

1 **Maximise or normalise? Examining single-leg drop-land-cut distances in young athletes.**
2 **A pilot study.**

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 This study investigated differences in leap distance for a single-leg drop-land-cut
27 (CUT) task based on using either a maximal or normalised (150% leg length) method and the
28 influence of condition order and leg dominance on distance achieved. Twenty-six young court
29 and field sport athletes (61.5% female) completed the CUT task on the dominant and non-
30 dominant leg under maximal and normalised conditions in a randomised order. Multivariate
31 repeated measures ANOVA tests with post-hoc pairwise comparisons were used to determine
32 the effect of condition (maximal, normalised), leg dominance (dominant, non-dominant), and
33 interaction effect on leaping distance. Potential order effects were explored as a between
34 subjects factor within the ANOVA. Our findings showed significantly larger leap distances
35 under the maximal condition ($p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 \geq 0.417$) with the maximal mean being $154.5 \pm$
36 24.7 cm ($175.1 \pm 18.6\%$ leg length) and the normalised mean being 140.7 ± 19.7 cm ($159.0 \pm$
37 5.8% of leg length). Furthermore, greater distances were achieved during the maximal task
38 when performed following the normalised task ($p < 0.001$, 24.5% further). Practically, the
39 normalised task may be better suited for heterogeneous samples, yet the maximal task may be
40 more suitable for homogeneous samples or pre-post study designs.

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42 **Keywords:** acl, puberty, injury screening

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44 **Word Count:** 3863

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47 Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries are becoming increasingly common in youth
48 athletes^{1,2}. The annual number of ACL injuries reported in young people has risen
49 exponentially. In particular, females aged 5-14 years have demonstrated an 10.4% annual
50 growth rate in ACL injury incidence from 1998 to 2018 in Australia². In New Zealand, claims
51 from male and female individuals aged 15-29 years contributed to over 50% of the \$100 million
52 cost of ACL injuries to taxpayers in 2021 alone³. Representing 45% of all internal knee
53 injuries⁴, ACL injuries are associated with prolonged recovery periods (e.g., return to play at
54 least 9 months post-surgery⁵), a substantial financial cost of care⁶, impaired functional sporting
55 performance⁷, and an increased risk of early-onset posttraumatic osteoarthritis^{8,9}.

56 The demands of court and field sports require frequent accelerations, decelerations, changes of
57 direction, rotations, and single-leg landings, all of which are movements associated with ACL
58 injury incidence^{10,11}. Additionally, side-cutting manoeuvres are responsible for most non-
59 contact ACL injuries in sports such as football and handball^{12,13}, likely due to the multi-planar
60 nature of the movement that exposes the knee joint to high loads¹⁴. In response, screening for
61 biomechanical injury risk factors is becoming common practice in team sports, particularly in
62 high injury risk populations such as young female court and field sport athletes¹⁵. However, for
63 widespread adoption, the task needs to be suitable for implementation in clinical settings and
64 on the field. A task that involves a single-leg landing followed by an immediate and explosive
65 side-cut may suit these requirements and may better resemble manoeuvres associated with ACL
66 injury than what is typically used¹⁶, such as double-leg drop vertical jumps¹⁷, single-leg
67 squats¹⁷, and tuck jumps¹⁸. Double-leg drop vertical jump tasks have been frequently used to
68 assess ACL injury risk factors in team sport athletes^{17,19} despite generally being determined as
69 unsuitable for predicting ACL injury risk^{15,20}. Although run and cut manoeuvres might be better
70 in the context of screening for risk of ACL injury and commonly assessed in laboratory

71 settings²⁰, they are often not practical in clinical environments and can be difficult to
72 standardise in terms of approach speed and angle of cut.

73 The design of the single-leg drop-land-cut (CUT) task should consider variation in the
74 perception of maximal effort²¹ with respect to subjective and anthropometrical factors.
75 Previous research has observed differences in performance and biomechanics between
76 individuals of different maturational groups using both a maximal effort method²² and a
77 normalised cutting distance to 150% of leg length²³. Although rationales for each of these
78 methods are justifiable, their suitability may depend on the circumstance and purpose of
79 implementation. For example, the maximal condition may be appropriate in a more
80 homogeneous sample of athletes of similar body sizes, however, a normalised condition may
81 be better to compare a more heterogeneous sample as the task is relative to body size. It is
82 currently difficult to select one method over the other as there is a lack of studies directly
83 comparing the two methods. Such information would allow practitioners to make an informed
84 decision on test parameters for this task and enable a more appropriate comparison of
85 performance between groups or individuals. This study focused on exploring the differences in
86 performance of two conditions of the same task that have previously been used with
87 participants in different pubertal maturation stages to inform development and implementation
88 of injury risk screening tasks in this population. Additionally, if performance from both tasks
89 are assessed, the order of condition of tasks may impact performance as it has been suggested
90 that, in younger populations, some participants can believe they are performing maximally, but
91 once given a target, may achieve further distances²¹. The raw values in cm and these values
92 expressed as a percentage of leg length are included to provide perspective of the absolute and
93 relative values. Furthermore, leg dominance can influence biomechanical risk factors²⁴ and
94 performance²⁵ during sport-specific tasks that warrant consideration in establishing test
95 parameters, interpreting outcomes, and comparing between groups or individuals. The potential

96 effect of limb dominance on functional performance could impact clinical outcomes for injury
97 risk or recovery screening, particularly considering the influence of perceived task difficulty²⁶.
98 The primary purpose of this pilot study was to determine if differences in leap distance (i.e.,
99 performance outcome) exist for the CUT task metrics based on using either a maximal or
100 normalised (150% leg length) methodology in young court and field sport athletes. A secondary
101 purpose was to determine whether the order of conditions or leg dominance would influence
102 the distance achieved. It was hypothesised that participants would leap further using the
103 maximal method, on the maximal task when presented second, and when using the dominant
104 leg.

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Methods

107 Given the exploratory nature of the pilot study and the overall lack of data on the
108 examined tasks in the target population, no formal sample size was conducted a priori. To
109 account for drop-out or data-loss, a sample size between 20-30 participants was targeted based
110 on previous pilot studies stating 12 participants to be appropriate^{27,28}. Ultimately, twenty-six
111 healthy young court or field sport male and female athletes aged between 7 and 20 years
112 volunteered to participate (Table 1), providing an 80% power to detect an effect size f of 0.24
113 at a 5% significance level based on the ANOVA: repeated measures, within-between interaction
114 setting of G*Power 3.1.9.7. The calculation considered the collection of four measurements
115 (dominant and non-dominant for maximal and normalised conditions) and two groups to
116 account for a potential order effect on leap distances. All participants were right leg dominant
117 determined by the leg used to kick a ball. The participants had no history of serious back or leg
118 injuries within the 12 months prior to testing. All participants and their parents/legal guardians
119 (if under 16 years) provided informed consent prior to participating in this study, which was

120 approved by the University of Waikato Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC (Health)
121 2022#53) and adhered to the Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of
122 Helsinki Ethical Principles for Medical Research Involving Human Subjects) and the Health
123 Research Council's guidelines relating to research involving children and UNICEF's principles
124 guiding ethical research involving children²⁹.

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126 **Table 1** Baseline characteristics of the participants, mean \pm SD.

Characteristic	Males ($n = 10$)	Females ($n = 16$)	Total ($n = 26$)
Age (y)	13.9 \pm 3.6	13.0 \pm 4.4	13.5 \pm 4.1
Height (cm)	154.5 \pm 33.6	145.0 \pm 30.0	155.4 \pm 19.1
Body mass (kg)	49.4 \pm 17.1	47.1 \pm 16.3	48.5 \pm 16.2
BMI (kg/m ²)	18.9 \pm 2.8	20.1 \pm 5.2	19.6 \pm 4.0
Leg length (cm)	88.4 \pm 19.4	85.7 \pm 18.4	88.6 \pm 12.8

127 *Note:* Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index.

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129 **Equipment**

130 A high-speed video camera with a focal length of 8.8 to 73.3 mm (35-mm equivalent
 131 focal length of 24-200 mm) captured the CUT trials at 120 frames per second (Sony RX10 II,
 132 Sony Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). The camera was placed 3.5 m in front of the landing area on
 133 a tripod with a 1.3 m lens-to-ground distance.

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135 **Procedures**

136 The participants attended a single testing session where they first had their leg length
 137 measured until two identical measurements were recorded. For leg length, a tape measure was
 138 used to record the distance from the anterior superior iliac spine (ASIS) to the medial malleoli
 139 on the right (dominant) leg in a supine position³⁰. Participants then completed a standardised
 140 five-minute warm up involving jogging at a self-selected pace on a turf surface for two minutes,
 141 dynamic stretching (8 reps of each per leg; leg swings, walkouts, lunges, and lateral reaches),
 142 and jump-landing drills (15 reps per leg of submaximal vertical hopping, 5 reps of double-leg
 143 landing, and 5 reps per leg of single-leg landing).

144 For the CUT task, participants were required to stand on one foot, drop down from a 30
 145 cm box, land on the same foot to a marked distance placed 30 cm in front of the box, and to

146 immediately leap 90° laterally to land on the opposite foot³¹ along a marked line on the floor
147 (Figure 1). For instance, participants dropping down and landing on their right foot would leap
148 towards the left to land on their left foot. Participants completed the task in the two
149 experimental conditions: 1) normalised distance to 150% of leg length, and 2) maximal
150 distance. For the normalised CUT condition, the leg length normalised distance was indicated
151 on the floor using a line of tape. For the maximal distance CUT condition, participants were
152 asked to leap as far as possible, aiming to maximise distance, with no leap distance indicated
153 on the floor. In both conditions, participants were required to maintain balance upon landing
154 and were encouraged to keep their body facing forwards. The participants were allowed 2-3
155 practice trials of each condition directly before the test of that same condition for
156 familiarisation, following a standardised explanation and demonstration from the primary
157 researcher (AB).

158 Condition order was randomised, as was the use of the dominant or non-dominant leg
159 within the condition. For each leg and condition, three successful efforts were performed. The
160 individual efforts were separated by 20 seconds of rest for both legs and between legs, whereas
161 individuals rested for 2 minutes between conditions. Participants wore their own footwear that
162 they would usually wear during sporting participation³². A pictorial representation of the CUT
163 phases is presented in Figure 1, and a flow chart of the data collection procedure is presented
164 in Figure 2 along with the possible orders of conditions.

165 Data processing

166 Leap distances were extracted from frontal videos using Silicon Coach (Silicon Coach
167 Pro, version 8, Dunedin, NZ) and displacement calibration was performed to a marked 1 m
168 distance along the line where the participants leapt. SiliconCoach Pro has been commonly used
169 to provide accurate data for coaching³³, and has been assessed for displacement agreement

170 against VICON in pelvis measures ($r^2 = 0.92$)³⁴ and against 3D measures in golf kinematic
171 parameters (ICC = 0.929)³⁵. A marker was placed in the middle of the toe box (proximal point
172 of the 2nd phalange) of participants' shoes and leap distance was calculated from the marker on
173 the initial landing foot upon ground contact to the marker on the opposite foot upon the second
174 ground contact. For each participant, the mean leap distance of three trials per leg for each
175 condition were used in further analysis. The normalised to leg length units were calculated
176 using the equation (distance leapt (cm)/ leg length (cm)) x 100.

177 Statistical analysis

178 Using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 29.0.0.0(241)), descriptive statistics were
179 calculated and reported as means, standard deviations, and ranges. Multivariate repeated
180 measures ANOVA tests with post-hoc pairwise comparisons were used to determine the within-
181 subject effect of condition (maximal, normalised to leg length), leg dominance (dominant, non-
182 dominant), and interaction effect on leaping distance outcomes, both in raw (cm) and
183 normalised to leg length (%) units. Mean differences (MD) are reported alongside their *p* values
184 and 95% confidence intervals (CI's). Potential order effects between completing the maximal
185 or normalised condition or the dominant or non-dominant leg first were explored as between-
186 subject factors within the ANOVA. Assumption checks for normality of distribution, sphericity
187 of data, and outliers were completed in SPSS using the Shapiro-Wilk test, Mauchly's test of
188 sphericity, and visual inspection of studentised residuals for values ± 3 standard deviations,
189 respectively. Partial eta squared (η_p^2) effect sizes are used to express the magnitude of
190 differences between conditions using the following interpretations: 0.01 as a small effect, 0.06
191 as a medium effect, and 0.14 as a large effect³⁶. Variances were compared using the modified
192 Levene's test by calculating the absolute deviations of each value from the group mean (d_{i1}
193 $=|x_{i1}-\bar{x}_1|$, $d_{i2}=|x_{i2}-\bar{x}_2|$) and the deviations across conditions were compared using paired *t*-tests.
194 Statistical significance was set to $p \leq 0.05$. Individual measures were plotted on a scatter plot

195 for the two conditions to visualize individual performance for the dominant and non-dominant
196 legs separately (Figures 3 and 4, respectively).

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Results

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Repeated measures ANOVA assumptions were met for distance leapt expressed in raw units and normalised to leg length, and no outliers were detected. The results for the repeated measures ANOVA are reported in Table 2. For both measures, there were no significant interaction effects between side and condition ($p \geq 0.429$, $p \geq 0.547$, raw and normalised respectively) or main effects for leg dominance ($p \geq 0.247$, $p \geq 0.282$, raw and normalised respectively). The main effect of condition was statistically significant for distance leapt expressed in both raw and normalised units ($p < 0.001$, for both) with large effect size differences ($\eta_p^2 \geq 0.417$, $\eta_p^2 \geq 0.432$, respectively). The distance leapt was 13.9 [7.1, 20.6] cm and 16.1 [8.5, 23.7] % of leg length greater in the maximal than normalised to leg length CUT condition, with all participants leaping further in the maximal than normalised conditions. Participants leapt an average of 154.5 ± 24.7 cm ($175.1 \pm 18.6\%$ of leg length) during the maximal task and 140.7 ± 19.7 cm ($159.0 \pm 5.8\%$ of leg length) during the normalised task. All but two participants leapt greater than or equal to the 150% of leg length distance during the maximal trials.

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There was no interaction effect between (order and dominance) ($p = 0.644$) and no main effect of order ($p = 0.197$). There was an interaction effect between order and condition for both the raw ($F_{(1,25)} = 5.767$, $p = 0.024$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.194$) and normalised units ($F_{(1,25)} = 6.195$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.205$). Results from the order of conditions are presented in Table 3. For the raw values, pairwise comparisons revealed no statistically significant differences when considering order within conditions ($p > 0.062$); however, when considering condition within order, the

219 maximal trial was significantly further than the normalised trial when the normalised task was
220 completed first (MD = 21.1 cm, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI [12.3, 29.8]), but the maximal trial was not
221 significantly further than the normalised trial if the maximal trial was completed first (MD =
222 6.7 cm, $p = 0.130$, 95% CI [-2.1, 15.4]). For the normalised values, pairwise comparisons
223 revealed statistically significant differences when considering order within condition
224 suggesting that within the maximal condition, if normalised was completed first then the
225 maximal trial was further than if the maximal trial was completed first (MD = 14.0%, $p = 0.042$,
226 95% CI [0.5, 27.5]). Furthermore, when considering condition within order, the maximal trial
227 was significantly further than the normalised trial when the normalised task was completed
228 first (MD = 24.5%, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI [14.7, 34.3]). However, the maximal trial was not
229 significantly further than the normalised trial if the maximal trial was first (MD = 7.7%, $p =$
230 0.117, 95% CI [-2.1, 17.5]).

231 The modified Levene's test revealed a significant difference in variances between the
232 absolute deviations of the maximal and normalised conditions for the raw data (maximal mean
233 residual = 20.3 cm, normalised mean residual = 16.4 cm, MD = 4.0 cm, $p = 0.048$, 95% CI
234 [0.6, 7.3]) and for the normalised to leg length data (maximal mean residual = 14.1%,
235 normalised mean residual = 4.6%, MD = 9.5%, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI [6.4, 12.5]). No significant
236 differences in variance were observed between order of condition for raw ($p = 0.755$) or
237 normalised data ($p = 0.694$).

238 Regarding the individual measures on the scatter plot, one participant for the dominant
239 leg and non-dominant leg and one participant for the non-dominant leg did not achieve a cut
240 distance of 150% leg length during the maximal trial, but did during the normalised trial. Also,
241 one participant for the dominant leg and the non-dominant leg did not achieve a cut distance
242 of 150% leg length during the normalised trial, but did during the maximal trial. These

243 observations suggest that for both legs, all participants were able to achieve the 150% leg length
244 target during either or both conditions.

245 **Table 2** Raw and percentage of leg length leap distances for maximal and normalised to 150% of leg length conditions for the single-leg drop-
 246 land-cut task. Data are mean \pm SD, range (minimum, maximum), and 95% confidence interval [lower, upper].

CUT task	Maximal		Normalised		Effects p value, η_p^2		
	Non-dom	Dom	Non-dom	Dom	Condition	Dominance	Interaction
Raw (cm)	153.5 \pm 24.9 (115, 197)	155.5 \pm 24.5 (123, 206)	140.4 \pm 20.4 (105, 181)	140.9 \pm 19.0 (104, 170)	$p < 0.001^*$ η_p^2 0.417 [0.161, 0.580]	$p = 0.282$ η_p^2 0.046 [0.000, 0.219]	$p = 0.429$ η_p^2 0.025 [0.000, 0.181]
Normalised (%)	174.0 \pm 20.2 (122, 219)	176.2 \pm 17.0 (138, 216)	158.5 \pm 5.8 (147, 172)	159.5 \pm 5.7 (143, 167)	$p < 0.001^*$ η_p^2 0.432 [0.175, 0.591]	$p = 0.247$ η_p^2 0.053 [0.000, 0.230]	$p = 0.547$ η_p^2 0.015 [0.000, 0.156]

Note: Abbreviations: Dom = dominant, Non-dom = non-dominant, * indicates statistical significance ($p \leq 0.05$), negative values indicate larger right value. Effect size: *small* (0.01), *medium* (0.06), *large* (0.14)³⁶.

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248 **Table 3** Leap distances by condition and order. Data are mean \pm SD, range (minimum, maximum), and mean difference with 95% confidence
 249 interval [lower, upper].

	Maximal				Normalised			
	First	Second	MD [95% CI]	<i>p</i> value, η_p^2	First	Second	MD [95% CI]	<i>p</i> value, η_p^2
Raw (cm)	145.7 \pm 23.8 (115, 206)	163.3 \pm 22.1 (130, 201)	17.7 [-1.0, 36.3]	<i>p</i> = 0.062, η_p^2 0.138 [0.000, 0.338]	142.2 \pm 20.6 (104, 181)	138.9 \pm 18.6 (111, 169)	3.2 [- 12.8, 19.3]	<i>p</i> = 0.681, η_p^2 0.007 [0.000, 0.131]
Normalised (%)	168.2 \pm 16.5 (122, 200)	182.1 \pm 18.1 (141, 219)	14.0 [0.5, 27.5]	<i>p</i> = 0.042*, η_p^2 0.161 [0.003, 0.363]	157.6 \pm 4.8 (150, 171)	160.3 \pm 6.3 (143, 172)	2.7 [-1.2, 6.6]	<i>p</i> = 0.171, η_p^2 0.076 [0.000, 0.267]

Note: Abbreviations: MD = mean difference, CI = confidence interval, * indicates statistical significance ($p \leq 0.05$), negative values indicate larger right value. Effect size: *small* (0.01), *medium* (0.06), *large* (0.14)³⁶.

251

Discussion

252 There is currently a lack of standardisation of the CUT task. Given the incidence of
253 ACL injury in young athletes², it is important to understand the differences that exist for these
254 tasks when used to explore potential injury risk factors linked to single-leg landings. Our aim
255 was to compare the distances leapt during a CUT task under maximal and normalised
256 conditions (set to 150% leg length) in young court and field sport athletes, and to determine
257 the effect of leg dominance and order of tests on outcomes. In agreement with our hypotheses,
258 the distance leapt was significantly further with the maximal condition compared to the
259 normalised condition (mean difference: 13.9 cm or 16.1% of leg length), however, contrary to
260 our hypothesis, no significant differences were observed between dominant and non-dominant
261 legs. The significantly large differences in effect size observed between the normalised and
262 maximal conditions values emphasises that, although both conditions have their benefits and
263 limitations, the condition selected for assessment warrants consideration as they are
264 fundamentally different.

265 Additionally, when examining the significant interaction effect between condition and
266 order ($p = 0.024$), it was observed that if participants completed the normalised condition first,
267 they then leapt significantly further during the respective maximal condition compared to those
268 who completed the maximal condition first ($p < 0.001$). As the normative value was set, it was
269 not influenced by the maximal condition being performed first. These results highlight the
270 potential variation in perceptions of effort in this population of young athletes as they were able
271 to achieve a further distance once they had jumped to the set distance previously. It is possible
272 that the participants were able to hop further when performing the maximal condition second
273 as they would have practiced the task more times, albeit sub-maximally, by performing the
274 normalised condition first. In a clinical or research setting, employing a normalised trial prior
275 to a maximal effort trial could lead to a 'truer' result for the maximal effort trial. Furthermore,

276 no significant differences were observed between variances of the order of condition which
277 suggests similarities in this outcome between participants ($p = 0.755$ and $p = 0.694$) for raw
278 and normalised respectively. Perception of maximal effort and consistency in motor control
279 during the maximal effort trials may be more varied in younger populations. As demonstrated
280 by Lamb, et al. ²¹, some participants can believe that they are performing maximally, but once
281 given a target, may achieve further distances. The maximal condition may be better suited when
282 observing pre-test post-test performance differences within a given individual or when the
283 group has similar physical abilities, perceptions of effort, and anthropometric characteristics.
284 The normalised method may be better when seeking to compare groups with a wider range of
285 abilities, varied perceptions of effort, and differences in anthropometric characteristics.
286 Furthermore, selecting the normalised task may be better if the task goal is completion oriented
287 rather than performance oriented.

288 The range of individual ability for the maximal condition and how different the distance
289 was from the standardised condition are also noteworthy. Landing distance was more variable
290 under the maximal condition, as demonstrated by the large standard deviations and significant
291 differences in variance between the maximal and normalised conditions ($p = 0.048$ for raw and
292 $p < 0.001$ for normalised). These results demonstrate that there were variations in ability and/or
293 effort applied between participants, which should be considered in task selection and result
294 interpretation. It is possible that the presence of a floor tape marker in the normalised condition
295 served as a visual target which introduces a potential confounding factor when comparing the
296 normalised condition to the maximal condition. A visual target may reduce movement
297 variability by providing participants with an external reference point, which may influence
298 motor planning and execution³⁷. Contrastingly, the lack of a target in the maximal effort
299 condition could inherently allow for more variability. This discrepancy could have contributed
300 to observed differences in movement consistency between conditions. Researchers have

301 suggested that children often adopt different movement patterns from trial-to-trial, possibly in
302 attempt to learn how their bodies produce more force and therefore achieve a better
303 performance outcome, but nonetheless, altering their biomechanics each time³⁸. Raffalt, et al.
304 ³⁸ found higher intra-subject variability in the movement patterns of children compared to
305 adults when assessing reaction force components and angular biomechanics during maximal
306 effort jumping tasks. Previous research has suggested greater variability in jump length in a
307 pre-peak height velocity group during a broad jump task³⁹ and greater jump height variability
308 during a vertical jump task in younger participants, which diminishes with maturation and
309 growth⁴⁰⁻⁴². Selection of the normalised condition in our target population of young field and
310 court sport athletes may encourage more consistency in performance and movement patterns
311 leading to a more natural demonstration of how the participant would typically perform the
312 task in a sporting situation. However, the variation in physical ability that exists in youth
313 populations and that is demonstrated by the variance under the maximal condition, may
314 influence the level of challenge provided by the normalised test condition.

315 All participants except for two leapt to the 150% of leg length distance during the
316 maximal trials, which seems like an appropriate distance based on the lower end of the maximal
317 distance values (122% non-dominant and 138% dominant, Table 2). When set to 150%, all
318 participants were close to the set target (lower end 147% non-dominant and 143% dominant).
319 Research has previously suggested that normalising tasks can be considered good practice in
320 research as it allows standardisation in an individualised sense⁴³. Practically, setting the same
321 absolute distance or requiring a maximal landing distance may be unsuitable for comparing
322 individuals of different heights, ages, maturation, sexes, and abilities. In a heterogeneous
323 sample, using a CUT task normalised to leg length allows greater standardisation and facilitates
324 valid comparisons between individuals. Whether 150% of leg length is the most appropriate
325 has not been established, but it appears reasonable and achievable based on our dataset. Setting

326 the distance to 175% might be more reflective of a maximal effort, but it is unlikely that all
327 participants could reach this threshold based on the performance of participants in the current
328 study.

329 The CUT task has not been used extensively in previous research to explore movement
330 performances based on maturation phases¹⁶, hence further research is required as there are no
331 tools unequivocally agreed to be linked with ACL injury incidence. It has been suggested that
332 a larger lateral step distance in a cutting task increases hip and knee extension, and ankle plantar
333 flexion torques⁴⁴. Additionally, Havens and Sigward⁴⁵ noted greater knee abduction moments
334 during cutting with wider lateral foot plants. Therefore, the distance of the cutting task could
335 be an important factor to consider in rendering a task more sensitive and specific for assessing
336 risk of ACL injury. A normalised method for setting distance during a CUT is yet to be explored,
337 however, previous research has used maximal effort methods. Hass, et al.²² used a maximal
338 effort CUT task alongside a landing task and a vertical jump task for assessing lower extremity
339 injury risk in pre-pubertal and post-pubertal females. Their study found significant interactions
340 between maturation phase and landing sequence for post-pubertal compared to pre-pubertal
341 participants who demonstrated biomechanics linked with ACL injury incidence. The
342 researchers suggested these results to be a consequence of differences in motor and
343 neuromuscular control strategies (such as reflex and voluntary muscle activation) at different
344 maturational phases and they emphasised the need to study multiple landing strategies. It is
345 logical to assume that instructing participants to perform a task using a maximal effort would
346 create a relatively consistent challenge level between participants; however, differences in
347 effort perception and neuromuscular ability may influence their ability to produce a maximal
348 or close to maximal effort repeatedly. It is also currently unknown whether performing the
349 maximal version of this or any jump-landing task is injury-risk specific. It is possible that a
350 threshold exists where a normalised distance is challenging enough to elicit biomechanical

351 patterns similar to a maximal effort, but determining this threshold would require further
352 biomechanical research. Typically, athletes are not required to leap laterally as far as possible
353 in a sporting situation as they are usually only required to leap far enough to evade a player or
354 to make a play, indicating that a normalised distance may suffice for assessment of movement
355 competency in the context of ACL injury risk.

356 Our study is not without limitations. Although the order of tests (normalised or
357 maximal) was randomised, an order effect was observed. Therefore, it is possible that the
358 participants gave different levels of effort across the trials, but not necessarily produced a true
359 maximal effort owing to factors such as fatigue, familiarisation, perception of effort, or
360 attention. Perceived difficulty was not collected in this study, limiting our ability to quantify
361 the participants' perceptions of the task demands. Furthermore, the CUT task was anticipated
362 (i.e., participants knew which leg to land on and perform the task with), limiting generalisation
363 to unanticipated tasks that are more reflective of ACL injury mechanisms⁴⁶. It has been
364 suggested that individuals use different strategies to execute planned versus unplanned
365 movements, specifically, greater implications of overuse injuries are apparent in planned
366 compared to unplanned movements. Future research should examine whether biomechanics
367 are affected based on whether the task is set or involves a reactive component, as well as how
368 biomechanics change with increase in leaping distance. A further limitation is the sample size
369 ($n = 26$), which represented a cross-section of the maturation stages for both sexes. With a
370 larger sample size than 26 participants based on detecting differences between CUT tasks, it
371 would have been possible to further explore additional factors, such as the effect of maturation
372 on outcomes or between sex differences. Furthermore, the mean hop distance of the normalised
373 condition was 159% of leg length, exceeding the 150% target. There are several potential
374 underlying factors to this overshooting: the landing distance was too easy; participants had
375 difficulty seeing the target in their peripheral vision while facing forwards; the Hawthorne

376 effect⁴⁷ and the testing environment incited participants to perform better than the requirement;
377 or the decision to measure the distance based on a marker placed on the toes rather than the
378 midfoot or heel. It is generally common in sports and jump tests involving horizontal
379 components for individuals to be instructed to “reach” a set landing distance (Padua et al.,
380 2009), inferring they must get to or exceed the set target. Reinforcing the importance of landing
381 on the target or re-doing trials which were too far off the target would likely bring the mean
382 value closer to the target.

383 Further research is required to determine if 150% leg length is the most appropriate
384 distance for normalisation or if perhaps closer to our mean maximal values of 175% would be
385 more suitable and achievable. Furthermore, it would be beneficial to determine if an ideal
386 percentage of leg length exists for the normalised CUT which best represents that of a high
387 ACL injury risk sporting situation, particularly in different maturational groups or in groups
388 with different abilities. Assessing what the average cutting distance is across the course of a
389 game, considering fatigue, within different sports and quantifying this in relation to percentage
390 of leg length may inform the development of screening tools which are more specific to the
391 demands of the sport.

392 To conclude, on average, participants leapt significantly further during the CUT task
393 when requiring a maximal effort compared to when normalising the distance to 150% of leg
394 length, suggesting significantly different performance demands of the conditions. However, a
395 more variable landing distance was observed during the maximal condition, as indicated by
396 larger standard deviations and significant variance in absolute deviations. We recommend that
397 normalising leaping distance to leg length allows for standardisation of the CUT task and
398 facilitates comparisons between individuals deriving from a heterogeneous sample. However,
399 the normalised condition may not elicit a maximal response or sufficiently represent an injury-
400 risk specific situation. Hence, selection of a protocol specific to the study goals is important. A

401 normalised distance based on a percentage of leg length may be better suited when examining
402 individuals presenting with a wide range of heights, maturation stages, sexes, or physical
403 abilities, yet a maximal distance may be more suitable for a more homogeneous sample or pre-
404 post study designs. Future research should investigate whether lower-extremity kinematics and
405 kinetics differ between normalised and maximised CUT tasks and explore the specificity of
406 these manoeuvres to biomechanics related to ACL injury risk.

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