



An individualised approach to assess the sidestep manoeuvre in rugby union athletes

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3 1 An individualised approach to assess the sidestep manoeuvre in rugby union athletes
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7
8 3 **Abstract**

9
10 4 The appropriateness by which anterior cruciate ligament injury risk information is commonly
11
12 5 interpreted from, using group/team data, is fundamentally questionable when compared to the
13
14 6 importance of individual differences and their impact on injury risk. This study compared external knee
15
16 7 abduction moments during sidestepping on each leg and to qualitatively assess the differences between
17
18 8 group means and individual athletes. A descriptive cross-sectional study involving sixteen male
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20 9 academy-level rugby union athletes (age, 20 ± 3 years; body-height 1.9 ± 0.1 metres; body-mass $99 \pm$
21
22 10 14 kilograms). Athletes performed three maximal effort sidesteps ($> 6.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) each on the preferred
23
24 11 and non-preferred leg using marker-based three-dimensional motion analysis techniques. Quantitative
25
26 12 comparisons were made between the legs while qualitative comparisons were made between the group
27
28 13 means and the individual athletes. When sidestepping on the non-preferred leg, athletes produced 25%
29
30 14 greater knee abduction moments (ES=0.43) and presented modified postural adjustments associated
31
32 15 with injury risk (extended knee [ES=-0.26; -8%], more trunk lateral flexion [ES=42; 17%] and more
33
34 16 distance between the centre-of-mass and ankle-joint-centre of the stance leg [ES=0.97; 11%]) compared
35
36 17 to the preferred leg. Individually, only 9 out of 16 athletes presented a higher abduction moment in their
37
38 18 non-preferred leg with individual asymmetries ranging between 2.2 and 47%. Nearly half of our athletes
39
40 19 showed the potential to “slip under the radar” of traditional group mean assessments. When assessing
41
42 20 athletes “at risk” for ACL injury, individual data must be examined in conjunction with group means
43
44 21 for a holistic view of the problem.
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50 23 **Keywords:** knee injury, anterior cruciate ligament, biomechanics, screening.
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An Individualised Assessment of the Sidestep 2

24 **INTRODUCTION**

25 Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries occur frequently in sport (8). There is a high
26 frequency of ACL injury rates reported for male athletes (18) wherein the sidestep is the most common
27 manoeuvre associated with non-contact ACL injury (12). During the stance phase of a sidestep the knee
28 experiences applied flexion, abduction and internal rotation moments (1), which are combined loads
29 that increase ACL strain (24). Ligament injury occurs when the external forces exceed the mechanical
30 properties of the tissue; which is believed to occur within the first 30% of stance phase (12, 21).
31 Therefore, assessment and potential interventions to reduce ACL injury have focused on reducing these
32 key kinetic variables, particularly the applied knee abduction moment (11, 13, 15). Kinematic variables
33 that can contribute to increasing external knee abduction moments include smaller knee flexion angle,
34 larger trunk lateral flexion angle, larger distance between the centre-of-mass of the body (COM) and
35 the ankle-joint-centre (AJC) and increased speed and angle of the sidestep (14). Continual sidestepping
36 on a single leg, in addition to the positional requirements of rugby, may then develop or further augment
37 a neuromuscular asymmetry between the legs; potentially affecting lower-extremity injury risk (6, 8).

38
39 During the sidestep, there is evidence to suggest that that female footballers (soccer) are more
40 likely to injure their non-preferred kicking leg; supporting the hypothesis that leg preference contributes
41 to the aetiology of non-contact ACL injuries (3). To our knowledge, there are only two (9, 26)
42 biomechanical studies that have attempted to examine joint moments with respect to leg preference
43 during sidestepping; providing limited support to the retrospective evidence. Brown and colleagues (9)
44 also found that female footballers experienced greater external abduction moments in the non-preferred
45 leg while sidestepping, however in contrast, Marshall and colleagues (26) found that male rugby athletes
46 experienced greater internal varus (external abduction) moments in the preferred leg. While the
47 differences in knee abduction moment between legs of both studies were only small ($ES = \sim 0.2$), the
48 information regarding differences between the legs aligns with the retrospective evidence seen by
49 Brophy et al. (3). However as both studies incorporated different athletes, methods and analyses, any
50 meaningful inference of the combined data is difficult at this time; yet the idea remains promising.

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3 52 Following traditional data collection procedures of the sidestep, information is typically
4
5 53 reported as group means and standard deviations (8). By using means, researchers are able to group
6
7 54 athletes together to make meaningful inferences based on the data; *i.e.* difference between the means,
8
9 55 spread of the data, etc. While this is an important structure to have when comparing 40-m sprint
10
11 56 performance for example, group means also have the potential to miss individual variability within and
12
13 57 between athletes. Individual responses have previously been observed in footwear comfort perception,
14
15 58 leading authors (29) to comment on the importance of evaluating individual results when making
16
17 59 decisions that may ultimately affect the group. When evaluating variables that are associated with injury
18
19 60 risk (*i.e.* external knee abduction moment during sidestepping), missing individuals that may need
20
21 61 further attention is counterintuitive to the very purpose of injury risk assessments (4). While few authors
22
23 62 (1, 28) have mentioned the ability for unique knee mechanics to be present while sidestepping, a full
24
25 63 inclusion and subsequent dissemination of individual knee abduction moments while sidestepping
26
27 64 among a similar athlete cohort has yet to be performed.
28
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32

33 66 The main purpose of this research was two-fold: firstly, we wanted to assess the sidestep
34
35 67 manoeuvre at velocities and angles similar to what might be performed in rugby union match-play and
36
37 68 then examine the differences in external knee abduction moment at weight acceptance between the
38
39 69 preferred and non-preferred legs; secondly, we wanted to qualitatively compare the differences between
40
41 70 group means and individual means of external knee abduction moment during weight acceptance.
42
43 71 Falling in line with similar sidestepping research (9, 14, 15), we theorised that the non-preferred leg
44
45 72 would present greater “at risk” mechanics (*i.e.* larger abduction moments during weight acceptance
46
47 73 along with less knee flexion, greater distance between the COM and AJC and more lateral trunk flexion
48
49 74 during initial contact) compared to the preferred leg. We also speculated that the athletes would present
50
51 75 a substantial range of individual differences in knee abduction moments between the legs during
52
53 76 sidestepping. This final venture was proposed based on similar rugby codes research showing a
54
55 77 substantial range of differences between the legs in other biomechanical measures like strength and
56
57 78 sprint mechanics (5, 6).
58
59
60 79

An Individualised Assessment of the Sidestep 4

80 **METHODS**81 **Experimental Approach to the Problem**

82 A cross-sectional design was used to compare external knee abduction moments between legs
83 during a maximal effort sidestep ($> 6.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and assess the qualitative differences between group mean
84 and individual data. Testing occurred during the athletes' off-season after ~ 24 h of rest. At the time of
85 this study all athletes were free from injury in the previous six months, either chronic or acute, that may
86 have inhibited them from performing the required sidestepping task. All athletes were cleared by the
87 team's medical staff for full competitive play.

89 **Athletes**

90 Sixteen male academy (high-performance development) rugby athletes (mean \pm SD; age $20 \pm$
91 3 yr, body-height 1.9 ± 0.1 m, body-mass 99 ± 14 kg, body-mass index 29 ± 4 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) participated in
92 this research. Athletes consisted of forwards ($n = 12$) and backs ($n = 4$) from European and Pacific
93 Island descent and had an average playing experience of 11 ± 4 yr, encompassing >151 matches played
94 per athlete. Fifteen athletes indicated their right leg as their preferred kicking leg while one forward
95 specified the left leg; denoted as the leg at which they preferred to kick the ball with or which they could
96 kick the furthest with.

97
98 The *Sample-size estimation* Excel spreadsheet for use with magnitude based inferences (found
99 at sportsci.org) identified a minimum of 16 athletes were necessary to show a clear effect with the
100 smallest worthwhile difference of 0.20 when using a kinetic effect size of 0.42 from similar research
101 (9) and concurrent analysis of the collected kinetic data of the present study (19). Constraints from
102 many of the athletes' professional contracts resulted in only 16 "healthy and cleared-to-play" athletes
103 available for testing. All procedures used in this study were approved by the Auckland University of
104 Technology Ethics Committee (#13/378) and all athletes provided their informed verbal and written
105 consent prior to data collection.

106

107 **Procedures**

108 All athletes were fitted with identical, size appropriate compression clothing (Nike Pro
109 Compression, Nike, Inc., Beaverton, OR, USA) and wore the same cross-training shoes (GEL-
110 KUROW, ASICS Ltd., Kobe, JPN). Athletes performed a general self-selected lower-extremity
111 dynamic warm-up, identical to the team's weight training, practice and game warm-up procedures. All
112 athletes in this study preformed a planned sidestepping manoeuvre in each direction (9).

113
114 The sidestepping task was performed on an indoor track surface (Sportflex Super X, Mondo
115 U.S.A. Inc., Conshohocken, PA, USA) using the athlete's preferred and non-preferred leg ($n = 15$ right,
116 $n = 1$ left). Athletes were given a 10-m runway in which to maximally accelerate before performing a
117 sidestep into a channel located at 45° from the centre of the force platform and then maximally
118 reaccelerating out to complete the task. Specifically, an athlete would step with their right foot when
119 sidestepping to the left and vice versa. Athletes were verbally and visually instructed on how to perform
120 the sidestepping task and were allowed adequate familiarisation of the protocol. Testing began only
121 when they felt comfortable with performing the movement at a maximal effort. When ready, athletes
122 completed a minimum of three trials in each direction given in a random order. A successful trial
123 consisted of athletes reaching an approach velocity of $\geq 6.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, striking the force platform completely
124 with the sidestepping foot and executing the task as quickly as possible to closely simulate the
125 requirements of a match situation. Sidestepping velocity was determined in real-time by a Stalker
126 Acceleration Testing System (ATS) II radar device (Model: Stalker ATS II, Applied Concepts, Dallas,
127 TX, USA) secured to a tripod positioned 3-m behind the starting line at a height of 1-m above the
128 ground, approximately in-line with the athlete's COM. Tape lines the same width of the force platform
129 (600-mm) were provided to direct athletes through the initial runway and the 45° exit paths (**Figure 1**).

130 INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

131
132 At the beginning of the collection, a laboratory calibration were completed to establish the
133 capture volume (collection area) and position of the nine-cameras (T10S, Vicon Motion System Ltd.,

An Individualised Assessment of the Sidestep 6

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3 134 Oxford, GBR) relative to each other and the laboratory origin (front right corner of the force platform
4
5 135 [Type 9287C, Kistler Instrumente AG, Winterthur, CHE]). To create a three-dimensional model for
6
7 136 analysis, the University of Western Australia full-body marker set (2, 14, 23) was modified to include
8
9 137 additional spherical retro-reflective markers (10-mm width) to improve redundancy through the
10
11 138 dynamic sidestepping manoeuvre (78 total). All markers were placed on specific anatomical locations
12
13 139 by a highly trained, Level-3 certified ISAK anthropometrist. The upper-body model (32 markers)
14
15 140 consisted of eight single markers placed on the left/right superior border of the acromion process,
16
17 141 superior border of the manubrium (sternal notch), inferior boarder of the xiphoid process, spinous
18
19 142 process of the seventh cervical and tenth thoracic vertebrae and left/right inferior angle of the scapulae
20
21 143 to create the 'thorax' segment and eight single markers placed on the medial/lateral epicondyles of the
22
23 144 humerus and on the styloid processes of the ulna and radius of both arms to create the 'upper-arm' and
24
25 145 'lower-arm' segments. The lower-body model (46 markers) consisted of six single markers placed on
26
27 146 the left/right iliac crest and left/right posterior/anterior superior iliac spines to create the 'pelvis'
28
29 147 segment, ten single markers placed on the left/right greater trochanters, medial/lateral femoral condyles
30
31 148 and medial/lateral malleoli of both legs to create the 'upper-leg' and 'lower-leg' segments and fourteen
32
33 149 single markers placed on the superior/inferior posterior calcaneus, navicular tuberosity, cuboid and head
34
35 150 of the first, third and fifth metatarsals of both feet to create the 'foot' segment. Additionally, four-marker
36
37 151 cluster sets attached to thermo-moulded plastic shells were added to the upper- and lower- arm and leg
38
39 152 segments to increase redundancy about the joints (**Figure 2**).

40
41
42
43 153 INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE
44
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46
47 155 Static and range-of-motion calibration trails were performed on the individual athletes using
48
49 156 Vicon Nexus software. Elbow, wrist, knee and ankle medial markers were removed after the calibration
50
51 157 trials were complete to allow for the dynamic movement of the testing protocol. Athlete-specific helical-
52
53 158 axis joint centre locations for the hips and knees were calculated from the range of motion trials (hip
54
55 159 star and squats respectively) using a custom-made MATLAB programme (R2014b, The MathWork,
56
57 160 Inc., Natick, MA, USA) (2, 31). Synchronised three-dimensional motion (100 Hz) and ground reaction
58
59 161 force (1000 Hz) data were filtered with the same low-pass fourth-order zero-lag Butterworth filter using

1
2
3 162 a cutoff frequency of 16 Hz in Visual 3D (4.91.0, C-Motion, Inc., Germantown, MD, USA) based on
4
5 163 residual analysis and visual inspection of the kinematic and kinetic data (22).
6

7 164
8

9 165 Sidestepping performance variables (*i.e.* velocity, angle and stance time of the sidestep) were
10
11 166 calculated in Visual 3D to allow comparison between the preferred and non-preferred leg. Sidestep
12
13 167 velocity ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) was calculated via tracking the athlete's COM before (approach) and after (depart) the
14
15 168 stance phase. Stance time (s) was calculated from the instant vertical force rose above 10 N (initial
16
17 169 contact) to the time vertical force dropped below 10 N (final contact). Sidestep angle (θ) was calculated
18
19 170 using the x- and y-coordinates of the stance foot AJC at initial contact (x_1 and y_1) and the coordinates
20
21 171 of the contralateral AJC at final contact (x_2 and y_2) using Equation 1 (**Figure 3**):
22

23
24
25 172 1. Sidestep angle (θ) = $\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)$;

26
27 173 where

28
29 174 $a = |x_2 - x_1|$ and $b = |y_2 - y_1|$.
30
31 175

32
33 176 Sidestepping mechanical variables (*i.e.* knee flexion angle, trunk lateral flexion and COM to AJC
34
35 177 distance) were also calculated in Visual 3D during initial contact. Knee flexion angle (θ) was defined
36
37 178 as the angle between the thigh and shank segments, where full knee extension represented 0° of knee
38
39 179 flexion. Trunk lateral flexion angle was defined as the angle between the thorax (trunk) and the ground;
40
41 180 where a straight posture represented 0° of trunk lateral flexion. The COM to AJC distance (m) is was
42
43 181 calculated using the x-coordinates of the COM (x_3) and the AJC (x_1) using Equation 2 (**Figure 3**):
44

45
46 182 2. Distance from the centre-of-mass to the ankle-joint-centre (m) = $|x_3 - x_1|$.
47

48 183 INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE
49
50 184

51
52 185 Finally, knee abduction moments were calculated using standard inverse dynamics equations and
53
54 186 were defined as those externally applied to the segment's distal end. Moments were normalised to body-
55
56 187 mass and body-height ($\text{Nm}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$) and time data were normalised to stance phase (%; from initial
57
58 188 contact to final contact) to facilitate comparison between all athletes. Moment data were analysed during
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An Individualised Assessment of the Sidestep 8

1
2
3 189 weight acceptance (the average between initial contact and the first trough in the unfiltered vertical
4
5 190 ground reaction data [Figure 4a]) (8). Initial contact and weight acceptance phases were calculated
6
7 191 using a custom-made MATLAB programme (9). Individual asymmetries were calculated using a non-
8
9 192 dimensional modified symmetry angle equation (37) to report the absolute difference of external knee
10
11 193 abduction moments between the legs (preferred leg versus the non-preferred leg) described in Equation
12
13 194 3 (Figure 4b). This equation was chosen as it does not require an arbitrary reference leg, is unaffected
14
15 195 by artificial inflation by near-zero numbers and is useful in determining clinically relevant information
16
17 196 in sports science (16, 17, 37). In-line with previous research (37), we decided to implement an initial
18
19 197 15% threshold as a means for separating the data into “acceptable” ranges of symmetry (< 15%) and
20
21 198 asymmetry ($\geq 15\%$) such that the interpretation of the data would change between the two groups.

$$22 \quad 23 \quad 24 \quad 25 \quad 26 \quad 27 \quad 28 \quad 29 \quad 30 \quad 31 \quad 32 \quad 33 \quad 34 \quad 35 \quad 36 \quad 37 \quad 38 \quad 39 \quad 40 \quad 41 \quad 42 \quad 43 \quad 44 \quad 45 \quad 46 \quad 47 \quad 48 \quad 49 \quad 50 \quad 51 \quad 52 \quad 53 \quad 54 \quad 55 \quad 56 \quad 57 \quad 58 \quad 59 \quad 60$$

$$199 \quad 200 \quad 201 \quad 202 \quad 203 \quad 204$$

$$3. \text{ Absolute symmetry angle } (ABS\theta_{SYM}) = \frac{\left| 45 - \left(\tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\text{preferred}}{\text{non-preferred}} \right] \right) \right|}{90} \times 100;$$

but if

$$\left| 45 - \left(\tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\text{preferred}}{\text{non-preferred}} \right] \right) \right| > 90,$$

then

$$(ABS\theta_{SYM}) = \frac{\left| 45 - \left(\tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\text{Preferred}}{\text{Non-preferred}} \right] - 180 \right) \right|}{90} \times 100.$$

Statistical Analyses

The *Post-only crossover* Excel spreadsheet employing magnitude-based inferences (found at sportsci.org) was used to describe the standardised effects of leg preference on knee mechanics (20). The preferred leg was chosen as the reference in this study as it is commonly chosen for analysis purposes (9). Uncertainty in the estimates of effects on leg preference was expressed at 90% confidence limits and as probabilities that the true value of the effect was substantially negative (-ive) and positive (+ive). Qualitative probabilistic inferences regarding the true effect were then made (20). If the probabilities of the true effect being substantially positive and negative were both >5%, the effect was expressed as unclear; otherwise the effect was clear and expressed as the non-clinical (mechanistic) magnitude of standardised effects with threshold values of <0.2, 0.2, 0.6, 1.2 for trivial, small, moderate

215 and large differences respectively (20). The scale for interpreting the probabilities was: 25-75%,
216 possibly (*); 75-95%, likely (**); 95-99.5%, very likely (***) and >99.5%, most (or extremely) likely
217 (****).

218

219 RESULTS

220 Performance variables executed on the preferred and non-preferred leg are presented in Table

221 1. All athletes displayed similar approach velocity (ES = 0.045), depart velocity (ES = -0.057) and
222 sidestep angle (ES = -0.19) when comparing sidestepping off the preferred and non-preferred legs.

223 There was a clear but small difference in absolute stance time (ES = -0.23) between the legs; further

224 justifying the normalisation of the kinematic and kinetic data to stance time. All mechanical variables

225 showed clear differences between the preferred and non-preferred legs as presented in Table 1. The

226 non-preferred leg demonstrated 8% smaller knee flexion angles (ES = -0.26), 17% larger trunk lateral

227 flexion angles (ES = 0.42) and 11% larger COM to AJC distance (ES = 0.97) during initial contact of

228 the sidestep.

229 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

230

231 Figure 4a illustrates (in grey) the small but clear difference between the group average for knee

232 external abduction moments during weight acceptance for the preferred leg compared to the non-

233 preferred leg (0.61 ± 0.32 and 0.76 ± 0.44 $\text{Nm} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{m}^{-1}$, respectively; ES = 0.43; 25%). Individual

234 athlete averages for knee abduction moments, presented in Figure 4b, shows seven athletes have a -ive

235 slope (44%; larger average external knee abduction moment in the preferred leg) while nine have a +ive

236 slope (56%; larger average external knee abduction moment in the non-preferred leg). Also within this

237 cohort, just over half of the athletes (56%) presented “acceptable” symmetry angle scores (< 15%;

238 range: 2.2 – 14), whereas the remaining 44% presented asymmetrical scores ($\geq 15\%$; range: 15 – 47).

239 INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE

240

241 DISCUSSION

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1
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3 242 The sidestep manoeuvre is a very unique movement which is associated with high ACL injury
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5 243 risk. The continued examination of sidestepping has greatly increased our knowledge of non-contact
6
7 244 ACL epidemiology in sport and has aided in the creation of helpful injury prevention training
8
9 245 programmes. To enhance ecological validity, the sidestepping task has become more sport-specific to
10
11 246 replicate the typical demands the athlete would experience at the time of injury by increasing the
12
13 247 velocity, including a ball, and affecting reaction time, decision-making and complexity to name a few.
14
15 248 A primary component of the current study was to replicate the faster velocity of the sidestep to closely
16
17 249 resemble those experienced in male rugby union athletes; as such, approach velocity was constrained
18
19 250 to $\geq 6.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Our two-fold purpose was to examine non-contact ACL injury risk via knee abduction
20
21 251 moment at weight acceptance in the preferred and non-preferred legs: (1) using standard quantitative
22
23 252 techniques of obtaining group means; and (2) using a qualitative method to investigate individual
24
25 253 variability within/between the athletes. While both methods showed clear results, they provide different
26
27 254 views into injury risk status and unique insight into subsequent injury prevention strategies.
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31 255

32
33 256 To our knowledge, this is the first sidestepping study where the athletes were required to
34
35 257 produce an approach velocity of $\geq 6.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ with a subsequent maximal acceleration out of the sidestep.
36
37 258 Rapid entry and exit from the sidestep replicates the goals of the manoeuvre during match play (34).
38
39 259 While the exit angle was controlled, the actual sidestep angle was calculated and reported in order to
40
41 260 present the true angle based off foot placement. We found that the increased velocities of the task
42
43 261 resulted in a decreased sidestep angle ($\sim 24^\circ$) from the initial 45° pathways used to direct the athletes
44
45 262 exit strategy. Previous literature (8) has also observed higher velocities associated with greater
46
47 263 differences between the actual and attempted sidestep angle. The sidestepping angle was considered a
48
49 264 secondary performance variable compared to the overall velocity of the movement, therefore angle was
50
51 265 not a constraint in the study design; rather, an informative addition. As a purpose of this study was to
52
53 266 replicate the sidestep in a match like manner, exit velocity was monitored and quantified to assess and
54
55 267 comment on the athletes' ability to reaccelerate following the change-of-direction; a common
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57 268 performance variable (30, 36). The athletes' ability to reaccelerate after the stance phase of the sidestep
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An Individualised Assessment of the Sidestep 11

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3 269 was affected only marginally ($6.1 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; 6.9% decrease from the approach velocity), highlighting the
4
5 270 athletes' skill at effective energy transfer during the stance phase (10).

6
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8

9 272 The average group external abduction moments at the knee during weight acceptance showed
10
11 273 a small and clear difference between the legs. Brown et al. (9) previously reported a 19% greater
12
13 274 external abduction moment during the weight acceptance phase of the sidestep in the non-preferred leg
14
15 275 compared to the preferred leg in National Collegiate Athletic Association Division I female footballers.
16
17 276 Similarly, our results show a 25% greater abduction moment for the non-preferred leg compared to the
18
19 277 preferred leg. Brown et al. (9) surmised that the mechanical differences found between the legs may
20
21 278 have resulted in greater knee flexion velocity and greater power absorption during the braking phase
22
23 279 (weight acceptance) coupled with a larger internal rotation angle, thus potentially increasing the tension
24
25 280 of the ACL in the non-preferred leg. The absolute magnitude of the abduction moment produced by the
26
27 281 male rugby athletes in the current study is up to 4x greater than that produced by female footballers (9)
28
29 282 and 2.5x greater than that of similar male athletes (8); even when normalised to body-mass and body-
30
31 283 height. It is proposed that the greater velocity of the side step approach and exit contributed to the
32
33 284 increased moments.
34
35
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37
38

39 286 While sidestepping on the non-preferred leg we observed a decreased knee flexion angle (a
40
41 287 more extended stance leg), an increased trunk lateral flexion angle (leaning more towards the stance leg
42
43 288 side) and an increased distance between the COM and AJC (the stance leg is further away from the
44
45 289 body) compared to the preferred leg. Landing with the leg in a more extended position can increase the
46
47 290 resultant strain at the ACL (24, 25). Additionally, while sidestepping off of the non-preferred leg,
48
49 291 athletes showed greater trunk lateral flexion angles and a further distance between the COM and AJC
50
51 292 compared to sidestepping on the preferred leg; both of which have been shown to increase knee
52
53 293 abduction moments (14). Our results were slightly larger compared to previous research (13, 14) that
54
55 294 reported lateral trunk flexion angles between $7\text{--}8^\circ$ (compared to our $14\text{--}17^\circ$) and COM to AJC distances
56
57 295 between $34\text{--}37\text{cm}$ (compared to our $36\text{--}40\text{cm}$). The greater kinematic differences found in our study
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59 296 may also be explained by the larger body-mass (80 vs 99kg) and/or faster velocity (5.7 vs $6.5\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) in

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2
3 297 this rugby union cohort. Additionally, as the location of the AJC gets further away from the body, the
4
5 298 trunk needs to laterally flex more to ensure the COM stays close to the base-of-support to maintain
6
7 299 balance during the sidestep, explaining the increase in both variables.
8

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10
11 301 Group means and standard deviations are frequently used in sports science research when
12
13 302 describing a certain attribute of a cohort. However, an individual and detailed look at each athlete should
14
15 303 be performed to benefit all athletes. Said beautifully by Mündermann and colleagues (29),
16
17 304 "...subgroups of individuals exist and that the evaluation of individual results can reveal important
18
19 305 information that may not be obtained by the analysis of group means." The current study reinforces the
20
21 306 idea that individual differences have great potential to be masked by group means, as seen in our results.
22
23 307 Another purpose of this research was to qualitatively compare the group means to the individual data
24
25 308 when assessing abduction moments at weight acceptance as a surrogate for injury risk. Figure 4b shows
26
27 309 all sixteen athletes' individual and mean abduction moment values produced by both legs and compared
28
29 310 to the group mean (discussed previously).
30
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32 311

33
34 312 Presenting the data individually allows for three important observations: (1) variability within
35
36 313 each athletes' leg (the vertical spread of the Xs and Os); (2) each athletes' deviation from the group
37
38 314 mean (the vertical distance between the solid back squares and the grey lines); and (3) symmetry within
39
40 315 each athlete (the positive/negative slope of the black lines). As seen in the results, each of these
41
42 316 observations were unique to the athlete. A somewhat balanced distribution was apparent between the
43
44 317 number of athletes that produced larger abduction moments on their preferred leg versus those that
45
46 318 produced larger abduction moments on their non-preferred leg (9/7 respectively). Interestingly, the
47
48 319 athletes that were furthest outside the group mean (#8 and 15) or showed the largest asymmetry (#16)
49
50 320 did so by producing larger abduction moments on their non-preferred leg. The larger moments
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52 321 experienced could have been a result of the larger kinematic alterations while sidestepping off of the
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54 322 non-preferred leg, or perhaps the result of a greater hip abduction and/or internal rotation moments
55
56 323 which have been found to increase knee abduction moments during sidestepping (27). Lower-extremity
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58 324 strength could also play a role in the results, as hip strength (the ability to stabilise the hip/pelvis of the
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An Individualised Assessment of the Sidestep 13

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3 325 stance leg while decelerating) has been shown to be an important factor of body position during
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5 326 sidestepping (32, 33). The influence of hip strength on sidestepping mechanics warrants further
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7 327 investigation as rugby union athletes have been shown to possess strength asymmetries at the hip across
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9 328 multiple levels of experience (6, 7).

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13 330 The current study illuminated several interesting findings with regards to the sidestep
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15 331 manoeuvre in male rugby athletes. From a task acquisition stand-point, all athletes performed the task
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17 332 to a similar level of efficiency and completed the sidestep manoeuvre within the provided 45° paths at
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19 333 the required velocity of $\geq 6.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Upon closed look however, the athletes presented unique postural
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21 334 techniques while sidestepping potentially increasing knee abduction moment in the non-preferred leg.
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23 335 While these unique postures have been proposed to increase ACL injury risk (14), to our knowledge
24
25 336 there has been only one attempt where authors (9) suggested a clear distinction in knee mechanics
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27 337 between the preferred and non-preferred legs. Similarly, our findings suggest that the non-preferred leg
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29 338 may experience a greater risk of injury while sidestepping by an inability to establish an appropriate
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31 339 posture; thus placing the body in an “at risk” position and directing more of the external force towards
32
33 340 the knee and challenging its structural integrity to resist an abducted (valgus) position.
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36
37 342 We feel it is important to acknowledge limitations in the current study to give context to the
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39 343 interpretations of our findings. First, while we attempted to improve the ecological validity of the
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41 344 sidestep as it pertains to male rugby union athletes, our study was still conducted in a laboratory-based
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43 345 setting. As such, the interpretation of the results should account for additional environmental factors
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45 346 such as surface, footwear and climate that may potentially affect sidestepping mechanics (35). Second,
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47 347 unplanned sidestepping more accurately represents the task demands of match play (8) however, we
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49 348 were not ethically permitted to perform such a modification on the professionally contracted athletes in
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51 349 the current study due to the potential for increasing injury risk. Future authors whom are not confined
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53 350 with such limitations should examine a similar experimental process with the inclusion of unplanned
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55 351 sidestepping to gain greater insight into the importance of the neuromuscular system (22). Third, while
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57 352 our sample size was sufficient enough to detect a small worthwhile change (an effect size of at least
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An Individualised Assessment of the Sidestep 14

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3 353 0.20) between the legs, a larger sample may show a smaller, equal or greater variation of individual
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5 354 responses of knee abduction moments during the sidestep compared to the data in the current study.
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7 355 Fourth, we expressed the probability levels of ACL injury risk based on scaled differences in knee
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9 356 mechanics between the two legs. During which, the knee mechanics of the preferred leg served as the
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11 357 reference leg. Thus, results from this study are only comparable with ACL injury risk studies of similar
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13 358 statistical analyses at this time (9).
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18 360 While our observations that the non-preferred leg of the *group* of athletes is at an increased risk
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20 361 of injury risk are correct, the interpretations can show a substantially different picture when accounting
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22 362 for the *individual* athlete. For example, if the group results from this study were interpreted as:
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24 363 ‘increase lower-extremity strength, postural stability and sidestepping technique in the non-preferred
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26 364 leg to decrease external knee abduction moments and injury risk’, nearly half (44%) of the athletes may
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28 365 have missed out on any beneficial training effect. However if the individual results from this study were
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30 366 interpreted as: ‘each athlete presents a unique injury risk profile while sidestepping and must therefore
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32 367 be given an individualised training programme to decrease external knee abduction moments and injury
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34 368 risk’, the potential for a greater percentage of the group benefitting from a training effect would
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36 369 theoretically increase. Unfortunately these final statements are purely speculative at this time as there
37
38 370 is little to no research investigating the effects of individualised injury prevention training to decrease
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40 371 external knee abduction moments while sidestepping among a group of male rugby athletes; accounting
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42 372 for each leg as a unique structure with unique attributes.
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46
47 374 Moving forward, we suggest the continuation of examining “at risk” scenarios (*i.e.*
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49 375 sidestepping) in athletes but with the inclusion of individual results to show the true spread of the data
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51 376 and to highlight athletes requiring special attention outside of the traditional team training prescription.
52
53 377 Whether this information is presented within the academic journal article itself or via appendices,
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55 378 supplemental material or other online source (ResearchGate.net ‘Dataset’) is solely up to the discretion
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57 379 of the authors and/or journal editors. Further, while the inclusion of both legs in any injury risk
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59 380 assessment seems paramount to the complete picture of an athlete’s status to subsequently base injury
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3 381 prevention recommendations, research is greatly lacking in this area. Although symmetrical athletes are
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5 382 thought to exist (and perhaps even seen on occasion), realistically the majority of athletes (especially
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7 383 male rugby athletes [as seen in the current study]) will have some sort of unique asymmetry as a result
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9 384 of genetics, sport, previous injury or other. When assessing injury risk, our job as sports scientists or
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11 385 clinicians is to find the asymmetry and provide direction to strength and conditioning practitioners.
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13 386

14 387 **PERSPECTIVE**

- 15 388 • Interpreting group mean data in isolation has the potential to mask the athletes whom may be
16 389 “at risk” for ACL injury and whom might benefit the greatest from a targeted intervention;
- 17 390 • Healthy male rugby athletes show a somewhat equal distribution of injury risk (large external
18 391 knee abduction moment) on each leg while sidestepping at a maximal velocity;
- 19 392 • Injury risk assessments should be examined on an individual and group basis to illuminate
20 393 athletes whom (1) are outside of normal / expected group limits; (2) have high levels of
21 394 variability within the movement; and / or (3) show large asymmetries.
22

23 395

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PROOF

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3 506 **FIGURE LEGEND**

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5 507 **Figure 1.** Experimental setup.

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9 509 **Figure 2.** The Auckland University of Technology (AUT) full-body marker set.

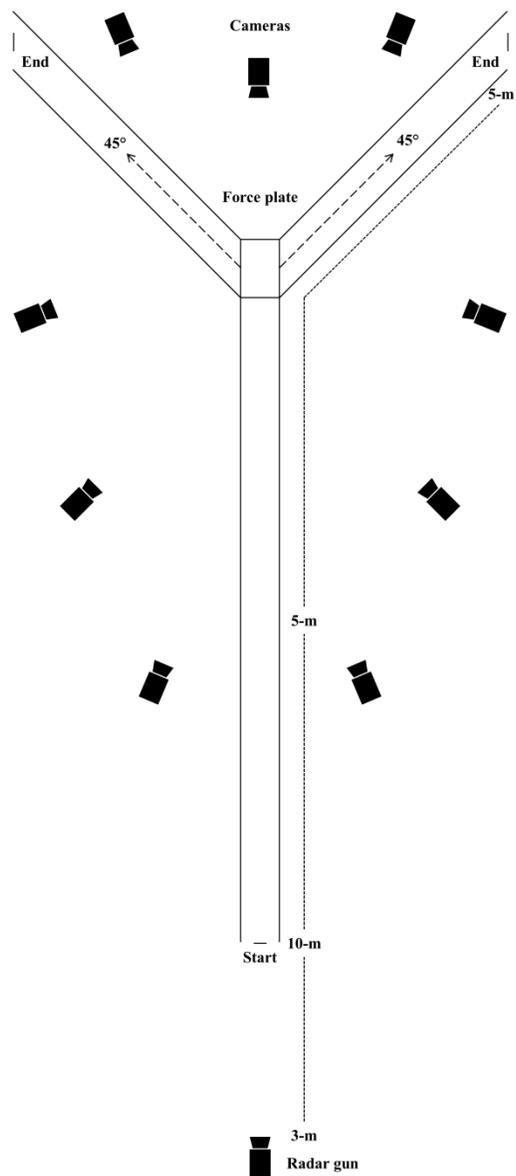
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13 511 **Figure 3.** Sidestepping variable configuration. *a*, opposite side length; *b*, adjacent side length; *d*,
14 512 distance; θ , theta or ‘angle’; AJC, ankle-joint-centre; COM, centre-of-mass; (*x*, *y*), coordinates.

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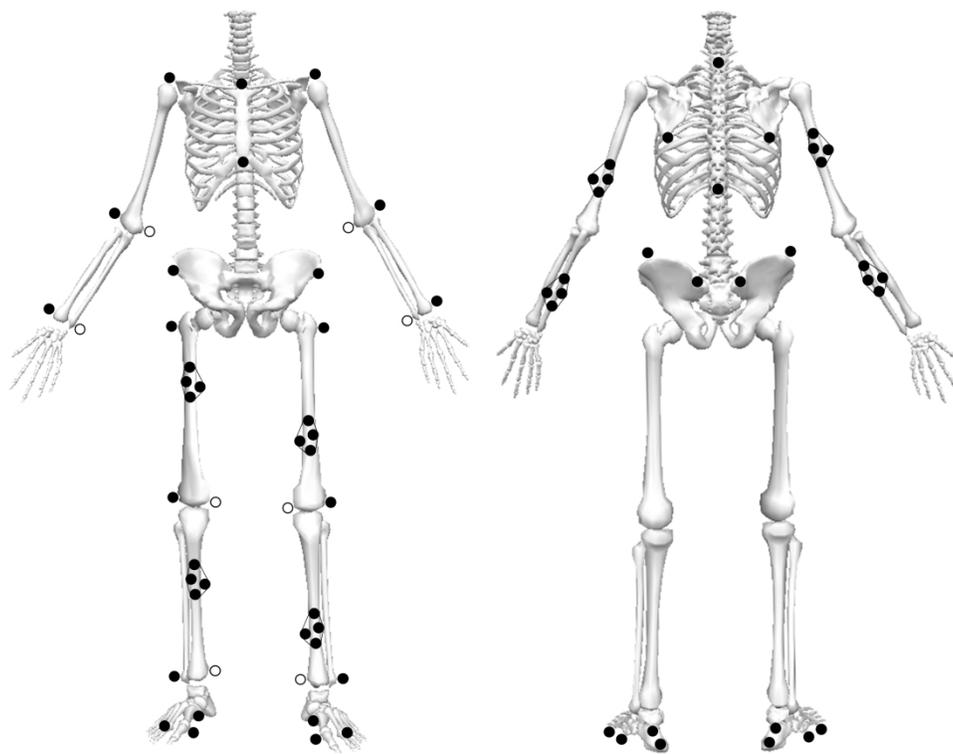
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18 514 **Figure 4. (a)** Group mean unfiltered vertical ground reaction force (Newton per kilogram of body-mass
19 515 [$\text{N}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$]) during sidestepping for the preferred (solid black line) and non-preferred (dashed black line)
20 516 leg. Group mean external knee abduction moments (Newton-metre per kilogram of body-mass per
21 517 metre of body-height [$\text{N}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$]) during sidestepping for the preferred (solid grey line) and non-
22 518 preferred (dashed grey line) leg. Small inference; **likely, 75–94%. +ive; substantial positive change
23 519 of the non-preferred leg relative to the preferred. **(b)** Individual peak external knee abduction moments
24 520 (Newton-metre per kilogram of body-mass per metre of body-height [$\text{N}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$]) during weight
25 521 acceptance of sidestepping for sixteen individual male rugby athletes. Data shown (Xs and Os) are each
26 522 trial of the sidestep manoeuvre performed on the preferred and non-preferred leg respectively. Solid
27 523 black squares represent the average of the three trials on each leg. Solid and dashed grey bars represent
28 524 group mean data for the preferred and non-preferred legs respectively. Data are presented in ascending
29 525 order based on 1.) the negative (-ive) and positive (+ive) slope of the solid line connecting the average
30 526 moment data of each leg [a negative slope signifies the preferred leg experienced a larger external knee
31 527 abduction moment whereas a positive slope signifies the non-preferred leg experienced a larger
32 528 moment]; and 2.) the absolute symmetry angle score shown in brackets beneath the athlete’s number.

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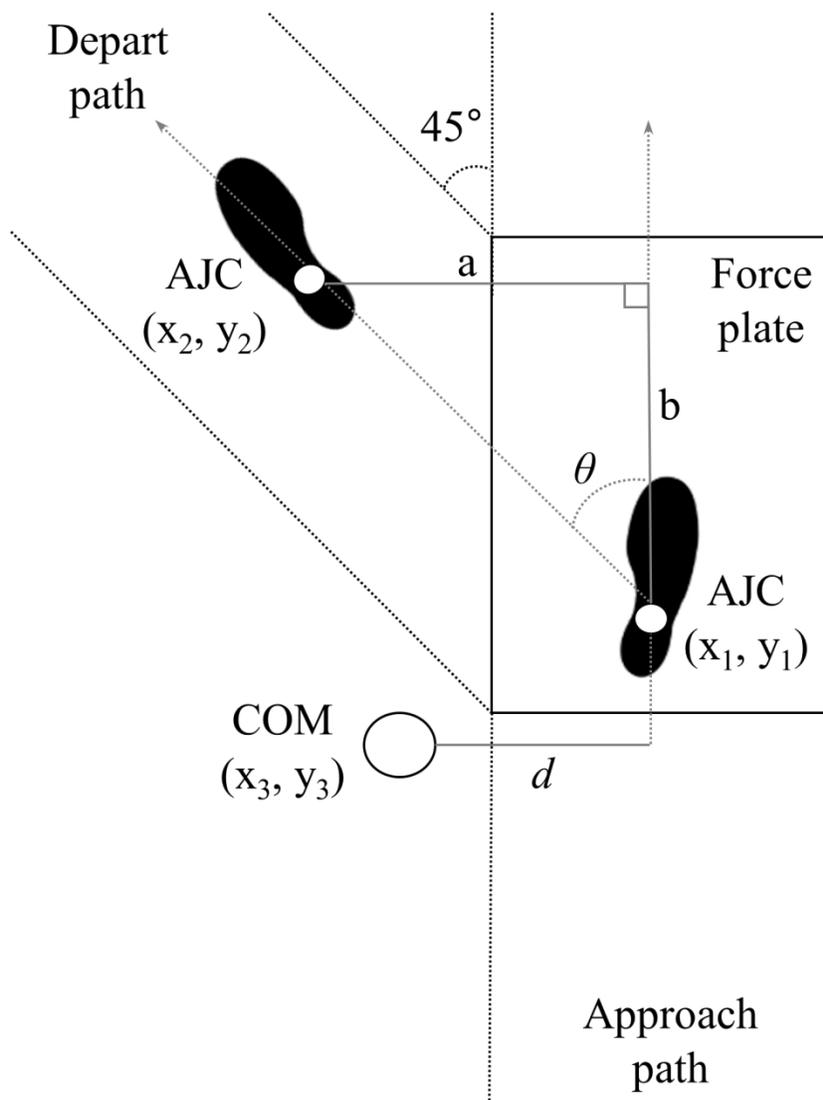


Anterior view

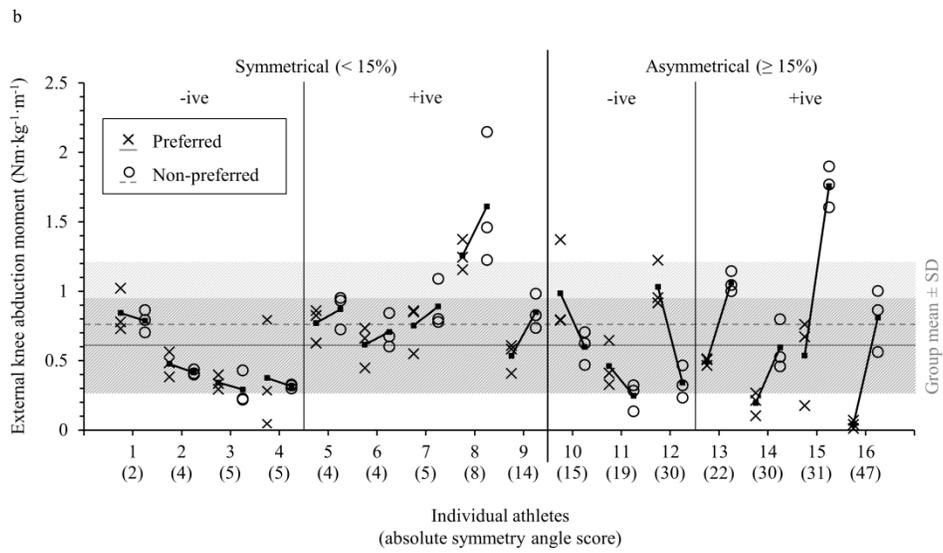
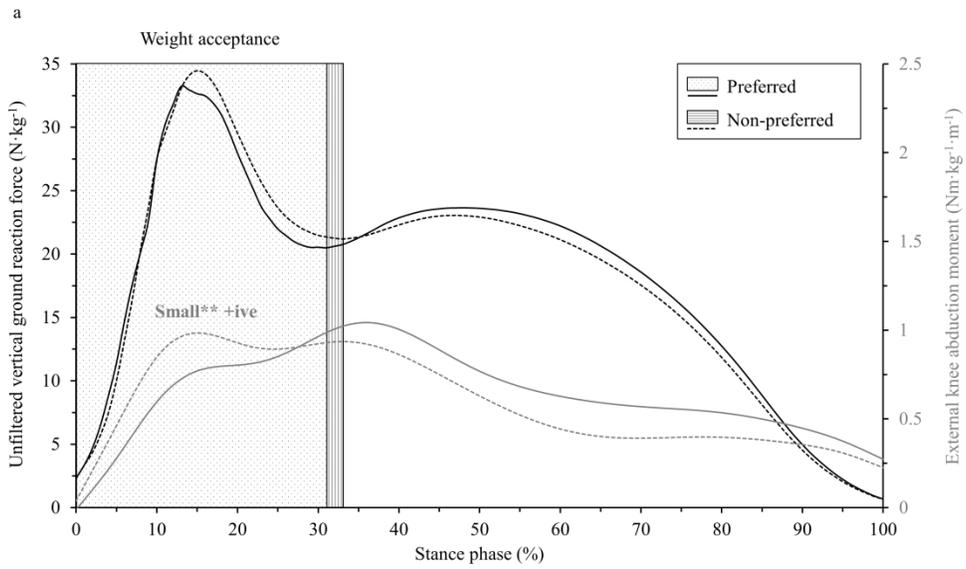
Posterior view

	Four-marker cluster set (8 sets – 32 markers)
	Individual tracking marker (38 markers)
	Individual anatomical marker (8 markers)

299x299mm (300 x 300 DPI)



129x170mm (300 x 300 DPI)



338x399mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Table 1

Performance and mechanical sidestepping variables. Performance variables occurred throughout the sidestep whereas mechanical variables occurred at initial contact (the instant vertical force rose above 10 N) of the sidestep.

	Preferred	Non-preferred	Non-preferred – preferred	
			Mean change; $\pm 90\%$ CL	Qualitative inference
Performance variables				
Approach velocity ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	6.5 ± 0.5	6.5 ± 0.4	$0.045; \pm 0.083$	Trivial** +ive
Stance time (s)	0.18 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.02	$-0.0061; \pm 0.0046$	Small* -ive
Depart velocity ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	6.1 ± 0.5	6.1 ± 0.4	$-0.027; \pm 0.084$	Trivial** -ive
Sidestep angle (Deg)	25 ± 4	24 ± 3	$-0.73; \pm 0.99$	Trivial***
Mechanical variables at initial contact				
Knee flexion angle (Deg)	27 ± 8	25 ± 6	$-2.2; \pm 1.5$	Small* -ive
Trunk lateral flexion angle ^a (Deg)	14 ± 6	17 ± 6	$2.5; \pm 1.32$	Small** +ive
COM to AJC distance (m)	0.36 ± 0.04	0.40 ± 0.04	$0.039; \pm 0.013$	Moderate*** +ive

Abbreviations: CL, confidence limits; m, metre; s, second; deg, degree, ^a contralateral to the sidestepping direction, -ive; COM, centre-of-mass; AJC, ankle-joint-centre. Values are means \pm standard deviation and mean change; $\pm 90\%$ confidence limits. Trivial, small and moderate inference: *possibly, 25–74%; **likely, 75–94%; ***very likely, 95–99.5%. -ive and +ive = substantial negative and positive change of the non-preferred leg relative to the preferred.