



Eccentric Exercise to Enhance Neuromuscular Control

Lindsey K. Lepley, PhD, ATC,^{*†} Adam S. Lepley, PhD, ATC,[†] James A. Onate, PhD, ATC,[‡] and Dustin R. Grooms, PhD, ATC^{§||}

Context: Neuromuscular alterations are a major causal factor of primary and secondary injuries. Though injury prevention programs have experienced some success, rates of injuries have not declined, and after injury, individuals often return to activity with functionality below clinical recommendations. Considering alternative therapies to the conventional concentric exercise approach, such as one that can target neuromuscular injury risk and postinjury alterations, may provide for more effective injury prevention and rehabilitation protocols.

Evidence Acquisition: Peer-reviewed sources available on the Web of Science and MEDLINE databases from 2000 through 2016 were gathered using searches associated with the keywords *eccentric exercise*, *injury prevention*, and *neuromuscular control*.

Hypothesis: Eccentric exercise will reduce injury risk by targeting specific neural and morphologic alterations that precipitate neuromuscular dysfunction.

Study Design: Clinical review.

Level of Evidence: Level 4.

Results: Neuromuscular control is influenced by alterations in muscle morphology and neural activity. Eccentric exercise beneficially modifies several underlying factors of muscle morphology (fiber typing, cross-sectional area, working range, and pennation angle), and emerging evidence indicates that eccentric exercise is also beneficial to peripheral and central neural activity (alpha motoneuron recruitment/firing, sarcolemma activity, corticospinal excitability, and brain activation).

Conclusion: There is mounting evidence that eccentric exercise is not only a therapeutic intervention influencing muscle morphology but also targets unique alterations in neuromuscular control, influencing injury risk.

Keywords: injury prevention; neuromuscular; eccentric exercise

Conventional injury prevention and rehabilitation protocols have often focused on targeting muscle strength to reduce injury risk.^{41,42,49} Though this approach is well intentioned, emerging evidence indicates that strength alone is not an independent predictor of primary and secondary injuries.^{42,44,45,72,84,117} Hence, focusing on strength as a lone therapeutic target does not appear to adequately reduce the risk of injury. Further complicating this situation, common lower extremity injuries such as anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) rupture and ankle sprains can have life-long consequences, as these injuries are known to be a precursor to long-term disability associated with

early-onset osteoarthritis.^{52,110,116} The extensive health care cost and life-long disability^{69,99} of common musculoskeletal injuries highlights the importance of reducing primary and secondary musculoskeletal injury risk.

Emerging evidence indicates that movement patterns that increase the risk of injury occur because of neuromuscular control deficits, which lead to compensatory motor strategies.^{38,46,80,84} This lack of motor control or deficit in neuromuscular function has been operationally defined as the neurological mechanisms underlying the unconscious activation of dynamic restraints occurring in preparation for and in

From the [†]Department of Kinesiology, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut, [‡]School of Health and Rehabilitative Sciences, College of Medicine, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, [§]Ohio Musculoskeletal & Neurological Institute, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, and ^{||}Division of Athletic Training, School of Applied Health Sciences and Wellness, College of Health Sciences and Professions, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

*Address correspondence to Lindsey K. Lepley, PhD, ATC, Department of Kinesiology, University of Connecticut, 2095 Hillside Road, Unit 1110, Storrs, CT 06268 (email: lindsey.lepley@uconn.edu).

The authors report no potential conflicts of interest in the development and publication of this article.

DOI: 10.1177/1941738117710913

© 2017 The Author(s)

response to joint motion.^{93,94} Clinically, these deficits in neuromuscular control manifest as poor landing mechanics, deficits in postural control, and altered peripheral muscle activation arising from changes in the central nervous system adversely affecting control of the skeletal muscle system.^{93,94} Though researchers and clinicians have implemented injury prevention protocols to reduce the incidence of injury by targeting 1 or more of the abovementioned factors of neuromuscular control with some success,^{60,113} the role of eccentric exercise as a training modality to mitigate these risk factors and reduce injury rates is often overlooked. The lack of eccentric exercise during injury prevention is likely due, in part, to the outdated notion that eccentric exercise causes muscle injury and soreness.^{71,90,91} This negative association between eccentric exercise and injury is likely because of research that uses very high-intensity and volume-lengthening exercises to experimentally induce injury, resulting in a large body of literature that supports the notion that eccentric exercise can be dangerous.^{13,27,70,71} Importantly, the muscle strains and subsequent injuries produced in these benchtop experiments have not been reproduced in the clinic, strongly suggesting that eccentric exercise is safe.¹⁴ However, in response to the outdated notion that eccentric exercise produces muscle soreness and injury and is associated with reduced performance,^{77,90,91} concentric exercise is often utilized as the clinical default to enhance neuromuscular control. Unfortunately, the concentric exercise approach does not restore neuromuscular function after injury,^{63,73,82} and both primary and secondary injury rates remain high.^{5,18,74,84} Though the ability of eccentric exercise to remodel muscle morphology is well known,^{1,11,12,26,29} and the adoption of eccentric exercise to prevent hamstring strains is gaining traction thanks to programs like FIFA 11+,^{85,106} there is also mounting evidence to support its use to enhance neuromuscular control and potentially reduce the incidence of injury. Accordingly, the objectives of this work were to (1) provide clinicians with an updated account of how alterations in neuromuscular control are a leading risk factor for injury and (2) propose a paradigm shift where eccentric exercise is used not only to optimize muscle morphology but also to prevent injury by targeting specific neural adaptations that are associated with poor neuromuscular control (Figure 1).

ALTERED NEUROMUSCULAR CONTROL LEADS TO PRIMARY AND SECONDARY INJURIES

Proper neuromuscular control is maintained by an inherently complicated physiological system, and the degree to which alterations in this complex system (alpha-gamma motorneuron coactivation, mechanoreceptors, cortical and spinal mechanisms) contribute to injury is becoming clearer.^{79,89} In particular, prospective data sets^{45,117} allow researchers to make critical causal links between targetable injury risk factors and primary injury occurrence. Perhaps one of the most striking findings emerging from these studies is that strength alone is not predictive of primary injury.^{45,117} Alternatively, improper

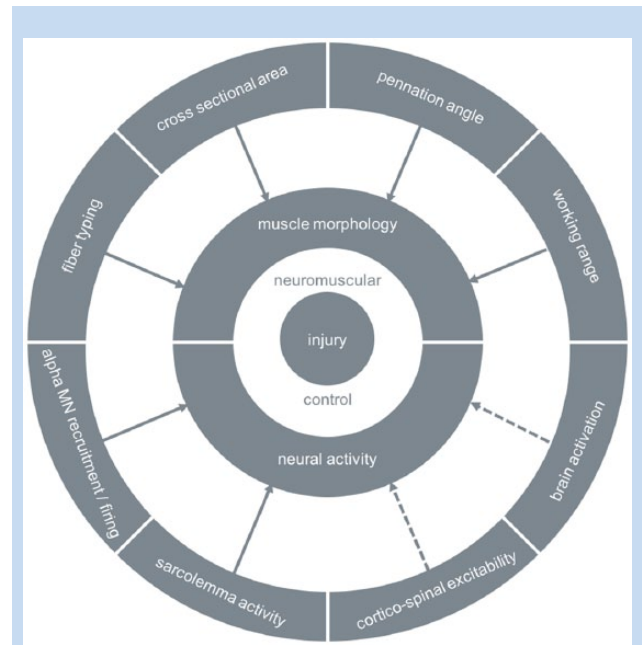


Figure 1. Injury is influenced by neuromuscular control (muscle morphology and neural activity). Eccentric exercise is known to beneficially modify several underlying factors of muscle morphology and neural activity (solid lines), and emerging evidence indicates that eccentric exercise is also beneficial to cortical neural control (dashed lines). Thus, eccentric exercise can be used to optimize neuromuscular control, thereby reducing the risk of injury.

neuromuscular control appears to be the significant causal risk factor of primary lower extremity injury, as investigators have found that alterations in neuromuscular control can lead to excessive lateral trunk displacement¹¹⁷ and abnormal knee mechanics (valgus moments) during loading, which are the most predictive risk factors of those who go on to experience ACL injury.⁴⁵ Field assessment tools such as the Landing Error Scoring System (LESS) have also shown promise in prospectively predicting primary ACL injury risk in youth soccer players with abnormal landing characteristics⁸⁰; however, evidence thus far has been contradictory, with others demonstrating no relationship between the risk of suffering ACL injury and LESS scores in high school and college athletes.¹⁰³ Altered hip and knee mechanics and postural control during loading are the strongest predictive risk factors for individuals who develop patellofemoral pain syndrome.⁸ Similarly, in individuals who experience ankle sprains, high postural sway is evident prior to the initial injury,⁷² and reduced performance on clinical measures of balance (Star Excursion Balance Test in the anterior direction) has recently been shown to be predictive of future ankle sprains.³² Though muscle strength is an inherent factor associated with neuromuscular control, a consistent finding among all of the above^{8,32,45,72,80,117} is that deficits in balance and landing mechanics are the strongest predictors of

primary injury. Hence, finding therapies capable of optimizing neuromuscular control is vital for those preventing or treating musculoskeletal injury.⁴⁹

The need to identify interventions capable of enhancing neuromuscular control to prevent injury is perhaps most urgently needed after the initial injury during rehabilitation, as patients often return to activity with significant neuromuscular deficits that precipitate secondary injuries.^{15,20,84} In the case of patients with ACL reconstruction, altered muscle activation profiles^{15,19,21,39,56,57,111} and spinal reflexive excitability⁸⁷ persist for months to years after surgery. Knee and ankle joint injuries also adversely affect supraspinal activity, with altered cortical drive to the surrounding musculature^{43,57,88,109} and reduced neural efficiency.^{6,7} Recent advances in technology have allowed investigators to utilize functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to better understand the redistribution of activation patterns in the brain that are contributing to prolonged neuromuscular deficits. Notably, investigators recently used fMRI to prospectively assess brain activation in an individual 26 days prior to a second contralateral ACL injury, where alterations in motor planning, sensory processing, and visual motor control potentially predisposed the individual to injury when compared with a healthy matched control.³⁵

These chronic neural deficits not only contribute to secondary injury risk^{15,47} but prevent effective strengthening,⁵⁰ further compounding the risk for early-onset osteoarthritis.^{52,110} Unfortunately, the changes in afferent and efferent neural activity after joint injury appear to be resistant to the current standard of care, which is primarily composed of concentrically focused exercises.⁵⁰ Data from a recent longitudinal investigation help illustrate this point directly; substantial changes in cortical, spinal, and volitional neural excitability were present after the initial ACL injury, were not rectified with ACL reconstruction, and were still present at return to activity despite 6 months of intensive rehabilitation.⁶² Though rising awareness in the rehabilitation community has emphasized the importance of exercises in rehabilitation to target deficits in neuromuscular control,^{4,20,78} the rates of traumatic knee joint injuries and ankle injuries have not declined.^{5,18,84} Given the mounting data that indicate a direct link between poor neuromuscular control and primary and secondary injuries, alternative interventions capable of targeting the neural mechanisms associated with poor neuromuscular control should be strongly considered when developing an injury prevention protocol.

NEUROMUSCULAR BENEFITS OF ECCENTRIC EXERCISE

Morphological Considerations

A primary advantage of skeletal muscle is that it is a plastic biological material, constantly adapting and remodeling to the demands imposed on it.⁶⁷ This constant remodeling provides a therapeutic target that clinicians can exploit, as modifications to the physical stress imposed on muscle provide a means to directly enhance its functionality. Scientists are still unraveling the unique enhancement to muscle functionality from eccentric

contractions and how these contractions maintain system stability at the cross-bridge level.¹⁴ In contrast to concentric muscle contractions, where the proposed mechanisms of muscle contractions were scientifically and mathematically derived in 1957 by A. F. Huxley,⁵¹ eccentric muscle contractions have long been considered to be “odd” or “deviating from the norm” (hence the name eccentric). However, without fully understanding the mechanism of muscle contractions, researchers and clinicians have long known that the “repeated bout effect,” or the chronic use of eccentric exercise, is capable of beneficially modifying muscle morphology. This has been repeatedly shown in animal and human experiments where the targeted muscle of interest becomes more compliant to strain because of the addition of sarcomeres in series.¹⁴ Arguably the best clinical example of this morphological benefit is the shift of the hamstring torque-angle curve to a longer working length after an eccentric intervention because of the addition of sarcomeres in series, which has implications for reduced injury risk.^{11,12} Other notable well-established benefits of eccentric exercise are the ability to promote substantial gains in muscle cross-sectional area,²⁹ promote optimal fiber length,^{12,26} increase pennation angle,¹ and target type II fibers.⁴⁰ Again, though the mechanisms involved in the acute morphological benefits of eccentric exercise are still under investigation, new evidence examining eccentric contractions at the cross-bridge level has found that eccentric exercise is capable of directly triggering a signaling complex that regulates tissue growth and adaptation.^{92,105} Notably, this signaling complex is only activated when the sarcomere is lengthened by a mechanical force, indicating that only eccentric exercise is capable of engaging this unique mechanism to promote tissue growth.⁹² From a clinical perspective, these benchtop experiments provide rationale as to why clinicians see greater acute muscle growth with eccentric exercise as compared with concentric exercise.^{59,64,98} Taken together, these data support that both acute and chronic exposure to eccentric exercise appear to be uniquely well suited to remodeling muscle morphology.

Emerging Neural Evidence

New data are emerging that provide a compelling argument for the ability of eccentric exercise to directly influence peripheral and central neural adaptations associated with poor neuromuscular control.^{28,66} Investigators have found that eccentric exercise is capable of significantly improving quadriceps electromyographic activity, physiologically indicating that an improvement in central motor drive is causing greater activity at the peripheral-sarcolemma level.²⁸ Improvement in the recruitment and/or firing rate of alpha motoneurons has also been found in patients with previous ACL reconstruction after just 12 treatments of eccentric exercise to the quadriceps muscle.⁶⁶ In patients with spinal cord injuries, volitional muscle activation (central activation ratio) and spinal pathways (Ia alpha motoneuron) are preferentially affected during passive eccentric exercises,⁵⁴ suggesting the wide benefit of lengthening contractions to target inhibited central and peripheral nervous

system pathways and promote greater neural activity even in the most extreme of conditions.

NEW TECHNOLOGIES ALLOW FOR NOVEL INSIGHT AND FRAMEWORK

Recently, researchers have started to use neurophysiological testing methods to better understand neuromuscular control associated with musculoskeletal injury. Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS), in which a noninvasive magnetic stimulus is applied to the motor cortex, can assess the ability of cortical neurons to activate and transmit impulses to the muscles.^{3,31,37,108} Although there is limited research, investigations using TMS have also helped demonstrate that eccentric muscle contractions utilize unique neural mechanisms compared with other modes of muscle contraction.^{3,22,37,101,102} In particular, researchers have demonstrated that eccentric contractions utilize greater excitability at the motor cortex compared with both concentric and isometric muscle contractions,^{3,37} whereas concentric contractions appear to rely more on spinal-reflexive mechanisms.³ Greater levels of cortical excitability are used during eccentric contractions as a compensatory strategy to account for inhibition at the spinal level.^{22,37} Simply stated, the muscle spindle, which would normally cause a reflexive contraction of the muscle during lengthening, must be inhibited to allow for the eccentric contraction to occur, thereby increasing cortical drive to the muscle.²² Interestingly, acute inhibition in spinal-reflexive excitability^{55,62,81} is present after joint injury and thought to initiate long-term deficits in neuromuscular control.⁴⁷ This may explain why traditional, concentrically driven rehabilitation programs are unsuccessful at restoring neuromuscular control in these patients, as concentric exercise attempts to rely on inhibited spinal-reflexive pathways and therefore fails to adequately activate muscles during contraction. Alternatively, eccentric exercise interventions can create immediate gains in muscle strength and activation via selectively targeting central nervous system mechanisms in conjunction with the beneficial morphological adaptations.^{3,22,37} Additionally, data suggest that eccentric exercise may have the ability to create neural adaptations at the spinal level, whereas the increase in cortical excitability causes a decrease in presynaptic inhibition over time, leading to improved muscle recruitment and potentially counteracting other inhibitory signals from an injured joint, such as pain and swelling.²⁴ Therefore, eccentric exercise interventions may be ideally suited for patients with musculoskeletal injury and create an optimal environment for muscle strengthening.^{2,37} Furthermore, excitability of the motor cortex is impaired after a variety of musculoskeletal injuries, such as patellar tendinopathy,⁹⁵ ACL injury^{43,62,115} and reconstruction,^{61,62,87} and after ankle sprains and subsequent ankle instability,^{9,75,86} which may negatively influence muscle function and movement patterns.^{89,114} The ability of eccentric exercise to selectively increase motor cortex excitability as well as create adaptations in spinal level inhibition makes this mode of exercise an attractive addition to current rehabilitation techniques.

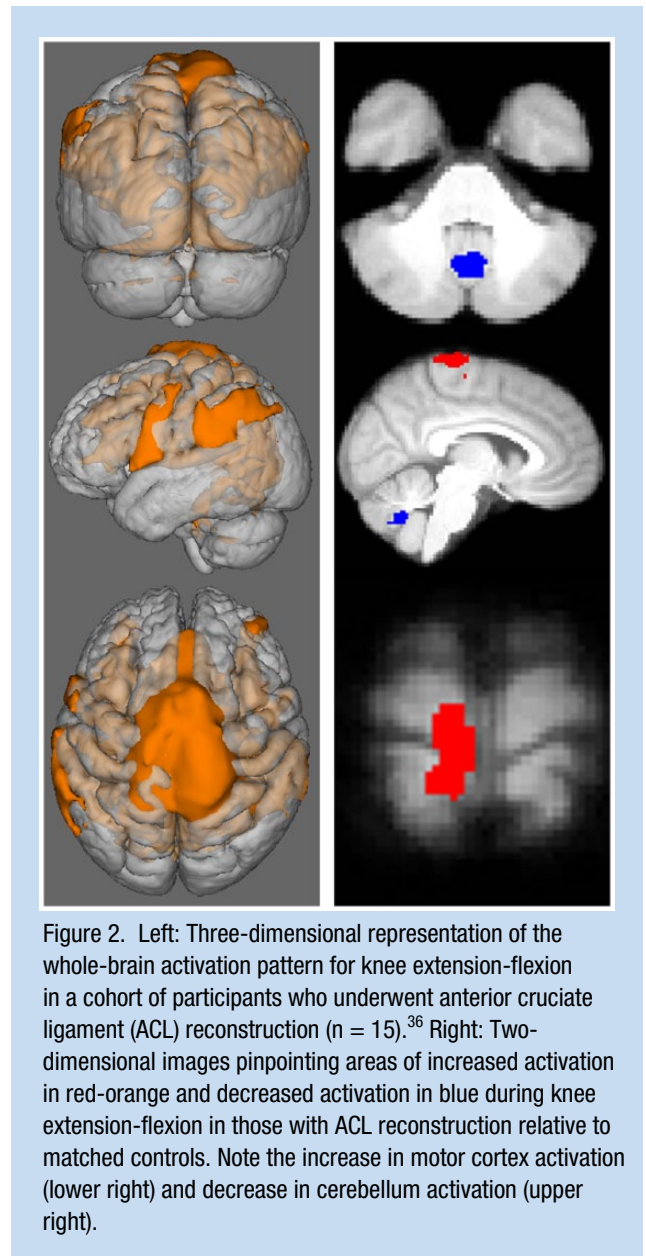


Figure 2. Left: Three-dimensional representation of the whole-brain activation pattern for knee extension-flexion in a cohort of participants who underwent anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) reconstruction ($n = 15$).³⁶ Right: Two-dimensional images pinpointing areas of increased activation in red-orange and decreased activation in blue during knee extension-flexion in those with ACL reconstruction relative to matched controls. Note the increase in motor cortex activation (lower right) and decrease in cerebellum activation (upper right).

This unique neural recruitment pattern and neuroplasticity associated with eccentric contractions may have the ability to address injury-induced neural changes and improve motor control.^{33-35,58} In fact, new data suggest that the delivery of eccentric exercise, relative to concentric, may attenuate deficits in neuromuscular control induced by injury by not only improving cortical excitability but also by targeting specific motor control pathways in the brain.^{25,58} To support this notion, in preliminary work using fMRI, real-time functional motor network reorganization is seen during eccentric quadriceps contractions after ACL reconstruction that addresses the primary maladaptive plasticity seen after injury (Figures 2³⁶ and 3, preliminary data). Specifically, when patients with ACL reconstruction who have undergone the traditional concentric

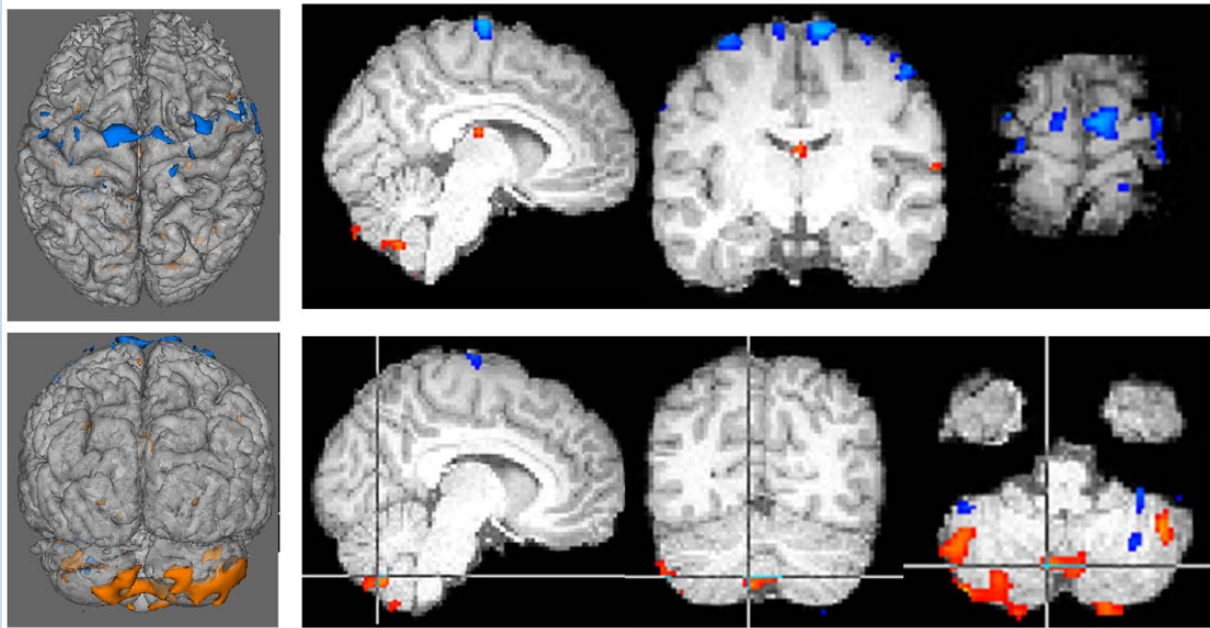


Figure 3. Left: Three-dimensional representation of the contrast between eccentric-concentric quadriceps contractions in those with anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) reconstruction relative to matched controls ($n = 2$). Right: Two-dimensional images pinpointing areas of increased activation in red-orange and decreased activation in blue during eccentric quadriceps contraction relative to concentric contraction. The activation pattern for eccentric contractions in the 2 ACL-reconstructed participants may uniquely reverse the activation pattern for knee movement that is present after injury. These data are from ongoing work and are unpublished.

bias rehabilitation scheme engage in knee movement exercises, they increased activation of the primary motor cortex (units are in BOLD [blood oxygen level-dependent signal, a correlate of neural activity] mean region increase, $2.18\% \pm 0.7\%$) and decreased activation of the cerebellum (BOLD mean region decrease, $0.39\% \pm 0.13\%$) relative to healthy matched controls (Figure 2). This altered cortical-cerebellar state after ACL reconstruction³⁶ may provide a partial mechanism for the increased cocontraction,¹¹² reflex inhibition,^{62,104} and adaptive reactive stabilizing activation of the quadriceps and hamstring musculature after injury, as the cerebellum plays a key role in sensory-motor integration and precision force control.⁶⁸ Furthermore, this neural activation pattern associated with concentric rehabilitation appears to be suboptimal, as ACL-reconstructed individuals have poorer quadriceps muscle control and functional performance as well as decreased activity levels despite combined surgical and rehabilitative interventions.⁶³ Although not fully understood, it is possible that this altered cortical-cerebellar state after ACL reconstruction may be due to the extensive unilateral concentric muscle strengthening utilized during rehabilitation and the use of conscious cortical mechanisms to maintain knee stability (ie, the patient uses an internal focus of control, focusing on the knee joint and quadriceps musculature to engage in movement).⁷⁶ Interestingly,

by engaging in eccentric muscle contractions as compared with concentric, increased cerebellar activation is seen (BOLD mean region increase, $2.4\% \pm 1.15\%$) and decreased cortical activation (primary motor cortex activation; BOLD mean region decrease, $2.0\% \pm 1.21\%$) (Figure 3, preliminary data). Thus, eccentric contractions may be able to reverse this altered cortical-subcortical state, promoting a neural activation pattern that is more like that of healthy controls, providing a compelling mechanism for therapeutic intervention. Importantly, the cerebellum plays a key role as a processing unit for optimal motor coordination⁹⁶; thus, exercises that can facilitate its activation may be able to improve neuromuscular control more globally. Concentric contractions depend on spinal mechanisms for regulation of muscle force via the muscle spindle regulation of contractile properties, whereas in eccentric contractions, spinal mechanisms are inhibited to allow muscle lengthening without reflexive contractions.^{3,23} This depressed muscle spindle feedback to the brain during eccentric contractions may further increase the need for heightened feed-forward control and accurate sensory predictions of the cerebellum to regulate motor output.^{68,107} Hence, by engaging in eccentric contractions, clinicians may be able to reduce primary and secondary injury risk by selectively targeting brain centers (eg, cerebellum) that reduce motor coordination error.

NOVEL ECCENTRIC INTERVENTIONS FOR IMPROVING NEUROMUSCULAR CONTROL

In scenarios where eccentric exercise of the involved limb is contraindicated (eg, acute postoperative stages), clinicians can also consider using eccentric cross-exercise. Cross-exercise is the ability for exercise of 1 limb to cause an increase in strength of the contralateral, nonexercised limb.¹⁰⁰ This mode of exercise is capable of enhancing neuromuscular control by selectively targeting neural pathways that are associated with altered movement patterns.²⁸ Compared with concentric cross-exercise, eccentric cross-exercise provides greater immediate and sustained gains in strength and electromyographic activity in the untrained limbs of healthy individuals.⁴⁸ The cross-exercise strength gains that are produced in the nonexercised limb occur as a result of enhanced cortical (TMS) and spinal neural activity.^{16,118} At the cortical level, the benefits of cross-exercise result from increased interhemispheric brain activity.^{17,28,118} Spinal reflexive pathways involving reduced reciprocal inhibition (Hoffmann reflex) contribute to improved strength in the nonexercised limb.^{97,118} Similar to exercising the involved limb, in healthy adults, an eccentric cross-exercise training protocol is capable of improving alpha motorneuron recruitment and/or firing rate in the nonexercised leg (central activation ratio).⁶⁵ After eccentric cross-exercise, relative to concentric cross-exercise, a reduced intracortical inhibition silent period and improved corticospinal excitability (measured via TMS) were noted, further supporting eccentric cross-exercise uniquely moderating neural pathways associated with neuromuscular control.⁵³

THEORETICAL MODEL FOR HOW ECCENTRIC EXERCISE CAN PREVENT INJURY

Alterations in neuromuscular control that lead to injury may not be overcome by conventional injury prevention/rehabilitation programs. Alterations in muscle morphology and neural activity are the 2 primary factors that regulate neuromuscular control. Hence, to optimize neuromuscular control, clinicians should focus on finding therapies capable of targeting these underlying factors of muscle function. A number of recent published works have looked to develop novel eccentric exercise protocols that are able to optimize neuromuscular function in injury prevention and rehabilitation protocols. To beneficially modify quadriceps neuromuscular control, we point readers to eccentric exercise and cross-exercise protocols.^{10,30,66,83} Modifying neuromuscular properties of the hamstring muscles may benefit from the use of Nordic hamstring curls.¹¹ Although it is well known that eccentric exercise is capable of promoting beneficial changes in muscle morphology, emerging evidence suggests that eccentric exercise is also capable of beneficially modifying peripheral and central neural activity. Based on the available evidence, we have proposed a paradigm shift where eccentric exercise is not considered harmful and should be incorporated into injury prevention protocols to target specific neural and

morphological factors that are associated with poor neuromuscular control, which can be utilized to prevent injury (see Figure 1). This theory is developed from current data suggesting that eccentric exercise is beneficial to both muscle morphology and neural activity, which are underlying factors of muscle performance that have been linked to injury risk. However, based on this review, the reader should be aware that there is a general lack of evidence in the implementation of eccentric exercise programs for the purpose of preventing musculoskeletal injury. Although the evidence summarized in this theoretical model demonstrates that eccentric exercise is beneficial to neuromuscular control, there remains a gap in the literature on whether this improvement in muscle function translates to beneficial injury prevention strategies. Future research should look to include eccentric-based exercise programs when assessing the efficacy of injury prevention programs to directly elucidate the beneficial aspect of eccentric exercise on injury prevention.

REFERENCES

1. Aagaard P, Andersen JL, Dyhre-Poulsen P, et al. A mechanism for increased contractile strength of human pennate muscle in response to strength training: changes in muscle architecture. *J Physiol*. 2001;534:613-623.
2. Aagaard P, Simonsen EB, Andersen JL, Magnusson SP, Halkjaer-Kristensen J, Dyhre-Poulsen P. Neural inhibition during maximal eccentric and concentric quadriceps contraction: effects of resistance training. *J Appl Physiol*. 2000;89:2249-2257.
3. Abbruzzese G, Morena M, Spadavecchia L, Schieppati M. Response of arm flexor muscles to magnetic and electrical brain stimulation during shortening and lengthening tasks in man. *J Physiol*. 1994;481(pt 2):499-507.
4. Andersen LL, Magnusson SP, Nielsen M, Haleem J, Poulsen K, Aagaard P. Neuromuscular activation in conventional therapeutic exercises and heavy resistance exercises: implications for rehabilitation. *Phys Ther*. 2006;86:683-697.
5. Barber-Westin SD, Noyes FR. Objective criteria for return to athletics after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction and subsequent reinjury rates: a systematic review. *Phys Sportsmed*. 2015;39:100-110.
6. Baumeister J, Reinecke K, Schubert M, Weib M. Altered electrocortical brain activity after ACL reconstruction during force control. *J Orthop Res*. 2011;29:1383-1389.
7. Baumeister J, Reinecke K, Weiss M. Changed cortical activity after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction in a joint position paradigm: an EEG study. *Scand J Med Sci Sports*. 2008;18:473-484.
8. Boling MC, Padua DA, Marshall SW, Guskiewicz K, Pyne S, Beutler A. A prospective investigation of biomechanical risk factors for patellofemoral pain syndrome: the Joint Undertaking to Monitor and Prevent ACL Injury (JUMP-ACL) cohort. *Am J Sports Med*. 2009;37:2108-2116.
9. Bowker S, Terada M, Thomas AC, Pietrosimone BG, Hiller CE, Gribble PA. Neural excitability and joint laxity in chronic ankle instability, copers, and control groups. *J Atbl Train*. 2016;51:336-343.
10. Brasileiro JS, Pinto OM, Avila MA, Salvini TF. Functional and morphological changes in the quadriceps muscle induced by eccentric training after ACL reconstruction. *Rev Bras Fisioter*. 2011;15:284-290.
11. Brockett CL, Morgan DL, Proske U. Human hamstring muscles adapt to eccentric exercise by changing optimum length. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2001;33:783-790.
12. Brockett CL, Morgan DL, Proske U. Predicting hamstring strain injury in elite athletes. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2004;36:379-387.
13. Brooks SV, Zerba E, Faulkner JA. Injury to muscle fibres after single stretches of passive and maximally stimulated muscles in mice. *J Physiol*. 1995;488(pt 2):459-469.
14. Butterfield TA. Eccentric exercise in vivo: strain-induced muscle damage and adaptation in a stable system. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev*. 2010;38:51-60.
15. Capin JJ, Khandha A, Zarzycki R, Manal K, Buchanan TS, Snyder-Mackler L. Gait mechanics and second ACL rupture: implications for delaying return-to-sport [published online November 9, 2016]. *J Orthop Res*. doi:10.1002/jor.23476.
16. Carr LJ, Harrison LM, Stephens JA. Evidence for bilateral innervation of certain homologous motoneurone pools in man. *J Physiol*. 1994;475:217-227.
17. Chen R, Cohen LG, Hallett M. Role of the ipsilateral motor cortex in voluntary movement. *Can J Neurol Sci*. 1997;24:284-291.

18. Darrow CJ, Collins CL, Yard EE, Comstock RD. Epidemiology of severe injuries among United States high school athletes 2005-2007. *Am J Sports Med.* 2009;37:1798-1805.
19. DeVita P, Hortobagyi T, Barrier J. Gait biomechanics are not normal after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction and accelerated rehabilitation. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1998;30:1481-1488.
20. Di Stasi S, Myer GD, Hewett TE. Neuromuscular training to target deficits associated with second anterior cruciate ligament injury. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther.* 2013;43:777-792, A1-A11.
21. Drechsler WI, Cramp MC, Scott OM. Changes in muscle strength and EMG median frequency after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *Eur J Appl Physiol.* 2006;98:613-623.
22. Duchateau J, Enoka RM. Neural control of lengthening contractions. *J Exp Biol.* 2016;219:197-204.
23. Duclay J, Martin A. Evoked H-reflex and V-wave responses during maximal isometric, concentric, and eccentric muscle contraction. *J Neurophysiol.* 2005;94:3555-3562.
24. Duclay J, Martin A, Robbe A, Pousson M. Spinal reflex plasticity during maximal dynamic contractions after eccentric training. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2008;40:722-734.
25. Fang Y, Siemionow V, Sahgal V, Xiong F, Yue GH. Distinct brain activation patterns for human maximal voluntary eccentric and concentric muscle actions. *Brain Res.* 2004;1023:200-212.
26. Fridén J. Changes in human skeletal muscle induced by long-term eccentric exercise. *Cell Tissue Res.* 1984;236:365-372.
27. Fridén J, Sjöström M, Ekblom B. Myofibrillar damage following intense eccentric exercise in man. *Int J Sports Med.* 1983;4:170-176.
28. Gabriel DA, Kamen G, Frost G. Neural adaptations to resistive exercise: mechanisms and recommendations for training practices. *Sports Med.* 2006;36:133-149.
29. Gerber JP, Marcus RL, Dibble LE, Greis PE, Burks RT, Lastayo PC. Safety, feasibility, and efficacy of negative work exercise via eccentric muscle activity following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther.* 2007;37:10-18.
30. Gerber JP, Marcus RL, Dibble LE, Greis PE, LaStayo PC. Early application of negative work via eccentric ergometry following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction: a case report. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther.* 2006;36:298-307.
31. Goodall S, Howatson G, Romer L, Ross E. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in sport science: a commentary. *Eur J Sport Sci.* 2014;14(suppl 1):S332-S340.
32. Gribble PA, Terada M, Beard MQ, et al. Prediction of lateral ankle sprains in football players based on clinical tests and body mass index. *Am J Sports Med.* 2016;44:460-467.
33. Grooms D, Schussler E, Miller M, Onate J. Brain neuroplastic hip and knee control changes in ACL reconstructed individuals. *J Athl Train.* 2014;49(suppl 3):S-1-S-290.
34. Grooms D, Schussler E, Miller MM, Onate J. Brain activation differences in ACL reconstructed individuals and healthy controls. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2014;46:301.
35. Grooms DR, Page S, Onate JA. Brain activation for knee movement measured days before second anterior cruciate ligament injury: neuroimaging in musculoskeletal medicine. *J Athl Train.* 2015;50:1005-1010.
36. Grooms DR, Page SJ, Nichols-Larsen DS, Chaudhari AM, White SE, Onate JA. Neuroplasticity associated with anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther.* 2017;47:180-189.
37. Gruber M, Linnamo V, Strojnik V, Rantalainen T, Avela J. Excitability at the motoneuron pool and motor cortex is specifically modulated in lengthening compared to isometric contractions. *J Neurophysiol.* 2009;101:2030-2040.
38. Gutierrez GM, Kaminski TW, Douex AT. Neuromuscular control and ankle instability. *PM R.* 2009;1:359-365.
39. Hart JM, Pietrosimone B, Hertel J, Ingersoll CD. Quadriceps activation following knee injuries: a systematic review. *J Athl Train.* 2010;45:87-97.
40. Hather BM, Tesch PA, Buchanan P, Dudley GA. Influence of eccentric actions on skeletal muscle adaptations to resistance training. *Acta Physiol Scand.* 1991;143:177-185.
41. Heidt RS, Sweeterman LM, Carlonas RL, Traub JA, Tekulke FX. Avoidance of soccer injuries with preseason conditioning. *Am J Sports Med.* 2000;28:659-662.
42. Herman DC, Weinhold PS, Guskiewicz KM, Garrett WE, Yu B, Padua DA. The effects of strength training on the lower extremity biomechanics of female recreational athletes during a stop-jump task. *Am J Sports Med.* 2008;36:733-740.
43. Heroux ME, Tremblay F. Corticomotor excitability associated with unilateral knee dysfunction secondary to anterior cruciate ligament injury. *Knee Surg Sports Traumatol Arthrosc.* 2006;14:823-833.
44. Hewett TE, Di Stasi SL, Myer GD. Current concepts for injury prevention in athletes after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *Am J Sports Med.* 2013;41:216-224.
45. Hewett TE, Myer GD, Ford KR, et al. Biomechanical measures of neuromuscular control and valgus loading of the knee predict anterior cruciate ligament injury risk in female athletes: a prospective study. *Am J Sports Med.* 2005;33:492-501.
46. Hewett TE, Zazulak BT, Myer GD, Ford KR. A review of electromyographic activation levels, timing differences, and increased anterior cruciate ligament injury incidence in female athletes. *Br J Sports Med.* 2005;39:347-350.
47. Hopkins JT, Ingersoll CD. Arthrogenic muscle inhibition: a limiting factor in joint rehabilitation. *J Sport Rehabil.* 2000;9:135-159.
48. Hortobagyi T, Lambert NJ, Hill JP. Greater cross education following training with muscle lengthening than shortening. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 1997;29:107-112.
49. Hubscher M, Zech A, Pfeifer K, Hansel F, Vogt L, Banzer W. Neuromuscular training for sports injury prevention: a systematic review. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2010;42:413-421.
50. Hurley MV, Jones DW, Newham DJ. Arthrogenic quadriceps inhibition and rehabilitation of patients with extensive traumatic knee injuries. *Clin Sci (Lond).* 1994;86:305-310.
51. Huxley AF. Muscle structure and theories of contraction. *Prog Biophys Biophys Chem.* 1957;7:255-318.
52. Keays SL, Newcombe PA, Bullock-Saxton JE, Bullock MI, Keays AC. Factors involved in the development of osteoarthritis after anterior cruciate ligament surgery. *Am J Sports Med.* 2010;38:455-463.
53. Kidgell DJ, Frazer AK, Rantalainen T, et al. Increased cross-education of muscle strength and reduced corticospinal inhibition following eccentric strength training. *Neuroscience.* 2015;300:566-575.
54. Kim HE, Corcos DM, Hornby TG. Increased spinal reflex excitability is associated with enhanced central activation during voluntary lengthening contractions in human spinal cord injury. *J Neurophysiol.* 2015;114:427-439.
55. Klykken LW, Pietrosimone BG, Kim KM, Ingersoll CD, Hertel J. Motor-neuron pool excitability of the lower leg muscles after acute lateral ankle sprain. *J Athl Train.* 2011;46:263-269.
56. Konishi Y, Konishi H, Fukubayashi T. Gamma loop dysfunction in quadriceps on the contralateral side in patients with ruptured ACL. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2003;35:897-900.
57. Kuenze CM, Hertel J, Weltman A, Diduch D, Saliba SA, Hart JM. Persistent neuromuscular and corticomotor quadriceps asymmetry after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *J Athl Train.* 2015;50:303-312.
58. Kwon YH, Park JW. Different cortical activation patterns during voluntary eccentric and concentric muscle contractions: an fMRI study. *NeuroRehabilitation.* 2011;29:253-259.
59. LaStayo PC, Woolf JM, Lewek MD, Snyder-Mackler L, Reich T, Lindstedt SL. Eccentric muscle contractions: their contribution to injury, prevention, rehabilitation, and sport. *J Orthop Sports Phys Ther.* 2003;33:557-571.
60. Lauersen JB, Bertelsen DM, Andersen LB. The effectiveness of exercise interventions to prevent sports injuries: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Br J Sports Med.* 2014;48:871-877.
61. Lephley AS, Ericksen HM, Sohn DH, Pietrosimone BG. Contributions of neural excitability and voluntary activation to quadriceps muscle strength following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *Knee.* 2014;21:736-742.
62. Lephley AS, Gribble PA, Thomas AC, Tevald MA, Sohn DH, Pietrosimone BG. Quadriceps neural alterations in anterior cruciate ligament reconstructed patients: a 6-month longitudinal investigation. *Scand J Med Sci Sports.* 2015;25:828-839.
63. Lephley LK. Deficits in quadriceps strength and patient-oriented outcomes at return to activity after ACL reconstruction: a review of the current literature. *Sports Health.* 2015;7:231-238.
64. Lephley LK, Palmieri-Smith RM. Effect of eccentric strengthening after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction on quadriceps strength. *J Sport Rehabil.* 2013;22:150-156.
65. Lephley LK, Palmieri-Smith RM. Cross-education strength and activation after eccentric exercise. *J Athl Train.* 2014;49:582-589.
66. Lephley LK, Wojtys EM, Palmieri-Smith RM. Combination of eccentric exercise and neuromuscular electrical stimulation to improve quadriceps function post-ACL reconstruction. *Knee.* 2015;22:270-277.
67. Lieber RL. *Skeletal Muscle Structure, Function, and Plasticity.* Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2002.
68. Manto M, Bower JM, Conforto AB, et al. Consensus paper: roles of the cerebellum in motor control—the diversity of ideas on cerebellar involvement in movement. *Cerebellum.* 2012;11:457-487.
69. Mather RC, Koenig L, Kocher MS, et al; MOON Knee Group. Societal and economic impact of anterior cruciate ligament tears. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 2013;95:1751-1759.
70. McCully KK, Faulkner JA. Injury to skeletal muscle fibers of mice following lengthening contractions. *J Appl Physiol.* 1985;59:119-126.
71. McCully KK, Faulkner JA. Characteristics of lengthening contractions associated with injury to skeletal muscle fibers. *J Appl Physiol.* 1986;61:293-299.

72. McGuine TA, Greene JJ, Best T, Levenson G. Balance as a predictor of ankle injuries in high school basketball players. *Clin J Sport Med.* 2000;10:239-244.
73. McGuine TA, Keene JS. The effect of a balance training program on the risk of ankle sprains in high school athletes. *Am J Sports Med.* 2006;34:1103-1111.
74. McKay GD, Goldie PA, Payne WR, Oakes BW. Ankle injuries in basketball: injury rate and risk factors. *Br J Sports Med.* 2001;35:103-108.
75. McLeod MM, Gribble PA, Pietrosimone BG. Chronic ankle instability and neural excitability of the lower extremity. *J Athl Train.* 2015;50:847-853.
76. McNevin NH, Wulf G, Carlson C. Effects of attentional focus, self-control, and dyad training on motor learning: implications for physical rehabilitation. *Phys Ther.* 2000;80:373-385.
77. Morgan DL. New insights into the behavior of muscle during active lengthening. *Biophys J.* 1990;57:209-221.
78. Myer GD, Paterno MV, Ford KR, Hewett TE. Neuromuscular training techniques to target deficits before return to sport after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *J Strength Cond Res.* 2008;22:987-1014.
79. Needle AR, Lepley AS, Grooms DR. Central nervous system adaptation after ligamentous injury: a summary of theories, evidence, and clinical interpretation [published online December 22, 2016]. *Sports Med.* doi:10.1007/s40279-016-0666-y.
80. Padua DA, DiStefano LJ, Beutler AI, de la Motte SJ, DiStefano MJ, Marshall SW. The Landing Error Scoring System as a screening tool for an anterior cruciate ligament injury-prevention program in elite-youth soccer athletes. *J Athl Train.* 2015;50:589-595.
81. Palmieri RM, Tom JA, Edwards JE, et al. Arthrogenic muscle response induced by an experimental knee joint effusion is mediated by pre- and post-synaptic spinal mechanisms. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol.* 2004;14:631-640.
82. Palmieri-Smith RM, Thomas AC, Wojtys EM. Maximizing quadriceps strength after ACL reconstruction. *Clin Sports Med.* 2008;27:405-424.
83. Papandreou M, Billis E, Papatheanasiou G, Spyropoulos P, Papaioannou N. Cross-exercise on quadriceps deficit after ACL reconstruction. *J Knee Surg.* 2013;26:51-58.
84. Paterno MV, Schmitt LC, Ford KR, et al. Biomechanical measures during landing and postural stability predict second anterior cruciate ligament injury after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction and return to sport. *Am J Sports Med.* 2010;38:1968-1978.
85. Petersen J, Thorborg K, Nielsen MB, Budtz-Jørgensen E, Hölmich P. Preventive effect of eccentric training on acute hamstring injuries in men's soccer: a cluster-randomized controlled trial. *Am J Sports Med.* 2011;39:2296-2303.
86. Pietrosimone BG, Gribble PA. Chronic ankle instability and corticospinal excitability of the fibularis longus muscle. *J Athl Train.* 2012;47:621-626.
87. Pietrosimone BG, Lepley AS, Ericksen HM, Clements A, Sohn DH, Gribble PA. Neural excitability alterations after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *J Athl Train.* 2015;50:665-674.
88. Pietrosimone BG, Lepley AS, Ericksen HM, Gribble PA, Levine J. Quadriceps strength and corticospinal excitability as predictors of disability after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *J Sport Rehabil.* 2013;22:1-6.
89. Pietrosimone BG, McLeod MM, Lepley AS. A theoretical framework for understanding neuromuscular response to lower extremity joint injury. *Sports Health.* 2012;4:31-35.
90. Proske U, Allen TJ. Damage to skeletal muscle from eccentric exercise. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev.* 2005;33:98-104.
91. Proske U, Morgan D. Muscle damage from eccentric exercise: mechanism, mechanical signs, adaptation and clinical applications. *J Physiol.* 2001;537:333-345.
92. Puchner EM, Alexandrovich A, Kho AL, et al. Mechanoenzymatics of titin kinase. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2008;105:13385-13390.
93. Riemann BL, Lephart SM. The sensorimotor system, part I: the physiologic basis of functional joint stability. *J Athl Train.* 2002;37:71-79.
94. Riemann BL, Lephart SM. The sensorimotor system, part II: the role of proprioception in motor control and functional joint stability. *J Athl Train.* 2002;37:80-84.
95. Rio E, Kidgell D, Moseley GL, Cook J. Elevated corticospinal excitability in patellar tendinopathy compared with other anterior knee pain or no pain. *Scand J Med Sci Sports.* 2016;26:1072-1079.
96. Roberts R, Bain P, Day B, Husain M. Individual differences in expert motor coordination associated with white matter microstructure in the cerebellum. *Cereb Cortex.* 2013;23:2282-2292.
97. Robinson KL, McIlwain JS, Hayes KC. Effects of H-reflex conditioning upon the contralateral alpha motoneuron pool. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol.* 1979;46:65-71.
98. Roig M, O'Brien K, Kirk G, et al. The effects of eccentric versus concentric resistance training on muscle strength and mass in healthy adults: a systematic review with meta-analyses. *Br J Sports Med.* 2009;43:556-568.
99. Roos EM. Joint injury causes knee osteoarthritis in young adults. *Curr Opin Rheumatol.* 2005;17:195-200.
100. Scripture EW. Cross-education. *Popular Sci Monthly.* 1900;LVI:589-595.
101. Sekiguchi H, Kimura T, Yamanaka K, Nakazawa K. Lower excitability of the corticospinal tract to transcranial magnetic stimulation during lengthening contractions in human elbow flexors. *Neurosci Lett.* 2001;312:83-86.
102. Sekiguchi H, Nakazawa K, Suzuki S. Differences in recruitment properties of the corticospinal pathway between lengthening and shortening contractions in human soleus muscle. *Brain Res.* 2003;977:169-179.
103. Smith HC, Johnson RJ, Shultz SJ, et al. A prospective evaluation of the Landing Error Scoring System (LESS) as a screening tool for anterior cruciate ligament injury risk. *Am J Sports Med.* 2012;40:521-526.
104. Snyder-Mackler L, De Luca PF, Williams PR, Eastlack ME, Bartolozzi AR 3rd. Reflex inhibition of the quadriceps femoris muscle after injury or reconstruction of the anterior cruciate ligament. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1994;76:555-560.
105. Stahl SW, Puchner EM, Alexandrovich A, Gautel M, Gaub HE. A conditional gating mechanism assures the integrity of the molecular force-sensor titin kinase. *Biophys J.* 2011;101:1978-1986.
106. Steffen K, Emery CA, Romiti M, et al. High adherence to a neuromuscular injury prevention programme (FIFA 11+) improves functional balance and reduces injury risk in Canadian youth female football players: a cluster randomised trial. *Br J Sports Med.* 2013;47:794-802.
107. Taube W, Mouthon M, Leukel C, Hoogewoud H-M, Annoni J-M, Keller M. Brain activity during observation and motor imagery of different balance tasks: an fMRI study. *Cortex.* 2015;64:102-114.
108. Taylor JL, Todd G, Gandevia SC. Evidence for a supraspinal contribution to human muscle fatigue. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol.* 2006;33:400-405.
109. Terada M, Bowker S, Thomas AC, Pietrosimone B, Hiller CE, Gribble PA. Corticospinal excitability and inhibition of the soleus in individuals with chronic ankle instability. *PM R.* 2016;8:1090-1096.
110. Tourville TW, Jarrell KM, Naud S, Slauterbeck JR, Johnson RJ, Beynon BD. Relationship between isokinetic strength and tibiofemoral joint space width changes after anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *Am J Sports Med.* 2014;42:302-311.
111. Urbach D, Nebelung W, Becker R, Awiszus F. Effects of reconstruction of the anterior cruciate ligament on voluntary activation of quadriceps femoris: a prospective twitch interpolation study. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 2001;83:1104-1110.
112. Vairo GL, Myers JB, Sell TC, Fu FH, Hamer CD, Lephart SM. Neuromuscular and biomechanical landing performance subsequent to ipsilateral semitendinosus and gracilis autograft anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *Knee Surg Sports Traumatol Arthrosc.* 2008;16:2-14.
113. Vriend I, Gouttebauge V, van Mechelen W, Verhagen E. Neuromuscular training is effective to prevent ankle sprains in a sporting population: a meta-analysis translating evidence into optimal prevention strategies. *J ISAKOS.* 2016;1:202-213.
114. Ward S, Pearce AJ, Pietrosimone B, Bennell K, Clark R, Bryant AL. Neuromuscular deficits after peripheral joint injury: a neurophysiological hypothesis. *Muscle Nerve.* 2015;51:327-332.
115. Ward SH, Pearce A, Bennell KL, Pietrosimone B, Bryant AL. Quadriceps cortical adaptations in individuals with an anterior cruciate ligament injury. *Knee.* 2016;23:582-587.
116. Wikstrom EA, Hubbard-Turner T, McKeon PO. Understanding and treating lateral ankle sprains and their consequences. *Sports Med.* 2013;43:385-393.
117. Zazulak BT, Hewett TE, Reeves NP, Goldberg B, Cholewicki J. Deficits in neuromuscular control of the trunk predict knee injury risk: a prospective biomechanical-epidemiologic study. *Am J Sports Med.* 2007;35:1123-1130.
118. Zhou S. Chronic neural adaptations to unilateral exercise: mechanisms of cross education. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev.* 2000;28:177-184.