

1 **Lower fatigue and faster recovery of ultra-short race pace swimming training**
2 **sessions**

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21 **ABSTRACT:**

22

23 Ultra-short race-pace training (USRPT) is a high-intensity training modality used in
24 swimming for the development of the specific race-technique. However, there is little
25 information about the fatigue associated to this modality. In a crossover design, acute
26 responses of two volume-equated sessions (1000-m) were compared on 14 national
27 swimmers: i) USRPT: 20×50-m; ii) RPT: 10×100-m. Both protocols followed an
28 equivalent work recovery ratio (1:1) based on individual 200-m race-pace. The swimming
29 times and the arm-strokes count were monitored on each set and compared by mixed-
30 models. Blood lactate [La^-] and countermovement jump-height (CMJ) were compared
31 within and between conditions 2 and 5 min after the protocols. The last bouts in RPT were
32 1.5–3% slower than the target pace, entailing an arm-strokes increase value of ~0.22 for
33 every second increase in swimming time. USRPT produced lower [La^-] ([Mean \pm
34 standard deviation], 2 min: 8.2 ± 2.4 [$p = 0.021$]; 5 min: 6.9 ± 2.8 mM/L [$p = 0.008$]), than
35 RPT (2 min: 10.9 ± 2.3 ; 5 min: 9.9 ± 2.4 mM/L). CMJ was lowered at min 2 after RPT (-
36 11.09%) and USRPT (-5.89%), but returned to the baseline in USRPT at min 5 of
37 recovery (4.07%). In conclusion, lower fatigue and better recovery were achieved during
38 USRPT compared to traditional high-volume set.

39

40 **Keywords:** high-intensity interval training (HIIT); Physical conditioning; Athletic
41 performance; Endurance training; Short-term potentiation; Physiology.

42

43 **INTRODUCTION**

44

45 Competitive swimming requires large amounts of training volume to develop the
46 physiological parameters needed to succeed[1, 2]. For this reason, coaches prescribe long-
47 lasting exercises in which glycogen depletion and lactate accumulation $[La^-]$ are
48 generated[3, 4]. This is reflected in the typical preparation of elite middle-distance
49 swimmers (200-400m) who often follow the model of high-volume, low-intensity
50 training (55-70% below $[La^-]$ 2 mM/L, and 30-45% between $[La^-]$ 2 and 4 mM/L) aiming
51 to develop a high aerobic capacity (maximal oxygen uptake – VO_{2max}) and the ability to
52 maintain it for longer periods[5, 6]. However, since the energy required to swim at a
53 certain speed is derived from that specific speed[7, 8], a training stimulus should also
54 include exercises at race-specific velocity with the aim to stimulate different energetic
55 pathways and aerobic power [9], including intensities above $[La^-]$ ~4 mM/L and ~75-80%
56 of VO_{2max} capable to stimulate the glycolytic system[2, 10-12].

57

58 One of the problems of maintaining high-intensity exercises during training sessions of
59 high-volume is the severe depletion of ATP and phosphocreatine stores (PCr) which
60 results in excessive fatigue levels[11, 13]. One appealing option to increase race-specific
61 velocity training while obtaining the endurance performance gains, is the polarized
62 training model[14], which is characterized by training most of the time (75-80%) at low
63 intensities (< 2 mM/L $[La^-]$), and the remaining time (25-20%) at high-intensities (> 4
64 mM/L $[La^-]$), with very little or no training (0-5%) in between (2 mM/L $\geq [La^-] \leq 4$
65 mM/L)[5]. For this purpose, coaches often include a derivative of high-intensity training
66 (HIT) known as Ultra-short race-pace training (USRPT)[9]. With this procedure, the
67 aerobic and glycolytic systems are stressed through brief bursts of vigorous activity (e.g.,

68 20 to 50 swimming intervals completed over short distances 15 to 100-m), interspersed
69 with work-recovery ratios of 1:1, 1:2 or 2:1, according to the individual best competitive
70 performance (i.e. competitive race-pace)[2, 12]. The application of this method may be
71 supported by expected adaptations such as an increase in VO_{2max} [11], an improved ability
72 of working muscle to produce and utilize ATP from the glycolytic system[12], higher
73 velocity at $[La^-]$ threshold[2], and a decrease in the energy cost of swimming (-20%)[8].

74

75 While USRPT protocols are frequently included on swimming programs, it is surprising
76 that there is scarce scientific information about this HIT modality in swimming. For
77 example, sprint interval training (SIT) through short sprint cycling bouts (e.g., <10-s) has
78 demonstrated to elicit greater cardiorespiratory and power performances with less fatigue
79 than longer HIT bouts equated by volume [15]. Therefore, it is expected that short-lasting
80 efforts as in USRPT would generate lower $[La^-]$ than training modalities of higher
81 volume[16, 17]. This would entail a lower related acidosis which, in turn, would favour
82 oxidative metabolism and prolonged race-pace training at the desired intensity[1, 3].
83 However, this needs to be experimentally confirmed. On the other hand, it is uncertain
84 whether USRPT may reach or maintain the intensity requirements ($[La^-] \geq 4$ mM/L)
85 needed to improve the aerobic capacity[2, 10-12], as the long-term adaptations after HIT
86 programs are related to the accumulated training load at higher intensities[18]. A previous
87 research investigated the demands of a 20 × 25-m USRPT session (100-m race-pace; 35-
88 s recovery period)[19], showing $[La^-]$ of 11.4 ± 3.7 mM/L, maximal heart rate (HR_{max})
89 $\geq 88\%$, and rating of perceived exertion values ≥ 17 . Therefore, these previous findings
90 suggest the suitability of this HIT modality[11, 12, 14]. However, another study reported
91 only $[La^-]$ ~3 mM/L and 93% HR_{max} after a set of 40 × 25-m (100-m race-pace; 15-s
92 recovery period)[20], suggesting different $[La^-]$ production and removal. Hence, and

93 considering that $[La^-]$ responses are very different between athletes[16], it would be
94 important to individually assess this aspect to further understand the metabolic responses
95 of this type of training.

96

97 It is expected that the specific fatigue generated by USRPT would affect different
98 performance variables. Athletes' fatigue is commonly referred to as a reduced capacity
99 for maintaining maximal performance as evaluated with different methods[21]. In this
100 regard, it has been suggested that athletes should be tested in well-known tests when
101 evaluating fatigue[22]. Thus, considering that race-specific technique instruction is the
102 most important component of USRPT[9], and that the swimming biomechanics are the
103 strongest determinants of swimming performance[8], the analysis of swimming patterns
104 such as arm-stroke count could give us an accurate measure of the occurrence of fatigue
105 during race-pace training[23]. Furthermore, given that muscle power would be affected
106 by the specific fatigue of USRPT, examination of performance in subsequent dry-land
107 exercises would provide information on how fatigue developed to better monitor muscle
108 power. The practice of swimming involves some aspects that require the development of
109 strength and explosive power in dryland conditions, such as the swim start[24].
110 Unfortunately, these practices are seldomly controlled or assessed, thus swimmers often
111 perform these exercises under fatigue, therefore limiting desired adaptations. In this
112 regard, the countermovement jump (CMJ) has demonstrated to be a simple, reliable and
113 sensitive tool to identify neuromuscular fatigue after different HIT schemes in different
114 sports[21, 25, 26]. Considering that coaches usually include jumping exercises as a
115 content of dry-land training given their high relationship with swimming start
116 performance[5, 27, 28], CMJs could be also used to assess the readiness for performing
117 strength exercises after swimming exercises of different intensities.

118

119 Therefore, the aim of this study was to compare two volume-equated race-pace sessions
120 of short (i.e., USRPT) vs. long bouts to compare the metabolic (i.e., lactate),
121 biomechanical (i.e., arm-strokes) and neuromuscular (i.e., CMJ) effects of fatigue during
122 and after each training sessions. According to previous evidence in swimming[16] and
123 other sports[3, 11], the rate of $[La^-]$ depends upon the intensity and duration of the
124 swimming effort: therefore it would be expected that the brief efforts and intermittent
125 activity of USRPT could favour lower $[La^-]$ and a reduced fatigue when compared to a
126 longer bouts-HIT-session of equated volume.

127

128 **METHODS**

129

130 **Subjects**

131

132 Based on a previous study[15], that investigated the pre-post effects of two cycling-based
133 SIT on CMJ-height on active men [16x5-s SIT (mean change = 0.45%, SD = 11.43% , d
134 = 0.03 = small effect) and 4x20-s SIT (mean change = 4.19%, SD = 14.32%, d = 0.82 =
135 mean to large effect), sample size calculations for the interaction effect between training
136 modalities were conducted (G*Power, F tests; α error = 0.05)[29]. Assuming $\eta_p^2 = 0.21$
137 for a repeated measures ANOVA (within factors: protocol (RPT and USRPT), time (2
138 min pre-, 2 and 5 min post-), this analysis revealed a minimum of 8 subjects to achieve a
139 statistical power > 80% (estimated correlation = 0.5). Finally, it was recruited 14 national
140 competitive swimmers that were informed about the procedures and provided signed

141 consent to participate in this study. Their characteristics were as follows: 18.95 ± 1.63
142 and 19.02 ± 0.78 years old; short course 100-m freestyle time: 56.35 ± 1.44 s (males);
143 63.01 ± 1.60 s (females) corresponding to 509 ± 39 FINA points. Swimmers under the age
144 of 18 were asked to provide also signed parental consent forms. The experiment was
145 conducted during the second macrocycle of the season to ensure that swimmers were
146 aerobically fit[5]. Subjects were abstained of drinking caffeinated beverages, and they
147 followed their normal diet during the tests. All the procedures followed the Declaration
148 of Helsinki with respect to human research, and the study was approved by the local
149 university ethics committee (code: 852).

150

151 **Design**

152

153 A counterbalanced crossover design was used to determine differences on $[La^-]$, arm-
154 strokes count, and CMJ-height between two swimming race-pace protocols. One of the
155 protocols consisted of 10×100 -m swimming bouts (Race-pace training [RPT]), while
156 the other consisted of 20×50 -m swimming bouts (i.e., USRPT). In both protocols,
157 swimmers were given individualized target times based on specific 200-m times and
158 followed a work-recovery ratio of 1:1. The interaction effect of $[La^-]$ and CMJ-height
159 were observed within and between groups at 2 and 5 min after each experimental protocol,
160 while the CMJ was also collected immediately prior (2 min) to observe the pre-post daily
161 changes in neuromuscular function[25, 30].

162

163 **Procedures**

164

165 Prior to testing (≥ 48 h), swimmers were tested in short-course 200-m freestyle to obtain
166 the individual target times. This distance was chosen because its intensity and duration
167 ensure that swimmers achieve the VO_{2max} [6] and thus, activate the glycolytic system[12,
168 31]. The RPT target time was individually calculated as the 95% of the 200-m time/2
169 (males: 65.71 ± 1.38 -s; females: 71.85 ± 1.95 -s), while in USRPT it was calculated as the
170 95% of the 200-m time/4 (males: 32.85 ± 0.65 -s; females: 35.92 ± 1.10 -s)[19]. To ensure
171 a work-recovery ratio of 1:1, it was allowed a total bout time of 130-s for males and 140-
172 s for females in RPT and 60-s for males and 70-s for females in USRPT.

173

174 The experimental setting was a 25-m indoor pool (water and air temperatures of 28.3 and
175 28.9° C, respectively). Prior to testing, subjects were asked to include various CMJ
176 attempts during their regular training for familiarization purposes. On the day of the test,
177 subjects completed a standardized 400-m in-water warm-up[32], followed by two CMJs
178 and 10 min of rest. Subsequently, swimmers performed the first CMJs separated by 10-s,
179 and entered the water to perform one experimental protocol (RPT or USRPT). All the
180 efforts were monitored by a certified swimming coach who provided immediate timing
181 feedback at the end of every effort.

182

183 Blood [La^-] samples were collected at 2 and 5 min after the tests[4, 33]. A blood lactate
184 analyser (Lactate Pro2 LT-1730, Arkray, Inc., Kyoto, Japan) was used after collection of
185 ~ 5 μ L of capillary blood from the fingertip with a measurement range of 0.5 \sim 25.0
186 mM/L. The analyser was previously calibrated following the manufacturer instructions
187 (YSI Preservative Collection Kit; Yellow Springs Inc., Yellow Springs, Ohio, USA).

188

189 Arm-stroke counts were monitored during the sets by a researcher to prevent swimmers
190 from bias[23]. The underwater movements after the push-off from the wall were limited
191 up to two kicks. The sum of the values of each lap was averaged over the whole bout
192 (arm-stroke average). The CMJ-height was assessed 2 min before the experimental set,
193 and 2 and 5 min after completing it. Two CMJs were required per time interval and
194 subsequently averaged for comparisons[25]. An intraclass correlation coefficient was
195 applied between the CMJs attempts (model: two-way mixed; type: absolute
196 agreement)[34], showing high relative reliability, 0.97 [0.92 – 0.98] (2 min pre-), 0.92
197 [0.82 – 0.97] (2 min) and 0.96 [0.93 – 0.98] (5 min). The jumping height was calculated
198 with the flight time of the CMJ measured by a contact platform connected to a digital
199 timer (Newtest OY, Oulu, Finland). The subjects started from a standing position, with
200 the trunk straight, legs extended, and both hands on the hips to minimize lateral and
201 horizontal displacement during jumping. After a countermovement with a freely chosen
202 knee flexion, subjects performed the highest possible vertical jump[15, 26].

203

204 **Statistical Analysis**

205

206 The Shapiro–Wilk test revealed that all the variables with the exception of $[La^-]$ were
207 normally distributed. Then, the differences within protocols of $[La^-]$ at different time
208 points were analysed using a two-way non-parametric ANOVA test by Friedman (factors:
209 protocol \times time). Paired comparisons were observed by Wilcoxon between time points
210 and protocols (RPT vs. USRPT). Linear regressions were applied to observe the change
211 trends in swimming time respective to target (%). All data points were pooled and

212 calculated on regression for each gender and training protocol. Subsequently, the
213 swimming times achieved in every effort were compared with the target times through a
214 paired sample *t* test, while the difference between time increments were compared
215 between genders with an independent *t*-test. A two-way repeated measures ANOVA, with
216 two repeated-measures factors (protocol and time points) was applied to study the
217 differences in CMJ-height (2 min pre-, 2 and 5 min post-). Paired sample *t* test was used
218 to verify those differences between time points and protocols (RPT vs. USRPT). Linear
219 mixed-effects models were carried out between the arm-strokes count and time achieved
220 in every effort and repeated-measures correlations were carried out to address the
221 repeated measures within-subjects[35]. Descriptive statistics were expressed as the mean
222 \pm standard deviation (SD) and confidence intervals (95% CI). When calculating effect
223 sizes (*d*), pooled standard deviations (SD) were used as no control group was available
224 (Cohen's $d = [\text{Mean}^a - \text{Mean}^b] / \text{SD pooled}$)[36]. These values were categorized as small
225 if $0 \leq |d| \leq 0.5$, medium if $0.5 < |d| \leq 0.8$, and large if $|d| > 0.8$ [37]. The relative changes (% Δ)
226 were calculated as the percentage difference between conditions ($\% \Delta = [(\text{Mean}^b -$
227 $\text{Mean}^a) / \text{Mean}^a] \times 100$)[38]. All statistical procedures were performed using SPSS 23.0
228 (IBM, Chicago, IL, USA). The statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

229

230 **RESULTS**

231

232 A significant protocol, time, and protocol \times time interaction ($p < 0.001$) was identified
233 for $[\text{La}^-]$ when compared the values collected at 2 to 5 min within and between the
234 protocols. The values obtained in RPT (2 min: 10.8 ± 2.7 ; 5 min: 10.1 ± 2.6 mM/L) were
235 higher than in USRPT (2 min: 8.3 ± 2.7 [$p = 0.021$]; 5 min: 7.4 ± 2.8 Mm/L [$p = 0.008$])

236 and both were higher at 2 min compared to 5 min ($p < 0.001$). There was a lower reduction
237 observed in RPT ($\Delta = -5.47\%$; $d = 0.22$) when compared to USRPT ($\Delta = -11.03\%$; $d =$
238 0.33) ($p = 0.015$). Combining both protocols, it was observed higher $[La^-]$ in males than
239 in females at 2 (11.3 ± 1.6 vs 7.7 ± 2.8 mM/L; $p = 0.008$) and 5 min (10.6 ± 2.0 vs $7.0 \pm$
240 2.8 mM/L $p = 0.025$) of recovery.

241

242 (Please insert Figure 1 near here)

243

244 There was a strong linear trend towards changes in swimming time between RPT efforts,
245 both for males ($R^2 = 0.92$, $p < 0.001$) and females ($R^2 = 0.94$, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 2A). The
246 swimming times were slower than the targeted in RPT for females from the eighth effort
247 onwards ($1.55 \pm 1.41\%$ $p = 0.025$; $2.87 \pm 1.86\%$, $p = 0.006$; $3.30 \pm 1.53\%$, $p = 0.001$). In
248 males, the ninth and tenth efforts were slower than the targeted ($1.65 \pm 2.24\%$; $p = 0.028$;
249 $2.85 \pm 2.49\%$; $p = 0.009$). The first and second efforts of RPT were faster than the target
250 in males ($p = 0.042$) and females ($p = 0.021$). In USRPT, only the first effort of males
251 was faster ($p = 0.002$). No differences on performance time were obtained between males
252 and females in any of the protocols. The repeated-measures correlation showed that the
253 increased number of arm-strokes was moderately associated with worse time in RPT
254 (Males: $r = 0.58$, $p < 0.001$; Females: $r = 0.64$, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 2B). Each unit increase
255 in time in 100-m accounted for a 0.24 and 0.20 ($p < 0.001$) increase in the number of arm-
256 strokes for males and females, respectively. In USRPT, the increased number of arm-
257 strokes was poorly associated in males ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.001$) but not associated in females
258 ($r = 0.10$, $p = 0.241$). In males, each unit increase in time in 50m accounted for a 0.30
259 increase ($p < 0.001$) in the number of arm-strokes.

260

261 (Please insert Figure 2 near here)

262

263 A significant time ($F_{2,26} = 22.177$, $p < 0.001$), and time \times protocol interaction ($F_{2,26} =$
264 6.951 , $p < 0.004$) was identified for CMJ-height when relative 2 min pre- to 2 and 5 min
265 post-exercise were compared between the protocols [2 min post- vs 2 min pre- ($\Delta = -$
266 11.93%)] and; [2 min post- vs 5 min post- ($\Delta = 6.87\%$)] for RPT; compared to [2 min
267 post- vs 2 min pre- ($\Delta = -6.06\%$)], and; [2 min post- vs 5 min post- ($\Delta = 10.43\%$)] for
268 USRPT. The paired samples t test showed a return to baseline at min 5 in USRPT, with
269 no differences with 2 min pre- ($p = 0.76$), and higher CMJ-height compared to RPT ($p =$
270 0.021). (Table 1).

271

272 (Please insert Table 1 near here)

273

274 **DISCUSSION**

275

276 The aim of this study was to compare two volume-equated HIT sessions of short (i.e.,
277 USRPT: 20×50 -m) vs. long bouts (i.e., RPT: 10×100 -m) to compare the $[La^-]$ and
278 fatigue responses during and after each training session. Our hypothesis was that the brief
279 efforts of USRPT could favour a lower $[La^-]$ and a reduced fatigue when compared to the
280 longer bouts of RPT. The results showed that both protocols achieved an intensity range
281 within $[La^-]$ 8-12mM/L, but RPT produced higher $[La^-]_{max}$ compared to USRPT.

282 Furthermore, deteriorations in the swimming pace, stroke patterns (i.e., arm-stroke count)
283 and muscle power (CMJ-height) were more pronounced and persistent in RPT. Therefore,
284 USRPT appears to be the more suitable method to include HIT aiming to replicate
285 competitive race pace with less fatigue.

286

287 Although USRPT and RPT set the same target intensities, the magnitude of $[La^-]_{max}$ also
288 depends on the duration of the exercise because glycolysis reaches near maximal rates
289 after ~40-50s[10, 16], resulting in a greater impact on RPT. This was expected given that
290 37-63% of the energy supplied for 100-m races comes from glycolysis[17, 39]. Moreover,
291 the ATP obtained from PCr is capable of supplying a substantial proportion of the
292 required energy for only 5-7s, thus favouring the lower $[La^-]$ accumulation in USRPT[10,
293 15]. Despite the role of $[La^-]$ acidosis as the main cause of fatigue has been disregarded[3,
294 10], a severe reduction in pH may hinder ATP utilization when the $[La^-]$ values reach
295 ~13-30 mM/L [1, 13]. Some swimmers obtained 12-14 mM/L of $[La^-]$ in RPT, this
296 confirmed that the glycolytic system was highly activated through this protocol.
297 Therefore, it can be suggested that USRPT induced an optimal range of $[La^-]$ (≥ 4 mM/L
298 <13 mM/L), thus supporting its use as an important HIT modality in swimming[11, 16].

299

300 Previously, values of $[La^-]$ ~9-10 mM/L have been reported for maximal 50-m freestyle
301 bouts[17, 39], while values of $[La^-]_{max}$ ~11-13 mM/L for maximal 100-m freestyle bouts
302 were observed[17, 31, 39]. Therefore, it was reasonable to expect the lower values
303 observed in the current study by using the 200-m race-pace (USRPT: 8.3 ± 2.7 mmol/l;
304 RPT: 10.8 ± 2.7). Nevertheless, it was also noticeable that we measured them after a total
305 volume of 1000-m, which is in agreement with the $[La^-]$ previously reported for HIT[12].

306 Interestingly, it was observed a ~11% of $[La^-]$ reduction in USRPT but only a ~5% in
307 RPT. One possible explanation of this difference might be that, following RPT, some
308 subjects may reach true peak $[La^-]$ values between min 2 and 5, therefore not showing the
309 expected reduction in $[La^-]$ values (Figure 1). Further studies should examine the $[La^-]$
310 kinetics to confirm this possibility.

311

312 In any case, active muscles contribute to a higher $[La^-]$ removal during exercise and also
313 during recovery[1, 33], whereas higher mitochondrial and capillary content contributes
314 to obtain a higher energy fraction from muscular oxidative metabolism[11, 12]. Actually,
315 when the recovery time between efforts declines, there is a reduction in the use of fast-
316 twitch glycolytic fibres and an increase in the reliance on slow-twitch oxidative fibres,
317 thus contributing to a greater $[La^-]$ clearance[12]. The different recovery periods (35 vs.
318 15-s) may explain the $[La^-]$ differences obtained by Williamson et al[19] and Gullstrand
319 and Lawrence[20] (~11 and ~3 mM/L, respectively) while, in this current study, those
320 differences were explained both by the different recovery and bouts duration.

321

322 The total swimming time increased in RPT but remained more stable in USRPT (Figure
323 2A). Thus, a lower volume at race-pace intensity was achieved in RPT. Interestingly, the
324 repeated-measures correlation analysis conducted within-subjects showed that increasing
325 the number of arm-strokes entailed worse times in RPT (Males: $r = 0.58$; $p < 0.001$;
326 Females: $r = 0.64$; $p < 0.001$), whereas this relation was not evidenced in USRPT (Males:
327 $r = 0.28$; $p < 0.001$; Females: $r = 0.10$; $p = 0.18$) (Figure 2B). For a given distance and
328 speed, a higher number of arm-strokes would represent a higher stroke-rate and a lower
329 stroke-length and this could be related with a reduced capacity to generate propulsive

330 impulse per stroke[7, 23], resulting in a higher energy cost[8]. Previous studies have
331 stated that the stroke patterns remain stable at slow to moderate speeds and in shorter
332 distances[7, 8]; thus the deleterious effects of fatigue could be better perceived in
333 extended bouts such as RPT. From these results, it may be suggested that the generated
334 metabolic fatigue may have worsened the propelling efficiency by means of changes in
335 the stroke technique[8].

336

337 Some studies have demonstrated that CMJ can be used as a useful tool for identifying
338 acute fatigue after different high-intensity efforts. For instance, Jimenez-Reyes et al[26]
339 showed post-exercise CMJ-height significantly lower ($16.0 \pm 2.5\%$) than pre-exercise
340 following several repetitions of running sprints up to a loss of 3% in speed, while Benítez-
341 Flores et al[15] showed that CMJ-height was lower (4.19%) after 4×20 -s cycle sprints
342 when compared to 16×5 -s cycle sprints. Thus, the deterioration in CMJ-height observed
343 after both protocols at min 2 was somewhat expected. However, the CMJ-capacity was
344 quickly restored at min 5 of recovery only in USRPT, with a trend ($p = 0.07$) for a CMJ-
345 height potentiation (Table 1). This is an important finding as a post-USRPT CMJ-height
346 potentiation would be the result of the balance between fatigue and potentiation
347 mechanisms[22]. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that one study on cycling-based
348 SIT (5 s) showed that some individuals potentiated their CMJ-height after the fatiguing
349 protocol[15]. Hence, if fatigue had a direct force-depressing effect in muscles, this was
350 possibly counteracted by other potentiation factors that increased force to the same extent
351 after some minutes of rest[30]. Muscles respond with varying fatigue and potentiation
352 manifestations depending on the recent contractile history[40]. As these two elements can
353 co-exist, the quality of muscle performance following contractile activity depends on the
354 balance between the degree to which the muscle is fatigued and the degree to which the

355 muscle is potentiated[41]. The deviating time course of performance enhancement is an
356 individually regulated response that depends on the training experience and on the nature
357 of the participant's muscle fibre composition; thus stronger athletes could be more
358 resistant to fatigue following a conditioning activity, responding more favourably than
359 weaker athletes [42]. In any case, it is reasonable to expect that the fatigue effects would
360 be eliminated after a few minutes of rest and this may have entailed greater potentiation
361 responses in USRPT, but also in RPT. Therefore, future studies should look further for
362 potentiation/fatigue effects during different recovery intervals after the training set
363 leading up to the usual 15-20 min of rest given between the warm-up and the race.

364

365 This study presented some limitations. First, apart from $[La^-]$, this study did not include
366 other physiological measurements, such as heart rate responses; however, previous
367 studies have already demonstrated that USRPT elicits ~88-93% of HRmax which are
368 compatible with HIT demands[19, 20]. Second, while we equated the volume of the two
369 conditions, it should be considered that the purpose of race-pace training is to achieve a
370 certain total volume without fatigue-induced declines in swimming speed; therefore, in a
371 real setting, the coach would adjust the number of sets based on the current loads and
372 fitness level of swimmers. Third, it would have also been interesting to test swim-specific
373 fatigue more directly by performing a maximum-effort swim (e.g., 50 m or 100 m) pre
374 and post-training protocols. This would have allowed a very clear and valid assessment
375 of true fatigue-performance reduction. However, such efforts may limit the conditioning
376 state of the activities to be carried out immediately afterwards (e.g., dry-land training).
377 Future studies should evaluate the different responses evaluated in the current study,
378 including individualized loads and volumes to verify if this HIT modality effectively
379 results in better chronic training adaptations.

380

381 In conclusion, for a given training volume, USRPT is better than RPT to achieve more
382 volume at race pace, maintaining the swimming patterns with a considerably lower
383 metabolic and neuromuscular fatigue. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that
384 increasing the frequency of USRPT training with lower metabolic stress and fatigue
385 would allow athletes to accumulate more HIT volume at race-specific velocity. Similarly,
386 RPT could be an interesting method for long-distance swimmers to create more stress to
387 train $[La^-]$ tolerance. Future studies should test the long-term adaptations obtained
388 through these procedures.

389

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391

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393

394 **DECLARATION OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

395

396 Authors declare no conflict of interest to report.

397

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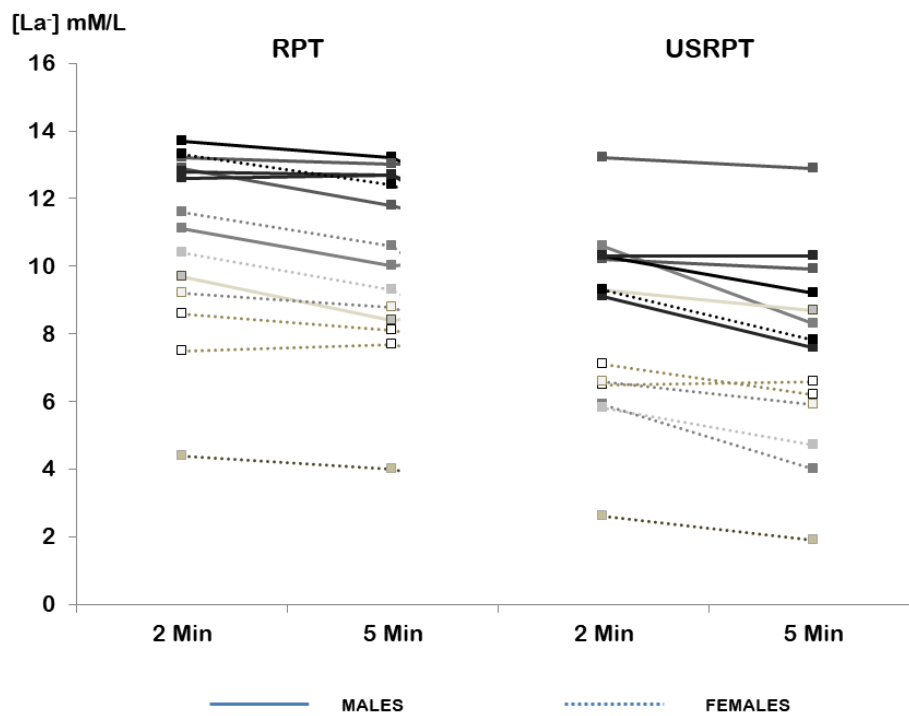
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520 **TABLE & FIGURE CAPTIONS**

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522 **Figure 1.** Maximal blood Lactate concentration ($[La^-]_{max}$) achieved 2 and 5 minutes after
523 the experimental sets (n = 14). Race-pace training (RPT); Ultra-short race pace training
524 (USRPT).



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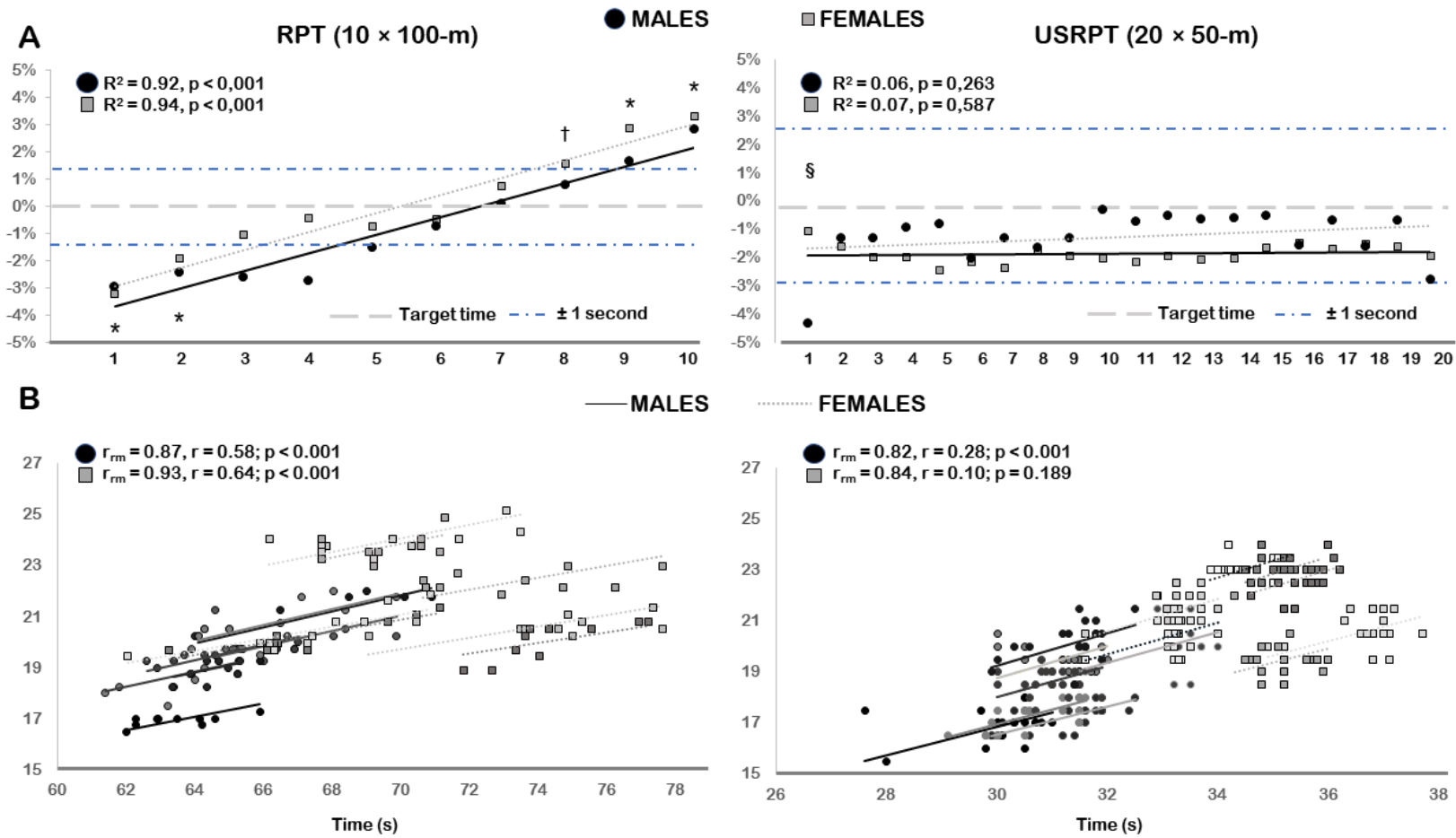
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530 **Figure 2.** A – Time variation regarding target time (RPT = Race-pace training; USRPT= Ultra-short race-pace training); B – Regression Analysis
 531 between arm-stroke count and final time; C – Arm Strokes Average (per lap).



533 **Table 1.** Mean \pm Standard deviation (SD), confident intervals and effect sizes of countermovement jump height (CMJ), 2 min before (Pre), and 2
 534 and 5 min after the experimental training protocols: Race-pace training (RPT = 10 \times 100-m); Ultra-short race-pace training (USRPT = 20 \times 50-m).

		CMJ – Pre	Vs		CMJ – 2 min	Vs		CMJ – 5 min	Vs (Pre-)	
		Mean \pm SD	P	ES (95% CI)	Mean \pm SD	P	ES (95% CI)	Mean \pm SD	P	ES (95% CI)
RPT		36.4 \pm 8.4	<0.001	-0.55 (-1.62, 0.51)	32.3 \pm 5.8*	<0.001	0.31 (-0.69, 1.42)	34.6 \pm 6.3*#	0.026	-0.24 (-1.29, 0.81)
Vs	p	0.568			0.239			0.021		
	ES (95% CI)	-0.09 (-0.92, 0.56)			0.17 (-0.40, 1.09)			0.36 (-0.41, 1.13)		
USRPT		35.7 \pm 6.4	<0.001	-0.28 (-1.38, 0.72)	33.6 \pm 6.2*	<0.001	0.49 (-0.54, 1.59)	37.3 \pm 7.5#	0.076	0.21 (-0.83, 1.26)

542 * Differences respect to Pre

543 # Differences respect to 2 min

544 \$ Differences between protocols (RPT vs. USRPT)