

1 Title: The effects of opposition on knee kinematics and ground reaction force during
2 landing from volleyball block jumps.

3

4 **Abstract**

5 The aim of the study was to examine the effect of opposition on knee kinematics and ground
6 reaction force during landing from a volleyball block jump. Six female and six male
7 university volleyball players performed two landing tasks 1) an unopposed and 2) an opposed
8 volleyball block jump and landing. Knee kinematics were recorded by a 12 camera motion
9 analysis system (120 Hz) and ground reaction force was recorded by a force platform (600
10 Hz) during landing. The results showed a significant effect for level of opposition in peak
11 normalized GRF, knee flexion at ground contact, maximum knee flexion and range of motion
12 of knee flexion. There was a significant effect for gender in maximum knee flexion, range of
13 motion of knee flexion, maximum knee valgus angle and range of motion of knee valgus. The
14 changes in landing biomechanics as a result of opposition suggest future research
15 investigating landing mechanics should examine opposed exercises since opposition may
16 significantly alter neuromuscular responses.

17

18 **Key words:** Biomechanics, gender differences, ACL injury.

19

20 **Introduction.**

21 Research suggests that approximately 70% of anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries occur
22 in sporting activities (Faegin, 1988; Johnson, 1988; Smith, Livesay, & Woo, 1988). Studies
23 examining the etiology of ACL injuries report that between 70% and 90% of injuries occur in
24 non-contact situations (Griffin et al., 2000; McNair, Marshall, & Matheston, 1993;
25 Mykelbust, Maehlum, Engbretsen, Strand, & Solheim, 1997). Furthermore, ACL injuries
26 have been reported to occur most frequently during movements such as landing (Hopper &
27 Elliot, 1993), decelerating (Miller, Cooper, & Warner, 1995) or rapidly changing direction
28 (Olsen, Mykelbust, Engebretsen, & Bahr, 2004). The incidence of ACL injuries is therefore
29 high in sports such as basketball, netball, handball and volleyball which involve a high
30 frequency of landing, decelerating and rapid changes of direction (Arendt & Dick, 1995;
31 Griffin et al., 2000). The incidence of non-contact ACL injuries have been reported to be 6 to
32 8 times greater in females than in males competing in the same sports (Arendt & Dick, 1995;
33 Chandy & Grana, 1985; Ferretti, Papandrea, Conteduca, & Mariani, 1992; Gray et al., 1985;
34 Gwinn, Wilckens, McDevitt, Ross, & Kao, 2000; Lidenfeld, Schmitt, Hendy, Mangine, &
35 Noyes, 1994; Malone, Hardaker, Garrett, Feagin, & Bassett, 1993).

36

37 Since ACL injuries have been associated with landing, decelerating and rapidly changing
38 direction, a number of studies which have investigated gender differences the biomechanics
39 associated with these maneuvers (Decker, Torry, Wyland, Sterett, & Steadman, 2003; Ford,
40 Myer, & Hewett, 2003; James, Sizer, Starch, Lockhart, & Slauterbeck, 2004; Kernozek,
41 Torry, Van Hoof, Cowley, & Tanner, 2005; Malinzak, Colby, Kirkendall, Yu, & Garrett,
42 2001; Yu, Lin, & Garrett, 2006). Studies examining sagittal plane kinematics of landing and
43 cutting maneuvers report that females tend to land with less knee flexion angle than males
44 (Decker et al., 2003; James et al., 2004; Malinzak et al., 2001; Yu et al., 2006) and exhibit a

45 greater range of knee flexion than males (Decker et al., 2003). For a given load on the patellar
46 ligament, the more extended the knee, the greater the strain on the ACL is likely to be due to
47 the effect of knee flexion on the patella tendon-tibia shaft angle (Li et al., 1999; Nunley,
48 Wright, Renner, Yu, & Garrett, 2003). A number of observational studies including Boden et
49 al. (2000) and Olsen et al. (2004) have reported that non-contact ACL injuries most
50 frequently occur immediately following initial ground contact with the knee close to full
51 extension. Consequently, since females tend to make contact with the ground with knees in a
52 more extended position than males, the risk of ACL injury may be greater in females relative
53 to males. Studies investigating frontal plane kinematics of landing and cutting report that
54 females tend to exhibit greater maximum knee valgus angle and greater knee valgus angle
55 range of motion compared to males (Ford et al., 2003; Kernozek et al., 2005; Malinzak et al.,
56 2001). Boden et al. (2000) and Olsen et al. (2004) have reported that non-contact ACL
57 injuries appear to occur more frequently when the knee exhibits a valgus movement.
58 Consequently, greater maximum knee valgus angle in females may increase the risk of ACL
59 injury relative to males. Studies examining ground reaction force (GRF) during landing
60 indicate that females tend to exhibit greater normalized peak GRF (Kernozek et al., 2005;
61 Salci, Kentel, Heycan, Akin, & Korkusus, 2004; Yu et al., 2006) than males. The greater the
62 GRF exhibited during landing, the greater the likely load on the passive support structures of
63 the knee.

64

65 The demands of the tasks that subjects are required to perform will influence the movement
66 patterns exhibited and therefore influence the validity of comparisons made between males
67 and females. Previous studies examining landing biomechanics in males and females
68 typically use a task involving dropping down from a raised platform set at the same height for
69 both males and females (Decker et al., 2003; Ford et al., 2003; Salci et al., 2004). This may

70 result in significantly different task demands for females compared to males (females are less
71 likely to jump as high as males), particularly in sports such as volleyball where the net is set
72 at a different height for males and females (2.48 m for males and 2.29 m for females).
73 Therefore, a lack of standardization in the task subjects are required to perform in previous
74 studies may have reduced the likelihood of meaningful comparison between males and
75 females. Previous studies have found changes in technique as a result of opposition (Davila,
76 Garcia, Montilla, & Ruiz, 2006). For example, Davila et al. (2006) found significant changes
77 in technique were made by a handball players when shooting during unopposed and opposed
78 conditions. It is reasonable to assume that the attentional demand of jumping and landing in
79 an opposed context will be less than that in an unopposed context (Chen et al., 1996; Lajoie,
80 Teasdale, Bard, & Fleury, 1993) which, in turn, is likely to affect the neuromuscular response
81 when landing. A number of studies have examined gender differences in kinematics and
82 kinetics during landing and cutting maneuvers in unopposed (Decker et al., 2003; Kernozek
83 et al., 2005; Salci et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2006) and opposed (Hughes, Watkins, Owen, &
84 Lewis, 2007) contexts, as well as during game-like situations involving activities such as
85 catching a ball (Cowling & Steele, 2001). However, direct comparison of the results is not
86 possible due to differences in task demands. To our knowledge, no study has examined
87 gender differences in knee kinematics and GRF when performing sport specific landing tasks
88 during both unopposed and opposed conditions. The purpose of the present study was to
89 examine the effect of opposition on knee kinematics and GRF during landing from a
90 volleyball block jump in male and female university volleyball players.

91

92

93

94 **Method.**

95 **Subjects.**

96 The subjects were 7 female (Mean age 21.6 ± 1.4 years, mass 58.6 ± 8.2 kg and height 165.6
97 ± 7.4 cm) and 7 male (Mean age 21.8 ± 4.1 years, mass 71.2 ± 3.0 kg and height 176.7 ± 8.8
98 cm) university volleyball players. All subjects had no previous history of hip, knee or ankle
99 injury and were right leg dominant. Ethical approval was granted for the study by the
100 University Ethics Committee and written consent forms were signed by all subjects prior to
101 data collection.

102

103 **Measurement system.**

104 An AMTI force platform sampling at 600 Hz was used to measure the GRF of the right
105 (dominant) leg during landing. A time synchronised 12 camera Vicon 512 system (Vicon,
106 Oxford, England) sampling at 120 Hz was used to determine 3D coordinates of 16 retro-
107 reflective markers (25 mm diameter). Markers were placed directly on the skin over
108 anatomical landmarks in accordance with the Vicon system's lower body plug-in gait marker
109 set. From the location of the markers placed on the body, combined with required
110 anthropometric measurements of each subject entered into the system, the Vicon system
111 calculated the 3D coordinates of hip, knee and ankle joint centres. The subject
112 anthropometric measurements required were height, weight, leg length, knee width and ankle
113 width. The Vicon system uses the Newington-Gage model to define the positions of the hip
114 joint centres within the pelvis segment (in which pelvis size and leg length are used as scaling
115 factors) in conjunction with the markers placed on the pelvis and leg length measurement to
116 determine the 3D position of hip joint centre (Davis, Ounpuu, Tyburski, & Gage, 1991). The
117 knee joint centre is determined from hip joint centre, knee marker, thigh marker and knee

118 width measurement. The ankle joint centre is determined from the knee joint centre, ankle
119 marker, tibia marker and ankle width measurement. In the plug-in gait system, the
120 measurement of knee flexion angle and valgus/varus angle was determined as the Euler angle
121 of the shank segment reference frame relative to the thigh segment reference plane rotated in
122 the order 1) flexion/extension, 2) valgus/varus, 3) internal/external rotation.

123

124 Tasks.

125 Prior to data collection all subjects performed a 10-min warm up consisting of lower limb
126 stretching and running/jogging on a treadmill at self determined speeds. When this was
127 completed, subjects practiced the jumping and landing tasks until comfortable with the
128 procedure. To carry out the landing task, a rope was fixed horizontally 5 cm in front of the
129 force platform to act as a volleyball net at a height of 2.43 m for male subjects and 2.24 m for
130 female subjects (height of a standard volleyball net). Also, a volleyball was suspended from
131 the ceiling and positioned with the bottom of the ball 5 cm above the net (2.48 m for males
132 and 2.29 m for females) and with the centre of the ball 10 cm in front of the line of the net
133 (the other side of the net to where the subject (blocker) was standing). This was considered to
134 be a typical position from which a volleyball would be spiked from. Subjects were required to
135 perform two landing tasks: unopposed volleyball block jump and landing and opposed
136 volleyball block jump and landing. 1) Unopposed: At the start of each trial, the subject stood
137 with their right foot on the force plate. The subject was then instructed to jump up and
138 pretend to block the suspended volleyball. On landing, the right foot landed on the force
139 plate. 2) Opposed: At the start of each trial, the subject stood with their right foot on the force
140 plate. The subject then timed his/her blocking action in order to try to block the ball as it was
141 spiked. In all trials, the person spiking the volleyball was of a similar playing standard to the

142 blocker. The ball was spiked from the same suspended position in order to eliminate variation
143 in the position and velocity of the ball. On landing, the right foot landed on the force plate.
144 Data were recorded for three successful trials for each landing task for each subject. Trials
145 where the entire right foot alone did not land on the force plate were discarded.

146

147 Data analysis.

148 The 3D coordinate data were filtered using a Woltring Filter. To alter the filter settings a
149 mean squared error (MSE) tolerance value was entered into the Vicon system. The MSE
150 method allows the noise level to be input and a spline function is fitted to the data points in
151 accordance with the specified level of tolerance. Consistent application of this processing
152 method ensured the same level of smoothing for all marker trajectories. Based on a primary
153 consideration of minimising high frequency artefacts whilst maintaining the detail of the
154 signal at all lower frequencies, it was determined that it would be most appropriate to use a
155 MSE value of 50 as a suitable setting for filtering the data. This was determined by analysing
156 the effects of a number of different filter settings for sample data of a number of different
157 jumps and from a number of different subjects. In determining a suitable MSE value, the data
158 were analysed using a Welch periodogram to provide power spectral density (PSD) plots that
159 quantify the magnitude of power in a narrow frequency band. From the PSD plots, the
160 estimated frequency of the start of signal attenuation, 50% of signal attenuation and almost
161 complete signal attenuation could be determined for the MSE value of 50. The filter setting
162 determined to be most appropriate for these data (i.e. MSE = 50) corresponded to a low-pass
163 filter of cut-off frequency 10 Hz and stop-band frequency of 30 Hz.

164

165 The GRF and knee angle in the sagittal (flexion/extension) and frontal (valgus/varus) planes
166 were determined between initial ground contact (IC) and, depending on which occurred later
167 in the trial, either maximum knee flexion or maximum knee valgus/varus angle (MAX) in
168 each trial. Angular displacement mean data (IC, MAX and range of motion (ROM)) were
169 based on 36 trials for males and 36 trials for females (6 subjects \times 3 trials \times 2 legs). GRF data
170 were normalized to body weight (in Newtons) and mean data were based on 18 trials for
171 males (6 subjects \times 3 trials \times 1 leg) and 18 trials for females (6 subjects \times 3 trials \times 1 leg).
172 Mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance (SPANOVA) was carried out on the data
173 to examine the effects of the level of opposition and the effects of gender on angular
174 displacement in the sagittal and frontal planes and normalized GRF, where the alpha level
175 was set at $p < 0.05$.

176

177 **Results.**

178 For all variables, there was no significant interaction between the level of opposition
179 (unopposed/opposed) and gender (females/males) ($p > 0.05$). All Figures show variables
180 plotted against normalized time and against absolute mean trial time between IC and MAX.
181 For the unopposed trials, absolute mean trial time was $0.203 \text{ s} \pm 0.068$ for males and 0.213 s
182 ± 0.061 for females. For the opposed trials, absolute mean trial time was $0.190 \text{ s} \pm 0.040$ for
183 males and $0.194 \text{ s} \pm 0.057$ for females. As there was no significant effect for level of
184 opposition (Wilks Lambda = 0.95, $F = 3.18$, $p = 0.08$, partial eta squared = 0.05) or for
185 gender ($F = 1.16$, $p = 0.29$, partial eta squared = 0.02) for contact time, a mean trial time of
186 0.200 s was used.

187

188 In the sagittal plane, in both males and females during both unopposed and opposed trials,
189 subjects tended to contact the ground with a relatively small knee flexion angle which
190 progressively increased between IC and MAX (Table 1 and Figure 1). In the sagittal plane,
191 there was a significant effect for level of opposition for knee flexion at IC (Wilks Lambada =
192 0.86, $F = 9.68$, $p = 0.003$, partial eta squared = 0.14) with greater knee flexion observed at IC
193 during unopposed trials than opposed trials (Table 1). However, there was no significant
194 effect for gender for knee flexion at IC ($F = 3.65$, $p = 0.06$, partial eta squared = 0.06). There
195 was a significant effect for level of opposition (Wilks Lambada = 0.77, $F = 17.6$, $p = 0.001$,
196 partial eta squared = 0.23) and a significant effect for gender ($F = 13.3$, $p = 0.01$, partial eta
197 squared = 0.19) for sagittal plane knee angle at MAX, with females displaying greater knee
198 flexion at MAX than males and greater knee flexion at MAX observed during unopposed
199 than opposed conditions (Table 1). This resulted in a significant effect for level of opposition
200 (Wilks Lambada = 0.86, $F = 9.61$, $p = 0.003$, partial eta squared = 0.14) and a significant
201 effect for gender ($F = 14.7$, $p = 0.001$, partial eta squared = 0.20) for ROM of knee angle in
202 the sagittal plane, with females displaying greater ROM of knee flexion than males and
203 greater ROM of knee flexion observed during unopposed than opposed conditions (Table 1).

204 _____

205 Table 1 about here.

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208 _____

209 Figure 1 about here.

210 _____

211

212 In the frontal plane, during both unopposed and opposed trials, females tended to contact the
213 ground with the knee in a valgus position (-ve values) which progressively increased
214 between IC and MAX position. In contrast, during both unopposed and opposed trials, males
215 tended to contact the ground with the knee in a valgus position and moved into a varus

216 position (+ve values) at MAX (Table 1 and Figure 2). There was no significant effect for
217 level of opposition (Wilks Lambada = 1.00, $F = 0.001$, $p = 0.97$, partial eta squared = 0.001)
218 and no significant effect for gender ($F = 0.35$, $p = 0.56$, partial eta squared = 0.01) for the
219 knee valgus angle at IC. For MAX knee valgus angle, there was no significant effect for level
220 of opposition (Wilks Lambada = 0.95, $F = 2.80$, $p = 0.10$, partial eta squared = 0.05) but there
221 was a significant effect for gender ($F = 32.3$, $p = 0.001$, partial eta squared = 0.36) with
222 females exhibiting a greater MAX knee valgus angle than males (Table 1). For ROM of knee
223 angle in the frontal plane, there was no significant effect for level of opposition (Wilks
224 Lambada = 0.94, $F = 4.05$, $p = 0.06$, partial eta squared = 0.07) but there was a significant
225 effect for gender ($F = 38.6$, $p = 0.001$, partial eta squared = 0.40) with females displaying a
226 greater ROM of knee valgus angle than males (Table 1).

227 _____
228 Figure 2 about here.
229 _____
230

231 With regard to normalized GRF (Figure 3), the overall shapes of the curves were similar for
232 males and females and for unopposed and opposed trials, i.e. increase during approximately
233 the first 40% of the landing phase followed by decrease during approximately the final 60%
234 of landing. For most of the landing period, the normalized GRF was greater for males than
235 females and greater for opposed trials than unopposed trials. The initial peak in normalized
236 GRF occurred earlier during opposed trials than unopposed trials and the maximum
237 normalized GRF during landing occurred later in opposed trials than unopposed trials. There
238 was no significant effect for level of opposition (Wilks Lambada = 0.93, $F = 2.17$, $p = 0.15$,
239 partial eta squared = 0.07) and no significant effect for gender ($F = 0.07$, $p = 0.79$, partial eta
240 squared = 0.02) for normalized GRF at MAX. For peak normalized GRF, there was a
241 significant effect for level of opposition (Wilks Lambada = 0.93, $F = 4.37$, $p = 0.04$, partial

242 eta squared = 0.07) with greater normalized GRF observed during opposed conditions than
243 unopposed conditions (Table 2). However, there was no significant effect for gender ($F =$
244 1.43, $p = 0.24$, partial eta squared = 0.05) for peak normalized GRF.

245 _____
246 Table 2 about here.

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248

249 _____
250 Figure 3 about here.

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252

253

254 **Discussion.**

255 The results indicate differences in sagittal plane kinematics between males and females and
256 between unopposed and opposed trials. There was a significant effect for level of opposition
257 in knee flexion at IC, with greater knee flexion at IC exhibited during unopposed conditions
258 than opposed conditions. ACL strain is likely to be increased with reduced knee flexion (Li et
259 al., 1999; Nunley et al., 2003), therefore during unopposed trials subjects may increase knee
260 flexion at IC compared to opposed trials to reduce the likelihood of ACL strain. There was a
261 significant effect for both gender and level of opposition for MAX knee flexion and ROM of
262 knee flexion, with greater knee flexion exhibited by females compared to males and greater
263 knee flexion exhibited during unopposed conditions than opposed conditions. The results of
264 the present study indicate values of maximum knee flexion measured during unopposed trials
265 were nearer to values reported by previous studies where subjects performed unopposed
266 landing than those measured during opposed conditions. For example, mean maximum knee
267 flexion of $88.9^{\circ} \pm 11.4$ for males and $78.3^{\circ} \pm 13.4$ for females were reported by Kernozek et
268 al. (2005) compared to $67.2^{\circ} \pm 12.9$ for males and $78.0^{\circ} \pm 8.1$ for females during unopposed
269 trials and $62.1^{\circ} \pm 11.6$ for males and $68.2^{\circ} \pm 12.2$ for females during opposed trials. The

270 greater knee flexion exhibited during unopposed conditions compared to opposed conditions
271 may be due to subjects consciously increasing their knee flexion during unopposed trials in
272 an attempt to reduce the impact of the GRF during landing and therefore reduce the risk of
273 injury. However, during opposed trials, due to the greater attentional demand, subjects were,
274 perhaps, less able to consciously increase the amount of knee flexion during landing. These
275 results indicate that sagittal plane kinematics changed significantly with the introduction of
276 opposition to the landing task and highlight the need for ecologically valid task demands in
277 studies designed to examine differences in the incidence of injuries between males and
278 females in specific sports.

279

280 The results indicate differences in frontal plane kinematics between males and females but
281 not between unopposed and opposed trials. There was no significant effect for the level of
282 opposition or gender in knee valgus at IC. However, there was a significant effect for gender
283 for MAX knee valgus and ROM of knee valgus, with females displaying greater knee valgus
284 angle than males during landing. However, there were no significant effect for level of
285 opposition in knee valgus angle during landing. These results indicate that differences in
286 frontal plane kinematics between males and females during landing were consistent between
287 unopposed and opposed conditions and may indicate increased risk of ACL injury in females
288 compared to males.

289

290 The values of maximum knee valgus angle reported in this study are different to previous
291 results but as with the sagittal plane kinematics, the results of the present study indicate
292 values of maximum knee valgus angle measured during unopposed trials were nearer to
293 values reported by previous studies where subjects performed unopposed landing than those

294 measured during opposed conditions. For example, Ford et al. (2004) reported maximum
295 knee valgus (-ve) / varus (+ve) angle values of $-14.3^{\circ} \pm 2.0$ for males and $-20.1^{\circ} \pm 2.5$ for
296 females, compared to $-2.2^{\circ} \pm 5.3$ for males and $-13.9^{\circ} \pm 11.3$ for females during unopposed
297 trials and $-2.9^{\circ} \pm 7.9$ for males and $-10.4^{\circ} \pm 7.7$ for females during opposed trials in this
298 study. There are a number of possible reasons for these differences which include subjects'
299 age and playing standard and the method of measuring the knee valgus angle. In Ford et al.
300 (2004) the subjects used were high school athletes whereas university athletes were used in
301 this study. The valgus angle measured in Ford et al. (2004) was determined from markers
302 placed on the skin over the greater trochanter, lateral epicondyle of the knee and the lateral
303 malleolus of the ankle, whereas in this study, the valgus angle was based on estimated hip,
304 knee and ankle joint centres using the Vicon plug-in gait model.

305

306 There was a significant effect for level of opposition in peak normalized GRF with greater
307 normalized GRF exhibited during opposed conditions compared to unopposed conditions.
308 This may be due to the greater MAX knee flexion and ROM of knee flexion during
309 unopposed trials than opposed trials. For most of the landing period, the normalized GRF was
310 greater for males than females. This is contrary to a number of previous studies examining
311 gender differences in normalized GRF during landing (Kernozek et al., 2005; Salci et al.,
312 2004; Yu et al., 2006). The difference in the findings of the present study and previous
313 studies is likely to be due to differences in task demands subjects were required to perform.
314 Typically, previous studies have examined drop-jump landings from the same set height for
315 males and females whereas the present study examined a sport specific volleyball block jump
316 landing, where males and females were more likely to land from a jump height typical of
317 what they are likely to perform during their sport. The initial peak in normalized GRF
318 occurred earlier during opposed trials than unopposed trials and the maximum normalized

319 GRF during landing occurred later in opposed trials than unopposed trials. This may be due
320 to subjects being less able to consciously reduce the initial peak in GRF just after ground
321 contact through an increase in knee flexion during opposed conditions compared to
322 unopposed conditions. This may be of particular importance since ACL injury has been
323 reported to occur most frequently when the knee is in a relatively extended position just after
324 initial contact with the ground (Boden et al., 2000; Olsen et al., 2004).

325

326 In conclusion, differences in sagittal plane knee kinematics and GRF during opposed and
327 unopposed trials suggest that coaches should implement training programs that involve
328 ecologically valid landing maneuvers. Future research into landing kinematics and kinetics
329 should include opposition during the landing task as the effect of opposition may
330 significantly alter subjects' neuromuscular responses during landing, particularly in the
331 sagittal plane. Differences in frontal plane kinematics between males and females however,
332 appear to be consistent in unopposed and opposed conditions. Therefore the results of this
333 study may validate the results of many other studies (Ford et al., 2003; Kernozek et al., 2005;
334 Malinzak et al., 2001) which have investigated gender differences in frontal plane knee
335 kinematics during landing in unopposed conditions.

336

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424 **Author notes.**

425 There is no financial interest in the research.

426

427 **Tables.**

428

429 Table 1. Group mean results for knee flexion/extension and valgus/varus (– valgus; + varus)
 430 angles at IC, MAX and ROM for males and females during unopposed and opposed trials
 431 (Mean ± standard deviation).

		Males		Females	
		Unopposed (°)	Opposed (°)	Unopposed (°)	Opposed (°)
Flexion	IC *	20.3 ± 4.7	19.4 ± 6.4	19.5 ± 6.9	15.1 ± 6.2
	MAX *†	67.2 ± 12.9	62.1 ± 11.6	78.0 ± 8.1	68.2 ± 12.2
	ROM *†	46.9 ± 14.9	42.7 ± 13.9	58.6 ± 7.4	53.1 ± 13.1
Val/var	IC	-2.2 ± 5.3	-2.8 ± 5.9	-2.1 ± 3.4	-1.6 ± 2.8
	MAX _{VAL} †	-2.2 ± 5.3	-2.9 ± 7.9	-13.9 ± 11.3	-10.4 ± 7.7
	MAX _{VAR}	1.0 ± 9.6	0.6 ± 9.1	N/A	N/A
	ROM †	3.2 ± 8.0	3.5 ± 9.6	11.8 ± 10.3	8.8 ± 7.8

432

433 * : Significant effect between unopposed and opposed trials (p < 0.05).

434 † : Significant effect between males and females (p < 0.05).

435

436 Table 2. Group mean results for normalized GRF at MAX and peak (Mean \pm standard
437 deviation).

		MAX GRF (BW)	Peak GRF (BW)
Males	Unopposed	0.752 \pm 0.194	1.561 \pm 0.663*
	Opposed	0.972 \pm 0.415	1.861 \pm 0.595*
Females	Unopposed	0.873 \pm 0.210	1.457 \pm 0.477*
	Opposed	0.894 \pm 0.378	1.631 \pm 0.427*

438

439 *: Significant effect between unopposed and opposed trials.

440

441 **Figure captions.**

442

443 Figure 1. Knee flexion (θ_f) between IC and MAX for males and females during unopposed
444 and opposed trials.

445 Figure 2. Knee valgus/varus (θ_v) between IC and MAX for males and females during
446 unopposed and opposed trials.

447 Figure 3. Normalized GRF between IC and MAX for males and females during unopposed
448 and opposed trials.

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