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Journal article

Anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction increases the risk of hamstring strain injury across football codes in Australia

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1 **Title:**

2 Anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction increases the risk of hamstring strain injury across football
3 codes in Australia

4 **Running Title:** Hamstring strain risk after prior injury

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 **Objective:** To determine the impacts of anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction (ACLR) and recent
27 (< 12 months) hamstring strain injury (HSI) on 1) future HSI risk ; and 2) eccentric knee flexor strength
28 and between-limb imbalance during the Nordic hamstring exercise (NHE). A secondary goal was to
29 examine whether eccentric knee flexor strength was a risk factor for future HSI in athletes with prior
30 ACLR and/or HSI. **Methods:** In this prospective cohort study, 531 male athletes had preseason
31 eccentric knee flexor strength tests. Injury history was also collected. The main outcome was HSI
32 occurrence in the subsequent competitive season. **Results:** 74 athletes suffered at least one prospective
33 HSI. Compared to control athletes, those with a life-time history of ACLR and no recent HSI had 2.2
34 (95%CI=1.1-4.4; p = 0.029) times greater odds of subsequent HSI while those with at least one HSI in
35 the previous 12 months and no history of ACLR had 3.1 (95%CI=1.8-5.4; p < 0.001) times greater odds
36 for subsequent HSI. Only athletes with a combined history of ACLR and recent HSI had weaker injured
37 limbs (p = 0.001) and larger between-limb imbalances (p < 0.001) than uninjured players. An
38 exploratory decision tree analysis suggested eccentric strength may protect against HSI after ACLR.
39 **Conclusion:** ACLR and recent HSI were similarly predictive of future HSI. Lower levels of eccentric
40 knee flexor strength and larger between-limb imbalances were found in athletes with combined histories
41 of ACLR and recent HSI. These findings may have implications for injury rehabilitation.

42

43 **Key Points:**

- 44 • A prior anterior cruciate ligament injury requiring reconstruction, like a previous hamstring strain
45 injury, is a predictor of future hamstring strain injury.
- 46 • Athletes who had experienced ACLR without hamstring strain injury in the past 12 months or
47 hamstring injury without ACLR did not exhibit eccentric strength deficits. Only athletes with both
48 a lifetime history of ACLR and a hamstring strain injury in the past 12 displayed deficits in
49 eccentric strength.
- 50 • High levels of eccentric knee flexor strength may protect against hamstring strain injury for those
51 athletes with a prior history of anterior cruciate ligament injury requiring reconstruction.

52

53 **1.0 Introduction**

54 Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries and hamstring strain injuries (HSIs) account for a significant
55 amount of lost playing time in a range of football codes such as soccer, Rugby and Australian Rules
56 football [1, 2]. They have high recurrence rates [1] and a history of each injury is a very strong predictor
57 of the same type of injury in the future [3]. It has also been suggested that a history of a significant knee
58 injury is a risk factor for HSI [4], although the evidence for a link between past ACL reconstruction
59 (ACLR) and future hamstring injury is limited [5].

60

61 A number of studies have reported deficits in concentric [6] and eccentric [7, 6] knee flexor strength,
62 semitendinosus muscle size [8] and fascicle length within the biceps femoris long head [7] in the years
63 following ACLR surgery. However, these studies are almost always constrained by small sample sizes
64 and several investigations have found conflicting results regarding the recovery of strength after
65 rehabilitation [9, 10]. The recovery of strength may also be dependent on the level of sports participation
66 and there is currently little data on the eccentric strength levels of well-trained (elite and near-elite)
67 athletes who have undergone ACLR and have returned to full sports participation.

68

69 Preseason deficits in eccentric knee flexor strength during the Nordic hamstring exercise (NHE) have
70 been associated with an increased risk of future hamstring injury in elite Australian rules footballers
71 [11] and Australian soccer players [12], although no such relationship was noted for Rugby players
72 [13], Gaelic football players [14] or Qatari soccer players [15]. However, interactions between previous
73 HSI history and eccentric strength have been reported, with weakness appearing to have a more
74 significant effect on future injury rates in previously injured than uninjured athletes [11, 12]. At present,
75 however, it is unknown whether eccentric knee flexor strength has an impact on the likelihood of future
76 HSI in athletes with a history of ACLR.

77

78 The primary goals of this study were to determine the impact of a prior ACLR, HSI or both on (1) the
79 risk of future HSI and (2) eccentric knee flexor strength and between-limb imbalance as measured

80 during the NHE. A secondary goal was to examine whether eccentric knee flexor strength was a risk
81 factor in future HSI. We hypothesised; (1) that athletes with prior ACLR and/or HSI would be at an
82 increased risk of future HSI when compared to those with no such injury history, and (2) that prior
83 ACLR and recent HSI would be associated with deficits in eccentric knee flexor strength.

84

85 **2.0 Methods**

86 **2.1 Participants and study design**

87 This study involved a secondary analysis of data collected between 2013 and 2015 for three previously
88 published prospective studies [11, 13, 12]. Ethics approval for these studies was granted by the
89 Queensland University of Technology Human Research Ethics Committee and the Australian Catholic
90 University Human Research Ethics Committee. From these combined studies, a total of 535 male
91 athletes, including 210 elite Australian Football League (AFL) players, 147 elite A-League soccer
92 players (goalkeepers included), and 75 elite and 103 sub-elite rugby union players were included for
93 observation (see Figure 1). Four players from the AFL cohort were removed from the analysis due to
94 incomplete strength testing data. In total, 531 male athletes were included in the analysis. All three
95 studies required players and/or team medical staff to complete a previous injury questionnaire that
96 documented each athlete's history of hamstring, quadriceps, and calf strain injuries and chronic groin
97 pain within the previous 12 months, in addition to their lifetime history of ACLR. These injury reports
98 were confirmed with information from each club's internal medical recording system or consultation
99 between players and an investigator in the case of sub-elite rugby players. The type of ACLR was not
100 recorded for the AFL cohort or some of the rugby players and in all cases the year the injury occurred
101 was recorded but not the specific time point. This study deals with the effects of ACLR on subsequent
102 hamstring injury rather than the effects of any specific reconstruction technique.

103

104 **2.2 Experimental design**

105 ***2.2.1 Eccentric knee flexor strength***

106 The assessment of eccentric knee flexor strength using the Nordic hamstring testing device has been
107 reported previously [16, 11, 12, 17]. Athletes knelt over a padded board, with ankles secured

108 immediately superior to the lateral malleolus by individual ankle braces, which were attached to custom
109 made uniaxial load cells (Delphi Force Measurement, Gold Coast, Australia) with wireless data
110 acquisition capabilities (Mantracourt, Devon, UK). The ankle braces and load cells were secured to a
111 pivot, which allowed the force generated by the knee flexors to be measured through the long axis of
112 the load cells. Following a warm up set of three submaximal repetitions (at ~70, 80 % 90% of perceived
113 maximum effort), athletes performed one set of three maximal repetitions of the bilateral NHE. Athletes
114 were instructed to lean forward at the slowest possible speed while maximally resisting this movement
115 with both limbs and keeping the trunk and hips in a neutral position throughout, with the hands held in
116 line with the chest. Athletes were loudly encouraged to provide maximum effort during each repetition.
117 A repetition was considered acceptable when the force output reached a distinct peak (indicative of
118 maximal eccentric strength), followed by a rapid decline in force, which occurred when the athlete was
119 no longer able to resist the effects of gravity acting on the segment above the knee joint.

120

121 **2.3 Data analysis**

122 Force data for each limb were transferred to a personal computer at 100 Hz through a wireless USB
123 base station receiver (Mantracourt, Devon, UK). Eccentric knee flexor strength, determined for each
124 leg from the peak forces during three repetitions of the NHE, was reported in absolute terms (N). For
125 athletes with no history of lower limb injury, a between-limb imbalance in peak eccentric knee flexor
126 force was calculated as a right:left limb ratio and, for athletes with a prior ACLR or HSI as an
127 uninjured:injured limb ratio. The between-limb imbalance ratio was converted to a percentage
128 difference as per previous work [13, 11] using log-transformed raw data, followed by back
129 transformation. Negative percentage imbalances specify that the left limb was stronger than the right
130 limb in athletes with no history of lower limb injury or that the previously injured limb was stronger
131 than the uninjured limb in athletes with a prior ACLR or HSI. Participants were categorised into groups
132 based on their injury histories (see Figure 1) and were excluded if they had insufficient injury history
133 or strength testing data.

134

135

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

136 **Figure 1.** Participant recruitment and inclusion in the study. 1) No prior anterior cruciate ligament
137 injury (ACL) at any stage and no hamstring strain injury (HSI) within the previous 12 months, 2) At
138 least one HSI in the previous 12 months, 3) At least one ACL injury requiring reconstructive surgery at
139 any stage in the athlete's life.

140

141 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

142 All statistical analyses were performed using JMP 10.2.0 Statistical Discovery Software (SAS Inc.,
143 Cary, North Carolina, USA). Means and standard deviations (SDs) of age, height, body mass, eccentric
144 knee flexor strength for the left and right limbs, and between limb imbalance (%) in strength were
145 determined. The eccentric knee flexor strength of the injured limb in athletes with a history of ACLR
146 and/or HSI were compared with the uninjured contralateral limbs and the average of the left and right
147 limbs (the two-limb average) in athletes with no history of ACLR or HSI. The decisions to average
148 results from left and right limbs were made a priori, although subsequent analyses revealed no
149 statistically significant differences between strength measures from the left and right limbs in athletes
150 with no history of ACLR and no recent HSI [11,12,13]. Analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were
151 performed to assess the effect of prior ACLR, HSI or both on i) eccentric knee flexor strength using
152 body mass as the covariate, and ii) between limb imbalance using the uninjured limb peak force as the
153 covariate. All post-hoc comparisons were made using independent-samples *t* tests with Bonferroni
154 corrections to control for type 1 errors and reported as the mean difference (95% CIs). Pearson's
155 correlation (R^2) was used to assess the magnitude of eccentric knee flexor strength deficits with time
156 since ACLR and was reported with the 95% CI. Univariate logistic regression was performed on the
157 following variables: prior HSI, prior ACLR, peak eccentric knee flexor strength (average of left and
158 right limb), between limb imbalance, age and body mass to assess the contribution of each variable to
159 future injury risk. All variables were then added to a multivariable logistic regression model to assess
160 the risk of future HSI. Odds ratios (95% CIs) were reported for all variables. For these analyses,
161 eccentric knee flexor strength was not scaled to body mass because both variables were examined
162 independently. Given the relatively low number of HSIs reported in this cohort, a Decision Tree
163 Induction (DTI) was conducted to look at the inter-relationship between predictive variables and to

164 visualise the data as an additional form of analysis. Unlike linear models, the DTI maps non-linear
165 relationships effectively and can handle categorical and numerical data for classification and regression.
166 The DTI was applied to those variables included in the final multivariable logistic regression model,
167 thus providing further exploration of the possible effects of those factors on HSI risk. The size of the
168 contribution of each factor was assessed by G square (G^2 , where higher values indicate factors that
169 make a greater contribution to injury risk) and injury risk was assessed by the magnitude of the
170 probability (Prob). Body mass was included as a covariate in the analysis of covariance given the
171 potential relationship between eccentric knee flexor strength and body mass ($r^2 = 0.08$) in this cohort.
172 For the DTI analysis, eccentric knee flexor strength was scaled to body mass via the equation:

$$\text{Scaled Nordic Strength} = (\text{Nordic Force} / \text{Body Mass}^{0.54})$$

174

175 **2.5 Power calculations**

176 Power analysis was undertaken *post hoc* using G-Power (version 3.1.9) [18]. Using eccentric knee
177 flexor strength data, power was calculated as 0.99 for the use of two-tailed independent t tests to
178 compare groups (input parameters: effect size = 0.8; alpha = 0.05; sample size group 1 = 531; sample
179 size group 2 = 74).

180

181 **3.0 Results**

182 **3.1 Details of Cohort and Prospective HSIs**

183 In total, 531 athletes (age, 23.4 ± 4.2 years; height, 184.8 ± 7.7 cm; body mass, 87.5 ± 12.4 kg, left peak
184 force = 327 ± 93 N, right peak force = 354 ± 92 N, mean peak force = 340 ± 92 N and imbalance $20 \pm$
185 15%) had sufficient injury history and strength data and were included in this investigation (Figure 1).
186 Athletes with a lifetime history of ACLR were a median of 48 months (interquartile range = 24-72
187 months) post injury at the time of testing.

188

189 Body mass had a significant effect on eccentric knee flexor strength ($r^2 = 0.08$; $p < 0.001$), where heavier
190 athletes were stronger than lighter athletes. The eccentric knee flexor strength and between-limb
191 imbalance for each group can be seen in Figure 2.

192

193 Athletes with a lifetime history of ACLR and HSI in the previous 12 months were significantly weaker
194 (mean difference = -96N; 95% CI = -164 to -28N; $p = 0.001$; $d = 1.23$) and displayed larger between
195 limb imbalances (mean difference = 21%; 95% CI = 10 to 33%; $p < 0.001$; $d = 1.66$) than uninjured
196 players (those with neither ACLR nor recent HSI). There was no correlation ($r^2 = 0.01$; 95% CI = -0.02
197 to 0.02) between time since ACLR and the magnitude of eccentric knee flexor strength deficits. Athletes
198 with a lifetime history of ACLR and no HSI in the previous 12 months were not weaker than those
199 without a history of injury (mean difference = -15N; 95% CI = -50 to 18N; $p = 0.646$; $d = 0.22$), and
200 the between limb imbalances of these two groups did not differ significantly (mean difference = 4%;
201 95% CI = -1 to 9%; $p = 0.209$; $d = 0.41$). Athletes who had at least one HSI in the previous 12 months
202 were not weaker (mean difference = 23N; 95% CI = -1 to 49N; $p = 0.080$; $d = 0.15$) and did not display
203 greater between limb imbalances (mean difference = -1%; 95% CI = -2 to 5%; $p = 0.847$; $d = 0.03$) than
204 those with no history of injury in that time-frame.

205

206

INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

207 **Figure 2. Eccentric knee flexor strength (N) (bottom) and between-limb imbalance (%) (top) as**
208 **measured during the Nordic hamstring exercise for each group. Eccentric knee flexor strength of**
209 **the injured limb was used for athletes with a history of ACLR and HSI and the average of the left**
210 **and right limbs was used for athletes with no previous injury. Force is reported in absolute terms**
211 **(N). # - significantly different to all other groups ($p < 0.001$). * - significantly different to no**
212 **previous injury ($p < 0.05$) and prior HSI ($p < 0.05$) in eccentric knee flexor strength.**

213

214 Seventy-four athletes suffered at least one HSI during the subsequent competitive season (age, $24.6 \pm$
215 3.9 years; height, 183.6 ± 6.8 cm; body mass, 85.4 ± 11.7 kg), and 457 athletes did not (age, 23.2 ± 4.2
216 years; height, 185.0 ± 7.8 cm; body mass, 87.8 ± 12.5 kg). Subsequently injured athletes were
217 significantly older than uninjured athletes (mean difference = 1.3 years; 95% CI = 0.3 to 2.3; $p = 0.006$;
218 $d = 0.34$). No significant differences were observed for height (mean difference = 1.3 cm; 95% CI = -
219 0.2 to 3.1; $p = 0.114$; $d = 0.19$) or body mass (mean difference = 2.4 kg; 95% CI = -0.5 to 5.3; $p = 0.106$;

220 d = 0.20) between the subsequently injured and uninjured athletes. Of the 74 athletes to suffer
 221 prospective hamstring injuries, 28 were AFL athletes, 20 were rugby players and 26 were soccer
 222 players.

223
 224

225 **3.2 Risk of future hamstring strain injury**

226 **3.2.1 Univariate and multivariable logistic regression**

227 The univariate logistic regression showed that the biggest risk factors for future HSI were a recent
 228 history (12 months) of HSI (OR = 3.1; 95% CI = 1.8 to 5.4; $p < 0.001$) and a lifetime history of ACLR
 229 (OR = 2.2; 95% CI = 1.1 to 4.4; $p = 0.029$) (Table 1). Eccentric strength (OR = 1.0; 95% CI = 0.9 to
 230 1.0; $p = 0.046$) and age (OR = 1.0; 95% CI = 1.0 to 1.1; $p = 0.010$) had extremely small but statistically
 231 significant effects on injury risk only according to the univariate analysis. The multivariable logistic
 232 regression revealed that a recent history (12 months) of HSI was the only significant risk factor for
 233 future HSI (OR = 2.9; 95% CI = 1.3 to 5.1; $p < 0.001$). A lifetime history of ACLR was not significant
 234 when eccentric strength was controlled for (OR = 1.8; 95% CI = 0.8 to 3.8; $p = 0.130$). Body mass and
 235 peak eccentric knee flexor strength had no significant effect on risk of future HSI once previous injury
 236 was controlled for (Table 2).

237

Table 1. Univariate logistic regression model

Risk factor	Odds ratio	95% CI	Significance	Parameter Estimates	Standard Error
Prior ACLR	2.2	1.1 to 4.4	$p = 0.029$	-0.399	0.173
Prior HSI	3.1	1.8 to 5.4	$p < 0.001$	-0.570	0.140
Body Mass (kg)	0.9	0.9 to 1.0	$p = 0.114$	-0.016	0.010
Age (Years)	1.0	1.0 to 1.1	$p = 0.010$	0.073	0.028
Eccentric Strength (N) ¹	1.0	0.9 to 1.0	$p = 0.046$	-0.003	0.001
Between-limb Imbalance(%)	2.6	0.5 to 13.7	$p = 0.257$	0.971	0.840

¹Peak eccentric knee flexor strength (two-limb average)

CI, confidence interval; HSI, hamstring strain injury; ACLR, anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction

238

Table 2. Multivariable logistic regression model

Risk factor	Odds ratio	95% CI	Significance	Parameter Estimates	Standard Error
Prior ACLR	1.8	0.8 to 3.8	p = 0.130	-0.290	0.192
Prior HSI	2.9	1.6 to 5.1	p < 0.001	-0.535	0.144
Body Mass (kg)	0.9	0.9 to 1.0	p = 0.253	-0.013	0.011
Age (Years)	1.0	1.0 to 1.1	p = 0.053	0.058	0.029
Eccentric Strength (N) ¹	1.0	0.9 to 1.0	p = 0.212	-0.002	0.001
Between-limb Imbalance (%)	1.8	0.3 to 10.8	p = 0.499	0.616	0.903

¹Peak eccentric knee flexor strength (two-limb average)

CI, confidence interval; HSI, hamstring strain injury; ACLR, anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction

239

240

241 **3.2.2 Decision Tree Induction**

242 The decision tree (Figure 3) was pruned back so that five splits remained. A HSI in the previous 12
 243 months contributed the most to HSI risk ($G^2 = 15.2$) followed by a lifetime history of ACLR ($G^2 =$
 244 14.8), while eccentric knee flexor strength featured to a smaller extent ($G^2 = 4.8$) by providing a
 245 protective effect for athletes with previous ACLR. Eccentric knee flexor strength allometrically scaled
 246 to body mass (Nordic Force / Body Mass^{0.54}) revealed that the probability of future HSI was higher for
 247 weaker athletes (Prob = 0.7 with eccentric strength < 26N.kg^{-0.54}; Prob = 0.2 with eccentric strength >
 248 26N.kg^{-0.54}) with both prior ACLR and HSI in the previous 12 months. Athletes with a history of ACLR
 249 but no HSI in the previous 12 months who were weaker also had greater probability of future HSI than
 250 stronger athletes (Prob = 0.29 with eccentric strength < 33N.kg^{-0.54}; Prob = 0.01 with eccentric strength
 251 > 33N.kg^{-0.54}).

252

253

254

INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE

255 **Figure 3.** The Decision Tree Induction (DTI) applied to those variables included in the final multiple
 256 logistic regression model. Eccentric knee flexor strength was scaled to body mass (Scaled Nordic
 257 Strength = Nordic Force / Body Mass^{0.54}) to remove the effect of body mass.

258

259 **4.0 Discussion**

260 The main goals of this study were to determine the effect of a prior ACLR, prior HSI, or both on the
261 risk of future HSI, eccentric knee flexor strength and between-limb imbalance. Our main findings are
262 that ACLR significantly increases the risk of subsequent HSI and that only a combination of prior
263 ACLR and recent HSI (within 12 months) was associated with knee flexor weakness. Toohey and
264 colleagues (2017) previously conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis which included two of
265 the three studies that formed the current analysis, plus data from a third study [12]. They also reported
266 that prior ACLR was associated with a heightened risk of future HSI [5], although their analysis did not
267 take into account the possible effects of eccentric knee flexor strength. The inclusion of our third study
268 [12] and consistent strength measures employed across all three studies [13, 11, 12] also allowed
269 exploration of the role of eccentric strength in future HSI.

270

271 The factors that best explain high hamstring injury rates after ACLR are unknown, although
272 proprioceptive [19] and strength deficits [20, 6, 7] and altered gait [21, 22] have been hypothesised to
273 contribute. On the basis of the logistic regressions in this study, the impact of peak forces during the
274 NHE on future hamstring injury risk was confounded by prior ACL injury. The decision tree analysis
275 suggests the possibility that stronger athletes with a history of ACLR but no recent hamstring injury
276 were less likely to experience hamstring strains than weaker ones. For example, none of 16 footballers
277 with scaled Nordic strength $>33\text{N}\cdot\text{kg}^{-0.54}$ sustained a HSI during follow-up while 8 of 27 weaker athletes
278 did. A protective effect of high eccentric strength was also noted for ACLR recipients with a recent
279 history of HSI, although the small number of players in this category limits confidence in the results.
280 Future studies with a larger sample of athletes with previous ACLR may be able to determine, more
281 definitively, the role of strength in protecting against HSI.

282

283 In the soccer cohort reported on here, short fascicles within the biceps femoris long head were associated
284 with an increased risk of HSI [12]. Furthermore, athletes with previous ACLRs from semitendinosus
285 grafts have been reported to exhibit ~15% deficits in biceps femoris long head fascicle lengths in their

286 previously injured limbs [7]. However, we did not assess muscle architecture in either the AFL or rugby
287 players so it is not possible to know if athletes with ACLR in the current study also had ipsilateral
288 fascicle length deficits. Schuermans and colleagues [23] have reported that athletes with a relatively
289 high reliance on biceps femoris and low use of semitendinosus during fatiguing knee flexor exercise,
290 as determined by functional magnetic resonance imaging, have an elevated risk of HSI [24]. As
291 semitendinosus grafts are very often employed in ACLR in Australian football players and this
292 procedure is associated with chronic deficits in semitendinosus muscle volume and length [8, 25], and
293 reduced medial hamstring activation [26], it seems reasonable to suggest that athletes would rely, after
294 this surgery, significantly more on the biceps femoris and less on the semitendinosus while running.
295 We have also shown that recreational athletes with a history of unilateral ACLR exhibit markedly
296 reduced semitendinosus use in the surgical than control limbs (as determined by functional MRI) during
297 the performance of the NHE [27]. Unfortunately, we do not have all the details of surgical graft type
298 for the ACLR recipients in this study, so it is not possible to report what proportion of athletes had
299 undergone semitendinosus, with or without gracilis grafts, as opposed to patellar tendon (or other)
300 grafts. In the soccer cohort, however, 13 of the 16 ACLR's involved semitendinosus and, in our
301 experience, this procedure is the standard in a significant majority (>80%) of AFL and rugby clubs in
302 Australia. It seems reasonable to suggest, therefore, that semitendinosus grafts had been performed on
303 a majority of the ACLR recipients in this study.

304

305 Deficits in knee flexor strength after ACLR have been noted in some [20, 6, 7], but not all previous
306 studies [28, 29]. Persistent deficits in eccentric strength have also been reported after HSI [17]. In this
307 study, no such deficits were observed in players who had experienced just one of these injuries. The
308 discrepancies may be explained by the contraction mode of the knee flexor strength tests, the time since
309 injury and surgical repair and the nature of the rehabilitation programs employed. A majority (428/531)
310 of the athletes in this study were playing at the elite levels of their respective codes and it is likely that
311 most rehabilitation programs were well supervised and that subsequent conditioning programs were
312 multifaceted. Nevertheless, athletes with both a history of ACLR and a HSI within the previous 12
313 months were weaker and had larger between limb imbalance than those without a history of injury

314 despite having returned to full training at the time of strength testing. These athletes may require more
315 specific strength-oriented rehabilitation than they are currently getting in elite sport environments and
316 the current decision tree analysis suggests that higher levels of eccentric strength may reduce the risk
317 of subsequent HSI.

318

319 **4.1 Limitations**

320 It is important to acknowledge some limitations with the current study. The major one is the lack of
321 information regarding the graft types for some of the athletes. This could not be overcome because the
322 original studies were prospective risk factor investigations of hamstring injury and did not involve
323 collection of this information from all participants. Furthermore, de-identification of athlete data
324 prevented us from finding out about graft types retrospectively. Further information regarding graft type
325 may have allowed a comparison of the effects of semitendinosus and patellar grafts on subsequent
326 hamstring injury risk. Unfortunately, given the relatively small number of athletes with prior ACLR
327 ($n=53$), we were underpowered to detect small to moderate effect sizes in this population. Another
328 limitation of the study is related to strength measurements during the NHE. Results of this strength test
329 are influenced to some degree by athlete body mass [30] and height (via altering the moment arm of the
330 above-knee body segment), so any differences between injured and uninjured athletes in these
331 parameters would potentially have impacted on the strength comparisons that were made. To minimise
332 the effect of body mass, it was used as a covariate in the analysis of covariance and eccentric knee flexor
333 strength was scaled to body mass for the decision tree analysis. Furthermore, body mass and height did
334 not differ significantly between players who did and did not sustain a HSI during the period of
335 observation, so any negative impacts were likely small. Another limitation is the incomplete nature of
336 previous hamstring injury histories. Given the shortcomings in recall, we enquired about hamstring
337 injuries only in the previous 12 month period and it is possible that a number of athletes classified as
338 “uninjured” still had deficits of some sort in hamstring capacity as the result of older injuries. Finally,
339 we did not have enough injuries to test the decision tree model with a hold-out dataset, so future work
340 should assess the validity of the current findings.

341

342 **5.0 Conclusion**

343 A history of ACLR, like a history of HSI, is a predictor of future HSI. ACLR without recent HSI and
344 HSI alone were not associated with deficits in eccentric strength, although those with a prior ACLR and
345 a HSI within the last 12 months displayed relatively low levels of eccentric knee flexor strength and
346 larger between limb imbalances than athletes without injury. Further work is required to determine
347 whether higher levels of eccentric knee flexor strength may partially protect athletes with a history of
348 ACLR against future HSI. Future work is needed to determine why a history of ACLR predisposes for
349 future HSI in athletes and how this risk is best minimised.

350

351

352 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

353

354 **Funding**

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356

357 **Conflicts of Interest**

358 AS is listed as a co-inventor on a patent filed for the knee-flexor testing device employed in this study
359 (PCT/AU2012/001041.2012) as well as being a minority shareholder in the company responsible for
360 commercialising the device.

361 DO is listed as a co-inventor on a patent filed for a field-testing device of eccentric hamstring strength
362 (PCT/AU2012/001041.2012) and is a minority shareholder in the company responsible for
363 commercialising the device. Data from prototypes of this device is presented in the current manuscript.

364 DO is also the Chair of the Vald Performance Research Committee, a role that is unpaid. DO has
365 received funding from Vald Performance for research unrelated to the current manuscript. DO's brother
366 and brother-in-law are employees of Vald Performance. DO's brother is a minority shareholder in Vald
367 Performance Pty Ltd.

368 MB has previously received funding from VALD Performance for research unrelated to the current
369 project.

370 MW is a member of the Vald Performance research advisory committee and has previously received
371 travel and subsistence support from VALD Performance for research unrelated to the current project.

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376 **Author Contributions**

377 DM was involved in the study design, data reanalysis and manuscript write up. AS was involved in
378 study design and manuscript write up. DO, MB and RT were principal investigators in the three original
379 studies for which AS, DO, RT and MB were involved with recruitment and testing. DO, MB, RT and
380 MW were involved with the study design, analysis and preparation of this manuscript. All authors had
381 full access to the data in this study and are responsible for the integrity and accuracy of the data analysis.

382

383 **Transparency Declaration**

384 The lead author* (DM) affirms that this manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent account of
385 the study being reported; that no important aspects of the study have been omitted; and that any
386 discrepancies from the study as planned (and, if relevant, registered) have been explained. * = The
387 manuscript's guarantor.

388

389 **Ethical Clearance**

390 All participants provided written, informed consent for this study, which was approved by the
391 Queensland University of Technology Human Research Ethics Committee and the Australian Catholic
392 University Human Research Ethics Committee. **All previous studies were performed in accordance
393 with the standards of ethics outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki.**

394

395 **Patient and Public Involvement**

396 Patients or the public were not involved in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans
397 of our research.

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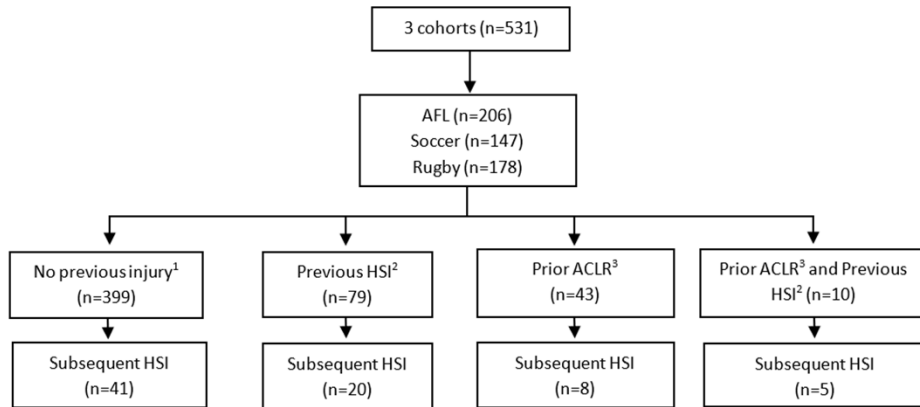
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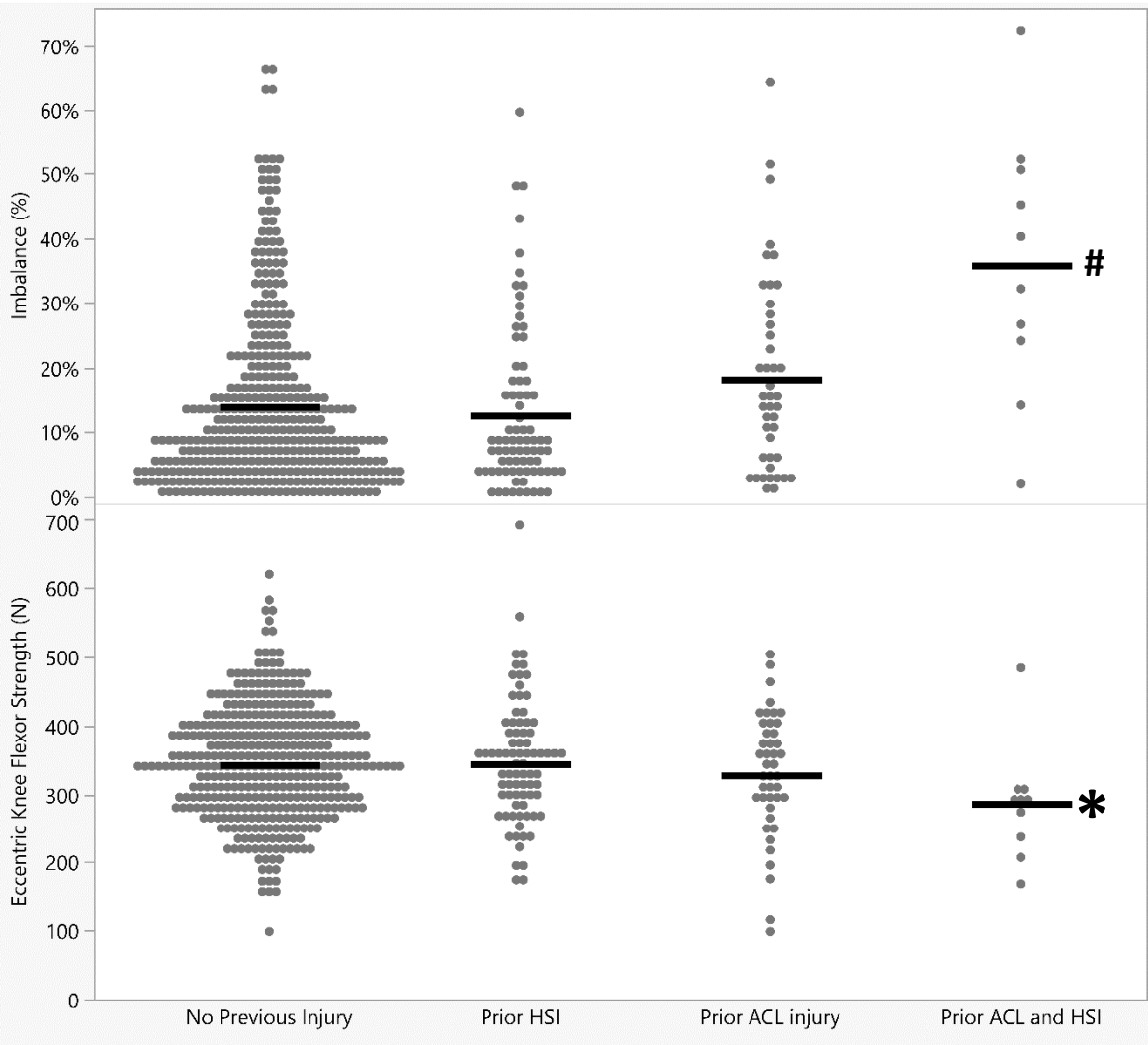
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All Rows			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
531	428.83	4.02	
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.14	0.14	74
N	0.86	0.86	457

Previous HSI (N)			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
442	307.90	0.90	
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.11	0.11	49
N	0.89	0.89	393

Previous HSI (Y)			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
89	105.69	0.92	
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.28	0.28	25
N	0.72	0.72	64

Prior ACLR (N)			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
399	264.21		
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.10	0.10	41
N	0.90	0.90	358

Prior ACLR (Y)			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
43	41.31		
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.19	0.19	8
N	0.82	0.82	35

Prior ACLR (N)			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
79	89.39		
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.25	0.25	20
N	0.75	0.75	59

Prior ACLR (Y)			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
10	13.86	0.57	
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.50	0.47	5
N	0.50	0.53	5

Scaled Nordic Strength >33			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
16	0		
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.00	0.01	0
N	1.00	0.99	16

Scaled Nordic Strength <33			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
27	32.81		
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.30	0.29	8
N	0.70	0.71	19

Scaled Nordic Strength >26			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
5	5.00		
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.20	0.20	1
N	0.80	0.80	4

Scaled Nordic Strength <26			
Count	G ²	LogWorth	
5	5.00		
Level	Rate	Prob	Count
Y	0.80	0.70	4
N	0.20	0.30	1

Term	Number of Splits	G ²
Previous HSI	1	15.2
Prior ACLR	2	14.8
Scaled Nordic Strength	3	4.8