

1 Acute effects of using individual velocity targets to regulate resistance 2 training load

3 ABSTRACT

4 We determined the acute biomechanical, physiological, and perceptual effects of using
5 individualised velocity targets (IVT) or a percentage of one repetition maximum (%1RM) to
6 regulate resistance training load. Thirty-nine resistance-trained adults (age: 21.8 ± 3.2 years)
7 completed two strength training sessions (five sets of five free-weight back squats) in a
8 randomised, counterbalanced order. The %1RM session involved using a fixed load at 80%
9 1RM, whereas the IVT session used a modifiable load corresponding to the mean velocity at
10 80% 1RM. Kinetic and kinematic data and rating of perceived exertion (RPE) were recorded
11 during training sessions. Countermovement jump (CMJ) height and blood lactate concentration
12 were measured pre- and post-session, and perceived muscle soreness and fatigue were
13 measured 24-hours post-exercise using 10-point Likert scales. We used null-hypothesis
14 significance testing to test for differences between conditions and two one-sided tests (TOST)
15 to assess equivalence. IVT significantly increased sessional mean velocity (mean
16 difference= $0.05 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), peak velocity ($0.08 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), mean power (54.4 W), and peak power (141
17 W), while significantly reducing barbell load (-2.7 kg), RPE (-0.49), time under tension (-0.13
18 s), and velocity loss ($0.02 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), compared to %1RM. IVT and %1RM had equivalent effects
19 on post-exercise perceived fatigue (0.11, 10-point-scale) and pre-post changes in blood lactate
20 (-0.50 mmol/L) and CMJ height (-0.75 cm). In conclusion, using individualised velocity targets
21 to regulate resistance training load increases movement velocity in repeated sets of free-weight
22 back squats but does not meaningfully influence markers of post-exercise fatigue compared to
23 %1RM.

24 **Keywords:** Resistance training; strength training; velocity-based training; fatigue; training
25 load.

26 INTRODUCTION

27 There are several approaches that can be used to prescribe resistance training load. A common
28 method is to use a percentage of one repetition maximum (%1RM) combined with a
29 predetermined number of repetitions (1). However, this approach has been criticised because
30 it does not account for daily fluctuations in an individual's physical performance capability (2).
31 Maximum strength can fluctuate from day-to-day or change throughout a training block.
32 Additionally, the ability to complete repetitions at a given %1RM varies significantly between
33 individuals and across different exercises (3,4). Consequently, prescribing resistance training
34 load based on %1RM may result in a load that is either too light or too heavy for the intended
35 training outcome, potentially leading to suboptimal adaptations.

36 Alternative methods of monitoring and prescribing resistance training load, such as using rating
37 of perceived exertion (RPE) or repetitions in reserve, can account for an individual's perceived
38 performance capability on a given day (5). However, these methods rely on an individual's
39 ability to predict proximity to repetition failure, which is often inaccurate (6). Velocity-based
40 training (VBT) uses instantaneous velocity feedback to objectively monitor and adjust
41 resistance training load (7). Movement velocity and barbell load are inversely related (8,9), and
42 changes in velocity against a given load reflect changes in an individual's performance
43 capacity. Thus, velocity feedback may be used to objectively manipulate resistance training
44 load according to an individual's current physiological state (e.g., the individual's level of
45 fatigue on a given day).

46 Many approaches exist within the VBT paradigm, including the prediction of 1RM strength
47 from velocity obtained against submaximal loads, using relative velocity loss thresholds to
48 manage fatigue, and prescribing individualised velocity targets (IVT) to target components of
49 the load-velocity relationship (10). As one of the most established VBT approaches, IVT
50 involves completing a set of repetitions at a concentric mean velocity that falls within a pre-
51 defined, individually-tailored threshold (e.g., 0.55 to 0.65 m·s⁻¹) (11). Using IVT to prescribe
52 resistance training load has potential to alter the acute biomechanical, physiological, and
53 perceptual responses to resistance exercise (7,12), and hence the time course of post-exercise
54 recovery and resulting training adaptations (13). In a randomised trial with 27 academy rugby
55 league players, we previously reported higher concentric movement velocity and power, and
56 lower RPE and time under tension, in the free-weight back squat when training load was
57 adjusted using IVT compared to using a fixed load based on %1RM, which led to superior

58 velocity-specific adaptations following a 7-week intervention (7). In a cross-sectional study
59 with 15 resistance-trained men, Banyard and colleagues also showed that back squat movement
60 velocity was greater when using IVT compared to %1RM (12). Additionally, the decline in
61 movement velocity across repeated sets of back squats highly correlates with greater post-
62 exercise blood lactate concentration and reductions in countermovement jump (CMJ) height
63 (14). However, no study has tested for equivalence in training responses between IVT and
64 %1RM. This means that it is not known whether differences in acute biomechanical,
65 physiological, and perceptual responses between these two resistance training approaches are
66 large enough to be considered important (15). Additionally, no study has tested whether using
67 IVT to regulate resistance training load influences the extent of post-exercise fatigue, which
68 has important implications for ensuring preparedness for repeated training exposure (16).

69 Therefore, the purpose of this study was to compare effects of using IVT or %1RM on the
70 acute biomechanical, physiological, and perceptual responses to free-weight resistance
71 exercise in resistance-trained adults. We hypothesized that IVT would increase concentric
72 movement velocity in the back squat compared to %1RM. We combined null-hypothesis
73 significance testing with the two one-sided tests (TOST) procedure to identify differences
74 between IVT and %1RM and determine whether those differences were large enough to be
75 considered meaningful.

76 **METHODS**

77 **Participants**

78 Thirty-nine resistance-trained adults participated in this study (Table 1). Eligibility criteria
79 were: (i) aged 18 years to 40 years; (ii) participating in resistance exercise, including the free-
80 weight back squat exercise, on at least one day per week for the last 6 months; and (iii) able to
81 give written informed consent. Main exclusion criteria were: (i) known pre-existing
82 cardiovascular, metabolic, or renal disease; (ii) resting hypertension; and (iii) any injury,
83 physical disability, or cognitive impairment that may contraindicate exercise. The study was
84 approved by the Faculty of Medical Sciences Research Ethics Committee at Newcastle
85 University. All participants provided written informed consent before taking part and were able
86 to withdraw at any point without giving a reason or without any negative consequences. The
87 study protocol was prospectively registered on Open Science Framework
88 (<https://osf.io/kdnuy>).

Table 1. Participant characteristics

	Female (n=12)	Male (n=27)	Total (n=39)
Age (years)	22.3 ± 4.8	21.5 ± 2.1	21.8 ± 3.2
Body mass (kg)	73.3 ± 16.4	83.5 ± 10.4	80.4 ± 13.2
Height (cm)	167 ± 9.0	183 ± 7.0	178 ± 10.8
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.3 ± 5.1	25.0 ± 2.1	25.4 ± 3.3
Ethnicity			
White	11 (92%)	26 (96%)	37 (95%)
Asian British	1 (8%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
Black British	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	1 (3%)
1RM (kg)	96.5 ± 21.1	131 ± 24.0	121 ± 28.1
1RM relative to body mass	1.3 ± 0.24	1.6 ± 0.22	1.5 ± 0.25
Resistance training experience (years)	3.7 ± 3.0	5.0 ± 2.9	4.6 ± 2.9

Data presented as mean ± SD or n (%). 1RM = one repetition maximum; BMI = body mass index.

89 Experimental design

90 This study used a randomised, counterbalanced, crossover design. Participants made four
91 separate visits to the Biomechanics Laboratory at Newcastle University, separated by a
92 minimum of 72 hours. In the first visit, participants performed a 1RM assessment in the free-
93 weight back squat. The second visit involved an incremental loading test in the back squat. In
94 visits three and four, participants completed two strength training sessions in a randomised,
95 counterbalanced order, using either a modifiable load based on individualised velocity targets
96 (IVT session), or a fixed load based on a percentage of 1RM (%1RM session). Before each
97 visit, participants were instructed to avoid lower-body resistance exercise for ≥72 hours, refrain
98 from caffeine intake for ≥12 hours, and to maintain usual dietary habits. Pre-session
99 countermovement jump (CMJ) height was statistically equivalent between strength training
100 sessions (%1RM = 34.8 ± 7.9 cm; IVT = 34.6 ± 7.0 cm, equivalence *p*-value = 0.001),
101 suggesting participants attended sessions in a similar physical condition.

102 Randomisation

103 The randomisation sequence was generated in block sizes of six by an independent researcher
104 using online randomisation software (www.sealedenvelope.com/). The sequence was
105 concealed from participants until the first two laboratory visits were complete.

106 **1RM assessment**

107 The 1RM protocol for the free-weight back squat has been described previously (9,17). Briefly,
108 participants performed a standardised warm-up consisting of 5 minutes stationary cycling,
109 dynamic stretching, and five body weight squats. The same standardised warm-up was
110 undertaken at the beginning of each subsequent visit to the laboratory. Participants then
111 performed five free-weight back squat repetitions at ~50% of their estimated 1RM, followed
112 by three repetitions at ~70% 1RM and two repetitions at ~80% 1RM. Thereafter, participants
113 performed 1RM attempts with progressively increased loads. Participants were required to
114 achieve a parallel squat depth (thigh parallel to the floor), which was monitored by a research
115 team member, to maintain constant downward force on the barbell so it did not leave the
116 shoulders, and to keep their feet in contact with the floor during all repetitions. Back squats
117 were performed with an Olympic barbell (Eleiko, Halmstad, Sweden) placed in a high-bar
118 position inside an adjustable power rack (Perform Better Ltd, Southam, UK). A maximum of
119 five attempts were permitted, with three minutes passive rest in between attempts, and the last
120 successful lift was taken as the 1RM. Participants were provided with strong verbal
121 encouragement throughout.

122 **Incremental loading test**

123 Following the standardised warm-up, participants completed three free-weight back squat
124 repetitions at 40% of 1RM established in the previous visit, three repetitions at 60% 1RM, two
125 repetitions at 80% 1RM, and one repetition at 90% 1RM (7). Participants were verbally
126 encouraged to complete each repetition with maximal concentric velocity, but objective
127 velocity feedback was not provided. Three minutes of passive rest were provided in between
128 sets. A validated linear position transducer (GymAware PowerTool, Kinetic Performance
129 Technologies, Canberra, Australia) was used to measure mean velocity in the concentric phase
130 of each repetition (9,18). Load-velocity relationships were constructed for each participant by
131 plotting mean velocity against load and applying a line of best fit (12). The mean velocity
132 corresponding to 80% 1RM based on the individual's linear regression equation was used to
133 provide individualised velocity targets and modify training load in the IVT session.

134 **Strength training sessions**

135 In both training sessions, participants completed the standardised warm-up followed by five
136 free-weight back squat repetitions at 50% 1RM, three repetitions at 60% 1RM, and three
137 repetitions at 80% 1RM. All back squat repetitions were performed with a controlled, self-

138 selected eccentric velocity until the thighs were parallel to the floor, which was monitored by
139 a research team member and recorded with the linear position transducer. Squat depth was
140 statistically equivalent between training sessions (%1RM: 0.56 ± 0.10 cm; IVT $0.55\text{cm} \pm 0.10$
141 cm, equivalence p -value = 0.035). Participants performed the concentric portion of each
142 repetition as quickly as possible with the aid of strong verbal encouragement. Participants did
143 not have access to velocity feedback in either session because feedback in and of itself can
144 influence training outcomes (19). Three minutes of passive rest were provided between sets.
145 Participants were allowed to wear weightlifting equipment (e.g., belt) if this was consistent in
146 both training sessions.

147 *Percentage of 1RM*

148 Participants completed five sets of five repetitions in the free-weight back squat with a fixed
149 load of 80% 1RM. This load was chosen because 80% 1RM is often prescribed in strength
150 programmes, velocity data obtained at this load is reliable, and it aligns with previous research
151 (7,9,12).

152 *Individualised velocity targets*

153 For the IVT session, participants completed five sets of five repetitions in the free-weight back
154 squat with a load that corresponded to mean velocity at 80% 1RM established from the
155 incremental loading test. If the mean velocity (average of the warm-up repetitions) during the
156 final warm-up set at 80% 1RM was $\pm 0.06 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ outside the target movement velocity, then the
157 barbell load was adjusted by $\pm 5\%$ 1RM for the first “working” set (to the nearest 2.5 kg).
158 Otherwise, the barbell load for the first set was maintained at 80% 1RM. Thereafter, if the
159 (average) mean velocity in a set of five repetitions was $\pm 0.06 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ outside the target movement
160 velocity, the barbell load was then adjusted by $\pm 5\%$ 1RM for the subsequent set. A threshold
161 of $\pm 0.06 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ was chosen based on the magnitude of measurement error in mean velocity (9)
162 and to align with previous research (7,12)

163 **Outcomes**

164 *Biomechanical outcomes*

165 A linear position transducer (GymAware PowerTool) was used to record kinetic and kinematic
166 data in the concentric phase of each back squat repetition, including mean velocity ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$),
167 peak velocity ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), time under tension (s), mean power (W), peak power (W), peak force
168 (N), and work (J). The GymAware PowerTool consists of a floor unit, made up of a spring-

169 powered retractable cable that is wound on a cylindrical spool coupled to the shaft of an optical
170 encoder. The floor unit was placed on the floor perpendicular to the right collar of the barbell.
171 The other end of the cable was vertically attached to the barbell (immediately proximal to the
172 right collar) using a Velcro strap. Vertical displacement of the barbell was measured from the
173 rotational movement of the spool. The GymAware PowerTool also incorporates a sensor
174 measuring the angle that the cable leaves the spool, which enables vertical-only displacement
175 to be measured by correcting for any motion in the horizontal plane (using basic trigonometry).
176 Displacement data were time-stamped at 20 millisecond time points to obtain a displacement-
177 time curve for each repetition, which was down-sampled to 50 Hz for analysis. The sampled
178 data were not filtered. The methods that the GymAware PowerTool uses to calculate kinetic
179 and kinematic data have been described previously (20). Data were transmitted instantaneously
180 via Bluetooth to a tablet (iPad, Apple Inc., California, USA) using the GymAware app and
181 uploaded onto a cloud-based storage system. A member of the research team extracted mean
182 velocity data from the app during the training sessions, while all other biomechanical data were
183 extracted from the cloud-based storage system at a later date. The participant's body mass and
184 the barbell load used were entered into the app prior to each set.

185 We manually calculated velocity loss *within sets* as the average difference in mean velocity
186 between the first and last repetition within each set, and we calculated velocity loss *across sets*
187 as the average difference in mean velocity between the first and fifth set. For the primary
188 analysis, all biomechanical data were averaged across the 25 back squat repetitions to form a
189 single score for each session. We further explored differences in mean velocity, mean velocity
190 loss within sets, and barbell load in each individual set.

191 ***Physiological outcomes***

192 Blood lactate concentration was measured as a marker of metabolic response. Capillary blood
193 samples (20 μ L) were collected following standard laboratory guidelines before each strength
194 training session (prior to the warm-up) and after the final set (within 30 seconds of set
195 completion) and analysed immediately for blood lactate (Biosen C-Line, EKF Diagnostics,
196 Cardiff, UK).

197 Following the collection of the capillary blood sample, CMJ height was recorded as a measure
198 of neuromuscular fatigue using the Optojump photocell system (Optojump, 144 Microgate,
199 Bolzano, Italy), which samples at 1000 Hz and consists of two dual-beam bars (100 x 4 x 3
200 cm) that were placed in parallel approximately 1 m apart (21). Participants placed their hands

201 on their hips and descended downwards to a self-selected level before jumping upwards for
202 maximum height. The pre-exercise CMJ test was completed prior to the warm-up and the post-
203 exercise CMJ test was initiated within two minutes of completing the final set of back squats.
204 Three CMJs were performed, with 60 seconds of rest in between, and the highest jump was
205 used for analysis. The coefficient of variations for CMJ height were 4.4% for %1RM and 3.4%
206 for IVT.

207 *Perceptual outcomes*

208 RPE was collected immediately after the completion of every set of back squats using the 1-10
209 OMNI-RES scale (22). Specifically, participants were asked the same question at the end of
210 each set: “how hard do you feel your muscles were working?”. Participants were initially
211 familiarised with the OMNI-RES scale during the 1RM assessment, which was re-visited
212 during the warm-up repetitions (i.e., back squat repetitions at 50, 60, and 80% 1RM) at the start
213 of each training session. The scale remained in full view throughout the sessions. For our
214 primary analysis, we calculated the mean RPE across sets to form a single score for each
215 training session, and we additionally explored differences in RPE within each set.

216 Participants completed Likert scales for muscle soreness and overall fatigue 24-hours after
217 completing each strength training session (23). The 10-point Likert scale for muscle soreness
218 ranged from ‘no muscle soreness’ to ‘severe muscle soreness’, and the 10-point Likert scale
219 for fatigue ranged from ‘no overall fatigue’ to ‘severe overall fatigue’. Participants were
220 familiarised with the Likert scales and completed them via Google Forms (Google LLC, CA,
221 USA) whilst in a seated, rested position.

222 **Sample size**

223 Our primary outcome was difference in mean velocity between IVT and %1RM, and our goal
224 was to obtain 80% power to reject the presence of an important difference between the two
225 conditions (i.e., test for equivalence). We defined an important mean difference as $0.05 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$
226 (i.e., equivalence bounds of -0.05 and $0.05 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) with an SD of $0.08 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, based on previous
227 research showing that the measurement error in mean velocity is less than $0.05 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and an
228 increase in mean velocity of $0.05 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ in the back squat approximately represents a 5%
229 increase in strength (8,9). Given these parameters and an alpha level of 0.05, 22 participants
230 were required to provide 80% power to reject an important difference using the TOST
231 procedure. We initially recruited 20 participants from October 2021 to February 2022. To
232 ensure we met our required sample size, we chose to hold another “recruitment round” from

233 October 2022 to February 2023, which led to an additional 19 participants, and 39 participants
234 being recruited overall.

235 **Statistical analysis**

236 We tested for differences and equivalence in outcomes between conditions. We used two-sided
237 paired t-tests to test for non-zero differences between conditions, with the mean difference,
238 95% confidence interval, and *p*-value reported. We used the TOST procedure to test for
239 equivalence; that is, to statistically reject the presence of effects large enough to be considered
240 important (15). For TOST, we reported the 90% confidence interval and the one-sided test with
241 the highest *p*-value (15). The TOST procedure requires stipulation of an upper and lower
242 equivalence bound based on a minimum important difference. We considered a standardised
243 effect size of Cohen's $d_z = 0.60$ to be the minimum important difference, based on: (i) it being
244 approximately equal to the minimum important difference in mean velocity ($0.05 \pm 0.08 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)
245 defined *a priori* to inform our sample size calculation, and (ii) standardised mean differences
246 smaller than 0.60 corresponding with qualitative descriptions of “trivial” or “small” (24).
247 Hence, if the entire width of the 90% confidence interval fell within equivalence bounds (d_z)
248 of -0.60 and 0.60, the effect was considered equivalent between conditions. A conventional
249 threshold of $p < 0.05$ was used to denote statistical significance. All data were analysed in R
250 version 4.3.2 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Data and code are
251 available on Open Science Framework (<https://osf.io/r5bgy>).

252 **RESULTS**

253 **Biomechanical outcomes**

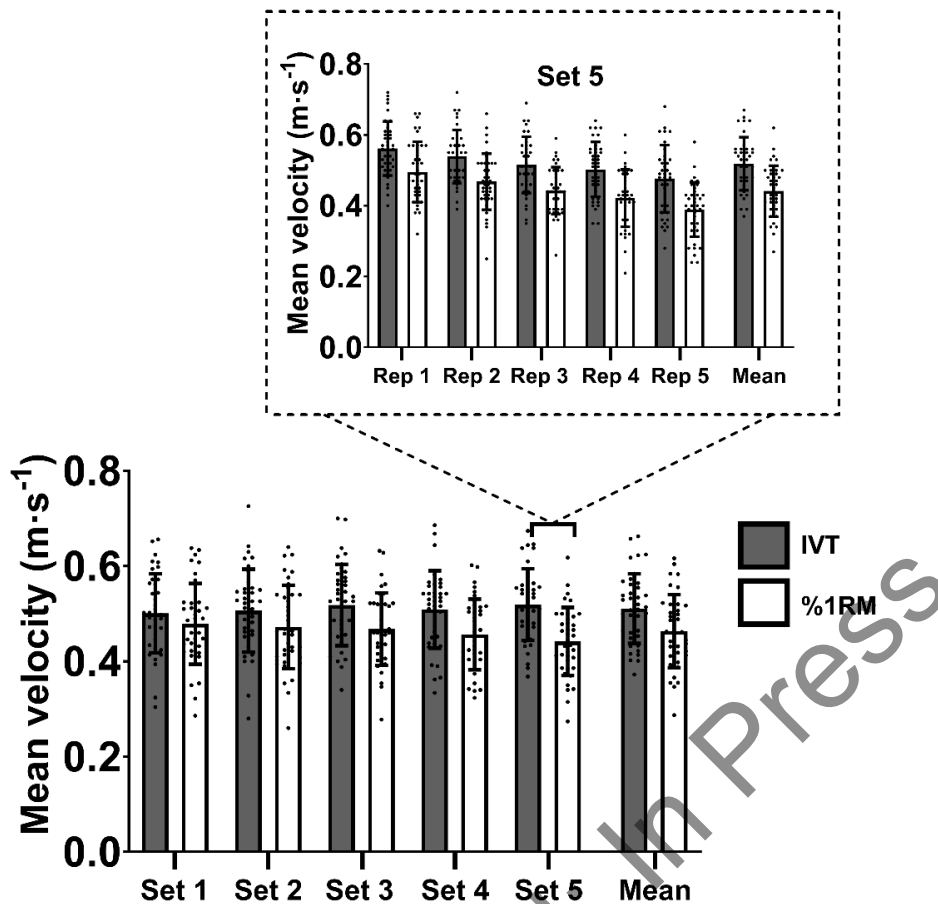
254 Mean velocity in the back squat was significantly higher during the IVT session compared with
255 the %1RM session ($0.05 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, 95% CI: 0.03 to 0.06; Table 2). When broken down into
256 individual sets, mean velocity in every set in the IVT session was significantly higher than the
257 corresponding set in the %1RM session (Figure 1).

Table 2. Biomechanical, physiological, and perceptual outcomes in the IVT and %1RM training sessions

Outcome	n	%1RM (mean ± SD)	IVT (mean ± SD)	Mean difference (95% CI)	p-value for difference	p-value for equivalence
Mean velocity (m·s ⁻¹)	39	0.46 ± 0.08	0.51 ± 0.07	0.05 (0.03 to 0.06)	< 0.001	0.97
Peak velocity (m·s ⁻¹)	37 ^a	0.90 ± 0.16	0.98 ± 0.16	0.08 (0.04 to 0.12)	< 0.001	0.78
Velocity loss within sets (m·s ⁻¹)	39	-0.10 ± 0.05	-0.09 ± 0.04	0.02 (0.00 to 0.04)	0.037	0.061
Velocity loss across sets (m·s ⁻¹)	39	-0.04 ± 0.04	0.02 ± 0.07	0.06 (0.03 to 0.08)	< 0.001	0.80
Barbell load (kg)	39	96.5 ± 22.4	93.8 ± 22.3	-2.7 (-3.8 to -1.7)	< 0.001	0.91
Time under tension (s)	39	1.3 ± 0.23	1.2 ± 0.22	-0.13 (-0.18 to -0.07)	< 0.001	0.78
Mean power (W)	35 ^{a,b}	747 ± 248	802 ± 262	54.4 (12.7 to 96.1)	0.012	0.188
Peak power (W)	35 ^{a,b}	1620 ± 582	1761 ± 659	141 (28.0 to 254)	0.016	0.159
Peak force (N)	35 ^{a,b}	2089 ± 592	2075 ± 588	-14.3 (-77.0 to 48.4)	0.65	0.002
Work (J)	35 ^{a,b}	952 ± 353	931 ± 353	-21.2 (-50.7 to 8.3)	0.153	0.022
CMJ height (cm)	39					
Pre		34.8 ± 7.9	34.6 ± 7.0	-	-	-
Post		33.6 ± 7.3	32.6 ± 6.7	-	-	-
Change		-1.2 ± 3.0	-2.0 ± 3.2	-0.75 (-1.6 to 0.10)	0.083	0.028
Blood lactate (mmol/L)	39					
Pre		2.0 ± 0.92	1.6 ± 0.94	-	-	-
Post		5.4 ± 2.0	4.5 ± 2.0	-	-	-
Change		3.4 ± 2.2	2.9 ± 1.7	-0.50 (-1.0 to 0.01)	0.052	0.045
RPE (0-10)	39	7.3 ± 1.1	6.8 ± 1.0	-0.49 (-0.77 to -0.21)	0.001	0.41
Soreness (0-10)	36 ^c	5.5 ± 1.9	5.0 ± 1.9	-0.56 (-1.1 to 0.03)	0.060	0.053
Fatigue (0-10)	36 ^c	4.7 ± 1.8	4.8 ± 1.7	0.11 (-0.41 to 0.63)	0.67	0.002

%1RM = percentage of 1RM; CMJ = countermovement jump; IVT = individualised velocity targets; RPE = rating of perceived exertion.

^aData from n=2 participants were missing due to the data not being uploaded onto the cloud-based storage system; ^bData from n=2 participants were omitted from the analysis for these outcomes due to barbell load being incorrectly entered into the GymAware app; ^cn=3 participants did not complete the Likert scales.



259

260 **Figure 1. Mean velocity in the free-weight back squat during individualised velocity target**
 261 **(IVT) and percentage of one repetition maximum (%1RM) training sessions.**

262 IVT prevented the loss in mean velocity across the training session ($0.06 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, 95% CI: 0.03
 263 to $0.08 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and attenuated velocity loss within sets ($0.02 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, 95% CI: 0.00 to $0.04 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$).
 264 When individual sets were analysed separately, IVT minimised velocity loss within set 4 and
 265 set 5, whilst velocity losses within sets 1-3 were equivalent between IVT and %1RM sessions
 266 (Table 3).

267 There was an adjustment of barbell load for 22 out of 39 participants (56%) during the IVT
 268 training session. Of these, barbell load was reduced for 21 (54%) participants due to mean
 269 velocity in a set being $\pm 0.06 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ below the individualised target velocity, while barbell load
 270 was increased for one (3%) participant due to mean velocity being $\pm 0.06 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ above the target
 271 velocity. The mean barbell load in the IVT session was significantly lower than the barbell load
 272 in the %1RM session (-2.7 kg , 95% CI: -3.8 to -1.7 kg). When looking at individual sets, barbell
 273 load in set 1 was equivalent between sessions (0.5 kg , 95% CI: -1.0 to 0.02 kg), but barbell
 274 loads in sets 2 to 5 were significantly greater in the IVT session (Table 3).

Table 3. Mean velocity, velocity loss, barbell load, and RPE in each set of back squats in the IVT and %1RM training sessions (n=39)

Outcome	%1RM	IVT	Mean difference (95% CI)	p-value for difference	p-value for equivalence
Mean velocity (m·s⁻¹)					
Set 1	0.48 ± 0.08	0.50 ± 0.08	0.02 (0.00 to 0.04)	0.021	0.093
Set 2	0.47 ± 0.09	0.51 ± 0.09	0.03 (0.01 to 0.06)	0.005	0.23
Set 3	0.47 ± 0.08	0.52 ± 0.09	0.05 (0.03 to 0.07)	<0.001	0.82
Set 4	0.46 ± 0.07	0.51 ± 0.08	0.05 (0.02 to 0.08)	<0.001	0.87
Set 5	0.44 ± 0.07	0.52 ± 0.08	0.08 (0.05 to 0.11)	<0.001	1.00
Velocity loss (m·s⁻¹)					
Set 1	-0.09 ± 0.05	-0.09 ± 0.06	0.00 (-0.02 to 0.02)	0.87	<0.001
Set 2	-0.09 ± 0.06	-0.09 ± 0.05	0.00 (-0.02 to 0.02)	0.81	0.001
Set 3	-0.11 ± 0.08	-0.08 ± 0.07	0.03 (0.00 to 0.06)	0.080	0.030
Set 4	-0.12 ± 0.09	-0.08 ± 0.06	0.03 (0.00 to 0.06)	0.028	0.076
Set 5	-0.12 ± 0.08	-0.09 ± 0.06	0.03 (0.00 to 0.06)	0.034	0.064
Barbell load (kg)					
Set 1	96.5 ± 22.4	96.0 ± 22.4	-0.5 (-1.0 to 0.02)	0.058	0.040
Set 2	96.5 ± 22.4	94.5 ± 21.8	-2.1 (-3.0 to -1.1)	<0.001	0.79
Set 3	96.5 ± 22.4	93.8 ± 22.5	-2.8 (-4.1 to -1.4)	<0.001	0.62
Set 4	96.5 ± 22.4	92.8 ± 22.9	-3.7 (-5.3 to -2.1)	<0.001	0.83
Set 5	96.5 ± 22.4	91.9 ± 22.5	-4.7 (-6.4 to -2.9)	<0.001	0.95
RPE (0-10)					
Set 1	6.4 ± 1.2	6.3 ± 1.2	-0.05 (-0.39 to 0.29)	0.76	0.001
Set 2	6.9 ± 1.2	6.5 ± 1.6	-0.44 (-0.96 to 0.08)	0.098	0.024
Set 3	7.2 ± 1.4	7.0 ± 1.2	-0.21 (-0.66 to 0.25)	0.37	0.004
Set 4	7.7 ± 1.1	7.0 ± 1.3	-0.64 (-0.98 to -0.30)	<0.001	0.54
Set 5	8.2 ± 1.2	7.0 ± 1.3	-1.1 (-1.6 to -0.69)	<0.001	0.92

%1RM = percentage of 1RM; IVT = individualised velocity target; RPE = rating of perceived exertion

276 Peak velocity, mean power, and peak power attained in the back squat during the IVT session
277 were significantly greater than during the %1RM session. In contrast, peak force and work
278 were statistically equivalent between sessions (Table 2).

279 **Physiological outcomes**

280 Pre-to-post changes in CMJ height (-0.75 cm, 95% CI: -1.6 to 0.10 cm) and blood lactate
281 concentration (-0.50 mmol/L, 95% CI: -1.0 to 0.01 mmol/L) were statistically equivalent
282 between IVT and %1RM sessions (Table 2).

283 **Perceptual outcomes**

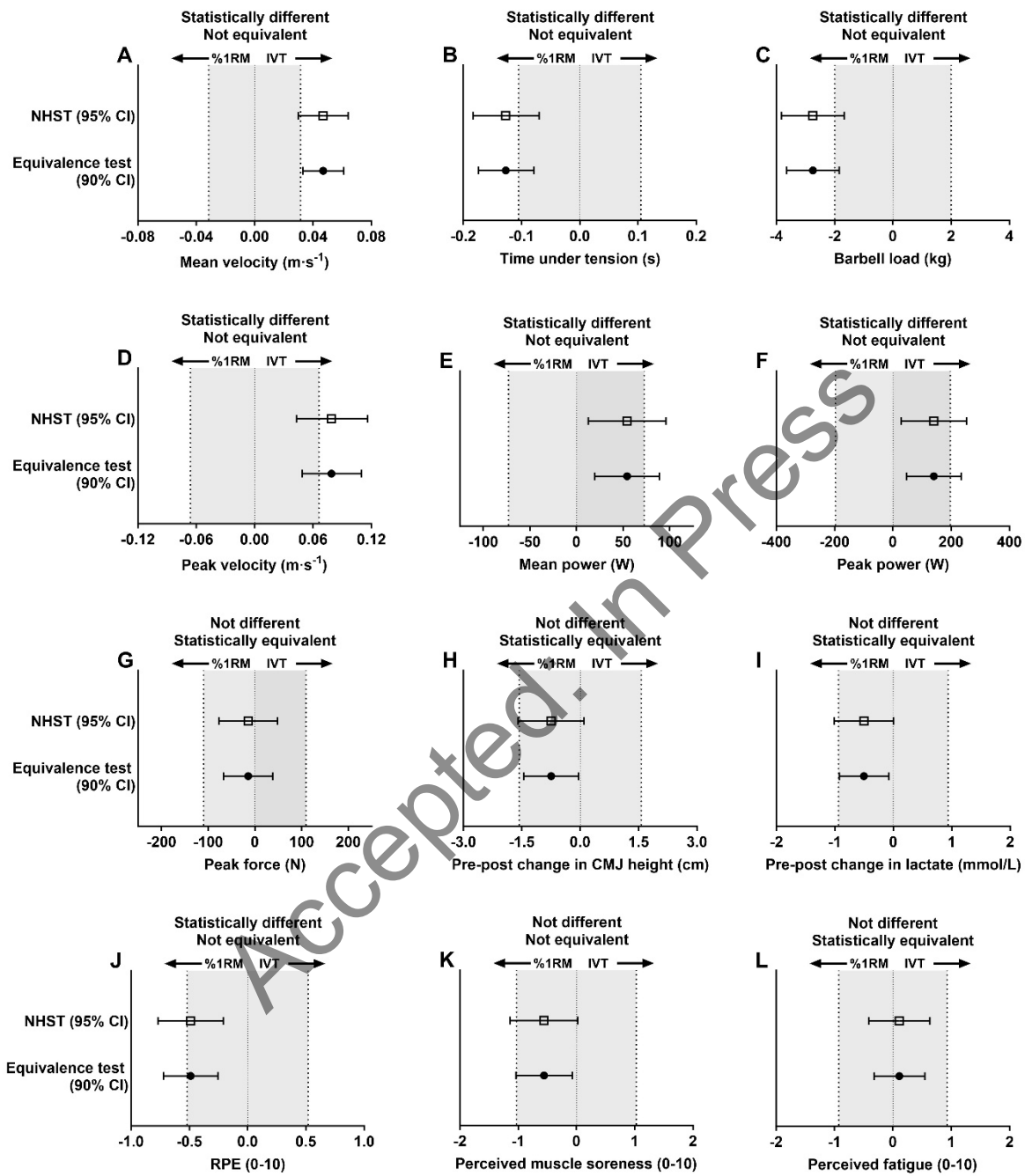
284 Average session RPE was significantly lower in the IVT session compared with the %1RM
285 session (-0.49, 95% CI: -0.77 to -0.21). RPE in sets 1-3 were equivalent between sessions, but
286 RPE in sets 4 and 5 were significantly lower during IVT (Table 3). Perceived fatigue 24-hours
287 after the strength training sessions was equivalent between IVT and %1RM (0.11 on a 10-point
288 scale, 95% CI: -0.41 to 0.63). However, perceived muscle soreness was not different nor
289 equivalent following IVT and %1RM sessions (-0.56 on a 10-point scale, 95% CI: -1.1 to 0.03)
290 (Figure 2).

291 **DISCUSSION**

292 This is the largest cross-over study to date to compare the effects of IVT and %1RM on acute
293 biomechanical, physiological, and perceptual responses to resistance exercise. IVT increased
294 movement velocity and decreased time under tension in repeated sets of free-back back squats
295 compared to %1RM. However, metabolic responses and neuromuscular fatigue immediately
296 following exercise cessation, and perceived fatigue 24-hours post-exercise, were equivalent
297 between IVT and %1RM sessions.

298 Using IVTs increased mean velocity in five sets of the back squat by an average of $0.05 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$,
299 which we defined *a priori* as the minimum important difference. This finding aligns with that
300 from a cross-sectional study with 15 resistance-trained men, which reported mean velocity in
301 the back squat was $0.07 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ higher when training load was adjusted using IVT compared to
302 using a fixed load based on %1RM (12). In our study, the increase in mean velocity was
303 accompanied by enhanced peak velocity, mean power, and peak power, and mirrored changes
304 in barbell load. The greatest difference in mean velocity was observed in the final (fifth) set of
305 back squats, and IVT minimised RPE and the decline in repetition velocity in sets 4 and 5.
306 Collectively, our findings suggest that IVT operates to increase movement velocity and reduce

307 RPE during resistance exercise by reducing barbell load when movement velocity drops below
 308 an individually-tailored target threshold.



309 **Figure 2. Differences in resistance training responses between IVT and %1RM.** Forest plots
 310 displaying mean differences and confidence intervals (CIs) from null hypothesis significance tests
 311 (NHST) and equivalence tests in: (A) mean velocity; (B) time under tension; (C) barbell load; (D)
 312 peak velocity; (E) mean power; (F) peak power; (G) peak force; (H) pre-post change in
 313 countermovement jump (CMJ) height; (I) pre-post change in blood lactate concentration; (J) rating of
 314 perceived exertion (RPE); (K) perceived muscle soreness; and (L) perceived fatigue. Differences are
 315 calculated as the mean score in the individualised velocity target (IVT) session minus the mean score

316 in the percentage of one repetition maximum (%1RM) session. The grey shaded area represents the
317 equivalence bounds. If a 95% CI does not cross zero, the effect is statistically different. If the entire
318 width of a 90% CI falls within the equivalence bounds, the effect is statistically equivalent.

319 Performing back squats with greater concentric movement velocity, over time, may promote
320 velocity-specific adaptations, including reduced antagonist coactivation, greater early phase
321 neural drive, and better coordination (13,25,26). By contrast, evidence of lower barbell load
322 and time under tension in our study suggests that IVT may be suboptimal for muscle
323 hypertrophy based on evidence that higher training volumes lead to greater gains in muscle
324 mass (27,28). Thus, IVT modifies the kinematic and kinetic responses to resistance exercise
325 and, whether this is considered adaptive or maladaptive, depends on the training objective and
326 desired adaptation(s). It should be noted, however, that the effect of IVT on training-related
327 adaptations is currently uncertain owing to the very low quality of evidence (11).

328 Our study showed that the pre- to post-exercise changes in blood lactate concentration and
329 CMJ height were equivalent following IVT and %1RM sessions (Figure 2). In other words,
330 differences in these outcomes were too small to be considered important. We found a similar
331 (equivalent) effect for perceived fatigue recorded 24-hours after IVT and %1RM sessions,
332 which aligns with our previous research (7). The effect estimates have excellent precision; for
333 example, the width of the 95% confidence interval for the difference in CMJ height was just
334 1.7 cm, which is less than the minimum detectable change (29). These findings challenge the
335 commonly held belief that modest reductions in barbell load and time under tension will lead
336 to less neuromuscular fatigue and enhanced recovery (11).

337 Interestingly, rating of muscle soreness 24-hours after IVT and %1RM was neither different
338 nor equivalent. This finding suggests more research is needed to elucidate the effect of using
339 IVT on post-exercise muscle soreness, and reinforces the added value of using equivalence
340 tests alongside null-hypothesis significance tests.

341 This study has many important strengths, including a large sample size of resistance-trained
342 adults, precise estimates, embedded open research practices, and the measurement of a
343 multitude of biomechanical data within and across sets, which may guide hypotheses in future
344 research. Limitations include a lack of participant diversity in terms of age and ethnicity, which
345 could mean our findings are less generalisable to, for example, older and minority ethnic
346 populations. We focused on the free-weight back squat because it is a fundamental exercise
347 used in resistance training interventions and to align with previous research (7,12). However,

348 the application of VBT methods may induce different neuromuscular and metabolic responses
349 to resistance training depending on the exercise used (30,31). While pre-session CMJ height
350 was statistically equivalent between conditions (equivalence p -value = 0.001), we did not
351 assess CMJ height prior to the 1RM assessment, and therefore we cannot guarantee that
352 participants performed the initial 1RM in the same physical condition. Furthermore, we only
353 assessed CMJ height (as a surrogate for neuromuscular fatigue) at one timepoint immediately
354 post-exercise. Resistance training can induce neuromuscular fatigue for up to 72 hours (32),
355 and thus it is possible that we missed potential differences between conditions at later
356 timepoints.

357 In conclusion, using individualised velocity targets to regulate resistance training load operates
358 to increase movement velocity, minimise time under tension, and lower RPE in repeated sets
359 of the free-weight back squat by reducing barbell load when movement velocity drops below
360 an individually-tailored threshold. Metabolic responses and neuromuscular fatigue
361 immediately following exercise cessation, and perceived fatigue 24-hours post-exercise, were
362 equivalent between IVT and %1RM sessions. Therefore, using individualised velocity targets
363 may provide a greater stimulus for velocity-specific adaptations than %1RM but does not
364 meaningfully influence post-exercise fatigue.

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- 462

463 **Contributions**

464 Contributed to conception and design: STO

465 Contributed to acquisition of data: CG, CM, LP, KS, SC, LG, CB

466 Contributed to analysis and interpretation of data: STO

467 Drafted and/or revised the article: STO, CG, CM, LP, KS, SC, LG, CB, WP

468 Approved the submitted version for publication: STO, CG, CM, LP, KS, SC, LG, CB, WP

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476 page (DOI 10.17605/OSF.IO/R5BGY; <https://osf.io/r5bgy>)

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