



# *Systematic Review* **Hip Flexor Muscle Activation During Common Rehabilitation and Strength Exercises**

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**Abstract: Background/Objectives:** The iliopsoas muscle plays an essential role in lumbopelvic and hip anterior stability, which is particularly important in the presence of limited osseous acetabular coverage anteriorly as in hip dysplasia and/or hip micro-instability. The purpose of this systematic review is to (1) describe iliopsoas activation levels during common rehabilitation exercises and (2) provide an evidence-based exercise progression for strengthening the iliopsoas based on electromyography (EMG) studies. **Methods:** In total, 109 healthy adult participants ranging from ages 20 to 40 were included in nine studies. PubMed, CINAHL, and Embase databases were systematically searched for EMG studies of the psoas, iliacus, or combined iliopsoas during specific exercise. The Modified Downs and Black Checklist was used to perform a risk of bias assessment. PROSPERO guidelines were followed. **Results:** Nine studies were included. Findings suggest that the iliopsoas is increasingly activated in ranges of hip flexion of 30–60 $^{\circ}$ , particularly with leg lowering/raising exercises. Briefly, >60% MVIC activity of the iliopsoas was reported in the active straight leg raise (ASLR) in ranges around 60◦ of hip flexion, as well as with supine hip flexion and leg lifts. In total, 40–60% MVIC was found in exercises including the mid-range of the ASLR around 45◦ of hip flexion and lifting a straight trunk while in a hip flexed position. **Conclusions:** The findings suggest that exercises in increased hip flexion provide greater activation of the iliopsoas compared to exercises where the trunk is moving on the lower extremity. Iliopsoas activation can be incrementally progressed from closed to open kinetic chain exercises, and eventually to the addition of external loads. The proposed exercise program interprets the results and offers immediate translation into clinical practice.

**Keywords:** iliopsoas; electromyography; exercise therapy; biofeedback; hip flexor

#### **1. Introduction**

Research labs around the world describe the anatomical and physiological importance of the iliacus muscle, comprising the iliacus, psoas major, and psoas minor [\[1,](#page-33-0)[2\]](#page-33-1). With the iliacus, psoas major, and psoas minor, the iliopsoas serves as a primary hip flexor, and contributes to hip external rotation as well as trunk lateral flexion [\[1,](#page-33-0)[2\]](#page-33-1). It is considered a core muscle due to its attachments, and functions to stabilize the trunk as well as the pelvis [\[2\]](#page-33-1). The psoas major has proximal attachments of the transverse processes, intervertebral disks, and vertebral bodies of T5-L5, while the iliacus has proximal attachments from the superior two thirds of the iliac fossa, sacral ala, and ventral lip of the iliac crest [\[1\]](#page-33-0). These two muscles combine to become the iliopsoas at levels L5-S2 and then insert onto the lesser trochanter of the femur, creating the iliopsoas tendon [\[1\]](#page-33-0). The psoas minor has a proximal attachment at the T12-L1 vertebrae and a distal attachment of the iliopubic eminence [\[1\]](#page-33-0). The iliopsoas functions as both a trunk and hip stabilizer due to its anatomical position, where it is in close proximity to the anterior labrum of the hip joint. In addition to functioning as a hip flexor, a study out of Melbourne Australia described that the iliopsoas



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also acts as an important anterior joint stabilizer by applying posterior compressive forces to the femoral head, reducing extraneous shear force and lowering the risk of labral or capsular injury in cases of micro-instability. They explain that this stabilization can be likened to the role of the rotator cuff in the shoulder [\[3\]](#page-33-2). The present systematic review aims to delineate iliopsoas activation levels during common rehabilitation exercises and offer an evidence-based exercise progression for strengthening the iliopsoas based on EMG studies.

Conditions like adult hip dysplasia and hip micro-instability increase reliance on anterior dynamic stabilizers such as the iliopsoas. Adult hip dysplasia, affecting around 5.2% of the population, is characterized by insufficient coverage of the femoral head by the acetabulum [\[4\]](#page-33-3). Conversely, hip micro-instability involves increased femoral head movement within the acetabulum, potentially due to joint laxity [\[5\]](#page-33-4). While the prevalence of hip micro-instability remains undefined due to challenges in identifying asymptomatic cases, joint hypermobility is considered one contributing factor with an incidence of 18.9% [\[6\]](#page-33-5). Moreover, the presence of injury or tears of the acetabular labrum, which provides native joint stability by creating a vacuum seal between the femoral head and acetabulum, can also lead to hypermobility of the hip joint [\[7\]](#page-33-6). Evidence indicates that in both conditions, the iliopsoas plays a crucial role in compensating for decreased anterior joint stability, mitigating the risk of injury to surrounding soft tissue structures. In hip dysplasia, the hypertrophy of the iliocapsularis, a muscle that is clinically and radiographically indistinguishable from the iliopsoas, suggests increased utilization of the iliopsoas as an anterior stabilizer compared to healthy individuals [\[8\]](#page-33-7).

Two other types of populations in which iliopsoas function may be pertinent are populations with a presence of total hip arthroplasty (THA), and more athletic populations during running speeds (i.e., particularly during running speeds exceeding >7 m/s when increasing cadence and stride frequency) [\[9](#page-33-8)[,10\]](#page-33-9). Iliopsoas tendinopathy is prevalent post-THA, affecting about 2.2–2.4% patients who underwent the anterior approach [\[11](#page-33-10)[–13\]](#page-33-11). Mounting evidence has supported the effectiveness of eccentric exercise along with heavy slow resistance when dealing with tendinopathy in assisting with the remodeling of the collagen fibers within the tendon [\[14\]](#page-33-12). Isometrics, particularly early on in the treatment of tendonitis, have also been shown to improve symptoms, but in reality, any type of mechanical loading of the tendon should create improvement [\[15\]](#page-33-13). This has been extensively researched in both Achilles and patellar tendinopathy, two of the most common tendinopathies, and can be extrapolated and applied to tendinopathies in other areas. Additionally, individuals participating in higher running speeds have been found to grapple with iliopsoas tendinopathy, with case studies showcasing successful rehabilitation through eccentric loading regimens [\[16\]](#page-33-14). The significance of iliopsoas strengthening in sprinters is underscored by studies indicating enhanced speed and endurance with strengthened iliopsoas muscles [\[17\]](#page-33-15). Apart from high-speed running, strengthening the hip flexor can benefit those in sports such as soccer in order to increase power and velocity when kicking a ball [\[18\]](#page-33-16).

Finally, the hip flexor muscles are often found to be atrophied in populations with hip joint pathology such as osteoarthritis [\[19\]](#page-33-17). This, in turn, leads to deficits in gait and overall function [\[19\]](#page-33-17). In fact, this population was shown to be 50% slower in the stair climb test in a study out of the University of Colorado [\[20\]](#page-33-18). Thus, an exercise progression targeting the iliopsoas could benefit this demographic. One Australian study utilized magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) to measure the size of the iliopsoas on healthy people and found it to be a valid tool [\[19\]](#page-33-17). However, MRI is obviously quite an expensive tool to use. Therefore, the article suggests use of diagnostic ultrasound, which is becoming more readily available to physical therapists, to monitor the size of muscles such as the iliopsoas. This would allow for a more objective measure to rely on to visualize whether a change in muscle hypertrophy truly does occur throughout the application of the clinical exercise progression [\[19\]](#page-33-17). Clearly, a streamlined approach to iliopsoas strengthening would prove beneficial and applicable across multiple demographics.

While systematic reviews have extensively delved into methods for strengthening the gluteal muscles (Ebert et al., Moore et al.), the body of research concerning strengthening and activating the anterior hip musculature remains notably limited. In fact, several of the studies included in this review attempted to target core musculature and took EMG measurements of the anterior hip because they were looking for exercises that decrease hip flexor activation [\[21,](#page-33-19)[22\]](#page-33-20). Seemingly few studies to date have focused on identifying effective methods on how to increase the activation of the hip flexors. This knowledge gap leaves clinicians, particularly those working with the aforementioned populations, relying on a trial-and-error approach in regard to exercise prescription and muscle specificity of the anterior hip. By gaining insights into which exercises effectively engage the iliopsoas muscle, clinicians can tailor interventions to directly address the muscle's role as an anterior dynamic stabilizer, rather than employing a generic approach to strengthening the entire anterior hip musculature. For example, when looking to strengthen the gluteus medius muscle, clinicians can look to sources such as Moore, 2020, and Ebert, 2017, to guide them through what may be the best exercises to choose and how to progress them appropriately. Just as the physical therapy field has prioritized specificity in addressing issues related to the posterior aspect of the hip, the anterior aspect warrants equivalent attention to detail and targeted interventions.

As mentioned, the goal of this systematic review is to describe iliopsoas activation levels during rehabilitation exercises commonly used in a clinical setting and present an exercise progression for strengthening the iliopsoas based on EMG studies. While exercises such as the ASLR are commonly used to target the hip flexors, limited research specifies which muscles within the hip flexors are activated and at what phase of the movement. Moreover, no existing exercise progressions address low-level activation exercises through to high-level strengthening exercises for the hip flexors, particularly the iliopsoas. This information will enable clinicians to enhance their practice with specific populations experiencing hip micro-instability and dysplasia through exercise specificity.

#### **2. Materials and Methods**

The systematic review follows The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis (PRSIMA) guidelines as suggested in Liberati 2009 and Swartz 2011 An a priori protocol was completed according with PROSPERO guidelines and was registered on the PROSPERO website prior to submission for publication (registration number: CRD42024556236) [\[23,](#page-33-21)[24\]](#page-34-0).

#### *2.1. Study Identification and Search Strategy*

Applicable articles were found by searching PubMed, CINAHL, and EMBASE databases in January 2024. The search strategy was overseen by a medical school librarian who facilitated the correct use of Boolean modifiers and appropriate translation of the search strategy across databases and ensured accuracy of the search based upon the study's stated purpose. The keywords used were variations and derivatives of "electromyography", "iliopsoas", and "exercise therapy". Figure [1](#page-3-0) demonstrates the search strategy utilized for PubMed along with the correlated results. The search strategies used for CINAHL, and EMBASE are shown in Appendix [A,](#page-19-0) Figures [A1](#page-19-1) and [A2.](#page-19-2) Certain articles that were identified through this process or by reviewing references of the articles that met the inclusion and exclusion criteria were included as well.

Additionally, to ensure a comprehensive identification process, hand-selected articles that were identified through the study selection process or by scouring the references of the included articles were also included.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

**Figure 1.** PubMed search strategy. **Figure 1.** PubMed search strategy.

## *2.2. Eligibility Criteria 2.2. Eligibility Criteria*

The research question used to frame this systematic review outlined in Table [1](#page-3-1) was as follows: which hip exercises have the greatest activation of the hip flexor muscles in a as follows: which hip exercises have the greatest activation of the hip flexor muscles in a healthy population? healthy population?

<span id="page-3-1"></span>**Table 1.** Question and study design inclusion and exclusion criteria. **Table 1.** Question and study design inclusion and exclusion criteria.



Note. N/A: indicates information not applicable; EMG: electromyography.

#### *2.3. Study Selection*

*2.3. Study Selection* The search results of the various databases were put together, with duplicates deleted and filtered independently according to the specified inclusion and exclusion criteria by two members of the research team (Author 1: JJ., Author 2: KK.) using a citation manager, Zotero (Corporation of Digital Scholarship), and systematic review software management system, Covidence (Veritas Health Innovation, Melbourne, Australia). Discrepancies in the filtering of the search results were discussed by the two independent reviewers (Author 1: JJ, Author 2: KK). When the reviewers could not come to an agreement over these discrepancies, an a priori identified third member of the research team helped resolved the issue (Author 4: MJ).

#### *2.4. Data Extraction*

Data elements of the full-text articles were created based upon the question posed and the purpose of the current study. This included the types of exercises performed within the studies as well as the measurement of muscular activation such as percent of maximum volitional isometric contraction (MVIC), EMG amplitude, or RMS values.

#### $\mathbf{r}$  maximum volto contraction (MVIC), EMG amplitude, or  $\mathbf{r}$ , EMS values. EMG amplitude, or  $\mathbf{r}$ *2.5. Summary Measures and Synthesis of Results*

*2.5. Summary Measures and Synthesis of Results* The results were synthesized into three different tables, one for each form of EMG measurement: percent MVIC, EMG amplitude, and RMS value. The findings synthesized<br>
The findings synthesized compare EMG activation of the iliacus, psoas, and iliopsoas with specific exercises. To ensure ease of implementation into clinical practice and ecological application of the results, an exercise progression including both closed-chain isometrics and open-chain exercises<br>and the results in the results of the result will be proposed. This progression was created utilizing a combination of the levels of activation demonstrated through the EMG studies analyzed and clinical expertise. Starting

with less irritable movements that involve using the iliopsoas as a stabilizer to exercises where the iliopsoas becomes a primary mover.

#### *2.6. Risk of Bias Assessment*

Consistent with the Cochrane Handbook (Higgins 2019), the risk of bias and quality appraisal of the included studies were assessed [\[25\]](#page-34-1). The risk of bias assessment (RoB) of included studies was performed using the Modified Downs and Black Checklist for clinical trials. The Modified Downs and Black Checklist assessment was performed by the primary author and an independent research member (Author 1: JJ, Author 4: MJ, respectively), and the assessment outcomes were double-checked by a third member of the research team (Author 3: GL). Any discrepancies identified by the secondary review were clarified by an a priori identified third member of the research team.

#### **3. Results**

### *3.1. Study Selection and Characteristics*

The initial aggregate search results identified 1559 unique articles. Of the 137 articles read in full, 9 articles were deemed appropriate for final analysis. Six were cross-sectional studies, two were non-randomized crossover trials, and one was a descriptive laboratory study. A summary of the outcome characteristics is provided in Appendix [B.](#page-20-0) Study characteristics included authors, study type, research question, patient population, methodology, and conclusions. Figure [2](#page-7-0) outlines the study selection process in a PRISMA flow diagram and Table [2](#page-4-0) describes the characteristics of each selected study in detail.



<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Table 2.** Characteristics of Included Studies.



### **Table 2.** *Cont.*



### **Table 2.** *Cont.*

Note. ASLR, active straight leg raise; BMI, body mass index; Cm, centimeters; DF, dorsiflexion; EMG, electromyography; Kg, kilograms; IL, iliacus; IP, iliopsoas; M, meters; MVIC, maximum voluntary isometric contraction; PM, psoas major.; s, seconds; SD, standard deviation; SLR, straight leg raise; Y, year.

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

**Figure 2.** The PRISMA flow diagram. **Figure 2.** The PRISMA flow diagram.

### *3.2. Risk of Bias Assessment*

The Modified Downs and Black Checklist results for clinical trials are summarized in Table [3.](#page-8-0) The Modified Downs and Black Checklist assessment results for each individual study are provided in Appendix [C.](#page-26-0) Andersson (1997), Jiroumaru (2014), Kim (2016), and Okubo (2021) received the highest risk of bias with a score of 13 and Philippon (2011) scored 14 on the checklist, which, according to the checklist, qualifies as "poor" (see Table [3\)](#page-8-0) [\[26](#page-34-2)[,28](#page-34-4)[,29](#page-34-5)[,31](#page-34-7)[,33\]](#page-34-9). Andersson (1995), Hu (2011), Sugajima (1996) and Yamane (2019) scored 15, which qualifies as "fair" [\[27,](#page-34-3)[30,](#page-34-6)[32](#page-34-8)[,34\]](#page-34-10). However, it is important to note that some

of the categories where 0 points were given did not apply to the type of studies, such as blinding of the subjects. The lack of blinding in the rehabilitation and physical therapy literature is well documented and the Modified Downs and Black Checklist results in this review further corroborate this limitation (Armijo-Olivo, S. 2017) [\[35\]](#page-34-11). Studies that were found to have a "poor" risk of bias assessment were not excluded; however, Table [4](#page-9-0) does outline which studies may be more reliable to pull data from and which were interpreted with more caution.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>**Table 3.** Summary of risk of bias assessment.



Note. Red cell indicates that criteria were not met or that we were unable to determine whether or not they were (0 points); green cell indicates that criteria were met (1 point); \* total row indicates the aggregate number of points per column (i.e., for each article).



<span id="page-9-0"></span>**Table 4.** EMG limitations across the nine studies.



**Table 4.** *Cont.*

Note. EMG, electromyography; Hz, hertz; kHz, kilohertz, µV, microVolts; SLR, straight leg raise.

*3.3. Summary Measures and Synthesis of Results*

The primary outcome measure assessed the level of activation of the psoas, iliacus, or iliopsoas measured through percent MVIC (Andersson (1997), Okubo (2021), Yamane (2019), and Kim (2016)), amplitude (Sugajima (1996), Hu (2011), Andersson (1995), and Philippon (2011)), or root mean squared of the EMG from the max voluntary contraction

(Jiroumaru (2014)) [\[26–](#page-34-2)[34\]](#page-34-10). Measurements were conducted using either a fine-wire electrode (Andersson (1997), Okubo (2021), Yamane (2019), Sugajima (1996), Hu (2011), Andersson (1995), and (Philippon (2011)) or a surface electrode (Kim (2016) and Jiroumaru (2014)) while performing a specific exercise. Unless otherwise specified throughout the discussion, it can be assumed that fine-wire electrodes were used for the values mentioned (see Appendix [D](#page-28-0) for specifics on which studies used which type of electrodes). Figures [3](#page-11-0)[–9](#page-14-0) graphically display the results from each included study.

Results consistently showed increased activation of the iliacus, psoas, and iliopsoas during greater ranges of hip flexion, movement of the lower extremities on the trunk, trunk movement on the lower extremities while supported on the ground surface, and with added external resistance. The iliacus and psoas exhibited activation ranging from 44.1 to 65.2% MVIC and 35 to 67.1% MVIC, respectively, during greater degrees of hip flexion (See Figures [3–](#page-11-0)[5\)](#page-12-0) [\[30\]](#page-34-6).

Beginning with the most commonly included exercise, the straight leg raise, the iliacus demonstrated amplitudes of 40  $\mu$ V and 50  $\mu$ V without and with weight, respectively [\[27\]](#page-34-3). Meanwhile, the psoas showed amplitudes of 6  $\mu$ V and 10  $\mu$ V under the same conditions [\[27\]](#page-34-3). The highest activation of the ASLR was in 20 $\degree$  of external rotation and 30 $\degree$  of abduction in 60 $\degree$  of hip flexion according to Yamane et al. Amplitude values during a static leg lift at 60 $\degree$ resulted in 59  $\mu$ V for a unilateral lift and 55  $\mu$ V for a bilateral lift for the iliacus, compared to 58 μV for a unilateral lift with a comparable amount for the psoas [\[32\]](#page-34-8). At 90 $\degree$  of hip flexion in standing, the iliacus had an amplitude of 99  $\mu$ V whereas the psoas had an amplitude of 85  $\mu$ V [\[32\]](#page-34-8). See Figures [6](#page-13-0) and [7](#page-13-1) for amplitude values of the iliacus and psoas during these exercises.



<span id="page-11-0"></span>**Average %Maximum Voluntary Isometric Contraction of the of Iliacus**

**Figure 3.** Average %MVIC activation of the iliacus. Note. ASLR; active straight leg raise; ABD, abduction; EMG, electromyography; ER, external rotation; MVIC, **Figure 3.** Average %MVIC activation of the iliacus. Note. ASLR; active straight leg raise; ABD, abduction; EMG, electromyography; ER, external rotation; MVIC, maximum volitional isometric contraction.



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Figure 4. Average %MVIC Activation of the psoas major. Note. ASLR; active straight leg raise; ABD, abduction; EMG, electromyography; ER, external rotation; MVIC, maximum volitional isometric contraction. Purple bars highlight same exercises measured in different papers, a large difference can be seen despite the exercise being the same.

<span id="page-12-0"></span>

Figure 5. Average %MVIC activation of the iliopsoas. Note. ASLR; active straight leg raise; EMG, electromyography; MVIC, maximal volitional isometric contraction.



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**Figure 6.** Average EMG amplitude of the iliacus. Note. ASLR; active straight leg raise; EMG, electromyography.

<span id="page-13-1"></span>

**Figure 7.** Average EMG amplitude of the psoas major. Note. ASLR; active straight leg raise; EMG, electromyography.

<span id="page-14-1"></span>

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**Figure 8.** Average EMG amplitude of the iliopsoas. Note. EMG, electromyograph; ER, external rotation; MVC, maximum volitional contraction.

<span id="page-14-0"></span>

**Figure 9.** Average RMS value of the iliopsoas. Note. RMS, root mean square. **Figure 9.** Average RMS value of the iliopsoas. Note. RMS, root mean square.

In regard to alternative exercises, refer to Figure [3,](#page-11-0) where the iliacus shows a high %MVIC during hip flexion with a straight trunk and the feet supported down at the ground (80% MVIC), bilateral lower extremity movement on the trunk (86% MVIC), and unilateral leg movement (68% MVIC) [\[26\]](#page-34-2). A movement that significantly activated the iliacus, not involving hip or trunk flexion, was maximal straight leg abduction with an amplitude of  $56 \mu V$  (see Figure [6\)](#page-13-0) [\[32\]](#page-34-8). As for the psoas, a notable exercise that activated the muscle significantly was static ipsilateral lateral trunk flexion against gravity, with an amplitude of 54 µV (see Figure [7\)](#page-13-1) [\[32\]](#page-34-8).

The combined iliopsoas showed substantial activation during supine hip flexion both concentrically (amplitude of 17.5  $\mu$ V) and eccentrically (amplitude of 14.6  $\mu$ V) as seen in Figure [8](#page-14-1) [\[33\]](#page-34-9). It followed previously mentioned activation patterns in side-lying hip abduction (with some hip external rotation in this condition), with an amplitude of 16  $\mu$ V (see Figure [8\)](#page-14-1) [\[33\]](#page-34-9). It also portrayed activation patterns measured through skin electrodes similar to those of the iliacus and psoas individually, with RMS values of 1.1 and 1.05 at 30 and  $60°$  of hip flexion, respectively (see Figure [9\)](#page-14-0) [\[28\]](#page-34-4).

Finally, all conditions tested with external load demonstrated increased activation, whether through added weight or water immersion. Particularly, the iliopsoas showed an increase in amplitude from 252  $\mu$ V of amplitude–frequency to 514  $\mu$ V when performing 60% MVC hip flexion contraction under water (see Figure [8\)](#page-14-1) [\[34\]](#page-34-10). Appendix [E](#page-29-0) demonstrates all individual exercises with their respective recorded EMG values.

#### **4. Discussion**

The purpose of this systematic review was to determine the amount of iliopsoas activation during common rehabilitation exercises. A secondary goal was to make the results immediately applicable to clinical setting by proposing a structured treatment progression based on the results. Across the nine included studies, methods to determine iliacus, psoas, or iliopsoas activation varied, including both fine-wire electrodes and surface EMG via adhesive electrodes. The muscle EMG was analyzed across a total of 135 exercises, with the most common exercises being the ASLR, sit-ups, and leg lowering. Variations of these and other exercise were also considered with different lower extremity and trunk positions, with and without external loads and with water resistance.

Several conclusions can be drawn from the results of this systematic review, which include the following:

(1) The iliopsoas can be activated in movements that involve stability of the spine and pelvis such as lateral trunk flexion against gravity or side-lying hip abduction. This suggests that the iliopsoas has an active role in lumbopelvic stability, evident through its activation in exercises not directly involving isotonic hip flexion or lateral trunk flexion. This included sitting with an upright trunk, the clamshell and side-lying hip abduction exercise, and resisted knee flexion and extension. Regarding the straight leg raise, the iliacus was largely active ipsilaterally, and quieter contralaterally, while the psoas was equally active both ipsilaterally and contralaterally. This potentially speaks to the psoas acting as more of a trunk stabilizer with this movement while the iliacus serves as the primary hip flexor or ipsilateral pelvic stabilizer.

(2) Moving the lower extremity on the spine (e.g., leg lowering versus moving the spine on the lower extremity with an exercise such as a sit-up) increased the activation of the iliopsoas. This is likely due to the active movement of the hip flexors required with active hip flexion, whereas subjects likely primarily used abdominal core musculature to perform a more classic version of a sit-up.

(3) Moving a longer lever during hip flexion in open-chain exercise (ASLR) will increase activation, particularly of the iliacus when compared to a short lever (supine hip flexion). This follows the principle of longer levers creating increased torque, therefore necessitating higher muscle activation to meet the demands of this increase [\[28\]](#page-34-4).

(4) In closed-chain supine exercises such as straight spine hip flexion with the feet stabilized, a knee flexion posture resulted in greater activation of the iliopsoas than with the knees straight. This may be due to the hip flexors being at a more optimal biomechanical position to form a strong contraction than when extended such as in the supine position.

(5) Greater hip flexion angles in an ASLR (30–60 degrees) created higher activation levels of the iliopsoas than the 0–30 degree arc of motion. According to Jiroumaru et al., this is because the activation from other muscles such as tensor fascia latae and sartorius decreases in these ranges, and therefore the relative contribution of the iliopsoas increases [\[28\]](#page-34-4).

(6) Bilateral movements such as bilateral leg lowering will cause increased activation, likely due to the need for increased stability.

(7) Adding resistance to exercises will increase muscle activation of those involved in producing a hip flexion movement.

The seven conclusive statements of the results listed above as well as the EMG results from the different exercises across the included studies were used to translate the results into a clinically friendly exercise progression targeting the iliopsoas. The intent of this review is to fill the gap created by the limited research specifically focused on strengthening of the hip flexors and to offer clinicians an evidence-based progression to follow when strengthening and training the anterior hip. A targeted approach to the iliopsoas can promote not only muscle strength (i.e., peak force output), but also the important ability to stabilize the femoral head while minimizing compensatory activation of muscles such as the tensor fascia latae. The role of stabilization is of particular importance with the aforementioned populations of hip dysplasia and micro-instability, where the iliopsoas plays a crucial role in the overall stability of the anterior joint. There are certainly other clinical patient demographics in which targeted, incremental loading of the iliopsoas would be indicated and who may also benefit from the proposed clinical progression. Such populations include patients seen post-total-hip-arthroplasty, athletic populations requiring rapid hip flexion (i.e., higher-speed running >7 m/s, persons diagnosed with persistent low back pain, coxa saltans (i.e., snapping hip syndrome), those with peripheral nerve injuries involving femoral nerve and/or nerve roots L1-3, and even post-partum individuals or those with pelvic floor dysfunction [\[36](#page-34-12)[–38\]](#page-34-13).

#### *4.1. Risk of Bias*

The nine studies included were assessed for risk of bias using the Modified Downs and Black Checklist (see Appendix [C\)](#page-26-0). The checklist provides 27 categories that can be responded to with a "yes", no", and with the responses "partially" or "unable to determine" for some items. Each "yes" response counts as a point, a point being positive in terms of decreasing the risk of bias, versus 0 points for a "no" response. All of the studies included in this systematic review scored between 13 and 15 points ranging from poor to fair risk of bias based on the checklist. The "no" responses were often under categories that were not relevant for the studies. For example, none of the studies included blinded subjects. With the type of EMG measurement used in the cross-sectional studies in this systematic review, it would have been unrealistic to blind the subjects. Overall, the scores of 13–15 are a small range, and the studies were deemed to have a similar risk of bias.

#### *4.2. Comparison to Other Systematic Reviews*

While countless systematic reviews analyze activation through EMG studies of the posterolateral hip, the author is not aware of any that they analyzed extensive data on the anterior hip. The methods in this systematic review mirror those that have been performed on the posterolateral hip (Moore 2020 and Ebert, 2017), including following the PRISMA guidelines, being conducted on homogenous patient populations, searching similar databases, using similar inclusion and exclusion criteria, performing a quality assessment, and using equivalent data extraction and analysis methods [\[21](#page-33-19)[,22\]](#page-33-20). Regarding the anterior hip, one review looked at hip muscle activation in subjects with and without symptoms, but only one study looked at the iliacus or iliocapsularis [\[39\]](#page-34-14). A separate review looked at the effects of stretching the hip flexors on performance parameters but did not look at hip flexor strengthening [\[40\]](#page-34-15). Therefore, comparison to previous results from other similar systematic reviews was not possible, and more research needs to be performed regarding clinical implications of hip flexor strengthening and the utility of EMG within this research.

#### *4.3. EMG Clinical Utility and Application*

To ensure accurate interpretation and clinical application of the EMG results, the lead author consulted Dr. Joyce Campbell PT, PhD, EN, KEMG, an expert within the field of EMG and Director of The Electrophysiology Measurement Laboratory at California State University Long Beach. Through this exchange, Dr. Campbell described several key principles and limitations, pulling from her own knowledge and expertise along with information from the seminal Deluca article; these limitations were synthesized with the author of this systematic review below. They are imperative to consider when applying EMG results to clinical practice [\[41\]](#page-34-16).

- 1. Volume Conduction and Motion Artifact: When using skin electrodes, all electrical signals below 400 Hz coming to the skin will be included. All frequencies above 400 Hz are not seen in the EMG signal; therefore, no fast glycolytic motor unit activity will be recorded. It is also impossible to identify the specific muscle(s) of origin (or separate out-motion electrical artifacts). As for the intramuscular electrodes, if the default low-cut filter is 20 Hz, even these will record contaminating cross-talk/volume conduction as muscle EMG. There should be some evidence of selecting a higher low-cut filter and/or repeating analysis with more selective filters to determine if the EMG conclusions would be improved.
- 2. Electrode Placement: The exact location of the placement of the electrodes influences the readings. If you are in the part of the muscle with a high concentration of motor units, the recording will reflect this. However, if the electrodes are placed, for example, near a fascial plane, the recording will not be as good. Depth also matters! Fast glycolytic muscle fibers tend to be more superficial, and slow oxidative fibers are deeper, so knowing the depth you are placing the electrode at is important. Furthermore, if the electrodes are taken out an any point, it will be impossible to re-create the same values, as the electrodes will never be in the exact same positioning.
- 3. Timing of Sample: The importance of beginning the recording of the sample prior to the subject even beginning the desired movement cannot be understated. This is because, often, the peak EMG happens so quickly (within milliseconds) that if the reading is taken too late, the peak value may actually be missed. It is also vital to begin the reading prior to movement in order to record the actual change in activation from the muscle at rest to the muscle in movement.
- 4. Heterogeneity in EMG Methodology: There are large inconsistencies from one study to the next whether we use the bandpass filter, intramuscular versus skin electrodes, reported outcome measurements in %MVIC, amplitude, or RMS of the EMG, electrode placement, and the timing of the sampling. This causes difficulty in comparing the studies and creates a need for extra scrutiny when evaluating the conclusion of each study.
- 5. Lack of Signal Normalization: Normalization of the EMG relying on an individual's maximum effort on the day of testing is vital to compare values between subjects.
- 6. Erroneous EMG Extrapolations to Muscle Force: EMG does not predict muscle force production. Essentially, when there is change in velocity within a movement, there is no linear relationship between EMG and force output.

In discussion with Dr. Campbell, it is clear that within the physical therapy research, EMG studies are often misinterpreted, and the profession needs improvement as a whole in terms of the analysis and application of these studies. Refer to Table [4](#page-9-0) created in collaboration for more specifics on how these limitations apply to the nine articles included in this review

#### *4.4. Clinical Exercise Progression*

The outlined progression in Appendix  $B$  with the associated table with figures was based on findings from this review, and we considered them alongside practice-based evidence and the author's clinical expertise. It is important to note that the progression is meant as a guideline rather than a prescription and that it should be modified as needed for each individual. There is also a need for the progression to be validated in subsequent clinical trials to determine its true efficacy as well as its ecological and external validity.

The first phase begins with the implementation of very-low-level activation exercises that then transition into the second phase, including exercises that use the iliopsoas indirectly as a stabilizer but not as a primary mover. Following this phase, more direct activation of the iliopsoas is involved with the use of short progressing to long lever isometrics. Although the studies included have expressed that the iliopsoas is generally higher in activation in later ranges of hip flexion, the isometric progression in the fourth phase started at 60° and progressed towards 0°. This was the chosen order of the exercises because although there is more activation of the iliopsoas at  $60^{\circ}$ , and therefore starting there may be counterintuitive, there is less contribution from muscles such as the tensor fascia latae and the sartorius at this larger angle. The subject would then be able to gain the benefits of strengthening at a position where there is less activation of other accessory muscles, and then move into a position where there is a larger co-contraction once the iliopsoas has been strengthened on a more individual basis. The fifth phase begins the isotonic movements with the similar pattern of a short to long lever progression along with the first introduction of external load. Finally, in the sixth and seventh phase, eccentric movement as well as bilateral lower extremity movement is integrated into the progression for the highest level of iliopsoas strength training. While the recommended dosage is included in this progression, it is up to the clinician's discretion to adjust the exercises and dosage to each individual patient as appropriate. A criterion for progression from each phase is included for the clinician's reference as well.

#### *4.5. Limitations*

A notable limitation of this systematic review is that all studies were performed on healthy subjects, necessitating caution when applying findings to populations with hip pathology. Furthermore, variation in EMG measurement methods and exercise protocols across studies posed challenges in direct comparisons and exercise progression formulation. For example, Okubo (2021) performed an isometric hold at "the top of the straight leg raise" and achieved 35% MVIC activation of the iliopsoas, while Yamane (2019) reached 60.8% MVIC with an isometric hold at 60 $^{\circ}$  of an ASLR [\[29](#page-34-5)[,30\]](#page-34-6). The difference can likely be attributed to the methodology of EMG instrumentation and measurement or the setup and execution of the exercise. Due to the fact that any one of the multiple discrepancies that exist across the methods of these two studies (and the other included study) could explain the difference in the resultant EMG, identification of which specific independent variable was responsible for different results was difficult due to confounding variables. Lastly, the process of putting together an exercise progression, based upon the studies included, required practiced-based evidence and clinical expertise from individuals other than the authors. For example, if going solely based on activation levels, some isometric exercises would be put after something such as a weighted open chain exercise. However, concepts such as consideration of the length of the lever being moved as well as the amount of additional torque required by adding external loading were considered. It is also important to note that the EMG studies utilized to create this progression influenced the choice of exercises by giving guidance to which exercises the iliopsoas is most active with, and this does not directly correlate to indications of the force output of the muscle. This review also does not take into account the timing of muscle activation onset, which can be influential on the function of the muscle itself.

#### **5. Conclusions**

In conclusion, while research regarding training the iliopsoas is limited, this review provides practitioners with a specific progression to follow based on the existing evidence. The current systematic review cohesively describes the most current literature in regard to iliopsoas activation patterns with specific exercise. Future research should focus on

analyzing a larger breadth of rehabilitation exercises regarding iliopsoas strengthening and activation. There should also be further research conducted utilizing populations with diagnoses of hip dysplasia or hip micro-instability to determine whether activation patterns may be different for this population as well as how the stability of the femoral head changes with increased iliopsoas strength and activation.

Several limitations and the misinterpretations of EMG results exist in both the literature and clinical practice to date. To avoid erroneous conclusions and to improve the accuracy of the translational EMG science, it is recommended that future researchers consider ensuring that the best practices are used in their study designs and ensuring the consistency of anatomical electrode placement, proper signal filtering, unanimous use of intramuscular EMG, and control of the practitioner dependent variables that influence EMG results. Moreover, future systematic reviews that seek to provide clinical recommendations of exercise selection and prescription based upon EMG data should be intentional in their inclusion and exclusion criteria to filter primary studies that use surface EMG and/or have fatal limitations in their methodology that would preclude the results from having external validity and applicability to clinical practice.

In hopes of facilitating the immediate application of the current findings into clinical practice and for ease of translatability, the evidence-based progression is proposed. The progression follows the principle of incremental and progressive overload, initiating with low-level activation exercise through static posture and isometrics and progressing to closed-chain exercise, open-chained short lever exercise, and finally long lever open-chain exercise without and with external resistance.

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#### <span id="page-19-1"></span><span id="page-19-0"></span>**Appendix A Additional Search Strategies Appendix A. Additional Search Strategies**



<span id="page-19-2"></span>**Figure A2.** Embase search strategy. **Figure A2.** Embase search strategy. **Figure A2.** Embase search strategy.

## <span id="page-20-0"></span>**Appendix B Iliopsoas Strengthening Progression**



**Table A1.** Iliopsoas Strengthening Progression.



### **Table A1.** *Cont.*

**Table A2.** Iliopsoas strengthening progression goals and criteria.





## **Table A3.** Iliopsoas Progression Exercise Images.





Ξ

### Table A3. Cont.

Hip flexion with straight supported

Hip flexion with straight supported



## <span id="page-26-0"></span>**Appendix C Risk of Bias Tool**

**Table A4.** Modified Downs and Black Checklist for risk of bias (RoB) assessment of non-randomized clinical trials.



## **Table A4.** *Cont.*



### **Table A4.** *Cont.*



## <span id="page-28-0"></span>**Appendix D Electrode Type**

**Table A5.** Type of electrode used per study.



Note. Hz, hertz; kHz, kilo-hertz.

## <span id="page-29-0"></span>**Appendix E**

**Table A6.** Individual Exercise Activation Levels of Iliacus in %MVIC.



Note. ABD, abduction; ER, external rotation; MVIC, maximum volitional isometric contraction.

**Table A7.** Individual Exercise Activation Levels of Psoas Major in %MVIC.



**Table A7.** *Cont.*

![](_page_30_Picture_177.jpeg)

Note. ABD, abduction; ER, external rotation; MVIC, maximum volitional isometric contraction.

### **Table A8.** Individual Exercise Activation Levels of Iliopsoas in %MVIC.

![](_page_30_Picture_178.jpeg)

Note. ABD, abduction; ER, external rotation; MVIC, maximum volitional isometric contraction.

**Table A9.** Individual Exercise Activation Levels of Iliacus in Amplitude.

![](_page_30_Picture_179.jpeg)

## **Table A9.** *Cont.*

![](_page_31_Picture_209.jpeg)

Note. ASLR, active straight leg raise; EMG, electromyography.

## **Table A10.** Individual Exercise Activation Levels of Psoas Major in Amplitude.

![](_page_31_Picture_210.jpeg)

![](_page_32_Picture_167.jpeg)

Note. ASLR, active straight leg raise; EMG, electromyography.

**Table A11.** Individual Exercise Activation Levels of Iliopsoas in Amplitude.

![](_page_32_Picture_168.jpeg)

Note. ASLR, active straight leg raise; EMG, electromyography; ER, external rotation; MVC, maximum volitional contraction.

![](_page_33_Picture_476.jpeg)

**Table A12.** Individual Exercise Activation Levels of Iliopsoas in RMS.

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