

1 **Biomechanical but not strength or performance measures**
2 **differentiate male athletes who experience ACL re-injury on return**
3 **to level 1 sport**

4 **Accepted version, proofs being developed**

5 **Abstract**

6 Background

7 Performance measures such as strength, jump height/length and change of direction time
8 during ACL rehabilitation have been used to determine readiness to return to play and
9 identify those who may be at risk of re-rupture. However, athletes may reach these criteria
10 despite ongoing biomechanical deficits when performing these tests. Combining return to
11 play criteria with an assessment of movement through 3D biomechanics in male field sport
12 athletes to identify risk factors for ACL re-rupture has not been explored previously.

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14 Purpose

15 To prospectively examine differences in strength, jump, and change of direction (CoD)
16 performance and movement using 3D biomechanics in a cohort of male athletes playing level
17 1 sports between those who re-injured their reconstructed ACL (RI) and those with no re-
18 injury (NRI) after 2 years follow-up and examine the ability of these differences to predict re-
19 injury.

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21 Study Design

22 Case-control study

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25 Methods

26 Male athletes after primary ACL reconstruction (ACLR; n = 1045) were recruited and
27 underwent testing 9 months post-surgery, including isokinetic strength, jump and CoD
28 performance measures, patient-reported outcomes (PRO) and 3D biomechanical analyses.
29 Participants were followed-up after 2 years regarding ACL re-injury status (n = 38).
30 Differences between RI and NRI groups in PRO, performance measures and 3D
31 biomechanics on the ACLR side/symmetry between limbs were determined. The ability of
32 these measures to predict ACL re-injury was determined through logistic regression.

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34 Results

35 No differences were identified in strength and performance measures on the ACLR side or in
36 symmetry. Biomechanical analysis indicated differences on the ACLR side primarily in the
37 sagittal plane for the double leg drop jump (DLDJ; effect size 0.59 to 0.64) and greater
38 asymmetry primarily in the frontal plane during unplanned CoD (effect size 0.61 to 0.69) in
39 the RI group. While these biomechanical tests were different between groups, multivariate
40 regression modelling demonstrated limited ability (AUC 0.67 and 0.75, respectively) to
41 prospectively predict ACL re-injury.

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43 Conclusion

44 Commonly reported return to play strength, jump, and timed CoD performance measures did
45 not differ between RI and NRI groups. Differences in movement based on biomechanical
46 measures during DLDJ and unplanned CoD were identified, although they had limited ability
47 to predict re-injury. Targeting these variables during rehabilitation may reduce re-injury risk
48 in male athletes returning to level 1 sports after ACLR.

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51 Clinical Relevance

52 This study suggests strength, jump and change of direction time performance testing in
53 isolation may be inadequate to assess readiness to RTP following ACLR. Biomechanical
54 analysis of movement quality in performing these tests may add potentially relevant
55 information to the assessment of ACL re-injury risk.

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57 Key Terms

58 Anterior Cruciate Ligament Reconstruction, Return to Play, Re-injury, Biomechanics

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75 **What is known about the subject?**

76 Physical testing is common practice after ACLR to chart progress and determine readiness to
77 RTP by identifying deficits which may lead to re-injury. However, recent research has
78 reported that physical measures of strength, jump and CoD performance can recover despite
79 ongoing biomechanical deficits after ACLR. In addition, biomechanical analysis has focused
80 on primary ACL injury risk factors and not explored secondary ACL risk factors and their
81 ability to predict future re-injury.

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83 **What does this study add to the existing knowledge?**

84 This study found no differences in commonly used strength, jump and change of direction
85 performance measures despite biomechanical differences during jump and change of
86 direction tests in athletes who went on to suffer re-injury of the ACL after surgery. In
87 particular, it identified differences in the sagittal plane on the ACLR side in the DLDJ and
88 differences in asymmetry in the frontal plane during unplanned change of direction.
89 However, these differences had limited ability to predict ACL re-injury but could be targeted
90 during rehabilitation and RTP testing. This study adds to existing knowledge by questioning
91 the use of clinical measures of strength, jump and CoD performance in isolation while
92 identifying biomechanical variables that may be targeted to improve re-injury rates.

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98 Introduction

99 Reducing the risk of anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) re-injury is probably the most
100 important goal for a surgeon, athlete, and physiotherapist following ACL reconstruction
101 (ACLR) surgery.^{21, 23} Return to play (RTP) criteria have been used to mitigate the risk of re-
102 injury, rehabilitation status before return to play (RTP). The criteria are commonly assessed
103 using physical tests of lower limb strength, jump height/length, and timed change of direction
104 (CoD) performance. Outcomes from these performance tests are combined with patient-
105 reported outcome (PRO) questionnaires to identify factors that may influence ACL re-injury
106 risk.^{9, 11, 21, 26} Recovery of symmetry of these performance measures, reported as limb
107 symmetry index (LSI), is suggested to influence the risk of any injury to the operated knee¹¹
108 and re-injury of the re-constructed graft.²¹ It has been recommended that success rates (% of
109 group that achieve >90% LSI) should also be reported when carrying out group
110 comparison.⁴³ However, passing the RTP criteria has not always shown a significantly
111 significant association with second injury risk. Athletes have also been reported to achieve
112 symmetrical performance during jump and CoD tests after ACLR but with asymmetrical joint
113 mechanics.^{14, 15} This suggests that assessing the movement quality through a biomechanical
114 analysis may offer a more robust measure of physical recovery after ACLR when assessing
115 re-injury risk than commonly used performance test batteries alone.

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117 To date, few studies have prospectively examined biomechanical variables related to ACL re-
118 injury risk. Paterno et al. identified several biomechanical factors predicting second ACL
119 injury during double leg drop jump testing, including un-involved limb hip rotation moment,
120 asymmetry of knee extension moment at initial contact, and knee valgus range of motion
121 during landing.³⁵ However, both re-injury and contralateral ACL injuries were combined
122 during the analysis, so it is unclear if the risk factors are specific to, or different between

123 injury to either limb. Our understanding of the mechanisms that may result in re-injury may
124 be further complicated by their inclusion of males and female subjects.^{19,40} A potential
125 limitation to our understanding of the re-injury mechanism is that the research is restricted to
126 the double leg drop jump, although up to 50% of ACL injuries occur during CoD manoeuvres
127 and single-leg landing.¹ To assess the influence of patient-reported outcomes, performance
128 measures and biomechanics on ACL re-injury, studies must control for several non-physical
129 factors that may influence the risk of ACL re-injury and physical recovery, including time
130 since surgery, age, level and type of sport, and graft type.^{11,21,29,35,41,46} Therefore, a
131 combination of PRO, strength and performance measures, and 3D biomechanical analysis in
132 both jump and CoD tests in a homogenous cohort of athletes may better identify those at
133 increased risk of ACL re-injury.

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135 The primary aim of this study was to examine differences in strength, jump, and timed CoD
136 performance measures, PRO, and 3D biomechanics during jump and CoD testing in a group
137 of male athletes aged 18–35 years returning to level 1 sports (multidirectional field sports
138 which involve landing, pivoting or change of direction), after primary ACLR between those
139 with ACL re-injury and a matched cohort with no re-injury after 2 years post-surgery. The
140 secondary aim was to assess the ability of these variables to predict who would experience
141 ACL re-injury.

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143 **Methods**

144 Athletes were recruited into this prospective case control study from January 1, 2014 to
145 December 31, 2016 from the caseload of two orthopaedic surgeons at the Sports Surgery
146 Clinic, Dublin. Participants were enrolled in the study if they were diagnosed with ACL
147 rupture, had a confirmed surgical date, and provided informed consent. Before surgery,

148 participants completed a pre-operative questionnaire outlining their sport, mechanism of
149 injury, and level of desired return after surgery. Male participants aged 18 to 35 years who
150 played multidirectional field sports and intended to return to the same level of sport were
151 included in the study. All participants underwent primary ACLR using either a bone patellar
152 tendon bone or hamstring (gracilis/semitendinosus) graft from the ipsilateral limb.
153 Participants who were undergoing second or subsequent ACLR, did not intend to return to
154 level 1, or had meniscal/additional ligament repair at the time of surgery were excluded. The
155 study was registered at clinicaltrials.gov NCT02771548 and received ethical approval from
156 the Sports Surgery Clinic Hospital Ethics Committee (25-AFM-010).

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158 **Testing Protocol**

159 After surgery, all participants underwent an accelerated rehabilitation protocol with
160 weightbearing as tolerated on crutches for 2 weeks, followed by progressive blocks of
161 strength and neuromuscular control, power and reactive strength development, and running
162 and CoD mechanics, as physical competency and knee symptoms allowed. Athletes were
163 rehabilitated locally by their referring physiotherapist and reviewed by their orthopaedic
164 surgeons at 2 weeks, 3 months, and 6–9 months after surgery. As part of their final
165 orthopaedic review, participants took part in a physical testing protocol at approximately 9
166 months post-surgery. Before the testing session, all participants completed PRO: the
167 International Knee Documentation Committee (IKDC),¹³ Marx Activity Scale²⁵, and ACL
168 Return to Sport after Injury questionnaire (ACL-RSI).⁴⁵ The data collection protocol took
169 place in a 3D biomechanics laboratory and included a double leg drop jump from 30 cm,
170 single leg drop jump from 20 cm, and 90° planned and unplanned CoD, as described
171 elsewhere.^{14, 15} In addition, single leg countermovement jump height and single leg hop for
172 distance length were assessed to compare with previous literature.^{11, 21, 30} Participants

173 undertook a standardised warm-up: 2-minute jog, 5 bodyweight squats, and 2 submaximal
174 and 3 maximal double leg countermovement jumps. Each participant underwent two
175 submaximal practice trials of each movement before three valid test trial attempts (maximal
176 effort and full-foot contact on force plate) were captured, with the mean of three trials used
177 for analysis. Participants took a 30-s recovery between trials. Lab testing was followed by
178 concentric isokinetic testing of the quadriceps and hamstring muscle groups of both limbs at
179 60°/s through 0-100° knee flexion. Peak torque/body mass was used to define the strength
180 performance measures.⁴⁴

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182 **Biomechanical Analysis**

183 Joint kinematic data were collected using an eight-camera motion analysis system (Bonita-
184 B10, Vicon, UK) capturing at 200 Hz, synchronized with two force platforms (BP400600,
185 AMTI, Watertown, MA, USA) sampling at 1000 Hz. Motion data from 24 reflective markers
186 (14 mm diameter) was integrated with ground reaction forces (Vicon Nexus 1.8.5), which
187 were low-pass filtered using a fourth-order Butterworth filter (cut-off frequency: 15 Hz).¹⁸
188 Participants wore their own athletic footwear. Reflective markers were secured using tape at
189 bony landmarks on the lower limbs, pelvis, and trunk as per the adapted Plug-in-Gait marker
190 set.²⁴ A custom MATLAB program (MathWorks Inc, Natick, MA, USA) was used for
191 processing and calculating the variables analysed. The motion of the centre of mass (COM)
192 relative to the ankle and knee joints was assessed by quantifying the distance from the COM
193 to ankle and knee joint in all 3 planes.¹⁵ At the joint level, in addition to the ankle, knee and
194 hip 3D joint angles and moments, the trunk-pelvis angle in all three planes and foot-pelvis
195 angle in the transverse plane were quantified. All kinetic variables including ground reaction
196 force were normalized to body mass. Whole body stiffness when the body was accepting load
197 was calculated as:

198 $\text{stiffness (k) = } \Delta \text{vGRF} / \sqrt{\Delta \text{CoMz}^2}$

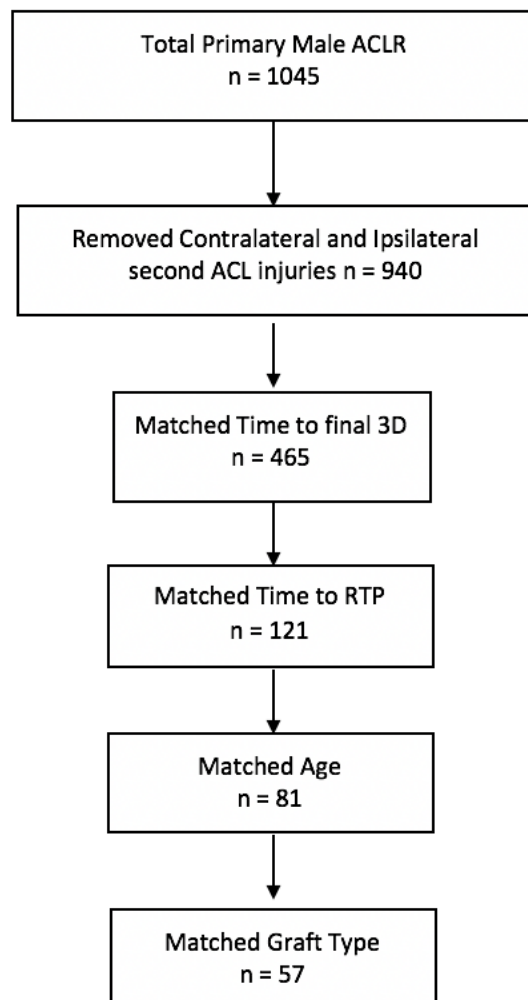
199 where Δ for both variables is from impact (the point of initial ground contact) to and end
200 of eccentric phase defined as the first instance at which COM vertical power > 0 . Kinetic and
201 kinematic analysis was performed for the stance phase of each jump and CoD test [defined by
202 ground reaction force (GRF) > 20 N]. Curves were normalized to 101 frames and landmark
203 registered³⁷ to endecc.²⁸ This process aligned onset of the eccentric phase to 50% of the
204 movement cycle across participants to ensure relevant comparison of neuromuscular
205 characteristics between limbs and participants during continuous waveform analysis.
206 Performance outcomes were determined for the jump and CoD tasks. Jump height for single
207 leg countermovement jump, double leg drop jump and single leg drop jump was calculated
208 from ground reaction forces using the impulse-momentum theorem and jump length for
209 single leg hop for distance was calculated as the distance from heel marker at start to landing.
210 Time to complete the 90° CoD was recorded using speed gates (Smartspeed, Fusion Sport,
211 Chicago, IL, USA) with a trigger gate 2 m from the start line and exit gate 2 m to the left and
212 right of force plates to indicate end of the manoeuvre.¹⁴ LSI for strength and jump
213 performance scores were calculated [(ACL side/non-ACL side) $\times 100$]. Asymmetry in
214 biomechanical variables (ASYM) was calculated as the ACLR side minus non-ACL side.

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216 **Follow-Up**

217 All participants were followed-up via e-mail at 1 year and 2 years post-surgery with a
218 questionnaire recording RTP status (return to same level of sport yes/no) and identifying
219 those who sustained re-rupture of their reconstructed ACL or rupture of their contralateral
220 ACL. Re-injuries were also identified between these time points if participants returned to
221 their surgeon with diagnosis of another ACL injury, with the same questionnaire regarding
222 RTP and re-injury completed at this point. If participants did not reply to the e-mail

223 questionnaire/return to the surgeon, they received a follow-up phone call to complete the
224 questionnaires. For this study, all participants who re-injured their reconstructed ACL were
225 included and placed in the ipsilateral re-injury group (RI). From the remaining participants
226 who had returned to multidirectional field sports after ACLR and did not have ipsilateral re-
227 injury or contralateral ACL injury (NRI) at 2 years follow-up, a cohort were selected to
228 match to the RI group based on: mean on time from surgery to 3D biomechanical testing;
229 time from surgery to RTP; age and graft type (Figure 1). This ensured that appropriate
230 comparison and minimise the potential influence of other factors on ACL re-injury.



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232 Figure 1 Flow diagram of matching process between RI and NRI groups

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Statistical Analysis

Differences in PRO and strength (normalised knee flexion and extension peak torque) and performance measures (single leg countermovement jump, single leg drop jump jump height, single leg hop for distance jump length and CoD time) for the ACLR side and in LSI between RI and NRI groups were examined using Mann-Whitney U Test and independent Student's t tests respectively (Table 1).³³ Effect sizes for differences between groups were calculated and interpreted using Cohen's D (0.20 to 0.49 = small; 0.50 to 0.79 = medium; ≥ 0.80 = strong).⁷ Success rates (percentage of group who achieved the outcome) attaining $\geq 90\%$ LSI for quadriceps and hamstring strength, single leg countermovement jump and single leg drop jump height, and single leg hop for distance jump length were calculated for all groups,⁴² with differences in success rates examined using chi squared test of homogeneity. Additionally, the odds ratio of participants being in the NRI compared to RI when $\geq 90\%$ LSI for quadriceps, hamstring strength, single leg countermovement jump, and single leg drop jump height were calculated as well as the odds when $\geq 90\%$ LSI for all five tests collectively was achieved.

Statistical parametric mapping (SPM; 1d, unpaired t-test; parametric) was used to examine differences in lower-limb biomechanics between RI and NRI groups for the ACLR limb and differences in asymmetry between limbs between groups (ACLR minus non-ACLR limb) for each biomechanical variable for double leg drop jump, single leg drop jump, and planned and unplanned 90° CoD during stance. Reported values are mean effect sizes across phases with significant differences ($p < 0.05$), excluding phases with Cohen's D < 0.50 so as to only report differences of medium effect size or larger. Graphs for biomechanical variables with differences are displayed in Appendix A.

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262 Table 1 Summary of data points and statistical analysis

Dataset	Analysis
PRO data	Mann-Whitney U Test
Strength, Jump and CoD Performance ACLR side and LSI	Independent Student's t-test Success Rate \geq 90% LSI Odds Ratio NRI if \geq 90% LSI Logistic Regression
Biomechanics ACLR side and ASYM	1D SPM independent Student's t-test Logistic Regression

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264 PRO - patient reported outcome measure; SPM - statistical parametric mapping; CoD - change of direction; ACLR - anterior cruciate
265 ligament reconstruction; LSI - limb symmetry index; NRI - no re-injury group; ASYM - asymmetry

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267 To assess the ability of the results to predict ACL re-injury, logistic regressions were
268 performed using 3 predictor variables that were chosen based on the effect of the identified
269 differences for the magnitude and symmetry analysis. Only three features were chosen to
270 achieve an input to observations ratio of 1:10 to 15, to generate a model avoiding
271 overfitting the model to the data.^{2, 36} if a feature was multicollinear (correlation between
272 them $>.70$) with a higher ranked feature it was excluded and an additional lower ranked
273 feature was included. Predictor variables utilized were the average value of the phases
274 within a biomechanical waveform that differed between groups. Before fitting the logistic
275 regression predictor variables were transformed into z-scores and cohorts were balanced so
276 that the sample size of RI and NRI was equal. To transform a predictor variable vector \mathbf{x} (e.g.

277 contact time; $n \times m$; $n = 88$ subjects; $m = 1$ feature) into z scores the following equation was
278 used:

$$279 \quad z = (\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) / S,$$

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281 with $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ being the average and S is standard deviation of the sample within \mathbf{x} . During the
282 fitting, data were balanced (using Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique)⁶ so the
283 minority class contained the same number of observations as the majority class. To interpret
284 predictive ability of the logistic regression, receiver operating curve (RoC) and prediction
285 accuracy were reported. The area under the curve (AUC) was used in the RoC to classify
286 findings ($n = 0.50$; poor = >0.60 ; fair = >0.70 ; good = >0.80), while the accuracy measure
287 was compared to expected accuracy (accuracy that would have been obtained if the most
288 frequent class had been guessed).

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290 **Results**

291 There were 1045 male primary ACL reconstructions during the enrolment period. Re-injury
292 of the reconstructed ACL graft was recorded in 38 participants. Of those re-injured, 3D
293 biomechanical analysis and PRO data were recorded on 31 participants at orthopaedic
294 follow-up (seven participants did not attend the testing session 6–9 months post-surgery),
295 constituting the RI group. A matched cohort of 57 athletes with no ACL re-injury constituted
296 the NRI group. Demographic and anthropometric data of both groups are reported in Table 2.
297 The mean time (\pm SD) to ACL re-injury was 19.8 months (± 8.4) post-surgery and 9.7 months
298 (± 8.9) post-RTP.

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Table 2 Anthropometric data	RI (mean \pm SD)	NRI (mean \pm SD)
Subject Numbers	31	57

Graft Type (BPTB/HT)	18/13	37/20
Age (years)	21.7 (\pm 4.9)	22.9 (\pm 4.1)
Mass (Kg)	82.4 (\pm 9.5)	81.3 (\pm 11.8)
Height (cm)	180.3 (\pm 6.4)	180.0 (\pm 6)
Gaelic Football	16 (52%)	23 (40%)
Hurling	6 (19%)	14 (25%)
Soccer	5 (16%)	11 (19%)
Rugby	4 (13%)	9 (16%)
Surgery to RTP (months)	9.6 (\pm 3.2)	9.9 (\pm 3.0)
Surgery to Testing (months)	9.1 (\pm 3.1)	9.3 (\pm 1.2)
Surgery to Re-Injury (months)	19.8 (\pm 8.4)	
RTP to Re-Injury (months)	9.7 (\pm 8.9)	

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301 RI - re-injury group; NRI - no re-injury group; SD - standard deviation; BPTB - bone patellar tendon bone; HT - hamstring tendon; RTP -
 302 return to play

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304 **PRO scores:**

305 No difference was detected in IKDC, ACL-RSI or Marx Activity Scale scores between
 306 groups (Table 3).

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310 Table 3 Differences in patient reported outcome (PRO) measures

PRO	RI	NRI		
	Mean (\pm SD)		p-value	Effect Size
IKDC	79.3 (11.2)	83.3 (9.9)	0.12	0.31
ACL RSI	71.2 (16.2)	77.2 (15.0)	0.09	0.37
Marx	11.3 (3.5)	11.1 (3.5)	0.25	0.17

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312 RI - re-injury group; NRI - no re-injury group; PRO – patient reported outcome; SD – standard deviation; IKDC – International Knee
 313 Documentation Committee; ACL-RSI – anterior cruciate ligament return to sport after injury

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316 ***Strength and Performance Measures:***

317 Comparison of ACLR limbs, LSI, or $\geq 90\%$ LSI success rates between RI and NRI groups

318 across all strength, jump, and CoD scores individually and combined revealed only one

319 significant difference (Table 4) with hamstring strength, $\geq 90\%$ LSI success rates significantly

320 lower for the RI group (45%) than NRI group (69%; $p = 0.020$). Both groups had low success

321 rates combined across all tests (4% RI, 2% NRI). The odds of being in the NRI group when

322 $>90\%$ LSI was achieved for all tests was 0.49 (95% CI 0.03 to 8.15). No difference was

323 observed for CoD performance time during planned CoD on the ACLR side (1.43 ± 0.15 s vs.

324 1.42 ± 0.11 s; $p = 0.81$) or in LSI ($99.3 \pm 5.0\%$ vs. $99.3 \pm 4.8\%$; $p = 0.95$) between groups.

325 Similarly, no difference was detected in unplanned CoD performance time on the ACLR side

326 (1.52 ± 0.12 s vs. 1.52 ± 0.09 s; $p = 0.93$) or in LSI ($98.7 \pm 4.6\%$ vs. $98.7 \pm 4.7\%$; $p = 0.92$)

327 between groups.

328 Table 4 Comparison of strength and jump performance measures and $\geq 90\%$ LSI success

Test	Ipsilateral Injury		Ipsilateral Matched		p-value	Effect Size
		95% CI		95% CI		
Quadriceps (N/Kg)	198 (43)	180 to 213	200 (39)	190 to 210	0.724	0.08
LSI (%)	89.4	85 to 94	88.1	85 to 92	0.652	0.10
$>90\%$ LSI success rates	52%		47%		0.644	
Hamstring (N/Kg)	122.6	113 to 132	127.1	120 to 134	0.488	0.16
LSI (%)	(25.1)	88 to 99	(13.9)	93 to 100	0.2745	0.24
$>90\%$ LSI success rates	93 (14.4)		69%		0.022*	

SLCMJ (cm)	9.9 (2.8)	8.9 to 10.9	9.9 (2.6)	9.2 to 10.6	0.964	0.01
LSI (%)	85.4 (16.2)	79 to 91	86 (15.8)	82 to 90	0.875	0.03
>90% LSI success rates	41%		44%		0.821	
SLDJ (cm)	9.73 (2.8)	8.7 to 10.8	9.2 (2.7)	8.5 to 9.9	0.445	0.19
LSI (%)	80.1 (17.9)	73.9 to 87.8	76.3 (15.5)	72.2 to 80.3	0.224	0.28
>90% LSI success rates	25%		16%		0.287	
SLHD (cm)	148.8 (33.8)	135 to 162	142.2 (23.3)	137 to 149	0.388	0.21
LSI (%)	95.6 (14.6)	89.5 to 100	95.7 (13.7)	92.1 to 99.4	0.961	0.01
>90% LSI success rates	83%		68%		0.162	
>90% LSI success rates for all 4 tests	4%		2%		0.562	

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330 RI - re-injury group; NRI - no re-injury group; SD - standard deviation; SLCMJ - single leg countermovement jump; SLDJ - single leg drop

331 jump; SLHD - single leg hop for distance; CI - confidence interval; LSI – limb symmetry index; SD – standard deviation

332 * $p < 0.05$

333

334 **Biomechanical Analysis**

335 Biomechanical differences (% stance; effect size) on the ACLR side between RI and NRI

336 groups are reported in Table 5 and Figure 2. In the double leg drop jump, there were medium

337 effect size differences for knee flexion angle (9%–22%; effect size: 0.64; Figure 3), vertical

338 distance from COM to ankle (9%–29% & 49% to 74%; $d = 0.64$ & 0.59) and ground contact

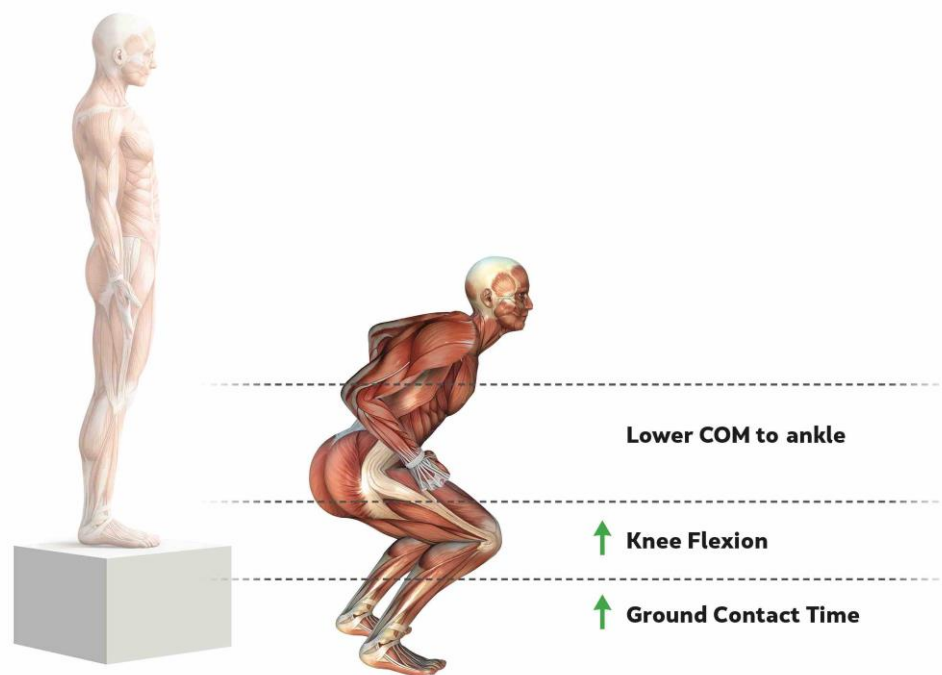
339 time ($d = 0.52$) with more knee flexion, lower COM to ankle, and longer ground contact

340 times in the RI group. Groups did not significantly differ for any variable within the single

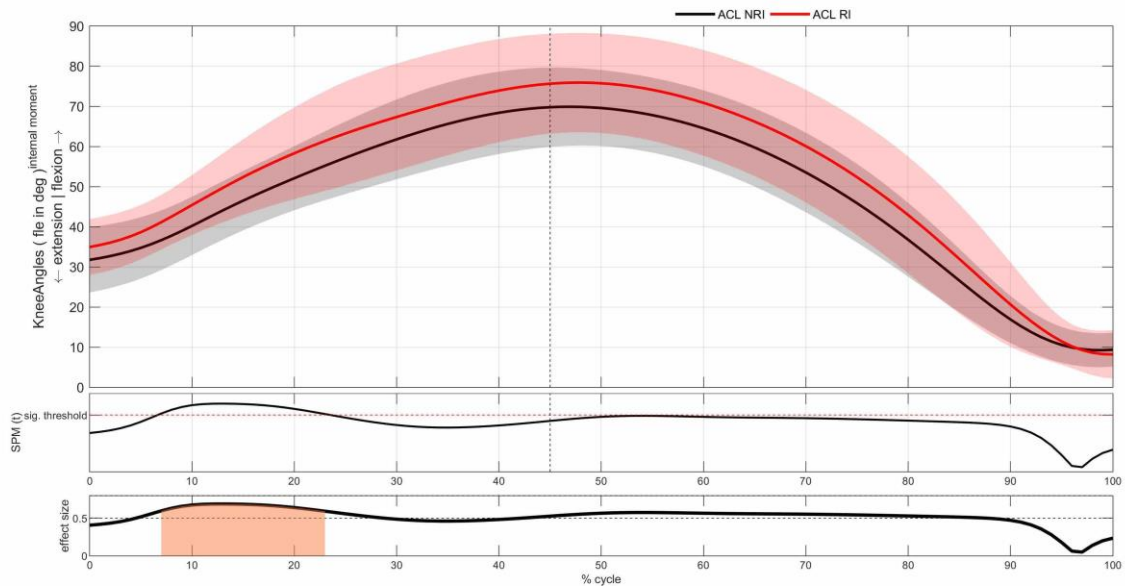
341 leg drop jump. In the planned CoD, COM was less posterior to the knee in the RI group

342 throughout stance (0%–12%, 26%–34%, 54%–63%, 82%–93%; $d = 0.66, 0.63, 0.67, 0.62$).

343 In the unplanned CoD, there was less anterior pelvic tilt in the RI group (42%–90%; $d =$
344 0.63). The prediction model for biomechanical variables for double leg drop jump selected
345 vertical COM distance to ankle (9-29%), knee flexion angle and ground contact time for
346 inclusion and could predict membership of the RI group with an accuracy of 61.3% (baseline:
347 62.5%), sensitivity of 0.69, and specificity of 0.47 (AUC: 0.67).



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349 Figure 2. Biomechanical differences on ACLR side during the double leg drop jump in ACL RI group compared
350 to NRI group illustrating longer ground contact times, greater knee flexion and lower COM to ankle on the
351 ACLR side in the RI group.



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353 Figure 3. Difference in knee flexion angle on the ACLR side between re-injury (RI) and no re-injury (NRI)
 354 groups during double leg drop jump. Top panel illustrates mean and SD clouds for RI (red) and NRI limbs
 355 (black). Middle panel illustrates SPM{t}, the t-statistic as a function of time describing difference between the
 356 two groups. Dotted red line of the SPM curve indicates $p < 0.05$ and that a significant difference exists between
 357 groups. Bottom panel illustrates effect size as a function of time, describing magnitude of the effect. Dotted
 358 black line and shaded portion indicate average Cohen's $d > 0.5$, with orange indicating medium effect size and
 359 significant difference throughout that phase. There was less knee flexion in the RI group (9%–22%), with a
 360 medium effect size (0.64).

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363 Table 5 Biomechanical differences on the ACLR side between RI and NRI groups

Variable	Start	End	Difference Between RI and NRI on ACLR side - D	
			RI ACLR side (\pm SD)	95% CI
Knee Flexion Angle ($^{\circ}$)	9	22	52.7 (9.7)	49.0 to 56.4
COM to Ankle Vertical (mm/BH)	9	29	0.42 (0.02)	0.41 to 0.43
	49	74	0.40 (0.03)	0.39 to 0.41
Ground Contact Time (sec)	n/a		0.31 (0.09)	0.27 to 0.34
Difference Between RI and NRI Cohort on ACLR side - P				
COM to Knee Posterior (mm)	0	12	-11.1 (60.3)	-34.1 to 11.8
	26	34	18.9 (56.9)	-2.7 to 40.5
	54	63	66.1 (62.2)	42.4 to 89.7

82 93 163 (68.4) 137.1 to 189.1

Difference Between RI and NRI Cohort on ACLR side - Un

	82	93	163 (68.4)	137.1 to 189.1
Anterior Pelvic Tilt (°)	42	90	2.1 (7.0)	-0.7 to 4.8

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ACLR - anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction; RI - re-injury group; NRI - no re-injury group; DLDJ - double leg drop jump; CI - confidence interval; IPSI - ipsilateral; SD - standard deviation; BH - body height; CoD - change of direction; COM – centre of mass

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Differences in asymmetry between the two groups are reported in Table 6 and Figure 4. No

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significant differences in asymmetry were detected in the double leg drop jump, single leg

370

drop jump and planned CoD. In the unplanned CoD significant differences in asymmetry

371

indicated that the RI group were more asymmetrical for COM to knee (76%–90%; $d = 0.69$

372

and ankle (12%–23%; $d = 0.62$), with the COM more contralateral (medial) to the knee on

373

the ACLR side. The trunk-pelvis side flexion angle was more asymmetrical in the RI group

374

(73%–100%; $d = 0.68$) towards the end of the stance phase. There also was greater

375

asymmetry in anterior pelvic tilt in the RI group (28%–99%; $d = 0.69$), with less anterior

376

pelvic tilt on the ACLR side, as well as greater asymmetry in pelvic drop (9%–36%; $d =$

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0.61), with more pelvic drop during early stance on the ACLR side. The prediction model for

378

symmetry of biomechanical variables during unplanned CoD selected COM to knee in frontal

379

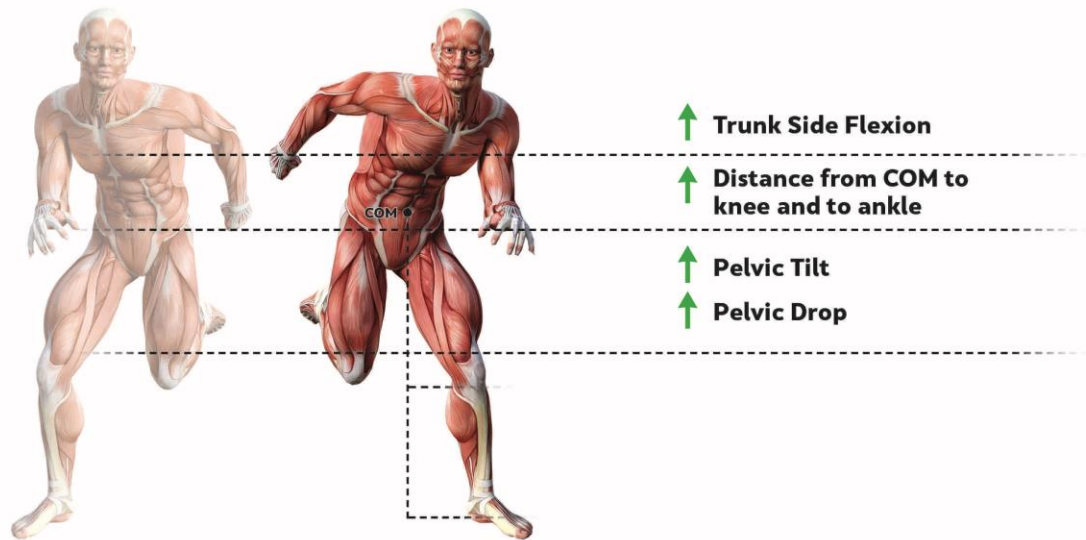
plane, pelvic drop and trunk-pelvis side flexion for inclusion and could predict ACL re-injury

380

with an accuracy of 67.7% (baseline: 59.7%), sensitivity of 0.65 and specificity of 0.72

381

(AUC: 0.75).



382

383 Figure 4. Biomechanical variables with greater asymmetry during the unplanned CoD in the RI group compared
 384 to NRI group illustrating greater asymmetry of trunk side flexion, distance from COM to knee and ankle in
 385 frontal plane, pelvic tilt and pelvic drop in the RI group.

386

387 Table 6 Biomechanical differences between limbs between the RI and NRI groups

Variable	Difference Between Limbs Between RI and NRI Cohort on ACLR side				
	Start	End	RI ACLR side (\pm SD)	95% CI	NR
COM to Knee Frontal (mm)	76	90	20.1 (42.8)	3.2 to 37.1	
Anterior Pelvic Tilt ($^{\circ}$)	28	99	-4.9 (8.8)	-1.5 to -8.4	
Trunk to Pelvis Side Flexion ($^{\circ}$)	73	100	-4.9 (10.4)	-0.8 to -9.0	
COM to Ankle Frontal (mm)	12	23	38.8 (57.4)	16.1 to 61.6	
Contralateral Pelvic Drop ($^{\circ}$)	9	36	6.9 (7.5)	4.0 to 9.9	

388

389 ACLR - anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction; RI - re-injury group; NRI - no re-injury group; ASYM - asymmetry; CI - confidence
 390 interval; IPSI - ipsilateral; SD - standard deviation; CoD - change of direction; COM - centre of mass

391 **Discussion**

392 Return to play criteria are used to determine rehabilitation status and re-injury risk after
393 ACLR and frequently assess PRO, strength and jump/hop and CoD performance measures
394 but movement (biomechanical) analysis is commonly absent. This study aimed to
395 prospectively examine these combination of measures in a large cohort of male field sport
396 athletes. This study identified differences in biomechanical measures between those who
397 suffered re-injury and those who did not. These biomechanical differences were present in
398 the absence of any differences between groups in commonly used and reported isokinetic
399 strength, jump, and CoD timed performance measures, both individually and combined.
400 Biomechanical variables from individual jump and CoD tests demonstrated limited
401 predicative ability but highlight variables that could be targeted during rehabilitation and
402 RTP decision-making and could be considered in future injury prediction models.

403

404 ***Patient Reported Outcomes***

405 This study examined differences in PRO. There was no difference in IKDC, Marx Activity
406 Scale or ACL-RSI score between groups, suggesting that self-reported knee function, activity
407 levels at the time of testing or perceived readiness to RTP are not factors in re-injury risk.
408 This is in agreement with previous research which found no difference in PRO between those
409 that suffer subsequent knee injury and those that do not after ACLR.¹¹

410

411 ***Performance Measures***

412 There was no difference between ACLR limbs or in LSI for isokinetic strength of the
413 quadriceps or hamstrings, jump height/length or CoD times individually or collectively
414 between RI and NRI groups. There was also no difference in >90% LSI success rates for all
415 variables, with the exception of hamstring strength testing ($p = 0.022$). This difference in

416 hamstring strength was not evident when looking at group means, highlighting how
417 potentially important results may be hidden in group averages.⁴² When examining the >90%
418 LSI success rates of all tests combined, there was a lower odds of being in the NRI group
419 (0.49) but the confidence intervals were wide (0.03 to 8.15). This differs from previous
420 findings from Kyritsis et al., who reported a 4-fold increase in re-injury risk after ACLR in
421 those not achieving >90% LSI across strength, jump, and CoD tests. Both RI and NRI groups
422 demonstrated ongoing deficits relating to <90% LSI threshold at the time of testing,
423 consistent with previous studies demonstrating ongoing strength and jump deficits after
424 ACLR at RTP.^{27, 30, 39, 47} However, biomechanical deficits after ACLR have been
425 demonstrated despite athletes passing >90% LSI criteria during jump and CoD tests.^{14, 15}
426 These results suggest that previously used performance measures of strength, jump, and
427 CoD performance, on the ACLR side on in measures of symmetry (LSI), may not be
428 sufficient to identify physical deficits that may influence risk of ACL re-injury. Additional
429 factors may need to be considered during RTP assessment or decision-making.

430

431 ***Biomechanical Analysis***

432 There were some biomechanical differences on the ACLR side and in symmetry between
433 limbs between RI and NRI groups. In the double leg drop jump, there was increased knee
434 flexion, lower vertical COM height to the ankle, and longer ground contact times on the
435 ACLR side for those who experienced ACL re-injury. This suggests the RI group required
436 longer time on the ground and more flexion/lowering of COM to absorb landing forces and
437 then jump again during the double leg task. This longer time to absorb load may influence
438 knee loading on RTP, resulting in higher knee and ACL load during sports-specific activities
439 and may result in increased risk of ACL re-injury.^{5, 22, 39, 47, 48} Differences in the biomechanics
440 of planned and unplanned CoD on the ACLR side between groups demonstrated the COM

441 being less posterior to the knee (planned) and less anterior pelvic tilt (unplanned) in the RI
442 group. A less posterior position of the COM relative to the knee has been suggested as a
443 method to reduce the knee extension moment required during landing and deceleration^{31, 32}
444 and knee valgus moment during CoD.¹⁰ Combined with variables identified in the double leg
445 drop jump, it may reflect a difference in the ability to absorb load in the sagittal plane in
446 those who re-injure their ACL. However, given the number of biomechanical variables
447 analysed in both CoD tests, the identification of a single variable of difference may hold little
448 relevant information. Of note, external knee valgus moment (internal knee varus moment)
449 and knee valgus angle were not different between groups in any test, despite this being
450 reported as a risk factor in previous literature^{11, 35} and common mechanism of ACL injury.^{1, 16}
451 This difference in findings may be due to previous analysis being mostly in female athletes,
452 rather than male athletes, with females more likely to demonstrate dynamic knee valgus
453 during landing^{30, 38} and during ACL injury.¹⁹ In addition, prior studies often combined
454 ipsilateral and contralateral injuries together during analysis, which may have influenced
455 outcomes.^{11, 34, 35}

456

457 CoD tests revealed differences of symmetry in biomechanical measures between groups. In
458 the unplanned CoD, there was greater between-limb difference for distance between the
459 COM and knee and ankle in the frontal plane in the RI group, with distance greater (more
460 medial) on the ACLR side. Greater step width has been suggested as a potential mechanism
461 for ACL injury and increased knee loading, and asymmetry in strategy between limbs may
462 increase re-injury risk in the RI group.^{8, 17} However it should be noted that there was large
463 variation in asymmetry in these variables in both groups which may be in part due to group
464 differences but also reflect the greater variation that may exist in a more open task such as
465 unplanned CoD. Additionally, there was greater asymmetry of ipsilateral trunk-pelvis lateral

466 flexion and pelvic drop on the ACLR side in the RI group. Frontal plane control has been
467 suggested as an important risk factor for ACL injury, and increased trunk sway during CoD
468 has been demonstrated to increase knee loading and is a commonly reported mechanism
469 during ACL injury.^{1, 4, 8}

470

471 While previous research has focused on jumping mechanics, seeking to identify risk factors
472 for ACL injury,^{12, 20, 35} this study demonstrates that biomechanical analysis of both jump and
473 CoD movements can enhance assessment of rehabilitation status to reduce ACL re-injury risk
474 on RTP after ACLR. Biomechanical differences between groups were found despite no
475 differences in commonly used isokinetic peak torque strength, jump, and CoD performance
476 measures, highlighting the potential importance of examining performance and
477 biomechanical measures after ACLR.^{14, 15} Biomechanical variables for the double leg drop
478 jump and unplanned CoD demonstrated poor predictive ability to identify those who would
479 re-injure their ACL. Differences between those with re-injury and those without were related
480 to the ability to absorb load during double leg drop jump and frontal plane control during
481 unplanned CoD. Targeting these variables during rehabilitation in male athletes returning
482 from ACLR may reduce the incidence of re-injury but may not be able to currently predict
483 who will go on to re-injure.³ The results of this study suggest that biomechanical variables
484 during both jump and CoD testing may play an important role in those who will experience
485 ACL re-injury on return to high-demand multidirectional sports and may offer more relevant
486 information than the common strength and jump score tests previously used in isolation.

487

488 *Limitations and Future Directions*

489 Although ACL re-injury was tracked prospectively on a large number of participants,
490 biomechanical data were not available on 7/38 subjects (18%) which may bias the results. As

491 there is little research on prospective risk factors for ACL re-injury in male athletes, this
492 study examined a large number of variables and tests. This increases the risk of type 1 error,
493 although we offset this risk by setting a medium effect size threshold and only reporting
494 variables with sufficient magnitude differences. Further, we only included male athletes, so
495 future research should carry out similar analyses in female athletic populations to identify
496 risk factors specific to that cohort and potential differences in risk factors for male and female
497 athletes for ACL re-injury after ACLR. In addition, those identified biomechanical variables
498 demonstrated limited predictive ability and have large variability in some cases. Predictive
499 accuracy may be improved by using non-linear models, exploring alternative biomechanical
500 measures including variability and co-ordination and including additional data that have been
501 reported to influence ACL re-injury, such as demographic surgical and radiological data, to
502 build a comprehensive model of factors influencing second ACL injury risk.

503

504 **Conclusion**

505 This large prospective study examined differences in both performance and biomechanical
506 variables during jump and CoD testing to identify risk factors for ACL re-injury in male
507 athletes. The RI group had no difference in IKDC, ACL RSI, Marx Activity Scale, or
508 commonly used strength and performance measures at 9 month follow up. Findings
509 demonstrate differences in biomechanical variables in the sagittal plane on ACLR side during
510 double leg drop jump and symmetry of frontal plane control during unplanned CoD with poor
511 predictive ability. Targeting these variables during ACL rehabilitation may reduce the risk of
512 re-injury. Future research should combine biomechanical, surgical, and demographic data to
513 determine if these factors are involved in ACL re-injury.

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