- 1 Lower Limb Biomechanics Before and After Anterior Cruciate Ligament
- 2 Reconstruction: a Systematic Review
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- 3 Reconstruction: a Systematic Review

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19 Abstract

This review aimed to synthesise the findings of literature that have assessed the 20 21 changes in lower limb biomechanics following anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) 22 reconstructive surgery. Systematic searches of CINHAL, MEDLINE, SCOPUS, and 23 SPORTDiscus databases were run. All included studies had presented 24 biomechanical variables pre- and post-surgery for the same participants. Articles 25 were categorised by the analysed movement, and effect sizes were calculated. 26 Fifty-four studies met the inclusion criteria, providing data on gait (n=31), balance 27 (n=12), joint position sense (n=5), stair ambulation (n=4), pivoting (n=6), and landing 28 (n=5). Measures of balance performance and joint position sense showed improvements from pre- to post-surgery. Changes in joint kinematics were 29 30 inconsistent between studies, however increased knee flexion excursion, and 31 reduced tibial anterior translation and internal rotation post reconstruction were identified. Joint kinetics reduced in magnitude in the early stages after surgery (≤5 32 weeks), then increased later in recovery (≥24 weeks). Risk of bias assessment 33 34 identified most articles had a moderate or high risk (low=5; moderate=21; high=11) 35 resulting from participant retention and surgical intervention differences. The results of the review identified that although lower limb biomechanics did alter following 36 37 reconstruction, few variables provided consistent results across studies and tasks. 38 The low methodological quality of some articles may have contributed to these 39 inconsistent findings. Alternatively, differences across studies may have resulted 40 from individual coping strategies of participants that have previously been suggested 41 to be present before reconstructive surgery, and future research should look to 42 explore individual coping strategies to ACL reconstruction.

43 **1. Introduction**

Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) rupture is an injury that results in knee instability 44 (Moses et al., 2012), and early onset of osteoarthritis (Barber et al., 1990; von Porat 45 46 et al., 2004). ACL deficient knees have increased laxity, and altered biomechanics 47 during movement tasks (Georgoulis et al., 2003; Keays et al., 2003). To alleviate 48 ACL deficiency related symptoms and restore healthy biomechanics, the ligament is 49 often reconstructed (Grindem et al., 2014). Surgical reconstruction aims to improve the stability of the knee by the mechanical role of the damaged ligament being 50 51 restored by a graft.

The success of reconstructions, measured as return to previous activity level and avoidance of further musculoskeletal complications is often good but other times poor (Ardern et al., 2011; Kessler et al., 2008). An increased risk of re-injury and early onset osteoarthritis compared to uninjured participants has been identified after ACL reconstruction (Paterno et al., 2012; von Porat et al., 2004). These outcomes may be due to treatment failing to restore healthy lower limb biomechanics, resulting in unhealthy joint movement patterns.

59 Systematic reviews have previously identified altered biomechanics in the ACL deficient and reconstructed knee (Hart et al., 2016; Petersen et al., 2014). These 60 reviews have shown decreases in muscle strength, and altered biomechanics in ACL 61 62 injured knees. Currently no systematic evaluation of the literature surrounding the changes in biomechanics that occur because of reconstructive surgery is available. 63 64 This information may inform future research and physical therapy treatments by 65 providing insight into the biomechanical changes that occur following ACL reconstruction. Therefore, the aim of this study was to systematically synthesise 66

- 67 literature that has explored changes to pre-operative lower limb biomechanics
- 68 following ACL reconstructive surgery and rehabilitation.

69 2. Methods

70 2.1 Search strategy

71 A search strategy (Supplemenary Method 1) including terms relating to ACL 72 reconstruction, and biomechanics (O'Connor et al., 2011) was ran in CINHAL, MEDLINE, SCOPUS, and SPORTDiscus from inception to 8th November 2019. No 73 74 restrictions were placed on article type, meaning peer reviewed articles, conference abstracts and doctoral theses were included in the review. This decision was made 75 76 to ensure all relevant data were captured and the quality of the evidence assessed 77 solely on its methodological quality. Reference lists of accepted articles were 78 searched for additional papers that met the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

79 2.2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

80 After the removal of duplicates, the titles and abstracts of the identified articles were 81 independently assessed for inclusion and exclusion criteria by reviewers JM and KC. 82 Where data were duplicated in different articles (e.g. doctoral thesis and peer-83 reviewed article) both sources were included at this stage and only excluded after 84 data analyses revealed no new information. Inclusion criteria were: human participants with a ruptured ACL who underwent reconstructive surgery; data 85 86 collected within 12 weeks before and 52 weeks after surgery; and biomechanical 87 outcome measures. Exclusion criteria were: concurrent knee ligament injuries; knee 88 osteotomy; and isokinetic torque assessments. Isokinetic strength data were 89 excluded due to the existing body of evidence showing a clear link between strength 90 deficiencies and ACL reconstruction (Ardern & Webster, 2009; Petersen et al.,

2014). Where other biomechanical variables were present within an article assessing
isokinetic strength, these data were included. Where the inclusion and exclusion
criteria were met by at least one reviewer, full texts were independently screened
against the criteria. No conflicts between reviewers were encountered when
including articles based on full texts.

96 2.3 Data extraction

- 97 Data extraction consisted of kinematic and kinetic biomechanical variables of the
- 98 involved limb before and after ACL reconstructive surgery, participant information,
- 99 study design, surgical characteristics, and data collection methods. Where data were
- 100 not available, the author was contacted. If data were still unable to be sourced,
- 101 WebPlotDigitizer (https://automeris.io/WebPlotDigitizer/), software with high reliability
- 102 (Pearson's r = 0.999) and validity (r = 0.989) (Drevon et al., 2017) designed to
- 103 extract data from digital plot images, was used.

104 2.4 Data analysis

105 Means and SDs were used to calculate Cohen's *d* effect sizes (ES; negligible <0.2, 106 small $0.2 \le d < 0.5$, medium $0.5 \le d < 0.8$ and large ≥ 0.8 ; Cohen, 1988) and 95% 107 confidence intervals (CI; Hedges & Olkin, 1985). Other summary statistics were 108 converted to mean and SD (Wan et al., 2014) and data on multiple groups combined 109 to provide overall statistics (Goon et al., 1968) prior to calculating ES

- 110 (Supplementary Method 2).
- 111 ES data were presented as ES±95% CI where a positive ES was an increase in the
- 112 variable due to surgery, except measures of balance where an improved balance
- 113 performance, shown as a reduction in centre of pressure (CoP) length, was
- 114 presented as a positive ES. As the research question of this review often differed

- 115 from the identified articles, information on the statistical significance was unavailable.
- 116 Therefore, where the CIs of ES did not cross zero, these effects were viewed as
- 117 significant (Hedges & Olkin, 1985), and presented in bold.
- 118 2.5 Methodological assessment
- 119 Methodological quality was assessed using a custom assessment tool, adapted from
- 120 Cochrane Collaboration's tool for assessing risk of bias (Higgins et al., 2011), and
- 121 The Effective Public Practice Health Project: Quality Assessment Tool for
- 122 Quantitative Studies (Armijo-Olivo et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 2004), to detect risk of
- bias present in a one group pretest-posttest experimental research (Supplementary
- 124 Method 3).

125 3. Results

126 3.1 Study selection

127 Excluding duplicates, the literature search identified 1365 articles. Of these, 54 were 128 found to meet the inclusion criteria and no further articles were identified through 129 searches of reference lists (Figure 1). Data on the performance of gait (n=31), 130 balance (n=12), joint position sense (n=5), stair ambulation (n=4), pivoting (n=6), and 131 landing (n=5) were identified. As the biomechanical demands of the knee differ 132 depending on the task that is performed, articles were categorised by the analysed 133 movement. Where data on more than one movement were presented, the article was 134 considered separately for each task.

- 135 *******************************INSERT-FIGURE-1*******************************
- 136 *3.2 Gait*

Thirty-one articles assessed gait biomechanics however, eight articles were not
included due to duplicate (DeVita et al., 1996; Ferber, 2001; Hartigan, 2009; Knoll et
al., 2004a; Tagesson & Kvist, 2016; Tagesson et al., 2015) or unavailable data (Azus
et al., 2017; Laforest et al., 2017), resulting in 23 articles undergoing analysis (Table
1). Kinematic outcome measures such as joint excursions and tibial translation were
the most commonly reported data (Table 1). Spectral differential entropy, a method
of quantifying movement variability, were presented in one study (Tsivgoulis et al.,

144 2011). Kinetics and muscle activation formed the other outcome measures.

145 *********************************INSERT-TABLE-1******************************

146 Knee range of motion (RoM) during gait appeared to increase following

reconstruction, supported by large ESs for increased knee flexion excursion at 24
(0.97±0.46) and 48 weeks post operation (3.40±3.06; Favre et al., 2006; Majewska
et al., 2017). Additionally, significant medium to large effects for increased minimum
and maximum knee flexion angle at 16, 32, and 48 weeks post operation (Knoll et
al., 2004b) were identified. Greater sagittal joint RoMs may show a greater use of the

152 involved limb during gait.

153 Kinematic changes during the stance and swing phases of gait were less consistent.

154 There were no significant differences in knee excursion during stance (24 weeks:

155 -0.10±0.44, 0.29±0.64; 48 weeks: 0.34±0.49; Asaeda et al., 2017; Di Stasi et al.,

156 2015; Roewer et al., 2011). Medium and large increases in peak knee flexion angle

157 were observed during weight acceptance of stance (24 weeks: 0.15±0.54,

158 **0.66±0.50**; 48 weeks: **0.80±0.31**; Roewer et al., 2011; Teng et al., 2017). Average

159 knee angle data demonstrated mostly non-significant differences with a significantly

160 more flexed position three weeks post-surgery being the exception (Devita et al.,

161 1997; Ferber et al., 2004; Shabani et al., 2015). These ESs suggest that although in
162 some patients a greater RoM is achieved after reconstructive surgery the kinematic
163 changes may not be present in all populations.

164 One objective of reconstructive surgery is to restore the anterior stability of the knee; 165 however, a significant decrease during stance, significant increase at heel strike and 166 no change over a full stride in tibial translation were identified compared to 167 pre-operative values with small to large effects (Beard et al., 2001; Tagesson et al., 168 2010). Average tibial anteroposterior position was also found to be the same during 169 stance (0.33±0.37), and swing (0.37±0.37) phases at 40 weeks post-surgery 170 (Shabani et al., 2015), guestioning the success of surgery to restore anterior tibial 171 stability during walking. Further evidence for the failure of ACL reconstruction to 172 change mechanical stability during gait is shown by no differences in tibial rotation 173 (24 weeks: 0.19±0.69; 48 weeks: 0.00±0.49 & 0.60±2.00; Asaeda et al., 2017; Claes 174 et al., 2011; Favre et al., 2006) or abduction excursion (0.69±2.00; Favre et al., 175 2006) after surgery. These findings should only be considered in the context of 176 walking gait where the relatively low external forces may insufficient to fully capture the instability of the ACL deficient knee. 177

178 Acute reductions in knee extensor impulse were present five (-1.39±1.03) weeks 179 post-surgery (Devita et al., 1997), and despite only one significant difference, knee 180 extension moment was greater compared to pre-operative values (Figure 2) in all 181 investigations. Increased quadriceps force may result in greater shear forces and 182 therefore strain on the ACL, however identified electromyography (EMG) data 183 suggests that this may be mitigated by increased hamstring activation (0.85±0.66) 184 providing eccentric control (Tagesson et al., 2010). Hip kinetics did not show clear 185 changes related to funcitonal capacity with no significant difference in hip flexion

186 moment (0.06-0.33; Wellsandt et al., 2017), or hip extension moment during stance
187 (-0.35--0.53; Wellsandt et al., 2017).

188 *********************************INSERT-FIGURE-2*****************************

Data on the frontal plane kinetics of the knee were also available however all ESs were non-significant, and no clear trend was present. Medial compartment tibial forces also did not alter due to ACL reconstruction with non-significant negligible to small ESs ($-0.06 \le d \le 0.34$) identified at 24 and 48 weeks post-surgery for peak tibial medial compartment contact forces (Gardinier et al., 2012; Manal & Buchanan, 2013; Wellsandt et al., 2016).

Data from force and pressure platforms were available in three articles (Mittlmeier et 195 196 al., 1999; Moya-Angeler et al., 2017; Teng et al., 2017). Maximum vertical force was 197 shown to be significantly reduced at heel strike (12 weeks: -1.04±0.35; 24 weeks: -1.65±0.38; 48 weeks: -1.29±0.36) and during stance (12 weeks: -1.45±0.37; 24 198 199 weeks: -2.52±0.44; 48 weeks: -1.06±0.35). However, another article found no 200 changes in vertical force when extracted between initial contact and peak knee 201 flexion (24 weeks: 0.20±0.48; 48 weeks: 0.28±0.48). A small ES was also found for 202 reductions in anterior force during stance (48 weeks: -0.42±0.33). Posterior force 203 also showed changes with medium to large effects with a medium increase at 24 204 weeks (0.75±0.34) and a large decrease at 48 weeks (-1.46±0.37) post-surgery. 205 Data on vertical impulse as both a percentage of the uninjured limb and an absolute 206 value were available. Relative impulse appeared to remain unchanged (6 weeks: 207 -0.16±0.88; 12 weeks: 0.60±0.90; 24 weeks: 0.65±0.90) after reconstructive surgery. 208 In contrast, absolute impulse showed medium to large effects for decreased values 209 at 12 (-0.57±0.34), 24 (-1.82±0.39), and 48 (-1.03±0.35) weeks post-surgery. No

clear functional outcomes appeared to be supported through analysis of the forcedata.

212 One article investigated the regularity of the mediolateral and anteroposterior

213 movement of the pelvis through spectral differential entropy (Tsivgoulis et al., 2011).

A lower value represents a more regular signal. In both axes of movement, regularity

215 was increased from pre- to post-surgery (23-36 weeks) with large and medium ESs,

respectively (mediolateral: **1.07±0.34**; anteroposterior: **0.71±0.33**).

217 3.3. Balance tasks

Twelve articles analysed balance tasks however, four articles were excluded for
duplicate or unavailable data (Di Stasi, 2011; Kim & Park, 2009; Tagesson & Kvist,
2016; Tagesson et al., 2015), resulting in eight articles being included in the analysis
(Table 2). Analysis of the CoP was used to assess balance performance in six
articles. Knee kinematics and muscle activations made up the remaining outcomes
(Table 2). Task constraints included unilateral or bilateral stance, eyes opened or
closed, and static and dynamic balance.

225

*********************************INSERT-TABLE-2**********************************

226 Data supported an improvement in single leg static balance performance at 24 and 227 48 weeks post-surgery with significant medium to large ESs (Figure 3) (Heijne & 228 Werner, 2007; Ma et al., 2014; Ogrodzka-Ciechanowicz et al., 2018). A medium 229 effect (0.53±0.37) was also found for improvements in dynamic balance 12 weeks 230 after surgery (Tuğcu et al., 2013). These data support that after ACL reconstruction 231 and rehabilitation proprioceptive systems recover to above pre-operative levels. Data 232 on the performance of bilateral balance (Bartel et al., 2019; Gokalp et al., 2016) 233 revealed a drop in performance at 4 (-1.24±0.55) weeks post-surgery, before

improving to above pre-surgery values (0.46±0.38; 0.75±0.52) at 12 weeks. This
highlights the importance of adequate post-operative rehabilitation in the successful
restoration of proprioceptive function.

- 238 Muscle activations also supported improvements in neuromuscular function after
- reconstructive surgery with greater activity identified in the hamstring (1.04±0.64)
- and gastrocnemius (0.69±0.62), and no changes in the soleus (0.41±0.61), vastus
- 241 medialis (0.42±0.61) or vastus lateralis (0.45±0.61) five weeks after surgery

(Tagesson et al., 2010). No significant changes in the position of the tibia and angle
of the knee during stance (Di Stasi et al., 2012), suggested no changes in structural
stability during balance tasks resulted from surgery. This result is possibly due to the
external stresses associated with the task being mitigated by muscular mechanisms,
reducing signs of structural laxity (Papadonikolakis et al., 2003).

247 3.4 Joint Position Sense

Five articles were identified that explored joint position sense, however a measure of variance was not present in two articles (Reider et al., 2003; Shidahara et al., 2011), resulting in three articles being analysed (Table 2). Outcome variables were threshold for detection of passive movement, and passive and active recall. All data collections were conducted using an isokinetic dynamometer. Differences in movement directions and angular velocities used were present between the articles (Table 2).

Large positive ESs were found for joint position sense at 16, 20, and 24 weeks post-

surgery compared to pre-surgery values (Jurevičienė et al., 2012; Ordahan et al.,

257 2015; Figure 4), supporting that proprioceptive function of the knee was improved

258	after reconstructive surgery. Increasing positive effects of threshold to detect passive
259	motion data also supported improved proprioceptive function after surgery, and the
260	role of rehabilitation after treatment (Ma et al., 2014; 24 weeks: extension 0.33±0.34;
261	flexion 0.68±0.35; 48 weeks: extension 0.47±0.34; flexion 1.09±0.36).
262	*********************************INSERT-FIGURE-4*********************************
263	3.5 Stair ambulation
264	Six articles analysed stair walking biomechanics, however no usable data could be
265	accessed for two of these (Isaac et al., 2005; McGrath et al., 2017) resulting in four
266	included studies (Table 3). Kinematic and kinetic data on both stair ascent and
267	descent were available. Two articles used a single surgical method, with the other
268	articles using a combination of either graft locations or number of bundles (Table 3).
269	********************************INSERT-TABLE-3**********************************
270	No significant changes in Knee RoM during stair ascent or descent following surgery
271	(Table 4) were identified. Data did not support a restoration of structural stability
272	during stair ambulation with no changes in knee frontal plane excursion or tibial
273	rotation (Claes et al., 2011). These findings may have resulted from the external
274	forces associated with the task not revealing the instabilities in the ACL deficient
275	knee.
276	**********************************INSERT-TABLE-4*********************************
277	Joint kinetics did not appear to support any clear functional improvements in stair
278	ambulation. Peak hip moment during stair descent reduced after surgery (hip:
279	-0.73±0.64; Lepley et al., 2016) with no changes during ascent in the hip extensor
280	moment (24 weeks: 0.48±1.06; 28 weeks: -0.50±0.63). Additionally, a large

significant decrease in the knee extensor moment (Kowalk et al., 1997; Lepley et al.,

282 2016) was identified. Frontal plane kinetics had non-significant small and negligible

283 ESs for peak knee abduction moment during descent and ascent, respectively.

284 3.6 Pivot tasks

285 Changes in lower limb biomechanics during a dynamic cutting task were assessed in 286 six articles (Table 3) however, two pairs of articles were considered together due to 287 duplicate methodology (Lam et al., 2010, 2011; Smale et al., 2019a, 2019b). Tibial 288 rotation, collected using motion capture, during a pivot tasks was the outcome for all 289 but one article, which analysed dynamic joint stiffness (Table 3).

Data supported that ACL reconstruction is able to increase rotation stability of the tibia during a pivot task. Rotational excursion of the tibia relative to the femur was found to be the same 24 weeks post-surgery (-0.33 ± 0.70 ; Claes et al., 2011) and significantly decrease 41 weeks post-surgery (-0.97 ± 0.93 ; Lam et al., 2011). This finding further supports the conclusion that changes in mechanical stability may only be identified in tasks associated with large external forces. Joint stiffness did not significantly alter due to reconstructive surgery (0.63 ± 0.69 ; Smale et al., 2019a)

297 3.7 Hop landing

Five articles were identified that assessed lower limb biomechanics during a hop
landing. One article was excluded from analysis as no data were presented
(Letchford et al., 2016), and two articles were considered together due to reporting
the same study, meaning three articles were included (Table 3). Landing was
analysed in all articles however, two were during a horizontal hop and the other
during a vertical drop (Table 3). No outcome variables were present in both articles.

304 Data showed an initial reduction in task performance with a decrease in knee 305 extension moment at 24 weeks post-surgery (-1.76±0.77), before increasing at 48 306 weeks (1.12±0.70). This pattern was not seen in knee stiffness (0.00±0.65; Smale et 307 al., 2019a) or knee abduction moment with no changes at either 24 (-0.33±0.66) or 308 48 (-0.38±0.66) weeks post-surgery. Structural stability of the knee appeared to be 309 restored during landing with reduced tibial rotation (24 weeks: -1.91±0.79; 48 weeks: 310 -1.48±0.74), and a decrease in anterior tibial translation (24 weeks: -1.99±0.80; 48 311 weeks: -1.60±0.75). Muscle response time was shown to significantly decrease in 312 the quadriceps and hamstring muscles (semitendinosus 24 weeks: -0.92±0.61; 48 313 weeks: -0.98±0.61; rectus femoris 24 weeks: -0.67±0.59; 48 weeks: -0.80±0.60), 314 suggesting ACL reconstruction and rehabilitation had positive effects on the 315 neuromuscular control during landing. 316 3.8 Risk of bias

317 Quality assessment identified that few articles had a low risk of bias (low=5;

318 moderate=22; high=12), with the most common causes of a weak rating being failure

319 to report participant retention details and inconsistent surgical procedure and timing.

320 Where articles presented results on separate groups undergoing surgery, data were

321 combined, and therefore the methods of this review were the cause for certain risks

322 of bias. Full results of the quality assessment are provided in Table 5.

323 **********************************INSERT-TABLE-5*****************************

324 **4.0 Discussion**

The aim of this review was to systematically synthesise literature that has explored the changes to pre-operative lower limb biomechanics following ACL reconstructive surgery and rehabilitation. Changes in the biomechanics of balance, joint position

328 sense, gait, stair ambulation, pivoting, and hop landings were identified after ACL 329 reconstruction. Restoration of the mechanical role of the ACL through reconstruction 330 was only evidenced in certain tasks by reductions in tibial movement. Proprioceptive 331 function increased with improvements in balance performance, joint position sense, 332 and muscle response time. Findings for other biomechanical variables such as joint 333 moments and angles were inconsistent, potentially as a result of errors associated 334 with low methodological quality of some of the articles or individual biomechanics 335 responses to ACL reconstruction.

336 Quality ratings identified that a moderate risk of bias was present in most articles. 337 Failure to report information on participant retention, differences in surgical 338 approach, and inconsistent intervention timings were the most common reasons for 339 weak ratings. Where participant retention is poor or not reported, there is a risk of 340 data only showing participants that were capable of completing the movement, and 341 therefore a risk of bias towards more favourable outcomes. Articles often presented 342 data on separate groups undergoing ACL reconstruction through different 343 techniques. The methods of this review combined these data to provide an overall 344 effect of surgery however; this resulted in inconsistent interventions and therefore a 345 risk of bias. Therefore, the risks of bias should only be considered in relation to the 346 question posed by this review, and may be one cause of the differing results 347 identified in a number of biomechanical variables.

Measures of proprioceptive function assessed through balance and joint position sense provided the most consistent results. These data support that, despite not restoring the lost mechanoreceptors (Dhillon et al., 2012), proprioceptive function appears to improve after ACL reconstruction to greater levels than prior to surgery.

Increasing ESs with time since surgery (Figure 2) also suggest that proprioceptiverecovery continues up to at least 48 weeks post-surgery.

354 Kinematic and kinetic variables did not present any clear changes after ACL 355 reconstruction except for an increase in sagittal plane knee RoM, and an acute 356 reduction and subsequent increase in knee extensor moment. These findings may 357 be due to individual coping strategies that have been previously identified in ACL 358 injured participants (Alkjær et al., 2002), however as there were no data on individual 359 responses this hypothesis is purely theoretical. Data did not fully support that ACL 360 reconstruction restored the mechanical stability of the knee. Reduced tibial 361 translation and rotation were identified in some movements due to reconstruction 362 however; this was not universal across all tasks. In tasks involving lower external 363 forces (e.g. gait) it may be that the errors associated with the calculation of such 364 variables were greater than the resulting movement of the tibia (Cappozzo et al, 365 1996). In contrast, tasks such as pivoting and landing, where reduced tibial 366 movement was identified, are associated with greater external forces and therefore may have allowed identification of instability in the ACL deficient limb. 367

368 The findings of this review show that lower limb biomechanics of certain movement 369 tasks change after ACL reconstruction. Proprioception was consistently found to 370 improve, whereas kinematic and kinetic variables appeared to demonstrate different 371 coping strategies between participants. A limitation of the presented review and 372 identified research exploring changes due to surgery is the failure to include a true 373 control comparison. As no data were included on ACL deficient patients not 374 undergoing surgery, the presented findings cannot be fully attributed to ACL 375 reconstruction. Where the time between injury and reconstruction is high this 376 limitation is mitigated as adaptations that occur without treatment would have already

377 manifested and therefore the changes can be more confidently explained by the 378 surgical intervention. Future experimental research should look to ensure 379 methodological quality is high and include intra-participant analyses to explore 380 whether individual responses are present. Additionally, clinical practitioners should 381 be aware of the potential variability in responses to reconstruction when making treatment decisions. Risk of bias assessments highlighted that reporting of 382 383 participant retention was low resulting in a risk of data representing participants who 384 had more favourable treatment outcomes, and therefore should be included in future 385 articles.

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	Participant Information	Time Since Injury (Mean±SD weeks)	Graft Details	Post-Test Timings (weeks)	Outcome Measures
Asaeda et al. (2017)	n = 32 height: 1.66±0.09 m mass: 65±12 kg	64.4±171.1	SB, SBA or DB HA	48	Excursion of tibia rotation and knee flexion during stance; and peak internal knee extension and external adduction moment
Beard et al. (2001)	n = 11	188.0±120.0	SB HA (n=6) and SB BPB (n=5)	25	Patella tendon angle (a measure of tibial translation); during stance; at heel strike; and the average during gait cycle
Claes et al. (2011)	n = 16	144.0±92.0	SB (n=8) or DB (n=8) HA	24	Excursion of tibia rotation during the gait cycle
Devita et al. (1997)	n = 9 mass: 76 kg	2	SB BPB	3&5	Average knee and hip angle during stance; average knee and hip extensor impulse during stance; negative work at the knee; and positive work at the knee and hip
Di Stasi et al. (2015)	n = 39	11.1±10.1	SB HA or SB allograft	24	Average knee and hip angle during stance; and average knee and hip extensor impulse during stance
Favre et al. (2006)	n = 2 height: 1.90±0.00 m mass: 82±5 kg	30.0±22.0	SB BPB	48	Knee flexion, rotation, and abduction excursion during one gait cycle
Ferber et al. (2004)	n = 10 height: 1.66±0.20 m mass: 79±13 kg	273.6±244.8	SB BPB	12	Average knee and hip angle during stance; knee and hip extensor impulse during stance; and knee and hip work during stance
Gardinier (2013)	n = 13 height: 1.74±0.10 m mass: 79±14 kg	8.9±4.4	SB HA or SB allograft	24	Estimated peak tibiofemoral contact force during stance; and estimated peak medial compartment contact force during stance
Hartigan et al. (2009)	n = 19	11.3±11.3	SB HA or SB allograft	24	Knee flexion excursion during mid-stance
Hartigan et al. (2012)	n = 38	8.9±8.5	SB HA or SB allograft	24	Knee flexion moment at peak flexion
Knoll et al. (2004b)	n = 25 height: 1.77±0.80 m mass: 84±9 kg	81.7	SB BTB	6, 16,32, & 48	Peak knee extension and flexion angle
Kumar et al. (2018)	n = 37	7.0±3.0	SB HA (n=27), or allograft (n=10)	24 & 48	Knee adduction moment impulse; and peak knee adduction moment and angle
Majewska et al. (2017)	n = 40	NR	SB HA	24	Hip, knee, and ankle excursion in the sagittal plane during a gait cycle
Mittlmeier et al. (1999)	n = 10 height: 1.70 m mass: 76 kg	NR	SB BPB	6, 12, & 24	Total impulse as a percentage of the uninvolved limb, relative heel loading as a percentage of total impulse
Moya-Angeler et al. (2017)	n = 71 mass: 86±2 kg	NR	SB HA	12, 24, & 48	Maximum vertical force at heel contact and during single leg stance; vertical impulse; and maximum anterior and posterior force

Table 1. Experimental procedures of research assessing the effect of ACL reconstruction on walking gait

Robbins et al. (2011)	n = 1 height: 1.58 m mass: 76 kg	16	SB HA	6, 12, 24, & 36	Knee flexion, extension, and excursion angle during mid-stance; peak knee flexion and extension moment during mid-stance; and peak knee adduction moment and impulse
Roewer et al. (2011)	n = 26	NR	SB HA or SB allograft	24	Peak knee flexion angle, and joint excursion during weight acceptance; and internal hip and knee extensor moments at peak knee flexion
Shabani et al. (2015)	n = 15 height: 1.72±0.09 m mass: 71±14 kg	18.8±17.2	SB BPB	40	Average knee angle in the sagittal, axial and frontal planes during the stance and swings phases; and average anteroposterior translation of the tibia during the stance and swing phases
Tagesson et al. (2010)	n = 19	60	QB HA	5	Maximum anterior tibial translation; and peak EMG activation of the vastus medialis, vastus lateralis, hamstring, gastrocnemius, and soleus during stance
Teng et al. (2017)	n = 33	8.1±6.0	SB HA (n=23) or SB allograft (n=10)	24 &48	Peak knee flexion angle and moment between first contact to the first knee flexion angle peak; and peak vertical ground reaction force between first contact to the first knee flexion angle peak
Tsivgoulis et al. (2011)	n = 20 height: 1.77±0.07 m mass: 82±11 kg	≤8	ĎB HÁ	Range 24 - 36	Spectral differential entropy (a measure of variability) of pelvis movement in the anteroposterior and mediolateral axes
Wellsandt et al. (2016)	n = 22	≤28	QB HA or SB allograft	24 & 48	Peak external knee flexion and adduction moment; knee adduction impulse during stance; and estimated peak medial compartment contact force during stance
Wellsandt et al. (2017)	n = 19 mass: 85±16 kg	14.3±10.3	QB HA or SB allograft	24	Peak hip extension, and flexion angle and moment during stance; peak hip adduction angle and moment during the first half of stance; and hip excursion during stance

665 Single bundle (SB), single bundle augmentation (SBA), double bundle (DB), quadruple bundle (QB), hamstring autograft (HA), bone patella bone autograft (BPB), not reported (NR), electromyography (EMG)

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	Participant Information	Time Since Injury (Mean±SD weeks)	Graft Details	Post-Test Timings (weeks)	Task Analysed	Outcome Measures
Balance		,				
Bartels et al. (2019)	n = 54 height: 1.77±0.10 m mass: 80±17 kg	15.9±16.9	QB HA	6 & 12	Double leg static balance with eyes open and closed, on hard and soft ground	Stability index calculated from fluctuations in the CoP
Di Stasi et al. (2012)	n = 40	11.2±10.2	QB HA (n=16) or SB allograft (n=24)	24	Single leg static balance with eyes open	Knee flexion angle and anterior tibia position
Gokalp et al. (2016)	n = 30	26.8±18.4	SB BPB	4, 8, & 12	Double leg static balance with eyes open and closed, on hard and soft ground	Stability index combining scores from all conditions
Heijne and Werner (2007)	n = 68 height: 1.74±0.08 m mass: 74±11 kg	34 (SD NR)	SB BPB (n=34) or HA (n=34)	12 & 20	Single leg static balance with eyes open	Summation of distance between origin and CoP
Ma et al. (2014)	n = 67 height: 1.67±0.02 m mass: 65±3 kg	18.6 ± 8.3	SB (n=20), SBA (n=21), or DB (n=26) HA	24	Single leg static balance with eyes closed	CoP path length
Ogrodzka- Ciechanowicz et al. (2018)	n = 31 height: 1.75±0.08 m	NR	SB HÁ	24	Single leg static balance with eyes open	CoP path length
Tagesson et al. (2010)	n = 19	60 (SD NR)	QB HA	5	Single leg static balance with eyes open	Maximum anterior tibial translation and peak EMG activation of the lower limb muscles
Tuğcu et al. (2013)	n = 58	Median=15.8	BPB	13	Single leg static and dynamic balance with eyes open	Stability index calculated from fluctuations in balance board
Joint Position Sense						
Jurevičienė et al. (2012)	n = 15 height: 1.78±0.03 m mass: 79±4 kg	NR	SB HA	16 & 24	Knee angle recall during passive flexion and extension at 2 and 10 deg·s ⁻¹	Error between target angle and recall value
Ma et al. (2014)	n = 30 height: 1.67±0.02 m mass: 65±3 kg	18.6±8.3	SB (n=20), SBA (n=21), or DB (n=26) HA	24	Knee passively extended or flexed at 0.2 deg·s ⁻¹ from an angle of 45 deg	Time from initialisation of movement to time of detection
Ordahan et al. (2015)	n = 20	59.6 (SD NR)	HA '	24	Knee angle recall during active flexion and extension	Error between target angle and recall value

Table 2. Experimental procedures of research assessing the effect of ACL reconstruction on balance and joint position sense tasks 668

Single bundle (SB), single bundle augmentation (SBA), double bundle (DB), quadruple bundle (QB), hamstring autograft (HA), bone patella bone autograft (BPB), centre of pressure (CoP), not reported (NR), electromyography (EMG)

Table 3. Experimental procedures of research assessing the effect of ACL reconstruction on pivot, stair ambulation, and hop

672 landing tasks

	Participant Information	Time Since Injury (Mean±SD weeks)	Graft Details	Post-Test Timings (Mean±SD weeks)	Task Analysed	Outcome Measures
Pivot		•		•		
Claes et al. (2011)	n = 16	144.0±92.0	SB (n=8) or DB (n=8) HA	24	Step down and 90 deg pivot on affected limb	Rotational excursion of the tibia
Hemmerich et al. (2011)	n = 17 height:1.74±0.08 m mass: 82±14 kg	27.6±41.6	SB (n=9) or DB (n=8) HA	18.4±6.4	90 deg cut whilst jogging	Maximum internal and external tibial rotation of the inside and outside limb
Lam et al. (2011)	n = 10 height: 1.76±0.10 m mass: 69±9 kg	41.2±15.6	DB HA	41.2±15.6	Two footed drop landing followed by immediate 90° pivot on affected limb	Rotational excursion of the tibia
Smale et al. (2019)	n = 17	50.0±74.8	DB HA (n=15), BTB (n=2), Achilles allograft (n=1), or iliotibial band autograft (n=1)	42±7	45 deg cut whilst jogging	Dynamic knee stiffness
Stair Ambulation						
Claes et al. (2011)	n = 16	144.0±92.0	SB (n=8) or DB (n=8) HA	24	Stair descent (rise: 25 cm)	Rotational excursion of the tibia
Kowalk et al. (1997)	n = 7 mass: 90 kg	NR	SB BPB	24.0 (range: 12.8-45.2)	Stair ascent (rise: 23 cm; run 25 cm)	Sagittal hip, knee, and ankle excursion; peak internal hip and knee extensor, and ankle plantar flexor moment; peak hip, knee, and ankle power; and hip, knee, and ankle work
Lepley et al. (2016)	n = 20 height: 1.72±0.08 m mass: 76±12 kg	5.3±2.2	SB HA (n=9) or BPB (n=11)	28.3±2.9	Stair ascent and descent (rise: 17 cm; run 25 cm)	Knee and hip flexion and abduction angle at initial contact, peak during stance, and excursion during one gait cycle; and peak internal knee and hip extension and adduction moment
MittImeier et al. (1999) Hopping	n = 10 height: 1.70 m mass: 76 kg	NR	SB BPB	6, 12, & 24	Stair descent (rise: 17 cm; run 33 cm)	Total impulse as a percentage of the uninvolved limb

Oberländer et al. (2014)	n = 18 height: 1.80±0.08 m mass: 85±12 kg	Range: 12-24	QB HA	24 & 48	Single leg hop for a given distance (0.75 × height)	Peak internal knee extension and abduction, ankle plantar flexion moments; average tibial rotation; and
Oliver et al. (2019)	n = 23 height: 1.78±0.08 m mass: 71+11 kg	Range: 8-12	SB BPB	16 & 24	Hop landing from a height of 25 cm	Response time from landing to peak activation of lower limb muscles
Smale et al. (2019)	n = 17	50.0±74.8	DB HA (n=15), BTB (n=2), Achilles allograft (n=1), or iliotibial band autograft (n=1)	42±7	Hop landing during a self- selected distance jump	Dynamic knee stiffness

673 Single bundle (SB), double bundle (DB), quadruple bundle (QB), hamstring autograft (HA), bone patella bone autograft (BPB), not reported (NR)

- 674 **Table 4.** Cohen's *d* effect sizes (ES) and 95% confidence intervals (95%CI) of
- 675 kinematic changes during stair ascent and descent due to anterior cruciate ligament
- 676 reconstruction

	Ascent (ES±95%CI)	Descent (ES±95%CI)
Sagittal hip excursion	0.95±1.11 ^b	0.18±0.62 ^c
	-0.36±0.62°	\wedge
Hip extension angle at IC	-0.30±0.62°	-0.11±0.62°
Peak hip extension angle	0.26±0.62°	0.20±0.62°
Frontal hip excursion	0.03±0.62°	0.21±0.62°
Hip abduction angle at IC	-0.24±0.62°	0.23±0.62°
Peak hip adduction angle	0.27±0.62°	-0.36±0.62°
Sagittal knee excursion	0.61±1.07 ^b	-0.13±0.62 ^c
	0.01±0.62°	
Knee flexion angle at IC	0.04±0.62°	-0.03±0.62°
Peak knee flexion angle	-0.31±0.62	-0.13±0.62
Frontal knee excursion	0.31±0.62	0.32±0.62
Knee abduction angle at IC	0.01±0.62	0.29±0.62
Peak knee abduction angle	0.15±0.62	0.06±0.62
Tibial rotation excursion		-0.23±0.70 ^a
Sagittal ankle excursion	-0.62±1.07 ^b	

^aClaes et al. (2011); ^bKowalk et al. (1997); ^cLepley et al. (2016). Initial contact (IC)

Table 5. Assessment of quality of analysed studies (excluding articles with repeated

679 data) exploring changes in lower limb biomechanics due to ACL reconstruction

	Participants	Withdrawals	Study design	Intervention integrity	Data collection	Overall rating
Asaeda et al. (2017)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Bartels et al. (2019)	1	2	3	1	1	2
Beard et al. (2001)	1	3	1	3	1	3
Claes et al. (2011)	1	1	1	3	1	2
Devita et al. (1997)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Di Stasi et al. (2012)	1	2	1	3	1	2
Di Stasi et al. (2015)	1	3	1	3	1	3
Favre et al. (2006)	2	3	1	1	1	2
Ferber et al. (2004)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Gardinier (2013)	1	2	1	3	1	2
Gokalp et al. (2016)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Hartigan et al. (2009)	1	3	1	3	1	3
Hartigan et al. (2012)	1	3	1	3	1	3
Heijne and Werner (2007)	1	1	1	1	1	1
Hemmerich et al. (2011)	1	1	2	3	1	2
Jurevičienė et al. (2012)	1	3	3	1	1	3
Knoll et al. (2004b)	1	3	3	1	1	3
Kowalk et al. (1997)	1	3	3	1	1	3
Kumar et al. (2018)	1	2	1	3	1	2
Lam et al. (2011)	1	1	2	1	1	1
Lepley et al. (2016)	1	1	2	3	1	2
Ma et al. (2014)	1	1	1	1	1	1
Majewska et al. (2017)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Mittlmeier et al. (1999)	1	3	3	1	1	3
Moya-Angeler et al.	1	1	1	1	1	1
(2017)	'		I	I	I	1
Oberländer et al. (2014)	1	3	1	1	1	3
Ogrodzka-Ciechanowicz	1	1	1	1	1	1
et al. (2018)	1		I	I	I	1
Oliver et al. (2019)	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ordahan et al. (2015)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Robbins et al. (2011)	3	1	1	1	1	2
Roewer et al. (2011)	1	3	3	3	1	3
Shabani et al. (2015)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Smale et al. (2019a)	1	3	3	3	1	3
Tagesson et al. (2010)	1	3	1	1	1	2
Teng et al. (2017)	1	2	1	3	1	2
Tsivgoulis et al. (2011)	1	3	3	1	1	3
Tuğcu et al. (2013)	2	3	1	1	1	2
Wellsandt et al. (2016)	1	2	1	3	1	2
Wellsandt et al. (2017)	1	1	1	3	1	2

680

1 = strong; 2 = moderate; 3 = weak











a)

- 689 **Figure 1.** Flow diagram depicting the literature search. Where articles assessed
- 690 more than one movement task (n = 7) they were included in both categories.
- 691 Reviewers completing each task are shown in square brackets. There were no
- 692 conflicts between reviewers in inclusion and exclusion decisions when reviewing full
- 693 texts.
- 694 **Figure 2.** Forest plot of effect sizes and 95% confidence intervals for internal knee
- 695 extension moment during gait at a) peak knee flexion angle during stance, b)
- 696 maximum during initial stance, and c) maximum during stance at 24 (●) and 48 (■)
- 697 weeks post ACL reconstruction.
- 698 **Figure 3.** Effect sizes and 95% confidence intervals for 3 studies measuring static
- balance performance comparing pre-surgery to post-surgery data, where positiveeffects were improvements.
- **Figure 4.** Forest plot of effect sizes and 95% confidence intervals for data on a)
- passive (Jurevičienė et al., 2012) and b) active (Ordahan et al., 2015) knee joint
- position sense at 20 and 24 weeks post-surgery compared to pre-surgery values.