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1 **FORCE-TIME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COUNTERMOVEMENT JUMP:**
2 **ANALYZING THE CURVE IN EXCEL**

3
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69 **ABSTRACT**

70 Increased popularity in the utilization of force plates to measure countermovement jumps
71 (cmjs) for performance monitoring warrants the need for strength and conditioning coaches and
72 sport scientists to better under-stand its force-time characteristics and the calculation of its
73 associated variables. this article aims to provide information on how to understand and analyze
74 the force-time curve of cmjs in microsoft excel, thus providing practitioners an inexpensive and
75 accessible alternative to readily avail-able software on the market.

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103 **INTRODUCTION**

104 The countermovement jump (CMJ) is a highly-used movement to help coaches determine
105 performance changes (1) and fatigue levels (4,15). Typically jumps are measured using contact
106 mats, linear position transducers (LPTs), photoelectric cells, or smartphone applications, and
107 their associated software. Although these technologies are reliable, cost significantly less than
108 force plates, provide instantaneous results, and are portable, they can constrain testing metrics
109 to absolute outcome measures such as jump height, lower-body power (5,15), and concentric
110 force and velocity through theoretical integration (16). Although these variables are highly
111 relevant to sports performance and perhaps readiness to train, valuable information related to
112 vertical ground reaction force (VGRF) cannot be measured, which can provide details as to
113 how these outcome measures are achieved and an insight into alternative variables unavailable
114 through the aforementioned.

115

116 Recently, there has been an increased interest in the use of force plates to collect CMJ variables,
117 potentially because of their increase in affordability and accessibility. The caveat to collecting
118 CMJ variables from a force plate is that the practitioner needs a way to process the data, and
119 this may incur additional costs for automated software. An alternative is to process and analyze
120 raw force plate data using Microsoft Excel (or other spreadsheet software) to analyze variables
121 that not only relate to absolute outcome measures but also information relating to the jumper's
122 force capabilities, such as impulse during specific phases of the jump. Therefore, the aim of
123 this study is to assist practitioners in understanding the key CMJ phases by explaining how to
124 define them and calculate them using Microsoft Excel.

125

126 **UNDERSTANDING THE FORCE-TIME CURVE**

127 Before analyzing any data in Microsoft Excel, it is important for coaches and sports scientists
128 to understand the CMJ force-time curve. This will make it easier to understand the key phases
129 from which variables are derived. Figure 1 depicts a typical CMJ force-time curve plotted with
130 force on the "y" axis and velocity on the "x" axis. Before the beginning of the movement, there
131 is a steady stance, or quiet standing, period ("bodyweight" between 0 and "A" in Figure 1; to
132 be discussed later in the article). Once the movement begins, impulse (area under the force
133 curve relating to force and time) drops below the bodyweight baseline (Figure 1A and 1B) (11).
134 This is known as the "unweighting phase," where the athlete begins to flex the knees and hips,
135 and drops their center of mass (COM) causing a downward acceleration, with the end of this
136 phase defined by the lowest velocity before take-off (Figure 1C). To overcome this, the athlete

137 now activates their leg musculature and thus, creating an impulse above baseline (bodyweight),
138 although at this point, they are still moving downward. It is when the athlete reaches zero
139 velocity (Figure 1D) or when the impulse above baseline (Figure 1B–D) is equal to the impulse
140 created during the unweighting phase (Figure 1A and 1B), the jumper achieves his/her lowest
141 countermovement position. This is termed as the “braking phase,” which is directly followed
142 by the “propulsive phase” exhibited by a rise in peak force (Figure 1D and 1E). The reduction
143 in force after peak force to the point of take-off is denoted in Figure 1G where the jumper’s
144 feet leaves the floor, so that their COM is now higher than it was at the beginning of the jump.
145 At this point, the athlete’s COM has reached zero acceleration and their velocity has peaked
146 just before “flight” (Figure 1F). Once in flight, his/her COM begins to decelerate due to the
147 effect of gravity.

148

149 At this point, the jumper is experiencing zero velocity and is moving neither up nor down, thus
150 depicting the apex of the jump or peak displacement (Figure 1H). The instance of landing
151 occurs when force begins to increase on contact (Figure 1I), with peak landing force depicted
152 as the largest spike after landing (Figure 1J).

153

154 **COLLECTING AND ANALYZING THE DATA**

155

156 ***SETTING UP THE TEMPLATE AND ACCOUNTING FOR SAMPLING FREQUENCY***

157 The template layout depicted in Figure 2 is a simplistic layout to help define key information
158 that dictates the different phases of the jump. Hereafter, the article will refer to cells relating to
159 the template, although any combination of the template can be created to fit the reader’s
160 requirements.

161

162 First, the sampling frequency needs to be converted from hertz (Hz) to time (s). The sampling
163 effectively tells us how many data points are collected in 1 second and will be needed when
164 calculating bodyweight, impulse, velocity, and displacement. The determination of the
165 sampling frequency will be dependent on the force plate’s capabilities, with the thought that
166 higher frequencies will capture more accurate values (i.e., more data points per second) (7);
167 however, practitioners may consider going as low as 200 Hz because values relating to jump
168 performance measures have marginal differences (21.8 to 1.31%) when compared with
169 frequencies as high as 500 Hz (7)

170 Next to the “Sample Frequency” cell (Figure 2, cell K1) insert the frequency at which the jump
171 was collected. Below this cell, the Time point can be defined inserting equation a (Table 1)
172 next to the “Time point (s)” cell (Figure 2, K2). The Time point should now auto-calculate
173 when a sampling frequency is entered. As an example, a Sample Frequency of 1,000 Hz will
174 give a data point every 0.001 second.

175

176 ***PROCESSING THE COLUMNS***

177 Before extracting jump phase information, the authors recommend setting up the equations b–
178 g (Table 1) in columns C–H. These columns will process acceleration, velocity, displacement,
179 and power during each Time point and will play a fundamental role in defining the jump phases
180 and extracting variables of interest. Initially “Net Force (N)” needs to be calculated in column
181 C by subtracting the jumper’s bodyweight away from the force pasted in column B. At this
182 point, the value that comes up will be the same as the absolute force because the jumper’s
183 bodyweight has not yet been calculated (this is described in the defining bodyweight section).
184 From the net force column, the “Impulse (N·s)” can be calculated in column D using equation
185 c (Table 1). This is the integration of force and time, and is commonly referred to as the area
186 under the curve. The impulse is calculated as an average of the net force generated over 2 Time
187 points multiplied by time and will help provide information on the total amount of force
188 generated during specific phases of the jump. Previous literature has shown that there are
189 differences in curve characteristics and impulse between skilled and unskilled jumpers (6) as
190 well as strong and weak jumpers (2). More skilled and stronger jumpers are shown to create a
191 greater impulse through exerting higher levels of force over a shorter period of time during the
192 propulsive phase as indicated by an increase in jump velocity and rate of force development
193 (3). This means that they are able to accelerate their mass faster, create a greater take-off
194 velocity, and thus jump higher. Second, shallower countermovements (i. e., end of unweighting
195 to end of braking phase) have also been reported to decrease after strength and power
196 interventions (1,5), suggesting improved ability to use the stretch-shortening cycle.

197

198 Therefore, based on the above, using eccentric and concentric impulse as a variable to monitor
199 performance can provide coaches with information about how outcome measures are achieved,
200 and potentially indicate the nature of change elicited by a training intervention or fatigue. Using
201 the principles of physics, the following equations can be used to calculate columns E–H,
202 respectively:

203

204	Acceleration	$a = \frac{F}{m}$	(eq 1)
205	Velocity	$V = u + at$	(eq 2)
206	Displacement	$s = \frac{1}{2}(v - u)t$	(eq 3)
207	Power	$P = FV$	(eq 4)

208

209 Where; a = acceleration, F = force, m = mass, V = final velocity, u = initial velocity, t = time,
 210 s = displacement, and P = power.

211

212 The calculation of acceleration conducted in column E (Table 1, equation d), simply divides
 213 absolute force by the athlete's mass. Because the athlete's mass has not yet been calculated
 214 from the baseline (this is described in the defining bodyweight section), an error, #DIV/0!, may
 215 appear in the cell, which will change once mass is defined. Because acceleration has been
 216 calculated, it can be integrated to derive velocity using equation 2 as shown above. This is
 217 achieved by adding initial velocity to the sum of acceleration multiplied by time (Table 1,
 218 equation e). The calculation of velocity plays a significant role in helping to define where the
 219 specific phases of the jump occur and therefore plays a pivotal role when extracting variables
 220 of interest later. We can then integrate the velocity to obtain displacement, which will be used
 221 to help define the landing at a later phase. This is achieved by multiplying 0.5 by the sum of
 222 final velocity, minus initial velocity and then multiplying this by the Time point. The Time
 223 point in this case will be dependent on the frequency the jump was collected (Table 1, equation
 224 f). Power generated through the jump can also be easily calculated by multiplying force and
 225 velocity (Table 1, equation g), which allows us to extract power related variables. Because
 226 power is a sought-after CMJ metric, this is deemed an important performance factor in time-
 227 constrained tasks (13). Peak power, as the names states, is the peak (highest value) of work
 228 done within the jump. Much like peak force, this value represents one instantaneous moment
 229 in time, equivalent to 1 Hz, and there-fore only presents a small portion of the jump. Arguably
 230 average power presents a greater portion of the jump and may be able to help coaches decipher
 231 what changes have occurred, the jump strategies used, and at which phase, which may be
 232 particularly useful where performance is time constrained (i.e., must occur quickly). All
 233 equations need to be applied to all rows up to the end of your force and time data. This can
 234 easily be performed by highlighting the cells and double clicking the bottom right corner.

235

236

237 ***STEADY STANCE AND DEFINING BODYWEIGHT***

238 Before phase detection, it is important that practitioners understand the value and
239 methodological rigor required to collect CMJ force-time data. To collect reliable and easy-to-
240 analyze data, the plate must be zeroed before the athlete stands on it. Once this is performed,
241 the athlete must adopt the ready position (hands on hips and feet preferred width apart) and
242 stand motionless on the plate for at least 1 second so that bodyweight can be obtained (14). The
243 importance of this is to quantify the jumper's bodyweight by averaging the motionless period,
244 which in turn will enable the detection of the initiation of the jump at a later stage.

245

246 Once data has been collected, check using the data acquisition software to see whether there is
247 a quiet stance of at least 1 second before movement. If large levels of fluctuation are identified
248 in the steady stance, the authors suggest a new trial to be recorded. When happy with the
249 acquired data, transfer it to a text file and copy and paste the time and raw data of the VGRF
250 into cells A2 and B2 of the spreadsheet, respectively. It is suggested to graph these data using
251 a scatter plot with smooth lines to visualize the force-time curve. This helps contextualize the
252 equations that need to be entered into Excel and ensures that data are obtained from the phases
253 of interest.

254

255 Next to "Baseline Start" (Figure 2, cell K3), insert the cell number of where the baseline should
256 start from. Under this, insert equation h (Table 1) which will end the baseline 1 second after
257 the defined start. Remember, this period must have a flat line with minimal fluctuations and be
258 as close to the beginning of the jump as possible (i.e., from when force starts to decrease). It is
259 now possible to find the average force between the 2 baseline markers to compute the athlete's
260 bodyweight. This is performed by entering equation i (Table 1) next to the "Bodyweight (N)"
261 cell and can then be converted into mass (kg) in the "Mass (kg)" cell by simply dividing the
262 value by gravitational force (9.81) (Table 1, equation j).

263

264 ***DEFINING THE START***

265 Defining the start of the jump dictates the accuracy of the variables derived from the CMJ;
266 therefore, using a robust methodology is imperative. Unfortunately, there is no agreed method
267 for determining the initiation of the jump, with previous research defining the initiation using
268 manual inspection, predetermined thresholds based on percentage of bodyweight (10) and 5 SD
269 of bodyweight (14).

270

271 In brief, the manual inspection method can be time consuming and is not a viable option for
272 coaches with time constraints, and of course lends itself to human error, and although reliable,
273 the predetermined threshold could very well exclude signals relating to the jump. Identifying
274 the initiation of the jump as the first force value less than 5 SD of bodyweight has been shown
275 to reduce the probability of identifying the incorrect start point (14). To achieve this,
276 bodyweight minus 5 SD needs to be obtained in Excel. In the cell to the right of the “BW - 5
277 SD Value (N),” insert equation k (Table 1). This will effectively subtract 5 SD from body-
278 weight and identify the start of the jump. After this, equations l and m (Table 1) can be used to
279 calculate the row number and associated time point at which “BW - 5 SD Value (N)” occurs,
280 respectively. It is important to understand that at this point, movement has occurred, and the
281 jump has already started; thus, velocity will not be zero. In turn, this can reduce the accuracy
282 of the velocity calculations and affect phase detection and outcome measures such as jump
283 height and power. To calculate an appropriate point at which velocity is likely to be zero,
284 Owens et al. (14), suggested that the point of integration (point when VGRF after signal to
285 jump exceeds $BW \pm 5 SD$) is taken -30 ms from the initiation of the jump (-30 ms from
286 bodyweight - 5 SD). This is out-lined in Table 1 equation n-p, and will therefore start
287 calculating velocity, displacement, and power -30 ms from the defined start threshold of BW-
288 5 SD, with greater confidence that velocity is at 0.

289

290 ***FINDING PEAK FORCE***

291 The peak force of the jump refers to the largest force generated before take-off. To compute
292 the end of the un-weighting phase and braking phase, respectively, knowing the row of peak
293 force will act as a reference point, therefore shortening the number of equations required. The
294 peak force row, time, and value can be calculated using equations q-s (Table 1), using a
295 combination of INDEX and MATCH functions. Readers may notice that the value computed
296 in fact relates to the peak landing force. This is due to having not yet calculated the take-off
297 value, of which the “Peak Force Row” equation uses to tell Excel to look for the peak up to the
298 take-off.

299

300 ***FINDING THE END OF THE UNWEIGHTING PHASE***

301 The end of the unweighting phase is defined as when VGRF reaches a value equal to that of
302 the athlete’s body-weight (Figure 1B). Because the start threshold of the jump may not exist, it
303 can be difficult to ask Excel to find the same or similar value to define this phase. A good
304 alternative is to use the lowest velocity value (Table 1, equation t), which marks the end of the

305 negative acceleration associated with this phase. Once obtained, the Time point at which this
306 occurs, along with its associated value can be obtained (Table 1, equation u and v, respectively).

307

308 ***FINDING THE END OF THE BRAKING PHASE***

309 The end of the braking phase marks the athlete switching from a predominantly eccentric
310 motion to a predominantly concentric, propulsive motion. This is dictated by velocity reaching
311 0 and is calculated using equation w (Table 1). Once again, an INDEX function can be used to
312 define the Time point and value of the braking phase (Table 1, equation x and y, respectively).
313 Because velocity starts at 0 and goes into negative values, it is advised that the reader inserts
314 0.01 as the MATCH number in equation w (8). This will enable this function to search for the
315 first positive value after 0.

316

317 ***PEAK DISPLACEMENT***

318 Peak displacement will provide information on the COM such as its peak. This occurs when
319 velocity reaches zero and will help to later define the landing point within Excel, and thus peak
320 landing force (Table 1, equations z and aa).

321

322 ***TAKE-OFF AND LANDING***

323 Much like defining the start of a jump, many methods have been used to identify take-off. These
324 include: taking the value greater than the peak residual force across a 0.3-second period during
325 the flight phase (12), 5 SD during the flight phase across a 0.3-second period (9), and
326 identifying the first VGRF value under a defined threshold, such as 10 N (13). Because we need
327 to account for any variability produced by noise of either the individual or the force plate the
328 authors suggest using 5 SD of 300-ms flight force, thus reducing the misidentification of take-
329 off. To achieve this, Excel must look for a value less than 10 N in the force array by inserting
330 equation ab (Table 1). It should be noted that Excel may not find exactly 10 N; therefore, the -
331 1 in the equation will look for the smallest value in the array selected (in this case, the force
332 column) that is equal to or greater than 10 N. Once the take-off row is defined, the time and
333 value of take-off can be computed using equations ac and ad, respectively (Table 1).

334

335 Once this has been performed, the landing row, time, and force value can be calculated (Table
336 1, equations ae, af, and ag, respectively). This is calculated using a match function looking for
337 a value greater than 10 N between peak displacement and peak landing force. Now that take-
338 off and landing have been defined, a threshold using 5 SD needs to be calculated for both

339 phases. Previous literature (9,12) have used an arbitrary unit of 300 ms from take-off to
340 calculate the 5 SD thresh-olds because a meaningful change in the force can be detected that
341 best rep-resents the take-off and that falls out-side the noise of the force plate. Second, 300 ms
342 is a long enough time in that it measures a substantial amount of the flight time, given that most
343 individuals will have a flight time greater than 300 ms. When inserting the equations a_h and a_j
344 (Table 1), readers should be cautioned that the value 300 relates to 300 ms based off of the
345 1,000 Hz the example data were collected at. Therefore, should the reader collect jumps at a
346 different frequency, then it is recommended that this figure is altered so it represent 300 ms
347 (i.e., 500 Hz = 150). On completion, the time at which take-off and landing 5 SD occurs can be
348 calculated using equations a_k and a_l (Table 1), respectively.

349

350 **SETTING UP POINTS OF INTEREST**

351

352 Now that the spreadsheet functions can detect the start and end of key phases, it is useful to
353 present this in a graphical format (Figure 3). The authors suggest this for 2 reasons; (a) it allows
354 coaches to see whether the phases are in the correct place and allows for any corrections to be
355 made in the template if the points are incorrect relative to Figure 1. First and foremost, a scatter
356 plot graph needs to be inserted by selecting column B, going to the “Insert” tab and selecting
357 “scatter with smooth lines” under “charts.” Next, the point of interest (POI) can be inserted,
358 which include but are not limited to; Start, end of un-weighting, end of braking, and take-off.
359 This requires the use of an offset function, which will help define the specific POI in the force-
360 time curve. In cell K9, next to “BW - 5SD Row”, type the following formula; = OFFSET(B2,
361 K9,0), where B2 is the start of the Fz column, K9 is the start of row cell number, and 0 is the
362 column. This needs to be repeated for each POI replacing K9 with its respective row cell
363 number (i.e., end of unweighting is K15). From here, the POI can be added onto the graph by
364 right clicking the graph and selecting “Select data..” In the pop up, select “Add” and select the
365 series name, X value (row number), and Y value (offset value) for each POI. Once complete,
366 some editing is required to highlight these points. This is achieved simply by right clicking the
367 chart and selecting “Change chart type,.” selecting “Combo,.” and altering the Fz series to
368 “Scatter with smooth lines” and all series relating to the POI as “Scatter.” Note that the
369 “secondary axis” box for the POI should be unchecked. The POI colors can be edited to the
370 reader’s requirements. To add a key, click on the graph and go to “quick layout” found under
371 the “Design” tab and select the most convenient layout.

372

373 **TYPICAL VS ALTERNATIVE VARIABLES**

374

375 Now that the template is set up, it is possible to extract variables of interest. A range of variables
376 can be obtained from CMJ VGRF, and are generally categorized as “typical” and “alternative,”
377 as outlined in Table 2 (4,5). Typical variables refer to commonly used outcome measures that
378 relate to absolute values for the concentric portion of the jump (i.e., jump height and peak
379 power). Although these variables are easy to obtain, they may overlook key components within
380 the jump, which may help better explain altered jump strategies during fatigue or changes in
381 temporal force-time characteristics after an intervention. For example, the shape of the curve
382 has been shown to change after a periodized program of strength and power training (5), as
383 well as power-only interventions (1). The outcome elicited a shallower counter-movement,
384 steeper rise in force during the braking phase, and a higher peak force, with concurrent increases
385 in peak power and take-off velocity, and consequently, jump height. However, Cormie et al.
386 (1), concluded that peak performance variables, such as peak power and peak force, offer little
387 insight into how adaptations have occurred; thus, examining changes in temporal force and
388 power may help coaches more clearly understand the type of change elicited from an
389 intervention. It is for this reason that alternative variables have gained attention because they
390 may provide a better insight into neuromuscular-related changes relating to contraction times
391 (e.g., eccentric contraction time and concentric contraction time) and force-velocity
392 relationships (e.g., force at zero velocity and force-velocity area under curve). Furthermore,
393 given this greater insight into neuromuscular function, sensitivity to change can be explored in
394 greater depth, thus allowing coaches to understand the level and magnitude of changes
395 occurring, and more specifically, at what phase they occur. The authors have presented Excel
396 equations in Table 3 for some common variables that best describe jump characteristics.

397

398 **CONCLUSION**

399

400 It is important that coaches understand the constituent parts of the CMJ force-time curve before
401 processing force-time data and extracting variables that may be used to detect performance
402 changes or readiness to train. It can help coaches understand why it is important to calculate
403 key variables, using the most robust and easy-to-apply methods, within the confines of day-to-
404 day practice. Although peak values and averages relating to concentric data are highly reliable
405 in field-based technologies, the underpinning determinants of these factors are influenced by a
406 pre-stretch during the eccentric phase, of which the information is only obtainable through

407 force-time data. Second, the time taken during each phase could also give coaches an insight
408 into altered jump strategies. It should additionally be noted that with recent advances in
409 technology, more portable and affordable force plates have become available, enabling coaches
410 greater access to CMJ performance variables. Therefore, if viable, the authors suggest that force
411 plates be used to assess CMJ. This is primarily due to their ability to not only detect and monitor
412 underpinning changes in CMJ performance, but also to better inform training
413 prescription and the understanding of training adaptation.

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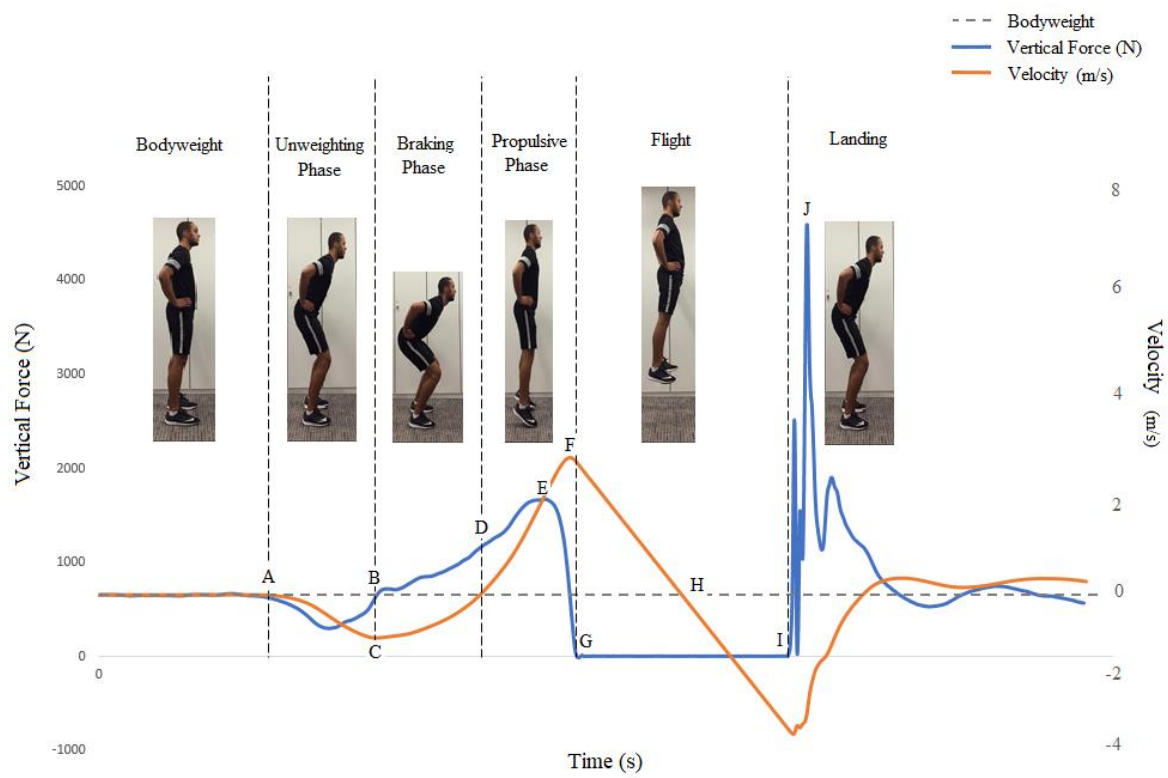


Figure 1. Force- and velocity-time characteristics of a countermovement jump.

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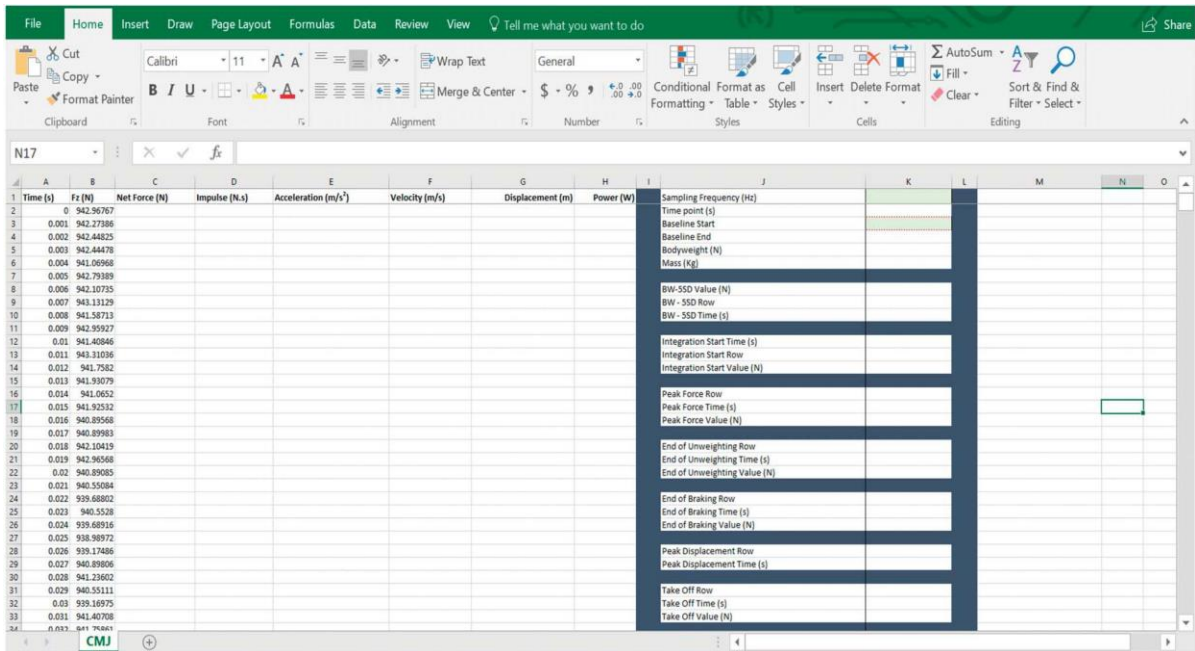


Figure 2. Excel template layout.

608 **Table 1.** Equations to calculate specific phases and variables pertaining to the CMJ in Microsoft Excel.

Cell Name	Equation	Excel calculation
Time	Copy and pasted from the raw data extracted from the force time curve.	
Force (N)		
a. Time point	= 1/ sample frequency	= 1/\$K\$1
b. Net Force (N)	= Force – bodyweight	=B2-\$K\$5
c. Impulse*	= (Average of current row and previous row of net force) * (1/sample frequency)	=(AVERAGE(C2:C3))*(1/\$K\$1)
d. Acceleration	= Net force / mass	= C2/\$K\$6
e. Velocity*	= IF(time point is >integration start time, SUM(velocity from above+(acceleration of row below*time point)),”0.00”)	=IF(A3>\$K\$12,SUM(F2+(E3*\$K\$2)),”0.00”)
f. Displacement*	= displacement from prior cell+(velocity of current row*(1/sample frequency))	=G2+(F3*(1/\$K\$1))
g. Power*	=IF(time point is>integration start time, Fz*integrated velocity,”0.00”)	=IF(A3>\$K\$12,B3*F3,”0.00”)
h. Baseline End (1 second)	= baseline start + sample frequency	= K3 + \$K\$1
i. Bodyweight (N)	= AVERAGE (INDEX (force array, baseline start): INDEX (force array, baseline end))	=AVERAGE(INDEX(B:B,K3):INDEX(B:B,K4))

j. Mass (kg)	= bodyweight/gravity	=\$K\$5/9.81
k. BW – 5SD Value (N)	= bodyweight- (5*STDEV.P(INDEX (force array, baseline start):INDEX(force array, baseline end))))	=K5-(5*STDEV.P(INDEX(B:B,K3):INDEX(B:B,K4)))
l. BW – 5SD Row	= MATCH(BW-5SD value, force array, -1)	=MATCH(K8,B:B,-1)
m. BW – 5SD Time (s)	= INDEX(time array, start row)	=INDEX(A:A,K9)
n. Integration Start Time (s)	= BW – 5SD time (s) – 0.03	=K10-0.03
o. Integration Start Row	=MATCH(Integration start time, time array, 1)	=MATCH(K12,A:A,1)
p. Integration Start Value (N)	=INDEX(net force array, integration start row)	=INDEX(B:B,K13)
q. Peak Force Row	=MATCH(MAX(INDEX(force array, first force cell):INDEX(force array, take off row cell)), force array, 0)	=MATCH(MAX(INDEX(B:B,B2):INDEX(B:B,K31)),B:B,0)
r. Peak Force Time (s)	=INDEX (time array, peak force row)	=INDEX(A:A,K16)
s. Peak force Value (N)	=INDEX (force array, peak force row)	=INDEX(B:B,K16)

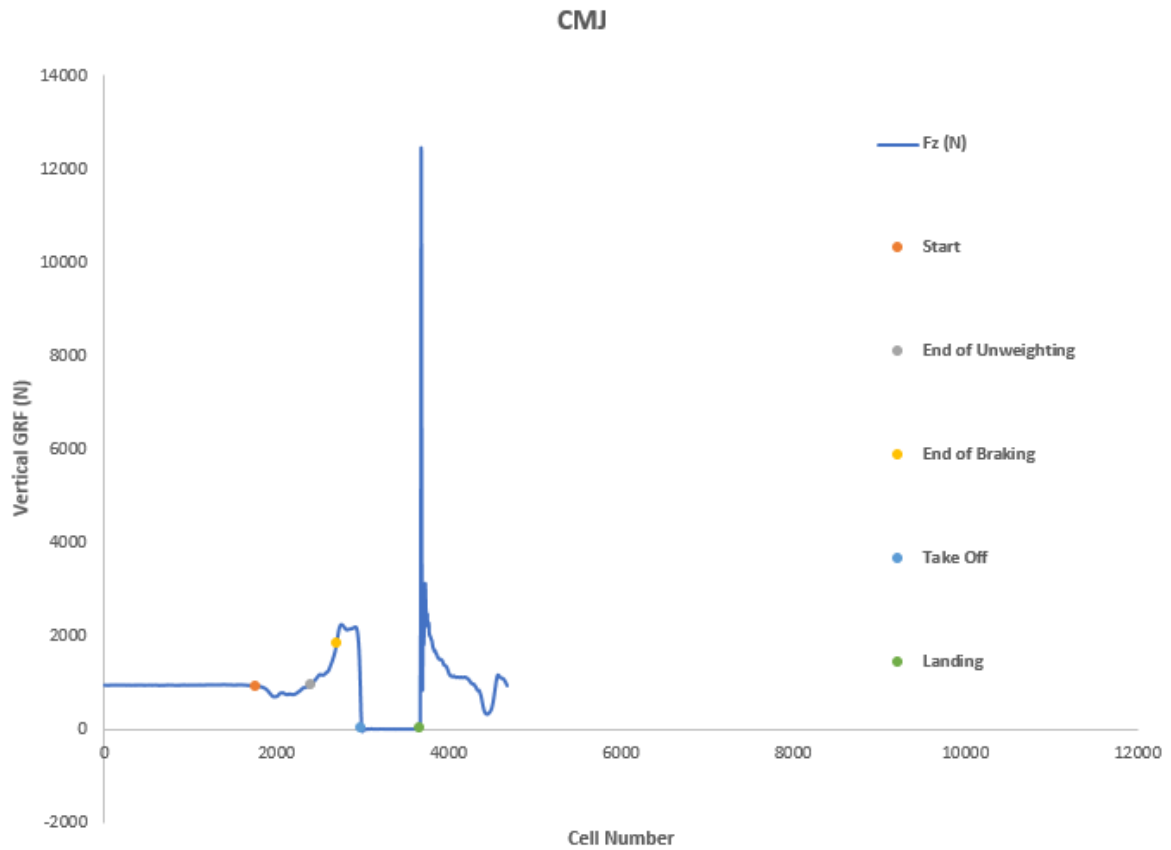
t. End of Unweighting Row	=MATCH(MIN(INDEX(velocity array,1):INDEX(velocity array, peak force row)),INDEX(velocity array,1):INDEX(velocity array, peak force row),0)	=MATCH(MIN(INDEX(F:F,1):INDEX(F:F,K16)),INDEX(F:F,1):INDEX(F:F,K16),0)
u. End of Unweighting Time (s)	=INDEX(time array, end of unweighting row)	=INDEX(A:A,K20)
v. End of Unweighting Value (N)	=INDEX(force array, end of unweighting row)	=INDEX(B:B,K20)
w. End of Braking Row	=MATCH(0.01,INDEX(velocity array,1):INDEX(velocity array, peak force row),1)	=MATCH(0.01,INDEX(F:F,1):INDEX(F:F,K16),1)
x. End of Braking Time (s)	=INDEX(time array, end of braking row)	=INDEX(A:A,K24)
y. End of Braking Value (N)	=INDEX(force array, end of braking row)	=INDEX(B:B,K24)
z. Peak Displacement Row	=MATCH(MAX(displacement array), displacement array,0)	=MATCH(MAX(G:G),G:G,0)
aa. Peak Displacement Time (s)	=INDEX(time array, peak displacement row)	=INDEX(A:A,K28)

ab. Take off Row	=MATCH(10,force array,-1)	=MATCH(10,B:B,-1)
ac. Take off Time (s)	=INDEX(time array, take off row)	=INDEX(A:A,K31)
ad. Take off Value (N)	=INDEX(force array, take off time)	=INDEX(B:B,K31)
ae. Landing Row	=MATCH(10,INDEX(force array,peak displacement row):INDEX(force array,(MATCH(MAX(force array),force array,0))),1)+peak displacement row	=MATCH(10,INDEX(B:B,K28):INDEX(B:B,(MATCH(MAX(B:B),B:B,0))),1)+K28
af. Landing Time (s)	=INDEX(time array, landing row)	=INDEX(A:A,K35)
ag. Landing Value (N)	=INDEX(force array, landing row)	=INDEX(B:B,K35)
ah. Take off/Landing Threshold 5SD (N)	=AVERAGE(INDEX(force array,(take off row+300)):INDEX(force array,(landing row-300)))+(5*STDEV.P (INDEX(force array,(take off row+300)):INDEX(force array,(landing row -300))))	=AVERAGE(INDEX(B:B,(K31+300)):INDEX(B:B,(K35-300)))+(5*STDEV.P(INDEX(B:B,(K31+300)):INDEX(B:B,(K35-300))))

ai. Take Off Row 5SD	=MATCH(take off/landing threshold, force array, -1)	=MATCH(K39,B:B,-1)
aj. Landing Row 5SD	=MATCH(take off/landing threshold, INDEX(force array,(take off row 5SD+300)):INDEX(force array,(MATCH(MAX(force array),force array,0))),1)+(take off row 5SD+300)	=MATCH(K39,INDEX(B:B,(K40+300)):INDEX(B:B,(MATCH(MAX(B:B),B:B,0))),1)+(K40+300)
ak. Take Off Row 5SD Time (s)	=INDEX(time array, take off row 5SD)	=INDEX(A:A,K40)
al. Landing Row 5SD Time (s)	=INDEX(time array, landing row 5SD)	=INDEX(A:A,K41)

*next to the variables name means add the equation in the cell below, and input 0 in the cell above.

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 625 **Figure 3.** Graphical representation of VGRF data with points of interest. CMJ =
 626 countermovement jump; GRF = ground reaction force.

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651 **Table 2** – Typical and alternative variables previously obtained from ground reaction force data of CMJ’s.

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Typical variables	Unit	Variable Definitions
Mean power	W	<i>peak concentric power / time of concentric phase.</i>
Maximum rate of power development	W/s	<i>largest power increase during a given time frame (ie, 30-ms)</i>
Time to peak power	s	<i>time it takes from the beginning of the propulsion phase to peak power</i>
Mean force	N	<i>peak concentric force / time of concentric phase</i>
Maximum rate of force development	N/s	<i>largest force increase during a given time frame (ie, 30-ms)</i>
Time to peak force	s	<i>time it takes from the beginning of the propulsion phase to peak force</i>
Relative net impulse	Ns/Kg	<i>total impulse / jumpers body mass</i>
Peak velocity	m/s	<i>fastest vertical speed of the centre of mass</i>
Minimum velocity	m/s	<i>slowest vertical speed of the centre of mass</i>
Velocity at peak power	m/s	<i>speed of the centre of mass at the point of peak power</i>
Flight time	s	<i>landing time – take off time</i>
Flight time: contraction time	-	<i>ratio of flight time to contraction time</i>
Alternative Metrics	Unit	Metric Calculations and Definitions
Force at 0 velocity	N	<i>force when velocity is zero (transition from eccentric to concentric)</i>

Force velocity – area under curve	N/ms^2	<i>area under the curve during eccentric phase</i>
Eccentric duration	s	<i>time of eccentric contraction during the countermovement</i>
Concentric duration	s	<i>time of concentric contraction during the jump</i>
Total duration	s	<i>eccentric + concentric duration</i>
Mean eccentric and concentric power over time	$\text{W} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>power during eccentric and concentric phase / total duration</i>
Reactive strength index modified	-	<i>jump height/time to take off</i>

653 W = Watts, W/s = Watts per second, N = Newtons, Ns = Newtons per second, m/s = meters per second, s = seconds, Ns/Kg = Newtons per second,
654 per kilogram, $\text{W} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ = Watts per kilo, per second.

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672 **Table 3** – Metrics obtainable from ground reaction force data of a CMJ.

Cell Name	Equation	Excel Calculation
a. Eccentric Impulse (Ns)	=SUM(INDEX(impulse array, end of unweighting row):INDEX(impulse array, end of braking row))	=SUM(INDEX(D:D,K20):INDEX(D:D,K24))
b. Concentric Impulse (Ns)	=SUM(INDEX(impulse array, end of braking row):INDEX(impulse array, take off row 5SD))	=SUM(INDEX(D:D,K24):INDEX(D:D,K40))
c. Duration of Eccentric Impulse (s)	= end of unweighting time – BW-5SD time	=K21-K10
d. Duration of Concentric Impulse (s)	= end of braking time – take off 5SD time	=K32-K25
e. Jump Height (m)	=SUM(MAX(velocity array)^2)/(2*gravity)	=SUM(MAX(F:F)^2)/(2*9.81)
f. Peak Force (N)	=peak force value - bodyweight	=K18-K5
g. Peak Power (W)	=MAX(INDEX(power array, integration start row):INDEX(power array,take off row 5SD))	=MAX(INDEX(H:H,K13):INDEX(H:H,K40))
h. Eccentric Avg. Power (W)	=AVERAGE(INDEX(power array,integration start row):INDEX(power array,end of braking row))	=AVERAGE(INDEX(H:H,K13):INDEX(H:H,K24))
i. Concentric Avg. Power (W)	=AVERAGE(INDEX(power array,end of braking row):INDEX(power array,take off row 5SD))	=AVERAGE(INDEX(H:H,K24):INDEX(H:H,K40))

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674 W = Watts, N = Newtons, Ns = Newton per second, m = meters, s = seconds