

1 **Investigating Strength and Range of Motion of the Hip Complex in Ice Hockey**
2 **Athletes.**

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11 Previous epidemiological studies investigating injuries in ice hockey have found the hip to be
12 more frequently affected than other body areas, especially via non-contact mechanisms [1-4].
13 Many studies find strength to be an important risk factor for lower limb injuries and in particular
14 overuse injuries [5-10]. Muscular strength and proprioception are considered key components
15 in joint stability with significant differences in dynamic balance following a strength and
16 proprioception protocol, leading to a reduced risk of injury [11].

17 Limited range of motion (ROM) has been widely reported to increase the potential risk of injury
18 to athletes in both soccer and ice hockey [7, 12-14] with muscular tightness being a major risk
19 factor for adductor strains in professional soccer [7]. In a prospective study of professional
20 soccer athletes it was found that those who displayed a decrease in hamstring or quadriceps
21 muscle ROM were significantly more likely to sustain a hamstring or quadriceps muscle injury
22 than athletes who did not display tightness, therefore indicating the potential to ascertain injury
23 risk from pre-season data [15].

24 Tyler and colleagues [12] found that ice hockey athletes displaying a decrease in strength of the
25 hip adductor muscles were at a significantly higher risk of receiving a hip adductor muscle
26 strain, with athletes exhibiting hip adductor strength less than 80% of their hip abduction
27 strength being at significantly greater risk of injury [12]. Additionally many studies, particularly

28 in soccer research, have concluded that strength is a more prominent determinant of injury than
29 ROM alone when analysing athletes who subsequently sustained an injury [5-10, 16].

30 The purpose of this study was to compare the differences in ROM and strength of the hip for
31 both dominant (Dom) and non-dominant (Ndom) legs in ice hockey and soccer athletes. Soccer
32 athletes were chosen for comparison to ice hockey athletes due to similarities between the two
33 sports with regards to the intermittent nature of the sports [17-19] and the similar high number
34 of lower limb injuries observed in soccer[1-4, 15, 20]. A key outcome of this analysis was to
35 determine why the ice hockey athletes' hip is possibly 'at risk' from non-contact injuries.

36 **Methodology**

37 **Design**

38 Using a case-control design, participants were required to complete one experimental trial.
39 ROM assessment comprised of one familiarization movement and three experimental
40 movements, strength assessment comprised of one familiarization movement and five
41 experimental movements, with a one minute rest allowed between each movement. Dominance
42 was determined by participants' preferred leg used to kick a ball. For ROM and strength
43 measurement the starting leg (either Dom or Ndom) was alternated by participant and an
44 average of the measured experimental movements were taken for statistical analysis.
45 Participants were asked to refrain from alcohol and strenuous exercise in the 24 hours preceding
46 testing. All testing procedures were approved by a University ethics committee and written
47 informed consent was given. Participants were treated in accordance with the Declaration of
48 Helsinki.

49 **Participants**

50 Twenty-four male participants (mean \pm SD: age 21 ± 1.0 yrs; height 182.6 ± 7.2 cm; body mass
51 81.6 ± 8.4 kg) were recruited from one National Collegiate Athletic Association Division III
52 College within the Minnesota Intercollegiate Athletic Conference during the 2012-13 soccer

53 and ice hockey seasons respectively. Of the 24 participants, eight were soccer athletes (Mean \pm
54 SD: Age 20.1 ± 0.99 yrs; Height 181.3 ± 7.3 cm; Body Mass 74.9 ± 5.2 kg) and 16 were ice
55 hockey athletes (Mean \pm SD: Age 22.1 ± 1.1 yrs; Height 183.3 ± 7.3 cm; Body Mass 84.9 ± 7.7
56 kg). Inclusion criteria stipulated that participants were members of either the soccer or ice
57 hockey teams only, having played for at least one season and free from injury for at least three
58 months preceding the date of testing.

59 **Procedures**

60 Prior to all experimental measurement, height (Seca 217, Seca, Hanover, MD, USA) and mass
61 (Seca 700, Seca) were taken as part of the screening process accompanied with total limb
62 length, measured from the anterior superior iliac spine (ASIS) to 2.54 cm above the lateral
63 malleolus, and lower limb length measured from the head of fibula to 2.54 cm above the lateral
64 malleolus and ASIS to one inch above the knee joint line allowing the manual muscle testing
65 results to be converted to Nm/kg [21].

66 Participants also completed a five minute standardised sub-maximal ergometer warm-up at
67 50RPM (Monark 824E, Monark Exercise AB, Varberg, Sweden). ROM was measured in
68 degrees ($^{\circ}$) using a standard goniometer (Gollehon extendable goniometer, Lafayette
69 Instruments, Lafayette, IN, USA) following the procedures of Reiman and Manske [22] and
70 was completed in the following order: hip abduction, adduction, flexion in sitting (FS) and lying
71 (FL), extension, internal (IR) and external rotation (ER).

72 Strength testing using the breaking force method [12] was completed using a hand held
73 dynamometer (Datalink DLK900, Biometrics Ltd, Newport, UK), measured in Newtons (N)
74 and was converted into Nm/kg by using participant's limb length and weight. Movement order
75 matched that of ROM testing. After testing strength ratios were calculated both for
76 adduction:abduction of the hip and external/internal rotation of the hip to evaluate any
77 imbalances between opposing muscle groups.

78 **Statistical Analyses**

79 Data were analysed using SPSS version 19 (Chicago, IL, USA). A mixed model ANOVA was
80 used to investigate interactions (sport (ice hockey/soccer) x leg (Dom/Ndom)) and main effects
81 (leg differences or sport differences) for the ROM variables: abduction, adduction, FS, FL,
82 extension, IR, ER and for the strength variables: abduction, adduction, FS, FL, extension, IR
83 and ER. In the instance of a significant interaction (accepted at $p \leq 0.05$) post-hoc analysis was
84 completed using least significance difference (LSD). Only significant findings were reported
85 with their associated F values and effect size.

86 **Results**

87 Mean hip ROM for both ice hockey and soccer athletes are displayed in Table 1. There was a
88 significant interaction for sport and leg dominance for ROM in adduction ($F(1,21) = 7.850$, p
89 $= 0.011$, $Peta^2 = 0.272$). Ice hockey athletes had greater hip adduction on their Dom leg and also
90 greater ROM than soccer athletes on their Dom leg (both $p = 0.002$) (Table 1). Ice hockey
91 athletes also had greater ROM in adduction ($F(1,21) = 8.033$, $p = 0.010$, $Peta^2 = 0.277$) and
92 less ROM in ER ($F(1,21) = 4.709$, $p = 0.042$, $Peta^2 = 0.183$) than soccer athletes (Figure 1).

93 There were also main effect differences between the legs of athletes regardless of sport. The
94 Dom leg always displayed greater ROM in FS ($F(1,21) = 7.030$, $p < 0.015$, $Peta^2 = 0.251$)
95 (Figure 2). The Ndom leg displayed greater ROM in FL ($F(1,21) = 6.786$, $p = 0.017$, $Peta^2 =$
96 0.244) and IR ($F(1,21) = 6.940$, $p = 0.015$, $Peta^2 = 0.248$) (Figure 2). There were no other
97 significant interactions between sport and leg, nor main effect differences between sport or leg
98 for the remaining ROM variables measured.

99 **Strength**

100 Mean strength for both ice hockey and soccer athletes is displayed in Table 2. There was a
101 significant interaction effect for sport and leg dominance for strength in adduction ($F(1,21) =$
102 15.267 , $p = 0.001$, $Peta^2 = 0.421$). Ice hockey athletes had less adduction strength on their Ndom

103 leg compared to their Dom leg ($p = 0.02$) as well as less strength in adduction than soccer
104 athletes on their Ndom leg ($p = 0.40$) (Table 2). Similar to ice hockey athletes, soccer athletes
105 had greater strength in adduction in their Dom leg compared to their Ndom leg ($p = 0.033$)
106 (Table 2).

107 There were main effect differences for strength between the sports. Ice hockey athletes had less
108 hip adduction strength ($F(1,21) = 5.415$, $p = 0.030$, $Peta^2 = 0.205$), FS ($F(1,21) = 6.066$, $p =$
109 0.023 , $Peta^2 = 0.224$) and FL ($F(1,21) = 5.411$, $p = 0.030$, $Peta^2 = 0.205$) than soccer athletes
110 (Figure 3). There was a main effect difference for the adduction:abduction ratio between the
111 legs of all athletes, regardless of sport, with the Dom leg showing a higher ratio (more equal)
112 than the Ndom leg ($F(1,22) = 8.439$, $p = 0.008$, $Peta^2 = 0.277$) (Figure 4). There were no other
113 significant interactions between sport and leg, nor main effect differences between sport or leg
114 for the variables measured.

115 **Discussion**

116 This study aimed to investigate the differences between ice hockey and soccer athletes hips
117 with regards to ROM and strength. The main findings were that ice hockey athletes had greater
118 hip adduction ROM compared to soccer athletes, along with greater ROM on their Dom leg
119 compared to their Ndom leg. Ice hockey athletes also exhibited less strength in hip adduction
120 when compared to soccer athletes, with all athletes showing decreased strength in hip adduction
121 in their Ndom leg compared to their Dom leg. Another major finding is that ice hockey players
122 presented with a decrease in ROM of their ER which has previously been suggested to increase
123 an athlete's risk of developing a femoroacetabular impingement (FAI) injury. These findings
124 may mean that ice hockey athletes are at an increased risk of injury due to their weakness in
125 strength around the hip.

126 Although direct comparisons between the current study and that of the work of Tyler and
127 colleagues [12] cannot be made due to the lack of injury data in the current study and the lack
128 of strength measures given by Tyler and colleagues [12], some similarities can clearly be seen.

129 Tyler and colleagues [12] found that ice hockey athletes who subsequently went on to sustain
130 a hip injury had a decrease in pre injury hip adduction strength compared to athletes who did
131 not sustain an injury. When this information is considered alongside our finding that ice hockey
132 athletes had an adduction strength deficit when compared to soccer athletes (Figure 3; ice
133 hockey 2.51 Nm/kg vs. soccer 2.79 Nm/kg) it may suggest that ice hockey athletes are at an
134 increased risk of injury. Hip adduction weakness is of also of particular importance as ice
135 hockey athletes have previously been reported to be at a greater risk of injury with the existence
136 of hip adductor weakness limiting the eccentric control needed for successful skating, along
137 with a compromise of stability throughout the skating pattern [12, 23, 24]. This finding may
138 hold interest for coaches, clinicians and trainers with an interest in performance enhancement
139 and injury risk mitigation.

140 A further finding of our study was that ice hockey athletes had lower strength than soccer
141 athletes in FS (ice hockey 1.84 Nm/kg vs. soccer 2.06 Nm/kg) and FL (ice hockey 1.44 Nm/kg
142 vs. soccer 1.71 Nm/kg) (Figure 3). This may be important because the hip flexors and adductors
143 act as stabilizers during ice skating [12], thus apparent weakness perhaps suggests some
144 rationale for the incidence of non contact hip musculature injuries in ice hockey. In comparison
145 to soccer specific literature this argument does seem to have merit. Studies such as those
146 conducted by Askling and colleagues [10] and Orchard and colleagues [13] have reported that
147 decreased knee flexor strength predisposes soccer athletes to hamstring muscle injury,
148 theorising that this muscle has a role to stabilise the joint [13]. Conversely, it has also been
149 found that there were no differences between injured and uninjured ice hockey athletes' FS or
150 FL strength which may suggest that hip musculature injury risk is dependent upon a pattern of
151 muscle weakness across multiple movements [12]. Therefore, the demands of the ice hockey
152 skating stride must be discussed in detail alongside our findings to discern areas of possible
153 causation for hip musculature injury.

154 During the skating stride in ice hockey the hip abductors and extensors are the primary movers
155 whilst the hip flexors and adductors act predominantly as stabilizers of the hip joint and also

156 act to decelerate the lower limb [12]. A weakness in strength of these muscles in the ice hockey
157 athlete (as seen in Figure 3) may therefore lead to an increased risk of injury due to the high
158 loading placed upon the adductors when slowing the limb down across the hip, along with the
159 high external forces placed upon the hip during the skating stride [12, 25, 26]. Since higher
160 calibre athletes generally achieve a faster skating speed whilst maintaining the same stride rate
161 as lower calibre athletes [27] it may be assumed that the aforementioned loading patterns and
162 forces are greater, meaning that strength deficit may be relative but also more damaging and
163 pre-disposing. Indeed, work by Stull and colleagues [23] and Chang and colleagues [24] has
164 suggested that increased skating speed is associated with higher eccentric muscle loading
165 patterns and increased hip musculature injury rates. Additionally, increased skating speed is a
166 desirable factor in ice hockey performance [23, 24] meaning that it will likely be coached and
167 practiced regularly, also possibly driving up predisposition to injury in athletes with strength
168 deficit patterns.

169 We also presented that the Ndom leg had a decreased adduction/abduction strength ratio
170 compared to that of the Dom leg (Figure 4; Dom 1.18 vs. Ndom 1.08). This finding is similar
171 to the previous work of Tyler and colleagues [12] as they investigated injured versus uninjured
172 athletes, finding that athletes who went on to sustain an injury had a lower ratio compared to
173 uninjured athletes. However, the study by Tyler and Colleagues [12] reported no difference
174 between the Dom and Ndom leg in athletes who went on to sustain a hip injury and although
175 the work of Tyler and colleagues [12] is suggestive that either leg is susceptible to injury, our
176 work suggests that the Ndom leg may be at an increased risk due to the lower strength ratio
177 seen in Figure 4, however as this study did not analyse athletes who went on to sustain a hip
178 injury, further research is necessary to investigate this further.

179 With regard to ROM, ice hockey athletes displayed significantly less ER when compared to
180 soccer athletes (Figure 1; ice hockey 28.97° vs. soccer 37.00°). This may be important for injury
181 risk because professional soccer athletes with decreased ROM have been shown to be more
182 likely to sustain a muscle injury, suggesting that lack of ROM may be a predictor of injury,

183 particularly with a decrease in ER ROM [15, 28]. Our finding that ice hockey athletes have a
184 decreased ROM, may imply that they are at a greater risk of hip injury compared to soccer
185 athletes, as it has been noted that a decrease in general hip ROM leads to an increased risk of
186 injury as performance of complex ice hockey skills, such as skating, is hindered [14]. This
187 finding may also begin to explain the increasing amount of FAI injuries observed in ice hockey
188 athletes [23, 25, 29] as external rotation has been seen to decrease in athletes with FAI
189 symptoms [30].

190 All athletes in this study showed greater ROM in Dom hip FL compared to the Ndom leg (Dom
191 41.42° vs. Ndom 35.46°), but conversely had less than the Ndom in FL (Dom 99.92° vs. Ndom
192 104.88°) and IR (Dom 25.88° vs. Ndom 29.50°) (Figure 2). However, as previously mentioned
193 measures of strength may be a greater determinant for injury as opposed to ROM alone and
194 therefore both strength and ROM measures should be taken into account [5-10, 16].

195 **Conclusion**

196 Our findings suggest that ice hockey athletes may present an ‘at risk’ profile for non-contact
197 hip injuries, based on both previous literature and due to weaknesses in strength and ROM
198 around the hip in comparison with soccer athletes. When discussed in relation to the specific
199 demands of the ice hockey stride the results of our study give an insight to hip musculature
200 injury causation which may aid in the recognition of ice hockey athletes who may benefit from
201 strategies for injury prevention and performance enhancement. Future research should employ
202 detailed biomechanical analysis of the loading of the hip in ice hockey, particularly in athletes
203 who display an ‘at risk’ profile. High quality prospective studies are also required in this
204 population to clarify the usefulness of the ‘at risk’ profile as a predictor of injury. Additionally,
205 authors should consider the efficacy of training and strength intervention studies aimed
206 specifically at the hip complex of the ice hockey athlete.

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Table 1 Mean and standard deviation for hip Range of Motion (ROM) in both ice hockey and soccer athletes.

Hip movement measured	Leg dominance	ROM of ice hockey athletes (°) (Mean ± SD) n = 16	ROM of soccer athletes (°) (Mean ± SD) n = 8
Abduction	Dom	46.31 ± 8.90	38.25 ± 4.33
	Ndom	42.88 ± 12.68	39.63 ± 9.96
Adduction	Dom	29.25 ± 8.28*	19.38 ± 3.74
	Ndom	25.13 ± 4.29	20.75 ± 4.43
FL	Dom	97.94 ± 18.43	103.88 ± 17.96
	Ndom	102.00 ± 14.50	110.63 ± 15.49
FS	Dom	42.19 ± 9.56	39.88 ± 9.67
	Ndom	45.56 ± 8.45	35.25 ± 7.11
Extension	Dom	24.44 ± 10.60	22.13 ± 5.74
	Ndom	24.25 ± 12.90	20.50 ± 8.25
IR	Dom	27.25 ± 8.34	23.13 ± 6.36
	Ndom	29.19 ± 11.15	30.13 ± 12.16
ER	Dom	29.36 ± 8.04	37.25 ± 7.87
	Ndom	28.56 ± 14.24	36.75 ± 13.71

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* Ice hockey athletes greater ROM on Dom leg compared to Ndom and soccer athletes (both p=0.002).

311 **Table 2 Mean and standard deviation for hip strength in both ice hockey and soccer**
 312 **athletes.**
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Hip movement measured	Leg dominance	Ice hockey athletes strength (Nm/kg) (Mean \pm SD) n = 16	Soccer athletes strength (Nm/kg) (Mean \pm SD) n = 8
Abduction	Dom	2.26 \pm 0.21	2.45 \pm 0.31
	Ndom	2.27 \pm 0.23	2.35 \pm 0.28
Adduction	Dom	2.64 \pm 0.28	2.90 \pm 0.33#
	Ndom	2.39 \pm 0.25*	2.68 \pm 0.36
FL	Dom	1.44 \pm 0.19	1.61 \pm 0.14
	Ndom	1.45 \pm 0.18	1.63 \pm 0.17
FS	Dom	1.85 \pm 0.15	2.01 \pm 0.27
	Ndom	1.82 \pm 0.23	2.11 \pm 0.25
Extension	Dom	1.39 \pm 0.27	1.63 \pm 0.38
	Ndom	1.49 \pm 0.37	1.78 \pm 0.47
IR	Dom	1.03 \pm 0.18	1.24 \pm 0.28
	Ndom	1.08 \pm 0.19	1.19 \pm 0.28
ER	Dom	0.83 \pm 0.10	0.92 \pm 0.21
	Ndom	0.86 \pm 0.13	0.95 \pm 0.24

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 315 * Ice hockey athletes had less strength compared to Dom (p=0.02) and soccer athletes (p=0.40).
 316 # Soccer athletes had greater strength compared to Ndom leg (p=0.033).
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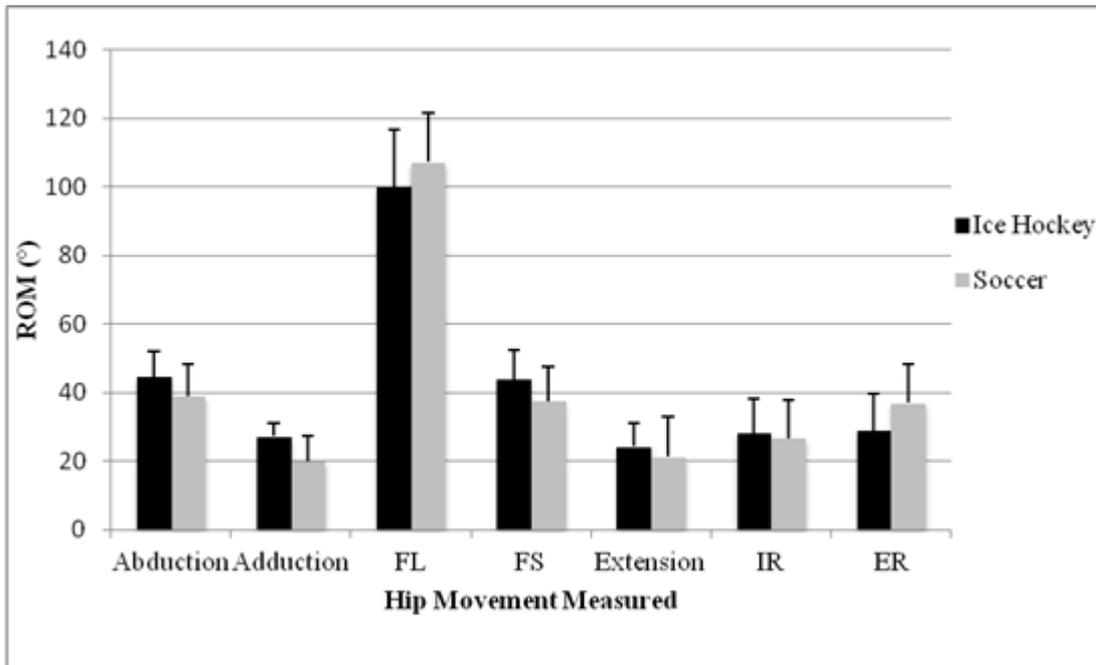
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323 **Figure 1 Range of Motion (ROM) difference between ice hockey and soccer athletes for**
324 **dominant (Dom) and non-dominant (Ndom) legs.**



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326 * Ice hockey athletes had significantly greater hip adduction (p=0.010).

327 # Ice hockey athletes had significantly less hip ER (p=0.042).

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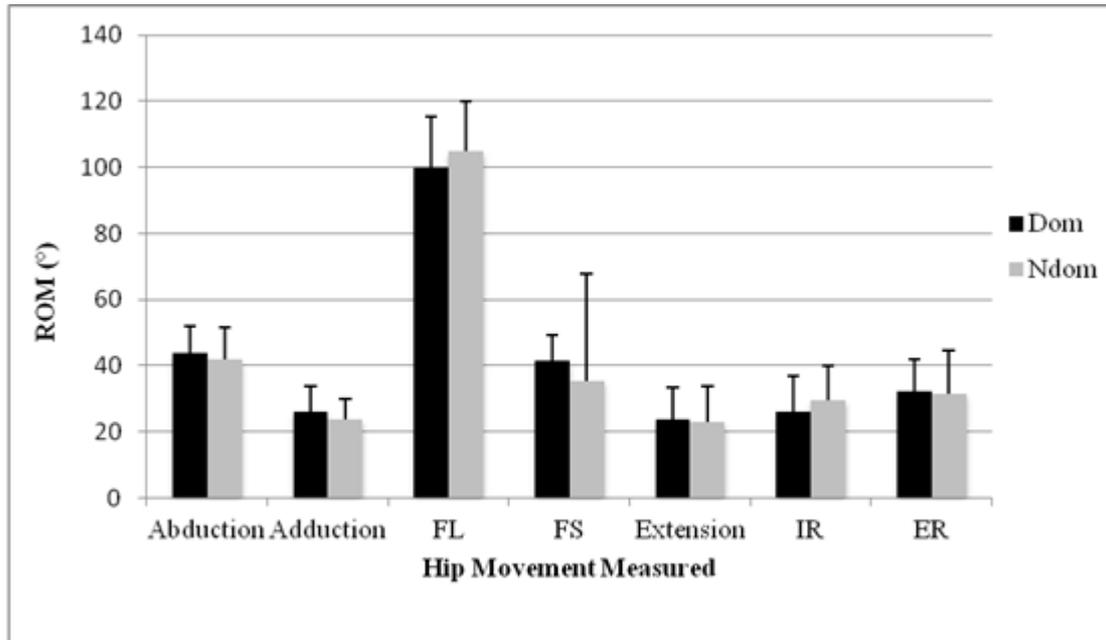
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338 **Figure 2 Range of Motion (ROM) differences between dominant (Dom) and non-**
339 **dominant (Ndom) legs of ice hockey and soccer athletes combined.**



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341 * Ndom leg had significantly greater hip FL (p=0.017)

342 # Dom leg had significantly greater hip FS (p=0.015)

343 ~ Ndom leg had significantly greater IR (p=0.015)

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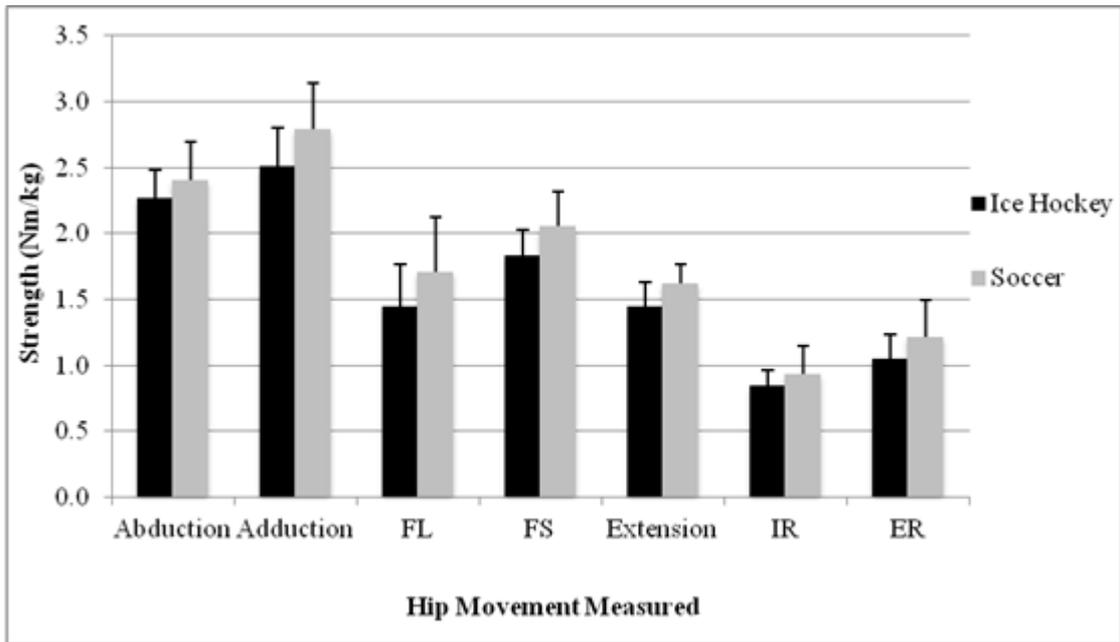
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354 **Figure 3 Strength differences between ice hockey and soccer athletes for dominant (Dom)**
355 **and non-dominant (Ndom) legs.**



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357 * Ice hockey athletes had significantly less hip adduction (p=0.030)
358 # Ice hockey athletes had significantly less hip FL (p=0.030)
359 ~ Ice hockey athletes had significantly less hip FS (p=0.023)
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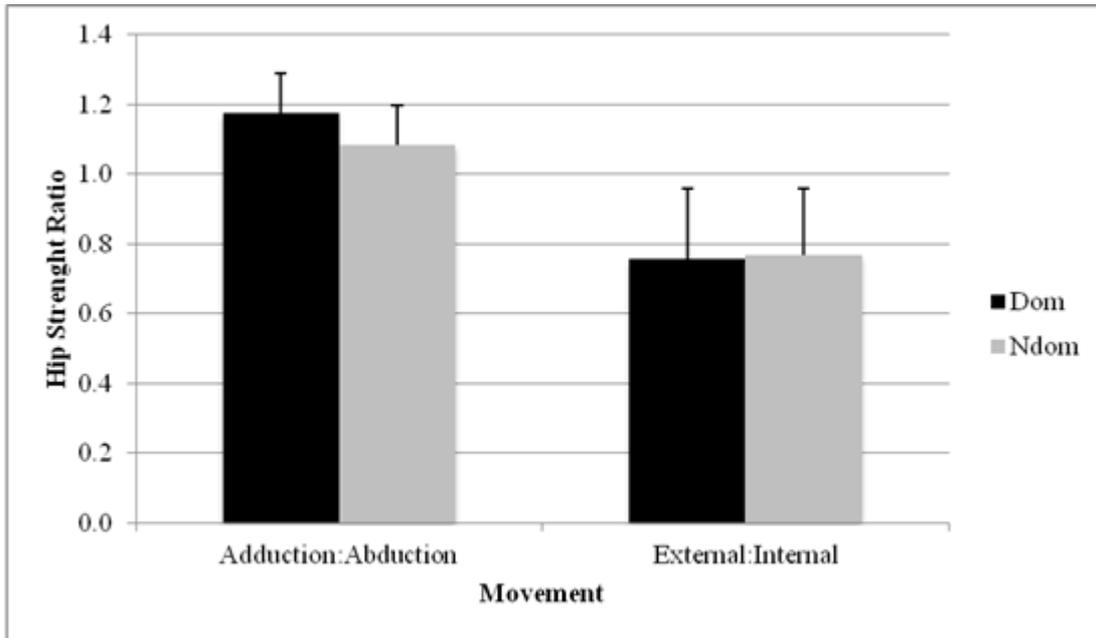
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370 **Figure 4 Strength ratio differences between dominant (Dom) and non-dominant (Ndom)**
371 **legs of ice hockey and soccer athletes combined.**



372 * Dom leg showed significantly higher ratio than Ndom (p=0.008)
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