

Greater magnitude tibiofemoral contact forces are associated with reduced prevalence of osteochondral pathologies 2-3 years following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction

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1 Abstract

2 **Purpose:** External loading of osteoarthritic and healthy knees correlates with current and future
3 osteochondral tissue state. These relationships have not been examined following anterior
4 cruciate ligament reconstruction. We hypothesised greater magnitude tibiofemoral contact
5 forces were related to increased prevalence of osteochondral pathologies, and these
6 relationships were exacerbated by concomitant meniscal injury.

7 **Methods:** This was a cross-sectional study of 100 individuals (29.7±6.5 years, 78.1±14.4 kg)
8 examined 2-3 years following hamstring tendon anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction.
9 Thirty-eight had concurrent meniscal pathology (30.6±6.6 years, 83.3±14.3 kg), which
10 included treated and untreated meniscal injury, and 62 (29.8±6.4 years, 74.9±13.3 kg) were
11 free of meniscal pathology. Magnetic resonance imaging of reconstructed knees were used to
12 assess prevalence of tibiofemoral osteochondral pathologies (i.e., cartilage defects and bone
13 marrow lesions). A calibrated electromyogram-driven neuromusculoskeletal model was used
14 to predict medial and lateral tibiofemoral compartment contact forces from gait analysis.
15 Relationships between contact forces and osteochondral pathology prevalence were assessed
16 using logistic regression models.

17 **Results:** In patients with reconstructed knees free from meniscal pathology, greater medial
18 contact forces were related to reduced prevalence of medial cartilage defects (odds
19 ratio(OR)=0.7, Wald $\chi^2(2)=7.9$, 95% confidence interval (CI)=0.50-95, p=0.02) and bone
20 marrow lesions (OR=0.8, Wald $\chi^2(2)=4.2$, 95% CI=0.7-0.99, p=0.04). No significant
21 relationships were found in the lateral compartment of these reconstructed knees. In
22 reconstructed knees with concurrent meniscal pathology, no relationships were found between
23 contact forces and osteochondral pathologies.

24 **Conclusions:** In patients with reconstructed knees free from meniscal pathology, increased
25 contact forces were associated with fewer cartilage defects and bone marrow lesions in medial,
26 but not, lateral tibiofemoral compartments. No significant relationships were found between
27 contact forces and osteochondral pathologies in reconstructed knees with meniscal pathology
28 for any tibiofemoral compartment. Future studies should focus on determining longitudinal
29 effects of contact forces and changes in osteochondral pathologies.

30 **Level of Evidence:** Case series (Level IV).

31 **Keywords:** cartilage; defects; bone marrow lesions; anterior cruciate ligament; reconstruction;
32 meniscus

33 **Introduction**

34 Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) rupture is a debilitating intra-articular knee injury. It often
35 occurs during sport participation, and primarily affects individuals 15-25 years of age [17]. The
36 ACL-deficient knee may be managed through orthopaedic reconstruction (ACLR), the aims of
37 which are to restore translational and rotational stability. Unfortunately, ACLR does not
38 prevent early onset knee osteoarthritis (OA) [24], and the mechanisms of post-ACLR knee OA
39 development are not fully understood.

40 When the ACL and meniscus are injury concurrently, risk of future knee OA is greater than
41 following isolated ACL rupture [29]. Osteochondral pathologies, such as subchondral bone
42 marrow lesions (BMLs) and cartilage defects, are more prevalent in meniscal-injured compared
43 to isolated ACL injuries [42]. Long-term knee health may be compromised by the presence of
44 osteochondral pathologies following ACLR, as BMLs are predictors of cartilage loss [20] and
45 defect development [13], while cartilage defects predict cartilage thinning [9] and arthroplasty
46 [10]. Thus, preventing osteochondral pathologies may protect ACLR knees from OA, but
47 prevention mechanisms are unknown.

48 Over-loading the articular tissues, e.g., subchondral bone and cartilage, is a mechanism of OA
49 development. In knees with, or at risk of, OA, greater loading has been associated with disease
50 structural markers [11], severity [37], and progression [27, 35], as well as the clinical features
51 of pain [39] and dysfunction [39]. Following ACLR, both external knee loads [33] and internal
52 articular contact forces [33, 44] are lower in magnitude than in healthy control knees. Lower-
53 than-normal articular contact forces have been associated with future onset of radiographic
54 knee OA [44], and, in animals, loss of bone [1]. Critically, relationships between articular
55 contact forces and osteochondral tissue state in human ACLR knees remain unexplored, as
56 does the influence of meniscal injury on these relationships.

57 The primary aim of this study was to determine relationships between tibiofemoral contact
58 forces and osteochondral pathologies (i.e., cartilage defects and BMLs) 2-3 years following
59 isolated and meniscal-injury ACLR. We focused on contact forces produced during walking,
60 because walking (i.e., the most common human locomotor task) was the major determinant of
61 the habitual biomechanical environment at the knee. Given ACLR has been associated with
62 greater risk of early onset knee OA [24], and increased loading of at-risk, or OA-afflicted,
63 knees has been associated with more osteochondral pathologies [11, 35], we hypothesized
64 greater contact forces were related to greater cartilage defect and BML prevalence, and these
65 relationships were exacerbated by meniscal injury. This study was the first investigation into
66 relationships between contact forces and osteochondral pathologies in ACLR knees, and may
67 help focus post-operative rehabilitation toward contact forces.

68 **Materials and methods**

69 This cross-sectional study was performed at two universities with institutional human research
70 ethics approval (PES/36/10/HREC and 0932864.3). Prior to testing, participants provided their
71 informed written consent. One hundred ACLR patients were tested: 18-42 years of age, body
72 mass index $\leq 34 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, no neuromusculoskeletal or cardiovascular conditions, no lower-limb
73 trauma since ACL injury, and no clinician- or self-diagnosed OA anywhere within the body.
74 Participants were recruited from clinic records of our orthopaedic partners. Gait analysis and
75 medical imaging were completed 2-3 years following ipsilateral hamstring tendon ACLR,
76 which was performed < 6 months from initial ACL rupture. We excluded those with multiple
77 ACLR (i.e., revision(s) or contralateral ACLR) and International Cartilage Repair Society
78 (ICRS) cartilage defect grade > 1 (assessed intra-operatively during ACLR). We did not assess
79 level of sport participation at the time of injury or at the time of laboratory testing.

80 *Anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction procedure*

81 Reconstructions were performed by one of five fellowship-trained orthopaedic surgeons,
82 specializing in ACLR. Reconstructions were arthroscopically-assisted, with outside-in tibial
83 drilling followed by either trans-tibial (~50% of all participants) or anteromedial portal femoral
84 drilling. Irrespective of femoral drilling technique, the goal was to place the intra-articular
85 femoral aperture over the anteromedial aspect of the native ACL's "footprint". Semitendinosus
86 and gracilis tendons were harvested through a 3-4 cm incision over the *pes anserinus*, and used
87 to create a 4-strand autograft. An appropriately sized Closed Loop Endobutton (Smith and
88 Nephew Endoscopy, Mass, USA) was used to establish femoral fixation, while tibial fixation
89 was achieved with an interference screw. Meniscal repair was undertaken if the surgeon
90 deemed the lesion repairable and a stable repair construct with an element of vascularity could
91 be achieved. If these conditions were not met, but the lesion was deemed stable through
92 probing, it was left in place, otherwise, it was resected. Henceforth, ACLR with meniscal
93 pathology will known as 'meniscal-injured ACLR', including those with repaired, resected, or
94 untreated meniscus injury, and ACLR without meniscal pathology as "isolated ACLR".

95 The day following surgery participants left hospital and were instructed to return to full weight
96 bearing with unrestricted range of motion as tolerated. All participants, including those with
97 meniscal pathology, immediately underwent accelerated criterion-based physical therapy [38]
98 to restore knee range of motion and strength, with particular emphasis on vastus medialis
99 recruitment. Participants were instructed to begin training on a stationary bicycle by post-
100 operative week 4, and by 3-4 months were cleared for vigorous straight-line running. At 4
101 months, participants were cleared to commence sport-specific exercises. Throughout therapy,
102 feedback on progress and exercise guidelines were provided to participants. If participants
103 could complete scheduled rehabilitation exercises without evoking substantial pain or swelling,
104 they were graduated to more challenging exercises.

105 *Magnetic resonance imaging*

106 Magnetic resonance imaging was performed at two different locations: one used a 1.5 T Signa
107 (GE Healthcare, Wisconsin) unit and the other a 3.0 T Magnetom Verio (Siemens, Germany)
108 unit. The ACLR knees were subjected to T₁-weighted 3-dimensional gradient recall in sagittal
109 plane to image cartilage structure, and proton density (PD)-weighted fat-saturated spin echo in
110 coronal plane to image subchondral BMLs. For the 1.5 T unit, the T₁-weighted sequences used
111 55° flip angle, 4.4 x 10⁻² s repetition time, 1.2 x 10⁻³ s echo time, 1.6 x 10⁻² m field of view, 1.5
112 x 10⁻³ m slice thickness, and 256x256 pixel matrix, while PD-weighted sequences used 155°
113 flip angle, 4 s repetition time, 5 x 10⁻² s echo time, 3 x 10⁻³ m slice thickness, 1.6 x 10⁻¹ m field
114 of view, and 256x256 pixel matrix. For the 3 T unit, T₁-weighted sequences used 10° flip angle,
115 1.25 x 10⁻² s repetition time, 4.9 x 10⁻³ s echo time, 1.6 x 10⁻¹ m field of view, 1.5 x 10⁻³ m
116 slice thickness, and 512x512 pixel matrix, while PD-weighted sequences used 155° flip angle,
117 2.64 s repetition time, 3.7 x 10⁻² s echo time, 3 x 10⁻³ m slice thickness, 1.6 x 10⁻¹ m field of
118 view, and 256x256 matrix.

119 *Cartilage defects and bone marrow lesions assessment*

120 Osteochondral pathologies were assessed by a trained examiner with >10 years of experience
121 assessing osteochondral pathologies from MRI. The examiner was blind to participant
122 characteristics and meniscal injury status. Cartilage defects were assessed using ICRS score: 0
123 (normal), 1 (focal blistering and intra-cartilaginous low-signal intensity area with intact surface
124 and base), 2 (surface or base irregularity and <50% thickness loss), 3 (deep lesions >50%
125 thickness loss) and 4 (full-thickness focal defects or subchondral bone exposure due to wear).
126 Cartilage defect prevalence was defined as ICRS score >1 for ≥2 consecutive sagittal plane
127 MR images. Inter-rater reliability for cartilage defect assessment, expressed as intra-class
128 correlation coefficients, was 0.85-0.93 [9]. The BMLs were assessed using the MRI
129 Osteoarthritis Knee Score [19], which determined the extent of involvement in 10 knee

130 subregions. The BMLs were scored: 0 (none), 1 (<1/3 of subregion volume), 2 (1/3–2/3 of
131 subregion volume), and 3 (>2/3 of subregion volume). The BML prevalence was defined as
132 grade >1 on >2 consecutive coronal plane MR images. Intra- and inter-rater reliability of BML
133 assessment, expressed as weighted kappa-values, were 0.50-1.00 and 0.67-1.00, respectively
134 [42]. For these same ACLR participants, cartilage defect and BML prevalence has been
135 previously reported, as have cartilage volume and tibial plateau bone area [42] (summarized in
136 Table 2). Briefly, isolated and meniscal-injured ACLR knees in this study had more cartilage
137 defects and BMLs compared to healthy knees from a control sample of healthy knees.
138 Meniscal-injured ACLR knees had greater prevalence of medial tibial and femoral cartilage
139 defects compared to isolated ACLR knees (not listed in Table 2, see [42]). There were no
140 differences in cartilage volume, tibial bone area, and BML prevalence between isolated and
141 meniscal-injured ACLR knees.

142 *Gait analysis*

143 Within a week of MRI, participants underwent laboratory-based gait analysis wherein full-
144 body motion, ground reaction forces (GRFs), and surface electromyograms (EMGs) were
145 concurrently and synchronously acquired. Participants walked over-ground at their self-
146 selected pace wearing a full-body retro-reflective marker set [33]. Three-dimensional
147 instantaneous marker positions were acquired using 10- or 12-camera Vicon (Oxford Metrics
148 Group, UK) motion capture systems sampling at 200 or 120 Hz, respectively. The GRFs were
149 acquired using two (Kistler Instrumente, Switzerland) or three (Advanced Mechanical
150 Technology, USA) ground-embedded force platforms sampling at 1000 or 2400 Hz,
151 respectively. Surface EMGs were acquired from 8 major muscles of the affected knee using
152 Wave Wireless (Zero Wire, Aurion, Italy) or Telemyo 900 (Noraxon, Arizona, USA) systems
153 sampling at 1000 or 2400 Hz, respectively. The skin surface was prepared consistent with
154 recommendations from the ‘Surface Electromyography for the Non-Invasive Assessment of

155 Muscles' project (<http://www.seniam.org/>). Circular pre-formed bipolar Ag/AgCl electrodes
156 (Duo-Trode, Myotronics, USA) were applied atop medial and lateral gastrocnemii, hamstrings,
157 and vasti, as well as rectus femoris and tensor fasciae latae.

158 *Biomechanical modelling*

159 Marker positions, GRFs, and EMGs were processed using custom Matlab (The Mathworks,
160 USA) code. Marker positions and GRFs were digitally filtered using a 2nd order infinite impulse
161 response low-pass Butterworth design. Data were filter-cascaded once to remove phase effects,
162 and a cascade-adjusted 10 Hz cut-off applied. Each EMG was band-pass filtered (30-500 Hz),
163 full-wave rectified, and low-pass filtered (6 Hz cut-off) to produce a linear envelope [23].
164 Amplitude of each linear envelope was scaled to its maximum, identified from maximal
165 exertion isometric contractions performed on a seated dynamometer (Biodex, NY, USA) and
166 dynamic motor tasks.

167 Gait biomechanics were determined using OpenSim [12] v3.2. A customized anatomic model
168 was linearly scaled using pairs of prominent landmarks and joint centres [33]. Tendon and
169 muscle force-length relationships are not necessarily preserved during this linear scaling [43].
170 To resolve this issue, we optimized tendon slack and optimal muscle fibre lengths for the 11
171 knee-spanning muscle tendon unit actuators (MTUAs) to preserve the dimensionless tendon
172 and muscle fibre force-length relationships from the template model [28]. We then used
173 OpenSim inverse kinematics, inverse dynamics, and muscle analysis tools to determine model
174 kinematics, external kinetics, and MTUA kinematics (i.e., lengths and moment arms),
175 respectively.

176 Gait biomechanics, MTUA kinematics and parameters, as well as conditioned EMGs were used
177 to calibrate an EMG-driven model [23] with embedded tibiofemoral contact model [16, 45].
178 Prior to calibration, model representation of ACLR semitendinosus was modified [32] to reflect

179 post-harvest structure [22]. The EMG-driven model predicted medial and lateral tibiofemoral
180 contact forces (N). As these participants did not have instrumented knee implants, it is not
181 possible to measure tibiofemoral contact force predict error. However, similar previous studies
182 conducted on individuals with instrumented prosthetic knee implants [16] found root mean
183 squared errors of ~140-300 N and 250-280 N for medial and lateral tibiofemoral compartments,
184 respectively. Tibiofemoral contact forces were subsequently time normalized to 100% of gait
185 cycle. Each participant's maximum contact forces were identified from the stance phase of
186 three repeated walking trials. From these, means were calculated and used together with
187 osteochondral pathology prevalence in subsequent statistical analyses.

188 *Statistical analyses*

189 As there is no prior study of effects of tibiofemoral contact forces on osteochondral pathologies
190 in ACLR knees, we conducted a power analysis [14] based on reported relationships between
191 tibiofemoral contact stresses and osteochondral pathologies in at-risk knees [35]. We used
192 average odds ratios of effects of contact stresses on osteochondral pathologies (i.e., 4.25).
193 Forty-six participants were required to achieve 5% alpha error and 95% statistical power using
194 a two-tailed, normally distributed, logistic regression analysis. Statistical analyses were
195 performed using SPSS v22 (IBM, NY, USA). Logistic regressions were used to assess
196 relationships between contact forces and osteochondral pathology. Contact forces were used as
197 predictors of prevalence of cartilage defects and BMLs in the respective tibiofemoral
198 compartments of isolated and meniscal-injured ACLR knees. In meniscal-injured ACLR knees,
199 we examined the compartment where meniscal injury had occurred. Those with bilateral (i.e.,
200 medial and lateral compartment) meniscal injuries were included in regression models for both
201 compartments. Results were reported per unit increase of 10% mean bodyweight of the entire

202 cohort of ACLR participants (i.e., 77 N).

203 **Results**

204 General characteristics of these ACLR participants have been reported [42] (summary in Table
205 1). Isolated and meniscal-injured ACLR participants were of similar age and height, and the
206 groups contained similar proportions of males and tested right lower-limbs. Meniscal-injured
207 ACLR participants had greater body mass (83.3 ± 14.3 kg) and body mass index (26.9 ± 4.1 kg·m⁻²)
208 compared to isolated ACLR participants (74.9 ± 13.3 kg, 24.2 ± 2.8 kg·m⁻²) (both $p<0.001$).
209 Isolated and meniscal-injured participants received ACLR at similar times following initial
210 ACL injuries, and participated in this study at similar times following ACLR. Approximately
211 44% of isolated and 59% of meniscal-injured ACLR participants received transtibial femoral
212 drilling, the remainder performed with anteromedial portal technique.

213 The meniscal injuries present in this cohort of ACLR knees are reported in Table 3. Lateral
214 meniscus injuries were most common, with 25 instances in 38 meniscal-injured ACLR knees.
215 Of these 25 lateral meniscal injuries, 12 were treated with resection while no other meniscal
216 pathology was present. The remainder (i.e., 12 of 38 cases) consisted of isolated or combined
217 untreated tears, repairs, and/or resections to either or both menisci.

218 In isolated ACLR knees, greater magnitude medial contact forces were significantly associated
219 with decreased odds of prevalence of medial cartilage defects (odds ratio (OR)=0.7, Wald
220 $\chi^2(2)=7.9$, 95% confidence interval (CI)=0.50-95, $p=0.02$) and medial BMLs (OR=0.8, Wald
221 $\chi^2(2)=4.2$, 95% CI=0.7-0.99, $p=0.04$). In the lateral compartment of isolated ACLR knees, no
222 significant relationships were found between contact forces and either cartilage defects or
223 BMLs (Table 4). In meniscal-injured ACLR knees, no significant relationships were found
224 between contact forces and cartilage defects or BMLs in any compartment.

225 **Discussion**

226 The main finding was that 2-3 years following ACLR greater medial contact forces were
227 associated with fewer medial cartilage defects and medial BMLs, but, in ACLR knees with
228 meniscal pathology, no significant relationships were found. This was the first study to report
229 relationships between tibiofemoral contact forces and osteochondral pathologies in ACLR
230 knees, but due to cross-sectional study design, causal relationships were not established.
231 Rehabilitation clinicians may consider focusing on restoring tibiofemoral contact force
232 magnitudes following ACLR, provided patients' menisci were uninjured. Future studies should
233 determine longitudinal effects of contact forces on osteochondral pathologies in ACLR knees.
234 Participants with many or severe tibiofemoral osteochondral pathologies may have used
235 movement strategies to minimize their contact forces due to pain. In individuals with structural
236 and symptomatic medial knee OA, those with higher levels of pain walk with smaller knee
237 adduction moments (KAMs), and increase their KAMs when administered analgesics [21].
238 However, not all individuals can lower their tibiofemoral contact forces, even when guided by
239 established strategies [30]. Moreover, knee pain and dysfunction scores were similar between
240 the ACLR cohorts in this study [42], as were external (i.e., spatiotemporal parameters, knee
241 kinematics, and knee moments) and internal (e.g., tibiofemoral contact forces) knee
242 biomechanics [32]. Thus, pain does not appear to explain group-level relationships between
243 contact forces and osteochondral pathologies. Nonetheless, individuals may subtly change
244 their gait biomechanics, undetected by biomechanical analysis, and/or fail to report knee pain
245 or dysfunction. Therefore, we cannot conclude greater contact forces *caused* reduced
246 osteochondral pathologies, but highlight the disparate relationships between ACLR groups.
247 In ACLR knees free of meniscal pathology, greater medial contact forces were associated with
248 fewer medial cartilage defects, but in meniscal-injury ACLR knees, relationships were non-
249 significant, conflicting with our hypothesis. We expected relationships similar to those reported

250 for OA knees, where current joint structure [11] and future degeneration [34, 35] positively
251 related to KAM and tibiofemoral contact stresses, respectively. Below we outline how our
252 results may be reconciled with the literature. First, KAM is the sum of all body, inertia, muscle,
253 contact, and passive soft tissue loads acting about the knee's frontal plane, but does not quantify
254 internal load sharing (e.g., articular contact, muscles and ligaments). Indeed, correlations
255 between KAM and tibiofemoral contact forces vary across individuals [26, 33, 40] and tasks
256 [33], and changing KAM through intervention does not necessarily result in concomitant
257 changes to contact forces [41]. Thus, KAM is not suited to studying influence of contact
258 loading on articular tissues. Second, Segal and colleagues are the only team, prior to this study,
259 to have used advanced computational models to predict tibiofemoral contact loading in this
260 context. They developed subject-specific anatomic models, which were both computationally
261 efficient and verified against finite element simulations (an impressive achievement), and
262 found contact stresses predicted incident symptomatic knee OA [34] and osteochondral
263 pathologies [35]. However, they applied a half-bodyweight vertical compressive force to their
264 knee model, which both substantially underestimates applied force magnitudes during daily
265 tasks (i.e., 2-3 bodyweights during walking [6, 15] and >8 bodyweights during sporting tasks
266 [33]) and radically simplifies the loading profile (i.e., knee sustains 6 generalized loads during
267 dynamic tasks). Moreover, their knee model was evaluated in neutral static posture without
268 muscular loading, which varies between individuals and control tasks [7] and is influenced by
269 pathology [18]. Nonetheless, Segal and colleagues found strong predictive relationships
270 between contact stresses and disease development (i.e., odds ratios >4) [34, 35], perhaps due
271 participant age and structural knee state.

272 When the structural state of articular tissues is compromised (e.g., aged or traumatized joints),
273 impaired tissues cannot withstand daily mechanical demands leading to degeneration. Segal et
274 al [34, 35] examined a cohort from the Multicenter Osteoarthritis Study (MOST), which

275 sampled community members with frequent knee symptoms and/or at risk of developing knee
276 OA. Compared to those who did not develop knee OA over 15 months, those who developed
277 knee OA had greater baseline tibiofemoral contact stresses ($+0.54\pm 0.77$ MPa). Their results
278 were consistent previous analysis from the MOST cohort [36], which revealed standing static
279 varus knee deformity (i.e., surrogate medialized tibiofemoral loading) was associated with
280 incident medial knee damage. Segal et al [35] also found baseline contact stresses predicted
281 worsening of cartilage damage and BMLs, consistent with Miyazaki et al [27] who showed
282 greater KAMs predicted medial joint space narrowing. However, the above cited studies [27,
283 34-36] examined individuals with, or at risk of, knee OA and who were substantially older than
284 our study participants (current study: 29.8 ± 6.4 vs 60 ± 7.5 [36], 67.8 ± 7.5 [34], 63.5 ± 8.4 [35],
285 and 69.7 ± 7.5 [27] years of age). Generally, following ACL injury individuals are at elevated
286 risk for knee OA development [24, 29], but, at testing, participants in this study had no
287 clinician- or self-diagnosed knee OA [42] and were not obese (Table 1), nor did they have
288 notable cartilage pathology at surgery. This suggests patient age may influence response of
289 tibiofemoral cartilage and bone to contact forces. If so, physical rehabilitation following ACLR
290 should be tailored to patient age, i.e., different for a 16 compared to 60 year old patient.

291 In ACLR knees free from meniscal pathology, greater medial tibiofemoral contact forces were
292 associated with fewer medial BMLs, but in meniscal-injury ACLR knees, relationships were
293 non-significant, conflicting with our hypothesis. Recent systematic review with meta-analysis
294 [3] found two eligible studies [4, 5] examining relationships between external knee loads (i.e.,
295 KAM) and BMLs. Bennell and colleagues [5] found medial knee OA patients with larger KAM
296 impulse had more medial BMLs, but did not find associations with 12 months BML
297 progression [4]. However, both studies [4, 5], as well as Segal et al [35], examined individuals
298 with older knees who had [4, 5], or were at risk of [35], medial knee OA. Our study is first to
299 report relationships between tibiofemoral contact forces and BMLs in a young population (~30

300 years old), first to report these relationships in ACLR knees, and first to report potential
301 protective influence of contact forces on BMLs. If greater medial contact forces do, in fact,
302 protect ACLR knees from medial BMLs this would have implications for knee health because
303 BMLs predict degeneration [13, 31]. These results should be considered cautiously, because
304 the cross-sectional study design does not permit drawing causal links. For example, BMLs and
305 other osseous injuries are not visible during arthroscopy, meaning BMLs assessed 2-3 years
306 post-ACLR may have developed before, during, or after initial ACL injury or ACLR, worsened
307 in the intervening 2-3 years, and/or contributed to cartilage defects [13].

308 There are several study limitations to consider. First, reconstructions for ~50% of participants
309 (~44% in isolated and ~59% from meniscal-injured groups) were performed using transtibial
310 femoral drilling, the remainder with an anteromedial technique. The effect of femoral drilling
311 technique on transverse plane tibial stability is contentious. Some report no differences in
312 passive internal and external tibial rotation between reconstructed and intact contralateral knees
313 following transtibial femoral drilling [2], and no differences in direct comparisons with
314 anteromedial femoral drilling [25]. However, meta-analysis indicates anteromedial femoral
315 drilling results in superior clinical outcomes, including passive internal and external tibial
316 rotation stability [8]. Femoral drilling technique may influence contact forces and hence
317 relationships to osteochondral pathologies, but has not been demonstrated. Second, ACLR
318 patients enrolled in standardized post-operative physical therapy, but we do not know
319 compliance with, or progression through, therapy. Third, we did not assess levels of pre-injury
320 or return-to sport participation, and do not know if these factors influenced contact forces
321 and/or prevalence of osteochondral pathology. Fourth, neuromusculoskeletal models cannot
322 currently be directly validated, as concurrent *in vivo* measures of muscle forces and articular
323 contact forces from native intact human joints do not exist. However, EMG-driven models
324 accurately predict external joint moments [23] and tibiofemoral contact forces (measured by

325 instrumented prosthetic implants [15, 16]), providing confidence in our model. Fifth, cross-
326 sectional study design means we cannot establish causal relationships between osteochondral
327 pathologies and contact forces. Although we excluded those with arthroscopically visible
328 cartilage damage, not all cartilage injuries are identifiable during arthroscopy (e.g., lateral
329 compartment cartilage indentation injuries) and BMLs are undetectable through visual
330 inspection. Lack of pre- or peri-operative research-grade knee MRI means we cannot rule out
331 presence of osteochondral pathologies at surgery, which could influence post-ACLR gait
332 biomechanics and relationships to osteochondral pathologies. Future studies should consider
333 using research-grade MRI following ACL injury, and again at ACLR, to robustly screen for
334 osteochondral pathologies. Finally, we grouped heterogeneous meniscal injury and treatment
335 types to facilitate analysis, but this rendered analysis insensitive to potential meniscal injury-
336 specific relationships between contact forces and osteochondral pathology. However, due to
337 the number of different meniscal injury and treatment types, this study was not powered to
338 investigate them independently, but this is valid topic for future investigation.

339 **Conclusion**

340 In isolated ACLR knees, increased medial contact forces were associated with fewer medial
341 cartilage defects and medial BMLs. If meniscal injury had been sustained, no significant
342 relationships between contact forces and osteochondral pathologies were found.

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461 Table 1. Demographics, anthropometrics, and gait spatiotemporal parameters for isolated and
 462 meniscal-injured ACLR participants.

	Isolated ACLR (n=62)	Meniscal-injured ACLR (n=38)
Males, n (%)	42 (68)	24 (63)
Age, years (std)	29.8 (6.4)	30.6 (6.6)
Mass, kg (std)	74.9 (13.3)	83.3 (14.3)[†]
Body mass index, kg·m ⁻² (std)	24.2 (2.8)	26.9 (4.1)[†]
Height, m (std)	1.75 (0.09)	1.76 (0.06)
Injury to surgery, years (std)	0.20 (0.11)	0.24 (0.17)
Surgery to testing, years (std)	2.5 (0.4)	2.6 (0.5)
Transtibial drilling, n (%)	25 (40)	17 (45)
Right knees tested, n (%)	32 (52)	17 (44)
Gait speed, m·s ⁻¹ (std)	1.4 (0.2)	1.4 (0.2)
Stride length, m (std)	1.5 (0.1)	1.5 (0.1)
Stride time, s (std)	1.1 (0.06)	1.1 (0.05)
Stride rate, strides·min ⁻¹ (std)	0.9 (0.05)	0.9 (0.04)

463 [†]Significantly different from the isolated ACLR group, p<0.05.

464 Table 2. Tibia cartilage volumes and bone plateau areas, as well as tibiofemoral cartilage
 465 defects and bone marrow lesions, specific to medial and lateral tibiofemoral compartments.

	Tibiofemoral compartment	Isolated ACLR (n=62)	Meniscal-injured ACLR (n=38)	p value
Tibia cartilage volume (mm ³ ±std)	Medial	2164±651	2214±595	NS
	Lateral	2921±846	2880±797	NS
Tibia plateau area (mm ² ±std)	Medial	2223±335	2327±300	NS
	Lateral	1313±209	1289±186	NS
Cartilage defects (knees with prevalence, %)	Medial	22, 35%	22, 58%	0.02*
	Lateral	49, 62%	32, 84%	0.02*
Bone marrow lesions (knees with prevalence, %)	Medial	39, 63%	28, 74%	NS
	Lateral	40, 65%	19, 50%	NS

466 Prevalence of a cartilage defect or bone marrow lesions was defined as a grade >1 on at least
 467 two consecutive MR images using the respective grading standards. *Statistically significant
 468 (p<0.05) differences in proportion of knees with prevalence of osteochondral pathology
 469 between isolated and meniscal-injured ACLR, using an unadjusted χ^2 test. NS – Non-
 470 significant result.

471 Table 3. Breakdown of injury type in ACLR knees with meniscal pathology.

Meniscal injury type	Prevalence, n (%)
Untreated medial tear	4 (11)
Untreated lateral tear	6 (16)
Medial resection	5 (13)
Lateral resection	12 (32)
Untreated medial tear + lateral resection	2 (5)
Medial + lateral resections	1 (3)
Medial resection + lateral repair	1 (3)
Medial repair + untreated medial tear	4 (11)
Lateral repair + untreated lateral tear	3 (8)
Total (n)	38

472 Percentages for each injury type do not sum to 100% due to rounding.

473 Table 4. Relationships between tibiofemoral contact forces and both cartilage defects and bone
 474 marrow lesions in isolated and meniscal-injured ACLR knees.

ACLR type	Osteochondral pathology	Tibiofemoral compartment	Odds ratio	p-value	95% confidence interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Meniscal-injured	Cartilage Defects	Medial	0.9	NS	0.6	1.2
		Lateral	1	NS	0.7	1.6
	Bone Marrow Lesions	Medial	0.9	NS	0.7	1.1
		Lateral	1.4	NS	0.9	1
Isolated	Cartilage Defects	Medial	0.7	0.02*	0.50	0.95
		Lateral	0.9	NS	0.7	1.2
	Bone Marrow Lesions	Medial	0.8	0.04*	0.7	0.99
		Lateral	1.1	NS	0.8	1.6

475 *Significant association of maximum walking tibiofemoral contact forces with the prevalence
 476 of the relevant articular tissue pathology. NS – non-significant result.