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1 Title: Contributions of the Non-Kicking-Side Arm to Rugby Place Kicking

2 Technique

3

4 Running Title: Arm Contributions to Rugby Place Kicking

5

6 Keywords: angular momentum, arm, biomechanics, kicking, rugby, three-

7 dimensional.

8

10 To investigate non-kicking-side arm motion during rugby place kicking, five
11 experienced male kickers performed trials under two conditions – both with an
12 accuracy requirement, but one with an additional maximal distance demand.
13 Joint centre co-ordinates were obtained (120 Hz) during kicking trials and a
14 three-dimensional model was created to enable the determination of
15 segmental contributions to whole body angular momentum.

16 All kickers possessed minimal non-kicking-side arm angular momentum
17 about the global medio-lateral axis (H_X). The more accurate kickers exhibited
18 greater non-kicking-side arm angular momentum about the global antero-
19 posterior axis (H_Y). This augmented whole body H_Y , and altered the whole-
20 body lateral lean at ball contact. The accurate kickers also exhibited greater
21 non-kicking-side arm angular momentum about the global longitudinal axis
22 (H_Z), which opposed kicking leg H_Z and attenuated whole body H_Z . All
23 subjects increased non-kicking-side arm H_Z in the additional distance demand
24 condition, aside from the one subject whose accuracy decreased, suggesting
25 that non-kicking-side arm H_Z assists maintenance of accuracy in maximum
26 distance kicking. Goal kickers should be encouraged to produce non-kicking-
27 side arm rotations about both the antero-posterior and longitudinal axes, as
28 these appear important for both the initial achievement of accuracy, and for
29 maintaining accuracy during distance kicking.

31

INTRODUCTION

32 Rugby union place kicking technique remains largely unexplored by sports
33 biomechanists, aside from a two-dimensional (2D) analysis (Aitcheson and
34 Lees, 1983). Numerous 2D sagittal-plane soccer kicking studies have been
35 undertaken, but differences have been found in linear (up to 10%) and
36 angular (up to 84%) velocities of the kicking leg joints between two- and three-
37 dimensional analyses (Rodano and Tavana, 1993). This indicates that
38 movement in at least one of the non-sagittal planes occurs, reinforcing the
39 notion that accurate descriptions of kicking technique require a three-
40 dimensional (3D) analysis (Lees and Nolan, 1998).

41 Segment rotations in both the transverse and frontal planes have been
42 observed in the soccer kicking analyses performed in 3D (Browder *et al.*,
43 1991; Tant *et al.*, 1991; Lees and Nolan, 2002; Lees *et al.*, 2004). When an
44 accuracy demand is placed upon a kicker, ball velocity has been found to
45 reduce by between 20 and 25% from maximal values (Asami *et al.*, 1976;
46 Lees and Nolan, 2002), and it has been postulated that ball velocity is
47 influenced by trunk segment rotations about the longitudinal axis (Browder *et*
48 *al.*, 1991; Lees and Nolan, 2002). This has led to suggestions of the need for
49 further upper extremity analyses during kicking (Tant *et al.*, 1991; Lees and
50 Nolan, 2002). A full-body kinematic model was recently applied to the study
51 of instep soccer kicks (Shan and Westerhoff, 2005), and upper body
52 movements were found to vary between subjects of differing skill levels.
53 Flexion and adduction of the non-kicking-side arm were found to be widely
54 used by skilled kickers prior to ball contact (BC), but were scarcely noticeable
55 in their novice counterparts. These movements were suggested as one cause

56 of the increased ball velocity values exhibited by skilled kickers (Shan and
57 Westerhoff, 2005), but they may also relate to their accuracy.

58 Angular momentum is a kinetic variable which provides a measure of the
59 quantity of rotational motion. The angular momentum of any rotating body is a
60 product of its moment of inertia and its angular velocity. Whole body angular
61 momentum can be considered to be the sum of the angular momentum
62 possessed by all the segments comprising that body. The angular momentum
63 possessed by a given body segment consists of a local (due to rotations about
64 the segment centre of mass) and a remote (due to rotations of the segment
65 about the whole body centre of mass) term. Despite regular inferences
66 regarding the importance of various segment rotations in kicking technique, no
67 studies have investigated the segmental contributions to generation of angular
68 momentum during kicking. Due to the rapid knee extensions (1520 –
69 1960 °/s) previously observed in rugby kicking (Aitcheson and Lees, 1983), it
70 is likely that the largest peak values of kicking leg angular momentum will
71 occur about the medio-lateral axis. However, movements of the upper body
72 may also be employed to either reduce or augment the total angular
73 momentum generated about each axis. The arms will likely experience rapid
74 changes in position during the kicking action, particularly in skilled kickers
75 (Shan and Westerhoff, 2005). Therefore, it is likely that these skilled kickers
76 will exhibit a greater potential to alter their total angular momentum profiles
77 about each axis, which may be beneficial for performance in terms of
78 accuracy or ball velocity. Using 3D analysis techniques, the aim of the
79 present study was therefore to further understand how the non-kicking-side

80 arm contributes to the generation and control of whole-body angular
81 momentum during rugby place kicking.

82

83 METHODS

84

85 *Participants*

86 Five university 1st team-level male kickers (mean \pm s: age = 20.6 \pm
87 2.7 years, height = 1.81 \pm 0.09 m, mass = 80.2 \pm 7.7 kg), each with at least
88 five years kicking experience participated in the study. All were free from
89 injury and provided informed consent in accordance with the University
90 Research Ethics Committee procedures.

91

92 *Procedures*

93 After a self-directed warm-up, 39 spherical markers of 12.5 mm diameter
94 were attached to specific anatomical landmarks on the subject for use with the
95 Plug-In-Gait model. (ViconTM, Oxford Metrics Ltd., Oxford, UK). A marker was
96 also placed on the surface of a standard weight and pressure size-five rugby
97 ball, at one end of the longitudinal axis. Ball contact (BC) was subsequently
98 identified from initial displacement of this marker, but the marker was not used
99 to calculate ball velocity as its path is unlikely to be representative of the
100 centre of mass of the ball due to rotations.

101 All subjects completed seven accuracy (A) trials where the emphasis was
102 placed on accuracy relative to a vertical target, but no distance requirement
103 was included. Each subject also completed seven distance (D) trials where in
104 addition to ensuring accuracy, the subjects also had to attempt to kick the ball

105 “as far as they could”. The order of conditions was randomised between
106 subjects. The A condition was intended to replicate a situation such as a kick
107 at the posts from the 22-metre line, whilst the D condition was intended to
108 replicate kicks at the posts from the limit of the kicker’s range, where accuracy
109 remains vital but maximal kick distance is also required in order for a kick to
110 be successful. No instructions relating to speed of movement or ball velocity
111 were given to the subjects.

112

113 *Data Collection*

114 Kinematic data from each subject were recorded in a large indoor sports
115 hall using an eight-camera Vicon™ 612 motion analysis system (Oxford
116 Metrics Ltd., Oxford, UK), sampling at 120 Hz and calibrated to the
117 manufacturer’s instructions (mean residual calibration error = $1.89 \pm$
118 0.53 mm). A digital video camera (Sony, DCR TRV-900E) operating at 50 Hz,
119 and positioned above and behind the kicker, captured video data to record the
120 horizontal deviation of the ball from a 10 x 0.08 m target. This target was
121 suspended vertically on an expanse of netting approximately 10 m in front of
122 the kicker, and represented the centre of the goal posts. Two further 50 Hz
123 digital video cameras (Sony, DCR TRV-900E) were placed in front of the
124 kicker at angles of approximately 45° to the intended direction of ball travel so
125 that their optical axes intersected at an angle approximating 90°. The two
126 cameras were synchronised to within 1 ms by illuminating an array of 20 LEDs
127 (sequentially at 1 ms intervals) in each camera view, and were used to
128 reconstruct ball velocity. Synchronised ground reaction force (GRF) data from
129 the support leg were recorded (600 Hz) in three orthogonal directions (vertical,

130 antero-posterior, medio-lateral) through a force platform (Kistler, 9287BA,
131 Amherst, NY). The ball, placed upon a kicking tee of the subject's choice,
132 was positioned such that the kicker could adopt their preferred angled
133 approach towards the ball, and that the support foot would land on the force
134 platform.

135

136

Data Reduction

137 For each trial, 3D co-ordinates for each of the 40 reflective markers were
138 reconstructed using Workstation software (version 4.5, Oxford Metrics Ltd.,
139 Oxford, UK). The marker trajectories were smoothed using a generalized
140 cross-validatory spline (Woltring, 1986), and all subsequent data were
141 processed using custom Matlab code (Matlab 7.0, Mathworks Inc., USA). A
142 10-segment kinematic model was then created from the calculated joint centre
143 co-ordinates produced from the Plug-In-Gait model, consisting of head, trunk,
144 upper-arm, forearm, thigh and shank segments. Due to incomplete kinematic
145 data for the hands and feet throughout many of the trials, the foot and hand
146 segments were incorporated into the shank and forearm segments,
147 respectively. Segment inertia parameters (mass, centre of mass location and
148 radius of gyration) were obtained from de Leva (1996), and adjustments were
149 made to create combined shank/foot and forearm/hand segments based upon
150 the anthropometric measurements of the five subjects.

151 Segment centre of mass (CM) time-histories were then calculated and
152 whole body CM was subsequently determined from these values. All of the
153 CM displacement trajectories were fitted with interpolating quintic spline
154 functions (Wood and Jennings, 1979) and their velocities derived. Three-

155 dimensional vectors were constructed from each segment CM to the whole
156 body CM and the instantaneous velocity of each segment CM relative to the
157 whole body CM was computed. This enabled the computation of the remote
158 term of angular momentum for each segment, using the modified methods of
159 Dapena (1978), detailed by Bahamonde (2000). Vectors in the direction of
160 the longitudinal axis of each segment, originating from the proximal endpoints
161 were then computed. The unit vector components of these were fitted with
162 interpolating quintic spline functions (Wood and Jennings, 1979), and their
163 velocities subsequently derived. The velocities of the segment vector
164 components were used to compute the local angular momentum terms for
165 each segment, again using the procedures outlined by Bahamonde (2000).
166 The local and remote terms were then summated to yield total angular
167 momentum values for each segment, which were subsequently grouped into
168 five new segments; kicking leg (leg_K), support leg (leg_{NK}), kicking-side arm
169 (arm_{KS}), non-kicking-side arm (arm_{NKS}), and trunk. Angular momentum values
170 were then calculated about three fixed orthogonal axes passing through the
171 CM of the kicker (views of rotations about each axis are illustrated in Figure
172 1). The X-axis was perpendicular to the intended direction of ball travel, with
173 the positive direction to the right. The positive Y-axis pointed in the intended
174 direction of ball travel, and the Z-axis pointed vertically, with the upwards
175 direction being positive. Values of angular momentum are subsequently
176 reported as anti-clockwise (positive) or clockwise (negative) and these are
177 reported when viewing the kicker from the right (X-axis), from in front (Y-axis)
178 and from above (Z-axis), as depicted in Figure 1. Absolute values of angular
179 momentum were normalised by dividing by individual ($mass \times height^2$)

180 anthropometric characteristics and multiplying by the group mean (mass x
181 height²) anthropometric characteristics. For the left-footed kickers, angular
182 momentum values about the Y- and Z-axes were inverted so that all kickers
183 conformed to the same convention.

184 Resultant ball velocity was calculated by digitising (Peak Motus, version
185 8.1., Englewood, CO, USA) the centre of the ball from recordings obtained by
186 the two synchronised video cameras and subsequent 3D DLT reconstruction
187 (Abdel-Aziz and Karara, 1971). Final resultant velocity was reported as the
188 average of the five fields following BC. To determine kick accuracy, video
189 images from the rear camera were digitised. By identifying the field in which
190 the ball made contact with the net, and calculating the scaled horizontal
191 displacement of the ball centre from the target, an accuracy score was
192 produced, with a score of zero indicating perfect accuracy. Support leg
193 contact (SLC) was identified as the first field of kinematic data after the
194 vertical GRF exceeded 10 N. The kinematic field of data at which the
195 maximum vertical displacement of the ankle joint of the kicking leg occurred
196 was also identified and defined as the end of the follow through (EFT).

197

198 *Statistical Analyses*

199 All data were confirmed for normality and are presented as mean \pm s unless
200 stated otherwise. Where necessary, two-tailed t-tests were used to
201 statistically compare variables between either subjects or conditions, with
202 statistical significance accepted below a probability level (p) of 0.05. Due to
203 incomplete data, only five trials under each condition were available for the
204 analysis of subject 3.

205

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RESULTS

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Indicators of Kick Performance

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Whole Body Angular Momentum

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Noticeable differences in inter-subject accuracy (in terms of horizontal ball displacements from the target) existed, with subjects 2 and 5 exhibiting the most accurate kicking compared with the remainder of the cohort (Table 1). Subject 4 exhibited a significant ($p < 0.01$) decrease in accuracy in the D condition, despite accuracy still being a fundamental requirement of these trials, whilst the rest of the kickers retained their accuracy in D trials. All five subjects kicked the ball with significantly ($p < 0.05$) greater velocity in the D trials (Table 1).

The X-component of angular momentum (H_x) typically reached larger average peak values than the Y (H_y) and Z (H_z) components (Table 2). A large anti-clockwise increase in total H_x occurred near support leg contact (SLC), peak values typically occurred just prior to BC, and H_x remained anti-clockwise throughout the follow through (e.g. Figure 2). The Y-component of angular momentum (H_y) was initially clockwise but began to decrease in magnitude soon after SLC for all kickers (e.g. Figure 3). The Y-component of angular momentum typically became anti-clockwise prior to BC (Table 2), and remained in this direction throughout the follow through (e.g. Figure 3). The Z-component of angular momentum (H_z) was anti-clockwise throughout and

229 reached peak values near BC (e.g. Figure 4). Peak total H_Z values were
230 lower in magnitude than peak total H_X and H_Y values for all subjects (Table 2).

231 Subject 1 exhibited slightly different trends compared with the rest of
232 the cohort about the Y-axis, with larger peak clockwise H_Y values (Table 2),
233 which remained clockwise throughout BC (Table 2). Subjects 2 and 5
234 exhibited significantly ($p < 0.001$) greater magnitudes of both total anti-
235 clockwise H_Y , and H_Y at BC, compared to the other four kickers (Table 2).

236

237 *Non-Kicking-Side Arm Contributions to Angular Momentum*

238 The arm_{NKS} possessed minimal H_X throughout each trial for all subjects
239 (e.g. Figure 1), and average peak values did not exceed 2.03 (kg·m²)/s for
240 any of the kickers. Possession of arm_{NKS} H_Y was predominantly anti-
241 clockwise between SLC and EFT (e.g. Figure 3), whilst arm_{NKS} H_Z was mainly
242 clockwise during this period (e.g. Figure 4). Peak magnitudes of both arm_{NKS}
243 H_Y and H_Z occurred near BC (e.g. Figures 3 and 4). Clockwise H_Z in the
244 arm_{NKS} was a consistent trend amongst the group, which opposed the large
245 anti-clockwise leg_K H_Z (e.g. Figure 4).

246 Subjects 2 and 5 exhibited significantly ($p < 0.001$) greater peak anti-
247 clockwise arm_{NKS} H_Y than the remainder of the cohort (Figure 5). As
248 previously stated, these peak arm_{NKS} H_Y magnitudes occurred near BC, and
249 at this point in time, subjects 2 and 5 also positioned their arm_{NKS} CM closer to
250 the vertical projection of their base of support (stance ankle) through shoulder
251 adduction and horizontal flexion (Figure 6). Magnitudes of arm_{NKS} H_Z at BC
252 for subjects 2 and 5 were also significantly ($p < 0.001$) greater than the
253 corresponding values of their less accurate counterparts (Figure 7). With the

254 exception of subject 4 ($p = 0.67$), all subjects significantly ($p < 0.01$) increased
255 $\text{arm}_{\text{NKS}} H_Z$ at BC in D trials (Figure 7).

256

257 *Kicking Leg Contributions to Angular Momentum*

258 After SLC, $\text{leg}_K H_X$ was consistently anti-clockwise for all subjects (e.g.
259 Figure 2). Peak magnitudes occurred just prior to BC and values remained
260 anti-clockwise throughout the follow through (e.g. Figure 2). For all kickers,
261 the leg_K constituted the largest segmental H_X values in both conditions. The
262 $\text{leg}_K H_Y$ time-history followed a general pattern similar to that of total H_Y (e.g.
263 Figure 3), being predominantly clockwise prior to BC, and anti-clockwise
264 afterwards. Anti-clockwise $\text{leg}_K H_Z$ was large in magnitude (e.g. Figure 4),
265 and consistently exhibited the largest H_Z magnitudes of any segment. This
266 caused total H_Z to closely mirror the $\text{leg}_K H_Z$ data, especially as the leg_{NK} and
267 trunk (e.g. Figure 4) possessed minimal H_Z throughout the entire kicking
268 action. Peak anti-clockwise total H_Z was lower than peak anti-clockwise leg_K
269 H_Z in all trials (e.g. Figure 4), with an average decrease of 4.4 ± 1.9 ($\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$),
270 due mainly to the opposing rotations of the arm_{NKS} .

271 At BC, subjects 2 and 5 positioned their leg_K CM closer to their stance
272 ankle in the medio-lateral direction (Figure 6), and also exhibited a marked
273 medio-lateral trunk lean towards the kicking-side at BC (Figure 8). In contrast,
274 subjects 1 and 3 exhibited trunk lean towards the non-kicking-side, and
275 subject 4 leant only slightly towards the kicking-side (Figure 8).

276

277

DISCUSSION

278

279

Indicators of Kick Performance

280 Between-subject accuracy differences (Table 1) indicate that inter-individual
281 variations in skill level existed, and that subjects 2 and 5 were the more
282 accurate, skilled kickers. The accuracy differences between subjects would
283 likely have practical importance. For instance, the average ball velocity during
284 D trials for all subjects was 25 m/s, at 35° above the horizontal. From
285 standard projectile motion equations (ignoring air resistance and spin effects),
286 it can be calculated that the average kick of the cohort would successfully
287 pass over the horizontal bar from a distance of 55.3 m. The two vertical posts
288 are 5.6 m apart, and thus the ball cannot be more than 2.8 m from the centre
289 line in order for a kick to be successful. In the context of the current research,
290 when kicking from 10 m in front of the target, the ball can be no more than
291 2.80/5.53 m, or 0.51 m away from the target horizontally. From table 1, it can
292 be seen that subjects 2 and 5 lie comfortably within these limits, exhibiting
293 values of 0.26 and 0.17 m, respectively. The average kick of subject 1 lies
294 only just within these limits (0.43 m), whilst subjects 3 and 4 are considerably
295 less accurate; they exhibit average accuracy scores of 0.60 and 0.8 m,
296 respectively (Table 1); markedly greater than the 0.51 m limit.

297 The larger mean accuracy scores and greater standard deviation values
298 exhibited by subjects 3 and 4 indicate that they exhibited less consistent kick
299 accuracy (Table 1). Subject 4 also often exhibited large standard deviation
300 values for many of the analysed angular momentum values (e.g. Figures 5
301 and 7), which is indicative of less consistent movement patterns – a trait
302 associated with less skilled kickers (Phillips, 1985). The lower skill levels of
303 subject 4 were also highlighted by the fact that he was the only kicker to

304 exhibit a significant ($p < 0.01$) decrease in accuracy under D conditions
305 (Table 1).

306 Ball velocity was significantly ($p < 0.05$) greater in the D trials for all
307 subjects (Table 1). Thus when accuracy was the sole aim of a kick, and
308 despite no specific instructions being given to the kickers regarding ball
309 velocity, ball velocity did actually decrease, which confirms the findings of
310 Asami *et al.* (1976) and Lees and Nolan (2002).

311

312 *Whole Body Angular Momentum*

313 The total H_x , H_y and H_z time-histories (Figures 2, 3 and 4) show that
314 rotations occur about all three of the principal axes during a typical kicking
315 action. This reinforces previous findings and suggestions that kicking is a 3D
316 movement (Browder *et al.*, 1991; Tant *et al.*, 1991; Rodano and Tavana,
317 1993; Lees and Nolan, 2002; Lees *et al.*, 2004), and should be analysed as
318 such. Total H_x was expected to be large due to the considerable lower-body
319 sagittal plane motion that occurs during rugby place kicking (Aitcheson and
320 Lees, 1983). Large values of total H_y and H_z are likely reflective of both the
321 non-planar movements that occur during kicking (Browder *et al.*, 1991; Tant *et*
322 *al.*, 1991, Lees and Nolan, 2002; Lees *et al.*, 2004; Shan and Westerhoff,
323 2005) and the angled approach towards the ball that is typically adopted by
324 kickers (Lees and Nolan, 1998). However, the focus of this discussion
325 primarily relates to the segmental contributions to kicking performance,
326 particularly the arm_{NKS} and how it interacts with the leg_K.

327

328 *The Non-Kicking-Side Arm*

329 The arm_{NKS} possessed minimal H_X throughout the duration of the kicking
330 action (e.g. Figure 2), for both the A and the D condition. Movements of this
331 arm would therefore not be particularly evident in “*side-on*” (sagittal plane) 2D
332 studies, which comprise the majority of existing kicking research. This may
333 partly explain the sparse existence of studies focusing on arm_{NKS} movements
334 during kicking.

335 Peak arm_{NKS} H_Y typically occurred near BC (e.g. Figure 3). The larger
336 ($p < 0.001$) average arm_{NKS} H_Y exhibited by subjects 2 and 5 at BC (Figure 5)
337 contributed to their possession of greater total anti-clockwise H_Y at BC
338 compared to the remainder of the cohort (Table 2). As subjects 2 and 5 were
339 the more accurate kickers (Table 1), possession of anti-clockwise H_Y at BC
340 appears to be a strategy associated with superior accuracy. None of the
341 subjects exhibited a between-condition difference ($p > 0.05$) in arm_{NKS} H_Y at
342 BC (Figure 5), suggesting that greater arm_{NKS} and total H_Y are traits
343 associated with the greater accuracy of subjects 2 and 5 *per se*, and do not
344 relate to any intra-subject between-condition differences. Movements of the
345 arm_{NKS} have been found to be adopted by skilled kickers to a greater extent
346 than their novice counterparts (Shan and Westerhoff, 2005), and as accuracy
347 is a key feature of skilled rugby union kicking, the present findings appear
348 consistent with the results of Shan and Westerhoff (2005). A possible
349 explanation for how greater arm_{NKS} and thus total H_Y possession augmented
350 the accuracy of subjects 2 and 5 becomes apparent when the medio-lateral
351 posture of the kickers at BC is viewed (Figures 6 and 8).

352 An increased ($p < 0.001$) possession of anticlockwise arm_{NKS} H_Y by
353 subjects 2 and 5 was associated with the positioning of this segment further

354 towards the kicking-side at BC ($p < 0.001$; Figure 6). This was accompanied
355 by a greater ($p < 0.001$) trunk lean towards the kicking-side at the same point
356 in time (Figure 8). These upper body movements occur concurrently with a
357 smaller distance between the leg_K and stance ankle joint centre (Figure 6).
358 Although a causal relationship cannot be determined between leg_K and
359 arm_{NKS} positioning, it is likely that these two segments interact in order to
360 maintain a balanced position in the medio-lateral direction at BC. Whilst all
361 kickers may be balanced at BC, it appears that the more skilled kickers adopt
362 a position which involves contact of the ball and positioning of the arm_{NKS}
363 closer to the base of support, and trunk lean towards the kicking-side. It is
364 possible that either one or a combination of these movements may have a
365 direct effect upon accuracy, and that the synchronous movements are used to
366 sustain balance at BC.

367 The arm_{NKS} also had an influence on peak total H_Z , consistently reaching
368 peak clockwise values near BC for all subjects (e.g. Figure 4), which opposed
369 the large anti-clockwise leg_K H_Z , and reduced the anti-clockwise total H_Z . It
370 appears that arm_{NKS} movement occurred in a combination of planes (primarily
371 shoulder lateral flexion and adduction) as subjects 2 and 5 exhibited a
372 significantly greater ($p < 0.001$) arm_{NKS} angular momentum at BC about both
373 the Y- and Z-axes (Figures 5 and 7), reinforcing the findings of Shan and
374 Westerhoff (2005). Unlike the motions about the Y-axis where both segments
375 rotated in the same direction, the arm_{NKS} movement about the Z-axis opposed
376 the anti-clockwise leg_K motions. This may be related to an “*action-reaction*”
377 principle which can affect technique and thus performance. As average trunk
378 H_Z at BC did not exceed 1.3 (kg·m²)/s for any of the kickers (e.g. Figure 4),

379 this suggests that arm_{NKS} rotations helped to control whole body rotations
380 about the Z-axis by interacting with, and opposing, the anticlockwise leg_{K}
381 rotations. Total H_{Z} was thus reduced, which potentially stopped the whole
382 body from “*over-rotating*” about the Z-axis. This is essentially the same
383 principle as that which occurs during gait, where as one leg moves forwards
384 and creates Z-axis angular momentum about the CM in one direction, the
385 contralateral arm also moves forwards and creates Z-axis angular momentum
386 in an opposing direction (Roberts, 1995). The similar timing of peak clockwise
387 arm_{NKS} H_{Z} and peak anti-clockwise leg_{K} H_{Z} near BC (e.g. Figure 4) may
388 therefore relate to the prevention of over-rotation about the longitudinal axis,
389 which the considerable anti-clockwise H_{Z} induced by leg_{K} movements could
390 potentially produce. The presence of arm_{NKS} H_{Z} can therefore be considered
391 a “*performance enhancing*” action, as it allows the kickers to generate greater
392 leg_{K} H_{Z} without obtaining excessive amounts of total H_{Z} .

393 When comparing individual subjects between conditions, arm_{NKS} H_{Z} also
394 appears to have a role as a “*performance maintaining*” strategy. The
395 magnitude of arm_{NKS} H_{Z} increased under D conditions (Figure 7), with the
396 difference being significant ($p < 0.01$) for four of the five kickers, but not for
397 subject 4, who was also the only subject to be significantly ($p < 0.01$) less
398 accurate in D trials (Table 1). In order to maintain accuracy during maximal
399 distance kicking, an increased acquisition of clockwise arm_{NKS} H_{Z} thus
400 appears necessary. As greater linear and angular leg_{K} joint velocities, and
401 greater end-point (i.e. kicking foot) velocities are evident during maximal
402 distance kicking (Lees and Nolan, 2002), there is a greater potential to “*over-*
403 *rotate*” and perform movements which may negatively affect accuracy.

404 However, increased clockwise H_Z of the arm_{NKS} appears to negate this
405 problem for the kickers who maintain their accuracy. The increased use of the
406 arm_{NKS} in D conditions reinforces previous suggestions that rotations about
407 the Z-axis can influence ball velocity (Browder *et al.*, 1991), and that these
408 may occur in segments beyond the lower extremities (Lees and Nolan, 2002).

409

410

The Kicking Leg

411 It is clear that arm_{NKS} movements exist in the kicking technique, and they
412 appear to have an effect upon kick performance, particularly through
413 interaction with the leg_K. As the leg_K plays the major role in the kicking
414 technique, the following section provides a brief discussion relating to the 3D
415 movements and angular momentum possessed by this segment.

416 The leg_K H_X time-history (Figure 2) reflects the hip flexion and knee
417 extension which occur between SLC and EFT during kicking (Browder *et al.*,
418 1991). The timing of the peak value just prior to BC (e.g. Figure 2) is
419 consistent with previously presented angular velocity time-histories (Reilly,
420 1996). Large values of leg_K angular momentum were expected about the X-
421 axis (e.g. Figure 2) due to several previous reports of large leg_K angular
422 velocities in the sagittal plane (Aitcheson and Lees, 1983; Putnam, 1983;
423 Reilly, 1996). It is likely that the H_X possessed by the leg_K was transferred in
424 a proximal-to-distal fashion from the thigh to the shank and finally the foot
425 (Isokawa and Lees, 1988; Reilly, 1996). This would have augmented the
426 linear velocity of the foot, which contributes to ball velocity at impact (Togari *et*
427 *al.*, 1972; Asami and Nolte, 1983).

428 Angular momentum of the leg_K was also evident about the other two axes
429 (Figures 3 and 4). For all kickers, leg_K angular momentum about the Y-axis
430 was near zero at BC (e.g. Figure 3), but was large and anti-clockwise about
431 the Z-axis (e.g. Figure 4). The minimal leg_K H_Y at BC (e.g. Figure 3) reflects
432 relatively stationary medio-lateral movement of the leg_K at this point in time.
433 This may be an important principle for kicking performance, as the largely
434 planar movements of the leg_K at BC would likely assist the ability to make
435 contact with the ball at the desired point of the foot's curved trajectory. The
436 considerable possession of clockwise leg_K H_Y prior to BC (e.g. Figure 3) was
437 required to position this segment correctly at BC, as kickers characteristically
438 adopt an angled approach to the ball (Lees and Nolan, 1998). The anti-
439 clockwise leg_K rotations about the Z-axis (e.g. Figure 4) are reflective of pelvic
440 rotations, which have been reported in some of the existing 3D studies
441 (Browder *et al.*, 1991; Tant *et al.*, 1991; Lees and Nolan, 2002; Lees *et al.*,
442 2004). These considerable magnitudes of angular momentum possessed by
443 the leg_K about the Y- and Z-axes confirm suggestions that rotations in the two
444 non-sagittal planes are important aspects of kicking technique, and that 3D
445 analyses are paramount in order to achieve a full understanding of the
446 technique (Browder *et al.*, 1991; Tant *et al.*, 1991; Lees and Nolan, 2002;
447 Lees *et al.*, 2003).

448 In future work, a full analysis of segment interactions, both internally and
449 externally with the environment, would provide a suitable framework in which
450 the current findings could be extended. In addition to the interaction between
451 the leg_K and the arm_{NKS}, it is likely that other segments interact with each
452 other as well as with the external force vector, and that these movements all

453 contribute towards the place kicking technique. The timings of the segment
454 movements may also be another area worthy of further investigation. For
455 example, the onset of movement of both the arm_{NKS} and leg_K, and their peak
456 velocities appear to interact so that both are positioned favourably at BC, and
457 performance is thus enhanced.

458

459

CONCLUSION

460 The three-dimensional nature of kicking was reinforced in this study, as
461 there was significant possession of angular momentum about each of the
462 three global axes. Two-dimensional sagittal-plane analyses may therefore
463 omit key aspects of the rugby place kicking technique, particularly arm_{NKS}
464 motions which only occur to a minimal extent in this plane.

465 The arm_{NKS} possessed considerable angular momentum about both the Y-
466 and Z-axes. Anti-clockwise arm_{NKS} movements about the Y-axis increased
467 the generation of whole-body angular momentum about this axis. This was a
468 strategy adopted by the more accurate kickers under both accuracy and
469 distance conditions and potentially improved their posture at ball contact.
470 Angular momentum of the arm_{NKS} about the Z-axis opposed the motion of the
471 leg_K and increased in magnitude during maximal distance kicks for the
472 subjects who maintained their level of accuracy under these conditions.
473 Increased arm_{NKS} use by the more accurate and thus skilled kickers confirmed
474 recent findings (Shan and Westerhoff, 2005), and highlighted the importance
475 of integrating upper-body movement analysis into subsequent kicking studies.
476 Goal kickers should be encouraged to produce upper body motions
477 throughout the place kicking movement in an attempt to improve performance.

478 Movements of the arm_{NKS} are important for accuracy purposes, and their
479 contribution to angular momentum about the Z-axis appears particularly
480 important for the maintenance of accuracy during maximum velocity kicking.

481

482 *Implications and Practical Applications for Practitioners*

483 The following points highlight the key findings of this research, and how it
484 can be applied to a practical setting:

- 485 • Rotations of the non-kicking-side arm (shoulder lateral flexion and
486 adduction during the downswing of the kicking leg) are used to a
487 greater extent by the more accurate kickers.
- 488 • These arm rotations affect the posture of the kicker at the point of ball
489 contact, so that the more accurate kickers position both their non-
490 kicking-side arm and kicking leg closer to their base of support, as well
491 as exhibiting trunk lean towards the kicking-side.
- 492 • If a coach is working with an inaccurate kicker who does not use the
493 non-kicking-side arm to a great extent, corrections to the stance leg
494 positioning relative to the ball could be attempted so that the kicking
495 leg, non-kicking-side arm, and trunk all interact and adjust to form a
496 more optimal posture at BC; one that appears to be associated with
497 more accurate kicking.
- 498 • About a vertical axis, rotations of the non-kicking-side arm oppose the
499 rotations of the kicking leg. This may be the result of an action-reaction
500 principle, whereby movement of this arm helps to prevent “over-
501 rotation” of the whole body (trunk) about this axis.

- 502 • Increased use of non-kicking-side arm rotations about a vertical axis
503 during maximal distance kicking appear to assist the maintenance of
504 accuracy.
- 505 • Coaches should be encouraged to emphasise the importance of these
506 exaggerated non-kicking-side arm rotations about a vertical axis when
507 kickers are striving for greater distance. They may enable a kicker who
508 is accurate in short distance kicks, and who can kick the ball a great
509 distance, to combine these two assets and become a skilled, accurate
510 kicker over large distances.

511

512

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592

593 **Table 1** Average kick accuracy (m) and ball velocity (m/s) (mean \pm SD).

	Subject 1	Subject 2	Subject 3	Subject 4	Subject 5
All trials accuracy	0.38 \pm 0.22	0.27 \pm 0.19	0.57 \pm 0.40	0.57 \pm 0.53	0.22 \pm 0.25
A trials accuracy	0.34 \pm 0.20	0.28 \pm 0.18	0.53 \pm 0.40	0.31 \pm 0.34	0.27 \pm 0.31
D trials accuracy	0.43 \pm 0.23	0.26 \pm 0.20	0.60 \pm 0.45	0.84 \pm 0.58**	0.17 \pm 0.19
All trials ball velocity	22.7 \pm 1.8	24.2 \pm 1.6	23.5 \pm 2.2	23.5 \pm 2.3	21.7 \pm 1.5
A trials ball velocity	21.3 \pm 1.3	23.1 \pm 1.7	21.9 \pm 1.4	21.7 \pm 1.7	20.4 \pm 0.7
D trials ball velocity	24.0 \pm 0.9***	25.3 \pm 0.5*	25.1 \pm 1.5*	25.3 \pm 1.2***	23.0 \pm 0.8***

594 *Abbreviations:* A = accuracy, D = distance. Significantly different from

595 accuracy trials * ($p < 0.05$); ** ($p < 0.01$); *** ($p < 0.001$).

596

597 **Table 2** Normalised average peak angular momentum ((kg·m²)/s) about each
 598 of the three global axes (mean ± SD).

	Subject 1	Subject 2	Subject 3	Subject 4	Subject 5
Max H_X	24.7 ± 1.4	28.7 ± 2.3	29.6 ± 2.2	22.2 ± 1.8	19.5 ± 1.1
Max H_{YAC}	10.1 ± 3.6	14.8 ± 2.8	8.6 ± 2.0	6.9 ± 2.6	15.3 ± 3.2
Max H_{YC}	-25.3 ± 0.8	-16.4 ± 2.3	-20.0 ± 1.4	-14.3 ± 2.8	-14.3 ± 2.3
Max H_Z	17.2 ± 1.6	12.3 ± 1.6	15.5 ± 0.6	10.6 ± 1.9	11.6 ± 1.1
H_Y at BC	0.0 ± 2.7	13.1 ± 2.8	1.9 ± 4.1	3.8 ± 3.4	11.9 ± 3.8

599 *Abbreviations:* H_X = X-component of angular momentum, H_Y = Y-component
 600 of angular momentum, H_{YAC} = Y-component of angular momentum in anti-
 601 clockwise direction, H_{YC} = Y-component of angular momentum in clockwise
 602 direction, H_Z = Z-component of angular momentum, BC = ball contact.

603

604 **Figure 1** Pictorial representation of the reference system used for defining
605 angular momentum about the three orthogonal axes.

606

607 **Figure 2** Segmental contributions to total angular momentum about the X-axis
608 for a trial of subject 2 under accuracy conditions.

609

610 **Figure 3** Segmental contributions to total angular momentum about the Y-axis
611 for a trial of subject 5 under accuracy conditions.

612

613 **Figure 4** Segmental contributions to total angular momentum about the Z-axis
614 for a trial of subject 5 under accuracy conditions.

615

616 **Figure 5** Contribution of the non-kicking-side arm to total angular momentum
617 about the Y-axis at ball contact (mean \pm s). # = significantly different from
618 subjects 1, 3 and 4.

619

620 **Figure 6** Positioning of the kicking leg and non-kicking-side arm relative to the
621 base of support at ball contact (mean \pm s). # = significantly different from
622 subjects 1, 3 and 4.

623

624 **Figure 7** Contribution of the non-kicking-side arm to total angular momentum
625 about the Z-axis at ball contact (mean \pm s). * = significantly different from
626 accuracy trials ($p < 0.01$). # = significantly different from subjects 1, 3 and 4.

627

628 **Figure 8** Lateral trunk lean at ball contact (mean \pm s). # = significantly different

629 from subjects 1, 3 and 4.

630

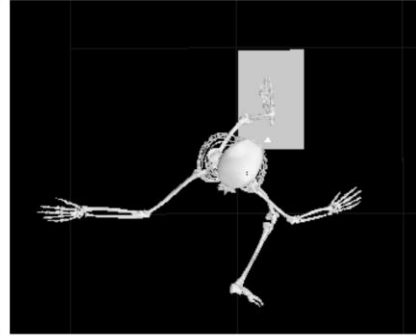
X-axis (H_x)



Y-axis (H_y)



Z-axis (H_z)



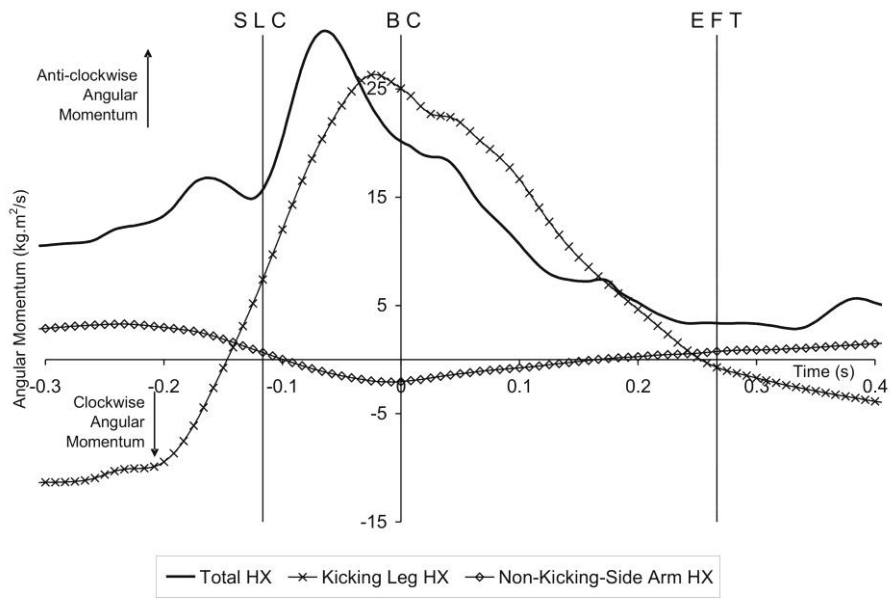
Anti-Clockwise = Positive



Clockwise = Negative

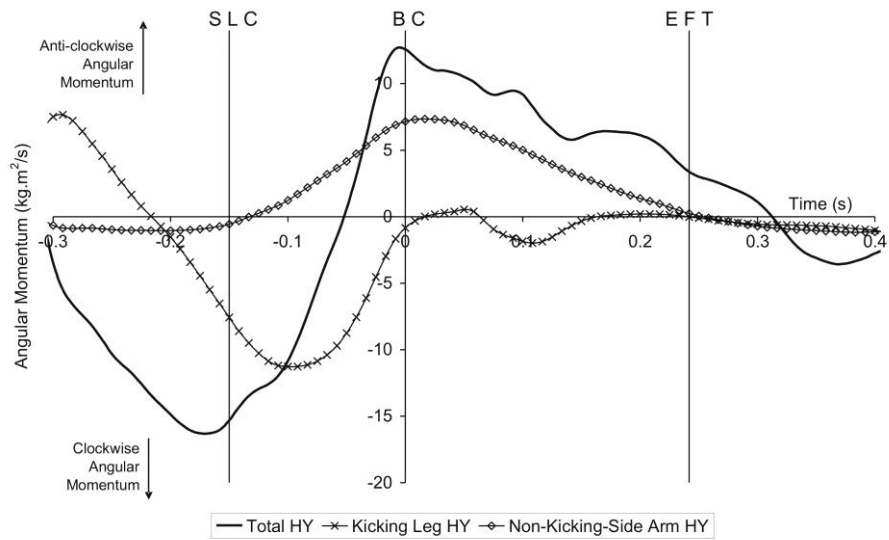
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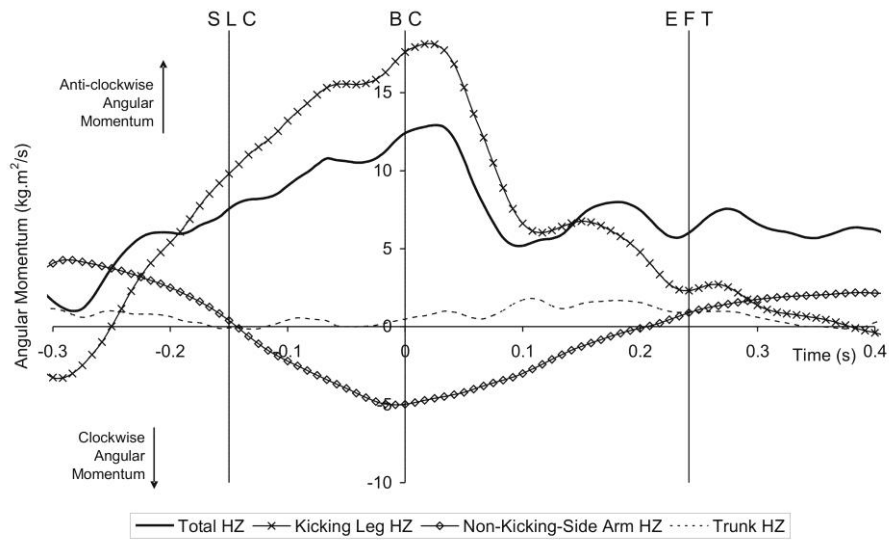
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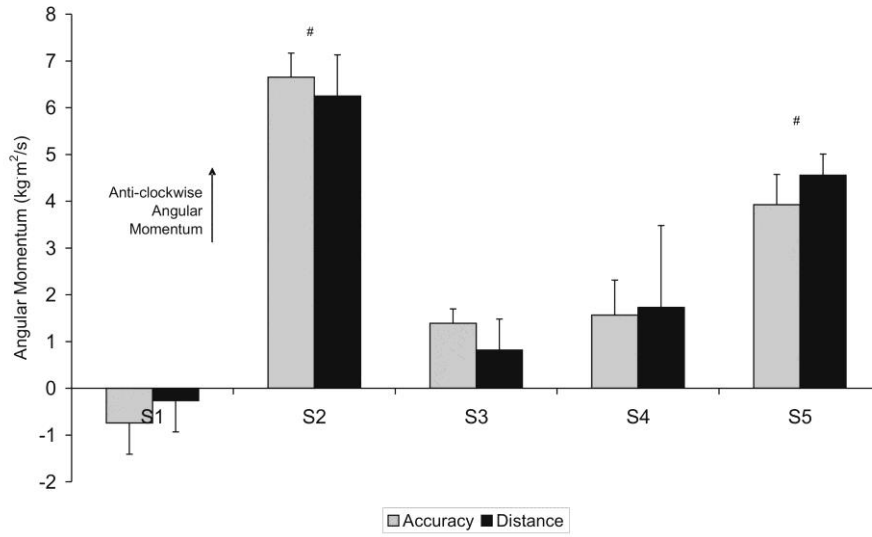
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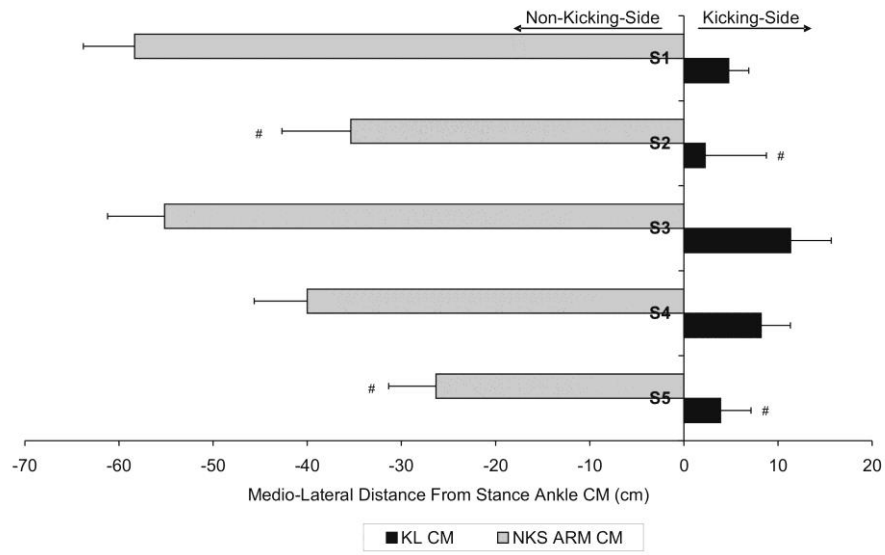
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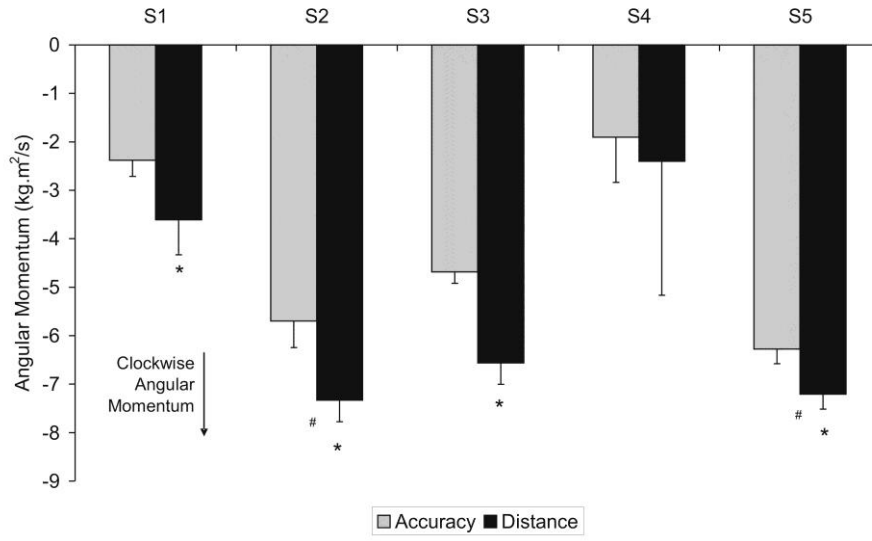
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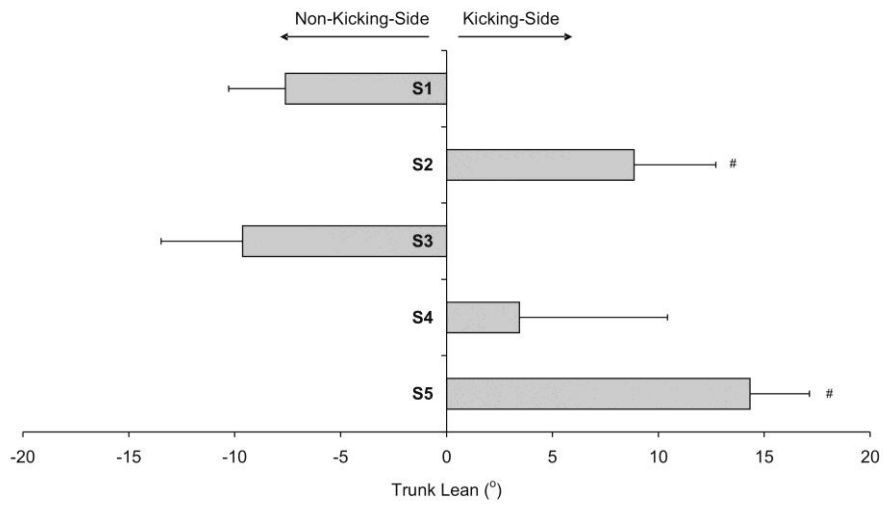
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