## Seventh Edition

## Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription

# Cardiorespiratory Fitness Assessment and Prescription 

Vivian H. Heyward, PhD

University of New Mexico
Ann L. Gibson, PhD
University of New Mexico


Copyright Page
ISBN-13: 978-1-4504-6819-0 (Online CE Course)
Copyright © 2014 by Vivian H. Heyward and Ann L. Gibson
Copyright © 2010, 2006, 2002, 1998, 1991 by Vivian H. Heyward
Copyright © 1984 by Burgess Publishing Company
This e-book is a custom edition of Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription, Seventh Edition, published in 2014 by Human Kinetics, Inc. (Print ISBN: 978-1-4504-6600-4)

All rights reserved. Except for use in a review, the reproduction or utilization of this work in any form or by any electronic, mechanical, or other means, now known or hereafter invented, including xerography, photocopying, and recording, and in any information storage and retrieval system, is forbidden without the written permission of the publisher.

Notice: Permission to reproduce the following material is granted to instructors and agencies who have purchased Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription, Seventh Edition: pp. 386-387. The reproduction of other parts of this book is expressly forbidden by the above copyright notice. Persons or agencies who have not purchased Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription, Seventh Edition, may not reproduce any material.

The web addresses cited in this text were current as of October, 2013, unless otherwise noted.
Acquisitions Editor: Amy N. Tocco
Developmental Editor: Kevin Matz
Managing Editor: Susan Huls
Copyeditor: Joy Wotherspoon
Indexer: Nancy Ball
Permissions Manager: Dalene Reeder
Graphic Designer: Joe Buck
Graphic Artist: Julie L. Denzer
Cover Designer: Keith Blombaerg
Photographs (interior): © Human Kinetics unless otherwise noted
Photo Asset Manager: Laura Fitch
Visual Production Assistant: Joyce Brumfield
Photo Production Manager: Jason Allen
Art Manager: Kelly Hendren
Associate Art Manager: Alan L. Wilborn
Illustrations: © Human Kinetics
Printer: Edwards Brothers Malloy
We thank the Exercise Physiology Laboratory at the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, for assistance in providing the location for the photo shoot for this book.
Printed in the United States of America
10987654321
The paper in this book is certified under a sustainable forestry program.

## Human Kinetics

Website: www.HumanKinetics.com
United States: Human Kinetics
P.O. Box 5076

Champaign, IL 61825-5076
800-747-4457
e-mail: humank@hkusa.com
Canada: Human Kinetics
475 Devonshire Road Unit 100
Windsor, ON N8Y 2L5
800-465-7301 (in Canada only)
e-mail: info@hkcanada.com
Europe: Human Kinetics
107 Bradford Road
Stanningley
Leeds LS28 6AT, United Kingdom
+44 (0) 1132555665
e-mail: hk@hkeurope.com
Australia: Human Kinetics
57A Price Avenue
Lower Mitcham, South Australia 5062
0883720999
e-mail: info@hkaustralia.com
New Zealand: Human Kinetics
P.O. Box 80

Torrens Park, South Australia 5062
0800222062
e-mail: info@hknewzealand.com
E6120

## Contents

Preface iv

Chapter 4 Assessing Cardiorespiratory Fitness ..... 79
Definition of Terms ..... 79
Graded Exercise Testing: Guidelines and Procedures ..... 81
Maximal Exercise Test Protocols ..... 84
Submaximal Exercise Test Protocols ..... 99
Field Tests for Assessing Aerobic Fitness ..... 109
Exercise Testing for Children and Older Adults. ..... 112
Review Material ..... 118
Chapter 5 Designing Cardiorespiratory Exercise Programs ..... 121
The Exercise Prescription ..... 121
Aerobic Training Methods and Modes ..... 135
Personalized Exercise Programs ..... 140
Review Material ..... 150
Appendix A Health and Fitness Appraisal ..... 363
A. 1 Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire (PAR-Q) ..... 364
A. 2 Medical History Questionnaire ..... 366
A. 3 Checklist for Signs and Symptoms of Disease ..... 368
A. 4 Physical Activity Readiness Medical Examination (PARmed-X). ..... 370
A. 5 SCORE High and Low CVD Risk Charts ..... 374
A. 6 Relative Risk Chart ..... 376
A. 7 Lifestyle Evaluation ..... 377
A. 8 Fantastic Lifestyle Checklist ..... 379
A. 9 Informed Consent ..... 381
A. 10 Websites for Selected Professional Organizations and Institutes ..... 383
List of Abbreviations ..... 465
Glossary ..... 467
References ..... 477

## Preface

One of the most important components of physical fitness is cardiorespiratory endurance. Cardiorespiratory endurance is the ability to perform dynamic exercise involving large muscle groups at moderate-to-high intensity for prolonged periods. Every physical fitness evaluation should include an assessment of cardiorespiratory function during both rest and exercise.

Once you have assessed an individual's cardiorespiratory fitness status, you are responsible for planning an aerobic exercise program to develop and maintain the cardiorespiratory endurance of that program participant-a program that will meet the individual's needs and interests, taking into account age, gender, physical fitness level, and exercise habits.

In designing the exercise prescription, keep in mind that some people engage in aerobic exercise to improve their health status or reduce their disease risk, while others are primarily interested in enhancing their physical fitness levels. Given that the quantity of exercise needed to promote health is less than that needed to develop and maintain higher levels of physical fitness, you must adjust the exercise prescription according to your client's primary goal.

Chapter 4 presents guidelines for graded exercise testing, as well as maximal and submaximal exercise test protocols and procedures. Although many of the graded exercise test (GXT) protocols presented were developed years ago, these classic protocols are still widely used in research and clinical settings. In addition, each of these protocols meets the ACSM guidelines for graded exercise tests. The chapter also addresses graded exercise testing for children and older adults and includes a discussion of cardiorespiratory field tests.

Chapter 5 provides guidelines for writing individualized exercise prescriptions that promote health status as well as develop and maintain cardiorespiratory fitness. It compares various training methods and aerobic exercise modes, and presents examples of individualized exercise programs.

These chapters and the accompanying appendix are full excerpts from Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription, Seventh Edition. The book's full glossary and reference list are also provided at the end of the e-book.

## Assessing Cardiorespiratory Fitness

## KEY QUESTIONS

- How is cardiorespiratory fitness $\left(\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}} \max \right)$ assessed?
What is a graded exercise test?
- How is $\dot{V}_{2}$ max estimated from a graded exercise test and field test data?
- Should all clients be given a maximal graded exercise test? What factors should I consider in determining whether to give my client a maximal or submaximal exercise test?
- How accurate are submaximal exercise tests and field tests in assessing cardiorespiratory fitness?

> What exercise modes are suitable for graded exercise testing?
> What are the standardized testing procedures for graded exercise testing?
> What are the criteria for terminating a graded exercise test?
> Is it safe to give children and older adults a graded exercise test?

One of the most important components of physical fitness is cardiorespiratory endurance. Cardiorespiratory endurance is the ability to perform dynamic exercise involving large muscle groups at moderate-to-high intensity for prolonged periods (American College of Sports Medicine [ACSM] 2014). Every physical fitness evaluation should include an assessment of cardiorespiratory function during both rest and exercise.

This chapter presents guidelines for graded exercise testing, as well as maximal and submaximal exercise test protocols and procedures. Although many of the graded exercise test (GXT) protocols presented in this chapter were developed years ago, these classic protocols are still widely used in research and clinical settings. In addition, each of these protocols meets the ACSM (2014) guidelines for graded exercise tests. The chapter also addresses
graded exercise testing for children and older adults and includes a discussion of cardiorespiratory field tests. All of the test protocols included in this chapter are summarized in appendix B.1, "Summary of Graded Exercise Test and Cardiorespiratory Field Test Protocols."

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

Exercise physiologists consider directly measured maximum oxygen uptake ( $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max) the most valid measure of functional capacity of the cardiorespiratory system. The $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max, or rate of oxygen uptake during maximal exercise, reflects the capacity of the heart, lungs, and blood to deliver oxygen to the working muscles during dynamic exercise involving large muscle mass. The $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max is widely accepted as the criterion measure of cardiorespiratory fitness.

Traditionally, a plateau in oxygen consumption despite an increase in workload is the criterion used to determine the attainment of a true $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max during a maximum exercise tolerance test. Over the last decade, however, evidence suggests that the incidence of a $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ plateau during incremental exercise testing is highly variable, ranging from $16 \%$ to $94 \%$ (Day et al. 2003; Magnan et al. 2013; Mier, Alexander, and Mageean 2012; Rossiter, Kowalchuk, and Whipp 2006; Yoon, Kravitz, and Robergs 2007). In fact, studies have established that a "plateau phenomenon" is not a prerequisite for identifying a true $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max$ in the majority of individuals (Noakes 2008). According to Magnan and colleagues (2013), the incidence of a plateau for inactive people is related to body mass index (BMI), waist-to-hip ratio, sense of self-efficacy, gender, and method for determining the plateau. Highly fit college-aged adults may also fail to demonstrate a plateau with treadmill running (Mier, Alexander, and Mageean 2012).

Ramp-type protocols elicit a peak rather than a maximum rate of oxygen consumption. $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak is the highest rate of oxygen consumption measured during the exercise test, regardless of whether or not a $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ plateau is reached. $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak may be higher than, lower than, or equal to $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max. For many individuals who do not reach an actual $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ plateau, the $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ peak attained during a maximum-effort incremental test to the limit of tolerance is a valid index of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max (Day et al. 2003; Hawkins et al. 2007; Howley 2007).

Maximal and submaximal $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ are expressed in absolute or relative terms. Absolute $\mathrm{V}_{\mathbf{O}}^{2}$ is measured in liters per minute $\left(\mathrm{L} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$ or milliliters per minute ( $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) and provides a measure of energy cost for non-weight-bearing activities such as leg or arm cycle ergometry. Absolute $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}$ is directly related to body size; thus, men typically have a larger absolute $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max than women.

Because absolute $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ depends on body size, $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ is typically expressed relative to body weight, that is, in $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$. Relative $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max is used to classify an individual's cardiorespiratory (CR) fitness level or to compare fitness levels of individuals differing in body size. Relative $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ can also be used to estimate the energy cost of weight-bearing activities such as walking, running, and stair climbing. However, although the relationship between absolute $\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}}$ max and body mass is strong ( $r=0.86$ ), it is
not perfect $(r=1.00)$. Therefore, when $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max is expressed simply as a linear function of body mass, CR fitness levels of heavier ( $>75.4 \mathrm{~kg} \mathrm{)} \mathrm{and} \mathrm{lighter}$ ( $<67.7 \mathrm{~kg}$ ) individuals may be under- or overclassified, respectively (Heil 1997). Some experts propose scaling exercise capacity (i.e., $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}, 6 \mathrm{~min}$ walk test distance) to an exponential function of body mass (Buresh and Berg 2002; Dourado and McBurnie 2012; Heil 1997). Dourado and McBurnie (2012) recommended using body mass exponents of 0.11 and 0.37 to compare timed walking distance of middle-aged and older adults, respectively. Heil (1997) suggested using a body mass exponent of 0.67 to compare $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ of individuals of similar height, age, and training status and an exponent of 0.75 to compare heterogeneous groups (e.g., older vs. younger or trained vs. sedentary individuals). A current limitation of this exponential approach is that the norms used to classify CR fitness levels were established for relative $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max values expressed as $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1}$ and not as $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{0.67}$ or 0.75 . Carrick-Ranson and colleagues (2012) suggested that scaling relative to fat-free mass (FFM), the most metabolically active tissue, is more appropriate than is allometric scaling.

Expressing $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ relative to the individual's FFM (see chapter 8), that is, as $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kgFFM}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, provides you with an estimate of cardiorespiratory endurance that is independent of changes in body weight. For example, your client's improvement in relative $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max following a 16 wk aerobic exercise program may reflect both improved capacity of the cardiorespiratory system (increase in absolute $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max$ ) and weight loss (increase in relative $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ expressed as $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ due to a decrease in body weight). Thus, expressing $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}$ max relative to FFM , instead of body weight, reflects the oxygen consumption of the tissues most active during exercise and physical activity.

The rate of oxygen consumption can also be expressed as a gross $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ or net $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$. Gross $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ is the total rate of oxygen consumption and reflects the caloric costs of both rest and exercise (gross $\mathrm{VO}_{2}=$ resting $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}+$ exercise $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ ). On the other hand, net $\mathbf{V O}_{2}$ represents the rate of oxygen consumption in excess of the resting $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ and is used to describe the caloric cost of the exercise. Both gross and net $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ can be expressed in either absolute (e.g., $\mathrm{L} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) or relative $\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$ terms. Unless specified as a net $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$, the $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ values reported throughout this book refer to gross $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$.

## GRADED EXERCISE TESTING: GUIDELINES AND PROCEDURES

Exercise scientists and physicians use exercise tests to evaluate functional cardiorespiratory capacity ( $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \mathrm{max}$ ) objectively. The $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max, determined from graded maximal or submaximal exercise tests, is used to classify the cardiorespiratory fitness level of your client (see table 4.1). You can use baseline and follow-up data to evaluate the progress of exercise program participants and to set realistic goals for your clients. You can use the heart rate (HR) and oxygen uptake data obtained during the graded exercise test to make accurate, precise exercise prescriptions.

As discussed in chapter 2, before the start of a vigorous ( $>60 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max or $>6 \mathrm{METs}$ [metabolic equivalents]) exercise program, ACSM (2014) recommends a graded maximal exercise test for high-risk individuals with one or more signs or symptoms of cardiovascular, pulmonary, renal, and metabolic disease and for high-risk individuals with known cardiovascular, pulmonary, renal, or metabolic disease.

However, you may use submaximal exercise tests or maximal exercise tests for low-risk individuals as well as clients with moderate risk if they are starting either a moderate $\left(40-60 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2}\right.$ max
or 3-6 METs) or vigorous ( $\geq 60 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \max$ or $>6$ METs) exercise program (ACSM 2014). For medical conditions that constitute absolute and relative contraindications to exercise testing, see chapter 2.

## GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR EXERCISE TESTING

You may use a maximal or submaximal graded exercise test (GXT) to assess the cardiorespiratory fitness of the individual. The selection of a maximal or submaximal GXT depends on

- your client's risk stratification (low risk, moderate risk, or high risk),
- your reasons for administering the test (physical fitness testing or clinical testing), and
- the availability of appropriate equipment and qualified personnel.
In clinical and research settings, $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max is typically measured directly, which requires expensive equipment and experienced personnel. Although $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max can be predicted from maximal exercise intensity with a fair degree of accuracy, submaximal tests also provide a reasonable estimate of your client's cardiorespiratory fitness level. They are less costly, time-consuming, and risky. Submaximal exercise testing, however, is considered less sensitive as a diagnostic tool for coronary heart disease (CHD).

Table 4.1 Cardiorespiratory Fitness Classifications: $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max \left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$

| Age (yr) | Poor | Fair | Good | Excellent | Superior |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WOMEN |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20-29 | $\leq 35$ | 36-38 | 40-43 | 44-48 | 49+ |
| 30-39 | $\leq 33$ | 34-36 | 37-41 | 42-46 | 47+ |
| 40-49 | $\leq 32$ | 33-35 | 36-38 | 39-44 | 45+ |
| 50-59 | $\leq 28$ | 29-31 | 32-35 | 36-40 | 41+ |
| 60-69 | $\leq 26$ | 27-28 | 29-32 | 33-36 | 37+ |
| 70-79 | $\leq 25$ | 26-27 | 28-29 | 30-36 | 37+ |
| MEN |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20-29 | $\leq 41$ | 42-45 | 46-49 | 51-55 | 56+ |
| 30-39 | $\leq 40$ | 41-43 | 44-47 | 48-53 | 54+ |
| 40-49 | $\leq 37$ | 38-41 | 42-45 | 46-52 | 53+ |
| 50-59 | $\leq 34$ | 35-38 | 39-42 | 43-48 | 49+ |
| 60-69 | $\leq 31$ | 32-34 | 35-38 | 39-44 | 45+ |
| 70-79 | $\leq 28$ | 29-31 | 32-35 | 36-42 | 43+ |

In either case, the exercise test should be a multistage graded test. This means that the individual exercises at gradually increasing submaximal workloads. Many commonly used exercise test protocols require that each workload be performed for 3 min . The GXT measures maximum functional capacity ( $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{max}$ ) when the oxygen uptake plateaus and does not increase by more than $150 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ with a further increase in workload. However, given that many individuals do not attain a $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ plateau, other criteria may be used to indicate the attainment of a true $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max:

- Failure of the HR to increase with increases in exercise intensity
- Venous lactate concentration exceeding 8 $\mathrm{mmol} \cdot \mathrm{L}^{-1}$
- Respiratory exchange ratio (RER) greater than 1.15
- Rating of perceived exertion (RPE) greater than 17 using the original Borg scale (6-20)

If the test is terminated before the person reaches a plateau in $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ and an RER greater than 1.15, the GXT is a measure of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak rather than $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max. Children, older adults, sedentary individuals, and clients with known disease are more likely than other groups to attain a $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak rather than a $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max. For CHD screening and classification purposes, bringing a person to at least $85 \%$ of the age-predicted maximal HR is desirable because some electrocardiogram (ECG) abnormalities do not appear until the HR reaches this level of intensity.

Evidence suggests that maximal exercise tests are no more dangerous than submaximal tests provided that you carefully follow guidelines for exercise tolerance testing and monitor the physiological responses of the exercise participant continuously. Shephard (1977) predicted one fatality every 10 to 20 yrs for a population of 5 million middle-aged Canadians who undergo maximal exercise testing. For high-risk patients, he estimated one fibrillation per 5,000 submaximal exercise tests and one fibrillation per 3,000 maximal exercise tests. Likewise, eight nonfatal and no fatal events were identified in a retrospective study of 5060 symptom-limited exercise tests (adverse event rate of $0.16 \%$ ) performed on clients with various underlying high-risk cardiac diagnoses (Skalski, Allison, and Miller
2012). For clinical testing, the risk of an exercise test being fatal is no greater than 0.4 to 0.5 per 10,000 tests (Atterhog, Jonsson, and Samuelsson 1979; Goodman, Thomas, and Burr 2011; Rochmis and Blackburn 1971; Skalski, Allison, and Miller 2012), although the risk of myocardial infarction has been estimated to be 4 per 10,000 tests (Thompson 1993). The ACSM (2014) identified the overall risk of exercise testing in a mixed population as six cardiac events (e.g., myocardial infarction, death, and dysrhythmias) per 10,000 tests. Based on a review of studies including clients with and without CVD, Goodman and colleagues (2011) identified the average risk of an adverse event during exercise testing as being less than 2.9 nonfatal and 0.3 fatal events per 10,000 tests. The risk for apparently healthy individuals (without known disease) is very low, with no complications occurring in 380,000 exercise tests done on young individuals (Levine, Zuckerman, and Cole 1998). Similarly, there were no complications reported in the 700,000-plus exercise tests performed on "sports-persons" and athletes in the studies reviewed by Goodman and colleagues (2011). As a result, Goodman and colleagues recommend that the risks of maximal exertion exercise testing reflect a fatal-event incidence of 0.2 to 0.8 per 10,000 tests and a nonfatal-event incidence of 1.4 per 100,000 tests.

## GENERAL PROCEDURES FOR CARDIORESPIRATORY FITNESS TESTING

At least 1 day before the exercise test, you should give your client pretest instructions (see chapter 3). Prior to graded exercise testing, the client should read and sign the informed consent and complete the PAR-Q; see appendix A.1, "Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire (PAR-Q)." Step-by-step instructions, as recommended by ACSM (2014), are listed in "Procedures for Administering a Graded Exercise Test."

Pretest, exercise, and recovery HRs can be measured using the palpation or auscultation technique (see chapter 2) if a HR monitor or ECG recorder is unavailable. Because of extraneous noise and vibration during exercise, it may be difficult to obtain accurate measurements of BP, especially when

## Procedures for Administering a Graded Exercise Test

- Measure the client's resting HR and blood pressure (BP) in the exercise posture (see chapter 2 for these procedures).
- Begin the GXT with a 2 to 3 min warm-up to familiarize clients with the exercise equipment and prepare them for the first stage of the exercise test.
- During the test, monitor HR, BP, and ratings of perceived exertion (RPEs) at regular intervals. Measure HR at least two times during each stage, near the end of the second and third minutes of each stage. A steady-state HR (two HR measurements within $\pm 5 \mathrm{bpm}$ ) should be reached for each stage of the test. Do not increase the workload until a steady-state HR is reached.
- Blood pressure should be measured during the last minute of each stage of the test and repeated if a hypotensive or hypertensive response is observed.
- Rating of perceived exertion should be assessed near the end of the last minute of each exercise stage using either the Borg or OMNI scales.
- Throughout the exercise test, continuously monitor the client's physical appearance and symptoms.
- Discontinue the GXT when the test termination criteria are reached (e.g., $70 \%$ HRR or $85 \%$ $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ ), if the client requests stopping the test, or if any of the indications for stopping an exercise test are apparent (see "General Indications for Termination of a Graded Exercise Test in LowRisk Adults").
- Have the client cool down by exercising at a low work rate that does not exceed the intensity of the first stage of the exercise test (e.g., walking on the treadmill at $2 \mathrm{mph}\left[53.6 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right]$ and $0 \%$ grade, or cycling on the cycle ergometer at 50 to 60 revolutions per minute [rpm] and zero resistance). Active recovery reduces the risk of hypotension from venous pooling in the extremities.
- During recovery, continue measuring postexercise $H R$ and $B P$ for at least 5 min . If an abnormal response occurs, extend the recovery period. The HR and BP during active recovery should be stable but may be higher than pre-exercise levels. Continue monitoring the client's physical appearance during recovery.
- If your client has signs of discomfort or if an emergency occurs, use a passive cool-down with the client in a sitting or supine position.
your client is running on the treadmill. To become proficient at taking exercise BP, you need to practice as much as possible.

For years, the Borg scales have been used to obtain ratings of perceived exertion (RPE) during exercise testing. The original scale (6-20) and the revised scale ( $0-10$ ) allow clients to rate their degree of exertion subjectively during exercise and are highly related to exercise HRs and $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$. Both RPE scales take into account the linear rise in HR and $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ during exercise. The revised scale also reflects nonlinear changes in blood lactate and ventilation during exercise. Ratings of 6 on the original scale and 0 on the revised scale correspond to no exertion at all; ratings of 10 on the revised scale and 19 on the original scale usually correspond with the maximal level of exercise (Borg 1998). Moderate-intensity
exercise is rated between 12 and 14 on the original scale and rated 5 or 6 on the revised scale. Ratings of perceived exertion are useful in determining the endpoints of the GXT, particularly for patients who are taking beta-blockers or other medications that may alter the HR response to exercise. You can teach your clients how to use the RPE scales to monitor relative intensities during aerobic exercise programs.

Alternatively, you may use OMNI scales to obtain your client's RPE for various modes of exercise testing. The OMNI scales can be used to measure RPE for the overall body, the limbs, and the chest. These scales were originally developed for children and adolescents using a picture system to illustrate intensity ( $0=$ extremely easy to $10=$ extremely hard) of effort during exercise. Later the scales were modified for use with adults engaging in cycle ergometer,
treadmill, stepping, elliptical, and resistance exercises. As part of the validation testing for the cycling, stepping, elliptical, and treadmill ergometry scales, the OMNI RPE values were correlated with HR and $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ data. Concurrent validity coefficients ranged from 0.82 to 0.95 for HR and OMNI RPE; likewise, the validity coefficients ranged between 0.88 and 0.96 for $\dot{V}_{2}$ and OMNI RPE (Guidetti et al. 2011; Krause et al. 2012; Mays et al. 2010; Robertson 2004). For resistance exercise, RPE values from the OMNI scale were correlated with weight lifted, yielding validity coefficients ranging from 0.72 to 0.91 (Robertson 2004; Robertson et al. 2005). Appendix B. 4 contains sample instructions, procedures, and OMNI pictorial scales for boys, girls, and adults engaging in cycling, treadmill walking or running, stepping, and resistance exercise. Like the Borg scales, the OMNI scales can be used by your clients to monitor intensity of their workouts during aerobic and resistance exercise training. For a detailed discussion of how to use these scales, refer to the work of Guidetti (2011), Robertson (2004), Krause (2012), and Mays (2010). Table 4.2 summarizes the verbal cues corresponding to the numerical values of the OMNI RPE scales.

## Table 4.2 Verbal Cues for OMNI RPE

Scales

| Adults | Children |
| :--- | :--- |
| Extremely easy $=0$ | Not tired at all $=0$ |
| Easy $=2$ | A little tired $=2$ |
| Somewhat easy $=4$ | Getting more tired $=4$ |
| Somewhat hard $=6$ | Tired $=6$ |
| Hard $=8$ | Really tired $=8$ |
| Extremely hard $=10$ | Very, very tired $=10$ |

## TEST TERMINATION

In a maximal or submaximal GXT, the exercise usually continues until the client voluntarily terminates the test or a predetermined endpoint is reached. As an exercise technician, however, you must be acutely aware of all indicators for stopping a test. If you notice any of the following signs or symptoms, you should stop the exercise test prior to the client's reaching $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max$ (for a maximal GXT) or the predetermined endpoint (for a submaximal GXT).

## GENERAL INDICATIONS FOR TERMINATION OF A GRADED EXERCISE TEST IN LOW-RISK ADULTS ${ }^{\text {a }}$

1. Onset of angina or angina-like symptoms
2. Drop in systolic BP of $>10 \mathrm{mmHg}$ from baseline BP despite an increase in workload
3. Excessive rise in BP: systolic pressure $>250$ mmHg or diastolic pressure $>115 \mathrm{mmHg}$
4. Shortness of breath, wheezing, leg cramps, or claudication
5. Signs of poor perfusion (e.g., ataxia, dizziness, pallor, cyanosis, cold or clammy skin, or nausea)
6. Failure of HR to rise with increased exercise intensity
7. Noticeable change in heart rhythm
8. Client's request to stop
9. Physical or verbal manifestations of severe fatigue
10. Failure of the testing equipment
${ }^{\text {a }}$ For definitions of specific terms, refer to the glossary.
Adapted from Gibbons et al. 2002.

## MAXIMAL EXERCISE TEST PROTOCOLS

Many maximal exercise test protocols have been devised to assess cardiorespiratory capacity. As the exercise technician, you must be able to select an exercise mode and test protocol that are suitable for your clients given their age, gender, and health and fitness status. Commonly used modes of exercise are treadmill walking or running and stationary cycling. Arm ergometry is useful for persons with paraplegia and clients who have limited use of the lower extremities. Also, combined leg and arm ergometry and total body recumbent stepper exercise tests may be suitable alternatives to treadmill testing for assessing the cardiorespiratory fitness of older persons with balance deficits, gait impairments, and decreased coordination (Billinger, Loudon, and Gajewski 2008; Loudon et al. 1998). Bench stepping is not highly recommended but could be useful in field situations when large groups need to be tested.

## General Principles of Exercise Testinga

1. Typically, you will use either a treadmill or stationary cycle ergometer for graded exercise testing. All equipment should be calibrated before use (see online videos on calibrating treadmills and cycle ergometers).
2. Begin the GXT with a 2 to 3 min warm-up to orient clients to the equipment and prepare them for the first stage of the GXT.
3. The initial exercise intensity should be considerably lower than the anticipated maximal capacity.
4. Exercise intensity should be increased gradually throughout the stages of the test. Work increments may be 2 METs or greater for apparently healthy individuals and as small as 0.5 MET for patients with disease.
5. Closely observe contraindications for testing and indications for stopping the exercise test. When in any doubt about the safety or benefits of testing, do not perform the test at that time.
6. Monitor the HR at least two times, but preferably each minute, during each stage of the GXT. Heart rate measurements should be taken near the end of each minute. If the HR does not reach steady state (two HRs within $\pm 5$ or 6 bpm ), extend the work stage an additional minute or until the HR stabilizes.
7. Measure BP and RPE once during each stage of the GXT, in the later portion of the stage.
8. Continually monitor client appearance and symptoms.
9. For submaximal GXTs, terminate the test when the client's HR reaches $70 \%$ HRR (heart rate reserve) or $85 \% \mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ (maximal heart rate), unless the protocol specifies a different termination criterion. Also, stop the test immediately if there is an emergency situation, if the client fails to conform to the exercise protocol, or if the client experiences signs of discomfort.
10. The test should include a cool-down period of at least 5 min , or longer if abnormal HR and BP responses are observed. During recovery, HR and BP should be monitored each minute. For active recovery, the workload should be no more than that used during the first stage of the GXT. A passive recovery is used in emergency situations and when clients experience signs of discomfort and cannot perform an active cool-down.
11. Exercise tolerance in METs should be estimated for the treadmill or ergometer protocol used, or directly assessed if oxygen uptake is measured during the GXT.
12. The testing area should be quiet and private. The room temperature should be $21^{\circ}$ to $23^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ $\left(70-72^{\circ} \mathrm{F}\right.$ ) or less and the humidity $60 \%$ or less if possible.
${ }^{\text {a Physician supervision is recommended for sub-maximal and maximal exercise tests of high-risk clients. }}$

Whichever mode of exercise you choose, be sure to adhere to the principles explained in "General Principles of Exercise Testing."

The exercise test may be continuous or discontinuous. A continuous test is performed with no rest between work increments. Continuous exercise tests can vary in the duration of each exercise stage and the magnitude of the increment in exercise intensity between stages. The ACSM (2014) recommends total test duration between 8 and 12 min to increase the probability of individuals reaching $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max. However, Midgley and colleagues (2008) challenged this recommendation based on an exten-
sive review of studies dealing with this topic. They concluded that duration of cycle ergometer tests should be between 7 and 26 min and that treadmill tests should be between 5 and 26 min to yield a valid determination of $\dot{\mathrm{V}}{ }_{2}$ max. This recommendation assumes that an adequate warm-up precedes the shorter-duration tests and that the treadmill grade does not exceed $15 \%$ during the protocol. For most continuous exercise test protocols, the exercise intensity is increased gradually ( 2 to 3 METs for low-risk individuals) throughout the test, and the duration of each stage is usually 2 or 3 min , allowing most individuals to reach a steady-state $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$
during each stage. Across the stages of this type of GXT, the workload may increase linearly or nonlinearly. Each increment in workload is dictated by the specific protocol and does not vary among individuals. Although this type of GXT is widely used in research and clinical settings, it may not be optimal for assessing the functional capacity of all individuals, especially those with low exercise tolerance. Continuous graded exercise tests may also limit the ability of very fit individuals to satisfy some of the criteria commonly associated with attaining $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max (Mier, Alexander, and Mageean 2012).

Today, continuous ramp-type tests are gaining popularity and are widely used because they can be individualized for the client's estimated exercise tolerance. For example, increments in work rate during a ramp protocol are much higher for endurance-trained athletes than for sedentary individuals (e.g., $30 \mathrm{~W} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ vs. $10 \mathrm{~W} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ). Also, each exercise stage for ramp protocols is much shorter (e.g., 20 sec ) than that of the traditional continuous GXT protocols (2-3 min). Ramp protocols provide continuous and frequent increments in work rate throughout the test so that the $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ increases linearly; they are designed to bring individuals to their limit of exercise tolerance in approximately 10 min . In a study comparing four ramp protocol durations (5, 8 , 12 , and 16 min ) during incremental cycling exercise, Yoon and colleagues (2007) reported that the optimal protocol duration to elicit $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2} \mathrm{max}$ of healthy, moderately to highly trained men and women is between 8 and 10 min .

Because of the frequent (e.g., every 10 or 20 sec ) increases in work rate with ramp protocols, $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ plateaus are rarely observed. However, as previously mentioned, the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak from ramp-type protocols appears to be a valid index of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max even without a plateau in $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ (Day et al. 2003). This ramp approach potentially improves the prediction of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max given that $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ increases linearly across work rates. Ramp protocols allow some individuals to reach a higher exercise tolerance compared to traditional GXT protocols. However, there are disadvantages. To design an individualized ramp protocol, the maximum work rate for each client must be predetermined or accurately estimated from training records or questionnaires so that you can select a work rate that allow clients to reach their peak exercise tolerance in approximately 10 min .

Also, ramp protocols increase work rate frequently (e.g., 25-30 stages in a 10 min test), requiring more expensive electromagnetically braked cycle ergometers and programmable treadmills that make rapid and smooth transitions between the stages of the exercise test. Lastly, inexperienced technicians may have difficulty measuring exercise BP during each minute of the ramp protocol.

For discontinuous exercise tests, the client rests 5 to 10 min between workloads. The workload is progressively increased until the client reaches maximum exercise tolerance (exhaustion). Typically, each stage of the discontinuous protocol lasts 5 or 6 min, allowing $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ to reach a steady state. On average, discontinuous tests take five times longer to administer than do continuous tests. Similar $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max values are attained using discontinuous and continuous (increasing workload every 2-3 min ) protocols (Maksud and Coutts 1971); therefore, continuous tests are preferable in most research and clinical settings.

McArdle, Katch, and Pechar (1973) compared the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max scores as measured by six commonly used continuous and discontinuous treadmill and cycle ergometer tests. They noted that the $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max scores for the cycle ergometer tests were approximately $6 \%$ to $11 \%$ lower than for the treadmill tests. Many subjects identified local discomfort and fatigue in the thigh muscles as the major factors limiting further work on both the continuous and discontinuous cycle ergometer tests. For the treadmill tests, subjects indicated windedness and general fatigue as the limiting factors and complained of localized fatigue and discomfort in the calf muscles and lower back.

## TREADMILL MAXIMAL EXERCISE TESTS

Generally, the treadmill is the preferred exercise test modality in the United States (Balady et al. 2010). For treadmill maximal exercise tests, the exercise is performed on a motor-driven treadmill with variable speed and incline (see figure 4.1). Speed varies up to $25 \mathrm{mph}\left(40 \mathrm{~km} \cdot \mathrm{hr}^{-1}\right)$, and the incline is measured in units of elevation per 100 horizontal units and is expressed as a percentage. The workload on the treadmill is raised through increases in the speed or incline or both. Workload is usually expressed in miles per hour and percent grade.


FIGURE 4.1 Treadmill.

It is difficult and expensive to measure oxygen consumption during exercise. Therefore, ACSM (2014) has developed equations (table 4.3) to estimate the metabolic cost of exercise $\left(\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}\right)$. These equations provide a valid estimate of $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} 2_{2}$ for steady-state
exercise only. When used to estimate the maximum rate of energy expenditure ( $\left.\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{max}\right)$, the measured $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} 2_{2}$ will be less than the estimated $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} \mathbf{2}_{2}$ if steady state is not reached. Also, because maximal exercise involves both aerobic and anaerobic components, the $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ max will be overestimated since the contribution of the anaerobic component is not known.

Before using any of the ACSM metabolic equations to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$, make certain that all units of measure match those in the equation (see "Converting Units of Measure").

The ACSM metabolic equations in table 4.3 are useful in clinical settings for estimating the total rate of energy expenditure (gross $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ ) during steady-state treadmill walking or running. The total energy expenditure, in $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, is a function of three components: speed, grade, and resting energy expenditures. For treadmill walking, the oxygen cost of raising one's body mass against gravity (vertical work) is approximately $1.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}$, and 0.1 $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}$ of oxygen is needed to move the body horizontally. For treadmill running, the oxygen cost for vertical work is one-half that for treadmill walking $\left(0.9 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}\right)$, whereas the energy expenditure for running on the treadmill $\left(0.2 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}\right)$ is twice that for walking. See "ACSM Walking Equation" for an example of how to take these three factors into account when figuring $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$.

The $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ estimated from the ACSM walking equation (see table 4.3) is reasonably accurate for walking speeds between 50 and $100 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}(1.9-3.7$ $\mathrm{mph})$. However, since the equation is more accurate for walking up a grade than on the level, $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ may be underestimated as much as $20 \%$ during walking

## Converting Units of Measure

- Convert body mass (M) in pounds to kilograms $(1 \mathrm{~kg}=2.2 \mathrm{lb})$. For example, $170 \mathrm{lb} / 2.2=77.3 \mathrm{~kg}$.
- Convert treadmill speed (S) in miles per hour to meters per minute $\left(1 \mathrm{mph}=26.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$. For example, $5.0 \mathrm{mph} \times 26.8=134.0 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$.
- Convert treadmill grade (G) from percent to decimal form by dividing by 100 . For example, $12 \% / 100=0.12$.
- Convert METs to $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ by multiplying (1 MET $=3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ). For example, $6 \mathrm{METs} \times 3.5=21.0 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$.
- Convert $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ to watts $(\mathrm{W})(1 \mathrm{~W}=6$ $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) by dividing. For example, 900 $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} / 6=150 \mathrm{~W}$.
- Convert step height in inches to meters ( $1 \mathrm{in} .=$ 0.0254 m ) by multiplying. For example, $8 \mathrm{in} . \times$ $0.0254=0.2032 \mathrm{~m}$.

Table 4.3 Metabolic Equations for Estimating Gross $\dot{V O}_{2}$ (ACSM 2013)

| Exercise mode gross $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ ( $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}-1 \cdot \mathrm{~min}-1$ ) | Resting $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ (ml-kg-1•min-1) | Comments |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Walking $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}=\mathrm{S}^{\mathrm{a}} \times 0.1+\mathrm{S} \times \mathrm{G}^{\mathrm{b}} \times 1.8$ | +3.5 | 1. For speeds of $50-100 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}(1.9-3.7 \mathrm{mph})$ <br> 2. $0.1 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of walking horizontally <br> 3. $1.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of walking on incline (\% grade of treadmill) |
| Running $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}=\mathrm{S}^{\mathrm{a}} \times 0.2+\mathrm{S} \times \mathrm{G}^{\mathrm{b}} \times 0.9$ | +3.5 | 1. For speeds $>134 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}(>5.0 \mathrm{mph})$ <br> 2. If truly jogging (not walking), this equation can also be used for speeds of $80-134 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}(3-5 \mathrm{mph})$ <br> 3. $0.2 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of running horizontally <br> 4. $0.9 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of running on incline (\% grade of treadmill) |
| Leg ergometry $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}=\mathrm{W}^{\mathrm{c}} / \mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{d}} \times 1.8+3.5$ | +3.5 | 1. For work rates between 50 and $200 \mathrm{~W}\left(300-1200 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$ <br> 2. $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}=\mathrm{kg} \times \mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{rev}^{-1} \times \mathrm{rev} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ <br> 3. Monark and Bodyguard $=6 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{rev}^{-1}$; Tunturi $=3 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{rev}^{-1}$ <br> 4. $1.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of cycling against external load (resistance) <br> 5. $3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of cycling with zero load |
| Arm ergometry $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}=\mathrm{W}^{\mathrm{c}} / \mathrm{Md}^{\mathrm{d}} \times 3.0+\text { none }$ | +3.5 | 1. For work rates between 25 and 125 W ( $150-750 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) <br> 2. $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}=\mathrm{kg} \times \mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{rev}^{-1} \times \mathrm{rev} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ <br> 3. $3.0 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of cycling against external load (resistance) <br> 4. None = due to small mass of arm musculature, no special term for unloaded (zero load) cycling needed |
| Stepping $\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}}=\mathrm{F}^{\mathrm{e}} \times 0.2+\mathrm{F} \times \mathrm{ht}^{\mathrm{t}} \times 1.8 \times 1.33$ | +3.5 | 1. Appropriate for stepping rates between 12 and 30 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ and step heights between 0.04 m ( 1.6 in .) and 0.40 m ( 15.7 in .) <br> 2. $0.2 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of moving horizontally <br> 3. $1.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}=\mathrm{O}_{2}$ cost of stepping up (bench height) <br> 4. 1.33 includes positive component of stepping up (1.0) + negative component of stepping down (0.33) |

${ }^{\text {a }} \mathrm{S}=$ speed of treadmill in $\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} ; 1 \mathrm{mph}=26.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$.
${ }^{\mathrm{b}} \mathrm{G}=$ grade ( $\%$ incline) of treadmill in decimal form (e.g., $10 \%=0.10$ ).
${ }^{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{W}=$ work rate in $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} ; 1 \mathrm{Watt}=6 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$.
${ }^{\mathrm{d}} \mathrm{M}=$ body mass in kilograms; $1 \mathrm{~kg}=2.2 \mathrm{lb}$.
${ }^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{F}=$ frequency of stepping in steps per minute.
fht = bench height in meters; $1 \mathrm{in} .=0.0254 \mathrm{~m}$.
on the level (ACSM 2014). For the ACSM running or jogging equations, the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ estimates are relatively accurate for speeds exceeding $134 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}(5 \mathrm{mph})$ and speeds as low as $80 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}(3 \mathrm{mph})$ provided that the client is jogging and not walking (ACSM 2014). When HRs fall between 110 bpm and $85 \%$ of age-predicted maximum HR, the ACSM running equation provides a reasonably good (SEE [standard error of estimate] $=4.2$ to $\left.4.35 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$ estimation of maximal aerobic capacity (Marsh 2012).

Figure 4.2 illustrates commonly used treadmill exercise test protocols. These protocols conform to the general guidelines for maximal exercise testing. Some of the protocols are designed for a specific
population, such as well-conditioned athletes or high-risk cardiac patients. The exercise intensity for each stage of the various treadmill test protocols can be expressed in METs. The MET estimations for each stage of some commonly used treadmill protocols are listed in table 4.4.

Population-specific and generalized equations have been developed to estimate $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max from exercise time for some treadmill protocols (see table 4.5). It is important for exercise technicians to keep in mind that the initial workload in some of the protocols designed for highly trained athletes is too intense (exceeding 2-3.5 METs) for the average individual. The Balke and Bruce protocols are

## ACSM Walking Equation

To calculate the gross $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ for a 70 kg ( 154 lb ) subject who is walking on the treadmill at a speed of 3.5 mph and a grade of $10 \%$, follow these steps:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{VO}_{2}= & \text { speed }+(\text { grade } \times \text { speed }) \\
& + \text { resting } \dot{\mathrm{VO}} \\
2 & \left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \\
= & {\left[\text { speed }\left(\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \times 0.1\right]+[\text { grade }(\text { decimal })} \\
& \left.\times \text { speed }\left(\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \times 1.8\right]+3.5
\end{aligned}
$$

1. Convert the speed in mph to $\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} ; 1 \mathrm{mph}$ $=26.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$.

$$
3.5 \mathrm{mph} \times 26.8=93.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
$$

2. Calculate the speed component (S).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{S} & =\text { speed }\left(\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \times 0.1 \\
& =93.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \times 0.1 \\
& =9.38 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

3. Calculate the grade $\times$ speed component $(G \times S)$. Convert \% grade into a decimal by dividing by 100.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{G} \times \mathrm{S} & =\text { grade }(\text { decimal }) \times \text { speed } \times 1.8 \\
& =0.10 \times\left(93.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \times 1.8 \\
& =16.88 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

4. Calculate the total gross $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ in $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ by adding the speed, grade $\times$ speed, and resting $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}(\mathrm{R})$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} & =\mathrm{S}+(\mathrm{S} \times \mathrm{G})+\mathrm{R} \\
& =(9.38+16.88+3.5) \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
& =29.76 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

well suited for low-risk individuals, and the Bruce protocol is easily adapted for high-risk individuals using an initial workload of 1.7 mph at $0 \%$ to 5\% grade.

## Balke Treadmill Protocol

To administer the Balke and Ware (1959) exercise test protocol (see figure 4.2), set the treadmill speed at $3.4 \mathrm{mph}\left(91.1 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right.$ ) and the initial grade of the treadmill at $0 \%$ during the first minute of exercise. Maintain a constant speed on the treadmill throughout the entire exercise test. At the start of the second minute of exercise, increase the grade to $2 \%$. Thereafter, at the beginning of every additional minute of exercise, increase the grade by only $1 \%$.

Use the prediction equation for the Balke protocol in table 4.5 to estimate your client's $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max from exercise time. Alternatively, you can use a nomogram (see figure 4.3) developed for the Balke treadmill protocol to calculate the $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max of your client. To use this nomogram, locate the time corresponding to the last complete minute of exercise during the protocol along the vertical axis labeled "Balke time," and draw a horizontal line from the time axis to the oxygen uptake axis. Be certain to
plot the exercise time of women and men in the appropriate column when using this nomogram.

## Bruce Treadmill Protocol

The Bruce, Kusumi, and Hosmer (1973) exercise test is a multistaged treadmill protocol (see figure 4.3). The protocol increases the workload by changing both the treadmill speed and percent grade. During the first stage (minutes 1-3) of the test, the normal individual walks at a 1.7 mph pace at $10 \%$ grade. At the start of the second stage (minutes 4-6), increase the grade by $2 \%$ and the speed to 2.5 mph ( $67 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ). In each subsequent stage of the test, increase the grade by $2 \%$ and the speed by either 0.8 or $0.9 \mathrm{mph}\left(21.4\right.$ or $24.1 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) until the client is exhausted. Prediction equations for this protocol have been developed to estimate the $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max of active and sedentary women and men, cardiac patients, and people who are elderly (see table 4.5). As an alternative, you may use the nomogram (see figure 4.4) developed for the Bruce protocol. Plot the client's exercise time for this protocol along the vertical axis labeled "Bruce time," and draw a horizontal line from the time axis to the oxygen uptake. Again, be certain to use the appropriate column for men and women.


Costill and Fox (1969)
For: highly trained
Warm-up: 10-min walk or run
Initial workload: $8.9 \mathrm{mph}, 0 \%$, 2 min


Maksud and Coutts (1971)
For: highly trained
Warm-up: 10-min walking, $3.5 \mathrm{mph}, 0 \%$ Initial workload: $7 \mathrm{mph}, 0 \%$, 2 min


Modified Åstrand (Pollock et al. 1978)
For: highly trained
Warm-up: 5-min walk or jog
Initial workload: 5-8 mph, 0\%, 3 min


Bruce et al. (1973)
For: normal and high risk
Initial workload: $1.7 \mathrm{mph}, 10 \%$, $3 \mathrm{~min}=$ normal
$1.7 \mathrm{mph}, 0-5 \%, 3 \mathrm{~min}=$ high risk


Naughton et al. (1964)
For: cardiac and high risk Initial workload: $1.0 \mathrm{mph}, 0 \%$, 2 min


Wilson et al. (1978)
For: cardiac and high risk
Initial workload: $1.5 \mathrm{mph}, 0 \%$, 3 min

FIGURE 4.2 Treadmill exercise test protocols.


FIGURE 4.2 (continued)

Table 4.4 MET Estimations for Each Stage of Commonly Used Treadmill Protocols

| Stage $^{\text {a }}$ | Bruce | Modified Bruce ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Balke | Naughton |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 4.6 | 2.3 | 3.6 | 1.8 |
| 2 | 7.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 3.5 |
| 3 | 10.2 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 4.5 |
| 4 | 12.1 | 7.0 | 5.5 | 5.4 |
| 5 | 14.9 | 10.2 | 5.9 | 6.4 |
| 6 | 17.0 | 12.1 | 6.4 | 7.4 |
| 7 | 19.3 | 14.9 | 6.9 | 8.3 |

[^0]${ }^{\text {b }}$ Stage $1=0 \%$ grade, 1.7 mph ; Stage $2=5 \%$ grade, 1.7 mph .

Table 4.5 Population-Specific and Generalized Equations for Treadmill Protocols

| Protocol | Population | Reference | Equation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Balke | Active and sedentary men | Pollock et al. (1976) | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max =1.444(\text { time })+14.99 \\ & r=0.92, \mathrm{SE} E=2.50\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \end{aligned}$ |
|  | Active and sedentary women ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Pollock et al. (1982) | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max =1.38(\text { time })+5.22 \\ & r=0.94, \mathrm{SEE}=2.20\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \end{aligned}$ |
| Bruce ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Active and sedentary men | Foster et al. (1984) | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max =14.76-1.379(\text { time })+} \\ & 0.451\left(\mathrm{time}^{2}\right)-0.012\left(\mathrm{time}^{3}\right) \\ & r=0.98, S E E=3.35\left(\mathrm{ml}^{2} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \end{aligned}$ |
|  | Active and sedentary women | Pollock et al. (1982) | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max }=4.38 \text { (time) }-3.90 \\ & r=0.91, \text { SEE }=2.7\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \end{aligned}$ |
|  | Cardiac patients and elderly persons ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | McConnell and Clark (1987) | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max =2.282(\text { time })+8.545 \\ & r=0.82, \mathrm{SEE}=4.9\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \end{aligned}$ |
| Naughton | Male cardiac patients | Foster et al. (1983) | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max =1.61 \text { (time) }+3.60 \\ & r=0.97, \mathrm{SEE}=2.60\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \end{aligned}$ |

${ }^{a}$ For women, the Balke protocol was modified: speed 3.0 mph ; initial workload $0 \%$ grade for 3 min , increasing $2.5 \%$ every 3 min thereafter.
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ For use with the standard Bruce protocol; cannot be used with modified Bruce protocol.
${ }^{\text {c This equation is used only for treadmill walking while holding the handrails. }}$
SEE = standard error of estimate.


FIGURE 4.3 Nomogram for Balke graded exercise test.
Reprinted, by permission, from N. Ng, 1995, METCALC (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics), 30.

## Modified Bruce Protocol

The modified Bruce protocol (see figure 4.2) is more suitable than the Bruce protocol for high-risk and elderly individuals. However, with the exception of the first two stages, this protocol is similar to the standard Bruce protocol. Stage 1 starts at $0 \%$ grade and a 1.7 mph walking pace. For stage 2, the \% grade is increased to $5 \%$. McInnis and Balady (1994) compared physiological responses to the standard and modified Bruce protocols in patients with CHD and reported similar HR and BP responses at matched exercise stages despite the additional 6 min of low-intensity exercise performed using the modified Bruce protocol.

Note that the prediction equations for the Bruce protocol (see table 4.5) can be used for only the standard, not the modified, Bruce protocol. To estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ for the modified Bruce protocol, use the ACSM metabolic equation for walking (see table 4.3).

## Treadmill Ramp Protocols

Kaminsky and Whaley (1998) developed a standardized ramp protocol (i.e., BSU/Bruce ramp protocol) for assessing the functional cardiorespiratory capacity of symptomatic, sedentary, and apparently healthy individuals. For this protocol, the treadmill speed increases gradually (in $0.1-0.4 \mathrm{mph}$, or $2.68-10.72 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, increments) every minute. The minimum speed is $1.0 \mathrm{mph}\left(26.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$; the maximum speed is $5.8 \mathrm{mph}\left(155 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$. The treadmill grade also increases gradually (by $0-5 \%$ ) every minute. The minimum grade is $0 \%$; the maximum grade is $20 \%$. Every 3 min during this ramp protocol, the work rates (i.e., speed and grade) equal those of the traditional Bruce protocol (see table 4.6). For example, during the sixth minute of exercise, the treadmill speed ( 2.5 mph , or $53.6 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) and grade ( $12 \%$ ) are the same, allowing comparisons between the two types of protocols. The ramp approach has the advantage of avoiding large, unequal increments in workload. Also, it results in uniform increases in hemodynamic and physiological responses to incremental exercise and more accurately estimates exercise capacity and ventilatory threshold.

Porszasz and colleagues (2003) devised a ramp protocol that increases work rate linearly so that the individual walking on a treadmill reaches exhaustion in approximately 10 min . To linearly

Table 4.6 Comparison of Work Rates for the Standard Bruce Protocol and the Bruce Ramp Protocol

|  | SPEED IN <br> MPH $^{\mathbf{b}}$ |  | GRADE (\%) |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Minute $^{\text {a }}$ | SB | BR | SB | BR |
| 1 | 1.7 | 1.0 | 10 | 0 |
| 2 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 10 | 5 |
| $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{1 . 7}$ | $\mathbf{1 . 7}$ | $\mathbf{1 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0}$ |
| 4 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 12 | 10 |
| 5 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 12 | 11 |
| $\mathbf{6}$ | $\mathbf{2 . 5}$ | $\mathbf{2 . 5}$ | $\mathbf{1 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 2}$ |
| 7 | 3.4 | 2.8 | 14 | 12 |
| 8 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 14 | 13 |
| $\mathbf{9}$ | $\mathbf{3 . 4}$ | 3.4 | $\mathbf{1 4}$ | $\mathbf{1 4}$ |
| 10 | 4.2 | 3.8 | 16 | 14 |
| 11 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 16 | 15 |
| $\mathbf{1 2}$ | 5.0 | 4.5 | 18 | 16 |
| 13 | 5.0 | 4.8 | 18 | 17 |
| 14 | 5.0 | 5.0 | $\mathbf{1 8}$ | $\mathbf{1 8}$ |
| $\mathbf{1 5}$ | 5.5 | 5.3 | 20 | 18 |
| 16 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 20 | 19 |
| 17 | 5.5 | 5.8 | 20 | 20 |
| 18 | 4.2 | $\mathbf{1 6}$ | $\mathbf{1 6}$ |  |

$\mathrm{SB}=$ standard Bruce protocol; $\mathrm{BR}=$ Bruce ramp protocol.
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Boldfaced italics identify the times during the two protocols when the work rates are equivalent.
${ }^{\text {b }}$ To convert mph to $\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, multiply by 26.8.
increase work rate over time, it is necessary to couple linear increases in walking speed with curvilinear increases in treadmill grade. Because this protocol starts with slow walking (i.e., $0.5-1.0 \mathrm{mph}$, or $13.4-26.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ), it is suitable for individuals with low-exercise tolerance as well as for sedentary individuals with a range of exercise tolerances. As with all types of ramp protocols, this protocol is individualized. The peak work rate, a comfortable range of walking speeds, and the increments in treadmill incline or grade are determined for each client.

This protocol compares favorably to cycle ergometer ramp protocols that increase work rate linearly so that maximum exercise tolerance is reached in $\sim 10 \mathrm{~min}$. The slope of the relationship between $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ and work rate, however, is consistently steeper on the treadmill than on the cycle ergometer (Porszasz
et al. 2003). This steeper slope reflects additional use of the limbs (i.e., swinging the arms and legs) and frictional force as treadmill speed increases. For each individual, the time course for the grade increments needed to elicit a linear increase in work rate can be calculated with a prediction equation based on the client's body weight, desired initial and final walking speeds, initial grade, and estimated peak work rate (see Porszasz et al. 2003). These individual variables, along with the prediction equation for increasing grade, can be programmed into the computer of a contemporary treadmill. Thus, each individualized ramp protocol is controlled by the computer so that the frequent increases in speed and grade are smooth and rapid.

## $\square$ <br> Video 4.4 <br> CYCLE ERGOMETER MAXIMAL EXERCISE TESTS

The cycle ergometer is a widely used instrument for assessing cardiorespiratory fitness and is the preferred modality for exercise tests conducted on individuals with conditions affecting their ability to safely walk or jog on a treadmill (Balady et al. 2010). On a friction-type cycle ergometer (see figure 4.5), resistance is applied against the flywheel using a belt and weighted pendulums. The hand wheel adjusts the workload by tightening or loosening the brake belt. The workload on the cycle ergometer is raised through increases in the resistance on the flywheel. The power output is usually expressed in kilogram-meters per minute ( $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) or watts ( $1 \mathrm{~W}=6 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) and is easily measured using the equation:

$$
\text { power }=\text { force } \times \text { distance } / \text { time }
$$

where force equals the resistance or tension setting on the ergometer (kilograms) and distance is the distance traveled by the flywheel rim for each revolution of the pedal times number of revolutions per minute. On the Monark and Bodyguard cycle ergometers, the flywheel travels 6 m per pedal revolution. Therefore, if a resistance of 2 kg is applied and the pedaling rate is 60 rpm , then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { power }=2 \mathrm{~kg} \times 6 \mathrm{~m} \times 60 \mathrm{rpm}=720 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
\text { or } 120 \mathrm{~W} .
\end{gathered}
$$



FIGURE 4.5 Cycle ergometer (mechanically braked).

To calculate the distance traveled by the flywheel of cycle ergometers with varying-sized flywheels, measure the circumference (in meters) of the resistance track on the flywheel and multiply the circumference by the number of flywheel revolutions during one complete revolution ( $360^{\circ}$ ) of the pedal (Gledhill and Jamnik 1995).

When you are standardizing the work performed on a friction-type cycle ergometer, the client should maintain a constant pedaling rate. Some cycle ergometers have a speedometer that displays the individual's pedaling rate. Check this dial frequently to make certain that your client is maintaining a constant pedaling frequency throughout the test. If a speedometer is not available, use a metronome to establish your client's pedaling cadence. Controlling the pedaling rate on an electrically braked cycle ergometer (figure 4.6) is unnecessary. An electromagnetic braking force adjusts the resistance for slower or faster pedaling rates, thereby keeping the


FIGURE 4.6 Cycle ergometer (electrically braked).
power output constant. This type of cycle ergometer, however, is difficult to calibrate.

Most cycle ergometer test protocols for untrained cyclists use a pedaling rate of 50 or 60 rpm ,
and power outputs are increased by 150 to 300 $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(25-50 \mathrm{~W})$ in each stage of the test. However, you can use higher pedaling rates ( $\geq 80$ $\mathrm{rpm})$ for trained cyclists. A pedaling rate of 60 rpm produces the highest $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max$ when compared with rates of 50,70 , or 80 rpm (Hermansen and Saltin 1969). Figure 4.7 illustrates some widely used discontinuous and continuous maximal exercise test protocols for the cycle ergometer. Guidelines for use of cycle ergometers are presented in "Testing With Cycle Ergometers."

To calculate the energy expenditure for cycle ergometer exercise, use the ACSM equations provided in table 4.3. The total energy expenditure or gross $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$, in $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, is a function of the oxygen cost of pedaling against resistance (power output in watts), the oxygen cost of unloaded cycling (approximately $3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ at $50-60 \mathrm{rpm}$ with zero resistance), and the resting oxygen consumption. The cost of cycling against an external load or resistance is approximately $1.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}$. For a sample calculation, see "ACSM Leg Ergometry Equation."

Keep in mind that the leg and arm ergometry equations are accurate in estimating $\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}}$ only if the client attains a steady state during the maximal GXT. If, for example, the client is able to complete only 1 min of exercise during the last stage of the maximal test protocol, the power output from the previous stage (in which the client reached steady state) should be used to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max rather than the power output corresponding to the last stage.

## Testing With Cycle Ergometers

The following guidelines are suggested for the use of cycle ergometers:

1. Calibrate the cycle ergometer often by hanging known weights from the belt of the flywheel and reading the dial on the hand wheel.
2. Always release the tension on the belt between tests.
3. Establish pedaling frequency before setting the workload.
4. Check the load setting frequently during the test because it may change as the belt warms up.
5. Set the metronome so that one revolution is completed for every two beats (e.g., set the metronome at 120 for a test requiring a pedaling frequency of 60 rpm ).
6. Adjust the height of the seat so the knee is slightly flexed (about $25^{\circ}$ ) at maximal leg extension with the ball of the foot on the pedal.
7. Have the client assume an upright, seated posture with hands properly positioned on the handlebars.

## ACSM Leg Ergometry Equation

To calculate the energy expenditure of a 62 kg ( 136 lb) woman cycling at a work rate or power output of $360 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, follow these steps:

1. Calculate the energy cost of cycling at the specified power output.
$\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}=$ work rate ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}(\mathrm{W}) /$ body mass $(\mathrm{M}) \times 1.8$

$$
=360 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} / 62 \mathrm{~kg} \times 1.8
$$

$$
=10.45 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
$$

2. Add the estimated cost of cycling at zero load (i.e., $3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} & =10.45 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}+3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
& =13.95 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

3. Add the estimated resting energy expenditure ( $3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} & =13.95 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}+3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
& =17.45 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Work rate is in $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$.


Fox (1973)
Type: discontinuous
For: normal risk
Initial workload: 750-900 kgm (125-150 W) (men) $450-600 \mathrm{kgm}$ (75-100 W) (women)


McArdle et al. (1973)
Type: continuous
For: normal risk
Initial workload: 900 kgm ( 150 W )



FIGURE 4.7 Cycle ergometer exercise test protocols.

## Åstrand Cycle Ergometer Maximal Test Protocol

For the Åstrand (1965) continuous test protocol (see figure 4.7), the initial power output is $300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ $(50 \mathrm{~W})$ for women and $600 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(100 \mathrm{~W})$ for men. Because the pedaling rate is 50 rpm , the resistance is 1 kg for women ( $1 \mathrm{~kg} \times 6 \mathrm{~m} \times 50 \mathrm{rpm}$ $=300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) and 2 kg for men ( $2 \mathrm{~kg} \times 6 \mathrm{~m} \times$ $\left.50 \mathrm{rpm}=600 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$. Have your client exercise at this initial workload for 2 min . Then increase the power output every 2 to 3 min in increments of 150 $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(25 \mathrm{~W})$ and $300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(50 \mathrm{~W})$ for women and men, respectively. Continue the test until the client is exhausted or can no longer maintain the pedaling rate of 50 rpm . Use the ACSM metabolic equation for leg ergometry to estimate $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ from your client's power output during the last steady-state stage of the GXT.

## Fox Cycle Ergometer Maximal Test Protocol

The Fox (1973) protocol is a discontinuous test consisting of a series of 5 min exercise bouts with 10 min rest intervals. The starting workload is between 750 and $900 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(125-150 \mathrm{~W})$ for men and 450 and $600 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(75-100 \mathrm{~W})$ for women. The progressive increments in work depend on the client's HR response and usually are between 120 and $180 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(20-30 \mathrm{~W})$. The client exercises until exhausted or until no longer able to pedal for at least 3 min at a power output that is 60 to $90 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(10-15 \mathrm{~W})$ higher than the previous workload. You can use the metabolic equations to convert the power output from the last steady-state stage of this protocol to $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max.

## BENCH STEPPING MAXIMAL EXERCISE TESTS

The least desirable mode of exercise for maximum exercise testing is bench stepping. During bench stepping, the individual is performing both positive (up phase) and negative (down phase) work. Approximately one-quarter to one-third less energy is expended during negative work (Morehouse 1972). This factor, coupled with adjusting the step height and stepping rate for differences in body weight,
makes standardization of the work extremely difficult.

## General Procedures

Most step test protocols increase the intensity of the work by gradually increasing the height of the bench or stepping rate. The work (W) performed can be calculated using the equation $\mathrm{W}=\mathrm{F} \times \mathrm{D}$, where F is body weight in kilograms and D is bench height times number of steps per minute. For example, a $50 \mathrm{~kg}(110 \mathrm{lb})$ woman stepping at a rate of 22 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ on a $30 \mathrm{~cm}(0.30 \mathrm{~m})$ bench is performing $330 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ of work ( $50 \mathrm{~kg} \times 0.30 \mathrm{~m} \times 22$ steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ).

The following equations can be used to adjust the step height and stepping rate for differences in body weight to achieve a given work rate (Morehouse 1972):

```
step height (cm) = work ( kgcm·min }\mp@subsup{}{}{-1}
    / body weight (kg)
    < stepping rate
```

stepping rate $\left(\right.$ steps $\left.\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)=$ work $\left(\mathrm{kgcm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$
/ body weight ( kg )
$\times$ step height ( cm )

For example, if you devise a graded step test protocol that requires a client weighing 60 kg (132 lb) to exercise at a work rate of $300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, and the stepping rate is set at 18 steps $\mathrm{min}^{-1}$, you need to determine the step height that corresponds to the work rate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { step height } & =\underset{ }{300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} /(60 \mathrm{~kg} \times 18} \\
& =0.28 \mathrm{~m}, \text { or } 28 \mathrm{~cm}
\end{aligned}
$$

Alternatively, you may choose to keep the step height constant and vary the stepping cadence for each stage of the GXT. For example, if the step height is set at $30 \mathrm{~cm}(0.30 \mathrm{~m})$, and the protocol requires that a client weighing $60 \mathrm{~kg}(132 \mathrm{lb})$ exercise at a work rate of $450 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, you need to calculate the corresponding stepping rate for this client:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { stepping rate } & =450 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} /(60 \mathrm{~kg} \times 0.30 \mathrm{~m}) \\
& =25 \mathrm{steps} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

You can calculate the energy expenditure in METs using the ACSM metabolic equation for stepping exercise (see table 4.3). The total gross
$\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ is a function of step frequency, step height, and the resting energy expenditure. The oxygen cost of the horizontal movement is approximately 0.2 $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}$ for each four-count stepping cycle. The oxygen demand for stepping up is $1.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-1}$; approximately one-third more must be added (i.e., constant of 1.33 in equation) to account for the oxygen cost of stepping down. For an example of such calculations, see "ACSM Stepping Equation."

## Nagle, Balke, and Naughton Maximal Step Test Protocol

Nagle, Balke, and Naughton (1965) devised a graded step test for assessing work capacity. Have your client step at a rate of 30 steps• $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ on an automatically adjustable bench ( $2-50 \mathrm{~cm}$ ). Set the initial bench height at 2 cm and increase the height 2 cm every minute of exercise. Use a metronome to establish the stepping cadence (four beats per stepping cycle). To establish a cadence of 30 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, set the metronome at $120(30 \times 4)$. Terminate the test when the subject is fatigued or can no longer maintain the stepping cadence. Use the ACSM
metabolic equation for stepping exercise to calculate the energy expenditure ( $\dot{V O}_{2}$ max) corresponding to the step height and stepping cadence during the last work stage of this protocol.

## RECUMBENT STEPPER MAXIMAL EXERCISE TEST

Billinger and colleagues (2008) developed a maximum exercise test using a total body recumbent stepper (NuStep TRS 4000). This device has 10 settings ranging from 50 to 290 watts (W). The protocol begins with a 2 min warm-up at load setting 1 (50 W). Immediately following the warm-up, the initial workload is set to $4(75 \mathrm{~W})$, and the resistance is increased progressively until the participant reaches test termination criteria. A constant cadence (115 steps. $\mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) is used throughout the exercise protocol. Compared to treadmill testing (Bruce protocol), the recumbent stepper test elicited a lower $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ ( 181 vs. $188 \mathrm{bpm})$ and $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}\left(3.13 \mathrm{vs} .3 .67 \mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$ on average. These differences are expected given the seated posture during the recumbent stepper exercise test.

## ACSM Stepping Equation

To calculate the energy expenditure for bench stepping using a 16 in . (about 40 cm ) step height at a cadence of 24 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, use the following procedure:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \dot{\mathrm{VO}} \\
& 2 \text { in } \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}= \\
& {[\text { frequency }(\mathrm{F}) \text { in }} \\
& \text { steps } \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} \\
&\times 0.2]+(\text { step height in } \\
& \mathrm{m} \cdot \text { step } \\
& \times \mathrm{F} \text { in steps } \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} \times 1.33 \\
&\times 1.8)+ \text { resting } \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

1. Calculate the $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ for the stepping frequency (F).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} & =\text { stepping frequency }(\mathrm{F}) \times 0.20 \\
& =24 \text { steps } \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} \times 0.20 \\
& =4.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Convert the bench height to meters ( $1 \mathrm{in} .=2.54$ cm or 0.0254 m ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{ht} & =16 \mathrm{in} . \times 0.0254 \mathrm{~m} \\
& =0.4064 \mathrm{~m}
\end{aligned}
$$

3. Calculate the $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ for the vertical work performed during stepping.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} & =\text { bench } \mathrm{ht} \times \text { stepping rate } \times 1.33 \times 1.8 \\
& =0.4064 \mathrm{~m} \times 24 \text { steps } \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} \times 1.33 \times 1.8 \\
& =23.35 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

4. Add resting $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ to the calculated $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ from steps 1 and 3.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \dot{\mathrm{VO}} \\
& 2 \\
& 4.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}+23.35 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
&+3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
&= 31.65 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

The correlation coefficients for $\dot{\mathrm{V}}{ }_{2} \max (r=0.92)$ and $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}(r=0.96)$ indicated a strong relationship between the Bruce protocol and the recumbent stepper protocol.

This test modality may be especially useful for assessing the cardiorespiratory fitness of individuals with neuromuscular disorders that impair gait, coordination, and balance. Seated steppers are now widely used as a training modality in rehabilitation, fitness centers, and retirement communities.

SUBMAXIMAL EXERCISE TEST PROTOCOLS

It is desirable to directly determine the functional cardiorespiratory capacity of the individual for classifying the aerobic fitness level and prescribing an aerobic exercise program. However, this is not always practical to do. The actual measurement of $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max requires expensive laboratory equipment, a considerable amount of time to administer, and a high level of motivation on the part of the client.

Alternatively, you can use submaximal exercise tests to predict or estimate the $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max of the individual. Many of these tests are similar to the maximal exercise tests described previously but differ in that they are terminated at some predetermined HR intensity. You will monitor the HR, BP, and RPE during the submaximal exercise test. The treadmill, cycle ergometer, and bench stepping exercises are commonly used for submaximal exercise testing.

## ASSUMPTIONS

## OF SUBMAXIMAL

 EXERCISE TESTSSubmaximal exercise tests assume that a steadystate $H R$ is achieved and is consistent for each exercise work rate. Steady-state HR usually is achieved in 3 to 4 min at a constant, submaximal work rate. Also, it is assumed that a linear relationship exists between $\dot{V} O_{2}$ and $H R$ within the range of 110 to 150 bpm . The HR and work rate from two submaximal work outputs can be plotted (i.e., $\mathrm{HR}-\mathrm{V}_{2}$ relationship) and extrapolated to $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max$
from submaximal data (see figure 4.10). Although the linear relationship between HR and $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ holds for light-to-moderate workloads, the relationship between oxygen uptake and work rate becomes curvilinear at heavier workloads. If your clients are taking medications that alter HR, you should not use submaximal HR data to estimate their $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max.

Another assumption of submaximal testing is that the mechanical efficiency during cycling or treadmill exercise is constant for all individuals. However, a client with poor mechanical efficiency while cycling has a higher submaximal HR at a given workload, and the actual $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max is underestimated due to this inefficiency. As a result, $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max predicted by submaximal exercise tests tends to be overestimated for highly trained individuals and underestimated for untrained, sedentary individuals.

Submaximal tests also assume that the $H R_{\text {max }}$ for clients of a given age is similar. The $\mathrm{HR}_{\max }$, however, has been shown to vary as much as $\pm 11 \mathrm{bpm}$, even after controlling for variability due to age and training status (Londeree and Moeschberger 1984). Also, for submaximal tests, the $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ is estimated from age. The equation $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}=220-$ age is widely used. The $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ of approximately $5 \%$ to $7 \%$ of men and women is more than 15 bpm less than their age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$. On the other hand, $9 \%$ to $13 \%$ have $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ values that exceed their age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ by more than 15 bpm (Whaley et al. 1992). Because of interindividual variability in $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ and the potential inaccuracy with use of age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$, there may be considerable error ( $\pm 10-15 \%$ ) in estimating your client's $\dot{V}_{2}$ max, especially when submaximal data are extrapolated to an agepredicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$.

In addition, Tanaka, Monahan, and Seals (2001) noted that the traditional age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ equation (220 - age) overestimates the measured $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ of younger individuals and increasingly underestimates the actual $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ of individuals older than 40 yr. Using data from a meta-analysis of 351 studies that included more than 18,000 healthy, nonsmoking adults and from a controlled laboratory-based study of 514 healthy adults ( $18-81 \mathrm{yr}$ ), the authors reported that age singly accounts for $80 \%$ of the variance in $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$, independent of gender and physical activity status. They derived the following equation to predict $\mathrm{HR}_{\max }$ from age: $\mathrm{HR}_{\max }=208-(0.7 \times$ age $)$.
$\mathrm{HR}_{\max }$ estimates from this equation differ from those of the traditional equation, particularly in older ( $>40$ yr ) adults. For example, the age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\max }$ for a 60 yr old client is 166 bpm for the revised equation $(208-(0.7 \times 60)=166 \mathrm{bpm})$ and 160 bpm for the traditional equation $(220-60=160 \mathrm{bpm})$.

Gellish and colleagues (2007) used longitudinal modeling to track the relationship between $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ and age as individuals age. Their data yielded a linear prediction equation $\left[\mathrm{HR}_{\max }=207-(0.7\right.$ $\times$ age)] that is similar to the equation derived by Tanaka and colleagues (2001). The confidence interval for predicting $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ of adults 30 to 75 yr was $\pm 5$ to 8 bpm . Using a nonlinear model produced a tighter confidence interval of only $\pm 2$ to 5 bpm ; however, this quadratic equation, $\mathrm{HR}_{\max }=192-$ ( $0.007 \times$ age $^{2}$ ), is not as practical to use.

After determining there was no difference in $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ compared to that obtained through treadmill testing ( $190.0 \pm 7.5 \mathrm{bpm}$ ), Cleary and colleagues (2011) suggested that the highest $\operatorname{HR}(190.1 \pm 7.9$ bpm ) from two 200 m maximal exertion sprints is a suitable alternative to the age-related $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ prediction equations for adults (18-33 yr). Of interest, they found that the Gellish quadratic equation and the gender-specific equations of Fairbarn and colleagues (1994) (women: $\left[\mathrm{HR}_{\max }=201-(0.63 \times\right.$ age $\left.)\right]$; men: $\mathrm{HR}_{\max }=[208-(0.80 \times$ age $\left.)]\right)$ produced $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ estimations similar to that from the 200 m sprint.

Because of interindividual variability in $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ and the potential inaccuracy of age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ equations, the actual $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ should be measured directly (by ECG or HR monitor) whenever possible. An accurate $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ is particularly important in situations in which

- the exercise test is terminated at a predetermined percentage of either $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}\left(\% \mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}\right.$ method) or heart rate reserve $\left[\mathrm{HRR}=\%\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\max }-\mathrm{HR}_{\text {rest }}\right)+\right.$ $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {rest }}$,
- the client's $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max is estimated from submaximal exercise test data that are extrapolated to an age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$,
- or $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ is used to determine target exercise HRs for aerobic exercise prescriptions (see chapter 5).


## TREADMILL SUBMAXIMAL EXERCISE TESTS

Treadmill submaximal tests provide an estimate of functional cardiorespiratory capacity ( $\mathrm{V}_{2} \max$ ) and assume a linear increase in HR with successive increments in workload. Compared to clients with low cardiorespiratory fitness levels, the wellconditioned individual presumably is able to perform a greater quantity of work at a given submaximal HR.

You can use treadmill maximal test protocols (figure 4.2) to identify the slope of the individual's HR response to exercise. The $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max can be predicted from either one (single-stage model) or two (multistage model) submaximal HRs. The accuracy of the single-stage model is similar to that of the multistage model.

## Multistage Model

To estimate $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max with the multistage model, use the HR and workload data from two or more submaximal stages of the treadmill test. Be sure your client reaches steady-state HRs between 115 and 150 bpm (Golding 2000). Determine the slope (b) by calculating the ratio of the difference between the two submaximal (SM) workloads (expressed as $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ ) and the corresponding change in submaximal HRs:

$$
b=\left(\mathrm{SM}_{2}-\mathrm{SM}_{1}\right) /\left(\mathrm{HR}_{2}-\mathrm{HR}_{1}\right)
$$

Calculate the $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ for each workload using the ACSM metabolic equation (table 4.3), and use the following equation to predict $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max$ :

$$
\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max =\mathrm{SM}_{2}+b\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\max }-\mathrm{HR}_{2}\right)
$$

If the actual maximal HR is not known, estimate it using one of the age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ equations previously mentioned. See "Multistage Model for Estimating $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{max}$ " for an example that illustrates how $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max is estimated from submaximal treadmill test data for a 38 yr old male. In this example, the Bruce protocol was administered to the client. Please note that this model may be used for any multistage GXT test.

## MULTISTAGE MODEL FOR ESTIMATING V을 MAX

## Submaximal Data From Bruce Protocol

Stage ${ }^{2 a}$
$\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}{ }^{\mathrm{b}}=24.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\left(\mathrm{SM}_{2}\right)$
$\mathrm{HR}=145 \mathrm{bpm}\left(\mathrm{HR}_{2}\right)$

Stage $1^{\text {a }}$
$\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}}=16.1 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\left(\mathrm{SM}_{1}\right)$
$\mathrm{HR}=130 \mathrm{bpm}\left(\mathrm{HR}_{1}\right)$

Maximal HR: $\mathbf{2 2 0} \mathbf{- a g e}=\mathbf{1 8 2} \mathbf{b p m}$

```
Slope \((b)=\left(S M_{2}-S M_{1}\right) /\left(H R_{2}-H R_{1}\right)\)
    \(b=(24.5-16.1) /(145-130)\)
    \(b=8.4 / 15\)
    \(b=0.56\)
\(\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max :=\mathrm{SM}_{2}+b\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}-\mathrm{HR}_{2}\right)\)
    \(=24.5+0.56(182-145)\)
    \(=24.5+20.72\)
```

    \(\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} \max =45.22 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\)
    ${ }^{\text {a Stages }} 1$ and 2 refer to the last two stages of the GXT completed by the client, and not the first and second stage of the test protocol. For example, if the client completes three stages of the submaximal exercise test protocol, data from stage 2 and stage 3 are used to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$.
${ }^{\mathrm{b}} \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ is calculated using ACSM metabolic equations (see table 4.3). $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ can be expressed in $\mathrm{L}^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}, \mathrm{ml}^{2} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, or METs .

## Single-Stage Model

To estimate $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{max}$ with the single-stage model, use one submaximal HR and one workload. The steady-state submaximal HR during a single-stage GXT should reach 130 to 150 bpm . "Formulas for Men and Women" shows formulas that have been developed (Shephard 1972).
$\mathrm{SM}_{\dot{\mathrm{vo}}_{2}}$ is calculated using the ACSM metabolic equations (see table 4.3). Estimate $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ (if not known) using one of the age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ formulas; $\mathrm{HR}_{S M}$ is the submaximal HR .
"Single-Stage Model for Estimating $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max" provides an example to illustrate how this model is
used to predict $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max from submaximal treadmill data for a 45 yr old female. In this example, the Balke protocol was administered. Please note that this model may be used for any GXT protocol.

## Formulas for Men and Women

Men

$$
\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max }=\mathrm{SM}_{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} \times\left[\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\max }-61\right) /\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\mathrm{SM}}-61\right)\right]
$$

Women

$$
\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max =\mathrm{SM}_{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} \times\left[\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\max }-72\right) /\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\mathrm{SM}}-72\right)\right]
$$

## SINGLE-STAGE MODEL FOR ESTIMATING VO ${ }_{2}$ MAX

## Submaximal Data From Balke Protocol: Stage 3

$$
\begin{gathered}
\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}}=5.0 \mathrm{METs}\left(\mathrm{SM}_{\mathrm{iO}_{2}}\right) \\
\mathrm{HR}=148 \mathrm{bpm}\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\mathrm{SM}}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

## Maximal HR: $\mathbf{2 2 0}$ - age $=\mathbf{1 7 5}$ bpm

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max := \mathrm{SM}_{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} \times[(\mathrm{HR} \\
& \max \\
&\left./\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\mathrm{SM}}-72\right)\right] \\
&= 5 \times[(175-72) /(148-72)] \\
&= 5 \times(103 / 76) \\
&= 6.8 \mathrm{METs}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Single-Stage Treadmill Walking Test

Ebbeling and colleagues (1991) developed a singlestage treadmill walking test suitable for estimating $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max of low-risk, healthy adults 20 to 59 yr. The Ebbeling treadmill test also produced high test-retest reliability and validity with $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max for a sample of middle-aged (45-65 yr) women (Mitros et al. 2011). For this protocol, walking speed is individualized and ranges from 2.0 to $4.5 \mathrm{mph}(53.6-120.6$ $\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) depending on your client's age, gender, and fitness level. Establish a walking pace during a 4 min warm-up at $0 \%$ grade. The warm-up work bout should produce a HR within $50 \%$ to $70 \%$ of the individual's age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$. The test consists of brisk walking at the selected pace for an additional 4 min at $5 \%$ grade. Record the steady-state HR at this workload, and use it in the following equation to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max$ in $\mathrm{ml} / \mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{min}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{max}= & 15.1+21.8(\mathrm{speed} \text { in } \mathrm{mph} \\
& -0.327(\mathrm{HR} \text { in bpm }) \\
& -0.263(\text { speed } \times \text { age in years }) \\
& +0.00504(\mathrm{HR} \times \text { age }) \\
& +5.48(\text { gender: female }=0 ; \\
& \quad \text { male }=1)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Single-Stage Treadmill Jogging Test

You can estimate the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max of younger adults ( $18-28$ yr) using a single-stage treadmill jogging test (George et al. 1993). For this test, select a comfortable jogging pace ranging from 4.3 to 7.5 $\mathrm{mph}\left(115.2-201 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right.$ ), but not more than 6.5 $\mathrm{mph}\left(174.2 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right.$ ) for women and $7.5 \mathrm{mph}(201$ $\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) for men. Have the client jog at a constant speed for about 3 min . The steady-state exercise HR should not exceed 180 bpm . Estimate $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max $(\mathrm{ml} / \mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{min})$ using the following equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max = & 54.07-0.1938(\text { body weight in } \mathrm{kg}) \\
& +4.47(\text { speed in } \mathrm{mph}) \\
& -0.1453(\mathrm{HR} \text { in } \mathrm{bpm}) \\
& +7.062(\text { gender: female }=0 \\
& \text { male }=1)
\end{aligned}
$$

## CYCLE ERGOMETER SUBMAXIMAL EXERCISE TESTS

Cycle ergometer multistage submaximal tests can be used to predict $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max. These tests are either continuous or discontinuous and are based on the assumption that HR and oxygen uptake are linear functions of work rate. The HR response to submaximal workloads is used to predict $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max.

## Åstrand-Ryhming Cycle Ergometer Submaximal Exercise Test Protocol

The Åstrand-Ryhming protocol (1954) is a singlestage test that uses a nomogram to predict $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max from HR response to one 6 min submaximal workload. A power output is selected that produces a HR between 125 and 170 bpm . The initial workload is usually 450 to $600 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(75-100 \mathrm{~W})$ for trained, physically active women and 600 to 900 $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(100-150 \mathrm{~W})$ for trained, physically active men. An initial workload of $300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ( 50 W ) may be used for unconditioned or older individuals.

During the test, measure the HR every minute and record the average HR during the fifth and sixth minutes. If the difference between these two HRs
exceeds 5 or 6 bpm, extend the work bout until a steady-state HR is achieved. If the HR is less than 130 bpm at the end of the exercise bout, increase the workload by $300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(50 \mathrm{~W})$ and have the client exercise an additional 6 min .

To estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max for this protocol, use the modified Åstrand-Ryhming nomogram (see figure 4.8). This nomogram estimates $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max \left(\mathrm{in} \mathrm{L} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$


FIGURE 4.8 Modified Åstrand-Ryhming nomogram.
From "Aerobic Capacity in Men and Women with Special Reference to Age" by I. Åstrand, 1960. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 49 (Suppl. 169), p. 51. Copyright 1960 by Acta Physiologica Scandinavica Reprinted by permission.
from submaximal treadmill, cycle ergometer, and step test data. For each test mode, the submaximal HR is plotted with either oxygen cost for treadmill exercise ( $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ in $\mathrm{L} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ), power output ( $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) for cycle ergometer exercise, or body weight ( kg ) for stepping exercise. For the cycle ergometer test, plot the client's power output ( $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) and the steady-state exercise HR in the corresponding columns of the Åstrand-Ryhming nomogram (see figure 4.8). Connect these points with a ruler and read the estimated $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max at the point where the line intersects the $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max column.

The correlation between measured $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max and the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max estimated from this nomogram is $r$ $=0.74$. The prediction error is $\pm 10 \%$ and $\pm 15 \%$, respectively, for well-trained and untrained individuals (Åstrand and Rodahl 1977). A cross-validation study of this protocol and nomogram yielded a validity coefficient of 0.82 and a prediction error of $5.1 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ for estimating the $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max$ of adults 18 to 44 yr (Swain et al. 2004).

For clients younger or older than 25 yr , you must use the following age-correction factors to adjust the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max predicted from the nomogram for the effect of age. For example, if the estimated $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max from the nomogram is $3.2 \mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ for a 45 yr old client, the adjusted $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max is $2.5 \mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}(3.2 \times$ $0.78=2.5 \mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$.

AGE-CORRECTION FACTORS FOR ÅSTRANDRYHMING NOMOGRAM

| Age | Correction factor |
| :--- | :--- |
| 15 | 1.10 |
| 25 | 1.00 |
| 35 | 0.87 |
| 40 | 0.83 |
| 45 | 0.78 |
| 50 | 0.75 |
| 55 | 0.71 |
| 60 | 0.68 |
| 65 | 0.65 |

## YMCA Cycle Ergometer Submaximal Exercise Test Protocol

The YMCA protocol (Golding 2000) is a cycle ergometer submaximal test for women and men. This protocol uses three or four consecutive 3 min workloads on the cycle ergometer designed to raise the HR to between 110 bpm and $85 \%$ of the age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ for at least two consecutive workloads. The pedal rate is 50 rpm , and the initial workload is $150 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(25 \mathrm{~W})$. Using a frictiontype cycle ergometer, set the resistance to $0.5 \mathrm{~kg}(0.5$ $\mathrm{kg} \times 50 \mathrm{rpm} \times 6 \mathrm{~m}=150 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ). To achieve this work rate using a plate-loaded cycle ergometer, use one weight plate ( 1.0 kg ) and reduce the pedaling frequency to $25 \mathrm{rpm}(1.0 \mathrm{~kg} \times 25 \mathrm{rpm} \times 6 \mathrm{~m}=$ $150 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ). Use the HR during the last minute of the initial workload to determine subsequent workloads (see figure 4.9). If the HR is less than 86 bpm , set the second workload at $600 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$. If HR is 86 to 100 , the workload is $450 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ for the second stage of the protocol. If the HR at the end of the first workload exceeds 100 bpm , set the second workload at $300 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$.

Set the third and fourth workloads accordingly (see figure 4.9). Measure the HR during the last 30 sec of minutes 2 and 3 at each workload. If these HRs differ by more than 5 or 6 bpm , extend the workload an additional minute until the HR stabilizes. If the client's steady-state HR reaches or


FIGURE 4.9 YMCA cycle ergometer protocol.
exceeds $85 \%$ of the age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ during the third workload, terminate the test.

Calculate the energy expenditure ( $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}$ ) for the last two workloads using the ACSM metabolic equations (see table 4.3). To estimate $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}$ max from these data, use the equations for the multistage model to calculate the slope of the line depicting the HR response to the last two workloads. Alternatively, you can graph these data to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max (see figure 4.10). To do this, plot the $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ for each workload and corresponding HRs. Connect these two data points with a straight edge, extending the line so that it intersects the predicted maximal HR line. To extrapolate $\dot{V}_{2}$ max, drop a perpendicular line from the point of intersection to the $x$-axis of the graph. If this is done carefully, the graphing method and multistage method will yield similar estimates of $\dot{V}_{2}$ max.

## Swain Cycle Ergometer Submaximal Exercise Test Protocol

Swain and colleagues (2004) devised a submaximal cycle ergometry protocol for estimating $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max based on the relationship between heart rate reserve ( HRR ) and $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve $\left(\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}\right)$ rather than on the $\mathrm{HR}-\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ relationship. This protocol gradually approaches a target HR of $65 \%$ to $75 \%$ HRR in 1 min stages. This target HR zone is equivalent to $65 \%$ to $75 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$. When the client reaches her target HR, she continues to exercise at that workload for an additional 5 min . The initial work rate and increments in work rate differ depending on the client's body mass and activity level (see figure 4.11). The predictive validity of this test was good ( $r=0.89$; $S E E=4.0 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) for estimating the $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max$ of adults ages 18 to 44 yr. However, more crossvalidation studies are needed to determine this test's applicability to older or high-risk clients.

Figure 4.11 illustrates the Swain test protocols for active and inactive clients who weigh $<90 \mathrm{~kg}$ or $\geq 90 \mathrm{~kg}$ (198 lb). To select the appropriate protocol and to calculate your client's estimated $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max, follow the instructions in "Preliminary Procedures and General Instructions for Swain Protocol", p. 106 (Swain et al. 2004).


FIGURE 4.10 Plotting heart rate versus submaximal work rates to estimate maximal work capacity and $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max.


FIGURE 4.11 Swain cycle ergometer protocol for active clients and inactive clients.

## PRELIMINARY PROCEDURES AND GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR SWAIN PROTOCOL

## To select the protocol, follow these steps:

- Measure the body weight and record your client's age.
- Classify your client's activity level as either active ( $>90 \mathrm{~min} / \mathrm{wk}$ of vigorous activity or >120 $\mathrm{min} / \mathrm{wk}$ of moderate-intensity exercise) or inactive ( $<90 \mathrm{~min} / \mathrm{wk}$ of vigorous activity or <120 $\mathrm{min} / \mathrm{wk}$ of moderate-intensity exercise). Vigorous activities include running, vigorous cycling, or any equivalent; moderate-intensity activities include brisk walking, moderate cycling, or any equivalent.
- Estimate your client's age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\max }(220$ - age). Calculate the target exercise HRs corresponding to $45 \%, 55 \%$, and $75 \%$ HRR (see figure 5.3, p. 128, for an example). Target $\mathrm{HR}=$ $\% \mathrm{HRR} \times\left(\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}-\mathrm{HR}_{\text {rest }}\right)+\mathrm{HR}_{\text {rest }}$.
- Select a protocol based on your client's body weight and activity level. Instruct your client to maintain a 60 rpm pedaling frequency throughout the test.
- Measure exercise HRs during the last 15 sec of each minute of the test. Terminate the test
immediately if the target HR corresponding to $75 \%$ HRR is exceeded.

To estimate maximum workload and the corresponding $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max from the final 6 min stage of this test, use the following steps:

- Calculate the power in watts $(\mathrm{W})$ for the final 6 min workload. Power ${ }_{6-\text { min }}(\mathrm{W})=$ resistance $(\mathrm{kg})$ $\times 60 \mathrm{rpm} \times 9.81 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{sec}^{-2}$.
- Average the fifth- and sixth-minute HRs from the final stage $\left(\mathrm{HR}_{6 \text {-min }}\right)$ and calculate the client's age-predicted $\mathrm{HR}_{\text {max }}$ using 220 - age.
- Calculate the client's \%HRR for the final stage: $\% H R R=\left(H R_{6-\text { min }}-H R_{\text {rest }}\right) /\left(H R_{\text {max }}-H R_{\text {rest }}\right)$.
- Estimate the client's maximum workload or power in watts ( W ) by dividing the power of the final stage, calculated in step 1, by the \%HRR calculated in step 3: power ${ }_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{W})=$ power $_{6 \text {-min }}$ / \%HRR.
- Use the ACSM metabolic equation for cycle ergometry to convert maximum power to an estimated $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max: $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max =7+[10.8 \times$ pow$\mathrm{er}_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{W}) /$ body mass in kg].


## Fox Single-Stage Cycle Ergometer Test Protocol

You can modify the maximal exercise test protocol (see figure 4.7) designed by Fox (1973) to predict $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max \left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$. Have your client perform a single workload (i.e., $900 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ or 150 W ) for 5 min . The standard error of estimate for this test is $\pm 246 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, and the standard error of prediction is $\pm 7.8 \%$. The correlation between actual and predicted $\dot{\mathrm{V}}{ }_{2} \max$ is $r=0.76$. To estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max, measure the HR at the end of the fifth minute of exercise $\left(\mathrm{HR}_{5}\right)$ and use the following equation:

$$
\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max \left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)=6300-19.26\left(\mathrm{HR}_{5}\right)
$$

## BENCH STEPPING SUBMAXIMAL EXERCISE TESTS

There are many step tests available to evaluate cardiorespiratory fitness; however, few provide equations for predicting $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max. Only step test protocols with prediction equations are included in this section. Although these step test protocols were designed to be submaximal, the energy expenditure required of obese, short, or inactive individuals may exceed moderate-intensity exertion and approach $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max levels (Hansen et al. 2011).

## Åstrand-Ryhming Step Test Protocol

As mentioned previously, you can use the ÅstrandRyhming nomogram (see figure 4.8) to predict $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max from postexercise HR and body weight during bench stepping. For this protocol, the client steps at a rate of $22.5 \mathrm{steps} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ for 5 min . The bench height is 33 cm ( 13 in .) for women and 40 cm ( 15.75 in .) for men. Measure the postexercise HR by counting the number of beats between 15 and 30 sec immediately after exercise (convert this 15 sec count to beats per minute by multiplying by 4). Correct the predicted $\dot{V}_{2}$ max from the nomogram if your client is older or younger than 25 yr (using the age-correction factors).

Hansen et al. (2011) modified the bench height requirement and used the 40 cm platform for the middle-aged ( $45 \pm 13 \mathrm{yr}$ ) participants at least 170 cm tall; the 33 cm platform was used for those shorter than 170 cm . Not everyone was able to complete the 5 min exercise period. Given the level of exertion required for stepping (from 75\% to over 95\% $\dot{V O}_{2} \max$ ), Hansen and colleagues suggested that medical supervision of fixed-rate stepping tests may be required.

## Queens College Step Test Protocol

In a step test to predict $\dot{V}_{\mathrm{O}_{2}}$ max devised by McArdle and colleagues (1972), the client steps at a rate of 22 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ (females) or 24 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ (males) for 3 min. The bench height is 16.25 in . ( 41.3 cm ). Have your client remain standing after the exercise. Wait

5 sec and then take a 15 sec HR count. Convert the count to beats per minute by multiplying by 4 . If you are administering this test simultaneously to more than one client, you should teach your clients how to measure their own pulse rates (see "How to Measure Your Pulse Rate"). To estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max in $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, use the equations listed in table 4.7. The standard error of prediction for these equations is $\pm 16 \%$.

## ADDITIONAL MODES FOR SUBMAXIMAL EXERCISE TESTING

If you are working in the context of a health or fitness club, you may have access to stair climbers, recumbent steppers, and rowing ergometers. You can use some of these exercise machines for submaximal exercise testing of your clients.

## Stair Climbing Submaximal Test Protocols

In light of the popularity of and continued interest in step aerobic training, you may choose to use a simulated stair climbing machine to estimate the aerobic fitness of some clients. The StairMaster 4000 PT and 6000 PT are two step ergometers commonly used in health and fitness settings. The StairMaster 4000 PT has step pedals that go up and down, whereas the 6000 PT model has a revolving staircase. Howley, Colacino, and Swensen (1992) reported that the HR response to increasing submaximal workloads (4.7 and 10 METs) on the StairMaster 4000 PT step

## How to Measure Your Pulse Rate

1. Use your middle and index fingers to locate the radial pulse on the outside of your wrist just below the base of your thumb. Do not use your thumb to feel the pulse because it has a pulse of its own and may produce an inaccurate count.
2. If you cannot feel the radial pulse, try locating the carotid pulse by placing your fingers lightly on the front of your neck, just to the side of your voice box. Do not apply heavy pressure because this will cause your HR to slow down.
3. Use a stopwatch or the second hand of your wristwatch and count the number of pulse beats for a 6,10 , or 15 sec period.
4. Convert the pulse count to beats per minute using the following multipliers: 6 sec count times 10; 10 sec count times 6 ; and 15 sec count times 4.
5. Remember this value and record it on your scorecard.
ergometer was linear. Also, compared to values with treadmill exercise, the HRs measured during stepping were systematically higher (7-11 bpm) at each submaximal intensity. However, the MET values read from the step ergometer were about $20 \%$ higher than the measured MET values. To obtain more accurate MET values for each submaximal intensity, use the following equation:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { actual METs }=0.556+0.745(\text { StairMaster } 4000 \text { PT } \\
\text { MET value) }
\end{gathered}
$$

The StairMaster 4000 PT test protocol, developed by the manufacturer, provides a relatively more accurate estimate of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max for young women (20-25 yr ) who use this device for aerobic training ( $r=0.57$; $\left.S E E=5.3 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} ; C E=1.0 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$ as compared to estimates for their untrained counterparts $\left(r=0.00 ; S E E=6.7 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} ; C E=6.9\right.$ $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) (Roy et al. 2004). This finding illustrates that the exercise testing mode should match the exercise training mode (i.e., application of the specificity principle).

To estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max, measure the steady-state HR and calculate the corrected MET value for each of two submaximal exercise intensities (e.g., 4 and 7 METs). Each stage of the test should last 3 to 6 min in order to produce steady state. Then use either the multistage model formulas (see "Multistage Model") or the graphing method (see figure 4.10) to predict $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max.

During the test, clients may hold the handrail lightly for balance but should not support their body weight. If they support their body weight, $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max will be overestimated (Howley et al. 1992). Also, compared to the value with treadmill testing, your client's estimated $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}$ max may be lower because stair climbing produces systematically higher HRs at any given submaximal exercise intensity.

## Recumbent Stepper Submaximal Test Protocol

The YMCA submaximal cycling protocol has been adapted for use with the NuStep T5xr recumbent stepper and can be used to estimate your client's $\dot{V} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak ( $r=.91 ;$ SEE $=4.09 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$; $T E=4.11 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) (Billinger et al. 2012). The Billinger equation was designed for adults aged 20 to 60 yr. The client must maintain a stepping rate of 100 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ throughout the protocol.

Similar to the YMCA cycling protocol, the stage change is dependent on the client having attained a steady-state HR. The initial workload is 30 W , and it is increased every 3 min in accordance to the HR-derived protocol track. Use the HR during the last 10 seconds of the second and third minutes of each stage to determine if steady-state HR has been attained (within $\pm 5 \mathrm{bpm}$ ). If the HR at the end of the initial stage is less than 80 bpm , set the second workload at 125 W . If that HR is 80 to 89 bpm, the workload is 100 W for the second stage of the protocol. If the initial stage HR is 90 to 100 bpm, the second-stage workload is 75 W . If the HR at the end of the first workload exceeds 100 bpm , set the second workload at 50 W . Subsequent workloads increase 25 W every third minute thereafter, assuming a steady-state HR was achieved in the previous stage. The protocol terminates when the client reaches $85 \%$ of the age-predicted HR max or volitional exhaustion. Estimate $\dot{V}_{2}$ peak ( $\mathrm{ml} / \mathrm{kg}$ / min ) using the following equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \text { peak }= & 125.707-(0.476 \times \text { age, yr }) \\
& +(7.686 \times \text { sex })-(0.451 \times \mathrm{wt}, \mathrm{~kg}) \\
& +\left(0.179 \times \mathrm{W}_{\text {end_submax }}\right) \\
& -\left(0.415 \times \mathrm{HR}_{\text {end_submax }}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note: for sex, $0=$ female and $1=$ male.
$\mathrm{W}_{\text {end_submax }}=$ watts equivalent to final workload.
$\mathrm{HR}_{\text {end_submax }}=\mathrm{HR}$ at test termination.

## Rowing Ergometer Submaximal Test Protocols

Submaximal exercise protocols have been developed for the Concept II rowing ergometer and can be used to estimate your client's $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max. The Hagerman (1993) protocol is designed for noncompetitive or unskilled rowers. Before beginning the test, set the fan blades in the fully closed position and select the small axle sprocket. For this test, select a submaximal exercise intensity (the HR should not exceed 170 bpm ) that the client can sustain for 5 to 10 min . Measure the exercise HR at the end of each minute. Continue the rowing exercise until the client achieves a steady-state HR. Use the Hagerman (1993) nomogram (see figure 4.12) to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max from the submaximal power output (watts) and the steady-state HR during the last minute of exercise.


FIGURE 4.12 Concept II nomogram for estimating $\dot{V}_{2}$ max in noncompetitive and unskilled male and female rowers.

From Concept II Rowing Ergometer Nomogram for Prediction of Maximal Oxygen Consumption by Dr. Fritz Hagerman, Ohio University, Athens, OH. The nomogram is not appropriate for use with nonConcept II ergometers and is designed to be used by noncompetitive or unskilled rowers participating in aerobic conditioning programs. Adapted by permission of Concept II, INC., RR1, Box 110, Morrisville, VT. (800) 245-5676.

## FIELD TESTS FOR ASSESSING AEROBIC FITNESS

The maximal and submaximal exercise tests using the treadmill or cycle ergometer are not well suited for measuring the cardiorespiratory fitness of large groups in a field situation. Thus, a number of performance tests such as distance runs have been devised to predict $\dot{V}_{O_{2}} \max$ (see table 4.7). These tests are practical, inexpensive, less time-consuming than the treadmill or cycle ergometer tests, easy to administer to large groups, and suitable for personal training settings; they can be used to classify the cardiorespiratory fitness level of healthy men ( $\leq 45$ yr ) and women ( $\leq 55 \mathrm{yr}$ ). You cannot use field tests to detect CHD because HR, ECG, and BP are usually
not monitored during the performance. Most field tests used to assess cardiorespiratory endurance involve walking, running, swimming, cycling, or bench stepping; they require that clients be able to accurately measure their postexercise HR. Pollock, Broida, and Kendrick (1972) found that with practice, men could learn to measure their own pulse rates accurately. The correlation between manual and electronic measurements of pulse rate ranged between $r=0.91$ and 0.94 . Similar results $(r=0.95)$ were reported for college women for pulse rates measured manually and electronically (Witten 1973). Prior to administering field tests that require the measurement of HR, you should teach your clients how to measure their pulse rates using the palpation technique described in "How to Measure Your Pulse Rate." If you use a HR monitor, cell phone application, or pulse oximeter instead of palpation to determine postexercise HR, you are advised to record the HR displayed at the postexercise time interval designated by the protocol when it was created and validated (i.e., 15 sec postexercise for the 1 mi walk and 1 mi jogging tests). Using a HR captured at a different time interval may introduce additional error in the estimation of $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max.

## DISTANCE RUN TESTS

The most commonly used distance runs involve distances of 1.0 or $1.5 \mathrm{mi}(1600$ or 2400 m$)$ to evaluate aerobic fitness. Distance run tests are based on the assumption that the fitter individual will be able to run a given distance in less time or to run a greater distance in a given period of time. Using factor analysis, Disch, Frankiewicz, and Jackson (1975) noted that runs greater than 1.0 mi tended to load exclusively on the endurance factor rather than the speed factor.

You should be aware that the relationship between distance runs and $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max has not been firmly established. Although performance on a distance run can be accurately measured, it may not be an accurate index of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max$ or a substitute for the direct measurement of $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max. Endurance running performance may be influenced by other factors such as motivation, percent fat (Cureton et al. 1978; Katch et al. 1973), running efficiency (pacing ability), and lactate threshold (Costill and Fox 1969; Costill, Thomason, and Roberts 1973).

Table 4.7 Prediction Equations for Cardiorespiratory Field Tests

| Field test | Equation ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Source |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DISTANCE RUN/WALK |  |  |
| 1.0 mi steady-state jog | $\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max = & 100.5-0.1636(\mathrm{BW}, \mathrm{~kg})-1.438(\text { (time }, \mathrm{min})-0.1928(\mathrm{HR}, \mathrm{bpm}) \\ & +8.344(\text { gender })^{\mathrm{b}} \end{aligned}$ | George et al. (1993) |
| 1.0 mi run/walk (8-17 yr) | $\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max = & 108.94-8.41(\text { time }, \mathrm{min})+0.34(\text { time }, \mathrm{min})^{2}+0.21(\text { age } \times \text { gender })^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & -0.84(\mathrm{BMI})^{\mathrm{c}} \end{aligned}$ | Cureton et al. (1995) |
| 1.5 mi run/walk | $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max =88.02-0.1656(\mathrm{BW}, \mathrm{kg})-2.76$ (time, min$)+3.716$ (gender) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | George et al. (1993) |
| 1.5 mi run/walk | $\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max = & 100.16+7.30(\text { gender })^{\mathrm{b}}-0.164(\mathrm{BW}, \mathrm{~kg})-1.273(\text { (ime, min }) \\ & -0.1563(\mathrm{HR}, \mathrm{bpm}) \end{aligned}$ | Larsen et al. (2002) |
| 12 min run | $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max =0.0268$ (distance, m$)-11.3$ | Cooper (1968) |
| 15 min run | $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{max}=0.0178$ (distance, m$)+9.6$ | Balke (1963) |
| 1.0 mi walk | $\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathrm{V}_{2}} \max = & 132.853-0.0769(\mathrm{BW}, \mathrm{Ib})-0.3877(\text { age, years })+6.315(\text { gender })^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & -3.2649(\text { time }, \min )-0.1565(\mathrm{HR}, \mathrm{bpm}) \end{aligned}$ | Kline et al. (1987) |
| STEP TESTS |  |  |
| Åstrand | Men: $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max \left(\mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)=3.744[(\mathrm{BW}+5) /(\mathrm{HR}-62)]$ <br> Women: $\dot{\mathrm{V}}{ }_{2} \max \left(\mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)=3.750[(\mathrm{BW}-3) /(\mathrm{HR}-65)]$ | Marley and Linnerud (1976) |
| Queens College | Men: $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \max =111.33-(0.42 \mathrm{HR}, \mathrm{bpm})$ Women: $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max =65.81-(0.1847 \mathrm{HR}, \mathrm{bpm})$ | McArdle et al. (1972) |

${ }^{\text {a All }}$ equations estimate $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max$ in $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ unless otherwise specified.
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ For gender, substitute 1 for males and 0 for females.
${ }^{\text {c }} \mathrm{BMI}=$ body mass index or body weight (body weight $[\mathrm{BW}]$ in kg )/ $/ \mathrm{ht}^{2}$ (in meters).
$H R=$ heart rate; $m=$ meters.

The correlations between distance run tests and $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max$ tend to vary considerably ( $r=0.27-0.90$ ) depending on the subjects, sample size, and testing procedures (George et al. 1993; Rikli, Petray, and Baumgartner 1992; Zwiren et al. 1991). Generally, the longer the run, the higher the correlation with $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ max. On the basis of this observation, it is recommended that you select a test with a distance of at least $1.0 \mathrm{mi}(1600 \mathrm{~m})$ or a duration of at least 9 min .

The most widely used distance run tests are the 9 and 12 min runs and the 1.0 and 1.5 mi runs. Some physical fitness test batteries for children and adolescents recommend using either the 9 min or 1.0 mi run test.

## 9 or 12 Min Run Tests

To administer the 9 or 12 min run test, use a 400 m track or flat course with measured distances so that the number of laps completed can be easily counted and multiplied by the course distance. Place markers to divide the course into quarters or eighths of a mile so that you can quickly determine the exact distance covered in 9 or 12 min . Instruct your clients to run as far as possible. Walking is allowed,
but the objective of these tests is to cover as much distance as possible in either 9 or 12 min . At the end of the test, calculate the total distance covered in meters and use the appropriate equation in table 4.7 to estimate the client's $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max.

## 1.5-Mile Run/Walk Test

The $1.5 \mathrm{mi}(2.4 \mathrm{~km})$ run/walk test is conducted on a 400 m track or flat measured area. To measure the course, use an odometer or measuring wheel. For the 1.5 mi run, instruct your clients to cover the specified distance in the fastest possible time. Walking is allowed, but the objective is to cover the distance in the shortest possible time while maintaining a steady exercise pace. Call out the elapsed time (in minutes and seconds) as the client crosses the finish line. You can use a HR monitor to ensure that your client maintains a steady exercise pace during this test. Instruct your clients to keep their target HR between $60 \%$ and $90 \% \mathrm{HR}_{\max }$. The exercise HR at the end of the test, along with gender, body mass, and elapsed exercise time, can be substituted into the Larsen equation (see table 4.7) to estimate the $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} 2_{2}$ max of young ( $18-29 \mathrm{yr}$ ) adults (Larsen et al.
2002). Cross-validation of this equation yielded a high validity coefficient ( $r=0.89$ ) and small prediction errors $\left(S E E=2.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} ; T E=\right.$ $2.68 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) for a sample of young military personnel (Taylor et al. 2002).

To use the $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max prediction equations for the 1.5 mi run/walk test (see table 4.7), convert the seconds to minutes by dividing the seconds by 60 . For example, if a client's time for the test is 12:30, the exercise time is converted to $12.5 \mathrm{~min}(30 / 60$ $\mathrm{sec}=0.5 \mathrm{~min})$.

## 1.0-Mile Jogging Test

One limitation of distance run tests is that individuals are encouraged to run as fast as possible and give a maximal effort, thereby increasing the risk of cardiovascular and orthopedic injuries. The potential risk is even greater for untrained individuals who do not run or jog regularly and have difficulty selecting a proper jogging pace. To address this problem, George and colleagues (1993) developed a submaximal $1 \mathrm{mi}(1.6 \mathrm{~km})$ track jogging test for 18 to 29 yr old women and men that requires only moderate steady-state exertion.

For this test, instruct your clients to select a comfortable, moderate jogging pace and to measure their postexercise HR immediately following the test. The elapsed time for 1 mi should be at least 8 min for males and 9 min for females, and the postexercise HR ( 15 sec count $\times 4$ ) should not exceed 180 bpm . To help establish a suitable pace, precede the timed 1 mi test with a 2 to 3 min warm-up. Use either an indoor or outdoor track for this test. Record the time required to jog 1 mi in minutes, and have your clients measure their postexercise HRs using the palpation technique (radial or carotid sites). Estimate the client's $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max using the prediction equation for the 1.0 mi steady-state jog test (see table 4.7).

## Walking Test

The Rockport Walking Institute (1986) has developed a walking test to assess cardiorespiratory fitness for men and women ages 20 to 69 yr. Because this test requires only fast walking, it is useful for testing older or sedentary individuals (Fenstermaker, Plowman, and Looney 1992). The test was developed and validated for a large, heterogeneous sample of 86 women and 83 men (Kline et al. 1987). The cross-validation analysis resulted in a high validity
coefficient and small standard error of estimate (SEE), indicating that the 1.0 mi walking test yields a valid submaximal assessment of estimated $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max. Other researchers have substantiated the predictive accuracy of this equation for women 65 yr of age and older (Fenstermaker et al. 1992), as well as military men aged 18 to 44 yr (Weiglein et al. 2011).

To administer this test, instruct your clients to walk 1.0 mi as quickly as possible and to take their HR immediately at the end of the test by counting the pulse for 15 sec . It is important that clients know how to take their pulse accurately. The walking course should be a measured mile that is flat and uninterrupted, preferably a 400 m track. Clients should warm up for 5 to 10 min before the test and wear good walking shoes and loose-fitting clothes.

To estimate your client's $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max, use the generalized equation for the 1.0 mi walking test (see table 4.7). Alternatively, you can use the Rockport relative fitness charts (appendix B.2) to classify your client's cardiorespiratory fitness level. Locate the walking time and corresponding postexercise HR (bpm) on the appropriate chart for the individual's age and gender. These charts are based on body weights of 125 lb for women and 170 lb for men. If the client weighs substantially more than this, the cardiorespiratory fitness level will be overestimated.

## STEP TESTS

The major advantage of using step tests to assess cardiorespiratory fitness is that they can be administered to large groups in a field situation without requiring expensive equipment or highly trained personnel. Most of these step tests use postexercise and recovery HRs to evaluate aerobic fitness, but they do not provide an estimate of the individual's $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max. Step test protocols and scoring procedures are described in appendix B.3, "Step Test Protocols."

The validity of step tests is highly dependent on the accurate measurement of pulse rate. Step tests that use recovery HR tend to possess lower validity than those using the time required for the HR to reach a specified level during performance of a standardized workload (Baumgartner and Jackson 1975). The correlation coefficients between step test performance and $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max range between $r=0.32$ and 0.77 (Cureton and Sterling 1964; deVries and Klafs 1965; McArdle et al. 1972).

## ADDITIONAL FIELD TESTS

In addition to running, walking, and step tests, cycling and swimming tests have been devised for use in field situations (Cooper 1977). The 12 min cycling test, using a bike with no more than three speeds, is conducted on a hard, flat surface when the wind velocity is less than $10 \mathrm{mph}\left(268 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$. These conditions limit the effect of outside influences on the rider's performance. Five- and 10 -speed bikes are not employed unless use of the lower gears can be restricted. Use an odometer to measure the distance traveled in 12 min . In the 12 min swimming test, the client may use any stroke and rest as needed. Norms for the 12 min cycling test and 12 min swimming test are available (Cooper 1977).

Of these two tests, the swimming test is the less preferred because the outcome is highly skill dependent. For example, a skilled swimmer with an average cardiorespiratory fitness level will probably be able to swim farther in 12 min than a poorly skilled swimmer with an above-average cardiorespiratory fitness level. In fact, Conley and colleagues (1991, 1992) reported that the 12 min swim has low validity ( $r=0.34-0.42$ ) as a cardiorespiratory field test for male and female recreational swimmers. Whenever possible, select an alternative field test and avoid using the 12 min swim test.

## EXERCISE TESTING FOR CHILDREN AND OLDER ADULTS

You may need to modify the generic guidelines for exercise testing (see "General Principles of Exercise Testing") of low-risk adults when you are assessing cardiorespiratory fitness of children and older adults. You must take into account growth, maturation, and aging when selecting exercise testing modes and protocols for these groups.

## ASSESSING CARDIORESPIRATORY FITNESS OF CHILDREN

In the laboratory setting, you can assess the cardiorespiratory fitness of children using either the treadmill or cycle ergometer. Treadmill testing is usually
preferable, especially for younger children, because their shortened attention span may not allow them to maintain a constant pedaling rate during a cycle ergometer test. Also, children younger than 8 yr or shorter than 50 in . ( 127 cm ) may not be tall enough to use a standard cycle ergometer. To accommodate children, modify the seat height, pedal crank length, and handlebar position.

For treadmill testing, you may choose to use the modified Balke protocol (see table 4.8) because the speed is constant and the means of increasing intensity is to change the grade. Either the modified Balke protocol or the modified Bruce protocol (i.e., 2 min instead of 3 min stages) may be used when assessing the cardiorespiratory fitness level for children. Age and gender endurance time norms for children (4-18 yr) for the modified Bruce protocol are available elsewhere (Wessel, Strasburger, and Mitchell 2001).

For cycle ergometer testing, you can use the McMaster protocol (see table 4.8). For this protocol, the pedaling frequency is 50 rpm , and increments in work rate are based on the child's height. As an alternative, a new steep ramp cycling protocol (SRP) has demonstrated both high reliability and validity for accurately assessing $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ peak of children and adolescents (Bongers et al. 2013). All children participated in a step ramp trial. Following a 3 min warm-up at a power output of 25 W , the ramp trial began with workload increments of either 10,15 , or 20 W per 10 sec ; the increments were determined by participant height ( $<120 \mathrm{~cm}, 120-150 \mathrm{~cm}$, and $>150 \mathrm{~cm}$, respectively). The ramp protocol continued until the pedaling cadence fell below 60 rpm and the participant exhibited other signs of maximal exertion. The steep ramp protocol was validated against a separate maximal exertion cycling protocol with metabolic gas collection; the following equation was subsequently derived: $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ peak $\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)=8.262 \times$ $\mathrm{W}_{\text {SRP }}+177.096\left(\mathrm{R}^{2}=0.917 ;\right.$ SEE $\left.=237.4 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$. The mean difference between predicted and measured $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak was $0.3 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$, and no systematic bias was noted in the Bland and Altman analysis. Test-retest comparison of the SRP indicated high reproducibility of peak power output ( $\mathrm{ICC}=0.986$ ).

Children, like adults, may not exhibit a plateau in oxygen consumption during ramp protocol testing. Only $34 \%$ of the children undergoing metabolic gas analysis in the study by Bongers and colleagues (2013) demonstrated a plateau in $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$. Barker and

## Table 4.8 Graded Exercise Test Protocols for Children (Skinner 1993)

| MODIFIED BALKE TREADMILL PROTOCOL |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Activity classification |  | Speed (mph) | Initial grade (\%) |  | Increment (\%) | Duration (min) |
| Poorly fit |  | 3.0 | 6 |  | 2 | 2 |
| Sedentary |  | 3.25 | 6 |  | 2 | 2 |
| Active |  | 5.0 | 0 |  | 2.5 | 2 |
| Athletes |  | 5.25 | 0 |  | 2.5 | 2 |
| MCMASTER CYCLE ERGOMETER PROTOCOL |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Height (cm) | Initial work rate: kgm•min ${ }^{-1}$ (watts) |  |  | Increments: $\mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ (watts) |  | Duration (min) |
| <120 | $75 \text { (12.5) }$ |  |  | 75 (12.5) |  | 2 |
| 120-139.9 | $75 \text { (12.5) }$ |  |  | $150(25)$ |  | 2 |
| 140-159.9 | 150 (25) |  |  | 150 (25) |  | 2 |
| $\geq 160$ | 150 (25) |  |  | 300 (50) for boys 150 (25) for girls |  | 2 |

colleagues (2011) confirmed that children exerted their maximal effort during a ramp cycling protocol after resting 15 min and then performing a supramaximal cycling trial at $105 \%$ of the peak power output attained during the ramp protocol. Subsequent analysis revealed similar oxygen consumption values between the two cycling protocols. In addition to noting a low incidence of a plateau during the ramp cycling trial, Barker and colleagues (2011) commented that had they relied on the other secondary indicators of maximal exertion (i.e., RER and HR ), they would have underestimated $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max by $10 \%$ to $20 \%$, on average, in their sample of healthy 9 and 10 yr olds.

Field tests, such as the $1.0 \mathrm{mi}(1.6 \mathrm{~km}) \mathrm{run} / \mathrm{walk}$, are widely used to assess the cardiorespiratory fitness of children 5 to 17 yr of age. These tests are part of the Physical Best Program (American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance 1988), Fitnessgram (Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research 1994), and the President's Challenge Test (President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports 1997), as well as national physical fitness surveys of children and youth (Ross and Pate 1987). To estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak of 8 to 17 yr olds for the 1.0 mi run $/$ walk test, you can use a generalized prediction equation (see table 4.7) (Cureton et al. 1995). For younger children ( $5-7 \mathrm{yr}$ ), the $0.5 \mathrm{mi}(.8 \mathrm{~km}$ ) run $/$ walk test is recommended (Rikli, Petray, and Baumgartner 1992). Criterion-referenced standards for the 1.0 mi
test are available elsewhere (American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance 1988; Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research 1994).

In Canada and Europe, the multistage 20 m shuttle run test, developed by Leger and colleagues (1988), is a popular alternative to distance running/ walking field tests to estimate the aerobic fitness of children ( $8-19 \mathrm{yr}$ ) in educational settings. This test has been cross-validated using other samples of European, Canadian, and American children (Anderson 1992; Mahar et al. 2011; van Mechelen, Holbil, and Kemper 1986).

For this test, children run back and forth continuously on a 20 m (indoor or outdoor) course. The running speed is set using a sound signal emitted from a prerecorded tape. The starting pace is 8.5 $\mathrm{km} \cdot \mathrm{hr}^{-1}$, and the speed is increased $0.5 \mathrm{~km} \cdot \mathrm{hr}^{-1}$ each minute until they can no longer maintain the pace. The maximal aerobic speed at this stage is used, in combination with age, in the original equation to estimate $\mathrm{V}_{2} \max (\mathrm{ml} / \mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{min})$ is as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max = & 31.025+3.238\left(\text { speed }, \mathrm{km} \cdot \mathrm{hr}^{-1}\right. \\
& -3.248(\text { age }, \mathrm{yr}) \\
& +0.1536(\text { age } \times \text { speed })
\end{aligned}
$$

Mahar and colleagues (2011) evaluated this and several other equations for a sample of school children. In an attempt to improve the fitness category classification resulting from these equations, they devised and cross-validated quadratic and
linear equations that improve both the prediction of $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max and the fitness level categorization of children aged 10 to 16 yr .

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max =} 41.76799+(0.49261 \times \text { laps })-(0.00290 \\
&\left.\times \text { laps }^{2}\right)-(0.61613 \times \mathrm{BMI})+(0.34787 \\
&\times \text { gender } \times \text { age }), \text { where boys }=1 \text { and } \\
& \text { girls }=0 ; \mathrm{R}=0.75, \mathrm{R}^{2}=0.56, \text { SEE }= \\
&\left.6.17 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \\
& \dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{max}= 40.34533+(0.21426 \times \text { laps })-(0.79472 \\
&\times \mathrm{BMI})+(4.27293 \times \text { gender }) \\
&+(0.79444 \times \text { age }) \mathrm{R}=0.74, \mathrm{R}^{2}=0.54, \\
& \\
& \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

Two other incremental running tests have been validated against a graded treadmill test and shown reliable in terms of test-retest determination of maximal heart rate. Bendiksen and colleagues (2012) investigated the suitability of the modified Yo-Yo Intermittent Recovery Level 1 test (YYIR1C) and the Andersen test for assessing the cardiovascular health of children aged 6 to 10 yr . The criterion measure was the maximal heart rate attained during an incremental treadmill test terminated at either volitional exhaustion, predetermined physiologic criteria (HR $>200 \mathrm{bpm}, \mathrm{RER}>0.99$, or a leveling off of oxygen consumption), or demonstration of subjective criteria such as an unwillingness to continue or uncoordinated running. The YYIR1C was performed by having the child run back and forth between two cones (or lines) spaced 16 m apart. After returning to the starting point, the child engaged in a 10 sec active recovery by jogging around a third cone located 4 m behind the starting location. The speed at which the child had to complete the 16 m laps up and back was controlled by sounds coming from a CD player playing the standard YYIR1 disc. The 16 m running pace became progressively faster, while the active recovery period remained at 10 sec . The child ran until failing twice to complete the 16 m distance within the designated time increment. The maximal heart rate attained and total distances covered were recorded. Similarly, in the Andersen test, children ran back and forth between two cones (or lines) placed 20 m apart. However, the children ran as fast as possible and took one step beyond each demarcation before turning and running back. The children ran in this manner for 15 sec , at which
time a whistle was blown and the children stopped as quickly as possible (within 2 steps) to rest for 15 sec . The last 3 sec of the rest period were counted off (e.g., " $3,2,1$, run"). According to protocol, this pattern continued for 10 min . As was done for the YYIR1C test, the maximal heart rate and total distances covered were recorded. For the entire group of children, the average maximal heart rates from the YYIR1C and Andersen tests were similar, at 207 and 206 bpm , respectively, and slightly higher than that from the incremental treadmill test (203 bpm). Consequently, Bendiksen and colleagues (2012) reported that these two field tests are sensitive enough to detect fitness-based differences in this age group.

## ASSESSING CARDIORESPIRATORY FITNESS OF OLDER ADULTS

To assess the cardiorespiratory fitness of elderly clients, you can use modified treadmill and cycle ergometer protocols. The following modifications for standard GXT protocols are recommended:

- Extend the warm-up to more than 3 min.
- Set an initial exercise intensity of 2 to 3 METs; work increments should be 0.5 to 1.0 MET (e.g., Naughton treadmill protocol; see table 4.4).
- Adjust (reduce) the treadmill speed to the walking ability of your client when needed.
- Extend the duration of each work stage (at least 3 min ), allowing enough time for the client to attain steady state.
- Select a protocol likely to produce a total test time of 8 to 12 min .

Select treadmill protocols that increase grade, instead of speed, especially for older clients with poor ambulation. You can modify the standard Balke protocol (see figure 4.2) by having the client walk at $0 \%$ grade and $3.0\left(4.8 \mathrm{~km} \cdot \mathrm{hr}^{-1}\right) \mathrm{mph}$ or slower initially and by increasing the duration of each stage to at least 3 min . If elderly clients are more comfortable holding on to the handrails during a treadmill test, you can use the standard Bruce protocol and
the McConnell and Clark (1987) prediction equation to estimate their $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max (see table 4.5). Alternatively, you could use cycle ergometer GXTs for older individuals with poor balance, poor neuromuscular coordination, or impaired vision. You can also use field tests to estimate the cardiorespiratory fitness of your older ( $60-94 \mathrm{yr}$ ) clients. The Senior Fitness Test Battery (Rikli and Jones 2013) includes two measures of aerobic endurance: the 6 min walking test and the 2 min step test.

## 6 Min Walking Test

Purpose: Assess aerobic endurance.
Application: Measure ability to perform activities of daily living such as walking, stair climbing, shopping, and sightseeing.
Equipment: You will need a $5 \times 20 \mathrm{yd}(4.6 \times 18.3$ $\mathrm{m})$ rectangular walking area, a measuring tape, a stopwatch, four cones, masking tape, index cards, and chairs.

Test procedures: Use masking tape or chalk to mark $5 \mathrm{yd}(4.6 \mathrm{~m})$ lines on a flat, rectangular course. Place cones on the inside corners of the rectangle. Instruct participants to walk (not jog) as fast as possible around the course for 6 min . Partners can keep track of the total number of laps and distance covered by marking the index card each time a lap is completed. Administer one trial; measure total distance to the nearest 5 yd . Test two or more people at a time for motivation.
Scoring: Calculate the total distance covered in 6 min. Each mark on the index card represents $50 \mathrm{yd}(45.6 \mathrm{~m})$. Use table 4.9 to determine a client's percentile ranking.
Safety tips: Place chairs around the outside of the walking course in case a client needs to sit and rest during the test. Select a well-lit, level walking area with a nonslip surface. Discontinue the test if the client shows signs of overexertion. Have the client cool down by stepping in place for 1 min .

Validity and reliability: The 6 min walking distance was positively related $(r=0.78)$ to submaximal treadmill walking time (Bruce protocol, time to reach $85 \% \mathrm{HR}_{\max }$ ). This walking test detects the expected performance
declines across age groups and discriminates between individuals with high and low physical activity levels and functional ability test scores. The test-retest reliability was $r=0.94$.

Casanova and colleagues (2011) followed standard procedure to evaluate the 6 min walking test performance of 444 adults ( $40-80 \mathrm{yr}$ ) from seven countries. The effect of age on distance walked was significant for ages $\geq 60 \mathrm{yr}$, regardless of gender. They found no difference in distance walked based on self-reported activity levels (sedentary vs. physically active). Casanova and associates reported geographic variations in the distance walked that could not be explained by anthropometric variables. Consequently, they urge caution when using existing predictive equations and standard curves when interpreting results of the 6 min walking test.

## 2 Min Step Test

Purpose: Alternative test of aerobic endurance when time, space, or weather prohibits administering the 6 min walking test.
Application: Measure ability to perform activities of daily living such as walking, stair climbing, shopping, and sightseeing.
Equipment: You will need a stopwatch, a tape measure, masking tape, and a tally counter to count steps.
Test procedures: Determine the minimum kneestepping height of the client by identifying the midpoint between the kneecap (midpatellar level) and iliac crest. Mark this point on the anterior aspect of the client's thigh and on a nearby wall or chair. These marks are used to monitor knee height during the test. Ask the client to step in place for 2 min , lifting the right knee as high as the target level marked on the wall. Use the tally counter to count the number of times the right knee reaches the target level. If the proper knee height cannot be maintained, ask the client to slow down or stop until he can execute proper form; keep the stopwatch running. Administer one trial.
Scoring: Count the number of times the right knee reaches the target level in 2 min . Use table 4.10 to determine your client's percentile ranking.

Table 4.9 6 Min Walking Test Norms for Older Adults ${ }^{a}$

|  | 60-64 YR |  | 65-69 YR |  | 70-74 YR |  | 75-79 YR |  | 80-84 YR |  | 85-89 YR |  | 90-94 YR |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Percentile rank | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M |
| 95 | 741 | 825 | 734 | 800 | 709 | 779 | 696 | 762 | 654 | 721 | 638 | 710 | 564 | 646 |
| 90 | 711 | 792 | 697 | 763 | 673 | 743 | 655 | 716 | 612 | 678 | 591 | 659 | 518 | 592 |
| 85 | 690 | 770 | 673 | 738 | 650 | 718 | 628 | 686 | 584 | 649 | 560 | 625 | 488 | 557 |
| 80 | 674 | 751 | 653 | 718 | 630 | 698 | 605 | 661 | 560 | 625 | 534 | 596 | 463 | 527 |
| 75 | 659 | 736 | 636 | 700 | 614 | 680 | 585 | 639 | 540 | 604 | 512 | 572 | 441 | 502 |
| 70 | 647 | 722 | 621 | 685 | 599 | 665 | 568 | 621 | 523 | 586 | 493 | 551 | 423 | 480 |
| 65 | 636 | 710 | 607 | 671 | 586 | 652 | 553 | 604 | 508 | 571 | 476 | 532 | 406 | 461 |
| 60 | 624 | 697 | 593 | 657 | 572 | 638 | 538 | 586 | 491 | 554 | 458 | 512 | 388 | 440 |
| 55 | 614 | 686 | 581 | 644 | 561 | 625 | 524 | 571 | 477 | 540 | 443 | 495 | 373 | 422 |
| 50 | 603 | 674 | 568 | 631 | 548 | 612 | 509 | 555 | 462 | 524 | 426 | 477 | 357 | 403 |
| 45 | 592 | 662 | 555 | 618 | 535 | 599 | 494 | 539 | 447 | 508 | 409 | 459 | 341 | 384 |
| 40 | 582 | 651 | 543 | 605 | 524 | 586 | 480 | 524 | 433 | 494 | 394 | 442 | 326 | 366 |
| 35 | 570 | 638 | 529 | 591 | 510 | 572 | 465 | 506 | 416 | 477 | 376 | 422 | 308 | 345 |
| 30 | 559 | 626 | 515 | 577 | 497 | 559 | 450 | 489 | 401 | 462 | 359 | 403 | 291 | 326 |
| 25 | 547 | 612 | 500 | 562 | 482 | 544 | 433 | 471 | 384 | 444 | 340 | 382 | 273 | 304 |
| 20 | 532 | 597 | 483 | 544 | 466 | 526 | 413 | 449 | 364 | 423 | 318 | 358 | 251 | 279 |
| 15 | 516 | 578 | 463 | 524 | 446 | 506 | 390 | 424 | 340 | 399 | 292 | 329 | 226 | 249 |
| 10 | 495 | 556 | 439 | 499 | 423 | 481 | 363 | 394 | 312 | 370 | 261 | 295 | 196 | 214 |
| 5 | 465 | 523 | 402 | 462 | 387 | 445 | 322 | 348 | 270 | 327 | 214 | 244 | 150 | 160 |

$F=$ females; $M=$ males.
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Values represent distance in yards; to convert yards to meters, multiply by 0.91 .
Adapted, by permission, from R. Rikli and C. Jones, 2013, Senior fitness test manual, 2nd ed. (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics), 156.
Table 4.10 2 Min Step Test Norms for Older Adults ${ }^{\text {a }}$

|  | 60-64 YR |  | 65-69 YR |  | 70-74 YR |  | 75-79 YR |  | 80-84 YR |  | 85-89 YR |  | 90-94 YR |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Percentile rank | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M |
| 95 | 130 | 135 | 133 | 139 | 125 | 133 | 123 | 135 | 113 | 126 | 106 | 114 | 92 | 112 |
| 90 | 122 | 128 | 123 | 130 | 116 | 124 | 115 | 126 | 104 | 118 | 98 | 106 | 85 | 102 |
| 85 | 116 | 123 | 117 | 125 | 110 | 119 | 109 | 119 | 99 | 112 | 93 | 100 | 80 | 96 |
| 80 | 111 | 119 | 112 | 120 | 105 | 114 | 104 | 114 | 94 | 107 | 88 | 95 | 76 | 91 |
| 75 | 107 | 115 | 107 | 116 | 101 | 110 | 100 | 109 | 90 | 103 | 85 | 91 | 72 | 86 |
| 70 | 103 | 112 | 104 | 113 | 97 | 107 | 96 | 105 | 87 | 99 | 81 | 87 | 69 | 83 |
| 65 | 100 | 109 | 100 | 110 | 94 | 104 | 93 | 102 | 84 | 96 | 79 | 84 | 66 | 79 |
| 60 | 97 | 106 | 96 | 107 | 90 | 101 | 90 | 98 | 81 | 93 | 76 | 81 | 63 | 76 |
| 55 | 94 | 104 | 93 | 104 | 87 | 98 | 87 | 95 | 78 | 90 | 73 | 78 | 61 | 72 |
| 50 | 91 | 101 | 90 | 101 | 84 | 95 | 84 | 91 | 75 | 87 | 70 | 75 | 58 | 69 |
| 45 | 88 | 98 | 87 | 98 | 81 | 92 | 81 | 87 | 72 | 84 | 67 | 72 | 55 | 66 |
| 40 | 85 | 96 | 84 | 95 | 78 | 89 | 78 | 84 | 69 | 81 | 64 | 69 | 53 | 62 |
| 35 | 82 | 93 | 80 | 92 | 74 | 86 | 75 | 80 | 66 | 78 | 61 | 66 | 50 | 59 |
| 30 | 79 | 90 | 76 | 89 | 71 | 83 | 72 | 77 | 63 | 75 | 59 | 63 | 47 | 55 |
| 25 | 75 | 87 | 73 | 86 | 68 | 80 | 68 | 73 | 60 | 71 | 55 | 59 | 44 | 52 |
| 20 | 71 | 83 | 68 | 82 | 63 | 76 | 64 | 68 | 56 | 67 | 52 | 55 | 40 | 47 |
| 15 | 66 | 79 | 63 | 77 | 58 | 71 | 59 | 63 | 51 | 62 | 47 | 50 | 36 | 42 |
| 10 | 60 | 74 | 57 | 72 | 52 | 66 | 53 | 56 | 46 | 56 | 42 | 44 | 31 | 36 |
| 5 | 52 | 67 | 47 | 67 | 43 | 67 | 45 | 47 | 37 | 48 | 39 | 36 | 24 | 26 |

$F=$ females; $M=$ males.
${ }^{a}$ Values represent number of times right knee reaches target level.
Adapted, by permission, from R. Rikli and C. Jones, 2013, Senior fitness test manual, 2nd ed. (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics), 157.

Safety tips: Clients with poor balance should stand close to a wall, doorway, or chair for support in case they lose their balance during the test. Spot each client carefully. Have the client cool down after the test by walking slowly for 1 min . Discontinue the test if your client shows signs of overexertion.
Validity and reliability: The 2 min step test scores were moderately correlated ( $r=0.73-0.74$ )
with Rockport 1 mi walking scores and treadmill walking (Bruce protocol, time to reach $85 \% \mathrm{HR}_{\max }$ ) in older adults. This step test detected expected performance declines across age groups and discriminated between exercisers and nonexercisers. The test-retest reliability was $r=0.90$.

## SOURCES FOR EQUIPMENT

| Product | Supplier's contact information |
| :---: | :---: |
| Cycle ergometer (Lode, electronically braked) | AEI Technologies, Inc. <br> (800) 793-7751 <br> www.aeitechnologies.com |
| Cycle ergometer (Monark) | Claflin Medical Equipment Co. (800) 338-2372 <br> www.claflinequip.com |
| Cycle ergometer (Bodyguard, Tunturi, Schwinn) | U.S. Fitness Products (888) 761-1638 www.usafitness.com |
| Elliptical trainers | Life Fitness Precor <br> $(800)$ 351-3737 (800) 786-8404 <br> www.lifefitness.com www.precor.com |
| Nordic ski machine | Nordic Track (888) 308-9616 www.nordictrack.com |
| Recumbent stepper | NuStep, Inc. (800) 322-4434 www.nustep.com |
| Rowing ergometer | Concept 2, Inc. <br> (800) 245-5676 <br> www.concept2.com |
| Stair climbing machines | Nautilus, Inc. (800) 628-8458 www.nautilus.com |
| Treadmill (Quinton) | Cardiac Science (800) 426-0337 <br> www.cardiacscience.com |

## Key Points

- The best way to assess cardiorespiratory capacity (cardiorespiratory fitness) is through a GXT in which the functional $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max is measured.
- Unless contraindications to exercise are observed, you should administer a maximal exercise test to moderate- and high-risk men and women before they begin a vigorous exercise program.
- Before, during, and after a maximal or submaximal exercise test, closely monitor the HR, BP, and RPE.
- Treadmill, cycle ergometer, and bench stepping are the most commonly used modes of exercise for exercise testing.
- The choice of exercise mode and exercise test protocol depends on the purpose of the test and on the age, gender, and health and fitness status of the individual.
- Submaximal exercise tests are used to estimate the functional cardiorespiratory capacity by predicting the $\mathrm{V}_{2} \max$ of the individual. Failure to meet the assumptions underlying submaximal exercise tests produces a $\pm 10 \%$ to $20 \%$ error
in the prediction of $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max from submaximal HR data.
- Field tests are the least desirable way of assessing aerobic fitness and should not be used for diagnostic purposes. However, field tests are useful for assessing the cardiorespiratory fitness of large groups.
- Commonly used field tests include distance runs, walking tests, and step tests.
- Distance runs should last at least 9 min to assess aerobic function. Distance runs usually range between 1 and 2 mi ( 1600 and 3200 m ) or 9 and 12 min .
- The validity of step tests for assessing cardiorespiratory fitness is highly dependent on obesity, height, fitness level, and the accurate measurement of HR ; step test validity is usually somewhat lower than the validity of distance run tests.
- For children and older adults, select a treadmill protocol that increases grade rather than speed.
- The 6 min walking test or 2 min step test can be used to assess cardiorespiratory fitness of older adults in field settings.


## Key Terms

Learn the definition for each of the following key terms. Definitions of key terms can be found in the glossary.
absolute $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$
cardiorespiratory endurance
continuous exercise test
discontinuous exercise test
graded exercise test (GXT)
gross $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$
maximal exercise test
maximum oxygen uptake ( $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max)
net $\mathrm{ViO}_{2}$
ramp protocols
rating of perceived exertion (RPE)
relative $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max
respiratory exchange ratio (RER)
submaximal exercise test
$\dot{V}_{\mathrm{VO}_{2}}$ max
$\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ peak

## Review Questions

In addition to being able to define each of the key terms listed, test your knowledge and understanding of the material by answering the following review questions.

1. What is the most valid and direct measure of functional cardiorespiratory capacity?
2. What is the difference between absolute and relative $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ ?
3. What is the difference between gross and net $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ ?
4. What is the difference between $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max and $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak?
5. What factors should you consider when choosing a maximal or submaximal exercise test protocol for your client?
6. Identify the ACSM criteria for attainment of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max during a GXT.
7. During a GXT, what three variables are monitored at regular intervals?
8. List three reasons for stopping a GXT.
9. What is active recovery, and why is it recommended for graded exercise testing?
10. What differences exist among continuous, discontinuous, and ramp exercise testing protocols?
11. Calculate the gross $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ for a 60 kg woman running on a treadmill at a speed of 6.0 mph and a grade of $10 \%$.
12. Calculate the gross $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ for an 80 kg man cycling on Monark cycle ergometer at a pedaling frequency of 70 rpm and a resistance of 3.5 kg .
13. Calculate the energy expenditure for bench stepping using an 8 in . step and a cadence of 30 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$.
14. Name three types of field tests for estimating aerobic capacity.
15. Which type of testing, treadmill or cycle ergometer, should be used for assessing the cardiorespiratory fitness of children?
16. How should standard GXT protocols be modified for testing of older adults?

# Designing Cardiorespiratory Exercise Programs 

## KEY QUESTIONS

- What are the basic components of an aerobic exercise prescription?
- How is the aerobic exercise prescription individualized to meet each client's goals and interests?
- What methods are used to prescribe and monitor exercise intensity?
- Which exercise modes are best suited for an aerobic exercise prescription?
- How often does a client need to exercise to improve and maintain aerobic fitness?
- How long does a client need to exercise to improve aerobic fitness?
- Is discontinuous aerobic training as effective as continuous training?
- How effective are multimodal, cross-training programs?
- What are the physiological benefits of aerobic exercise training?

Once you have assessed an individual's cardiorespiratory fitness status, you are responsible for planning an aerobic exercise program to develop and maintain the cardiorespiratory endurance of that program participant-a program that will meet the individual's needs and interests, taking into account age, gender, physical fitness level, and exercise habits. Appendix A.7, "Lifestyle Evaluation," provides forms that will help you determine your clients' exercise patterns and preferences.

In designing the exercise prescription, keep in mind that some people engage in aerobic exercise to improve their health status or reduce their disease risk, while others are primarily interested in enhancing their physical fitness ( $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max) levels. Given that the quantity of exercise needed to promote health is less than that needed to develop and maintain higher levels of physical fitness, you must adjust the exercise prescription according to your client's primary goal.

This chapter provides guidelines for writing individualized exercise prescriptions that promote health status as well as develop and maintain cardiorespiratory fitness. It compares various training methods and aerobic exercise modes, and presents examples of individualized exercise programs.

## THE EXERCISE PRESCRIPTION

It is important to consider your client's goals and purposes for engaging in an exercise program. The primary goal for exercising may affect the mode, intensity, frequency, duration, and progression of the exercise prescription. For example, the quantity of physical activity needed to achieve health benefits or reduce one's risk of illness and death is less than the amount of activity typically prescribed when the client's goal is to make substantial improvements in
cardiorespiratory fitness. When the primary goal for the exercise prescription is improved health, refer to "Guidelines for Exercise Prescription for Improved Health."

On the other hand, when the primary goal for the exercise prescription is to improve cardiorespiratory fitness, refer to "ACSM Guidelines for Exercise Prescription for Improved Health and Cardiorespiratory Fitness."

## ELEMENTS OF A CARDIORESPIRATORY EXERCISE WORKOUT

Each exercise workout of the aerobic exercise prescription and program should include the following phases:

- Warm-up (5-10 min)
- Endurance conditioning (20-60 min)
- Cool-down (5-10 min)
- Stretching ( $\geq 10 \mathrm{~min}$ )

The purpose of the warm-up is to increase blood flow to the working cardiac and skeletal muscles, increase body temperature, decrease the chance of muscle and joint injury, and lessen the chance of abnormal cardiac rhythms. During the warm-up, the tempo of the exercise is gradually increased to prepare the body for a higher intensity of exercise performed during the conditioning phase. The warm-up starts with 5 to 10 min of low-intensity ( $<40 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve $\left[\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}\right]$ ) to moderate-intensity ( $40-60 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) aerobic activity (e.g., brisk walking
for clients who jog or slow jogging for clients who run during their endurance conditioning phase).

During the endurance conditioning phase of the workout, the aerobic exercise is performed according to the exercise prescription following the FITT-VP principle (i.e., $\mathrm{F}=$ frequency; $\mathrm{I}=$ intensity; $\mathrm{T}=$ time, duration; $\mathrm{T}=$ type, mode of activity; $\mathrm{V}=$ volume, quantity; $\mathrm{P}=$ progression) (ACSM 2014). This phase usually lasts 20 to 60 min , depending on the exercise intensity. Exercise bouts of 10 min are acceptable as long as your client accumulates at least 20 min that day. The conditioning phase is followed immediately by the cool-down phase.

A cool-down phase immediately after endurance exercise is needed to reduce the risk of cardiovascular complications caused by stopping exercise suddenly. During cool-down, the individual continues exercising (e.g., walking, jogging, or cycling) at a low intensity for 5 to 10 min . This light activity allows the heart rate (HR) and blood pressure (BP) to return to near baseline levels, prevents the pooling of blood in the extremities, and reduces the possibility of dizziness and fainting. The continued pumping action of the muscles increases the venous return and speeds up the recovery process.

The stretching phase usually lasts at least 10 min and is performed after the warm-up or cool-down phase. Static stretching exercises for the legs, lower back, abdomen, hips, groin, and shoulders are usually included (for specific flexibility exercises, see appendix F.1). Stretching exercises after the cooldown phase may help to reduce the chance of muscle cramps or muscle soreness.

## Guidelines for Exercise Prescription for Improved Health

The following guidelines are from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2008).

1. Mode: Select endurance-type physical activities.
2. Intensity: Prescribe at least moderate-intensity physical activities (3 to 6 METs [metabolic equivalents]).
3. Frequency and duration: Schedule at least 150 to 300 min per week (e.g., $30 \mathrm{~min}, 5$ days $/ \mathrm{wk}$ or 60 $\mathrm{min}, 3$ days/wk). Duration varies according to the type and intensity of activity (see "Examples of Moderate-Intensity and Vigorous-Intensity Aerobic Activities," chapter 1).

## ACSM 2014 Guidelines for Exercise Prescription for Improved Health and Cardiorespiratory Fitness (FITT-VP)

1. Frequency: Schedule moderate-intensity exercise at least 5 days/wk; vigorous-intensity exercise at least 3 days/wk; or a combination of moderate- and vigorous-intensity exercise 3 to 5 days/wk.
2. Intensity: Prescribe moderate-intensity (3.06.0 METs or $40 \%$ to $<60 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ or HRR) or vigorous-intensity ( $>6.0$ METs or $\geq 60 \%$ to $90 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ or HRR) or a combination of moderate- and vigorous-intensity exercise. Intensity varies depending on client's cardiorespiratory fitness classification.
3. Progression: Gradually adjust the exercise prescription for each client in accordance with the conditioning effect, participant characteristics, new exercise test results, or performance during the exercise sessions. The rate of progression depends on the individual's age, functional capacity, health status, and goals. For apparently healthy adults, increases in duration of 5 to 10 min every 1 to 2 wk for the first 4 to 6 wk of their exercise program are reasonable. Typically, the aerobic exercise prescription consists of three stages: initial conditioning, improvement, and maintenance.
4. Time (Duration): Schedule 30 to 60 min of moderate-intensity exercise ( $\geq 150 \mathrm{~min} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ ), 20 to 60 min of vigorous-intensity exercise ( $\geq 75 \mathrm{~min} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ ), or a combination of moderateand vigorous-intensity exercise to attain recommended targeted volumes of exercise.
5. Type (Mode): Select rhythmical aerobic activities that can be maintained continuously and that involve large muscle groups and require little skill to perform (see "Classification of Aerobic Exercise Modalities").
6. Volume (Quantity): For most adults, target approximately $1000 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ moderateintensity exercise or physical activity (150 $\mathrm{min} / \mathrm{wk}$ at $3.0-6.0 \mathrm{METs}$ or $40 \%$ to $<60 \%$ $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ). When combined with the recommended duration, daily pedometer step counts ( $\geq 5400$ to 7900 steps ${ }^{-1 a y}{ }^{-1}$ ) fulfill this category. An energy expenditure between 500 and $1000 \mathrm{MET} \cdot \mathrm{min} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ is the recommended quantity of exercise or physical activity for most adults. To compute MET $\cdot \min \cdot w^{-1}$, multiply the MET value of an activity by the number of minutes it is performed in the week.

## TYPES (MODES) OF EXERCISE

If the primary goal of the exercise program is to develop and maintain cardiorespiratory fitness, prescribe aerobic activities using large muscle groups in a continuous, rhythmical fashion. In the initial and improvement stages of the exercise program, it is important to closely monitor the exercise intensity. Therefore, you should select modes of exercise that allow the individual to maintain a constant exercise intensity and that are not highly dependent on the participant's skill. Type A activities require minimal skill or physical fitness to perform. Activities such as walking, cycling, and aqua-aerobics are
best suited for this purpose. Type B activities are vigorous-intensity exercises that require minimal skill but average physical fitness. Jogging, step aerobics, and spinning are examples of type $B$ activities. You may prescribe type B activities in the initial and improvement stages for individuals who exercise regularly. Type C activities include endurance activities that require both skill and average physical fitness levels. Swimming, skating, and cross-country skiing should be prescribed only for individuals who have acquired these skills or who possess adequate physical fitness levels to learn these skills. Type D activities are recreational sports that may improve physical fitness. These should be performed in addition to the person's regular aerobic exercise program.

Examples of type D activities are racket sports, hiking, soccer, basketball, and downhill skiing. You should consider using type C and D activities to add variety in the later stages (maintenance stage) of your client's exercise program.

In addition to walking, jogging, and cycling, other exercise modalities provide a sufficient cardiorespiratory demand for improving aerobic fitness. Exercise modalities such as bench step aerobics, machine-based stair climbing, elliptical training, and rowing offer your exercise program participants a variety of options for their exercise prescription. Many individuals prefer to cross-train to add variety and enjoyment to their aerobic workouts. But are these exercise modes just as effective as traditional type A and B activities (walking, jogging, and cycling)? The answer to this question is not simple, and it depends on the method $\left(\% \mathrm{VO}_{2}\right.$ max or perceived exertion) used to equate different exercise modalities.

During exercise at a prescribed percentage of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max, Thomas and colleagues (1995) noted that six different aerobic exercise modes (treadmill jogging, Nordic skiing, shuffle skiing, stepping, cycling, and rowing) produced relatively similar cardiovascular responses (see figure 5.1), but that cycling resulted in a significantly higher perceived exertion (RPE) compared to the other modes.

Likewise, other researchers have reported that the relationship between HR and $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ at constant, submaximal intensities was similar for treadmill jogging, in-line skating (Wallick et al. 1995), and aerobic dancing with arms used extensively above the head or kept below the shoulders (Berry et al. 1992). In contrast, Parker and colleagues (1989) reported that the average steady-state HR during 20 min of aerobic dancing was significantly higher than that for treadmill jogging when the subjects exercised at the same relative intensity ( $60 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \max$ ). Likewise, Howley, Colacino, and Swensen (1992) noted that HR response during electronic stepping ergometer exercise was systematically higher than that with treadmill exercise at the same submaximal $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$. Also, supporting the body weight during step ergometer exercise significantly reduced the HR and oxygen consumption compared to lightly holding on to the handrails for balance.

When exercise modes are equated using subjective RPEs, research suggests that treadmill jogging may be superior to other aerobic exercise modes in terms of total oxygen consumption and rate of energy expenditure (Hulsey et al. 2012; Kravitz, Robergs, and Heyward 1996; Kravitz et al. 1997b; Zeni, Hoffman, and Clifford 1996). Subjects exercising on seven different modalities at a somewhat hard (RPE $=13$ or 14 ) intensity for 15 to 20 min experienced

## CLASSIFICATION OF AEROBIC EXERCISE MODALITIES ${ }^{\text {a }}$

This list contains examples of moderate amounts of physical activity. More vigorous activities, such as stair walking and running, require less time ( 15 min ). On the other hand, less vigorous activities, like washing and waxing the car, require more time ( $45-60 \mathrm{~min}$ ).

Type A Activities<br>Cycling (indoors)<br>Walking<br>Aqua-aerobics<br>Slow dancing

Type B Activities<br>Jogging and running<br>Rowing ${ }^{\text {b }}$<br>Stair climbing ${ }^{\text {b }}$<br>Simulated climbing ${ }^{\text {b }}$<br>Nordic skiing ${ }^{\text {b }}$<br>Elliptical training ${ }^{\text {b }}$<br>Spinning

Fast dancing

| Type C Activities | Type D Activities |
| :--- | :--- |
| Aerobic dancing | Basketball |
| Bench step aerobics | Downhill skiing |
| In-line skating | Handball |
| Nordic skiing | Racket sports |
| (outdoors) | Hiking |
| Rope skiing | Swimming |
| Swimming |  |

[^1]

FIGURE 5.1 Comparison of steady-state heart rate response at submaximal exercise intensities for various aerobic exercise modes.
a greater total oxygen consumption for treadmill jogging compared to stepping, rowing, Nordic skiing, cycling, shuffle skiing, and aerobic riding (Kravitz et al. 1997b; Thomas et al. 1995). Also, the rate of energy expenditure during treadmill exercise was $20 \%$ to $40 \%$ greater than during stationary cycling (Kravitz et al. 1997b; Zeni et al. 1996), $57 \%$ greater than during aerobic riding (Kravitz et al. 1996, Kravitz et al. 1997b), 42\% higher than arm crank exercise (Schrieks, Varnes, and Hodges 2011), and 25 to $39 \%$ greater than kettlebell swinging intervals (Hulsey et al. 2012). In addition, steadystate exercise HRs were higher (see figure 5.2) for treadmill jogging compared to cycling and aerobic riding (Kravitz et al. 1996; Kravitz et al. 1997b; Zeni et al. 1996). Also, the average net energy expenditure of young adults (18-28 yr; 29.1-55.2 $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) was $5.56 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ higher over 1600 m when running $\left(160 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)$ compared to walking ( $86 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) on a treadmill (Wilkin, Cheryl, and Haddock 2012).

When selecting aerobic exercise modes for your client's exercise prescription, you should consider how easily the exercise intensity can be graded and adjusted in order to overload the cardiorespiratory system throughout the improvement stage. For aerobic dance and bench step aerobic exercise, work rates can be progressively increased by means of
quicker cadences, different bench heights (Olson et al. 1991), and upper body exercise using light ( $1-4 \mathrm{lb}[0.45-1.8 \mathrm{~kg}]$ ) handheld weights (Kravitz et al. 1997a). The intensity of in-line skating can be effectively graded by increasing the skating velocity (Wallick et al. 1995). The intensity of rowing, stair climbing, and simulated whole-body climbing exercise can be incremented progressively using a variety of exercise machines (Brahler and Blank 1995; Howley et al. 1992).

Prescribe rope-skipping activities with caution; the exercise intensity for skipping 60 to 80 skips $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ is approximately 9 METs. This value exceeds the maximum MET capacity of most sedentary individuals. Also, the exercise intensity is not easily graded because doubling the rate of skipping increases the energy requirement by only 2 to 3 METs. Town, Sol, and Sinning (1980) reported an average energy expenditure of 11.7 to 12.5 METs for skipping at rates of 125,135 , and 145 skips•min ${ }^{-1}$. They concluded that rope skipping is a strenuous exercise that may not serve well as a form of graded aerobic exercise.

When selecting exercise modes for your older clients, you need to consider their functional aerobic capacity, musculoskeletal problems, and neuromuscular coordination (impaired vision or balance). Select activities that are enjoyable and convenient.


FIGURE 5.2 Comparison of steady-state heart rate response at somewhat hard intensity (rating of perceived exertion $=13$ or 14 ) for various aerobic exercise modes.

For many older adults, walking is an excellent mode. Stationary cycling and aquatic exercise can be used for individuals with impaired vision or balance. Research suggests that tai chi increases balance, muscular strength, and flexibility as well as cardiorespiratory fitness ( $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ peak) of older adults (Chewning, Yu, and Johnson 2000; Lan et al. 1998).

## INTENSITY OF EXERCISE

Exercise intensity is a key factor in determining physiological adaptations to the exercise stimulus (Egan et al. 2010). Traditionally, exercise intensity has been expressed as a straight percentage of either the individual's maximal aerobic capacity ( $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}$ max) ), peak oxygen consumption ( $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ peak), or heart rate reserve (HRR). However, research has suggested that the $\% \mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max is not equivalent ( $1: 1$ ratio) to the \%HRR for cycling and treadmill exercise (Azevedo et al. 2011; Swain and Leutholtz 1997; Swain et al. 1998). The ACSM changed its recommendation regarding the method used to calculate exercise intensity for aerobic exercise prescriptions. Instead of expressing relative intensity as a straight percentage of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max \left(\% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2}\right.$ max), the ACSM recommends using the percent $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max reserve $\left(\% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}\right)$. The
$\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ is the difference between the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max and resting oxygen consumption ( $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ rest). With this modification, percent values for the $\% \mathrm{~V}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ and $\% H R R$ methods for prescribing exercise intensity are approximately equal, thereby improving the accuracy of calculating a target $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$, particularly for clients who are engaging in low-intensity aerobic exercise (Swain 1999). There is individual variability in resting oxygen consumption; this introduces questions regarding the assumed constant ( $1 \mathrm{MET}=3.5$ $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) ascribed to $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ rest. Consequently, when it is available, the actual $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ rest should be used when determining $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2} \mathrm{R}$ (da Cunha, de Tarso Veras Farinatti, and Midgley 2011).

Regardless of the method used, intensity and duration of exercise are indirectly related. In other words, the higher the exercise intensity, the shorter the duration of exercise required and vice versa. Before prescribing the exercise intensity for aerobic exercise, carefully evaluate the individual's initial cardiorespiratory fitness classification, goals for the program, exercise preferences, and injury risks. Your client can improve cardiorespiratory fitness with either lower-intensity, longer-duration exercise or higher-intensity, shorter-duration exercise. For most individuals, low-to-moderate intensities of
longer duration are recommended; higher-intensity exercise increases the risk of orthopedic injury and discourages continued participation in the exercise program.

Part of the art of exercise prescription is being able to select an exercise intensity that is adequate to stress the cardiovascular system without overtaxing it. According to the ACSM (2014), the initial exercise intensity for apparently healthy adults is $40 \%$ to $<90 \%$ Vㅇ﹎﹎ㅏ R or HRR, depending on their initial physical fitness classification (i.e., fair to excellent cardiorespiratory fitness level). Lowerintensity exercise ( $30-40 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ or HRR) may be sufficient to provide important health benefits for sedentary clients or older individuals with poor initial cardiorespiratory fitness levels. For most individuals, intensities of $55 \%$ to $80 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ are sufficient to improve cardiorespiratory fitness. As a general rule, the more fit the individual, the higher the exercise intensity needs to be to produce further improvement in cardiorespiratory fitness. In fact, Azevedo and colleagues (2011) reported that the ventilatory threshold for highly fit men (18-58 yr) occurred between $70 \%$ and $93 \%$ HRR. This finding suggests that highly fit individuals may require a higher exercise intensity than what is generally prescribed for the average adult. Exercise intensity can be prescribed using the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve, HR , or RPE method.

## $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ Reserve (MET) Method

First, measure the client's functional aerobic capacity ( $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max or $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak) using a graded exercise test (see chapter 4). Express the client's $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max in relative terms, that is, $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ or METs (metabolic equivalents). The $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ calculations presented here assume that 1 MET is approximately equal to $3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$. Therefore, given a $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max of 35 $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, for example, the metabolic equivalent would be 10 METs ( $35 / 3.5=10 \mathrm{METs}$ ).

Next determine the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathbf{O}_{2}$ reserve ( $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathbf{R}$ ). As mentioned previously, the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ is the difference between $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max and $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ rest $\left(\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}=\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}\right.$ max - $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ rest). The percent of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ depends on the initial cardiorespiratory fitness level of the client. To calculate the target $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ (in METs) based on the $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{R}$, use the following equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { target } \mathrm{V̇}_{2}= & {[\text { relative exercise intensity }(\%)} \\
& \left.\times \dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}\right]+\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \text { rest }
\end{aligned}
$$

For example, the target $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ corresponding to
 is calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{target} \dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} & =[0.50 \times(10-1 \mathrm{MET})]+1 \mathrm{MET} \\
& =(0.50 \times 9 \mathrm{METs})+1 \mathrm{MET} \\
& =4.5+1.0 \mathrm{METs}, \text { or } 5.5 \mathrm{METs}
\end{aligned}
$$

The exercise intensity (METs) for walking, jogging, running, cycling, and bench-stepping activities is directly related to the speed of movement, power output, or mass lifted. Use the ACSM equations (table 4.3) to calculate the speed or work rates corresponding to a specific MET intensity for the exercise prescription. For example, to estimate how fast a woman should jog on a level course to be exercising at an intensity of 8 METs, follow these steps:

1. Convert the METs to $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}} & =8 \mathrm{METs} \times 3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
& =28 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Substitute known values into the ACSM running equation and solve for speed.

$$
\begin{aligned}
28 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}= & {\left[\text { speed }\left(\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right) \times 0.2\right] } \\
& +3.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

$28.0 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}-3.5=$ speed $\left(\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right) \times 0.2$ $122.5 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}=$ speed
3. Convert speed to mph .

$$
\begin{aligned}
1 \mathrm{mph} & =26.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
122.5 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} / 26.8 \mathrm{~m} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} & =4.57 \mathrm{mph}
\end{aligned}
$$

4. Convert mph to minute per mile pace.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { pace } & =60 \mathrm{~min} / \mathrm{hr} / \mathrm{mph} \\
& =60 \mathrm{~min} / \mathrm{hr} / 4.57 \mathrm{mph} \\
& =13.1 \mathrm{~min} \cdot \mathrm{mi}^{-1}\left(\text { or } 8.1 \mathrm{~min} \cdot \mathrm{~km}^{-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Average MET values for selected conditioning exercises, sports, and recreational activities are presented in appendix E.4, "Gross Energy Expenditure for Conditioning Exercises, Sports, and Recreational Activities." When estimating MET values for children and adolescents, use the compendium of energy expenditures (MET values) developed for youth (see Ridley, Ainsworth, and Olds 2008). Prescribing exercise intensity using only MET values has certain
limitations. The caloric costs (i.e., average MET values) of conditioning exercises are only estimates of energy expenditure. The caloric costs of activities, particularly type C activities, vary greatly with the individual's skill level. Although these MET estimates provide a starting point for prescribing exercise intensity, environmental factors such as heat, humidity, altitude, and pollution may alter the HR and RPE responses to exercise. Therefore, you should use the HR or RPE method along with the MET method to ensure that the exercise intensity does not exceed safe limits.

## Heart Rate Methods

There are three ways to prescribe exercise intensity for your clients using HR data. Each of these approaches is based on the assumption that HR is a linear function of exercise intensity (i.e., the higher the exercise intensity, the higher the HR).

## Heart Rate Versus MET Graphing Method

When a submaximal or maximal graded exercise test (GXT) is administered, the client's steady-state HR response to each stage of the exercise test can be plotted (see figure 5.3). The HRmax is the HR
observed at the highest exercise intensity during a maximal GXT. For submaximal GXTs, you can estimate your client's HRmax using one of the age-predicted HRmax formulas (e.g., 220 - age). From this graph, you can obtain HRs corresponding to given percentages of the estimated functional capacity or $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max. In our example, the functional capacity of the individual is 7.4 METs, and the HRmax is 195 bpm . The HRs corresponding to exercise intensities of 4.8 and 6.4 METs ( $60-85 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) are 139 and 175 bpm , respectively. During exercise workouts, the individual should measure the HR using an HR monitor or palpation to verify that the appropriate exercise intensity is reached.

It is important to note that the HR response to graded exercise is dependent to some extent on the mode of exercise testing. For example, compared to treadmill testing, exercising on an electronic step ergometer elicits higher HRs, and stationary cycling typically results in somewhat lower HRs at the same relative exercise intensities. When using this method to obtain HRs for an exercise prescription, be sure to match the exercise testing and training modes by selecting a testing mode that elicits HR responses that are similar to those obtained for the


FIGURE 5.3 Plotting target heart rate zone using graded exercise test data (heart rate vs. METs). HRmax = maximal heart rate; $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}=$ oxygen reserve .
training mode (see figure 5.1). For example, if your client chooses in-line skating as a training mode, you should administer a treadmill GXT, given that the relationship between HR and $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ at submaximal exercise intensities is similar for these two exercise modes (Berry et al. 1992).

## Heart Rate Reserve Method

When HR data from a GXT are not available, you can use the Karvonen method, or percent heart rate reserve ( $\%$ HRR) method, to determine target HRs for your client's exercise prescription. The heart rate reserve (HRR) method takes into account the resting HR and maximal HR. The HRR is the difference between the maximal HR and resting HR. A percentage of HRR is added to the client's resting HR to determine the target exercise HR :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { target HR }= & {[\% \text { exercise intensity } \times(\text { HRmax }} \\
& - \text { HRrest })]+ \text { HRrest }
\end{aligned}
$$

As previously mentioned, the percent values for the HRR method closely approximate the percent values for the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ method (Azevedo et al. 2011; Lounana et al. 2007; Swain and Leutholtz 1997). The ACSM (2014) recommends using $40 \%$ to $<90 \%$ HRR. For example, if

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { maximal } \mathrm{HR}= & 178 \mathrm{bpm}, \\
\text { resting } \mathrm{HR} & =68 \mathrm{bpm}, \text { and } \\
\text { exercise intensity }= & 60 \% \mathrm{HRR}, \text { then } \\
\text { target exercise } \mathrm{HR}= & 0.60(178-68)+68 \\
& \text { or } 134 \mathrm{bpm} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Percentage of Maximal Heart Rate Method

You also can use a straight percentage of maximal HR (percent heart rate maximum, \%HRmax) to estimate exercise intensity and determine target exercise HR. This method is based on the fact that the $\% \mathrm{HRmax}$ is related to $\% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ and $\% \mathrm{HRR}$.

In table 5.1, we can see that $67 \%$ and $94 \%$ HRmax correspond to exercise intensities of $45 \%$ and $85 \%$ $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ or HRR. Using this method, you will typically prescribe target HRs between $64 \%$ and $96 \%$ HRmax depending on the fitness level of your client.

With use of this technique, the actual maximal HR must be known or must be predicted either from the HR response to submaximal workloads or from the HRmax prediction equations such as 220 - age or $206.9-(0.67 \times$ age $)$. For example, if the agepredicted maximal HR is 180 bpm and the exercise intensity is set at $70 \%$ HRmax, the target exercise HR is equal to 126 bpm .

$$
\begin{aligned}
\% H R \max \times \mathrm{HRmax} & =\text { target HR } \\
0.70 \times 180 \mathrm{bpm} & =126 \mathrm{bpm}
\end{aligned}
$$

Compared to the Karvonen (\%HRR) method, the $\%$ HRmax method tends to give a lower value when the same relative intensity is used. If in our example the client's resting HR is 80 bpm , the target HR using the Karvonen method is 150 bpm [ $0.70 \times$ $(180-80)+80 \mathrm{bpm}]$ compared to 126 bpm for the \%HRmax method.

## Limitations of Heart Rate Methods

Exclusive use of HR to develop intensity recommendations for your client's exercise prescription may lead to large errors in estimating relative exercise intensities ( $\% \mathrm{~V}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) for some individuals. This is especially true when HRmax is predicted from age ( 220 - age) instead of being directly measured. In about $30 \%$ of the population, an age-predicted prescription of $60 \%$ HRR may be as low as $70 \%$ or as high as $80 \%$ of the actual HRmax (Dishman 1994). Measured HRmax varies with exercise mode. Therefore, your client's perceived effort may differ among exercise modes even during exercise at the same submaximal HR. Also, medications, emotional

Table 5.1 Comparison of Methods for Prescribing Exercise Intensity for Healthy Adults

| CR fitness classification | \%HRR or $\% \mathbf{V O}_{2} \mathbf{R}$ | \%HRmax | RPE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Poor | $30-45$ | $57-67$ | Light-moderate |
| Fair | $40-55$ | $64-74$ | Light-moderate |
| Average | $55-70$ | $74-84$ | Moderate-hard |
| Good | $65-80$ | $80-91$ | Moderate-hard |
| Excellent | $70-<90$ | $84-96$ | Somewhat hard-hard |

HRR = heart rate reserve; RPE = rating of perceived exertion.
states, and environmental factors (e.g., temperature, humidity, and air pollution) can affect your client's exercise training HRs. You should consider using RPEs to adjust the exercise intensity in such situations.

## Ratings of Perceived Exertion Method

In light of the limitations associated with using HR for setting exercise intensity, consider using a combination of HR and RPE in developing prescriptions for your clients. You can use RPEs to prescribe and monitor exercise intensity (Birk and Birk 1987). The ACSM (2014) recommends the use of RPE values (10-point scale) to prescribe exercise intensity for older adults (moderate intensity: 5 to 6 ; vigorous intensity: 7 to 8 ). The RPE scales (see table 4.2 and appendix B.4) are valid and reliable tools for assessing the level of physical exertion during continuous aerobic exercise (Birk and Birk 1987; Borg and Linderholm 1967; Dunbar et al. 1992; Guidetti et al. 2011; Krause et al. 2012; Mays et al. 2010; Robertson 2004; Scherr et al. 2012).

During the GXT, the client rates the intensity of each stage of the test using a RPE scale. You can use the intensities (METs) corresponding to somewhat hard (6 on OMNI scale or 12 on Borg RPE scale) to hard (8 on OMNI scale or 16 on Borg RPE scale) to set the minimum and maximum training intensities for the exercise prescription. Compared to the \%HRR method, RPEs between 12 and 16 closely approximate $40 \%$ and $84 \%$ HRR, respectively (Pollock et al. 1998). Strong correlations between the OMNI-RPE and $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}(r=0.93-0.96)$ as well as HR ( $r=0.96-0.97$ ) and the Borg RPE scale ( $r=0.96-0.98$ ) were reported (Mays et al. 2010). Similarly, Scherr and colleagues (2012) reported a correlation between RPE ( $6-20$ scale) and blood lactate ( $r=0.84$ for a quadratic regression) that was higher than that between RPE and HR ( $r=0.74$ for a linear regression); their sample consisted of 2560 Caucasians ( $13-83 \mathrm{yr}$ ) who were classified as either sedentary (failed to meet the ACSM's recommended guidelines for physical activity) or athletic (performed at least 10 hr of exercise weekly or were members of a national team). As reported by Scherr and colleagues (2012), the relationships between RPE and associated exercise intensity
variables (HR or blood lactate) were strong and independent of gender, medical history, age, level of physical activity, and testing modality (treadmill or stationary cycle).

With practice, an individual can learn to associate RPE with a specific target exercise HR, especially at higher exercise intensities (Smutok, Skrinar, and Pandolf 1980). Thus, the RPE can be used instead of HR , or in combination with HR , to monitor training intensity and to adjust the exercise prescription for conditioning effects. Parfitt, Evans, and Eston (2012) reported that sedentary clients are able to successfully use RPE to monitor their exercise intensity. Those who exercised 3 days/wk at an RPE of 13 (somewhat hard) on the Borg 6-20 scale improved their aerobic capacity by $17 \%$ in 8 wk . Moreover, the majority of the exercise intervention group perceived their exercise sessions as being pleasant and reported that their selected exercise intensity felt good (Parfitt, Evans, and Eston 2012). Interestingly, Scherr and colleagues (2012) confirmed that an RPE in the range of 11 to 13 is appropriate for untrained or less-fit individuals, while those with higher levels of fitness would benefit from aerobic training in the RPE range of 13 to 15 . Compared to men, women are more likely to overestimate RPE, especially if the women are infrequent exercisers. In contrast, men and regular exercisers tend to underestimate their level of physical activity compared to accelerometry data (Skatrud-Mickelson et al. 2011). Consequently, as an exercise professional, you must remain aware that some of your clients may likely misestimate their level of exertion.

One advantage of RPE as a method of monitoring exercise intensity is that your clients do not need to stop exercising in order to check their HRs. Unfortunately, exercising at a given RPE value produces very different metabolic responses when performing kettlebell swings ( $34.1 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) compared to treadmill running ( $46.7 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) (Hulsey et al. 2012). For an extensive review of research pertaining to the use of perceived exertion for prescribing exercise intensity, see the studies of Dishman (1994) and Robertson (2004). Parfitt and colleagues (2012) describe how allowing clients to select their exercise intensity based on RPE theoretically supports the sense of self-determination and perception of exercise autonomy, both of which may improve client adherence to an exercise prescription.

## Monitoring Exercise Intensity

Throughout the aerobic exercise program, carefully monitor exercise intensity in order to ensure your client's safety and to confirm that your client is exercising at or near the prescribed intensity. The HR and RPE methods can be used for this purpose. Teach your clients how to monitor exercise intensity using HR palpation techniques (see chapter 2), HR monitors, and the RPE scales (see table 4.2).

Research assessing the validity and reliability of using motion and physiological response monitors to track exercise intensity for a variety of exercise modalities is ongoing. Some exercise modalities are more suitable than others when monitoring HR via technology. In addition to working well for land-based exercise, some HR monitors work well in fresh water (e.g., swimming pools) but must be waterproofed for use in salt water (i.e., swimming in the ocean). Raffaelli and colleagues (2012) reported that monitoring intensity during water aerobics is better done by HR palpation than accelerometry.

Some clients may prefer using a talk test to monitor their exertion. The talk test is a measure of the client's ability to converse comfortably while exercising, and it is based on the relationship between exercise intensity and pulmonary ventilation. Pulmonary ventilation, or the movement of air into and out of the lungs, increases linearly with exercise intensity $\left(\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}\right)$ up to a point. At the breaking point, known as the ventilatory threshold, pulmonary ventilation increases exponentially relative to the exercise intensity and rate of oxygen consumed. At the ventilatory threshold, it becomes difficult to speak during exercise. However, Quinn and Coons (2011) found that the talk test was more strongly associated with lactate threshold (exercise intensity at which blood lactate value increases by at least 1 $\mathrm{mmol} \cdot \mathrm{L}^{-1}$ compared to the previous blood sample) and RPE than with the ventilatory threshold in young men. Studies of college-age students (Persinger et al. 2004), clinically stable cardiac patients (Voelker et al. 2002), and athletes (Jeans et al. 2011; Recalde et al. 2002) showed that individuals who pass the talk test are exercising at intensities that are within the accepted guidelines for the exercise prescription. Those failing the talk test are exercising at intensities that exceed the prescribed level. The talk test provides a fairly precise and consistent method for
monitoring exercise during stationary cycling and treadmill exercise (Persinger et al. 2004).

Similarly, the counting talk test (CTT) is an objective method for monitoring exercise intensity (Loose et al. 2012). The counting talk test is normalized relative to how far one can count during rest; following a maximal inhalation, one begins counting at a comfortable pace (i.e., one one-thousand, two one-thousand, and so on). The highest digit counted prior to a second inhalation is the number $\left(\mathrm{CTT}_{\text {rest }}\right)$ used for future exercise intensity determinations. During exercise, the counting procedure is repeated with the highest number spoken before breathing again divided by the baseline value to derive a $\% \mathrm{CTT}_{\text {rest }}$. .xercising at $30 \%$ to $40 \% \mathrm{CTT}_{\text {rest }}$ or $40 \%$ to $50 \% \mathrm{CTT}_{\text {rest }}$ is equivalent to being in the moderate- to vigorous-intensity range for those with a CTT $_{\text {rest }}$ of at least 25 or $<25$, respectively. The CTT is reliable as well as significantly and inversely related to \%HRR and RPE ( $r=-0.64$ to -0.77 ) for walking, stationary cycling, elliptical training, and stair stepping (Loose et al. 2012).

## FREQUENCY OF EXERCISE

The frequency of the exercise sessions depends on your client's caloric goals, health and fitness level, preferences, and time constraints. For health benefits, individuals should exercise at a moderate intensity at least 5 days per week. Individuals with fair to excellent cardiorespiratory fitness levels should exercise at a moderate to vigorous intensity a minimum of three times per week to produce significant changes in aerobic endurance (ACSM 2014). Individuals with poor cardiorespiratory fitness levels should exercise at light to moderate intensities a minimum of 5 days a week. Multiple daily exercise bouts of at least 10 min duration each may be prescribed for sedentary clients having poor aerobic fitness.

In terms of improving $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{max}$, the sequence of exercise sessions seems to be less important than the total work (volume) performed during the training. Similar improvements were noted for individuals who trained every other day (M-W-F) and three consecutive days (M-T-W) (Moffatt, Stamford, and Neill 1977). The ACSM (2014) recommends exercising on alternate days during the initial stages of training to lessen the chance of bone or joint injury.

Also, older adults who can tolerate vigorous exercise should work out at least 3 days/wk, with a day of rest between each exercise session (ACSM 2014).

## TIME (DURATION) OF EXERCISE

As an exercise specialist, you must prescribe an appropriate combination of exercise intensity and duration so that the individual adequately stresses the cardiorespiratory system without overexertion. As mentioned earlier, the intensity and duration of exercise are inversely related (the lower the exercise intensity, the longer the duration of the exercise). The ACSM (2014) recommends 20 to 60 min of continuous or intermittent activity. Apparently healthy individuals usually can sustain exercise intensities of $60 \%$ to $<90 \%$ V응 for 20 to 30 min . To improve functional capacity ( $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max), exercise of moderate intensity and duration ( $30-60 \mathrm{~min}$ ) is recommended for most adults (ACSM 2014). During the improvement stage, duration can be increased every 2 to 3 wk until participants can exercise continuously for 30 min at a moderate to vigorous intensity (ACSM 2014). Poorly conditioned and older individuals may be able to exercise continuously at a low intensity ( $<40 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) for only 5 to 10 min . They may need to perform multiple sessions (e.g., two or three 10 min exercise bouts) in a given day to accumulate 20 to 30 min of aerobic exercise.

An alternative way of estimating the duration of exercise is to use the caloric cost of the exercise. To achieve health benefits, ACSM (2014) recommends targeting a minimum of $150 \mathrm{~min} / \mathrm{wk}$ of moderateintensity exercise; this is equivalent to a minimal weekly caloric threshold of 1000 kcal from physical activity or exercise. Consequently, you may target caloric thresholds of 150 to $400 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{day}^{-1}$; however, be aware that the ACSM (2014) cautions against using absolute exercise intensities (e.g., kcal•min ${ }^{-1}$ ) since they do not account for individual differences in body weight, fitness level, or gender.

During the initial stage of the exercise program, however, weekly exercise caloric expenditure may be considerably lower ( $200-600 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ ). To attain $300 \mathrm{~min} / \mathrm{wk}$ of moderate-intensity exercise in the improvement stage, your client's caloric expenditure must increase from 1000 to $2000 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$. This
can be accomplished by gradually increasing the frequency, intensity, and duration of the exercise. For example, in order for a 60 kg ( 132 lb ) woman who is exercising at an intensity of 7 METs five times per week to reach a weekly net caloric threshold of 1500 $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$, she needs to expend 300 kcal per exercise session ( $1500 \mathrm{kcal} / 5=300 \mathrm{kcal}$ ). You can estimate the gross caloric cost of her exercise ( $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) using the following formula:
gross caloric cost $\left(\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)=$ METs $\times 3.5$ $\times$ body mass in kg / 200

To calculate the net caloric expenditure from her activity, subtract the resting oxygen consumption ( 1 MET ) from the gross $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}\left(\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}\right.$ cost of exercise $+\mathrm{V}_{2}$ rest) and substitute this value ( $7-1=6 \mathrm{METs}$ ) into the equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { net caloric cost } & =6 \mathrm{METs} \times 3.5 \times 60 \mathrm{~kg} / 200 \\
& =6.3 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, she needs to exercise approximately $48 \mathrm{~min}\left(300 \mathrm{kcal} / 6.3 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right.$ ), five times per week, in order to achieve her weekly net caloric expenditure goal of 1500 kcal .

Santos and colleagues (2012) investigated the influence of body mass ( $60-100 \mathrm{~kg}$ ) and fitness levels ( $16.4-61.2 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) on the energy expenditure and exercise program recommendations endorsed by the ACSM. Santos and colleagues derived equations for estimating individualized training intensity ( $\% \mathrm{~V} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ), duration ( $\mathrm{min} / \mathrm{wk}$ ), frequency (days/wk), and weekly energy expenditure ( $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ ) to account for individual variability in a given exercise session. The energy expenditure equation suggested by the ACSM (2014) overestimated energy expenditure for individuals with low aerobic fitness levels while underestimating energy expenditure for everyone else. For additional information about their suggested adjustments to the ACSM equations and how these adjustments were derived, see Santos and colleagues (2012).

## VOLUME OF EXERCISE

The frequency, intensity, and time of exercise determine the quantity or volume of exercise. The MET•min is an index of energy expenditure
and is calculated by multiplying the MET value of activities by the number of minutes the activity is performed per week (e.g., $6 \mathrm{METS} \times 150 \mathrm{~min}=$ $900 \mathrm{MET} \cdot \mathrm{min} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ ). Using this measure of exercise volume, the total amount of physical activity can be standardized across individuals and types of activities (ACSM 2014). The ACSM (2014) recommends $>500-1000 \mathrm{MET} \cdot \mathrm{min} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$ as a target volume of exercise for adults. This volume is equivalent to moderate-intensity ( 3 to 6 METs ) exercise for about $150 \mathrm{~min} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$.

In addition, pedometers (see Chapter 3) can be used to quantify the amount of exercise. Total step counts of 5400 to 7900 steps per day meet the physical activity recommendations for most adults. Walking 1 mi at a moderate intensity ( 100 steps•min ${ }^{-1}$ ) yields about 3000 to 4000 steps on average. It is best to use pedometer counts in combination with recommended time and duration of exercise (e.g., 100 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) for 30 min and $150 \mathrm{~min} \cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$.

## PROGRESSION OF EXERCISE

Physiological changes associated with aerobic endurance training (see "Physiological Changes Induced by Cardiorespiratory Endurance Training") enable the individual to increase the total work performed. The greatest conditioning effects occur during the first 6 to 8 wk of the exercise program. Aerobic endurance may improve as much as $3 \%$ per week during the first month, $2 \%$ per week for the second month, and $1 \%$ per week or less thereafter. For continued improvements, the cardiorespiratory system must be overloaded through adjustments in the intensity and duration of the exercise to the new level of fitness. The degree and rate of improvement depend on the age, health status, and initial fitness level of the participant. For the average person, aerobic training programs generally produce a $5 \%$ to $20 \%$ increase in $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max$ (Pollock 1973). Sedentary, inactive persons may improve as much as $40 \%$ in aerobic fitness, while elite athletes may improve only $5 \%$ because they begin at a level much closer to their genetic limits. We do not expect older individuals entering the exercise program to improve as quickly as younger individuals even when the initial fitness levels are the same.

## STAGES OF PROGRESSION

As discussed in chapter 3, the three stages of progression for cardiorespiratory exercise programs are the initial conditioning, improvement, and maintenance stages.

## Initial Conditioning

The initial conditioning stage may last 1 to 6 wk , depending on your client's rate of adaptation to the exercise program. In this stage, each exercise session should include a warm-up, moderate-intensity (3-6 METs) aerobic activity, low-intensity muscular fitness exercises, and a cool-down that emphasizes stretching exercises (ACSM 2006). Clients starting a moderate-intensity aerobic conditioning program should exercise a minimum of 3 days/wk. The duration of the aerobic exercise should be at least 20 min and progress to 30 min . After clients are able to sustain aerobic activity at $55 \%$ to $60 \%$ HRR for 30 min , they progress to the improvement stage.

## Improvement

The improvement stage usually lasts 4 to 8 mo . During this stage, the rate of progression is more rapid. Intensity, duration, and frequency of exercise should always be increased independently. Either duration or frequency should be increased before intensity is increased. Increase the duration no more than 10 minutes per session every week or two in the first month until your clients are able to sustain moderate-to-vigorous exercise for 20 to 30 min. Frequency should progress from 3 to 5 days/ wk. Once the desired duration and frequency are reached, the exercise intensity may be increased gradually to reduce the likelihood of injury, soreness, and overtraining (ACSM 2014).

Rate of progression during this stage depends on a number of factors. Cardiac patients, older adults, and less-fit individuals may need more time for the body to adapt to a higher conditioning intensity. Ultimately, older or less-fit adults should strive to achieve 30 to $60 \mathrm{~min} /$ day of moderate-intensity activity ( 5 or 6 on a $10 \mathrm{pt} \mathrm{RPE} \mathrm{scale)} \mathrm{or} 20$ to $30 \mathrm{~min} /$ day of vigorous-intensity activity ( $>6$ on a 10 pt RPE scale) or any equal combination thereof.

## PHYSIOLOGICAL CHANGES INDUCED BY CARDIORESPIRATORY ENDURANCE TRAINING

| Increases | Decreases |
| :---: | :---: |
| Heart size and volume | Resting heart rate |
| Blood volume and total hemoglobin | Submaximal exercise heart rate |
| Stroke volume-rest and exercise | Blood pressure (if high) |
| Cardiac output-maximum |  |
| $\dot{V}^{-}{ }_{2}$ max |  |
| Oxygen extraction from blood |  |
| Lung volume |  |
| Musculoskeletal System |  |
| Increases |  |
| Mitochondria-number and size |  |
| Myoglobin stores |  |
| Triglyceride stores |  |
| Oxidative phosphorylation |  |
| Other Systems |  |
| Increases | Decreases |
| Strength of connective tissues | Body weight (if overweight) |
| Heat acclimatization | Body fat |
| High-density lipoprotein cholesterol | Total cholesterol |
| Mood | Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol |
| Cognitive function | Depression |
|  | Incidence of Alzheimer's disease |

## Maintenance

After achieving the desired level of cardiorespiratory fitness, an individual enters the maintenance stage of the exercise program. This stage continues on a regular, long-term basis if the individual has made a lifetime commitment to exercise.

The goal of this stage is to maintain the cardiorespiratory fitness level and the weekly exercise caloric expenditure achieved during the improvement stage. Have your client accomplish this goal by engaging in aerobic activities 3 to 5 days/wk at the intensity and duration that were reached at the end of the improve-
ment stage. Reducing the training frequency from 5 to 3 days/wk does not adversely affect $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max as long as the training intensity remains the same. However, clients should participate in other activities an additional 2 or 3 days/wk. To this end, a variety of enjoyable activities from the type C and D classifications may be selected to counteract boredom and to maintain the interest level of the participant. For example, an individual who was running 5 days/ wk at the end of the improvement stage may choose to run only 3 days/wk and substitute in-line skating and racquetball on the other 2 days.

## AEROBIC TRAINING METHODS AND MODES

Either continuous or discontinuous training methods can improve cardiovascular endurance. Continuous training involves one continuous aerobic exercise bout performed at low-to-moderate intensities without rest intervals. Discontinuous training consists of several intermittent low- to high-intensity exercise bouts interspersed with rest periods. Both training methods produce significant improvements in $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2} \max$ (Morris et al. 2002). Research suggests that when the volume of exercise is controlled, high-intensity endurance interval training ( $90-95 \%$ HRmax; $95 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) improves $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max more than continuous, moderate-intensity ( $70 \%$ HRmax; $50 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) aerobic exercise training in healthy adults (Gormley et al. 2008; Helgerud et al. 2007). However, one concern about high-intensity intermittent training is the possibility of exercise burnout. Pollock and colleagues (1977) reported that the dropout rate of adults in a high-intensity interval (discontinuous) training program was twice that of those in a continuous jogging program. Thus, for the typical client, high-intensity interval training may be better suited for stimulating short-term (e.g., 4 wk ) improvements in cardiorespiratory fitness and for adding variety to the exercise program. Future research needs to address the long-term health benefits of interval training and its effects on exercise adherence for the general population.

## CONTINUOUS TRAINING

All of the exercise modes listed as type A or B activities (see "Classification of Aerobic Exercise Modalities") are suitable for continuous training. One advantage of continuous training is that the prescribed exercise intensity (e.g., $75 \% \mathrm{HRR}$ ) is maintained fairly consistently throughout the duration of the steady-paced exercise. Generally, continuous exercise at low-to-moderate intensities is safer, more comfortable, and better suited for individuals initiating an aerobic exercise program.

## Walking, Jogging, and Cycling

The most popular modes of continuous training are walking, jogging or running, and cycling. Exercise programs using walking, jogging, and cycling provide similar cardiovascular benefits (Pollock, Cureton, and Greninger 1969; Pollock et al. 1971, 1975; Wilmore et al. 1980). Improvements in $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max are comparable for most commonly used exercise modes. Pollock and colleagues (1975) compared running, walking, and cycling exercise programs of middle-aged men who trained at $85 \%$ to $90 \%$ HRmax. All three groups showed significant improvements in $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max. These results indicate that improvement in $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max is independent of the mode of training when frequency, intensity, and duration of exercise are held constant and are prescribed in accordance with sound, scientific principles.

## Aerobic Dance

Since the early 1970s, aerobic dance has continued to be a popular mode of exercise for improving and maintaining cardiorespiratory fitness. A number of excellent books provide detailed information about aerobic dance methods and techniques (Kuntzelman 1979; Wilmoth 1986). A typical aerobic dance workout consists of 8 to 10 min of stretching, calisthenics, and low-intensity exercise. This is followed by 15 to 45 min of either high- or low-impact aerobic dancing at the target training intensity. Handheld weights ( $1-4 \mathrm{lb}[0.45-1.8 \mathrm{~kg}]$ ) can be used to increase exercise intensity. Heart rates should be monitored at least six times during the exercise to ensure that the HR stays within the target zone. The 10 min cooldown period usually includes more stretching and calisthenic-type exercises.

Several studies conducted to assess the cardiorespiratory effect of aerobic dance training have documented average increases in $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max of $10 \%$ or greater (Blessing et al. 1987; Milburn and Butts 1983; Parker et al. 1989; Williford et al. 1988). Milburn and Butts (1983) reported that aerobic dance was as effective as jogging for improving
cardiorespiratory endurance when performed at similar intensity, frequency, and duration. The subjects trained $30 \mathrm{~min}, 4$ days $/ \mathrm{wk}$ for 7 wk , at $83 \%$ to 84\% HRmax.

## Bench Step Aerobics

Health and fitness clubs throughout the United States are promoting bench step training as an effective high-intensity, low-impact aerobic exercise mode. Step training uses whole-body movements on steps or benches, ranging in height from 4 to 12 in . ( $10.2-30.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ ). Choreographed movement routines are performed to music. A typical bench step aerobic workout consists of 5 to 10 min of warm-up and 20 to 30 min of step training. This is followed by a short (3-5 min) cool-down.

Exercise training intensity can be graded through use of variations in stepping cadence or bench height. To reduce the risk of injury during stepping on and off the bench, bench heights of 6 to 8 in . ( $15.2-20.3 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) and stepping cadences ranging from 118 to 128 steps $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ are recommended. In terms of energy expenditure, increasing bench height is more effective than increasing cadence. In a study comparing the energy expenditure of bench stepping at two different cadences ( 125 vs. 130 steps•min ${ }^{-1}$ ) and bench heights ( 6 vs. 8 in., or 15.2 vs. 20.3 cm ), there was no significant difference in energy expenditure (kcal-min ${ }^{-1}$ ) between the two different cadences. Increasing bench height from 6 to 8 in . (15.2-20.3 cm ), however, increased energy expenditure by $1.04 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ (Grier et al. 2002). Thus, it is more effective to alter the intensity of a typical aerobic stepping routine by increasing the step height than by increasing the stepping cadence.

Studies confirm that continuous step training at bench heights ranging from 6 to 12 in . (15.2-30.5 cm ) provides an adequate training stimulus that meets current ACSM (2014) guidelines for intensity and duration (Olson et al. 1991; Petersen et al. 1993; Woodby-Brown, Berg, and Latin 1993). Monitoring the physiological responses of clients participating in step training is advised because those who are shorter or obese may be exercising at a higher training intensity than recommended, especially when stepping at higher bench heights (Hansen et al. 2011). Following 8 to 12 wk of step aerobic training, $\dot{V O}_{2}$ max improves as much as $16 \%$ (Kravitz et al. 1993; Kravitz et al. 1997a; Velasquez and Wilmore
1992). In a study comparing bench step exercise with and without hand weights, use of 2 to 4 lb $(0.9-1.8 \mathrm{~kg})$ hand weights did not result in a greater improvement in $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max than step training without hand weights (Kravitz et al. 1997a).

## Step Ergometry and Stair Climbing

Step ergometry (machine-based stair climbing) is a popular exercise mode in health and fitness clubs. Research shows a linear HR response to graded submaximal exercise performed on stair climbing ergometers. However, the MET levels displayed on the StairMaster 4000 PT overestimate the actual MET intensity of the exercise (Howley et al. 1992). When prescribing exercise intensity using this type of stair climber, be certain to adjust the machine's estimates for each MET level using the following equation:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { actual METs }=0.556+0.745 \\
\text { (StairMaster MET setting) }
\end{gathered}
$$

Although machine-based stair climbing provides a training stimulus that meets guidelines for exercise intensity, there are relatively few studies comparing the effectiveness of stair climbing training to other aerobic training modes (Howley et al. 1992; Thomas et al. 1995).

## Elliptical Training

Elliptical training machines have become popular in the fitness industry. Elliptical trainers are designed for either upper body or combined upper and lower body exercise. The lower body motion during exercise on an elliptical trainer is a cross between the actions performed with machine-based stair climbing and upright stationary cycling. With elliptical trainers, the feet move in an egg-shaped or elliptical pattern, and the feet stay in contact with the footpads of the device throughout the exercise. Unlike running or jogging, this form of exercise may provide a high-intensity workout with low-impact forces comparable to those for walking (Porcari, Foster, and Schneider 2000). Although there is no research documenting the long-term effects of this type of training, preliminary data suggest that this exercise modality meets recommendations for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory fitness (Kravitz et al. 1998; Porcari et al. 2000).

Kravitz and colleagues (1998) reported that the average energy expenditure during forward-backward exercise with no resistance and against resistance for 5 min ( $125 \mathrm{strides} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) was, respectively, 8.1 and $10.7 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$. Exercise intensities ranged between $72.5 \%$ and $83.5 \%$ HRmax (age predicted). Compared to treadmill exercise, upper body elliptical training at self-selected intensities produced similar V̇O ${ }_{2}, \mathrm{HR}$, and RPE responses (Crommett et al. 1999; Porcari et al. 2000). Although there was no difference in $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{O}}^{2}$ between combined upper and lower body elliptical training and treadmill exercise, upper and lower body elliptical training produced a significantly higher HR and RPE (Crommett et al. 1999). Also, Mier and Feito (2006) reported significantly different $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$, ventilation, and RPE values when comparing elliptical exercise performed using legs only ( $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}: 18.7 \pm 3.0 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} ; \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{E}}$ : $38.9 \pm 3.0 \mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$; RPE: $10.9 \pm 1.9$ ) with elliptical training using both arms and legs combined ( $\mathrm{VH}_{2}$ : $19.2 \pm 3.0 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} ; \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{E}}: 37.7 \pm 8.3 \mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} ;$ RPE: $10.3 \pm 1.9$ ) Additionally, they commented on the large interindividual variability in $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ at each stage of exercise, possibly related to the gender, body composition, and elliptical training experience of the exerciser.

## Aerobic Riding

Aerobic riding involves both upper and lower body muscle groups. For this reason, some manufacturers claim that this mode of exercise will automatically burn more calories than lower body-only exercise modes such as jogging, cycling, and stair climbing. One study, however, noted that the energy expenditure during 10 min of steady-state exercise at a somewhat hard intensity $($ RPE $=13)$ on an aerobic rider was significantly lower than the caloric expenditure for treadmill jogging, stationary cycling, and Nordic skiing (Kravitz et al. 1997b). Subjects reported that they felt a similar workout intensity, in terms of RPE, during aerobic riding. Aerobic riding appears to challenge the muscular system (subjects complained of muscular discomfort) more than the cardiovascular system. In fact, the relative submaximal $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}\left(47 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}\right.$ max) for aerobic riding was significantly less than that for treadmill jogging ( $74 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2}$ max), Nordic skiing ( $68 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \max$ ), or stationary cycling ( $64 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max). Thus, aerobic riding may not be suitable for aerobic exercise pre-
scriptions, particularly for individuals with aboveaverage cardiorespiratory fitness.

## Water-Based Exercise

Water-based exercise, such as water aerobics or walking in waist-deep water, has been promoted as an effective way to increase the cardiorespiratory fitness of young, middle-aged, and older adults. This exercise is especially popular among individuals who are older, overweight, or afflicted with orthopedic disabilities. A typical water-based exercise session includes the following phases:

- Warm-up-20 min of stretching before entering the pool, followed by walking slowly in the water
- Endurance phase-30 min of continuous walking and dancing in the water
- Resistance phase- 10 min of resistance exercises performed underwater with dumbbells, barbell-like devices, and leg pads
- Cool-down-10 min of relaxation and floor exercises outside of the pool

In older women ( $60-75 \mathrm{yr}$ ) participating in water-based exercise training 3 days/wk for 12 wk , $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak increased by $12 \%$ while total cholesterol and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol decreased by $11 \%$ and $17 \%$, respectively. Also, muscle strength and arm and leg power increased significantly in response to exercising the limbs against the resistance of water (Takeshima et al. 2002).

## Innovative Aerobic Exercise Modes

New and innovative modes of aerobic exercise are introduced every year by the fitness industry in order to stimulate and maintain exercise participation of clients. Many of these new programs combine traditional exercise modes (e.g., stationary cycling, stepping, tai chi, and martial arts) with music. Fitness centers throughout the United States now offer group exercise classes using programs such as BodyCombat, RPM, BodyPump, BodyStep, and Tae Bo. BodyCombat is an aerobic workout that combines movements from karate, boxing, taekwondo, and tai chi with fast-paced music. RPM is an indoor cycling workout to music that includes warm-up, pace, hill, mixed terrain, interval, free spin, mountain climb,
and stretch segments. BodyPump is a conditioning class that adds strength training with weights to aerobic workouts choreographed to music. Tae Bo is an aerobic exercise routine that combines music with elements of taekwondo and kick boxing to promote aerobic fitness.

Rixon and colleagues (2006) compared exercise HRs and estimates of energy expenditure for BodyCombat ( $73 \%$ HRmax; $9.7 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ), RPM ( $74.3 \%$ HRmax; $9.9 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ), BodyStep ( $72.4 \%$ HRmax; $9.6 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ), and BodyPump ( $60.2 \%$ HRmax; $8.0 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) routines. With the exception of BodyPump, the intensity and duration of these exercise routines appear to be sufficient to meet physical activity recommendations for improving health and for weight management. Research studies are needed to determine the health benefits and effects of these exercise programs on aerobic fitness.

Kettlebell exercise is a novel and popular whole-body, aerobic training modality. It involves the rhythmic swinging and ballistic lifting of nonsymmetrical hand weights. Currently, the available research on this modality is sparse and equivocal. Farrar, Mayhew, and Koch (2010) found that kettlebell swinging is suitable for improving aerobic fitness. As expected, the average $\% \mathrm{HRmax}$ during kettlebell exercise ( $87 \%$ HRmax) was higher than the corresponding average $\% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max $(65.3 \%$ $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max). Although kettlebell exercise may have potential as an aerobic training modality (Farrar et al. 2010), Jay and colleagues (2011) reported no significant improvements in aerobic capacity following an 8 wk kettlebell training intervention for a predominantly ( $85 \%$ ) female sample of adults (44 yr and $23 \mathrm{~kg} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ on average).

## DISCONTINUOUS TRAINING

As mentioned previously, discontinuous training involves a series of low- to high-intensity exercise bouts interspersed with rest or relief periods. All of the exercise modes listed as type A and type B activities (see "Classification of Aerobic Exercise Modalities") are suitable for discontinuous training. Because of the intermittent nature of this form of training, the exercise intensity and total amount of work performed can be greater than with continuous training, making discontinuous training
a versatile method that is widely used by athletes, as well as individuals with low cardiorespiratory fitness. In fact, the ACSM (2014) recommends the use of discontinuous (intermittent) training for symptomatic individuals who are able to tolerate only low-intensity exercise for short periods of time (3-5 min). Interval training, treading, spinning, and circuit resistance training are examples of intermittent or discontinuous training.

## Interval Training

Interval training involves a repeated series of exercise work bouts interspersed with rest or relief periods. This method is popular among athletes because it allows them to exercise at higher relative intensities during the work interval than are possible with longer-duration, continuous training. Interval training programs also can be modified to improve speed and anaerobic endurance, as well as aerobic endurance, simply by changing the exercise intensity and length of the work and relief intervals.

Each work interval consists of running at a pace such that a distance of $1100 \mathrm{yd}(1005 \mathrm{~m})$ is covered in 3 to 4 min . The work interval is followed by a rest-relief interval of 1.5 to 2 min . This sequence is repeated three times. During the rest-relief interval, the individual usually walks or jogs while recovering from the work bout. For aerobic interval training, the ratio of work to rest-relief is usually $1: 1$ or $1: 0.5$. Each work interval is 3 to 5 min and is repeated three to seven times. The exercise intensity usually ranges between $70 \%$ and $85 \% \mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max. Apply the overload principle by increasing the exercise intensity or length of the work interval, decreasing the length of the rest-relief interval, or increasing the number of work intervals per exercise session. For a discussion of interval training and sample programs, including programs for developing speed and anaerobic endurance, refer to the work of Janssen (2001).

As highlighted in a recent review regarding the potential of high-intensity interval training (HIT) programs, Kessler, Sisson, and Short (2012) differentiated between sprint interval training (SIT) and aerobic interval training (AIT). SIT is typically based on iterative combinations of 30 sec maximal exertion sprints and extended (approximately 4 min ) recovery interludes on a stationary cycle. AIT is based on iterations of near maximal
( $80-95 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2}$ max) 4 min bouts of treadmill or cycling exercise followed by 3 to 4 min recovery periods, and it appears to have broader application for nonathletes, sedentary, and clinical populations. However, the SIT and AIT protocols tend to vary widely in exercise session volume and number of exercise sessions. Both SIT and AIT protocols show similar if not larger increases in maximal aerobic capacity and insulin sensitivity compared to counterparts engaging in the standard continuous moderate-intensity exercise. This trend is pervasive even though the SIT and AIT groups exercise just a fraction of the time recommended by the ACSM and American Heart Association (AHA; $150 \mathrm{~min} /$ wk). HDL-C and body fat percentage have been favorably altered by AIT, as has blood pressure in those not already undergoing treatment for hypertension. However, a dose-response relationship is evident, since the duration of the HIT protocols on these cardiovascular risk factors varies. Kessler and colleagues (2012) also outlined the need for exercise session supervision early on in the HIT programs, which are rigorous and may not be appropriate for everyone. On the other hand, Gosselin and colleagues (2012) reported that HIT exercise is as physiologically taxing as moderate-intensity ( $70 \%$ $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max) steady-state exercise for physically active adults (20-30 yr).

Sedentary but healthy adults underwent an AIT intervention that consisted of a single 10 min cycling bout at 60 W and an increasing number and duration of 10 sec maximal exertion sprints per session; the study period covered 6 wk with 3 sessions per wk. Not only did aerobic capacity increase by $12 \%$ and

## An Interval Training Prescription to Develop Aerobic Endurance

Sets: One
Repetitions: 3 to 7
Distance: 1100 yd ( 1105 m )
Intensity: $70 \%$ to $85 \% \mathrm{VO}_{2} \max$
Time: 3 to 5 min
Rest-relief interval: 1.5 to 2 min
$15 \%$ for the women and men, respectively, insulin sensitivity increased dramatically ( $28 \%$ ) for the men and no RPE values higher than 15 were reported (Metcalfe et al. 2012).

Recreationally active men served as their own controls in an investigation comparing high-intensity ( $90 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2}$ max) interval treadmill running (6 reps $\times 3$ min.rep ${ }^{-1}$ ) interspersed with moderate intensity ( $50 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \mathrm{max}$ ) active recovery ( 6 reps $\times 3 \mathrm{~min} \cdot \mathrm{rep}^{-1}$ ) to a 50 min continuous treadmill running bout at moderate intensity ( $70 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2}$ max). Along with the 7 min warm-up and cool-down periods, the highintensity protocol involved approximately 50 min of exercise. Although the $\% \mathrm{HRmax}, \% \mathrm{~V}_{2}$ max, and total energy expenditure were similar, RPE and perceived enjoyment were significantly higher for the high-intensity interval running protocol (Bartlett et al. 2011). An increased sense of enjoyment with exercise may lead to increased exercise adherence, although this needs to be investigated in less-fit individuals. Consequently, research on longer duration interventions are needed to determine if adherence and long-term physiological gains are possible with AIT and SIT programs.

## Treading and Spinning

Treading and spinning are two examples of interval training that have gained popularity in fitness clubs because of the variety and enjoyment they offer. Treading and spinning are group classes that involve walking, jogging, and running at various speeds and grades on a treadmill (treading) or stationary cycling at various cadences and resistances (spinning). A typical treading or spinning workout consists of 1:1 or $1.5: 1$ work-recovery intervals or stages that are repeated for a specified duration. For example, a 30 min treading class may consist of six stages. Each stage lasts 5 min (i.e., 3 min work interval and 2 min recovery interval). One can advance the intensity of the work interval by increasing the treadmill speed or grade. During the recovery interval, both the speed and grade of the treadmill are decreased (e.g., $2.5 \mathrm{mph}\left[4 \mathrm{~km} \cdot \mathrm{hr}^{-1}\right]$ and $0 \%$ grade). Instructors individualize and adapt the workouts for their clients by adjusting the duration of the work-recovery intervals and varying the speed and grade.

In one study, researchers designed 30 min treading workouts for walkers and runners (Nichols, Sherman, and Abbott 2000). They reported that
the average intensity of the walking protocol was $40 \%$ to $49 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max for male and female walkers, respectively. For the running protocol, the average intensity of the work intervals was $76 \%$ to $80 \%$ $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max for male and female runners, respectively. The researchers suggested that these average intensities, as well as the duration of the workout ( 30 min ), are sufficient to meet ACSM recommendations for an aerobic exercise prescription. More research is needed to determine the long-term training effects of treading and spinning on cardiorespiratory fitness.

## Circuit Resistance Training

Use of circuit resistance training for the development of aerobic fitness, as well as muscular strength and tone, has received much attention. An example of a circuit resistance training program is presented in chapter 7 (see figure 7.1). Circuit resistance training usually consists of several circuits of resistance training with a minimal amount of rest between the exercise stations ( $15-20 \mathrm{sec}$ ). Alternatively, instead of rest, you can have your clients perform 1 to 3 min of aerobic exercise between each station. The aerobic stations may include activities such as stationary cycling, jogging in place, rope skipping, stair climbing, bench stepping, and rowing. This modification of the circuit is known as super circuit resistance training.

Gettman and Pollock (1981) reviewed the research dealing with the physiological benefits of circuit resistance training. Because it produces only a 5\% increase in aerobic capacity as compared to a $15 \%$ to $25 \%$ increase with other forms of aerobic training, the authors concluded that circuit resistance training should not be used to develop aerobic fitness. Rather, it may be used during the maintenance stage of an aerobic exercise program.

## PERSONALIZED EXERCISE PROGRAMS

The aerobic exercise prescription should be individualized to meet each client's training goals and interests. To do this, you need to consider your client's age, gender, physical fitness level, and exercise preferences. This section presents a sample case study and examples of individualized exercise prescriptions to illustrate how the exercise prescription may be personalized for each client.

## CASE STUDY

Like any preventive or therapeutic intervention, exercise should be prescribed carefully. You must be able to evaluate your client's medical history, medical condition, physical fitness status, lifestyle characteristics, and interests before designing the exercise program. In addition, to test your ability to extract, analyze, and evaluate all pertinent information needed to design a safe exercise program for your client, many professional certification examinations require that you be able to analyze a case study. For these reasons, this section includes a sample case study.

A case study is a written narrative that summarizes client information that you will need to develop an accurate and safe individualized exercise prescription (Porter 1988). Important elements to focus on when reading and analyzing a case study are listed in "Essential Elements of a Case Study." First, identify the client's coronary heart disease (CHD) risk factors by focusing on information provided about age, family history of CHD, blood lipid profile (total cholesterol, high- and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol [HDL-C and LDL-C]), blood glucose levels, resting BP, physical activity, body fat level, and smoking. Become familiar with ideal or typical values for various blood chemistry tests so that you will be able to recognize normal or abnormal test results. Remember that each of the following factors places individuals at greater risk for CHD:

- Triglycerides $\geq 150 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$
- Total cholesterol $\geq 200 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$
- LDL-cholesterol $\geq 130 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$
- HDL-cholesterol $<40 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$
- Total cholesterol/HDL ratio $>5.0$
- Blood glucose $\geq 110 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$
- Systolic BP $\geq 140$ or diastolic BP $\geq 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$

Use signs and symptoms of cardiovascular, pulmonary, and metabolic disease (see Appendix A.3) along with CHD risk factors to determine the client's CHD risk classification (low, moderate, or high risk). The CHD risk classification dictates how closely the client's exercise program needs to be monitored.

Pay close attention to information about the client's medical history and physical examination results. These may reveal signs or symptoms of CHD, particularly if shortness of breath, chest pains,

## ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF A CASE STUDY

## Demographic Factors

- Age
- Gender
- Ethnicity
- Occupation


## Medical History

## Present symptoms

- Dyspnea or shortness of breath
- Angina or chest pain
- Leg cramps or claudication
- Musculoskeletal problems or limitations
- Medications
- Height
- Body weight
- Family history of coronary heart disease


## Lifestyle Assessment

- Alcohol and caffeine intake
- Smoking
- Nutritional intake, eating patterns
- Physical activity patterns and interests


## Past history

- Diseases
- Injuries
- Surgeries
- Lab tests


## Physical Examination

- Blood pressure
- Orthopedic problems or limitations
- Heart and lung sounds


## Laboratory Tests (Ideal or Typical Values)

- Triglycerides (<150 mg•dl-1)
- Total cholesterol (<200 mg•dl-1)
- LDL-cholesterol (<100 mg•dl$\left.{ }^{-1}\right)$
- HDL-cholesterol (>40 mg•dl ${ }^{-1}$ )
- Total cholesterol/HDL-cholesterol (<3.5)
- Blood glucose (60-110 mg•dl-1)
- Hemoglobin:
$13.5-17.5 \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$ (men)
$11.5-15.5 \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$ (women)
- Hematocrit:

40-52\% (men)
36-48\% (women)

- Potassium (3.5-5.5 meq• $\mathrm{dl}^{-1}$ )
- Blood urea nitrogen (4-24 mg•dl$\left.{ }^{-1}\right)$
- Creatinine (0.3-1.4 mg•dl-1)
- Iron:
$40-190 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$ (men)
$35-180 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$ (women)
- Calcium ( $8.5-10.5 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$ )


## Physical Fitness Evaluation

- Cardiorespiratory fitness (HR, BP, $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max)
- Body composition (\% body fat)
- Musculoskeletal fitness (muscle and bone strength)
- Flexibility
- Balance


## SAMPLE CASE STUDY

A 28 yr old female police officer ( 5 ft 5 in . or 165.1 cm ; 140 lb or 63.6 kg ; $28 \%$ body fat) has enrolled in the adult fitness program. Her job demands a fairly high level of physical fitness-a level she was able to achieve 6 yr ago when she passed the physical fitness test battery used by the police department. Before becoming a police officer, she jogged 20 min , usually three times a week. Since starting her job, she has had little or no time for exercise and has gained $15 \mathrm{lb}(6.8 \mathrm{~kg})$. She is divorced, and she works 8 hr a day and takes care of two children, ages 7 and 9 . At least three times a week, she and the children dine out, usually at fast food restaurants like Burger King and Taco Bell. She reports that her job, along with the sole responsibility for raising her two children, is quite stressful. Occasionally she experiences headaches and a tightness in the back of her neck. Usually in the evening she has one glass of wine to relax.

Her medical history reveals that she smoked one pack of cigarettes a day for 4 yr while she was in college. She quit smoking 3 yr ago. Over the past 2 yr , she has tried some quick weight loss diets, with little success. She was hospitalized on two occasions to give birth to her children. She reports that her father died of heart disease when he was 52 and that her older brother has high blood pressure. Recently she had her blood chemistry analyzed because she was feeling light-headed and dizzy after eating. In an attempt to lose weight, she eats only one large meal a day, at dinnertime. Results of the blood analysis were total cholesterol $=220 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$; triglycerides $=98 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1} ;$ glucose $=82 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}-1$; high-density lipoprotein cholesterol $=37 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$; and total cholesterol/high-density lipoprotein cholesterol ratio $=5.9$.

The exercise evaluation yielded the following data:

- Mode, protocol: Treadmill, modified Bruce
- Resting data: $\mathrm{HR}=75 \mathrm{bpm} ; \mathrm{BP}=140 / 82 \mathrm{mmHg}$
- Endpoint: Stage 4 ( $2.5 \mathrm{mph}\left[4 \mathrm{~km} \cdot \mathrm{hr}^{11}\right.$, $12 \%$ grade). Test terminated because of fatigue.

| Stage | METs | Duration $(\mathbf{m i n})$ | HR (bpm) | BP $(\mathrm{mmHg})$ | RPE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 2.3 | 3 | 126 | $145 / 78$ | 8 |
| 2 | 3.5 | 3 | 142 | $160 / 78$ | 11 |
| 3 | 4.6 | 3 | 165 | $172 / 80$ | 14 |
| 4 | 7.0 | 3 | 190 | $189 / 82$ | 18 |

## Analysis

1. Evaluate the client's CHD risk profile. Be certain to address each of the positive and negative risk factors.
2. Describe any special problems or limitations that need to be considered in designing an exercise program for this client.
3. Were the HR, BP, and RPE responses to the GXT normal? Explain.
4. What is the client's functional aerobic capacity in METs? Categorize her cardiorespiratory fitness level (see table 4.1).
5. Plot the HR versus METs on graph paper.
6. From the graph, determine the client's target HR zone for the aerobic exercise program. What HRs and RPEs correspond to $60 \%, 70 \%$, and $75 \%$ of the client's $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ?
7. The client expressed an interest in walking outside on a level track to develop aerobic fitness. Calculate her walking speed for each of the following training intensities: $60 \%, 70 \%$, and $75 \% \mathrm{~V}_{2} \mathrm{R}$. Use the ACSM equations presented in table 4.3.
8. In addition to starting an aerobic exercise program, what suggestions do you have for this client for modifying her lifestyle?
See appendix B. 5 for answers to these questions.
or leg cramps are reported or if high BP is detected. It is also important to note the types of medication the client is using. Drugs such as digitalis, betablockers, diuretics, vasodilators, bronchodilators, and insulin may alter the body's physiological responses during exercise and could affect the HR and BP responses reported for the GXT. Keep in mind that exercise programs need to be modified for individuals with musculoskeletal disorders such as arthritis, low back pain, osteoporosis, and chondromalacia. Next, be certain to key in on information regarding the client's lifestyle. Factors such as smoking, lack of physical activity, or diets high in saturated fats or cholesterol increase the risk of CHD, atherosclerosis, and hypertension. You often can target these factors for modification; they also help you assess the likelihood of the client's adherence to the exercise program (see table 3.3).

Examine the BP, HR, and RPE data for the GXT used to assess the client's functional aerobic capacity and cardiorespiratory fitness level. You need to be acutely aware of the normal and abnormal physiological responses to graded exercise. After assessing the client's CHD risk and cardiorespiratory fitness level, you can design an aerobic exercise program using a personalized exercise prescription of intensity, frequency, duration, mode, volume, and progression. To write the exercise prescription, use the results from the GXT (HR, RPE, functional MET capacity).

The sample case study is provided to test your ability to evaluate risk factors and GXT results and to prescribe an accurate and safe aerobic exercise program for this individual. See the results of the case study analysis in appendix B.5.

## SAMPLE CYCLING PROGRAM

The sample cycling program shows a personalized cycling program for a 27 yr old female who was given a maximal GXT on a stationary cycle ergometer. Her measured $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max is 7.4 METs . The exercise intensity is based on a percentage of her $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve ( $\% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ), and the target exercise HRs corresponding to $60 \%$ ( 4.8 METs ) and $80 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ (6.1 METs) are 139 bpm and 168 bpm , respectively (see figure 5.3). Thus, the training exercise HR should fall within this HR range. During the initial stage of the exercise program, the woman will cycle
at a work rate corresponding to $60 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}(4.8$ METs) for 2 wk .

During weeks 1 and 2, the exercise duration is increased by $5 \mathrm{~min} / \mathrm{wk}$ (from 40 to 45 min ). During the third week, relative exercise intensity rather than duration is increased by $5 \%$ (from 60\% $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ to $65 \%$ $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ). The work rate corresponding to an exercise intensity is calculated using the ACSM formulas for leg ergometry (see table 4.3). For example, the work rate corresponding to $60 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ( 4.8 METs or 16.8 $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) is calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\dot{\mathrm{VO}_{2}\left(\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{~kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)=\mathrm{W} / \mathrm{M} \times 1.8+3.5+3.5} \begin{array}{c}
\text { where } \mathrm{W}=\text { work rate in } \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \\
\text { and } \mathrm{M}=\text { body mass in } \mathrm{kg} . \\
16.8=\mathrm{W} / 70 \mathrm{~kg} \times 1.8+7.0 \\
16.8-7.0=\mathrm{W} / 70 \mathrm{~kg} \times 1.8 \\
9.8 \times 70 \mathrm{~kg} / 1.8=381 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}
\end{array}
\end{gathered}
$$

To calculate the resistance setting corresponding to $381 \mathrm{kgm} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ for a cycling cadence of 50 rpm , divide the work rate by the total distance the flywheel travels: $381 / 50 \mathrm{rpm} \times 6=1.27 \mathrm{~kg}$, or 1.3 kg .

To calculate the net energy cost ( $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) of cycling, subtract the resting $\dot{V}_{2}$ (1 MET) from the gross $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ for each intensity. Convert this net MET value to $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ using the following formula:
kcal $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}=$ METs $\times 3.5 \times$ body mass
(kg) / 200

$$
\text { (e.g., } \begin{aligned}
4.8-1.0 & =3.8 \mathrm{METs} ; 3.8 \times 3.5 \times 70 \mathrm{~kg} / 200 \\
& \left.=4.7 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

In the initial stages of the program, the weekly net energy expenditure is between 752 and 1040 kcal . In the improvement stage, the exercise intensity, duration, and frequency are progressively increased, and the weekly net caloric expenditure ranges between 1040 and 1874 kcal . Only one variable-intensity, duration, or frequency-should be increased at a time. The variable that is increased during each stage of the progression for this exercise program is indicated by boldface. During the improvement stage, this client's net caloric expenditure due to exercise meets the caloric threshold between 1000 and 2000 kcal per week from physical activity recommended by the ACSM (2014). In the maintenance phase, tennis and aerobic dancing are added to give variety and to supplement the cycling program. The

ACSM (2014) guidelines were followed to calculate each component of this exercise prescription.

## SAMPLE JOGGING PROGRAM

The sample jogging program is designed for a 29 yr old male who has an excellent cardiorespiratory fitness level. Since a GXT could not be administered, the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max was predicted from performance on the 12 min distance run test. The maximal HR was predicted using the formula 220 - age. Because this client is accustomed to jogging and his cardiorespiratory fitness level is classified as excellent, he is exempted from the initial stage and enters the improvement stage of the program immediately. During this time ( 20 wk ), the exercise intensity is increased from $70 \%$ to $85 \%$ of the estimated $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$. The speed corresponding to each MET intensity is calculated using the ACSM formulas for running on a level course (see table 4.3). The intensity, duration, and frequency of the exercise sessions provide a weekly net caloric expenditure between 1010 and 2170 kcal . During the first 4 wk of the program, this client's net rate of energy expenditure due to exercise is $10.2 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}(8.3 \mathrm{METs} \times 3.5 \times 70 \mathrm{~kg} / 200=$ $10.2 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ); thus, he will expend approximately 1010 kcal , jogging 33 min at a pace of 11:06 min $\cdot \mathrm{mi}^{-1}$ three times per week ( $33 \mathrm{~min} \times 10.2 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1} \times 3$ ). To figure the distance covered, the exercise duration is divided by the running pace: $33 \mathrm{~min} / 11.1$ $\min \cdot \mathrm{mi}^{-1}=3 \mathrm{mi}(5 \mathrm{~km})$. During the improvement stage, the frequency of exercise sessions gradually progresses from 3 to 5 days/wk. During the maintenance stage, the running is reduced to 3 days $/ \mathrm{wk}$, and handball and basketball are added to the aerobic exercise program. The ACSM (2014) guidelines were followed to calculate each component of this exercise prescription.

## SAMPLE MULTIMODAL EXERCISE PROGRAM

Some clients may prefer to engage in a variety of exercise modes (cross-training) to develop their cardiorespiratory fitness (see "Sample Multimodal Exercise Program"). In these cases, it is difficult to systematically prescribe increments in exercise
intensity using METs or target HRs. Although MET equivalents for various activities are available (see appendix E.4), typically a range of values is given, making it difficult for you to accurately prescribe work rates corresponding to specific intensity recommendations in an exercise prescription. Also, the HR response to a given MET level is highly dependent on the exercise mode.

The degree of muscle mass involved in the activity, as well as whether the body weight is supported during exercise, can affect the HR response to a prescribed exercise intensity. For example, whole-body exercise modes, such as Nordic skiing and aerobic dancing, involve both upper and lower body musculature. These produce higher submaximal HRs than lower body exercise modes (e.g., cycling and jogging). Also, at any given exercise intensity, the HR response during weight-bearing exercise such as jogging is greater than that for non-weight-bearing exercise (e.g., cycling).

Therefore, you should use RPEs to progressively increase exercise intensity throughout the improvement stage of a multimodal aerobic exercise program (see table 4.2). To use the RPE safely and effectively, you will need to teach your clients to focus on and learn to monitor important exertional cues such as breathing effort (rate and depth of breathing) and muscular sensations (e.g., pain, warmth, and fatigue). Guidelines for developing multimodal exercise prescriptions are presented in this section.

For multimodal exercise programs, you should set exercise frequency and weekly net caloric expenditure goals for each client (see "Sample Multimodal Exercise Program"). Provide your clients with estimates of net energy expenditure ( $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) for each of the aerobic activities they select for their exercise prescriptions. The exercise duration to achieve a specified weekly net caloric expenditure goal will vary depending on the activity mode chosen for each exercise session. Any combination of type A, B, or C activities can be used, provided that the client is able to maintain the prescribed RPE intensity for at least 20 min .

Flexibility is the key to successful multimodal exercise prescriptions. Clients should be free not only to select exercise modes of interest but also to decide on various combinations of frequency and duration as long as they meet the caloric thresholds
specified in their exercise prescriptions for each week.

The primary advantages of multimodal exercise programs over single-mode (e.g., jogging or cycling) programs for many of your clients are

- greater likelihood of engaging in a safe and effective exercise program,
- overall greater enjoyment of physical activity and exercise,
- better understanding of how their bodies respond to exercise,
- more direct involvement and sense of control in developing and monitoring their exercise programs, and
- increased likelihood of incorporating physical activity and exercise into their lifestyles.


## Guidelines for Multimodal

 Exercise Prescriptions- Modes: Select at least three per week from type A and B activities.
- Frequency: Three to seven sessions a week. Engage in either type A, B, or C activities at least three times per week.
- Intensity: Rating of perceived exertion between 5 and 9 on 10-point OMNI scale.
- Duration: At least 15 min , preferably 20 to 30 min . Duration depends on energy cost (kcal. $\mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ) of exercise mode.
- Caloric expenditure: 1000 to $2000 \mathrm{kcal} / \mathrm{wk}$. Group C and D activities can be used to reach the weekly caloric expenditure goal, but they cannot be counted as one of the required aerobic activities.


## SAMPLE HIT EXERCISE PROGRAM

The sample HIT program is designed for a 34 yr old, recreationally active male who has a fair cardiore-
spiratory fitness level and a limited amount of time per week to dedicate to aerobic training. Since he is satisfied with his body weight, his main goal is to improve his aerobic capacity. His $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max was predicted from a multistage treadmill test, and his maximal HR was predicted using the formula 220 age. Because this client is undertaking his first HIT exercise program and his cardiorespiratory fitness level is classified as fair, he is starting his program $5 \%$ above the exercise intensity targeted by the end ( $60 \% \dot{\mathrm{~V}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) of the standard initial conditioning stage. During the first 2 wk of his treadmill routine, the work and active recovery (rest) intervals are performed at $65 \%$ and $35 \%$ of his estimated $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{R}$, respectively. With the work and rest intervals both being 1 min in duration, his work-to-rest ratio is $1: 1$; he is initially scheduled to complete 15 repetitions per session three times per week. While the frequency and total duration of his exercise sessions remains constant, the intensity and duration of the work interval are systematically manipulated throughout the remaining 11 weeks of the program, as is the work-to-rest ratio (principle of progression). To calculate the average net $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ expended in week 1: [Work: ( $\left(7 \mathrm{METs} \times 3.5 \mathrm{ml} \mathrm{kg}{ }^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \times 97.7\right.$ $\mathrm{kg}) / 200)=11.97 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$; Rest: $((4.3$ METs $\times$ $\left.\left.3.5 \mathrm{ml} \mathrm{kg}{ }^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1} \times 97.7 \mathrm{~kg}\right) / 200\right)=7.35 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$; average net kcal $\cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}=((11.97 \times 15 \mathrm{~min})+(7.35 \times$ $15 \mathrm{~min})$ ) $/ 30 \mathrm{~min}=9.7]$. This represents the respective contributions of the work and rest intervals. The 2 wk block arrangement of exercise sessions provides a weekly net caloric expenditure between 869 and 1041 kcal and the opportunity to manipulate one programmatic variable at a time. As he advances through the improvement stage, adjustments are made to the intensity of the work interval, work-torest ratio, and number of repetitions. His ability to tolerate the progression must be closely monitored and his program adjusted accordingly. A reassessment of his estimated $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max is recommended after the 6th wk. For additional information on the potential improvements in aerobic capacity or cardiometabolic disease risk following high-intensity interval training interventions, refer to the work of Bacon and colleagues (2013) and Kessler, Sisson, and Short (2012), respectively.

SAMPLE CYCLING PROGRAM

## Client data

Age
Gender
Body weight
Resting heart rate
Maximal heart rate
$\stackrel{\dot{V}}{ } \mathrm{O}_{2} \max$

Graded exercise test
Initial cardiorespiratory
fitness level

27 yr
Female
70 kg (154 lb)
67 bpm
195 bpm (measured)
$26 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ (measured) 7.4 METs
Cycle ergometer Poor

Cycling Program ${ }^{\text {a }}$

| $\begin{aligned} & \frac{5}{3} \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & \hline 0 \\ & \hline \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$ |  | $\frac{\stackrel{e}{10}}{2}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \underline{E} \\ & \frac{0}{0} \\ & \frac{\mathfrak{c}}{1} \end{aligned}$ |  | Power output (W) | 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 <br> $\#$ <br> 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { E } \\ & \text { 은 } \\ & \text { N } \\ & \text { 응 } \\ & \frac{0}{0} \\ & 0 . \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| INITIAL |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 60 | 4.8 | 139 | 5 | 63 | 1.3 | 50 | 4.7 | 40 | 4 | 752 |
| 2 | 60 | 4.8 | 139 | 5 | 63 | 1.3 | 50 | 4.7 | 45 | 4 | 846 |
| 3 | 65 | 5.2 | 150 | 5-6 | 73 | 1.5 | 50 | 5.2 | 45 | 4 | 936 |
| 4 | 65 | 5.2 | 150 | 5-6 | 73 | 1.5 | 50 | 5.2 | 50 | 4 | 1040 |
| IMPROVEMENT |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5-8 | 65-70 | 5.2-5.5 | 150-155 | 5-6 | 73-80 | 1.5-1.6 | 50 | 5.2-5.5 | 50 | 4 | 1040-1103 |
| 9-12 | 65-70 | 5.2-5.5 | 150-155 | 5-6 | 73-80 | 1.5-1.6 | 50 | 5.2-5.5 | 55 | 4 | 1144-1210 |
| 13-16 | 70-75 | 5.5-5.8 | 152-162 | 6-7 | 80-86 | 1.6-1.7 | 50 | 5.5-5.9 | 55 | 4 | 1210-1298 |
| 17-20 | 75 | 5.8 | 162 | 7 | 86 | 1.7 | 50 | 5.9 | 60 | 4 | 1416 |
| 21-24 | 75 | 5.8 | 162 | 7 | 86 | 1.7 | 50 | 5.9 | 60 | 5 | 1770 |
| 25-28 | 80 | 6.1 | 168 | 8 | 93 | 1.9 | 50 | 6.2 | 60 | 5 | 1874 |
| MAINTENANCE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 24+ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cycling | 80 | 6.1 | 168 | 8 | 93 | 1.9 | 50 | 6.2 | 60 | 3 | 1116 |
| Low-impact aerobics | 65\% HRR | 5.0 | 150 | 6-7 | - | - | - | 4.9 | 60 | 1 | 294 |
| Tennis | - | 7.0 | - | 7-8 | - | - | - | 7.4 | 60 | 1 | 440 |

${ }^{a}$ Values in boldface indicate training variables that were increased during each stage of the exercise progression.

## SAMPLE JOGGING PROGRAM

| Client data |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Age | 29 yr |
| Gender | Male |
| Body weight | 70 kg (154 lb) |
| Resting heart rate | 50 bpm |
| Maximal heart rate | 191 bpm (age predicted) |
| $\dot{V O}_{2} \max$ | $45 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ (predicted) 12.9 METs |
| Graded exercise test | None |
| Initial cardiorespiratory fitness level | Excellent |


| Exercise prescription |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Mode | Jogging and running |
| Intensity | $70-85 \% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ |
|  | $32.5-38.8 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ |
|  | $9.3-11.1 \mathrm{METs}$ |
| Exercise heart rates | 149 bpm minimum |
|  | (70\% HRR) |
|  | 170 bpm maximum |
|  | (85\% HRR) |
| RPE | $6-9$ (OMNI scale) |
| Duration | $33-35 \mathrm{~min}$ |
| Frequency | $3-5$ days/wk |

Jogging Program ${ }^{\text {a }}$

| $\begin{aligned} & \frac{2}{3} \\ & \frac{1}{3} \\ & 0 \\ & \frac{0}{2} \end{aligned}$ |  | $\frac{\oplus}{\underline{m}}$ |  | $\frac{\mathrm{II}}{\frac{\mathrm{a}}{\mathrm{ar}}}$ | Pace: $\mathrm{mph}\left(\mathrm{min} \cdot \mathrm{mi}^{-1}\right)$ | $\Phi$ <br> $\mathbf{8}$ <br> E <br> 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 |  | $\begin{aligned} & \frac{\mathrm{E}}{\frac{E}{E}} \\ & \frac{0}{5} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| IMPROVEMENT |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1-4 | 70 | 9.3 | 149 | 6 | 5.4 (11:06) | 3.0 | 10.2 | 33 | 3 | 1010 |
| 5-8 | 70-80 | 9.3-10.5 | 149-163 | 6-7 | 5.4-6.2 (9:40) | 3.0-3.4 | 10.2-11.6 | 33 | 3 | 1010-1148 |
| 9-12 | 70-80 | 9.3-10.5 | 149-163 | 6-7 | 5.4-6.2 (9:40) | 3.0-3.4 | 10.2-11.6 | 33 | 4 | 1347-1531 |
| 13-16 | 80-85 | 10.5-11.1 | 163-170 | 7-9 | 6.2-6.6 (9:05) | 3.4-3.6 | 11.6-12.4 | 33 | 4 | 1531-1637 |
| 17-20 | 80-85 | 10.5-11.1 | 163-170 | 7-9 | 6.2-6.6 (9:05) | 3.4-3.8 | 11.6-12.4 | 33-35 | 5 | 1914-2170 |
| MAINTENANCE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 21+ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jogging | 85 | 11.2 | 170 | 7-9 | 6.6 (9:05) | 3.8 | 12.4 | 35 | 3 | 1302 |
| Handball | 60 | 8.0 | - | 6-7 | - | - | 9.2 | 60 | 1 | 552 |
| Basketball | 60 | 8.0 | - | 6-7 | - | - | 9.2 | 60 | 1 | 552 |

${ }^{a}$ Values in boldface indicate training variables that are increased during each stage of the exercise progression.

SAMPLE MULTIMODAL EXERCISE PROGRAM

Client data

| Age | 44 yr |
| :--- | :--- |
| Sex | Female |
| Weight | $68 \mathrm{~kg}(150 \mathrm{lb})$ |
| Resting heart rate | 70 bpm |
| Maximal heart rate | 170 bpm |
| $\dot{\text { VO }}{ }_{2} \mathrm{max}$ | $30 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ |
|  | 8.6 METs |
| Graded exercise test | Treadmill maximal GXT <br>  <br> (Bruce protocol) |
| Initial cardiorespiratory | Fair |
| fitness level |  |

## Exercise prescription

Modes and estimates Stationary cycling of gross caloric expenditure (METs) and net caloric expenditure (kcal.min $\left.{ }^{-1}\right)^{\text {a }}$

Intensity
Duration
Frequency
Weekly caloric expenditure
(100 W): 5.5 METs; 5.4 $\mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$
Step aerobics (6.8 in. step): 8.5 METs; 8.9 kcal-min ${ }^{-1}$
Rowing (100 W): 7.0 METs; $7.1 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$
Swimming (moderate effort): 7.0 METs; 7.1 kcal-min-1
Stair climbing (machine): 9.0 METs; $9.5 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$

Hiking: 6.0 METs; 5.9 kcal-min ${ }^{-1}$

Resistance training (free weights, machines): 3.0 METs; $2.4 \mathrm{kcal} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$
RPE: 5-9 (OMNI scale)
20-60 min 3-5 days/wk 500-1250 kcal $\cdot \mathrm{wk}^{-1}$

## Multimodal Exercise Program


Examples

| Week 1 | Activity | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Net kcal-min }{ }^{-1} \\ & \text { estimates } \end{aligned}$ | Time (min) | Frequency | Kcal per workout (net) | Activity type ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Monday | Stationary cycling | 5.4 | 20 | 1 | 108 | A |
| Wednesday | Step aerobics | 8.9 | 20 | 1 | 178 | C |
| Friday | Stair climbing | 9.5 | 30 | 1 | 285 | B |
|  |  | Totals*: | 70 | 3 | 571 | 3 |
|  |  | Goals: | 60 | 3 | 500 | 3 |
| Week 21 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Monday | Swimming | 7.1 | 35 | 1 | 248 | C |
| Tuesday | Rowing | 7.1 | 35 | 1 | 248 | B |
| Wednesday | Stair climbing | 9.5 | 30 | 1 | 285 | B |
| Friday | Resistance training | 2.4 | 40 | 1 | 96 | D |
| Sunday | Hiking | 5.9 | 60 | 1 | 354 | D |
|  |  | Totals*: | 200 | 5 | 1231 | 4 |
|  |  | Goals: | 150 | 5 | 1250 | 4 |

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Gross MET levels for activities from Ainsworth and colleagues (2000); net energy expenditure in kcal•min ${ }^{-1}=$ net MET level $\times 3.5 \times \mathrm{BM}(\mathrm{kg}) / 200$.
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Check all type A and B activities.
*Compare weekly totals to weekly goals.

## SAMPLE HIT PROGRAM

| Client data |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Age | 34 yr |
| Gender | Male |
| Body weight | $97.7 \mathrm{~kg}(215 \mathrm{lb})$ |
| Resting heart rate | 72 bpm |
| Maximal heart rate | 186 bpm (predicted) |
| $\dot{\mathrm{VO}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{max}$ | $39.5 \mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ <br> (predicted) 11.3 METs <br> Graded exercise test |
| Treadmill <br> Initial cardiorespiratory <br> fitness level | Fair |


| Exercise prescription |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Mode | Treadmill |
| Intensity | Work periods: $65 \%$ to |
|  | $75 \%$ MET-R |
|  | Rest periods: $35 \%$ MET-R |
|  | Work periods: $15-20$ min |
|  | Rest periods: $10-15 \mathrm{~min}$ |
| Frequency | 3 days/wk |
| Weekly caloric <br> expenditure | $869-1,041 \mathrm{kcal} / \mathrm{wk}$ |


| $\begin{aligned} & \Phi \\ & \frac{9}{3} \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | Intensity $\left(\% \dot{V}_{2} \mathrm{R}\right)$ | $\frac{\stackrel{\infty}{11}}{2}$ |  | Work duration (min) |  | о!ұед ұsed :ҮлоM |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \frac{G}{E} \\ & \frac{0}{E} \\ & \frac{0}{E} \end{aligned}$ |  | Expenditure per session (kcal) | Weekly net expenditure (kcal) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1-2 | 65 | 7.0 | 35 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1:1 | 15 | 3 | 30 | 9.7 | 289.8 | 869 |
| 3-4 | 65 | 7.0 | 35 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 1.5:1 | 12 | 3 | 30 | 10.1 | 303.7 | 911 |
| 5-6 | 70 | 7.2 | 35 | 1.0 | 1.0 | $1: 1$ | 15 | 3 | 30 | 10.1 | 302.6 | 908 |
| 7-8 | 70 | 7.2 | 35 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 1.5:1 | 12 | 3 | 30 | 10.6 | 319.0 | 957 |
| 9-10 | 75 | 7.7 | 35 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 1.5:1 | 12 | 3 | 30 | 11.1 | 334.4 | 1003 |
| 11-12 | 75 | 7.7 | 35 | 2.0 | 1.0 | 2:1 | 10 | 3 | 30 | 11.6 | 347.1 | 1041 |

## Key Points

- Always personalize cardiorespiratory exercise programs to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of each participant.
- The exercise prescription includes mode, frequency, intensity, duration, volume, and progression (FITT-VP principle) of exercise.
- Aerobic endurance activities involving large muscle groups are well suited for developing cardiorespiratory fitness. Type A and B activities such as walking, jogging, and cycling allow the individual to maintain steady-state exercise intensities and are not highly dependent on skill.

Exercise intensity can be prescribed using the $\mathrm{HR}, \mathrm{V}_{2} \mathrm{R}$, or RPE methods, or a combination of these methods.

- For the average healthy person, the cardiorespiratory exercise program should be at a moderate intensity of $40 \%$ to $<60 \% \mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{R}$, a duration of 30 to 60 min , and a frequency of 5 days/wk.
More fit individuals can exercise at a vigorous intensity of $\geq 60 \%$ to $90 \% \mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{R}, 20$ to $60 \mathrm{~min} /$ day, 3 days/wk.
- The cardiorespiratory exercise program includes three stages of progression: initial conditioning, improvement, and maintenance.
- Each exercise session includes warm-up, aerobic conditioning exercise, and cool-down.
- Continuous and discontinuous training methods are equally effective for improving cardiorespiratory fitness.
- AIT and SIT training programs may provide similar or better improvements in cardiometabolic factors in less time compared to continuous moderate-intensity programs. Additionally, they may improve adherence and increase enjoyment of exercise.
- Multimodal exercise prescriptions use a variety of type $A, B$, and $C$ aerobic activities to improve cardiorespiratory endurance.


## Key Terms

Learn the definition for each of the following key terms. Definitions of key terms can be found in the glossary.

| aerobic interval training (AIT) | MET•min |
| :--- | :--- |
| caloric threshold | multimodal exercise program |
| continuous training | percent heart rate maximum (\%HRmax) |
| counting talk test (CTT) | percent heart rate reserve $(\% \mathrm{HRR})$ method |
| cross-training | percent $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max reserve $\left(\% \mathrm{VV}_{2} \mathrm{R}\right)$ |
| discontinuous training | pulmonary ventilation |
| FITT-VP principle | spinning |
| heart rate reserve (HRR) | sprint interval training (SIT) |
| high-intensity interval training | super circuit resistance training |
| improvement stage | talk test |
| initial conditioning stage | treading |
| interval training | type $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}$, and D aerobic activities |
| Karvonen method | ventilatory threshold |
| lactate threshold | $\dot{\mathrm{V}}$ |
| maintenance stage | volume of exercise |

## Review Questions

In addition to being able to define each of the key terms, test your knowledge and understanding of the material by answering the following review questions.

1. Name the four components of any aerobic exercise prescription.
2. What are the guidelines for an exercise prescription for improved health?
3. What are the guidelines for an exercise prescription for cardiorespiratory fitness?
4. Identify the three parts of an aerobic exercise workout and state the purpose of each part.
5. To classify an aerobic exercise mode as either a type A, B, C, or D activity, what criteria are used?
6. Give three examples each for type A, B, C, and D aerobic activities.
7. Describe three methods used to prescribe intensity for an aerobic exercise prescription.
8. Using the $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ reserve method, calculate the target $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}$ for a client whose $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max is 12 METs and relative exercise intensity is $70 \%$ $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$.
9. Which method of prescribing intensity (\%HRR or \%HRmax) corresponds $1: 1$ with the $\% \dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ method?
10. What are the limitations of using HR methods to monitor intensity of aerobic exercise?
11. Describe how RPEs can be used to prescribe and monitor the intensity of aerobic exercise.
12. Describe how your clients can use the talk test to monitor exercise intensity during their aerobic exercise workouts.
13. How does the talk test differ from the counting talk test?
14. What target caloric thresholds are recommended by ACSM for aerobic exercise workouts and weekly caloric expenditure from physical activity and exercise?
15. What is the recommended frequency of activity and exercise for improved health benefits? For improved cardiorespiratory fitness?
16. Name the three stages of a cardiorespiratory exercise program. For the average individual, what is the typical length (in weeks) of each stage?
17. What is the difference between continuous and discontinuous aerobic exercise training? Give examples of continuous and discontinuous training methods.
18. Compare the health benefits of aerobic interval training, sprint interval training, and continuous moderate-intensity exercise training programs?
19. What are the essential elements of a client case study?

# Health and Fitness Appraisal 

This appendix includes questionnaires and forms that you can duplicate and use for the pretest health screening of your clients. The PAR-Q (appendix A.1) is used to identify individuals who need medical clearance from their physicians before taking any physical fitness tests or starting an exercise program. The Medical History Questionnaire (appendix A.2) is used to obtain a personal and family health history for your client. As part of the pretest health screening, ask your clients if they have any of the conditions or symptoms listed in the Checklist for Signs and Symptoms of Disease (appendix A.3). The PARmed-X (appendix A.4) may be used by physicians to assess and convey medical clearance for physical activity participation of your clients. You can estimate your client's $10-\mathrm{yr}$ risk of a first fatal
cardiovascular event due to atherosclerosis with the SCORE system (Appendix A.5). Likewise, the Relative Risk Chart Appendix A.6) may be used to educate younger people how, relative to their age group peers, their risk for an atherosclerotic event is affected by lifestyle choices (smoking) and modifiable risk factors.

You can obtain a lifestyle profile for your clients by using either the Lifestyle Evaluation form or the Fantastic Lifestyle Checklist provided in appendix A.7. Be sure that each participant signs the Informed Consent (appendix A.8) before conducting any physical fitness tests or allowing your client to engage in an exercise program. Appendix A. 9 includes Web sites for selected professional organizations and institutes.

# Appendix A.1: Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire 

Physical Activity Readiness
Questionnaire-PAR-Q
(revised 2002)

## PAR-Q \& YOU

(A Questionnaire for People Aged 15 to 69)
Regular physical activity is fun and healthy, and increasingly more people are starting to become more active every day. Being more active is very safe for most people. However, some people should check with their doctor before they start becoming much more physically active.
If you are planning to become much more physically active than you are now, start by answering the seven questions in the box below. If you are between the ages of 15 and 69, the PAR-Q will tell you if you should check with your doctor before you start. If you are over 69 years of age, and you are not used to being very active, check with your doctor.
Common sense is your best guide when you answer these questions. Please read the questions carefully and answer each one honestly: check YES or NO.
\(\left.\begin{array}{lll}YES \& NO \& 1. Has your doctor ever said that you have a heart condition and that you should only do physical activity <br>

recommended by a doctor?\end{array}\right]\)| $\square$ |
| :--- |
| $\square$ |$\quad$ 2. Do you feel pain in your chest when you do physical activity?

## DELAY BECOMING MUCH MORE ACTIVE:

- if you are not feeling well because of a temporary illness such as a cold or a fever - wait until you feel better; or
- if you are or may be pregnant - talk to your doctor before you start becoming more active.

PLEASE NOTE: If your health changes so that you then answer YES to any of the above questions, tell your fitness or health professional. Ask whether you should change your physical activity plan.

Informed Use of the PAR-Q: The Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology, Health Canada, and their agents assume no liability for persons who undertake physical activity, and if in doubt after completing this questionnaire, consult your doctor prior to physical activity.

No changes permitted. You are encouraged to photocopy the PAR-Q but only if you use the entire form.
NOTE: If the PAR-Q is being given to a person before he or she participates in a physical activity program or a fitness appraisal, this section may be used for legal or administrative purposes.
"I have read, understood and completed this questionnaire. Any questions I had were answered to my full satisfaction."
NQME
$\qquad$ DATE $\qquad$
SIGNATURE OF PARENT $\qquad$ WINESS $\qquad$
or GUARDIAN (for participants under the age of majority)

> Note: This physical activity clearance is valid for a maximum of 12 months from the date it is completed and becomes invalid if your condition changes so that you would answer YES to any of the seven questions.

## PAR-Q \& YOU


cuydian cmans sotest tor

| Choose a variety of activities from these three groups: |
| :---: |
| Endurance |
| 4 -7 days a weck Continuous activities for your heart, lungs and clrculatory system. |
| Flexibility |
| 4-7 days a work Gentie reaching, bending and stretching activities to keep your muscles relaxed and joints mobile. |
| Strength |
| 2-4 days a wak Actlvittes against resistance to strengthen museles and bones and improve posture. |
| Starting slowly is very safe for most people. Not sure? Consult your heatth professional. |
| For a copy of the Guide Handbook and more information: 1-888-334-9769, or www.paguide.com |
| Eating well is also important. Follow Conoda's Food Guide to Heolthy Eating to make wise food choices. |


| Get Active Your Way, Every Day-For Life! <br> Scientists say accumulate 60 minutes of physical activity every day to stay healthy or improve your health. As you progress to moderate activities you can cut down to 30 minutes, 4 days a week. Add-up your activities in periods of at least 10 minutes each. Start slowly... and build up. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Very Light Effort <br> - Strolling <br> Oustion | Time nee <br> Light Effort <br> 60 minates <br> - Light malking <br> - Volleybal <br> - Eany gardening <br> - Stretching <br> Range | ded dep <br> Moderate <br> 30.60 mi <br> - Brisk wall <br> - Biliky <br> - Sutinition <br> - Dascing <br> - Water aer <br> needed to | ends on effort <br> Effort Vigorous Effort 20.30 minturfel <br> ing Aerobics <br> - Jogging <br> - Baskethati <br> - Fast swimming <br> - Fast dancing <br> stay healthy | fort <br> Sprinting <br> Racing |
| You Can Do It - Getting started is easier than you think |  |  |  |  |
| Physical activity doesn't have to be very hard. Build physical activities into your daily routine. |  |  |  |  |
| - Walk whenever you can-get off the bus early, use the stairs instead of the elevator. <br> - Reduce inactivity for long periods, like watching TV. <br> - Get up from the couch and stretch and bend for a few minutes every hour. <br> - Play actively with your kids. <br> - Choose to walk, wheel or cycle for short trips. <br> - Start with a 10 minute walkgradually increase the time. <br> - Find out about walking and cycling paths nearby and use them. <br> - Observe a physical activity class to see if you want to try it <br> -Try one class to start - you don' have to make a long-term commitment. <br> - Do the activities you are doing now, more often. now, more often. |  |  |  |  |
| Benefits of regular activity: |  |  |  |  |
| - better health <br> - impeoved fitness <br> - better posture and talance <br> - better self-esteem <br> - weight control <br> - stronger muscles and bones <br> - feeling moee energctic <br> * relexation and reduced stress <br> - continued independent living in <br> later life |  |  | - premature death <br> - heart disease <br> - obesity <br> - high blood peessure <br> - adult-onset diabetes <br> - osteoporosis <br> - strolke <br> - deprestion <br> - colon cancer |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |

Source: Canada's Physical Activity Guide to Healthy Active Living, Health Canada, 1998 http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/paguide/pdf/guideEng.pdf © Reproduced with permission from the Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada, 2002.

## FITNESS AND HEALTH PROFESSIONALS MAY BE INTERESTED IN THE INFORMATION BELOW:

The following companion forms are available for doctors' use by contacting the Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology (address below):
The Physical Activity Readiness Medical Examination (PARmed-X) - to be used by doctors with people who answer YES to one or more questions on the PAR-Q.

The Physical Activity Readiness Medical Examination for Pregnancy (PARmed-X for Pregnancy) - to be used by doctors with pregnant patients who wish to become more active.

## References:

Arraix, G.A., Wigle, D.T., Mao, Y. (1992). Risk Assessment of Physical Activity and Physical Fitness in the Canada Health Survey Follow-Up Study. J. Clin. Epidemiol. 45:4 419-428.
Mottola, M., Wolfe, L.A. (1994). Active Living and Pregnancy, In: A. Quinney, L. Gauvin, T. Wall (eds.), Toward Active Living: Proceedings of the International Conference on Physical Activity, Fitness and Health. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
PAR-Q Validation Report, British Columbia Ministry of Health, 1978.
Thomas, S., Reading, J., Shephard, R.J. (1992). Revision of the Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire (PAR-Q). Can. J. Spt. Sci. 17:4 338-345.


## Appendix A.2: Medical History Questionnaire

## Demographic Information

| Last name | First name | Middle initial |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Date of birth | Sex | Home phone |
| Address | City, State | Zip code |
| Work phone | Family physician |  |
| Section A |  |  |

1. When was the last time you had a physical examination?
2. If you are allergic to any medications, foods, or other substances, please name them.
3. If you have been told that you have any chronic or serious illnesses, please list them.
4. Give the following information pertaining to the last 3 times you have been hospitalized. Note: Women, do not list normal pregnancies.

Hospitalization
1
Reason for hospitalization

Month and year of hospitalization
Hospital
City and state

## Section B

During the past 12 months

1. Has a physician prescribed any form of medication for you? $\square$ Yes No
2. Has your weight fluctuated more than a few pounds?
3. Did you attempt to bring about this weight change through diet or exercise?
4. Have you experienced any faintness, light-headedness, or blackouts?
5. Have you occasionally had trouble sleeping?
6. Have you experienced any blurred vision?
7. Have you had any severe headaches?
8. Have you experienced chronic morning cough?
$\square$ Yes $\square$ No
$\square$ Yes No
9. Have you experienced any temporary change in your speech pattern, such as slurring or loss of speech?
10. Have you felt unusually nervous or anxious for no apparent reason?
11. Have you experienced unusual heartbeats such as skipped beats or palpitations?
12. Have you experienced periods in which your heart felt as though it were racing for no apparent reason?

Hospitalization
2

Hospitalization
3

## At present

1. Do you experience shortness or loss of breath while walking with others your own age?
$\square$ Yes $\quad \square$ o
2. Do you experience sudden tingling, numbness, or loss of feeling in your arms, hands, legs, feet, or face?
$\square$ Yes $\square$ No
3. Have you ever noticed that your hands or feet sometimes feel cooler than other parts of your body?
$\square$ Yes $\square$
4. Do you experience swelling of your feet and ankles? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No
5. Do you get pains or cramps in your legs? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No
6. Do you experience any pain or discomfort in your chest? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No
7. Do you experience any pressure or heaviness in your chest? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No
8. Have you ever been told that your blood pressure was abnormal? $\square$ Yes No
9. Have you ever been told that your serum cholesterol or triglyceride level was high?
$\square$ Yes $\square{ }^{\square}$ No
10. Do you have diabetes?
$\square$ Yes $\square$ No
If yes, how is it controlled?
$\square$ Dietary means Insulin injection
ㄱ Oral medication $\square$ Uncontrolled
11. How often would you characterize your stress level as being high?
$\square$ Occasionally $\square$ Frequently $\square$ Constantly
12. Have you ever been told that you have any of the following illnesses? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No

$\square$ Coronary thrombosis $\square$ Rheumatic heart $\square$ Heart attack $\square$ Heart valve disease
$\square$ Coronary occlusion $\square$ Heart failure $\square$ Heart murmer
$\square$ Heart block $\square$ Aneurysm Angina
13. Have you ever had any of the following medical procedures? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No
$\square \square$ Heart surgery $\square$
ㄱ Cardiac catheterization $\square$ Defibrillator
$\square \square$ Coronary angioplasty $\square \square$ Heart transplantation

## Section C

Has any member of your immediate family been treated for or suspected to have had any of these conditions? Please identify their relationship to you (father, mother, sister, brother, etc.).
A. Diabetes
B. Heart disease
C. Stroke
D. High blood pressure

## Appendix A.3: Checklist for Signs and Symptoms of Disease

Instructions: Ask your clients if they have any of the following conditions and risk factors. If so, refer them to their physicians to obtain a signed medical clearance prior to any exercise testing or participation. See the glossary on p. 411 for definitions of terms.

Client's name $\qquad$ Date $\qquad$

| Condition | Yes | No | Comments |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cardiovascular |  |  |  |
| Hypertension |  |  |  |
| Hypercholesterolemia |  |  |  |
| Heart murmurs |  |  |  |
| Myocardial infarction (heart attack) |  |  |  |
| Fainting/dizziness |  |  |  |
| Claudication |  |  |  |
| Chest pain |  |  |  |
| Palpitations |  |  |  |
| Ischemia |  |  |  |
| Tachycardia (rhythm disturbances) |  |  |  |
| Ankle edema |  |  |  |
| Stroke |  |  |  |
| Pulmonary |  |  |  |
| Asthma |  |  |  |
| Bronchitis |  |  |  |
| Emphysema |  |  |  |
| Nocturnal dyspnea |  |  |  |
| Coughing up blood |  |  |  |
| Exercise-induced asthma |  |  |  |
| Breathlessness during or after mild exertion |  |  |  |
| Metabolic |  |  |  |
| Diabetes |  |  |  |
| Obesity |  |  |  |

[^2]| Condition | Yes | No | Comments |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Metabolic (continued) |  |  |  |
| Glucose intolerance |  |  |  |
| McArdle's syndrome |  |  |  |
| Hypoglycemia |  |  |  |
| Thyroid disease |  |  |  |
| Cirrhosis |  |  |  |
| Musculoskeletal |  |  |  |
| Osteoporosis |  |  |  |
| Osteoarthritis |  |  |  |
| Low back pain |  |  |  |
| Prosthesis |  |  |  |
| Muscular atrophy |  |  |  |
| Swollen joints |  |  |  |
| Orthopedic pain |  |  |  |
| Artificial joints |  |  |  |
| Risk factors* |  |  |  |
| Male older than 45 yr |  |  |  |
| Female older than 55 yr, or had hysterectomy, or are postmenopausal |  |  |  |
| Smoking or quit smoking within previous 6 mo |  |  |  |
| Blood pressure > $140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ |  |  |  |
| Don't know blood pressure |  |  |  |
| Taking blood pressure medication |  |  |  |
| Blood cholesterol > $200 \mathrm{mg} \cdot \mathrm{dl}^{-1}$ |  |  |  |
| Do not know cholesterol level |  |  |  |
| Have close relative who had heart attack or heart surgery before age 55 (father or brother) or age 65 (mother or sister) |  |  |  |
| Physically inactive ( $<30 \mathrm{~min}$ of physical activity more than 4 days/wk) |  |  |  |
| Overweight by more than $20 \mathrm{lb}(9 \mathrm{~kg}$ ) |  |  |  |

[^3][^4]
## Appendix A.4: Physical Activity Readiness Medical Examination

Physical Activity Readiness
Medical Examination
(revised 2002)

## D A P PHYSICAL ACTIVITY READINESS MEDICAL EXAMINATION

The PARmed-X is a physical activity-specific checklist to be used by a physician with patients who have had positive responses to the Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire (PAR-Q). In addition, the Conveyance/Referral Form in the PARmed-X can be used to convey clearance for physical activity participation, or to make a referral to a medically-supervised exercise program.
Regular physical activity is fun and healthy, and increasingly more people are starting to become more active every day. Being more active is very safe for most people. The PAR-Q by itself provides adequate screening for the majority of people. However, some individuals may require a medical evaluation and specific advice (exercise prescription) due to one or more positive responses to the PAR-Q.
Following the participant's evaluation by a physician, a physical activity plan should be devised in consultation with a physical activity professional (CSEP-Professional Fitness \& Lifestyle Consultant or CSEP-Exercise Therapist ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ ). To assist in this, the following instructions are provided:
PAGE 1: - Sections A, B, C, and D should be completed by the participant BEFORE the examination by the physician. The bottom section is to be completed by the examining physician.
PAGES 2 \& 3: - A checklist of medical conditions requiring special consideration and management.
PAGE 4: - Physical Activity \& Lifestyle Advice for people who do not require specific instructions or prescribed exercise.

- Physical Activity Readiness Conveyance/Referral Form - an optional tear-off tab for the physician to convey clearance for physical activity participation, or to make a referral to a medically-supervised exercise program.


## This section to be completed by the participant

## PERSONAL INFORMATION:

NAME
ADDRESS $\qquad$
$\longrightarrow$

TELEPHONE $\qquad$
BIRTHDATE $\qquad$ GENDER $\qquad$ PAR-Q: Please indicate the PAR-Q questions to which you answered YES
$\square$ Q 1 Heart condition

- Q2 Chest pain during activity
- Q 3 Chest pain at rest
$\square$ Q4 Loss of balance, dizziness
- Q5 Bone or joint problem

Q Q6 Blood pressure or heart drugs
$\square$ Q 7 Other reason:

MEDICAL No.


RISK FACTORS FOR CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE: Check all that apply

- Less than 30 minutes of moderate physical activity most days of the week.
- Currently smoker (tobacco smoking 1 or more times per week).
- High blood pressure reported
by physician after repeated measurements.
- High cholesterol level reported by physician.
- Excessive accumulation of fat around waist.
- Family history of heart disease.

Please note: Many of these risk factors are modifiable. Please refer to page 4 and discuss with your physician.

PHYSICAL ACTIVITY INTENTIONS:
What physical activity do you intend to do?
$\xrightarrow{\square}$

## This section to be completed by the examining physician

Physical Exam:

| Ht | Wt | $B P$ | i) | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | $B P$ | ii) | 1 |

Conditions limiting physical activity:

| - Cardiovascular | - Respiratory | - Other |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - Musculoskeletal | - Abdominal |  |
| Tests required: |  |  |
| - ECG | - Exercise Test | - X-Ray |
| - Blood | - Urinalysis | - Other |

Physical Activity Readiness Conveyance/Referral: Based upon a current review of health status, I recommend:

- No physical activity

Further Information
Attached
To be forwarded

- Only a medically-supervised exercise program until further medical clearance
- Progressive physical activity:
with avoidance of:
- with inclusion of:
- under the supervision of a CSEP-Professional Fitness \& Lifestyle Consultant or CSEP-Exercise Therapist ${ }^{T M}$
- Unrestricted physical activity-start slowly and build up gradually
© Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology

Health Canada Canté

Following is a checklist of medical conditions for which a degree of precaution and/or special advice should be considered for those who answered "YES" to one or more questions on the PAR-Q, and people over the age of 69 . Conditions are grouped by system. Three categories of precautions are provided. Comments under Advice are general, since details and alternatives require clinical judgement in each individual instance.

|  | Absolute Contraindications | Relative Contraindications | Special Prescriptive Conditions |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Permanent restriction or temporary restriction until condition is treated, stable, and/or past acute phase. | Highly variable. Value of exercise testing and/or program may exceed risk. Activity may be restricted. <br> Desirable to maximize control of condition. <br> Direct or indirect medical supervision of exercise program may be desirable. | Individualized prescriptive advice generally appropriate: <br> - limitations imposed; and/or <br> - special exercises prescribed. <br> May require medical monitoring and/or initial supervision in exercise program. | ADVICE |
| Cardiovascular | aortic aneurysm (dissecting) aortic stenosis (severe) congestive heart failure crescendo angina myocardial infarction (acute) <br> a myocarditis (active or recent) <br> - pulmonary or systemic embolism-acute <br> - thrombophlebitis <br> ventricular tachycardia and other dangerous dysrhythmias (e.g., multi-local ventricular activity) | aortic stenosis (moderate) subaortic stenosis (severe) marked cardiac enlargement supraventricular dysrhythmias (uncontrolled or high rate), ventricular ectopic activity (repetitive or frequent) ventricular aneurysm hypertension-untreated or uncontrolled severe (systemic or pulmonary) <br> - hypertrophic cardiomyopathy <br> - compensated congestive heart fallure | aortic (or pulmonary) stenosis-mild angina pectoris and other manilestations of coronary insufficiency (e.g., post-acute infarct) cyanotic heart disease shunts (intermittent or fixed) conduction disturbances <br> - complete AV block <br> - left BBB <br> - Woltt-Parkinson-White syndrome dysthythmias-controlled fixed rate pacemakers | - clinical exercise test may be warranted in selected cases, for specific determination of functional capacity and limitations and precautions (il any). <br> - slow progression of exercise to levels based on test performance and individual tolerance. <br> - consider individual need for initial conditioning program under medical supervision (indirect or direct). |
|  |  |  | - intermittent claudication | progressive exercise to tolerance |
|  |  |  | - hypertension: systolic 160-180; diastolic 105+ | progressive exercise; care with medications (serum electrolytes; post-exercise syncope; etc.) |
| Infections | acute infectious disease (regardless of etiology) | - subacute/chronic/recurrent infectious diseases (e.g., malaria, others) | - chronic infections - HIV | variable as to condition |
| Metabolic |  | - uncontrolled metabolic disorders (diabetes mellitus, thyrotoxicosis, myxedema) | - renal, hepatic \& other metabolic insulficiency | variable as to status |
|  |  |  | - obesity <br> - single kidney | dietary moderation, and initial light exercises with slow progression (walking, swimming, cycling) |
| Pregnancy |  | - complicated pregnancy (e.g., toxemia, hemorrhage, incompetent cervix, etc.) | - advanced pregnancy (late 3rd trimester) | reler to the "PARmed-X for PREGNANCY" |

## References:

Arraix, G.A., Wigle, D.T., Mao, Y. (1992). Risk Assessment of Physical Activity and Physical Fitness in the Canada Health Survey FollowUp Study. J. Clin. Epidemiol. 45:4 419-428.

Mottola, M., Wolfe, L.A. (1994). Active Living and Pregnancy, In A. Quinney, L Gauvin, T. Wall (eds.), Toward Active Living: Proceedings of the International Conference on Physical Activity, Fitness and Health. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
PAR-Q Validation Report, British Columbia Ministry of Health, 1978.
Thomas, S., Reading, J., Shephard, R.J. (1992). Revision of the Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire (PAR-Q). Can. J. Spt. Sci. 17: 4 338-345.

The PAR-Q and PARmed-X were developed by the British Columbia Ministry of Health. They have been revised by an Expert Advisory Committee of the Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology chaired by Dr. N. Gledhill (2002).

## No changes permitted. You are encouraged to photocopy the PARmed-X, but only if you use the entire form.

Disponible en français sous le titre
«Évaluation médicale de l'aptitude à l'activité physique (X-AAP)"

## Appendix A. 4 (continued)

Physical Activity Readiness
Medical Examination
(revised 2002)

|  | Special Prescriptive Conditions | ADVICE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lung | - chronic pulmonary disorders | special relaxation and breathing exercises |
|  | - obstructive lung disease <br> - asthma | breath control during endurance exercises to tolerance; avoid polluted air |
|  | - exercise-induced bronchospasm | avold hyperventilation during exercise; avoid extremely cold conditions; warm up adequately; utilize appropriate medication. |
| Musculoskeletal | - low back conditions (pathological, functional) | avoid or minimize exercise that precipitates or exasperates e.g., forced extreme flexion, extension, and violent twisting; correct posture, proper back exercises |
|  | - arthritis-acute (infective, rheumatoid; gout) | treatment, plus judicious blend of rest, splinting and gentle movement |
|  | - arthritis-subacute | progressive increase of active exercise therapy |
|  | - arthritis-chronic (osteoarthritis and above conditions) | maintenance of mobility and strength; non-weightbearing exercises to minimize joint trauma (e.g., cycling, aquatic activity, etc.) |
|  | - orthopaedic | highly variable and individualized |
|  | - hernia | minimize straining and isometrics; stregthen abdominal muscles |
|  | - osteoporosis or low bone density | avoid exercise with high risk for fracture such as push-ups, curl-ups, vertical jump and trunk forward flexion; engage in low-impact weight-bearing activities and resistance training |
| CNS | convulsive disorder not completely controlled by medication | minimize or avoid exercise in hazardous environments and/or exercising alone (e.g., swimming, mountainclimbing, etc.) |
|  | - recent concussion | thorough examination if history of two concussions; review for discontinuation of contact sport if three concussions, depending on duration of unconsciousness, retrograde amnesia, persistent headaches, and other objective evidence of cerebral damage |
| Blood | ```[ anemia-severe (< 10 Gm/dl) - electrolyte disturbances``` | control preferred; exercise as tolerated |
| Medications | antianginal antiarrhythmic <br> antihypertensive anticonvulsant <br> beta-blockers digitalis preparations <br> diuretics ganglionic blockers <br> others  | NOTE: consider underlying condition. Potential for: exertional syncope, electrolyte imbalance, bradycardia, dysrhythmias, impaired coordination and reaction time, heat intolerance. May alter resting and exercise ECG's and exercise test performance. |
| Other | - post-exercise syncope | moderate program |
|  | - heat intolerance | prolong cool-down with light activities; avoid exercise in extreme heat |
|  | - temporary minor illness | postpone until recovered |
|  | - cancer | if potential metastases, test by cycle ergometry, consider non-weight bearing exercises; exercise at lower end of prescriptive range ( $40-65 \%$ of heart rate reserve), depending on condition and recent treatment (radiation, chemotherapy); monitor hemoglobin and lymphocyle counts; add dynamic lifting exercise to strengthen muscles, using machines rather than weights. |

*Refer to special publications for elaboration as required

The following companion forms are available online: http://www.csep.ca/forms.asp
The Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire (PAR-Q) - a questionnaire for people aged 15-69 to complete before becoming much more physically active.

The Physical Activity Readiness Medical Examination for Pregnancy (PARmed-X for PREGNANCY) - to be used by physicians with pregnant patients who wish to become more physically active.

For more information, please contact the
Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology
202-185 Somerset St. West
Ottawa, ON K2P 0J2
Tel. 1-877-651-3755 • FAX (613) 234-3565 • Online: www.csep.ca

## Note to physical activity professionals...

It is a prudent practice to retain the completed Physical Activity Readiness Conveyance/Referral Form in the participant's file.

CSEP
SEPE Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology


Source: Canada's Physical Activity Guide to Healthy Active Living, Health Canada, $1998 \mathrm{http}: / / w w w . h c-s c . g c, \mathrm{ca} / \mathrm{hppb} / \mathrm{paguide} / \mathrm{pdf} / g u i d e$ Eng.pdf ©(4) Reproduced with permission from the Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada, 2002. O-

PARmed-X Physical Activity Readiness Conveyance/Referral Form

Based upon a current review of the health status of $\qquad$ I recommend

- No physical activity
- Only a medically-supervised exercise program until further medical slearance

Further Information

- Progressive physical activity
- with avoidance of: $\qquad$
- with inclusion of:
- under the supervision of a CSEP-Professional Fitness \&

Lifestyle Consultant or CSEP-Exercise Therapist ${ }^{\text {TM }}$

- Unrestricted physical activity - start slowly and build up gradually

NOTE: This physical activity clearance is valid for a maximum of six months from the date it is completed and becomes invalid if your medical condition becomes worse.

## Appendix A.5: SCORE High and Low CVD Risk Charts


${ }^{\text {a }}$ To compute the 10-yr risk, multiply the value within the box by 3 for men and 4 for women This chart should not be used for adults with CVD, chronic kidney disease, diabetes, or very high individual risk factors.

Reprinted, by permission, from J. Perk, 2012, "European Guidelines on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice (version 2012): The Fifth Joint Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and other societies on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice (constituted by representatives of nine societies and by invited experts). Developed with the special contribution of the European Association for Cardiovascular Prevention \& Rehabilitation (EACPR)," European Heart Journal 33(13): 1635 1701. www.escardio.org/guidelines.

${ }^{\text {a }}$ To compute the $10-\mathrm{yr}$ risk, multiply the value within the box by 3 for men and 4 for women
This chart should not be used for adults with CVD, chronic kidney disease, diabetes, or very high individual risk factors.
Reprinted, by permission, from J. Perk, 2012, "European Guidelines on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice (version 2012): The Fifth Joint Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and other societies on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice (constituted by representatives of nine societies and by invited experts). Developed with the special contribution of the European Association for Cardiovascular Prevention \& Rehabilitation (EACPR)," European Heart Journal 33(13): 16351701. www.escardio.org/guidelines.

## Appendix A.6: Relative Risk Chart

## Relative Risk Chart

This chart may be used to show younger people at low absolute risk that, relative to others in their age group, their risk may be many times higher than necessary. This may help to motivate decisions about avoidance of smoking, healthy nutrition, and exercise, as well as flagging those who may become candidates for medication.


Please note that this chart shows RELATIVE not absolute risk. The risks are RELATIVE to 1 in the bottom left. Thus a person in the top right-hand box has a risk that is 12 times higher than a person in the bottom left.

Reprinted, by permission, from J. Perk, 2012, "European Guidelines on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice (version 2012): The Fifth Joint Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and other societies on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice (constituted by representatives of nine societies and by invited experts). Developed with the special contribution of the European Association for Cardiovascular Prevention \& Rehabilitation (EACPR)," European Heart Journal 33(13): $1635-1701$.

## Appendix A.7: Lifestyle Evaluation

## Smoking habits

1. Have you ever smoked cigarettes, cigars, or a pipe? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No
2. Do you smoke presently? $\square$ Yes No

Cigarettes _ a day
Cigars $\qquad$ a day
Pipefuls $\qquad$ a day
3. At what age did you start smoking? $\qquad$ years
4. If you have quit smoking, when did you quit? $\qquad$

## Drinking habits

1. During the past month, how many days did you drink alcoholic beverages? $\qquad$
2. During the past month, how many times did you have 5 or more drinks per occasion?
3. On average, how many glasses of beer, wine, or highballs do you consume a week?

Beer $\qquad$ glasses or cans
Wine $\qquad$ glasses
Highballs $\qquad$ glasses

Other $\qquad$ glasses

## Exercise habits

1. Do you exercise vigorously on a regular basis? $\square$ Yes No
2. What activities do you engage in on a regular basis?
3. If you walk, run, or jog, what is the average number of miles you cover each workout?
$\qquad$ miles
4. How many minutes on the average is each of your exercise workouts? $\qquad$ minutes
5. How many workouts a week do you participate in on average? $\qquad$ workouts
6. Is your occupation?
$\ldots$ Inactive (e.g., desk job)
$\ldots$ Light work (e.g., housework, light carpentry)
Heavy work (e.g., heavy carpentry, lifting)

## Appendix A. 7 (continued)

7. Check those activities that you would prefer in a regular exercise program for yourself:

| Walking, running, or jogging | Handball, racquetball, or squash |
| :--- | :--- |
| Stationary running | Basketball |
| Jumping rope | Swimming |
| Bicycling | Tennis |
| Stationary cycling | Aerobic dance |
| Step aerobics | Stair-climbing |
|  | $=$ Other (specify) |

## Dietary habits

1. What is your current weight? $\qquad$ lb $\qquad$ kg height? $\qquad$ in. $\qquad$ cm
2. What would you like to weigh? $\qquad$ lb $\qquad$ kg
3. What is the most you ever weighed as an adult? $\qquad$ lb $\qquad$ kg
4. What is the least you ever weighed as an adult? $\qquad$ $\mathrm{lb} \quad$ kg
5. What weight-loss methods have you tried?
6. Which do you eat regularly?

| $\square$ Breakfast | $\square$ Midafternoon snack |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\square$ Midmorning snack | $\square$ Dinner |
| $\square$ Lunch | $\square$ After-dinner snack |

7. How often do you eat out each week? $\qquad$ times
8. What size portions do you normally have?
$\square$ Small $\square$ Moderate $\square$ Large $\square$ Extra large $\square$ Uncertain
9. How often do you eat more than one serving?
$\square$ Always $\square$ Usually $\square$ Sometimes $\square \boldsymbol{\square}$ Never
10. How long does it usually take you to eat a meal? $\qquad$ minutes
11. Do you eat while doing other activities (e.g., watching TV, reading, working)? $\qquad$
12. When you snack, how many times a week do you eat the following?

Cookies, cake, pie $\qquad$
Candy $\qquad$
Diet soda $\qquad$

Soft drinks ___ Doughnuts $\qquad$ Fruit
Milk or milk beverage $\qquad$ Potato chips, pretzels, etc. $\qquad$
Peanuts or other nuts $\qquad$ Ice cream $\qquad$
Cheese and crackers $\qquad$ Other $\qquad$
13. How often do you eat dessert? $\qquad$ times a day $\qquad$ times a week
14. What dessert do you eat most often? $\qquad$
15. How often do you eat fried foods? $\qquad$ times a week
16. Do you salt your food at the table? $\square$ Yes $\square$ No
$\square$ Before tasting it $\square$ After tasting it

## Appendix A.8: Fantastic Lifestyle Checklist

INSTRUCTIONS: Unless otherwise specified, place an ' $X$ ' beside the box which best describes your behaviour or situation in the past month. Explanations of questions and scoring are provided on the next page.

| FAMILY <br> FRIENDS | I have someone to talk to about things that are important to me | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | I give and receive affection | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |
| ACTIVITY | I am vigorously active for at least 30 minutes per day e.g., running, cycling, etc. | less than once/week | $\begin{gathered} 1-2 \\ \text { times/week } \end{gathered}$ | $\stackrel{3}{\text { times/week }}$ | $\stackrel{4}{\text { times/week }}$ | 5 or more times/week |  |
|  | I am moderately active (gardening, climbing stairs, walking, housework) | less than once/week | $\begin{gathered} 1-2 \\ \text { times/week } \end{gathered}$ | $\stackrel{3}{\text { times/week }}$ | $\stackrel{4}{\text { times/week }}$ | 5 or more times/week |  |
| NUTRITION | I eat a balanced diet (see explanation) | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |
|  | I often eat excess 1) sugar, or 2) salt, or 3) animal fats, or 4) junk foods. | four of these | three of these | two of these | one of these | none of these |  |
|  | I am within $\qquad$ kg of my healthy weight | $\underset{(20 \mathrm{lbs})}{\text { not within } 8 \mathrm{~kg}}$ | 8 kg (20 lbs) | 6 kg (15 lbs) | $4 \underset{\mathrm{lbs})}{4 \mathrm{~kg}(10}$ | 2 kg ( 5 lbs ) |  |
| TOBACCO TOXICS | I smoke tobacco | more than 10 times/week | $\begin{gathered} 1-10 \\ \text { times/week } \end{gathered}$ | none in the past 6 months | none in the past year | none in the past 5 years |  |
|  | I use drugs such as marijuana, cocaine | sometimes |  |  |  | never |  |
|  | I overuse prescribed or 'over the counter' drugs | almost daily | fairly often | only occasionally | almost never | never |  |
|  | I drink caffeine-containing coffee, tea, or cola | more than 10/day | 7-10/day | 3-6/day | 1-2/day | never |  |
| ALCOHOL | My average alcohol intake per week is $\qquad$ (see explanation) | more than 20 drinks | 13-20 drinks | 11-12 drinks | 8-10 drinks | 0-7 drinks |  |
|  | I drink more than four drinks on an occasion | almost daily | fairly often | only occasionally | almost never | never |  |
|  | I drive after drinking | sometimes |  |  |  | never |  |
| SLEEP <br> SEATBELTS <br> STRESS <br> SAFE SEX | I sleep well and feel rested | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |
|  | I use seatbelts | never | seldom | some of the time | most of the time | always |  |
|  | I am able to cope with the stresses in my life | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |
|  | I relax and enjoy leisure time | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |
|  | I practice safe sex (see explanation) | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | always |  |
| TYPE of behaviour | I seem to be in a hurry | almost always | fairly often | some of the time | seldom | almost never |  |
|  | I feel angry or hostile | almost always | fairly often | some of the time | seldom | almost never |  |
| INSIGHT | I am a postive or optimistic thinker | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |
|  | I feel tense or uptight | almost always | fairly often | some of the time | seldom | almost never |  |
|  | I feel sad or depressed | almost always | fairly often | some of the time | seldom | almost never |  |
| CAREER | I am satisfied with my job or role | almost never | seldom | some of the time | fairly often | almost always |  |


| STEP 1 Total the X 's in each column |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Multiply the totals by <br> the numbers indicated <br> (write your answer <br> in the box below) | $\rightarrow$ |

## Appendix A. 8 (continued)

## - A BALANCED DIET:

According to Canada's Food Guide to Healthy Eating (for people four years and over):

## Different People Need Different Amounts of Food

The amount of food you need every day from the 4 food groups and other foods depends on your age, body size, activity level, whether you are male or female, and if your are pregnant or breast feeding. That's why the Food Guide gives a lower and higher number of servings for each food group. For example, young children can choose the lower number of servings, while male teenagers can select the higher number. Most other people can choose servings somewhere in between.

| Grain <br> Products | Vegetables <br> \& Fruit | Milk <br> Products |  <br> Alternatives | Other Foods |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

recommended number of servings per day:

| $\mathbf{5 - 1 2}$ | $\mathbf{5 - 1 0}$ | Children 4-9 years: 2-3 <br> Youth 10-16 years: 3-4 <br> Adults: 2-4 <br> Pregnant and breast- <br> feeding women: $3-4$ | $\mathbf{2 - 3}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

- ALCOHOL INTAKE:

1 drink equals:

| Canadian | Metric | U.S. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 12 oz. | 340.8 ml | 10 oz. |
| 5 oz. | 142 ml | 4.5 oz |
| 1.5 oz | 42.6 ml | 1.25 oz. |

- SAFE SEX:

Refers to the use of methods of preventing infection or conception.

## WHAT DOES THE SCORE MEAN?

| $85-100$ | $70-84$ | $55-69$ | $35-54$ | $0-34$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| EXCELLENT | VERY GOOD | GOOD | FAIR | NEEDS <br> IMPROVEMENT |

NOTE: A low total score does not mean that you have failed. There is always the chance to change your lifestyle - starting now. Look at the areas where you scored a 0 or 1 and decide which areas you want to work on first.

## TIPS:

1 Don't try to change all the areas at once. This will be too overwhelming for you.
2 Writing down your proposed changes and your overall goal will help you to succeed.
3 Make changes in small steps towards the overall goal.
4 Enlist the help of a friend to make similar changes and/or to support you in your attempts.
5 Congratulate yourself for achieving each step. Give yourself appropriate rewards.
6 Ask your physical activity professional (CSEP-Professional Fitness and Lifestyle Consultant), family physician, nurse or health department for more information on any of these areas.

## Appendix A.9: Informed Consent

In order to assess cardiovascular function, body composition, and other physical fitness components, the undersigned hereby voluntarily consents to engage in one or more of the following tests (check the appropriate boxes):

ㄱ Graded exercise stress test

- Body composition tests
$\square$ Muscle fitness tests
ㄱ Flexibility tests
ㄱ Balance tests


## Explanation of the tests

The graded exercise test is performed on a cycle ergometer or motor-driven treadmill. The workload is increased every few minutes until exhaustion or until other symptoms dictate that we terminate the test. You may stop the test at any time because of fatigue or discomfort.
The underwater weighing procedure involves being completely submerged in a tank or tub after fully exhaling the air from your lungs. You will be submerged for 3 to 5 seconds while we measure your underwater weight. This test provides an accurate assessment of your body composition.

For muscle fitness testing, you lift weights for a number of repetitions using barbells or exercise machines. These tests assess the strength and endurance of the major muscle groups in the body.

For evaluation of flexibility, you perform a number of tests. During these tests, we measure the range of motion in your joints.
For balance tests, we will be measuring the amount of time you can maintain certain stances or the distance you are able to reach without losing balance.

## Risks and discomforts

During the graded exercise test, certain changes may occur. These changes include abnormal blood pressure responses, fainting, irregularities in heartbeat, and heart attack. Every effort is made to minimize these occurrences. Emergency equipment and trained personnel are available to deal with these situations if they occur.
You may experience some discomfort during the underwater weighing, especially after you expire all the air from your lungs. However, this discomfort is momentary, lasting only 3 to 5 seconds. If this test causes you too much discomfort, an alternative procedure (e.g., skinfold or bioelectrical impedance test) can be used to estimate your body composition.
There is a slight possibility of pulling a muscle or spraining a ligament during the muscle fitness and flexibility testing. In addition, you may experience muscle soreness 24 or 48 hours after testing. These risks can be minimized by performing warm-up exercises prior to taking the tests. If muscle soreness occurs, appropriate stretching exercises to relieve this soreness will be demonstrated.

## Expected benefits from testing

These tests allow us to assess your physical working capacity and to appraise your physical fitness status. The results are used to prescribe a safe, sound exercise program for you. Records are kept strictly confidential unless you consent to release this information.

Questions about the procedures used in the physical fitness tests are encouraged. If you have any questions or need additional information, please ask us to explain further.

## Freedom of Consent

Your permission to perform these physical fitness tests is strictly voluntary. You are free to stop the tests at any point, if you so desire.

I have read this form carefully and I fully understand the test procedures that I will perform and the risks and discomforts. Knowing these risks and having had the opportunity to ask questions that have been answered to my satisfaction, I consent to participate in these tests.

| Date | Signature of patient |
| :---: | :---: |
| Date | Signature of witness |
| Date | Signature of supervisor |

## Appendix A.10: Websites for Selected Professional Organizations and Institutes ${ }^{\text {a }}$

| Name | Web site address |
| :--- | :--- |
| Aerobics and Fitness Association of America (AFAA) | www.afaa.com |
| American Association for Health, Physical Education, <br> Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD) | www.aapherd.org |
| American Association of Cardiovascular and Pulmonary <br> Rehabilitation (AACPR) | www.aacvpr.org |
| American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM) | www.acsm.org |
| American Council on Exercise (ACE) | www.acefitness.org |
| American Fitness Professionals and Associates (AFPA) | www.afpafitness.org |
| American Society of Exercise Physiologists (ASEP) | www.asep.org |
| Australian Association for Exercise and Sport Sciences <br> (AAESS) | www.aaess.com.au |
| Canadian Academy of Sports Medicine (CASM) | www.casm-acms.org |
| Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology (CSEP) | www.csep.ca |
| Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research | www.cooperinst.org |
| Ethics and Safety Compliance Standards | www.escs.info |
| Gatorade Sport Science Institute (GSSI) | www.gssiweb.com |
| IDEA Health and Fitness Association | www.ideafit.com |
| Institute for Credentialing Excellence | www.credentialingexcellence.org |
| International Association of Fitness Certifying Agencies | www.iafca.org |
| International Federation of Sports Medicine (FIMS) | www.fims.org |
| International Fitness Professionals Association (IFPA) | www.ifpa-fitness.com |
| International Health, Racquet, \& Sportsclub Association | www.ihrsa.org |
| International Society for Aging and Physical Activity <br> (ISAPA) | www.isapa.org |
| National Athletic Trainers Association (NATA) | wwas |
| National Board of Fitness Examiners | www.nata.org |
| National Commission for Certifying Agencies (NCCA) | ww.nz.oredentialingexcellence.org/ncca |
| National Strength and Conditioning Association <br> (NSCA) |  |
| North American Society for Pediatric Exercise Medicine <br> (NASPEM) |  |
| Sports Medicine Australia | werg |

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Organizations and institutes dealing with exercise physiology, sports medicine, or physical fitness.

From Vivian H. Heyward and Ann L. Gibson, 2014, Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription, 7th ed. (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics).

## List of Abbreviations

| Terms |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| \%BF | Percent body fat |
| AAHPERD | American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance |
| ACSM | American College of Sports Medicine |
| ADL | Activities of daily living |
| ADP | Air displacement plethysmography |
| AI | Adequate intake |
| AIT | Aerobic interval training |
| ATP | Adenosine triphosphate |
| AV | Atrioventricular |
| BIA | Bioelectrical impedance analysis |
| BIS | Bioimpedance spectroscopy |
| BM | Body mass |
| BMI | Body mass index |
| BMR | Basal metabolic rate |
| BP | Blood pressure |
| BSA | Body surface area |
| BV | Body volume |
| BW | Body weight |
| C | Circumference |
| CDC | Centers for Disease Control and Prevention |
| CE | Constant error |
| CHD | Coronary heart disease |
| CP | Creatine phosphate |
| CR | Contract-relax |
| CRAC | Contract-relax with agonist contraction |
| CSA | Cross-sectional area |
| CSEP | Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology |
| CTT | Counting talk test |
| CV | Cardiovascular |
| CVD | Cardiovascular disease |
| D | Skeletal diameter |
| Db | Body density |
| DBP | Diastolic blood pressure |
| DOMS | Delayed-onset muscle soreness |
| DXA | Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry |
| ECG | Electrocardiogram |
| EDD | Exercise deficit disorder |
| EIMD | Exercise-induced muscle damage |
| EMG | Electromyography |

AAHPERD American Alliance for Health, Physical
ACSM American College of Sports Medicine
ADL Activities of daily living
ADP Air displacement plethysmography
AI
Aerobic interval training

Atrioventricular
Bioelectrical impedance analysis

Body mass
BMI Body mass index
BMR Basal metabolic rate
BP Blood pressure

BV Body volume
BW Body weight
C Circumference
CDC Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
CE Constant error
CHD Coronary heart disease
CP Creatine phosphate
CR Contract-relax
CRAC Contract-relax with agonist contraction
CSEP Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology
CTT Counting talk test

CVD Cardiovascular disease
D
Db

DOMS
DXA
ECG
EDD

EMG
Electromyography

## Terms

| ESH-IP | European Society of Hypertension International Protocol |
| :---: | :---: |
| FFB | Fat-free body |
| FFM | Fat-free mass |
| FITT-VP | Frequency, intensity, time, type of exercise, volume, and progression |
| FM | Fat mass |
| FRC | Functional residual lung capacity |
| GH | Growth hormone |
| GI | Glycemic index |
| GIS | Geographical information system |
| GPS | Global positioning system |
| GV | Volume of air in gastrointestinal tract |
| GXT | Graded exercise test |
| HDL | High-density lipoprotein |
| HDL-C | High-density lipoprotein cholesterol |
| HIT | High-intensity interval training |
| HMB | $\beta$-hydroxy- $\beta$-methylbutyrate |
| HR | Heart rate |
| HRmax | Maximal heart rate |
| HRrest | Resting heart rate |
| HRR | Heart rate reserve |
| HT | Standing height |
| $\mathrm{HT}^{2} / \mathrm{R}$ | Resistance index |
| HW | Hydrostatic weighing |
| LDL | Low-density lipoprotein |
| LDL-C | Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol |
| LP | Linear periodization |
| MET | Metabolic equivalent |
| MET-min | MET minutes |
| MRI | Magnetic resonance imaging |
| MVIC | Maximal voluntary isometric contraction |
| N | Sample size |
| NCEP | National Cholesterol Education Program |
| NHANES | National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey |
| NIDDM | Non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus |
| NIH | National Institutes of Health |
| NIR | Near-infrared interactance |
| P | Power output |

## Terms

| PAL | Physical activity level | WBV | Whole-body vibration |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PAR-Q | Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire | WHR | Waist-to-hip ratio |
| PARmed-X | Physical Activity Readiness Medical Examination Questionnaire | WHTR Xc | Waist-to-height ratio Reactance |
| PEI | Physical efficiency index | YMCA | Young Men's Christian |
| PNF $\dot{\mathbf{Q}}$ | Proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation Cardiac output | YYIR1C | Modified Yo-Yo Intermit 1 test for children |
| $\rho$ | Specific resistivity | Z | Impedance |
| R | Resistance for bioimpedance analysis | $\underline{\text { Units of Measure }}$ |  |
| r | Pearson product-moment correlation | bpm | beats per minute |
| RDA | Recommended dietary allowance |  | Celsius |
| REE | Resting energy expenditure |  |  |
| rep | Repetition | cc | cubic centimeter centimeter |
| RER | Respiratory exchange ratio | dl | deciliter |
| RLP | Reverse linear periodization | F | Fahrenheit foot-pound |
| RM | Repetition maximum | ft-lb |  |
| Rmc | Multiple correlation coefficient |  | gram |
| RMR | Resting metabolic rate | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{g} \\ & \mathrm{hr} \end{aligned}$ | hour |
| ROM | Range of motion | Hzin. | hertzinch |
| RPE | Rating of perceived exertion |  |  |
| RV | Residual (lung) volume | kcal | kilocalorie |
| SAD | Sagittal abdominal diameter | kg | kilogram |
| SBP | Systolic blood pressure | kgm kilogram-meter |  |
| SCENIHR | Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health | kHz | kilohertz |
| SEE | Standard error of estimate | km | kilometer |
| SIT | Sprint interval training | L | liter |
| SKF | Skinfold | lb | pound |
| ESKF | Sum of skinfolds | m | meter |
| SRP | Steep ramp cycling protocol | meq | milli-equivalent |
| SV | Stroke volume | mg | milligram |
| TBW | Total body water | mimin | mile |
| TC | Total cholesterol |  | minutemilliliter |
| TC/HDL-C | Ratio of total cholesterol to HDL-cholesterol | min ml |  |
| TE | Total error | ml mm | milliliter millimeter |
| TEE | Total energy expenditure | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{mm} \\ & \mathrm{mmHg} \end{aligned}$ | millimeters of mercury |
| TGV | Thoracic gas volume | mo | month |
| TLC | Total lung capacity | mph | miles per hour |
| TLCNS | Total lung capacity, head not submerged | N | newton |
| TMS | Transcranial magnetic stimulation | Nm | newton-meter |
| UWW | Underwater weight | rpm | revolutions per minute |
| UP | Undulating periodization | sec | second |
| VLDL | Very low-density lipoprotein | W wk | watt |
| $\dot{\mathbf{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ | Volume of oxygen consumed per minute | wk | week |
| $\dot{\mathbf{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max | Maximal oxygen uptake | ug | microgram |
| $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ | Oxygen uptake reserve | $\mu \mathrm{g}$ RE | retinol equivalent |
| WBAN | Wireless body area network | $\Omega$ |  |

## Glossary

absolute $\dot{\mathbf{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$-Measure of rate of oxygen consumption and energy cost of non-weight-bearing activities; measured in $\mathrm{L} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ or $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{min}^{-1}$.
accelerometer-Device used to record body acceleration minute to minute, providing detailed information about frequency, duration, intensity, and patterns of movement.
accommodating-resistance exercise-Type of exercise in which fluctuations in muscle force throughout the range of motion are matched by an equal counterforce as the speed of limb movement is kept at a constant velocity; isokinetic exercise.
acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS)—Disease characterized as a deficiency in the body's immune system, caused by human immunodeficiency virus (HIV).
active-assisted stretching-Stretching technique that involves voluntarily moving a body part to the end of its active range of motion, followed by assistance in moving the body part beyond its active range of motion.
active stretching—Stretching technique that involves moving a body part without external assistance; voluntary muscle contraction.
activities of daily living (ADLs)—Normal everyday activities such as getting out of a chair or car, climbing stairs, shopping, dressing, and bathing.
acute-onset muscle soreness-Soreness or pain occurring during or immediately after exercise; caused by ischemia and accumulation of metabolic waste products in the muscle.
aerobic interval training (AIT)—Subclass of high-intensity interval training; consists of repeated combinations of near maximal ( $80-95 \% \dot{V}_{2} \mathrm{R}$ ) 4 min bouts of exercise and rest or recovery periods of similar duration.
air displacement plethysmography (ADP)—Densitometric method to estimate body volume using air displacement and pressure-volume relationships.
allele-One member of a pair or series of genes that occupy a specific position on a specific chromosome.
android obesity-Type of obesity in which excess body fat is localized in the upper body; upper body obesity; appleshaped body
aneurysm-Dilation of a blood vessel wall causing a weakness in the vessel's wall; usually caused by atherosclerosis and hypertension.
angina pectoris-Chest pain.
ankylosis—Limited range of motion at a joint.
anorexia nervosa-Eating disorder characterized by excessive weight loss.
anthropometry-Measurement of body size and proportions including skinfold thicknesses, circumferences, bony widths and lengths, stature, and body weight.
aortic stenosis-Narrowing of the aortic valve, obstructing blood flow from the left ventricle into the aorta.
Archimedes' principle—Principle stating that weight loss underwater is directly proportional to the volume of water displaced by the body's volume.
arrhythmia-Abnormal heart rhythm.
arteriosclerosis-Hardening of the arteries, or thickening and loss of elasticity in the artery walls that obstruct blood flow; caused by deposits of fat, cholesterol, and other substances.
asthma-Respiratory disorder characterized by difficulty in breathing and wheezing due to constricted bronchi.
at risk for overweight-Characterizing children with a body mass index between the 85th and 94th percentiles for age and sex.
ataxia-Impaired ability to coordinate movement characterized by staggering gait or postural imbalance.
atherosclerosis-Buildup and deposition of fat and fibrous plaque in the inner walls of the coronary arteries.
atrial fibrillation-Cardiac dysrhythmia in which the atria quiver instead of pumping in an organized fashion.
atrial flutter-Type of atrial tachycardia in which the atria contract at rates of 230 to 380 bpm .
atrophy-A wasting or decrease in size of a body part.
attenuation-Weakening of X-ray energy as it passes through fat, lean tissue, and bone.
augmented unipolar leads-Three ECG leads (aVF, aVL, aVR ) that compare voltage across each limb lead to the average voltage across the two opposite electrodes.
auscultation-Method used to measure heart rate or blood pressure by listening to heart and blood sounds.
balance-Complex construct involving multiple biomechanical, neurological, and environmental systems.
ballistic stretching-Type of stretching exercise that uses a fast bouncing motion to produce stretch and increase range of motion.
basal metabolic rate (BMR)—Measure of minimal amount of energy needed to maintain basic and essential physiological functions.
behavior modification model-Psychological theory of change; clients become actively involved with the change process by setting short- and long-term goals.
$\beta$-hydroxy- $\beta$-methylbutyrate (HMB)—Dietary supplement known to increase lean body mass and strength of individuals engaging in resistance training.
bias-In regression analysis, a systematic over- or underestimation of actual scores caused by technical error or biological variability between validation and cross-validation samples; constant error.
biaxial joint-Joint allowing movement in two planes; condyloid and saddle joints.
bioelectrical impedance analysis (BIA)—Field method for estimating the total body water or fat-free mass using measures of impedance to current flowing through the body.
bioimpedance spectroscopy (BIS)—Type of bioimpedance analysis that combines upper body, lower body, and wholebody bioimpedance to estimate FFM and $\% \mathrm{BF}$; utilizes a range of electrical frequencies and allows for determination of extracellular water (low level frequencies) and intracellular water (high level frequencies).
Bland and Altman method-Statistical approach used to assess the degree of agreement between methods by calculating the $95 \%$ limits of agreement and confidence intervals; used to judge the accuracy of a prediction equation or method for estimating measured values of individuals in a group.
body composition-A component of physical fitness; absolute and relative amounts of muscle, bone, and fat tissues composing body mass.
body density (Db)—Overall density of fat, water, mineral, and protein components of the human body; total body mass expressed relative to total body volume.
body mass (BM)—Measure of the size of the body; body weight.
body mass index (BMI) —Crude index of obesity; body mass $(\mathrm{kg})$ divided by height squared $\left(\mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$.
body surface area-Amount of surface area of the body estimated from the client's height and body weight.
body volume (BV)—Measure of body size estimated by water or air displacement.
body weight (BW)—Mass or size of the body; body mass.
bone strength-Function of mineral content and density of bone tissue; related to risk of bone fracture.

Boyle's law-Isothermal gas law stating that volume and pressure are inversely related.
bradycardia-Resting heart rate $<60$ bpm.
bronchitis-Acute or chronic inflammation of the bronchi of the lungs.
caloric threshold-Method to estimate duration of exercise based on the caloric cost of the exercise and to estimate the total amount of exercise needed per week for health benefits.
cardiac arrest-Sudden loss of heart function usually caused by ventricular fibrillation.
cardiomyopathy-Any disease that affects the structure and function of the heart.
cardiorespiratory endurance-Ability of heart, lungs, and circulatory system to supply oxygen to working muscles efficiently.
cardiovascular disease (CVD)—Disease of the heart, blood vessels, or both; types of cardiovascular disease include atherosclerosis, hypertension, coronary heart disease, congestive heart failure, and stroke.
center of pressure-Vertical force applied to the supporting base or a force platform during sitting or standing.
chest leads—Six ECG leads $\left(\mathrm{V}_{1}\right.$ to $\left.\mathrm{V}_{6}\right)$ used to measure voltage across specific areas of the chest.
cholesterol-Waxy, fatlike substance found in all animal products (e.g., meats, dairy products, and eggs).
chylomicron-Type of lipoprotein derived from intestinal absorption of triglycerides.
circumference (C)—Measure of the girth of body segments.
cirrhosis-Chronic, degenerative disease of the liver in which the lobes are covered with fibrous tissue; associated with chronic alcohol abuse.
claudication-Cramp-like pain in the calves due to poor circulation in leg muscle.
complex carbohydrates-Macronutrients found in plantbased foods, whole grains, and low-fat dairy products, for example, starch and cellulose.
compound sets-Advanced resistance training system in which two sets of exercises for the same muscle group are performed consecutively, with little or no rest between sets.
computerized dynamic posturography-Computer system designed to assess the individual and composite functioning of sensory, motor, and biomechanical components of balance.
concentric contraction-Type of dynamic muscle contraction in which muscle shortens as it exerts tension.
congestive heart failure-Impaired cardiac pumping caused by myocardial infarction, ischemic heart disease, or cardiomyopathy.
constant error (CE) -Average difference between measured and predicted values for cross-validation group; bias.
constant-resistance exercise-Type of exercise in which the external resistance remains the same throughout the range of motion (e.g., lifting free weights or dumbbells).
continuous exercise test-Type of graded exercise test that is performed with no rest between workload increments.
continuous training-One continuous, aerobic exercise bout performed at low-to-moderate intensity.
contract-relax agonist contract (CRAC) technique-Type of proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation technique in which the target muscle is isometrically contracted and then stretched; stretching is assisted by a submaximal contraction of the agonistic muscle group.
contract-relax (CR) technique-Type of proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation technique in which the target muscle is isometrically contracted and then stretched.
contracture-Shortening of resting muscle length caused by disuse or immobilization.
core stability-Ability to maintain ideal alignment of neck, spine, scapulae, and pelvis while exercising.
core strengthening-Strengthening core muscle groups (erector spinae and abdominal movers and stabilizers) used for core stability.
coronary heart disease (CHD) -Disease of the heart caused by a lack of blood flow to heart muscle, resulting from atherosclerosis.
counting talk test (CTT)—Method to monitor exercise intensity; measure of the client's ability to comfortably count out loud while exercising; based on the relationship between exercise intensity and pulmonary ventilation.
criterion method-Gold standard or reference method; typically a direct measure of a component used to validate other tests.
cross-training-Type of training in which the client participates in a variety of exercise modes to develop one or more components of physical fitness.
cuff hypertension-Overestimation of blood pressure caused by use of a bladder that is too small for the arm circumference.
cyanosis-Bluish discoloration of skin caused by lack of oxygenated hemoglobin in the blood.
damping technique-Technique used to reduce the motion of the underwater weighing scale arm during the total body submersion process.
decision-making theory-Theory stating that individuals decide whether or not to engage in a behavior by weighing the perceived benefits and costs of that behavior.
delayed-onset muscle soreness (DOMS)—Soreness in the muscle occurring 24 to 48 hr after exercise.
densitometry-Measurement of body volume leading to calculation of total body density; hydrodensitometry and air displacement plethysmography are densitometric methods.
diabetes-Complex disorder of carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism resulting from a lack of insulin secretion (type 1) or defective insulin receptors (type 2).
diastolic blood pressure (DBP)—Lowest pressure in the artery during the cardiac cycle.
dietary thermogenesis-Energy needed for digesting, absorbing, transporting, and metabolizing foods.
digital activity $\log$-A handheld computer used to record the type and duration of physical activities performed during the day.
diminishing return principle-Training principle; as genetic ceiling is approached, rate of improvement slows or evens off.
discontinuous exercise test-Type of graded exercise test that is performed with 5 to 10 min of rest between increments in workload.
discontinuous training-Several intermittent, low- to highintensity aerobic exercise bouts interspersed with rest or relief intervals.
dose-response relationship-The volume of physical activity is directly related to health benefits from that activity.
dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA)—Method used to measure total body bone mineral density, bone mineral content, as well as estimate fat and lean soft tissue mass.
dynamic balance-Ability to maintain an upright position while the center of gravity and base of support are moving.
dynamic contraction-Type of muscle contraction producing visible joint movement; concentric, eccentric, or isokinetic contraction.
dynamic flexibility-Measure of the rate of torque or resistance developed during stretching throughout the range of joint motion.
dynamic stretching-Type of stretching exercise that uses slow, controlled movements that are repeated several times to produce stretch and increase range of motion.
dynapenia-Age-related loss in muscle strength.
dyslipidemia-Abnormal blood lipid profile.
dyspnea-Shortness of breath or difficulty breathing caused by certain heart conditions, anxiety, or strenuous exercise.
eccentric contraction-Type of muscle contraction in which the muscle lengthens as it produces tension to resist gravity or decelerate a moving body segment.
edema-Accumulation of interstitial fluid in tissues such as pericardial sac and joint capsules.
elastic deformation-Deformation of the muscle-tendon unit that is proportional to the load or force applied during stretching.
electrocardiogram (ECG)—A composite record of the electrical events in the heart during the cardiac cycle.
embolism-Piece of tissue or thrombus that circulates in the blood until it lodges in a vessel.
emphysema-Pulmonary disease causing damage in alveoli and loss of lung elasticity.
exercise deficit disorder (EDD)—Term associated with children who do not engage in at least $60 \mathrm{~min} /$ day of moderate-to-vigorous intensity physical activity.
exercise-induced hypertrophy-Increase in size of muscle as a result of resistance training.
exercise-induced muscle damage (EIMD)—Skeletal muscle damage induced through exercise.
exergaming-Interactive digital games in which the player physically moves to score points.
factorial method-Method used to assess energy needs; the sum of the resting metabolic rate and the additional calories expended during work, household chores, personal daily activities, and exercise.
false negative-An error in which individuals are incorrectly identified as having no risk factors when in fact they do have risk factors.
false positive-An error in which individuals are incorrectly identified as having risk factors when they do not have risk factors.
fat-free body (FFB)—All residual, lipid-free chemicals and tissues in the body, including muscle, water, bone, connective tissue, and internal organs.
fat-free mass (FFM)—See fat-free body; weight or mass of the fat-free body.
fat mass (FM) -All extractable lipids from adipose and other tissues in the body.
FITT-VP principle (FITT-VP)—Describes six components of an exercise prescription: frequency, intensity, time, type, volume, and progression of activity.
flexibility—Ability to move joints fluidly through complete range of motion without injury.
flexibility training-Systematic program of stretching exercises that progressively increases the range of motion of joints over time.
flexometer-Device for measuring range of joint motion using a weighted $360^{\circ}$ dial and pointer.
free-motion machines-Resistance exercise machines that have adjustable seats, lever arms, and cable pulleys for exercising muscle groups in multiple planes.
functional balance—Ability to perform daily activities requiring balance, for example, picking up an object from the floor.
functional fitness-Ability to perform everyday activities safely and independently without fatigue; requires aerobic endurance, flexibility, balance, agility, and muscular strength.
functional training-System of exercise progressions for specific muscle groups using a stepwise approach that increases the difficulty level (strength) and skill (balance and coordination) required for each exercise in the progression.
gait velocity-The speed of walking. Indirect measure of dynamic balance while walking used to detect mobility problems and risk of falling.
generalized prediction equations-Prediction equations that are applicable to a diverse, heterogeneous group of individuals. geographical information system (GIS) - Computer system that stores latitude and longitude information about location and the surrounding environment.
global positioning system (GPS)—System that uses 24 satellites and ground stations to calculate geographic locations and accurately track a specific activity.
glucose intolerance-Inability of body to metabolize glucose. glycemic index (GI)—Rating of the body's glycemic response to a food compared to the reference value $(\mathrm{GI}=100$ for white bread or glucose).
goniometer-Protractor-like device used to measure joint angle at the extremes of the range of motion.
graded exercise test (GXT)—A multistage submaximal or maximal exercise test requiring the client to exercise at gradually increasing workloads; may be continuous or discontinuous; used to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max.
Graves' disease-Disease associated with an overactive thyroid gland that secretes greater than normal amounts of thyroid hormones; also known as hyperthyroidism or thyrotoxicosis.
gross $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$-Total rate of oxygen consumption, reflecting the caloric cost of both rest and exercise.
gynoid obesity-Type of obesity in which excess fat is localized in the lower body; lower body obesity; pear-shaped body.
HbA1c-An indicator of the average blood glucose over the past 2 to 3 months; glycolsylated hemoglobin.
HDL-cholesterol (HDL-C)—Cholesterol transported in the blood by high-density lipoproteins.
health belief model—Model suggesting that individuals will change a behavior because they perceive a threat of disease if they do not change.
healthy body weight—Body mass index from 18.5 to $25 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$. heart block-Interference in the conduction of electrical impulses that control normal contraction of the heart muscle; may occur at sinoatrial node, atrioventricular node, bundle of HIS, or a combination of these sites.
heart rate monitor-Device used to assess heart rate and to monitor exercise intensity.
heart rate reserve (HRR)—Maximal heart rate minus the resting heart rate.
hemiscan procedure-Used for clients who are too wide for the DXA scan table; client is positioned off center on the DXA scan table so that one side of the body is completely within the scan field.
hepatitis-Inflammation of the liver characterized by jaundice and gastrointestinal discomfort.
high blood pressure-Hypertension; chronic elevation of blood pressure.
high CHD risk-One or more signs or symptoms of cardiovascular, pulmonary, renal, or metabolic disease; characterizing individuals with known cardiovascular, pulmonary, renal, or metabolic disease.
high-density lipoprotein (HDL)—Type of lipoprotein involved in the reverse transport of cholesterol to the liver.
high-intensity interval training-Style of cardiometabolic training based on repeated combinations of vigorous-intensity exertion followed by a rest or recovery period; commonly performed using an aerobic modality; combinations of exertion and rest can be manipulated so that training focuses on a specific metabolic pathway.
high intensity-low repetitions-Optimal training stimulus for strength development; $85 \%$ to $100 \% 1-\mathrm{RM}$ or 1- to $6-\mathrm{RM}$.
high total cardiovascular risk-Category of CVD risk estimate along the risk continuum; identifies those in need of active risk factor management and those who have several CVD risk factors that, in combination, elevate the risk of a CV event.
hybrid sphygmomanometer-Device used to measure blood pressure that combines features of electronic and auscultatory devices.
hydrodensitometry-Method used to estimate body volume by measuring weight loss when the body is fully submerged; underwater weighing.
hydrostatic weighing (HW)—See hydrodensitometry.
hypercholesterolemia-Excess of total cholesterol, LDLcholesterol, or both in blood.
hyperlipidemia—Excess lipids in blood.
hypermobility-Excessive range of motion at a joint.
hyperplasia-Increase in number of cells.
hypertension-High blood pressure; chronic elevation of blood pressure.
hyperthyroidism—Overactive thyroid gland that secretes greater than normal amounts of thyroid hormones; also known as thyrotoxicosis or Graves' disease.
hypertrophy-Increase in size of cells.
hypoglycemia-Low blood glucose level.
hypokalemia-Inadequate amount of potassium in the blood characterized by an abnormal ECG, weakness, and flaccid paralysis.
hypomagnesemia-Inadequate amount of magnesium in the blood resulting in nausea, vomiting, muscle weakness, and tremors.
hypothyroidism—Underactive thyroid gland that secretes lower than normal amounts of thyroid hormones; also known as myxedema.
hypoxia-Inadequate oxygen at the cellular level.
impedance (Z)—Measure of total amount of opposition to electrical current flowing through the body; function of resistance and reactance.
improvement stage-Stage of exercise program in which client improves most rapidly; frequency, intensity, duration are systematically increased; usually lasting 16 to 20 wk .
inclinometer-Gravity-dependent goniometer used to measure the angle between the long axis of the moving segment and the line of gravity.
initial conditioning stage-Stage of exercise program used as a primer to familiarize client with exercise training, usually lasting 4 wk .
initial values principle-Training principle; the lower the initial value of a component, the greater the relative gain and the faster the rate of improvement in that component; the higher the initial value, the slower the improvement rate.
insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM)—Type 1 diabetes, caused by lack of insulin production by the pancreas. interindividual variability principle-Training principle; individual responses to training stimulus are variable and depend on age, initial fitness level, and health status.
interval training-A repeated series of exercise work bouts interspersed with rest or relief periods.
ischemia-Decreased supply of oxygenated blood to body part or organ; due to occlusion or restriction of blood flow.
ischemic heart disease-Pathologic condition of the myocardium caused by lack of oxygen to the heart muscle.
isokinetic contraction-Maximal contraction of a muscle group at a constant velocity throughout entire range of motion. isometric contraction-Type of muscle contraction in which there is no visible joint movement; static contraction.
isotonic contraction-Type of muscle contraction producing visible joint movement; dynamic contraction.
joint laxity—Looseness or instability of a joint, increasing risk of musculoskeletal injury.
Karvonen method-Method to prescribe exercise intensity as a percentage of the heart rate reserve added to the resting heart rate; percent heart rate reserve method.
kettlebell training-Type of resistance training that uses a cast-iron weight (resembling a cannonball with a handle) to perform ballistic exercises; improves strength, cardiovascular fitness, and flexibility.
kilocalorie (kcal)—Amount of heat needed to raise the temperature of 1 kg of water $1^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$; measure of energy need and expenditure.
lactate threshold-Exercise intensity at which blood lactate production exceeds blood lactate removal; denoted by an increase of $1 \mathrm{mmol} \cdot \mathrm{L}^{-1}$ between two consecutive stages; an indication of when the primary metabolic pathway switches from mitochondrial oxidation to glycolysis.

LDL-cholesterol (LDL-C)-Cholesterol transported in the blood by low-density lipoproteins.
limb leads-Three ECG leads (I, II, III) measuring the voltage differential between left and right arms (I) and between the left leg and right (II) and left (III) arms.
limits of agreement-Statistical method used to assess the extent of agreement between methods; also known as the Bland and Altman method.
limits of stability-Measure of the maximum excursion of the center of gravity during maintenance of balance over a fixed supporting base.
linear periodization (LP)-Strength training method that progressively increases training intensity as training volume decreases between microcycles.
line of best fit-Regression line depicting relationship between reference measure and predictor variables in an equation.
line of gravity-Vertical projection of the center of gravity of the body to the supporting base.
line of identity-Straight line with a slope equal to 1 and an intercept equal to 0 ; used in a scatter plot to illustrate the differences in the measured and predicted scores of a crossvalidation sample.
lipoprotein-Molecule used to transport and exchange lipids among the liver, intestine, and peripheral tissues.
low back pain-Pain produced by muscular weakness or imbalance resulting from lack of physical activity.
low CHD risk-Characterizing young, asymptomatic individuals having no more than one net risk factor.
low-density lipoprotein (LDL)—Primary transporter of cholesterol in the blood; product of very low-density lipoprotein metabolism.
lower body obesity-Type of obesity in which excess body fat is localized in the lower body; gynoid obesity; pear-shaped body.
low intensity-high repetitions-Optimal training stimulus for development of muscular endurance; $\leq 60 \% 1$-RM or 15 - to 20-RM.
lumbar stabilization-Maintaining a static position of the lumbar spine by isometrically cocontracting the abdominal wall and low back muscles during exercise.
macrocycle—Phase of periodized resistance training program usually lasting 9 to 12 mo ; comprised of mesocycles.
maintenance stage-Stage of exercise program designed to maintain level of fitness achieved by end of improvement stage; should be continued on a regular, long-term basis.
masked hypertension-Condition in which individuals exhibit elevated BP readings outside the physician's office but have normal BP values in the office.
masked obesity-Condition in which individuals have a normal body mass index but carry an excessive amount of body fat.
maximal exercise test-Graded exercise test in which exercise intensity increases gradually until the $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ plateaus or fails to rise with a further increase in workload.
maximum oxygen consumption-Maximum rate of oxygen utilization by muscles during exercise; $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max.
maximum oxygen uptake ( $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max) —Maximum rate of oxygen utilization of muscles during aerobic exercise.
maximum voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC)Measure of the maximum force exerted in a single contraction against an immovable resistance.
McArdle's syndrome-Inherited metabolic disease characterized by inability to metabolize muscle glycogen, resulting in excessive amounts of glycogen stored in skeletal muscles.
mesocycle—Phase of a periodized resistance training program usually lasting 3 to 4 mo ; comprised of microcycles.
metabolic equivalents (METs)-The ratio of the person's working (exercising) metabolic rate to the resting metabolic rate.
metabolic syndrome-A combination of cardiovascular disease risk factors associated with hypertension, dyslipidemia, insulin resistance, and abdominal obesity.
MET•min-Index of energy expenditure; product of exercise intensity (METs) and duration (min) of exercise.
microcycle—Phase of a periodized resistance training program usually lasting 1 to 4 wk .
miscuffing-Source of blood pressure measurement error caused by use of a blood pressure cuff that is not appropriately scaled for the client's arm circumference.
moderate CHD risk-Characterizing asymptomatic individuals having two or more net risk factors.
multicomponent model-Body composition model that takes into account interindividual variations in water, protein, and mineral content of the fat-free body.
multimodal exercise program-Type of exercise program that uses a variety of exercise modalities.
multiple correlation coefficient (Rmc)—Correlation between reference measure and predictor variables in a prediction equation.
murmur-Low-pitched fluttering or humming sound.
muscle balance-Ratio of strength between opposing muscle groups, contralateral muscle groups, and upper and lower body muscle groups.
muscular endurance-Ability of muscle to maintain submaximal force levels for extended periods.
muscular strength—Maximal force or tension level produced by a muscle or muscle group.
musculoskeletal fitness-Ability of skeletal and muscular systems to perform work.
myocardial infarction-Heart attack.
myocardial ischemia-Lack of blood flow to the heart muscle. myocarditis-Inflammation of the heart muscle caused by viral, bacterial, or fungal infection.
myxedema-Disease associated with an underactive thyroid gland that secretes lower than normal amounts of thyroid hormones; also known as hypothyroidism.
near-infrared interactance (NIR)—Field method that estimates \%BF based on optical density of tissues at the measurement site; presently, validity of this method is questionable.
negative energy balance-Excess of energy expenditure in relation to energy intake.
net $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ —Rate of oxygen consumption in excess of the resting $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$; used to describe the caloric cost of exercise.
neuromotor training-Exercises to improve balance, agility, gait, coordination, and proprioception; especially beneficial as part of comprehensive exercise programs for older adults.
nonaxial joint-Type of joint allowing only gliding, sliding, or twisting rather than movement about an axis of rotation; gliding joint.
non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM)—Type 2 diabetes; caused by decreased insulin receptor sensitivity.
normotensive-Referring to normal blood pressure, defined as values less than $120 / 80 \mathrm{mmHg}$.
obesity-Excessive amount of body fat relative to body mass; BMI of $30 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ or more.
objectivity—Intertester reliability; ability of test to yield similar scores for a given individual when the same test is administered by different technicians.
objectivity coefficient-Correlation between pairs of test scores measured on the same individuals by two different technicians.
occlusion-Blockage or restriction of blood flow to body part or organ.
omnikinetic exercise-Type of accommodating-resistance exercise that adjusts for fluctuations in both muscle force and speed of joint rotation throughout range of motion.
one-repetition maximum (1-RM)—Maximal weight that can be lifted with good form for one complete repetition of a movement.
optical density-Measure of the amount of near-infrared light reflected by the body's tissues at specific wavelengths.
oscillometry-Method for measuring blood pressure that uses an automated electronic manometer to measure oscillations in pressure when the cuff is deflated.
osteoarthritis-Degenerative disease of the joints characterized by excessive amounts of bone and cartilage in the joint.
osteopenia-Low bone mineral mass; precursor to osteoporosis.
osteoporosis-Disorder characterized by low bone mineral and bone density; occurring most frequently in postmenopausal women and sedentary individuals.
overcuffing-Using a blood pressure cuff with a bladder too large for the arm circumference, leading to an underestimation of blood pressure.
overload principle—Training principle; physiological systems must be taxed beyond normal to stimulate improvement.
overweight-BMI between 25 and $29.9 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ in adults; BMI greater than or equal to 95 th percentile for age and sex in children.
pallor-Unnatural paleness or absence of skin color.
palpation-Method used to measure heart rate by feeling the pulse at specific anatomical sites.
palpitations-Racing or pounding of the heart.
passive stretching-Stretching technique that involves a body part being moved by an assistant as the client relaxes the target muscle group.
pedometer-A device used to count the number of steps taken throughout the day.
pelvic stabilization-Maintenance of a static position of the pelvis during performance of exercises for the low back extensor muscles.
percent body fat (\%BF)—Fat mass expressed relative to body mass; relative body fat.
percent heart rate maximum (\%HRmax)—Method used to prescribe exercise intensity as a percentage of the measured or age-predicted maximum heart rate.
percent heart rate reserve (\%HRR)—Method used to prescribe exercise intensity as a percentage of the heart rate reserve (HRR $=$ HRmax - HRrest) added to the resting heart rate; Karvonen method.
percent $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve $\left(\% \dot{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}\right)$-Method used to prescribe exercise intensity as a percentage of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve $\left(\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{R}=\right.$ $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{max}-\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ rest) added to the resting $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$.
pericarditis-Inflammation of the pericardium caused by trauma, infection, uremia, or heart attack.
periodization-Advanced form of training that systematically varies the volume and intensity of the training exercises.
persuasive technology-A computer system, device, or application that is intentionally designed to change a person's attitude or behavior.
physical activity level (PAL) -The ratio of total energy expenditure to basal metabolic rate; $\mathrm{PAL}=\mathrm{TEE} / \mathrm{BMR}$.
physical fitness-Ability to perform occupational, recreational, and daily activities without undue fatigue.
population-specific equations-Prediction equations intended only for use with individuals from a specific homogeneous group.
positive energy balance-Excess of energy intake in relation to energy expenditure
prediabetes-Medical condition identified by fasting blood glucose or glycated hemoglobin levels above normal values yet below the threshold for diagnosis of diabetes.
prehypertension-Systolic blood pressure of 120 to 139 mmHg or diastolic pressure of 80 to 89 mmHg .
PR interval-Part of ECG tracing that indicates delay in the impulse at the atrioventricular node.
progression principle-Training principle; training volume must be progressively increased to impose overload and stimulate further improvements.
proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation (PNF)—Mode of stretching that increases range of joint motion through spinal reflex mechanisms such as reciprocal inhibition.
prosthesis-An artificial replacement of a missing body part, such as an artificial limb or joint.
pulmonary ventilation-Movement of air into and out of the lungs.
pulse pressure-Difference between the systolic and diastolic blood pressures.
P wave-Part of ECG tracing that reflects depolarization of the atria.
pyramiding—Advanced resistance training system in which a relatively light weight is lifted in the first set and progressively heavier weights are lifted in subsequent sets; light-to-heavy system.
QRS complex—Part of ECG tracing reflecting ventricular depolarization and contraction.
ramp protocols-Graded exercise tests that are individualized and that provide for continuous, frequent (every $10-20 \mathrm{sec}$ ) increments in work rate so that $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ increases linearly.
range of motion (ROM)—Degree of movement at a joint; measure of static flexibility.
rating of perceived exertion (RPE)—A scale used to measure a client's subjective rating of exercise intensity.
reactance ( $\mathbf{X c}$ )—Measure of opposition to electrical current flowing through body due to the capacitance of cell membranes; a vector of impedance.
reactive balance-Ability to compensate and recover from perturbations while standing or walking.
reciprocal inhibition-Reflex that inhibits the contraction of antagonistic muscles when the prime mover is voluntarily contracted.
reference method—Gold standard or criterion method; typically a direct measure of a component used to validate other tests.
regression line-Line of best fit depicting relationship between reference measure and predictor variables.
relative body fat (\%BF) -Fat mass expressed as a percentage of total body mass; percent body fat.
relative strength-Muscular strength expressed relative to the body mass or lean body mass; 1-RM/BM.
relative $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max—Rate of oxygen consumption expressed relative to the body mass ( $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ) or lean body mass ( $\mathrm{ml} \cdot \mathrm{kgFFM}^{-1} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ).
reliability—Ability of a test to yield consistent and stable scores across trials and over time.
reliability coefficient-Correlation depicting relationship between trial 1 and trial 2 scores or day 1 and day 2 scores of a test.
repetition maximum (RM)—Measure of intensity for resistance exercise expressed as maximum weight that can be lifted for a given number of repetitions.
repetitions-Number of times a specific exercise movement is performed in a set.
residual score-Difference between the actual and predicted scores ( $\mathrm{Y}-\mathrm{Y}^{\prime}$ ).
residual volume (RV)—Volume of air remaining in lungs following a maximal expiration.
resistance ( $\mathbf{R}$ )-Measure of pure opposition to electrical current flowing through body; a vector of impedance.
resistance index (ht $2 / \mathrm{R}$ )—Predictor variable in some BIA regression equations that is calculated by dividing standing height squared by resistance.
respiratory exchange ratio (RER)—Ratio of expired $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ to inspired $\mathrm{O}_{2}$.
resting energy expenditure (REE)—Energy required to maintain essential physiological processes at rest; resting metabolic rate.
resting metabolic rate (RMR)—Energy required to maintain essential physiological processes in a relaxed, awake, and reclined state; resting energy expenditure.
reverse linear periodization (RLP)—Strength training method that progressively decreases training intensity as training volume increases between microcycles.
reversibility principle-Training principle; physiological gains from training are lost when individual stops training (detraining).
rheumatic heart disease-Condition in which the heart valves are damaged by rheumatic fever, contracted from a streptococcal infection (strep throat).
rheumatoid arthritis-Chronic, destructive disease of the joints characterized by inflammation and thickening of the synovial membranes and swelling of the joints.
sagittal abdominal diameter (SAD)—Measure of the anteroposterior thickness of the abdomen at the umbilical level.
sarcopenia-Age-related loss in muscle mass.
self-determination theory-Theory describing how the presence or absence of specific psychological needs affects behavior.
self-efficacy-Individuals' perception of their ability to perform a task and their confidence in making a specific behavioral change.
sensitivity—Probability of a test correctly identifying individuals with risk factors for a specific disease.
set-Defines the number of times a specific number of repetitions of a given exercise is repeated; single or multiple sets.
simple carbohydrates-Simple sugars (e.g., glucose and fructose) found in fruits, berries, table sugar, honey, and some vegetables.
skeletal diameter (D)—Measure of the width of bones.
skinfold (SKF)—Measure of the thickness of two layers of skin and the underlying subcutaneous fat.
social cognitive model—Psychological theory of behavior change; based on concepts of self-efficacy and outcome expectation.
specificity-Measure of a test's ability to correctly identify individuals with no risk factors for a specific disease.
specificity principle—Training principle; physiological and metabolic responses and adaptations to exercise training are specific to type of exercise and muscle groups involved.
sphygmomanometer-Device used to measure blood pressure manually, consisting of a blood pressure cuff and a manometer.
spinning-Group-led exercise that involves stationary cycling at various cadences and resistances.
split routine—Advanced resistance training system in which different muscle groups are targeted on consecutive days to avoid overtraining.
sprint interval training (SIT) —Subclass of high-intensity interval training; based on repeated combinations of short (e.g. 30 sec ) sprints and extended (e.g. 4 min ) rest or recovery intervals.
stages of motivational readiness for change modelPsychological theory of behavior change; ability to make long-term behavioral change is based on client's emotional and intellectual readiness; stages of readiness are precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance.
standard error of estimate (SEE)—Measure of error for prediction equation; quantifies the average deviation of individual data points around the line of best fit.
static balance-Ability to maintain the center of gravity within the supporting base during standing or sitting.
static contraction-Type of muscle contraction in which there is no visible joint movement; isometric contraction.
static flexibility-Measure of the total range of motion at a joint.
static stretching-Mode of exercise used to increase range of motion by placing the joint at the end of its range of motion and slowly applying torque to the muscle to stretch it further.
steep ramp cycling protocol (SRP)—Maximal exertion cycling protocol utilizing stage changes every 10 sec ; magnitude of stage increments are determined by the rider's height.
stress relaxation-Decreased tension within musculotendinous unit when it is held at a fixed length during static stretching.
stretch tolerance-Measure of the amount of resistive force to stretch within target muscles that can be tolerated before experiencing pain.
stroke-Rupture or blockage of blood flow to the brain caused by an aneurysm, blood clot, or some other particle.
ST segment-Part of ECG tracing reflecting ventricular repolarization; used to detect coronary occlusion and myocardial infarct.
submaximal exercise test-Graded exercise test in which exercise is terminated at some predetermined submaximal heart rate or workload; used to estimate $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max.
super circuit resistance training-Type of circuit resistance training that intersperses a short, aerobic exercise bout between each resistance training exercise station.
supersetting-Advanced resistance training system in which exercises for agonistic and antagonistic muscle groups are done consecutively without rest.
syncope-Brief lapse in consciousness caused by lack of oxygen to the brain.
systolic blood pressure (SBP)—Highest pressure in the arteries during systole of the heart.
tachycardia—Resting heart rate >100 bpm.
talk test-Method to monitor exercise intensity; measure of the client's ability to converse comfortably while exercising; based on the relationship between exercise intensity and pulmonary ventilation.
tare weight—Weight of chair or platform and its supporting equipment used in hydrostatic weighing.
telomeres-Repeated DNA sequences that determine structure and function of chromosomes.
terminal digit bias-Tendency of the technician to round BP values to the nearest 0 or 5 mmHg .
theory of planned behavior-An extension of the theory of reasoned action that takes into consideration the individual's perception of behavioral control.
theory of reasoned action-Theory that proposes a way to understand and predict an individual's behavior; intention is the most important determinant of behavior.
thoracic gas volume (TGV)—Volume of air in the lungs and thorax.
thrombus-Lump of cellular elements of the blood attached to inner walls of an artery or vein, sometimes blocking blood flow through the vessel.
thyrotoxicosis-Overactive thyroid gland that secretes greater than normal amounts of thyroid hormones; also known as Graves' disease or hyperthyroidism.
tonic vibration reflex-Reflex that activates muscle spindles and alpha motor neurons of muscles stimulated by vibration loading.
total cholesterol (TC)—Absolute amount of cholesterol in the blood.
total energy expenditure (TEE)—Sum of energy expenditures for resting metabolic rate, dietary thermogenesis, and physical activity.
total energy expenditure (TEE) method-Method for determining energy expenditure measured by doubly labeled water or predicted from equations.
total error (TE)—Average deviation of individual scores of the cross-validation sample from the line of identity.
training volume-Total amount of training as determined by the number of sets and exercises for a muscle group, intensity, and frequency of training.
transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS)—Method used to study adaptations in the central nervous system in response to strength training.
transcriptome signature of resistance exercise-The approximately 660 genes that are affected by resistance training.
transtheoretical model-Model describing the process a client goes through when adopting a change in health behavior. treading-Type of group-led interval training that involves walking, jogging, and running at various speeds and grades on a treadmill with relief intervals interspersed.
triaxial joint-Type of joint allowing movement in three planes; ball-and-socket joint.
tri-sets—Advanced resistance training system in which three different exercises for the same muscle group are performed consecutively with little or no rest between the exercises.

T wave-Part of ECG tracing corresponding to ventricular repolarization.
two-component model—Body composition model that divides the body into fat and fat-free body components.
type A activity-Endurance activity requiring minimal skill or fitness, for example walking.
type $B$ activity-Endurance activity requiring minimal skill but average fitness, for example jogging.
type C activity-Physical activity requiring both skill and physical fitness, for example swimming.
type $\mathbf{D}$ activity-Recreational sports that may improve physical fitness, for example basketball.
type 1 diabetes-Insulin-dependent diabetes, caused by lack of insulin production by the pancreas.
type 2 diabetes-Non-insulin-dependent diabetes, caused by decreased insulin receptor sensitivity.
undercuffing-Using a blood pressure cuff with a bladder too small for the arm circumference, leading to an overestimation of blood pressure.
underwater weight (UWW)—Method used to estimate body volume by measuring weight loss when the body is fully submerged; hydrostatic weighing.
underweight—BMI < $18.5 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$.
undulating periodization (UP)-Strength training method that varies training intensity and volume weekly or even daily.
uniaxial joint-Type of joint allowing movement in one plane; hinge or pivot joint.
upper body obesity-Type of obesity in which excess fat is localized to the upper body; android obesity; apple-shaped body.
uremia-Excessive amounts of urea and other nitrogen waste products in the blood associated with kidney failure.
validity—Ability of a test to accurately measure, with minimal error, a specific component.
validity coefficient-Correlation between reference measure and predicted scores.
valvular heart disease-Congenital disorder of a heart valve characterized by obstructed blood flow, valvular degeneration, valvular stenosis, and regurgitation of blood.
variable-resistance exercise-Type of exercise in which resistance changes during the range of motion due to levers, pulleys, and cams.
ventilatory threshold-Point at which there is an exponential increase in pulmonary ventilation relative to exercise intensity and rate of oxygen consumption.
ventricular ectopy-Premature (out of sequence) contraction of the ventricles.
ventricular fibrillation-Cardiac dysrhythmia marked by rapid, uncoordinated, and unsynchronized contractions of the ventricles, so that no blood is pumped by the heart.
vertigo-Dizziness or inability to maintain normal balance in a standing or seated position.
very high risk-Category of CVD risk estimate along the risk continuum; criteria are documented CVD, diabetes mellitus (type 2 or type 1 with microalbuminuria), chronic kidney disease, and calculated 10 yr risk SCORE $\geq 10 \%$.
very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL)—Lipoprotein made in the liver for transporting triglycerides.
viscoelastic creep-A small increase in joint angle during constant-torque stretching, due to elongation of the muscletendon unit.
viscoelastic properties-Tension within the muscle-tendon unit caused by the elastic and viscous deformation of the unit when force is applied during stretching.
viscous deformation-Deformation of the muscle-tendon unit that is proportional to the speed at which tension is applied during stretching.
volume of exercise-Quantity of exercise determined by frequency, intensity, and time of exercise.
$\dot{\mathbf{V}} \mathbf{O}_{2}$ max-Maximum rate of oxygen utilization of muscles during exercise.
$\dot{\mathbf{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak-Measure of highest rate of oxygen consumption during an exercise test regardless of whether or not a $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ plateau is reached.
$\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve-The $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max minus the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ rest.
waist-to-height ratio (WHTR)—Waist circumference divided by standing height; used as a measure of abdominal obesity.
waist-to-hip ratio (WHR)—Waist circumference divided by hip circumference; used as a measure of upper body or abdominal obesity.
white coat hypertension-Condition in which individuals have normal blood pressure but become hypertensive when blood pressure is measured by a health professional.
whole-body vibration training (WBV)—Training method that uses whole-body mechanical vibration to increase strength, balance, and bone integrity.
wireless body area network (WBAN)—Integrated data sensors, receivers, and transmitters that collect physiologic data and transmit it to a central data repository through a wireless type of technology.

## References

Abercromby, A.F.J., Amonette, W.E., Layne, C.S., McFarlin, B.K., Hinman, M.R., and Paloski, W.H. 2007. Vibration exposure and biodynamic responses during whole-body vibration training. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 1794-1800.

Abraham, P., Noury-Desvaux, B., Gernigon, M., Mahe, G., Sauvaget, T., Leftheriotis, G., and LeFaucheur, A. 2012. The inter- and intra-unit variability of a low-cost GPS data logger/receiver to study human outdoor walking in view of health and clinical studies. PLoS ONE 7:e31338. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0031338. Accessed November 10, 2012.
Abraham, W.M. 1977. Factors in delayed muscle soreness. Medicine and Science in Sports 9: 11-20.
Adams, J., Mottola, M., Bagnall, K.M., and McFadden, K.D. 1982. Total body fat content in a group of professional football players. Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Sciences 7: 36-44.
Ahlback, S.O., and Lindahl, O. 1964. Sagittal mobility of the hip-joint. Acta Orthopaedica Scandinavica 34: 310-313.
Ainsworth, B.E., Haskell, W.L., Whitt, M.C., Irwin, M.L., Swartz, A.M., Strath, S.J., O’Brien, W.L., Bassett, D.R. Jr., Schmitz, K.H., Emplaincourt, P.O., Jacobs, D.R., and Leon, A.S. 2000. Compendium of physical activities: An update of activity codes and MET intensities. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32(Suppl.): S498-S516.
Albasini, A., Krause, M., and Rembitzki, I. 2010. Using WBV therapy in physical therapy and sport. London: Churchill Livingstone.

Albert, W.J., Bonneau, J., Stevenson, J.M., and Gledhill, N. 2001. Back fitness and back health assessment considerations for the Canadian Physical Activity, Fitness and Lifestyle Appraisal. Canadian Journal of Applied Physiology 26: 291-317.
Alberti, K.G., Eckel, R.H., Grundy, S.M., Zimmet, P.Z., Cleeman, J.I., Donato, K.A., Fruchart, J-C., James, W.P., Loria, C.M., and Smith, S.C, Jr. 2009. Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome: A joint interim statement of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American Heart Association; World Heart Federation; International Atherosclerosis Society; and International Association for the Study of Obesity. Circulation 120: 1640-1645.
Alcaraz, A.B., Perez-Gomez, J., Chavarrias, M. and Blazevich, A.J. 2011. Similarity in adaptations to high-resistance circuit vs. traditional strength training in resistance-trained men. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 2519-2527.

Alter, M.J. 2004. Science of flexibility, 3rd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Altunkan, S., and Altunkan, E. 2006. Validation of the Omron 637IT wrist blood pressure device with a position sensor according to the International Protocol in the elderly. Blood Pressure Monitoring 11: 97-102.
Altunkan, S., Ilman, N., Kayaturk, N., and Altunkan, E. 2007. Validation of the Omron M6 (HEM-7001-E) upper-arm blood pressure measuring device according to the International Protocol in adults and obese adults. Blood Pressure Monitoring 12(4): 219-225.
Altunkan, S., Oztas, K., and Altunkan, E. 2006. Validation of the Omron 637IT wrist blood pressure measuring device with a position sensor according to the International Protocol in adults and obese adults. Blood Pressure Monitoring 11: 79-85.
Alway, S.E., Grumbt, W.H., Gonyea, W.J., and Stray-Gundersen, J. 1989. Contrasts in muscle and myofibers of elite male and female bodybuilders. Journal of Applied Physiology 67: 24-31.
Amaral, T.F., Restivo, M.T., Guerra, R.S., Marques, E., Chousal, M.F. and Mota, J. 2011. Accuracy of a digital skinfold system for measuring skinfold thickness and estimating body fat. British Journal of Nutrition. 105:478-484.
American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. 1988. The AAHPERD physical best program. Reston, VA: Author.
American Cancer Society. 2006. At-a-glance-nutrition and physical activity. www.cancer.org/docroot/PED/content/ PED_3_2X_Recommendations.asp?sitearea=PED.
American Cancer Society. 2011. Global cancer facts \& figures, 2nd ed. www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemi-ologysurveilance/documents/document/acspc-027766.pdf. Accessed September 9, 2012.
American College of Sports Medicine. 1996. Position stand on exercise and fluid replacement. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 28(1): i-vii.
American College of Sports Medicine. 2004. NCCA accreditation. ACSM's Certified News 14(3): 1.
American College of Sports Medicine. 2006. ACSM's guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, 7th ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams \& Wilkins.
American College of Sports Medicine. 2009a. Appropriate physical activity intervention strategies for weight loss and prevention of weight regain for adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 459-471.
American College of Sports Medicine. 2009b. Balance training tools for older adults. www.acsm.org.

American College of Sports Medicine. 2010a. ACSM's guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, 8th ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams \& Wilkins.
American College of Sports Medicine. 2010b. ACSM's resource manual for guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, 6th ed. Philadelphia: Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams \& Wilkins.
American College of Sports Medicine. 2010c. Exercise and type 2 diabetes: American College of Sports Medicine and the American Diabetes Association: Joint position stand. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 42:2282-2303. http://journals.lww.com/acsm-msse/Fulltext/2010/12000/ Exercise_and_Type_2_Diabetes__American_College_ of.18.aspx. Accessed September 8, 2012.
American College of Sports Medicine. 2014. ACSM's guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, 9th ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams \& Wilkins.
American College of Sports Medicine and American Diabetes Association. 1997. Joint position statement on diabetes mellitus and exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27(12): i-vi.

American College of Sports Medicine, American Dietetic Association, and Dietitians of Canada. 2009. Nutrition and athletic performance: Joint position statement. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 709-731.
American Council on Exercise. 1997. Absolute certainty: Do abdominal trainers work any better than the average crunch? ACE Fitness Matters 3(2): 1-2.

American Dietetic Association. 2000. Position of the American Dietetic Association, Dietitians of Canada, and the American College of Sports Medicine: Nutrition and athletic performance. Journal of American Dietetic Association 100: 1543-1556.
American Dietetic Association. 2003. Let the evidence speak: Indirect calorimetry and weight management guides. Chicago: Author.
American Fitness Professionals and Associates. 2004. AFPA news flash: What is the National Board of Fitness Examiners (NBFE) and how does it work? www.afpafitness.com.

American Heart Association. 1999. 2000 heart and stroke statistical update. Dallas: Author.

American Heart Association. 2001. International cardiovascular disease statistics. Dallas: Author.

American Heart Association. 2004. Heart disease and stroke statistics-2004 update. Dallas: Author.

American Heart Association. 2008a. Diabetes mellitus-statistics. Statistical fact sheet—risk factors 2008 update. www. Americanheart.org.
American Heart Association. 2008b. High blood cholesterol and other lipids-statistics. Statistical fact sheet-risk factors 2008 update. www.Americanheart.org.
American Heart Association. 2008c. High blood pressurestatistics. Statistical fact sheet-risk factors 2008 update. www.Americanheart.org.

American Heart Association. 2008d. International cardiovascular disease statistics. Statistical fact sheet-populations 2008 update. www.Americanheart.org.
American Heart Association. 2008e. Metabolic syndromestatistics. Statistical fact sheet-risk factors 2008 update. www.Americanheart.org.
American Heart Association. 2008f. Overweight and obesitystatistics. Statistical fact sheet-risk factors 2008 update. www.Americanheart.org.
American Heart Association. 2008g. Physical inactivity. Statistical fact sheet—risk factors 2008 update. www. Americanheart.org.
American Heart Association. 2008h. Tobacco-statistics. Statistical fact sheet—risk factors 2008 update. www. Americanheart.org.
American Heart Association. 2009. Heart disease and stroke statistics 2009 update. A report from the American Heart Association Statistics Committee and Stroke Statistics Subcommittee. Circulation 119: e21-e181.
American Heart Association. 2012. Heart disease and stroke statistics 2012 update: A report from the American Heart Association Statistics Committee and Stroke Statistics Subcommittee. Circulation 125: e2-e220.
American Medical Association. 1988. Guides to the evaluation of permanent impairment, 3rd ed. Chicago, IL: Author.
American Society of Exercise Physiologists. 2004. Standards of professional practice. www.css.edu/ASEP/StandardsofProfessionalPractice.

American Society of Hand Therapists. 1992. Clinical assessment recommendations, 2nd ed. Chicago, IL: American Society of Hand Therapists.
Aminian-Far, A., Hadian, M.R., Olyaei, G., Talebian, S., and Bakhtiary, A.H. 2011. Whole-body vibration and the prevention and treatment of delayed-onset muscle soreness. Journal of Athletic Training 46: 43-49.
Andersen, J.L., and Aagaard, P. 2000. Myosin heavy chain IIX overshooting in human skeletal muscle. Muscle and Nerve 23: 1095-1104.
Andersen, J.L., and Aagaard, P. 2010. Effects of strength training on muscle fiber types and size; Consequences for athletes training for high-intensity sport. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports 20(Suppl. 2): S32-S38.
Anderson, B., and Burke, E.R. 1991. Scientific, medical, and practical aspects of stretching. Clinics in Sports Medicine 10: 63-86.
Anderson, G.S. 1992. The 1600 m and multistage 20 m shuttle run as predictive tests of aerobic capacity in children. Pediatric Exercise Science 4: 312-318.
Anderson, L.J., Erceg, D.N., and Schroeder, E.T. 2012. Utility of multifrequency bioelectrical impedance compared with dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry for assessment of total and regional body composition varies between men and women. Nutrition Research 32: 479-485.
Anderson, R. 1980. Stretching. Fullerton, CA: Shelter.

Andrews, A.W., Thomas, M.W., and Bohannon, R.W. 1996. Normative values for isometric muscle force measurements obtained with hand-held dynamometers. Physical Therapy 76: 248-259.

Antoine-Jonville, S., Sinnapah, S., and Hue, O. 2012. Relationship between body mass index and body composition adolescents of Asian Indian origin and their peers. European Journal of Public Health 22: 887-889.
Antonio, J., and Gonyea, W.J. 1993. Skeletal muscle fiber hyperplasia. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 25: 1333-1345.
Ardern, C.I., Katzmarzyk, P.T., and Ross, R. 2003. Discrimination of health risk by combined body mass index and waist circumference. Obesity Research 11: 135-142.
Armsey, T.D., and Grime, T.E. 2002. Protein and amino acid supplementation in athletes. Current Sports Medicine Reports 4: 253-256.
Armstrong, R.B. 1984. Mechanisms of exercise-induced delayed onset muscular soreness: A brief review. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 16: 529-538.
Artero, E.G., Espada-Fuentes, J.C., Arguelles-Cienfuegos, J., Roman, A., Gomez-Lopez, P.J., and Gutierrez, A. 2012. Effects of whole-body vibration and resistance training on knee extensors muscular performance. European Journal of Applied Physiology 112: 1371-1378.
Ashwell, M., Gunn, P., and Gibson, S. 2011. Waist-to-height ratio is a better screening tool than waist circumference and BMI for adult cardiometabolic risk factors: Systematic review and meta-analysis. Obesity Reviews doi: 10.1111/j.1467-789X.2011.00952.x.

Ashwell, M., and Hsieh, S.D. 2005. Six reasons why the waist-to-height ratio is a rapid and effective global indicator for health risks of obesity and how its use could simplify the international public health message on obesity. International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition 56: 303-307.
Ashwell, M., McCall, S.A., Cole, T.J., and Dixon, A.K. 1985. Fat distribution and its metabolic complications: Interpretations. In Human body composition and fat distribution, ed. N.G. Norgan, 227-242. Wageningen, Netherlands: Euronut.

Åstrand, I. 1960. Aerobic capacity in men and women with special reference to age. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 49(Suppl. 169): S1-S92.
Åstrand, P.O. 1956. Human physical fitness with special reference to age and sex. Physiological Reviews 36: 307-335.
Åstrand, P.O. 1965. Work tests with the bicycle ergometer. Varberg, Sweden: AB Cykelfabriken Monark.
Åstrand, P.O., and Rodahl, K. 1977. Textbook of work physiology. New York: McGraw-Hill.
Åstrand, P.O., and Ryhming, I. 1954. A nomogram for calculation of aerobic capacity (physical fitness) from pulse rate during submaximal work. Journal of Applied Physiology 7: 218-221.
Atterhog, J.H., Jonsson, B., and Samuelsson, R. 1979. Exercise testing: A prospective study of complication rates. American Heart Journal 98: 572-580.

Austin, G.L., Ogden, L.G., and Hill, J.O. 2011. Trends in carbohydrate, fat, and protein intakes and association with energy intake in normal-weight, overweight, and obese individuals 1971-2006. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 93: 836-843.
Australian Bureau of Statistics. 2008. Australian statistics on overweight and obesity in adults 2004-05. www.ausstats. abs.gov.au/ausstats.
Avila, J.J., Gutierres, J.A., Sheehy, M.E., Lofgren, I.E., and Delmonico, M.J. 2010. Effect of moderate intensity resistance training during weight loss on body composition and physical performance in overweight older adults. European Journal of Applied Physiology 109: 517-525.
Axler, C.T., and McGill, S.M. 1997. Low back loads over a variety of abdominal exercises: Searching for the safest abdominal challenge. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 29: 804-810.
Azevedo, L.F., Perlingeiro, P.S., Brum, P.C., Braga, A.M.W., Negrao, C.E., and de Matos, L.D.N.J. 2011. Exercise intensity optimization for men with high cardiorespiratory fitness. Journal of Sports Sciences 29: 555-561.
Bacon, A.P., Carter, R.E., Ogle, E.A., and Joyner, M.J. 2013. $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max trainability and high intensity interval training in humans: A meta-analysis. PLoS ONE 8(9): e73182. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0073182
Baechle, T.R., Earle, R.W., and Wathen, D. 2000. Resistance training. In Essentials of strength training and conditioning, eds. T.R. Baechle and R.W. Earle. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Baek, H.J., Chung, G.S., Kim, K.K, and Park, K.S. 2012. A smart health monitoring chair for nonintrusive measurement of biological signals. IEEE Transactions on Information Technology in Biomedicine 16: 150-158.
Bahr, R., Ingnes, I., Vaage, O., Sjersted, O.M., and Newsholme, E.A. 1987. Effect of duration of exercise on excess postexercise $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ consumption. Journal of Applied Physiology 62: 485-490.

Bailey, B.W., and McInnis, K. 2011. Energy cost of exergaming: A comparison of the energy cost of 6 forms of exergaming. Archives of Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine 165: 597-602.
Baker, D., Wilson, G., and Carlyon, R. 1994. Periodization: The effect on strength of manipulating volume and intensity. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 8: 235-242.
Bakhtiary, A.H., Safavi-Farokhi, Z., and Aminian-Far, A. 2007. Influence of vibration on delayed onset of muscle soreness following eccentric exercise. British Journal of Sports Medicine 41: 145-148.
Balady, G.J., Arena, R., Sietsema, K., Myers, J., Coke, L., Fletcher, G.F., Forman, D., Franklin, B., Guazzi, M., Gulati, M., Keteyian, S.J., Lavie, C.J., Macko, R., Mancini, D., and Milani, R.V. 2010. Clinician's guide to cardiopulmonary exercise testing in adults: A scientific statement from the American Heart Association. Circulation 122: 191-225.

Balke, B. 1963. A simple field test for the assessment of physical fitness. Civil Aeromedical Research Institute Report, 63-18. Oklahoma City: Federal Aviation Agency.
Balke, B., and Ware, R. 1959. An experimental study of physical fitness of Air Force personnel. US Armed Forces Medical Journal 10: 675-688.

Ball, T.E., and Rose, K.S. 1991. A field test for predicting maximum bench press lift of college women. Journal of Applied Sport Science Research 5: 169-170.
Ballor, D.L., and Keesey, R.E. 1991. A meta-analysis of the factors affecting exercise-induced changes in body mass, fat mass, and fat-free mass in males and females. International Journal of Obesity 15: 717-726.
Balsamo, S., Tibana, R.A., Nascimento, D., de Farias, G.L., Petruccelli, Z., de Santana, F., Martins, O.V., de Aguiar, F., Pereira, G.B., de Souza, J.C., and Prestes, J. 2012. Exercise order affects the total training volume and the ratings of perceived exertion in response to a super-set resistance training session. International Journal of General Medicine 5: 123-127.
Bandura, A. 1982. Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. American Psychologist 37: 122-147.
Bandy, W.D., and Irion, J.M. 1994. The effect of time on static stretch on the flexibility of the hamstring muscles. Physical Therapy 74: 845-851.
Bankoski, A., Chen, K.Y., Harris, T.B., Berrigan, D., McClain, J.J., Troiano, R.P., Brychta, R.J., Koster, A., and Caserotti, P. 2011. Sedentary activity associated with metabolic syndrome independent of physical activity. Diabetes Care 34: 497-503.

Barker, A.R., Williams, C.A., Jones, A.M., and Armstrong, N. 2011. Establishing maximal oxygen uptake in young people during a ramp cycle test to exhaustion. British Journal of Sports Medicine 45: 498-503.
Barnes, P.M., Adams, P.F., and Powell-Griner, E. 2008. Health characteristics of the Asian adult population: United States, 2004-2006. Vital and Health Statistics 394. www.cdc. gov/nchs/data/ad/ad394.pdf. Accessed September 8, 2012.
Barreira, T., Kang, M., Caputo, J., Farley, S., and Renfrow, M. 2009. Validation of the Actiheart monitor for the measurement of physical activity. International Journal of Exercise Science 2(1): article 7. http://digitalcommons.wku.edu/ijes/ vol2/iss1/7.
Barroso, R., Tricoli, V., Dos Santos Gil, S., Ugrinowitsch, C., and Roschel, H. 2012. Maximal strength, number of repetitions, and total volume are differently affected by static-, ballistic-, and proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation stretching. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 2432-2437.
Barry, D.W., and Kohrt, W.M. 2008. Exercise and the preservation of bone health. Journal of Cardiopulmonary Rehabilitation and Prevention 28:153-162.
Bartlett, J.D., Close, G.L., Maclaren, D.P.M., Gregson, W., Drust, B., and Morton, J.P. 2011. High-intensity interval running is perceived to be more enjoyable than moderate-
intensity continuous exercise: Implications for exercise adherence. Journal of Sports Sciences 29: 547-553.
Bateman, L.A., Slentz, C.A., Willis, L.H., Shields, A.T., Piner, L.W., Bales, C.W., Houmard, J.A., and Kraus, W.E. 2011. Comparison of aerobic versus resistance exercise training effects on metabolic syndrome (from the Studies of a Targeted Risk Reduction Intervention through Defined Exercise - STRRIDE-AT/RT). American Journal of Cardiology 108:838-844.
Baumgartner, R.N., Heymsfield, S.B., and Roche, A.F. 1995. Human body composition and the epidemiology of chronic disease. Obesity Research 3: 73-95.
Baumgartner, R.N., Heymsfield, S.B., Lichtman, S., Wang, J., and Pierson, R.N. 1991. Body composition in elderly people: Effect of criterion estimates on predictive equations. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 53: 1-9.
Baumgartner, T.A. 1978. Modified pull-up test. Research Quarterly 49: 80-84.
Baumgartner, T.A., and Jackson, A.S. 1975. Measurement for evaluation in physical education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
Baumgartner, T.A., East, W.B., Frye, P.A., Hensley, L.D., Knox, D.F., and Norton, C.J. 1984. Equipment improvements and additional norms for the modified pull-up test. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 55: 64-68.
Baun, W.B., Baun, M.R., and Raven, P.B. 1981. A nomogram for the estimate of percent body fat from generalized equations. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 52: 380-384.
Beaulieu, J.E. 1980. Stretching for all sports. Pasadena, CA: Athletic Press.
Beenakker, E.A.C., van der Hoeven, J.H., Fock, J.M., and Maurits, N.M. 2001. Reference values of maximum isometric muscle force obtained in 270 children aged $4-16$ years by hand-held dynamometry. Neuromuscular Disorders 11: 441-446.

Beevers, G., Lip, G.Y.H., and O'Brien, E. 2001a. ABC of hypertension. Blood pressure measurement. Part I-Sphygmomanometry: Factors common to all techniques. British Medical Journal 322: 981-985.
Beevers, G., Lip, G.Y.H., and O'Brien, E. 2001b. ABC of hypertension. Blood pressure measurement. Part II-Conventional sphygmomanometry: Technique of auscultatory blood pressure measurement. British Medical Journal 322: 1043-1047.Behm, D.G., and Chaouachi, A. 2011. A review of the acute effects of static and dynamic stretching on performance. European Journal of Applied Physiology 111: 2633-2651.
Behm, D.G., Bambury, A., Farrell, C., and Power, K. 2004. Effect of acute static stretching on force, balance, reaction time and movement time. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 1397-1402.
Behm, D.G., Drinkwater, E.J., Willardson, J.M., and Cowley, P.M. 2010. Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology position stand: The use of instability to train the core in athletic and nonathletic conditioning. Applied Physiology, Nutrition and Metabolism 35: 109-112.

Behm, D.G., Faigenbaum, A.D., Falk, B., and Klentrou, P. 2008. Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology position paper: Resistance training in children and adolescents. Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism 33: 547-561.

Behnke, A.R. 1961. Quantitative assessment of body build. Journal of Applied Physiology 16: 960-968.

Behnke, A.R., and Wilmore, J.H. 1974. Evaluation and regulation of body build and composition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
Bellew, J.W., Fenter, P.C., Chelette, B., Moore, R., and Loreno, D. 2005. Effects of a short-term dynamic balance training program in healthy older women. Journal of Geriatric Physical Therapy 28: 4-8, 27.
Bemben, D.A., Palmer, I.J., Bemben, M.G., and Knehans, A.W. 2010. Effects of combined whole-body vibration and resistance training on muscular strength and bone metabolism in postmenopausal women. Bone 47: 650-656.
Benardot, D., Clarkson, P., Coleman, E., and Manore, M. 2001. Can vitamin supplements improve sport performance? Gatorade Sports Science Exchange Roundtable 12(3): 1-4.
Bendiksen, M., Ahler, R., Clausen, H., Wedderkopp, N., and Krustrup, P. 2012. The use of Yo-Yo IR1 and Andersen testing for fitness and maximal heart rate assessments of $6-10 \mathrm{yr}$ old school children. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research [Epub ahead of print] doi: 10.1519/ JSC.0b013e318270fd0b.
Bentzur, K.M., Kravitz, L., and Lockner, D.W. 2008. Evaluation of the Bod Pod for estimating percent body fat in collegiate track and field female athletes: A comparison of four methods. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 22: 1985-1991.
Berg, K.O., Wood-Dauphinee, S.L., Williams, J.I., and Maki, B. 1992. Measuring balance in the elderly: Validation of an instrument. Canadian Journal of Public Health 83(2): S7-S11.
Berglund, E., Birath, G., Bjure, J., Grimby, G., Kjellmar, I., Sandvist, L., and Soderholm, B. 1963. Spirometric studies in normal subjects. I. Forced expirograms in subjects between 7 and 70 years of age. Acta Medica Scandinavica 173: 185-192.
Bergsma-Kadijk, J.A., Baumeister, B., and Deurenberg, P. 1996. Measurement of body fat in young and elderly women: Comparison between a four-compartment model and widely used reference methods. British Journal of Nutrition 75: 649-657.
Berlin, J.A., and Colditz, G.A. 1990. A meta-analysis of physical activity in the prevention of coronary heart disease. American Journal of Epidemiology 132: 612-628.
Berry, M.J., Cline, C.C., Berry, C.B., and Davis, M. 1992. A comparison between two forms of aerobic dance and treadmill running. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 24: 946-951.
Best, J.R. 2011. Exergaming immediately enhances children's executive function. Developmental Psychology 48: 1501-1510.

Biddiss, E., and Irwin, J. 2010. Active video games to promote physical activity in children and youth: A systematic review. Archives of Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine 164: 664-672.

Bielinski, R., Schultz, Y., and Jequier, E. 1985. Energy metabolism during the postexercise recovery in man. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 42: 69-82.
Biering-Sorensen, F. 1984. Physical measurements as risk indicators for low-back trouble over a one-year period. Spine 9: 106-119.
Billinger, S.A., Loudon, J.K., and Gajewski, B.J. 2008. Validity of a total body recumbent stepper exercise test to assess cardiorespiratory fitness. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 22: 1556-1562.
Billinger, S.A., van Swearingen, E., McClain, M., Lentz, A.A., and Good, M.B. 2012. Recumbent stepper submaximal exercise test to predict peak oxygen uptake. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 44: 1539-1544.
Bird, M., Hill, K.D., Ball, M., Hetherington, S., and Williams, A.D. 2011. The long term benefits of a multi-component exercise intervention on balance and mobility in healthy older adults. Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics 52: 211-216.

Birk, T.J., and Birk, C.A. 1987. Use of ratings of perceived exertion for exercise prescription. Sports Medicine 4: 1-8.
Bjorntorp, P. 1988. Abdominal obesity and the development of non-insulin diabetes mellitus. Diabetes and Metabolism Reviews 4: 615-622.
Black, L.F., Offord, K., and Hyatt, R.E. 1974. Variability in the maximum expiratory flow volume curve in asymptomatic smokers and nonsmokers. American Review of Respiratory Diseases 110: 282-292.
Blair, D., Habricht, J.P., Sims, E.A., Sylwester, D., and Abraham, S. 1984. Evidence of an increased risk for hypertension with centrally located body fat, and the effect of race and sex on this risk. American Journal of Epidemiology 119: 526-540.
Blair, S.N. 2009. Physical inactivity: The biggest public health problem of the 21st century. British Journal of Sports Medicine 43: 1-2.

Blair, S.N., LaMonte, M.J., and Nichaman, M.Z. 2004. The evolution of physical activity recommendations: How much is enough? American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 79(Suppl.): S913-S920.
Bland, J.M., and Altman, D.G. 1986. Statistical methods for assessing agreement between two methods of clinical measurement. The Lancet 12: 307-310.
Blaney, C., Robbins, M.L., Paiva, A.L., Redding, C.A., Rlossi, J.S., Blissmer, B., Burditt, C., and Oatley, K. 2012. Validation of the measures of the transtheoretical model for exercise in an adult African-American sample. American Journal of Health Promotion 26: 317-326.
Bleakley, C., McDonough, S., Gardner, E., Baxter, G.D., Hopkins, J.T., and Davison, G.W. 2012. Cold-water immersion (cryotherapy) for preventing and treating muscle soreness
after exercise. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (online) 2: CD008262.
Blessing, D.L., Wilson, D.G., Puckett, J.R., and Ford, H.T. 1987. The physiological effects of 8 weeks of aerobic dance with and without hand-held weights. American Journal of Sports Medicine 15: 508-510.
Blum, V., Carriere, E.G.J., Kolsters, W., Mosterd, W.L., Schiereck, P., and Wesseling, K.H. 1997. Aortic and peripheral blood pressure during isometric and dynamic exercise. International Journal of Sports Medicine 18: 30-34.
Bogaerts, A.C.G., Delecluse, C., Claessens, A.L., Troosters, T., Boonen, S., Verschueren, S.M.P. 2009. Effects of whole body vibration training on cardiorespiratory fitness and muscle strength in older individuals (A 1-year randomized controlled trial). 2009. Age and Ageing 38: 448-454.
Bohannon, R.W. 1997. Reference values for extremity muscle strength obtained by hand-held dynamometry from adults aged 20 to 79 years. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 78: 26-32.
Bohannon, R.W. 2006a. Reference values for the timed up and go test: A descriptive meta-analysis. Journal of Geriatric Physical Therapy 29(2): 64-68.
Bohannon, R.W. 2006b. Single leg stance times. A descriptive meta-analysis of data from individuals at least 60 years of age. Topics in Geriatric Rehabilitation 22: 70-77.
Bohannon, R.W., Peolsson, A., Massy-Westropp, N., Desrosiers, J. and Bear-Lehman, J. 2006. Reference values for adult grip strength measured with a Jamar dynamometer: A descriptive meta-analysis. Physiotherapy 92: 11-15.
Bohe, J., Low, A., Wolfe, R.R., and Rennie, M.J. 2003. Human muscle protein synthesis is modulated by extracellular, not intramuscular amino acid availability: A dose-response study. Journal of Physiology 552: 315-324.
Bompa, T.O., DiPasquale, M.D., and Cornacchia, L.J. 2003. Serious strength training. 2nd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Bonci, L. 2009. Sport nutrition for coaches. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Bonge, D., and Donnelly, J.E. 1989. Trials to criteria for hydrostatic weighing at residual volume. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 60: 176-179.
Bongers, B.C., de Vries, S.I., Helders, P.J.M., and Takken, T. 2013. The Steep Ramp Test in healthy children and adolescents: Reliability and validity. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 45: 366-371.
Boren, H.G., Kory, R.C., and Syner, J.C. 1966. The Veteran's Administration-Army cooperative study of pulmonary function: II. The lung volume and its subdivisions in normal men. American Journal of Medicine 41: 96-114.
Borg, G. 1998. Borg's perceived exertion and pain scales. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Borg, G.V., and Linderholm, H. 1967. Perceived exertion and pulse rate during graded exercise in various age groups. Acta Medica Scandinavica 472(Suppl.): S194-S206.

Borms, J., Van Roy, P., Santens, J.P., and Haentjens, A. 1987. Optimal duration of static stretching exercises for improvement of coxo-femoral flexibility. Journal of Sports Science 5: 39-47.
Bosco, C.M., Colli, R., Introini, E., Cardinale, M., Tsarpela, O., Madella, A., Tihanyi, J., and Viru, A. 1999. Adaptive responses of human skeletal muscle to vibration exposure. Clinical Physiology 19: 183-187.
Bouchard, C. 2001. Physical activity and health: Introduction to the dose-response symposium. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33(Suppl.): S347-S350.
Bouchard, C. 2008. Gene-environment interactions in the etiology of obesity: Defining the fundamentals. Obesity 16(Suppl.): S5-S10.
Bouchard, C., Perusse, L., Leblanc, C., Tremblay, A., and Theriault, G. 1988. Inheritance of the amount and distribution of human body fat. International Journal of Obesity 12: 205-215.
Bouchard, C., Shephard, R.J., and Stephens, T., eds. 1994. Physical activity, fitness, and health. International proceedings and conference statement. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Bouchard, C., Tremblay, A., Despres, J.P., Nadeau, A., Lupien, P.J., Theriault, G., Dussault, J., Moorjani, S., Pinault, S., and Fournier, G. 1990. The response of long-term overfeeding in identical twins. New England Journal of Medicine 322: 1477-1482.
Bracko, M.R. 2002. Can stretching prior to exercise and sports improve performance and prevent injury. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 6(5): 17-22.
Bracko, M.R. 2004. Can we prevent back injuries? ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 8(4): 5-11.
Brahler, C.J., and Blank, S.E. 1995. VersaClimbing elicits higher $\dot{\mathrm{V}}{ }_{2}$ max than does treadmill running or rowing ergometry. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 249-254.
Braith, R.W., Graves, J.E., Leggett, S.H., and Pollock, M.L. 1993. Effect of training on the relationship between maximal and submaximal strength. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 25: 132-138.
Branch, J.D. 2003. Effect of creatine supplementation on body composition and performance: A meta-analysis. International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism 13: 198-226.
Brandenburg, J.P. 2006. Duration of stretch does not influence the degree of force loss following static stretching. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 46: 526-534.
Brass, E.P. 2000. Supplemental carnitine and exercise. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 72(Suppl): 618S-623S.
Bravata, D.M., Sanders, L., Huang, J., Krumholz, H.M., Olkin, I., Gardner, C.D., Bravata, D.M. 2003. Efficacy and safety of low-carbohydrate diets: A systematic review. Journal of the American Medical Association 289: 1837-1850.
Bravata, D.M., Smith-Spangler, C., Sundaram, V., Gienger, A.L., Lin, N., Lewis, R., Stave, C.D., Olkin, I., and Sirard,
J.R. 2007. Using pedometers to increase physical activity and improve health: A systematic review. Journal of the American Medical Association 298: 2296-2304.
Bray, G.A. 1978. Definitions, measurements and classifications of the syndromes of obesity. International Journal of Obesity 2: 99-113.

Bray, G.A. 2004. The epidemic of obesity and changes in food intake: The fluoride hypothesis. Physiological Behavior 82: 115-121.

Bray, G.A., and Gray, D.S. 1988a. Anthropometric measurements in the obese. In Anthropometric standardization reference manual, ed. T.G. Lohman, A.F. Roche, and R. Martorell, 131-136. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Bray, G.A., and Gray, D.S. 1988b. Obesity. Part I-Pathogenesis. Western Journal of Medicine 149: 429-441.
Brehm, B.A. 1988. Elevation of metabolic rate following exercise-implications for weight loss. Sports Medicine 6: 72-78.

British Heart Foundation. 2004. Statistics database. www. heartstats.org/temp/bloodsppressures2004.pdf.
British Heart Foundation. 2006. Diet, physical activity, and obesity statistics, 2006 edition. www.bhf.org.
British Heart Foundation. 2008. Coronary heart disease statistics, 2007 edition. www.bhf.org.
British Heart Foundation. 2012. Physical activity statistics 2012. www.bhf.org.uk/publications/view-publication. aspx?ps=1001983. Accessed July 26, 2012.

Broadbent, S., Rousseau, J.J., Thorp, R.M., Choate, S.L., Jackson, F.S., and Rowlands, D.S. 2010. Vibration therapy reduces plasma IL6 and muscle soreness after downhill running. British Journal of Sports Medicine 44: 888-894.
Brooks, G.A., Butte, N.F., Rand, W.M., Flatt, J.P., and Caballero, B. 2004. Chronicle of the Institute of Medicine physical activity recommendation: How a physical activity recommendation came to be among dietary recommendations. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 79(Suppl.): 921S-930S.
Brose, A., Parise, G., and Tarnopolsky, M.A. 2003. Creatine supplementation enhances isometric strength and body composition improvements following strength exercise training in older adults. Journals of Gerontology Series A: Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences 58: 11-19.
Brouha, L. 1943. The step test: A simple method of measuring physical fitness for muscular work in young men. Research Quarterly 14: 31-36.
Brown, D.A., and Miller, W.C. 1998. Normative data for strength and flexibility of women throughout life. European Journal of Applied Physiology 78: 77-82.
Brozek, J., Grande, F., Anderson, J.T., and Keys, A. 1963. Densiometric analysis of body composition: Revision of some quantitative assumptions. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 110: 113-140.
Bruce, R.A., Kusumi, F., and Hosmer, D. 1973. Maximal oxygen intake and nomographic assessment of functional
aerobic impairment in cardiovascular disease. American Heart Journal 85: 546-562.
Bryant, C.A., Courtney, A.H., McDermott, R.J., Alfonso, M.L., Baldwin, J.A., Nickelson, J., McCormick-Brown, K.R., DeBate, R.D., Phillips, L.M., Thompson, Z., and Zhu, Y. 2010. Promoting physical activity among youth through community-based prevention marketing. Journal of School Health 80: 214-224.
Bryner, R.W., Ullrich, I.H., Sauers, J., Donley, D., Hornsby, G., Kolar, M., and Yeater, R. 1999. Effects of resistance vs. aerobic training combined with an 800 calorie liquid diet on lean body mass and resting metabolic rate. Journal of the American College of Nutrition 18(2): 115-121.

Brzycki, M. 1993. Strength testing-predicting a one-rep max from reps-to-fatigue. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance 64 (1): 88-90.
Brzycki, M. 2000. Assessing strength. Fitness Management 16(7): 34-37.
Buchholz, A.C., and Schoeller, D.A. 2004. Is a calorie a calorie? American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 79(Suppl.): 899S-906S.

Bunt, J.C., Lohman, T.G., and Boileau, R.A. 1989. Impact of total body water fluctuations on estimation of body fat from body density. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 21: 96-100.

Buresh, R., and Berg, K. 2002. Scaling oxygen uptake to body size and several practical applications. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 16: 461-465.
Burgess, S.E., MacLaughlin, E.J., Smith, P.A., Salcido, A., and Benton, T.J. 2011. Blood pressure rising: Differences between current clinical and recommended measurement techniques. Journal of the American Society of Hypertension 5: 484-488.

Burke, D.G., Culligan, C.J., and Holt, L.E. 2000. The theoretical basis of proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 14: 496-500.
Burke, L.M., Kiens, B., and Ivy, J.L. 2004. Carbohydrates and fat for training and recovery. Journal of Sports Science 22: 15-30.
Bushman, B., ed. 2011. Complete guide to fitness \& health. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Bushman, B. 2012. Neuromotor exercise training. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 16(6): 4-7.
Byrnes, W.C., Clarkson, P.M., and Katch, F.I. 1985. Muscle soreness following resistive exercise with and without eccentric contraction. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 56: 283-285.

Cable, A., Nieman, D.C., Austin, M., Hogen, E., and Utter, A.C. 2001. Validity of leg-to-leg bioelectrical impedance measurement in males. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 41: 411-414.
Callaway, C.W., Chumlea, W.C., Bouchard, C., Himes, J.H., Lohman, T.G., Martin, A.D., Mitchell, C.D., Mueller, W.H., Roche, A.F., and Seefeldt, V.D. 1988. Circumferences. In Anthropometric standardization reference manual, ed. T.G.

Lohman, A.F. Roche, and R. Martorell, 39-54. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Camhi, S.M., Bray, G.A., Bouchard, C., Greenway, F.L., Johnson, W.D., Newton, R.I., Ravussin, E., Ryan, D.H., Smith, S.R., and Katzmarzyk, P.T. 2011. The relationship of waist circumference and BMI to visceral, subcutaneous, and total body fat: Sex and race differences. Obesity 19: 402-408.
Campbell, W.W., and Geik, R.A. 2004. Nutritional considerations for the older athlete. Nutrition 20: 603-608.
Campbell, W.W., Johnson, C.A., McCabe, G.P., and Carnell, N.S. 2008. Dietary protein requirements of younger and older adults. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 88: 1322-1329.
Canadian Fitness \& Lifestyle Research Institute. 2009. 2008 Physical activity monitor: Facts \& figures. Bulletin 2: Physical activity levels of Canadians. www.cflri.ca/media/ node/82/files/PAM2008FactsFigures_Bulletin02_PA_ among_CanadiansEN.pdf. Accessed July 26, 2012.
Canadian Society for Exercise Physiology. 2003. The Canadian physical activity, fitness and lifestyle approach: CSEPHealth \& Fitness Program's Health-Related Appraisal and Counselling Strategy. 3rd ed. Ottawa, ON: Author.
Candow, D.G., Chilibeck, P.D., Abeysekara, S., and Zello, G.A. 2011. Short-term heavy resistance training eliminates age-related deficits in muscle mass and strength in healthy older males. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 326-333.
Canning, P.M., Courage, M.L., and Frizzell, L.M. 2004. Prevalence of overweight and obesity in a provincial population of Canadian preschool children. Canadian Medical Association Journal 171: 240-242.
Carns, M.L., Schade, M.L., Liba, M.R., Hellebrandt, F.A., and Harris, C.W. 1960. Segmental volume reduction by localized and generalized exercise. Human Biology 32: 370-376.
Carpenter, D.M., and Nelson, B.W. 1999. Low back strengthening for the prevention and treatment of low back pain. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31: 18-24.
Carrick-Ranson, G., Hastings, J.L., Bhella, P.S., Shibata, S., Fujimoto, N., Palmer, D., Boyd, K., and Levine, B.D. 2012. The effect of age-related differences in body size and composition on cardiovascular determinants of $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max. Journal of Gerontology doi:10.1093/gerona/gls220. Accessed December 18, 2012.
Carroll, T.J., Barton, J., Hsu, M., and Lee, M. 2009. The effect of strength training on the force of twitches evoked by corticospinal stimulation in humans. Acta Physiologica 197: 161-173.
Carter, N.D., Kannus, P., and Khan, K.M. 2001. Exercise in the prevention of falls in older people. A systematic literature review examining the rationale and the evidence. Sports Medicine 31: 427-438.
Casa, D.L., Armstrong, L.E., Hillman, S.K., Montain, S.J., Reiff, R.V., Rich, B.S.E., Roberts, W.O., and Stone, J.A. 2002. National Athletic Trainers' Association position state-
ment: Fluid replacement for athletes. Journal of Athletic Training 35(2): 21-224.
Casanova, C., Ceili, B.R., Barria, P., Casas, A., Cote, C., de Torres, J.P., Jardim, J., Lopez, M.V., Marin, J.M., Montes de Oca, M., Pinto-Plata, V., and Aguirre-Jaime, A. 2011. The 6 min walk distance in healthy subjects: Reference standards from seven countries. European Respiratory Journal 37: 150-156.
Cassady, S.L., Nielsen, D.H., Janz, K.F., Wu, Y., Cook, J.S., and Hansen, J.R. 1993. Validity of near infrared body composition analysis in children and adolescents. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 25: 1185-1191.
Cataldo, D., and Heyward, V. 2000. Pinch an inch: A comparison of several high-quality and plastic skinfold calipers. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 4(3): 12-16.
Caton, J.R., Mole, P.A., Adams, W.C., and Heustis, D.S. 1988. Body composition analysis by bioelectrical impedance: Effect of skin temperature. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 20: 489-491.
Cavallo, D.N., Tate, D.F., Ries, A.V., Brown, J.D., DeVellis, R.F., and Ammerman, A.S. 2012. A social media-based physical activity intervention: A randomized controlled trial. American Journal of Preventive Medicine 43: 527-532.
Cavill, N., Kahlmeier, S., and Racioppi, F., eds. 2006. Physical activity and health in Europe: Evidence for action. World Health Organization. www.who.int/moveforhealth.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2005. Adult participation in recommended levels of physical activity: United States, 2001 and 2003. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report 54: 1208-1212.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2005. NHANES 2001-2002 data documentation MEC examination. Balance examination (BAX_B). www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nhanes/ nhanes_01_02/bax_b_doc.pdf.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2007. Cigarette smoking among adults-United States, 2006. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report [serial online] 56(44): 1157-1161.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2009. Falls among older adults: An overview. www.cdc.gov/HomeandRecreationalSafety/Falls/adultfalls.html.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2010. Healthy People 2020. www.HealthyPeople.gov. Accessed July 5, 2012.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2011a. Health, United States, 2011. www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/hus/hus11. pdf\#073. Accessed September 8, 2012.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2011b. National diabetes fact sheet: National estimates and general information on diabetes and prediabetes in the United States, 2011. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2012a. Data and statistics—Smoking and Tobacco. Available at www.cdc.
gov/tobacco/data_statistics/index.htm. Accessed September 8. 2012.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2012b. National Center for Health Statistics. Prevalence of obesity among children and adolescents: United States, Trends 1964-1965 through 2007-2008. Accessed July 5, 2012. www.cdc.gov/ nchs/products/hestats.htm.
Chalmers, G. 2004. Re-examination of the possible role of Golgi tendon organ and muscle spindle reflexes in proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation muscle stretching. Sports Biomechanics 3: 159-183.
Chamberlin, B., and Gallagher, R. (May 7, 2008). Exergames: Using video games to promote physical activity. Paper presented at Children, Youth and Families at Risk (CYFAR) Conference, San Antonio, TX.
Chandler, J.M., Duncan, P.W., and Studenski, S.A. 1990. Balance performance on the postural stress test: Comparison of young adults, healthy elderly, and fallers. Physical Therapy 70: 410-415.
Chapman, E.A., deVries, H.A., and Swezey, R. 1972. Joint stiffness: Effects of exercise on young and old men. Journal of Gerontology 27: 218-221.
Charette, S.L., McEvoy, L., Pyka, G., Snow-Harter, C., Guido, D., Wiswell, R.A., and Marcus, R. 1991. Muscle hypertrophy response to resistance training in older women. Journal of Applied Physiology 70: 1912-1916.
Chen, C., Nosaka, K., Chen, H., Lin, M., Tseng, K., and Chen, T.C. 2011. Effects of flexibility training on eccentric exercise-induced muscle damage. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 43: 491-500.
Cheng, H., Gary, L.C., Curtis, J.R., Saag, K.G., Kilgore, M.L., Morrisey, M.A. Matthews, R., Smith, W., Yun, H., and Detzell, E. 2009. Estimated prevalence and patterns of presumed osteoporosis among older Americans on Medicare data. Osteoporosis International 20: 1507-1515.
Cherkas, L.F., Hunkin, J.L., Kato, B.S., Richards, J.B., Gardner, J.P., Surdulescu, G.L., Kimura, M., Lu, X., Spector, T.D., and Aviv, A. 2008. The association between physical activity in leisure time and leukocyte telomere length. Archives of Internal Medicine 168(2): 154-158.
Cheung, A.M., and Giangregorio, L. 2012. Mechanical stimuli and bone health: What is the evidence? Current Opinions in Rheumatology 24: 561-566.
Chewning, B., Yu, T., and Johnson, J. 2000. T'ai chi (part 2): Effects on health. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 4(3): 17-19, 28, 30.
Chillon, P., Castro-Pinero, J., Ruiz, J.R., Soto, V.M., CarbonellBaeza, A., Dafos, J., Vincente-Rodriguez, G., Castillo, M.J., and Ortega, F.B. 2010. Hip flexibility is the main determinant of the back-saver sit-and-reach test in adolescents. Journal of Sport Sciences 28: 641-648.
Cho, G-H., Rodriguez, D.A., and Evenson, K.R. 2011. Identifying walking trips using GPS data. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 43: 365-372.

Chobanian, A.V., Bakris, G.L., Black, H.R., Cushman, W.C., Green, L.A., Izzo, J.L., Jones, D.W., Materson, B.J., Oparil, S., Wright, J.T. Jr., Roccella, E.J., and the National High Blood Pressure Education Coordinating Committee. 2003. The seventh report of the Joint National Committee on prevention, detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure. Hypertension 42: 1206-1252. Also available in Journal of the American Medical Association 289 (2003): 2560-2572.

Chodzko-Zajko, W.J., Proctor, D.N., Fiatarone, S., Maria, A., Minson, C.T., Nigg, C.R., Claudio, R., Salem, G.J., and Skinner, J.S. 2009. Exercise and physical activity for older adults. ACSM position stand. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 1510-1530.
Chung, I., and Lip, G.Y.H. 2003. White coat hypertension: Not so benign after all? Journal of Human Hypertension 17: 807-809.
Cipriani, D., Abel, B., and Pirrwitz, D. 2003. A comparison of two stretching protocols on hip range of motion: Implications for total daily stretch duration. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 17: 274-278.
Clark, B.C., and Manini, T.M. 2008. Sarcopenia $\neq$ dynapenia. Journal of Gerontology 63A: 829-834.
Clark, N. 2008. Nancy Clark's sport nutrition guidebook, 4th ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Clark, R.A., Bryant, A.L., Pua, Y., McCrory, P., Bennell, K., and Hunt, M. 2010. Validity and reliability of the Nintendo Wii balance board for assessment of standing balance. Gait \& Posture 31: 307-310.
Clark, S., Iltis, P.W., Anthony, C.J., and Toews, A. 2005. Comparison of older adult performance during the functionalreach and limits-of-stability tests. Journal of Aging and Physical Activity 13: 266-275.
Clark, S., Rose, D.J., and Fujimoto, K. 1997. Generalizability of the limits of stability test in the evaluation of dynamic balance among older adults. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 78: 1078-1084.
Clarke, D.H. 1975. Exercise physiology. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
Clarke, H.H. 1966. Muscular strength and endurance in man. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
Clarke, H.H., and Monroe, R.A. 1970. Test manual: Oregon cable-tension strength test batteries for boys and girls from fourth grade through college. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon.
Clarkson, P.M. 1990. Tired blood: Iron deficiency in athletes and effects of iron supplementation. Sports Science Exchange 3(28). Gatorade Sports Science Institute, Quaker Oats Co.
Clarkson, P.M., and Haymes, E.M. 1994. Trace mineral requirements for athletes. International Journal of Sport Nutrition 4: 104-119.
Clarkson, P.M., Byrnes, W.C., McCormick, K.M., Turcotte, L.P., and White, J.S. 1986. Muscle soreness and serum
creatine kinase activity following isometric, eccentric and concentric exercise. International Journal of Sports Medicine 7: 152-155.
Clarys, J.P., Martin, A.D., Drinkwater, D.T., and Marfell-Jones, M.J. 1987. The skinfold: Myth and reality. Journal of Sports Sciences 5: 3-33.
Cleary, M.A., Hetzler, R.K., Wages, J.J., Lentz, M.A., Stickley, C.D., and Kimura, I.F. 2011. Comparisons of agepredicted maximum heart rate equations in college-aged subjects. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Resesearch 25:2591-2597.
Clemons, J.M., Duncan, C.A., Blanchard, O.E., Gatch, W.H., Hollander, D.B., and Doucer, J.L. 2004. Relationships between the flexed-arm hang and select measures of muscular fitness. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 18: 630-636.
Cobb, N.K., and Graham, 2012. Health behavior interventions in the age of Facebook. American Journal of Preventive Medicine 43: 571-572.
Cohen, A. 2004. It's getting personal. Athletic Business, July, 52-54, 56, 58, 60.
Colberg, S.R. 2001. The diabetic athlete. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Cole, T.J., Bellizzi, M.C., Flegal, K.M., and Dietz, W.H. 2000. Establishing a standard definition for child overweight and obesity worldwide: International survey. British Medical Journal 320: 1240-1245.
Cole, T.J., and Lobstein, T. 2012. Extended international (IOTF) body mass index cut-offs for thinness, overweight and obesity. Pediatric Obesity 7: 284-294.
Collins, M., Millard-Stafford, M., Sparling, P., Snow, T., Rosskopf, L., Webb, S., and Omer, J. 1999. Evaluation of the Bod Pod for assessing body fat in collegiate football players. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31: 1350-1356.
Comstock, B.A., Solomon-Hill, G., Flanagan, S.D., Earp, J.E., Luk, H.Y., Dobbins, K.A., Dunn-Lewis, C., Fragala, M.S., Ho, J.Y., Hatfield, D.L., Vingren, J.L., Denegar, C.R., Volek, J.S., Kupchak, B.R., Maresh, C.M. and Kraemer, W.J. 2011. Validity of the Myotest in measuring force and power production in the squat and bench press. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 2293-2297.
Conley, D., Cureton, K., Dengel, D., and Weyand, P. 1991. Validation of the $12-\mathrm{min}$ swim as a field test of peak aerobic power in young men. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 23: 766-773.
Conley, D., Cureton, K., Hinson, B., Higbie, E., and Weyand, P. 1992. Validation of the 12 -minute swim as a field test of peak aerobic power in young women. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 63: 153-161.
Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research. 1992. The Prudential FITNESSGRAM test administration manual. Dallas: Author.
Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research. 1994. Fitnessgram user's manual. Dallas: Author.

Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research. 2005. The fitness specialist certification manual. Dallas: Author.
Cooper, K.H. 1968. A means of assessing maximal oxygen intake. Journal of the American Medical Association 203: 201-204.
Cooper, K.H. 1977. The aerobics way. New York: Evans.
Corbin, C.B., Dowell, L.J., Lindsey, R., and Tolson, H. 1978. Concepts in physical education. Dubuque, IA: Brown.
Costa, P.B., Graves, B.S., Whitehurst, M., and Jacobs, P.L. 2009. The acute effects of different durations of static stretching on dynamic balance performance. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 23: 141-147.
Costill, D.L., Coyle, E.F., Fink, W.F., Lesmes, G.R., and Witzmann, F.A. 1979. Adaptations in skeletal muscle following strength training. Journal of Applied Physiology 46: 96-99.
Costill, D.L., and Fox, E.L. 1969. Energetics of marathon running. Medicine and Science in Sports 1: 81-86.
Costill, D.L., Thomason, H., and Roberts, E. 1973. Fractional utilization of the aerobic capacity during distance running. Medicine and Science in Sports 5: 248-252.
Cote, C., Simoneau, J.A., Lagasse, P., Bouley, M., Thibault, M.C., Marcotte, M., and Bouchard, C. 1988. Isokinetic strength training protocols: Do they induce skeletal muscle fiber hypertrophy? Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 69: 281-285.
Cote, D.K., and Adams, W.C. 1993. Effect of bone density on body composition estimates in young adult black and white women. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 25: 290-296.
Cotte, U.V., Faltenbacher, V.H., von Willich, W., and Bogner, J.R. 2008. Trial of validation of two devices for selfmeasurement of blood pressure according to the European Society of Hypertension International Protocol: The Citizen CH-432B and the Citizen CH-656C. Blood Pressure Monitoring 13: 55-62.
Cotten, D.J. 1971. A modified step test for group cardiovascular testing. Research Quarterly 42: 91-95.
Cotten, D.J. 1972. A comparison of selected trunk flexibility tests. American Corrective Therapy Journal 26: 24.
Coyle, E.F. 1995. Fat metabolism during exercise. Sports Science Exchange 8(6). Gatorade Sports Science Institute, Quaker Oats Co.
Coyle, E.F., Feiring, D.C., Rotkis, T.C., Cote, R.W. III, Roby, F.B., Lee, W., and Wilmore, J.H. 1981. Specificity of power improvements through slow and fast isokinetic training. Journal of Applied Physiology 51: 1437-1442.
Crewther, B.T., Kilduff, L.P., Cunningham, D.J., Cook, C., Owen, N. and Yang, G.Z. 2011. Validating two systems for estimating force and power. International Journal of Sports Medicine 32: 254-258.
Cribb, P.J., Williams, A.D., and Hayes, A. 2007. A creatinecarbohydrate supplement enhances responses to resistance training. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 1960-1968.

Cribb, P.J., Williams, A.D., Hayes, A., and Carey, M.F. 2006. The effect of whey isolate on strength, body composition, and plasma glutamine. International Journal of Sports Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism 16: 494-509.

Cribb, P.J., Williams, A.D., Stathis, C.G., Carey, M.F., and Hayes, A. 2007. Effect of whey isolate, creatine, and resistance training on muscle hypertrophy. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 298-307.
Crommett, A., Kravitz, L., Wongsathikun, J., and Kemerly, T. 1999. Comparison of metabolic and subjective response of three modalities in college-age subjects. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31(Suppl.): S158 [abstract].

Crook, T.A., Armbya, N., Cleves, M.A., Badger, T.M., and Andres, A. 2012. Air displacement plethysmography, dualenergy X-ray absorptiometry, and total body water to evaluation body composition in preschool-age children. Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics 112: 1993-1998.
Crouter, S.E., Churilla, J.R., and Bassett, D.R. 2008. Accuracy of the Actiheart for the assessment of energy expenditure in adults. European Journal of Clinical Nutrition 62: 704-711.
Cullinen, K., and Caldwell, M. 1998. Weight training increases fat-free mass and strength in untrained young women. Journal of the American Dietetic Association 98(4): 414-418.

Curb, J.D., Ceria-Ulep, C.D., Rodriquez, B.L., Grove, J., Guralnik, J., Willcox, B.J., Donlon, T.A., Masaki, K.H., and Chen, R. 2006. Performance-based measures of physical function for high-function populations. Journal of the American Geriatrics Society 54: 737-742.
Cureton, K.J., Collins, M.A., Hill, D.W., and McElhannon, F.M. Jr. 1988. Muscle hypertrophy in men and women. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 20: 338-344.
Cureton, K.J., Sloniger, M., O'Bannon, J., Black, D., and McCormack, W. 1995. A generalized equation for prediction of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ peak from 1-mile run/walk performance. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 445-451.
Cureton, K.J., Sparling, P.B., Evans, B.W., Johnson, S.M., Kong, U.D., and Purvis, J.W. 1978. Effect of experimental alterations in excess weight on aerobic capacity and distance running performance. Medicine and Science in Sports 10: 194-199.
Cureton, T.K., and Sterling, L.F. 1964. Interpretation of the cardiovascular component resulting from the factor analysis of 104 test variables measured in 100 normal young men. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 4: 1-24.
Curioni, C.C., and Lourenco, P.M. 2005. Long-term weight loss after diet and exercise: A systematic review. International Journal of Obesity 29: 1168-1174.
da Cunha, F.A., de Tarso Veras Farinatti, P., and Midgley, A.W. 2011. Methodological and practical application issues in exercise prescription using the heart rate reserve and oxygen uptake reserve methods. Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport 14: 46-57.
Dalal, S., Beunza, J.J, Volmink, J., Adebamowo, C., Bajunirwe, F., Njelekela, M., Mozaffarian, D., Fawzi, W., Willett, W, Adami, H-O., and Holmes, M.D. 2011. Non-communicable
diseases in sub-Saharan Africa: What we know now. International Journal of Epidemiology 40: 885-901.
Danaei, G., Finucane, M.M., Lu, Y., Singh, G.M., Cowan, M.J., Paciorek, C.J., Lin, J.K, Farzadfar, F., Khang, Y-H., Stevens, G.A., Rao, M., Ali, M.K., Riley, L.M., Robinson, C.A., and Ezzati, M. 2011. National, regional, and global trends in fasting plasma glucose and diabetes prevalence since 1980: Systematic analysis of health examination surveys and epidemiological studies with 370 country-years and 2.7 million participants. The Lancet 378: 31-40.
Davis, D.S., Quinn, R.O., Whiteman, C.T., Williams, J.D., and Young, C.R. 2008. Concurrent validity of four clinical tests to measure hamstring flexibility. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 22: 583-588.
Davis, J.A., Dorado, S., Keays, K.A., Reigel, R.A., Valencia, K.S., and Pham, P.H. 2007. Reliability and validity of the lung volume measurement made by the Bod Pod body composition system. Clinical Physiology and Functional Imaging 27: 42-46.
Day, J.R., Rossiter, H.B., Coats, E.M., Skasick, A., and Whipp, B.J. 2003. The maximally attainable $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ during exercise in humans: The peak vs. maximum issue. Journal of Applied Physiology 95: 1901-1907.
de Bruin, E.D., Swanenburg, J., Betschon, E., and Murer, K. 2009. A randomized controlled trial investigating motor skill training as a function of attentional focus in old age. BMC Geriatrics 9: 15-24.
Deci, E.L., and Ryan, R.M. 2000. The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. Psychological Inquiry 11(4): 227-268.
deJong, A. 2010. Active video gaming: An opportunity to increase energy expenditure throughout aging. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 14: 44-46.
del Rio-Navarro, B.E., Velazquez-Monroy, O., SanchezCastillo, C.P., Lara-Esqueda, A., Berber, A., Fanghanel, G., Violante, R., Tapia-Conyer, R., and James, W.P.T. 2004. The high prevalence of overweight and obesity in Mexican children. Obesity Research 12: 215-223.
Delecluse, C., Roelants, M., and Verschueren, S. 2003. Strength increase after whole-body vibration compared with resistance training. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 35: 1033-1041.
Demerath, E.W., Guo, S.S., Chumlea, W.C., Towne, B., Roche, A.F., and Siervogel, R.M. 2002. Comparison of percent body fat estimates using air displacement plethysmography and hydrodensitometry in adults and children. International Journal of Obesity and Related Metabolic Disorders 26: 389-397.
Demont, R.G., Lephart, S.M., Giraldo, J.L., Giannantonio, F.P., Yuktanandana, P., and Fu, F.H. 1999. Comparison of two abdominal training devices with an abdominal crunch using strength and EMG measurements. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 39: 253-258.
Dempster, P., and Aitkens, S. 1995. A new air displacement method for the determination of human body composition. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 1692-1697.

Demura, S., Yamaji, S., Goshi, F., Kobayashi, H., Sato, S., and Nagasawa, Y. 2002. The validity and reliability of relative body fat estimates and the construction of new prediction equations for young Japanese adult males. Journal of Sports Sciences 20: 153-164.
Department of Health, Physical Acivity, Health Improvement and Protection. 2011. Start active, stay active: A report on physical activity from the four home countries. Chief Medical Officers: London. Available at www.dh.gov.uk/ prod_consum_dh/groups/dh_digitalassets/documents/ digitalasset/dh_128210.pdf. Accessed September 8, 2012.
Deschenes, M.R., and Kraemer, W.J. 2002. Performance and physiologic adaptations to resistance training. American Journal of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 8(Suppl.): S3-S16.
de Souza, R.J., Swain, J.F., Appel, L.J., and Sacks, F.M. 2008. Alternatives for macronutrient intake and chronic disease: A comparison of the OmniHeart diets with popular diets and with dietary recommendations. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 88: 1-11.
Desgorces, F.D., Berthelot, G., Dietrich, G., and Testa, M.S.A. 2010. Local muscular endurance and prediction of 1 repetition maximum for bench in 4 athletic populations. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 24: 394-400.
Despres, J.P., and Lamarche, B. 1994. Low-intensity endurance training, plasma lipoproteins, and the risk of coronary heart disease. Journal of Internal Medicine 236: 7-22.
Despres, J.P., Bouchard, C., Tremblay, A., Savard, R., and Marcotte, M. 1985. Effects of aerobic training on fat distribution in male subjects. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 17: 113-118.
Deurenberg, P. 2001. Universal cut-off BMI points for obesity are not appropriate. British Journal of Nutrition 85: 135-136.
Deurenberg, P., and Deurenberg-Yap, M. 2001. Differences in body-composition assumptions across ethnic groups: Practical consequences. Current Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care 4: 377-383.
Deurenberg, P., and Deurenberg-Yap, M. 2002. Validation of skinfold thickness and hand-held impedance measurements for estimation of body fat percentage among Singaporean Chinese, Malay and Indian subjects. Asia Pacific Journal of Clinical Nutrition 11: 1-7.
Deurenberg, P., van der Kooy, K., Evers, P., and Hulshof, T. 1990. Assessment of body composition by bioelectrical impedance in a population aged $>60 \mathrm{y}$. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 51: 3-6.
Deurenberg, P., van der Kooy, K., and Leenan, R. 1989. Differences in body impedance when measured with different instruments. European Journal of Clinical Nutrition 43: 885-886.
Deurenberg, P., Weststrate, J.A., Paymans, I., and van der Kooy, K. 1988. Factors affecting bioelectrical impedance measurements in humans. European Journal of Clinical Nutrition 42: 1017-1022.

Deurenberg. P., Weststrate, J.A., and Seidell, J.C. 1991. Body mass index as a measure of body fatness: Age- and sexspecific prediction formulas. British Journal of Nutrition 65: 105-114.
Deurenberg, P., Yap, M., and van Staveren, W.A. 1998. Body mass index and percent body fat: A meta analysis among different ethnic groups. International Journal of Obesity 22: 1164-1171.
Deurenberg-Yap, M., Schmidt, G., van Staveren, W.A., Hautvast, J.G.A.J., and Deurenberg, P. 2001. Body fat measurement among Singaporean Chinese, Malays and Indians: A comparative study using a four-compartment model and different two-compartment models. British Journal of Nutrition 85: 491-498.
deVries, H.A. 1961. Prevention of muscular distress after exercise. Research Quarterly 32: 177-185.
deVries, H.A. 1962. Evaluation of static stretching procedures for improvement of flexibility. Research Quarterly 33: 222-229.
deVries, H.A., and Klafs, C.E. 1965. Prediction of maximal oxygen intake from submaximal tests. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 5: 207-214.
deWeijer, V.C., Gorniak, G.C., and Shamus, E. 2003. The effect of static stretch and warm-up exercise on hamstring length over the course of 24 hours. Journal of Orthopaedic and Sports Physical Therapy 33: 727-733.
Dewit, O., Fuller, N.J., Fewtrell, M.S., Elia, M., and Wells, J.C.K. 2000. Whole body air displacement plethysmography compared with hydrodensitometry for body composition analysis. Archives of Disease in Childhood 82: 159-164.
Dickin, D.C. 2010. Obtaining reliable performance measures on the sensory organization test: Altered testing sequence in young adults. Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine 20: 278-285.
Dickin, D.C., and Clark, S. 2007. Generalizability of the sensory organization test in college-aged males: Obtaining a reliable performance measure. Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine 17: 109-115.
Dickinson, R.V. 1968. The specificity of flexibility. Research Quarterly 39: 792-793.
Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee. 2010. Report of the dietary guidelines advisory committee on the Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010, to the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of Health and Human Services. U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service, Washington, D.C.
Dieterle, T. 2012. Blood pressure measurement-A review. Swiss Medicine Weekly 142:w13517. doi:smw.2012.13517. Accessed October 27, 2012.
Di Pierro, F., Menghi, A.B., Barreca, A., Lucarelli, M., and Calandrelli, A. 2009. Greenselect phytosome as an adjunct to a low-calorie diet for treatment of obesity: A clinical trial. Alternative Medicine Reviews 14: 154-160.
Disch, J., Frankiewicz, R., and Jackson, A. 1975. Construct validation of distance run tests. Research Quarterly 46: 169-176.

Dishman, R.K. 1994. Prescribing exercise intensity for healthy adults using perceived exertion. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 26: 1087-1094.
Dolezal, B.A., and Potteiger, J.A. 1998. Concurrent resistance and endurance training influence basal metabolic rate in nondieting individuals. Journal of Applied Physiology 85: 695-700.

Donahue, B., Turner, D., and Worrell, T. 1994. The use of functional reach as a measurement of balance in boys and girls without disabilities ages 5 to 15 years. Pediatric Physical Therapy 6: 189-193.
Donahue, C.P., Lin, D.H., Kirschenbaum, D.S., and Keesey, R.E. 1984. Metabolic consequence of dieting and exercise in the treatment of obesity. Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology 52: 827-836.

Donnelly, J.R., Brown, T.E., Israel, R.G., Smith-Sintek, S., O'Brien, K.F., and Caslavka, B. 1988. Hydrostatic weighing without head submersion: Description of a method. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 20: 66-69.
Dons, B., Bollerup, K., Bonde-Petersen, F., and Hancke, S. 1979. The effect of weight-lifting exercise related to muscle fiber composition and muscle cross-sectional area in humans. European Journal of Applied Physiology 40: 95-106.
Dorigatti, F., Bonzo, E., Zanier, A., and Palatini, P. 2007. Validation of Heine Gamma G7 (G5) and XXL-LF aneroid devices for blood pressure measurement. Blood Pressure Monitoring 12(1): 29-33.
Dourado, V.Z., and McBurnie, M.A. 2012. Allometric scaling of 6 min walking distance by body mass as a standardized measure of exercise capacity. European Journal of Applied Physiology 112: 2503-2510.
Downs, D.S. 2006. Understanding exercise intention in an ethnically diverse sample of postpartum women. Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology 28: 159-180.
Dubin, D. 2000. Rapid interpretation of EKGs: An interactive course, 6th ed. Tampa: Cover.
Dubow, J., and Fink, M.E. 2011. Impact of hypertension on stroke. Current Atherosclerosis Reports 13: 298-305.
Ducimetier, P., Richard, J., and Cambien, F. 1989. The pattern of subcutaneous fat distribution in middle-aged men and the risk of coronary heart disease: The Paris prospective study. International Journal of Obesity 10: 229-240.

Dudley, G.A., and Fleck, S.J. 1987. Strength and endurance training: Are they mutually exclusive? Sports Medicine 4: 79-85.
Dulloo, A.G., Duret, C., Rohrer, D., Girardier, L., Mensi N., Fathi, M., Chantre, P., and Vandermander, J. 1999. Efficacy of a green tea extract rich in catechin polyphenols and caffeine in increasing 24 h energy expenditure and fat oxidation in humans. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 70: 1040-1045.

Dunbar, C., and Saul, B. 2009. ECG interpretation for the clinical exercise physiologist. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams, and Wilkins.

Dunbar, C.C., Robertson, R.J., Baun, R., Blandin, M.F., Metz, K., Burdett, R., and Goss, F.L. 1992. The validity of regulating exercise intensity by ratings of perceived exertion. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 24: 94-99.
Duncan, P.W., Studenski, S., Chandler, J., and Prescott, B. 1992. Functional reach: Predictive validity in a sample of elderly male veterans. Journal of Gerontology 47(3): M93-M98.
Duncan, P.W., Weiner, D.K., Chandler, J., and Studenski, S. 1990. Functional reach: A new clinical measure of balance. Journal of Gerontology 45: M192-M197.
Dunn, A.L., Marcus, B.H., Kampert, J.B., Garcia, M.E., Kohl, H.W. III, and Blair, S.N. 1999. Project Active-A 24-month randomized trial to compare lifestyle and structured physical activity interventions. Journal of the American Medical Association 281: 327-334.

Durstine J.L., Grandjean, P.W., Cox, C.A., and Thompson, P.D. 2002. Lipids, lipoproteins, and exercise. Journal of Cardiopulmonary Rehabilitation 22: 385-398.
Ebbeling, C., Ward, A., Puleo, E., Widrick, J., and Rippe, J. 1991. Development of a single-stage submaximal treadmill walking test. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 23: 966-973.

Eckert, S., and Horstkotte, D. 2002. Comparison of Portapres non-invasive blood pressure measurement in the finger with intra-aortic pressure measurement during incremental bicycle exercise. Blood Pressure Monitoring 7: 179-183.
Edgerton, V.R. 1970. Morphology and histochemistry of the soleus muscle from normal and exercised rats. American Journal of Anatomy 127: 81-88.
Edgerton, V.R. 1973. Exercise and the growth and development of muscle tissue. In Physical activity, human growth and development, ed. G.L. Rarick, 1-31. New York: Academic Press.

Edwards, D.A., Hammond, W.H., Healy, M.J., Tanner, J.M., and Whitehouse, R.H. 1955. Design and accuracy of calipers for measuring subcutaneous tissue thickness. British Journal of Nutrition 9: 133-143.
Edwards, H.L., Simpson, J.A.R., and Buchholz, A.C. 2011. Air displacement plethysmography for fat-mass measurement in healthy young women. Canadian Journal for Dietetic Practice and Research 72: 85-87.

Egan B., Carson, B.P., Garcia-Roves, P.M., Chibalin, A.V., Sarsfield, F.M., Barron, N., McCaffrey, N., Moyna, N.M., Zierath, J.R., and O'Gorman, D.J. 2010. Exercise intensitydependent regulation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor coactivator- 1 mRNA abundance is associated with differential activation of upstream signalling kinases in human skeletal muscle. Journal of Physiology 15:1779-1790.
Eickhoff-Shemek, J., and Herbert, D.L. 2007. Is licensure in your future?: Issues to consider-part 1. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 11(5): 35-37.
Eickhoff-Shemek, J., and Herbert, D.L. 2008a. Is licensure in your future?: Issues to consider-part 2. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 12 (1): 36-38.

Eickhoff-Shemek, J., and Herbert, D.L. 2008b. Is licensure in your future?: Issues to consider—part 3.ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 12 (3): 36-38.
El Feghali, R.N., Topouchian, J.A., Pannier, B.M., El Assaad, H.A., and Asmar, R.G. 2007. Validation of the OMRON M7 (HEM-780-E) blood pressure measuring device in a population requiring large cuff use according to the International Protocol of the European Society of Hypertension. Blood Pressure Monitoring 12(3): 173-178.
Elia, M., Parkinson, S.A., and Diaz, E. 1990. Evaluation of near infra-red interactance as a method for predicting body composition. European Journal of Clinical Nutrition 44: 113-121.

Elliott, W.J., Young, P.E., DeVivo, L., Feldstein, J., and Black, H.R. 2007. A comparison of two sphygmomanometers that may replace the traditional mercury column in the healthcare workplace. Blood Pressure Monitoring 12(1): 23-28.
Ellis, K.J., Bell, S.J., Chertow, G.M., Chumlea, W.C., Knox, T.A., Kotler, D.P., Lukaski, H.C., and Schoeller, D.A. 1999. Bioelectrical impedance methods in clinical research: A follow-up to the NIH technology assessment conference. Nutrition 15: 874-880.
Elsen, R., Siu, M.L., Pineda, O., and Solomons, N.W. 1987. Sources of variability in bioelectrical impedance determinations in adults. In In vivo body composition studies, ed. K.J. Ellis, S. Yasamura, and W.D. Morgan, 184-188. London: Institute of Physical Sciences in Medicine.
Emery, C.A. 2003. Is there a clinical standing balance measurement appropriate for use in sports medicine? A review of the literature. Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport 6: 492-504.
Emery, C.A., Cassidy, J.D., Klassen, T.P., Rosychuk, R.J., and Rowe, B.H. 2005. Development of a clinical static and dynamic standing balance measurement tool appropriate for use in adolescents. Physical Therapy 85(6): 502-514.
Enwemeka, C.S. 1986. Radiographic verification of knee goniometry. Scandinavian Journal of Rehabilitation Medicine 18: 47-49.
Epstein, L.H., Beecher, M.D., Graf, J.L., and Roemmich, J.L. 2007. Choice of interactive dance and bicycle games in overweight and non-overweight youth. Annals of Behavioral Medicine 33: 124-131.
Ervin, R.B. 2009. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome among adults 20 years of age and over, by sex, age, race and ethnicity, and body mass index: United States, 2003-2006. National Health Statistics Reports number 13. www.cdc. gov/nchs/data/nhsr/nhsr013.pdf. Accessed September 8, 2012.

Esco, M.R., Olson, M.S., Williford, H.N., Lizana, S.N., and Russell, A.R. 2011. The accuracy of hand-to-hand bioelectrical impedance analysis in predicting body composition in college-age female athletes. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 1040-1045.
Esmarck, B., Andersen, J.L., Olsen, S., Richter, E.A., Mizuno, M., and Kjaer, M. 2001. Timing of postexercise protein intake is important for muscle hypertrophy with resis-
tance training in elderly humans. Journal of Physiology, 535:301-311.
Etnyre, B.R., and Abraham, L.D. 1986. H-reflex changes during static stretching and two variations of proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation techniques. Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology 63: 174-179.
Ettinger, B., Genault, H.K., and Cann, C.E. 1987. Postmenopausal bone loss is prevented by treatment with low-dosage estrogen with calcium. Annals of Internal Medicine 106: 40-45.
Evans, E.M., Rowe, D.A., Misic, M.M., Prior, B.M., and Arngrimsson, S.A. 2005. Skinfold prediction equation for athletes developed using a four-component model. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 37: 2006-2011.
Evans, J., Lambert, M.I., Micklesfield, L.K., Goedecke, J.H., Jennings, C.L., Savides, L., Claassen, A., and Lambert, E.V. 2013. Near infrared reactance for the estimation of body fatness in regularly exercising individuals. International Journal of Sports Medicine doi: 10.1055/s-0032-1331716.
Evans, W., and Rosenberg, I. 1992. Biomarkers. New York: Simon \& Schuster.
Evers, K.E., Johnson, J.L., Cummins, C.O., Prochaska, J.O., Prochaska, J.M, Padula, J., and Gokbayrak, N.S. 2012. Results of a transtheoretical model-based alcohol, tobacco and other drug intervention in middle schools. Addictive Behaviors 37: 1009-1018.
Fagard, R.H. 1999. Physical activity in the prevention and treatment of hypertension in the obese. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31(Suppl.): S624-S630.
Fahey, T.D., Rolph, R., Moungmee, P., Nagel, J., and Mortara, S. 1976. Serum testosterone, body composition, and strength of young adults. Medicine and Science in Sports 8: 31-34.
Faigenbaum, A.D., Kraemer, W.J., Blimkie, C.J.R., Jeffreys, I., Micheli, L.J., Nitka, M., and Rowland, T.W. 2009. Youth resistance training: Updated position statement paper from the National Strength and Conditioning Association. Journal of Strength \& Conditioning Research 23: S60-S79.
Faigenbaum, A.D., Milliken, L.A., and Westcott, W.L. 2003. Maximal strength testing in healthy children. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 17: 162-166.
Faigenbaum, A.D., and Myer, G.D. 2011. Exercise deficit disorder: Play now or pay later. Current Sports Medicine Reports 11: 196-200.
Faigenbaum, A.D., Westcott, W.L., Loud, R.L., and Long, C. 1999. The effects of different resistance training protocols on muscular strength and endurance development in children. Pediatrics 104(1): e5.
Fairbarn, M.S., Blackie, S.P., McElvaney, N.G., Wiggs, B.R., Pare, P.D., and Purdy, R.L. 1994. Prediction of heart rate and oxygen uptake during incremental and maximal exercise in healthy adults. Chest 105: 1365-1369.
Farrar, R.E., Mayhew, J.L., and Koch, A.J. 2010. Oxygen cost of kettlebell swings. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 24:1034-1036.

Feigenbaum, M.S., and Pollock, M.L. 1999. Prescription of resistance training for health and disease. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31: 38-45.
Feland, J.B., Hawks, M., Hopkins, J.T., Hunter, I., Johnson, A.W., and Eggett, D.L. 2010. Whole-body vibration as an adjunct to static stretching. International Journal of Sports Medicine 31: 584-589.
Feland, J.B., Myrer, J.W., Schulthies, S.S., Fellingham, G.W., and Measom, G.W. 2001. The effect of duration of stretching of the hamstring muscle group for increasing range of motion in people aged 65 years or older. Physical Therapy 81: 1110-1117.

Felisberto, F., Costa, N., Fdez-Riverola, F., and Pereira, A. 2012. Unobstructive body area networks (BAN) for efficient movement monitoring. Sensors 12: 12473-12488.
Fenstermaker, K., Plowman, S., and Looney, M. 1992. Validation of the Rockport walking test in females 65 years and older. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 63: 322-327.
Ferber, R., Osternig, L., and Gravelle, D. 2002. Effect of PNF stretch techniques on knee flexor muscle EMG activity in older adults. Journal of Electromyography and Kinesiology 12: 391-397.
Ferland, M., Despres, J.P., Tremblay, A., Pinault, S., Nadeau, A., Moorjani, S., Lupien, P.J., Theriault, G., and Bouchard, C. 1989. Assessment of adipose distribution by computed axial tomography in obese women: Association with body density and anthropometric measurements. British Journal of Nutrition 61: 139-148.
Fess, E.E. 1992. Grip Strength. In Clinical assessment recommendations, American Society of Hand Therapists, 41-45, Chicago, IL: American Society of Hand Therapists.
Fiatarone, M.A., Marks, E.C., Ryan, N.D., Meredith, C.N., Lipstiz, L.A., and Evans, W.J. 1991. High-intensity strength training in nonagenarians. Effects on skeletal muscle. Journal of the American Medical Association 263: 3029-3034.
Fields, D.A., and Allison, D.B. 2012. Air-displacement plethysmography pediatric option in 2-6 year olds using the four-compartment model as a criterion method. Obesity 20: 1732-1737.
Fields, D.A., and Goran, M.I. 2000. Body composition techniques and the four-compartment model in children. Journal of Applied Physiology 89: 6113-620.
Fields, D.A., Goran, M.I., and McCrory, M.A. 2002. Bodycomposition assessment via air-displacement plethysmography in adults and children: A review. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 75: 453-467.
Fields, D.A., Hunter, G.R., and Goran, M.I. 2000. Validation of the Bod Pod with hydrostatic weighing: Influence of body clothing. International Journal of Obesity 24: 200-205.
Fields, D.A., Wilson, G.D., Gladden, L.B., Hunter, G.R., Pascoe, D.D., and Goran, M.I. 2001. Comparison of the Bod Pod with the four-compartment model in adult females. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33: 1605-1610.
Fifth Joint Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology. 2012. European guidelines on cardiovascular disease
prevention in clinical practice. European Heart Journal. doi:10.1093/eurheartj/ehs092. Accessed September 4, 2012.
Finucane, M.M., Stevens, G.A., Cowan, M.J., Danaei, G., Lin, J.K., Paciorek, C.J., Singh, G.M., Gutierrez, H.R., Lu, Y., Bahalim, A.N., Farzadfar, F., Riley, L.M., and Ezzati, M. 2011. National, regional, and global trends in body-mass index since 1980: Systematic analysis of health examination surveys and epidemiological studies with 960 country-years and 9.1 million participants. Lancet 377: 557-567.
Fitness Canada. 1986. Canadian standardized test of fitness (CSTF) operations manual, 3rd ed., Ottawa, ON: Fitness and Amateur Sport Canada.
Fleck, S.J. 1999. Periodized strength training: A critical review. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 13(1): 82-89.
Fleck, S.J., and Falkel, J.E. 1986. Value of resistance training for the reduction of sports injuries. Sports Medicine 3: 61-68.
Fleck, S.J., and Kraemer, W.J. 2004. Designing resistance training programs. 3rd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Flegal, K.M., Carroll, M.D., Ogden, C.L., and Johnson, C.L. 2002. Prevalence and trends in obesity among U.S. adults, 1999-2000. Journal of the American Medical Association 288(14): 1723-1727.
Flegal, K.M., Carroll, M.D., Kit, B.K., and Ogden, C.L. 2012. Prevalence of obesity and trends in the distribution of body mass index among US adults, 1999-2010. Journal of the American Medical Association 307: 491-497.
Flegal, K.M., Shepherd, J.A., Looker, A.C., Graubard, B.I., Borrud, L.G., Ogden, C.L., Harris, T.B., Everhart, J.E., and Schenker, N. 2009. Comparisons of percentage body fat, body mass index, waist circumference, and waist-stature ratio in adults. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 89: 500-508.
FMpulse. 2004. Standards sought for personal trainers. Fitness Management 20(6): 16.
Fogelholm, G.M., Sievanan, H.T., Kukkonen-Harjula, K. Oja, P. and Vuori, I. 1993. Effects of a meal and its electrolytes on bioelectrical impedance. In Human body composition: In vivo methods, models and assessment, ed. K.J. Ellis and J.D. Eastman, 331-332. New York: Plenum Press.

Fogg, B.J. 2003. Persuasive technology: Using computers to change what we think and do. New York: Morgan Kaufmann.
Fogg, B.J., and Eckles, D., eds. 2007. Mobile persuasion: 20 perspectives on the future of behavior change. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University.
Fohlin, L. 1977. Body composition, cardiovascular and renal function in adolescent patients with anorexia nervosa. Acta Paediatrica Scandinavica 268(Suppl.): S7-S20.
Foley, L., and Maddison, R. 2010. Use of active video games to increase physical activity in children: A virtual reality. Pediatric Exercise Science 22: 7-20.
Forbes, G.B. 1976. Adult decline in the lean body mass. Human Biology 48: 151-173.

Forbes, S.C., Little, J.P., and Candow, D.G. 2012. Exercise and nutritional interventions for improving aging muscle health. Endocrine 42: 29-38.
Fornetti, W.C., Pivarnik, J.M., Foley, J.M., and Fiechtner, J.J. 1999. Reliability and validity of body composition measures in female athletes. Journal of Applied Physiology 87: 1114-1122.
Fort, A., Romero, D., Bagur, C., and Guerra, M. 2012. Effects of whole-body vibration training on explosive strength and postural control in young female athletes. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 926-936.
Foster, C., Jackson, A.S., Pollock, M.L., Taylor, M.M., Hare, J., Sennett, S.M., Rod, J.L., Sarwar, M., and Schmidt, D.H. 1984. Generalized equations for predicting functional capacity from treadmill performance. American Heart Journal 107: 1229-1234.
Foster, C., Pollock, M.L., Rod, J.L., Dymond, D.S., Wible, G., and Schmidt, D.H. 1983. Evaluation of functional capacity during exercise radionuclide angiography. Cardiology 70: 85-93.
Foster, G.D., Wyatt, H.R., Hill, J.O., McGuckin, B.G., Brill, C., Selma Mohammed, B., Szapary, P.O., Rader, D.J., Edman, J.S., and Klien, S. 2003. A randomized trial of a low-carbohydrate diet for obesity. New England Journal of Medicine 348: 2082-2090.
Foster-Powell, K., and Miller, J. 1995. International tables of glycemic index. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 62: 871S-893S.
Fowles, J.R., Sale, D.G., and MacDougall, J.D. 2000. Reduced strength after passive stretch of the human plantar flexors. Journal of Applied Physiology 89: 1179-1188.
Fox, E.L. 1973. A simple, accurate technique for predicting maximal aerobic power. Journal of Applied Physiology 35: 914-916.
Franchignoni, F., Tesio, L., Martino, M.T., and Ricupero, C. 1998. Reliability of four simple, quantitative tests of balance and mobility in healthy elderly females. Aging 10(1): 26-31.
Francis, P.R., Kolkhorst, F.W., Pennuci, M., Pozos, R.S., and Buono, M.J. 2001. An electromyographic approach to the evaluation of abdominal exercises. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 5(4): 8-14.
Freedman, D.S., Blanck, J.M., Dietz, W.H., DasMahapatra, P., Srinivasan, S.R., and Berenson, G.S. 2012. Is the body adiposity index (hip circumference/height ${ }^{1.5}$ ) more related to skinfold thicknesses and risk factor levels than is BMI? The Bogalusa Heart Study. British Journal of Nutrition doi:10.1017/S0007114512000979.

Friden, J. 2002. Delayed onset muscle soreness. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports 12: 327-328.
Friden, J., Sjostrom, M., and Ekblom, B. 1983. Myofibrillar damage following intense eccentric exercise in man. International Journal of Sports Medicine 4: 170-176.
Friedenreich, C.M., and Cust, A.E. 2008. Physical activity and breast cancer risk: Impact of timing, type and dose of
activity and population subgroup effects. British Journal of Sports Medicine 42: 636-647.
Friedl, K.E., DeLuca, J.P., Marchitelli, L.J., and Vogel, J.A. 1992. Reliability of body-fat estimations from a fourcompartment model by using density, body water, and bone mineral measurements. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 55: 764-770.
Frisancho, A.R. 1984. New standard of weight and body composition by frame size and height for assessment of nutritional status of adults and the elderly. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 40: 808-819.
Frohlich, M., Emrich, E., and Schmidtbleicher, D. 2010. Outcome effects of single-set versus multiple-set training-An advanced replication study. Research in Sports Medicine 18: 157-175.
Frontera, W.R., Meredith, C.N., O'Reilly, K.P., Knuttgen, H.G., and Evans, W.J. 1988. Strength conditioning in older men: Skeletal muscle hypertrophy and improved function. Journal of Applied Physiology 64: 1038-1044.
Fry, A.C. 2004. The role of resistance exercise intensity on muscle fibre adaptations. Sports Medicine 34: 663-679.
Fuller, N.J., Sawyer, M.B., and Elia, M. 1994. Comparative evaluation of body composition methods and predictions, and calculation of density and hydration fraction of fat-free mass, in obese women. International Journal of Obesity 18: 503-512.
Gajdosik, R.L., Vander Linden, D.W., and Williams, A.K. 1999. Influence of age on length and passive elastic stiffness characteristics of the calf muscle-tendon unit of women. Physical Therapy 79: 827-838.
Gallagher, D., Visser, M., Sepulveda, D., Pierson, R.N., Harris, T., and Heymsfield, S.B. 1996. How useful is body mass index for comparison of body fatness across age, sex, and ethnic groups? American Journal of Epidemiology 143: 228-239.
Gallagher, M.R., Walker, K.Z., and O'Dea, K. 1998. The influence of a breakfast meal on the assessment of body composition using bioelectrical impedance. European Journal of Clinical Nutrition 52: 94-97.
Gallus, S., Muttarak, R., Martinez-Sanchez, J.M., Zuccaro, P., Colombo, P., and La Vecchia, C. 2011. Smoking prevalence and smoking attributable mortality in Italy, 2010. Preventive Medicine 52:434-438.
Garber, C.E., Blissmer, B., Deschenes, M.R., Franklin, B.A., Lamonte, M.J., Lee, I., Nieman, D.C., and Swain, D.P. 2011. Quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory, musculoskeletal, and neuromotor fitness in apparently healthy adults: Guidance for prescribing exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 43: 1334-1359.
Garcia, T.B., and Holtz, N.E. 2003. Introduction to 12-Lead ECG: The art of interpretation. Studbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett.

Geisler, S., Brinkmann, C., Schiffer, T., Kreutz, T., Bloch, W., and Brixius, K. 2011. The influence of resistance training on patients with metabolic syndrome - significance of changes in muscle fiber size and muscle fiber distribution. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25:2598-2604.
Gellish, R.L., Goslin, B.R., Olson, R.E., McDonald, A., Russi, G.D., and Moudgil, V.K. 2007. Longitudinal modeling of the relationship between age and maximal heart rate. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 822-829.
Genton, L., Hans, D., Kyle, U.G., and Pichard, C. 2002. Dualenergy X-ray absorptiometry and body composition: Differences between devices and comparison with reference methods. Nutrition 18: 66-70.

Genton, L., Karsegard, V.L., Kyle, U.G., Hans, D.B., Michel, J.P., and Pichard, C. 2001. Comparison of four bioelectrical impedance analysis formulas in healthy elderly subjects. Gerontology 47: 315-323.
George, J., Vehrs, P., Allsen, P., Fellingham, G., and Fisher, G. 1993. $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max estimation from a submaximal 1-mile track jog for fit college-age individuals. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 25: 401-406.
Gettman, L.R., Ayres, J.J., Pollock, M.L., and Jackson, A. 1978. The effect of circuit weight training on strength, cardiorespiratory function, and body composition of adult men. Medicine and Science in Sports 10: 171-176.
Gettman, L.R., and Pollock, M.L. 1981. Circuit weight training: A critical review of its physiological benefits. The Physician and Sportsmedicine 9: 44-60.
Gibbons, R.J., Balady, G.J., Bricker, J.T., Chaitman, B.R., Fletcher, G.F., Froelicher, V.F., Mark, D.B., McCallister, B.D., Mooss, A.N., O'Reilly, M.G., and Winters, W.L. Jr. 2002. ACC/AHA 2002 guideline update for exercise testing: A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee on Exercise Testing). www.acc.org/clinical/ guidelines/exercise/dirIndex.htm.
Gibson, A., Heyward, V., and Mermier, C. 2000. Predictive accuracy of Omron Body Logic Analyzer in estimating relative body fat of adults. International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism 10: 216-227.
Gibson, A.L., Holmes, J.C., Desautels, R.L., Edmonds, L.B., and Nuudi, L. 2008. Ability of new octapolar bioimpedance spectroscopy analyzers to predict 4-component-model percentage body fat in Hispanic, black, and white adults. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 87: 332-338.
Gillman, M.W. 2008. The first months of life: A critical period for development of obesity. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 87: 1587-1589.

Girouard, C.K., and Hurley, B.F. 1995. Does strength training inhibit gains in range of motion from flexibility training in older adults? Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 1444-1449.

Gledhill, N., and Jamnik, R. 1995. Determining power outputs for cycle ergometers with different sized flywheels. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 134-135.

Gleichauf, C.N., and Rose, D.A. 1989. The menstrual cycle's effect on the reliability of bioimpedance measurements for assessing body composition. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 50: 903-907.

Goldberg, A., Etlinger, J., Goldspink, D., and Jablecki, C. 1975. Mechanism of work-induced hypertrophy of skeletal muscle. Medicine and Science in Sports 7: 185-198.
Goldenberg, L., and Twist, P. 2007. Strength ball training. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Golding, L. 2000. The Y's way to physical fitness. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Goldman, H.I., and Becklake, M.R. 1959. Respiratory function tests: Normal values at medium altitudes and the prediction of normal results. American Review of Tuberculosis and Respiratory Diseases 79: 457-467.
Gonyea, W.J., Ericson, G.C., and Bonde-Petersen, F. 1977. Skeletal muscle fiber splitting induced by weight-lifting exercise in cats. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 99: 105-109.

Gonzalez-Rave, J.M., Sanchez-Gomez, A., and SantosGarcia, D.J. 2012. Efficacy of two different stretch training programs (passive vs. proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation) on shoulder and hip range of motion in older people. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 1045-1051.

Goodman, J.M., Thomas, S.G., and Burr, J. 2011. Evidencebased risk assessment and recommendations for exercise testing and physical activity clearance in apparently healthy individuals. Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism 36: S14-S32.
Goran, M.I., Allison, D.B., and Poehlman, E.T. 1995. Issues relating to normalization of body fat content in men and women. International Journal of Obesity 19: 638-643.
Goran, M.I., Toth, M.J., and Poehlman, E.T. 1998. Assessment of research-based body composition techniques in healthy elderly men and women using the 4 -component model as a criterion method. International Journal of Obesity 22: 135-142.
Gordon, D.J., Probstfield, J.L., Garrison, R.J., Neaton, J.D., Castelli, W.P., Knoke, J.D., Jacobs, D.R., Bangdiwala, S., and Tyroler, H.A. 1989. High-density lipoprotein cholesterol and cardiovascular disease: Four prospective American studies. Circulation 79: 8-15.
Gordon-Larsen, P., Hou, N., Sidney, S., Sternfeld, B., Lewis, C., Jacobs Jr., D., and Popkin, B. 2009. Fifteen-year longitudinal trends in walking patterns and their impact on weight change. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 89: 19-26.
Gormley, S.E., Swain, D.P., High, R., Spina, R.J., Dowling, E.A., Kotipalli, U.S., and Gandrakota, R. 2008. Effect of intensity of aerobic training on $\dot{V O}_{2}$ max. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40: 1336-1343.
Gosselin, L.E., Kozlowski, K.F., de Vinney-Boymel, L., and Hambridge, C. 2012. Metabolic response of different highintensity aerobic interval exercise protocols. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 2866-2871.

Goto, K., Ishii, N., Sugihara, S., Yoshioka, T., and Takamatsu, K. 2007. Effects of resistance exercise on lipolysis during subsequent submaximal exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 308-315.
Granacher, U. 2011. Balance and strength performance in children, adolescents, and seniors. Hamburg, Germany: Verlag Dr. Kovac.
Granacher, U., Gruber, M., and Gollhofer. 2010. Force production capacity and functional reflex activity in young and elderly men. Aging Clinical and Experimental Research 22: 374-382.
Granacher, U., Meuhlbauer, T., Zahner, L., Gollhofer, A., and Kressig, R.W. 2011. Comparison of traditional and recent approaches in the promotion of balance and strength in older adults. Sport Medicine 41: 377-400.
Granacher, U., Muehlbauer, T., and Gruber, M. 2012. A qualitative review of balance and strength performance in healthy older adults: Impact for testing and training. Journal of Aging Research 2012: 708905. doi: 10.1155/2012/708905. Accessed November 30, 2012.
Graves, J.D., Webb, M., Pollock, M.L., Matkozich, J., Leggett, S.H., Carpenter, D.M., Foster, D.N., and Cirulli, J. 1994. Pelvic stabilization during resistance training: Its effect on the development of lumbar extension strength. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 75: 211-215.
Graves, J.E., Pollock, M.L., Colvin, A.B., Van Loan, M., and Lohman, T.G. 1989. Comparison of different bioelectrical impedance analyzers in the prediction of body composition. American Journal of Human Biology 1: 603-611.
Graves, L., Stratton, G., Ridgers, N.D., and Cable, N.T. 2007. Comparison of energy expenditure in adolescents when playing new generation and sedentary computer games: Cross-sectional study. British Medical Journal 335: 1282-1284.
Graves, L.E.F., Ridgers, N.D., and Stratton, G. 2008. The contribution of upper limb and total body movement to adolescents' energy expenditure whilst playing Nintendo Wii. European Journal of Applied Physiology 104: 617-623.
Gray, D.S., Bray, G.A., Gemayel, N., and Kaplan, K. 1989. Effect of obesity on bioelectrical impedance. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 50: 255-260.
Greene, P.F., Durall, C.J., and Kernozek, T.W. 2012. Intersession reliability and concurrent validity of isometric endurance tests for the lateral trunk muscles. Journal of Sport Rehabilitation 21: 161-166.
Greene, W.B., and Heckman, J.D. 1994. The clinical measurement of joint motion. Rosemont, IL: American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons.
Grembowski, D., Patrick, D., Diehr, P., Durham, M., Beresford, S., Kay, E., and Hecht, J. 1993. Self-efficacy and health behavior among older adults. Journal of Health and Social Behavior 34(6): 89-104.
Grenier, S.G., Russell, C., and McGill, S.M. 2003. Relationships between lumbar flexibility, sit-and-reach test, and a previous history of low back discomfort in industrial workers. Canadian Journal of Applied Physiology 28: 165-177.

Gribble, P.A., and Hertel, J. 2003. Considerations for normalizing measures of the star excursion balance test. Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science 7: 89-100.
Grier, T.D., Lloyd, L.K., Walker, J.L., and Murray, T.D. 2002. Metabolic cost of aerobic dance bench stepping at varying cadences and bench heights. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 16: 242-249.
Griffin, S., Robergs, R., and Heyward, V. 1997. Assessment of exercise blood pressure: A review. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 29: 149-159.
Gruber, J.J., Pollock, M.L., Graves, J.E., Colvin, A.B., and Braith, R.W. 1990. Comparison of Harpenden and Lange calipers in predicting body composition. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 61: 184-190.
Grundy, S.M. 2008. Metabolic syndrome pandemic. Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology 28: 629-636.
Guariglia, D.A., Pereira, L.M., Dias, J.M., Pereira, H.M., Menacho, M.O., Silva, D.A., Ayrino, E.S., and Cardoso, J.R. 2011. Time-of-day effect on hip flexibility associated with the modified sit-and-reach test in males. International Journal of Sports Medicine 32: 947-952.
Gude, D. 2012. How full is our antihypertensive pipeline? Journal of Pharmacology \& Pharmacotherapeutics 3:7-11.
Gudivaka, R., Schoeller, D., and Kushner, R.F. 1996. Effect of skin temperature on multifrequency bioelectrical impedance analysis. Journal of Applied Physiology 81: 838-845.
Guidetti, L., Sgadari, A., Buzzachera, C.F., Broccatelli, M., Utter, A.C., Goss, F.L., and Baldari, C. 2011. Validation of the OMNI-Cycle Scale of Perceived Exertion in the elderly. Journal of Aging and Physical Activity 19: 214-224.
Guimaraes, R.M., and Isaacs, B. 1980. Characteristics of gait in old people who fall. International Rehabilitation Medicine 2: 177-180.
Guskiewicz, K.M., and Perrin, D.H. 1996. Research and clinical applications of assessing balance. Journal of Sport Rehabilitation 5: 45-63.
Gustavsen, P.H., Hoegholm, A., Bang, L.E., and Kristensen, K.S. 2003. White coat hypertension is a cardiovascular risk factor. A 10-year follow-up study. Journal of Human Hypertension 17: 811-817.
Guy, J.A., and Micheli, L.J. 2001. Strength training for children and adolescents. Journal of the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons 9: 29-36.
Habash, D. 2002. Tactile and interpersonal techniques for fatfold anthropometry. School of Medicine. Ohio State Unversity. Unpublished paper.
Habib, Z., and Westcott, S. 1998. Assessment of anthropometric factors on balance tests in children. Pediatric Physical Therapy 10: 101-109.
Hagerman, F. 1993. Concept II rowing ergometer nomogram for prediction of maximal oxygen consumption [abstract]. Morrisville, VT: Concept II.
Hallal, P.C., Andersen, L.B., Ball, F.C., Guthold, R., Haskell, W., and Eekelund, U. 2012. Global physical activity levels:
surveillance progress, pitfalls, and prospects. Lancet 280: 247-257.
Han, K., Ricard, M.D., and Fellingham, G.W. 2009. Effects of a 4-week exercise program on balance using elastic tubing as a perturbation force for individuals with a history of ankle sprains. Journal of Orthopaedic \& Sports Physical Therapy 39: 246-255.
Hansen, D., Jacobs, N., Bex, S., D'Haene, G., Dendale, Pl, and Claes, N. 2011. Are fixed-rate step tests medically safe for assessing physical fitness? European Journal of Applied Physiology 111: 2593-2599.
Harridge, S.D. 2007. Plasticity of human skeletal muscle: Gene expression to in vivo function. Experimental Physiology 92: 783-797.

Harris, J.A., and Benedict, F.G. 1919. A biometric study of basal metabolism in man (publication no. 279). Washington, D.C.: Carnegie Institute.
Harris, M.L. 1969. A factor analytic study of flexibility. Research Quarterly 40: 62-70.
Harrison, G.G., Buskirk, E.R., Carter, L.J.E., Johnston, F.E., Lohman, T.G., Pollock, M.L., Roche, A.F., and Wilmore, J.H. 1988. Skinfold thicknesses and measurement technique. In Anthropometric standardization reference manual, ed. T.G. Lohman, A.F. Roche, and R. Martorell, 55-70. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Hartley, L.H. 1975. Growth hormone and catecholamine response to exercise in relation to physical training. Medicine and Science in Sports 7: 34-36.
Hartley, L.H., Mason, J.W., Hogan, R.P., Jones, L.G., Kotchen, T.A., Mougey, E.H., Wherry, R., Pennington, L., and Ricketts, P. 1972. Multiple hormonal responses to graded exercise in relation to physical conditioning. Journal of Applied Physiology 33: 602-606.

Hartley-O'Brien, S.J. 1980. Six mobilization exercises for active range of hip flexion. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 51: 625-635.
Harvard School of Public Health. 2004. Food Pyramids. www. hsph.harvard.edu/nutritionsource/pyramids.html.
Haskell, W.L., Lee, I.M., Pate, R.R., Powell, K.E., Blair, S.N., Franklin, B.A., Macera, C.A., Heath, G.W., Thompson, P.D., and Bauman, A. 2007. Physical activity and public health: Updated recommendation for adults from the American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart Association. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39(8): 1423-1434.
Hass, C.J., Garzarella, L., De Hoyas, D., and Pollock, M. 2000. Single versus multiple sets in long-term recreational weightlifters. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32: 235-242.

Hasson, R.E., Haller, J., Pober, D.M., Staudenmayer, J., and Freedson, P.S. 2009. Validity of the Omron HJ-112 pedometer during treadmill walking. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 805-809.
Hather, B.M., Tesch, P.A., Buchanan, P., and Dudley, G.A. 1991. Influence of eccentric actions on skeletal muscle adapta-
tions to resistance training. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 143: 177-185.
Hawk, C., Hyland, J.K., Rupert, R., Colonvega, M., and Hall, S. 2006. Assessment of balance and risk for falls in a sample of community-dwelling adults aged 65 and older. Chiropractic \& Osteology 14: 3-10.

Hawkins, M.N., Raven, P.B., Snell, P.G., Stray-Gundersen, J., and Levine, B.D. 2007. Maximal oxygen uptake as a parametric measure of cardiorespiratory capacity. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 103-107.
Hayes, A., and Cribb, P.J. 2008. Effect of whey protein isolate on strength, body composition, and muscle hypertrophy during resistance training. Current Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care 11: 40-44.

Hayes, P.A., Sowood, P.J., Belyavin, A., Cohen, J.B., and Smith, F.W. 1988. Sub-cutaneous fat thickness measured by magnetic resonance imaging, ultrasound, and calipers. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 20: 303-309.
Health Canada. 2003. Canada's physical activity guide to healthy active living. Version 9. www.hc-sc.ca/english/ lifestyles/index.html.
Hedley, A.A., Ogden, C.L., Johnson, C.L., Carroll, M.D., Curtin, L.R., and Flegal, K.M. 2004. Prevalence of overweight and obesity among U.S. children, adolescents, and adults, 1999-2002. Journal of the American Medical Association 291(23): 2847-2850.
Heil, D.P. 1997. Body mass scaling of peak oxygen uptake in 20- to 79-year-old adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 29: 1602-1608.
Heil, D.P., Brage, S., and Rothney, M.P. 2012. Modeling physical activity outcomes from wearable monitors. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 44: S50-S60.
Heitmann, B.L., Kondrup, J., Engelhart, M., Kristensen, J.H., Podenphant, J., Hoie, L.H., and Andersen, V. 1994. Changes in fat free mass in overweight patients with rheumatoid arthritis on a weight reducing regimen. A comparison of eight different body composition methods. International Journal of Obesity 18: 812-819.
Helgerud, J., Hoydal, K., Wang, E., Karlsen, T., Berg, P., Bjerkaas, M., Simonsen, T., Helgesen, C., Hjorth, N., Bach, R., and Hoff, J. 2007. Aerobic high-intensity intervals improve $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max more than moderate training. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 665-671.
Henschke, N., and Lin, C.C. 2011. Stretching before or after exercise does not reduce delayed-onset muscle soreness. British Journal of Sport Medicine 45: 1249-1250.
Henwood, T.R., and Taaffe, D.R. 2003. Beneficial effects of high-velocity resistance training in older adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 35(Suppl.): S292 [abstract].
Heo, M., Faith, M.S., Pietrobelli, A., and Heymsfield, S.B. 2012. Percentage of body fat cutoffs by sex, age, and race-ethnicity in the US adult population from NHANES 1999-2004. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 95: 594-602.

Herbert, D.L. 1995. First state licenses exercise physiologists. Fitness Management, October, 26-27.
Herbert, D.L. 2004. New law to regulate personal trainers proposed in Oregon. The Exercise Standards and Malpractice Reporter 18(2): 17, 20-24.
Herbert, R.D., and de Noronha, M. 2007. Stretching to prevent or reduce muscle soreness after exercise. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, Issue 4, CD004577. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD004577.pub2.

Herbert, R.D., de Noronha, M., and Kamper, S.J. 2011. Stretching to prevent and reduce muscle soreness after exercise. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (online) 7: CD004577.
Herbert, R.D., and Gabriel, M. 2002. Effects of stretching on muscle soreness and risk of injury: A meta-analysis. British Medical Journal 325: 468-471.
Herda, T.J., Costa, P.B., Walter, A.A., Ryan, E.D., Hoge, K.M., Kerksick, C.M., Stout, J.R., and Cramer, J.T. 2011. Effects of two modes of static stretching on muscle strength and stiffness. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 43: 1777-1784.
Herman, T., Giladi, N., and Hausdorff, J.M. 2011. Properties of the 'timed up and go' test: More than meets the eye. Gerontology 57: 203-210.
Hermansen, L., and Saltin, B. 1969. Oxygen uptake during maximal treadmill and bicycle exercise. Journal of Applied Physiology 26: 31-37.
Hertel, J., Braham, R.A., Hale, S.A., and Olmsted-Kramer, L.C. 2006. Simplifying the star excursion balance test: Analyses of subjects with and without chronic ankle instability. Journal of Orthopaedic \& Sports Physical Therapy 36: 131-137.
Hertel, J., Miller, S.J., and Denegar, C.R. 2000. Intratester and intertester reliability during the star excursion balance tests. Journal of Sport Rehabilitation 9: 104-116.
Hess, J.A., and Woollacott, M. 2005. Effect of high-intensity strength-training on functional measures of balance ability in balance-impaired older adults. Journal of Manipulative and Physiological Therapeutics 28: 582-590.
Hettinger, T., and Muller, E.A. 1953. Muskelleistung und muskeltraining. European Journal of Applied Physiology 15: 111-126.
Heymsfield, S.B., Wang, J., Lichtman, S., Kamen, Y., Kehayias, J., and Pierson, R.N. 1989. Body composition in elderly subjects: A critical appraisal of clinical methodology. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 50: 1167-1175.
Heyward, V.H., Cook, K.L., Hicks, V.L., Jenkins, K.A., Quatrochi, J.A., and Wilson, W. 1992. Predictive accuracy of three field methods for estimating relative body fatness of nonobese and obese women. International Journal of Sport Nutrition 2: 75-86.
Heyward, V.H., and Wagner, D.R. 2004. Applied body composition assessment, 2nd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Hickson, R.C., and Rosenkoetter, M.A. 1981. Reduced training frequencies and maintenance of increased aerobic power. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 13: 13-16.

Higgins, P.B., Fields, D.A., Hunter, G.R., and Gower, B.A. 2001. Effect of scalp and facial hair on air displacement plethysmography estimates of percentage of body fat. Obesity Research 9: 326-330.
Hill, J.O., and Melanson, E.L. 1999. Overview of the determinants of overweight and obesity: Current evidence and research issues. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31(Suppl.): S515-S521.
Hill, K., Smith, R., Fearn, M., Rydberg, M., and Oliphant, R. 2007. Physical and psychological outcomes of a supported physical activity program for older carers. Journal of Aging and Physical Activity 15: 257-271.
Himes, J.H., and Frisancho, R.A. 1988. Estimating frame size. In Anthropometric standardization reference manual, ed. T.G. Lohman, A.F. Roche, and R. Martorell, 121-124. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Hirsh, J. 1971. Adipose cellularity in relation to human obesity. Advances in Internal Medicine 17: 289-300.
Ho, S.S., Dhaliwal, S.S., Hills, A.P., and Pal, S. 2012. 12 weeks of aerobic, resistance or combination exercise training on cardiovasucalr risk factors in the overweight and obese in a randomized trial. BMC Public Health 12:704 doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-12-704. Accessed September 29, 2012.

Hodgkins, J. and Skubic, 亡் 1963. Cardiovascular efficiency test scores for college women in the United States. Research Quarterly 34: 454-461.
Hoeger, W.W.K. 1989. Lifetime physical fitness and wellness. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Morton.
Hoeger, W.W.K., and Hopkins, D.R. 1992. A comparison of the sit-and-reach and the modified sit-and-reach in the measurement of flexibility in women. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 63: 191-195.
Hoeger, W.W.K., Hopkins, D.R., Button, S., and Palmer, T.A. 1990. Comparing the sit and reach with the modified sit and reach in measuring flexibility in adolescents. Pediatric Exercise Science 2: 156-162.
Hoffman, M., and Payne, V.G. 1995. The effects of proprioceptive ankle disk training on healthy subjects. Journal of Orthopaedic \& Sports Physical Therapy 21: 90-93.
Hofsteenge, G.H., Chinapaw, M.J.M., Delemarre-van de Waal, H.A., and Weijs, P.J.M. 2010. Validation of predictive equations for resting energy expenditure in obese adolescents. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 91: 1244-1254.
Holbrook, E.A., Barreira, T.V., and Kang, M. 2009. Validity and reliability of Omron pedometers for prescribed and self-paced walking. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 670-674.
Holt, L.E., Travis, T.M., and Okita, T. 1970. Comparative study of three stretching techniques. Perceptual and Motor Skills 31: 611-616.
Houtkooper, L.B., Going, S.G., Lohman, T.G., Roche, A.F., and VanLoan, M. 1992. Bioelectrical impedance estimation of fat-free body mass in children and youth: A cross-validation study. Journal of Applied Physiology 72: 366-373.

Houtkooper, L.B., Going, S.B., Westfall, C.H., Lohman, T.G. 1989. Prediction of fat-free body corrected for bone mass from impedance and anthropometry in adult females. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 21: 539 [abstract].

Howatson, G., and van Someren, K.A. 2008. The prevention and treatment of exercise-induced muscle damage. Sports Medicine 38: 483-503.
Howe, T.E., Rochester, L., Jackson, A., and Blair, V.A. 2007. Exercise for improving balance in older people (review). Cochrane Database Systematic Reviews, Issue 4, CD004963.
Howe, T.E., Rochester, L., Neil, F., Skelton, D.A., and Ballinger, C. 2011. Exercise for improving balance in older people (review). Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. issue11. article No. CD004963, doi: 10.1002/14651858. CD004963. pub 3.
Howley, E.T. 2007. $\mathrm{VO}_{2} \max$ and the plateau-needed or not? Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 101-102.
Howley, E. 2008. Physical activity guidelines for Americans. President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest Series 9(4), December.
Howley, E.T., Colacino, D.L., and Swensen, T.C. 1992. Factors affecting the oxygen cost of stepping on an electronic stepping ergometer. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 24: 1055-1058.

Hoxie, R.E. Rubenstein, L.Z., Hoenig, H., and Gallagher, B.R. 1994. The older pedestrian. Journal of the American Geriatrics Society 42: 444-450.
Hsieh, S.D., Yoshinaga, H., and Muto, T. 2003. Waist-to-height ratio, a simple and practical index for assessing central fat distribution and metabolic risk in Japanese men and women. International Journal of Obesity 27: 610-616.
Hubley-Kozey, C.L. 1991. Testing flexibility. In Physiological testing of the high-performance athlete, ed. J.D. MacDougall, H.A. Wenger, and H.J. Green, 309-359. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Hudson, J., Hiripi, E., Pope, H., and Kessler, R. 2007. The prevalence and correlates of eating disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. Biological Psychiatry 61(3): 348-358.
Hui, S.C., and Yuen, P.Y. 2000. Validity of the modified backsaver sit-and-reach test: A comparison with other protocols. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32: 1655-1659.
Hui, S.C., Yuen, P.Y., Morrow, J.R., and Jackson, A.W. 1999. Comparison of the criterion-related validity of sit-andreach tests with and without limb length adjustment in Asian adults. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 70: 401-406.

Hulsey, C.R., Soto, D.T., Koch, A.J., and Mayhew, J.L. 2012. Comparison of kettlebell swings and treadmill running at equivalent rating of perceived values. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 1203-1207.
Hultborn, H., Illert, M., and Santini, M. 1974. Disynaptic inhibition of the interneurons mediating the reciprocal Ia inhibition of motor neurones. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 91: 14A-16A.

Human Kinetics. 1995. Practical body composition kit. Champaign, IL: Author.
Human Kinetics. 1999. Assessing body composition. Champaign, IL: Author.
Hunter, G.R., Brock, D.W., Byrne, N.M., Chandler-Laney, P.C., Del Corral, P., and Gower, B.A. 2010. Exercise training prevents regain of visceral fat for 1 year following weight loss. Obesity 18: 690-695.

Hunter, G.R., Wetzstein, C.J., McLafferty, C.L., Zuckerman, P.A., Landers, K.A., and Bamman, M.M. 2001. Highresistance versus variable-resistance training in older adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33: 1759-1764.
Hurkmans, H.L., Ribbers, G.M., Streur-Kranenburg, M.F., Stam, H.J., and van den Berg-Emons, R. 2011. Energy expenditure in chronic stroke patients playing Wii Sports: A pilot study. Journal of Neuroengineering and Rehabilitation 8: 38-44.
Husu, P., and Suni, J. 2012. Predictive validity of health-related fitness tests on back pain and related disability: A 6-year follow-up study among high-functioning older adults. Journal of Physical Activity and Health 9: 249-258.
Idema, R.N., van den Meiracker, A.H., and Imholz, B.P.M. 1989. Comparison of Finapres non-invasive beat-to-beat finger blood pressure with intrabrachial artery pressure during and after bicycle ergometry. Journal of Hypertension 7(Suppl. 6): S58-S59.
Ikai, M., and Fukunaga, T. 1968. Calculation of muscle strength per unit cross-sectional area of human muscle by means of ultrasonic measurement. European Journal of Applied Physiology 26: 26-32.
Instebo, A., Helgheim, V., and Greve, G. 2012. Repeatability of blood pressure measurements during treadmill exercise. Blood Pressure Monitoring 17: 69-72.
Institute of Medicine. 2005. Dietary reference intakes for energy, carbohydrates, fiber, fat, fatty acids, cholesterol, protein, and amino acids. Washington, D.C.: National Academies Press.
International Association for the Study of Obesity. 2007. Adult overweight and obesity in the European Union (EU25). www.iaso.org.
International Association for the Study of Obesity. 2007. Overweight in children in the European Union. www.iaso.org.
International Association for the Study of Obesity. 2011. Global prevalence of adult obesity. www.iaso.org. Accessed October 5, 2012.
International Association for the Study of Obesity. 2012. Estimates of relative risk of disease per unit of BMI above $22 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$. www.iaso.org/policy/healthimpactobesity/estimatesrelativerisk. Accessed October 5, 2012.
International Atomic Energy Association. 2010. Dual energy X-ray absorptiometry for bone mineral density and body composition assessment. IAEA Human Health Series number 15 Vienna.

International Dance and Exercise Association. 2004. Personal fitness trainer certification. IDEA Health \& Fitness Source, March: 15.

International Osteoporosis Foundation. 2009a. Epidemiology. www.iofbonehealth.org/health-professionals/aboutosteoporosis/epidemiology.
International Osteoporosis Foundation. 2009b. FRAX® tool now available for use in 12 countries. www.iofbonehealth. org/news/news-detail.html?newsID=254.
Intille, S.S., Lester, J., Sallis, J.F., and Duncan, G. 2012. New horizons in sensor development. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 44: S24-S31.
Invergo, J.J., Ball, T.E., and Looney, M. 1991. Relationship of pushups and absolute muscular endurance to bench press strength. Journal of Applied Sport Science Research 5: 121-125.
Irving, B.A., Davis, C.K., Brock, D.W., Weltman, J.Y., Swift, D., Barrett, E.J., Gaesser, G.A., and Weltman, A. 2008. Effect of exercise training intensity on abdominal visceral fat and body composition. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40: 1863-1872.
Irwin, B.C., Scorniaenchi, J., Kerr, N.L., Eisenmann, J.C., and Feltz, D.L. 2012. Aerobic exercise is promoted when individual performance affects the group: A test of the Kohler Motivation Effect. Annals of Behavioral Medicine 44: 151-159.
Isacowitz, R. 2006. Pilates. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Ishikawa, J., Ishikawa, Y., Edmondson, D., Pickering, T.G., and Schwartz, J.E. 2011. Age and the difference between awake ambulatory blood pressure and office blood pressure: A meta-analysis. Blood Pressure Monitoring 16: 159-167.
Ito, T., Shirado, O., Suzuki, H., Takahaski, M., Kaneda, K., and Strax, T.E. 1996. Lumbar trunk muscle endurance testing: An expensive alternative to a machine for evaluation. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 77: 75-79.

Jackson, A. 1984. Research design and analysis of data procedures for predicting body density. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 16: 616-620.
Jackson, A.S., Ellis, K.J., McFarlin, B.K., Sailors, M.H., and Bray, M.S. 2009. Cross-validation of generalized body composition equations with diverse young men and women: The Training Intervention and Genetics of Exercise Response (TIGER) Study. British Journal of Nutrition 101: 871-878.
Jackson, A.S., and Pollock, M.L. 1976. Factor analysis and multivariate scaling of anthropometric variables for the assessment of body composition. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 8: 196-203.
Jackson, A.S., and Pollock, M.L. 1978. Generalized equations for predicting body density of men. British Journal of Nutrition 40: 497-504.
Jackson, A.S., and Pollock, M.L. 1985. Practical assessment of body composition. The Physician and Sportsmedicine 13: 76-90.

Jackson, A.S., Pollock, M.L., Graves, J.E., and Mahar, M.T. 1988. Reliability and validity of bioelectrical impedance in determining body composition. Journal of Applied Physiology 64: 529-534.

Jackson, A.S., Pollock, M.L., and Ward, A. 1980. Generalized equations for predicting body density of women. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 12: 175-182.
Jackson, A.W., and Langford, N.J. 1989. The criterion-related validity of the sit-and-reach test: Replication and extension of previous findings. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 60: 384-387.
Jackson, A.W., Morrow, J.R., Brill, P.A., Kohl, H.W., Gordon, N.F., and Blair, S.N. 1998. Relations of sit-up and sit-andreach tests to low back pain in adults. Journal of Orthopaedic and Sports Physical Therapy 27: 22-26.
Janssen, I., Heymsfield, S.B., Allison, D.B., Kotler, D.P., and Ross, R. 2002. Body mass index and waist circumference independently contribute to the prediction of nonabdominal, abdominal subcutaneous, and visceral fat. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 75: 683-688.
Janssen, I., Katzmarzyk, P.T., and Ross, R. 2004. Waist circumference and not body mass index explain obesity-related health risk. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 79: 379-384.
Jay, K., Frisch, D., Hansen, K., Zebis, M.K., Andersen, C.H., Mortensen, O.S., and Andersen, L.L. 2011. Kettlebell training for musculoskeletal and cardiovascular health: A randomized controlled trial. Scandanavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health 37: 196-203.
Jeans, E.A., Foster, C., Porcari, J.P., Gibson, M., and Doberstein, S. 2011. Translation of exercise testing to exercise prescription using the Talk Test. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 590-596.
Jenkins, W.L., Thackaberry, M., and Killian, C. 1984. Speedspecific isokinetic training. Journal of Orthopaedic and Sports Physical Therapy 6: 181-183.
Jernigan, V.B.B., Duran, B., Ahn, D., and Winkleby, M. 2010. Factors related to cardiovascular disease among American Indians and Alaska Natives. American Journal of Public Health 100: 677-683.
Johns, R.J., and Wright, V. 1962. Relative importance of various tissues in joint stiffness. Journal of Applied Physiology 17: 824-828.
Johnson, B.L., and Nelson, J.K., eds. 1986. Practical measurements for evaluation in physical education. Minneapolis: Burgess.
Johnson, E.G., Larsen, A., Ozawa, H., Wilson, C.A., and Kennedy, K.L. 2007. The effects of Pilates-based exercise on dynamic balance in healthy adults. Journal of Bodywork and Movement Therapies 11: 238-242.
Jones, B.H., and Knapik, J.J. 1999. Physical training and exercise-related injuries. Sports Medicine 27: 111-125.
Jones, C.J., Rikli, R.E., Max, J., and Noffal, G. 1998. The reliability and validity of a chair sit-and-reach test as a measure of hamstring flexibility in older adults. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 69: 338-343.
Jones, D.W., Frohlich, E.D., Grim, C.M., Grim, C.E., and Taubert, K.A. 2001. Mercury sphygmomanometers should not be abandoned: An advisory statement from the Council for

High Blood Pressure Research, American Heart Association. Hypertension 37: 185-186.
Jordan, M., Donne, B., and Fletcher, D. 2011. Only lower limb controlled interactive computer gaming enables an effective increase in energy expenditure. European Journal of Applied Physiology 111: 1465-1472.

Jowko, E., Ostaszewski, P., and Jank, M. 2001. Creatine and \} gbl-hydroxy-lgbl-methylbutyrate (HMB) additively increase lean body mass and muscle strength during weight-training program. Nutrition 17: 558-566.
Judex, S. and Rubin, C.T. 2010. Is bone formation induced by high-frequency mechanical signals modulated by muscle activity? 2010. Journal of Musculoskeletal and Neuronal Interactions 10: 3-11.

Juker, D., McGill, S., Kropf, P., and Steffen, T. 1998. Quantitative intramuscular myoelectric activity of lumbar portions of psoas and the abdominal wall during a wide variety of tasks. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 30: 301-310.
Kaiser Health News. 2010. Overweight and obesity rates for adults by race/ethnicity, 2010. www.statehealthfacts.org/ comparebar.jsp?ind=91\&cat=2. Accessed September 8, 2012.

Kalisch, T., Kattenstroth, J.C., Noth, S., Tegenthoff, M., and Dinse, H.R. 2011. Rapid assessment of age-related differences in standing balance. Journal of Aging Research 2011: 160490. Doi: 10.4061/2011/160490. Accessed November 2012.

Kametas, N.A., McAuliffe, F., Krampl, E., Nicolaides, K.H., Shennan, A.H. 2006. Can aneroid sphygmomanometers be used at altitude? Journal of Human Hypertension 20: 517-522.

Kaminsky, L.A., and Whaley, M.H. 1998. Evaluation of a new standardized ramp protocol: The BSU/Bruce ramp protocol. Journal of Cardiopulmonary Rehabilitation 18: 438-444.
Kanis, J.A., Borgstrom, F., De Laet, C., Johansson, H., Johnell, O., Jonsson, B., Oden, A., Zethraeus, N., Pfleger, B., and Khaltaev, N. 2005. Assessment of fracture risk. Osteoporosis International 16: 581-589.
Kanis, J.A., Oden, A., McCloskey, E.V., Johansson, H., Wahl, D.A., and Cooper C. 2012. A systematic review of hip fracture incidence and probability of fracture.
Katch F.I., Clarkson, P.M., Kroll, W., McBride, T., and Wilcox, A. 1984. Effects of sit-up exercise training on adipose cell size and adiposity. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 55: 242-247.
Katch, F.I., McArdle, W.D., Czula, R., and Pechar, G.S. 1973. Maximal oxygen intake, endurance running performance, and body composition in college women. Research Quarterly 44: 301-312.

Kattus, A.A., Hanafee, W.N., Longmire, W.P., MacAlpin, R.N., and Rivin, A.U. 1968. Diagnosis, medical and surgical management of coronary insufficiency. Annals of Internal Medicine 69: 115-136.
Kay, A.D., and Blazevich, A.J. 2008. Reductions in active plantarflexor moment are significantly correlated with
static stretch duration. European Journal of Sport Science 8: 41-46.
Kay, A.D., and Blazevich, A.J. 2012. Effect of acute static stretch on maximal muscle performance: A systematic review. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 44: 154-164.
Keim, N.L., Blanton, C.A., and Kretsch, M.J. 2004. America's obesity epidemic: Measuring physical activity to promote an active lifestyle. Journal of the American Dietetic Association 104: 1398-1409.
Kell, A.B. 2011. The influence of periodized resistance training on strength changes in men and women. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 735-744.
Kelley, G.A., and Kelley, K.S. 2006. Aerobic exercise and lipids and lipoproteins in men: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Journal of Men's Health \& Gender 3(1): 61-70.
Kesäniemi, A., Riddoch, C.J., Reeder, B., Blair, S.N., and Sorensen, T.I.A. 2010. Advancing the future of physical activity guidelines in Canada: An independent expert panel interpretation of the evidence. International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity 7: 41. www. ijbnpa.org/content/7/1/41. Accessed August 25, 2012.
Kesaniemi, Y.K., Danforth, E., Jensen, M.D., Kopelman, P.G., Lefebvre, P., and Reeder, B.A. 2001. Dose-response issues concerning physical activity and health: An evidencedbased symposium. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33(Suppl): S351-S358.
Kessler, H.S., Sisson, S.B., and Short, K.R. 2012. The potential for high-intensity interval training to reduce cardiometabolic disease risk. Sports Medicine 42: 489-509.
Keys, A., and Brozek, J. 1953. Body fat in adult man. Physiological Reviews 33: 245-325.
Khaled, M.A., McCutcheon, M.J., Reddy, S., Pearman, P.L., Hunter, G.R., and Weinsier, R.L. 1988. Electrical impedance in assessing human body composition: The BIA method. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 47: 789-792.
Kidgell, D.J., and Pearce, A.J. 2011. What has transcranial magnetic stimulation taught us about neural adaptations to strength training? A brief review. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 3208-3217.
Kidgell, D.J., Stokes, M.A., Castricum, T.J., and Pearce, A.J. 2010. Neurophysiological responses after short-term strength training of the biceps brachii muscle. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 24: 3123-3132.
Kim, H.I., Kim, J.T., Yu, S.H., Kwak, S.H., Jang, H.C., Park, K.S., Kim, S.Y., Lee, H.K., and Cho, Y.M. 2011. Gender differences in diagnostic values of visceral fat and waist circumference for predicting metabolic syndrome in Koreans. Journal of Korean Medicine and Science 26: 906-913.
Kim, J.H., Ko, J.H., Lee, D., Lim, I., and Bang, H. 2012. Habitual physical exercise has beneficial effects on telomere length in postmenopausal women. Menopause 19. doi: 10.1097/gme.0b013e3182503e97.

Kim, P.S., Mayhew, J.L., and Peterson, D.F. 2002. A modified bench press test as a predictor of 1 repetition maximum bench press strength. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 16: 440-445.

Kimball, S.R., and Jefferson, L.S. 2002. Control of protein synthesis by amino acid availability. Current Opinions in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care 5: 63-67.
Kinser, A.M., Ramsey, M.W., O'Bryant, H.S., Ayres, C.A., Sands, W.A., and Stone, M.H. 2008. Vibration and stretching effects on flexibility and explosive strength in young gymnasts. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40: 133-140.
Kirby, R.L., Simms, F.C., Symington, V.J., and Garner, J.B. 1981. Flexibility and musculoskeletal symptomatology in female gymnasts and age-matched controls. American Journal of Sports Medicine 9: 160-164.
Klein, S., Allison, D.B., Heymsfield, S.B., Kelley, D.E., Leibel, R.L., Nonas, C., and Kahn, R. 2007. Waist circumference and cardiometabolic risk: A consensus statement from Shaping America's Health: Association for Weight Management and Obesity Prevention; NAASO, The Obesity Society; the American Society for Nutrition; and the American Diabetes Association. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 85: 1197-1202.
Klein-Geltink, J.E., Choi, B.C.K., and Fry, R. 2006. Multiple exposures to smoking, alcohol, physical inactivity, and overweight: Prevalences according to the Canadian Community Health Survey Cycle 1.1. Chronic Diseases in Canada 27(1): 25-33.
Kline, G.M., Porcari, J.P., Hintermeister, R., Freedson, P.S., Ward, A., McCarron, R.F., Ross, J. and Rippe, J.M. 1987. Estimation of $\mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max from a one-mile track walk, gender, age, and body weight. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 19: 253-259.
Knowler, W.C., Barrett-Conner, E., Fowler, S.E., Hamman, R.F., Lachin, J.M., Walker, E.A., and Nathan, D.M. 2002. Reduction in incidence of type 2 diabetes with lifestyle intervention or metaformin. Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group. New England Journal of Medicine 346: 393-403.
Knudson, D. 2001. The validity of recent curl-up tests in young adults. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 15: 81-85.
Knudson, D., and Johnston, D. 1995. Validity and reliability of a bench trunk-curl test of abdominal endurance. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 9: 165-169.
Knudson, D., and Johnston, D. 1998. Analysis of three test durations of the bench trunk-curl. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 12: 150-151.
Knudson, D., and Noffal, G. 2005. Time course of stretchinduced isometric strength deficits. European Journal of Applied Physiology 94: 348-351.
Knudson, D.V. 1999. Issues in abdominal fitness: Testing and technique. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation \& Dance 70(3): 49-55.

Knudson, D.V., Magnusson, P., and McHugh, M. 2000. Current issues in flexibility fitness. President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest 3(10): 1-8.
Knuttgen, H.G., and Kraemer, W.J. 1987. Terminology and measurement in exercise performance. Journal of Applied Sport Science Research 1: 1-10.
Knutzen, K.M., Brilla, L.R., and Caine, D. 1999. Validity of 1RM prediction equations for older adults. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 13: 242-246.
Kohrt, W.M. 1998. Preliminary evidence that DEXA provides an accurate assessment of body composition. Journal of Applied Physiology 84: 372-377.
Kohrt, W.M., Bloomfield, S.A., Little, K.D., Nelson, M.E., and Yingling, V.R. 2004. American College of Sports Medicine position stand: Physical activity and bone health. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 1985-1996.
Kohrt, W.M., Spina, R.J., Holloszy, J.O., and Ehsani, A.A. 1998. Prescribing exercise intensity for older women. Journal of the American Geriatric Society 46: 129-133.
Kokkinos, P.F., and Fernhall, B. 1999. Physical activity and high density lipoprotein cholesterol levels: What is the relationship? Sports Medicine 28: 307-314.
Kokkinos, P.F., Hurley, B.F., Smutok, M.A., Farmer, C., Reece, C., Shulman, R., Charabogos, C., Patterson, J., Will, S., Devane-Bell, J., and Goldberg, A.P. 1991. Strength training does not improve lipoprotein-lipid profiles in men at risk for CHD. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 23: 1134-1139.
Komi, P.V., Viitasalo, J.T., Rauramaa, R., and Vihko, V. 1978. Effect of isometric strength training on mechanical, electrical, and metabolic aspects of muscle function. European Journal of Applied Physiology 40: 45-55.
Kosek, D.J., Kim, J.S., Petrella, J.K., Cross, J.M., and Bamman, M.M. 2006. Efficacy of 3 days/wk resistance training on myofiber hypertrophy and myogenic mechanisms in young vs. older adults. Journal of Applied Physiology 101: 531-544.
Kostek, M.A., Pescatello, L.S., Seip, R.L., Angelopoulos, T.J., Clarkson, P.M., Gordon, P.M., Moyna, N.M., Visich, P.S., Zoeller, R.F., Thompson, P.D., Hoffman, R.P., and Price, T.B. 2007. Subcutaneous fat alterations resulting from an upper-body resistance training program. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 1177-1185.
Koulmann, N., Jimenez, C., Regal, D., Bolliet, P., Launay, J., Savourey, G., and Melin, B. 2000. Use of bioelectrical impedance analysis to estimate body fluid compartments after acute variations of the body hydration level. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32: 857-864.
Kraemer, W.J. 2003. Strength training basics. The Physician and Sportsmedicine 31(8): 39-45.
Kraemer, W.J., Adams, K., Cafarelli, E., Dudley, G.A., Dooly, C., Feigenbaum, M.S., Fleck, S.J., Franklin, B., Fry, A.C., Hoffman, J.R., Newton, R.U., Potteiger, J., Stone, M.H., Ratamess, N.A., and Triplett-McBride, T. 2002. ACSM Position Stand: Progression models in resistance training
for healthy adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 34: 364-380.
Kraemer, W.J., Deschenes, M.R., and Fleck, S.J. 1988. Physiological adaptations to resistance exercise: Implications for athletic conditioning. Sports Medicine 6: 246-256.
Kraemer, W.J., and Fleck, S.J. 2007. Optimizing strength training. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Kraemer, W.J., Fleck, S.J., and Evans, W.J. 1996. Strength and power training: Physiological mechanisms of adaptation. In Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews, ed. J.O. Holloszy, 24: 363-397. Baltimore: Williams \& Wilkins.
Kraemer, W.J., Gordon, S.J., Fleck, S.J., Marchitelli, L.J., Mello, R., Dziados, J.E., Friedl, K., Harman, E., Maresh, C., and Fry, A.C. 1991. Endogenous anabolic hormonal and growth factor responses to heavy resistance exercise in males and females. International Journal of Sports Medicine 12: 228-235.
Kraemer, W.J., Häkkinen, K., Newton, R.U., Nindl, B.C., Volek, J.S., McCormick, M., Gotshalk, L.A., Gordon, S.E., Fleck, S.J., Campbell, W.W., Putukian, M., and Evans, W.J. 1999. Effects of heavy-resistance training on hormonal response patterns in younger vs. older men. Journal of Applied Physiology 87: 982-992.
Kraemer, W.J., Nindl, B.C., Ratamess, N.A., Gotshalk, L.A., Volek, J.S., Fleck, S.J., Newton, R.U., and Hakkinen, K. 2004. Changes in muscle hypertrophy in women with periodized resistance training. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 697-708.
Kraemer, W.J., Noble, B.J., Clark, M.J., and Culver, B.W. 1987. Physiologic responses to heavy-resistance exercise with very short rest periods. International Journal of Sports Medicine 8: 247-252.
Kraemer, W.J., Patton, J., Gordon, S.E., Harman, E.A., Deschenes, M.R., Reynolds, K., Newton, R.U., Triplett, N.T., and Dziados, J.E. 1995. Compatibility of high intensity strength and endurance training on hormonal and skeletal muscle adaptations. Journal of Applied Physiology 78: 976-989.
Kraemer, W.J., and Ratamess, N.A. 2004. Fundamentals of resistance training: Progression and exercise prescription. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 674-688.
Kraemer, W.J., Volek, J.S., Clark, K.L., Gordon, S.E., Puhl, S.M., Koziris, L.P., McBride, J.M., Triplett-McBride, N.T., Putukian, M., Newton, R.U., Häkkinen, K., Bush, J.A., and Sabastianelli, W.J. 1999. Influence of exercise training on physiological and performance changes with weight loss in men. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31: 1320-1329.
Kravitz, L., Cizar, C., Christensen, C., and Setterlund, S. 1993. The physiological effects of step training with and without handweights. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 33: 348-358.

Kravitz, L., Heyward, V., Stolarczyk, L., and Wilmerding, V. 1997a. Effects of step training with and without handweights on physiological profiles of women. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 11: 194-199.

Kravitz, L., and Heyward, V.H. 1995. Flexibility training. Fitness Management 11(2): 32-38.
Kravitz, L., Robergs, R., and Heyward, V. 1996. Are all aerobic exercise modes equal? Idea Today 14: 51-58.
Kravitz, L., Robergs, R.A., Heyward, V.H., Wagner, D.R., and Powers, K. 1997b. Exercise mode and gender comparisons of energy expenditure at self-selected intensities. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 29: 1028-1035.

Kravitz, L., Wax, B., Mayo, J.J., Daniels, R., and Charette, K. 1998. Metabolic response of elliptical exercise training. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 30(Suppl.): S169 [abstract].
Kraus, H. 1970. Clinical treatment of back and neck pain. New York: McGraw-Hill.
Krause, M.P., Goss, F.L., Robertson, R.J., Kim, K., Elsangedy, H.M., Keinski, K., and da Silva, S.G. 2012. Concurrent validity of an OMNI rating of perceived exertion scale for bench stepping exercise. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 506-512.
Kreider, R.B., Melton, C., Rasmussen, C.J., Greenwood, M., Lancaster, S., Cantler, E.C., Milnor, P., and Almada, A.L. 2003. Long-term creatine supplementation does not significantly affect clinical markers of health in athletes. Molecular and Cellular Biochemistry 244: 95-104.
Kreider, R.B., Wilborn, C.D., Taylor, L., Campbell, B., Almada, A.L., Collins, R., Cooke, M., Earnest, C.P., Greenwood, M., Kalman, D.S., Kersick, C.M., Kleiner, S.M., Leutholtz, B., Lopez, H., Lowery, L.M., Mendel, R., Smith, A., Spano, M., Wildman, R., Willoughby, D.S., Ziegenfuss, T.N., and Antonio, J. 2010. ISSN exercise \& sport nutrition review: Research \& recommendations. Journal of the International Society of Sports Nutrition 7: 6-43.
Kretsch, M.J., Blanton, C.A., Baer, D., Staples, R., Horn, W.F., and Keim, N. 2004. Measuring energy expenditure with simple, low-cost tools. Journal of the American Dietetic Association 104: A-13
Krieger, J.W. 2010. Single vs. multiple sets of resistance exercise for muscle hypertrophy: A meta-analysis. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 24: 1150-1159.
Kriska, A.M., Blair, S.N., and Pereira, M.A. 1994. The potential role of physical activity in the prevention of non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus: The epidemiological evidence. In Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews, ed. J.O. Holloszy, 22: 121-143.
Krotkiewski, M., Gudmundsson, M., Backstrom, P., and Mandroukas, K. 1982. Zinc and muscle strength and endurance. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 116: 309-311.
Kubo, K., Kaneshisa, H., Takeshita, D., Kawakami, Y., Fukashiro, S., and Fukunaga, T. 2000. In vivo dynamics of human medial gastrocnemius muscle-tendon complex curing stretch-shortening cycle exercise. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 170: 127-135.
Kubo, K., Kawakami, Y., and Fukunaga, T. 1999. Influence of elastic properties of tendon structures on jump performance in humans. Journal of Applied Physiology 87: 2090-2096.

Kuntzelman, B.A. 1979. The complete guide to aerobic dancing. Skokie, IL: Publications International.
Kuramoto, A.K., and Payne, V.G. 1995. Predicting muscular strength in women: A preliminary study. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 66: 168-172.
Kuramoto, A.M. 2006. Therapeutic benefits of tai chi exercise: Research review. Wisconsin Medical Journal 105(7): 42-46.
Kurucz, R., Fox, E.L., and Mathews, D.K. 1969. Construction of a submaximal cardiovascular step test. Research Quarterly 40: 115-122.
Kushi, L.H., Doyle, C., McCullough, M., Rock, C.L., DemarkWahnefried, W., Bandera, E.V., Gapstur, S., Patel, A.V., Andrews, K., Gansler, T., and the American Cancer Society 2010 Nutrition and Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory Committee. 2012. American Cancer Society guidelines on nutrition and physical activity for cancer prevention. CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians 12: 30-67.
Kushner, R.F. 1992. Bioelectrical impedance analysis: A review of principles and applications. Journal of the American College of Nutrition 11: 199-209.
Kushner, R.F., Gudivaka, R., and Schoeller, D.A. 1996. Clinical characteristics influencing bioelectrical impedance analysis measurements. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 64: 423S-427S.
Kushner, R.F., and Schoeller, D.A. 1986. Estimation of total body water in bioelectrical impedance analysis. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 44: 417-424.
Kyle, U.G., Genton, L., Karsegard, L., Slosman, D.O., and Pichard, C. 2001. Single prediction equation for bioelectrical impedance analysis in adults aged 20-94 years. Nutrition 17: 248-253.
Lake, J.P., and Lauder, M.A. 2012. Kettlebell swing training improves maximal and explosive strength. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 2228-2233.
LaMonte, M.J., Ainsworth, B.E., and Reis, J.P. 2006. Measuring physical activity. In Measurement theory and practice in kinesiology, eds. T.M. Wood and W. Zhu, 237-272. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Lan, C., Lai, J., Chen, S., and Wong, M. 1998. 12-month tai chi training in the elderly: Its effects on health fitness. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 30: 345-351.
Larsen, G.E., George, J.D., Alexander, J.L., Fellingham, G.W., Aldana, S.G., and Parcell, A.C. 2002. Prediction of maximum oxygen consumption from walking, jogging, or running. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 73: 66-72.
Lau, R.W.K., Liao, L-R., Yu, F., Teo, T., Chung, R.C.K., and Pang, M.Y.C. 2011. The effects of whole body vibration therapy on bone mineral density and leg muscle strength in older adults: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Clinical Rehabilitation 25: 975-988.
Law, R.Y.W., and Herbert, R.D. 2007. Warm-up reduces delayed-onset muscle soreness but cool-down does not: A randomized controlled trial. Australian Journal of Physiotherapy 53: 91-95.

Layne, J.E., and Nelson, M.E. 1999. The effects of progressive resistance training on bone density: A review. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31:25-30.
Leahy, S., O'Neill, C., Sohun, R., and Jakeman, P. 2012. A comparison of dual energy X-ray absorptiometry and bioelectrical impedance analysis to measure total and segmental body composition in healthy young adults. European Journal of Applied Physiology 112: 589-595.
Leal, V.O., Moraes, C., Stockler-Pinto, M.B., Lobo, J.C., Farage, N.E., Velarde, L.G., Fouque, D., and Mafra, D. 2012. Is a body mass index of $23 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ a reliable marker of protein-energy wasting in hemodialysis patients? Nutrition 28: 973-977.
Leger, L.A., Lambert, J., and Martin, P. 1982. Validity of plastic skinfold caliper measurements. Human Biology 54: 667-675.
Leger, L.A., Mercier, D., Gadoury, C., and Lambert, J. 1988. The multistage 20-metre shuttle run test for aerobic fitness. Journal of Sports Sciences 6: 93-101.
Leighton, J.R. 1955. An instrument and technique for measurement of range of joint motion. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 36: 571-578.
Lemieux, S., Prud'homme, D., Bouchard, C., Tremblay, A., and Despres, J-P. 1996. A single threshold value of waist girth identifies normal-weight and overweight subjects with excess visceral adipose tissue. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 64: 685-693.
Lemon, P.W. 2000. Beyond the Zone: Protein needs of active individuals. Journal of the American College of Nutrition 19: 513S-521S.
Lermen, J., Bruce, R.A., Sivarajan, E., Pettet, G., and Trimble, S. 1976. Low-level dynamic exercises for earlier cardiac rehabilitation: Aerobic and hemodynamic responses. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 57: 355-360.
Lesmes, G.R., Costill, D.L., Coyle, E.F., and Fink, W.J. 1978. Muscle strength and power changes during maximal isokinetic training. Medicine and Science in Sports 10: 266-269.
Levine, B., Zuckerman, J., and Cole, C. 1998. Medical complications of exercise. In ACSM's resource manual for guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, ed. J.L. Roitman, 488-498. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams \& Wilkins.
Lewiecki, E.M., and Watts, N.B. 2009. New guidelines for the prevention and treatment of osteoporosis. Southern Medical Journal 102: 175-179.
Lewis, P.B., Ruby, D., and Bush-Joseph, C.A. 2012. Muscle soreness and delayed-onset muscle soreness. Clinics in Sports Medicine 31: 255-262.
Li, F., Harmer, P., Fisher, K.J., McAuley, E., Chaumeton, N., Eckstrom, E., and Wilson, N.L. 2005. Tai chi and fall reductions in older adults: A randomized controlled trial. Journal of Gerontology 60: 187-194.
Li, J.Y., Zhang, Y.F., Smith, G.S., Xue, C.J., Luo, Y.N., Chen, W.H., Skinner, C.J., and Finkelstein, J. 2009. Quality of reporting of randomized clinical trials in tai chi interven-
tions-a systematic review. eCam Advance Access. doi: 10:1093/ecam/nep022.
Li, S., Zhao, X., Ba, S., He, G., Lam, C.T., Ke, L., Li, N., Yan, L.L., Li, X., and Wu, Y. 2012. Can electronic sphygmomanometers be used for measurement of blood pressure at high altitudes? Blood Pressure Monitoring 17: 62-68.

Liang, M.T.C., Su, H., and Lee, N. 2000. Skin temperature and skin blood flow affect bioelectrical impedance study of female fat-free mass. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32: 221-227.
Liang, M.Y., and Norris, S. 1993. Effects of skin blood flow and temperature on bioelectrical impedance after exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 25: 1231-1239.
Liebenson, C. 2011. Functional training with the kettlebell. Journal of Bodywork and Movement Therapies 15: 542-544.

Lim, S., Kim, J.H., Yoon, J.W., Kang, S.M., Choi, S.H., Park, Y.J., Kim, K.W., Cho, N.H., Shin, H., Park, K.S., and Jang, H.C. 2012. Optimal cut points of waist circumference (WC) and visceral fat area (VFA) predicting for metabolic syndrome (MetS) in elderly population in the Korean Longitudinal Study on Health and Aging (KLoSHA). Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics 54: E29 -E34.
Litchell, H., and Boberg, J. 1978. The lipoprotein lipase activity of adipose tissue from different sites in obese women and relationship to cell size. International Journal of Obesity 2: 47-52.
Lockner, D., Heyward, V., Baumgartner, R., and Jenkins, K. 2000. Comparison of air-displacement plethysmography, hydrodensitometry, and dual X-ray absorptiometry for assessing body composition of children 10 to 18 years of age. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 904: 72-78.
Lohman, T.G. 1981. Skinfolds and body density and their relation to body fatness: A review. Human Biology 53: 181-115.
Lohman, T.G. 1987. Measuring body fat using skinfolds [videotape]. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Lohman, T.G. 1989. Bioelectrical impedance. In Applying new technology to nutrition: Report of the ninth roundtable on medical issues, 22-25. Columbus, OH: Ross Laboratories.
Lohman, T.G. 1992. Advances in body composition assessment. Current issues in exercise science series. Monograph no. 3. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Lohman, T.G. 1996. Dual energy X-ray absorptiometry. In Human body composition, ed. A.F. Roche, S.B. Heymsfield, and T.G. Lohman, 63-78. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Lohman, T.G., Boileau, R.A., and Slaughter, M.H. 1984. Body composition in children and youth. In Advances in pediatric sport sciences, ed. R.A. Boileau, 29-57. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Lohman, T.G., Going, S.B., and Metcalfe, L. 2004. Seeing ourselves through the obesity epidemic. President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest Series 5(3): 1-8.
Lohman, T.G., Going, S., Pamenter, R., Hall, M., Boyden, T., Houtkooper, L., Ritenbaugh, C., Bare, L., Hill, A., and

Aickin, M. 1995. Effects of resistance training on regional and total bone mineral density in premenopausal women: A randomized prospective study. Journal of Bone Mineral Research 10: 1015-1024.

Lohman, T.G., Harris, M., Teixeira, P.J., and Weiss, L. 2000. Assessing body composition and changes in body composition: Another look at dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 904: 45-54.
Lohman, T.G., Houtkooper, L., and Going, S. 1997. Body fat measurement goes high-tech: Not all are created equal. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 7: 30-35.
Lohman, T.G., Pollock, M.L., Slaughter, M.H., Brandon, L.J., and Boileau, R.A. 1984. Methodological factors and the prediction of body fat in female athletes. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 16: 92-96.
Lohman, T.G., Roche, A.F., and Martorell, R., eds. 1988. Anthropometric standardization reference manual. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Londeree, B., and Moeschberger, M. 1984. Influence of age and other factors on maximal heart rate. Journal of Cardiac Rehabilitation 4: 44-49.
Looker, A.C., Borrud, L.F., Dawson-Hughes, B., and Shepherd, J.A. 2012. Osteoporosis or low bone mass at the femur neck or lumbar spine in older adultsL United States, 2005-2008. NDHS Data Brief No. 93. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics. Available at http://inflpro.com/nchs/ data/databriefs/db93.pdf. Accessed September 30, 2012.
Loose, B.D., Christiansen, A.M., Smolczyk, J.E., Roberts, K.L., Budziszewska, A., Hollatz, C.G., and Norman, J.F. 2012. Consistency of the Counting Talk Test for exercise prescription. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 1701-1707.
Loudon, J.K., Cagle, P.E., Figoni, S.F., Nau, K.L., and Klein, R.M. 1998. A submaximal all-extremity exercise test to predict maximal oxygen consumption. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 30: 1299-1303.
Lounana, J., Campion, F., Noakes, T.D., and Medelli, J. 2007. Relationship between $\% \mathrm{HRmax}, \% \mathrm{HR}$ reserve, $\% \mathrm{VO}_{2}$ max, and $\% \mathrm{~V}_{2}$ reserve in elite cyclists. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 350-357.
Loy, S., Likes, E., Andrews, P., Vincent, W., Holland, G.J., Kawai, H., Cen, S., Swenberger, J., VanLoan, M., Tanaka, K., Heyward, V., Stolarczyk, L., Lohman, T.G., and Going, S.B. 1998. Easy grip on body composition measurements. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 2(5): 16-19.
Lozano, A., Rosell, J., and Pallas-Areny, R. 1995. Errors in prolonged electrical impedance measurements due to electrode repositioning and postural changes. Physiological Measurement 16: 121-130.
Lu, Y.M., Lin, J.H., Hsiao, S.F., Liu, M.F., Chen, S.M., and Lue, Y.J. 2011. The relative and absolute reliability of leg muscle strength testing by a handheld dynamometer. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 1065-1071.
Ludwig, D.S., and Eckel, R.H. 2002. The glycemic index at 20 y. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 76(Suppl.): 264S-265S.

Lukaski, H.C. 1986. Use of the tetrapolar bioelectrical impedance method to assess human body composition. In Human body composition and fat patterning, ed. N.G. Norgan, 143-158. Wageningen, Netherlands: Euronut.

Lukaski, H.C. 1993. Soft tissue composition and bone mineral status: Evaluation by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Journal of Nutrition 123: 438-443.
Lukaski, H.C., and Bolonchuk, W.W. 1988. Estimation of body fluid volumes using tetrapolar impedance measurements. Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine 59: 1163-1169.
Lukaski, H.C., Johnson, P.E., Bolonchuk, W.W., and Lykken, G.I. 1985. Assessment of fat-free mass using bioelectric impedance measurements of the human body. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 41: 810-817.
Lundin-Olsson, L., Nyberg, L., and Gustafson, Y. 1997. "Stops walking when talking" as a predictor of falls in elderly people. Lancet 349: 617.
Luthi, J.M., Howald, H., Claasen, H., Rosler, K., Vock, P., and Hoppeler, H. 1986. Structural changes in skeletal muscle tissue with heavy resistance exercise. International Journal of Sports Medicine 7: 123-127.
Ma, W-Y., Liu, P-H., Yang, C-Y., Hua, C-H., Shih, S-R., Hsein, Y-C., Hsieh, H-J., Chuang, L-M., Hung, C.S., Lin, J-W., Chiu, F-C., Wei, J-N., Lin, M-S., and Li, H-Y. 2012. Diabetes Care doi: 10.2337/dc12-1452.
MacDougall, J.D., Sale, D.G., Moroz, J.R., Elder, G.C., Sutton, J.R., and Howalk, H. 1979. Mitochondrial volume density in human skeletal muscle following heavy resistance training. Medicine and Science in Sports 11: 164-166.
Macedonio, M.A., and Dunford, M. 2009. The athlete's guide to making weight. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Machado, A., Garcia-Lopez, D., Gonzalez-Gallego, J., and Garatachea, N. 2010. Whole-body vibration training increases muscle strength and mass in older women: A randomized-controlled trial. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine \& Science in Sports 20: 200-207.
Maciaszek, J., Osinski, W., Szeklicki, R., and Stemplewski, R. 2007. Effect of tai chi on body balance: Randomized controlled trial in men with osteopenia or osteoporosis. American Journal of Chinese Medicine 35: 1-9.
Mackey, A.L., Bojsen-Moller, J., Qvortrup, K., Langberg, H., Suetta, C., Kalliokoski, K.K., Kjaer, M., and Magnusson, S.P. 2008. Evidence of skeletal muscle damage following electrically stimulated isometric muscle contractions in humans. Journal of Applied Physiology 105: 1620-1627.
Maddigan, M.E., Peach, A.A., and Behm, D.G. 2012. A comparison of assisted and unassisted proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation techniques and static stretching. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 1238-1244.
Maddison, R., Foley, L., Mhurchu, C.N., Jiang, Y., Jull, A., Prapavessis, H., Hohepa, M., and Rodgers, A. 2011. Effects of active video games on body composition: A randomized controlled trial. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 94:156-163.

Maddison, R., Jiang, Y., Hoorn, S.V., Exeter, D., Mhurchu, C.N., and Dorey, E. 2010. Describing patterns of physical activity in adolescents using global positioning systems and accelerometry. Pediatric Exercise Science 22: 392-407.
Magarey, A.M., Daniels, L.A., and Boulton, T.J. 2001. Prevalence of overweight and obesity in Australian children and adolescents: Reassessment of 1985 and 1995 data against new standard international definitions. Medical Journal of Australia 174: 561-564.
Magnan, R.E., Kwan, B.M., Ciccolo, J.T., Gurney, B., Mermier, C.M., and Bryan, A.D. 2013. Aerobic capacity testing with inactive individuals: The role of subjective experience. Journal of Physical Activity and Health 10: 271-279.
Magnusson, P., and Renstrom, P. 2006. The European College of Sports Sciences position statement: The role of stretching exercises in sports. European Journal of Sport Sciences 6: 87-91.
Magnusson, S.P. 1998. Passive properties of human skeletal muscle during stretch maneuvers. A review. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports 8(2): 65-77.
Magnusson, S.P., Aagaard, P., Larsson, B., and Kjaer, M. 2000. Passive energy absorption by human muscle-tendon unit is unaffected by increase in intramuscular temperature. Journal of Applied Physiology 88: 1215-1220.
Magnusson, S.P., Simonsen, E.B., Aagaard, P., Bueson, J., Johannson, F., and Kjaer, M. 1997. Determinants of musculoskeletal flexibility: Viscoelastic properties, crosssectional area, EMG and stretch tolerance. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports 7: 195-202.
Mahar, M.T., Guerieri, A.M., Hanna, M.S., and Kemble, D. 2011. Estimation of aerobic fitness from 20-M multistage shuttle run test performance. American Journal of Preventive Medicine 41: S117-S123.
Mahieu, N.N., McNair, P., DeMuynck, M., Stevens, V., Blanckaert, I., Smits, N., and Witvrouw, E. 2007. Effect of static and ballistic stretching on the muscle-tendon tissue properties. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 494-501.
Maki, K.C., Reeves, M.S., Farmer, M., Yasunaga K., Matsuo, N., Katsuragi, Y., Komikado, M., Tokimitsu, I., Wilder, D., Jones, F., Blumberg, J.B., and Cartwright, Y. 2009. Green tea catechin consumption enhances exercise-induced abdominal fat loss in overweight and obese adults. Journal of Nutrition 139: 264-270.
Maksud, M.G., and Coutts, K.D. 1971. Comparison of a continuous and discontinuous graded treadmill test for maximal oxygen uptake. Medicine and Science in Sports 3: 63-65.
Malek, M.H., Nalbone, D.P., Berger, D.E., and Coburn, J.W. 2002. Importance of health science education for personal fitness trainers. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 16: 19-24.
Manore, M.M. 2004. Nutrition and physical activity: Fueling the active individual. President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest 5(1): 1-8.

Manore, M.M., Meyer, N.L., and Thompson, J. 2009. Sport nutrition for health and performance, 2nd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Manson, J.E., Nathan, D.M., Krolewski, A.S., Stampfer, M.J., Willett, W.C., and Hennekens, C.H. 1992. A prospective study of exercise and incidence of diabetes among US male physicians. Journal of the American Medical Association 268: 63-67.
Manson, J.E., Rimm, E.B., Stampfer, M.J., Rosner, B., Hennekens, C.H., Speizer, F.E., Colditz, G.A., Willett, W.C., and Krolewski, A.S. 1991. Physical activity incidence of non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus in women. Lancet 338: 774-778.

Marcus, B.H., Bock, B.C., Pinto, B.M., Forsyth, L.H., Roberts, M.B., and Traficante, R.M. 1998. Efficacy of an individualized, motivationally tailored physical activity intervention. Annals of Behavioral Medicine 20: 174-180.
Marcus, B.H., Ciccolo, J.T., and Sciamanna, C.N. 2009. Using electronic/computer interventions to promote physical activity. British Journal of Sports Medicine 43: 102-105.
Marcus, B.H., and Forsyth, L.H. 2003. Motivating people to be physically active. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Marcus, B.H., and Lewis, B.A. 2003. Physical activity and the stages of motivational readiness for change model. President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest 4(1): 1-8.

Marcus, B.H., Rakowski, W., and Rossi, R.S. 1992. Assessing motivational readiness and decision-making for exercise. Health Psychology 11: 257-261.
Marinkovic, S., and Popovici, E. 2012. Ultra low power signal oriented approach for wireless health monitoring. Sensors 12: 7917-7937.

Markandu, N.D., Whitcher, F., Arnold, A., and Carney, C. 2000. The mercury sphygmomanometer should be abandoned before it is proscribed. Journal of Human Hypertension 14: 31-36.
Markland, D., and Ingledew, L. 1997. The measurement of exercise motives: Factorial validity and invariance across gender of a revised exercise motivation inventory. British Journal of Health Psychology 2: 361-376.
Markland, D., and Tobin, V.J. 2004. A modification of the Behavioral Regulation in Exercise Questionnaire to include an assessment of amotivation. Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology 26: 191-196.
Marks, B.L., Ward, A., Morris, D.H., Castellani, J., and Rippe, J.M. 1995. Fat-free mass is maintained in women following a moderate diet and exercise program. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 1243-1251.
Marley, W., and Linnerud, A. 1976. A three-year study of the Åstrand-Ryhming step test. Research Quarterly 47: 211-217.

Marsh, C.E. 2012. Evaluation of the American College of Sports Medicine submaximal treadmill running equation for predicting $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ max. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 548-554.

Martin, A.D., Drinkwater, D.T., and Clarys, J.P. 1992. Effects of skin thickness and skinfold compressibility on skinfold thickness measurements. American Journal of Human Biology 4: 453-460.

Martin, A.D., Ross, W.D., Drinkwater, D.T., and Clarys, J.P. 1985. Prediction of body fat by skinfold caliper: Assumptions and cadaver evidence. International Journal of Obesity 9(Suppl. 1): S31-S39.
Martin, S.B., Jackson, A.W., Morrow, J.R., and Liemohn, W. 1998. The rationale for the sit and reach test revisited. Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science 2: 85-92.

Marx, J.O., Ratamess, N.A., Nindl, B.C., Gotshalk, L.A., Volek, J.S., Dohi, K., Bush, J.A., Gomez, A.L., Mazzetti, S.A., Fleck, S.J., Hakkinen, K., Newton, R.U., and Kraemer, W.J. 2001. Low-volume circuit versus high-volume periodized resistance training in women. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33: 635-643.

Mayer, J. 1968. Overweight: Causes, costs and control. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Mayer, T.G., Tencer, A.F., and Kristoferson, S. 1984. Use of noninvasive technique for quantification of spinal range-ofmotion in normal subjects and chronic low back dysfunction patients. Spine 9: 588-595.
Mayhew, J.L., Brechue, W.F., Smith, A.E., Kemmler, W., Lauber, D., and Koch, A.J. 2011. Impact of testing strategy on expression of upper-body work capacity and onerepetition maximum prediction after resistance training in college-aged men and women. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 2796-2807.
Mayhew, J.L., Ball, T.E., Arnold, M.D., and Bowen, J.C. 1992. Relative muscular endurance performance as a predictor of bench press strength in college men and women. Journal of Applied Sport Science Research 6: 200-206.
Mays, R.J., Goss, F.L., Schafer, M.A., Kim, K.H., Nagle-Stilley, E.F., Robertson, R.J. 2010. Validation of adult OMNI perceived exertion scales for elliptical ergometry. Perceptual and Motor Skills 111: 848-862.
Mayson, D.J., Kiely, D.K., LaRose, S.I., and Bean, J.F. 2008. Leg strength or velocity of movement. Which is more influential on the balance of mobility limited elders? American Journal of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 87: 969-976.
Mazess, R.B., Barden, H.S., and Ohlrich, E.S. 1990. Skeletal and body-composition effects of anorexia nervosa. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 52: 438-441.
McArdle, W.D., Katch, F.I., and Katch, V.L. 1996. Exercise physiology: Energy, nutrition and human performance, 4th ed. Baltimore: Williams \& Wilkins.
McArdle, W.D., Katch, F.I., and Pechar, G.S. 1973. Comparison of continuous and discontinuous treadmill and bicycle tests for $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}_{2}$ max. Medicine and Science in Sports 5: 156-160.
McArdle, W.D., Katch, F.I., Pechar, G.S., Jacobson, L., and Ruck, S. 1972. Reliability and interrelationships between maximal oxygen intake, physical working capacity and
step-test scores in college women. Medicine and Science in Sports 4: 182-186.
McAtee, R., and Charland, J. 2007. Facilitated stretching, 3rd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
McBride, J.M., Nuzzo, J.L., Dayne, A.M., Israetel, M.A., Nieman, D.C., and Triplett, N.T. 2010. Effect of an acute bout of whole body vibration exercise on muscle force output and motor neuron excitability. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 24: 184-189.
McConnell, T., and Clark, B. 1987. Prediction of maximal oxygen consumption during handrail-supported treadmill exercise. Journal of Cardiopulmonary Rehabilitation 7: 324-331.
McCrory, M.A., Gomez, T.D., Bernauer, E.M., and Mole, P.A. 1995. Evaluation of a new displacement plethysmograph for measuring human body composition. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 1686-1691.
McCrory, M.A., Mole, P.A., Gomez, T.D., Dewey, K.G., and Bernauer, E.M. 1998. Body composition by air displacement plethysmography using predicted and measured thoracic gas volumes. Journal of Applied Physiology 84: 1475-1479.
McCue, B.F. 1953. Flexibility of college women. Research Quarterly 24: 316-324.
McGill, S. 2007. Low back disorders: Evidence based prevention and rehabilitation.2nd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

McGill, S.M. 1998. Low back exercises: Prescription for the healthy back and when recovering from injury. In ACSM's resource manual for guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, 3rd ed., Senior ed. J. Roitman.116-126. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams \& Wilkins.
McGill, S.M. 2001. Low back stability: From formal description to issues for performance and rehabilitation. Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews 29(1): 26-31.
McGill, S.M. 2002. Low back disorders: Evidence-based prevention and rehabilitation. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
McGill, S.M., Childs, A., and Liebenson, D.C. 1999. Endurance times for low back stabilization exercises: Clinical targets for testing and training from a normal database. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 80: 941-944.
McGill, S.M., and Marshall, L.W. 2012. Kettlebell swing, snatch, and bottoms-up carry: Back and hip muscle activation, motion, and low back loads. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 16-27.
McHugh, M.P., and Cosgrave, C.H. 2010. To stretch or not to stretch: The role of stretching in injury prevention and performance. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports 20: 169-181.
McHugh, M.P. Kremenic, I.J., Fox, M.B., and Gleim, G.W. 1998. The role of mechanical and neural restraints to joint range of motion during passive stretch. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 30: 928-932.
McHugh, M.P., Magnusson, S.P., Gleim, G.W., and Nicholas, J.A. 1992. Viscoelastic stress relaxation in human skeletal muscle. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 24: 1375-1382.

McInnis, K., and Balady, G. 1994. Comparison of submaximal exercise responses using the Bruce vs modified Bruce protocols. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 26: 103-107.
McKeon, P.O., and Hertel, J. 2008. Systematic review of postural control and lateral ankle instability. Part II: Is balance training clinically effective? Journal of Athletic Training 43(3): 305-315.
Mcrae, I.F., and Wright, V. 1969. Measurement of back movement. Annals of Rheumatic Diseases 28: 584-589.
McTiernan, A., Kooperberg, C., White, E., Wilcox, S., Coates, R., Adams-Campbell, L.L., Woods, N. and Okene, J. 2003. Recreational physical activity and the risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women: The Women's Health Initiative Cohort Study. Journal of the American Medical Association 290(10): 1331-1336.
Mears, J., and Kilpatrick, M. 2008. Motivation for exercise: Applying theory to make a difference in adoption and adherence. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 12(1): 20-26.
Meldrum, D., Cahalane, E., Conroy, R., Fitzgerald, D., and Hardiman, O. 2007. Maximum voluntary isometric contraction: Reference values and clinical application. Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis and Other Motor Neuron Disorders 8: 47-55.
Meldrum, D., Cahalane, E., Keogan, F., and Hardiman, O. 2003. Maximum voluntary isometric contraction: Investigation of reliability and learning effect. Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis and Other Motor Neuron Disorders 4: 36-44.
Messier, S.P., Royer, T.D., Craven, T.E., O’Toole, M.L., Burns, R., and Ettinger W.H. Jr. 2000. Long-term exercise and its effect on balance in older, osteoarthritic adults: Results from the Fitness, Arthritis, and Seniors Trial (FAST). Journal of the American Geriatrics Society 48: 131-138.
Metcalfe, L. 2010. The BEST strength training program for osteoporosis prevention. ACSM's Certified News 20(4): 7-8, 11.
Metcalfe, R.S., Babraj, J.A., Fawkner, S.G., and Vollaard, N.B.J. 2012. Toward the minimal amount of exercise for improving health: Beneficial effects of reduced-exertion high-intensity interval training. European Journal of Applied Physiology 112: 2767-2775.
Micozzi, M.S., Albanes, D., Jones, Y., and Chumlea, W.C. 1986. Correlations of body mass indices with weight, stature, and body composition in men and women in NHANES I and II. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 44: 725-731.

Midgley, A.W., Bentley, D.J., Luttikholt, H., McNaughton, L.R., and Millet, G.P. 2008. Challenging a dogma of exercise physiology. Does an incremental exercise test for valid $\dot{\mathrm{VO}}{ }_{2}$ max determination really need to last between 8 and 12 minutes? Sports Medicine 38: 441-447.
Mier, C.M., Alexander, R.P., and Mageean, A.L. 2012. Achievement of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max criteria during a continuous graded exercise test and a verification stage performed by college-aged athletes. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 2648-2654.
Mier, C.M., and Feito, Y. 2006. Metabolic cost of stride rate, resistance, and combined use of arms and legs on the
elliptical trainer. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 77: 507-513.
Mifflin, M.D., St. Jeor, S.T., Hill, L.A., Scott, B.J., Daugherty, S.A., and Koh, Y.O. 1990. A new predictive equation for resting energy expenditure in healthy individuals. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 51: 241-247.
Mikesky, A.E., Giddings, C.J., Matthews, W., and Gonyea, W.J. 1991. Changes in fiber size and composition in response to heavy-resistance exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 23: 1042-1049.
Milburn, S., and Butts, N.K. 1983. A comparison of the training responses to aerobic dance and jogging in college females. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 15: 510-513.
Millard-Stafford, M.L., Collins, M.A., Evans, E.M., Snow, T.K., Cureton, K.J., and Rosskopf, L.B. 2001. Use of air displacement plethysmography for estimating body fat in a four-component model. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33: 1311-1317.
Miller, J.B. 2001. GI research. www.glycemicindex.com.
Minkler, S., and Patterson, P. 1994. The validity of the modified sit-and-reach test in college-age students. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 65: 189-192.
Miranda, A.B., Simao, F., Rhea, M., Bunker, D., Prestes, J., Leite, R.D., Miranda, H., de Salles, B.F., and Novaes, J. 2011. Effects of linear vs. daily undulating periodized resistance training on maximal and submaximal strength gains. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 1824-1830.
Mischi, M., and Cardinale, M. 2009. The effects of a $28-\mathrm{Hz}$ vibration on arm muscle activity during isometric exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 645-653.
Mitros, M., Gabriel, K.P., Ainsworth, B., Lee, C.M., Herrmann, S., Campbell, K., and Swan, P. 2011. Comprehensive evaluation of a single-stage submaximal treadmill walking protocol in healthy, middle-aged women. European Journal of Applied Physiology 111: 47-56.
Moffatt, R.J., Stamford, B.A., and Neill, R.D. 1977. Placement of tri-weekly training sessions: Importance regarding enhancement of aerobic capacity. Research Quarterly 48: 583-591.
Moffroid, M.T., and Whipple, R.H. 1970. Specificity of speed of exercise. Physical Therapy 50: 1699-1704.
Mole, P.A., Oscai, L.B., and Holloszy, J.O. 1971. Adaptation of muscle to exercise: Increase in levels of palmityl CoA synthetase, carnitine palmityl-transferase, and palmityl CoA dehydrogenase and the capacity to oxidize fatty acids. Journal of Clinical Investigation 50: 2323-2329.
Molnar, D., Jeges, S., Erhardt, E., and Schutz, Y. 1995. Measured and predicted resting metabolic rate in obese and nonobese adolescents. Journal of Pediatrics 127: 571-577.
Montoye, H.J., and Faulkner, J.A. 1964. Determination of the optimum setting of an adjustable grip dynamometer. Research Quarterly 35: 29-36.
Moon, J.R., Stout, J.R., Walter, A.A., Smith, A.E., Stock, M.S., Herda, T.J., Sherk, V.D., Young, K.C., Lockwood, C.M.,

Kendall, K.L., Fukuda, D.H., Graff, J.L., Cramer, J.T., Beck, T.W., and Esposito, E.N. 2011. Mechanical scale and load cell underwater weighing: A comparison of simultaneous measurements and the reliability of methods. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 652-661.
Moon, J.R., Tobkin, S.E., Costa, P.B., Smalls, M., Mieding, W.K., O'Kroy, J.A., Zoeller, R.F., and Stout, J.R. 2008. Validity of the Bod Pod for assessing body composition in athletic high school boys. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 22: 263-268.
Mooney, V., Kron, M., Rummerfield, P., and Holmes, B. 1995. The effect of workplace based strengthening on low back injury rates: A case study in the strip mining industry. Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation 5: 157-167.
Moore, M.A., and Hutton, R.S. 1980. Electromyographic investigation of muscle stretching techniques. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 12: 322-329.
Moore, S.C. 2009. Waist versus weight-which matters more for mortality? American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 89: 1003-1004.
Moore, S.C., Gierach, G.L., Schatzkin, A., and Matthews, C.E. 2010. Physical activity, sedentary behaviours, and the prevention of endometrial cancer. British Journal of Cancer 103: 933-938.
Morehouse, L.E. 1972. Laboratory manual for physiology of exercise. St. Louis: Mosby.
Moritani, T., and deVries, H.A. 1979. Neural factors versus hypertrophy in the time course of muscle strength gain. American Journal of Physical Medicine 58: 115-130.
Morris, N., Gass, G., Thompson, M., Bennett, G., Basic, D., and Morton H. 2002. Rate and amplitude of adaptation to intermittent and continuous exercise in older men. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 34: 471-477.
Morrow, J.R., Jackson, A.S., Bradley, P.W., and Hartung, G.H. 1986. Accuracy of measured and predicted residual lung volume on body density measurement. Medicine \& Science in Sport \& Exercise 18: 647-652.
Morse, C.I. 2011. Gender differences in the passive stiffness of the human gastrocnemius muscle during stretch. European Journal of Applied Physiology 111: 2149-2154.
Muehlbauer, A.B., Roth, T., Mueller, S., and Granacher, U. 2011. Intra and intersession reliability of balance measures during one-leg standing in young adults. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 2228-2234.
Muir, S.W., Berg, K., Chesworth, B., and Speechley, M. 2008. Use of the Berg Balance Scale for predicting multiple falls in community-dwelling elderly people: A prospective study. Physical Therapy 88: 449-459.
Muller, M.J., Bosy-Westphal, A., Klaus, S., Kreymann, G., Luhrmann, P.M., Neuhauser-Berthold, M., Noack, R., Pirke, K.M., Platte, P., Selberg, O., and Steiniger, J. 2004. World Health Organization equations have shortcomings for predicting resting energy expenditure in persons from a modern, affluent population: Generation of a new reference standard from a retrospective analysis of a German
database of resting energy expenditure. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 80: 1379-1390.
Munroe, R.A., and Romance, T.J. 1975. Use of the Leighton flexometer in the development of a short flexibility test battery. American Corrective Therapy Journal 29: 22.
Murphy, E.C.S, Carson, L., Neal, W., Baylis, C., Donley, D., and Yeater, R. 2009. Effects of an exercise intervention using Dance Dance Revolution on endothelial function and other risk factors in overweight children. International Journal of Pediatric Obesity 4: 205-214.
Murphy, J.R., Di Santo, M.C., Alkanani, T., and Behm, D.G. 2010. Aerobic activity before and following short-duration static stretching improves range of motion and performance vs. a traditional warm-up. Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism 35: 679-690.

Myers, M.G., Valdivieso, M., and Kiss, A. 2009. Use of automated office blood pressure measurement to reduce the white coat response. Journal of Hypertension 27: 280-286.
Naclerio, A.B., Rodriguez-Romo, G., Barriopedro-Moro, M.I., Jimenez, A., Alvar, B.A., and Triplett, N.T. 2011. Control of resistance training intensity by the OMNI perceived exertion scale. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 1879-1888.

Nader, G.A. 2006. Concurrent strength and endurance training: From molecules to man. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 38: 1965-1970.
Nagle, F.S., Balke, B., and Naughton, J.P. 1965. Gradational step tests for assessing work capacity. Journal of Applied Physiology 20: 745-748.
Nakamura, M., Ikezoe, T., Takeno, Y., and Ichihashi, N. 2011. Acute and prolonged effect of static stretching on the passive stiffness of the human gastrocnemius muscle tendon unit in vivo. Journal of Orthopedic Research 29: 1759-1763.
Nana, A., Slater, G.J., Hopkins, W.G., and Burke, L.M. 2012. Effects of daily activities on dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry measurement of body composition in active people. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 44: 180-189.
Napolitano, M.A., Lewis, B.A., Whitely, J.A., and Marcus, B.H. 2010. Principles of health behavior change. In ACSM's resource manual for guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, 710-723. Philadelphia: Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams \& Wilkins.
Nashner, L.M. 1997. In Handbook of balance function testing, eds. G.P. Jacobson, C.W. Newman, and J.M. Kartush, 280-307. San Diego: Singular Publishing Group.
National Academy of Sciences. 2005. Dietary reference intakes for energy, carbohydrate, fiber, fat, fatty acids, cholesterol, protein, and amino acids. Washington, D.C.: The National Academies Press.

National Academy of Sciences. 2010. Dietary reference intakes: Recommended intakes for individuals. Washington, D.C.: The National Academies Press.
National Cholesterol Education Program. 2001. Executive summary of the third report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on detection,
evaluation, and treatment of high blood cholesterol in adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). Journal of the American Medical Association 285(19): 2486-2497.
National Osteoporosis Foundation 2011. Fast facts. Available at www.nof.org.node/40. Accessed October 1, 2012.
National Diabetes Information Clearinghouse. 2012. The diabetes epidemic among American Indians and Alaska Natives. Available at http://ndep.nih.gov/media/fs_amindian.pdf. Accessed September 29, 2012.
National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. 2012. What are the health risks of overweight and obesity? www.nhlbi.nih. gov/health/health-topics/topics/obe/risks.html. Accessed September 8, 2012.
National Institutes of Health. 2012. Mad as a hatter campaign for a mercury-free NIH. www.nems.nih.gov/Pages/madhatter.aspx. Accessed October 27, 2012.

National Institutes of Health and National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. 1998. Clinical guidelines on the identification, evaluation, and treatment of overweight and obesity in adults: The evidence report. Obesity Research 6(Suppl. 2): S51-S209.

National Institutes of Health Consensus Development Panel. 1985. Health implications of obesity: National Institutes of Health Consensus development statement. Annals of Internal Medicine 103: 1073-1079.
National Osteoporosis Foundation. 2004. America's bone health: The state of osteoporosis and low bone mass. www. nof.org/advocacy/prevalence.
National Strength and Conditioning Association. 2008. Essentials of strength training and conditioning, 3rd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Naughton, J., Balke, B., and Nagle, F. 1964. Refinement in methods of evaluation and physical conditioning before and after myocardial infarction. American Journal of Cardiology 14: 837.
Nelson, A.G., and Kokkonen, J. 2007. Stretching anatomy. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Nelson, A.G., Kokkonen, J., Arnall, D.A., and Li, L. 2012. Acute stretching increases postural stability in non-balancetrained individuals. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 3095-3100.
Nelson, M.E., and Folta, S.C. 2009. Further evidence for the benefits of walking. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 89: 15-16.
Nelson, M.E., Rejeski, W.J., Blair, S.N., Duncan, P.W., Judge, J.O., King, A.C., Macera, C.A., and Castaneda-Sceppa, C. 2007. Physical activity and public health in older adults: Recommendations from the American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart Association. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39(8): 1435-1445.
Ng, J.K., Kippers, V., Richardson, C.A., and Parnianpour, M. 2001. Range of motion and lordosis of the lumbar spine: Reliability of measurement and normative values. Spine 26: 53-60.
Ng, N. 1995. Metcalc. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

NHS Information Centre, Lifestyles Statistics 2012. Statistics on obesity, physical activity and diet: England, 2012.www. hscic.gov.uk/pubs/opad12. Accessed September 8, 2012.
Nichols, D.L., Sanborn, C.F., and Love, A.M. 2001. Resistance training and bone mineral density in adolescent females. Journal of Pediatrics 139: 494-499.

Nichols, J.F., Sherman, C.L., and Abbott, E. 2000. Treading is new and hot: 30 minutes meets the ACSM recommendations for cardiorespiratory fitness and caloric expenditure. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 4(2): 12-17.
Nickander, R., Sievanen, H., Heinonen, A., Daly, R.M., UusiRasi, K., and Kannus, P. 2010. Targeted exercise against osteoporosis: A systematic review and meta-analysis for optimizing bone strength throughout life. BMC Medicine 8: 47-63.

Nicklas, B.J., Wang, X., You, T., Lyles, M.F., Demons, J., Easter, L., Berry, M.J., Lenchik, L., and Carr, J.J. 2009. Effect of exercise intensity on abdominal fat loss during calorie restriction in overweight and obese postmenopausal women: A randomized, controlled trial. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 89: 1043-1052.

Nicklas, J.M., Huskey, K.W., Davis, R.B., and Wee, C.C. 2012. Successful weight loss among obese U.S. adults. American Journal of Preventive Medicine 42: 481-485.
Nissen, S.L., and Sharp, R.L. 2003. Effect of dietary supplements on lean mass and gains with resistance training: A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Physiology 94: 651-659.
Noakes, T.D. 2008. How did A V Hill understand the $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \max$ and the "plateau phenomenon"? Still no clarity? British Journal of Sports Medicine 42: 574-580.
Noland, M., and Kearney, J.T. 1978. Anthropometric and densitometric responses of women to specific and general exercise. Research Quarterly 49: 322-328.
Norkin, C.C., and White, D.J. 1995. Measurement of joint motion: A guide to goniometry. Philadelphia: Davis.
Norris, C. 2000. Back stability. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Norris, R.A., Wilder, E., and Norton, J. 2008. The functional reach test in 3- to 5 -year-old children without disabilities. Pediatric Physical Therapy 20: 47-52.
North American Spine Society. 2009. Exercise for a healthy back. www.spine.org/Pages/ConsumerHealth/SpineHealthAndWellness/PreventBackPain.
Norton, K., Marfell-Jones, M., Whittingham, N., Kerr, D., Carter, L., Saddington, K., and Gore, C. 2000. Anthropometric assessment protocols. In Physiological tests for elite athletes, ed. C. Gore, 66-85. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Nunez, C., Kovera, A., Pietrobelli, A., Heshka, S., Horlick, M., Kehayias, J., Wang, Z., and Heymsfield, S. 1999. Body composition in children and adults by air displacement plethysmography. European Journal of Clinical Nutrition 53: 382-387.

O'Brien, E. 2003. Demise of the mercury sphygmomanometer and the dawning of a new era in blood pressure measurement. Blood Pressure Monitoring 8: 19-21.

O’Brien, E., Pickering, T., Asmar, R., Myers, M., Parati, G., Staessen, J., Mengden, T., Imai, Y., Waeber, B., and Palantini, P. 2002. Working group on blood pressure monitoring of the European Society of Hypertension International Protocol for validation of blood pressure measuring devices in adults. Blood Pressure Monitoring 7: 3-17.
O'Brien, E., Waeber, B., Parati, G., Staessen, J., and Myers, M.G. 2001. Blood pressure measuring devices: Recommendations of the European Society of Hypertension. British Medical Journal 322: 531- 536.
O'Brien, R.J., and Drizd, T.A. 1983. Roentgenographic determination of total lung capacity: Normal values from a national population survey. American Review of Respiratory Diseases 128: 949-952.
Ogden, C.L., Carroll, M.D., Curtin, L.R., McDowell, M.A., Tabak, C.J., and Flegal, K.M. 2006. Prevalence of overweight and obesity in the United States, 1999-2004. Journal of the American Medical Association 295: 1549-1555.
Ogden, C.L., Carroll, M.D., and Flegal, K.M. 2008. High body mass index for age among US children and adolescents, 2003-2006. Journal of the American Medical Association 299: 2401-2405.
Ogedegbe, G., Agyemang, C., and Ravenell, J.E. 2010. Masked hypertension: Evidence of the need to treat. Current Hypertension Reports 12: 349-355.
Oh, K.Y., Kim, S.A., Lee, S.Y., and Lee, S.L. 2011. Comparison of manual balance and balance board tests in healthy adults. Annals of Rehabilitation Medicine 35: 873-879.
Ohkubo, T., Kikuya, M., Metoki, H., Asayama, K., Obara, T., Hashimoto, J., Totsune, K., Hoshi, H., Satoh, H., and Imai, Y. 2005. Prognosis of "masked" hyptertension and "white-coat" hypertension detected by $24-\mathrm{h}$ ambulatory blood pressure monitoring: A 10-year follow-up from the Ohasama study. Journal of American College of Cardiology 46: 508-515.
O'Hora, J., Cartwright, A., Wade, C.D., Hough, A.D., and Shum, G.L. 2011. Efficacy of static stretching and proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation stretch on hamstrings in length after a single session. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 1586-1591.
Ohrvall, M., Berglund, L., and Vessby, B. 2000. Sagittal abdominal diameter compared with other anthropometric measurements in relation to cardiovascular risk. International Journal of Obesity 24: 497-501.
Oken, B.S., Zajdel, D., Kishiyama, S., Flegal, K., Dehen, C., Haas, M., Kraemer, D.F., Lawrence, J., and Leyva, J. 2006. Randomized, controlled, six-month trial of yoga in healthy seniors: Effects on cognition and quality of life. Alternative Therapy in Health and Medicine 12: 40-47.
Olmsted, L.C., Carcia, C.R., Hertel, J., and Schultz, S.J. 2002. Efficacy of the star excursion balance tests in detecting reach deficits in subjects with chronic ankle instability. Journal of Athletic Training 37: 501-506.
Olson, M.S., Williford, H.N., Blessing, D.L., and Greathouse, R. 1991. The cardiovascular and metabolic effects of bench stepping exercise in females. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 23: 1311-1318.

Oluyomi, A.O., Whitehead, L.W., Burau, K.D., Symanski, E., Kohl, H.W., and Bondy, M. 2012. Physical activity guideline in Mexican-Americans: Does the built environment play a role? Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health. DOI 10.1007/s10903-012-9724-1. Accessed November 10, 2012.
Omboni, S., Riva, I., Giglio, I., Caldara, G., Groppelli, A., and Parati, G. 2007. Validation of the Omron M5-I, R5-I and HEM-907 automated blood pressure monitors in elderly individuals according to the International Protocol of the European Society of Hypertension. Blood Pressure Monitoring 12: 233-242.
Oppliger, R.A., Nielsen, D.H., and Vance, C.G. 1991. Wrestlers' minimal weight: Anthropometry, bioimpedance, and hydrostatic weighing compared. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 23: 247-253.
O'Riordan, C.F., Metcalf, B.S., Perkins, J.M., and Wilkin, T.J. 2010. Reliability of energy expenditure prediction equations in the weight management clinic. Journal of Human Nutrition and Dietetics 23: 169-175.
Ornish, D. 2004. Was Dr Atkins right? Journal of the American Medical Association 104: 537-542.
Orr, R., de Vos, N.J., Singh, N.A., Ross, D.A., Stavrinos, T.M., and Fiatarone-Singh, M.A. 2006. Power training improves balance in healthy older adults. The Journals of Gerontology Series A 61: 78-85.
Orr, R., Raymond, J., and Singh, M.F. 2008. Efficacy of progressive resistance training on balance performance in older adults. A systematic review of randomized controlled trials. Sports Medicine 38: 317-343.
Ortiz, O., Russell, M., Daley, T.L., Baumgartner, R.N., Waki, M., Lichtman, S., Wang, S., Pierson, R.N., and Heymsfield, S.B. 1992. Differences in skeletal muscle and bone mineral mass between black and white females and their relevance to estimates of body composition. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 55: 8-13.
Ostchega, Y., Prineas, R.J., Dillon, C., McDowell, M., and Carroll, M. 2004. Estimating equations and tables for adult mid-arm circumference based on measured height and weight: Data from the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES III) and NHANES 1999-2000. Blood Pressure Monitoring 9: 123-131.
Ostchega, Y., Zhang, G., Sorlie, P., Hughes, J.P., Reed-Gillette, D.S., Nwanko, T., and Yoon, W. 2012. Blood pressure randomized methodology study comparing automatic oscillometric and mercury sphygmomanometer devices: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2009-2010. National Health Statistics Report number 59, October 5.
Otto III, W.H, Coburn, J.W., Brown, L.E., Spiering, B.A. 2012. Effects of weightlifting vs. kettlebell training on vertical jump, strength, and body composition. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 1199-1202.
Page, P., and Ellenbecker, T. 2005. Strength band training. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Painter, J., Rah, J.H., and Lee, Y.K. 2002. Comparison of international food guide pictorial representations. Journal of the American Dietetic Association 102: 483-489.

Painter, K.B., Haff, G.G., Ramsey, M.W., McBride, J., Triplett, T., Sands, W.A., Lamont, H.S., Stone, M.E., and Stone, M.H. 2012. Strength gains: Block versus daily undulating periodization weight training among track and field athletes. International Journal of Sports Physiology and Performance 7: 161-169.
Pajala, S., Era, P., Koskenvuo, M., Kaprio, J., Tormakangas, T., and Rantanen, T. 2008. Force platform balance measures as predictors of indoor and outdoor falls in communitydwelling women 63-76 years. Journal of Gerontology 63: 171-178.

Pajunen, P., Heliovaara, M., Rissanen, H., Reunanen, A., Laaksonen, M.A., and Knekt, P. 2013. Sagittal abdominal diameter as a new predictor for incident diabetes. Diabetes Care 36(2): 283-288. doi: 10.2337/dc11-2451.
Palatini, P., Benetti, E., Fania, C., Malipiero, G., and Saladini, F. 2012. Rectangular cuffs may overestimate blood pressure in individuals with large conical arms. Journal of Hypertension 30: 530-536.

Palatini, P., Dorigatti, F., Bonso, E., and Ragazzo, F. 2008. Validation of the Microlife BP W200-1 wrist device for blood pressure measurement. Blood Pressure Monitoring 13: 295-298.
Panotopoulos, G., Ruiz, J.C., Guy-Grand, B., and Basdevant, A. 2001. Dual x-ray absorptiometry, bioelectrical impedance, and near-infrared interactance in obese women. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33: 665-670.
Paradiso, R., and Pacelli, M. 2011. Textile electrodes and integrated smart textile for reliable biomonitoring. Conference Proceedings IEEE Engineering in Medical and Biological Society 2011: 3274-3277.
Paradiso, R., Faetti, T., and Werner, S. 2011. Wearable monitoring systems for psychological and physiological state assessment in a naturalistic environment. Conference Proceedings IEEE Engineering in Medical and Biological Society 2011: 2250-2253.
Parati, G., and Ochoa, J.E. 2012. Automated-ausculatotory (Hybrid) sphygmomanometers for clinic blood pressure measurement: A suitable substitute to mercury sphygmomanometer as reference standard? Journal of Human Hypertension 26: 211-213.
Parfitt, G., Evans, H., and Eston, R. 2012. Perceptually regulated training at RPE13 is pleasant and improves physical health. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 44: 1613-1618.
Parker, S.B., Hurley, B.F., Hanlon, D.P., and Vaccaro, P. 1989. Failure of target heart rate to accurately monitor intensity during aerobic dance. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 21: 230-234.
Partnership for Essential Nutrition. 2004. The impact of the low-carb craze on attitudes about eating and weight loss: A national opinion survey conducted for the Partnership for Essential Nutrition. http://www.essentialnutrition.org/ survey.php.
Pate, R.R., Pratt, M., Blair, S.N., Haskell, W.L., Macera, C.A., Bouchard, C., Buchner, D., Ettinger, W., Heath, G.W., and King, A.C. 1995. Physical activity and public health: A
recommendation from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and the American College of Sports Medicine. Journal of the American Medical Association 273: 402-407.

Patterson, P., Wiksten, D.L., Ray, L., Flanders, C., and Sanphy, D. 1996. The validity and reliability of the backsaver sit-and-reach test in middle school girls and boys. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 67: 448-451.
Paulsen, G., Myklested, D., and Reestad, T. 2003. The influence of volume of exercise on early adaptations to strength training. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 17: 115-120.

Pavlou, K.N., Steffee, W.P., Lerman, R.H., and Burrows, B.A. 1985. Effects of dieting and exercise on lean body mass, oxygen uptake, and strength. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 17: 466-471.
Payne, N., Gledhill, N., Kazmarzyk, P.T., Jamnik, V., and Keir, P.J. 2000. Canadian musculoskeletal fitness norms. Canadian Journal of Applied Physiology 25: 430-442.
Peeters, M.W. 2012. Subject positioning in the BodPod only marginally affects measurement of body volume and estimation of body fat in young adult men. PLoS One 7: E32722. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032722.
Peeters, M.W., and Claessens, A.L. 2011. Effect of different swim caps on the assessment of body volume and percentage body fat by air displacement plethysmography. Journal of Sports Sciences 29: 191-196.
Pennings, B., Koopman, R., Beelen, M., Senden, J.M.G., Saris, W.H.M., and van Loon, L.J.C. 2010. Exercising before protein intake allows for greater use of dietary proteinderived amino acids for de novo muscle protein synthesis in both young and elderly men. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 93: 322-331.
Perrier, E.T., Pavol, M.J., and Hoffman, M.A. 2011. The acute effects of a warm-up including static or dynamic stretching on countermovement jump height, reaction time, and flexibility. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 1925-1931.
Perrin, D.H. 1993. Isokintic exercise and assessment. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Persinger, R., Foster, C., Gibson, M., Fater, D.C.W., and Porcari, J.P. 2004. Consistency of the talk test for exercise prescription. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 1632-1636.
Pescatello, L.S., Franklin, B.A., Fagard, R., Farquhar, W.B., Kelley, G.A, and Ray, C.A. 2004. American College of Sports Medicine position stand. Exercise and hypertension. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 533-553.
Peters, D., Fox, K., Armstrong, N., Sharpe, P., and Bell, M. 1992. Assessment of children's abdominal fat distribution by magnetic resonance imaging and anthropometry. International Journal of Obesity 16(Suppl. 2): S35 [abstract].
Peters, M.J.H., van Nes, S.I., Vanhoutte, E.K., Bakkers, M., van Doorn, P.A., Merkies, I.S.J., and Faber, C.G. 2011. Revised normative values for grip strength with the Jamar dynamometer. Journal of the Peripheral Nervous System 16: 47-50.

Petersen, T., Verstraete, D., Schultz, W., and Stray-Gundersen, J. 1993. Metabolic demands of step aerobics. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 25: S79 [abstract].
Peterson, M.D. 2010. Resistance exercise for sarcopenic outcomes and muscular fitness in aging adults. Strength and Conditioning Journal 32(3): 52-61.

Peterson, M., Chandlee, M., and Abraham, A. 2008. Costeffectiveness analysis of a statewide media campaign to promote adolescent physical activity. Health Promotion Practice 9: 426-433.
Peterson, M.D., and Gordon, P.M. 2011. Resistance exercise for the aging adult: Clinical implications and prescription guidelines. The American Journal of Medicine 124: 194-198.

Peterson, M.D., Rhea, M.R., and Alvar, B.A. 2004. Maximizing strength development in athletes: A meta-analysis to determine the dose-response relationship. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 18: 377-382.
Peterson, M.D., Rhea, M.R., Sen, A., and Gordon, P.M. 2010. Resistance exercise for muscular strength in older adults: A meta-analysis. Ageing Research Reviews 9: 226-237.
Peterson, M.D., Sen, A., and Gordon, P.M. 2011. Influence of resistance exercise on lean body mass in aging adults: A meta-analysis. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 43: 249-258.
Petrella, J.K., Kim, J.S., Mayhew, D.L., Cross, J.M., and Bamman, M.M. 2008. Potent myofiber hypertrophy during resistance training in humans is associated with satellite cell-mediated myonuclear addition: A cluster analysis. Journal of Applied Physiology 104: 1736-1742.
Pickering, T.G., Hall, J.E., Appel, L.J., Falkner, B.E., Graves, J., Hill, M.N., Jones, D.W., Kurtz, T., Sheldon, G., and Rocella, E.J. 2005. Recommendations for blood pressure measurement in humans and experimental animals: Part 1: Blood pressure measurement in humans: A statement for professionals from the subcommittee of Professional and Public Education of the American Heart Council on High Blood Pressure Research. Hypertension 45(1): 142-161.
Pierce, P., and Herman, S. 2004. Obtaining, maintaining, and advancing your fitness certification. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance 75(7): 50-53.
Pietrobelli, A., Formica, C., Wang, Z., and Heymsfield, S.B. 1996. Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry body composition model: Review of physical concepts. American Journal of Physiology 271: E941-E951.
Pimentel, G.D., Moreto, F., Takahashi, M.M., Portero-Mclellan, K.D., and Burini, R.C. 2011. Sagittal abdominal diameter, but not waist circumference is strongly associated with glycemia, triacylglycerols and HDL-c levels in overweight adults. Nutricion Hospitalaria 25: 1125-1129.
Pi-Sunyer, F.X. 1999. Comorbidities of overweight and obesity: Current evidence and research issues. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31: S602-S608.
Pi-Sunyer, F.X. 2002. Glycemic index and disease. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 76(Suppl.): 290S-298S.

Plowman, S.A. 1992. Physical activity, physical fitness, and low-back pain. Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews 20: 221-242.
Podsiadlo, D., and Richardson, S. 1991. The timed "up \& go": A test of basic functional mobility of frail elderly persons. Journal of the American Geriatrics Society 39: 142-148.

Pollock, M.L. 1973. The quantification of endurance training programs. In Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews, ed. J.H. Wilmore, 1: 155-188. New York: Academic Press.
Pollock, M.L., Bohannon, R.L., Cooper, K.H., Ayres, J.J., Ward, A., White, S.R., and Linnerud, A.C. 1976. A comparative analysis of four protocols for maximal treadmill stress testing. American Heart Journal 92: 39-46.
Pollock, M.L., Broida, J., and Kendrick, Z. 1972. Validity of the palpation technique of heart rate determination and its estimation of training heart rate. Research Quarterly 43: 77-81.

Pollock, M.L., Cureton, T.K., and Greninger, L. 1969. Effects of frequency of training on working capacity, cardiovascular function, and body composition of adult men. Medicine and Science in Sports 1: 70-74.
Pollock, M.L., Dimmick, J., Miller, H.S., Kendrick, Z., and Linnerud, A.C. 1975. Effects of mode of training on cardiovascular function and body composition of middle-aged men. Medicine and Science in Sports 7: 139-145.
Pollock, M.L., Foster, C., Schmidt, D., Hellman, C., Linnerud, A.C., and Ward, A. 1982. Comparative analysis of physiologic responses to three different maximal graded exercise test protocols in healthy women. American Heart Journal 103: 363-373.
Pollock, M.L., Gaesser, G.A., Butcher, J.D., Despres, J.P., Dishman, R.K., Franklin, B.A., and Garber, C.E. 1998. The recommended quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory and muscular fitness, and flexibility in healthy adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 30: 975-991.
Pollock, M.L., Garzarella, L., and Graves, J. 1992. Effects of isolated lumbar extension resistance training on BMD of the elderly. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 24: S66 [abstract].
Pollock, M.L., Gettman, L., Milesis, C., Bah, M., Durstine, L., and Johnson, R. 1977. Effects of frequency and duration of training on attrition and incidence of injury. Medicine and Science in Sports 9: 31-36.
Pollock, M.L., and Jackson, A.S. 1984. Research progress in validation of clinical methods of assessing body composition. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 16: 606-613.
Pollock, M.L., Miller, H.S., Janeway, R., Linnerud, A.C., Robertson, B., and Valentino, R. 1971. Effects of walking on body composition and cardiovascular function of middleaged men. Journal of Applied Physiology 30: 126-130.
Pollock, M.L., Miller, H.S., Linnerud, A.C., and Cooper, K.H. 1975. Frequency of training as a determinant for improvement in cardiovascular function and body composition of middle-aged men. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 56: 141-145.

Pollock, M.L., Wilmore, J.H., and Fox, S.M. III. 1978. Health and fitness through physical activity. New York: Wiley.
Pondal, M., and del Ser, T. 2008. Normative data and determinants for the timed "up and go" test in a population-based sample of elderly individuals without gait disturbances. Journal of Geriatric Physical Therapy 31(2): 57-63.
Poortmans, J.R., and Francaux, M. 2000. Adverse effects of creatine supplementation: Fact or fiction? Sports Medicine 30: 155-170.
Pope R.P., Herbert, R.D., Kirwan, J.D., and Graham, B.J. 2000. A randomized trial of preexercise stretching for prevention of lower limb injury. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32: 271-277.
Porcari, J., Foster, C., and Schneider, P. 2000. Exercise response to elliptical trainers. Fitness Management 16(9): 50-53.
Porszasz, J., Casaburi, R., Somfay, A., Woodhouse, L.J., and Whipp, B.J. 2003. A treadmill ramp protocol using simultaneous changes in speed and grade. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 35: 1596-1603.
Porter, D.E., Kirtland, K.A., Neet, M.J., Williams, J.E., and Ainsworth, B.E. 2004. Consideration for using a geographic information system to assess environmental supports for physical activity. Preventing Chronic Disease: Public Health Research, Practice and Policy 1(4): 1-6.
Porter, G.H. 1988. Case study evaluation for exercise prescription. In Resource manual for guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, ed. S.N. Blair, P. Painter, R.R. Pate, L.K. Smith, and C.B. Taylor, 248-255. Philadelphia: Lea \& Febiger.
Porter, M.M. 2006. Power training for older adults. Applied Physiology, Nutrition and Metabolism 31: 87-94.
Powell, K.E., Thompson, P.D., Casperson, C.J., and Kendrick, J.S. 1987. Physical activity and the incidence of coronary heart disease. Annual Review of Public Health 8: 253-287.
President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports. 1997. The presidential physical fitness award program. Washington, D.C.: author.

Prevalence of leisure-time physical activity among overweight adults—United States, 1998. 2000. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report 49(15), April 21.
Prineas, R.J., Ostchega, Y., Carroll, M., Dillon, C., and McDowell, M. 2007. US demographic trends in mid-arm circumference and recommended blood pressure cuffs for children and adolescents: Data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 1988-2004. Blood Pressure Monitoring 12(2): 75-80.
Prior, B.M., Cureton, K.J., Modlesky, C.M., Evans, E.M., Sloniger, M.A., Saunders, M., and Lewis, R.D. 1997. In vivo validation of whole body composition estimates from dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Journal of Applied Physiology 83: 623-630.
Prochaska, J.O., and DiClemente, C.C. 1982. Trans-theoretical therapy: Toward a more integrative model of change. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, and Practice 19: 276-288.

Proske, U., and Morgan, D.L. 2001. Muscle damage from eccentric exercise: Mechanism, mechanical signs, adaptation, and clinical applications. Journal of Physiology 537: 333-345.

Province, M.A., Hadley, E.C., Hornbrook, M.C., Lipsitz, L.A., Miller, J.P., Mulrow, C.P., Ory, M.G., Sattin, R.W., Tinetti, M.E., and Wolf, S.L. 1995. The effects of exercise on falls in elderly patients. A preplanned meta-analysis of the FICSIT trials. Frailty and injuries: Cooperative studies of intervention techniques. Journal of the American Medical Association 273: 1341-1347.
Pruitt, L.A., Jackson, R.D., Bartels, R.L., and Lehnhard, H.J. 1992. Weight-training effects on bone mineral density in early postmenopausal women. Journal of Bone Mineral Research 7: 179-185.
Pruitt, L.A., Taaffe, D.R., and Marcus, R. 1995. Effects of a one-year high-intensity versus low-intensity resistance training program on bone mineral density in older women. Journal of Bone Mineral Research 10: 1788-1795.
Public Health Agency of Canada. 2009. Facts on current physical activity levels of Canadians. www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/ pau-uap/paguide/back3e.html.
Quatrochi, J.A., Hicks, V.L., Heyward, V.H., Colville, B.C., Cook, K.L., Jenkins, K.A., and Wilson, W. 1992. Relationship of optical density and skinfold measurements: Effects of age and level of body fatness. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 63: 402-409.
Quinn, T.J., and Coons, B.A. 2011. Talk test and its relationship with the ventilatory and lactate thresholds. Journal of Sports Sciences 29: 1175-1182.
Raffaelli, C., Galvani, C., Lanza, M., and Zamparo, P. 2012. Different methods for monitoring intensity during waterbased aerobic exercise. European Journal of Applied Physiology 112: 125-134.
Rajaram, S., Weaver, C.M., Lyle, R.M., Sedlock, D.A., Martin, B., Templin, T.J., Beard, J.L., and Percival, S.S. 1995. Effects of long-term moderate exercise on iron status in young women. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 1105-1110.
RAND Corporation. 2012. The trend for severe obesity is upward. Medical News Today. www.medicalnewstoday. com/releases/250992.php. Accessed October 5, 2012.
Rankinen, T., Rice, T., Teran-Garcia, M., Rao, D.C., and Bouchard, C. 2010. FTO genotype is associated with exercise training-induced changes in body composition. Obesity 18: 322-326.
Ratamess, N.A., Alvar, B.A., Evetoch, T.K., Housh, T.J., Kibler, W.B., Kraemer, W.J., and Triplett, N.T. 2009. ACSM position stand: Progression models in resistance training for healthy adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 687-708.

Ratamess, N.A., Kraemer, W.J., Volek, J.S., Rubin, M.R., Gomez, A.L., French, D.N., Sharman, M.J., McGuigan, M.M., Scheett, T., Hakkinen, K., Newton, R.U., and Dioguardi, F. 2003. The effects of amino acid supplementation
on muscular performance during resistance training overreaching. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 17: 250-258.
Rauch, F. Sievanen, H., Boonen, S., Cardinale, M., Dengens, H., Felsenberg, D., Roth, J., Schoenau, E., Verschueren, S., and Rittweger, J. 2010. Reporting whole-body vibration intervention studies: Recommendations of the International Society of Musculoskeletal and Neuronal Interactions. Journal of Musculoskeletal and Neuronal Interactions 10: 193-198.
Raue, U., Trappe, T.A., Estrem, S.T., Qian, H.R., Helvering, L.M., Smith, R.C., and Trappe, S. 2012. Transcriptome signature of resistance training adaptations: Mixed muscle and fiber type specific profiles in young and old adults. Journal of Applied Physiology 112: 1625-1636.
Rawson, E.S., and Clarkson, P.M. 2003. Scientifically debatable: Is creatine worth its weight? Gatorade Sport Science Exchange 91 16(4): 1-13.
Rawson, E.S., Gunn, B., and Clarkson, P.M. 2001. The effects of creatine supplementation on exercise-induced muscle damage. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 15: 178-184.
Rebuffe-Scrive, M. 1985. Adipose tissue metabolism and fat distribution. In Human body composition and fat distribution, ed. N.G. Norgan, 212-217. Wageningen, Netherlands: Euronut.
Recalde, P.T., Foster, C., Skemp-Arlt, K.M., Fater, D.C.W., Neese, C.A., Dodge, C., and Porcari, J.P. 2002. The talk test as a simple marker of ventilatory threshold. South African Journal of Sports Medicine 8: 5-8.
Reese, N.B., and Bandy, W.D. 2003. Use of an inclinometer to measure flexibility of the iliotibial band using the Ober test and the modified Ober test: Differences in magnitude and reliability of measurements. Journal of Orthopaedic and Sports Physical Therapy 33: 326-330.
Reeves, R.A. 1995. Does this patient have hypertension? How to measure blood pressure. Journal of the American Medical Association 273: 1211-1218.
Reiman, M.P., and Manske, R.C. 2009. Functional testing in human performance. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Reiman, M.P., Krier, A.D., Nelson, J.A., Rogers, M.A., Stuke, Z.O., and Smith, B.S. 2010. Reliability of alternative trunk endurance testing procedures using clinician stabilization vs. traditional methods. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 24: 730-736.
Reiner, Z., Carapano, A.L., DeBacker, G., Fraham, I., Taskinen, M-R., Wiklund, O., Agewall, S., Alegria, E., Chapman, M.J., Durrington, P., Erdine, S., Halcox, J., Hobbs, R., Kjekshus, J., Filardi, P.P., Riccardi, G., Storey, R.F., and Wood, D. 2011. ESC/EAS guidelines for the management of dyslipidaemias. European Heart Journal 32: 1769-1818.
Rhea, M.R., Alvar, B.A., Burkett, L.N., and Ball, S.D. 2003a. A meta-analysis to determine the dose response for strength development. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 35: 456-464.

Rhea, M.R., Ball, S.D., Phillips, W.T., and Burkett, L.N. 2002. A comparison of linear and daily undulating periodized programs with equated volume and intensity for strength. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 16: 250-255.

Rhea, M.R., Phillips, W.T., Burkett, L.N., Stone, W.J., Ball, S.D., Alvar, B.A., and Thomas, A.B. 2003b. A comparison of linear and daily undulating periodized programs with equated volume and intensity for local muscular endurance. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 17: 82-87.
Richards, J.B., Valdes, A.M., Gardner, J.P., Kato, B.S., Silva, A., Kimura, M., Lu, X., Brown, M.J., Aviv, A., and Spector, T.D. 2008. Homocysteine levels and leukocyte telomere length. Atherosclerosis 200: 271-277.

Richardson, C.R., Newton, T.L., Abraham, J.J., Sen, A., Jimbo, M., and Swartz, A.M. 2008. A meta-analysis of pedometerbased walking interventions and weight loss. Annals of Family Medicine 6: 69-77.
Riddle, D.L., and Stratford, P.W. 1999. Interpreting validity indexes for diagnostic tests: An illustration using the Berg balance test. Physical Therapy 79: 939-948.
Ridley, K., Ainsworth, B.E., and Olds, T.S. 2008. Development of a compendium of energy expenditures for youth. International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity 5: 45-52.
Riebe, D., and Niggs, C. 1998. Setting the stage for healthy living. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 2(3): 11-15.
Rikli, R., Petray, C., and Baumgartner, T. 1992. The reliability of distance run tests for children in grades K-4. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 63: 270-276.
Rikli, R.E., and Jones, C.J. 1999. Development and validation of a functional fitness test for community-residing older adults. Journal of Aging and Physical Activity 7: 127-159.
Rikli, R.E, and Jones, C.J. 2013. Senior fitness test manual. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Riley, D.A., and Van Dyke, J.M. 2012. The effects of active and passive stretching on muscle length. Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Clinics of North America 23: 51-57.
Rixon, K.P., Rehor, P.R., and Bemben, M.G. 2006. Analysis of the assessment of caloric expenditure in four modes of aerobic dance. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 20: 593-596.
Rizzo, A., Lange, B., Suma, E.A., and Bolas, M. 2011. Virtual reality and interactive digital game technology: New tools to address obesity and diabetes. Journal of Diabetes Science and Technology 5: 256-264.
Roberts, H.C., Denison, J.J., Martin, J.J., Patel, H.P., Syddall, H., Cooper, C., and Sayer, A.A. 2011. A review of the measurement of grip strength in clinical and epidemiological studies: Towards a standardized approach. Age and Ageing 40: 423-429.

Roberts, J.M., and Wilson, K. 1999. Effect of stretching duration on active and passive range of motion in the lower extremity. British Journal of Sports Medicine 33: 259-263.

Robertson, R.J. 2004. Perceived exertion for practitioners. Rating effort with the OMNI picture system. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Robertson, R.J., Goss, F.L., Andreacci, J.L., Dube, J.J., Rutkowski, J.J., Frazee, K.M., Aaron, D.J., Metz, K.F., Kowallis, R.A., and Snee, B.M. 2005. Validation of the children's OMNI-resistance exercise scale of perceived exertion. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 37: 819-826.
Robinson, R.H., and Gribble, P.A. 2008. Support for a reduction in the number of trials needed for the star excursion balance test. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 89: 364-370.
Roby, R.B. 1962. Effect of exercise on regional subcutaneous fat accumulations. Research Quarterly 33: 273-278.
Rochmis, P., and Blackburn, H. 1971. Exercise tests. A survey of procedures, safety and litigation experience in approximately 170,000 tests. Journal of the American Medical Association 217: 1061-1066.

Rockport Walking Institute. 1986. Rockport fitness walking test. Marlboro, MA: Author.
Rodd, D., Ho, L., and Enzler, D. 1999. Validity of Tanita TBF515 bioelectrical impedance scale for estimating body fat in young adults. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 31(Suppl.): S201 [abstract].
Rodgers, W.M., and Loitz, C.C. 2009. The role of motivation in behavior change: How do we encourage our clients to be active? ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 13(1): 7-12.

Rodriguez, D.A., Brown, A.L., and Troped, P.J. 2005. Portable global positioning units to complement accelerometrybased physical activity monitors. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 37(Suppl.): S572-S581.
Roelants, M., Delecluse, C., Goris, M., and Verschueren, S. 2004. Effects of 24 weeks of whole body vibration training on body composition and muscle strength in untrained females. International Journal of Sports Medicine 25: 1-5.
Roger, V.L., Go, A.S., Lloyd-Jones, D.M., Benjamin, E.J., Berry, J.D., Borden, W.B., Bravata, D.M., Dai, S., Ford, E.S., Fox, C.S., Fullerton, H.J., Gillespie, C., Jailpern, S.M., Hert, J.A., Howard, V.J., Kissela, B.M., Kittner, S.J., Lackland, D.T., Lichtman, J.H., Lisabeth, L.D., Makue, D.M., Marcus, G.M., Marielli, A., Matchar, D.B., Moy, C.S., Mozaffarian, D., Mussolino, M.E., Nichol, G., Paynter, N.P., Soliman, E.Z., Sorlie, P.D., Sotoodehnia, N.O., Turan, T.N., Virani, S.S., Wong, N.D., Woo, D., and Turner, M.B. on behalf of the American Heart Association Statistics Committee and Stroke Statistics Subcommittee. 2012. Heart disease and stroke statistics-2012 update: a report from the American Heart Association. Circulation 10.1161/ CIR.0b013e31823ac046.

Rogers, C.E., Larkey, L.K., and Keller, C. 2009. A review of clinical trials of tai chi and Qigong in older adults. Western Journal of Nursing Research 31: 245-279.

Rojas, R., Aguilar-Salinas, C.A., Jimenez-Corona, A., ShamahLevy, T., Rauda, J., Avila-Burgos, L., Villalpando, S., and Ponce. E.L. 2010. Metabolic syndrome in Mexican adults: Results from the National Health and Nutrition Survey 2006. Salud Publica de Mexico 52(Suppl. 1): S11-S18.

Rokholm, B., Baker, J.L., and Sorensen, T.I. 2010. The leveling off of the obesity epidemic since the year 1999: A review of evidence and perspectives. Obesity Reviews 11: 835-846.

Romo-Perez, V., Schwingel, A., and Chodzko-Zajko, W. 2011. International resistance training recommendations for older adults: Implications for the promotion of healthy aging in Spain. Journal of Human Sport \& Exercise 6: 639-648.
Ronnestad, B.R., Holden, G., Samnoy, L.E., and Paulsen, G. 2012. Acute effect of whole-body vibration on power, one-repetition maximum, and muscle activation in power lifters. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 531-539.
Rose, D.J. 2003. Fall proof: A comprehensive balance and mobility training program. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Rosendale, R.P., and Bartok, C.J. 2012. Air displacement plethysmography for the measurement of body composition in children aged 6-48 months. Pediatric Research 71: 299-304.
Ross, J., and Pate, R. 1987. The national children and youth fitness study II: A summary of findings. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance 58: 51-56.
Ross, R., and Janssen, I. 2001. Physical activity, total and regional obesity: Dose-response considerations. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33(Suppl.): S521-S527.
Ross, W.D., and Marfell-Jones, M.J. 1991. Kinanthropometry. In Physiological testing of the high-performance athlete, ed. J.D. MacDougall, H.A. Wenger, and H.J. Green, 75-115, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Rossiter, H.B., Kowalchuk, J.M., and Whipp, B.J. 2006. A test to establish maximum $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ uptake despite no plateau in the $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ uptake response to ramp incremental exercise. Journal of Applied Physiology 100: 764-770.
Row, B.S., and Cavanagh, P.R. 2007. Reaching upward is more challenging to dynamic balance than reaching forward. Clinical Biomechanics 22: 155-164.

Rowlands, A.V., Marginson, V.F., and Lee, J. 2003. Chronic flexibility gains: Effect of isometric contraction duration during proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation stretching techniques. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 74: 47-51.
Roy, J.L.P., Smith, J.F., Bishop, P.A., Hallinan, C., Wang, M., and Hunter, G.R. 2004. Prediction of maximal $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ from a submaximal StairMaster test in young women. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 18: 92-96.
Roza, A.M., and Shizgal, H.M. 1984. The Harris Benedict equation reevaluated: Resting energy requirements and the body cell mass. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition. 40: 168-182.
Rubenstein, L.Z., and Josephson, K.R. 2002. The epidemiology of falls and syncope. Clinics in Geriatric Medicine 18: 141-158.

Rubin, C., Recker, R., Cullen, D., Ryaby, J., and McLeod, K. 1998. Prevention of bone loss in a post-menopausal population by low-level biomechanical intervention. Bone 23: S174 [abstract].
Rubini, E.C., Costa, A.L.L., and Gomes, P.S.C. 2007. The effects of stretching on strength performance. Sports Medicine 37: 213-224.

Runge, M., Rehfeld, G., and Resnicek, E. 2000. Balance training and exercise in geriatric patients. Journal of Musculoskeletal and Neuronal Interactions 1: 61-65.Rush, E.C., Plank, L.D., Laulu, M.S., and Robinson, S.M. 1997. Prediction of percentage body fat from anthropometric measurements: Comparison of New Zealand European and Polynesian young women. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 66: 2-7.
Ryan, E.E., Rossi, M.D., and Lopez, R. 2010. The effects of the contract-relax-antagonist-contract form of proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation stretching on postural stability. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 24: 1888-1894.
Sahrmann, S. 2002. Diagnosis and treatment of movement impairment syndromes. St. Louis: C.V. Mosby.
Sale, D. 1988. Neural adaptation to resistance training. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 20: S135-S145.
Sale, D., MacDougall, J.D., Jacobs, I., and Garner, S. 1987. Interaction between concurrent strength and endurance training. Journal of Applied Physiology 68: 260-270.
Salem, J.G., Wang, M.Y., and Sigward, S. 2002. Measuring lower extremity strength in older adults: The stability of isokinetic versus 1RM measures. Journal of Aging and Physical Activity 10: 489-503.
Sallis, J.F., and Owen, N. 1999. Physical activity and behavioral medicine. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Samaha, F.F., Iqbal, N., Seshadri, P., Chicano, K.L., Daily, D.A., McGrory, J., Williams, T., Williams, M., Gracely, E.J., and Stern, L. 2003. A low-carbohydrate as compared with a low-fat diet in severe obesity. New England Journal of Medicine 348: 2074-2081.
Samukawa, M., Hattori, M., Sugama, N., and Takeda, N. 2011. The effects of dynamic stretching on plantar flexor muscletendon tissue properties. Manual Therapy 16: 618-622.
Sands, W.A., McNeal, J.R., Stone, M.H., Russell, E.M., and Jemni, M. 2006. Flexibility enhancement with vibration: Acute and long-term. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 38: 720-725.
Santos, T.M., Gomes, P.S., Oliveira, B.R.R., Ribeiro, L.G., and Thompson, W.R. 2012. A new strategy for the implementation of an aerobic training session. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 28: 87-93.
Sanz, C., Gautier, J.F., and Hanaire, H. 2010. Physical exercise for the prevention and treatment of type 2 diabetes. Diabetes \& Metabolism 36: 346-351.
Saris, W.H.M., Blair, S.N., van Baak, M.A., Eaton, S.B., Davies, P.S.W., Di Pietro, L., Fogelholm, M., Rissanen, A., Schoeller, D., Swinburn, B., Tremblay, A., Westerterp, K.R., and Wyatt, H. 2003. How much physical activity is enough to prevent unhealthy weight gain? Outcome of the IASO 1st Stock Conference and consensus statement. Obesity Reviews 4: 101-114.
Sattelmair, J., Pertman, J., Ding, E.L., Kohl, H.W. III, Haskell, W., and Lee, I-M. 2011. Dose response between physical activity and risk of coronary heart disease: A meta-analysis. Circulation 124: 789-793.

Savela, S., Saijonmaa, O., Strandberg, T.E., Koistinen, P., Strandberg, A.Y., Rilvis, R.S., Pitkala, K.H., Miettinen, T.A., Fyhrquist, F. 2012. Physical activity in midlife and telomere length measured in old age. Experimental Gerontology. doi:10.1016/j.exger.2012.02.003
Sazonova, N.A., Browning, R., Sazonov, E.S. 2011. Prediction of bodyweight and energy expenditure using point pressure and foot acceleration measurements. The Open Biomedical Engineering Journal 5:110-115.
Schade, M., Hellebrandt, F.A., Waterland, J.C., and Carns, M.L. 1962. Spot reducing in overweight college women: Its influence on fat distribution as determined by photography. Research Quarterly 33: 461-471.

Schaefer, E.J. 2002. Lipoproteins, nutrition, and heart disease. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 75: 191-212.

Schenk, A.K., Witbrodt, B.C., Hoarty, C.A., Carlson Jr., R.H., Goulding, E.H., Potter, J.F., and Bonasera, S.J. 2011. Cellular telephones measure activity and lifespace in communitydwelling adults: Proof of principle. Journal of American Geriatric Society 59: 345-352.

Scherr, J., Wolfarth, B., Christle, J.W., Pressler, A., Wagenpfeil, S., and Halle, M. 2012. Associations between Borg's rating of perceived exertion and physiological measures of exercise intensity. European Journal of Applied Physiology Epub ahead of print. doi: 10.1007/s00421-012-2421-x. Accessed January 2, 2013.
Schlicht, J., Godin, J., and Camaione, D.C. 1999. How to help your client stick with an exercise program: Build selfefficacy to promote exercise adherence. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 3(6): 27-31.
Schmidt, P.K., and Carter, J.E.L. 1990. Static and dynamic differences among five types of skinfold calipers. Human Biology 62: 369-388.
Schot, P.K., Knutzen, K.M., Poole, S.M., and Mrotek, L.A. 2003. Sit-to-stand performance of older adults following strength training. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 74: 1-8.
Schrieks, I.C., Barnes, M.J. and Hodges, L.D. 2011. Comparison study of treadmill versus arm ergometry. Clinical Physiology and Functional Imaging. 31:326-331.
Schutte, A.E., Huisman, H.W., van Rooyen, J.M., Malan, N.T., and Schutte, R. 2004. Validation of the Finometer device for measurement of blood pressure in black women. Journal of Human Hypertension 18: 79-84.
Schutz, Y., and Herren, R. 2000. Assessment of speed of human locomotion using a differential satellite global positioning system. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32: 642-646.
Schwane, J.A., Johnson, S.R., Vandenakker, C.B., and Armstrong, R.B. 1983. Delayed-onset muscular soreness and plasma CPK and LDH activities after downhill running. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 15: 51-56.
Scott, S. 2008. ABLE bodies balance training. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Segal, K.R., Van Loan, M., Fitzgerald, P.I., Hodgdon, J.A., and Van Itallie, T.B. 1988. Lean body mass estimation by bioelectrical impedance analysis: A four-site cross-validation study. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 47: 7-14.

Seip, R., and Weltman, A. 1991. Validity of skinfold and girth based regression equations for the prediction of body composition in obese adults. American Journal of Human Biology 3: 91-95.
Sell, K.E., Verity, T.M., Worrell, T.W., Pease, B.J., and Wigglesworth, J. 1994. Two measurement techniques for assessing subtalar joint position: A reliability study. Journal of Orthopaedic and Sports Physical Therapy 19: 162-167.
Sell, K., Lillie, T., and Taylor, J. 2008. Energy expenditure during physically interactive video game playing in male college students with different playing experience. Journal of American College Health 56: 505-511.
Sendra-Lillo, J., Sabater-Hernandez, D., Sendra-Ortola, A., and Martinez-Martinez, F. 2011. Comparison of the white-coat effect in community pharmacy versus the physician's office: The Palmera study. Blood Pressure Monitoring 16: 62-66.
Seshadri, P. 2004. A calorie by any name is still a calorie. Archives of Internal Medicine 164: 1702-1703.
Seynnes, O.R., de Boer, M., and Narici, M.V. 2007. Early skeletal muscle hypertrophy and architectural changes in response to high-intensity resistance training. Journal of Applied Physiology 102: 368-373.
Shai, I., Schwarzfuchs, D., Henkin, Y., Shahar, D.R., Witkow, S., Greenberg, I. , Golan, R., Fraser, D., Bolotin, A., Vardi, H., Tangi-Rozental, O., Zuk-Ramot, R., Sarusi, B., Brickner, D., Schwartz, Z., Sheiner, E., Marko, R., Katorza, E., Thiery, J., Fiedler, G.M., Bluher, M., Stumvoll, M., and Stampfer, M.J. 2008. Weight loss with a low-carbohydrate, Mediterranean, or low-fat diet. New England Journal of Medicine 359: 229-241.
Sharkey, B.J., and Gaskill, S.E. 2007. Fitness and health, 6th ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Shaw, B. 2009. Beth Shaw's yogafit, 2nd ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Shaw, C.E., McCully, K.K., and Posner, J.D. 1995. Injuries during the one repetition maximum assessment in the elderly. Journal of Cardiopulmonary Rehabilitation 15: 283-287.
Shaw, K., Gennat, H., O'Rourke, P., and Del Mar, C. 2006. Exercise for overweight or obesity. Cochrane Database Systematic Reviews, Issue 4, CD003817. doi: 10.1002/14651858. CD003817.pub3.
Shephard, R.J. 1972. Alive man: The physiology of physical activity. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas.
Shephard, R.J. 1977. Do risks of exercise justify costly caution? The Physician and Sportsmedicine 5: 58-65.
Shigematsu, R., Okura, T., Nakagaichi, M., Tanaka, K., Sakai, T., Kitazumi, S., and Rantanen, T. 2008. Square-stepping exercise and fall risk factors in older adults: A single-blind, randomized controlled trial. Journal of Gerontology 63A: 76-82.

Shoenhair, C.L., and Wells, C.L. 1995. Women, physical activity, and coronary heart disease: A review. Medicine, Exercise, Nutrition and Health 4: 200-206.
Shrier, I. 1999. Stretching before exercise does not reduce the risk of local muscle injury: A critical review of the clinical and basic science literature. Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine 9: 221-227.
Shrier, I. 2000. Stretching before exercise: An evidence based approach. British Journal of Sports Medicine 34: 324-325.
Shrier, I. 2004. Does stretching improve performance? A systematic and critical review of the literature. Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine 14: 267-273.
Shrier, I., and Gossal, K. 2000. Myths and truths of stretching: Individualized recommendations for healthy muscles. The Physician and Sportsmedicine 28: 57-63.
Shubert, T.E., Schrodt, L.A., Mercer, V.S., Busby-Whitehead, J., and Giuliani, C.A. 2006. Are scores on balance screening tests associated with mobility in older adults? Journal of Geriatric Physical Therapy 29(1): 33-39.
Shumway-Cook, A., Baldwin, M., Polissar, N.L., and Gruber, W. 1997. Predicting the probability for falls in communitydwelling older adults. Physical Therapy 77: 812-819.
Shumway-Cook, A., Brauer, S., and Wollacott, M.H. 2000. Predicting the probability of falls in community-dwelling older adults using the timed up and go test. Physical Therapy 80: 896-904.
Shumway-Cook, A., and Horak, F.B. 1986. Assessing the influence of sensory interaction on balance. Physical Therapy 66: 1548-1550.
Shumway-Cook, A., and Woollacott, M.H. 1995. Motor control: Theory and practical applications. Baltimore: Williams \& Wilkins.
Simao, R., Spineti, J., Fretas de Salles, B., Matta, T., Ferandes, L., Fleck, S.J., Rhea, M.R., and Strom-Olsen, H.E. 2012. Comparison between nonlinear and linear periodized resistance training: Hypertrophic and strength effects. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 1389-1395.

Sinning, W. 1975. Experiments and demonstrations in exercise physiology. Philadelphia: Saunders.
Siri, W.E. 1961. Body composition from fluid space and density. In Techniques for measuring body composition, ed. J. Brozek and A. Henschel, 223-224. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences.
Sjodin, A.M., Forslund, A.H., Westerterp, K.R., Andersson, A.B., Forslund, J.M., and Hambraeus, L.M. 1996. The influence of physical activity on BMR. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 28: 85-91.
Sjostrom, M., Lexell, J., Eriksson, A., and Taylor, C.C. 1992. Evidence of fiber hyperplasia in human skeletal muscles from healthy young men? European Journal of Applied Physiology 62: 301-304.
Skalski, J., Allison, T.G., and Miller, T.D. 2012. The safety of cardiopulmonary exercise testing in a population with highrisk cardiovascular diseases. Circulation 126: 2465-2472.

Skatrud-Mickelson, M., Benson, J., Hannon, J.C., and Askew, W.E. 2011. A comparison of subjective and objective physical exertion. Journal of Sports Sciences 29: 1635-1644.
Skinner, J. 1993. Exercise testing and exercise prescription for special cases. Philadelphia: Lea \& Febiger.
Slaughter, M.H., Lohman, T.G., Boileau, R.A., Horswill, C.A., Stillman, R.J., Van Loan, M.D., and Bemben, D.A. 1988. Skinfold equations for estimation of body fatness in children and youth. Human Biology 60: 709-723.
Smith, D.B., Johnson, G.O., Stout, J.R., Housh, T.J., Housh, D.J., and Evetovich, T.K. 1997. Validity of near-infrared interactance for estimating relative body fat in female high school gymnasts. International Journal of Sports Medicine 18: 531-537.

Smith, L.L. 1991. Acute inflammation: The underlying mechanism in delayed onset muscle soreness? Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 23: 542-551.
Smith, U., Hammerstein, J., Bjorntorp, P., and Kral, J.G. 1979. Regional differences and effect of weight reduction on human fat cell metabolism. European Journal of Clinical Investigation 9: 327-332.
Smutok, M.A., Skrinar, G.S., and Pandolf, K.B. 1980. Exercise intensity: Subjective regulation by perceived exertion. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation 61: 569-574.
Smye, S.W., Sutcliffe, J., and Pitt, E. 1993. A comparison of four commercial systems used to measure whole-body electrical impedance. Physiological Measurement 14: 473-478.
Snijder, M.B., Kuyf, B.E., and Deurenberg, P. 1999. Effect of body build on the validity of predicted body fat from body mass index and bioelectrical impedance. Annals of Nutrition and Metabolism 43: 277-285.
Spennewyn, K.C. 2008. Strength outcomes in fixed versus free-form resistance equipment. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 22(1): 75-81.
Springer, B.A., Marin, R., Cyhan, T., Roberts, H., and Gill, N.W. 2007. Normative values for the unipedal stance test with eyes open and closed. Journal of Geriatric Physical Therapy 30: 8-15.
Stark, T., Walker, B., Phillips, J.K., Fejer, R., and Beck, R. 2011. Hand-held dynamometry correlation with the gold standard isokinetic dynamometry: A systematic review. $P M \& R$ : The Journal of Injury, Function, and Rehabilitation 3: 472-479.
Staron, R.S., Karapondo, D.L., Kraemer, W.J., Fry, A.C., Gordon, S.E., Falkel, J.E., Hagerman, F.C., and Hikida, R.S. 1994. Skeletal muscle adaptations during the early phase of heavy-resistance training in men and women. Journal of Applied Physiology 76: 1247-1255.
Steinberger, J., Daniels, S.R., Eckel, R.H., Hayman, L., Lustag, R.H., McCrindle, B., and Mietus-Snyder, M. 2009. Progress and challenges in metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents: A scientific statement from the American Heart Association Atherosclerosis, Hypertension and Obesity in the Young Committee of the Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young; Council on Cardiovascular Nursing;
and Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism. Circulation 119: 628-647.
Stergiou, G.S., Karpettas, N., Atkins, N., and O'Brien, E. 2011. Impact of applying the more stringent validation criteria of the revised European Society of Hypertension International Protocol 2010 on earlier validation studies. Blood Pressure Monitoring 16: 67-73.

Stergiou, G.S., Parati, G., Asmar, R., and O’Brien, E. 2012. Requirements for professional office blood pressure monitors. Journal of Hypertension 30: 537-542.
Stevens, J.A. 2006. Fatalities and injuries from falls among older adults-United States, 1993-2003 and 2001-2005. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report 55: 45.
Stolarczyk, L.M., Heyward, V.H., Hicks, V.L., and Baumgartner, R.N. 1994. Predictive accuracy of bioelectrical impedance in estimating body composition of Native American women. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 59: 964-970.
Stone, M.H., Stone, M., and Sands, W.A. 2007. Principles and practice of resistance training. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Stout, J.R., Eckerson, J.M., Housh, T.J., and Johnson, G.O. 1994a. Validity of methods for estimating percent body fat in black males. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 8: 243-246.

Stout, J.R., Eckerson, J.M., Housh, T.J., Johnson, G.O., and Betts, N.M. 1994b. Validity of percent body fat estimations in males. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 26: 632-636.

Stout, J.R., Housh, T.J., Eckerson, J.M., Johnson, G.O., and Betts, N.M. 1996. Validity of methods for estimating percent body fat in young women. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 10: 25-29.

Strath, S.J., Brage, S., and Ekelund, U. 2005. Integration of physiological and accelerometer data to improve physical activity assessment. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 37(Suppl.): S563-S571.
Studenski, S., Perera, S., Hile, E., Keller, V., Spadola-Bogard, J., and Garcia, J. 2010. Interactive video dance games for healthy older adults. Journal of Nutrition, Health, and Aging 14: 850-852.
Sturm, R., and Hattori, A. 2012. Morbid obesity rates continue to rise rapidly in the United States. International Journal of Obesity doi: 10.1038/ijo.2012.159.
Sung, R.Y.T., Lau, P., Yu, C.W., Lam, P.K.W., and Nelson, E.A.S. 2001. Measurement of body fat using leg to leg bioimpedance. Archives of Disease in Childhood 85: 263-267.
Svendsen, O.L., Hassager, C., Bergmann, I., and Christiansen, C. 1992. Measurement of abdominal and intra-abdominal fat in postmenopausal women by dual energy X-ray absorptiometry and anthropometry: Comparison with computerized tomography. International Journal of Obesity 17: 45-51.
Swain, D.P. 1999. V̇O $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve: A new method for exercise prescription. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 3(5): 10-14.

Swain, D.P., and Leutholtz, B.C. 1997. Heart rate reserve is equivalent to \% $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve, not to $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 29: 410-414.
Swain, D.P., Leutholtz, B.C., King, M.E., Haas, L.A., and Branch, J.D. 1998. Relationship between \% heart rate reserve and \% $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve in treadmill exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 30: 318-321.
Swain, D.P., Parrott, J.A., Bennett, A.R., Branch, J.D., and Dowling, E.A. 2004. Validation of a new method for estimating $\dot{\mathrm{V}}_{2}$ max based on $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ reserve. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 1421-1426.
Swank, A.M., Funk, D.C., Durham, M.P., and Roberts, S. 2003. Adding weights to stretching exercise increases passive range of motion for healthy elderly. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 17: 374-378.
Swinburn, B.A., Sacks, G., Hall, K.D., McPherson, L., Finegood, D.T., Moodie, M.L., and Gortmaker, S.L. 2011. The global obesity pandemic: Shaped by global drivers and local environments. Lancet 378: 804-814.
Taaffe, D.R., Duret, C., Wheeler, S., and Marcus, R. 1999. Once-weekly resistance exercise improves muscle strength and neuromuscular performance in older adults. Journal of the American Geriatrics Society 47: 1208-1214.

Takeshima, N., Rogers, M.E., Watanabe, E., Brechue, W.F., Okada, A., Yamada, T., Islam, M.M., and Hayano, J. 2002. Water-based exercise improves health-related aspects of fitness in older women. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 34: 544-551.

Takeshima, N., Rogers, N.L., Rogers, M.E., Islam, M.M., Koizumi, D., and Lee, S. 2007. Functional fitness gain varies in older adults depending on exercise mode. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 2036-2043.
Talag, T.S. 1973. Residual muscular soreness as influenced by concentric, eccentric, and static contractions. Research Quarterly 44: 458-469.
Tanaka, H., Monahan, K.D., and Seals, D.R. 2001. Agepredicted maximal heart rate revisited. Journal of the American College of Cardiology 37: 153-156.
Taylor, D.C., Dalton, J.D., Seaber, A.V., and Garrett, W.E. 1990. Viscoelastic properties of muscle-tendon units. The biomechanical effects of stretching. American Journal of Sports Medicine 18: 300-309.
Taylor, L.M., Maddison, R., Pfaffli, L.A., Rawstorn, J.C., Gant, N., and Kerse, N.M. 2012. Activity and energy expenditure in older people playing active video games. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Accessed November 10, 2012 from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apmr.2012.03.034.
Taylor, N.A.S., and Wilkinson, J.G. 1986. Exercise-induced skeletal muscle growth: Hypertrophy or hyperplasia? Sports Medicine 3: 190-200.
Taylor, W.D., George, J.D., Allsen, P.E., Vehrs, P.R., Hager, R.L., and Roberts, M.P. 2002. Estimation of $\dot{V}_{2}$ max from a 1.5-mile endurance test. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 35(Suppl.): S257 [abstract].

Tegenkamp, M.H., Clark, R.R., Schoeller, D.A., and Landry, G.L. 2011. Effects of covert subject actions on percent body fat by air-displacement plethysmography. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 25: 2010-2017.
Telford, R., Catchpole, E., Deakin, V., Hahn, A., and Plank, A. 1992. The effect of 7 to 8 months of vitamin/mineral supplementation on athletic performance. International Journal of Sport Nutrition 2: 135-153.
Terry, J.W., Tolson, H., Johnson, D.J., and Jessup, G.T. 1977. A work load selection procedure for the Åstrand-Ryhming test. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 17: 361-366.
Tesch, P.A. 1988. Skeletal muscle adaptations consequent to long-term heavy resistance exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 20: S132-S134.
Tesch, P.A. 1992. Short- and long-term histochemical and biochemical adaptations in muscle. In Strength and power in sports. The encyclopaedia of sports medicine, ed. P. Komi, 239-248. Oxford: Blackwell.
Thacker, S.B., Gilchrist, J., Stroup, D.F., and Kimsey, C.D. 2004. The impact of stretching on sports injury risk: A systematic review of the literature. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 36: 371-378.
Thaler, M.S. 2010. The only EKG book you'll ever need, 6th ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams, \& Wilkins.
Thomas, D.E., Elliott, E.J., and Naughton, G.A. 2006. Exercise for type 2 diabetes mellitus. Cochrane Database Systems Review 3: CD002968.
Thomas, T.R., and Etheridge, G.L. 1980. Hydrostatic weighing at residual volume and functional residual capacity. Journal of Applied Physiology 49: 157-159.
Thomas, T.R., Ziogas, G., Smith, T., Zhang, Q., and Londeree, B.R. 1995. Physiological and perceived exertion responses to six modes of submaximal exercise. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 66: 239-246.
Thompson, C.J., and Bemben, M.G. 1999. Reliability and comparability of the accelerometer as a measure of muscular power. Medicine and Science in Sports \& Exercise 31: 897-902.
Thompson, C.J., Cobb, K.M., and Blackwell, J. 2007. Functional training improves club head speed and functional fitness of older golfers. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 21(1): 131-137.
Thompson, J., Manore, M., and Thomas, J. 1996. Effects of diet and diet-plus-exercise programs on resting metabolic rate: A meta-analysis. International Journal of Sport Nutrition 6: 41-61.
Thompson, M., and Medley, A. 2007. Forward and lateral sitting functional reach in younger, middle-aged, and older adults. Journal of Geriatric Physical Therapy 30(2): 43-51.
Thompson, P.D. 1993. The safety of exercise testing and participation. In ACSM's resource manual for guidelines for exercise testing and prescription, ed. S.N. Blair, P. Painter, R. Pate, L.K. Smith, and C.B. Taylor, 361-370. Philadelphia: Lea \& Febiger.

Thompson, W.R. 2012. Worldwide survey of fitness trends for 2013. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 16(6): 8-17.
Thomson, C.A., and Thompson, P.A. 2008. Healthy lifestyle and cancer prevention. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 12(3): 18-26.
Thorstensson, A., Hulten, B., vonDobeln, W., and Karlsson, J. 1976. Effect of strength training on enzyme activities and fibre characteristics in human skeletal muscle. Acta Physiologica Scandinavica 96: 392-398.
Thune, I., and Furberg, A-S. 2001. Physical activity and cancer risk: Dose-response and cancer, all sites and site-specific. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33(Suppl.): S530-S550.
Timson, B.F., and Coffman, J.L. 1984. Body composition by hydrostatic weighing at total lung capacity and residual volume. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 16: 411-414.
Tinetti, M.E. 1986. Performance-oriented assessment of mobility problems in elderly patients. Journal of the American Geriatric Society 34: 119-126.
Tinetti, M.E., Speechley, M., and Ginter, S.F. 1988. Risk factors for falls among elderly persons living in the community. New England Journal of Medicine 319(26): 1701-1707.
Tipton, C.M., Matthes, R.D., Maynard, J.A., and Carey, R.A. 1975. The influence of physical activity on ligaments and tendons. Medicine and Science in Sports 7: 165-175.
Tipton, K.D., Rasmussen, B.B., Miller, S.L., Wolfe, S.E., Owens-Stovall, S.K., Petrini, B.E., and Wolfe, R.R. 2001. Timing of amino acid-carbohydrate ingestion alters anabolic response of muscle to resistance exercise. American Journal of Physiology, Endocrinology and Metabolism 281: E197-206.
Tipton, K.D., and Wolfe, R.R. 2004. Protein and amino acids for athletes. Journal of Sports Science 22: 65-79.
Toombs, R.J., Ducher, G., Shepherd, J.A., and de Souza, M.J. 2012. The impact of recent technological advancements on the trueness and precision of DXA to assess body composition. Obesity 20: 30-39.
Topouchian, J.A., El Assaad, M.A., Orobinskaia, L.V., El Feghali, R.N., and Asmar, R.G. 2006. Validation of two automatic devices for self-measurement of blood pressure according to the International Protocol of the European Society of Hypertension: The Omron M6 (HEM-7001-E) and the Omron R7 (HEM 637-IT). Blood Pressure Monitoring 11: 165-171.
Torgan, C.E., and Cousineau, T.M. 2012. Leveraging social media technologies to help clients achieve behavior change goals. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 16: 18-24.
Torvinen, S., Kannus, P., Sievanen, H., Jarvinen, T.A.H., Pasanen, M., Kontulainen, S., Jarvinen, T.L.N., Jarvinen, M., Oja, P., and Vuori, I. 2002. Effect of four-month vertical whole body vibration on performance and balance. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 34: 1523-1528.

Tothill, P., and Hannan, W.J. 2000. Comparisons between Hologic QDR 1000W, QDR 4500A, and Lunar Expert dualenergy X-ray absorptiometry scanners used for measuring total body bone and soft tissue. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 904: 63-71.
Town, G.P., Sol, N., and Sinning, W. 1980. The effect of rope skipping rate on energy expenditure of males and females. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 12: 295-298.
Townsend, N., Rutter, H., and Foster, C. 2012. Evaluating the evidence that the prevalence of childhood obesity is plateauing. Pediatric Obesity 7: 343-346.
Tran, Z.V., and Weltman, A. 1988. Predicting body composition of men from girth measurements. Human Biology 60: 167-175.
Tran, Z.V., and Weltman, A. 1989. Generalized equation for predicting body density of women from girth measurements. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 21: 101-104.
Tremblay, M.S., Shields, M., Laviolette, M., Craig, C.L., Janssen, I., and Gorber, S.C. 2010. Fitness of Canadian children and youth: Results from the 2007-2009 Canadian Health Measures Survey. Health Reports 21(1): 1-14.
Tremblay, M.S., Warburton, D.E.R., Janssen, I., Paterson, D.H., Latimer, A.E., Rhodes, R.E., Kho, M.E., Hicks, A., LeBlanc, A.G., Zehr, L., Murumets, K., and Duggan, M. 2011. New Canadian physical activity guidelines. Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism 36: 36-46.
Tremblay, M.S., and Willms, J.D. 2000. Secular trends in the body mass index of Canadian children. Canadian Medical Association Journal 163: 1429-1433. Published erratum in Canadian Medical Association Journal (2001) 164: 970.
Troiano, R.P., Berrigan, D., Dodd, K.W., Masse, L.C., Tilert, T., and McDowell, M. 2008. Physical activity in the United States measured by accelerometer. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40: 181-188.
Troped, P.J., Oliveira, M.S., Matthews, C.E., Cromley, E.K., Melly, S.J., and Craig, B.A. 2008. Prediction of activity mode with global positioning system and accelerometer data. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40: 972-978.
Trost, S.G., Owen, N., Bauman, A.E., Sallis, J.F., and Brown, W. 2002. Correlates of adults' participation in physical activity: Review and update. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 34: 1996-2001.
Tudor-Locke, C., Bassett, D.R., Shipe, M.F., and McClain, J.J. 2011. Pedometry methods for assessing free-living adults. Journal of Physical Activity and Health 8: 445-453.
Tudor-Locke, C., Craig, C.L., Brown, W.J., Clemes, S.A., De Cocker, K., Giles-Corti, B., Hatano, Y., Inoue, S., Matsudo, S.M., Mutrie, N., Oppert, J-M., Rowe, D.A., Schmidt, M.D., Schofield, G.M., Spence, J.C., Teixeira, P.J., Tully, M.A., and Blair, S.N. 2011. How many steps/day are enough? For adults. International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity 8: 79-96.
Tudor-Locke, C., Hatano, Y., Pangrazi, R.P., and Kang, M. 2008. Revisiting "How many steps are enough?" Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40(Suppl.): S537-S543.

Tudor-Locke, C., Sisson, S.B., Collova, T., Lee, S.M., and Swan, P.D. 2005. Pedometer-determined step count guidelines for classifying walking intensity in a young ostensibly healthy population. Canadian Journal of Applied Physiology 30: 666-676.
Tudor-Locke, C., Sisson, S.B., Lee, S.M., Craig, C.L., Plotnikoff, R., and Bauman, A. 2006. Evaluation of quality of commercial pedometers. Canadian Journal of Public Health 97: S10-S15.
Tudor-Locke, C., Williams, J.E., Reis, J.P., and Pluto, D. 2002. Utility of pedometers for assessing physical activity: Convergent validity. Sports Medicine 32: 795-808.
Turcato, E., Bosello, O., Francesco, V.D., Harris, T.B., Zoico, E., Bissoli, L., Fracassi, E., and Zamboni, M. 2000. Waist circumference and abdominal sagittal diameter as surrogates of body fat distribution in the elderly: Their relation with cardiovascular risk factors. International Journal of Obesity 24: 1005-1010.
Tyrrell, V.J., Richards, G., Hofman, P., Gillies, G.F., Robinson, E., and Cutfield, W.S. 2001. Foot-to-foot bioelectrical impedance analysis: A valuable tool for the measurement of body composition in children. International Journal of Obesity 25: 273-278.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 1996. Physical activity and health: A report of the Surgeon Gen-eral-At a glance. Atlanta: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2000a. Healthy people 2010-conference edition: Physical activity and fitness (22). Atlanta: Author.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2000b. Healthy people 2010: Understanding and improving health-overweight and obesity. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2004. 2005 Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee report: Translating the science into dietary guidance. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2005. Dietary Guidelines for Americans 2005. Executive Summary. www. health.gov/dietaryguidelines/dga2005/document/html/ executivesummary.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2007. The Surgeon General's call to action to prevent overweight and obesity in children and adolescents. Washington, DC: Author. www.surgeongeneral.gov/topics/obesity/calltoaction/fact_adolescents.html
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2008. Physical activity guidelines for Americans. At-a-glance: A fact sheet for professionals. www.health.gov/paguidelines/ factsheetprof.aspx.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2010. Dietary guidelines for Americans 2010. Washington, D.C.: Author.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2012a. Healthy People 2020. www.healthypeople.gov/2020. Accessed June 15, 2012.
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2012b. Summary health statistics for U.S. adults: National health interview survey, 2010. Vital and Health Statistics Series 10, Number 252.

Utter, A.C., Nieman, D.C., Mulford, G.J., Tobin, R., Schumm, S., McInnis, T., and Monk, J.R. 2005. Evaluation of leg-to-leg BIA in assessing body composition of high-school wrestlers. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 37: 1395-1400.

Utter, A.C., Nieman, D.C., Ward, A.N., and Butterworth, D.E. 1999. Use of the leg-to-leg bioelectrical impedance method in assessing body-composition change in obese women. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 69: 603-607.
Utter. A.C., Scott, J.R., Oppliger, R.A., Visich, P.S., Goss, F.L., Marks, B.L., Nieman, D.C., and Smith, B.W. 2001. A comparison of leg-to-leg bioelectrical impedance and skinfolds in assessing body fat in collegiate wrestlers. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 15: 157-160.

Vaisman, N., Corey, M., Rossi, M.F., Goldberg, E., and Pencharz, P. 1988. Changes in body composition during refeeding of patients with anorexia nervosa. Journal of Pediatrics 113: 925-929.
Vaisman, N., Rossi, M.F., Goldberg, E., Dibden, L.J., Wykes, L.J., and Pencharz, P.B. 1988. Energy expenditures and body composition in patients with anorexia nervosa. Journal of Pediatrics 113: 919-924.
Van Adrichem, J.A.M., and van der Korst, J.K. 1973. Assessment of flexibility of the lumbar spine: A pilot study in children and adolescents. Scandinavian Journal of Rheumatology 2: 87-91.
van den Beld, W.A., van der Sanden, G.A.C., Sengers, R.C.A., Verbeek, A.L.M., and Gabreels, F.J.M. 2006. Validity and reproducibility of hand-held dynamometry in children aged 4-11 years. Journal of Rehabilitation Medicine 38: 57-64.
van der Kooy, K., Leenen, R., Seidell, J.C., Deurenberg, P., Droop, A., and Bakker, C.J.G. 1993. Waist-hip ratio is a poor predictor of changes in visceral fat. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 57: 327-333.
Vanhelder, W.P., Radomski, M.W., and Goode, R.C. 1984. Growth hormone responses during intermittent weight lifting exercise in men. European Journal of Applied Physiology 53: 31-34.

Van Horn, L. 2010. Development of the 2010 US dietary guidelines advisory committee report: Perspectives from a registered dietitian. Journal of the American Dietetic Association 110: 1638-1645.
Van Loan, M.D., and Mayclin, P.L. 1987. Bioelectrical impedance analysis: Is it a reliable estimator of lean body mass and total body water? Human Biology 59: 299-309.
Van Loan, M.D., and Mayclin, P.L. 1992. Body composition assessment: Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) compared to reference methods. European Journal of Clinical Nutrition 46: 125-130.

Van Mechelen, W., Holbil, H., and Kemper, H.C. 1986. Validation of two running tests as estimates of maximal aerobic power in children. European Journal of Applied Physiology and Occupational Physiology 55: 503-506.

Vehrs, P.R., Drummond, M., Fellingham, D.K., and Brigham, G.W. 2002. Accuracy of five heart rate monitors during exercise. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 34(Suppl.): S272 [abstract].
Velasquez, K.S., and Wilmore, J.H. 1992. Changes in cardiorespiratory fitness and body composition after a 12 -week bench step training program. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 24: S78 [abstract].

Velthuis, M.J., Schuit, A.J., Peeters, P.H.M., and Monninkhof, E.M. 2009. Exercise program affects body composition but not weight in postmenopausal women. Menopause: The Journal of the North American Menopause Society 16: 777-784.

Vera-Garcia, F.J., Grenier, S.G., and McGill, S.M. 2000. Abdominal muscle responses during curl-ups on both stable and labile surfaces. Physical Therapy 80: 564-569.
Verdijk, L.B., Jonkers, R.A.M., Glesson, B.G., Beelen, M., Meijer, K., Savelberg, H.H.C.M., Wodzig, W.K.W.H., Dendale, P., and van Loon, L.J.C. 2009. Protein supplementation before and after exercise does not further augment skeletal muscle hypertrophy after resistance training in elderly men. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 89: 608-616.
Verhagen, E., van der Beek, A., Twisk, J., Bouter, L., Bahr, R., and Mechelen, W. 2004. The effect of a proprioceptive balance board training program for the prevention of ankle sprains: A prospective controlled trial. American Journal of Sports Medicine 32: 1385-1393.
Vescovi, J.D., Zimmerman, S.L., Miller, W.C., Hildebrandt, L., Hammer, R.L., and Fernhall, B. 2001. Evaluation of the Bod Pod for estimating percentage body fat in a heterogeneous group of adult humans. European Journal of Applied Physiology 85: 326-332.
Vincent, K.R., Braith, R.W., Feldman, R.A., Magyari, P.M., Cutler, R.B., Persin, S.A., Lennon, S.L., Gabr, A.H., and Lowenthal, D.T. 2002. Resistance exercise and physical performance in adults aged 60 to 83. Journal of the American Geriatrics Society 50: 1100-1107.

Voelker, S.A., Foster, C., Skemp-Arlt, K.M., Brice, G., and Backes, R. 2002. Relationship between the talk test and ventilatory threshold in cardiac patients. Clinical Exercise Physiology 4: 120-123.
Volek, J. 1999. Update: What we know about creatine. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 3(3): 27-33.
Volpe, S.L. 2009. Vitamin D and health: Do we need more than the current DRI?: Part 2. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 13(1): 33-34
von Stengel, S., Kemmler, W., Bebenek, M., Engelke, K., and Kalender, W.A. 2011. Effects of whole-body vibration training on different devices on bone mineral density. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 43: 1071-1079.
von Stengel, S., Kemmler, W., Engelke, K., and Kalender, W.A. 2011. Effects of whole body vibration on bone mineral
density and falls: Results of the randomized controlled ELVIS study with postmenopausal women. Osteoporosis International 22: 317-325.
von Stengel, S., Kemmler, W., Engelke, K., and Kalender, W.A. 2012. Effect of whole-body vibration on neuromuscular performance and body composition for females 65 years and older: A randomized-controlled trial. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine \& Science in Sports 22: 119-127.
Wagner, D.R., and Heyward, V.H. 2001. Validity of twocomponent models of estimating body fat of Black men. Journal of Applied Physiology 90: 649-656.
Wagner, D.R., and Heyward, V.H. 2004. Applied body composition assessment. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Wagner, D., Heyward, V., and Gibson, A. 2000. Validation of air displacement plethysmography for assessing body composition. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 32: 1339-1344.
Wagner, K.H., and Brath, H. 2012. A global view on the development on non communicable diseases. Preventive Medicine 54: s38-s41.
Wallick, M.E., Porcari, J.P., Wallick, S.B., Berg, K.M., Brice, G.A., and Arimond, G.R. 1995. Physiological responses to in-line skating compared to treadmill running. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 27: 242-248.
Wallin, D., Ekblom, B., Grahn, R., and Nordenborg, T. 1985. Improvement of muscle flexibility. A comparison between two techniques. American Journal of Sports Medicine 13: 263-268.
Wallman, H.W. 2001. Comparison of elderly nonfallers and fallers on performance measures of functional reach, sensory organization, and limits of stability. Journal of Gerontology 56: M589-M583.
Walls, H.L., Magliano, D.J., Stevenson, C.E., Backholer, K., Mannan, H.R., Shaw, J.E., and Peeters, A. 2012. Projected progression of the prevalence of obesity in Australia. Obesity 20: 872-878.
Walts, C.T., Hanson, E.D., Delmonico, M.J., Yao, L., Wang, M.W., and Hurley, B.F. 2008. Do sex or race differences influence strength training effects on muscle or fat? Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40: 669-676.
Wan, Y., Henegghan, C., Stevens, R., McManus, R.J., Ward, A., Perera, R., Thompson, M., Tarassenko, L., and Mant, D. 2010. Determining which automatic digital blood pressure device performs adequately: A systematic review. Journal of Human Hypertension 24: 431-438.
Wang, J., Thornton, J.C., Russell, M., Burastero, S., Heymsfield, S., and Pierson, R.N. 1994. Asians have lower body mass index (BMI) but higher percent body fat than do Whites: Comparison of anthropometric measurements. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 60: 23-28.
Wang, J-G., Zhang, Y., Chen, H-E., Li, Y., Cheng, X-G., Xu, L., Guo, Z., Zhao, X-S., Sato, T., Cao, Q-Y., Chen, K-M., and Li, B. 2013. Comparison of two bioelectrical impedance analysis devices with dual energy X-ray absorptiometry and magnetic resonance imaging in the estimation of
body composition. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 27: 236-243.
Wang, R., Wu, M.J., Ma, X.Q., Zhao, Y.F., Yan, X.Y., Gao, Q.B., and He, J. 2012. Body mass index and health-related quality of like in adults: A population based study in five cities of China. European Journal of Public Health 22(4): 497-502.
Warburton, D.E.R., Sarkany, D., Johnson, M., Rhodes, R.E., Whitford, W., Esch, B.T.A., Scott, J.M., Wong, S.C., and Bredin, S.S.D. 2009. Metabolic requirements of interactive video game cycling. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 41: 920-926.
Ward, D.S., Evenson, K.R., Vaugh, A., Rodgers, A.B., and Troiano, R.P. 2005. Accelerometer use in physical activity: Best practices and research recommendations. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 37 (Suppl.): S582-S588.
Ward, R., and Anderson, G.S. 1998. Resilience of anthropometric data assembly strategies to imposed error. Journal of Sports Sciences 16: 755-759.
Ward, R., Rempel, R., and Anderson, G.S. 1999. Modeling dynamic skinfold compression. American Journal of Human Biology 11: 521-537.
Wathen, D. 1994a. Load assignment. In Essentials of strength testing, ed. T.R. Baechle, 435-446. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Wathen, D. 1994b. Periodization: Concepts and applications. In Essentials of strength training and conditioning, ed. T.R. Baechle, 459-472. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Watsford, M.L., Murphy, A.J., Spinks, W.L., and Walshe, A.D. 2003. Creatine supplementation and its effect on musculotendinous stiffness and performance. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 17: 26-33.
Wattles, M.G. 2002. The dissection of exercise certifications. Professionalization of Exercise Physiology ${ }_{\text {online }}$ 5(3): 1-13.
Webb, T.L., Joseph, J., Yardley, L., and Michie, S. 2010. Using the Internet to promote health behavior change: A systematic review and meta-analysis of the impact of theoretical basis, use of behavior change techniques, and mode of delivery on efficacy. Journal of Medicine and Internet Research 12:e4/ Published online February 2010. doi: 10.2196/jmir.1376. Accessed November 4, 2012.

Weier, A.T., and Kidgell, D.J. 2012. Strength training with superimposed whole body vibration does not preferentially modulate cortical plasticity. The Scientific World Journal 2012: 876328.
Weiglein, L., Herrick, J., Kirk, S., and Kirk, E.P. 2011. The 1-mile walk test is a valid predictor of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ max and is a reliable alternative fitness test to the $1.5-\mathrm{mile}$ run in U.S. Air Force males. Military Medicine 176: 669-673.
Weiss, E.C., Galuska, D.A., Khan, L.K., and Serdula, M.K. 2006. Weight-control practices among U.S. adults, 20012002. American Journal of Preventive Medicine 31: 18-24.

Weiss, L.W., Cureton, K.J., and Thompson, F.N. 1983. Comparison of serum testosterone and androstenedione responses to weight lifting in men and women. European Journal of Applied Physiology 50: 413-419.

Weits, T., Van der Beek, E.J., Wedel, M., and Ter Haar Romeny, B.M. 1988. Computed tomography measurement of abdominal fat deposition in relation to anthropometry. International Journal of Obesity 12: 217-225.

Weldon, S.M., and Hill, R.H. 2003. The efficacy of stretching for prevention of exercise-related injury: A systematic review of the literature. Manual Therapy 8: 141-150.
Weltman, A., Levine, S., Seip, R.L., and Tran, Z.V. 1988. Accurate assessment of body composition in obese females. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 48: 1179-1183.
Weltman, A., Seip, R.L., and Tran, Z.V. 1987. Practical assessment of body composition in adult obese males. Human Biology 59: 523-535.
Wessel, H.U., Strasburger, J.F., and Mitchell, B.M. 2001. New standards for Bruce treadmill protocol in children and adolescents. Pediatric Exercise Science 13: 392-401.

Whaley, M., Kaminsky, L., Dwyer, G., Getchell, L., and Norton, J. 1992. Predictors of over- and underachievement of age-predicted maximal heart rate. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 24: 1173-1179.
Whitney, S.L., Poole, J.L., and Cass, S.P. 1998. A review of balance instruments for older adults. American Journal of Occupational Therapy 52: 666-671.
Wild, D., Nayak, U.S.L., and Isaacs, B. 1981. Prognosis of falls in old people at home. Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health 35: 200-204.
Wilkin, L.D., Cheryl, A., and Haddock, B.L. 2012. Energy expenditure comparison between walking and running in average fitness individuals. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 1039-1044.
Willardson, J.M. 2008. A periodized approach for core training. ACSM's Health \& Fitness Journal 12(1): 7-13.
Willett, W.C. 2001. Eat, drink and be healthy: The Harvard Medical School guide to healthy eating. New York: Simon \& Schuster Adult Publishing.
Willett, W., and Ludwig, D.S. 2011. The 2010 dietary guide-lines-The best recipe for health? New England Journal of Medicine 365: 1563-1565.
Williams, D.M., Matthews, C.E., Rutt, C., Napolitano, M.A., and Marcus, B.H. 2008. Interventions to increase walking behavior. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 40(Suppl): S567-S573.
Williams, D.P., Going, S.B., Massett, M.P., Lohman, T.G., Bare, L.A., and Hewitt, M.J. 1993. Aqueous and mineral fractions of the fat-free body and their relation to body fat estimates in men and women aged 49-82 years. In Human body composition: In vivo methods, models and assessment, ed. K.J. Ellis and J.D. Eastman, 109-113. New York: Plenum Press.
Williams, J.E., Wells, J.C., Wilson, C.M., Haroun, D., Lucas, A., and Fewtrell, M.S. 2006. Evaluation of Lunar Prodigy dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry for assessing body composition in healthy persons and patients by comparison with the criterion 4-component model. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 83: 1047-1054.

Williams, M.H. 1992. Nutrition for fitness and sport. Dubuque, IA: Brown \& Benchmark.
Williams, M.H. 1993. Nutritional supplements for strength trained athletes. Sports Science Exchange 6(6). Gatorade Sports Science Institute, Quaker Oats Co.
Williams, P.T. 2001. Physical fitness and activity as separate heart disease risk factors: A meta-analysis. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 33: 754-761.
Williams, R., Binkley, J., Bloch, R., Goldsmith, C.H., and Minuk, T. 1993. Reliability of the modified-modified Schober and double inclinometer methods for measuring lumbar flexion and extension. Physical Therapy 73: 26-37.
Williford, H.N., Blessing, D.L., Barksdale, J.M., and Smith, F.H. 1988. The effects of aerobic dance training on serum lipids, lipoproteins, and cardiopulmonary function. Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness 28: 151-157.

Wilmore, J.H. 1974. Alterations in strength, body composition, and anthropometric measurements consequent to a 10 -week weight training program. Medicine and Science in Sports 6: 133-138.
Wilmore, J.H., and Behnke, A.R. 1969. An anthropometric estimation of body density and lean body weight in young men. Journal of Applied Physiology 27: 25-31.
Wilmore, J.H., and Behnke, A.R. 1970. An anthropometric estimation of body density and lean body weight in young women. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 23: 267-274.

Wilmore, J.H., Davis, J.A., O’Brien, R.S., Vodak, P.A., Walder, G.R., and Amsterdam, E.A. 1980. Physiological alterations consequent to 20-week conditioning programs of bicycling, tennis and jogging. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 12: 1-9.

Wilmore, J.H., Frisancho, R.A., Gordon, C.C., Himes, J.H., Martin, A.D., Martorell, R., and Seefeldt, R.D. 1988. Body breadth equipment and measurement techniques. In Anthropometric standardization reference manual, ed. T.G. Lohman, A.F. Roche, and R. Martorell, 27-38. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Wilmore, J.H., Parr, R.B., Girandola, R.N., Ward, P., Vodak, P.A., Barstow, T.J., Pipes, T.V., Romero, G.T., and Leslie, P. 1978. Physiological alterations consequent to circuit weight training. Medicine and Science in Sports 10: 79-84.
Wilmore, J.H., Royce, J., Girandola, R.N., Katch, F.I., and Katch, V.L. 1970. Body composition changes with a 10 -week program of jogging. Medicine and Science in Sports 2: 113-119.
Wilmoth, S.K. 1986. Leading aerobic dance-exercise. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Wilms, B., Schmid, S.M., Ernst, B., Thurnheer, M., Mueller, M.J., and Schultes, B. 2010. Poor prediction of resting energy expenditure in obese women by established equations. Metabolism Clinical and Experimental 59: 1181-1189.
Wilson, J.M., Marin, P.J., Rhea, M.R., Wilson, S.M.C., Loenneke, J.P., and Anderson, J.C. 2012. Concurrent training:

A meta-analysis examining interference of aerobic and resistance exercises. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 26: 2293-2307.

Wilson, J.P., Mulligan, K., Fan, B., Sherman, J.L., Murphy, E.J., Tai, V.W., Powers, C.L., Marquez, L., Ruiz-Barros, V., and Shepherd, J.A., 2012. Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometrybased body volume measurement for 4-compartment body composition. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 95: 25-31.

Wilson, P.K., Winga, E.R., Edgett, J.W., and Gushiken, T.J. 1978. Policies and procedures of a cardiac rehabilitation program-immediate to long term care. Philadelphia: Lea \& Febiger.

Withers, R.T., LaForgia, J., Pillans, R.K., Shipp, N.J., Chatterton, B.E., Schultz, C.G., and Leaney, F. 1998. Comparisons of two-, three-, and four-compartment models of body composition analysis in men and women. Journal of Applied Physiology 85: 238-245.

Witten, C. 1973. Construction of a submaximal cardiovascular step test for college females. Research Quarterly 44: 46-50.

Wolin, K.Y., Yan, Y., Colditz, G.A., and Lee, I.M. 2009. Physical activity and colon prevention: A meta-analysis. British Journal of Cancer 100: 611-616.

Wolf, S., Barnhart, H., Kutner, N., McNeely, E., Coogler, C., and Xu, T. 1996. Reducing frailty and falls in older persons: An investigation of tai chi and computerized balance training. Journal of the American Geriatric Society 44: 489-497.
Wolf-Maier, K., Cooper, R.S., Banegas, J.R., Giampaoli, S., Hense, H.W., Joffres, M., Kastarinen, M., Poulter, N., Primatesta, P., Rodriquez-Artalego, F., Stegmayr, B., Thamm, N., Tuomilephto, J., Vanuzzo, D., and Vescio, F. 2003. Hypertension prevalence and blood pressure levels in 6 European countries, Canada, and the United States. Journal of the American Medical Association 289: 2363-2369.

Wolfe, B.L., LeMura, L.M., and Cole, P.J. 2004. Quantitative analysis of single- vs. multiple-set programs for resistance training. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 18: 35-47.

Wolfson, L., Whipple, R., Derby, C., Judge, J., King, M., Amerman, P., Schmidt, J., and Smyers, D. 1996. Balance and strength training in older adults: Intervention gains and tai chi maintenance. Journal of the American Geriatric Society 44: 498-506.

Wolin, K.Y., Yan, Y., Colditz, G.A., and Lee, I.M. 2009. Physical activity and colon cancer prevention: A meta-analysis. British Journal of Cancer 100: 611-616.

Women's Exercise Research Center. 1998. Based on figures published by Brown, D.A., and Miller, W.C. 1998. Normative data for strength and flexibility of women throughout life. European Journal of Applied Physiology 78: 77-82.
Woodby-Brown, S., Berg, K., and Latin, R.W. 1993. Oxygen cost of aerobic bench stepping at three heights. Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research 7: 163-167.

World Health Organization (WHO). 1998. Obesity: Preventing and managing a global epidemic. Report of a WHO Consultation on Obesity. Geneva: Author.

World Health Organization. 2001. Global database on obesity and body mass index (BMI) in adults. http://www.who.int/ nut/db_bmi.

World Health Organization. 2002a. Diabetes: The cost of diabetes. www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs236/en/ print.html.

World Health Organization. 2002a. Reducing risks, promoting healthy life. World Health Report 2002. www.who.int/ whr/2002/chapter4/en/index4.html.

World Health Organization. 2002b. Smoking statistics. www. wpro.who.int/public/press_release/press_view.asp?id=219.
World Health Organization. 2006. Obesity and overweight. Fact sheet no. 311. www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs311.
World Health Organization. 2007a. Cardiovascular diseases. Fact sheet no. 317. www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/ fs317.
World Health Organization. 2007b. Prevalence of obesity by sex, adults aged 15 and over, latest available year, Europe. www.heartstats.org.
World Health Organization. 2008a. Diabetes. Fact sheet no. 312. www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs 312 .

World Health Organization. 2008b. Globocan 2008 Fast Stats. http://globocan.iarc.fr/factsheets/populations/factsheet. asp?uno=900. Accessed August 25, 2012.

World Health Organization. 2010. Global recommendations on physical activity for health. http://whqlibdoc.who.int/ publications/2010/9789241599979_eng.pdf. Accessed July 5, 2012.
World Health Organization. 2011a. Diabetes fact sheet number 312. www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs312/en/index. html. Accessed September 8, 2012.
World Health Organization. 2011b. Global atlas on cardiovascular disease prevention and control. http://whqlibdoc.who. int/publications/2011/9789241564373_eng.pdf. Accessed September 9, 2012.

World Health Organization. 2011c. Use of glycated haemoglobin (HbA1c) in the diagnosis of Diabetes Mellitus. www. who.int/diabetes/publications/report-hba1c_2011.pdf. Accessed September 7, 2012.
World Health Organization. 2012a. Cancer Fact Sheet number 297. www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs297/en. Accessed August 25, 2012.
World Health Organization. 2012b. Childhood obesity. www. who.int/dietphysicalactivity/childhood/Childhood_obesity_Tool.pdf. Accessed October 5, 2012.

World Health Organization. 2012c. Global database on body mass index. http://apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp. Accessed on September 8, 2012.
World Health Organization. 2012d. Obesity and Overweight Fact Sheet number 311. www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs311/en. Accessed September 8, 2012.
Wosje, K.S., Knipstein, B.L., and Kalkwarf, H.J. 2006. Measurement error of DXA: Interpretation of fat and lean mass changes in obese and nonobese children. Journal of Clinical Densitometry 9: 335-340.

Wright, J.D., Kennedy-Stephenson, J., Wang, C.Y., McDowell, M.A., and Johnson, C.L. 2004. Trends in intake of energy and macronutrients-United States, 1971-2000. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report 53(4): 80-82.

Wright, J.D., and Wang, C-Y. 2010. Trends in intake of energy and macronutrients in adults from 1999-2000 through 2007-2008. NCHS Data Brief. No. 49. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics.
Wu, G. 2002. Evaluation of the effectiveness of tai chi for improving balance and preventing falls in the older population-A review. Journal of the American Geriatric Society 50: 746-754.

Wysocki, A., Butler, M., Shamilyan, T., and Kane, R.L. 2011 Whole-body vibration therapy for osteoporosis: State of the Science. Annals of Internal Medicine 155: 680-686.

Yamanoto, K. 2002. Omron Institute of Life Science [personal communication].
Yee, A.J., Fuerst, T., Salamone, L., Visser, M., Dockrell, M., Van Loan, M., and Kern, M. 2001. Calibration and validation of an air-displacement plethysmography method for estimating percentage body fat in an elderly population: A comparison among compartmental models. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 74: 637-642.

Yee, S.Y., and Gallagher, D. 2008. Assessment methods in human body composition. Current Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care 11: 566-572.
Yessis, M. 2003. Using free weights for stability training. Fitness Management 19(11): 26-28.
Yim-Chiplis, P.K., and Talbot, L.A. 2000. Defining and measuring balance in adults. Biological Research for Nursing 1(4): 321-331.
YMCA of the USA. 2000. YMCA fitness testing and assessment manual. 4th ed. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Yoke, M., and Kennedy, C. 2004. Functional exercise progressions. Monterey, CA: Healthy Learning.
Yoon, B.K., Kravitz, L., and Robergs, R. 2007. V̇O $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ max, protocol duration, and the $\dot{\mathrm{V}}{ }_{2}$ plateau. Medicine \& Science in Sports \& Exercise 39: 1186-1192.

Zakeri, I., Adolph, A.L., Puyau, M.R., Vohra, F.A., and Butte, N.F. 2008. Application of cross-sectional time series modeling for the prediction of energy expenditure from heart rate and accelerometry. Journal of Applied Physiology 104: 1665-1673.
Zamboni, M., Turcato, E., Armellini, F., Kahn, H.S., Zivelonghi, A., Santana, H., Bergamo-Andreis, I.A., and Bosello, O. 1998. Sagittal abdominal diameter as a practical predictor of visceral fat. International Journal of Obesity and Related Metabolic Disorders 22: 655-660.

Zanchi, N.E., Gerlinger-Romero, F., Guimaraes-Ferreira, L., de Siqueira Filho, M., Felitti, V., Lira, F.S., Seelaender, M., and Lancha, A.H. Jr. 2011. HMB supplementation: Clinical and athletic performance-related effects and mechanisms of action. Amino Acids 40: 1015-1025.
Zemel, M.B. 2009. Proposed role of calcium and dairy food consumption in weight management and metabolic health. Physician and Sportsmedicine 37(2): 29-39.

Zeni, A.I., Hoffman, M.D., and Clifford, P.S. 1996. Energy expenditure with indoor exercise machines. Journal of the American Medical Association 275: 1424-1427.

Zhu, S., Heshka, S., Wang, Z., Shen, W., Allison, D.B., Ross, R., and Heymsfield, S.B. 2004. Combination of BMI and waist circumference for identifying cardiovascular risk factors in whites. Obesity Research 12: 633-645.
Zhu, S., Heymsfield, S.B., Toyoshima, H., Wang, Z., Petrobelli, A., and Heshka, S. 2005. Race-ethnicity-specific waist circumference cutoffs for identifying cardiovascular disease risk factors. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 81: 409-415.
Zhu, W. 2008. Promoting physical activity using technology. President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest 9(3): 1-8.
Zwiren, L., Freedson, P., Ward, A., Wilke, S., and Rippe, J. 1991. Estimation of $\dot{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{max}$ : A comparative analysis of five exercise tests. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport 62: 73-78.


[^0]:    ${ }^{\text {a Percent grade and speed for each stage are illustrated in figure 4.2. }}$

[^1]:    ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Type A activities require minimal skill and physical fitness, type $B$ activities require average physical fitness but minimal skill, type C activities require both skill and average physical fitness levels, and type D activities are recreational sports that should be prescribed only in addition to a regular, aerobic exercise program.
    ${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Machine-based activities.

[^2]:    From Vivian H. Heyward and Ann L. Gibson, 2014, Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription, 7th ed. (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics).

[^3]:    *If you have two or more risk factors, you should consult your physician before engaging in exercise.

[^4]:    From Vivian H. Heyward and Ann L. Gibson, 2014, Advanced Fitness Assessment and Exercise Prescription, 7th ed. (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics)

