

Contribution of eccentric strength to cutting performance in female soccer players.

1 Abstract

2 The aim of this study was to examine the contribution of eccentric strength to performance of
3 a 70-90° cutting task (CUT) (time to complete: 5 m approach, 70-90° cut, 3 m exit). Nineteen
4 female soccer players (mean \pm SD age, height and mass; 21.6 ± 4.4 years, 1.67 ± 0.07 m and
5 60.5 ± 6.1 kg) from the top two tiers of English women's soccer participated in the study. Each
6 player performed 6 trials of the CUT task whereby three-dimensional motion data from 10
7 Qualisys pro-reflex cameras (240 Hz) and ground reaction forces from two AMTI force
8 platforms (1200 Hz) were collected. Relative eccentric knee extensor (ECC-KE) and flexor
9 peak moments (ECC-KF) were collected from both limbs at $60^\circ \cdot s^{-1}$ using a Kin Com isokinetic
10 dynamometer. Hierarchical multiple regression revealed that minimum center of mass (CM)
11 and approach velocities (CM velocity at touchdown of penultimate foot contact) could explain
12 82% (79% adjusted) of the variation in CUT completion time ($F_{(1,16)} = 36.086, P < 0.0001$).
13 ECC-KE was significantly ($P < 0.05$) moderately associated ($R \geq 0.610$) with velocities at key
14 instances during the CUT. High (upper 50th percentile) ECC-KE individuals ($n = 9$) had
15 significantly ($P \leq 0.01$; $d \geq 1.34$) greater velocities at key instances during the CUT. The
16 findings suggest that individuals with higher ECC-KE produce faster CUT performance, by
17 approaching with greater velocity and maintaining a higher velocity during penultimate and
18 final contact, as they are better able to tolerate the larger loads associated with a faster approach.

19 Key words: Change of direction speed; velocity; kinetics; penultimate contact; deceleration

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26 Introduction

27 Agility is defined as a rapid and accurate whole-body movement with change of velocity,
28 direction or movement pattern in response to a stimulus (29) and is considered highly important
29 in a number of field and court based sports (39). Change of direction (COD) ability is an
30 underpinning quality for successful agility and is defined as the (pre-planned) ability to
31 decelerate, reverse or change movement direction and accelerate again (22). Enhancement of
32 COD ability is essential to provide the technical and physical foundation to develop agility
33 (27). Numerous studies have examined the physical determinants of COD ability, with
34 associations found to linear sprinting speed (16, 22), vertical jump characteristics (1, 8),
35 eccentric (16, 22, 30), isometric (30, 33), concentric (30), isoinertial (20), and reactive (6, 38)
36 strength. However, findings from these studies have generally been conflicting due to
37 variations in; sample population (i.e. sports student vs. athlete population; combined sexes),
38 COD protocols used (i.e., 505-180° turn vs. 45° “cut” manoeuvre), statistical approaches
39 adopted (i.e., correlational analysis, fast vs. slow group comparisons, inclusion or exclusion of
40 multiple regression analysis), muscle strength quality under investigation and methods of
41 assessing a given muscle strength quality (i.e., isokinetic vs. isoinertial).

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43 A shortcoming of the abovementioned studies is that often the association between COD
44 ability to ‘strength’ in general is explored, without focusing on the specific role that particular
45 strength qualities have during different COD tasks. For instance, during the final ‘plant’ foot
46 contact of a COD maneuver, an athlete will require sufficient eccentric strength to reduce
47 velocity in the initial direction of travel during the braking phase, isometric strength during the
48 amortization phase and concentric strength during the propulsion phase to help re-accelerate
49 into the new intended direction of travel (30). Moreover, eccentric strength is considered
50 important to reduce velocity during the final stages of approach during a COD task. In support

51 of this theory, previous research has found an association between eccentric isokinetic knee
52 extensor ($R = -0.529$) and flexor strength ($R = -0.626$) and 505 test performance (22) and
53 eccentric isokinetic knee extensor strength ($R^2 = 42.1\%$) and performance during a similar 180°
54 turn task (16) both in university sports participants. Jones *et al.* (22) suggested that eccentric
55 knee extensor strength is important to control knee flexion during final contact when the ground
56 reaction forces acting through the lower limb are high, whilst eccentric knee flexor (hamstring)
57 strength is important to help generate hip extensor moment to maintain trunk position during
58 deceleration and assist with knee joint stability.

59 In addition, Naylor and Greig (26) found eccentric isokinetic hamstring peak moments at
60 $180^\circ \cdot s^{-1}$ and $60^\circ \cdot s^{-1}$ were the best predictors of T-test performance ($R^2 = 61\%$) and a
61 deceleration task (reactive stopping distance from a 10 m sprint) ($R^2 = 32\%$) in 19 male team
62 sport players, respectively. Lastly, Spiteri *et al.* (30) using elite female basketball players
63 investigated the relationships between 505 and T-test performance with a number of lower limb
64 muscle strength qualities, finding eccentric strength (eccentric only back squat) the best
65 predictor of COD performance. Collectively, the findings from these studies suggest an
66 association between eccentric strength and 90° (T-test) to 180° (505 test) COD performance
67 and deceleration ability.

68 A limitation of these studies is that they have only examined the association between
69 eccentric strength and global COD performance, which does not consider the role specific
70 strength qualities have during specific phases of COD. Jones *et al.* (24) examined the role of
71 eccentric strength during a 180° COD task in female soccer players through examination of a
72 velocity profile during the deceleration phase of the COD task. Large correlations were
73 revealed between COD performance (completion time) and eccentric knee extensor strength
74 ($R = -0.674$), whilst moderate to large correlations were observed between approach velocity
75 and COD performance ($R = -0.484$) and eccentric strength ($R = 0.724$), suggesting that greater

76 eccentric strength is associated with faster 180° COD performance in female soccer players.
77 Furthermore, stronger participants recorded significantly faster approach velocity (4.01 ± 0.18
78 vs. $3.74 \pm 0.24 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, $d = 1.28$) and greater reduction in velocity (-1.55 ± 0.17 vs. -1.37 ± 0.21
79 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, $d = -0.94$) during penultimate contact than weaker subjects. These findings suggest that
80 stronger players are better able to decelerate during penultimate contact from faster approach
81 velocities perhaps due to a ‘self-regulation’ effect (i.e., a player approaches faster based on the
82 deceleration load they know or feel they can tolerate), which can lead to faster overall COD
83 performance.

84 The role of different muscle strength qualities is likely to be influenced by the demands of
85 the task, with deceleration demands dependent on the angle of CODs (13). For instance, a 180°
86 COD requires an individual to reduce their horizontal velocity to zero at a ‘turning point’ before
87 then re-accelerating in the opposite direction, whereas with cutting $<90^\circ$ individuals are not
88 required to reduce horizontal velocity to zero, but are required to shift momentum into a new
89 direction of travel during the final ‘plant’ step. Hader et al. (19) found that during 45° and 90°
90 COD maneuvers the ability to maintain high velocity during both maneuvers was a major
91 determinant of performance, highlighting the different task demands of cutting $\leq 90^\circ$ compared
92 to turning (i.e., 505 test) and thus, the need to gather a greater understanding of the role of
93 eccentric strength within such cutting tasks.

94 Little is known about what role, if any, eccentric strength may play during ‘cutting’
95 maneuvers to help with such task demands. Previous research (11) has shown positive benefits
96 of 10 weeks eccentric training on final ‘plant’ contact braking force-time characteristics during
97 60°-side-step and 45°-cross cutting in under 19 male soccer players, suggesting that eccentric
98 strength does indeed assist with deceleration during cutting actions. More research is needed
99 to gather a greater understanding of how greater eccentric strength facilitates cutting
100 maneuvers. Furthermore, it would be prudent to investigate this in female soccer players, given

101 that such maneuvers are commonly associated with non-contact anterior cruciate ligament
102 (ACL) injuries in female soccer (5, 14). Thus, understanding the role of eccentric strength
103 within the deceleration aspect of cutting may have important implications for conditioning with
104 this population of athlete in respect of the demand of tasks regularly performed in soccer.
105 Therefore, the aim of the study was to examine the contribution of eccentric strength during
106 performance of a 70-90° cutting task in female soccer players. To achieve this aim the study
107 had the following objectives: 1) to explore the relationships between cutting performance
108 (completion times), velocities at key instances during the approach, eccentric knee extensor
109 and flexor strength; 2) examine the velocity profile differences during the cutting task between
110 players with ‘high’ and ‘low’ eccentric knee extensor strength; and 3) explore the kinetic
111 differences during weight acceptance of penultimate and final contact between players with
112 ‘high’ and ‘low’ eccentric knee extensor strength. It was hypothesized that there is an
113 association between eccentric strength, velocities during key instances of approach and cutting
114 performance and that players with higher eccentric knee extensor strength produce faster
115 cutting task completion times, through a faster approach velocity and lower decline in velocity
116 during penultimate and final contacts.

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118 **Methods**

119 **Experimental Approach to the Problem**

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121 This study involved a cross-sectional design whereby 19 participants performed multiple
122 trials of a 70-90° cutting task, whilst collecting three dimensional motion and force data along
123 with an isokinetic assessment of eccentric knee extensor and flexor strength. A minimum of 12
124 participants was determined from an *a priori* power analysis using G*Power (Version 3.1.9.2,
125 University of Dusseldorf, Germany) (15). This was based upon a previously reported co-

126 efficient of determination of 0.45 (COD completion time – eccentric knee extensor
127 strength) (24), a power of 0.8, and type 1 error or alpha level 0.05. Each participant attended
128 the lab on 2 occasions. The first occasion was a familiarization session on the protocols used
129 in the study with data collected in the subsequent session. To test the study hypothesis,
130 Pearson’s correlation, co-efficients of determination and hierarchical multiple regression were
131 used to explore relationships between cutting task completion time, velocities at key instances
132 during the cutting task and eccentric knee extensor and flexor strength. Furthermore, using a
133 median-split analysis approach as used previously (31) velocities at key instances during the
134 maneuver and kinetic characteristics were compared between sub-groups of players with ‘high’
135 and ‘low’ eccentric knee extensor strength (upper and lower 50th percentiles, respectively).

136

137 **Subjects**

138 Nineteen female soccer players (mean \pm SD age, height and mass; 21.6 ± 4.4 years, 1.67
139 ± 0.07 m and 60.5 ± 6.1 kg) participated in the study. All players were outfield players (6
140 defenders, 7 midfielders, 6 forwards) and played in the top two tiers of English women’s soccer
141 at the time of the study. Each player participated in at least two soccer practice sessions and
142 one match each week. Seventeen of the players reported their dominant limb (i.e., favored
143 kicking limb) to be the right leg. All of the players were free of injury at the time of the study.
144 None of the players had suffered any traumatic knee injury (i.e., ACL injury) in the past.
145 Approval for the study was provided by the University’s Ethics committee. All participants
146 provided written informed consent and parental assent was attained for any player under the
147 age of 18 prior to participating in the study through signing at institutionally approved consent
148 form.

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176 elasticated wraps to approximate the motion of these segments during dynamic trials. The
177 pelvis and trunk cluster sets were attached onto an elasticated belt and lycra ‘crop top’,
178 respectively.

179 Three dimensional motions of these markers were collected whilst performing the
180 cutting task using 10 Qualisys ‘Pro reflex’ infrared cameras (240 Hz) operating through
181 Qualisys Track Manager software (version 1.10.282). GRFs were collected from two AMTI
182 force platforms (1200 Hz) embedded into the running track.

183 From a standing trial, a 6-degree-of-freedom model of the lower extremity and trunk
184 was created for each participant using Visual 3D software (C-motion, v3.90.21). This
185 kinematic model was used to quantify the motion at the hip, knee and ankle joints using Cardan
186 angle sequence (18). The local coordinate system was defined at the proximal joint center for
187 each segment. The static trial position was designated as the subject’s neutral (anatomical zero)
188 alignment, and subsequent kinematic measures were related back to this position. Lower limb
189 joint moments were calculated using an inverse dynamics approach (36) through Visual 3D
190 and are defined as internal moments. Segmental inertial characteristics were estimated for each
191 participant (12). The model utilized a CODA pelvis orientation (3) to define the location of the
192 hip joint center. The knee and ankle joint centers were defined as the mid-point of the line
193 between lateral and medial markers. The trials were time normalized for each subject, with
194 respect to the ground contact time of the COD task. Touchdown and take-off were defined as
195 the instant that the vertical GRF (vGRF) superseded and subsided past 20 N, respectively, for
196 both PEN and FIN. The weight-acceptance phase for both contacts was defined from
197 touchdown to the point of maximum knee flexion as used previously (20, 23). Joint coordinate
198 and force data were smoothed in visual 3D with a Butterworth low pass digital filter with cut-
199 off frequencies of 12 Hz and 25 Hz, respectively. Cut-off frequencies were selected based on
200 a residual analysis (36) and visual inspection of the data.

201 Trunk and lower limbs center of mass (model CM) was computed as recommended by
202 Vanrenterghem et al. (34) to evaluate velocity. Model CM position was determined from 10
203 frames prior to PEN to 10 frames after FIN. The first derivative of the model CM position was
204 computed to derive anterior-posterior (x), vertical (z) and medio-lateral (y) velocity over this
205 period. Resultant horizontal plane velocity ($\sqrt{((\text{CM vel } (x))^2 + (\text{CM vel } (y))^2)}$) was subsequently
206 calculated to provide a ‘velocity profile’ along the path of the subjects CM during the cutting
207 maneuver. Resultant horizontal plane velocity at touchdown of PEN was determined to
208 represent the ‘approach velocity’ of the participant for that trial. Values of resultant horizontal
209 plane velocity at take-off of PEN, touchdown of FIN and take-off of FIN were determined for
210 each trial along with the minimum resultant horizontal plane velocity achieved during this
211 period. In addition, to evaluate the change in velocity during the final 2 contacts the following
212 variables were determined; 1) change in velocity from touchdown to take-off of PEN ($\Delta \text{ PEN}$)
213 and, 2) touchdown to take-off of FIN ($\Delta \text{ FIN}$). Finally, ‘true’ cutting angle was determined for
214 each trial at the take-off of FIN using the formula ($[\text{CM vel } (y) / \text{CM vel } (x)] \text{ Tan}^{-1}$) as used
215 previously (32).

216 During the weight-acceptance phase of PEN and FIN of the cutting-task, peak and
217 average vertical (Fz) and horizontal (Fx) GRFs were determined along with peak sagittal plane
218 knee and hip moments. Contact times for both PEN and FIN contacts were also determined.
219 Average of individual trials were reported for each variable.

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221 **Eccentric Strength Assessment**

222

223 Gravity-corrected isokinetic eccentric peak moments from 4 trials of the right and left
224 knee extensor and flexor muscle groups at $60^\circ \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ were determined using a Kin Com
225 (Chattanooga Group, Tennessee) isokinetic dynamometer, adopting methods reported

226 previously (17). The subjects were seated with the hip joint at 90°. The axis of rotation of the
227 dynamometer shaft was aligned with the best approximation of the knee joint axis of rotation,
228 midway between the lateral condyles of the femur and tibia. The cuff of the dynamometer lever
229 arm was attached to the ankle, just proximal to the malleoli. Extraneous movement was
230 prevented by straps, positioned at the hip, shoulders and tested thigh. Subjects were instructed
231 to hold onto the handles located underneath the seat. ROM was set as close to 90° as possible
232 (0° = full knee extension). Eight sub-maximal concentric knee extension and flexion
233 movements were performed as a warm-up following 3 minutes of stationary cycling (60 rpm)
234 on a cycle ergometer (Wattbike Ltd, Nottingham, UK).

235 The trial exhibiting the highest peak torque (from the 4 trials) in each mode on each
236 limb was saved and used for further analysis. Data were exported in ASCII format into
237 Microsoft Excel for analysis. Phases of acceleration and deceleration, using a $\pm 1^\circ \cdot s^{-1}$ tolerance,
238 were eliminated from the analysis. Right and left eccentric peak moment values were
239 normalized by body mass for both muscle groups. A paired samples t-test revealed no
240 significant differences ($P > 0.05$; d (ECC-KE) = -0.11; d (ECC-KF) = 0.16) between right and
241 left limbs for eccentric peak moment values for each muscle group. Therefore, right and left
242 eccentric peak moment values were averaged across limbs for both muscle groups (ECC-KE,
243 ECC-KF) and subsequently used for statistical analysis. A-priori test-retest reliability of ECC-
244 KE and ECC-KF peak moments revealed good reliability and low variation (ECC-KE = 0.937,
245 CV = 5.83%; ECC-KF: ICC = 0.952; CV = 4.90%; $n = 23$) between sessions (17).

246

247 **Statistical Analysis**

248 Statistical analysis was performed in SPSS for Windows (version 23, IBM, New York,
249 NY, USA). Normality was confirmed for cutting-task completion time, eccentric strength and

250 velocities during approach via the Shapiro-Wilks test. Within trial reliability and variation for
251 the cutting task was assessed using intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) and coefficient of
252 variation (%CV) with ICC >0.7 and CV <10% considered to represent good reliability (2, 9).
253 To explore relationships between eccentric strength, velocity at key instances and cutting task
254 completion time Pearson's (R) correlation was performed and co-efficients of determination
255 ($R^2 \times 100$) calculated. Significance for correlations were Bonferroni corrected to reduce
256 likelihood of type 1 error, with statistical significance set as $P < 0.05$ after correction.
257 Correlations were evaluated as follows: negligible (0.0-0.30), low (0.30-0.50), moderate (0.50–
258 0.70), high (0.70–0.90) and very high (>0.90) (25). Hierarchical multiple regression was
259 subsequently used to determine the combined effects of highly correlated variables to cutting
260 task completion time.

261 Moreover, based on previous approaches used in the literature (31) the sample was
262 divided into the 9 highest and 9 lowest subjects based on ECC-KE (ECC-KF was not
263 considered based on the low mostly non-significant correlations to completion time and
264 velocities at key instances ~ see Table 1). The subject who attained the median value for
265 eccentric knee extensor strength was removed from this analysis. Independent T or Mann-
266 Whitney U tests (non-normally distributed data) were performed to compare differences
267 between groups in terms of completion times, velocities at key instances, contact times, GRF's,
268 knee and hip joint moments. A Levene's test was used to inspect the data for equality of
269 variances with appropriate adjustments (equality of variances not assumed) for violation of this
270 assumption. Effects sizes were calculated using Cohen d (mean strong group - mean weak
271 group/ SD pooled) and interpreted as trivial (<0.19), small (0.20–0.59), moderate (0.60–1.19),
272 large (1.20–1.99), and very large (2.0–4.0) (21).

273

274 Results

275 Good reliability and variation between cutting trials was observed for task completion
276 time (ICC = 0.944; CV = 1.92%) and velocity variables (ICC >0.823; CV <5.32%). Mostly
277 good reliability and variation was observed for joint moments (ICC >0.744; CV <9.74%) and
278 force-time (ICC >0.737; CV <10.59%) characteristics, but higher variation was observed for
279 peak knee extensor moment, peak vertical and horizontal GRF during weight acceptance of
280 FIN and peak hip extensor moment during weight acceptance of PEN (CV = 15.7 - 18.1%).

281 *Relationships between cutting performance, strength and velocities at key instances*

282 Mean \pm SD true cutting angle at the point of final plant take-off was $54 \pm 6^\circ$. Significant
283 ($P < 0.0001$) high correlations were revealed between cutting task completion time and ECC-
284 KE, velocities at key instances during the maneuver and minimum resultant horizontal plane
285 velocity (Table 1). A significant moderate correlation was revealed between cutting task
286 completion time and ECC-KF (Table 1). Significant ($P < 0.001$) moderate correlations were
287 observed between ECC-KE and velocities at key instances during the maneuver and minimum
288 resultant horizontal plane velocity (Table 1). Low (mostly non-significant) correlations were
289 observed between ECC-KF and velocities at key instances (Table 1), thus, comparisons
290 between subjects with 'high' and 'low' ECC-KE strength are provided hereon in. In the
291 hierarchical multiple regression minimal resultant center of mass velocity was entered first and
292 explained 77% (75% adjusted) of the variation in cutting task completion time ($F_{(1,17)} = 55.35$,
293 $P < 0.0001$), approach velocity (CM velocity at touchdown of PEN) was entered second and
294 explained a further 5% (4% adjusted) of the variation ($F_{(1,16)} = 36.086$, $P < 0.0001$). Addition
295 of ECC-KE, average HGRF during FIN and FIN contact time could explain 86% (80%
296 adjusted) of the variation in cutting task completion time, but was not significant ($F_{(1,13)} =$
297 0.586 , $P = 0.458$).

298

<<INSERT TABLE 1 HERE>>

299 *Velocity profile differences between participants with 'high' and 'low' ECC-KE strength*

300 'High' ECC-KE strength participants (upper 50th percentile) performed significantly
301 ($P < 0.01$) faster cutting task completion times (Table 2). Furthermore, significantly ($P < 0.05$)
302 faster velocities ('large' effect) were observed at key instances during the maneuver (Table 2).
303 'Low' ECC-KE strength participants (lower 50th percentile) demonstrated slightly greater
304 reductions in velocity during PEN and FIN (Table 2), but these were non-significant ($P > 0.05$)
305 and considered 'small'.

306

<<INSERT TABLE 2 HERE>>

307 *Kinetic differences between participants with 'high' and 'low' ECC-KE strength*

308 'High' ECC-KE strength participants exhibited significant ($P < 0.05$) moderately
309 greater average horizontal GRF during weight-acceptance of FIN (Table 3). In addition, 'high'
310 ECC-KE strength subjects displayed significantly ($P < 0.05$) shorter PEN and FIN contact
311 times compared to 'low' ECC-KE strength subjects, with moderate and large effect sizes (Table
312 3), respectively. No other variable revealed significant ($P > 0.05$) differences between 'high'
313 and 'low' (Table 3). 'High' ECC-KE strength subjects exhibited moderately ($d \geq 0.61$; $P >$
314 0.05) greater; average horizontal GRF and hip extensor moments during weight-acceptance of
315 PEN; average vertical GRF, peak vertical and horizontal GRF during weight-acceptance of
316 FIN than 'low' ECC-KE strength participants (Table 3).

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<<INSERT TABLE 3 HERE>>

318

319

320 Discussion

321 The aim of this study was to examine the contribution of eccentric strength to performance
322 of a 70-90° cutting task in female soccer players. High correlations were found between
323 cutting-task completion times and velocities at key instances ($R = -0.838$ to -0.875) during the
324 maneuver. Hierarchical multiple regression revealed that minimum CM velocity and approach
325 velocity (CM velocity at touchdown of PEN) explained 82% (79% adjusted) of the variation
326 in cutting task completion time ($p < 0.0001$). ECC-KE was highly ($R = -0.75$) associated with
327 CUT task completion time and moderately associated ($R \geq 0.610$) with velocities at key
328 instances during the cutting task. Players with higher ECC-KE strength ($n = 9$) also had
329 significantly ($P \leq 0.01$; $d: 1.34 - 1.71$) greater velocities at key instances and significantly
330 shorter ground contact times ($P \leq 0.05$; $d: -1.16$ to -1.65) during cutting. Furthermore, although
331 non-significant and small, players with higher ECC-KE strength exhibited slightly lower
332 reduction in velocity during PEN and FIN ($d = 0.36$ & 0.38 , respectively) compared to 'low'
333 ECC-KE strength players ($n = 9$). These findings support the study hypotheses that there is an
334 association between eccentric knee extensor strength and velocities during key instances of a
335 cutting-task. Moreover, players with higher ECC-KE strength produce faster cutting-task
336 completion times, through a faster approach, but higher velocities throughout the maneuver
337 seem to be more important than a lower decline in velocity during PEN and FIN per se.

338 The findings substantiate previous research for an association between eccentric (knee
339 extensor) strength and COD performance during COD tasks involving 180° turns (16, 22, 24,
340 30), particularly in female athletes (24, 30). Collectively, this highlights the importance of
341 eccentric strength in COD tasks involving large direction changes (i.e., $>45^\circ$). Many of the
342 abovementioned studies only examined the association of eccentric strength to global
343 performance time (16, 22, 30). Only one previous study using a similar approach has examined
344 the role of eccentric strength during deceleration of a 180° turn (24); finding that female soccer

345 players with greater eccentric knee extensor strength approached the 180° turn with greater
346 velocity and had a greater reduction in velocity during the penultimate contact leading to faster
347 task completion times. Whilst this study supports the theory that eccentrically stronger athletes
348 achieve faster completion times through establishing a faster approach velocity, in contrast to
349 turning (24) this study highlights faster cutting performance is achieved by maintaining higher
350 velocities throughout the maneuver substantiating previous work (19) and that eccentric
351 strength of the knee extensors plays a role in this velocity maintenance.

352 Another shortcoming of previous studies (16, 22, 24, 30) is that the findings only relate to
353 tasks involving a 180° turn and thus, the role of eccentric strength in cutting tasks until now
354 has been unknown. For instance, Hader et al. (19) found that during 45° and 90° COD
355 maneuvers the ability to maintain high velocity during both tasks was a major determinant of
356 performance. The results of this study suggest that eccentric knee extensor strength plays a
357 pivotal role with regard to velocity maintenance during cutting tasks. Furthermore, these results
358 along with those of Jones et al. (24) support the idea that eccentrically stronger (knee extensors)
359 players are better able to tolerate the loads associated with a faster approach and thus, can
360 approach with a faster velocity perhaps due to a ‘self-regulation’ effect (i.e., a player
361 approaches faster based on the deceleration load they know or feel they can tolerate), which
362 can lead to faster overall COD performance.

363 The kinetic comparisons between high ECC-KE and low ECC-KE players revealed
364 moderately greater peak vertical and horizontal GRFs during FIN and significantly greater
365 average horizontal GRFs during FIN, which is likely due to the significantly greater velocities
366 achieved by the stronger group of players. A moderate non-significant difference was revealed
367 for average horizontal GRF during PEN, which is in contrast to findings of Jones et al. (24)
368 and suggests that increasing PEN GRFs is a strategy utilized by stronger athletes to aid
369 deceleration during 180° turns, whereas with cutting tasks the maintenance of velocity is more

370 important, thus, no significant differences in PEN GRFs were observed between the 2 groups.
371 Furthermore, the significant large reductions in PEN and FIN contact times for stronger
372 compared to weaker players suggests that, the braking strategy utilized by weaker players
373 involves prolonged braking duration and lower braking forces leading to small reductions in
374 resultant horizontal plane velocity in contrast to stronger players who maintain higher
375 velocities throughout the cut by virtue of shorter ground contact times.

376 The present study did find a moderate ($d = 0.89$) non-significant greater peak internal hip
377 extensor moments during PEN for high ECC-KE compared to low ECC-KE players, suggesting
378 a greater utilization of the hip extensor muscle groups during the deceleration phases of cutting.
379 Previous research into COD has highlighted the importance of generating hip extensor
380 moments during the final ‘plant’ contact for knee injury prevention. Jones et al. (23) found that
381 external hip flexor moments were significantly negatively correlated to peak knee abduction
382 moments during a 180° COD task in female soccer players ($R = -0.39$). Thus, the results of the
383 present study may suggest that stronger players were better able to engage the hip extensors in
384 order to control the deceleration of the cut in the sagittal plane and maybe one way to alleviate
385 the loads experienced at the knee as a result of a higher approach velocity. Given that non-
386 contact ACL injuries more commonly occur during cutting tasks in female soccer players (5,
387 14), suggests that developing eccentric hamstring strength to help generate hip extensor
388 moments during the final plant step of cutting may be important for injury mitigation purposes
389 in this population of athlete. Future EMG studies are required to confirm such observations.

390 The study revealed stronger correlations for ECC-KE with cutting task completion times
391 than ECC-KF substantiating previous research (23). Greater ECC-KF (hamstring) strength may
392 assist in helping to generate hip extensor moments during PEN and FIN to control trunk flexion
393 during these phases and provide hamstring co-contraction to assist with knee joint stability
394 during FIN. ECC-KF strength was only significantly correlated with velocity at take-off of

395 PEN and was considered low. This suggests that ECC-KF may have a minor role in assisting
396 with deceleration mechanics during cutting and turning. More research is warranted to compare
397 mechanical differences between eccentrically stronger and weaker subjects to confirm the
398 abovementioned observations.

399 The results revealed that at take-off of FIN the mean \pm SD true cutting angle was $54 \pm 6^\circ$,
400 which is lower than the intended cutting angle of 70 to 90°. This observation is consistent with
401 several previous studies (4, 7, 10, 28, 32, 35). This observation highlights that such COD tasks
402 are a multi-step action, with the penultimate or more likely in the case of this study (via a cross-
403 over cut performed) on the subsequent step after the final ‘plant’ step assisting with the
404 direction change (13). Furthermore, the velocity changes observed during PEN and FIN
405 revealed greater reductions during PEN, rather than FIN (Table 2) despite minimum velocity
406 occurring during FIN. This highlights the concept that cutting actions are indeed a multi-step
407 action and should be acknowledged when coaching such maneuvers, rather than solely focusing
408 on the plant step. More research is required that examines COD actions as a multi-step action
409 in order to improve practitioners knowledge and understanding.

410 A limitation of the present study was due to lab constraints cutting tasks were performed
411 with only the right leg acting as the ‘plant’ leg. Whilst the majority of players were right limb
412 dominant and analysis of the dominant limb can be considered important given that this limb
413 is likely favored during match play. Future work should consider analysis of both limbs to
414 explore potential differences with regard to muscle strength asymmetry or limb preference.
415 Furthermore, while the results of the present study highlight the importance of eccentric knee
416 extensor strength for cutting performance, a cause-effect relationships cannot be deduced.
417 Although, De Hoyo et al. (11) investigated the effects of 10 weeks eccentric over-load training
418 (eccentric flywheel device) on kinetic parameters during cross-over (45°) to side-step (60°)
419 cutting in under 19 male soccer players. Between group analysis revealed that eccentric training

420 led to substantial improvements in contact time, time spent braking during side-step cutting,
421 and relative peak braking force and impulse during cross-cutting. Therefore, eccentric strength
422 training may indeed be beneficial in improving cutting performance, specifically related to
423 aspects of deceleration. More research is required to examine the impact of eccentric strength
424 training on performance and deceleration kinematics and kinetics during cutting, as well as the
425 role of other training modalities on other phases of cutting.

426 To conclude, the findings of this study suggest that female soccer players with greater
427 eccentric knee extensor strength produce faster cutting-task completion times, by approaching
428 with greater velocity and maintaining higher velocities during the final 2 steps prior to
429 accelerating into the new direction. Stronger players seem better able to tolerate the larger loads
430 associated with faster cutting performance due to a ‘self-regulation’ effect whereby stronger
431 players approach faster based on the load they know or feel they can tolerate leading to faster
432 completion times. The results along with previous research also highlight that the deceleration
433 requirements for COD are angle dependent in that cutting $<90^\circ$ requires athletes to maintain
434 velocity as much as possible during the maneuver, whilst cutting or turning $\geq 90^\circ$ requires
435 athletes to reduce velocity (to zero) rapidly, particularly through penultimate foot contact.
436 Future work is required to explore the effects of eccentric training on whole-body COD
437 mechanics to better inform strength training prescription.

438

439 **Practical Applications**

440 The findings of the present study suggest that to enhance performance (shorter task
441 completion times) during $<90^\circ$ side-step cutting tasks, female soccer players should approach
442 quickly and seek to maintain high center of mass velocity along the path of the change of
443 direction maneuver. In order to achieve this, practitioners working in female soccer should look
444 to develop eccentric knee extensor strength of their players to provide the physical foundation

445 to enable players to tolerate the high braking forces associated with a faster approach, whilst
446 maintaining short penultimate and final ground contact times. Utilizing traditional strength
447 exercises (i.e., back squats, etc.) whilst accentuating the eccentric phase of the lift (i.e., weight
448 release system, spotters or flywheel device) before progressing to higher velocity plyometric/
449 jump training exercises (i.e., drop holds, drop jumps, etc.) and/ or deceleration drills would be
450 recommended. Although future research is required to explore the efficacy of such eccentric
451 training methods on whole-body COD mechanics, which would enable more effective strength
452 training prescription to enhance COD performance. Finally, given the association of side-step
453 cutting to the incidence of non-contact ACL injury in female soccer (5, 14) development of
454 eccentric knee flexor strength along with knee extensor strength would be recommended to not
455 only assist players in accepting the deceleration load during the final ‘plant’ foot contact during
456 cutting, but to also enhance knee joint stability and help generate internal hip extensor moments
457 for injury mitigation purposes.

458

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460

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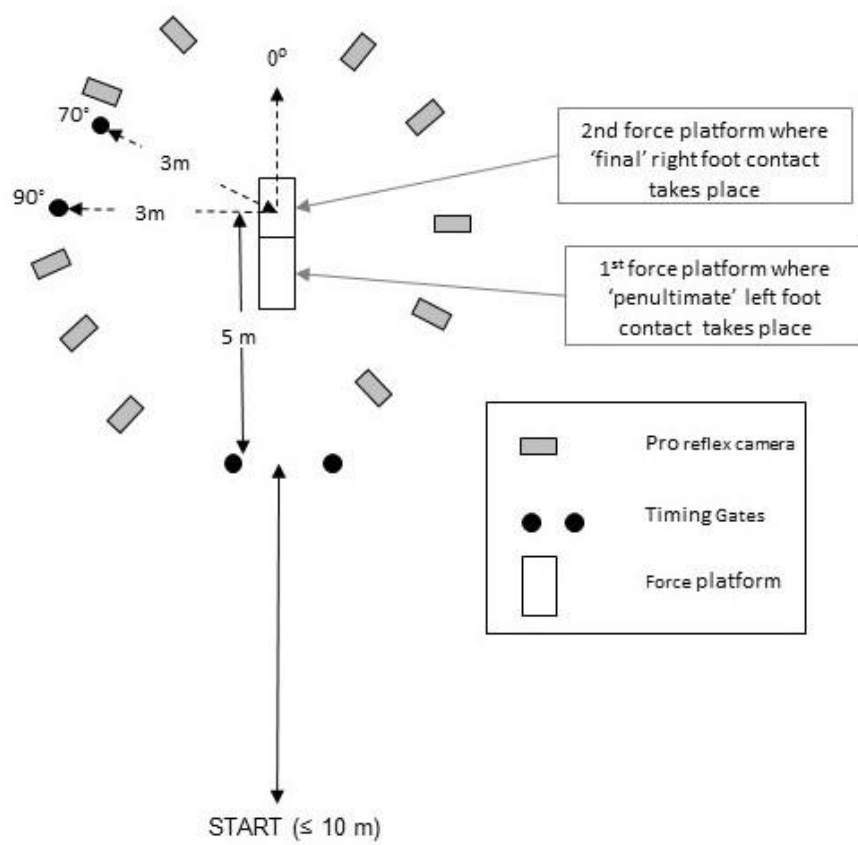


Figure 1.

Table 1. Relationships between cutting task completion time with velocities at key instances of the maneuver and eccentric knee extensor (ECC-KE) and flexor (ECC-KF) strength.

Variable	Mean (SD)	Relationship to Cutting task completion time		Relationship to ECC-KE		Relationship to ECC-KF	
		R	R ²	R	R ²	R	R ²
Cutting task completion time (s)	1.85 (0.17)						
ECC-KE (Nm·kg ⁻¹)	3.49 (0.53)	-0.750*	56.0%				
ECC-KF (Nm·kg ⁻¹)	1.69 (0.30)	-0.504 [#]	25.4%				
Velocity at start of PEN ^a (m·s ⁻¹)	4.43 (0.37)	-0.849*	72.1%	0.633*	40.1%	0.442	19.5%
Velocity at end of PEN ^b (m·s ⁻¹)	3.40 (0.38)	-0.854*	72.9%	0.641*	41.1%	0.456*	20.8%
Velocity at start of FIN ^c (m·s ⁻¹)	3.43 (0.37)	-0.838*	70.2%	0.610*	37.2%	0.396	15.7%
Velocity at end of FIN ^d (m·s ⁻¹)	3.27 (0.40)	-0.872*	76.0%	0.678*	46.0%	0.454	20.6%
Minimum horizontal velocity ^e (m·s ⁻¹)	2.70 (0.43)	-0.875*	76.6%	0.677*	45.8%	0.352	12.4%

^{a-d} Horizontal plane model CM velocity at the start of penultimate (PEN) contact^a, end of PEN^b, start of final (FIN) contact^c and end of FIN contact^d. Minimum horizontal plane model CM velocity during the maneuver^e.

ECC-KE = eccentric isokinetic knee extensor peak moment; ECC-KF = eccentric isokinetic knee flexor peak moment;

*P<0.001; [#] P < 0.05

Table 2. Differences in cutting task completion time, and velocity profile variables between individuals with ‘High’ (upper 50th Percentile) and ‘Low’ (lower 50th percentile) eccentric knee extensor peak moments.

Variable	High (n = 9)	Low (n = 9)	Mean diff (95% CI)	P	d (95% CI)	Descriptor
Cutting task completion time (s)	1.73 ± 0.11 (95% CI: 1.65 - 1.80)	1.95 ± 0.14 (95% CI: 1.85 - 2.04)	-0.22 (-0.58 – 0.14)	0.003	-1.70 (-2.5 – -0.88)	Large
ECC-KE (Nm·kg ⁻¹)	3.96 ± 0.34 (95% CI: 4.18 - 3.74)	3.03 ± 0.22 (95% CI: 3.17 - 2.89)	0.93 (0.40 – 1.45)	<0.0001	3.27 (2.18 – 4.37)	Very Large
Velocity at TD of PEN ^a (m·s ⁻¹)	4.65 ± 0.30 (95% CI: 4.85 - 4.45)	4.24 ± 0.31 (95% CI: 4.44 - 4.04)	0.41 (-0.14 – 0.96)	0.012	1.34 (0.34 – 2.34)	Large
Velocity at TO of PEN ^b (m·s ⁻¹)	3.67 ± 0.25 (95% CI: 3.83 - 3.51)	3.19 ± 0.32 (95% CI: 3.39 - 2.98)	0.48 (-0.05 – 1.01)	0.002	1.71 (0.70 – 2.73)	Large
Velocity at TD of FIN ^c (m·s ⁻¹)	3.67 ± 0.27 (95% CI: 3.85 - 3.50)	3.23 ± 0.30 (95% CI: 3.43 – 3.04)	0.44 (-0.09 – 0.98)	0.005	1.54 (0.53 – 2.55)	Large
Velocity at TO of FIN ^d (m·s ⁻¹)	3.54 ± 0.34 (95% CI: 3.77 - 3.32)	3.03 ± 0.29 (95% CI: 3.22 – 2.84)	0.51 (-0.05 – 1.07)	0.003	1.61 (0.60 – 2.63)	Large
Minimum velocity (m·s ⁻¹)	2.97 ± 0.30 (95% CI: 3.17 – 2.77)	2.46 ± 0.41 (95% CI: 2.73 – 2.20)	0.51 (-0.09 – 1.10)	0.009	1.41 (0.41 – 2.41)	Large
Δ PEN ^e (m·s ⁻¹)	-0.98 ± 0.20 (95% CI: -1.11 - -0.85)	-1.06 ± 0.21 (95% CI: -1.20 - -0.92)	0.07 (-0.38 – 0.53)	0.455	0.36 (-0.58 – 1.31)	Small
Δ FIN ^f (m·s ⁻¹)	-0.13 ± 0.21 (95% CI: -0.27 – 0.00)	-0.20 ± 0.16 (95% CI: -0.10 - -0.30)	0.07 (-0.36 – 0.50)	0.440	0.38 (-0.57 – 1.33)	Small

diff = difference; CI = confidence interval; ECC-KE = eccentric knee extensor peak moment; PEN = penultimate, FIN = final; TD = touchdown; TO = Take-off.

^{a-d}Resultant Horizontal plane model CM velocity at touchdown^a and take-off^b of penultimate (PEN) contact, and touchdown^c and take-off^d of final (FIN) contact

^e Change in horizontal plane velocity from touchdown to take-off of penultimate contact

^f Change in horizontal plane velocity from touchdown to take-off of final contact

Table 3. Differences in kinetic characteristics during cutting between individuals with ‘High’ (upper 50th Percentile) and ‘Low’ (lower 50th percentile) eccentric knee extensor peak moments.

Variable	High (n = 9)	Low (n = 9)	Mean diff (95% CI)	P	d (95% CI)	Descriptor
Ground Contact Times						
Penultimate contact time (s)	0.164 ± 0.017 (95% CI: 0.175 – 0.153)	0.202 ± 0.027 (95% CI: 0.220 – 0.184)	-0.038 (-0.186 – 0.110)	0.003*	-1.65 (-2.47 – -0.83)	Large
Final contact time (s)	0.228 ± 0.027 (95% CI: 0.246 – 0.210)	0.281 ± 0.059 (95% CI: 0.320 – 0.243)	-0.053 (-0.260 – 0.154)	0.03*	-1.16 (-2.014 – -0.306)	Moderate
Ground Reaction Forces						
Peak vGRF during weight acceptance of penultimate contact (bw)	3.06 ± 0.51 (95% CI: 3.39 – 2.73)	3.10 ± 0.96 (95% CI: 3.72 – 2.47)	-0.04 (-0.89 – 0.82)	0.918	-0.05 (-0.97 – 0.87)	Trivial
Average vGRF during weight acceptance of penultimate contact (bw)	1.03 ± 0.12 (95% CI: 1.11 – 0.95)	1.01 ± 0.18 (95% CI: 1.13 – 0.90)	0.02 (-0.37 – 0.41)	0.761	0.13 (-0.80 – 1.06)	Trivial
Peak hGRF during weight acceptance of penultimate contact (bw)	-1.74 ± 0.36 (95% CI: -1.98 – -1.51)	-1.68 ± 0.57 (95% CI: -2.06 – -1.31)	-0.06 (-0.75 – 0.62)	0.795	-0.13 (-1.04 – 0.79)	Trivial
Average hGRF during weight acceptance of penultimate contact (bw)	-0.61 ± 0.11 (95% CI: -0.69 – -0.54)	-0.53 ± 0.15 (95% CI: -0.63 – -0.44)	-0.08 (-0.44 – 0.28)	0.194	-0.64 (-1.53 – 0.25)	Moderate
Peak vGRF during weight acceptance final contact (bw)	3.09 ± 0.35 (95% CI: 3.32 – 2.86)	2.73 ± 0.54 (95% CI: 3.08 – 2.37)	0.36 (-0.31 – 1.03)	0.113	0.79 (-0.18 – 1.76)	Moderate
Average vGRF during weight acceptance final contact (bw)	1.74 ± 0.16 (95% CI: 1.84 – 1.64)	1.60 ± 0.27 (95% CI: 1.78 – 1.43)	0.14 (-0.33 – 0.60)	0.214	0.61 (-0.34 – 1.57)	Moderate
Peak hGRF during weight acceptance final contact (bw)	-1.52 ± 0.24 (95% CI: -1.68 – -1.36)	-1.33 ± 0.21 (95% CI: -1.46 – -1.20)	-0.19 (-0.66 – 0.28)	0.091	-0.86 (-1.73 – 0.02)	Moderate
Average hGRF during weight acceptance of final contact (bw)	-0.93 ± 0.14 (95% CI: -1.02 – -0.84)	-0.77 ± 0.14 (95% CI: -0.88 – -0.67)	-0.16 (-0.54 – 0.21)	0.026*	-1.15 (-2.00 – -0.30)	Moderate
Joint Moments						
Penultimate contact peak hip ext mom (Nm·kg ⁻¹)	3.45 ± 0.68 (95% CI: 3.90 – 3.01)	2.77 ± 0.85 (95% CI: 3.32 – 2.21)	-0.68 (-1.56 – 0.19)	0.079	-0.89 (-1.76 – -0.02)	Moderate
Penultimate contact peak knee ext mom (Nm·kg ⁻¹)	2.97 ± 0.52 (95% CI: 3.31 – 2.63)	3.07 ± 0.47 (95% CI: 3.38-2.76)	-0.10 (-0.80 – 0.61)	0.691	-0.20 (-1.11 – 0.72)	Small
Final contact peak hip ext mom (Nm·kg ⁻¹)	3.49 ± 1.10 (95% CI: 4.21 – 2.78)	2.90 ± 1.22 (95% CI: 3.69 – 2.10)	-0.60 (-1.67 – 0.48)	0.291	-0.51 (-1.41 – 0.38)	Small
Final contact peak knee ext mom (Nm·kg ⁻¹)	2.98 ± 0.48 (95% CI: 3.30 – 2.66)	2.86 ± 0.44 (95% CI: 3.15 – 2.57)	0.12 (-0.56 – 0.80)	0.589	0.26 (-0.68 – 1.20)	Small

diff = difference; CI = confidence interval; vGRF = vertical ground reaction force; hGRF = horizontal ground reaction force; ext = extensor; mom = moment.

*P < 0.05