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4 Short term effect of delayed-onset muscle soreness on trunk proprioception during force reproduction
5 tasks in a healthy adult population: a crossover study
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4 **1 Abstract:**

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6 **2 Purpose:** The aim of this study was to evaluate the effects of lumbar muscle delayed-onset muscle
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8 **3 soreness (DOMS)** on the ability of the trunk muscles to reproduce different levels of force.

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11 **4 Methods:** Twenty healthy adults (10 males and 10 females) were recruited for this study. Force
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13 reproduction in trunk extension and flexion was assessed at 50 and 75% of participants' maximal
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15 isometric voluntary contraction in flexion and extension before and after a lumbar muscle DOMS
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17 protocol. Trunk proprioception was evaluated and compared between these conditions using different
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19 variables such as constant errors (CE), absolute errors (AE), variable errors (VE) and time to peak force
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21 (TPF). For each variable, repeated measure ANOVAs were conducted.
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25 **10 Results:** AE were higher when participants had to reach the target post-DOMS protocol in extension
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27 compared to flexion and in presence of higher demand of force ($p=0.02$). For VE, results showed that
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29 participants were more variable in extension than in flexion when the required force was higher ($p=0.04$).
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31 CE variable was higher when participants had to reach the force target in extension compared to flexion
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33 under the effect of DOMS ($p=0.02$). Results also showed that participants took less time to reach the force
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35 target post-DOMS protocol in extension (0.62 ± 0.20 sec) and in flexion (0.53 ± 0.19 sec) than pre-DOMS
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37 protocol in extension (0.55 ± 0.15) and in flexion (0.50 ± 0.20) ($p<0.001$).
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41 **17 Conclusion:** Lumbar muscle DOMS affect trunk proprioception during force reproduction tasks
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43 especially in trunk extension and at higher force.
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47 **19 Keys words:** Delayed-onset muscle soreness, lumbar, sensorimotor control, pain, proprioception
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4	27 List of abbreviations
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6	28 DOMS: Delayed-onset muscle soreness
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8	29 MVC: Maximum voluntary contraction
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10	30 IPAQ: International physical activity questionnaire
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12	31 CE: Constant error
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14	32 AE: Absolute error
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16	33 VE: Variable error
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18	34 TPF: Time to peak force
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4 **57 Introduction**

5 **58**
6 **59** Delayed-onset muscle soreness (DOMS) can be defined as musculoskeletal pain and soreness and
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9 **60** as a sensation of discomfort (Cleak and Eston 1992) that lasts for several days (Weerakkody et al. 2001)
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11 **61** and that is induced by unusual intense exercises and/or eccentric contractions (Coudreuse et al. 2004;
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13 **62** MacIntyre et al. 1995; Proske et al. 2003). The DOMS effects peak between 24 to 72 hours following
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15 **63** those exercises and disappear progressively in three to five days (Cheung et al. 2003; Coudreuse et al.
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17 **64** 2004). DOMS is usually associated with inflammation and muscle damage and individuals presenting
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19 **65** DOMS can experience muscle stiffness, pain and/or movement restrictions (Farias-Junior et al. 2019) and
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21 **66** a decrease of maximal muscle strength (Abboud et al. 2019). Effects of DOMS on proprioception are
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23 **67** characterized by a significant increase in errors in upper limb positioning and force reproduction tasks
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25 **68** (Proske et al. 2003), suggesting that, when muscles become sore in the presence of DOMS or following
26
27 **69** paralysis, the motor command sent to muscles is not relevant to the desired outcome. Proprioception
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29 **70** includes the sense of limb position and movement, and the sense of force and effort (Jerosch and Prymka
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31 **71** 1996). Proprioception can be evaluated by repositioning tasks and force reproduction tasks, which mainly
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33 **72** assess conscious proprioception (Hagert 2010).

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38 **73** Trunk proprioception in lumbar muscles as well as abdominal muscles can be altered in patients
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40 **74** with chronic or recurrent low back pain (Hodges and Richardson 1999; Rausch Osthoff et al. 2015; Tong
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42 **75** et al. 2017). However, because of within- and between- patient variability in motor behaviour (van Dieen
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44 **76** et al. 2017), drawing conclusion about the mechanism underlying proprioception alterations in this
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46 **77** population is still challenging. Lumbar muscle DOMS is therefore a relevant experimental pain model
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48 **78** because of its ability to recreate altered motor functions, such as a decrease in lumbar muscles strength
49
50 **79** and an increase of fear of pain (Abboud et al. 2019; Bishop et al. 2011), which are also observed in lumbar
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52 **80** muscles of patients with chronic or recurrent non-specific low back pain (Hodges and Danneels 2019).

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56 **81** Furthermore, using DOMS as a pain model may help clarify the mechanism underlying
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58 **82** proprioception alterations in patients with low back pain. Therefore, the aim of this study was to evaluate,
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60 **83** in a healthy adult population, the effects of lumbar muscle DOMS during different force reproduction

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84 conditions. We hypothesized that trunk proprioception in the direction of extension will be more altered
85 than in flexion and that this alteration will increase with higher force demand (della Volpe et al. 2006;
86 Proske et al. 2003).

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88 **Materials and Methods**

89 *Study design*

90 We conducted a crossover study at the University [XXX] Laboratory. Recruitment and data
91 collection were completed from May to July 2018.

92 *Participants*

93 Twenty healthy adults, 10 females and 10 males, were recruited among the university community
94 and employees and by social medias. To be included in the study, participants had to be back pain free. If
95 they have experienced recurrent back pain or occasional pain in the last six months, they were not allowed
96 to participate in this study. Other exclusion criteria were health conditions such as neuromuscular
97 diseases, uncontrolled hypertension and heart disease, or cancer. Pregnant women were also excluded.
98 The study was approved by the University humans research ethics board (CER-18-245-07.10) and written
99 informed consent was obtained from each participant before the beginning of the experiment. Participants
100 were advised that they had the possibility to withdraw from the study at any moment.

101 *Experimental protocol*

102 The experimental protocol was divided into two sessions separated by 24 to 36 hours. The period
103 between the first and the second session was based on a previous study showing that pain and soreness
104 following a lumbar muscle DOMS protocol peaks between 24- and 36 hours (Abboud et al. 2019). In the
105 first session, participants were asked to fill in one questionnaire. Then, isometric muscles trunk extension
106 and flexion maximum voluntary contraction (MVC) and different force reproduction tasks were evaluated
107 for each participant. Finally, participants were asked to perform the lumbar muscle DOMS protocol. In

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4 108 the second session, trunk extension and flexion MVC and force reproduction tasks were assessed again.

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6 109 A timeline for clinical and physical outcome assessment is presented in Figure 1.

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11 [Insert figure 1. about here]

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15 113 *Questionnaire*

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17 114 To assess level of physical activity, participants were invited to complete the short version of the
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19 115 International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ). Reliability and validity of the IPAQ short form
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21 116 have been tested in over twelve countries (Craig et al. 2003). This questionnaire is composed of 9 items
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23 117 assessing the intensity of physical activity habits in the past week (Lee et al. 2011).

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27 118 *Force reproduction tasks*

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29 119 All force reproduction conditions were performed on an isokinetic device (The LIDO Active
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31 120 Loredan Biomedical, West Sacramento, CA). Participants were semi-seated in a neutral position and they
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33 121 were attached to the device with four belts (Figure 2). Neutral position was defined as natural spine curve,
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35 122 hip angle was $\sim 135^\circ$ and knees were in full extension to minimize the contribution of lower limbs muscles
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37 123 and to better isolate trunk muscles during the force reproduction tasks. In fact, it has been shown that the
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39 124 pelvic stabilization increases the recruitment of low back muscles and decreases the contribution of hip
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41 125 extensors during dynamic lumbar extensions (da Silva et al. 2009). One belt was placed over the chest,
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43 126 another one was over the upper abdomen and the last two were over the hips and on the thighs. At first,
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45 127 three MVC were realized for both flexion and extension. The highest value of MVC for flexion and
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47 128 extension was used for the force reproduction tasks. Participants were free to experiment flexion and
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49 129 extension on the isokinetic device to familiarize with the equipment before performing MVC. For the
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51 130 flexion MVC, participants were told to push as hard as they can for 5 seconds against a resistance located
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53 131 at the sternum. For the extension MVC, the middle of the resistance was placed on the eighth thoracic
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55 132 vertebra. Then, trunk force reproduction was assessed in four conditions: trunk flexion and extension at
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4 133 50% and 75% of MVC. Each condition of the force reproduction task was conducted both with and
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6 134 without visual feedback. The condition's order was randomized using computer random number generator
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8 135 (randomization.com) to minimize possible learning effects and residual muscle fatigue. Prior to recording
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10 136 the force reproduction task without visual feedback, practice trials within a 10% margin error of the target
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12 137 goal were allowed to each participant to get familiar with the task. Practice trials were stopped when 10
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14 138 consecutive trials were performed within the margin of error. Participants were then asked to reproduce
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16 139 10 trials of the same force level without visual feedback (Figure 3) and analyses were conducted
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18 140 considering these 10 repetitions without feedback. Participants were given a one-minute rest period
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20 141 between conditions to limit the occurrence of muscular fatigue. For all trials, participants were asked to
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22 142 provide a single impulse without correcting the force once the contraction was initiated. Participants were
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24 143 instructed to perform the task as quickly as possible.
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31 145 [Insert figures 2 and 3 about here]
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35 147 *DOMS protocol*
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38 148 First, participants completed three MVC in trunk extension on a 45-degree Roman chair to
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40 149 evaluate lumbar extensors maximal strength (Figure 4; (Lariviere et al. 2011; Parreira et al. 2013). They
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42 150 had their trunk parallel to the floor in a prone position and were asked to push as hard as possible against
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44 151 a belt installed over the participant's shoulders. A load cell (Model IPM250; Futek Advanced Sensor
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46 152 Technology Inc, Irvine, CA, USA) was connected to the belt and gave indications about peak torque in
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48 153 trunk extension. The highest MVC value was used to determine a 10% external weight which was used
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50 154 for the entire endurance DOMS protocol. Then, participants were invited to complete the DOMS protocol
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52 155 that targeted low back muscles. The lumbar muscle endurance DOMS protocol was performed on the 45-
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54 156 degrees Roman chair in the same position used to establish MVC. In fact, participants initiated the DOMS
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56 157 protocol in a horizontal position with their trunk parallel to the ground. This protocol consisted of 5 sets
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58 158 of 20 repetitions of trunk flexion-extension with the 10% external weight in the hands and with two
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4 159 minutes of rest between each set. A repetition consisted of (1) three seconds 30-degrees trunk flexion
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6 160 from horizontal (2) three seconds of isometric contraction and (3) one-second trunk extension starting
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8 161 from the flexion position to 30-degrees trunk extension from the horizontal (head, trunk and lower limbs
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10 162 needed to be in a neutral alignment). There were two indicators placed to help participants to complete
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12 163 the task adequately: one at 30-degrees trunk extension position and one at 30-degrees of trunk flexion.
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14 164 Participants hips and ankles were stabilized using straps to minimize pelvic tilt movements, which could
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16 165 limit the contribution of muscle groups other than paraspinal muscles during the DOMS protocol. A visual
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18 166 and auditory feedback was provided for participants during the protocol to help them following the tempo
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20 167 (3-3-1). Participants were motivated by verbal encouragements given by the assessors. The validation of
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22 168 the DOMS protocol was performed in a previous study (Abboud et al. 2019).
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30 170 [Insert figures 4 about here]
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35 172 *Pain and Soreness Assessment*
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37 173 Lumbar muscle pain and soreness were assessed via text messages or emails sent to participants
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39 174 immediately following the first session (DOMS protocol). Text messages or emails were sent by one
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41 175 evaluator and this evaluator was not implicated neither in the lumbar muscle DOMS protocol and in force
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43 176 reproduction tasks. This evaluator was also naïve to expected results of the study. Data collection was
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45 177 completed over five consecutive days, three times a day. Participants received the message at 9 am, 3 pm
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47 178 and 9 pm (Figure 1). Participants were asked to rate the intensity of both lumbar muscle pain and lumbar
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49 179 muscle soreness using a 0-10-point scale. They were also asked to report any other side effects while
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51 180 answering daily text messages. During these five days, participants were asked to avoid any high intensity
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53 181 or unusual exercise or medication aiming to reduce pain or soreness. Based on the pain and soreness
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55 182 scores of each participant, the time it takes to higher level of pain and soreness were computed using the
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57 183 average time until the occurrence of the highest pain and soreness scores.
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4 184 *Dependent Variables*

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6 185 Constant error (CE), absolute error (AE), variable error (VE) and time to peak force (TPF) were
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8 186 calculated and compared between each condition (50% and 75% in extension and flexion) and each
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10 187 session (pre-DOMS and post-DOMS). These four variables are commonly used to assess trunk
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12 188 proprioception (Abboud et al. 2018; Boucher et al. 2015; Lee et al. 2010; McNair and Heine 1999). CE
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14 189 was the positive or the negative difference between the force value deployed by participants and the
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16 190 targeted force identified based on 50 or 75% of participants' MVC in extension or in flexion. AE was the
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18 191 absolute difference between the force value deployed by participants to reach the target and the force
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20 192 identified as the target. VE was defined by the peak force reach consistency compared with the average
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22 193 score of participants. TPF represented the time needed by participants to reach the force target.
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27 194 *Statistical Analysis*

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29 195 Analyses were performed using STATISTICA statistical package version 10 (Statsoft, Tulsa,
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31 196 OK), and the level of significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$. Normality of distribution was assessed with the
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33 197 Kolmogorov–Smirnov test and by visual inspection. A mixed model three-way repeated measure
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35 198 ANOVAs were conducted to assess for each **dependent** variable: (1) the direction effect (flexion versus
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37 199 extension); (2) the force intensity effect (50 versus 75% MVC); (3) the DOMS effect (pre- versus post-
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39 200 DOMS); and (4) all the interaction effects. When necessary, the Tukey post-hoc test was performed as
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41 201 the post-hoc analysis for pairwise comparisons. **Effects size of significant difference were calculated using**
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43 202 **partial eta-squared (0.01 = small effect; 0.06 = medium effect; 0.14 = large effect).**
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50 204 **Results**

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52 205 *Baseline demographics*

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54 206 Twenty participants (10 females and 10 males) were included in the study and completed the
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56 207 protocol. Mean scores and standard deviation were calculated for all clinical and physical outcomes and
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58 208 are presented in Table 1. All participants experienced pain and/or soreness in the lumbar muscles. The
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209 highest pain values were observed approximately 20 hours following the DOMS protocol, while the
210 highest soreness values occurred after 30 hours. Immediately after DOMS protocol, 2 participants
211 reported a light hyperalgesia in the thigh lasting 2 days due to the contact pressure point on the inclined
212 Roman bench.

[Insert table 1. about here]

216 *Force reproduction task*

217 **Dependent** variable means and standard deviations for each condition during pre-DOMS and post-
218 DOMS protocol are presented in Table 2. ANOVAs results showed significantly higher values for all
219 **dependent** variables (CE, AE, VE and TPF) in extension when compared to flexion (all $p \leq 0.01$; Table 3
220 and **Figure 5**). Moreover, a significant DOMS X Direction X Force interaction was found for AE ($p=0.02$)
221 as illustrated in **Figure 6**. Results from the post-hoc test showed significantly higher AE value in extension
222 post-DOMS in comparison to flexion post-DOMS protocol at 50% ($p=0.046$) and 75% ($p=0.01$). Results
223 also showed a significant influence of force intensities (50% versus 75%), with higher value at 75% MVC
224 for AE ($p=0.03$) and VE ($p=0.04$). A significant decrease was shown in TPF ($p<0.001$) between pre- and
225 post-DOMS protocol. There was also a significant main effect of direction (extension versus flexion;
226 $p=0.01$) showing that participants were poorer **in** extension than in flexion to reproduce the task. A
227 significant Direction X Force intensity interaction effect for VE variable was also found ($p=0.04$) and
228 Tukey post-hoc revealed that participants were more variable at 75% than at 50% in extension for VE
229 ($p \leq 0.003$) but not in flexion ($p=0.74$). Tukey post-hoc also showed that they were more variable in
230 extension than in flexion for both forces ($p=0.02$ at 50% and $p \leq 0.001$ at 75%). Another significant
231 Direction X DOMS interaction effect for the CE variable was observed ($p=0.02$). Tukey post-hoc showed
232 that CE was higher in extension compared to flexion post-DOMS protocol ($p \leq 0.001$). Post-hoc also
233 showed that CE increased in extension post-DOMS protocol compared to flexion post-DOMS protocol
234 ($p=0.03$). All other results were not statistically significant (Table 3).

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[Insert tables 2 and 3 about here]

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[Insert figures 5 and 6 about here]

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240 **Discussion**

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The objective of the present study was to evaluate the effect of lumbar muscle DOMS on trunk proprioception during different force reproduction tasks in a healthy adult population. Our hypothesis was that trunk proprioception in the direction of extension would be more altered than in flexion and that this alteration would increase with higher force demand. Results showed that participants (1) were more variable to reproduce forces (VE) in extension than in flexion regardless of the presence of lumbar muscle DOMS; (2) larger force production errors occurred for the higher level of force and more variability in the produced force was present in extension than in flexion; (3) under the influence of DOMS the performance to reach the force target in trunk extension was altered, while it remained unchanged in trunk flexion; (4) participants were faster in the force reproduction tasks under the influence of lumbar muscle DOMS.

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251 *Trunk Proprioception*

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Across all conditions, force production was observed to be more accurate in flexion compared to extension. Such difference between extension and flexion movement accuracy can be explained by the fact that participants generated higher MVC contractions in trunk extension than in flexion, leading to higher target forces in extension during the force reproduction protocol (more than 2 times higher). In line with this observation, results of the current study also showed differences between force accuracy at 50% and 75% of MVC for both trunk flexion and extension tasks. Participants were more accurate during the execution of force reproduction task at 50% of MVC than to during those performed at 75% of MVC. These results taken together suggest that force variability increases as the target force increases. It has

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4 260 been previously shown that, force variability increases linearly with force at moderate levels of force
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6 261 (Sherwood and A. Schmidt 1980).

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10 262 *DOMS and Trunk Proprioception*

11 263 Trunk proprioception was altered under the influence of lumbar muscle DOMS, with the
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14 264 observation of higher AE and CE values in trunk extension in comparison to flexion. These findings
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16 265 suggest that DOMS had a direct impact on the proprioception of muscles that have undergone eccentric
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18 266 contractions, while the proprioception of the unaffected muscles (trunk flexors) remained unchanged.
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20 267 Even if not directly assessed in the current study, these observations support the recent views regarding
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22 268 the important contribution of peripheral sensory information in the production of force (Luu et al. 2011;
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24 269 Scotland et al. 2014) and expand it to axial muscles. A recent study showed that, in healthy individuals
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26 270 under the influence of experimental low back pain triggered by a combination of DOMS and hypertonic
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28 271 saline solution, the increase in trunk extensor muscle activity was not accompanied by an increase in trunk
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30 272 flexor muscle activity during postural perturbations (Larsen et al. 2017). These previous results along
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32 273 with those of the present study suggest that minimal or no change in the control of the trunk flexor muscles
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34 274 are necessary to achieve a desired motor outcome, such as trunk proprioception or postural control
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36 275 (Bartlett et al. 2007).

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40 276 However, VE variable was not affected by lumbar muscle DOMS. Such lack of DOMS effect on
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42 277 VE could partially be explained by the participants' overall level of physical activity. Participants were
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44 278 considered moderately (at least 600 MET-min/week) to highly (3000 MET-min/week) active with a mean
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46 279 score of 2.7 on the short form of the IPAQ questionnaire. It has been proposed that a higher level of motor
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48 280 variability that is functionally related to the task is present in individuals that are physically active which
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50 281 could favour motor performance while limiting the occurrence of muscle fatigue (Bartlett et al. 2007;
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52 282 Robins et al. 2006). It can be hypothesized that under the influence of lumbar muscle DOMS, participants
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54 283 were able to find a new strategy, such as variation in muscle activity, to perform the desired task. This
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56 284 should be addressed in future research to better understand the effect of DOMS in the lumbar region.
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4 285 Future studies should also consider exploring the relation between trunk proprioception under DOMS
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6 286 effects and physical activity by including individuals from each active group (sedentary to very active).
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9 287 *Difference and Similarities Between DOMS and Low Back Pain*
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11 288 As expected, the present results showed that the DOMS protocol induced experimental low back
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14 289 pain and soreness, which is consistent with previous studies (Abboud et al. 2019; Cheung et al. 2003).
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16 290 The presence of DOMS was confirmed by lumbar pain and soreness values of 2.8 and 3.8 respectively,
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18 291 which represent mild pain intensity and moderate soreness intensity.
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21 292 DOMS has been used as a relevant pain model, which is able to reproduce alteration usually
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23 293 present in patients with chronic or recurrent low back pain (Abboud et al. 2019; Bishop et al. 2011). As
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25 294 shown in the present study, mild to moderate pain and soreness in addition to the decrease of
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27 295 proprioception are features of DOMS, which are similar to characteristics also found in chronic or
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29 296 recurrent patients with low back pain. DOMS has been associated with a decrease of muscle strength,
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31 297 muscle power and range of motion due to micro muscle damage (Cheung et al. 2003; Mizumura and
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33 298 Taguchi 2016). These muscle damages can create temporary muscles dysfunctions and perceptions
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35 299 (location in the space and/or strength) and, in the same way, affect performance (Larsen et al. 2017;
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37 300 Paschalis et al. 2007; Pearcey et al. 2015) such as precision of movement (decrease of joint range of
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39 301 motion) and proprioception (Vila-Chã et al. 2011), which can affect the recruitment patterns (Larsen et
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41 302 al. 2017; Pearcey et al. 2015; Vila-Chã et al. 2011). Alteration in trunk proprioception, such as increase
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43 303 of errors in reproduction force task, has been also observed in patients with chronic low back pain
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45 304 (Descarreaux et al. 2007).
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50 305 In the present study, a significant difference in TPF for both flexion and extension tasks were
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52 306 observed between the pre- and post-DOMS protocol. It was recently reported that movements associated
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54 307 with pain are performed faster compared to movements without pain (Karos et al. 2017). Even if
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56 308 participants were statistically faster in pre-DOMS condition, it should be noted that differences between
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58 309 TPF pre- and post-DOMS protocol varied from 30 to 60 milliseconds in flexion and varied from 60 to 70
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4 310 milliseconds in extension. In a previous study, participants had to reproduce 50% and 75% of their MVC
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6 311 in flexion and in extension in an isometric condition with their eyes closed. The authors showed that
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8 312 patients with chronic low back pain took ~120 milliseconds longer than the healthy group to reach the
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10 313 force target (Descarreaux et al. 2007). Therefore, it remains unknown if changes in TPF should be
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12 314 considered as relevant functional changes for patients with chronic or recurrent low back pain as healthy
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14 315 participants post-DOMS protocol. Theories of short-term pain adaptations propose that changes in the
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16 316 motor system are related to a protection mechanism, while in the long-term this adaptive behaviour may
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18 317 lead to further problems (Hodges and Tucker 2011; van Dieen et al. 2017). Another explanation for the
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20 318 difference between DOMS and clinical low back pain effects on TPF is the fact that participants in the
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22 319 current study were moderately to highly active, while the group of patients with chronic low back pain in
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24 320 Descarreaux et al., (2007) study were considered as moderately disabled.

30 321 *Limitations and Future Recommendations*

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32 322 Participants were mostly young adults moderately to highly physically active, which could have
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34 323 minimized the effect of DOMS. However, they reported levels of back muscle pain and soreness similar
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36 324 to other studies using similar protocol to induce lumbar muscle DOMS (Abboud et al. 2019; Hjortskov et
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38 325 al. 2005), which suggest the occurrence of DOMS in the lumbar muscles. Having a small group of
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40 326 participants with similar characteristics can limit the generalization which may lead to an overestimation
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42 327 of the current results. However, most of the differences of the current results were highly significant
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44 328 ($p=0.02$ to $p<0.001$). Adaptations in the muscle recruitment strategy could have occurred under the
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46 329 influence of DOMS to perform the task, as observed in patients with chronic low back pain (Abboud et
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48 330 al. 2019; Falla et al. 2014). In addition, even if there is a rest time between force reproduction task and
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50 331 that force reproduction tasks were randomized, it was impossible to ensure that participants did not have
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52 332 residual fatigue during the experimentation. Future studies should assess lumbar muscle recruitment
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54 333 strategies under the influence of lumbar muscle DOMS to confirm this theory. Future studies also should
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56 334 assess sex-comparison to evaluate if there is differences in strategies used during force reproduction tasks.
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Conclusion

Lumbar muscle DOMS affect lumbar muscles proprioception during force reproduction tasks especially in extension at higher level of force, while this performance was unchanged in trunk flexion. This study suggests that lumbar muscles proprioception in lumbar muscles has been altered in muscles that have been directly affected by the DOMS effects, supporting the important contribution of the peripheral sensory systems in force reproduction. DOMS represent a relevant pain model to better understand function alterations and pain mechanisms present in complex anatomical systems such as the trunk in patients with chronic and recurrent low back pain.

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4 **Table 1: Participant's results on clinical and physical outcomes**
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	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Experimental Group (n=20) Mean ± SD</i>
<i>Demographics</i>	Age (years)	25.5 ± 5.2
	F : M	10 : 10
	Weight (kg)	69.6 ± 14.6
	Height (m)	1.7 ± 0.1
	BMI (kg/m ²)	23.3 ± 2.7
	IPAQ-SF	2.7 ± 0.5
<i>Pain</i>	Peak intensity (/10)	2.75 ± 2.27
	Days with pain	1.65 ± 1.27
<i>Soreness</i>	Peak intensity (/10)	3.80 ± 2.35
	Days with soreness	2.10 ± 0.91
<i>MCV</i>	Extension pre-DOMS (Nm)	174.89 ± 78.12
	Extension post-DOM (Nm)	178.53 ± 89.14
	Flexion pre-DOMS (Nm)	79.60 ± 34.03
	Flexion post-DOMS (Nm)	86.18 ± 33.88

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30 F: female, M: Male, BMI: Body Masse Index, IPAQ-SF: International Physical Activity (short-form),
31 MVC: Maximal Voluntary Contraction, DOMS: Delayed onset muscle soreness
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Table 2: Means of errors and time to peak for pre- and post-DOMS in flexion and extension

	Flexion		Extension	
	<i>Pre-DOMS</i>	<i>Post-DOMS</i>	<i>Pre-DOMS</i>	<i>Post-DOMS</i>
<i>50%force</i>				
	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD
CE (Nm)	0.78 ± 11.09	-4.92 ± 5.78	4.80 ± 7.14	9.46 ± 15.28
AE (Nm)	8.07 ± 7.82	6.63 ± 4.13	8.15 ± 5.67	13.95 ± 12.01
VE (Nm)	4.04 ± 2.07	4.07 ± 2.25	6.81 ± 4.49	6.05 ± 2.86
TPF (sec)	0.54 ± 0.16	0.48 ± 0.14	0.62 ± 0.15	0.56 ± 0.10
<i>75%force</i>				
CE (Nm)	2.47 ± 6.50	-2.15 ± 11.15	6.05 ± 24.20	11.97 ± 20.13
AE (Nm)	6.23 ± 4.53	9.71 ± 6.31	18.22 ± 17.07	18.35 ± 14.49
VE (Nm)	4.42 ± 5.53	5.15 ± 2.86	9.80 ± 7.53	9.06 ± 6.83
TPF (sec)	0.53 ± 0.19	0.50 ± 0.20	0.62 ± 0.20	0.55 ± 0.15

CE: constant error, AE: absolute error, VE: variable error, TPF: time to peak force, SD: standard deviation, DOMS: Delayed onset muscle soreness

Table 3: Statistical analysis for each dependent variable

	Direction (Di)	Force (F)	DOMS (Do)	Di x F	Di x Do	F x Do	Di x F x Do
CE	F=10.75 * $p \leq 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.36$	F=1.32 $p = 0.26$	F=0.001 $p = 0.97$	F=0.003 $p = 0.95$	F=6.32 * $p = 0.02$ $\eta^2 = 0.25$	F=0.22 $p = 0.64$	F=0.0005 $p = 0.98$
AE	F=26.96 * $p \leq 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.59$	F=5.61 * $p = 0.03$ $\eta^2 = 0.23$	F=3.17 $p = 0.09$	F=2.76 $p = 0.11$	F=0.57 $p = 0.46$	F=0.02 $p = 0.88$	F=6.18 * $p = 0.02$ $\eta^2 = 0.25$
VE	F=23.82 * $p \leq 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.56$	F=4.92 * $p = 0.04$ $\eta^2 = 0.21$	F=0.29 $p = 0.59$	F=5.00 * $p = 0.04$ $\eta^2 = 0.21$	F=1.84 $p = 0.19$	F=0.18 $p = 0.67$	F=0.48 $p = 0.50$
TPF	F=8.00 * $p = 0.01$ $\eta^2 = 0.30$	F=0.004 $p = 0.95$	F=11.38 * $p \leq 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.37$	F=0.22 $p = 0.64$	F=0.14 $p = 0.71$	F=0.52 $p = 0.48$	F=0.97 $p = 0.34$

CE: constant error, AE: absolute error, VE: variable error, TPF: time to peak force, SD: standard deviation, *significant p values based on ANOVA

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4 **Figure captions**
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8 Fig. 1. Timeline for clinical and physical outcomes.
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10 DOMS: delayed-onset muscle soreness, MVC: maximum voluntary contraction.
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14 Fig. 2. Position of participants on lido for trunk strength reproduction task.
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18 Fig. 3. Example of steps of the force reproduction task.
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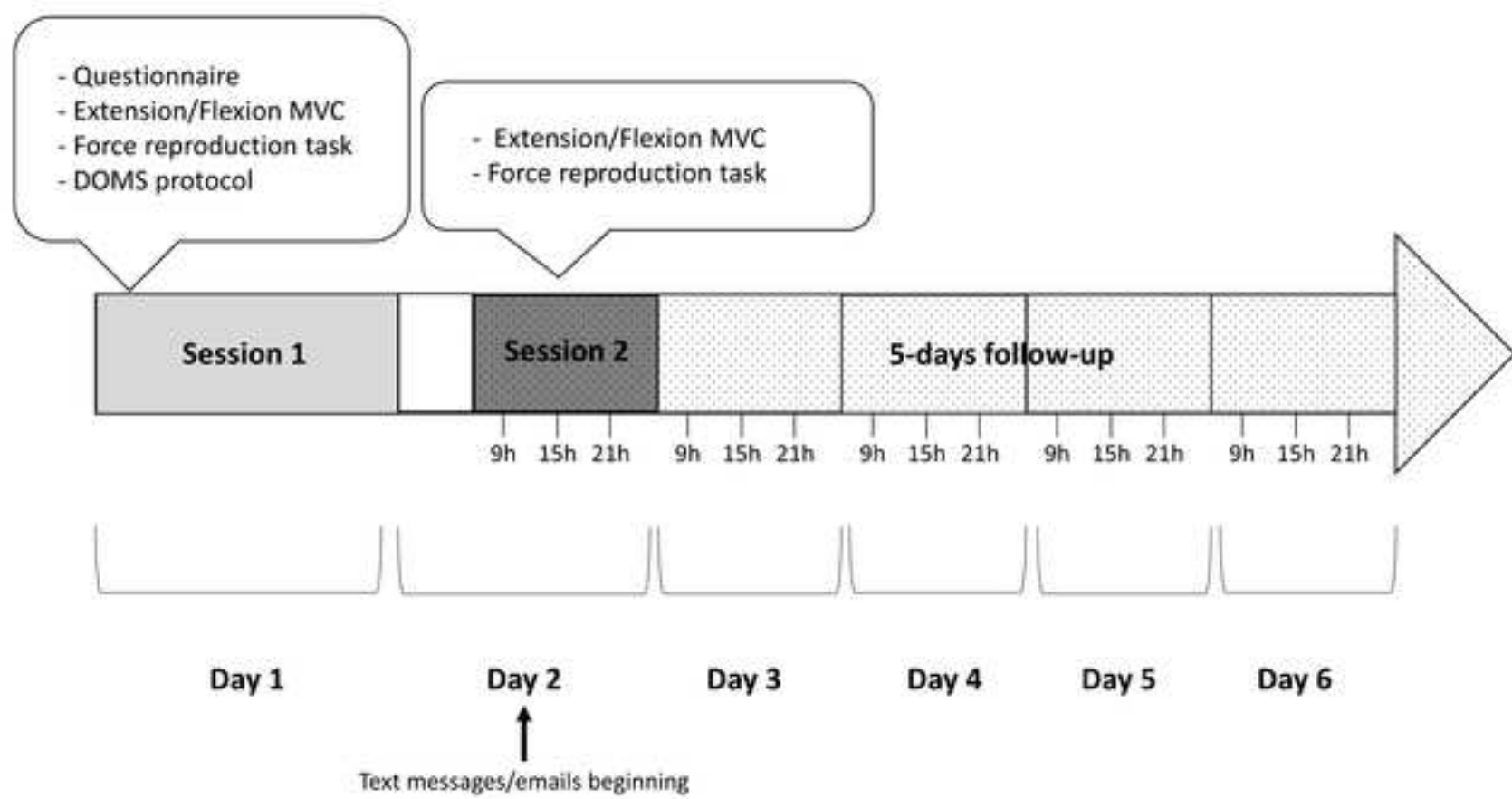
22 Fig. 4. Position of participants on the 45 degrees Romain chair during the lumbar muscle DOMS
23 protocol.
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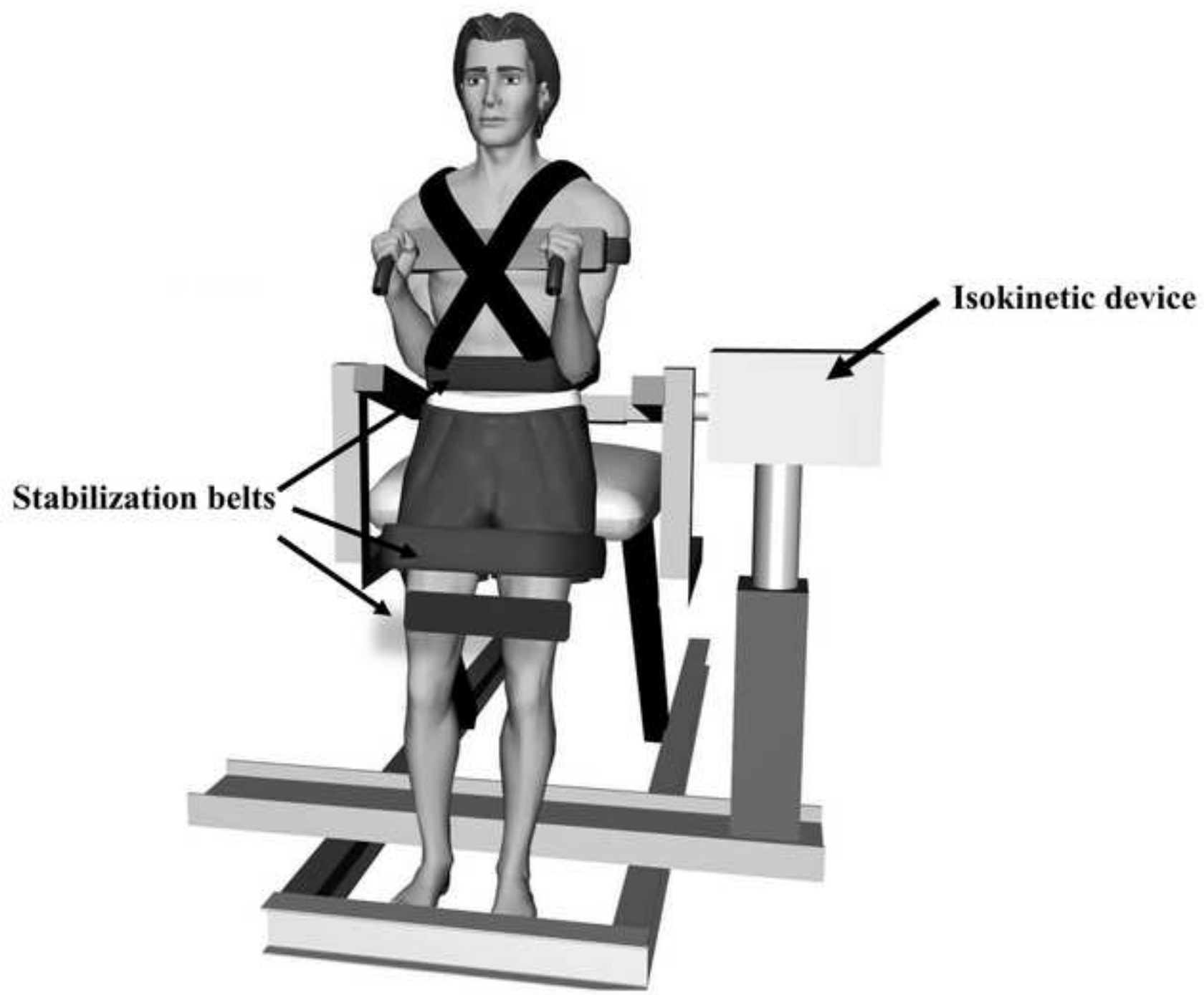
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27 Fig. 5. Direction effect (extension vs flexion) for each dependent variable (CE, AE, VE and TPF).
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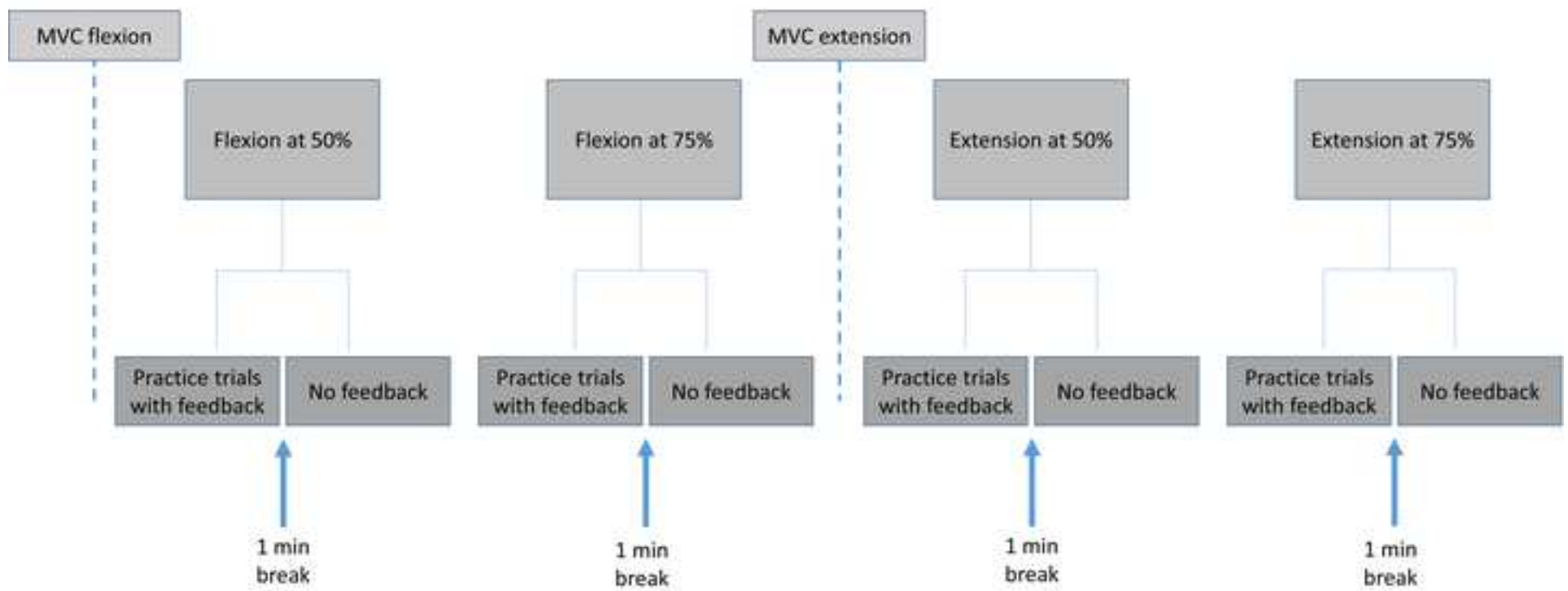
29 CE: constant error, AE: absolute error, VE: variable error, TP: time to peak, bars indicate standard
30 deviation.
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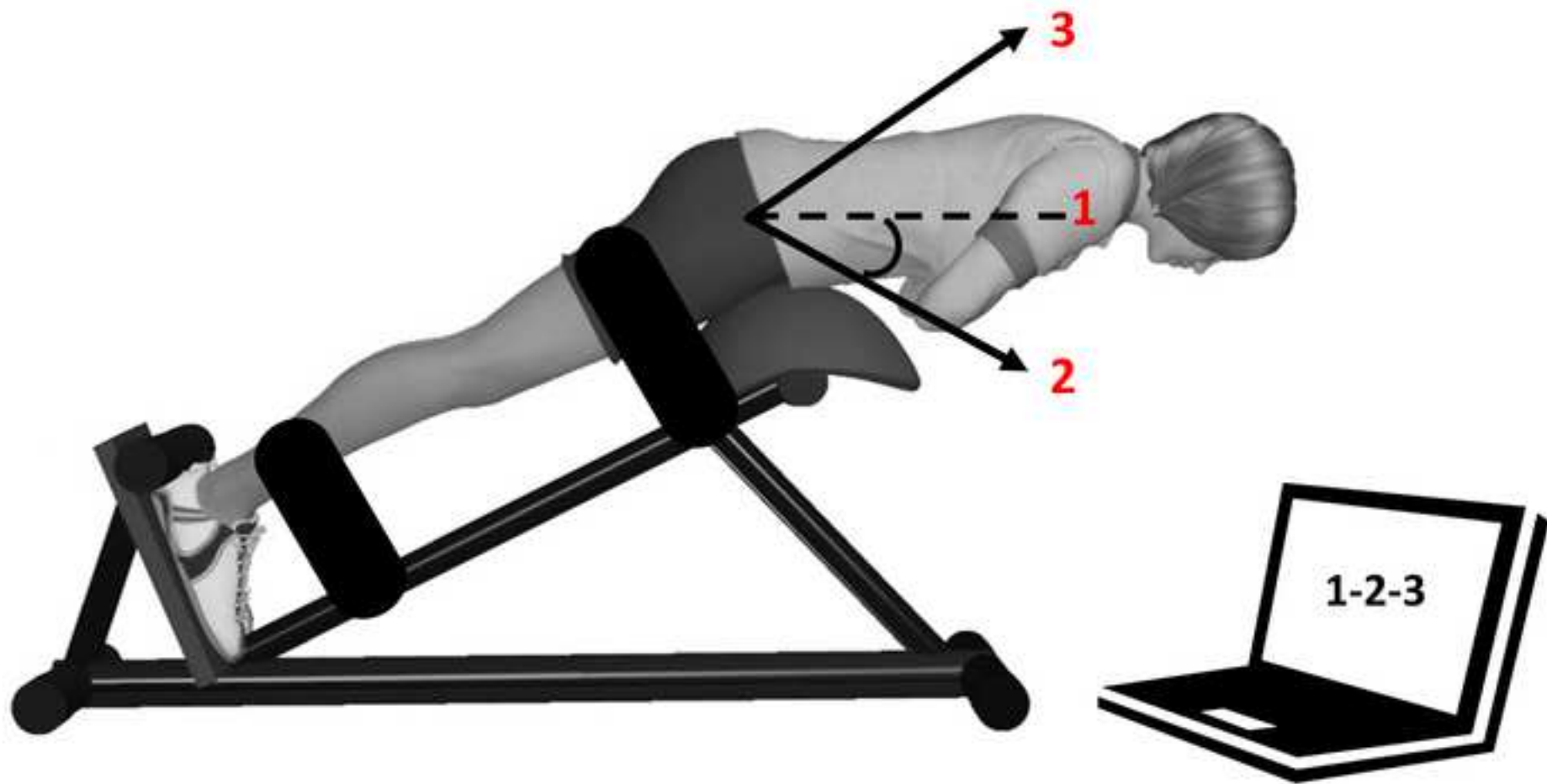
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34 Fig. 6. ANOVA for interaction between direction, force and DOMS for the AE.
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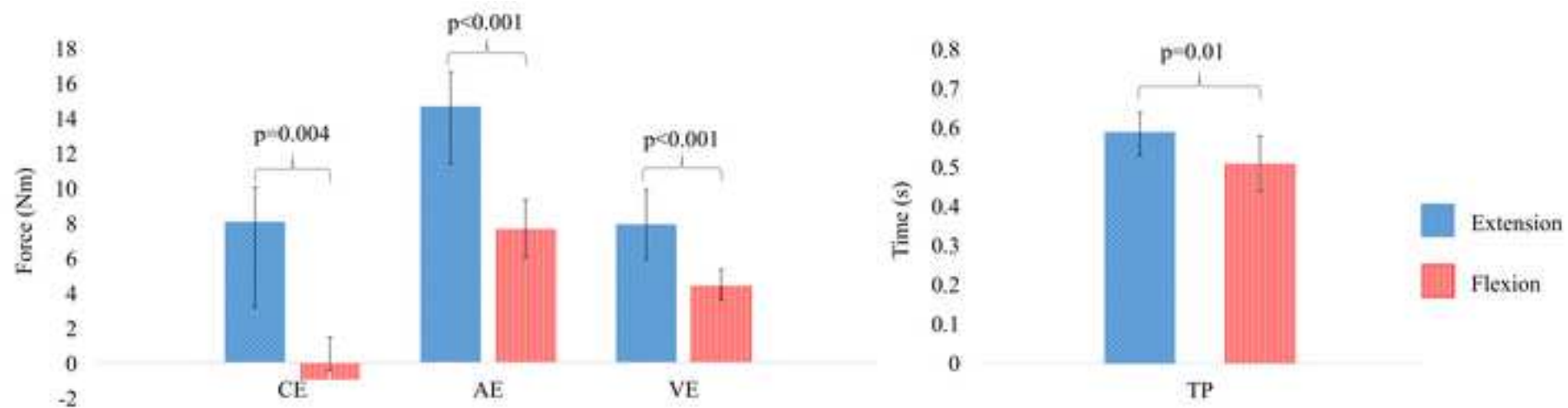
36 Bars indicate standard errors.
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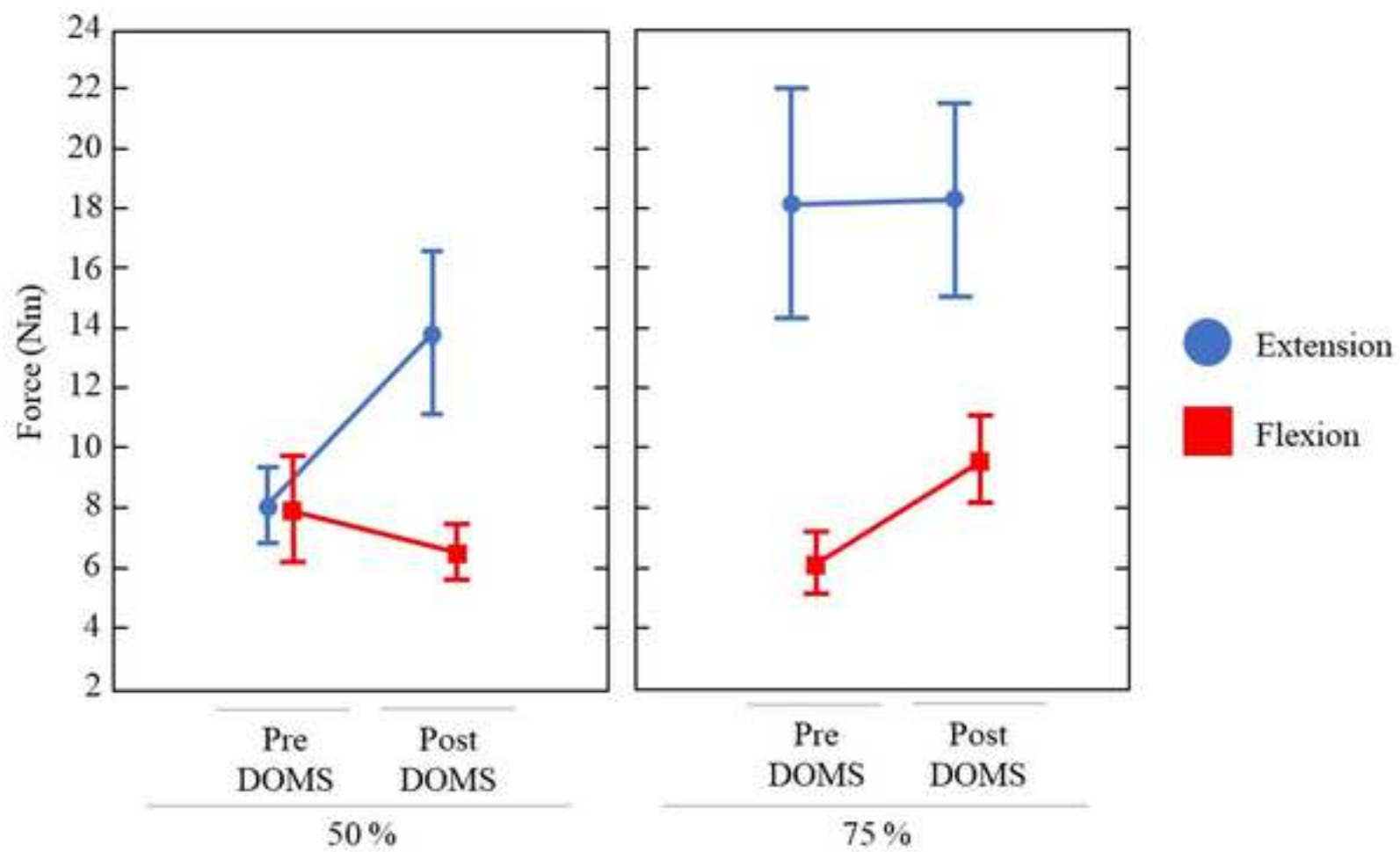












Author contribution statement

All authors have contributed substantially to the manuscript. Study conception and design (MH, JA, MD), acquisition of data (MH, CD, AL, MAM), analysis and interpretation of data (all authors), drafting the manuscript (MH, CD, JA), revising it critically for important intellectual content (all authors), and final approval of the version to be published (all authors).