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Citation:

Francis, P and Mc Cormack, W and Lyons, M and Jakeman, P (2018) Age-group Differences in the Performance of Selected Tests of Physical Function and Association with Lower Extremity Strength. *Journal of Geriatric Physical Therapy*. ISSN 1539-8412 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1519/JPT.0000000000000152>

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Document Version:

Article (Accepted Version)

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Background and Purpose:** It is not known whether short functional performance tests used
3 in aging research are appropriate for use in healthy older adults. The purpose of this study
4 was to investigate age-group differences (6th decade vs. 7th decade) in selected functional
5 performance tests and the association between lower extremity strength and functional
6 performance.

7 **Methods:** One hundred and fifty nine (18.2% (n=29) male) healthy older (mean (standard
8 deviation) age: 60.4 (5.3) years) adults were recruited from the University of Limerick
9 Campus Community. Knee extensor (KE) peak torque (PT) was assessed from a maximal
10 voluntary isometric contraction (MVC). Subsequently, participants completed 10m maximal
11 and habitual gait speed tests, 5 repetition and 30-second chair rise tests and a 900m gait speed
12 test.

13 **Results and Discussion:** There was no difference in 10m gait speed between those in the 6th
14 and 7th decade ($P>0.05$). Compared to the 6th decade, those in the 7th decade required an extra
15 39 seconds to complete 900m, an extra 0.6 seconds to complete 5 chair rises and performed 2
16 less chair rises in a 30-second time period ($P<0.05$). All tests had a weak association with KE
17 strength ($r=0.226 - 0.360$; $P<0.05$), except for 900m gait speed which had a moderate
18 association ($r=-0.537$; $P<0.001$). Our findings suggest that gait speed tests ≤ 10 m cannot
19 detect age-related difference in functional capacity when used in healthy older adults.

20 **Conclusion:** Extended physical performance tests should be used in aging research on
21 healthy older adults.

22 **Key words:** ADL, knee extensor, strength, ageing

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25

26 INTRODUCTION

27 The assessment of functional limitation is the third diagnostic criteria for sarcopenia after the
28 assessment of muscle mass and strength. Functional limitations refer to an individual's
29 physical or mental capability without reference to the social context.¹ A gait speed of 0.8 –
30 1.0m/s has been suggested as a criterion for identifying those at risk of sarcopenia.^{2,3} Gait
31 speed (8 foot), the ability to rise from a chair (5 times) and balance tests (semi-tandem and
32 tandem stands) have been included in the short physical performance battery (SPPB), which
33 has been validated in older adults and found to predict nursing home admission.⁴
34 Furthermore, older adult performance on the SPPB or tests of similar difficulty have been
35 associated with laboratory measures of muscle mass and function. Low relative skeletal mass
36 has been shown to be associated with performance on the SPPB.⁵ Increasing knee extensor
37 (KE) strength has been associated with improved walking speed and the ability to rise from a
38 chair^{6,7} and increasing KE power has been linked to improved self-reported⁸ and objectively
39 measured (SPPB; stair climbing) physical performance.⁹

40 Functional performance measures such as those within the SPPB or similar tests such as
41 gait speed tests less than or equal to 10m and chair rise tests of less than or equal to 5
42 repetitions have primarily been used to assess functional limitation in frail older adults over
43 the age of 65 years¹⁰⁻¹² up to and including 95 years.⁸ However, changes in muscle quality,
44 which precede functional limitation, become noticeably different to a young adult at the
45 beginning of the 6th decade.¹³⁻¹⁸ Comparatively, there is little data on the functional capability
46 of healthy older adults and consequently, little is known about the time course and transition
47 to a reduction in functional capability in those prior to 65 years. Reductions in aerobic
48 capacity and muscle function are inevitable even in masters athletes^{19,20} but tracking age-
49 related difference in functional capability amongst healthy older adults provides a challenge

50 due to the heterogeneity of their functional capabilities. Ideally functional performance
51 measures would be related to the performance of activities of daily living (ADL) but also able
52 to distinguish meaningful gradations of functional capability and change over a wide range of
53 abilities.

54 Test batteries such as the SPPB may suffer from a ceiling effect when used in healthy
55 cohorts.²¹ A healthy older adult may perform short gait speed or chair rise tests in a similar
56 manner to a young adult meaning the tests cannot detect change where expected. One option
57 to combat this effect is to use extended tests of chair rise ability or gait speed. This may allow
58 participants to perform to a greater physiological maximum and therefore distinguish more
59 subtle gradations of capacity in healthy adults. Some authors^{22,23} have proposed extended
60 tests such as the 30-second chair stand test and the 6-minute walk test^{23,24} as a method to
61 combat the floor effect, that is where an older adult may not be able to complete a fixed
62 distance or number of chair rises. Tests of this nature may also have the potential to derive
63 meaningful performance data for healthy older adults.

64 Although test-retest reliability for gait speed and chair rise tests has previously been
65 described in those greater than or equal to 60 years²³⁻²⁷ it has not been described in healthy
66 adults greater than or equal to 50 years. Furthermore, a learning effect has been reported
67 during the measurement of voluntary strength in healthy adults naïve to a laboratory
68 environment.²⁸ Investigations into whether a learning effect exists in the measurement of
69 functional performance are required to ensure criterion validity of the data reported.
70 Assuming reliable measures of functional performance can be determined, it remains to be
71 observed whether gait speed tests less than or equal to 10m and chair rise tests less than or
72 equal to 5 repetitions can detect age-related difference in the functional capability of healthy
73 older adults. Furthermore, it remains to be observed whether extended tests of functional
74 performance offer greater sensitivity in detecting age-related change in functional capacity.

75 Finally, given the association between strength and functional performance in older adults²⁹⁻³²
76 and the fact that strength at a single time point is predictive of future mobility limitation³³ it is
77 important to determine whether there is an association between short or extended functional
78 performance tests and laboratory measures of lower extremity muscle strength in healthy
79 adults between 50 and 70 years of age. The purpose of this study was to a) determine test-
80 retest reliability of functional performance using short (10m gait velocity, 5 chair stands) and
81 extended (900m gait velocity and the number of chair stands in 30-seconds) tests, b) to
82 determine the efficacy of short and extended tests of functional performance in detecting age-
83 related difference between the 6th and 7th decade in healthy older adults and c) to examine the
84 association between maximal voluntary isometric torque of the knee extensors and
85 performance in short or extended tests of functional capability in the same sample.

86 **METHODS**

87 A convenience sample (n=204) of healthy older (50 – 70y) adults was recruited via email and
88 word of mouth from the University of Limerick campus community and surrounding area to
89 take part in the University of Limerick Healthy Aging Study.^{28,34,35} For the present
90 investigation, 159 older adults mean age (standard deviation) of 60.4 (5.3) years from the
91 sample volunteered to participate; 18.2% (n=29) were male. There were 11 (15.5%) and 18
92 (11.3 %) males in the 50 – 59y and 60 -70y age brackets respectively. Participants received a
93 full medical screening and physical examination prior to the assessment of a maximal
94 voluntary contraction (MVC) and functional performance. Those defined as healthy, i.e.
95 disease free based on Greig et al.³⁶ and living independently were invited to participate.
96 Disease free included the absence of clinical, cardiovascular or musculoskeletal abnormality
97 as determined by a medical doctor. Participants were required to be healthy but not masters
98 athletes. After receiving a complete explanation of the procedures, benefits and risks of the
99 study, all participants gave their written informed consent. Testing was carried out between

100 January 2011 and May 2013. This study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of
101 the University of Limerick (EHSREC 10-RA03).

102 Participants presented to the laboratory in a tracksuit or comfortable clothing suitable
103 for exercise. Participants were tested during 2 identical sessions held 7 days apart, at the same
104 time of day in order to reduce the potential for a learning effect previously identified in the
105 measurement of strength in this population.²⁸ All measurements were carried out by the same
106 exercise scientist, who was blind to age, to exclude issues with inter-tester reliability and
107 reduce risk of bias. Warm up consisted of 5 minutes on a bicycle ergometer (Monark
108 Ergomedic; 828E) at an intensity of 40 watts. The entire sample (n=159) completed a MVC,
109 a 5 repetition chair rise test and an extended 900m gait speed test. A smaller proportion of the
110 sample (n=65/159) completed 10m gait speed tests due to preliminary analysis which
111 suggested the tests could not detect age-related difference in gait speed where expected. The
112 30-second chair rise test was added to the University of Limerick Healthy Aging Study at the
113 midway point and therefore also has a smaller sample size (n=91/159).

114 **Maximal Voluntary Knee Extensor Strength Measurements**

115 Maximal voluntary isometric contractions of the knee extensors of the dominant limb (limb
116 used to kick a ball) were measured using a Con-Trex MJ Dynamometer (Con-Trex MJ; CMV
117 AG, Dubendorf, Switzerland). Peak isometric torque was measured in Newton-Meters.
118 Participants were seated with a hip flexion angle of 110°. The back of the knee joint was on
119 the edge of the seat with a knee angle of -60° from anatomical zero (180°). The distal shin
120 pad of the dynamometer was attached 4-5cm proximal to the medial malleolus using a velcro
121 strap. The dynamometer rotational axis was aligned with the lateral femoral condyle (knee
122 joint axis of rotation). Participants were instructed to perform 2 submaximal voluntary
123 isometric contractions (50 and 75% of perceived maximum) prior to each test series as in

124 Maffiuletti et al.,³⁷ with a 1 minute rest period in between. The participant then performed 3
125 MVC's of the knee extensors separated by 2 minutes of rest. An MVC produced a measure of
126 isometric peak torque in a single effort which required greater than 200ms and was sustained
127 for at least 250ms. Disqualification of an MVC from further analysis was based on the
128 following criteria: (a) an attempt not sustained for MVC; identified by an impact spike prior
129 to 300ms, (b) an attempt containing an initial countermovement; identified by a visible
130 drop/rise in the torque signal greater than 5 N·m or (c) an attempt with a non-linear time-
131 torque trace; identified by a double movement. Repeated peak torque values within a
132 coefficient of variance (CV) of 5% which satisfied the criteria for MVC were accepted for
133 analysis. A detailed breakdown of the strength assessment procedures including within and
134 between day reliability are available in our recently published manuscript.²⁸

135 **10m Gait Speed Tests**

136 Gait speed was assessed using timing gates (Micro-Gate, Polifemo, Bolzano, Italy) separated
137 by 1.5m positioned at 0 and 10m of a measured walkway. Participants stood at the beginning
138 of a track marked by a white line and from a static start were instructed to walk at their
139 'normal' pace to assess habitual gait speed. Participants were instructed to walk as fast as
140 they could without running in the case of maximal gait speed. Participants had an open
141 walkway for deceleration. Each trial condition was repeated twice.

142 **Chair Rise Tests**

143 The ability to rise from a chair was assessed using a chair, 44cm from the floor, which was
144 placed against a wall for support. Participants were instructed to sit upright away from the
145 back rest of the chair with their arms crossed against their chest. Participants were asked to
146 perform one full chair stand prior to completing the test in order for them to establish a
147 preferred foot position. Participants began the test from a seated position and were asked to

148 complete 5 chair rises as fast as possible. Participants were informed that only chair rises in
149 which they reached full extension from the seated position would be counted. The exercise
150 scientist held the watch and only communicated verbally with the instructions “Go” and
151 “Stop” at the beginning and end of the test. Subsequently, with no defined rest period, using
152 the same positioning and technique participants were instructed to perform as many chair
153 rises as possible in a 30-second time period. The 5 repetition chair rise test always preceded
154 the 30-second chair rise test. Each test was performed once on each of the two test days.

155 **Extended Gait Speed Test**

156 Extended gait speed was assessed using a timed 900m test. Participants were brought to an
157 indoor track which measured 225m per lap. Participants were instructed to complete four laps
158 of the track as fast as they possibly could. The majority of participants used one or a
159 combination of running, jogging or walking to complete the test. No instruction was provided
160 as to correct pacing but tests were performed twice separated by 7 days to ensure adequate
161 habituation to the test had taken place. The purpose of this test was to allow participants to
162 perform to a greater physiological maximum than allowed by the 10m tests.

163 **Statistical Analysis**

164 The data were analysed using SPSS 22.0 for Windows (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). A 2-
165 way mixed model intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) was used to assess absolute
166 agreement as it indicates the error in measurements as a proportion of total variance in
167 measures. Cross-tabulation was used to determine the proportion of males and females in the
168 respective age-categories. Pearson’s Chi-Square test was used to determine whether
169 differences in the proportions of males between groups were statistical different. The
170 difference in functional performance between test days was reported using a paired sample t-
171 test. To report descriptive statistics for PT and functional performance, a Kolmogorov-

172 Smirnov or Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted to determine normality. Mean and standard
173 deviation (SD), median and interquartile range (IQR), and 95% or bootstrap 95% confidence
174 intervals (CI) are reported. Cross-sectional age or gender-related difference in peak torque
175 (PT) and functional performance were analysed using an independent samples t-test or a
176 Wilcoxon signed rank test for normal and non-normal data respectively. Pearson's r was used
177 to report the association between PT and functional performance. Simple linear regression
178 analysis was used to assess the variance in functional performance accounted for by knee
179 extensor (KE) PT (Figure 1). Removal of outliers visible on the scatter plot did not alter the
180 statistical significance or category of association and therefore they were not removed.
181 Stepwise linear regression was used to assess whether sex or BMI affected associations
182 between PT and functional performance for the sample as a whole and separated by age
183 categories. Functional capability (gait speed or chair rise) was entered as the dependent
184 variable and PT, sex (1=female, 2=male) and BMI were entered as independent variables.

185 **RESULTS**

186 Table 1 displays physical characteristics for the 159 healthy adults between 50 and 70 years
187 of age who participated in this study. Physical characteristics are presented separately for
188 those in the 6th (n=71) and 7th (n=88) decade of life. The proportion of men and women in the
189 6th (15.5% and 84.5% respectively) and 7th decade (20.5% and 79.5% respectively) was not
190 statistically different ($P=0.421$). KE torque and 900m gait speed were the only measures
191 where performance between men and women differed ($P<0.05$).

192 **Reliability of Estimate**

193 Our functional performance measures included habitual and maximal 10m gait speed, 5
194 repetition and 30-second chair stand performance and 900m gait speed. Test-retest reliability,
195 for the assessment of all functional performance measures tested on two separate occasions

196 separated by 7 days, is displayed in Table 2. Reliability was affected by a learning effect
197 between test days which led to a statistically significant increase in performance ($P<0.05$) on
198 day 2. The 900m test was the only measure of functional performance not previously used in
199 the literature but demonstrated the highest ICC (0.880; 95% CI 0.811 - 0.925). Age-related
200 difference in measures of functional performance and associations with KE-PT are reported
201 from the highest values recorded from both days.

202 **Age-related Difference in Functional Performance**

203 Table 3 displays age-related difference in functional performance. 10m habitual ($P=0.095$)
204 and maximal ($P=0.856$) gait speed were not different between those in the 6th and 7th decade.
205 Both 5 repetition (8.2 (2.6) seconds vs. 8.8 (2.5) seconds; $P=0.006$) and 30-second (16.5 (5)
206 vs. 14.0 (5); $P=0.028$) chair rise tests were lower for those in the 7th decade. Those in the 7th
207 decade had an 11.3% (0.29m/s; 95% CI 0.12 - 0.46; $P=0.001$) lower gait speed when
208 completing 900m compared to those in the 6th decade.

209 **The Association between Lower Extremity Strength and Functional Performance**

210 PT normalised for body mass was 14.2% (0.2N·m/kg; CI 0.08 - 0.33; $P=0.001$) lower for
211 older adults in the 7th decade of life compared to their young counterparts in the 6th decade.
212 Other than 900m performance, all measures of functional performance had a weak ($r=0.226 -$
213 0.360 ; $P<0.05$) association with KE-PT (Table 4). Performance in the 900m gait speed test
214 had a moderate association ($r=0.537$; $P<0.001$) with KE-PT. Sex and BMI did not have a
215 statistically significant effect on associations between KE-PT and functional performance
216 ($P>0.05$).

217 **DISCUSSION**

218 Repeated measurement of functional performance separated by 7 days revealed a statistically
219 significant learning effect in the form of a performance improvement on day 2 ($P<0.05$).

220 These findings highlight the importance of the need to reduce the learning effect observed
221 with performance tests in healthy older adults. Neither habitual nor maximal 10m gait speed
222 could determine age-related difference in functional capacity, in essence confirming our
223 hypothesis that shorter gait speed tests may suffer from a ceiling effect in the assessment of
224 healthy older adults. The 900m extended gait speed test highlighted an 11.3% difference in
225 performance between those in the 6th and 7th decade of life. Both short and extended chair rise
226 tests were capable of detecting age-related difference in muscular power and endurance
227 respectively. The chair rise and extended gait speed test confirm that tests centered on lower
228 extremity power and/or tests which allow performance to a greater maximum can effectively
229 combat the ceiling effect evident with use of short gait speed tests in healthy older adults. All
230 measures of functional performance had a weak to moderate association ($r=0.226 - 0.534$;
231 $P<0.05$) with knee extensor strength.

232 **Gait Speed**

233 Diagnostic criterion for sarcopenia is considered to be a gait speed of less than 0.8 – 1.0
234 m/s.^{2,3} The mean habitual gait speed in the present investigation was 1.5m/s which
235 demonstrates the relative health of our sample in comparison to a cohort with sarcopenia. It is
236 therefore somewhat unsurprising that neither 10m habitual nor maximal gait speed test were
237 capable of detecting age-related difference between the 6th and 7th decade. Glenn et al.²¹
238 provide support for these findings, in a sample of similar age (61.5 years), size (n=102) and
239 habitual gait speed (1.44 m/s). The authors report no difference in habitual gait speed
240 between older adults who are sedentary, recreationally active or masters athletes and no
241 difference in maximal gait speed between those who are sedentary or recreationally active.
242 However, our results must be interpreted in light of the small number of participants who
243 completed 10 m gait speed tests in the 50 – 59 year (n=37) and 60 -70 year (n=28) age
244 brackets respectively. In the present study, the extended gait speed test revealed differences

245 in functional capacity where expected between the 6th (n=71) and 7th decade (n=88). In
246 addition to its construct validity, this test demonstrated high reliability and has been reported
247 to be sensitive to change during a short term (12 weeks) resistance training intervention.³⁵ We
248 report an 11.3% difference in gait speed between the 6th and 7th decade (2.56 m/s vs. 2.27
249 m/s; $P=0.001$) which is similar to the 11.3% (1.53 m/s vs. 1.35 m/s) difference reported by
250 Rikli and Jones³⁸ between the 7th and 8th decade. Although this appears to suggest a similar
251 per decade decline between the 6th and 7th decade, it must be acknowledged there are
252 differences in test administration such as our test was of fixed distance and participants were
253 allowed to run compared to the 6-minute walk test which is not of fixed distance and requires
254 participants to remain walking. There is potential in our test, that the mean gait speed could
255 be inflated or underestimated by the number of participants choosing to run or walk. Despite
256 these differences both tests allow participants to perform to the maximum of their ability for
257 an extended distance (400 – 900m) or duration (6 to 6.5 minutes) and therefore relative
258 differences in performance can be compared with caution.

259 **Chair Rise Tests**

260 Participants in the 7th decade of the present study performed approximately 2 less chair rises
261 than those in the 6th decade (14 (5) vs. 16.4 (3.5); $P=0.028$) in a 30-second time period. The
262 14 chair rises performed by those in the 7th decade is comparable to the 14.3 chair rises for
263 those in the 7th decade reported by Rikli and Jones³⁸ and represents a 13.3% – 14.5%
264 difference between the 6th and 7th decade. Our results therefore help to extend the work of
265 Rikli and Jones³² in the 7th, 8th and 9th decade by providing values, albeit in a smaller sample,
266 for the 6th decade of life. The finding of a detectable difference in 5 repetition chair rise
267 performance (8.2 (2.6) seconds vs. 8.8 (2.5) seconds; $P=0.008$) between decades might not
268 have been expected due to our hypothesis that shorter tests would suffer from a ceiling effect.
269 It may be that as the 5 repetition chair rise test is a test of lower extremity power, the

270 difference more closely represents the observed difference in KE-PT normalised for body
271 mass (1.48 (0.45) N·m/kg vs. 1.27 (0.34) N·m/kg; $P=0.001$). These explanations must be
272 interpreted whilst being aware that the observed change (7.3%) in 5 repetition chair rise
273 performance between decades is similar to the CV (7%) for repeated measures between test
274 days.

275

276 **Knee Extensor Strength and Functional Performance**

277 Knee extensor strength was 14% lower for those in the 7th decade, a finding consistent with
278 the 8 – 15% per decade change in strength reported in adults between 40 – 70 years.^{28,39,40}
279 Knee extensor strength explained greater than or equal to 10% of the variance in maximal 10
280 m gait speed, 5 repetition and 30-second chair rise tests (Figure 1) but 29% of the variance in
281 extended gait speed. Buchner et al.⁴¹ reported 17% of the variance in gait speed (15.2m) to be
282 explained by lower limb strength (knee extensor and flexor, ankle plantar and dorsi flexors)
283 in 60 – 96 year old men and women. Ostchega et al.⁶ reported 20% of the variance in 6 m gait
284 speed to be explained by KE-PT in adults greater than or equal to 50 years. However,
285 comparisons are limited both in test duration and population sampled. To the authors
286 knowledge, the timed 900m test is the first extended gait speed assessment in which more
287 than 25% of the variance can be explained by lower extremity strength in healthy older
288 adults. This is a large proportion of the variance considering that endurance performance is
289 also dependent upon cardio-respiratory capacity and peripheral muscular adaptations such as
290 capillary and mitochondrial density. The fact that increasing gait speed is associated with
291 increasing muscle strength during a test with a gait speed range of 1.3m/s – 4.3m/s is
292 encouraging. This means the relative muscular effort for those with the mean gait speed (2.27
293 m/s – 2.56 m/s) is considerably less when walking at a normal healthy gait speed (1.5m/s) for

294 an extended period of time. A reduction in the relative effort required to perform ADL has
295 important implications towards the goal of prolonging independent living and quality of life.

296 **Limitations**

297 Our findings are limited to a relatively small (n=159) convenience sample of healthy older
298 adults from the University Campus Community and surrounding areas. Furthermore, when
299 comparing the findings of short and extended performance tests, it should be noted that while
300 all participants (n=159) had a measure of strength, 5 repetition chair rise time and 900m gait
301 speed, less than half (n=65) had a measure of 10 m gait speed. Despite the 900m gait speed
302 test being sensitive to age-related difference in functional performance and having the
303 strongest association with lower extremity strength, the lack of control over the number of
304 participants walking, jogging or running may have over or underestimated our gait speed and
305 therefore influenced the strength of the associations reported. Our strength measures are
306 normalized to body mass and not the relevant segment of upper leg lean tissue or skeletal
307 mass that was measured by the dynamometer which may alter the association seen in the
308 present study. It remains to be seen whether strength normalised for body mass or strength
309 per unit skeletal or lean tissue (muscle quality) has a stronger association with functional
310 performance. We did not assess participants for stage of the menopause, cognitive function or
311 depression, nor did we control for habitual physical activity, therefore it is unknown how
312 these cofounding variables may have affected our results. Finally, education and
313 socioeconomic status have been reported to influence the health of a population,⁴² we have
314 not controlled for this and our sample may be subject to a greater health bias due to being
315 recruited from a University campus community.

316 **CONCLUSION**

317 The majority of functional performance tests (4/5) used in this investigation demonstrated a
318 learning effect evidenced by a performance improvement on day 2 of assessment. This
319 investigation demonstrated 10m gait speed tests not to have the sensitivity to report age-
320 related difference in the functional capacity of healthy older adults. The extended tests in this
321 investigation demonstrated construct validity by being able to distinguish differences in
322 functional performance between healthy adults in the 6th and 7^h decade of life. The 900m gait
323 speed test also had a greater association with KE strength than previous gait speed
324 associations reported in the literature. Future research should seek to determine a) whether
325 the observed learning effect in the assessment of functional capability is attenuated after a
326 third test day and b) what the relative contributions of muscle mass, strength and quality
327 (strength per unit tissue) are to functional capability in healthy older adults.

328 **Acknowledgements** The authors would like to thank the University of Limerick for funding this study,
329 specifically the 'Road-bridge Medical Research Scholarship' which funded the authors PhD research. This study
330 was also supported by Food for Health Ireland and Enterprise Ireland grant CC20080001.

331 **Conflict of Interest** On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest
332 aside from grant funding stated above.

333 **Statement of human and animal rights** All procedures performed in studies involving human participants
334 were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with
335 the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

336 **Informed consent** Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

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Table 1. Summary of Demographics of Adult Participants.

Demographic	50 – 59y (n=71)	60 -70y (n=88)
Age, y	55.4 (4.8) 54.4 – 57.3	64.4 (5.0) 62.9 – 65.3
Height, cm	163.3 (10.9) 161.8 – 166.4	164.2 (9.7) 162.0 – 165.7
Body Mass, kg	70.0 (22.4) 65.4 – 75.5	68.2 (17.4) 66.1 – 72.0
BMI, kg/m ²	26.0 (5.3) 25.3 – 26.9	25.3 (4.7) 24.5 – 26.2

Table 3. Age-related Difference in Peak Torque (PT)/Body Mass (BM) and Functional Performance in Healthy 50 – 70 year Adults.

Age Range, y	PT/BM, N·m/kg	Habitual Gait Speed (10m), m/s	Maximal Gait Speed (10m), m/s	Chair Rise Time (5x), s	Extended Gait Speed (900m), m/s	Chair Rise (30s), n
50 – 59	n=71	n=37	n=37	n=71	n=71	n=33
	1.5 (0.5) 1.4 – 1.6	1.52 (0.2) 1.46 – 1.56	1.84 (0.18) 1.78 – 1.90	8.2 (2.6)* 7.5 – 8.5	2.56 (0.62) 2.42 – 2.70	16.4 (3.5) 15.2 – 17.6

Values are reported as median (IQR), 95% Bootstrap CI.

470

Table 2. Reliability of Estimate for Functional Performance Measures in Adults Aged 50-70 Years.

Test	Day 1 Mean (SD)	Day 2 Mean (SD)	ICC (95% CI)	*% Difference (P-value)
Habitual Gait Speed (10m), m/s	1.4 (0.2)	1.5 (0.2)	0.714 (0.578 - 0.812)	4.3 (P<0.001)
Maximal Gait Speed (10m), m/s	1.8 (0.2)	1.8 (0.2)	0.767 (0.650 - 0.812)	1.7 (P=0.36)
Chair Rise Time (5x), s	9.3 (2.0)	8.7 (1.8)	0.795 (0.691 - 0.867)	-6.5 (P<0.001)
Chair Rise (30s), n	15.5 (3.7)	17.5 (4.4)	0.823 (0.747 - 0.877)	12.9 (P<0.001)
Extended Gait Speed (900m), m/s	2.60 (0.54)	2.68 (0.59)	0.880 (0.811 - 0.925)	3.1 (P=0.028)

*% difference calculated from the differences obtained from the paired sample t-test.

471

60 – 70	n=88	n=28	n=28	n=88	n=88	n=58
	1.3 (0.3) 1.2 – 1.4	1.40 (0.30) 1.40 – 1.50	1.85 (0.23) 1.77 – 1.94	8.8 (2.5)* 8.4 – 9.4	2.27 (0.45) 2.17 – 2.36	14.0 (5.0)* 13.5 – 15.0
Difference	0.2 0.1 – 0.3	-0.12 -0.02 – 0.14	0.01 -0.11 – 0.09	0.6 0.2 – 1.4	0.29 0.12 – 0.46	-2.4 -0.1 – 3.1
Difference (%)	14.2% <i>P</i> =0.001	-7.9% <i>P</i> =0.095	0.5% <i>P</i> =0.856	7.3% <i>P</i> =0.008	11.3% <i>P</i> =0.001	14.5% <i>P</i> =0.028

472 Values are reported as mean (SD), median (IQR)*, 95% or Bootstrap 95% CI, difference (mean or median, 95%
473 CI) and % difference, *P*-value. **50 – 59y**: Male = 11 (900m, 5 times chair rise). 7 (10m gait Speed). 4 (30-second
474 chair rise). **60 – 70y**: Male = 18 (900m, 5 times chair rise). 5 (10m gait Speed). 13 (30-second chair rise).

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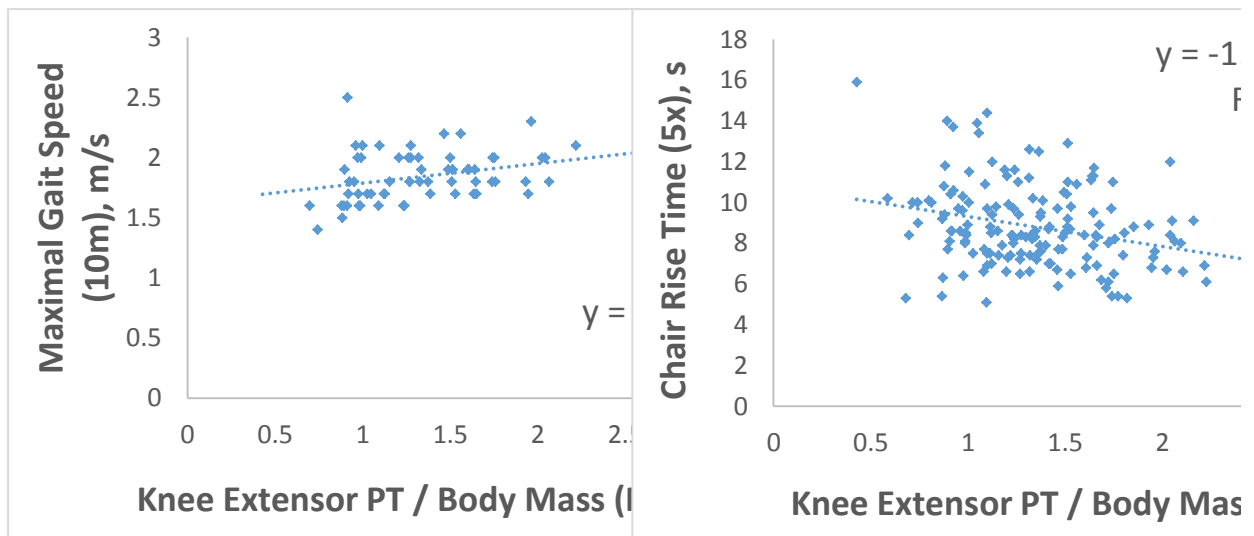
476

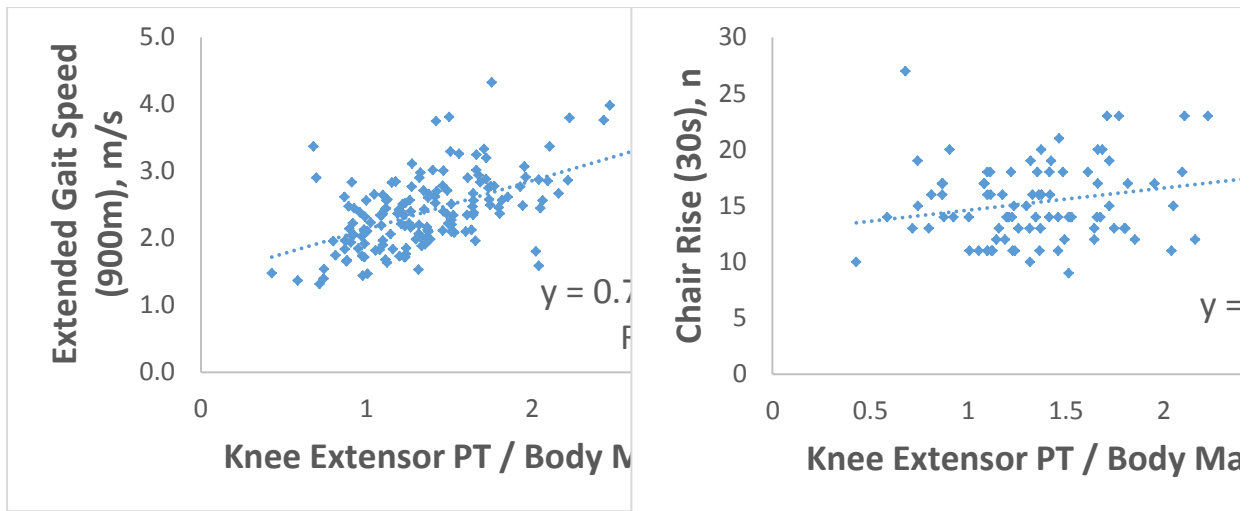
Table 4. The Association between Peak Torque (PT)/Body Mass (BM) and Functional Performance in Adults Aged 50-70 Years.

Habitual Gait Speed (10m)	Maximal Gait Speed (10m)	Chair Rise Time (5x)	Extended Gait Speed (900m)	Chair Rise (30s)
0.360 (0.122 - 0.581)	0.329 (0.089 - 0.553)	-0.297 (-0.146 - 0.447)	-0.537 (-0.404 - 0.670)	0.226 (0.021 - 0.428)
<i>P</i> = 0.003	<i>P</i> = 0.008	<i>P</i> <0.001	<i>P</i> <0.001	<i>P</i> =0.031

Values are reported as Pearson's *r* (95% confidence interval) and *P*-value. 10m gait speed, n=65; 5 x chair rise time and 900m gait speed, n=159; 30-second chair rise, n=91.

477





478 **Figure 1.** The relationship between knee extensor peak torque (PT) normalized for body mass and
 479 functional performance measures in healthy 50 – 70 year old adults.

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