- 1 TITLE
- 2 Practical Strategies for Integrating Strength and Conditioning into Early Specialization Sports

- 4 ARTICLE TYPE:
- 5 Narrative review

6 ABSTRACT

7 Early sport specialization involves physically immature children participating in intensive year-round training and or competition for a single sport at the exclusion of other sports. Lack 8 9 of sport exposure and diversification during developmental years may underlie increased risk 10 of overuse injuries, blunting of motor skill development, psycho-social issues, overtraining 11 syndrome, burnout, and potential drop out from sport. With increasing numbers of youth 12 choosing, or being encouraged, to specialize at an early age, we aim to provide evidence-based recommendations for the integration of strength and conditioning into the development 13 14 programs of young athletes who participate in sports with a culture of early specialization. In 15 addition to principles of programming, strategies are provided relative to monitoring of growth, maturation, and training load to illustrate the potential complexities of attempting to optimize 16 17 long-term athletic development in early specializing athletes.

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19 KEY WORDS

20 Specialization, Youth, Training, Long-term athletic development

21 INTRODUCTION

22 Early sport specialization is characterised as intensive year-round (> 8 months per year) 23 training and or competition, involving participation in a single sport that typically begins in the 24 pre-pubertal years (34). Early specializing young athletes can be exposed to intensive training 25 schedules (e.g. high volumes and frequencies), with chronic exposure to the same sporting-26 skills that may limit diversified skill acquisition and reduce long-term participation in sport 27 (34). Notably, these athletes often accumulate weekly training hours which surpass the recommendations of not exceeding the child's chronological age in years (6, 76). Early 28 29 specializing sports are typically individual in nature and include: gymnastics, figure skating, 30 dance, tennis, and swimming (43, 65, 76). However, the trajectory of youth from other sports choosing to specialize early is growing (6) and overall rates of specialization and the exclusion 31 32 of multi-sport participation in the developmental years are at an all-time high (62). In the 33 United States, one study with a sample of 1190 young athletes reported ~30% were highly 34 specialized (29).

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36 In certain *early entry* sports, where peak elite performance tends to occur at a younger age (e.g. 37 women's gymnastics, figure skating), early specialization approaches are more accepted with 38 a view to that it is needed to increase the likelihood of success in the sport (34). *Middle-entry* 39 (e.g. tennis) and *late-entry* (e.g. endurance running) sports represent the majority of sports and 40 typically involve peak elite performances at an older age and specialization during middle 41 adolescence and late adolescence or full maturity, respectively (36, 62). However, there is 42 emergent consensus amongst researchers and practitioners opposing an early specialization 43 approach, owing to the associated potential negative effects on children and adolescents' 44 physical and psycho-social well-being (6, 34, 37, 43, 59). Some evidence suggests that young 45 athletes may be at greater risk of developing overuse type injuries (62), experiencing 46 overtraining or burnout syndrome (13), presenting with 'blunted' motor skill development (13), 47 and prematurely withdrawing from their sport (34, 37). However, recently some authors have 48 emphasised the need for a more in-depth evaluation of the mechanisms driving these potential 49 negative effects, as well as determining any positive effects (e.g. competence and skill 50 acquisition) of early specialization to improve the overall delivery of youth sports (1). Early 51 adolescence has been recommended as the earliest stage of development at which young 52 athletes involved in early entry sports, should specialize (30, 62). Additionally, authors of position statements have suggested that those involved in sport, should revisit, and reset 53 54 competitive expectations for young athletes to discourage early specialization (34). For 55 example, greater impact could be achieved if National Governing Bodies share this vision and 56 embed information about the risks of early specialization into their coaching education 57 pathways.

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Young athletes typically adopt such an approach with very little chance of reaching the elite 59 60 levels of sport, notwithstanding the potential physical and psychosocial risks associated with early specialization. While sport offers multiple benefits to children, data indicate that less than 61 62 1% of high-school athletes reach the professional level of sports (6, 63). It is important for 63 children to challenge themselves, to be passionate about their sports, and to pursue their 64 sporting dreams; however, key stakeholders responsible for their development should be 65 realistic about the sporting trajectories of any young athlete. Furthermore, there is no guarantee 66 that specializing early in a particular sport will result in success at an elite-level, and research has shown specializing later could be more advantageous (54). Moesch et al. (54) investigated 67 68 group differences between elite and near-elite young athletes from sports measured in 69 centimetres, grams, or seconds. The authors indicated that elite athletes specialized at a later 70 age and trained less during childhood, but then started to intensify their training regimes during

71 late adolescence, resulting in a higher number of accumulated training hours compared to near-72 elite athletes (54). One retrospective study in Division 1 collegiate athletes from 17 different 73 sports reported that more athletes participated in multiple sports than a single sport and 74 concluded that specialization was not a requirement to reach elite levels (51). However, the 75 average age of specialization and percentage of athletes who specialized varied considerably 76 across the different sports. For example, ~73% gymnasts and ~54% figure skaters specialized 77 at the youngest age (age range 8-10 years), whilst ~86% hockey players specialized on average at ~12.5 years old (51). Further, recent reviews of literature have explored the impact of early 78 79 specialization on career and task-specific athletic performance and concluded that sport 80 specialization was not a prerequisite for success at more elite levels (33, 75).

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82 It is our opinion, and those proponents of existing long-term athletic development (LTAD) 83 models and position statements, that young athletes should refrain from specializing in a single 84 sport until later in adolescence (34, 37, 84). While a sea change is required in youth sports to arrest the move towards early specialization, many youth strength and conditioning 85 practitioners will inevitably find themselves working with athletes who specialize early. It is 86 important for practitioners working in these circumstances to have an evidence-informed 87 88 approach to strength and conditioning provision. Children that specialize from an early age will 89 be entering a sporting system prior to the onset of puberty (e.g. gymnastics); therefore, they 90 will experience growth (e.g. increases in size, stature and mass) and maturation (e.g. skeletal, 91 sexual and somatic maturity) processes (18) while also training for, and competing in, their 92 chosen sport.

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Young athletes will experience natural fluctuations in physical fitness (39, 52, 69, 80) and
injury risk factors (28, 61, 66, 67) at certain stages of maturity, and the manner in which these

96 developmental adaptations interact with training load is complex and may be heightened in single-sport athletes (11, 49, 64, 74). Consequently, having an awareness of how growth, 97 98 maturation, and training interact, and an understanding of the unique demands of implementing 99 strength and conditioning programs for early specializing athletes, is important. Similarly, 100 practitioners may work with these athletes at the beginning of their LTAD journey and 101 hopefully oversee their non-linear development towards young adulthood. Therefore, the 102 purpose of this review is *firstly*, to examine how growth and maturation data can be used to 103 inform programming with early specializing athletes; *secondly*, to provide practitioners with 104 advice and recommendations on how to integrate strength and conditioning with a LTAD 105 approach into the programs of early specialization athletes; and *thirdly*, to discuss strategies of 106 monitoring training loads for early specializing athletes.

107

108 CONSIDERATIONS WHEN WORKING WITH EARLY SPECIALIZING ATHLETES

109 Use of growth and maturation data

110 It is important to recognize that while athletes starting out in early specialization sports will be typically in the prepubertal stage of development, differences in maturation may already exist 111 as the skeleton continually develops throughout childhood and adolescence (18). 112 Consequently, choosing the most appropriate method of assessing maturity status in early 113 114 specializing athletes is important (42). Owing to the limitations and restrictions associated with 115 skeletal age verification or sexual age estimation, it has been recommended that practitioners 116 rely on somatic assessments to estimate biological maturity (42). Methods by Mirwald et al. (53) and Moore et al. (58) which predict maturity offset, may not be valid in prepubertal 117 118 athletes if they are not approaching peak height velocity (PHV) (47, 48). Therefore, the Khamis 119 and Roche method (32) of estimating percent of predicted adult height (%PAH) attained is 120 likely to be the most appropriate method of identifying prepubertal athletes' stage of maturity

and has been used within the literature to group athletes into 'bands' (10, 45). For example,
Cumming et al. (10) indicated how %PAH can be used to bio-band young athletes using the
maturity offset method (i.e. < -1, pre-PHV; -1 to +1, circa-PHV; and > +1, post-PHV) or bands
for %PAH attained (i.e. <85%, pre-pubertal; 85%-90%, early-pubertal; 90%-95%, mid-
pubertal; and >95%, late-pubertal). It should be noted that when using the methods developed
by Khamis and Roche (32) to predict %PAH attained, where possible parental height should
be measured directly to increase the accuracy of predictions.

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129 The on-going collection of anthropometric data (e.g. body mass, standing, and sitting height) 130 every 3-months to allow growth rates to be calculated is also recommended (80) in early specializing athletes and all young athletes. If longitudinal growth rate data are obtained, PHV 131 132 and peak weight velocity (PWV) can be identified in early specializing athletes around the time 133 of the adolescent growth spurt. PWV tends to occurs after PHV and notably, boys and girls reach PWV within different periods of time (i.e. boys = approximately six months, girls = few 134 135 months up to a year) (44). Coaches can subsequently use growth and maturation data to 136 estimate when early specializing athletes are experiencing rapid periods of growth or are approaching the adolescent growth spurt, which may inform the training strategies detailed 137 138 below (10, 45).

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140 It should be noted that when early specializing athletes approach the pubertal growth spurt, 141 injury risk may increase concomitantly (61, 67, 73, 74) and individuals might experience a 142 plateau or decrement in some aspects of performance (44, 46, 56). However, PHV and PWV 143 do not necessarily cause injury, rather, the periods of rapid growth are likely to increase the 144 relative risk of injury and specifically the proliferation of risk factors in early specializing 145 athletes (e.g. significantly greater knee abduction angles and moments during landing tasks 146 compared to the multisport athletes) (11, 12). Importantly, maturity data should be used by practitioners to help early specializing athletes and technical coaches to understand potential 147 148 changes in performance or function and provide objective data that can be considered as part 149 of interdisciplinary conversations regarding optimizing programs to promote improvements in performance. For example, a young tennis player experiencing rapid growth could find 150 151 performing shots and skills temporarily more difficult, as a result of increases in limb lengths 152 and the height of their centre of mass, making co-ordination, and dynamic joint stabilization more challenging. During this unique stage of development, coaches may need to consider 153 154 modifying the athlete's training emphasis (e.g. revisit athletic motor skill competencies 155 (AMSC *figure 1*) and increase relative muscular strength), incorporate targeted injury 156 prevention exercises, and monitor training loads and volumes closely (45, 62, 74), as opposed 157 to removing athletes from the program.

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159 ***Insert figure 1 near here***

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161 Engaging with key personnel

Overuse injuries in early specializing athletes are likely to be more avoidable than acute type 162 injuries, with estimates of ~50% deemed preventable in youth with appropriate training and 163 164 management (82). Fostering a collective approach to training with technical coaches and 165 parents of early specializing athletes can be challenging. The perceived belief that high 166 amounts of sports-specific training early in childhood will lead to an increased likelihood of sporting success may exist amongst technical coaches and parents (62), whereas the associated 167 168 increase risk of injury might be less well understood (2, 3). In a recent survey conducted with 169 parents, over 80% had no knowledge of sport volume recommendations regarding hours per week (~84%), months per year (~82%), and only ~43% thought that year-round sport 170

171 participation may increase the risk of overuse-type injury (3). Early specializing athletes might also be encouraged to practice at home, which results in the accumulation of even higher and 172 173 uncontrolled overall workloads. Children are advised not to participate in more hours of sport 174 per week than their chronological age, or greater than a maximum of 16 hours per week (6, 34, 62). However, these training volumes are often exceeded in sports such as gymnastics, 175 baseball, tennis, and swimming (50, 76), and year-round training and overscheduling of 176 177 competitions exists in early specialization sports (6, 29). In an attempt to better manage overall 178 workload stress, it is recommended that strength and conditioning should replace part of the 179 weekly training volumes of those early specializing athletes with high weekly training 180 volumes, rather than merely being an addition to the program. However, it is acknowledged that this approach will require effective collaboration and a shared vision amongst the 181 182 athlete(s), technical coaches and parents.

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Developing meaningful and respectful relationships with technical coaches and parents in 184 185 addition to the young athletes themselves is imperative to build a truly holistic athlete-centred 186 program (24, 26). In doing so, it is easier to explain and justify the need for a long-term commitment to strength and conditioning programs. Non-scientific language should be used 187 and engaging resources (e.g. infographics) could enhance the understanding of coaches, 188 189 parents, and the athletes themselves of why strength and conditioning is an important element 190 of the program (see *figure 2*). Anecdotally, inviting technical coaches, parents, and early 191 specializing athletes to 'welcome meetings' at the start of a new competitive year can be 192 extremely useful. Such events enable practitioners to highlight the benefits of strength 193 conditioning, provide insights into what is involved and dispel myths around particular modes 194 of training (e.g. resistance training with young athletes). Having open conversations with all 195 parties and providing them with opportunities to ask questions about the training program or testing reports is strongly encouraged (24). This would be particularly useful when setting goals
to make sure the athlete's expectations are realistic and to ensure that they feel involved in the
process to enhance autonomy (24). Further, if testing reports are produced, they must be easily
understood and presented in an engaging way (e.g. use of visual and audio methods). *Figure 3*shows an example report for a young gymnast (27).

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202 ***Insert figure 2 near here***

- 203 ***Insert figure 3 near here***
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205 Implementing LTAD-centred strength and conditioning programs

206 Through high volume periods of sport-specific training, some early specialization athletes may 207 display advanced or even adult-level technical skills at young ages (e.g. golfers who display 208 very advanced technical skills as a result of deliberate practice from a young age) (43). 209 However, the perceived need for these athletes to reach advanced standards ahead of their time 210 is short-sighted and may have negative connotations (43). Therefore, a long-term approach to 211 the physical development of early specializing athletes is needed, with health, and wellbeing a 212 central priority (34, 62). Recommendations for practitioners working with early specialization 213 athletes looking to adopt this approach are shown in Table 1. Practitioners (and technical 214 coaches) must remember that early specializing athletes are not 'miniature adults' and 215 therefore, the training strategies and structure of sessions must be developmentally appropriate 216 (15, 20, 81). For example, elements of non-structured forms of training should be included in 217 all training sessions regardless of training age or stage of development, to encourage movement 218 creativity, and exploration (e.g. obstacle courses, playground games) (68).

- 219
- 220 Program design: enhancing athleticism

221 Another priority for those working with early specialization athletes should be to promote 222 LTAD and foster talent development in a holistic manner (64). Effective motor skill execution 223 is underpinned by correct fundament movement patterns, cognitive processing, and force 224 production and absorption (9, 68). Therefore, muscular strength and a broad range of AMSC 225 (see *figure 1*) should be developed synergistically to enhance early specialization athletes' 226 overall levels of athleticism (68). Exposing these athletes to a combination of general and 227 specific strength and conditioning activities that develop AMSC and enhance health and skillrelated components of fitness is recommended (16, 60, 62). Practitioners should target the 228 229 development of movements that are not inherent in the sports of early specializing athletes in 230 order to develop well-rounded athletes with a broad foundation of athleticism (55, 62). As heightened levels of neuroplasticity are apparent during the prepubertal stage of development 231 232 (4), it would seem prudent to exposure these athletes to neuromuscular training early, prior to 233 growth-related disturbances which may occur with adolescence (62, 72). A training dosage of 234 two sessions of neuromuscular training per week has been shown to enhance measures of 235 isometric force-time characteristics (14), motor skills (e.g. squat jump height (14) and standing 236 long jump distance) (16), and movement competency (57) beyond those in age-matched 237 controls, in pre-pubertal children. Cumulatively, these studies show the potential benefits appropriate strength and conditioning programs can offer pre-pubertal children, with relatively 238 239 low doses of training exposure. Practitioners should refer to work by Radnor et al. (68) for 240 further guidance on how to develop AMSC in youth using developmentally appropriate and 241 engaging training strategies.

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Owing to the high volumes and frequency of sports-specific training sessions in early
specialization sports, strength and conditioning practitioners may often be required to deliver
sessions 'on field' at sports training locations (e.g. tennis court, gymnastics centre). The

246 equipment, time, and space available for training is likely to depend upon the nature of the sport, competitive level, and culture of the club. Practitioners working within more challenging 247 248 training situations must therefore be flexible and consider the most effective and efficient 249 training strategies available to elicit the targeted adaptation. The sequencing of the strength and conditioning provision and the early specializing athlete's sport-specific training should be 250 251 considered. For example, a 5-week neuromuscular training program including plyometrics, 252 acceleration, deceleration, and COD drills using minimal equipment (medicine balls, boxes 253 etc), implemented before and after a tennis session were evaluated between pre-practice and 254 post practice in high-level prepubertal male tennis players (22). From the data it was concluded 255 the program that took place prior to tennis-specific sessions was more effective in improving tennis performance-related factors (e.g., sprint, jumping performance, and serve velocity) than 256 257 the program that took place after tennis-specific sessions (22). These findings highlighted the 258 potential benefits of implementing strength and conditioning programs prior to sports-specific 259 sessions to optimize the training responses, when levels of neuromuscular fatigue are lower. 260 However, in some instances there might be a rationale for arranging strength and conditioning sessions after technical session to challenge movement control in a fatigued state; therefore, 261 practitioners must be clear on what the aims of the training sessions are. 262

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Another challenge for practitioners is to provide an effective training stimulus variation that is different to what early specializing athletes typically experience during their sport-specific skill training that will induce adaptations above those that they will acquire from their high volumes of technical training and competition (55). This is likely to be more relevant in early specialization sports that involve high amounts of sport-specific physical preparation. For

271 example, combined strength and plyometric training significantly increased elite pre-pubertal gymnasts' drop jump performance, with the authors recommending a reduction in the time 272 273 spent on habitual repetitive routines to allow time for an alternative and more targeted strength 274 and power training stimuli (50). It should be noted that the nature of early stage strength and conditioning for young athletes will initially focus on the execution of foundational athletic 275 movements (e.g. squatting and hinging) using body weight as a form of resistance; however, 276 277 to realise ongoing adaptations and as training-age and technical competency increases, higher 278 intensity resistance training will be required to further enhance strength and power qualities 279 (35). Training will need to be progressively overloaded (37) but also considered in light of the 280 early specializing athlete's overall training load. For example, as a young gymnast approaches a competition mesocycle, they will complete more full routines at higher intensities (e.g. 281 282 landings and dismounts on to mats instead of foam pits, and tumbling on harder surfaces); 283 consequently, practitioners may benefit from reducing the volume and or intensity of highimpact plyometrics during this phase to avoid excessive amounts of high-impact landings 284 285 which could lead to overuse injuries.

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287 Program design: reducing injury risk

288 When designing training programs to enhance performance and reduce injury risk, conducting a thorough needs analysis of the sport's demands (physiological and biomechanical) (70) and 289 290 types of activities the early specializing athlete will be frequently exposed to is important. 291 Coaches should consider injury epidemiology within the sport to identify: common overuse 292 injury sites, areas prone to strength and mobility deficiencies, postural issues, and limb 293 asymmetries (70, 74). Because overuse injuries can be prevalent in early specializing athletes 294 (31, 34, 37, 43, 59), practitioners should adopt a philosophy and implement practice that 295 includes a large movement variability, with the aim of providing exposure to a variety of movement patterns to vary the point of force application and co-ordination demands (37).
Further, if growth-related injuries are prevalent in the sport, practitioners should also be aware
of the underpinning mechanisms, and the signs and symptoms associated with these injuries.

Should an early specializing athlete display gradual onset of pain, a symptom indicative of 300 overuse injuries (31), medical advice should be sought, and appropriate rehabilitation and 301 302 management strategies should be integrated into the training program. For example, as lumbarspine injuries are prevalent in golf players, incorporating anti-rotation exercises to reduce 303 304 injury risk, and aid in spinal motion control could benefit young golfers (71). It must be stressed 305 that one size will not fit all, as these factors will differ markedly between early specializing athletes from different sports (e.g. differences in high-impact training of gymnasts compared 306 307 to rowers). For example, young rowers would benefit from training which targets posterior 308 chain strengthening, non-sagittal movement patterns and basic jumping, landing, and 309 rebounding mechanics. Conversely, practitioners working with young gymnasts might limit 310 the amounts of jumping and rebounding activities they incorporate into training, particularly during busy periods of competition. Thus, considering which AMSC the early specializing 311 athletes' sport does not address will be important to reduce injury risk and develop well-312 313 rounded athletes (68). Practitioners should refer to Read and colleagues (72) for further 314 guidance on how to implement evidence-based training strategies that can effectively reduce 315 injury risk in youth.

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317

318 An integrated approach to monitoring workloads for early specializing athletes

319 Measures of training load are typically categorized as either internal or external (5) and can be 320 used to monitor athletes' responses to training and readiness to train (27). Internal training

loads describe the relative biological stressors (physiological and psychological) imposed on
an athlete during training or competition and are commonly assessed using: heart rate, blood
lactate, oxygen consumption, and rate of perceived exertion (RPE) (5). Whereas external
training loads are objective measures of the work that an athlete has completed during training
or competition (e.g. total distance covered, number of jumps and throws, volume-loads) (5).

326

327 A key role for practitioners working with early specializing athletes is to assist with monitoring of internal and external training loads, as well as utilizing screening tools for indicators of 328 329 overtraining and burnout (fatigue, reduced performance, illness etc.) (62, 74). Researchers have 330 monitored training loads over 41 weeks in young athletes from various sports and reported intensity during the week prior to injury was significantly higher compared to that of the 331 332 preceding 4-weeks (49). The influence of training load 'spikes' on injury risk in youth was 333 evaluated in a 2-year study in male youth cricketers monitored acute and chronic workloads of bowling sessions and found that 'spikes' in workloads were associated with an increased injury 334 335 risk (83). Specifically, an increase in acute- and chronic-workloads of more than two standard 336 deviations, resulted in a 4–5 fold increase in injury risk in the subsequent 4 weeks (83). These type of data can be used to inform the planning of training workloads around different seasons 337 and competition demands to ensure sufficient chronic workloads are maintained, whilst 338 339 minimizing spikes in workload (83). Indeed, this is likely to be more challenging in certain 340 sports than others, nevertheless with such an approach, acute and chronic training loads could 341 be managed more carefully. Indeed, the organization and monitoring of weekly training loads is a complex process and can be challenging owing to individual fluctuations in overall training 342 343 loads (e.g. practicing at home, training camps, competitions, school and club training 344 commitments) as well as, large interindividual variances in responses to load (78, 79). 345 However, integrating monitoring processes will allow training loads and recovery bouts to be 346 modified between training sessions to reduce the risks of maladaptive training responses (e.g.347 overtraining, burnout, overuse injury) (78).

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349 Notwithstanding the range of metrics to quantify workload from different training modes (e.g. volume-loads from resistance training, or distances covered during a conditioning session), one 350 viable method of monitoring athletes' internal response to training across a wide range of 351 352 training modes is the session-rating of perceived exertion (sRPE) (78). Using this approach with early specializing sports requires the young athletes to state an overall RPE for a given 353 354 training session which is then multiplied by the session duration. Given the likely young ages 355 of early specializing athletes, anecdotal experience has shown that parents and technical coaches are often needed to assist with the monitoring process and that a period of 356 357 familiarization is required to ensure children can provide meaningful and more accurate 358 subjective responses using the RPE scale. The use of child versions of sRPE after each session 359 is encouraged and has been validated with resistance training (see *figure 4* for an example sRPE 360 scale used with a gymnastics group) (19) and field-based sessions in youth (77). Valid data can be obtained using online platforms (e.g. web-based questionnaires, spreadsheets) and athletes 361 should be encouraged to report sRPE 30 minutes after training (23), or no longer than 48 hours 362 363 post-training (21, 78). In young athletes their coaches' intended training load does not always align to the athletes' perceived sRPE load, resulting in a mismatch which could lead to a 364 365 maladaptive training response (8, 78). Should training load exceed the practitioner or technical 366 coach's intended dose of training, external training variables can be manipulated to achieve the desired internal response in the following session (78). 367

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369 ***Insert figure 4 near here***

371 If equipment, human resource and time allows, measures of neuromuscular fatigue can also be collected to assess athletes' responses to training and or readiness to train using various 372 373 jumping protocols (e.g. reactive strength index from drop jumps) (27). It should be noted that 374 chronic fatigue could be exacerbated in early specialization athletes involved in sports with traditionally high volumes of training, such as gymnastics and ballet. However, utilising 375 376 monitoring tools with large numbers of athletes and collecting accurate data across multiple 377 coaches (e.g. school, club, national teams) in practice can be very difficult. Crucially, 378 practitioners are encouraged to observe athletes' demeanour prior to, during, and after training 379 for signs of fatigue (e.g. loss of motivation, lethargy, bad moods), and are encouraged to have 380 reciprocal conversations with them regarding their readiness to train (40). Importantly, training 381 should be adapted accordingly (e.g. reduce session intensity) if the athlete presents signs of 382 accumulated fatigue (40).

383

Practitioners should work closely with technical coaches to develop ways of monitoring the 384 385 training loads during sport-specific activities and critically, build in periodic de-load recovery weeks to facilitate recovery and growth processes. Further, in early specialization sports that 386 do not typically have an 'off-season' or train all year-round (34, 76), practitioners should work 387 closely with technical coaches to periodise a post-season or competition transition phase. 388 Further, de-load weeks could be co-ordinated to align with inter-semester breaks (17). 389 390 Educating parents and coaches about the benefits of reducing training loads for of 2-4 weeks 391 during this transition phase or the inclusion of de-load weeks will be essential. Highlighting 392 the need to reduce training stressors to avoid burnout (7, 13) and allowing early specializing 393 athletes adequate time to recover physically (e.g. dissipate cumulative fatigue) and 394 psychologically from previous training or competition phases is strongly recommended (25). 395 For example, following a competitive phase of training, early specializing athletes could

benefit from fun-based 'challenge weeks,' which include different types of movement
challenges (e.g. sports-acrobatic partner balances) and activities that encourage new skill
exploration (e.g. athletes create the obstacle courses) (68). The rationale for this is to reduce
the volume of sport-specific skills the early specializing athlete is exposed to, with the aim of
reducing overuse-injury risk.

401

402 The potential psycho-social implications for athletes specializing from an early age are noteworthy (7). Researchers have indicated that numerous stressors are associated with early 403 404 specialization such as increased anxiety, competition-related stress, poor sleep quality, social 405 isolation, decreased family time, perfectionism, and burnout (6, 7). Therefore, strategies to reduce the risk of early specializing athletes experiencing physical and psycho-social adverse 406 407 effects should be prioritized (7). For strength and conditioning practitioners working with 408 young athletes, the aim of training sessions should be to incorporate process-oriented goals for 409 motivation purposes. This approach should also help to create a fun, enjoyable, and holistic 410 training environment and optimise buy-in to the program (40). Further, practitioners should 411 encourage early specialization athletes to communicate honestly about how they are feeling and utilize other monitoring tools such as wellness and mood questionnaires (e.g. sleep quality, 412 413 soreness, fatigue, motivation to train etc.) and training diaries. Together, these data can be used 414 to better understand the demands and stresses on these athletes and potentially change training 415 cultures in early specialization sports. As parents, technical coaches and the athletes themselves 416 are key to establishing consistent data that provide insights into workloads, it is important that data is reported back to all parties in a timely manner to effectively 'close the loop' on the 417 418 information sharing process.

419

420 *Coaching insights*

421 Given the young nature of early specializing athletes, coaches should be aware that they could 422 be providing the first experience of strength and conditioning for these children. Consequently, 423 providing a positive, beneficial and engaging training experience should be viewed as a crucial 424 part of the strength and conditioning practitioner's role in promoting LTAD (37). Coaches 425 should aim to develop and maintain authentic coach-athlete relationships (40) and create 426 optimal training environments which are fun and engaging for young athletes to thrive in (e.g. 427 increased autonomy, learning new skills, perceiving self-improvement, increasing intrinsic 428 motivation) (26). For example, allowing young athletes to choose between exercises which 429 have similar adaptations (e.g. squatting variations) will increase their sense of autonomy and 430 in-turn improve their intrinsic motivation to complete the program (24). Further, designing training programmes that include opportunities to build self-confidence (e.g. tasks to create 431 432 success) and increase resilience (e.g. tasks to challenge) are important for young athletes' 433 psychosocial development (81). It is recommended that all early specializing athletes engage in strength and conditioning and that their programs have an early focus on developing 434 435 movement competency, force production and absorption, and competence in a broad range of 436 AMSC (34, 37, 38, 41, 62).

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438 When structuring the session, aside from the desired targeted adaptations, practitioners need to 439 consider the characteristics of the individuals, and their training experiences and levels of 440 technical competence. Anecdotally, varying the amount of structure during different parts of 441 the same session can be effective. Warm-ups provide an opportune time for less structure, whereby early specializing athletes can explore a variety of movement patterns and challenges 442 443 (e.g. using obstacle courses, animal shapes and games), develop motor skills, and play games 444 involving movements that the athlete's sport might not address. For example, incorporating 445 games towards the end of the warm-up that involve more chaotic and reactive movement 446 scenarios for a group of young gymnasts will likely provide a novel stimulus compared to the repetitive and consistent nature of gymnastics training. During the main part of the session 447 448 greater structure and focus could be placed upon improving more specific aspects of 449 performance, while also addressing any aberrant movements that may be associated with heightened injury risk (41). Again, practitioners should aim to include exercises which address 450 451 'gaps' in an early specializing athlete's movement portfolio; for example, a tennis player who 452 is very dominant in upper-body anterior, internal rotation movements may benefit from a 453 greater bias of upper body posterior, external rotation exercises.

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455 Further, practitioners should reinforce simple but important aspects of training that promote good long-term training habits for early specializing athletes. This could include: encouraging 456 457 and supporting team-mates, completing training logs correctly, reporting any concerns or 458 injuries, and tidying up training areas after use. Apportioning 5 to 10 minutes of less structured 459 training using a game, challenge or competition could be a favourable way to end the session. 460 Anecdotally, highlighting the 'trainer(s) of the day' at the end of the session based on effort and application (e.g. improved movement quality) as opposed to performance outcomes (e.g. 461 load lifted), tends to be well-received by early specialization athletes with low training 462 experience (40). 463

464

465 SUMMARY

Early specializing athletes are at greater risk of experiencing overuse-type injuries, blunting of motor skill development, burnout syndrome, and psycho-social issues. Therefore, strength and conditioning practitioners working with these athletes have an important role in integrating holistic, LTAD training programs as well as monitoring growth, maturation, training load, and aspects of wellbeing. Where possible, data should be used to inform training strategies and

prescription on an individual basis. It is recommended that early specializing athletes engage 471 472 in strength and conditioning, and specifically target the development of relative strength and a full breadth of athletic motor skill competencies to improve physical fitness and reduce sports-473 474 related injury risk. Whilst overall training load must be considered, integrating strength and conditioning training which targets areas of the early specializing athlete's physical 475 476 development that their sport does not address is critically important. Coaches should aim to 477 collaborate with technical coaches and parents as well as build authentic relationships with the early specializing athlete to provide developmentally appropriate strength and conditioning 478 479 programs that are holistic and athlete-centred.

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482 483	FIGURE CAPTIONS
483 484 485	Figure 1. Athletic Motor Skill Competences (AMSC) (41)
485 486 487	Figure 2. Why early specializing athletes should engage in strength and conditioning
488 489	Figure 3. Example progress report for a young gymnast
490 491	Figure 4. Example of a child-friendly sRPE scale (19)
492 493	
494	
495	TABLE CAPTIONS
496	
497	Table 1 . Recommendations for those working with early-specializing athletes

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