

Sports Medicine International Open

One year of heavy resistance training modifies muscle fiber characteristics in elderly

Anne T Gates, Michael Kjaer, Jesper L Andersen.

Affiliations below.

DOI: 10.1055/a-2338-8226

Please cite this article as: Gates A T, Kjaer M, Andersen J L. One year of heavy resistance training modifies muscle fiber characteristics in elderly. Sports Medicine International Open 2024. doi: 10.1055/a-2338-8226

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

This study was supported by Nordea-fonden (<http://dx.doi.org/10.13039/501100004825>)

Trial registration: NCT02123641, ClinicalTrials.gov (<http://www.clinicaltrials.gov/>), Randomized

Abstract:

Physical function declines with age, accelerating during the 6th decade of life, primarily due to loss in muscle mass and strength. The present study aimed to investigate the effect of one year of heavy resistance training in older adults (62-70 years) on muscle mass and strength. Further, we investigated muscle characteristics after the intervention by obtaining muscle biopsies from vastus lateralis to compare muscle fiber characteristics between the heavy resistance training (HRT) (n=10) and the sedentary control group (CON) (n=10). We found that one year of resistance training increased isometric muscle strength ($p<0.0001$, ES: 2.43 (Hedges' g)) and lean body mass ($p<0.05$, ES: 0.96), whereas cross-sectional area of vastus lateralis and lean leg mass were unaltered. At year 1, the percentage of type IIX muscle fibers was lower in HRT compared to CON ($p<0.05$, ES: 0.99), whereas the muscle fiber size did not differ between groups for the major fiber types (I and II). In conclusion, one year of resistance training in elderly improved muscle strength and lean body mass but not cross-sectional area and lean leg mass. This indicate that the increase in muscle strength may be caused by neuromuscular adaptations rather than morphological muscle tissue changes per se.

Corresponding Author:

Anne T Gates, Bispebjerg Hospital Institute of Sports Medicine Copenhagen, Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Copenhagen University Hospital, Bispebjerg and Frederiksberg Hospital, 2400 Copenhagen NV, Denmark, anne.theil.gates@regionh.dk

Affiliations:

Anne T Gates, Bispebjerg Hospital Institute of Sports Medicine Copenhagen, Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Copenhagen University Hospital, Bispebjerg and Frederiksberg Hospital, 2400 Copenhagen NV, Denmark

Anne T Gates, University of Copenhagen Center for Healthy Aging, Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences, University of Copenhagen, 2200 Copenhagen N, Denmark

Michael Kjaer, Bispebjerg Hospital Institute of Sports Medicine Copenhagen, Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Copenhagen University Hospital, Bispebjerg and Frederiksberg Hospital, 2400 Copenhagen NV, Denmark

Michael Kjaer, University of Copenhagen Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences, Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Copenhagen, 2200 Copenhagen N, Denmark

Jesper L Andersen, Bispebjerg Hospital Institute of Sports Medicine Copenhagen, Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Copenhagen University Hospital, Bispebjerg and Frederiksberg Hospital, 2400 Copenhagen NV, Denmark



1 **One year of heavy resistance training modifies muscle fiber characteristics in elderly**



2 Abstract

3 Physical function declines with age, accelerating during the 6th decade of life, primarily due to loss in
4 muscle mass and strength. The present study aimed to investigate the effect of one year of heavy
5 resistance training in older adults (62-70 years) on muscle mass and strength. Further, we investigated
6 muscle characteristics after the intervention by obtaining muscle biopsies from vastus lateralis to compare
7 muscle fiber characteristics between the heavy resistance training (HRT) (n=10) and the sedentary control
8 group (CON) (n=10). We found that one year of resistance training increased isometric muscle strength
9 ($p<0.0001$, ES: 2.43 (Hedges' g)) and lean body mass ($p<0.05$, ES: 0.96), whereas cross-sectional area of
10 vastus lateralis and lean leg mass were unaltered. At year 1, the percentage of type IIX muscle fibers was
11 lower in HRT compared to CON ($p<0.05$, ES: 0.99), whereas the muscle fiber size did not differ between
12 groups for the major fiber types (I and II). In conclusion, one year of resistance training in elderly improved
13 muscle strength and lean body mass but not cross-sectional area and lean leg mass. This indicate that the
14 increase in muscle strength may be caused by neuromuscular adaptations rather than morphological
15 muscle tissue changes per se.

16 Key Words: Aging, physical function, strength training, hypertrophy

17 1. INTRODUCTION

18 Aging is associated with a progressive decline in muscle mass and muscle strength, affecting physical
19 function [1–5]. Low physical function is likely to affect quality of life, independency and increase the risk of
20 falls, morbidity, and mortality in older and frail humans [6,7]. The decline in muscle mass with aging is
21 mainly caused by a reduction in type II muscle fiber size [8–10], with a foreseeable consequence of
22 decreased muscle strength and power and ultimately muscle function. However, also the neural drive is
23 affected in elderly compared with young [11], which could be the result of the loss of spinal motor neurons,
24 that occurs with aging [12,13]. The loss of spinal motor neurons will cause muscle fiber denervation and
25 thereby a decrease in number of active muscle fibers, ultimately causing a decrease in functional capacity
26 during daily living activities [12]. A key target in preventing a decremental decrease in physical function is
27 therefore to preserve fast type II muscle fiber size as well as the neural drive in older adults [14].

28 Resistance training is often used to either prevent or reverse the age-related loss of muscle mass, muscle
29 strength, and function. More specifically, heavy resistance training leads to an increase in muscle strength
30 and muscle hypertrophy in both moderately old, old, and the oldest old men and women [15–20]. These
31 beneficial effects of resistance training are also observed when analyzing changes at the muscle fiber level,
32 and previous studies in elderly have shown an increase in type II muscle fiber size as a result of the training
33 [9,10,14,16,20–22]. A very well-recognized adaptation to resistance training in both young and elderly
34 individuals is a shift in the relative amount of type IIX and IIA fibers, where a reduction in the relative
35 amount of type IIX fibers and a corresponding increase in the relative amount of type IIA fibers are
36 observed [9,10,23]. This adaptation occurs in the early phase of commencing resistance training and is
37 detectable before myofiber hypertrophy [24], and is considered as favorable for fatigue resistance of the
38 skeletal muscle [10]. Together, these adaptations in muscle fiber characteristics are to some extent the
39 reason why an increase in muscle strength, muscle power, and physical function is observed after a period
40 of intense resistance training [25]. However, previous studies have primarily been of shorter duration, and
41 therefore the current knowledge is sparse when it comes to the responses of human skeletal muscle fibers
42 to a long-term resistance training intervention.

43 We hypothesized that the muscle function would be improved as a response to the resistance training
44 intervention and that the size of type II muscle fibers would be larger in the resistance-trained participants
45 compared to the controls. Secondly, we also hypothesized that there would be more type IIA fibers and
46 fewer type IIX fibers in the resistance training group compared to the controls. Thus, the present study
47 aimed to investigate the effect of one year of heavy resistance training in elderly adults on muscle mass,

48 muscle strength and relate this to specific differences in muscle fiber characteristics of the resistance
49 trained group compared with a non-exercising control group after the intervention.

50 2. METHODS

51 2.1 *Experimental Approach to the Problem*

52 The present investigation was a sub-study of a larger randomized controlled trial with the primary aim to
53 investigate the effect of one year of resistance training upon muscle mass, strength, and function in 451
54 participants aged 62-70 years that were randomized to one of three groups; heavy resistance training
55 (HRT), moderate intensity training (MIT) or control (CON) [26]. In the present study, 20 participants (both
56 men and women) were recruited and gave consent to undergo additional muscle-specific tests at the end
57 of the intervention. From the beginning of the original study, the 20 participants included in the present
58 study were allocated to either one year of heavy resistance training or a non-exercising control group.

59 2.2 *Participants*

60 The original study inclusion criteria were an age between 62-70 years and independent living. The
61 participants were not enrolled in the study if they performed more than one hour per week of regular
62 strenuous exercise training, had severe unstable medical diseases (e.g., active cancer or severe heart
63 disease), had musculoskeletal diseases that inhibited training ability, were using medication that may
64 influence the effects of training (e.g., androgens or antiandrogens), and/or drugs that caused safety
65 concerns in relation to training [26]. The participants in the present study were recruited at the end of the
66 one-year intervention and were only included if they have had a high training compliance (HRT) or had not
67 changed their habitual physical activity level (CON) during the intervention.

68 All participants were informed of the benefits and risks of the investigation prior to signing the informed
69 consent document to participate in the study. The study was approved by the regional ethical committee,
70 complied with the declaration of Helsinki, and approved by the National Data Protection Agency and
71 registered on clinicaltrials.gov.

72 2.3 *Procedures*

73 2.3.1 *Interventions*

74 The heavy resistance training intervention has been described elsewhere [17]. In brief, the participants
75 exercised three times/week for one year with at least 48 hours between sessions. Experienced physical
76 trainers supervised all sessions. Initially, the participants were familiarized to the program for 6-8 weeks
77 with low intensity and loads to reduce the risk of musculoskeletal injury and familiarize them with the

78 exercises. For the remaining part of the one-year intervention, the participants performed a progressive
79 whole-body training program with increasing load. The participants performed three sets of 6–12
80 repetitions corresponding to an estimated intensity between ≈ 70 –85% of 1 repetition maximum (RM) in a
81 linear periodized regime over 9 weeks. Every second week the load was increased and after week 9, which
82 was a restitution week, the participants performed 3 x 12 repetitions with a higher load than the first week
83 of the last periodization, and thus the load increased throughout the entire intervention period. The
84 training program consisted of leg press, knee extension, leg curl, calf raises, hip abduction, chest press,
85 seated row, crunches, and back extensions. The control group was not allowed to perform more than one
86 hour of strenuous physical exercise per week and were encouraged to continue their habitual physical
87 activity level during the one-year intervention.

88 2.3.2 Measurements

89 Before and after the intervention all participants went through a comprehensive assessment battery
90 including a medical examination, physical testing, body composition measurements, and determination of
91 muscle size. In the present study, only some of the assessments are included. To determine maximal
92 muscle strength an isometric knee extensor strength test was performed in a Good Strength device (V.3.14
93 Bluetooth; Metitur, Finland). Body composition was measured by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA)
94 scan, where lean body mass (LBM) and lean leg mass (LLM) were determined. A magnetic resonance
95 imaging (MRI) scan was used to determine cross-sectional area (CSA) of the vastus lateralis muscle.
96 Unfortunately, the MRI scan from two participants (one from each group) could not be used for analysis,
97 and the analysis is therefore based on the remaining 18 participants. A detailed description of all
98 assessments has been described previously [17,26].

99 2.3.3 Experimental protocol

100 *Muscle biopsy:* On the day of the muscle biopsy sampling, the participants entered the laboratory facilities
101 in a non-fasted state. A muscle biopsy was obtained from the non-dominant leg using a 6 mm Bergström
102 needle using manual suction. Prior to obtaining the biopsy 1% lidocaine was applied as local anesthesia and
103 an incision of approximately 6 mm was made through a skin incision. The biopsy was extracted from the
104 most central position of m. vastus lateralis in accordance with the procedure by Bergström [27]. After
105 extraction, all visual fat and connective tissue were removed from the biopsy, which was then embedded in
106 Tissue-Tek and transferred into liquid nitrogen-cooled isopentane. Another piece of the biopsy was snap-
107 frozen directly in liquid nitrogen. Both pieces were stored at -80°C until further analysis. Biopsies were
108 obtained after the intervention only.

109 *Immunohistochemistry:* The Tissue-Tek embedded piece of the muscle biopsies were cut in 10 µm thick
110 transverse sections at -20°C in a cryostat. The sections from each participant were placed on glass slides
111 and stored in boxes at -80°C until further analysis. The investigator was blinded to the participant's identity
112 and group allocation.

113 *ATPase staining:* Four separate slides containing the cut sections from each participant were prepared for
114 staining using the ATPase histochemistry method. The slides were preincubated in solutions with a pH of
115 4.37, 4.53, 4.57, and 10.30 at room temperature. After preincubation, the slides were rinsed twice in a pH
116 solution of 9.4 for 15 s and 30 s and then incubated for 30 min in a pH 9.4 ATP solution at 37°C. Thereafter,
117 the slides were rinsed in 1% CaCl₂ for 1, 2, and 3 min followed by an incubation in a 2% CoCl₂ solution for a
118 period of 3 min. Lastly, the slides were then washed 25 times in H₂O, incubated with 1% ammoniumsulfide
119 for 1 min, washed 25 times in H₂O again, and finally, the slides were mounted with polyvinylpyrrolidone
120 [23,28,29].

121 *Capillary staining:* A slide from each participant was prepared for immunohistochemical staining of
122 capillaries. The double-staining method combining ulex europaeus lectin 1 (UEA-1) and collagen type IV
123 staining was used [30]. First the sections were dried, then the slides were fixed in acetone for 30 s,
124 incubated in 1% BSA for 20 min followed by an incubation of UEA-1 protein for 30 min at room
125 temperature. Thereafter, the slides were incubated with anti-UEA-I for 15 min and anti-human collagen IV
126 for 30 min. The slides were then incubated with the secondary antibodies, biotinylated goat anti-rabbit
127 antibody, and a biotinylated goat anti-mouse antibody for 30 min before a Vector Elite ABC HRP kit was
128 applied to the slides for an additional 30 min. Lastly, the slides were incubated with a 3,3'-diaminobezidine
129 substrate for 3-4 min before being mounted in aquatex [30].

130 *Analysis of capillary and ATPase staining:* To evaluate fiber type, fiber size, and the number of capillaries
131 the ATPase and capillary stainings were analyzed by a blinded assessor. Serial sections were visualized and
132 analyzed using an Olympus BX40 microscope (Olympus Optical Co., Tokyo, Japan), connected to Sanyo Hi-
133 resolution Color CCD camera (Sanyo Electronic Co., Osaka, Japan), and an eight-bit Matrox Meteor
134 Framegrabber (Matrox Electronic Systems, Quebec, Canada), combined with image-analysis software
135 (Tema, Scanbeam, Hadsund, Denmark). Using the capillary staining, a fiber mask was drawn along the cell
136 borders of approximately 200 fibers per biopsy, and capillaries were marked. Afterwards, images from the
137 ATPase staining were fitted into the fiber mask and a number was assigned to each specific fiber. The fibers
138 were then displayed on the screen in multiple images and the individual fibers could be identified. The
139 fibers were then assigned to a specific fiber type group, in order to determine the relative proportion of the
140 various fiber types, fiber type areas, and fiber sizes as well as the number of capillaries associated with each

141 fiber [23,31]. The analysis defined five different fiber types (type I, I/IIA, IIA, IIAX, and IIX) from which the
142 fibers. From this overall classification, the number of fiber types were reduced to three main fiber types
143 (type I, IIA, and IIX) as described previously by Andersen and Aagaard [23], to provide an easier dataset to
144 compare with earlier studies. In extension of this, the number of minor sub-fiber types (I/IIA, IIAX, and IIX)
145 was so small in some individuals, that a reliable statistical comparison of differences in fiber size of these
146 minor fiber types was impossible. Therefore, calculations of fiber type size were done only for the two
147 major fiber types (I and II) [23].

148 2.4 Statistical Analyses

149 A two-way mixed model with repeated measures was used to evaluate the overall effects of group and time
150 for all parameters, except data from the muscle biopsies, including data from pre and post-intervention. In
151 case of a significant group \times time interaction, Tukey post hoc analysis was used to evaluate within-group
152 comparisons as well as a one-way ANOVA (a generalized linear model) to detect any group differences from
153 baseline to 1-year. If no significant group \times time interaction was observed, the same model but without
154 interaction was used to evaluate the effect of time. As we only have post-intervention muscle biopsies, a
155 one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate whether there were any differences between HRT and CON. In
156 addition, to evaluate the magnitude of the mean differences, Hedges' g effect sizes (ES) were calculated for
157 comparison groups (HRT vs. CON). The interpretation of the effect sizes is similar to the scale proposed by
158 Rhea 2004 for untrained participants [32]: trivial <0.50 , small= $0.50-1.25$, moderate= $1.25-1.9$, and large
159 >2.0 . Further, a two-way mixed model was used to evaluate any potential group and sex differences in fiber
160 size. If no significant group \times sex interaction was observed, a one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate sex
161 differences. All data are presented as mean \pm SE unless otherwise stated. All missing data were removed for
162 the same participant at all time points (e.g. if a participant had one missing data from baseline, data from 1-
163 year were removed). We chose a significance level of 0.05 for the mixed model and ANOVA. All statistical
164 analysis was performed using SAS Enterprise Guide 8.3 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

165 3. RESULTS

166 3.1 Participants

167 Twenty participants (10 men/10 women) with an average age of 67 ± 2.2 years were enrolled in the study,
168 all participants, from a larger cohort that had concluded the one-year intervention [17]. Table 1 provides
169 baseline characteristics of the participants. Only age differed between the two groups, where participants
170 in HRT were younger than CON ($p<0.05$). For all other parameters, there was no difference between

171 groups. In the present study, the participants randomized to the heavy resistance training had a training
172 compliance of $88 \% \pm 5 \%$ (mean \pm SD) during the intervention.

173 3.2 Fiber type composition, size, and capillarization

174 On average, the muscle biopsy sample was obtained 6.9 ± 0.3 days after the last exercise session. The
175 number of fibers analyzed for each group was 207 ± 4 and 207 ± 2 (mean \pm SE) for HRT and CON,
176 respectively. There was no difference in the percentage of type I and IIA fibers between groups. However,
177 the percentage of type IIX fibers was significantly lower in HRT than in CON ($4.7 \% \pm 1.4 \%$ and $12.3 \% \pm 3.0$
178 $\%$, respectively) ($p < 0.05$, ES: 0.99) (fig. 1A). This was also the case when the type IIX fibers were expressed
179 in percentage of the fiber size ($p < 0.05$).

180 The size of the fibers did not differ between groups in either muscle fiber type I ($4725 \mu\text{m}^2 \pm 245 \mu\text{m}^2$ and
181 $4795 \mu\text{m}^2 \pm 267 \mu\text{m}^2$ for HRT and CON, respectively) or II ($3660 \mu\text{m}^2 \pm 389 \mu\text{m}^2$ and $3821 \mu\text{m}^2 \pm 584 \mu\text{m}^2$ for
182 HRT and CON, respectively) (fig. 1B). When the fiber size was analyzed to evaluate any sex differences, we
183 observed that men in general had a significantly higher fiber size in the type II fibers compared with women
184 ($p < 0.01$) (data not shown). This was independent of which group the participants were allocated to as there
185 was no significant group \times sex interaction.

186 We did not observe any difference between groups in capillarization. The number of capillaries per fiber
187 was 2.2 ± 0.1 capillaries for both groups and the amount of capillaries per mm^2 was 470.4 ± 27.3 and 486.7
188 ± 21.1 capillaries for HRT and CON, respectively.

189 3.3 Muscle strength

190 Similar to the original study with a much larger number of participants [17], participants in the heavy
191 resistance training group experienced an increase in isometric muscle strength as a response to the training
192 intervention, resulting in a significant group \times time interaction ($p < 0.0001$). The change from baseline to 1-
193 year in isometric muscle strength in HRT was significantly higher than in CON ($33.7 \text{ Nm} \pm 4.3 \text{ Nm}$ and -4.7
194 $\text{Nm} \pm 5.2 \text{ Nm}$, respectively) ($p < 0.0001$, ES: 2.43) (fig. 2A). Additionally, compared with baseline the
195 isometric muscle strength at 1-year was higher in HRT ($p < 0.0001$) and unchanged in CON.

196 3.4 Body composition and muscle size

197 In line with isometric muscle strength, we observed an overall interaction in LBM ($p < 0.05$), which was
198 similar to what we found in the original study [17]. The change from baseline to 1-year in LBM was
199 significantly higher in HRT compared with CON ($1086 \text{ g} \pm 302 \text{ g}$ and $177 \text{ g} \pm 169 \text{ g}$, respectively) ($p < 0.05$, ES:

200 0.96) (fig. 2B). In addition, LBM was higher after the 1-year intervention in HRT compared with baseline
201 ($p < 0.01$), whereas it was unchanged in CON.

202 For either the CSA of the vastus lateralis muscle or LLM, we could not detect any difference between
203 groups as a response to the intervention in this study (table 2).

204 4. DISCUSSION

205 The main finding of the study was that one year of organized systematic heavy-load resistance training
206 improved muscle strength and muscle mass in older adults and that these adaptations were accompanied
207 by the observation of a significantly lower relative number of muscle fiber type IIX in the trained group
208 compared to the control group after the intervention. A decrease in the relative amount of type IIX fibers is
209 a well-known adaptation to heavy resistance training when carried over a shorter period [23], and we here
210 demonstrate that this seems also to be the case when training is continued up till one year in elderly
211 individuals.

212 Somewhat unexpected, we could not detect any differences in muscle fiber size between the two groups
213 after the intervention. This lack of difference in muscle fiber size is in contrast to the general hypothesis of
214 resistance training stimulating an increase in muscle fiber size, especially in type II fibers
215 [9,10,14,21,22,31,33]. However, in a study by Ziegler et al, also using a sub-population ($n=25$) from the
216 same original study as the present study, no significant increase in fiber size between the HRT and the
217 control group was observed [34]. In that study muscle biopsies from both pre-training and post-training
218 were directly compared.

219 As we did not have biopsies before the training, it cannot be ruled out that the HRT group could have had a
220 somewhat lower fiber size at baseline than the CON group and that we could have missed any true increase
221 in fiber size. Another explanation could be the relatively small number of participants in the present study,
222 and in fact in the much larger study from which these participants in this study were recruited from, does in
223 fact demonstrate that training increased both strength and cross-sectional area of skeletal muscle with
224 training [17]. Further, the determination of fiber size from muscle biopsy sections is widely used as a
225 reliable assessment of muscle hypertrophy, but it has also been demonstrated that there is an increasing
226 variation in fiber size with age [35], which potentially could have contributed to our lack of findings in
227 hypertrophy in muscle fiber size. In addition, it is worth mentioning that it is not unusual to find a
228 discrepancy between adaptation at fiber level and whole muscle [36] or whole-body level [37].

229 Our finding of an increase in muscle strength and lean body mass in response to a resistance training
230 intervention has been observed previously in all age groups including the oldest old [9,10,20,38,39]. The

231 gains in isometric muscle strength and lean body mass were ~22 % and ~2 %, respectively, and are similar
232 to what has been reported with resistance training interventions in older adults [15,18,20,31,40].
233 Therefore, it is likely that our training program has provided an appropriate stimulus to the skeletal muscle.
234 Likewise, the apparent decrease in the percentage of type IIX fibers and corresponding increase in type IIA
235 fibers found in the resistance-trained participants compared with the controls is a response that has been
236 observed in earlier resistance training studies [9,10,21,23,25]. It should be noted that we did not see a
237 difference in the percentage of type IIA fibers between the two groups.

238 Even though we could not detect any difference in muscle fiber size, there was a relatively high increase in
239 muscle strength, which could indicate that the increased strength could be primarily a consequence of
240 neuromuscular changes in response to the resistance training intervention rather than changes at the
241 muscle level, in line with earlier resistance training studies that have found increased neural drive [11,41]
242 and increased motoneuron firing frequency [41]. A combination of these changes would increase the
243 amount of recruited muscle fibers and thereby the potential to increase muscle strength.

244 In conclusion, one year of heavy resistance training increased muscle strength and lean body mass in
245 elderly individuals, and we observed a lower percentage of type IIX muscle fibers in the heavy resistance
246 training participants compared with the non-training controls. The lack of any difference in muscle fiber size
247 in muscle biopsies between groups obtained after the training intervention indicates that long-term
248 resistance training in elderly individuals predominantly improves muscle strength through neuromuscular
249 adaptation rather than to morphological changes per se.

250 REFERENCES

- ~~251~~ Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Bahat G, Bauer J, et al. Sarcopenia: revised European consensus on definition and diagnosis. 252 *Age Ageing* 2019; 48: 16–31
- ~~253~~ Lindle RS, Metter EJ, Lynch NA, et al. Age and gender comparisons of muscle strength in 654 women and 254 men aged 20–93 yr. *J Appl Physiol* 1997; 83: 1581–1587
- ~~255~~ Skelton DA, Greig CA, Davies JM, et al. Strength, power and related functional ability of healthy people aged 256 65–89 years. *Age Ageing* 1994; 23: 371–377
- ~~257~~ Janssen I, Heymsfield SB, Wang Z, et al. Skeletal muscle mass and distribution in 468 men and women aged 258 18–88 yr. *J Appl Physiol* 2000; 89: 81–88
- ~~259~~ Suetta C, Haddock B, Alcazar J, et al. The Copenhagen Sarcopenia Study: lean mass, strength, power, and 260 physical function in a Danish cohort aged 20–93 years. *J Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle* 2019; 10: 1316–1329
- ~~261~~ Kohl HW, Craig CL, Lambert EV, et al. The pandemic of physical inactivity: global action for public health. 262 *Lancet* 2012; 380: 294–305
- ~~263~~ Lee I-M, Shiroma EJ, Lobelo F, et al. Effect of physical inactivity on major non-communicable diseases 264 worldwide: an analysis of burden of disease and life expectancy. *Lancet* 2012; 380: 219–229
- ~~265~~ Nilwik R, Snijders T, Leenders M, et al. The decline in skeletal muscle mass with aging is mainly attributed to 266 a reduction in type II muscle fiber size. *Exp Gerontol* 2013; 48: 492–498
- ~~267~~ Mayhew DL, Kim JS, Cross JM, et al. Translational signaling responses preceding resistance training- 268 mediated myofiber hypertrophy in young and old humans. *J Appl Physiol* 2009; 107: 1655–1662
- ~~269~~ Bickel CS, Cross JC, Bamman MM. Exercise dosing to retain resistance training adaptations in young and 270 older adults. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2011; 43: 1177–1187
- ~~271~~ Unhjem R, Lundestad R, Fimland MS, et al. Strength training-induced responses in older adults: attenuation 272 of descending neural drive with age. *Age (Omaha)* 2015; 37: 1–13
- ~~273~~ Aagaard P, Suetta C, Caserotti P, et al. Role of the nervous system in sarcopenia and muscle atrophy with 274 aging: Strength training as a countermeasure. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 2010; 20: 49–64
- ~~275~~ Campbell MJ, McComas AJ, Petito F. Physiological changes in ageing muscles. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 276 1973; 36: 174–182
- ~~277~~ Moro T, Brightwell CR, Volpi E, et al. Resistance exercise training promotes fiber type-specific myonuclear 278 adaptations in older adults. *J Appl Physiol* 2020; 128: 795–804
- ~~279~~ Mertz KH, Reitelseder S, Bechshoef R, et al. The effect of daily protein supplementation, with or without 280 resistance training for 1 year, on muscle size, strength, and function in healthy older adults: A randomized 281 controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2021; 00: 1–11
- ~~282~~ Leenders M, Verdijk LB, van der Hoeven L, et al. Elderly Men and Women Benefit Equally From Prolonged 283 Resistance-Type Exercise Training. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2013; 68: 769–779
- ~~284~~ Gylling AT, Eriksen CS, Garde E, et al. The influence of prolonged strength training upon muscle and fat in 285 healthy and chronically diseased older adults. *Exp Gerontol* 2020; 136: 1–10

- ~~288~~ Bechshøft RL, Malmgaard-Clausen NM, Gliese B, et al. Improved skeletal muscle mass and strength after heavy strength training in very old individuals. *Exp Gerontol* 2017; 92: 96–105
- ~~289~~ Churchward-Venne TA, Tieland M, Verdijk LB, et al. There Are No Nonresponders to Resistance-Type Exercise Training in Older Men and Women. *J Am Med Dir Assoc* 2015; 16: 400–411
- ~~290~~ Kryger AI, Andersen JL. Resistance training in the oldest old: consequences for muscle strength, fiber types, fiber size, and MHC isoforms. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 2007; 17: 422–430
- ~~291~~ Kosek DJ, Kim JS, Petrella JK, et al. Efficacy of 3 days/wk resistance training on myofiber hypertrophy and myogenic mechanisms in young vs. older adults. *J Appl Physiol* 2006; 101: 531–544
- ~~292~~ Wang E, Nyberg SK, Hoff J, et al. Impact of maximal strength training on work efficiency and muscle fiber type in the elderly: Implications for physical function and fall prevention. *Exp Gerontol* 2017; 91: 64–71
- ~~293~~ Andersen JL, Aagaard P. Myosin heavy chain IIX overshoot in human skeletal muscle. *Muscle Nerve* 2000; 23: 1095–1104
- ~~294~~ Staron RS, Karapondo DL, Kraemer WJ, et al. Skeletal muscle adaptations during early phase of heavy-resistance training in men and women. *J Appl Physiol* 1994; 76: 1247–1255
- ~~300~~ Andersen JL, Aagaard P. Effects of strength training on muscle fiber types and size; consequences for athletes training for high-intensity sport. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 2010; 20: 32–38
- ~~301~~ Eriksen CS, Garde E, Reislev NL, et al. Physical activity as intervention for age-related loss of muscle mass and function: Protocol for a randomised controlled trial (the LISA study). *BMJ Open* 2016; 6: 1–13
- ~~302~~ Bergstrom J. Percutaneous Needle Biopsy of Skeletal Muscle in Physiological and Clinical Research. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest* 1975; 35: 609–616
- ~~303~~ Brooke MH, Kaiser KK. Muscle Fiber Types: How Many and What Kind? *Arch Neurol* 1970; 23: 369–379
- ~~304~~ Brooke MH, Kaiser KK. Three „myosin adenosine triphosphatase“ systems: the nature of their pH lability and sulfhydryl dependence. *J Histochem Cytochem* 1970; 18: 670–672
- ~~305~~ Qu Z, Andersen JL, Zhou S. Visualisation of capillaries in human skeletal muscle. *Histochem Cell Biol* 1997; 107: 169–174
- ~~306~~ Heisterberg MF, Andersen JL, Schjerling P, et al. Losartan has no additive effect on the response to heavy-resistance exercise in human elderly skeletal muscle. *J Appl Physiol* 2018; 125: 1536–1554
- ~~307~~ Rhea MR. Determining the Magnitude og Treatment Effects in Strength Training Research Through the Use og the Effect Size. *J Strength Cond Res* 2004; 18: 918–920
- ~~308~~ Kraková D, Holwerda AM, Betz MW, et al. Muscle fiber type grouping does not change in response to prolonged resistance exercise training in healthy older men. *Exp Gerontol* 2023; 173: 1–9
- ~~309~~ Ziegler AK, Jensen SM, Schjerling P, et al. The effect of resistance exercise upon age-related systemic and local skeletal muscle inflammation. *Exp Gerontol* 2019; 121: 19–32
- ~~310~~ Lexell J, Taylor CC. Variability in muscle fibre areas in whole human quadriceps muscle: effects of increasing age. *J Anat* 1991; 174: 239–249

- [326] Mackey AL, Esmarck B, Kadi F, et al. Enhanced satellite cell proliferation with resistance training in elderly men and women. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 2007; 17: 34-42
- [327] Verdijk LB, Gleeson BG, Jonkers RAM, et al. Skeletal Muscle Hypertrophy Following Resistance Training Is Accompanied by a Fiber Type-Specific Increase in Satellite Cell Content in Elderly Men. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2009; 64A: 332-339
- [328] Andersen LL, Andersen JL, Magnusson SP, et al. Changes in the human muscle force-velocity relationship in response to resistance training and subsequent detraining. *J Appl Physiol* 2005; 99: 87-94
- [329] Holm L, Reitelseder S, Pedersen TG, et al. Changes in muscle size and MHC composition in response to resistance exercise with heavy and light loading intensity. *J Appl Physiol* 2008; 105: 1454-1461
- [330] Verdijk LB, Snijders T, Holloway TM, et al. Resistance Training Increases Skeletal Muscle Capillarization in Healthy Older Men. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2016; 48: 2157-2164
- [331] Aagaard P, Simonsen EB, Andersen JL, et al. Increased rate of force development and neural drive of human skeletal muscle following resistance training. *J Appl Physiol* 2002; 93: 1318-1326

334

335 Figure legends

336 Fig. 1: Fiber type composition (%) (A) and fiber size (μm^2) (B) of muscle fibers from the vastus lateralis muscle after 1-
337 year of heavy resistance training (HRT, black bars) or habitual physical activity (CON, grey bars) (mean \pm SE).
338 *significant difference between groups ($p < 0.05$, ES: 0.99).

339

340 Fig. 2: Changes in muscle strength (Nm) (A) and lean body mass (g) (B) after either 1-year of heavy resistance training
341 (HRT, black bars) or habitual physical activity (CON, grey bars) (mean \pm SE).

342 *significant difference between groups (A: $p < 0.0001$, ES: 2.43, B: $p < 0.05$, ES: 0.96).

343

344 Table legends

345 Table 1: Participant characteristics at baseline (mean \pm SD). The isometric muscle strength test was performed in a
346 Good Strength device.

347 Table 2: Lean leg mass and muscle size before (baseline) and after either 1-year of heavy resistance training (HRT) or
348 habitual physical activity (CON) (mean \pm SE).

Table 1: Participant characteristics at baseline (mean \pm SD). The isometric muscle strength test was performed in a Good Strength device.

	Total (n=20)	HRT (n=10)	CON (n=10)	Sample size
Age (years)	67 \pm 2	66 \pm 2*	68 \pm 2	20
Sex (women %)	50	50	50	20
BMI (kg/m²)	23.5 \pm 2.4	23.8 \pm 2.8	23.2 \pm 2.2	20
Lean body mass (kg)	47.7 \pm 7.8	48.5 \pm 7.9	46.8 \pm 8.0	20
Isometric muscle strength (Nm)	151.7 \pm 36.7	151.5 \pm 38.2	151.9 \pm 37.2	20
30 s chair-stand (reps)	17 \pm 4	18 \pm 4	17 \pm 3	20
Total step count (steps/day)	9992 \pm 4462	11254 \pm 5398	8729 \pm 3058	20

*Significant difference between HRT and CON ($p < 0.05$).

BMI: body mass index

Table 2: Lean leg mass and muscle size before (baseline) and after either 1-year of heavy resistance training (HRT) or habitual physical activity (CON) (mean \pm SE).

	HRT		CON		Sample size
	Baseline	1 yr	Baseline	1 yr	
Lean leg mass (kg)	17.2 \pm 1.1	17.6 \pm 1.2	16.5 \pm 1.1	16.6 \pm 1.0	20
CSA m. vastus lateralis (mm²)	1494 \pm 139	1502 \pm 136	1476 \pm 85	1493 \pm 88	18

CSA: cross-sectional area

