SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

Acute Efects of Warm‑Up, Exercise and Recovery‑Related Strategies on Assessments of Soccer Kicking Performance: A Critical and Systematic Review

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Abstract

Background A number of reviews have collated information on the impact of warming-up, physical exertion and recovery strategies on physical, subjective and physiological markers in soccer players yet none have solely analyzed their potential efects on components of kicking performance.

Objective To systematically analyse the infuence of warm-up, exercise and/or recovery-related strategies on kicking performance in male soccer players and provide a critical appraisal on research paradigm related to kicking testing constraints and data acquisition methods.

Methods A systematic literature search was performed (until July 2020) in PubMed, Web of Science, SPORTDiscus, Scopus and ProQuest. Studies in male soccer populations, which included the efects of warm-up routines, physical exercise and/or recovery-related interventions, reported on comparisons pre–post or between experimental conditions and that computed at least one measure of kicking kinematics and/or performance were considered. Methodological quality and risk of bias were determined for the included studies. Constraints related to kicking testing and data acquisition methods were also summarized and discussed.

Results Altogether, 52 studies were included. Of these, 10 examined the respective effects of a warm-up, 34 physical exercise, and 21 recovery-related strategies. The results of eight studies showed that lower limb kinematics, kicking accuracy or ball velocity were improved following warm-ups involving dynamic but not static stretching. Declines in ball velocity occurred notably following intermittent endurance or graded until exhaustion exercise (three studies in both cases) without inclusion of any ball skills. In contrast, conficting evidence in fve studies was observed regarding ball velocity following intermittent endurance exercise interspersed with execution of ball skills. Kicking accuracy was less frequently afected by physical exercise (remained stable across 14 of 19 studies). One investigation indicated that consumption of a carbohydrate beverage pre- and mid-exercise demonstrated benefts in counteracting the potentially deleterious consequences of exercise on ball velocity, while four studies reported conficting results regarding kicking accuracy. Most evidence synthesized for the interventions demonstrated moderate level (77%) and unclear-to-high risk of bias in at least one item evaluated (98%). The main limitations identifed across studies were kicks generally performed over short distances (50%), in the absence of opposition (96%), and following experimental instructions which did not concomitantly consider velocity and accuracy (62%). Also, notational-based metrics were predominantly used to obtain accuracy outcomes (54%).

Conclusions The results from this review can help inform future research and practical interventions in an attempt to measure and optimise soccer kicking performance. However, given the risk of bias and a relative lack of strong evidence, caution is required when applying some of the current fndings in practice.

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Key Points

Kicking ball velocity is negatively afected by intense physical exercise protocols (e.g. intermittent endurance or graded until exhaustion efforts) mainly without ball involvements while the effects of passive resting, such as during the half-time pause, did not affect velocity.

Although players are generally able to maintain kicking accuracy regardless of prior exercise demands, kicking accuracy and ball velocity can be enhanced through a warm-up routine including dynamic stretching modalities while consumption of a carbohydrate beverage can help maintain ball velocity following prolonged exercise.

To enhance the ecological validity of methods used to test kicking performance, future research should include additional task constraints such as kicks performed over longer distances, opponents, and a greater variety of targets.

1 Introduction

The ability to kick the ball is evidently an essential skill in the sport of soccer notably when attempting to score goals [\[1](#page-37-0)]. High standards of shooting performance are associated with increased odds of winning [[2–](#page-37-1)[4\]](#page-37-2). Monitoring kicking performance and identifying factors afecting this component of play are, therefore, important. Individual characteristics such as the maturity, skill level and gender of players can notably infuence kicking ability [[1\]](#page-37-0). Another key factor frequently reported to impact kicking is physical exertion (e.g. external load). Prolonged aerobic exercise [\[5,](#page-37-3) [6](#page-37-4)] and repeated high-intensity running bouts interspersed with short recovery intervals [[7,](#page-37-5) [8](#page-37-6)] are shown to impair central bufer [\[9](#page-37-7)] and lower limb mechanical functioning [[10\]](#page-37-8). However, authors reviewing the efect of physical exertion on technical aspects of play using controlled feld tests have presented contrasting fndings. In 2011, Russell and Kingsley [\[11\]](#page-38-0) reported that exercise-induced fatigue signifcantly impaired shooting performance, although only three studies all conducted in male soccer populations were available at the time of writing. In comparison, a more recent meta-analysis of acute and residual match-related fatigue in soccer, including two additional studies, reported trivial-to-small declines in shooting outputs linked to exercise [\[12](#page-38-1)]. A range of protocols to induce fatigue and measure its impact on kicking performance have been employed in investigations in male soccer players $[13]$ $[13]$ (e.g. intermittent endurance with $[14–16]$ $[14–16]$) or without inclusion of ball skills [[17](#page-38-5)[–19\]](#page-38-6) or intermittent high-intensity bouts $[20, 21]$ $[20, 21]$ $[20, 21]$ $[20, 21]$) yet their effects have not been systematically reviewed.

In general, the capture of advanced information on kicking movement and ball kinematics in real-world competition settings lacks feasibility [[11,](#page-38-0) [22](#page-38-9), [23\]](#page-38-10). As such, research investigations typically employ controlled feld or laboratory experiments to assess kicking performance (e.g. exerciseinduced effects $[11, 24]$ $[11, 24]$ $[11, 24]$ $[11, 24]$ $[11, 24]$. However, the results obtained using controlled testing are questionable $[25, 26]$ $[25, 26]$ $[25, 26]$ $[25, 26]$, notably due to poor criterion validity and the task constraints commonly utilised across studies. Examples of constraints include kicking targets positioned in the goal centre and instructions not concomitantly indicating the need for ball velocity and accuracy [[27,](#page-38-14) [28\]](#page-38-15). In addition, the inclusion of opponents [[29,](#page-38-16) [30](#page-38-17)] and kicks performed using a rolling and not only a stationary ball are frequently not considered [[11,](#page-38-0) [31\]](#page-38-18). Low sampling measurement frequencies also possibly produce distorted limb kinematics data [\[32](#page-38-19)] and simple notational-based outcome metrics for quantifying accuracy can lack reliability and sensitivity [[11,](#page-38-0) [24\]](#page-38-11). While previous reports have critically appraised kick assessment methodologies, these were generally published approximately 1 decade ago [\[1,](#page-37-0) [11](#page-38-0), [33](#page-38-20)[–36\]](#page-38-21). Arguably, an up-to-date collation and critical evaluation of procedures utilised in studies examining key variables related to soccer kicking performance would help identify good practice for current research while generating practical applications [\[11](#page-38-0)].

Ensuring player readiness to respond to kicking demands in soccer can be enhanced by warm-up routines [\[37](#page-38-22)], while recovery prescriptions [[38\]](#page-38-23) or ergogenic aids [[17](#page-38-5), [18](#page-38-24), [39\]](#page-38-25) are commonly used in an attempt to counter fatigue elicited from exercise. A plethora of reviews have examined the impact of intervention strategies such as warm-ups [[40–](#page-38-26)[42](#page-38-27)] or recovery-related modalities during and following exercise [\[12,](#page-38-1) [43](#page-39-0)–[46](#page-39-1)] on physical, physiological and perceptual performance markers in team sport athletes. Yet, to our knowledge, none have specifcally collated and critically appraised the current evidence on the efects of these factors on components of kicking performance such as accuracy and ball velocity. For example, standard warmup programs including only submaximal running followed by stretching and sport-specifc drills are generally shown to be suboptimal and may even impair preparedness for physical tasks that are explosive in nature [[41](#page-38-28)]. Again, the impact of such warm-up practices on goal-directed soccer skills such as kicking have not been examined collectively despite several original research papers comparing performance following diferent stretching routines in male soccer players [[47–](#page-39-2)[51\]](#page-39-3). Finally, research investigating the efects on kicking outputs of rest periods (e.g., breaks in play such as half-time) [\[52](#page-39-4)], commonly prescribed ergogenic (e.g. hydro-nutritional) interventions [\[53](#page-39-5)] or the time-course of changes

in performance following exercise cessation has yet to be synthesised. This would help determine the role of recovery processes and their efectiveness in counteracting potential exercise-induced declines in kick outputs [\[11\]](#page-38-0). Therefore, to examine the acute efects of warm-up, exercise and/or recovery-related strategies on kicking performance, we systematically reviewed the current body of original research articles in soccer players and critically appraised the testing constraints and data acquisition methods.

2 Methods

Permission for this study was granted by the Institutional Human Research Ethics Committee of the São Paulo State University (#2650204). The work was conducted following the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement [[54\]](#page-39-6). The protocol was registered (updated record pending publication) at PROS-PERO (ID=CRD42018096942).

2.1 Search Strategy

Searches for relevant scientifc studies on the infuence of (#1) prior warm-up, (#2) physical exercise demands and (#3) recovery-related strategies on players' movement kinematics and performance during soccer kicking were conducted using fve electronic databases (from inception to July 2020), namely PubMed/NCBI (United States National Library of Medicine), Web of Science Core Collection (Clarivate™), SPORTDiscus (EBSCO Industries Inc.), SCOPUS® (Elsevier B.V) and ProQuest® (ProQuest LLC). Additional searches were performed in Google Scholar (Google LLC) when the full-text was not available, allowing for inclusion of studies found in ResearchGate™. In all databases, pertinent descriptors

Table 1 PICO descriptors combined in the search strategy

were combined (Table [1](#page-2-0)) through a Boolean strategy, using operators 'OR' between terms of the same column, and 'AND' inserted between columns. Full description of input arguments used in each database is also provided (Electronic Supplementary Material Table S1). A dedicated computer software (EndNote X7.0.1, Thomson Reuters©, USA) enabled management of references.

2.2 Selection Criteria

2.2.1 Inclusion Criteria

Studies were included if they unrestrictedly met all the following criteria: (i) original article; (ii) with full-text and abstract available for screening; (iii) published/ahead of print up to and including the 30th July 2020; (iv) written in English; (v) published in an indexed peer-reviewed scientifc journal. Conference proceedings, literature reviews, metaanalysis, books, theses, and dissertations were not considered. In addition, following the PICO (Population, Intervention, Comparison, Outcome) eligibility criteria [\[55](#page-39-7)], studies were included if they (vi) (P) referred to male footballers; (vii) (I) examined the effects of a warm-up (\leq 25 min) [\[42](#page-38-27)], exercise (i.e. when there was a previous warm-up in addition to a given exercise protocol), and/or recovery-related strategies (i.e. resting and/or ergogenic aids) [\[12](#page-38-1), [43](#page-39-0)]; (viii) (C) reported comparisons pre- vs post-intervention or among experimental conditions and (ix) (O) included at least one outcome measure regarding biomechanical variables of kicking performance [ball velocity, accuracy (any quantitative metric indicating proficiency in ball placement in the goal/ target)] and/or lower kicking limb movement kinematics [e.g. joint angular displacement, foot velocity], (x) obtained in a controlled experimental setup.

N/A not applicable

a Wildcard term

2.2.2 Exclusion Criteria

The qualitative synthesis was not performed for studies (i) including athletes from other football codes; (ii) special populations (players with cerebral palsy, amputees); (iii) without mention of the warm-up, exercise and/or recoveryrelated protocols used; (iv) providing match-related statistics to determine kicking performance; (v) examining validity of tests; (vi) where a ball was not kicked; (vii) assessing skills which required ball manipulation other than shooting actions; (viii) studying exercise consisting solely of cognitive/mental efforts, (ix) using measurements performed>48 h following a recovery-related strategy intervention $[56]$ $[56]$ and, (x) in studies including female players while in those including male and female players, only information pertaining to the male group was retained.

2.3 Methodological Quality Assessment and Risk of Bias

Risk of bias (RoB) of results or inferences were determined for each study using Cochrane Collaboration's Tool [[57](#page-39-9)], taking into account the criteria of random sequence generation, allocation concealment, blinding of participants, personnel and outcomes, incomplete outcome data, selective outcome reporting and other source of bias. Each item was deemed as low, high or unclear risk. Review Manager software (RevMan, v5.3.5, The Cochrane Collaboration, Denmark) [\[58](#page-39-10)] was used to obtain the graphs of RoB. The methodological quality of included studies was assessed using 12 questions (Q1–12) modifed from the checklist presented in Palucci Vieira et al. [[59\]](#page-39-11) in addition to three key components obtained from RoB analysis (random sequence generation, concealment of allocation and blinding of outcome assessors) [\[60\]](#page-39-12). For the criteria, a three-point scale was used (Electronic Supplementary Material Table S2). A sum of scores from all questions was subsequently computed $(\Sigma = 0-24)$ and the values were then converted into percentages (0–100%). Studies were classifed as having high $(\geq 75\%)$, moderate (50–74%) and low (<50%) methodological quality $[61]$. Two evaluators (LV, FS) performed independent assessments. If discrepancies occurred, these were resolved in a consensus discussion with a third evaluator (EK). Methodological quality was not an inclusion/exclusion criterion.

2.4 Data Extraction and Codifcation

In the frst screening stage, record titles, abstracts, and keywords were examined independently by two evaluators, according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria established, while a third senior researcher was asked to solve any disagreement that occurred between the two evaluators (same

authors as described in Sect. [2.3](#page-3-0)). Inter-evaluator agreement for the current review was assessed using Cohen's kappa coefficient (k_{mean} =0.95). After examination of the included full-text studies, data extraction was subsequently performed by one author (LV) following a structured script which included the following items [[1](#page-37-0), [28](#page-38-15), [29,](#page-38-16) [32,](#page-38-19) [33,](#page-38-20) [62](#page-39-14)[–77](#page-40-0)]: sample characteristics (number of participants, age, competitive level and playing position), environment where the data collection took place, type of ball used, software/ equipment which measured outcome variables, acquisition frequency and instructions given to the participants on how to complete the kicking task. More specifcally regarding the kicking task, the following constraints were also considered: trials, kick type, approach run parameters, target, goal size and whether opponents (defender and/or goalkeeper) were present. The extraction sheets were created and adjusted following pilot checking across ten studies randomly selected from those included in the current review.

Where mean and standard deviation values were reported, these were used to calculate mean percentage diference (MD) and standardised mean diference (SMD) [[78\]](#page-40-1). When possible, associated 95% confdence intervals (95% CI) were also estimated for individual studies using the RevMan software $[58]$. When results were presented as figure(s), we implemented a custom-built algorithm in MATLAB® environment (The MathWorks Inc., USA) to estimate the real data [\[59](#page-39-11)]. In the absence of pertinent data on full texts, the corresponding authors were contacted. If available, *p* values were presented for the instances where it was not possible to compute SMD (e.g. due to insufficient information and lack of reply to our request). The treatment efects obtained (i.e. MD or SMD) refer to between-groups (e.g. intervention vs. control) and/or within group comparisons (e.g. pre- vs. post-intervention) [\[79](#page-40-2)]. The symbols $>(\text{greater than})$, $(<$ (lower) $than)$ and $=$ (no difference) were used to summarize main fndings [[41\]](#page-38-28). When inferences about null-hypothesis signifcance test were omitted, the acronym "vs." (versus) was employed. Subgroup analyses were performed considering the type of intervention protocol, player age [adolescent (13–17 years-old) or adult senior $(\geq 18$ years-old)] [[80](#page-40-3)] and competitive standard [elite (professional players, competing at national/international levels) or sub-elite] [\[81](#page-40-4), [82](#page-40-5)].

2.5 Evidence Synthesis

To summarize the main results according to the level of scientifc evidence provided, we used a classifcation adapted from van Tulder et al. [[83\]](#page-40-6). Thereby, fndings were deemed to represent 'strong evidence' (consistent fndings observed among multiple high-quality studies), 'moderate evidence' (consistent fndings observed among multiple moderatequality studies and/or one high-quality study), 'limited evidence' (fndings provided by one moderate-quality study and/or only low-quality studies), 'conflicting evidence' (when inconsistent fndings were observed) or 'no evidence' (when there were no available studies). Consistencies and inconsistencies were determined, respectively, by $\geq 75\%$ and<75% of studies reporting results showing the same direction [[84\]](#page-40-7).

3 Results

3.1 Search Results

The entire search process resulted in 10,777 studies, plus 3 additional studies manually entered. Figure [1](#page-4-0) presents a fowchart with all steps from initial search until inclusion. After duplicates were removed, 4397 studies remained on reference manager. Following on, non-relevant content was immediately excluded (e.g. non sport performance specifc). After verifcation of the title, abstract and keywords, of the 2091 studies assessed for screening, 73 were deemed

Fig. 1 Flow chart including literature search and selection steps following PRISMA statement

eligible. Additional reading of full texts determined 52 studies [\[13](#page-38-2)[–21](#page-38-8), [23,](#page-38-10) [37](#page-38-22)[–39](#page-38-25), [47–](#page-39-2)[51,](#page-39-3) [64](#page-39-15), [85–](#page-40-8)[115](#page-41-0)] that were suitable for inclusion in the systematic review. Of these, 10 examined the effects of a warm-up (19%) [[37](#page-38-22), [47–](#page-39-2)[51](#page-39-3), [88,](#page-40-9) [90](#page-40-10), [105,](#page-40-11) [108](#page-41-1)], 34 exercise (65%) [[13–](#page-38-2)[21,](#page-38-8) [23](#page-38-10), [38,](#page-38-23) [39](#page-38-25), [85–](#page-40-8)[87,](#page-40-12) [89](#page-40-13), [91,](#page-40-14) [93](#page-40-15)[–97](#page-40-16), [100](#page-40-17)[–104](#page-40-18), [107](#page-40-19), [110](#page-41-2), [112](#page-41-3)[–114](#page-41-4), [116](#page-41-5)] and 21 recoveryrelated strategies (40%) [\[14](#page-38-3), [16–](#page-38-4)[18,](#page-38-24) [38](#page-38-23), [39,](#page-38-25) [48](#page-39-16), [64,](#page-39-15) [85](#page-40-8), [86,](#page-40-20) [91](#page-40-14)[–93](#page-40-15), [97](#page-40-16)[–99](#page-40-21), [106,](#page-40-22) [107,](#page-40-19) [109,](#page-41-6) [111,](#page-41-7) [115](#page-41-0), [117](#page-41-8)].

3.2 Research Quality and Risk of Bias

Evaluation of the 52 studies selected showed a mean \pm standard deviation rating of methodological quality equal to $63 \pm 11\%$ (Electronic Supplementary Material Table S3). With the exception of RoB items which were also used to evaluate methodological quality (described in detail below), the questions with the lowest and highest mean scores reached were Q4 (1.02 \pm 0.64 points) and Q2 (1.96 \pm 0.19 points), respectively. Risk of bias according to each key criteria are provided as percentages across literature studies (Fig. [2\)](#page-5-0) and on an individual basis (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)). The largest RoB (23% of studies with 'high' RoB) [\[37](#page-38-22), [38,](#page-38-23) [48,](#page-39-16) [49](#page-39-17), [87](#page-40-12), [88,](#page-40-9) [90,](#page-40-10) [97](#page-40-16), [99](#page-40-21), [104,](#page-40-18) [105,](#page-40-11) [109](#page-41-6)] was observed in 'selective reporting (reporting bias)' item and lowest RoB (100% of studies with 'low' RoB) was found regarding 'incomplete outcome data (attrition bias)'. The 'blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias)' entry demonstrated the greatest amount of uncertainty across studies (98% of studies with 'unclear' RoB), except for one study showing 'low' RoB [[115\]](#page-41-0). Items also showing few studies with 'low' RoB were 'blinding of participants (performance bias)' (19%) [[14,](#page-38-3) [17](#page-38-5), [39,](#page-38-25) [85](#page-40-8), [86,](#page-40-20) [92](#page-40-23), [94,](#page-40-24) [106](#page-40-22), [115,](#page-41-0) [117](#page-41-8)] and 'allocation concealment (selection bias)' (13%) [[14,](#page-38-3) [39](#page-38-25), [50](#page-39-18), [51](#page-39-3), [106](#page-40-22), [115](#page-41-0), [117\]](#page-41-8).

3.3 Research Paradigm

3.3.1 General Information

A total of 947 players were evaluated in the included studies (320 youths), representing an average of 18 participants per

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study (range 5–174 players). Nearly half of the studies were published on or after 2015 and the majority dated from the last decade (Fig. [4\)](#page-7-0). Details on demographic characteristics, the location where experiments took place and apparatus used in data acquisition are presented in Table [2.](#page-8-0) Investigations were conducted primarily on the football pitch (25%), in a laboratory setting (19%) or indoor/court (15%), while several (40%) did not specify the experimental location.

3.3.2 Experimental Approaches

Regarding the kicking task constraints adopted, 35% of studies examined players kicking a stationary ball, 15% a rolling ball, one used both [[114\]](#page-41-4), while the remainder (46%) did not provide any detail. The instep kick was predominantly analyzed (44%), while half of the studies did not indicate the region of the foot used to kick the ball. Regarding the approach run, approximately 37% of studies mentioned at least one characteristic of the run, 58% did not, or this was self-selected in several studies (Table [3\)](#page-14-0). Instructions given to the participants were: to kick at maximal velocity without accuracy constraints (37%), hit the target without velocity constraints (25%), kick at maximal velocity and hit a target (13%), hit a target with maximal velocity (6%), maximal velocity and try to hit a target (8%), hit a target with realistic velocity (match specific) in one study $[110]$ $[110]$ or instructions were omitted in 10%. The location at which players aimed their kicks included the entire goal (15%), only in its centre (25%), targets with multiple locations in the goal (15%) or only in the four corners (8%). No information on kicking target confguration was available in 37% of studies.

3.3.3 Data Acquisition

Ball velocity was determined in 65% of included studies, using a radar (50%), or a three-dimensional (3D) video kinematic system (41%; sampling frequency ranging from 50 [[14](#page-38-3), [16,](#page-38-4) [37\]](#page-38-22) to 500 Hz [\[23\]](#page-38-10)) using trajectories derived from one [\[37](#page-38-22)] to eight markers [[98\]](#page-40-25) positioned on the ball's surface or equation estimates using foot velocity data as

Fig. 3 Risk of bias for individual studies and according to the differ- ▶ ent criteria assessed. (+) =low risk; (?) =unclear risk; (−) =high risk

input argument were also utilized [[47,](#page-39-2) [88,](#page-40-9) [89](#page-40-13)]. Accuracy measures were reported in 46% of studies (Table [2\)](#page-8-0). Of these, notational analysis was performed in approximately [half](#page-40-20) (54%) and included f[act](#page-40-8)o[rs s](#page-40-14)uch as number of goals [[86](#page-40-20)], success percentage [[85](#page-40-8), [91](#page-40-14)]; points obtained deter-mined by (1) targets with associated score [[18](#page-38-24), [110,](#page-41-2) [114,](#page-41-4) [117](#page-41-8)], (2) F-MARC battery of tests [[93\]](#page-40-15) and (3) Loughbor ough soccer shooting test [[17](#page-38-5), [107,](#page-40-19) [112](#page-41-3)]; number of kicks hitting the target [[109\]](#page-41-6) and constant/variable error [[104,](#page-40-18) [105\]](#page-40-11). Manual direct measurement [[51](#page-39-3)], two-dimensional (2D) video kinematic systems [[19](#page-38-6), [94,](#page-40-24) [96](#page-40-26), [106\]](#page-40-22) or unclear methods [[14](#page-38-3), [16,](#page-38-4) [20,](#page-38-7) [39,](#page-38-25) [91,](#page-40-14) [103](#page-40-27)] enabled calculation of the ball deviation for a given target in 42% of studies. Foot velocity was addressed in 17% of the studies through 3D [vide](#page-38-10)o kinematic systems (operating at 50 [[13](#page-38-2)] to 500 Hz [[23\]](#page-38-10)), taken as the velocity of various segmental locations including the fifth ($5th$ met) [[23](#page-38-10)] or fourth [[100\]](#page-40-17) metatarsal head; 5thmet base [[111](#page-41-7)]; center-of-mass of markers positioned at the ankle and $5th$ met head [\[47\]](#page-39-2); calcaneus and $5th$ met head $[102]$; $5th$ met head and base $[97]$ $[97]$; lateral and medial malleolus and $5th$ met head [\[98\]](#page-40-25) or the foot segment with lowest *y* axis position value [[13](#page-38-2)]. Other parameters derived from lower limb kinematics–not restricted to foot velocity–in reference to hip, knee and ankle joints (e.g. range-of-motion, linear velocity, angular joint displace ment and velocity) were computed in 33% of the selected studies [[23,](#page-38-10) [37](#page-38-22), [47](#page-39-2) –[49](#page-39-17), [64,](#page-39-15) [87](#page-40-12) –[90](#page-40-10), [98](#page-40-25) –[102,](#page-40-28) [104](#page-40-18), [111](#page-41-7)].

3.4 Warm‑up Methods and Their Infuence on Soccer Kicking

3.4.1 Overview

Of a total of ten studies (Table [4](#page-17-0)), six aimed to verify whether warm-up routines consisting of running plus static or dynamic stretching routines impacted upon sub sequent kicking features [\[37](#page-38-22), [47](#page-39-2) –[49](#page-39-17), [88,](#page-40-9) [90](#page-40-10)]. Two stud ies combined both aforementioned stretching methods (limited evidence) [[50](#page-39-18)] or included ballistic stretching as an additional condition $[51]$. Taken together, these eight studies [[37](#page-38-22), [47](#page-39-2) –[51](#page-39-3), [88,](#page-40-9) [90\]](#page-40-10) indicated greater efectiveness [of d](#page-38-22)[yna](#page-39-2)[mic](#page-39-17)[/ba](#page-40-10)llistic stretchin[g \(i](#page-38-22)[n lo](#page-39-2)[we](#page-39-18)r [lim](#page-40-9)b kinematics [\[37,](#page-38-22) [47–](#page-39-2)[49](#page-39-17), [90](#page-40-10)], ball velocity [[37,](#page-38-22) [47,](#page-39-2) [50](#page-39-18), [88](#page-40-9)] and accuracy [[51](#page-39-3)]) compared to static stretching, which on the other hand tended to impair kicking parameters when applied separately. Standalone studies tested the effects of additional warm-up strategies [[50,](#page-39-18) [105](#page-40-11), [108\]](#page-41-1). Below, results are depicted according to variables, subgroups and level of scientifc evidence.

Fig. 4 Cumulative sum showing (per year up to July 2020) the number of published articles that addressed the acute efects of warm-up, exercise and/or recovery-related strategies on soccer kicking ability

3.4.2 Stretching Routines

In senior players, a moderate evidence for greater ball velocity following dynamic stretching compared to static stretching $(SMD = 0.99 - 2.44)$ [[37,](#page-38-22) [47,](#page-39-2) [88\]](#page-40-9) was observed. When participants of these studies were divided according to playing standard, there was also a moderate evidence of greater ball velocity after dynamic versus static stretching in sub-elite $(SMD = 0.99 - 2.44)$ [[47,](#page-39-2) [88\]](#page-40-9) and in elite players $(SMD = 2.40)$ [\[37](#page-38-22)]. Similarly, moderate evidence of the benefts of dynamic stretching as compared to a static stretching routine ($SMD = 0.75$) was found regarding kicking accuracy in sub-elite youth players [\[51\]](#page-39-3). Limited evidence existed showing a positive infuence of dynamic stretching efects on foot velocity (i.e. in sub-elite senior players; SMD=1.00) [\[47\]](#page-39-2).

3.4.3 Additional Methods

Three studies in senior soccer players provided limited evidence on the effects of additional distinct warm-up routines other than only running plus stretching protocols. Warm-ups consisting of running followed by the execution of unloaded squat, kicking movement simulation with elastic band or whole-body vibration increased ball velocity more than running alone in sub-elite players $(MD = 4.84 - 6.03\%)$ [[108\]](#page-41-1). In elite players, running plus dynamic warm-up movements (e.g. straight leg kick, skipping, high knee) [[50\]](#page-39-18) produced improvements in ball velocity compared to solely a running warm-up $(SMD = 1.21)$. Finally, accuracy $(SMD = 0.03 - 0.78)$ or ankle velocity of the kick $(SMD = 0.59 - 1.07)$ did not significantly differ after a warm-up on a cycle ergometer, ball juggling/kicking against a wall or a combination of these two methods in sub-elite players [[105\]](#page-40-11).

3.5 Exercise‑Induced Efects on Soccer Kicking

3.5.1 Overview

Given the variety of exercise protocols reported in the included studies (Table [5\)](#page-19-0), these were classifed primarily according to the fatigue intended to elicit (local or general) [[118\]](#page-41-9), degree of load (submaximal fixed-intensity, graded until exhaustion, intermittent or all-out) [[119](#page-41-10), [120](#page-41-11)] and duration (explosive, high-intensity or endurance) [[119,](#page-41-10) [121](#page-41-12)]. As such, the majority of the physical exercises found (56%) were designed as general intermittent endurance exercise protocols [\[14](#page-38-3)[–19](#page-38-6), [38,](#page-38-23) [39](#page-38-25), [85,](#page-40-8) [86,](#page-40-20) [94](#page-40-24), [96,](#page-40-26) [97,](#page-40-16) [102](#page-40-28), [107,](#page-40-19) [112](#page-41-3)[–114,](#page-41-4) [116](#page-41-5)]. There were also groups of studies examining the impact of general intermittent high-intensity exercise [[20](#page-38-7), [21](#page-38-8), [103](#page-40-27)], general graded until exhaustion endurance exercise [\[64,](#page-39-15) [101](#page-40-29), [110](#page-41-2)], local all-out high-intensity exercise [[13](#page-38-2), [87](#page-40-12), [89](#page-40-13)] and local submaximal fixed-intensity endurance exercise [\[23](#page-38-10), [93\]](#page-40-15). These latter protocols (except general graded until exhaustion endurance) provided only limited evidence of their efects on kicking kinematics or performance. Single studies (also providing limited evidence) verifed the efects linked to general all-out endurance exercise [[95\]](#page-40-30), general submaximal fxed-intensity endurance exercise [[100](#page-40-17)], local graded until exhaustion endurance exercise [\[104](#page-40-18)] and a soccer practice session [[91\]](#page-40-14). Collectively,

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Study $(N=10)$ Design		Warm-up method (WU)	Transition		Main results			
				Min Type	Foot velocity	Ball velocity	Accuracy	Additional kinemat- ics
Stretching routines								
Amiri- Khorasani and Kellis $[47]$	Pre-post Randomized Balanced	WU_1 : 4' jog + 5 kicks $+30''$ rep ss WU_2 : 4' jog + 5 kicks + 5×1 " $rep \times 3$ vel (slow, moderate, max) ds	2	Rest	Post-WU ₂ vs. $pre-WU2$ $SMD = 1.00$ [0.14; 1.86] $MD = 11.52%$	$\Delta W U_1 < \Delta W U_2$ $SMD \ge -0.99$ $MD = -17.33%$		$\Delta W U_1 < \Delta W U_2$ Knee and ankle max ang vel $SMD \ge -0.96$ $MD = -13.41$ to $-11.1%$
Amiri- Khorasani et al. $[88]$	Pre-post Randomized Balanced	WU_1 : 4' jog + 5 $kicks + ss$ WU_2 : 4' jog + 5 $kicks+ds$	2	Rest		$\Delta WU_1 < \Delta WU_2$ $SMD = -2.44$ [0.80; 4.09] $MD = -132.67\%$		
Amiri- Khorasani et al. $[48]$	Post-only Counterbal- anced Randomized RM	WU_1 : 4' jog + no stretching WU_2 : 4' jog + ss WU_3 : 4' jog + ds	2	Rest				Post-WU ₂ < post- WU_3 Ang disp max knee flex and ang vel knee $SMD = -2.40$ to -0.95 $MD = -176.40\%$
Amiri-Kho- rasani and Ferdinands Balanced $[37]$	Post-only Randomized RM	WU_1 : 4' jog + no stretching WU_2 : 4' jog + ss WU_3 : 4' jog + ds	2	Rest		$WU_1 > WU_2$ $SMD = -0.48$ $[-1.05; 0.09]$ $MD = 4.62\%$ WU_2 < WU_3 $SMD = 2.40$ [1.65; 3.16] $MD = -24.87\%$ WU_1 < WU_3 $SMD = 2.05$ [1.34; 2.76] $MD = -19.10\%$		Hip and knee ang vel $WU_3 > WU_1 > WU_2$ $SMD = 0.61 - 1.90$ $MD = 17.11 -$ 147.88%
Amiri- Khorasani $[49]$	Post-only Balanced RM	WU_1 : 4' jog + no stretching WU_2 : 4' jog + ss WU_3 : 4' jog + ds	2	Rest				$\Delta WU_2 < \Delta WU_3$ Hip, knee and ankle DROM $SMD = 0.25 - 0.80$ $MD = 103.04 -$ 228.89%
Amiri- Khorasani et al. [90]	Post-only RM	WU_1 : 4' jog + no stretching WU_2 : 4' jog + 4' ss WU_3 : 4' jog + 4' ds	2	Rest				Hip DROM Post- WU_2 < post- WU_3 $SMD = 1.12$ [0.41; 1.82] $MD = 601.80\%$
Frikha et al. $\left[51\right]$	Post-only Randomized Partially bal- anced	$WU_1: 5'$ jog 70% $MAS + 10'$ resting WU_2 : 5' jog 70% $MAS + 10'$ ss + 6 VJ WU_3 : 5' jog 70% $MAS + 10' ds + 6$ VJ WU_4 : 5' jog 70% $MAS + 10'$ bs + 6 VJ	1	Rest			WU_1 < WU_3 $SMD = -0.53$ $[-0.10; 1.17]$ $MD = -10.33%$ WU_2 < WU_3 $SMD = -0.58$ $[-1.22; 0.05]$ $MD = -13.79\%$ WU_2 < WU_4 $SMD = -0.75$ [0.10; 1.39] $MD = -11.59%$	

Table 4 Efects of warm-up methods on soccer kicking performance reported in studies included in the review

SMD standardised mean diference [upper; lower confdence limits or range], *MD* mean percentage diference, *vel* velocity, *rep* repetitions, *jog* jogging, *ss* static stretching, *ds* dynamic stretching, *bs* ballistic stretching, *de* dynamic exercises, *max* maximal, *ang* angular, *VJ* vertical jump, *bpm* beats per minute, *RM* repeated measures, *TLA* lactate threshold, *disp* displacement, *DROM* dynamic range-of-motion, *MAS* maximal aerobic speed estimated using the Yo-Yo intermittent recovery test Level 1 [\[117](#page-41-8)]

physical exercise negatively impacted upon ball velocity in 65% of the studies. In contrast, accuracy remained stable across exercise protocols in 74% of studies. No reports showed a signifcant increase, post-exercise, in any kicking performance variables. The following section includes descriptions of exercise-induced efects according to the level of evidence provided per variable of kicking and within subgroups.

3.5.2 General Intermittent Endurance Exercise

In accordance with findings from a previous review $[12]$ $[12]$ $[12]$, exercise protocols requiring general intermittent endurance efforts were also sub grouped according to format: 11 vs. 11 soccer match-play [[113,](#page-41-13) [114,](#page-41-4) [116](#page-41-5)], simulated soccer demands with [[14–](#page-38-3)[16](#page-38-4), [39](#page-38-25), [94](#page-40-24), [96\]](#page-40-26) or without [[17](#page-38-5)–[19,](#page-38-6) [38,](#page-38-23) [85](#page-40-8), [102,](#page-40-28) [107,](#page-40-19) [112](#page-41-3)] ball skills or laboratory-based protocols (limited evidence) [[86,](#page-40-20) [97\]](#page-40-16).

3.5.2.1 Simulated soccer demands with ball skills Conflicting evidence existed regarding the effects on ball velocity of simulated soccer demands interspersed with execution of ball skills in senior players, when all playing standards were pooled $(SMD = 0.19 - 1.50)$ $[14 - 16, 39,$ $[14 - 16, 39,$ $[14 - 16, 39,$ $[14 - 16, 39,$ [96](#page-40-26)]. Sub-elite senior players exhibited moderate evidence pointing to no significant changes $(SMD = 0.19 - 0.45)$ [[14,](#page-38-3) [15](#page-38-29), [96\]](#page-40-26), while evidence was conficting in elite senior peers $(SMD = 0.45 - 1.50)$ [[16](#page-38-4), [39](#page-38-25)]. Irrespective of playing standard, strong evidence [[14](#page-38-3), [16](#page-38-4), [39](#page-38-25), [94](#page-40-24), [96](#page-40-26)] indicated kick accuracy was not modifed following simula-

Table 4 (continued)

tions of soccer demands when ball skills were included $(SMD = 0.07 - 0.53)$. Strong evidence for no significant changes was also observed in sub-elite senior players $(SMD = 0.07 - 0.44)$ [[14](#page-38-3), [94](#page-40-24), [96](#page-40-26)], while this evidence was moderate in elite $(SMD = 0.10 - 0.53)$ [[16,](#page-38-4) [39](#page-38-25)].

3.5.2.2 Simulated soccer demands without ball skills Moderate evidence for declines in ball velocity were exhibited in senior players $(SMD = 0.50 - 1.37)$ following simulated soccer demands without ball skills (irrespective of standard) [\[19,](#page-38-6) [102](#page-40-28), [107\]](#page-40-19). In sub-elite players, the evi dence was conficting (SMD =0.02–1.37) [[17](#page-38-5), [102](#page-40-28), [107](#page-40-19)], while evidence was limited in elite peers $(SMD = 1.03)$ [[19\]](#page-38-6). Limited evidence of impairments was also observed regarding foot velocity $(SMD = 1.03)$ in sub-elite senior players [[102](#page-40-28)]. The same trend occurred regarding ball velocity in sub-elite youth players $(SMD = 0.47)$ [[38](#page-38-23)]. Conficting results were observed regarding the efects of simulated soccer demands without ball skills on accu racy (SMD =0.19–2.94) irrespective of playing standard [[17](#page-38-5)–[19](#page-38-6), [85](#page-40-8), [107,](#page-40-19) [112\]](#page-41-3). In sub-elite populations, this conflicting evidence persisted $(SMD = 0.27 - 2.94)$ [\[17](#page-38-5), [18,](#page-38-24) [85,](#page-40-8) [107,](#page-40-19) [112](#page-41-3)], while there was limited evidence showing no changes in elite senior players $(SMD = 0.19)$ $(SMD = 0.19)$ $(SMD = 0.19)$ [19].

3.5.2.3 Match‑play demands Limited evidence was available regarding the efects of match-play demands on kicking performance according to subgroups/variables of kicking. Two studies, one in sub-elite youth $(SMD = 0.12)$ [[114](#page-41-4)] and the other in elite seniors $(SMD = 0.39 - 0.55)$ [[113](#page-41-13)], indicated no significant changes in ball velocity following match-play (match simulation used in the for mer). Declines in ball velocity were observed in a study in elite youth $(SMD = 0.57 - 1.04)$ [\[116\]](#page-41-5), while accuracy was not altered in sub-elite youth players $(SMD = 0.04)$ [[114](#page-41-4)], respectively, following competition and simulated matches.

3.5.3 General Intermittent High‑Intensity Exercise

LL lower limbs, *DL* dominant limb, *NDL* non-dominant limb, *ang* angular, *disp* displacement. – information not reported or unclear

LL lower limbs, DL dominant limb, NDL non-dominant limb, ang angular, disp displacement. -information not reported or unclear

Two studies provided limited evidence of the efects of general intermittent high-intensity exercise on kicking accuracy in sub-elite youth players $(SMD = 0.09 - 0.92)$ [[20,](#page-38-7) [103](#page-40-27)], while one (also representing limited evidence) reported declines in ball velocity in sub-elite senior players $(SMD = 1.06)$ [[21\]](#page-38-8).

3.5.4 General Graded Until Exhaustion Endurance Exercise

Moderate evidence indicated that, in sub-elite senior play ers, significant declines in ball velocity $(SMD = 0.58 - 1.19)$ occurred following general graded until exhaustion endurance exercise protocols [\[64](#page-39-15), [101,](#page-40-29) [110\]](#page-41-2).

3.6 Infuence of Recovery‑Related Strategies on Soccer Kicking

3.6.1 Overview

Five studies reported data collected immediately after the end of the frst-half and prior to the beginning of the secondhalf during match activity simulations (*i.e.* general intermittent endurance physical effort). The results revealed that following the 15-min interval (half-time) foot velocity [\[97](#page-40-16)], ball velocity [\[14](#page-38-3), [16](#page-38-4), [38,](#page-38-23) [39\]](#page-38-25) and accuracy [\[14,](#page-38-3) [16](#page-38-4), [39](#page-38-25)] were not signifcantly modifed. Two studies analyzed the timecourse for recovery following cessation of physical exercise [\[64,](#page-39-15) [93\]](#page-40-15), while one addressed the effects of a habitual night of sleep versus total sleep deprivation on subsequent kick performance (limited evidence) [[109](#page-41-6)]. Eight studies determined the efects of ergogenic aids on recovery in kicking performance following general intermittent endurance physical efforts (Table 6). These frequently involved pre- [[86\]](#page-40-20) or pre/mid-exercise carbohydrate supplementation [[14,](#page-38-3) [17,](#page-38-5) [18,](#page-38-24) [39](#page-38-25), [85,](#page-40-8) [117\]](#page-41-8). The efects of water intake were secondarily addressed (limited evidence) [[91,](#page-40-14) [107](#page-40-19)]. Finally, six additional studies analyzed the efects of ergogenic aids applied to players in a resting state. Strategies included kinesiotape [\[106](#page-40-22)], elastic taping [[111\]](#page-41-7), lumbar spine manipulation [\[92](#page-40-23)], and compression garments (socks [[98,](#page-40-25) [99\]](#page-40-21) or shorts [[115\]](#page-41-0)). Except for the latter, all these strategies demonstrated limited evidence of their impact on soccer kicking performance. A more detailed classifcation of evidence level is provided below for distinct recovery-related strategies, variables of kicking and subgroups.

3.6.2 Passive Resting

3.6.2.1 Half-time There was strong evidence indicating that passive resting during the 15-min half-time pause did not signifcantly modify ball velocity in senior players (irrespective of standard) (SMD = $0.16-0.36$) [\[14](#page-38-3), [16,](#page-38-4) [39](#page-38-25)]. When participants were split according to playing standard, the evidence for no changes in ball velocity following half-time was moderate in elite $(SMD=0.17-0.36)$ $[16, 39]$ $[16, 39]$ $[16, 39]$ and sub-elite senior (SMD=0.16) [[14\]](#page-38-3) and limited in sub-elite youth players (SMD = 0.58) [[38\]](#page-38-23).

3.6.2.2 Time‑course of changes Limited evidence was observed for the efects of additional passive resting conditions on kicking performance, such as in time-course studies. The acute decrease in accuracy as a result of a strength training session applied to lower limbs was reestablished within 24 h (MD=−16.12 to 15.19%), in a study using sampling windows of 1 day (until 3 days after exercise being completed) [\[93](#page-40-15)]. When 30 s intervals were interspersed between repeated measures of kicking performance, approximately 1 min was sufficient to recover declines in ball velocity induced by an incremental running protocol until exhaustion $(SMD=0.43-0.45)$ [[64\]](#page-39-15).

3.6.3 Ergogenic Aids

3.6.3.1 Carbohydrate provision In sub-elite senior players, evidence on the efects of pre/mid-exercise carbohydrate supplementation on kicking accuracy $(SMD = 0.13-0.57)$ was conflicting [[14,](#page-38-3) [17,](#page-38-5) [18](#page-38-24), [85\]](#page-40-8), while there was moderate evidence of no signifcant efects regarding ball velocity $(SMD=0.18-0.41)$ [[14,](#page-38-3) [17](#page-38-5)]. Moderate evidence indicated that, in elite senior players, pre/mid-exercise carbohydrate supplementation produced significant effects on ball kicking velocity (SMD = 0.67) but not accuracy (SMD = 0.01) [[39\]](#page-38-25).

3.6.3.2 Electrical stimulation A separate study provided limited evidence that low-frequency electrical stimulation, applied at the half-time pause in simulated soccer matchplay demands, had a significant effect on subsequent kicking ball velocity in sub-elite youth players (SMD = 0.56) [\[38](#page-38-23)].

3.6.3.3 Compression garments There was moderate evidence that using either high or low compression shorts did not modify ball velocity in sub-elite senior players $(SMD=0.09-0.12)$ [[115\]](#page-41-0).

4 Discussion

The purpose of the current analysis was to systematically review and critically appraise original research articles in the scientifc literature addressing the acute efects of warmup, exercise and/or recovery-related intervention strategies on ball kicking kinematics and performance in male soccer players. In general, task constraints used across studies to testing kick performance generally lacked real-world resemblance to the competition environment, while simple notational-based outcome measures of accuracy were generally adopted. Most evidence derived from the interventions synthesized was associated with moderate level and unclearto-high risk of bias. Nevertheless, the results showed that kicking performance improved following warm-ups involving dynamic but not static stretching. Intermittent or graded until exhaustion endurance exercise without inclusion of ball skills impaired subsequent ball kicking velocity, while accuracy was less frequently affected by exercise. Carbohydrate supplementation pre- and mid-exercise demonstrated some

Table 6

(continued)

benefts in counteracting the deleterious efects of endurance exercise on ball velocity in senior elite but not sub-elite players.

4.1 Research Paradigm

4.1.1 Methodological Quality and Samples

Overall, a moderate mean methodological rating was observed across studies with these generally providing sufficient information to characterize study samples. However, essential information relating to the data collection environment and ball standardization (e.g. dimensions/pressure) was frequently omitted. In addition, selective reporting occurred, blinding aspects were poorly accounted for, and allocation concealment was not always ensured. These sources of bias are limitations to the current evidence base, thereby implying caution when interpreting and/or applying the fndings collated here. Finally, adult players were predominantly investigated (42/52 studies). Accordingly, additional research in youth players across diferent age categories is warranted especially as kicking kinematics and performance are strongly age dependent [[62,](#page-39-14) [63,](#page-39-19) [127](#page-41-19)].

4.1.2 Kicking Tasks

–information not reported or unclearinformation not reported or unclear

Scientifc studies investigating the biomechanics of kicking tend to demonstrate substantial citation rates [[128\]](#page-41-20). Yet, the practical applications of available research fndings are still debatable with perhaps a need for more holistic realworld approaches to investigating kicking performance [\[34](#page-38-30)]. Indeed, the conditions in which the mechanics and accuracy of the kicking task were evaluated along with associated contextual constraints merit scrutiny. First, discrepancies were noted regarding instructions provided to the participants on how they should perform kicking actions. Instructions on both velocity and accuracy were only provided in approximately 27% of the selected studies [[15,](#page-38-29) [19,](#page-38-6) [23](#page-38-10), [48,](#page-39-16) [50](#page-39-18), [64](#page-39-15), [88](#page-40-9), [94,](#page-40-24) [96,](#page-40-26) [101,](#page-40-29) [105](#page-40-11), [106](#page-40-22), [108](#page-41-1), [110\]](#page-41-2). A single study also instructed players to hit a target with 'realistic velocity' (match specifc) [\[110](#page-41-2)]. In contrast, in 62% of the studies, subjects were asked to kick maximally without explicit instructions relating to accuracy or were instructed to hit a target without directives on ball velocity (Table [2\)](#page-8-0).

There is evidence supporting Fitts' law [[129\]](#page-41-21) which indicates a trade-off between velocity and accuracy in soccer kicking [[28\]](#page-38-15), and research demonstrates that the provision of instructions emphasizing both velocity and accuracy can reduce bias in these variables [\[27\]](#page-38-14). The distance at which kicks were taken from the goal is an additional factor potentially infuencing the balance between kick velocity and accuracy [\[33](#page-38-20)]. In over half of the studies (see Table [3](#page-14-0)), kicks were taken at a distance of 11-m from the goal (e.g.

penalty kick simulations) [[21](#page-38-8), [23](#page-38-10), [37](#page-38-22), [48,](#page-39-16) [50,](#page-39-18) [90,](#page-40-10) [94](#page-40-24)[–96,](#page-40-26) [102](#page-40-28), [108\]](#page-41-1) or from shorter distances [[15](#page-38-29), [20](#page-38-7), [38,](#page-38-23) [47](#page-39-2), [49](#page-39-17), [51,](#page-39-3) [64](#page-39-15), [87–](#page-40-12)[89](#page-40-13), [98–](#page-40-25)[101](#page-40-29), [103](#page-40-27)[–106](#page-40-22), [109](#page-41-6), [115,](#page-41-0) [116\]](#page-41-5). This limitation reduces the extrapolation of these research fndings to other frequent game actions. For example, kicks from distance (e.g. taken outside the penalty area) are frequent in soccer [\[130](#page-41-22), [131](#page-41-23)] but received less attention in the literature (<¼ studies [[16](#page-38-4)[–18](#page-38-24), [39,](#page-38-25) [85,](#page-40-8) [86](#page-40-20), [93,](#page-40-15) [110,](#page-41-2) [112](#page-41-3), [117\]](#page-41-8)). Similarly, players were instructed to kick at the center of the goal more frequently than to the corner areas. Utilizing targets positioned only in the goal center suggests lower external validity as this zone is where goalkeepers generally stand prior to an opponent kicking the ball [[27](#page-38-14)]. Kicks were also mostly examined in the absence of opposition except for two studies that used wooden static goalkeepers [[17,](#page-38-5) [107](#page-40-19)]. The absence of opposition players such as goalkeepers (i.e. human) or defenders during a kick can bias results [\[29](#page-38-16), [30](#page-38-17)]. Approach run velocity is constrained by the initial distance of the opponent as well as by its simple presence during task performance. Hence the expression of kicking behaviour is highly modulated by the context; if a defender is not present as a task constraint, some movement regulation features would likely not emerge [[30\]](#page-38-17). Future work should therefore consider the inclusion of opponents contesting kicks and more match-realistic conditions in an attempt to augment the ecological validity of kicking kinematic analyses whilst also reporting between-trials consistency measures.

A further issue concerned the players' approach to the ball when performing a kicking action. Arguably, imposing constraints on the approach run can alter kicking patterns [\[62](#page-39-14), [68](#page-39-20)], yet when the initial player position (e.g. distance to the ball or approach angle) was not controlled or measured in experimental designs it likely added undesirable variance across trials, particularly in movement mechanics in the later stages of the task (i.e. impact phase) [[72](#page-39-21), [132\]](#page-41-24). While players frequently vary their approach run in match-play conditions making experimental design difficult, the lack of consistency across studies (presented in Sect. [3.3.2](#page-5-1)) nevertheless infuences interpretations of the potential efects of any intervention used to test changes in kicking performance as well as rendering difficult comparisons of findings across the literature. Overall, it is difficult to directly apply some of the findings from the current literature to the performance environment [\[133](#page-41-25)] and these methodological limitations indicate a need to reconcile study designs with the real-world demands of soccer competition.

4.1.3 Data Acquisition Methods

Foot velocity is considered to be one of the main variables in lower limb movement kinematics, because it largely refects the momentum transferred via proximal–distal interaction between body segments when kicking [[134\]](#page-41-26). Ball velocity

and accuracy are also recognized as key indicators of kicking performance [[1](#page-37-0), [36,](#page-38-21) [135](#page-41-27), [136](#page-41-28)], being also strongly associated with limb movement kinematics [\[77](#page-40-0), [134](#page-41-26), [137](#page-41-29)]. Given the theoretical relationships between ball fight behavior and additional lower limb features (e.g. striking mass) [[138,](#page-41-30) [139](#page-41-31)], it seems reasonable to suggest that when the inertial properties of the impact segment remain relatively invariable throughout a testing session, standardization of the ball characteristics is essential. However, standardization was systematically omitted as less than half of the studies provided key information on ball dimension $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ $[14–16, 19, 89, 94–96,$ [98](#page-40-25), [99](#page-40-21), [114,](#page-41-4) [115\]](#page-41-0) and only a quarter additionally reported ball pressure [[23,](#page-38-10) [37,](#page-38-22) [47](#page-39-2)[–49](#page-39-17), [51](#page-39-3), [87,](#page-40-12) [88,](#page-40-9) [90](#page-40-10), [101](#page-40-29), [105,](#page-40-11) [111\]](#page-41-7) (Table [2](#page-8-0)). Ball size [[140](#page-41-32), [141\]](#page-41-33) and pressure [[69\]](#page-39-22) infuence foot–ball impact and subsequent kicking performance and this information should be reported and standardized (see review by Lees et al. [[1\]](#page-37-0)).

Across the literature, ball velocity was generally calculated using either radar or video kinematic systems. Preliminary data indicate a strong association (*r*=0.994) between ball kicking velocity obtained via radar and 2-D video kinematic systems [[142\]](#page-42-0). Ball angular trajectory and velocity analyses of softball batting also demonstrated agreement (to within 0.09 rad and 2 m/s, respectively) between radar and video kinematic (3D) outcomes, suggesting potential interchangeability of data [\[143](#page-42-1)]. Replication studies using soccer kicking are required to confrm concurrent validity of radar outcomes against gold-standard measures, given the 3D nature of the task [\[1](#page-37-0)] which may be distorted/underestimated in 2D procedures [[144](#page-42-2)]. Given that video kinematic systems generally require specialized staff for data processing, a laboratory setting, and high costs [\[145\]](#page-42-3), radar is a pertinent alternative especially in practical settings. However, while information on the positioning of radars was generally provided [[15](#page-38-29), [19](#page-38-6), [38](#page-38-23), [50](#page-39-18), [92](#page-40-23), [94](#page-40-24)[–96,](#page-40-26) [108,](#page-41-1) [114,](#page-41-4) [115\]](#page-41-0), data on sensitivity and measurement error were less frequently provided (41% of studies [[15,](#page-38-29) [19,](#page-38-6) [92](#page-40-23), [94](#page-40-24)[–96](#page-40-26), [115](#page-41-0)]), while acquisition frequency was rarely described [[19,](#page-38-6) [114](#page-41-4)] thereby rendering difficult comparisons across study findings.

It is recognized that there are discrepancies in lower limb distal extremity velocities during the impact phase of kicking, with a difference in amplitude of up to \sim 10 m/s depending on the region of the foot or ankle used for the calculations [[146](#page-42-4)]. Consequently, a lack of conformity regarding the number of markers used and their positioning to calculate foot velocity (fully described in Sect. [3.3.3\)](#page-5-1) suggests caution when attempting to directly compare results from studies using video kinematic systems. Conversely, while a standard marker set confguration for foot kinematic analysis has not yet been defned in literature [\[147\]](#page-42-5), it may have contributed to the aforementioned issue. Similarly, critical appraisal of the sampling and fltering procedures used prior to extraction of movement kinematics revealed discrepancies.

Nunome and collaborators [\[32](#page-38-19)] demonstrated that using an automatic time–frequency flter together with high acquisition frequency (1000 Hz) was efficient in identifying sudden changes in the lower limb kinematics during the ball impact phase. In contrast, these changes were not observed at a lower sampling rate (250 Hz) and after traditional fltering (i.e. Butterworth in low and constant cut-off frequency). In investigations quantifying lower limb kinematics and foot velocity, acquisition frequencies ranged from 50 to 500 Hz (Table [2\)](#page-8-0)—all below or equal to half the frequency recommended [[32\]](#page-38-19). In addition, a Butterworth flter was also used in 37% of cases (cut-off frequency ranging from $12-16$ Hz) [\[37](#page-38-22), [49](#page-39-17), [64,](#page-39-15) [99,](#page-40-21) [101](#page-40-29), [102](#page-40-28), [111\]](#page-41-7) otherwise the filtering procedure was not described in 47% [[13,](#page-38-2) [47,](#page-39-2) [48](#page-39-16), [87](#page-40-12)[–90](#page-40-10), [97](#page-40-16), [105](#page-40-11)]. Alternative data treatment techniques potentially useful for time-series data are also available. These include extrapolation [\[148\]](#page-42-6), quintic spline [\[66\]](#page-39-23), robust non-parametric locally weighted function [\[68\]](#page-39-20) and most recently a modified fractional Fourier flter [[149\]](#page-42-7). However, only a few studies (16%) considered these techniques [[23,](#page-38-10) [98](#page-40-25), [100\]](#page-40-17). Given the absence of a clear consensus on best practice regarding minimum sampling rates in analyzing kicking parameters and how to correctly flter time-series, some research groups have also ruled out impact data as input arguments to the smoothing program [[65](#page-39-24), [66](#page-39-23), [68](#page-39-20)] aiming to minimize systematic error.

Although the use of video kinematic systems has become more frequent compared to the beginning of the 2010s [\[11](#page-38-0)], kicking accuracy was still mostly determined by simple notational-based methods (Table [2](#page-8-0) and Sect. [3.3.3](#page-5-1)). Outcome metrics included the total/percentage number of kicks hitting a given target or using criterion measures (e.g. punctuations) arbitrarily defned according to ball placement when it crosses the goal line. Questions have been raised concerning the reliability, objectivity, and sensitivity of such metrics [\[11](#page-38-0), [63](#page-39-19), [150](#page-42-8), [151](#page-42-9)]. For example, studies included in the current review reported that: (1) ballistic compared to static stretching improved accuracy when computed as the deviation from the target, but this was not the case when the number of total missed kicks (ball outside the target) was computed [[51\]](#page-39-3); (2) an exercise protocol of a similar duration to a match did not signifcantly afect the percentage of successful kicks (ball contacted the goal or target) but increased the absolute deviation of the ball from the target [\[16\]](#page-38-4) and, (3) a large beneficial effect (SMD = 0.95 ; ~ 32%) was observed for ball deviation from a target after a 15-min half-time pause, whereas changes in success percentage (ball contacted the goal/target) were small $(SMD = 0.47; \sim 16\%)$ [[16\]](#page-38-4). Thus, it is arguably necessary that future research moves beyond simple gross measures of accuracy and is reconciled more with real-world characteristics of play. Indeed, work has shown that scores in a commonly used feld test of technical performance lacked validity in relation to actual competition demands [\[25](#page-38-12)].

4.2 Kinematics and Performance of Soccer Kicking Following Interventions

4.2.1 Warm‑Up

Warm-up routines are performed prior to competitive events and training sessions to enhance readiness for subsequent performance [[41](#page-38-28)]. Moderate evidence here suggests that kicking accuracy in youth sub-elite players, and ball velocity in senior sub-elite and elite players, are both improved following a warm-up consisting of dynamic stretching but not static stretches. These observations corroborate those reported in another two reviews that detected analogous results in soccer physical capacity as a consequence of applying dynamic versus static stretching exercises in the warm-up [[40,](#page-38-26) [42](#page-38-27)]. Both kicking accuracy and ball velocity are governed by movement kinematics and muscle activation of the kicking limb [[77](#page-40-0), [134,](#page-41-26) [137\]](#page-41-29). Static stretching exercises are typically part of soccer warm-up routines [\[40](#page-38-26)]. These are often considered easier and safer to apply in comparison to other modalities [[152](#page-42-10), [153\]](#page-42-11) and may not modify lower limb kinematics in vigorous lower limb muscle contractions [\[154](#page-42-12)]. However, static stretching acutely decreases neuromuscular activity [[155–](#page-42-13)[157\]](#page-42-14), while footballers might also perceive greater effort when performing passive static stretching compared to ballistic stretching exercises of equalized volume [[158\]](#page-42-15). Accordingly, preference should be towards inclusion of dynamic exercises in warm-ups, while static stretching routines only should specifcally be avoided immediately prior to testing kicking performance. In addition, while a combination of short static stretching exercises followed by dynamic movements has positive efects on physical performance measures [[41,](#page-38-28) [159,](#page-42-16) [160\]](#page-42-17), only limited evidence is available to date regarding their effects on kicking output [\[50](#page-39-18)].

A previous systematic review of the literature showed that when performing explosive athletic tasks, a specifc preparation is required which is frequently not matched by the traditional warm-ups in most of the football codes [[41](#page-38-28)]. Warm-up routines commonly performed in soccer include locomotor activities, resistance tasks, and specifc drills [[40\]](#page-38-26) and not only simple running exercises followed by stretching [\[161\]](#page-42-18). Among strength exercises included in warm-ups prior to kicking evaluations, only unloaded squats using both lower limbs were tested [\[108\]](#page-41-1). However, kicking and other soccer actions (e.g. sprinting, jumping and change of direction) are commonly performed unilaterally or with the weight transferred to one leg at a given moment $[162]$ $[162]$. Additionally, the evidence of the effects of a gamespecifc technical warm-up (e.g. ball juggling plus wall volley exercise) is limited [\[105\]](#page-40-11). In sum, a closer resemblance between the protocols used in practical contexts and those in research studies is again necessary. For example, to establish the efects of common pre-exercise practices, studies should include loaded strength stimuli, specifc skill tasks as well as technical–tactical exercises (e.g. small-sided games) [\[40](#page-38-26)].

When prescribing and tailoring warm-up routines to ensure readiness to perform, external constraints (i.e. logistics) must typically be accounted for [\[163](#page-42-20)] and one example is the transition time between the end of the warm-up and the performance test. In studies verifying the benefcial efects of warm-up on kicking parameters, transition time ranged from 1 min [[51\]](#page-39-3), most commonly 2 min [[37,](#page-38-22) [47–](#page-39-2)[49,](#page-39-17) [88,](#page-40-9) [90\]](#page-40-10) to a maximum of 5 min [[50\]](#page-39-18). In the sole study not detecting any diference in kicking outcomes, it is noteworthy that there was a very short interval following the warm-up (20 s) [[105](#page-40-11)]. Yet analysis of warm-up strategies in professional soccer competition showed this duration can be substantially longer [[52\]](#page-39-4). While the current literature generally reports beneficial effects of a warm-up on kicking performance, the transition time from warm-up to performance testing might be considered suboptimal across studies. According to a meta-analysis [[164\]](#page-42-21), a 7–10-min rest period following cessation of the warm-up routine enhanced ensuing power performance; it is likely that a balance favouring increases in muscle contractile response and dissipation of transient fatigue is achieved to a greater magnitude within this timewindow than using shorter periods. However, the question arises as to the duration that the benefts gained from a given warm-up persist as specifcally regards kicking velocity? Also, kicking performance should be also assessed after longer rest periods, for example, between the pre-match warm-up end and subsequent evaluation, in an attempt to improve ecological validity through respecting the realities of the competition setting. Indeed, work has reported a time interval lasting an average of 12.4 min (standard $deviation = 3.8$) interval between the end of the warm-up and match kick-off $[52]$ $[52]$ $[52]$.

4.2.2 Exercise

In general, analyses of ball kicking velocity most frequently reported a decline following exercise although exerciseinduced effects on velocity were dependent on the type of protocol utilized. Moderate evidence indicates ball velocity reductions in senior players following general intermittent endurance efforts without inclusion of any ball skills, despite mixed results observed in subgroups across diferent competitive standards (limited evidence of declines in elite and conficting outcomes in sub-elite players). Most specifcally in sub-elite senior players, the velocity of the ball declined following general graded until exhaustion endurance exercise while no signifcant changes were observed as a consequence of general intermittent endurance exercise interspersed with execution of ball skills (moderate evidence in both cases). Thus, when exercise protocols prioritized locomotor capacity without inclusion of ball skills, a greater acute negative impact on subsequent kicks tended to occur. Conversely, intermittent endurance physical activity interspersed with execution of ball skills reported lower effects on subsequent ball velocity. Indeed, the inclusion of ball drills in exercise circuits can reduce both perceived effort $[165]$ $[165]$ $[165]$ as well as actual exercise intensity $[166]$ $[166]$ possibly aiding reduction of any transient efect of fatigue on kicking capacity and this needs to be taken into account when designing experimental protocols.

While declines in neuromuscular outputs in match-play simulations are elicited mainly due to central fatigue occurrence, these appeared to insignificantly modify kicking velocity measured at the end of the protocols [[9,](#page-37-7) [167](#page-42-24)]. In a number of exercise protocols reviewed, there was a generally acceptable degree of relationship between performance outcomes (i.e. 6×40 m repeated sprints, Yo-Yo intermittent recovery test level 1, laboratory treadmill exhaustive effort) and running activity performed in actual match-play (i.e. construct validity supported) [\[168–](#page-42-25)[170\]](#page-42-26), while others (e.g. soccer match simulation, Loughborough Intermittent Shuttle Test and $SATT^{90}$ are reported to achieve similar loading to that required in a soccer match [\[122](#page-41-14), [123,](#page-41-15) [125\]](#page-41-17). Yet only limited evidence was obtained from the current scientifc literature on the consequences of match-play demands (11 versus 11) on components of kicking performance. Additional research is arguably necessary to improve understanding of the effects of game-related fatigue on kick kinematics and performance. Assessments of potential impairments of kicking ability following occurrence of intense periods of locomotor activity (e.g., peak periods of high-intensity running commonly observed in match-play) are merited. Exercise protocols also need to combine physical, technical and tactical elements and better respect the stochastic nature of match running activity [\[171](#page-42-27)]. Match physical demands have also substantially evolved over recent years [\[172](#page-43-0)] and future exercise testing protocols should account for this change.

In contrast to ball velocity, kicking accuracy was less frequently afected by exercise. There are three possible explanations for this discrepancy. First, where decreased velocities were generally observed due to exercise, kicking accuracy might have been favored; in other words, existence of the velocity–accuracy trade-of [\[28](#page-38-15), [74](#page-39-25), [173\]](#page-43-1). Second, the inability to shoot within the prescribed time requirements of tests can result in poorer shooting scores, rather than assessing the ability to shoot on target $[112]$ $[112]$. Third, fatigue seems to afect to a greater extent the muscle properties in charge of generating force compared to movement coordination in explosive tasks using the lower limbs [\[174,](#page-43-2) [175](#page-43-3)]. The frst two premises might be more plausible, since it is still unclear whether there is a dominance of coordination over force on the control of kicking accuracy [[176\]](#page-43-4). Work is required to explore whether kicks dependent on high ball velocity (e.g.

taken from longer distances to the goal) demonstrate greater impairments as a consequence of exercise-induced fatigue compared to those placing greater demands on controlling ball placement rather than velocity. Integrating analyses of cognitive skills such as decision-making demands and visual searching would also be pertinent.

4.2.3 Recovery‑Related Strategies

Studies using game-play running activity simulations [\[14,](#page-38-3) [16,](#page-38-4) [38,](#page-38-23) [39](#page-38-25), [97\]](#page-40-16) identifed that a 15-min half-time pause spent in passive recovery did not modify kicking performance (notably velocity outputs). The level of evidence for ball velocity outcomes was moderate in elite and sub-elite senior players, while strong evidence was obtained when pooling all senior players. Indeed, a passive rest during the pause generally led to decrements in muscle temperature which can subsequently inhibit lower limb power performance [\[177,](#page-43-5) [178\]](#page-43-6). Thus, reducing the time spent resting passively could be benefcial for tempering possible previous declines in kicking velocity. While work has shown positive results of such practice on running outputs in simulated or friendly matches [[178](#page-43-6), [179](#page-43-7)] no evidence exists for kicking performance [\[180](#page-43-8)].

Inadequate recovery during and following competition can impair subsequent athletic performance and potentially predispose players to injuries [\[181](#page-43-9)]. Intervention strategies to accelerate recovery are thereby warranted. Investigations of the efects of a carbohydrate replacement on kicking accuracy and velocity showed contrasting results. Conficting evidence was observed for kicking accuracy in sub-elite senior players while moderate evidence for no signifcant efects was observed in elite senior peers, which is unsurprising since kicking accuracy is seemingly less afected by exercise. In contrast, moderate evidence pointed to a signifcant efect following consumption of a carbohydrate-rich drink in counteracting the potential impact of fatigue on ball velocity in elite senior players following extended physical efforts, which is in agreement with previous reviews $[46,$ [182](#page-43-10)]. Since decreased muscle glycogen stores occurring at the end of senior soccer matches can affect knee extension force generated [\[183](#page-43-11)], a carbohydrate supplementation over prolonged exercise might prevent muscle force decrements and also help preserve functioning of the CNS [[184\]](#page-43-12) as well as general running activity $[185]$ $[185]$. Associations between strength measurements and kicking velocity are sometimes unclear [[36,](#page-38-21) [167](#page-42-24)] but central inputs play an important role in modulating performance of goal-directed sport skills [\[186,](#page-43-14) [187](#page-43-15)]. However, the question arises as to what is the realworld impact of the reduction observed here in ball velocity due to exercising (e.g. overall percentage and raw changes respectively equals approximately 6% and −1.41 m/s in senior players across studies) on match technical performance outputs. An inverse relationship $(R^2=0.82)$ between ball velocity and the likelihood a shot is saved by a goalkeeper was shown in a controlled setting [[135](#page-41-27)].

Other recovery methods are also used ubiquitously in soccer [[43\]](#page-39-0) yet their effects on kicking performance remain unknown (e.g. cooling techniques in extreme temperature) [[188](#page-43-16)]. Furthermore, single studies $[38, 92, 106]$ $[38, 92, 106]$ $[38, 92, 106]$ $[38, 92, 106]$ $[38, 92, 106]$ $[38, 92, 106]$ or those conducted by the same research group [\[98](#page-40-25), [99\]](#page-40-21) provided only limited evidence on the efects of using of some therapeutic methods for recovery (e.g. electrical stimulation, kinesiotape and massage). Further replication studies particularly considering inclusion of demands during extended physical effort in addition to these interventions are necessary to confrm whether these common strategies [[43\]](#page-39-0) aid recovery of kicking performance during and following exercise. Finally, sleep is recognized as an important recovery process [\[43](#page-39-0), [80,](#page-40-3) [189](#page-43-17), [190\]](#page-43-18). However kicking performance following habitual sleep nights was compared only to that after total sleep deprivation [[109\]](#page-41-6) which is not the most common sleep-related issue in athletic populations (compared to disrupted or partial sleep deprivation) [\[191](#page-43-19), [192](#page-43-20)].

4.3 Limitations of Included Studies

Over the course of this review, fve main limitations of studies were identifed. First, critical risk of bias related to blinding of participants, outcome assessor and selective reporting of results, indicates that these aspects should be more carefully treated in future research. However, some procedures are not always feasible in applied research in team sports [\[193\]](#page-43-21). Second, methods notably varied across studies and in addition to the mentioned potential risk of bias, pooling the data of interventions in a meta-analysis was deemed inappropriate. Third, intervention protocols were not completely reported in the methods of eight studies (15%) [\[37](#page-38-22), [47–](#page-39-2)[49,](#page-39-17) [88](#page-40-9), [90,](#page-40-10) [91,](#page-40-14) [113](#page-41-13)]–for example, details of the duration, type of exercise, number of exercises and series performed. Fourth, while 33% of all studies clearly reported that kicks were performed using the dominant limb, 56% omitted this information while another 15% allowed players to use both limbs or self-select the lower limb, which may have infuenced response to the interventions. Finally, kicking velocity [\[194](#page-43-22)] and match physical loads [\[195](#page-43-23)] in soccer vary substantially according to positional role yet only two studies [[86](#page-40-20), [116\]](#page-41-5) accounted for this parameter.

4.4 Limitations of the Current Review

There are several limitations of the current review. A decision was made to only include studies written in English which could have resulted in the loss of research published in other languages. The checklist adopted here was adapted from a previous study [[59\]](#page-39-11) which has also served as basis

for two recent reviews [[168](#page-42-25), [196\]](#page-43-24). However, as outlined in recent critiques [\[197\]](#page-43-25), our choice for a non-validated tool in appraising methodological quality of comparator trials can be considered another limitation. The qualitative synthesis produced has been based on and is likely infuenced by the risk of sources of bias identifed. In addition, only half of the studies considered for review employed randomized designs including a control condition. Six studies investigated the efects on kicking performance of ergogenic aids applied to players only in a resting state, and therefore, these results may not be feasibly extrapolated to a mid/postexercise recovery-focused purpose. Finally, we noted during the literature search and this was also highlighted in a recent publication [\[198\]](#page-43-26), that studies in women's soccer are insufficient in number and, therefore, the synthesis presented here comprised only male players.

5 Conclusions

To conclude, moderate evidence indicates that a warm-up composed of dynamic stretching is shown to be benefcial for ensuing kicking accuracy (in youth sub-elite players) or ball velocity in senior players (sub-elite and elite), while static stretching only can impair velocity outputs. Research conducted in sub-elite senior soccer (moderate evidence) demonstrates that the velocity of the ball was notably reduced following general graded until exhaustion endurance exercise while no changes occur after general intermittent endurance efforts interspersed with execution of ball skills. Accuracy is less frequently hampered by prior physical exercises demands. Moderate evidence indicates that a passive recovery during the half-time pause did not modify ball kicking velocity (in elite and sub-elite senior players), while benefts of consuming carbohydrate-rich drinks before and during extended exercise were observed in senior elite but not in sub-elite players. Higher quality studies with low risk of bias are necessary to investigate the benefts of habitual soccer warm-up modalities, recovery-related interventions as well as the effects of official match-play $(11 \text{ vs } 11)$ demands on kicking kinematics. There is a general need to re-examine methodological protocols to improve ecological validity in testing soccer kicking performance.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest Luiz Henrique Palucci Vieira, Felipe Balistieri Santinelli, Christopher Carling, Eleftherios Kellis, Paulo Roberto Pereira Santiago and Fabio Augusto Barbieri declare that they have no confict of interest relevant to the content of this review.

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Data Availability Statement All raw data supporting this systematic review are from previously reported studies, which have been cited. Additional processed data that support the fndings of the current review are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Author contributions LV and FB designed the research. FB, CC and PS supervised the research activity planning and execution. LV and FS conducted the literature search, screening steps and data extraction, which were verifed by EK. LV, FS, CC, EK, PS and FB interpreted the data analysis. LV and CC wrote the frst draft of the manuscript with critical input from FS, EK, PS and FB. All authors read and approved the fnal manuscript.

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