

# National Strength and Conditioning Association Position Statement on Weightlifting for Sports Performance

Paul Comfort,<sup>1,2</sup> G. Gregory Haff,<sup>1,2</sup> Timothy J. Suchomel,<sup>1,3</sup> Marcos A. Soriano,<sup>4</sup> Kyle C. Pierce,<sup>5</sup> W. Guy Hornsby,<sup>6</sup> Erin E. Haff,<sup>1,7</sup> Lesley M. Sommerfield,<sup>8</sup> Shyam Chavda,<sup>9,10</sup> Stephanie J. Morris,<sup>11</sup> Andrew C. Fry,<sup>12</sup> and Michael H. Stone<sup>13</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Salford, Greater Manchester, United Kingdom; <sup>2</sup>Edith Cowan University, Perth, Australia; <sup>3</sup>Carroll University, Waukesha, Wisconsin; <sup>4</sup>Camilo José Cela University, Madrid, Spain; <sup>5</sup>Louisiana State University, Shreveport, Louisiana; <sup>6</sup>West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia; <sup>7</sup>Australian Weightlifting Federation, Chandler, Australia; <sup>8</sup>Tyler Independent School District, Tyler, Texas; <sup>9</sup>London Sports Institute, Middlesex University, London, United Kingdom; <sup>10</sup>British Weightlifting, Leeds, United Kingdom; <sup>11</sup>Cardiff Metropolitan University, Cardiff, United Kingdom; <sup>12</sup>University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas; and <sup>13</sup>East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee

## Abstract

Comfort, P, Haff, GG, Suchomel, TJ, Soriano, MA, Pierce, KC, Hornsby, WG, Haff, EE, Sommerfield, LM, Chavda, S, Morris, SJ, Fry, AC, and Stone, MH. National Strength and Conditioning Association position statement on weightlifting for sports performance. *J Strength Cond Res* 37(6): 1163–1190, 2023—The origins of weightlifting and feats of strength span back to ancient Egypt, China, and Greece, with the introduction of weightlifting into the Olympic Games in 1896. However, it was not until the 1950s that training based on weightlifting was adopted by strength coaches working with team sports and athletics, with weightlifting research in peer-reviewed journals becoming prominent since the 1970s. Over the past few decades, researchers have focused on the use of weightlifting-based training to enhance performance in nonweightlifters because of the biomechanical similarities (e.g., rapid forceful extension of the hips, knees, and ankles) associated with the second pull phase of the clean and snatch, the drive/thrust phase of the jerk and athletic tasks such as jumping and sprinting. The highest force, rate of force development, and power outputs have been reported during such movements, highlighting the potential for such tasks to enhance these key physical qualities in athletes. In addition, the ability to manipulate barbell load across the extensive range of weightlifting exercises and their derivatives permits the strength and conditioning coach the opportunity to emphasize the development of strength-speed and speed-strength, as required for the individual athlete. As such, the results of numerous longitudinal studies and subsequent meta-analyses demonstrate the inclusion of weightlifting exercises into strength and conditioning programs results in greater improvements in force-production characteristics and performance in athletic tasks than general resistance training or plyometric training alone. However, it is essential that such exercises are appropriately programmed adopting a sequential approach across training blocks (including exercise variation, loads, and volumes) to ensure the desired adaptations, whereas strength and conditioning coaches emphasize appropriate technique and skill development of athletes performing such exercises.

**Key Words:** strength-speed, speed-strength, power, sports performance, long-term athletic development

## Section 1: Biomechanics of Weightlifting—Considerations for Strength and Conditioning

### Historical Perspective of the Evaluation of the Snatch, and Clean and Jerk in Weightlifting Competitions

The origins of weightlifting and feats of strength can be traced back ~4,000 years in Egypt and ~2,500 years in China and Greece (246,318), with the first world weightlifting championship being held in London in 1891 (27,278) and the introduction of the sport into the modern Olympic Games in Athens in 1896, where the 1-hand snatch, and clean and jerk lifts were contested. In 1925, the Fédération Internationale Haltérophile (predecessor of the International Weightlifting Federation) published the first

authentic list of World Records, including the following exercises: 1-hand (right and left) snatch, 1-hand (right and left) clean and jerk, and the 2-hand lifts: press, snatch, and clean and jerk (246,318). However, when introduced at the Amsterdam Olympic Games in 1928, the weightlifting program was limited to 3 lifts: the press, snatch, and clean and jerk (commonly performed as a split snatch and split clean), with the press being excluded from competition after the 1972 Olympics, leaving only the snatch, and clean and jerk performed in competitions today (92,278,318). For more information, readers are referred to [https://iwf.sport/weightlifting/\\_/history/](https://iwf.sport/weightlifting/_/history/).

Weightlifting research, regarding the biomechanics of weightlifting, originated in the 1970s, highlighting the high forces, rate of force development (RFD), and power output produced during weightlifting movements (19,85,87,96,99–105,117–119,152,221). Much of this research focused on the biomechanics of the snatch, and clean and jerk during competition (19,99–102), comparisons between sexes (103), comparisons between levels of performance

Address correspondence to Paul Comfort, [p.comfort@salford.ac.uk](mailto:p.comfort@salford.ac.uk).

*Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research* 37(6)/1163–1190

© 2023 National Strength and Conditioning Association

(152), methods of predicting performance (104), and derivatives of the component exercise (e.g., power clean and power snatch; pulling variations [i.e., weightlifting derivatives]) used by weightlifters (42,68,85,96,117,118). Of particular importance to strength and conditioning professionals is the dynamic correspondence between weightlifting movements and vertical jump performance (41,42,68,105) with Garhammer and Gregor (105) reporting similarities in the propulsive phases of the snatch and countermovement jump.

Additional observations supporting the notion that there is a dynamic correspondence between weightlifting exercise and other sporting activities are the fact that the transition phase during the pull, generally referred to as the “double knee bend,” stimulates a stretch-shortening cycle (SSC) response (35,85–87,106,278) as does the initial dip during the jerk and its variations (97,107). By contrast, the second pull phase (aka. from the power position through to full extension) and the thrust phase during the jerk and its variations facilitate the production of the greatest forces, RFD, and power outputs because of the rapid extension of the knees, hips, and ankles (85,100,101,117,221). Such observations and biomechanical similarities highlight the potential for using these exercises to enhance overall athleticism in nonweightlifters. In fact, Chiu and Schilling (39) suggested that the factors related to the double knee bend in the weightlifting movements exert a dynamic correspondence with many of the central movements that underpin sports performance.

It is consistently noted that because of the lower barbell displacements required to successfully perform the clean compared with the snatch (55–65% vs. 62–78% of the lifters height), the loads lifted in the clean are ~18–20% heavier than those achieved during the snatch, as a result of the differences in barbell displacement (282). These observations highlight that the clean and jerk may be used to emphasize force production (strength-speed), whereas the snatch may be used to emphasize movement velocity (speed-strength) (152), although the actual targeted outcome will be mitigated by the load used when performing these exercises. Moreover, when performing the power snatch, where the barbell displacement is notably greater than the snatch, peak velocity during the pulling motion must be greater than what is typically observed during the snatch. Similarly, because of the increased displacement required in the power clean and power snatch, higher RFD and impulse have generally been observed when compared with the clean and snatch (152).

When pulling motions (i.e., pulling derivatives) have been examined, it has been noted that they allow the athlete to use loads well above those used during the snatch or clean (96) because of the removal of the catch from the movement (48,53,283,288). For example, it is well documented loads of between 100 and 140% of the athlete’s maximum snatch or clean can be used when only performing the pulling motion, permitting a strength-speed emphasis. The use of higher loads in the pulling motions performed from the knee or midhigh does offer some benefits to nonweightlifters because programming pulls performed from the floor with loads between 80 and 102.5% of 1 repetition maximum (1RM) and the midhigh pull with loads between 105 and 135% of 1RM have been reported to result in enhanced jumping, sprinting, and change of direction (COD) performance (293,294). However, it is important to note that these activities should be carefully structured as part of a holistic periodized training plan.

Weightlifting movements are commonly divided into distinct phases to make each of these complex, multijoint movements easier to understand, coach, and perform. Breaking the movements into their key phases enables the strength and conditioning coach, and

athlete, to develop a better grasp of each component and how to perform them and have permitted researchers to evaluate specific phases and components of each exercise. The snatch and clean consist of 5 phases: (a) first pull (aka. lift off), (b) transition (aka. double knee bend), (c) second pull (aka. power position to full extension), (d) catch, and (e) recovery. The jerk consists of 4 phases: (a) dip, (b) drive (aka. thrust), (c) catch, and (d) recovery.

### **Adoption of Weightlifting Exercises in Strength and Conditioning**

Before weightlifting research becoming widely available, some coaches (often with weightlifting backgrounds) had already adopted weightlifting training methodologies to enhance the force-production capabilities of their athletes (258,306). For example, Alvin Roy, credited with being the first professional strength coach, originally implemented weightlifting style training with high school athletes in the early 1950s and in the National Football League later in the same decade (258,306). Similarly, Boyd Epley, the founder of the National Strength and Conditioning Association, implemented strength training, including weightlifting, at the University of Nebraska from the early 1970s (258). In addition, Harold O’Bryant (213), as part of his dissertation, implemented several weightlifting style programs, with an emphasis on squats and pulling derivatives, in high schools in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, from 1978 to 1980. Generally, strength and conditioning coaches incorporate weightlifting exercises and their derivatives (e.g., power clean, power snatch, clean pulls, and snatch pulls) into their athletes’ training programs because of the high forces, RFD, and power outputs exerted during these exercises (85,119,133,152,276,283,288). Additional biomechanical similarities have been noted between weightlifting, jumping, sprinting, and COD in terms of the rapid and forceful extension of the knees, hips, and ankles (plantar flexion) (31,32,41,42,68,105,133), with maximal performance in weightlifting exercises reported to be strongly associated with performance in jumping (31,32,105,132), sprinting (132,271), and COD tasks (132). Weightlifting exercises have also been reported to result in some of the highest power outputs of any exercises commonly used in training (100,103,104,278), with weightlifters also demonstrating greater force and power outputs during unloaded and loaded jumps, when compared with powerlifters, sprinters, and wrestlers (190,277).

Interestingly, it is during the second pull phase of the clean and snatch and the thrust phase during the jerk where the greatest force, RFD, and power outputs are generated, whether the clean, snatch, pulling variations (catch phase excluded), or jerk variations are performed by weightlifters (35,85,100,101,117,134,152,155,156,158,161,163,221,276,316). However, it should be noted that the joint-level contributions to the whole lift do vary with load (158,159,162,163). Peak force and RFD are higher in the power clean and power snatch, compared with the clean and clean pull and snatch and snatch pull, respectively, when performed with maximal loads, although the loads are lower during these power variations (118). These differences are likely due to the greater impulse required to accelerate the barbell to achieve the greater displacement associated with the power variations. In addition, pulling variations are also commonly used by weightlifters to enhance barbell acceleration through the rapid production of high forces (85,87,274,276,278,280,281).

It was not until more recently that comparisons between weightlifting exercises and their derivatives have been evaluated in

nonweightlifters, including the effect of load, on kinetic (i.e., force, RFD, and power) and kinematic (i.e., velocity and displacement) variables (43,45,46,48,50,53,68,284–286,301,302). Interestingly, the second pull phase still results in the greatest kinetic and kinematic outputs, even when performed in isolation (midhigh power clean and midhigh clean pull) (43,46,48,53). Such pulling derivatives also permit a strength-speed emphasis, with the use of loads ranging up to 140% of the 1RM during the power clean (48,49,51,53,195–197,283,288,293,294).

### Comparisons With Other Modes of Exercise

There are numerous modes of training (e.g., general strength training, ballistic training, plyometric training, and bodyweight training) that are all beneficial to the development of muscular strength and power, with each mode having its own advantages and disadvantages (296). For example, bodyweight training is accessible for all and requires minimal or no equipment; however, adding load relies on one moving from a bilateral to split stance or unilateral stance and is therefore somewhat limited. General strength training is easy to progress in terms of load, but results in deceleration throughout a large part of the range of motion (115,211,270) with much lower rates of acceleration in traditional strength exercises (e.g., squat, bench press, and deadlift) when compared with weightlifting exercises (106). Ballistic training eliminates the deceleration phase associated with general strength training but cannot be loaded to the extent that traditional strength exercises and weightlifting movements can. As such, weightlifting movements are often considered to be semiballistic. Plyometric training provides excellent transference to some sporting tasks, emphasizes movement velocity and stimulation of the fast SSC (ground contact times <250 ms), but as with ballistic training, and is difficult to externally load while maintaining short ground contact time and the time under tension is limited. Weightlifting, especially certain derivatives, can be used to train across a wide variety of loads, such as ballistic training (e.g., jump shrug at loads of 30–60% 1RM hang power clean) (113,283,284,288,298–300,302), while pulling derivatives can be performed at high loads (e.g., mid-high clean pulls and hang clean pulls at loads  $\leq$ 140% 1RM power clean) (48,53,146,195,197,283,288,317) with a ballistic intent, minimizing the deceleration phase associated with strength training. Ideally, a combination of these different training methods should be included in an athlete's training program, with each appropriately emphasized/de-emphasized, ensuring appropriate individualization to efficiently achieve the predetermined goals of each training block (113,296).

### Weightlifting Training Interventions in Comparison With Other Training Modalities

Numerous training interventions have been published in which researchers have reported the improvements in sport and related performance (e.g., jump, sprint, and COD) being associated with the implementation of weightlifting-based training methods (10–12,37,38,40,44,127,131,137–139,142,143,216,217,227,236,274,293,294,305,310). In addition, the authors of a recent meta-analysis concluded that weightlifting training results in greater ( $g \geq 0.95$ ) improvements in maximum strength, jump height, linear sprint, and COD performance when compared with traditional resistance training (202). Furthermore, Morris et al. (202) also reported that when weightlifting training is compared with

plyometric training, there was no significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) differences in the improvements in performance between conditions, albeit with small to moderately ( $g = 0.31$ – $0.69$ ) greater improvements in favor of weightlifting. These findings are in line with findings reported in earlier meta-analyses (24,109). However, it is important to consider that one advantage that weightlifting training offers over ballistic and plyometric training is the fact that notable increases in maximal force production will also occur, in addition to improvements in rapid force production.

It is, however, important to note that not all study findings support the conclusions of Morris et al. (202), Hackett et al. (109), and Berton et al. (24). For example, Helland et al. (128) have reported that weightlifting does not transfer to jumping and sprint performance to the same degree as motorized strength and power training or free weight strength and power training. Careful inspection of Helland et al. (128) weightlifting-based training program reveals that the authors only used weightlifting movements (i.e., snatch, clean, power snatch, and power clean) and did not implement any weightlifting derivatives or other strength training methods commonly used by weightlifters as part of their training intervention, which may partially explain why there was a lack of transference to sports-based training methods. In addition, the subjects had minimal experience in strength training, particularly with weightlifting movements, and the weightlifting technique was not explicitly described. As such, it is likely that any improvements in weightlifting would be attributed to technique rather than muscular adaptations. Conversely, most of the studies in which the results illustrate enhanced performance with weightlifting exercises have used training programs that have integrated weightlifting movements into a training program that either includes combinations of weightlifting derivatives and traditional strength training methods (i.e., squatting and pressing) or traditional strength training and plyometric training. Based on the results of several meta-analyses (24,109,202), strength and conditioning professionals should integrate weightlifting, strength development, and plyometric training methods into a more holistic programming strategy when attempting to enhance sports performance in other sports.

The combination of general strength training and weightlifting exercises in a complementary manner makes sense because strength underpins performance in athletic tasks (64,65,115,295–297), and increases in strength are associated with increases in RFD (2,3,7,8,181,323). This is supported by the findings of a recent study where training at high loads (80–90% 1RM) resulted in greater improvements in rapid force production (e.g., force at 50, 100, 150, 200, and 250 ms) compared with training at moderate loads (60–82.5% 1RM) (47). Increasing force over a given epoch results in an increased impulse (mean force  $\times$  time), with relative impulse determining acceleration of the athlete or any object (e.g., barbell and ball) that the impulse is applied to, thereby enhancing performance through an increased movement velocity. In addition, using musculoskeletal modeling, Kipp (156) reported that both strength training and speed-strength training would reduce the relative effort during the first and second pull phases of weightlifting exercises.

## Section 2: Weightlifting Derivatives

### Weightlifting Catching, Pulling, and Overhead Derivatives

In addition to the main competitive lifts (i.e., snatch, and clean and jerk) associated with the sport of weightlifting, there are numerous weightlifting derivatives that can be programmed by

strength and conditioning coaches. Weightlifting derivatives are modifications of the competition lifts that allow for key positions to be strengthened and enhanced. Weightlifting derivatives are broken into 3 classifications, including (a) catching, (b) pulling, and (c) overhead pressing. Catching derivatives alter the depth at which the barbell is caught, so that the top of the thigh is above parallel (usually with the term “power” before clean or snatch) and can also be initiated from a variety of positions (e.g., floor, knee, hang, or midhigh) (283,288,316) (Table 1). Pulling derivatives are modifications to the competitive lifts that remove the catch phase from the exercise and can be initiated from a variety of positions (e.g., floor, knee, hang, or midhigh) (283,288,316). Finally, the overhead pressing derivatives (e.g., push press, push jerk, and split jerk) are performed either separate to the clean, during training, by taking the bar off blocks or stands (266), or in combination to the clean, power clean, or front-squat exercises, exercises that may proceed the overhead pressing derivatives (Table 1), forming a training structure referred to as a weightlifting complex. In addition, weightlifting complexes may lead to a more efficient way of implementing weightlifting derivatives for enhancing athletic performance in nonweightlifters and improving sport performance in weightlifters. As an example, practitioners could prescribe a weightlifting complex composed of a power clean, front squat, and push jerk with a load equivalent to 70–80% 1RM of the power clean, targeting a strength-endurance emphasis (depending on the total number of repetitions), but using different derivatives.

**Weightlifting Catching Derivatives.** The historic use of catching derivatives is likely due to the familiarity of strength and conditioning coaches with the movements from the sport of weightlifting, but also due to the research that has supported their use over other resistance training methods (131,219,305,310). There are several advantages of weightlifting catching derivatives including postural strength, coordinated loaded triple extension and flexion of the knee, hip, and ankle joints providing a load acceptance stimulus (54,200,292), albeit comparable with that of a jump landing (200) and cocontraction of the spinal stabilizing muscles. In addition, having to catch the barbell ensures high levels of intent to sufficiently displace the barbell to the required catch height.

Although catching derivatives are inherently more complex than pulling variations because of additional catching component, Haug et al. (126) indicated that 4 weeks (2 sessions per week [20–30 minutes]) of learning the hang power clean yielded improvements in squat jump and countermovement jump power output. It is important to note that although learning the weightlifting movements, the strength and conditioning coach can implement targeted strength development in other focused exercises such as squats, deadlifts, and presses. This ensures that although the athlete is learning the lifts, the barbell loads do not need to be excessive, with an emphasis on refining technique, because they are exposed to adequate stimuli from focused strength exercises to continue to develop their strength in key movements. As such, if the athlete is not familiar with weightlifting exercises, the load should be increased in a progressive and conservative manner, whereas appropriate technique is developed (see subsection “Pedagogical Approaches and Feedback Strategies” for more detail). Although some authors have suggested using loads calculated based on a percentage of body mass for novice lifters (178,179), this practice does not account for the notable differences in relative strength between individuals and should therefore be discouraged.

**Weightlifting Pulling Derivatives.** Weightlifting pulling derivatives have similar benefits as the catching derivatives, specifically the coordinated triple extension movement. In contrast to catching derivatives, pulling derivatives are less limited from a loading standpoint because of the removal of the catch phase, reducing the complexity and the need to displace the bar to a sufficient height to permit the catch, permitting loads >100% of the 1RM of the catching derivative (48,49,51,53,114,195–197,293,294). In fact, researchers have reported that certain pulling derivatives may be prescribed with loads up to 120% of a 1RM catch variation from the floor (114) and even 140% from the knee or midhigh (48,49,51,53,195–197,293,294). This opportunity for higher loads permits a greater strength-speed emphasis compared with catching variations, thereby enhancing maximal force and rapid force production (283,288,293,294). On the lower end of the loading spectrum (e.g., 30–60% 1RM), athletes can still maximize their effort because of the ballistic nature of certain pulling derivatives, such as the jump shrug (157,160,284,298–300,302) and the hang high pull (157,286,298,299,302–304). During the jump shrug and hang high pull, velocity and therefore power output tend to be maximized with loads as low as 30–45% of a hang power clean 1RM (285,298,299,302,304).

An additional benefit of weightlifting pulling derivatives may be a decreased technical complexity compared with catching derivatives. The omission of the catch phase decreases the relative complexity of pulling derivatives, which may make them inherently easier to teach and learn. In fact, many of the pulling derivatives are key components of the International Weightlifting Federation–approved teaching progressions for the full competition lifts (148), as discussed in several coaching and technique articles (72–74,147,148,201,230,278,279,289–291). As such, these variations are more easily included in the training program for beginners, whereas the technique of the more technically demanding lifts is developed and refined. It is important that sound technique and maximal intent are used during pulling derivatives because the athlete could simply “go through the motions” when the need for maximal intent is reduced by removing the catch. When used in isolation from the weightlifting movements, pulling derivatives may lack the magnitude of cocontraction of the core musculature (i.e., erector spinae, rectus abdominus, and

**Table 1**  
**Weightlifting exercises and derivatives.\***

Catching derivatives†	Pulling derivatives‡	Overhead pressing derivatives
Midhigh clean/snatch	Midhigh pull	Push press
Countermovement clean/snatch	Countermovement shrug	Push jerk
Clean/snatch from the knee	Pull from the knee	Split jerk
Hang clean/snatch§	Hang pull§	Behind the neck push press/jerk‡
Clean/snatch	Pull from the floor	Behind the neck split jerk‡
	Hang high pull	
	Jump shrug	

\*Variations from midhigh and the knee can start with the barbell resting on blocks, or with the athlete holding the barbell and lowering to the start position and briefly pausing. Currently, there is minimal research comparing the kinetics or kinematics of these variations.

†All clean/snatch variations can be performed with a partial-squat (power) or full-squat catch.

‡All derivatives may be performed with either clean or snatch grip.

§Starting with the legs extended, initiated by flexing the hips to perform a countermovement down to the knees (both above and below the knee commonly used), followed by the double knee bend and rapid triple extension.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by ZU0yST9lqF0w2eKCHABBJYhKFKz7T2leKpmY0jGn165D sqkR66ANms11BwIKT840iS8CvBwBTmj7XQR85H1MLPfqjO86LZEIWI4gWEE7K1YSAPg9YFS3F9KZAJ6j8UyTTVdxkP0= on 07/31/2023

quadratus lumborum) associated with the catch phase of the catching derivatives; however, research is required to quantify potential differences. In addition, during pulling derivatives, as the bar does not have to be displaced to a sufficient height to ensure that the catch is possible, some athletes may lack intent when performing these exercises, as such the strength and conditioning coach should cue the athlete to use maximal intent or substitute the exercises for one where the athlete displays intent. Ideally, the pulling derivatives should not be used as replacements for catching derivatives but should serve as complementary exercises, which broaden the strength and conditioning coach's "toolbox" of exercises.

**Weightlifting Overhead Pressing Derivatives.** In weightlifting, the jerk phase of the clean and jerk is the primary weightlifting overhead pressing exercise that takes place during competitions (266,278,279). During training practices, the jerk can be subdivided into several groups of assistance exercises including (a) strengthening exercises as the overhead press, push press, jerk drives, and jerk dips and (b) technique exercises as the push/split jerk (depending on the preferred technique of the lifter and including the front rack and behind the neck variations), jerk lock-outs, and jerk recoveries (147). However, in nonweightlifters, the push press, push jerk, and split jerk (including the front rack and behind the neck variations for all these lifts) are the most common overhead pressing derivatives used in strength and conditioning programs for developing athletic performance (Table 1) (266). These complex, ballistic multijoint movement patterns require the lifter to generate high forces through rapid extension of the knees, hips, and ankles (i.e., triple extension), transmitting these through the trunk to the upper extremities (214,266), to provide a sufficient impulse to accelerate the barbell overhead. These exercises share similar lower-body propulsion kinematics during the dip (unweighting and breaking phase of a quick partial squat) and drive/thrust phase (rapid extension of the knees, hips, and plantar flexion of the ankles) (166,167,262,265). The main differences between these lifts occur after the lower-body propulsion phase where there are differences in barbell displacements and the athlete's position during the catch phase (262,265). During the push press, the barbell is accelerated upward through the extension of the legs and pressed upward through the full flexion of the shoulders and extension of the elbows, whereas the feet remain in complete contact with the ground. When performing the push jerk, after completing the extension phase, the athlete rebends their knees and catches the barbell in a 1/4 squat position, whereas in the split jerk, the athlete moves their feet into a split position when receiving the barbell overhead (262,265,266). In addition, the position of the barbell with respect to the lifter's body and the hand spacing may subdivide the push press, push jerk, and split jerk into different complementary exercises such as the snatch grip push press or jerk, which is initiated from a position behind the neck (Table 1) (94,147,266).

Researchers have suggested that weightlifting overhead pressing derivatives may enhance muscular strength development in nonweightlifters (266) because these exercises allow athletes to lift heavy loads in a ballistic manner. In fact, the jerk is the only sporting task where the human being has been able to lift 3 times their body mass overhead (278). Recently, researchers have reported that there are differences between the 1RM performance for the push press, push jerk, and split jerk (261,262,265), where the largest loads are typically lifted during the split jerk, followed by push jerk (95% of the normalized split jerk performance) and push press (87% of the normalized split jerk performance)

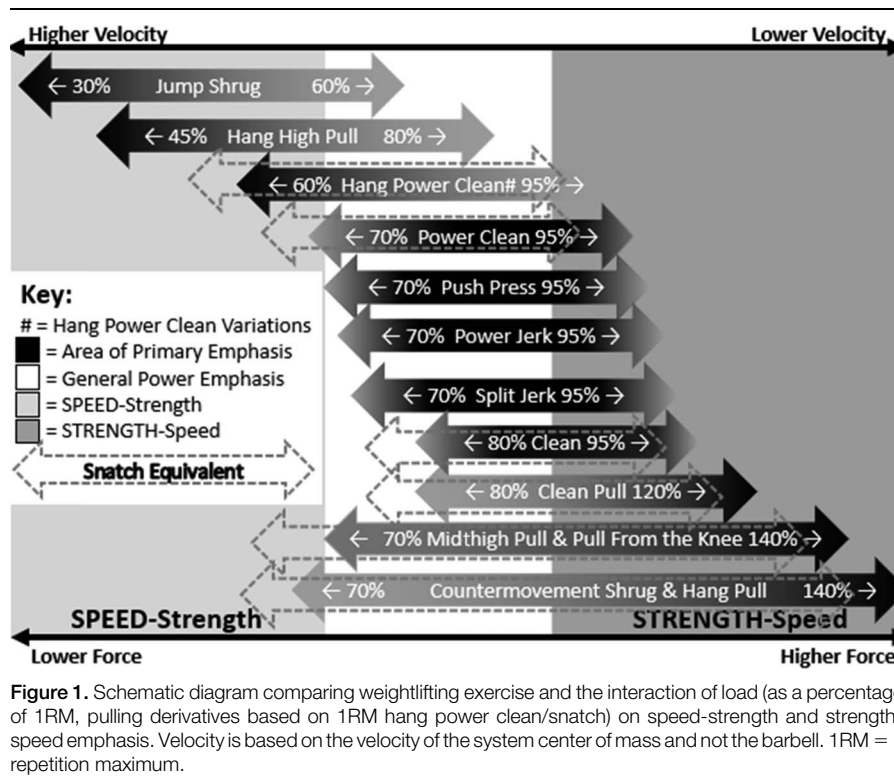
(261,262,265), with the differences attributable to differences in the required barbell displacement to complete each lift (e.g., lower barbell displacement in the split jerk). However, the differences in 1RM are likely greater in elite weightlifters because Roman (238) has previously reported that the push jerk was about 90% of the maximum split jerk performance. Therefore, it seems that these differences are related to technical competence, where greater differences between the push press, push jerk, and split jerk 1RM performances have been reported for skilled weightlifters (22%) when compared with CrossFit athletes (11%) and a mixed group of athletes (14%) (262). Therefore, strength and conditioning coaches should be aware of the differences in the 1RM performance between the push press, push jerk, and split jerk when prescribing training loads to achieve the desired adaptations and that these differences may also be affected by the athlete's technical competence.

According to Hori et al. (133), the weightlifting overhead pressing derivatives can be classified as strength-speed exercises because the jerk is the exercise where the largest loads are lifted to an overhead position, and, furthermore, to succeed in the lift, it must be performed quickly, with the propulsion phase lasting  $259 \pm 24$  milliseconds (107,266,278). The combination of the force, because of the heavy loads that can be lifted, and velocity (barbell speeds:  $1.06\text{--}1.9 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ) (102,107,119,152,166), results in an ideal stimulus for targeting the ability to develop the strength-speed necessary to enhance athletic performance. This is also supported by several researchers who have reported high power outputs (2,500–6,760 W) and propulsion forces during the push press, push jerk, and split jerk (52,100,102–104,119,152,167), which are notably greater than those produced during the back squat (104). These higher power outputs are likely a result of the ballistic nature of the overhead lifts and the shorter range of motion necessary to complete each lift. Interestingly, the loads that maximize power production during these lifts are generally  $\geq 70\%$  of 1RM (52,94,119,152,166,167,180). Therefore, strength and conditioning coaches should consider using the push press, push jerk, and split jerk with loads  $\geq 70\%$  of 1RM to target the development of strength-speed in sporting populations (Figure 1).

Interestingly, there are no meaningful differences in lower-body kinetic differences between the push press, push jerk, and split jerk when performed at the same standardized load (80% of 1RM push press) (265). Although further research comparing the effect of load and exercise is needed, considering that heavier loads may hypothetically be lifted during the push jerk and split jerk based on the higher 1RM performances associated with these exercises (261,262,265), these exercises require the athlete to generate greater propulsion forces and power outputs at heavier loads (Figure 1). In fact, the ability to lift heavier loads depends greatly on the ability to rapidly generate force (103–105), so that a sufficient impulse (force  $\times$  time) developed to accelerate the athletes' mass and the barbell. Therefore, it is important that athletes master the push jerk and split jerk exercises to achieve greater propulsion forces and power development by means of lifting heavier relative loads when the training goal is improving maximal strength-speed development.

#### **Effect of Exercise and Load on Kinetics and Kinematics**

The results of several surveys of strength and conditioning coaches have highlighted the perceived importance of prescribing weightlifting exercises and their derivatives (79–83,259). The



results of these surveys are not surprising because combining weightlifting exercises and their derivatives with traditional resistance training exercises (e.g., squat and deadlift variations) has been reported to provide a superior training stimulus over other forms of resistance training, ultimately resulting in greater improvements in sporting tasks (e.g., jumping, short sprint, and COD performance) (10–12,24,37,38,40,44,127,131,137–139,142,143,216,217,227,236,293,294,305,310). Strength and conditioning coaches must, however, decide which exercise and load combinations will address specific training goals (e.g., strength-endurance, strength-speed, and speed-strength) while also considering the athlete’s technical competency, mobility, relative strength, and injury status.

Comfort et al. (43,46) conducted the first known studies comparing weightlifting derivatives in nonweightlifters, identifying that the midhigh power clean and midhigh pull resulted in greater force, RFD, and power output compared with the power clean and the power clean from the knee, although there were no differences between the midhigh power clean and midhigh pull. Suchomel et al. (298,299,301,302) investigated alternative weightlifting derivatives, reporting that greater force, velocity, power output, RFD, impulse, and work were produced during the jump shrug and hang high pull when compared with the hang power clean across a spectrum of loads (30, 45, 65, and 80% 1RM hang power clean). Interestingly, the authors also indicated that the greatest differences existed at the lightest load, which is similar to the conclusions reached by other researchers who have compared the jump shrug (157,160) or hang high pull (304) with the hang power clean.

The effect of load on the kinetic and kinematic outputs of weightlifting derivatives has been evaluated by numerous researchers (45,48,49,51,53,157,160,195,197,284–286,300–304). A comparison of exercises and the interaction of load, on force and velocity, is illustrated in Figure 1. In general, lower loads result in a higher

velocity allowing for a speed-strength emphasis, whereas higher loads result in greater force and RFD allowing for strength-speed to be emphasized, with the greatest power output occurring across a spectrum of loads, because of the interaction between force and velocity (45,48,49,51,53,58,60,195,197,285,286,302) (Figure 1). The highest velocities across weightlifting derivatives occur during the jump shrug when light loads (30–45% 1RM hang power clean) are used (157,160,284,285), with the highest force generated during the pulling variations when loads >100% of the 1RM power clean are used (48,49,51,53,195,197). The addition of a countermovement, during pulling derivatives (e.g., hang clean pull vs. clean pull from the knee, or countermovement shrug vs. midhigh clean pull), further increases the force, velocity, and therefore power at all loads (49,51,195,197), although it is essential that the athlete has sufficient postural control during the deceleration phase of the countermovement.

The snatch and clean permit higher loads to be used in comparison with the power snatch and the power clean, respectively, because of the requirement of a greater barbell displacement during the “power” variations. As a result of a greater barbell displacement with relatively lighter loads, higher RFD and impulse have been observed during the power clean and snatch when compared with the clean and snatch (152). Similarly, because of the lower barbell displacements required to successfully perform the clean (55–65% vs. 62–78% of the lifters height), the amount of load lifted in the clean and jerk is ~18–20% heavier than those achieved during the snatch (282), highlighting that the clean and jerk may be used to emphasize strength-speed, whereas the snatch may be used to emphasize movement speed-strength (152), although these are dependent on the loads used (Figure 1).

Although cross-sectional comparisons provide insight on the potential performance differences between the use of weightlifting derivatives, greater insight can be found from intervention studies. Comfort et al. (44) compared the effect of 8 weeks of in-season training with biomechanically similar catching or pulling

derivatives (e.g., power clean vs. clean pull from the floor) using identical loading schemes (i.e., the same relative loads). Although both training groups improved, the authors indicated that there were no significant or meaningful differences in the changes between the groups when comparing peak or rapid force production during the isometric midhigh pull or countermovement jump performance. These findings are supported by the comparable force, velocity, and power output characteristics across weightlifting exercises when performed between loads of ~70–90% 1RM (Figure 1) (56,57,60,65,116,189,263,264,288).

Suchomel et al. (293,294) recently expanded this research, exploiting the force and velocity emphasis potential of pulling derivatives. In addition to the load-matched catch and pull groups examined by Comfort et al. (44), a third training group used the same pulling derivatives as the pull group, but also used phase-specific loading to provide either a force (e.g., loads >100% 1RM power clean) or velocity (e.g., lighter loads [30–60% 1RM power clean] and more ballistic exercises) overload stimulus. Based on the results of this work, the overload group demonstrated greater improvements in dynamic (1RM power clean) and isometric strength (isometric midhigh pull peak force), short sprint (10-, 20-, and 30-m sprint time), COD, and countermovement jump and squat jump performances compared with the other groups (293,294). As such, strength and conditioning coaches should program weightlifting exercises and their derivatives to emphasize specific characteristics (e.g., strength-speed or speed-strength) in a sequential manner to ensure appropriate adaptations.

### Section 3: Physiological Adaptations and Required Stimuli

#### *Desirable Physiological Adaptations Required to Enhance Specific Physical Characteristics*

Numerous neuromuscular factors can be manipulated to improve characteristics of force production, with the process considered multifactorial, and adaptive responses intertwined, but with different adaptive processes emphasized depending on the stimulus (222,296). These adaptive responses include morphological changes (e.g., increased cross-sectional area [CSA], pennation angle, and fascicle length), increased bone mineral density, metabolic adaptations, alterations to tendon stiffness, and changes to several neurological factors (269,273). The progression of these adaptive responses is generally impacted by the individual's initial strength levels (62–65,225) and their training history (124,141,235). In fact, the sequence of the training process allows for the adaptations from one phase of training to influence the responses associated with subsequent training phases, which highlights that it is extremely important that the training process is carefully planned and appropriately sequenced (71,110,113,272,322).

Although a relationship between muscle CSA and force-production capacity is evident (14,15,34,120,135,188,199,203,244,321,322), the magnitude of this association varies notably, with neurological, architectural (e.g., pennation angle and fascicle length), and fiber-type differences likely explaining this variation (1,2,28,34,145,187). Narici, Roi, Landoni, Minetti, and Cerretelli (208) suggest that changes in CSA account for 50–60% of the changes in force production. More importantly, increasing muscle mass before a period of training in which strength development is emphasized allows for the strength phase to be potentiated (71,199,275,322), largely as a result of the increased work capacity and greater muscle mass available for neurological

and architectural adaptations associated with strength development (14,15,275,279). In addition, hypertrophied muscles tend to have greater pennation angles than nonhypertrophied muscles, resulting in increased cross-bridge formation because of fiber packing (153,154) and muscle gearing, which may enhance force-production capability (13,75,234).

During the strength-endurance phase, the training aims are to improve or refine exercise technique in preparation for the subsequent, higher load phases, enhance physical work capacity, and increase the strength of connective tissues, so that they can tolerate greater loads, and potentially increase muscle mass (unless in a weight-categorized sport) (28,70,110,274,275). By contrast, during the strength-speed phase, the primary goal is to increase the force-generating capacity of the muscle, taking advantage of any morphological changes of the muscles. This is achieved through improved muscular efficiency through architectural (e.g., increased pennation angle and increased sarcomeres in parallel) (2,136,207) and neurological adaptations (e.g., synchronization of motor units and motor unit discharge rates) (4,5,21,169,198). In addition, increases in tendon stiffness because of adaptations during the high-volume strength-endurance phase and high-load strength-speed phase should enhance muscular force transmission, resulting in improvements in rapid force production (i.e., RFD) and power development during the speed-strength phase (181,237,269,273).

The aims during the speed-strength phase are to take advantage of the increased force-production capacity developed during the strength-speed phase, to optimize RFD, accelerative capability, movement velocity, and power development (70,71,110,113,124,186). Some improvements in these characteristics may occur simply because of supercompensation from the previous training phase because training volumes are generally reduced during the speed-strength phase with noncompatible training stimuli reduced or removed to minimize fatigue. In addition, some of the improvements are due to further neurological and architectural adaptations (2,3,7,8,181,272).

Progressive increases in volume load result in the greatest hypertrophic adaptations (29,98,212,249), achieved through moderate loads (60–80% 1RM) performed for relatively high repetitions (8–12 repetitions) (98,110,250), with the associated metabolic stress providing a potential stimulus for muscle hypertrophy and endurance-related adaptations (93,247,248). Interestingly, weekly volume load, rather than training frequency, seems to dictate the magnitude of hypertrophic adaptations, with greater improvements from more frequent training if there is an increase in total volume load (98,251,254). Slightly lower loads (<60% 1RM) that are performed for higher repetitions ( $\geq 15$  repetitions) may be advantageous when emphasizing endurance-related adaptations because of metabolic stress (93,247,248,250).

High-load ( $\geq 80\%$  1RM, for  $\leq 6$  repetitions) training elicits the greatest increases in force production (110,184,225,250,252,253) and RFD (3,4,6,8,47,185). As with hypertrophy, when weekly volume is matched, training frequency does not seem to influence the magnitude of adaptations to strength training (69). However, by contrast, a mixed-methods approach (combination of high-load [ $\geq 80\%$  1RM] low-velocity and low-load [ $\leq 60\%$  1RM] high-velocity exercises) seems to be most effective at enhancing speed-strength (110,113,124,151,209,210,268,275,308,309), although simply enhancing strength in weaker individuals is equally as effective (59,61,62,65,296,297). During a speed-strength phase, the volume loads should be reduced compared with the strength-speed phase to offset any negative effects associated with cumulative fatigue (110,113,270,272,274,275,279).

### Training Guidelines for Absolute Strength, Strength-Endurance, Strength-Speed, and Speed-Strength

The prescribed exercise and load combinations should elicit the desired adaptations within each resistance training phase. Although specific to weightlifting derivatives, Suchomel et al. (283,288,293,294) have suggested that this may be accomplished by prescribing specific exercise and load combinations based on their loading potential, and the force or velocity profile of each exercise (i.e., loads >100% 1RM catching variation for pulls vs. 30–45% 1RM hang power clean for the jump shrug), which can be particularly useful if adopting a mixed-methods approach during speed-strength development.

**Strength-Endurance Phase.** If strength and conditioning coaches aim to use weightlifting exercises in later training phases, it may be beneficial to incorporate pulling variations within this phase to solidify and refine the technique of the pull and increase work capacity (70,274,279,283,288). Moreover, using these exercises will help improve an athlete's work capacity because of the total body nature of the exercises. Although incorporating weightlifting derivatives within this phase is feasible (220,274,279), this practice results in a high metabolic cost (243), resulting in intraset fatigue, which may not be a concern when the athlete is not within a competitive phase of their annual training plan. To minimize fatigue within a training session, and provide an opportunity for additional coaching (e.g., in less-experienced athletes), researchers have reported that clean pulls from the floor may be incorporated in a strength-endurance phase (3 sets of 10 repetitions) using cluster sets (e.g., 2 sets of 5 repetitions within each set of 10) with a 30- to 40-second rest interval (111,293,294). Using cluster sets in this manner may not only promote a higher quality of work, but they may also allow for the strength and conditioning coach to provide feedback to the athlete and permit the use of greater loads for a higher number of repetitions (e.g., 12 repetitions of squats using 80% 1RM, using clusters of 2 or 4 repetitions) (312–314). As such, the higher loads and higher volumes could potentially lead to greater hypertrophy (215), increased work capacity, and greater force production (294). In fact, researchers have implemented loads as high as 82.5% of the subject's 1RM power clean using clean pulls from the floor, for sets of 10 repetitions, during the strength-endurance phase (293,294).

Although a spectrum of weightlifting exercises may be used during the strength-endurance phase, strength and conditioning coaches should consider an athlete's technical competency, relative strength, the complexity of the chosen exercise(s), and the goal(s) of the training phase. For example, if an athlete is unable to consistently perform the prescribed exercise(s) for a higher volume of repetitions because of either poor technique or a lack of positional strength, other exercises could be prescribed, or the load should be reduced. To improve work capacity within this phase, strength and conditioning coaches should use weightlifting exercises that have a moderate-large displacement and allow for moderate to moderately heavy loads to be implemented, such as pulling derivatives. However, because of the technical complexity and fatigue associated with strength-endurance training, the full lifts (i.e., clean and jerk, and snatch) are rarely incorporated during this phase.

It is also important to understand how the physiological demand of the exercise impacts exercise technique and perceived exertion. Hardee et al. (123) reported that performing 6 consecutive repetitions, in a traditional set format, with the power clean

at 80% 1RM led to an increased horizontal displacement of the barbell by the final repetition, which was not observed when cluster sets were implemented. This research group also indicated that perceived exertion increased across multiple sets using this exercise and load combination, but was reduced when using cluster sets (122). During the strength-endurance phase, catching variations may be best implemented using cluster sets to ensure maintenance of technique and movement velocity, while also providing an opportunity for additional feedback and coaching.

Because weightlifting pulling derivatives have decreased complexity because of the omission of the catch phase, it may be possible to maintain technique across additional repetitions, with heavier loads, compared with catching derivatives, especially when the displacement is reduced (e.g., hang pull, midhigh pull, and countermovement shrug) (196). Meehan et al. (196) recently reported no change in kinetics, kinematics, or rate of perceived exertion (RPE) during the countermovement shrug for 3 sets of 6 repetitions using traditional set structures or when implementing rest-redistribution. Thus, to address the work capacity demands of a strength-endurance phase, exercises such as the clean/snatch pull from the floor may serve as effective exercises. However, because the first pull (i.e., moving the load from the floor to the knee) may double the work and duration of a repetition (152), less technical derivatives that remove the first pull may serve as effective alternatives and may not require cluster sets to be used (196).

**Strength-Speed Phase.** The primary goals of strength phases include increasing maximal force-production capacity (i.e., peak force) and rapid force production (70,272,296). The strength-speed phase can be divided into subphases of general strength (e.g., 3 sets of 5 repetitions, moderately heavy to heavy loads [70–80% 1RM]) and absolute strength (e.g., 3 sets of 3 repetitions, heavy to very heavy loads [80–90% 1RM]) to elicit increases in maximal force production. Weightlifting exercises that use heavier loads often have a decreased displacement (e.g., clean vs. power snatch) and fall under the strength-speed category (Table 1 and Figure 1) (152,282). As such, along with the clean and the snatch performed at high loads (e.g., 80–95% 1RM), weightlifting pulling derivatives may be favored during strength-speed phases because of the ability to prescribe loads  $\geq$ 100% 1RM of an athlete's 1RM catching variation (48,53,96,114,117,118,192–195,197,238,242). As noted above, researchers have examined loads as high as 140% 1RM with several pulling variations (e.g., hang pull, pull from the knee, midhigh pull, and countermovement shrug) (48,53,195–197), although for pulls from the floor loads of <120% 1RM may be preferred, depending on the targeted training outcome (96,193,194,238). This may provide strength and conditioning coaches with several options based on their athletes' technical competency while also addressing positional strength demands. For example, sprinters require large magnitudes of force and high RFD when accelerating from the starting blocks and to maintain high speeds and may thus benefit from using pulling derivatives that develop these characteristics within these positions (74).

Although heavy pulling derivatives may aid in the development of maximal force production, the development of rapid force-production characteristics may also require the use of loads lighter than those previously discussed, ensuring that an appropriate range of loads is used (64,65,113,209,210,283,287,288). During the strength-speed phase, weightlifting exercises that use moderately heavy loads (70–80% 1RM; Table 1 and Figure 1) may be prescribed to promote rapid force production (293,294);



however, Comfort et al. (47) reported greater improvements in rapid force production in response to heavy loads (80–90% 1RM) compared with moderate loads (60–82.5% 1RM), albeit that this may have been influenced by their relatively low strength levels. It is likely that weaker athletes will enhance both maximal and rapid force production effectively by simply emphasizing high loads with maximal intent (21,59,61,62,65). Although researchers have reported improved force-production characteristics using exclusively catching or pulling derivatives (293,294), prescribing combinations of pulling, catching, and overhead pressing derivatives within strength phases may also provide athletes with a unique training stimulus and prevent staleness, while maximizing increased in performance.

**Speed-Strength Phase.** The objectives during a speed-strength phase include further development and peaking of rapid force production and power output (70,272,296). Because these neuromuscular characteristics may be enhanced with the combination of exercises that emphasize either force or velocity, it is recommended that a combination of both heavy and light loads be implemented (71,113,151,209,210,272,288,296,307–309). Using this strategy, strength and conditioning coaches can prescribe a wide variety of exercises from both the strength-speed and speed-strength categories to ensure that the targeted outcomes are developed (Table 1 and Figure 1). Training focusing on heavy loads vs. loads that elicit peak power have been reported to result in preferential adaptations at those specific loads rather than across a spectrum of loads (124,125,151,307–309), with the use of a combination of loading paradigms, resulting in greater adaptations across loads (124,209,307–309). For example, loads as high 110% of 1RM with the countermovement shrug (force emphasis, e.g., strength-speed) and as low as 30% of 1RM with the jump shrug (velocity emphasis, e.g., speed-strength) have been shown to be an effective programming strategy when integrated into the same phase of training (293,294). It is also important that when implementing this type of strategy, strength and conditioning coaches need to be mindful of the total training volume programmed during this phase to minimize residual fatigue.

It is important to note that strength and conditioning coaches may provide several exercise and load combinations that address an athlete's needs based on their sport/event and position. For example, American football linemen require a greater strength-speed emphasis. Thus, although the primary exercise and load combinations prescribed to these athletes may emphasize strength-speed, speed-strength exercises that can be loaded with moderately heavy loads (e.g., hang power clean/snatch) may enhance rapid force production for these individuals. By contrast, a defensive back may require a greater emphasis on exercises that target speed-strength development but will also benefit from using heavier loads (e.g., hang clean/snatch pull) to develop strength-speed. Ideally, a phased sequential approach to training should be adopted, with the targeted attributed being based on the results of an assessment of the athlete's athletic performances and force-production characteristics at the end of each training phase.

## Section 4: Coaching Weightlifting Exercises

### *Pedagogical Approaches and Feedback Strategies*

Learning of a motor skill often occurs more rapidly with greater capacity to maintain it during highly sensitive periods of life, such as adolescence (260). This is likely a result of the brain's plasticity during these developmental periods, allowing for greater

development of neural circuits (260). It is often argued that weightlifting movements are too time-consuming or complex to teach athletic populations. By contrast, Solum et al. (260) found that motor skill learning can be indifferent between adolescents and adults, with greater variability in skill acquisition observed in adolescents because of their lack of movement repertoire. Therefore, strength and conditioning coaches should ensure appropriate technique is developed, and refined, to reduce injury risk, maximize the athlete's opportunity to adapt, and enhance transferability into sports performance (230). The purpose of this section, therefore, is to provide the reader with a pedagogical template and feedback considerations to develop weightlifting skills regardless of age and/or ability.

Each of the weightlifting movements (i.e., snatch, and clean and jerk) can be taught to be performed as the full version; however, within the progressions provided for each movement, partial movements, or derivatives may also be used as specific training tools. Depending on the training age, physical capabilities, demands, or goals of the sport the athlete is involved in, a strength and conditioning coach may decide that some of these derivatives are better suited to meet the needs of the athlete at a particular point in time.




**Phases of the Weightlifting Movements.** Morris et al. (201) (Table 2) highlight the specific positions of each phase of the snatch, and clean and jerk, illustrating where the bar starts and finishes in each of the subsequent phases for the clean and jerk, and the snatch. Breaking the movements into these phases enables the strength and conditioning coach, and athlete, to obtain a better grasp of each component and how to perform them, which is especially important once the athlete starts the task of “chaining” the elements together. The snatch and clean consist of 5 phases: (a) first pull (aka. lift off), (b) transition (aka. double knee bend), (c) second pull (aka. power position to full extension), (d) catch, and (e) recovery (Table 2). The jerk consists of 4 phases: (a) dip, (b) drive, (c) catch, and (d) recovery (Table 2).

**Pedagogical Approaches.** A key issue that strength and conditioning coaches must consider is the order in which they will teach the component parts of the weightlifting movements. The method chosen will likely exert a notable bearing on how easily the athlete can achieve fluidity in the movement when all parts are “chained” together, creating the complex movement patterns associated with weightlifting. The need to adopt a step-by-step teaching method has been supported in the scientific and coaching literature (77,78,84). There are 2 common teaching approaches typically used when instructing weightlifting: (a) forward chaining (aka. bottom-up approach) and (b) reverse chaining (aka. top-down approach). Briefly, in forward chaining, parts of the skill are learned in the order in which they will naturally occur, whereas with reverse chaining, the key parts of the skill are learned in reverse.

The main argument for using forward chaining is that it seems logical and is readily justified on the grounds that if a skill is not initiated properly, it will not be completed correctly. However, the use of forward chaining potentiates other behaviors, which as skill complexity increases, become detrimental to both the learning process and performance outcomes (239). Forward chaining progressions usually result in skills that are executed well in the initial stages but deteriorate and exhibit weaknesses and faults as the sequences progress (239).

With reverse chaining, as each new step is learned, it is followed by parts of the lift that are already familiar and practiced. The

**Table 2**  
**Phases of the clean and jerk, and snatch, reproduced with permission from Morris et al. (201).**

Phase	Clean and jerk	Snatch
First pull 	From lifting the barbell off the floor to a position in which the barbell is immediately at the patella	From lifting the barbell off the floor to a position in which the barbell is immediately at the patella
Transition 	From a position in which the barbell is immediately at the patella to a position in which the barbell is positioned midthigh	From a position in which the barbell is immediately at the patella to a position in which the barbell is positioned at the upper thigh
Second pull 	From a position in which the barbell is positioned at the midthigh the athlete should extend at the hips, knees, and ankles moving the bar to a position of maximal barbell height	From a position in which the barbell is positioned at the upper thigh the athlete should extend at the hips, knees, and ankles moving the bar to a position of maximal barbell height
Catch 	From a position of maximal barbell height to a position in which the bar is caught resting on the anterior deltoids, in a front-squat position	From a position of maximal barbell height to a position in which the bar is caught above head in an overhead-squat position
Recovery 	From a position in which the bar is caught resting on the anterior deltoids to a standing position with the bar remaining in a front-rack position	From a position in which the bar is caught above head in an overhead-squat position to a standing position with the bar remaining above head
Dip 	From standing, with the bar in a front-rack position to a quarter-squat position with the bar remaining in a front-rack position	
Drive 	From a quarter-squat position with the bar remaining in a front-rack position to a position of maximal barbell height, with the athlete extending at the hips, knees, and ankles	
Catch 	From a position of maximal barbell height to a position in which the bar is caught above head in a split-stance position	
Recovery 	From a position in which the bar is caught above head in a split-stance position to a standing position with the bar remaining above head	

rationale behind this approach is to provide lower complexity movements to the athlete during early stages of development, as illustrated in Figures 2–4. The complexity, in this instance, is governed by the number of phases an athlete must chain together and/

or the speed of movement. For example, the overhead squat provides a key opportunity for the strength and conditioning coach to assess movement quality under load, at a slow speed, before advancing on to more ballistic derivatives, such as the snatch balance

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by ZU0yS7S9lqF0w/2ekCH46bJYhKf/Kz7Z7ZleKpmY0jGn165D sqKB6ANms11BwKt1840i88CvBwBTmj7XQR85H1MLPFqjO86LZEIWI4gVWE7K1Y5SPg9YFS3F9KZxJ6l8UjTYVdxqP0= on 07/31/2023

(Figure 2). In some cases, the progression need not be from the top (i.e., the overhead squat), but can also be from a point where the strength and conditioning coach is able to optimize adaptation while concurrently laying the foundation to a more complete movements, adding to the athlete's exercise toolbox (i.e., using snatch pulls from the power position [aka. start of the second pull] to power snatches from the knee).

The major advantages of reverse chaining over forward chaining progressions are as follows (239):

- Interference does not occur because each new element precedes all previously “learned” elements (i.e., the learner thinks of and executes a new technique element and follows it with what has been performed successfully before).
- Each step in the progression does not increase in difficulty because undivided attention can be focused on the new skill.
- Attention is focused only on the new step, and then, established elements are performed to finish in the terminal position.
- There is a lack of tension/anxiety in the learner because of the simplicity of the task and its steps.
- Step sizes are small, providing a high rate of success.

It is important to note that the reverse-chain approach of teaching weightlifting movements is the chosen method advocated by both the NSCA (23) and the International Weightlifting Federation (148).

Figures 2–4 illustrate the teaching and learning progressions of the snatch, and clean and jerk. In Figures 2 and 3, the first column identifies the phase of the lift with the second column providing the exercise that best develops that phase. Naturally, not all athletes will be able to execute the progressions, and therefore, regressions have also been provided in column 3 to help further simplify the movement and develop relevant movements competencies. The last 2 columns, “Transitions” and “Auxiliary,” provide exercises, which help develop the appropriate sequencing and positional strength required to achieve the exercises outlined in the progression and regressions. Much like Figures 2 and 3, the first 2 columns of Figure 4 identify the phase of the lift and the exercise that best develops that phase. Columns 3 and 4 provide

transitional and auxiliary exercises to help develop the appropriate sequencing and positional strength required to achieve the exercises outlined in the progression. However, column 4 provides an alternative progression to aid in the transition from the back to the front of the head by further simplifying the order to all movements from behind, then all movements from in front.

*Stages of Learning.* In 1967, Paul Fitts and Michael Posner proposed 3 stages of learning motor skills, which they defined as the cognitive, associative, and autonomous stages (144). They proposed that although learning a new motor skill, an individual passes through several changes that can be categorized into one of the 3 stages. It is important to note that transition from one stage to the next is not an acute change, but one that happens gradually. Recognizing the stage that the athlete is performing in will help the strength and conditioning coach address their needs appropriately.

The cognitive stage is characterized by inconsistent and inefficient performance, slower movements, and a high degree of mental effort. In this stage of learning, movements are generally performed slowly with deliberate intention because the novice athlete is unable to use internal or kinesthetic feedback to adjust movement and will often require a lot of external feedback. It is best for athletes in this stage to eliminate distractions and provide adequate space for the desired skill to be performed. Even a seasoned athlete will experience the cognitive stage when learning a new skill. They may progress at a faster rate because they may have previous skill experience related to the new movement, but they will still display characteristics from the cognitive stage (144).

As athletes move into the associative stage, movements become more fluid, consistent, and efficient. Some parts of the skill become more “automatic” because less thinking is required. However, there will still be aspects of the skill that require mental attention. Utilization of internal feedback begins to occur for the athlete because they begin to sense what proper movement patterns feel like and identify when they do not perform them accurately, but they may not know how to

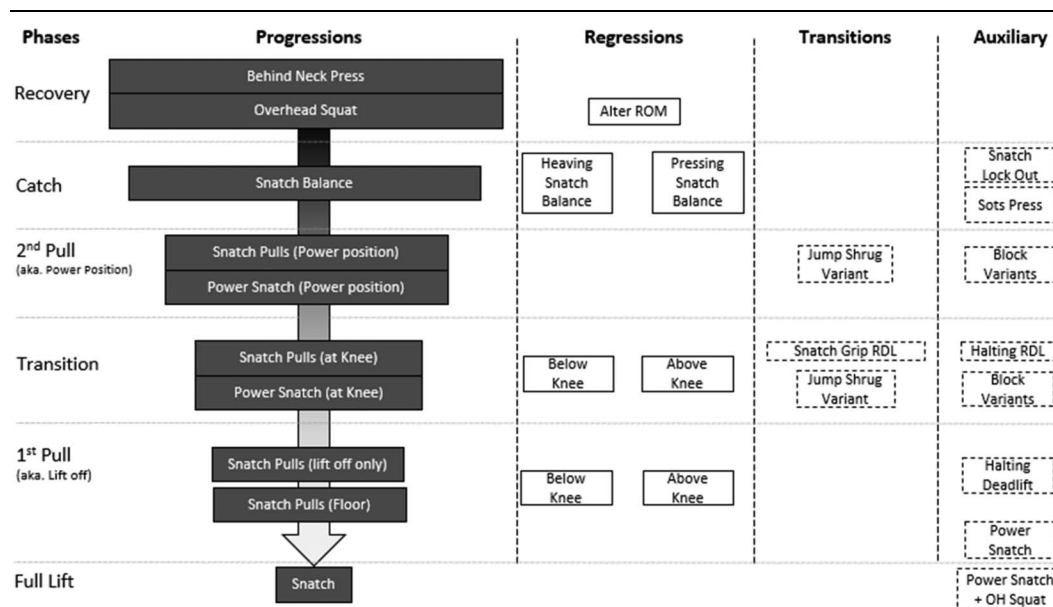


Figure 2. Snatch progression.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by ZU0yS7S9lqF0w2eKCHAB6UjYhKfKz7Z7ZleKpmY0jGn165D sqRB6ANms11BwKt1840iS8CvBwB1Tmj7XQR5H1MLPfqjO86LZEIWI4WIE7K1YS6Pg9YFS3F9KZAJ6l8UjYTTVdxP0= on 07/31/2023

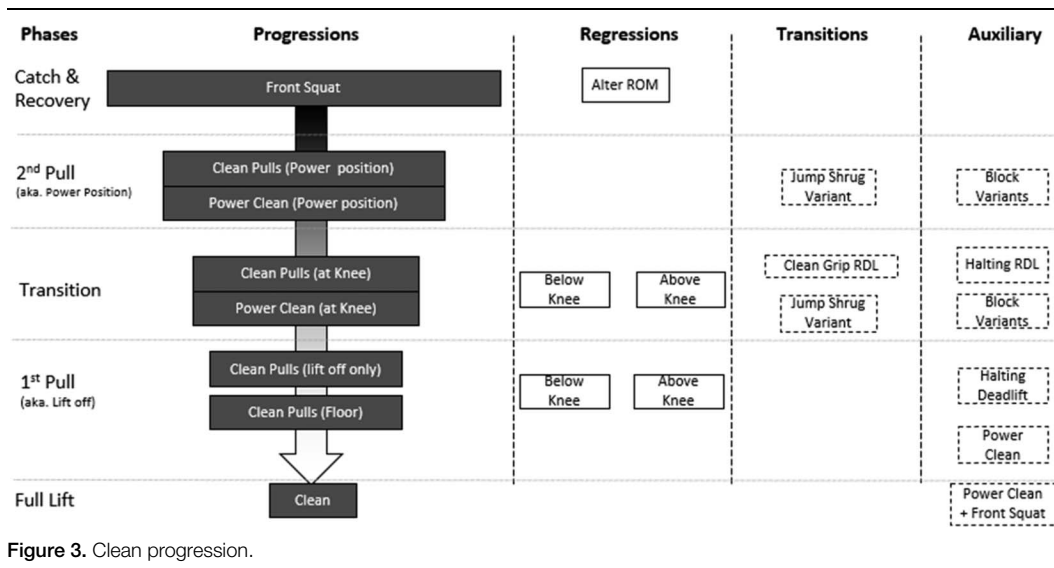


Figure 3. Clean progression.

adjust their movement to correct it. A coach’s feedback can reinforce the athlete’s internal feedback and help them to identify areas needing improvement as well as how to make corrections (144).

The final stage of learning is the autonomous stage. At this point, motor programs are well-defined and ingrained. Movement is smooth, accurate, and consistent, requiring little mental attention to perform the skill because it has become automatic. Athletes, at this stage, can use their thought processes on other important aspects of the lift instead of thinking of how to produce the desired skill movement (144). Feedback will allow such athletes to fine-tune the skill, improving the effectiveness and efficiency of the movement.

*Types of Feedback and Forms of Communication.* To aid the beginner athlete in the development of positional awareness, movement fluency, and practicing accuracy and timing of

movement, a variety of communication methods should be used. These methods all fall in 3 principal areas: verbal, visual, and kinesthetic (Table 3). A key factor differentiating these methods is the extent to which they are effective in communicating meaningful feedback to the athlete. Because athletes learn best through a variety of ways, it is recommended that different methods be used in combination when teaching weightlifting movements to a beginner. Whichever method or methods are used, it is essential that when providing feedback to the athlete the strength and conditioning coach must consider how the athlete is interacting with the given task and ensure that all feedback is simple, precise, and clearly delivered.

Verbal instruction and cues both have pivotal roles in coaching weightlifting, where instruction provides the necessary information about the task with cues providing an opportunity to shift the athletes focus of attention toward movement outcomes (165). The cues provided should be short in their delivery while

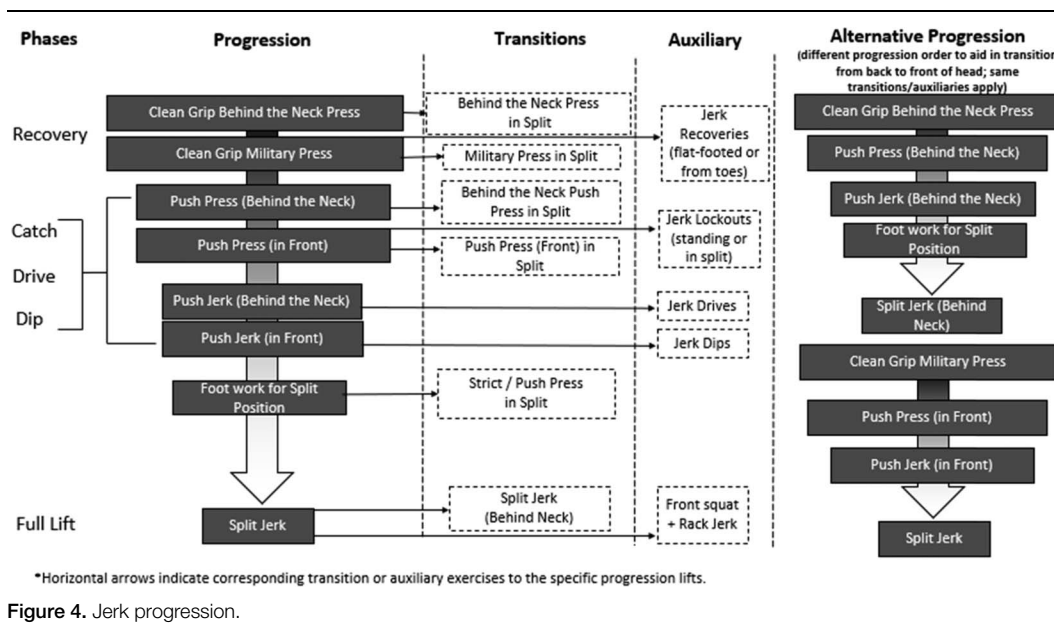


Figure 4. Jerk progression.

\*Horizontal arrows indicate corresponding transition or auxiliary exercises to the specific progression lifts.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by ZU0y87S9lqF0w2eKCHAB6UjYhKfKz7T2leKpmY0jGn165D sqkR66ANms11Bwikt840is8CvBwB1mj7XQR5H-MLPFqjQ086lZEIWI4qVWE7k1YS6P99YFS3F9KZkZj6l8UyTtVdxqP0= on 07/31/2023

using “buzz” words as opposed to long sentences, thus avoiding exposing the athlete to information overload, which can increase cognitive load (240) and negatively impact physical performance (191). The choice of the appropriate “buzz” words as well as the timing of implementing them is critical. Likewise, verbal communication should be appropriate to the individual’s stage of development (164). For example, children typically possess lower levels of vocabulary and comprehension skills; therefore, language should be simple and nontechnical, and dialog should be

clear and concise. In this scenario, analogies and metaphors can serve as a useful tool to encourage an external focus of attention, while also helping children process information more effectively making the content relatable to them and condensing several task-relevant cues into a single metaphor. An example of a feedback loop is provided in Figure 5.

Visual feedback and instruction through video capture or demonstrations can be coupled with verbal feedback to enable the athlete to contextualize the information provided to them (218).

**Table 3**  
**Advantages/disadvantages of different communication methods.\***

Method	Advantages: (effective in...)	Disadvantages: (less effective in...)	Possible issues
Verbal instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Providing short, simple movement instruction (e.g., “finish” and “aggressive”)</li> <li>✓ Providing work quantity (e.g., “do another rep” and “3 rep’s please”)</li> <li>✓ Providing safety instruction (e.g., “stay in the center of the platform”)</li> <li>✓ Providing meaningful communication to a beginner when using analogies and metaphors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Describing body/limb positions during phases of the lift</li> <li>✗ Making changes in movement patterns</li> <li>✗ Correcting timing issues</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>! Avoid using terminology that beginners will be unfamiliar and/or will not have sufficient proprioceptive knowledge to associate it with a particular body action</li> <li>! Relying too frequently on verbal cuing in early skill acquisition</li> <li>! May lead to the athlete becoming overly reliant on verbal feedback over kinesthetic/spatial skill development</li> </ul>
Reinforcement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Strengthening/increasing the frequency of desired behavior through positive (and sometimes negative) reinforcement</li> <li>✓ Rewarding efforts and improvements to training behavior and/or technical performance</li> <li>✓ Motivating the continued use of current strategies to improve technique</li> <li>✓ Reassuring current efforts that are having a beneficial effect</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Maintaining value if used too frequently</li> <li>✗ Situations where the coach is not able to observe performance or all of an athlete’s performances</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>! Reinforcement should be intermittently provided, or it diminishes in value</li> <li>! Appropriate use depends on the coach’s interpersonal skills</li> <li>! Appropriate use is dependent on coach’s knowledge and understanding of weightlifting technique</li> </ul>
Demonstrating (aka modeling)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Providing spatial and temporal information naturally and instinctively</li> <li>✓ Providing information in an expedient manner</li> <li>✓ Providing a basic plan of what’s going to be performed (e.g., new exercise introduction)</li> <li>✓ Providing a contrast of correct and incorrect position(s) or movement(s)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Creating immediate change in body positions or movement patterns</li> <li>✗ Situations where the coach is unable to perform an adequate demonstration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>! Demonstrations usually need to be performed multiple times for the learner to process the necessary information appropriately</li> <li>! A beginner can miss the main point of the demonstration</li> <li>! Poor demonstrations can cause problems for the athlete’s skill acquisition</li> </ul>
Video replay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Enhancing understanding of the skill (replayed at a slower speed)</li> <li>✓ Enhancing understanding of the skill (as it can be replayed)</li> <li>✓ Showing a specific position or technical element that requires correction</li> <li>✓ Identifying movement characteristics (by using slow motion or video scrubbing)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Less valuable if not accompanied by quality verbal information</li> <li>✗ Dependent on the knowledge and analytical skills of the viewer</li> <li>✗ Time intensive</li> <li>✗ Can be disruptive to the normal flow of coaching and training</li> <li>✗ Can be overwhelming to beginners because of the amount of information provided (visually and/or verbally)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>! Too frequent viewing may lead to being over conscious of errors, developing more internal focus, and/or become negative toward their abilities</li> <li>! Too frequent viewing may lead to being overly dependent on visual over kinesthetic development</li> <li>! Video/movement analysis requires specific skills not necessarily developed by coaches</li> <li>! Coaches need to be cognizant of the coaching objective striving for and stick to it</li> <li>! Video in training can be disruptive to the athlete and/or to the training environment</li> </ul>
Discovery learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Improving timing, coordination, and fluency of movement</li> <li>✓ Developing balance and stability</li> <li>✓ Developing the kinematics of performance of complex movements (e.g., speed and acceleration characteristics of the body; vertical and horizontal displacement of the bar)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Introduction of new exercises or movements to a beginner</li> <li>✗ Developing basic body positions (they are not always intuitive or “natural”)</li> <li>✗ Solving persistent technical errors or problems</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>! Success of this strategy depends on the knowledge, experience, and confidence of the coach to best know when to allow the beginner to experiment and when to intervene</li> <li>! The coach needs to know how and when to impose appropriate spatial or temporal constraints</li> </ul>
Manual manipulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Providing proprioceptive information as to how the required body position should feel</li> <li>✓ Correcting basic body or limb positions (although the athlete is stationary)</li> <li>✓ Time saving</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✗ Correcting movement errors (vs. positional errors)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>! Requires practice to perfect appropriate methods/strategies to use</li> <li>! Requires the athlete’s permission first to perform</li> <li>! Relies on a thorough understanding and knowledge of body positions as they relate to weightlifting technique</li> </ul>

\*Adapted with permission from Isaac (140).

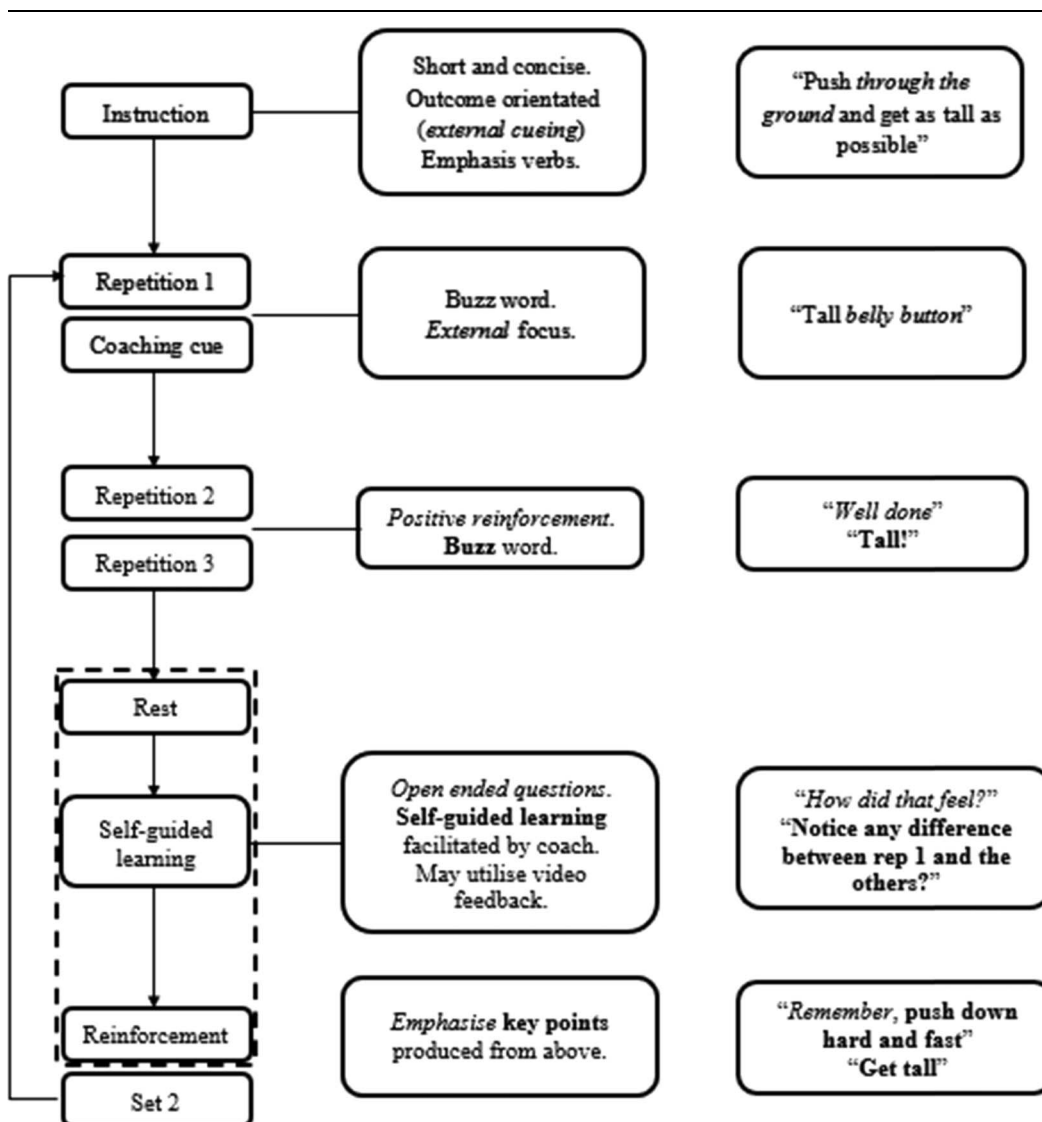
Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nasca-iscr by ZU0yS7S9lqF0w2eKCHAB6JYhKfKz7Z7Z7eKpmY0Gn165D sqkR66ANms11BwIKT840iS8CvBwBTm7XQR5H1MLPFqjO86LZEIWI4qVWE7K1YS6Pg9YFS3F9KZAJ6l8UyTYVdxqP0= on 07/31/2023

In addition, video feedback that captures key phases of the lift enable the strength and conditioning coach and athlete to monitor and highlight technical faults and/or improvements over time. This also provides further learning opportunities for the athlete to become more aware of how to optimize technique (267). It is important to note, however, that with beginners, too frequent use of video to provide feedback may lead to the athlete becoming over conscious of technical errors and/or become negative toward their abilities (140), leading to overdependence on visual over kinesthetic feedback. When using video feedback, strength and conditioning coaches need to be cognizant of the coaching objective that they are striving for and not deviate from it simply to incorporate video feedback.

Finally, having the athlete associate specific phases with something tangible may also provide an opportunity to develop technical proficiency, which is commonly referred to as kinesthetic awareness (201). Kinesthetic awareness can be defined as the athlete’s ability to “feel” a position, whether that be a certain muscle group under strain (e.g., the quadriceps, hamstrings, and back during the first pull), or knocking over an upright foam roller with the barbell’s weight plate

to signify a rearward trajectory of the barbell during the first pull. This can also then be associated with a coaching cue to reinforce appropriate movement patterns. An example of how these varying methods of feedback can be used within a session is provided in Table 3.

**Feedback Timing.** It is important to note that when coaching weightlifting movements, the timing of feedback is crucial. Terminal feedback is given at the end of the attempt whether this is after a particular repetition within a set or at the end of the set itself. This can be helpful for athletes learning a new skill because it permits them to concentrate on performing the skill or movement itself and not solely focusing on feedback (144). Withholding immediate feedback gives the athlete time to evaluate their performance, identify positive elements (e.g., did the athlete effectively perform the movement cues that the strength and conditioning coach provided), and mistakes made. Although an athlete in the cognitive stage of learning is unable to effectively use internal and kinesthetic feedback, it is still good to start asking the athlete questions as to how the movement felt to begin the process of listening for the internal voice.



**Figure 5.** Feedback loop example within a working set. Feedback is not always needed at every stage because this may lead to too much information being provided to the athlete.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by ZUOyS7S9IqFovZekCHABbJYhKf/Kz7T2IekKpmYoGn165D sqkR6ANms11Bwikt840is8CvBwBTmj7XQR5H1MLPFqjO86LZEIWI4gVETk1YS6Pg9YFS3F9KZAJ6l8UyTYVdxP0= on 07/31/2023

Athletes who are more skilled or are in the stages of refining their technique can be provided concurrent feedback, which is given during the performance of a skill or movement. Athletes in the autonomous stage of learning benefit more from this type of feedback timing as the skill or movement that they are performing requires little thought allowing attention to be shifted to areas where they can improve. However, a strength and conditioning coach must be careful about providing too much feedback. An athlete, especially in the early stages of learning, can come to rely solely on that feedback at a detriment to their spatial and kinesthetic awareness. It is also important to note that athletes respond differently to feedback, in general, and to different types of feedback. Ultimately, a strength and conditioning coach needs to know their athlete, learn how they respond to feedback, and which types of feedback are the most effective for them.

### Considerations for Beginners

The term beginner, or novice, applies to individuals who have little to no previous experience with, in this case, the weightlifting movements. This could include athletes who have a higher training age with other strength training activities (i.e., resistance training and powerlifting) or knowledge about resistance training, but have not performed the weightlifting movements. A beginner to weightlifting movements will experience notable challenges when learning these highly complex movement patterns that test body position, balance, and stability as well as the speed and timing of each movement (140). As such, some strength and conditioning coaches are reluctant to introduce novice athletes to weightlifting-based training methods because they feel that they are overly time-consuming and/or too difficult to teach. However, the use of a well-organized, disciplined, and systematic plan with investment in technical development of weightlifting movements and ongoing technical refinement in weightlifting training will promote later success in an athlete's career (126,201). This occurs by promoting habitual improvements in athleticism over time to improve performance, reduce injury risk, and enhance health and wellbeing (89). This is a common and important goal in a long-term athlete development plan.

**Preparation of Training.** When preparing to introduce weightlifting movements to a beginner, it is essential that a structured teaching plan is established to guide the athlete in the development of their weightlifting literacy. The purpose of this plan is to ensure that the important phases in the teaching progression are not missed, and the athlete is provided with a movement curriculum that allows them to develop their weightlifting skills more easily. In the initial stages of development, to ensure proper technique is developed, strength and conditioning coaches should follow appropriate coaching progressions to aid the implementation of a structured and systematic approach that progresses logically based on technical competency to ensure that the athlete learns the movements in a timely and effective manner (201). To obtain technical competency, the full lifts are often broken into several key phases referred to as movement chaining (e.g., reverse chaining), or "chunking" (201), allowing the athlete to focus on learning discrete parts of the lift. Ultimately, this is performed the complex, multijoint movements associated with weightlifting are broken into smaller, more manageable pieces that can be combined to create more complex movement patterns (Figures 2–4). By decreasing the range of movement and overall

lift complexity, the learning situation is simplified for the beginner. Another benefit of this approach is that it allows strength and conditioning coaches to identify movement deficiencies or technical errors and allows for more specific exercise prescription targeting the identified issues. Based on the theory of "chunking," beginner athletes can work on these components in isolation and then string the individual exercises/movements together to create a sequenced movement pattern (112).

The use of an exercise progression (Figures 2–4) provides a comprehensive approach to integrate different phases of each weightlifting movement for training, from beginner to advanced, identifying the training focus and coaching considerations at each stage (201). Regardless of the stage of training, the simultaneous development of movement skills (i.e., competency, autonomy, and refinement), and physical capacities (i.e., motor and body control, basic strength, strength-speed, and speed-strength) should be considered, with exercise prescription and selection adjusted accordingly (201). The amount of time spent in any phase of the progression should be based on individual ability and need. It is, however, important to note that each athlete's rate of progression through the learning process will be highly individualized. Although the athlete's stage of maturation should be considered, their level of technical competency should dictate how quickly they advance through the teaching progression.

**Building Confidence.** The role of the strength and conditioning coach is far greater than just developing the athlete's physical competency or their overall performance capacity. A strength and conditioning coach is an educator, teaching the athlete not only the skills of weightlifting, in this case, but also how to train effectively as well as develop as a person (140). Building confidence, developing positive self-worth, responsibility, and integrity are important outcomes of the beginner's coaching process (149). To establish the development of such attributes, it is essential that the strength and conditioning coach ensures that the athlete maintains an appropriate progression rate, which is based on their abilities. Central to this process, the strength and conditioning coach should select challenges with a relatively low task difficulty that will allow the athlete to train the optimal challenge point based on the benefits of an errorless learning strategy. Finding the right balance between the task difficulty and the athlete's confidence will lead to an increase in the athlete's self-efficacy, further improving the learning process (165).

**Technique and Accuracy Focused.** In the initial stages of learning, strength and conditioning coaches should focus on developing the athlete's technical literacy over maximizing their strength development. Such loading should be incremental and progressive, albeit conservative. This is an essential aspect of developing sound lifting technique because (a) lifting to maximal or near-maximal loads, as a beginner, may lead to technical errors which may become ingrained, making it more difficult to modify or rectify technical errors during the later stages of the athlete's development and (b) athletes who develop sound technique during the early stages of their development tend to have more opportunities to use progressively heavier loads to target specific neuromuscular adaptations. Training adaptations may be affected by lifting technique because this can influence an athlete's ability to produce force which is especially relevant in weightlifting. Therefore, if proper technique enhances or improves force production, then poor technique has the potential to impair improvements in motor control, coordination, muscle activation, and motor unit recruitment (201).

Another important focus when teaching a beginner, a complex skill, such as weightlifting, is developing accuracy rather than the speed of the movement. The long-term result of this strategy, known as the speed-accuracy trade-off (245), is that athletes will exhibit improved technical performance, consistency, and confidence. As accuracy is gained and the learner moves with improved consistency in the part of the skill being learned, greater attention can be given to the speed of the movement and use of maximal intent. Furthermore, by concentrating on accuracy and consequently slowing down the movement, the athlete will be better able to acquire, process, and interpret proprioceptive feedback. This will also help the strength and conditioning coach intervene and provide appropriate feedback in a timely manner. Conversely, if the initial focus is on speed of movement, it is more likely that errors in technical performance will become evident, ingrained, and harder to fix as the athlete develops (140). Beginner athletes may find learning certain phases of the weightlifting movements difficult. In their effort to achieve “perfect” technique, the body’s ability to perform naturally organized the motor actions is interrupted, thus becoming overly conscious and slowing it down (255). Therefore, to avoid this issue, providing a single externally focused cue that helps minimize the biggest limiting factor will likely yield a positive outcome and enhance the learning process.

A key issue that strength and conditioning coaches must consider is the order in which they will teach the component parts of the key weightlifting movements (i.e., snatch, and clean and jerk). The method chosen will likely have a bearing on how easily the athlete can achieve fluidity in the movement when all parts are chained together to create the complex movement patterns associated with weightlifting. There are 2 common teaching methods that have been previously discussed in subsection "Pedagogical Approaches and Feedback Strategies": forward chaining (aka. bottom-up approach) and reverse chaining (aka. top-down approach).

**Fundamental Movement Skills.** Solid weightlifting technique is based on underlying fundamental skills and movement abilities. In the early stages of learning, it is critical to develop body awareness and control as well as foundational movement competencies before advancing the beginner to higher order tasks. The goal of starting with these developmental skills and capacities

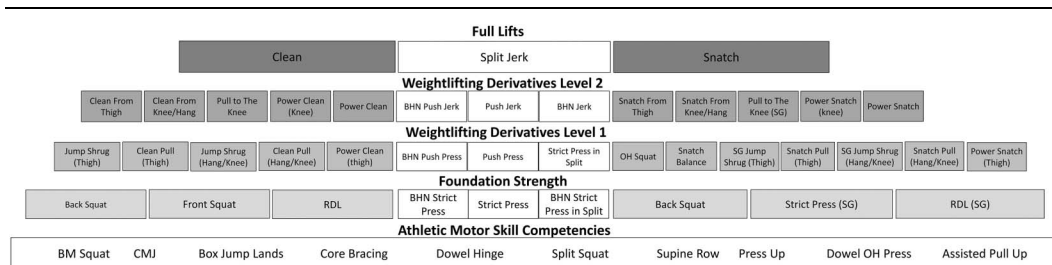
is to establish underpinning qualities from which specific weightlifting technical competency can be set. Exercises that focus on the proper position and control of the back and torso, hip hinging, squatting (both unilateral and bilateral), overhead stability, and general bodyweight control are essential prerequisites used to not only establish fundamental skills but also to develop base strength levels to progress onto more weightlifting specific movements (Figure 6).

**Chaining of Skills.** An athlete is ready to begin chaining different skills together based on the following factors:

- No key elements of technique are poorly performed or constant errors in either lift.
- Demonstrates movement fluency in performing both exercises. Movement fluency is the ability to perform repetitions repeatedly without hesitation or excessive conscious control (140). This includes small degrees of natural movement variability that commonly occur.
- Responds effectively to coaching instruction or feedback to vary their body position, body movement, or movement of the bar.

It is important to note that timing issues will usually occur when the beginner makes initial attempts to chain 2 or more parts of a skill together. As the athlete works through the chaining process, the athlete should be given autonomy to work through these challenges under the guidance and positive reinforcement from the strength and conditioning coach. To ingrain these new movement patterns, the strength and conditioning coach should ensure that an appropriate amount of time is allotted for the athlete to master the new movement skill.

**Prioritizing Errors and Frequency of Feedback.** It is likely that beginners will demonstrate multiple errors and inconsistencies in their movement patterns while they are trying to master the skills associated with weightlifting. As such, the beginner needs consistent and positive guidance from the coach to help them understand how to interpret the proprioceptive feedback they will receive from weightlifting movements. Strength and conditioning coaches should avoid attempting to correct or provide feedback for every problem that is noted during each lift and be more focused in their approach. As discussed in



**Figure 6.** Weightlifting exercise progressions. Exercises are ordered by increasing movement complexity and increasing technical specificity from the bottom of the pyramid working upward as indicated by increased color depth. Adapted with permission from Morris et al. (201). RDL = Romanian deadlift; BHN = behind neck; OH = overhead; CMJ = countermovement jump; BM = body mass; SG = snatch grip.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by UY0y7S9lqF0w2eKCH46bJYhKfKz7Z7ZleKpmY0jGn165D sqkR66ANms11Bwikt840is8CvBwBTmj7XQR55HMLPFqj086lZEIWI4gWEE7k1YS9P99YFS3F9KZxJ6l8UyTYVdxP0= on 07/31/2023



subsection "Pedagogical Approaches and Feedback Strategies," strength and conditioning coaches should prioritize and attempt to address 1 error at a time, precisely and clearly, through a variety of communication methods. Feedback need only be given if the athlete's performance is outside the bandwidth of correctness (168).

The bandwidth approach is a useful method for reducing the frequency of feedback for small errors in technical performance that occur (241). The need to provide feedback is typically triggered when errors in performance are outside what the strength and conditioning coach might consider a tolerance limit. This tolerance limit, or "bandwidth of correctness" as it is referred to by Lee et al. (168), is determined largely by the width (wide or narrow) of the bandwidth that the strength and conditioning coach sets. The narrower the bandwidth, the more frequent feedback is provided because more efforts for a beginner will likely fall outside the tolerance limits. Conversely, the wider the bandwidth, the strength and conditioning coach will feel less need to provide feedback.

From the learner's point of view, overly frequent correction by the strength and conditioning coach will likely lead to a loss in confidence in one's performance ability as well as a loss of movement fluency. In determining how wide to set the bandwidth, the crucial concept to be considered is that lower frequencies of feedback have been shown to facilitate skill learning (140) and provide the athlete with a degree of ownership of their training. The beginner may benefit from the use of the performance-bandwidth approach because it may increase their proprioceptive sense and reduce the possibility of becoming hypersensitive to technical flaws. The strength and conditioning coach should strive to reinforce what the athlete is doing well and prioritize technical errors for feedback and coaching intervention. From a skill acquisition perspective, it is not necessary to provide immediate feedback after a performance because delaying this feedback will allow the athlete to reflect on their performance and process internal feedback (9). This can aid in building movement confidence and autonomy because the athlete learns through kinesthetic awareness. Possessing considerable knowledge and understanding of the technical model of a particular movement will help to guide a strength and conditioning coach to how narrow or wide to set their view of the "bandwidth correctness" and assist in determining when and when not to provide feedback to the athlete.

*Types of Errors.* A strength and conditioning coach will be able to better construct and implement appropriate correction feedback strategies and techniques as well as help to prioritize the correction of errors (i.e., critical vs. noncritical) when they understand the different types of errors they will come across, including how, when, and why they occur. Errors typically can be found in the following categories:

- Body position;
- Movement characteristics;
- Balance and stability;
- Lack of confidence;
- Flexibility or movement limitations;
- "Bracing" ability of the body.

Table 4 illustrates each type of error and provides weightlifting examples that strength and conditioning coaches will likely see when working with beginners (140). Some errors may be classified as more critical than others and require immediate intervention, whereas others pose less consequence and can be addressed later (Table 5). The underlying principle is that it is

difficult, if not impossible, for the athlete to implement corrective action on 2 faults simultaneously (140). If a strength and conditioning coach affirms any of the following, then the error should be considered a high priority and necessitates an immediate response:

- If the error is not fixed now, will it become ingrained and harder to fix later? (e.g., pulls with arms, raises hips at the start of the pull)
- Does the error immediately impact overall movement success? (e.g., excessive horizontal displacement of the bar leading to an inability to stabilize overhead)
- Does the error prevent the achievement of the primary objective of the exercise? (e.g., torso collapses in the transition between the dip/drive phases of the jerk)
- Does the error endanger the safety of the athlete? (e.g., athlete puts the bar too far behind the head in a snatch balance)

However, it is important to note that in early learning, athletes typically display multiple errors where some, occasionally, are not more than a random event and not typical of an athlete's skill. Therefore, careful observation, examination, and evaluation by the strength and conditioning coach are warranted in determining what, if any, feedback, or intervention is needed. It is recommended to observe and assess the athlete for several sets, and over several sessions, to obtain a valid evaluation of the quality of their body positions and movement characteristics before making their assessment known to the athlete. Before any feedback or corrective action being provided, the strength and conditioning coach should consider when the best time to implement it would be. Athletes do not always benefit from immediate intervention by a strength and conditioning coach to correct an error (140). For information regarding feedback timing, please refer to subsection "Pedagogical Approaches and Feedback Strategies."

### **Considerations for Children and Adolescents**

Despite misconceptions regarding the safety of using weightlifting-based training with children and adolescents, there is a substantial body of evidence advocating weightlifting as a safe and beneficial form of resistance training for children and adolescents (20,88,89,170–172,174–176,228,230,319). Lower injury incidence rates are also reported from long-term weightlifting in comparison with other sports (30,121,228). However, appropriate instruction and logical progression, based on technical proficiency, is a key premise for ensuring safe and effective weightlifting training with youth populations (30,228,229).

*Benefits of Weightlifting for Youth.* As with adult populations, exposing children and adolescents to weightlifting-based training can elicit improvements in motor control, strength, power, speed, COD speed, and cardiorespiratory fitness (36–38,137–139,150,227,257,320). Furthermore, weightlifting can improve body composition (36), reduce injury risk factors (227), and result in adaptations beneficial for bone formation and growth (55,315). The benefits of using weightlifting-based exercises with youth arguably outweigh the risks, with researchers suggesting the injury risk of weightlifting-based training is markedly less than in other popular youth sports (e.g., soccer, rugby, cricket, and athletics) (30,121,228). Children have a lower risk of resistance training-related joint sprains and muscle strains than adults, with most injuries in children being accidental in

**Table 4**  
**Movement errors associated with weightlifting.\***

<p>Body position errors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Shoulders behind the bar at midhigh position in the pull</li> <li>The upper body is not vertical in the dip for the jerk</li> <li>Foot placement too wide or too narrow in receiving positions</li> <li>Excessive anterior pelvic tilt in the receiving position for the jerk</li> <li>Hips too high in the start position of the pull</li> <li>Less than 180° extension of the body at the finish of the pull</li> <li>Receiving position for the snatch is not sufficiently upright</li> <li>Elbows too low in the receiving position for the clean</li> <li>Arms bending in the pull before full extension of the body</li> <li>Knees not tracking over the toes in squats</li> </ul> <p>Errors in movement characteristics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Movement under the bar before achieving full extension in the pull</li> <li>Dipping too fast in the jerk</li> <li>Foot lift too high during movement under the bar</li> <li>Lack of acceleration in the final stages of the pull</li> <li>Hips rising before the shoulders at the start of the pull</li> <li>Bar slows significantly in the middle of the pull</li> <li>Excessive backward rotation of the upper body in the middle or end stages of the pull</li> <li>Inability to keep the bar close to the body in the pull</li> <li>Uneven extension of the arms in the lockout (press out)</li> </ul>	<p>Balance and stability errors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Loss of balance in receiving positions for the snatch, clean, or jerk</li> <li>Loss of balance at any stage of the pull (not always obvious)</li> <li>Inability to land and remain flat-footed in the snatch or clean receiving position</li> <li>Loss of balance in recovery</li> <li>Forward rotation of the upper body in the dip for the jerk</li> </ul> <p>Rigidity errors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Rounding of the back in the pull</li> <li>Inability to brace the upper body in the dip for the jerk</li> <li>Hyperextension of the back in the jerk receiving position</li> <li>Back foot instability or collapse in the jerk</li> <li>Inability to brace the body in the receiving position for the clean</li> </ul> <p>Errors because of lack of confidence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Abrupt changes in foot movement and landing as the bar weight approaches perceived maximum</li> <li>Hesitancy to drop under the bar as the bar weight approaches perceived maximum</li> <li>Increased effort at the start of the pull causing changes in body position and timing</li> <li>Diving under the bar—attempts to drop quickly under the bar but resulting in incomplete extension in the pull</li> <li>Lack of commitment to complete the lift</li> </ul> <p>Errors because of lack of flexibility</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Inability to position the bar on the shoulders correctly in the clean or jerk because of shoulder flexibility issues</li> <li>Restricted shoulder girdle elevation, resulting in poor lockout</li> <li>Inability to extend the elbows to 180°</li> <li>Lack of depth in receiving position</li> </ul>
---	---

\*Adapted with permission from Isaac (140).

nature and preventable with appropriate supervision (206). It is recommended that a strength and conditioning coach to athlete ratio of 1:10, or lower, is used when coaching young athletes, to ensure proper technique and establish a safe environment (311). To enhance training adaptations and reduce injury risk, adult-based training programs should not be superimposed on children or adolescents. In accordance with leading consensus on long-term athletic development (170), the design, delivery, and progression/regression of a young athlete’s training program should consider the influence of growth and maturation and the psychosocial needs of the individual.

*Trainability of Weightlifting Performance in Youth.* Childhood is the optimal time to develop coordination and movement competency because neuroplasticity is at its highest (22,33). Childhood is also a timeframe during which bone mineral density can be enhanced (108). To take advantage of this heightened sensitivity during childhood, strength and conditioning coaches should consider introducing athletes to weightlifting-based training methods before the

adolescent growth spurt (76,108). When coaching novice, inexperienced children, it is important that athletic motor skill competencies (AMSC), proposed as the foundational movements that underpin all athletic movements (175), are developed first. Once movement proficiency in the AMSC is established, weightlifting literacy can then be developed (201). Such an approach aims to avoid any motor proficiency barriers manifesting as the exercise complexity increases (256). Less-structured, exploratory training using “animal or superhero shapes,” obstacle courses or playground-based games may be used to introduce the AMSC, before progressing on to more structured versions of the weightlifting movements with increased load (173,201). As well as providing an element of novelty to training, these game-based activities enable children to learn and refine AMSC with fun-based challenges. Although there is no minimum age requirement for performing the weightlifting movements, athletes should have the emotional maturity to accept and follow coaching instructions and handle the attention demands, before being introduced to a structured training program (88,205).

**Table 5**  
**Examples of bandwidths of correctness.\***

<b>Inside the bandwidth of correctness (no feedback needed)</b>	<b>Outside the bandwidth of correctness (feedback needed)</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ The error made is not a safety issue</li> <li>■ The error is just a natural variation of human performance</li> <li>■ The error is the first instance, see what happens next rep</li> <li>■ The error made is due to fatigue or anxiety</li> <li>■ The error is a result of the individualization of technique because of limited flexibility or joint range of motion</li> <li>■ The athlete makes a different error after correctly attempting to implement the coach’s feedback</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ The error may increase injury risk if repeated</li> <li>■ The error results from a deliberate and unhelpful strategy made (invented) by the athlete</li> <li>■ The athlete repeats the same error on 2 consecutive attempts: provide feedback before third attempt</li> <li>■ The athlete shows no change in movement despite being given time and opportunity to implement feedback given</li> <li>■ The athlete interprets feedback incorrectly</li> </ul>

\*Adapted with permission from Isaac (140).

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by ZU0yS7S9IqF0w2eKCHAB6UjYhKFKZ7Z7ZieKpmY0jGn165D  
 sqKB6ANms11BwIKT840iS8CvBwBTmj7XQR55H1MLPfqjQ86LZEIWI4qVWE7K1YS8P9gYFS3F9KZAJ6j8uYTVdxdP0= on 07/  
 31/2023

Strength and conditioning coaches should be mindful that children within the same chronological age group will likely differ in biological maturation, which can influence training responsiveness, movement competency, and associated injury risk (95,171,174,176). When working with youth athletes, strength and conditioning coaches should be mindful of the circum-pubertal stage of maturation, which is commonly indicative of a period of “adolescent awkwardness.” This phase is synonymous with potential disruptions in motor coordination because of increases in lever lengths, height of center of mass, and body mass, accompanied by a reduction in mobility, possibly owing to reduced musculotendinous stiffness and alterations in collagen properties within the tendon (130,175,176,182). During this phase, the coach may consider prescribing weightlifting derivatives (e.g., hang variations) which have a reduced complexity in comparison with the full movements, in addition to reducing external load. Supplementary strength training in isometric positions or performing exercises with reduced ranges of movement (i.e., power variations) may be advantageous to continue to develop strength during this “awkward adolescent” stage.

The postpubertal stage of maturation is associated with altered sex hormone concentrations, leading to natural increases in muscle mass and force producing capabilities (95,233). Therefore, adolescent athletes may respond more favorably to training methods that also promote structural changes in addition to targeting the neuromuscular system (174,223,224). Provided technical proficiency in the weightlifting movements has been established, greater external loads may be used during weightlifting-based training to provide a progressive overload

stimulus and take advantage of the naturally occurring physiological adaptations. In addition, adolescents may experience improved proprioception at this stage (174) and increased cognitive maturity (164). These changes may allow them to better understand and adapt to the complexities of the weightlifting movements and increase their ability to self-correct movement errors.

Cumulatively, the existing pediatric exercise literature indicates that growth and maturation can influence how youth respond to acute and chronic forms of exercise (22,76,170,177,223,224,233). By considering the relationship between training-induced adaptations and those resulting from growth and maturation, researchers suggest that a strength and conditioning coach can heighten the training response (177,223,224). However, although the influence of maturation is important to consider, of all the variables that will likely influence program design and exercise prescription, technical competency in the movements should be the primary factor that dictates an athlete’s program prescription and rate of progression.

**Long-Term Athletic Development**

Long-term athletic development (LTAD) refers to the “habitual development of athleticism over time to improve health and fitness, enhance physical performance, reduce the relative risk of injury, and develop the confidence and competence of all youth” (170). In addition to improving health, physical activity, and sports performance, LTAD takes a holistic approach and considers physical and psychological factors in youth development. The NSCA LTAD position statement includes 10 pillars to assist strength and conditioning coaches in its successful implementation (Table 6).

For LTAD to be successful, growth and maturation need to be considered. Growth refers to the quantifiable change in anthropometrics, body composition, body size, or the size of specific regions of the body, and is a constantly evolving process, whereas maturation refers to the qualitative structural and functional system change toward a mature state and is variable among body systems (26). During this time, as bodies are evolving in a nonlinear fashion (183), youth may go through a period of temporary disruption in motor control and coordination termed “adolescent awkwardness” (231). Adolescent awkwardness may also lead to reduced force production and decreased performance in speed and jumping ability (25,232), which can lead to an increased risk of injury (129). The increase in height of the center of mass and body mass during the adolescent growth spurt, without corresponding neuromuscular adaptations, can lead to altered movement patterns and the development of risk factors for injury (129). The extent, timing, and tempo of maturation can significantly vary between youth of the same chronological age (26). This also means that how youth respond and recover from training can vary immensely (22), such as during adolescent awkwardness. Therefore, strength and conditioning coaches should consider growth-related changes when implementing LTAD programs and be able to modify motor patterns with reduced loads.

In addition to navigating physical development throughout the maturation process, a sound approach to LTAD is needed to counteract the effects of lack of movement skills and general physical activity seen in youth today. Inactivity during childhood is associated with being overweight or obese (204), leading to

**Table 6**  
**Ten pillars for successful long-term athletic development.\***

Pillar	Description
1	Long-term athletic development pathways should accommodate for the highly individualized and nonlinear nature of the growth and development of youth
2	Youth of all ages, abilities, and aspirations should engage in long-term athletic development programs that promote both physical fitness and psychosocial wellbeing
3	All youth should be encouraged to enhance physical fitness from early childhood, with a primary focus on motor skill and muscular strength development
4	Long-term athletic development pathways should encourage an early sampling approach for youth that promotes and enhances a broad range of motor skills
5	Health and wellbeing of the child should always be the central tenet of long-term athletic development programs
6	Youth should participate in physical conditioning that helps reduce the risk of injury to ensure their on-going participation in long-term athletic development programs
7	Long-term athletic development programs should provide all youth with a range of training modes to enhance both health- and skill-related components of fitness
8	Strength and conditioning coaches should use relevant monitoring and assessment tools as part of a long-term athletic development strategy
9	Strength and conditioning coaches working with youth should systematically progress and individualize training programs for successful long-term athletic development
10	Qualified professionals and sound pedagogical approaches are fundamental to the success of long-term athletic development programs

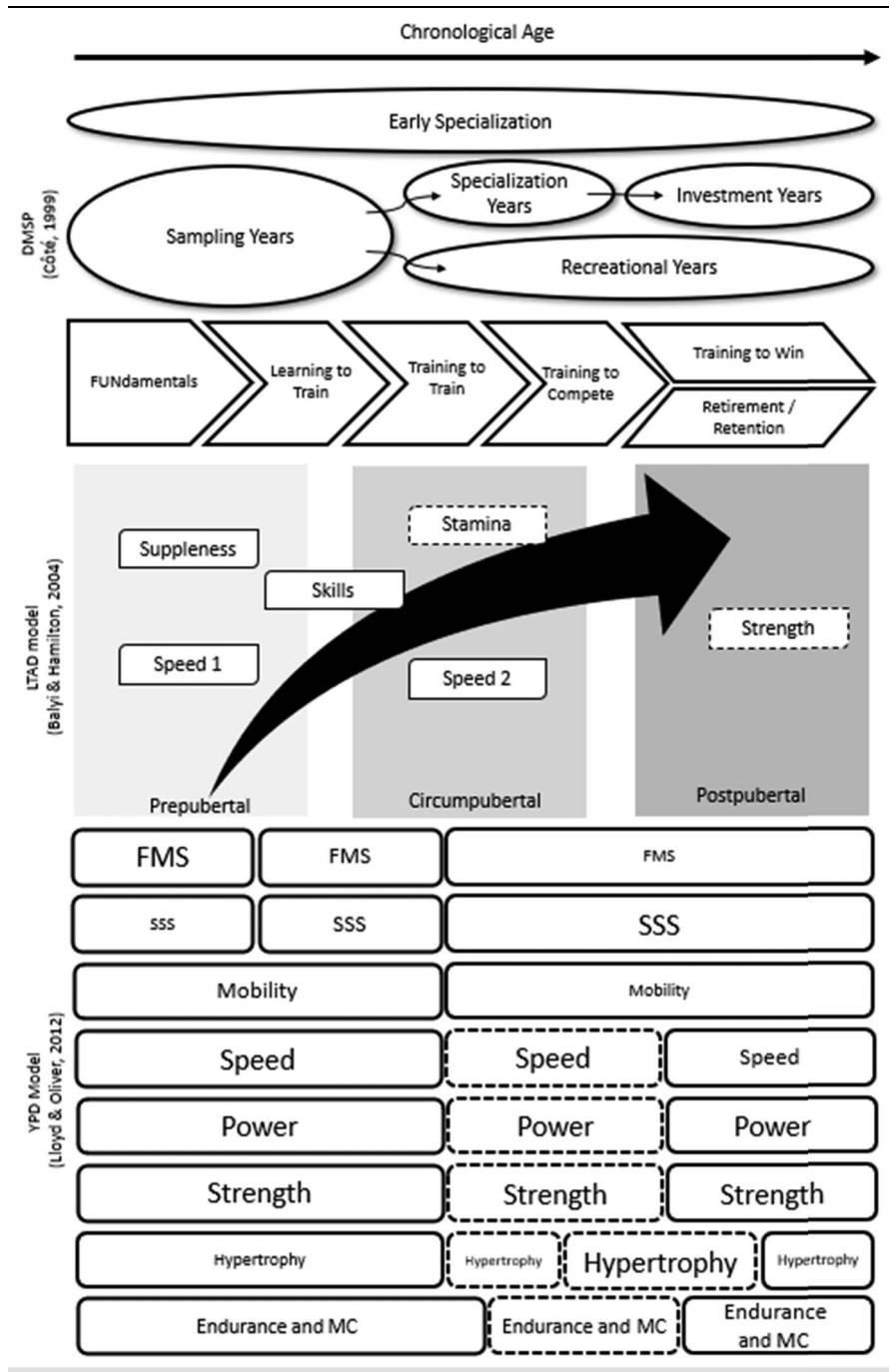
\*Reproduced with permission from Lloyd et al. (170).

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nscs-iscr by ZU0yS7S9lqF0w2eKCHAB6JYhKf/Kz7Z7ZleKpmY0lGn165D sqRB6ANms11BwIKT840iS8CVBwBTm7jXQR5H1MLPFqjO86LZEIWI4WIE7K1YS6P99YFS3F9IKZAJ6l8UyTVdxdP0= on 07/31/2023

undeveloped fundamental movement skills and, therefore, a lack of confidence and competence in their ability to perform movements (17,18). This can lead to a decrease in physical activity and eventually negative health outcomes later in life (90,91). Therefore, to encourage an active lifestyle and facilitate longer sporting

careers, youth should engage in a variety of sports or activities (referred to as sampling) (67,174).

Several models to create a framework for youth development have been proposed over the past 3 decades. In a recent review, Pichardo et al. (227) reported 3 models that have largely



**Figure 7.** Illustration comparing 3 models of long-term athletic development. In the LTAD model, closed boxes align to chronological age and dashed boxes to maturation. In the YPD model, the font size represents the importance of a fitness component at a given stage, shaded boxes identify interactions between training adaptations and maturation: Bold box = puberty (mainly neural adaptations), dashed box = pubertal (hormonal and neural adaptations). Adapted from Pichardo et al. (226). DMSM = Development Model of Sports Participation; LTAD = Long-Term Athlete Development model; YPD = Youth Physical Development Model; FMS = fundamental movement skills; SSS = sport-specific skills; MC = metabolic conditioning.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nsca-iscr by ZU0y7S9iqF0w/2eKCHABBUjYhKf/Kz7T2leKpmY0jGn165D sqKB6ANms11Bwikt840i88CvBwBTmj7XQR85H-MLPfqlO86LZELW4gWVE7K1YS6Pg9YFS3F9KZXd68UjYTVdxdP0= on 07/31/2023

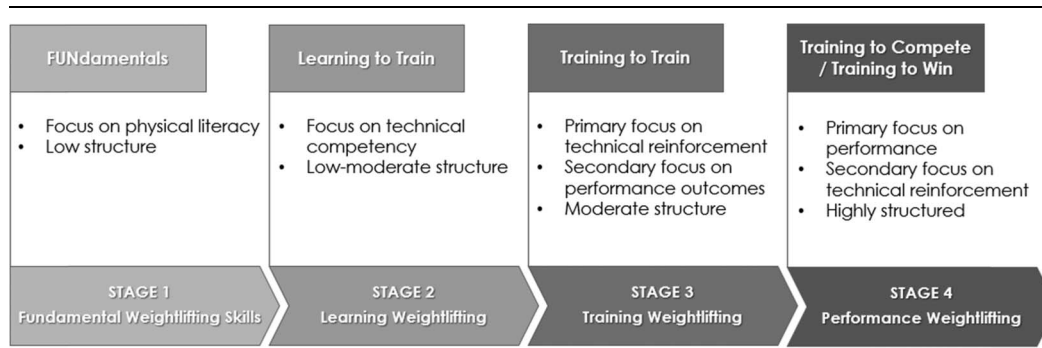


Figure 8. A summary of weightlifting training models. Adapted from Pichardo et al. (226).

influenced how athletes are developed: the Developmental Model of Sports Performance (66), the LTAD model (16), and the Youth Physical Development model (174). These models provide a framework to develop athleticism based on chronological age and/or maturation. The NSCA’s position statement on LTAD refers to athleticism as “the ability to repeatedly perform a range of movements with precision and confidence in a variety of environments, which require competent levels of motor skills, strength, power, speed, agility, balance, coordination, and endurance” (170). Figure 7 illustrates how each model aligns with each other and how the emphasis may change as youth move toward adulthood. It should be noted that if an adult or novice/beginner youth athlete has not gone through the early stages of development (e.g., fundamentals), then the athlete should enter the model at the beginning as opposed to the stage that corresponds to their chronological age (171). Irrespective of age, a novice/beginner athlete must exhibit technical competency in fundamentals before moving on to more complex movements.

Pichardo et al. (226) proposed a model for developing weightlifting in youth based on the LTAD model of Balyi and Hamilton (16) and adapted from the youth weightlifting LTAD model presented by Lloyd et al. (171). This model uses 4 stages: Fundamental Weightlifting Skills (FUNDamentals), Learning Weightlifting (Learning to Train), Training Weightlifting (Training to Train), and Performance Weightlifting (Training to Compete/Win). Figure 8 illustrates that training structure should increase with each stage and that training emphasis shifts from physical literacy (fundamental movement skills) to technical competency to performance. These guidelines can help strength and conditioning coaches design training sessions and realistic outcomes during each stage of training.

Similarly, Morris et al. (201) detail a long-term approach to develop weightlifting skills progressing from beginner to advanced, highlighting the training prescription, exercise selection, skill development, and physical capacity at each stage (Figure 9).

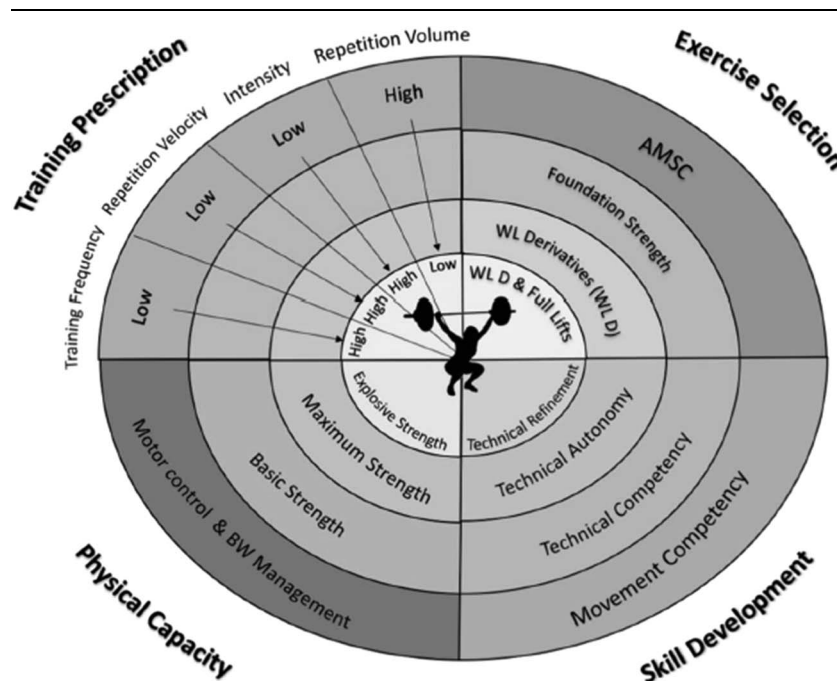


Figure 9. Long-term development of weightlifting performance progression scheme. Novice athletes are introduced at the outside of the circle and training progressions inward in all directions, progressing from beginner to novice, intermediate, and advanced stages indicative of a reduced color depth. Reproduced with permission from Morris et al. (201).

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/nscs-iscr by ZU0yST/S9IqF0w/2eKCHAB6uYhKf/KZ7T2IeKpmYoJGn165D sqkR6ANmNS11BwKt1840iS8C\BwB1Tmj7XQR5H1MLPfqjO86I ZE1W14qWEE7K1YS6P9YFS3F9KZxJ6I8UyTYVdxP0= on 07/31/2023

Physical capacities (motor control and bodyweight management) and skill development (movement competency) need to be considered at each stage before progressing to the next stage to develop the highest level of skill and performance and prevent injuries. Similarly, weightlifting exercise progressions should start with motor competencies (e.g., squat, hinge, push, pull, and brace) and progress to foundational strength exercises (e.g., back squat, Romanian deadlift, and strict press) and then to specific weightlifting movements and derivatives (e.g., clean from thigh, push jerk, and power snatch) (Figure 6). As with any training, it is imperative to consider individual needs and maturation status and have a qualified professional implement these programs, so that youth can enjoy life-long physical activity.

## Summary

The inclusion of weightlifting exercises into appropriately planned training programs, that are appropriately sequenced to take advantage of the development of specific physical characteristics, results in enhanced force-production characteristics and performance in athletic tasks. It is important to ensure that the exercise selection, including loading, sets, repetitions, and frequency, is carefully selected to ensure an appropriate stimulus to elicit the desired neuromuscular adaptations. While making such decisions, the strength and conditioning coach should also be mindful of the skill level and the technical competent in performing the selected weightlifting exercise(s), to ensure that they are performed safely and with intent. To assist with the development of technique, it is important to adopt a long-term development approach, not only to develop technical competency, but also to continue to refine the skilled aspects of these exercises, to maximize desired stimulus and the resulting adaptations.

## References

- Aagaard P, Andersen JL. Correlation between contractile strength and myosin heavy chain isoform composition in human skeletal muscle. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 30: 1217–1222, 1998.
- Aagaard P, Andersen JL, Dyhre-Poulsen P, et al. A mechanism for increased contractile strength of human pennate muscle in response to strength training: Changes in muscle architecture. *J Physiol* 534: 613–623, 2001.
- Aagaard P, Simonsen EB, Andersen JL, Magnusson P, Dyhre-Poulsen P. Increased rate of force development and neural drive of human skeletal muscle following resistance training. *J Appl Physiol* 93: 1318–1326, 2002.
- Aagaard P, Simonsen EB, Andersen JL, Magnusson P, Dyhre-Poulsen P. Neural adaptation to resistance training: Changes in evoked V-wave and H-reflex responses. *J Appl Physiol* (1985) 92: 2309–2318, 2002.
- Aagaard P, Simonsen EB, Andersen JL, et al. Neural inhibition during maximal eccentric and concentric quadriceps contraction: Effects of resistance training. *J Appl Physiol* (1985) 89: 2249–2257, 2000.
- Aagaard P, Simonsen EB, Trolle M, Bangsbo J, Klausen K. Effects of different strength training regimes on moment and power generation during dynamic knee extensions. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 69: 382–386, 1994.
- Andersen LL, Aagaard P. Influence of maximal muscle strength and intrinsic muscle contractile properties on contractile rate of force development. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 96: 46–52, 2006.
- Andersen LL, Andersen JL, Zebis MK, Aagaard P. Early and late rate of force development: Differential adaptive responses to resistance training? *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 20: e162–e169, 2010.
- Anderson DI, Magill RA, Sekiya H, Ryan G. Support for an explanation of the guidance effect in motor skill learning. *J Mot Behav* 37: 231–238, 2005.
- Arabatzi F, Kellis E. Olympic weightlifting training causes different knee muscle-coactivation adaptations compared with traditional weight training. *J Strength Cond Res* 26: 2192–2201, 2012.
- Arabatzi F, Kellis E, Saèz-Saiz De Villarreal E. Vertical jump biomechanics after plyometric, weight lifting, and combined (weight lifting + plyometric) training. *J Strength Cond Res* 24: 2440–2448, 2010.
- Ayers JL, DeBeliso M, Sevens TG, Adams KJ. Hang cleans and hang snatches produce similar improvements in female collegiate athletes. *Biol Sport* 33: 251–256, 2016.
- Azizi E, Brainerd EL, Roberts TJ. Variable gearing in pennate muscles. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 105: 1745–1750, 2008.
- Balshaw TG, Massey GJ, Maden-Wilkinson TM, Lanza MB, Folland JP. Effect of long-term maximum strength training on explosive strength, neural, and contractile properties. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 32: 685–697, 2022.
- Balshaw TG, Massey GJ, Maden-Wilkinson TM, et al. Changes in agonist neural drive, hypertrophy and pre-training strength all contribute to the individual strength gains after resistance training. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 117: 631–640, 2017.
- Balyi I, Hamilton A. Long-term athlete development: Trainability in childhood and adolescence. *Olympic Coach* 16: 4–9, 2004.
- Barnett LM, Van Beurden E, Morgan PJ, Brooks LO, Beard JR. Does childhood motor skill proficiency predict adolescent fitness? *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 40: 2137–2144, 2008.
- Barnett LM, van Beurden E, Morgan PJ, Brooks LO, Beard JR. Childhood motor skill proficiency as a predictor of adolescent physical activity. *J Adolesc Health* 44: 252–259, 2009.
- Baumann W, Gross V, Quade K, Galbierz P, Schwirtz A. The snatch technique of world class weight lifters at the 1985 world championships. *Int J Sport Biomech* 4: 68–89, 1988.
- Behm DG, Faigenbaum AD, Falk B, Klentrou P. Canadian society for exercise physiology position paper: Resistance training in children and adolescents. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* 33: 547–561, 2008.
- Behm DG, Sale DG. Intended rather than actual movement velocity determines velocity-specific training response. *J Appl Physiol* 74: 359–368, 1993.
- Behringer M, Heede Av, Matthews M, Mester J. Effects of strength training on motor performance skills in children and adolescents: A meta-analysis. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 23: 186–206, 2011.
- Berninger D, Caulfield S, Erickson J, et al. *Foundations of Coaching Lifts: Hands-on Approach to Coaching Lift Progressions*. Colorado Springs: National Strength and Conditioning Association, 2016.
- Berton R, Lixandrao ME, Pinto e Silva CM, Tricoli V. Effects of weightlifting exercise, traditional resistance and plyometric training on countermovement jump performance: A meta-analysis. *J Sports Sci* 36: 2038–2044, 2018.
- Beunen G, Malina RM. Growth and physical performance relative to the timing of the adolescent spurt. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev* 16: 503–540, 1988.
- Beunen G, Malina RM. The young athlete. In: *Growth and Biologic Maturation: Relevance to Athletic Performance*. Hebestreit H and Bar-Or O, eds. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd., 2007. pp. 3–17.
- Bonini G. London: The cradle of modern weightlifting. *Sports Historian* 21: 56–70, 2001.
- Brechue WF, Abe T. The role of FFM accumulation and skeletal muscle architecture in powerlifting performance. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 86: 327–336, 2002.
- Burd NA, Holwerda AM, Selby KC, et al. Resistance exercise volume affects myofibrillar protein synthesis and anabolic signalling molecule phosphorylation in young men. *J Physiol* 588: 3119–3130, 2010.
- Byrd R, Pierce K, Rielly L, Brady J. Young weightlifters' performance across time. *Sports Biomech* 2: 133–140, 2003.
- Canavan PK, Garrett GE, Armstrong LE. Kinematic and kinetic relationships between an Olympic-style lift and the vertical jump. *J Strength Cond Res* 10: 127–130, 1996.
- Carlock JM, Smith SL, Hartman MJ, et al. The relationship between vertical jump power estimates and weightlifting ability: A field-test approach. *J Strength Cond Res* 18: 534–539, 2004.
- Casey BJ, Galvan A, Hare TA. Changes in cerebral functional organization during cognitive development. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* 15: 239–244, 2005.
- Castro MJ, McCann DJ, Shaffrath JD, Adams WC. Peak torque per unit cross-sectional area differs between strength-trained and untrained young adults. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 27: 397–403, 1995.
- Cedar WES, Hornsby WG, Mizuguchi S, Stone MH. The double knee bend: Characteristics and coaching points. *NSCA Coach* 6: 13–21, 2019.
- Chaabene H, Prieske O, Lesinski M, Sandau I, Granacher U. Short-term seasonal development of anthropometry, body composition, physical fitness, and sport-specific performance in young Olympic weightlifters. *Sports (Basel)* 7: 242–255, 2019.

37. Channell BT, Barfield JP. Effect of Olympic and traditional resistance training on vertical jump improvement in high school boys. *J Strength Cond Res* 22: 1522–1527, 2008.
38. Chaouachi A, Hammami R, Kaabi S, et al. Olympic weightlifting and plyometric training with children provides similar or greater performance improvements than traditional resistance training. *J Strength Cond Res* 28: 1483–1496, 2014.
39. Chiu LZ, Schilling BK. A primer on weightlifting: From sport to sports training. *Strength Cond J* 27: 42–48, 2005.
40. Ciacci S, Bartolomei S. The effects of two different explosive strength training programs on vertical jump performance in basketball. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 58: 1375–1382, 2018.
41. Cleather DJ, Goodwin JE, Bull AMJ. Hip and knee joint loading during vertical jumping and push jerking. *Clin Biomech (Bristol, Avon)* 28: 98–103, 2013.
42. Cleather DJ, Goodwin JE, Bull AMJ. Intersegmental moment analysis characterizes the partial correspondence of jumping and jerking. *J Strength Cond Res* 27: 89–100, 2013.
43. Comfort P, Allen M, Graham-Smith P. Comparisons of peak ground reaction force and rate of force development during variations of the power clean. *J Strength Cond Res* 25: 1235–1239, 2011.
44. Comfort P, DosSantos T, Thomas C, McMahon JJ, Suchomel TJ. An investigation into the effects of excluding the catch phase of the power clean on force-time characteristics during isometric and dynamic tasks: An intervention study. *J Strength Cond Res* 32: 2116–2129, 2018.
45. Comfort P, Fletcher C, McMahon JJ. Determination of optimal load during the power clean in collegiate athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 26: 2962–2969, 2012.
46. Comfort P, Graham-Smith P, Allen M. Kinetic comparisons during variations of the power clean. *J Strength Cond Res* 25: 3269–3273, 2011.
47. Comfort P, Jones PA, Thomas C, et al. Changes in early and maximal isometric force production in response to moderate- and high-load strength and power training. *J Strength Cond Res* 36: 593–599, 2022.
48. Comfort P, Jones PA, Udall R. The effect of load and sex on kinematic and kinetic variables during the mid-thigh clean pull. *Sports Biomech* 14: 139–156, 2015.
49. Comfort P, McMahon JJ, Ball N, Hewitt JC. Biomechanical comparison of the mid-thigh clean pull performed with and without a countermovement. Presented at National Strength and Conditioning Association: National Conference, July, Las Vegas, 2017.
50. Comfort P, McMahon JJ, Fletcher C. No kinetic differences during variations of the power clean in inexperienced female collegiate athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 27: 363–368, 2013.
51. Comfort P, McMahon JJ, Hewitt JC, Ball N. Biomechanical comparison of the hang clean pull and clean pull from the knee. Presented at National Strength and Conditioning Association: National Conference, July, Las Vegas, 2017.
52. Comfort P, D Mundy P, Graham-Smith P, et al. Comparison of peak power output during exercises with similar lower-limb kinematics. *J Trainol* 5: 1–5, 2016.
53. Comfort P, Udall R, Jones PA. The effect of loading on kinematic and kinetic variables during the midhigh clean pull. *J Strength Cond Res* 26: 1208–1214, 2012.
54. Comfort P, Williams R, Suchomel TJ, Lake JP. A comparison of catch phase force-time characteristics during clean derivatives from the knee. *J Strength Cond Res* 31: 1911–1918, 2017.
55. Conroy BP, Kraemer WJ, Maresh CM, et al. Bone mineral density in elite junior Olympic weightlifters. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 25: 1103–1109, 1993.
56. Cormie P, McBride JM, McCaulley GO. The influence of body mass on calculation of power during lower-body resistance exercises. *J Strength Cond Res* 21: 1042–1049, 2007.
57. Cormie P, McBride JM, McCaulley GO. Validation of power measurement techniques in dynamic lower body resistance exercises. *J Appl Biomech* 23: 103–118, 2007.
58. Cormie P, McBride JM, McCaulley GO. Power-time, force-time, and velocity-time curve analysis during the jump squat: Impact of load. *J Appl Biomech* 24: 112–120, 2008.
59. Cormie P, McCaulley GO, McBride JM. Power versus strength-power jump squat training: Influence on the load-power relationship. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 39: 996–1003, 2007.
60. Cormie P, McCaulley GO, Triplett NT, McBride JM. Optimal loading for maximal power output during lower-body resistance exercises. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 39: 340–349, 2007.
61. Cormie P, McGuigan MR, Newton RU. Adaptations in athletic performance after ballistic power versus strength training. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 42: 1582–1598, 2010.
62. Cormie P, McGuigan MR, Newton RU. Influence of strength on magnitude and mechanisms of adaptation to power training. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 42: 1566–1581, 2010.
63. Cormie P, McGuigan MR, Newton RU. Influence of training status on power absorption & production during lower body stretch-shorten cycle movements. *J Strength Cond Res* 24: 1, 2010.
64. Cormie P, McGuigan MR, Newton RU. Developing maximal neuromuscular power: Part 1—Biological basis of maximal power production. *Sports Med* 41: 17–38, 2011.
65. Cormie P, McGuigan MR, Newton RU. Developing maximal neuromuscular power: Part 2—Training considerations for improving maximal power production. *Sports Med* 41: 125–146, 2011.
66. Côté J. The influence of the family in the development of talent in sport. *Sport Psychol* 13: 395–417, 1999.
67. Côté J, Lidor R, Hackfort D. ISSP position stand: To sample or to specialize? Seven postulates about youth sport activities that lead to continued participation and elite performance. *Int J Sport Exerc Psychol* 7: 7–17, 2009.
68. Cushion EJ, Goodwin JE, Cleather DJ. Relative intensity influences the degree of correspondence of jump squats and push jerks to countermovement jumps. *J Strength Cond Res* 30: 1255–1264, 2016.
69. Cuthbert M, Haff GG, Arent SM, et al. Effects of variations in resistance training frequency on strength development in well-trained populations and implications for in-season athlete training: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sports Med* 51: 1967–1982, 2021.
70. DeWeese BH, Hornsby G, Stone M, Stone MH. The training process: Planning for strength-power training in track and field. Part 1: Theoretical aspects. *J Sport Health Sci* 4: 308–317, 2015.
71. DeWeese BH, Hornsby G, Stone M, Stone MH. The training process: Planning for strength-power training in track and field. Part 2: Practical and applied aspects. *J Sport Health Sci* 4: 318–324, 2015.
72. DeWeese BH, Scruggs SK. The countermovement shrug. *Strength Cond J* 34: 20–23, 2012.
73. DeWeese BH, Serrano AJ, Scruggs SK, Burton JD. The midhigh pull: Proper application and progressions of a weightlifting movement derivative. *Strength Cond J* 35: 54–58, 2013.
74. DeWeese BH, Suchomel TJ, Serrano AJ, et al. The pull from the knee: Proper technique and application. *Strength Cond J* 38: 79–85, 2016.
75. Dick TJM, Wakeling JM. Shifting gears: Dynamic muscle shape changes and force-velocity behavior in the medial gastrocnemius. *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 123: 1433–1442, 2017.
76. Dobbs IJ, Oliver JL, Wong MA, et al. Effects of a 4-week neuromuscular training program on movement competency during the back-squat assessment in pre- and post-peak height velocity male athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 35: 2698–2705, 2021.
77. Duda J, Kraemer WJ, Martin G. A 6-step progression model for teaching the hang power clean. *Strength Cond J* 29: 26–35, 2007.
78. Duda J, Kraemer WJ, Martin G. Progressing from the hang power clean to the power clean: A 4-step model. *Strength Cond J* 31: 58–66, 2009.
79. Duehring MD, Feldmann CR, Ebben WP. Strength and conditioning practices of United States high school strength and conditioning coaches. *J Strength Cond Res* 23: 2188–2203, 2009.
80. Durell DL, Pujol TJ, Barnes JT. A survey of the scientific data and training methods utilized by collegiate strength and conditioning coaches. *J Strength Cond Res* 17: 368–373, 2003.
81. Ebben WP, Blackard DO. Strength and conditioning practices of National Football League strength and conditioning coaches. *J Strength Cond Res* 15: 48–58, 2001.
82. Ebben WP, Carroll RM, Simenz CJ. Strength and conditioning practices of National Hockey League strength and conditioning coaches. *J Strength Cond Res* 18: 889–897, 2004.
83. Ebben WP, Hintz MJ, Simenz CJ. Strength and conditioning practices of Major League Baseball strength and conditioning coaches. *J Strength Cond Res* 19: 538–546, 2005.
84. Ebel K, Rizzor R. Teaching the hang clean and overcoming common obstacles. *Strength Cond J* 24: 32–36, 2002.
85. Enoka RM. The pull in Olympic weightlifting. *Med Sci Sports* 11: 131–137, 1979.
86. Enoka RM. Muscular control of a learned movement: The speed control system hypothesis. *Exp Brain Res* 51: 135–145, 1983.
87. Enoka RM. Load- and skill-related changes in segmental contributions to a weightlifting movement. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 20: 178–187, 1988.
88. Faigenbaum A, McFarland J. Relative safety of weightlifting movements for youth. *Strength Cond J* 30: 23–25, 2008.

89. Faigenbaum AD, Kraemer WJ, Blimkie CJR, et al. Youth resistance training: Updated position statement paper from the national strength and conditioning association. *J Strength Cond Res* 23: S60–S79, 2009.
90. Faigenbaum AD, Myer GD. Exercise deficit disorder in youth: Play now or pay later. *Curr Sports Med Rep* 11: 196–200, 2012.
91. Faigenbaum AD, Stracciolini A, Myer GD. Exercise deficit disorder in youth: A hidden truth. *Acta Paediatr* 100: 1423–1425, 2011; discussion 1425, 2011.
92. Fair JD. The tragic history of the military press in Olympic and world championship competition, 1928–1972. *J Sport Hist* 28: 345–374, 2001.
93. Fink J, Kikuchi N, Nakazato K. Effects of rest intervals and training loads on metabolic stress and muscle hypertrophy. *Clin Physiol Funct Imaging* 38: 261–268, 2018.
94. Flores FJ, Sedano S, Redondo JC. Optimal load and power spectrum during jerk and back jerk in competitive weightlifters. *J Strength Cond Res* 31: 809–816, 2017.
95. Ford P, De Ste Croix M, Lloyd R, et al. The long-term athlete development model: Physiological evidence and application. *J Sports Sci* 29: 389–402, 2011.
96. Frolov VI, Efimov NM, Vanagas MP. Training weights for snatch pulls. *Soc Sports Rev* 18: 58–61, 1983.
97. Frolov VI, Levshunov NP. The phasic structure of jerk. *Tyazhelaya Atletika* 25: 58–61, 1979.
98. Fry AC. The role of resistance exercise intensity on muscle fibre adaptations. *Sports Med* 34: 663–679, 2004.
99. Garhammer J. Performance evaluation of Olympic weightlifters. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 11: 284–287, 1979.
100. Garhammer J. Power production by Olympic weightlifters. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 12: 54–60, 1980.
101. Garhammer J. Energy flow during Olympic weight lifting. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 14: 353–360, 1982.
102. Garhammer J. Biomechanical profiles of Olympic weightlifters. *Int J Sport Biomech* 1: 122–130, 1985.
103. Garhammer J. A comparison of maximal power outputs between elite male and female weightlifters in competition. *Int J Sport Biomech* 7: 3–11, 1991.
104. Garhammer J. A review of power output studies of Olympic and powerlifting: Methodology, performance prediction, and evaluation tests. *J Strength Cond Res* 7: 76–89, 1993.
105. Garhammer J, Gregor R. Propulsion forces as a function of intensity for weightlifting and vertical jumping. *J Strength Cond Res* 6: 129–134, 1992.
106. Garhammer JJ. Weight lifting and training. In: *Biomechanics of Sport*. Vaughn C, ed. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 1989. pp. 170–207.
107. Grabe SA, Widule CJ. Comparative biomechanics of the jerk in Olympic weightlifting. *Res Q Exerc Sport* 59: 1–8, 1988.
108. Gunter KB, Almstedt HC, Janz KF. Physical activity in childhood may be the key to optimizing lifespan skeletal health. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev* 40: 13–21, 2012.
109. Hackett D, Davies T, Soomro N, Halaki M. Olympic weightlifting training improves vertical jump height in sportspeople: A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med* 50: 865–872, 2016.
110. Haff GG. Periodization. In: *Essentials of Strength Training and Conditioning*. Haff GG and Triplett NT, eds. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2016. pp. 583–604.
111. Haff GG, Burgess S, Stone MH. Cluster training: Theoretical and practical applications for the strength and conditioning professional. *Prof Strength Cond* 12: 12–17, 2008.
112. Haff GG, Haff EE. Weightlifting for young athletes. In: *Strength and Conditioning for Young Athletes*. Lloyd RS and Oliver JL, eds. Oxford, UK: Routledge, 2020. pp. 155–187.
113. Haff GG, Nimphius S. Training principles for power. *Strength Cond J* 34: 2–12, 2012.
114. Haff GG, Whitley A, McCoy LB, et al. Effects of different set configurations on barbell velocity and displacement during a clean pull. *J Strength Cond Res* 17: 95–103, 2003.
115. Haff GG, Whitley A, Potteiger JA. A brief review: Explosive exercises and sports performance. *Strength Cond J* 23: 13–20, 2001.
116. Haines T, McBride JM, Skinner J, et al. Effect of load on bar, body and system power output in the power clean. *J Strength Cond Res* 24: 1, 2010.
117. Häkkinen K. A biomechanical analysis of variations of the snatch pull exercise. *J Hum Mov Stud* 15: 229–243, 1988.
118. Häkkinen K, Kauhanen H. A biomechanical analysis of selected assistant exercises of weightlifting. *J Hum Mov Stud* 12: 271–288, 1986.
119. Häkkinen K, Kauhanen H, Komi PV. Biomechanical changes in the Olympic weightlifting technique of the snatch and the clean & jerk from submaximal to maximal loads. *Scand J Sports Sci* 6: 57–66, 1984.
120. Häkkinen K, Keskinen KL. Muscle cross-sectional area and voluntary force production characteristics in elite strength- and endurance-trained athletes and sprinters. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 59: 215–220, 1989.
121. Hamill BP. Relative safety of weightlifting and weight training. *J Strength Cond Res* 8: 53–57, 1994.
122. Hardee JP, Lawrence MM, Utter AC, et al. Effect of inter-repetition rest on ratings of perceived exertion during multiple sets of the power clean. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 112: 3141–3147, 2012.
123. Hardee JP, Travis Triplett N, Utter AC, Zwetsloot KA, McBride JM. Effect of inter-repetition rest on power output in the power clean. *J Strength Cond Res* 26: 883–889, 2012.
124. Harris GR, Stone MH, O'Bryant HS, Proulx CM, Johnson RL. Short-term performance effects of high power, high force or combined weight training methods. *J Strength Cond Res* 14: 14–20, 2000.
125. Harris NK, Cronin JB, Hopkins WG, Hansen KT. Squat jump training at maximal power loads vs. heavy loads: Effect on sprint ability. *J Strength Cond Res* 22: 1742–1749, 2008.
126. Haug WB, Drinkwater EJ, Chapman DW. Learning the hang power clean: Kinetic, kinematic, and technical changes in four weightlifting naive athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 29: 1766–1779, 2015.
127. Hawkins SB, Doyle TLA, McGuigan MR. The effect of different training programs on eccentric energy utilization in college-aged males. *J Strength Cond Res* 23: 1996–2002, 2009.
128. Helland C, Hole E, Iversen E, et al. Training strategies to improve muscle power: Is Olympic-style weightlifting relevant? *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 49: 736–745, 2017.
129. Hewett TE, Myer GD, Ford KR. Decrease in neuromuscular control about the knee with maturation in female athletes. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 86: 1601–1608, 2004.
130. Hirtz P, Starosta W. Sensitive and critical periods of motor Co-ordination development and its relation to motor learning. *J Hum Kinet* 7: 19–28, 2002.
131. Hoffman JR, Cooper J, Wendell M, Kang J. Comparison of Olympic vs. traditional power lifting training programs in football players. *J Strength Cond Res* 18: 129–135, 2004.
132. Hori N, Newton RU, Andrews WA, Kawamori N, McGuigan MR, Nosaka K. Does performance of hang power clean differentiate performance of jumping, sprinting, and changing of direction? *J Strength Cond Res* 22: 412–418, 2008.
133. Hori N, Newton RU, Nosaka K, Stone MH. Weightlifting exercises enhance athletic performance that requires high-load speed strength. *Strength Cond J* 27: 50–55, 2005.
134. Hornsby G, Cedar B, Mizuguchi S, Stone MH. The power position: Characteristics and coaching points. *NSCA Coach* 5: 6–12, 2018.
135. Ikai M, Fukunaga T. Calculation of muscle strength per unit cross-sectional area of human muscle by means of ultrasonic measurement. *Int Z Angew Physiol* 26: 26–32, 1968.
136. Ikegawa S, Funato K, Tsunoda N, et al. Muscle force per cross-sectional area is inversely related with pennation angle in strength trained athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 22: 128–131, 2008.
137. Ince I. Effects of split style Olympic weightlifting training on leg stiffness vertical jump change of direction and sprint in collegiate volleyball players. *Universal J Educ Res* 7: 24–31, 2019.
138. Ince İ. Comparison of training effects of split-style Olympic lifts and squat-style Olympic lifts on performance in collegiate volleyball players. *Phys Educ* 77: 668–686, 2020.
139. Ince I, Senturk A. Effects of plyometric and pull training on performance and selected strength characteristics of junior male weightlifter. *Phys Educ Stud* 23: 120–128, 2019.
140. Isaac L. *Coaching Weightlifting Illustrated: A Systematic Approach to Coaching Beginners in Olympic Weightlifting*. Hobart, Australia: Lionel Isaac, 2021. pp. 32–61.
141. Issurin VB. Generalized training effects induced by athletic preparation. A review. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 49: 333–345, 2009.
142. James LP, Comfort P, Suchomel TJ, et al. Influence of power clean ability and training age on adaptations to weightlifting-style training. *J Strength Cond Res* 33: 2936–2944, 2019.
143. James LP, Gregory Haff GG, Kelly VG, et al. The impact of strength level on adaptations to combined weightlifting, plyometric, and ballistic training. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 28: 1494–1505, 2018.
144. Jensen M. Pedagogy of coaching. In: *Coaching for Sport Performance*. Baghurst T, ed. New York: Routledge, 2020. pp. 38–74.



145. Jones EJ, Bishop PA, Woods AK, Green JM. Cross-sectional area and muscular strength. *Sports Med* 38: 987–994, 2008.
146. Jones L. The pulling movement. *Strength Cond J* 13: 14–17, 1991.
147. Jones L. Assistance lifts and exercises. In: *International Weightlifting Federation—Level 2: Coaching Manual*. Jones L and Pierce K, eds. Budapest, Hungary: International Weightlifting Federation, 2014. pp. 59–83.
148. Jones L, Pierce K, Keelan M. *International Weightlifting Federation Club Coach Manual: Level 1*. Hungary: International Weightlifting Federation, 2010.
149. Jowett S. Coaching effectiveness: The coach–athlete relationship at its heart. *Curr Opin Psychol* 16: 154–158, 2017.
150. Kaabi S, Mabrouk RH, Passelergue P. Weightlifting is better than plyometric training to improve strength, counter movement jump, and change of direction skills in Tunisian elite male junior table tennis players. *J Strength Cond Res* 36: 2912–2919, 2022.
151. Kaneko M, Fuchimoto T, Toji H, Sueti K. Training effect of different loads on the force-velocity relationship and mechanical power output in human muscle. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 5: 50–55, 1983.
152. Kauhanen H, Häkkinen K, Komi PV. A biomechanical analysis of the snatch and clean and jerk techniques of Finish elite and district weightlifters. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 6: 47–56, 1984.
153. Kawakami Y, Abe T, Fukunaga T. Muscle-fiber pennation angles are greater in hypertrophied than in normal muscles. *J Appl Physiol* (1985) 74: 2740–2744, 1993.
154. Kawakami Y, Abe T, Kuno SY, Fukunaga T. Training-induced changes in muscle architecture and specific tension. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 72: 37–43, 1995.
155. Kipp K. Relative importance of lower extremity net joint moments in relation to bar velocity and acceleration in weightlifting. *Sports Biomech* 21: 1008–1020, 2020.
156. Kipp K. Joint and pull phase specific relative effort in weightlifting and simulated training effects. *Sports Biomech* 1–13: 2021–2113, 2021.
157. Kipp K, Comfort P, Suchomel TJ. Comparing biomechanical time series data during the hang-power clean and jump shrug. *J Strength Cond Res* 35: 2389–2396, 2021.
158. Kipp K, Harris C, Sabick M. Correlations between internal and external power outputs during weightlifting exercise. *J Strength Cond Res* 27: 1025–1030, 2012.
159. Kipp K, Harris C, Sabick MB. Lower extremity biomechanics during weightlifting exercise vary across joint and load. *J Strength Cond Res* 25: 1229–1234, 2011.
160. Kipp K, Malloy PJ, Smith JC, et al. Mechanical demands of the hang power clean and jump shrug: A joint-level perspective. *J Strength Cond Res* 32: 466–474, 2018.
161. Kipp K, Meinerz C. A biomechanical comparison of successful and unsuccessful power clean attempts. *Sports Biomech* 16: 272–282, 2017.
162. Kipp K, Redden J, Sabick M, Harris C. Kinematic and kinetic synergies of the lower extremities during the pull in Olympic weightlifting. *J Appl Biomech* 28: 271–278, 2012.
163. Kipp K, Redden J, Sabick MB, Harris C. Weightlifting performance is related to kinematic and kinetic patterns of the hip and knee joints. *J Strength Cond Res* 26: 1838–1844, 2012.
164. Kushner AM, Kiefer AW, Lesnick S, et al. Training the developing brain part II: Cognitive considerations for youth instruction and feedback. *Curr Sports Med Rep* 14: 235–243, 2015.
165. Laakso LA. Optimizing verbal communication in the instruction of weightlifting to weightlifting naive athletes. *Strength Cond J* 43: 109–115, 2021.
166. Lake JP, Lauder M, Dyson R. Exploring the biomechanical characteristics of the weightlifting jerk. Presented at XXIVth International Symposium on Biomechanics in Sports, Salzburg, Austria, July 14–18, 2006.
167. Lake JP, Mundy PD, Comfort P. Power and impulse applied during push press exercise. *J Strength Cond Res* 28: 2552–2559, 2014.
168. Lee TD, White MA, Carnahan H. On the role of knowledge of results in motor learning: Exploring the guidance hypothesis. *J Mot Behav* 22: 191–208, 1990.
169. Leong B, Kamen G, Patten C, Burke JR. Maximal motor unit discharge rates in the quadriceps muscles of older weight lifters. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 31: 1638–1644, 1999.
170. Lloyd RS, Cronin JB, Faigenbaum AD, et al. National Strength and Conditioning Association position statement on long-term athletic development. *J Strength Cond Res* 30: 1491–1509, 2016.
171. Lloyd RS, Faigenbaum AD, Myer GD, et al. UKSCA position statement: Youth resistance training. *Prof Strength Cond* 26: 26–39, 2012.
172. Lloyd RS, Faigenbaum AD, Stone MH, et al. Position statement on youth resistance training: The 2014 international consensus. *Br J Sports Med* 48: 498–505, 2014.
173. Lloyd RS, Moeskops S, Granacher U. Motor skill training for young athletes. In: *Strength and Conditioning for Young Athletes*. Lloyd RS and Oliver JO, eds. Oxford, UK: Routledge, 2020. pp. 103–130.
174. Lloyd RS, Oliver JL. The youth physical development model: A new approach to long-term athletic development. *Strength Cond J* 34: 61–72, 2012.
175. Lloyd RS, Oliver JL, Faigenbaum AD, et al. Long-term athletic development- Part 1: A pathway for all youth. *J Strength Cond Res* 29: 1439–1450, 2015.
176. Lloyd RS, Oliver JL, Meyers RW, Moody JA, Stone MH. The youth physical development model. *Strength Cond J* 34: 61–72, 2012.
177. Lloyd RS, Radnor JM, De Ste Croix MBA, Cronin JB, Oliver JL. Changes in sprint and jump performances after traditional, plyometric, and combined resistance training in male youth pre- and post-peak height velocity. *J Strength Cond Res* 30: 1239–1247, 2016.
178. Lopes Dos Santos M, Berton R, Jagodinsky AE, Torry MR, Lagally KM. The effect of load based on body mass percentage on peak power output in the hang power clean, hang high pull, and mid-thigh clean pull. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 62: 457–466, 2022.
179. Lopes dos Santos M, Jagodinsky A, Lagally KM, Tricoli V, Berton R. Determining the peak power output for weightlifting derivatives using body mass percentage: A practical approach. *Front Sports Act Living* 3: 2021.
180. Loturco I, Kobal R, Maldonado T, et al. Jump squat is more related to sprinting and jumping abilities than Olympic push press. *Int J Sports Med* 38: 604–612, 2017.
181. Maffiuletti NA, Aagaard P, Blazevich AJ, et al. Rate of force development: Physiological and methodological considerations. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 116: 1091–1116, 2016.
182. Magnusson SP, Simonsen EB, Aagaard P, et al. Determinants of musculoskeletal flexibility: Viscoelastic properties, cross-sectional area, EMG and stretch tolerance. *Scand J Med Sci Sports* 7: 195–202, 2007.
183. Malina RM, Bouchard C, Bar-Or O. *Growth, Maturation, and Physical Activity*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2004. pp. 41–77.
184. Mangine GT, Hoffman JR, Gonzalez AM, et al. The effect of training volume and intensity on improvements in muscular strength and size in resistance-trained men. *Phys Rep* 3: e12472, 2015.
185. Mangine GT, Hoffman JR, Wang R, et al. Resistance training intensity and volume affect changes in rate of force development in resistance-trained men. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 116: 2367–2374, 2016.
186. Matveev LP, Zdorniy AP. *Fundamentals of Sports Training*. Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1981. pp. 46–62.
187. Maughan RJ, Nimmo MA. The influence of variations in muscle fibre composition on muscle strength and cross-sectional area in untrained males. *J Physiol* 351: 299–311, 1984.
188. Maughan RJ, Watson JS, Weir J. Strength and cross-sectional area of human skeletal muscle. *J Physiol* 338: 37–49, 1983.
189. McBride JM, Haines TL, Kirby TJ. Effect of loading on peak power of the bar, body, and system during power cleans, squats, and jump squats. *J Sports Sci* 29: 1215–1221, 2011.
190. McBride JM, Triplett-Mcbride T, Davie A, Newton RU. A comparison of strength and power characteristics between power lifters, Olympic lifters, and sprinters. *J Strength Cond Res* 13: 58–66, 1999.
191. McMorris T. Cognitive fatigue effects on physical performance: The role of interoception. *Sports Med* 50: 1703–1708, 2020.
192. Medvedev AS. Training content of weightlifters in the preparatory period. *Soviet Sports Rev* 17: 90–93, 1982.
193. Medvedev AS, Frolov VI, Lukashev AA, Krasov EA. A comparative analysis of the clean and clean pull technique with various weights. *Soviet Sports Rev* 18: 17–19, 1983.
194. Medvedev AS, Frolov VI, Lukshev AA, Krasov EA. A comparative analysis of clean technique and clean pulls with various loads. In: *1981 Weightlifting Yearbook*. Lelikov SL, Medvedev AS, Povetkin YS, Pole-tayev PA, Roman RA, Sandalov YA, and Chernyak AV, eds. Moscow, Russia: Fizikultura i Sport, 1981. pp. 61–68.
195. Meechan D, McMahon JJ, Suchomel TJ, Comfort P. A comparison of kinetic and kinematic variables during the pull from the knee and hang pull, across loads. *J Strength Cond Res* 34: 1819–1829, 2020.
196. Meechan D, McMahon JJ, Suchomel TJ, Comfort P. The effect of rest redistribution on kinetic and kinematic variables during the counter-movement shrug. *J Strength Cond Res*, 2022. Epub ahead of print.
197. Meechan D, Suchomel TJ, McMahon JJ, Comfort P. A comparison of kinetic and kinematic variables during the midhigh pull and counter-movement shrug, across loads. *J Strength Cond Res* 34: 1830–1841, 2020.

198. Milner-Brown HS, Lee R, Lee RG. Synchronization of human motor units: Possible roles of exercise and supraspinal reflexes. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 38: 245–254, 1975.
199. Minetti AE. On the mechanical power of joint extensions as affected by the change in muscle force (or cross-sectional area), ceteris paribus. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 86: 363–369, 2002.
200. Moolyk AN, Carey JP, Chiu LZ. Characteristics of lower extremity work during the impact phase of jumping and weightlifting. *J Strength Cond Res* 27: 3225–3232, 2013.
201. Morris SJ, Oliver JL, Pedley JS, Haff GG, Lloyd RS. Taking A long-term approach to the development of weightlifting ability in young athletes. *Strength Cond J* 42: 71–90, 2020.
202. Morris SJ, Oliver JL, Pedley JS, Haff GG, Lloyd RS. Comparison of weightlifting, traditional resistance training and plyometrics on strength, power and speed: A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Sports Med* 52: 1533–1554, 2022.
203. Moss BM, Refsnes PE, Abildgaard A, Nicolaysen K, Jensen J. Effects of maximal effort strength training with different loads on dynamic strength, cross-sectional area, load-power and load-velocity relationships. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 75: 193–199, 1997.
204. Must A, Tybor DJ. Physical activity and sedentary behavior: A review of longitudinal studies of weight and adiposity in youth. *Int J Obes* 29: S84–S96, 2005.
205. Myer GD, Lloyd RS, Brent JL, Faigenbaum AD. How young is “too young” to start training? *ACSMs Health Fit J* 17: 14–23, 2013.
206. Myer GD, Quatman CE, Khoury J, Wall EJ, Hewett TE. Youth versus adult weightlifting injuries presenting to United States emergency rooms: Accidental versus nonaccidental injury mechanisms. *J Strength Cond Res* 23: 2054–2060, 2009.
207. Narici M, Franchi M, Maganaris C. Muscle structural assembly and functional consequences. *J Exp Biol* 219: 276–284, 2016.
208. Narici MV, Roi GS, Landoni L, Minetti AE, Cerretelli P. Changes in force, cross-sectional area and neural activation during strength training and detraining of the human quadriceps. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 59: 310–319, 1989.
209. Newton RU, Häkkinen K, Häkkinen A, et al. Mixed-methods resistance training increases power and strength of young and older men. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 34: 1367–1375, 2002.
210. Newton RU, Kraemer WJ. Developing explosive muscular power: Implications for a mixed methods training strategy. *Strength Cond J* 16: 20–31, 1994.
211. Newton RU, Kraemer WJ, Häkkinen K, Humphries BJ, Murphy AJ. Kinematics, kinetics and muscle activation during explosive upper body movements. *J Appl Biomech* 12: 31–43, 1996.
212. Nóbrega SR, Scarpelli MC, Barcelos C, Chaves TS, Libardi CA. Muscle hypertrophy is affected by volume load progression models. *J Strength Cond Res* 37: 62–67, 2023.
213. O'Bryant HO. *Periodization: A Hypothetical Training Model for Strength and Power*. Louisiana State University, 1982.
214. O'Shea P. Getting a grip on the push press. *Strength Cond J* 21: 42–44, 1999.
215. Oliver JM, Jenke SC, Mata JD, Kreutzer A, Jones MT. Acute effect of cluster and traditional set configurations on myokines associated with hypertrophy. *Int J Sports Med* 37: 1019–1024, 2016.
216. Oranchuk DJ, Mannerberg JM, Robinson TL, Nelson MC. Eight weeks of strength and power training improves club head speed in collegiate golfers. *J Strength Cond Res* 34: 2205–2213, 2020.
217. Oranchuk DJ, Robinson TL, Switaj ZJ, Drinkwater EJ. Comparison of the hang high-pull and loaded jump squat for the development of vertical jump and isometric force-time characteristics. *J Strength Cond Res* 33: 17–24, 2019.
218. Otte FW, Davids K, Millar SK, Klatt S. When and how to provide feedback and instructions to athletes?—How sport psychology and pedagogy insights can improve coaching interventions to enhance self-regulation in training. *Front Psychol* 11: 1444, 2020.
219. Otto WH III, Coburn JW, Brown LE, Spiering BA. Effects of weightlifting vs. kettlebell training on vertical jump, strength, and body composition. *J Strength Cond Res* 26: 1199–1202, 2012.
220. Painter KB, Haff GG, Ramsey MW, et al. Strength gains: Block versus daily undulating periodization weight training among track and field athletes. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 7: 161–169, 2012.
221. Payne AH, Slater WJ, Telford T. The use of a force platform in the study of athletic activities. A preliminary investigation. *Ergonomics* 11: 123–143, 1968.
222. Pearcey GEP, Alizedah S, Power KE, Button DC. Chronic resistance training: Is it time to rethink the time course of neural contributions to strength gain? *Eur J Appl Physiol* 121: 2413–2422, 2021.
223. Peitz M, Behringer M, Granacher U. Correction: A systematic review on the effects of resistance and plyometric training on physical fitness in youth—what do comparative studies tell us? *PLoS One* 13: e0207641, 2018.
224. Peitz M, Behringer M, Granacher U. A systematic review on the effects of resistance and plyometric training on physical fitness in youth— what do comparative studies tell us? *PLoS One* 13: e0205525, 2018.
225. Peterson MD, Rhea MR, Alvar BA. Maximizing strength development in athletes: A meta-analysis to determine the dose-response relationship. *J Strength Cond Res* 18: 377–382, 2004.
226. Pichardo AW, Oliver JL, Harrison CB, Maulder PS, Lloyd RS. Integrating models of long-term athletic development to maximize the physical development of youth. *Int J Sports Sci Coach* 13: 1189–1199, 2018.
227. Pichardo AW, Oliver JL, Harrison CB, et al. Effects of combined resistance training and weightlifting on motor skill performance of adolescent male athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 33: 3226–3235, 2019.
228. Pierce K, Byrd R, Stone MH. Position statement and literature review: Youth weightlifting. *Olympic Coach* 17: 10–12, 1999.
229. Pierce K, Byrd R, Stone MH. Youth weightlifting. Is it safe? *Weightlifting USA* 17: 5, 1999.
230. Pierce KC, Hornsby WG, Stone MH. Weightlifting for children and adolescents: A narrative review. *Sports Health* 14: 45–56, 2022.
231. Quatman-Yates CC, Quatman CE, Meszaros AJ, Paterno MV, Hewett TE. A systematic review of sensorimotor function during adolescence: A developmental stage of increased motor awkwardness? *Br J Sports Med* 46: 649–655, 2012.
232. Quatman CE, Ford KR, Myer GD, Hewett TE. Maturation leads to gender differences in landing force and vertical jump performance: A longitudinal study. *Am J Sports Med* 34: 806–813, 2006.
233. Radnor JM, Oliver JL, Waugh CM, Myer GD, Lloyd RS. The influence of maturity status on muscle architecture in school-aged boys. *Pediatr Exerc Sci* 32: 89–96, 2020.
234. Randhawa A, Jackman ME, Wakeling JM. Muscle gearing during isometric and isokinetic movements in the ankle plantarflexors. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 113: 437–447, 2013.
235. Rhea MR. Determining the magnitude of treatment effects in strength training research through the use of the effect size. *J Strength Cond Res* 18: 918–920, 2004.
236. Roberts M, DeBeliso M. Olympic lifting vs. traditional lifting methods for North American high school football players. *Turkish J Kinesiol* 4: 91–100, 2018.
237. Roberts TJ. Contribution of elastic tissues to the mechanics and energetics of muscle function during movement. *J Exp Biol* 219: 266–275, 2016.
238. Roman RA. Fundamentals of training methods. In: *The Training of the Weightlifter*. Medvedev AS. Moscow, Russia: Fizkultura i Sport, 1986. pp. 39–77.
239. Rushall BS. Some practical application of psychology in physical activity settings. In: *The Pursuit of Sport Excellence*. Kim KW, ed. Seoul, Korea: Korean Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, 1996. pp. 638–656.
240. Russell S, Jenkins D, Rynne S, Halson SL, Kelly V. What is mental fatigue in elite sport? Perceptions from athletes and staff. *Eur J Sport Sci* 19: 1367–1376, 2019.
241. Sadowski J, Mastalerz A, Niznikowski T. Benefits of bandwidth feedback in learning a complex gymnastic skill. *J Hum Kinet* 37: 183–193, 2013.
242. Sandau I, Granacher U. Effects of the barbell load on the acceleration phase during the snatch in elite Olympic weightlifting. *Sports (Basel)* 8: 59, 2020.
243. Scala D, McMillan J, Blessing D, Rozenek R, Stone M. Metabolic cost of a preparatory phase of training in weight lifting: A practical observation. *J Strength Cond Res* 1: 48–52, 1987.
244. Schantz P, Randall-Fox E, Hutchison W, Tyden A, Åstrand PO. Muscle fibre type distribution, muscle cross-sectional area and maximal voluntary strength in humans. *Acta Physiol Scand* 117: 219–226, 1983.
245. Schmidt RA, Sherwood DE, Zelaznik HN, Leikind BJ. Speed-accuracy trade-offs in motor behavior: Theories of impulse variability. In: *Motor Behavior*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer, 1985. pp. 79–123.
246. Schodl G. *The Lost Past*. Budapest: International Weightlifting Federation, 1992. pp. 76–92.

247. Schoenfeld BJ. Potential mechanisms for a role of metabolic stress in hypertrophic adaptations to resistance training. *Sports Med* 43: 179–194, 2013.
248. Schoenfeld BJ. The mechanisms of muscle hypertrophy and their application to resistance training. *J Strength Cond Res* 24: 2857–2872, 2010.
249. Schoenfeld BJ, Grgic J, Ogborn D, Krieger JW. Strength and hypertrophy adaptations between low- vs. high-load resistance training: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Strength Cond Res* 31: 3508–3523, 2017.
250. Schoenfeld BJ, Grgic J, Van Every DW, Plotkin DL. Loading recommendations for muscle strength, hypertrophy, and local endurance: A Re-examination of the repetition continuum. *Sports* 9: 32, 2021.
251. Schoenfeld BJ, Ogborn D, Krieger JW. Effects of resistance training frequency on measures of muscle hypertrophy: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sports Med* 46: 1689–1697, 2016.
252. Schoenfeld BJ, Peterson MD, Ogborn D, Contreras B, Sonmez GT. Effects of low- vs. high-load resistance training on muscle strength and hypertrophy in well-trained men. *J Strength Cond Res* 29: 2954–2963, 2015.
253. Schoenfeld BJ, Ratamess NA, Peterson MD, et al. Effects of different volume-equated resistance training loading strategies on muscular adaptations in well-trained men. *J Strength Cond Res* 28: 2909–2918, 2014.
254. Schoenfeld BJ, Ratamess NA, Peterson MD, Contreras B, Tiryaki-Sonmez G. Influence of resistance training frequency on muscular adaptations in well-trained men. *J Strength Cond Res* 29: 1821–1829, 2015.
255. Schutt KS, Wu WFW, Vidal AD, Hiegel J, Becker J. Does focus of attention improve snatch lift kinematics? *J Strength Cond Res* 31: 2758–2764, 2017.
256. Seefeldt V. Developmental motor patterns: Implications for elementary school physical education. *Psychol Motor Behav Sport* 36: 314–323, 1980.
257. Servidio FJ, Bartels RL, Hamlin RL, et al. The effects of weight training, using Olympic style lifts, on various physiological variables in pre-pubescent boys. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 17: 288, 1985.
258. Shurley JP, Todd JS. “The strength of Nebraska”: Boyd Epley, husker power, and the formation of the strength coaching profession. *J Strength Cond Res* 26: 3177–3188, 2012.
259. Simenz CJ, Dugan CA, Ebben WP. Strength and conditioning practices of National Basketball Association strength and conditioning coaches. *J Strength Cond Res* 19: 495–504, 2005.
260. Solum M, Lorås H, Pedersen AV. A golden age for motor skill learning? Learning of an unfamiliar motor task in 10-year-olds, young adults, and adults, when starting from similar baselines. *Front Psychol* 11: 538, 2020.
261. Soriano MA, Garcia-Ramos A, Calderbank J, et al. Does sex impact the differences and relationships in the one repetition maximum performance across weightlifting overhead pressing exercises? *J Strength Cond Res* 36: 1930–1935, 2022.
262. Soriano MA, Garcia-Ramos A, Torres-Gonzalez A, et al. Comparison of 1-repetition-maximum performance across 3 weightlifting overhead pressing exercises and sport groups. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 15: 862–867, 2020.
263. Soriano MA, Jimenez-Reyes P, Rhea MR, Marin PJ. The optimal load for maximal power production during lower-body resistance exercises: A meta-analysis. *Sports Med* 45: 1191–1205, 2015.
264. Soriano MA, Kipp K, Lake JP, et al. Mechanical power production assessment during weightlifting exercises. A systematic review. *Sports Biomech* 22: 633–659, 2023.
265. Soriano MA, Lake J, Comfort P, et al. No differences in weightlifting overhead pressing exercises kinetics. *Sports Biomech* Oct 27; 1–13, 2021. Epub ahead of print.
266. Soriano MA, Suchomel TJ, Comfort P. Weightlifting overhead pressing derivatives: A review of the literature. *Sports Med* 49: 867–885, 2019.
267. Souissi MA, Ammar A, Trabelsi O, et al. Distance motor learning during the COVID-19 induced confinement: Video feedback with a pedagogical activity improves the snatch technique in young athletes. *Int J Environ Res Publ Health* 18: 3069, 2021.
268. South MA, Layne AS, Stuart CA, et al. Effects of short-term free-weight and semiblock periodization resistance training on metabolic syndrome. *J Strength Cond Res* 30: 2682–2696, 2016.
269. Stone MH. Implications for connective tissue and bone alterations resulting from resistance exercise training. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 20: S162–S168, 1988.
270. Stone MH. Position statement: Explosive exercise and training. *Natl Strength Cond Assoc J* 15: 7, 1993.
271. Stone MH, Byrd R, Tew J, Wood M. Relationship between anaerobic power and Olympic weightlifting performance. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 20: 99–102, 1980.
272. Stone MH, Hornsby WG, Haff GG, et al. Periodization and block periodization in sports: Emphasis on strength-power training-A provocative and challenging narrative. *J Strength Cond Res* 35: 2351–2371, 2021.
273. Stone MH, Karatzeferi C. Connective tissue and bone response to strength training. In: *Encyclopaedia of Sports Medicine: Strength and Power in Sports*. Komi PV, ed. Oxford, UK: Blackwell, 2003. pp. 343–360.
274. Stone MH, O’Byrant H, Garhammer J. A hypothetical model for strength training. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness* 21: 342–351, 1981.
275. Stone MH, O’Byrant H, Garhammer J, McMillan J, Rozenek R. A theoretical model of strength training. *Natl Strength Coach Assoc J* 4: 36–39, 1982.
276. Stone MH, O’Byrant HO. *Weight Training: A Scientific Approach*. Minnesota: Burgess International Group, 1987. pp. 58–74.
277. Stone MH, O’Byrant HS, McCoy L, et al. Power and maximum strength relationships during performance of dynamic and static weighted jumps. *J Strength Cond Res* 17: 140–147, 2003.
278. Stone MH, Pierce KC, Sands WA, Stone ME. Weightlifting: A brief overview. *Strength Cond J* 28: 50–66, 2006.
279. Stone MH, Pierce KC, Sands WA, Stone ME. Weightlifting: Program design. *Strength Cond J* 28: 10–17, 2006.
280. Stone MH, Smith D, Rush ME. Metabolic cost of an Olympic weight training session. Presented at American College of Sports Medicine 24th Annual Conference, April, Chicago, 1977.
281. Stone MH, Ward T, Smith D, Rush M. Olympic weightlifting: Metabolic consequences of a workout. In: *Science in Weightlifting*. Terauds J, ed. Del Mar, California: Academic Publishers, 1979. pp. 55–68.
282. Storey AG, Smith HK. Unique aspects of competitive weightlifting. *Sports Med* 42: 769–790, 2012.
283. Suchomel TJ, Comfort P, Stone MH. Weightlifting pulling derivatives: Rationale for implementation and application. *Sports Med* 45: 823–839, 2015.
284. Suchomel TJ, Beckham GK, Wright GA. Lower body kinetics during the jump shrug: Impact of load. *J Traimol* 2: 19–22, 2013.
285. Suchomel TJ, Beckham GK, Wright GA. The impact of load on lower body performance variables during the hang power clean. *Sports Biomech* 13: 87–95, 2014.
286. Suchomel TJ, Beckham GK, Wright GA. Effect of various loads on the force-time characteristics of the hang high pull. *J Strength Cond Res* 29: 1295–1301, 2015.
287. Suchomel TJ, Comfort P. Weightlifting for sports performance. In: *Advanced Strength and Conditioning: An Evidence-Based Approach*. Turner A and Comfort P, eds. New York: Routledge, 2022. pp. 283–306.
288. Suchomel TJ, Comfort P, Lake JP. Enhancing the force-velocity profile of athletes using weightlifting derivatives. *Strength Cond J* 39: 10–20, 2017.
289. Suchomel TJ, DeWeese BH, Beckham GK, Serrano AJ, French SM. The hang high pull: A progressive exercise into weightlifting derivatives. *Strength Cond J* 36: 79–83, 2014.
290. Suchomel TJ, DeWeese BH, Beckham GK, Serrano AJ, Sole CJ. The jump shrug: A progressive exercise into weightlifting derivatives. *Strength Cond J* 36: 43–47, 2014.
291. Suchomel TJ, DeWeese BH, Serrano AJ. The power clean and power snatch from the knee. *Strength Cond J* 38: 98–105, 2016.
292. Suchomel TJ, Lake JP, Comfort P. Load absorption force-time characteristics following the second pull of weightlifting derivatives. *J Strength Cond Res* 31: 1644–1652, 2017.
293. Suchomel TJ, McKeever SM, McMahan JJ, Comfort P. The effect of training with weightlifting catching or pulling derivatives on squat jump and countermovement jump force-time adaptations. *J Funct Morphol Kinesiol* 5: 28, 2020.
294. Suchomel TJ, McKeever SM, Comfort P. Training with weightlifting derivatives: The effects of force and velocity overload stimuli. *J Strength Cond Res* 34: 1808–1818, 2020.
295. Suchomel TJ, Nimphius S, Bellon CR, Hornsby WG, Stone MH. Training for muscular strength: Methods for monitoring and adjusting training intensity. *Sports Med* 51: 2051–2066, 2021.
296. Suchomel TJ, Nimphius S, Bellon CR, Stone MH. The importance of muscular strength: Training considerations. *Sports Med* 48: 765–785, 2018.
297. Suchomel TJ, Nimphius S, Stone MH. The importance of muscular strength in athletic performance. *Sports Med* 46: 1419–1449, 2016.

298. Suchomel TJ, Sole CJ. Force-time-Curve comparison between weightlifting derivatives. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 12: 431–439, 2017.
299. Suchomel TJ, Sole CJ. Power-time curve comparison between weightlifting derivatives. *J Sports Sci Med* 16: 407–413, 2017.
300. Suchomel TJ, Taber CB, Wright GA. Jump shrug height and landing forces across various loads. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 11: 61–65, 2016.
301. Suchomel TJ, Wright GA. Power development comparisons between power clean variations at different relative loads. *J Strength Cond Res* 27: S76–S77, 2013.
302. Suchomel TJ, Wright GA, Kernozek TW, Kline DE. Kinetic comparison of the power development between power clean variations. *J Strength Cond Res* 28: 350–360, 2014.
303. Takei S, Hirayama K, Okada J. Is the optimal load for maximal power output during hang power cleans submaximal? *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 15: 18–24, 2020.
304. Takei S, Hirayama K, Okada J. Comparison of the power output between the hang power clean and hang high pull across a wide range of loads in weightlifters. *J Strength Cond Res* 35: S84–S88, 2021.
305. Teo SYM, Newton MJ, Newton RU, Dempsey AR, Fairchild TJ. Comparing the effectiveness of a short-term vertical jump vs. weightlifting program on athletic power development. *J Strength Cond Res* 30: 2741–2748, 2016.
306. Todd T. Al Roy: The first modern strength coach. *J Phys Educ Recreat Dance* 79: 14–16, 2008.
307. Tohji H, Sueti K, Kaneko M. Effects of combined training programs on force-velocity relation and power output in human muscle. *J Biomech* 25: 756, 1992.
308. Toji H, Kaneko M. Effect of multiple-load training on the force-velocity relationship. *J Strength Cond Res* 18: 792–795, 2004.
309. Toji H, Sueti K, Kaneko M. Effects of combined training loads on relations among force, velocity, and power development. *Can J Appl Physiol* 22: 328–336, 1997.
310. Tricoli V, Lamas L, Carnevale R, Ugrinowitsch C. Short-term effects on lower-body functional power development: Weightlifting vs. vertical jump training programs. *J Strength Cond Res* 19: 433–437, 2005.
311. Triplett NT, Chandler JM. NSCA strength and conditioning professional standards and guidelines. *Strength Cond J* 39: 1–24, 2017.
312. Tufano JJ, Conlon JA, Nimphius S, et al. Cluster sets: Permitting greater mechanical stress without decreasing relative velocity. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 12: 463–469, 2017.
313. Tufano JJ, Conlon JA, Nimphius S, et al. Effects of cluster sets and redistribution on mechanical responses to back squats in trained men. *J Hum Kinet* 58: 35–43, 2017.
314. Tufano JJ, Conlon JA, Nimphius S, et al. Different cluster sets result in similar metabolic, endocrine, and perceptual responses in trained men. *J Strength Cond Res* 33: 346–354, 2019.
315. Virvidakis K, Georgiou E, Korkotsidis A, Ntalles K, Proukakis C. Bone mineral content of junior competitive weightlifters. *Int J Sports Med* 11: 244–246, 1990.
316. Vorobyev AN. Technique of the classical lifts. In: *A Textbook on Weightlifting*. Budapest International Weightlifting Federation, 1978. pp. 18–119.
317. Waller M, Piper T, Miller J. Coaching of the snatch/clean pulls with the high pull variation. *Strength Cond J* 31: 47–54, 2009.
318. Webster D. The iron game. In: *An Illustrated History of Weight-Lifting*. Irvine: John Geddes Printers, 1976. pp. 5–8.
319. Wilson G, Bird SP, O'Connor D, Jones J. Resistance training for children and youth: A position stand from the Australian strength and conditioning association. *Aust Strength Cond Assoc* 1–56, 2017.
320. Wong P-I, Chamari K, Wisløff U. Effects of 12-week on-field combined strength and power training on physical performance among U-14 young soccer players. *J Strength Cond Res* 24: 644–652, 2010.
321. Young A, Stokes M, Crowe M. Size and strength of the quadriceps muscles of old and young women. *Eur J Clin Invest* 14: 282–287, 1984.
322. Zamparo P, Minetti AE, di Prampero PE. Interplay among the changes of muscle strength, cross-sectional area and maximal explosive power: Theory and facts. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 88: 193–202, 2002.
323. Zaras N, Stasinaki A-NE, Spiliopoulou P, et al. Rate of force development, muscle architecture, and performance in elite weightlifters. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 16: 216–223, 2021.