



Swansea University
Prifysgol Abertawe



Cronfa - Swansea University Open Access Repository

This is an author produced version of a paper published in:
Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research

Cronfa URL for this paper:
<http://cronfa.swan.ac.uk/Record/cronfa38240>

Paper:

Williams, N., Russell, M., Cook, C. & Kilduff, L. (2018). The Effect of Ischemic Preconditioning on Maximal Swimming Performance. *Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research*, 1
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1519/JSC.0000000000002485>

This item is brought to you by Swansea University. Any person downloading material is agreeing to abide by the terms of the repository licence. Copies of full text items may be used or reproduced in any format or medium, without prior permission for personal research or study, educational or non-commercial purposes only. The copyright for any work remains with the original author unless otherwise specified. The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holder.

Permission for multiple reproductions should be obtained from the original author.

Authors are personally responsible for adhering to copyright and publisher restrictions when uploading content to the repository.

<http://www.swansea.ac.uk/library/researchsupport/ris-support/>

1 Title: The effect of ischemic preconditioning on maximal swimming performance

2

3 Authors: Williams, N.^{a, b} Russell, M.^c, Cook, C.J.^d, Kilduff, L.P.^{a, d}

4

5

6 ^a Applied Sports Technology Exercise and Medicine Research Centre (A-STEM), Swansea

7 University, Swansea, United Kingdom

8 ^b Sport Wales, Welsh Institute of Sport, Sophia Gardens, Cardiff, United Kingdom

9 ^c School of Social and Health Sciences, Leeds Trinity University, Leeds, United Kingdom

10 ^d Welsh Institute for Performance Solutions

11

12

13 Corresponding Author: Liam P.Kilduff

14 L.Kilduff@swansea.ac.uk

15

16 Article type: Original investigation

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29 **Title:**

30 The effect of ischemic preconditioning on maximal swimming performance

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57 **ABSTRACT**

58

59 The effect of ischemic preconditioning (IPC) on swimming performance was examined. Using a
60 randomized, crossover design, National-and International-level swimmers ($n=20$; 14 males, 6
61 females) participated in three trials (Con, IPC-2h, IPC-24h). Lower-body IPC (4 x 5 min bi-lateral
62 blood-flow restriction at 160-228 mmHg, and 5 min reperfusion) was used 2- (IPC-2h) or 24-h (IPC-
63 24h) before a self-selected (100 m, $n=15$; 200 m, $n=5$) swimming time-trial (TT). The Con trial used
64 a sham intervention (15 mmHg) 2h prior to exercise. All trials required a 40-min standardized pre-
65 competition swimming warm-up (followed by 20-min rest; replicating pre-competition call room
66 procedures) 1h before TT. Capillary blood (pH, blood gases and lactate concentrations) was taken
67 immediately pre-and post-IPC, pre-TT and post-TT. No effects on TT for 100 m ($P=0.995$; IPC-2h:
68 64.94 ± 8.33 s; IPC-24h: 64.67 ± 8.50 s; Con: 64.94 ± 8.24 s), 200 m ($P=0.405$; IPC-2h: 127.70 ± 10.66 s;
69 IPC-24h: 129.26 ± 12.99 s; Con: 130.19 ± 10.27 s) or combined total time (IPC-2h: 84.27 ± 31.52 s; IPC-
70 24h: 79.87 ± 29.72 s; Con: 80.55 ± 31.35 s) were observed following IPC. Base excess (IPC-2h: -
71 13.37 ± 8.90 mmol·L⁻¹; Con: -13.35 ± 7.07 mmol·L⁻¹; IPC-24h: -16.53 ± 4.65 mmol·L⁻¹), pH (0.22 ± 0.08 ;
72 all conditions), bicarbonate (IPC-2h: -11.66 ± 3.52 mmol·L⁻¹; Con: -11.62 ± 5.59 mmol·L⁻¹; IPC-24h: -
73 8.47 ± 9.02 mmol·L⁻¹), total carbon dioxide (IPC-2h: -12.90 ± 3.92 mmol·L⁻¹; Con: -11.55 ± 7.61 mmol·L⁻¹;
74 9.90 ± 8.40 mmol·L⁻¹), percentage oxygen saturation (IPC-2h: $-0.16\pm 1.86\%$; Con:
75 $+0.20\pm 1.93\%$; IPC-24h: $+0.47\pm 2.10\%$) and blood lactate (IPC-2h: $+12.87\pm 3.62$ mmol·L⁻¹; Con:
76 $+12.41\pm 4.02$ mmol·L⁻¹; IPC-24h: $+13.27\pm 3.81$ mmol·L⁻¹) were influenced by swimming TT
77 ($P<0.001$), but not condition (all $P>0.05$). No effect of IPC was seen when applied 2- or 24-h before
78 swimming TT on any indices of performance or physiological measures recorded.

79

80 Key words: Time-trial, lactate, blood gases, ergogenic aid

81

82

83

84 INTRODUCTION

85

86 During international swimming events athletes are required to perform two to three maximal efforts
87 following months or even years of training and preparation, with marginal differences of <0.5%
88 separating medal and non-medal positions (e.g. difference between sixth and third place in the men's
89 and women's 100 m at World Championships; FINA, World Championship results 2017 - 8). In
90 addition to the benefits of training, previous research has shown the importance of competition warm-
91 up intensity (24), timing of warm-up (36) and use of active heating and land-based activation
92 exercises (21, 22) as competition-day strategies to improve subsequent swimming performance.
93 Ischemic preconditioning (IPC), involving cycles of ischemia and reperfusion achieved through the
94 application of cuffs to the arms or thighs (11), has also been reported to improve indices of athletic
95 performance when used between 15 mins and 8h before performance assessments (12).

96

97 The benefits of IPC to improve athletic performance have been previously observed in time to
98 exhaustion (e.g. 9), anaerobic specific performance tests (e.g. 14) and repeated sprint ability (e.g. 26).
99 It has been reported that IPC induces acute vascular adaptations, resulting in local vasodilation and
100 enhanced blood flow (34). Consequently, enhanced functional sympatholysis may speed and increase
101 oxygen extraction by means of matching demand with supply (13), facilitating an increased aerobic
102 contribution during subsequent exercise. Reports suggest that IPC can cause a faster uptake of acetyl
103 coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) by mitochondria thus maintaining lactate accumulation at a metabolically
104 acceptable level due to greater contribution of aerobically generated adenosine triphosphate (ATP) for
105 exercise (14). Recruitment of higher order motor units via enhanced central motor efferent command
106 also results from IPC (4), allowing for exercise to be **completed** beyond the individual's critical
107 threshold by increasing or maintaining the rate of force development and improving subsequent
108 performance.

109

110 However, only one study (31) relating to sports performance has differentiated between the observed
111 early and late phase of IPC reported within the clinical literature, implementing IPC 24h prior to a 5

112 km **running** time trial (TT). Research suggests that there are two phases resulting from IPC; the early
113 phase which begins soon after reperfusion and lasts 3-4h, whereas the late phase starts 12-24h after
114 IPC (16) and last 48-96h (27, 33). The release of endogenous substances is thought to stimulate post-
115 translational modifications in proteins within the early phase, whereas in the late phase this leads to
116 synthesis of new proteins and altered gene expression (34). Accordingly, owing to the timing of pre-
117 competition practices and regulations in athletic competitions (e.g., the use of pre-competition call-
118 rooms within 20 min of competition starting), the late phase of IPC may offer another practical
119 option, to coincide with competition timings to further optimize swimming performance on the day of
120 competition.

121

122 With a specific emphasis on swimming performance, IPC may be beneficial for 100 to 400 m
123 swimming performance due to the resultant increase in contribution of ATP generated from the
124 aerobic system (28). To date, four studies (7, 14, 17, 20) have identified a positive effect of
125 implementing IPC prior to swimming performance. For example, Jean-St-Michel et al. (14) reported
126 that five min of ischemia followed by five min of reperfusion, repeated for four cycles, implemented
127 45 min prior to 100 m swimming TT improved personal best swimming times by 1.1%. Most
128 recently, Lisbôa et al. (17) applied IPC 1h, 2h and 8h preceding a 50 m TT performance, with
129 performance improvements of 1.0% and 1.2% in 2h and 8h conditions, respectively. The previous
130 research relating to IPC and swimming performance has investigated the effects of the early phase of
131 IPC on performance as application has been <12h prior to performance. However, for short duration
132 events (i.e. 10-90 s), a recent meta-analysis showed that a longer duration between IPC and exercise
133 resulted in a higher effect size; suggesting that IPC may be dependent on the timing of the
134 preconditioning strategy relative to the start of subsequent performance (30). Research is yet to
135 investigate if the delayed phase of IPC can enhance swimming performance when applied at least 12h
136 prior to competition, a strategy which may be attractive for coaches and swimmers. Consequently,
137 the purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of IPC on swimming TT performance 2h (early
138 phase) and 24h (late phase) after eliciting IPC in competitive swimmers.

139

140 **METHOD**

141 **EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM**

142 **Twenty National and International-level** swimmers participated in a randomized, crossover design
143 that involved three sessions (Con, IPC-2h, IPC-24h) separated by seven days. Timing of IPC
144 completed in conditions were implemented in line with previous research complete by Seeger et al.
145 (31) and Lisboa et al. (17). Occlusion cuffs were applied bi-laterally at the most proximal point of
146 each thigh and intermittently inflated to an individualized cuff pressure determined from thigh girth
147 and resting blood pressure for a total of 40 min in IPC-2h and IPC-24h. In Con, cuffs were applied
148 for the same duration (total 40 min), however cuff pressure was inflated to 15 mmHg. A self-selected
149 (100 or 200 m) swimming TT (assessing total time, 50 m split times, stroke count; SC, and stroke
150 rate; SR, time underwater off starts and turns) followed intervention administration and physiological
151 markers (pH, blood gases and lactate concentrations) were assessed at pre-IPC, post-IPC, pre-TT and
152 post-TT.

153

154 **SUBJECTS**

155 Following ethical approval from Swansea University ethics committee, twenty (6 females, 14 males)
156 National- and International-level swimmers (age; 20 ± 2 y, mass; 71.1 ± 9.6 kg, stature; 178.4 ± 9.6 cm,
157 Training experience; 9.6 ± 2.7 y) participated in the study. All subjects had qualified for, and
158 competed at British swimming National competitions. Subjects were informed of the experimental
159 procedures, the purpose and possible risks associated with the study, and provided written informed
160 consent before participation.

161

162 **PROCEDURES**

163 After familiarization, participants were required to attend the testing venue on three occasions (Con,
164 IPC-2h, IPC-24h) in a randomized order. Main trials were performed in an enclosed 50 m swimming
165 pool within the subject's normal training environment. To minimize the effects of biological rhythms,
166 the timing of measurements was consistent between trials. To control for varying levels of weekly
167 fatigue, testing was conducted on the same day of the week in a stable, maintenance phase of training.

168 Subjects were required to refrain from alcohol and intense physical exercise in the 24h preceding
169 trials and between IPC and swimming TT performance.

170

171 On arrival for main trials, subjects were required to rest for 10 min to allow for resting blood pressure
172 to be recorded (Omron Healthcare, Europe; systolic >140 mmHg and/or diastolic >90 mmHg
173 precluded further study involvement). Once blood pressure was recorded, thigh girth was measured
174 for determination of cuff pressure and a capillary blood sample was taken. Occlusion cuffs were then
175 applied to the most proximal point of the thighs, with subjects assuming a supine position. The cuff
176 (10 cm) contained a pneumatic bag along its inner surface that was connected to a pressure gauge and
177 manually inflated to either 15 mmHg (Con) or an individualized cuff pressure (IPC-2h, IPC-24h) for a
178 total of 40 min consisting of four cycles of five min occlusion and five min reperfusion. The
179 individualized cuff pressures were calculated from Loenneke et al. (18) with values ranging from 160
180 to 228 mmHg. Cuff pressure was 15 mmHg in the Con condition; based on previous research
181 showing that 10-20 mmHg (e.g. 1, 14, 26) caused no alteration to the arterial inflow but allowed
182 increased control over the placebo effect as cuffs were worn in both conditions.

183

184 Following the completion of the IPC protocol, subjects rested accordingly for 24h or 2h; intense
185 physical activity was restricted during the 24h and all subjects arrived at the swimming pool and
186 rested for 3h prior to TT regardless of the condition, cuffs were applied during this period for IPC-2h
187 and Con. A standardized race swimming warm up (40-min) was performed 1h prior to a swimming
188 TT and a 20-min post-warm-up rest period **at the swimming pool** replicated pre-competition call room
189 requirements. This was immediately followed by a maximal swimming TT (100 m: $n=15$, 200 m:
190 $n=5$), completed on the subjects' chosen stroke, in accordance with FINA rules. Subjects completed
191 the TT individually, starting from a block and taking off after an audible starting signal. Rating of
192 perceived exertion was recorded using the Borg (2) scale on completion of the race. From the TT,
193 SR, SC, 50 m split times, time underwater off the start and turns and total time were calculated
194 retrospectively from video recordings. Equation 1 was used to determine SR; for each 25 m of the TT
195 SR was calculated, the mean \pm SD was then calculated for each 50 m. To ensure acceptable reliability

196 of the SR measurement, intra-observer tests were completed. The analyst viewed two randomly
197 selected TT performances ten times over a two-week period under the same conditions. The
198 coefficient of variation (CV) was calculated to identify the measurement error; this resulted in a low,
199 acceptable percentage of error (CV = 0.2%).

200

201 Equation 1: Stroke rate = $\frac{\text{Number of complete strokes over 25 m} \times 60}{\text{Time of hand entry 1} - \text{time of hand entry 2}}$

202

203 Where hand entry 1 is the first-hand entry at the start of 25 m and hand entry 2 is the hand entry at the
204 end of 25 m, recorded in seconds.

205

206 A capillary blood sample was taken pre-IPC, post-IPC, pre-TT and post-TT to measure blood lactate,
207 pH, percentage of oxygen saturation (sO₂%), partial pressure of oxygen (PO₂), partial pressure of
208 carbon dioxide (PCO₂), total carbon dioxide (TCO₂), bicarbonate (HCO₃) and Base Excess. This was
209 analyzed using a portable analyser (ISTAT 1; 300G) and associated cartridges (CG4+; Abbott, point
210 of care testing, Arbroath, UK). Prior to data collection the analyzer was calibrated according to the
211 manufacturer's specifications and cartridges were stored as per manufacturer's instructions (2-8°C)
212 and removed to room temperature ~5 min prior to use. The capillary blood sample was immediately
213 expelled from the capillary tube into the sample well of the cartridge. Blood gases and pH were
214 analyzed using these methods which have previously been compared (35) against two auto-calibrated
215 analyzers ($r > 0.993$). Dascombe et al. (5) also confirmed intra-test reliability of the analyzer; intra-
216 class correlation coefficients (ICC) for all analytes were observed to be strong following maximal
217 intensity exercise (ICC = 0.77-0.95; where 0.7-0.9 deemed a strong correlation) and technical error of
218 measurement (TEM) <15% was deemed acceptable (pH; 0.24%, blood lactate; 3.12%, all other
219 measured blood gas parameters 2.02-8.85%).

220

221 **STATISTICAL ANALYSES**

222 All data is presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Following confirmation of parametric
 223 assumptions, **repeated measures** multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with Bonferroni
 224 adjustment assessed between-trial differences for variables with multiple time points per trial (i.e.
 225 blood lactate, pH, sO₂%, PO₂, PCO₂, HCO₃ and Base Excess). One-way ANOVA assessed between-
 226 trial differences for all performance variables from the swimming TT and RPE recorded post-TT.
 227 Statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS version 22.0 (SPSS Chicago, IL) with significance
 228 being accepted at $P \leq 0.05$.

229

230 RESULTS

231

232 Exercise significantly affected blood parameters; following swimming TT, pH decreased by
 233 0.22 ± 0.08 in all conditions ($P < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.866$) (Figure 1). Blood lactate increased pre-to post-TT
 234 ($P < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.923$) by 12.87 ± 3.62 mmol·L⁻¹, 12.41 ± 4.02 mmol·L⁻¹ and 13.27 ± 3.81 mmol·L⁻¹ in
 235 IPC-2h, Con and IPC-24h, respectively (Figure 1). Base excess (IPC-2h: -13.37 ± 8.90 mmol·L⁻¹; Con:
 236 -13.35 ± 7.07 mmol·L⁻¹; IPC-24h: -16.53 ± 4.65 mmol·L⁻¹; $P < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.857$), HCO₃ (IPC-2h: -
 237 11.66 ± 3.52 mmol·L⁻¹; Con: -11.62 ± 5.59 mmol·L⁻¹; IPC-24h: -8.47 ± 9.02 mmol·L⁻¹; $P < 0.001$; $\eta^2 =$
 238 0.849), TCO₂ (IPC-2h: -12.90 ± 3.92 mmol·L⁻¹; Con: -11.55 ± 7.61 mmol·L⁻¹; IPC-24h: 9.90 ± 8.40
 239 mmol·L⁻¹; $P < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.939$) and sO₂% (IPC-2h: -0.16 ± 1.86 %; Con: $+0.20 \pm 1.93$ %; IPC-24h:
 240 $+0.47 \pm 2.10$ %; $P < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.130$) were significantly different pre-TT to post-TT. However, there
 241 were no differences between trials in any of the blood parameters ($P > 0.05$).

242

243 ***** INSERT FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE *****

244

245 Trial did not affect performance for 100 m ($P = 0.995$; IPC-2h: 64.94 ± 8.33 s; IPC-24h: 64.67 ± 8.50 s;
 246 Con: 64.94 ± 8.24 s), 200 m ($P = 0.405$; IPC-2h: 127.70 ± 10.66 s; IPC-24h: 129.26 ± 12.99 s; Con:
 247 130.19 ± 10.27) or combined total time (IPC-2h: 84.27 ± 31.52 s; IPC-24h: 79.87 ± 29.72 s; Con:
 248 80.55 ± 31.35 s). No significant effects between conditions for any of the performance variables were

249 observed; being, total time (P=0.723), split time for the first 50 m (P=0.968), split time for the second
250 50 m (P=0.874), start time (P=0.817), turn time at 50 m (P=0.924), SC for first 50 m (P=0.559), SC
251 for second 50 m (P=0.570), SR for first 50 m (P=0.726), SR for second 50 m (P=0.988) and RPE
252 (P=0.723) (Table 1).

253

254 ***** INSERT TABLE 1 NEAR HERE *****

255 **DISCUSSION**

256

257 In this study IPC did not affect 100 or 200 m swimming performance in National-level swimmers
258 when applied 2h or 24h prior to performance assessment. These findings, particularly for IPC-2h,
259 oppose previous research that found IPC applied acutely improved subsequent swimming
260 performance (7, 14, 17, 20). Consistent with previous research (31), no change in swimming
261 performance was identified when IPC was applied 24h before the TT. Likewise, no differences were
262 identified in physiological markers following IPC-2h or IPC-24h. Therefore, IPC applied 2h or 24h
263 had no influence, either positive or negative, on swimming performance or physiological markers.

264 For short duration events (i.e. 10-90 s), a recent meta-analysis showed that a longer duration between
265 IPC and exercise resulted in a higher effect size; suggesting that IPC may be dependent on the timing
266 of the preconditioning strategy relative to the start of subsequent performance (30). Previous research
267 in swimming has implemented IPC between 10 min and 8h (7, 14, 17, 20) before performance
268 assessment and found beneficial effects; findings which contradict those reported here when IPC was
269 applied 2h before exercise. Several methodological differences between the present study and
270 previous literature may explain this lack of agreement in findings. Specifically, there is little
271 consensus regarding optimal cuff pressures used in IPC as a range of pressures have been reported
272 (i.e., 200-230 mmHg or 15-50>SBP) which are universally applied across all individuals within
273 studies. A standardized cuff pressure may not cause the same percentage of blood flow restriction in
274 every individual, especially considering the volume and type of tissue surrounding the blood vessels
275 which may influence the pressure exerted on the vasculature (19). Therefore, the percentage of blood

276 flow restriction may affect the success of IPC as a pre-competition strategy (10). Recent research by
277 Loenneke et al. (18) recommended the use of individualized cuff pressure calculated from thigh girth
278 and resting blood pressure, which was adopted in the current study. However, individual blood flow
279 restriction was not confirmed using a Doppler due to practicality, which offers a limitation to the
280 current study as blood flow restriction was calculated in alignment with results from previous research
281 (18), rather than according to a measured pressure. A protocol to individualise cuff pressure needs to
282 be determined, identifying the differences between a standard cuff pressures and the use of thigh girth
283 and blood pressure to calculate individual pressures in comparison to Doppler assessment. The
284 results of these three methods to determine cuff pressure need to be identified and the resultant effect
285 on performance tested to establish recommendations for practical use.

286

287 To explain the current results, another methodological difference should be considered regarding the
288 location of the cuff, with application previously reported on the lower or upper body. The present
289 study applied occlusion cuffs to the thighs which contrasts previous research in swimming whereby
290 cuffs were applied to the upper body (7, 14, 17, 20). Although limited research still exists on the
291 working mechanism of IPC and athletic performance, it has been suggested that IPC induces a
292 systemic change in blood flow through a change in sympathetic activity. Due to the nature of
293 swimming and controlled breathing, which can result in exercise induced arterial hypoxemia,
294 decreased pH (3, 32) and consequently a significant contributor of fatigue (25), a systemic increase in
295 blood flow and oxygen delivery could be speculated to improve performance, reducing hypoxemia
296 and metabolic acidosis. However, in the current study no differences were identified between
297 conditions in the physiological measures. Alternative research has suggested that IPC may also cause
298 local changes in the muscle at the site of the cuff (e.g. increase oxygen uptake or change in
299 mitochondrial activity) which may contribute to an increase muscle oxygenation (13, 15, 29). In
300 swimming, the contribution of propulsive force is approximately 90% for the upper extremities (6,
301 23), therefore, the local changes achieved by application of the cuffs to the upper limbs, may increase
302 effectiveness of limb IPC to improve swimming performance. In comparison to previous results
303 applying cuffs to the thighs to induce a systemic response, this may help to explain the inconsistency

304 in the current results, highlighting this as an area warranting further investigation to determine the
305 impact of systemic versus local blood flow restriction on athletic performance.

306 To date, one study has examined the use of IPC applied 24h prior to performance to determine if the
307 late phase of IPC, originally used in a clinical setting, may also improve athletic performance. The
308 current study replicated research completed by Seeger et al. (31) but within swimming, with the only
309 other methodological difference being individualizing of cuff pressures. Similarly, no difference in
310 performance time between conditions was identified. However, results from the current study were
311 not consistent with previous research investigating IPC in swimming as previously a benefit has been
312 identified in the early phase (10 min – 2h) within the literature which was not consistent in our study.
313 Therefore, methodological differences could have influenced these findings as stated above regarding
314 cuff location, consequently IPC applied 24h prior to performance should be further investigated in
315 swimming while ensuring that cuffs are applied to the upper body.

316

317 In conclusion, the current study demonstrated swimming TT performance of 100 or 200 m was not
318 influenced when it was preceded 2h or 24h by four cycles of IPC, at an individualized cuff pressure.
319 Speculatively, this may have been due to the difference in cuff placement on the lower limbs as
320 opposed to upper limbs as in previous IPC and swimming research. Therefore, the use of IPC 24h
321 prior to swimming TT performance should be investigated with cuffs applied to the upper limbs to
322 identify if the late phase of IPC can also improve performance, as this would have greater practical
323 application completing the IPC protocol 24h before competition rather than in close proximity to the
324 start of an athletic event.

325

326 PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

327

328 Despite this study concluding swimming performance was not influenced by IPC applied at 2h or 24h,
329 there are several practical points of relevance for application in sport. These results provide baseline
330 data for the use of IPC in swimming when cuffs are applied to the thighs, identifying that this strategy
331 had no detrimental effect on physiological responses. Most prominently, the combination of previous

332 research and the current study suggest recommendations for application of the cuffs to the upper body
333 to improve swimming performance.

334 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

335 None to declare. There was no financial support for this study. This research did not receive any
336 specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors. The results
337 of the present study do not constitute endorsement by the NSCA.

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360
361
362
363
364
365
366
367
368
369
370
371
372
373
374
375
376
377
378
379
380
381
382
383
384
385
386
387

REFERENCES

1. Bailey, T.G. et al. Effect of ischemic preconditioning on lactate accumulation and running performance. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, 44(11), 2084–2089, 2012
2. Borg, G. Psychophysiological bases of perceived exertion. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, 14(5), 377-381, 1982.
3. Craig, A.B. Breath holding during the turn in competitive swimming. *Medicine And Science In Sports And Exercise*, 18(4), 402–7, 1986.
4. Crisafulli, A. et al. Ischemic preconditioning of the muscle improves maximal exercise performance but not maximal oxygen uptake in humans. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 111(2), 530–536, 2011
5. Dascombe, B.J. et al. The reliability of the i-STAT clinical portable analyser. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 10(3), 135–140, 2007.
6. Deschodt, J. V., Arsac, L.M. & Rouard, A.H. Relative contribution of arms and legs in humans to propulsion in 25-m sprint front-crawl swimming. *European Journal of Applied Physiology and Occupational Physiology*, 80(3), 192–199, 1999.
7. Ferreira, T.N. et al. Ischemic Preconditioning and Repeated Sprint Swimming: A Placebo and Nocebo Study. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, 48(10), 1967–1975, 2016.
8. FINA World Championship results 2017 - <http://www.fina.org/event/17th-fina-world-championships/results>
9. De Groot, P.C.E. et al. Ischemic preconditioning improves maximal performance in humans. *European Journal of Applied Physiology*, 108(1), 141–146, 2010.
10. Hargens, A.R. et al. Local compression patterns beneath pneumatic tourniquets applied to arms and thighs of human cadavera. *Journal of Orthopaedic Research*, 5(2), 247–252, 1987.
11. Heusch, G. et al. Remote ischemic conditioning. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 65(2), 177–195, 2015.
12. Horiuchi, M. Ischemic preconditioning : Potential impact on exercise performance and

- 388 underlying mechanisms. *The Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness*, 6(1), 15–23,
389 2017.
- 390 13. Horiuchi, M., Endo, J. & Thijssen, D.H.J. Impact of ischemic preconditioning on functional
391 sympatholysis during handgrip exercise in humans. *Physiological Reports*, 3(2), e12304–
392 e12304, 2015.
- 393 14. Jean-St-Michel, E. et al. Remote Preconditioning Improves Maximal Performance in Highly
394 Trained Athletes. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise*, 43(7), 1280–1286, 2011.
- 395 15. Kjeld, T. et al. Ischemic preconditioning of one forearm enhances static and dynamic apnea.
396 *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, 46(1), 151–155, 2014.
- 397 16. Kuzuya, T. et al. Delayed Effects of Sublethal Ischemia on the Acquisition of Tolerance to
398 Ischemia. *Circulation Research*, 72(6), 1293–1299, 1993.
- 399 17. Lisbôa, F.D. et al. The Time Dependence of the Effect of Ischemic Preconditioning on
400 Successive Sprint Swimming Performance. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 20(5),
401 507-511, 2017.
- 402 18. Loenneke, J.P., Allen, K.M., et al. Blood flow restriction in the upper and lower limbs is
403 predicted by limb circumference and systolic blood pressure. *European Journal of Applied
404 Physiology*, 115(2), 397–405, 2015.
- 405 19. Loenneke, J.P. et al. Effects of cuff width on arterial occlusion: implications for blood flow
406 restricted exercise. *European Journal of Applied Physiology*, 112(8), 2903–2912, 2012.
- 407 20. Marocolo, M. et al. Are the Beneficial Effects of Ischemic Preconditioning on Performance
408 Partly a Placebo Effect? *International Journal of Sports Medicine*, 36(10), 822–825, 2015.
- 409 21. McGowan, C.J., Pyne, D.B., et al. Elite sprint swimming performance is enhanced by
410 completion of additional warm-up activities. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 24(2), 1–7, 2016.
- 411 22. McGowan, C.J., Thompson, K.G., et al. Heated jackets and dryland-based activation
412 exercises used as additional warm-ups during transition enhance sprint swimming
413 performance. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 19(4), 354–358, 2016.
- 414 23. Morouço, P. et al. Relationship between tethered forces and the four swimming techniques
415 performance. *Journal of Applied Biomechanics*, 27(2), 161–169, 2011.

- 416 24. Neiva, H.P. et al. Warm-up and performance in competitive swimming. *Sports Medicine*,
417 44(3), 319–330, 2014.
- 418 25. Noakes, T.D. Physiological models to understand exercise fatigue and the adaptations that
419 predict or enhance athletic performance. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in*
420 *Sports*, 10(3), 123–145, 2000.
- 421 26. Patterson, S.D. et al. The effect of ischemic preconditioning on repeated sprint cycling
422 performance. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, 47(8), 1652–1658, 2015.
- 423 27. Pell, T.J. et al. Renal ischemia preconditions myocardium: role of adenosine receptors and
424 ATP-sensitive potassium channels. *The American Journal of Physiology*, 275(5 Pt 2), H1542–
425 H1547, 1998.
- 426 28. Rodriguez, F. & Mader, A. Energy metabolism during 400 and 100-m crawl swimming:
427 computer simulation based on free swimming measurement. *Biomechanics and Medecine in*
428 *Swimming VIII*, (January 2003), 373–390, 2003.
- 429 29. Saito, T. et al. Ischemic preconditioning improves oxygenation of exercising muscle in vivo.
430 *Journal of Surgical Research*, 120(1), 111–118, 2004.
- 431 30. Salvador, A.. et al. Ischemic preconditioning and exercise performance: A systematic review
432 and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Sports Physiology and Performance*, 11(1), 4-14,
433 2016.
- 434 31. Seeger, J.P.H. et al. Is Delayed Ischemic Preconditioning As Effective on Running
435 Performance During a 5-Km Time Trial As Acute Ipc? *Journal of Science and Medicine in*
436 *Sport*, 20(2), 208–212, 2017.
- 437 32. Sharp, R.L., Williams, D.J. & Bevan, L. Effects of controlled frequency breathing during
438 exercise on blood gases and acid-base balance. *International Journal of Sports Medicine*,
439 12(1), 62–5, 1991.
- 440 33. Singh, D. & Chopra, K. Evidence of the role of angiotensin AT(1) receptors in remote renal
441 preconditioning of myocardium. *Methods and Findings in Experimental and Clinical*
442 *Pharmacology*, 26(2), 117–22, 2004.
- 443 34. Tapuria, N. et al. Remote Ischemic Preconditioning: A Novel Protective Method From

- 444 Ischemia Reperfusion Injury-A Review. *Journal of Surgical Research*, 150(2), 304–330,
445 2008.
- 446 35. Verwaerde, P. et al. The accuracy of the i-STAT portable analyser for measuring blood gases
447 and pH in whole-blood samples from dogs. *Research in Veterinary Science*, 73(1), 71–75,
448 2002.
- 449 36. West, D.J. et al. Influence of post-warm-up recovery time on swim performance in
450 international swimmers. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 16(2), 172–176, 2013.
451
452
453
454
455
456
457
458
459
460
461
462
463
464
465
466
467
468
469
470
471

472

473

474 **FIGURES AND TABLES**

475

476 **Figure 1:** Change in blood markers from pre-ischemic preconditioning (IPC) to post-IPC and Pre-
 477 time trial (TT) to post-TT

478

479 **Table 1:** Performance variables from the swimming time trial (100 and 200 m combined) for the three
 480 conditions

481

Condition	SC 50	SC 100	SR 50 (SPM)	SR 100 (SPM)	Start (s)	Turn 50 (s)
Con	19.3±2.4	22.2±3.2	45.3±8.0	42.5±7.1	4.9±1.4	4.2±1.6
Confidence Interval	18.1-20.5	20.6-23.8	41.3-49.3	39.0-46.0	4.2-5.5	3.4-5.0
IPC-2h	18.8±2.6	21.3 ±3.2	43.9±8.1	42.3±7.4	4.9±1.4	4.2±1.7
Confidence Interval	17.5-20.0	19.7-22.8	40.1-47.7	38.9-45.8	4.3-5.6	3.4-5.0
IPC-24h	18.4±2.6	21.1±3.7	43.4±8.7	42.1±6.3	5.1±1.1	4.4±1.7
Confidence Interval	17.1-19.7	19.2-23.0	38.9-47.8	38.8-45.5	4.6-5.7	3.5-5.3

482 *SC50 = stroke count for the first 50 m, SC 100 = stroke count for the second 50 m, SR 50 = stroke
 483 rate for first 50 m, SR 100 = stroke rate for second 50 m, start = time from dive start to first stroke,
 484 Turn 50 = turn time at 50 m. Confidence intervals reported at ninety-five-percent.

485

Condition	SC 50	SC 100	SR 50 (SPM)	SR 100 (SPM)	Start (s)	Turn 50 (s)
Con	19.3±2.4	22.2±3.2	45.3±8.0	42.5±7.1	4.9±1.4	4.2±1.6
Confidence Interval	18.1-20.5	20.6-23.8	41.3-49.3	39.0-46.0	4.2-5.5	3.4-5.0
IPC-2h	18.8±2.6	21.3 ±3.2	43.9±8.1	42.3±7.4	4.9±1.4	4.2±1.7
Confidence Interval	17.5-20.0	19.7-22.8	40.1-47.7	38.9-45.8	4.3-5.6	3.4-5.0
IPC-24h	18.4±2.6	21.1±3.7	43.4±8.7	42.1±6.3	5.1±1.1	4.4±1.7

Confidence Interval 17.1-19.7 19.2-23.0 38.9-47.8 38.8-45.5 4.6-5.7 3.5-5.3

486 *SC50 = stroke count for the first 50 m, SC 100 = stroke count for the second 50 m, SR 50 = stroke

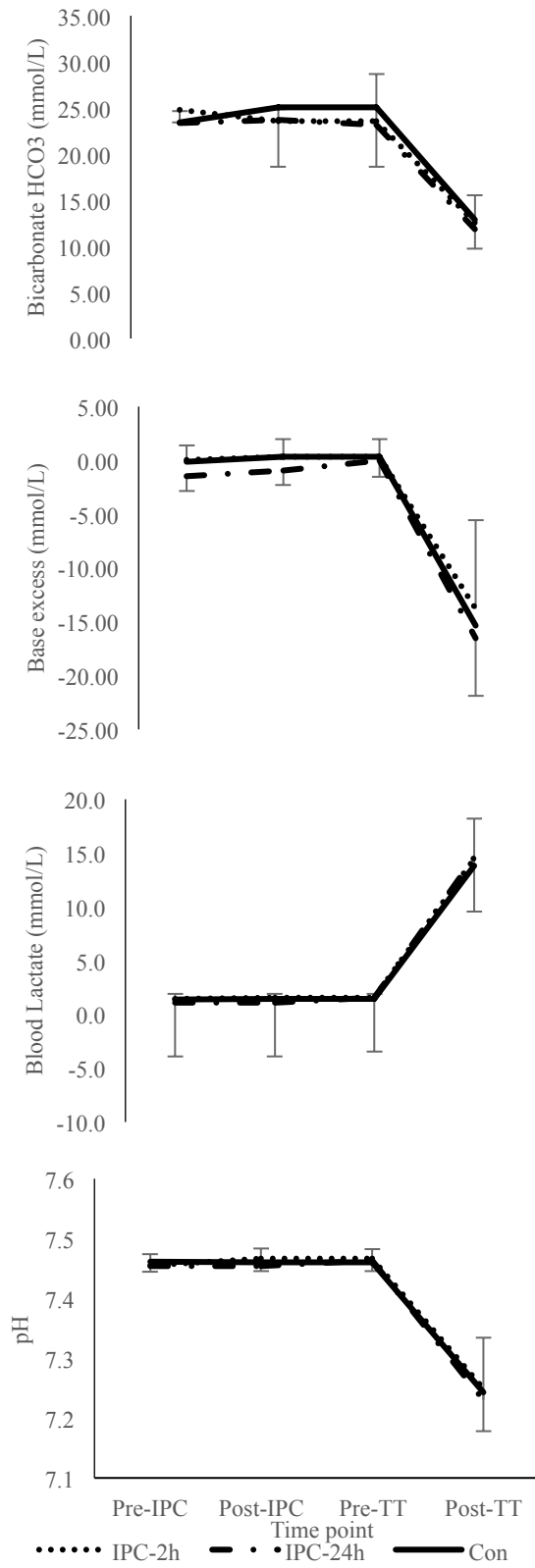
487 rate for first 50 m, SR 100 = stroke rate for second 50 m, start = time from dive start to first stroke,

488 Turn 50 = turn time at 50 m. Confidence intervals reported at ninety-five-percent.

489

490

491



492
493

494
495