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2 **Intermittent treadmill running induces kinematic compensations to maintain soccer**

3 **kick foot speed despite no change in knee extensor strength**

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5 Matt Greig

6 Sports Injuries Research Group, Edge Hill University, Lancashire, UK

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9

10 **Correspondence Address:**

11 Dr Matt Greig,

12 Dept. of Sport & Physical Activity,

13 Edge Hill University,

14 St Helens Road,

15 Ormskirk,

16 Lancs L39 4QP,

17 United Kingdom

18 Phone: (+44) 01695 584848 E-mail: [matt.greig@edgehill.ac.uk](mailto:matt.greig@edgehill.ac.uk)

19 **Abstract**

20 Kicking is a fundamental skill and a primary non-contact mechanism of injury in soccer,  
21 with injury incidence increasing during the latter stages of match-play. Ten male  
22 professional soccer players completed a 90min treadmill protocol based on the velocity  
23 profile of soccer match-play. Pre-exercise, and at 15 min intervals, players completed a  
24 maximal velocity kick subjected to kinematic analysis at 200 Hz. Pre-exercise, and at the  
25 end of each half, players also completed isokinetic concentric knee extensor repetitions at  
26 180, 300 and 60 °·s<sup>-1</sup>. Kicking foot speed was maintained at ~19 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, with no main  
27 effect for exercise duration. In relation to proximal-distal sequencing during the kicking  
28 action, there was a significant increase in the duration (but not magnitude) of thigh rotation,  
29 with a compensatory decrease in the duration (but not magnitude) of shank rotation during  
30 the latter stages of the exercise protocol. In relation to long-axis rotation, pelvic orientation  
31 at ball contact was maintained at ~6°, representing a total pelvic rotation in the order of  
32 ~15 ° during the kicking action. Peak knee extensor torque at all speeds was also  
33 maintained throughout the protocol, such that kinematic modifications are not attributable  
34 to a decline in knee extensor strength.

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36 **Keywords:** soccer, kicking technique, injury, isokinetic strength

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38 **Word Count:** 3475

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## Introduction

43           Despite the disproportionate increase in goals scored and injuries incurred during  
44 the last 15 minutes of soccer match-play, the influence of fatigue on technical performance  
45 is limited. Kicking represents both a fundamental movement skill and a primary non-  
46 contact injury mechanism in soccer, but few studies have considered kicking technique in  
47 relation to fatigue. Fatigue-induced changes in kicking precision <sup>1</sup> and kicking velocity <sup>2</sup>  
48 have been observed, but the authors measured only outcome and failed to discuss the  
49 associated changes in technique. Exhaustive protocols based on knee extension-flexion  
50 repetitions,<sup>3</sup> repeated counter movement jumps,<sup>4</sup> and treadmill running<sup>5</sup> fail to adequately  
51 reflect the activity profile of soccer match-play, and therefore interpretation in relation to  
52 injury epidemiology and aetiology is limited. In developing an experimental approach to  
53 the problem of replicating the activity profile of soccer, match-play represents the optimum  
54 in terms of ecological validity. However, the lack of experimental control limits  
55 opportunity for biomechanical analysis, and the influence of confounding variables such  
56 as playing position, opposition and score negate the opportunity to develop a standardized  
57 workload. Whilst free-running variants offer the opportunity to include utility movements  
58 such as changes in direction, treadmill models offer the greatest level of control in  
59 standardizing the activity profile. However, previous attempts to develop intermittent  
60 running protocols to simulate the demands of soccer match-play,<sup>6</sup> have failed to replicate  
61 the velocity profile and frequency of speed change observed during match-play.

62           Kicking is often cited in relation to the high incidence of muscle strains in the  
63 thigh.<sup>7,8</sup> Quadricep muscle strains frequently occur in kicking sports,<sup>7-9</sup> and lower  
64 extremity musculotendinous injuries are the most common type of injury in American

65 football kickers.<sup>10</sup> Kicking performance has been positively correlated with concentric  
66 quadriceps strength,<sup>11</sup> and shown to improve following a resistance training program.<sup>12</sup>  
67 Previous research has demonstrated a fatigue-effect on muscular strength of the knee  
68 extensors,<sup>13,14</sup> which might subsequently affect kicking technique and performance.  
69 During the soccer kick, the foot rotates about both the medio-lateral and longitudinal axes  
70 of the body and several mechanisms contribute to foot speed.<sup>15</sup> A primary mechanism is  
71 due to the interaction of the thigh and shank in creating a proximal-to-distal sequencing  
72 pattern of segmental angular velocities. If the strength of the knee extensor musculature is  
73 compromised by fatigue, the proximal-distal mechanism acting to generate foot (and  
74 ultimately ball) speed might be inhibited. Such an alteration in technique would have  
75 implications for both performance and injury.

76         Despite the apparent links between fatigue, strength, and kicking performance, no  
77 study has previously employed a valid exercise protocol to examine both strength and  
78 kicking technique. In examining the influence of fatigue on soccer kicking technique, and  
79 the impact of muscular strength on performance, the choice of exercise protocol is  
80 fundamentally important. In the present study an intermittent treadmill protocol validated  
81 against notational analyses of soccer match-play is used,<sup>16</sup> which has previously been  
82 shown to induce changes in agility kinematics.<sup>17</sup> This same exercise protocol has been  
83 shown to influence the electromyographical response of the thigh musculature during  
84 running,<sup>16</sup> and impair eccentric knee flexor strength.<sup>18</sup> The purpose of the study was to  
85 investigate the temporal influence of a 90min intermittent treadmill protocol on knee  
86 extensor strength and kicking performance in soccer players. It was hypothesized that

87 cumulative exposure to the exercise protocol would reduce peak knee extensor torque and  
88 kicking velocity.

89

## 90 **Methods**

### 91 **Participants**

92 Ten male professional soccer players were recruited (Mean  $\pm$  SD; age  $20.8 \pm 1.7$   
93 yr, body mass  $72.7 \pm 4.7$  kg). All players were recruited from a team playing in the  
94 Championship, reflecting the second tier of professional soccer in England. All players  
95 were free from injury over the previous season, and provided written informed consent in  
96 accordance with departmental and university ethical procedures at the host institution, and  
97 in the spirit of the Helsinki Declaration.

98

### 99 **Experimental Design**

100 Each participant completed the exercise protocol between 15:00 and 17:00 h to  
101 account for the effects of circadian variation and in accord with regular competition time.  
102 Each player completed the treadmill running protocol which has been previously validated  
103 against the velocity profile of soccer match-play in terms of the frequency and duration of  
104 each discrete bout of running at each speed.<sup>16</sup> The 15min activity profile (Figure 1) is  
105 repeated six times, with a 15 min half-time interval, and elicits a total distance covered of  
106 9.72 km.<sup>16</sup> Pre-exercise and following each 15min activity bout, each player completed a  
107 single maximal velocity kick of a stationary ball. The kicking trials were completed in the  
108 immediate proximity to the treadmill location, minimizing the time spent away from the  
109 treadmill. Including any modifications required to the marker set-up as a result of

110 prolonged exercise duration, the kicking trials were completed within 30sec before the  
111 player returned to the treadmill. The isokinetic testing was conducted pre-exercise and at  
112 the end of each 45min period, i.e. just before the half-time interval and at the end of the  
113 protocol. Given the greater time required to complete the isokinetic testing (compared with  
114 the kicking trials), this design ensured that disruption of the exercise protocol was reduced.

115

116 \*\* Figure 1 near here \*\*

117

### 118 **Outcome Measures**

119 The kicking trials comprised a single maximal velocity kick of a stationary ball,  
120 with no accuracy constraint. The approach was self-selected by the participant in each trial  
121 relative to a standardised ball placement. The movement volume was created to enable  
122 data collection of the final approach stride and the follow-through. Data was collected  
123 using nine high-speed ProReflex MCU1000 digital cameras (Qualisys, Sweden) operating  
124 at 200 Hz for real-time three-dimensional optical motion capture. The movement volume  
125 was calibrated by moving a 750 mm wand throughout the movement volume. A static  
126 standing model was created for each player with passive retro-reflective markers (Qualisys,  
127 Sweden) of 20 mm diameter placed so as to define the pelvis (anterior superior iliac spine,  
128 posterior superior iliac spine, and each greater trochanter), each thigh (lateral knee, medial  
129 knee and a plate-mounted four marker cluster), each shank (lateral ankle, medial ankle and  
130 plate-mounted four-marker cluster) and each foot (calcaneus, fifth metatarsal head, fifth  
131 metatarsal base, and first metatarsal). This marker configuration was reduced to create the  
132 dynamic model. This reduction in marker set-up also reduced disruption in marker

133 placement as a result of the prolonged exercise duration, minimizing any alterations  
134 required prior to each kicking trial. To enable tracking of each segment during the kicking  
135 trials the thigh and shank clusters remained, in addition to the posterior and anterior  
136 superior iliac spine markers to track the pelvis, and the calcaneus, fifth metatarsal head and  
137 base, and the lateral ankle markers to define each foot segment. Given the prolonged  
138 exercise duration, marker placement was supplemented with additional fixation where  
139 appropriate. Data was captured and tracked using Qualisys Track manager software  
140 (Qualisys, Sweden), and exported in c3d format to Visual3D software (C-Motion, MD,  
141 USA) for analysis where a model template was created for each player.

142         The performance measure of the kicking action was defined as the mass centre  
143 velocity of the kicking foot at ball contact, given its high correlation with ball speed.<sup>19</sup>  
144 Temporal phases were used to define the kicking action:<sup>20</sup> Stage 1 refers to the withdrawal  
145 of the thigh and shank during the backswing and was defined as the time between  
146 maximum knee flexion and the initiation of forward rotation of the thigh; Stage 2 until the  
147 instant when the thigh angular velocity is reduced and the shank angular velocity increases;  
148 Stage 3 to the instant of ball contact. The segmentation process to define the discrete  
149 kicking stages was completed manually, reflecting individual nuances in kicking technique  
150 which limited automated identification in some cases. The manual identification of stage  
151 initiation/termination was completed using time histories of the segmental and joint angles  
152 and angular velocities. Intra-class correlation coefficients of  $\geq 0.87$  were obtained for this  
153 segmentation process across all kicking phases.

154         Thigh and shank angle time histories were quantified at the start of each temporal  
155 stage, to examine the contribution of the proximal-distal sequencing kicking mechanism

156 (Figure 2). The long-axis rotation kicking mechanism was first considered with respect to  
157 the self-selected approach angle, defined relative to the direction of the kick over the final  
158 approach stride. The length, angle relative to the kicking direction, and duration of this  
159 final approach stride were quantified using metatarsal coordinate data between final and  
160 penultimate foot contacts. The final foot contact represents planting of the support foot  
161 prior to the kicking action, and the lateral displacement of the support foot relative to the  
162 ball was also calculated. The orientation of the pelvis relative to the frontal plane was also  
163 quantified for each stage, given the contribution of pelvic rotation to kicking  
164 performance.<sup>15,21</sup> Coordinate data of the anterior superior iliac spine, posterior superior  
165 iliac spine, and each greater trochanter were used to define the pelvis, with orientation  
166 defined relative to the axial plane (Figure 2).

167

168 \*\* Figure 2 near here \*\*

169

170 Pre-exercise and at the end of each half, each player completed five dominant limb  
171 (defined as the kicking leg) maximal effort knee extensor repetitions at isokinetic speeds  
172 of 180, 300 and  $60^{\circ}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  (System 3, Biodex Medical Systems, New York). There was a rest  
173 period of 60 seconds between each set, and passive concentric knee flexion at  $30^{\circ}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  was  
174 used between each rep. Dynamometer set-up was specific to each player and based on  
175 previous applications,<sup>22</sup> with range of motion preset from full extension to a  $90^{\circ}$  range of  
176 motion. Gravity-corrected peak torque was calculated at each test speed across the five  
177 reps, with data considered only during the isokinetic phase of the movement.

178 **Statistical Analysis**



179           In subsequent sections the kinematic and isokinetic measures are classified  
180 according to the time during the protocol, with testing conducted every 15min through the  
181 simulated game. The pre-testing score would therefore be allocated the time subscript  
182 “00”. The time classification is cumulative and includes the passive half-time interval.  
183 The end of the first half would be specified as “45”, the start of the second half as “60”,  
184 and the end of the game as “105”.

185           One-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to investigate the influence of time  
186 on peak knee extensor torque, kicking foot velocity at ball contact, and the kinematics  
187 (angle, length, duration, lateral displacement of the support foot relative to the ball) of the  
188 final approach stride. For kicking stage duration, segmental displacement and pelvic  
189 orientation, a two-way repeated measures ANOVA was used to investigate a within factors  
190 main effect for time, and for kicking stage. Interaction effects between time and kicking  
191 stage were subsequently examined, where a significant interaction would infer a change in  
192 kinematics across the kicking stages and over the duration of the exercise protocol. The  
193 assumptions associated with each statistical model were assessed to ensure model  
194 adequacy. To assess residual normality for each dependant variable, q-q plots were  
195 generated using stacked standardised residuals. Scatterplots of the stacked unstandardized  
196 and standardised residuals were also utilised to assess the error of variance associated with  
197 the residuals. Mauchly's test of sphericity was also completed for all dependent variables,  
198 with a Greenhouse Geisser correction applied if the test was significant. Where significant  
199 main effects were observed, post hoc pairwise comparisons with a Bonferonni correction  
200 factor were applied. The GLM was supplemented with partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) values  
201 calculated to estimate effect sizes for each dependant variable, and provide a measure of

202 meaningfulness. Where the GLM post hoc comparisons identified a significant difference,  
203 this was supplemented with a calculation of effect size (ES) quantified using Cohen's d  
204 formula as the standardized difference between means. All statistical analysis was  
205 completed using PASW Statistics Editor 22.0 for windows (SPSS Inc, Chicago, USA).  
206 Statistical significance was set at  $p \leq 0.05$ , and all data are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard  
207 deviation.

208

209

## Results

210 Kicking performance was not affected by time ( $F = 1.15$ ;  $p = .352$ ;  $\eta^2 = .14$ ), with  
211 kicking foot velocity at ball contact maintained between  $18.2 \pm 1.2 - 19.7 \pm 1.3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ .

212 Kinematics of the final approach stride were also unaffected by time. The angle of  
213 approach at  $\sim 13^\circ$  ( $F = 0.28$ ;  $p = .961$ ;  $\eta^2 = .04$ ), the length of the final stride at  $\sim 1.60 \text{ m}$  ( $F$   
214  $= 0.18$ ;  $p = .976$ ;  $\eta^2 = .03$ ), and the duration of this stride at  $\sim 0.12 \text{ s}$  ( $F = 0.30$ ;  $p = .948$ ;  $\eta^2$   
215  $= .14$ ) were maintained throughout the protocol. The lateral displacement of the support  
216 foot relative to the ball was maintained at  $\sim 0.27 \text{ m}$  ( $F = 1.05$ ;  $p = .413$ ;  $\eta^2 = .13$ ).

217 Kicking stage duration (Figure 3) was not influenced by time ( $F = 1.09$ ;  $p = .375$ ;  
218  $\eta^2 = .05$ ), but there was a main effect for stage ( $F = 982.21$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $\eta^2 = .93$ ). The  
219 duration of Stage 1 was significantly shorter than both Stage 2 and Stage 3 ( $p < 0.001$ ),  
220 which were themselves not different ( $p = .144$ ). Stage 1, the stretch-reflex action, is  
221 assigned a negative duration as the thigh started to rotate (initiating Stage 2) while the knee  
222 was still flexing. There was also a significant time x stage interaction ( $F = 2.47$ ;  $p = .004$ ;  
223  $\eta^2 = .19$ ). Stage 1 ( $p = 0.013$ ; ES = 1.13) and Stage 2 ( $p = .025$ ; ES = 1.25) duration was  
224 greater at  $t_{105}$  than at  $t_{00}$ , whilst Stage 3 duration ( $p = .013$ ; ES = 1.86) was significantly

225 reduced. Thus during the latter stages of the exercise protocol, the relative duration of each  
226 stage had changed.

227

228 \*\* Figure 3 near here \*\*

229

230 Time did not affect either thigh ( $F = 0.31$ ;  $p = .946$ ;  $\eta^2 = .02$ ) or shank ( $F = 0.53$ ;  $p$   
231  $= .810$ ;  $\eta^2 = .04$ ) angular displacement relative to the vertical axis (Figure 4). Thigh  
232 displacement was consistent across the kicking stages ( $F = 0.75$ ;  $p = .388$ ;  $\eta^2 = .01$ ). In  
233 contrast, shank displacement did elicit a main effect for stage ( $F = 316.78$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $\eta^2 =$   
234  $.77$ ), with angular displacement significantly lower in Stage 2 than in Stage 3 ( $p < .001$ ) at  
235 all time points. There was no stage x time interaction effect for thigh ( $F = 0.50$ ;  $p = .830$ ;  
236  $\eta^2 = .04$ ) or shank ( $F = 0.48$ ;  $p = .848$ ;  $\eta^2 = .03$ ) displacement.

237

238 \*\* Figure 4 near here \*\*

239

240 Pelvis orientation (Figure 5) was unaffected by time ( $F = 0.49$ ;  $p = .844$ ;  $\eta^2 = .02$ ),  
241 but did reveal a main effect for stage ( $F = 52.96$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $\eta^2 = .46$ ). Pelvis orientation was  
242 significantly greater at foot plant than at the start of Stage 2 ( $p = .078$ ), the start of Stage 3  
243 ( $p < 0.001$ ) and ball contact ( $p < 0.001$ ). Pelvic orientation at the start of Stage 2 was  
244 significantly higher than at the start of Stage 3 and ball contact ( $p < 0.001$ ), and this  
245 continued with significantly reduced pelvic orientation at ball contact relative to Stage 3 ( $p$   
246  $= 0.003$ ). The pelvic orientation at ball contact was maintained at  $\sim 6^\circ$ , representing a total

247 pelvic rotation in the order of  $\sim 15^\circ$  during the kicking action. There was no interaction  
248 effect between stage and time ( $F = 0.12$ ;  $p = .999$ ;  $\eta^2 = .01$ ).

249

250 \*\* Figure 5 near here \*\*

251

252 Peak knee extensor torque was not affected by time ( $F = 0.25$ ;  $p = 0.97$ ;  $\eta^2 = .01$ )  
253 at any testing speed (Figure 6). There was a main effect for testing speed ( $F = 67.48$ ;  $p <$   
254  $= .001$ ;  $\eta^2 = .39$ ), with peak torque significantly lower ( $p < 0.001$ ) with each increase in  
255 isokinetic speed. The force-velocity curve is therefore as expected with  $T_{60} > T_{180} > T_{300}$ .  
256 There was no interaction effect between isokinetic speed and time ( $F = 0.14$ ;  $p = .999$ ;  $\eta^2$   
257  $= .01$ ).

258

259 \*\* Figure 6 near here \*\*

260

261

## Discussion

262 The aim of the present study was to investigate the temporal pattern of kicking  
263 kinematics and knee extensor strength throughout an intermittent treadmill protocol based  
264 on the activity profile of match-play.<sup>16</sup> Performance of the kick, quantified as foot velocity  
265 at ball contact was maintained between  $18 - 20 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  throughout the exercise protocol and  
266 in accord with previous observations.<sup>23</sup> This is in contrast to the findings of previous  
267 studies,<sup>3-6</sup> however direct comparison is difficult due to methodological differences,  
268 particularly in relation to the exercise protocol used. Soccer match-play is self-paced and  
269 sub-maximal, with a typical distance covered eliciting an average velocity of  $\sim 6.5 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$

270 over the duration of a 90 min game. The activity profile is intermittent in nature, with  
271 periods of low intensity interspersed with high intensity efforts.<sup>16</sup> In comparison to the  
272 present study, previous exercise models used prior to kicking trials have comprised  
273 exhaustive knee extension-flexion repetitions,<sup>3</sup> counter movement jumps,<sup>4</sup> and treadmill  
274 running protocols that do not replicate the intermittent nature of soccer.<sup>5,6</sup> The relatively  
275 greater intensity of these exercise models, in comparison to the present study, most likely  
276 creates the decrease in kicking performance. The influence of the chosen exercise model  
277 is also likely to impact upon factors such as muscle type recruitment, mode of contraction,  
278 and metabolic demands with implications on performance. The maintenance of kicking  
279 speed parallels the lack of a fatigue effect in knee extensor strength, these parameters  
280 having been shown to be highly correlated.<sup>11</sup> There was no change in maximal knee  
281 extensor torque, even at the higher testing speeds, with peak torque decreasing with  
282 increased isokinetic velocity as expected. There was also no change in the characteristics  
283 of the self-selected approach to the kick.

284         Despite the maintenance of strength and kicking speed, there were temporal  
285 patterns in kinematic markers of kicking technique. During the kick the thigh segment  
286 starts to rotate forward while the knee is still flexing, which stretches the extensor muscles  
287 of the thigh before they shorten.<sup>20</sup> This stretch-shortening component has previously been  
288 shown to be beneficial in developing distal point velocity,<sup>24</sup> but has also been highlighted  
289 as a potential mechanism of quadriceps strain injury.<sup>8</sup> The duration of Stage 1 increased  
290 during each half, suggesting a fatigue effect, although maximum knee flexion of the  
291 kicking leg was unaffected and maintained between 99 – 103°. To initiate the forward  
292 swing of the thigh and start Stage 2 of the kicking action, the knee extensor musculature

293 must reverse the direction of the limb by powerfully concentrically contracting.<sup>25</sup> With the  
294 increased duration of Stage 1, if the pre-stretch placed upon the muscle becomes so great  
295 that the succeeding concentric contraction of the muscle is weakened, then injury might  
296 result. The biarticular nature of rectus femoris and its role in knee extension, hip flexion  
297 and pelvic stabilization has been associated with an increased risk of injury.<sup>8</sup> Kicking is  
298 commonly identified as the most common mechanism of rectus femoris injury,<sup>7-10</sup> but a  
299 focus on a specific muscle is not possible with isokinetic dynamometry generating a net  
300 torque for the knee extensors. In a study of injuries sustained by American football kickers,  
301 lower extremity musculotendinous injury represented 49% of all injuries.<sup>10</sup> In this study  
302 the injury pattern of the punting technique was different to place kicking, with place  
303 kicking more representative of the technique adopted in this study. The two most common  
304 injuries sustained by kickers were adductor strains and hamstring strains.<sup>10</sup> A second  
305 potential implication of the extended pre-stretch is an increase in the passive elastic recoil  
306 of the rectus femoris tendon, increasing the load which must be counteracted by the  
307 eccentrically contracting hamstrings. The decrease in eccentric hamstring strength elicited  
308 in previous studies using this same exercise protocol<sup>18</sup> may further impair the ability of the  
309 hamstrings to effectively decelerate the limb and avoid injury.

310         A compensatory change was observed in Stages 2 and 3 during the kicking action,  
311 with Stage 2 increasing and Stage 3 decreasing in duration during the final 30mins of the  
312 exercise protocol. These observations suggest a change in the proximal-distal nature of the  
313 kicking action that places greater emphasis on the second stage of the kicking action and  
314 rotation of the thigh as a result of hip flexion.<sup>20</sup> Kinetic analyses of kicking have  
315 consistently reported that the joint contribution from the hip is greater than that from the

316 knee.<sup>26</sup> Stage 2 of the kick, driven by the musculature of the hip and thigh, has been  
317 reported to contribute about half of the shank angular velocity at contact.<sup>20</sup> The remaining  
318 contribution is derived from a transfer of energy from the thigh to the shank during Stage  
319 3. The temporal pattern of kinematic modifications during the latter stages of the second  
320 half therefore places greater emphasis on the musculature driving hip flexion. The bi-  
321 articular function of the hamstrings musculature is then problematic, with the same exercise  
322 protocol having been shown to increase the EMG response to the activity profile,<sup>16</sup> and  
323 decreasing values of peak eccentric hamstring torque.<sup>18</sup> Practical implications highlight a  
324 need for eccentric hamstring strength development, since the fatigue of the hamstring  
325 musculature during this exercise protocol might underpin the compensatory change in  
326 kicking technique. Kicking mechanics changed following a muscle strengthening  
327 program,<sup>12</sup> and the lack of change in quadriceps strength in comparison with a decrease in  
328 hamstrings strength in our study might elicit the same technical adaptations.

329         The observed changes in the proximal-distal mechanisms are supported by the  
330 mechanism of long axis rotation, as greater pelvic displacement in the initiation of the kick  
331 serves to promote the greater contribution made by the thigh segment.<sup>21</sup> By ‘opening’ the  
332 pelvis during Stage 1 of the kick, a potentiation effect is achieved to pre-empt the thigh  
333 rotation. This is analogous to ‘opening’ the shoulders during a tennis serve or golf swing.  
334 Rotation about the longitudinal axis operates as a second mechanism contributing to end-  
335 point velocity of the lower-limb kinetic chain.<sup>27,28</sup> The mechanisms of increasing foot  
336 speed during the kicking action do not occur in isolation and might be complimentary, as  
337 observed in upper-body movements.<sup>29-31</sup> In soccer, substantial forces act through the

338 anterior pelvis, and the cumulative affect with repetitive kicking actions has been  
339 implicated in the pathogenesis of osteitis pubis and chronic adductor strains.<sup>32</sup>

340 It must be acknowledged that the interpretation of data should not be generalized  
341 beyond the experimental design choices of the present study. The use of professional  
342 players was considered fundamentally important given the relevance to both the notational  
343 analyses used to develop the exercise protocol, and the epidemiological data used to  
344 generate the research hypotheses. The use of professional players to complete an additional  
345 ‘match’, in addition to exclusion criteria relating to injury history, inevitably limited the  
346 sample size. In addition, gender and playing level are likely to be confounding factors, but  
347 opportunity is limited currently in valid exercise protocols and epidemiological data. The  
348 use of a treadmill protocol inevitably limits the opportunity to consider the multi-  
349 directional nature of soccer, and whilst real match-play lacks ecological validity, free-  
350 running alternatives might be considered, particularly where there is less demand on the  
351 attachment of micro-technologies. The isokinetic profiling was restricted to concentric  
352 knee extensor strength, and the order and magnitude of testing speeds is an important  
353 consideration. Based on the mechanism of eccentric rectus femoris injury,<sup>8</sup> and the  
354 associated risk of adductor and hamstring injury in kickers,<sup>10</sup> a more comprehensive  
355 isokinetic evaluation is advocated. The kicking trial was completed with no accuracy  
356 constraint, so as to focus on maximal velocity of the kicking action. The speed-accuracy  
357 trade-off with prolonged exercise would be an interesting opportunity for future research.

358 In conclusion, completion of a 90min intermittent running protocol based on the  
359 activity profile of match-play induced no change in knee extensor strength or kicking foot  
360 velocity. However, there was evidence of kinematic compensations which will alter



361 musculo-skeletal loading and may increase the risk of ligamentous and muscular injury  
362 across multiple sites, supporting epidemiological data. Specifically, elongated duration of  
363 the pre-stretch during the backswing, increased pelvic orientation at the start of the forward  
364 kicking motion, and greater reliance on thigh rotation during the forward kicking motion  
365 were observed. These changes suggest greater mechanical effort, or at least perceived  
366 effort, to maintain performance in the fatigued state. Kicking is a primary mechanism for  
367 muscle strain injury, the incidence of which is higher in training than in competition,<sup>33</sup> as  
368 a result of greater exposure. The common practice of concluding training sessions with  
369 shooting drills should be given consideration. The epidemiological observations of  
370 increased thigh muscle strain injury during the latter stages of match-play<sup>7,33</sup> suggest that  
371 consideration of the biomechanical demands of match-play be considered in strength  
372 training regimes.

373

374

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376

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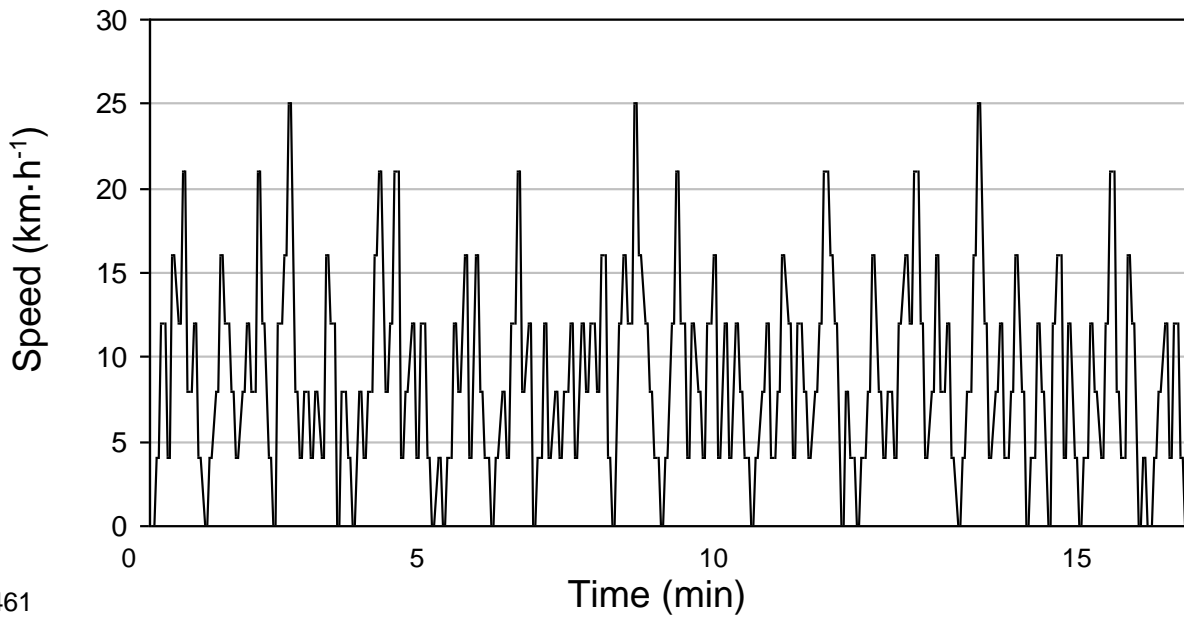
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Figure 1. The 15 minute intermittent exercise bout.<sup>16</sup>

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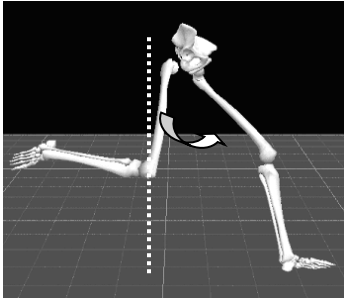
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(a) Stage 1 - 2

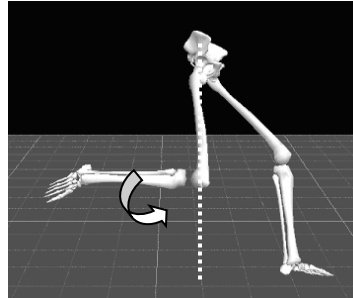
(b) Stage 2 - 3

(c) Ball contact

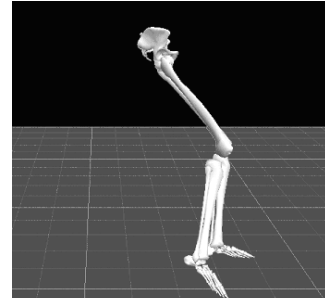
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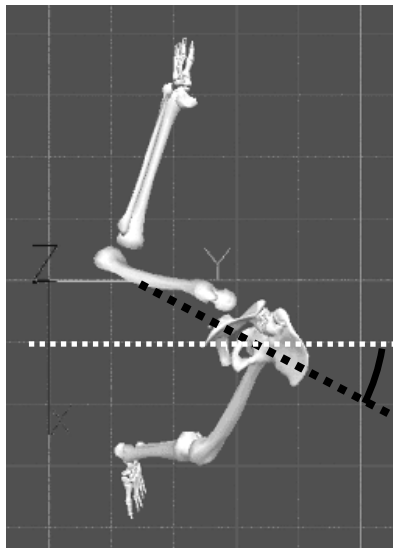


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(d) Pelvic orientation at Stage 1



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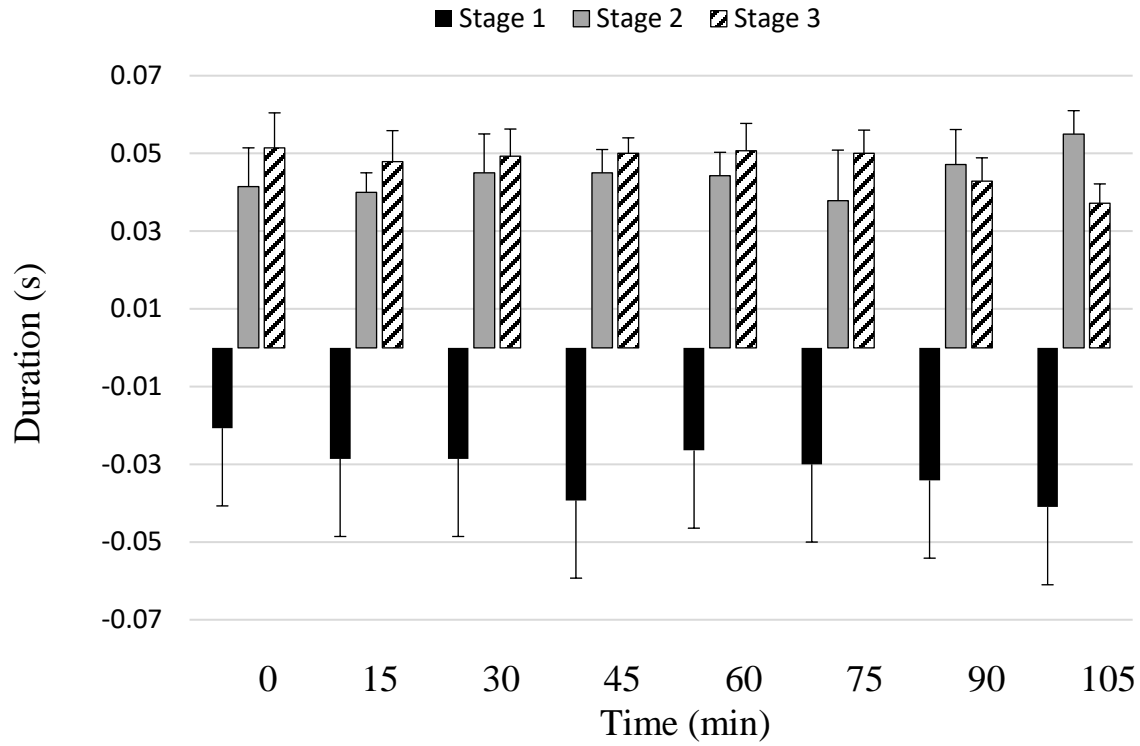
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Figure 2. (a) Forward thigh rotation to start Stage 2, (b) Forward shank rotation to start

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Stage 3, (c) Ball contact, (d) Calculating orientation of the pelvis relative to the axial plane.

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494 Figure 3. The temporal pattern of changes in Stage duration during the exercise protocol.

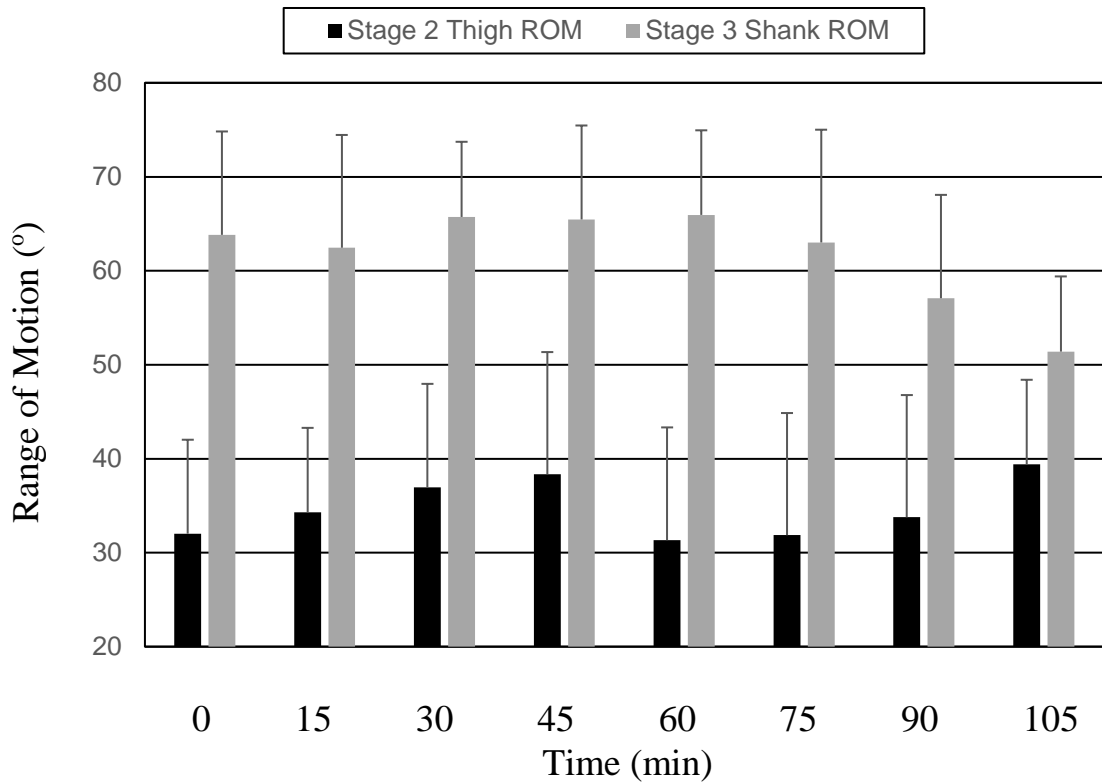
495 \* signifies significantly greater than  $t_{00}$ , & signifies significantly greater than  $t_{00-t_{75}}$ , #

496 signifies significantly less than  $t_{00-t_{75}}$ .

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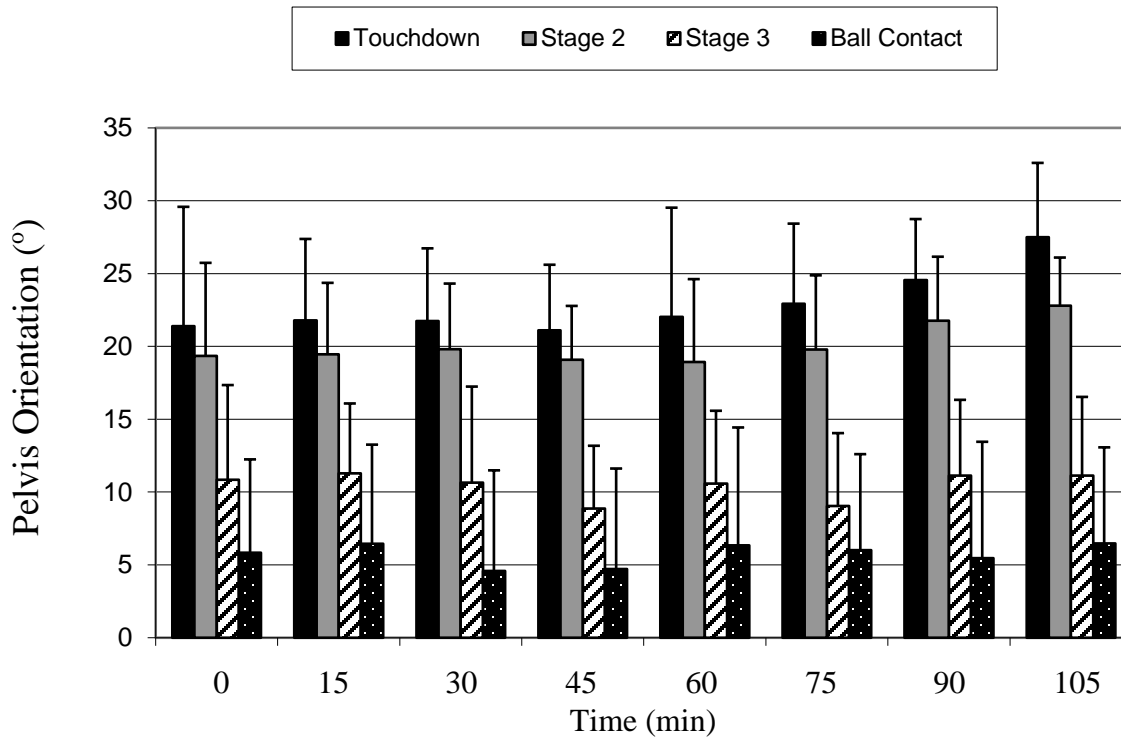




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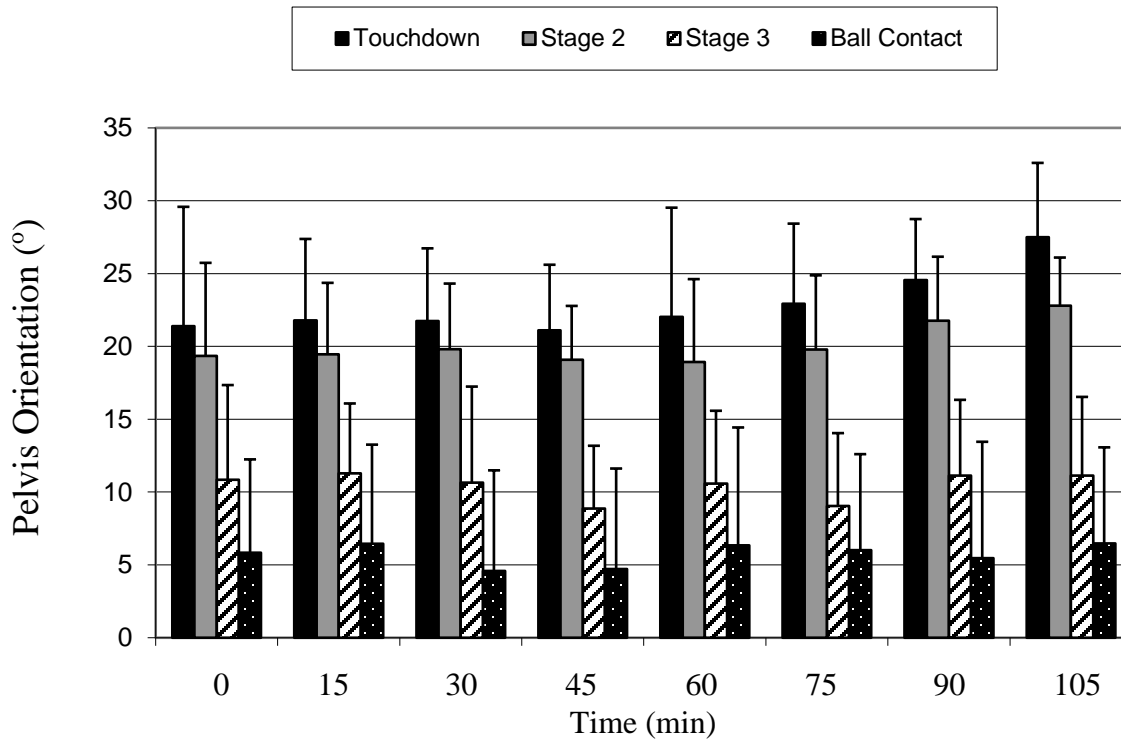
505 Figure 4. The temporal pattern of changes in thigh (Stage 2) and shank (Stage 3) rotation.

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512 Figure 5. The temporal pattern of changes in pelvic orientation during the exercise  
513 protocol.



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516 Figure 6. The temporal pattern of changes in peak knee extensor torque at each testing  
517 speed.

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