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1 **The effects of a training based on Nordic Hamstring and sprints exercises on**
2 **measures of physical fitness and hamstring injury prevention in U19 male soccer**
3 **players**

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35 **Abstract**

36 This study analyzed the effects of a training program based on Nordic Hamstring and
37 sprint exercises on physical performance and hamstring injuries in young male soccer
38 players. Forty-nine U19 players were randomly assigned to a control (CG; n = 26) or
39 experimental group (EG; n = 23). Linear sprint and with change of direction (COD) were
40 assessed before and after a 14-week training period. Hamstring injuries that occurred
41 throughout the intervention period were collected. Between-groups analysis revealed
42 differences in linear sprint performance ($p = 0.012-0.001$) in favor of the EG. Pre-to-post
43 performance increased significantly in the EG for 20 m (effect size [ES] = -0.56) and 30
44 m (ES = -0.62) sprints, but a significant reduction in some COD parameters was observed
45 (ES = 0.45-0.57). In CG, only a significant reduction in COD with dominant leg
46 performance was found (ES = 0.63). Significant differences in injury burden in favor of
47 the EG was reported such as (27.87 [CG] vs 3.82 [EG] absence days/1,000 hours of
48 exposure, rate ratio = 7.30, 95% CI 3.34-15.99). While injury incidence was not different
49 between the EG and CG. These findings suggest that the training program implemented
50 can improve sprint performance and reduce injury burden.

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52 **Keywords:** hamstring; injury prevalence; velocity; football; performance.

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69 **Introduction**

70 Soccer is a highly demanding team sport which requires execution of repetitive high-
71 intensity actions (e.g., jumps, accelerations, changes of direction and sprints) to obtain
72 adequate on-field performance (Chaouachi et al., 2014; Marcote-Pequeño et al., 2019;
73 Trecroci, Duca, et al., 2020). These high demands are associated with muscle injuries
74 (Raya-González, Suárez-Arrones, et al., 2020), in particular to the hamstring muscle
75 complex (Raya-González, de Ste Croix, et al., 2020). This is due to the architecture of
76 this complex muscle group and their implication in high intensity actions (Beato, Drust,
77 et al., 2021). Considering injuries may negatively affect performance, club finances, and
78 player health in soccer, it is essential that appropriate prevention strategies be
79 implemented (Beato, Maroto-Izquierdo, et al., 2021). The purpose of improving physical
80 fitness with soccer players is two-fold: to perform better during competitions (Castillo et
81 al., 2020), and to reduce the risk of suffering injuries during training sessions and matches
82 (Gabbett & Domrow, 2007). [The implementation of some specific training programs is](#)
83 [a key strategy for developing both of these aims simultaneously.](#)

84

85 Resistance training programs have shown to be among the most effective methods to
86 improve performance of high-intensity actions in soccer players (Silva et al., 2015); but
87 the majority of resistance training programs are based on expensive equipment such as
88 traditional (de Hoyo et al., 2016) or flywheel devices (Raya-González et al., 2021) making
89 it difficult to implement at the amateur or youth level. Thus, practitioners have found
90 time-efficient alternatives that could be applied without incurring additional costs, such
91 as the Nordic Hamstring exercise (NHE). The NHE is an exercise where the athlete
92 attempts to resist a forward-falling motion using their hamstrings to maximize loading in
93 the eccentric phase without using additional equipment (Mjøl̄snes et al., 2004). Previous
94 research has shown promising sport performance and injury prevention outcomes after
95 the application of resistance training programs based on the NHE (Bautista et al., 2021;
96 van Dyk et al., 2019). Specifically, a recent meta-analysis conducted by Bautista et al.
97 (2021) showed that the NHE [has](#) a positive effect on eccentric strength of knee flexors
98 (standardized change of mean difference: 0.83 [0.55-1.12]) and sprint performance (-0.04
99 sec [-0.08, -0.01]) in team sport players. Moreover, van Dyk et al. (2019) meta-analysis
100 reported a positive effect of including the NHE exercise in injury prevention programs
101 compared with controls on hamstring injuries, showing a reduction in the overall injury
102 risk ratio of 0.49 (95% CI 0.32 to 0.74). However, Mendez-Villanueva et al. (2016)

103 reported that the NHE influenced only the short head of the biceps femoris and the
104 semitendinosus muscle, so other exercises are necessary to complement training
105 programs focused on the hamstring musculature (Oakley et al., 2018; Suarez-Arrones et
106 al., 2021). Such training would allow soccer players to repeat several high-intensity
107 actions, such as sprints, during matches with reduced chance of injury (Trecroci, Porcelli,
108 et al., 2020).

109

110 Since sprinting is the predominant mechanism in hamstring injuries (Askling et al., 2007),
111 one of the most common actions before a goal in professional soccer (Faude et al., 2012),
112 and the only exercise that induces a sprint-specific hamstring muscles activation (Tillaar
113 et al., 2017), it seems pertinent to include sprinting exercises in the preventive training
114 programs (Beato, Drust, et al., 2021). Additionally, it has been observed that sprint
115 training with moderate volume with or without change of direction does not induce
116 neuromuscular or physiological changes 72 h post-exercise (Grazioli et al., 2020),
117 favoring its inclusion in a specific soccer context. In this sense, Mendiguchia et al. (2020)
118 applied a sprint training protocol with elite soccer players for 7 weeks obtaining
119 improvements in sprint time over 5 and 20 m (effect size [from -0.77 to -0.58]). Similarly,
120 Rey et al. (2017) increased the sprint performance over 10 and 30 m ($p < 0.001$) in
121 amateur soccer players after a 6-week sprint training program. Finally, and related to
122 youth soccer players, Venturelli et al., (2008) observed significant improvements in their
123 sprint capacity over 20 m after 12 weeks of sprinting training. Although beneficial effects
124 of this training methodology have been reported, previous research about its effects on
125 injury prevention in soccer players are scarce. In this regard, Mendiguchia et al., (2019)
126 suggested that an adequate and regular exposure to sprinting can reduce the likelihood of
127 hamstring injuries; this is supported by research reporting positive changes in some
128 muscle variables (e.g., biceps femoris' architecture) related to hamstring injury risk after
129 sprint training programs (Mendiguchia et al., 2020). Additionally, soccer players that are
130 prepared during training to support greater volumes of sprint distances in training and
131 matches, can benefit from a protective effect against injury risk (Malone et al., 2018).
132 However, to date no studies have analyzed the effect of this training on injury incidence
133 so future studies on this topic are warranted.

134

135 Despite the promising evidence observed after the application of isolated NHE and sprint
136 training programs, no investigations have studied their combined effects on physical

137 performance and injury incidence and burden in soccer players. Therefore, the aim of this
138 study was to analyze the effects of a training program based on NHE and sprint training
139 on physical performance and hamstring injuries in U19 male soccer players. Based on
140 previous studies (Mendiguchia et al., 2020; Rey et al., 2017), we hypothesize that this
141 program **would improve performance while reducing** the incidence and burden of injuries
142 in young soccer players.

143

144 **Method**

145 *Experimental design*

146 A randomized-controlled trial design was applied to analyze the effects of a combined
147 NHE and sprint training program on selected measures of physical fitness and hamstring
148 injury incidence and burden in U19 male soccer players. Before and after 14 weeks of
149 training, linear sprint (i.e., over 10, 20 and 30 m distances) and change of direction (i.e.,
150 over 20 m distance with one change of direction) tests were carried out. In addition,
151 hamstring injuries incidence and burden were registered. All tests were carried out in the
152 afternoon (6–8 pm) on an artificial grass field where the team performed their usual
153 training sessions (17–22° C, 60–70% humidity) and were supervised by the same strength
154 and conditioning specialist. Likewise, players were instructed to take their last meal, not
155 to drink any caffeinated beverages or to perform intense physical exercise 3 hours before
156 the beginning of the tests.

157

158 *Participants*

159 Sixty-seven soccer players (age: 17.8 ± 0.8 years, height: 174.1 ± 0.5 cm, body mass:
160 67.8 ± 7.7 kg, body mass index: 22.3 ± 1.92 kg·m⁻²) voluntarily participated in the study.
161 *A priori* power analysis with a type I error rate of 0.05 (alpha = 5%) and 90% statistical
162 power (Beta) was computed. The analysis indicated that overall, 14 participants **were**
163 sufficient to observe significant effects (Cohen's $d = 0.90$) for sprint time over 30 m. All
164 participants played at the same soccer academy over the last 2 years. Their usual program
165 consists of 3 training sessions (i.e., 50% technical- tactical drills, 40% small-sided and
166 simulated games, and 10% injury-prevention drills) and a match on the weekend. Players
167 were included in the study if they **participated** in at least 80% of training sessions (i.e.,
168 soccer and strength sessions) during the 14-week period and were not injured 2 months
169 prior to the investigation commencing. Goalkeepers were excluded from the statistical
170 analysis due to their special role in soccer practice. Participants were allocated to either

171 the control group (CG, n = 34) or to the experimental group (EG, n = 27). Finally, 49
172 soccer players (i.e., CG, n = 26 and EG, n = 23) were included in the further analysis,
173 since nine participants did not attend 80% of training and three of them were injured
174 during the experimental period **and did not complete the assessment sessions** (Figure 1).
175 All soccer players and their legal guardians were informed of the procedures, potential
176 risks and benefits of the study and the legal guardians signed a written informed consent.
177 The study was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki (2013), and the
178 protocol was fully approved by ethics committee of ***for blinding purpose*** before
179 recruitment.

180

181 **### Figure 1 near here, please ###**

182

183 ***Procedures***

184 During the 14-week intervention period, players performed their regular weekly in-season
185 routine (Table 1), with the EG including the NHE and sprint training program once a
186 week. This session was performed in the central session of each microcycle, at least 48
187 hours prior to a competitive game. Players' physical performances were assessed in a
188 single testing session in the following order to minimize the accumulation of fatigue: 30
189 m linear sprint (SPR30) test and change of direction (COD) sprint tests with the dominant
190 leg (CODd) or non-dominant leg (CODnd) performing the turn on the outside (Raya-
191 González et al., 2021). For COD sprint, the dominant leg was considered as the one in
192 which each player obtained the best result (Raya-González, Bishop, et al., 2020). All
193 participants were already familiarized with all testing protocols due to the assessment
194 routines at the club. Prior to the physical assessment, players undertook a 17-min
195 standardized warm-up, consisting of 3 min of slow jogging, followed by 7 min of strolling
196 locomotion and finishing with 7 min of progressive sprints and accelerations.

197

198 **### Table 1 near here, please ###**

199

200 *30 m linear sprint test.* Soccer players completed two maximal 30 m linear sprints, with
201 split times on 10 m (SPR10), 20 m (SPR20) and SPR30, and interspersed with a 120 s
202 passive standing rest. Sprint performance was assessed using four pairs of photoelectric
203 cells (Polifermo Light Radio, Microgate™, Bolzano, Italy) placed at 0, 10, 20 and 30 m.
204 Players started each sprint 0.5 m before the first timing gate and initiated the sprint upon

205 their own volition. The fastest time (in seconds) was considered for the subsequent
206 analysis. The ICCs and the CVs for the sprint tests were 0.82 (0.54–0.91) and 4.7% (3.9–
207 5.9) for SPR10, 0.77 (0.42–0.88) and 2.8% (2.4–3.6) for SPR20, and 0.85 (0.62–0.92)
208 and 2.0% (1.7–2.5) for SPR30.

209

210 *Change of direction sprint test.* Participants were evaluated over a 20-m COD sprint test
211 using two pairs of photoelectric cells (Polifermo Light Radio, Microgate™, Bolzano,
212 Italy). Four maximum 10 + 10-m sprints with a COD turn of 90° (i.e., two trials of CODd
213 and two trials of CODnd) were performed allowing two min of passive recovery between
214 trials. Players started each sprint 0.5 m before the first timing gate and upon their own
215 volition. The best time (in seconds) obtained with each leg was identified and was selected
216 for the subsequent analysis, which was compared with the SPR20 to estimate the
217 percentage mean of speed loss when executing the CODd or CODnd through the formula
218 [DEC-CODd = (CODd – SPR20)/ SPR20) x 100; DEC-CODnd = (CODnd –
219 SPR20)/SPR20) x 100] (Raya-González et al., 2021). The ICCs and the CVs for the COD
220 test were 0.85 (0.62–0.92) and 1.8% (1.5–2.3) for CODd, 0.81 (0.51–0.90) and 1.9% (1.6–
221 2.4) for CODnd.

222

223 ***Injuries: definitions and data collection***

224 This study was conducted according to the key guidelines provided by the Union of
225 European Football Associations (UEFA) for epidemiological research (Hägglund et al.,
226 2005). In this regard, injury was defined as “an injury that occurred during a scheduled
227 training session or match that caused absence from the next training session or match”
228 (Hägglund et al., 2005) while burden was defined as “the numbers of days lost per 1,000
229 hours of exposure” (Bahr et al., 2017). On the other hand, the criteria used to consider the
230 exposure was the following: “the time (in hours), both in training and match play, during
231 which the player is in a position to suffer an injury, and incidence refers to the number of
232 injuries sustained during practice, both in training and competition, for every 1,000 hours
233 of exposure” (van Mechelen et al., 1992). Match play exposure was calculated when
234 playing against teams from different clubs, and training sessions were considered those
235 in which a coach directed physical activity carried out with the team. A player was
236 considered fully recovered after a hamstring injury when he was given clearance by the
237 medical staff to participate fully in team training and match play (Raya-González, de Ste
238 Croix, et al., 2020).

239

240 Information relative to hamstring injuries was recorded by the strength and conditioning
241 specialist of each team and supervised by the head fitness coach. The club's medical staff
242 diagnosed all hamstring injuries and followed the evolution during the rehabilitation
243 process (Raya-González, de Ste Croix, et al., 2020). Hamstring injuries were registered
244 on a computerized standard report based on the instruction manuals created for the UEFA
245 studies (Hägglund et al., 2005) and information about absence days, type of injury or
246 moment of injury (i.e., training or match) were recorded. Attending to exposure, this time
247 was registered daily individually, in hours, in training and matches (friendly and official)
248 (Raya-González, de Ste Croix, et al., 2020).

249

250 *Training program*

251 Soccer players belonging to the EG underwent a 14-week training program based on NHE
252 and sprint exercises. The experimental sessions (15–20 min) were conducted immediately
253 after regular soccer training session (75–90 min), supervised by the strength and
254 conditioning staff of the team, providing adequate feedback and cues for exercise and
255 drill execution. The training program was applied one time per week at least 48 hours
256 prior to the official match. A progressive overload adapted to each drill was applied
257 during the intervention (Table 2). Players were familiarized with the training program
258 during the first phase of the competitive season.

259

260 **### Table 2 near here, please ###**

261

262 *Statistical analysis*

263 Data are presented as mean \pm standard deviations (SD). To prove the normality of data
264 distribution and the homogeneity of variances, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene
265 tests were conducted. **Since all analyzed variables had a normal distribution, parametric**
266 **techniques were applied.** Between-group differences at baseline were tested using
267 independent *t*-tests. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was applied to detect the
268 training effects, with baseline measurements entered as covariates. Furthermore, a paired-
269 samples *t*-test was used to evaluate within-group pre-to-post differences. To examine
270 practical significance, Cohen's effect size (ES) was calculated (Cohen, 1988), and the
271 obtained results were interpreted as follow: trivial < 0.20 , small ($0.20 \leq d \leq 0.49$), medium
272 ($0.50 \leq d \leq 0.79$), and large ($d \geq 0.80$). These data were analyzed using the Statistical

273 Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 25.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA), and the statistical
274 significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

275

276 Injury incidence and burden are presented as the number of injuries/1,000 hours of
277 exposure (van Mechelen et al., 1992) and the number of absence days/1,000 hours of
278 exposure (Bahr et al., 2017), respectively, each with 95% confidence intervals (CI). The
279 incidence and burden of injuries were compared for group (i.e., EG and CG) by
280 calculating rate ratios (RR) with a 95% CI and using the Z-test (Kirkwood & Sterne,
281 2003). These data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel 2011 software (Microsoft,
282 Redmond, WA, USA) and GraphPad Prism v.6.0c (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA,
283 USA), and the level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

284

285 **Results**

286 *Measures of physical fitness*

287 The changes in physical fitness from pre-to-post intervention for the CG and EG are
288 displayed in Table 3. **There were no baseline differences between-groups in any**
289 **dependent variable.** The ANCOVA model revealed between-groups differences in
290 SPR10, SPR20 and SPR30 ($F = 6.48-13.79$; $p = 0.012-0.001$) in favor of the EG, as well
291 as higher decrements in DEC-CODd and DEC-CODnd ($F = 4.62-5.47$; $p = 0.037-0.024$).
292 Pre-to-post training values increased in the EG in SPR20 ($p = 0.016$; $ES = -0.56$,
293 moderate) and SPR30 ($p = 0.008$; $ES = -0.62$, moderate), but decreased in DEC-CODd
294 ($p = 0.049$; $ES = 0.45$, small) and DEC-CODnd ($p = 0.014$; $ES = 0.57$, moderate). In the
295 CG, pre-to-post performance worsened in CODd ($p = 0.004$; $ES = 0.63$, moderate).

296

297 **### Table 3 near here, please ###**

298

299 *Injury incidence and burden*

300 Differences in the injury profile are shown in Figure 2. **During the experimental period,**
301 **Participants in CG suffered 3 hamstring injuries (59 absence days) while EC players**
302 **suffered 1 hamstring injury (7 days).** No significant differences between-groups in
303 incidence was observed (1.42 [CG] vs 0.55 [EG] hamstring injuries/1,000 hours of
304 exposure, $RR = 2.60$, 95% CI 0.27-24.99, $p = 0.410$), while significant differences in
305 burden were reported (27.87 [CG] vs 3.82 [EG] absence days/1,000 hours of exposure,
306 $RR = 7.30$, 95% CI 3.34-15.99, $p < 0.001$).

307

308

Figure 2 near here, please###

309

310 Discussion

311 The aims of this study were to analyze the effects of a training program based on NHE
312 and sprint exercises on physical performance and injury incidence and burden in U19
313 soccer players. This is the first investigation to study changes in physical performance
314 and injury incidence and burden through the combination of NHE and sprint exercises in
315 soccer players. The main results were that EG improved sprint capacity (i.e., 20 and 30
316 m) and reduced their burden compared to the CG. However, EG players did not improve
317 their performance in COD parameters in comparison to CG. *These findings partially
318 support our hypothesis, since improvements in COD and a reduction in hamstring injury
319 incidence were not observed.*

320

321 The applied training program in this study (NHE + sprint exercises) mainly focused on
322 hamstring muscles, so attending to the training specificity principle (Baechle & Earle,
323 2007), it seems realistic to expect significant improvements observed in the players' 20
324 and 30 m sprint performance in the EG. These results seem to support those previously
325 reported, although in isolation, since authors such as (Suarez-Arrones et al., 2019; Vicens-
326 Bordas et al., 2020) reported improvements in sprint performance after the application of
327 a training program based on NHE, while (Mendiguchia et al., 2020; Rey et al., 2017)
328 obtained similar results through programming of sprint exercises. However, the
329 improvements obtained in the present study in 10 m sprint performance were not
330 significant, possibly due to the need to train acceleration capacity (i.e., first 10 m in a
331 sprint) through different resistance training methods (Alcaraz et al., 2018). Nevertheless,
332 the between-groups comparison highlights significant improvements for all linear sprint
333 distances in favor of the EG. Therefore, the inclusion of this training program in young
334 soccer players seems to effectively enhance sprint performance in a soccer specific
335 context (Wing, 2018) because it does not interfere with regular soccer training and is
336 applied in an ecological way (i.e., a weekly session and using simple material) (Raya-
337 González et al., 2021). On the other hand, no significant improvements were obtained in
338 COD performance in the EG, in fact, players in this group significantly reduced DEC-
339 CODd and DEC-CODnd performance after 14 weeks of training. This could be related to
340 the specificity of the training for linear sprints, while its transfer to COD performance

341 could be limited (Nimphius et al., 2016). A further justification of this could be because
342 soccer players need to apply high lateral forces on to the ground during COD (Schot et
343 al., 1995), and NHE training used in this protocol does not apply such forces. Therefore,
344 it seems necessary to include tasks that improve lateral forces and the braking action in
345 the COD (Beato et al., 2018), either through developing force with flywheel devices
346 (Raya-González et al., 2021) or through non-linear displacements focused on technique
347 (Hader et al., 2015).

348

349 Previous research has proved the efficacy of NHE to reduce risk of suffering hamstring
350 injuries in soccer players (al Attar et al., 2017; van der Horst et al., 2014). From a practical
351 perspective, achieving a reduction in the number of injuries is essential to improve the
352 long-term success of the team (Hägglund et al., 2013) and to reduce economic costs for
353 the club (Gebert et al., 2018). In our study, a lower injury incidence in the EG was
354 observed after the application of the NHE and sprint training program compared to the
355 CG; however, these differences were not significant. Our findings may be explained by
356 the duration of the observation or the sample size of the study, therefore future studies are
357 needed to verify the findings reported in the current research. On the other hand,
358 significant differences have been obtained in the burden, being lower in the EG, which is
359 a positive aspect since this implies a lower impact of injuries on the performance and
360 health of the players (Bahr et al., 2017). These between-groups differences could be
361 because of how NHE and sprint exercises cause adaptation in the hamstring muscles'
362 architecture (Cuthbert et al., 2020; Mendiguchia et al., 2020), specifically on biceps
363 femoris, and the expected increase in strength level of this muscle complex (Seymore et
364 al., 2017), variables which seem to favor less damage to the involved muscles after an
365 injury incident (van Beijsterveldt et al., 2013). However, this is the first study to analyze
366 the effects of a combined NHE + sprint training program on the soccer players' injury
367 profile, so future studies on this topic are needed.

368

369 This study presents some limitations that should be considered by practitioners. First, it
370 must be considered that it was applied in a soccer group with specific characteristics,
371 therefore, these results should be taken with caution when applied with other teams, levels
372 or in female soccer players. Secondly, this study was performed with a group of U19
373 players with limited strength experience, therefore the NHE and sprinting volume used in
374 this study need to be adjusted in soccer players with higher strength training experience.

375 Lastly, a longer follow-up time would have offered a better view of the impact of the
376 training program on injury incidence in the EG which has been found non-significant in
377 this study, therefore future research is needed to verify the findings reported in this study.

378

379 **Conclusions**

380 This study reported that the application of a training program based on NHE and sprint
381 exercises is effective in improving sprint performance and reducing injury burden in U19
382 soccer players. This training program can be easily implemented in soccer because of its
383 low frequency (one session a week) for the duration of 14 weeks. Meanwhile, this
384 program leads to a reduction of some COD parameters, which should be considered by
385 practitioners. On this specific point, the authors of this group suggest to the practitioners
386 to add some specific COD exercises and strength training (e.g., flywheel training) focused
387 on the improvement of braking action, which could be very beneficial for soccer players'
388 performance.

389

390 **Disclosure of interest**

391 The authors report no conflict of interest.

392

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586 **Table and figure captions**

587 **Figure 1.** CONSORT diagram of participant's recruitment, allocation, follow-up and
588 analysis. CG = control group; EG = experimental group.

589 **Figure 2.** Between-groups differences in incidence and burden.

590 CG = control group; EG = experimental group.

591 * Significant differences ($p < 0.001$).

592 **Table 1.** An in-season weekly program for the U-19 soccer teams.

593 **Table 2.** Nordic hamstring + sprint training program over 14 weeks.

594 **Table 3.** Physical performance before (baseline) and after (post-training) the 14-week
595 intervention period in both groups.