

1 **DOES THE USE OF A KNEE BRACE CHANGE THE**  
2 **BIOMECHANICS DURING A BADMINTON LUNGE**  
3 **TO THE NET, AND WHAT ARE THE**  
4 **IMPLICATIONS TO INJURY MECHANISMS?**

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19     **ABSTRACT**

20     The aim of this study was to determine changes in knee biomechanics during badminton lunges  
21     due to fatigue, lunge strategy and knee bracing. Kinetic and kinematic data were collected from  
22     sixteen experienced right-handed badminton players. Three factor repeated measures ANOVAs  
23     (lunge direction – fatigue – brace) were performed with Least Significant Difference pairwise  
24     comparisons. In addition, clinical assessments including; Y-balance test, one leg hop distance  
25     and ankle dorsiflexion range of motion were performed pre and post fatigue. The knee showed  
26     significantly greater flexion during the forehand lunge compared to backhand. In contrast, the  
27     internal rotation velocity and the knee extension moment were greater during backhand. Knee  
28     angular velocity in the sagittal plane, peak knee moment and range of moment in the coronal  
29     plane and stance time showed significantly lower values post fatigue. In addition, the peak knee  
30     adduction moment showed significantly lower values in the braced condition in both the  
31     fatigued and non-fatigued states, and no significant differences were seen for peak vertical force,  
32     loading rate, approach velocity, or in any of the clinical assessment scores. There appears to be  
33     greater risk factors when performing a backhand lunge to the net compared to a forehand lunge,  
34     and proprioceptive bracing appears to reduce the loading at the knee.

## 35 INTRODUCTION

36 Badminton is characterized by high intensity effort over short durations (Cabello, 2000), with  
37 players needing to move quickly in multiple directions (Jaitner & Gawin, 2007; Kuntze,  
38 Mansfield, & Sellers, 2010; Sturgess & Newton, 2008), and to execute shots while maintaining  
39 balance and motor control (Grice, 2008). Pivoting, jumping and lunges are the most common  
40 movements as players try to reach the shuttlecock or move back to a defensive position as  
41 quickly as possible (Gibbs, 1988; Robinson & O'Donoghue, 2008). Valdecabres, de Benito,  
42 Casal, & Pablos (2017) quantified that more than 50% of lunge movements were in a diagonal  
43 direction and Kuntze, Mansfield, & Sellers (2010) showed 15% of movements were from the  
44 centre of the court to the net.

45 Badminton kinetics and kinematics have been previously studied (Hong, Jun Wang, Kai Lam, &  
46 Tak-Man, 2014; Honsg, Wang, Lam, & Cheung, 2014; Kuntze et al., 2010). However, there  
47 appears to be a lack of studies investigating the effects of fatigue, which may give a greater  
48 understanding of injury risk factors for players and coaches, and assist in the decision making  
49 during training when considering shot performance and return to sports post injury.

50 During badminton 70% of injuries are to the lower limbs (Jafari, Mabani, Golami, & Mabani,  
51 2014; Jørgensen & Winge, 1987; Shah, Ansari, & Qambrani, 2014), with approximately 50% of  
52 these being patellar tendinopathy and patellofemoral joint syndrome (Shariff, George, &  
53 Ramlan, 2009). Extrinsic mechanisms such as; overtraining, muscle imbalance, lower extremity  
54 malalignment or knee joint laxity and training errors have all been reported as contributing  
55 factors in Patellofemoral pain (PFP) (Tumia & Maffulli, 2002). In addition, knee abduction  
56 moments have also been shown to be important contributors to symptoms (Myer et al., 2015).

57 PFP is often treated using exercise, foot orthoses, taping and knee braces (Bolgla & Boling,  
58 2011). Knee braces aim to improve the tracking of the patella in the trochlea groove (Paluska &  
59 McKeag, 2000). The use of proprioceptive bracing in injury prevention has also attracted some  
60 attention during daily activities (Selfe et al., 2011) and sports specific tasks (Hanzlíková et al.,  
61 2016; Sinclair, Selfe, Taylor, Shore, & Richards, 2016; Sinclair, Vincent, & Richards, 2017),  
62 however little is known about their efficacy when the athlete is in a fatigued state. The aim of  
63 this study was to determine the changes in knee kinetics and kinematics during badminton  
64 lunges to the net due to; fatigue, lunge direction (forehand and backhand) and knee bracing. It  
65 was hypothesized that fatigue would increase knee moments and decrease the stability during  
66 the clinical tests, whereas knee bracing would reduce knee moments and increase the stability  
67 during the clinical tests, and that the backhand lunge would show the greatest knee moments

68 and angular velocity. In addition, the effect of fatigue and bracing on clinical scores during  
69 dynamic stability and weight bearing tests were explored. It was hypothesized that dynamic  
70 stability during the clinical tests would decrease and angular velocity would increase during the  
71 lunge tasks following fatigue.

## 72 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 73 **Participants**

74 Sixteen right-handed badminton players (10 males and 6 females) with a mean age of  $27.1 \pm 9.0$   
75 years, height of  $172.1 \pm 8.9$  cm and weight of  $74.0 \pm 16.5$  kg, were recruited. All participants  
76 reported to be free from any pain or pathology affecting the lower limbs at the time of testing.  
77 This study was approved by the STEMH Ethics Committee (Ref. STEMH 671), volunteers gave  
78 written informed consent prior to participation and all data collection conformed to the  
79 Declaration of Helsinki.

80

### 81 **Equipment**

82 Kinematic data were collected using a ten camera Oqus 7 Qualisys motion analysis system at  
83 200 Hz (Qualisys medical AB, Gothenburg, Sweden), and kinetic data were collected at 2000  
84 Hz using two AMTI force platforms. Passive retroreflective markers were placed on the lower  
85 limbs using the calibrated anatomical system technique to allow for segmental kinematics to be  
86 tracked in 6 degrees of freedom (Cappozzo, Catani, Croce, & Leardini, 1995). In order to reduce  
87 measurement error, reflective markers were positioned by a single experienced researcher.  
88 Anatomical markers were positioned on the anterior superior iliac spine, posterior superior iliac  
89 spine, greater trochanter, medial and lateral femoral epicondyle, medial and lateral malleoli and  
90 over the medial and lateral aspects of the first and fifth metatarsals. In addition, clusters of non-  
91 collinear markers were attached to the shank and thigh. (figure 1) Markers were also placed over  
92 the forefoot, midfoot, and rearfoot aspects of the shoes (figure 1) (Richards, 2018). To enable  
93 the fitting of the brace, the thigh and shank marker clusters were placed above and below the  
94 brace respectively as described by Hanzlíková et al. (2016). Raw kinematic and kinetic data  
95 were exported to Visual3D (C-Motion Inc., USA). Kinematic and kinetic data were filtered  
96 using fourth order Butterworth filters with cut off frequencies of 15 and 25 Hz respectively  
97 (Hanzlíková et al., 2016).

98

## 99 Procedure

100 Participants were required to visit the laboratory on two occasions using a randomized order for  
101 the knee braced and no braced conditions. The knee brace used was an off the shelf  
102 proprioceptive brace (Reaction Brace, DJO Global Inc.) which was applied in accordance with  
103 the manufacturer's instructions (figure 1). On arrival, anthropometric measurements were taken.  
104 A standardised 10 minute warm-up was performed, which included active stretching of the  
105 quadriceps and hamstring muscles (Lam et al., 2017), specifically this involved five repetitions  
106 of 30 seconds per muscle; and familiarisation of the lunge tasks, which involved performing as  
107 many repetitions as the participants needed to feel comfortable with the task (Gribble, Hertel, &  
108 Plisky, 2012). After the warm up 5 lunges to the net were performed to each side (forehand and  
109 backhand), from an identical position 45° to the net. Participants were asked to hit the  
110 shuttlecock with a top spin shot, with the final step being made with the dominant limb landing  
111 on the force plate. The shuttlecock was positioned 0.15 m in front of the net, 0.4 m to the side of  
112 the force plate at a height of 1.65 m, figure 2. After the initial assessment, a fatigue protocol was  
113 performed which consisted of repeated forward lunges until the point of maximum volitional  
114 fatigue (Pincivero, Aldworth, Dickerson, Petry, & Shultz, 2000). This consisted of the lunge  
115 distance for each participant being determined as a proportion of the participants' leg length  
116 measured from the anterior superior iliac spine (ASIS) to the medial malleolus. A metronome  
117 was then used to control the number of lunges which was set to 30 repetitions per minute, a  
118 fatigued state was considered to have been reached when the participant could no longer keep  
119 up the rhythm (Pincivero et al., 2000). Immediately following the fatigue protocol, participants  
120 performed the lunge tasks again, the order of which was randomised. All participants wore their  
121 own sport footwear during the lunge tasks. In addition, clinical assessment tests including; the Y  
122 balance test, one leg hop distance and ankle dorsiflexion range of motion test (Weir &  
123 Chockalingam, 2007) measured using the leg motion system (Calatayud et al., 2015) were  
124 conducted pre and post fatigue state, figure 3.

125

126 [Figures 1, 2 and 3 near here]

127

## 128 Data Analysis

129 The peak vertical force, loading rate, approach velocity, stance time, and maximum, minimum,  
130 and range of motion of the knee joint angles and moments in the sagittal, coronal and transverse  
131 plane were exported from Visual3D.

## 132 **Statistical Analysis**

133 All data were examined for normality using the Shapiro-Wilks test and found suitable for  
134 parametric testing. Three factor repeated measures ANOVA tests (fatigue – lunge direction —  
135 brace) were performed with post-hoc comparisons for the lunge tests, and two factor repeated  
136 measures ANOVA tests (fatigue – brace) were performed for the dynamic stability and weight  
137 bearing tests. In addition, the effect size was reported using Partial eta squared ( $\eta_p^2$ ) and  
138 statistical significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ . All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS  
139 (v24)

## 140 **RESULTS**

141 No significant interactions were seen between factors for any of the variables analysed.  
142 Significant main effects between pre and post fatigue were seen in the knee flexion angular  
143 velocity at heel strike and range of knee angular velocity in the coronal plane during the lunge  
144 tasks (table 1), with both parameters showing a 28.2% and 10.8% decrease post fatigue  
145 respectively. In addition, significant main effects were seen in stance time, knee abduction  
146 moment and range of moment in the coronal plane (table 2), showing 5.3%, 20.2% and 8.5%  
147 lower values post fatigue respectively (table 3). When comparing the forehand and backhand  
148 tasks significant main effects were seen in the knee flexion angle and transverse plane knee  
149 angular velocity at heel strike (table 1). This showed a 4.4% greater knee flexion and 66.2%  
150 lower internal rotation velocity during the forehand lunge (table 3). In addition, significant main  
151 effects were seen in the knee extension moment (table 2), with the forehand lunge showing a  
152 9.0% lower knee extension moment (table 3). When comparing the braced and no braced  
153 conditions, significant main effects were seen in the peak knee adduction moment (table 2), with  
154 a 34.8% lower knee moment being seen in the braced condition (table 3). For the force and time  
155 data no significant effects were seen for peak vertical force, loading rate, or approach velocity.  
156 No significant differences were seen between pre and post fatigue or between brace and no  
157 brace for the Y balance test, one leg hop distance or ankle dorsiflexion range of motion test  
158 (table 4).

159

160 [Tables 1 to 4 near here]

161

## 162 **DISCUSSION**

163 The aim of the current investigation was to examine the effects of fatigue, lunge strategy and  
164 wearing a knee brace on knee kinetics and kinematics during badminton lunges to the net and  
165 clinical scores in experienced badminton players. Key findings for the effect of fatigue showed  
166 that the knee flexion angular velocity at heel strike, range of knee angular velocity in the  
167 coronal plane. Kinetic data showed that the peak knee adduction moment and coronal plane  
168 moment range were all lower post fatigue, which occurred over a shorter stance time. The  
169 changes in joint angular velocity, with no corresponding change in joint angles, would indicate  
170 that there is a slower movement, however no significant difference was seen in the approach  
171 speed. Therefore, this would indicate an increase in joint stiffness in the sagittal and coronal  
172 planes defined by Hughes & Watkins (2008) with a lower adaptability as the leg resistance  
173 moves into compression over less time during landing. This increase in stiffness is supported by  
174 Arampatzis, Schade, Walsh, & Brüggemann (2001) who found that lower limbs stiffness  
175 influences athletic performance in sports activities. This could relate to a potential increase in  
176 injury risk due to increase stress and strain in the knee joint (Derrick, Dereu, & Mclean, 2002;  
177 Dierks, Davis, & Hamill, 2010) and changes to dynamic loads on the lower limbs through an  
178 interaction of simultaneous concentric and eccentric contractions when athletes are in a fatigue  
179 state (Komi, 2000). One explanation for the decreases in peak knee adduction moment and  
180 coronal plane moment range, could be a change in strategy during loading, which may relate to  
181 changes in foot position and posture during the lunge. This reduction in the knee adduction  
182 moments could be explained by the foot landing in more external rotated position, therefore  
183 changing the line of action of the ground reaction force; although no changes were seen in the  
184 transverse plane moments at the knee. However, further exploration of such compensatory  
185 mechanisms due to foot placement is beyond the scope of this current paper.

186 When comparing the forehand and backhand tasks significant main effects were seen in the  
187 sagittal and transverse planes. During the forehand lunge a greater knee flexion was seen at heel  
188 strike with less internal rotation than the backhand lunge. This would indicate a lower injury  
189 risk during the forehand lunge, as increases in internal rotation movements have been shown to  
190 be an ACL injury risk mechanism (Fornalski, McGarry, Csintalan, Fithian, & Lee, 2008; Myer,  
191 Ford, Paterno, Nick, & Hewett, 2008).

192 When comparing the braced and no braced conditions, a significant reduction in peak knee  
193 adduction moment was seen in the braced condition (Table 2 and 3). This would indicate a

194 reduction in the medial compartment contact force (Manal, Gardinier, Buchanan, & Snyder-  
195 Mackler, 2015), which has been associated with lower pain levels in knee OA and reductions in  
196 knee varum (Miyazaki, 2002). However, the brace used in this study was not a rigid brace and  
197 therefore this effect is unlikely to be from any mechanical realignment of the knee, but can be  
198 explained by a change in loading strategy due to changes in proprioception. This has been  
199 previously seen in several studies during step descent (Akseki, 2008; Baker, Bennell, Stillman,  
200 Cowan, & Crossley, 2002; Callaghan, Selfe, Bagley, & Oldham, 2002; Callaghan, Selfe,  
201 McHenry, & Oldham, 2008; Selfe et al., 2011), and sports related movement tasks (Hanzlíková  
202 et al., 2016; Sinclair et al., 2016), who reported improvements in knee stability and reductions  
203 in knee pain.

204 Interestingly no significant differences were seen between pre and post fatigue or between brace  
205 and no brace for the Y balance test, one leg hop distance or ankle dorsiflexion range of motion  
206 test. This would indicate that overall performance was unchanged, whereas movement control  
207 and strategy during the lunge tasks were affected. This suggests that these clinical scores were  
208 not sensitive to potentially clinically important changes that can be associated with knee injury  
209 risk factors.

210 Limitations of this study include; participants wearing their own shoes rather than standardised  
211 footwear. Although Park, Lam, Yoon, Lee, & Ryu (2017) suggested that different designs of  
212 badminton shoes do not significantly affect lower extremity kinematics, although these did have  
213 an effect on subjective perception of comfort. In addition, this study recruited participants who  
214 were recreational athletes who had played badminton for at least 2 years, however due to  
215 possible differences in technique it is not possible to extrapolate these findings to elite players.

216

## 217 **CONCLUSIONS**

218 This study showed no significant differences in approach velocity and loading rate post fatigue,  
219 however a greater knee stiffness was seen. In addition, there appears to be greater risk factors  
220 when performing a backhand lunge to the net compared to a forehand lunge. These factors  
221 should be considered when developing training regimes. Finally, proprioceptive bracing appears  
222 to improve the loading patterns at the knee, which should be considered when players are  
223 returning to sport after an injury.

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