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Muscle activity amplitudes and co-contraction during stair ambulation following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to compare muscle activity amplitudes and co-contraction in those with anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) reconstruction to healthy controls during stair negotiation. Eighteen participants with unilateral ACL reconstruction and 17 healthy controls performed stair ascent and descent while surface electromyography was recorded from knee and hip musculature. During stair ascent, the ACL group displayed higher gluteus maximus activity (1–50% stance, p = 0.02), higher vastus lateralis:biceps femoris co-contraction (51–100% stance, p = 0.01), and higher vastus lateralis:vastus medialis co-contraction (51–100% stance, p = 0.01), bigher semimembranosus activity (1–50% stance, p = 0.01), lower rectus femoris activity (1–50% stance, p = 0.04), higher semimembranosus activity (1–50% stance, p = 0.01), higher gluteus medius activity (51–100% stance, p = 0.01), and higher vastus medialis:semimembranosus co-contraction (1–50% stance, p = 0.02). While the altered muscle activity strategies observed in the ACL group may act to increase joint stability, these strategies may alter joint loading and contribute to post-traumatic knee osteoarthritis often observed in this population. Our results warrant further investigation to determine the longterm effects of altered muscle activity on the knee joint following ACL reconstruction.

Keywords

Anterior cruciate ligament, Stair ambulation, Electromyography

Disciplines

Biomechanics | Exercise Science | Kinesiology | Motor Control | Psychology of Movement

Comments

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40 1. INTRODUCTION

Post-traumatic osteoarthritis develops in 50-70% of people with anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) or meniscus injury, 10-15 years following the trauma (Lohmander et al., 2007; Lohmander et al., 2004; Neuman et al., 2008). Despite ACL reconstruction being routinely performed to restore mechanical function of the knee joint, this surgical intervention does not appear to reduce the risk of developing post-traumatic osteoarthritis (Delince and Ghafil, 2012; Frobell et al., 2010; Frobell et al., 2013). Thus, people following ACL injury constitute a good model to study early knee osteoarthritis onset during everyday tasks, such as stair negotiation.

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In addition to immediate effects of the initial trauma, biomechanical alterations are thought to play 49 a role in the pathogenesis of post-traumatic knee osteoarthritis (Little and Hunter, 2013). 50 Biomechanical alterations during dynamic functional tasks, including a single-leg lateral step-up, 51 vertical jump, jogging, walking, stair negotiation, and a single-leg countermovement jump have 52 been reported in people following ACL reconstruction. Specific adaptations include reduced 53 internal knee extensor moments (Bush-Joseph et al., 2001; Hall et al., 2012; Lewek et al., 2002) 54 and increased internal hip extensor moments (Ernst et al., 2000; Hall et al., 2012; Hooper et al., 55 56 2002; Nyland et al., 2010). Increased external knee adduction moments have also been reported (Butler et al., 2009), albeit inconsistently (Hall et al., 2012; Webster and Feller, 2012). These 57 altered biomechanics may reflect movement strategies to protect the previous injured knee, and 58 59 may be accompanied by altered neuromuscular activity patterns. Furthermore, net joint moments do not provide insight into individual muscle function. Altered neuromuscular control might 60 61 include increased muscle co-activation and altered medial and lateral thigh muscle activity, which have been previously reported in people with established knee osteoarthritis (Heiden et al., 2009;
Hortobagyi et al., 2005; Zeni et al., 2010; Hubley-Kozey et al., 2009).

64

Neuromuscular activity alterations are important to investigate following ACL reconstruction as 65 changes in muscle force distribution are likely to affect the mechanical environment of the knee 66 joint (Hubley-Kozey et al., 2009) during functional tasks. Furthermore, long-term changes in 67 neuromuscular control might precede the development of osteoarthritis and can be potentially 68 addressed through conservative rehabilitation. Indeed, studies have demonstrated changes in lower 69 70 limb muscle control and muscle activation while wearing a knee brace (Rebel et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2003) and following exercise training programs (Aagaard et al., 2002). Therefore, it is 71 important to gain a better understanding of neuromuscular activity in people following ACL 72 reconstruction so that therapeutic interventions can be more appropriately designed to prevent or 73 potentially delay early knee osteoarthritis onset. 74

75

Stair negotiation is a complex daily task which is useful to investigate potential differences in 76 neuromuscular activation strategies. Stair ascent requires a substantial amount of knee flexion and 77 78 the generation of high joint moments compared to level walking (Hooper et al., 2002), while stair descents require high levels of control to slow the body down (McFadyen and Winter, 1988). To 79 our knowledge, no studies have investigated muscle activation amplitudes during stair negotiation 80 81 in people following ACL reconstruction. Therefore, the purpose of this descriptive cross-sectional exploratory study was to test whether or not altered muscle activity amplitudes and increased co-82 contraction intensities are present in people following ACL reconstruction compared to healthy 83 84 controls. Consistent with previously observed differences in internal knee/hip joint moments postACL reconstruction compared to healthy controls and increased co-contraction observed with knee osteoarthritis, we hypothesized that the ACL reconstruction group would display 1) lower quadriceps muscle activity amplitudes, 2) higher hamstring muscle activity amplitudes, and 3) higher quadriceps:hamstring muscle co-contraction during stair ascent and descent.

89

90 **2. METHODS**

91 *2.1 Participants*

Eighteen participants greater than one year from unilateral ACL reconstruction and 17 healthy 92 93 controls between 18 and 35 years old were recruited from a university setting. These individuals are included in a study focusing on kinematic and kinetic parameters that has been previously 94 published (Hall et al., 2012). Participants were excluded if they had any history of musculoskeletal 95 or neurological conditions precluding safe walking or stair ambulation. Healthy controls were 96 excluded if they had a previous knee injury or surgery. This study was approved by the Institutional 97 Review Board at Iowa State University, and all participants gave their written consent. The ACL 98 group was on average 5 years from surgery (range 1 - 18 years). The ACL reconstruction grafts 99 included hamstring (n = 10), patellar tendon (n = 6), or a combination of hamstring and patellar 100 101 tendon (n = 1), with one participant having an unknown graft.

102

103 *2.2 Procedures*

The experimental staircase consisted of three steps (step height 18.5 cm, tread depth 29.5 cm). Muscle activity signals were collected from a wireless EMG system (Delsys Myomonitor IV, Boston, USA). The surface EMG sensors contained dual bar contacts (1 mm x 10 mm with an intraelectrode distance of 10 mm) made from 99.9% Ag. These EMG sensors were single 108 differential with a gain of 1000 V/V, channel noise <1.2 μ V, and CMRR >80 dB. Force platform 109 and EMG data were collected at a rate of 1600 Hz. Two portable force platforms on the first and 110 second step of the stairs (AMTI, Watertown, USA) were used to determine the stance phases of 111 stair ambulation. Previous studies have found inconsistent kinetic strategies between the first and 112 second step during stair use (Hall et al., 2012; Kowalk et al., 1996; Vallabhajosula et al., 2012), 113 highlighting the need to examine more than one step.

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115 Participant age, height, weight, medical history, and physical activity levels (Tegner scale, Tegner 116 and Lysholm, 1985) were recorded. The participant's skin was shaved (when needed), slightly abraded and cleaned with alcohol before surface electrodes were placed. For each participant, 117 118 electrodes were placed on the affected leg of the post-ACL participants and on the right leg of the controls according to guidelines described by Cram et al. (1998). The electrodes were placed over 119 the muscle belly in line with muscle fibers of the gastrocnemius, vastus lateralis, vastus medialis, 120 121 rectus femoris, biceps femoris, semimembranosus, gluteus maximus and gluteus medius. A 122 reference electrode was placed over the electrically neutral tissue of the right anterior superior iliac 123 spine.

124

All participants performed three trials of 5-second maximum voluntary isometric contractions (MVIC) in order to normalize EMG data. Prior to MVIC, participants performed 2-3 warm-up sub-maximal and near maximal efforts for familiarization. Knee extension/flexion MVICs were acquired as manual resistance was applied anterior/posterior and proximal to the ankle joint centre as participants sat upright with the knee flexed to approximately 45°. Hip extensor MVIC was acquired as manual resistance was applied posteriorly to the distal thigh as participants stood

upright with arm support. Hip abduction MVIC was acquired as manual resistance was applied
lateral and proximal to the ankle joint centre as participants stood upright with arm support. Ankle
plantar flexion MVIC was acquired against a wall as participants sat with their knee flexed
approximately 45°. Participants were given verbal encouragement during all MVIC tests.

135

Participants performed two tasks: stair ascent and stair descent. Individuals descended and ascended the stairs using a step-over-step technique at a self-selected pace. Participants performed three trials leading with right and left leg, for a total of six trials for each task. All data were analyzed during the stance phase of walking on the first and second step of both stair ascent and descent. For analyses, step detection was initiated at 5% of body weight (BW) and terminated when the vertical ground reaction force dropped below 5% BW.

142

143 *2.3 Data Reduction*

As an initial step, non-physiological EMG signals consistent with loss of sensor contact with the 144 skin or loss of wireless signal were removed from the analysis. Raw EMG data for the MVICs and 145 stair ascent/descent were bandpass filtered between 10-450 Hz and notch filtered at 60 Hz with a 146 fourth order, dual-pass Butterworth filter. The data were then rectified and filtered using a low-147 pass filter at 10 Hz to create a linear envelope. MVIC amplitudes were defined as the maximum 148 149 30ms moving window with overlap during the MVICs. Individual muscle EMG amplitudes were 150 calculated as the average linear envelope for 1-50% stance and 51-100% stance during the first and second steps of stair ascent/descent, then normalized to the peak MVIC amplitudes. 151

Based on the equation described by Rudolph et al. (2001), co-contraction indices (CCI) werecalculated:

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$$CCI_{m1:m2} = avg\left\{\sum_{i=initial}^{i=final} \frac{min\{EMG_{m1}(i), EMG_{m2}(i)\}}{max\{EMG_{m1}(i), EMG_{m2}(i)\}}(EMG_{m1}(i) + EMG_{m2}(i))\right\}$$

In this equation, m1/m2 represent the two muscles being analyzed, *initial/final* were set to 1-50% 156 157 or 51-100% of stance, *min* represents the EMG linear envelope values from the less active muscle group, and *max* represents the EMG linear envelope values of the more active muscle group at 158 each time step. CCI was calculated during the first and second steps of stair ascent and stair 159 descent. CCIs were calculated for (m1:m2): vastus lateralis:biceps femoris, 160 vastus medialis:semimembranosus, lateralis:vastus medialis biceps 161 vastus and femoris:semimembranosus. All data were processed using custom code written in MatlabTM 162 163 version 9.0 (The Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA, USA).

164

165 *2.4 Statistical Analysis*

Independent t-tests and chi-square tests were used to determine differences in group characteristics as appropriate. Muscle activity amplitudes were assessed for normality. In the event where muscle amplitudes did not conform to normal distribution, data were squared and log-transformed prior to analysis. Univariate ANOVA was used to test for between group (ACL vs. control) differences for subject characteristics, EMG amplitudes, and CCIs. All data are reported as means and standard deviations. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows (Version 21, SPSS Chicago, IL, USA). The statistical significance level was set at p < 0.05.

173

174 **RESULTS**

There were no significant differences in subject characteristics (p > 0.05) when comparing the ACL group (10 females; 8 males; age 26±6 years; height 1.73 ± 0.14 m; mass 75±16 kg; Tegner score 7±2) to the control group (10 females; 7 males; age 26±4 years; height 1.70 ± 0.12 m; 68±12 kg; Tegner score 6±1).

179

180 3.1 EMG Activity Amplitudes during Stair Ascent

The ACL group had a significantly higher gluteus maximus activity amplitude compared to the control group during 1-50% stance (p = 0.02) during stair ascent (Table 1). Ensemble curves of muscle activity amplitudes during stair ascent are shown in Figure 1.

184

185 *3.2 EMG Activity Amplitudes during Stair Descent*

The ACL group had a significantly higher gluteus maximus activity amplitude compared to the control group during 1-50% stance (p = 0.01) and 51-100% stance (p < 0.001) of stair descent (Table 1). The ACL group also had significantly higher semimembranosus amplitude during 1-50% stance (p = 0.01) and significantly higher gluteus medius amplitude during 51-100% stance. In contrast, the control group had significantly higher rectus femoris amplitude during 1stance (p = 0.04). Ensemble curves of muscle activity amplitudes during stair descent are shown in Figure 2.

- 193
- 194 *3.3 CCIs during Stair Ascent*

The ACL group had a significantly higher vastus lateralis:biceps femoris CCI compared to the control group during 51-100% stance (p = 0.01) of stair ascent (Table 2). The ACL group also had a significantly higher vastus lateralis:vastus medialis CCI during 51-100% stance (p = 0.05).

199 *3.4 CCIs during Stair Descent*

The ACL group had a significantly higher vastus medialis:semimembranosus CCI compared to the control group during 1-50% stance (p = 0.02) of stair descent (Table 2).

202

203 **DISCUSSION**

Those with established knee osteoarthritis are reported to have altered muscle activity and 204 increased levels of muscle co-activation (Childs et al., 2004; Hortobagyi et al., 2005; Hubley-205 206 Kozey et al., 2009; Lewek et al., 2004), which are thought to affect knee joint loading and function. However, little is known about muscle activity alterations during daily tasks in cohorts at risk to 207 208 develop knee osteoarthritis, such as individuals with ACL reconstruction. Previously, reduced 209 internal knee extensor moments (Hall et a., 2012; Hooper et al., 2002; Kowalk et al., 1997) and increased internal hip extensor moments (Hall et al., 2012) have been found during stair use in 210 ACL reconstructed individuals compared to healthy controls. In the current study, our purpose was 211 212 to test whether or not EMG activity amplitudes and CCI were different when comparing ACL reconstructed individuals with healthy controls during stair ascent and stair descent movements. 213

214

Our first hypothesis was that quadriceps muscle activity amplitudes would be lower in ACL reconstructed individuals as compared to healthy controls. This hypothesis was not supported since there were no significant differences in vastus lateralis or vastus medialis amplitudes during stair ascent or descent. Reduced vastus medialis activity has been reported in the post-ACL reconstruction injured leg compared to the non-injured leg during counter-movement jumps (Nyland et al., 2010). However, no limb-to-limb difference in vastus lateralis muscle activity was 221 observed during walking or jogging in those with ACL reconstruction (Lewek et al., 2002). Taken 222 together, these studies suggest that more functionally demanding tasks may be required to detect alterations in quadriceps muscle activity. Instead of reduced quadriceps activity, a significantly 223 224 lower rectus femoris amplitude was observed during the current study for the ACL group during the first half of stair descent. Albeit speculative, this may partially explain the reduced internal 225 knee extensor moments during stair use that have been reported in ACL reconstructed individuals 226 (Hall et al., 2012; Hooper et al., 2002; Kowalk et al., 1997). Reduced rectus femoris activity would 227 also be consistent with increased net internal hip extensor moments during stair use. 228

229

Our second hypothesis was that hamstring muscle activity amplitudes would be higher in ACL 230 reconstructed individuals as compared to healthy controls. This hypothesis was partially supported 231 232 by a significantly increased semimembranosus amplitude for the ACL group during the first half of stair descent. Higher hamstring activity in the ACL group may partially explain the reduced 233 internal knee extensor moment and increased internal hip extensor moment that have been reported 234 235 in ACL reconstructed individuals (Hall et al., 2012; Hooper et al., 2002; Kowalk et al., 1997; Lewek et al., 2002). Studies on ACL injury (Boerboom et al., 2001; Limbird et al., 1988) and 236 237 arthroscopic partial meniscectomy patients (Sturnieks et al., 2011; Thorlund et al., 2012) also suggest increased hamstring activity during functional tasks. The increased hamstring activity 238 could intensify compressive loads and alter the patterns of shear in the tibiofemoral joint 239 (MacWilliams et al., 1999). The altered loading patterns likely affect articular cartilage 240 morphology and potentially contribute to cartilage degeneration. In addition to potential 241 impairment of cartilage integrity, increased hamstring activity has been associated with poorer 242 243 knee function in people 1-2 years following ACL reconstruction (Perraton et al., 2013).

In terms of muscle activity, the gluteus maximus appeared to show the greatest differences between 245 the ACL group and controls. Gluteus maximus activation was higher in the ACL group compared 246 247 to the control group for both stair ascent (1-50% stance) and stair descent (1-50% and 51-100% stance). These findings are consistent with increased internal hip extensor moments that have been 248 249 previously reported in ACL reconstructed individuals during stair negotiation (Hall et al., 2012) 250 and during a counter movement jump (Nyland et al., 2010). Combined with decreased rectus femoris activity and higher hamstring muscle activity, we speculate that increased gluteus 251 252 maximus activity in the ACL group may be a neuromuscular adaptation that shifts the dependence of moment generation from the knee joint to the hip joint. This proposed strategy is likely to result 253 in similar or reduced knee joint internal forces even when increased co-contraction may be needed 254 255 to improve joint stability. In addition, gluteus medius activation was higher in the ACL group compared to the control group during stair descent (51-100% stance). This is a potentially 256 interesting observation as a greater hip abduction moment during gait has been suggested to be 257 258 protective against ipsilateral medial knee osteoarthritis progression (Chang et al., 2005). We are 259 not aware of other studies reporting gluteus medius activity for individuals following ACL 260 reconstruction. However, our results are similar to a recent study reporting higher gluteus medius activation for individuals with early signs of medial knee osteoarthritis during one-leg standing 261 (Duffell et al., 2014). 262

263

Our third hypothesis was that quadriceps:hamstring muscle co-contraction would be higher in ACL reconstructed individuals. This hypothesis was partially supported as we observed higher vastus lateralis:biceps femoris co-contraction during 51-100% stance of stair ascent and higher

vastus medialis:semimembranosus co-contraction during 1-50% stance of stair descent in the ACL 267 group. Our findings likely reflect a neuromuscular adaptation to protect the reconstructed ACL 268 from excessive strain and to stabilise the knee joint. Cadaver studies have reported that during 269 270 loaded isometric flexion, hamstring co-contraction reduces strain on the ACL, preventing anterior tibial translation and internal rotation of the knee (MacWilliams et al., 1991). In addition, higher 271 272 co-contraction indexes between vastus medialis and medial hamstrings have been reported in people with knee osteoarthritis and have been shown to discriminate between knee osteoarthritis 273 severities (Hubley-Kozey et al., 2009). 274

275

276 The ACL group also displayed increased vastus lateralis:vastus medialis co-contraction during 51-100% stance of stair ascent. Data from static and dynamic experiments suggest that increased 277 lateral-to-medial quadriceps co-contraction may reflect a neuromuscular adaptation to counteract 278 an external knee varus moment (Lloyd et al., 2001; Pandy et al., 2010). However, results are 279 inconclusive whether external knee varus moments for those with ACL reconstruction are higher 280 281 (Butler et al., 2009) or not different (Hall et al., 2012) when compared to healthy controls. Interestingly, it has been reported that individuals with osteoarthritis have greater lateral relative 282 283 to medial co-contraction compared to controls (Heiden et al., 2009). It must be acknowledged that the specific effect of altered neuromuscular strategies on the health of articular cartilage remain 284 unknown. Nonetheless, altered loading likely affects the morphology of the articular cartilage and 285 286 may contribute to cartilage degeneration (Arokoski et al., 2000). Longitudinal studies are needed to determine the role of increased co-contraction in the development of cartilage degeneration 287 288 (Zeni et al., 2010).

290 There are several limitations of this study that warrant consideration. First, as this was an 291 exploratory study, a sample size calculation was not performed a priori and we did not correct for the multiple statistical comparisons performed (Nakagawa, 2004). As such, our findings should be 292 293 interpreted with caution. Second, due the cross-sectional study design, the potential implications of our findings for early post-traumatic knee osteoarthritis onset remain speculative. While we 294 aimed to investigate long-term muscle activation amplitude of those with ACL reconstruction, the 295 296 time range from surgery (2-18 years) was expansive. Prospective studies following ACL reconstruction are needed to solidify possible associations between muscle activation and early 297 298 onset post-traumatic knee osteoarthritis. Third, differences in quality of individual MVICs may 299 inflate or reduce group differences in muscle activity during the tasks and in co-contraction calculations (Zeni et al., 2010). Despite all participants being pain-free and encouraged to 300 301 maximally contract their muscles during multiple trials, inconsistencies in effort and neuromuscular control may have been introduced during the MVIC collection. In support of using 302 MVICs, previous research has found no differences in voluntary activation as determined using 303 304 burst superimposition knee extensor strength in persons with previous ACL reconstruction at approximately three months post-surgery (Lewek et al., 2002). Fourth, it should be noted that 305 306 MVICs in this study were performed against manual resistance similar to a clinical setting. However, MVICs are ideally performed using an isokinetic dynamometer where participants are 307 firmly secured in seated position, similar to Lewek et al., (2002). Fifth, a limitation was the absence 308 309 of information regarding any concurrent meniscus repair/resection and physical therapy/rehabilitation performed following ACL reconstruction. 310

312 To summarize, the results of our study indicate that individuals with ACL reconstruction exhibit 313 higher gluteus maximus, semimembranosus, and gluteus medius activity, but lower rectus femoris activity during stair negotiation. In addition, those with ACL reconstruction displayed higher 314 315 vastus lateralis:biceps femoris, vastus medialis:semimembranosus, and vastus lateralis:vastus medialis co-contraction during stair negotiation. Overall, these adaptations may reflect 316 compensatory strategies to maintain knee joint stability and reduce internal knee extensor 317 318 moments. The overall effect remains unknown, since internal knee joint loads may be increased 319 by higher co-contraction, reduced by lower internal knee extensor moments, or the net balance could remain unchanged. Our findings suggest neuromuscular adaptations are present in people at 320 least one year from ACL reconstruction and further research is warranted to determine the effects 321 of these alterations on physical function and long-term joint health. 322

323

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434 Figure 1: EMG ensemble curves during stair ascent. The black solid lines indicate average values for post-ACLR participants, while the black dashed lines indicate average values for 435 436 control participants. The grey solid lines represent plus and minus one standard deviation for 437 post-ACLR participants.





442 Figure 2: EMG ensemble curves during stair descent. The black solid lines indicate average values for post-ACLR participants, while the black dashed lines indicate average values for 443 control participants. The grey solid lines represent plus and minus one standard deviation for 444 post-ACLR participants. 445

Stair Ascent **Stair Descent** ACL **ACL - Control** ACL **ACL - Control** F Control F-value p-value Control p-value % MVIC % MVIC [95% CI] % MVIC % MVIC [95% CI] Gastrocnemius 0.99† 0.85 1-50% stance 15.4 ± 8.8 14.2 ± 7.5 [-5.1, 7.4] 12.2 ± 6.3 12.6 ± 5.2 [-4.7, 3.9][-15.3, 9.4] 51-100% stance 37.5 ± 17.5 40.4 ± 14.9 0.63 7.3 ± 3.1 8.3 ± 5.1 [-4.1, 2.1]0.51 Vastus Lateralis 1-50% stance 44.5 ± 13.7 42.8 ± 22.5 [-11.7, 15.2]0.80 13.1 ± 5.1 10.9 ± 6.1 [-1.7, 6.2] 0.11^{\dagger} 51-100% stance 9.1 ± 4.4 7.0 ± 3.7 [-0.8, 5.0] 0.15 15.7 ± 4.3 15.0 ± 6.2 [-3.0, 4.5] 0.69 Vastus Medialis 1-50% stance 44.5 ± 12.9 42.0 ± 13.4 [-7.4, 12.3]0.61 14.2 ± 7.3 [-6.5, 4.0]0.64 15.5 ± 7.7 51-100% stance [-2.6, 5.4]0.36[†] [-10.9, 2.0] 0.22^{\dagger} 10.4 ± 5.8 9.0 ± 4.8 17.9 ± 6.8 22.3 ± 11.4 **Rectus Femoris** 0.34[†] 0.04 1-50% stance 14.0 ± 9.2 18.1 ± 11.6 [-11.6, 3.5] 7.3 ± 3.1 $10.4 \pm 5.0*$ [-5.9, -0.2] 0.40^{\dagger} 51-100% stance 5.7 ± 3.8 5.0 ± 2.7 [-1.7, 3.1]0.57 8.7 ± 4.0 11.6 ± 7.5 [-7.1, 1.2]**Biceps Femoris** 11.9 ± 4.8 0.97† 1-50% stance 12.3 ± 6.6 [-3.9, 4.6] 4.5 ± 1.8 4.4 ± 1.9 [-1.2, 1.4]0.88 51-100% stance 11.9 ± 4.7 10.8 ± 4.4 [-2.3, 4.4]0.52 4.6 ± 2.1 5.4 ± 2.3 [-2.4, 0.8]0.31 Semimembranosus 1-50% stance 9.6 ± 3.6 7.4 ± 3.9 [-0.6, 5.0]0.12 2.8 ± 1.2 [0.4, 2.6]0.01 4.3 ± 1.8* 11.5 ± 3.4 0.06 5.0 ± 2.3 0.10 51-100% stance 9.0 ± 3.6 [-0.1, 5.1] 3.8 ± 1.6 [-0.2, 2.7]Gluteus Maximus [1.4, 10.7] 0.01* 1-50% stance 28.2 ± 13.3 [3.3, 28.7] **0.02**[†] $15.9 \pm 7.4^{*}$ 9.9 ± 5.9 $44.1\pm21.0*$ 51-100% stance 0.07^{\dagger} [1.0, 13.9] [2.5, 8.2]**<0.001**[†] 20.9 ± 11.6 13.4 ± 5.2 9.1 ± 5.3* 3.8 ± 2.2 Gluteus Medius [-1.3, 2.0] [-1.4, 9.8] 1-50% stance 0.14 0.69 23.8 ± 8.0 19.6 ± 8.1 8.0 ± 1.6 7.6 ± 3.1 0.56^{\dagger} [-2.5, 3.4] 3.5 ± 1.6 0.01 51-100% stance 11.1 ± 3.8 10.7 ± 4.5 4.9 ± 1.3* [0.4, 2.4]**Bold** denotes significant difference (p < 0.05); * denotes significantly larger at p < 0.05; † denotes log transformed values; MVIC: maximum voluntary isometric contraction

447 **Table 1.** Mean muscle amplitude for the first and second half of stance during stair ascent and star descent. Values are in mean \pm SD.

448

	Stair Ascent				
	ACL	Control	ACL - Control	F-value	p-value
	% MVIC	% MVIC	[95% CI]		
Vastus Lateralis:Biceps Femoris					
1-50% stance	12.1 ± 6.6	11.6 ± 4.9	[-3.8, 4.8]		0.83
51-100% stance	$6.8 \pm 3.4^{*}$	4.2 ± 2.2	[0.5, 4.8]		0.01 [†]
Vastus Medialis:Semimembranosus					
1-50% stance†	8.6 ± 3.7	6.2 ± 3.7	[-0.4, 5.3]		0.09
51-100% stance	4.8 ± 2.0	3.6 ± 1.7	[-0.2, 2.6]		0.10
Vastus Lateralis:Vastus Medialis					
1-50% stance	46.3 ± 14.2	41.7 ± 16.8	[-7.0, 16.2]		0.42
51-100% stance	9.0 ± 4.7 *	6.0 ± 3.5	[-0.1, 6.1]		0.05 [†]
Biceps Femoris:Semimembranosus					
1-50% stance	8.9 ± 4.7	6.4 ± 3.5	[-0.7, 5.7]		0.12
51-100% stance	9.6 ± 3.8	7.4 ± 3.5	[-0.6, 5.0]		0.13
	Stair Descent				
	ACL	Control	ACL - Control	F-value	p-value
	% MVIC	% MVIC	[95% CI]		
Vastus Lateralis:Biceps Femoris					
1-50% stance	4.2 ± 2.8	3.7 ± 2.0	[-1.4, 2.5]		0.50^{+}
51-100% stance	3.3 ± 2.1	3.2 ± 1.8	[-1.5, 1.6]		0.92
Vastus Medialis:Semimembranosus					
1-50% stance†	3.8 ± 2.4	$\textbf{2.0} \pm \textbf{1.0}$	[0.5, 3.3]		0.02^{\dagger}
51-100% stance	3.7 ± 2.0	2.4 ± 1.1	[0.0, 2.5]		0.15^{+}
Vastus Lateralis:Vastus Medialis					
1-50% stance	11.4 ± 4.9	8.8 ± 3.5	[-0.6, 5.8]		0.10
51-100% stance	14.8 ± 5.8	15.5 ± 7.1	[-5.4, 4.0]		0.76
Biceps Femoris:Semimembranosus					
1-50% stance	3.5 ± 3.1	2.3 ± 1.1	[-0.6, 2.9]		0.20^{+}
51-100% stance	3.9 ± 3.4	3.1 ± 1.1	[-1.1, 2.7]		0.93*

Table 2. Co-contraction indices (CCI) for the first and second half of stance during stair ascent and descent. Values are in mean \pm SD.