

This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis in Research in Sports Medicine on 05/01/21, available online:

<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/15438627.2020.1870977?journalCode=gspm20>

1 **Effects of flywheel training on strength-related variables in female populations. A**
2 **systematic review**

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13

14 **ABSTRACT**

15 This study aimed to evaluate the effect of flywheel training on female populations, report
16 practical recommendations for practitioners based on the currently available evidence,
17 underline the limitations of current literature, and establish future research directions. Studies
18 were searched through the electronic databases (PubMed, SPORTDiscus, and Web of Science)
19 following the preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analysis statement
20 guidelines. The methodological quality of the 7 studies included in this review ranged from 10
21 to 19 points (*good to excellent*), with an average score of 14-points (*good*). These studies were
22 carried out between 2004 and 2019 and comprised a total of 100 female participants. The
23 training duration ranged from 5 weeks to 24 weeks, with volume ranging from 1 to 4 sets and
24 7 to 12 repetitions, and frequency ranged from 1 to 3 times a week. The contemporary literature
25 suggests that flywheel training is a safe and time-effective strategy to enhance physical
26 outcomes with young and elderly females. **With this information, practitioners may be inclined**
27 **to prescribe flywheel training as an effective countermeasure for injuries or falls and as potent**
28 **stimulus for physical enhancement.**

29

30 **KEYWORDS: isoinertial, women, eccentric, performance, health**

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35 **INTRODUCTION**

36 The importance of strength training is widely recognized as being a key staple in training
37 programmes for the enhancement of athletic performance (Suchomel et al., 2016, 2018), with
38 the relationship between strength and jump (Comfort et al., 2014; Nuzzo et al., 2008), linear
39 speed (Comfort et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2015), and change of direction (COD) speed (Beato,
40 Bianchi, et al., 2019; Hammami et al., 2017; Suchomel et al., 2016) evident throughout the
41 literature. In addition, strength training has also been shown to mitigate the potential risk of
42 non-contact injuries (Case et al., 2020; Lauersen et al., 2014) in athlete populations as well as
43 to improve physical parameters and promote beneficial muscle adaptations in healthy sedentary
44 and physically active individuals (Tesch et al., 2017). Thus, its inclusion in athlete
45 (performance), sedentary and physically active individuals training programmes is undeniable.
46 Numerous methods have been proven to be effective for the development of strength in various
47 populations, such as: bilateral lower limb movements (*e.g.* back squats and deadlifts) (Appleby
48 et al., 2019; Bazyler et al., 2014), unilateral lower body training (*e.g.* step ups and rear foot
49 elevated split squats (Appleby et al., 2019; Newton et al., 2006) and more recently, flywheel
50 (isoinertial) training (Beato, De Keijzer, et al., 2019; Beato, McErlain-Naylor, et al., 2020; de
51 Hoyo et al., 2015; Gonzalo-Skok et al., 2017; Madruga-parera et al., 2020), where a wide
52 variety of exercises can be performed. Several studies have described the advantages of
53 flywheel training and attempted to explain its physiological mechanisms, and outcomes for
54 performance and health (Beato & Dello Iacono, 2020; Sañudo et al., 2019; Tesch et al., 2017).

55

56 Flywheel exercise has been reported to be a valid strategy for obtaining both acute performance
57 enhancement and chronic adaptations (Beato, McErlain-Naylor, et al., 2020; Maroto-Izquierdo
58 et al., 2017). Flywheel training typically involves similar movement patterns to traditional
59 resistance training (squats or lunges), although this depends upon the desired goal of the
60 programme (Beato, Bigby, et al., 2019; Beato, Madruga-Parera, et al., 2019; de Hoyo et al.,
61 2015; Stevens et al., 2014; Tous-Fajardo et al., 2006). The morphological and strength benefits
62 of flywheel training likely derive from the combination of both concentric-eccentric
63 contractions (Beato & Dello Iacono, 2020); however, the main peculiarity of this training
64 method is the overload generated during the eccentric portion of the exercise (Maroto-
65 Izquierdo et al., 2017; Nuñez Sanchez & Sáez de Villarreal, 2017). The benefits deriving from
66 eccentric exercise have been largely reported in the literature, including preferential
67 recruitment of high threshold motor units, higher force output production and lower energy
68 expenditure compared with both isometric and concentric muscle contractions (Douglas et al.,
69 2017; Hody et al., 2019). For the aforementioned reasons, flywheel training may be particularly
70 effective for improving physical adaptations. From a performance prospective, Nunez et al.

71 (Núñez et al., 2018) compared the effects of a 6-week flywheel training programme consisting
72 of either squats or lunges on countermovement jump (CMJ) and COD speed, in 27 young active
73 male subjects. Both programmes showed *small* improvements in CMJ height (effect size
74 [Cohen's d] = 0.28-0.42) and moderate improvements in COD time ($d = 0.70-0.75$). Similar
75 results in jump and COD speed were noted by Gonzalo-Skok et al. (Gonzalo-Skok et al., 2017)
76 who used bilateral squats and multidirectional COD movements (in the form of flywheel
77 training), on 48 team-sport athletes. *Small* to *moderate* improvements were shown in COD
78 performance ($d = 0.35-0.61$), *small* improvements in bilateral and unilateral CMJ ($d = 0.27-$
79 0.42) and *small* to *large* improvements in lateral and horizontal jumping ($d = 0.43-0.87$).
80 Finally, Madruga-Parera et al. (Madruga-parera et al., 2020) compared the effects of an 8-week
81 flywheel training vs. cable resistance training programmes, using 34 male youth handball
82 athletes. Both training interventions showed significant ($p < 0.001$) improvements in COD and
83 repeated COD performance; however, the flywheel training intervention was superior for
84 repeated COD improvements ($d = -1.35$ vs. -0.22). **Additionally, Norrbrand et al. (Norrbrand**
85 **et al., 2008) reported muscular and strength adaptations such as cross-sectional area (CSA) and**
86 **maximal voluntary contractions following a 5-week flywheel training programme (2-3 times a**
87 **week) in healthy men.** Bruseghini et al. (Bruseghini et al., 2015) reported significant
88 increments in CSA (4%) and isokinetic strength (10%) following an 8-week flywheel 4 x 7
89 maximal bilateral knee extension/flexion training protocol. As such, Tesch et al., (Tesch et al.,
90 2017) reported that flywheel training is a valid method of treating age-induced skeletal muscle
91 atrophy, and in particular that this resistance training appears to be more effective than
92 traditional weight training.

93
94 Collectively, these studies highlight that training with flywheel technology may elicit *small* to
95 *large* improvements in measures of athletic performance and promote both CSA and strength
96 increments in sedentary and healthy men (Bruseghini et al., 2015; Maroto-Izquierdo et al.,
97 2017; Naczka et al., 2016; Norrbrand et al., 2008). However, it must be acknowledged that the
98 samples used in the aforementioned studies were, and typically are, male. Conversely, the
99 volume of literature pertaining to flywheel training studies using female populations is scarce,
100 with a significant amount of research necessary to understand the benefits of this training
101 methodology with females. Therefore, the aims of the present systematic review were to: 1)
102 evaluate and summarize the effect of flywheel training on females, 2) report practical
103 recommendations for practitioners based on the current available evidence on how flywheel
104 training can offer clinical and sport advantages in applied settings, 3) underline the current
105 limitations of the literature and establish future research directions.

106

107 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

108 The present review was carried out following the recommendations and criteria established in
109 the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analysis (PRISMA) statement
110 guidelines (Liberati et al., 2009).

111

112 **2.1. Search Strategy**

113 For this systematic review, potential studies were identified in PubMed/MEDLINE,
114 SPORTDiscus, and Web of Science (including all Web of Science Core Collection: Citation
115 Indexes) databases. The search syntax included the following keywords coupled with Boolean
116 operators: (“flywheel” AND “female”) OR (“isoinertial” AND “female”). A year restriction
117 was applied for this search (i.e., studies published between 1990 and 2020). In addition, a
118 secondary search was performed based on the screening of the reference lists of these studies
119 and the studies that cited the included studies through Google Scholar. Two authors (KDK and
120 MB) independently screened the title and abstract of each reference to locate potentially
121 relevant studies and reviewed them in detail to identify articles that met the inclusion criteria.
122 Following both searches, studies were uploaded to reference manager software (Zotero, version
123 5.0.85, Corporation for Digital Scholarship, Vienna, USA). All articles were reviewed and
124 screened for duplicates. Based on the study title, author, year of publication, DOI, ISBN fields,
125 duplicates were identified and merged using the “Duplicate Items” function.

126

127 **2.2. Inclusion Criteria**

128 The studies included in the present review had to fulfil the following inclusion criteria: (a) the
129 sample must be composed of female participants, (b) studies that analysed the effect of
130 flywheel or isoinertial training of different groups (*e.g.* flywheel vs. control) were reported in
131 a differentiated way (*i.e.* specific data for each group), (c) studies needed to report flywheel or
132 isoinertial training or provide sufficient data to calculate it through standardized equations, and
133 (d) studies had to be the full-text published in a peer-reviewed journal. In addition, conference
134 abstracts, letters to the editor, errata, narrative reviews, systematic reviews, meta-analyses or
135 invited commentaries and studies that were not written in English were excluded.

136

137 **2.3. Study Coding and Data extraction**

138 The following moderator variables were extracted from the included studies: (a) authors, year
139 of publication and study design, (b) sample characteristics (including sample size, age, and

140 status), (c) follow-up duration, (d) trial data (duration, volume and inertia (intensity) utilised),
141 and (e) participants did not use supplements or ergogenic aids during the intervention period.

142

143 **2.4. Methodological Quality Assessment**

144 While the methodological quality analysis of studies is often conducted using either: (i) the
145 PEDro scale; (ii) the Delphi scale; or (iii) the Cochrane scale, previous research has illustrated
146 that non-healthcare studies (*e.g.* strength and conditioning) typically score low using these
147 methodological scales. Subsequently, using methods reported by Brughelli et al. (Brughelli et
148 al., 2008), the 7 remaining studies were assessed using an evaluation derived from the three
149 aforementioned scales. The aim of this analysis was to evaluate study quality and identify areas
150 of methodological weakness. The scale utilises 10-item criteria ranging from 0-20 points with
151 the score for each criterion reported as follows: 0 = clearly no; 1 = maybe; and 2 = clearly yes.
152 Based on this procedure, the studies were classified as follows: low methodological quality (\leq
153 50% of total points); good methodological quality (51–75% of total points); and excellent
154 methodological quality ($> 75\%$ of total points) (Brughelli et al., 2008). All of the criteria
155 included are reported in Table 1.

156

157 *****Please, add here Table 1*****

158

159 Data extraction and methodological quality assessment were performed independently by two
160 authors (KDK and MB) and discrepancies between the authors were resolved in consultation
161 with a third reviewer (JRG).

162

163 **3. RESULTS**

164 **3.1. Search Results**

165 The initial search identified 179 studies, while 3 additional studies were found through the
166 secondary search. Subsequently, 153 search results were excluded based on their titles and/or
167 abstracts. The full text of the remaining 20 studies were examined in more detail, with 13
168 studies being excluded because they did not meet the inclusion criteria. After the final
169 screening, 7 studies were included in the review (as reported in Figure 1) (Fernandez-Gonzalo
170 et al., 2014; Gual et al., 2016; Lundberg et al., 2019; Onambélé et al., 2008; Sañudo et al.,
171 2019; Seynnes et al., 2007; Tesch et al., 2004).

172

173 *****Please, add here Figure 1*****

174

175 In the selected studies, changes in performance following flywheel protocols were calculated
176 as percentage differences (%) using the following formula:

177

$$178 \quad \text{(post – baseline) / baseline} \times 100$$

179

180 Hedges *g* were calculated from the original investigation to examine the extent of the training
181 outcomes. Specifically, effect sizes (ES) were determined for each flywheel protocol as for
182 within-group analyses and calculated relative to baseline or control conditions absent of any
183 intervention. This approach enabled the estimation of unbiased effects and standardized
184 comparisons between protocols (Lakens, 2013). Hedges *g* was interpreted as: *trivial* < 0.2,
185 *small* ≥ 0.2, *moderate* ≥ 0.6, *large* ≥ 1.2, and *very large* > 2.0 (Hopkins et al., 2009).

186

187 The equation $d = M_{\text{diff}}/S_{\text{av}}$ (M_{diff} , mean difference; S_{av} , average standard deviation [SD]) was
188 used for this purpose with the adjustment factor of

189

$$190 \quad g = (1 - 3/d_{\text{df}} - 1) \times d$$

191

192 **3.2 Descriptive Characteristics of the Studies**

193 The included studies are summarized in Table 2. The 7 selected studies resulted in 11 cohorts
194 as 4 studies had more than one group. Two studies were carried out with an elderly female
195 population and 5 with young adults. These studies were carried out between 2004 and 2019
196 and comprised a total of 100 participants, divided as follows: 36 older adult females and 64
197 young adults. In addition, 3 studies utilised a single group study, 2 utilised a parallel group
198 design, while 2 utilised a randomized controlled trial (RCT) design. The training duration
199 ranged from 5 weeks to 24 weeks, and the intervention protocols were clearly described in all
200 7 studies, however the inertial load utilised was reported only in 5 studies. Training volume
201 ranged from 1 to 4 sets, number of repetitions ranged from 7 to 12 per set, training frequency
202 ranged from 1 to 3 times a week. The key outcomes of the studies selected in this systematic
203 review included only lower limb performance tests such as: 1 repetition-maximum (1RM),
204 jump and squat tests (power output), as well as changes in muscle morphological adaptations
205 such as anatomical CSA. Variations in key findings were reported by summarizing the
206 percentage variation and the Hedges *g* standardised effect size.

207

208

Please, add here Table 2

209

210 3.3 Methodological Quality Assessment

211 Table 3 shows the individual scores for the quality assessment. Values ranged from 10 to 19
212 points (*good* to *excellent*), with an average score of 14 points (*good*). Regarding the individual
213 quality assessment, two studies were categorized as *excellent*, while the five remaining studies
214 were categorized as being of *good* quality.

215

216 ***Please, add here Table 3***

217

218 4. DISCUSSION

219 This systematic review aimed to evaluate and summarize practical, clinical and sporting
220 applications of flywheel training with female populations while also underlining the current
221 limitations of the literature and establish future research directions. Despite the growing
222 interest on flywheel training (Beato & Dello Iacono, 2020; Maroto-Izquierdo et al., 2017;
223 Raya-González et al., 2020; Vicens-Bordas et al., 2018), this is the first systematic review to
224 exclusively focus on female populations. This knowledge can provide valuable information for
225 the implementation of flywheel-based exercises with females of different ages and facilitate
226 the launch of comprehensive future research related to this topic.

227

228 4.1 Flywheel training and elderly females

229 Resistance training is a key factor related to improvement or maintenance of quality of life
230 because it can mitigate progressive age-related impairments (*e.g.* muscle atrophy and strength
231 decreases) (Fragala et al., 2019; Hortobagyi et al., 2001). In this regard, regular resistance
232 training improves neuromuscular function, strength, power, movement capacity and balance
233 (Gillespie et al., 2012; Howe et al., 2011). Although eccentric training appears to be more
234 effective than concentric modalities (in isolation) for increasing muscle mass and strength in
235 healthy adults (Roig et al., 2009), resistance training that requires both concentric and eccentric
236 training seems to exhibit a greater potential for strength improvements in older adults (Tesch
237 et al., 2017). Flywheel training benefits are associated with the combination of high-intensity
238 concentric contractions and the presence of an eccentric-overload (Beato & Dello Iacono,
239 2020), so, this modality may therefore be an interesting alternative for improvement of health-
240 related capacities in elderly populations. Despite this, only two studies have analysed the
241 effects of flywheel programs in elderly females (Onambélé et al., 2008; Sañudo et al., 2019).
242 Firstly, Onambélé et al. (Onambélé et al., 2008) applied a 12-week progressive flywheel knee
243 extension training program, obtaining improvements in isometric quadriceps strength (8%; g
244 = 0.63, *moderate*), knee-extension power (28%; g = 1.57, *large*), and tendon stiffness (136%;

245 $g = 7.1$, *very large*). Recently, Sañudo et al. (Sañudo et al., 2019) observed that 6-weeks of 2-
246 3 weekly flywheel squat training (inertia = 0.025 - 0.05 kg·m²) sessions increased power
247 performance (63%), velocity (48%) and mobility/balance (13%). Both studies analysed males
248 and females together, only included lower limb exercises and one of them failed to report the
249 inertia used (Onambélé et al., 2008). Information about the inertia used is critical for the
250 ecological validity of the protocol and for its replication in future research. Despite this, the
251 promising results highlight that flywheel programs can improve quality of life measures,
252 movement capacity, and reduce the risk of falls in elderly females. Future research may wish
253 to follow a comprehensive methodology (*e.g.* diary tracking, information on hormone therapy,
254 etc.) to further understand how to implement flywheel programs with elderly females
255 (Blagrove et al., 2020). Tracking aging-related hormonal changes (*e.g.* follicle stimulating
256 hormone and Estradiol) and activity levels (via self-reported questionnaires or hip-worn
257 accelerometers) may also add valuable insight into the response of elderly females (Juppi et
258 al., 2020).

259

260 **4.2 Flywheel training and young female adults**

261 In contrast to research with elderly females, the effects of flywheel exercises on young and
262 healthy females have been studied to a greater extent (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014; Gual et
263 al., 2016; Seynnes et al., 2007; Tesch et al., 2004). Significant benefits have been reported after
264 applying flywheel training with males in both skeletal muscle adaptations (*e.g.* strength, power
265 and hypertrophy) (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014; Naczki et al., 2016; Norrbrand et al., 2010)
266 and sports-related actions (*e.g.* jump, sprint and COD) (Coratella et al., 2019; de Hoyo et al.,
267 2015; Tous-Fajardo et al., 2016). However, observed differences across genders in response to
268 resistance training highlight why it is essential to specifically study the effects of flywheel
269 exercise on females (Kraemer et al., 1998). Tesch et al. (Tesch et al., 2004) observed increases
270 in knee extensor CSA (>6%) and isometric strength (10-12%) with a mixed male and female
271 cohort after 5 weeks of flywheel training (4 x 7 flywheel knee extension, 2-3 sessions per
272 week). Seynnes et al. (Seynnes et al., 2007) applied a similar protocol [*i.e.* 4 x 7 flywheel knee
273 extensions, 3 x week], finding *small* to *moderate* improvements in CSA (6.5-7.4%, $g = 0.21$ -
274 0.81) and isometric strength (39%), while also reporting important changes in architecture of
275 the knee extensors, including changes in fascicle length (9.9%) and pennation angle (7.7%).
276 The two studies reported similar improvements in CSA following very similar short duration
277 flywheel protocols, which underline the validity of **flywheel training** to generate hypertrophic
278 and isometric strength improvements in short periods of time. However, both studies had a
279 limited number of female participants that were not analysed separately from their male

280 counterparts, which makes it difficult to draw definitive conclusions on the effects of flywheel
281 training on females. Additionally, neither of these studies reported the inertia utilised, which is
282 a key factor for the success of the training protocol. Future studies should clearly report the
283 range of inertias utilised to facilitate the comparison of their findings with other studies.
284 Lundberg et al. (Lundberg et al., 2019) analysed the effects of 12-weeks flywheel knee
285 extensions (*i.e.* 4 x 7, inertia range 0.05-0.075 kg·m², 2-3 x week) on females and males
286 separately. The authors reported *moderate* improvements in 1RM (17%, $g = 0.78$), *moderate*
287 improvements in knee-extension power (26%; $g = 1.00$) and *small* changes in CSA (5-8%, $g =$
288 0.21-0.31), supporting the aforementioned findings (Seynnes et al., 2007; Tesch et al., 2004).
289 Furthermore, Lundberg et al. (Lundberg et al., 2019) also postulated that flywheel training may
290 be a more time-efficient training method than regular weight-stack methodologies since fewer
291 repetitions were required to achieve similar outcomes. Regarding sport-related actions,
292 Fernández-Gonzalo et al. (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014) obtained *large* improvements in
293 vertical jump height during the SJ (8%, $g = 1.42$) and CMJ (6%, $g = 1.75$) through a 6-week
294 flywheel supine squat training program (4 x 7, with an inertia of 0.14 kg·m²), which also
295 improved 1RM by 20% ($g = 2.49$, *very large*). Similarly, Gual et al. (Gual et al., 2016)
296 implemented a 24-week protocol involving weekly flywheel half squat training with a mixed
297 group of male and female basketball and volleyball players. However, a lower improvement
298 was reported in jumping performance such as CMJ (3%; $g = 0.19$, *trivial*) in comparison to the
299 investigation by Fernández-Gonzalo et al. (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014). Several factors
300 could explain these differences in outcomes. Firstly, the differences in inertial load and training
301 frequency per week (1 vs. 3 times a week) could have impacted outcomes. Secondly,
302 differences between physical level of the two samples enrolled (volleyball and basketball
303 athletes (Gual et al., 2016) vs. physically active subjects (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014) may
304 have affected response to the protocol. Differences in response to flywheel training can be
305 attributable to differences in participant physical level and this should be taken into
306 consideration when applying flywheel technology. Thirdly, Fernández-Gonzalo et al.
307 (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014) separated their male and female cohort prior to data analysis
308 while Gual et al. (Gual et al., 2016) did not. Nonetheless, the 3% improvement of jumping
309 performance reported in-season by Gual et al. (Gual et al., 2016) should not be neglected since
310 it highlights that a reduced training frequency and inertial load may still be beneficial for
311 athletes. However, it is necessary to highlight that elite athletes generally require a higher
312 training volume and frequency than other populations (Beato & Dello Iacono, 2020; Maroto-
313 Izquierdo et al., 2017). Nonetheless, the elite athletes recruited in this study reported substantial
314 improvements in squat power (57-61%; $g = 2.90-3.40$, *very large*) and did not suffer from any

315 patellar tendinopathy issues. Therefore, this study highlights that a single weekly session of
316 flywheel squat training enhances lower limb muscle performance without triggering patellar
317 tendon complaints in basketball and volleyball players.

318

319 Despite the fact that flywheel training programmes involving young and healthy females have
320 been studied to a greater extent than elderly females, the present section enrolled only five
321 studies. Therefore, future research is needed to better understand the training modalities more
322 suitable for active and sporting female populations. It should be noted that no study analysed
323 the effects of flywheel exercises on the upper limbs, therefore future studies could verify the
324 applicability of flywheel exercises to improve upper limb strength and sport-related
325 performance. Additionally, several studies reported in this review combined male and female
326 participants without differentiating them for analysis (via gender). Future studies analysing
327 females only are required. However, the results obtained in the included studies indicate that
328 flywheel-based resistance training is an effective method for improving physical performance
329 such as jumping, 1-RM, isometric strength, and concentric and eccentric squat outputs in
330 healthy young females, so it would be advisable to introduce these exercises in training
331 periodization with these populations.

332

333 **4.3 Informed implementation of flywheel exercises in research settings and applied** 334 **contexts**

335 Multiple factors, including training intensity, volume, and exercise type, affect flywheel
336 training outcomes. Variety in such factors can influence physical capacity and performance
337 and must therefore be controlled for.

338

339 *Training intensity*

340 A large variety of inertias were employed – ranging from 0.025-0.14 kg·m², with all of them
341 achieving their desired goals. A similar range of inertial intensities (0.05-0.11 kg·m²) have
342 previously been recommended for inducing chronic adaptations and performance
343 improvements in athletic populations (Beato & Dello Iacono, 2020). A lack of information still
344 exists regarding optimal inertial load with elderly females, with only one investigation
345 highlighting that a range of 0.025 – 0.05 kg·m² can improve power and mobility (Sañudo et al.,
346 2019). A variety of inertial loads can be employed with younger females (0.025-0.075 kg·m²;
347 0.11 kg·m²; 0.14 kg·m²) to achieve desired strength, power, and hypertrophy objectives
348 (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014; Gual et al., 2016; Lundberg et al., 2019).

349

350 *Training Volume*

351 As evidenced by the majority of protocols in this review, a program utilising multiple sets and
352 repetitions (4 x 7-8, respectively) can effectively achieve chronic adaptations with elderly and
353 younger females. Onambele et al. (Onambélé et al., 2008) reported a progressive loading
354 strategy (1 x 8 to 4 x 12) may be attractive for frail, diseased, and/or elderly participants because
355 it may reduce the negative effects of novel intense eccentric exercise (Hody et al., 2019).
356 Nonetheless, the only other investigation with elderly female participants utilised a 4 x 7
357 loading scheme (Sañudo et al., 2019) – hence it is still unclear whether it is of greater benefit
358 to utilise progressive (with increasing repetitions and sets) or consistent loading strategies for
359 chronic adaptations in elderly females.

360

361 *Training Frequency and Duration*

362 Tesch, et al. (Tesch et al., 2004) highlight that the flywheel may induce significant changes in
363 performance with a reduced time requirement in comparison to traditional methods. However,
364 further research is needed to verify if differences between flywheel and traditional methods
365 exist (Vicens-Bordas et al., 2018). The current review also reports that significant power
366 capability improvements were seen over a 24-week in-season period with a weekly flywheel
367 squat session (Gual et al., 2016), which underlines that a low dosage of flywheel training can
368 effectively enhance athletic capabilities. Importantly for this population, no aggravation of
369 patellar tendinopathies was reported - which is of significant importance for player
370 performance and availability in team sports. Nonetheless, within this investigation - injury,
371 pain, and/or dysfunction were only reported if players missed matches, missing out on possible
372 subtle patellar tendon issues arising throughout the training week (Gual et al., 2016). Such
373 subtle differences may have impacted training quality or quantity throughout the season.
374 Overall, it appears that 2-3 sessions of flywheel training are effective for inducing adaptations in
375 elderly and young female populations (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014; Lundberg et al., 2019;
376 Onambélé et al., 2008; Sañudo et al., 2019; Seynnes et al., 2007; Tesch et al., 2004). Athletic
377 populations may benefit either from one or multiple sessions per week depending on other
378 training and competition demands (Gonzalo-Skok et al., 2019) – although further investigation
379 into the effects dosage of flywheel training dosage is necessary.

380

381 *Exercise type*

382 Although it has been evidenced that multiple modalities of flywheel training can exhibit
383 eccentric overload (Gual et al., 2016), key differences in physical requirements exist between
384 different exercises (Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2014; Gual et al., 2016; Lundberg et al., 2019).

385 Differences in modalities are associated with a wide array of benefits and pitfalls: muscle
386 synergist activation, dynamic correspondence, sustainability/comfort of the protocol and
387 whether or not they affect availability for participation in competitive sports (Lundberg et al.,
388 2019; Onambélé et al., 2008; Sañudo et al., 2019). As alluded to by Gual et al. (Gual et al.,
389 2016), the relevance of the training stimulus to sport specific movements may be a key
390 determining factor for improvements with athletic populations. Similarly, Sañudo et al (Sañudo
391 et al., 2019). argue for the importance of specificity, justifying the use of a supine squat rather
392 than a leg extension. Specifically, the hip abductors, adductors, and ankle plantar/dorsi-flexors
393 have a great influence on balance performance, and may not be sufficiently targeted with a
394 single joint protocol, such as the leg extension (Gual et al., 2016; Sañudo et al., 2019).
395 Nonetheless, further research is necessary to determine whether differences exist between
396 single- and multi-joint exercises for strength and power adaptations with young and elderly
397 females.

398

399 **4.4 Limitations and directions for future research**

400 From the existing literature a few questions emerge which should be acknowledged and
401 discussed in view of future research directions:

402

403 1. *Reduced sample of females:* In the 7 studies chosen for this systematic review, a total of 100
404 females took part in an experimental group. Furthermore, the sample was heterogeneous, so
405 factors such as age, gender, strength levels or training history could have influenced the
406 response to flywheel training programs.

407

408 2. *Females and males analysed together in some studies:* Given the proven differences between
409 male and female endocrine, neuromuscular, and cellular response to high intensity exercise
410 (Kraemer et al., 1998), future research only with females would ensure training prescription
411 and outcomes are optimized for females. The present review was limited to reporting findings
412 where both sexes were included and not separated in the analysis, hence those results should
413 be interpreted with caution.

414

415 3. *Study design:* None of 7 studies were classified as low methodological value and five studies
416 were categorized as being of *good* quality, while two studies were categorized as *excellent*.
417 Values ranged from 10 to 19 points (*good* to *excellent*), with an average score of 14 points
418 (*good*). Nonetheless, further high-quality investigations based on a comprehensive
419 methodology (items criteria reported in Table 1) must be implemented with female populations

420 to better understand the applicability and the advantages of flywheel training in female
421 populations. Specifically, well designed RCT are required (Beato & Dello Iacono, 2020).

422

423 4. *The effect of the menstrual cycle on resistance training investigations:* As clearly stated in a
424 recent systematic review (Blagrove et al., 2020), time-of-day of training and testing should be
425 taken in account as day hormonal fluctuation can alter response. Furthermore, investigations
426 should also aim to accurately determine optimal strength testing days and inter-individual
427 variability within the menstrual cycle for each participant. Establishing whether participants
428 utilize oral contraceptives may be another key factor related to creating well-designed studies.

429

430 5. *Monitoring training sessions and testing:* the knowledge of inertial load utilised, and the
431 power outputs produced during flywheel exercises are key components to consider for the
432 designing of protocols. Physiological and performance adaptations could be analysed
433 according to the concentric and eccentric power achieved by each participant **during flywheel**
434 **tests (Beato, Fleming, et al., 2020)**. Practitioners should consider the number of repetitions and
435 sets, the inertia used, and the weekly training frequency adopted as key factors for the success
436 of their training protocols. Future studies using and comparing different flywheel protocols
437 should aim to highlight the necessary dose utilised to achieve improvements in the female
438 population. Additionally, as recently reported (Beato & Dello Iacono, 2020), the load
439 quantification with rotatory encoders may help to efficiently manage exercise prescription and
440 monitoring – particularly in the frameworks of injury prevention and rehabilitation, where the
441 applications of flywheel training are not currently well-explored.

442

443 6. *Exercises:* **Research involving males studied the effect of several exercises on physical**
444 **parameters (Beato, de Keijzer, et al., 2020; Maroto-Izquierdo et al., 2017)**, while only a limited
445 number of lower limb exercises such as leg extension and squat have been used in studies
446 enrolling female populations. Future research may wish to investigate the effects of deadlifts,
447 lunges, or other functional movements with elderly or younger female populations, as well as
448 the combination of several exercises into the same flywheel training program. **Additionally,**
449 **the effectiveness of different flywheel exercises on strength parameters (e.g. concentric and**
450 **eccentric hamstring strength) could be particularly important considering that female athletes**
451 **frequently suffer from hamstring and knee injuries.**

452

453 **CONCLUSIONS**

454 The contemporary literature suggests that flywheel training is a safe and time-effective strategy
455 to enhance physical outcomes with young and elderly females. With this information,
456 practitioners may be inclined to prescribe flywheel training as an effective countermeasure for
457 injuries or falls and as potent stimulus for physical enhancement in young and elderly female
458 populations. Nonetheless, a lack of clarity still exists on appropriate flywheel training dosage,
459 frequency, and intensity with females. Therefore, further high-quality investigations into this
460 topic are warranted to establish clear guidelines and construct a thorough consensus about the
461 use of flywheel training methodologies with female populations.

462

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