and post food intake values of both groups

		HST				TRT				Δp	Effect size ^T	ANCOVA ²
		Pre	Post	p ¹	Effect size	Pre	Post	p ¹	Effect size			
Total	calories	1274.3±364.9	1332.6±521.5	0.526		1444.7±536.5	1476.7±411.6	0.840		0.8	0.3	0.781
	(kcal)				0.1				0.0			
	Carbohydrates (g)	164.3±69.9	205.4±103.5	0.159	0.5	432.1±885.3	197.3±113.6	0.530	-0.2	0.2	0.0	0.717
	Protein (g)	53.9±19.3	49.9±12.7	0.437	-0.2	58.7±17.6	68.2±196.5	0.433	3.3	0.2	0.4	0.072
	Protein (g/kg)	0.7±0.3	0.7±0.1 [†]	0.332	-0.2	0.8±0.2	0.9±0.3 [†]	0.396	0.4	0.2	0.9	0.046*
	BCAA (g)	3.3±1.6	2.5±1.4	0.215	-0.4	2.8±1.2	3.7±2.2	0.144	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.082
	Lipids (g)	44.9±14.5	52.1±23.0	0.242	0.4	49.0±16.0	55.0±13.7	0.238	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.926
	Calcium (mg)	415.0±159.2	383.2±166.6	0.212	-0.2	519.0±190.0	509.9±219.2	0.754	-0.0	0.7	0.6	0.409
	Dietary fiber (g)	9.8±3.6	11.9±4.3	0.052	0.5	10.1±3.4	10.1±5.3	0.997	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.218

Table 4. Quality of life measured through the Medical Outcomes Study 36 – Item short form health survey (SF-36)

Domains	HST				TRT				Δp	Effect size ^T	ANCOVA ²
	Pre	Post	p ¹	Effect size	Pre	Post	p ¹	Effect size			
Functional capacity	75.4±20.7	78.3±19.9	0.354	0.1	82.0±13.5	89.5±10.3	0.107	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.162
Physical aspects	68.7±41.4	83.3±30.7	0.167	0.3	75.0±36.9	77.0±39.1	0.865	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.606
Emotional aspect	69.4±36.1	83.3±33.3	0.042*	0.3	61.1±42.2	91.6±28.8	0.043*	0.7	0.9	0.2	0.343
Vitality	64.5±15.2	68.3±12.4	0.324	0.2	66.6±24.2	73.7±14.0	0.397	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.350
Emotional aspects	70.3±12.5	73.0±12.4	0.560	0.2	67.4±21.9	73.3±15.1	0.414	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.807
Social aspects	82.2±18.0	84.3±24.4	0.631	0.1	84.4±14.2	92.7±14.5	0.150	0.5	0.9	0.4	0.352
Pain	76.4±29.8	85.8±21.4	0.341	0.3	72.2±26.7 [†]	59.3±20.6 [†]	0.157	-0.4	0.8	-1.2	0.006*
General health	69.1±19.9	72.5±22.7	0.205	0.0	72.5±18.7	72.1±13.8	0.918	-0.0	0.5	0.0	0.616
Health perceptions	62.5±19.9	70.8±25.7	0.234	0.4	60.4±16.7	62.5±19.9	0.655	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.409

Fig: 1a

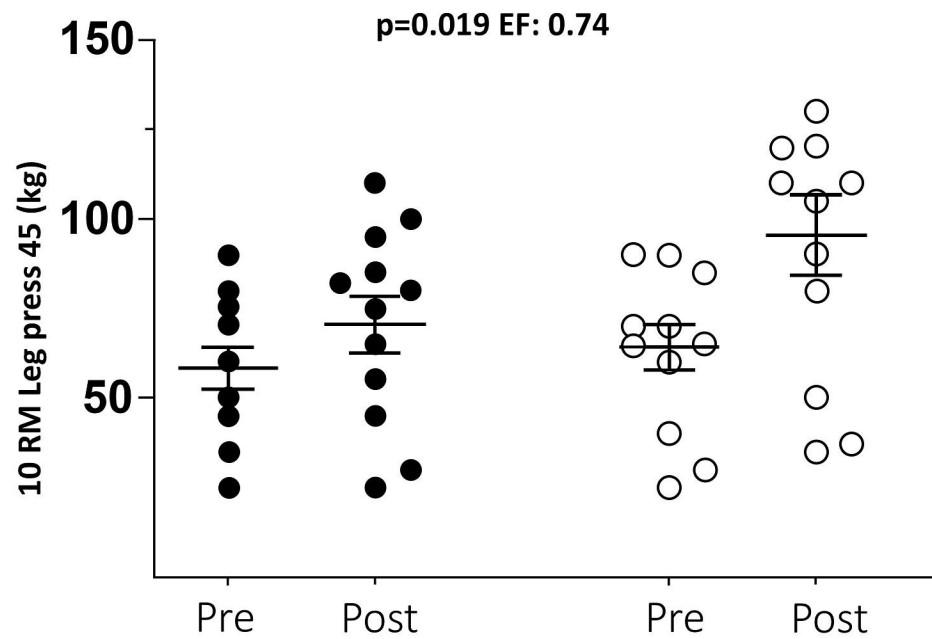


Fig: 1b

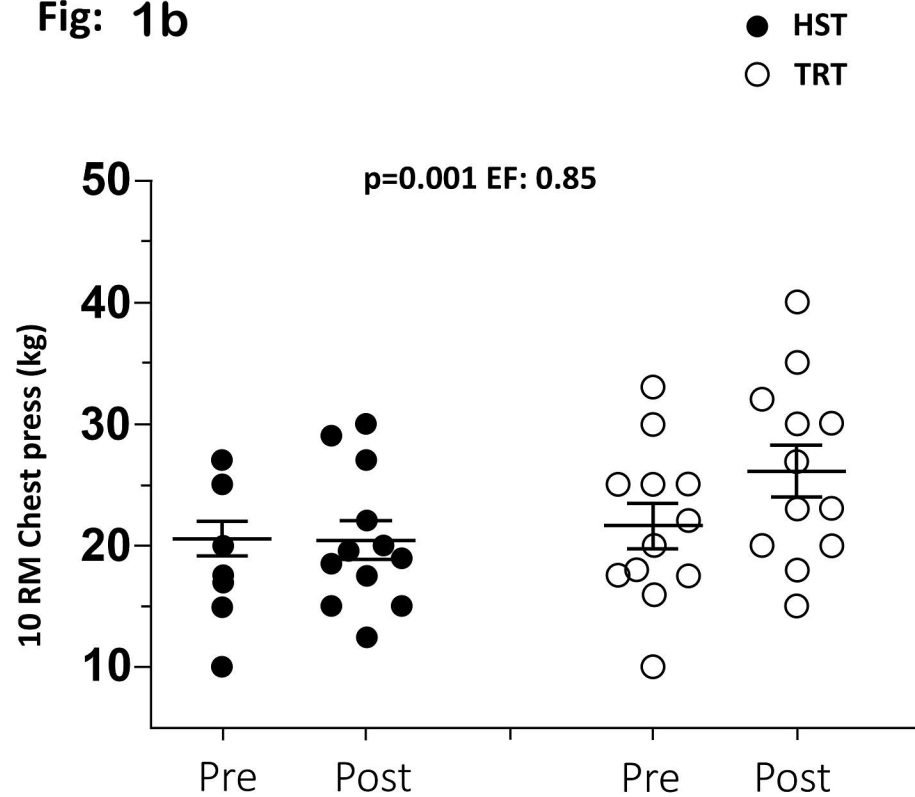


Fig: 2a

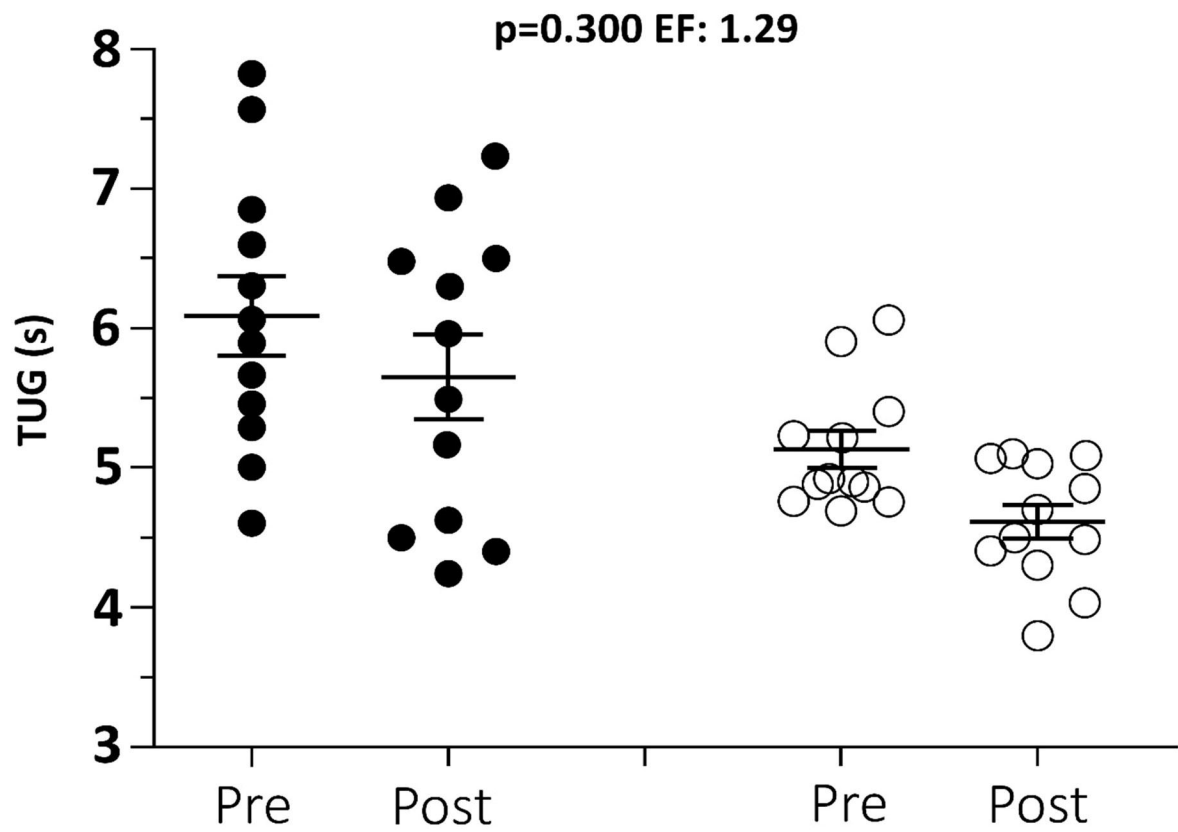


Fig: 2b

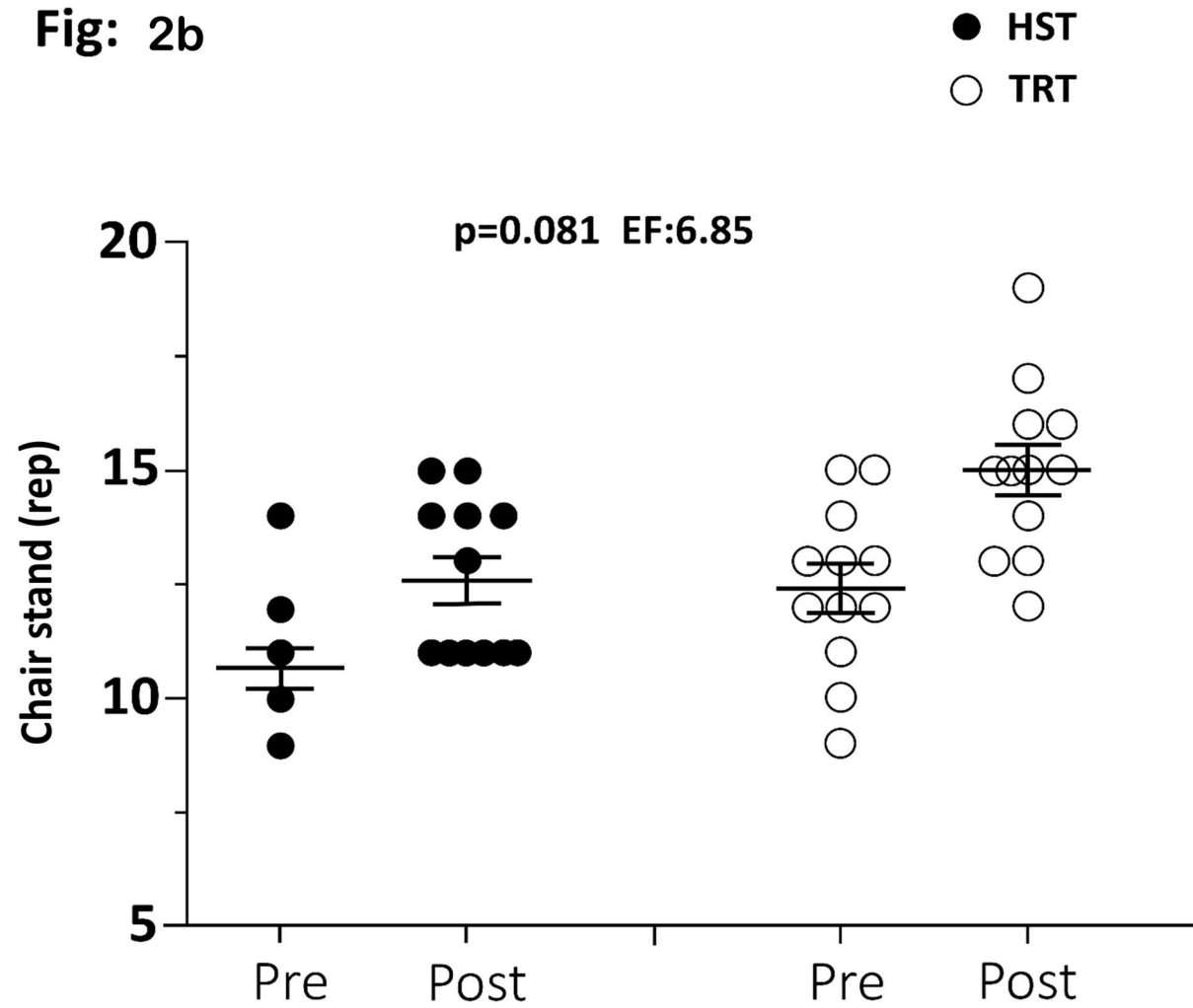


Fig: 3

