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Title Page

Knee Joint Coordination during Single-leg Landing in Different Directions

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1 **Abstract**

2 Knee joint coordination during jump landing in different directions is an important consideration
3 for injury prevention. The aim of the current study was to investigate knee and hip kinematics on
4 the non-dominant and dominant limbs during landing. Nineteen female volleyball athletes
5 performed single-leg jump landing tests in four directions; forward (0°), diagonal (30° and 60°),
6 and lateral (90°) directions. Kinematic and ground reaction force (GRF) data were collected using
7 a 10-camera Vicon system and an AMTI force plate. Knee and hip joint angles, and knee angular
8 velocities were calculated using a lower extremity model in Visual3D. A two factor repeated
9 measures ANOVA was performed to explore limb dominance and jump direction. Significant
10 differences were seen between the jump directions for; angular velocity at initial contact ($p <$
11 0.001), angular velocity at peak VGRF ($p < 0.001$), and knee flexion excursion ($p = 0.016$). Knee
12 coordination was observed to be poorer in the early phase of velocity-angle plot during landing in
13 lateral direction compared to forward and diagonal directions. The non-dominant limb seemed to
14 have better coordination than the dominant limb during multi-direction jump landing. Therefore,
15 dominant limbs appear to be at a higher injury risk than non-dominant limbs.

16

17 **Keywords:** knee stability, knee angular velocity, single-leg landing, volleyball athletes

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25 **Introduction**

26 Landing from jumps can induce moderate strain forces to the structures of the knee due to
27 the complex and aggressive nature of such tasks (Boden, Dean, Feagin, & Garrentt, 2000;
28 Kirkendall & Garrett, 2000). These can lead to knee injuries such as anterior cruciate ligament
29 (ACL) injury, which have been frequently reported during landing (Hootman, Dick, & Aqel, 2007).
30 A ‘soft-style landing’ with greater knee and hip flexion, has been shown to reduce ground reaction
31 forces (Devita & Skelly, 1992), which in turn has been shown to decrease loading of the ACL (Yu,
32 Lin, & Garrett, 2006).

33 Joint coordination may be described as the ability of the muscles to control a joint during
34 dynamic tasks such as landing. Measures of joint coordination may provide a greater insight into
35 the motor control by the central nervous system (Scholz, 1990). Coordination may also be
36 described as the ability to reduce joint loading during movement through improved dynamic
37 stability (William, Chmielewski, Rudolph, Buchanan, & Snyder-Mackler, 2001). William et al.
38 proposed that dynamic knee stability depends on articular geometry, soft tissue restraints, and joint
39 loading from both weight bearing and muscle forces. Therefore, any increases in knee stability
40 during landing may be as a result of improved coordination, and any fluctuation of movement
41 variability may represent poor coordination. However, in contrast, previous study reported that
42 atypically increases or decreases in variability may be the cause of injury (Robertson, Caldwell,
43 Hamill, Kamen, Whittlesey, 2014). This supported Kurz and Stergius (2004), who suggested that
44 abnormal movement patterns during movement perturbations could be observed in an unhealthy
45 system, indicating an inability to adapt or control movement in multiple degrees of freedom.

46 Previously angle-angle plots and velocity-angle plots (phase plane plot) have been used to
47 measure lower limb and joint coordination (Bartlett & Bussey, 2012). The use of angle-angle
48 diagram was first proposed by Grieve (1986) as a simple technique for analysing the interaction of

49 the angle data from two joints. These plots allow a representation of movement coordination of
50 two joints and how they ‘co-vary’ which can be used to compare coordination patterns between
51 conditions, and to focus on how the joint changes with respect to an adjacent joint. Phase plane
52 plots offer a representation of the interaction between joint velocity and angle. These may be used
53 to identify changes in joint control and coordination characteristics (Robertson, Caldwell, Hamill,
54 Kamen, Whittlesey, 2014). Excessive variation of movement pattern or poor coordination has been
55 associated with instabilities which are the result of neuromuscular impairment (Clark and Phillips,
56 1993), such as in gait of people with Parkinson disease. Heidersciot et al. (2002) demonstrated that
57 the coordination variability of the thigh/leg movement was different between individuals with and
58 without patellofemoral pain, with reduced variability representation movement compensation due
59 to pain.

60 Various directions of landing can be observed in different sporting activities. Previous
61 studies have shown differences in lower limb biomechanics during multi-directional landing
62 (Sinsurin, Srisangboriboon, & Vachalathiti, 2017; Sinsurin et al., 2013; Sinsurin, Vachalathiti,
63 Jalayondeja, & Limroongreungrat, 2016). However, assessment of differences in knee and hip
64 coordination during jump landing in different directions has not been reported to date. This should
65 provide a greater understanding of the knee coordination when performing different directions of
66 jump which could highlight important considerations for injury prevention. Therefore, the aim of
67 the current study was to investigate knee coordination during landing in various directions, and to
68 compare landing on the non-dominant knees and dominant knees. We hypothesised that differences
69 in knee and hip kinematics exist between jump-landing direction and between dominant and non-
70 dominant limbs.

71

72

73 **Methods**

74 *Participants*

75 Twenty-one female volleyball athletes were recruited. All had participated in the university
76 team and had no report of musculoskeletal problems on either leg in the three months prior to
77 testing. Exclusion criteria included any serious injury or surgery to the lower extremities, such as
78 ankle sprain, ACL injury, fracture, or patellar dislocation. Testing procedures were explained to all
79 participants. Each participant read and signed an informed consent form, which was approved by
80 the Committee on Human Rights Related to Human Experimentation of Mahidol University (COA.
81 No. 2013/045.1705).

82 A power calculation identified that 21 participants were required to provide a statistical
83 power of 85% and an effect size of 0.3 calculated from pilot data of 5 volleyball athletes. However,
84 data was incomplete for 2 participants, therefore data from only 19 participants was reported. The
85 athletes' average age and experience were 19.7 ± 1.4 years and 9.6 ± 2.0 years, respectively, and
86 all participants were right-leg dominant. The dominant limb was defined by the single-leg hop for
87 distance protocol, which determined the longest hop distance for the dominant side (van der Harst,
88 Gokeler, & Hof, 2007). In addition, height, body weight, leg length, knee width, and ankle width
89 were recorded.

90

91 *Jump-Landing Tests*

92 Multi-directional jump landing tests were collected in a Motion Analysis Laboratory.
93 Kinematic data were recorded using a 10 camera Vicon™ Nexus system (Oxford Metrics, Oxford,
94 UK) at 100 Hz, and force data were collected using an AMTI force plate (Advanced Mechanical
95 Technology, Massachusetts, USA) at 1,000 Hz. The force plate was used to define the events of an
96 initial contact and peak vertical ground reaction force (VGRF). Sixteen reflective markers were

97 placed bilaterally on the lower-limb bony prominences of participants including; anterior superior
98 iliac spines, posterior superior iliac spines, thighs, lateral condyles of the femurs, shanks, lateral
99 malleoli, heels, and the head of the 2nd metatarsal bones. A 30-cm-height wooden platform was
100 placed 70 cm from the centre of the force plate.

101 Tillman et al. (2004) reported that unilateral landing was 50% approximately in volleyball.
102 This supports the use of unilateral jump-landing test as an appropriate assessment of the risk of
103 lower extremity landing injuries (Sinsurin et al., 2013; Sinsurin et al., 2017; Tamura, Akasaka,
104 Otsudo, Schiozawa, Toda, & Yamada, 2017). Therefore, this study examined jump-landing test
105 with one leg. The participants stood on the platform on the leg to be tested and flexed the other
106 knee approximately 90° with a neutral hip rotation. To eliminate variability in jumping mechanics
107 due to arm-swing, the participants were asked to place both hands on their waist. Each participant
108 was instructed to carefully jump off the wooden platform without an upward jump action in order
109 to standardised the jump height between jump-landing tests in four directions. Four randomised
110 directions were used; forward (0°), diagonal (30° and 60°), and lateral (90°) (Figure 1). These have
111 been previously used by Sinsurin et al. (2013), who showed that jump-landing direction influenced
112 lower extremity biomechanics. The participants jumped and landed with the tested leg while always
113 facing and looking forward during the jump-landing tests. A successful trial was collected if the
114 participant was able to land on the centre of the force plate, maintain unilateral balance, and
115 maintain their hands on their waist. Unsuccessful trials were excluded, and the jump-landing test
116 was repeated. The participants were allowed up to five practice jumps landing in each direction
117 before the recorded trials. Participants were allowed to rest for five minutes between test directions
118 and for at least thirty seconds between individual jumping trials.

119

120

121 *Data Acquisition and Statistical Analysis*

122 The kinematic and force plate data were filtered using a fourth-order zero-lag Butterworth
123 digital filter at cut-off frequencies of 6 Hz and 40 Hz, respectively. The cut-off frequency was
124 determined by the residual analysis technique (Winter, 2005). A three-dimensional model was
125 constructed using Visual3D version 6 (C-Motion Inc., USA). The average of three successful trials
126 in each direction for each limb was analysed. The landing phase was identified from the initial
127 contact to 300 ms after initial contact. Knee and hip joint kinematics were calculated based on the
128 cardan sequence of XYZ, equivalent to the joint coordinate system proposed by Grood and Suntay
129 (1983). Knee-hip angle-angle plots, knee velocity-angle plots, knee flexion excursion, and knee
130 angular velocity at initial contact and at peak VGRF were reported. Knee flexion excursion was
131 calculated from an angular displacement from an initial contact to peak knee flexion during landing
132 phase.

133 Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 17. Repeated-measure ANOVA (2
134 \times 4, side \times jump-landing direction) were used to determine the effect of limb jump-landing
135 direction and knee side. In addition, post hoc pairwise comparisons were performed to compare
136 the landing directions. The statistical significance was set at an alpha level of 0.05.

137

138 **Results**

139 No significant interactions were seen between limb and direction of landing and no
140 significant differences were seen between the dominant and non-dominant limbs. However, the
141 direction of jump landing significantly affected knee angular velocity at initial contact with the
142 greatest velocity seen during the 0 degree jump and the lowest at 90 degrees ($F(1.388, 24.986) =$
143 $64.447, p < 0.001$). Conversely the greatest knee angular velocity at peak VGRF was seen during
144 the 90 degrees jump and the lowest at 0 and 30 degrees ($F(2.007, 36.127) = 16.583, p < 0.001$).

145 Whereas knee flexion excursion showed the lowest value during the 90 degrees jump ($F(3, 54) =$
146 $3.750, p = 0.016$). Further analysis of the patterns of knee flexion angle, knee angular velocity, hip-
147 knee angle-angle plot, and knee velocity-angle plots showed similar patterns for the non-dominant
148 and dominant limbs. However, non-dominant and dominant limbs revealed different movement
149 strategies between the different jump directions, Figures 2-6.

150

151 **Discussion and Implications**

152 The purpose of this study was to examine how knee joint coordination on the non-dominant
153 and dominant limbs respond during landing in various directions. Sagittal plane knee kinematics
154 included knee angular velocity at initial contact and at peak VGRF, and knee flexion excursion.
155 Moreover, differences in coordination during landing of the hip-knee angle-angle and knee
156 velocity-angle plots were explored.

157 Greater flexion of the knee and hip joints has been shown to help to reduce GRF during
158 landing (Onate, Guskiewicz, & Sullivan, 2001; Cronin, Bressel, & Fkinn, 2008). A key finding of
159 this study was that that jump-landing direction significantly influenced flexion excursion and
160 angular velocity of the knee. The difference of knee flexion excursion between directions was
161 small, albeit significant, with less excursion of knee flexion noted in lateral direction for both limbs
162 compared to other directions (Figure 2). However, a maximum difference of 2.4 degrees between
163 landing directions could not be considered as clinical important (Table 1).

164 At initial contact, significant differences were seen between landing directions with a trend
165 of decreasing knee angular velocity observed from forward, diagonal, and lateral direction,
166 respectively (Table 1). In addition, on average the knee angular velocity on the non-dominant limb
167 was lower than the dominant, although no significant differences were seen between limbs.
168 Previous studies (Sinsurin et al., 2013; Sinsurin et al., 2017) exhibited that lateral jump landing

169 needed higher knee flexion at initial contact than forward and diagonal directions. They suggested
170 that lateral jump landing has the higher risk of knee injury compared to forward and diagonal
171 directions. Indicating that athletes preferred a strategy of increased knee flexion at initial contact
172 to prevent knee injury. Therefore, the increased knee flexion and decreased knee angular velocity
173 at initial contact would be the preferred strategy of normal knee control responding jump landing
174 in forward, 30° diagonal, 60° diagonal, and lateral directions, respectively.

175 Previously, it has been reported that an increase of lower limb flexion during a soft-style
176 landing helps to control body downward motion more effectively (Laughlin et al., 2011; Favre,
177 Clancy, Dowling, & Andriacchi, 2016). Our data shows that, after foot contact, knee flexion
178 progressively increased (Figure 2) while angular velocity showed a trend of decrease in all
179 directions except with lateral direction (Figure 3). At peak VGRF, a significant greater knee angular
180 velocity of both limbs was noted in lateral direction compared to other directions (Table 1). This
181 finding would indicate that the better control of the knee during landing was noted in forward
182 direction followed by the diagonal and lateral directions. Even though athletes have the strategy to
183 prevent knee injury with increased flexion angle and decreased angular velocity at initial contact,
184 greater angular velocity during landing phase was observed in lateral jump landing (Figure 3). This
185 could be the result from poor control of eccentric contraction of knee extensor muscles in lateral
186 jump landing compared to other directions (Figure 3). This was the phenomenon of knee control
187 in healthy volleyball athletes, and it could be that the risk of knee injury might be higher in athletes
188 who have asymptomatic musculoskeletal problems, especially when landing in lateral direction.

189 Hip-knee angle-angle diagrams offer a representation of the movement coordination which
190 was compared qualitatively between conditions (Bartlett & Bussey, 2012). In addition, the
191 smoothness of movement may also be observed during movements in such angle-angle plots
192 (Richards, 2008). The current study focused on how the knee flexion changed with a change in the

193 hip flexion and how these ‘co-vary’ during landing, Figure 4. A linear relationship was observed
194 as ‘in-phase’ coordination. Increased knee flexion was observed while hip flexion increased during
195 landing for all jump-landing directions and sides. Comparing between directions, all plots showed
196 a smooth trend of increase for both sides. However, hip and knee muscular coordination responded
197 differently in jump-landing direction constraint, with the coordinative response in lateral direction
198 appearing to be different from the other directions. In particular, less hip-knee flexion-flexion angle
199 was noted during the lateral jump landing (Figure 4), which would indicate a greater stiffness of
200 the lower limb through the landing phase. Previous studies have reported an increased risk of lower
201 limb injuries with a higher joint stiffness, indicating poorer energy dissipation during landing
202 (Zhang, Bates, & Dufek, 2000). Moreover, in lateral direction, displacement of knee flexion was
203 greater than hip flexion compared to other directions for both limbs in the late phase of landing.
204 This might indicate that athletes need to keep lower center of mass position to maintain body
205 stability in lateral direction compared to other directions.

206 The knee coordination during landing phase was reported in terms of knee velocity-angle
207 or phase plane plot. Comparing patterns between directions in Figure 5, the knee velocity-angle
208 plot in the lateral direction was notably different from other directions. In lateral direction, knee
209 angular velocity progressively increased from initial contact to 35° knee flexion during landing,
210 whereas forward and diagonal demonstrated a progressive decrease of knee angular velocity
211 indicating that knee extensor muscle worked eccentrically with difficulty to control dynamic knee
212 flexion during lateral jump landing. With greater the control difficulty there is a higher risk of knee
213 injury, which would be exacerbated if athletes landed awkwardly or had a poor balance during
214 landing in lateral direction. Comparing patterns of knee velocity-angle plot between the non-
215 dominant and dominant limbs, Figure 6, knee angular velocity-angle plots exhibited a similar
216 pattern in each of the jump directions. Although a higher angular velocity was observed in the

217 dominant compared to the non-dominant limbs for all directions of jump landing. Previous studies
218 suggested that non-dominant limbs get used to weight-bearing and therefore have the less risk of
219 knee injury than dominant limbs (Ross, Guskiewicz, Prentice, Schneider, & Yu, 2004). In addition,
220 the findings from this current study are supported by Sinsurin et al., (2017) who reported that non-
221 dominant limbs seem land with more control than dominant limbs in volleyball athletes. This would
222 suggest a greater level of joint control, through a decrease of the number of functional degrees of
223 freedom allowed by the neuromuscular system. It has also been reported that after performing
224 preventive training, the knee coordinative response would be expected to change. In task constraint
225 when the direction of jump landing is changed, the pattern of angle-angle and angle-velocity plots
226 in lateral jump landing should have a similarity to the forward direction. Soft-landing style, more
227 flexion of hip and knee joints, which has been suggested to reduce the risk of lower injury during
228 landing in various direction (Sinsurin et al., 2017; Sinsurin et al., 2013). Further work to investigate
229 the effect of soft-landing styles on knee coordinate may provide a greater understanding of the
230 effect of training techniques to reduce injury mechanisms.

231 The findings of this study are specific to volleyball athletes, application of these findings
232 to other sports should be made with caution. Further studies are required to explore the coronal and
233 transverse plane hip and knee kinematics, and other athletic groups should be included to determine
234 if the patterns of knee and hip coordination are similar. Further factors that should be considered
235 include, gender differences, athletes with ACL insufficiency, recovering from ankle injury and
236 athletes with patellofemoral pain syndrome. Multi-direction jump landing could also be utilised to
237 investigate the effectiveness of lower limb rehabilitation and risk of re-injury.

238

239

240

241 **Conclusion**

242 The current study determined that direction of jump landing significantly influenced knee
243 flexion excursion and knee angular velocity during landing. In volleyball athletes, poor knee
244 coordination was observed in the early phase of lateral landing compared to forward and diagonal
245 directions. The non-dominant limb seems to land with better coordination than the dominant limb
246 during multi-direction jump landing. It may be possible to improve the control of the dominant
247 limb with training such as weight-bearing tasks to reduce risk of injury. Injury risk awareness
248 should be most concerned with lateral jump landing tasks in both limbs.

249

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252 **Disclosure statement**

253 No conflict of interest

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324 Table 1. Mean \pm SD of the knee kinematics during jump landings in forward (0°), 30° diagonal, 60° diagonal, and lateral (90°)
 325 directions

Dependent variables	Non-dominant				Dominant				p-values		
	0°	30°	60°	90°	0°	30°	60°	90°	Dominant	Direction	Interaction
Angular velocity at initial contact (degrees/sec)	235.3 \pm	202.4 \pm	160.5 \pm	90.8 \pm	238.0 \pm	205.3 \pm	183.2 \pm	104.7 \pm	0.649	< 0.001	0.331
Angular velocity at peak	104.4 ^{a,b,c}	100.1 ^{b,c}	108.3 ^c	68.6	94.6 ^{a,b,c}	108.2 ^{b,c}	83.3 ^c	49.6	0.963	< 0.001	0.212
VGRF (degrees/sec)	165.5 \pm	161.3 \pm	266.4 \pm	366.9 \pm	188.9 \pm	174.5 \pm	192.2 \pm	412.8 \pm	0.963	< 0.001	0.212
Flexion excursion (degrees)	181.6 ^{b,c}	218.1 ^{b,c}	221.0 ^c	243.7	220.6 ^c	357.9 ^c	269.1 ^c	324.8	0.398	0.016	0.926
	38.9 \pm	39.0 \pm	38.9 \pm	37.2 \pm	40.3 \pm	40.0 \pm	40.0 \pm	37.9 \pm	0.398	0.016	0.926
	6.2	5.4 ^c	5.7	4.9	6.3	5.4 ^c	4.9 ^c	4.8			

326 ^a Statistically significant difference compared with 30° diagonal direction (<0.05), ^b Statistically significant difference compared with
 327 60° diagonal direction (<0.05), ^c Statistically significant difference compared with lateral direction (<0.05), ^d Statistically significant
 328 difference compared with dominant limb (<0.05)

329

330

331

332 Figure 1. Research setting in the laboratory (modified from Sinsurin et al., 2017). 70cm is
333 the distance from the starting point of jump-landing tests to the center of force plate. A,
334 lateral (90°) jump landing for the right lower limb; B, 60° diagonal jump landing for the
335 right lower limb; C, 30° diagonal jump landing for the right lower limb; D, forward (0°)
336 jump landing for the right and left lower limbs; E, 30° diagonal jump landing for the left
337 lower limb; F, 60° diagonal jump landing for the left lower limb; G, lateral (90°) jump
338 landing for the left lower limb.

339

340 Figure 2. Knee flexion angle during landing of non-dominant knee (a) and dominant knee
341 (b). The y-axis is knee flexion angle (degrees). The x-axis is the time during landing phase
342 (300ms) which is normalised to 100% (%normalised landing phase).

343

344 Figure 3. Knee angular velocity during landing of non-dominant knee (a) and dominant
345 knee (b). The y-axis is knee angular velocity (degrees/sec). The x-axis is the time during
346 landing phase (300ms) which is normalised to 100% (%normalised landing phase).

347

348 Figure 4. Hip-knee angle-angle plot during landing of non-dominant knee (a) and dominant
349 knee (b). The y-axis is hip flexion angle (degrees). The x-axis is knee flexion angle
350 (degrees).

351

352 Figure 5. Comparing pattern of knee velocity-angle plot between directions of non-
353 dominant knee (a) and dominant knee (b). The y-axis is knee angular velocity
354 (degrees/sec). The x-axis is knee flexion angle (degrees).

355 Figure 6. Comparing pattern of knee velocity-angle plot between non-dominant and
356 dominant limbs in various directions (a) at forward (0 degree) direction (b) at 30 degrees
357 diagonal (c) at 60 degrees diagonal (d) at lateral (90 degrees) direction. The y-axis is knee
358 angular velocity (degrees/sec). The x-axis is knee flexion angle (degrees).