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ORIGINALES

Unilateral and bilateral isokinetic knee strength indices in professional soccer players

Heart rate variability to assess the effect of sleep deprivation in mountain troops of the chilean army: a pilot study

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Estrategias artificiales de entrenamiento en altitud: ¿Existe correlación entre parámetros hematológicos y de rendimiento físico?

REVISIONES

Accidental doping. Prevention strategies

Body composition characteristics of handball players: Systematic review



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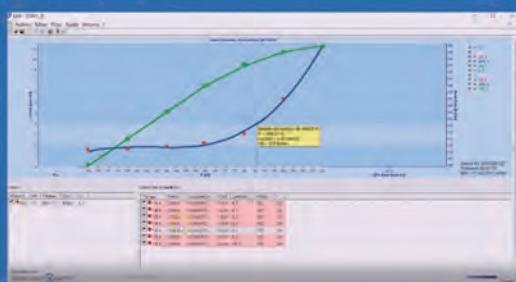
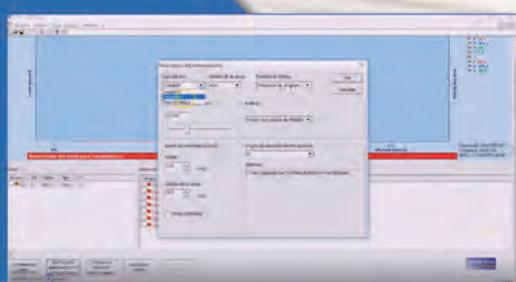
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Menos suplementos y más alimentos. Más profesionales y menos intrusistas

Less supplements and more foods. More professionals and less intrusives

Jesús Rodríguez Huertas

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La medicina del deporte y ciencias afines, son tan antiguas y determinantes para el deportista como lo fue el binomio nutrición/salud para el devenir de la especie humana. Es una ciencia en continuo desarrollo que nos sorprende con sus ininterrumpidos avances. No obstante, quizás por esto último, es objeto de un intrusismo insopportable y sin precedentes.

Recientemente se ha publicado un interesante artículo que evidencia que solo un 3% de los corredores británicos son asesorados nutricionalmente por especialistas, mientras que el resto lo hace por internet, por un entrenador, o a través de revistas no especializadas, amigos, etc.¹. Esto evidencia que, para los deportistas, tanto recreacionales como profesionales, es muy importante la necesidad de incorporar suplementos, alimentos funcionales, nutracéuticos, vitaminas, etc. Y peor aún, los que se inician en la actividad física buscando calidad de vida, lo primero que hacen es comprar la equipación del profesional que por supuesto incluye un sinfín de ayudas ergogénicas.

Es difícil conocer los motivos, pero si conocemos las nefastas consecuencias a medio y largo plazo, por lo que debemos seguir insistiendo en la estrategia correcta, que siempre pasa por recurrir al profesional. Los suplementos nutricionales son necesarios, pero tal y como está legislado, para situaciones específicas, tras un diagnóstico de profesionales y bajo la tutela de los mismos.

Hoy sabemos que una suplementación de proteínas igual o inferior a 1,6 g/kg día, es más que suficiente para maximizar los efectos del entrenamiento, facilitar la hipertrofia muscular y la recuperación². Cantidad superiores no incrementan los beneficios, pero sí facilitan la aparición de efectos negativos a corto y medio plazo. Esta cantidad, 1,6 g/kg día, se aporta con facilidad si se sigue una dieta equilibrada y variada en nutrientes. Por otra parte, sabemos que dietas hiperprotéicas y/o suplementadas en carnitina, determinan que esta molécula sea trimetilada por la microbiota intestinal y que una vez que es absorbida y oxidada en el hígado, promuevan ateromas³. Esta demostración nos tiene que hacer reflexionar y cuestionar si muchas de las muertes sú-

bitas podrían ser consecuencia de esta suplementación tan extendida como innecesaria.

Igual ocurre con los suplementos con antioxidantes. Desde hace años, atribuimos parte de la fatiga muscular al efecto indeseado de los radicales libres derivados del oxígeno y generados como consecuencia del metabolismo, al incrementar las necesidades energéticas, junto a la acción mecánica asociada a la contracción sarcomérica⁴. Estas investigaciones justificaron la recomendación de aumentar la ingesta de antioxidantes a través de suplementos. Sin embargo, hoy sabemos que no es así, e incluso que es contraproducente. Fueron varios autores los que en la última década demostraron que las especies reactivas derivadas del oxígeno/nitrógeno (ROS/NOS), “son requeridos en cantidades muy bajas, en cantidades fisiológicas, para que se expresen genes claves en la instauración del fenotipo del deportista de alto rendimiento y saludable y que dosis elevadas bloquearían dichos efectos”⁵.

Hace una década, M. Ristow⁶ fue uno de los primeros investigadores en demostrar que el estrés oxidativo inducido por el ejercicio, mejora la resistencia a la insulina e induce una respuesta adaptativa consistente en una mejora de la capacidad antioxidativa endógena y que la suplementación con antioxidantes, vitamina C (1.000 mg/día), más vitamina E (400 IU/día), bloquean estos efectos beneficiosos del ejercicio⁶. Por tanto, los diabéticos que hacen ejercicio específico y que toman suplementos con antioxidantes, podrían no obtener los beneficios esperados. En los últimos años, la gran mayoría de estudios de intervención a doble ciego, no demuestran ninguna mejora potencial en la salud asociada a la suplementación con antioxidantes⁷.

El consenso actual en la mayoría de laboratorios que trabajamos en este campo, es tan sencillo como contundente, “Se recomienda una ingesta adecuada de vitaminas y minerales a través de una dieta variada y equilibrada, lo que sigue siendo la mejor manera de mantener el óptimo status antioxidant en la actividad física”⁸.

El cuerpo humano está diseñado para generar mecanismos adaptativos que nos permiten responder al esfuerzo físico con mayor

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eficiencia. Muchos de ellos tienen que ver con la propia maquinaria antioxidante endógena, que paradójicamente requiere de pequeñas cantidades de ROS⁹. El grupo del Dr. J. Viñas¹⁰ fue innovador en este campo con su artículo “Exercise as an antioxidant: it up-regulates important enzymes for cell adaptations to exercise”, en el que demostraron los mecanismos adaptativos mediante los que el ejercicio incrementa la cantidad y actividad de los enzimas antioxidantes. Sin embargo, recientemente, hemos demostrado otro mecanismo antioxidante mediante el cual las mitocondrias generan menos estrés oxidativo. En concreto, el entrenamiento mixto HIIT/SIT, determina una mayor formación de los supercomplejos mitocondriales, más eficientes en la generación del gradiente protónico pero que producen menos radical superóxido¹¹. Todos estos mecanismos, especialmente el de supercomplejos, se ven afectados negativamente por fuertes dosis de antioxidantes a través de suplementos^{12,13}.

Estos son dos claros ejemplos de las investigaciones actuales, que marcan una tendencia y que reafirman al alimento frente al suplemento para minimizar errores. La mejor estrategia es dejar al cuerpo que responda y se adapte ante situaciones extremas. Los suplementos, fuera de contexto, confunden a los mecanismos de respuesta y determinan adaptaciones parciales.

Por tanto, como moraleja, dejemos al cuerpo que responda con adaptaciones y no interfiramos innecesariamente. Tenemos que hacer un esfuerzo, y seguir recomendando “más alimentos y menos suplementos”.

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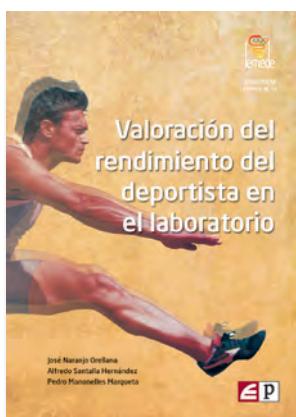
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Unilateral and bilateral isokinetic knee strength indices in professional soccer players

José E. Velázquez Barrera, Oscar Salas Fraire, Antonino Aguiar Barrera, Alan M. Vázquez Pérez, Juan G. De la Cruz González, Francisco J. Beltrán Zavala

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Summary

Introduction: The maximum isokinetic torque is one of the most commonly applied methods to assess the muscle strength of the lower extremities in soccer. Knee force indices have been used extensively to identify possible risk factors for injuries such as torn hamstring muscles or rupture of the anterior cruciate ligament.

There are previous studies that describe the isokinetic profile in different populations and there are few in Latin American population. The objective of this study is to describe the isokinetic profile and strength indices in a population of soccer players from a professional Mexican team.

Methodology: This is an observational, retrospective, analytical study. The maximum torque was measured with an angular velocity of 60°/s in 375 professional soccer players from 1st, 2nd and 3rd division from 2010 to 2015 in the Department of Sports Medicine and Rehabilitation of the "Dr. José Eleuterio González" University Hospital, Monterrey Nuevo León, Mexico.

Results: The results obtained were general, clinimetry and isokinetic parameters. The maximum torque was cataloged by group in injured and non-injured players according to the division: 1st (n = 142), 2nd (n = 86) and 3rd (n = 147). From these, the isokinetic strength indices of each of the players were obtained, observing anthropometric differences, in the unilateral and bilateral knee indices, between each category, and even more so in players with injuries.

It is important to have isokinetic parameters and identify at-risk players according to their category as this will provide reference data for future assessments of professional soccer players and they can be used to categorize muscle function as normal or at risk of injury.

Key words:

Dinamometría. Soccer. Sports injury. Torque. knee.

Índices de fuerza isocinética unilateral y bilateral de rodilla en jugadores profesionales de futbol

Resumen

Introducción: El torque máximo isocinético es uno de los métodos más comúnmente aplicados para evaluar la fuerza muscular de las extremidades inferiores en el futbol. Se han empleado índices de fuerza de la rodilla extensivamente para identificar posibles factores de riesgo para lesiones como desgarros de la musculatura isquiotibial o la ruptura del ligamento cruzado anterior.

Hay estudios previos que describen el perfil isocinético en distintas poblaciones y hay pocas en población latinoamericana. El objetivo de este estudio es describir el perfil isocinético y los índices de fuerza en una población de jugadores de soccer de un equipo profesional mexicano.

Metodología: Es un estudio observacional, retrospectivo y analítico. Se midió el torque máximo con una velocidad angular de 60°/s en 375 futbolistas profesionales de 1º, 2º y 3º división del 2010 al 2015 en el Departamento de Medicina del Deporte y Rehabilitación del Hospital Universitario "Dr. José Eleuterio González", Monterrey Nuevo León, México.

Resultados: Los resultados recabados fueron generales, clinimetría y parámetros isocinéticos. Los torques máximos fueron catalogados por grupo en jugadores lesionados y no lesionados de acuerdo a la división: 1º(n=142), 2º (n=86) y 3º (n=147). A partir de estos se obtuvieron los índices de fuerza isocinética de cada uno de los jugadores existiendo diferencias antropométricas, en los índices unilateral y bilateral de rodilla, entre cada categoría, y más aún en jugadores con lesiones.

Es importante tener parámetros isocinéticos e identificar jugadores en riesgo según su categoría ya que esto aportar datos de referencia para futuras valoraciones en los jugadores profesionales de soccer y pueden ser utilizados para categorizar la función muscular como normal o con riesgo de lesión.

Palabras clave:

Dinamometría. Futbol. Lesión deportiva. Torque. Rodilla.

Introduction

Soccer is considered the most popular sport in the world with 270 million people actively involved in the sport¹. Physiologically, soccer is characterized by a high intensity and intermittent exercise²⁻⁴ where basic motor skills and specific technical abilities of the players must be constantly adapted to the internal and external variables that are modified during the game period⁵. This is why it is essential to identify the aspects that comprise general physical performance and then examine these individually in each game position as well as establish injury prevention measures⁶.

Isokinetic strength assessment tests are probably the most frequently used tools for estimating muscle function in the physical-sports field⁷. Assessment of maximum isokinetic torque is a method that is commonly applied to assess lower limb muscle strength in soccer^{8,9}.

From this, knee force indices have been extensively used in sports medicine to identify possible risk factors for injuries such as hamstring muscle tears¹⁰ or rupture of the anterior cruciate ligament (ACL)¹¹, as well as to monitor the effectiveness of rehabilitation programs in soccer players and determine if an athlete can safely return to the game^{7,12}.

Bilateral strength indices have been used more often because of the relationship between maximum strength of the dominant and nondominant leg¹³. It has been found that the bilateral strength index of concentric knee flexion is able to distinguish people with hamstring and/or ACL¹⁴ pathology and healthy individuals¹⁵. An asymmetry of less than 10% in the bilateral index at an angular velocity of 60°/s was able to identify non-injured players with a probability of 90.1%¹⁶.

The unilateral strength index is calculated as the quotient of the moment or peak maximum force of the flexor muscle and the extensor muscle of the knee measured during concentric contractions.¹⁶ An index less than 0.50-0.60 has been associated with a significant increase of 17-times the probability of suffering lesions of the ACL and hamstring tears^{13,17}.

There are previous studies that describe the isokinetic profile in different populations and few studies that describe this in Latin American populations. The objective of this study is to describe the isokinetic profile and strength indices in a population of professional Mexican soccer players.

Material and method

Design

The studied population includes a retrospective analysis of 375 isokinetic tests of professional soccer players recognized by the Mexican Football Federation and evaluated annually by a protocol of the Department of Medicine, Sports and Rehabilitation of the UANL University Hospital in Monterrey, Mexico from 2010 to 2015. The study was previously approved by the Ethics in Research Committee of the institution with registration number MD16-00001. Medical files of first, second and third division players, regardless of age, were included. Files that did not have the collected data or studies with a variation coefficient greater than 12% were excluded^{18,19}.

Test

Isokinetic tests were performed on a Biodex Multijoint System 4 (Shirley NY, Biodex Medical Systems, Inc.) with a maximal concentric stress isokinetic test. The patient was in a sitting position and movement arcs were established individually according to the anatomical characteristics of each player with five repetitions of extension and knee flexion executed at an angular velocity of 60°/s. The players were instructed to work with as much force as possible in both directions of movement, performed bilaterally, to compare the difference in strength between the two legs, starting with the dominant leg, after at least five minutes of warm-up on the static bicycle and some movements on the dynamometer to get used to the dynamics of the test. Trunk flexibility was assessed with the "Sit and Reach" test. The equipment automatically analyzed the torque peaks of the 5 repetitions in both flexion and extension of both knees; gravity corrections were made for the results obtained in the isokinetic tests.

Data collection

The data collected from each record were general (category, age), clinical (weight, height, flexibility) and isokinetic (peak torque of knee flexors and extensors of both legs) at an angular velocity of 60°/s.

The bilateral strength index was calculated as the difference between the peak torque of the knee flexors for both extremities, expressed as a percentage deficit, using the dominant leg or the uninjured leg as a reference.

The unilateral strength index was calculated as the quotient between the peak torque of the flexor muscles and the peak torque of the extensor muscles, expressed as the quotient of each one of the legs.

Players with a prior injury of the ACL or a lesion of the hamstring muscles were included in this work.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics were performed for all variables. The distribution of the numerical variables was verified with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test finding that all variables followed a parametric distribution, which is why they were reported as means and standard deviation.

Results

A total of 375 medical records were included and classified according to the participant's clinical characteristics as injured and non-injured. Players with injuries were older in the first and third division. All injured players had a lower weight and height in all three divisions. Flexibility was greater according to division; the higher the division, the greater the flexibility (Table 1).

Regarding isokinetic tests, players without injuries had greater flexor and extensor strength. Flexor strength, which is related to hamstring injuries, was close to 100 N.m for injured players. Second division players had a better flexor and extensor strength profile than first and third division players (Table 2).

Table 1. General, clinical y flexibility characteristics.

Players	Age, years	Weight, kg	Height, cm	Trunk flexibility, cm
1st division				
Non injured, n=114	25.1 ± 3.8	75.5 ± 8.4	178.4 ± 7.4	11.53 ± 6.3
Injured, n=28	28 ± 4.1	70.2 ± 6.9	174.4 ± 6.9	9.8 ± 5.6
2nd division				
Non injured, n=67	18 ± 1.1	69.5 ± 7.0	176.5 ± 6.1	11.26 ± 4.9
Injured, n=19	17.7 ± 1.1	66.3 ± 6.9	174.1 ± 5.0	10.6 ± 5.2
3rd division				
Non injured, n=133	15.7 ± 1.0	66 ± 6.6	176 ± 6.6	9.68 ± 5.8
Injured, n=14	16.3 ± 1.3	62.8 ± 6.6	174 ± 4.5	6.7 ± 7.0

Values are means ± standard deviation.

Table 2. Bilateral peak torque strength of knee flexors and extensors.

Variable	PRET, N·m	PLET, N	PRFT, N·m	PLFT, N·m
1st division				
Non injured, n=114	208.93 ± 40.5	207.9 ± 35.9	123.67 ± 29.6	120.84 ± 26.2
Injured, n=28	196.1 ± 43.2	185.25 ± 39.3	110.22 ± 30	100.17 ± 29.6
2nd division				
Non injured, n=67	219.57 ± 40.2	212.46 ± 34.8	124.91 ± 26.7	119.77 ± 20.6
Injured, n=19	196.3 ± 40.3	201.87 ± 40.7	115.99 ± 30.1	109 ± 25.7
3rd division				
Non injured, n=133	191.15 ± 37.5	190.55 ± 34.3	105.61 ± 22.2	102.54 ± 23.4
Injured, n=14	166.8 ± 27.1	163.48 ± 24.7	98.51 ± 18.9	89.45 ± 17.5

Values are means ± SD (standard deviation).

PRET: Peak right extensor torque; PLET: Peak left extensor torque; PRFT: Peak right flexor torque; PLFT: Peak left flexor torque; N·m: Newton meter.

Table 3. Isokinetic strength indices according to category.

Variable	Bilateral index	Unilateral index right	Unilateral index left
1st division			
Non-injured	11.14 ± 9.89	0.598 ± 0.12	0.585 ± 0.10
Injured	15.65 ± 13.12	0.564 ± 0.10	0.536 ± 0.08
2nd division			
Non-injured	11.46 ± 9.86	0.577 ± 0.11	0.569 ± 0.08
Injured	14.27 ± 10.66	0.538 ± 0.11	0.544 ± 0.10
3rd division			
Non-injured	11.54 ± 8.37	0.558 ± 0.09	0.541 ± 0.09
Injured	12.12 ± 8.14	0.50 ± 0.08	0.541 ± 0.12

Values are means ± SD (standard deviation).

Results of the bilateral isokinetic strength index were less than 12% in non-injured players in the three divisions. In contrast, the bilateral index was increased in first and second division and only slightly above 12% in third division. The best results regarding the left and right unilateral indices (<0.6) were found in the first division (Table 3).

Discussion

General and clinical

The age of the population is similar to the age of other professional soccer team players. The mean height found in both groups was lower than in another Latin population studied, Brazil^{20,21}, and European populations, such as England²², Spain²³ and Poland²⁴; however, it is similar to population from the Middle East, such as Qatar²⁵, Saudi Arabia²⁶, and the United Arab Emirates²⁷.

The mean weight in both groups was lower than that reported in populations such as Brazil, Poland, and England^{9,21,23}. This variation seems to be in agreement with ethnic variants. Mean flexibility was lower than in other populations also measured by the sit and reach test, such as Irish²⁸ and Chinese population²⁹.

Isokinetics

In this study, the isokinetic strength of knee extension and flexion was greater in elite players with a more variable pattern in the category of second division. Although there is literature available to compare the differences in strength in the different soccer categories, this is limited, and methodological differences make it difficult to analyze this when they are compared by position^{9,30}.

The results of this study indicate that in general, the isokinetic profiles of knee extension and flexion strength of the players of the three categories are lower than in other elite football populations and the junior elite of the Belgian league³¹. French elite soccer players and amateurs³² showed higher absolute maximum torque peak values at 60°/s. There are studies that have reported values that may explain the apparent reduction in absolute strength due to a lower body mass²⁵.

In the unilateral isokinetic index, significantly lower values were observed when comparing the first against the second and third division. This could be explained by greater experience with better muscle strength parameters. These proportional differences have been demonstrated with age and in the knee flexor-extensor muscle strength in young and adult soccer players with isokinetic torque peaks increased with age and professional level^{15,33}. Imbalances of muscle strength in the knee joint, measured by the quadriceps/hamstring ratio, are a predisposing factor for hamstring strain injuries and are related to joint stability^{34,35}.

The index between the flexor and extensor muscles is an indicator of the functionality of the knee joint. This means that values below 0.50 at an angular velocity of 60°/s indicate a discrepancy between muscle capacity and risk of injury. When the extensor muscles exert a disproportionate force on the flexor muscles, this will cause excessive work of the tibia on the femur during dynamic activities, and the ACL will have excessive tension²¹. Therefore, if the flexor muscles are weak, to neutralize the excessive force, the ACL will have a greater chance of rupture^{36–38}. The results show a difference in the unilateral index, the best results, close to 0.60, decrease by soccer category and even more in players with a history of injury, thus, it is a good marker of discrimination.

The imbalance found in the bilateral index shows a pattern consistent with the literature where the highest value of this imbalance in players without an injury does not exceed 12%^{39,40}. When the muscle forces of the flexors of the dominant leg against the non-dominant

leg are compared, this same index is increased almost 0.4% more in those players with apparent injuries. Compared with other studies, the results showed that the normality point or reference value of 12.5% of bilateral imbalance expressed by the FR/FRCN60 index⁴¹ (sensitivity and specificity, 0.73 and 0.80, respectively), is more important for the detection of a previous injury in the hamstring musculature in soccer players, with this being consistent with the results obtained. Naturally, muscle strength disorders cannot explain all hamstring injuries; persistent disorders in various players do not significantly correlate with the presence of bilateral index imbalances⁴².

Intrinsic and extrinsic factors have been described that contribute to the risk of lesions of the ACL and the hamstring muscles. Importance has been given to those that are related to muscular force imbalances. A significant difference between the agonist and antagonist groups of the knee joint entails risk and rapid identification for injury prevention. The most difficult task will be that the agonist and antagonist muscles should be trained correctly because it is complicated to make an accurate assessment of each muscle group. This ironically leads strength training to a muscular imbalance, and this in turn, to sports injuries.

Conflict of interest

The authors do not declare a conflict of interest.

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Heart rate variability to assess the effect of sleep deprivation in mountain troops of the chilean army: a pilot study

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Summary

Background: Our objective was to identify the effect of sleep deprivation on a stress test simulating a military march, via changes in heart rate variability (HRV) in special mountain troops.

Eight subjects from special mountain troops carried out a simulated march test on a treadmill. The incremental march test had 7 stages of 3 minute duration at a constant velocity of 5 km/h and slopes of 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9 and 10 %. To assess the HRV, two heartbeat records were taken over 5 minutes in dorsal decubitus position before and after the march test; the first session took place without sleep deprivation, and the following day with sleep deprivation.

Results: The main finding of this study is that the physiological stress imposed by the simulated treadmill march is the same with and without sleep deprivation.

There were no significant differences between pre and post HRV data in any of the situations, but effect size was moderate or large ($d=0.2$ was considered as the Smallest Worthwhile Change), indicating a highly relevant response. However, after comparing with and without sleep deprivation tests no changes were found (non-significant and non-relevant).

Conclusions: The stress test performed, did not present differences in physical and physiological responses while being deprived of sleep over 24 hours.

A simple test is proposed to evaluate the effect of sleep deprivation as a stressor agent. A treadmill test at a constant speed with increasing slopes would be performed and repeated the following day after 24 hours of sleep deprivation.

Key words:

Heart rate variability.

Sleep deprivation.

Special Mountain Troops.

Variabilidad de la frecuencia cardíaca para evaluar el efecto de la privación del sueño en tropas de montaña del ejército chileno: un estudio piloto

Resumen

Introducción: Nuestro objetivo fue identificar el efecto de la falta de sueño en una prueba de esfuerzo que simula una marcha militar, a través de cambios en la variabilidad de la frecuencia cardíaca (VFC) en tropas especiales de montaña.

Ocho sujetos de tropas especiales de montaña realizaron una prueba de marcha simulada en una cinta de correr. La prueba de marcha incremental tuvo 7 etapas de 3 minutos de duración a una velocidad constante de 5 km/h y pendientes de 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9 y 10%. Para evaluar la VFC, se tomaron los registros de latidos latido del corazón durante 5 minutos en posición de decúbito dorsal antes y después de la prueba de marcha; la primera sesión tuvo lugar sin privación de sueño y al día siguiente con privación de sueño.

Resultados: El principal hallazgo de este estudio es que el estrés fisiológico impuesto por la marcha simulada de la cinta rodante es el mismo con y sin privación del sueño.

No hubo diferencias significativas entre los datos de VFC anteriores y posteriores en ninguna de las situaciones, pero el tamaño del efecto fue moderado o grande ($d = 0.2$ se consideró como umbral de cambio pequeño). Indica una respuesta altamente relevante. Sin embargo, después de comparar con y sin las pruebas de privación de sueño, no se encontraron cambios (no significativos y no relevantes).

Conclusiones: La prueba de esfuerzo realizada no presentó diferencias en las respuestas físicas y fisiológicas al estar privada de sueño durante 24 horas.

Se propone una prueba simple para evaluar el efecto de la falta de sueño como agente estresante. Se realizaría una prueba de la cinta rodante a una velocidad constante con pendientes crecientes y se repetiría al día siguiente después de 24 horas de falta de sueño.

Palabras clave:

Variabilidad de la frecuencia cardíaca.

Privación de sueño.

Tropas Especiales de Montaña.

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Introduction

The completion of a mission on the battlefield is the result of the sum of multiple factors, in their preparation; soldiers must be conditioned to resist fatigue, fear and doubt, all of which are characteristic of the human condition. This requires highly prepared subjects in good physical conditions to allow for optimum performance under stressful situations.

One of the main components of that plan is to improve the morphological, fitness and physiological profile as well as basic and specific military skills¹.

Sleep deprivation is one of the main stressor agents in the training of soldiers, particularly in mountain special forces of Chilean Army². We know that the lack of sleep affects directly to the physical status and the capacity to perform specific tasks in soldiers^{2,3}.

It has been observed that a single night of sleep deprivation may affect the resistance performance of a 30 minute treadmill run at an intensity of 60% of the VO_{2max} and alter cardio-respiratory, thermoregulatory and perceptual responses to exercise⁴. A study undertaken by the Croatian Army³ for Special Operations, reported the influence of basic training on specific shooting tasks under sleep deprivation conditions. The results showed that basic training had a positive impact on the reduction of the effects of sleep deprivation in shooting related tasks. The data obtained suggests that during basic training (62 days) there was an adaptation to stress as well as an improvement in weapons handling skills, which contributes significantly to improved shooting results in stressful conditions, mainly in terms of sleep deprivation.

Likewise, Tyyskä⁵ *et al.* (2010) investigated the links between physical fitness, sleep duration and hormonal responses during military training over 15 days while carrying out offensive maneuvers in a rural area. On average, the subjects slept 6.20 hours per day, but their sleeping patterns were altered due to guard shifts. The study found hormonal changes related to a lack of sleep and low physical fitness.

Ricardo⁶ *et al.* (2009) determined that 30 hour of sleep deprivation did not alter leukocyte traffic, neutrophil degranulation or resting S-IgA responses.

But in addition to affecting the general physical state of the subject, sleep deprivation should have some kind of impact on the balance of the sympathetic-parasympathetic system, especially when it is required for some specific task⁷.

Heart rate variability (HRV) is a non-invasive tool to analyze changes in the autonomic nervous system (ANS)⁸⁻¹⁰ and it is used to assess adaptations to effort in different circumstances¹¹⁻¹⁴.

A study carried out on soldiers Huovinen¹⁵ *et al.* reported changes in some indicators of HRV with a positive correlation with changes in testosterone and cortisol. However, we have not found any study utilizing HRV to evaluate the effect of sleep deprivation in the execution of military tasks. On the other hand, there is no simple test to evaluate the effect of sleep deprivation on the physical performance in Special Forces troops.

The aim of this pilot study was to identify the effect of sleep deprivation on HRV during a effort test (simulating a military march) in special mountain troops in the Chilean Army; and to propose it as a

pilot simple test to evaluate the role of sleep deprivation as a stressor agent in this population.

Material and method

Eight subjects from special mountain troops carried out a simulated march test on a treadmill, in full combat equipment. They spent one night without sleep during a planning exercise in a classroom and returned to carry out the test the following day. The evaluated soldiers belonged to a Special Forces patrol with five years of experience working together in winter and summer mountain training. All were volunteers; they were informed of the procedures and consequently signed a consent form. The study had the approval of the Ethics Committee of Health Sciences of Santiago's Military Hospital and was carried out in accordance with the dispositions of the Helsinki Declaration¹⁶.

An incremental march test was carried out on a treadmill with 16.5 kg of weight in individual combat equipment. The test had 7 stages of 3 minute durations and slopes of 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9 and 10% as well as a constant velocity of 5 km/h. To assess the HRV, a heartbeat record was taken over 5 minutes in dorsal decubitus position prior to the march test (Pre) and another upon completion (Post); the first session took place without sleep deprivation, and the following day, at the same hour (06:00 a.m.), the procedure was repeated after a night of sleep deprivation.

Prior to the tests, the weight was measured with a Tanita weighing machine (Tanita Ironman BC1500, Japan, 2015). All subjects wore a heart rate monitor Polar V800 (Polar, Kempele, Finland). The data from this device were downloaded via USB through the application Polar FlowSync in order to obtain a time series of the RR intervals (beat by beat). This time series was analyzed with the software Kubios HRV¹⁷ (University of Eastern Finland, Kuopio, Finland).

The general variables obtained from the effort test were: resting heart rate (rHR), prior to the test; theoretical maximum heart rate (HRmax); exercising heart rate (eHR) for each stage of the test; the relative intensity (%) for every step obtained via the Karvonen¹⁸ equation and the total power (Watts) calculated from the velocity, gradient and body mass with equipment.

The use of slopes requires to have into account the vertical component of velocity in the calculation of the work and total power generated on a treadmill. The most common way to take this into account is via the sine of the angle α formed by the treadmill and the horizontal¹⁹ or by substituting the sine α by the percentage of slope of the treadmill, divided by 100²⁰, given that for very small values of α , the numerical value of sine α is very close to that of the slope expressed in decimals, so the following equation may be used²¹:

$$P = m * g * v * p * 0,278$$

Where v is the velocity expressed in km/h; g is the average acceleration of gravity (9,8 m/s²); m is the subject mass in kg and p is the percentage of gradient of the treadmill, divided by 100.

The HRV variables used for the analysis in the time domain^{22,23} were: RR; time interval between two R waves (ms); SDNN: standard deviation of the RR; RMSSD: square root of the average of the differences of the sum of the squares between adjacent RR intervals (ms); pNN50: percentage of adjacent RR intervals which differ more than 50 ms (%);

The transversal axis (SD1) and the longitudinal axis (SD2) were determined in the Poincaré's plot²³ and, in accordance with Naranjo²⁴ et al., the Stress Score (SS) was calculated as the inverse of the SD2 multiplied by 1000 and the sympathetic-parasympathetic ratio (R-S/Ps) as the ratio between the SS and SD1. For analysis purposes of the autonomic balance, the Napierian logarithm of the SS was used (LnSS) as an indicator of sympathetic activity and the LnRMSSD as an indicator of parasympathetic activity.

Statistical Analysis

A descriptive study was carried out, presenting the data as averages, standard deviations (SD) and variation coefficient (VC).

For hypothesis contrasting, the normality of distributions was tested using the SHAPIRO-WILK test, and the LEVENE test was used to establish the equality of variances.

For the HRV data analysis a multiple comparison ANOVA test was used for the 4 distributions (pre and post without sleep deprivation and pre and post with sleep deprivation) utilizing BONFERRONI's *post-hoc* test.

For the analysis of general variables of both tests (rHR, HRmax, eHR, intensity and total power) a *t*-Student test was used for paired samples.

In all cases the significance level was fixed at $p<0.05$.

Given the reduced sample size, significant results were not expected to be achieved with conventional statistical hypothesis contrast; consequently, in order to assess the changes between the different variables the effect size (ES) was calculated through the Cohen's d²⁵ using the intervals proposed by Hopkins²⁶: <0.2 = trivial, 0.20-0.59 = small; 0.6-1.2 = moderate; ≥ 1.2 = large.

Results

Table 1 shows the average and standard deviations (SD) for age, weight (kg), theoretical HRmax, rHR, maximal eHR and maximal intensity of the test. The values of p comparing rHR, eHR and intensity between the situation 1 (no sleep deprivation) and the situation 2 (sleep deprivation) indicate that changes were not statistically significant. The values of d for both situations show that the effect size was trivial or small.

Table 1.

Subject	Age (years)	Weight (kg)	Theoretical HRmax	rHR 1	rHR 2	Maximal eHR 1	Maximal eHR 2	Maximal Intensity 1	Maximal Intensity 2
1	32	80.3	188	48	44	138	133	0.64	0.62
2	33	76.9	187	53	52	150	143	0.72	0.67
3	31	78.1	189	51	52	130	126	0.57	0.54
4	31	80.7	189	40	40	132	128	0.62	0.59
5	27	71.7	193	84	52	140	130	0.51	0.55
6	24	81.2	196	56	52	125	127	0.49	0.52
7	28	83.7	192	64	61	166	162	0.80	0.77
8	22	91.5	198	49	50	145	146	0.64	0.65
Average	28.50	80.51	191.50	55.69	50.45	140.75	136.88	0.63	0.61
SD	3.96	5.70	3.96	13.40	6.36	13.04	12.59	0.10	0.08
					p =0.33 d =0.53		p =0.55 d =0.30		p =0.86 d =0.12

The measurements without sleep deprivation are identified with (1) and the measurements with sleep deprivation with (2). The values p and d correspond to the comparison between scenarios 1 and 2. (d <0.2= trivial, 0.20-0.59= small; 0.6-1.2= moderate; >1.2 = large). rHR: Resting HR; eHR: Exercising HR.

Table 2 shows general data for every stage in the effort test (power, speed and slope) together with average, SD and VC of eHR in both situations: with and without sleep deprivation. No significant differences were observed between both conditions.

Figure 1 shows the evolution of the eHR in relation to the power of each stage in both tests.

Table 3 shows pre and post results of HRV with and without sleep deprivation. The p values for PRE-POST comparisons were all above 0.8; the values of d are shown in the table and we can see that the effect size is medium or large for all the variables.

When the HRV values post-test are compared in both situations, there are no significant differences ($p>0.5$ in all the cases) and the effect size is small for all the variables ($d<0.2$).

Figures 2 shows the changes in LnSS (A) and LnRMSSD (B) in both tests as indicators of sympathetic and parasympathetic activity respectively.

Figure 1. Exercising Heart Rate (eHR) data in relation to the power of each stage.

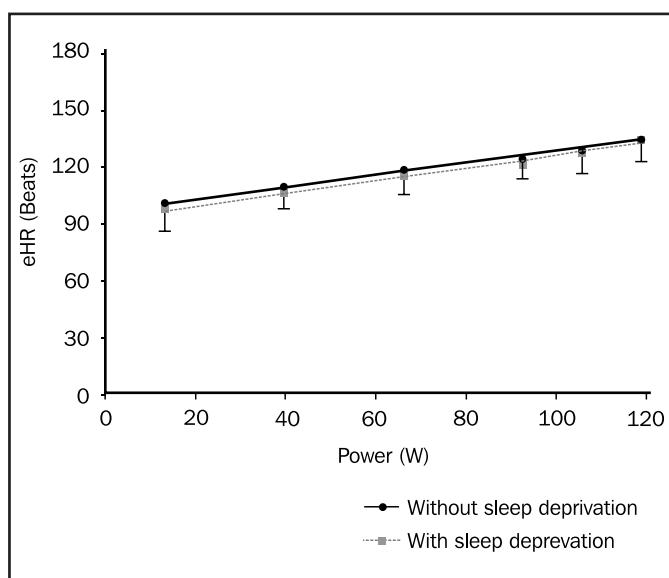


Table 2.

Stage	Power (Watt)	Speed (km/h)	Slope (%)	eHR (beats)			With sleep deprivation		
				Average	SD	VC	Average	SD	VC
1	13.21	5	1	100.125	14.623	15%	96.75	11.498	12%
2	39.64	5	3	108.75	10.195	9%	105.25	8.225	8%
3	66.07	5	5	116.5	12.107	10%	114.125	9.833	9%
4	92.49	5	7	122.5	9.827	8%	119.875	7.200	6%
5	105.71	5	8	127.5	11.352	9%	126.25	10.512	8%
6	118.92	5	9	133.75	12.116	9%	133	11.288	8%
7	132.13	5	10	140.75	13.036	9%	136.875	12.586	9%

Exercising heart rate (eHR) data corresponding to the stages of the test. (SD: Standard Deviation; VC: Variation coefficient).

Table 3.

		Without sleep deprivation			With sleep deprivation		
		PRE	POST	d	PRE	POST	d
RR	Average	1124.50	825.00	1.49	1207.59	870.81	1.99
	SD	231.31	172.02		160.03	178.59	
	VC	0.21	0.21		0.13	0.21	
SDNN	Average	88.08	57.15	0.99	109.77	58.75	1.99
	SD	29.51	32.98		25.52	25.71	
	VC	0.34	0.58		0.23	0.44	
RMSSD	Average	80.69	31.86	1.44	92.85	35.73	2.09
	SD	38.20	29.78		25.63	28.93	
	VC	0.47	0.93		0.28	0.81	
LnRMSSD	Average	4.26	3.03	1.48	4.49	3.24	2.02
	SD	0.61	1.05		0.30	0.95	
	VC	0.14	0.34		0.07	0.29	
pNN50	Average	44.38	16.49	1.29	54.36	14.31	2.62
	SD	21.45	21.65		10.24	20.38	
	VC	0.48	1.31		0.19	1.42	
SD1	Average	57.23	25.47	1.18	65.79	25.25	2.09
	SD	27.05	26.66		18.16	20.61	
	VC	0.47	1.05		0.28	0.82	
SD2	Average	109.26	75.71	0.86	139.46	78.48	1.80
	SD	37.77	40.07		35.89	31.78	
	VC	0.35	0.53		0.26	0.40	
SS	Average	10.22	16.33	1.10	7.61	14.46	1.88
	SD	3.63	7.48		2.04	5.26	
	VC	0.36	0.46		0.27	0.36	
LnSS	Average	2.27	2.69	0.99	2.00	2.61	1.90
	SD	0.36	0.50		0.26	0.38	
	VC	0.16	0.18		0.13	0.15	
Ratio	Average	0.28	2.45	1.10	0.13	1.56	1.31
	SD	0.31	3.65		0.06	2.14	
	VC	1.11	1.49		0.43	1.37	

RR: RR interval (ms). SDNN: Standard deviation of the RR intervals. RMSSD: square root of the average of the differences of the sum of the squares between adjacent RR intervals (ms). LnRMSSD: Naperian logarithm of the RMSSD. pNN50: number of adjacent pairs in the RR interval which differ more than 50 ms divided by the total number of RR intervals (%). SD1: transversal axis of Poincare's Plot. SD2: longitudinal axis of Poincare's Plot. Stress Score(SS): opposite to the SD2, multiplied by 1000. LnSS: Naperian logarithm of the SS. R-S/Ps: Sympathetic-parasympathetic ratio: quotient between the SS and SD1. Effect size: (d <0.2= trivial, 0.20-0.59= small; 0.6-1.2= moderate; ≥1.2= large.)

The values of p between PRE and POST were all above 0.8. The values of d PRE-POST are shown in order to estimate size of effect. The p value between POST with and without sleep deprivation was >0.5 for all variables and the value of d was <0.2 in all the cases.

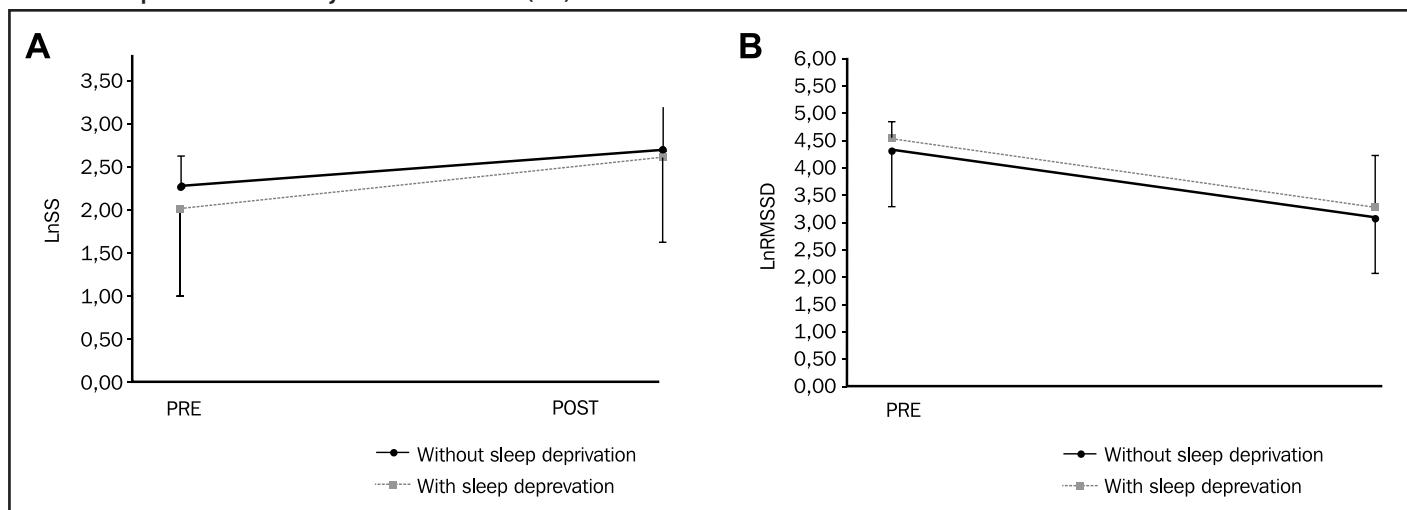
Discussion

The main finding of this study is that the physiological and physical stress induced by the simulated treadmill march in experienced and well-trained soldiers is the same with and without sleep deprivation.

We know that the sample is small (N=8) and that this would be an obstacle to the generalization of results, but given that this work is

only a pilot study, we preferred to prioritize the fact that the 8 subjects are highly qualified soldiers well trained in mountain military tasks and who have been working together for five years in the same patrol of Special Forces. For this reason, in this pilot study it is very valuable for us to analyze their response to sleep deprivation, taking it as a reference to propose an evaluation test that, logically, should be validated later in different circumstances.

Figure 2. LnSS: Natural logarithm of Stress Score. LnRMSSD: Natural logarithm of the square root of the average of the difference of the sum of the squares between adjacent RR intervals (ms).



Effect Size: d <0.2= trivial, 0.20-0.59= small; 0.6-1.2= moderate; ≥1.2= large.

As indicated above, with such a small sample it was not reasonable to expect significant differences when using conventional hypothesis testing techniques. In fact, there was no significant differences between the pre and post data in any of the situations. However, the effect size was very important ($d=0,99$ for the LnSS without sleep deprivation; $d=1,48$ for Ln RMSSD without sleep deprivation; $d=1,9$ for the LnSS with sleep deprivation and $d=2$ for LnRMSSD with sleep deprivation), indicating that the changes PRE-POST were highly relevant.

Values of rHR and maximal intensity in the test are not influenced by sleep deprivation as shown by the fact that the effect size is small for the rHR ($d=0,53$ and trivial for the intensity ($d=0,12$) (Table 1). The final intensity was 63% for test 1 and 61% for test 2 (Table 1), being the same intensity used by Oliver⁴.

The eHR values (Table 2) show practically identical behavior in both situations. As shown in Figure 1, they were not affected by the lack of sleep. These findings are consistent with previous studies by Martin & Haney²⁷ (1982).

Concerning HRV, we can see in both tests a drop of variables indicating parasympathetic activity (SDNN, RMSSD, LnRMSSD, pNN50 y SD1) and an increase in those indicating sympathetic activity (SD2, SS y LnSS), taking into account that the SD2 value is opposite to sympathetic activity (Table 3). On the other hand, the value of the ratio S:PS is normal at rest but it increases after exercise showing a sympathetic prevalence both with and without sleep deprivation (Table 3). As such, we are observing the expected response after an exercise load. Nevertheless, the question is whether or not the ANS response to this work load is different when the subjects are sleep deprived, or to put it differently, if the internal load representing this test is higher after 24 hours of sleep deprivation.

In this sense, no statistical significance is observed in the p-value for the HRV values in either of the two tests studied (with and without sleep deprivation) (Table 3), possibly due to the reduced sample size, being a pilot study. Regardless, the effect size is relevant for all the variables, especially for those used in this study for the evaluation of sympathetic

and parasympathetic states: the LnSS ($d=0,99$ without sleep deprivation and $d=1,90$ with sleep deprivation) and the LnRMSSD ($d=1,48$ without sleep deprivation and $d=2,02$ with sleep deprivation) (Table 3).

The variation coefficient in our study (VC) for the LnRMSSD increases with the effort test both without sleep deprivation (14% and 34%) and with sleep deprivation (7% and 29%). (Table 3). Although Buchheit²⁸ observed individual daily fluctuations of this resting variable of around 10-20%, in our study the changes while resting represent inferior values, between 7% and 14%.

The VC for the LnSS, nevertheless, shows much smaller changes with the exercise, both without sleep deprivation (16% and 18%) and with sleep deprivation (13% and 15%). Although there were no references in the literature for the VC of this variable, it is found to be within the margins aforementioned by Buchheit for the LnRMSSD.

We consider that it would be highly useful to have a simple test in order to evaluate the effect of sleep deprivation as a stressor agent. Our data seems to reflect that the proposed effort test induces relevant changes to sympathetic-parasympathetic balance, but that these are exactly the same when subjects are sleep deprived. On another hand, the general test data (intensity and exercising heart rate) are the same with and without sleep deprivation.

This is at least what happens in highly trained soldiers and for that reason can be a good reference to assess the response of other subjects to this circumstance.

Based on these data, we propose to use this test as follow:

- To carry out the proposed test at a constant speed with increasing slopes, and repeat the process the following day after 24 hours of sleep deprivation.
- The exercising HR reached must not differ more than 10% in both tests (Table 2; VC=9% for eHR)
- Sympathetic stress induced by the effort test (LnSS) must be the same with and without sleep deprivation, accepting a maximum difference of +15% (Table 3; VC=15% for the LnSS).

- The decrease in parasympathetic modulation (LnRMSSD), induced by the effort test, must be the same with and without sleep deprivation, accepting a maximum difference of -30% (Table 3; VC=-29%).

The main limitation in this study could be the reduced sample size; but, as it is a pilot study, we have established as a priority the selection of subjects who are members of the same patrol in special mountains operations forces, with 5 years' experience with this type of training. All of them had previous experiences with different stressor agents and competences in extreme environments. In this manner we have guaranteed: a) that the subjects studied have important training in terms of adaptation to stressor agents (sleep deprivation included) and as such their responses may serve as a clear reference to evaluate other subjects; and b) that the sample, although small, is sufficiently homogenous in terms of fitness and training.

Conclusion

The response of HRV after a simulated march on a treadmill did not present differences in trained soldiers when they are deprived of sleep over a 24 hours period.

This simple test would be useful to evaluate the effect of sleep deprivation as a stressor agent.

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Ethics Approval Committee

Santiago's Military Hospital-HOSMIL-DIVDOC.

Conflict of interest

The authors do not declare a conflict of interest.

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Previous intakes to a competitive match in young soccer players

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Summary

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Introduction: It has been shown that nutrition plays a crucial role in sport performance, consequently athletes should pay attention to their nutritional habits. However, it is not completely clear what athletes eat just before the sport competition.

Objectives: Analyze the previous energy and nutrient ingestions to a match in soccer players.

Material and method: Previous intakes from forty-seven players were collected using a 24 hours recall questionnaire. Twenty-four and three hours intakes before the competition were examined using a nutrient's composition software. Brand names of commercial food were included. Information concerning time of day, cooking methods and amount of food prepared were collected. Height and weight were measured. Players were asked if they have received nutritional directions in previous seasons. Descriptive statics (mean \pm SD) and t-student analyses were used.

Results: The mean kcal ingestion was 34.68 ± 16.31 kcal/kg body weight twenty-four hours and 6.89 ± 3.38 kcal/kg body weight three hours before. Carbohydrate average intake was 3.35 ± 1.59 grams/kg body weight twenty-four hours and 0.87 ± 0.43 grams/kg body weight three hours before the match. Proteins mean consumption was 1.49 ± 0.76 grams/kg body weight twenty-four hours and 0.23 ± 0.16 grams/kg body weight three hours before the match. Differences were obtained between players who received nutritional direction and the other players in energy, carbohydrate, proteins and lipids ingested.

Conclusion: The players studied presented a low kcal and carbohydrate ingestion twenty-four and three hours before a competitive match and they did not fulfill nutritional recommendation. However, nutritional directions could improve previous energy and nutrients intakes.

Key words:

Soccer. Nutrition. Nutrients. Energy. Carbohydrates.

Ingestas previas a un partido oficial en jugadores de fútbol jóvenes

Resumen

Introducción: Se ha demostrado que la nutrición juega un papel crucial en el rendimiento deportivo, por ello los deportistas deberían de prestar atención a sus hábitos nutricionales. Sin embargo, no está completamente claro qué es lo que toman los deportistas justamente antes de la competición.

Objetivos: Analizar las ingestas previas de energía y nutrientes antes de un partido en jugadores de fútbol.

Materiales y métodos: Se recogieron las ingestas previas de cuarenta y siete jugadores de fútbol usando un cuestionario de 24 horas. Se analizó la ingesta de energía y nutrientes 24 y 3 horas antes del partido utilizando un software de composición nutricional. Se incluyó nombres de marcas comerciales. Se recogió información sobre el horario, los métodos de cocinado y la cantidad de comida preparada. Se midió la altura y el peso de cada jugador. Se les preguntó a los jugadores si habían recibido recomendaciones nutricionales en temporadas anteriores. Se utilizaron métodos estadísticos descriptivos y análisis t-student

Resultados: La ingesta calórica media fue de $34,68 \pm 16,31$ kcal/kg de peso veinticuatro horas antes y $6,89 \pm 3,38$ kcal/kg peso en las tres horas previas. El consumo medio de carbohidratos fue $3,35 \pm 1,59$ gramos/kg en las 24 horas y de $0,87 \pm 0,43$ gramos/kg en las tres horas previas. El consumo de proteínas fue de $1,49 \pm 0,76$ gramos/kg de peso en el día previo y de $0,23 \pm 0,16$ gramos/kg en las tres horas anteriores al partido. Se obtuvieron diferencias entre los jugadores que recibieron recomendaciones nutricionales y los que no en las ingestas de energía, carbohidratos, proteínas y lípidos.

Conclusión: Los jugadores estudiados presentaron una baja ingesta de kcal y carbohidratos en las veinticuatro y en las tres horas anteriores al partido y no cumpliendo con las recomendaciones alimentarias. Sin embargo, recomendaciones nutricionales podrían mejorar la ingesta de energía y nutrientes.

Palabras clave:

Fútbol. Nutrición. Nutrientes. Energía. Carbohidratos.

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Introduction

From long time ago, it is well known that nutrition plays an essential role in sport performance. The pattern of play in soccer is based on intermittent high-intensity actions and soccer particular skills where muscle glycogen and plasma glucose are crucial for energy production¹. A lot of importance is given to previous ingestion to a sport competition. Mujika *et al*² proposed that performance in team sports is often related with nutritional factors, right nutritional directions allow the athletes to be well fueled and hydrated during the games. They recommend that athletes should take 1-4 g of carbohydrate per kg of body weight (BW) 1-4 h before the trials and during the games tasting carbohydrate 30-60 g per hour. A previous study³ focused on the nutrition on match day; the authors highlighted the combination of a high carbohydrate pre-match meal and a sports drink during the match. A pre-match intake should be composed of low-glycaemic index (GI) carbohydrate foods because this option would result in feeling of satiety for longer and a stable blood glucose concentration.

Another research⁴ assessed dietary intake and nutrition knowledge in elite and sub-elite male soccer players. They found that nutrition knowledge was weak and dietary intake did not fulfill with carbohydrate recommendation. Andrews MC, Itsopoulos⁵ examine three days of dietary intake in male soccer professional and semiprofessional players. Their intakes did not fulfill carbohydrate recommendations, even, some interviewed athletes consumed alcohol. A positive correlation between sport nutrition knowledge and carbohydrate intake was described. They speculated that nutritional education would be really useful to improve dietary practices. Additionally, Azizi *et al*⁶ showed that nutrition knowledge of young athletes needs to be improved. Another paper⁷ determined nutrients intake in Japanese collegiate soccer players. Carbohydrate and protein intakes were lower than recommended targets. The dietary patterns showed a low ingestion of vegetables, milk and dairy products, fruits and eggs.

A previous study⁸ evaluated the nutritional intake of soccer players from the junior teams of a Spanish First Division Soccer League Club. The mean energy intake was 2796.4 ± 525.8 kcal, players analyzed ingested 1.6 ± 0.4 g/kg BW of proteins and 4.7 ± 1.1 g/kg BW of carbohydrate. Russell and Pennock⁹ examined nutritional habits of professional male soccer players from a youth team of a UK based Championship club. Mean energy ingestion was 2831 kcal. The intake of carbohydrates was 5.9 ± 0.4 g/kg BW/d, proteins ingestion was 1.7 ± 0.1 g/kg BW/d and fat consume was 1.5 ± 0.1 g/kg BW/d. Caccialanza *et al*¹⁰ determined dietary intake of a sample of seventy-five young soccer players. Mean kcal intake was 37.7 kcal/kg BW, mean consumption of carbohydrate was 5.0 g/kg BW, proteins 1.5 g/kg BW and lipids were 87.1 g/kg BW. Few studies have analyzed nutritional intakes on female soccer players or soccer referees, although it has been reported that female soccer player and soccer referees did not completely fulfill nutritional recommendations^{11,12}.

Taking in consideration all these studies, it seems that generally soccer players do not fulfill dietary intakes recommendations, although it is not completely clear yet. But it seems that nutritional knowledge could be a useful instrument to improve these dietary patterns. The main objective of the current research was to analyze the twenty-four and three hours previous intakes to a competitive match.

Material and method

Subjects

A total of fifty-eight soccer players from an amateur Spanish team voluntary participated. The mean age was 17.43 ± 2.88 years. They were regularly involved in competitive trainings and matches. The study was conducted during the first months of competitive season. They delivered informed written consents which had been signed by their parents.

Dietary assessment section

Previous twenty-four and three hours dietary intake to a competitive soccer match was recorded with a 24 hour recall questionnaire. Highly skill technicians supervised and helped soccer players to complete the questionnaires in order to collect accurate information. Soccer players were provided with written and verbal indications to record foods and fluids ingested with household measures. Brand names of commercial food were included. Information concerning time of day, cooking methods and amount of food prepared were collected. Questionnaires were reviewed to clarify ambiguous data. Eleven questionnaires were removed because these questionnaires did not express clear information for this reason the final sample was constituted by forty-seven soccer players.

The questionnaires were analyzed with a nutrient's composition software program (DIAL 1.19 version) to determine participant's nutrient intake for the 24 hours and 3 hours period studied. This process was performed by a single trained and experienced technician. This method has been previously validated in young soccer players to analyze food intake^{13,14}.

Soccer academy where the study was performed had a nutrition area as part of the medical services. Consequently, some of the athletes examined had received nutritional attention in previous seasons as part of nutrition area previous work. Soccer players were asked about if they have received personalized nutritional attention by nutrition area of the soccer academy in previous seasons in order to examine if a previous intervention could have effects in previous food intakes. This nutritional intervention was defined as an individual consultation including nutritional recommendations. The recommendations highlighted the importance of carbohydrates from fruits, cereals and vegetables before and after competition to improve sport performance. High protein foods such as fishes, meats, nuts, milk and dairy products were recommended after sport practice to promote muscular recovery. Soccer players were discouraged to ingest ultra-processed products due to its high level in simple sugars. Weight (kg) and height (cm) were recorded using an electronic weighing machine (Tanita UM-0.76) and stadiometer (Seca).

The experimental protocol was written following the ethics rules from Helsinki Declaration. All experimental procedures were in accordance with the Pablo de Olavide University Ethical Committee rules.

Statistical Analysis

SigmaPlot 12.5 version (Systat software) was used for Statistical Analyses. Descriptive statics (mean \pm SD) were reported for the different parameters analyzed. T-student analyses were used in order to determine significant differences. The effect sizes (ES) were conducted according to previous procedures^{15,16} using values for Cohen's (<0.2 small

effect; <0.5 medium effect; <0.8 large effect). Quantitative differences were assessed qualitative (QA) as a previous reference¹⁷ <1% almost certainly not; 1-5% very unlikely; 5-25% unlikely; 25-75% possible; 75-95% probably; 95-99% very likely and >99% almost certain. The level of significance was set at $p<0.05$ and all data are reported as means and 95% confidence intervals (CI).

Results

The mean weight and height were 67.77 ± 8.33 kg and 172.92 ± 6.57 cm. Mean intakes of energy (kcal), proteins, carbohydrates and lipids are presented in Table 1. Mean energy ingestion was 2277.55 kcal 24 hours before the match and 457.33 kcal 3 hours before. Carbohydrates consumption was 220.59 grams 24 hours before and 58.04 grams 3 hours before the match. Mean protein ingestion was 97.50 grams 24 hours and 15.83 grams 3 hours before. Lipids consumption was 109.94 grams 24 hours before the match and 19.27 grams 3 hours before.

Figure 1 shows the ingestions of energy and nutrients analyzed 24 and 3 hours before the match. Figure 1 also distinguishes between players who received nutritional recommendations in previous seasons and players who did not receive. Soccer players with nutritional recommendations consumed 43.17 ± 14.99 kcal/kg BW, 4.08 ± 1.61 g of carbohydrates/kg BW, 1.91 ± 0.67 g of proteins/kg BW and 2.03 ± 0.80 g of lipids/kg BW 24 hours before the match. While players with no recommendations consumed 30.29 ± 15.40 kcal/kg BW, 2.96 ± 1.46 g of carbohydrates/kg BW, 1.27 ± 0.72 g of proteins/kg BW and 1.47 ± 0.82 g of lipids/kg BW 24 hours before the match.

Soccer player who received nutritional recommendations took 8.60 ± 1.65 kcal/kg BW, 1.09 ± 0.30 g of carbohydrate/kg BW, 0.26 ± 0.08 g of proteins/kg BW and 0.33 ± 0.09 g of lipids/kg BW 3 hours before the match. While players who did not receive these recommendations consumed 6.00 ± 3.64 kcal/kg BW, 0.76 ± 0.45 g of carbohydrates/kg BW, 0.22 ± 0.19 g of proteins/kg BW and 0.26 ± 0.20 g of lipids/kg BW 3 hours before the match.

Discussion

The main point of this study was to examine the previous intakes before a match in youth soccer players, the average kcal/kg BW consumption was 34.68 ± 16.31 24 hours before a match, the average protein g/kg BW ingestion was 1.49 ± 0.76 and the mean carbohydrates consumption g/kg BW was 3.35 ± 1.59 . Three hours before the match, soccer players consumed 6.89 ± 3.38 kcal/kg BW and 0.87 ± 0.43 carbohydrate g/kg BW.

Table 1. Energy and nutrient ingestion in the young soccer players studied.

	Intakes (24 hours)	Intakes (3 hours)	Intakes (24 hours) / BW (kg)	Intakes (3 hours) / BW (kg)
Energy (kcal)	2277.55 ± 902.66	457.32 ± 204.74	34.68 ± 16.31	6.89 ± 3.38
Carbohydrates (grams)	220.59 ± 91.44	58.04 ± 26.25	3.35 ± 1.59	0.87 ± 0.43
Proteins (grams)	97.50 ± 42.36	15.83 ± 10.02	1.49 ± 0.76	0.23 ± 0.16
Lipids (grams)	109.94 ± 49.38	19.27 ± 12.10	1.66 ± 0.85	0.28 ± 0.18

Data frequencies for 47 soccer players. BW (body weight).

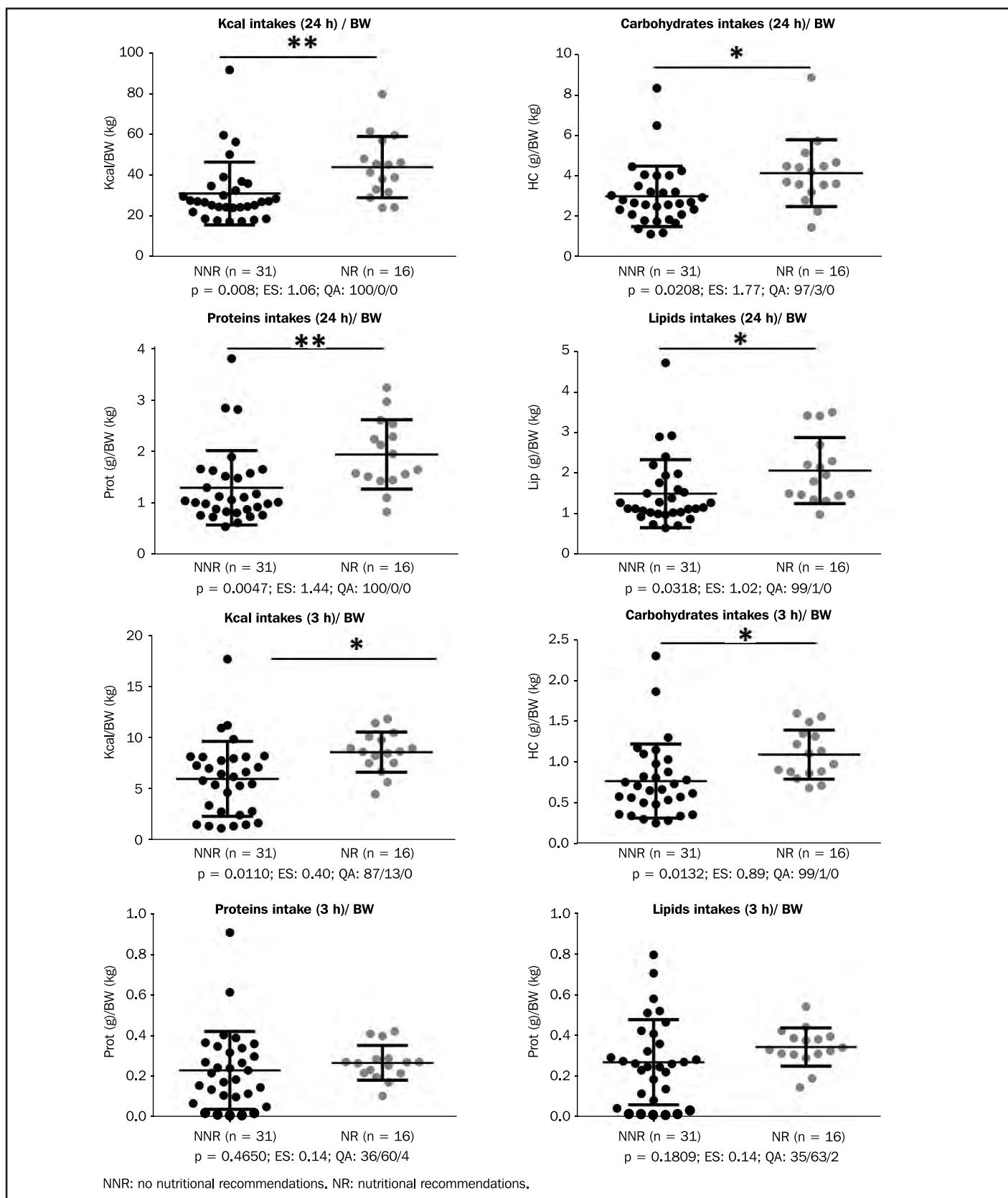
Differences were found in energy, proteins and carbohydrates consumption 24 hours and 3 hours in soccer players when they have attended to nutritional consultancies.

Few studies have examined nutritional intakes in soccer players, a recent paper¹⁸ evaluated seventy-two young male soccer players from junior teams in Mexican National Soccer league. The authors observed an energy intake of 2500-3100 kcal and a carbohydrate intake 5.4-6.7 g/kg BW/day, showing an optimal carbohydrates energy contribution. Furthermore, these players presented a 1.2 ± 0.1 g/kg BW carbohydrate pre-exercise ingestion. Another research¹⁹ examined eighty-one soccer players from the Arenas Football Club (Bizkaia, Spain). They found a mean consumption of $41.14-54.61$ kcal/kg BW, $1.81-2.14$ g/kg BW proteins, $1.76-2.20$ g/kg BW lipids and $4.57-6.68$ g/kg BW carbohydrates. Even, another study²⁰ evaluated nutrient intake in sixteen England female soccer players. They observed a low energy intake 1904 ± 366.3 kcal, 4.1 ± 1.0 g/kg BW carbohydrate, 1.2 ± 0.3 proteins g/kg BW and 0.9 ± 0.2 fats g/kg BW. Clark *et al*²¹ examined fourteen female soccer players. At the beginning of the season, players presented a 2290 ± 310 kcal intake, 5.2 ± 1.1 carbohydrate g/kg BW ingestion and 1.4 ± 0.3 protein g/kg BW consumption.

These studies show that soccer players need enough energy consumption and carbohydrate to maintain energy supplies for sport demands²². In our study, the carbohydrate ingestion was greater than the rest of macronutrients in line with the results from previous studies probably due to the impact of carbohydrate ingestion on intermittent sports performance like soccer¹. However, a lower carbohydrate consumption was detected. As it has been previously mentioned²³ this situation could have negative consequences on sport performance; athletes examined should be encouraged to increase carbohydrates in their diets in order to enhance their muscle glycogen stores before the match. Soccer players analyzed presented a low ingestion of kcal and carbohydrate while they showed an acceptable proteins and lipids consumption. García-Rovés *et al*²⁴ highlighted that is essential analyzed nutritional ingestions and food preferences to implement successfully a nutritional program in soccer players and they reported that few studies of nutritional ingestion in soccer players are available. Consequently, it could be important to analyze nutrients and energy intake before a nutritional intervention in soccer.

It seems that nutritional interventions could improve previous nutrient ingestions to a competitive match in young players. As it can be seen in Figure 1, nutritional interventions increased total kcal, proteins, carbohydrates and lipids ingestion 24 and 3 hours before the sport competition. However, carbohydrates ingestion per day from players who received nutritional recommendations and who did not receive

Figure 1. Energy and nutrients intakes normalized with body weight.



it were away from recommended intakes (4.08 ± 1.61 and 2.96 ± 1.46 vs $6-10$ g/kg BW)². Besides, players who received nutritional guidance fulfilled fuel requirements for match play 3 hours before the game while players did not receive did not fulfill (1.09 ± 0.30 and 0.76 ± 0.45 vs $1-4$ g/kg BW)². Molina-López *et al.*²⁵ supported these results because they proposed that nutritional education programs could lead athletes to adopt appropriate nutritional habits. Another study²⁶ examined dietary ingestions in professional soccer players obtaining that macro and micro nutrients consumption was inadequate, therefore nutritional intervention could be helpful.

Additionally, a positive correlation between nutrition knowledge and carbohydrate intake was previously obtained⁵ and the authors proposed that nutritional education would improve dietary habits in soccer players. Another study²⁷ suggested that previous nutritional interventions have increased carbohydrate content in soccer player's diets, improving sport performance, as we have obtained in the present study. Additionally, Murphy and Jeanes²⁸ proposed that there would be a needed assistance in young soccer players to implement nutritional knowledge to increase nutritional intakes indicating that nutritional guidance would be really beneficial for athletes.

The present research is one of the first studies that analyze energy and nutrient ingestions before a match in Spanish young soccer players.

The current study presents limitations. Firstly, there are errors inherent of all dietary recall methods. Furthermore, we have only studied young male nonprofessional soccer players, consequently conclusions obtained cannot be extrapolate neither the rest of soccer players nor other sport disciplines. Another would be the selection no probabilistic of the players evaluated.

Finally, the players studied presented a low kcal and carbohydrate ingestion 24 and 3 hours before a competitive match. However, a nutritional intervention could improve previous energy and nutrients intakes.

Conflict of interest

The authors do not declare a conflict of interest.

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Estrés cardiaco asociado a la realización de una formación acrobática paracaidista

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Resumen

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Introducción: El paracaidismo acrobático es una actividad de alto riesgo. Este riesgo y la dificultad de las maniobras son factores estresantes que modifican la respuesta cardiaca. Nuestro objetivo es analizar el trazado electrocardiográfico y la evolución de la frecuencia cardiaca (FC) durante esta actividad paracaidista creando una figura de alta dificultad.

Método: Colocamos un monitor electrocardiográfico Nuubo a dos paracaidistas experimentados de la Patrulla Acrobática Paracaidista del Ejército del Aire (PAPEA) durante la ejecución de una formación acrobática en la que cuatro paracaidistas se unen durante el vuelo creando una figura denominada "diamante". Analizamos el electrocardiograma (ECG) durante todo el ejercicio y recogimos la FC en las siguientes fases: 1.- Subiendo al avión; 2.- Despegando; 3.- Antes de saltar; 4.- Preparando la figura; 5.- En formación y 6.- Tomando tierra. Se repitió cinco veces, obteniéndose la media de cada saltador. Previamente se realizó un ECG en reposo y una prueba de esfuerzo máxima (PE) en tapiz rodante.

Resultados: Ambos saltadores consiguieron la mayor FC mientras vuelan preparando la formación (165 y 143 lat/min), supone el 87% y 77% de la FC máxima alcanzada en la PE. No se recogen FC inferiores a 95 pulsaciones en ninguna fase ni salto. Cada saltador tiene un tipo de respuesta, según le afecte el momento del despegue. En uno la FC aumenta paulatinamente hasta ella llega al pico máximo cuando están en formación y en el otro aparece otro pico, que se repite en los cinco saltos, coincidiendo con el despegue. En el ECG sólo se han observado episodios continuados de taquicardias sinusales.

Conclusiones: Concluimos que el estrés cardiaco producido por la realización de este tipo de ejercicios se manifiesta por aumentos importantes de la frecuencia cardiaca, en torno al 80% de la frecuencia cardiaca máxima, sin otras alteraciones electrocardiográficas.

Palabras clave:

Frecuencia cardiaca. Paracaidismo.
Electrocardiograma.

Cardiac stress associated to the realization of an acrobatic skydiver formation

Summary

Introduction: Aerobic skydiving is considered a high risk activity. This risk and the difficulty of the maneuvers are stressors that modify the cardiac activity. Our aim is to analyze the electrocardiographic tracing and the evolution of the heart rate during this paratrooper activity, creating a figure of high difficulty.

Method: We put a Nuubo electrocardiographic monitor on two experienced paratroopers members of the Acrobatic Parachute Patrol of the Air Force (PAPEA) during the execution of an acrobatic exercise, called "diamond", in which four parachutists are attached during the flight. We analyzed the electrocardiogram (ECG) during the whole activity and we got the heart rate (HR) in the following phases: 1.- Up to the aircraft; 2.-Taking off; 3.- Before jumping; 4.- Preparing the figure; 5.- Formation flight and 6.- Landing. They jumped five times, obtaining the average of each jumper. Previously we made them an ECG at rest and maximal treadmill stress test (ST).

Results: Both jumpers get the largest HR while they fly preparing the formation (165 and 143 beats/min), it is 87% and 77% of the max HR reached in ST. Beats under 95 b/min are not registered in any stage or jump. Each jumper has a different response, depending on the effect that the take-off has on him. In one of them, HR increases gradually until it reaches the maximum peak when they are in formation, and on the other jumper it appears another peak, that is repeated in the five jumps, coinciding with the taking off. There is no other ECG alterations.

Conclusions: We conclude that cardiac stress caused by carrying out this type of exercises is manifested by significant increases in heart rate, around 80% of the maximum heart rate, without other electrocardiographic abnormalities.

Key words:

Heart rate. Skydiving.
Electrocardiogram.

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Introducción

El estrés se ha considerado que es la respuesta del organismo a las demandas ambientales que sobrepasan su capacidad de regulación natural¹. En esta respuesta intervienen los sistemas nervioso y endocrino que van a regular y modificar la sensación de dolor, la producción de energía, los cambios en la temperatura, en la presión arterial y en la frecuencia cardíaca². Entre estas hormonas están los glucocorticoides y las catecolaminas³.

Se han descrito numerosas situaciones, o agentes estresores, entre las que se encuentran el miedo, las situaciones novedosas, la sensación al ser observado o examinado y el enfrentamiento ante tareas difíciles⁴.

Las respuestas fisiológicas y emocionales ante estas situaciones están reguladas por el cerebro y no producen necesariamente problemas de salud física y mental, sino que se puede considerar que son una preparación para dicha actividad⁵. Las manifestaciones fisiológicas típicas son el aumento de la frecuencia cardíaca (FC), el temblor, la sequedad de la boca que aparecen tanto en la ansiedad preexamén⁶, como en la respuesta anticipatoria en actividades de riesgo como el paracaidismo⁷ u otras actividades deportivas de riesgo o entornos desconocidos^{8,9}. A veces estas respuestas pueden ser muy intensas, frecuentes o duraderas, y este estrés puede generar complicaciones en la salud¹⁰, ya sea desencadenando la aparición de un trastorno latente, complicando su cuadro clínico o perpetuando su sintomatología¹¹.

La práctica del paracaidismo de por sí, se considera una actividad de riesgo y por lo tanto necesita de una atención y concentración continua para minimizar la posibilidad de accidentes¹². Por lo tanto, se van a poner en marcha reacciones de tipo fisiológico que van a servir para preparar al organismo ante esta situación como consecuencia del estrés producido¹³ que es similar en todos los deportistas y está mediada por el cortisol^{14,15}.

Si al riesgo innato de esta actividad le sumamos el estrés correspondiente a la ejecución de una tarea de alta dificultad, como es la ejecución de las maniobras asociadas a la creación de la formación acrobática, obtenemos una situación, lo sumamente complicada, que justifica la producción de adrenalina, ACTH y cortisol entre otras sustancias, suficiente para elevar la frecuencia cardíaca^{16,17}.

Estas maniobras específicas son el control de la campana del paracaídas para aproximarse a otros compañeros y unir sus paracaídas en una formación específica y navegar unos minutos de forma coordinada manteniendo esa figura y después soltarse de forma ordenada evitando enredarse unos con otros antes de tomar tierra.

Las respuestas fisiológicas y psicológicas asociadas al salto con paracaídas se han estudiado tanto en paracaidistas deportivos^{15,17-19} como militares, sometidos a otras circunstancias como los saltos tácticos^{20,21}, a alta cota o tandem²² pero no en saltos acrobáticos.

Es conocido que el estrés, junto al ejercicio físico, son desencadenantes de episodios de arritmias, especialmente de taquicardias que pueden desencadenar una muerte súbita²³, también que en los antecedentes de muchos infartos de miocardio se observan factores de riesgo psicosocial relacionados con la actividad laboral²⁴, de ahí el interés de este trabajo por conocer la respuesta cardíaca durante episodios de alta exigencia, más psíquica que física. Por ello nuestro objetivo es analizar el trazado electrocardiográfico y la evolución de la frecuencia

cardíaca asociado al estrés ocasionado por una actividad paracaidista de alta precisión y dificultad.

Material y método

Población

Han participado dos paracaidistas ("A" y "B") miembros de la Patrulla Acrobática Paracaidista del Ejército del Aire (PAPEA) con tres años de experiencia en la misma y con edades de 27 y 26 años. Ambos fueron informados de los objetivos y procedimiento del estudio y firmaron el correspondiente documento de consentimiento informado. Se contó con el permiso de las autoridades militares pertinentes y el informe favorable de la Comisión de Ética de la Investigación de la Universidad de Murcia.

Procedimiento

Colocamos un monitor electrocardiográfico Nuubo® a cada uno de los paracaidistas durante la ejecución de una formación acrobática denominada "diamante con bandera" en la que cuatro paracaidistas se unen durante el vuelo (Figura 1). El paracaidista "A" ocupa la posición central derecha y el "B" la inferior con la bandera. Tras la salida del avión y durante unos segundos de caída libre los saltadores abren sus paracaídas y se aproximan a sus compañeros para sujetarse a la campana de otro paracaidista y continuar navegando los cuatro juntos hasta que llegan a la altura crítica de ruptura de la formación. En ese momento, la figura se deshace, los paracaidistas se separan y cada uno toma tierra de forma independiente. El ejercicio se repitió en cinco ocasiones distintas a lo largo de dos días consecutivos con similares condiciones meteorológicas.

En una sesión previa a los saltos se realizó una exploración cardiovascular de cada paracaidista incluyendo auscultación, toma de presión arterial y electrocardiograma en reposo. Posteriormente se les hizo una prueba de esfuerzo (PE) máxima en tapiz rodante (Runner® run 7411) con determinación de la respuesta ventilatoria (Cortex®, Metalyzer 3B) y estudio electrocardiográfico de esfuerzo (Cardioline®, Clic ECG BT).

El dispositivo Nuubo® se fijó sobre un arnés elástico en el pecho de cada saltador (Figura 2). El arnés lleva integrados cinco electrodos que, con la ayuda de un gel conductor, recogen la actividad eléctrica para procesarla y generar las tres derivaciones.

Con el monitor Nuubo® se grabaron de forma continua tres derivaciones electrocardiográficas desde antes de montar en el avión hasta su regreso a la Base tras el último salto del día. A partir de ellas se analizó el electrocardiograma (ECG) en busca de alteraciones y se determinó la frecuencia cardíaca en cada una de las fases en las que se dividieron los saltos: 1.- Subiendo al avión; 2.- Despegando; 3.- Preparado para saltar; 4.- Volando hacia la formación preparando la figura; 5.- En la formación y 6.- Tomando tierra. Los saltos fueron grabados en video desde tierra con una cámara sincronizada al segundo con el dispositivo ECG para relacionar temporalmente cada acción con la frecuencia cardíaca correspondiente.

Para la obtención de las frecuencias cardíacas se visualizó la grabación de cada uno de los saltos con el seguimiento de la hora:minuto:segundo y se seleccionó un segmento de una derivación del ECG libre de interferencias que abarcara los cinco segundos ante-

Figura 1. Formación “en diamante con bandera”.**Figura 2. Dispositivo Nuubo® con arnés y electrodos.**

riores y posteriores al momento escogido para cada fase y se determinó la FC máxima en ese intervalo.

Método estadístico

Se ha obtenido la media (X) y desviación típica (SD) de las FC de cada una de las fases y para cada uno de los paracaidistas. Mediante el coeficiente de variación (CV) se ha analizado la homogeneidad de las medidas ($CV = SD / X * 100$), considerando los valores de menos de 20% como homogéneos. Se han comparado los valores medios mediante la T de Student tras comprobar la normalidad de las distribuciones de las características iniciales mediante la prueba de Shapiro-Wilk y la igualdad de varianzas mediante el test de Levene.

Resultados

En la Tabla 1 mostramos los datos descriptivos antropométricos y de la valoración inicial de cada uno de cada uno de los paracaidistas participantes, incluyendo la frecuencia cardiaca en reposo y la máxima en la prueba de esfuerzo (FC Máx PE).

La Tabla 2 recoge las frecuencias cardíacas de cada una de las fases, de cada uno de los saltos, para los paracaidistas “A” y “B” respectivamente.

Los coeficientes de variación de las frecuencias cardíacas de cada paracaidista en cada una de las fases muestran que los valores son muy homogéneos y que por tanto la variabilidad es mínima. Al comparar las medias de las frecuencias cardíacas de cada fase entre cada paracaidista se observan diferencias significativas (Tabla 3), más acusadas en el despegue y durante el vuelo en caída libre antes de configurar la formación (Figura 3).

Tras calcular el porcentaje de las frecuencias cardíacas medias de cada fase con respecto a las frecuencias cardíacas en reposo y máxima en la prueba de esfuerzo obtenemos los valores de la Tabla 4.

Tabla 1. Características antropométricas y valoración inicial.

Variables	Paracaidista A	Paracaidista B
Edad (años)	27	26
Años de paracaidista	4	4
Años PAPEA	3	3
Talla (cm)	182	175
Peso (kg)	70	67
IMC (peso/talla ²)	21,1	21,8
FC reposo (ppm)	64	72
FC Máx PE (ppm)	189	185
PA reposo (mmHg)	120/60	120/65
ECG en reposo	Sin alteraciones	Sin alteraciones
ECG en esfuerzo	Compatible normalidad	Compatible normalidad

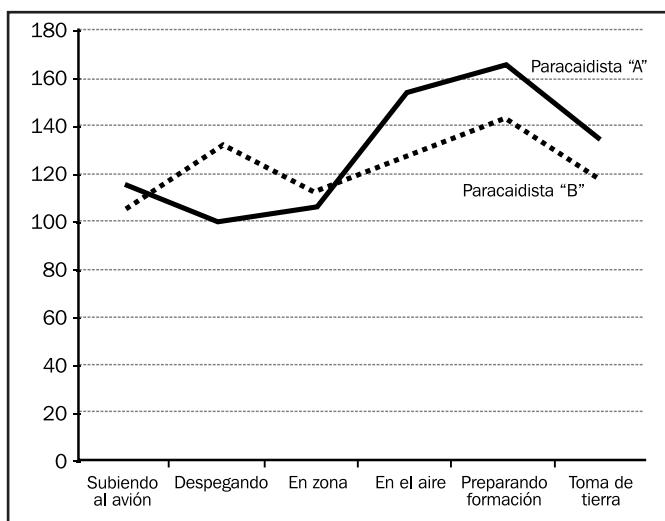
Figura 3. Evolución de la frecuencia cardíaca media (lat/min) de cada paracaidista en cada fase de los saltos.

Tabla 2. Frecuencias cardiacas (latidos/minuto) en cada fase, salto y paracaidista.

Paracaidista	Salto Nº 1		Salto Nº 2		Salto Nº 3		Salto Nº 4		Salto Nº 5	
	"A"	"B"								
Subiendo al avión	110	119	90	96	125	88	128	113	124	112
Despegando	101	138	99	144	97	125	95	123	110	128
En zona de salto	105	122	103	120	100	117	116	111	104	93
En el aire	153	130	156	142	166	122	150	121	150	131
Preparando formación	150	151	184	147	160	137	172	142	162	138
Toma de tierra	138	110	117	120	142	126	144	126	135	107

Tabla 3. Media, desviación típica y CV de la FC (lat/min) en cada fase y saltador.

	Paracaidista "A"		Paracaidista "B"		Diferencias (p)
	Media ± sd	CV	Media ± sd	CV	
Subiendo al avión	115,4 ± 15,8	13,7	105,6 ± 13	12,3	0,316
Despegando	100,4 ± 5,8	5,8	131,6 ± 9,0	6,9	0,000
En zona	105,6 ± 6,1	5,8	112,6 ± 11,7	10,4	0,270
En el aire	155,0 ± 6,6	4,3	129,0 ± 8,5	6,6	0,001
Preparando formación	165,6 ± 12,9	7,8	143,0 ± 6,0	4,2	0,007
Toma de tierra	135,2 ± 10,8	8	117,8 ± 8,9	7,6	0,025

Tabla 4. Porcentajes de la FC en reposo y máxima en esfuerzo en cada fase.

Paracaidista	% FC reposo		% FC máx PE	
	"A"	"B"	"A"	"B"
Subiendo al avión	180,3	146,7	61,1	57,1
Despegando	156,9	182,8	53,1	71,1
En zona	165,0	156,4	55,9	60,9
En el aire	242,2	179,4	82,0	69,8
Preparando formación	258,8	198,6	87,6	77,3
Toma de tierra	211,3	163,6	71,5	63,7

Discusión

Hemos considerado que la actividad paracaidista de precisión es una tarea estresante con repercusión en la actividad cardiaca. Para ello realizamos el seguimiento del trazado electrocardiográfico y la frecuencia cardiaca, durante la ejecución de una figura acrobática paracaidista de alta complejidad y precisión.

Las situaciones de ansiedad o estrés tienen unos elementos estresantes que en el caso que nos ocupa los podemos identificar en cada una de las fases del ejercicio.

En la primera fase de los lanzamientos que hemos denominado "Subiendo al avión" el paracaidista va andando hasta el avión portando su equipo, observamos FC medias de 115 y 105 latidos por minuto compatibles con la actividad que realizan.

La segunda fase, "Despegando", ocurre dentro del avión, con el paracaidista sentado o de pie, pero sin realizar ninguna otra actividad. El aumento de la FC responde a la situación estresante de preparación

a lo que va a realizar y al posible temor a lo que pueda ocurrir. Los valores encontrados son similares a los referidos durante distintas fases del entrenamiento de pilotos aeronáuticos²⁵. Observamos que la respuesta es distinta en ambos sujetos. Uno mantiene una FC media de 100 latidos y el otro llega hasta los 130, lo que al compararlo con las FC de las otras fases sugiere una diferente adaptación de cada uno de ellos al momento de despegue, condicionada a múltiples factores, entre ellos la diferente expresión genética²⁶ o la influencia del ruido de los aviones sobre la ansiedad y la salud en general²⁷.

Hay factores relacionados con las actividades de riesgo que pueden dar lugar a la sensación de miedo y ansiedad al poner el peligro la salud del participante⁷. Algunos de ellos son elementos externos al paracaidista que pueden influir en el desarrollo de la formación como los cambios de intensidad y dirección del viento o los fallos del material que, aunque no son esperables, son previsibles, al ser una actividad planificada por lo que disminuye la incertidumbre y el medio estaría controlando²⁸, siendo por tanto un factor estresante controlable. Esta situación es la que podemos observar durante la tercera fase que denominamos "en zona" en la que los paracaidistas están en el avión, sobrevolando la zona de lanzamiento, preparados para saltar. Sus frecuencias cardíacas son más altas que las que tenían en la fase anterior pero inferiores a las que aparecen durante la fase 4 "En el aire", en la que los saltadores vuelan en caída libre y abren su paracaídas para aproximarse entre ellos y ocupar su lugar en la figura.

En esta cuarta fase el factor estresante principal sería la sensación de volar²⁶ que se añadiría a los anteriormente citados de miedo a la no apertura del paracaídas y fallos en el material.

Otro factor que contribuye al estrés es el temor al fracaso, en nuestro caso sería la no consecución del objetivo del lanzamiento, crear la figura prevista, por una deficiente maniobra personal o por la pérdida de la coordinación entre los miembros del equipo. Este factor lo pode-

mos considerar de tipo profesional y es el que diferencia a estos sujetos y los hace únicos para su cometido²⁹ y es similar a lo que ocurre en los deportistas de alto nivel³⁰. La respuesta a este factor la encontramos en las altas frecuencias cardiacas que aparecen en la fase 5 de "preparación de la formación". Durante estos minutos de vuelo el ejercicio físico que realizan los paracaidistas está enfocado al control del paracaídas y de su posición relativa en el espacio y con respecto a los otros integrantes. Su preocupación es estar en el sitio adecuado en el momento oportuno ocupando la posición previamente establecida. Los días en los que se hizo este estudio, todos los saltos fueron válidos y se realizaron en una situación de "intimididad" ya que saltaban en las proximidades de la Base Aérea, sin público. Si el ejercicio se hubiera hecho en el marco de una exhibición o festival aéreo a todos los estímulos estresantes anteriores habría que añadir la sensación de estar siendo observado y evaluado por un público que espera la perfección; unido a la responsabilidad de representar a su institución (Ejército del Aire), algo similar a lo que ocurre en los campeonatos deportivos³¹.

En esta fase ya pueden haber desaparecido los miedos a la no apertura del paracaídas y están influidos por la experiencia en este tipo de saltos. Según Mazureck, et al^{15,18} el entrenamiento del paracaidista puede producir una reducción a la respuesta ante el estrés y mejora el control autonómico de la función cardiovascular en los paracaidistas novatos.

Tras la consecución de la figura deben navegar en conjunto sin romper la formación, manteniendo cada uno su posición, lo que supone una nueva carga emocional para no contribuir al fracaso de la tarea. Tras ello deben separarse y descender para tomar tierra de forma independiente y segura. Lo que confiere una nueva situación estresante. Si no se puede construir la figura, se ha fracasado y debe volver a intentar con una nueva reorganización del equipo y material, despegue del avión con la correspondiente repercusión económica.

Otros autores han usado saltos paracaidistas para valores respuestas immunitarias, genéticas²⁶ y hormonales al estrés midiendo entre otras sustancias el cortisol o la amilasa salivar^{7,15,32}. Los resultados del trabajo de Meyer et al³³ sugieren que la experiencia puede modular la respuesta emocional con reactividad del cortisol al paracaidismo pero que no anula su aparición. Esto puede estar en concordancia con nuestros datos de que, a pesar de ser paracaidistas con gran experiencia, siguen teniendo un aumento de su frecuencia cardiaca durante las diferentes fases del salto.

Por otro lado, hay estudios que sugieren que los saltos paracaidistas producen una reducción del sistema vagal asociado a un aumento del tono simpático durante el salto. A pesar de ello, los paracaidistas experimentados no están expuestos a un riesgo cardiovascular alto³⁴ aun así, coincidimos con ellos en la necesidad de estudiar su función cardiovascular sometida a factores estresantes.

La respuesta cardiaca ante episodios o situaciones de estrés laboral ha sido estudiada en personal de enfermería³⁵, fuerzas de seguridad³⁶ y cirujanos³⁷ entre otros colectivos. Estos estudios se han enfocado hacia las taquicardias como manifestaciones de la ansiedad acumulada por la práctica continuada de la profesión³⁸, en el marco de síndromes de "burnout" como de respuesta ante situaciones puntuales que indiquen una vulnerabilidad personal hacia la tarea profesional que se realiza. En el caso de nuestros paracaidistas la presión a la que están sometidos es controlada por la experiencia y la planificación de la ejecución del ejercicio.

Así mismo, para evitar las consecuencias del estrés³⁹, cada individuo debería realizar un "afrontamiento", es decir esfuerzos para hacer frente a la situación estresante⁴⁰.

La principal limitación de nuestro estudio es el bajo número de participantes por lo que no podemos obtener conclusiones categóricas ni generalizaciones, pero que sí que permite orientar la respuesta ante a esta actividad y plantear acciones de promoción de la salud y de nuevas investigaciones. Sería interesante establecer la influencia de la experiencia comparando lo que ocurre en paracaidistas novatos con veteranos en esta misma tarea.

Aunque no hemos detectado anomalías, con este trabajo aportamos la posibilidad de utilizar el estudio continuo del trazado electrocardiográfico para la valoración fisiológica del paracaidista, frente a estudios que solo lo hacen antes y/o después del salto²² o, sencillamente, no lo tienen en cuenta.

Concluimos que la realización de una figura acrobática paracaidista, por paracaidistas experimentados, supone un estrés cardiaco que se manifiesta por importantes aumentos de la frecuencia cardiaca en torno al 80% de la frecuencia cardiaca máxima. En el trazado electrocardiográfico sólo se han observado episodios continuados de taquicardias sinusales.

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Conflictos de interés

Los autores no declaran conflicto de interés alguno.

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Evaluación de una APP para medir la velocidad de levantamientos de press banca: resultados preliminares

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Resumen

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Introducción: Cada vez es más frecuente encontrar aplicaciones móviles relacionadas con el deporte de fácil acceso y uso. Sin embargo, su precisión general de medida tiene aún mucho margen de mejora. El objetivo de este estudio fue determinar la precisión de una Aplicación móvil (APP) Android y del acelerómetro del teléfono móvil, para medir la velocidad media de un levantamiento de Press Banca (PB).

Material y método: Participaron en el estudio 5 sujetos (edad $23,8 \pm 2,94$ años), con una experiencia mínima de un año en el entrenamiento con resistencias en PB. Todos realizaron 3 repeticiones con un 70% y 90% del valor estimado de 1 Repetición Máxima (1RM). En cada repetición se midió y comparó la velocidad media simultáneamente con un Encoder lineal validado y la APP.

Resultados: Observamos una correlación positiva fuerte de la velocidad media entre el Encoder lineal y la APP ($r= 0,685$, $p<0,001$, SEE= $0,09 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$). El coeficiente de correlación intraclass ($ICC = 0,707$) mostró un buen acuerdo entre ambos dispositivos. La APP mostró diferencias significativas en las velocidades medias de levantamientos del 90% 1RM (APP= $0,44 \pm 0,08 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; Encoder= $0,30 \pm 0,03 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), no encontrando diferencias significativas en velocidades medias con cargas del 70% 1RM (APP= $0,54 \pm 0,13 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; Encoder= $0,51 \pm 0,10 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$).

Discusión: La APP no es por el momento totalmente válida y fiable a bajas velocidades de ejecución. Sin embargo, con filtros de señal específicos puede llegar a ser una herramienta de medición suficientemente precisa, accesible, fácil de usar, y que permitirá estimar la velocidad de los levantamientos de forma cómoda y adecuada.

Palabras clave:

Acelerómetro. Teléfono móvil. Resistencias. Entrenamiento. Tecnología. Fuerza. APP. Test.

APP evaluation to measure bench press lifts speed: preliminary results

Summary

Introduction: It's becoming more common to find sports mobile applications that have easy access and are easy to use. Nevertheless their general measure precision still needs improvement. The objective of this study was to determine the precision that a Smartphone application (APP) and a Smartphone accelerometer can provide to measure the mean velocity of a bench press (BP) on Smith machine.

Material and methods: 5 subjects participated in the study (age $23,8 \pm 2,94$ years), they had a minimum lifting experience of 1 year. All of them did 3 repetitions with a load of 70% and 90% of the estimated value of 1 Repetition Maximum (1RM), and a lift with their 1RM. In each repetition mean velocity was measured by a validated linear encoder and the APP.

Results: there was a strong positive correlation in mean velocity between linear encoder and the APP ($r= 0,685$, $p<0,001$, SEE= $0,09 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$). Intraclass correlation coefficient ($ICC = 0,707$) showed a good agreement between both devices. The APP showed significant differences in the mean velocities of lifts with the 90% 1RM (APP= $0,44 \pm 0,08 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; Encoder= $0,30 \pm 0,03 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), not showing significant differences in mean velocities of lifts with 70% 1RM (APP= $0,54 \pm 0,13 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; Encoder= $0,51 \pm 0,10 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$).

Discussion: At this moment the APP is not totally reliable and valid at low velocity lifts. Nevertheless, with proper signal filters it could be a precise, accessible and easy to use tool to measure lifts velocity in an easy and proper way.

Key words:

Accelerometer. Smartphone. Resistances. Training. Technology. Strength. APP. Test.

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Introducción

El entrenamiento con cargas o resistencias ha sido el método más utilizado para aumentar la fuerza muscular de un atleta¹. Para prescribir un programa de entrenamiento con cargas adaptado a las capacidades del individuo es necesario poder conocer la carga máxima que el individuo es capaz de mover en un ejercicio o la velocidad con la que se lleva a cabo un levantamiento².

La realización de un test de valoración de la fuerza de 1 Repetición Máxima (1RM), conlleva un alto riesgo de lesión en poblaciones desentrenadas, o más frágiles como niños y ancianos³. En el caso de deportistas de alto rendimiento la realización de un test de 1RM sigue suponiendo un riesgo y puede alterar la planificación de sus entrenamientos⁴. Es por ello que se han propuesto diferentes métodos indirectos de estimación de la 1 RM: métodos basados en la resistencia muscular⁵⁻⁷, métodos basados en medidas antropométricas⁸⁻¹¹, y basados en la velocidad del levantamiento^{12,13}.

El método de estimación de 1RM a través de la velocidad de un levantamiento submáximo se ha demostrado como un método válido y fiable que permite estimar de una forma precisa la 1 RM sin realizar el levantamiento^{12,13}. El instrumento considerado *gold standard* para la medición de la velocidad de un levantamiento es el *encoder lineal*^{12,13}, sin embargo, el principal inconveniente de esta herramienta es su elevado precio. Existen otros métodos para medir la velocidad de un levantamiento mediante análisis de video^{14,15} o acelerómetros profesionales^{16,17}. Además cada vez es más frecuente encontrar aplicaciones móviles relacionadas con el deporte y concretamente con el análisis de la velocidad de los levantamientos¹⁴, o los saltos¹⁸.

Los *smartphones* actuales tienen sensores iniciales (acelerómetro, magnetómetro y giroscopio), para conocer la posición y el movimiento del dispositivo, por lo que podría utilizarse esta tecnología para medir la velocidad del levantamiento¹⁹. Sin embargo hasta el momento, y según nuestro conocimiento, no existe ninguna Aplicación móvil (APP), que utilice este *hardware* para medir la velocidad y estimar la fuerza.

El objetivo principal del presente estudio es comprobar la fiabilidad y la validez de la APP que utiliza el acelerómetro del teléfono móvil para obtener la velocidad media concéntrica de un levantamiento de *Press Banca* (PB) en máquina Smith, comparado con un *encoder lineal* validado. Además, los objetivos específicos son: 1) comprobar el grado de validez del acelerómetro del teléfono móvil, 2) verificar la utilidad de la aplicación en un entorno de pruebas real, y 3) encontrar posibles errores e inconvenientes de la APP para poder corregir futuras versiones del *software*.

Nuestra hipótesis es la siguiente: la APP será válida y fiable para la medición de la velocidad media del levantamiento respecto a un *encoder lineal* validado.

Material y método

Enfoque experimental del problema

Participaron en el estudio cinco sujetos varones jóvenes con experiencia en el entrenamiento con resistencias, y específicamente con experiencia de al menos 1 año en el ejercicio de PB. Todos los sujetos

Figura 1. Disposición del encoder lineal y el TLF durante el experimento.



realizaron 3 repeticiones de PB a máxima velocidad en la máquina Smith con un 70% 1RM, 3 repeticiones con 90% 1RM y un intento de 1RM. Se eligieron estas intensidades-porcentajes, ya que se han demostrado útiles para estimar el valor de 1RM mediante una ecuación lineal, tal y como describe Jaric, S.²⁰. Cada repetición fue medida simultáneamente con un *encoder lineal* validado¹⁹ (Speed4Lifts, Madrid, España), y el Teléfono móvil (TLF), ambos fijados a la barra. El TLF se fijó mediante un brazalete de *running* para TLF (Figura 1), y el *encoder* gracias a un accesorio propio (cinta con velcro). Las velocidades concéntricas medias de 70 levantamientos se compararon mediante análisis estadísticos con el objetivo de verificar la validez y fiabilidad de la APP.

Participantes

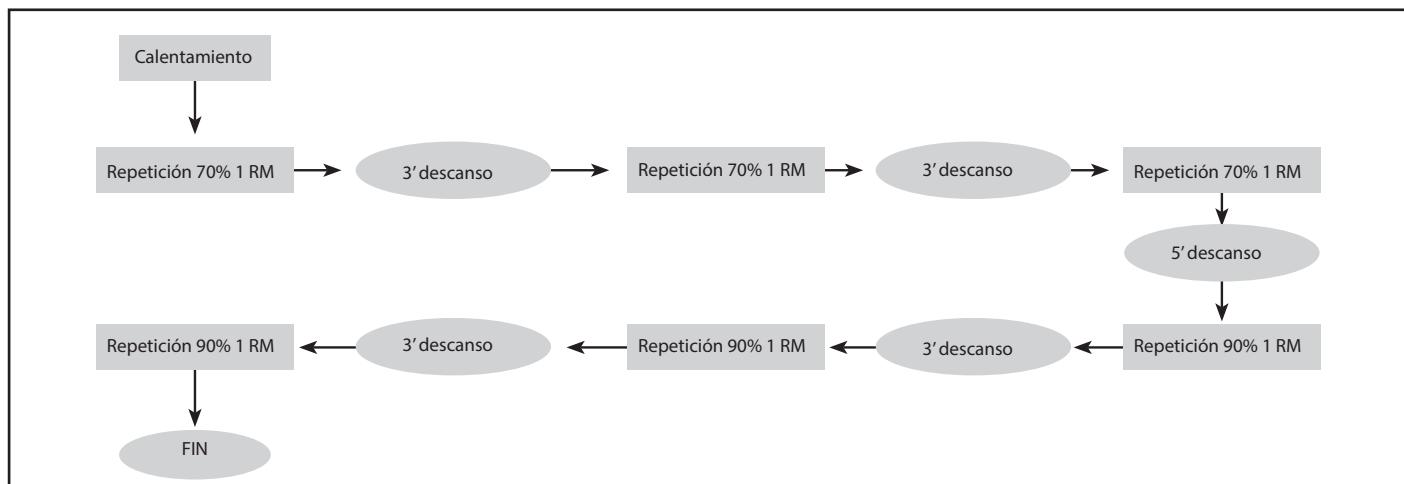
5 sujetos con una experiencia mínima de un año en el entrenamiento con cargas y específicamente en el ejercicio de PB participaron en el estudio (Datos media ± Desviación estándar: Edad = 23,8 ± 2,9 años; Altura = 177,6 ± 9,2cm; Peso = 77,5 ± 9 kg; 1-RM PB = 80,8 ± 16,7 kg). Los criterios de exclusión fueron: 1) ser más joven de 18 años; 2) haber consumido algún narcótico y/o psicótropico antes o durante la prueba; 3) cualquier enfermedad cardiovascular, metabólica, neurológica, pulmonar o desorden ortopédico que pudiese limitar el rendimiento en las diferentes pruebas; 4) tener menos de 12 meses de experiencia en el ejercicio de PB. Todos los participantes fueron estudiantes de la Facultad de Actividad Física y Deportes donde se realizó el experimento.

El estudio fue aprobado por el Comité Ético de la Universidad Politécnica de Madrid y cumple con la declaración de Helsinki para Experimentos con Humanos. Cada participante fue informado del estudio de forma oral y escrita mediante hoja informativa y todos ellos firmaron un consentimiento informado.

Procedimiento

Test de PB

Todos los sujetos participantes realizaron un calentamiento basado en la literatura^{18,21}. Comenzaron con 5 minutos de ejercicio aeróbico. Posteriormente realizaron estiramientos dinámicos (Ej. Rotaciones internas y externas de hombro, extensiones de codo y rotaciones de

Figura 2. Diagrama de flujo con el desarrollo del test de PB.

muñecas), y ejercicios de movilidad articular del tren superior. Después se siguió con 2 series de 5 repeticiones de PB con una carga aproximada del 50% 1RM del sujeto y un descanso de 2 minutos entre series. Para finalizar el calentamiento se realizaron dos series de 1 repetición con una carga del 50% 1RM del sujeto a máxima velocidad para preparar de forma adecuada la musculatura.

Durante el test cada sujeto realizó 3 repeticiones con una carga del 70% 1RM y un descanso de 3 minutos entre cada repetición. Tras la última repetición con el 70% 1RM descansaron 5 minutos y comenzaron las 3 repeticiones con el 90% 1RM, con 3 minutos de descanso entre cada repetición (Figura 2).

Cada repetición comenzaba con una pausa de 3 segundos tras desenganchar la barra. A continuación, la APP emitía una señal acústica ("LETS GO") y los sujetos realizaban la fase excéntrica del levantamiento hasta tocar la barra con el pecho. Posteriormente realizaban una parada de 1 segundo y con el segundo aviso acústico de la aplicación ("BIP"), realizaban la fase concéntrica del levantamiento a la máxima velocidad posible. Tanto la APP como el encoder registraron la velocidad media de la fase concéntrica del levantamiento. Todos los levantamientos se realizaron en una máquina Smith.

Se solicitó a todos los sujetos que no entrenaran los grupos musculares involucrados al menos 2 días antes del experimento.

Instrumentos

La APP se desarrolló en el entorno de desarrollo integrado *Android Studio* (Google, California, USA), mediante el lenguaje de programación *Java* (Oracle, California, USA). Para la captura de los valores de aceleración se utilizó la librería *sensorManager*. La APP se instaló en un teléfono *Huawei G620S* (*Huawei Technologies Co., Guangdong, China*), con sistema operativo *Android* (Google, California, USA), y un acelerómetro tri-axial modelo lis3dh (*STMicroelectronics, Geneva, Switzerland*). La frecuencia de muestreo de aceleraciones se estableció en 50 Hz. Para calcular la velocidad media del levantamiento se tomaron las aceleraciones de la fase concéntrica en el eje z del móvil y se realizó la integración de dichos valores siguiendo el principio de integración:

$$v = \int adt$$

Para realizar la aproximación del valor de la integración se desarrolló en código la regla del trapecio:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \sim h/2 [f(a)+2f(a+h)+2f(a+2h)+\dots+f(b)]$$

Donde $h = \frac{(b-a)}{n}$ y n es el número de divisiones.

La regla del trapecio divide el área de debajo de la curva que definen los distintos valores de aceleración en n trapecios con diferente área. La suma del área de todos los trapecios que están contenidos debajo de la curva resultará ser el valor aproximado de la integral de dicha curva. Cuanto mayor es el número de trapecios, el cual coincide con el número de eventos de aceleración tomados durante la fase concéntrica, mayor será la precisión de la aproximación de la integral²².

Puesto que el acelerómetro del TLF tiene bastante ruido se utilizaron distintos procesos de filtrado de la señal. Entre ellos se utilizó un filtro "mecánico" para eliminar aquellos valores residuales que deberían ser 0 pero el acelerómetro daba un valor superior o inferior. Además, se utilizó un filtro de bajo paso el cual recibe un factor de filtrado que hará la curva que describen las aceleraciones más suave cuanto mayor sea su valor.

Análisis estadístico

Se analizó la normalidad de los datos mediante el test de Shapiro-Wilk. Una vez confirmada la normalidad de las variables dependientes ($p > 0,05$), los resultados fueron presentados como media (M), y desviación estándar (DE). Se utilizaron varios análisis estadísticos para probar la validez y fiabilidad de la APP con respecto al encoder lineal en el ejercicio de PB en máquina Smith. En primer lugar, la validez concurrente de la APP fue probada mediante el coeficiente de correlación de Pearson (r). Para calcular la fiabilidad de las mediciones de la APP en comparación con el encoder lineal se utilizó el Coeficiente de Correlación Intraclass (CCI). El cálculo de las diferencias entre las medias de las dos mediciones se realizó mediante una prueba t para muestras relacionadas. El error estándar estimado (SEE) se utilizó para mostrar el error típico en las mediciones. El nivel de significación se fijó en $p = 0,05$. Todos los cálculos se realizaron mediante IBM® SPSS® Statistics 23 software (IBM Co., USA).

Estrategias artificiales de entrenamiento en altitud: ¿Existe correlación entre parámetros hematológicos y de rendimiento físico?

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Resumen

Introducción: La exposición a hipoxia intermitente (IHE) utilizada como complemento al entrenamiento convencional para obtener mejoras en los índices hematológicos claves para incrementar el rendimiento deportivo. Objetivo: Evaluar los cambios hematológicos y de rendimiento físico por un programa de IHE en atletas de élite (AE) que viven y entrenan en hipoxia moderada.

Material y método: Se aplicó un tratamiento de IHE normobárico de 4 semanas de duración (90 minutos, 7 días a la semana, 10-13 % FIO₂) a 12 AE. Se establecieron sus características físico-antropométricas antes del comienzo del estudio: Las analíticas de sangre y las pruebas físicas se realizaron en 2 momentos del estudio: a) en el día 1, justo antes de comenzar el estudio (T1); b) en el día 28, justamente al final estudio (T2). Se midieron: reticulocitos (RET), hemoglobina reticulocitaria (Hb-RET), eritropoyetina (EPO), el perfil hematológico completo y el metabolismo del hierro. El rendimiento físico se determinó mediante la evaluación de la potencia aeróbica, la potencia anaeróbica y la velocidad y el consumo máximo de oxígeno (CsO₂max).

Resultados: Entre los T1 y T2 existe un incremento significativo de EPO, RET y Hb-RET, además de un aumento no significativo en las variables hematológicas involucradas en la eritropoyesis HEM, Hb y Hcto. Se incrementó el rendimiento en todas las pruebas físicas, de velocidad (1,96±2,35 %), de potencia aeróbica (3,73±5,34 %), de CsO₂max (3,36±4,35 %) y fue significativo en la potencia anaeróbica (p = 0,05 con un 1,93±1,13 %).

Conclusiones: El programa de IHE de 4 semanas de duración en combinación con el entrenamiento es capaz de estimular parámetros hematológicos, como la EPO, RET, HEM, Hb y Hcto que demuestran una activación de la eritropoyesis del deportista y que podrían ser la causa de las mejoras en todos los test de rendimiento, siendo únicamente significativa el aumento potencia anaeróbica

Palabras clave:
Hipoxia. Hematología. Eritropoyetina.
Hematíes. Rendimiento deportivo.

Artificial altitude training strategies: Is there a correlation between hematological parameters and physical performance?

Summary

Introduction: Exposure to intermittent hypoxia (IHE) which is used as a complement to conventional training to obtain improvements in key haematological indices to increase athletic performance.

Objective: We assessed hematological and physical performance changes by an IHE program in elite athletes (EA) living and training in moderate hypoxia.

Material and method: For a 4-week normobaric IHE treatment (90 minutes, 7 days a week, 10-13 % FIO₂) was applied at 12 EC. Their physical-anthropometric characteristics were established before the start of the study: Blood tests and physical tests were performed at 2 points in the study: a) on day 1, just before the start of the study (T1); b) on day 28, just at the end of the study (T2). The following were measured: reticulocytes (RET), reticulocyte haemoglobin (Hb-RET), erythropoietin (EPO), complete haematological profile and iron metabolism. Physical performance was determined by evaluation of aerobic potency, anaerobic potency, and velocity and maximum oxygen consumption (CsO₂max).

Results: Between T1 and T2 there is a significant increase in EPO, RET and Hb-RET, as well as a non-significant increase in the haematological variables involved in erythropoiesis HEM, Hb and Hcto. Performance increased in all physical tests, speed (1.96±2.35 %), aerobic power (3.73±5.34 %), CsO₂max (3.36±4.35 %) and was significant in anaerobic power (p = 0.05 with 1.93±1.13 %).

Conclusions: The IHE program of 4 weeks'duration in combination with training is able to stimulate hematological parameters such as EPO, RET, HEM, Hct, and Hb that demonstrate an activation of the erythropoiesis of the athlete and could be the cause of improvements in all performance tests, being only significant the increase in anaerobic potency.

Key words:

Hypoxia. Hematology.
Erythropoietin. Erythrocytes.
Sports performance.

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en Soria, a media altitud e hipoxia moderada. Quizá este doble estímulo hipóxico, al que estaban sometidos nuestros AE, podría tener un efecto aditivo que influya en los resultados beneficiosos para los AE, que presentamos en el estudio.

Es de reseñar que algunos estudios que muestran mejoras significativas en la producción de la hormona EPO, o en los precursores hematopoyéticos, como los RET, también presentan simultáneamente incrementos significativos en los parámetros hematológicos HEM, Hb y Hct, tras la exposición a IHE normobárica^{19,23,24} o hipobárica^{20,30-32}. Sin embargo, nuestros AE, muestran incrementos no significativos de HEM (1,41%), Hb (1,64%) y Hcto (2,60%). Las razones podrían derivarse del impacto de la práctica deportiva sobre los parámetros hematológicos que se han utilizado como indicadores de la salud y rendimiento (HEM, Hb y Hct), que varían en función del ejercicio físico a realizar, la intensidad, duración y también con el grado de entrenamiento de los ciclistas de élite³³ y atletas con un alto grado de entrenamiento³⁴. Por tanto, son las altas cargas de trabajo derivadas del entrenamiento o competición y las fuertes tensiones psicofísicas de los atletas y ciclistas, las que dan lugar a descensos en las variables hematológicas que además pueden quedar por debajo del límite inferior de los rangos fisiológicos establecidos^{35,36}. Además, solamente se revierten con el cese de la actividad física³³. En esta línea están Villa *et al.*, donde a pesar de reportar incrementos significativos de EPO, no observan modificaciones en HEM, Hb o Hct en el grupo expuesto a IHE, pero si comprueban un descenso de estas variables en el grupo control sin exposición a IHE, lo que interpretan como consecuencia de los esfuerzos físicos realizados durante su estudio; desarrollado en la prueba ciclista profesional de la "Vuelta España"³. Con estas premisas se podría afirmar que la IHE, tendría un papel protector antes las cargas del entrenamiento o competición (están aumentadas en este periodo precompetitivo en nuestros AE), y que evitan el descenso de los marcadores sanguíneos (incluso las aumentan en nuestro estudio) ocasionadas por las altas exigencias físicas del deporte de élite, que acabarían derivando en sobre-entrenamiento de los deportistas y por tanto en un descenso acusado del rendimiento deportivo.

La FER es la principal proteína almacenadora de hierro y que por lo tanto influye en la efectividad del proceso de la eritropoyesis. Al igual que sucede con los anteriores parámetros sanguíneos que hemos estudiado, existe una diversidad de resultados en función del protocolo utilizado de IHE²⁹. Se ha observado en este estudio en jugadores de rugby, un incremento no significativo de 8,4% en la FER, en la línea de lo reportado por Hinckson *et al.* que observan un incremento del 10,5% en la concentración de esta proteína³⁷.

El logro de adaptaciones hematológicas en el organismo asociadas a un incremento de rendimiento deportivo es el objetivo principal de la aplicación de IHE. La respuesta mediada por un incremento de la secreción de EPO que estimula la eritropoyesis y mejora la capacidad de transporte de oxígeno en la sangre, creemos que la hemos cumplido en este estudio. Porque en todas las pruebas realizadas, aunque puedan parecer modestos porcentajes entre un 2-3%, los atletas mejoran sus marcas previas, tras el entrenamiento combinado con exposición a IHE durante 4 semanas. En los AE que utilizan la estrategia "Vivir arriba y entrenar abajo", podría facilitar una mejora de las marcas de entre un 0,8-1 % en competiciones cuya duración se encuentre entre los 45 segundos y 4 minutos. Aunque esta mejora parezca exigua no es

irrelevante. Por ejemplo, una mejora de la marca de entre un 0,4-0,7 % significa aumentar las posibilidades de ganar una prueba internacional de 1.500 metros en atletismo entre un 10 y un 20 %³⁸.

Los resultados de las investigaciones acerca de la efectividad de los programas de IHE sobre el tiempo de prueba son diversos. Nuestros resultados presentan similitud con estudios que utilizan programas de IHE normobárica con un FIO_2 entre 10-13% y que encuentran mejoras de entre el 1,5 % y el 3% en el tiempo de prueba^{6,23,39,40}. Estas mejoras son reafirmadas e incluso incrementadas por otros trabajos que observan un aumento que varía del 1,7 al 8%¹⁰. Sin embargo, también hay estudios que no muestran mejoras en el tiempo de prueba al utilizar IHE normobárica^{25,27,29}.

El fundamento de la mejora en las pruebas de velocidad (60 metros) y de evaluación de potencia anaeróbica (400 metros), podría estar relacionada con la mayor capacidad soportar lactato, es decir, se estimula la capacidad muscular de taponamiento tras la exposición a IHE^{41,42}. Además, el transporte de lactato está relacionado con el aumento en el contenido de los transportadores MCT1 Y MCT4, efecto que se produce tras la aclimatación a los fenómenos de hipoxia, lo que permite un mejor intercambio de lactato y una mayor eliminación y, en consecuencia, una disminución del pH más lento al realizar ejercicio amortiguando el estado de acidosis⁴³ y lo que produce un efecto directo en la mejora del rendimiento.

Cuando analizados el rendimiento aeróbico, mediante CsO_2max y la prueba de 1.000 metros, observamos porcentajes más altos en la mejora que en el rendimiento anaeróbico. Tal vez, el aumento observado tanto de Hb y Hct podría permitir una mayor entrega de O_2 y su absorción muscular generando una mejora de CsO_2max ⁴⁴. En este sentido, el CsO_2max depende de tres sistemas respiratorio, cardiaco y muscular. Los dos primeros son factores centrales como la capacidad de transportar O_2 y la producción cardiaca, mientras que el último es un factor periférico como la utilización de O_2 por parte del músculo⁴⁵. El organismo se defiende de la falta de O_2 respirando más aire, es decir, aumentando la frecuencia ventilatoria, así como el volumen inspirado. Al aumentar el volumen del aire que entra en los pulmones por unidad de tiempo se facilita la eliminación de CO_2 , y con ello mejora la presión parcial de oxígeno alveolar por lo que el oxígeno se difunde con mayor facilidad a la sangre y, en consecuencia, la presión parcial de oxígeno disuelta en la sangre arterial (PaO_2) es mayor. En situaciones de hipoxia se estimula la actividad simpático-adrenal dando como resultado un aumento de la frecuencia cardiaca (FC). Como consecuencia de ello aumenta el gasto cardíaco, haciendo que el corazón bombee un mayor volumen de sangre por unidad de tiempo⁴⁶.

Otra posible explicación de las mejoras aeróbicas podría ser por las adaptaciones logradas por IHE como son el aumento de la densidad y longitud de los capilares, incremento de la densidad o de la actividad oxidativa mitocondrial y la sobreexpresión del factor inducible a la hipoxia (HIF-1 α)⁴⁷. La capacidad de generar más potencia para un determinado CsO_2max , o la capacidad de utilizar menos O_2 para realizar una potencia específica podría ser debida a la eficiencia mecánica. Esta se define en términos de coste de O_2 para la realización de un ejercicio. Se producen mejoras de entre el 3-10 % en la economía del ejercicio con el entrenamiento en altura. Esto produce un menor coste de la ventilación, por el uso prioritario de los hidratos de carbono para la fosforilación y

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POSTGRADOS OFICIALES: SALUD Y DEPORTE

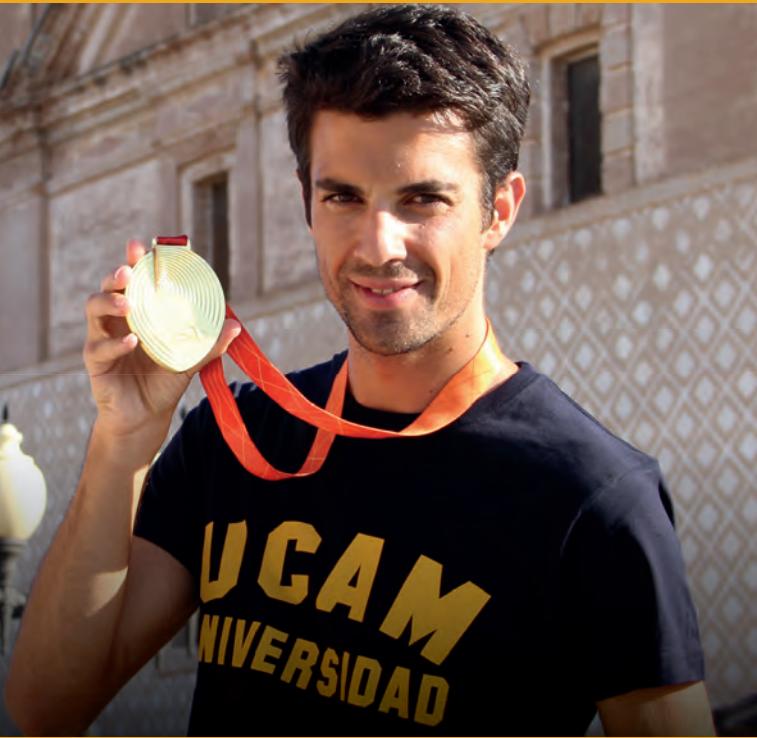


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Accidental doping. Prevention strategies

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Summary

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There is growing consumption of nutritional supplements aimed at improving performance because the number of athletes, mainly amateurs, is growing very significantly.

This great demand supposes a market of huge proportions, supposing an economic activity that in Spain reached 920 million Euros in the year 2018.

This consumption occurs at all levels of sport, from 13% in global numbers, to 100% in some groups of professional sportsmen and women.

However, the use of these substances in very few circumstances is done under the advice of a professional, and the athlete takes them on their own. This fact, with the possibility that the product to be taken may contain prohibited substances that do not appear on the labeling, means that an adverse analytical finding can occur in a doping control through so-called accidental doping, which is the use of adulterated or contaminated nutritional supplements containing substances prohibited in sport that have not been declared on the labeling.

Between 11.6% and 25.8% of nutritional supplements contaminated with anabolic androgenic steroids have been found to exist.

This paper describes the various causes of accidental doping, the substances most frequently used, paying particular attention to the ways of preventing this type of doping based on information and education, product certification and information, the form of prescription, criteria for use and safety of the origin of the products, and precautions followed in case of consumption.

Key words:

Doping. Accidental doping.
Amateur sport. Recreational sport.
Prevention.

Dopaje accidental. Estrategias de prevención

Resumen

Hay un consumo creciente de suplementos nutricionales destinados a mejorar el rendimiento porque el número de deportistas, fundamentalmente aficionados, está creciendo de forma muy importante.

Esta gran demanda supone un mercado de proporciones gigantescas, suponiendo una actividad económica que en España alcanzó los 920 millones de euros en el año 2018.

Este consumo se produce en todos los niveles deportivos, desde el 13 % en cifras globales, hasta el 100 % en algunos grupos de deportistas profesionales.

Sin embargo, el uso de estas sustancias en muy pocas circunstancias se realiza bajo al asesoramiento de un profesional y el deportista los toma por su cuenta. Este hecho, junto a la posibilidad de que el producto que se vaya a tomar pueda contener sustancias prohibidas que no figuran en el etiquetado supone que se pueda producir un hallazgo analítico adverso en un control de dopaje a través del denominado dopaje accidental que consiste en el que se produce por consumir suplementos nutricionales adulterados o contaminados que contienen sustancias prohibidas en el deporte que no se han declarado en el etiquetado. Se ha comprobado que existe entre el 11,6 y el 25,8% de suplementos nutricionales contaminados con esteroides androgénicos anabolizantes.

En este trabajo se describen las diversas causas de dopaje accidental, las sustancias más frecuentemente utilizadas prestando una especial atención a las formas de prevención de este tipo de dopaje que se basan en la información y educación, en la certificación e información de los productos, en la forma de prescripción, en los criterios de uso y seguridad del origen de los productos y en las precauciones que se deben tomar en caso de consumirlos.

Palabras clave:

Dopaje. Dopaje accidental.
Deporte aficionado.
Deporte recreacional. Prevención.

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Introduction

An increasing number of citizens engage in recreational sports activities, while federated competitive sport shows an increasing trend of 28% from 3,000,000 to 3,850,000 federated licenses between the years 2000-2018¹. The most practiced as free time sports are cycling, swimming, running and hiking/mountaineering. Despite the recreational nature of these activities, many practitioners invest many hours of dedication and show a high sense of competition². These athletes often use a variety of strategies to improve performance, to recover from exertion and to reduce fatigue, including the use of nutritional supplements³⁻⁸. These supplements are defined by the term "ergogenic aids".

Ergogenic aids are very varied and their consumption depends on a variety of factors, including the type of sport, sex, and age of the athlete, with the simultaneous consumption of several of them being very common. The most commonly used are vitamins, minerals, proteins, creatine, carnitine, caffeine and sports drinks^{6,9,10}. The market of nutritional supplements has acquired a very important development, assuming at world level an economic activity of hundred twenty-seven thousand sixty thousand million dollars in the year 2016 according to the Association of Dietetics and Food Supplements Companies (AFEPADI)¹¹ and 920 million in Spain, according to the survey of the Organization of Consumers and Users (OCU), January 2018¹², with a prevalence of very high consumption in sport of all levels¹³⁻¹⁶, being 58% in North American athletes¹⁷ and 44-100% in professional athletes, all of which supposes a business of enormous magnitude¹⁸.

However, athletes rarely seek professional advice on the use of these substances⁹ and a third part resort to self-administration^{19,20}.

On one hand, there is a lack of certainty that the product actually contains the substance or dose intended to be used and, on the other hand, the possibility that the preparation contains substances not described on the label that could lead to an adverse analytical finding (AAF) in doping control. In addition, this practice poses a health risk.

But not only the intake of ergogenic aids contaminated with doping substances is a risk for the athlete but also accidental doping can reach them in many ways. Certain meats from some countries with lax legislation and implementation of preventive policies may be contaminated with doping products and end up producing an AAF.

It is possible to take a drug with a perfectly normal medical prescription and engage in accidental doping. Substances on the Prohibited List may be consumed by an ill athlete, but a therapeutic use authorization (TUA) must first be applied for and granted by a therapeutic use authorization Committee (TUAC).

Passive taking and abuse of recreational-type substances can also cause a major problem by ingesting substances on the Prohibited List and producing an AAF.

Athletes who have been notified that they are in a monitoring group of an Anti-Doping Organization and therefore must be traced should also be considered. These athletes must be present at the time and place they have chosen to undergo out-of-competition doping control. Failure to do so several times may be considered an anti-doping rule violation and may result in a sanction.

It must be taken into account that there is a list of people (athletes and their environment) who are already suspended for doping and with

whom you can not collaborate (work, hire, train, etc...). Failure to do so could be considered an anti-doping rule violation.

Finally, it cannot be ruled out that, unconsciously (a spectator who passes a drink in good faith) or consciously (an enemy of any kind), may give a drink or food containing doping substances and an AAF may be produced.

This paper aims to describe what is called accidental doping, the ways in which it can occur and how to avoid it.

Accidental doping

Accidental doping is one of the unintentional forms of doping in which a prohibited substance is consumed by chance. It is basically the case of doping caused by the consumption of adulterated or contaminated nutritional supplements containing substances prohibited in a sport that has not been declared on the label.

Contaminated ergogenic aids

It is difficult to know the prevalence of nutritional supplement contamination. A meta-analysis that has investigated studies on this prevalence finds that, in studies conducted with a number of samples greater than 30 products in different countries, in the years 2001-2002, there were between 11.6 and 25.8% of nutritional supplements contaminated with anabolic androgenic steroids (AAS)²¹.

In addition, many of these products contain undeclared substances and their concentrations are also not as indicated on the labeling. Geyer *et al.*²², analyzed 634 nutritional supplements in 13 countries purchased in stores, on the Internet and by telephone from 215 manufacturing companies. Of the 634 samples analyzed, 94 (14.8%) contained prohormones not declared on the label. Thirty-two percent of all contaminated supplements contained nandrolone pro-hormones.

In some cases, especially dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA), concentrations below 0.01 µg/g could be detected. The amounts of AAS in the tested supplements were much lower than those found in commercially available pharmacological preparations containing at least 10,000 µg DHEA. These low concentrations found in some cases may be interpreted as not intended to improve performance and may be due to cross-contamination, but may lead to adverse analytical findings in doping controls.

Most of the contaminated products found in this study were sold in the United States and Germany, and most of the contaminated supplements were manufactured by companies located in the United States, although in most cases, the label did not clearly indicate where the supplement was produced.

There have been several findings of products contaminated by these substances²³⁻²⁷ and the supplements that are contaminated are shown in Table 1.

The presence of doping substances in nutritional supplements is mainly due to the following three circumstances:

- Deliberate presence of substances prohibited by doping. In other words, these substances appear clearly on the product label.
- Presence of doping prohibited substances that the manufacturer has deliberately included in the product without indicating it on the label.

Table 1. Examples of nutrition supplements that have been contaminated by doping substances (retrieved from De Hon & Coumans²⁸).

- Branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs)
- Carnitine
- Chrysine
- Conjugated linoleic acid (CLA)
- Creatine
- Glutamine
- Guarana
- Minerals
- Ornithine-alpha-ketoglutarate (OKG)
- Proteins
- Pyruvate
- Ribose
- Saw palmetto
- Tribulus terrestris
- Vitamins
- Zinc

– The presence of doping prohibited substances found in the product without the manufacturer's knowledge (although it is the manufacturer's responsibility not to do so) and, logically, are not indicated on the label. This may be due to inadvertent contamination in the manufacturing process or contamination of active ingredients at source.

Most accidental doping comes from contaminated nutritional supplements. A nutritional supplement²⁹ is a product taken orally that contains a "dietary ingredient" intended to supplement the diet. Dietary ingredients" are vitamins, minerals, botanicals, amino acids and substances such as enzymes, organic tissues, glandulars, and metabolites.

Nutritional supplements may be extracts or concentrate in the form of tablets, capsules, gel capsules, gelatine capsules, liquids, powders or bars. They lack the safety requirements that are demanded for medicines and/or pharmaceutical products and, in them, the manufacturer does not have to demonstrate the efficacy and safety of the product, although it cannot advertise that they are products for diagnosis, cure, relief, treatment or prevention of diseases.

It should be noted that most supplements provide neither performance improvement nor health benefit, and many can be harmful. Some supplements contain excessive doses of potentially hazardous ingredients, while others do not contain significant amounts of the ingredients listed on the label. Some of the apparently legitimate nutritional supplements on sale contain ingredients that are not declared on the label but are prohibited by doping regulations.

Contaminants that have been identified include a variety of anabolic androgenic steroids (including testosterone and nandrolone, as well as the prohormones of these compounds) and ephedrine³⁰. Stimulants and other substances have also been detected²⁸. Tables 2 and 3 show the majority of contaminants found since 2002.

Contaminations by anabolic agents other than steroids have recently been described as selective androgen receptor modulators (MRSA), e.g. andarin, LGD-4033, enobosarm (ostarin). These are principles with

Table 2. Steroids detected in nutritional supplements since 2002 (extracted from Geyer et al.^{21,28}).

- 17β-hydroxy-2α,17α -dimethyl-5α-androstan-3-one (methasterone)
- 17β -hydroxy-17α-methyl-5 α-androst-1-en-3-one (methyl-1-testosterone)
- 4-hydroxyandrost-4-ene-3,17-dione (formestane)
- 4,17 β-dihydroxyandrost-4-ene-3-one (4-hydroxytestosterone)
- 5α-androstan-3β,17α-diol
- Androst-4-ene-3β,17α -diol
- 5β-androst-1-ene-3β,17β-diol
- 5β-androst-1-ene-3α,17 β-diol
- 17β-hydroxy-5α-androstan-3-[2-c]-pyrazol (prostanozol)
- 6α-methylandrost-4-ene-3,17-dione (6α-methylandrostendione)
- 3β-hydroxy-5 β-androstan-17-one (epietiocholanolone)
- 17β-hydroxy-17α-methyl-5β-androstan-3-one (5β-mestanolone)
- 17α-methyl-5α-androst-2-en-17β-ol (desoxymethyltestosterone)
- 4-Chloro-17α-methylandrost-4-ene-3ε,17β-diol
- Androst-4-ene-3,6,17-trione (6-oxo-androstendione)
- Androsta-1,4,6-trien-3,17-dione (androstatrienedione)
- 3β-hydroxyandrost-4-ene-7,17-dione (7-keto-dehydroepiandrosterone)
- 6ε-Bromandrost-4-ene-3,17-dione
- 17α-Methyl-5α-androstan-3α, 17β-diol
- 17β-Hydroxy-5α-androstan-3-[2-c]-isoxazol
- 17β-Hydroxy-5α-androstan-3-[2-d]-isoxazol
- Estra-4,9-diene-3,17-dione
- 19-Nor-4-androsten-3,17-diol
- 19-Nor-4-androsten-3,17-dion
- 19-Nor-5-androsten-3,17-diol
- 19-Nortestosterone (nandrolone)
- Methandienone
- Stanozolol
- Testosterone

Table 3. Stimulants and other substances detected in nutritional supplements since 2002 (taken from De Hon et al.²⁸).

- Benzylpiperazine
- Caffeine (off the WADA doping list since 1 January 2004)
- Ephedrine
- Methylene dioxy methylamphetamine (MDMA or XTC)
- Nor-pseudo-ephedrine
- Sibutramine

powerful effects and it should be taken into account that these substances are mostly in clinical or pre-clinical study phases, and they are not approved for human use and some of them are directly discarded for that use. They are highly dangerous for health.

In sports or activities where it is necessary to increase muscle size or strength (strength, speed, power, combat and bodybuilding sports, among others) often resort to the use of nutritional supplements of protein origin. Many of these products are advertised offering an enormous development of muscle mass and strength, the result of new ingredients and formulas that have not actually been approved, possibly non-existent, based on fantasy and ignorance of the user. The reality is that

analysis of many of these products shows that they contain endogenous or exogenous AAS in doses even supratherapeutic (more than 1 mg / g) and that they have not been declared on the label. As the manufacturers of these products also prepare other nutritional supplements on the same production line, the risk of cross-contamination with anabolic agents is very high. Such contaminations have been found in vitamin C, magnesium and multivitamin tablets containing small amounts of stanozolol and methandienone with the potential to produce an HAA³¹.

Since the early 2000s, designer steroid supplements can be found that are not in any medication or on the lists of banned substances. They were synthesized in the 1960s and did not go through the animal research phase because of their anabolic and androgenic effects. Turinabol, protagonist of the recent doping scandal organized in Russia, and coming from the years of the cold war and doping in Eastern European countries, is worth mentioning. Currently they are only produced for the nutritional supplement market and they are advertised for their anabolic capabilities or as aromatase inhibitors. Their effects on performance and side effects are unknown. In most cases, the labelling of these products contains unapproved and suggestive names and more than 40 designer steroids have been detected³¹.

Dehydroepiandrosterone (prasterone, DHEA), androstenedione, androstanediol and similar latestosterone precursors are widely accepted by athletes who want to increase muscle mass and strength and, at least in the United States of America, are legally sold products, although leastways androstenedione and other steroids require a prescription³². However, they are widely used³³.

However, it should keep in mind that in Spain the crime of Doping is described in the Penal Code. Article 362 quinque states that those who, without therapeutic justification, prescribe, provide, dispense, supply, administer, offer or facilitate non-competitive federated sportsmen and sportswomen, non-federated sportsmen and sportswomen who practice sport for recreation, or sportswomen and sportswomen who participate in competitions organized in Spain by prohibited sports entities, substances or pharmacological groups, as well as non-regulatory methods, aimed at increasing their physical abilities or modifying the results of competitions, which due to their content, repetition of intake or other concurrent circumstances, endanger the life or health thereof, will be punished with prison sentences of six months to two years, a fine of six to eighteen months and special disqualification for employment or public office, profession or trade, for two to five years.

In addition, this article explicitly states that special penalties will be imposed when the crime is committed in the event of any of the following circumstances:

- The victim is under-age (minor)
- Deception or intimidation used.
- That the person in charge has prevalidated a relationship of work or professional superiority.

Nutritional supplements adulterated with clenbuterol have also been detected, which are advertised for their weight loss effects as a fat burning effect, specifically a product with a therapeutic dose of 30 micrograms per tablet³⁴ and another with a supratherapeutic dose, 100 times higher than the therapeutic dose (2 mg / capsule), without being declared on the label, with the consequent health risk posed by its consumption³¹.

One study collected the analysis of 19 such products confiscated or purchased on the Internet³⁵ that were mostly advertised as erythropoietic products or oxygen transport and utilization boosters, and which declared on the label that they contained "cyanocobalamin". However, the analysis revealed the presence of nickel in one product and cobalt in another 11 products (cobalt was only declared on the labeling of two of these products). Cobalt is included in the list of banned substances as a hypoxia-inducible factor-activating agent (HIF) and has various side effects such as nausea, vomiting, hypothyroidism, goitre and heart failure^{36,37}. Nickel is not on the list of prohibited substances, but it has side effects such as contact dermatitis and can cause respiratory tract cancer³⁸.

In other research on black market products conducted in Germany³⁹, among other substances, clandestine products related to an increase in erythropoiesis were found, not stated on the label. Specifically they were EPO, (recombinant erythropoietin), hGH (recombinant human growth hormone), CJC-1295, GHRP-2 (pralmorelin), GHRP-6 and ipamorelin which are secretagogues, releasing hormones and growth hormone releasing peptides. Large quantities of anabolic agents and other banned and very dangerous substances such as fibroblastic growth factor, chorionic gonadotrophin, insulin, AICAR (a metabolic modulator) and tamoxifen (an estrogen receptor modulator or SERM) were also found. Another important problem is the contamination of ergogenic aids with stimulants, which would be used as "fat burners" to reduce weight, to improve mood or directly as stimulants before exercise. These contaminated supplements usually contain mainly ephedrine and analogues, sibutramine, methylhexaneamine and methylenedioxymethamphetamine^{21,24,30,32,40}.

These products are presented in the market in an attractive way, attributing to them an extraordinary power of elimination of body fat, with capacity to suppress appetite, stimulation of the central nervous system and as hormonal boosters of testosterone.

They are presented as amino acids and herbal extracts, designed with a cutting edge formula. Many times pictures of health and medical professionals are used to give them credibility and show certificates of authenticity that are totally false.

Stimulants are on the list of banned substances and cause AAF when detected in doping controls performed in a sport competition.

There are many products that contain these substances and the risk of AAF is due to:

1. Using generic names on labelling. In the case of ephedrine-containing supplements, natural sources of ephedrine such as Ma Huang or ephedra sinica are frequently mentioned on the label instead of the names of the active ingredients (ephedrine, pseudoephedrine, methylephedrine, etc.). In the case of sibutramine-enriched supplements, the ingredient is not showed on the label and the consumer is only provided with information that the product contains 'pure herbal ingredients' that have considerable weight-loss capabilities. Sibutramine can be found in therapeutic or even supratherapeutic doses in capsules, powders and slimming infusions^{41,42}. Sibutramine is a synthetic anorexic, approved as a pharmaceutical preparation and available only by prescription. Due to its enormous side effects (risk of stroke and heart attack), the European Medicines Agency recommended in January 2010 that this drug be withdrawn from the market³².

2. Using substances that have several names and only one of them appears on the lists of banned substances. This is what happens with methylhexanamine, a stimulant included in the list of doping substances as a specific stimulant and which can cause AAF if detected in competition controls. This substance can be found on the labels of products containing it under numerous different names, such as dimethylamylamine, dimethylpentylamine, pentylamine, geranamine, forthane and 2-amino-4-methylhexane^{17,32}.

The list of prohibited substances only mentions the names dimethylphenylamine and methylhexanamine in the group of stimulants, which complicates the identification of the substance as a prohibited compound³².

In some supplements, geranium root extract or geranium oil is mentioned as a purported natural source of methylhexanamine. However, methylhexanamine has been shown not to be a natural ingredient of geranium oil⁴³, meaning that synthetic methylhexanamine must have been added. Despite warnings, many elite athletes have been adversely affected by HAA in competition.

Food Contamination

Until the 1990s, cases of intoxication by meat products, mostly beef liver, by clenbuterol were not uncommon.

Clenbuterol is a type of beta-2 agonist, which in the list of prohibited substances is listed in the group of "other anabolic agents" because its stimulating effect on protein synthesis. This is especially noticeable in striated muscle as a consequence of the superior effects of this drug respect to the other of the same group of drugs. These effects are mainly used to increase muscle weight in cattle before slaughter.

This substance causes symptoms after 30 minutes to 6 hours of ingestion consisting of palpitations, tachycardia, agitation, nervousness, tremors, myalgia and headache^{44,45}. Cases of massive intoxications have been described in restaurants, family parties, etc. Today veterinary inspections in advanced countries have tried to solve this problem, but the World Anti-Doping Agency still admits its presence and possible food contamination in China, Guatemala and Mexico.

In the years 2000, and in the sports perspective, clenbuterol acquired a great notoriety for a AAF from a famous cyclist who, as a justification, argued that its origin was from a beef steak, something he could not prove, so it was sanctioned.

In 2010, low amounts of clenbuterol were found in an entire team of non-athletes returning from that country, and clenbuterol was found in 22 (79%) of the samples analyzed⁴⁶.

In 2011 the Mexican national soccer team had 5 AAFs per clenbuterol in out-of-competition controls. Given the high number of AAFs, FIFA conducted an investigation into potential food contamination as Mexico was to host the 2011 U-17 World Cup. A total of 208 doping controls were carried out and 47 meat samples were analysed in team hotels during the tournament period. In 14 of the 47 meat samples (30%), clenbuterol was detected at concentrations between 0.06 and 11 mg/kg and, during the competition, 109 urine samples from the doping controls (52%) detected the substance at concentrations of 1-1556 pg/ml. Only 5 of the 24 teams had urine samples without clenbuterol. At least one of these teams followed a strict "meatless" diet

(due to knowledge of clenbuterol contamination in Mexico). Extensive evidence showed that meat contamination was the most predictable reason for the extraordinarily high prevalence of findings and no player was sanctioned⁴⁷.

In May 2019 the World Anti-Doping Agency published rules for Anti-Doping Laboratories and Anti-Doping Organisations on how to investigate cases of urine analysis in clenbuterol concentrations. Now it is necessary to analyze possible previous cases in China, Guatemala or Mexico, to prevent the application of potentially unfair sanctions⁴⁸.

A substance with similar characteristics to clenbuterol is zearalenone⁴⁹, a mycotoxin found in fungi used in American pastures (Mexico, Argentina and other countries in the area) and which presents the risk of AAF from metabolites of zearanol⁵⁰. It is a natural non-hormonal anabolic obtained from the corn fungus (gibberelazae) and is a catabolic inhibitor that induces anabolic metabolism in cattle, which causes increased muscle mass. In calves and steers it induces muscle weight gains of between 6.5 and 35 kg.

On the other hand, although the use of any hormonal product to increase growth in animal production is prohibited in the European Union, no AAF attributed to the presence of hormones in animal products has been described. It should be taken into consideration that in the USA it is legal to use six hormones or hormone derivatives in cattle farming (17 beta-estradiol, testosterone, progesterone, trenbolone, zearanol and melengestrol acetate) and another one for the pork (ractopamine)⁵¹.

There is one case of AED contamination detected by an atypical steroid profile in which, at the Women's World Cup in Germany in 2011, five players from one team had AED to AED, with enormous amounts of 16 endogenous AEDs listed on the banned substances list. The source of the contamination was considered to be extracts of musk deer meat, used by the team with the aim of improving "mental strength" without knowing that their consumption could cause AAF⁵².

Passive doping by Inhalation

Cannabinoids (natural and synthetic, except cannabidiol) are included in doping lists and may cause AAF if detected in competition. Passive inhalation of these substances would be an accidental form of doping which, from 2013, is to be avoided by setting the THC detection threshold at 150 ng/ml.

The use of cannabis in food preparation is a growing practice that includes a large number of products such as home-made foods (biscuits, cakes, macaroni...), hemp oil and hemp seed products, tea and commercialized foods (chocolate, lollipops, chewing gum, salt...). In addition, it has been argued that some AAF to tetrahydrocannabinol could be consequence of the ingestion of foods that contained marijuana without realising, in what has been denominated passive ingestion⁵³.

Since the ingestion of edible products containing tetrahydrocannabinol causes its presence in urine samples^{54,55}, the athlete must take into account this circumstance.

Finally, it should be remembered that in Spain there is an approved pharmacological preparation (Sativex-Almirall) whose active ingredient is delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol/cannabidiol, whose only indication is the treatment for the improvement of symptoms in adult patients with

moderate or severe spasticity due to multiple sclerosis (MS) who have not responded adequately to other anti-spasticity drugs⁵⁶. This use requires therapeutic use authorisation (TUE).

Intentional contamination by rival

There are athletes willing to do anything to achieve their goals, so some resort to doping. But there have been some cases in which the athlete or the athlete's environment has administered substances to the rival without notifying him, in some cases substances included in the doping lists, which have caused HAA. We want to highlight some cases in football.

The best known took place in the Round of 16 of the 1990 World Championship in Italy when Argentina eliminated Brazil with a Caniggia goal. Branco, a player from Brazil, continues to accuse Argentina of giving Brazilians "water poisoned with narcotics," specifically Rohypnol (flunitrazepam). The player, after drinking water provided by the assistance of the Argentine team, felt bad and, when reproaching the Argentine coach, he said Branco in football anything goes. Apparently, with the game stopped, the Argentine coach and masseur offered the Brazilian players bottles of water with a substance that produced drowsiness. This event was confirmed by Maradona himself^{57,58}.

The other case concerned the administration of Haldol (haloperidol) injected into the bottles drunk by players from Paris Saint Germain by Marc Fratani, a member of Olympique de Marseille⁵⁹.

In the pre-Olympic classification of female field hockey in 2008 in Baku (Azerbaijan) HAA by derivatives of the ecstasy family were detected in two Spanish players. The Spanish team thought they had been intoxicated because they had sudden blackouts from their international players in the night before the final against the hosts. Intentional intoxication was demonstrated by the championship organization and neither the players nor the team was sanctioned⁶⁰.

Another case is that of a Japanese canoeist who sabotaged a rival by putting a forbidden substance in his bottle so that he would be suspended and could not compete in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games and could go to fifth place for the Japanese selection of K4⁶¹.

Other cases of accidental doping

Three curious cases of accidental doping have been described. The first is a closet HAA that occurred in an athlete as a result of sexual intercourse with a woman taking an intravaginal medication containing clostebol⁶².

The second⁶³ corresponds to an American athlete who showed a probenecid AAF. The sportsman was exonerated because the sanctioning procedure ended admitting that the analytical finding was a consequence of the kisses that were given with his partner who was taking a medication that was transmitted to the sportsman.

The third corresponds to a French tennis player of the highest level who had a HAA to cocaine in 2009 the day he retired from the Miami Masters 1000 for a right shoulder injury, and was sanctioned with a year of suspension, punishment that appealed and that the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS) in Lausanne reduced to two and a half months. The court ruled that the sportsman ingested the cocaine for which he tested positive (1.46 micrograms) "unintentionally" by kissing a woman seven times⁶⁴.

Athletes who have been notified that they are on an Anti-Doping Organisation Monitoring Group and therefore must be traced should also be considered. These athletes must be at the time and place they have chosen to undergo out-of-competition doping control. Failure to do so several times may be considered an anti-doping rule violation.

It should be borne in mind that there is a list of people (athletes and their environment) who are already suspended for doping and with whom you can not collaborate (work, hire, train, etc ...). An inadvertent failure to ascertain this could be considered an anti-doping rule violation, in that case the athlete would receive a warning and if it persisted he could be sanctioned for doping.

Prevention strategies

By its very nature, accidental doping is avoidable and every effort should be made to prevent such cases of unintentional doping.

Prevention consists of several aspects such as publication of results, education of athletes and development of methods to differentiate between intentional and inadvertent doping³¹.

The prevention of accidental doping, focused on the consumption of nutritional supplements, is based on information and Table 4 describes the main methods of prevention.

Education and information

It is essential that the athlete and athlete support personnel have been trained and informed, preferably through a comprehensive anti-doping education program, to warn athletes not to take supplements that may contain prohibited substances and ways to learn about these aspects⁶⁵.

Product information and certification

The first step in preventing accidental doping is to obtain information about the substances contained in the product (food supplement) and to ensure that none are on the lists of substances prohibited by doping. The World Anti-Doping Agency (AMA-WADA) publishes this list every year (<https://www.wada-ama.org/en/content/what-is-prohibited>). If the substance in question is listed, it should not be used. In Spain, the list is published in the Official State Gazette and is also available on the website of the Spanish Agency for Health Protection in Sport (AEPSAD): <https://aeapsad.culturaydeporte.gob.es/Inicio.html>. There are computer applications that provide information about substances and medicines (<https://aeapsad.culturaydeporte.gob.es/Inicio/nodopapp-nodopweb.html>).

Table 4. Methods to prevent accidental doping.

- Education and information.
- Product information and certification.
- Product prescription.
- Criteria of risk of use and safety on the origin of the product.
- Precautions.

The World Anti-Doping Agency recommends not taking a product if you are unsure of its contents. Ignorance is never an excuse and the athlete will be responsible for the consequences of a positive test caused by a badly labelled supplement⁶⁶.

It is advisable to check on the various websites dedicated to the evaluation of the purity of supplements that the product purchased, with its corresponding batch, is free of prohibited substances. Examples of websites of interest are; informedsport, informedchoice (Informedsport. Global Sports Supplement Testing Program, <http://www.informed-sport.com/> Informed choice. Banned Substance Testing Service. <http://informedchoice.org/>). It is also necessary to verify that the products to acquire have some certification that guarantees the absence of doping products in its composition (<http://blog.aepsad.es/complementos-alimenticios/>).

The European Committee for Standardisation (CEN) is currently working on a project to harmonize the manufacturing methods of sports supplements in Europe, in order to ensure that they are free of doping substances⁶⁷.

Product prescription

Nutritional supplements should only be used if they have been prescribed by a doctor or recommended by health professionals, but if it is decided to use these products without advice, special attention should be paid to the rest of the recommendations in this section, considering, moreover, that nutritional supplements are not exempt from health risks and bearing in mind that the combination of substances, which is common in many sportsmen and women can modify the effects of each of the substances by boosting or attenuating them but, in any case, increasing the health risks.

If changes in performance related to the consumption of these substances are noted, the trainer/preparer should be consulted and if symptoms appear in relation to the consumption of these substances, the doctor should be consulted.

Criteria of risk of use and safety on the origin of the product

The purchase of nutritional supplements in unreliable contexts, such as the internet, sports facilities without sales authorization and private individuals, should be avoided. Similarly, products that are advertised with extreme claims of muscle growth, strength gain, and weight loss have an enormous risk of containing prohibited substances⁶⁸.

The purchase of nutritional supplements should be avoided if the packaging does not specify components and doses and does not indicate an objectifiable tax domicile²².

Products that use generic names on the label are at risk. In the case of ephedrine-containing supplements, natural sources of ephedrine such as Ma Huang or ephedra sinica are frequently mentioned on the label instead of the names of the active ingredients (ephedrine, pseudoephedrine, methylephedrine, etc.). In the case of sibutramine-enriched supplements, the ingredient is not declared on the label and the consumer is only provided with the information that the product contains "pure herbal ingredients"³².

Precautions

It is recommended to keep the purchase receipt of the product, together with a package of the sealed product and the same lot, of which you are going to consume. In this way, if an adverse analytical finding were to appear, it would be possible to verify the legal purchase and that the product consumed contained the substance or substances not indicated on the labeling, provided that it is sealed. These measures, in the event of an adverse anti-doping result being determined by the doping control, may result in a reduction of the sanction.

However, there is no absolute certainty that with all the precautions indicated there is no product that could be contaminated with substances prohibited by doping.

Conflict of interest

The authors do not declare a conflict of interest.

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Body composition characteristics of handball players: systematic review

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Background: Handball play is complex and multifactorial, characterized by high-intensity explosive movements. Due to the high physical demands of handball, players require highly developed anthropometric and physical qualities. The evaluation of body composition (BC) is a key issue, especially the body content of fat and skeletal muscle.

Purpose: The aim of this systematic review is to determine the anthropometric and BC characteristics of handball players according to different characteristics such as age categories, playing position and gender.

Search strategy: The search for articles for this study was carried out in three different databases, PubMed, SPORTDiscus (EBSCO) and Web of Science.

Study selection: The inclusion criteria were; Studies recruiting male and female handball players at any age category and competitive level as participants, original investigations that present and compare anthropometric characteristics between handball players of different gender, competitive levels, playing positions, and/or age categories, and articles that present anthropometric characteristics as body weight, height, % fat mass, % muscle mass or % lean body mass, skinfolds and somatotype.

Results: 486 articles were identified after the searching process, 38 articles were selected and assessed for eligibility. This review presents the anthropometric characteristic of handball players, males and females of all ages. Height, body mass, BMI, fat mass, muscle mass, lean body mass and sum of skinfolds are presented and differentiate between gender, age and playing position. **Conclusions:** This review provides a framework to help professionals effectively prepare players for the physiological demands of handball. Although the results are not very homogeneous, since elite athletes have better characteristics, the goal of every handball player would be to present similar results and by coaches evaluate players accordingly. But due to the limitations detected in the reviewed studies it is suggested that future research should adopt a longitudinal and multidimensional perspective.

Key words:

Body composition. Handball.
Anthropometry. DXA.
Bioimpedance.

Resumen

Antecedentes: El balonmano es un deporte complejo y multifactorial caracterizado por movimientos explosivos de alta intensidad. Debido a las altas exigencias físicas que se presentan, los jugadores requieren cualidades antropométricas y físicas específicas. Evaluar la composición corporal (CC) es esencial, principalmente el contenido de grasa y de masa muscular.

Objetivo: El objetivo de esta revisión sistemática es determinar las características antropométricas y CC de los jugadores de balonmano según edad, posición de juego y sexo.

Estrategia de búsqueda: La búsqueda se realizó en tres bases de datos diferentes: PubMed, SPORTDiscus (EBSCO) y Web of Science.

Selección de estudios: Los criterios de inclusión fueron; estudios que reclutan a jugadores y jugadoras de balonmano de cualquier categoría de edad y nivel competitivo, estudios que presentan y comparan características antropométricas entre jugadores de balonmano de diferentes géneros, niveles competitivos, posiciones de juego y/o categorías de edad, y artículos que presentan características antropométricas como el peso corporal, la altura, el porcentaje de masa grasa, el porcentaje de masa muscular, los pliegues cutáneos y el somatotipo.

Resultados: La búsqueda inicial fue de 488 artículos, tras la selección, eliminación de duplicados, y evaluación de los criterios de inclusión y exclusión, se evaluaron 38. Se presentan características antropométricas de los jugadores y jugadoras de balonmano de todas las edades; altura, masa corporal, IMC, masa grasa, masa muscular, masa corporal magra y suma de pliegues cutáneos según sexo, edad y posición de juego.

Conclusiones: La presente revisión proporciona un marco para ayudar a los profesionales a preparar de forma eficaz a sus jugadores. Aunque los resultados no son muy homogéneos, el objetivo de todo jugador de balonmano sería presentar resultados similares a los de élite. Debido a las limitaciones detectadas en los estudios revisados, se sugiere que las investigaciones futuras adopten una perspectiva longitudinal y multidimensional.

Palabras clave:

Composición corporal. Balonmano.
Antropometría. DEXA. Bioimpedancia.

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Introduction

Handball is an Olympic sports ball game that is characterized by a defensive action and a fast paced offensive action during the game with the aim of scoring goals¹. Handball made its Olympic debut at the XI Olympic games in Berlin, 1936, but this was a grass version with 11 players. The sport was then not included on the program, and it reappeared in its indoor version with seven players at the XX Olympic games in Munich, 1972². Nowadays all clubs and federations are listed by the International Handball Federation (IHF), which regulates the rules of handball at a competitive level, and periodically holds competitions and events.

In handball there are five well differentiated playing positions: 1) goalkeeper: in control of stopping the ball; he may not leave the six-meter area with the ball in his hand, but may touch it outside the area if it is passed by a teammate; 2) central: the axis of the team and the extension of the coach on the field; he is the one who commands in attack and defense, marks the plays, places the players and indicates where the static attacks should start from; 3) wing: are those who break the closed defenses from the goal area and assist, on most occasions, to the ends; 4) pivot: is responsible for getting into the defensive wall and open holes where possible, and 5) back: are those who begin the moves of static attack, moving the defense and throwing to goal, if there is space³.

To score goals, offensive players (6 players and a goalkeeper) try to establish an optimal position for the throwing player through fast moves over short distances by making powerful changes in direction (with and without the ball)⁴, individual action against defensive players and passing the ball using different offensive tactics.

Describing team handball play, especially to determine the factors influencing performance, is difficult because team handball play is complex and multifactorial, characterized by high-intensity explosive movements. Handball team must coordinate well their movements to run, jump, push, change direction and specific movements of team handball to pass, catch, throw, control and block. The intensities during play always change between standing and walking, jogging and running moderately, running and advancing fast, sideways and backwards^{5,6}, therefore a high specific level of endurance is important to maintain a high level of play throughout the game, in concrete two parts of 30 minutes each.

However, considering the intermittent nature of handball, it has been stated that performance is associated with the ability to produce high power in short time periods (anaerobic power) and the ability to recover between such high-intensity activities (aerobic power)⁶. For that, due to the high physical demands of handball, players require highly developed anthropometric and physical qualities (linear speed, change-of-direction speed, aerobic capacity, muscular strength and power) to succeed⁷.

The profiling of players can be a valuable tool when identifying talent, determining strengths and weaknesses, assigning playing positions, and optimizing the design of strength and conditioning training programs^{1,4,8}. Thus, the evaluation of body composition (BC) is a key issue in sports science as well as sports practice with special reference

to the body content of fat and skeletal muscle⁹. Previous research has indicated that certain physical characteristics are related to high level handball performance^{10,11}. A high body mass and stature is commonplace among players¹¹. Granados *et al.*¹² showed that the higher values of fat free mass resulted in a higher performance, especially because of the increase in the muscular power and strength. There are findings that also indicate relatively heterogeneous physical characteristics across all player positions in the team^{10,11}.

Examination anthropometric profiles could have great importance for optimal construction of training regimens to improve handball performance. Therefore, the collation of existing research to provide a clear understanding of the importance and development of physical qualities for handball players would be beneficial for research and practice. For this reason, the purpose of this review was to 1- present the anthropometric qualities of handball players by gender; and 2 - critically appraise the literature surrounding body composition using different methods, drawing information based on population characteristics (age, playing positions or performance level).

Methods

Search strategy

The present systematic review was conducted according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analysis (PRISMA) guidelines¹³. Database searches were performed independently by three authors (AM, MM and MH). The reviewed articles were selected from an extensive search process including major computerized databases: PubMed (all database) SPORTDiscus (EBSCO) and Web of Science (all database), since their inception until now. Search strategy was developed to identify all relevant studies assessing the BC on handball athletes and it was: "handball" AND ("body composition" or "DXA" or "DEXA" or "Anthropometry" or "Impedance"). The review was registered in the prospective international register of systematic reviews; PROSPERO.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The inclusion criteria was according to the Population/Intervention/Comparison/Outcome(s) (PICO) criteria: a) Studies recruiting male and female handball players at any age category and competitive level as participants (population), b) original investigations that presents anthropometric characteristics between handball players of different gender, competitive levels, playing positions, and/or age categories (intervention), c) articles comparing anthropometric characteristics between handball players of different gender, competitive levels, playing positions, and/or age categories (comparison) and d) articles that present anthropometric characteristics as body weight, height, % fat mass, % muscle mass, skinfolds and somatotype (outcomes).

The exclusion criteria included: a) comments, opinions, and commentaries, interviews, letters to the editor, editorials, posters, conference abstracts, book chapters, and books; b) studies not present anthropometric characteristics of handball players of different gender, competitive levels, playing positions and/or age categories; c) studies which present players with diseases or injuries and d) lacking quanti-

tative information and details. Articles with these characteristics were not included in the review.

Data collection and analysis

A critical review of the papers was done to confirm the validity of the studies and to verify that they answered the research question, that design and sample were correct and if there were variables, or characteristics that could influence the interpretations and conclusions. The purpose was to collect the most relevant information from each included article. Three reviewers (AM, MM and MH) independently extracted data from included studies. The following variables were abstracted into a preformatted spreadsheet: authors, year of publication, characteristics of study participants (n, age, years, category), anthropometric variables (height, body mass, BMI, % fat mass, % lean body mass) and results.

Risk of bias across studies

To assess the methodological quality, the main tools were used according to the type of study¹⁴. Articles included in this review are cross-sectional studies, the scale used was ARHQ Methodology Checklist. Data extraction, quality assessment and risk of bias were performed independently and in duplicate by two investigators.

Results

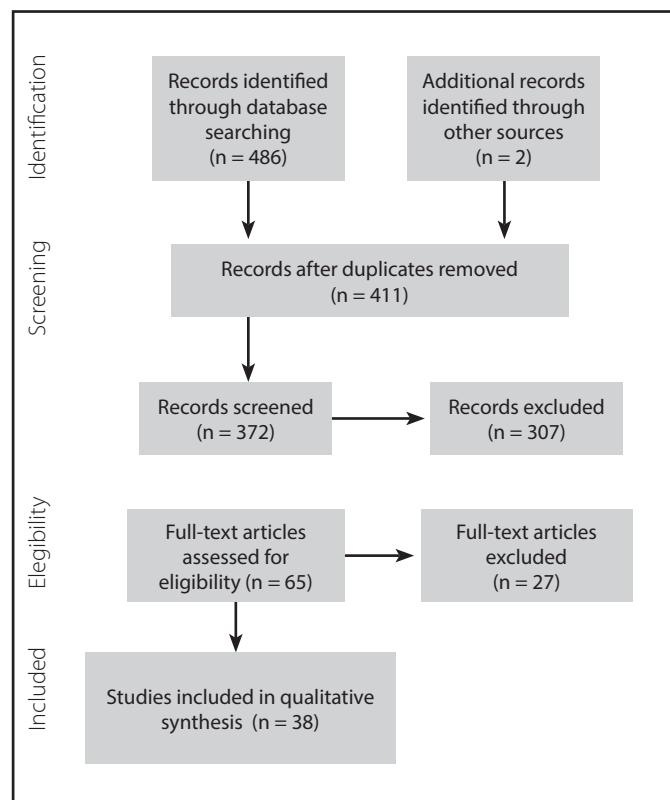
The search strategies yielded a preliminary pool of 486 possible papers. The full text of 65 articles were retrieved and assessed for eligibility according to the inclusion criteria. After a careful review of their full texts 27 articles were excluded and the remaining 38 articles were eligible for inclusion in the review (Figure 1). Particularly, 38 papers examined anthropometric profile of handball players according to their age categories^{12,16,17,23,26,28–30,40,42,51}, playing positions^{15,18,20–22,24,28,31,32,37,39,41,43–45,48}, gender^{15,38} or competitive levels^{12,23,47,49,51,25–27,30,34–36,46}. A number of the studies described the players body compartments using different formulas, however six studies used bioimpedance with TANITA^{37–42} and two used DXA^{50,51}. The results of Risk of bias have been showed at Figure 2.

Table 1 shows an overview of articles included in the qualitative synthesis, presents the sample size, nationality, playing position (if analyzed), category, genus of the sample, age, height (cm), weight (kg), BMI, sum of skin folds (mm) (if there has been measurement of skin folds that allow it), fat mass (%), muscle mass (%), bone mass (%) and free fat mass (kg) of male players who were measured BC with anthropometry. Table 2 presents the same data described above but for male players who were measured BC with anthropometry and DXA or bioimpedance or only with DXA or bioimpedance. Table 3 presents the same data as described above but for female players who were measured for BC by anthropometry. Table 4 presents the same data described above but of female players who were measured BC with anthropometry and DXA or bioimpedance or only with DXA or bioimpedance.

Nationality

Most of the studies performed on handball players were made in Spanish^{12,17,19,37,41,44,47,49}, in both females and males. In the case of

Figure 1. PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta Analyses) Flow diagram of the study selection process.



men, the second most repeated nationality among the studies is Serbian^{24,27,30,34,39,40} followed by Portuguese^{23,26,27}. Four of the studies were performed on players of different nationalities^{18,32,36,51}, but all of them Caucasian race. Only two studies did not specify the nationality of the players^{15,46}.

Elite team

Data on the anthropometric characteristics of elite handball players provides specific information that can help lead players to the most appropriate game⁴⁵. In addition, coaches and researchers may be able to use this data in the talent selection process. Analyzing the type of sample chosen by the different studies, a total of 32 of the studies present elite/professional players in their sample, namely 21 studies of male players and 11 of female players.

Body composition

The basic anthropometric variables analyzed in female players under 18 years of age present an average height (cm) of 167.53 ± 5.63 , a weight (kg) of 60.56 ± 7.90 and a BMI of 21.58. For the general variables in female players over 18 years of age, they present an average height (cm) of 170.59 ± 6.33 ; weight (kg) of 66.89 ± 8.78 and BMI of 23.18. Female goalkeepers had an average height (cm) of 173.77 ± 5.06 and a weight of 71.06 ± 8.70 (kg). The wings show an average height (cm) of

Table 4. Body composition characteristics of handball female players measured with anthropometry and DXA or bioimpedance or only with DXA or bioimpedance.

Reference, Year	Mean (n)	Nationality	Position (n)	Category (n)	Gender	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Body mass (kg)	BMI (m ² /kg)	Sum. of Skinfold (mm)	Body fat (%)	Muscle mass (%)	Bone mass (%)	Lean Body Mass (Kg)	
Milanese et al., 2011 ⁵⁰	43	Italian	All Elite level /26/ All sub-elite lvel /17/ Goalkeeper /7/ Wings /18/ Back /14/ Pivot /4/	Elite level Sub-elite level	Female	26.4±5.77 17.3 ±2.25 24±6.63 21.8±6.49 23.2±7.04 23.7±6.24	169.2±6.04 166±5.1 169.3±7.41 165,2±4.4 171±5.8 167±4.32	67±7.91 64.4 ± 10.47 74.7±11.63 61 ± 6.6 67.7±7.53 66.6±4.95	23.4±5.33 23.3±4.01 25.9±2.29 149±22.27 ^d 22.3±2.16 23.1±1.78 23.9±1.44	112.9±26.06 ^d 133.3±27.82 ^d 149±22.27 ^d 113.5±27.56 ^d 118.4±24.62 ^d 114.2±32.2 ^d	23.3±5.33 28.6±4.01 29.7±4.45 24.4±5.03 25.1±5.56 22.7±6.29	- - - - - -	- - - - - -	- - - - - -	47.98±4.66 42.97±5.32 48.89±5.38 43.25±4.72 66.99±7.4 65.99±4.99
Milanese et al., 2012 ⁵¹	43	Caucasian (37 Italian, 1 Ukrainian, 1 Slovenian, 1 Romanian, 1 Polish, 2 Argentine)		Italian national championships (PRE) /43/ Italian national championships (POST) /43/ Elite level /26/ Sub-elite level /17/	Female	22.8±6.49 22.8±6.49 26.4±5.77 17.3±2.25	167.9±5.84 167.9±5.84 169.2±6.04 166±5.1	65.6±9.89 65.2±9.58 67±7.91 64.4±10.47	23.23±2.49 23.00±2.32 23.40±5.33 23.30±4.01	102.5±22.15 ^d 105.4±26.01 ^d - -	25.3±6.2 24.9±5.59 - -	- - - -	43.02±5.84 43.13±5.7 - -	- - - -	
Piscitelli, 2015 ⁵²	24	Italian			Female	21.2±4.3	166.2±7.0	62.2±12.0	22.3±3.4	-	26.6±5.8	-	-	-	

BMI: Body Mass Index; ^a Sum of 6 skin folds (Triceps, Subscapular, Abdominal, Supraspinal, Front thigh and Medial Calf); ^b Sum of 7 skin folds (Triceps, Subscapular, Abdominal, Breastplate, Axillary medial, Thigh and Suprailiac); ^c Sum of 5 skin folds (Biceps, Triceps, Subscapular, Suprailiac and Anterior Thigh.); ^d Sum of 8 skin folds (Triceps, Chest, Mid-Axillary, Subscapular, Suprailiac, Abdominal, Anterior thigh, and Calf).

167.18±4.87, and an average weight (kg) of 61.99±5.61. The back shows an average height (cm) of 174.97±5.943, and an average weight (kg) of 70.18±7.30. The pivot players position show an average height (cm) of 171.39±5.92 and an average weight (kg) of 69.64±6.89.

For men, if the sample is separated by age range, >18 years and <18 years, we observe that the mean of the anthropometric measurements are as follows: male players under 18 years of age present an average height (cm) of 175.04 ± 6.77, a weight (kg) of 69.29±9.69 and a BMI of 22.45. The goalkeepers present an average height (cm) of 179.34±5.44 and an average of 80.89 ±11.40 weight (kg). The wings show an average height (cm) of 173.88 ± 4.83, and an average weight (kg) of 65.87±6.66. The back shows an average height (cm) of 178.51±6.56 and an average weight (kg) of 72.36±9.45. The pivot position players show an average height (cm) of 176.63±6.79 and an average weight (kg) of 75.63±10.29. For the general variables in male players over 18 years of age, they present an average height (cm) of 183.95± 6.38; weight (kg) of 84.24±10.07 and BMI of 24.83. Male goalkeepers have an average height (cm) of 187.330±4.345 and a weight of 88.60±13.675 (kg). The wings show an average height (cm) of 184.601±4.647, and an average weight (kg) of 81.795± 6.725. The back shows an average height (cm) of 190.489±4.498 and an average weight (kg) of 92.996±10.205. The pivots show an average height (cm) of 187.043±6.38 and an average weight (kg) of 91.869±8.903.

Most of the studies in this review of handball players assessed BC with anthropometry and from these studies most used the anthropometric method of Jackson and Pollock^{52,53} to obtain the percentage of fat mass. As for female players over 18 years of age, to whom this formula was applied, the average results were height (cm) of 175.36±5.52; weight (kg) of 70.18±7.48 and fat percentage 19.51±3.87. Comparing the players if they are elite or not elite: as elite, the average height (cm) was 175.36±5.52, weight (kg) of 70.33±7.48 and fat percentage 19.49±3.87, and as non-elite players the average height (cm) was 175,40; the weight (kg) of 69.30 and the fat percentage 19.60%. As for male players over

18 years of age, to whom this formula was applied, the average results were height (cm) of 183.38±6.99; a weight (kg) of 84.09±11.03 and a fat percentage 14.28±5.40. In addition, thanks to the eight studies that could be grouped by this method, it was possible to differentiate between elite male players with an average height (cm) of 185.22±7.30; a weight (kg) of 85.89±10.53 and a fat percentage 13.18±4.65 and non-elite male players with an average height (cm) of 179.03±6.61; a weight (kg) of 78.83±12.17 and a percentage of 16.56±7.17.

Other studies, specifically three^{38,50,51} on female players and six³⁷⁻⁴² on male players, used the bioimpedance method to measure the BC of athletes. In the case of the female handball players the average height (cm) was 172.38±5.99; weight (kg) 69.69±9.67 and fat percentage 22.74±5.76. In the case of the male players the average height (cm) was 186.68±4.07; weight (kg) 89.93±7.89 and fat percentage 13.94±4.36.

Regarding the sum of skin folds, it was observed that most of the studies that calculated this parameter calculated the sum of 6 skin folds, (triceps, subscapular, supraspinal, abdominal, front thigh and medial calf). Specifically, the average sum of 6 skin folds in elite female players was 93.81±22.36 and non-elite 94.8±21.59. As for elite male players the average of this value was 68.37 and non-elite 87.35

Discussion

The aim of this review was to present the anthropometric qualities of handball players from different nationalities, drawing comparisons between age categories, and playing positions. Generally, the results show that in terms of BC, female handball players have a proportion of fat mass of around 20%, being somewhat lower in elite players. As for male players the proportion of fat mass is considerable, around 14%, being higher in non-elite players.

Evaluating and monitoring BC is a key issue in sports practice due to its link to performance and injury risk prevention⁹. In fact, body mass

can influence an athlete's speed, endurance, and power, whereas BC can affect an athlete's strength and agility²⁷. A greater muscle mass is often an advantageous characteristic in sports, as in team handball, where speed is so much of the essence.

In indoor team sports, the BC depend on the playing position and the sport discipline, being the BC results of the specific game actions of each playing position³⁷. It seems to be that specific BC and morphometric parameters could be considered as an important factor contributing to the athlete's respective performance in addition to the technique and sport experience⁴⁰. Morphological characteristics can influence the ability of players to respond better to the requirements of the certain position in the game.

Body composition in females

Women's handball is a sport that has experienced an accelerated development in the last decade, although it is true that studies of anthropometric characteristics are scarce. The correlation between some morphological characteristics of the body of handball players and their playing position is evident. This is attributed to the different technical and tactical tasks that players occupying different playing positions must execute.

As far as the playing position is concerned (considering 4 positions: back, wing, pivot and goalkeeper), the wings are the ones that show the most pronounced differences in the morphological parameters of the body, in comparison with other groups of players. They are significantly smaller and have significantly lower body mass⁴³⁻⁴⁵. The data observed in this review coincide with the above, the anthropometric values of the wings show the lowest weight and height compared to the other positions: height (cm) 167.180 and weight (kg) 61.98. This is due to the fact that the wings cover the largest field area and carry out most of the counterattacks, therefore they need lighter and faster bodies with the capacity for rapid changes of movement and agility⁴⁸.

Female back players are characterized by being tall, Bon *et al.*, 2015⁴⁵ value that has also been reflected in the analysis of this review, as they have the highest value of height 174.968 cm. Female goalkeepers are the heaviest of all players according to their position in the game. Due to the function of saving the goal, they have a more static role in the game, with fast and short acyclic activities⁴³. The data observed for the female goalkeepers in this review corroborate this, as they have the heaviest weight compared to the rest of the playing positions, 71.064 kg.

As for pivots, during an attack, they must catch the passes and are hindered by high defense players, therefore, high body height values can give them an advantage over defense players. The robustness of the body is also particularly important as they must carry out different actions in direct physical contact with the guards of the opposing team. However, looking at the results of this review, there is some controversy as the values do not stand out from any other position. The position specifications of the rear court players propose tall and strong players who must make different tactical and play assignments to the opponent's defense zones⁴³.

As for the changes that occur in BC throughout the season, Milanese, C⁵¹, showed that the anthropometry of handball players does not change significantly during the competitive season, except for some

redistribution of fat; however, BMC increases in the extremities and lean mass in the upper extremities after the season. These results are independent from the competitive level (elite/subelite) and playing position.

Comparing between the different competitive levels (elite; not elite), according to Milanese 2011⁵⁰, the results show that elite players have lower fat percentage, coinciding with what was observed in this review (Elite = 19.493%; No elite = 19.600%). In addition, it is also observed in relation to the sum of six folds of fat, elite players have lower values (93.81 mm) and non-elite players have higher values (94.8 mm). The current results suggest that the most experienced, powerful and aerobically conditioned players have an advantage in women's handball at the international level¹²⁴⁶⁴⁹. Therefore a greater amount and intensity of training is needed to achieve a physical and corporal composition similar to that of the most successful teams.

Body composition in males

In general, the most successful teams are higher and have less body fat than the least successful (Hasan *et al.*, 2007). Gorostiaga *et al.*¹⁹ found that elite team-handball players were heavier and had a higher fat-free mass than the amateur team-handball players did and concluded that this seems to be advantageous in team handball. As regards the upper limb lengths (i.e., radiale-dactylion length), it seems that these measures are important for a better handball shot execution (the larger the radius of action the greater the power of the technical gesture) and for some defensive actions (e.g., blocking). Massuça and Fragoso, 2011²³ also concluded that the best athletes are taller, heavier, had higher fat-free mass, lower fat mass, higher socioeconomic status and higher weekly energy expenditure. Additionally, they have a higher value in arm span and muscle mass⁴⁹.

The differences are manifested considerably in the circular measures of the body volume and in dimensions of the skeleton. Back court players and goalkeepers are superior in the mentioned measures. With the findings of this review, wings and pivots have somewhat lower values of longitudinal dimensionality¹⁸ wings and pivots under 18, height 173.8 cm and 176.63 cm and wings and pivots over 18 height 184.6 and 187.04. Height of goalkeepers and backs are bigger in all cases. In addition, it would seem that, handball goalkeepers show an advanced age of maturity⁴¹.

However, there is a bit of controversy in some positions, as in another study⁵⁴, they determine that the goalkeepers, central and wing generally stand out for their high stature, with the central ones being more athletic (greater muscle mass) and the wing ones more corpulent, with a powerful shot. The back are fast, agile, lightweight players with great jumping capacity, so they often have less height, less weight and lower fat percentage. Pivots are robust players (higher weight, fat mass and volume) who function well in the body to body. These characteristics must be evaluated prior to the incorporation of the players to the team, since morphological optimization is fundamental to achieve the optimal development of the sports performance of each player⁵⁴.

Ramos-Sánchez F, 2016³² analyzed the first team of the Valladolid squad. According to their results, it seems that pivots are the heaviest players (with the highest percentage of fat mass); the wings, together with the pivots, the highest. No BMI differences were observed in the

groups. The greatest differences between the pivots and wings were established in body height, leg length, arm length, ankle breadth, body weight and calves circumference^{41,48}.

In terms of age, although comparison has been difficult, it appears that from 10 to 14 years, the percentage of fat mass decreases, and there is a change in the distribution of subcutaneous fat¹⁷. In addition, in line with the results of this review, it has been shown that height and body mass increase with age. It can be seen, there is a bit of controversy in determining, depending on the playing position, which are the tallest and heaviest. According to our results, the highest are the wings and pivots, while the heaviest are the goalkeepers and backs.

In terms of nationalities there are few studies that compare the same competitive level of teams from different countries, however Ilic, 2015³⁹, establishes comparison between some anthropometric results from nationalities such as Spanish, Serbian, English, kina, Japanese, Korean, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, French, Italian, Croatian and Tunisian. According to this study, successful teams in the 1994 Asian games were higher and had less body fat than less successful teams. Compared with similar research, Serbian handball players had higher values of body height, body weight, and body fat than British, French, Asian, or Spanish division III handball players. The percentage of muscle mass was higher than that found in Saudi and Japanese handball athletes, but considerably lower than that found in Chinese, Korean, and Kuwaiti handball players. Despite the higher values of muscle mass, Kuwaiti players did not perform well during the Asian match period.

On the other hand Milanese, 2011⁵⁰ made the comparison in Italy between competitive levels (Elite vs. Sub-elite) as well as with players from other championships. The study suggested that players in Italian championships need a greater amount and intensity of training to achieve a physical and BC similar to those from the most successful national teams.

From all the studies analyzed, it can be deduced that the higher the quality level of the players, the greater their height and body mass and the lower their percentage of subcutaneous fat. Although it is true that there is a degree of heterogeneity in the results, both height and weight seem to increase with age. The higher players should be oriented to the positions of the players at the back. As for the pivots, coaches must consider, in addition to the height of the body, robustness. For goalkeepers, body height is very important; however, robustness criteria are also important. In the case of wings, body height is not a decisive factor and smaller players can also occupy this position, but a lower weight is favorable for this position.

Limitations

The main limitation of the present study was the variation in BC formulas used by several studies to measure one parameter, making it difficult to compare the findings of the collected studies. For instance, body fat percentage has been calculated using different formulas that cannot be used interchangeably, making a comparison impossible between the studies. However, a strength of this study was that it reviewed a large number of studies and parameters. Despite the variety of methods used, conclusions on the variation of the parameters by age, performance level, and position can be safely drawn when considering the within-study comparisons.

Future research

Future research is required to optimize talent identification and development programs. Future research should include intervention-based studies and quantify the training burden of athletes to understand the most appropriate strategies for improving physical qualities. In addition, studies should understand the relationship between physical qualities and match performance, while providing further consideration of the holistic development of the handball player, including technical ability, tactical knowledge, psychological characteristics, and the occurrence and reduction of injuries.

Conclusions

This review provides a framework to help professionals effectively prepare players for the physiological demands of handball. Since elite athletes have better characteristics, the goal of any handball player would be to present similar results. But due to the limitations detected in the studies reviewed it is suggested that future research should adopt a longitudinal and multidimensional perspective.

Conflict of interest

The authors do not declare a conflict of interest.

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XVIII CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL DE LA SOCIEDAD ESPAÑOLA DE MEDICINA DEL DEPORTE

UNIVERSIDAD, CIENCIA Y MEDICINA AL SERVICIO DEL DEPORTE



UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA SAN ANTONIO DE MURCIA (UCAM)
26-28 DE NOVIEMBRE DE 2020

UCAM

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CAMPUS DE LOS JERÓNIMOS, GUADALUPE 30107
(MURCIA) - ESPAÑA

XVIII Congreso Internacional de la Sociedad Española de Medicina del Deporte

Fecha

26-28 de Noviembre de 2020

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SESIONES PLENARIAS Y PONENCIAS OFICIALES

- Síndrome compartimental en el deporte.
- Síndrome compartimental en el deporte.
- Aplicación de la variabilidad de la frecuencia cardíaca al entrenamiento deportivo.
- Sistemas complejos y deportes de equipo.
- Respuestas fisiológicas y patológicas de la frecuencia cardíaca y de la tensión arterial en la ergometría.
- Sistemas de esponsorización deportiva
- Medicina biológica. Células madre.
- Entrenamiento en deportistas de superélite.

Idioma oficial

El lenguaje oficial del Congreso es el español.
Traducción simultánea de sesiones plenarias y ponencias.

Agenda

2020		
I Congreso actividad física, deporte y nutrición	28 Febrero-1 Marzo Valencia	Web: http://congresodeporte.es/
14th ISPRM World Congress – ISPRM 2020	4-9 Marzo Orlando (EE.UU.)	web: http://www.isprm.org/congress/14th-isprm-world-congress
II Congreso internacional sobre prescripción y programación de deporte y de ejercicio en la enfermedad crónica	5-6 Marzo Murcia	E-mail: catedramedicinadeldeporte@ucam.edu
Lesiones de los tendones y músculos isquiotibiales	6 Marzo Madrid	web: www.jornadaisquios.com
Congreso FESNAD	11-13 Marzo Zaragoza	web: http://www.fesnad.org/
IOC World Conference Prevention of Injury & Illness in Sport	12-14 Marzo Mónaco (Principado de Mónaco)	web: http://ioc-preventionconference.org/
I Congreso actividad física, deporte y nutrición	27-29 Marzo Sevilla	web: http://congresodeporte.es/
37º Congress International Society for Snowsports Medicine-SITEMSH	1-3 Abril Andorra la Vella (Principat d'Andorra)	E-mail: andorra2020@sitemsh.org
9º Congrés Societat Catalana de Medicina de l'Esport-SCME	3-4 Abril Andorra la Vella (Principat d'Andorra)	E-mail: andorra2020@sitemsh.org
2nd China International Sports Health Exhibition 2020	28-30 Abril Beijín (China)	web: www.sportandhealth.com.cn
II Congreso Internacional de la Sociedad Latinoamericana y del Caribe de Psicología de la Actividad Física y del Deporte (SOLCPAD)	7-9 Mayo Córdoba (Argentina)	web: www.solcpad.com
25th Annual Congress of the European College of Sport Science	1-4 Julio Sevilla	E-mail: office@sport-science.org
32nd FIEP World Congress / 12th International Seminar for Physical Education Teachers /15th FIEP European Congress	2-8 Agosto Jyväskylä (Finlandia)	Información: Branislav Antala E-mail: antala@fsport.uniba.sk
2020 Yokohama Sport Conference	8-12 Septiembre Yokohama (Japón)	web http://yokohama2020.jp/overview.html
International Congress of Dietetics	15-18 Septiembre Cape Town (Sudáfrica)	web: http://www.icda2020.com/
XXXVI Congreso Mundial de Medicina del Deporte	24-27 Septiembre Atenas (Grecia)	www.globalevents.gr
VIII Congreso HISPAMEF	15-17 Octubre Cartagena de Indias (Colombia)	web: http://hispamef.com/viii-congreso-hispamef-15-17-de-2020/
XXIX Isokinetic Medical Group Conference: Football Medicine	24-26 Octubre Lyon (Francia)	web: www.footballmedicinestrategies.com
26th TAFISA World Congress	13-17 Noviembre Tokyo (Japón)	web: www.icsspe.org/sites/default/files/e9_TAFISA%20World%20Congress%202019_Flyer.pdf

XVIII Congreso Internacional SEMED-FEMEDE	26-28 Noviembre Murcia	web: www.femeude.es
2021		
Congreso Mundial de Psicología del Deporte	1-5 Julio Taipei (Taiwan)	web: https://www.issponline.org/index.php/events/next-world-congress
26th Annual Congress of the European College of Sport Science	7-10 Julio Glasgow (Reino Unido)	E-mail: office@sport-science.org
22nd International Congress of Nutrition (ICN)	14-19 Septiembre Tokyo (Japón)	web: http://icn2021.org/
European Federation of Sports Medicine Associations (EFSMA) Conference 2021	28-30 Octubre Budapest (Hungria)	web: http://efsma.eu/
Congreso Mundial de Podología	Barcelona	web: www.fip-ifp.org
2022		
8th IWG World Conference on Women and Sport	5-8 Mayo Auckland (N. Zelanda)	web: http://iwgwomenandsport.org/world-conference/
XXXVII Congreso Mundial de Medicina del Deporte FIMS	Septiembre Guadalajara (Méjico)	web: www.femmede.com.mx

Cursos on-line SEMED-FEMEDE

Curso "ENTRENAMIENTO, RENDIMIENTO, PREVENCIÓN Y PATOLOGÍA DEL CICLISMO"

Curso dirigido a los titulados de las diferentes profesiones sanitarias y a los titulados en ciencias de la actividad física y el deporte, destinado al conocimiento de las prestaciones y rendimiento del deportista, para que cumpla con sus expectativas competitivas y de prolongación de su práctica deportiva, y para que la práctica deportiva minimice las consecuencias que puede tener para su salud, tanto desde el punto de vista médico como lesional.

Curso "ELECTROCARDIOGRAFÍA PARA MEDICINA DEL DEPORTE"

ACREDITADO POR LA COMISIÓN DE FORMACIÓN CONTINUADA (ON-LINE 1/5/2018 A 1/5/2019) CON 2,93 CRÉDITOS

Curso dirigido a médicos destinado a proporcionar los conocimientos específicos para el estudio del sistema cardiocirculatorio desde el punto de vista del electrocardiograma (ECG).

Curso "FISIOLOGÍA Y VALORACIÓN FUNCIONAL EN EL CICLISMO"

Curso dirigido a los titulados de las diferentes profesiones sanitarias y a los titulados en ciencias de la actividad física y el deporte, destinado al conocimiento profundo de los aspectos fisiológicos y de valoración funcional del ciclismo.

Curso "AYUDAS ERGOGÉNICAS"

Curso abierto a todos los interesados en el tema que quieren conocer las ayudas ergogénicas y su utilización en el deporte.

Curso "CARDIOLOGÍA DEL DEPORTE"

ACREDITADO POR LA COMISIÓN DE FORMACIÓN CONTINUADA (ON-LINE 1/5/2018 A 1/5/2019) CON 6,60 CRÉDITOS

Curso dirigido a médicos destinado a proporcionar los conocimientos específicos para el estudio del sistema cardiocirculatorio desde el punto de vista de la actividad física y deportiva, para diagnosticar los problemas cardiovasculares que pueden afectar al deportista, conocer la aptitud cardiológica para la práctica deportiva, realizar la prescripción de ejercicio y conocer y diagnosticar las enfermedades cardiovasculares susceptibles de provocar la muerte súbita del deportista y prevenir su aparición.

Curso "ALIMENTACIÓN, NUTRICIÓN E HIDRATACIÓN EN EL DEPORTE"

Curso dirigido a médicos destinado a facilitar al médico relacionado con la actividad física y el deporte la formación precisa para conocer los elementos necesarios para la obtención de los elementos energéticos necesarios para el esfuerzo físico y para prescribir una adecuada alimentación del deportista.

Curso "ALIMENTACIÓN Y NUTRICIÓN EN EL DEPORTE"

Curso dirigido a los titulados de las diferentes profesiones sanitarias (existe un curso específico para médicos) y para los titulados en ciencias de la actividad física y el deporte, dirigido a facilitar a los profesionales relacionados con la actividad física y el deporte la formación precisa para conocer los elementos necesarios para la obtención de los elementos energéticos necesarios para el esfuerzo físico y para conocer la adecuada alimentación del deportista.

Curso "ALIMENTACIÓN Y NUTRICIÓN EN EL DEPORTE" Para Diplomados y Graduados en Enfermería

ACREDITADO POR LA COMISIÓN DE FORMACIÓN CONTINUADA (NO PRESENCIAL 15/12/2015 A 15/12/2016) CON 10,18 CRÉDITOS

Curso dirigido a facilitar a los Diplomados y Graduados en Enfermería la formación precisa para conocer los elementos necesarios para la obtención de los elementos energéticos necesarios para el esfuerzo físico y para conocer la adecuada alimentación del deportista.

Curso "CINEANTROPOMETRÍA PARA SANITARIOS"

Curso dirigido a sanitarios destinado a adquirir los conocimientos necesarios para conocer los fundamentos de la cineantropometría (puntos anatómicos de referencia, material antropométrico, protocolo de medición, error de medición, composición corporal, somatotipo, proporcionalidad) y la relación entre la antropometría y el rendimiento deportivo.

Curso "CINEANTROPOMETRÍA"

Curso dirigido a todas aquellas personas interesadas en este campo en las Ciencias del Deporte y alumnos de último año de grado, destinado a adquirir los conocimientos necesarios para conocer los fundamentos de la cineantropometría (puntos anatómicos de referencia, material antropométrico, protocolo de medición, error de medición, composición corporal, somatotipo, proporcionalidad) y la relación entre la antropometría y el rendimiento deportivo.

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La Revista ARCHIVOS DE MEDICINA DEL DEPORTE (Arch Med Deporte) con ISSN 0212-8799 es la publicación oficial de la Sociedad Española de Medicina del Deporte (SEMED). Edita trabajos originales sobre todos los aspectos relacionados con la Medicina y las Ciencias del Deporte desde 1984 de forma ininterrumpida con una periodicidad trimestral hasta 1995 y bimestral a partir de esa fecha. Se trata de una revista que utiliza fundamentalmente el sistema de revisión externa por dos expertos (*peer-review*). Incluye de forma regular artículos sobre investigación clínica o básica relacionada con la medicina y ciencias del deporte, revisiones, artículos o comentarios editoriales, y cartas al editor. Los trabajos podrán ser publicados EN ESPAÑOL O EN INGLÉS. La remisión de trabajos en inglés será especialmente valorada.

En ocasiones se publicarán las comunicaciones aceptadas para presentación en los Congresos de la Sociedad.

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SMD
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La **Sociedad Española de Medicina del Deporte**, en su incesante labor de expansión y consolidación de la Medicina del Deporte y, consciente de su vocación médica de preservar la salud de todas las personas, viene realizando diversas actuaciones en este ámbito desde los últimos años.

Se ha considerado el momento oportuno de lanzar la campaña de gran alcance, denominada **CAMPAÑA DE APTITUD FÍSICA, DEPORTE Y SALUD** relacionada con la promoción de la actividad física y deportiva para toda la población y que tendrá como lema **SALUD - DEPORTE - DISFRÚTALOS**, que aúna de la forma más clara y directa los tres pilares que se promueven desde la Medicina del Deporte que son el practicar deporte, con objetivos de salud y para la mejora de la aptitud física y de tal forma que se incorpore como un hábito permanente, y disfrutando, es la mejor manera de conseguirlo.



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