

Differences in approach run kinematics: successful vs. unsuccessful jumps in the pole vault.

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Abstract

5 This study investigated biomechanical differences between successful and
6 unsuccessful jumps during a pole vault competition. Two hundred and seven pairs of
7 successful and unsuccessful jumps at the same height were analysed. Participants
8 included male and female athletes of three different age groups with bar height
9 clearances ranging from 2.81 to 5.91 m. Run-up parameters were collected using an
10 Optojump Next system and a Stalker Pro II radar gun. A 2D kinematical analysis was
11 conducted to obtain selected parameters of the take-off. Only trivial and small
12 differences were found between successful and unsuccessful jumps. Speed at last
13 touchdown showed a significant small difference between successful and
14 unsuccessful jumps, as greater speed at take-off (+0.15 m/s) was observed at
15 successful jumps compared to unsuccessful jumps. Furthermore, female athletes
16 showed a significant small difference in horizontal hand-foot distance between
17 successful jumps and unsuccessful jumps (+0.05 m and +0.06 m at pole plant and
18 take-off, respectively). The results suggest that pole vaulters should produce a fast
19 run-up and avoid a decrease in speed before take-off. Small adjustments in the take-
20 off posture might increase the transfer of energy from the athlete to the pole and thus
21 an improvement concerning the height of bar clearance.

22 **Key-words:** Performance, Step parameters, Biomechanics, Analysis, Asymmetry

23

24 Introduction

25 Pole vaulting is a complex athletics discipline that requires athletes to possess many different
26 qualities in order to achieve high performance. Vaulters have to combine a high technical
27 ability with many physical capabilities such as speed, strength and agility or gymnastic
28 capabilities. This requirement is due to the different tasks involved in the pole vault
29 technique, as its main temporal phases are the (1) run-up, (2) pole planting and take off, (3)
30 pole bending and straightening, and (4) bar clearance (Frère, L'hermette, Slawinski, &
31 Tourny-Chollet, 2010).

32 Pole vaulting has been largely analyzed and described during international competitions to
33 obtain better understanding of maximal performance (Angulo-Kinzler et al., 1993; Schade,
34 Arampatzis, Brüggemann, & Komi, 2004; Zagorac, 2013). The advantage of conducting
35 analyses during official competitions is the increased ecological validity, maximal intensity of
36 performers and a better understanding of run-up parameters that limit performance
37 (Christensen & Zebas, 2000). Biomechanical analyses of pole vault performance have
38 highlighted key performance determinants which provide reference to coaches that can guide
39 their training program or be used by athletics federations to build their program (Christensen,
40 Francis, Keller, Strand, & Hatterman-Valenti, 2014; Decker & Bird, 2004; Vaslin & Cid,
41 1993). Based on the recommendations from these sources, coaches focus on parameters such
42 as approach speed, grip length or take-off distance among others.

43 Research on pole-vault run-up parameters has shown that athletes tend to accelerate until the
44 instant of take-off (Makaruk, Porter, Starzak, & Szymczak, 2016). Athletes also need to make
45 small adjustments to their movement patterns and thus they regulate their locomotion in
46 response to visual or physical feedback in order to achieve a consistent take-off point
47 (Needham, Exell, Bezodis, & Irwin, 2018). This run-up variability can be dysfunctional and
48 lead to unsuccessful jumps, or functional and serve as a compensatory response to changes in
49 environmental factors or other biomechanical variables during the attempt, thus producing a
50 consistent performance outcome (Theodorou, Panoutsakopoulos, Exell, et al., 2017).

51 Past research has shown that pole vaulters also use different movement patterns during
52 performances at different heights of the bar (Starzak, Makaruk, & Niznikowski, 2016). For
53 example, at their best successful jump, pole-vaulters increased their approach velocity by
54 increasing step frequency to a greater extent than step length (Theodorou, Panoutsakopoulos,
55 & Exell, 2016). However, it was found that when attempting to clear a greater height than
56 their best successful jump, pole-vaulters were less reliant on step frequency to increase step
57 velocity (Theodorou, Panoutsakopoulos, Exell, & Vujkov, 2017). Currently, it is unclear if
58 such contradictory results arise from differences due to age and the level of expertise of the
59 athletes, or arise from differences in the task constraint. Whilst functional variability may be
60 desirable, any slight deviation in technique that occurs during a jump could be irreversible and
61 lead to an unsuccessful jump if other factors remain similar. Regarding dysfunctional
62 variability, it has been observed that pole vaulters demonstrated a more variable gait
63 regulation strategy in unsuccessful jumps compared to successful jumps (Tamura, Nunome, &
64 Usui, 2017). Thus, it is important to investigate the step parameter patterns and the

65 biomechanics of the take-off between successful and unsuccessful jumps at the same height,
66 and to consider **the possible differences** across gender, age, and level of expertise.

67 The aim of this study was to investigate the kinematic differences in the pole vault run-up
68 between successful and unsuccessful jumps during an indoor competition. We hypothesized
69 that unsuccessful jumps would be associated with associated with a slower approach velocity,
70 an irregular pattern of step parameter progression, and less favorable take-off parameters. The
71 purpose of the study was to inform coaches and enhance feedback to athletes with information
72 to be used between competitive jumps and in training, by identifying the most relevant
73 parameters **that determine** a successful bar clearance.

74 **Methods**

75 *Experimental design*

76 Data were collected between 2015 and 2017 at the following competitions: the National Elite
77 French Championships, **the** National French Youth Championships, and the 2016 and 2017
78 All-Star Perche International Meeting. All measurements were performed in indoor facility to
79 avoid possible environmental effects (i.e. wind). **Data acquisition during athletics events was**
80 **selected as** it is well established that, during an official competition, athletes perform at
81 maximal intensity and thus they exhibit more representational to their abilities values for the
82 run-up parameters (Christensen, 2004). **The experimental set-up was the same in all**
83 **competitions**. The setting did not interfere **with the** athletes and therefore **it** did not affect their
84 performance.

85 86 *Jump selection*

87 Jumps included in the analysis were always performed in the same competition. Successful
88 (SU) and unsuccessful (UN) jumps were analyzed for athletes that failed to clear a height and
89 then cleared the same height at a subsequent jump. **In this pair of jumps, the athletes** always
90 used the same run-up distance and the same pole. This approach eliminates the potential
91 **interfering** effects of the track surface (Cassirame, Sanchez, & Morin, 2017), the athlete's
92 approach speed (Linthorne & Weetman, 2012) and **the properties of the pole** (Warburton,
93 James, Lyttle, & Alderson, 2016). Attempts in which the athletes did not take-off and ran
94 through were excluded. **Using the above** criteria, 207 pairs of **unsuccessful** and successful
95 jumps were selected from the database for further analysis. The bar clearance height of the
96 **selected jumps** ranged from 2.81 to 5.91 m.

97 98 *Participants*

99 Data were collected from 132 pole-vaulters from six different categories: cadet women (CW;
100 n=19), cadet men (CM; n=25), junior women (JW; n=20), junior men (JM; n=20), elite
101 women (EW; n=26) and elite men (EM; n=22). **The cadet groups** included athletes from 16 to
102 17 years old, the junior groups included athletes from 18 to 19 years old, and elite athletes
103 **were 20 years old or older** at the time of data collection. All athletes were free from injury
104 when data were collected. All athletes were informed about the measurements during

105 competitions and provided signed consent to participate. This study was conducted in
106 accordance with the recommendations of the Declaration of Helsinki.

107

108 **Data Acquisition and analysis**

109 Twenty meters of the Optojump Next (Microgate, Bolzano, Italy) optoelectronic system was
110 installed on each side of the official runway to measure run-up kinematics (Ammann, Taube,
111 & Wyss, 2015). Due to the landing mat, the Optojump Next system could not be placed all the
112 way up to the pole planting box and was installed up until 2.00 or 2.20 m before the plant box,
113 depending on the mat configuration. To obtain the exact position of the feet during the run-up,
114 the horizontal distance between the beginning of the Optojump Next system and the bottom of
115 the planting box was measured, as shown in Figure 1. The step parameters were calculated for
116 the 3rd up to 8th last step of the approach. The last two steps of the approach were excluded
117 from the analysis as they are commonly used by pole-vaulters to adjust take-off distance and
118 are not representative of run-up as previously observed by Makaruk et al. (2016). This
119 configuration allowed direct measurement of contact time on the floor (t_c), aerial time when
120 the athlete was airborne (t_a), step rate (SR) and step length (SL), using the spatiotemporal
121 parameters provided by the Optojump Next Software. SL asymmetry (SL_{asy}) was calculated as
122 the absolute difference of the horizontal displacement covered on three left-foot steps (from
123 left foot touchdown to subsequent right foot touchdown) minus the horizontal distance
124 covered on three right-foot steps (from right foot touchdown to subsequent left foot
125 touchdown). SL variability (SL_{var}) was calculated as the mean of the differences between step
126 lengths over successive steps using data from the same 6 steps used to calculate SL_{asy} . Finally,
127 last step adjustment (S_{adj}) was calculated by subtracting the final SL from the penultimate SL.
128 A negative S_{adj} indicated a reduction in the last SL and a positive value indicated a longer
129 final step. The horizontal distance of the support foot toes at take-off (PoTk) and at six steps
130 before take-off (Po6S) from the end of the planting box was calculated using the spatial data
131 measured by the Optojump Next system (Figure 1).

132

133 The speed of the entire approach run was measured using a radar gun (Stalker Pro II, Applied
134 Concepts, Inc., Plano, TX) positioned behind the landing mat in the run-up direction at a 1.4
135 m height to allow direct sight of athletes' torsos along the approach runway (Figure 1). The
136 radar provided horizontal running speed at a sampling rate of 46.9 Hz. Data from the radar
137 gun were integrated into the MookyStalker software (Matsport, Saint-Ismier, France) and
138 synchronized with the data from the Optojump Next system. Average speed over selected
139 sections of the approach run was calculated after the application of a median filter on the
140 acquired data. This method is commonly used in track and field research (Cassirame et al.,
141 2017). Average speed was calculated for the following sections: 20 to 15 m (Sp1), 15 to 10 m
142 (Sp2), and 10 to 5 m (Sp3) from the end of the planting box. Speed at last touchdown (SpTk)
143 was considered as the average recorded the period 0.2 s before the instant of the last contact.
144 From those measures, the progression of speed was calculated as $\Delta 1=Sp2-Sp1$, $\Delta 2=Sp3-Sp2$
145 and $\Delta 3=SpTk-Sp3$.

146

147 In addition, video images of the take-off were collected at a frequency of 200 fps. A xiQ-
148 USB3 camera (xImea Gmhb, Muster, Germany) was positioned at a distance of 4 m

149 perpendicular to the run-up and at a 3.5 m distance from the planting box along the direction
150 of the runway. This setting allowed the recording of the take-off in the middle of the field of
151 view and to reduce possible parallax error. Before each competition, calibration images were
152 collected using a calibration pole of known length (2.00 m) in the athletes' sagittal plane of
153 motion to allow distance measurements. Video images were manually processed with the
154 Kinovea 08.15 software (Joan Charmant & Contributors, Bordeaux, France) to extract spatial
155 measurements at two key instants, the pole plant and the take-off. The first position occurred
156 when the athlete was in contact with the ground at the instant of pole plant (i.e., the first video
157 frame which showed the grip/upper hand being pushed backward). The second position
158 occurred at the instant where the athlete took off from the ground, as defined by the Optojump
159 Next software (Figure 2). The height of the grip hand from the ground was measured and
160 noted as H1 and H2 for the pole plant and the take-off, respectively. In addition, the
161 horizontal distance between the grip hand and the take-off foot's toes was calculated at the
162 two instants and noted as U1 and U2. If the hand was posterior to the toe, the value was
163 negative. ΔH and ΔU were calculated as $\Delta H = H2 - H1$ and $\Delta U = U2 - U1$ in order to obtain the
164 vertical and horizontal displacement of the grip hand between the two instants.

165

166 *Statistical analysis*

167 Statistical analysis was performed using the Sigmaplot v12 software (SAX Software,
168 Karlsruhe, Germany) and Microsoft Excel 2007 (Microsoft, Redmond, USA). At first, within-
169 groups Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) were calculated for all parameters along with
170 differences between both conditions (successful vs. unsuccessful jump). Secondly, all data
171 were log-transformed to reduce bias arising from non-uniformity error. Differences between
172 successful and unsuccessful jumps were expressed with standardized differences or effect size
173 with 90% confidence intervals (Hopkins, Marshall, Batterham, & Hanin, 2009). Limit
174 probabilities were also calculated to establish whether the true changes/differences were lower
175 than, similar to, or higher than the smallest worthwhile changes/differences ($0.2 \times$ between-
176 subjects SD). Changes were categorized as 0-0.2 (Trivial), 0.2-0.6 (Small), 0.6-1.2 (Moderate)
177 and 1.2-2.0 (Large; Hopkins et al., 2009). This method was applied to compare between
178 unsuccessful and successful jumps for each group separately.

179

180 **Results**

181 Results from all measurements for each group are presented in Table 1, 2 and 3. Results of the
182 statistical analyses are presented in Figure 3 for women and Figure 4 for men. All differences
183 between successful and unsuccessful jumps were trivial or small. Each group presented
184 individual combinations of small differences between successful and unsuccessful jumps.
185 However, all groups showed a small increase in take-off speed at the successful compared to
186 the unsuccessful jumps. Differences in take-off speed between successful and unsuccessful
187 conditions ranged from 0.08 ms^{-1} for elite women to 0.18 ms^{-1} for cadet women. All female
188 groups demonstrated small differences between successful and unsuccessful jumps for the
189 hand-foot horizontal at both the instants of the pole plant and the take-off with larger values
190 observed at the successful jumps (pole plant: 32.9 – 37.7 cm, take-off: 14.9 – 18.5 cm) than
191 the unsuccessful jumps (pole plant: 27.6 – 30.9 cm, take-off: 10.8 – 13.4 cm). Position at

192 take-off showed small differences between successful and unsuccessful jumps for junior
193 women, elite women and junior males (0.09, 0.07 and 0.06 m, respectively), with larger
194 values recorded for the unsuccessful jumps.

195

196 Discussion

197 The aim of this study was to investigate biomechanical differences between successful and
198 unsuccessful jumps during indoor pole vault competition. Results of the study covered a large
199 cohort of 207 pairs of jumps and demonstrated the adjustments made by athletes to achieve
200 bar clearance after unsuccessful jumps. Results revealed that all groups showed a significant,
201 despite small in magnitude, increase in take-off speed at the successful compared to the
202 unsuccessful jumps. In addition, only small differences were observed between the successful
203 and unsuccessful jumps for the rest of the examined parameters, which suggest that, for
204 trained pole vaulters, small changes in the kinematics of the approach phase can influence the
205 outcome of the jump.

206 Speed at last touchdown was slightly larger for all groups in the successful compared to
207 unsuccessful jumps. Similarly, average approach speed at the 10-5 m section was greater in
208 the successful jumps for all groups except for elite women. This finding is in agreement with
209 previous research that suggests that speed is the major determinant of performance in pole
210 vault for men and women (Adamczewski & Perlt, 1997; Cassirame, Sanchez, Homo, & Frère,
211 2017; Linthorne & Weetman, 2012; McGinnis, 2004). The small increase in speed observed
212 in the successful jumps is beneficial, as it is suggested that larger speed at take-off can lead to
213 a higher initial energy that an athlete could transmit to the pole, which in turn increases the
214 flexion of the pole and enhances the recoil energy return (Linthorne & Weetman, 2012;
215 Schade, Arampatzis, & Bruggemann, 2000).

216 Progression of approach speed was assessed by measuring speed difference between each 5-m
217 section of the approach run. In this study, findings showed that athletes increased their speed
218 throughout the approach run as found in past research (Linthorne & Weetman, 2012). Small
219 differences were observed for the progression of speed from the 10-5 m section to the last
220 touchdown between successful and unsuccessful jumps in all groups, except the cadet women.
221 Average approach speed at the 15-10 m section was also higher (with small effect) in
222 successful jumps for cadet women and junior males, while average approach speed at the 20-
223 15 m section was larger at the successful jumps only for the cadet women. The above finding
224 provides an additional argument relating higher speed at the end of the approach run with
225 better pole vault performance.

226 It was also noted that few approach step parameters were different between successful and
227 unsuccessful jumps. A small decrease of aerial time was reported for junior men and women
228 in the successful compared to the unsuccessful jumps. Additionally, a small increase of step
229 rate for junior women and of step length for cadet women was observed in the successful
230 compared to the unsuccessful jumps. The adjustments in these parameters allow athletes to
231 increase running speed as been reported in several previous studies investigating running
232 performance (Chapman & Caldwell, 1983; Miller, Umberger, & Caldwell, 2012; Rabita et al.,
233 2015). Nevertheless, pole carriage impairs the development of maximum speed due to the
234 decrement in stride length because of the reduced maximal hip and knee flexion (Frère,

235 Chollet, & Tourny-Chollet, 2009). Furthermore, carrying a pole was found to alter both the
236 horizontal force and velocity capabilities of an athlete, a combination that has an effect on the
237 horizontal power production (Frère et al., 2017). These factors are the bases of gender
238 differences in sprinting in adolescents (Papaiakovou et al., 2009) and might explain the
239 modification of step parameters in cadet and junior women. However, the increased reliance
240 on step rate during the approach has previously been highlighted for the achievement of a
241 successful compared to an unsuccessful jump (Theodorou, Panoutsakopoulos, Exell, &
242 Vujkov, 2017).

243 As mentioned previously, cadet women did not differentiate the progression of approach
244 speed between successful and unsuccessful jumps at the very last part of the approach.
245 Contrary to long jump or triple jump, pole vault includes an important impact during take-off
246 where the athlete has to transmit energy to the pole instead of absorbing the energy
247 (Christensen et al., 2014; Plessa, Rousanoglou, & Boudolos, 2010; Schade, Arampatzis, &
248 Brüggemann, 2006). This phase is probably the most crucial moment in pole vaulting since a
249 number of musculo-skeletal injuries occur (Rebella, 2015). This greater stress on take-off is
250 suggested to force athletes unconsciously to reduce their velocity prior to planting the pole to
251 protect their body (Goligorsky, 2001) and to act in a preventing status, with less variability
252 during the approach (Hay, 1988). The above observations about sprinting parameters may
253 indicate that fine adjustments of these variables between successful and unsuccessful jumps
254 may lead to changes in step rate and length and hence take-off speed. Previous research
255 suggested that differences exist in gait regulation strategy between successful and
256 unsuccessful jumps, with less step placement variability at the final steps of the approach
257 (Tamura et al., 2017). This is not supported by the present study, as no differences were
258 observed for step length asymmetry and variability or step length adjustment. Theodorou et al.
259 (2016) also noted the absence of step parameters asymmetry in late approach of elite male
260 pole vaulters. This might be due to the higher level of athletes examined in the present study,
261 as athletes of a higher skill level were found to exhibit a variety of motor response patterns
262 and greater success rates (Needham, Bezodis, Exell, & Irwin, 2017).

263 Regarding the take-off posture, successful jumps were performed with greater negative values
264 for the horizontal grip hand and take-off foot's toes distance at both pole plant and take-off
265 except for cadet and elite males. In addition, a more proximal position to the planting box was
266 noted for junior women, elite women and junior male. These findings are not in agreements
267 with the traditional Russian pole vault technique, where a more distal take-off position is
268 favored combined with positive or close to zero values regarding the horizontal grip hand and
269 take-off foot's toes distance at both pole plant and take-off (Vaslin & Cid, 1993). Results
270 showed that, in the successful jumps, the grip hand was more posterior in relation to the take-
271 off foot at heel strike and toe-off. This position probably allowed athletes to obtain better
272 active energy transmission to the pole during floor contact and initiated pole bending
273 (McGinnis, 1997; Schade & Arampatzis, 2012). As described by Warburton et al. (2015), the
274 largest force required to bend the pole occurs at the first part of the bending. Furthermore, a
275 closer take-off distance, in combination with greater horizontal grip hand and take-off foot's
276 toes distance at both pole plant and take-off, allows an increase in the duration of pole
277 bending when the foot is on the floor and thus permitting a better force transmission to the

278 pole. In addition, the increased speed at the end of the approach could allow better energy
279 transfer between the athlete and the pole, increasing momentum at take-off.

280 Traditional approaches to pole vault suggest that longer take-off distance (Gudelj et al., 2015),
281 higher grip length (Sullivan, Knowlton, Hetzler, & Woelke, 1994), larger pole to floor angle
282 and the use of a stiffer pole can also lead to improved performance (Linthorne, 2000). With
283 this technical approach, vaulters need to use their own energy to straighten the pole when
284 clearing the bar. However, the results of this study suggest that vaulters may require a
285 different technical approach in response to improved pole properties (Ekevad & Lundberg,
286 1997; Schade & Arampatzis, 2012), including a closer take-off position and larger foot-hand
287 separation parameters. This observation is corroborated by the height of grip hand at take-off
288 for elite male, demonstrating a lower position of the grip hand in the successful compared to
289 the unsuccessful jumps. In the successful jumps, athletes appear to attempt to produce
290 maximal pole bending during the last ground contact instead of preparing for pole
291 straightening. For each athlete's grip length and height, it is suggested that they have an ideal
292 take-off position to maximize horizontal speed produced during the run-up and subsequent
293 pole bending (Linthorne, 2000). The findings of this study suggest that athletes maximized
294 foot-hand separation positions in order to succeed when vaulting.

295 Due to the use of real-world competition data, this study compared successful and
296 unsuccessful jump attempts in this order. It is unclear whether the changes between conditions
297 resulted from negative changes to technique in the unsuccessful jumps or positive changes to
298 technique leading to successful jumps. Changes in values between successful and
299 unsuccessful jumps may have been induced by the change in position of athletes' start mark
300 for the first attempt at a new bar height. Under this condition, the athlete could wrongly adjust
301 their take-off position and perform an unsuccessful jump. The second or third attempts
302 however may allow them to modify this position in response to the failed attempt to obtain a
303 positive result (Theodorou, Panoutsakopoulos, Exell, & Vujkov, 2017). In addition, pole vault
304 is a highly complex discipline with a large number of potential causes for unsuccessful jumps.
305 This study has used a large data set covering a range of ability levels to initially describe
306 differences in technique between unsuccessful and successful jumps, but has only considered
307 run-up parameters and take-off position. Therefore, future work should analyze the flight
308 phase of the jump for the bar clearance for further information concerning the technique
309 elements that distinguish unsuccessful and successful pole vault jumps.

310

311 **Practical application**

312 The results from this study can inform coaches and athletes to focus on the most relevant
313 points to producing successful jumps. During competition, these findings highlight the
314 importance to reach maximum speed capability during the approach run. In addition, reducing
315 hand-foot distance at take-off can also increase the possibility of a successful jump by
316 increasing initial pole bending when the athlete is in contact with the floor. It was noted that
317 the elite male analysed in this study broke down the traditional Russian technique by focusing
318 on a bigger pole-to-floor angle at take-off aiming for a quicker loading of the pole. Further
319 investigation into this phenomenon would be beneficial to confirm whether greater horizontal
320 take-off orientation can maximize energy transfer and jump results.

321

322 **Conclusion**

323 This present study compared successful and **unsuccessful jumps in pole** vault. The main
324 finding of this study is that successful jumps were associated with a faster approach run and a
325 faster **horizontal speed at the take-off phase**. This suggests that athletes should try to produce
326 as high velocity as possible during the approach run to improve the likelihood of successful
327 jumps, as small reductions in speed can lead to failed attempts. The findings also suggest that
328 athletes can modify the horizontal distance of the toe of the take-off foot from the end of the
329 plant box at take-off and the horizontal displacement of the superior hand from the take-off
330 foot's toes at pole plant and the instant of take-off in order to achieve a successful jump. **The**
331 **findings of the present study highlight the complexity of the pole vault task and that the small**
332 **margins between successful and unsuccessful jumps and the potential detrimental effect of the**
333 **variability of the kinematical parameters for a successful jump**. Future studies should focus on
334 obtaining better understanding of mechanisms responsible for improving this energy transfer
335 and analysis of athletes' technique during the bar clearance.

336

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487
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489 Figure 1. Experimental set-up illustration including the Optojump Next system and the radar
490 gun.

491
492 Figure 2. Schematic representation of the video-based measurements in Position 1 (pole plant)
493 and Position 2 (take-off).

494 Figure 3. Difference between successful and unsuccessful jumps for cadet (CW), junior (JW)
495 and elite (EW) women for each parameter. Differences are expressed in SD. The grey area
496 represents no significant differences between both conditions; * denotes a small difference.

497
498 Figure 4. Difference between successful and unsuccessful jumps for cadet (CM), junior (JM)
499 and elite (EM) men for each parameter. Differences are expressed in SD. The grey area
500 represents no significant differences between both conditions; * denotes a small difference.

501
502 Table 1. Mean \pm SD results for the step parameters for the successful and unsuccessful jumps.
503 Parameters highlighted in grey are significantly different between both conditions.

504 NOTE: * denotes a small difference. For each category, the number of jump duos analyzed
505 for comparison is 36 for Cadet Women, 29 for Junior Women, 38 for Elite Women, 36 for
506 Cadet Men, 35 for Junior Men and 39 for Elite Men.

507 PoTk: distance from planting box at take-off, Po6S: distance from box at the 6th-to-last step,
508 SL: step length, SR: step rate, SL_{asy}: step length asymmetry, SL_{var}: step length variability,
509 SL_{adj}: step length adjustment: t_a: aerial time, t_c: contact time.

510
511 Table 2. Mean \pm SD results for the speed parameters for the successful and unsuccessful
512 jumps. Parameters highlighted in grey are significantly different between both conditions.

513 NOTE: * denotes a small difference. For each category, the number of jump duos analyzed
514 for comparison is 36 for Cadet Women, 29 for Junior Women, 38 for Elite Women, 36 for
515 Cadet Men, 35 for Junior Men and 39 for Elite Men.

516 Sp1: average approach speed at the 20-15m section, Sp2: average approach speed at the 15-
517 10m section, Sp3: average approach speed at the 10-5 m section, SpTK: speed at last
518 touchdown, Δ 1: progression of speed between Sp1 and Sp2, Δ 2: progression of speed between
519 Sp2 and Sp3, Δ 3: progression of speed between Sp3 and SpTK.

520
521 Table 3. Mean \pm SD results for the 2D kinematical analysis parameters for the successful and
522 unsuccessful jumps. Parameters highlighted in grey are significantly different between both
523 conditions.

524 NOTE: * denotes a small difference. For each category, the number of jump duos analyzed
525 for comparison is 36 for Cadet Women, 29 for Junior Women, 38 for Elite Women, 36 for
526 Cadet Men, 35 for Junior Men and 39 for Elite Men.

527 H1: height of grip/upper hand at pole plant, H2: height of grip/upper hand at take-off, Δ H:
528 H2-H1, U1: horizontal distance between grip hand and take-off foot's toes at pole plant, U2:
529 horizontal distance between grip hand and take-off foot's toes at take-off, Δ U: U2-U1.

530

Table 1. Average \pm SD results from step parameters measurement sessions for successful and failed attempts. Parameters highlighted in grey are significantly different between both conditions.

		PoTk (m)		Po6S (m)		SL (m)		SR (Hz)		SL _{asy} (cm)		SL _{var} (cm)		SL _{adj} (cm)		Ta (ms)		Tc (ms)	
		avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd
CW	SU	2.86	± .35	13.54	± .92	1.75*	± .09	3.82	± .21	-0.5	± 9.2	8.5	± 4.9	-19.9	± 11.9	0.119	± .012	0.131	± .007
	UN	2.90	± .21	13.52	± .65	1.71*	± .08	3.78	± .17	-1.8	± 6.2	7.7	± 4.3	-17.6	± 14.1	0.120	± .007	0.131	± .006
JW	SU	2.87*	± .21	13.73*	± .48	1.81	± .07	3.84*	± .16	-1.1	± 6.3	6.6	± 3.4	-17.7	± 12.6	0.124*	± .006	0.126	± .009
	UN	2.96*	± .26	13.92*	± .63	1.80	± .06	3.80*	± .15	0.1	± 7.5	7.0	± 2.8	-15.4	± 14.0	0.127*	± .010	0.127	± .009
EW	SU	3.23*	± .24	14.76	± .74	1.95	± .10	3.90	± .19	2.4	± 9.4	8.0	± 5.4	-13.7	± 11.5	0.130	± .009	0.122	± .011
	UN	3.30*	± .27	14.85	± .27	1.94	± .08	3.91	± .16	3.1	± 2.5	8.0	± 2.6	-11.1	± 15.1	0.131	± .009	0.121	± .005
CM	SU	3.48	± .27	15.46	± .62	1.98	± .11	4.01	± .21	-2.6	± 7.7	8.8	± 4.4	-18.5	± 13.1	0.122	± .013	0.126	± .008
	UN	3.49	± .31	15.45	± .68	1.97	± .09	3.99	± .18	-0.6	± 10.1	8.3	± 3.8	-17.2	± 12.5	0.122	± .008	0.128	± .008
JM	SU	3.59*	± .19	15.89	± .47	2.05	± .10	3.95	± .21	-2.6	± 9.5	7.8	± 4.1	-16.0	± 12.7	0.124*	± .007	0.122	± .010
	UN	3.65*	± .21	15.92	± .35	2.05	± .15	3.92	± .13	-2.3	± 11.1	7.9	± 3.9	-16.0	± 11.8	0.126*	± .006	0.122	± .009
EM	SU	3.90	± .17	16.78	± .28	2.18	± .12	4.23	± .17	-0.4	± 7.6	6.4	± 4.5	-17.1	± 10.8	0.125	± .008	0.114	± .007
	UN	3.93	± .21	16.88	± .37	2.18	± .09	4.20	± .22	-0.2	± 7.5	6.0	± 4.2	-17.6	± 14.5	0.126	± .007	0.114	± .006

NOTE: * denotes a small difference. For each category numbers of jump duos analyzed for comparison are 36 for CW, 29 for JW, 38 for EW, 36 for CM, 35 for JM and 39 for EM.

PoTk: Position as take-off, Po6S: position at 6 strides, SL: stride length, SR: stride rate, SL_{asy}: stride length asymmetry, SL_{var}: stride length variability SL_{adj}: stride length adjustment: ta: aerial time, tc : contact time

Table 2. Average \pm SD results from speed parameters measurement sessions for successful and failed attempts. Parameters highlighted in grey are significantly different between both conditions.

		Sp1 (m/s)		Sp2 (m/s)		Sp3 (m/s)		SpTK (m/s)		Δ 1 (m/s)		Δ 2 (m/s)		Δ 3 (m/s)	
		avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd
CW	SU	5.93*	$\pm .76$	6.55*	$\pm .79$	7.13*	$\pm .76$	7.28*	$\pm .80$	0.62	± 1.1	0.58	$\pm .26$	0.15	$\pm .22$
	UN	5.76*	$\pm .56$	6.37*	$\pm .48$	6.96*	$\pm .34$	7.10*	$\pm .38$	0.61	$\pm .25$	0.59	$\pm .20$	0.14	$\pm .20$
JW	SU	5.98	$\pm .43$	6.73	$\pm .33$	7.27*	$\pm .27$	7.41*	$\pm .28$	0.85*	$\pm .23$	0.53*	$\pm .17$	0.14*	$\pm .17$
	UN	5.99	$\pm .54$	6.72	$\pm .33$	7.20*	$\pm .24$	7.31*	$\pm .26$	0.73*	± 1.08	0.48*	$\pm .15$	0.11*	$\pm .19$
EW	SU	6.97	$\pm .51$	7.48	$\pm .42$	7.82	$\pm .41$	7.98*	$\pm .24$	0.51	$\pm .16$	0.34	$\pm .08$	0.16*	$\pm .13$
	UN	6.92	$\pm .36$	7.45	$\pm .27$	7.80	$\pm .25$	7.90*	$\pm .26$	0.50	$\pm .19$	0.35	$\pm .14$	0.10*	$\pm .14$
CM	SU	7.08	$\pm .45$	7.74	$\pm .49$	8.22*	$\pm .28$	8.45*	$\pm .39$	0.66*	$\pm .18$	0.46	$\pm .21$	0.24*	$\pm .13$
	UN	7.06	$\pm .34$	7.67	$\pm .56$	8.13*	$\pm .26$	8.30*	$\pm .41$	0.60*	$\pm .20$	0.47	$\pm .16$	0.17*	$\pm .15$
JM	SU	7.35	$\pm .51$	7.92*	$\pm .37$	8.34*	$\pm .29$	8.65*	$\pm .36$	0.57	$\pm .65$	0.43	$\pm .15$	0.32*	$\pm .12$
	UN	7.29	$\pm .39$	7.82*	$\pm .28$	8.24*	$\pm .24$	8.54*	$\pm .25$	0.54	$\pm .42$	0.42	$\pm .28$	0.28*	$\pm .09$
EM	SU	8.65	$\pm .48$	8.97	$\pm .29$	9.23*	$\pm .21$	9.48*	$\pm .27$	0.32	$\pm .18$	0.25*	$\pm .12$	0.24*	$\pm .07$
	UN	8.60	$\pm .44$	8.96	$\pm .32$	9.17*	$\pm .28$	9.37*	$\pm .27$	0.30	$\pm .31$	0.22*	$\pm .14$	0.20*	$\pm .08$

NOTE: * denotes a small difference. For each category numbers of jump duos analyzed for comparison are 36 for CW, 29 for JW, 38 for EW, 36 for CM, 35 for JM and 39 for EM.

SP1: avg speed 20-15m, SP2: avg speed 15-10m, SP3 avg speed 10-5 m, SPTk: speed at take-off, Δ 1 : speed evolution between Sp1 and SP2, Δ 2: Speed evolution between SP2 and SP3, Δ 3, Speed evolution between SP3 and SPTk,

Table 3. Average \pm SD results from 2D kinematical analysis parameters measurement sessions for successful and failed attempts. Parameters highlighted in grey are significantly different between both conditions.

		H1 (cm)		H2 (cm)		Δ H (cm)		U1 (cm)		U2 (cm)		Δ U (cm)	
		avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd	avg	sd
CW	SU	183.7	\pm 9.0	193.2	\pm 6.5	9.5	\pm 5.8	-36.9*	\pm 20.4	-18.5*	\pm 16.3	18.4	\pm 9.9
	UN	182.6	\pm 9.5	193.0	\pm 10.9	10.4	\pm 6.1	-30.8*	\pm 19.5	-13.3*	\pm 17.2	17.4	\pm 11.7
JW	SU	180.7	\pm 10.4	189.1	\pm 11.6	8.3	\pm 3.7	-37.7*	\pm 14.2	-17.8*	\pm 11.9	20.0*	\pm 9.6
	UN	181.9	\pm 12.5	189.6	\pm 12.8	7.6	\pm 6.7	-30.9*	\pm 21.1	-13.4*	\pm 18.2	17.4*	\pm 9.1
EW	SU	191.8	\pm 10.1	200.5	\pm 10.3	8.7	\pm 5.3	-32.9*	\pm 10.2	-14.9*	\pm 8.1	18.0	\pm 12.0
	UN	190.8	\pm 6.0	200.5	\pm 6.2	9.6	\pm 4.7	-27.6*	\pm 8.7	-10.8*	\pm 6.4	16.8	\pm 9.7
CM	SU	193.8	\pm 12.3	204.2	\pm 9.9	10.4	\pm 3.2	-33.4	\pm 15.0	-12.7	\pm 7.5	20.1	\pm 7.8
	UN	194.1	\pm 11.4	204.5	\pm 8.9	10.4	\pm 4.5	-31.4	\pm 12.5	-12.4	\pm 6.4	18.5	\pm 12.8
JM	SU	198.9	\pm 13.2	207.2	\pm 10.5	8.3	\pm 6.5	-16.4*	\pm 8.5	-34.2*	\pm 11.4	17.9	\pm 10.4
	UN	199.1	\pm 11.2	207.9	\pm 10.6	8.7	\pm 4.2	-11.6*	\pm 7.4	-27.5*	\pm 10.4	16.0	\pm 12.5
EM	SU	207.3	\pm 7.5	207.0*	\pm 7.4	-0.3*	\pm 4.2	-43.6	\pm 15.3	-21.1	\pm 13.4	22.4	\pm 9.7
	UN	207.3	\pm 6.4	213.3*	\pm 6.1	6.0*	\pm 5.2	-43.3	\pm 11.4	-21.7	\pm 11.2	21.5	\pm 9.5

NOTE: * denotes a small difference. For each category numbers of jump duos analyzed for comparison are 36 for CW, 29 for JW, 38 for EW, 36 for CM, 35 for JM and 39 for EM.

H1 and H2: height of upper hand at position 1 and 2, Δ H : H2-H1, U1 and U2 : under values at position 1 and 2, Δ U: U2-U

Figure 1

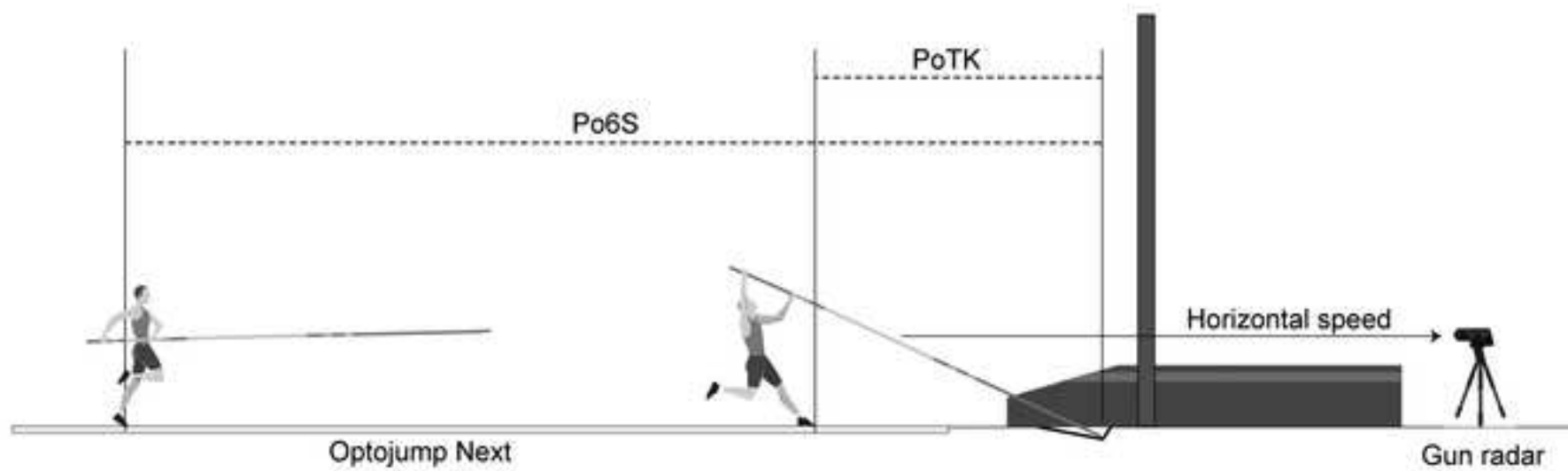


Figure 2

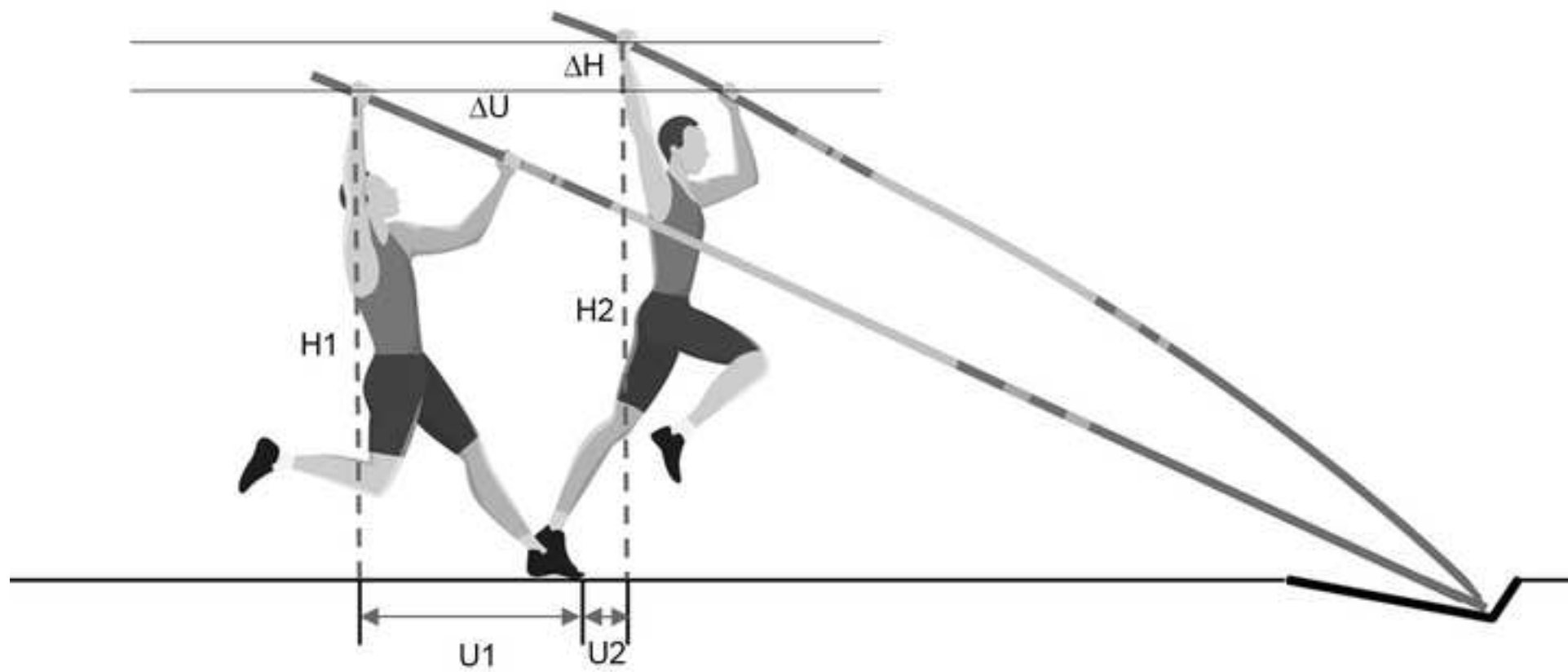


Figure 3

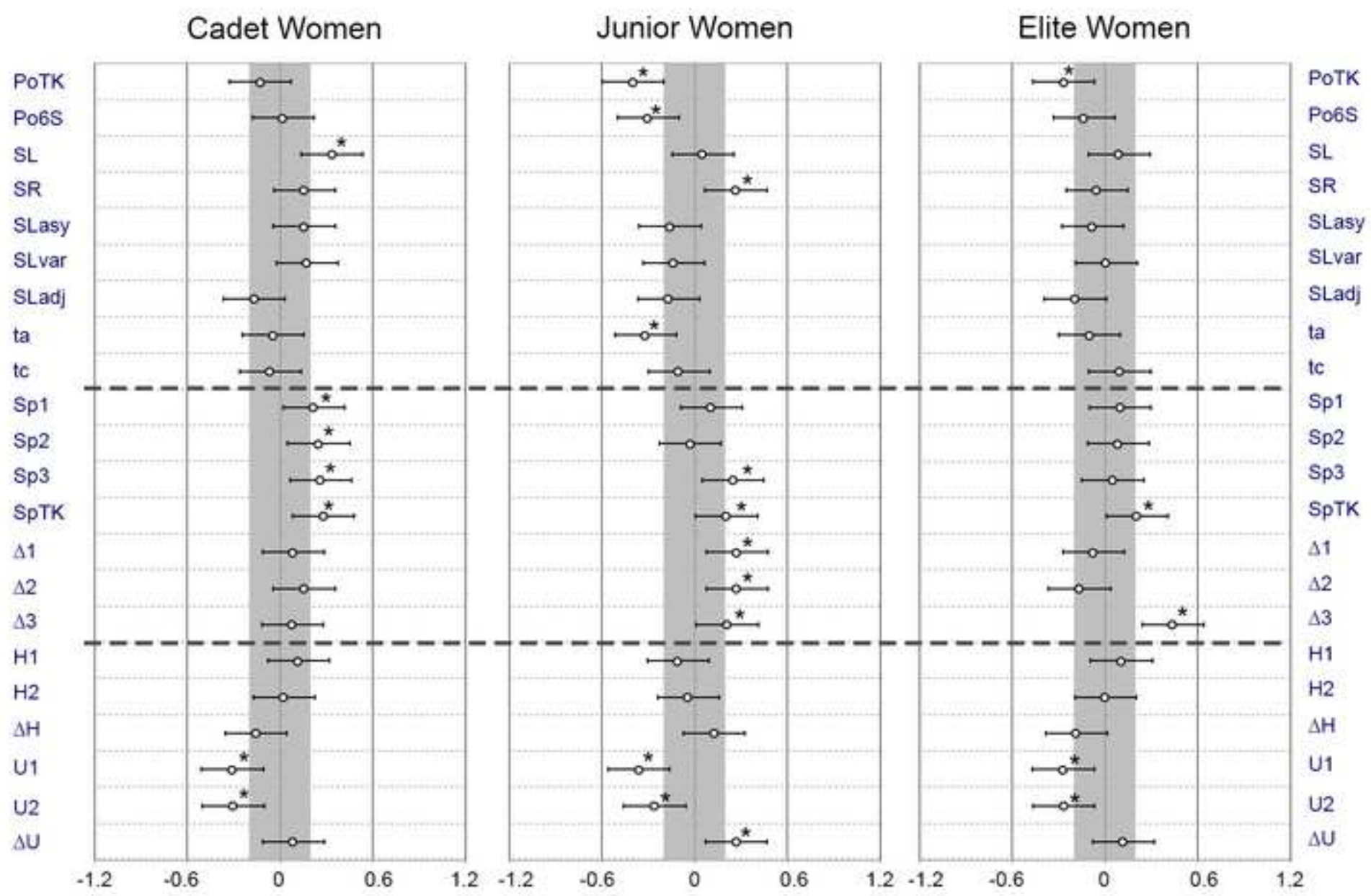


Figure 4

