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1 **Gender specific ACL loading patterns during the fencing lunge: Implications for ACL**
2 **injury risk**

3
4 **Sexe spécifique ACL patrons de chargement lors de la fente de l'escrime : Implications**
5 **pour le risque de blessure des ACL.**

6 **Keywords:** Biomechanics, ACL, fencing, sport.

7
8 **Abstract**

9 **Purpose:** Determine whether gender differences in ACL loading linked to the aetiology of
10 injuries are evident during the fencing lunge.

11 **Materials & Methods:** ACL loading was obtained from ten male and ten female fencers
12 using an eight-camera 3D motion capture system and force platform data as they completed
13 simulated lunges. Gender differences in ACL loading parameters were examined using
14 independent samples t-tests.

15 **Results:** Peak ACL load and instantaneous rate of loading were significantly larger in female
16 fencers (6.21 N/kg & 511.18 N/kg/s) in comparison to males (4.04 N/kg & 378.77 N/kg/s).

17 **Conclusions:** This investigation indicates that female fencers may be at increased risk from
18 ACL pathologies. Future analyses should seek to investigate and implement strategies aimed
19 at reducing ACL loading in female fencers.

20
21 **Résumé:**

22 **Objectif:** Déterminer si les différences entre les sexes au sein de l'ACL loading liée à
23 l'étiologie des blessures sont évidentes lors de l'escrime sur une jambe.

24 **Méthodes:** Le chargement a été obtenu à partir de la liste de dix hommes et dix femmes
25 tireurs à l'aide d'un huit-clos 3D motion capture system et forcer la plate-forme les données
26 comme ils ont réalisé une simulation se jette. Les différences entre les sexes au sein de l'ACL
27 Chargement des paramètres ont été examinés à l'aide des tests t sur des échantillons
28 indépendants.

29 **Résultats:** Liste de contrôle de pointe et de charge taux instantané de chargement était
30 significativement plus élevée chez les tireurs (6.21 N/kg et 511.18 N/kg/s) par rapport aux
31 hommes (4.04 N/kg et 378.77 N/kg/s).

32 **Conclusion:** Cette enquête indique que les tireurs peuvent être à risque accru de pathologies
33 d'ACL. Les analyses futures pourraient chercher à étudier et mettre en œuvre des stratégies
34 visant à réduire la charge ACL dans les tireurs.

35

36 **Introduction**

37 Fencing is an Olympic sport which requires the fencer to strike an opponent with their sword
38 to score a hit (1). Fencing represents a high intensity and intermittent discipline that
39 necessitates short bouts of high intensity exercise and periods of relatively low intensity
40 activity. Bounces, steps and lunges occur frequently during the competition for the purposes
41 of defence and attack, which place high demands the musculoskeletal system (2).

42

43 Epidemiological analyses have documented that injuries and pain associated with fencing
44 training/ competition were apparent in 92.8 % of fencers, with the majority of these injuries
45 being experienced in the lower extremities (3). Harmer (3) showed that the knee was the most
46 commonly injured musculoskeletal site in fencers, accounting for 19.6 % of all pathologies;
47 with particular concern relating to the anterior cruciate ligament (ACL). The data of
48 Mountcastle et al., (4) supports this notion indicating that the ACL was a common injury
49 location in military recruits involved in fencing training/ competition.

50

51 The ACL is one of the 4 predominant ligaments that are effective in providing stability to the
52 knee joint. The primary function of the ACL is to resist anterior tibial translation, providing
53 87 % of the total restraining force at 30° of knee flexion (5). The ACL also prevents
54 excessive knee extension, knee adduction and abduction movements, and resists internal
55 rotation of the tibia (6). Injuries to the ACL are debilitating, cause long term cessations from
56 training/ competition and may ultimately be career threatening as current treatment
57 modalities do always successfully return athletes to their previous levels of functionality (7).
58 ACL injuries are also associated with long term health implications, with athletes being up to
59 10 times more likely to develop early-onset degenerative knee osteoarthritis in relation to
60 non-injured controls (8), leading not only to a reduction in sports activity but also chronic
61 incapacity in later life (9). ACL injuries traditionally necessitate surgical intervention,
62 followed by a significant and aggressive period of rehabilitation. Gottlob et al., (10)
63 determined that over 175,000 ACL surgeries are performed each year in the US with directly
64 associated costs of over \$2 billion.

65

66 The majority of ACL injuries (72%) are non-contact in nature, in that injury occurs without
67 physical contact between athletes (11). Mechanically, ACL injuries manifest when excessive
68 loading is experienced by the ACL itself (12). Non-contact ACL injuries habitually occur at
69 the point of foot strike with the knee close to full extension in athletic disciplines where
70 sudden decelerations, landing and pivoting manoeuvres are repeatedly performed (13). It has
71 been demonstrated that most non-contact ACL injuries occur in activities that involve single-
72 limb decelerations (11). The lunge is the most frequently used attack in fencing (14).
73 However, the front leg must produce a rapid deceleration action on landing to stabilize the
74 fencer (15), thus it appears that the lunge movement may be the movement that places
75 fencers at greatest risk from ACL pathology.

76

77 Whilst male and female fencers often train concurrently, fencing competitions are gender
78 specific. Importantly, Harmer, (3) showed that female fencers had a 35 % greater risk for
79 time-loss injuries in relation to males. Furthermore, ACL injuries are renowned for being
80 prevalent in female athletes, with an incidence rate in the region of 4-10 times that noted in
81 males (16). The enhanced risk for ACL injury in female athletes has led to a significant
82 amount of research attention focussed on the mechanical factors responsible for the gender
83 disparity in the rate of ACL injuries. Gender differences in lower body mechanics in fencing
84 have received only limited attention in biomechanical literature. Sinclair & Bottoms, (14)
85 examined gender differences in lower extremity kinematics during the fencing lunge. Their
86 findings showed that females produced significantly greater knee abduction and hip
87 adduction of the lead limb during the lunge. Furthermore, Sinclair et al., (17) investigated
88 gender specific loading of the Achilles tendon during the lunge movement. They
89 demonstrated that males exhibited significantly greater Achilles tendon loading in
90 comparison to females. However, gender differences in ACL loading during the fencing

91 lunge have yet to be explored, thus gender specific risk for ACL injury in fencers is currently
92 unknown.

93

94 Therefore, the aim of the current investigation was to determine whether gender differences
95 in ACL loading linked to the aetiology of injuries are evident during the fencing lunge.
96 Research of this nature may provide important clinical information regarding potential ACL
97 injury risk in fencers.

98

99 **Methods**

100 *Participants*

101 **Ten male participants and ten female participants volunteered to take part in this investigation**
102 (all were right hand dominant). All were injury free at the time of data collection and
103 provided written informed consent in accordance to guidelines outlined in the declaration of
104 Helsinki. Participants were active competitive fencers who engaged in training a minimum of
105 3 training sessions per week. The mean characteristics of the participants were males; age
106 26.22 ± 3.99 years, height 1.79 ± 0.04 m and mass 76.21 ± 4.21 kg and females; age $25.47 \pm$
107 4.48 years, height 1.67 ± 0.05 m and mass 63.20 ± 3.05 kg. **The procedure was approved by**
108 **the University of Central Lancashire ethics committee (REF: STEMH 676) and the data**
109 **collection protocol was undertaken at the university in 2017.**

110

111 *Procedure*

112 Participants were required to complete 5 lunges hitting a dummy with their weapon whilst
113 returning to a starting point (pre-determined by each participant prior to the commencement
114 of data capture) following each trial to control lunge distance. In addition to striking the
115 dummy with their weapon participants also made contact with a force platform (Kistler,
116 Kistler Instruments Ltd., Alton, Hampshire) embedded in the floor (Altrosports 6mm, Altro
117 Ltd.) of a biomechanics laboratory with their right (lead) foot. The starting point for the
118 movement was adjusted and maintained for each participant. Kinematics and ground reaction
119 force data were synchronized using an analogue to digital interface board. The lunge
120 movement was delineated as the period from foot contact (defined as > 20 N of vertical force
121 applied to the force platform) to the instance of maximum knee flexion (14).

122

123 An eight camera motion analysis system (QualisysTM Medical AB, Gothenburg, Sweden)
124 captured kinematic data. Calibration of the motion analysis system was performed before
125 each data collection session. Only calibrations which produced average residuals of less than
126 0.85 mm for each camera for a 750.5 mm wand length and points above 4000 were accepted
127 prior to data collection.

128

129 To define the segment co-ordinate axes of the right foot, shank and thigh, retroreflective
130 markers were placed unilaterally onto the 1st metatarsal, 5th metatarsal, calcaneus, medial
131 and lateral malleoli, medial and lateral epicondyles of the femur. To define the pelvis
132 segment further markers were positioned onto the anterior (ASIS) and posterior (PSIS)
133 superior iliac spines. Carbon fiber tracking clusters were positioned onto the shank and thigh
134 segments. The foot was tracked using the 1st metatarsal, 5th metatarsal and calcaneus
135 markers and the pelvis using the ASIS and PSIS markers. The centers of the ankle and knee

136 joints were delineated as the mid-point between the malleoli and femoral epicondyle markers
137 (18; 19), whereas the hip joint centre was obtained using the positions of the ASIS markers
138 (20). Static calibration trials (not normalized to static trial posture) were obtained for the
139 anatomical markers to be referenced in relation to the tracking markers/ clusters. The Z
140 (transverse) axis was oriented vertically from the distal segment end to the proximal segment
141 end. The Y (coronal) axis was oriented in the segment from posterior to anterior. Finally, the
142 X (sagittal) axis orientation was determined using the right hand rule and was oriented from
143 medial to lateral.

144

145 *Processing*

146 Dynamic trials were processed using Qualisys Track Manager and then exported as C3D
147 files. GRF and marker data were filtered at 50 Hz and 15 Hz respectively using a low-pass
148 Butterworth 4th order filter and processed using Visual 3-D (C-Motion, Germantown, MD,
149 USA). Joint moments were computed using Newton-Euler inverse-dynamics, allowing net
150 knee joint moments to be calculated. Angular kinematics were calculated using an XYZ
151 (sagittal, coronal and transverse) sequence of rotations (21). To quantify knee joint moments
152 segment mass, segment length, ground reaction force and angular kinematics were utilized.

153

154 A musculoskeletal modelling approach was utilized to quantify ACL loading during the lunge
155 movement. To accomplish this we firstly had to quantify the tibial-anterior shear force
156 (TASF), which was undertaken using a modified version of the model described in detail by
157 Devita & Hortobagyi, (22). Our model differed only in that gender specific estimates of

158 posterior tibial plateau slope (23), hamstring-tibia shaft angle (24) and patellar tendon-tibia
159 shaft angle (25) were utilized.

160

161 ACL loading was determined as the sum of ACL forces caused by the TASF, transverse
162 plane knee moment, and transverse plane knee moment in accordance with EQ[1].

163

164 EQ[1] - **ACL load** = ($F100 / 100 * \text{TASF}$) + ($F10TV / 10 * \text{transverse plane knee moment}$) +
165 ($F10CR / 10 * \text{transverse plane knee moment}$)

166

167 The components of EQ[1] were obtained using the data described by Markolf et al., (26), who
168 examined ACL forces in vitro when a 100 N TASF ($F100$) was applied to cadaver knees
169 from 0-90° of knee flexion. ACL forces were also measured when additional torques of 10
170 Nm in the coronal ($F10CR$) and transverse ($F10TV$) planes were combined with the 100 N
171 TASF from 0-90° of knee flexion.

172

173 All force parameters were normalized by dividing the net values by body mass (N/kg). From
174 the musculoskeletal models indices of peak ACL and TASF forces were extracted. In
175 addition ACL and TASF instantaneous load rates (N/kg/s) were quantified as the peak
176 increase in force between adjacent data points. In addition we also calculated the ACL
177 impulse (N/kg·s) during the lunge movement by multiplying the ACL load by the duration
178 over which the movement occurred.

179

180 *Analyses*

181 Descriptive statistics of means, standard deviations (SD) and 95% confidence intervals (95%
182 CI) were calculated. Gender differences in ACL loading parameters were examined using
183 independent samples t-tests with significance accepted at the $P \leq 0.05$ level (27). Effect sizes
184 were quantified using partial eta squared (η^2). Shapiro-Wilk tests confirmed that the data
185 were normally distributed in all cases. All statistical procedures were conducted using SPSS
186 v23 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

187

188 **Results**

189 Table 1 and figure 1 present the gender differences in ACL loading during the fencing lunge
190 movement. The results indicate that ACL loading parameters were significantly influenced by
191 gender.

192

193 **@@@ FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE @@@**

194 **@@@ TABLE 1 NEAR HERE @@@**

195

196 Peak TASF was found to be significantly ($t_{(9)} = 2.65$, $P < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.29$) larger in female
197 fencers in relation to males (Table 1; Figure 1a). In addition peak ACL was found to be
198 significantly ($t_{(9)} = 2.65$, $P < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.35$) larger in females in comparison to males (Table
199 1; Figure 1b).

200

201 TASF instantaneous load rate was also found to be significantly ($t_{(9)} = 2.65, P < 0.05, \eta^2 =$
202 0.24) higher in female fencers in compared to males (Table 1). ACL instantaneous load rate
203 was similarly shown to be significantly ($t_{(9)} = 2.65, P < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.26$) larger in females in
204 comparison to males (Table 1). Finally, it was demonstrated that ACL impulse was
205 significantly ($t_{(9)} = 2.65, P < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.38$) greater in females in relation to male fencers
206 (Table 1).

207

208 **Discussion**

209 The aim of this investigation was to investigate gender differences in ACL loading during the
210 fencing lunge. To the authors knowledge this study represents the first quantitative
211 examination of ACL loading during fencing specific manoeuvres. Research of this nature
212 may provide important clinical information regarding potential ACL injury risk in fencers.

213

214 The primary observation from the current study is that ACL loading parameters were found
215 to be significantly larger in female fencers. Females exhibit distinct knee mechanics during
216 deceleration/ landing tasks, involving reduced knee flexion, increased hip rotation/ adduction
217 and knee valgus (12). Female athletes are regarded as being over reliant on the anterior
218 kinetic chain due to diminished neuromuscular control in the posterior chain (28). The knee
219 posterior kinetic chain musculature, in particular the hamstring group are considered a
220 synergist with the ACL and serve to mediate ATSF by pulling the tibia posteriorly (28). This
221 may help clarify the mechanism by which increases in ACL loading were observed in female
222 fencers as knee ligament forces are strongly influenced by the ATSF (29). The lunge is
223 renowned as one of the primary attacking mechanisms in fencing (14), thus the observations

224 from the current investigation may have potential clinical relevance regarding the aetiology
225 of injury in female fencers. Mechanically, ACL injuries during dynamic tasks occur when
226 excessive loading is experienced by the ACL itself (12). This study therefore provides insight
227 into the increased incidence of ACL injuries in female athletes and also shows that female
228 fencers may be at increased risk from ACL pathologies when performing the lunge
229 movement.

230

231 The current study represents the first to quantitatively evidence that female fencers exhibit
232 greater ACL loading in relation to males. ACL injuries are one of the most common
233 pathologies in athletic populations (30) and female athletes are considered to be at much
234 greater risk from this injury in relation to males (16). Thus it is important that training/
235 conditioning adaptations be incorporated by fencing coaches which are designed to decrease
236 the risk from ACL injuries in females. Neuromuscular deficiencies are regarded as a key
237 modifiable risk factor for ACL injuries, and controlling the magnitude of ACL loading
238 through preventive neuromuscular training has been demonstrated as an effective intervention
239 for the modification of ACL injury risk (31). Therefore it is strongly recommended that
240 specific neuromuscular training protocols focussed on the muscles of posterior kinetic chain
241 be implemented for female fencers in order to attenuate their risk from ACL injury.

242

243 A potential limitation of the current investigation is that ACL loading was quantified using a
244 musculoskeletal modelling approach. This was necessary given the impracticalities and
245 ethical concerns regarding the collection of ligament loading in vivo during high intensity
246 activities. However, although the musculoskeletal approach utilized in this study is associated
247 with good face validity (32); modelling approaches are subject to mathematical assumptions

248 that may moderate their efficacy across a variety of participants. A further potential drawback
249 to the current study is that the stiffness and frictional properties of the laboratory surface are
250 likely to be distinct from those experienced when performing on a traditional fencing piste
251 (33). Therefore, ACL loading may have differed had participants performed on a fencing
252 specific surface. As such it is strongly recommended that this study be repeated using a field
253 based testing protocol.

254

255 In conclusion, whilst gender differences in lower extremity biomechanics have received
256 limited attention within clinical literature, the effects of gender on ACL loading parameters
257 linked to the aetiology of ACL injuries has not been explored. As such the current study adds
258 to the current literature base in the field of clinical biomechanics by providing a
259 comprehensive analysis of gender specific loading patterns experienced during the fencing
260 lunge. The findings from this investigation showed that female fencers experienced
261 significantly larger ACL loading parameters than males during the lunge movement. Given
262 the association between ACL loading and ACL injury risk, this investigation firstly provides
263 insight into the high incidence of ACL injuries in female athletes and secondly indicates that
264 female fencers may be at increased risk from ACL pathologies. Future analyses should seek
265 to investigate and implement strategies aimed at reducing ACL loading in female fencers.

266

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364

365 **Figure labels**

366 Figure 1: a. Tibial-anterior shear force (TASF) and b. ACL load as a function of gender
367 (Black = female & grey dash = male).