

World Journal of *Orthopedics*

World J Orthop 2011 August 18; 2(8): 67-84



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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS I Acknowledgments to reviewers of *World Journal of Orthopedics*

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<http://www.wjgnet.com/2218-5836/full/v2/i8/75.htm>

AIM AND SCOPE *World Journal of Orthopedics* (*World J Orthop*, *WJO*, online ISSN 2218-5836, DOI: 10.5312) is a monthly peer-reviewed, online, open-access, journal supported by an editorial board consisting of 122 experts in orthopedics from 30 countries.
 The aim of *WJO* is to report rapidly new theories, methods and techniques for prevention, diagnosis, treatment, rehabilitation and nursing in the field of orthopedics. *WJO* covers diagnostic imaging, arthroscopy, evidence-based medicine, epidemiology, nursing, sports medicine, therapy of bone and spinal diseases, bone trauma, osteoarthropathy, bone tumors and osteoporosis, minimally invasive therapy, traditional medicine, and integrated Chinese and Western medicine. The journal also publishes original articles and reviews that report the results of applied and basic research in fields related to orthopedics, such as immunology, physiopathology, cell biology, pharmacology, medical genetics, and pharmacology of Chinese herbs.

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NAME OF JOURNAL
World Journal of Orthopedics

LAUNCH DATE
 November 18, 2010

SPONSOR
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PUBLISHING
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 Room 1701, 17/F, Henan Building,
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PUBLICATION DATE
 August 18, 2011

ISSN
 ISSN 2218-5836 (online)

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ONLINE SUBMISSION
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Osteoporotic fracture and parathyroid hormone

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Author contributions: Datta NS solely contributed to this paper. Supported by The author was partially supported by the grant from The National Institute of Health, NIHDK087848, during writing of this manuscript

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Received: March 4, 2011 Revised: April 19, 2011

Accepted: June 1, 2011

Published online: August 18, 2011

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Key words: Osteoporosis; Fracture repair; Parathyroid hormone; Parathyroid hormone-1 receptor; Emerging therapies

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Datta NS. Osteoporotic fracture and parathyroid hormone. *World J Orthop* 2011; 2(8): 67-74 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2218-5836/full/v2/i8/67.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5312/wjo.v2.i8.67>

Abstract

Osteoporosis and age-related bone loss is associated with changes in bone remodeling characterized by decreased bone formation relative to bone resorption, resulting in bone fragility and increased risk of fractures. Stimulating the function of bone-forming osteoblasts, is the preferred pharmacological intervention for osteoporosis. Recombinant parathyroid hormone (PTH), PTH(1-34), is an anabolic agent with proven benefits to bone strength and has been characterized as a potential therapy for skeletal repair. In spite of PTH's clinical use, safety is a major consideration for long-term treatment. Studies have demonstrated that intermittent PTH treatment enhances and accelerates the skeletal repair process *via* a number of mechanisms. Recent research into the molecular mechanism of PTH action on bone tissue has led to the development of PTH analogs to control osteoporotic fractures. This review summarizes a number of advances made in the field of PTH and bone fracture to combat these injuries in humans and in animal models. The ultimate goal of providing an alternative to PTH, currently the sole anabolic therapy in clinical use, to promote bone formation and improve bone strength in the aging population is yet to be achieved.

INTRODUCTION

Osteoporosis is a progressive disorder of aging bone in both men and women, and osteoporotic fractures have become a major public health threat in recent years^[1,2]. In spite of widespread research, The lack of reliable and effective drugs to cure osteoporosis related fragility fractures remains an important global issue. Long considered a disease of post-menopausal women, osteoporosis is increasingly being recognized among the growing population of elderly men. New treatments and updates are constantly being recognized for treating osteoporosis in women^[3,4]. Although only thirty percent of hip fractures occur in men, the mortality rate during initial hospitalization and the first year after fractures twice as high in men as in women. Nevertheless, osteoporosis in men is underdiagnosed and undertreated, and is an increasingly important clinical issue^[5,6]. Osteoporosis in men is a heterogeneous clinical entity. While most men experience bone loss with aging, some develop osteoporosis at a relatively young age, often for unexplained reasons (idiopathic

osteoporosis). Declining sex steroid levels and other hormonal changes probably contribute to age-related bone loss, as do impairments in osteoblast number and/or activity^[7]. Also, fragility fractures are common in men and are associated with a significant burden in terms of morbidity, mortality and economic cost to the community^[7-9].

Intermittent treatment with teriparatide [recombinant human parathyroid hormone (hPTH-(1-34)], the only anabolic hormone, offers the potential to improve skeletal microarchitecture, and is a treatment modality for women with post-menopausal osteoporosis and men at high risk for fractures. Despite its clinical use, PTH has been reported to be associated with incidence of osteosarcoma, and safety is a major consideration for long-term use^[10,11]. The molecular mechanisms underlying PTH's action to evoke increased bone mass are not fully understood. Further elucidation is required using more controlled study designs, to develop an understanding the pathophysiology of bone loss, optimize patient care and to yield novel therapeutic strategies for potentiating bone anabolic agents.

OSTEOPOROSIS

“Osteo” means bone, and “porosis” means porous. Osteoporotic bones become more porous with less solid and less dense bone masses. Bone is an active tissue where new bone is being made continuously by osteoblasts, the bone forming cells, and old bone is removed by osteoclasts, the bone resorbing cells, *via* a process known as remodeling. In childhood, more bone is built than removed, and so the bones grow in both mass and size. In older age, osteoporosis results from increased bone resorption and decreased bone formation. The cells that build new bone do not keep up with those that remove bone. The total amount of bone mass then decreases, and osteoporosis may develop as a result. This condition finally makes bone thinner, weaker and more fragile, ultimately leading to loss of their structural and functional protein framework.

The human body also needs enough calcium, phosphorus and hormones, including estrogen in women and testosterone in men, to maintain healthy bone. Sufficient vitamin D is required to allow absorption of calcium from food, which is incorporated into bones to maintain their normal function. Osteoporosis exists in both primary or a secondary forms. Primary osteoporosis is the more common form and is due to the typical age-related loss of bone from skeleton. It is classified as type 1 or postmenopausal osteoporosis. Estrogen deficiency is thought to underlie this form of osteoporosis, rendering the skeleton more sensitive to PTH, and resulting in increased calcium resorption from bone. This in turn decreases PTH secretion, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D production, and calcium absorption. This ultimately causes loss of trabecular bone, leading to vertebral crush fractures and Colles' fractures. Primary osteoporosis type 2 or senile osteoporosis occurs in women or men of more

than 70 years of age and is usually associated with decreased bone formation along with decreased ability of the kidney to produce 1,25(OH)₂D₃. Type 3 or secondary osteoporosis results from the presence of other diseases or conditions that predispose to bone loss and occurs equally in men and women and at any age. This type of osteoporosis is associated with a variety of conditions, including hormonal imbalances (e.g. Cushing's syndrome); cancer (notably multiple myeloma); gastrointestinal disorders (especially inflammatory bowel disease which causes mal-absorption); drug use [e.g. corticosteroids, cancer chemotherapy, anticonvulsants, heparin, barbiturates, valproic acid, gonadotropin-releasing hormone, excessive use of aluminum-containing antacids]; chronic renal failure; hyperthyroidism; hypogonadism in men; immobilization; osteogenesis imperfecta and related disorders; inflammatory arthritis (particularly rheumatoid arthritis); and poor nutrition (including malnutrition due to eating disorders)^[12-14]. Thus, osteoporosis is classified as a systematic skeletal disease characterized by low bone strength and increased fracture risk^[15]. In this disease spine, hip, wrist and other associated bone joints fracture very easily, leading to serious health problems.

OSTEOPOROTIC FRACTURES

Globally more than 30 million people are affected by osteoporosis with about 1.5-2 million osteoporotic fragility fractures happening in every year^[16-18]. This includes more than 700000 vertebral fractures and over 300000 hip fractures^[19]. The mortality rate following a hip fracture in osteoporotic patients is about 10%-20% within the first year, and less than 50% of survivors regain their pre-fracture level of mobility and independence^[16]. Furthermore, mortality within 90 d of an osteoporotic fracture in individuals who are older than 65 years is substantially higher than might be expected, and for a subset of these fractures the risk for early lethality increases approximately sevenfold^[20]. In the United States alone, osteoporotic fracture cost exceeds US \$17 billion per year^[21]. The first critical step in reducing the burden of osteoporotic fractures is to identify individuals at high risk of fracture by skeletal health evaluation and to then determine the appropriate pharmacological therapy, applying anabolic or anti-resorptive medication to reduce fracture risk^[22,23]. Over the last decade, the prevention of osteoporotic fractures has been limited to the use of anti-resorptive^[24] and anabolic drugs, which have proven to be insufficient for decreasing the mortality and morbidity in this patient population.

THERAPEUTIC OPENING FOR FRACTURE REPAIR

The fracture repairing process is biologically controlled and optimized. In approximately 5% to 10% of the 7.9 million fractures sustained annually it is difficult to achieve union^[25]. Hence, there is a compelling need to

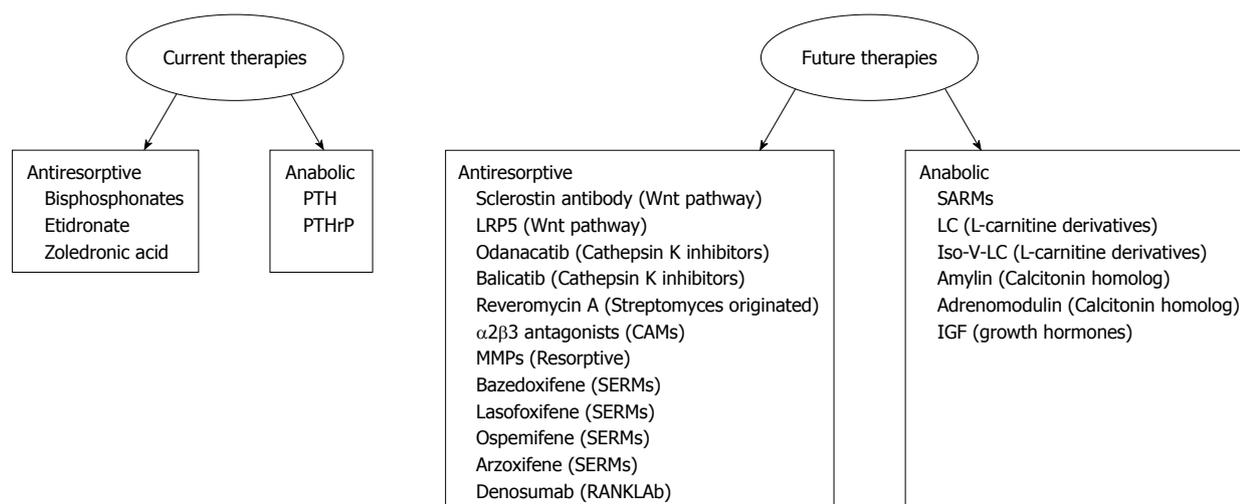


Figure 1 Current and future therapies for osteoporotic fractures^[107-109]. SERMs: Selective estrogen receptor modulators; RANKL: Ab-receptor activator of nuclear factor KB antibody; Wnt: Wingless signaling pathway; CAM: Cell adhesion molecules; IGF: Insulin growth factor, LC: L-carnitine; Iso-V-LC: Isovaleryl-L-carnitine; MMP: Matrix metalloproteinase; PTH: Parathyroid hormone; LRP: LDL receptor related protein receptor; SARM: Selective androgen receptor modulators.

find novel and effective therapies to enhance fracture repair process. Advances in the understanding of the molecular and cellular signaling pathways of bone biology have led to the development of current and emerging therapeutic agents which are summarized in Figure 1.

The known anabolic effects of PTH on bone formation has led to the development of a human recombinant peptide, teriparatide (1-34 hPTH), corresponding to the first 34 amino acids of PTH. Teriparatide is a drug currently approved for treating patients with osteoporosis who are at high risk for future fracture. Studies have confirmed a striking increase in trabecular bone mass and also showed that an important part of teriparatide's action is to increase cortical bone. A formal trial in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis was conducted by Eli Lilly and Company in the United States. The unexpected occurrence of osteosarcomas in Fisher 344 rats treated long-term with teriparatide provoked an abrupt cessation of this trial. However, ambiguity concerning the relevance of this rat finding to human disease, combined with significant anti-fracture efficacy, led to FDA approval of teriparatide for men and postmenopausal women with osteoporosis "at high risk for fracture" in 2002. Subsequently, teriparatide has been approved also for treatment of patients with glucocorticoid-associated osteoporosis, and papers indicating the utility of this agent for dental and orthopedic applications have begun to appear^[26]. In the treatment of osteoporosis, teriparatide works as an anabolic agent stimulating bone formation throughout the skeleton, principally by enhancing osteoblast-derived bone formation relative to osteoclast-derived bone resorption, resulting in a net increase in bone mass. For patients with a fracture, a similar process of increased bone formation is required transiently at the fracture site for repair. Teriparatide has been investigated in animal models and in patients as a potential agent to enhance fracture repair. Interestingly, in conditions with impaired healing such as aging, estrogen withdrawal, and

malnutrition fracture repair is expedited by PTH treatment. Subcutaneous injection of PTH once per day led to increased bone mass in patients with osteoporosis^[27] and in ovariectomized monkeys^[28]. The capability of PTH to augment bone formation is dependent upon the hormone being administered in a way that yields a transient peak blood level^[29,30].

It was initially noted that PTH could increase bone mass in rats^[31,32]. Using various animal models, several groups have shown that intermittent exposure to PTH stimulates osteoblast differentiation and function *in vivo*^[33,34]. Evidence that teriparatide enhances chondrogenesis has generated interest in using the agent for articular cartilage repair. Bukata *et al*^[35] and Aleksyniene *et al*^[36] found that treatment with PTH during distraction osteogenesis resulted in substantially higher mineralized tissue volume, mineral content, and bending strength. This suggests that treatment with PTH may benefit new bone formation during distraction osteogenesis and could form the basis for clinical application of this therapy in humans.

Knowledge of the effects of intermittent PTH treatment on newly regenerating bone after distraction osteogenesis is very limited. Seebach *et al*^[37] reported enhanced mechanical strength and density of new bone after distraction osteogenesis in rats. However, no information is available on the effects of intermittent PTH treatment on distraction osteogenesis in larger animals. Recent experiments with rats have demonstrated that treatment with PTH increases mechanical strength and callus formation in normal healing fractures^[38-42]. Furthermore, an increased density of regenerated bone and enhanced fixation of steel implants in rats have been shown after PTH treatment^[43,44].

In a recent investigation, to evaluate the potential use as a therapeutic agent for osteoporotic fractures, Kim and Jahng examined the effects of intermittent administration of PTH on fracture healing in ovariectomized rats^[45]. At 3 mo post-ovariectomy, bilateral tibial shaft fractures

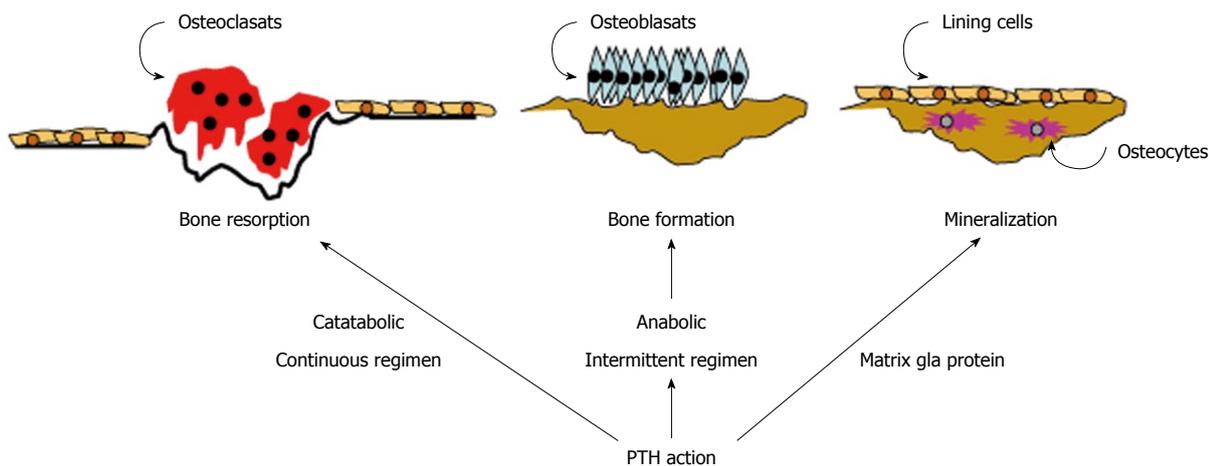


Figure 2 Effect of parathyroid hormone on bone cells.

were induced and stabilized by intramedullary nailing with Kirschner wires. Saline, 17-estradiol, or recombinant human PTH(1-84) was given once a day for 30 consecutive days during fracture healing. Fracture healing was assessed by morphometric and mechanical analysis of fracture callus. Intermittent PTH administration increased the morphometric and mechanical parameters in a dose-dependent manner. 17-estradiol, a bone-resorption inhibiting agent, showed no benefits in terms of fracture healing in ovariectomized rats. Verhaar *et al*^[46] reported that exogenous PTH analogs, given as daily subcutaneous injections, stimulate bone formation, increase bone mass and bone strength, and improve calcium balance.

Traditionally PTH was thought to be catabolic to the human skeleton as severe osteoporosis and osteitis fibrocystica may complicate long standing hyperparathyroidism. In 1932 Selye reported the ability of PTH to stimulate osteogenesis^[32]. Subsequently, the anabolic effects of PTH have been examined in greater detail^[30,47-52]. PTH was initially developed as a drug to treat postmenopausal osteoporotic women, enhancing bone mineral density^[29], cortical thickness and trabecular bone volume^[53,54] compared to placebo controls. In addition to its anabolic effects on bone turnover^[29,47,55] teriparatide was shown in clinical trials to significantly reduce the risk of vertebral and non-vertebral fractures in osteoporotic women^[29,56]. In randomized clinical trials PTH was shown to be useful in preventing fracture in osteoporotic subjects^[50,57-59]. It is now well accepted that intermittent administration of PTH and PTH-related peptide (PTHrP) has net anabolic effects on bone^[47,52,60,61].

Although it is now well established that PTH is a multifunctional molecule with a unique ability to affect the bone metabolism, the biological complexity of bone repair often makes it difficult to specify what events have failed during the repair process. Currently, several PTH analogs are being developed and are under evaluation. In general, PTH analogs are well tolerated and have an acceptable safety profile. They can be used for the prevention and treatment of fractures in postmenopausal women with severe osteoporosis. Thus PTH analogs

reduce the risk of vertebral (PTH 1-34 and PTH 1-84) and non-vertebral fractures (only PTH 1-34). In men and women with glucocorticosteroid-induced osteoporosis, PTH 1-34 has been shown to reduce the risk of vertebral fractures^[46]. In recent years β -arrestin-based agonists of PTH-1 receptor (PTH1R) have drawn much attention for promoting bone formation independent of G-protein activation^[62,63].

MOLECULAR REGULATION OF PTH AND PTHrP IN BONE

It is well established that PTH, secreted from the parathyroid glands, is involved in calcium homeostasis and is a critical mediator of skeletal development and remodeling^[64]. There are several reports of the beneficial use of PTH for treating osteoporosis. However, prolonged use of PTH leads to hypercalciuria, hypercalcemia and osteosarcoma^[65], thus limiting the safe use of this peptide hormone. Therefore dissecting the molecular mechanisms of PTH actions is essential as this may uncover novel therapeutic targets for the prevention and reversal of osteoporosis and bone-related diseases and allow minimization of the adverse effects of PTH.

Although a large number of *in-vitro*, *in-vivo* and human studies have been performed, the mechanisms involved in PTH regulation of osteoblast function is poorly understood and only partly characterized. PTH binds to cells of the osteoblast lineage^[66,67] and produces both anabolic and catabolic effects (Figure 2). The fact that PTH has dual effects depending on its administration method raises important questions about its mechanisms of action in bone formation and resorption. It was hypothesized that the anabolic and catabolic effects of PTH and PTHrP on osteoblasts occur through activation of signaling cascades different from PTH1R^[64]. The PTH and PTHrP signal *via* PTH1R which is a G protein-coupled receptor with 7 transmembrane spanning domains. The receptor is encoded by a multi-exon gene, characterized in human, rat and mouse, with potential for alternate

splicing and alternate promoter usage^[68]. Understanding the physiological roles, molecular and cellular actions of PTH and PTHrP began when PTH1R was first cloned in 1990s^[69,70]. PTH1R signaling cascades involve adenylate cyclase/protein kinase A, phospholipase C/protein kinase C, and mitogen activated protein kinases, and lead to various biological effects including both anabolic and catabolic actions in bone^[71-75]. Recently, Guo *et al*^[76] further established that phospholipase C signaling *via* the PTH receptor is essential for normal bone response to PTH. Other studies suggested that FGF2 is equally important for the anabolic action of PTH on bone^[77] and a crosstalk between skeletogenesis and FGF receptor was recently highlighted^[78]. Among other mechanisms, PTH anabolic action with or without the involvement of Bcl2 has been described^[79,80].

Increased bone formation is largely due to a rise in osteoblast number as a result of increased proliferation and differentiation of osteoblasts *in vitro* and *in vivo*^[52,73,74,81-87], decrease in osteoblast apoptosis^[88,89], and activation of bone lining cells^[48,90]. A mechanism involving cell-cell contact in PTH-induced osteoblast proliferation has also been suggested^[91]. Numerous targets of PTH and PTHrP as mediators of bone tissue regeneration have been suggested^[71]. These include local cytokines and growth factors^[92,93], transcription factors^[94-96], and several genes such as MMP-13, a matrix metalloproteinase/collagenase^[97,98], IL-6^[99], IL-18^[100], macrophage-colony stimulating factor^[101], ephrinB2^[102], and osteoblast cell cycle regulatory proteins^[72,74,103,104].

Intermittent PTH 1-34 treatment stimulates bone formation, but the molecular mechanisms mediating this effect have not previously been studied in humans. A very recent study hypothesized that an inhibition of BMP signaling by PTH may, over time, limit the availability of mature osteoblasts on bone surfaces and thereby contribute to the observed decline in the anabolic response to PTH^[105]. Several critical steps in the actions of PTH beyond receptor activation have been identified and more are yet to be discovered.

CONCLUSION

Fractures usually repair without incident. When fractures associated with osteoporotic bones do not repair in a timely fashion, the result is painful and detrimental to the patient's quality of life. Treatment, in such cases, is time-consuming and expensive for the health care system¹⁰⁶. Bone repair after orthopedic fracture is a complicated process. PTH is the first bone anabolic drug approved for the treatment of osteoporosis and associated fractures. Intriguingly, a number of animal studies suggest that PTH could be beneficial in the treatment of fractures and could potentially offer a new treatment option for induction of fracture repair in humans. Furthermore, repair of fractures associated with conditions of impaired healing such as aging, estrogen withdrawal, and malnutrition can be expedited by PTH treatment. Although recent advanc-

es in molecular bone research using a variety of *in vivo* and *in vitro* models have increased our understanding of the role of PTH in osteoporotic the fracture repair process, pharmacological intervention using PTH cannot at present be considered a "gold standard". Many future therapies are currently under investigation for the management of fractures associated to osteoporosis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author was partially supported by the grants from The National Institute of Health, DK087848, during writing of this manuscript.

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S- Editor Lv S L- Editor Hughes D E- Editor Zheng XM

Imaging of the anterior cruciate ligament

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Author contributions: Ng WHA and Griffith JF contributed equally to this work; Ng WHA and Griffith JF designed the research; Ng WHA, Griffith JF, Hung EHY and Paunipagar B collected the images; Ng WHA, Griffith JF, Hung EHY, Paunipagar B, Law BKY and Yung PSH wrote the paper.

Supported by A grant from the Research Grants Council of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China, Project No. SEG_CUHK02

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Received: April 20, 2011 Revised: June 5, 2011

Accepted: June 12, 2011

Published online: August 18, 2011

Abstract

The anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) is an important structure in maintaining the normal biomechanics of the knee and is the most commonly injured knee ligament. However, the oblique course of the ACL within the intercondylar fossa limits the visualization and assessment of the pathology of the ligament. This pictorial essay provides a comprehensive and illustrative review of the anatomy and biomechanics as well as updated information on different modalities of radiological investigation of ACL, particularly magnetic resonance imaging.

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Key words: Magnetic resonance; Knee; Anterior cruciate ligament; Tear

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Ng WHA, Griffith JF, Hung EHY, Paunipagar B, Law KYB, Yung SHP. Imaging of the anterior cruciate ligament. *World J Orthop* 2011; 2(8): 75-84 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2218-5836/full/v2/i8/75.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5312/wjo.v2.i8.75>

ANATOMY

The anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) runs in an oblique course from the tibia to the lateral femoral condyle. It is an intra-articular extrasynovial ligament composed of fibres running from the anterior intercondylar region of the proximal tibia to the medial aspect of the lateral femoral condyle within the intercondylar groove. The fibres of the ACL are arranged into two bundles known as the anteromedial and posterolateral bundle according to their tibial insertion^[1]. The anteromedial bundle inserts at a more medial and superior aspect of the lateral femoral condyle while the posterolateral bundle inserts at a more lateral and distal aspect of the lateral femoral condyle. Occasionally there is an additional intermediate bundle in between these two bundles^[2,3]. The whole ACL measures approximately 38 mm in length and 11 mm in width^[4]. The anteromedial bundle is 36.9 ± 2.9 mm in length, while the posterolateral bundle is 20.5 ± 2.5 mm in length. Both bundles are similar in size, with an average width of 5.0 ± 0.7 mm and 5.3 ± 0.7 mm in the mid-substance^[5].

INJURY MECHANISMS

The ACL resists anterior tibial translation during extension and provides rotational stability^[6-8]. The anteromedial bundle is taut when the knee is flexed and the posterolateral bundle is taut when the knee is extended^[3]. The anteromedial bundle is longest in flexion and may be the primary component that resists anterior displacement of the tibia in flexion. The posterolateral bundle seems primarily to resist anterior tibial translation in extension and also contributes to rotatory stability of the knee joint^[8] being employed in the “screw home” phenomenon i.e. during terminal extension of the knee, the tibia externally rotates relative to the femur serving to “lock” the knee in extension. The anteromedial and posterolateral bundles stabilize the knee joint in response to anterior tibial loads and combined rotatory loads in a synergistic way^[9].

ACL tears may be partial or complete. Partial tears can range from a minor tear involving just a few fibres to a high grade near-complete tear involving almost all of the ACL fibres. A partial tear can involve both or only a single bundle to varying degree. Sometimes plastic deformity of the ACL without fibre discontinuity can occur causing ACL insufficiency^[10].

The mechanism of the ACL injury includes internal rotation of the tibia relative to the femur. This commonly occurs during falls while skiing, as well as in contact sports such as football. With valgus stress, the medial femorotibial joint compartment is distracted producing medial collateral injury and medial meniscal injury (O’Donoghue’s triad). Another mechanism of ACL injury is hyperextension such as occurs during jumping or high kick maneuvers and will lead to contra-coup bone contusion on the anterior tibia and femoral condyle. ACL tears resulting from hyperextension frequently occur without concomitant collateral ligament or meniscal injury^[11]. The third mechanism is external rotation of the tibia relative to the femur with varus stress leading to impaction and bone oedema medially and distraction laterally resulting in avulsion of the lateral tibial rim (Segond fracture) and tear of the lateral collateral ligament.

The majority of the ACL injuries can be diagnosed by history and clinical examination. The anterior drawer test, Lachman test and pivot shift test are the most commonly applied clinical tests to diagnose ACL tear though they do rely both on the experience of the clinician and the degree of patient cooperation. In chronic ACL insufficiency, the pivot shift test has reported high sensitivities for detecting the ACL injury ranging from 84% to 98.4%. The test’s specificity has been shown to vary more widely, with reported values from as low as 35% in the alert patient to as high as 98.4% in the anesthetized patient^[12]. Anterior drawer and Lachman tests have similar sensitivity but lower specificity. However, in acute injury, if the patient is in pain or swelling, the examination may be limited and the sensitivity and specificity of the clinical tests are limited^[12]. Association injury such as meniscal tear or chondral injury may also limit a full clinical examination.



Figure 1 Avulsion fracture of tibial spine. A 20-year-old man suffered knee injury during a football match. A: Lateral radiograph of the knee shows a displaced avulsion fracture of the anterior cruciate ligament (black arrow) at the anterior intercondylar eminence of tibia. The fracture fragment is completely elevated from the native bone. Increased soft tissue opacity in the suprapatellar pouch (white arrows) and infrapatellar pouch (white arrowheads) is in keeping with haemarthrosis; B: Reformatted sagittal computed tomography image of the same patient through the mid tibial plateau shows a displaced avulsion fracture of the tibial intercondylar eminence (white arrow).

As a result, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is helpful in the assessment of suspected ACL injury.

Most ACL tears (approximately 80%) are complete, occurring around the middle one-third of the ACL (90%) or less frequently close to the femoral (7%) or tibial (3%) attachments. Less frequently (approximately 20%), ACL tears are incomplete with partial disruption of the ACL fibres^[13]. Partial tears may involve only one or both bundles to a varying degree though the anteromedial band does tend to be the more commonly affected. Imaging, and in particular MRI, is very helpful in the assessment of suspected ACL injury.

Radiography

Radiographs have limited value in the diagnosis of acute ACL injury. Findings are indirect and limited to bone abnormalities. On radiography, there are several indirect signs that could raise suspicion of underlying ACL injury. Avulsion fracture of ACL at the tibial insertion or femoral origin can be found on radiographs but is better defined by computed tomography (CT)^[14,15] (Figure 1A and B). Avulsion fracture of lateral tibial rim (Segond fracture) (Figure 2) is commonly associated with an ACL tear^[16-18] and is classically due to avulsion fracture of the iliotibial band though the term has also been applied when there is avulsion of the fibular collateral ligament or biceps femoris tendon^[15,17-19].

Osteochondral impaction fracture may very occasionally be seen in the condylopatellar sulcus of the lateral femoral condyle (lateral femoral notch sign) (Figure 3A). A sulcus deeper than 1.5 mm is a fairly specific though very insensitive indirect radiographic sign of a torn ACL^[20] (Figure 3B). Haemarthrosis is very common in ACL tears and is seen as increased opacity in the suprapatellar pouch or even with fat fluid level (lipohemarthrosis) if associated with bone fracture (Figure 1A).



Figure 2 Segond fracture. A 30-year-old man suffered knee injury during a basketball match. A: Frontal radiograph of the right knee shows an avulsion fracture fragment at the lateral tibial rim (black arrow) compatible with Segond fracture. This fracture is frequently associated with a torn anterior cruciate ligament which also happened in this patient (not shown); B: A coronal T2-weighted fat suppression magnetic resonance image of the same patient. Corresponding site reveals a minimally displaced Segond fracture (white arrow) which may be easily missed in this patient with no significant bone bruise or oedema.

Computed tomography

Although the ACL can be visualized on CT, its visibility is impaired in the presence of haemarthrosis and most patients with ACL injury are evaluated by MRI since this is also best for detecting concomitant meniscal, ligamentous or chondral injuries. If ACL avulsion injury is seen by radiography, CT is helpful in determining the size, and comminution of the avulsion bone fragment (Figure 1B) with three-dimensional CT allowing better fracture depiction. CT arthrography can be performed and has a comparable accuracy to MRI in the detection of both cruciate injury as well as meniscal injury^[21].

Magnetic resonance imaging

MR sequences applied for optimal visualization of the ACL are 2D fast spin echo sequences either with or without fat suppression. Different planes are used for anatomical correlation. In most centres, the sequences used to visualize ACL include Turbo spin echo (TSE) sagittal intermediate weighted sequence either with fat suppression and non-fat suppression, TSE coronal T2 weighted fat suppression sequence and TSE axial intermediate weighted with fat-suppression sequence. In our centre, the standard knee protocol comprises the following three sequences (Figure 4A-C): (1) Coronal T2 weighted fat suppressed sequence; (2) TSE sagittal intermediate weighted sequence; and (3) TSE axial intermediate weighted with fat-suppression sequence.

Additional sequences comprise oblique views, flexion views, T1-weighted sequences and small FOV or small coil images when necessary. T1-weighted sequences are useful for suspected fracture or characterizing loose bodies within the knee as any osseous fragments may contain a central marrow component. Small field of view sequences with the small coil placed directly over the area of interest are helpful at delineating peripheral pathology around the knee^[22]. Oblique views are helpful in deter-

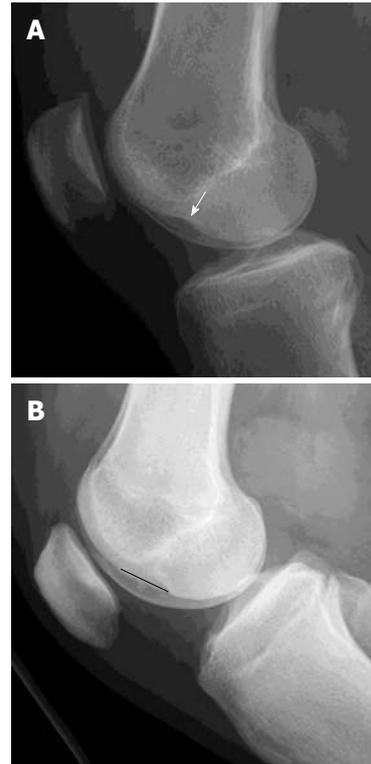


Figure 3 Osteochondral injury lateral femoral condyle. Lateral radiographs of two patients with complete anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) tear. A: Deep notch sign is abnormal deepening of the condylofemoral sulcus larger than 1.5 mm (white arrow); B: Long notch sign is abnormal lengthening of the condylofemoral sulcus (black straight line). These two signs are suggestive of osteochondral fracture of the lateral femoral condyle and highly associated with ACL tear though these are not very common findings.

mining the presence, severity and location of ACL tears and will be discussed later.

MR images of the knees in flexion can provide more space around the ACL within the intercondylar area, helping to decrease volume-averaging artifact and thereby allowing better visualization of the femoral end of the ligament^[23,24]. Recently 3D fast spin echo imaging with or without suppression has been shown to have the same diagnostic accuracy as 2D sequences. This can decrease volume averaging artifacts and shorten overall MR examination time^[25].

The normal ACL should have a taut, low to intermediate signal intensity with continuous fibres in all planes and sequences. It courses parallel or steeper than the intercondylar line. The PL bundle usually has higher signal intensity than the AM bundle.

MRI is highly accurate at diagnosing ACL tears with accuracy, sensitivity and specificity of more than 90%^[26-28].

Diagnosis of ACL tear on MR images is usually based on direct signs^[26,28,29].

The primary sign of ACL tear is fibre discontinuity (Figure 5A). The oblique sagittal plane is the most helpful in diagnosis supported by coronal and axial imaging. The empty notch sign on coronal imaging is a frequent finding in complete ACL tear^[30]. In acute or subacute injury, thickening and oedema of the ACL is found character-

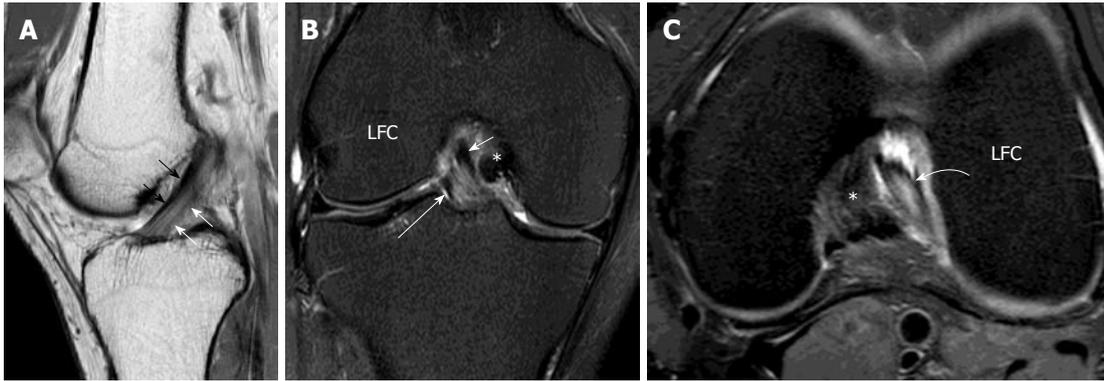


Figure 4 Normal anterior cruciate ligament. Volunteer, 24-year-old man with no history of injury and clinical instability. Sagittal intermediate-weighted magnetic resonance (MR) of the knee. A: Demonstrates a normal anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) which is characterized by a taut, continuous, low signal intensity fibres extending from the tibial plateau anteriorly to the medial aspect of the lateral femoral condyle. The more anterior portion of ACL is the anteromedial (AM) bundle (black arrows) while the more posterior portion is posterolateral (PL) bundle (white arrows). They cannot be well delineated from each other on this sagittal image. The PL bundle shows higher signal intensity than AM bundle. Coronal T2-weighted fat suppression MR knee image; B: The mid and distal ACL in the intercondylar fossa. The fibres are running superiorly and laterally within the intercondylar fossa from tibial attachment to the lateral femoral condyle (LFC). The more medial portion is the AM bundle (white short arrow) while the lateral portion is the PL bundle (white long arrow). Axial intermediate-weighted fat suppression MR image; C: Normal mid substance of ACL (curved white arrow). The ACL is elliptical in appearance because it is running obliquely to the scan plane. The two bundles cannot be differentiated from each other. *: Posterior cruciate ligament.



Figure 5 Primary signs of anterior cruciate ligament tear. Sagittal intermediate-weighted images of three different patients showing different patterns of anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) tear. A: Typical appearance of ACL tear at the mid-substance with fibres discontinuity of ACL (arrowheads). Residual stumps on femoral (asterisk) and tibial sides (white arrow) are lax, thickened and increased in signal intensity; B: Chronic ACL tear with absence of normal ACL fibres compatible with complete resorption of fibres. PCL (Curved black arrow); C: Acute high grade intrasubstance tear as characterized by thickening and oedematous change of ACL fibres which show increased signal intensity (white arrows). The fibres are still in continuity suggestive of partial ACL tear.

ized by increased signal intensity on T2 or intermediate-weighted sequences (Figure 5B). In chronic case the fibres can be completely absorbed (Figure 5C) or the residual ACL stump can become adherent to the synovial envelope covering the posterior cruciate ligament^[31]. As the orientation of the ACL makes visualization of the entire ACL in one plane difficult, some authors advocate use of oblique planes either parallel or perpendicular to the ACL to increase ligament and tear conspicuity. Oblique coronal and sagittal views parallel to the ACL have been advocated and found to be effective in improving visualization of the ACL^[32-34] (Figure 6A and B). We have initiated oblique axial imaging of the ACL and found it to very useful in allowing much clearer delineation of the two ACL bundles, and determining the presence, the location of the normal individual bundle anatomy^[34] and possibly individual bundle involvement of partial tears (Figure 7A and B). A clear

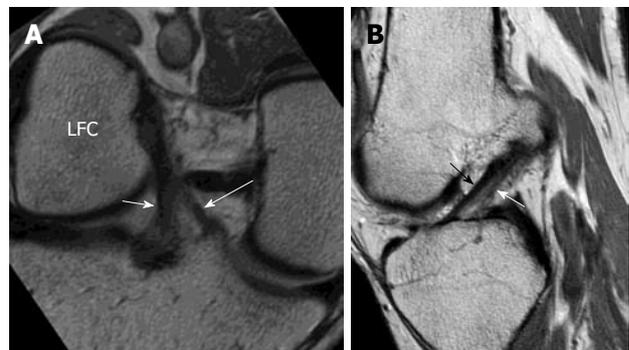


Figure 6 High resolution imaging normal anterior cruciate ligament in oblique coronal and oblique sagittal planes. Volunteer of a 31-year-old man with no history of injury and clinical instability. Note that the AM bundle (white long arrow) and PL bundle (white short arrow) can be well depicted on the oblique coronal image at the tibial attachment but not at the femoral attachment and not by the oblique sagittal image.

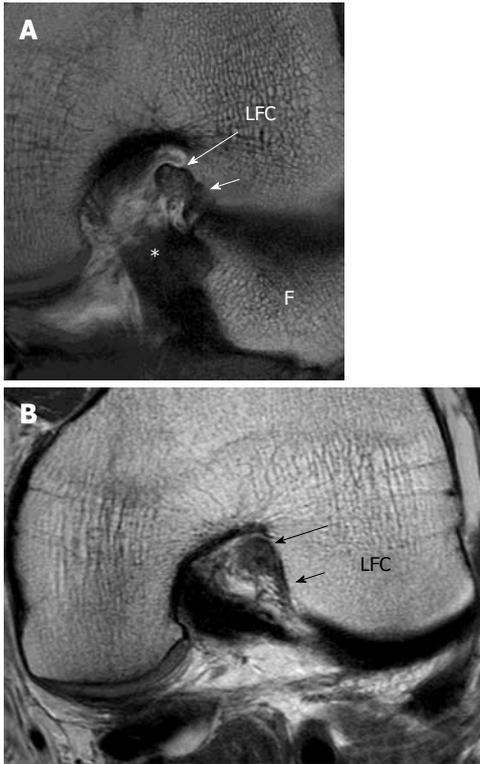


Figure 7 High resolution imaging anterior cruciate ligament in oblique axial plane. A: Oblique axial image can clearly delineate the two bundles and assess each bundle separately; AM bundle (long white arrow) PL bundle (short white arrow). B: Partial tear of the anterior cruciate ligament. Oblique axial image at the femoral side shows thickening and hyperintense signal intensity of the AM bundle (black long arrow) while fibres are absent in the region of the PL bundle (black short arrow). Features are compatible with high grade partial AM bundle tear and complete PL tear which were confirmed in arthroscopy. LFC: Lateral femoral condyle; *: Posterior cruciate ligament; F: Fibular head.

potential benefit of imaging in an oblique axial plane is that it allows the ACL to be visualized on 11-15 contiguous images rather than on 2-3 contiguous images as with oblique sagittal or coronal imaging.

Partial tears of the ACL are more difficult to diagnose than complete ACL tears. Partial tears are characterized by increased signal intensity and fiber laxity with increased concavity (or bowing) of the ACL (Figure 8). Continuous fibres are evident which suggest the tear is not complete. The sensitivity (40% to 75%) and specificity (51% to 89%) of MRI in the diagnosis of partial tears is poor^[35,36] though this poor performance may be improved by the higher resolution afforded by 3T imaging. A recent study employing 3T MRI reported a sensitivity of 77% and specificity of 97% in detecting partial tears of the ACL^[37]. If more than 50% of the ACL fibres are torn this would be considered a high grade tear, a medium grade tear is 10%-50% of fibres torn, while a low grade tear is less than 10% of fibres torn. The Holy Grail, with respect to imaging of partial ACL tears, would be to have sufficient resolution to determine whether there was a low, medium or high grade tear in each particular ACL bundle.

Potential pitfalls of MR in defining ACL tears are partial volume artifact and reparative fibrosis following an



Figure 8 Partial tear of the anterior cruciate ligament. Sagittal intermediate-weighted image of partial anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) tear. The ACL appears lax, concave in appearance (white arrow) and increased in signal intensity. However, the fibres are still in continuity suggestive of partial ACL tear.

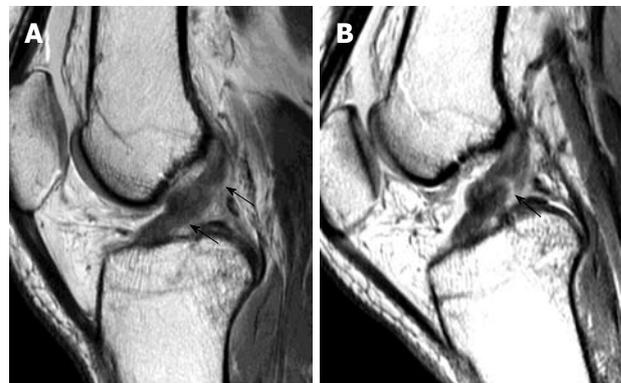


Figure 9 Magnetic resonance knee in partial flexion. Volunteer, 31-year-old man with no history of injury and clinical instability. Sagittal intermediate-weighted magnetic resonance image in full extension. A: And 30 degree of knee flexion; B: Demonstrates the usefulness of knee flexion. When the knee is extended, sagittal image shows features suspicious of an anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) tear. When the knee is flexed, a gap (black arrow) is clearly present confirming the presence of an ACL tear.

ACL injury bridging the residual ACL stump and adjacent structures, such as femoral notch, the posterior cruciate ligament (PCL) or the synovial envelope covering the PCL. This will help retain a near normal alignment of the ACL and may lead to an ACL appearing to be intact in the previous complete or partial tear. It is conceivable however that such a re-attached ACL may still remain functionally sound and this possibility should be consistently reported. Flexion imaging is particularly helpful in this situation as even 20 degrees of flexion helps change the orientation of central structures in the knee joint to such a degree that the ACL stump can be seen to be adherent to the PCL (Figure 9).

Bone bruising is very common in ACL tears. McCauley *et al*^[27] suggested that the presence of bone bruising in the posterior aspect of the tibial plateau and posterior displacement of the posterior horn of the lateral meniscus are highly specific for a torn ACL. However, some authors found that secondary signs such as bone bruising do not help significantly in the diagnosis of ACL



Figure 10 Bone bruises. A 26-year-old man suffered knee injury. Sagittal T2-weighted fat suppression magnetic resonance knee image shows that there are bone bruises (asterisks) present in the mid-lateral femoral condyle and posterolateral tibial plateau which indicate that the mechanism of injury is internal rotation of the tibia in valgus stress injury. This pattern of bone bruise has a high association of anterior cruciate ligament complete tear which is present in this patient (not shown).



Figure 11 Patellar buckling sign and lateral femoral notch sign. A 37-year-old man who suffered knee injury. Osteochondral injury and patellar buckling sign. Sagittal intermediate-weighted magnetic resonance image demonstrates a deep depression of the middle portion of the lateral femoral condyle (curved white arrow). Normal condylopatellar sulcus should be smaller than 1.5 mm. Notch depth between 1 and 2 mm is suggestive and over 2 mm is diagnostic of anterior cruciate ligament tear. Buckling of proximal patellar tendon (white arrow) also indicates the underlying anterior cruciate ligament tear.

tears^[37-39].

A bone bruise is commonly caused by internal rotation in valgus stress injury, where there is impaction of the posterior aspect of the tibial plateau against the mid or anterior portion of the femoral condyle^[40] (Figure 10). This abnormal medullary signal intensity is attributed to subcortical microfracture, oedema, or haemorrhage^[28,40]. In the case of anteromedial mechanism of injury or direct compression injuries, the bone bruise pattern is different, such as kissing bone oedema lesions or involving the posteromedial tibial plateau.

Bone bruising is a result of impaction at the time of injury. Particularly in young patients who most likely have more elasticity of their ACL fibres, it is distraction and impaction, particularly of the more central rather than posterior aspects of the condyles, that can occur even in the absence of an ACL tear. We would consider bone



Figure 12 Uncovered posterior horn lateral meniscus and anterior tibial translation. A 32-year-old man who suffered knee injury. Sagittal intermediate-weighted magnetic resonance image of complete anterior cruciate ligament tear patient. The anterior displacement of the tibial translation is measured as the distance between two lines parallel to the picture frame (white lines). At the mid-sagittal plane of lateral femoral condyle, a line is drawn through the most posterior corner of the lateral tibial plateau, and the second line is tangent to the most posterior aspect of the lateral femoral condyle. Anterior tibial translation between 5 and 7 mm is suggestive and over 7 mm is diagnostic of anterior cruciate ligament tear. Note that the lateral meniscus also intersects the tangent to posterior margin of tibia and represents the uncovered posterior horn of lateral meniscus.

bruising to be a strong but not absolute indicator of ACL tear.

The deep lateral femoral notch sign, although uncommon, is quite specific for ACL tear and is due to impaction injury of the lateral femoral condyle onto the tibia^[41] (Figure 11). A notch depth of over 2 mm is diagnostic of ACL tear. Second fracture is due to avulsion fracture of the iliotibial band, fibular collateral ligament and biceps femoris tendon and can be seen on MRI examination (Figure 3B). Bosch-Bock bump relates to a bone excrescence located 2-5 mm below the lateral articular margin of the tibia. This bump indicates a chronic tear of the ACL.

Since the function of the ACL is to prevent anterior tibial translation in extension, ACL tear should increase the degree of anterior tibial translation during knee extension giving rise to “anterior tibial translocation”^[41-43] (Figure 12). It is usually apparent on sagittal MR images at the mid-lateral femoral condyle. If there is ≥ 5 mm anterior translocator of the tibia relative to the femur, this would be indicative of ACL tear (sensitivity 86%, specificity 99%)^[44] while an anterior tibial translation > 7 mm is fully diagnostic of ACL tear.

Femorotibial translation and rotation gives rise to a host of other signs which are all moderately suggestive of ACL injury such as buckling of the patellar tendon (Figure 11), buckling of the posterior cruciate ligament^[45] (Figure 13), a posterior PCL line^[41], uncovered posterior horn of the medial or lateral meniscus^[30] (Figure 12) or visibility of the whole posterior cruciate ligament or lateral collateral ligament in one coronal image (Figure 14).

Shearing fat pad injury is also associated with ACL tear^[29] and results in fracture of the infrapatellar fat pad (Figure 15).



Figure 13 Posterior cruciate ligament buckling and Posterior cruciate ligament line sign. Sagittal intermediate-weighted magnetic resonance knee image of a completely torn anterior cruciate ligament. A: Posterior cruciate ligament (PCL) buckling sign. The PCL is considered to be hyperbuckled if any portion of its posterosuperior border is concave (white arrow); B: The PCL line sign. A line tangential to the posterior margin of the PCL is drawn (black line) and if this tangent does not intersect the posterior cortex of the femur within 5cm of its distal end, the PCL line is considered to be positive.



Figure 15 Shearing of fat pad. Sagittal T2-weighted fat suppression magnetic resonance image shows a fracture of Hoffa's fat pad that has isolated a segment of fat (white arrows).

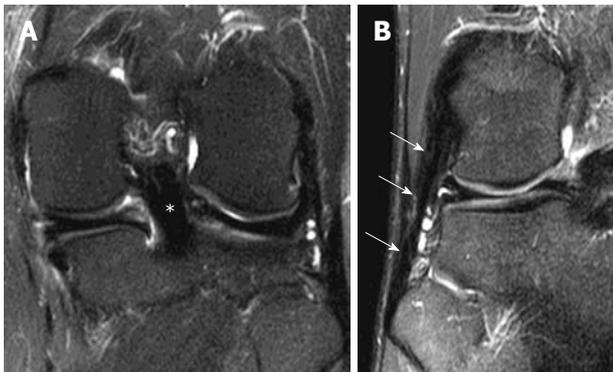


Figure 14 Coronal whole posterior cruciate ligament and lateral collateral ligament sign. Coronal T2-weighted fat suppression magnetic resonance knee images of two different patients with complete anterior cruciate ligament tear show that A: The entire posterior cruciate ligament (*); B: Entire lateral collateral ligament (white arrows) can be seen in a single coronal image.



Figure 16 Peripheral vertical tear in a patient with complete anterior cruciate ligament tear. Sagittal intermediate-weighted magnetic resonance image demonstrates a peripheral vertical tear (white arrows) extending of the posterior horn of lateral meniscus. This kind of peripheral vertical tear can be easily missed and is frequently associated with anterior cruciate ligament tear.

ASSOCIATED INJURIES

Meniscal injury

Meniscal tear is commonly associated with ACL tear (65%-70%)^[46]. Peripheral vertical tear in the posterior horn of lateral meniscus (“posterolateral corner tear”) is highly associated with acute ACL tear^[47,48] and easily overlooked^[49] (Figure 16). Chronic ACL insufficiency or tear increases the incidence of peripheral vertical tear at the posterior horn of medial meniscus most likely related to chronic femerotibial instability^[50]. Peripheral posterior horn tears accounted for more than half of meniscal tears seen in patients with acute or chronic ACL injuries^[51]. Together with medial collateral ligament tear and ACL tear, these form the classical O’Donoghue’s triad (Figure 17).

Posterolateral corner injury

Posterolateral corner injury needs to be addressed because of its contribution to tridimensional instability of the knee

(sagittal, frontal and rotational instability). Some of the studies suggest that ACL reconstruction without repair of the posterolateral corner injury increases the likelihood of instability and ACL re-tear^[52]. Posterolateral corner injury includes the fibular collateral ligament, the popliteus muscle and tendon, the popliteofibular ligament, the lateral and posterolateral capsule and the biceps femoris tendon (Figure 18). The average length of fibular collateral ligament is 66 mm (59-74 mm) and the average thickness at the mid portion measures 3.4 mm (3-4 mm)^[53]. The mean total length of the popliteus tendon was 42.0 mm^[54]. The thickness of the popliteomeniscal ligament is variable. Peduto *et al*^[55] found that in ten cadaveric knees, half of anteroinferior popliteomeniscal fascicle was ≥ 2 mm, the other half was smaller than 2 mm.

In general, these normally low-signal-intensity structures are defined as injured or sprained when there is thickening and intermediate signal intensity within the structure on fat-suppressed fast spin-echo T2-weighted images and as torn when the structure is discontinuous with a visible gap^[52]. Some researchers support the use of a coronal oblique plane of imaging to improve visualization of some of the finer, obliquely oriented structures



Figure 17 O' Donoghue's triad. Magnetic resonance images of a patient with complete anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) tear showing O' Donoghue's triad. A: Coronal T2-weighted fat suppression magnetic resonance (MR) image demonstrates complete tear of the meniscofemoral ligament (white long arrows) and femoral attachment of the medial collateral ligament (white short arrow). Note that the ACL in the intercondylar fossa has a substantial tear (asterisk); B: Sagittal intermediate-weighted MR image shows an associated vertical and horizontal (complex) peripheral tear at the posterior horn of medial meniscus (arrowheads). These injuries constitute the classical "O Donoghue's triad".



Figure 18 Posterolateral corner injury. A 25-year-old man suffered knee injury during a football match. A: Axial intermediate-weighted; B: Coronal T2-weighted fat suppression images of a patient with acute complete anterior cruciate ligament tear (white arrowhead). Oedema with thickening of the lateral collateral ligament and partial disruption of the fibres are present at the femoral origin (L). The posterior capsule and the oblique popliteal ligament (OPL) also show thickening and oedematous change. There is mild sprain of the femoral insertion of the popliteus tendon (P). The popliteofibular ligament is severely swollen and oedematous suggestive of high grade partial tear (curved black arrow).

of the posterolateral corner, including the popliteofibular, arcuate, and fabellofibular ligaments^[56], although this has not become routine.

Ganglion cyst and mucoid degeneration of the ACL

Cystic degeneration of the ACL has been attributed to mucinous degeneration of connective tissue^[57,58] or considered as intrasubstance ACL tear. On MR imaging, cystic degeneration can manifest as well-defined ganglion cysts arising from the ACL which occur in about 1% of patients^[59] (Figure 19) or increased signal intensity of the whole ACL, giving rise to an appearance similar to a stalk of celery^[60] (Figure 20). This increase in signal intensity is due to deposition of amorphous mucoid matrix among the ACL fibres, Clinical symptoms include pain,

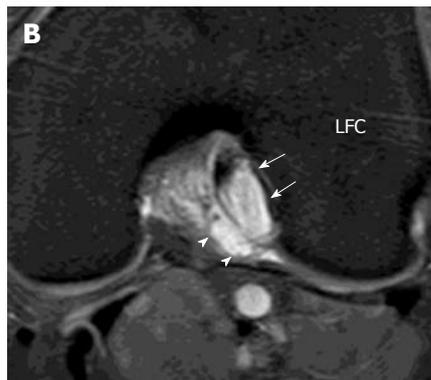


Figure 19 Celery stalk sign (mucoid degeneration). Sagittal intermediate-weighted magnetic resonance (MR) image. A: Enlargement of anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) (white arrows) with increased signal intensity compatible with mucoid degeneration. Low-signal-intensity fibres running parallel to the long axis of high signal ACL i.e. celery stalk sign; B: Axial intermediate-weighted fat suppression MR image shows cystic change within the ACL (white arrows) predominantly in the PL bundle. LFC: Lateral femoral condyle.



Figure 20 Pericruciate ganglion cyst. Sagittal intermediate-weighted MR image shows a ganglion cyst (white arrows) arising from proximal posterior half of ligament.

swelling symptoms and mechanical locking. ACL ganglion cysts and mucoid degeneration identified on MRI are usually not discernible at arthroscopy^[58]. Since the ACL is surrounded by a synovial envelope, masses can arise from this synovium similar to synovium elsewhere. These synovial masses include focal nodular synovitis, pigmented villonodular synovitis, or gouty tophi. Other much less common synovial type masses include synovial vascular malformations^[61] and synovial chondromatosis^[62].

CONCLUSION

The ACL ligament is a very important ligament structurally and because it is so frequently injured. Imaging, and in particular, MRI has allowed a much more accurate assessment of ACL injuries and other conditions affecting the ACL as well as associated injuries. However, work still needs to be done to improve the accuracy with which partial tears can be diagnosed and located.

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Acknowledgments to reviewers of *World Journal of Orthopedics*

Many reviewers have contributed their expertise and time to the peer review, a critical process to ensure the quality of *World Journal of Orthopedics*. The editors and authors of the articles submitted to the journal are grateful to the following reviewers for evaluating the articles (including those published in this issue and those rejected for this issue) during the last editing time period.

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Events Calendar 2011

January 16-20, 2011
 Combined 4th International
 Conference of the Saudi Orthopaedic
 Association & SICOT Trainee Day,
 Abha, Saudi Arabia

January 24-27, 2011
 7th Middle East Orthopaedics
 Conference 2011, Dubai International
 Convention Centre, Dubai,
 Saudi Arabia

January 28-30, 2011
 National Orthopedic Conference
 2011, San Francisco, California,
 United States

February 15-19, 2011
 American Academy of Orthopaedic
 Surgeons, San Diego, CA,
 United States

February 16-20, 2011
 2011 Annual Meeting of the American
 Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons,
 San Diego, CA, United States

February 19, 2011
 Pediatric Orthopaedic Society of
 North America Specialty Day, San
 Diego, CA, United States

March 09-11, 2011
 Annual London Imperial Spine
 Course, London, United Kingdom

March 21-25, 2011
 31st Caribbean Orthopaedic
 Meeting, Anse Marcel, Saint Martin

March 28-April 02, 2011
 The Association of Children's
 Prosthetic-Orthotic Clinics 2011
 Annual Meeting, Park City, UT,
 United States

April 01-04, 2011
 Ain Shams 2nd Orthopaedic
 intensive course (Orthopaedics from
 A to Z), Cairo, Egypt

April 20-22, 2011
 IMUKA 2011: Masterclass in
 Arthroscopy and Related Surgery,
 Maastricht, Netherlands

May 11-14, 2011
 2011 POSNA Annual Meeting,
 Montreal, Quebec, Canada

May 12-15, 2011
 84th Annual Meeting of the
 Japanese Orthopaedic Association,
 Yokohama, Japan

May 15-19, 2011
 8th Biennial ISAKOS Congress
 (International Society of
 Arthroscopy, Knee Surgery and
 Orthopaedic Sports Medicine), Rio
 de Janeiro, Brazil

May 25-28, 2011
 16th Pan Arab Orthopedic
 Association Congress & 27th
 SOTCOT Congress, Tunis, Tunisia

June 01-04, 2011
 12th EFORT Congress in cooperation
 with the Danish Orthopaedic
 Association (European Federation

of National Associations of
 Orthopaedics and Traumatology),
 Copenhagen, Denmark

June 08-12, 2011
 2011 ABJS Annual Meeting
 (Association of Bone and Joint
 Surgeons), Dublin, Ireland

June 15-18, 2011
 11th Annual Meeting of the
 International Society for Computer
 Assisted Orthopaedic Surgery,
 London, United Kingdom

July 07-09, 2011
 66th Annual Meeting of the
 Canadian Orthopaedic Association,
 St. John's, Newfoundland and
 Labrador, Canada

July 13-16, 2011
 18th International Meeting on
 Advanced Spine Techniques,
 Copenhagen, Denmark

July 22-24, 2011
 Sri Sathya Sai International
 Orthopaedic Conference- 2011
 On Pelvis And Lower Extremity
 Trauma", Sri Sathya Sai Institute
 of Higher Medical Sciences,
 Prasanthigram, Puttaparthi, Andhra
 Pradesh, India

July 25-28, 2011
 2011 Update in Orthopaedics, Grand
 Wailea Hotel Resort & Spa, Wailea,
 Maui, Hawaii, United States

September 06-09, 2011

SICOT 2011 XXV Triennial World
 Congress, Prague, Czech Republic

September 13-16, 2011
 BOA/IOA Combined
 Meeting (British Orthopaedic
 Association & Irish Orthopaedic
 Association), Dublin, Ireland

September 14-17, 2011
 23rd SECEC-ESSSE Congress
 (European Society for Surgery of
 the Shoulder and the Elbow), Lyon,
 France

September 14-17, 2011
 46th SRS Annual Meeting &
 Course (Scoliosis Research Society),
 Louisville, Kentucky, United States

September 15-18, 2011
 2011 World Congress on
 Osteoarthritis, San Diego, California
 92167, United States

September 21-23, 2011
 HIP IMPROVEMENTS AND
 PROCEEDINGS, Toulouse, France

October 25-28, 2011
 DKOU 2011-Deutscher Kongress
 für Orthopädie und Unfallchirurgie,
 Berlin, Germany

November 7-11, 2011
 86ème Réunion Annuelle SOFCOT,
 Paris, France

December 12-15, 2011
 EOA 63rd Annual International
 Conference, Cairo, Egypt

GENERAL INFORMATION

World Journal of Orthopedics (*World J Orthop*, *WJO*, online ISSN 2218-5836, DOI: 10.5312) is a monthly peer-reviewed, online, open-access (OA), journal supported by an editorial board consisting of 122 experts in orthopedics from 30 countries.

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The aim of *WJO* is to report rapidly new theories, methods and techniques for prevention, diagnosis, treatment, rehabilitation and nursing in the field of orthopedics. *WJO* covers diagnostic imaging, arthroscopy, evidence-based medicine, epidemiology, nursing, sports medicine, therapy of bone and spinal diseases, bone trauma, osteoarthritis, bone tumors and osteoporosis, minimally invasive therapy, traditional medicine, and integrated Chinese and Western medicine. The journal also publishes original articles and reviews that report the results of applied and basic research in fields related to orthopedics, such as immunology, physiopathology, cell biology, pharmacology, medical genetics, and pharmacology of Chinese herbs.

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The columns in the issues of *WJO* will include: (1) Editorial: To introduce and comment on major advances and developments in the field; (2) Frontier: To review representative achievements, comment on the state of current research, and propose directions for future research; (3) Topic Highlight: This column consists of three formats, including (A) 10 invited review articles on a hot topic, (B) a commentary on common issues of this hot topic, and (C) a commentary on the 10 individual articles; (4) Observation: To update the development of old and new questions, highlight unsolved problems, and provide strategies on how to solve the questions; (5) Guidelines for Basic Research: To provide Guidelines for basic research; (6) Guidelines for Clinical Practice: To provide guidelines for clinical diagnosis and treatment; (7) Review: To review systematically progress and unresolved problems in the field, comment on the state of current research, and make suggestions for future work; (8) Original Articles: To report innovative and original findings in orthopedics; (9) Brief Articles: To briefly report the novel and innovative findings in orthopedics; (10) Case Report: To report a rare or typical case; (11) Letters to the Editor: To discuss and make reply to the contributions published in *WJO*, or to introduce and comment on a controversial issue of general interest; (12) Book Reviews: To introduce and comment on quality monographs of orthopedics; and (13) Guidelines: To introduce consensus and guidelines reached by international and national academic authorities worldwide on the research orthopedics.

Name of journal

World Journal of Orthopedics

ISSN

ISSN 2218-5836 (online)

Published by

Baishideng Publishing Group Co., Limited

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In the interests of transparency and to help reviewers assess any potential bias, *WJO* requires authors of all papers to declare any competing commercial, personal, political, intellectual, or religious interests in relation to the submitted work. Referees are also asked to indicate any potential conflict they might have reviewing a particular paper. Before submitting, authors are suggested to read "Uniform Requirements for Manuscripts Submitted to Biomedical Journals: Ethical Considerations in the Conduct and Reporting of Research: Conflicts of Interest" from International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (ICMJE), which is available at: http://www.icmje.org/ethical_4conflicts.html.

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- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

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- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRS-A Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

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- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

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- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorfheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wiczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

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- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

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- 14 **Christensen S**, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA, Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

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- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. *Emerg Infect Dis* serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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