

1 **The Relationship between Isometric Mid-Thigh Pull Variables and Athletic**  
2 **Performance Measures: Empirical Study of English Professional Soccer**  
3 **Players and Meta-analysis of Extant Literature.**

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27 Word count: 5,489 words (not including abstract, tables, figures and reference list)

28 **Abstract**

29 BACKGROUND: There is currently limited evidence available to support the use of the isometric mid-  
30 thigh pull (IMTP) within professional soccer. The aim of this study was to analyse the association  
31 between IMTP variables, with common markers of athletic performance capability.

32 METHODS: Eleven professional development soccer players (age:  $20 \pm 2$  years, stature:  $1.82 \pm 0.10$  m,  
33 mass:  $76.4 \pm 12.8$  kg) performed IMTP, 5 m and 10 m accelerations, maximal sprint speed (MSS),  
34 countermovement jump (CMJ), and the 505 change of direction test (COD).

35 RESULTS: Relative and absolute Peak force (PF) and force at 50, 100, 150 and 200 ms values were  
36 measured during the IMTP. Relative F150, F200, PF displayed large to very large correlations with MSS  
37 ( $r = 0.51$ ,  $r = 0.66$ , and  $r = 0.76$  respectively), while absolute PF also displayed a large correlation with  
38 MSS ( $r = 0.57$ ). Relative and absolute PF showed large correlations with CMJ height ( $r = 0.54$  and  $r =$   
39  $0.55$  respectively). Relative F150 and F200 highlighted large correlations with COD ability ( $r = -0.68$   
40 and  $r = -0.60$  respectively). Relative F200 and PF had a large negative correlation with 10m acceleration  
41 ( $r = -0.55$  and  $r = -0.53$  respectively).

42 CONCLUSION: This study provides an important contribution to knowledge within the area of IMTP  
43 testing in professional soccer by evidencing the prominence of the isometric force generating capacity  
44 as an underpinning factor in relation to athletic capability.

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46 **Keywords:** Football; Force; Strength; Training

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## 51 INTRODUCTION

52 Strength and conditioning (S&C) coaches in soccer are tasked with improving physical performance  
53 and minimising injury risk for the players they work with. As such gym-based strength training is a  
54 staple in the programmes of professional soccer<sup>1</sup>. A key aim of this type of training is to improve the  
55 ability to generate force via the neuromuscular system<sup>2</sup>, referred to as the force generating capacity  
56 (FGC). Therefore S&C coaches must be able to practically and accurately quantify the FGC of the  
57 players they work with in order to understand whether training interventions have been successful  
58 for this purpose<sup>3</sup>. However, measuring FGC within professional soccer is challenging because of the  
59 density of matches<sup>4</sup>, player's physical competencies<sup>5</sup>, and cultural resistance<sup>1</sup>. The isometric mid-thigh  
60 pull (IMTP) test may provide solutions to these challenges due to its validity, reliability, simplicity, and  
61 low level of inherent risk<sup>6</sup>. The isometric nature of the test ensures there is a limited skill  
62 requirement<sup>18</sup>, with substantially less muscle damage exhibited post-test when compared to exercises  
63 containing an eccentric component<sup>21</sup>. This is practically essential within professional soccer in order  
64 to allow for increased testing opportunities during congested fixture schedules. Additionally, it can  
65 provide the S&C coach with insight into specific physical qualities of players regardless of injury history  
66 and mobility restrictions<sup>18</sup>. This is not possible with more commonly used methods, such as the back  
67 squat, which requires a good level of technical proficiency<sup>22</sup> and no contraindications. Consequently,  
68 the IMTP is more practical within an applied environment across a whole squad.

69 The IMTP test is an assessment of peak force (PF) production which is positively correlated with 1RM  
70 tests in dynamic exercises such as the squat ( $r = 0.97, P < 0.05$  and  $r = 0.72, P < 0.05$ ) (7,8), deadlift ( $r$   
71  $= 0.88, P < 0.05$ )<sup>9</sup>, and power clean ( $r = 0.57, P < 0.05$ )<sup>10</sup>. IMTP PF has also displayed moderate to large  
72 correlations with both 20 m acceleration ( $r = 0.69, P < 0.01$ )<sup>11</sup> and jumping height ( $r = 0.45, P < 0.05$ )<sup>12</sup>  
73 in university athletes, highlighting possible diagnostic capabilities of the IMTP as a test for S&C  
74 coaches.

75 Important performance demands such as accelerating, sprinting, changing direction, and jumping  
76 occur within limited time constraints during soccer matches. Typical ground contact times (GCT)  
77 during maximum sprinting last <100 ms<sup>13</sup>, <200 ms during the acceleration phase<sup>14</sup>, and <500 ms  
78 during changes of direction<sup>15</sup>. As such, the ability to be able to exert large forces rapidly is also  
79 considered important in professional soccer players. Therefore, the ability to measure rapid force  
80 production capability in players may be important in order to provide insight as to the efficacy of  
81 training interventions for individual players. The IMTP does not solely inform on maximum FGC, as  
82 vertical ground reaction forces (vGRF) can also be calculated through the use of the force plate.  
83 Consequently, the resultant force-time curve enables the assessment of PF<sup>16</sup> and rapid force  
84 production<sup>17</sup>. The assessment of both PF and time-specific force from the IMTP, have been shown to  
85 be valid and reliable measurements of FGC<sup>18</sup>. This addition to the performance testing battery can  
86 highlight players who may be strong (high PF values), but 'slow' (have low rates of force development  
87 e.g. low force at 0–250 ms), or vice versa<sup>3</sup>. This data is important because it may help coaches provide  
88 more focussed training interventions which are designed to target a specific point on the force-time  
89 curve<sup>19</sup>. The force applied at these different time points of the IMTP have been shown to be associated  
90 with proxy measures of athletic performance. For example, the force attained at 100 ms (F100) has  
91 exhibited a moderate inverse relationship ( $r = -0.54$  [95% CI = -0.73 to -0.27]) with 10 m acceleration  
92 capability in professional rugby league players<sup>20</sup>. Additionally, Thomas et al.<sup>11</sup> also reported moderate  
93 inverse correlations between F100, 5–20 m acceleration time ( $r = -0.51$  [95% CI = -0.81 to 0.03] and –  
94 0.54 [95% CI = -0.83 to -0.01], respectively) and 505 change of direction speed ( $r = -0.57$  [95% CI = -  
95 0.84 to -0.06]). Additionally, whether IMTP should be expressed relative, or allometrically scaled, to  
96 body mass is something which requires consideration as relationships between absolute and relative  
97 IMTP characteristics show varying relationships with proxies of sport performance<sup>11,20, 24, 25</sup>.

98 Despite the quantity of literature exploring IMTP and its relationship to markers of athletic  
99 performance<sup>6, 11,12,20, 24, 25</sup>, at present there is paucity of research within the field of professional soccer.  
100 The current paper aims to bridge this gap in the research in order to add to the cumulative data on

101 this topic and better inform the soccer S&C coach when identifying their physical profiling options.  
102 Few studies have examined the IMTP within soccer specifically, and those that have were conducted  
103 in youth <sup>3, 28, 29</sup>. Brownlee et al.<sup>3</sup> explored differences between IMTP ability in professional academy  
104 and non-professional academy youth soccer players finding greater PF levels in the academy group  
105 when compared to the non-academy players. Morris et al.<sup>29</sup> empirically identified differences between  
106 IMTP ability and maturation status, confirming anecdotal evidence that the more physically mature  
107 players are, the higher PF values they can achieve. Further, in a large sample of elite youth soccer  
108 players reported relationships between PF and 10m ( $r = -0.61$  [95% CI = -0.68 to -0.53]) and 30m ( $r =$   
109  $-0.75$  [95% CI = -0.80 to -0.70]) sprint times, countermovement jump height ( $r = 0.62$  [95% CI = 0.54 to  
110 0.69]), and both right ( $r = 0.32$  [95% CI = 0.21 to 0.41]) and left ( $r = 0.58$  [95% CI = 0.50 to 0.65]) change  
111 of direction speed. However, in none of these studies examined time-specific force measures. Whilst  
112 these studies made welcome advances in IMTP research within soccer, further research is required to  
113 inform S&C coaches with evidence-based knowledge that is relevant to specific coaching contexts; in  
114 particular for elite adult soccer athletes. Examining associations between IMTP ability and athletic  
115 performance variables will inform coaches regarding the potential value of IMTP testing in soccer.  
116 Therefore, the aim of this study was to describe the relationship between PF, and force at 50 ms (F50),  
117 100ms (F100), 150 ms (F150), and 200 ms (F200) derived from the IMTP, with common performance  
118 indicators used in professional soccer in a sample of elite soccer athletes. Further, with the exception  
119 of the large study of Morris et al., given that previous estimates of the correlations between IMTP  
120 measures and proxy measures of athletic performance have been relatively imprecise in part due to  
121 the small samples typical of working with sporting populations, we report an exploratory meta-  
122 analysis combining our results with previous findings in order to provide more general estimates of  
123 these relationships.

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126 **METHODS:**

127 Experimental Approach

128 Testing occurred in the final two weeks of a 7-week pre-season mesocycle, over two testing sessions  
129 separated by 7 days. Both testing sessions were performed in the morning after a day off and before  
130 any training took place to ensure players were rested, to minimise any diurnal effect, and to ensure  
131 that testing fitted in with the regular squad training programme.

132 The first testing day was completed to determine PF and force at given time periods (50 ms, 100 ms,  
133 150 ms and 200 ms) during the IMTP, and maximal sprinting speed recorded over 65 m. The second  
134 testing day included a counter movement jump (CMJ) to determine maximal jump height, an  
135 acceleration test with times recorded at 5 m and 10 m, and change of direction (COD) ability via the  
136 505 COD test (COD505). If participants achieved their best score on their final attempt of any of the  
137 tests, they were allowed subsequent attempts until no further improvement was made.

138 Participants:

139 Eleven professional soccer players (age:  $20 \pm 2$  years, stature:  $1.82 \pm 0.10$  m, mass:  $76.4 \pm 12.8$  kg) who  
140 played for an English Championship under 23's team participated in this study. This was a convenience  
141 sample and limited by the players which were available for participation. Following university ethical  
142 approval and in accordance with the university's ethical procedures for research, participants were  
143 briefed on the benefits and potential risk factors of the study and provided written informed consent.  
144 All testing was assessed by the lead researcher who is a NSCA certified strength and conditioning  
145 specialist. All players had been screened by the club's medical team and were deemed fit to  
146 participate. Each of the participants were familiar with all testing procedures having performed all  
147 procedures on two previous separate occasions as part of the club's performance testing battery.  
148 Given the primary purpose of this study was to describe the relationships between IMTP measures  
149 and proxies of sport performance, we conducted a sensitivity analysis to examine the precision of

150 interval estimates which would be achieved at this sample size across a range of correlation  
151 coefficients (-1, 1), and for a range of compatibility (confidence) levels (50%, 80%, and 95%). The  
152 widths of these interval estimates can be seen in the figure in the accompanying supplementary  
153 materials (see <https://osf.io/hzwg5/>). Given the obvious lack of precision for estimates due to the  
154 sample size, as noted, we also aimed to combine the results from our sample with those of other  
155 studies<sup>11, 12, 20, 24, 25, 29, 30, 31</sup>. This resulted in the inclusion of data from 510 participants (including  
156 collegiate athletes across a range of sports, elite soccer youth athletes, professional rugby league  
157 players, and professional soccer players) across 9 studies (including the present one).

### 158 Isometric Mid-Thigh Pull

159 To contribute to testing reliability, all participants performed the same warm-up protocol as described  
160 by Guppy et al.,<sup>6</sup>. This consisted of bodyweight squats and lunges, low load mid-thigh pulls, moderate  
161 load mid-thigh pulls, and 3 x 3 s IMTP sub-maximal trials (50%, 75% & 90% perceived maximal effort).  
162 Force was measured using a portable force plates sampling at 1000 Hz (9286AA, Kistler, Switzerland),  
163 which were imbedded into a portable IMTP rack (Perform Better, UK).

164 The IMTP has been demonstrated to be a reliable measure of absolute peak force and absolute force-  
165 time generating capacity with a coefficient of variation (CV) of 3.2% (PF); 7.3% (F200); 8.6% (F150);  
166 9.6% (F100) and 5.7% (F50)<sup>15, 32</sup>. The IMTP protocol in the current study followed the standardised  
167 methodological guidelines for the test set out by Guppy et al.,<sup>6</sup>. Prior to testing, the bar height  
168 pertaining to the correct body posture was determined (knee angle = 125–145° and hip angle = 140–  
169 150°). The participants were secured to the bar using lifting straps to ensure grip strength was not a  
170 limiting factor on their ability to perform maximally<sup>17</sup>. The instructions given to the participants were  
171 standardised. Participants were told to; “push your feet into the ground as fast and as hard as  
172 possible”<sup>33</sup>. They were then told to remove the ‘slack’ from the bar by assuming the correct start  
173 position, with a subtle amount of tension applied to the bar before standing still and ready for further  
174 instruction. The researcher viewed the force response from the plates and waited until it was stable

175 with the pre-tension not <50 N above body mass<sup>34</sup>. Participants were then given an instruction of “3,  
176 2, 1, PULL” and strong verbal encouragement was given throughout all trials. Trials lasted ~3-5 s, or  
177 until a drop off in force was displayed on the force-time graph<sup>26</sup>. If a countermovement occurred prior  
178 to the pull, the test was discarded<sup>6</sup>. A minimum of three trials were performed by all participants, with  
179 1–2 min rest between trials. The force-time data was generated via ForceDecks software. All IMTP  
180 measures were examined both as absolute, and relative (i.e. normalised to body weight).

### 181 Maximal Sprint Speed Testing

182 All participants completed a standardised 15-min RAMP warm-up consisting of general dynamic  
183 movement patterns, lower body mobility exercises and finishing with explosive jumping and bounding  
184 exercises. This warm-up, along with the testing was completed on a grass training pitch on a dry day  
185 with the players wearing soccer boots. MSS was recorded from a 65 m sprint to replicate a typical box-  
186 to-box recovery sprint. Following the warm-up all participants completed 3 x maximal 65 m sprints  
187 with 4 min rest between each. Participants were instructed to ‘keep trying to accelerate until you  
188 reach the 65 m poles’ and to ‘run as fast as possible’, with loud encouragement given by the coaches  
189 throughout all of the trials. MSS was recorded using Catapult S5 GPS monitors (10 Hz), which were  
190 worn by the players. This device has been shown to be a valid (TEE = 1.19%) measurement of maximum  
191 velocity in field sport athletes<sup>35</sup>. The MSS chosen for analysis was the peak speed each player recorded  
192 during their 3 maximal sprints.

### 193 Countermovement Jump Testing

194 All participants performed the same standardised RAMP warm-up protocol as they did prior to the  
195 MSS testing. At the end of the 15-min warm-up protocol, participants completed 3 x CMJ’s and 3 x  
196 squat jumps each at >80% of maximal intensity with their hands on their hips. The CMJ testing in the  
197 current study was performed using portable force plates sampling at 1000 Hz (9286AA, Kistler,). Each  
198 participant performed 3 sets of 3 CMJ’s with a 1-min rest between each set. Instruction was  
199 standardised with all participants told to; ‘jump as high as you possibly can’ from a self-selected depth.



200 A valid repetition was one where there was the presence of a stable baseline for at least 1 s prior to  
201 the test. The participant's hands stayed on their hips throughout the jump, with no hip or knee flexion  
202 displayed while off the ground, and landed with their feet on the force plate in the same position as  
203 take-off. The lead researcher ensured correct technique was maintained throughout all repetitions,  
204 with incorrect technical repetitions discarded from the data collection and participants being asked to  
205 repeat the set. Jump height was estimated from flight-time via the ForceDecks software, which has  
206 displayed high reliability (CV = 3.8%) when performed without an arm-swing as in the current study<sup>36</sup>.

### 207 Acceleration Testing

208 The acceleration testing was performed after the CMJ testing on an indoor 4G pitch at the clubs  
209 training ground. All participants completed a subsequent 5-min potentiation phase as part of a 're-  
210 warm up' following the jumps. Timing gates (TCi system, Brower, USA) were placed at 0 m, 5 m and  
211 10 m. The timing gates used within this study have displayed excellent validity for acceleration testing  
212 over 10 m (CV = 1.13%)<sup>37</sup>. Participants started in a 2-point split stance, 30 cm behind the 0 m timing  
213 gate. Instruction was standardised for all participants with them being told to; 'Accelerate as fast as  
214 possible through the end timing gate'. All participants performed 3 sets of 1 x 10 m maximum  
215 acceleration with 2 min rest between each set. The fastest times were recorded for each subject at 5  
216 m and 10 m.

### 217 505 Change of Direction Testing

218 Following the completion of the acceleration testing, the participants completed the change of  
219 direction speed test. This was assessed via a 505 modified test on the same surface as the acceleration  
220 testing and using the same timing gate system (CV = 2.4%)<sup>38</sup>. Participants started in the 2-point split  
221 stance, 30 cm behind the 0 m timing gate, with a timing gate set up 5 m further forward. Participants  
222 were instructed to accelerate to the 5 m line and plant their preferred foot before turning 180° back  
223 to the start/finish line<sup>39</sup>. Instructions were standardised for all participants; 'get to the 5 m line and

224 back as fast as possible'. Each participant performed 3 trials with 2 min rest between each one. The  
225 fasted time for each participant was used in the analysis.

## 226 Statistical Analyses

227 Analysis of the dataset generated from our participants was performed such that inferential statistics  
228 were treated as highly unstable local descriptions of the relations between model assumption and  
229 data in order to acknowledge the inherent uncertainty in drawing generalised inferences from single  
230 and small samples<sup>40</sup>. To complement the local descriptive analyses of the dataset generated in the  
231 present study, we also combine our estimates with those from the wider literature in a meta-analysis.  
232 For all analyses we opted to avoid dichotomising the existence of effects and therefore did not employ  
233 traditional null hypothesis significance testing, which has been extensively critiqued<sup>41, 42</sup>. Instead we  
234 consider the implications of all results compatible with these data, from the lower limit to the upper  
235 limit of interval estimates, with the greatest interpretive emphasis placed on the point estimate. All  
236 analysis was conducted in R (v 4.0.2; R Core Team, <https://www.r-project.org/>) and all code utilised is  
237 presented in the supplementary materials (<https://osf.io/zu4y9/>).

238 Descriptive statistics were calculated for all measures. The reliability of repeated measures ( $i = 3$ ) for  
239 those taken in the present study was explored using intra-class correlation coefficients (3,1) with  
240 accompanying 95% compatibility (confidence) intervals, using the 'psych' package<sup>43</sup>. Pearson  
241 correlation coefficients were used to analyse associations between all IMTP variables, and proxies of  
242 sport performance. Accompanying compatibility intervals were computed for a range of levels (50%,  
243 80%, and 95%) so as to present gradation<sup>44</sup> and are presented on scatterplots as grey ribbons to aid in  
244 visual interpretation of uncertainty of estimates. Magnitude of correlation coefficients were  
245 qualitatively evaluated using recommendations from Hopkins<sup>45</sup>; small (0.10–0.29), moderate (0.30–  
246 0.49), large (0.50–0.69), very large (0.70–0.89) nearly perfect (0.90–0.99), and perfect (1.0).

247 The meta-analysis was performed using the 'metafor' package<sup>46</sup>. Effects and variances were  
248 calculated using the raw correlation coefficients from each study and the escalc function. Because of

249 the nested structure of the effects calculated from the studies included (i.e. multiple correlations  
250 nested within studies), multilevel mixed effects meta-analyses with study and included as a random  
251 effect in the model were performed. Cluster robust point estimates and precision of those estimates  
252 using 95% compatibility (confidence) intervals (CIs) were produced, weighted by inverse sampling  
253 variance to account for the within- and between-study variance (tau-squared). Restricted maximal  
254 likelihood estimation was used in all models.  $I^2$  values were calculated to indicate the degree of  
255 heterogeneity in the effects: 0-40% were not important, 30-60% moderate heterogeneity, 50-90%  
256 substantial heterogeneity, and 75-100% considerable heterogeneity<sup>47</sup>.

## 257 **RESULTS**

258 Descriptive statistics and ICCs for the IMTP, acceleration, sprint, jump and change of direction tests  
259 are presented in Table 1. All proxy measures of sport performance displayed good reliability (ICC =  
260 >0.75) though with interval estimates ranging from moderate to excellent. IMTP measures appeared  
261 to improve with reliability as they neared PF. For example table 1 shows that F50 showed very poor  
262 reliability, F100 and F150 showed better albeit still poor to moderate reliability, while both F200 and  
263 PF showed reliability interval estimates that ranged good to excellent. The results of the correlational  
264 analysis between the IMTP force variables and athletic performance can be found in Table 2.

265

266 \*\*\*Table 1 near here\*\*\*

267

268 \*\*\*Correlation precision sample near here\*\*\*

269

### 270 *Present Study Correlations*

271 As expected, estimated of the correlations within the present sample were imprecise. Thus, we  
272 highlight here only key outcomes and direct the reader to figure 1 and figure 2 where the scatterplots

273 for all variables are presented. For absolute IMTP measures correlations with 5 m acceleration were  
274 trivial to small which was similarly to case for 10 m acceleration with the exception of moderate  
275 negative relationships for F200 and PF. This was also reflected in the moderate to large positive  
276 relationships between MSS and both F200 and PF. Interval estimates had less precision for CMJ and  
277 COD; though, PF had a large positive relationship with CMJ, and there were consistent negative  
278 relationships between all IMTP measures and COD ranging from small to moderate. Most of these  
279 were also reflected in the relative IMTP measures; however, for 5 m acceleration relationships  
280 appeared slightly improved and were small to moderate and negative.

### 281 *Meta-analysis*

282 The main model examining the relationship between IMTP measures and 'speed' measures included  
283 65 correlations across 6 studies with an estimated correlation of  $r = -0.40$  [95%CI = -0.65 to -0.15] and  
284 an  $I^2$  of 62%. The main model examining the relationship between IMTP measures and 'jump'  
285 measures included 158 correlations across 7 studies with an estimated correlation of  $r = 0.33$  [95%CI  
286 = 0.18 to 0.49] and an  $I^2$  of 41%. The main model examining the relationship between IMTP measures  
287 and 'change of direction' measures included 38 correlations across 4 studies with an estimated  
288 correlation of  $r = -0.38$  [95%CI = -0.69 to -0.07] and an  $I^2$  of 58%.

289 \*\*\*Figures 1 & 2 near here\*\*\*

### 290 **DISCUSSION**

291 The primary aim of the current study was to explore the association between IMTP force variables and  
292 acceleration, MSS, CMJ and COD ability in professional Under-23 soccer players. This paper has made  
293 an important contribution to knowledge within the area of IMTP testing in professional soccer by  
294 evidencing the importance of the isometric FGC as an underpinning factor in relation to athletic  
295 capability. Furthermore, it appears the ability to express higher forces relative to soccer players body  
296 mass, may be more desirable for athletic performance than absolute FGC.

297 There were large negative correlations existent between both F150 ( $r = -0.68$ ) and F200 ( $r = -0.60$ )  
298 relative to body mass and COD ability. There were also moderate negative correlations present  
299 between COD ability and all of the other relative force outputs noted at specific time points (F50:  $r =$   
300  $-0.46$ ; F100:  $r = -0.47$ ; PF:  $r = -0.49$ ); however, when analysing the absolute force data within the  
301 current study only F150 ( $r = -0.46$ ) and F200 ( $r = -0.45$ ) were shown to display a moderate negative  
302 correlation with COD ability. While in contrast studies from Thomas et al.<sup>11, 12</sup> have revealed large  
303 negative correlations with absolute PF and COD time ( $r = 0.57$  and  $r = 0.66$ ). This suggests that despite  
304 the relatively longer GCT during COD activities when compared with accelerating and sprinting<sup>13</sup> it  
305 may still be the ability to produce force rapidly which provides an advantage during COD tasks, as  
306 opposed to the overall maximal force the player can produce. Our research is important in an applied  
307 environment because an identified COD weakness in a player may suggest an intervention is required  
308 to improve rapid force production capability. Thomas et al.,<sup>11</sup> supports this notion as they noted  
309 moderate negative correlations between COD505 time and force produced at 100 ms ( $r = -0.58$ ) and  
310 300 ms ( $r = -0.62$ ) in university soccer and rugby league players. Research from Verheul et al.<sup>38</sup> helps  
311 to rationalise this further by showing the peak vGRF during deceleration tasks appear within the first  
312 100 ms of ground contact. Therefore the ability to produce the rapid (<100ms) and high forces  
313 required during changes of direction places a large demand on the tendon qualities around ankle,  
314 knee, and hip<sup>2</sup>. Tendon stiffness is an important underpinning structural component within rapid force  
315 production<sup>39,40</sup>, with increased stiffness resulting in a more effective force transmission from muscle  
316 to bone<sup>41</sup>. Improvements in isometric strength have been shown to display a subsequent  
317 improvement in tendon function<sup>42</sup>. As such it may be that the players who could produce higher  
318 isometric vGRF relative to their body weight within the current study were better equipped from a  
319 musculotendinous perspective to handle the large stresses in the deceleration phase immediately  
320 prior to the change of direction action. This may then have allowed the players to get into their  
321 acceleration pattern faster, and in a more advantageous position. Whilst it is evident the ability to  
322 change direction effectively is a critical athletic performance factor within football<sup>1</sup>, there is still

323 debate as to how best to efficiently improve<sup>49</sup> and measure it<sup>35, 43</sup>. A potential reason for this is due to  
324 the multi-factorial nature of the skill. The ability to change direction rapidly requires good  
325 deceleration, acceleration and kinematic skills<sup>43</sup>, and so identifying the specific area for development  
326 within these three areas would be important for the S&C coach looking to improve COD performance.  
327 The moderate to large negative correlations between relative FGC and COD ability in the current study  
328 provides increased support for the S&C coach to seek improvements in isometric force production  
329 capacity for their athletes relative to their body weight as opposed to absolute FGC, when looking to  
330 improve change of direction capability. Further research into whether there is a cause and effect  
331 relationship between the two parameters through a training intervention study would provide further  
332 insights for the S&C coach.

333 CMJ height displayed a large positive correlation with both relative and absolute PF ( $r = 0.54$  and  $r =$   
334  $0.55$  respectively). There were also some moderate positive correlations displayed between relative  
335 F50 ( $r = 0.30$ ) and F200 ( $r = 0.30$ ). In contrast, absolute values for F50 ( $r = 0.17$ ), F100 ( $r = 0.10$ ), and  
336 F200 ( $r = 0.20$ ) only exhibited small positive correlations with CMJ ability. The large positive correlation  
337 between PF and CMJ height identified by our research for both relative and absolute values is  
338 consistent with research from other sports<sup>20, 25, 44, 45, 46</sup>. These findings can be explained by a  
339 rearrangement of Newton's second law of motion (acceleration = force/mass). The ability to exert  
340 large forces is a key factor in order to accelerate the body in a given direction and subsequently, the  
341 players who display large PF on the IMTP have an increased capacity to jump higher. However, whilst  
342 PF is an important underpinning capacity with regards to CMJ height, the ability to produce force  
343 during the IMTP does not seem to be wholly causal of CMJ performance. A possible reason for this  
344 may be the isometric nature of the test which contrasts with the triphasic action inherent within a  
345 CMJ<sup>47</sup>. Both absolute and relative eccentric PF have previously displayed very large and statistically  
346 significant correlations ( $r = 0.74$ ,  $P < 0.001$  and  $r = 0.79$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) with CMJ height<sup>44</sup>. Additionally,  
347 McErlain-Naylor et al.,<sup>48</sup> delineated that kinematic factors (58%) explained a much higher variance of  
348 jump height than isometric ability (18%) in the CMJ, suggesting coachable technical aspects of jumping

349 are more important determinants of CMJ than IMTP ability. Whilst this study supports the evidence  
350 base for improved PF capacity to affect CMJ height, the S&C coach may also be wise to consider  
351 eccentric PF and kinematic variable when seeking to improve a player's CMJ height.

352 Relative and absolute PF attained in the IMTP test and the MSS achieved by the players were shown  
353 to display very large and large positive correlations respectively ( $r = 0.78$  and  $r = 0.57$ ). This result was  
354 also supported by some large positive correlations for relative F150 ( $r = 0.51$ ) and relative F200 ( $r =$   
355  $0.68$ ). A moderate positive correlations between MSS and absolute F200 ( $r = 0.45$ ). Interestingly, these  
356 results would appear to suggest that PF attained in the IMTP may be more important to MSS ability  
357 than the force an athlete is able to produce in a shorter time period. This contrasts with the current  
358 literature relating to the kinetics of MSS, within which, it is widely accepted that the ability produce  
359 high amounts of force rapidly is a key determinant of MSS<sup>49</sup>. This is because GCT during maximum  
360 sprinting lasts  $<100$  ms<sup>13</sup>, and as such athletes have an extremely limited time frame within which to  
361 apply force into the ground. Following the current papers meta-analyses, to the best of our knowledge  
362 there are no published studies identifying a correlation between any IMTP variable and sprint speed  
363 over 20 m. This is despite several studies which highlight correlations between IMTP and 5 and 10 m  
364 acceleration time, which is subsequently discussed. Therefore, findings in the present study offer a  
365 novel and interesting outcome into the relationship between IMTP derived PF and MSS. Being able to  
366 produce a large amount of both absolute and relative isometric PF, as opposed to having the ability  
367 to produce less force in a shorter amount of time may be beneficial due to its association with  
368 increased tendon stiffness<sup>39,40,41</sup>. The musculotendinous unit plays a key role in maximal sprinting  
369 through the utilisation of the stretch-shortening cycle<sup>50</sup>, with higher level sprinters displaying  
370 increased lower limb tendon stiffness<sup>51</sup>. This increased stiffness of the muscle-tendon unit enables  
371 increased absorption of elastic energy during the swing phase of maximal sprinting<sup>52</sup>, subsequently  
372 equating to faster sprint speeds<sup>51</sup>. Interestingly, Meckel et al.<sup>53</sup> have also previously highlighted the  
373 importance of maximum strength with maximum running speed. Their research into female sprinters  
374 displayed a very large correlation ( $r = 0.89$ ) with 1RM performance in the back squat and 100 m sprint

375 times. This ability to exert large vGRF during strength testing may translate into larger vGRF during the  
376 first half of the stance phase in sprinting, which has been highlighted as an important capability of  
377 elite sprinters<sup>13</sup>. Based on the findings within this paper, we tentatively suggest that the S&C coach  
378 may wish to adopt a broad approach to improving the kinetic aspect of MSS. The current paper  
379 provides support for the rationale of the development of rapid force production (150-200ms) within  
380 soccer players who are aiming to improve MSS, whilst also adding a fresh and interesting finding to  
381 the current literature regarding the importance of isometric PF for maximal sprinting performance.

382 Finally, F50, F100 and F150 ms from the IMTP test displayed a trivial correlation for both relative and  
383 absolute values and 10 m acceleration performance. When participants were allowed more time to  
384 produce force however, there were large negative correlations present with 10 m acceleration ability  
385 and relative IMTP values (F200;  $r = -0.55$  and PF;  $r = -0.53$ ). This increased time available to produce  
386 force also improved the correlation between 10m acceleration and absolute figures (F200;  $r = -0.35$   
387 and PF;  $r = -0.30$ ). A similar trend is present when comparing relative FGC and 5 m acceleration ability,  
388 with small negative correlations appearing for F50 ( $r = -0.26$ ) and F100 ( $r = -0.24$ ), yet moderate  
389 negative correlations for relative F150 ( $r = -0.36$ ), F200 ( $r = -0.37$ ), and PF ( $r = -0.33$ ). This finding  
390 suggests that the ability to produce high forces over a longer time-frame translates better to  
391 acceleration performance than the ability to produce forces rapidly. This may be explained due to the  
392 slightly longer GCT's (compared to sprinting) of <200 ms during the acceleration phase<sup>14</sup>. The  
393 increased available time allows for higher expressions of force to be generated during acceleration  
394 tasks<sup>49</sup>, and so players who are able to produce large forces would seem to have an increased capacity  
395 for improved 0–10 m acceleration capability. However with the higher negative correlations  
396 appearing for relative IMTP ability when compared to absolute values for acceleration ability, the  
397 importance of the aforementioned Newton's second law of motion (acceleration = force/mass), is  
398 clearly apparent for the soccer strength and conditioning coach. PF and force at specific time bands  
399 have been previously negatively correlated with acceleration capability within research studies from  
400 other sports<sup>11, 12, 20, 44</sup>. The findings within the current paper and the wider IMTP literature, are in



401 congruence within an extensive body of literature linking various strength measures and acceleration  
402 performance<sup>49</sup>.

403 No research is without limitation; however, the fact that this research was conducted in a naturalistic  
404 setting adds to its credibility in 'real-world' applied settings. Notwithstanding, sample-size was  
405 constrained through the practicalities of the research being conducted in a professional team  
406 environment and caution is suggested when considering the inference-based nature of interpretation  
407 of the correlations. However, given this lack of precision for estimates due to the sample size, as noted,  
408 we also aimed to combine the results from our sample with those of other studies<sup>11, 12, 20, 24, 25, 29, 30, 31</sup>.  
409 This resulted in the inclusion of data from 510 participants (including collegiate athletes across a range  
410 of sports, elite soccer youth athletes, professional rugby league players, and professional soccer  
411 players) across 9 studies (including the present one). The small sample size may have also contributed  
412 to the poor reliability of F50 (ICC = 0.089) and F100 (ICC = 0.48), with large variations in these metrics  
413 being recorded in only two of the participants. This poor reliability is in contrast with previous studies  
414 showing F50 and F100 to be reliable markers (ICC = 0.76 and 0.85 respectively, CV = 12.8%)<sup>18, 29</sup>. This  
415 study is however in agreement with earlier research highlighting the excellent reliability of F200 and  
416 PF (ICC = 0.90 and 0.90 respectively)<sup>18, 29</sup>. Future research may be worthwhile measuring more  
417 longitudinally. Researchers could use repeated measures to enable the use of within participant  
418 repeated measures correlations, in order to take a closer step towards understanding whether  
419 changes in IMTP measures are 'causally' related to changes in proxies of sport performance.  
420 Importantly in this setting, implementing interventions is done on a player-by-player basis and  
421 involves complex decision-making processes concerning multiple stakeholders. We believe that this  
422 research makes an important contribution to these processes by highlighting the importance of  
423 isometric FGC within athletic performance in professional soccer players.

424

425

426 **CONCLUSION**

427 The current study aimed to identify relationships between IMTP and markers of athletic performance  
428 and discuss the importance of these for the S&C coach. This paper represents an important starting  
429 point for the IMTP research within professional soccer, and has already added value to the physical  
430 profiling process within the first authors applied setting. It has highlighted some interesting moderate  
431 to very large correlations between IMTP relative and absolute force parameters and 5–10m  
432 acceleration, MSS, CMJ and 505COD. Due to the associations displayed with markers of athletic  
433 performance, this study has highlighted the value of the IMTP as an assessment tool for S&C coaches  
434 working within professional soccer. The results of this test can help to direct the prioritisation of  
435 training interventions depending upon the desired athletic performance improvement. The IMTP can  
436 serve as an efficient profiling method to re-assess changes in FGC, and in doing so, the effectiveness  
437 of the programme.

438 **DISCLOSURE STATEMENT**

439 The authors of the current paper have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity  
440 with any financial or non-financial interest in the subject matter or materials discussed within the  
441 current paper. There is no conflict of interest in any form.

442 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

443 The dataset generated for this study is available and can be found at the following link;  
444 <https://osf.io/zu4y9/>.

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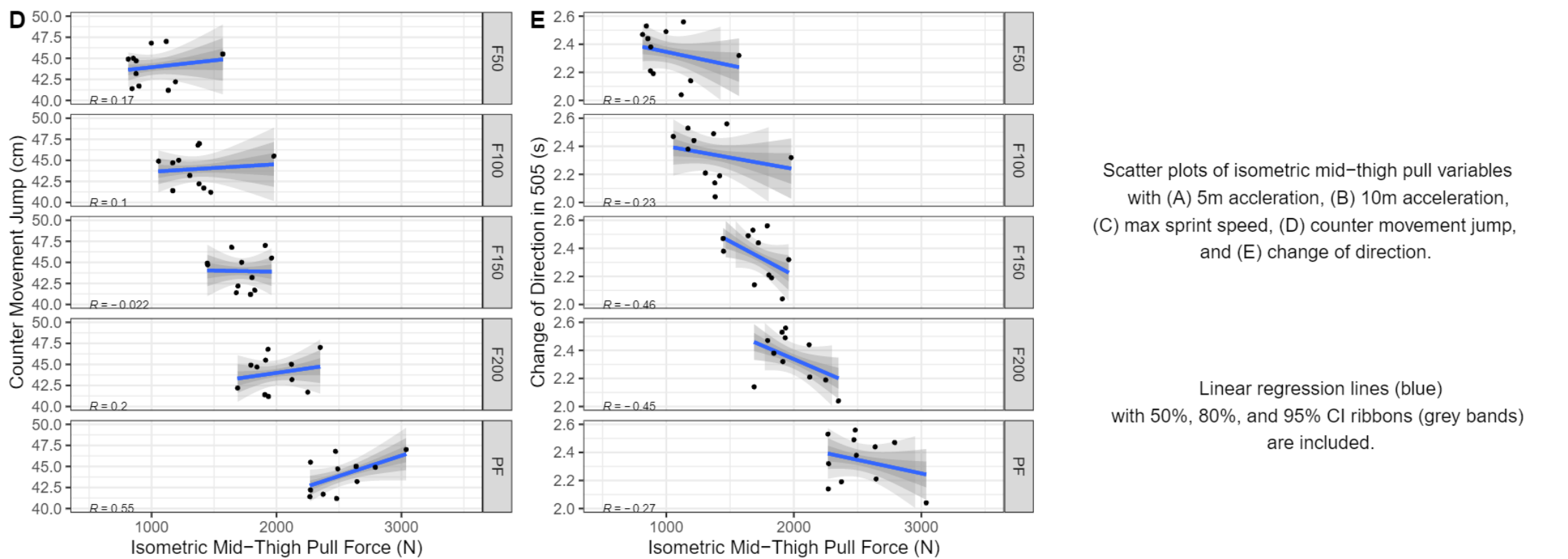
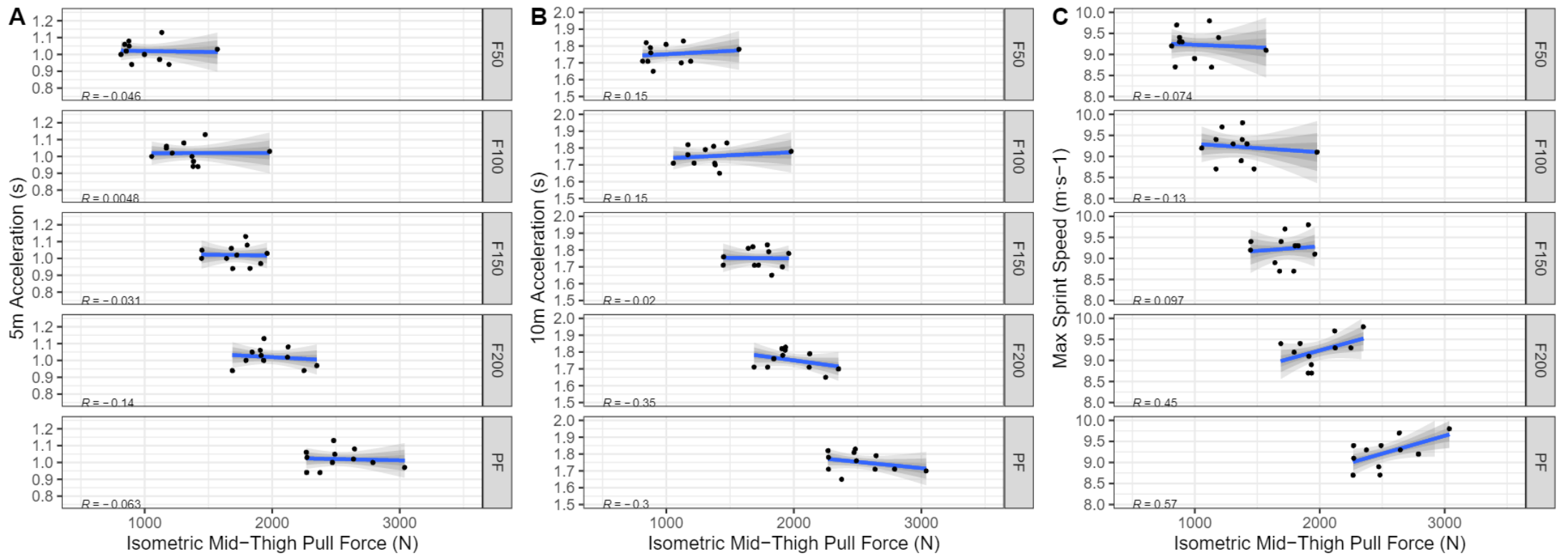
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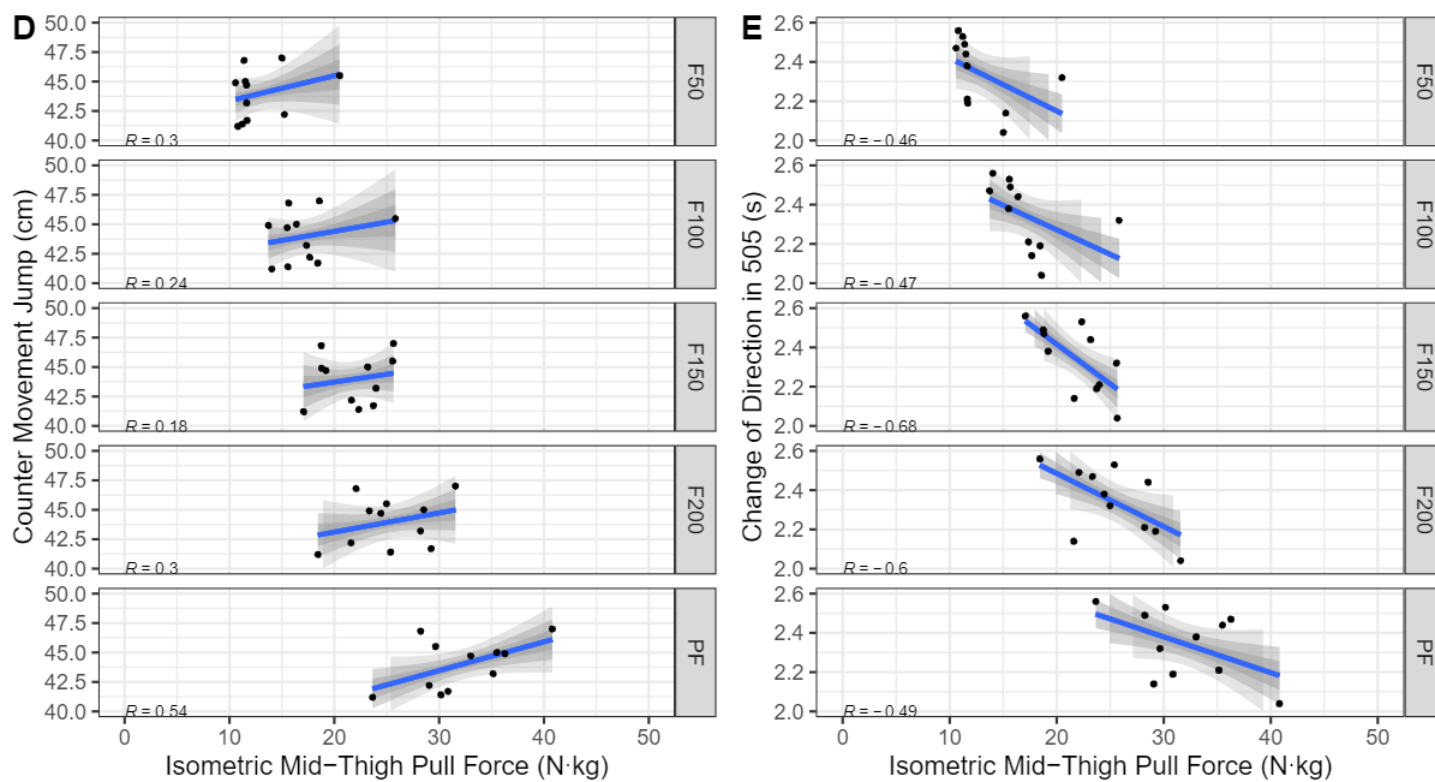
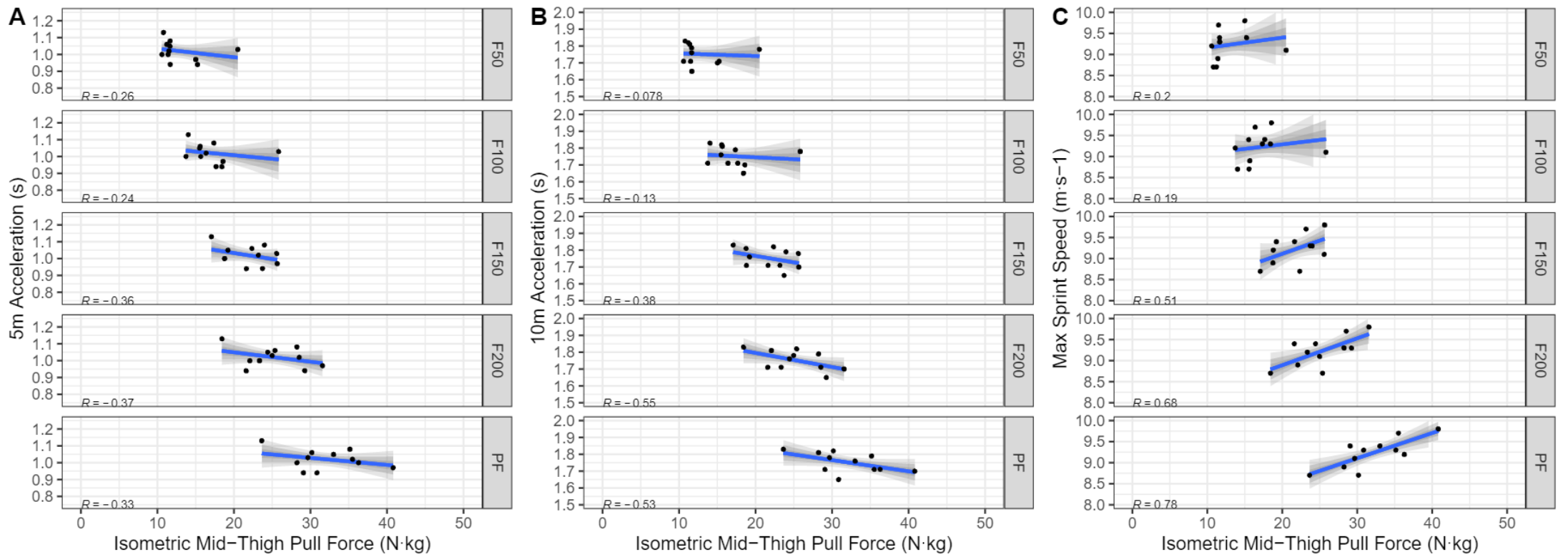


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**Table 1.** Descriptive Statistics for IMTP variables, accelerations, maximum velocities, CMJ and COD505 ability.

	<b>Mean <math>\pm</math> SD</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>CI (95%)</b>	<b>CV (%)</b>	<b>ICC(3,1) (95% CI)</b>
<b>F50 (N)</b>	886 $\pm$ 93	810	1117	831–941	10.55	0.089 (-0.18-0.46)
<b>F100 (N)</b>	1267 $\pm$ 199	1055	1418	1196.7–1337.3	9.42	0.51 (0.20-0.78)
<b>F150 (N)</b>	1705 $\pm$ 148	1446	1910	1617.6–1792.4	8.68	0.48 (0.17-0.76)
<b>F200 (N)</b>	1987 $\pm$ 201	1688	2350	1868.3–2105.7	10.09	0.90 (0.79-0.96)
<b>PF (N)</b>	2522 $\pm$ 242	2267	3038	2379–2665	9.58	0.90 (0.79-0.96)
<b>5 m Acceleration (s)</b>	1.02 $\pm$ 0.09	0.93	1.23	0.97–1.07	9.10	0.85 (0.72-0.94)
<b>10 m Acceleration (s)</b>	1.75 $\pm$ 0.06	1.65	1.83	1.71–1.79	3.58	0.85 (0.72-0.94)
<b>MSS (m·s<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	9.22 $\pm$ 0.38	8.60	9.80	9.00–9.44	4.08	0.76 (0.57-0.90)
<b>CMJ (cm)</b>	43.96 $\pm$ 2.12	41.20	47.00	42.71–45.21	4.83	0.78 (0.60–0.91)
<b>COD505 (s)</b>	2.34 $\pm$ 0.17	2.04	2.56	2.24–2.44	7.46	0.97 (0.94-0.99)





Scatter plots of body weight relative isometric mid-thigh pull variables with (A) 5m acceleration, (B) 10m acceleration, (C) max sprint speed, (D) counter movement jump, and (E) change of direction.

Linear regression lines (blue) with 50%, 80%, and 95% CI ribbons (grey bands) are included.