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## Acute adaptations and subsequent preservation of strength and speed measures following a Nordic hamstring curl intervention: a randomised controlled trial

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#### Abstract

This randomised controlled trial investigated changes in eccentric hamstring strength, 10 m sprint speed, and change-of-direction (COD) performance immediately post Nordic hamstring curl (NHC) intervention and following a 3-week detraining period.

Fourteen male team sports athletes were randomised to a do-as-usual control group (CG; n = 7) or to a NHC intervention group (NHC; n = 7). Isokinetic dynamometry at 180°/s evaluated eccentric hamstring strength immediately post-intervention as the primary outcome measure. Secondary outcomes included 10 m sprint time and COD. Each outcome was measured, pre, immediately post-intervention and following a 3-week detraining period.

Immediately post-intervention significant group differences were observed in the NHC group for eccentric hamstring strength (31.81 Nm<sup>-1</sup> vs. 6.44 Nm<sup>-1</sup>, P = 0.001), COD (-0.12 s vs. 0.20 s; P = 0.003) and sprint (- 0.06 s vs. 0.05 s; P = 0.024) performance. Performance improvements were maintained following a detraining period for COD (-0.11 s vs. 0.20 s; P = 0.014) and sprint (-0.05 s vs. 0.03 s, P = 0.031) but not eccentric hamstring strength (15.67 Nm<sup>-1</sup> vs. 6.44 Nm<sup>-1</sup>, P = 0.145)

These findings have important implications for training programmes designed to reduce hamstring injury incidence, whilst enhancing physical qualities critical to sport.

#### **Keywords**

Change-of-direction; Eccentric strength; Hamstring; Performance; Resistance training

#### 1 Introduction

2 Hamstring strain injuries (HSI) are the most prevalent non-contact injury in intermittent team 3 sports (Brooks, Fuller, Kemp and Reddin, 2006; Ekstrand, Walden and Hagglund 2016; Feeley et al., 2007; Hickey, Shield, Williams and Opar, 2014), with incidence up to 37% (Brooks et 4 al., 2006; Orchard, Seward & Orchard, 2013; Ekstrand et al., 2016). HSI causes considerable 5 6 time lost from both match – play and training, with financial (Ekstrand et al., 2013) and 7 performance (Hagglund et al., 2013) implications. Team sports are characterised by 8 accelerations and quick changes of direction (Gabbett, King and Jenkins, 2008; Stolen, Chamari, Castanga & Wisloff, 2005), increasing the risk for HSI due to enhanced eccentric 9 10 forces applied to the hamstring musculature (Barnes et al., 2014; Taylor et al., 2017). Despite 11 a focus on HSI prevention (Al Attar, Soomro, Sinclair, Pappas & Sanders, 2017; Bourne et al., 2018; van der Horst et al., 2017), recurrence rates remain high with incidence in soccer 12 increasing annually by approximately 2.3% between 2001 and 2014 (Ekstrand et al., 2016). 13 Injury management programmes have subsequently been considered ineffective (Ekstrand, 14 Hägglund, Kristenson, Magnusson & Waldén, 2013) or contradictory (Gambetta & Benton, 15 16 2006) in relation to injury prevention and performance.

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Eccentric hamstring strength represents a modifiable risk factor for HSI (Croisier et al., 2008; 18 19 Timmins et al., 2016). Eccentric strength training has been shown to reduce HSI incidence by ~ 70% when Nordic hamstring curl (NHC) exercises are adopted as part of an injury prevention 20 programme (Petersen, Thorborg, Nielsen, Budtz-Jørgensen & Hölmich, 2011; van der Horst, 21 Smits, Petersen, Goedhart & Backx, 2015). Despite this decrease in HSI, elite sports medical 22 staff highlight the NHC as only the 5<sup>th</sup> most commonly used injury prevention exercise (McCall 23 et al., 2014), with concerns cited in relation to delayed onset of muscle soreness (DOMS) and 24 performance inhibition (Bahr, Thorborg, & Ekstrand, 2015; Van Hooren & Bosch, 2017). 25

The influence of the NHC exercise and associated gains in eccentric hamstring strength on important high-intensity movement actions such as sprint and change-of-direction (COD)

speed, critical to sports performance, has received little consideration, with only a few previous 29 studies (Ishoi et al., 2017; Mendiguchia et al., 2015) quantifying improvements in linear speed 30 over distances < 20 m. However, intermittent team sports are also characterised by their multi-31 directional demands (Bishop & Girard, 2013; Taylor, Wright, Dischiavi, Townsend & 32 Marmon, 2017), arguably placing greater emphasis on agility and COD speed. Furthermore, a 33 34 hierarchical model of factors influencing COD performance has highlighted the influence of eccentric hamstring strength (Naylor and Greig, 2015), thus emphasising the necessity to 35 understand whether eccentric exercises such as the NHC help improve COD performance. 36

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Gains in sprint performance (Ishoi et al., 2017; Mendiguchia et al., 2015) have been the result 38 of 7 – 10-week NHC interventions (Delahunt et al., 2016; Seymore et al., 2017), with improved 39 40 eccentric hamstring strength observed after intervention periods of 6-weeks. Consequently, the aim of the current study was to evaluate the influence of a six-week NHC intervention on 41 immediately post-intervention measures of isokinetic eccentric hamstring strength, linear and 42 COD speed in male intermittent team sports players. A secondary aim was to investigate the 43 residual training effect of the NHC intervention by assessing if speed, COD and eccentric 44 45 hamstring strength was retained following a 3-week detraining period. This time period has relevance with respect to the off-season and the mid-season break employed in European soccer 46 leagues (Funten, Faude, Lensch & Meyer, 2014). 47

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#### 51 Materials and Methods

#### 52 Trial Design

A single assessor-blinded randomised controlled superiority study was conducted as a repeated 53 measures design whereby participants partook in a pre-test (0-weeks), immediately post-54 intervention (6-weeks), and following a 3-week detraining period (9-weeks). The independent 55 variable within the study is treatment in the form of Nordic hamstring exercises. The NHC 56 57 group performed NHCs in addition to their normal training and match-play, whereas, the CG performed their regular training and matches only. The primary outcome measure was pre-post 58 59 intervention differences in eccentric hamstring strength, recorded immediately postintervention. Secondary outcome measures included COD and 10-m sprint time. Ethical 60 approval was obtained from the institutional ethics committee, in accordance with the Helsinki 61 62 declaration.

63

#### 64 Participants

To prospectively consider participant drop-out, sixteen amateur intermittent team sports 65 (Soccer, n = 8; Rugby League, n = 8) athletes from the North-West region of the United 66 Kingdom were recruited for the study. Upon completion of baseline testing, a staff member not 67 involved in the study randomly allocated participants into an NHC group (n = 8, age: 20.13  $\pm$ 68 1.55 years, height:  $180.88 \pm 7.88$  cm, mass:  $75.38 \pm 7.10$  kg) or a CG (n = 8, age:  $20.86 \pm 100$ 69 1.57 years, height:  $178.00 \pm 8.41$  cm, mass:  $77.14 \pm 7.39$  kg). Eligibility criteria required 70 participants to be male, 18-25 years old with no previous lower limb injury in the past 6 months 71 and team sports players completing a minimum of two intermittent team training sessions per 72 73 week and one match. To maximise balance across groups for variables such as age, height, mass, strength and speed, randomisation occurred using the minimisation process. A member 74 of staff not involved in the study managed the randomisation process using sealed opaque 75

envelopes, which contained the name of a single participant. Starting with the intervention
group, participants were alternately allocated to the relevant group. The randomisation
procedure was concealed from all research personnel.

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- 80

# \*Insert Figure 1 near here\*

81

#### 82 Study Settings

The current study was conducted between October – December, 2017. During this period, participants generally had two intermittent team sport training sessions (~ 4 h) and one match per week. All testing procedures were conducted in a laboratory-controlled environment at the same time of day to control for possible diurnal variation (Thun, Bjorvatn, Flo, Harris & Pallesen, 2015). Participants were instructed to refrain from vigorous physical activity 48 h prior to testing.

89

#### 90 Intervention

The NHC exercise was initiated in a kneeling position with the torso maintained up-right (van 91 der Horst et al., 2015). The partner then applies pressure to the participant's heels/ankles to 92 maintain feet contact with the ground (van der Horst et al., 2015). Performing the exercise 93 94 involves the participant slowly lowering their torso to the ground, whilst maintaining a straight 95 back, and resisting the effects of gravity using their hamstring muscles for as long as possible (Bourne, Opar, Williams & Shield, 2016). The player's hands are used to break the forward 96 fall, followed by a push to return to the initial kneeling position, and minimize concentric 97 98 loading (Mjølsnes et al., 2004; van der Horst et al., 2015).

100 Each participant was trained individually by the principal investigator and supplied with a weekly completion chart (Table 1) to ensure that participants adhered to the correct 101 performance (van der Horst et al., 2015). The participants completed two sessions per week 102 with the number of sets and repetitions gradually progressed throughout the programme 103 (Mjølsnes et al., 2004; Sebelien et al., 2014). The NHC intervention was delivered prior to the 104 training sessions as they are advocated as a component of the Federation Internationale de 105 Football Association (FIFA) 11<sup>+</sup> warm-up routine (Bizzini, Junge & Dvorak, 2013), which has 106 been shown to reduce overall injury incidence (Owoeye, Akinbo, Tella & Olawale, 2014; 107 108 Silvers et al., 2015).

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#### \*Insert Table 1 near here\*

111

#### 112 *Outcomes*

Each testing session was conducted by a blind assessor. A minimum of 48 h recovery was 113 provided between strenuous exercise and each testing session. Prior to each testing session, a 114 warm-up was performed, consisting of 5-minutes jogging, progressing to sprinting, followed 115 by 5-minutes of dynamic stretches (Sebelien et al. 2014). After each testing procedure, a 5-116 minute rest period was adhered to. Participants had an initial briefing period at the first testing 117 session, and three trial tests until familiar with each procedure and NHC exercise performance 118 119 (Mjølsnes et al., 2004). Participants were asked to wear similar apparel and the same exercise shoes for each testing session to reduce the influence of shoe properties on sports performance 120 (Malisoux, Gette, Urhausen, Bomfim & Theisen, 2017). To provide a consistent and 121 122 standardised testing environment, no verbal feedback nor motivation was provided during any of the testing sessions. 123

#### 125 Eccentric Isokinetic Hamstring Strength

Unilateral eccentric hamstring strength was assessed using the participant's dominant limb, 126 defined by their preferred kicking leg (Mjølsnes et al., 2004), using an isokinetic dynamometer 127 (IKD) (Biodex Medical System 2, Shirley, New York) at 180°s<sup>-1</sup>. This speed was selected as 128 being representative of the average angular velocity exhibited during the 180° COD task used 129 in the current study (Greig, 2009). Prior to each isokinetic test, participants were provided with 130 three familiarisations trials followed by three warm-up repetitions (Mjølsnes et al., 2004). The 131 dynamometer set-up was adjusted for each individual participant in accordance with 132 manufacturer guidelines. Participants were seated securely in ~  $90^{\circ}$  of hip flexion, with 133 restraints applied proximally to the knee joint, thigh, waist, and ankle and across the chest. The 134 lever arm was then visually aligned with the knee joint's axis of rotation (Eustace, Page and 135 136 Greig, 2017). No verbal feedback nor motivation was provided during the IKD trials. Three maximal efforts were performed, with the best effort utilized for determining peak torque (Nm). 137

138

#### 139 10 m Sprint

10-m sprints were assessed using two single-beam timing gates (SmartSpeed, Fusion Sport, 140 Australia), set at a standing torso height. A 10 m distance was chosen as the number of maximal 141 short distance < 10 m sprints has increased in professional soccer in recent years (Barnes et al., 142 2014). Participants were required to perform 3 maximal sprints from a standing position with 143 144 the front foot placed in line with the first timing gate (Ishøi et al., 2017). Timing started when the participants passed the first timing gate at 0-m and was recorded when they passed the 145 second timing gate at 10-m. Only the best attempt (least time taken to complete the 10 m 146 147 distance) was considered for analysis. Participants adhered to a 3-minute passive rest period following completion of each sprint (Marques & Izquierdo, 2014). 148

150 *COD* 

Change-of-direction (COD) was assessed via a linear 20-m, 180° COD test, adapted from 151 previous research (Sasaki, Nagano, Kaneko, Sakurai & Fukubayashi, 2011; Lockie, Schultz, 152 Callaghan, Jeffries & Berry, 2013), using one single-beam timing gate (SmartSpeed, Fusion 153 Sport, Australia) positioned at the start line. Each test was performed from a standing position 154 with the foot placed on the 0-m start line. Participants were instructed to run as fast as they 155 could to the 10-m line, where they were then required to perform a 180° turn and sprint back 156 to the starting point. A 180° turn was utilised to elicit a rapid deceleration, as such requiring an 157 158 eccentric overload of the hamstring musculature. Participants performed three familiarisation trials (Mjølsnes et al., 2004) followed by three recorded trials, with the best trial used for data 159 analysis. A passive rest period of 3 minutes was allocated after each trial. 160

161

#### 162 Statistical Methods

Post hoc power analyses were completed using G\*Power software (v.3.1, Heinrich-Heine-Universistat, Dusseldorf, Germany), with the statistical analyses performed using the primary outcome measure, eccentric strength. The partial eta squared values generated for the between group differences at 6 weeks was used to generate effect size f values to subsequently calculate statistical power. The power analyses identified that the current sample size (n = 14) elicited an observed statistical power for pre to post difference of 0.997.

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Data was checked for normality *a priori*, using histograms, q-q plots, skewness and kurtosis, and a Shapiro-Wilk test. Mauchly's test of Sphericity was performed for the dependent variables, with a Greenhouse Geisser correction included if test significance was indicated. For the analysis of the primary (eccentric hamstring strength) and secondary (10 m sprint, COD) outcomes, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) using the baseline score as the covariate was performed to examine differences in the physical response between the two groups (NHC and CG) over the intervention period. Where significant main effects or interactions were observed, post-hoc pairwise comparisons with a Bonferonni correction factor was applied, with 95% confidence intervals (CI) for differences also reported. Cohen's *d* effect sizes were calculated using pooled SD data and were classified as trivial (< 0.20 - 0.49), moderate (0.50-0.79) and large (> 0.80) (Cohen, 1992). Between session reliability was assessed using intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC), from which standard error of measurement (SEM) and minimal detectable difference were calculated. SEM was calculated using the formula: *SD Pooled* ×

 $(\sqrt{1} - ICC))$  (Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 2005), whilst MDD was calculated using the 184 formula:  $MDD = SEM \times 1.96 \times \sqrt{2}$  (Weir, 2005)

The fragility index (Walsh et al., 2014) was calculated for the primary outcome measure to determine the robustness of statistically significant results. All statistical analysis was completed using PASW Statistics Editor 22.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc, Chicago, USA), with statistical significance set at  $P \le 0.05$ . All data is reported as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation unless otherwise stated.

**Results** 

#### 193 Participants

14 participants completed the study (n = 7, age: 20.47 ± 1.32 years, height: 179.81 ± 7.45 cm,
mass: 75.54 ± 7.14 kg), CG (n = 7, age: 21.01 ± 1.64 years, height: 178.12 ± 8.49 cm, mass:
77.64 ± 7.48 kg), with two participants lost due to injury unrelated to the NHE and/or team
transfer. The intervention group had a mean compliance of 94.05%.

#### 200 Primary Outcome Measure

The NHC group demonstrated significant immediately post-intervention mean change 201 improvements in eccentric hamstring strength (31.81 Nm<sup>-1</sup> vs. 6.44 Nm<sup>-1</sup>; mean difference, 202 29.46  $\text{Nm}^{-1}$ , P = 0.001, d = 2.55) when compared to the CG. Additionally, the mean change at 203 the same testing session, exceeded the MDD (16.93 Nm<sup>-1</sup>). No significant group main effects 204 for mean change were observed following the three-week detraining period (15.67 Nm<sup>-1</sup> vs. 205 6.44 Nm<sup>-1</sup>; mean difference 8.73 Nm<sup>-1</sup>, P = 0.145, d = 0.73). There were 7 and 0 responders in 206 the NHC and CG respectively. The immediately post-intervention eccentric hamstring strength 207 208 became non-significant when the P value was recalculated using the Fishers exact test and one participant was converted from not having the primary endpoint to having the primary endpoint 209  $(P \ge 0.05)$ , thus providing a fragility index of 2, equating to ~ 28% of the participants. Figure 210 211 2 highlights the individual responses for each participant across the three time points, in addition to the mean group response. 212

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#### \*Insert Figure 2 here\*

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#### 216 Secondary Outcome Measures

As highlighted in table 2, the NHC group demonstrated significantly greater mean changes in COD (-0.12 s vs. 0.20 s; mean difference, -0.332 s, P = 0.003, d = 2.17) when compared to the CG immediately post-intervention. The same observation was observed following the detraining period, with significantly greater mean changes observed in COD (-0.11 s vs. 0.20 s; mean difference, - 0.235 s, P = 0.014, d = 1.38) when compared to the CG. The mean change for the NHC group surpassed and equalled the minimal detectable difference (MDD = 0.11 s) for the immediately post-intervention (-0.12 s) and following detraining (-0.11 s) periods

224	respectively. Figure 3 highlights the individual responses for each participant across the three					
225	time points, in addition to the mean group response.					
226						
227	*Insert Figure 3 here*					
228						
229	Between group differences in mean change analyses highlighted a significant improvement in					
230	10 m sprint performance for the NHC group (- 0.06 s vs. 0.05 s; mean difference, - 0.115 s, P					
231	= 0.024, $d = 1.78$ ) immediately post-intervention testing session when compared to the CG. An					
232	identical response was also observed the following the detraining period, with enhanced mean					
233	changes observed in the NHC group (-0.05 s vs. 0.03 s; mean difference, -0.105 s, $P = 0.031$ ,					
234	d = 1.17) when compared to the CG. The mean change for the NHC group exceeded the MDD					
235	(0.03 s) immediately post-intervention (- 0.06 s) and following the three-week detraining					
236	period (-0.05 s).					
237						
238	Figure 4 highlights the individual responses for each participant across the three time points,					
239	in addition to the mean group response.					
240						
241	*Insert Figure 4 here*					
242	*Insert Table 2 near here*					
243	Harms					
244	No harms were observed during the execution of the NHC.					
245						
246	Discussion					
247	The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a 6-week NHC programme on					
248	primary outcome measures of eccentric strength, and secondary outcome measures of COD					

249 and 10-m sprint performance immediately post-intervention, whilst also investigating the effects of a 3-week detraining period. The key findings demonstrate that immediately post-250 intervention, a 6-week NHC intervention programme significantly improved COD and 10 m 251 252 sprint performance, concomitantly with improvements observed in measures of eccentric hamstring strength. Furthermore, performance gains in 10 m sprint and COD direction speed 253 were maintained following a 3-week detraining period. This suggests players who have 254 completed a sustained period of NHC training may retain performance of important high-255 intensity movement qualities for a short-term period of up to 3 weeks. These findings have 256 257 important implications for training programme design and scheduled or enforced rest periods (such as the winter break in European soccer). 258

259

260 Improvements (19.29%) in eccentric knee flexor torque were observed immediately postintervention within the NHC group, whereas only negligible (1.61%) enhancements were 261 observed within the CG. These enhancements are similar to the 11 - 17% improvements 262 observed using various measures of eccentric hamstring strength following a 10-week NHC 263 programme (Mjølsnes et al., 2004; Ishøi et al., 2017). It has been demonstrated that shorter and 264 longer programme durations both demonstrate improvements in eccentric hamstring strength, 265 as strength enhancements initially result in neural adaptations after 3 - 4 weeks, followed by 266 architectural changes (Seynnes, de Boer & Narici, 2007; Douglas, Pearson, Ross, & McGuigan, 267 268 2017). With sport-specific fatigue highlighted as a potential risk factor for HSI (Woods et al., 2003; Page, Marrin, Brogden and Greig, 2017; Timmins et al., 2014), improvements in 269 eccentric hamstring strength could help to reduce HSI rates (Mjølsnes et al., 2004; Petersen et 270 271 al., 2011; van der Horst et al., 2015; Timmins et al., 2016). In fact, it has been suggested that an increase in strength capacity provides an enhanced force threshold, thereby increasing the 272 margin to which elevated HSI risk may occur (Timmins et al., 2016). 273

Improvements in performance were observed in the COD task, with a 2.77% decrease in 20-m 275 180° COD time highlighted in the NHC group. This is the first study to observe the individual 276 contribution of an NHC intervention on COD performance. Alternative studies have reported 277 positive effects in COD speed from eccentric training in soccer (de Hoyo et al., 2016; Tous-278 Fajardo, Gonzalo-Skok). Tous-Fajardo et al. (2016) observed that eleven weeks of eccentric 279 exercises alongside vibration training improved 45° COD performance by 5.5%. However, 280 NHC were one of eight exercises performed, making it difficult to conclude that NHC was 281 282 directly responsible for enhanced COD speed. Additionally, kinematic parameters, such as braking and propulsive forces, significantly improved during 45° and 60° COD performances 283 following a ten-week eccentric overload programme (de Hoyo et al., 2016). Fast changes of 284 285 direction are critical for success in team sports (Gabbett, King and Jenkins, 2008; Stolen, Chamari, Castanga & Wisloff, 2005), requiring players to perform 3-dimensional 286 accelerations, decelerations and rapid changes of direction that are high in mechanical load 287 (Abdelkrim, Chouachi, Chamari, Chtara & Castagana, 2010; Stolen et al., 2005). The 288 improvements in COD performance may be a result of enhancements in eccentric hamstring 289 290 strength achieving greater braking forces, helping to maintain hip extensor torque, assist in dynamic trunk stabilisation (Jones, Bampouras & Marrin, 2009) and contribute to the storage 291 292 and utilisation of elastic energy (Spiteri, Cochrane, Hart, Haff, & Nimphius, 2013; de Hoyo et 293 al., 2016). Furthermore, Greig and Naylor (2017) reported that eccentric hamstring strength at the same 180°s<sup>-1</sup> used in the current study was the primary predictor of linear 10m sprint and 294 T-test performance, accounting for 61% of the variation observed in T-test performance. 295

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Improvements in eccentric hamstring strength may have facilitated the 3.5% reduction in 10m sprint speed time, compared to a 2.6% increase in the CG. Ishøi et al. (2017) reported a 2.6%

299 decrease in sprint time over the same distance following a ten-week NHC programme in amateur soccer players. The results of the current study support two further studies, which 300 observed 1.6 - 2.4% improvements in 5 - 10 m sprint performance in soccer players on 301 302 completion of NHC training, in isolation or in conjunction with other exercises (Askling, Karlsson & Thorstensson, 2003; Mendiguchia et al., 2015). Whilst not of the same relative 303 magnitude as the gains in eccentric hamstring strength, it has been suggested that a  $\sim 0.8\%$ 304 305 impairment in sprinting performance has a substantial negative effect on the likelihood of an athlete losing possession of ball against an opponent (Paton, Hopkins, & Vollebregt, 2001). 306 307 With shorter sprint distances (< 10 m) increasing in soccer match-play frequency (Barnes et al., 2014), this further highlights the potential performance benefits of NHC intervention. 308 Improvements in sprint performance reported may be due to the superior eccentric hamstring 309 310 strength peak torque which has been demonstrated to be critical for producing greater magnitude of horizontal force production (Mendiguchia et al., 2015; Morin et al., 2015). The 311 possible increase in horizontal force production may be due to enhanced efficiency of the 312 stretch-shortening cycle (Cormie, McGuigan, & Newton, 2010), potentially improving neural 313 adaptions, such as, rate of force development (Aagaard, 2003). Thus, in turn this may increase 314 hamstring muscle activation, producing greater hip extensor force on ground contact, thereby 315 increasing horizontal force production during propulsion and improving sprint performance 316 317 (Mendiguchia et al., 2015; Morin et al., 2015).

318

Acute improvements in performance immediately post-intervention programme suggest that the intervention is successful. However, team sports are often subjected to periods of fixture congestion (Carling, Gregson, McCall, Moreira, Wong & Bradley, 2015), resulting in intervention programmes often being discarded (McCall et al., 2014) to allow players to prepare or compete in the subsequent match, potentially resulting in a detraining effect 324 (Gabbett, 2005). Consequently, it is imperative to determine whether these adaptations are maintained after the programme has ceased. The current study suggests that following a 3-325 week detraining period involving no NHC training stimulus, players maintained improvements 326 327 in 10 m sprint and COD speed. The retention of improvements in key motor abilities is often referred to as residual training effects and could be a result of the repeated bout effect, which 328 has been shown to last between several weeks and possibly up to six months (Nosaka, 329 Sakamoto, Newton & Sacco, 2001). Sprinting and agility are highlighted as essential 330 components of soccer performance (Barnes, Archer, Hogg, Bush & Bradley, 2014), 331 332 consequently the ability to maintain improvements in 10 m sprint speed and COD ability following a 3-week detraining period should be of interest to sports coaches, players and 333 medical staff alike. 334

335

However, it should be acknowledged that maintained improvements in COD and sprint 336 performance were observed despite an approximately 10% decrease in eccentric hamstring 337 strength when comparing the detraining period results to the immediately post-intervention 338 testing session. This suggests that the maintenance of COD and sprint performance may be a 339 result of other adaptations associated with NHC mechanical stimulus, such as: hypertrophic 340 effects of type II muscle fibre cross-sectional area (Alt, Nodler, Severin, Knicker & Struder, 341 2017), knee flexor/extensor muscle balance (Alt et al., 2017), increased fascicle length 342 343 (Alonso-Fernandez Docampo-Blanco & Martinez-Fernandez, 2018; Bourne et al., 2016) and enhanced neuromuscular parameters (Delahunt et al., 2016). However, these measures were 344 beyond the scope of the current study and future research may wish to investigate this area. An 345 346 alternative thought could suggest that the NHC group maintained an 11% increase in eccentric hamstring strength, when compared to baseline levels. Consequently, it may be possible that a 347 maintained increase of this magnitude is sufficient to preserve improvements in COD and sprint 348

performance. The decrease in eccentric hamstring strength observed following the detraining period also has potential implications for injury risk. These results suggest that removing the NHC stimulus can, within a period of three weeks, reduce the strength benefits gained from training. Consequently, this may have implications for practitioners regarding the scheduling and frequency of NHC when used in an attempt to reduce HSI incidence. However, it should be noted that although not significantly different, eccentric hamstring strength was increased by 11% in NHC group when compared to baseline.

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357 Maintenance of sprint speed and COD ability were observed despite a non-significant reduction (9.79%) in eccentric knee flexor torque in the NHC group. These results are similar to previous 358 research (Alonso-Fernandez, Docampo-Blanco & Martinez-Fernandez, 2018; Izquierdo et al. 359 360 2007), which highlighted decreases in muscular strength and biceps femoris long head fascicle length. The reduction in eccentric knee flexor peak torque may lead to a decrease in strength 361 and increase injury likelihood, as longer fascicles are often correlated with improvements in 362 eccentric hamstring strength and reductions in injury rates (Bosquet et al., 2013; Guex, 363 Degache, Morisod, Sailly, & Millet, 2016). 364

365

NHC have recently been suggested to be ineffective (Ekstrand et al., 2013) or even 366 367 contradictory (Gambetta & Benton, 2006) with regards to injury prevention and performance due to low adherence and implementation rates (McCall et al., 2014; Bahr, Thorborg, & 368 Ekstrand, 2015). However, this study provides evidence suggesting that NHCs can improve 369 370 important high-intensity movement actions critical to sports performance in addition to enhancing eccentric hamstring strength, which has been postulated to reduce HSI. Furthermore, 371 recent research (Lovell et al., 2018) has suggested that performing injury prevention exercises, 372 373 including NHC, on match day + 24 hours, reduces muscle damage and soreness when compared to match day + 72 hours. This is in conjunction with previous research (Presland et 374

375 al., 2017), which demonstrates that low volume NHC programs produce the same structural and functional changes as high volume programs. This suggests that sports teams could 376 implement NHC as part of a complete holistic intervention program (Buckthorpe, Gimpel, 377 378 Wright, Sturdy & Stride, 2018), including multi-joint exercises early in the typical training micro-cycle, to ensure that the exercise stimulus is not hindered during periods of fixture 379 congestion (Lovell et al., 2018). Consequently, the current study suggests that medical staff 380 381 may be able to remove or reduce the intervention for periods of up to 3 weeks during fixture congested periods and still maintain beneficial improvements in functional performance. This 382 383 has implications for scheduled (e.g. training periodization) and enforced (e.g. winter break) breaks. 384

385

386 Caution should be taken when attempting to generalise the findings of this study beyond the amateur population and experimental design used. The current participants comprised a 387 combination of both rugby league and soccer players. Although both sports share similar 388 fundamental characteristics, there are distinct differences in the conditioning practices adopted 389 by both sports and, as such, this could have influenced some elements of the data. However, in 390 391 an attempt to reduce the influence of the aforementioned limitation, an equal number of soccer and rugby athletes were assigned to each group. Although achieving appropriate statistical 392 power, the relatively small sample size should be noted, producing larger confidence intervals 393 394 as a direct result, consequently the magnitude of association may be overestimated. Future studies should aim to investigate a similar study design with an increased sample size in elite 395 populations comprising a singular intermittent team sport where hamstring injury incidence is 396 397 problematic. Furthermore, the fragility index for the primary outcome measure (immediately post-intervention eccentric strength) was 2, indicating that two patients from the control group 398 would need to be converted from not having the primary endpoint to having the primary 399

endpoint, at which point the primary outcome would lose statistical significance. A small number of studies (Khan et al., 2016; Walsh et al., 2014) have analysed the results of ~ 450 randomised controlled trials, indicating the fragility index to be  $\leq 3$  in 25-30% of all outcomes analysed. Despite this, the fragility index of the primary outcome measure in the current study should be noted and results as such treated with caution.

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Although each testing protocol was designed to replicate aspects of high-intensity movement 406 actions critical to functional performance in team sports match play, these features vary in 407 408 relation to competition level, player position and sport (Haugen et al., 2014). The 20 m 180° COD task was designed to elicit a rapid deceleration, as such requiring an eccentric overload 409 of the hamstring musculature, however the authors acknowledge that the validity of this 410 411 measure with regards to match-play in both rugby and soccer is yet to be investigated. Eccentric hamstring strength was tested at 180°s<sup>-1</sup> based on hierarchical modelling of factors 412 influencing speed and agility (Greig and Naylor, 2017), and the average knee angular velocity 413 observed during a 180° turn (Greig, 2009). Knee angular velocity during sprinting and kicking 414 a ball can reach 840-1720°s<sup>-1</sup> (Kivi, Maraj, & Gervais, 2002; Kellis & Katis, 2007), and thus 415 the impact of the NHC intervention on eccentric hamstring strength at different speeds might 416 also be warranted. Furthermore, only the compliance of the NHC intervention was recorded, 417 no other methods of lower-limb strength training were noted during the intervention period. 418 419 However, the effects of such other lower-limb strength exercises were thought to be equally distributed between the groups (Moher et al., 2010). Finally, sensitivity analyses might also be 420 applied to the duration of the training intervention and subsequent cessation period, and 421 422 additional measures of sporting performance.

423

425	Conclusions
426	The 6-week NHC intervention programme resulted in significant improvements in eccentric
427	hamstring strength and performance in 10 m sprint and COD speed immediately post-
428	intervention, which was maintained following a 3-week detraining period. Consequently, it
429	may be possible to manipulate the implementation of the NHC as both an injury prevention
430	exercise whilst simultaneously improving functional performance.
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432	Disclosure of Interest: The authors report no conflict of interest
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	Week	Frequency per week	No. of sets per training	Repetitions per set			
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	2	2	2	6			
	3	2	3	6			
	4	2	3	6, 7, 8			
	5	2	3	8, 9, 10			
	6	2	3	10, 9, 8			
728	(van der Horst e	et al., 2015)					
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### 727 Table 1: Nordic Hamstring Exercise Protocol

Table 2: Overview of the primary and secondary outcome measures across groups and times points. Data presented as mean (SD) unless otherwise stated

	<b>Intervention</b> (n = 7)					Control Group (n = 7)						
	Pre Immediately post- intervention		Following detraining period	Within-group changes (95% CI)		Pre	Immediately post- intervention	Following detraining period	Within-group changes (95% CI)		Between group differences in mean change (95% CI), [Cohen's d]	
				Immediately post- intervention	Following detraining period				Immediately post- intervention	Following detraining period	Immediately post- intervention	Following detraining period
COD (s)	4.48 (0.12)	4.36 (0.06)	4.37 (0.11)	- 0.12 (-0.26; 0.10)	- 0.11 (-0.24;0.02)	4.52 (0.16)	4.72 (0.28)	4.62 (0.20)	0.20 (0.07; 0.30)	0.11 (0.01; 0.20)	- 0.332 * (-0.53; -0.14) [- 2.17]	- 0.235 * (-0.41;-0.06) [- 1.38]
10 m Sprint (s)	1.85 (0.05)	1.79 (0.07)	1.81 (0.06)	- 0.06 (- 0.13; 0.01)	- 0.05 (-0.12; 0.01)	1.90 (0.07)	1.95 (0.12)	1.94 (0.10)	0.05 (0.02; 0.11)	0.03 (0.02; 0.12)	- 0.115 * (-0.21; -0.02) [- 1.78]	- 0.105 * (-0.20; -0.01) [-1.17]
IKD Nm <sup>-1</sup>	133.13 (18.34)	164.94 (21.29)	148.80 (17.96)	31.81 (21.90; 41.57)	15.67 (6.77; 24.07)	134.37 (19.93)	136.57 (19.03)	140.81 (11.71)	2.20 (-7.56; 12.12)	6.44 (-1.96; 15.34)	29.46 * (15.54; 43.37) [2.55]	8.73 (-3.51;20.96) [0.73]

\*Denotes a significant group difference



Figure 1: Flow diagram of participant enrolment, allocation, follow-up, and analyses.



Figure 2: Individual participant response for eccentric hamstring strength, across NHC and CG groups. The dashed line denotes an individual participant response, whereas the solid line represent the mean group response. \* denotes a significant ( $P \le 0.05$ ) between group difference for that particular time point.



Figure 3: Individual participant response for COD, across NHC and CG groups. The dashed line denotes an individual participant response, whereas the solid line represent the mean group response. \* denotes a significant ( $P \le 0.05$ ) between group difference for that particular time point.



Figure 4: Individual participant response for 10 m sprint, across NHC and CG groups. The dashed line denotes an individual participant response, whereas the solid line represent the mean group response. \* denotes a significant ( $P \le 0.05$ ) between group difference for that particular time point.