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1 **BIOMECHANICAL DETERMINANTS OF THE MODIFIED AND TRADITIONAL**

2 **505 CHANGE OF DIRECTION SPEED TEST**

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 The aim of this study was to investigate the whole-body biomechanical determinants of 180°
5 change of direction (COD) performance. 61 male athletes (age: 20.7 ± 3.8 years, height: 1.77
6 ± 0.06 m, mass: 74.7 ± 10.0 kg) from multiple sports (soccer, rugby, and cricket) completed 6
7 trials of the modified and traditional 505 on their right leg, whereby 3D motion and ground
8 reaction force data were collected during the COD. Pearson's and Spearman's correlations
9 were used to explore the relationships between biomechanical variables and COD completion
10 time. Independent T-tests and Hedges' g effect sizes were conducted between faster (top 20)
11 and slower (bottom 20) performers to explore differences in biomechanical variables. Key
12 kinetic and kinematic differences were demonstrated between faster and slower performers
13 with statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) and meaningful differences ($g = 0.56-2.70$) observed.
14 Faster COD performers displayed greater peak and mean horizontal propulsive forces (PF) in
15 shorter ground contact times, more horizontally orientated peak resultant braking and PFs,
16 greater horizontal to vertical mean and peak braking and PF ratios, greater approach velocities,
17 and displayed greater reductions in velocity over key instances of the COD. Additionally, faster
18 performers displayed greater penultimate foot contact (PFC) hip, knee, and ankle dorsi-flexion
19 angles, greater medial trunk lean, and greater internal pelvic and foot rotation. These
20 aforementioned variables were also moderately to very largely (r or $\rho = 0.317-0.795$, $p \leq 0.013$)
21 associated with faster COD performance. Consequently, practitioners should focus not only on
22 developing their athletes' ability to express force rapidly, but also develop their technical
23 ability to apply force horizontally. Additionally, practitioners should consider coaching a 180°
24 turning strategy which emphasizes high PFC triple flexion for center of mass lowering while

25 also encouraging whole-body rotation to effectively align the body towards the exit for faster
26 performance.

27 **Key words:** turning; pivoting; braking force; propulsive force; force vector

28 INTRODUCTION

29 The ability to rapidly decelerate, turn 180°, and reaccelerate again is considered an important
30 physical quality in multidirectional sports (soccer, netball, cricket, and basketball) (4, 14, 43,
31 50). For example, soccer players perform ~100 turns of 90-180° (4), when the team is in and
32 out of possession, such as transitioning from defence to attack (and vice versa). Sweeting et al.
33 (43) reported 180° turns are frequently performed movements in netball, similar to the number
34 of 90° turns performed, and in cricket the 180° turn is a fundamental movement for batsmen,
35 whereby approximately 40 turns are performed when scoring 100 runs during a match (14).
36 Additionally, 180° turns feature in change of direction (COD) speed tests, such as the modified
37 (mod505) and traditional 505 (tra505) and pro-agility (35, 37). **These tests are included** in the
38 fitness testing batteries of numerous sports (7, 13, 35-37, 44, 45), and are often required by
39 sporting national governing bodies for longitudinal monitoring purposes (7, 44). Importantly,
40 however, these aforementioned tests are also used for talent identification, such as the National
41 Football League combine (15), and 180° turns **are performed** in endurance field-based cardio
42 respiratory tests, such as the 30-15 intermittent fitness test and bleep test. Consequently, given
43 the importance of 180° COD ability in multidirectional sport and fitness and COD speed tasks,
44 it is important to understand the technical and mechanical determinants of faster 180° COD
45 performance.

46 Lower-limb strength and power qualities, linear speed, and technical factors such as trunk
47 lean and posture, foot placement, and stride adjustment have been suggested as factors linked
48 to faster COD speed performance (50). Currently, there is a paucity of studies that have

49 investigated the biomechanical and technical determinants of 180° COD performance;
50 however, these studies are limited to trunk kinematic (39) and ground reaction force (GRF) (9,
51 17, 41) determinants. Sasaki et al. (39) found mod505 performance was associated with smaller
52 forward angular trunk displacements and **shorter** ground contact times (GCT) during the plant-
53 foot contact. Other technical factors such as foot placement and pelvis rotation may be central
54 to 180° COD performance to effectively orientate and align the body towards the intended
55 direction of travel (10, 21). Moreover, triple flexion of hip, knee, and ankle during 180° CODs
56 may be important to lower the center of mass (COM) to increase stability and place the athlete
57 in an optimal position for weight acceptance and push-off (10, 23). To the best of our
58 knowledge, no study has examined the **lower-limb and trunk** biomechanical determinants of
59 180° COD performance. This is important because coaches and practitioners are interested in
60 coaching and technical guidelines to enhance 180° COD performance.

61 Exploring the GRF determinants during the plant-foot contact of a 180° turn, Spiteri et
62 al. (41) found faster female basketball athletes during the tra505 produced **greater vertical**
63 **braking (VBF) and propulsive forces (VPF)** during the final foot contact (FFC) (plant-foot
64 contact), and produced **shorter** braking and propulsive times, thus shorter total GCTs.
65 Examining both vertical and horizontal GRF, **Dos'Santos et al. (9) also found faster male**
66 **athletes during a mod505 produced greater horizontal propulsive forces (HPF) in shorter GCTs,**
67 **However, in contrast to the results of Spiteri et al. (41), faster performance was associated with**
68 **lower VBF (9). Additionally, Graham-Smith et al. (17) revealed faster 180° COD performance**
69 **was associated with greater peak FFC HBF.** These findings are unsurprising because, based on
70 the impulse-momentum relationship, greater force production will increase impulse, therefore
71 leading to greater changes in velocity (5, 10). Moreover, the results from the aforementioned
72 studies potentially highlight the importance of force vector specificity and the orientation of
73 force application for effective braking and propulsion (reacceleration). Research into sprinting

74 GRFs has demonstrated the importance of not only the magnitude of the resultant force, but
75 the orientation of force application for faster performance (31, 32). As force is a vector,
76 possessing both magnitude and direction, several studies have highlighted the importance of
77 the magnitude of single components of propulsive and braking forces (9, 17, 41) when
78 changing direction 180°, but no study, to the best of our knowledge, has quantified the resultant
79 braking and propulsive force and orientation of the force vector.

80 Because changing direction 180° requires an athlete to reduce their horizontal velocity
81 of COM to zero (29), athletes will need to decelerate their COM by braking over a series of
82 steps prior to changing direction (10, 29, 33). As such, changing direction is described as a
83 multistep action (10, 26). The role of the **penultimate foot contact (PFC)** is an emerging area
84 of research **regarding 180° turning** biomechanics (9, 10, 17, 29), with the results of previous
85 research showing greater PFC HBFs associated with faster 180° COD performance (9, 17).
86 Additionally, the PFC has also been described as a “preparatory step” which facilitates an
87 effective body position for weight acceptance and push-off during the FFC (9, 10, 26).
88 **However**, no study to date has examined the relationship between braking joint kinetic and
89 kinematics of the PFC with 180° COD performance. Furthermore, as the mod505 and tra505
90 comprises of linear running prior to and following the COD (35), faster approach velocities
91 have been identified as factors associated with faster completion times (29, 41). **Jones et al.**
92 **(29) reported eccentrically stronger (knee extensor) female soccer players during a 180° COD**
93 **task demonstrated greater approach velocities at PFC touch-down, and demonstrated greater**
94 **reductions in velocity and greater PFC braking characteristics, such as peak and mean HBF,**
95 **which facilitated faster performance.** As such, it appears that if greater reductions in velocity
96 can be achieved over PFC from faster entry velocities, through greater PFC dominant braking
97 strategies, this may facilitate faster 180° COD performance. Consequently, further research is
98 needed that investigates the biomechanical determinants of 180° COD speed performance by

99 considering the velocity profile over key instances of the COD (i.e. PFC and FFC) and
100 examining the **lower-limb and trunk** kinetic and kinematic determinants.

101 The aim of this study, therefore, was to investigate the **lower-limb and trunk**
102 biomechanical determinants of 180° COD performance during the mod505 and tra505 by
103 conducting three-dimensional (3D) and GRF analysis over the PFC and FFC. **Conducting such**
104 **research into the technical and mechanical determinants of faster COD may assist in the**
105 **development of more effective 180° turning coaching guidelines and strength and conditioning**
106 **programmes.** It was hypothesized that faster 180° COD performance would be associated with
107 greater PFC braking forces, greater HPFs in shorter GCTs, greater approach velocities and
108 reductions in velocity, a more horizontally orientated force vector, and greater pelvic and
109 **internal foot progression angles.**

110 **METHODS**

111 Experimental approach to the problem

112 This study used a mixed, cross-sectional design to determine the relationship between COD
113 biomechanics and mod505 and tra505 performance (completion time) following an associative
114 strategy. In addition, a between-subject, comparative design was used to explore differences in
115 COD biomechanics between faster (top 33%, $n = 20$) and slower (bottom 33%, $n = 20$) subjects,
116 similar to previous research (9, 41). Subjects performed six mod505 and tra505 trials from their
117 right leg (Figure 1). 3D motion and GRF analysis was used to explore the joint kinetic,
118 kinematic, and GRF determinants of performance. Pearson's and Spearman's correlations were
119 used to explore the relationships between biomechanical variables and COD completion time.
120 Independent T-tests and Hedges' g effect sizes were conducted between faster (top 20) and
121 slower (bottom 20) performers to explore differences in biomechanical variables, similar to
122 previous research (9).

123 Subjects

124 A minimum sample size of 16 subjects was determined from an *a priori* power analysis using
125 G*Power (Version 3.1, University of Dusseldorf, Germany) (16). This was based upon a
126 previously reported correlation value of 0.757 (GCT to completion time) (25), a power of 0.95,
127 and type 1 error or alpha level 0.05. As such, 61 male athletes from multiple sports (soccer,
128 rugby, and cricket) (mean \pm SD; age: 20.7 ± 3.8 years, height: 1.77 ± 0.06 m, mass: $74.7 \pm$
129 10.0 kg) participated in this study. For inclusion in the study, all subjects had played their
130 respective sport for a minimum of 5 years and regularly performed 1 game and 2 structured
131 skill-based sessions per week. All subjects were free from injury and none of the subjects had
132 suffered prior severe knee injury such as a knee ligament injury. At the time of testing, subjects
133 were currently in-season (competition phase). The investigation was approved by the
134 institutional ethics review board, and all subjects were informed of the benefits and risks of the
135 investigation prior to signing an institutionally approved consent and parental assent
136 documents to participate in the study.

137

138 Procedures

139 Prior to maximal COD speed tasks, subjects performed a 5-minute warm up consisting of
140 jogging, self-selected dynamic stretching, and familiarisation trials of the mod505 and tra505
141 (four per task performed submaximally at 75% of perceived maximum effort) (8).

142 Mod505 and tra505 COD assessments

143 Subjects performed six mod505 trials and then after 5 minutes' rest performed six tra505 trials
144 (Figure 1). All COD trials were performed on the right leg. The mod505 and tra505 have been
145 described previously (7, 12, 13), thus a brief overview is provided here. Testing took place in
146 the human performance laboratory on an indoor track (Mondo, SportsFlex, 10 mm; Mondo

147 America Inc., Mondo, Summit, NJ, USA). For all tasks, subjects adopted a two-point stance
148 0.5 m behind the start line, to prevent early triggering of the timing gates, and sprinted ‘as fast
149 as possible’ in a straight line to the turning point before changing direction 180° and exiting
150 and reaccelerating to the finish line (Figure 1.). Each trial was interspersed with two minutes’
151 rest. If the subject slid, turned prematurely, or missed the force platform(s), the trial was
152 discarded and subsequently another trial was performed after 2 minutes’ rest. Completion time
153 (recorded to the nearest 0.001 second) was measured using sets of single beam Brower timing
154 lights (Draper, UT, USA) that were set at approximate hip height for all subject, to ensure that
155 only one body part (such as the lower torso) breaks the beam (49).

156 ***Insert Figure 1 about here***

157 The 3D motion and GRF analysis procedures were based on previously published
158 protocols (8, 26, 29), thus only a brief overview is provided. Prior to the COD tasks, reflective
159 markers (14 mm spheres) were placed on bony landmarks of each subject by the lead researcher
160 (8, 26, 29). Each subject wore a four-marker ‘cluster set’ (four retroreflective markers attached
161 to a lightweight rigid plastic shell) on the right and left thigh and shin which approximated the
162 motion of these segments during the dynamic trials. All subjects wore lycra shorts and
163 standardised footwear (Balance W490, New Balance, Boston, MA, USA) to control for shoe–
164 surface interface.

165 Data analysis

166 3D motions of these markers were collected during the COD trials over the PFC and FFC using
167 10 Qualisys Oqus 7 (Gothenburg, Sweden) infrared cameras (240 Hz). The GRFs were
168 simultaneously collected from two 600 mm × 900 mm AMTI (Advanced Mechanical
169 Technology, Inc, Watertown, MA, USA) force platforms (Model number: 600900) embedded
170 into the running track sampling at 1200 Hz (Figure 1). Motion and force data were

171 simultaneously collected and synchronised through Qualisys Track Manager software
172 (Qualisys, version 2.16 (Build 3520), Gothenburg, Sweden) (Figure 1). Penultimate foot
173 contact (PFC) was defined as the second last foot contact with the ground before moving into
174 a new intended direction, and the FFC was defined as the phase during a pivot when an
175 individual makes contact with the ground and initiates movement into a different direction (9).

176 From a standing trial, a 6 degrees of freedom kinematic model of the lower extremity
177 and trunk was created for each subject (scaled for body mass and height), including pelvis,
178 thigh, shank, and foot using Visual 3D software (C-motion, version 6.01.12, Germantown,
179 USA). This kinematic model was used to quantify the motion at the hip, knee, and ankle joints
180 using a Cardan angle sequence x-y-z (42). The local coordinate system was defined at the
181 proximal joint center for each segment. A static trial position was collected for each subject
182 which designated the subject's neutral (anatomical zero) alignment, and subsequent kinematic
183 and kinetic measures were related back to this position. Segmental inertial characteristics were
184 estimated for each subject (6). This model utilised a CODA pelvis orientation to define the
185 location of the hip joint center (3). The knee and ankle joint centers were defined as the mid-
186 point of the line between lateral and medial markers.

187 The trials were time normalised for each subject to 101 data points with each point
188 representing 1% of the weight acceptance or push-off phase (i.e. 0 to 100% of weight
189 acceptance) of the turn. Initial contact (touch-down) was defined as the instant of ground
190 contact that the vertical GRF was higher than 20 N, and end of contact (toe-off) was defined
191 as the point where the vertical GRF subsided past 20 N (25, 27). The weight acceptance phase
192 was defined as the instant of initial contact to the point of maximum knee flexion (25, 27), and
193 the push-off phase (propulsive phase) was defined as the period from maximum knee flexion
194 to toe-off. Lower-limb joint moments were calculated using an inverse dynamics approach (47)
195 through Visual 3D software and were defined as external moments and normalised to body

196 mass. Using the pipeline function in Visual 3D, joint coordinate (marker) and force data were
197 smoothed Butterworth low-pass digital filter with cut-off frequencies of 15 Hz and 25 Hz,
198 based on *a priori* residual analysis (48), visual inspection of motion data, and recommendations
199 by Roewer et al. (38).

200 Change of direction kinetic and kinematic variables

201 A full description of dependent variables along with definitions, abbreviations, and calculations
202 are provided in Table 1. Briefly, joint moments were normalised relative to body mass and
203 calculated over the PFC and FFC. Lower-limb joint and trunk angles were also calculated. GRF
204 braking and propulsive characteristics were normalised relative to body weight, with vertical,
205 anterior-posterior, and medio-lateral corresponding to Fz, Fx, and Fy, respectively. GRF
206 variables were calculated as the peak and mean. Horizontal COM velocity profiles over key
207 instances of the COD were calculated as described previously (29).

208 ***Insert Table 1 about here***

209 A subset of the sample (n = 10) performed the tra505 on two separate occasions
210 separated by 7 days to establish between-session reliability. The reliability measures for COD
211 biomechanics data is presented in **Table 1 of supplemental digital content 1**, but all joint angle
212 (Intraclass correlation coefficient [ICC] = 0.858-0.953, coefficient of variation [CV] = 2.9-
213 5.3%), joint moment (ICC = 0.743-0.888, CV = 6.9-14.9%), and GRF (ICC = 0.717-0.966, CV
214 = 3.6-7.3%) variables demonstrated high and acceptable reliability (i.e. $ICC \geq 0.70$, $CV \leq 15\%$)
215 (2, 19). Completion times also demonstrated high reliability (ICC = 0.935, CV% = 1.4). A
216 minimum of four trials was used for the analysis for each subject based on visual inspect of
217 motion files (26) and the average of individual trial peaks for each variable were calculated as
218 recommended by previous research for discrete point analysis (8).

219 Statistical Analyses

220 All statistical analyses were performed in SPSS v 25 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and
221 Microsoft Excel (version 2016, Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA, USA). Normality was
222 inspected for all variables using a Shapiro-Wilk's test. To explore the biomechanical
223 determinants of completion time, Pearson's (for parametric data) or Spearman's (for non-
224 parametric data) correlations were used. Correlations were evaluated as follows: trivial (0.00-
225 0.09), small (0.10 –0.29), moderate (0.30 – 0.49), large (0.50 – 0.69), very large (0.70 – 0.89),
226 nearly perfect (0.90 – 0.99), and perfect (1.00) (24). Moreover, comparisons in COD
227 biomechanics between the faster and slower (top third vs. bottom third completion times), were
228 also performed using independent sample t-tests (parametric) or Mann-Whitney U tests (non-
229 parametric), similar to previous research (9, 41). To explore the magnitude of differences
230 between groups, Hedges' *g* ESs with 95% confidence intervals were calculated as described
231 previously (22), and interpreted as trivial (< 0.19), small (0.20 – 0.59), moderate (0.60 – 1.19),
232 large (1.20 – 1.99), very large (2.0 – 4.0), and extremely large (>4.0) (24). Statistical
233 significance was defined $p \leq 0.05$ for all tests, with *p* values Bonferroni corrected to control for
234 type 1 error.

235 RESULTS

236 Descriptive statistics for mod505 and tra505 COD biomechanics variables are presented in
237 **Table 2 of supplemental digital content 2**. Completion times for the mod505 and tra505 were
238 2.728 ± 0.160 s and 2.472 ± 0.146 s, respectively.

239 The correlation values with 95% confidence intervals between COD biomechanical
240 variables and mod505 and tra505 completion times are presented in Table 2. Faster mod505
241 completion times were very largely associated with a greater horizontally orientated RPF
242 vector (Figure 2a), and greater horizontal to vertical peak and mean propulsive force ratios.

243 Additionally, greater PFC horizontal to vertical peak and mean braking force ratios, greater
244 PFC peak hip flexion angles, greater PFC peak knee flexion angles (Figure 2b), and more
245 horizontally directed PFC peak RBF vectors were largely associated with faster mod505
246 performance. Faster mod505 completion times were also moderately associated with greater
247 FFC peak and mean HPFs, **shorter** FFC GCTs, greater PFC peak ankle dorsi-flexion angles,
248 greater PFC and FFC forward trunk inclination angle at IC, greater PFC trunk displacement,
249 and medial trunk flexion at IC.

250 A very large association was observed between tra505 completion times and PFC
251 horizontal to vertical mean braking force ratio. Faster tra505 completion times were largely
252 associated with a greater horizontally orientated RPF vector (Figure 2c), greater horizontal to
253 vertical peak and mean propulsive ratios, and greater PFC horizontal to vertical peak braking
254 force ratios. Faster tra505 completion times were largely associated with greater peak and mean
255 HPFs, greater horizontally orientated PFC and FFC RBF vectors, and **shorter** approach times.
256 Faster tra505 performance was also moderately associated with **shorter** FFC GCTs, greater
257 PFC peak hip flexion angles, greater PFC peak knee flexion angles (Figure 2d), greater PFC
258 peak ankle dorsi-flexion angles, greater PFC trunk inclination angles at IC, greater medial trunk
259 lean at IC, greater FFC mean HBFs, greater mean RPFs, greater approach velocities and
260 velocity at FFC touch-down, and greater reductions in velocity over the FFC.

261 ***Insert Figure 2 about here***

262 ***Insert Table 2 about here***

263 Fast versus slow comparisons in mod505 COD biomechanics are presented in Table 3 which
264 contain descriptives, *p* values, and ESs with 95% CIs. Significant and extremely large
265 differences were observed for mod505 completion times. Faster athletes demonstrated a
266 significantly more horizontally orientated RPF vector, and greater peak and mean horizontal to

267 vertical propulsive force ratios, and PFC peak and mean horizontal to braking force ratios
268 compared to slower, with large to very large effect sizes. Faster athletes demonstrated
269 significantly greater PFC peak hip flexion angles, greater PFC peak knee flexion angles, and
270 greater PFC peak ankle dorsi-flexion angles compared to slower athletes, with moderate to
271 large effect sizes. Faster athletes produced significantly greater peak and mean HPFs in shorter
272 FFC GCTs, with moderate effect sizes, while also demonstrating more horizontally directed
273 PFC and FFC RBF vectors with large and moderate effect sizes, respectively. Faster athletes
274 displayed significantly greater PFC and FFC forward trunk inclinations angles at IC and PFC
275 trunk displacement compared to slower; all of which were classed as moderate differences.
276 Although not significantly different, faster athletes demonstrated greater pelvic rotation and
277 IFPAs compared to slower, with moderate effect sizes. No significant differences were
278 observed for sagittal plane joint moments and velocity profiles at key instances, with
279 differences classed as trivial to small.

280 Fast versus slow comparisons in tra505 COD biomechanics are presented in Table 4
281 which contain descriptives, *p* values, and ESs with 95% CIs. Significant and extremely large
282 differences were observed for tra505 completion times between faster and slower performers.
283 Faster athletes demonstrated a greater horizontally directed RPF vector, and greater peak and
284 mean horizontal to vertical propulsive ratios, and PFC peak and mean horizontal to braking
285 force ratios compared to slower, with moderate to very large effect sizes. Faster athletes
286 compared to slower athletes demonstrated significantly greater PFC peak hip, knee, and ankle
287 dorsi-flexion angles with moderate to large effect sizes. Faster athletes produced significantly
288 greater peak and mean HPFs in shorter GCTs, displayed greater FFC mean HBFs, and a more
289 horizontally orientated PFC and FFC RBF vector, with moderate to large effect sizes. Faster
290 athletes compared to slower demonstrated significantly faster approach times, greater approach
291 velocities and FFC touch-down velocities, and greater reductions in velocity over key instances

292 of the PFC and FFC, which were classed as moderate to large differences. No significant
293 differences were observed between faster and slower athletes for sagittal plane joint moments
294 and pelvic and IFPA, with small effect sizes.

295 ***Insert Table 3 about here***

296 ***Insert Table 4 about here***

297 **DISCUSSION**

298 The aim of this study was to investigate the whole-body biomechanical determinants of 180°
299 COD performance during the mod505 and tra505. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first
300 study to examine the whole-body biomechanical determinants of the mod505 and tra505 in a
301 large male sample while also examining the role of PFC. The primary findings were that key
302 kinetic and kinematic differences were demonstrated between faster and slower COD
303 performers (Tables 2-4), with faster athletes displaying greater peak and mean HPFs in shorter
304 GCTs, more horizontally directed peak RPF and RBF vectors over the PFC and FFC, greater
305 horizontal to vertical mean and peak braking and propulsive force ratios, greater FFC HBFs,
306 greater approach velocities and displayed greater reductions in velocity over key instances of
307 the COD. Additionally, faster performers displayed greater PFC hip, knee, and ankle dorsi-
308 flexion angles, greater PFC and FFC trunk inclination angles, greater medial trunk
309 flexion and greater pelvic rotation and IFPAs (Tables 2-4). These aforementioned variables
310 were also moderately to very largely associated with faster performance (Table 2), supporting
311 the study hypotheses.

312 The majority of studies that have investigated the determinants of 180° COD performance
313 have investigated GRF (9, 17, 41) and found faster performance was associated with greater
314 peak HPFs and short GCTs (9, 17), while Spiteri et al. (41) found faster athletes displayed

315 greater VBF and VPFs in short GCTs, but did not examine horizontal force. Substantiating the
316 results of previous research (9, 17), faster performance during the mod505 and tra505 were
317 moderately to largely associated with greater peak and mean HPFs (Table 2) in short FFC
318 GCTs, while fast versus slow comparisons revealed moderate differences in these variables too
319 (Tables 3-4). Conversely, VPF was not significantly associated with faster performance, and
320 in fact greater mean and peak horizontal to vertical propulsive ratios were largely to very
321 largely associated with faster performance (Table 2). This result is similar to Welch et al. (46)
322 who also observed greater horizontal to vertical concentric impulse ratios were associated with
323 faster 110° cutting performance, which highlights not only the importance of the magnitude of
324 HPF, but the proportion of HPF relative to VPF for faster COD performance. The finding that
325 shorter FFC GCTs is associated with faster COD is unsurprising because athletes will spend
326 less time during the braking and propulsive phase (41), ultimately spending less time
327 performing the COD (9, 41), and may utilise the stretch shortening cycle to a greater effect
328 (46). Additionally, the greater propulsive forces in the horizontal direction will increase
329 impulse, thus resulting in greater changes in momentum and subsequent exit velocity in the
330 horizontal direction (5, 32). Stronger athletes have been shown to produce greater braking and
331 propulsive during CODs (29, 40), and thus will partially influence an athletes ability produce
332 high and rapid levels of braking and propulsive forces. Nevertheless, these findings support the
333 notion that applying high and rapid levels of HPF relative to vertical force in short GCTs is
334 necessary for maximising 180° COD performance.

335 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to calculate the RBF and RPF during a
336 180° COD task while also calculating the orientation of the force vector. Interestingly, mean
337 and peak RPF demonstrated lower associations and lower effect size differences between faster
338 and slower athletes compared to HPF (Tables 2-4). Notably, however, faster performance was
339 largely associated with a more horizontally directed PFC and FFC RBF vector, attributed to

340 the greater horizontal to vertical peak and mean braking force ratios observed, which were also
341 strongly associated with faster performance and demonstrated by faster athletes (Tables 2-4).
342 Research into sprinting GRFs has revealed faster athletes are technically more efficient at
343 applying a more horizontally orientated force vector (31, 32). The present study confirms that
344 180° COD performance, too, is also dependent on the technical ability to express a more
345 horizontally orientated braking and propulsive force vector (Tables 2-4), explaining 30 to 60%
346 of variance of COD performance. This finding can be explained because a more horizontally
347 directed force vector should help facilitate more effective braking and net deceleration
348 (negative acceleration) (10) and reductions in velocity of the COM which have been associated
349 with faster 180° COD performance (29). Additionally, trivial to small differences were
350 observed between faster and slower performers in terms of RBF and RPF, whereas differences
351 in HPF were statistically significant and moderate. However, it should be noted that faster
352 athletes displayed a more horizontally orientated RPF with large to very large effect sizes
353 observed (Tables 3-4). This finding is important because for the same RPF applied into the
354 ground, a greater horizontal to vertical propulsive ratio (i.e. greater horizontally orientated
355 force vector) should result in a greater net horizontal acceleration (32). Thus, these findings
356 confirm not only the importance braking and propulsive force magnitudes, but the technical
357 application and orientation of the force vector for maximising 180° COD performance.

358 The PFC is an emerging area of research given its role in deceleration and sharp COD
359 performance (9, 10, 29). Previously, it has been shown that greater peak PFC HBFs were
360 associated with mod505 performance (9, 17); however, this result was not observed in the
361 present study. No significant association was found for any PFC peak or mean braking force
362 variable in relation to faster performance, while fast versus slow performance comparisons also
363 revealed non-significant trivial to small differences in the PFC braking joint moments and peak
364 and mean braking forces (Tables 2-4). Although not significantly different, faster performers

365 demonstrated similar mean RBFs over slightly longer PFC GCTs (small effect size) (Tables 3-
366 4). Therefore, hypothetically, faster performers may have displayed greater braking impulse to
367 facilitate a greater change in momentum and thus greater reductions in velocity. Importantly,
368 however, faster performers displayed greater (moderate to large ES) hip, knee, and ankle dorsi-
369 flexion angles, and these variables were also moderately to largely associated with faster COD
370 performance (Table 2). Theoretically, the greater PFC triple flexion lowers the athlete's COM
371 which increases stability and could put the athlete in a more technically effective position to
372 produce a more horizontally orientated RBF vector, prolonging PFC GCT duration thus
373 increasing braking impulse, while enabling a more effective body position for the FFC drive-
374 off phase (10). Though it is worth noting that an athlete's ability to adopt favourable body
375 postures associated with faster 180° turning will be underpinned by their physical capacity (11,
376 29, 34, 40). Nevertheless, a PFC braking strategy with high hip, knee, and ankle-dorsi flexion
377 appears to be an effective strategy for faster 180°COD performance and should therefore be
378 encouraged when coaching 180° turning technique.

379 A novel aspect of the present study was inspecting COM velocity over key instances of the
380 PFC and FFC. Previously, Jones et al. (29) found a moderate relationship between PFC
381 approach velocity and 180° COD performance, and eccentrically stronger athletes displayed
382 greater velocity reductions over the PFC and FFC which contributed to faster COD
383 performance. For the 505 in the present study, faster athletes displayed greater PFC approach
384 velocities and greater velocity reduction over key instances of the COD (PFC and FFC) with
385 moderate effect sizes observed (Tables 2-4). Although strength capacity was not examined in
386 the current study, it could be speculated the faster athletes may have had a superior eccentric
387 strength capacity which permits more effective braking and reductions in velocity from faster
388 approach velocities (20, 29), and enables athletes to adopt favourable postures for faster 180°
389 turning (11, 29, 34, 40). Further research is required that confirms whether stronger athletes

390 display greater braking characteristics and favourable drive-off mechanics associated with
391 faster performance. Nonetheless, these findings highlight the ability to exhibit greater changes
392 in velocity from faster approach velocities is paramount for faster tra505 performance.

393 Trunk stability has also been suggested to be a factor linked to faster COD performance
394 (30, 39, 46). Sasaki et al. (39) found faster athletes during the mod505 demonstrated smaller
395 forward trunk angular displacements ($r = 0.61, p < 0.05$), and also suggested a potential optimal
396 lateral trunk inclination may exist. Conversely, in the present study, faster performance was
397 associated with greater PFC and FFC trunk forward inclination angles and displacements
398 (Tables 2-4). It is unknown why an opposing finding was found to Sasaki et al. (39) but it is
399 speculated that a greater forward trunk inclination could be used to lower the COM and be a
400 by-product of faster approach velocities. Interestingly, and most likely more important for
401 faster 180° COD performance, was faster athletes displayed greater (small to moderate ES)
402 medial trunk flexion (i.e. leaning towards the intended direction of travel) and demonstrated
403 greater pelvic rotation and internal foot progression angles (i.e. pelvis and foot rotated towards
404 intended direction of travel) (Table 2-4), as illustrated in Figure 3. By emphasizing greater
405 whole-body pre-rotation and medial trunk lean during the FFC, the athlete is more effectively
406 aligning their COM towards the intended direction of travel and minimizing their COM
407 displacement relative to their base of support, and the COM will not have to travel as much
408 distance relative to the turning line, thus positively contributing to faster performance (10, 21).
409 Consequently, coaching greater whole-body rotation (i.e. trunk, pelvis, lower-limb) and medial
410 trunk lean could be an effective strategy to improve 180° COD performance (Figure 3A).
411 However, practitioners should acknowledge that greater internal foot progression angles are
412 associated with increased knee abduction moments (10, 27), and thus be aware of the
413 performance-injury trade-off when coaching this technique.

414

Insert Figure 3 about here

415 While this study improves our understanding of the biomechanical determinants of the
416 mod505 and tra505, the study does have a several limitations which should be noted. The
417 present study only examined male athletes from soccer, cricket, and rugby, thus caution is
418 advised generalizing the findings to different sexes and athletic postulations. Further research
419 is needed that investigates the biomechanical determinants of 505 performance in female
420 athletes and athletes from different athletic populations. The biomechanics of FFC and PFC
421 were inspected; however, COD is a multistep action and deceleration is most likely going to
422 occur over a series of steps, especially for the traditional 505 where greater approach velocities
423 are attained (10, 18). Future research should therefore consider inspecting the role of pre-
424 penultimate foot contact and examining its role in facilitating deceleration during the tra505.

425 It should be noted that the present study focused on the determinants of mod505 and tra505
426 performance which is pre-planned. Although investigating pre-planned COD was the aim of
427 this study, coaches and practitioners should be cautious applying the present study's findings
428 and technical and coaching recommendations for unplanned (agility) 180° CODs. For example,
429 researchers have shown differences in braking strategies between pre-planned and unplanned
430 180° COD (28), and it is argued that the postures and associated mechanics adopted for faster
431 pre-planned 505 are performed to "pass the test". The mechanics adopted during preplanned
432 505 tasks are most likely going to differ to unanticipated 180° CODs that are performed in
433 multidirectional sports, such as turning in response to a ball or opponent. However, further
434 research is needed to confirm this contention. Nevertheless, although the mod505 and tra505
435 differ in terms of approach distance and subsequent approach velocities, technical and
436 mechanical determinants were similar between tasks (Table 2). Faster athletes adopt similar
437 turning strategies between tasks (Tables 2-4); thus, practitioners can consider using similar
438 technical guidelines presented in this study for 180° turning from low- and high-entry
439 velocities.

440 PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

441 In light of these factors associated with faster performance, coaches and practitioners should
442 consider developing their athletes' ability to express force rapidly using resistance training and
443 horizontally orientated lower-limb plyometrics (i.e. broad jumps, bounds, horizontal hopping)
444 (1, 5, 11), and encourage 180° turning strategies which maximise and emphasize a more
445 horizontally orientated braking and propulsive force vector. Additionally, faster approach
446 velocities and velocity reductions over the PFC and FFC were also linked to faster
447 performance. Previous research has shown that eccentrically stronger athletes can approach
448 faster and display greater reductions in velocity over the PFC and FFC during 180° turns (29),
449 and it is central that athletes have the physical capacity in order to adopt the favourable body
450 postures associated with faster COD performance. Therefore, developing athletes' strength
451 capacity, particularly eccentric strength, is a recommended training strategy. Finally, faster
452 athletes demonstrated greater PFC hip, knee, and ankle dorsi-flexion angles, which mostly
453 likely contributed to increased COM lowering and facilitating a more horizontally orientated
454 RBF vector, while faster athletes also displayed greater whole-body rotation and medial trunk
455 lean over the 8FFC. Consequently, coaches and practitioners are recommended to coach a 180°
456 turning strategy which emphasizes high PFC triple flexion to lower the COM, facilitate an
457 effective braking position, increase braking impulse, and emphasize a horizontally directed
458 force-vector; while also encouraging whole-body (i.e. trunk, pelvis, lower-limb) rotation
459 towards the intended direction of travel to minimise COM displacement and effectively align
460 the COM.

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