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## Impact of performing heavy-loaded barbell back squats to volitional failure on lower limb and lumbo-pelvis mechanics in skilled lifters.

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#### 1 **Title**

2 Impact of performing heavy-loaded barbell back squats to volitional exhaustion
3 on lower limb and lumbo-pelvis mechanics in skilled lifters.

4

#### 5 Abstract

6 A common practice in resistance training is to perform sets of exercises at, or 7 close to failure, which can alter movement dynamics. This study examined ankle, 8 knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis dynamics during the barbell back squat under a 9 moderate-heavy load (80% of 1 repetition maximum (1RM)) when performed to 10 failure. Eleven resistance trained males performed three sets to volitional failure. 11 Sagittal plane movement dynamics at the ankle, knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis were 12 examined; specifically, joint moments, joint angles, joint angular velocity, and 13 joint power. The second repetition of the first set and the final repetition of the 14 third set were compared. Results showed that while the joint movements slowed 15 (p < 0.05), the joint ranges-of-motion were not altered There were significant 16 changes in most mean joint moments (p < 0.05), indicating altered joint loading. 17 The knee moment decreased while the hip and lumbo-pelvis moments underwent 18 compensatory increases. At the knee and hip, there were significant decreases (p < p19 (0.05) in concentric power output (p < 0.05). Whilst performing multiple sets to 20 failure altered some joint kinetics, the comparable findings in joint range-of-21 motion suggests that technique was not altered. Therefore, skilled individuals 22 appear to maintain technique when performing to failure.

23

24 **Keywords:** fatigue; squat; strength training; kinetics; kinematics.

#### 25 Introduction

26 The barbell back squat is a compound exercise frequently used to elicit both 27 strength and power gains in the lower body musculature. When strength gains or hypertrophy are desired, a program consisting of heavy loads (85-100% of one-28 29 repetition maximum (1RM)) coupled with a low number of repetitions is 30 recommended (Smilios, Häkkinen, & Tokmakidis, 2010). Conversely, moderate 31 loads (40-60% of 1RM) and a high number of repetitions are employed to 32 optimise muscular endurance and/or power (Farris, Lichtwark, Brown, & 33 Cresswell, 2016). Irrespective of training methods, several sets of exercises are 34 completed close to, or to the point of failure, so as to induce sufficient metabolic 35 and neuromuscular training stimuli (Raeder et al., 2016). While exhaustion is 36 expected when exercising at the completion of such working sets, it can cause 37 changes in movement dynamics and increase the risks of injuries (Vakos, Nitz, 38 Threlkeld, Shapiro, & Horn, 1994; Webster, Austin, Feller, Clark, & McClelland, 39 2015). Thus, it is important for practitioners to understand and identify any 40 compensatory movement patterns when performing resistance exercises to 41 improve potential injury risk detection, reduce injury incidences, and ensure 42 programs are safely and effectively executed.

43 Several studies have reported that mechanical stress significantly alters
44 movement patterns during squatting exercises (Hooper et al., 2014; Hooper et al.,
45 2013; Longpré, Acker, & Maly, 2015; Pick & Becque, 2000; Smilios et al., 2010).
46 However, the majority of these studies have examined squatting mechanics
47 following fatigue-inducing protocols. For example, Longpré and colleagues
48 (2015) reported reductions in knee joint loading and vastus lateralis (VL)
49 electromyographic (EMG) activity during squatting exercises after seated knee

50 flexion and extension exercises. Similarly, Smilios and colleagues (2010)

observed decreases in VL and vastus medialis (VM) EMG activity during the concentric phase, decreases in concentric external work rates (power), and decreases in concentric movement speeds during squatting exercises immediately after performing four sets of 20 repetitions of squats at 50% of 1 RM. While these findings collectively suggest that injury risks may increase during squatting exercise performed after mechanical stress-inducing protocols, work is needed to examine if these changes are also present during working sets.

58 The work of Hooper and colleagues (2014) is one of the few studies that 59 examined how squatting mechanics change over the course of working sets. They 60 examined changes during a pyramid scheme (ten repetitions down to one) against 61 an external load. In the early working sets, they observed a reduction in knee 62 flexion coupled with an increase in the degree of trunk flexion. Accordingly, the 63 performance of multiple sets against an external load, with minimal rest in-64 between, appears to alter squat mechanics, which may have implications for training practice and injury risks (Escamilla, 2001; Potvin, McGill, & Norman, 65 66 1991). While the work by Hooper and colleagues (2014) gives insight into 67 changes that can occur when multiple sets are performed, the resistance exercises were performed at moderate loads (i.e., 75% of 1RM), which is not optimal for 68 69 muscular strength development. A more appropriate protocol is to use a heavier 70 load and perform sets of exercises close to, or to the point of failure (Raeder et al., 71 2016). To the authors' knowledge, no study has examined the mechanics of 72 squatting exercises under a heavy external load typically used to optimise strength 73 development.

| 74 | While previous findings on the impact of mechanical stress on squatting               |
|----|---|
| 75 | dynamics are insightful (Hooper et al., 2014; Hooper et al., 2013; Longpré et al.,    |
| 76 | 2015; Pick & Becque, 2000; Smilios et al., 2010), there are a number of limiting      |
| 77 | factors. For example, knee joint dynamics have been the primary focus of most         |
| 78 | previous studies (Longpré et al., 2015; Pick & Becque, 2000; Smilios et al.,          |
| 79 | 2010), with limited emphasis on other major lower limb joints, such as the ankle      |
| 80 | and hip, and how these contribute to the external work rates. It is possible that     |
| 81 | compensatory changes may take place at other lower limb joints which may              |
| 82 | increase injury risk, particularly during sets performed to, or close, to failure. In |
| 83 | addition, previous work has examined the impact of load on the lumbar                 |
| 84 | kinematics and found that increasing load results in significant increases in         |
| 85 | hyperextension, which in turn increases the compressive stress in the lumbar          |
| 86 | region (Walsh, Quinlan, Stapleton, FitzPatrick, & McCormack, 2007). However,          |
| 87 | the impact that fatigue has on lumbar kinematics and subsequent loading has           |
| 88 | received little attention. Finally, very few studies have examined working sets,      |
| 89 | particularly those performed to failure, with a heavy external load. While            |
| 90 | squatting to failure under a heavy external load (i.e., 85% of 1RM) has been          |
| 91 | reported to alter lower limb dynamics (Pick & Becque, 2000), squatting                |
| 92 | mechanics were only examined following a single set. Understanding the                |
| 93 | dynamics of squatting exercises performed to, or in proximity to, failure under       |
| 94 | moderate-heavy loads across multiple sets is essential as it is common practice for   |
| 95 | muscular strength and hypertrophic development (Raeder et al., 2016). The             |
| 96 | purpose of this present study was to examine how performing multiple sets to          |
| 97 | volitional failure alters ankle, knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis kinetics and kinematics  |
| 98 | under a moderate-heavy load (i.e. 80% 1RM). It was hypothesised that performing       |

- 99 to volitional failure with result in significant alterations to ankle, knee, hip, and
- 100 lumbo-pelvis kinetics and kinematics due to compensatory changes.

#### 101 Materials and methods

#### 102 Participants

103 Eleven resistance-trained adult males (age =  $26.2 \pm 3.8$  yrs; mass =  $82.4 \pm 8.9$  kg; 104 height =  $1.78 \pm 0.08$  m; 1RM =  $138 \pm 19$  kg) participated in this study. An 105 inclusion criteria required participants to be uninjured and capable of squatting 106 one and a half times their body weight for 1RM without the use of lifting aids (i.e. 107 weight belt or knee sleeves). According to an a priori sample size calculation, 108 eleven participants was sufficient to generate a statistical power of 80% with an 109 alpha level at 0.05 based on previously collected data (Hooper et al., 2013; 110 Longpré et al., 2015). Procedures undertaken in this study were approved by the 111 Institutional Human Research Ethics Committee and in accordance with the 112 Declaration of Helsinki. All participants were informed of the potential risks and 113 gave written informed consent at the commencement of their involvement. 114 115 **Procedures** 116 A within-subject repeated measures design was used, consisting of two sessions 117 on two different days. The first session was a familiarisation session and the 118 second was a data collection session. Within both sessions, participants were not 119 permitted to use any lifting aids (i.e. weight lifting shoes, weight belts etc.) and all 120 wore standardised footwear for both sessions.

Within the familiarisation session, participants first undertook a self-selected warm up routine which was noted and standardised across both sessions.

| 123 | Following the warm up, their 1RM was determined. Participants were instructed         |
|-----|---|
| 124 | to squat as deep as possible whilst using their regular technique (i.e., bar          |
| 125 | positioning, stance width, foot rotation, and movement speed) to optimise             |
| 126 | ecological validity (Southwell, Petersen, Beach, & Graham, 2016). Participants        |
| 127 | had 15 minutes recovery following the 1RM test before they completed a single         |
| 128 | set of back squats using 80% of 1RM for as many repetitions as possible               |
| 129 | (AMRAP). The AMRAP test was terminated when a participant could no longer             |
| 130 | lift the load (concentric failure). The AMRAP test was undertaken during the          |
| 131 | familiarisation session to ensure participants became familiar with the stress prior  |
| 132 | to data collection.   |
| 133 | Once participants were fully recovered ( $\geq 2$ days) from the familiarisation      |
| 134 | session, they completed the data collection session. Within this session              |
| 135 | participants performed three AMRAP tests using 80% of their predetermined             |
| 136 | 1RM with two minutes of rest given between each AMRAP test. Two minutes               |
| 137 | was chosen as this has been used previously when examining squatting and              |
| 138 | fatigue (Smilios et al., 2010).   |
| 139 | In the data collection session, participants had retroreflective markers              |
| 140 | (Figure 1) positioned on anatomical landmarks of their lumbar and lower body          |
| 141 | (Besier, Sturnieks, Alderson, & Lloyd, 2003; Crewe, Campbell, Elliott, &              |
| 142 | Alderson, 2013a, 2013b; Vu, Walker, Ball, & Spratford, 2017). Markers were            |
| 143 | placed over the medial and lateral epicondyles, medial and lateral malleoli,          |
| 144 | calcaneus, heads of the first and fifth metatarsals, left and right anterior superior |
| 145 | iliac spines, and left and right posterior superior iliac spines. Marker clusters     |
| 146 | consisting of three markers were affixed to the shank and thigh. Markers were         |
| 147 | also placed over the spinous processes of the first, third, and fifth lumbar          |

| 148 | vertebrae and 5 cm lateral to the second and fourth lumbar vertebrae. These  |
|-----|--|
| 149 | markers were used to define eight rigid segments being lumbar, pelvis, left and  |
| 150 | right thighs, left and right shanks, and left and right feet. Locations of the markers   |
| 151 | were tracked during the AMRAP tests using 10 infra-red Vicon MX-T40S   |
| 152 | cameras (Oxford Metrics, Oxford, UK). The cameras also tracked two makers  |
| 153 | positioned on either end of the barbell which allowed bar movement to be   |
| 154 | measured. Marker data were collected at 250 Hz. Two force plates (AMTI,  |
| 155 | Watertown, US) were used to collect the ground reaction force data acting on each  |
| 156 | foot (one foot per force plate). Force plate data were collected at 1000 Hz. All   |
| 157 | force plate and marker data were collected simultaneously within Vicon Nexus   |
| 158 | v2.6 (Oxford Metrics, Oxford. UK).   |
| 159 |  |
| 160 | ****Figure 1 near here****   |
|     | in figure i near nere i intere |
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| 162 | Data Processing and Analysis.  |

163 Marker trajectory and analogue force plate data were post-processed within Vicon 164 Nexus. All data were filtered using a fourth order low-pass Butterworth filter with 165 a cut-off frequency of 12 Hz, defined following a residual analysis (Winter, 166 2009). Joint kinetics were calculated using a standard inverse dynamics approach previously described in the literature (Besier et al., 2003; Crewe et al., 2013a, 167 168 2013b). 169 To identify if changes in squat mechanics resulted from completing the 170 three AMRAP sets, data from the second repetition of the first AMRAP test were 171 compared with the last repetition of the third AMRAP test (i.e., final AMRAP

test). The second repetition of the first AMRAP test was treated as the baseline
(i.e., non-exhausted state) as opposed to the first repetition to ensure stability
(Legg, Glaister, Cleather, & Goodwin, 2017). The final complete repetition of the
third AMRAP test was the repetition prior to the subject failing to lift the load,
which was indicative of a working set, performed to failure.

177 Sagittal plane dynamics at the ankle, knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis (defined 178 as a segment between L1 and L5 relative to the pelvis) were examined. 179 Specifically, joint moments, joint angles, joint angular velocity, and joint power 180 were examined. Both moments and power were included as previous work has 181 found that different compensations in these measures can occur at different joints 182 (Farris et al., 2016; Flanagan & Salem, 2008). All joint moment and power data 183 were normalised for system load (Legg et al., 2017). Discrete data points were 184 derived from the time-series data of each leg and averaged to allow comparison 185 between the movement in the second repetition of the first AMRAP and last 186 repetition of the third AMRAP. The average moment during the examined 187 repetitions at ankle, knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis joints were determined to assess 188 the joint load. The average moments at the aforementioned joints during the 189 concentric phase were also determined to assess for changes in performance of the 190 movement. The average power and joint angular velocity during the concentric 191 phase at the ankle, knee, and hip were also examined to identify if work 192 contributions changed with fatigue. Average power values were chosen over peak 193 power as this is a better indicator of the amount of mechanical work done and the 194 rate it was done at (Farris et al., 2016). To assess for range of motion changes, 195 peak joint (sagittal plane) and bar displacements (all three planes) were 196 determined. The average bar speed during the concentric phase was also examined

to identify if there was an overall change in the speed of the movement whenfatigued.

#### 199 Statistical Analyses

200 The measure of central tendency and dispersion of each dependent variable was 201 reported as mean ± standard deviation. Normality was assessed using the Shapiro-202 Wilk test with all data found to be normally distributed. Differences in the variables 203 between the two time points were then examined using paired t-tests, with the alpha 204 level set at 0.05. To determine the magnitude of differences between the two time 205 points, effect sizes (ES; Cohen's d) were also computed and classified as trivial (0 206 -0.19), small (0.20 -0.49), moderate (0.50 -0.79), and large ( $\geq 0.80$ ) (Cohen, 207 1988). All statistical analyses were carried out in SPSS v22 (IBM Corp., Armonk, 208 USA).

#### 209 **Results**

210 The average load lifted by the participants during the AMRAP tests was  $110 \pm 15$ 211 kg and the average number of repetitions completed was  $11 \pm 3$  in test one,  $7 \pm 2$ 212 in test two, and  $5 \pm 2$  in test three. Significant difference in mean joint moments 213 were observed at the knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis. At all three of the 214 aforementioned joints, large effects were detected (Table 1; ES = 0.90 - 1.23). 215 The hip and lumbo-pelvis saw significant increases of 0.07 Nm.kg<sup>-1</sup> and 0.14 Nm.kg<sup>-1</sup> respectively. The knee saw a significant decrease of 0.06 Nm.kg<sup>-1</sup>. 216 217 Data for the concentric phase of the squat revealed there were a number of 218 significant differences. Mean moments at the hip and lumbo-pelvis were altered 219 (Table 1; p < 0.05). A moderate effect was detected at the hip (ES = 0.73) where a significant increase of 0.08 Nm.kg<sup>-1</sup> was observed. A moderate effect was also 220

| 221 | detected at the lumbo-pelvis (ES = $0.72$ ) where a significant increase of $0.16$           |
|-----|--|
| 222 | Nm.kg <sup>-1</sup> was observed. For work rates, only power output at the knee and hip      |
| 223 | were altered (Table 1; $p < 0.05$ ). A large effect (ES = 1.67) was detected in the          |
| 224 | mean hip concentric power output where a significant decrease of 0.15 Watts.kg <sup>-1</sup> |
| 225 | was observed. A large effect was also detected in the mean knee concentric power             |
| 226 | output where a significant decrease of 0.34 Watts.kg <sup>-1</sup> was observed.             |

227 \*\*\*\*Table 1 near here\*\*\*\*

228 There were no significant differences in the range of motion at any joint 229 (Table 1; p > 0.05) or in the barbell range of motion (Table 2; p > 0.05). While 230 ranges of motion were not significantly altered, there were significant differences 231 in joint angular velocities and in the speed of barbell movement during the 232 concentric phase. Differences in mean joint angular velocity were observed at the 233 hip, knee, and ankle (Table 1; p < 0.05). Large effects were detected at all three joints (ES = 1.14 - 1.35) where significant decreases of 0.30 rad.s<sup>-1</sup>, 0.44 rad.s<sup>-1</sup>, 234 235 and 0.14 rad.s<sup>-1</sup> were observed at the hip, knee, and ankle respectively. For the 236 barbell movement, a large effect was detected in concentric speed (ES = 1.05) where a significant (Table 2; p < 0.05) decrease of 0.18 m.s<sup>-1</sup> was observed. 237

238 \*\*\*\*Table 2 near here\*\*\*\*

#### 239 **Discussion**

The aim of this study was to examine the impact of performing heavy back squats (i.e., 80% of 1RM) to failure across multiple sets on squatting dynamics amongst experienced lifters. As has been the case with previous studies that have examined squatting during mechanical stress, performing a back squat exercise to failure across multiple sets significantly altered the movement dynamics of a back squat exercise, possibly due to fatigue. In the current study, dynamics within the final repetition of the third AMRAP were significantly altered at the ankle, knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis, with a reduction in barbell movement speed, suggesting that compensatory changes occurred. Overall, the findings suggest that some aspects of biomechanical movement patterns during a back squat are altered when undertaken to failure across multiple working sets.

251 The inability to maintain the barbell movement speed, was not surprising 252 as there were also significant decreases in the angular velocity at the ankle, knee, 253 and hip. Furthermore, others have also observed reductions in movement speed 254 across multiple sets of back squats (Smilios et al., 2010). Given there were 255 significant decreases in joint angular velocity it is not surprising decreases in joint 256 power outputs were also observed as power is the product of the joint's angular 257 velocity and moment (Winter, 2009). Smilios and colleagues (2010) have also 258 observed significant changes to power output with fatigue. In the present study, 259 reductions in power outputs at the knee and hip during the concentric phase were 260 observed. At the knee this was also coupled with a small decrease in mean 261 concentric moment which further explains the reduction in the knee power output. 262 Interestingly however, at the hip the mean concentric moment increased with 263 fatigue indicating that the decrease in joint angular velocity had a larger impact on 264 the power output at the hip than the moment. The increase in hip moment suggests 265 that the hip extensors supersede that of the knee extensors as individuals reach 266 failure across multiple sets during the concentric phase. These biomechanical 267 changes should be considered when prescribing back squat exercises to failure, 268 particularly for individuals prone to hip injuries, or those returning from injuries.

269 For this cohort, there were significant differences in mean joint moments 270 observed at the knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis at the conclusion of the third 271 AMRAP, indicating that joint loading was altered. A decrease in knee loading was 272 detected which is in line with the work by Longpré and colleagues (2015) who 273 observed reductions to knee moments during lunging and squatting following a 274 fatiguing protocol. In this current study, the decrease in loading at the knee was 275 coupled with an increase in loading at the hip. This suggests that as the 276 participants fatigued, there may have been a compensatory change undertaken by 277 the musculature surrounding the hip. Changes in muscle activation within these 278 muscles have been observed in the work of others. In a previous study that 279 examined changes during a single set to failure, Pick and Becque (2000) reported 280 that the quadriceps muscle activation was at its greatest in the final repetitions 281 prior to failure. Based on these findings, Pick and Becque (2000) highlighted the 282 importance of prescribing repetition ranges that are at, or close to, to elicit 283 sufficient levels of muscle activation for optimal strength adaptation. While this 284 previous study highlights the importance of including sets performed to failure 285 from a muscle adaptation perspective, it does not examine whether performing 286 this type of activity in training could significantly alter an individual's movement 287 dynamics and impact on injury risk. The results surrounding the mean moments in 288 the current study gives insight into this.

Although joint loading was altered, there was no compromise in the range of motion of the lower limb joints. This finding is of particular importance in the lumbar region as any altered range of motion at this site may result in a loss of spinal stability, thereby increasing injury risk (Schoenfeld, 2010). While the range of motion in the lumbar region remained comparable, there was an increase in

294 lumbo-pelvis loading. This suggests that when approaching failure, greater 295 stabilisation was required from the musculature in this region to maintain posture, 296 which may have implications for injury risks. Thus, practitioners should 297 encourage their athletes to rely on their task-intrinsic cues (e.g., kinaesthetic 298 feedback) during back squats to failure, as visual feedback would be insufficient 299 to detect kinetic alterations in the lumbar region with unaltered kinematics. 300 As noted above, the lower limb joint ranges of motion at the end of the 301 third AMRAP were comparable with those observed at the start of the first 302 AMRAP. These findings indicate that the participants were consistent with their 303 technique, despite potential attenuation in muscular contractility, and 304 compensatory movements were not induced which can put an individual at an 305 increased injury risk and limit the effectiveness of the exercise (Escamilla, 2001). 306 The non-significant change in joint range of motion conflicts with the findings of 307 others who have examined the impact of fatigue within cohorts skilled in 308 squatting exercises. Hooper and colleagues (2013) observed that fatigue caused a 309 reduction in range of motion at the knee and hip however it should be noted that 310 they examined body weight squats before and after an extreme fatiguing protocol 311 whereas loaded squats were examined in the present study. In subsequent work by 312 Hooper and colleagues (2014), they expanded their investigation to examine how 313 the joint range of motion changed during the squatting component of a fatiguing 314 protocol which consisted of back squats, deadlifts, and bench presses using 75% 315 of 1RM. This work found there was less motion at the knee and a greater degree 316 of trunk flexion at the start of the protocol and suggested this was a demonstration 317 of self-preservation by their participants. This pattern of self-preservation was not 318 observed in the present study, possibly due to the fact that only squats were

319 performed while the fatiguing protocol of the aforementioned study consisted of 320 back squats, deadlifts, and bench presses. The technique changed observed by 321 Hooper and colleagues (2014) are detrimental, due to the reduced knee flexion 322 resulting in less muscle activity and the increased trunk flexion resulting in altered 323 lumbar loading. The findings of this present study however, suggest that 324 performing multiple sets to volitional failure does not appear to alter technique in 325 the same way.

326 There are a number of limitations that should be considered within this 327 study. A highly skilled cohort was examined, and thus findings may not be 328 inferred to individuals with less experience in resistance training. While this can 329 be seen as a limitation, the findings are highly applicable to practitioners who 330 work with skilled individuals. In addition, the squatting mechanics were examined 331 using a single load of 80% of 1RM. It would be beneficial to examine if dynamics 332 are changed by incorporating varying loads. Future work could also consider 333 examining mechanics throughout the entire working set to identify when 334 technique alterations specifically occur.

#### 335 Conclusion

The findings of this study indicate that, for experienced lifters, performing multiple sets to volitional failure results in some compensatory changes that could lead to increases in injury risk. Specifically, loading at the knee, hip, and lumbopelvis were altered. A reduction in the mean moment was observed at the knee while increases were observed at the hip and lumbo-pelvis. The increase at the hip may be a compensatory change due to the change at the knee while the increase at the lumbo-pelvis loading may lead to an increase the risk of injury and should be

343 considered when prescribing repetition ranges.

| 344 | While the speed of the movement was reduced at the conclusion of the                |
|-----|---|
| 345 | third set, there were no significant decreases in the joint range of motion which   |
| 346 | indicates that these individuals were not compromising squat depth. This is         |
| 347 | important from a strength development standpoint as a reduction in range of         |
| 348 | motion would result in less muscle activity (Escamilla, 2001). The reduction in     |
| 349 | movement speed was coupled with reductions in power output at both the knee         |
| 350 | and hip. This suggests that if practitioners are designating programs where power   |
| 351 | is of importance, then consideration should be given as to whether later working    |
| 352 | sets should be performed to volitional failure.                                     |
| 353 | Future work should expand on this study to assess if the changes                    |
| 354 | observed here are also observed when different loads are used and between           |
| 355 | differing skill levels.   |
| 356 |   |
| 357 | Disclosure statement  |
| 358 | The authors report no conflict of interest.   |
| 359 |   |
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### TABLES

Table 1. Mean (±SD) of the magnitudes of the analysed joint variables in the second and final repetitions of the AMRAP test.

|  | Second repetition |                |             |              | Final repetition |                |              |              |
|--|-------------------|----------------|-------------|--------------|------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|
|  | Joint             |                |             |              | Joint            |                |              |              |
| Variable   | Hip               | Knee           | Ankle       | Lumbo-pelvis | Hip              | Knee           | Ankle        | Lumbo-pelvis |
| Mean moment (Nm.kg <sup>-1</sup> ) ABC                                 | 0.74 (0.09)       | 0.76 (0.12)    | 0.21 (0.10) | 1.70 (0.14)  | 0.81 (0.12)      | 0.70 (0.11)    | 0.27 (0.10)  | 1.84 (0.15)  |
| Mean concentric moment (Nm.kg <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>DE</sup>            | 0.76 (0.12)       | 0.69 (0.13)    | 0.23 (0.14) | 1.76 (0.22)  | 0.84 (0.14)      | 0.62 (0.15)    | 0.29 (0.13)  | 1.92 (0.18)  |
| Mean concentric angular velocity (rad.s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>FGH</sup> | 1.09 (0.08)       | 1.50 (0.25)    | 0.47 (0.09) | -            | 0.79 (0.24)      | 1.06 (0.30)    | 0.33 (0.12)  | -            |
| Mean concentric power (Watts. kg <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>IJ</sup>         | 0.62 (0.10)       | 0.89 (0.20)    | 0.11 (0.07) | -            | 0.47 (0.13)      | 0.55 (0.15)    | 0.10 (0.05)  | -            |
| Peak angle (°)   | 107.34 (9.90)     | 124.36 (15.88) | 37.2 (8.23) | 18.60 (4.82) | 110.03 (13.97)   | 127.59 (18.43) | 38.50 (7.20) | 18.98 (5.83) |

<sup>A</sup> Significant increase in mean moment at the hip (p = 0.01; ES = 1.08)

<sup>B</sup> Significant decrease in mean moment at the knee (p = 0.02; ES = 0.90)

<sup>C</sup> Significant increase in mean moment at the lumbo-pelvis (p = 0.00; ES = 1.23)

<sup>D</sup> Significant increase in mean concentric moment at the hip (p = 0.046; ES = 0.73)

<sup>E</sup> Significant increase in mean concentric moment at the lumbo-pelvis (p = 0.049; ES = 0.72)

<sup>F</sup> Significant decrease in mean concentric angular velocity at the hip (p = 0.00; ES = 1.35)

<sup>G</sup> Significant decrease in mean concentric angular velocity at the knee (p = 0.00; ES = 1.26)

<sup>H</sup> Significant decrease in mean concentric angular velocity at the ankle (p = 0.00; ES = 1.14)

<sup>I</sup> Significant decrease in mean concentric power at the hip (p = 0.00; ES = 1.67)

<sup>J</sup> Significant decrease in mean concentric power at the knee (p = 0.00; ES = 1.50)

Table 2. Mean (±SD) of the magnitudes barbell displacement and velocity in the second and final repetitions of the AMRAP test.

|  | Second repetition | Final repetition |
|--|-------------------|------------------|
| Vertical displacement (m)                                  | 0.60 (0.08)       | 0.57 (0.15)      |
| Antero-posterior displacement (m)                          | 0.06 (0.17)       | 0.08 (0.05)      |
| Medio-lateral displacement (m)                             | 0.02 (0.01)       | 0.03 (0.01)      |
| Mean concentric velocity (m.s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>A</sup> | 0.48 (0.06)       | 0.30 (0.13)      |

<sup>A</sup>Significant decrease in mean barbell velocity during the concentric phase (p = 0.00; d = 1.50)

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#### FIGURE LIST

Figure 1. Retro-reflective marker set used to define the body as eight rigid segments being lumbar, pelvis, left and right thighs, left and right shanks, and left and right feet. Sagittal plane movement dynamics at the ankle, knee, hip, and lumbo-pelvis were derived from the three-dimensional marker data. Note: some additional markers there are not defined in the text are visible but were not used for any calculations.