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1 **The influence of aerobic capacity on the loads and intensities of mixed martial arts sparring bouts**

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36 **Abstract**

37 The influence of aerobic variables on mixed martial arts (MMA) performance are currently unknown.
38 This study aimed to compare the laboratory measured aerobic variables of MMA participants to the external load
39 and intensity of MMA sparring bouts to determine the effect of aerobic capacity on performance. Ten participants
40 (age = 24±2.8 years; mass = 74.3±8.2kg; stature = 176.8±7.9cm) completed: a treadmill graded exercise test to
41 measure $\dot{V}O_{2max}$, VT_1 and VT_2 ; 3x5mins sparring bout equipped with a Catapult Optimeye S5 accelerometer
42 recording Playerload (PL_{ACC}) and Playerload per minute ($PL_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), with sessional rating of perceived
43 exertion (sRPE) recorded as internal intensity. Median $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ (53.3ml·kg·min⁻¹) was used to split the cohort into
44 top 50% and bottom 50%. Pearson's r correlations ($BF_{10}\geq 3$) were calculated between GXT and sparring variables.
45 $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ (53.1±5.9ml·kg·min⁻¹) was found to have very large ($r\geq .70$) linear relationships with PL_{ACC} (161.4±27.2
46 AU) and $PL_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ (10.7±1.8AU). Top 50% group maintained moderate sRPE (4-6AU) and greater
47 $PL_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ throughout the bout, with bottom 50% group's sRPE moving from moderate to high (>7AU)
48 indicating $\dot{V}O_{2max}<53\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ is related to increased internal intensity. These data support the aerobic nature
49 of MMA and may provide aerobic capacity targets for athletes and coaches to aim for during competition
50 preparation.

51 **Introduction**

52 Mixed martial arts (MMA) is a combat sport where two participants engage in a combination of striking
53 and grappling actions. The aim is to render the opponent unable to continue either due to a knockout/technical
54 knockout, or by causing them to 'submit' due to joint manipulations or choke holds (Kirk, Clark, Langan-Evans,
55 & Morton, 2020). Professional bouts consist of 3 x 5 min rounds interspersed by 1 min recovery, with amateur
56 bouts being 3 x 3 min rounds. If neither competitor has defeated the other by the end of the scheduled rounds, the
57 winner is decided by judge's decision (ABC, 2018; IMMAF, 2017).

58 Previous data support the view of MMA being a high intensity aerobic endurance event (Draper &
59 Marshall, 2013) with maximal heart rate (HR) >90% between rounds (Petersen & Lindsay, 2020), and post bout
60 lactate ranging 9-20 mmol·L (Kirk, Clark, et al., 2020). Whilst the specific energy system requirements of MMA
61 are currently unknown, related combat sports have been found to elicit aerobic energy contributions of 60-70%
62 (Campos, Bertuzzi, Dourado, Santos, & Franchini, 2012; Doria et al., 2009; Rodrigues-Krause et al., 2020).
63 Additionally, James, Haff, Kelly, & Beckman (2018) provided evidence that more successful MMA athletes may
64 be distinguished by their lower body force production and repeat sprint ability (RSA). Elite standard heavyweight

65 MMA athletes also display greater relative bench press 1 repetition maximum than professional standard
66 lightweights (Folhes, Reis, Marques, Neiva, & Marques, 2022). These differences in force capacities between
67 performance standards are reflected in studies finding that high impulse actions may be decisive for success in
68 competition (Del Vecchio, Hirata, & Franchini, 2011; Kirk, 2018). These results collectively indicate that MMA
69 athletes require a sufficiently developed cardio-respiratory system to ensure they have the capacity to perform
70 repeated high impulse actions for up to 9-15 mins.

71 Previous studies (Alm & Yu, 2013; de Oliveira et al., 2015; Schick et al., 2010) demonstrated that MMA
72 athletes may be classified as 'recreationally trained' or 'trained' based on their maximal aerobic capacity
73 ($\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$) (De Pauw et al., 2013). The specific relevance of $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ to MMA performance is, however, currently
74 unknown. As such, it is also unclear to what extent MMA athletes are meeting the physiological demands of the
75 sport. The resulting void in the understanding and planning of their training has been highlighted previously (Kirk,
76 Clark, et al., 2020). Direct measurement of most physiological and/or metabolic variables in an MMA
77 performance setting is not possible due to the restrictive nature of the equipment used for collecting these data
78 with a proxy measure of performance therefore being required. Playerload (PLd) as recorded from torso-mounted
79 accelerometry has previously been found to be reliable ($ICC_{(3,1)} = .78-.98$) for measuring external load
80 (accumulated Playerload = PLd_{ACC}), and external intensity (accumulated Player load per minute = $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$)
81 of MMA technical actions (Hurst, Atkins, & Kirk, 2014; Kirk, Malone, & Angell, 2023). These variables have
82 previously been recorded from MMA sparring bouts (Kirk, Hurst, & Atkins, 2015), whilst providing insight of
83 the pacing profile of such bouts (Kirk, Atkins, & Hurst, 2020). Recent MMA training data from our research group
84 also revealed the strong relationships between PLd metrics and internal load estimated via rating of perceived
85 exertion (RPE) (Kirk, Langan-Evans, Clark, & Morton, 2024).

86 Whilst PLd (Kirk et al., 2015) and RPE (Folhes, Reis, Marques, Neiva, & Marques, 2023; Petersen &
87 Lindsay, 2020) have previously been reported from MMA sparring bouts, it is unknown if or how these are
88 influenced by aerobic capacity. Comparisons of these variables to laboratory measured aerobic variables may
89 therefore provide an understanding of the influence of aerobic capacity on MMA performance, which has been
90 observed in other sports (Helgerud, Engen, Wisløff, & Hoff, 2001; Ross, Gill, Cronin, & Malcata, 2015), including
91 the combat sport of boxing (Guidetti, Musulin, & Baldari, 2002). Understanding the effect of aerobic capacity on
92 MMA performance would allow a more objective estimation of sport and athlete requirements. In addition, such
93 data may enable development of MMA specific sport performance outcome measures that could be monitored
94 and targeted within the training environment (Jeffries et al., 2021).

95 To that end, the primary aim of this study was to examine any predictive relationships between MMA
96 participant's aerobic capacities as measured under laboratory conditions, and the external load/intensity of MMA
97 sparring bouts. A secondary aim was to explore if MMA participants with varied aerobic capacities display distinct
98 load and intensity characteristics in sparring bouts.

99 **Methods**

100 The following study was a cross-sectional observational design. A cohort of $n = 10$ tier 3 highly
101 trained/national level (McKay et al., 2021) male MMA athletes (age = 24 ± 2.8 years; body mass = 74.3 ± 8.2 kg;
102 stature = 176.8 ± 7.9 cm; career MMA bouts = 9.9 ± 3.5 ; 3 = flyweights; 4 = bantamweights; 3 = welterweights) took
103 part in the following protocols after providing informed and written consent in keeping with institutional ethical
104 procedures (ER41737813, 3rd May 2022) and the UK Data Protection Act 2018. Participants were required to be
105 active male MMA competitors with a minimum of 4 competitive bouts, and to be a minimum of 18 years old and
106 free from injury at the time of recruitment. Participants had all previously competed in a range of national and
107 international amateur and professional MMA organisations and were all actively training for competitive MMA
108 bouts a minimum of four times per week at the time of data collection. Required sample size was derived a priori
109 using G*Power 3.1.9.7 for a bivariate normal model using the following parameters: correlation = 0.7 (very large
110 - chosen to ensure a meaningful relationship between variables subject to multiple external and internal factors
111 could be identified); $\alpha = 0.05$; $\beta = .85$; sample size required = 10. Following recruitment each participant met with
112 the researchers on two separate occasions: once to complete an MMA sparring bout; once to complete a $\dot{V}O_2$ max
113 test. The specifics of each meeting are described below.

114 **MMA Sparring Bouts**

115 Each participant took part in a 3 x 5 mins sparring bout with 60 s rest between rounds using MMA rules
116 modified for participant safety (no elbows or knees to the head) conducted at the participant's club training venue.
117 These sparring bouts replaced the participants scheduled sparring session for that week, with all data being
118 recorded by the lead author. Participants were paired with an opponent chosen by their own coach from their club
119 training partners from the same competitive body mass division and of a similar competitive standard. Eight of
120 the participants sparred against people who were not participating in the study. Two of the study participants
121 sparred against each other as they trained at the same club and matched each other in terms of body mass division
122 and competitive standard. All sparring participants were asked to perform at the intensity they would normally
123 use in training based sparring bouts two weeks prior to a competitive bout. No other instructions regarding strategy

124 or tactical approach were provided. Participants were equipped with 198 g MMA sparring gloves and standard
125 shin and instep guards. They were also fitted with a Catapult Optimeye S5 torso mounted accelerometer (Catapult
126 Innovations, AUSTRALIA) worn in the manufacturer's harness, sized to ensure a tight fit on the T3-4 vertebrae
127 in keeping with recommended practice (McLean, Cummins, Conlan, Duthie, & Coutts, 2018). Accelerometry
128 was used to measure participant external load by recording the PLd_{ACC} of the entire bout, and external intensity
129 via $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ as applied previously (Kirk, Atkins, et al., 2020), with both variables being measured in arbitrary
130 units (AU). PLd represents the sum of the magnitude of changes in accelerations in the three cardinal planes, thus
131 provides a proxy measure of a participant's external load and external intensity (Bredt, Chagas, Peixoto, Menzel,
132 & de Andrade, 2020; McLean et al., 2018). Participants were assigned their own individual accelerometer
133 calibrated to the manufacturer's specifications adhering to guidelines for the use of accelerometry in sport
134 (Malone, Lovell, Varley, & Coutts, 2017). The switch on and switch off times of each unit were recorded during
135 each session, as were start/end times of each round.

136 Participant sessional rating of perceived exertion (sRPE) was collected immediately after each round and
137 10 mins after the end of the bout using the Foster 0-10 scale (Foster et al., 2001). sRPE was used to estimate the
138 internal intensity of each round of the sparring bout and the bout as a whole. Internal load of each round and the
139 bout as a whole was estimated by calculating each participant's sRPE training load (sRPE-TL). sRPE-TL is the
140 product of sRPE and 17 (the duration of the sparring bouts inclusive of the 1 min rest period between rounds).
141 Internal intensity of each round was categorised as follows: low (RPE ≤ 4); moderate (RPE 5 - 6); high (RPE \geq
142 7) as applied previously (Kirk, Langan-Evans, Clark, & Morton, 2021; Seiler & Kjerland, 2006).

143 **Aerobic Capacity Graded Exercise Test**

144 A treadmill-based graded exercise test (GXT) was conducted to determine participant absolute $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$
145 ($\text{L} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) and relative $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ ($\text{ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$), ventilatory thresholds (VT_1 and VT_2 , both $\text{L} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ and % of
146 $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$), and velocity at $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ ($v\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$, $\text{km} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$). Each participant completed their $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ test on separate
147 days to the other participants, with the tests conducted by the lead author at an accredited exercise physiology
148 laboratory between the hours of 09:00am and 11:00am. Tests were completed with a minimum of 48 hours and a
149 maximum of 96 hours separation from the specific participant's sparring bout. Participant's HR ($\text{beats} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) was
150 collected using a Polar H10 HR sensor (Polar Electro, FINLAND). Breath-by-breath gas analysis was conducted
151 throughout using a Cortex Metalyser 3B (Cortex Medical, GERMANY) having previously been demonstrated to
152 be a reliable collection tool for this task (Meyer, Georg, Becker, & Kindermann, 2001). After being equipped with

153 the Hans Rudolph mask participants remained stationary on the treadmill for 2 mins of normalisation. The
154 treadmill was then started at 6 km·h⁻¹ with treadmill speed being increased by 1 km·h⁻¹ every 3 mins until 12 km·h⁻¹
155 ¹ was reached. At this point treadmill speed was maintained for 2 mins after which it was increased by 2 km·h⁻¹
156 every 2 mins until 16 km·h⁻¹ was reached. From this point treadmill speed remained at 16 km·h⁻¹ but incline was
157 increased by 1% every 1 min (Langan-Evans et al., 2020). This laboratory specific protocol has been designed to
158 ensure sufficient time at each stage to enable steady state to be achieved by participants who are not accustomed
159 to treadmill-based exercise or testing. As such, lower intensity stages are of longer duration to allow respiratory
160 fluctuations to stabilise, with shorter stages at higher intensities to avoid muscular fatigue causing premature
161 exercise cessation (Cooke, 2009). Participants were instructed to continue running until they reached volitional
162 failure or until a plateau in $\dot{V}O_2$ occurred (increase < 2 ml·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) despite increased intensity. $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ was
163 identified post hoc as the highest 30 s average achieved during the final stage of the test when RER > 1.15, and
164 HR was within 10 beats·min⁻¹ of the participant's predicted HRmax (Cooke, 2009). All participants reached
165 $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ according to these criteria with the average time taken to attain $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ = 21.3±2 mins. VT₁ and VT₂
166 were estimated post hoc via visual inspection of the plots using minute ventilation (V_E) ventilatory equivalents
167 following data treatment and analysis recommendations provided by Keir, Iannetta, Maturana, Kowalchuk, &
168 Murias (2021). VT₁ was defined as the first increase in $V_E \cdot \dot{V}O_2$ without a concomitant increase in $V_E \cdot \dot{V}CO_2$. VT₂
169 was defined as the first sustained increase in $V_E \cdot \dot{V}CO_2$ (Seiler & Kjerland, 2006). Both VT₁ and VT₂ were
170 confirmed via concurrent inflections on $V_E/\dot{V}O_2$ and $\dot{V}CO_2/\dot{V}O_2$ plots (Keir et al., 2021).

171 **Statistical Analyses**

172 All data were assessed for normality via Shapiro-Wilk test for normality ($p \geq .05$) and visual examination
173 of frequency distribution and/or Q-Q plots with all variables being normally distributed. Inference in each of the
174 following tests was based on the calculation of Bayes factors (BF) used to provide support for either the hypothesis
175 (BF₁₀) or the null hypothesis (BF₀₁) respectively (van Doorn et al., 2019).

176 Relationships between GXT and sparring variables were determined using Bayesian Pearson's r
177 correlation coefficient with a stretched beta prior width = 1. Pearson's r results are reported as point estimate[95%
178 credible interval]. Any variables found to have statistically relevant linear relationships were also analysed via
179 Bayesian linear regression with a Jeffrey-Zellner-Siow (JZS) default prior $r = 0.354$ to determine the strength of
180 any predictive relationships (van Doorn et al., 2019). It should be noted, the predictive equation for Bayesian
181 regression is modified from frequentist regression and is expressed:

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$$y = b_0 + b_1 * x_1$$

183

Where: y = estimated dependent outcome variable score; b_0 = intercept constant; b_1 = regression coefficient; x_1

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= score difference for the independent variable predictor (= independent variable – independent variable mean)

185

Any between round changes in PLd_{ACC} , $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$, or sRPE of each round of sparring were determined using Bayesian repeated measures ANOVA for the whole cohort. To investigate the potential influence of varied aerobic capacities on performance, the median $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ of the cohort was determined, with this figure being used to split participants into two groups: top 50%, and bottom 50%. Between group differences in terms of in PLd_{ACC} and sRPE (between sparring rounds) and $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ (between mins of sparring) were determined using Bayesian repeated measures ANOVAs. All ANOVAs were conducted with a default prior $r = 0.5$, and a default t test with a Cauchy prior as post hoc analysis. Effect size for each ANOVA was calculated using omega squared (ω^2).

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The following thresholds were used for each BF: 1 - 2.9 = anecdotal; 3 - 9.9 = moderate; 10 - 29.9 = strong; 30 - 99.9 = very strong; ≥ 100 = decisive (van Doorn et al., 2019). Due to default priors being used, BF robustness checks were performed (van Doorn et al., 2019). For brevity, p values are not reported in the text, but any result found to support a hypothesis ($BF_{10} \geq 3$) was also found to have acceptably low probability of type 1 error ($p < .05$) unless stated otherwise. ω^2 thresholds were set at: very small $\leq .01$; small $\leq .06$; medium $\leq .14$; large $> .14$. Correlation (r) and regression (R^2) thresholds were set at: trivial ≤ 0.09 ; small ≥ 0.1 ; moderate ≥ 0.3 ; large ≥ 0.5 ; very large ≥ 0.7 ; nearly perfect ≥ 0.9 ; perfect = 1 (Hopkins, 2002). All analyses were completed using JASP 0.18.1 (JASP Team, Netherlands).

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Results

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Table 1 displays the mean \pm SD of each variable from sparring bouts and GXT. Relative $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ was found to have very large, strongly supported correlations to PLd_{ACC} ($r = .759[.183-.922]$; $BF_{10} = 13$) and $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ ($r = .761[.186-.923]$; $BF_{10} = 13$). These correlations were found to be linear (Figures 1a and 1b), with each enabling moderately supported, large regression equations for: predicting relative $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ from PLd_{ACC} ($BF_{10} = 5$, $R^2 = .576$) or $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ ($BF_{10} = 5$, $R^2 = .580$); predicting PLd_{ACC} ($BF_{10} = 5$, $R^2 = .576$) or $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ ($BF_{10} = 5$, $R^2 = .580$) from relative $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$.

208

$\dot{V}O_2$ at VT_1 (Figure 1c) had a very large curvilinear relationship to PLd_{ACC} ($r = .729[.148-.910]$; $BF_{10} = 9$) and $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ ($r = .729[.148-.909]$; $BF_{10} = 9$). $\dot{V}O_2$ at VT_2 (Figures 1d) also had a moderately supported

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210 curvilinear relationship to PLd_{ACC} ($r = .696[.117-.896]$; $BF_{10} = 7$), and $PLd_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ($r = .697[.119-.896]$; $BF_{10} =$
 211 7).

212 Participant's $v\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ (Figures 1e) had a very large, strongly supported relationship to both PLd_{ACC} (r
 213 $= .777[.208-.929]$; $BF_{10} = 16$) and $PLd_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ($r = .777[.208-.929]$; $BF_{10} = 16$), with these relationships also
 214 being curvilinear.

215 There were no statistically relevant correlations between sRPE or $PLd_{ACC}/PLd_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, and no
 216 correlations between sRPE/sRPE-TL and GXT variables.

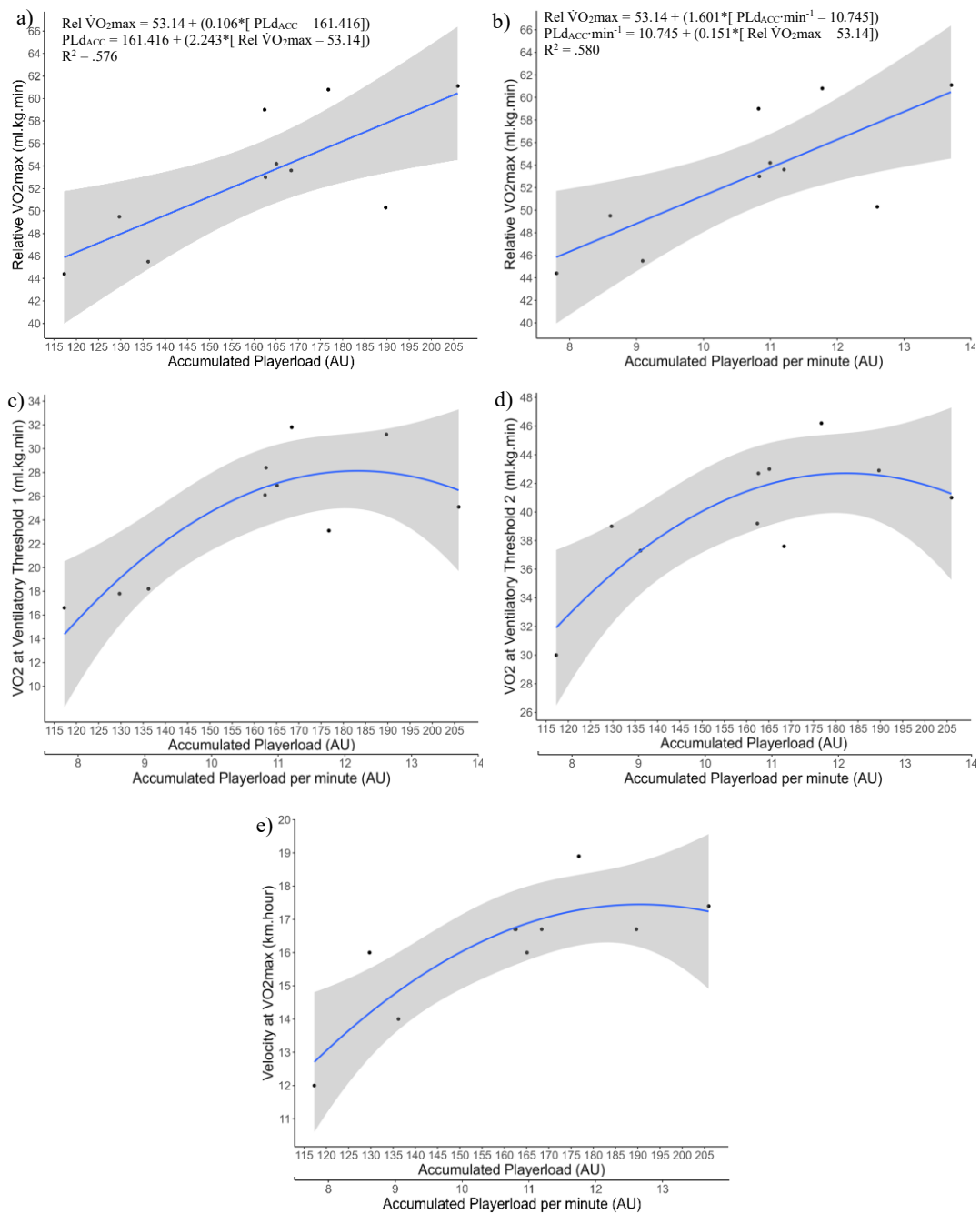
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Table 1 - Mean±SD of each variable from sparring bouts and graded exercise test

	Full Cohort	Top 50% Group	Bottom 50% Group
Sparring Bout Variables			
PLd_{ACC} (AU)	161.4±27.2	175.7±17.7	147.1±29
$PLd_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ (AU)	10.7±1.8	11.7±1.2	9.8±1.9
sRPE (AU)	6.7±1.3	5.8±1.1	7.6±0.9
sRPE-TL (AU)	113.9±22.7	98.6±18.6	129.2±15.2
Graded Exercise Test Variables			
Absolute $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ ($L\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$)	3.9±0.4	4.1±0.5	3.8±0.4
Relative $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ ($\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$)	53.1±5.9	57.7±3.6	48.5±3.5
$v\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ ($\text{km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$)	16.1±1.9	17.1±1.1	15.1±2
VT_1 ($\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$)	25.5±5.5	26.6±3.2	22.4±6.8
VT_2 ($\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$)	39.9±4.5	41.4±3.4	38.4±5.2
VT_1 (% of $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$)	46.1±9.5	46.4±8.3	45.8±11.6
VT_2 (% of $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$)	75.2±6.9	71.6±5.7	78.8±6.5

Nb. PLd_{ACC} = accumulated Playerload; $PLd_{ACC}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ = accumulated Playerload per minute; sRPE = sessional rating of perceived exertion; sRPE-TL = sessional rating of perceived exertion training load; $v\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ = velocity at $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$; cohort split into 50% groups by cohort median $\dot{V}O_2\text{max} = 53.3\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$

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221 **Figure 1 – Bayesian Pearson’s r correlations ($\pm 95\%$ credible intervals) between graded exercise test derived variables**
 222 **and MMA sparring bout external load and external intensity.** Nb. The x axes of c), d) and e) provide scale for both
 223 PLd_{ACC} and $PLd_{ACC} \cdot min^{-1}$.

224

225 sRPE (Figure 2a) was found to increase in each round of the sparring bout with a large effect ($BF_{10} =$
 226 $975, \omega^2 = 0.39$). Post hoc analyses found this was due to round 1 having a moderate difference to round 2 ($BF_{10} =$
 227 9) and a very strong difference to round 3 ($BF_{10} = 42$). Round 2 was also found to have a very strong difference

228 to round 3 ($BF_{10} = 52$). PLd_{ACC} (Figure 2c) and $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ (Figures 2e) both displayed linear reductions with
229 each subsequent round, but these were not statistically relevant.

230 The median $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ of the cohort was found to be $53.3 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. A cut off of $53 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ was
231 therefore used to divide the group into the top 50% and bottom 50% for $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$. Round*group repeated measures
232 ANOVA found decisive sRPE differences between groups per round with a large effect ($BF_{10} = 143$, $\omega^2 = 0.15$).
233 The top 50% group's sRPE remained in the moderate intensity boundary throughout the bout. The bottom 50%
234 group's sRPE moved from the boundary of low/moderate intensity in round 1, to the boundary of moderate/high
235 intensity in round 2, and then high intensity in round 3 (Figure 2b). No differences were found between groups
236 per round for either PLd_{ACC} or $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ (Figures 2d and 2f).

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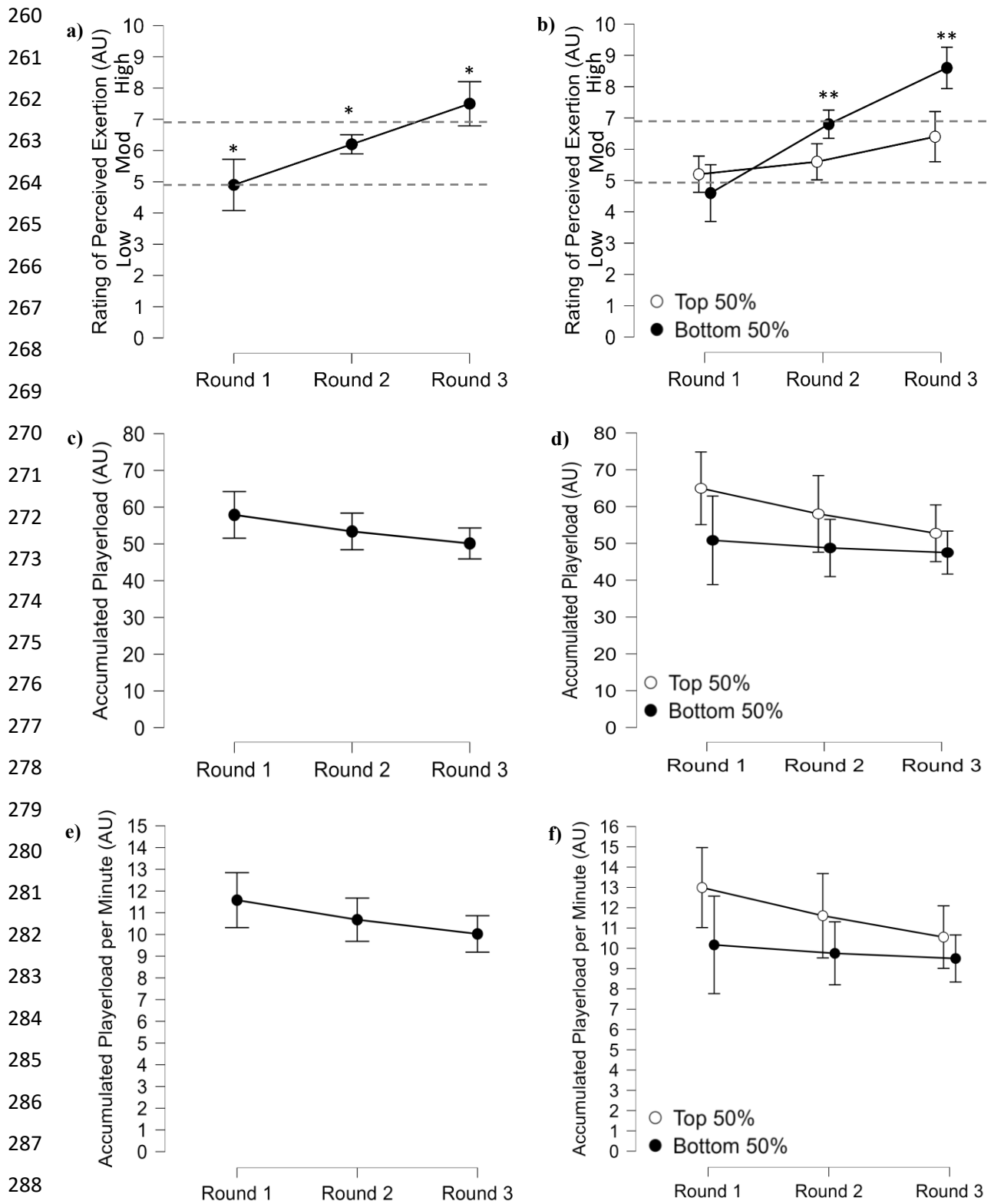


Figure 2 – Mean±95% credible intervals by sparring bout round: a) and b) sessional rating of perceived exertion; c) and d) accumulated Playerload; e) and f) accumulated Playerload per minute. Nb. a), c) and e) display the whole cohort; b), d) and f) display the cohort split by 50% top and 50% bottom $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$; sRPE displays decisive statistical differences between rounds (*) and between groups (**); No statistically relevant differences between rounds or groups for Playerload variables.

296 When analysed across the whole cohort there were strong differences between minutes in terms of
297 PLd_{ACC} (BF₁₀ = 15, ω^2 = 0.09) with a medium effect (Figure 3a). Post hoc differences were found between minute
298 1 and: minute 2 (BF₁₀ = 18); minute 8 (BF₁₀ = 10); minute 10 (BF₁₀ = 14); minute 12 (BF₁₀ = 183); minute 13
299 (BF₁₀ = 30); minute 15 (BF₁₀ = 24). Minute 3 had differences to: minute 12 (BF₁₀ = 3); minute 13 (BF₁₀ = 3).
300 Minute 4 had differences to: minute 10 (BF₁₀ = 4); minute 12 (BF₁₀ = 7). Minute 6 had differences to: minute 7
301 (BF₁₀ = 3); minute 8 (BF₁₀ = 10); minute 10 (BF₁₀ = 68); minute 12 (BF₁₀ = 253); minute 13 (BF₁₀ = 198); minute
302 15 (BF₁₀ = 5). Minute 11 had differences to: minute 12 (BF₁₀ = 3). When splitting the cohort into top and bottom
303 50% $\dot{V}O_2$ max groupings (Figure 3b), there was a moderate minute*group difference with a medium effect (BF₁₀
304 = 3, ω^2 = .11). Post hoc between groups differences were decisive with a medium effect, though with an increased
305 probability of type 1 error due to reduced sample size per group (BF₁₀ = 380, ω^2 = .12, p = 0.10).

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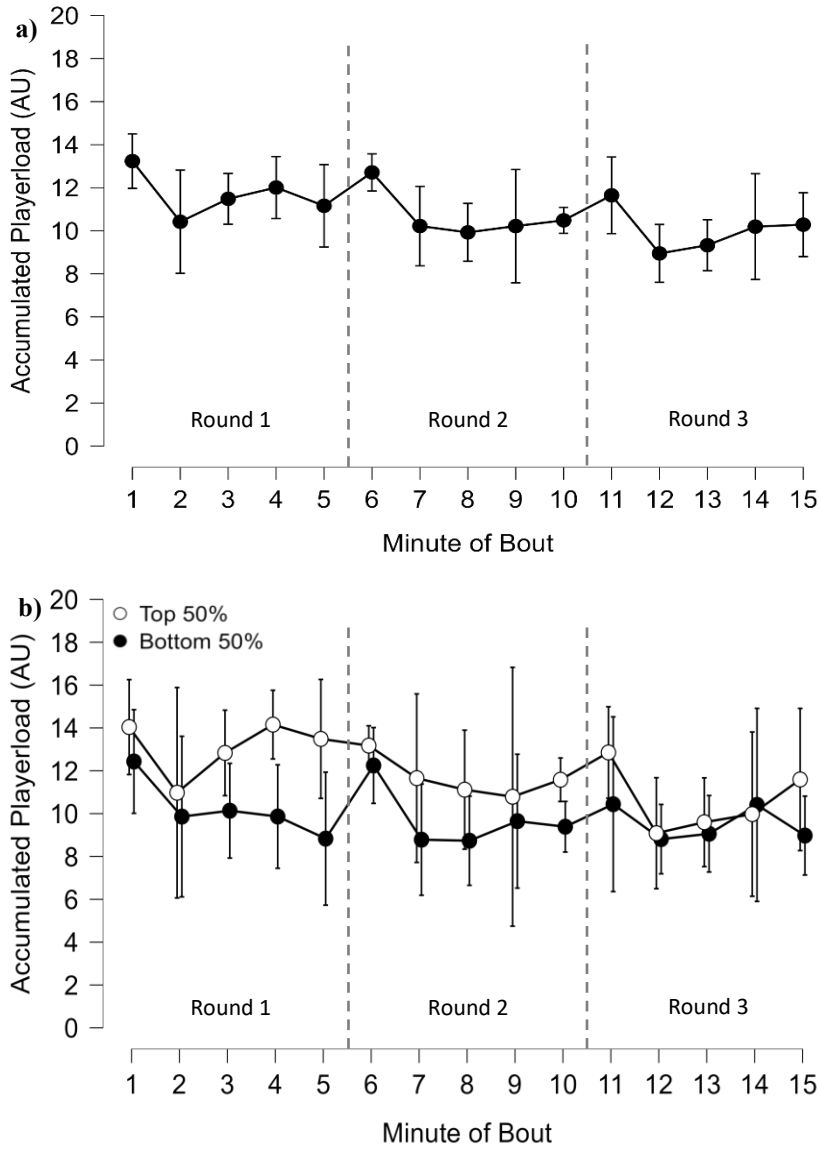


Figure 3 – Mean±95% credible interval of accumulated Playerload (AU) of each minute of MMA sparring bouts. Nb. a) displays the whole cohort with strong differences between mins; b) displays the cohort split by 50% top and 50% bottom $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ with decisive post hoc differences between groups.

Discussion

The primary aim of this study was to identify relationships between MMA participant’s aerobic capacities as measured under laboratory conditions, and the load/intensity of MMA sparring bouts. Following comparisons of laboratory and field-based measurements of aerobic capacity and external load and intensity, large predictive relationships between $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ and Playerload variables were found. There were also large, curvilinear relationships between Playerload variables, MMA athlete’s ventilatory thresholds, and their running velocity at $\dot{V}O_{2max}$. A secondary aim was to explore if MMA participants with varied aerobic capacity display distinct load and intensity characteristics in sparring bouts. The presented data support this hypothesis, with a $\dot{V}O_{2max}$

355 $\geq 53 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ being associated with increased Playerload and reduced sRPE in sparring bouts. These results
356 may provide the first quantified evidence of the effect of aerobic capacity on MMA performance.

357 MMA has previously been suggested to be predominantly anaerobic due to individual decisive actions
358 lasting $\sim 3 - 9$ s (Del Vecchio et al., 2011; Tack, 2013). These decisive actions rarely occur in isolation, however,
359 with MMA performance consisting of such movements repeated multiple times in succession throughout a contest
360 (Del Vecchio et al., 2011; Kirk et al., 2015; Miarka, Brito, Moreira, & Amtmann, 2018). Under these conditions,
361 each subsequent set of high impulse actions in the absence of adequate recovery would increase athlete reliance
362 on aerobic energy resynthesis (Ruddock et al., 2021; Spencer, Bishop, Dawson, & Goodman, 2005). Equally,
363 whilst anaerobic capacity is trainable, this is finite and is ultimately limited by the athlete's aerobic capacity
364 (Gastin, 2001). As such, whilst $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ cannot be directly linked to MMA performance in a causative manner, it
365 likely has an indirect influence on success in supporting the metabolic demands of repeated high intensity force
366 production and inter-round recovery (Bridge, da Silva Santos, Chaabene, Pieter, & Franchini, 2014; Ovretveit,
367 2018). This influence is revealed in the data presented here, with greater aerobic capacity being predictive of both
368 PLd_{ACC} and $\text{PLd}_{\text{ACC}} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. With $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ being a proxy of the upper limit of energy resynthesis (Bassett &
369 Howley, 2000), it stands to reason that the MMA athlete with superior aerobic capacity would be capable of more
370 physical activity during a bout. The increased upper limit of energy resynthesis provided by a greater $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$
371 would enable more activity in the metabolic high intensity zone, and therefore performance of more techniques
372 related to winning. Previous time motion analyses support this, showing winners of competitive MMA bouts to
373 have greater activity levels compared to losers (Antonietto et al., 2019; Miarka et al., 2018). There is also evidence
374 of this having an effect over time in related combat sports, with the ranking of international amateur boxers having
375 strong relationships to $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$, VT_1 and VT_2 (Bruzas et al., 2014).

376 The median $\dot{V}O_2\text{max}$ threshold of $53.3 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ was found to differentiate between participants in
377 terms of PLd_{ACC} between mins and sRPE between rounds. The overall cohort displayed sRPE drift across all three
378 rounds in keeping with expectations (Fusco et al., 2020). When split into groups above and below the median
379 threshold, however, the top 50% group remained within the moderate intensity zone throughout the bout. The
380 bottom 50% group's sRPE increased with each round, being on the upper threshold of low intensity in round 1,
381 the upper threshold of moderate intensity in round 2, and entirely in the high intensity zone in round 3. Increased
382 RPE earlier in a performance has been related to the onset of fatigue and proximity to exhaustion, with the product
383 of RPE and time left in the event being termed the 'hazard score' (Azevedo, Silva-Cavalcante, Lima-Silva, &
384 Bertuzzi, 2021; Renfree, Martin, Micklewright, & Gibson, 2014). An athlete's perception of such hazard has been

385 suggested to affect their pacing, with a higher hazard score being related to a shorter ‘fast start’ period and a lower
386 intensity ‘end spurt’ (Azevedo et al., 2021; De Koning et al., 2011; Schallig et al., 2018). This phenomenon appears
387 to be present in Figure 3b, where the top 50% group were able to maintain a higher external intensity than the
388 bottom 50% group throughout rounds 1 and 2. The bottom 50% group were able to match the top 50% group’s
389 ‘fast start’ for a few minutes in rounds 1 and 2 only. Though both group’s PLd_{ACC} were generally equal in each
390 minute of round 3, the top 50% group still only had a moderate sRPE $\sim 6AU$ in this round. As such, the top 50%
391 group were able to display an ‘end spurt’ at the end of round 3, whilst the bottom 50% group were not. Both
392 groups experienced reduced PLd_{ACC} as the bouts progressed, which is to be expected due to the effects of fatigue
393 on external intensity as measured by accelerometry (Kirk, Atkins, et al., 2020). The differences in sRPE and
394 external intensity between groups may be due to aerobically fitter participants having faster O_2 kinetics at the
395 onset of exercise, and increased reliance on fat metabolism during periods of low intensity and rest (Jones &
396 Burnley, 2009). These adaptations would result in glycogen being spared for higher intensity work for longer
397 durations (Jones & Carter, 2000). Whilst these data cannot be directly related to successful performance, the
398 previously mentioned time motion studies support bout winners being able to maintain higher activity levels
399 during later rounds of competitive bouts (Antonietto et al., 2019; Miarka et al., 2018). There is also some evidence
400 that elite standard lightweight MMA athletes attain greater offensive activity with lower RPE than professional
401 standard lightweights (Folhes et al., 2023). These results, therefore, provide evidence of the positive influence of
402 aerobic capacity on MMA performance.

403 MMA and combat sports performance may be predominated by time spent above the second metabolic
404 threshold, whether this is demarcated by VT_2 (de Lira et al., 2013), or by the lactate turning point (Kirk, Clark, et
405 al., 2020). This may due to repeated high intensity actions related to success making the participant’s physiology
406 a more metabolically acidic environment (Keir et al., 2021). The data reported here support this somewhat, with
407 higher values of $\dot{V}O_2$ at VT_1 and VT_2 having a positive relationship to external load and intensity, suggesting that
408 as load and intensity increases so too does homeostatic disturbance. The curvilinear nature of this relationship,
409 however, shows that there is a ‘ceiling’ to this effect in MMA. Higher ventilatory thresholds appear to be related
410 to increased activity in sparring up to a certain point, after which PLd_{ACC} and $PLd_{ACC} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ continue to increase
411 independent of ventilatory changes. This may be explained by PLd representing the sum of the magnitude of
412 change in accelerations (Bredt et al., 2020). It may be the case that participants capable of greater force or velocity
413 actions may record higher PLd performing certain actions with minimal or no effect on ventilatory markers due
414 to enhanced movement economy (Folland, Allen, Black, Handsaker, & Forrester, 2017). This may be the case for

415 participants of a certain level of aerobic capacity as indicated by the plateauing of the relationship lines in Figure
416 1. These plateaus might suggest that $VT_1 \sim 28 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ and $VT_2 \sim 42 \cdot \text{ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ represent thresholds after
417 which no further increase in PLd may be achieved without adaptations to other physiological factors such as the
418 neuromuscular and anaerobic energy systems (Folland et al., 2017; Spencer et al., 2005). Aerobically fitter
419 participants are more likely to also have more developed anaerobic capacities (Spencer et al., 2005), which in turn
420 would enable more repeated high impulse actions to occur throughout MMA bouts. These data may, therefore,
421 evidence the importance of both aerobic and anaerobic energy resynthesis on MMA performance for the first time.

422 It may be argued that these $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$, VT_1 and VT_2 ‘thresholds’ are low when compared to those in other
423 sports (De Pauw et al., 2013). Despite such seemingly low aerobic capacity requirements, current literature
424 indicates that many MMA athletes do not achieve even these thresholds (Kirk, Clark, et al., 2020). As such, these
425 data may further support claims that MMA training practices are insufficient for meeting competition demands
426 (Kirk et al., 2021). It would be recommended, therefore, for MMA coaches and athletes to use a periodised
427 program of aerobic endurance training both during and between competition training periods. Such training should
428 include low-moderate intensity endurance exercise (Jones & Carter, 2000) and ‘long’ high intensity interval
429 training (HIIT) sessions (Laursen & Buchheit, 2019; Ruddock et al., 2021) to provide the required adaptations to
430 both central and peripheral components of the cardiorespiratory system. ‘Game based’ HIIT training may be
431 programmed in the two-four weeks immediately prior to competition to enhance muscle buffering capacity
432 required for repeated high impulse actions during performance (French, 2019; Ruddock et al., 2021).

433 In conclusion, MMA participant’s external load and external intensity were found to be related to their
434 aerobic capacity and ventilatory thresholds. $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ has a linear, predictive relationship with PLd_{ACC} and
435 $PLd_{\text{ACC}} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. These relationships may be used by coaching and support staff to estimate changes in fitness and/or
436 performance capacity during training periods using the provided regression equations. A $\dot{V}O_{2\text{max}}$ of 53.3
437 $\text{ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ differentiates MMA athletes in terms their response to sparring, with participants above this value
438 being capable of performing at a higher external intensity with lower internal intensity than those below. As such,
439 using this value as a threshold in addition to $VT_1 \sim 28 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ and $VT_2 \sim 42 \cdot \text{ml} \cdot \text{kg} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ may provide a
440 quantifiable performance outcome measure to be used as a potential minimum aerobic capacity to be attained
441 from training (Jeffries et al., 2021). This secondary finding will, however, require further investigation with larger
442 cohort and across multiple performance tiers before using these as definitive training targets.

443 **Limitations**

444 Limitations of this study are that these data were collected from sparring bouts and not from competitive
445 bouts. It is recognised that competition may induce distinct physiological arousal responses due to different stimuli
446 from the competitive environment and the participants likely committing to their techniques more than they would
447 in sparring against their training partners. Participant's competitive strategy during the sparring bouts may also
448 have influenced their external load and/or intensity. The cohort consists of males only, and female $\dot{V}O_2$ responses
449 to both conditions may differ. As such, the reported regression equations would only be suitable for use with male
450 athletes. The cohort consisted of a relatively narrow age and body mass range, and all were tier 3 athletes. MMA
451 participants from different age ranges, different body mass divisions and higher/lower tiers may produce different
452 results to those reported here. Splitting the cohort into 50% $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ groups reduced n to 5 in each group. This
453 may result in increased probabilities of type 1 and 2 errors in a frequentist understanding of inference. With the
454 reported BFs remaining robust under different priors, and BF potentially yielding lower type 1 error rates
455 compared to frequentist methods (Kelter, 2021), the results should instead be interpreted on the strength of the
456 presented evidence (Wagenmakers et al., 2015). Equally, as the overall population of MMA athletes is small, this
457 sample cohort is argued to be representative of the population's reported characteristics (Kirk, Clark, et al., 2020).
458 Whilst these results may be sufficiently robust, however, it is still recommended these analyses be repeated with
459 larger samples sizes to improve our collective understanding of the observed effects.

460 **Disclosure statement**

461 No funding was received for this work. The authors report there are no competing interests to declare.
462 For the purpose of open access, the author has applied a Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) licence to any
463 Author Accepted Manuscript version arising from this submission. Data are available on request. For purposes
464 of future prior construction all variable descriptives and effect size estimations with 95%CI are available: OSF
465 LINK TO BE ADDED ON ACCEPTANCE.

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