

Position statement on youth resistance training: the 2014 International Consensus

Rhodri S Lloyd,¹ Avery D Faigenbaum,² Michael H Stone,³ Jon L Oliver,¹ Ian Jeffreys,⁴ Jeremy A Moody,¹ Clive Brewer,⁵ Kyle C Pierce,⁶ Teri M McCambridge,⁷ Rick Howard,⁸ Lee Herrington,⁹ Brian Hainline,¹⁰ Lyle J Micheli,^{11,12,13} Rod Jaques,¹⁴ William J Kraemer,¹⁵ Michael G McBride,¹⁶ Thomas M Best,¹⁷ Donald A Chu,^{18,19} Brent A Alvar,¹⁸ Gregory D Myer^{7,13,20}

For numbered affiliations see end of article.

Correspondence to

Dr Gregory D Myer, Division of Sports Medicine, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center 3333 Burnet Ave, MLC 10001, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA; greg.myer@cchmc.org

Adapted from the position statement of the UK Strength and Conditioning Association on youth resistance training

Endorsed by: American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP); American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD); American Medical Society for Sports Medicine (AMSSM); British Association of Sports Rehabilitators and Trainers (BASRaT); International Federation of Sports Medicine (FIMS); Faculty of Sport and Exercise Medicine UK (FSEM); North American Society for Pediatric Exercise Medicine (NASPEM); National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA); Chief Medical Officer, National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA); National Strength and Conditioning Association (NSCA)

Accepted 17 August 2013

ABSTRACT

The current manuscript has been adapted from the official position statement of the UK Strength and Conditioning Association on youth resistance training. It has subsequently been reviewed and endorsed by leading professional organisations within the fields of sports medicine, exercise science and paediatrics. The authorship team for this article was selected from the fields of paediatric exercise science, paediatric medicine, physical education, strength and conditioning and sports medicine.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Prior to discussing the literature surrounding youth resistance training, it is pertinent to define key terminologies used throughout the manuscript.

- ▶ *Childhood* represents the developmental period of life from the end of infancy to the beginning of adolescence. The term *children* refers to girls and boys (generally up to the age of 11 and 13 years, respectively) who have not developed secondary sex characteristics.¹
- ▶ The term *adolescence* refers to a period of life between childhood and adulthood. Although adolescence is a more difficult period to define in terms of chronological age due to differential maturation rates,² girls 12–18 years and boys 14–18 years are generally considered adolescents.
- ▶ The terms *youth* and *young athletes* represent global terms which include both children and adolescents.¹
- ▶ *Growth* is typically viewed as a quantifiable change in body composition, the size of the body as a whole or the size of specific regions of the body.³
- ▶ *Maturation* refers to the highly variable timing and tempo of progressive change within the human body from childhood to adulthood, and which, in addition to growth, influences overall physical performance capabilities.³
- ▶ *Training age* refers to the number of years an individual has been involved in a structured and appropriately supervised training programme.⁴
- ▶ *Resistance training* refers to a specialised method of conditioning whereby an individual is working against a wide range of resistive loads to enhance health, fitness and performance.⁵ Forms of resistance training include the use of body weight, weight machines, free weights (barbells and dumbbells), elastic bands and medicine balls.

- ▶ *Weightlifting* is a sport that involves the performance of the snatch and clean and jerk lifts in competition.⁶ Weightlifting training refers to a variety of multijoint exercises including the snatch, clean and jerk and modified variations of these lifts, that are explosive but highly controlled movements that require a high degree of technical skill.
- ▶ *Qualified professional* is a term used to represent those individuals who are trained and aware of the unique physiological, physical and psychosocial needs of children and adolescents, and possess a relevant and recognised strength and conditioning qualification (eg, the UK Strength and Conditioning Association (UKSCA) Accredited Strength and Conditioning Coach or National Strength and Conditioning Association (NSCA) Certified Strength and Conditioning Specialist). Importantly, such individuals should have a strong pedagogical background to ensure that they are knowledgeable of the different styles of communication and interaction that will be needed to effectively teach or coach children and adolescents.^{4,5} Qualified professionals should possess the knowledge and expertise to plan, teach and progress age-related resistance training programmes to youth of all ages and abilities using various forms of resistance exercises, and should be able to identify and modify technical deficiencies when necessary. Qualified professionals would also be expected to work effectively and respectfully with other healthcare practitioners (eg, physicians, physical therapists, certified athletic trainers, registered dietitians, physical education teachers, youth coaches, paediatric exercise specialists and researchers) to enhance the health and well-being of all youth.

INTRODUCTION

Since seminal attempts to address concerns surrounding prepubescent strength training,⁷ the concept of children and adolescents participating in various forms of resistance training has been of growing interest among researchers, clinicians and practitioners. There is now a compelling body of scientific evidence that supports regular participation in youth resistance training to reinforce positive health and fitness adaptations and sports performance enhancement. There is even stronger

To cite: Lloyd RS, Faigenbaum AD, Stone MH, et al. *Br J Sports Med* Published Online First: [please include Day Month Year] doi:10.1136/bjsports-2013-092952

Consensus statement

support for the use of resistance training in youth provided that these programmes are supervised by qualified professionals and consistent with the needs, goals and abilities of children and adolescents.^{5 8–13} Research has indicated that various forms of resistance training can elicit significant performance improvements in muscular strength,¹⁴ power production,^{5 15} running velocity,¹⁶ change-of-direction speed¹⁷ and general motor performance¹² in youth. From a health perspective, evidence indicates that resistance training can make positive alterations in overall body composition,¹⁸ reduce body fat,^{19 20} improve insulin-sensitivity in adolescents who are overweight²¹ and enhance cardiac function in children who are obese.²² Importantly, it has also been demonstrated that regular participation in an appropriately designed exercise programme inclusive of resistance training, can enhance bone-mineral density and improve skeletal health^{23 24} and likely reduce sports-related injury risk in young athletes.^{25 26} This would appear to be an important consideration given that approximately 3.5 million sports-related injuries in youth require a medical visit each year in the USA.²⁷ Comparable relative data from Europe found that nearly 1.3 million cases of sports-related injuries reported in 2009 required hospitalisation for children under the age of 15 years.²⁸ Additionally, muscular strength and resistance training have been associated with positive psychological health and well-being in children and adolescents.^{29–33}

The World Health Organization (WHO) and other public health agencies now include resistance training as part of their physical activity guidelines for children and adolescents.^{34–36} However, recent evidence indicates that the muscular strength levels of school-age youth are decreasing.^{37–39} Progressive resistance training under the supervision of qualified professionals can offer a safe, effective and worthwhile method for reversing this undesirable trend, while encouraging participation in resistance training as an ongoing lifestyle choice. The importance of effective education by qualified professionals is essential,^{4 5 40 41} as positive early experiences in physical education have been associated with lifelong physical activity.⁴²

EFFECTS OF GROWTH AND MATURATION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF MUSCULAR STRENGTH DURING CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE

It has been established previously that muscular strength development is a multidimensional fitness component that is influenced by a combination of muscular, neural and biomechanical factors.⁴³ Due to the non-linear development of physiological processes such as stature and body mass during childhood and adolescence, the assessment and monitoring of muscular strength can be a challenging task during the growing years.⁴⁴ Similarly, a non-linear pattern emerges when examining the development of physical performance qualities in younger populations.³ Assessments of muscular strength in children and adolescents indicate that strength increases in a relatively linear fashion throughout childhood for both boys and girls.⁴⁵ As children reach the onset of puberty, they experience rapid growth along with observable non-linear gains in muscular strength.⁴⁶ During this period, sex differences in muscular strength begin to emerge, with boys demonstrating accelerated gains as a result of the adolescent spurt, and girls appearing to continue to develop in a more linear fashion.³ Potential factors inherently responsible for increases in strength during childhood appear to be related to the maturation of the central nervous system,⁴⁷ for example, improvements in motor unit recruitment, firing frequency, synchronisation and neural myelination.^{48 49} Strength gains during adolescence are typically driven by further neural

development, but structural and architectural changes resulting largely from increased hormonal concentrations, including testosterone, growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor play a significant role, especially in males.² Further increases in muscle cross-sectional area, muscle pennation angle and continued motor unit differentiation will typically enable adolescents to express greater levels of force, and partly explain the age-related differences in strength between children, adolescents and adults.⁵⁰ The number of muscle fibres that an individual will possess is determined as a result of prenatal myogenesis,⁵¹ and therefore it should be noted that postnatal increases in muscle cross-sectional area will be largely governed by increases in muscle fibre size, not an increase in the number of muscle fibres.^{51 52}

Sex-related differences in muscular strength are more evident as children enter adolescence, with males consistently outperforming females.⁵³ Research has indicated that muscle growth will largely explain the disparity between sexes, especially for absolute measures of muscular strength and power.^{54 55} It is essential that those responsible for teaching and training children and adolescents are aware of these paediatric scientific principles to ensure that an exercise prescription is planned according to the unique demands of the individual inclusive of baseline fitness levels, motor skill development, movement competencies and health or medical issues. Owing to the highly individualised nature of growth and maturation, children and adolescents of the same chronological age will vary markedly in biological status (up to 4–5 years), and consequently, chronological age is deemed a weak indicator of maturational status.⁵⁶ Awareness of the potential variation in biological age among children of the same chronological age group is a central tenet of most long-term physical development programmes in order to ensure that youth are trained according to their biological status, as opposed to age-group classifications.^{4 57–62} In addition to chronological and biological age, those responsible for the design and implementation of youth resistance training programmes must take into consideration the training age of the individual.⁴ From a developmental perspective, this becomes critically important when training an adolescent who is approaching adulthood, but has no experience of participating in a structured resistance training programme. Conversely, a technically proficient 10-year-old child should not be restricted to introductory training methods, provided they have the interest and desire to participate in more advanced training programmes.^{4 63}

HEALTH BENEFITS OF RESISTANCE TRAINING FOR YOUTH

The WHO now recognises physical inactivity as the fourth leading risk factor for global mortality for non-communicable diseases, and supports participation in a variety of physical activities including those that strengthen muscle and bone.^{3 5} Since contemporary youth are not as active as they should be,^{64–67} children and adolescents should be encouraged to participate regularly in play, games, sports and planned exercise in the context of school and community activities. Not only is physical activity essential for normal growth and development, but also youth programmes that enhance muscular strength and fundamental movement skill performance early in life appear to build the foundation for an active lifestyle later in life.^{68–71} Since muscular strength is an essential component of motor skill performance,^{2 12 72} developing competence and confidence to perform resistance exercise during the growing years may have important long-term implications for health, fitness and sports performance.⁷³

Resistance training as part of a well-rounded fitness training programme can offer unique health benefits to children and adolescents when appropriately prescribed and supervised. Regular participation in youth resistance training programme has been shown to elicit favourable short-term influences on musculoskeletal health, body composition and cardiovascular risk factors.^{11 74–77} However, following a period of detraining (8–12 weeks) various measures of muscular fitness appear to regress towards baseline values,^{78–80} suggesting that engagement in resistance training should be viewed as a long-term, year-round commitment to a well-constructed and varied periodised programme.

Given the growing prevalence of youth who are overweight and obese and the associated health-related concerns, the influence of resistance training on the metabolic health, body composition and injury risk profile of children and adolescents with excess body fat has received increased attention.^{21 81–86} Although low intensity, long-duration aerobic exercise is typically prescribed for youth who are overweight or obese, excess body fat and weight may hinder the performance of physical activities such as jogging. Additionally, adolescents who are overweight and obese are more than twice as likely to be injured in sports and other physical activities compared with their peers who are not overweight or obese, typically due to a reduced ability to demonstrate and maintain postural stability.⁸⁴ Furthermore, youth deemed to be overweight and obese seem to demonstrate significantly lower motor coordination than normal weight youth,^{87–89} which is of concern due to the established relationship between motor coordination and levels of physical activity.^{70 90–92} While the treatment of youth who are overweight and obese is complex, participation in a formalised training programme that is inclusive of resistance training may provide an opportunity to improve their muscle strength, enhance motor coordination and gain confidence in their perceived abilities to be physically active.^{93 94}

The available evidence indicates that resistance training has the potential to offer observable health value to sedentary youth and young athletes, and such training should always be designed by qualified professionals to meet the needs of all children and adolescents, regardless of body size or physical ability.

Resistance training and the growing skeleton

From a public health perspective, it is noteworthy that traditional fears and misinformed concerns that resistance training would be harmful to the developing skeleton have been replaced by reports indicating that childhood may be the opportune time to build bone mass and enhance bone structure by participating in weight-bearing physical activities.^{95–97} Fears that resistance training would injure the growth plates of youths are not supported by scientific reports or clinical observations, which indicate that the mechanical stress placed on the developing growth plates from resistance exercise, or high strain eliciting sports such as gymnastics or weightlifting, may be beneficial for bone formation and growth.^{29 98–102} While children have a lower risk of resistance training-related injury to joint sprains and muscle strains than adults,¹⁰³ attention to initial postural alignment and technical competency during all exercises throughout the training programme is essential to ensure safe and effective practice irrespective of resistance training mode. While numerous factors, including genetics and nutritional status influence skeletal health, regular participation in sports and fitness programmes, which include multijoint, moderate-to-high intensity resistance exercise, can help to optimise bone-mineral accrual during childhood and adolescence.^{23 24 97 104–110} In fact, the

literature suggests that childhood and adolescence are indeed key developmental periods for increasing bone-mineral density, and that failure to participate in moderate-to-vigorous weight-bearing physical activity during these stages of growth may predispose individuals to long-term bone-health implications.^{24 95 111} Furthermore, no scientific evidence indicates that resistance training will have an adverse effect on linear growth during childhood or adolescence^{99 112} or reduce eventual height in adulthood.^{98–100}

INJURY PREVENTION BENEFITS OF RESISTANCE TRAINING FOR YOUTH

Although the total elimination of sport-related and physical activity-related injuries is an unrealistic goal, multifaceted training programmes that include general and specific strength and conditioning activities may help to reduce the likelihood of injuries in youth. Cahill and Griffith¹¹³ incorporated resistance training into their preseason conditioning for adolescent American football players and reported a reduction in non-serious knee injuries, as well as knee injuries requiring surgery, over four competitive seasons. Hejna *et al*¹¹⁴ reported that adolescent athletes who incorporated resistance training in their physical development programme suffered fewer injuries and recovered from injuries with less time spent in rehabilitation as compared with team-mates who did not participate in a similar resistance training programme. Similarly, Soligard *et al*¹¹⁵ successfully reduced the risk of severe and overuse injuries in female adolescent soccer players, following the implementation of a comprehensive warm-up programme that incorporated resistance-based exercises. Likewise, Emery and Meeuwisse¹¹⁶ reported a reduction in overall injuries and acute injury incidence in adolescent soccer players with the use of an integrative training programme that included resistance training. Of note, recent evidence suggests that adherence of adolescent female soccer players to injury prevention programmes is greater when facilitated by appropriately skilled coaches.¹¹⁷ This underscores the importance of regular coach education to ensure that qualified professionals understand the mechanical requirements of correct exercise techniques, fundamental principles of paediatric exercise science and the pedagogical aspects of coaching youth training programmes.

Despite specific case study reports highlighting acute resistance training-related injuries,^{112 118 119} such injuries have generally occurred when youth are unsupervised or supervised by individuals with unqualified instruction and/or inappropriate training loads.²⁹ Recent data examining acute resistance training-related injuries in youth and adults reveal that approximately 77.2% of all injuries are accidental¹⁰³ and that most injuries are potentially avoidable with appropriate supervision, sensible training progression based on technical competency and a safe training environment.²⁹ With respect to overuse injuries, literature indicates that appropriately prescribed and well-supervised training programmes will reduce the likelihood of overuse injuries occurring in youth populations^{120–122} and that resistance training focused on addressing the risk factors associated with youth-sport injuries (eg, low-fitness level, muscle imbalances and errors in training) has the potential to reduce overuse injuries by approximately 50% in children and adolescents.^{26 123} For example, training protocols incorporated into preseason and in-season conditioning programmes reduced overuse injury risks, and decreased anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries in adolescent athletes.^{124–128}

It appears that multifaceted programmes that increase muscle strength, enhance movement mechanics and improve functional

Consensus statement

abilities may be the most effective strategy for reducing sports-related injuries in young athletes.^{116 124 129 130} Additionally, the effectiveness of these injury prevention programmes is greater if implemented in younger age groups prior to the onset of neuromuscular deficits and biomechanical alterations.^{130 131} Clearly, participation in physical activity should not begin with competitive sport but should evolve out of preparatory fitness conditioning that is sensibly progressed over time. This notion is supported by the fact that basic jumping and landing activities commonly encountered within both competitive sports and free-play activities can expose individuals to ground reaction forces of approximately 5–7 times body weight,^{132 133} which are in excess of the forces experienced during resistance training activities.

Since physical inactivity is a risk factor for activity-related injuries in children,¹³⁴ youth who participate regularly in age-appropriate fitness programmes, which include resistance exercise, may be less likely to suffer an injury owing to the apparent decline in free-time physical activity among children and adolescents.^{34 67 135–137} As such, it seems that the musculoskeletal system of some aspiring young athletes may be ill-prepared for the demands of sports practice and competition.^{25 29 138 139} Recent position statements have recognised the importance of physical activity and sport for youth, and promote the early identification of fitness deficits in aspiring young athletes and the proper prescription of training programmes to address individual limitations.^{140 141} Consequently, aspiring young athletes should be encouraged to participate in, and appreciate the value of, multifaceted preparatory conditioning programmes that include resistance training to address deficits in muscular fitness and skill development, and enhance symmetry in strength development around joints. Importantly, for youth who participate in multiple sports or multiple leagues within the same sport, resistance training sessions should not be simply viewed as an addition to the overall sporting schedule, but should form a compulsory component in lieu of additional competitive events or sport-specific training sessions.

Resistance training considerations for young females

Musculoskeletal growth during puberty, in the absence of corresponding neuromuscular adaptation, may facilitate the development of abnormal joint mechanics and injury risk factors in young adolescent girls.^{142 143} If not addressed, these intrinsic risk factors may continue to develop throughout adolescence, thus predisposing female athletes to increased risk of injuries.^{144 145} In a recent longitudinal study, Ford *et al*¹⁴⁶ noted that young females who did not participate in resistance training programmes as they matured developed injury risk factors (eg, increased knee valgus moment when landing). Conversely, those maturing athletes who did report participation in resistance training activities were found to have safer movement mechanics and increased posterior chain strength.¹⁴⁶

Well-supervised, multifaceted resistance training programmes have been shown to reduce abnormal biomechanics (eg, increased knee valgus landing) that manifest during adolescence^{127 128 147 148} and appear to decrease injury rates in female athletes.¹²⁷ The findings of a recent meta-analysis revealed that within existing literature, an age-related association between resistance training and reduction of ACL incidence only occurred in the youngest female athletes (14–18 years), indicating that the earlier youth can engage with a well-rounded training programme inclusive of resistance training, the lower the likelihood of ACL injury.¹³⁰ Resistance training utilised to enrich the motor learning environment in early youth may

initiate adaptation and help low-motor competence children ‘catch-up’ with their peers in neuromuscular control.^{149–153} In addition to reduced knee injuries in adolescent¹⁵⁴ and mature¹⁵⁵ female athletes, regular participation in a multifaceted resistance training programme may also induce measures of the ‘neuromuscular spurt’, defined as the natural increases in muscle power, strength and coordination that occurs with increasing age in adolescent boys,¹³⁹ which are not typically seen in females.^{128 153} Of potential interest to sports medicine professionals, resistance training timed with growth and development may induce the desired neuromuscular spurt, which may improve sports performance and improve biomechanics related to injury risk in young females.^{128 144} Observed relative gains in females can be greater than in males, perhaps because baseline neuromuscular performance levels are lower on average in females.^{128 156–159}

PSYCHOSOCIAL BENEFITS OF RESISTANCE TRAINING FOR YOUTH

At present, research examining the psychological benefits of resistance training for youth is limited, and the literature that is available has thus far produced equivocal findings. While a small number of studies have previously failed to demonstrate significant resistance training-induced psychological benefits for healthy youth,^{112 160} other research indicates that physical activity interventions inclusive of resistance training can lead to improvements in psychological well-being,^{30 33} mood and self-appraisal.¹⁶¹ Of note, youth who possess relatively low levels of self-concept at the start of an exercise programme may be more likely to show significant improvement in comparison with those who begin training with a relatively high self-concept.¹⁶⁰

Research indicates that self-concept and self-perception are related to an individual’s level of engagement in physical activity.^{162–166} It has been reported that adolescent girls improved their physical self-perceptions in response to an 8-week resistance training programme.¹⁶⁷ Similarly, various measures of self-concept have been shown to improve in adolescent males and females after a 12-week resistance training programme.³² Collectively, these findings indicate that age-related resistance training can have a favourable influence on the psychological well-being of school-age youth provided that self-improvement and enjoyment remain central to the training programme.

It should be noted that excessive volumes of physical training (inclusive of resistance training) could lead to negative psychosocial effects, especially for those youth who are emotionally and psychologically vulnerable.¹⁶⁸ Excessive training with inadequate recovery may lead to a child or adolescent experiencing overtraining syndrome, which is identified by prolonged maladaptation of biological, neurochemical and hormonal systems. In addition to physiological concerns, overtraining can have serious psychosocial consequences¹⁶⁹ and may require substantial time for a young athlete to make a full recovery.¹⁷⁰ This highlights the need for appropriate prescription and supervision by qualified professionals who listen to individual concerns and understand the physical and psychological uniqueness of younger populations.

EFFECTIVENESS OF YOUTH RESISTANCE TRAINING FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF MUSCLE STRENGTH, MOTOR SKILL AND PHYSICAL PERFORMANCE

The term ‘trainability’ describes the sensitivity of developing athletes to a given training stimulus.² As previously documented, children and adolescents will increase muscular strength levels as a result of growth and maturation.^{2 3 56 171 172} Growth and

maturation can obscure the effects of training, as they can quite often mask potential training effects if the intensity and volume of the conditioning programme are suboptimal.^{169 173 174} The appropriate development of muscular strength can have important implications for sport and daily life. To induce adaptations in muscular strength above and beyond those of growth and maturation alone, the volume and intensity of training stimulus must be sufficient.^{2 5 12 175 176} Research clearly indicates that appropriately designed resistance training programmes can benefit youth of all ages, with children as young as 5–6 years of age making noticeable improvements in muscular fitness following exposure to basic resistance training exercises using free weights, elastic resistance bands and machine weights.^{161 177–179} Irrespective of chronological age, it is recommended that any child engaging in a form of resistance training is emotionally mature enough to accept and follow directions, and possesses competent levels of balance and postural control.^{5 9} While reports indicate that the magnitude of absolute strength gains is greater in adolescents (effect size=1.91) in comparison to children (effect size=0.81),¹⁴ relative increases in strength appear to be similar during the developmental periods of childhood and adolescence.^{119 180 181}

It is acknowledged that muscular strength is important for effective motor skill performance.^{2 72} Findings from a recent meta-analysis showed that resistance training is effective in enhancing motor skill performance (jumping, running and throwing tasks), and that children showed greater gains in performance than adolescents.¹² These findings, in addition to several reviews^{4 13 14 25 29 74 100 180 182} highlight the effectiveness of resistance training for enhancing motor skill performance in school-age youth, and underscore the importance of implementing progressive interventions early in life when children possess higher levels of neural plasticity.

Despite the growing body of evidence demonstrating that resistance training can lead to established improvements in motor performance through increases in qualities such as strength, speed, power and other related characteristics,¹² an aspect of discussion among some observers relates to the degree of training-induced muscle hypertrophy that is possible in children prior to puberty.^{169 183–185} Existing research suggests that increases in muscular strength are a result of muscle cross-sectional area, architectural (muscle size, moment arm length) and neural (voluntary activation level) adaptations.^{53 186} However, the mechanisms appear to differ according to the stage of development and are tissue dependent (ie, muscle vs tendon). The primary mechanism underlying resistance training-induced gains in muscular strength and related characteristics before puberty depend primarily on neural adaptations.^{2 49 187 188} However, among early and particularly late adolescents, the effects of resistance training appear to be a result of additional gains in lean body mass and muscle cross-sectional area (especially in males); with further alterations in neural mechanisms appearing to be the same as those adaptations experienced by adults.^{14 189} Therefore, the focus of resistance training for children should be based on goals related to enhancement of muscle strength, function and control, as opposed to trying to make substantial increases in muscle size. Indeed, when training children and adolescents the adoption of a long-term approach to physical development should be implemented with a clear understanding of the primary mechanisms responsible for training-induced adaptations during different stages of development.^{4 41}

Collectively, the existing literature highlights several important concepts. First, appropriate resistance training can result in

an increased level of strength during childhood and adolescence.^{12 14 182 190–195} Gains in maximum strength have ranged from approximately 10% to 90%,¹⁴ depending on several factors including the volume, intensity, frequency, duration and design of the training programme, as well as the quality of supervision.¹⁹⁶ However, in general, expected strength gains of 30–40% are typically observed in untrained youth following participation in an introductory (8–20 weeks) resistance training programme.⁵ Second, resistance training results in only a minor sex-associated effect on both absolute and relative strength gains among prepubertal children, however, the magnitude of effect does appear to be a function of sex in older groups.¹¹⁹ Third, evidence indicates that the most effective programmes last more than 8 weeks and involve multiple sets, and that generally strength gains increase with the frequency of training sessions per week.¹² Finally, following a short training programme, detraining will be quite rapid.^{78–80} Consequently, youth should be encouraged to participate in year-round resistance training in order to maintain training-induced gains in muscular strength. It should be noted that resistance training programmes for youth should follow a training model with a progressive and systematic variation in exercise selection, intensity, volume, frequency and repetition velocity to enhance training adaptations, reduce boredom and decrease the risk of overuse injuries.^{197–199} Qualified professionals should regularly assess the readiness of youth to participate in resistance training sessions, and should manipulate daily training sessions when appropriate.

Weightlifting for youth

The available literature indicates that participation in the sport of weightlifting and the performance of weightlifting movements as part of a strength and conditioning programme can be safe, effective and enjoyable for children and adolescents provided qualified supervision and instruction are available and progression is based on the technical performance of each lift.^{41 103 200–202} However, it must be emphasised that regardless of the exercise choice, all youth resistance training programmes should be consistent with a participant's training age, technical competency and maturational status. Additionally, qualified professionals who are knowledgeable of youth resistance training protocols and are able to teach and progress a variety of exercises including weightlifting movements should instruct such programmes.

Weightlifting exercises have previously been used by paediatric researchers to examine the potential effects of strength-power training on a number of performance and physiological variables.^{200 203 204} The data gleaned from these studies indicate that the incorporation of weightlifting exercises into a training programme can produce positive alterations in body composition, cardiorespiratory variables, various motor fitness parameters (eg, jumping and sprinting) and overall weightlifting performance among youth.^{200 203 204} Additionally, weightlifting injury rate is reportedly lower than other forms of resistance training and sports in general.^{200 201} If training and competition are properly supervised and sensibly progressed, then the performance of weightlifting exercises may provide a safe and effective stimulus for enhancing strength and power performance in school-age youth. Owing to the skill level required to perform weightlifting movements correctly, it is important that individuals responsible for teaching complex movements to youth hold the requisite coaching qualifications, and have experience teaching weightlifting to children and adolescents to ensure their continued safety and well-being.

RESISTANCE TRAINING GUIDELINES FOR CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS

Training variable considerations

Exercise selection

While a range of exercises performed using a variety of equipment can be prescribed to both children and adolescents, it is vital that the fundamentals of technical competency are prioritised at all times. The principles of equipment suitability and familiarity for paediatric testing, also apply for youth participating in a resistance training programme. The use of child-size equipment (light barbells, small dumbbells or fixed machine weights) is important for children or adolescents to properly and safely execute a movement with correct technique.²⁰⁵ Some of the resistance modes available to those prescribing youth resistance training programmes include bodyweight, weight machines, free weights (ie, barbells and dumbbells), elastic resistance bands and medicine balls; all of which have been proven to elicit physiological adaptation and/or performance enhancement when used in youth resistance training programmes.^{17 21 79 80 112 128 153 177 190 206–217}

The selection of the resistance modality will largely depend on the technical ability and baseline fitness levels of the individual, the level of coaching expertise, the overall goal of the training programme and the availability of equipment. However, when basic bodyweight exercise technique (eg, bodyweight squatting, lunging, pressing and pulling movements) is sufficiently developed in the individual, exercises with free weights should be incorporated into the training programme since alternative forms of resistance such as machine-based resistance have been reported to stimulate less muscle activation in lower body,²¹⁸ upper body²¹⁹ and whole-body²²⁰ exercises compared with free-weight resistance, albeit in adult populations. For technically competent youth, dynamic qualities can be enhanced with multijoint, velocity-specific training in the form of free-weight resistance training (eg, weightlifting and plyometrics).^{202 210 212}

For youths with a minimal training experience and associated poor technical competency (ie, low-training age), qualified professionals should employ a range of exercises which are designed to promote the development of muscular strength and enhance overall fundamental motor skill competency. Childhood is deemed to be a crucial time in which to develop motor skill competency, as it is during these formative years that neuromuscular coordination is most susceptible to change.²²¹ During this stage of development, children will experience rapid brain maturation,²²² and exposing children to key athletic movement patterns at a time where natural strengthening of existing synaptic pathways²²³ and synaptic pruning²²⁴ takes place, is considered crucial for long-term athletic development⁴ and lifelong physical activity.²²⁵ Once the child can demonstrate appropriate technical competency, they can be introduced to more advanced exercises that challenge the child in terms of coordination and require greater levels and rates of force production. In the case of weightlifting exercises, which by their nature are more complex movements, researchers have previously suggested that early exposure should focus on technical development using modified equipment and light external loads.^{5 41}

Training volume and intensity

Volume and intensity are key resistance training variables that are routinely manipulated within a training session, or overall phase of training, depending on the primary training goal of the individual. *Volume* refers to the total number of times an

exercise is performed within a training session multiplied by the resistance used (kg).^{197 226} *Intensity* most commonly refers to the resistance that is required to overcome during a repetition.²²⁶ The relationship between volume and intensity is inverse in nature; the greater the load (intensity), the lower the number of repetitions that can be completed (volume) by the individual.²²⁶ Both variables must be considered synergistically when prescribing resistance training to maximise physiological adaptation and minimise injury risk. Exposing a child or adolescent to excessive intensity (external loading) at the expense of correct technique may lead to acute injury, while prescribing excessive volume of training over a training block may induce a state of overtraining. This highlights the need for qualified professionals to not only understand resistance training prescription theory but also the unique intricacies associated with youth of different ages and maturity levels.

To prescribe appropriate training intensity, teachers and coaches typically stipulate a percentage of an individual's one repetition-maximum (1 RM). Research indicates that maximal strength and power testing of children²²⁷ and adolescents²²⁸ is safe and reliable when standardised protocols are implemented and monitored by qualified professionals. While 1 RM measurements are routinely used within paediatric research settings and youth sport training facilities, owing to time and class size, physical education teachers and youth fitness professionals may benefit from the use of alternative means of assessing strength. Predictive equations that estimate 1 RM values from submaximal loads have been used in adult populations,^{229–231} however, methods of predicting 1 RM values from higher repetition ranges possess less accuracy, in particular when repetition ranges exceed more than 10.²²⁷ Additionally, the fatiguing effects of higher RM testing schemes (eg, 5 RM or 10 RM) are noteworthy since the cumulative effects of fatigue will influence the ability of a child or adolescent to maintain proper exercise technique throughout the testing set. If an overarching demonstration of muscular strength is the desired outcome, simple field-based measures such as vertical jump, long jump and hand-grip strength assessment have been significantly correlated to 1 RM strength values in youth and may serve as an appropriate surrogate measure of muscular strength, especially in schools and recreational settings.^{232 233} Crucially, it should be noted that a child or adolescent must be able to demonstrate sound technical competency irrespective of the RM load or test selected.

Progression of volume and intensity

When untrained or sedentary youth with a low-training age and poor technical competency first begin to participate in formalised resistance training programmes, the use of 1RM measurements (actual or predicted) to determine training intensities will typically be unnecessary. Consequently, an appropriate repetition range should be prescribed to develop technical competency and acquire a base level of adaptation, and over time the external load can be increased provided exercise technique has sufficiently improved. For individuals without prior experience of resistance training, initial prescription should use low volume (1–2 sets) and low-moderate training intensities ($\leq 60\%$ 1 RM) for a range of exercises and movement patterns.¹⁹⁷ It should be noted that when children are initially exposed to multijoint resistance training exercises (eg, squatting), then multiple repetitions might be counterproductive for motor control development. Instead, it is recommended that children perform fewer repetitions (1–3) and are provided with real-time feedback after each repetition to ensure safe and correct movement

development. This is especially true for weightlifting exercises, which will naturally require more frequent feedback owing to the increased technical demands, associated with the movements. Once basic exercise technique is competent, then prescription should be progressed; for example, 2–4 sets of 6–12 repetitions with a low-moderate training intensity ($\leq 80\%$ 1 RM). Such progression should provide the child with sufficient exposure in order to aid motor control development, while serving as a suitable volume for physical conditioning. As training age and athletic competency increases, youth can be introduced to periodic phases of lower repetition ranges (≤ 6) and higher external loads ($> 85\%$ 1 RM) in training, on the proviso that technical competency remains.^{15 77 200 234 235}

However, it is important to note that not all exercises need to be performed for the same number of sets and repetitions within a training session. For example, an experienced adolescent lifter may perform three sets of three repetitions of a power-oriented exercise (eg, clean and jerk, snatch and derivatives of these lifts); then complete three sets of 3–5 repetitions of a large compound, multijoint movement (eg, back squat); and then finish with two sets of 6–8 repetitions of a unilateral exercise (eg, dumbbell lunge). Irrespective of the specific prescription, qualified professionals must observe and monitor for the effects of accumulated fatigue during the training session to minimise the risks of fatigue-induced technique decrements, which may predispose youth to training-related injury.

Depending on the learning environment, qualified professionals will need to provide feedback to ensure that technical competency is maintained throughout each set of the training programme. The frequency and mode of feedback will depend to a large degree on the number of individuals training, type of exercise being performed and the stage of learning and personality traits of the youth involved. For example, when coaching a novice, constructive feedback may be most helpful if it is provided after each repetition.⁴¹ In physical education classes in which the focus of the lesson is aimed at enhancing muscle strength and fundamental motor skill development, constructive feedback is most important since students are typically learning the correct movement patterns for the first time.

Rest intervals during training sessions

Available research indicates that children can recover more quickly from fatigue-inducing resistance training,^{236 237} and are less likely to suffer muscle damage following this form of exercise, owing to the increased pliability of their muscle tissue.²³⁸ Therefore, rest periods of approximately 1 min should suffice for most children. However, this may need to be increased (eg, 2–3 min) as the intensity of training increases, especially if the exercises require high levels of skill, force or power production (eg, weightlifting or plyometric exercises). While children can recover more quickly from short, intermittent high-intensity exercise bouts than adults,^{236 237 239} within-session resistance training performance should always be monitored to ensure correct resistance exercise technique is maintained throughout the training session. As such, commercial metabolic high-intensity resistance training programmes characterised by insufficient recovery between sets and exercises may result in the performance of potentially injurious exercise movements.

Training frequency

Training *frequency* typically refers to the number of sessions performed within a week. Previous research has indicated that 2–3 sessions per week on non-consecutive days is most appropriate

in order to develop muscular strength levels in children and adolescents.^{5 240} Behringer *et al*¹⁴ recently substantiated these recommendations, indicating that across 42 studies (where mean training frequency was 2.7 ± 0.8 sessions/week), training frequency was significantly correlated with increased resistance training effect. Since youth are still growing and developing, resistance training programmes should provide adequate time for rest and recovery. Youth who participate in resistance training programmes with a high training frequency should be monitored closely. Training frequency may increase as children go through adolescence and approach adulthood, especially for youth in competitive sport. While sampling and exposure to a variety of physical activity experiences should be recommended to help promote long-term physical development,^{4 225} parents, coaches and fitness professionals should be cognisant of the potential difficulties when youth participate in numerous activities resulting in the accumulation of high exercise volumes. For youth participating in competitive sports, in-season resistance training is needed to maintain gains in muscular fitness and reduce injury-risk. However, to reduce the chances of non-functional overreaching or overtraining, and to allow natural growth processes to occur, resistance training should not simply be viewed as an additional training session within the overall youth training programme, but as an alternative commitment in place of sport-specific training sessions and/or competitive fixtures. Depending on the competitive demands of the sport, anywhere between one and three resistance training sessions should be completed in-season to enable the development (or at least the maintenance) of previously acquired strength gains, and to allow adequate time for rest and recovery. Increased lesson time in physical education, taught by well-trained specialists may hold a realistic and evidenced-based opportunity to increase muscle strength and motor skill competency, which would facilitate an overall improvement in general physical fitness.^{2 72 137} Research demonstrates that exposure to resistance training with qualified supervision during exercise lessons or physical education classes does not have an adverse effect on after-school performance in adolescent athletes.²⁴¹

Repetition velocity

While moderate movement velocities may typically be recommended for youth when learning new movements or exercises, there is also a need to promote the intention to move quickly to develop motor unit recruitment patterns and firing frequencies within the neuromuscular system.²⁴² A child with limited training experience may need to perform resistance exercises with a moderate speed to maximise control and ensure correct technical development (eg, limb alignment, maintenance of correct posture); however, a participant with a training history of several months should be exposed to much greater movement velocities. Repetition velocities may also fluctuate within a session; for example, the movement preparation phase (including low load technical warm-up exercises) may consist of slower, controlled movements, however, the main strength and power exercises (inclusive of weightlifting and plyometric exercises) will involve rapid movement speeds. For resistance training exercises, the mass of the resistance will govern the velocity at which the movement is performed. Although heavy strength development exercises such as squatting, deadlifting, pressing and pulling will typically involve slower movement velocities, there should always be an intention to move as explosively as possible to promote appropriate neuromuscular adaptations and to maximise the transfer of training effect,²⁴³ providing the individual can demonstrate appropriate technique. The

Consensus statement

development of high velocity movement may be especially important during the growing years when neural plasticity and motor coordination are most sensitive to change.²²⁴

SUMMARY

A compelling body of scientific evidence supports participation in appropriately designed youth resistance training programmes that are supervised and instructed by qualified professionals. The current article has added to previous position statements from medical and fitness organisations, and has outlined the health, fitness and performance benefits associated with this training for children and adolescents. In summarising this manuscript, it is proposed that

1. The use of resistance training by children and adolescents is supported on the proviso that qualified professionals design and supervise training programmes that are consistent with the needs, goals and abilities of younger populations.
2. Parents, teachers, coaches and healthcare providers should recognise the potential health and fitness-related benefits of resistance exercise for all children and adolescents. Youth who do not participate in activities that enhance muscle strength and motor skills early in life may be at increased risk for negative health outcomes later in life.
3. Appropriately designed resistance training programmes may reduce sports-related injuries, and should be viewed as an essential component of preparatory training programmes for aspiring young athletes.
4. Regular participation in a variety of physical activities that include resistance training during childhood and adolescence can support and encourage participation in physical activity as an ongoing lifestyle choice later in life.
5. Resistance training prescription should be based according to training age, motor skill competency, technical proficiency and existing strength levels. Qualified professionals should also consider the biological age and psychosocial maturity level of the child or adolescent.
6. The focus of youth resistance training should be on developing the technical skill and competency to perform a variety of resistance training exercises at the appropriate intensity and volume, while providing youth with an opportunity to participate in programmes that are safe, effective and enjoyable.

Author affiliations

¹Cardiff School of Sport, Cardiff Metropolitan University, Cardiff, Wales, UK

²Department of Health and Exercise Science, The College of New Jersey, Ewing, New Jersey, USA

³Center of Excellence for Sport Science and Coach Education, East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee, USA

⁴Faculty of Health, Sport and Science, University of South Wales, UK

⁵Widnes Vikings Rugby League Club, Widnes, UK

⁶Department of Kinesiology and Health Science, Shreveport, Louisiana State University, Louisiana, USA

⁷Division of Sports Medicine, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, Ohio, USA

⁸Department of Kinesiology, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA

⁹School of Health Sciences, University of Salford, Salford, UK

¹⁰National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), Indianapolis, Indiana, USA

¹¹Department of Orthopaedics, Division of Sports Medicine, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts, USA

¹²Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts, USA

¹³The Micheli Center for Sports Injury Prevention, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA

¹⁴Faculty of Sport and Exercise Medicine (FSEM), Edinburgh, UK

¹⁵Human Performance Laboratory, Department of Kinesiology, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut, USA

¹⁶Division of Cardiology, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA

¹⁷Division of Sports Medicine, Department of Family Medicine, Sports Health and Performance Institute, Ohio State University, Ohio, USA

¹⁸Rocky Mountain University of Health Professions, Provo, Utah, USA

¹⁹Athercare Fitness and Rehabilitation, Alameda, California, USA

²⁰Athletic Training Division, School of Allied Medical Professions, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, USA

Competing interests None.

Patient consent Obtained.

Provenance and peer review Commissioned; internally peer reviewed.

REFERENCES

- 1 Lloyd RS, Faigenbaum AD, Myer GD, *et al.* United Kingdom Strength and Conditioning Association Position Statement on youth resistance training. *Prof Strength Cond J* 2012;26:26–39.
- 2 Malina RM, Bouchard C, Bar-Or O. *Growth, maturation, and physical activity*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2004:3–20.
- 3 Beunen GP, Malina RM. Growth and biologic maturation: relevance to athletic performance. In: Hebestreit H, Bar-Or O. eds. *The child and adolescent athlete*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 2008:3–17.
- 4 Lloyd RS, Oliver JL. The youth physical development model: a new approach to long-term athletic development. *Strength Cond J* 2012;34:37–43.
- 5 Faigenbaum AD, Kraemer WJ, Blimkie CJ, *et al.* Youth resistance training: updated position statement paper from the National Strength and Conditioning Association. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:S60–79.
- 6 Stone MH, Pierce KC, Sands WA, *et al.* Weightlifting: a brief overview. *Strength Cond J* 2006;28:50–66.
- 7 National Strength and Conditioning Association. Position paper on prepubescent strength training. *NSCA J* 1985;7:27–31.
- 8 American College of Sports Medicine. *ACSMs guidelines for exercise testing and prescription*. 9th edn. Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins, 2014.
- 9 American Academy of Pediatrics. Strength training by children and adolescents. *Pediatrics* 2008;121:835–40.
- 10 Baker D, Mitchell J, Boyle D, *et al.* Resistance training for children and youth: a position stand from the Australian Strength and Conditioning Association (ASCA). 2007. <http://www.strengthandconditioning.org> (accessed 13 Jul 2011).
- 11 Behm DG, Faigenbaum AD, Falk B, *et al.* Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology position paper: resistance training in children and adolescents. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* 2008;33:547–61.
- 12 Behringer M, Vom Heede A, Matthews M, *et al.* Effects of strength training on motor performance skills in children and adolescents: a meta-analysis. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2011;23:186–206.
- 13 Stratton G, Jones M, Fox KR, *et al.* Position statement on guidelines for resistance exercise in young people. *J Sports Sci* 2004;22:383–90.
- 14 Behringer M, Vom Heede A, Yue Z, *et al.* Effects of resistance training in children and adolescents: a meta-analysis. *Pediatrics* 2010;126:1199–210.
- 15 Sander A, Keiner M, Wirth K, *et al.* Influence of a 2-year strength training programme on power performance in elite youth soccer players. *Eur J Sport Sci* 2012. In press. doi:10.1080/17461391.2012.742572
- 16 Mikkola J, Rusko H, Nummela A, *et al.* Concurrent endurance and explosive type strength training improves neuromuscular and anaerobic characteristics in young distance runners. *Int J Sports Med* 2007;28:602–11.
- 17 Thomas K, French D, Hayes PR. The effect of plyometric training techniques on muscular power and agility in youth soccer players. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:332–5.
- 18 Schwingshandl J, Sudi K, Eibl B, *et al.* Effect of individualised training programme during weight reduction on body composition: a randomised trial. *Arch Dis Child* 1999;81:426–8.
- 19 Benson AC, Torode ME, Fiatarone Singh MA. The effect of high-intensity progressive resistance training on adiposity in children: a randomized controlled trial. *Int J Obes* 2008a;32:1016–27.
- 20 Watts K, Beye P, Siafarikas A. Exercise training normalizes vascular dysfunction and improves central adiposity in obese adolescents. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2004;43:1823–7.
- 21 Shaibi G, Cruz M, Ball G, *et al.* Effects of resistance training on insulin sensitivity in overweight Latino adolescent males. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2006;38:1208–15.
- 22 Naylor LH, Watts K, Sharpe JA, *et al.* Resistance training and diastolic myocardial tissue velocities in obese children. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2008;40:2027–32.
- 23 Álvarez-San Emeterio C, Palacios-Gil Antuñano N, López-Sobale AM, *et al.* Effect of strength training and the practice of alpine skiing on bone mass density, growth, body composition and the strength and power of the legs of adolescent skiers. *J Strength Cond Res* 2011;25:2879–90.
- 24 Bass SL. The prepubertal years—a unique opportune stage of growth when the skeleton is most responsive to exercise. *Sports Med* 2000;30:73–8.
- 25 Myer GD, Faigenbaum AD, Chu D, *et al.* Integrative training for children and adolescents: techniques and practices for reducing sports-related injuries and enhancing athletic performance. *Phys Sports Med* 2011;39:74–84.

- 26 Valovich-McLeod TC, Decoster LC, Loud KJ, *et al.* National Athletic Trainers' Association position statement: prevention of pediatric overuse injuries. *J Athl Train* 2011;46:206–20.
- 27 American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons. *A guide to safety for young athletes*. American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons Website. 2012. <http://orthoinfo.aaos.org/topic.cfm?topic=A00307> (accessed Mar 2012).
- 28 Bauer R, Steiner M. *Injuries in the European Union statistics summary 2005–2007*. Vienna: European Network for Sports Injury Prevention and European Commission, Health and Consumers, 2009.
- 29 Faigenbaum AD, Myer GD. Resistance training among young athletes: safety, efficacy and injury prevention effects. *Br J Sports Med* 2010;44:56–63.
- 30 Holloway J, Beuter A, Duda J. Self-efficacy and training in adolescent girls. *J Appl Soc Psychol* 1988;18:699–719.
- 31 Padilla-Moledo C, Ruiz JR, Ortega FB, *et al.* Associations of muscular fitness with psychological positive health, health complaints, and health risk behaviors in Spanish children and adolescents. *J Strength Cond Res* 2012;26:1671–3.
- 32 Velez A, Golem DL, Arent SM. The impact of a 12-week resistance training program on strength, body composition, and self-concept of hispanic adolescents. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:1065–73.
- 33 Yu C, Sung R, Hau K, *et al.* The effect of diet and strength training on obese children's physical self concept. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 2008;48:76–82.
- 34 Department of Health, Physical Activity, Health Improvement and Protection. Start Active, Stay Active: a report on physical activity from the four home countries' Chief Medical Officers. 2011. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications> (accessed 26 Mar 2013).
- 35 World Health Organization. *Global recommendations on physical activity for health*. Geneva: WHO Press, 2010.
- 36 United States Department of Health and Human Services. *2008 physical activity guidelines for Americans*. 2008. <http://www.health.gov/paguidelines> (accessed 26 Mar 2013).
- 37 Cohen DD, Voss C, Taylor MJD, *et al.* Ten-year secular changes in muscular fitness in English children. *Acta Paediatr* 2011;100:e175–7.
- 38 Moliner-Urdiales D, Ruiz JR, Ortega FB, *et al.* Secular trends in health-related physical fitness in Spanish adolescents: the AVENA and HELENA studies. *J Sci Med Sport* 2010;13:584–8.
- 39 Runhaar J, Collard DCM, Kemper HCG, *et al.* Motor fitness in Dutch youth: differences over a 26-year period (1980–2006). *J Sci Med Sport* 2010;13:323–8.
- 40 Verschuren O, Ada L, Maltais DB, *et al.* Muscle strengthening in children with spastic cerebral palsy: considerations for future resistance training protocols. *Phys Ther* 2011;91:1130–9.
- 41 Lloyd RS, Oliver JL, Meyers RW, *et al.* Long-term athletic development and its application to youth weightlifting. *Strength Cond J* 2012;34:55–66.
- 42 Kirk D. Physical education, youth sport and lifelong participation: the importance of early learning experiences. *Eur Phys Educ Rev* 2005;11:239–55.
- 43 De Ste Croix MBA. Muscle strength. In: Armstrong N, Van Mechelen W. eds. *Paediatric exercise science and medicine*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008:199–211.
- 44 Ford PA, De Ste Croix MBA, Lloyd RS, *et al.* The long-term athlete development model: physiological evidence and application. *J Sports Sci* 2011;29:389–402.
- 45 Branta C, Haubenstricker J, Seefeldt V. Age changes in motor skills during childhood and adolescence. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev* 1984;12:467–500.
- 46 Parker DF, Round JM, Sacco P, *et al.* A cross-sectional survey of upper and lower limb strength in boys and girls during childhood and adolescence. *Ann Hum Biol* 1990;17:199–211.
- 47 Granacher U, Goesels A, Roggo K, *et al.* Effects and mechanisms of strength training in children. *Int J Sports Med* 2011;32:357–64.
- 48 Kraemer WJ, Fry AC, Frykman PN, *et al.* Resistance training and youth. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 1989;1:336–50.
- 49 Ramsay JA, Blimkie CJR, Smith K, *et al.* Strength training effects in prepubescent boys. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1990;22:605–14.
- 50 Tonson A, Ratel S, Le Fur Y, *et al.* Effect of maturation on the relationship between muscle size and force production. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2008;40:918–25.
- 51 Yan X, Zhu MJ, Dodson MV, *et al.* Developmental programming of fetal skeletal muscle and adipose tissue development. *J Genomics* 2012;1:29–38.
- 52 Brameld JM, Mostyn A, Dandrea J, *et al.* Maternal nutrition alters the expression of insulin-like growth factors in fetal sheep liver and skeletal muscle. *J Endocrinol* 2000;167:429–37.
- 53 O'Brien TD, Reeves ND, Baltzopoulos V, *et al.* In vivo measurements of muscle specific tension in adults and children. *Exp Physiol* 2010;95:202–10.
- 54 Neu CM, Rauch F, Rittweger J, *et al.* Influence of puberty on muscle development at the forearm. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2002;283:E103–7.
- 55 O'Brien TD, Reeves ND, Baltzopoulos V, *et al.* Strong relationships exist between muscle volume, joint power and whole-body external mechanical power in adults and children. *Exp Physiol* 2009;94:731–38.
- 56 Beunen GP. Biological maturation and physical performance. In: Duquet W, Day JAP. eds. *Kinanthropometry IV*. London: E & FN Spon, 1993:190–208.
- 57 Bailey R, Collins D, Ford P, *et al.* *Participant development in sport: an academic review*. Sports Coach UK, 2010:1–134.
- 58 Bailey R, Morley D. Towards a model of talent development in physical education. *Sport Educ Soc* 2006;11:211–30.
- 59 Balyi I, Hamilton A. *Long-term athlete development: trainability in childhood and adolescence—windows of opportunity—optimal trainability*. Victoria: National Coaching Institute British Columbia & Advanced Training and Performance Ltd, 2004.
- 60 Bompa TO. *Total training for young champions*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2000:1–20.
- 61 Burgess DJ, Naughton GA. Talent development in adolescent team sports: a review. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 2010;5:103–16.
- 62 Norris SR. Long-term athlete development Canada: attempting system change and multi-agency cooperation. *Curr Sports Med Rep* 2010;9:379–82.
- 63 Faigenbaum AD, Westcott WL. *Youth strength training*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2009:3–16.
- 64 Ekelund U, Tomkinson G, Armstrong N. What proportion of youth are physically active? Measurement issues, levels and recent time trends. *Br J Sports Med* 2011;45:859–65.
- 65 Gortmaker S, Lee R, Cradock A, *et al.* Disparities in youth physical activity in the United States: 2003–2006. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2012;44:888–93.
- 66 Guthold R, Cowan M, Autenrieth C, *et al.* Physical activity and sedentary behavior among schoolchildren: a 34 country comparison. *J Pediatr* 2010;157:43–9.
- 67 Nyberg G, Nordenfelt A, Ekelund U, *et al.* Physical activity patterns measured by accelerometry in 6- to 10-yr-old children. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2009;41:1842–8.
- 68 Barnett L, Cliff K, Morgan P, *et al.* Adolescents' perception of the relationship between movement skills, physical activity and sport. *Eur Phys Educ Rev* 2013;19:271–85.
- 69 Barnett L, Van Beurden E, Morgan P, *et al.* Childhood motor skill proficiency as a predictor of adolescent physical activity. *J Adolesc Health* 2009;44:252–9.
- 70 Lopes V, Rodrigues L, Maia J, *et al.* Motor coordination as predictor of physical activity in childhood. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 2011;21:663–9.
- 71 Stodden D, Langendorfer S, Robertson M. The association between motor skill competence and physical fitness in young adults. *Res Q Exerc Sport* 2009;80:223–9.
- 72 Tveter AT, Holm I. Influence of thigh muscle strength and balance on hop length in one-legged hopping in children aged 7–12 years. *Gait Posture* 2010;32:259–62.
- 73 Myer GD, Faigenbaum AD, Stracciolini A, *et al.* Exercise deficit disorder in youth: a paradigm shift toward disease prevention and comprehensive care. *Curr Sports Med Rep* 2013;12:248–55.
- 74 Faigenbaum AD, Myer GD. Pediatric resistance training: benefits, concerns, and program design considerations. *Curr Sports Med Rep* 2010;9:161–8.
- 75 Lau PWC, Kong Z, Choi C, *et al.* Effects of short-term resistance training on serum leptin levels in obese adolescents. *J Exerc Sci Fitness* 2010;8:54–60.
- 76 Ortega F, Ruiz J, Castillo M, *et al.* Physical fitness in children and adolescence: a powerful marker of health. *Int J Obes* 2008;32:1–11.
- 77 Sgro M, McGuigan MR, Pettigrew S, *et al.* The effect of duration of resistance training interventions in children who are overweight or obese. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:1263–70.
- 78 Faigenbaum AD, Farrell AC, Fabiano M, *et al.* Effects of detraining on fitness performance in 7-year-old children. *J Strength Cond Res* 2013;27:323–30.
- 79 Ingle L, Slep M, Tolfrey K. The effect of a complex training and detraining programme on selected strength and power variables in early pubertal boys. *J Sports Sci* 2006;24:987–97.
- 80 Faigenbaum AD, Westcott WL, Micheli LJ, *et al.* The effects of strength training and detraining on children. *J Strength Cond Res* 1996;10:109–14.
- 81 Cruz ML, Shaibi GQ, Weigensberg MJ, *et al.* Pediatric obesity and insulin resistance: chronic disease risk and implications for treatment and prevention beyond body weight modification. *Annu Rev Nutr* 2005;25:435–68.
- 82 Davis JM, Tung A, Chak SS, *et al.* Aerobic and strength training reduces adiposity in overweight Latina adolescents. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2009;41:1494–503.
- 83 McGuigan MR, Tatasiore M, Newton RU, *et al.* Eight weeks of resistance training can significantly alter body composition in children who are overweight or obese. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:80–5.
- 84 McHugh M. Oversized young athletes: a weighty concern. *Br J Sports Med* 2010;44:45–9.
- 85 Suh S, Jeong IK, Kim MY, *et al.* Effects of resistance training and aerobic exercise on insulin sensitivity in overweight Korean adolescents: a controlled randomized trial. *Diabetes Metab J* 2011;35:418–26.
- 86 VAN der Heijden G, Wang Z, Chu Z, *et al.* Strength exercise improves muscle mass and hepatic insulin sensitivity in obese youth. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2010;42:1973–80.
- 87 D'hondt E, Deforche B, Vaeyens R, *et al.* Gross motor coordination in relation to weight status and age in 5- to 12-year-old boys and girls: a cross sectional study. *Int J Pediatr Obes* 2011;6:556–64.
- 88 Lopes V, Stodden D, Bianchi M, *et al.* Correlation between BMI and motor coordination in children. *J Sci Med Sport* 2012;15:38–43.
- 89 Nunez-Gaunard A, Moore JG, Roach KE, *et al.* Motor proficiency, strength, endurance, and physical activity among middle school children who are healthy, overweight, and obese. *Pediatr Phys Ther* 2013;25:130–8.

Consensus statement

- 90 Williams HG, Pfeiffer KA, O'Neill JR, *et al.* Motor skill performance and physical activity in preschool children. *Obesity* 2008;16:1421–6.
- 91 Wrotniak BH, Epstein LH, Dorn JM, *et al.* The relationship between motor proficiency and physical activity in children. *Pediatrics* 2006;118:e1758.
- 92 Okely AD, Booth ML, Patterson JW. Relationship of physical activity to fundamental movement skills among adolescents. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2001;33:1899–904.
- 93 Sothorn MS, Loftin MJ, Udall JN, *et al.* Safety, feasibility, and efficacy of a resistance training program in preadolescent obese children. *Am J Med Sci* 2000;319:370–5.
- 94 Schranz N, Tomkinson G, Olds T. What is the effect of resistance training on the strength, body composition and psychosocial status of overweight and obese children and adolescents? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sports Med* 2013;49:893–907.
- 95 Gunter K, Almstedt H, Janz K. Physical activity in childhood may be the key to optimizing lifespan skeletal health. *Exerc Sports Sci Rev* 2012;40:13–21.
- 96 Vicente-Rodriguez G. How does exercise affect bone development during growth? *Sports Med* 2006;36:561–9.
- 97 Hind K, Burrows M. Weight-bearing exercise and bone mineral accrual in children and adolescents: a review of controlled trials. *Bone* 2007;40:14–27.
- 98 Burt LA, Greene DA, Ducher G, *et al.* Skeletal adaptations associated with pre-pubertal gymnastics participation as determined by DXA and pQCT: an systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Sci Med Sport* 2013;16:231–9.
- 99 Malina R. Weight training in youth-growth, maturation, and safety: an evidence-based review. *Clin J Sports Med* 2006;16:478–87.
- 100 Falk B, Eliakim A. Resistance training, skeletal muscle and growth. *Paediatr Endocrinol Rev* 2003;1:120–7.
- 101 Conroy BP, Kraemer WJ, Maresh CM, *et al.* Bone mineral density in elite junior Olympic weightlifters. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1993;25:1103–9.
- 102 Virvidakis K, Georgiu E, Korkotisdias A, *et al.* Bone mineral content of junior competitive weightlifters. *Int J Sports Med* 1990;11:244–6.
- 103 Myer GD, Quatman CE, Khoury J, *et al.* Youth versus adult weightlifting injuries presenting to United States emergency rooms: accidental versus nonaccidental injury mechanisms. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:2054–60.
- 104 Bass SL, Myburg K. The effect of exercise on peak bone mass and bone strength. In: Warren M, Constantini N. eds. *Sports endocrinology*. Totowa, NJ: Humana Press Inc, 2000:253–80.
- 105 Blimkie CJ, Rice S, Webber CE, *et al.* Effects of resistance training on bone mineral content and density in adolescent females. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 1996;74:1025–33.
- 106 Dias Quiterio AL, Carnero EA, Baptista FM, *et al.* Skeletal mass in adolescent male athletes and nonathletes: relationships with high-impact sports. *J Strength Cond Res* 2011;25:3439–47.
- 107 Fuchs RK, Bauer JJ, Snow CM. Jumping improves hip and lumbar spine bone mass in prepubescent children: a randomized controlled trial. *J Bone Miner Res* 2001;16:148–56.
- 108 Nichols DL, Snaaborn CF, Love AM. Resistance training and bone mineral density in adolescent females. *J Pediatr* 2001;139:494–500.
- 109 Witzke KA, Snow CM. Effects of plyometric jump training on bone mass in adolescent girls. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2000;32:1051–7.
- 110 Yu CCW, Sung RYT, So RCH, *et al.* Effects of strength training on body composition and bone mineral content in children who are obese. *J Strength Cond Res* 2005;19:667–72.
- 111 Janz KF, Letuchy EM, Eichenberger Gilmore JM, *et al.* Early physical activity provides sustained bone health benefits later in childhood. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2010;42:1072–8.
- 112 Sadres E, Eliakim A, Constantini N, *et al.* The effect of long-term resistance training on anthropometric measures, muscle strength, and self-concept in pre-pubertal boys. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2001;13:357–72.
- 113 Cahill B, Griffith E. Effect of preseason conditioning on the incidence and severity of high school football knee injuries. *Am J Sports Med* 1978;6:180–4.
- 114 Hejna WF, Rosenberg A, Buturusis DJ, *et al.* The prevention of sports injuries in high school students through strength training. *Natl Strength Coaches Assoc J* 1982;4:28–31.
- 115 Soligard T, Myklebust G, Steffen K, *et al.* Comprehensive warm-up programme to prevent injuries in young female footballers: cluster randomized controlled trial. *BMJ* 2008;337:a2469.
- 116 Emery CA, Meeuwisse W. The effectiveness of a neuromuscular prevention strategy to reduce injuries in youth soccer: a cluster-randomised controlled trial. *Br J Sports Med* 2010;44:555–62.
- 117 Steffen K, Meeuwisse WH, Romiti M, *et al.* Evaluation of how different implementation strategies of an injury prevention programme (FIFA 11+) impact team adherence and injury risk in Canadian female youth football players: a cluster-randomised trial. *Br J Sports Med* 2013;47:480–7.
- 118 Rians CB, Wletman A, Cahill BR, *et al.* Strength training for prepubescent males: is it safe? *Am J Sports Med* 1987;15:483–9.
- 119 Lillegard WA, Brown EW, Wilson DJ, *et al.* Efficacy of strength training in prepubescent to early postpubescent males and females: effects of gender and maturity. *Pediatr Rehabil* 1997;1:147–57.
- 120 Abernethy L, Bleakley C. Strategies to prevent injury in adolescent sport: a systematic review. *Br J Sports Med* 2007;41:627–38.
- 121 Stein CJ, Micheli LJ. Overuse injuries in youth sport. *Phys Sports Med* 2010;38:102–8.
- 122 Olsen JS, Fleisig GS, Dun S, *et al.* Risk factors for shoulder and elbow injuries in adolescent baseball pitchers. *Am J Sports Med* 2006;34:905–12.
- 123 Micheli L, Natsis KI. Preventing injuries in team sports: what the team physician needs to know. In: Micheli LJ, Pigozzi F, Chan KM, *et al.* eds. *F.I.M.S. Team Physician Manual*. 3rd edn. London: Routledge, 2013:505–20.
- 124 Hewett TE, Ford KR, Myer GD. Anterior cruciate ligament injuries in female athletes: part 2, a meta-analysis of neuromuscular interventions aimed at injury prevention. *Am J Sports Med* 2006;34:490–8.
- 125 Hewett TE, Myer GD, Ford KR. Reducing knee and anterior cruciate ligament injuries among female athletes: a systematic review of neuromuscular training interventions. *J Knee Surg* 2005;18:82–8.
- 126 Myer GD, Ford KR, Brent JL, *et al.* The effects of plyometric versus dynamic balance training on power, balance and landing force in female athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 2006;20:345–53.
- 127 Myer GD, Ford KR, McLean SG, *et al.* The effects of plyometric versus dynamic stabilization and balance training on lower extremity biomechanics. *Am J Sports Med* 2006;34:490–8.
- 128 Myer GD, Ford KR, Palumbo JP, *et al.* Neuromuscular training improves performance and lower-extremity biomechanics in female athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 2005;19:51–60.
- 129 DiStefano LJ, Padua DA, Blackburn JT, *et al.* Integrated injury prevention program improves balance and vertical jump height in children. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:332–42.
- 130 Myer GD, Sugimoto D, Thomas S, *et al.* The influence of age on the effectiveness of neuromuscular training to reduce anterior cruciate ligament injury in female athletes: a meta-analysis. *Am J Sports Med* 2013;41:203–15.
- 131 Quatman-Yates CC, Myer GD, Ford KR, *et al.* A longitudinal evaluation of maturational effects on lower extremity strength in female adolescent athletes. *Pediatr Phys Ther* 2013;25:323–9.
- 132 Dufek J, Bates B. The evaluation and prediction of impact forces during landings. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1990;22:370–7.
- 133 McNitt-Gray J, Hester D, Mathiyakom W, *et al.* Mechanical demand on multijoint control during landing depend on orientation of the body segments relative to the reaction force. *J Biomech* 2001;34:1471–82.
- 134 Bloemers F, Collard D, Paw M, *et al.* Physical inactivity is a risk factor for physical activity-related injuries in children. *Br J Sports Med* 2012;46:669–74.
- 135 Nader P, Bradley R, Houts R, *et al.* Moderate to vigorous physical activity from ages 9 to 15 years. *JAMA* 2008;300:295–305.
- 136 Tudor-Locke C, Johnson WD, Katzmarzyk PT. Accelerometer-determined steps per day in US children and youth. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2010;42:2244–50.
- 137 US. Department of Health and Human Services. *Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans Midcourse Report Subcommittee of the President's Council on Fitness, Sports & Nutrition. Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans Midcourse Report: strategies to increase physical activity among youth*. Washington, 2012.
- 138 Clark E, Tobias J, Murray L, *et al.* Children with low muscle strength are at increased risk of fracture with exposure to exercise. *J Musculoskelet Neuronal Interact* 2011;11:196–202.
- 139 Myer GD, Faigenbaum AD, Ford KR, *et al.* When to initiate integrative neuromuscular training to reduce sport-related injuries and enhance health in youth. *Curr Sports Med Rep* 2011;10:157–66.
- 140 Mountjoy M, Andersen L, Armstrong N, *et al.* International Olympic Committee Consensus statement on the health and fitness of young people through physical activity and sport. *Br J Sports Med* 2011;45:839–48.
- 141 American Academy of Pediatrics. Active healthy living: prevention of childhood obesity through increased physical activity. *Pediatrics* 2006;117:1834–42.
- 142 Ford KR, Shapiro R, Myer GD, *et al.* Longitudinal sex differences during landing in knee abduction in young athletes. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2010;42:1923–31.
- 143 Hewett TE, Myer GD, Ford KR. Decrease in neuromuscular control about the knee with maturation in female athletes. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2004;86:1601–8.
- 144 Hewett TE, Myer GD, Ford KR, *et al.* Biomechanical measures of neuromuscular control and valgus loading of the knee predict anterior cruciate ligament injury risk in female athletes: a prospective study. *Am J Sports Med* 2005;33:492–501.
- 145 Myer GD, Ford KR, Barber Foss KD, *et al.* The incidence and potential pathomechanics of patellofemoral pain in female athletes. *Clin Biomech* 2010;25:700–7.
- 146 Ford KR, Myer GD, Hewett TE. Longitudinally decreased knee abduction and increased hamstrings strength in females with self-reported resistance training. *Proceedings of the American College of Sports Medicine Annual Meeting*. Denver, Colorado, 2011.
- 147 Hewett TE, Stroupe AL, Nance TA, *et al.* Plyometric training in female athletes. Decreased impact forces and increased hamstring torques. *Am J Sports Med* 1996;24:765–73.
- 148 Myer GD, Ford KR, Brent JL, *et al.* Differential neuromuscular training effects on ACL injury risk factors in “high-risk” versus “low-risk” athletes. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord* 2007;8:1–7.

- 149 Cooper RM, Zubeck JP. Effects of enriched and restricted early environments on the learning ability of bright and dull rats. *Can J Psychol* 1958;12:159–64.
- 150 Hands B. Changes in motor skill and fitness measures among children with high and low motor competence: a five-year longitudinal study. *J Sci Med Sport* 2008;11:155–62.
- 151 Rogasch NC, Dartnall TJ, Cirillo J, *et al.* Corticomotor plasticity and learning of a ballistic thumb training task are diminished in older adults. *J Appl Physiol* 2009;107:1874–83.
- 152 Rosengren KS, Geert JP, Savelsbergh JK. Development and learning: a TASC-based perspective of the acquisition of perceptual-motor behaviors. *Infant Behav Dev* 2003;26:473–94.
- 153 Faigenbaum AD, Farrell A, Fabiano M, *et al.* Effects of integrative neuromuscular training on fitness performance in children. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2011;23:573–84.
- 154 Hewett TE, Lindenfeld TN, Riccobene JV, *et al.* The effect of neuromuscular training on the incidence of knee injury in female athletes. A prospective study. *Am J Sports Med* 1999;27:699–706.
- 155 Myklebust G, Engebretsen L, Braekken IH, *et al.* Prevention of anterior cruciate ligament injuries in female team handball players: a prospective intervention study over three seasons. *Clin J Sports Med* 2003;13:71–8.
- 156 Ford KR, Myer GD, Smith RL, *et al.* Use of an overhead goal alters vertical jump performance and biomechanics. *J Strength Cond Res* 2005;19:394–9.
- 157 Hewett TE, Myer GD, Ford KR, *et al.* Preparticipation physical exam using a box drop vertical jump test in young athletes: the effects of puberty and sex. *Clin J Sports Med* 2006;16:298–304.
- 158 Kraemer WJ, Keuning M, Ratamess NA, *et al.* Resistance training combined with bench-step aerobics enhances women's health profile. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2001;33:259–69.
- 159 Quatman CE, Ford KR, Myer GD, *et al.* Maturation leads to gender differences in landing force and vertical jump performance: a longitudinal study. *Am J Sports Med* 2006;34:806–13.
- 160 Faigenbaum AD, Zaichkowsky LD, Westcott WL, *et al.* Psychological effects of strength training on children. *J Sport Behav* 1997;20:164–75.
- 161 Annesi J, Westcott W, Faigenbaum A, *et al.* Effects of a 12 week physical activity program delivered by YMCA after-school counselors (Youth Fit for Life) on fitness and self-efficacy changes in 5–12 year old boys and girls. *Res Q Exerc Sport* 2005;76:468–76.
- 162 Altıntaş A, Axçı FH. Physical self-esteem of adolescents with regard to physical activity and pubertal status. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2008;20:142–56.
- 163 Strauss RS. *Childhood obesity and self-esteem*. *Pediatrics* 2000;105:e15.
- 164 Dunton GF, Schneider M, Graham DJ, *et al.* Physical activity, fitness, and physical self-concept in adolescent females. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2006;18:240–51.
- 165 Dunton GF, Jamner MS, Cooper DM. Physical self-concept in adolescent girls: behavioural and physiological correlates. *Res Q Exerc Sport* 2003;74:360–5.
- 166 Knowles AM, Niven AG, Fawcner SG, *et al.* A longitudinal examination of the influence of maturation on physical self-perceptions and the relationship with physical activity in early adolescent girls. *J Adolesc* 2009;32:555–66.
- 167 Lubans DR, Aguiar EJ, Callister R. The effects of free weights and elastic tubing resistance training on physical self-perception in adolescents. *Psychol Sport Exerc* 2010;11:497–504.
- 168 Brenner JS. Overuse injuries, overtraining, and burnout in child and adolescent athletes. *Pediatrics* 2007;119:1242–5.
- 169 Matos N, Winsley RJ. Trainability of young athletes and overtraining. *J Sports Sci Med* 2007;6:353–67.
- 170 Meussen R, Duclos M, Foster C, *et al.* Prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of the overtraining syndrome: joint consensus statement of the European College of Sport Science and the American College of Sports Medicine. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2013;45:186–205.
- 171 Beunen GP, Malina RM. Growth and physical performance relative to the timing of the adolescent spurt. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev* 1988;16:503–40.
- 172 Beunen GP, Malina RM, Van't Hof MA, *et al.* *Adolescent growth and motor performance*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 1988:6–9.
- 173 Baxter-Jones A, Helms P, Maffulli N, *et al.* Growth and development of male gymnasts, swimmers, soccer and tennis players: a longitudinal study. *Ann Hum Biol* 1995;22:381–94.
- 174 Naughton G, Farpour L, Carlson J, *et al.* Physiological issues surrounding the performance of adolescent athletes. *Sports Med* 2000;30:309–25.
- 175 Docherty D, Wenger H, Collis M, *et al.* The effects of variable speed resistance training on strength development in prepubertal boys. *J Hum Mov Stud* 1987;13:377–82.
- 176 Hetherington M. Effect of isometric training on the elbow flexion force torque of grade five boys. *Res Q* 1976;47:41–7.
- 177 Faigenbaum AD, Westcott WL, LaRousa Loud R, *et al.* The effects of different resistance training protocols on muscular strength and endurance development in children. *Pediatrics* 1999;104:e5.
- 178 Weltman A, Janney C, Rians C, *et al.* The effects of hydraulic resistance strength training in pre-pubertal males. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1986;18:629–38.
- 179 Kaufman LB, Schilling DL. Implementation of a strength training program for a 5-year-old child with poor body awareness and developmental coordination disorder. *Phys Ther* 2007;87:455–67.
- 180 Payne VG, Morrow JR, Johnson L, *et al.* Resistance training in children and youth. *Res Q* 1997;68:80–8.
- 181 Pfeiffer R, Francis R. Effects of strength training on muscle development in prepubescent, pubescent and postpubescent males. *Phys Sports Med* 1986;14:134–43.
- 182 Falk B, Tenenbaum G. The effectiveness of resistance training in children: a meta-analysis. *Sports Med* 1996;22:176–86.
- 183 Blimkie CJ. Age- and sex-associated variation in strength during childhood: anthropometric, morphologic, neurological, biomechanical, endocrinologic, genetic and physical activity correlates. In: Gisolfi C, Lamb D, eds. *Perspectives in exercise science and sports*. Indianapolis, IN: Benchmark, 1989:99–163.
- 184 Fukunaga T, Funato K, Ikegawa S. The effects of resistance training on muscle area and strength in prepubertal age. *Ann Physiol Anthropol* 1992;11:357–64.
- 185 Mersch F, Stoboy H. Strength training and muscle hypertrophy in children. In: Oseid S, Carlsen K, eds. *Children and exercise XIII*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 1989:165–82.
- 186 Bouchant A, Martin V, Maffiuletti NA, *et al.* Viewpoint: can muscle size fully account for strength differences between children and adults. *J Appl Physiol* 2011;110:1748–9.
- 187 Sale DG. Strength training in children. In: Gisolfi CV, Lamb DR, eds. *Perspectives in exercise science and sports medicine*. Indianapolis, IN: Benchmark Press, 1989:165–222.
- 188 Viru A, Loko J, Harro M, *et al.* Critical periods in the development of performance capacity during childhood and adolescence. *Eur J Phys Educ* 1999;4:75–119.
- 189 Ozmun JC, Mikeky AE, Surburg P. Neuromuscular adaptations following prepubescent strength training. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1994;26:510–14.
- 190 Dorgo S, King GA, Candelaria NG, *et al.* Effects of manual resistance training on fitness in adolescents. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:2287–94.
- 191 Bucheit M, Mendez-Villanueva A, Delhomel G, *et al.* Improving sprint ability in young elite soccer players: repeated shuttle sprints vs. explosive strength training. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:2715–22.
- 192 Chelly MS, Cherif N, Amar MB, *et al.* Relationships of peak leg power, 1 maximal repetition half back squat and leg muscle volume to 5-M sprint performance in junior soccer players. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:266–71.
- 193 Hass CJ, Faigenbaum MS, Franklin BA. Prescription of resistance training for healthy populations. *Sports Med* 2001;31:953–64.
- 194 Keiner M, Sander A, Wirth K, *et al.* Trainability of children and adolescents in the front and back squat. *J Strength Cond Res* 2013;27:357–62.
- 195 Lephart SM, Abt JP, Ferris CM, *et al.* Neuromuscular and biomechanical characteristic changes in high school athletes: a plyometric versus basic resistance program. *Br J Sports Med* 2005;39:932–8.
- 196 Gentil P, Bottaro M. Influence of supervision ratio on muscle adaptation to resistance training in nontrained subjects. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:639–43.
- 197 Ratamess NA, Alvar BA, Evetoch TK, *et al.* Progression models in resistance training for healthy adults. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2009;41:687–708.
- 198 Pliisk SS, Stone MH. Periodization strategies. *Strength Cond J* 2003;25:19–37.
- 199 Stone MH, Potteiger JA, Pierce KC, *et al.* Comparison of the effects of three different weight-training programs on the one repetition maximum squat. *J Strength Cond Res* 2000;14:332–7.
- 200 Byrd R, Pierce K, Reilly L, *et al.* Young weightlifters' performance across time. *Sports Biomech* 2003;2:133–40.
- 201 Hamill B. Relative safety of weightlifting and weight training. *J Strength Cond Res* 1994;8:53–7.
- 202 Pierce KC, Byrd R, Stone MH. Youth weightlifting—is it safe? *Weightlifting USA* 1999;17:5.
- 203 Dvorkin LS. The training of young weightlifters 13–16 years old. In: Scheithauer BW, ed (translated). *The 1975 Russian weightlifting yearbook*. Moscow: Fiskultura I Sport Publishing, 1975:36–40.
- 204 Häkkinen K, Mero A, Kauhanen H. Specificity of endurance, sprint and strength training on physical performance capacity in young athletes. *J Sports Med* 1989;29:27–35.
- 205 Fleck SJ, Kraemer WJ. *Strength training for young athletes*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2005:6–9.
- 206 Christou M, Smilios I, Sotiropoulos K, *et al.* Effects of resistance training on the physical capacities of adolescent soccer players. *J Strength Cond Res* 2006;20:783–91.
- 207 Faigenbaum AD, Mediate P. The effects of medicine ball training on physical fitness in high school physical education students. *Phys Educ* 2006;63:160–7.
- 208 Faigenbaum AD, Milliken L, Moulton L, *et al.* Early muscular fitness adaptations in children in response to two different resistance training regimens. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2005;17:237–48.
- 209 Faigenbaum AD, LaRosa Loud R, O'Connell J, *et al.* Effects of different resistance training protocols on upper-body strength and endurance development in children. *J Strength Cond Res* 2001;15:459–65.

Consensus statement

- 210 Faigenbaum AD, McFarland J, Keiper F, *et al.* Effects of a short term plyometric and resistance training program on fitness performance in boys age 12 to 15 years. *J Sports Sci Med* 2007;6:519–25.
- 211 Granacher U, Muehlbauer T, Doerflinger B, *et al.* Promoting strength and balance in adolescents during physical education: effects of a short-term resistance training. *J Strength Cond Res* 2011;25:940–9.
- 212 Lloyd RS, Oliver JL, Hughes MG, *et al.* Effects of 4-weeks plyometric training on reactive strength index and leg stiffness in male youths. *J Strength Cond Res* 2012;26:2812–19.
- 213 Meylan C, Malatesta D. Effects of in-season plyometric training within soccer practice on explosive actions of young players. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:2605–13.
- 214 Szymanski DJ, Szymanski JM, Molloy JM, *et al.* Effect of 12 weeks of wrist and forearm training on high school baseball players. *J Strength Cond Res* 2004;18:432–40.
- 215 Tsolakis CK, Vagenas GK, Dessypris AG. Strength adaptations and hormonal responses to resistance training and detraining in preadolescent males. *J Strength Cond Res* 2004;18:625–9.
- 216 Tsolakis C, Messinis D, Stergioulas A, *et al.* Hormonal responses after strength training and detraining in prepubertal and pubertal boys. *J Strength Cond Res* 2000;14:399–404.
- 217 Zakas A, Doganis G, Papageorgopoulou M, *et al.* The effect of cycle ergometer strength training in pubescent and post-pubescent untrained males. *Isokinet Exerc Sci* 2004;14:45–52.
- 218 Schwanbeck S, Chilibeck PD, Binsted G. A comparison of free weight squat to Smith machine squat using electromyography. *J Strength Cond Res* 2009;23:2588–91.
- 219 Schick EE, Coburn JW, Brown LE, *et al.* A comparison of muscle activation between a Smith machine and free weight bench press. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:779–84.
- 220 Jones RM, Fry AC, Weiss LW, *et al.* Kinetic comparison of free weight and machine power cleans. *J Strength Cond Res* 2008;22:1785–9.
- 221 Borms J. The child and exercise: an overview. *J Sports Sci* 1986;4:4–20.
- 222 Rabinowickz T. The differentiated maturation of the cerebral cortex. In: Falkner F, Tanner J. eds. *Human growth: a comprehensive treatise, postnatal growth: neurobiology*. New York, NY: Plenum, 1986:385–410.
- 223 Casey BJ, Giedd JN, Thomas KM. Structural and functional brain development and its relation to cognitive development. *Biol Psychol* 2000;54:241–57.
- 224 Casey BJ, Tottenham N, Liston C, *et al.* Imaging the developing brain: what have we learned about cognitive development? *Trends Cogn Sci* 2005;9:104–10.
- 225 Lubans DR, Morgan PJ, Cliff DP, *et al.* Fundamental movement skills in children and adolescents. *Sports Med* 2010;40:1019–35.
- 226 Baechle TR, Earle RW, Wathen D. Resistance training. In: Baechle TR, Earle RW. eds. *Essentials of strength training and conditioning*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2008:381–412.
- 227 Faigenbaum AD, Milliken LA, Westcott WL. Maximal strength testing in healthy children. *J Strength Cond Res* 2003;17:162–6.
- 228 Faigenbaum AD, McFarland JE, Herman RE, *et al.* Reliability of the one-repetition-maximum power clean test in adolescent athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 2012;26:432–7.
- 229 Horvat M, Franklin C, Born D. Predicting strength in high school women athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 2007;21:1018–22.
- 230 Kravitz L, Akalan C, Nowicki K, *et al.* Prediction of 1 repetition maximum in high school power lifters. *J Strength Cond Res* 2003;17:167–72.
- 231 Mayhew J, Kerksick C, Lentz D, *et al.* Using repetitions to predict one-repetition maximum bench press in male high school athletes. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2004;16:265–76.
- 232 Milliken LA, Faigenbaum AD, LaRousa Loud R. Correlates of upper and lower body muscular strength in children. *J Strength Cond Res* 2008;22:1339–46.
- 233 Castro-Piñero J, Ortega FB, Artero EG, *et al.* Assessing muscular strength in youth: usefulness of standing long jump as a general index of muscular fitness. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:1810–17.
- 234 Channell BT, Barfield JP. Effect of Olympic and traditional resistance training on vertical jump improvement in high school boys. *J Strength Cond Res* 2008;22:1522–7.
- 235 Dasteridis G, Piliandis T, Mantzouranis N. The effect of different strength training programmes on young athletes' sprint performance. *Stud Phys Cult Tourism* 2011;18:141–7.
- 236 Faigenbaum AD, Ratamess N, McFarland J, *et al.* Effect of rest interval length on bench press performance in boys, teens and men. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 2008;20:457–69.
- 237 Zafeiridis A, Dalamitros A, Dipla K, *et al.* Recovery during high-intensity intermittent anaerobic exercise in boys, teens and men. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2005;37:505–12.
- 238 Eston R, Byrne C, Twist C. Muscle function after exercise-induced muscle damage: considerations for athletic performance in children and adults. *J Exerc Sci Fitness* 2003;1:85–96.
- 239 Falk B, Dotan R. Child-adult differences in the recovery from high intensity exercise. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev* 2006;34:107–12.
- 240 Faigenbaum AD, Zaichkowsky L, Westcott WL, *et al.* The effects of a twice per week strength training program on children. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 1993;5:339–46.
- 241 Faigenbaum AD, McFarland JE, Buchanan E, *et al.* After-school fitness performance is not altered after physical education lessons in adolescent athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 2010;24:765–70.
- 242 Young WB. Transfer of strength and power training to sports performance. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 2006;1:74–83.
- 243 Kawamori N, Newton RU. Velocity specificity of resistance training: actual movement velocity versus intention to move explosively. *Strength Cond J* 2006;28:86–91.



Position statement on youth resistance training: the 2014 International Consensus

Rhodri S Lloyd, Avery D Faigenbaum, Michael H Stone, et al.

Br J Sports Med published online September 20, 2013

doi: 10.1136/bjsports-2013-092952

Updated information and services can be found at:

<http://bjsm.bmj.com/content/early/2013/09/20/bjsports-2013-092952.full.html>

These include:

References

This article cites 214 articles, 34 of which can be accessed free at:

<http://bjsm.bmj.com/content/early/2013/09/20/bjsports-2013-092952.full.html#ref-list-1>

P<P

Published online September 20, 2013 in advance of the print journal.

Email alerting service

Receive free email alerts when new articles cite this article. Sign up in the box at the top right corner of the online article.

Topic Collections

Articles on similar topics can be found in the following collections

[Weight training](#) (68 articles)

[Health education](#) (380 articles)

Notes

Advance online articles have been peer reviewed, accepted for publication, edited and typeset, but have not yet appeared in the paper journal. Advance online articles are citable and establish publication priority; they are indexed by PubMed from initial publication. Citations to Advance online articles must include the digital object identifier (DOIs) and date of initial publication.

To request permissions go to:

<http://group.bmj.com/group/rights-licensing/permissions>

To order reprints go to:

<http://journals.bmj.com/cgi/reprintform>

To subscribe to BMJ go to:

<http://group.bmj.com/subscribe/>