



Comparison of changes in lean body mass with a strength- versus muscle endurance-based resistance training program

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Abstract

Purpose The aim of this study was to compare the effects of resistance training (RT) with an emphasis on either muscular strength-type RT or muscular endurance-type RT on measures of body composition.

Methods Twenty-five resistance-trained men (age 28.4 ± 6.4 years; body mass 75.9 ± 8.4 kg; height 176.9 ± 7.5 cm) were randomly assigned to either a strength-type RT group that performed three sets of 6–8 repetition maximum (RM) with 3-min rest ($n = 10$), an endurance-type RT group that performed three sets of 20–25 RM with a 60-s rest interval ($n = 10$), or a control group ($n = 5$, CG). All groups completed each set until muscular failure and were supervised to follow a hyperenergetic diet ($39 \text{ kcal} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$). Body composition changes were measured by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry.

Results After 8 weeks, we found significant increases in total body mass ($0.9 [0.3–1.5]$ kg; $p < 0.05$; $ES = < 0.2$) and lean body mass (LBM) ($1.3 [0.5–2.2]$ kg; $p < 0.05$; $ES = 0.31$) only in the strength-type RT group; however, no significant interactions were noted between groups.

Conclusions Although only strength-type RT showed statistically significant increases in LBM from baseline, no between-group differences were noted for any body composition outcome. These findings suggest that LBM gains in resistance trained are not significantly influenced by the type of training stimulus over an 8-week training period.

Keywords Body composition · Exercise · Physiology · Fitness · Training

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Abbreviations

RT	Resistance training	23
LBM	Lean body mass	24
CG	Control group	25
BM	Body mass	26
DXA	Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry	27
SD	Standard deviation	28
GLM	General linear model	29
FM	Fat mass	30
RM	Repetition maximum	31
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging	32

Introduction

Current theory postulates that the manipulation of program variables is necessary to maximize resistance training-induced muscular adaptations (ACSM 2009). Several mechanisms have been proposed to elicit muscle hypertrophy, including mechanical tension and metabolic stress. It is believed that these training-related factors promote

41 adaptations by different signaling cascades that can be tar- 94
 42 geted by altering program variables (Schoenfeld 2010). 95

43 To infer causality, most research studies compare pro- 96
 44 gram variables in an isolated manner, with all other variables 97
 45 equated. In this regard, numerous authors have investigated
 46 the effects of manipulating variables on body composition.
 47 For instance, rest interval periods between sets (Gentil et al.
 48 2010; Villanueva et al. 2015), time under tension (Shep-
 49 stone et al. 2005; Usui et al. 2016), number of repetitions
 50 adjusted for the corresponding load/intensity (Kushner et al.
 51 2015; Morton et al. 2016), volume (Radaelli et al. 2015),
 52 frequency (Schoenfeld et al. 2015b), selection and order of
 53 exercises (Assumpcao et al. 2013; Dias et al. 2010), and rep-
 54 etitions until volitional failure (Sampson and Groeller 2016)
 55 all have been investigated. These studies have been carried
 56 out in a variety of populations, generally employing seden-
 57 tary subjects or those with less than 6 months of resistance
 58 training (RT). Manipulating variables separately might favor
 59 the production of either mechanical tension or metabolic
 60 stress in one group more than the other. In general, strength-
 61 type RT employing heavier loads and longer rest intervals
 62 favor higher mechanical tension, whereas endurance-type
 63 RT with lighter loads and shorter rest intervals promote
 64 a greater accumulation of metabolites (Schoenfeld 2010).
 65 Research indicates that a longer time under tension during
 66 a set increases the accumulation of metabolites (Rogatzki
 67 et al. 2014). Accordingly, working muscle groups in an alter-
 68 nating fashion (i.e., upper limbs and lower limbs, push and
 69 pull exercises, etc.) has been proposed as a training strategy
 70 that allows the recovery of one muscle group while work-
 71 ing another (Baechle et al. 2008; Sheppard and Haff 2016).

72 Previously, Schoenfeld et al. (2014) found no differences
 73 in elbow flexor hypertrophy between a “bodybuilding-type”
 74 protocol whereby resistance-trained men performed three
 75 sets of 10RM with a 1-min rest interval versus a “powerlift-
 76 ing-type” protocol whereby subjects performed seven sets
 77 of 3RM with a 3-min rest interval. Alternatively, Mangine
 78 et al. (Mangine et al. 2015) reported greater increases in lean
 79 arm mass when resistance-trained men performed three sets
 80 of 90% 1RM with a 3-min rest interval versus three sets of
 81 70% 1RM with 1-min rest between sets. However, neither of
 82 these studies endeavored to manipulate the spectrum of RT
 83 variables to maximize mechanical tension versus metabolic
 84 stress.

85 The purpose of this randomized controlled study was to
 86 evaluate the effects of two different RT protocols by manipu-
 87 lating training variables with either a strength- or endurance-
 88 type focus on markers of hypertrophy in trained men. Under
 89 a supervised hyperenergetic diet, we manipulated multiple
 90 variables including load, number of repetitions, rest interval
 91 between sets, exercise order, and the cadence of concentric
 92 and eccentric actions in an effort to maximize mechanical or
 93 metabolic stressors. Based on previous meta-analysis data,

we hypothesized that both training protocols would equally
 enhance gains in lean body mass (LBM) when combined
 with a supervised hyperenergetic diet (Schoenfeld et al.
 2017).

Methods 98

Subjects 99

Twenty-five subjects with more than 2 years of continuous
 experience in RT (mean training age = 7.96 ± 4.15 years)
 volunteered to participate in this study (age = 28.4 ± 6.4
 years; body mass = 75.9 ± 8.4 kg; height = 176.9 ± 7.5 cm;
 BMI = 24.4 ± 2.1 kg/m²). All individuals committed to
 adhere to the prescribed training and dietary protocols dur-
 ing the 8 weeks of the study, with no exercise performed
 or food consumed other than those proposed. Two subjects
 who admitted to having used androgenic–anabolic steroids
 during the last 2 years or consumed any type of dietary sup-
 plement were excluded from the study. The subjects were
 informed of the possible risks of the experiment and signed
 a consent form. The research protocol was reviewed and
 approved by the Ethics Committee of the EADE-University
 of Wales Trinity Saint David (Wales, United Kingdom). The
 study was developed following the ethical guidelines of the
 Declaration of Helsinki (WMA 2013) (Table 1). 116

Study design 117

The participants were randomly assigned to perform RT
 with either a muscular strength-type RT focus ($n = 10$), a
 muscular endurance-type RT focus ($n = 10$) or a control
 group that followed their usual and customary fitness pro-
 gram (CG) ($n = 5$). Both groups performed four training
 sessions per week organized as a split routine, with 2
 days allocated for the upper limbs and 2 days allocated
 for the lower limbs, and 72 h of rest afforded between 125

Table 1 Characteristics of participants at baseline

	Strength	Endurance	Control	<i>p</i>
Age (years)	27.1 ± 5.6	28.0 ± 7.7	31.6 ± 4.6	0.440
Height (cm)	178.3 ± 6.2	174.1 ± 8.3	179.9 ± 7.8	0.285
BM (kg)	74.6 ± 5.3	75.7 ± 11.7	78.9 ± 6.5	0.656
BMI (kg m ²)	23.9 ± 1.6	24.9 ± 2.4	24.5 ± 1.7	0.477
Experience (years)	7.13 ± 3.41	6.77 ± 3.19	11.76 ± 5.45	0.062
FM (kg)	11.3 ± 2.6	12.4 ± 4.9	13.4 ± 4.5	0.641
LBM (kg)	63.2 ± 4.4	63.3 ± 8.1	65.6 ± 2.6	0.744

Data are means ± SD

BM body mass, BMI body mass index, FM fat mass, LBM lean body
 mass, $p < 0.05$ is considered significant

126 sessions for the same muscles. The training program
127 lasted 8 weeks. All sets in the experimental groups were
128 performed to volitional failure.

129 Procedures

130 Training protocols

131 All routines were directly supervised by the research
132 team, which included certified personal trainers to ensure
133 proper performance of the respective routines based on
134 National Strength and Conditioning Association proto-
135 cols. All subjects were familiar with the exercises and
136 standardized diets.

137 The manipulation of exercise variables was designed to
138 elicit greater mechanical tension in the strength-type RT
139 group and greater metabolic stress in the endurance-type
140 RT group. Specifically, strength-type RT performed exer-
141 cises in an alternating push and pull fashion as follows: (i)
142 upper limbs: bench press, pull-ups, dumbbell lateral raise,
143 incline press, barbell row, military press, biceps curl and
144 triceps dip; and (ii) lower limbs: squat, deadlift, leg press,
145 lying leg curl, leg extension, hip thrust, standing calf raise
146 and calf raise press. Alternatively, exercises for the endur-
147 ance-type RT group were structured so that each muscle
148 group was trained in series as follows: (i) upper limbs:
149 bench press, incline press, military press, triceps dip,
150 pull-ups, barbell row, biceps curl and dumbbell lateral
151 raise; and (ii) lower limbs: squat, leg press, leg extension,
152 deadlift, lying leg curl, hip thrust, standing calf raise,
153 and calf raise press. The control group was instructed to
154 continue with their usual and customary training program
155 during the entire duration of the experiment; no specific
156 intervention was prescribed but strength levels and body
157 composition were evaluated pre-and post-study.

158 Progression of load was employed for both experimen-
159 tal groups, whereby the magnitude of load was increased
160 whenever a subject exceeded the target repetition range
161 while using proper technique. In doing so, the lifted loads
162 and perceived exertion in each exercise were monitored
163 by the physical conditioning and strength specialist using
164 a paper tracking form throughout the experiment. Table 2
165 details the specific manipulation of variables for both the
166 strength-type RT and endurance-type RT protocols.

Table 2 Training protocols for the study groups (strength and endurance)

Group	Sets	Reps	Rest	Time	Muscle failure	TUT	Total sets
Strength	3	6–8 RM	3 min	30X ^a	Yes	18–24 s	24
Endurance	3	20–25 RM	1 min	201	Yes	60–75 s	24

TUT time under tension, RM repetition maximum

^aX denotes high-velocity explosive concentric action

167 Dietary intake

168 A sports nutrition specialist prescribed individualized die-
169 tary regimens for each participant. A protein intake of 2
170 g·kg⁻¹·day⁻¹ was prescribed, as this amount is in the upper
171 range shown to maximize lean tissue accretion (Aragon et al.
172 2017; Jager et al. 2017). Regarding other macronutrients, a
173 caloric intake of 25% was established from fats, and the bal-
174 ance of the diet was obtained from carbohydrates (until com-
175 pleting the total caloric requirement of 39 kcal·kg⁻¹·day⁻¹).
176 Diet structure and monitoring, in terms of distribution and
177 frequency, were supervised by a sports nutrition specialist
178 to ensure adherence to total daily caloric values and macro-
179 nutrient distribution, given these factors are important to
180 determine RT-induced muscular adaptations (Helms et al.
181 2014). Food records were entered into a MyFitnessPal app
182 (MyFitnessPal, LLC, CA, USA), which has been validated
183 as viable tool for energy assessment (Teixeira et al. 2018).
184 Similar foods were recommended for the diets of all subjects
185 in strength-type RT and endurance-type RT group, while
186 subjects in the control group maintained their habitual feed-
187 ing (they were not asked to follow a specific diet).

188 Body composition

189 Body mass (BM) and regional body composition were
190 assessed using a Hologic QDR 4500 dual-energy X-ray
191 absorptiometry (DXA) scanner (Hologic Inc., Bedford, MA,
192 USA). Each subject was scanned by a certified technician,
193 and the distinguished bone and soft tissue, edge detection,
194 and regional demarcations were assessed by computer algo-
195 rithms with APEX Software 3.0 (APEX Corporation Soft-
196 ware, Pittsburg, PA, USA). For each scan, subjects wore
197 sport clothes and were asked to remove all materials that
198 could attenuate the X-ray beam, including jewelry items.
199 Calibration of the densitometer was checked daily against
200 a standard calibration block supplied by the manufacturer.

201 Statistical analysis

202 Descriptive statistics tests were reported as the mean and
203 standard deviation (SD). Data were analyzed using a uni-
204 variate, multivariate and repeated measures general linear
205 model (GLM), with two levels of time (pre- and post-test)
206 and using groups (strength-type RT, endurance-type RT and

CG) as an inter-subject factor. Wilks' Lambda multivariate tests were reported to describe overall effects of related variables analyzed. Greenhouse–Geisser univariate tests with least significant difference and post hoc comparisons (Bonferroni correction) were presented for individual variables analyzed. Partial eta-squared effect sizes (η^2) were also reported on select variables as an indicator of effect size (ES) of the repeated measures GLM. An eta squared of 0.02 was considered small, 0.13 medium, and 0.26 large (Dalton et al. 2017). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), with a 95% confidence level and Bonferroni post hoc correction was performed to detect between-group differences in the Δ changes (post-test—pre-test), as is recommended for these studies (Nakagawa and Cuthill 2007). In addition, ES calculation was done with Cohen's d , as a standardized measurement based on SD differences; while $d=0.2$ was considered a small effect, $d=0.5$ was a medium effect and $d=0.8$ was a large effect, which is used as a guide for substantive significance. The normal Gaussian distribution of the data was verified by the Shapiro–Wilk test. These statistical analyses were performed with licensed Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software (SPSS 24.0, IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA), GraphPad Prism software version 7.03 (GraphPad software, California, USA), and Estimation Statistics Beta program (see <http://www.estimationstats.com>).

Results

The statistical results before and after the intervention for total BM, fat mass (FM), and LBM in strength-type RT, endurance-type RT and CG are shown in Table 3.

Analysis of the GLM of repeated measures showed no significant differences ($p > 0.05$) for BW considering the effects of the factors (Time, Group or Time \times Group).

Regarding Δ by group, the endurance-type RT group showed a non-significant slight decrease in BM (-0.8 [-2.9 to 1.2] kg, $p > 0.05$, ES = -0.08). The strength-type RT group showed a statistically significant increase in BM after the intervention (0.9 [0.3 – 1.5] kg, $p < 0.05$), although the effect was trivial (ES < 0.2). The CG did not show a significant change in BM (0.3 [-1.2 to 1.9] kg, $p > 0.05$, ES = 0.18). In accordance with the group comparison test, no difference was found in the change Δ in BM. Figure 1 provides a graphical illustration of both mean and individual changes in body composition.

A significant difference was found in FM ($p = 0.04$, $\eta^2 = 0.17$) between the means (Time) according to the univariate model; no difference was found between the means when the model included the Group or Group \times Time interaction. Regarding Δ by group, a slight but not statistically significant decrease was shown for the strength-type RT group (-0.5 [-1.2 to 0.3] kg, $p > 0.05$, ES ≤ 0.2), endurance-type RT group (-0.9 [-2.0 to 0.3] kg, $p > 0.05$, ES = 0.46) and control group (-0.5 [-2.4 to 1.3] kg, $p > 0.05$, ES ≤ 0.2). No significant differences were seen in the comparison of Δ for FM between groups ($p > 0.05$) (Fig. 1).

Regarding LBM, the univariate analysis showed a difference between the mean (Time) ($p = 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.25$), but not for comparisons by Group or Time \times Group ($p > 0.05$). The results for each group (considering the Δ) showed a significant increase in the strength-type RT group (1.3 [0.5 – 2.2] kg, $p < 0.05$), but with a small effect size (ES = 0.31). However, no significant changes were displayed in the endurance-type RT group (0.03 [-1.1 to 1.1] kg); $p > 0.05$; ES < 0.2 or in the CG (0.8 [-0.4 to 2.1] kg; $p > 0.05$; ES = 0.26) (Fig. 1). ANOVA for the comparison of Δ for the LBM determined that there was no significant difference between groups ($p > 0.05$).

Table 3 Results before and after the intervention for body composition by groups

	Group	Before	After	Cohen's d (ES)	Interaction	p value (η^2)
BM (kg)	Strength	74.6 \pm 5.3	75.5 \pm 4.9 ^a	0.18	Time	0.78 (0.003)
	Endurance	75.7 \pm 11.7	74.9 \pm 10.4	-0.08	Group	0.63 (0.04)
	Control	78.9 \pm 6.5	79.2 \pm 6.6	0.05	Time \times group	0.17 (0.15)
FM (kg)	Strength	11.3 \pm 2.6	10.9 \pm 2.7	-0.12	Time	0.04 (0.17)
	Endurance	12.4 \pm 4.9	11.6 \pm 4.2	-0.46	Group	0.63 (0.04)
	Control	13.4 \pm 4.5	12.8 \pm 4.0	-0.12	Time \times group	0.77 (0.02)
LBM (kg)	Strength	63.2 \pm 4.4	64.6 \pm 4.2 ^a	0.31	Time	0.01 (0.25)
	Endurance	63.3 \pm 8.1	63.3 \pm 7.5	0.004	Group	0.69 (0.03)
	Control	65.6 \pm 2.6	66.4 \pm 3.5	0.26	Time \times group	0.10 (0.19)

Data are means \pm SD. Multivariate analysis revealed overall Wilks' Lambda time ($p = 0.003$; $\eta^2 = 0.490$), Time \times Group ($p = 0.230$; $\eta^2 = 0.176$). Greenhouse–Geisser univariate p -levels are presented for each variable. $p < 0.05$ is considered significant

ES effect size, BM body mass, FM fat mass, LBM lean body mass

^aDenotes a significant difference from baseline

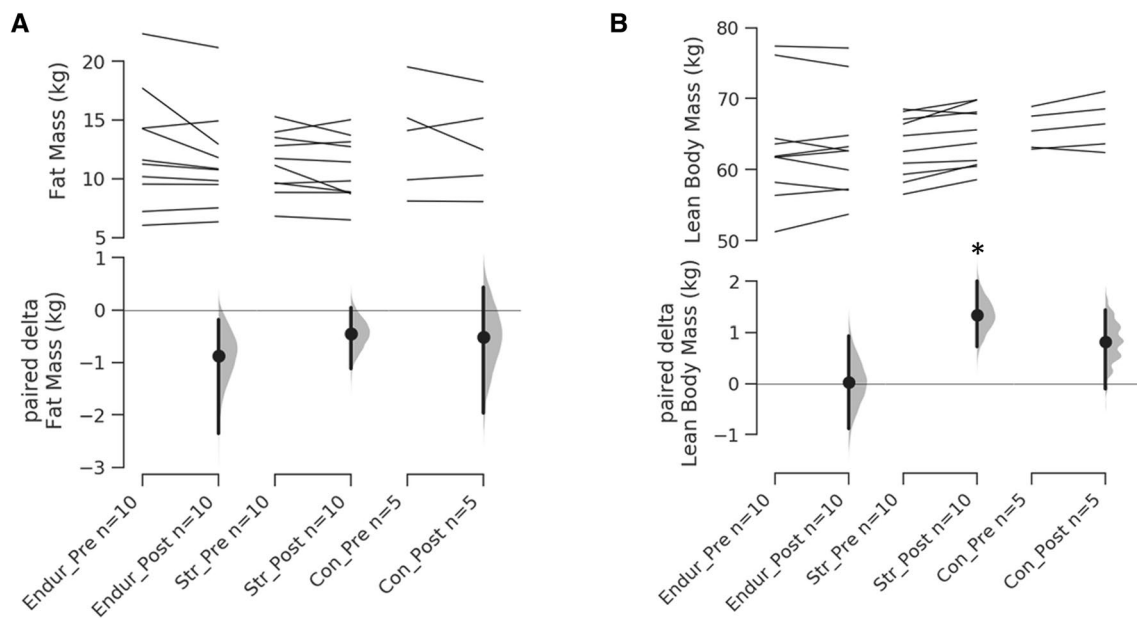


Fig. 1 **a** Changes in fat mass; **b** Changes in lean body mass. Mean changes with 95% confidence intervals completely above or below the baseline are significant changes. *Denotes a significant difference from baseline

274 The strength-type RT group showed an increase in BW
 275 attributed exclusively to the increase in LBM, as there was
 276 a slight decrease in FM. Neither of the two experimental
 277 protocols promoted a statistically significant decrease in
 278 adiposity.

279 Discussion

280 The present study evaluated the effects of two RT protocols
 281 on muscle mass in resistance-trained subjects, manipulat-
 282 ing several program variables to focus on routines with
 283 an emphasis on either strength-type RT (high mechanical
 284 stress) or endurance-type RT (high metabolic stress). Our
 285 results demonstrated that RT carried out with a strength-
 286 related focus had greater absolute effects on estimates of
 287 LBM in comparison with a muscular endurance-related
 288 focus. However, the results did not rise to the level of sta-
 289 tistical significance between groups, and the size of effect
 290 was of a small magnitude, calling into question the practical
 291 relevance of these findings.

292 Several previous studies have endeavored to explore the
 293 present topic, and the results have been inconsistent. For
 294 instance, Chestnut and Docherty (1999) compared volume-
 295 equated training protocols with heavy loads (four repeti-
 296 tions) and longer rest intervals (3 min) that emphasized
 297 strength-type RT, versus moderate loads (ten repetitions)
 298 and shorter rest intervals (2 min) that emphasized endur-
 299 ance-type RT in a cohort of untrained young men; both
 300 conditions significantly increased muscle cross-sectional

area, specific tension, and flexed and tensed arm girth to a
 similar extent (Chestnut and Docherty 1999). Alternatively,
 Campos et al. (Campos et al. 2002) randomized untrained
 subjects to one of three training protocols: a group that per-
 formed four sets of 3–5 RM (low repetitions) with 3 min of
 rest; three sets of 9–11 RM (intermediate repetitions) with
 2 min of rest; or two sets of 20–28 RM (high repetitions)
 with 1 min of rest. Results showed that RT with low and
 intermediate repetitions induced a significant hypertrophy
 across the spectrum of muscle fibers (I, IIA and IIX), but
 no significant changes were seen in the group that trained
 with high repetitions. In contrast (Schoenfeld et al. 2014),
 randomized resistance-trained men to either a bodybuilder-
 type training protocol (three sets of 10 RM with 90-s rest
 intervals) versus a powerlifting-type protocol (seven sets of 3
 RM with 3-min rest intervals). After an 8-week study period,
 both protocols promoted similar increases in muscle size.
 In opposition to previous findings, Fink et al. randomized
 young gymnasts to an 8-week protocol involving either
 medium/high loads (8 RM) with 3 min of rest, or light loads
 (20 RM) with 30 s of rest (Fink et al. 2018). Although both
 conditions induced a hypertrophic response, RT focused on
 muscular endurance promoted greater increases in muscle
 cross-sectional area compared to the strength-related proto-
 col (9.9% vs 4.7%, respectively). Differences between our
 study and previous work may be attributed to the fact that
 we endeavored to manipulate as many variables as possible
 including repetition zone, rest interval, order of exercises
 and cadence in an effort to maximize either mechanical ten-
 sion (in the strength-type RT group) or metabolic stress (in

331 the endurance-type RT group). Our results showing a greater
 332 accretion of LBM for the strength-type RT condition may be
 333 explained by the recent acute findings of Haun et al. (2017),
 334 who demonstrated that training with light loads (e.g., 30%
 335 1RM) impairs recovery compared with heavy loads (e.g.,
 336 80% 1RM). Moreover, (Schoenfeld et al. 2016b) found that
 337 short rest intervals (60 s), which are associated with a higher
 338 metabolite buildup (Henselmans and Schoenfeld 2014),
 339 blunted the hypertrophic response compared to longer rest
 340 intervals (3 min), possibly resulting from a reduction in total
 341 training volume. This raises the possibility that the shorter
 342 rest periods employed in the endurance-type RT group may
 343 have somewhat negatively impacted muscular development,
 344 nullifying any potential anabolic effects of higher metabolite
 345 accumulation.

346 Regarding subjects with experience in RT, previous work
 347 found that training with low loads (25–35 repetitions) and
 348 medium loads (8–12 repetitions) to muscle failure similarly
 349 increased muscle hypertrophy; although it should be noted
 350 that training with medium loads produced superior gains in
 351 muscle strength (Schoenfeld et al. 2015a). These results are
 352 somewhat consistent with ours in regard to muscle growth,
 353 as we found no statistically significant differences between
 354 protocols. However, on an absolute basis, only the strength-
 355 type RT significantly increased LBM from baseline, albeit
 356 the corresponding between-group effect size difference was
 357 small. It is possible that discrepancies between the two stud-
 358 ies may be explained, at least in part, by the different mea-
 359 surement tools employed: Schoenfeld et al. (2015a) measured
 360 site-specific muscle thickness of the limbs using B-mode
 361 ultrasound, whereas we evaluated whole body LBM through
 362 DXA.

363 It is worth noting that there was a large interindividual
 364 response within protocols, as is the case with most training
 365 studies (Hubal et al. 2005). For instance, although results for
 366 the endurance-type RT group did not reach statistical signifi-
 367 cance, some subjects showed substantial increases in lean
 368 mass (e.g., $\Delta = 4.6\%$) while others failed to make gains (e.g.,
 369 $\Delta = -3.0\%$) (see Fig. 1). Similarly, the results for changes in
 370 fat mass were disparate across groups, with some accreting
 371 body fat and others showing losses. This indicates that, with
 372 the same RT programming and standardized diet, differential
 373 responses are obtained that may be due to the individual
 374 conditions of each subject (i.e. genetic and environmental
 375 factors). The well-trained status of the subjects may have
 376 contributed to these variances, given that it becomes increas-
 377 ingly difficult to add appreciable muscle mass as one gains
 378 considerable RT experience. Therefore, these considerations
 379 must be taken into account in program design, highlighting
 380 the importance of systematic trial and error in determin-
 381 ing the optimal program prescription for a given individual.
 382 Given the relatively small sample in this study, further work
 383 is needed with larger samples to fully evaluate the effects of

endurance-type RT and strength-type RT on muscle hyper-
 trophy in responders and non-responders.

This study had a number of strengths, including direct
 supervision of all training sessions and a tightly controlled
 nutritional protocol that is absent in previous studies on the
 topic. That said, there are several limitations that should
 be taken into account when attempting to draw practical
 inferences. First, the duration was fairly short (8 weeks). It
 is known that with RT, the strength and hypertrophy gains
 tend to decrease over time (Schiotz et al. 1998). Thus, it
 cannot necessarily be extrapolated that the results observed
 in the strength-type RT group would continue over a longer
 timeframe. Second, a larger number of participants may
 be needed for further analysis of responders versus non-
 responders, especially with regard to body composition
 measurements. Third, there was an absence of physiologi-
 cal markers to compare the acute effects of both training
 protocols. Measurements of these markers (e.g., MGF, IGF,
 etc.) might be necessary to assess hormonal responses in
 further detail. Finally, although DXA is a valid method for
 assessing body composition, it may not be sensitive enough
 to detect subtle changes in muscle mass over time (Levine
 et al. 2000); future studies on the topic should endeavor to
 employ site-specific evaluations of hypertrophy such as MRI
 and ultrasound.

Conclusions

Our results indicate that performing RT training with a
 strength-related focus elicits similar changes in body com-
 position compared to a program focused on muscular endur-
 ance in resistance-trained men under controlled dietary con-
 ditions. While the strength-related protocol showed greater
 absolute increases in LBM, the relatively small magnitude of
 effect raises circumspection as to the practical meaning-
 fulness of benefits. It is possible that combining heavy and light
 load protocols to promote both high levels of mechanical
 tension and high levels of metabolic stress may be synergis-
 tic to the hypertrophic response (Schoenfeld et al. 2016a).
 Future research should seek to fill in the gap in the current
 literature.

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Author contributions SV served as study manager. SV conceived
 and designed the experiments. RR and JBP served as lab coordinator
 and project manager for study coordination, respectively. SV and RR
 assisted in data collection. SV and MF designed the nutritional pro-
 tocols. SV oversaw nutrition and training. JLP analyzed the data. SV,
 BJS, JLP, RK, JBP, RR and DAB assisted in analysis and manuscript
 review. SV, JLP, and BJS wrote the paper. JBP, JLP, DAB, BJS, and
 RK assisted in the statistics advice, discussion analysis, and manuscript
 preparation. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

434 **Compliance with ethical standards**

435 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of
436 interest.

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