

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE MINAS GERAIS**  
**Escola de Educação Física, Fisioterapia e Terapia Ocupacional**  
**Pós-graduação em Ciências do Esporte**

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**POLIMORFISMOS GENÉTICOS ASSOCIADOS À LESÃO MUSCULAR EM**  
**JOGADORES DE FUTEBOL PROFISSIONAL**

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**POLIMORFISMOS GENÉTICOS ASSOCIADOS À LESÃO MUSCULAR EM  
JOGADORES DE FUTEBOL PROFISSIONAL**

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Orientador: Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa

Coorientador: Prof. Dr. Eduardo Mendonça Pimenta

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### ATA DE DEFESA DE TESE

#### LEONARDO HENRIQUE SILVA FAGUNDES

Às **08:00 horas** do dia **28 de janeiro de 2025**, a comissão examinadora, indicada pelo Colegiado do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências do Esporte, reuniu-se no Miniauditório da Escola de Educação Física, Fisioterapia e Terapia Ocupacional e por videoconferência, para julgar, em exame final, a tese intitulada "**Polimorfismos genéticos associados à lesão muscular em jogadores de futebol profissional**". Abrindo a sessão, o presidente da comissão, Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa (UFMG), orientador, após dar a conhecer aos presentes o teor das Normas Regulamentares de Defesa do Trabalho Final, passou a palavra para o candidato, que realizou a apresentação da sua tese. Seguiu-se a arguição pelos examinadores, com a respectiva defesa do candidato. Logo após, a comissão se reuniu, sem a presença do candidato e do público, para julgamento e expedição do resultado.

Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa (Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais - orientador)

Prof. Dr. Eduardo Mendonça Pimenta (Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais - coorientador)

Prof. Dr. Carlos Eduardo Neves Amorim (Universidade Federal do Maranhão)

Prof. Dr. Christiano Eduardo Veneroso (Universidade Federal do Maranhão)

Prof. Dr. Luciano Sales Prado (Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais)

Prof. Dr. Samuel Penna Wanner (Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais)

Após as indicações, o candidato foi considerado: **APROVADO**.

Nada mais havendo a tratar, eu, Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa, presidente da comissão examinadora, dei por encerrada a reunião, da qual, para constar, lavrei a presente ata, que, lida e aprovada, vai por todos assinada eletronicamente.

Belo Horizonte, 28 de janeiro de 2025.



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a individualidade dos jogadores promovendo avanços no treinamento esportivo e na prevenção de lesões.

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*“Àquele que é capaz de fazer infinitamente mais do que poderíamos pedir, pensar ou imaginar, a Ele seja dada toda glória, honra e louvor.”*

**Efésios 3:20-21**

## RESUMO

Evidências sugerem que o polimorfismo genético desempenha um papel mediador em alterações fisiológicas e estruturais que podem predispor jogadores de futebol a lesões musculares sem contato. No entanto, a interação entre variantes genéticas, fatores ambientais e lesões musculares ainda requer investigações mais aprofundadas. Neste contexto, a presente tese teve como objetivo geral investigar a associação entre os genótipos do MuRF-1/TRIM63 (rs2275950) e ACTN3 R577X (rs1815739) com a ocorrência de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional. Para isso, foram realizados três estudos independentes, cada um com um objetivo específico, para explorar diferentes aspectos da relação entre esses biomarcadores genéticos e as lesões musculares no âmbito esportivo. O primeiro estudo investigou a associação entre os genótipos do MuRF-1/TRIM63 e a ocorrência de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional. O segundo estudo analisou se as taxas de incidência de lesões musculares variam de acordo com as posições de jogo e se diferem entre os genótipos ACTN3 R577X em jogadores de futebol profissional. O terceiro estudo consistiu em uma revisão sistemática para avaliar os efeitos do exercício físico na expressão do mRNA do MuRF-1/TRIM63 em seres humanos. Os resultados indicaram que os genótipos do MuRF-1/TRIM63 ( $\chi^2 = 2.19$ ;  $p = 0.292$ ), o modelo dominante ( $\chi^2 = 1.04$ ;  $p = 0.299$ ) e o modelo recessivo ( $\chi^2 = 1.94$ ;  $p = 0.208$ ) não apresentaram uma associação significativa com as lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional. Por outro lado, durante os jogos, os jogadores com o genótipo ACTN3 RR apresentaram uma taxa de incidência de lesões musculares significativamente maior em comparação aos portadores do genótipo ACTN3 XX (RR vs. XX; IC 95%:  $14.38 \pm 67.10$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 352.47$ , respectivamente;  $p = 0.016$ ). Da mesma forma, os meias tiveram uma taxa de incidência de lesões musculares significativamente mais elevada do que os zagueiros (Meias vs. Zagueiros; IC 95%:  $0.00 \pm 43.00$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 493.42$ , respectivamente;  $p = 0.010$ ). No entanto, não foram encontradas diferenças significativas nas taxas de incidência de lesões musculares entre os genótipos ACTN3 R577X ou entre as diferentes posições de jogo durante as sessões de treino. No estudo de revisão sistemática, observou-se a partir dos 46 estudos selecionados que o exercício físico modula a expressão do mRNA do MuRF-1/TRIM63 em humanos. O exercício de resistência (ER) e o exercício de *endurance* (EE) induzem aumentos transitórios na expressão da proteína MuRF-1, com picos entre 40 minutos e 4 horas após o estímulo. Protocolos combinados (ER + EE) resultaram em elevações significativas cerca de 3 horas após o exercício. A resposta molecular é influenciada por fatores como ordem e intensidade do exercício, modo de contração muscular, sexo, idade e aptidão física. Conclui-se que os genótipos do MuRF-1/TRIM63 não apresentaram associação significativa com as lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional. No entanto, o genótipo ACTN3 RR foi associado a uma maior incidência de lesões musculares durante os jogos, assim como os meias em comparação aos zagueiros. Esses achados sugerem que os fatores genéticos e as posições dos jogadores em campo podem influenciar o risco de lesões musculares no futebol profissional, especialmente em contextos competitivos. Além disso, os achados da revisão sistemática reforçam o papel modulador do exercício físico na expressão do mRNA do MuRF-1/TRIM63, evidenciando a importância de considerar variáveis específicas do treinamento e características individuais na compreensão dos mecanismos moleculares que podem influenciar o rendimento esportivo e a recuperação muscular em humanos.

**Palavras-chave:** genética; polimorfismos; ACTN3 R577X; MuRF-1/TRIM63; futebol; lesão muscular.

## ABSTRACT

Evidence suggests that genetic polymorphism plays a mediating role in physiological and structural changes that may predispose soccer players to non-contact muscle injuries. However, the relationship between genetic variations, environmental factors, and muscle injuries still requires further investigation. In this context, this thesis aimed to investigate the association between the MuRF-1/TRIM63 (rs2275950) and ACTN3 R577X (rs1815739) genotypes and the occurrence of muscle injuries in professional soccer players. Independent studies were conducted, each with a specific objective, to explore various aspects of the relationship between these genetic biomarkers and muscle injuries in the sports context. The first study investigated the association between the genotypes of MuRF-1/TRIM63 and the occurrence of muscle injuries in professional soccer players. The second study analyzed whether muscle injury incidence rates vary according to playing positions and examined whether these rates differ among ACTN3 R577X genotypes in professional soccer players. The third study consisted of a systematic review to evaluate the effects of physical exercise on the MuRF-1/TRIM63 mRNA expression in humans. The results showed that the MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes ( $\chi^2 = 2.19$ ;  $p = 0.292$ ), the dominant model ( $\chi^2 = 1.04$ ;  $p = 0.299$ ), and the recessive model ( $\chi^2 = 1.94$ ;  $p = 0.208$ ) did not present significant associations with muscle injuries in professional soccer players. On the other hand, during matches, players with the ACTN3 RR genotype exhibited a significantly higher incidence rate of muscle injuries compared to those with the ACTN3 XX genotype (RR vs. XX; 95% CI:  $14.38 \pm 67.10$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 352.47$ , respectively;  $p = 0.016$ ). Similarly, wide midfielders showed a significantly higher muscle injury incidence rate compared to central defenders (WM vs. CD; 95% CI:  $0.00 \pm 43.00$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 493.42$ , respectively;  $p = 0.010$ ). However, no significant differences were observed in muscle injury incidence rates among ACTN3 R577X genotypes or across playing positions during training sessions. In the systematic review, an analysis of the 46 selected studies revealed that physical exercise modulates the MuRF-1 mRNA expression in humans. Resistance exercise (RE) and endurance exercise (EE) induce transient increases in MuRF-1 mRNA expression, with peaks occurring between 40 minutes and 4 hours post-stimulus. Combined exercise protocols (RE + EE) lead to significant increases approximately 3 hours after exercise. The molecular response was influenced by variables such as exercise order and intensity, muscle contraction mode, sex, age, and fitness level. It was concluded that MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes were not significantly associated with muscle injuries in professional soccer players. However, the ACTN3 RR genotype was linked to a higher muscle injury incidence rate during matches, as were wide midfielders compared to central defenders. These findings suggest that genetic factors and playing position may influence the risk of muscle injuries in professional soccer, particularly in competitive settings. Furthermore, the findings of the systematic review reinforce the modulatory role of physical exercise on the MuRF-1 mRNA expression, highlighting the importance of specific training variables and individual characteristics to better understand the molecular mechanisms that influence performance and muscle recovery in humans.

**Keywords:** genetics; polymorphism; ACTN3 R577X; MuRF-1/TRIM63; football; non-contact muscle injuries.

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## LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

ACE I	Enzima Conversora de Angiotensina I
ATP	Adenosina Trifosfato
ACTN1	Alfa-actinina 1
ACTN2	Alfa-actinina 2
ACTN3	Alfa-actinina 3
ACTN4	Alfa-actinina 4
ADAMTS14	<i>A disintegrin-like and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin type 1 motif, 14</i>
CASP8	<i>Caspase 8</i>
CBF	Confederação Brasileira de Futebol
CCL2	<i>Chemokine CC motif ligand 2</i>
COEP	Comitê de Ética em Pesquisa
COL5A1	<i>Collagen type 5 alpha-1</i>
DNA	Ácido desoxirribonucleico
DNC	<i>Decorin</i>
ELN	<i>Elastin</i>
ES	<i>Effect size</i>
FIFA	Federação Internacional de Futebol Associado
GEFT	<i>Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factor 25</i>
HGF	<i>Hepatocyte growth factor</i>
HIF1A	<i>Hypoxia-inducible factor 1</i>
IGF2	<i>Insulin-like growth factor II</i>
MLCK	<i>Myosin light chain kinase</i>
MMP1	<i>Matrix metalloproteinase 1</i>
MMP3	<i>Matrix metalloproteinase 3</i>

MMP12	<i>Matrix metalloproteinase 12</i>
mRNA	RNA mensageiro
MuRF-1	<i>Muscle RING Finger-1</i>
NCMI	<i>Non-contact Muscle Injuries</i>
NOS3	<i>Nitric oxide synthase 3</i>
TCLE	Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido
TNC	<i>Tenascin C</i>
TRIM63	<i>Tripartite Motif Containing 63</i>
RNA	Ácido ribonucleico
SNP	<i>Single Nucleotide Polymorphism</i>
SOX15	<i>SRY-Box</i>
SUP	Sistema Ubiquitina Proteossoma
UEFA	União das Associações Europeias de Futebol
UFMG	Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais

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## 1 INTRODUÇÃO

O sequenciamento completo do genoma humano tem impulsionado avanços significativos na biologia molecular, possibilitando a utilização de informações genéticas para otimizar o rendimento esportivo (Ahmetov *et al.*, 2022; Del Coso *et al.*, 2024; Kanope *et al.*, 2023). No contexto do futebol, estudos indicaram que o rendimento esportivo é influenciado pelo meio ambiente e por fatores genéticos (Maestro *et al.*, 2022; Massidda *et al.*, 2024; Petr *et al.*, 2022). Evidências apontaram que a interação entre o meio ambiente e a variabilidade genética é modulada por exercícios físicos, desencadeando respostas celulares adaptativas que afetam diretamente a expressão de determinados fenótipos (Lim *et al.*, 2021; Mcauley *et al.*, 2022). Essas adaptações podem, inclusive, aumentar a predisposição a lesões musculares, como observado em jogadores de futebol (Appel *et al.*, 2021; Murtagh *et al.*, 2023; Sarmiento *et al.*, 2020).

A literatura científica demonstra que as lesões musculares estão associadas a polimorfismos genéticos específicos no contexto do futebol (Baltazar-Martins *et al.*, 2020; Lim *et al.*, 2021; Rodas *et al.*, 2021). Estudos preconizam que os polimorfismos genéticos podem afetar a epidemiologia, a gravidade e o tempo de recuperação das lesões musculares por meio de genes específicos que manifestam os variados fenótipos nos esportes de alto rendimento (Mcauley *et al.*, 2020; Tharabenjasin; Pabalan; Jarjanazi, 2019). Diante dessas circunstâncias, pesquisadores têm investigado os principais genes que podem estar associados às lesões musculares sem contato no futebol (Almeida *et al.*, 2022; Larruskain *et al.*, 2018; Maestro *et al.*, 2022; Massidda *et al.*, 2017; Pruna *et al.*, 2016; Rodas *et al.*, 2021). Nesse sentido, McAuley *et al.* (2020) publicaram uma revisão sistemática com metanálise no futebol apontando a presença de 103 genes distintos que foram investigados na modalidade. Os autores concluíram que os estudos no futebol têm se concentrado predominantemente na associação do ACTN3 R577X e da *Angiotensin I-Converting Enzyme* (ACE I) com parâmetros de rendimento, a aspectos fisiológicos e as lesões musculares. Lim *et al.* (2021) publicaram uma revisão sistemática na qual identificaram 29 polimorfismos genéticos associados a 25 genes relacionados ao esporte. Os resultados revelaram uma associação significativa entre os riscos de lesões musculares, a gravidade dessas lesões e o tempo de recuperação em jogadores de futebol.

Baseado neste último estudo, observou-se a partir das evidências disponíveis que as variantes genéticas são consideradas fatores de risco para as lesões musculares no futebol profissional, e que suas consequências dependerão da combinação de vários polimorfismos em genes diferentes (Lim *et al.*, 2021; Murtagh *et al.*, 2023). Esses resultados enfatizam que

as variantes genéticas mais significativas associadas às lesões musculares pertencem a três categorias de genes que são organizados em, (I) onze genes envolvidos na reparação e regeneração do tecido muscular (ACE rs1799752, CASP8 rs3834129, CCL2 rs2857656, GEFT rs11613457, HIF1A rs11549465, IGF2 rs3213221, MMP3 rs679620, HGF rs5745697, NOS3 rs1799983, SOX15 rs4227 e TNC rs2104772), (II) sete genes relacionados a composição e manutenção da matriz externa das fibras musculares (ADAMTS14 rs4747096, COL5A1 rs12722, ELN rs2289360, DNC rs516115, MMP1 rs1799750, MMP3 rs679620 e MMP12 rs2276109), e na categoria (III) apenas o ACTN3 rs1815739 e o MLCK rs2700352 foram associados as propriedades contráteis e estruturais das fibras musculares (Lim *et al.*, 2021). Na literatura científica há evidências sobre os genes das categorias I e II associados às lesões musculares, mas, na categoria III, ainda há muitas incertezas nesse campo de estudo. Há relativamente poucas evidências que expliquem os principais mecanismos pelos quais diferentes polimorfismos genéticos afetam as interações entre as propriedades contráteis e estruturais das fibras musculares. Além disso, permanece pouco compreendido como mutações específicas em determinados genes podem predispor jogadores de futebol a lesões musculares durante a temporada.

Dentre os genes analisados na categoria III, o ACTN3 R577X é o responsável pela expressão da alfa-actinina 3 e recebe notória atenção por parte dos pesquisadores devido à relação desse gene com a velocidade, força e potência que representam capacidades essenciais para o rendimento esportivo no futebol (Almeida *et al.*, 2022; Coelho *et al.*, 2018; Del Coso *et al.*, 2024; Kanope *et al.*, 2023; Massidda *et al.*, 2024; Pimenta *et al.*, 2013). A alfa-actinina 3 é uma proteína que compõe a linha Z sarcomérica, criando ligações cruzadas que estabilizam e ancoram os filamentos da actina, sendo um importante elemento estrutural na geração e transmissão da força contrátil no musculoesquelético (Del Coso *et al.*, 2017; Macarthur; North, 2007; Maciejewska-Skrendo *et al.*, 2019; Mills *et al.*, 2001). Em contrapartida, outros jogadores de futebol podem expressar o alelo mutante X, no qual ocorre a ausência parcial ou completa da proteína alfa-actinina 3 no músculo (Del Coso *et al.*, 2019; North *et al.*, 1999; Rodas *et al.*, 2021). A deficiência de alfa-actinina 3 pode aumentar a susceptibilidade dos jogadores de futebol a lesões musculares, devido à carência dessa proteína estrutural que é essencial no processo de contração muscular, especialmente em fases excêntricas que causam danos musculares significativos a estrutura do músculo (Baltazar-Martins *et al.*, 2020; Lim *et al.*, 2021; Massida *et al.*, 2024).

Outro gene que tem atraído a atenção de pesquisadores é o *Tripartite Motif Containing 63* (TRIM63 rs2275950), no qual os indivíduos expressam os genótipos AA, AG e GG

(Baumert *et al.*, 2017; Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Bodine *et al.*, 2001). O MuRF-1/TRIM63 têm sido investigado como um regulador da massa muscular e está relacionado a atrofia do musculoesquelético que ocorre durante os processos de catabolismo em condições fisiológicas, como o repouso no leito e desuso, além de estados patológicos, como por exemplo, em pacientes com atrofia muscular (Baehr *et al.*, 2021; Murton; Constantin; Greenhaff, 2008), câncer (Peris-Moreno; Taillandier; Polge, 2020; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2021) e cardiomiopatias (Chen *et al.*, 2012). Nessa linha, verificou-se a presença da proteína MuRF-1 mediando um importante papel no Sistema Ubiquitina Proteossoma (SUP), anexando polímeros de ubiquitina as proteínas miofibrilares deterioradas após danos musculares induzidos por exercícios (Centner *et al.*, 2001). Esse processo permite que o complexo 26S-proteossoma degrade essas proteínas marcadas com a ubiquitina tornando os aminoácidos disponíveis para a síntese de novas proteínas (Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Freemont, 2000). Logo, esse sistema desempenha funções essenciais em todas as células do organismo, sendo particularmente crítico na regulação ordenada da homeostase e na remodelação do musculoesquelético (Baehr *et al.*, 2021).

O gene TRIM63 codifica a proteína denominada *Muscle RING Finger-1* (MuRF-1), que está localizada na linha Z e M do sarcômero, no qual interage com o domínio quinase da proteína titina (Centner *et al.*, 2001; Murton *et al.*, 2008). A mutação desse gene pode impedir o funcionamento do MuRF-1 durante o processo de ubiquitinação e influenciar a sua interação com a titina, afetando as propriedades mecânicas desta proteína no sarcômero (Kötter; Andresen; Krüger, 2014; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020). A titina é uma proteína responsável pela sensibilidade da tensão exercida no músculo e participa da estruturação do sarcômero (Centner *et al.*, 2001). De modo que os principais mecanismos envolvidos nessa relação vêm sendo investigados durante a realização de exercícios físicos (Baumert *et al.*, 2017; Baumert *et al.*, 2022). Esse grupo de pesquisadores demonstrou uma relação do MuRF-1/TRIM63 com indicadores de dano muscular induzido por exercícios físicos, sugerindo que esse gene pode apresentar características estruturais similares a outros marcadores genéticos, como o ACTN3 R577X, os quais podem auxiliar no entendimento dos processos de recuperação e lesão muscular em esportes de alto rendimento.

Diante desse cenário, considerando o melhor do nosso conhecimento, não foram encontradas evidências que investigaram a relação entre o gene MuRF-1/TRIM63 e a ocorrência de lesões musculares no contexto do futebol. Embora estudos prévios tenham identificado associações entre polimorfismos genéticos e indicadores de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol (Clos *et al.*, 2019; Massidda *et al.*, 2024; Rodas *et al.*, 2021), há uma

lacuna na literatura científica sobre a potencial associação do MuRF-1/TRIM63 com a ocorrência da lesão muscular decorrente da prática esportiva. Além disso, outra lacuna na literatura científica está relacionada a estudos que avaliaram o gene ACTN3 R577X e sua associação com a posição dos jogadores em campo (Clos *et al.*, 2020) ou com lesões musculares (Del Coso *et al.*, 2024) de forma isolada. Até o momento, faltam investigações que explorem simultaneamente a relação entre o ACTN3 R577X, a posição de jogo e a incidência de lesões musculares no futebol profissional, evidenciando a necessidade de estudos mais abrangentes nessa área do conhecimento para compreender os mecanismos fisiológicos e a dinâmica das propriedades estruturais envolvidas na lesão muscular nos diferentes genótipos. Por fim, não foram identificadas revisões sistemáticas que avaliassem os efeitos do exercício físico na expressão do mRNA MuRF-1/TRIM63 em indivíduos saudáveis. A evidência disponível sobre os efeitos do exercício físico agudo e crônico é limitada, representando um pré-requisito para determinar as implicações das alterações no MuRF-1/TRIM63 em seres humanos. Assim, torna-se necessária uma revisão sistemática de estudos que utilizem diferentes protocolos de exercício físico para avaliar as respostas isoladas e os efeitos temporais pós-exercício na expressão do mRNA MuRF-1/TRIM63, com o objetivo de consolidar o estado atual do conhecimento sobre este tema.

A partir dessa perspectiva, a análise individual desses dois genes surge como um potencial indicador para minimizar o risco de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol, considerando a constante exposição desses indivíduos a exercícios físicos de alta intensidade durante os treinos e competições ao longo da temporada. O mérito do presente estudo reside na investigação independente da associação dos genes MuRF-1/TRIM63 e ACTN3 R577X com as lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional. Com o objetivo de contribuir para o avanço do conhecimento científico em Ciências do Esporte, esta tese apresenta dados inéditos sobre a relação desses dois marcadores genéticos com a ocorrência e incidência de lesões musculares no futebol profissional. Os resultados deste estudo podem ampliar a compreensão sobre a influência desses componentes genéticos nas lesões musculares, oferecendo subsídios para as comissões técnicas na prática esportiva. Aliado a outras informações, esses achados podem auxiliar no desenvolvimento de estratégias preventivas e na gestão individualizada da carga de treinamento, otimizando os processos de recuperação e promovendo adaptações positivas decorrentes do treino. Além disso, a aplicação prática desses conhecimentos pode ajudar a reduzir o risco de lesões musculares e potencializar o rendimento esportivo.

## 2 REVISÃO DE LITERATURA

### 2.1 Genética, fenótipos musculares e exercício físico

O genoma humano é o conjunto de informações genéticas de um indivíduo armazenadas na estrutura do ácido desoxirribonucleico (DNA). No início da década de 1950, a forma como as proteínas são especificadas pelas instruções do DNA e como a informação hereditária poderia ser copiada e transmitida entre as células era um completo mistério para humanidade. Esse problema foi solucionado em 1953, quando James Watson e Francis Crick identificaram o modelo para a estrutura do DNA e seu mecanismo durante esse processo (Watson; Crick, 1953). Basicamente, em relação aos elementos estruturais do DNA, observam-se três tipos de componentes químicos, o fosfato, a pentose e quatro bases nitrogenadas, sendo elas, adenina (A), guanina (G), citosina (C) e timina (T). Além disso, as bases nitrogenadas adenina e guanina apresentam uma estrutura de anel duplo característica de um tipo de substância química denominada purina (Alberts *et al.*, 2017; Watson; Crick, 1953). Por sua vez, a citosina e a timina, apresentam uma estrutura de anel único de um tipo chamado pirimidina. Por outro lado, o ácido ribonucleico (RNA) se diferencia estruturalmente pela presença da base nitrogenada uracila (U), que substitui a base timina, dando origem a um par de base no qual a uracila se liga a adenina (Alberts *et al.*, 2017). De forma geral, o DNA e o ácido ribonucleico (RNA) são ácidos nucleicos que possuem diferentes estruturas e funções. Enquanto o DNA é o responsável por armazenar as informações genéticas de todos os seres vivos, o RNA por sua vez atua na produção de proteínas (Alberts *et al.*, 2017).

No que se refere a síntese de proteínas, em 1970 Francis Crick postulou o manuscrito intitulado Dogma Central da Biologia Molecular, no qual o pesquisador apresenta as principais etapas em que a informação passa de código genético para sua forma final que é a proteína (Crick, 1970). Durante esse processo, algumas etapas como a replicação, transcrição e tradução do DNA são as responsáveis por transformar uma sequência de nucleotídeos em uma sequência polipeptídica dando origem a uma proteína específica (Bouchard; Hoffman, 2010). Logo, ocorre a replicação que é o processo de duplicação do genoma celular no qual a informação genética é arquivada e transmitida para a geração seguinte. Nesse sentido, a transcrição é o processo em que o código do DNA é transmitido ao RNA mensageiro. A seguir, na tradução, as moléculas de RNA mensageiro são lidas, fornecendo a informação da ordem na qual os aminoácidos serão organizados para formar as proteínas no citoplasma das células, tendo os ribossomos como organelas essenciais nesse processo (Bouchard; Hoffman, 2010). Já foram identificados aproximadamente 30 mil genes, distribuídos nos 46

cromossomos do DNA no núcleo de cada célula, dos quais 23 são oriundos da mãe e os outros 23 provenientes do pai (Wolfarth *et al.*, 2005).

Durante o processo evolutivo, o fluxo constante de variações nucleotídicas tem garantido um elevado grau de diversidade genética e individualidade entre os seres humanos. Apesar disso, aproximadamente 99.9% da sequência de DNA é idêntica entre indivíduos não aparentados. Sendo que a variação restante ( $\sim 0.1\%$ ) é responsável pela determinação de nossas características físicas, nossas habilidades e até mesmo a nossa resposta orgânica frente a prática de exercícios físicos (Alberts *et al.*, 2017). O DNA é uma molécula relativamente estável que pode apresentar problemas durante o processo de replicação, ou mesmo, sofrer danos devido aos estímulos ambientais. Dados adicionais relevaram que o acúmulo de danos no DNA pode contribuir para o processo de envelhecimento nos seres humanos, no entanto, as células possuem vias de detecção de danos no DNA que entram em apoptose (morte celular programada) caso não consigam repará-los. Além disso, quando o dano não é reparado, o DNA pode ficar alterado de forma permanente causando uma mutação que altera a sequência do DNA para futuras gerações celulares (Alberts *et al.*, 2017). As mutações podem ser benéficas ou não causar nenhum efeito no organismo, porém, quando prejudiciais, alteram a sequência de aminoácidos ou a regulação de proteínas específicas (Rebbeck; Spitz; Wu, 2004). De fato, mesmo que haja alteração no aminoácido, isso pode acarretar ou não em uma mudança funcional da proteína. Evidências apontam para três tipos possíveis de mutação de uma base nitrogenada, no qual ela pode ser inserida, deletada ou substituída no DNA. Como na matriz de leitura para a tradução os nucleotídeos são lidos de três em três, a inserção ou deleção de apenas um nucleotídeo mudará todos os códons posteriores ao local da alteração (Bouchard; Hoffman, 2010).

Nesse sentido, outro conceito importante é o de polimorfismo, no qual a identificação de genes afetados por algum tipo de variante genética proporciona o entendimento dos principais mecanismos que prejudicam ou melhoram a aptidão e o rendimento físico humano. Logo, o polimorfismo é definido como qualquer variação genética presente em mais de 1% da população, sendo que o mais comum é o *Single Nucleotide Polymorphism* (SNP) com a troca de apenas um nucleotídeo. Entretanto, nem todos os SNPs são considerados funcionais, ou seja, nota-se que a maioria dessas variantes no genoma humano ocorre em locais onde elas não afetam de forma significativa a função do gene. Assim, dentre as quase 10 milhões de variantes genéticas existentes na população, apenas uma parcela delas será capaz de influenciar um fenótipo específico (Rebbeck *et al.*, 2004).

As diferenças genéticas baseadas em polimorfismos começaram a ser investigadas por um grupo de pesquisadores que desenvolveram o primeiro mapa genético humano relacionado a saúde e rendimento físico com base em artigos publicados até o final de ano 2000 (Rankinen *et al.*, 2001). Assim, foram identificados cerca de 220 genes que compõe o painel de marcadores genéticos (polimorfismos de DNA) relacionados ao rendimento físico de atletas e das lesões esportivas (Ahmetov *et al.*, 2022). No contexto do futebol, pesquisadores tem investigado polimorfismos genéticos capazes de codificar proteínas musculares específicas associadas as lesões musculares no futebol, como o ACTN3 R577X (Almeida *et al.*, 2022; Clos *et al.*, 2019; Maestro *et al.*, 2022; Pruna *et al.*, 2013; Rodas *et al.*, 2021) e o MuRF-1/TRIM63 (Fagundes *et al.*, 2024). Essas proteínas desempenham um papel crucial na recuperação muscular após exercícios físicos intensos, influenciando diretamente o risco de lesões musculares (Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Mcauley *et al.*, 2022).

O primeiro estudo identificado sobre lesão muscular associada à genética no futebol foi publicado há 12 anos, investigando questões étnicas em jogadores de alto rendimento (Pruna *et al.*, 2013). Seguindo essa linha de pesquisa, outros estudos discutiram a respeito de biomarcadores genéticos que pudessem ajudar na prevenção do risco de lesões musculares (Pruna *et al.*, 2016), bem como o porquê jogadores não pré-dispostos geneticamente podem ser mais exigidos nos treinos, apresentando recuperação parcial em detrimento aos companheiros de equipe (Clos *et al.*, 2019). Além disso, outros estudos adotaram modelos preditivos para a incidência e gravidade da lesão muscular (Almeida *et al.*, 2022), o que demonstra que o interesse dos pesquisadores nesta última década pela predição da lesão muscular através das variantes genéticas no futebol tem aumentado. Embora as pesquisas sobre os genes moduladores dos complexos fenótipos relacionados as lesões musculares no futebol sejam incipientes, estudos recentes indicaram como mutações genéticas influenciam as adaptações e as respostas ao treinamento, bem como podem alterar as estruturas e funções do tecido musculoesquelético após exercícios físicos de alta intensidade (Lim *et al.*, 2021; Mcauley *et al.*, 2022; Rodas *et al.*, 2021; Zouhal *et al.*, 2021). Com base nas contribuições de estudos das últimas décadas, há evidências que indicam que parte das variações fenotípicas associadas às lesões musculares é influenciada por fatores genéticos (Del Coso *et al.*, 2019; Lim *et al.*, 2021; Zouhal *et al.*, 2021). Nesse contexto, os estudos de associação de polimorfismos genéticos possibilitam interpretações mais detalhadas sobre a relação entre esses fatores e a ocorrência de lesões musculares no futebol.

## 2.2 Aspectos físicos gerais relacionados a lesão muscular no futebol

O futebol é um esporte coletivo caracterizado pela execução de ações intermitentes de alta intensidade durante os treinos e jogos da equipe na temporada. A demanda física de uma partida oficial é extenuante, com os jogadores percorrendo uma distância total que varia entre 9-13 km por jogo, e realizando entre 17 e 81 *sprints* de curta duração (Haugen *et al.*, 2014). Durante o jogo, os jogadores atingem velocidades superiores a 25 km/h e percorrem mais de 1150 metros em corridas de alta velocidade, representando cerca de 20% das ações decisivas que influenciam o resultado do jogo (Clemente *et al.*, 2019; Guerrero-Calderón *et al.*, 2021). Além disso, estas ações acontecem concomitantemente com saltos, acelerações, desacelerações, mudanças de direção, dribles, chutes e disputas entre os jogadores por espaço no campo e/ou controle da bola (Grünbichler; Federolf; Gatterer, 2019; Selmi *et al.*, 2022; Swallow *et al.*, 2020). Como consequência, toda essa sobrecarga mecânica e energética oriunda de uma partida oficial de futebol causa danos e pequenas rupturas nos miofilamentos, sobretudo quando esta sobrecarga não é frequentemente exigida nos treinos, e ainda se a predominância das ações demanda grande geração de força excêntrica durante a atividade (Coelho *et al.*, 2018; Malone *et al.*, 2018; McCall *et al.*, 2020). Embora, uma certa quantidade de dano muscular advindo do exercício físico possa ser favorável para que ocorra a adaptação orgânica aos estímulos aplicados durante o período de treinamento, caso esse dano seja excessivo e a recuperação entre as sessões de treino sejam insuficientes, todo esse processo pode culminar numa lesão muscular (Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Fagundes *et al.*, 2019; Herring *et al.*, 2019).

De acordo com o consenso estabelecido por Fuller *et al.* (2006) em colaboração com o Centro de Avaliação e Pesquisa Médica da Federação Internacional de Futebol Associado (FIFA), as lesões esportivas em geral são caracterizadas por qualquer reclamação física manifestada pelo jogador de futebol derivada do exercício físico, no qual este indivíduo não poderá participar dos treinos e das partidas oficiais da equipe durante um período determinado na temporada (Ekstrand *et al.*, 2021; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2023). Além disso, as lesões são caracterizadas por dano tecidual ou desarranjo da função física normal, resultante da transferência rápida ou repetitiva de energia cinética (Waldén *et al.*, 2023).

Dentre as diferentes categorias, a lesão muscular é definida como estiramento traumático ou lesão por sobrecarga em um músculo (Bengtsson *et al.*, 2017; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2021). Logo, a lesão muscular ocorre quando a quantidade ou a taxa de energia mecânica transferida ultrapassa o limiar de adaptação do tecido musculoesquelético (Bittencourt *et al.*,

2016; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2021). As lesões musculares podem ser classificadas em dois grupos: lesões musculares diretas causadas por fatores externos e lesões musculares indiretas que também podem ser designadas por “sem contato” e são causadas por fatores internos, que são identificadas como distúrbios musculares funcionais ou lesões musculares estruturais (Mueller-Wohlfahrt *et al.*, 2013). Além disso, a magnitude da lesão muscular depende da tensão e do estiramento imposto ao músculo, sendo que esses dois fatores são determinantes na gravidade da lesão e no tempo de recuperação (Ekstrand; Hägglund; Waldén, 2011a; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2021; Hägglund *et al.*, 2013). A gravidade da lesão pode ser definida pelo número de dias em que o jogador de futebol esteve afastado dos treinos e competições devido ao tratamento da lesão muscular no departamento médico do clube (Ekstrand; Hägglund; Waldén, 2011b; Hägglund *et al.*, 2005). As lesões musculares foram classificadas como leves (1-7 dias), moderadas (8-28 dias) e severas (acima de 28 dias), conforme os critérios estabelecidos em estudos sobre lesões musculares no futebol (Fuller *et al.*, 2006; Pruna *et al.*, 2013). Esses parâmetros têm sido amplamente adotados em estudos longitudinais para o monitoramento de lesões musculares em equipes de futebol profissional, conforme descrito na literatura (Clos *et al.*, 2019; Larruskain *et al.*, 2018; Rodas *et al.*, 2021). O tempo de recuperação, por sua vez, corresponde ao número de dias desde a data da lesão muscular até o retorno completo aos treinos com o grupo principal (Pruna *et al.*, 2016). Um jogador de futebol é considerado totalmente recuperado quando participa integralmente dos treinos e está disponível para ser convocado e disputar os jogos oficiais pela equipe durante o período competitivo (Clos *et al.*, 2019; Rodas *et al.*, 2021).

Durante a temporada, as lesões musculares acontecem com frequência na rotina dos jogadores de futebol (Ekstrand *et al.*, 2011a; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2020; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2021; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2023; Garcia *et al.*, 2022; Oliveira-Júnior *et al.*, 2024). As lesões musculares correspondem a 36% de todas as lesões registradas ao longo da temporada, impactando diretamente o processo de recuperação durante o período de tratamento (Ekstrand *et al.*, 2013). As pesquisas na área do futebol têm demonstrado através de monitoramentos longitudinais a prevalência das lesões musculares. Tais parâmetros foram apresentados por Pruna *et al.* (2013) em seu estudo com 242 jogadores profissionais de futebol, no qual foram registradas 203 lesões musculares, sendo que as lesões nos isquiossurais foram as mais diagnosticadas. De modo semelhante, no estudo de Massidda *et al.* (2017), os pesquisadores identificaram 120 lesões musculares em cinco temporadas, no qual as lesões no músculo bíceps femoral totalizaram 25.8% e no músculo reto femoral 12.5%. Nessa linha, corroborando com tais achados, constatou-se no estudo de Clos *et al.* (2019) que 43 lesões

musculares foram registradas ao longo de sete temporadas, prevalecendo as lesões musculares nos isquiossurais (12%), reforçando os resultados encontrados nos estudos supracitados. Uma possível explicação para essa alta incidência seria a ação do músculo glúteo máximo que auxilia os isquiossurais a realizar os movimentos durante o exercício e, na presença de fraqueza do glúteo pode ocorrer um aumento da demanda sobre os isquiossurais que gera um desequilíbrio na relação entre capacidade e demanda culminando numa lesão muscular (Chumanov; Heiderscheit; Thelen, 2007; Wagner *et al.*, 2010). No entanto, isolar apenas um fator de risco não permite entender a influência de outros parâmetros importantes para a ocorrência da lesão muscular. Ao analisarmos a interação de diferentes fatores aliados a demanda específica de cada esporte, é possível examinar de modo mais compreensível os mecanismos relacionados a lesão muscular.

Adicionalmente, observa-se que as lesões musculares apresentam alta prevalência em músculos biarticulares, como por exemplo os músculos bíceps femoral, reto femoral e o gastrocnêmio medial, ou mesmo em músculos como o adutor longo que demonstra arquitetura complexa e desempenha funções mecânicas essenciais durante as contrações musculares, participando dos movimentos de chute e passe, bem como auxilia na extensão do quadril durante as corridas em alta intensidade (Chumanov *et al.*, 2007; Lim *et al.*, 2021; Massidda *et al.*, 2017). Por fim, 96 lesões musculares foram registradas numa amostra de jogadores profissionais de clubes da primeira divisão do futebol espanhol (Rodas *et al.*, 2021). Esses achados demonstraram que a lesão muscular também está presente em clubes que oferecem boas estruturas de trabalho, e proporcionam condições favoráveis para uma adequada recuperação física e psicológica na tentativa de reduzir o risco de lesões musculares no futebol.

As lesões musculares são frequentes no futebol profissional, especialmente se tratando do mecanismo de lesões musculares sem contato, como por exemplo na realização de um *sprint* durante uma partida (Lim *et al.*, 2021; Malone *et al.*, 2018; Rodas *et al.*, 2021). Nesse cenário, a lesão de isquiossurais ocupa um lugar de destaque no futebol de elite, uma vez que é a lesão mais comum e a principal causa de afastamento das atividades esportivas (Ekstrand *et al.*, 2023; Garcia *et al.*, 2022; Oliveira-Júnior *et al.*, 2024; Pruna *et al.*, 2013). Estudos apontaram que as lesões de isquiossurais representam 12% (Clos *et al.*, 2019) e 27% (Pickering; Kiely, 2018) e 48% (Fagundes *et al.*, 2024) no total de lesões musculares na temporada. Também se constatou que sua prevalência anual no futebol profissional aumentou de 16.8 para 25.7% num período de 13 anos, ao longo das temporadas de 2001 a 2014 (Ekstrand; Waldén; Hägglund, 2016). Dados adicionais destacaram que, embora as lesões

musculares representem um problema grave no futebol, os modelos preventivos e os fatores de risco atualmente descritos na literatura ainda não são suficientes para reduzir de forma significativa o número de lesões na modalidade (Clos *et al.*, 2019; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2023).

Corroborando com essa constatação, um estudo prospectivo sobre lesões, conduzido pela União das Associações Europeias de Futebol (UEFA) em parceria com os principais clubes de futebol europeu, apresentou resultados consistentes sobre o tema. Neste estudo, foram avaliados clubes participantes das fases de grupo da *UEFA Champions League* ao longo de 18 anos (temporadas de 2000-2001 até 2018-2019), envolvendo 3302 jogadores profissionais do sexo masculino de 49 equipes situadas em 19 países (Ekstrand *et al.*, 2021). Os resultados revelaram uma redução significativa na incidência de lesões ligamentares durante o período investigado, com uma queda de 5% nos treinos e 4% nos jogos por temporada. No entanto, a taxa de lesões musculares permaneceu constante, indicando que os avanços no manejo e prevenção dessas lesões ainda são insuficientes para mitigar sua ocorrência no futebol profissional.

No contexto prático e financeiro, as lesões musculares podem impactar de forma negativa o aspecto econômico dos clubes de futebol profissional. De acordo com o diretor da equipe do Shakhtar Donetsk da Ucrânia, estima-se por exemplo, que o custo médio de um jogador de futebol profissional lesionado por 1 mês foi cerca de € 500.000,00 (Ekstrand, 2013). Outro exemplo impactante, retrata que durante o monitoramento longitudinal das temporadas de 2016/2017, registrou-se 614 lesões musculares entre os jogadores profissionais de futebol dos vinte clubes que participam da *Premier League* inglesa. Como consequência, essas lesões resultaram numa perda significativa em dias de treino, tendo o custo fixo de salários de jogadores lesionados superior a £ 131 milhões (Pickering; Kiely, 2018). Ao analisar o prejuízo econômico derivado das lesões musculares nos clubes e na carreira dos jogadores, adotar medidas preventivas através de pesquisas que envolvam os componentes genéticos no futebol pode ser um caminho a ser percorrido nessa área do conhecimento capaz de contribuir com a redução das lesões musculares na modalidade, além de preservar a saúde dos jogadores. Dessa forma, a identificação de genes compatíveis com as características do futebol pode permitir uma compreensão mais abrangente sobre o impacto dos fatores genéticos nos indicadores de gravidade da lesão muscular e no tempo de recuperação (Lim *et al.*, 2021; Rodas *et al.*, 2021).

Outro fator relevante que impacta nas lesões musculares e na recuperação dos jogadores de futebol é o calendário esportivo congestionado (Delaval *et al.*, 2022; Pinheiro *et al.*, 2022). Consequentemente, esses indivíduos entram em campo a cada três dias para

competir, elevando a incidência de lesões musculares na modalidade (Carling *et al.*, 2018; Gualtieri *et al.*, 2020; Julian; Page; Harper, 2020). No cenário do futebol brasileiro, um estudo avaliou a incidência das lesões musculares e comparou o efeito dos intervalos de tempo entre as partidas (3-4 dias e 6-7 dias) em relação aos parâmetros físicos, fisiológicos e psicofisiológicos durante um período congestionado na temporada (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2022). Nesse trabalho evidenciou-se que os jogadores de futebol profissional sofreram algum tipo de lesão muscular quando participaram de uma sequência de  $8.3 \pm 3.3$  partidas consecutivas com intervalos de  $3.8 \pm 0.8$  dias entre os jogos. Além disso, não foram observadas diferenças significativas em relação a condição física, fisiológica e psicofisiológica ao comparar os intervalos de tempo mais curtos e mais longos entre as partidas consecutivas. No futebol europeu, tendo como base o estudo de Bengtsson *et al.* (2017), observou-se através da análise de regressão, que quando os jogadores de futebol tiveram seis dias entre as partidas oficiais, a incidência de lesão muscular foi de 21%, por outro lado, quando os jogadores tiveram de sete a dez dias entre os jogos, a incidência de lesão muscular reduziu significativamente para 19%. Os autores concluíram que o aumento no risco de lesão muscular apresentou uma relação direta com o calendário esportivo congestionado.

Eirale *et al.* (2013) identificaram uma correlação significativa entre a incidência de lesões musculares e o sucesso da equipe ao final da temporada. Os resultados indicaram que equipes com menor incidência de lesões musculares obtiveram melhores classificações nas competições, além de vencerem mais jogos e marcarem mais gols. De modo similar, Ekstrand *et al.* (2020) revelaram que as lesões musculares afetam negativamente o rendimento das equipes na temporada, no qual as taxas mais baixas de lesão muscular apresentaram uma relação indireta com o sucesso das equipes em partidas nacionais e internacionais.

Além disso, o futebol mundial experimentou uma nova realidade em virtude da pandemia do COVID-19, na qual as equipes profissionais de futebol jogavam a cada 72 horas durante várias semanas visando cumprir os prazos estabelecidos pelos organizadores e patrocinadores das competições, resultando em um ambiente de estresse físico, psicológico e social, o que pode contribuir para uma maior incidência das lesões musculares (Bisciotti *et al.*, 2020; Guerrero-Calderón; Rodríguez, 2020; Marotta *et al.*, 2021). Os jogadores de futebol estão constantemente envolvidos em longas viagens para competir que também alteram os processos de recuperação entre os jogos da equipe (Carling *et al.*, 2018; Fagundes *et al.*, 2021; Herring *et al.*, 2019; Pinheiro *et al.*, 2022). Em outras palavras, cargas excessivas de treinamento, combinadas com um elevado número de jogos e pouca recuperação, podem levar ao acúmulo de fadiga que compromete os mecanismos de regeneração tecidual alterando os

processos metabólicos celulares para a regulação e remodelamento do musculoesquelético, e assim predispondo os jogadores de futebol as lesões musculares (Delaval *et al.*, 2022; Ekstrand *et al.*, 2020; Hägglund *et al.*, 2013; Selmi *et al.*, 2022). Neste caso, quando a recuperação física, psicológica e social no futebol não é efetiva, os jogadores podem ficar predispostos a novas e recorrentes lesões, gerando um ciclo vicioso de estresse biopsicossocial na rotina desses indivíduos (Abbott *et al.*, 2019; Fagundes *et al.*, 2021; Herring *et al.*, 2019; Mccall *et al.*, 2020).

De modo geral, os estudos mencionados evidenciaram o impacto negativo das lesões musculares na saúde e na carreira dos jogadores de futebol, além de comprometerem o rendimento individual e coletivo das equipes durante a temporada. Contudo, é importante salientar que as lesões musculares não decorrem de um único fator de risco (Lim *et al.*, 2021). Pelo contrário, essas lesões musculares resultam da interação simultânea ou sequencial de múltiplos fatores de risco ao longo das rotinas de treinos e competições, tornando seu controle e manipulação um desafio significativo para as pessoas que investigam e trabalham no futebol (Bittencourt *et al.*, 2016; Fagundes *et al.*, 2021; Pruna *et al.*, 2016). Essa complexidade reflete um processo dinâmico e multivariado que demanda maior compreensão por parte da Ciência do Esporte aplicada ao futebol. Entre os diversos fatores associados, destacam-se os não modificáveis, como a genética, a idade, o histórico de lesões e a etnia, além dos modificáveis, como o número de jogos na temporada e as metodologias de treinamento empregadas nos clubes (Clos *et al.*, 2019; Massidda *et al.*, 2017; Petr *et al.*, 2022). Em síntese, os dados epidemiológicos sobre o controle de lesões em jogadores de futebol mostraram que as lesões musculares resultaram da interação entre fatores intrínsecos (individuais) e extrínsecos (ambientais), incluindo a influência de polimorfismos genéticos (Del Coso *et al.*, 2024; Lim *et al.*, 2021; Maestro *et al.*, 2022; Pruna *et al.*, 2013). Assim, compreender as interações entre esses fatores de risco pode contribuir para reduzir as lacunas na literatura sobre a etiologia das lesões musculares.

Portanto, com o avanço da biologia molecular no esporte, esta área do conhecimento pode auxiliar na compreensão das lesões musculares por meio da análise de SNPs em genes estruturais, identificando fatores associados à gravidade das lesões e ao tempo de recuperação necessário para o retorno seguro dos jogadores aos treinos e competições. Essa abordagem pode contribuir para reduzir o risco de reincidências de lesões musculares durante a temporada.

### 2.3 A alfa-actinina 3 (ACTN3 R577X) e sua relação com as lesões musculares em fenótipos esportivos

A organização estrutural e a manutenção do aparato muscular contrátil são dependentes de complexos proteicos que ligam os sarcômeros entre si e os sustentam na membrana da fibra muscular auxiliando na função reguladora de coordenar as contrações das miofibrilas (Mills *et al.*, 2001; Yang *et al.*, 2003). Nesse contexto, a alfa-actinina constitui a proteína predominante, integrando uma família de proteínas relacionadas à distrofina que se conectam a actina, sendo importantes para a ligação e união dos filamentos de actina a linha Z no sarcômero do musculoesquelético (North *et al.*, 1999; Seto *et al.*, 2011). Estudos na área da genética encontraram quatro genes relacionados a ACTN nos seres humanos, sendo eles o ACTN1, ACTN2, ACTN3 e ACTN4 (Mills *et al.*, 2001; North *et al.*, 1999). As ACTN1 e ACTN4 não são proteínas musculares e foram verificadas nos rins e em tecidos cancerígenos (Honda *et al.*, 1998), por outro lado a ACTN2 e ACTN3 são proteínas miofibrilares que foram altamente conservadas através da evolução da humanidade (Macarthur; North, 2007; North *et al.*, 1999). Nesse sentido, entende-se que o ACTN3 foi mantido no genoma humano por apresentar funções independentes do ACTN2, no qual as proteínas alfa-actinina 2 e alfa-actinina 3 são expressas diferencialmente tanto no desenvolvimento embrionário, quanto no musculoesquelético de camundongos após o nascimento (Mills *et al.*, 2001). Esses dados sugerem que alguns efeitos do ACTN3 não podem ser compensados pelo ACTN2 (Seto *et al.*, 2011). Nas fibras musculares dos seres humanos, nota-se que o ACTN2 é expresso em todas as fibras, no entanto o ACTN3 é restrito as fibras rápidas do tipo II como descrito previamente (North *et al.*, 1999). Além disso, verifica-se que o ACTN2 e ACTN3 apresentam isoformas quase idênticas em estrutura. No entanto, há pequenas diferenças durante a interação com outras proteínas, o que pode ter um efeito crucial tanto sobre a linha Z como sobre o sarcômero (Berman; North, 2010).

O gene que codifica o ACTN3 está localizado no cromossomo 11 na posição 11q13-q14. O polimorfismo no gene ACTN3 (alfa-actinina 3) foi identificado nos seres humanos por North *et al.* (1999), no qual observou-se uma mudança do nucleotídeo C pelo T na posição (1.747 do éxon 16) gerando uma mutação e com isso uma conversão do aminoácido arginina em um “códon de parada” (uma ordem genética de interrupção) prematuro no resíduo 577 (R577X). A variante R577X resulta em indivíduos que são homocigotos apresentando o genótipo 577XX, ou seja, indivíduos ACTN3 XX que manifestam a deficiência completa da alfa-actinina 3, sendo considerado um polimorfismo genético devido à presença do alelo X.

Por outro lado, existem os indivíduos com genótipos RX ou RR que expressam a alfa-actinina 3 funcionais (Hogart *et al.*, 2016; Macarthur; North, 2007; Mills *et al.*, 2001).

No esporte de alto rendimento, especificamente no futebol, os genótipos que expressam a alfa-actinina 3 (ACTN3 RR e RX) tem sido associados a exercícios físicos com a predominância de força, velocidade e potência (Coelho *et al.*, 2018; Petr *et al.*, 2022; Pimenta *et al.*, 2013; Del Coso *et al.*, 2024). Em contrapartida, o genótipo que não expressa a alfa-actinina 3 (ACTN3 XX) tem sido relacionado a atividades com predominância aeróbica retratando uma das diferenças encontradas sobre esse gene (Del Coso *et al.*, 2017; Yang *et al.*, 2003). Cabe destacar também que, além do rendimento esportivo, a literatura apresenta resultados que têm auxiliado na compreensão do papel da alfa-actinina 3 nas lesões musculares no futebol (Almeida *et al.*, 2022; Appel *et al.*, 2021; Del Coso *et al.*, 2019; Lim *et al.*, 2021; Maestro *et al.*, 2022). Preconiza-se em termos estruturais e contráteis do aparato muscular que essa proteína atue como um fator protetor e mediador da participação das fibras musculares durante os exercícios físicos que necessitam de contrações musculares vigorosas em alta frequência como no futebol (Baltazar-Martins *et al.*, 2020; Clos *et al.*, 2019; Del Coso *et al.*, 2017). Aliado a essas informações, a proteína alfa-actinina 3 pode conferir uma maior capacidade de absorção e transmissão da força na linha Z durante as contrações musculares explosivas (Mills *et al.*, 2001; Yang *et al.*, 2003). Estudos na área do treinamento esportivo evidenciaram que o genótipo ACTN3 RR pode favorecer o tecido musculoesquelético na geração de contrações musculares visando estímulos de força e potência, sobretudo, uma certa vantagem no rendimento físico para esportes acíclicos orientados para velocidade e potência (Del Coso *et al.*, 2019; Petr *et al.*, 2022; Pimenta *et al.*, 2012; Pimenta *et al.*, 2013).

Com o propósito de avaliar se o genótipo ACTN3 R577X seria associado ao rendimento esportivo, um grupo de pesquisadores investigaram a distribuição dos diferentes genótipos em atletas de diversas modalidades (Yang *et al.*, 2003). Neste estudo os autores examinaram o genótipo ACTN3 R577X em 429 atletas de elite australianos e 436 controles. Em homens, o genótipo XX foi encontrado em 16% do grupo controle que não eram atletas, mas apenas em 8% dos atletas envolvidos em modalidades que requerem esforços de alta intensidade num curto período de tempo. Outro dado relevante é que atletas de elite especializados em *sprints*, tanto homens quanto mulheres, apresentaram frequências significativamente mais altas do alelo R em comparação ao grupo controle (Yang *et al.*, 2003). Os resultados sugerem que a presença da proteína alfa-actinina 3 está associada ao rendimento em atividades que exigem contrações musculares intensas, de alta velocidade e curta duração. No futebol, um estudo investigou o genótipo ACTN3 R577X e sua frequência

alélica em jogadores, comparando-os com indivíduos sedentários e atletas de elite de esportes predominantemente aeróbicos, como corredores de longa distância e ciclistas profissionais (Santiago *et al.*, 2008). Foram observadas diferenças significativas entre as amostras analisadas, evidenciando uma maior frequência do genótipo RR no grupo de jogadores de futebol em relação ao grupo controle e aos atletas de esportes de resistência. Esses achados apontam para uma possível relação do alelo R com as demandas físicas específicas do futebol, caracterizadas pela dinâmica e exigências da modalidade.

Ao pensarmos na prática, o futebol sofreu diversas mudanças nos últimos anos, principalmente em relação as exigências físicas, levando os jogadores próximos ao máximo de seus limites de exaustão e predisposição as lesões musculares (Carling *et al.*, 2018; Herring *et al.*, 2019; McCall *et al.*, 2020). Admitindo a distância percorrida durante o jogo como uma referência de intensidade de esforço, atualmente, os jogadores de futebol percorrem maiores distâncias em campo, e conseqüentemente realizam mais ações em alta intensidade, como por exemplo o número de *sprints* durante uma partida oficial (Clemente *et al.*, 2019; Guerrero-Calderón *et al.*, 2021). Hipoteticamente, os jogadores de futebol ACTN3 RR teriam uma certa vantagem, considerando que esses indivíduos expressam a alfa-actinina 3, e que essa proteína têm sido relacionada a atividades com predominância de força e velocidade. No entanto, como o futebol exige resistência, torna-se desafiador identificar um genótipo ideal para essa modalidade. Nesse sentido, se o genótipo ACTN3 XX melhora o desempenho aeróbico, enquanto o alelo R parece favorecer esforços de alta intensidade, então os alelos X e R podem ser relevantes para essa população específica porque ambos conferem vantagens seletivas para a prática esportiva. De fato, a partir das evidências disponíveis, verificou-se que a frequência do genótipo RX no futebol profissional teve maior prevalência em relação aos outros genótipos RR e XX (Clos *et al.*, 2020; Maestro *et al.*, 2022; Petr *et al.*, 2022; Rodas *et al.*, 2021). Coletivamente, esses dados indicam a prevalência de jogadores heterozigotos no futebol, isso implica que a presença dos alelos R e X pode favorecer os indivíduos a experimentar os possíveis efeitos desse genótipo em respostas motoras, estruturais, metabólicas e no reparo tecidual. Além disso, parece que o genótipo RX apresenta uma adaptação mais eficaz as demandas do futebol de alto rendimento.

Em relação ao estado da arte a respeito das lesões musculares e o tempo de recuperação relacionados ao gene ACTN3 R577X no futebol, observou-se num estudo longitudinal conduzido por sete temporadas que jogadores profissionais da mesma equipe que disputaram a primeira divisão do futebol espanhol não apresentaram diferenças significativas entre os genótipos XX, RR e RX (ACTN3) em relação a variável tempo de recuperação (Clos

*et al.*, 2019). Entretanto, no estudo de Rodas *et al.* (2021), os autores investigaram as mesmas variáveis através de um monitoramento longitudinal de cinco temporadas consecutivas. Nesse trabalho, a amostra foi composta por jogadores profissionais da mesma equipe que competiram na primeira divisão do futebol espanhol. Logo, verificou-se que os jogadores com genótipo ACTN3 XX levaram em média 36 dias para o tratamento e retorno a prática esportiva, enquanto, os indivíduos ACTN3 RR necessitaram de 20 dias e os indivíduos ACTN3 RX de 17 dias. Os resultados mostraram que o tempo de recuperação dos indivíduos com genótipo ACTN3 XX foi significativamente mais longo quando comparado aos outros genótipos (RR e RX) na amostra investigada. Assim, parece que a ausência completa da alfa-actinina 3 expressa pelo genótipo ACTN3 XX pode influenciar no reparo tecidual do músculo lesado, de modo que esse jogador necessite de mais tempo de recuperação após uma lesão muscular. Frente a essa divergência nos resultados, um ponto que pode ser considerado nas análises foi o fato da amostra de um dos estudos ser heterogênea, sendo composta por homens e mulheres (Rodas *et al.*, 2021). Além disso, mesmo os pesquisadores fornecendo dados sobre a carga de treinamento (número de semanas e horas de treino por semana), entende-se que a carga aplicada em jogadores homens é diferente daquela aplicada nas mulheres o que pode enviesar os dados e interferir diretamente no desfecho final.

A deficiência completa de alfa-actinina 3 pode impactar negativamente o rendimento esportivo, tornando os jogadores de futebol mais suscetíveis a lesões musculares (Del Coso *et al.*, 2024; Massidda *et al.*, 2024). Essa condição está associada a alterações estruturais nos músculos, que comprometem as propriedades contráteis durante as atividades, além de reduzir a síntese proteica, dificultando a recuperação do tecido muscular após os exercícios físicos (Baltazar-Martins *et al.*, 2020; Del Coso *et al.*, 2019; Lim *et al.*, 2021). De acordo com Del Coso *et al.* (2017) a ausência da alfa-actinina 3 pode induzir níveis mais elevados de dano muscular durante as corridas prolongadas. Além disso, a deficiência dessa proteína pode expressar um fenótipo com menor capacidade de tolerar as deformações constantes produzidas por ações mecânicas de alta intensidade frequentes no futebol (Massidda *et al.*, 2017). De modo que a ausência da alfa-actinina 3 reduz a proteção contra os danos musculares após o treino excêntrico e diminui as vias de sinalização intracelular que atuam no reparo tecidual (Del Coso *et al.*, 2019; Seto *et al.*, 2021).

No que se refere a gravidade das lesões musculares associados ao gene ACTN3 R577X no futebol, verificou-se no estudo de Massidda *et al.* (2017) com 169 jogadores profissionais do futebol italiano, que os jogadores ACTN3 XX apresentaram chances mais significativas de terem lesões mais severas em comparação com os jogadores ACTN3 RR

(OR = 2.13 [1.25 – 3.74],  $p = 0.0054$ , para XX vs. RR), enquanto os jogadores ACTN3 RX tiveram propensões mais significativas de terem lesões severas em detrimento aos jogadores ACTN3 RR (OR = 1.63 [1.10 – 2.40],  $p = 0.015$ , para RX vs. RR). Os autores concluem que os jogadores de futebol portadores do alelo X mostraram probabilidades maiores de sofrerem lesões mais severas quando comparados aos jogadores ACTN3 RR dessa amostra. Em contrapartida, foram encontrados resultados adversos publicados por Larruskain *et al.* (2018) e Clos *et al.* (2019) que não identificaram associações significativas dos genótipos do ACTN3 R577X com a gravidade das lesões musculares em 107 jogadores profissionais, e 43 jogadores profissionais e da base (sub 19) pertencentes a equipes do futebol espanhol.

Possivelmente, essas divergências podem ocorrer por diferenças metodológicas entre os estudos, além das diferenças culturais e étnicas das amostras, juntamente com interações entre fatores genéticos e ambientais. Nesse sentido, possíveis explicações emergem de três pontos que podem ser considerados dentro de uma análise mais abrangente dessas variáveis. Em relação ao desenho metodológico dos estudos, Larruskain *et al.* (2018) e Clos *et al.* (2019) desenvolveram um delineamento longitudinal (sete e seis temporadas consecutivas), enquanto Massidda *et al.* (2017) apresentou um estudo de controle de caso e encontrou significância. Outro ponto relevante refere-se à etnia dos jogadores. Enquanto Larruskain *et al.* (2018) e Massidda *et al.* (2017) trabalharam com amostras homogêneas de jogadores espanhóis e italianos, respectivamente, Clos *et al.* (2019) investigaram uma amostra diversificada, composta por jogadores negros africanos e hispânicos. Essa diversidade é importante, pois a expressão dos fenótipos pode variar conforme o continente de origem dos jogadores, influenciando a incidência de lesões musculares. A etnia dos jogadores de futebol é uma variável que pode interferir na relação entre genética e lesão muscular (Pickering; Kiely, 2018). Além disso, a faixa etária dos jogadores deve ser considerada em virtude da relação entre a idade com a lesão muscular. Logo, os jogadores italianos tinham em média  $19.4 \pm 5.2$  (Massidda *et al.*, 2017), já os jogadores espanhóis  $20.0 \pm 4.0$  (Larruskain *et al.*, 2018), enquanto no estudo de Clos *et al.* (2019), os jogadores negros africanos e hispânicos tinham em média 27.8 (20 - 37) anos. Os jogadores mais jovens apresentaram resultados significativos em relação à gravidade da lesão, o que evidencia a existência de resultados controversos e inconclusivos na literatura sobre a relação entre o perfil genotípico e a gravidade das lesões musculares, especialmente considerando a população de jogadores de futebol de alto rendimento.

No futebol, a distribuição dos alelos relacionados ao gene ACTN3 R577X varia conforme a posição do jogador em campo. Essa diferença foi particularmente significativa

entre zagueiros e volantes quando comparados a meias e atacantes (Clos *et al.*, 2020). Esses achados destacam a importância de investigar o perfil genético dos jogadores de futebol em relação à sua posição, com o objetivo de compreender melhor essas relações com a predisposição a lesões musculares. Considerando que as posições dos jogadores em campo possuem demandas táticas, técnicas, físicas e psicológicas específicas, pode-se hipotetizar que um lateral, por exemplo, necessita de maior resistência para sustentar uma partida oficial. Contudo, se seu perfil genético favorecer predominantemente a força, ele pode estar mais suscetível a lesões musculares devido à incompatibilidade entre seu fenótipo e as exigências de sua posição. Além disso, jogadores geneticamente predispostos à força podem gerar maior tensão nas fibras musculares, aumentando o risco e a gravidade das lesões. Assim, a predisposição genética emerge como um fator relevante para compreender os mecanismos das lesões musculares, especialmente em relação à posição ocupada pelo jogador em campo. Por outro lado, quando o jogador possui características genéticas alinhadas às demandas físicas e táticas de sua posição, a probabilidade de ocorrência de lesões musculares tende a ser reduzida.

#### 2.4 O MuRF-1/TRIM63 e sua relação com as lesões musculares em fenótipos esportivos

O MuRF-1 foi investigado pela primeira vez por Centner *et al.* (2001) na tentativa de identificar as proteínas miofibrilares que interagem com o domínio quinase da titina no sarcômero. O sítio de ligação do MuRF-1 com a titina foi mapeado nos sítios (A168/169) localizados dentro da região na linha M da titina (Kötter *et al.*, 2014). O MuRF-1 é codificado pelo *Tripartite Motif Containing 63* (TRIM63) que está localizado no cromossomo 1 na posição 26.058.512, no qual observou-se um polimorfismo de nucleotídeo único (SNP, A > G, rs2275950) no aminoácido 237 causando uma mudança da lisina para o glutamato (Bodine *et al.*, 2001; Baumert *et al.*, 2017). De uma forma geral, a proteína MuRF-1, MuRF-2 e MuRF-3 são uma classe específica de proteínas expressas em tecidos musculares estriados e cardíacos (Chen *et al.*, 2012; Witt *et al.*, 2005). Especificamente a proteína *Muscle RING Finger-1* (MuRF-1) está localizada na linha Z e na linha M do sarcômero, no qual verifica-se a sua interação e modulação com as propriedades mecânicas da titina, além da expressão gênica de outras proteínas integrantes do tecido musculoesquelético (Baehr *et al.*, 2021; Centner *et al.*, 2001; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2021).

O MuRF-1 têm sido investigado como uma ubiquitina ligase, controlando assim o processo de degradação de proteínas miofibrilares no tecido musculoesquelético (Chen *et al.*,

2012). Esse processo é dependente de vias de sinalização que estão relacionadas a sinais catabólicos aumentados ou anabólicos reprimidos que controlam a expressão do MuRF-1 no organismo (Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020). Nessa linha de raciocínio, quando estimulado, o Sistema Ubiquitina Proteossoma (SUP) é o responsável pela proteólise muscular de substratos selecionados e pela remoção de espécies proteicas defeituosas. Esse sistema proteolítico depende de Adenosina Trifosfato (ATP) durante seu funcionamento e demonstrou ser fundamental para a manutenção da integridade e função das fibras do tecido musculoesquelético (Baehr *et al.*, 2021; Murton *et al.*, 2008; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020). Dessa maneira, esse sistema pode degradar seletivamente as proteínas cuja integridade física e competência funcional foram comprometidas pela perda ou por algum dano estrutural (Freemont, 2000; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2021).

A ativação do SUP durante o dano muscular induzido por exercícios parece essencial para remodelação dos miofilamentos do tecido musculoesquelético (Murton *et al.*, 2008; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020). Um dos elementos fundamentais nesse processo é a ubiquitina. Essa proteína é encontrada em células eucariontes e desempenha uma importante função na regulação proteica, regulando eventos celulares que mantém a dinâmica da vida (Murton *et al.*, 2008). A ubiquitina marca as proteínas indesejadas para serem degradadas por um complexo macromolecular denominado proteossomo (Freemont, 2000; Witt *et al.*, 2005). Nos seres humanos, várias proteínas são sintetizadas pela via da ubiquitina-proteossomo, no qual ocorre no proteossomo 26S. De modo que as proteínas são direcionadas para o interior do proteossomo por ubiquitinação, mediado por ligações covalentes de uma ou mais moléculas de ubiquitina (Baehr *et al.*, 2021; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2021). Nesse tipo de ambiente, as proteínas a serem degradadas pelo proteossomo 26S são marcadas durante o processo de ubiquitinação pela ação coordenada de três enzimas, sendo elas as enzimas ativadoras de ubiquitina (E1), as enzimas conjugadoras de ubiquitina (E2) e a ubiquitina ligase (E3) que se conecta a proteína alvo por meio de ligação isopeptídica (Murton *et al.*, 2008; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020). Além disso, evidências apontaram que o MuRF-1 é a única proteína ligase E3 conhecida por ter como alvo as proteínas contráteis para degradação (Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Centner *et al.*, 2001).

De fato, experimentos *in vitro* identificaram o MuRF-1 como uma ubiquitina ligase E3, enquanto pesquisas *in vivo* utilizando camundongos *Knock-Out* (KO) estabeleceram essa enzima como um marcador de atrofia do musculoesquelético. Nesse caso, investigou-se em camundongos selvagens (WT) e camundongos com a ausência do MuRF-1 *Knock-Out* (KO) um modelo fisiológico de degradação de proteínas frente a uma dieta com a privação de

aminoácidos (Koyama *et al.*, 2008). Logo, quando os camundongos foram alimentados com uma dieta sem a presença de aminoácidos, verificou-se que os camundongos MuRF-1 KO perderam menos massa muscular em detrimento aos camundongos WT. Além disso, observou-se que os camundongos WT reduziram a síntese proteica, enquanto, os camundongos KO mantiveram níveis fisiológicos dessa síntese de proteína. Sendo o *turnover* das proteínas um dos papéis do MuRF-1 durante a falta de aminoácidos, os resultados do estudo mostraram que as concentrações de aminoácidos essenciais no plasma sanguíneo diminuíram significativamente em camundongos MuRF-1 KO sob privação de aminoácidos, mostrando a influência do MuRF-1 nos aspectos metabólicos (Koyama *et al.*, 2008).

No estudo de Witt *et al.* (2005) investigando modelos murinos revelou que quando os músculos gastrocnêmios de camundongos WT e MuRF-1 KO foram submetidos a desnervação durante 14 dias, verificou-se uma preservação de 36% do músculo de camundongos MuRF-1 KO em comparação com camundongos WT. Coletivamente, os dados supracitados apontaram que o MuRF-1 pode ser um regulador crítico de atrofia do musculoesquelético que participa de processos catabólicos em diferentes contextos (Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2021). Durante os estados catabólicos crônicos, a degradação persistente de proteínas contráteis por MuRF-1 durante a ubiquitinação pode levar a uma perda de massa muscular sustentada, e nessas condições o MuRF-1 se torna uma proteína deletéria que é encontrada em algumas doenças, como por exemplo no câncer, no qual impacta negativamente no prognóstico dos pacientes (Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020).

Durante o exercício, pesquisadores buscaram identificar as mudanças na expressão do mRNA de um marcador proteolítico (MuRF-1) em fibras musculares de contração lenta (tipo I) e rápida (tipo IIa) após uma sessão única de exercício contra resistência (Yang; Temiolo; Trape, 2006). Participaram dessa investigação oito homens jovens que eram saudáveis e sedentários. Esses indivíduos executaram um protocolo de três séries de dez repetições de extensão bilaterais do joelho a 65% de uma repetição máxima (1-RM). Uma biópsia do músculo vasto lateral foi realizada antes, 4 e 24 horas após o protocolo. Os resultados mostraram uma maior indução de mRNA após os exercícios contra resistência na proteína MuRF-1 em ambos os tipos de fibra (Yang *et al.*, 2006). Esses dados sugerem que a expressão alterada de mRNA proteolítico para a proteína MuRF-1 indica que o sistema ubiquitina proteassoma pode exercer uma função importante na remodelação do músculo após uma sessão de exercícios contra resistência que causem dano muscular. Além disso, o gene do TRIM63 ao codificar a proteína MuRF-1 pode influenciar as propriedades mecânicas da titina frente as contrações musculares durante o exercício, auxiliando na prevenção das lesões

musculares (Baumert *et al.*, 2017; Centner *et al.*, 2001). No entanto, a mutação do gene TRIM63 pode diminuir a afinidade da proteína MuRF-1 com a titina resultando em menor rigidez das fibras musculares, e dessa forma pode aumentar a susceptibilidade do indivíduo de sofrer uma lesão muscular mais grave necessitando de um maior tempo de recuperação (Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Fagundes *et al.*, 2024).

No que tange o gene do TRIM63 e o tempo de recuperação, um estudo no contexto prático foi desenvolvido com 65 indivíduos saudáveis e destreinados. Os pesquisadores induziram o dano muscular no quadríceps femoral dos participantes através de um protocolo de 12 séries de 10 contrações excêntricas máximas dos extensores do joelho de forma unilateral. Além disso, os voluntários realizaram o torque máximo isométrico (a 80° de flexão do joelho; 0° = extensão total), isocinético (60°/s) de extensão do joelho e responderam a escala de dor muscular que foram avaliadas antes, imediatamente após o protocolo e 48 horas (Baumert *et al.*, 2017). Como resultado, os autores identificaram que os indivíduos com o alelo A apresentaram uma recuperação mais rápida em detrimento aos indivíduos com alelo G. De modo que se observou uma diferença significativa nos níveis de força dos participantes nos exercícios isométrico e isocinético, sendo o genótipo AA mais forte que o GG em ambos os casos. Além disso, os homozigotos AA apresentaram uma redução significativa na escala de dor muscular 48 horas após o protocolo de dano muscular induzido pelo exercício em comparação com os genótipos AG e GG. Em síntese, os músculos danificados exibem perda da força muscular devido ao comprometimento das estruturas musculares durante a transmissão desse estímulo, no entanto, os resultados apresentados possivelmente explicam que houve um reparo tecidual mais eficiente refletindo num menor tempo de recuperação, além da manutenção dos níveis de força pelo genótipo AA. Esse estudo fornece dados preliminares a respeito de um gene que pode estar associado as lesões musculares, contudo, deve ser considerado que a pesquisa foi realizada em ambiente controlado com amostra heterogênea, sendo conduzidos com homens e mulheres. Dessa forma, investigar esse gene em um ambiente de alto nível competitivo pode trazer novas perspectivas sobre a expressão do fenótipo em indivíduos submetidos a cargas intensas de treinamento e adaptações orgânicas constantes, cujas respostas musculares diferem significativamente daqueles que não treinam com regularidade.

Em relação ao MuRF-1/TRIM63 e gravidade das lesões musculares, observou-se no estudo de Baumert *et al.* (2017) que os indivíduos portadores do alelo A apresentaram um menor tempo de recuperação. Quando analisamos pela ótica do dano muscular, é razoável supor que os indivíduos que apresentaram o alelo G possam sofrer com mais danos

musculares em virtude do maior tempo que necessitaram para se recuperar após o dano muscular induzido pelo exercício. Em função disso, foi identificado que os indivíduos genotipados com o alelo G podem apresentar pouca interação com a proteína titina (Baumert *et al.*, 2017; Baumert *et al.*, 2022). Como consequência, hipotetiza-se que a reduzida afinidade com a titina pode comprometer a rigidez e a resistência das fibras musculares, diminuindo sua capacidade de suportar ações excêntricas e aumentando a susceptibilidade a danos estruturais no sarcômero. No contexto do futebol, um treinamento mal controlado, aliado a uma recuperação insuficiente entre as sessões, pode intensificar os danos musculares e culminar em lesões mais graves, resultando no afastamento do jogador e na necessidade de tratamento no departamento médico do clube.

Baumert *et al.* (2022) investigaram a resposta ao dano muscular induzido por exercícios em 65 indivíduos destreinados (26 homens e 39 mulheres) durante atividades de resistência. O gene MuRF-1/TRIM63 foi associado ao dano muscular induzido por exercícios, apresentando interações significativas com a amplitude de movimento, com diferenças observadas entre os grupos genotípicos após 48 horas do exercício (TT + TC > CC,  $F_{2,74} = 3.38$ ,  $p = 0.039$ ). Também foi identificado um efeito significativo no torque isométrico ( $p < 0.05$ ). Com base nessas interações significativas, sete polimorfismos de nucleotídeo único, sendo eles o MuRF-1/TRIM63 (rs2275950), COL2A1 (rs2070739), COL5A1 (rs12722), IGF2-AS (rs4244808), MMP3 (rs679620), VDR (rs2228570) e TTN-AS1 (rs3731749) foram associados a dor muscular, torque isométrico e utilizados para calcular um escore genotípico total. Esse escore dividiu os participantes em três grupos poligênicos: preferencial (com mais alelos "protetores"), moderado e não preferencial. O grupo não preferencial mostrou-se consistentemente mais fraco em comparação ao grupo preferencial ( $1.93 \pm 0.81$  vs.  $2.73 \pm 0.59$  N x m/Kg,  $p = 0.005$ ), além de apresentar maior dor muscular ( $F_{4,12} = 3.44$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ) e uma redução mais acentuada na amplitude de movimento da articulação do joelho ( $F_{4,72} = 3.40$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ). Os pesquisadores observaram que a resposta aumentada do MuRF-1/TRIM63 pode favorecer uma recuperação muscular mais rápida após o protocolo de intervenção, devido ao aumento da atividade enzimática responsável pelo *turnover* proteico. Isso resultou em um efeito de interação significativo nas variáveis de amplitude de movimento da articulação do joelho e torque isométrico de flexão de joelho. Os autores destacaram que esse efeito benéfico foi associado ao alelo A do gene MuRF-1/TRIM63, classificado como um alelo protetor contra danos musculares.

Por fim, o presente estudo, com base nas informações disponíveis na literatura, busca explorar os principais mecanismos estruturais relacionados ao MuRF-1/TRIM63. Embora

ainda não esteja totalmente esclarecido como o MuRF-1/TRIM63 age na manutenção e integridade do sarcômero, seu papel durante o processo de ubiquitinação em humanos é reconhecido. Hipotetiza-se que variações na expressão do MuRF-1/TRIM63 possam desestabilizar o processo de ubiquitinação de proteínas miofibrilares, comprometendo a estrutura e a reparação tecidual do sarcômero. Como consequência, as fibras musculares poderiam apresentar menor resistência às demandas do futebol, aumentando a predisposição a lesões musculares. Dessa forma, torna-se pertinente investigar se as respostas observadas em indivíduos sedentários se repetem em atletas de alto nível competitivo.

## 2.5 A relação entre os genes ACTN3 R577X e MuRF-1/TRIM63

Ao pensarmos na organização e função do tecido musculoesquelético, observa-se uma relação desses genes com as propriedades mecânicas e estruturais das fibras musculares (Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Seto *et al.*, 2021). Dessa forma o ACTN3 R577X expressa a alfa-actinina 3 que é responsável pela estabilidade e ancoramento nas ligações cruzadas entre actina – actina, sendo considerada um componente estrutural importante na geração e transmissão de força contrátil do tecido musculoesquelético (Macarthur; North, 2007; Seto *et al.*, 2011). Por outro lado, o TRIM63 expressa a MuRF-1, uma proteína que interage com a titina, elemento essencial na estruturação do sarcômero, além de auxiliar na distensibilidade dos miofilamentos durante contrações excêntricas das fibras musculares (Kötter *et al.*, 2014; Murton *et al.*, 2008). A interação entre essas duas proteínas durante as contrações musculares no exercício físico pode atuar de forma coordenada e proporcionar estabilidade aos miofilamentos contribuindo para a prevenção de lesões musculares.

A relação entre os genes ACTN3 R577X e MuRF-1/TRIM63 foi investigada em modelos murinos por Seto *et al.* (2021), que destacaram que a ausência da alfa-actinina 3, decorrente do genótipo ACTN3 577XX, reduz a resposta atrofica e anti-inflamatória ao glicocorticoide dexametasona no músculo esquelético, protegendo contra a perda de massa muscular induzida pelo medicamento. Essa deficiência influencia diretamente a regulação da massa muscular, modificando as vias de sinalização relacionadas à síntese e degradação de proteínas no músculo esquelético desde o desenvolvimento pós-natal, com efeitos persistentes até a vida adulta. Além disso, a ausência de alfa-actinina-3 está associada a uma redução significativa na expressão do gene MuRF-1/TRIM63, responsável pelo *turnover* proteico no sarcômero. Como consequência, os camundongos deficientes em alfa-actinina-3 apresentaram reduções no tamanho das fibras musculares do tipo II e desequilíbrios metabólicos, sugerindo

que essa interação entre os genes pode desempenhar um papel essencial na manutenção da integridade muscular e na resposta a condições de estresse mecânico ou inflamatório (SETO *et al.*, 2021).

Peris-Moreno *et al.* (2021) destacaram que no Sistema Ubiquitina-Proteassoma, a ligase E3 desempenha um papel crucial na degradação coordenada de diversas proteínas miofibrilares durante estados catabólicos no músculo esquelético. No músculo cardíaco, os resultados revelaram duas principais formas de atuação do MuRF-1. A primeira envolve sua ligação à titina na linha M do sarcômero, resultando na interrupção das interações entre a titina e a linha M, o que promove uma desorganização parcial da estrutura do sarcômero. A segunda ocorre quando, com a desestabilização do sarcômero, o MuRF-1 acessa proteínas contráteis miofibrilares, como alfa-actina, desmina, troponinas I e a cadeia pesada de miosina, direcionando-as para o processo de ubiquitinação (Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020).

Essa relação evidencia que tanto a síntese quanto a degradação proteica são moduladas geneticamente, e que essas variações podem impactar de forma significativa o rendimento e o risco de lesões em esportes de alta intensidade, como o futebol. Compreender essa interação oferece *insights* para intervenções individualizadas em jogadores. No entanto, as evidências disponíveis até o momento são provenientes, principalmente, de estudos com animais que foram tratados com medicamentos ou pacientes em estados catabólicos. Por isso, torna-se relevante investigar essas associações em indivíduos saudáveis, a fim de desvendar os principais mecanismos envolvidos na relação entre esses polimorfismos genéticos e as lesões musculares.

### **3 OBJETIVOS**

#### **3.1 Objetivo geral**

Investigar a associação entre os genótipos do MuRF-1/TRIM63 (rs2275950) e ACTN3 R577X (rs1815739) com a ocorrência de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional.

Esta tese foi estruturada em três estudos. Os dois primeiros examinaram a relação dos genes MuRF-1/TRIM63 e ACTN3 R577X com a ocorrência e incidência de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol. O terceiro estudo, por sua vez, consistiu em uma revisão sistemática que analisou os efeitos do exercício físico na expressão do mRNA do gene MuRF-1/TRIM63.

#### **3.2 Objetivos específicos**

##### **Estudo 1**

Objetivo específico: Investigar se o MuRF-1/TRIM63 (A/G, rs2275950) estava associado à ocorrência de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional.

##### **Estudo 2**

Objetivos específicos: (I) Analisar se as taxas de incidência de lesões musculares difere entre as posições dos jogadores em campo; (II) Avaliar se as taxas de incidência de lesões musculares difere entre os genótipos do ACTN3 R577X.

##### **Estudo 3**

Objetivo específico: Verificar os efeitos do exercício físico na expressão do mRNA do MuRF-1/TRIM63 em humanos.

#### 4 ORGANIZAÇÃO DA TESE

Os estudos mencionados estão apresentados a seguir no formato de artigos, conforme as normas de formatação exigidas por cada periódico. Cada artigo inclui título, autores, resumo, introdução, método, resultados, discussão e referências. Os títulos dos artigos e os periódicos aos quais foram publicados estão detalhados abaixo.

**ESTUDO 1.** FAGUNDES, L. H. S.; PINHEIRO, G. S.; PIMENTA, E. M.; AMORIM, C. E. N.; SOUZA, R. P.; COSTA, V. T. *Association of the MuRF-1/TRIM63 polymorphism with muscle injuries in professional soccer players.* **Retos**, v. 57, p. 205-212, 2024. <https://doi.org/10.47197/retos.v57.104261>

**ESTUDO 2.** FAGUNDES, L. H. S.; PIMENTA, E. M.; COSTA, V. T. *Are muscle injury incidence and ACTN3 R577X associated with playing positions in professional soccer players?* **Sport Sciences for Health**, 2025. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11332-025-01334-9>

**ESTUDO 3.** FAGUNDES, L. H. S.; PIMENTA, E. M.; COSTA, V. T. *Effects of physical exercise on MuRF-1/TRIM63 mRNA expression in humans: A systematic review.* **Genes**, v. 16, n. 153, p. 1-29, 2025. <https://doi.org/10.3390/genes16020153>

**5 ESTUDO 1 – ASSOCIATION OF THE TRIM63/MURF-1 POLYMORPHISM WITH MUSCLE INJURIES IN PROFESSIONAL SOCCER PLAYERS**

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**Abstract.** Muscle injuries are one of the biggest medical problems in professional soccer. Evidence has suggested that genetic polymorphism is a mediating factor in physiological and structural alterations that can lead to muscle injury. The TRIM63 gene polymorphism may affect the MuRF-1 protein, which is vital in the regulation of muscle mass, and is differentially regulated by exercise mode, muscle contraction, and training status. However, central aspects of the relationship between genetic variations, the environment, and muscle injuries still need to be explained. This study aimed to investigate whether MuRF-1/TRIM63 (A/G, rs2275950) was associated with the occurrence of muscle injury in professional soccer players. Forty-six Brazilian soccer players were evaluated. Genomic DNA was extracted using blood samples and semi-structured interviews on muscle injuries were applied after two seasons (2021-2022). Fisher's exact test was used to verify if MuRF-1/TRIM63 was associated with muscle injuries. The MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes ( $\chi^2 = 2.19$ ;  $p = 0.292$ ), the dominant model ( $\chi^2 = 1.04$ ;  $p = 0.299$ ), and the recessive model ( $\chi^2 = 1.94$ ;  $p = 0.208$ ) showed no association with muscle injuries in soccer players. Preliminary evidence suggests that this genetic polymorphism may not be a reliable biomarker of muscle injuries in Brazilian professional soccer players.

**Keywords:** Football; Genetic, Muscle injury, Performance, Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP), Sport genomic.

**Resumen.** Las lesiones musculares son uno de los mayores problemas médicos en el fútbol profesional. Las pruebas han sugerido que el polimorfismo genético es un factor mediador en las alteraciones fisiológicas y estructurales que pueden provocar lesiones musculares. El polimorfismo del gen TRIM63 puede afectar a la proteína MuRF-1, que es vital en la regulación de la masa muscular, y está regulada de forma diferencial por el modo de ejercicio, la contracción muscular, y el estado de entrenamiento. Sin embargo, aún quedan por explicar aspectos centrales de la relación entre las variaciones genéticas, el entorno, y las lesiones musculares. El objetivo de este estudio era investigar si MuRF-1/TRIM63 (A/G, rs2275950) estaba asociado con la aparición de lesiones musculares en futbolistas profesionales. Se evaluaron cuarenta y seis jugadores de fútbol brasileños. Se extrajo DNA genómico a partir de muestras de sangre y se aplicaron entrevistas semiestructuradas sobre lesiones musculares después de dos temporadas (2021-2022). Se utilizó la prueba exacta de Fisher para verificar si MuRF-1/TRIM63 estaba asociado con las lesiones musculares. Los genotipos MuRF-1/TRIM63 ( $\chi^2 = 2.19$ ;  $p = 0.292$ ), el modelo dominante ( $\chi^2 = 1.04$ ;  $p = 0.299$ ), y el modelo recesivo ( $\chi^2 = 1.94$ ;  $p = 0.208$ ) no mostraron asociación con las lesiones musculares en futbolistas. Las pruebas preliminares sugieren que este polimorfismo genético puede no ser un biomarcador fiable de lesiones musculares en futbolistas profesionales brasileños.

**Palabras clave:** Fútbol, Genética, Lesión muscular, Rendimiento, Polimorfismo de Nucleótido Único (SNP), Genómica deportiva.

## 5.2 Introduction

Muscle injuries are extremely frequent in soccer, in which their clinical and epidemiological outcome is multifactorial (Mandorino et al., 2023; Sinovas et al., 2020). Its high prevalence is documented in the international literature and has been the target of studies in professional soccer (Maestro et al., 2022; Murtagh et al., 2023; Uchamocha et al., 2024). Evidence indicates that up to 95% of all muscle injuries occur in non-contact situations, and the most common type of injury was muscle/tendon with 4.6 injuries/1000 hours of exposure (Ekstrand et al., 2023; López-Valenciano et al., 2019).

According to Waldén et al. (2023), injury is defined by evidence of tissue damage or other derangement of normal physical function resulting from the rapid or repetitive transfer of kinetic energy. Muscle injuries can be classified into two groups; direct muscle injuries (caused by external factors) and indirect muscle injuries (can also refer as “non-contact” and are caused by internal factors) that are identified as functional muscle disorders or structural muscle injuries (Mueller-Wohlfahrt et al., 2013). Consequently, muscle injuries have a negative impact on the physical and psychological health of soccer players (Fagundes et al., 2021). The incidence of muscle injuries in professional soccer teams is positively associated with economic costs and inversely related to the team's success during the season (Ekstrand et al., 2023; Pulici et al., 2022). Muscle injury in soccer represents a complex process influenced by multifactorial parameters (Mandorino et al., 2023; Uchamocha et al., 2024). Recently, genetic factors have been attributed a role in the susceptibility to muscle injury, the efficiency of recovery mechanisms, and the potential implications for athletic performance (McAuley et al., 2022; Moya, 2021). Genetic polymorphisms have been associated with non-contact muscle injuries in soccer (Lim et al., 2021, Maestro et al., 2022). In this context, evidence indicates that certain genetic polymorphisms, such as MuRF-1/TRIM63, may influence the mechanical properties of muscle fibers that express, for example, a phenotype with characteristics of delayed inflammation, resulting in slower recovery after exercise (Baumert et al., 2017; Baumert et al., 2022).

The Muscle RING Finger-1 (MuRF-1) encoded by the human tripartite motif containing 63 (TRIM63) gene is located on chromosome 1 at position 26.058.512, in which a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP, rs2275950; AA, AG and GG) at amino acid 237 causing a change from lysine to glutamate (Bodine et al., 2001; Centner et al., 2001). MuRF-1, MuRF-2 and MuRF-3 proteins are a specific class of proteins expressed in striated and cardiac muscle tissues (Chen et al., 2012; Peris-Moreno et al., 2020). The MuRF-1 protein mediates a key role in the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (UPS), attaching ubiquitin polymers to deteriorated

myofibrillar proteins after muscle damage (Centner et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2020). MuRF-1 is localized at the Z- and the M-line of the sarcomere, in which it has been found to interact and modulate the mechanical properties of titin (Baehr et al., 2021; Bodine et al., 2001).

Centner et al. (2001) stated that the relationship between the MuRF-1 and titin proteins is pivotal for the integrity of the sarcomere. This connection may provide stability and protection against muscle damage caused by eccentric damaging contractions from sports practice (Baumert et al., 2017). After this damaging process, coordinated actions are mediated by MuRF-1 and titin in the control of protein quality, protein degradation and synthesis as well as in the process of structuring new myofibrils (Stefanetti et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2022).

A cluster of evidence has shown that MuRF-1/TRIM63 has been investigated as a regulator of muscle mass and is involved in catabolic processes identified in physiological conditions and pathological states (Peris-Moreno et al., 2020). This gene has been linked to situations such as muscle atrophy (Baehr et al., 2021), cardiomyopathies (Chen et al., 2012), and exercise-induced muscle damage (Baumert et al., 2022). With respect to exercise, researchers investigated this protein during endurance and resistance activities and found that MuRF-1 mRNA protein levels increased significantly after endurance training and exercise (Baumert et al., 2022; Stefanetti et al., 2014). These studies showed consistent results revealing that the MuRF-1/TRIM63 response to exercise results in upregulation. Moreover, a study by Baumert et al. (2017) revealed that homozygous with the A-allele were significantly stronger and recovered faster after strenuous exercise than those with the G-allele who required a longer recovery period post-exercise. As a result, the A-allele may promote greater affinity for the titin strain-sensing kinase domain, suggesting that genotype-phenotype interaction may be able to tolerate a greater training and match frequency in soccer.

Recent studies have identified some genetic markers that could influence the predisposition to muscle injuries in soccer (Lim et al., 2021; Maestro et al., 2022; Murtagh et al., 2023). However, to date, no study has investigated the MuRF-1/TRIM63 polymorphism in professional soccer. Furthermore, investigating this gene in the competitive environment could provide new insights into inter-individual variability of soccer players who are submitted to frequent training and match exposures.

We hypothesized that the presence of the A-allele (previously associated with greater titin stiffness) could offer muscle fibers greater resistance to eccentric damaging contractions. The aim of the present study was to investigate whether MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes were associated with the occurrence of muscle injury in professional soccer players.

### 5.3 Materials and methods

#### 5.3.1 Participants

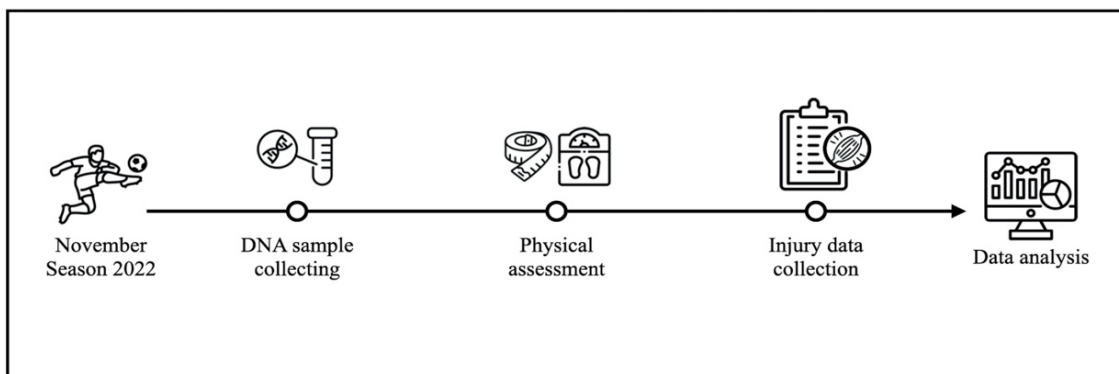
This is a study with a convenience sample from a first division professional soccer club in Brazil. Data were collected from 46 male Brazilian soccer players (mean  $\pm$  SD, age:  $21.3 \pm 1.14$  years, body mass  $73.7 \pm 6.41$  kg, height  $179.0 \pm 6.50$  cm). As inclusion criteria, the individuals assessed had to be professional soccer players with a contract with the first team, who participated in training and matches over the season at the same club and performed regular exercise training of  $> 1$  hour per day,  $> 5$  days per week for the prior 1 year. Exclusion criteria were contact injuries throughout the season, goalkeepers, and professional female soccer players.

Written informed consent was obtained from each player after they were informed about the advantages and potential risks. The study was performed in accordance with the ethical standards of the Helsinki Declaration and resolution 466/2012 of the National Health Council for research on humans. This study complied with the Ethical Standards in Sport and Exercise Science Research (Harriss et al., 2022) and was approved by the Research Ethics Committee (COEP-UFMG; No. 5.764.810).

#### 5.3.2 Study procedures

A retrospective survey study was carried out (Isik et al., 2018; Sinovas et al., 2020). A pilot study was conducted to apply the customized semi-structured interview muscle injury for soccer players in August 2022. In November 2022, data was obtained at the club's training center in three steps. Firstly, the venipuncture for DNA was collected by the club physician (Clos et al., 2019; Pruna et al., 2013). Secondly, the club's physiologist carried out the physical assessment (Jackson & Pollock, 1978). Finally, the semi-structured interview was conducted only by the study researcher. The semi-structured interview was individual; each player received verbal guidance from the researcher and could answer the questions without a time limit (Fagundes et al., 2021). The data was collected through a semi-structured interview using questions about the occurrence of non-contact muscle injuries and psychological aspects in the last two seasons (2021-2022). The data were transferred to a computer spreadsheet for organization, systematization, and analysis. All the procedures described happened on a single day in the season (Figure 1).

Figure 1 - Study design



### 5.3.3 Physical assessment

Body mass, height and skinfolds were measured to characterize the sample. Body mass (kg) and height (cm) were evaluated using a digital scale (Filizola®). Skinfolds were measured using a plicometer (Lange®) according to the protocol proposed (Jackson & Pollock, 1978).

### 5.3.4 DNA sample collecting

Approximately 4 ml of blood was extracted from the antecubital arm vein of each participant using EDTA tubes (BD Vacutainer®, Brazil). Genomic DNA was extracted from 500 µl of whole blood using the salting out method (Miller et al., 1988). The quality and integrity of the samples were tested by spectrophotometry (Nanodrop®, Thermo Fisher Scientific-GE, USA). Genotyping for MuRF-1/TRIM63 was performed by polymerase chain reaction method (PCR) based on previous studies (Baumert et al., 2017; Stefanetti et al., 2014). To determine the rs2275950 polymorphism of the TRIM63 gene, the site of interest was amplified from the genomic DNA using the following primers, forward CCTGAGAGCCATTGACTTTGG and reverse CTCCCTTCTGTGGACTCTTCCT (Applied Biosystems®, USA). Allele discrimination was performed using a genomic sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems® Steponeplus™ Real-Time PCR System, USA). In each qPCR plate, 10-15 ng of DNA (1 µL) was pipetted in addition to 12.5 µL of genotyping master mix (TaqMan Genotyping Master Mix® - 2X), 1.3 µL of specific primers and probes (TaqMan Genotyping Assay Mix® - 20X) and 11.2 µL of DNase and RNase free water, totaling a final volume of 25 µL for each sample. The amplification process started with denaturation at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 15 seconds, and cycle of 60 seconds at 60°C.

### 5.3.5 Muscle Injuries data collection

The development of the semi-structured interview was based on the international consensus statement on epidemiological studies in soccer (Fuller et al., 2006; Hägglund et al., 2005). The mechanism of injury evaluated in the study was non-contact. This non-contact muscle injury should present structural-mechanical damage, such as partial or total muscle tears (Mueller-Wohlfahrt et al., 2013). The registration of a muscle injury was based on a clinical examination by the team medical staff. The date of muscle injury, whether the muscle injury was sustained during a match or training exposure, the date of the player's return to full participation and the nature of the injury were registered. The medical staff described the injury report form based on the diagnosis of muscle injury (Fuller et al., 2006). In all cases, the diagnosis was supported by ultrasound and/or magnetic resonance imaging (Pruna et al., 2013). The data obtained from the players through the semi-structured interview and the data collected from the club's medical department (injury report form) complemented the final document (Isik et al., 2018; Sinovas et al., 2020). Injury severity was classified as mild (1-7 days), moderate (8-28 days) and severe (> 28 days) to evaluate muscle injuries in professional soccer teams (Clos et al., 2019; Larruskain et al., 2018; Pruna et al., 2013).

### 5.3.6 Statistical analysis

The Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to check the normality of the data. As the data had a normal distribution, the mean and standard deviation were used. ANOVA one-way was employed to verify differences between genotypes (AA vs AG vs GG) with the Tukey test applied post hoc for pairwise comparisons. Differences between (Injured players vs Non-injured players) were calculated using the Student's *t*-test for independent groups. The Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and genotype distribution were determined using the Chi-Square test ( $\chi^2$ ). In all inferential analyses, the expected values were less than 5. Therefore, was performed Fisher's exact test to verify the association between MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes and models (dominant and recessive) with muscle injuries. The level of statistical significance adopted was  $p < 0.05$ . All data was analyzed using JASP software (Team, 2020; JASP Version 0.14).

## 5.4 Results

Of the 46 professional soccer players, 32 players had an injury over the seasons (69.6%) for a total of 50 muscle injuries. The other 14 players (30.4%) did not present any muscle

injury during the two seasons (2021-2022). Of the 50 muscle injuries recorded, 17 (34%) occurred in official matches, while 33 (66%) happened in training.

Genotype frequency distribution for the MuRF-1/TRIM63 rs2275950 ( $\chi^2 = 2.50$ ;  $p = 0.285$ ) was in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. The frequency of the AA genotype was significantly higher than the AG and GG genotypes in Brazilian soccer players ( $\chi^2 = 23.10$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

Table 1 showed the descriptive data regarding the characterization of the study participants. Age of soccer players genotyped AA ( $p = 0.004$ ) and GG ( $p = 0.037$ ) were statistically significant when compared with AG genotype. The variables compared between injured and non-injured players were not statistically significant.

Table 1 - Subjects characteristics according to MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes and muscle injury

Variables	TRIM63/MuRF-1			p-value	Muscle Injury		p-value
	AA (30)	AG (12)	GG (4)		IP	NIP	
n (%)	30 (65.22)	12 (26.08)	4 (8.70)		32 (69.6)	14 (30.4)	
Age (years)	21.55 ± 1.05	20.37 ± 1.03	21.88 ± 0.48	0.007*	21.10 ± 1.28	21.60 ± 0.69	0.263
Weight (kg)	73.27 ± 6.75	74.67 ± 6.48	73.67 ± 3.93	0.835	72.70 ± 6.74	75.90 ± 5.10	0.116
Height (cm)	178.11 ± 6.57	180.88 ± 7.05	175.97 ± 0.91	0.062	179.00 ± 6.39	179.00 ± 6.96	0.831
Body fat (%)	10.03 ± 2.12	10.04 ± 2.79	10.75 ± 2.07	0.824	9.72 ± 2.21	10.90 ± 2.25	0.097
Experience (years)	8.83 ± 1.70	7.83 ± 2.08	7.50 ± 1.00	0.106	8.66 ± 1.88	8.00 ± 1.62	0.262

All variables are expressed as a mean ± standard deviation. IP (Injured players); NIP (No-injured players). \*  $p < 0.05$ .

Table 2 presented the analysis to verify whether MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes were associated with the occurrence of muscle injury. Of the 32 injured soccer players, 23 individuals genotyped as AA had 35 muscle injuries (70%), seven AG individuals suffered 12 muscle injuries (24%), and two GG individuals were diagnosed with three muscle injuries (6%). The MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes ( $\chi^2 = 2.19$ ;  $p = 0.292$ ), the dominant model ( $\chi^2 = 1.04$ ;  $p = 0.299$ ) and the recessive model ( $\chi^2 = 1.94$ ;  $p = 0.208$ ) showed no association with muscle injuries in soccer players.

Table 2 - Models of association between the MuRF-1/TRIM63 and muscle injury

Muscle injury	Genotype			Dominant model		Recessive model	
	AA	AG	GG	AA + AG	GG	AA	AG + GG
IP	23	7	2	30	2	23	9
NIP	7	5	2	12	2	7	7
<b>p-value</b>	0.356			0.659		0.876	

IP (Injured players); NIP (Non-injured players)

Table 3 provided the characteristics of the muscle injuries suffered by professional soccer players. According to position, defenders had 40% of the muscle injuries, while midfielders 24%, and forwards 36% over two seasons.

Table 3 - Description of muscle injuries in professional soccer players

Players	Position	Dominat leg	Location			NMIP
			1 injury	2 injury	3 injury	
2	MD	L	LA	RQ	LQ	3
3	DF	R	RA	RH		2
4	DF	R	RA	RG	LG	3
5	DF	L	LA	RQ		2
7	FW	R	LG			1
8	FW	L	LH			1
10	DF	R	LH			1
12	DF	R	LH			1
15	DF	L	LH			1
16	DF	L	RH			1
17	FW	L	LA			1
19	MD	L	LQ			1
20	FW	R	RH			1
22	FW	L	RH			1
25	FW	R	RH	LH		2
28	FW	R	RH	RA		2
29	MD	R	RH			1
30	FW	R	RH	LH	RQ	3
31	DF	R	RH	LH		2
32	FW	R	LA	RQ		2
34	MD	R	RQ			1
35	DF	R	RQ	LQ		2
37	MD	R	LH	RA		2
38	MD	R	RH			1
39	FW	R	LQ			1
40	FW	R	RA			1
41	DF	R	RA	RH		2
42	MD	L	LH			1
43	DF	R	RH	RA		2
44	MD	R	RH	LH		2
45	FW	L	LA	RH		2
46	DF	L	RA			1
<b>Total muscle injury</b>						<b>50</b>

NMIP: number of muscle injuries per players; DF: defenders; MD: midfielders; FW: forwards. R: right; L: left. LA: left adductor; RA: right adductor; LH: left hamstring; RH: right hamstring; LQ: left quadriceps; RQ: right quadriceps; LG: left gastrocnemius; RG: right gastrocnemius.

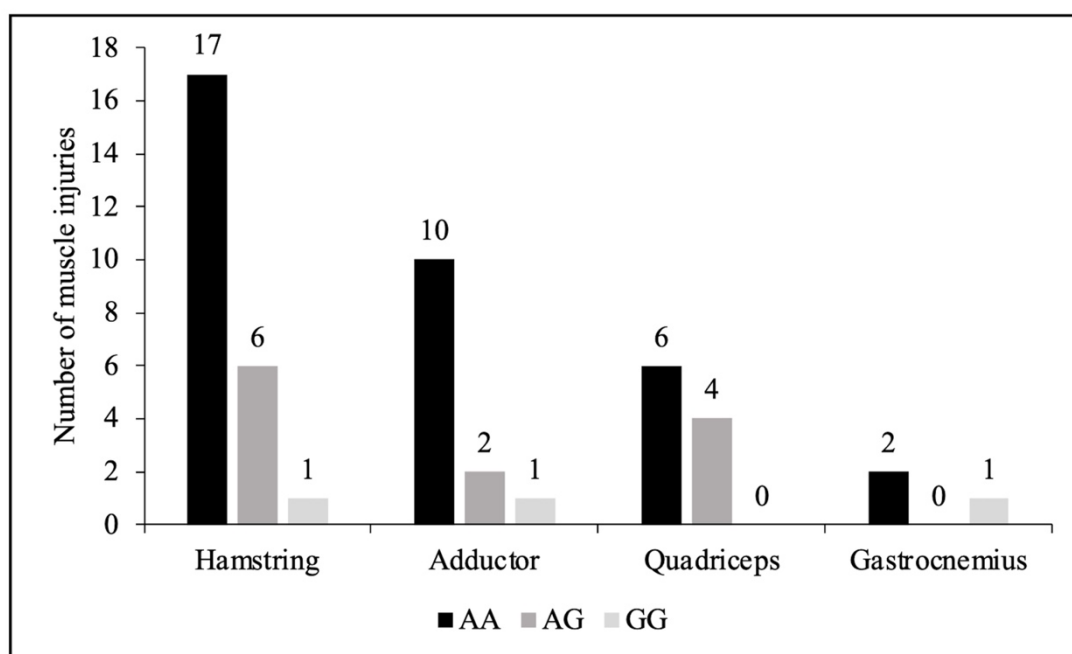
Table 4 showed the MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotype distribution based on the severity of muscle injuries resulting in absence from training sessions and matches during treatment and return to play.

Table 4 - MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes distribution based on the severity of muscle injuries

Degree of severity	Number of injuries	% of injuries	MuRF-1 genotype distribution		
			AA (%)	AG (%)	GG (%)
Mild (1 - 7 days)	4	8	2 (50.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)
Moderate (8 - 28 days)	21	42	14 (66.6)	5 (23.9)	2 (9.5)
Severe (> 28 days)	25	50	19 (76.0)	6 (24.0)	0 (0)

The anatomical locations of muscle injuries were organized as reported in Figure 2. Hamstring (48%) and adductor (26%) were quantitatively the main muscles in which soccer players suffered injuries followed by the Quadriceps (20%) and Gastrocnemius (6%).

Figure 2 - Muscle injury location in professional soccer players



## 5.5 Discussion

This study aimed to investigate whether MuRF-1/TRIM63 rs2275950 were associated with the occurrence of muscle injury in professional soccer players. The present findings indicated that the gene investigated was unable to impact the occurrence of muscle injuries. Some factors such as genes responsible for encoding soft-tissue structure and regulatory proteins are well-documented and can affect the susceptibility to muscle injury in power sports (athletics) and intermittent sports such as soccer (Lim et al., 2021; Murtagh et al., 2023). This gene investigated in isolation showed no significant association on muscle injuries. However, polygenic analysis may present results that explain the occurrence of muscle injuries in professional soccer players (Baumert et al., 2022; Maestro et al., 2022).

As the literature is scarce on research about MuRF-1/TRIM63 with muscle injuries in sports in general, the discussion described the physiological and structural aspects to explain the results of the study partially. Meanwhile, researchers conducted a study in a controlled environment with healthy and untrained individuals who showed incipient results associated with the MuRF-1/TRIM63 gene (Baumert et al., 2022; Stefanetti et al., 2014). Different responses to eccentric training could be observed by MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes in exercise-induced muscle damage biomarkers (Baumert et al., 2017). From these studies, a line of reasoning has emerged that the MuRF-1/TRIM63 gene may be associated with muscle injuries in samples of trained players of certain sports. Physical exercise can alter the gene expression of proteins related to the synthesis and degradation process (Baumert et al., 2022; Peris-Moreno et al., 2020). In addition, the protein MuRF-1 plays an important role in muscle protein turnover and net protein gain that is required for skeletal muscle adaptation process following acute and chronic exercise (Stefanetti et al., 2014). Training causes extracellular stress signals that lead to acute transient changes in intramuscular signaling, influencing the gene transcription and protein translation that participate in the repair and remodeling of skeletal muscle during the recovery periods between exercise sessions (Baumert et al., 2022; Lim et al., 2021).

Other studies have shown that increased expression of MuRF-1 after muscle damage can increase the ubiquitination process of damaged myofibrillar and sarcoplasmic proteins (Baehr et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2022), thus contributing to successful tissue repair promoting faster recovery. However, it is hypothesized that the restricted affinity of proteins (MuRF-1 and titin) could affect the interactions between the contractile and structural properties of muscle fibers, the muscle regeneration process and contribute to a less resistant muscle. This reduces its ability to withstand damaging eccentric actions and increases the susceptibility of the

soccer player to suffer more significant damage to the sarcomere structure at times of greater physical demand and mechanical overload during training and matches in the season (Larruskain et al., 2018; Pinheiro et al., 2022). In soccer, poorly controlled training combined with insufficient recovery between training sessions and matches can predispose players to muscle damage and possibly increase the risk of muscle injury if the overload is not adjusted (Murtagh et al., 2023; Uchamocha et al., 2024).

The aforementioned evidence may support our hypothesis that AA homozygotes could suffer fewer muscle injuries. Nevertheless, the results of the present study showed in percentage values that the AA genotype (70%) was the most affected by muscle injuries during the period investigated. One possible explanation is that some phenotypes may experience greater muscle damage and require longer recovery following strenuous exercise, while other players recover more quickly despite performing the same exercise at a relatively similar intensity (Baumert et al., 2022; McAuley et al., 2022). Another point that should be considered is the participation of other genes that express proteins essential in the repair and regeneration of muscle tissue, the composition and maintenance of the external matrix and genes that mediate the contractile and structural properties of muscle fibers that significantly influence the complex process involved in muscle injury (Lim et al., 2021). In summary, it should be noted that our results are inconclusive and further studies investigating the relationship between MuRF-1/TRIM63 and muscle injuries could contribute to a better understanding of this genetic polymorphism.

The present study recorded 50 muscle injuries, of which 8% were considered mild, 42% moderate, and 50% severe. When comparing this data with the literature, Larruskain et al. (2018) described a total of 160 muscle injuries were recorded as minimal (23%), mild (34%), moderate (34%) and severe (15%) over six seasons. Clos et al. (2019) found that of the 146 muscle injuries identified over seven seasons were mild (63%), moderate (34.9%) and severe (2.1%). Maestro et al. (2022) described a total of 121 injuries, 71 players had a non-contact injury. In terms of severity, there were slight (21.5%), mild (10.7%), moderate (46.3%) and severe (21.5%) over the 2021–2022 season. Therefore, the data from epidemiological studies in high-performance soccer indicated the prevalence of mild and moderate injuries. The results described do not corroborate the data from the present study, in which severe muscle injuries were the most common. These percentage differences may be due to the methodological design of each study, in which soccer players live in specific contexts and are subjected to different training and match loads (Pinheiro et al., 2022). Additional data revealed that even though muscle injuries represent a severe problem in soccer, it is observed

that the preventive models and risk factors existing in the literature are not yet sufficient to promote a significant reduction in the number of muscle injuries in soccer (Clos et al., 2019; Ekstrand et al., 2023). Therefore, there is evidence base supporting the integration of genetic information to help reduce muscle injury in soccer through individualized training programs based on a player's genetic predispositions (Lim et al., 2021; Maestro et al., 2022; Moya, 2021).

Some limitations must be considered in this study. The absence of other genetic biomarkers compromises a more comprehensive analysis of the main genetic interactions with muscle injury in soccer players. In addition, clubs did not provide general parameters for controlling training load. These data could be essential to understand the relationship between training and match exposures in developing muscle injuries according to the genetic polymorphism investigated. Past research has indicated higher risk of muscle injury incidence during certain moments within a season (Pineiro et al., 2022). Another point refers to the severity and recovery time of soccer players with muscle injuries, which can be influenced by aspects such as the history of injury, genetic profile, treatment strategies (Lim et al., 2021; Maestro et al., 2022), oral health (Uchamocha et al., 2024), playing positions, injured muscle site (Sinovas et al., 2020), physiological and psychological factors (Fagundes et al., 2019; Pineiro et al., 2022), that should be considered when analyzing the results of the present study. Moreover, the sample size was limited for genetic studies. Restricted access to professional players and the expensive cost of genetic studies can also be considered limiting factors (Murtagh et al., 2023). Therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution, and a larger sample size of soccer players is recommended so that we can make more compelling statements and robust statistical treatments to detect an association for future scientific debates.

However, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the association of the MuRF-1/TRIM63 gene with muscle injuries in professional soccer. This study presents new information that can be added to the sports science literature about the structural factors that may influence the association between a specific genetic polymorphism and muscle injuries in soccer players from different geographic ancestries.

We have provided preliminary results that the AA genotype might be potentially predisposition not only with a higher risk of non-contact muscle injuries, but also with a longer recovery time from these conditions to return to play. Genetics studies can help coaching staff, together with other information to identify players with a possible risk of muscle injury and, using this data, individualize preventive strategies, maximizing recovery

processes with the aim of contributing to lower muscle injuries in the sport and increase player availability for training and competitions. Finally, future research is recommended to investigate the association between genetic polymorphisms and physiological aspects in high performance, considering that the genotype-phenotype interaction and the environment influence the different mechanisms of muscle injuries in soccer.

## 5.6 Conclusion

In the present study, with Brazilian professional soccer players, it is determined that the MuRF-1/TRIM63 genotypes do not serve as an effective biomarker for assessing the connection between genetic factors and muscle injuries.

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## Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

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**6 ESTUDO 2 – ARE MUSCLE INJURY INCIDENCE AND ACTN3 R577X ASSOCIATED WITH PLAYING POSITIONS IN PROFESSIONAL SOCCER PLAYERS?**

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**Abstract: Purpose** This study aimed to investigate whether the muscle injury incidence rates differs according to playing positions, and to evaluate whether the muscle injury incidence rates differs among ACTN3 R577X genotypes in professional soccer players. **Methods** Forty-six Brazilian professional soccer players from first division were evaluated. Genomic DNA was extracted using blood samples, exposure time and semi-structured interviews on muscle injuries were applied over two seasons (2021-2022). **Results** During matches, wide midfielders exhibited a significantly higher muscle injury incidence rate compared to central defenders (WM vs. CD; 95% CI:  $0.00 \pm 43.00$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 493.42$ , respectively;  $p = 0.010$ ). Similarly, ACTN3 RR genotypes showed a significantly greater muscle injury incidence rate than ACTN3 XX genotypes (RR vs. XX; 95% CI:  $14.38 \pm 67.10$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 352.47$ , respectively;  $p = 0.016$ ). However, no significant differences in muscle injury incidence rates were observed between playing positions or ACTN3 R577X genotypes during training sessions. **Conclusion** Muscle injury incidence rates in professional soccer players from the same club were influenced by playing positions and genetic factors.

**Keywords** Football, genetic profile, playing position, muscle injury prevention, high performance.

## 6.2 Introduction

Muscle injuries are a significant concern for soccer players across all competition levels, leading to declines in performance and substantial financial losses [1, 2]. The analysis of the epidemiological data [3], and the genetic factors related to muscle injuries is essential to promote prevention strategies in soccer [4, 5]. Genetics has been identified as a crucial role in high-performance soccer, in which it is considered a key risk factor for muscle injuries [6, 7]. Research on genetic predisposition to muscle injuries has become relevant, with the ACTN3 gene emerging as a central focus for understanding susceptibility to muscle injury in soccer players [8-10].

The ACTN3 R577X polymorphism (rs1815739) influences the coding of alpha-actinin 3 which is a structural protein that integrates the Z-discs [11]. Alpha-actinin 3 is a protein responsible for establishing cross-links that stabilize and anchor actin filaments to maintain the myofibrillar array and regulate muscle length and tension during muscle contraction [12]. The ACTN3 R577X produces homozygous individuals for the R allele (RR genotype) and heterozygous individuals (RX genotype), both of whom express functional alpha-actinin 3 [13]. In contrast, there are individuals homozygous for the X allele (XX genotype) who exhibit a complete deficiency of alpha-actinin 3 [6]. Studies on these genotypes have demonstrated that specific ACTN3 variants are associated with differences in muscle composition and may impact athletic ability and susceptibility to muscle injuries in soccer [7-10].

Genotypes that express functional alpha-actinin 3 (RR and RX) have been associated with sports emphasizing strength, speed, and power abilities essential for performance in professional soccer [14, 15]. However, the deficiency of alpha-actinin 3 (XX) has been linked to endurance-based activities, presenting one of the differences found in this gene [13]. Research consistently underscores the role of alpha-actinin 3 in muscle injuries in soccer [1, 7, 16]. This protein functions as a protective factor, mediating the involvement of type II fast-twitch muscle fibers during physical exercises requiring explosive contractions [6, 17].

Research in soccer suggests that the RR genotype may benefit musculoskeletal tissue by enhancing muscle contractions aimed at strength and providing a particular advantage in physical performance for acyclic sports focused on speed and power [9, 14, 15]. However, the absence of alpha-actinin 3 reduces protection against muscle damage induced by eccentric training and limits intracellular signaling pathways essential for tissue repair, thus impairing recovery after exercise [13, 17, 18]. Prior studies have shown that ACTN3 XX soccer players are at a higher risk of non-contact muscle injuries compared to RR and RX soccer players [1,

10, 16]. Additionally, a study of 315 Spanish first-division players found that the ACTN3 XX genotype was linked to lower match-running performance and a higher incidence of non-contact injuries [6]. Considering the relationship between genetic and environmental factors in muscle injury susceptibility in soccer, it is plausible that this interaction is influenced by playing position.

Playing position encompasses tactical [19, 20], technical [21], physical [22, 23] and psychological [24] demands, which, along with genetic factors, may contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of injury processes in soccer [5, 7-9]. Playing position has a significant impact on physical performance variables [22, 23, 25]. A recent systematic review showed differences in the demands on players across playing positions in soccer [21]. Analysis of muscle injuries by playing position has shown that the incidence, type, location, and severity of injuries differ among soccer players [4, 10, 26]. Moreover, central defenders have a higher incidence rate of general and soft tissue injuries compared to lateral defenders [27]. When playing positions were assessed based on the distribution of genotypes and alleles related to ACTN3 R577X in soccer, significant differences in allele distribution were observed for defenders and midfielders when compared with midfielders and forwards [28]. Collectively, these findings suggest that genetic factors may relate to playing position and, consequently, influence muscle injury susceptibility. However, to the best of our knowledge, few studies have explored the association between genetic factors and playing position in the context of muscle injury occurrence in professional soccer.

Therefore, there is a clear lack of information regarding the influence of genetic and environmental factors combined with playing position on the incidence of muscle injuries, highlighting the need to update the current evidence on this topic. This study provides insights for clinical practice and sports training to identify players at higher risk of muscle injury. The aims of the study were, (I) to investigate whether the muscle injury incidence rates differs according to playing positions, and (II) to evaluate whether the muscle injury incidence rates differs among ACTN3 R577X genotypes in professional soccer players.

## 6.3 Methods

### 6.3.1 Participants

A total of 46 male Brazilian professional soccer players from the first division participated in this study (mean  $\pm$  SD, age:  $21.3 \pm 1.14$  years, body mass  $73.7 \pm 6.41$  kg, height  $179.0 \pm 6.50$  cm). As inclusion criteria, the individuals assessed had to be male soccer players with a contract with the first team, who participated in training and matches at the

same club and performed regular exercise training of > 1 hour per day, > 5 days per week for the prior 1 year and, only non-contact muscle injuries sustained during the investigated seasons (2021-2022) were analyzed. Exclusion criteria were any other type of injuries.

Written informed consent was obtained from each player after they were informed about the advantages and potential risks. The study was performed following the ethical standards of the Helsinki Declaration and approved by the Research Ethics Committee (COEP-UFGM; No. 5.764.810).

### 6.3.2 Study procedures

This is a retrospective and case study. The data was obtained at the club's training center in three steps. Firstly, the venipuncture for DNA was collected by the club physician [29]. Secondly, the club's physiologist carried out the physical assessment [30]. Finally, the script for the semi-structured interview for muscle injuries analysis followed the same procedures adopted in a previous study [4]. The data were transferred to a computer spreadsheet for organization, systematization, and analysis.

### 6.3.3 DNA sample collecting

Approximately 4 ml of blood was extracted from the antecubital arm vein of each participant using EDTA tubes (BD Vacutainer<sup>®</sup>, Brazil). Genomic DNA was extracted from 500 µl of whole blood using the salting out method [31]. The quality and integrity of the samples were tested by spectrophotometry (Nanodrop<sup>®</sup>, Thermo Fisher Scientific-GE, USA). Genotyping for ACTN3 R577X was performed by polymerase chain reaction method (PCR) based on a previous study [18]. To determine the polymorphism of the ACTN3 R577X gene (rs1815739), the site of interest was amplified from the genomic DNA using the following primers sequence: direct 5'-CTGTTGCCTGTGGTAAGTGGG-3' and reverse 5'-TGGTCACAGTATGCAGGAGGG-3' (Applied Biosystems<sup>®</sup>, USA). Allele discrimination was performed using a genomic sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems<sup>®</sup> Steponeplus<sup>™</sup> Real-Time PCR System, USA). In each qPCR plate, 10-15 ng of DNA (1 µL) was pipetted in addition to 12.5 µL of genotyping master mix (TaqMan Genotyping Master Mix<sup>®</sup> - 2×), 1.3 µL of specific primers and probes (TaqMan Genotyping Assay Mix<sup>®</sup> - 20×) and 11.2 µL of DNase and RNase free water, totaling a final volume of 25 µL for each sample. The amplification process started with denaturation at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 15 seconds, and the cycle of 60 seconds at 60°C.

#### 6.3.4 Physical assessment

Body mass, height and skinfolds were measured to characterize the sample. Body mass (kg) and height (cm) were evaluated using a digital scale (Filizola®). Skinfolds were measured using a plicometer (Lange®) according to the protocol proposed [30].

#### 6.3.5 Muscle Injuries data collection

The design of the semi-structured interview was based on the international consensus statement on injury definitions and data collection in epidemiological studies in soccer [32, 33]. The muscle injury should present structural-mechanical damage, such as partial or total muscle tears [34]. The muscle injuries sustained during a match or training exposure were registered by the team medical staff [8]. The medical staff evaluated the context and mechanism of injury occurrence. Muscle injuries were classified as non-contact based on detailed clinical examinations and interviews with players, focusing on the absence of external trauma or direct interaction with other players [4, 26]. The medical staff described the injury report form based on the diagnosis of muscle injury [32]. In all cases, the diagnosis was supported by ultrasound and/or magnetic resonance imaging [29]. The data obtained from the players through the semi-structured interview and the data collected from the club's medical department (injury report form) complemented the final document [4, 26].

#### 6.3.6 Exposure times and Playing position

Individual player exposure was recorded by the club over the 2021/2022 seasons. The attendance record included information about the duration in minutes for each exposure (including training and match play). Three injury measures were analyzed for muscle injuries during training and matches: (I) injury incidence, expressed as the number of injuries per 1000 hours of exposure, (II) injury severity, defined as the average number of days of absence, and (III) injury burden, calculated as the sum of lay-off days caused by muscle injury per 1000 hours of exposure [32, 33]. The total number of matches played was recorded based on the players' total minutes on the field [8]. Playing positions were categorized into central defenders (n = 7), fullbacks (n = 8), central midfielders (n = 6), wide midfielders (n = 10), and forwards (n = 15) based on a systematic review [21].

### 6.3.7 Statistical analysis

The normality of each variable was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test, and appropriate statistical analyses (parametric) were applied. Descriptive statistics were conducted using mean and standard deviation. In inferential analyses, genotype and playing positions comparisons were performed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's post hoc comparisons. Cohen's effect size (ES) was used to assess practical differences between groups [35]. Thresholds for ES statistics were  $< 0.2$ , trivial;  $0.2 \leq ES < 0.6$ , small;  $0.6 \leq ES < 1.2$ , moderate;  $1.2 \leq ES < 2.0$ , large;  $2.0 \leq ES < 4.0$ , very large; and  $ES \geq 4.0$ , extremely large [36]. A Chi-Square test ( $\chi^2$ ) test was used to verify that genotype frequencies were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE). Injury incidence rates (IIRs) were calculated with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) based on Poisson distributions. The Exact Poisson test was used to compare incidence rates between groups. The level of statistical significance adopted was  $p < 0.05$ . The data was analyzed using Jamovi software (Version 2.3, 2022).

## 6.4 Results

The ACTN3 R577X genotype distribution was in HWE ( $\chi^2 = 0.41$ ;  $p = 0.811$ ), and the allele frequencies were 0.61 and 0.39 for the R and X alleles, respectively. The frequency of the RX genotype was significantly higher than the RR and XX genotypes in Brazilian soccer players ( $\chi^2 = 10.60$ ;  $p < 0.005$ ). Table 1 depicts the characteristics of the ACTN3 R577X and playing position. The weight of central defenders was significantly higher than fullbacks (ES = 1.78;  $p = 0.004$ ), wide midfielders (ES = 2.50;  $p < 0.001$ ) and forwards (ES = 2.14;  $p < 0.001$ ). The weight of central midfielders revealed statistically significant differences among the wide midfielders (ES = 1.75;  $p = 0.030$ ). The height of the central defenders resulted in significant differences from other playing positions such as fullbacks (ES = 3.01;  $p < 0.001$ ), central midfielders (ES = 2.17;  $p = 0.007$ ), wide midfielders (ES = 4.78;  $p < 0.001$ ) and forwards (ES = 3.13;  $p < 0.001$ ). The height of central midfielders showed statistically significant differences than wide midfielders (ES = 1.72;  $p = 0.028$ ). The central defenders had significantly more training exposure time compared to wide midfielder (ES = 2.65;  $p = 0.005$ ) and forwards (ES = 1.43;  $p = 0.044$ ). Wide midfielders played a significantly higher total number of matches compared to central defenders (ES = 1.81;  $p = 0.023$ ). Similarly, players with the ACTN3 RR participated in significantly more matches than those with the ACTN3 XX genotype (ES = 1.15;  $p = 0.033$ ).

Table 1 - Subjects' characteristics according to the ACTN3 R577X and playing position

Variables	Genotype distribution				Playing position					<i>p</i> -value
	RR	RX	XX	<i>p</i> -value	CD	FB	CM	WM	FW	
Age (years)	21.18 ± 1.11	21.28 ± 1.18	21.49 ± 1.18	0.859	21.44 ± 0.95	20.64 ± 1.33	21.72 ± 0.91	21.14 ± 0.97	21.43 ± 1.27	0.514
Weight (kg)	73.84 ± 6.93	73.71 ± 6.38	73.07 ± 6.12	0.968	82.30 ± 5.60	72.56 ± 5.37	77.40 ± 4.01	69.59 ± 4.70	71.47 ± 4.82	0.001*
Height (cm)	177.91 ± 5.43	179.30 ± 7.25	177.98 ± 6.72	0.784	189.43 ± 2.96	178.72 ± 4.01	180.97 ± 4.78	174.28 ± 3.30	175.55 ± 4.93	0.001*
Body fat (%)	10.43 ± 2.27	9.83 ± 2.32	10.24 ± 2.31	0.721	10.64 ± 2.57	10.36 ± 2.58	9.91 ± 2.29	10.83 ± 1.87	9.27 ± 2.21	0.483
Experience (years)	8.19 ± 1.64	8.33 ± 2.01	9.67 ± 0.81	0.196	7.43 ± 2.07	9.50 ± 1.51	7.83 ± 1.94	8.80 ± 1.61	8.40 ± 1.76	0.270
MET (hours)	38.50 ± 20.30	23.30 ± 17.30	17.00 ± 26.40	0.083	18.10 ± 12.80	29.50 ± 27.20	25.80 ± 14.60	38.90 ± 24.00	25.00 ± 18.00	0.356
TET (hours)	425.00 ± 54.00	461.00 ± 63.50	500.00 ± 72.10	0.066	519.00 ± 46.50	458.00 ± 79.30	469.00 ± 64.90	412.00 ± 33.10	442.00 ± 60.40	0.003*
TMP (a.u)	37.10 ± 16.80	23.80 ± 15.90	15.70 ± 23.40	0.050*	12.40 ± 9.85	26.90 ± 21.70	25.80 ± 14.90	39.50 ± 18.80	27.10 ± 17.40	0.021*

Variables are expressed as a mean ± standard deviation (M ± SD). Playing position: CD (central defenders), FB (fullbacks), CM (central midfielders), WM (wide midfielders) and FW (forwards). MET (Match exposure time), TET (Training exposure time), TMP (Total match played), a.u = arbitrary units. \*  $p \leq 0.05$ .

Table 2 presents the results of analyses conducted over two seasons (2021-2022) with one professional soccer team. During this period, a total of 50 muscle injuries were reported over 1,237.72 hours of match exposure and 20,868.07 hours of training exposure, representing a total muscle injury incidence of 2.26/1000 hours (95% CI: 1.67 - 2.94). Most of the reported muscle injuries occurred during training (33 training injuries and 17 match injuries).

Table 2 - Descriptive data of muscle injuries in professional soccer players

	Training	Matches
Injury incidence		
Muscle injury incidence, injuries per 1000 hours of exposure (95% CI)	1.58 (1.04 - 2.12)	13.73 (7.21 - 20.26)
Injury severity		
Muscle injury severity, average days absence (SD)	10.82 (7.70)	15.00 (8.62)
Injury burden		
Muscle injury burden, days absence per 1000 hours of exposure	17.11 (15.33 - 18.88)	206.02 (180.74 - 231.31)

Table 3 shows the comparison of muscle injury incidence rates across playing positions. During matches, wide midfielders experienced significantly more muscle injuries incidence rates than central defenders (WM vs. CD; 95% CI:  $0.00 \pm 43.00$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 493.42$ , respectively;  $p = 0.010$ ). However, no significant differences were observed between playing positions during training sessions. Central midfielders were excluded from the analysis as they did not sustain any muscle injuries during the team's official matches over the seasons.

Table 3 - Muscle injury incidence rates per playing positions in professional soccer players

During training				During matches			
Positions	IIR per 1000 hours	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value	Positions	IIR per 1000 hours	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value
FB	4.00	1.78 - 6.66		FB	122.67	40.89 - 224.90	
CD	2.64	0.66 - 5.28		CD	164.47	0.00 - 493.42	
CM	2.41	0.00 - 5.62		CM	-	-	
WM	5.83	1.66 - 10.82		WM	17.20	0.00 - 43.00	
FW	2.79	1.12 - 4.75		FW	57.81	21.68 - 101.17	
FB vs. CD			0.599	FB vs. CD			0.181
FB vs. CM			0.618	FB vs. WM			0.422
FB vs. WM			0.199	FB vs. FW			0.078
FB vs. FW			0.205	CD vs. WM			0.010*
CD vs. CM			0.388	CD vs. FW			0.056
CD vs. WM			0.535	WM vs. FW			0.833
CD vs. FW			0.403				
CM vs. WM			0.722				
CM vs. FW			0.432				
WM vs. FW			0.069				

Playing position: FB (fullbacks), CD (central defenders), CM (central midfielders), WM (wide midfielders) and FW (forwards). IIR (Injury Incidence Rate). \*  $p \leq 0.05$ .

Table 4 displays the comparison of muscle injury incidence rates across ACTN3 R577X genotypes. During matches, ACTN3 RR exhibited a significantly higher muscle injury incidence rates than ACTN3 XX (RR vs. XX; 95% CI:  $14.38 \pm 67.10$  vs.  $0.00 \pm 352.47$ , respectively;  $p = 0.016$ ). However, no significant differences were observed between ACTN3 R577X genotypes during training sessions.

Table 4 - Muscle injury incidence rates per ACTN3 R577X in professional soccer players

During training				During matches			
Genotypes	IIR per 1000 hours	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value	Genotypes	IIR per 1000 hours	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value
RR	4.57	2.08 - 7.48		RR	38.34	14.38 - 67.10	
RX	3.10	1.86 - 4.50		RX	73.95	24.65 - 135.57	
XX	2.14	0.00 - 5.35		XX	151.06	0.00 - 352.47	
RR vs. RX			0.145	RR vs. RX			0.102
RR vs. XX			0.703	RR vs. XX			0.016*
RX vs. XX			0.527	RX vs. XX			0.103

IIR (Injury Incidence Rate). \*  $p \leq 0.05$ .

Table 5 presents the characteristics of muscle injuries among professional soccer players. A total of 46 players were analyzed, 32 of whom (69.6%) sustained muscle injuries, while 14 (30.4%) did not. According to playing position, fullbacks accounted for 30% of muscle injuries, central defenders 10%, central midfielders 6%, wide midfielders 18%, and forwards 36% over two seasons. Regarding ACTN3 R577X genotypes, RR sustained 19 injuries (38%), RX had 26 injuries (52%), and XX suffered five injuries (10%).

Table 5 - Description of muscle injuries in professional soccer players

Players	Genotypes	Position	Dominat leg	Location			NMIP
				1 injury	2 injury	3 injury	
2	RR	WM	L	LA	RQ	LQ	3
3	RX	FB	R	RA	RH		2
4	RR	FB	R	RA	RG	LG	3
5	RR	FB	L	LA	RQ		2
7	RX	FW	R	LG			1
8	RR	FW	L	LH			1
10	RX	CD	R	LH			1
12	RR	CD	R	LH			1
15	RX	FB	L	LH			1
16	RX	CD	L	RH			1
17	RX	FW	L	LA			1
19	RX	WM	L	LQ			1
20	XX	FW	R	RH			1
22	RR	FW	L	RH			1
25	RX	FW	R	RH	LH		2
28	RX	FW	R	RH	RA		2
29	RX	CM	R	RH			1
30	RX	FW	R	RH	LH	RQ	3
31	RX	CD	R	RH	LH		2
32	RR	FW	R	LA	RQ		2
34	XX	WM	R	RQ			1
35	RX	FB	R	RQ	LQ		2
37	RR	WM	R	LH	RA		2
38	RR	CM	R	RH			1
39	RX	FW	R	LQ			1
40	XX	FW	R	RA			1
41	RX	FB	R	RA	RH		2
42	RX	CM	L	LH			1
43	XX	FB	R	RH	RA		2
44	RX	WM	R	RH	LH		2
45	RR	FW	L	LA	RH		2
46	RR	FB	L	RA			1
Total muscle injuries							50

NMIP (number of muscle injuries per players), FB (fullbacks), CD (central defenders), CM (central midfielders), WM (wide midfielders), FW (forwards), R (right), L (left), LA (left adductor), RA (right adductor), LH (left hamstring), RH (right hamstring), LQ (left quadriceps), RQ (right quadriceps), LG (left gastrocnemius), RG (right gastrocnemius).

## 6.5 Discussion

In the current study, we investigated the muscle injury incidence rates according to playing positions and evaluated whether the injury incidence rates differed among ACTN3 R577X genotypes in professional soccer players. The main findings demonstrated significant variations in injury incidence during matches, with wide midfielders showing a higher muscle injury incidence rate compared to central defenders. Furthermore, players with the ACTN3 RR genotype exhibited a significant greater muscle injury incidence rate than those with the ACTN3 XX during matches. These findings emphasize the combined influence of positional demands and genetic predispositions on muscle injury risks. However, no significant differences in muscle injury incidence rates were observed between playing positions or ACTN3 R577X genotypes during training sessions, suggesting that match-specific factors may play a critical role in injury susceptibility.

In this study, wide midfielders participated in a significantly higher number of official matches than central defenders during the analyzed seasons. This match exposure time may partially explain the direct relationship between playing positions and muscle injuries incidence rates. While central defenders occasionally contribute to offensive plays, their primary role remains focused on defensive actions, with limited involvement in transitions [21, 27]. In contrast, wide midfielders have extensive tactical responsibilities, actively participating in both offensive and defensive transitions during matches [20, 37]. These roles often require wide midfielders to support the wide corridors or advance up the field to create numerical superiority in the attacking sector [37, 38], breaking through defensive lines to create passing options during moments of offensive transition and organization [19, 20]. Additionally, these players assume crucial defensive responsibilities during the team's transitions and defensive organization, further amplifying their physical demands [22, 37, 38]. In the technical context, wide midfielders consistently perform repeated actions such as passes, crosses, and goal attempts during training sessions and matches [20, 21]. These repetitive mechanical load imposes strain on specific muscle groups, potentially leading to overuse injuries [4, 26]. The continuous tactical and technical demands inherent to this position expose players to risk factors that may consequently increase the incidence of muscle injuries in professional soccer [27, 39].

Regarding the physical demands during matches, wide midfielders are subjected to extensive mechanical stress during contractile activities such as aerial duels, accelerations, decelerations, and rapid changes of direction [20]. These actions exert a high mechanical

overload on specific muscle groups, contributing to their vulnerability to injuries [21, 37, 40]. Wide midfielders face significantly greater physical demands compared to central defenders, which may explain their higher susceptibility to muscle injuries. Studies have shown that wide midfielders cover greater total distances and high-speed running distances during matches, often exceeding speeds of 20 km/h, while frequently performing sprints at higher intensities [20-23, 38]. The amount of sprinting during a match is one of several playing demands in professional soccer that induce muscle damage and may influence the risk of muscle injuries in certain playing positions [16, 27, 39]. Moreover, repeated sprint ability within the same match [40], combined with limited recovery between explosive efforts, may increase the risk of muscle injuries in soccer players [2, 6]. Previous studies indicate that the combination of explosive and frequent movements, associated with the need to cover long distances in short time intervals contributes to fatigue, one of the main predisposing factors to muscle injuries [39]. The unbalanced workload management combined with a long-congested fixture period are critical factors that influence the incidence of muscle injuries due to overload and fatigue accumulation [2, 39]. These findings suggest the need for position-specific preventive measures to mitigate the risk of muscle injuries.

The physical demands of different playing positions may be influenced by the ACTN3 gene [6, 10, 28]. The results of the present study indicated that players with the ACTN3 RR exhibited a higher muscle injury incidence rate during matches compared to those with the ACTN3 XX genotype. Notably, ACTN3 RR players performed a significantly higher number of matches than ACTN3 XX players, which may have contributed to the increased incidence of muscle injuries observed in this sample. In contrast, previous studies have reported significant differences in muscle injury incidence among soccer players with different ACTN3 genotypes, showing that the RR genotype is associated with a lower incidence of muscle injuries compared to the RX and XX genotypes [1, 7]. The ACTN3 XX genotype may be more likely to suffer exercise-induced muscle damage, which may influence the frequency and severity of muscle injury compared to the RR and RX genotypes [10, 17]. These data indicate that soccer players carrying the X allele were more likely to suffer more severe muscle injuries when compared to the ACTN3 RR players [10, 13]. The current analysis reflects that the complete deficiency of alpha-actinin 3 in the XX genotype can negatively affect sports performance [1, 15]. The absence of alpha-actinin 3 may decrease the stiffness of type IIa muscle fibers and alter the structural properties which consequently increases the susceptibility to muscle injury in the ACTN3 XX genotype [7, 16]. Evidence suggests that individuals with a deficiency of this protein showed reduced protein synthesis and altered

intracellular signaling pathways that act in tissue repair and may compromise muscle recovery after physical exercise [5, 13]. Studies have demonstrated that the muscle performance of the ACTN3 gene differs between genotypes [6, 9], and RX individuals may be better adapted to the demands of physical effort required during soccer practice [28].

Indeed, based on the available evidence, RX is the most prevalent genotype among professional soccer players [6, 8, 10, 14]. These findings corroborate the results of the present study, in which 52.2% of the players had the RX genotype, followed by the RR genotype with 34.8% of the individuals who are associated with the explosive muscle performance phenotype required in soccer [14, 28]. In contrast, the XX genotype is less frequent among professional soccer players, comprising 13.0% of the subjects in this study, and is theoretically less suited to the high-intensity explosive actions that frequently occur in soccer [13, 18]. Thus, players with the XX genotype were involved in a lower number of sprint actions during official matches, and they were unable to sustain these sprint efforts for a similar time to RR players [6]. An alternative hypothesis suggests that the XX genotype could provide players with superior aerobic capacity and metabolic efficiency to compensate for their low sprint-power performance in professional soccer.

Previous studies have identified a genetic connection to power-speed performance in soccer players' positions, in which the ACTN3 gene showed a significant influence on these conditions [1, 6]. Researchers evidenced that ACTN3 XX defenders had lower isokinetic strength in the quadriceps and hamstrings compared to the RX and RR genotypes, while ACTN3 RR defenders had higher quadriceps strength than RX genotypes [14]. These results reinforce the influence of the ACTN3 gene on physical performance attributes across different playing positions in soccer, indicating that position-specific training could be an effective strategy to optimize performance. Furthermore, research has shown that goalkeepers, central defenders and central midfielders had a significantly different allele distribution compared with wide midfielders and forward players [28]. This variation may reflect the distinct physical demands of each playing position, suggesting the prevalence of certain alleles may be more evident for specific positions in soccer. The 577R allele is found more frequently in individuals who engage in explosive, high-intensity activities [14, 15], while the 577X allele is more common among those participating in endurance-based activities [13]. Specifically, the 577R allele seems to show a protective effect against muscle injuries in professional soccer players [7]. In contrast, the 577X allele shows increased muscle damage after eccentric exercise [18], and reduced capacity to resist muscle strain during acute eccentric or repeated

concentric contractions [13]. Thus, the distribution of R and X allele frequencies may influence athletic performance and vulnerability to muscle injuries in soccer players.

Some limitations must be considered in this study. The absence of other genetic polymorphisms limits a more comprehensive analysis of the effects of genetic interactions on muscle injury and playing position. In addition, the club did not provide all the general parameters for monitoring training load, so the training exposure time was estimated. Some aspects can influence the occurrence of muscle injury, such as the previous injury and genetic profile [5, 8], recovery strategies [10], age [3], physical [6, 22] and psychological factors [24, 41] that should be considered when analyzing the results of the present study. Moreover, the sample size of soccer players was also limited for genetic studies. Future research in larger cohorts is needed to confirm this preliminary hypothesis. Last, the restricted access to professional players and the expensive cost of genetic studies can also be considered limiting factors [4].

However, this is the first study to investigate the role of genetics in male South American professional soccer players, examining the relationship between playing positions and the muscle injury incidence rates. Finally, future research should investigate the association between polygenic profiles, physiological metrics, and playing positions in high-performance contexts, considering that variations in physical abilities and muscle tissue characteristics are influenced by different genotypes.

## 6.6 Conclusion

This study demonstrated that muscle injury incidence rates in professional soccer is influenced by playing positions and genetic factors, as observed among Brazilian soccer players from the same club. These findings contribute to the sports science literature by providing insights into specific playing positions and genotypes associated with significantly higher muscle injury incidence rates during matches. Based on these results, we emphasize the importance of implementing position-specific training protocols to improve performance, rather than relying on generalized, non-specific approaches. Implementing individualized preventive strategies and optimizing recovery processes are effective methods to reduce the incidence of muscle injuries in soccer.

## 6.7 References

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**7 ESTUDO 3 – EFFECTS OF PHYSICAL EXERCISE ON MURF-1/*TRIM63* MRNA EXPRESSION IN HUMANS: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW**

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**Abstract:** Background/Objectives: Muscle-specific RING finger protein 1 (MuRF-1) is a pivotal regulator of muscle protein breakdown, an essential process for post-exercise muscle adaptation. This systematic review aimed to evaluate the effects of physical exercise on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in humans. Methods: A literature search was conducted in PubMed, Scopus, Cochrane Library, Google Scholar, and Web of Science following the PRISMA guidelines. The search was limited to studies published from 1 January 2001 to 1 December 2024. The inclusion and exclusion criteria were defined using the PICOS strategy. Two investigators independently performed the study selection, data extraction, and assessment of methodological quality, with any disagreements resolved by a third investigator. The PEDro scale was used to evaluate the risk of bias. Results: Forty-six studies met the eligibility criteria and were included. The findings evidenced that physical exercise significantly modulates MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in humans. Resistance exercise induces transient increases, typically peaking between 1 and 4 h, whereas endurance exercise elicits similar responses within 40 min to 4 h post-exercise. Combined exercise protocols that include resistance and endurance exercises significantly increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 3 h post-exercise. The effects of physical exercise on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression are influenced by factors such as exercise order, intensity, contraction mode, age, sex, and fitness level. Conclusions: This systematic review shows that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression is significantly modulated by physical exercise in humans and is sensitive to different exercise modalities. These findings suggest that this key protein involved in muscle protein breakdown and turnover is essential for exercise-induced adaptations, contributing to skeletal muscle recovery and remodeling after exercise.

**Keywords:** MuRF-1/TRIM63, Muscle protein degradation, Physical performance, Gene expression, Human skeletal muscle signaling.

## 7.2 Introduction

Muscle-specific RING finger protein 1 (MuRF-1), encoded by the human tripartite motif containing 63 (*TRIM63* rs2275950) gene, was initially identified by Centner et al. [1] as a myofibrillar protein with a potential role in regulating the kinase domain of titin, a large sarcomeric protein [2]. Subsequently, MuRF-1 was investigated by a group of researchers who identified its E3-ubiquitin ligase activity, suggesting the involvement of this protein in skeletal muscle atrophy [3]. Since then, studies have been performed to elucidate this specific gene's function, signaling pathways, and regulatory mechanisms, which are not restricted to atrophy processes but may also be important for muscle protein turnover and exercise-induced adaptation [4–6]. Studies have demonstrated that MuRF-1 plays a vital role in muscle protein breakdown through the ubiquitin–proteasome system (UPS), a critical process for post-exercise muscle adaptation [6,7]. The UPS is a vital proteolytic pathway involved in catabolic processes (e.g., skeletal muscle atrophy) that are characteristic of various diseases and the negative consequences of treatments and life prognoses in patients [8,9].

In healthy individuals, muscle mass and, consequently, muscle protein turnover are a continuous cellular process regulated by the balance between muscle protein synthesis (MPS) and muscle protein breakdown (MPB) [10,11]. After exercise, there is a rapid and transient increase in MPS [12]. However, MPB also increases after exercise, with a shorter duration than MPS [10–13]. In this process, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression may increase UPS activity and influence adaptive outcomes of the transcriptome to regulate physiological demands [6]. Physical exercise modulates the gene expression of proteins involved in the synthesis and degradation pathways, contributing to muscle adaptation processes [10]. MuRF-1 plays a pivotal role in muscle protein turnover and net protein balance, which are critical for skeletal muscle adaptation to acute and chronic exercise [11,12]. Exercise-induced extracellular stress signals trigger transient changes in intramuscular signaling, leading to gene transcription and protein translation alterations. These processes facilitate muscle repair and remodeling, particularly during recovery periods between exercise sessions [6,14]. Muscle remodeling occurs in response to the demands imposed by exercise and is mediated by an individual's genetic profile [15]. Thus, gathering information about MuRF-1's involvement in the proteolysis process will provide further insight into the molecular mechanisms underlying muscle responses and adaptation to physical exercise. This allows for a deeper examination of the influence of acute and chronic training variables and how manipulations affect intramuscular adaptations and MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression.

Most of the available studies describe the various pathological and physiological conditions to which MuRF-1 has been linked. While some studies focus on health conditions, such as skeletal muscle atrophy [3,16], cardiomyopathies [17], and immune-mediated necrotizing myopathy [18], other investigations specifically examine the relationship between MuRF-1 and exercise-induced muscle damage [19] or muscle injury occurrence in athletes [20]. A previous literature review summarized the data on MuRF-1 obtained over the last 20 years [4]. The findings highlighted its various identified functions, structure, localization, and the mechanisms of regulation and signaling. Regarding systematic reviews, one study focused on various pathological models that altered MuRF-1 gene expression in mice [21]. Another review discussed the impact of training combined with whey protein supplementation on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in murine models [22]. The focus of the systematic reviews mentioned was animal studies, which may result in a limited understanding, as these studies evaluated the response of MuRF-1 under physiological conditions and pathological states. Pathologies impair physiological processes and can alter an organism's functional, structural, and biochemical responses [4,18].

It is, therefore, important to elucidate the effects of physical exercise on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in healthy individuals to understand the exercise response at the molecular level and its influence on skeletal muscle. Previous studies have not sufficiently addressed the responses of MuRF-1 to different exercise regimens in healthy populations, particularly in relation to distinct exercise modalities. Resistance exercise induces transient spikes in MuRF-1 expression associated with acute muscle repair and remodeling [10,12], while endurance exercise promotes sustained responses linked to metabolic adaptations and protein turnover [11]. Combined protocols result in interactions influenced by exercise sequence and intensity [11,12]. These results demonstrate the regulatory effects of different exercise modalities on MuRF-1 expression, emphasizing its role in muscle mass regulation and adaptation in humans. Therefore, the merit of this systematic review was focused on experimental studies that describe the molecular mechanisms influencing muscle protein breakdown and turnover processes in response to the effects of exercise in different populations. This review sought to provide insights that support the maintenance of skeletal muscle integrity during the recovery process following physical exercise in humans. To date, no systematic reviews have been identified that evaluated studies investigating the specific effects of physical exercise on the regulation and expression of MuRF-1 in healthy humans.

The evidence on the effects of acute and chronic physical exercise is limited, representing a prerequisite to understand the consequences of changes in MuRF-1, such as

intracellular signaling, gene transcription, and protein translation in humans. Therefore, a systematic review of studies that used different physical exercise protocols to assess their isolated responses and subsequent post-exercise time course effects on MuRF-1 is needed to advance the current state of evidence on this topic. This systematic review aimed to evaluate the effects of physical exercise on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in humans.

### 7.3 Materials and Methods

#### 7.3.1 Study Design

This systematic review followed the Cochrane guidelines [23] and was conducted according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement [24,25] (Supplementary File S1: PRISMA checklist). The study protocol was registered in the PROSPERO database (CRD42024611778).

#### 7.3.2 Eligibility Criteria

A comprehensive search of the literature conducted in PubMed, Scopus, Cochrane Library, Google Scholar, and Web of Science was performed from 1 January 2001 to 1 December 2024. The search strategy included Medical Subject Heading (MeSH) terms, free words, and Boolean operators. The search terms included the following: (muscle ring finger protein 1 OR MuRF-1 OR *TRIM63* OR atrogenes OR proteolytic gene expression) AND (physical exercise OR endurance training OR endurance exercise OR resistance training OR resistance exercise) AND (human skeletal muscle OR humans OR men OR women). The search strategies for each database can be viewed in Supplementary Table S2. In addition, references cited in the retrieved studies were also screened manually to identify additional eligible articles. Two independent investigators (L.H.S.F. and E.M.P.) reviewed titles and abstracts and verified potential full texts. Studies were included if they fulfilled our eligibility criteria. Disagreements between investigators were resolved by a third investigator (V.T.d.C.).

#### 7.3.3 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

This systematic review was conducted according to the Population, Intervention, Comparison, Outcomes, and Study (PICOS) design strategy [26]:

1. Population: Studies included human participants aged 18 years or older who were classified as healthy, regardless of whether they were trained or untrained.

2. Intervention: Physical exercise protocols, including resistance training, endurance training, or a combination of both.
3. Comparator: Comparisons focused on the effects of resistance training, endurance training, or combined protocols on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression, stratified by participants' fitness levels.
4. Outcome: The primary outcome was the effects of physical exercise on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in human skeletal muscle.
5. Study design: Eligible studies included randomized controlled trials (RCTs), longitudinal, within-subject, crossover, and cross-sectional designs. Eligible articles needed to be written in English.

The following studies were excluded: (I) studies involving participants with any diagnosed medical condition (e.g., cancer) or musculoskeletal disorder limiting their physical performance, (II) studies implementing rehabilitation protocols, (III) studies involving blood-flow-restricted exercise, (IV) studies using hormonal and drug treatments, (V) in vitro or in vivo studies assessing animal models, (VI) studies including supplementation (e.g., whey protein), and (VII) studies without an experimental design, such as clinical reports, books, reviews, editorial letters, and conference abstracts.

#### 7.3.4 Data Extraction

Two investigators (L.H.S.F. and E.M.P.) extracted the individual characteristics and outcome data from the included trials. Disagreements between investigators were settled by a third investigator (V.T.d.C.). A custom spreadsheet for data analysis was created with Microsoft Excel. The extracted data included the authors, aim investigated, participant characteristics, biopsy time points, exercise protocol, and results related to the main effects of MuRF-1. A qualitative approach was employed to synthesize the results due to the heterogeneity of the included studies regarding their design, participant characteristics, exercise protocols, and outcome measurement methods. The main findings were categorized based on exercise type (resistance, endurance, or both) and the impact on distinct subgroups, such as trained, physically active, and untrained individuals. A quantitative analysis was not performed due to the lack of standardized data required for a robust meta-analysis.

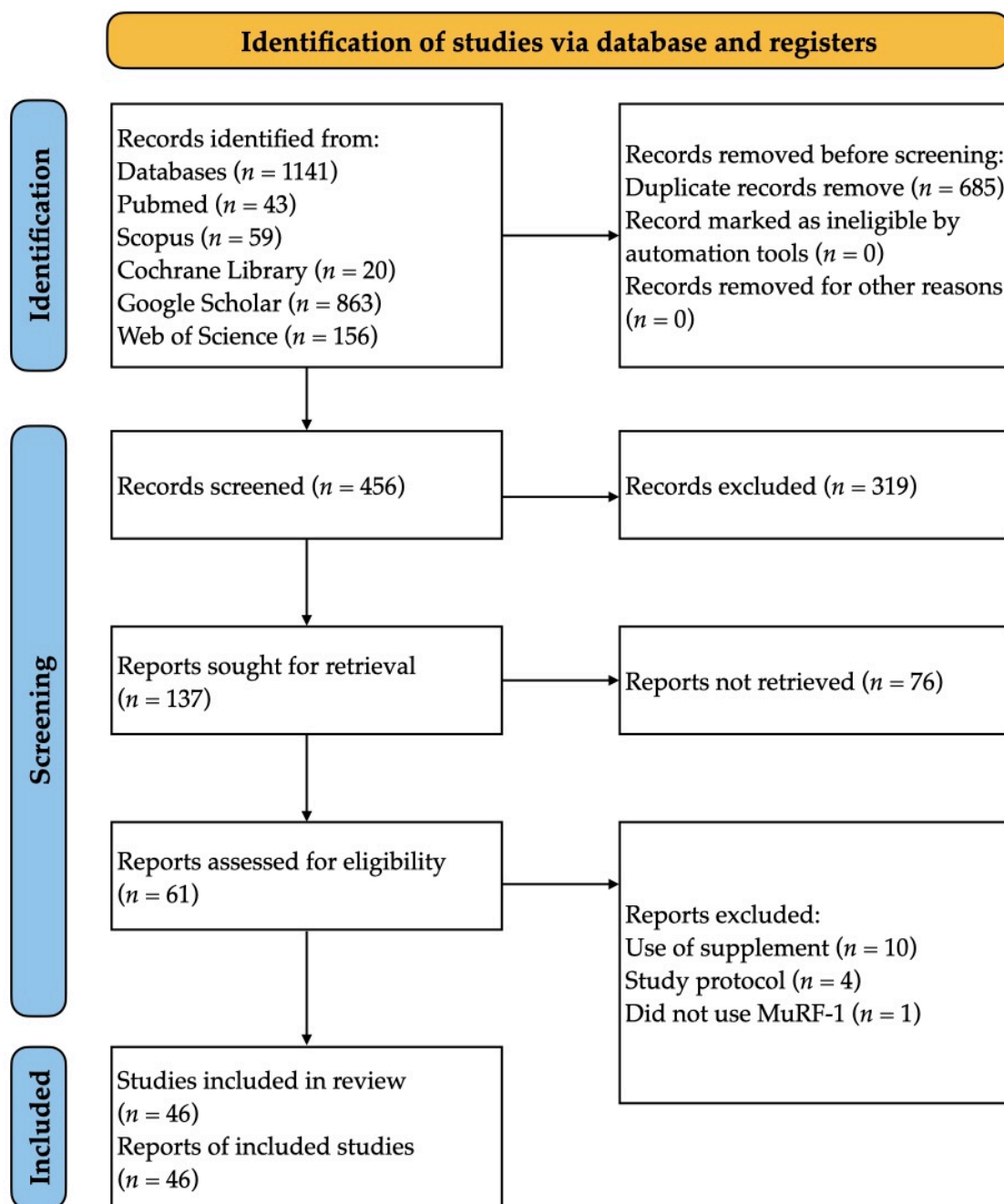
### 7.3.5 Quality Assessment

The Physiotherapy Evidence Database (PEDro) scale was used to evaluate the methodological quality of the included studies [27]. Two independent investigators (L.H.S.F. and E.M.P.) assessed the score for each study using the PEDro scale, and discrepancies were addressed by a third investigator (V.T.d.C.). No automation tools were utilized during this process.

### 7.3.6 Study Selection

A total of 1141 records were identified through database searches. After removing 685 duplicates, 137 titles and abstracts were screened. Subsequently, 61 full texts were evaluated for eligibility, leading to the inclusion of 46 studies in the final analysis [28–73]. A diagram of the flow of study selection is provided in Figure 1.

Figura 1 - PRISMA flow diagram of study selection



## 7.4 Results

### 7.4.1 Study Characteristics

The selected studies, published between 2005 and 2023, were classified into those with a within-subject [30,35,40,47–49,51–55,62,64,73], longitudinal [38,41,42,44–46,50,57,60,63,66,68,69,72], cross-sectional [29,33,34,36,56,58,65,67,71], randomized clinical trial [31,32,37,59,70], and crossover design [28,39,43,61]. The physical exercises described in the studies included resistance exercise [29,30,32–34,36,38,43,44,47,48,55,56,58,65–67,70–73], endurance exercise [40–42,45,46,50,60–63,69], and combined resistance and endurance protocols [28,31,35,37,39,49,51–54,57,59,64,68]. Participants were categorized as trained [28,30,32,40,42,45,50,54,58–60,62,70], physically active [31,34–37,39,41,44,47–49,51–53,63,67,69,71], and untrained [29,33,34,38,43,46,55–58,61,64–66,68,72,73]. The studies involved men only [28,30–33,35,37,39,40,42–45,47,48,50–53,55,57–64,67–70,73], women only [34,38,46,65,72], or both men and women [29,36,41,49,56,66,71]. The sample sizes varied from 6 to 87 participants, with ages ranging from 20.0 to 85.2 years. Table 1 provides an overview of the study details.

Table 1 - Summary of reviewed studies ( $n = 46$  studies)

Author	Aim	Participants	Biopsy Time Points	Exercise Protocol	MuRF-1 Main Effects
Apró et al., 2015 [28]	Investigation of whether increased AMPK activity from high-intensity interval cycling suppresses mTORC1 signaling induced by resistance exercise in well-trained individuals	8 healthy trained men (age: $26.0 \pm 2.0$ )	Baseline (pre), 90 and 180 min after exercise	ER (5 sets x 4 min intervals at 85% $VO_{2max}$ on the cycle ergometer), and R (4 sets x 8–10 repetitions at 80% 1-RM, 4 sets x 10–12 repetitions at 70% 1-RM, and 2 sets to volitional fatigue at 60% 1-RM on the leg press machine)	MuRF-1 was unchanged in the R trial, but increased 2.2- and 1.6-fold ( $p < 0.05$ ) at 90 and 180 min following resistance exercise in the ER trial
Baumert et al., 2022 [29]	Analysis of the polygenic association with EIMD, and evaluation of whether SNPs linked to in vivo EIMD were also associated with the repair rate in vitro human skeletal muscle	In vivo: 65 healthy and untrained (age: $22.5 \pm 4.0$ ), men ( $n = 26$ ) and women ( $n = 39$ ). In vitro: 12 subjects ( $n = 8$ men, $n = 4$ women)	Baseline (pre), immediately after (post), and post 48 h	12 sets x 10 maximal eccentric unilateral knee extensors	MuRF-1 was associated with EIMD intervention and demonstrated an increased expression following acute resistance exercise ( $p < 0.05$ )
Churchley et al., 2007 [30]	Evaluation of whether pre-exercise muscle glycogen influences the transcription of early-response genes regulating muscle growth	7 strength-trained men (age: $30.0 \pm 6.7$ )	Baseline, immediately after RE, and following the 3 h recovery	8 sets x 5 repetitions at 80% 1-RM for each leg	MuRF-1 was higher (3-fold; $p < 0.05$ , ES 0.6) in the Norm than in the Low leg at rest
Coffey et al., 2009 [31]	Analysis of the impact of consecutive resistance and endurance exercise on early molecular responses in skeletal muscle	8 physically active men (age: $22.9 \pm 6.3$ )	Baseline, 15 min after each exercise, and following 3 h recovery	RE (8 sets x 5 repetitions on the leg extension at 80% 1-RM) and EE (30 min cycling, 70% $VO_2$ peak)	MuRF-1 increased significantly when RE preceded EE ( $p = 0.009$ )
Coffey et al., 2009 [32]	Quantification of acute cellular responses in skeletal muscle following successive resistance and sprint training sessions, and assessment of the impact of exercise order	6 trained men (age: $24.7 \pm 6.3$ )	Baseline, 15 min after each exercise bout, and following 3 h recovery	RE (8 sets x 5 repetitions on the leg extension at 80% 1-RM) and SPR (10 sets x 6 s maximal effort sprints cycling)	MuRF-1 was elevated above rest from RE1-SPR2, and SPR1-RE2 (ES $> 0.1$ , $p < 0.01$ ). MuRF-1 was moderately exacerbated when SPRs were undertaken after RE (RE1-SPR2 vs. SPR1-RE2, ~25%, ES = 0.75)
Dalbo et al., 2011 [33]	Analysis of baseline and 24 h post-exercise <i>mRNA</i> expression of atrogin-1 and MuRF-1 in young and old men	22 untrained and healthy men. Younger ( $n = 13$ , age: $21.0 \pm 1.0$ ) and older ( $n = 9$ , age: $68.0 \pm 1.0$ )	Baseline and 24 h after exercise	3 sets x 10 repetitions at 80% of their 1-RM for smith squats, leg press and leg extension	No between-group age differences 24 h after exercise were revealed for MuRF-1, and no significant within-group change in response to the exercise was revealed ( $p > 0.05$ )
Drummond et al., 2014 [34]	Comparison markers involved in ubiquitin-mediated and autophagic lysosomal proteolysis among older women	Inactive ( $n = 7$ , age: $83.0 \pm 1.8$ ) and active ( $n = 7$ , age: $77.3 \pm 1.7$ ) older women	After performance tests	Maximum voluntary isometric knee extension test	MuRF-1 were lower in inactive, frail older women compared to in active healthy women ( $p = 0.01$ )

Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2013 [35]	Investigation of acute molecular muscle responses pre- and post-5-week training using either AE + RE or RE alone	10 healthy and physically active men (age: 25.0 ± 4.0)	Baseline (pre) and 3 h post-RE	4 sets x 7 maximal knee extension ergometer (RE), and one-legged cycle 40 min at ± 70% of $W_{max}$ at 60 rpm (AE)	MuRF-1 was higher in AE + RE than in RE at PRE ( $p < 0.005$ ). In the trained state, MuRF-1 decreased from PRE to POST in AE + RE with no change in RE ( $p = 0.003$ )
Fry et al., 2013 [36]	Characterization of the MPB response to exercise via the autophagosome–lysosomal and UPS pathways in younger and older adults	16 younger (8 men and 8 women, age: 27.0 ± 2.0) and 16 older (8 men and 8 women, age: 70.0 ± 2.0)	Baseline, 3, 6, and 24 h following RE	8 sets x 10 repetitions at 70% of 1-RM in the leg extension machine	Following exercise, there was an increase in expression of MuRF-1 at 3 h and 6 h post-exercise in both groups ( $p < 0.05$ )
Fyfe et al., 2016 [37]	Comparison of the effects of a single session of concurrent exercise, combining HIIT or MICT cycling, on mTORC1 signaling and mRNA expression in human skeletal muscle, versus RE alone	8 physically active men (age: 27.0 ± 4.0)	Immediately before RE, 1 and 3 h after exercise protocol	RE (8 sets x 5 repetitions on the leg press at 80% 1-RM), HIIT cycling (10 sets x 2 min at 120% lactate threshold), and MICT cycling (30 min at 80% lactate threshold)	MuRF-1 increased at RE + 3 h for both MICT + RE (535 ± 464%; ES = 0.33 ± 0.20; $p = 0.016$ ) and HIIT + RE (585 ± 684%; ES = 0.52 ± 0.64; $p = 0.170$ ) compared with RE
Greig et al., 2011 [38]	Comparison of baseline muscle properties and anabolic response between younger and older	25 untrained and healthy women. Older ( $n = 9$ , range: 76–82 years) and younger ( $n = 16$ , range: 19–30 years)	Baseline and 2.5 h after RE	20 sets x 6 repetitions isometric maximum voluntary contractions	MuRF-1 did not present significant differences between older and younger women ( $p > 0.05$ )
Hansson et al., 2019 [39]	Investigation of how a prior bout of AE influences molecular signaling in response to RE of the elbow extensors	11 healthy and physically active men (age: 28.0 ± 5.0)	Baseline (pre), 15 min (post1) and 3 h after (post2)	AE (~45 min at 70% peak workload) and RE (4 sets x 7 maximal repetitions)	MuRF-1 was greater from pre to post2 in AE + RE compared with RE (18- vs. 3.5- and 4- vs. 2-fold, respectively, interaction $p < 0.05$ )
Harber et al., 2009 [40]	Investigation of the muscle-specific metabolic response to running in relation to muscle growth	8 aerobically trained men (age: 26.0 ± 2.0)	Baseline, 4 h and 24 h after exercise	45 min treadmill run at ~75% $VO_{2max}$	MuRF-1 was higher at 4 h in the vastus lateralis only ( $p < 0.05$ )
Hinkley et al., 2017 [41]	Analysis of the impact of short-term intense endurance training influences cycling performance, and the acute and chronic signaling responses of skeletal muscle stress and stability markers	10 healthy and physically active men and women (age: 25.0 ± 2.0)	Baseline and 3 h after the cycle time trial on days 1 and 12	20 km time trial on a cycle ergometer (70–100% $VO_{2max}$ )	Following training (day 12), the acute exercise-induced transcriptional response of MuRF-1 was reduced compared to day 1 ( $p < 0.05$ )
Jamart et al., 2012 [42]	Examination of protein markers involved in these processes during ultra-endurance running in humans, evaluation of their coordination with the UPS, and identification of signaling pathways regulating these responses	11 aerobically trained men (age: 42.1 ± 7.8)	2 h before starting and immediately after finishing exercise	24 h treadmill protocol	MuRF-1 increased (71 ± 31%, $p = 0.023$ ), and MuRF-1 protein level (55 ± 26%, $p = 0.034$ )

Kamandulis et al., 2022 [43]	Use of repeated DJs as an eccentric contraction model to examine the impact of extending the interval between DJs from 20 s to 5 min	16 healthy untrained men, DJ-20s (age: 30.9 ± 8.5) and DJ-5 min (age: 30.0 ± 6.0)	Baseline (pre) and 1 h after exercise	50 DJs with either a 20 s (DJ-20 s) or 5 min (DJ-5 min) rest between DJs	No significant differences in the MuRF-1 <i>mRNA</i> expression was found over time or between the two protocols
Kern et al., 2010 [44]	Comparison of ISO-K and VIB trainings effects on muscle mass and strength	29 physically active men. ISO-K (age: 22.6 ± 3.9) and VIB (age: 23.1 ± 2.7)	Baseline and after the period of 8 weeks of training	Maximal isometric unilateral leg extension, squat jump test, and 30 m acceleration running test	MuRF-1 did not change pre and post training using VIB and ISO-K protocols ( $p > 0.05$ )
Kim et al., 2011 [45]	Modulation of signaling pathways linked to cellular stress in skeletal muscle following a 200 km run	8 trained men (age: 44.0 ± 1.0)	2 weeks before and 3 h after race	200 km running race	MuRF-1 increased by 583.0% ± 244.3% ( $p = 0.024$ )
Konopka et al., 2010 [46]	Assessment of molecular markers linked to muscle hypertrophy after aerobic training in aging skeletal muscle	9 older women (age: 70.0 ± 2.0)	Baseline and after 12 weeks of aerobic exercise training	Cycle ergometer 20–45 min at 60–80% heart rate reserve	MuRF-1 was unaltered by aerobic training
Koskinen et al., 2017 [47]	Examine whether submaximal exhaustive exercise activates stress-sensing proteins in three specific sarcomere regions of the titin molecule	10 healthy and physically active men (age: 26.0 ± 6.0)	Immediately and 3 h after the exercise	10 x drop jumps unilaterally until complete exhaustion	MuRF-1 correlated positively post-exercise ( $r = 0.73, p = 0.03$ ) and negatively with jump height after 3 h ( $r = -0.75, p = 0.01$ ).
Léger et al., 2006 [48]	Assessment of active phosphorylated Akt protein and its downstream targets involved in hypertrophy GSK-3β, mTOR, p70 <sup>S6K</sup> , 4E-BP1, and atrophy regulation of Foxo1, Foxo3, atrogen-1, and MuRF-1 in human skeletal muscle	25 healthy and physically active men. Strength group (age: 36.8 ± 5.5) and endurance group (age: 32.8 ± 2.5)	Pre-Tr (1 week before RTP), Post-Tr (48–72 h after last session of the 8 week RTP), and Post-de-Tr (8 weeks after the last session)	LOW group performed 4 sets x 3–5 repetitions. HIGH group performed 2 sets x 20–28 repetitions. The exercises were performed in the fixed order (leg press, squat, and leg extension)	Following 8 weeks of RTP, there was a 2.5-fold increase in MuRF-1 in Post-Tr ( $p < 0.01$ )
Louis et al., 2007 [49]	Time course analysis of proteolytic <i>mRNA</i> induction following an acute session of RE or RUN exercise	RE group (2 women and 4 men, age: 25.0 ± 4.0) and RUN group (1 woman and 5 men, age: 25.0 ± 4.0)	Baseline, immediately after protocol, and 1, 2, 4, 8, 12, and 24 h post-exercise	3 sets x 10 repetitions at 70% 1-RM and 30 min of treadmill running at 75% of maximum O <sub>2</sub> uptake	RE increased ( $p < 0.05$ ) <i>mRNA</i> expression of MuRF-1 early (3.5-fold, 1–4 h post-exercise). RUN also increased ( $p < 0.05$ ) MuRF-1 levels (3.6-fold, 1–4 h post-exercise)
Luden et al., 2010 [50]	Evaluation of the physiological impact of a 3-week taper in competitive distance runners	7 trained men (age: 20.0 ± 1.0)	Baseline and after a 3-week taper	8 km cross-country	MuRF-1 increased following exercise before and after taper ( $p < 0.05$ )
Lundberg et al., 2012 [51]	Impact of an acute aerobic exercise session on molecular responses to subsequent RE	9 healthy and physically active men (age: 23.0 ± 2.0)	Baseline (pre), 15 min (post1) and 3 h after RE (post2)	45 min one-legged cycling at 70% W <sub>max</sub> 60 rpm (AE), and 4 sets x 7 maximal knee extension (RE)	MuRF-1 showed modest decrease over time (time effect $F = 4.0, p = 0.038$ )
Lundberg et al., 2013 [52]	Evaluate if chronic AE + RE induces greater muscle hypertrophy compared to RE alone	10 healthy and physically active men (age: 25.0 ± 4.0)	Baseline and 72 h after training	45 min one-legged cycling at 70% W <sub>max</sub> 60 rpm (AE), and 4 sets x 7 maximal knee extension (RE)	MuRF-1 did not present differences between pre- and post-exercise ( $p > 0.05$ )

Table1. *Cont.*

Lundberg et al., 2014 [53]	Examination of acute and chronic effects of consecutive AE + RE sessions compared to RE alone	10 healthy and physically active men (age: 26.0 ± 5.0)	Baseline (pre) and 3 h after (post)	45 min one-legged cycling at 70% W <sub>max</sub> 60 rpm (AE), and 4 sets x 7 maximal knee extension (RE)	MuRF-1 increased after AE + RE (2.9-fold, <i>p</i> = 0.003), while remaining stable after RE alone (interaction: <i>F</i> = 20.4, <i>p</i> = 0.001)
Lysenko et al., 2016 [54]	Assessment of whether strength exercise following intermittent aerobic exercise activates pathways regulating mitochondrial biogenesis, protein synthesis, and proteolysis in trained skeletal muscle	9 amateur endurance-trained (age: 18 to 30)	Baseline, 40 min, 5 and 22 h after the aerobic exercise	Cycling (~45 min, 60–95% AT) and strength exercise with one-leg extension at the knee joint (4 sets x 10–12 repetitions at 75% 1-RM), while the other leg was resting	MuRF-1 was only increased after the aerobic exercise (40 min, 2.4-fold, <i>p</i> = 0.05), and remained the same after combined load
Mascher et al., 2008 [55]	Assessment of whether two training sessions separated by 48 h differentially impact pathways in these opposing processes	8 healthy men (age: 23.0 ± 1.0)	Baseline, 15 min, 1 h, and 2 h after exercise	4 sets x 10 repetitions at 80% of 1-RM in the leg press machine	MuRF-1 increased after exercise, 30% lower after the second exercise session than after the first one ( <i>p</i> < 0.05)
Merritt et al., 2013 [56]	Evaluation of skeletal muscle proinflammatory signaling at rest and 24 h after unaccustomed knee extension contractions causing muscle damage	87 subjects: AGE40 ( <i>n</i> = 38, 19 women and 19 men, age: 40.4 ± 1.1), AGE61 ( <i>n</i> = 27, 18 women and 9 men, age: 61.2 ± 0.6), and AGE76 ( <i>n</i> = 22, 15 women and 7 men, age: 75.5 ± 0.7)	Baseline and 24 h after RE	9 sets x 10 repetitions of bilateral knee extensions against a resistance load equal to 40% MVC, 65% of 1-RM	MuRF-1 was higher in AGE76 compared with AGE40 at baseline ( <i>p</i> < 0.05), and both age groups decreased in MuRF-1 to similar levels 24 h after unaccustomed RE ( <i>p</i> < 0.05)
Michel et al., 2023 [57]	Identification of mechanisms linked to phenotypic responses on skeletal muscle proteolytic markers	11 untrained men (age: 18 to 30)	Baseline (pre), after 7 weeks of RT (MID), and after 7 weeks of HIIT (post)	(RT) were 6–10 sets x 6 repetitions (70–95% 1-RM), and (HIIT) were 5–10 sets x 1 min running at a high intensity	MuRF-1 showed model significance ( <i>p</i> = 0.002), with post levels exceeding both pre ( <i>p</i> = 0.004) and MID ( <i>p</i> = 0.032)
Mikkelsen et al., 2017 [58]	Examination of whether intramuscular inflammatory and anabolic/catabolic signaling correlates with age- and training-related changes in muscle composition, including the distribution of contractile and non-contractile tissue	49 untrained men, 12 Y-Un (24.0 ± 3.0) and 12 O-Un (66.0 ± 4.0). Trained individuals, 10 Y-Tr (26.0 ± 4.0) and 15 O-Tr (64.0 ± 4.0)	After exercise protocol	Knee extensor muscle strength was performed on the non-dominant leg	MuRF-1 displayed a significant age × training interaction ( <i>p</i> = 0.022), with a lower expression in O-Tr compared to both Y-Tr ( <i>p</i> = 0.013) and O-Un ( <i>p</i> < 0.001)
Moberg et al., 2021 [59]	Analysis of acute molecular responses to concurrent exercise targeting different muscles	8 healthy trained men (age: 31.5 ± 5.0)	Baseline, immediately, 90 and 180 min following exercise	EE: 5 x 4 min intervals at 83 ± 3% of VO <sub>2peak</sub> . RE: 10 sets x 9–12 repetitions until final fatigue 10-RM	MuRF-1 at 90 and 180 min were higher than baseline ( <i>p</i> < 0.05)
Murach et al., 2014 [60]	Analysis of gene expression changes in gastrocnemius MHC I and MHC IIa muscle fibers during two distinct training phases	6 trained men (age: 20.0 ± 1.0)	4 h post 8 km run (heavily trained and tapered)	8 km cross-country	MuRF-1 unchanged during exercise in the heavily trained and tapered states

Nedergaard et al., 2007 [61]	Examination of protein degradation by analyzing the expression of UPS components following repeated exercise bouts	20 healthy men (age: 23.8 ± 2.8). Step ( $n = 7$ ), step + weight ( $n = 7$ ) and control ( $n = 6$ ) groups	1 week before each bout, 3 h after, 24 h after, and 7 days post-exercise	30 min of bench stepping, performing eccentric work with one and concentric work with the other leg	MuRF-1 showed strong upregulation after 3 h ( $p < 0.001$ )
Pasiakos et al., 2010 [62]	Characterization of the molecular response related to skeletal muscle growth and atrophy following a single session of moderate endurance exercise in adult men	10 trained men (age: 23.0 ± 1.0)	Immediately (0 h) and 3 h after exercise	60 min of upright cycling at 60 ± 5% $VO_{2\text{ peak}}$	MuRF-1 increased 4.7- and 5.7-fold 0 h and 3 h post-exercise, respectively, compared with the resting time points ( $p < 0.001$ )
Popov et al., 2018 [63]	Assessment of the impact of a 2-month aerobic training program on baseline parameters in human muscle	10 untrained men (age: 21–26)	Baseline (pre) and after the 2-month training program, 1 and 4 h after the one-legged knee extension exercise	One-legged continuous knee extension exercise (55 min at 75% AT)	MuRF-1 in the endurance-trained state was lower than in the untrained state ( $p < 0.01$ )
Pugh et al., 2015 [64]	Investigation of how an acute HIIT session influences molecular responses to resistance exercise in untrained skeletal muscle	10 healthy and untrained men (age: 21.3 ± 1.0)	Baseline, 2 and 6 h post-RE	RE (4 sets x 8 repetitions on the leg extension at 70% 1-RM), and RE + HIIT (10 sets x 1 min at 90% $HR_{\text{max}}$ )	MuRF-1 was higher in RE + HIIT compared to RE at both 2 and 6 h ( $p < 0.05$ )
Raue et al., 2007 [65]	Analysis of <i>mRNA</i> expression of proteolytic genes at rest in young and older women, and evaluation of their response to an acute RE session	A group of healthy OW ( $n = 6$ , age: 85.2 ± 1.3) and YW ( $n = 8$ , age: 23.4 ± 1.7)	Baseline and 4 h after RE	3 sets x 10 knee extensions at 70% of 1-RM	At rest, MuRF-1 was higher in OW compared to YW ( $p = 0.04$ ). Following RE, both groups showed increased MuRF-1 ( $p = 0.001$ )
Skelly et al., 2017 [66]	Investigation of sex-based differences in the acute skeletal muscle response to SIT in men and women	10 healthy men (age: 22.0 ± 3.0) and 9 women (age: 22.0 ± 3.0)	Baseline, immediately following exercise, and 3 h after exercise	SIT (3 × 20 s cycling efforts)	MuRF-1 increased at 3 h compared to baseline and post-exercise ( $p < 0.001$ )
Stefanetti et al., 2014 [67]	Analysis of UPS-related gene and protein expression involved in MPB at baseline and 2 h post-RE in older versus younger	10 younger (age: 24.2 ± 0.9) and 10 older (age: 66.6 ± 1.1) healthy and physically active men	2 h after subjects rest (pre-exercise) and 2 h after exercise protocol	3 sets x 14 repetitions at 60% of 1-RM	MuRF-1 was upregulated in both the younger, 1.5-fold, and older, 1.3-fold, groups 2 h following RE ( $p < 0.05$ ) with significant exercise effect ( $p < 0.01$ )
Stefanetti et al., 2015 [68]	Examination of <i>mRNA</i> and/or protein levels of molecular markers of the UPS	18 healthy and untrained men (age: 23.3 ± 0.6). The subjects were divided into ET or RT groups ( $n = 9$ per group)	Pre-exercise, 2.5, 5, and 22 h post-exercise	120 min of bicycle exercise at ~60% $VO_{2\text{ max}}$ (EE group); 4 sets x 12 repetition 1-RM of three thigh muscle exercises (RE group)	After training, MuRF-1 increased following ET only ( $p < 0.01$ ). In the trained state, single-bout EE increased MuRF-1 at 2.5 h post-exercise ( $p < 0.001$ )
Valladares-Ide et al., 2019 [69]	Analysis of skeletal muscle signaling activation, protein synthesis, and gene expression of regeneration and degradation markers after repeated eccentric cycling sessions	9 healthy and physically active men (age: 25.4 ± 1.9)	Baseline and 2 h after each bout	2 × 30 cycling bouts at 85% of maximal workload	No changes in MuRF-1 were observed with any cycling exercise

Vann et al., 2021 [70]	Assessment of how AR and PR paradigms impact body composition, serum markers, muscle fiber cross-sectional area, and protein and <i>mRNA</i> expression in skeletal muscle	30 trained men, AR ( $n = 16$ , age: $24.0 \pm 2.0$ ) and PR ( $n = 14$ , age: $24.0 \pm 2.0$ )	Baseline (pre), after 6 weeks RT (post) and after 1 week recovery (DL)	RT protocol (10–32 sets x 10 repetitions at 60% 1-RM). AR group (1–2 sets x 10 repetitions at 60% 1-RM) and PR group (deload)	MuRF-1 was higher at DL compared to pre and post ( $p < 0.001$ ), with post levels also exceeding pre levels ( $p < 0.001$ )
Whitman et al., 2005 [71]	Investigation of the role of the ubiquitin–proteasome pathway and apoptosis in skeletal muscle wasting in older adults compared to young controls	21 older adults (men = 11, women = 10, age: $72.76 \pm 8.31$ ) and 21 young controls (men = 10, women = 11, age: $21.48 \pm 2.93$ )	Post-exercise	Maximal isometric strength at a knee angle of $60^\circ$ , and isokinetic measurements at velocities of 60, 180, and $300^\circ/s$ with 4 maximal repetitions with 90 s rest between each testing velocity	MuRF-1 expression remained unchanged across all subject groups
Williamson et al., 2010 [72]	Analysis of Akt–FOXO3A signaling pathway activation before and after a 12-week high-intensity PRT program in young and old women	12 healthy women. YW ( $n = 6$ , age: $24.0 \pm 2.0$ ) and OW ( $n = 6$ , age: $85.0 \pm 1.0$ )	Baseline and immediately after RE	PRT and exercise bout were 3 sets x 10 repetitions at 70–75% 1-RM	MuRF-1 was downregulated in young women (–29%) following the PRT ( $p < 0.05$ )
Yang et al., 2006 [73]	Examine <i>mRNA</i> expression changes in proteolytic markers in human slow- and fast-twitch muscle fibers after an RE session	8 young healthy and untrained men (age: $23.0 \pm 2.0$ )	Baseline (pre) RE, 4 and 24 h after RE	3 sets x 10 repetitions of bilateral knee extensions at 65% of 1-RM	MuRF-1 increased 4 h post-RE in both MHC I (2.2-fold) and IIA fibers (4.8-fold) ( $p < 0.05$ )

AE (aerobic exercise), AR (active recovery), AT (anaerobic threshold), EE (endurance exercise), ER (interval cycling followed by resistance exercise), ER-Arm (resistance exercise), ET (endurance training), EIMD (exercise-induced muscle damage), DJs (drop jumps), FOXO1 and FOXO3 (forkhead box O family transcription factors), GSK-3 $\beta$  (glycogen synthase kinase-3 $\beta$ ), h (hours), HIIT (high-intensity interval training), ISO-K training (isokinetic exercise), km (kilometers), MHC I (slow-twitch myosin heavy chain), MHC IIA (fast-twitch myosin heavy chain), MICT (moderate-intensity continuous training), min (minutes), *mRNA* (messenger RNA), mTOR (mammalian target of rapamycin), p70<sup>S6K</sup> and 4E-BP1 (anabolic targets), MuRF-1 (muscle-specific RING finger protein 1), MPB (muscle protein breakdown), OW (old women), O-Un (old untrained), O-Tr (old trained), Post-TR (post training), Post-de-TR (post de-training), Pre-TR (pre training), PR (passive recovery), PRT (progressive resistance training), R (resistance exercise only), R-Arm (resistance exercise only), RE (resistance exercise), RT (resistance training), RM (repetition maximum), RTP (resistance training program), RUN (submaximal running), SIT (sprint interval training), SPR (repeated sprints), UPS (ubiquitin-proteasome system), VIB training (vibrational-proprioceptive stimulation), VO2 max (maximum oxygen volume), Wmax (maximal workload), Y-Un (young untrained), Y-Tr (young trained), YW (young women).

### 7.4.2 Study Quality Assessment

The PEDro scores of the included studies ranged from 3 to 7 points out of 10 (average = 4 points). Fifteen studies (38%) showed moderate methodological quality (i.e., scores  $\geq 5$  points), while three studies (8%) were classified as having a low risk of bias (i.e., scores  $\geq 6$  points). The main reasons for increasing the risk of bias were not blinding therapists (46 studies, 100%), not blinding participants (46 studies, 100%), and not blinding assessors (39 studies, 85%). The evaluation of the included studies did not reveal direct evidence of missing results. The certainty of evidence for the outcomes assessed was moderate, primarily due to limitations related to the risk of bias and heterogeneity among the included studies. A detailed risk assessment of bias is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 - Risk of bias assessment - PEDro scale ( $n = 46$ )

Study	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	Score (0–10)
Apró et al., 2015 [28]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Baumert et al., 2022 [29]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Churchley et al., 2007 [30]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Coffey et al., 2009 [31]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Coffey et al., 2009 [32]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Dalbo et al., 2011 [33]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Drummond et al., 2014 [34]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Fernandez-Gonzalo et al., 2013 [35]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Fry et al., 2013 [36]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Fyfe et al., 2016 [37]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Greig et al., 2011 [38]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Hansson et al., 2019 [39]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Harber et al., 2009 [40]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Hinkley et al., 2017 [41]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Jamart et al., 2012 [42]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Kamandulis et al., 2022 [43]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Kern et al., 2010 [44]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Kim et al., 2011 [45]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Konopka et al., 2010 [46]	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Koskinen et al., 2017 [47]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Léger et al., 2006 [48]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Louis et al., 2007 [49]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Luden et al., 2010 [50]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	3

Study	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	Score (0-10)
Lundberg et al., 2012 [51]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Lundberg et al., 2013 [52]	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	7
Lundberg et al., 2014 [53]	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	7
Lysenko et al., 2016 [54]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Mascher et al., 2008 [55]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Merritt et al., 2013 [56]	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Michel et al., 2023 [57]	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Mikkelsen et al., 2017 [58]	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Moberg et al., 2021 [59]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Murach et al., 2014 [60]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Nedergaard et al., 2007 [61]	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	3
Pasiakos et al., 2010 [62]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Popov et al., 2018 [63]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Pugh et al., 2015 [64]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5
Raue et al., 2007 [65]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Skelly et al., 2017 [66]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Stefanetti et al., 2014 [67]	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	4
Stefanetti et al., 2015 [68]	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	5

Y = yes; N = no; A = Random allocation; B = Concealed allocation; C = Baseline Comparability; D = Blind subjects; E = Blind therapists; F = Blind assessors; G = Adequate follow-up; H = Intention-to-treat analysis; I = Between-group comparisons; J = Point estimates and variability.

#### 7.4.3 Effects of resistance exercise on MuRF-1 mRNA expression

Four studies investigated the link between resistance exercises and trained individuals [30,32,58,70]. Churchley et al. [30] evaluated whether pre-exercise muscle glycogen content influences gene transcription. The researchers found that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was higher in the control leg (Norm leg) compared with the Low leg (three-fold, ES = 0.6,  $p < 0.05$ ). Coffey et al. [32] examined acute molecular responses through repeated sprint (SPR) and resistance exercise (RE), in which they verified a significant increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression that was elevated above rest following 3 h of recovery from RE1-SPR2 and SPR1-RE2 (ES > 0.1,  $p < 0.01$ ). It is noted that the MuRF-1 *mRNA* abundance was moderately exacerbated when SPR was undertaken after RE (RE1-SPR2 vs. SPR1-RE2, ~25%, ES = 0.75). Mikkelsen et al. [58] displayed a significant age  $\times$  training interaction ( $p = 0.022$ ) and verified that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was lower in trained individuals ( $p < 0.001$ ). Furthermore, Vann et al. [70] showed after 6 weeks of training that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression did not exhibit a group  $\times$  time interaction ( $p = 0.567$ ) or a main effect of the group ( $p = 0.463$ ). MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression did, however, exhibit a main effect of time ( $p <$

0.001;  $CI_{PRE} = 1.00$ – $1.00$ ;  $CI_{POST} = 4.46$ – $6.37$ ;  $CI_{DL} = 6.44$ – $11.06$ ), where MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was greater at DL than at pre- and post-exercise ( $p < 0.001$ ). Moreover, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was greater at post- than at pre-exercise ( $p < 0.001$ ).

Six studies assessed the effects of resistance exercise on physically active individuals [34,36,44,47,48,67]. Drummond et al. [34] observed a significant reduction in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in inactive and frail older women compared with their active healthy counterparts ( $p = 0.01$ ). Fry et al. [36] observed that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression increased 3 h after resistance exercise in younger and older groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). Moreover, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was also significantly elevated above rest at 6 h post-exercise in both groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). Léger et al. [48] found that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression after an 8-week program (post-Tr) was significantly higher than that in the period before training (pre-Tr) and 8 weeks following the last training session (post-De-Tr) in physically active men ( $p < 0.01$ ). Koskinen et al. [47] identified a positive and significant correlation between MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression and immediate post-exercise levels ( $r = 0.73$ ,  $p = 0.039$ ), while MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels demonstrated a negative correlation with jump height 3 h post-exercise ( $r = -0.75$ ,  $p = 0.019$ ). Stefanetti et al. [67] detected significant upregulation in both younger (1–5-fold) and older (1.3-fold) subjects 2 h post-exercise ( $p < 0.05$ ) and a significant effect of exercise ( $p < 0.01$ ). However, Kern et al. [44] reported that isokinetic (ISO-K) and vibrational–proprioceptive (VIB) protocols did not influence MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression pre or post training.

Eleven studies measured the effects of resistance exercise on untrained individuals [29,33,38,43,55,56,65,66,71–73]. Yang et al. [73] verified changes in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in slow-twitch (MHC I) and fast-twitch (MHC IIa) fibers following resistance exercise. MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels increased at 4 h after resistance exercise in both MHC I (2.2-fold) and MHC IIa fibers (4.8-fold) ( $p < 0.05$ ), but they returned to the basal levels by 24 h post-exercise in both fiber types. Repeated resistance exercise induced an increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression 2 h post-exercise in both exercise sessions ( $p < 0.05$ ); this increase was 2.0-fold after the first session and 1.6-fold after the second session [55]. Skelly et al. [66] verified a significant increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 3 h compared with the baseline and immediately post-exercise, with similar responses in men and women ( $p < 0.001$ ). Baumert et al. [29], evaluating the response to exercise-induced muscle damage, reported a significant increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression following acute resistance exercise ( $p < 0.05$ ). However, Kamandulis et al. [43] analyzed MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression using drop jumps and found no significant differences over time or between the two protocols (DJ-5 min and DJ-20 s). Dalbo et al. [33] observed that baseline MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was higher in older

men compared to younger men ( $p < 0.05$ ). Merritt et al. [56] investigated both sexes and divided them into three groups (AGE40, AGE61, and AGE76). After subjects performed unaccustomed resistance exercises, it was shown that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was higher in AGE76 than in AGE40 at baseline ( $p < 0.05$ ), and both age groups experienced a decrease in MuRF-1 to similar levels 24 h after unaccustomed resistance exercises ( $p < 0.05$ ). On this path, but investigating only women, Raue et al. [65] compared two groups (old vs. young women), and at rest, OW expressed higher MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression than YW ( $p = 0.04$ ). In response to resistance exercise, there was an age effect, in which both YW and OW had an induction in MuRF-1 (YW: 3.6-fold, 95% CI = 2.8–4.4; OW: 2.6-fold, 95% CI = 1.9–3.2,  $p = 0.001$ ). Williamson et al. [72] investigated women (YW and OW) of a similar age and revealed after 12 weeks of progressive resistance training that YW displayed a downregulation of MuRF-1 ( $-29\%$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). After training, OW showed significantly higher MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression than YW ( $p < 0.05$ ). In contrast, YW and OW completed 12 weeks of resistance exercise training and did not show significant differences in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression [38]. Moreover, Whitman et al. [71] revealed that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was not different between subjects who were old and young or between men and women.

#### 7.4.4 Effects of endurance exercise on MuRF-1 mRNA expression

Six studies examined the effects of endurance exercise on trained individuals [40,42,45,50,60,62]. Harber et al. [40] evaluated the metabolic response of the vastus lateralis and soleus muscles after running and found that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was upregulated at 4 h post-exercise in the vastus lateralis only ( $p < 0.05$ ). Pasiakos et al. [62] detected significantly increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression (4.7-fold, immediately post-exercise; 5.7-fold, 3 h post-exercise) compared with the rest of the time points ( $p < 0.001$ ). Jamart et al. [42] showed that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression increased immediately at the end of ultra-endurance running compared with 2 h before exercise ( $71 \pm 31\%$ ,  $p = 0.023$ ). Similarly, Kim et al. [45] reported a significant  $583.0 \pm 244.3\%$  ( $p = 0.024$ ) increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression 3 h following ultra-endurance exercise. Luden et al. [50] demonstrated a significant increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression ( $p < 0.05$ ) after exercise before and after a taper, with a reduced response being observed post-taper (2.3-fold vs. 1.7-fold,  $p < 0.05$ ). In contrast, Murach et al. [60] observed no changes in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression during exercise in the heavily trained and tapered states.

Three studies verified the effects of endurance exercise on physically active individuals [41,63,69]. Popov et al. [63] investigated the effects of a 2-month aerobic training program and observed a significant reduction in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in the endurance-trained state compared with the untrained state ( $p < 0.01$ ). In this line, the twelve-day cycling protocol was able to attenuate MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression compared with day 1 in women and men [41]. Meanwhile, Valladares-Ide et al. [69] reported no changes in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression after any cycling exercise.

In untrained individuals, Nedergaard et al. [61] assessed men who performed step exercises using eccentric work with one leg and concentric work with the other leg. MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression showed strong upregulation with concentric loading compared with pre-exercise ( $p < 0.01$ ) and eccentric loading ( $p < 0.001$ ). Konopka et al. [46] demonstrated that 12 weeks of aerobic exercise training on a cycle ergometer could not alter MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in older women.

#### 7.4.5 Effects of resistance and endurance exercise on MuRF-1 mRNA expression

Three studies evaluated MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in response to resistance and endurance exercise in trained individuals [28,54,59]. Moberg et al. [59] found that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 90 min and 180 min (RE-Arm) was higher than the baseline ( $p < 0.05$ ), and at 90 min, ER-Arm was higher than R-Arm ( $p < 0.05$ ). Apró et al. [28] verified that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression increased 2.2- and 1.6-fold ( $p < 0.05$ ) at 90 and 180 min after interval cycling followed by resistance exercise in an ER trial compared with an R trial and pre-exercise ( $p < 0.05$ ). Lysenko et al. [54] demonstrated that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was only increased after aerobic exercise (40 min, 2.4-fold,  $p = 0.05$ ) and remained the same after a combined load.

In physically active individuals, four studies used the same training protocol, which consisted of one leg performing endurance and resistance exercise (AE + RE), while the opposite limb was subjected to resistance exercise (RE) only [35,51–53]. Lundberg et al. [51] examined the impact of an acute aerobic exercise session on molecular adaptations to subsequent resistance training. MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels were comparable between AE + RE and RE (interaction,  $p = 0.077$ ), showing a slight decline over time (main effect:  $F = 4.0$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ). In this line, Lundberg et al. [52] evaluated the muscle hypertrophy response after men performed a 5-week training protocol. MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression showed no significant differences when analyzing the RE leg before (pre) and both legs (AE + RE and RE) 72 h after the last training session ( $p > 0.05$ ). Lundberg et al. [53] noted that MuRF-1 *mRNA*

expression increased 3 h after (post) AE + RE compared with the opposite leg ( $p < 0.05$ ) and the same leg at pre-exercise (2.9-fold,  $p = 0.003$ ). Fernandez-Gonzalo et al. [35] compared the acute muscular response 3 h post-exercise using the same sample ( $n = 10$  men,  $25.0 \pm 4.0$  years) and training protocol as those in the previous study. The levels of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression were higher in AE+ RE than in RE in the pre-exercise period (2.2-fold,  $p < 0.005$ ). There was a time x MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression interaction in the untrained state before 5 weeks of training ( $F = 11.8$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ). In the trained state, there was a time x leg interaction ( $F = 33.3$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ), and MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression decreased from pre- to post-exercise in AE + RE, with no change in RE (1.5-fold,  $p = 0.003$ ). MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression were greater following RE than AE + RE at 3 h post-exercise (2.0-fold,  $p < 0.005$ ). A condition x leg interaction ( $F = 36.4$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ) highlighted a reduction in MuRF-1 *mRNA* with training in AE + RE ( $p < 0.005$ ), while levels remained stable in RE. Additionally, in the untrained state, MuRF-1 *mRNA* was elevated in AE + RE compared to RE ( $p = 0.002$ ). Conversely, the trained state revealed the opposite trend, with MuRF-1 *mRNA* being lower in AE + RE relative to RE ( $p = 0.028$ ).

Coffey et al. [31] examined the acute molecular response to divergent exercise stimuli by combining consecutive bouts of resistance (RE) and endurance exercise (EE) in physically active individuals. MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was elevated from resting values when RE preceded EE ( $p = 0.009$ ). MuRF-1 transcriptional activity was exacerbated when EE was undertaken after RE (RE-EE vs. EE-RE,  $\sim 52\%$ ,  $ES = 0.4$ ). Louis et al. [49] measured the time course of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in physically active men and women after an acute bout of resistance (RE) and running (RUN) exercise. Following RE, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression increased 3.5-fold at 1 h, 3.4-fold at 2 h, and 2.0-fold at 4 h post-exercise compared with the pre-exercise level ( $p < 0.05$ ). After RUN, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression increased 2.7-fold at 1 h, 3.6-fold at 2 h, and 1.8-fold at 4 h post-exercise ( $p < 0.05$ ). Hansson et al. [39] evaluated the responses to resistance exercise of the elbow extensors and found that there was an interaction effect for MuRF-1 *mRNA* ( $p = 0.003$ ) due to greater expression in AE + RE from pre- to post-exercise (3.9-fold,  $p = 0.001$ ) compared with RE. In addition, there were differences in the MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in AE + RE for the opposite arm within the same time points of post1 and post2 ( $p < 0.05$ ). Fyfe et al. [37] compared the effects of concurrent training on physically active men who performed RE only, HIIT + RE, and MICT + RE, and they identified a small increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 3 h for both MICT  $\pm$  RE ( $535 \pm 464\%$ ;  $ES = 0.33 \pm 0.20$ ;  $p = 0.016$ ) and HIT  $\pm$  RE ( $585 \pm 684\%$ ;  $ES = 0.52 \pm 0.64$ ;  $p = 0.170$ ) compared with RE. However, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was not altered by

RE at 3 h compared with REST, and there were no differences in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression between HIT + RE and MICT + RE at any time point.

In untrained men, Stefanetti et al. [68] examined molecular responses in subjects who underwent 10 weeks of endurance (ET) or resistance training (RT), followed by a single session of either endurance exercise (EE) or resistance exercise (RE). A significant group  $\times$  time interaction showed that ET increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression by  $138 \pm 24\%$  ( $p < 0.01$ ). EE increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* at 2.5 h ( $340 \pm 94\%$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). In EE, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was greater at 0 h, 2.5 h, and 22 h when compared with RE ( $p < 0.001$ ). Michel et al. [57] investigated the effects of resistance and high-intensity interval training on skeletal muscle proteolytic markers and showed that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression demonstrated model significance ( $p = 0.002$ ), where post- was greater than both pre-exercise ( $p = 0.004$ ) and MID ( $p = 0.032$ ), with no differences in pre and MID ( $p > 0.999$ ). Pugh et al. [64] reported a 4.6-fold increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 2 h and a 1.6-fold elevation at 6 h after RE + HIIT ( $p < 0.05$ ), while RE alone showed no changes in expression over time.

## 7.5 Discussion

This systematic review evaluated the effects of physical exercise on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in humans to determine which type of physical exercise (resistance, endurance, or both) has the most empirical evidence to date. This is the first systematic review to explore the skeletal muscle molecular responses of the *TRIM63* gene within the context of physical exercise in humans. The main findings indicate that endurance and resistance exercises elicit a similar peak in the time course of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression, occurring approximately 1–4 h after exercise. The combination of resistance and endurance exercise induces a significant increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 3 h post-exercise. Additionally, exercise modalities (endurance and resistance), muscle contraction (eccentric and concentric), level of fitness (trained, physically active, untrained), sex (men and women), and muscle age (young and old) significantly influence MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in humans. Therefore, a critical intra- and inter-study evaluation of methodological designs was also conducted to investigate the main mechanisms regulating MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in response to physical exercise.

MuRF-1 *mRNA* transcription is regulated by different stimuli that activate signaling pathways, with the Forkhead box O (FoxO) family of transcription factors, particularly FoxO1 and FoxO3, serving as key regulators of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in response to anabolic and catabolic signals [4,48]. These signaling pathways are influenced by physical exercise, which modulates the release of hormones that coordinate metabolic and cellular

activities throughout the human body [32,33,62]. Under anabolic stimulation, muscle protein synthesis is promoted through the activation of the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase PI3K-Akt pathway, which suppresses FoxO transcription factors, thereby preventing the upregulation of MuRF-1 *mRNA* and reducing proteolytic activity [4,72].

MuRF-1 plays an important role in muscle protein breakdown, a process essential for skeletal muscle adaptation to acute and chronic exercise [3,5,9]. Protein degradation is critical for maintaining cellular homeostasis and muscle protein quality [7,8,14]. During this process, the time course of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression varies between exercise modalities. Following resistance exercise, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression generally peaks within 1 to 4 h post-exercise, as observed at 1 h [49], 2 h [55], 3 h [36], and 4 h [73]. MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression typically returns to baseline within 24 h [56,73]. The transient activation of MuRF-1 *mRNA* following resistance exercise is driven by mechanical stress that activates specific signaling pathways, such as PI3K-Akt and FoxO, to coordinate translational activity and increase protein synthesis [11,12,74]. This process triggers the release of anabolic hormones that modulate intracellular signaling [4,33]. Exercise stimulates the redistribution of nutrients and energy to skeletal muscle, promoting the activation of pathways such as PI3K-Akt, which negatively regulates FoxO to suppress excessive protein degradation [28,48,74]. Concurrently, mechanical stress activates the ubiquitin–proteasome system (UPS) through the upregulation of MuRF-1, a process necessary to replace damaged proteins, maintain intracellular protein balance, and prevent the accumulation of misfolded proteins during the recovery period [14,68]. The balance between protein synthesis and degradation is controlled by the interaction of FoxO, MuRF-1, and the UPS, ensuring that protein turnover supports hypertrophy without compromising cellular homeostasis [10–13,74]. These interactions underscore the highly coordinated nature of the adaptive mechanisms in skeletal muscle, reflecting the specific demands imposed by resistance exercise, while endurance exercise induces a variety of metabolic and morphological changes by activating distinct molecular pathways [62,75,76].

Regarding endurance exercise, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression typically peaks between 40 min and 4 h post-exercise, as observed at 40 min [54], 2 h [49], 2.5 h [68], 3 h [61,62], and 4 h [40]. MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression normalized to baseline levels by 24 h after exercise [49]. Endurance exercise induces a transient upregulation of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression, primarily mediated by metabolic stress and energy demand signaling pathways such as adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and FoxO [28,74,75]. The activation of AMPK, triggered by an elevated adenosine monophosphate (AMP) and adenosine triphosphate (ATP) ratio during prolonged exercise, acts as a key metabolic sensor that

regulates energy homeostasis, facilitating catabolic processes while it suppresses anabolic pathways [11,69]. Simultaneously, FoxO transcription factors are activated under conditions of energy stress, driving the expression of MuRF-1 to facilitate the degradation of damaged or misfolded proteins via the UPS [4,45,74]. This selective proteolytic activity is essential for maintaining proteostasis and adapting the muscle to repetitive mechanical and metabolic demands, which underscores MuRF-1's pivotal role in protein turnover regulation and supporting endurance-specific muscular adaptations [46,50,76]. Moreover, this molecular regulation ensures that skeletal muscle sustains its structural and functional integrity during extended exercise periods, reduces damage accumulation, and optimizes mitochondrial biogenesis [45,60,74].

In a practical context, endurance exercise performed for an extended period induces significant structural and physiological adaptations at the muscular level [45,68]. These include increased sarcomere length, enhanced perimysial connective tissue, and improved mitochondrial efficiency, thus contributing to enhanced substrate utilization and oxidative capacity [74,77]. These adaptations allow skeletal muscle to tolerate workloads more effectively and reduce muscle protein breakdown during recovery [11,50,78]. Furthermore, moderate endurance exercise has been shown to produce significant alterations in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in trained soldiers [62]. MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels increased significantly immediately after exercise (4.7-fold), and there was an effect that persisted 3 h (5.7-fold) after 60 min of cycling at  $60 \pm 5\%$   $\text{VO}_{2\text{peak}}$ . Harber et al. [40] found that after 45 min of a treadmill run at  $75\%$   $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ , MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was upregulated at 4 h post-exercise. The results of these studies showed that training variables such as intensity and volume may have contributed to the observed gene expression response to endurance exercise. MuRF-1 is a highly homologous protein related to a part of a myocellular structure linked to a mechanosensory function [1,4]. This role is particularly significant in the context of acquired exercise tolerance, as this adaptive process is dependent on exercise intensity [1,3]. Collectively, these mechanisms highlight the pivotal role of MuRF-1 as a molecular regulator of endurance training adaptations, orchestrating metabolic, structural, and molecular responses to support muscle integrity, optimize recovery, and enhance performance under sustained physical demands.

Combined activities integrating resistance and endurance exercises exert complex effects on the regulation of MuRF-1 *mRNA*, influenced by factors such as exercise order, intensity, and mode [11,68]. The sequence of exercises plays a critical role in molecular responses [31,54]. Studies suggest that when endurance exercise precedes resistance exercise,

AMPK is activated, and it competes with the Akt and mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway and potentially reduces the anabolic stimulus [28,37]. Conversely, resistance exercise performed before endurance exercise minimizes this interference, preserves Akt/mTOR activation, and limits competition with AMPK, which ultimately enhances the anabolic response [64,74]. In acute studies, Coffey et al. [32] observed a significant increase in MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression 3 h post-exercise following consecutive resistance exercise ( $8 \times 5$  leg extensions at 80% 1-RM) and repeated sprints ( $10 \times 6$  s maximal effort) performed alternately. Similarly, Hansson et al. [39] and Lundberg et al. [53] demonstrated an acute response to combined endurance (45 min cycling) and resistance exercise ( $4 \times 7$  knee extensions), with increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 3 h in the elbow extensors and lower limbs, respectively. In contrast, Lysenko et al. [54] reported no significant increase when intermittent aerobic cycling (70 min) was followed by one-leg strength exercise (four sets of knee extensions until exhaustion). These data suggest that combining strength exercises immediately after intense aerobic activity may impair subsequent aerobic performance if applied chronically. However, this effect may be mitigated if training variables are planned appropriately [37].

Louis et al. [49] examined the time course of MuRF-1 *mRNA* after an acute bout of resistance and endurance exercise. Both exercises significantly increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression compared with the baseline period. In addition, the two exercise protocols showed differences in the peak of MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels, with resistance at 1 h (3.5-fold) and endurance exercise at 2 h (3.6-fold). These MuRF-1 *mRNA* time course results were confirmed in another study that evaluated the protein levels of molecular markers of the ubiquitin–proteasome system [68]. Thus, it was observed that the MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels in single-bout endurance exercise were significantly higher at 0 h, 2.5 h, and 22 h compared with single-bout resistance exercise. Furthermore, single-bout endurance exercise increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* at 2.5 h from basal levels ( $p < 0.001$ ) and between exercise groups ( $340 \pm 94\%$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Normally, the post-exercise period is the time when protein synthesis and degradation processes interact to promote muscle maintenance or even hypertrophy, as well as to help tissue regeneration and repair, contributing to muscle recovery after exercise [6,10,11]. Lundberg et al. [51] reported modest reductions in MuRF-1 *mRNA* shortly after exercise (15 min and 3 h), suggesting an acute response that may not differ substantially between endurance (AE) + resistance (RE) and RE alone. However, Fernandez-Gonzalo et al. [35] demonstrated that in an untrained state, AE + RE resulted in significantly higher MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression compared with RE alone, indicating that the addition of aerobic exercise

might potentiate the acute molecular response in untrained individuals. In contrast, Lundberg et al. [52], evaluating MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels 72 h post-training, found no significant differences between protocols, implying that the acute effects of AE + RE may not translate into prolonged responses. Supporting the role of exercise order, Coffey et al. [31] observed increased MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression when endurance exercise followed resistance exercise, reinforcing that exercise sequencing can modulate molecular responses. Although intracellular stress generated by muscle contractions differs between these two modes, evidence suggests that both may regulate similar gene targets and biological processes [77], which could be further influenced by nutrient interventions [11]. Such conditions may enhance recovery efficiency after exercise by stimulating skeletal muscle protein turnover and net protein gain, a continuous cellular process regulated by the balance between muscle protein synthesis and protein breakdown [10,12].

Skeletal muscle atrophy is associated with muscle protein breakdown [3,4], and physical exercise has been recognized as an effective intervention for maintaining whole-body health and attenuating the loss of lean mass in older adults [46,67,71]. Evidence demonstrates that baseline MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression is significantly higher in older women ( $85.2 \pm 1.7$  years) than in younger women ( $23.4 \pm 1.7$  years) after resistance exercise [65], suggesting an age-related elevation in proteolytic activity [33,56,72]. This upregulation may reflect an adaptive response aimed at maintaining protein turnover and muscle homeostasis in an environment of anabolic resistance. Similarly increased proteolytic gene expression was verified in older women ( $85.0 \pm 1.6$  years), while the basal level of MuRF-1 *mRNA* decreased in younger women ( $24.0 \pm 2.0$  years) after 12 weeks of progressive resistance training [72]. In contrast, no effect of exercise on MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was observed in older (average 80 years) and younger (average 26 years) women after 12 weeks of resistance exercise training [38].

Experimental factors, such as methodological differences in the exercise protocols, may partially explain this divergence in results. In both studies, the participants performed 3 sets x 10 repetitions at 70–75% of the 1-RM, and the muscle biopsies were obtained before and 4 h after resistance exercise [65], while in the other experimental design, they were collected before and immediately after an acute bout of resistance exercise [72]. In another study, participants performed 6 sets x 20 maximal voluntary contractions, with muscle biopsies collected at rest and 2.5 h post-resistance exercise [38]. Interestingly, other studies with older and younger subjects found an upregulation of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression at 2 h [67], 3 h, and 6 h after resistance exercise [36], showing that, perhaps, specific exercise protocols can

effectively promote changes in MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels. Consistently with previous findings, MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression was significantly greater in older men ( $68.0 \pm 1.0$  years) than in younger men ( $21.0 \pm 1.0$  years) at baseline [33]. According to Merritt et al. [56], MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels were higher in AGE76 ( $75.5 \pm 0.7$  years) than in AGE40 ( $40.4 \pm 1.1$  years) at baseline. Both results corroborate the findings of other studies [65,72] and suggest that both genders' display of a similar average age and training status may be their response to a resistance exercise stimulus in a similar manner. Older adults exhibited an attenuated MuRF-1 responses to resistance exercise compared to younger individuals, reflecting reduced proteolytic activity and muscle plasticity [65,67]. This diminished response may be linked to declines in anabolic hormones, which are crucial for Akt and FoxO signaling regulation [72]. Furthermore, the lower muscle mass observed in the elderly correlates with reduced basal MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression, potentially indicating impaired protein degradation demands [46]. Understanding the molecular mechanisms activated by exercise is essential for developing physical activity interventions aimed at mitigating skeletal muscle loss during aging.

This review has several limitations. First, most included studies demonstrated moderate methodological quality, with PEDro scores ranging from 3 to 7, indicating a risk of bias. Second, there was high variability in exercise protocols, including differences in the type (resistance, endurance, or combined), training variables (e.g., intensity), and timing of assessments, which hindered direct comparisons of the findings. Third, the small number of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) reduced the robustness of the evidence base, and the inclusion of specific populations, such as older adults and women, was limited, leaving gaps in the understanding of how variables such as age and sex influence the outcomes. However, this is the first systematic review to exclusively focus on studies involving healthy humans, excluding potential confounding results derived from animal models or individuals with medical conditions. The inclusion of studies encompassing a wide range of exercise protocols enabled a comprehensive exploration of how various variables, such as exercise type, intensity, and recovery time, affect MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression. Furthermore, diverse experimental designs provide insights into the molecular mechanisms underlying proteolytic gene expression.

In summary, this systematic review provides insights into the specificity of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression in response to different exercise modalities. The findings indicate an early acute skeletal muscle response to resistance and endurance exercise across various fitness levels, with peak expression occurring primarily within 1–4 h post-exercise. Notably, the combination of resistance and endurance exercise has a greater effect on MuRF-1 *mRNA*

expression at 3 h post-exercise than resistance exercise alone. Resistance and endurance exercises showed a similar temporal pattern, with MuRF-1 *mRNA* levels returning to baseline within 24 h post-exercise. These observations contribute to the understanding of the molecular basis of adaptive responses elicited by distinct exercise modalities. The central role of MuRF-1 in muscle mass regulation underscores its relevance for clinical practice, rehabilitation, and athletic training. In clinical settings, understanding MuRF-1's molecular responses can guide the development of personalized strategies for preventing muscular atrophy in older adults, reducing the impact of sarcopenia, preserving functional capacity, and improving quality of life. In sports, insights into MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression changes may inform the optimization of training protocols to minimize muscle protein breakdown and enhance anabolic responses, particularly during periods of intense competition. Key exercise variables, such as intensity, volume, and sequence, play a crucial role in the molecular regulation of MuRF-1, highlighting the importance of tailored approaches by health professionals and coaches to promote adaptations and superior outcomes. Adjusting these variables effectively supports muscle recovery, improves physical performance, and addresses the specific needs of diverse populations. Furthermore, these results emphasize the complexity of molecular responses induced by acute and chronic exercise, underscoring the need for further research to elucidate the regulatory mechanisms within the intracellular signaling pathways responsible for maintaining skeletal muscle mass. Since *mRNA* expression represents just one component of the multifaceted gene regulation processes in skeletal muscle, future studies should explore transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms to provide a more comprehensive understanding of these adaptations.

Finally, future studies should simultaneously measure the effects of MuRF-1 *mRNA* and other mechanisms, such as by evaluating the time course of MuRF-1 *mRNA* through longitudinal designs, genetic polymorphisms, epigenetic factors, nutritional supplementation, and metabolic aspects. These investigations will provide insights into transcriptional responses across different exercise modalities and their potential to achieve clinical and performance benefits.

## 7.6 Conclusion

This systematic review provides evidence that MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression is responsive to physical exercise in humans, exhibiting distinct modulation patterns influenced by the exercise modality, intensity, and sequence. Furthermore, the effects of resistance and endurance exercises were similar, both in terms of MuRF-1 *mRNA* expression and the return

of these values to baseline levels after exercise. Aging seems to influence MuRF-1 regulation, while the level of physical fitness impacts the magnitude of molecular responses. Trained individuals showed more attenuated responses, possibly due to greater adaptive muscle efficiency. Sex-related differences indicated that men exhibited higher levels of MuRF-1, likely due to hormonal and physiological factors. By tailoring exercise interventions to these variables, practitioners can maximize the benefits of physical activity for muscle health, functional performance, and long-term adaptability. These findings offer insights into the relationship between physical exercise and molecular regulation, establishing a foundation for future research to further explore these mechanisms and their applications in clinical and athletic settings.

**Supplementary Materials:** The following supporting information can be downloaded at [www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1](http://www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1): Table S1: The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews; Table S2: Example of search strategy.

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## 8 DISCUSSÃO

Esta tese foi composta por três estudos interligados, com resultados que oferecem contribuições para o avanço do conhecimento em Ciências do Esporte, com foco na relação entre fatores genéticos e lesões musculares no futebol profissional. Os dois primeiros estudos investigaram, de forma independente, a associação dos genes MuRF-1/TRIM63 e ACTN3 R577X com a ocorrência e incidência de lesões musculares. O terceiro estudo, uma revisão sistemática, avaliou os efeitos do exercício físico sobre a expressão do mRNA do gene MuRF-1/TRIM63. Os achados dos estudos contribuem para a compreensão das limitações atuais da modalidade investigada, bem como da complexidade dos fatores que influenciam a predisposição e recuperação de lesões musculares no futebol profissional. Esses resultados destacam a necessidade de abordagens poligênicas e multifatoriais para elucidar os mecanismos envolvidos no processo de lesão muscular.

Os resultados desta tese indicaram a ausência de associação significativa entre o gene MuRF-1/TRIM63 e a ocorrência de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol. Esses dados sugerem que os mecanismos de ação desse gene, amplamente reconhecido como regulador da homeostase muscular (Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020), podem não estar diretamente relacionados a ocorrência de lesões musculares nesse contexto específico. O gene TRIM63, que codifica a proteína MuRF-1, é um regulador essencial da via ubiquitina-proteassoma, sendo crucial para a degradação de proteínas miofibrilares em condições de atrofia muscular ou após dano muscular induzido por exercício (Bodine *et al.*, 2001; Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2021). Estudos como o de Baumert *et al.* (2017) sugerem que o polimorfismo rs2275950 no gene TRIM63, ao modificar a afinidade da MuRF-1 pela titina, pode influenciar a resistência das fibras musculares ao dano excêntrico e a subsequente recuperação de força muscular. Contudo, os achados da presente tese indicam que, no contexto específico de jogadores de futebol, essas influências genéticas podem não ser suficientemente fortes ou consistentes para associar esse gene a ocorrência de lesões musculares.

A literatura também sugere que o impacto do MuRF-1/TRIM63 pode ser amplamente dependente de interações poligênicas e de fatores ambientais. Baumert *et al.* (2022) identificaram que múltiplos SNPs, incluindo o do gene TRIM63, contribuem conjuntamente para a resposta ao dano muscular induzido por exercício, mas de forma modulada por aspectos como características do tecido conjuntivo, perfil inflamatório e regeneração celular. Ainda, o papel do MuRF-1 como "regulador mestre" da atrofia muscular está bem documentado, com sua expressão sendo altamente regulada em condições catabólicas e associada à degradação de proteínas contráteis no sarcômero (Peris-Moreno *et al.*, 2020). No

entanto, a ausência de associação significativa nesta tese pode ser atribuída à complexidade do fenótipo de lesões musculares, que não depende exclusivamente da expressão ou atividade do MuRF-1, mas também de fatores externos, como treino, carga de jogo e histórico de lesões. Assim, embora o MuRF-1 desempenhe um papel fundamental na biologia muscular, seu impacto em lesões musculares específicas em jogadores de futebol ainda requer investigações mais detalhadas no contexto esportivo.

A distribuição das lesões musculares entre as diferentes posições em campo é um aspecto relevante na epidemiologia do futebol, sendo influenciada pelas exigências físicas inerentes a cada função tática (Hägglund *et al.*, 2005; Sinovas *et al.*, 2020). Os dados da presente tese indicaram que os meio-campistas apresentaram uma taxa de incidência de lesões musculares significativamente maior do que os zagueiros durante os jogos. Esse achado é consistente com investigações anteriores que demonstraram que os meio-campistas estão sujeitos a maiores demandas de alta intensidade, incluindo maior distância percorrida e número de desacelerações, o que pode contribuir para um maior risco de lesões musculares (Morgans *et al.*, 2025). Além disso, Sarmiento *et al.* (2024) destacaram que os meio-campistas desempenham um papel crucial na transição ofensiva e defensiva, exigindo frequentes mudanças de direção e esforços intermitentes de alta intensidade, fatores que elevam a probabilidade de lesões musculares. Essa predisposição a lesões musculares entre os meio-campistas também foi corroborada por Hall *et al.* (2022), que relataram que essa posição apresenta uma das mais altas taxas de incidência de lesões durante as partidas, reforçando a importância de especificar as estratégias de prevenção e recuperação para os jogadores de futebol. De maneira semelhante, Sinovas *et al.* (2020) identificaram que a incidência de lesões musculares em jovens jogadores de futebol segue um padrão semelhante, com meio-campistas e atacantes apresentando as maiores taxas de lesões musculares devido à elevada carga de trabalho físico e à necessidade de frequentes mudanças de direção e acelerações. Dessa forma, os resultados da presente tese contribuem para a literatura científica ao reforçar que meio-campistas podem estar particularmente vulneráveis a lesões musculares devido às exigências intensas da posição, demandando abordagens individualizadas para mitigar esse risco.

Os resultados da presente tese indicaram que os jogadores de futebol com o genótipo ACTN3 RR apresentaram uma taxa de incidência de lesões musculares significativamente maior em comparação aos portadores do genótipo ACTN3 XX. Esses achados corroboram com estudos prévios que destacaram o papel desse gene na predisposição a lesões musculares (Mcauley *et al.*, 2022; Murtagh *et al.*, 2023). No entanto, investigações recentes apresentaram resultados divergentes. Por exemplo, Del Coso *et al.* (2024) demonstraram que jogadores

profissionais de futebol da LaLiga com o genótipo XX, caracterizados pela ausência da proteína alfa-actinina 3 nas fibras musculares do tipo II, exibiram maior incidência de lesões musculares em comparação aos genótipos RR e RX. De forma semelhante, Massidda *et al.* (2024) identificaram uma associação significativa entre o ACTN3 R577X e a suscetibilidade a lesões musculares, enfatizando que jogadores com variantes genéticas protetoras apresentaram uma menor incidência de danos musculares.

A ausência da proteína alfa-actinina 3 pode levar a alterações estruturais e metabólicas nas fibras musculares, como um aumento do dano induzido pelo exercício excêntrico e uma capacidade reduzida de regeneração muscular, o que explicaria a maior vulnerabilidade de indivíduos XX a lesões musculares em esportes de alta intensidade com ações de curta duração, como o futebol (Del Coso *et al.*, 2019; Lim *et al.*, 2021; Rodas *et al.*, 2021). No entanto, a divergência entre os achados da literatura e os resultados da presente tese podem ser explicadas pela influência de fatores ambientais e individuais, tais como diferenças nos métodos de recuperação, nível de condicionamento físico e variantes genéticas, que podem modular o impacto direto do ACTN3 R577X na predisposição a lesões musculares no futebol.

Nesse sentido, estudos como o de Maestro *et al.* (2022) enfatizaram que a relação entre o genótipo ACTN3 R577X e as lesões musculares pode ser modulada por fatores epigenéticos e pela interação com outros polimorfismos. A abordagem do *Total Genotype Score* (TGS), que avalia a combinação de variantes genéticas associadas a lesões, sugeriu que indivíduos com TGS baixo (indicando predominância de variantes de risco) apresentaram maior probabilidade de lesões musculares. Essa interação poligênica pode diminuir ou intensificar o impacto isolado do polimorfismo R577X, especialmente em estudos com populações heterogêneas. Adicionalmente, Del Coso *et al.* (2019) apontaram que a deficiência de alfa-actinina 3 em indivíduos XX pode ser parcialmente compensada pela expressão de alfa-actinina 2, o que pode garantir a integridade funcional do sarcômero em muitas situações, mas com limitações em condições de alto estresse mecânico ou metabólico. Esses resultados reforçam a necessidade de considerar variações metodológicas, tamanhos amostrais e definições de lesões entre os estudos. Assim, os achados da presente tese contribuem para o entendimento de que, apesar de potenciais associações genéticas identificadas previamente, o impacto do ACTN3 R577X nas lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol pode ser limitado ou mediado por outros fatores contextuais e genéticos.

Em relação às revisões sistemáticas, um estudo centrou-se em vários modelos patológicos que alteraram a expressão do mRNA de MuRF-1/TRIM63 em ratos (Macêdo *et al.*, 2020). Marques *et al.* (2022) discutiram os efeitos do treino e da suplementação com

proteína de soro de leite na expressão do mRNA de MuRF-1/TRIM63 em modelos murinos. Ambas as revisões se concentraram em estudos realizados com animais, o que pode limitar a compreensão do papel do MuRF-1/TRIM63, uma vez que essas pesquisas abordaram sua resposta em condições fisiológicas específicas e estados patológicos. Em indivíduos saudáveis, a expressão do mRNA de MuRF-1/TRIM63 foi modulada pelo exercício físico, sendo sensível a diferentes modalidades de treinamento em humanos (Baumert *et al.*, 2022; Fagundes *et al.*, 2024). Esses resultados indicam que a proteína MuRF-1 desempenha um papel crucial na degradação e renovação de proteínas musculares, sendo essencial para as adaptações induzidas pelo exercício. Além disso, sua atuação contribui para a recuperação e remodelação do músculo esquelético após o exercício físico.

Entre as limitações do presente trabalho, destaca-se o tamanho amostral reduzido, que pode ter comprometido a detecção de associações significativas. Além disso, aspectos relacionados ao contexto do futebol, como o número de jogos durante a temporada e os aspectos psicológicos possivelmente podem influenciar os resultados. Outro ponto relevante é que os polimorfismos genéticos de MuRF-1/TRIM63 e ACTN3 R577X foram analisados isoladamente. É relevante destacar que a avaliação isolada de um SNP, sem considerar suas interações com genótipos de outros genes mediadores, pode levar a interpretações limitadas. A interação combinada de múltiplos genes, analisada em abordagens poligênicas, oferece uma perspectiva analítica mais robusta, permitindo compreender como determinadas combinações genéticas podem estar associadas à predisposição a lesões musculares no contexto do futebol de alto rendimento.

Apesar dessas limitações, esta tese apresenta contribuições inéditas para o esporte, com ênfase específica no futebol. O primeiro estudo investigou a relação entre o gene MuRF-1/TRIM63 e as lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissionais. Adicionalmente, o segundo estudo explorou a relação do ACTN3 R577X com as lesões musculares, considerando também a posição em que os jogadores atuaram em campo. Por fim, foi realizada a primeira revisão sistemática avaliando os efeitos do exercício físico na expressão do mRNA do MuRF-1/TRIM63 em indivíduos saudáveis. Esses esforços oferecem contribuições científicas para ampliar o entendimento da genética no esporte e criar bases sólidas para futuras investigações no contexto esportivo. Além disso, a genotipagem pode ser um processo capaz de auxiliar e integrar os modelos multifatoriais de prevenção da lesão muscular no futebol (Fagundes *et al.*, 2024; Lim *et al.*, 2021). Esse método que possibilita a avaliação genética de cada indivíduo, fornece informações biológicas relevantes que podem

ser relacionadas com outros fatores de risco na identificação de indivíduos com maior probabilidade de sofrerem uma lesão muscular ao longo da temporada.

Portanto, os achados desta tese evidenciaram a complexa relação entre os fatores genéticos e as lesões musculares, reforçando a relevância de abordagens poligênicas e análises multifatoriais para compreender os mecanismos subjacentes. Futuros estudos, com amostras ampliadas e um controle mais rigoroso das variáveis contextuais, poderão gerar resultados mais robustos e consistentes. No âmbito prático, os resultados apresentados nesta tese têm o potencial de contribuir para o desenvolvimento de estratégias preventivas individualizadas, além de auxiliar no controle e monitoramento da carga de treinamento e nos processos de recuperação. Esses avanços podem contribuir para a redução da incidência de lesões musculares e, conseqüentemente, otimizar o rendimento esportivo no futebol profissional.

## 9 CONCLUSÃO

O polimorfismo genético do MuRF-1/TRIM63 não apresentou associação significativa com as lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol, enquanto o ACTN3 R577X e a posição dos jogadores em campo influenciaram a incidência dessas lesões musculares. A maior ocorrência de lesões musculares observada em determinados genótipos do ACTN3 R577X e em posições específicas sugere que as exigências físicas inerentes a cada função em campo impactam diretamente o risco de lesões musculares, ressaltando a importância da individualização das cargas de treinamento e das estratégias de prevenção e recuperação.

Além disso, os efeitos do exercício físico na expressão do mRNA de MuRF-1/TRIM63 foram modulados por variáveis como a ordem e o tipo de exercício (resistência e *endurance*), a intensidade, a idade, o sexo e o nível de aptidão física, evidenciando a complexidade da regulação genética na adaptação muscular. Esses achados reforçam a interação entre a genética, as características individuais e os fatores ambientais, destacando a necessidade de abordagens integrativas para compreender os mecanismos genéticos envolvidos na promoção da saúde e na prevenção das lesões musculares no esporte de alto rendimento.

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## ANEXO 1 – COMITÊ DE ÉTICA EM PESQUISA (PARECER)

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### PARECER CONSUBSTANCIADO DO CEP

#### DADOS DO PROJETO DE PESQUISA

**Título da Pesquisa:** A associação da ACTN3 e da TRIM63 na recuperação de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol

**Pesquisador:** VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA

**Área Temática:** Genética Humana:

(Trata-se de pesquisa na qual esteja prevista a dissociação irreversível dos dados dos participantes da pesquisa.);

**Versão:** 3

**CAAE:** 60799622.9.0000.5149

**Instituição Proponente:** PRO REITORIA DE PESQUISA

**Patrocinador Principal:** Financiamento Próprio

#### DADOS DO PARECER

**Número do Parecer:** 5.764.810

#### Apresentação do Projeto:

Trata-se de emenda em resposta a parecer anterior.

Trata-se de estudo de caso que tem como objetivo identificar se existem associações entre os polimorfismos genéticos da ACTN3 e TRIM63 com os indicadores de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol. A amostra do estudo será composta por cerca de 72 jogadores de futebol do sexo masculino com idade igual ou superior de 20 anos que fazem parte de clubes da primeira divisão do futebol brasileiro e que serão divididos em grupo ACTN3 e TRIM63.

#### Objetivo da Pesquisa:

Objetivo Primário:

Identificar se existem associações entre os polimorfismos genéticos da ACTN3 e TRIM63 com os indicadores de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol.

Objetivo Secundário:

1: Verificar a associação dos polimorfismos da ACTN3 e da TRIM63 individual e combinado na

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Continuação do Parecer: 5.764.810

incidência das lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol.

2: Verificar a associação dos polimorfismos da ACTN3 e da TRIM63 individual e combinado na gravidade das lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol.

3: Verificar a associação dos polimorfismos da ACTN3 e da TRIM63 individual e combinado no tempo de recuperação em jogadores de futebol.

**Avaliação dos Riscos e Benefícios:**

Riscos:

De acordo com a Resolução CNS 466/12, toda pesquisa envolvendo seres humanos possui algum tipo de risco. O presente estudo oferece pequenos riscos aos sujeitos. A coleta de sangue pode causar dor e hematoma no local, que desaparecerá com o passar do tempo. Todo o material utilizado para coleta é estéril, descartável, anulando o risco de contrair doenças. Todo esforço será feito no sentido de atentar para o bem-estar físico e psicológico dos participantes, interrompendo-se a testagem aos menores sinais de desconforto, além de se adotar procedimentos e esclarecimentos necessários.

Benefícios:

Os resultados desse projeto de pesquisa permitem contribuir no desenvolvimento do treinamento esportivo, no sentido de apresentar evidências de que determinadas variações genéticas (polimorfismos) podem auxiliar na prescrição de carga para jogadores de futebol, maximizando o processo de recuperação, bem como reduzindo o risco de lesões musculares. Uma vez que os genes estudados (ACTN3 e TRIM63) se relacionam com o tempo de recuperação, a gravidade e a incidência da lesão muscular na temporada.

**Comentários e Considerações sobre a Pesquisa:**

Projeto relevante para a área da saúde, conforme parecer da Câmara do Departamento de Esportes da Escola de Educação Física da UFMG e atende os preceitos éticos. Projeto de doutorado vinculado ao Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciências do Esporte da Escola de Educação Física, Fisioterapia e Terapia Ocupacional da UFMG.

Projeto prevê retirada de sangue para análise de polimorfismo gênico. Apresenta termo de constituição de biorrepositório.

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Continuação do Parecer: 5.764.810

**Considerações sobre os Termos de apresentação obrigatória:**

Termo de constituição de biorrepositório.

**Recomendações:**

Sem recomendações

**Conclusões ou Pendências e Lista de Inadequações:**

Somos, S.M.J., favoráveis à aprovação da emenda.

**Considerações Finais a critério do CEP:**

Tendo em vista a legislação vigente (Resolução CNS 466/12), o CEP-UFMG recomenda aos Pesquisadores: comunicar toda e qualquer alteração do projeto e do termo de consentimento via emenda na Plataforma Brasil, informar imediatamente qualquer evento adverso ocorrido durante o desenvolvimento da pesquisa (via documental encaminhada em papel), apresentar na forma de notificação relatórios parciais do andamento do mesmo a cada 06 (seis) meses e ao término da pesquisa encaminhar a este Comitê um sumário dos resultados do projeto (relatório final).

**O presente projeto, seguiu nesta data para análise da CONEP e só tem o seu início autorizado após a aprovação pela mesma.**

**Este parecer foi elaborado baseado nos documentos abaixo relacionados:**

Tipo Documento	Arquivo	Postagem	Autor	Situação
Informações Básicas do Projeto	PB_INFORMACOES_BASICAS_DO_PROJETO_1982834.pdf	01/11/2022 16:51:13		Aceito
Outros	2_CARTA_RESPOSTA.pdf	01/11/2022 16:49:10	VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA	Aceito
Declaração de Manuseio Material Biológico / Biorepositório / Biobanco	Termo_de_constituicao_de_biorrepositorio.pdf	01/11/2022 16:46:19	VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA	Aceito
Outros	CARTA_ANUENCIA.pdf	01/10/2022 17:08:40	VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA	Aceito
Projeto Detalhado / Brochura Investigador	PROJETO_novo.pdf	01/10/2022 17:07:44	VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA	Aceito
TCLE / Termos de Assentimento / Justificativa de Ausência	TCLE_novo.pdf	01/10/2022 17:07:09	VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA	Aceito
Outros	PARECER_CONSUBSTANCIADO.pdf	19/07/2022 16:22:51	VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA	Aceito
Folha de Rosto	FOLHA_ROSTO.pdf	15/07/2022 17:08:51	VARLEY TEOLDO DA COSTA	Aceito

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UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE  
MINAS GERAIS



**PARECER CONSUBSTANCIADO DO CEP**

Continuação do Parecer: 5.764.810

**Situação do Parecer:**

Aprovado

**Necessita Apreciação da CONEP:**

Sim

BELO HORIZONTE, 18 de Novembro de 2022

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**Assinado por:**  
**Críssia Carem Paiva Fontainha**  
**(Coordenador(a))**

**Endereço:** Av. Presidente Antonio Carlos, 6627 º 2º. Andar º Sala 2005 º Campus Pampulha  
**Bairro:** Unidade Administrativa II **CEP:** 31.270-901  
**UF:** MG **Município:** BELO HORIZONTE  
**Telefone:** (31)3409-4592 **E-mail:** coep@prpq.ufmg.br

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## POLIMORFISMOS GENÉTICOS ASSOCIADOS À LESÃO MUSCULAR EM JOGADORES DE FUTEBOL PROFISSIONAL

Pesquisador: Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa

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Prezado, convidamos você a participar da pesquisa intitulada “**Polimorfismos genéticos associados à lesão muscular em jogadores de futebol profissional**” realizada pela Escola de Educação Física, Fisioterapia e Terapia Ocupacional (EEFFTO), na Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais (UFMG), sob orientação do Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa. Pedimos a sua autorização para a coleta, o depósito, o armazenamento, a utilização e descarte do material biológico humano (DNA). A utilização do seu material biológico está vinculada a este projeto de pesquisa. A coleta de dados será realizada de forma presencial nos respectivos locais de treinamento. Nesta pesquisa o objetivo principal é identificar se existem associações entre os polimorfismos genéticos da ACTN3 e da TRIM63 com os indicadores de lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol.

O principal benefício do estudo consiste em contribuir para o desenvolvimento do treinamento esportivo, no sentido de apresentar evidências de que determinadas variações genéticas (polimorfismos) podem auxiliar na prescrição de carga para atletas de futebol, maximizando o processo de recuperação, bem como reduzindo o risco de lesões musculares. Uma vez que os genes estudados (ACTN3 e TRIM63) se relacionam com o tempo de recuperação, a gravidade e a incidência da lesão muscular na temporada. Nesse sentido, alguns indivíduos podem ter maior predisposição as lesões musculares quando submetidos a tarefas que exijam força e potência comparados a outros indivíduos. Além disso, sua participação nesta pesquisa proporcionará benefícios como produção e disseminação de conhecimento através de artigos científicos que serão escritos, ajudando os profissionais que trabalham com a sua modalidade esportiva a elaborarem treinamentos melhores de acordo com as necessidades de cada atleta.

Você treinará normalmente em seu clube de futebol e seguirá a programação de treinos e jogos da equipe. A coleta dos dados irá ocorrer no clube, em um único dia, no período da manhã, com horário e dia estabelecidos pela comissão técnica e pesquisador. Para as coletas dos dados, serão solicitados dois procedimentos. Inicialmente, serão realizadas as medidas corporais pelo fisiologista do clube. A massa corporal (kg) será medida com uma balança digital (Filizola®). A estatura (cm) será medida utilizando-se um estadiômetro acoplado à balança digital. As dobras cutâneas (subescapular, trícepal, peitoral, suprailíaca, supraespinhal, abdominal, coxa e panturrilha) serão obtidas utilizando-se um plicômetro graduado em milímetros (Lange®). Posteriormente, para determinar as análises genéticas, 4 ml de sangue serão extraídos da veia antecubital e uma punção venosa será realizada por dois enfermeiros e por dois médicos integrantes do departamento médico do clube devidamente treinados e com experiência nesse tipo de procedimento. O tempo de coleta será de aproximadamente 15 minutos. Você será sempre acompanhado por um dos responsáveis pela pesquisa.

O risco envolvido na pesquisa é mínimo. A coleta de 4 ml de sangue (equivalente a medida aproximada de uma colher de sobremesa) será realizada para fins de conhecer qual é a forma do gene que você possui. Apesar da possibilidade de doer um pouco e deixar uma mancha no local, como numa escoriação rotineira que desaparece com o passar do tempo, este procedimento é rápido e seguro. Todo o material utilizado para a coleta é estéril, descartável, e não existe nenhum risco de contrair doenças. Todo esforço será feito no sentido de atentar para o seu bem-estar físico e psicológico, interrompendo-se os procedimentos aos menores sinais de desconforto, além de se adotar condutas de relaxamento e esclarecimento se for

necessário. É importante destacar que o UFMG *Soccer Science Center* lhe garante o direito à assistência integral e gratuita devido a danos diretos/ indiretos e imediatos/ tardios relacionados à sua participação nesse estudo pelo tempo que for necessário.

Todos os seus dados pessoais serão confidenciais, sua identidade não será revelada publicamente em hipótese alguma e somente os pesquisadores envolvidos neste estudo terão acesso a essas informações. Os dados de cada participante receberão um código e não terão nenhuma identificação que permita associá-lo a um participante em particular. O cadastro das amostras é realizado através de um banco de dados, no qual apenas a equipe de pesquisadores envolvida no projeto tem acesso. Assim, reforçamos que todos os dados gerados nessa pesquisa serão mantidos em sigilo.

Para participar desta pesquisa, você deverá consentir e assinar um Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido. Como participante voluntário você tem todo o direito de recusar a participação ou retirar seu consentimento em qualquer momento da pesquisa sem penalidade alguma e sem prejuízo a sua pessoa.

Não está prevista qualquer forma de remuneração para os voluntários. Em casos de despesas especificamente relacionadas ao estudo, essas são de responsabilidade do UFMG *Soccer Science Center* e você será completamente ressarcido (exemplo: gastos com transporte e alimentação). Neste caso, você tem total liberdade para desistir de participar do estudo, sem nenhum ônus, a qualquer momento. Será fornecida assistência integral por qualquer dano que venha a ocorrer durante a sua participação nos procedimentos do estudo. Em emergência, os integrantes do departamento médico do clube (fisioterapeutas e médicos) serão chamados. Esse departamento será o responsável primário para qualquer eventualidade de cunho clínico, e a equipe de pesquisadores acompanhará todos os procedimentos.

Durante a realização da pesquisa, você está autorizado a solicitar esclarecimentos sobre os protocolos, métodos e objetivos de todas as condutas dos pesquisadores. Além disso, possíveis desconfortos devem ser comunicados e serão prontamente atendidos pelos pesquisadores. Assim, para esclarecer qualquer dúvida, você poderá entrar em contato com o professor Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa, pelo telefone (31) 3409-2331, (31) 3409-2348 e/ou e-mail: vtcosta@hotmail.com. Caso você tenha dúvidas em relação aos procedimentos éticos do estudo, entre em contato com o Comitê de Ética em Pesquisa da Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais (CEP-UFMG) (órgão responsável por fiscalizar e acompanhar pesquisas realizadas com seres humanos e animais a fim de defender seus interesses, sua integridade e sua dignidade) situado na Av. Presidente Antônio Carlos, 6627 – Unidade Administrativa II – 2º andar, sala 2005, CEP 312570-901, Belo Horizonte/MG, pelo telefone/fax (31) 3409-4592 e e-mail: coep@prpq.ufmg.br.

Neste sentido, convido você a assinar esse Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido, caso esteja suficientemente explicado sobre os objetivos, os procedimentos a serem realizados, seus desconfortos e riscos, as garantias de confidencialidade e demais dúvidas. Você tem o tempo que for preciso para que possa refletir sobre sua participação na pesquisa, podendo consultar, se necessário, seus familiares ou outras pessoas que possam ajudá-lo na tomada de decisão livre e esclarecida. Caso necessite é contida a retirada do consentimento de guarda das amostras biológicas humanas armazenados no estudo e ainda não processados, podendo dar-se a qualquer tempo, sem prejuízo a sua participação na pesquisa, com validade a partir da data da comunicação da decisão, sendo necessária a devolução/destruição de todas as amostras coletadas e não processadas durante o estudo.

Por fim, o termo será assinado em duas vias, sendo uma para posse do pesquisador responsável e outra para posse do participante voluntário. Todas as páginas deverão ser rubricadas pelo pesquisador responsável / pessoa por ele delegada e pelo participante.

Eu, \_\_\_\_\_,

portador do documento de identidade \_\_\_\_\_, fui informado dos objetivos, métodos, riscos e benefícios da pesquisa “**Identificação de polimorfismos genéticos associados a lesão muscular em jogadores de futebol profissional**” de maneira clara e detalhada e esclareci minhas dúvidas. Sei que a qualquer momento poderei solicitar novas informações e modificar minha decisão de participar dessa pesquisa se assim desejar.

( ) Concordo que o meu material biológico seja utilizado para essa pesquisa.

Declaro que concordo em participar desta pesquisa. Recebi uma via original deste termo de consentimento livre e esclarecido assinado por mim e pelo pesquisador, que me deu a oportunidade de ler e esclarecer todas as minhas dúvidas.

Belo horizonte, \_\_\_\_\_ de 20\_\_.

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Nome completo do participante

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Assinatura do participante

**Nome completo do Pesquisador: Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa**

Endereço: Avenida Antônio Carlos, 6627

CEP: 31270-901/ Belo Horizonte – MG

Telefones: (31) 3409-2331, (31) 3409-2348

E-mail: vtcosta@hotmail.com

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Assinatura do pesquisador

Em caso de dúvidas, em relação aos aspectos éticos desta pesquisa, você poderá consultar:

**COEP-UFMG - Comissão de Ética em Pesquisa da UFMG**

Av. Antônio Carlos, 6627. Unidade Administrativa II - 2º andar - Sala 2005. Campus Pampulha. Belo Horizonte, MG – Brasil. CEP: 31270-901.

E-mail: [coep@prpq.ufmg.br](mailto:coep@prpq.ufmg.br). Telefone: (31) 3409-4592

**CONEP – Comissão Nacional de ética em pesquisa**

SRTV 701, Via W 5 Norte, lote D – Edifício PO 700, 3 andar – Asa Norte CEP: 70719-040, Brasília, DF – Brasil. Telefone: (61) 3315-5877

## APÊNDICE 1



## QUESTIONÁRIO SOCIODEMOGRÁFICO E RECORDATÓRIO DE LESÕES MUSCULARES

Nome: \_\_\_\_\_

Data de Nascimento: \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_

E-mail: \_\_\_\_\_ Telefone: ( ) \_\_\_\_\_

Qual é o seu estado civil? Solteiro ( ) Casado ( ) Divorciado ( ) Viúvo ( )

Você tem filhos? Não ( ) Sim ( ), quantos \_\_\_\_\_

Posição que joga: \_\_\_\_\_ Clube atual: \_\_\_\_\_

Você joga em mais de uma posição na equipe? Não ( ) Sim ( )

Se sim, quais? \_\_\_\_\_ Perna dominante: \_\_\_\_\_

Tempo prática: \_\_\_\_\_ Peso / Altura: \_\_\_\_\_

Qual é a sua escolaridade?

Ensino Fundamental (1º ao 8º ano) ( ) incompleto ( ) completo

Ensino Médio (1º ao 3º ano) ( ) incompleto ( ) completo

Ensino Superior (Faculdade) ( ) incompleto ( ) completo



#### RECORDATÓRIO SOBRE AS LESÕES MUSCULARES PARA JOGADORES DE FUTEBOL

**1- Em relação ao seu histórico de lesões esportivas, relate as principais lesões que você teve na sua carreira como atleta de futebol? Relate os anos em que ocorreram?**

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**2- Você teve alguma lesão muscular na sua carreira no futebol? Não ( ) Sim ( )**  
**Se sim, especifique (descreva) o local?**

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**3- Você já teve alguma reincidência de lesão muscular? (Por exemplo: duas ou mais lesões musculares no mesmo local) Não ( ) Sim ( )**  
**Se sim, em qual músculo?**

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**4- Qual foi a gravidade da lesão muscular?**

Leve de 1-7 dias ( )

Moderado de 8-28 dias ( )

Severa mais que 28 dias ( )

**5- Qual foi o tempo de recuperação (dias) necessário para o seu retorno a prática esportiva após a lesão muscular? Desde o diagnóstico, transição e retorno aos treinos com o grupo principal?**

1-7 dias ( )

8-28 dias ( )

mais que 28 dias ( )

**6- Foi realizado algum exame para diagnóstico dessa lesão muscular? Não ( ) Sim ( )**

**Se sim, qual exame? Ultra som ( ) Raio X ( ) Ressonância ( ) Não soube definir o exame ( )**

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7- **Descreva como foi (mecanismo) da lesão muscular? Com ou sem contato?** (Por exemplo: Lesão muscular ao realizar um *sprint*).

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8- **Em qual momento** ocorreu a lesão muscular?

Treino ( )

Jogo oficial ( )

Amistoso ( )

9- Tem mais alguma **informação sobre a sua lesão muscular** que você gostaria de relatar? Não ( ) Sim ( )

Se sim, o que seria?

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10- Você realizou algum **tipo de tratamento fisioterápico**? Não ( ) Sim ( )  
Se sim, foi realizado no clube?

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11- Você realizou algum **tipo de procedimento cirúrgico**? Não ( ) Sim ( )  
Se sim, qual foi?

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## APÊNDICE 2

**Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais Escola de Educação Física, Fisioterapia e Terapia  
Ocupacional  
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências do Esporte**

**Carta de anuência para autorização de pesquisa**

Ilmo Sr. Prof. **Thiago Vinícius de Almeida Santos**


Solicitamos autorização institucional para realização da pesquisa intitulada “Polimorfismos genéticos associados à lesão muscular em jogadores de futebol profissional” a ser realizada na equipe profissional do Clube Atlético Mineiro, pelo doutorando Leonardo Henrique Silva Fagundes, sob orientação do Prof. Dr. Varley Teoldo da Costa e coorientador Prof. Dr. Eduardo Mendonça Pimenta, com o objetivo de identificar se os genótipos do ACTN3 rs1815739 e TRIM63 rs2275950 podem prever as lesões musculares em jogadores de futebol profissional. A coleta destes dados, deverão obrigatoriamente contar com a participação dos profissionais do clube. Ressaltamos que os dados coletados serão mantidos em absoluto sigilo e em momento algum o nome do clube será citado, seguindo as orientações da Resolução do Conselho Nacional de Saúde (CNS/MS) 466/12 que trata da pesquisa envolvendo seres humanos. Salientamos ainda que tais dados serão utilizados tão somente para realização deste estudo. Na certeza de contarmos com a colaboração e empenho desta diretoria, agradecemos antecipadamente a atenção, ficando à disposição para quaisquer esclarecimentos que se fizerem necessária.

Belo Horizonte, 04 de julho de 2022



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Leonardo Henrique Silva Fagundes



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Thiago Vinícius de Almeida Santos

*Concordo e autorizo a solicitação*

## APÊNDICE 3

Table S1. PRISMA 2020 checklist



## PRISMA 2020 Checklist

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
<b>TITLE</b>			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review.	Lines 3-4, page 1
<b>ABSTRACT</b>			
Abstract	2	See the PRISMA 2020 for Abstracts checklist.	Line 27, page 2
<b>INTRODUCTION</b>			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of existing knowledge.	Lines 50-116, pages 3-4
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of the objective(s) or question(s) the review addresses.	Lines 99-116, page 4
<b>METHODS</b>			
Eligibility criteria	5	Specify the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the review and how studies were grouped for the syntheses.	Lines 142-163, pages 4-5
Information sources	6	Specify all databases, registers, websites, organisations, reference lists and other sources searched or consulted to identify studies. Specify the date when each source was last searched or consulted.	Lines 121-139, page 4
Search strategy	7	Present the full search strategies for all databases, registers and websites, including any filters and limits used.	Table S2 of the Supplementary Material
Selection process	8	Specify the methods used to decide whether a study met the inclusion criteria of the review, including how many reviewers screened each record and each report retrieved, whether they worked independently, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.	Lines 134-139, page 4
Data collection process	9	Specify the methods used to collect data from reports, including how many reviewers collected data from each report, whether they worked independently, any processes for obtaining or confirming data from study investigators, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.	Lines 166-177, page 5
Data items	10a	List and define all outcomes for which data were sought. Specify whether all results that were compatible with each outcome domain in each study were sought (e.g. for all measures, time points, analyses), and if not, the methods used to decide which results to collect.	Lines 168-177, page 5
	10b	List and define all other variables for which data were sought (e.g. participant and intervention characteristics, funding sources). Describe any assumptions made about any missing or unclear information.	Lines 168-177, page 5
Study risk of bias assessment	11	Specify the methods used to assess risk of bias in the included studies, including details of the tool(s) used, how many reviewers assessed each study and whether they worked independently, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.	Lines 180-183, page 5
Effect measures	12	Specify for each outcome the effect measure(s) (e.g. risk ratio, mean difference) used in the synthesis or presentation of results.	Lines 166-177, page 5
Synthesis methods	13a	Describe the processes used to decide which studies were eligible for each synthesis (e.g. tabulating the study intervention characteristics and comparing against the planned groups for each synthesis (item #5)).	Lines 166-177, page 5
	13b	Describe any methods required to prepare the data for presentation or synthesis, such as handling of missing summary statistics, or data conversions.	Lines 166-177, page 5
	13c	Describe any methods used to tabulate or visually display results of individual studies and syntheses.	Lines 166-177, page 5



## PRISMA 2020 Checklist

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
	13d	Describe any methods used to synthesize results and provide a rationale for the choice(s). If meta-analysis was performed, describe the model(s), method(s) to identify the presence and extent of statistical heterogeneity, and software package(s) used.	Lines 166-177, page 5
	13e	Describe any methods used to explore possible causes of heterogeneity among study results (e.g. subgroup analysis, meta-regression).	Lines 166-177, page 5
	13f	Describe any sensitivity analyses conducted to assess robustness of the synthesized results.	Lines 166-177, page 5
Reporting bias assessment	14	Describe any methods used to assess risk of bias due to missing results in a synthesis (arising from reporting biases).	Lines 166-183, page 5
Certainty assessment	15	Describe any methods used to assess certainty (or confidence) in the body of evidence for an outcome.	Lines 166-183, page 5
<b>RESULTS</b>			
Study selection	16a	Describe the results of the search and selection process, from the number of records identified in the search to the number of studies included in the review, ideally using a flow diagram.	Lines 188-192, pages 5-6
	16b	Cite studies that might appear to meet the inclusion criteria, but which were excluded, and explain why they were excluded.	Table S3 of the Supplementary Material
Study characteristics	17	Cite each included study and present its characteristics.	Lines 197-209, pages 6-14
Risk of bias in studies	18	Present assessments of risk of bias for each included study.	Lines 214-222, pages 15-16
Results of individual studies	19	For all outcomes, present, for each study: (a) summary statistics for each group (where appropriate) and (b) an effect estimates and its precision (e.g. confidence/credible interval), ideally using structured tables or plots.	Lines 230-385, pages 16-19
Results of syntheses	20a	For each synthesis, briefly summarise the characteristics and risk of bias among contributing studies.	Lines 230-385, pages 16-19
	20b	Present results of all statistical syntheses conducted. If meta-analysis was done, present for each the summary estimate and its precision (e.g. confidence/credible interval) and measures of statistical heterogeneity. If comparing groups, describe the direction of the effect.	Lines 230-385, pages 16-19
	20c	Present results of all investigations of possible causes of heterogeneity among study results.	Lines 230-385, pages 16-19
	20d	Present results of all sensitivity analyses conducted to assess the robustness of the synthesized results.	Lines 230-385, pages 16-19
Reporting biases	21	Present assessments of risk of bias due to missing results (arising from reporting biases) for each synthesis assessed.	Lines 214-222, page 15
Certainty of evidence	22	Present assessments of certainty (or confidence) in the body of evidence for each outcome assessed.	Lines 214-222, page 15
<b>DISCUSSION</b>			
Discussion	23a	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence.	Lines 388-401, page 19



## PRISMA 2020 Checklist

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
	23b	Discuss any limitations of the evidence included in the review.	Lines 537-551, page 22
	23c	Discuss any limitations of the review processes used.	Lines 537-551, page 22
	23d	Discuss implications of the results for practice, policy, and future research.	Lines 552-570, pages 22-23
<b>OTHER INFORMATION</b>			
Registration and protocol	24a	Provide registration information for the review, including register name and registration number, or state that the review was not registered.	Lines 121-124, page 4
	24b	Indicate where the review protocol can be accessed, or state that a protocol was not prepared.	Lines 121-124, page 4
	24c	Describe and explain any amendments to information provided at registration or in the protocol.	Lines 121-124, page 4
Support	25	Describe sources of financial or non-financial support for the review, and the role of the funders or sponsors in the review.	Line 586, page 23
Competing interests	26	Declare any competing interests of review authors.	Line 590, page 23
Availability of data, code and other materials	27	Report which of the following are publicly available and where they can be found: template data collection forms; data extracted from included studies; data used for all analyses; analytic code; any other materials used in the review.	Lines 579-581, page 23

From: Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ* 2021;372:71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71  
 For more information, visit: <http://www.prisma-statement.org/>

## APÊNDICE 4

Table S2. Examples Search Strategy

Database	Search strategy	Results
Pubmed	#1: ("muscle ring finger protein 1" [MeSH Terms] OR "MuRF-1" [Title/Abstract] OR "TRIM63" [Title/Abstract] OR "atrogenes" [Title/Abstract] OR "proteolytic gene expression" [Title/Abstract]) #2: ("physical exercise" [MeSH Terms] OR "endurance training" [Title/Abstract] OR "endurance exercise" [Title/Abstract] OR "resistance training" [Title/Abstract] OR "resistance exercise" [Title/Abstract]) #3: ("humans" [MeSH Terms] OR "human skeletal muscle" [Title/Abstract] OR "men" [Title/Abstract] OR "women" [Title/Abstract]) #1 AND #2 AND #3	43
Scopus	("muscle ring finger protein 1" OR "MuRF-1" OR "TRIM63" OR "atrogenes" OR "proteolytic gene expression") AND ("physical exercise" OR "endurance training" OR "endurance exercise" OR "resistance training" OR "resistance exercise") AND ("humans" OR "human skeletal muscle" OR "men" OR "women")	59
Cochrane Library	("muscle ring finger protein 1" OR "MuRF-1" OR "TRIM63" OR "atrogenes" OR "proteolytic gene expression") AND ("physical exercise" OR "endurance training" OR "endurance exercise" OR "resistance training" OR "resistance exercise") AND ("humans" OR "human skeletal muscle" OR "men" OR "women")	20
Google Scholar	("MuRF-1" OR "TRIM63") AND ("physical exercise") AND ("human skeletal muscle")	863
Web of Science	("muscle ring finger protein 1" OR "MuRF-1" OR "TRIM63" OR "atrogenes" OR "proteolytic gene expression") AND ("physical exercise" OR "endurance training" OR "endurance exercise" OR "resistance training" OR "resistance exercise") AND ("humans" OR "human skeletal muscle" OR "men" OR "women")	156

## APÊNDICE 5

Table S3. Example Excluded studies

	References	Reason
1	West, D.W.D.; Burd, N.A.; Churchward-Venne, T.A.; Camera, D.M.; Mitchell, C.J.; Baker, S.K.; Hawley, J.A.; Coffey, V.G.; Phillips, S.M. Sex-based comparisons of myofibrillar protein synthesis after resistance exercise in the fed state. <i>J. Appl. Physiol.</i> <b>2012</b> , 112, 1805-1813	Use of supplement
2	Wette, S.G.; Birch, N.P.; Soop, M.; Zügel, M.; Murphy, R.M.; Lamb, G.D.; Smith, H.K. Expression of titin-linked putative mechanosensing proteins in skeletal muscle after power resistance exercise in resistance-trained men. <i>J. Appl. Physiol.</i> <b>2021</b> , 130, 545-561	Use of supplement
3	Borgenvik, M.; Apró, W.; Blomstrand, E. Intake of branched-chain amino acids influence the levels of MAFbx mRNA and MuRF-1 total protein in resting and exercise human muscle. <i>Am. J. Physiol. Endocrinol. Metab.</i> <b>2012</b> , 302, 510-521	Use of supplement
4	Harber, M.P.; Konopka, A.R.; Jemiolo, B.; Trappe, S.W.; Trappe, T.A.; Reidy, P.T. Muscle protein synthesis and gene expression during recovery from aerobic exercise in the fasted and fed states. <i>Am. J. Physiol. Regul. Integr. Comp. Physiol.</i> <b>2010</b> , 299, 1254-1262	Use of supplement
5	Drummond, M.J.; Fujita, S.; Abe, T.; Dreyer, H.C.; Volpi, E.; Rasmussen, B.B. Human muscle gene expression following resistance exercise and blood flow restriction. <i>Med. Sci. Sports. Exerc.</i> <b>2008</b> , 40(4), 691-698	Study protocol
6	Reitelseder, S.; Agergaard, J.; Doessing, S.; Helmark, I.C.; Schjerling, P.; van Hall, G.; Kjaer, M.; Holm, L. Positive muscle protein net balance and differential regulation of atrogene expression after resistance exercise and milk protein supplementation. <i>Eur. J. Nutr.</i> <b>2013</b> ; 53(1), 321-333	Use of supplement
7	Dalbo, V.J.; Roberts, M.D.; Hassel, S.; Kerksick, C.M. Effects of pre-exercise feeding on serum hormone concentrations and biomarkers of myostatin and ubiquitin proteasome pathway activity. <i>Eur. J. Nutr.</i> <b>2013</b> , 52, 477-487	Use of supplement
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