

1 Knee and hip joint kinematics predict quadriceps and hamstrings neuromuscular activation
2 patterns in drop jump landings

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 **Purpose:** The purpose was to assess if variation in sagittal plane landing kinematics is
17 associated with variation in neuromuscular activation patterns of the quadriceps-hamstrings
18 muscle groups during drop vertical jumps (DVJ).

19 **Methods:** Fifty female athletes performed three DVJ. The relationship between peak knee
20 and hip flexion angles and the amplitude of four EMG vectors was investigated with
21 trajectory-level canonical correlation analyses over the entire time period of the landing
22 phase. EMG vectors consisted of the {vastus medialis(VM),vastus lateralis(VL)}, {vastus
23 medialis(VM),hamstring medialis(HM)}, {hamstring medialis(HM),hamstring lateralis(HL)}
24 and the {vastus lateralis(VL),hamstring lateralis(HL)}. To estimate the contribution of each
25 individual muscle, linear regressions were also conducted using one-dimensional statistical
26 parametric mapping.

27 **Results:** The peak knee flexion angle was significantly positively associated with the
28 amplitudes of the {VM,HM} and {HM,HL} during the preparatory and initial contact phase
29 and with the {VL,HL} vector during the peak loading phase ($p<0.05$). Small peak knee
30 flexion angles were significantly associated with higher HM amplitudes during the
31 preparatory and initial contact phase ($p<0.001$). The amplitudes of the {VM,VL} and
32 {VL,HL} were significantly positively associated with the peak hip flexion angle during the
33 peak loading phase ($p<0.05$). Small peak hip flexion angles were significantly associated with
34 higher VL amplitudes during the peak loading phase ($p=0.001$). Higher external knee
35 abduction and flexion moments were found in participants landing with less flexed knee and
36 hip joints ($p<0.001$).

37 **Conclusion:** This study demonstrated clear associations between neuromuscular activation
38 patterns and landing kinematics in the sagittal plane during specific parts of the landing.

39 These findings have indicated that an erect landing pattern, characterized by less hip and knee
40 flexion, was significantly associated with an increased medial and posterior neuromuscular
41 activation (dominant hamstrings medialis activity) during the preparatory and initial contact
42 phase and an increased lateral neuromuscular activation (dominant vastus lateralis activity)
43 during the peak loading phase.

44

45 **Introduction**

46 Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries are very common during dynamic sports activities
47 in the active population (16-39 years) accounting for approximately 26% of all internal knee
48 injuries [1]. ACL injuries may have important short and long-term physical, psychological and
49 professional consequences [2] for the injured athletes resulting in a substantial, long
50 withdrawal from sports and high economic costs for society [3]. Therefore, screening
51 programs have been developed in an attempt to determine ACL injury risk. Recent literature
52 has extensively investigated the ACL injury mechanism [4]. Non-contact ACL injuries
53 represent 70% of all ACL injuries [5]. They commonly occur during landing activities, more
54 specifically in the deceleration phase immediately after initial ground contact [5]. A
55 prospective study by Hewett et al. [6] has shown that high knee abduction moments during
56 landing of drop vertical jumps (DVJ) increase ACL injury risk. Additionally, a more erect
57 landing pattern, characterized by more extended knee, hip and trunk positions, increases the
58 vertical ground reaction force [6], external knee flexion moment [7], external knee abduction
59 moment [8,9] and the anterior tibial shear force [10], all of which might be risk factors for
60 ACL injury [11]. Blackburn et al. [12] have shown that peak knee and hip flexion angles
61 during landing, two easy to measure parameters, influence the kinetics at the hip and knee
62 joints resulting in a higher injury risk. However, this study was conducted while participants

63 were not allowed to perform the DVJ naturally in their preferred way; a specific trunk flexed
64 pattern was instructed [12]. Because of the coupling of the knee and hip joints in the closed-
65 kinetic chain, active trunk flexion during landing produces concomitant increases in knee and
66 hip flexion angles compared to a more erect trunk posture [13]. If the knee moves into more
67 flexion during the loading phase of a landing, the anterior tibial shear force decreases [14],
68 and thus injury risk might be reduced. Furthermore, intervention studies have shown that a
69 combination of strengthening exercises, proximal control exercises and exercises that improve
70 the landing pattern (such as a more flexed landing pattern) can reduce ACL injury risk
71 [15,16].

72 Many biomechanical risk factors for ACL injury have been proposed, however few studies
73 have examined muscular activation patterns that might be related to ACL injury risk. Besides
74 the external forces acting on the knee joint during dynamic activities, the quadriceps and
75 hamstrings muscle groups have the potential to either load or unload the knee ligaments based
76 on their coordinated activation. Several cadaveric [17] and in-vivo studies [14] have shown
77 that quadriceps contraction induces tension and strain to the ACL. Furthermore, previous
78 studies suggested that the hamstrings muscles might counteract the anterior shear force that
79 strains the ACL by creating a posteriorly orientated force [18]. Quadriceps and hamstrings co-
80 contractions can therefore be effective in reducing these excessive in-situ forces in the ACL,
81 and this particularly when the knee is more flexed ($>15^\circ$ of knee flexion) [17]. In addition to
82 the anterior and posterior (un)loading support of the quadriceps and hamstrings complex,
83 Lloyd et al. [19] have shown that the quadriceps and hamstrings muscle groups also have
84 adduction and abduction moment arms potentially influencing the knee adduction/abduction
85 loading.

86 A prospective study by Zebis et al. [20] showed that a large difference in muscular activity
87 (amplitude) between the vastus lateralis (VL) and the musculus semitendinosus (ST) during

88 the preparatory phase (10 ms before initial contact) of a side cutting manoeuvre might have a
89 predictive value for ACL injury risk determination [20]. As most ACL injuries occur within
90 40 ms after initial contact [4], and literature has shown that this time period is too short for
91 mechanosensory feedback to control the knee joint during functional sports activities [21], the
92 neuromuscular coordination during the preparatory phase before initial contact might be
93 crucial for injury prevention.

94 Despite literature that suggested high risk neuromuscular activation patterns during DVJ, the
95 relation between sagittal plane landing kinematics and muscular activation patterns of the
96 quadriceps and hamstrings muscle groups is still not well examined. Recent work of
97 Blackburn et al. [12] showed that trunk flexion, resulting in a less erect landing posture,
98 reduced the vertical ground reaction forces and quadriceps activity during landing. However,
99 because no electromyographic (EMG) measurements of the hamstrings muscles were
100 included in this study, the interaction between quadriceps and hamstrings activation patterns
101 and the lower limb kinematics remains unclear. As previously mentioned, the participants
102 were not allowed to perform the drop landing in their preferred way. Walsh et al. [22]
103 investigated the relationship between muscle activation of gluteus maximus, quadriceps,
104 hamstrings, gastrocnemius and the knee flexion angle during jump landings. They showed
105 that greater mean vastus medialis and gluteus maximus activity during pre-activation was
106 correlated with smaller knee flexion angles (knee extension) at initial contact. Furthermore,
107 preparatory quadriceps/hamstrings co-activation ratio was also negatively correlated with
108 knee flexion angle at initial contact [22].

109 In the afore mentioned studies [12, 22], EMG data were reduced to a discrete value (e.g. mean
110 or peak value). However, summarizing these complex time-varying multi-dimensional signals
111 to one discrete value that represent the neuromuscular activation of the entire DVJ landing of
112 does not offer an optimal solution [23,24], as neuromuscular activation is constantly adapted

113 to environmental changes through feedforward and feedback mechanisms [25]. In the present
114 study we therefore use a novel statistical method (Statistical Parametric Mapping) to analyze
115 the EMG activation during the entire DVJ landing without reducing the data or selecting a
116 priori time frames in which we expect an association.

117 To date, only the relationship between individual muscle activations and landing kinematics
118 has been investigated. However, as agonistic and antagonistic muscle pairs constantly
119 interact, significant associations between neuromuscular activation and knee/hip joint flexion
120 angles could be missed if only individual muscle activation is assessed. Therefore, we will use
121 Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM) in the present study, a method that accounts for inter-
122 muscle covariance by creating anatomically relevant muscle groupings.

123 We hypothesized that the variation in sagittal plane knee and hip landing kinematics is
124 associated with the EMG activity patterns of the quadriceps and hamstrings muscle group.
125 Based on the results of Blackburn et al. [12] and Walsh et al. [22], we expected that subjects
126 who show a more erect landing pattern will have increased quadriceps and decreased
127 hamstrings activation compared to subjects who have a more flexed landing pattern.

128

129 **Materials and Methods**

130 **Participants**

131 Fifty female athletes (22 soccer, 11 handball and 17 volleyball) consented to participate in this
132 study (age = 21.3 ± 3.4 years; height = 1.72 ± 0.1 m; weight = 66.1 ± 8.5 kg). All participants
133 were member of a Belgian elite level team (first national division) and were injury and pain
134 free. Before participating in this study, all participants provided their written informed
135 consent, which was approved by the local ethics committee. Thirteen participants were aged
136 between 16 and 18 years and signed the informed consent themselves under the written
137 permission of their parents, in which the parents indicated that they fully understood the
138 content of the informed consent and agreed to the signature of their children. As such, no
139 informed written consent was obtained from the next of kin, caretakers, or guardians on
140 behalf of the minors/children enrolled in this study. This study conformed to the principles of
141 the declaration Helsinki (1964), was approved by the local ethics committee and registered
142 with reference number S53369. The local ethical committee approved the consent procedure
143 used in this study. Additionally, all data regarding the participants were anonymized.

144 **Design**

145 Each test session started with a standardized warm-up, which consisted of two series of eight
146 bipedal squats and eight bipedal jumps [26]. Participants were allowed to familiarize with the
147 tasks by performing three practice repetitions before the start of the tests. Body weight and
148 height were measured before the test session by using respectively a scale (SECA, Hamburg,
149 Germany) and a portable stadiometer (SECA, Hamburg, Germany).

150 DVJ are commonly used for screening in clinical settings to assess injury risk [6, 27,28]. The
151 protocol used in this study have been previously described elsewhere [26] and so is briefly

152 summarized below. For a DVJ, subjects were instructed to drop off a 0.3 m box with their feet
153 initially positioned 0.2 m apart on the box, and upon landing to immediately perform a
154 maximum vertical jump. Subjects were also instructed to reach upwards with both hands, as if
155 performing a block in volleyball [29]. The task was repeated until 3 valid trials were
156 completed. A trial was excluded if subjects jumped off the box instead of just dropping, if
157 both feet did not land on the force plates, if subjects reached upwards with only one hand, or
158 if subjects clearly lost balance or fell during the test [6]. A one-minute rest period between
159 consecutive trials was permitted to avoid fatigue [26]. Participants wore standardized indoor
160 footwear (KELME INDOOR COPA) and where necessary, long hair was tied up to avoid
161 marker occlusion.

162 Each participant had 44 spherical reflective markers positioned according to the 6-degrees-of-
163 freedom, eight segment ‘Liverpool John Moores University’ model (LJMU model) including
164 feet, upper and lower legs, pelvis and trunk [26]. Segmental coordinate systems were defined
165 as reported previously [30,31] using separate trials for anatomical calibration [32] and for
166 calculating functional hip joint centres [33] and functional knee joint axes [34]. All modelling
167 and analyses were undertaken in Visual 3D (v.4.83, C-MOTION, Germantown, MD, USA)
168 using geometric volumes to represent segments based on cadaver segmental data. Previous
169 work of our research group showed that the LJMU model was highly reliable during DVJ
170 [25].

171 **Data collection**

172 A wireless EMG system (AURION, Italy) was used to record the muscle activity of the vastus
173 lateralis (VL), vastus medialis (VM), hamstring lateralis (HL) (i.e. biceps femoris) and
174 hamstring medialis (HM) (i.e. semitendinosus) using surface electrodes which were
175 positioned according to the SENIAM guidelines. All electrode locations were shaved and

176 gently cleaned with 70% isopropyl alcohol to reduce skin impedance. Silver-silver chloride,
177 pre-gelled bipolar surface EMG electrodes (Ambu Blue Sensor, Ballerup, Denmark) were
178 placed over the muscle belly and aligned with the longitudinal axis of the muscle, with a
179 center-to-center distance of 0.02 m. The minimum distance between electrode pairs was set at
180 0.03 m to reduce the possibility of cross-talk.

181 DVJ were completed on two individual 0.8 x 0.3 m² AMTI (Watertown, MA, USA) force
182 plates. Force plate and EMG data were sampled at 1000 Hz. Three-dimensional kinematic
183 data were simultaneously (time synchronized) recorded with the force and EMG data in
184 Nexus (VICON, Oxford Metrics, UK) using 6 MX-T20 optoelectronic cameras (VICON,
185 Oxford Metrics, UK) sampling at 100 Hz.

186 **Data analysis**

187 Only the first landing (first contact) within each DVJ trial was used for analysis [26]. Whole-
188 body kinematics and kinetics were collected and processed in accordance to literature
189 convention, however only the dominant leg was analysed and this was defined as the
190 preferred leg to kick a ball [35]. Marker trajectories and forces were filtered using a 4th order
191 low pass Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 18 Hz [36]. Initial contact and take off
192 events were created when the vertical force crossed a 20 N threshold. All raw EMG signals of
193 the DVJ trials and all raw EMG signals of the maximum voluntary contraction (MVC) trials
194 were high pass filtered at a cut-off frequency of 10 Hz. Subsequently, the signals were
195 rectified and low pass filtered with a 4th order zero-lag Butterworth filter at a cut-off
196 frequency of 6 Hz. The EMG signal amplitudes of the DVJ Trials were normalized to the root
197 mean square amplitude (over a period of 100 ms) of the MVC out of 3 attempts. Kinetic and
198 kinematic data were normalized to 100% of the phase starting at 100ms before initial contact
199 until take off as can be seen in Fig. 1.

200 Peak knee and hip flexion angles were calculated because these discrete values illustrate the
201 amount of knee and hip flexion during the landing phase and are easy to measure in a clinical
202 setting [9]. The external knee flexion and knee abduction moments were calculated using
203 inverse dynamics. External joint moments are described in this study; i.e. an external knee
204 abduction load will tend to abduct the knee (move the distal tibia away from the midline of
205 the participant's body). The peak joint angles and the peak external moments were calculated
206 during the first contact phase on the force plates, between initial contact and take off (Fig. 1).
207 Additionally, negative values for knee and hip joint angles indicated knee and hip joint
208 flexion, and less negative values indicated more knee and hip joint extension.

209

210 **Fig 1. Time periods during DVJ.** Data of 1 representative participant to illustrate the
211 different time periods during DVJ from 100ms before initial contact until take off. The graph
212 of the flexion angle represents both the knee and hip flexion angle. The dotted line represents
213 the hip flexion angle.

214

215 **Statistical analysis**

216 All participants (n=50) were divided into quintiles based on their landing pattern. Quintile one
217 consisted of the ten participants who demonstrated the highest peak knee/hip flexion angles.
218 Quintile five consisted of the ten participants who demonstrated the lowest knee/hip flexion
219 angles (more extended knee/hip joint angles). Quintiles 2, 3, and 4 demonstrated values
220 ranging from much flexion towards less flexion, respectively.

221 Shapiro-Wilk analyses were used to test normality of all kinematic and kinetic data of the
222 different quintiles. Independent t-tests were used to compare the kinematics and kinetics

223 between the upper and lower quintiles. Pearson correlation analysis was used to investigate
224 the relation between peak hip and peak knee flexion joint angles in all participants.

225 As we were interested in neuromuscular activation of muscle pairs around the knee rather
226 than the activation of individual muscles, we created four anatomically meaningful EMG
227 vectors: an anterior EMG vector field {VM,VL}, a lateral EMG vector field {VL,HL}, a
228 posterior EMG vector field {HM,HL}, and a medial EMG vector field {HM,VM} as can be
229 seen in Fig. 2. This approach accounts for the inter-muscle covariance as well as the time-
230 dependence of multiple EMG signals whilst also controlling Type I and Type II statistical
231 errors resulting in an objective framework for hypothesis evaluation [23].

232

233 **Fig 2. Neuromuscular activation patterns of all participants (n=50) consisting of four**
234 **normalized EMG vectors.** Each vector represents the activation of muscle pairs throughout
235 the landing phase. The arrows indicate the time component going from 100ms before initial
236 contact until take off.

237

238 Furthermore, correlation analyses were used to further assess the relationships between peak
239 knee/hip joint flexion angles and the neuromuscular activation patterns of VL, VM, HL and
240 HM. As we did not want to reduce the EMG data to a discrete value, we used Statistical
241 Parametric Mapping (SPM) a technique that allows us to analyze the entire EMG time series.
242 To avoid multiple EMG signal co-variance bias [23,24] we used the multivariate equivalent of
243 linear regression, canonical correlation analysis (CCA, S1 Appendix). This analysis calculates
244 test statistics e.g. linear regression at each time node, yet elegantly handles the problem of
245 multiple comparisons by modeling the behavior of random time-varying signals [24]. To
246 establish if there was a relationship between the combination of peak knee flexion and peak

247 hip flexion angles and the overall EMG vector, we first analyzed the {peak knee flexion
248 angle, peak hip flexion angle} vector and the {VM,VL,HM,HL} (time) vector field.
249 Subsequently, the correlation between peak knee flexion angle and four anatomically
250 meaningful muscle pair vectors was calculated (anterior EMG vector field {VM,VL}, lateral
251 EMG vector field {VL,HL}, posterior EMG vector field {HM,HL} and a medial EMG vector
252 field {HM,VM}). The same correlation analyses were undertaken for peak hip flexion angles.
253 In total eight analyses were conducted (peak knee flexion angle vs. four EMG vectors, peak
254 hip flexion angle vs. four EMG vectors) and the test statistic measured was the maximum
255 canonical correlation, a single correlation coefficient which varies over time and which can be
256 transformed to the χ^2 statistic.

257 Statistical inference was conducted using Random Field Theory [37]. This uses the
258 smoothness of the EMG residual trajectories to determine the critical threshold that Alpha %
259 (5% in this study) of identically smooth random trajectories would exceed. If the test statistic
260 trajectory exceeded the critical threshold, there was a significant linear relationship between
261 the predictor variable and the EMG vector field. Detailed examples, theoretical background
262 and interpretations of vector field and SPM statistics are outlined in more detail elsewhere
263 [23,24]. To estimate the contribution of each individual muscle to the maximum canonical
264 correlation, post-hoc linear regressions were conducted using one-dimensional statistical
265 parametric mapping (1-D SPM). Statistic calculation and statistical inference were similar to
266 those as described above [23,28,38]. All statistical analyses were conducted in Python
267 (v.2.7.2; Enthought Python Distribution, Austin, TX).

268

269 **Results**

270 Visual observation of the neuromuscular activation patterns of the different quintiles showed
271 differences in both muscle pair activation (Fig. 3 and 4) and individual muscle activation (Fig.
272 5 and 6) between the group with a more flexed landing pattern and the group with a more
273 erect landing pattern.

274 The neuromuscular activation patterns of the different quintiles showed that participants who
275 landed with less peak knee flexion (red line) showed an increased activation of the {VM, HM}
276 vector and the {HM, HL} vector during initial contact and the preparatory phase (Fig. 3)
277 mainly due a dominance of HM activity. This indicates that during this specific pre-activity
278 and initial contact phase the HM activity was higher in relation to the activity of the VM
279 (curve of the {VM, HM} vector is more oriented towards the HM axis and thus located under
280 the dashed line in the central figure of Fig. 3). Fig. 5 (upper row) showed an increased HM
281 activity in the quintile with the lowest peak knee flexion as well. In contrast, after initial
282 contact, an increased activation of the {VM, HM} vector can be observed (Fig. 3) mainly due
283 a dominant pattern of the VM. This is seen as the curve is clearly more orientated towards the
284 VM axis (above the dashed line in Fig. 3) indicating a higher activity of the VM in relation to
285 the HM activity during the time period following initial contact.

286 We also found significant associations between peak hip joint angles and neuromuscular
287 activation patterns. Participants who landed with less peak hip flexion (red line) showed a
288 higher activity of the {VM, VL} and the {VL, HL} vector during the peak loading-phase
289 compared to other quintiles. A higher, more dominant activity of the VL was found in the
290 {VM, VL} vector, this indicates a high activity of the VL in relation to the activity of the VM
291 in the upper quintile during the peak loading phase (Fig. 4). The increased VL activity in the
292 quintile with more hip extension can be seen in Fig. 6 as well.

293 Table 1 and 2 show differences in kinematics and kinetics for the participants in the different
294 quintiles. Significantly higher peak external peak knee flexion and abduction moments were
295 found in the groups of athletes who landed with more hip extension (quintile 5) compared
296 with athletes who land with more hip flexion (quintile 1) (Table 2). Subjects who land with
297 more knee extension (quintile 5) have higher external peak knee flexion moments as well
298 (Table 1). An overall significant correlation was found between peak knee and peak hip joint
299 flexion angles (Pearson correlation coefficient, $r=0.65$; $p<0.001$).

300

301 Canonical correlation analysis showed a significant relationship between the {peak knee
302 flexion angle, peak hip flexion angle} vector and the {VM,VL,HM,HL} (time) vector field,
303 we therefore further examined this relationship by considering combinations of EMG
304 components with separate kinematic predictors. Additional CCA showed significant positive
305 associations between peak knee joint flexion angle and the medial, lateral and posterior EMG
306 vector of the quadriceps/hamstrings activation ($p<0.05$) indicating that muscular activation
307 patterns of {VM,HM}, {VL,HL}, and {HM,HL} are significantly associated with a smaller
308 (i.e. more erect) knee flexion angle during DVJ (Fig. 3). More specifically, the lateral
309 activation of {VL,HL} vector showed a significant positive association with the peak knee
310 flexion angle during the peak loading phase (50-60% time) of DVJ ($p = 0.033$) (Fig. 3). The
311 medial activation of {VM,HM} and the posterior activation of {HM,HL} showed significant
312 positive associations with the peak knee joint flexion angle during the preparatory and initial
313 contact phase (10-30% time) ($p = 0.001$ and $p = 0.003$, respectively).

314 Additional 1-D SPM linear regression analyses revealed that the medial hamstring (HM)
315 activity was significantly positively associated with the peak knee joint flexion angle
316 suggesting that less peak knee flexion (i.e. a more extended knee) resulted in more HM

317 activity during the preparatory and initial contact phase ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3). In contrast to the
318 significant association between the peak knee flexion angle and the amplitude of the
319 {VL,HL} activation vector during the peak loading phase, no significant associations were
320 found between the peak knee flexion angle and the amplitude of neither the VL nor the HL
321 individually (Fig. 3 and S1 Appendix).

322 As can be seen in Fig. 4, peak hip joint flexion angle was significantly ($p < 0.05$) positively
323 associated with the anterior and lateral EMG vector of the quadriceps/hamstrings activation
324 indicating that greater muscular activation patterns of {VM,VL} vector and {VL,HL} vector
325 are significantly associated with a smaller peak hip flexion angle (i.e. more extended hip). The
326 anterior activation of {VM,VL} vector and the lateral activation of {VL,HL} vector showed
327 significant positive associations with the peak hip joint flexion angle specifically during the
328 peak loading phase (approximately 50-60% time) of the DVJ ($p = 0.011$ and $p = 0.008$) (Fig.
329 4).

330 Additional 1-D SPM analyses showed a significant positive association between the VL
331 activity during the peak loading phase of a DVJ and the peak hip joint flexion angle
332 suggesting that athletes who perform DVJ with less peak hip joint flexion (i.e. a more
333 extended hip) show a significantly higher VL activity during the peak loading phase (Fig. 4)
334 or vice versa.

335

336 **Table 1 – Differences in kinematics and kinetics between the different quintiles based on peak knee flexion angle**

A) Quintiles based on peak knee flexion angle	1 (Flexion)	2	3	4	5 (Extension)	1 vs 5
	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	P-value
Peak knee flexion angle (°)	-97.7 ± 4.30	-90.0 ± 2.4	-83.7 ± 1.7	-79.2 ± 1.3	-70.2 ± 5.6	<0.001
Peak hip flexion angle (°)	-82.7 ± 11.7	-82.4 ± 9.0	-74.1 ± 13.2	-67.8 ± 9.4	-54.1 ± 14.6	<0.001
Relative knee abduction moment (Nm in %BW*Ht)	0.41 ± 0.17	0.28 ± 0.14	0.45 ± 0.12	0.38 ± 0.13	0.56 ± 0.19	0.084
Relative knee flexion moment (Nm in %BW*Ht)	1.22 ± 0.09	1.30 ± 0.16	1.39 ± 0.24	1.38 ± 0.20	1.53 ± 0.31	0.022

337

338 **Table 2 – Differences in kinematics and kinetics between the different quintiles based on peak hip flexion angle**

B) Quintiles based on peak hip flexion angle	1 (Flexion)	2	3	4	5 (Extension)	1 vs 5
	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	P-value
Peak knee flexion angle (°)	-91.2 ± 7.1	-88.0 ± 6.7	-85.1 ± 8.2	-83.8 ± 9.3	-72.7 ± 7.3	<0.001
Peak hip flexion angle (°)	-92.9 ± 5.3	-81.0 ± 1.7	-73.9 ± 1.7	-65.9 ± 3.2	-47.4 ± 7.5	<0.001
Relative knee abduction moment (Nm in %BW*Ht)	0.37 ± 0.11	0.43 ± 0.17	0.33 ± 0.19	0.38 ± 0.10	0.57 ± 0.19	0.011
Relative knee flexion moment (Nm in %BW*Ht)	1.26 ± 0.09	1.32 ± 0.21	1.31 ± 0.22	1.42 ± 0.20	1.52 ± 0.30	0.028

339 *BW: body weight; Ht: height; SD: standard deviation*

340 **Fig 3. Neuromuscular activation patterns of muscle pairs and the relation with the peak**
341 **knee joint angle.**

342 **Fig 3 - Central figure:** Differences in activation patterns between the different quintiles are
343 visualized. The participants were divided in quintiles based on the peak knee flexion angles.
344 green (1): largest knee flexion angle; yellow (2); light orange (3); orange (4); red (5): smallest
345 knee flexion angle. The bold part of the quintiles shows the time point where the relation
346 between the EMG vector and the peak knee flexion angle is the most significant.

347 **Fig 3 – A,B,C,D:** CCA show the association between peak knee joint flexion angle and the
348 anterior {VM,VL}, lateral {VL,HL}, posterior {HM,HL} and medial {VM,HM} EMG
349 vector. The vertical dashed-dotted line represents the initial contact event. The horizontal
350 dashed line represents the critical threshold ($p < 0.05$).

351 **Fig 3 – Corner figures:** Linear regression analyses show the association between peak knee
352 flexion angle and the individual amplitudes of VM, VL, HM and HL. The vertical dashed-
353 dotted line represents the initial contact event. The horizontal dashed line represents the
354 critical threshold ($p < 0.05$).

355

356 **Fig 4. Neuromuscular activation patterns of muscle pairs and the relation with the peak**
357 **hip joint angle.**

358 **Fig 4– Central figure:** Differences in activation patterns between the different quintiles are
359 visualized. The participants were divided in quintiles based on the peak hip flexion angles.
360 green (1): largest hip flexion angle; yellow (2); light orange (3); orange (4); red (5): smallest
361 hip flexion angle. The bold part of the quintiles shows the time point where the relation
362 between the EMG vector and the peak hip flexion angle is the most significant.

363 **Fig 4 – A,B,C,D:** CCA show the association between peak hip joint flexion angle and the
364 anterior {VM,VL}, lateral {VL,HL}, posterior {HM,HL} and medial {VM,HM} EMG

365 vector. The horizontal dashed line represents the critical threshold ($p < 0.05$).

366 **Fig 4 – Corner figures:** Linear regression analyses show the association between peak hip
367 flexion angle and the individual amplitudes of VM, VL, HM and HL. The vertical dashed-
368 dotted line represents the initial contact event. The horizontal dashed line represents the
369 critical threshold ($p < 0.05$).

370

371 **Fig 5 Neuromuscular activation patterns of individual muscles and their relationship**
372 **with peak knee joint angle.**

373 **Fig 5 – Upper row:** Visualization of the individual amplitudes of HL, HM, VL and VM for
374 the different quintiles throughout the entire landing phase (from 100ms before initial contact
375 until take off). The participants were divided in quintiles based on the peak knee flexion
376 angles. green (1): largest knee flexion angle; yellow (2); light orange (3); orange (4); red (5):
377 smallest knee flexion angle.

378 **Fig 5 – Lower row:** Linear regression analyses show the association between peak knee
379 flexion angle and the individual amplitudes of VM, VL, HM and HL. The vertical dashed-
380 dotted line represents the initial contact event. The horizontal dashed line represents the
381 critical threshold ($p < 0.05$).

382

383 **Fig 6 – Neuromuscular activation patterns of individual muscles and their relationship**
384 **with peak hip joint angle.**

385 **Fig 6 – Upper row:** Visualization of the individual amplitudes of VM, VL, HM, HL for the
386 different quintiles throughout the entire landing phase (from 100ms before initial contact until
387 take off). The participants were divided in quintiles based on the peak hip flexion angles.
388 green (1): largest hip flexion angle; yellow (2); light orange (3); orange (4); red (5): smallest
389 hip flexion angle.

390 **Fig 6 – Lower row:** Linear regression analyses show the association between peak hip flexion
391 angle and the individual amplitudes of VM, VL, HM and HL. The vertical dashed-dotted line
392 represents the initial contact event. The horizontal dashed line represents the critical threshold
393 ($p < 0.05$).

394 **Discussion**

395 The purpose of this study was to assess if sagittal plane landing kinematics of the knee and
396 hip joints may predict neuromuscular activation patterns of quadriceps and hamstrings during
397 the performance of DVJ. First, all subjects were divided into 5 quintiles based on their peak
398 knee and hip flexion angles. The differences in neuromuscular activation, landing kinematics
399 and kinetics were compared between the upper (flexed landing pattern) and lower quintile
400 (erect landing pattern). Subsequently, correlation analyses were used to further assess the
401 relationship between neuromuscular activation patterns and peak hip/knee joint flexion
402 angles.

403 As we made no hypothesis regarding a specific time point or muscle (pair) a priori, we
404 analyzed the entire landing pattern (from 100ms before initial contact until take off) of four
405 anatomically relevant muscle pairs ({VL, VM}, {VL, HL}, {HM, HL}, {VM, HM}).
406 Subsequently, additional post-hoc 1-D SPM linear regression analyses between the individual
407 muscles and knee/hip joint flexion angles were performed to help interpret the contribution of
408 each individual muscle to the relation between muscle pairs and landing kinematics.

409

410 The division of our sample into 5 quintiles based on peak knee and hip flexion angles (Fig. 3,
411 4, 5 and 6) revealed distinct visual differences in EMG vector amplitudes between the two
412 extreme quintiles. The upper quintile (i.e. knee/hip extension angle) showed a clearly
413 increased {VM, HM} and {HM, HL} activation during initial contact and the preparatory
414 phase, mainly due to a dominance of the HM. During the peak loading phase, the upper
415 quintile showed an increased {VL, HL} activation, mainly due to a dominance of the VL (Fig.
416 3, 4, 5 and 6). Additionally, significantly higher external knee flexion and abduction moments
417 were found in the upper quintile (Table 1 and Table 2). The distinctive neuromuscular

418 activation patterns found in quintile 5 might be a possible strategy combining feedforward
419 and feedback mechanisms trying to control the high external forces acting on the knee joint in
420 this quintile. Previous studies have shown that a balanced quadriceps/hamstrings activation is
421 very crucial in controlling the external knee flexion and knee abduction moments [19,39].

422

423 The results of the correlation analyses further clarify the findings of the quintile analyses. A
424 greater lateral EMG vector ($\{VL,HL\}$) during the peak loading phase (50-60% time), and
425 greater medial and posterior EMG vectors ($\{VM,HM\}$ and $\{HM,HL\}$) during the preparatory
426 and initial contact phase (10-30% time) were found in participants who landed with less
427 flexed knee joints (Fig. 3). Similarly, participants who landed with less flexed hip joints
428 showed greater anterior and lateral EMG vectors ($\{VM, VL\}$ and $\{VL,HL\}$) during the peak
429 loading phase (Fig. 4). Linear regression analyses show that athletes landing in a more erect
430 pattern, i.e. more hip and knee extension [37], demonstrated increased HM activity during the
431 preparatory and initial contact phase (Fig. 3) and increased VL amplitude during the peak
432 loading phase (Fig. 4), respectively.

433 Interestingly, in contrast to recent literature [22] a decrease in knee flexion angle towards a
434 more extended knee joint was only significantly associated with a higher HM activity during
435 the preparatory and initial contact phase. Previous in vitro [17] and in vivo [14] studies
436 showed that high quadriceps activity might induce an anteriorly orientated pulling force on
437 the tibia and subsequently strain the ACL during an erect landing. The hamstrings muscle
438 group might counteract the strain on the ACL by creating a posteriorly orientated force on the
439 tibia [40]. A possible explanation for our findings might be the fact that hamstrings are more
440 efficient in producing a counteracting force onto the tibia during more flexed knee joint
441 angles due to the length of the moment arm. This suggests that a higher activity is needed to
442 induce the same posteriorly orientated force when the knee is less flexed and the length of the

443 moment arm is less optimal [41]. Hirokawa et al. [42] showed that hamstrings co-contraction
444 was ineffective in the range of 0°-15° of knee flexion and that the posterior displacement
445 component acting on the tibia was more pronounced in the range of 75°-150° of knee flexion.

446 Despite the fact that we found an association between the knee flexion angle and the
447 {VL,HL} vector during the peak loading phase, no relations were found between the
448 individual muscle activations of neither the VL nor the HL and the knee joint kinematics (Fig.
449 3). This suggests that a less flexed knee joint during landing is related to an increased
450 {VL,HL} activation in general and not specifically to an increased VL and/or HL activity.

451

452 Interestingly, there was a time-shift when comparing the associations between peak knee
453 flexion angles and the HM activity versus the associations between peak knee flexion angles
454 and the {VL,HL} activation (increased HM activity during initial contact and the preparatory
455 phase, increased {VL,HL} activity during the peak loading phase) (Fig. 3). On the one hand,
456 the greater level of HM activation prior to landing in participants performing DVJ with more
457 knee extension might indicate that these athletes used a feedforward strategy of HM prior to
458 landing to control the higher ground reaction forces and anterior tibial forces possibly induced
459 by the high quadriceps activity during landing. As previous research has shown [4], the time
460 period between initial contact and moment of injury is often shorter than 50 ms and therefore,
461 preparatory muscular activity might be very important to control the external joint loading.
462 Current results showed significantly higher external peak knee flexion and abduction
463 moments in athletes who performed DVJ with more erect knee and hip joints (Table 1 and
464 Table 2). Palmieri-Smith et al. [43] found that during the performance of a forward hop, the
465 medial quadriceps to hamstrings co-contraction index accounts for a significant portion of the
466 variance ($R^2=0.792$) in peak external knee abduction moment in women. Decreased activation

467 of VM and HM results in a diminished ability to resist external abduction loads. Another
468 study [44] showed that contraction of medial muscles (semitendinosus, medial gastrocnemicus
469 and gracilis muscles) is important in providing resistance to abduction loads.

470 On the other hand, participants who landed with less knee and hip flexion showed a
471 significantly higher {VL,HL} vector during the peak loading phase. During this particular
472 time phase of the landing, the {VM,VL} vector and VL amplitude were increased as well in
473 the quintile that landed with less knee flexion. Previous studies [12,17] demonstrated that high
474 quadriceps activity might strain the ACL especially when the knee joint flexion angles were
475 smaller than 60°. In addition, disproportional VL activation influences the proximal tibia
476 anterior shear force [45], which in turn is an important loading mechanism of the ACL [46].
477 Furthermore in a study of Myer et al. [47] female athletes showed decreased medial to lateral
478 quadriceps activation compared to male athletes during a functional knee-extension test. This
479 unbalanced quadriceps activation pattern is suggested to contribute to the increased ACL
480 injury risk in women [47]. Future prospective studies have to confirm this hypothesis.

481

482 Interestingly where we did find relations with the VL activity, no significant relations were
483 found between the kinematic parameters and the individual VM activity. Recent work of
484 Beaulieu et al. [39] showed that a lateral/medial imbalance of the muscle activity of the vasti
485 might generate knee abduction moments during cutting manoeuvres, owing to their frontal
486 plane moment arm. Lloyd et al. [19] showed that the knee adduction/abduction moment arms
487 of the quadriceps muscle group are larger at more extended knee angles because the
488 individual muscles tend to be more perpendicular to the tibial plateau compared to more
489 flexed knee positions. This suggests that the quadriceps muscle group has a mechanical
490 advantage to induce knee adduction/abduction load towards more extended knee joints which

491 could explain the findings of our study (higher VL activity was associated with a more
492 extended hip joint during landing and concomitant higher external knee flexion and abduction
493 moments).

494

495 Previous intervention studies have shown that movement re-education programs can
496 successfully increase knee and hip joint flexion angles [48] and decrease external knee
497 abduction moments during landing of DVJ [49]. Therefore, based on our results and based on
498 previous intervention studies, we suggest that prevention programs should focus on the
499 improvement of landing patterns towards a more flexed landing pattern. Further research is
500 recommended to investigate the effect of these programs on both the biomechanical and
501 neuromuscular levels.

502

503 To our knowledge, this study is the first to comprehensively reveal how neuromuscular
504 activation patterns relate to the preferred landing pattern during the performance of DVJ.
505 However the study still has some limitations that need to be taken into account. Firstly, as the
506 human body acts as a linked-segment model, it might be important to implement more
507 muscles and other joints than the knee and hip joint into the analyses. Less optimal movement
508 patterns of the entire kinetic chain -including ankle, knee, hip and trunk- may contribute to
509 ACL injury risk. Previous studies showed an influence of other proximal and distal
510 musculature on the knee joint [40]. Further research should include activation patterns of other
511 relevant muscle groups such as the gastrocnemius, soleus and glutei for example which could
512 influence the knee joint kinematics and kinetics, to enlarge our knowledge about the link
513 between basic kinematics and neuromuscular activation patterns. Secondly, DVJ were used in
514 this study because of the good reliability of this dynamic screening task which is commonly

515 used in the literature focusing on injury risk assessment and prevention [26]. However, the
516 results concerning the activation patterns are task specific and should likely not be
517 generalized towards other screening tasks without caution. Finally, it still needs to be
518 determined prospectively if an increased HM activity during the initial and preparatory phase
519 and an increased VL activity at peak loading can predict an increased ACL injury risk.

520

521 **Conclusions**

522 The current study has demonstrated clear associations during specific time periods between
523 neuromuscular activation patterns and landing kinematics in the sagittal plane. The present
524 findings have indicated that an erect landing pattern, characterized by less hip and knee
525 flexion, was significantly associated with an increased activation of medial {VM, HM} and
526 posterior {HM, HL} muscle pairs during the preparatory and initial contact phase and a more
527 dominant and increased activation of anterior {VM, VL} and lateral {VL, HL} muscle pairs
528 during the peak loading phase, respectively. Post-hoc analysis showed that an increased HM
529 activation was mainly responsible for the increased medial and posterior activation during the
530 preparatory and initial contact phase, and an increased VL activation was responsible for the
531 increased anterior and lateral activation during peak loading. This suggests that participants
532 landing in an erect pattern perform dynamic tasks with different neuromuscular activation
533 patterns of the quadriceps/hamstrings complex. Future prospective studies should investigate
534 if specific neuromuscular landing patterns are related to a higher ACL injury risk.

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681 **Caption Supporting Information**

682

683 S1 Appendix. Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) versus linear regression