

## Perceptual and Motor Skills

### Listening to preferred and loud music enhances taekwondo physical performances in adolescent athletes

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Keywords:	Ergogenic aid, Human performance < Motor skills < Motor Skills & Ergonomics, Preference, Combat Sports, Exercise & Sport
Abstract:	<p>This study aimed to investigate the effects of warm-up music preference and loudness on physical performance, perceived exertion (RPE), and enjoyment in young taekwondo athletes. In a crossover counterbalanced design, taekwondo athletes (n=20; 10 male, 10 female) performed a battery of physical tasks specific to taekwondo under the following conditions: 1) No music (NM), 2) Preferred music-Soft (60 dB; PMS), 3) Preferred music-Loud (80 dB; PML), 4) Non-preferred music-Soft (60 dB; NPMS), and 5) Non-preferred music-Loud (80 dB; NPML). On each visit, participants completed a taekwondo-specific agility test (TSAT) along with the 10-second and multiple frequency speed of kick tests (FSKT-10s and FSKT-mult, respectively) with each corresponding music condition. Pre-exercise enjoyment was assessed using the physical activity enjoyment scale (PACES) after the warm-up, while RPE scores were obtained after each test. Results revealed that PML resulted in significantly better times during the TSAT compared to NM (<math>p &lt; 0.001</math>), PMS (<math>p = 0.002</math>), NPMS (<math>p = 0.001</math>), and NPML (<math>p = 0.002</math>). Furthermore, listening to PML produced a greater number of total kicks during the FSKT-10s test compared to NM (<math>p = 0.001</math>), PMS (<math>p = 0.033</math>), NPMS (<math>p &lt; 0.001</math>), and NPML (<math>p &lt; 0.001</math>). Decrement index during the FSKT-10s was lower with PML versus all conditions (<math>p &lt; 0.001</math>). Additionally, pre-exercise enjoyment was significantly lower with NPML (<math>p = 0.001</math>) and NPMS (<math>p = 0.002</math>) compared to NM. Findings support ergogenic effects of listening to PML prior to taekwondo physical tasks which may have important implications for enhancing training and performance.</p>

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3 **1 Listening to Loud Preferred Music Enhances Taekwondo Physical**  
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5 **2 Performances in Adolescent Athletes**  
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8 **3 Abstract**  
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11 4 In this study, we aimed to investigate the effects of warm-up music preference and  
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13 5 loudness on physical performance, perceived exertion (RPE), and enjoyment in young  
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15 6 taekwondo athletes. In a crossover counterbalanced design, 20 taekwondo athletes (10  
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17 7 male, 10 female) performed a battery of physical tasks specific to taekwondo under the  
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19 8 following five conditions: (a) No music (NM), (b) Preferred music-Soft (60 dB; PMS),  
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21 9 (c) Preferred music-Loud (80 dB; PML), (d) Non-preferred music-Soft (60 dB;  
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23 10 NPMS), and (e) Non-preferred music-Loud (80 dB; NPML). On each lab visit,  
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25 11 participants completed a taekwondo-specific agility test (TSAT), a 10-second kick test  
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27 12 (KSKT-10s) and a multiple frequency speed of kick tests (FSKT) within each music  
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29 13 condition. Pre-exercise enjoyment was assessed using the Physical Activity  
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31 14 Enjoyment Scale (PACES) after the warm-up, while we obtained RPE scores after  
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33 15 each test. The PML condition resulted in significantly better agility test times on the  
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35 16 TSAT compared to PMS ( $p < 0.001$ ), and NPML ( $p < 0.001$ ). Furthermore, PML led to  
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37 17 a greater number of total kicks during the FSKT-10s test compared to the PMS  
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39 18 ( $p < 0.001$ ), and NPML ( $p < 0.001$ ) conditions. The decrement index on the FSKT was  
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41 19 lower in PML than in PMS and NPML conditions ( $p < 0.001$ ). For RPE, values were  
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43 20 significantly lower with preferred than non-preferred music ( $p < 0.001$ ). These findings  
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45 21 lend support to ergogenic benefits of listening to PML prior to taekwondo physical  
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47 22 tasks, with important implications for enhancing taekwondo training and performance.  
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56 **23 Keywords:** Combat sports; ergogenic aid, warm-up, preference.  
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3 25**Introduction**

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6 26 Taekwondo is a combat sport that uniquely integrates physical fitness,  
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8 27 technical-tactical skills, and psychological behaviors (Bridge et al., 2014). To succeed  
9  
10 28 in taekwondo competition, combatants must be proficient in techniques and skills  
11  
12 29 including functional agility, striking, and power development (Bridge et al., 2014). As  
13  
14 30 taekwondo athletes execute high-intensity intermittent actions, which often lead to  
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16 31 fatigue and physical strain (Da Silva Santos et al., 2016), coaches and athletes  
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18 32 frequently search for alternative strategies to enhance training and competitive  
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20 33 performance. While listening to music has been shown to enhance performance in a  
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22 34 wide range of sports, less is known about how music influences taekwondo  
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24 35 competitors, especially in sport-specific tasks.

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30 36 Listening to music during exercise has been widely reported as an ergogenic  
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32 37 aid which is able to improve several aspects of athletes' physical performance,  
33  
34 38 including the enhancement of strength, power, endurance, and work rate (Terry et al.,  
35  
36 39 2020). These phenomena likely manifest through multiple underpinning mechanisms  
37  
38 40 in an amalgam of physiological and psychological domains (Ballmann, Cook, et al.,  
39  
40 41 2021). Physiologically, listening to music during exercise has been reported to increase  
41  
42 42 heart rate (Arazi et al., 2015; Yamashita et al., 2006), reduce blood lactate  
43  
44 43 concentrations (Eliakim et al., 2007) and increase neuromuscular activation (Bishop  
45  
46 44 et al., 2013). Psychologically, listening to music has been shown to increase  
47  
48 45 dissociation from exertion, motivation, activity enjoyment, self-confidence, feelings  
49  
50 46 of power, and self-regulated arousal (Ballmann, 2021; Ballmann et al., 2019;  
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52 47 Chtourou, 2013; Stork et al., 2015). Since music is generally prohibited when  
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54 48 competing (Chtourou et al., 2012), music listening has been restricted to warm-up  
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56 49 activities, as a possible adequate alternative means of influencing sustained motivation

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3 50 during subsequent competitive bouts (Ballmann, Cook, et al., 2021; Meglic et al.,  
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5 51 2021).  
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8 52 Warm-up or pre-task music has been investigated in various modes of exercise,  
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10 53 sometimes with conflicting results (Ballmann, Cook, et al., 2021; Fox et al., 2019;  
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12 54 Karow et al., 2020). For example, listening to music during a warm-up has been shown  
13  
14 55 to improve affect, autonomic control, and physical performance during intense  
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16 56 exercise (Chtourou et al., 2017; Chtourou et al., 2012). Furthermore, Meglic et al.  
17  
18 57 (2021) showed enhanced power output during repeated sprints following a warm-up  
19  
20 58 with music. In contrast, others have reported warm-up music to have little to no effects  
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22 59 on high-intensity exercise performed by both males and females (Eliakim et al., 2007;  
23  
24 60 Fox et al., 2019). While these disparities between investigations are not fully  
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26 61 understood, previous investigators (Eliakim et al., 2007; Fox et al., 2019) used pre-  
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28 62 determined (i.e. researcher chosen) music, thereby eliminating any influence of the  
29  
30 63 participants' involvement in selecting their musical preference. Musical preference has  
31  
32 64 been shown to largely determine the ergogenic potential of music listening (Ballmann,  
33  
34 65 Cook, et al., 2021). This can be so individualized a choice that a song that inspires one  
35  
36 66 athlete may have minimal impact on another (Clark et al., 2021). Compared to non-  
37  
38 67 preferred music, preferred warm-up music may raise the anticipatory response to  
39  
40 68 exercise, leading to both more effort and more muscle force development (Ballmann,  
41  
42 69 Cook, et al., 2021; Meglic et al., 2021). Furthermore, among physically active males  
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44 70 and females, listening to preferred warm-up music has been shown to improve rowing  
45  
46 71 performance while concomitantly increasing motivation (Ballmann, Cook, et al.,  
47  
48 72 2021; Karow et al., 2020). Similar findings have been documented in resistance  
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50 73 exercise, namely bench press (Ballmann, Cook, et al., 2021; Ballmann, Favre, et al.,  
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3 74 2021). However, studies exploring warm-up music preference have been limited and  
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5 75 even less is known about its efficacy when applied to sport-specific skills.  
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8 76 While the existing literature on warm-up music preference has generally shown  
9  
10 77 that listening to preferred music aids performance, previous studies have not fully  
11  
12 78 accounted for such variations in inherent characteristics of music as tempo and  
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14 79 volume. Music volume (loudness) has been shown to potently influence arousal, rate  
15  
16 80 of perceived exertion (RPE), and motivation (Nixon et al., 2022). Loud pre-task music  
17  
18 81 has been shown to significantly influence affective parity and arousal for both simple  
19  
20 82 motor tasks (i.e., handgrip strength) and complex ones (i.e., running speed) (Edworthy  
21  
22 83 & Waring, 2006; Karageorghis et al., 2018). There is very limited evidence of the  
23  
24 84 effects of music listening and of music loudness and volume on taekwondo athletes'  
25  
26 85 performance. Hammad et al. (2019) showed that, despite lowering RPE, listening to  
27  
28 86 music did not improve power or anaerobic capacity during sprinting in taekwondo  
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30 87 athletes. However, in this single past study of music effects on taekwondo athletes, it  
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32 88 is important to note that the performance test used was not taekwondo-specific and  
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34 89 may not readily translate to taekwondo competition. To date, there have been no  
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36 90 concerted empirical attempts to elucidate the effects of listening to music on  
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38 91 taekwondo-specific tasks.  
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46 92 Our purpose in this study was to assess the effects of music preference (i.e.,  
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48 93 preferred vs non-preferred music) and loudness (i.e., 60dB vs 80dB) during warm-up  
49  
50 94 music listening on young male and female taekwondo athletes' subsequent specific  
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52 95 physical performance, ratings of perceived exertion (RPE) and physical enjoyment.  
53  
54 96 We hypothesized that listening to loud preferred warm-up music would result in  
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56 97 greater task performances and increased activity enjoyment, relative to other  
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58 98 combinations of soft and non-preferred music listening conditions. However, since it  
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3 99 has been well established that music listening during warm-up versus during  
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5 100 performance has a diminished effect on the dissociation of unpleasant affect from  
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7 101 exercise (Chtourou et al., 2012; Edworthy & Waring, 2006; Fox et al., 2019), even  
8  
9 102 when music was preferred by participants (Karow et al., 2020; Meglic et al., 2021),  
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11 103 we hypothesized that warm-up music would not affect RPE scores in either preferred  
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13 104 or non-preferred conditions.  
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## 17 105 **Method**

### 18 106 ***Participants***

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21 107 We performed an a priori power analysis using the G\*Power software (Version  
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23 108 3.1.9.4, University of Kiel, Kiel, Germany) using the F test family of statistical  
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25 109 inference testing (analyses of variance [ANOVA]: repeated measures, within factors).  
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27 110 We set our presumed effect size at  $f = 0.25$  and set  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The analysis revealed that  
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29 111 a total sample size of 20 participants would be adequate to detect group differences  
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31 112 with an actual statistical power of 80.23%.  
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38 113 Accordingly, 20 taekwondo athletes, 10 males ( $M$  age = 17.70,  $SD = 0.82$  years;  
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40 114  $M$  body mass = 60.8,  $SD = 11.6$  kg;  $M$  height = 1.72,  $SD = 0.10$  m) and 10 females; ( $M$   
41  
42 115 age = 17.30,  $SD = 0.48$  years;  $M$  body mass = 57.5,  $SD = 8.5$  kg;  $M$  height = 1.64,  $SD$   
43  
44 116 = 0.07 m) participated in this study. All participants had at least six years taekwondo  
45  
46 117 experience, were currently training  $\geq 3$  times per week, and were free from disease and  
47  
48 118 hearing impairments. We selected a culturally homogenous sample to minimize  
49  
50 119 differential cultural background effects on the participants' psychophysical reactions  
51  
52 120 to music (Karageorghis, 2020). For female participants, athletes were invited to  
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54 121 participate in the study when they were in the early stages of their follicular phase of  
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56 122 menstruation. Throughout the trial, participants were instructed to follow the same  
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3 123 dietary and sleep habits. Strenuous physical activity had been abstained for 24 hours  
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5 124 before each experimental session.  
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9 125 We provided participants and their parents a complete overview of the aims,  
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11 126 advantages, and potential risks associated with the investigation, after which athletes  
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13 127 (if older than 18 years old) or their parents (when athletes were younger than 18 years  
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15 128 old) signed a written informed consent form. All athletes younger than 18 years old  
16  
17 129 signed an informed assent. The study was conducted according to the Declaration of  
18  
19 130 Helsinki, and the protocol was fully approved by a local research ethics committee  
20  
21 131 (CPP SUD n° 0332/2021).  
22  
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## 24 25 132 *Procedures*

### 26 27 28 133 *Warm-Up Music*

29  
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31 134 Participants were asked to provide their most preferred and non-preferred  
32  
33 135 music genres freely, and their preferences were documented. For the preferred music  
34  
35 136 conditions, participants selected a single favorite song with a fast tempo in their  
36  
37 137 preferred genre ( $M= 130$ ,  $SD = 8$  bpm). For the non-preferred conditions, we selected  
38  
39 138 a song from the participant's least favorite music that was tempo matched to the  
40  
41 139 preferred music condition. All music was played through headphones. Considering  
42  
43 140 loudness conditions, we used 60 decibels (dB) for “soft” and 80dBfor “loud” (Nixon  
44  
45 141 et al., 2022). We monitored the decibel level of the music using the application  
46  
47 142 Decibel: dB sound level meter (developer Vlad Polyanskiy). The iterated  
48  
49 143 combinations of music type and volume resulted in four experimental conditions, and  
50  
51 144 we added a no-music control condition to derive the following five conditions: (a) No  
52  
53 145 music (control; NM); (b) preferred music- loud volume (80dB, PML);(c) preferred  
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3 146 music- soft volume(60dB; PMS);(d) non-preferred music- loud volume (80 dB,  
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5 147 NPML);and (e) non-preferred music- soft volume (60 dB, NPMS).  
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### 8 148 ***Experimental Design and Procedure***

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11 149 We utilized a randomized and counterbalanced crossover study design. After a  
12  
13 150 familiarization session with the testing procedures and the scales, participants  
14  
15 151 performed a standardized warm-up session consisting of running at 9 km/h for10  
16  
17 152 minutes while listening to corresponding music conditions before performing the tests.  
18  
19 153 For the NM condition, participants were equipped with headphones, but no-music was  
20  
21 154 played to assure the same testing conditions(Tounsi et al., 2019). We played music on  
22  
23 155 repeat to ensure it played throughout the warm-up. After the warm-up, we measured  
24  
25 156 enjoyment through the Physical Activity Enjoyment Scale (PACES; (Kendzierski &  
26  
27 157 DeCarlo, 1991). Participants then performed the taekwondo-specific agility test  
28  
29 158 (TSAT;(Chaabene et al., 2018), the 10-second frequency speed of kick test (FSKT-  
30  
31 159 10s;(Da Silva Santos et al., 2015) and its multiple version (FSKT-mult;Da Silva Santos  
32  
33 160 et al., 2016). After each test, athletes were instructed to report their RPE using a 1-10  
34  
35 161 scale(Borg et al., 1987). All testing sessions were performed, with a 48hour interval  
36  
37 162 between sessions, at the same time of day (17h00-19h00) to avoid any individualized  
38  
39 163 diurnal influence on performance variation.  
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### 47 164 ***Physical Tasks***

#### 48 165 ***Taekwondo-Specific Agility Test (TSAT)***

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51 166 The TSAT was completed as previously described by (Chaabene et al., 2018).  
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53 167 Briefly, the athlete started the test from a guard position with both feet behind the  
54  
55 168 taekwondo start/finish line. When signaled, they moved as quickly as possible to a  
56  
57 169 center point three sparring partners around them, with one partner on each side of them  
58  
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1  
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3 170 at ~180 degrees and the third directly in front of them at ~90 degrees. Then, the  
4  
5 171 participant delivered a single roundhouse kick with their dominant leg to each partner  
6  
7 172 on either side and a double roundhouse kicked to the third partner as quickly as  
8  
9 173 possible. The athlete then returned to the center point to finish the test (Chaabene et  
10  
11 174 al., 2018). Time to completion was measured using photocells (Brower Timing  
12  
13 175 Systems, Salt Lake City, UT, USA). Each athlete performed three attempts, and we  
14  
15 176 used the fastest single time for analysis. The ICC for test–retest trial for the present  
16  
17 177 study was 0.86.

### 178 ***The Frequency Speed of Kick Test 10s (FSKT-10s)***

179 The KSKT-10s test was conducted as previously described by (Da Silva Santos  
180 et al., 2015). The athlete was required to achieve the maximum number of *bandal-*  
181 *chagui* (upward kicks) techniques within a 10-second period against an immovable  
182 bag by alternating between the dominant and non-dominant legs. The performance  
183 was recorded as the total number of techniques during the 10s (Da Silva Santos et al.,  
184 2015). The ICC for test–retest trial in the present study was 0.83.

### 185 ***The Frequency Speed of Kick Test (FSKT-mult)***

186 We used the same procedure as for the FSKT-10s for the FSKT-mult; however the  
187 FSKT-mult was completed repeatedly. Using the *bandal-chagui* techniques, athletes  
188 performed five sets of the FSKT-10s with a 10-second inter-set interval. The number  
189 of kicks performed in each set and the total number of kicks over the five sets were  
190 used to determine the performance decrement index (DI) (Da Silva Santos et al.,  
191 2016). Equation 1 details the DI:

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2  
3 192  $DI (\%) = [1 - ((FSKT1 + FSKT2 + FSKT3 + FSKT4 + FSKT5) / (\text{Best FSKT set} \times$   
4  
5 193 Numbers of sets))] \times 100

6  
7  
8 194 Performance was represented by the total number of techniques during the five sets  
9  
10 195 and by the DI. The ICC for the test–retest trial for the total number of kicks in the  
11  
12 196 five sets in the present study was 0.77.

### 16 197 *The Physical Activity Enjoyment Scale (PACES)*

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18  
19 198 The PACES was used to detect the participants' level of pleasure and enjoyment  
20  
21 199 following the warm-up (Kendzierski & DeCarlo, 1991). This scale contains 18 items -  
22  
23 200 11 “negative” and 7 “positive” items, all related to the participants' enjoyment.  
24  
25 201 Participants self-reported their responses through 7-point Likert scale  
26  
27 202 questions (Kendzierski & DeCarlo, 1991). Scores were derived from the sum of the  
28  
29 203 participant's total responses such that the overall score could range from 18 to 126.

### 34 204 *Ratings of Perceived Exertion (RPE)*

35  
36  
37 205 We assessed perceived exertion using the Borg CR 0-10 scale (Borg et al., 1987).  
38  
39 206 This scale ranges from “0” to “10,” with corresponding verbal descriptors, that  
40  
41 207 gradually increase with the intensity of perceived sensation (0=Nothing at all;  
42  
43 208 0.5=Extremely weak; 1=Very weak; 2=Weak; 3-4=Moderate; 5-6=Strong; 5-  
44  
45 209 6=Severe; 7-9=Very strong; and 10=Extremely strong). Cronbach's Alpha reliability  
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47 210 coefficient was 0.948 in the present study.

52 211

### 54 212 *Data Analysis*

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3 213 Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 20.0 statistical software (IBM  
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5 214 corps., Armonk, NY, USA). Data are presented as means (and standard deviations).  
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7 215 The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to confirm normality, and the Levene test was used to  
8  
9 216 verify the homogeneity of variances. Mean differences between each experimental and  
10  
11 217 control condition for each outcome were measured and used for the analysis. A three-  
12  
13 218 way repeated measures ANOVA (2 Loudness  $\times$  2 Music Preferences  $\times$  2 Sexes) was  
14  
15 219 used to compare results on the TSAT, FSKT-10s, PACES and RPE, while the FSKT-  
16  
17 220 mult outcomes (total number of techniques and decrement index) were compared using  
18  
19 221 a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). If the ANOVA or the MANOVA  
20  
21 222 indicated significant differences (only significant differences are currently reported),  
22  
23 223 a Bonferroni post hoc test was used to detect differences in means. Partial eta squared  
24  
25 224 ( $\eta_p^2$ ) effect size values were reported and classified as 0.01 = small, 0.06 = medium,  
26  
27 225 0.14 = large (Cohen, 1988). Moreover, standardized effect size analysis (Cohen's d)  
28  
29 226 was used to interpret the magnitude of differences between variables and considered  
30  
31 227 as: trivial ( $\leq 0.20$ ); small ( $0.20 < d \leq 0.60$ ); moderate ( $0.60 < d \leq 1.20$ ); large ( $1.20 < d \leq 2.0$ );  
32  
33 228 very large ( $2.0 < d \leq 4.0$ ); and extremely large ( $> 4.0$ ) (Hopkins, 2002). In addition, the  
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35 229 upper and lower 95% confidence intervals of the difference ( $95\%CI_{dif}$ ) were calculated  
36  
37 230 for the corresponding variation. The level of statistical significance was set at  $p \leq 0.05$ .  
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## 231 **Results**

232 Table 1 presents the physical performances as mean differences between each  
233 experimental and control condition.

234 \*\*\* Please insert table 1 near here\*\*\*

### 235 *Taekwondo Specific Agility Test*

1  
2  
3 236 On the TSAT, there was a main effect of Loudness ( $F_{1,17}= 30.71$ ;  $p<0.001$ ;  $\eta_p^2= 0.644$ ),  
4  
5 237 with 80dB inducing better performances than 60dB (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -0.7 to -0.3;  $d = -1.08$   
6  
7 238 ;  $p< 0.001$ ). There was a main effect of Music preferences ( $F_{1,17}= 10.88$ ;  $p=0.004$ ;  $\eta_p^2=$   
8  
9 239 0.390), with preferred music inducing better performances than non-preferred  
10  
11 240 (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -0.4 to -0.1;  $d =-0.65$  ;  $p=0.004$ ). There was a significant interaction effect  
12  
13 241 between Loudness and Music preferences ( $F_{1,18}= 6.15$ ;  $p=0.024$ ;  $\eta_p^2= 0.266$ ), with  
14  
15 242 NPML inducing better performance than NPMS(95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -0.4 to -0.1;  $d = -0.75$  ;  
16  
17 243  $p=0.001$ ) and PML resulting in better performances than PMS (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -1.0 to -  
18  
19 244 0.4;  $d = -1.66$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Moreover, PML induced better performances than NPML  
20  
21 245 (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -0.7 to -0.2;  $d = -1.17$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).  
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#### 27 ***The Ten Seconds Frequency Speed of Kick Test***

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30 247 There was a main effect of Loudness ( $F_{1,18}= 9.67$ ;  $p=0.006$ ;  $\eta_p^2= 0.350$ ) with 80dB  
31  
32 248 resulting in better performances than 60dB (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 1.5 to 7.6;  $d = 0.51$  ;  $p=0.006$ ).  
33  
34 249 There was a main effect of Music preferences ( $F_{1,18}= 16.98$ ;  $p=0.001$ ;  $\eta_p^2= 0.485$ ) with  
35  
36 250 preferred music inducing better performances than non-preferred (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 13.5 to  
37  
38 251 10.9;  $d = 0.86$  ;  $p=0.001$ ). Moreover, there was an interaction effect between Loudness  
39  
40 252 and Music preferences ( $F_{1,18}= 22.04$ ;  $p<0.001$ ;  $\eta_p^2= 0.550$ ) with PML inducing better  
41  
42 253 performances than PMS (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 5.2 to 13.5;  $d = 1.15$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and PML resulted  
43  
44 254 in better performances than NPML (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 7.7 to 16.4;  $d = 1.59$  ;  $p<0.001$ ).  
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#### 49 ***The Multiple Frequency Speed Kicks Test***

##### 50 ***Total Number of Kicks***

51  
52 256  
53  
54 257 On the FSKT-mult, there was a main effect of Loudness ( $F_{1,18}= 14.37$ ;  $p=0.001$ ;  $\eta_p^2=$   
55  
56 258 0.444), with 80dB inducing better performance than 60dB (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 1.7 to 6.1;  $d =$   
57  
58 259 0.48;  $p=0.001$ ). There was a main effect of Music preferences ( $F_{1,18}= 21.93$ ;  $p<0.001$ ;  
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260  $\eta_p^2 = 0.549$ ) with preferred music inducing higher performance than non-preferred  
 261 music (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 3.5 to 9.1;  $d = 0.56$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). There was an interaction effect  
 262 between Loudness and Music preferences ( $F_{1,18} = 7.17$ ;  $p = 0.015$ ;  $\eta_p^2 = 0.285$ ) with PML  
 263 resulting in better performance than NPMS (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 5.3 to 11.8;  $d = 1.42$ ;  $p < 0.001$ )  
 264 and PMS than NPMS (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 0.5 to 7.4;  $d = 0.55$ ;  $p = 0.026$ ). Moreover, PML  
 265 induced better performance than PMS (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 3.7 to 8.7;  $d = -0.81$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

### 266 ***Decrement Index***

267 There was a main effect of Loudness ( $F_{1,18} = 63.90$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\eta_p^2 = 0.780$ ), with  
 268 80dB resulting lower DI than 60dB (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -4.1 to -2.1;  $d = -1.08$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

269 There was a main effect of Music preference ( $F_{1,18} = 26.05$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\eta_p^2 = 0.591$ )  
 270 with preferred music inducing lower DI than non-preferred (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -3.3 to -  
 271 1.4;  $d = -0.73$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). There was a main effect of Sex ( $F_{1,18} = 5.15$ ;  $p = 0.036$ ;  $\eta_p^2 =$   
 272 0.223) with males inducing lower DI than females (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -3.5 to -0.1;  $d = -$   
 273 0.17;  $p = 0.036$ ). There was an interaction effect between Sex and Music preference  
 274 ( $F_{1,18} = 6.87$ ;  $p = 0.017$ ;  $\eta_p^2 = 0.277$ ) with male inducing lower DI than females with  
 275 preferred music (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -4.7 to -1.4;  $d = -0.79$ ;  $p = 0.001$ ). There was an  
 276 interaction effect between Loudness and Music preference ( $F_{1,18} = 15.37$ ;  $p = 0.001$ ;  
 277  $\eta_p^2 = 0.461$ ) with PML inducing lower DI than NPML (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -5.7 to -2.6;  $d =$   
 278 -1.62;  $p < 0.001$ ) and PML resulted in lower DI than PMS (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = -5.5 to -4.6;  
 279  $d = -2.19$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

### 280 ***The Physical Activity Enjoyment Scale***

281 On the PACES, there was a main effect of Music preferences ( $F_{1,18} = 7.99$ ;  $p = 0.011$ ;  
 282  $\eta_p^2 = 0.307$ ), with preferred music inducing lower values than non-preferred music  
 283 (95%CI<sub>dif</sub> = 1.5 to 10.4  $d = 0.68$ ;  $p = 0.011$ ) (Figure 1).

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6 285 ***Ratings of Perceived Exertion***  
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9 286 For RPE values recorded after FSKT-10s, there was a main effect of Music preferences  
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11 287 ( $F_{1,18} = 22.30$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\eta_p^2 = 0.553$ ), with preferred music induced lower values than  
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13 288 non-preferred ( $95\%CI_{diff} = -1.6$  to  $-0.6$   $d = -0.99$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 2). Neither the main  
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15 289 effect for Loudness nor the interaction effect of Music preferences and Loudness were  
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17 290 significant.  
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24 292 **Discussion**  
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27 293 In the present study, we assessed the effect of warm-up music preference (i.e.,  
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29 294 preferred vs. non-preferred) and music volume (i.e., loud vs. soft) on taekwondo-  
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31 295 specific physical performance, RPE, and physical enjoyment in male and female  
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33 296 young taekwondo athletes. We found that PML music resulted in superior performance  
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35 297 during the FSKT-10s, FSKT-mult and TSAT compared to the PMS, and NPML  
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37 298 conditions. Furthermore, RPE decreased with preferred, compared to non-preferred,  
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39 299 music. While both males and females benefited from listening to preferred music by  
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41 300 lowering DI, males had significantly lower DI than females. While precise  
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43 301 mechanisms for these findings are not fully clear, our findings are among the first to  
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45 302 suggest that warm-up music preference and music volume interact to determine sport-  
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47 303 specific performance, whereby listening to preferred and loud music appear to result  
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49 304 in the greatest benefit. Combining these music qualities may serve as a feasible  
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51 305 strategy for taekwondo athletes to boost their performance in training and competition.  
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3 306 Warm-up music preference has been shown to mediate ergogenic benefits  
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5 307 during subsequent exercise bouts (Ballmann, Cook, et al., 2021; Karageorghis et al.,  
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7 308 2021). In the present study, listening to PML during warm-up improved taekwondo-  
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9 309 specific agility performance, completed kicks during single (FSKT-10s), and repeated  
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11 310 bouts (FSKT-mult) of kicking compared to the PMS and NPML conditions. These  
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13 311 findings are supported by previous literature showing the benefits of warm-up music  
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15 312 on repeated sprint ability and running speed (Edworthy & Waring, 2006; Meglic et al.,  
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17 313 2021; Tounsi et al., 2019). Specifically, Karow et al. (2020) showed that a 5min warm-  
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19 314 up while listening to preferred music improved subsequent 2000-m rowing  
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21 315 performance in active male and female participants. Additionally, during high-  
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23 316 intensity repeated exercise (i.e., 3 x 15 s all-out cycle ergometer bouts), Meglic et al.  
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25 317 (2021) reported that three minutes of standardized cycling warm-up at 50 W while  
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27 318 listening to preferred music resulted in increases in power and total work. Common  
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29 319 among these investigations, which also supports the current data, is that non-preferred  
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31 320 music also resulted in a lack of benefit or performance decrement.  
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38 321 While the physiological determinants of current performance enhancement  
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40 322 remain largely speculative, improvements from PML music may manifest in  
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42 323 alterations of neural activation from the music itself or the volume. Pre-task music  
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44 324 may result in increased neural activity, specifically in brain regions responsible for  
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46 325 motor control (Bishop et al., 2013). Indeed, Putkinen et al. (2021) showed increased  
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48 326 motor and insular cortex activation while listening to music, which are important for  
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50 327 motor control (Putkinen et al., 2021). The changes in neural activation elicited by  
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52 328 listening to music have been shown to be heavily dependent on the individual's  
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54 329 musical preference where a greater emotional connection to preferred music may alter  
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56 330 responses (Holler et al., 2012). Intrinsic characteristics of music may affect the way  
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3 331 listeners assess the potential impact of a musical stimulus, and this may determine their  
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5 332 expectations (Ballard et al., 1999). Specifically, listeners may exhibit a strong  
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7 333 association between goal attainment and music preference (Schäfer, 2016), as specific  
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9 334 music is capable of fulfilling the listener's expectations (Ballard et al., 1999). The  
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11 335 overall strength of past positive functional experiences with music may improve the  
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13 336 degree to which music assists the listener in achieving specific goals in particular  
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15 337 situations (Schäfer, 2016). In the present study, the higher performances under the  
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17 338 preferred condition may have also influenced expectations on the recorded effects.  
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19 339 Possibly, this may have led to heightened sympathetic responses that could have  
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21 340 altered muscular force output. Listening to music during a warm-up has been shown  
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23 341 to raise plasma catecholamine concentrations (i.e. norepinephrine, epinephrine) which  
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25 342 may increase muscle activation, redistribute blood flow towards skeletal muscles, and  
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27 343 alter metabolic responses during subsequent exercise (Yamashita et al., 2006). Similar  
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29 344 responses may have been initiated by the loud volume of the music in this study. Loud  
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31 345 music volume has been shown to increase heart rate and ventilation, while  
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33 346 simultaneously decreasing heart rate variability, indicating enhanced sympathetic  
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35 347 output (Koelsch & Jancke, 2015). Similarly, louder music has also been shown to  
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37 348 increase self-selected running speed and heart rate during endurance-based exercise  
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39 349 (Edworthy & Waring, 2006). While not confirmed, the loud volume may have also  
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41 350 exacerbated the sympathetic responses leading to heightened arousal and muscular  
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43 351 force. This is partially supported by our finding that PML elicited better performance  
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45 352 than PMS, even when the song/music played was the same. Previous findings have  
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47 353 also suggested that increases in motivation and intent to give effort may also be  
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49 354 enhanced by preferred music and louder volumes (Ballmann, 2021; Nixon et al.,  
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51 355 2022). Interestingly, these feelings of increased motivation may last throughout the  
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3 356 exercise bout, even if the preferred music is listened to only during the warm-up  
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5 357 (Karow et al., 2020). Similar findings have been shown with louder volumes albeit  
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7 358 only investigations utilizing in-task (i.e., during exercise) music have been conducted  
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10 359 to date (Nixon et al., 2022). Since improvements in motivation may lead to greater  
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12 360 sustained effort, it is plausible that PML music may have allowed participants to  
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14 361 maintain performance as evidenced by lower DI. Thus, improvements in agility and  
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16 362 technique from listening to warm-up music appear to be synergistically controlled by  
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18 363 music preference and volume which ultimately alters exercise responses. But future  
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20 364 studies manipulating other intrinsic characteristics of music (i.e., music, lyrical  
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22 365 content) will be necessary to identify how each factor of music truly contributes to  
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24 366 changes in performance.  
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29 367 Psychologically, music has been repeatedly shown to promote feelings of well-being  
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31 368 (Karageorghis et al., 2021), improve emotional state (Chtourou, 2013), reduce  
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33 369 perceived exertion (Terry et al., 2020), and increase self-confidence (Chtourou, 2013).  
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35 370 Regarding physical enjoyment, current findings showed that, regardless of volume,  
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37 371 non-preferred warm-up music induced higher enjoyment than preferred music did.  
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39 372 This is in opposition to previous work in which listening to self-selected music was  
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41 373 reported to induce higher levels of enjoyment (Stork et al., 2015). Noticeably,  
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43 374 unpleasant sounds and music have been suggested to lower enjoyment and alter  
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45 375 perceptive responses to other pleasurable stimuli (i.e., food, beverage, smell) (Spence,  
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47 376 2014). However, these findings may not translate if music is only played during the  
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49 377 warm-up (Aloui et al., 2015). Arguably, the impacts of music on psychological states  
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51 378 varied as a function of familiarity with music (Park et al., 2019). Particularly, listening  
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53 379 to known music repeatedly tends to decrease listeners' attention; while, engaging in  
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55 380 unexpected music can keep participants' interest (Malekmohammadi et al., 2023). For  
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3 381 instance, frequent exposure to unusual music raises levels of self-reported arousal and  
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5 382 enjoyment (van den Bosch et al., 2013). Consequently, the recorded result in the  
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7 383 present study might be linked to reduced intentional resources necessary to improve  
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10 384 enjoyment.

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13 385 Exercisers' exhaustion brought on by high-intensity exercise, cannot be avoided; but it  
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15 386 is possible to alter how exercisers perceive fatigue and give it a more favorable  
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17 387 appraisal (Karageorghis & Priest, 2012). In this regard, music has been reported as an  
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19 388 ergogenic aid that enhances exercise performance by either postponing exhaustion or  
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21 389 boosting work capacity (Karageorghis & Priest, 2012). In the present study, preferred  
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23 390 music enhanced performance while reducing RPE values. Although the timing of  
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25 391 music playing is a moderating factor, the current findings supported the suppressor  
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27 392 effect of preferred music on RPE (Ballmann et al., 2019). Such a decrease in fatigue  
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29 393 perception may explain, in part, the lower performance during the non-preferred  
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31 394 conditions. The key mechanism for performance enhancement during exercise while  
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33 395 listening to music is the dissociation from internal features of exercise (Ballmann,  
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35 396 2021). However, not playing music during exercise may remove the external  
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37 397 distraction to giving effort. The mechanism behind warm-up music suppressor effects  
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39 398 is not clear, but its extension to subsequent tasks could be related to an improvement  
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41 399 in auditory imagery (Bishop et al., 2013). This hypothesis needs verification from  
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43 400 future neuroscientific evidence.

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46 401 In terms of sex-music interactions, our findings supported the suggested  
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48 402 moderating effects of gender (Karageorghis et al., 2021; Rhoads et al., 2021).  
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50 403 Specifically, the current study reported that males had a lower DI than females in the  
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52 404 preferred music conditions. This result was similar to the results of a previous study  
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54 405 (Manca et al., 2020) showing that listening to loud music (i.e., 85dB) while running

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3 406 increased ground reaction force in males with no effect in females. However, these  
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5 407 findings were inconsistent with others investigating the variation in sex-specific  
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7 408 responses to music stimulus before (Eliakim et al., 2007; Tounsi et al., 2019) or during  
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9 409 exercise (Rhoads et al., 2021). In fact, performing repeated Wingate tests while  
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11 410 listening to self-selected music reduced the fatigue index in female, but not in male  
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13 411 exercisers (Rhoads et al., 2021). Considering warm-up music, motivational music was  
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15 412 shown to induce shorter sprint time in female soccer players than their male  
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17 413 counterparts, with no impact on performance decrement in both sexes (Tounsi et al.,  
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19 414 2019). Moreover, Eliakim et al.(2007) showed that sex did not influence the effect of  
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21 415 music on the fatigue index during the Wingate test. As the level of activation is  
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23 416 dependent on music preference and listening timing (Ballmann, Cook, et al., 2021;  
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25 417 Smirmaul, 2017), this divergence in results could be related to these intrinsic  
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27 418 components.

### 33 419 ***Limitations and Directions for Further Research***

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37 420 While the present investigation revealed important findings regarding the optimization  
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39 421 of performance using loud preferred warm-up music, we acknowledge some  
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41 422 limitations in this research. We did not assess the participants' subjective perceived  
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43 423 arousal and motivation induced by music. Moreover, we did not measure physiological  
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45 424 biomarkers to explain the results, especially, the difference in sex responses to music  
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47 425 stimulus. In addition, although we manipulated music preference and loudness, we did  
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49 426 not fully control for other confounding factors (e.g., lyrics and melodies) that could  
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51 427 have influenced music effects. Furthermore, since measuring sound level with a  
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53 428 smartphone application is would help calibrate the accuracy of sound level  
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55 429 measurements (Nast et al., 2014), future investigators might use a smartphone  
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57 430 application without acoustic coupler to monitor sound level . Finally, our exclusive

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3 431 focus on taekwondo athletes limits generalization of these findings to other  
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5 432 populations. Future investigators are encouraged to expand this research hto other  
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7 433 athletes and use specific testing procedures to simulate the requirement of typical  
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9 434 competition.

### 13 435 **Conclusion**

16 436 Listening to preferred and loud music is an effective tool to improve taekwondo  
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18 437 physical performance during specific tasks. Moreover, independent of loudness  
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20 438 preferred warm-up music act as suppressor stimulus on RPE. However, preferred  
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22 439 warm-up music reduced the DI in both males and females; with males presenting lower  
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24 440 values either at low or high volume.

28 441 Allowing athletes to listen to their preferred music at 80dB loudness during  
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30 442 warm-up could help them to perform better on subsequent tasks. Moreover, coaches  
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32 443 should help their athletes to select motivational music according to the exercise  
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34 444 requirements, accounting for their choice. Imposing a musical track is not  
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36 445 recommended and seems not to be an effective strategy for all listeners, as non-  
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38 446 preferred music negatively affected fatigue perception. Thus, music choices prior to  
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40 447 giving physical effort should be individualized to each athlete's preferences in order  
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42 448 to optimize training and performance.

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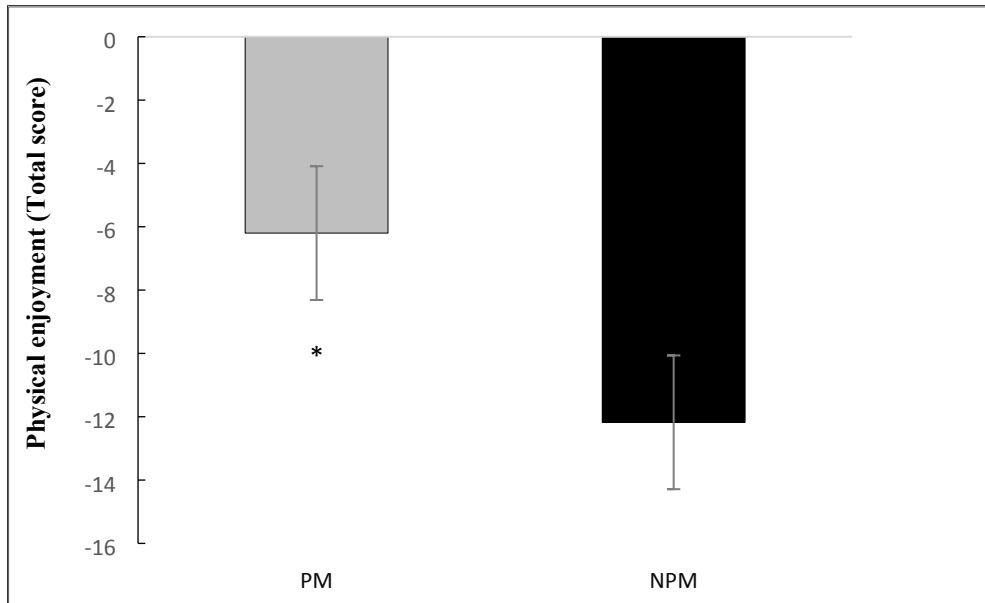
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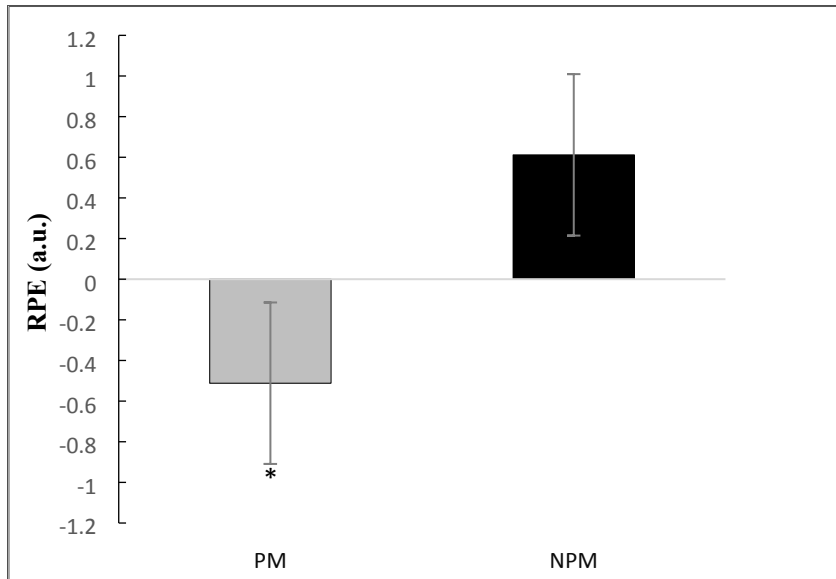
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**Figure 1.** Physical enjoyment mean difference values from control condition recorded during preferred (PM) and non-preferred music (NPM). \*  $p=0.011$ .



**Figure 2.** Rating of perceived exertion (RPE) mean difference from control condition values recorded during preferred (PM) and non-preferred music (NPM). \*  $p < 0.001$ . a.u: arbitrary unit

**Table 1.** Changes in physical performances between the control and experimental conditions (Values are M (SD); n=20). \* indicates significantly different from soft ( $p<0.05$ ). # indicates significantly different from NPM ( $p<0.05$ ). + indicates significantly different from PML ( $p<0.05$ ). \$ indicates significantly different from NPMS ( $p<0.05$ ). † indicates significantly different from females ( $p<0.05$ ). ¶ indicates significantly different from females with PM ( $p<0.05$ ).

		Preferred music		Non-preferred music		Overall
		Loud (80dB)	Soft (60dB)	Loud (80dB)	Soft (60dB)	
TSAT (s)	M (n=10)	-1.0(0.32)	-0.28(0.41)	-0.42 (0.46)	-0.16(0.42)	-0.18(0.77)
	F (n=10)	-0.83(0.48)	-0.30(0.43)	-0.48(0.38)	-0.1(0.6)	-0.15(0.79)
	Overall	-0.91(0.41) <sup>*#</sup>	-0.24(0.41) <sup>#+</sup>	-0.45(0.41) <sup>*+\$</sup>	-0.1(0.51)	-0.17(0.77)
FSKT-10s (n)	M (n=10)	3.9(1.9)	1.1(2.0)	0.5(1.8)	0.3(1.7)	1.4(2.3)
	F (n=10)	3.1(1.4)	1.7(1.6)	1.2(1.5)	1.5(1.3)	1.9(1.6)
	Overall	3.5(1.7) <sup>*#</sup>	1.4(1.8) <sup>#+</sup>	0.8(1.6) <sup>*+</sup>	0.9(1.6)	1.7(2.0)
FSKT-mult (kicks' number) (n)	M (n=10)	11.8(10.6)	4.5(9.5)	0.7(10.2)	-2.4(7.1)	3.6(10.5)
	F (n=10)	7.8(3.0)	2.7(6.4)	1.7(4.9)	1.6(6.4)	3.4(5.8)
	Overall	9.8(7.8) <sup>*#</sup>	3.6(7.9) <sup>#+\$</sup>	1.2(7.8) <sup>*</sup>	-0.4(6.9) <sup>+</sup>	3.5(8.4)
FSKT-mult (DI) %	M (n=10)	-8.9(2.0) ¶	-3.9(2.3) ¶	-3.1(2.7)	-2.6(3.8)	-4.6(3.7) †
	F (n=10)	-5.9(1.5)	-0.8 (1.5)	-3.5(3.3)	-1.0(1.8)	-2.8(2.9)
	Overall	-7.4(2.3) <sup>*#</sup>	-2.4(2.4) <sup>#+</sup>	-3.3(2.9) <sup>*+</sup>	-1.8(3.0)	-3.7(3.4)

TSAT: taekwondo specific agility test; FSKT-10s: 10s frequency speed of kick test; FSKT-mult: multiple frequency speed of kick test; DI: decrement index; M: male; F: female. PM: Preferred Music- Loud (PML); Preferred Music- Soft (PMS); Non-preferred music- Soft (NPMS); Non-preferred music- Loud (NPML); No music (NM).

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