# 1 Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise

2

# Cricket fast bowling technique and lumbar bone stress injury

3 Peter Alway<sup>1</sup>, Paul Felton<sup>2</sup>, Katherine Brooke-Wavell<sup>1</sup>, Nicholas Peirce<sup>3</sup>, Mark King<sup>1</sup>

<sup>4</sup> <sup>1</sup>School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences, Loughborough University, Loughborough, UK

<sup>5</sup> <sup>2</sup>Department of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham, UK

<sup>6</sup> <sup>3</sup>Department of Science and Medicine, England and Wales Cricket Board, Loughborough, UK

7

# 8 ABSTRACT

9 **Introduction:** Lumbar bone stress injuries (LBSI) are the most prevalent injury in cricket. While fast bowling technique has been implicated in the aetiology of LBSI, no previous study 10 11 has attempted to prospectively analyse fast bowling technique and its relationship to LBSI. The aim of this study was to explore technique differences between elite cricket fast 12 13 bowlers with and without subsequent LBSI. Methods: Kinematic and kinetic technique 14 parameters previously associated with LBSI were determined for 50 elite male fast bowlers. 15 Group means were compared using independent samples t-tests to identify differences between bowlers with and without a prospective LBSI. Significant parameters were 16 advanced as candidate variables for a binary logistic regression analysis. Results: Of the 50 17 bowlers, 39 sustained a prospective LBSI. Significant differences were found between 18 19 injured and non-injured bowlers in: rear knee angle, rear hip angle, thoracolumbar side 20 flexion angle and thoracolumbar rotation angle at back foot contact (BFC); the front hip angle, pelvic tilt orientation and lumbopelvic angle at front foot contact (FFC); the 21 thoracolumbar side flexion angle at ball release and the maximum front hip angle and 22 23 ipsilateral pelvic drop orientation. A binary logistic model, consisting of rear hip angle at BFC

24	and lumbopelvic angle at FFC, correctly predicted 88% of fast bowlers according to injury
25	history and significantly increased the odds of sustaining an LBSI (odds ratio: 0.88 and 1.25
26	respectively). Conclusion: Lumbopelvic motion is implicated in the aetiology of LBSI in fast
27	bowling with inadequate lumbo-pelvi-femoral complex control a potential cause. This
28	research will aid the identification of fast bowlers at risk of LBSI, as well as enhancing
29	coaching and rehabilitation of fast bowlers from LBSI.
30	Key Words: Stress fracture, pace bowling, biomechanics, spondylolysis, lumbopelvic
31	
32	
33	
34	
35	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	
/1	
41	
42	
43	
44	
45	

#### 46 **INTRODUCTION**

Bone stress injuries are an overuse injury caused by the accumulation and propagation of 47 linear microcracks across bone (Bennell et al., 1996). Bone stress injuries have been 48 demonstrated to progress in severity from bone marrow oedema to stress fracture 49 50 (Kountouris et al., 2018). Lumbar bone stress injuries (LBSI) are the most prevalent injury in 51 cricket (Orchard et al., 2016) with a time loss which can exceed 8 months (Alway et al., 2019) and is likely have a deleterious effect on the development of fast bowlers. They are commonly 52 observed in young (18-22 years old) fast bowlers at the L4 (35%) and L5 (33%) vertebra, and 53 are almost exclusively unilateral (93%), presenting at the neural arch contralateral to the 54 bowling arm (Alway et al., 2019). The neural arch, containing the pars interarticularis and 55 pedicle, are the common sites of LBSI in fast bowlers due to their narrow structure and 56 57 relative delayed maturation (Bogduk, 1997), which creates a weakened structure, resulting in comparatively increased bone strain in this area. 58

Incidence of LBSI is high in activities with repetitive flexion, extension and rotation of the 59 60 lumbar spine such as gymnastics, baseball pitching and athletic throwing events (Tawfik et al., 2020) with LBSI commonly occurring bilaterally at L5 (Rossi and Dragoni, 2001; Soler and 61 Calderón, 2000). This LBSI injury location differs to fast bowlers and a reason for the disparity 62 may be due to the technique adopted in each activity which can directly affect the magnitude, 63 direction and location of strain on bone (Bennell et al., 1999). A unique requirement of cricket 64 bowling technique is that the elbow is not allowed to extend during the action (Marylebone 65 66 Cricket Club (MCC), 2013). As a consequence fast bowlers often exhibit large amounts of contralateral trunk side flexion to globally orientate the arm optimally at ball release (Ranson 67 68 et al., 2008). The timing of peak contralateral trunk side flexion typically coincides with high

front foot vertical ground reaction forces, often in excess of 6 bodyweights (Worthington et
al., 2013), potentially generating large loads on the lumbar spine which could contribute to
LBSI (Zhang et al., 2016).

Previous research has investigated the link between fast bowling technique and LBSI (Bayne 72 et al., 2016; Elliott et al., 1992; Foster et al., 1989; Portus et al., 2004; Ranson et al., 2010). 73 74 Initial studies attempted to link action classifications, defined using the orientation in the 75 transverse plane of the pelvis and shoulders during the bowling action, with LSBI (Elliott et al., 76 1992; Foster et al., 1989; Portus et al., 2004). Although these classifications are far removed 77 derivatives of lumbar spine kinematics (Senington et al., 2018), there has been some evidence 78 linking the mixed classification (greater than 30° of shoulder counter-rotation or pelvis-79 shoulder separation at back foot contact) to LBSI (Portus et al., 2004). More recently a three-80 dimensional method has established a link between excessive contralateral thoracolumbar side flexion (Bayne et al., 2016; Ranson et al., 2008) during the front foot contact phase with 81 82 LBSI and lower back injuries in fast bowlers.

Studies investigating technique as a cause of LBSI have been limited by small sample sizes due to the difficulties in obtaining LBSI cases. This has resulted in grouping all lower back injuries into one group, and retrospectively analysing bowling technique following LBSI. No study to date has prospectively analysed the link between fast bowling technique and LBSI. As a result, the aim of this study is to prospectively explore technique differences between elite cricket fast bowlers who sustain a LBSI and those who have never suffered LBSI.

89

90

#### 92 METHODS

#### 93 *Participants*

94 Elite male cricket fast bowlers, enrolled on an international performance pathway, provided 95 written informed consent to participate in the study in accordance with the guidelines of the 96 Loughborough University Ethics Advisory Committee. Fast bowlers were included in the prospective injury group if they sustained a LBSI within 2 years following their biomechanical 97 assessment. Bowlers were included in the uninjured group if they had never sustained an 98 99 LBSI; had a biomechanical assessment prior to the age of 22; and were at least 23 years old 100 with a minimum of 150-match days of professional cricket at the end of the 2019 season (to 101 ensure bowlers were outside the high-risk low career workload threshold, Orchard et al., 2015). All fast bowlers were required to undergo an MRI lumbar spine scan subsequent to 102 their biomechanical assessment as a part of the ongoing England and Wales Cricket Board 103 lumbar spine injury screening programme. A CT or CT SPECT scan was arranged to follow up 104 105 those with diagnostic uncertainty.

#### 106 Data Collection

107 Each bowler performed a minimum of six maximum velocity deliveries on a 'good length' 108 which was recorded using an 18 camera Vicon Motion Analysis System (OMG Plc, Oxford, UK) 109 operating at 300 Hz. Kinetic data were collected via a synchronised Kistler force plate (Type 110 9287B, Winterthur, Switzerland) operating at 1500 Hz. Data were collected in an indoor cricket facility incorporating a full-length artificial pitch with space for a full run-up. Any 111 bowler whom an elite wicketkeeper would normally stand back to were defined as 'fast,' and 112 all bowlers were deemed fit to bowl by a qualified physiotherapist. Forty-seven retro 113 114 reflective 14 mm markers were attached to each fast bowler, positioned over bony landmarks

in accordance with the marker set used by Worthington et al. (Worthington et al., 2013). In
addition, a 2 cm<sup>2</sup> piece of reflective tape was added to the ball to determine the instant of
release and velocity. Static and dynamic calibration trials were performed for each subject,
allowing body segment length and neutral spine position to be calculated (Ranson et al.,
2008). Ninety-five anthropometric measurements were taken enabling subject-specific
segmental inertia parameters to be determined for each bowler (Yeadon, 1990).

#### 121 Data Processing

122 The bowling trial for each participant with the greatest ball velocity, minimal marker loss and 123 where the front foot landed on the force plate was manually labelled and processed using 124 Vicon Nexus software (OMG PLC, Oxford, UK). Trajectories of markers were filtered using a recursive fourth-order low-pass Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 30 Hz (Winter, 125 1990). Back foot contact (BFC) was defined as the first frame in which the movement of the 126 markers changed due to the contact of the foot with the ground, and front foot contact (FFC) 127 was defined as the first frame in which vertical ground reaction force exceeded 25 N 128 129 (Worthington et al., 2013). Ball release (BR) was determined from the frame in which the 130 distance between the ball marker and the midpoint of a pair of markers over the wrist exceeded 20 mm relative to the previous frame (Worthington et al., 2013). 131

The joint centres for the ankle, knee, shoulder, elbow and wrist were calculated from the pair of markers placed medio-lateral across each joint (anterior-posterior for shoulder), such that their midpoint coincided with the joint centre (Worthington et al., 2013). The markers placed over the left and right anterior and posterior superior iliac spine were used to calculate the hip joint centres (Davis et al., 1991), while the mid-point of the posterior superior iliac spine markers defined the lumbopelvic junction (Worthington et al., 2013). Similarly, the

thoracolumbar junction was defined as the mid-point of the markers placed on the xiphoid
process and L1 spinous process (Worthington et al., 2013), and the cervicothoracic junction
as the mid-point of the interclavicular notch and the C7 spinous process (Worthington et al.,
2013).

The global coordinate system was defined with the y-axis pointed down the wicket, the x-axis 142 143 towards the bowlers right, and the z-axis pointing vertically upwards. Local three-dimensional 144 references frames were determined for 18 segments (head and neck; upper trunk; lower 145 trunk; pelvis; 2 x upper arm; 2 x lower arm; 2 x hand; 2 x upper leg; 2 x lower leg; and 2 x two-146 segment feet) using three markers on each segment, where the z-axis pointed upwards along 147 the longitudinal axis of the segment, the x-axis pointed towards the bowler's right and y-axis pointed forwards (Worthington et al., 2013). Global segment orientation and joint angles 148 149 were calculated as Cardan angles, using an xyz sequence. For the global orientation the xyz rotations corresponded to tilt, drop and twist, respectively, with orientations described 150 relative to the anatomical position and the bowling side (anatomical position = 180°; anterior 151 152 tilt, contralateral drop and twist <180°). For the joint angles, the xyz rotations corresponded 153 to flexion-extension, abduction-adduction, and longitudinal rotation, respectively 154 (Worthington et al., 2013), with angles described relative to the anatomical position and the bowling side (anatomical position = 180°: flexion; and contralateral side flexion and rotation 155 < 180°) except for the flexion-extension axis of the ankle (anatomical position = 90°; dorsi 156 157 flexion < 90°) (Worthington et al., 2013). All angles reported within the results will correspond 158 to the flexion-extension axis unless otherwise stated.

Previously investigated fast bowling action classification parameters were calculated using
the shoulder and pelvis twist orientations (Portus et al., 2004). Shoulder counterrotation was

calculated by subtracting the minimum shoulder twist orientation during the delivery stride 161 162 from shoulder twist orientation at BFC (Portus et al., 2004). Pelvis-shoulder separation was calculated by subtracting the pelvis twist orientation from the shoulder twist orientation at 163 BFC (Portus et al., 2004). Shoulder counterrotation was calculated by subtracting the 164 minimum shoulder twist orientation during the delivery stride from the shoulder twist 165 orientation at BFC (Portus et al., 2004). Similarly, the orientation of a lower thorax reference 166 167 frame, defined by Ranson et al. (Ranson et al., 2008) using the three markers placed on the 168 xiphoid process, and the T10 and L1 spinous processes, was determined relative to the pelvis as Cardan angles using an xyz sequence (anatomical position = 180°; flexion, and contralateral 169 170 side flexion and rotation < 180°). The orientation of a front leg reference frame, defined using the hip and ankle joint centres (Worthington et al., 2013), and a front foot reference frame, 171 defined using the MTP and ankle joint centres (Worthington et al., 2013), were determined 172 173 relative to the global coordinate system as Cardan angles using an xyz sequence (anatomical 174 position =  $0^{\circ}$ ; anterior tilt, contralateral drop and twist <  $0^{\circ}$ ). This allowed two kinematic 175 parameters at FFC to be determined previously linked to peak ground reaction forces and 176 time to peak force during the front foot contact phase of fast bowling. Front leg plant angle was defined as the tilt orientation of the front leg at FFC, and front foot plant angle as the tilt 177 orientation of the front foot at FFC (Worthington et al., 2013). Front knee flexion was also 178 179 determined between FFC and BR for similar reasons (Worthington et al., 2013).

Six kinetic parameters consisting of peak forces, average loading rates and impulse in the vertical and horizontal (braking) directions were determined (Worthington et al., 2013). Average loading rates were calculated as the peak force divided by the time from initial foot contact to the time of peak force (Hurrion et al., 2000). Peak forces, average loading rates and

impulses were explored in absolute and normalised terms (using the bowlers' body mass), as
it is unknown whether absolute or relative ground reaction force is a contributor to LBSI.

Ball release velocity was calculated over a period of 10 frames (0.033 s) from the instant of 186 187 BR using the equations of constant acceleration. Run-up velocity (in the global y-direction) 188 was calculated as the mean horizontal mass centre velocity over a period of 18 frames (0.060 189 s) immediately before the instant of BFC (Worthington et al., 2013). All radiological scans were 190 read by board certified musculoskeletal radiologists with extensive experience in reporting 191 lumbar spine scans in fast bowlers. LBSI's were defined as either stress reactions or stress fractures determined from radiological reports Stress reactions were defined as any report 192 193 which identified evidence of bone marrow oedema (without fracture line), while acute stress fractures were defined by any report which identified evidence of incomplete, complete or 194 195 multilevel stress fracture accompanied by bone marrow oedema which suggested the fracture site was active. Chronic inactive stress lesions were identified separately in separate 196 analysis. These details were recorded in the England and Wales Cricket Board injury database 197 198 at the time of the scan and extracted for current analysis.

#### 199 Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed within SPSS v.26 (IBM, USA). Normality of the data was determined by a Shapiro-Wilk test and equal variances were determined by Levene's test. To compare variables between injured and uninjured fast bowlers, independent samples t-tests were used with an alpha value of 0.05 (Sinclair et al., 2013). If the assumption of normality was violated for any variable, the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was performed instead. Similarly, if the assumption that the variance of homogeneity was violated for any of

the variables, Welch's t-test was used. Effect sizes were calculated for all variables (Cohen,
1988).

To identify the key predictors of LBSI, the parameters which were significantly different 208 209 between the injured and non-injured groups were put forward as "candidate" variables for 210 input in a binary logistic regression model. To reduce the risk of Type 1 error only significant 211 variables with medium or greater effect sizes were considered for entry into the binary 212 regression model. Candidate variables were removed prior to entry if there was any evidence 213 of multicollinearity (Pearson's correlation coefficient, r > 0.7, p < 0.05, Field, 2009). The entry requirement for the inclusion of a parameter into the regression equation was p < 0.05 with 214 215 a removal coefficient of p < 0.10. To minimise the potential limitations of stepwise regression models, all possible binary logistic regression models were determined for comparison. The 216 217 regression model was rejected if the odds ratio 95% confidence interval contained 1 (indicates 218 the coefficient 95% confidence interval included zero).

### 219 **RESULTS**

220 Fifty elite fast bowlers (age:  $18.9 \pm 1.9$  years; mass:  $83.0 \pm 8.4$  kg; height:  $1.87 \pm 0.06$  m) who 221 underwent biomechanical analysis met the criteria to be included within this study. Of these, 39 bowlers (age: 19.3  $\pm$  2.0 years; mass: 83.2  $\pm$  7.6 kg; height: 1.88  $\pm$  0.06 m) sustained a 222 223 prospective LBSI (injury age:  $19.9 \pm 2.1$ ), while the other 11 bowlers (age:  $19.8 \pm 1.5$  years; 224 mass: 82.5 ± 11.3 kg; height: 1.86 ± 0.05 m) had no history of LBSI injury. A summary of the of 225 the LBSI injuries experienced by fast bowlers can be found in Table 1. Both groups were 226 comparable with similar age, height, and weight statistics (p > 0.05), however, at the end of the 2019 season, the fast bowlers with a prospective LBSI had played significantly fewer days 227

- of professional cricket to compared to their injury free counterparts (Median ± IQR: 104 ± 236
- 229 vs. 268 ± 264, ES > 0.5).

	Stress Fr	acture N = 26	Stress Reaction N = 13		Total LI	3SI N = 39
Vertebra	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%
L1	0	0	0	0	0	0
L2	0	0	1	8	1	3
L3	4	15	1	8	5	13
L4	8	31	3	23	11	28
L5	6	23	5	38	11	28
Multilevel	8	31	1	8	9	23
Unknown	0	0	2	15	2	5
Side (relative to bowling arm)						
Contralateral	23	88	9	69	32	82
Ipsilateral	1	4	0	0	1	3
Bilateral	2	8	2	15	4	10
Unknown	0	0	2	15	2	5
Region						
Pars	23	88	5	38	28	72
Pedicle	1	4	4	31	5	13
Both	2	8	0	0	2	5
Unknown	0	0	4	31	4	10

#### 230 Table 1: Severity and location of LBSI in elite cricket fast bowlers

231 Five significant differences with a large effect size (d > 0.8, r > 0.5) and three significant 232 differences with a medium effect size (d > 0.5, r > 0.3), were observed in the kinematic parameters calculated at key instants of the bowling action (Table 2). At the instance of BFC 233 the injured bowlers had more flexed rear hip and knee angles, less contralateral 234 thoracolumbar side flexion and more contralateral thoracolumbar rotation (Table 2). A 235 236 further three parameters were significantly different at FFC with injured bowlers having more 237 flexed front hip angles, more anterior pelvic tilt, and more extended lumbopelvic angles (Table 2). At ball release, the only significant difference was in the thoracolumbar side flexion 238 angle with the injured bowlers less contralaterally side flexed than their non-injured 239

counterparts (Table 2). Although not significant with an alpha value of 0.05 (p = 0.09), a medium effect size (d = 0.58) was found for the difference in the lumbopelvic side flexion angle, with injured bowlers more contralaterally side flexed at BR.

#### Table 2: Group means and standard deviations for selected position and velocity

# parameters at the key instants of the fast bowling action for bowlers with and without a

history of LBSI.

	Back foot contact		Front foo	t contact	Ball release	
parameters	LBSI	non-LBSI	LBSI	non-LBSI	LBSI	non-LBSI
ball release speed (m/s)					35.1 ± 1.6	35.8 ± 1.9
horizontal COM velocity (m/s)	6.1 ± 0.5	6.1 ± 0.5				
shoulder orientation – twist(°)	240 ± 16*	236 ± 22	205 ± 27*	199 ± 5		
pelvis-shoulder separation (°)	21 ± 15	13 ± 24				
rear knee angle (°)	146 ± 11**	156 ± 18				
rear hip angle (°)	146 ± 10***	156 ± 9				
front foot plant angle (°)			-6 ± 19	-9 ± 17		
front ankle angle (°)			127 ± 21	129 ± 18		
front knee angle (°)			163 ± 6	163 ± 6	164 ± 23	169 ± 23
front hip angle (°)			130 ± 9***	137 ± 7	$118 \pm 11^{**}$	124 ± 9
front leg plant angle (°)			39 ± 3	39 ± 2		
pelvis orientation – tilt (°)	188 ± 7**	192 ± 6	170 ± 5***	175 ± 4	$152 \pm 10^{*}$	155 ± 8
pelvis orientation – drop (°)	193 ± 7**	189 ± 5	177 ± 5	176 ± 7	$165 \pm 6^{*}$	168 ± 7
pelvis orientation – twist (°)	230 ± 12	228 ± 16	217 ± 10	217 ± 7	165 ± 12*	168 ± 9
lumbopelvic angle (°)	167 ± 5*	166 ± 6	176 ± 5**	172 ± 6	162 ± 6	162 ± 7
lumbopelvic angle – side flexion (°)	179 ± 5*	181 ± 7	$163 \pm 6^{*}$	166 ± 4	174 ± 5**	176 ± 4
lumbopelvic angle – rotation (°)	169 ± 11	171 ± 12	205 ± 10	206 ± 8	$189 \pm 7^{*}$	187 ± 6
thoracolumbar angle(°)	187 ± 9	185 ± 11	183 ± 8	184 ± 9	158 ± 10*	156 ± 11
thoracolumbar angle – side flexion (°)	182 ± 8**	179 ± 3	188 ± 7*	186 ± 7	163 ± 4***	160 ± 3
thoracolumbar angle - rotation (°)	177 ± 5***	182 ± 4	$177 \pm 6^{*}$	178 ± 5	194 ± 4	194 ± 3
lower thoraco-pelvic angle (°)	166 ± 7**	162 ± 9	178 ± 7**	174 ± 8	$140 \pm 9^{*}$	137 ± 7
lower thoraco-pelvic angle – side flexion (°)	179 ± 7*	176 ± 8	163 ± 6	164 ± 5	166 ± 6	165 ± 3
lower thoraco-pelvic angle – rotation (°)	170 ± 9*	173 ± 13	201 ± 6	201 ± 5	195 ± 6	195 ± 6

Bold italic text denotes significant difference between injured and non-injured bowlers using an alpha value of 0.05. \*\*\* large effect size (d  $\ge$  0.80, r  $\ge$  0.50), \*\* medium effect size (d  $\ge$  0.50, r  $\ge$  0.30), \* small effect size (d  $\ge$  0.20, r  $\ge$  0.10).

Two significant differences with medium effect sizes (d > 0.5, r > 0.3) were found in the parameters calculated in the transitions between BFC and BR (Table 3). The injured bowlers

- had on average less extension of their front hip and more ipsilateral pelvic drop. No significant
- 249 differences were found in the kinetic parameters (Table 4).

# **Table 3: Group means and standard deviations for selected parameters between BFC and**

251 BR of the fast bowling action for bowlers with and without a history of LBSI

	Flexi	on/tilt	side flexion/drop		rotatio	n/twist
parameters	LBSI	non-LBSI	LBSI	non-LBSI	LBSI	non-LBSI
minimum front knee angle (°)	154 ± 16	156 ± 15				
maximum front knee angle (°)	$179 \pm 9^{*}$	182 ± 9				
front knee flexion (°)	14 ± 2	$14 \pm 4$				
shoulder counter rotation (°)					43 ± 14	40 ± 20
minimum front hip angle (°)	109 ± 9**	113 ± 6				
maximum front hip angle (°)	131 ± 9**	137 ± 6				
minimum pelvis orientation (°)	150 ± 8**	154 ± 7	165 ± 6**	168 ± 7	164 ± 12*	166 ± 8
maximum pelvis orientation (°)	$191 \pm 7^{*}$	194 ± 5	195 ± 8**	190 ± 6	247 ± 15*	243 ± 14
minimum lumbopelvic angle (°)	161 ± 5	161 ± 6	$161 \pm 6^{**}$	164 ± 5	$165 \pm 10^{*}$	168 ± 12
maximum lumbopelvic angle (°)	179 ± 4**	175 ± 6	182 ± 5	182 ± 7	207 ± 10	207 ± 8
minimum thoracolumbar angle (°)	158 ± 10	156 ± 11	159 ± 5**	155 ± 6	173 ± 5*	175 ± 5
maximum thoracolumbar angle(°)	192 ± 8	190 ± 10	190 ± 7*	189 ± 6	203 ± 6	203 ± 7
minimum lower thoraco-pelvic angle (°)	139 ± 9*	136 ± 7	146 ± 7*	149 ± 6	$166 \pm 9^{*}$	171 ± 12
maximum lower thoraco-pelvic angle (°)	181 ± 7**	177 ± 7	178 ± 7**	181 ± 6	208 ± 7*	206 ± 7

Bold italic text denotes significant difference between injured and non-injured bowlers using an alpha value of 0.05. \*\*\* large effect size ( $d \ge 0.80$ ,  $r \ge 0.50$ ), \*\* medium effect size ( $d \ge 0.50$ ,  $r \ge 0.30$ ), \* small effect size ( $d \ge 0.20$ ,  $r \ge 0.10$ ).

252

253 The ten significant parameters were put forward as potential candidate variables for input 254 into the binary logistic regression model. Following a bivariate correlation analysis, pelvis tilt orientation at FFC and maximum front hip angle were removed as candidate variables due to 255 256 their collinearity with front hip angle at FFC (r > 0.7, p < 0.01). Similarly, thoracolumbar side flexion at BFC was removed as a candidate variable due to its collinearity with thoracolumbar 257 258 rotation at BFC (r > 0.7, p < 0.01). All other significant correlations between candidate 259 variables were below the 0.70 threshold and used to determine the best logistic regression 260 model (Table 5).

# Table 4: Kinetic parameters derived from the ground reaction force of the front foot of the fast bowling action for bowlers with and without a history of LBSI

	(k	N)	(BW)		
parameters	LBSI	non-LBSI	LBSI	non-LBSI	
peak horizontal force	-3.4 ± 0.9	-3.6 ± 0.8	$-4.2 \pm 1.1^{*}$	-4.4 ± 0.9	
peak vertical force	5.6 ± 1.3	5.5 ± 0.8	$6.9 \pm 1.6$	6.8 ± 1.0	
average horizontal loading rate	-136 ± 79*	-120 ± 40	$-166 \pm 96^{*}$	-148 ± 49	
average vertical loading rate	291 ± 209*	216 ± 139	357 ± 258*	272 ± 186	
horizontal impulse	$-0.11 \pm 0.03^{*}$	-0.12 ± 0.03	$-0.14 \pm 0.03^{*}$	-0.15 ± 0.03	
vertical impulse	0.14 ± 0.03	$0.15 \pm 0.04$	$0.18 \pm 0.03$	$0.18 \pm 0.04$	

\*\*\* large effect size (d  $\ge$  0.80, r  $\ge$  0.50), \*\* medium effect size (d  $\ge$  0.50, r  $\ge$  0.30), \* small effect size ( d  $\ge$  0.20, r  $\ge$  0.10).

263

The best logistic model included both the rear hip angle at BFC and the lumbopelvic angle at 264 FFC, correctly classifying 88% of the fast bowlers in the appropriate injured or non-injured 265 groups (Table 5). The inclusion of more than two parameters did not significantly improve the 266 267 predictive ability of the regression model. The odds of a bowler sustaining a LBSI was negatively related to their rear hip angle at BFC, and positively related to their lumbopelvic 268 269 angle at FFC. For each 1° increment in the rear hip angle at BFC, the odds of having a LBSI was a factor of 0.88 lower, while a 1° increment in the lumbopelvic angle at FFC increased the 270 271 odds of a LBSI by 1.25 (Table 5).

272 The best logistic model was also explored to see how the two predictive variables influenced the odds of developing a prospective LBSI relative to the non-injured group. Using low risk 273 values from a bowler within the study (rear hip angle at BFC = 170°; lumbopelvic angle at FFC 274 275 = 170°) the odds ratio of a prospective LBSI was 0.1 (95% CI: 0.01 – 0.99, Figure 1a) compared 276 to an odds ratio of 1.0 when using the mean of the non-injured group (rear hip angle at BFC = 156°; lumbopelvic angle at FFC = 172°, Figure 1b). Setting the rear hip angle at BFC to the 277 278 mean of the injured bowlers (146°) and the lumbopelvic angle at FFC to the mean non-injured 279 bowlers (172°) increased the odds of a prospective LBSI to 4.8 (95% CI: 1.6 – 14.0, Figure 1c).

Setting the rear hip angle to a high risk value demonstrated by a bowler in this study (123°) 280 281 while maintaining the lumbo-pelvic angle at the mean of the non-injured bowlers (172°) increased the odds of a prospective LBSI to 88.9 (95% CI: 4.3 - 1854.2, Figure 1d). When 282 inputting the mean injured lumbopelvic angle (176°) and the mean rear hip angle at BFC (146°) 283 284 the odds ratio more than doubled from 4.8 to 11.5 (95% CI: 3.0 – 43.4) compared to when the non-injured mean lumbopelvic angle was used. Finally, when the lumbopelvic angle at FFC 285 286 was set to a high risk value demonstrated by a bowler in this study (180°) while adopting a 287 high risk rear hip angle at BFC (123°) the odds of sustaining a prospective LBSI increased to an odds ratio of 484.0 (95% CI: 23.1 – 10159.0). 288

# Table 5: Binary logistic regression models of 50 fast bowlers' LBSI injury history for biomechanical predictor variables

mode I	predictor	β (SE)	Wald's X²	р	e <sup>β</sup> (odds ratio)	e <sup>β</sup> 95% C.I	Overall % correct
1	rear hip angle at BFC	-0.11 (0.04)	6.62	0.01	0.90	0.83 - 0.98	76
	constant	17.5 (6.4)	7.43				
Cox & Snell r² = 0.16; Nagelkerke r² = 0.24; Hosmer & Lemeshow: χ²(8) = 14.8, p = 0.06; Model χ²(1) = 8.6, p < 0.01							
2	rear hip angle at BFC	-0.13 (0.05)	6.64	0.01	0.88	0.80 – 0.97	88
	lumbopelvic angle at FFC	0.23 (0.10)	5.40	0.02	1.25	1.04 - 1.52	
	constant	-18.7 (16.1)	1.35				
Cox & Snell r² = 0.27; Nagelkerke r² = 0.41; Hosmer & Lemeshow: χ²(8) = 12.2, p = 0.14; Model χ²(2) = 15.5, p < 0.01							

291

## 292 DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to investigate the technique characteristics that distinguished between elite cricket fast bowlers with and without a history of LBSI. The results are the first to demonstrate significant differences in technique between fast bowlers who have and have not experienced a prospective LBSI. Bowlers with high amounts of rear hip flexion at BFC and 297 lumbopelvic extension at FFC have a substantially increased likelihood of developing a LBSI

298 (Table 5).



#### 299

Figure 1: Odds ratios of experiencing LBSI for representative rear hip angles at back foot contact (lumbopelvic angle at FFC): a) 170° (170°), b) 156° (172°), c) 146° (172°) and d) 123° (172°) viewed perpendicular to the hip joint centre

303 The best single independent predictor of prospective LBSI injury was the angle of the rear hip at BFC which successfully categorised the injury history of 76% of the bowlers in this study 304 305 (Table 5). Previous research has suggested that the role of the rear leg during the transition 306 from BFC to FFC is to maintain the linear momentum developed in the run-up (Felton et al., 2019). The efficiency of this phase is likely to be related to the velocity of the centre of mass 307 308 at BFC, the strength of the bowler and their initial kinematics at BFC. This study indicates that 309 adopting a position with increased flexion of the rear hip and rear knee angles at BFC (Table 2) substantially increases the likelihood of developing a LBSI. Although the cause for adopting 310 311 this injurious position was not identified within this study, previous research has linked poor 312 pelvi-femoral control and single leg stability with LBSI in fast bowlers (Bayne et al., 2016; Olivier et al., 2015). This may indicate that the initial kinematics adopted at BFC are dictated 313 by a requirement to produce joint torgues to stabilise the pelvis and control the momentum 314 from the run-up. Although the adoption of a technique with rear hip and knee joint angles 315

closer to the mid-range of the joint may allow for greater extensor torques to be produced (Thorstensson et al., 1976), it may still be insufficient to stabilise the pelvis and control the momentum from the run-up. Future research should focus on understanding the cause and effect of factors, such as centre of mass velocity and rear leg strength, on the initial kinematics at BFC to inform coaching practice.

321 The next-best independent predictor, when included with the rear hip angle at BFC, of prospective LBSI injury was the lumbopelvic angle at FFC which successfully categorised the 322 323 injury history of 88% of the bowlers in this study when considered alongside the rear hip angle 324 at BFC (Table 5). Despite a high incidence of LBSI in other sports with repetitive lumbar flexion 325 and extension (Tawfik et al., 2020), previous research investigating the aetiology of LBSI in 326 fast bowlers have not explored the flexion-extension kinematics of the lower back, although 327 a significantly greater peak lumbopelvic flexion-extension moment has been observed in fast bowlers who prospectively sustained a lower back injury compared to their uninjured 328 counterparts (Bayne et al., 2016). The current study suggests that bowlers who exhibit more 329 330 lumbopelvic extension at FFC have a greater likelihood of developing a LBSI, which may be as 331 a result of the greater lumbopelvic moment previously observed (Table 5). It is important to 332 consider this finding within the wider context of the lumbo-pelvi-femoral complex at FFC. At FFC, bowlers who suffered a prospective LBSI also had significantly more anterior pelvic tilt 333 and significantly smaller front hip angles compared to the non-injured group (Table 2). They 334 335 also exhibited greater ipsilateral pelvic drop between BFC and BR (Table 3). These differences 336 suggest that the injured bowlers were less successful in stabilising their pelvis during the 337 transition from BFC to FFC, which may be indicative of poor pelvi-femoral control (Bayne et 338 al., 2016). It is proposed that bowlers with more anteriorly tilted pelvis orientations at FFC

compensate by extending at the lumbopelvic junction. This allows the upper spinal column to
be positioned optimally to maximise trunk flexion from FFC to BR, a characteristic previously
linked with increased ball release speeds (Worthington et al., 2013). Alternatively, it is
possible that extension of the lumbopelvic angle could be as a consequence of impaired
lumbo-pelvic control (Bayne et al., 2016).

344 These two predictor variables in the logistic regression provide an indication of the likelihood 345 of a LBSI when multiple risk factors are present. The more flexed rear hip angles at BFC 346 employed by the injured bowlers more than quadrupled the odds of a prospective LBSI being sustained. When the rear hip angles were utilised in combination with greater extension of 347 348 the lumbopelvic junction odds of a prospective LBSI increased by a factor greater than 11. Although LBSI's are multifactorial in nature (Warden et al., 2006), this provides evidence that 349 350 technique independently increases the odds of sustaining a prospective LBSI. Mixed bowling actions have previously been widely considered as the cause of LBSI (Elliott et al., 1992; Foster 351 et al., 1989; Portus et al., 2004), despite the two-dimensional nature and disparity in 352 353 identifying the instant of BFC leading to contradictory findings (Senington et al., 2018). This 354 study found no link between shoulder-counter rotation, pelvis-shoulder separation at BFC or 355 the shoulder twist orientation at BFC, and LBSI (Tables 2 and 3). Significant differences were found however at BFC in the thoracolumbar side flexion and rotation angles (Table 2), where 356 thoracolumbar rotation may contribute to thoraco-pelvic rotation (the three-dimensional 357 358 equivalent of the pelvis-shoulder separation angle). Bowlers who experienced prospective 359 LBSI were ipsilaterally side flexed and contralaterally rotated at BFC compared to their non-360 injured counterparts who were contralaterally side flexed and ipsilaterally rotated (Table 2).

361 No comparison or similarities however can be drawn between these findings and the 362 definition of a mixed action.

Excessive lateral trunk side flexion during the transition from FFC to BR has also been linked 363 364 with LBSI (Bayne et al., 2016; Ranson et al., 2008). Contralateral trunk side flexion occurs 365 during cricket bowling to increase the height of the hand at ball release. The findings of this 366 study suggest bowlers with LBSI adopt different lumbopelvic and thoracolumbar side flexion 367 kinematics to achieve similar amounts of spinal contralateral side flexion (Tables 2 and 3). 368 Bowlers who develop LBSI were found to have less contralateral thoracolumbar side flexion compared to the non-injured bowlers at BR (Table 2). While this contradicts previous findings, 369 370 to have similar levels of thoraco-pelvic contralateral side flexion at BR the injured bowlers theoretically must exhibit greater amounts of contralateral lumbopelvic side flexion 371 372 compared to their non-injured counterparts. Although the differences in the lumbopelvic side flexion angle at BR were not significant at the 0.05 alpha level (p = 0.09), a medium effect size 373 (d = 0.57) was observed indicating that this difference could be important. This study provides 374 375 evidence that bowlers with LBSI have a greater contribution to trunk side flexion at the 376 lumbopelvic junction rather than the thoracolumbar junction (Table 2). The cause of this 377 increased contralateral side flexion at the lumbopelvic joint in the bowlers who experience LBSI is unknown. While it may be as a direct consequence of the increased rear hip flexion 378 at BFC which has been associated with increased frontal plane movement of the lumbar spine 379 380 in single leg landing tasks (Popovich and Kulig, 2012), it may also be linked to the musculature 381 surrounding the lumbar spine being unable to resist contralateral lumbopelvic side flexion 382 (Campbell et al., 2016). Future research should focus on identifying the causes which results 383 in an increase in contralateral side flexion at the lumbopelvic junction. In particular, a

theoretical approach could be adopted to understand how lumbopelvic and pelvi-femoralcontrol affects the muscular loading on the lumbopelvic region.

Kinetic parameters and their kinematic predictors have also been proposed as potential 386 387 factors in LBSI in fast bowlers. Ranson et al. (Ranson et al., 2008) has previously suggested 388 that the extreme contralateral side flexion of the lower thoracic spine (T10 to L1) relative to 389 the pelvis in combination with large ground reaction forces, is the most significant stressor of 390 the contralateral side lumbar neural arch. The results of this study show no difference in the 391 ground reaction force parameters, both in overall magnitude or normalised to bodyweight, between bowlers with and without prospective LBSI. This indicates that the large ground 392 393 reaction forces experienced in fast bowling may not independently contribute to LBSI but may contribute in combination with lumbar kinematics which are known to increase stress on the 394 395 neural arch of lumbar vertebra (Chosa et al., 2004).

The pars interarticularis have been reported to be under the greatest stress when 396 compression is combined with lumbar extension, lumbar side-flexion and lumbar rotation 397 398 (Chosa et al., 2004). Further, extension of the lumbar spine has been estimated to increase 399 stresses upon the distal-ventral region of the pars interarticularis, where LBSI's originate (Terai et al., 2010). The injured bowlers in this study have greater lumbopelvic extension at 400 401 FFC and greater contralateral lumbopelvic side-flexion at BR providing a pathomechanical basis for the unique unilateral presentation of LBSI in elite fast bowlers. These findings agree 402 with research in other sports with high incidences of LBSI (Tawfik et al., 2020) where extension 403 404 of the lumbar spine in combination with lumbar rotation is suggested to be a mechanism of LBSI. The current results suggest that the combination of lumbopelvic extension and 405 contralateral side flexion contribute to bone strains within the contralateral neural arch of 406

the lower lumbar spine. It is likely that these are above the microdamage thresholds of the 407 bone, accelerating accumulation and propagation (Frost, 2003), reducing the number of 408 409 cycles which an individual can tolerate before sustaining a LBSI. While this research confirms 410 Ranson et al.'s (2008) belief that the pathomechanics of LBSI are not related to action 411 classification, they concluded that the likely mechanical aetiology is the motion of the lower 412 thorax relative to the pelvis. The findings of this study highlight however that it is the motion 413 at the lumbopelvic junction, which is adjacent to the site of typical LBSI (Alway et al., 2019), 414 that is the likely mechanical aetiology. Future biomechanical analysis on fast bowlers should 415 focus on the lumbopelvic junction when considering LBSI risk.

416 While the aim of this study was not to identify the factors which are linked to the injurious 417 lumbopelvic motion exhibited by fast bowlers with LBSI, the results highlight lumbopelvic and 418 pelvi-femoral control as a potential cause. The position adopted by the injured bowlers in this study at BFC with more flexed hip and knee angles, has previously been discussed as a 419 potential mechanism to produce adequate torque to stabilise the pelvis and redirect the 420 421 centre of mass during the transition from BFC to FFC. Bowlers who adopt this injurious rear 422 leg technique to maximise torque production either do so due to athlete-specific strength 423 constraints e.g. a developing young fast bowler, or task-specific strength requirements e.g. to 424 redirect a poorly aligned centre of mass velocity at BFC. The significant differences in the thoracolumbar angles at BFC, where the injured bowlers were in ipsilateral side flexion and 425 426 contralateral rotation compared to the non-injured bowlers who were in contralateral flexion 427 and ipsilateral rotation, could also be explained by a poorly aligned centre of mass velocity. 428 While previous research has shown faster run-ups are known to correlate with increased ball 429 release velocity (Worthington et al., 2013), an optimum run-up speed must exist for each

430 bowler beyond which technique begins to fail. The observed kinematics in this study, which identifies bowlers with LBSI with a potential inability to stabilise their lumbo-pelvi-femoral 431 complex, could also result from a run-up which is potentially mis-aligned or beyond its 432 433 optimum, requiring torque production in excess of the bowler's current capabilities to 434 stabilise the lumbo-pelvi-femoral complex. In the future, research is required to understand the cause and effect relationships of centre of mass velocity on the kinematics and kinetics of 435 436 the transition from BFC to FFC and LBSI to develop coach education and reduce LBSI 437 occurrence in fast bowlers.

A major strength of this research is the large number of elite fast bowlers, as well as the 438 prospective injury history and radiological screening of all players involved. However, whilst 439 440 both samples represent the groups from which they have been recruited, the population size 441 of elite fast bowlers with a history of LBSI is much larger compared to non-injured bowlers. This led to the difference in sample sizes in this study which could potentially skew the 442 technique associated with LBSI and result in a sample size bias (Chu et al., 2009). Further 443 444 limitations include adopting a discrete rather than a continuous approach to analysing the 445 data, which investigates key time points rather than the whole movement pattern, and the 446 use of absolute angles rather than relative angles normalised to the participants range of motion, which may elicit further information on the aetiology of LBSI in fast bowlers. Finally, 447 multiple comparisons between groups were made without an adjustment to the alpha level 448 449 since it increases the incidence of Type 2 errors (Sinclair et al., 2013). These comparisons should be considered cautiously as an increased risk of Type 1 errors occurring remains, but 450 451 findings of the main logistic regression analysis are not compromised by multiple testing

452

#### 453 **CONCLUSION**

454 This study is the first to demonstrate significant differences in technique between fast bowlers who have and have not experienced a prospective LBSI. Lumbopelvic extension at 455 FFC and contralateral side flexion at BR were significantly greater in bowlers who 456 prospectively sustained LBSI. The rear hip angle at BFC was observed to be the best predictor 457 458 of LBSI in this study, potentially identifying task-specific or athlete-specific strength constraints, which may indicate poor lumbo-pelvi-femoral complex control as the cause. The 459 results of this research are likely to be useful in aiding identification of fast bowlers at risk of 460 LBSI, as well as enhancing coaching and rehabilitation of fast bowlers from LBSI. Coach 461 education should incorporate these findings and move away from using far removed 462 463 derivatives to inform practice which are not consistent with predicting LBSI injury. Future 464 research should attempt to understand the cause and effect of strength constraints on the predictors of LBSI and develop an understanding of the muscular forces acting on the lumbo-465 466 pelvi-femoral complex during fast bowling.

#### 467 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors acknowledge the support of Loughborough University and England and Wales Cricket Board. The authors report no conflicts of interest. The results of this study do not constitute endorsement by the American College of Sports Medicine. The authors declare that the results of this study are presented clearly, honestly and without fabrication, falsification or inappropriate data manipulation

473

474

475

## 476 **REFERENCES**

- Alway, P., Brooke-Wavell, K., Langley, B., King, M., Peirce, N., 2019. Incidence and
  prevalence of lumbar stress fracture in English County Cricket fast bowlers, association
  with bowling workload and seasonal variation. BMJ Open Sport Exerc. Med. 5.
  https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjsem-2019-000529
- Bayne, H., Elliott, B., Campbell, A., Alderson, J., 2016. Lumbar load in adolescent fast
  bowlers: A prospective injury study. J. Sci. Med. Sport 19, 117–122.
- 483 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsams.2015.02.011
- Bennell, K., Matheson, G., Meeuwisse, W., Brukner, P., 1999. Risk Factors for Stress
   Fractures. Sport. Med. 28, 91–122. https://doi.org/10.2165/00007256-199928020 00004
- Bennell, K.L., Malcolm, S.A., Thomas, S. a, Reid, S.J., Brukner, P.D., Ebeling, P.R., Wark, J.D.,
  1996. Risk factors for stress fractures in track and field athletes. A twelve-month
  prospective study. Am. J. Sports Med. 24, 810–818.
- 490 https://doi.org/10.1177/036354659602400617
- Bogduk, N., 1997. Clinical Anatomy of the Lumbar Spine and Sacrum, 3rd ed. Churchill
  Livingstone, New York.
- Campbell, A., Kemp-Smith, K., O'Sullivan, P., Straker, L., 2016. Abdominal bracing increases
  ground reaction forces and reduces knee and hip flexion during landing. J. Orthop.
  Sports Phys. Ther. 46, 286–292. https://doi.org/10.2519/jospt.2016.5774
- Chosa, E., Totoribe, K., Tajima, N., 2004. A biomechanical study of lumbar spondylolysis
  based on a three-dimensional finite element method. J. Orthop. Res. 22, 158–163.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/S0736-0266(03)00160-8
- Chu, Y., Fleisig, G.S., Simpson, K.J., Andrews, J.R., 2009. Biomechanical comparison between
  elite female and male baseball pitchers. J. Appl. Biomech. 25, 22–31.
  https://doi.org/10.1123/jab.25.1.22
- 502 Cohen, J., 1988. Statistical Power Analysis for the Behvaioral Sciences, 2nd ed. Routledge,503 London.
- Davis, R.B., Ounpuu, S., Tyburski, D., Gage, J.R., 1991. A gait analysis data collection and
  reduction technique. Hum. Mov. Sci. 10, 575–587. https://doi.org/10.1016/01679457(91)90046-Z
- Elliott, B.C., Hardcastle, P.H., Burnett, A.E., Foster, D.H., 1992. The influence of fast bowling
  and physical factors on radiologic features in high performance young fast bowlers.
  Sport. Med. Train. Rehabil. 3, 113–130. https://doi.org/10.1080/15438629209517008

- 510 Felton, P.J., Lister, S.L., Worthington, P.J., King, M.A., 2019. Comparison of biomechanical
- characteristics between male and female elite fast bowlers. J. Sports Sci. 37, 665–670.
  https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2018.1522700
- 513 Field, A., 2009. Discovering statistics using SPSS, 3rd ed. SAGE Publications, London.
- 514 Foster, D., John, D., Elliott, B., Ackland, T., Fitch, K., 1989. Back injuries to fast bowlers in
- 515 cricket: a prospective study. Br. J. Sports Med. 23, 150–154.
- 516 https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsm.23.3.150
- 517 Frost, H.M., 2003. Bone's mechanostat: A 2003 update. Anat. Rec. Part a 275A, 1081–1101.
  518 https://doi.org/10.1002/ar.a.10119
- Hurrion, P.D., Dyson, R., Hale, T., 2000. Simultaneous measurement of back and front foot
  ground reaction forces during the same delivery stride of the fast-medium bowler. J.
  Sports Sci. 18, 993–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/026404100446793
- Kountouris, A., Sims, K., Beakley, D., Saw, A.E., Orchard, J., Rotstein, A., Cook, J.L., 2018. MRI
  bone marrow oedema precedes lumbar bone stress injury diagnosis in junior elite
  cricket fast bowlers. Br. J. Sports Med. 1236–1239. https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsports2017-097930
- 526 Marylebone Cricket Club (MCC), 2013. The Laws Of Cricket.
- Olivier, B., Stewart, A. V., Olorunju, S.A.S., McKinon, W., 2015. Static and dynamic balance
   ability, lumbo-pelvic movement control and injury incidence in cricket pace bowlers. J.
   Sci. Med. Sport 18, 19–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsams.2013.10.245
- Orchard, J., Blanch, P., Paoloni, J., Kountouris, A., Sims, K., Brukner, P., 2015. Cricket fast
  bowling workload patterns as risk factors for tendon, muscle, bone and joint injuries.
  Br. J. Sports Med. 49, 1064–8. https://doi.org/10.1136/bjsports-2014-093683
- Orchard, J., Kountouris, A., Sims, K., 2016. Incidence and prevalence of elite male cricket
  injuries using updated consensus definitions. Open access J. Sport. Med. 7, 187–194.
  https://doi.org/10.2147/OAJSM.S117497
- Popovich, J.M., Kulig, K., 2012. Lumbopelvic landing kinematics and EMG in women with
  contrasting hip strength. Med. Sci. Sports Exerc. 44, 146–153.
  https://doi.org/10.1240/MSS.0b012o2182267425
- 538 https://doi.org/10.1249/MSS.0b013e3182267435
- Portus, M.R., Mason, B.R., Elliott, B.C., Pfitzner, M.C., Done, R.P., 2004. Technique factors
  related to ball release speed and trunk injuries in high performance cricket fast
  bowlers. Sport. Biomech. 3, 263–284. https://doi.org/10.1080/14763140408522845
- Ranson, C.A., Burnett, A.F., Kerslake, R.W., 2010. Injuries to the lower back in elite fast
  bowlers: acute stress changes on MRI predict stress fracture. J. Bone Joint Surg. Br. 92,

- 544 1664–8. https://doi.org/10.1302/0301-620X.92B12.24913
- Ranson, C.A., Burnett, A.F., King, M., Patel, N., O'Sullivan, P.B., 2008. The relationship
   between bowling action classification and three-dimensional lower trunk motion in fast
- 547 bowlers in cricket. J. Sports Sci. 26, 267–276.
- 548 https://doi.org/10.1080/02640410701501671
- 549 Rossi, F., Dragoni, S., 2001. The prevalence of spondylolysis and spondylolisthesis in
- 550 symptomatic elite athletes: Radiographic findings. Radiography 7, 37–42.
- 551 https://doi.org/10.1053/radi.2000.0299
- Senington, B., Lee, R.Y., Williams, J.M., 2018. Are shoulder counter rotation and hip shoulder
   separation angle representative metrics of three-dimensional spinal kinematics in
   cricket fast bowling? J. Sports Sci. 36, 1763–1767.
- 555 https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2017.1416734
- Sinclair, Taylor, Hobbs, S.J., 2013. Alpha Level Adjustments for Multiple Dependent Variable
   Analyses and Their Applicability A Review. Int. J. Sport. Sci. Eng. 07, 17–20.
- Soler, T., Calderón, C., 2000. The prevalence of spondylolysis in the Spanish elite athlete.
  Am. J. Sports Med. 28, 57–62. https://doi.org/03635465
- Tawfik, S., Phan, K., Mobbs, R.J., Rao, P.J., 2020. The Incidence of Pars Interarticularis
  Defects in Athletes. Glob. Spine J. 10, 89–101.
- 562 https://doi.org/10.1177/2192568218823695
- Terai, T., Sairyo, K., Goel, V.K., Ebraheim, N., Biyani, a, Faizan, a, Sakai, T., Yasui, N., 2010.
   Spondylolysis originates in the ventral aspect of the pars interarticularis: a clinical and
- biomechanical study. J. Bone Joint Surg. Br. 92, 1123–1127.
- 566 https://doi.org/10.1302/0301-620X.92B8.22883
- Thorstensson, A., Grimby, G., Karlsson, J., 1976. Force-velocity relations and fiber
   composition in human knee extensor muscles. J. Appl. Physiol. 40, 12–16.
- 569 Warden, S.J., Burr, D.B., Brukner, P.D., 2006. Stress fractures: Pathophysiology,
- 570 epidemiology, and risk factors. Curr. Osteoporos. Rep. 4, 103–109.
- 571 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11914-996-0029-y
- 572 Winter, D., 1990. Biomechanics and motor control of human movement, 1st Editio. ed. John573 Wiley & Sons.
- Worthington, P., King, M., Ranson, C., 2013. The influence of cricket fast bowlers' front leg
  technique on peak ground reaction forces. J. Sports Sci. 31, 434–441.
- 576 https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2012.736628
- 577 Worthington, P.J., King, M.A., Ranson, C.A., 2013. Relationships between fast bowling

- technique and ball release speed in cricket. J. Appl. Biomech. 29, 78–84.
- Yeadon, M.R., 1990. the Simulation of Aerial Movement 2. a Mathematical Inertia Model of
  the Human Body. J. Biomech. 23, 67–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/0021-9290(90)90370i
- 582 Zhang, Y., Ma, Y., Liu, G., 2016. Lumbar spinal loading during bowling in cricket: a kinetic
- 583 analysis using a musculoskeletal modelling approach. J. Sports Sci. 34, 1030–1035.
- 584 https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2015.1086014