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4 **DECONSTRUCTING THE POWER-RESISTANCE RELATIONSHIP FOR SQUATS:**  
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6 **A JOINT-LEVEL ANALYSIS**  
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28 Running Title: **Joint-level Power-Resistance in Squatting**  
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3 **1 ABSTRACT**  
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6 2 Generating high leg power outputs is important for executing rapid movements. Squats are  
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8 3 commonly used to increase leg strength and power. Therefore, it is useful to understand  
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10 4 factors affecting power output in squatting. We aimed to deconstruct the mechanisms behind  
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12 5 why power is maximised at certain resistances in squatting. Ten male rowers (age =  $20 \pm 2.2$   
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14 6 years; height =  $1.82 \pm 0.03$  m; mass =  $86 \pm 11$  kg) performed maximal power squats with  
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16 7 resistances ranging from body weight to 80% of their one repetition maximum (1RM). Three-  
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18 8 dimensional kinematics were combined with ground reaction force (GRF) data in an inverse  
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20 9 dynamics analysis to calculate leg joint moments and powers. System centre of mass (COM)  
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22 10 velocity and power were computed from GRF data. COM power was maximised across a  
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24 11 range of resistances from 40-60% 1RM. This range was identified because a trade-off in hip  
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26 12 and knee joint powers existed across this range, with maximal knee joint power occurring at  
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28 13 40% 1RM and maximal hip joint power at 60% 1RM. A quasi-linear system force-velocity  
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30 14 relationship was observed that dictated large reductions in COM power below 20% 1RM and  
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32 15 above 60% 1RM. These reductions were due to constraints on the control of the movement.  
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38 **16 Keywords:** Joint power; Weightlifting; Biomechanics; Force-Velocity.  
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## 17 INTRODUCTION

18 Developing greater capacity for muscular power output is often a key goal of athletic training  
19 and rehabilitation programmes. Typically, a part of this programme will include resistance  
20 training in the form of weightlifting exercises. It has been reported that to achieve the greatest  
21 improvements in muscular power output, the training task should be performed against the  
22 resistance that maximises power output (Cormie et al. 2011). Therefore it is desirable to  
23 know what level of resistance will result in maximal power production and as a result, this  
24 topic has received considerable attention in the literature. However, existing studies have  
25 produced greatly varied results, reporting maximal power production to occur anywhere  
26 between 0 and 60% of one-repetition maximum (1RM) dependent on the exercise (Baker et  
27 al. 2001; Cormie et al. 2007).

28 In terms of lower limb exercises, the most prevalently studied in the literature are the squat,  
29 jump squat and leg press, with maximal system (body plus added mass) power being  
30 developed at low resistances for the jump squat and higher resistances for the squat that are  
31 typically near 50-60% of 1RM (Cormie et al. 2007; Bevan et al. 2010). However, peak  
32 system power for the optimal resistance in these studies was not significantly different from  
33 peak system power for a large range of resistances surrounding the optimum. This indicates  
34 that there is actually a broad range of resistances over which maximal system power can be  
35 attained. It has been shown that this range of resistances for maximal power production is  
36 dictated by a trade-off in the resultant velocity of the system and net external forces acting on  
37 the system (Cormie et al. 2007). An individual's maximum external force, velocity and power  
38 generating capacity are all important in determining vertical squat jump performance  
39 (Yamauchi & Ishii 2007). Furthermore, Samozino and colleagues (2012) highlighted that, in  
40 addition to maximal power generating capacity of the leg, the slope of the leg extension  
41 force-velocity relationship was important in dictating what external load resulted in maximal

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3 42 power output during ballistic leg extension. However, these velocities and forces only  
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5 43 represent the overall net effect of all muscles that are acting in a coordinated fashion through  
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7 44 multiple joints to effect the movement. Although total system power reflects the sum total of  
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9 45 joint powers well for squats (Moir et al. 2012), maximal power for coordinated multi-joint  
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11 46 dynamic tasks such as leg extension is likely constrained by coordination rather than  
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13 47 simultaneously maximising power output of all contributing muscles and at all lower limb  
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15 48 joints (Wakeling et al. 2010). Therefore, the resistance at which system power is maximised  
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17 49 may not reflect the resistance at which each lower limb joint power output or individual  
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19 50 muscle power output is maximised. It has been shown through experiments and simulations  
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21 51 that for isometric and concentric leg pressing, magnitudes of individual joint torques are not  
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23 52 always correlated with that of external limb force (Hahn 2011) and that external force-  
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25 53 velocity relationships are not reflective of joint or muscle-level force-velocity relationships  
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27 54 (Bobbert 2012; Hahn et al. 2014). Breaking down squatting mechanics to a joint level could  
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29 55 reveal more about the mechanisms underpinning the optimal resistance for power production  
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31 56 and elicit why a singular optimal resistance has not been clearly identified. Furthermore,  
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33 57 understanding joint level power-resistance relationships may facilitate more tailored sport-  
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35 58 specific power-based training programmes and improve our understanding of the efficacy of  
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37 59 such programmes.  
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44 60 Flanagan and Salem (2008) quantified lower limb net joint moments and the work done by  
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46 61 those moments during back squats with varied resistance, but without the aim of maximising  
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48 62 power. These authors showed that the proportion of total work contributed at each joint  
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50 63 varied with level of resistance. As added weight increased, a greater proportion of work was  
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52 64 provided at the hip with a lesser contribution at the knee. The contribution of the ankle was  
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54 65 never more than 10%. For jump squats, Moir et al. (2012) and Jandacka et al. (2014) have  
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56 66 both shown that maximal system power is achieved at a different resistance from individual  
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3 67 joint powers. This highlights that the relationship between total work or power output and  
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5 68 external resistance is not necessarily constrained by the force-velocity properties of lower  
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7 69 limb muscles, but is also influenced by a control strategy that changes with the external  
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9 70 resistance. Therefore, it is important to investigate the contributions made at individual lower  
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11 71 limb joints to power output during maximal power squatting to explain the relationship  
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14 72 between resistance and system power output.

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17 73 The aim of this study was to understand trends in mechanical power output during weighted  
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19 74 back squats performed over a range of resistances by breaking it down to the level of  
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21 75 individual lower limb joint mechanics in order to provide new insights into power-based  
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23 76 resistance training methods. We hypothesised that total power output would be maximised  
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25 77 over a broad range of intermediate resistances, surrounding 50% 1RM. Furthermore, we  
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27 78 hypothesised that this broad range of optimal resistances would be a result of hip and knee  
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29 79 joint powers being maximised at different resistances from one another - knee power at lower  
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31 80 resistances and hip power at higher resistances.

## 32 33 34 35 81 **MATERIALS & METHODS**

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38 82 **Participants & Protocol** - Ten male sub-elite rowers (mean age =  $20 \pm 2.2$  years; height =  
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40 83  $1.82 \pm 0.03$  m; mass =  $86 \pm 11$  kg) experienced in performing weighted back-squats  
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42 84 participated in the study. A strength and conditioning professional had assessed all  
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44 85 participants' three-repetition maximum (3RM) no more than one month prior to their  
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46 86 participation. Each participant gave written informed consent and an institutional ethics  
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48 87 committee approved the study. Participants' 1RM was estimated as their 3RM multiplied by  
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50 88 1.08 (Baker et al. 2001) and they refrained from high intensity exercise for the 24-hours  
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52 89 preceding data collection. Prior to commencing the protocol, participants performed a warm  
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54 90 up on a bicycle ergometer and two warm up back squat sets at a weight of their choosing, all

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3 91 supervised by their coach. The participants then performed two sets of three back squats with  
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5 92 0, 20, 40, 60 and 80% of their 1RM using an Olympic barbell and additional weights as  
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7 93 necessary. The 0% condition was body weight only and performed with the arms raised as if  
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9 94 holding the barbell. All squats were performed with a depth that corresponded to a knee angle  
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11 95 of 90° and five minutes rest was allowed between sets to avoid fatigue, although most sets  
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13 96 were performed at resistances unlikely to cause neuromuscular fatigue responses (Brandon et  
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15 97 al. in press). Participants lowered to the height of a horizontally oriented wooden pole that  
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17 98 they could feel touch their buttocks but would not support any weight. The height of the pole  
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19 99 was set prior to testing by having participants squat to an internal knee angle of 90 degrees  
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21 100 (shank relative to thigh), measured with a manual goniometer. For the experimental squats,  
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23 101 participants lowered at a steady controlled speed then were instructed to hold their position at  
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25 102 the bottom of the squat for two seconds prior to maximising velocity (and therefore power)  
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27 103 during the upward phase of the movement. However, participants were not permitted to lose  
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29 104 contact with the ground at the end of extension so as to keep a comparable movement across  
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31 105 all resistances.  
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37 106 **Data Collection & Processing** - An eight-camera motion capture system (Oqus, Qualisys,  
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39 107 Sweden) sampling at 200 Hz was used to record three-dimensional positions of thirty-seven  
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41 108 reflective markers attached to the lower limbs and pelvis of each participant. Marker  
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43 109 positions were used to generate the kinematics for a seven-segment rigid body model of the  
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45 110 lower limbs and pelvis (feet, shanks, thighs and pelvis). The lower limb model developed by  
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47 111 Arnold et al. (2010) was used in OpenSim software v3.0 (Delp et al. 2007). The model was  
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49 112 calibrated using static and dynamic calibration trials. In the static trial participants stood in a  
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51 113 comfortable stance with hands on hips and the same pose was adopted for the dynamic trial  
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53 114 where the participant performed several pelvic rotations that utilised the full range of  
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55 115 circumduction at the hip joints. The dynamic trial was used to compute the location of  
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3 116 functional hip joint centres in Visual 3D software (C-Motion Inc., USA) using an adaptation  
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5 117 of the methods of Schwartz and Rozumalski (2005). Static trials were used to scale the  
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7 118 generic **skeletal** model and generate an individually scaled model for each participant. This  
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9 119 scaling was based on pairs of calibration markers on each segment. A scale factor for each  
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11 120 segment was calculated as the distance between two calibration markers on that segment on  
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13 121 the participant divided by the distance between the same markers on the generic model. The  
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15 122 pelvis was scaled based on the distances between markers placed on the left and right  
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17 123 anterior-superior iliac spines and the posterior superior iliac spines. An additional marker on  
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19 124 the sacrum was used in addition to these markers to track the orientation of the pelvis during  
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21 125 subsequent trials. The distances between the calculated hip joint centres and markers placed  
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23 126 on the lateral and medial aspects of the knee joint line were used to scale the femurs. For the  
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25 127 shank, the distance between the knee joint markers and markers on the medial and lateral  
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27 128 malleoli were used. The feet were scaled by the distance between markers on the calcanei and  
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29 129 distal phalanxes of the second toes. Segment masses were scaled to sum to the mass of the  
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31 130 participant's lower body (61% total body mass) and keep the distribution of mass among  
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33 131 segments the same as is in the generic model. To track segment motion during squatting  
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35 132 trials, rigid clusters of four markers were taped securely to the lateral aspect of participants  
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37 133 thighs and shanks, and additional markers at the first and fifth metatarsal-phalangeal joints  
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39 134 were added to the foot to supplement the calibration markers. Participants wore tight-fitting  
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41 135 spandex shorts to minimise cluster motion relative to the thigh segment.  
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48 136 The scaled model for each participant was used in an inverse kinematics analysis in OpenSim  
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50 137 software v3.0 (Delp et al. 2007) using filtered three-dimensional marker positions recorded  
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52 138 during squatting trials. The filter was a second order low-pass Butterworth digital filter with a  
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54 139 cut-off of 10 Hz. Inverse kinematics analysis allows instantaneous joint angles for the ankle,  
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56 140 knee and hip to be computed at each point in time. Half of the squat trials at each resistance  
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3 141 were performed with only the right foot in contact with an in-ground force platform (OR6-5-  
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5 142 2000, AMTI, USA). For these trials we combined the model kinematics with measured  
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7 143 ground reaction force (GRF) data (sampled at 2000 Hz) in an inverse dynamics analysis to  
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9 144 compute net muscle moments at the ankle, knee and hip joints of the right leg. These  
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11 145 moments were multiplied by joint velocities (the first derivative of joint angles) to obtain  
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13 146 instantaneous joint powers for the ankle, knee and hip. Positive joint moments and powers  
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15 147 represent moments acting to extend the joint and work being done to extend the joint. For the  
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17 148 other half of the squat trials, participants had both feet in contact with the force platform.  
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19 149 These trials were used to calculate system centre of mass (COM) velocity and power via the  
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21 150 following steps. First, system weight was subtracted from the vertical component of GRF to  
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23 151 determine net GRF. The net GRF was divided by system mass to determine system  
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25 152 acceleration. Acceleration was then integrated to calculate system COM velocity, and power  
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27 153 was calculated as the dot product of COM velocity and GRF. Prior to any inverse dynamic  
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29 154 analyses or COM power calculations, GRF data were filtered with a second order low-pass  
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31 155 Butterworth digital filter with a cut-off of 25 Hz.  
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37 **Data Reduction & Statistics** - All further analyses were conducted on data from the onset of  
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39 157 upward motion (detected as onset of positive vertical velocity of the sacral marker) to the end  
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41 158 of the upward motion (detected as the end of positive vertical velocity of the sacral marker)  
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43 159 and this will be referred to as upward motion from hereafter. During upward motion we  
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45 160 calculated the average velocity ( $\bar{v}$ ), moment ( $\bar{M}$ ) and power ( $\bar{P}$ ) at the ankle knee and hip  
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47 161 joints as the integral of the respective instantaneous signals, divided by the time taken  
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49 162 [similar to the methods of Farris and Sawicki (2012; 2012)]. Peak positive joint velocity  
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51 163 ( $v_{pk}$ ) moment ( $M_{pk}$ ) and power ( $P_{pk}$ ) were also calculated during upward motion. For trials  
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53 164 where COM power was computed, average and peak velocities, GRF and powers were  
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55 165 computed similarly. Normalised values for most metrics were computed by division by body  
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3 166 mass and are reported in units per kilogram. All metrics were averaged within each resistance  
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5 167 to provide group means and standard deviations. To test for statistical differences in COM  
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7 168 metrics between resistances, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA and a Bonferroni  
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9 169 adjustment was employed with the alpha level set to  $P \leq 0.05$ . For joint metrics a two-way  
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11 170 (joint x resistance) repeated measures ANOVA with a Bonferroni adjustment was used.  
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14 171 Where a significant main effect was detected for a variable, Tukey's post-hoc test was used to  
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16 172 elicit between which pairs of resistances and joints significant differences existed. All  
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18 173 hypothesis testing was performed in Prism software v6.0 (GraphPad Software Inc.).  
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## 21 174 RESULTS

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24 175 **COM mechanics** - There was a significant ( $F = 20.9$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) main effect of resistance  
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26 176 on average COM power ( $\bar{P}_{COM}$ ).  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) greater at resistances of  
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28 177 20, 40 and 60% 1RM than for 0% and 80% 1RM resistances (Figure 1A). However, the 20,  
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30 178 40 and 60% conditions were not significantly different from one another ( $P > 0.05$ ),  
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32 179 indicating a broad range of resistances (20-60% 1RM) over which  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was maximised.  
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34 180 When  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was plotted against average COM velocity ( $\bar{v}_{COM}$ ) for each resistance (Figure  
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36 181 1B),  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was greatest at resistances that produced intermediate velocities (20-40% 1RM).  
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38 182 Notably, when moving from 20% to 0% 1RM and from 60% to 80% 1RM, there were large  
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40 183 reductions in  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  (Figure 1B). Average vertical GRF ( $\bar{F}_{GRFz}$ ) decreased with increasing  
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42 184  $\bar{v}_{COM}$  in non-linear fashion especially at the extremes of resistance values, where the  
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44 185 relationship deviated most from the linear fit provided for comparison (Figure 1B).  
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50 186 **Average Joint powers** - The two-way ANOVA results indicated a significant effect of  
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52 187 resistance ( $F = 8.3$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ), joint ( $F = 97.3$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) and their interaction ( $F = 21.9$ ,  $P$   
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54 188  $< 0.0001$ ) on  $\bar{P}$ . Average ankle power output ( $\bar{P}_A$ ) was the smallest contributor to total  $\bar{P}$  at all  
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56 189 resistances, never providing more than 16% (Figure 2A). The magnitude of  $\bar{P}_A$  was  
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3 190 significantly greater ( $P < 0.05$ ) at 40, 60 and 80% 1RM resistances than at 0%. The  
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5 191 magnitude of knee joint average power output ( $\bar{P}_K$ ) exhibited a significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) decline  
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7 192 as resistance increased above 20% 1RM (Figure 2A). Furthermore, the knee joint contributed  
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9 193 50% of the total power output at the 20% 1RM resistance but only 34% at a resistance of  
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11 194 80% 1RM. Conversely, hip joint average power output ( $\bar{P}_H$ ) significantly increased as  
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13 195 resistance increased from 20% to 40% 1RM and reached a maximum at 60% 1RM before  
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15 196 falling again at 80% 1RM (Figure 2A). This meant that  $\bar{P}_H$  contributed a greater proportion of  
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17 197 total power at high resistances.

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21 198 **Average Joint moments** - The two-way ANOVA results indicated a significant effect of  
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23 199 resistance ( $F = 220.8$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ), joint ( $F = 29.7$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) and the interaction ( $F = 23.4$ ,  
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25 200  $P < 0.0001$ ) on  $\bar{M}$ . Average ankle moment ( $\bar{M}_A$ ) and average hip moment ( $\bar{M}_H$ ) increased  
26  
27 201 significantly ( $P < 0.01$ ) with each increment in resistance, excepting the final increment (60-  
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29 202 80% 1RM) for  $\bar{M}_A$  (Figure 2B). The average knee moment ( $\bar{M}_K$ ) significantly increased from  
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31 203 0-20% 1RM but did not significantly increase for subsequent increments in resistance (Figure  
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33 204 2B).

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38 205 **Average Joint velocities** - The two-way ANOVA results indicated a significant effect of  
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40 206 resistance ( $F = 28.7$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) and joint ( $F = 176.4$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) but no interaction ( $F = 1.5$ ,  
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42 207  $P = 0.18$ ) on  $\bar{v}$ . Average ankle, knee and hip joint velocities ( $\bar{v}_A$ ,  $\bar{v}_K$ ,  $\bar{v}_H$ ) all significantly ( $P <$   
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44 208  $0.0001$ ) declined with each increment in resistance (Figure 2C).

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48 209 **Peak powers** - COM  $P_{pk}$  was significantly affected by resistance ( $F = 23.0$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ),  
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50 210 increasing with each increment in resistance up to 40% 1RM, after which it did not  
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52 211 significantly change despite trending to a reduction at 80% 1RM (Figure 3). For joint  $P_{pk}$   
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54 212 there was a significant effect of resistance ( $F = 11.7$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ), joint ( $F = 61.1$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ )  
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56 213 and their interaction ( $F = 9.6$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). Ankle  $P_{pk}$  increased from 0-40% 1RM ( $P < 0.05$ )  
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3 214 but did not significantly increase for any further increments in resistance (Figure 3). There  
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5 215 was a significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) reduction observed in knee  $P_{pk}$  between the 0% 1RM and 80%  
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7 216 1RM resistances (Figure 3). Hip  $P_{pk}$  increased significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) from 0% 1RM  
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9 217 resistance to 20% 1RM but did not increase with further resistance increments (Figure 3).

## 13 218 **DISCUSSION**

16 219 This study sought to explain trends in system power output with varied resistance during  
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18 220 weighted back squats by analysing joint level mechanics. Our first hypothesis was that a  
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20 221 broad range of resistances surrounding 50% 1RM would provide equivocal maximal powers.  
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22 222 This was supported as  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was maximised for resistances from 20-60% 1RM. We also  
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24 223 hypothesised that this broad range would be observed because knee and hip joint powers  
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26 224 would be maximised at different resistances from one another. This was supported by our  
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28 225 observation of an apparent trade-off between  $\bar{P}_H$  and  $\bar{P}_K$  across the range of resistances from  
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30 226 20-60% 1RM.

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34 227 **Joint powers** - The trade-off between contributions at the hip and knee to overall power was  
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36 228 evidenced by distinctly different trends in  $\bar{P}_K$  and  $\bar{P}_H$  with varying resistance.  $\bar{P}_H$  was greatest  
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38 229 at 60% 1RM with a significant decrease in power occurring if the resistance was increased or  
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40 230 decreased from 60% (Figure 2A). However,  $\bar{P}_K$  was greatest at 20% 1RM and was less at  
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42 231 greater resistances. The respective maximum values of  $\bar{P}_K$  and  $\bar{P}_H$  were similar in magnitude  
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44 232 and from Figure 2A it can be seen that the trends of  $\bar{P}_K$  and  $\bar{P}_H$  across different resistances are  
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46 233 almost a mirror image of one another. This explains the broad range of resistances over  
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48 234 which  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was maximised. At the lower end of this maximal range (20% 1RM)  $\bar{P}_K$  was  
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50 235 maximised, but  $\bar{P}_H$  was significantly below its maximum. The exact opposite was true for the  
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52 236 upper end of the range (60% 1RM) and at the intermediate resistance (40%) where both  $\bar{P}_K$   
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54 237 and  $\bar{P}_H$  were less than maximal but summed to a similar total power as at 20% and 60%  
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3 238 1RM. Thus, the broad range of resistances over which  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was maximised was dictated by a  
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5 239 trade-off between  $\bar{P}_K$  and  $\bar{P}_H$ .  $\bar{P}_A$  made such a minimal contribution to total power that we  
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7 240 considered it insignificant in this part of the discussion.  
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10 241 **Force and velocity** - While joint powers provide descriptive insight into the observed trends  
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12 242 in  $\bar{P}_{COM}$ , to gain insight into the underlying mechanisms we also reported forces, joint  
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14 243 moments and velocities. The force-velocity relations that exist for isolated skeletal muscle  
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16 244 were documented some time ago (Fenn & Marsh 1935; Hill 1938). An exponential decay in  
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18 245 force with increasing velocity was described by Hill's (1938) hyperbolic equation and this  
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20 246 relation results in a maximal power output at approximately one-third of maximal shortening  
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22 247 velocity. However, experiments that have characterised the external or joint force-velocity  
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24 248 relationships in multi-joint tasks such as leg extension generally report a quasi-linear force-  
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26 249 velocity relationship at the system or joint level (Perrine & Edgerton 1978; Rahmani et al.  
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28 250 2001; Macaluso & De Vito 2003; Pearson et al. 2004; Bobbert 2012) although Hahn et al.  
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30 251 (2014) showed that a linear fit underestimated maximum joint velocity. In our data, we  
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32 252 observed a system-level force-velocity relation for squatting that deviated from a linear fit  
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34 253 and was not hyperbolic (Figure 1B). The most notable deviations of this trend from linear and  
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36 254 hyperbolic relationships were at the extremes of the resistances tested. This indicates that leg  
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38 255 extension powers were limited at these resistances by factors other than the maximal force-  
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40 256 velocity properties at the level of muscle or the system.  
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47 257 For the change in  $\bar{F}_{GRFz}$  that occurs between 60 and 80% 1RM,  $\bar{v}_{COM}$  was decreasing to its  
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49 258 lowest value. If the only constraint on force production was that dictated by the force-velocity  
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51 259 relation of muscle we would expect  $\bar{F}_{GRFz}$  to increase exponentially with decreasing velocity.  
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53 260 However, this was not the case as an increase in  $\bar{F}_{GRFz}$  that was even slightly less than linear,  
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55 261 (as might be expected at the whole-limb level) was observed between 60 and 80% 1RM  
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3 262 (Figure 1B). At this time,  $\bar{M}_H$  was significantly increasing with each increment in resistance  
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5 263 (Figure 2B) and so did not appear to indicate any constraints on muscle force or joint torque  
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7 264 production. However,  $\bar{M}_K$  did not significantly increase for any increments in resistance  
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9 265 above 20% 1RM. Potentially this suggests an inability to produce a greater knee extensor  
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11 266 moment at high resistances and this could have been constraining force production at those  
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13 267 resistances. However, the intrinsic force-velocity relationship of knee extensor muscles or the  
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15 268 joint torque-velocity relationship would not dictate this, as both would predict that greater  
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17 269 forces could be generated at slow velocities. Alternatively, we propose that the inherent  
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19 270 mechanical constraints of the task would have prevented any further increases in knee  
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21 271 extensor moments at high resistances. Here we refer to the need to control the direction of the  
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23 272 GRF as described by van Ingen Schenau and colleagues (1992). To consider this we will  
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25 273 neglect inertial factors and consider the problem as a quasi-static scenario where the direction  
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27 274 of the reaction force is dictated by the magnitudes of the joint moments only. Figure 4A  
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29 275 schematically illustrates the current data, where the ground reaction force (black arrow) is  
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31 276 acting vertically through the COM and the hip and knee joint moments are balanced  
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33 277 accordingly. For the knee extensor joint moment to be larger, either the magnitude of the  
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35 278 GRF must be increased (Figure 4B) or the moment arm of the force about the knee joint must  
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37 279 be increased (Figure 4C). The former would involve a concomitant increase in the hip joint  
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39 280 moment, which may not be possible if the hip joint extensors are already maximally active.  
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41 281 The latter would involve reorienting the force vector away from the vertical in a posterior  
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43 282 direction (Figure 4C), with several negative consequences. First, the hip joint moment would  
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45 283 need to be reduced as the force vector passed closer to the hip joint centre. Second, the force  
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47 284 would generate a de-stabilising moment about the COM. Third, a large component of the  
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49 285 force would now be acting to accelerate the COM posteriorly not vertically, which is not  
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51 286 useful for the task. Therefore, we propose that at high forces the knee moment cannot be  
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3 287 increased to the limits dictated by muscle or joint-level force-velocity properties because of a  
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5 288 constraint imposed on knee joint extension moments by the need to control the direction of  
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7 289 the GRF vector. This, combined with a reduction in COM velocity, is why we observed a  
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9 290 large drop-off in  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  when resistance increased to 80% 1RM. We did not measure muscle  
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11 291 activation but one would expect pre-activation of muscles before leg extension to have been  
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13 292 greater at higher resistances. However, if this were to have impacted the force-velocity  
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15 293 relationship, the forces and moments at high resistances should trend to be greater than linear  
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17 294 rather than less than linear as we observed.

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21 295 At the other extreme, we examined the system force-velocity behaviour changes between  
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23 296 20% and 0% 1RM resistances. Here we observed that  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was considerably less at 0%  
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25 297 1RM than at 20% 1RM (Figure 1A & B). This was owing to a reduction in  $\bar{F}_{GRFz}$  that was  
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27 298 accompanied by a relatively small increase in  $\bar{v}_{COM}$ . The small increase in  $\bar{v}_{COM}$  was less than  
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29 299 a linear force-velocity relation would have predicted (Figure 1B) and therefore also less than  
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31 300 what would be expected based on the force-velocity relationship of isolated muscle or joints  
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33 301 at high velocities. An explanation for this may again rest within the apparent constraints of  
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35 302 the task. Because a squat exercise was used, participants were instructed not to leave the  
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37 303 ground for any of the resistances. However, to maximise power at low resistances one would  
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39 304 typically jump. Bobbert and van Ingen Schenau (1988) observed that an important  
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41 305 contributor to maximal power in vertical jumping was high velocity ankle extension late  
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43 306 before take-off. Magnitudes of ankle extension velocity in that study were similar to, or even  
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45 307 greater than, knee and hip extension velocities. However, in our data  $\bar{v}_A$  and peak ankle  
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47 308 velocity were significantly ( $P < 0.0001$ ) less than for the knee and hip at all resistances. This  
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49 309 is likely because of the imposed restriction to stay grounded that would have required our  
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51 310 participants to decelerate the upward motion of the COM at the end of the movement. Given  
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53 311 the apparent importance of ankle joint velocity in contributing to COM velocity, our  
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3 312 restricting it likely constrained the participants' capacity to generate large power outputs at  
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5 313 low resistances. At low resistance power will be more determined by COM velocity than  
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7 314 GRF. In order to make fair comparisons of a squat across resistances it was necessary to  
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9 315 restrict participants from jumping. Other studies investigating the power-resistance  
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11 316 relationship in squat jumping have revealed that  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  was actually maximised when jumping  
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13 317 with no additional resistance above body mass (Cormie et al. 2007; Moir et al. 2012;  
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15 318 Jandacka et al. 2014). Therefore, the constraint to not jump likely limited velocity and power  
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17 319 production potential at low resistances.

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21 320 **Average vs. Peak Power** - In the present study we have primarily focussed on average  
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23 321 powers as a metric of power output. This is because the average power produced during leg  
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25 322 extension reflects both the amount of mechanical work done and the rate at which it was  
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27 323 done. However, some similar existing studies report peak powers (Cormie et al. 2007; Bevan  
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29 324 et al. 2010). Our intention here is not to conclude which is more appropriate but to note that  
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31 325 findings may differ depending on the authors' choice of metric. A close inspection of Figures  
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33 326 1 and 3 reveals that although  $\bar{P}_{COM}$  did not increase significantly from 20% 1RM to 40%  
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35 327 1RM, COM  $P_{pk}$  did. Also, the significant changes in  $\bar{P}_H$  and  $\bar{P}_k$  that occurred with  
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37 328 increments between 20% 1RM and 80% 1RM were not always evident in the  $P_{pk}$  values for  
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39 329 these joints. One explanation for the discrepancies between trends in average and peak  
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41 330 powers is the potential influence of interdependent torque-angle-angular velocity  
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43 331 relationships that have been documented in multi-joint tasks (Hahn et al. 2014). Because joint  
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45 332 velocities were different at different resistances, the optimum joint angle for producing torque  
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47 333 or power would likely be different too. Thus it was possible that for the different resistances,  
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49 334 the angle at which peak power was reached was less optimal for that velocity than was the  
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51 335 case at other resistances. However, this joint position effect should not have influenced  
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53 336 average powers, as setting the starting position controlled the range of motion. Therefore, we  
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3 337 recommend exercising caution when comparing results based on peak powers with those  
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5 338 from average powers and that careful thought should be given to which metric is most  
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7 339 appropriate for a given purpose.  
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## 10 340 **PERSPECTIVES**

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13 341 Conventional paradigms for training the development of muscular power incorporate high  
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15 342 resistance exercises followed by a progression that includes lighter, more sport-specific  
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17 343 exercises (Cormie et al. 2011). Our data suggest that this progression can be achieved in  
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19 344 squatting without compromising on power production because heavier weights and somewhat  
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21 345 lighter resistances resulted in similar power output. Furthermore, joint level power profiling  
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23 346 such as we have shown might facilitate better matching of lighter weights to the sporting task  
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25 347 of an athlete. For example, choosing a resistance that has a similar breakdown of joint  
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27 348 contributions to total power as the task. In this study to make fair comparisons across  
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29 349 resistances we restricted our participants to remaining grounded and not performing a jump  
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31 350 squat. A more likely progression at lighter weights would be to jump and this might provide a  
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33 351 better match to many sporting tasks in terms of coordination and with fewer constraints,  
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35 352 result in greater power outputs than observed for squats (Bevan et al. 2010; Bobbert 2014).  
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37 353 However, our purpose was to illustrate the fundamental mechanical principles using squatting  
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39 354 as an example, not a comprehensive resource of power-resistance data which remains an  
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41 355 important future direction for the field.  
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## 47 356 **CONCLUSIONS**

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50 357 In this study we sought to deconstruct the power-resistance relationship in a back-squat  
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52 358 exercise by examining system force-velocity relationships and joint-level mechanics. We  
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54 359 found a broad range of intermediate weights could maximise COM power. This range was  
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56 360 determined by trading-off knee and hip joint powers that were individually maximised at  
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3 361 different resistances. Based on theoretical considerations, it was considered that the limits of  
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5 362 the range were dictated by a need to control the direction of forces at high resistances. At low  
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7 363 resistances power was less because participants were not permitted to jump and this limited  
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9 364 the capacity of the ankle joint to contribute to increasing the COM velocity late in the  
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11 365 movement. Our findings provide new perspectives and support for power-based training  
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13 366 programmes that employ a progression through a range of resistances and incorporate sport-  
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15 367 specific exercises.  
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24 370 supported by a post-doctoral fellowship funded by the Australian Sports Commission.  
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**FIGURE LEGENDS**

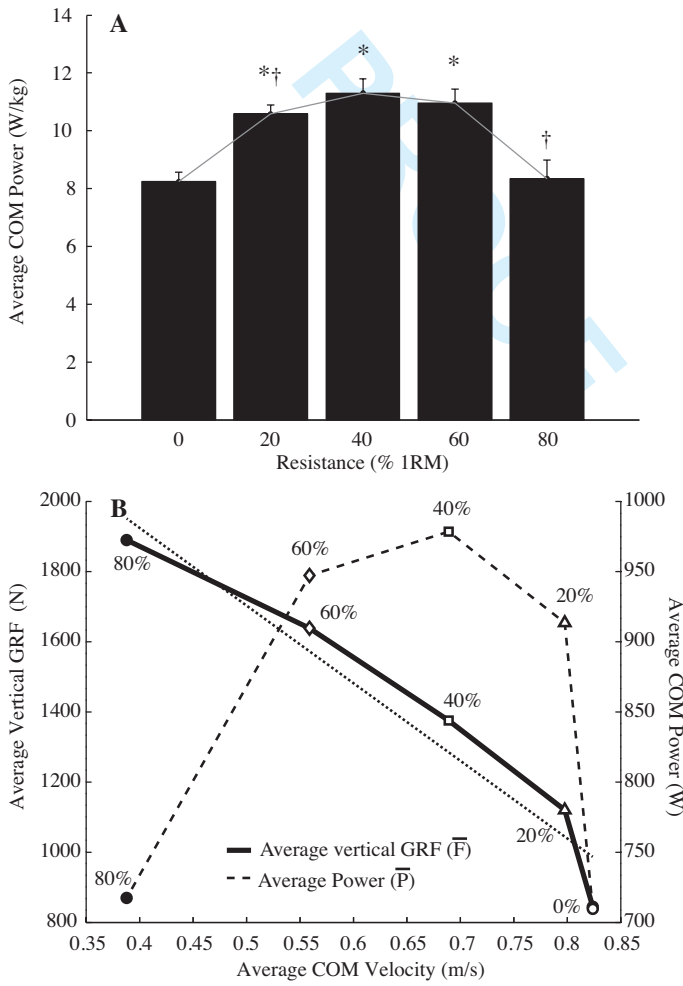
**Figure 1.** **A** - Group mean ( $\pm$  s.e.m.) COM average power at each resistance. \*Denotes a significant difference from 0% 1RM and † denotes a significant difference from the next lightest resistance. **B** - Group mean system force-velocity (solid line, left vertical axis) and power-velocity (dashed line, right vertical axis) with resistances labelled. The dotted line is a linear fit to the force-velocity data.

**Figure 2.** Group mean ( $\pm$  s.e.m.) average joint power (**A**), average joint moment (**B**) and average joint velocity (**C**) for the ankle (black), knee (grey) and hip (white). For joint powers, the percentage of total average power (sum of the three joint powers) provided by each joint at each resistance is labelled on the respective bars. \*Denotes a significant difference from 0% 1RM and † denotes a significant difference from the next lightest resistance.

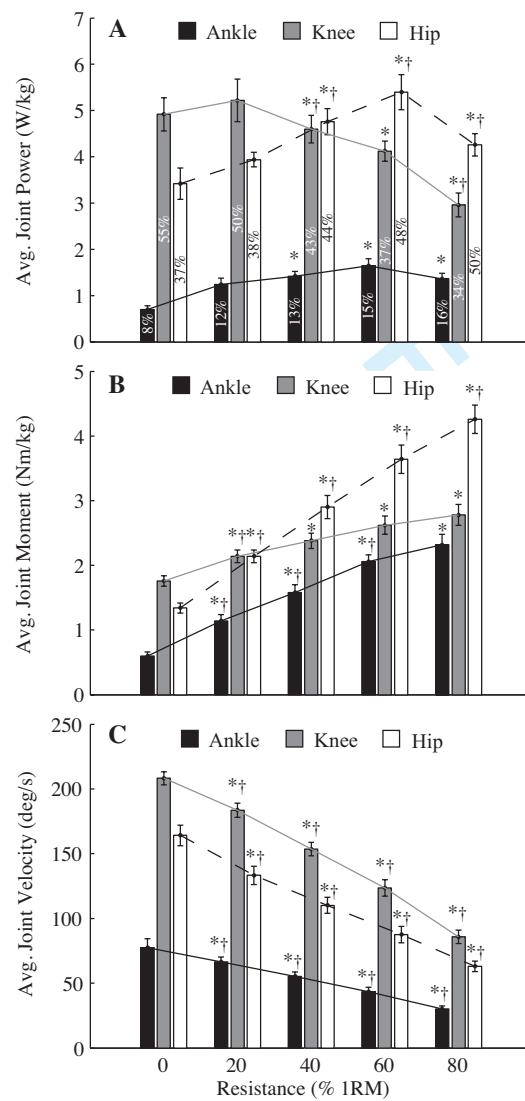
**Figure 3.** Group mean ( $\pm$  s.e.m.) peak COM (black), ankle (dark grey), knee (light grey) and hip (white) powers. \*Denotes a significant difference from 0% 1RM and † denotes a significant difference from the next lightest resistance.

**Figure 4.** Schematic illustration of how the distribution of joint moments affects the direction and magnitude of the ground reaction force vector in a quasi-static case. **A** - represents the scenario from the current data at high resistances where the hip joint extension moment is larger than the knee joint extension moment and the GRF vector is oriented vertically through the COM. **B** - For the magnitude of the knee joint moment to increase and the GRF vector remain vertically aligned, the GRF vector's magnitude must increase, as must the hip joint extension moment. **C** - To increase the knee extensor moment by increasing the moment arm of the GRF vector at the knee, the hip extension moment must decrease and the GRF vector become more posteriorly oriented.

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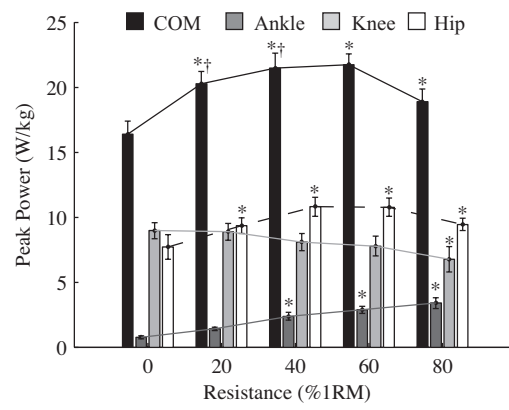


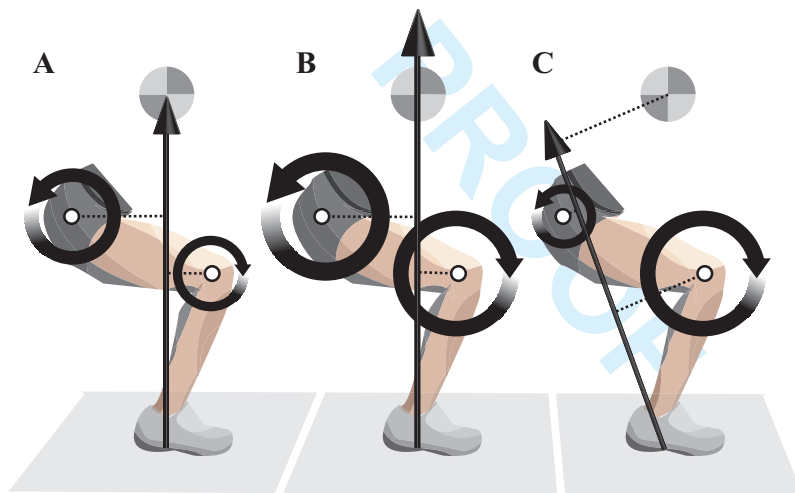
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