

1 **Immediate effect of a spinal mobilisation intervention on muscle stiffness,**  
2 **tone and elasticity in subjects with lower back pain – A randomized cross-**  
3 **over trial.**

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5 Rebecca Hamilton <sup>a,\*</sup>, Claire L P Garden <sup>b</sup>, Susan J Brown <sup>b</sup>

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7 <sup>a</sup> Current work address: Cardiff University, School of Engineering, Musculoskeletal  
8 Biomechanics Research Facility, Cardiff, CF24 3AA.

9 <sup>b</sup> Edinburgh Napier University, School of Applied Sciences, Edinburgh, EH11 4BN.

10 \* Corresponding author email: [hamiltonr@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:hamiltonr@cardiff.ac.uk)

11  
12 **Abstract**

13 Background: Despite the lack of objective evidence, spinal manual therapies have been  
14 common practice for many years, particularly for treatment of lower back pain (LBP). This  
15 exploratory study measured and analysed the effect of a spinal mobilisation intervention on  
16 muscle tissue quality in LBP sufferers.

17 Methods: 40 people with LBP participated in a within-subject repeated measures cross-over  
18 study with intervention and control conditions. A myometer was used to assess the change  
19 in para-spinal muscle tissue quality before and after the intervention. Analysis considered the  
20 magnitude of muscle response together with individual covariates as potential contributors.

21 Results: A significant post intervention reduction was observed in muscle stiffness ( $p = 0.012$ ,  
22  $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = 0.15$ ), tone ( $p = 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = 0.25$ ) and elasticity ( $p = 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = 0.24$ ).  
23 Significant increases were seen in 2 variables post control: stiffness ( $p = 0.004$ ,  $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = 0.19$ ),  
24 tone ( $p = 0.006$ ,  $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = 0.18$ ) and a significant decrease in elasticity ( $p < 0.000$ ,  $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} =$   
25  $0.3$ ). Significant contributing covariates include baseline stiffness, BMI, waist circumference  
26 and sex. Baseline stiffness and tone were significantly correlated to their response levels.

27 Conclusions: The significant reduction in all muscle tissue qualities following the intervention  
28 provide preliminary data for an evidence-based LBP therapeutic. Baseline stiffness, BMI, waist  
29 circumference and sex could act as significant contributors to magnitude of response. The  
30 results warrant further investigation into spinal mobilisation therapies to further build the  
31 objective evidence base.

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42 **Introduction**

43

44 Lower back pain (LBP) is one of the most common and economically debilitating pain  
45 conditions globally. It is associated with decreased levels of spinal mobility, limited lumbar  
46 muscle flexibility and altered spinal kinematics (Ferreira et al., 2009; Goertz et al., 2016;  
47 Powers et al., 2008). The likely result of this, is reduced function of the lumbar spine and  
48 increased stiffness. This can have an impact on body movement capability and lead to the  
49 development of chronic problems with posture, coordination and range of motion (RoM)  
50 (Shum et al., 2013, 2007). Manual therapy (MT) is a physical-based therapeutic reportedly  
51 used for LBP treatment which targets musculoskeletal structures through several different  
52 techniques (Bishop et al., 2015). Commonly reported benefits from MT-based techniques are  
53 improvements in RoM, pain relief and muscle stiffness. However, these are often subjectively  
54 assessed (Ferreira et al., 2009; George et al., 2006; Lopez-Lopez et al., 2015) with both positive  
55 (Chiradejnant et al., 2003; George et al., 2006; Haas et al., 2014; Sterling et al., 2001) and  
56 conflicting results (Assendelft et al., 2003; Childs et al., 2004; Goodsell et al., 2000; Stamos-  
57 Papastamos et al., 2011; Thomson et al., 2009). These inconsistencies may be explained by  
58 methodological differences as well as variability in individual responses to treatment (Childs  
59 et al., 2004; Shum et al., 2013). Further, although commonly used in clinical practice to treat  
60 musculoskeletal pain, there is limited understanding of the mechanisms responsible for the  
61 reported benefits of MT (Goertz et al., 2016; Voogt et al., 2015). The rationale to establish the  
62 efficacy of such treatments is supported by the National Institute of Clinical Excellence, given  
63 their low risk of minor side effects and potential millions in economic savings (Carnes et al.,  
64 2010; National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2016; Powers et al., 2008; Stamos-  
65 Papastamos et al., 2011; Wong et al., 2016).

66

67 Spinal mobilisations is a MT technique used to treat such chronic pain (Chiradejnant et al.,  
68 2003; Goodsell et al., 2000; Sterling et al., 2001; Thomson et al., 2009), typically applied in a  
69 precise manner, using low velocity oscillatory movements to mobilise joints and passively  
70 stretch soft tissues (Maitland et al., 2013; Piekarz and Perry, 2015). While objective research  
71 on the efficacy of spinal mobilisations as an LBP treatment has been conducted in recent

72 years, more efficacy based evidence is needed (Piekarz and Perry, 2016), and a better  
73 understanding of the response to such treatment is required.

74

75 Nonetheless, lower back muscle stiffness appears to be a meaningful contributor to reduced  
76 mobility and has seen a growth in investigative literature (Edgecombe et al., 2013; Ferreira et  
77 al., 2009). However, information about other aspects of muscle quality that collectively  
78 contribute to mobility are lacking but are required to aid improved muscle condition  
79 understanding (Kelly et al., 2018; Marusiak et al., 2012; Nair et al., 2016). The capacity of a  
80 muscle to resist deformation, either by contraction or external force can be objectively  
81 measured using a myometer to show stiffness or compliance. A muscle with higher stiffness  
82 has a higher resistance to contraction (Viir et al., 2006). Muscle stiffness can be assessed by  
83 palpation as well as characterised biomechanically. Muscle tone characterises the  
84 background tension of the muscle in a resting state. Background tension is required to retain  
85 stability, structure, and involuntary contractions. However, hypertonicity can cause high  
86 intramuscular pressure and have a harmful effect on muscle recovery. Elasticity of a muscle  
87 describes its ability to return to original shape after deformation and can be used as a  
88 measure for mechanical stability and tissue changes (Kelly et al., 2018; Schneider et al., 2014).  
89 In this study we seek to measure these tissue property changes to contribute to the  
90 knowledge of the effectiveness of spinal mobilisation in people with LBP (Kelly et al., 2018;  
91 Nair et al., 2016).

92

93 This study was an exploratory investigation of MT response and potential contributing factors.  
94 We measured the change in stiffness, tone and elasticity in response to a spinal mobilisation  
95 intervention within an LBP population to provide objective data for this. This is the first  
96 scientific investigation of a 30-minute sustained spinal mobilisation intervention and  
97 objective measures of muscular change. This is to provide a contribution to knowledge on MT  
98 effectiveness and their beneficial mechanisms within LBP and provide recommendations for  
99 further data collection to improve understanding.

100

101 We hypothesised that a reduction in paraspinal muscular stiffness and tone and increase in  
102 elasticity after receiving a spinal mobilisation intervention could be objectively identified with  
103 a validated protocol when compared to a sedentary scenario.

## 104 Methods

### 105 Participants

106 40 participants were recruited for this study (male: n = 18, female: n = 22) in a repeated-  
107 measures cross-over study design, similar to previous investigations (Goodsell et al., 2000;  
108 Jowsey and Perry, 2010; Pecos-Martín et al., 2017; Pentelka et al., 2012). Participants were  
109 recruited through posters and word of mouth advertised at Edinburgh Napier University and  
110 shared on social media.

111

112 Inclusion criteria for participation were: age range 18 to 80 and suffering from any form of  
113 self-reported LBP (acute, chronic, diagnosed, undiagnosed, if pain was experienced in the  
114 region between the 12<sup>th</sup> rib and the gluteal folds within the time of recruitment). Participants  
115 were excluded if they responded positively to any absolute contraindications for spinal  
116 therapy (Liebenson, 2007; Olson, 2009). These include: segment instability, infectious  
117 disease, osteomyelitis, bone tumours, neurological deficit, upper motor neuron lesion, spinal  
118 cord damage, or cervical arterial dysfunction. Participants responding positively to relative  
119 contra-indications were asked to contact their GP and excluded based on severity. These  
120 include: osteoporosis, spinal instability, rheumatoid arthritis, inflammatory disease, active  
121 history of cancer, hypermobile syndrome, segment hypermobility, cardiovascular disease,  
122 cervical anomalies, nerve root disorder, spinal surgery, respiratory problems, thrombosis,  
123 open wounds, local infection and fractures or dislocations (Maitland et al., 2013). Ethical  
124 approval was obtained from the Edinburgh Napier University Research Integrity Committee,  
125 following the ethical guidelines stated by the Declaration of Helsinki.

126

### 127 Procedure

128 Participants attended a control and a spinal mobilisation intervention session one week apart,  
129 at the same time of day for each session. All participants were informed about study details  
130 and provided written consent. Participants were randomly allocated into one of two groups  
131 via a random group generator, alternating the order of session type they received. All data  
132 collection took place in the same treatment room and on the same standard physiotherapy  
133 plinth. Ambient room temperature was controlled (20°-23° Celsius) for all sessions.

134

135 All participants completed the Oswestry Disability Index (ODI) (Fairbank and Pynsent, 2000)  
136 prior to their first session to categorise their level of LBP (Chou and Huffman, 2007; Fritz et  
137 al., 2011; Kamali and Shokri, 2012; Savigny P, Watson P, Underwood M, Ritchie G, Cotterell  
138 M, Hill D, Browne N, Buchanan E, Coffey P, Dixon P, Drummond C, Flanagan M, Greenough, C,  
139 Griffiths M, Halliday-Bell J, Hettinga D, Vogel S, Walsh D., 2009). Anthropometric measures of  
140 height, mass, waist circumference and sex were also recorded. These were taken as pre-  
141 measures to investigate correlations as potential influencers on response and focus on muscle  
142 tissue response as the main investigation.

143

144 The chartered physiotherapist performing the treatment had extensive experience in spinal  
145 mobilisation therapy and as a working physiotherapist in practice at the time of the study.  
146 They performed a 30-minute spinal mobilisation intervention, working at a specific rate  
147 (0.37Hz) maintained by a metronome (on silent but within view of the therapist) set to the  
148 equivalent 22 beats per minute. The physiotherapist worked at a grade lower than grade 1  
149 and specific location (L1-L5), using posteroanterior (PA) mobilisations, oscillating the lumbar  
150 vertebra, with both hands working on one side of the lumbar spine. Contact remained  
151 consistent over the 30-minute period. These intervention parameters were based on previous  
152 physiotherapy practice with anecdotal evidence of success within LBP. The intervention was  
153 focussed on the lumbar spine to facilitate data collection.

154

155 Outcome measures for muscle stiffness, tone and elasticity were taken immediately before  
156 and after both sessions, with participants lying prone. The intervention was performed on  
157 one side of the lumbar spine (determined by pre-intervention stiffness values). The control  
158 session involved no physical touch. The participant lay on the plinth and was encouraged to  
159 relax for 30 minutes. The outcome measures were taken by the lead researcher who was not  
160 involved in performing the intervention but was there to oversee the session.

161

#### 162 Outcome measures

163 Measurements for para-spinal muscle stiffness, tone and elasticity were taken using a  
164 myometer palpation device (MyotonPRO, Myoton Ltd., London UK). This previously validated  
165 handheld device has been documented to give reliable results for muscle stiffness, tone and  
166 elasticity (Bizzini and Mannion, 2003; Marusiak et al., 2012; Pruyn et al., 2015; Schneider et

167 al., 2014; Sohirad et al., 2017; Zinder and Padua, 2011). The myometer uses a series of low  
168 force mechanical impulses (0.4N) registered as an oscillation in the form of an acceleration  
169 signal. The muscle quality parameters are reported as a mean of these impulses along with  
170 the coefficient of variation (CV), with recommended CV acceptance values of <3% (Kelly et al.,  
171 2018; Schneider et al., 2014; Viir et al., 2006).

172

173 Measures were repeated 3 times on each side of the spine, to determine which side had  
174 higher levels of stiffness and therefore the side to receive treatment. This was due to  
175 literature suggesting that greater initial stiffness levels were more likely to respond with a  
176 greater stiffness reduction (Childs et al., 2004; Shum et al., 2013). The location for  
177 measurements were identified on both sides of the spine on a central point of the erector  
178 spinae by asking the participant to lift their head and feet at the same time contracting their  
179 back muscles. This spot was then marked to ensure pre- and post-measures were taken at the  
180 same location. The distance and width from the base of the spine was measured to locate the  
181 same spot for their 2<sup>nd</sup> session. The myometer was held perpendicular to the identified spot  
182 and oscillations were sent through to the corresponding muscle.

183

#### 184 Analysis

185 Analysis was exploratory and therefore carried out on each dependent variable (stiffness,  
186 tone and elasticity) in separate 2-way repeated measure within participant ANOVAs to  
187 determine any significant differences that occurred due to the independent variables;  
188 condition (control and intervention) and time (pre- and post-). Covariates were assessed in  
189 separate ANCOVAs to determine significant factors contributing to muscle changes. Due to  
190 previously reported differences in male and female muscle characteristics (Granata et al.,  
191 2002; Owens et al., 2007), the sex variable was investigated further with independent t-tests  
192 and Pearson correlations, as well as within the ANCOVA analysis. All statistical analysis was  
193 carried out using SPSS (version 23) with the alpha level set at 0.05.

#### 194 Results

195 Pre- intervention anthropometric measures and ODI scores presented in table 1 for 40 LBP  
196 participants and demonstrate a wide LBP population recruitment. Shapiro Wilk tests revealed

197 no normality violations in the dependent variable results. A post-hoc power calculation using  
198 G-power (version 3.1) revealed an accepted power level of 0.91 (alpha = 0.05, sample size =  
199 40, groups = 2, measurements = 3).

200

### 201 Muscle stiffness

202 A 2-way repeated measures ANOVA revealed a pre- to post- intervention significant main  
203 effect interaction (between condition and time). Pairwise comparisons were used to  
204 determine where specific differences lie in a pre- to post- comparison, revealing a significant  
205 stiffness increase within the control and a significant decrease within the intervention (table  
206 2, fig. 1).

207

208 ANCOVA was performed using all covariates to explore their interaction with the change in  
209 stiffness post intervention. Change in stiffness was used as the dependent variable. Pre  
210 intervention stiffness, BMI, ODI, waist circumference, height and sex were added as  
211 covariates. A backward elimination was conducted based on highest p-value. The only  
212 covariate remaining with significant influence was pre-intervention stiffness ( $p = 0.002$ ) with  
213 resultant model  $R^2 = 0.22$  (adjusted = 0.2). There was a significant bivariate correlation  
214 between pre intervention stiffness and change in stiffness (table 3). This results in a negative  
215 correlation due to the reduction in stiffness seen in figure 1.

216

217 An independent t-test revealed a significant difference between male and female  
218 intervention stiffness change ( $p = 0.032$ ). Bivariate correlations for pre-intervention stiffness  
219 and stiffness change carried out separately with male and female data displayed similar  
220 trends (table 3).

221

### 222 Muscle tone

223 A 2-way repeated measures ANOVA revealed a pre- to post- intervention significant main  
224 effect on muscle tone (condition) and the interaction (between condition and time). Pairwise  
225 comparisons revealed a significant tone increase within the control group and a significant  
226 tone decrease within the intervention group (table 2, fig. 2).

227

228 ANCOVA was performed using muscle tone as the dependent variable run in the same way as  
229 above. BMI ( $p = 0.048$ ), waist circumference ( $p = 0.01$ ) and sex ( $p = 0.005$ ) were found to be  
230 significant contributors to tone change with resultant model  $R^2 = 0.253$  (adjusted = 0.19).  
231 There was a significant bivariate correlation between pre intervention tone and change of  
232 tone (table 3), resulting in a negative correlation due to the reduction in tone (fig. 2).

233

234 An independent t-test revealed no significant difference between male and female tone  
235 change ( $p = 0.052$ ). Bivariate correlations for pre intervention tone and tone change  
236 conducted separately with male and female data show different patterns (table 3).

237

### 238 Muscle elasticity

239 A 2-way repeated measures ANOVA revealed a pre- to post- intervention significant main  
240 effect on muscle elasticity (time). Pairwise comparisons revealed a significant increase in  
241 muscle logarithmic decrement within the control from pre- to post-intervention and a  
242 significant increase within the intervention condition (table 2, fig. 3). This equates to a  
243 decrease in muscle elasticity due to its inversely proportional relationship to muscle  
244 decrement.

245

246 ANCOVA was performed using changes in elasticity as the dependent variable, in the same  
247 way as above. There were no covariates with a significant influence on decrement change. A  
248 bivariate correlation between pre-intervention decrement in elasticity and decrement change  
249 was not significant (table 3).

250

251 An independent t-test revealed no significant difference between male and female elasticity  
252 change ( $p = 0.162$ ) and bivariate correlations for pre intervention decrement in elasticity and  
253 decrement change conducted for male and female data displayed no pattern (table 3).

### 254 Discussion

255 The previously reported benefits of MT range from reduced pain, stiffness, fatigue and  
256 improved RoM (Ferreira et al., 2009; Lopez-Lopez et al., 2015; Voogt et al., 2015). Greater  
257 knowledge of the mechanistic changes occurring due to MT will benefit LBP management and



258 inform treatment recommendations. The findings from this study suggest that a reduction in  
259 lower back para-spinal stiffness can be measured after a 30-minute treatment session and  
260 could be determined by initial stiffness levels. These results are an indication of an immediate  
261 effect on muscle tissue quality after this specific 30-minute spinal mobilisation treatment.  
262 However, differences in specific clinical practices should be taken into consideration for the  
263 application of results.

264

265 We show for the first time an immediate, objective and significant reduction in para-spinal  
266 stiffness with a large effect size (table 2) after a 30-minute spinal mobilisation treatment (fig.  
267 1), supported by previous literature (Ferreira et al., 2009; Fritz et al., 2011; Shum et al., 2013;  
268 Wong et al., 2015). However, large SEM values could have resulted from the exploratory  
269 nature of the study and the wide recruitment. This reduces the confidence of the findings;  
270 therefore, we recommend this stiffness reduction is investigated further with distinct LBP  
271 population groups to achieve more meaningful results. Since stiffness characterises the  
272 muscle's ability to resist deformation, and is associated with pain and reduced mobility (Fritz  
273 et al., 2011; Haas et al., 2014; Lopez-Lopez et al., 2015; Vicenzino et al., 2001), a reduction in  
274 stiffness of these muscles may allow greater compliance to muscle contraction and therefore  
275 improve movement fluidity (Ferreira et al., 2009). This study demonstrates the impact of lying  
276 stationary for 30 minutes can have on stiffness, reinforcing the recommendation to reduce  
277 sedentary behaviour, a known risk factor for developing LBP and chronic stiffness (Hartvigsen  
278 et al., 2018; Naraoka et al., 2017).

279

280 Improved knowledge of muscular stiffness has been identified as crucial to understand  
281 underlying mechanistic changes in therapeutic interventions and apply them effectively to  
282 the populations at most need (Bailey et al., 2013; Kelly et al., 2018). Potential mechanisms  
283 responsible have been suggested to involve the activation of somatosensory signals.  
284 Mechanical induction of sensory nerves may cause adaptive signalling in the muscle spindles  
285 (stretch receptors) affecting muscle fibre ability to respond to changes in shape (Pickar and  
286 Bolton, 2012; Reed et al., 2014). Differences between the mechanical induction of muscle  
287 stretch response verses an active muscle stretch response could be further investigated in an  
288 MT and stretching study to help decipher the benefits of each. Information on significant  
289 influencers on stiffness change, such as initial stiffness levels and anthropometric measures,

290 may help to inform these mechanistic theories through predictive modelling in large scale MT  
291 studies.

292

293 While this exploratory study demonstrates the benefit of a single MT session, there is a lack  
294 of statistical power describing the influencing factors and warrants further investigation. The  
295 key influence of initial stiffness levels could be further investigated by taking into  
296 consideration prior environmental influences on stiffness. As no significant differences were  
297 found between the control and intervention condition pre-stiffness levels (fig. 1), it was  
298 concluded that the protocol design had been successful in controlling for this. Further studies  
299 investigating other stretching and movement related interventions may also contribute  
300 insight into mechanistic changes and influencing factors.

301

302 Although the ANCOVA results showed that initial stiffness was a significant contributor to  
303 stiffness response (and a significant correlation, table 3), results for sex as a covariate were  
304 more complex. Sex did not account for the variance in stiffness within the ANCOVA model  
305 and suggests that initial stiffness values have greater influence than sex on stiffness response,  
306 supported by similar correlation trends for males and females (table 3). This could be further  
307 investigated in a sex comparison study, given the known difference between male and female  
308 muscle composition (Granata et al., 2002; Nair et al., 2016; Owens et al., 2007). It is important  
309 to note that, while ODI, BMI, waist or height measurements do not contribute to stiffness  
310 response, they could still influence the initial stiffness values. Though previous studies have  
311 also found similar baseline and stiffness change correlations (Ferreira et al., 2009; Shum et  
312 al., 2013) this correlation has not been defined objectively as a clinical predictor for  
313 intervention response (Fritz et al., 2011; Nim et al., 2020; Wong et al., 2015). The availability  
314 of objective measurement tools for muscle health, such as a myometer, will enable  
315 monitoring of intervention effectiveness for types of responders, potentially developing  
316 stiffness thresholds for responders.

317

318 Similar results for muscle tone (fig. 2) and stiffness indicate that both variables respond to the  
319 intervention in a similar way. Pre- tone measures in the control and intervention conditions  
320 were very similar with less variation than pre- stiffness measures. Muscle stiffness and tone  
321 depict different aspects of muscle quality. The myometry form of muscle tone describes

322 resting muscle tension and is mechanically represented by the acceleration frequency of the  
323 oscillations induced and recorded. The reduced variation in tone baseline and SEM values  
324 compared to stiffness may be explained by its intrinsic nature (required for resting tension)  
325 as oppose to responsive (Bizzini and Mannion, 2003; Schneider et al., 2014; Viir et al., 2006).

326

327 The ANCOVA results for tone response revealed BMI, waist circumference and sex as  
328 contributing factors, different to the contributing factors for stiffness response. Comparison  
329 of male and female trend lines demonstrated different patterns in their pre- intervention and  
330 tone change correlations (table 3) supporting sex as a contributing factor to muscle tone in  
331 the ANCOVA model. Though stiffness and tone display similar pattern changes in previous  
332 studies (Gervasi et al., 2017; Nair et al., 2016), the resultant difference in contributing factors  
333 between them may indicate key underlying differences in their response mechanisms. The  
334 electrical signals responsible for muscle tone, though likely still influenced by adaptive  
335 signalling, may result in a greater number of influencing factors compared to tissue stiffness.

336

337 A reduction in both tone and stiffness can be beneficial to populations with chronic pain and  
338 limited movement (Chuang et al., 2012; Fröhlich-Zwahlen et al., 2014; Wong et al., 2015).  
339 Hypertonia is associated with mobility restrictions and chronic pain in conditions such as  
340 stroke and Parkinson's (Fröhlich-Zwahlen et al., 2014). It will therefore benefit clinicians to  
341 monitor these variables and relate to functional output in rehabilitative interventions  
342 together with changes in their patients' pain.

343

344 Elasticity results show a higher degree of variance compared to stiffness and tone (fig. 3)  
345 which is consistent with previous literature (Gervasi et al., 2017; Schneider et al., 2014). An  
346 increase in dissipation of mechanical energy (logarithmic decrement) equates to a lower level  
347 of elasticity in the muscle and its ability to recover shape after deformation (Bailey et al.,  
348 2013; Chuang et al., 2012). Both control and intervention conditions resulted in decreased  
349 elasticity in this study, suggesting that both stationary relaxing and MT affected the elasticity  
350 of para-spinal muscles in a similar way. A similar report (Schneider et al., 2014) found a  
351 decrease in stiffness and tone and an increase in decrement after testing muscles in  
352 weightlessness conditions. The reason for this is unclear and was suggested to be the result  
353 of a relaxed state. The passive nature of the therapy may have resulted in an elasticity

354 decrease because of the participant lying still with no active movements. Therefore muscles  
355 may require active movements to have an improved effect on elasticity and could be explored  
356 in future studies with MT compared to exercise type therapies to investigate this further.

357

### 358 Limitations and Future Study

359 The results in reduced muscle stiffness and tone after a 30-minute MT intervention are  
360 encouraging. This prospective study has provided promising preliminary data and warrants  
361 further investigation to better understand the influencing factors to this muscular response  
362 and the mechanisms responsible.

363

364 Though BMI was measured in this study, this variable does not give an accurate depiction of  
365 muscle to fat ratio. Adipose tissue could be beneficial to measure in future studies as a  
366 covariate due to potential influence on stiffness results (Fröhlich-Zwahlen et al., 2014).  
367 Although the factorial, within-participant analysis should reduce this influence on stiffness  
368 due to the relative change within each participant between groups, it would be beneficial to  
369 accurately measure and investigate this variable.

370

371 Increasing the number of participants recruited with higher levels of pain, together with more  
372 comprehensive methods to rate level of pain and post intervention pain, may assist in the  
373 development of this area of research to investigate the relationship between pain and  
374 stiffness. Physical activity levels were not controlled in this study and could be a factor in  
375 baseline levels of stiffness, tone and elasticity (Nair et al., 2016). Therefore, more  
376 investigation into potential lifestyle contributions to pain in LBP could give added information  
377 about potential influences on spinal stiffness. The previously reported optimum number of  
378 treatment sessions has been 12 (Ferreira et al., 2009; Haas et al., 2014), therefore, further  
379 investigation into treatment dose and number of sessions would contribute to knowledge on  
380 MTs.

381

### 382 Conclusions

383 The 30-minute spinal mobilisation intervention had a significant immediate effect on muscle  
384 quality showing a stiffness and tone reduction in sufferers of LBP when compared to a control  
385 intervention. Initial levels of stiffness contributed to reduction levels post intervention and

386 there was more variance in contributing factors for tone and elasticity. Although significant  
387 differences between male and female stiffness results were found, sex was not a significant  
388 contributor to stiffness reduction and likely affected initial baseline levels. Preliminary results  
389 show an immediate muscular response after a MT intervention and further study could  
390 investigate an accumulated effect after repeated sessions with further explanatory measures.

391

#### 392 Clinical Relevance

- 393 • Findings reported of an exploratory investigation providing new objective evidence of  
394 a spinal mobilisation intervention.
- 395 • Results reveal an immediate reduction in myometry measured muscle stiffness and  
396 tone with baseline stiffness, waist circumference, BMI and sex as significant  
397 contributors.
- 398 • Objective muscle data provided for an evidence-based contribution towards manual  
399 therapy treatments.

400

401 Keywords:

402 Lower back pain

403 Spinal mobilisations

404 Myometry

405 Muscle stiffness

406

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411

#### 412 Declaration of Interest

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415 in study design, data collection and analysis.

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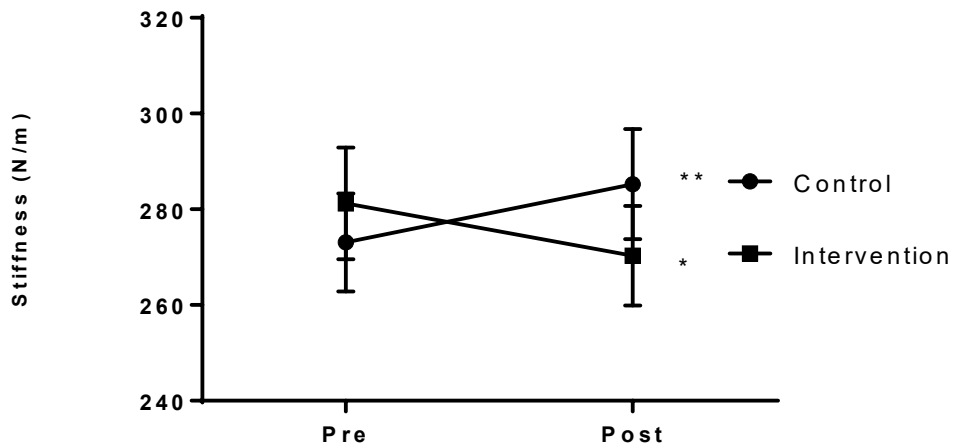
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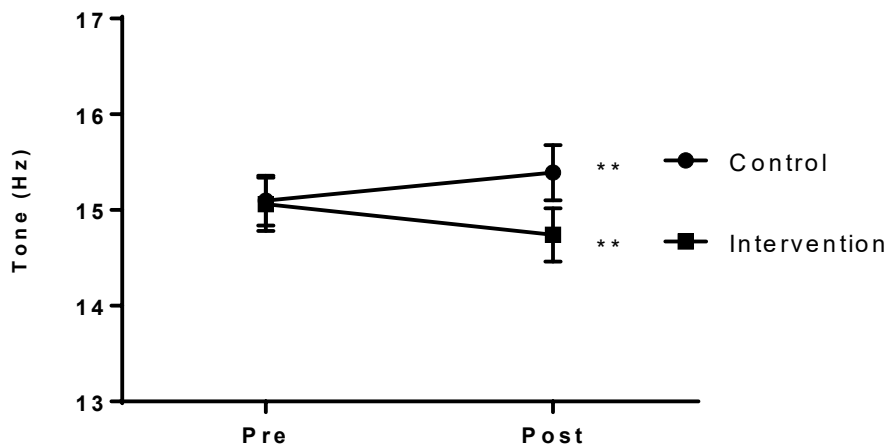
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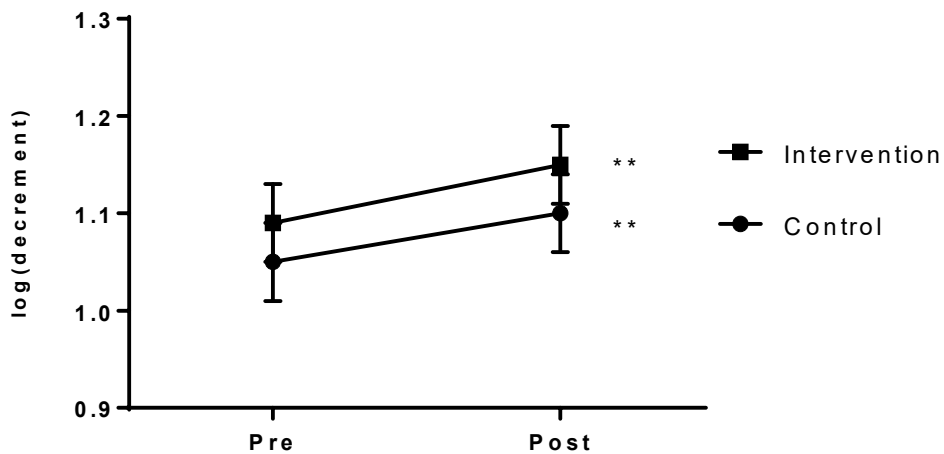
615

616 **Figure 1.** Muscle stiffness change for mobilisation intervention from pre (281.24Nm ± 11.68)  
 617 to post (270.28Nm ± 10.4) and control condition from pre (273.07Nm ± 10.22) to post  
 618 (285.26Nm ± 11.45). No significant difference was found between pre- control and pre-  
 619 intervention groups ( $p = 0.154$ ). 2-way repeated measures ANOVA data presented with SEM  
 620 error bars. \* denotes significant change with  $p$  value < 0.05, \*\* denotes a significant change  
 621 with  $p$  value < 0.01.



622

623 **Figure 2.** Muscle tone change for mobilisation intervention from pre (15.06Hz ± 0.29) to post  
 624 (14.74Hz ± 0.28) and a control condition from pre (15.1Hz ± 0.26) to post (15.39 ± 0.28). 2-  
 625 way repeated measures ANOVA data presented with SEM error bars. There was no significant  
 626 difference between pre-control and pre-intervention values for muscle tone ( $p = 0.793$ ). \*  
 627 denotes significant change with  $p$  value < 0.05, \*\* denotes significant change with  $p$  value <  
 628 0.01.



629

630 **Figure 3.** Muscle elasticity change for mobilisation intervention from pre ( $1.09 \pm 0.04$ ) to post  
 631 ( $1.15 \pm 0.04$ ) and control condition from pre ( $1.05 \pm 0.04$ ) to post ( $1.1 \pm 0.04$ ). 2-way repeated  
 632 measures ANOVA data presented with SEM error bars. There were no significant differences  
 633 between pre control and pre intervention values ( $p = 0.098$ ). \* denotes significant change with  
 634  $p$  value  $< 0.05$ , \*\* denotes significant change with  $p$  value  $< 0.01$ . Decrement is inversely  
 635 proportional to elasticity, therefore an increase in the decrement equates to a decrease in  
 636 elasticity.

637

638 **Table 1.** Anthropometric and pain participant data collected before study testing.

639

	Male Data Mean ± SEM (n=18)	Female Data Mean ± SEM (n=22)	All Data Mean ± SEM (n =40)	All Data Range
Height (m)	1.79 ± 0	1.66 ± 0	1.72 ± 0	1.6 – 1.9
Mass (kg)	81.2 ± 1.6	69.3 ± 2.9	74.7 ± 1.9	52.5 – 95.7
BMI	22.3 ± 0.6	25.2 ± 0.9	25.2 ± 0.6	18.3 – 33.7
Age (years)	31.6 ± 3	30.7 ± 2.3	31.1 ± 1.8	22 - 66
Waist circumference (cm)	88.6 ± 8.3	82.8 ± 12.7	84.8 ± 1.6	71 - 113
ODI score (%)	14.8 ± 10.8	13.5 ± 9.5	14 ± 1.5	1 - 38
Minimal 0 – 20%	Minimal = 15	Minimal = 18	Minimal = 34	
Moderate 20 – 40%	Moderate = 3	Moderate = 4	Moderate = 6	

640

641

642

643 **Table 2.** ANOVA results for all 3 variables with pre and post pairwise comparisons.  
 644

	ANOVA	Pairwise pre- and post-comparisons	F stat (1, 39)	P value	Effect size ( $\eta^2_{\text{partia}}$ )
Muscle Stiffness	Condition		0.544	0.465	0.014
	Time		0.065	0.8	0.002
	Interaction		12.411*	0.001 *	0.241*
		Control		0.004 *	0.19 *
		Intervention		0.012 *	0.15 *
Muscle Tone	Condition		4.942 *	0.034 *	0.11 *
	Time		0.04	0.842	0.001
	Interaction		20.908 *	<0.001 *	0.349 *
		Control		0.006 *	0.18 *
		Intervention		0.001 *	0.25 *
Muscle Elasticity	Condition		3.243	0.079	0.077
	Time		30.913 *	<0.001 *	0.442 *
	Interaction		0.582	0.45	0.015
		Control		<0.001 *	0.3 *
		Intervention		0.001 *	0.24 *

645 **Table 3.** Bivariate correlation between pre intervention values and level of change value for  
 646 all 3 variables.  
 647

		p value	r value
Muscle stiffness	Male	0.137	-0.37
	Female	0.057	-0.41
	All Data	0.002 *	-0.47 *
Muscle tone	Male	0.756	0.079
	Female	0.012 *	-0.528 *
	All Data	0.044 *	-0.32 *
Muscle elasticity	Male	0.992	0.002
	Female	0.228	-0.268
	Elasticity	0.508	-0.108

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 649  
 650  
 651