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The quantitative evaluation of anterior drawer test using an electromagnetic measurement system

18 The anterior drawer test (ADT) is the gold standard examination for the diagnosis 19 of anterior talofibular ligament insufficiency, although there is no quantitative 20 evaluation of ADT that is generally usable and reliable. An electromagnetic 21 sensor (EMS) has been used to quantitatively evaluate joint kinematics, and has a 22 high potential to be applied to the ankle joint. The aim of this study was to 23 validate the EMS measurement of the ADT in comparison to the fluoroscopic 24 evaluation and to evaluate the reproducibility of the EMS measurement. Six feet 25 were included, and an examiner performed the ADT 5 times for each foot while 26 the anterior translation of the ankle joint was quantitative evaluated using EMS 27 and fluoroscope simultaneously. The anterior translation of the ankle joint during 28 the ADT in EMS and in fluoroscope was 8.1 ± 5.7 mm and 3.6 ± 2.4 mm. A 29 strong correlation was observed between the measurements using EMS and 30 fluoroscope (p < 0.01, the correlation coefficient = 0.91). Another 20 feet were 31 included, and three examiners performed the ADT five times for each foot with 32 the EMS measurement. The intra and inter-examiner reliability was 0.99 and 33 0.89. The EMS could quantify the anterior translation during the ADT which 34 corresponds to fluoroscopic evaluation.

Keywords: ankle sprain; lateral ankle instability; electromagnetic sensor;
biomechanics; quantitative evaluation

38 Introduction

Ankle sprains are common injuries in the sporting population, accounting for about 20%
of all musculoskeletal injuries (Slater, 2018; Vuurberg et al., 2018). The majority of
these injuries are inversion trauma, resulting in lateral ankle ligament injuries whose
primary structure is the anterior talofibular ligament (ATFL) (Hur et al., 2020; Teixeira
& Guillo, 2018). Nonoperative therapy, including functional treatment, is usually
prescribed, but 20 - 40 % of ankle sprains develop chronic lateral ankle instability
(CLAI) (Gerber et al., 1998; Pijnenburg et al., 2000, 2003).

46 The clinical diagnosis of ATFL insufficiency is made based on the medical 47 history and the anterior drawer test (ADT), a maneuver that provides a 4-point scale of 48 the anterior laxity of the ankle while pulling the rearfoot anteriorly (Ferran & Maffulli, 49 2006; Vuurberg et al., 2018). The ADT is also applied to determine the severity of 50 lateral ankle ligament injuries; there is no laxity on the ADT in a grade I, mild laxity 51 in a grade II, and moderate to severe laxity in a grade III (Ferran & Maffulli, 2006). 52 Because the ADT is just a 4-point scale which is estimated by the surgeons' manual 53 feeling, it is difficult to compare the results from different examiners and to detect a 54 small difference. Some studies reported that ADT may not be sufficient to diagnose 55 ATFL injuries and its low reproducibility (Fujii et al., 2000; Lahde et al., 1988). 56 Although recent modifications of the ADT maneuver improved the accuracy for the 57 determination of lateral ankle instability (Li et al., 2020; Phisitkul et al., 2009), ADT is 58 still lacking in objectivity and ability to provide quantitative values.

Stress radiography is an established method to quantitatively evaluate the
anterior laxity of the ankle with a high reliability (Hubbard et al., 2004; Lohrer et al.,
2008). However, sprained ankle patients often resist stress due to pain or discomfort
(Cho et al., 2016; Rijke, 1995). Moreover, radiation exposure is a great concern about

63 the stress radiography to limit its general application. On the other hand, another 64 potential measurement methods for ankle anterior laxity is an ultrasound and instrumented measurement devices which are non-invasive and useful in the clinical 65 66 setting (Campbell et al., 1994; Docherty & Rybak-Webb, 2009; Gehring et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2014; Radwan et al., 2016). In recent years, stress ultrasound has been 67 68 developed to examine ankle anterior laxity (Cho et al., 2016; Croy et al., 2012; Lee et 69 al., 2014). However, the ultrasound has a limitation of the capturing range and is unable 70 to evaluate the ankle joint kinematics comprehensively. As for instrumented 71 measurement devices, a number of devices have been developed, however there are 72 reports that they are not suitable for detecting ankle instability in clinical setting; their 73 usefulness remains questionable (de Vries et al., 2010; Kerkhoffs et al., 2005; Wenning 74 et al., 2019).

75 A three-dimensional motion tracking system using electromagnetic sensors 76 (EMS) has a great accuracy to capture the relative movement between the objects and 77 has been applied for several joint motion assessments with the benefit of non-78 invasiveness to the human body (Ahldén et al., 2012; Araki et al., 2011; Delorme et al., 79 2005; Du & Yanai, 2020; Gatt et al., 2020; Hoshino et al., 2007; Manocha et al., 2019). 80 Delorme et al. first utilized EMS to evaluate three rotations of the ankle motion, i.e. 81 dorsi-/planter flexion, inversion/eversion, and internal/external rotation (Delorme et al., 82 2005), although an EMS has a potential to evaluate full 6 degree-of-freedom evaluation 83 of the joint motion including three rotations and three translations. Recent technical 84 improvement of the EMS application for joint movement evaluation can be 85 implemented to quantitatively evaluate the ADT of the ankle. 86 The aim of this study was to validate the measurement of the ADT of the ankle 87 using EMS in comparison to the radiographic evaluation and to evaluate the precision

- 88 and reproducibility of ADT of the ankle using EMS. Our hypothesis was that there
- 89 would be a good correlation between the anterior translation of the ankle joint measured
- 90 using EMS and radiography and an acceptable reproducibility of the EMS measurement
- 91 for the ADT would be obtained.
- 92

93 Methods

94 Six feet of four healthy volunteers (three males/one female, 31.3 ± 10.1 y. o.) were 95 included to compare the measurement of the ADT of the ankle using EMS and the

96 radiographic evaluation. Three participants did not present any physical limitations or

97 musculoskeletal injuries that could affect testing, one participant had a history of an

98 ankle sprain. A single well-experienced foot and ankle surgeon performed the ADT five

99 times for each foot while quantitative evaluations were conducted using EMS and

100 fluoroscopy simultaneously (Figure 1). A total of 30 tests were evaluated and compared

101 between the values obtained from EMS and radiographic evaluations.

102 Ethical approval was obtained from our institutional review board prior to this

103 study (ID No. B190150). Informed consent was obtained from all individual

104 participants.



107 Figure 1. The experimental setting and the positions of the sensors and the bone-based 108 landmarks for the lower leg and the foot. (a) The anterior drawer test was performed by 109 an examiner while recording the ankle movement using an electromagnetic tracking 110 system and a fluoroscopy simultaneously. (b) Three sensors were fixed to the tibia (S1), 111 the lateral side of the calcaneus (S2), and the medial side of the first metatarsal bone 112 (S3). The five anatomical landmarks on the lower leg were the intersection of the 113 medial collateral ligament and the knee joint line (P1), the distal end of the fibula head (P2), the center of the tibial tubercle (P3), the peak of the medial malleolus (P4), and the 114 115 peak of the lateral malleolus (P5). The five anatomical landmarks on the foot were the 116 center of the first metatarsal bone head (P6), the medial and lateral edges of the second metatarsal bone (P7, 8), the center of the fifth metatarsal bone head (P9), and the 117 118 attachment of the Achilles tendon (P10).

119 Equipment

120 An electromagnetic sensor system (LIBERTY, Polhemus, Colchester, VT, USA) was 121 utilized, and four sensors were employed in this experiment. Three sensors were fixed 122 to the tibia, the lateral side of the calcaneus, and the medial side of the first metatarsal 123 bone. The fourth sensor was applied to register the three-dimensional (3D) positions of 124 the bone-based landmarks for the lower leg and the foot in relation to the other fixed 125 three sensors. The five anatomical landmarks on the lower leg were the intersection of 126 the medial collateral ligament and the knee joint line (P1), the distal end of the fibula 127 head (P2), the center of the tibial tubercle (P3), the peak of the medial malleolus (P4), 128 and the peak of the lateral malleolus (P5). The five anatomical landmarks on the foot 129 were the center of the first metatarsal bone head (P6), the medial and lateral edges of the 130 second metatarsal bone (P7, 8), the center of the fifth metatarsal bone head (P9), and the 131 attachment of the Achilles tendon (P10) (Figure 1). The lower leg and the foot were 132 virtually recognized based on the registered 3D position data of the landmarks as rigid 133 objects in reflection to the sensors that were attached to the skin. The coordinate system 134 of the ankle joint according to Wu et al was then established to provide the 6 degree-offreedom kinematics (Wu et al., 2002). The center of P4 and P5 was used as the origin of 135 136 the lower leg and the foot. The medial and lateral (M-L) axis of the ankle joint was the 137 line connecting P4 and P5, and rotation around this axis was defined as 138 dorsiflexion/plantarflexion and translation along this axis was defined as medial/lateral. 139 The anterior and posterior (A-P) axis of the ankle joint was the line perpendicular to the 140 torsional plane of the lower leg (the plane connecting P4, P5 and the point located 141 midway between P1and P2), and rotation around this axis was defined as 142 inversion/eversion and translation along this axis was defined as anterior/posterior. The 143 proximal and distal (P-D) axis of the ankle joint was the common line perpendicular to the M-L axis and A-P axis, and rotation around this axis was defined as internal 144

145 rotation/external rotation and translation along this axis was defined as proximal/distal. 146 The manufacturer reported this EMS had a root-mean-square accuracy of 0.76 mm for 147 position and 0.15° for orientation when it was used within 106 cm of a transmitter-to-148 receiver separation, and validation study has shown a root-mean-square accuracy as low 149 as 0.20 mm to be consistent with these claims (Nafis et al., 2006). Ankle kinematics 150 data were acquired with 240 Hz during the ADT. The 6 degree-of-freedom of the ankle 151 joint was obtained as shown in figure 2. The difference between the maximum and 152 minimum value of the anterior translation during an ADT was calculated and compared 153 to the fluoroscopic evaluation.

Another 20 feet of ten healthy volunteers (nine males/one female, 34.1 ± 8.6 y. o.) were included to evaluate the ADT measurement reliability. Fifteen feet had a history of an ankle sprain. Three examiners performed anterior drawer test 5 times for each foot while quantitative evaluations were conducted using EMS. A total of 300 tests were evaluated, and Interclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) for inter and intra-observer reliability were calculated.

160 A lateral view of the ankle joint was captured by a fluoroscopy during the ADT. 161 In order to measure the anterior translation of the ankle joint in the fluoroscopic image, 162 a baseline was set connecting the anterior and posterior tip of the tibial articular surface, 163 and two perpendicular lines to the baseline were drawn at the posterior edge of the tibial 164 cortex and the posterior edge of the talus. The distance between the perpendicular lines through the posterior edges of the tibia and talus was calculated as the anterior-posterior 165 166 position of the ankle joint (Figure 2). The distance was corrected with respect to the size 167 of a 1cm diameter metal ball which was attached in front of the ankle and captured in 168 the same image. The difference between the maximum and the minimum anterior-169 posterior positions during the ADT was calculated as the anterior translation of the

- ankle joint according to previous reports (Johannsen, 1978; Lohrer et al., 2008; Seligson
- 171 et al., 1980).



174 Figure 2. An example of the 6 degree-of-freedom measurement of the ankle joint during 175 the anterior drawer test (ADT) and anterior-posterior position of the ankle joint in a fluoroscopic image. (a) The ADT was repeated 5 times. The difference between the 176 177 maximum and minimum value of the anterior translation during an ADT (double arrow) 178 was calculated. (b) Baseline; intersects anterior and posterior tip of the tibial articular 179 surface. Line 1; perpendicular to the baseline which insets the posterior edge of the 180 tibial cortex. Line 2; perpendicular to the baseline which insets the posterior edge of the 181 talus. Anterior-posterior position of the ankle joint; the distance between Line 1 and 182 Line 2 on the baseline.

185 Statistical analysis

All measurements were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). The 186 Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated to evaluate the correlation between the 187 188 two anterior talar displacements measured using the EMS and fluoroscope. ICC was 189 used to assess inter and intra-examiner reliability for the anterior translation of the ankle 190 joint measured using EMS. In reference to a previous study, the categorization of ICC 191 scores was determined *a priori*, whereby ICC < 0.50 indicates poor agreement, $0.50 \leq$ 192 ICC < 0.75 indicates moderate agreement, $0.75 \le$ ICC < 0.90 indicates good agreement, 193 and ICC \geq 0.90 indicates excellent agreement (Koo & Li, 2016). The results were 194 analyzed statistically using EZR (Saitama Medical Center, Jichi Medical University, 195 Saitama, Japan), which is a graphical user interface for R (The R Foundation for 196 Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria)(Kanda, 2013). Statistical significance was set at 197 a *p* value of 0.05.

198 **Results**

199 Correlation between the anterior translation of the ankle joint measured using 200 EMS and radiography

- 201 Anterior translation of the ankle joint during ADT by EMS was 8.1 \pm 5.7mm [range
- 202 2.6mm 21.0mm], whereas that by radiographic evaluation was 3.6 ± 2.4 mm [range
- 203 1.4mm 9.0mm]. There was a significant positive correlation between the anterior
- translation of the ankle joint measured using EMS and radiography (p<0.01). The
- 205 correlation coefficient was 0.91 (Figure 3).
- 206



207

Figure 3. Correlation between the anterior translation of the ankle joint measured usingEMS and fluoroscope.

- 211 Inter and intra-examiner reliability for the anterior translation of the ankle
- 212 *joint measured using EMS*
- 213 The anterior translation of the three examiners averaged 5.0 ± 2.2 mm, 5.7 ± 2.7 mm,
- and 5.2 ± 2.7 mm, respectively. The ICC of inter-examiner reliability was 0.89, and the
- 215 ICC of intra-examiner reliability was 0.99; good inter-examiner agreement and
- 216 excellent intra-examiner agreement were achieved. Furthermore, the mean anterior
- translation for the foot with and without a history of sprain was 6.4 ± 2.2 mm and $2.7 \pm$
- 218 1.8 mm, indicating a significant difference (p < 0.001).

220 Discussion and Implications

The main finding of this study was that there was a strong positive correlation between the anterior translation of the ankle joint measured using EMS and radiographic evaluation. Another key finding was that a high inter and intra-examiner reliability was obtained in the EMS measurement of the anterior translation of the ankle during the ADT. Therefore, a quantitative evaluation of the ADT of the ankle could be achievable in a non-invasive manner and, thus, widely used in the clinical setting.

227 The ADT is the most common and conventional procedure to test ankle 228 instability after ankle sprains (Vuurberg et al., 2018). However, in a cadaveric study, the 229 impact of the ATFL on the anterior displacement of the talus was only 2 to 4 mm (Fujii 230 et al., 2000), which is difficult to detect by manual testing consistently. Lahde et al. 231 reported that 28% of ATFL tears were not detected by ADT (Lahde et al., 1988). Thus, 232 a quantitative assessment of ADT is desirable to detect such a small change due to 233 ATFL insufficiency. The root-mean-square accuracy of the electromagnetic sensor 234 system was reported from 0.20 to 0.76 mm (Nafis et al., 2006), which seems to be 235 sufficient to detect 2mm difference. In the current study, the mean anterior translation 236 for the ankle with and without a history of sprain was 6.4 ± 2.2 mm and 2.7 ± 1.8 mm 237 respectively, the difference was similar to that of the previous cadaveric study (Fujii et 238 al., 2000). The EMS measurements were able to detect a significant difference between 239 the anterior translation with and without a history of sprain. Taken together, the results 240 suggested that the EMS could be a useful tool to diagnose ATFL insufficiency.

Recently, ADT has been modified to ALDT (Phisitkul et al., 2009; Vaseenon et al., 2012) or reverse ALDT (Li et al., 2020). ALDT is performed with one hand stabilizing the leg just above the ankle joint and the other hand providing a combination of the anteriorly directed force, measurement of talar translation, and control of ankle plantarflexion (Phisitkul et al., 2009). One cadaveric study reported that ALDT was
more accurate than ADT to diagnose lateral ligament injuries (Phisitkul et al., 2009).
Reverse ALDT was performed to palpate the posterior displacement of the tibia. Li et
al. reported higher sensitivity and specificity in the reverse ALDT than conventional
ADT (Li et al., 2020). Although these newly introduced tests were not utilized in the
current study, they could improve the measurement accuracy and sensitivity to detect
the abnormal anterior laxity of the ankle.

252 Stress radiography is well-known as a gold standard method of measuring the 253 anterior ankle laxity. Lohrer et al. assessed several stress radiographic tests for the ankle 254 joint and demonstrated acceptable reliability in the ADT (Lohrer et al., 2008). Hubbard 255 et al. reported its clinical utility to assess functional ankle instability (Hubbard et al., 256 2004). However, a wide clinical application of the radiographic assessment is largely 257 limited due to radiation exposure. Moreover, it is well known that pain and discomfort 258 caused by the instrumented stress to the ankle during the test depreciate the radiographic 259 assessment, and anesthetics or regional nerve block was suggested (Rijke, 1995). The 260 EMS measurement could be a good alternative to the radiographic evaluation without 261 radiation concerns and painful loading instrumentations.

262 Measurement using ultrasound has been attracting attention for quantitative 263 assessment of ankle instability. Cho et al. described the deformity of the ATFL under 264 the external stress to demonstrate better sensitivity of ATFL insufficiency (Cho et al., 265 2016). Also, ATFL length was suggested to be related to the severity of ADT (Lee et 266 al., 2014). The direct assessment of the ATFL structure might be better achieved by the 267 ultrasound, but the accuracy of the ultrasound measurement highly depends on the 268 technical proficiency especially when a stress test is applied. Also, the entire joint 269 movement cannot be assessed by the limited range of the ultrasound assessment. On the other hand, the EMS measurement of the anterior translation during the ADT showed a
very high intra and inter-examiner reliability, suggesting that it would be a consistent
evaluation of the ankle anterior laxity independent of the examiner's proficiency.

273 An EMS has been applied to the knee joint especially for evaluating knee joint 274 laxity testing, such as pivot-shift test and Lachman test (Ahldén et al., 2012; Araki et 275 al., 2011; Hoshino et al., 2007; Nagai et al., 2015; Tanaka et al., 2018). Unlimited 276 clinical application of the EMS measurement has enabled to perform several clinical 277 studies to improve clinical diagnosis and treatments of the knee joint (Araki et al., 2011; 278 Hiroshima et al., 2020; Hoshino et al., 2019, 2020; Miyaji et al., 2019). Furthermore, 279 the EMS measurement has a great advantage of 6DOF measurement unlike 2D 280 evaluation of fluoroscopy. In addition to anterior translation, other rotations and 281 translations can be evaluated and might be useful to assess severity of the ankle lateral 282 ligament injury and/or concomitant injuries affecting ankle kinematics. The application 283 of the EMS to the ankle could have a great potential to enhance the clinical diagnosis 284 and treatment of the ankle similarly to the knee joint.

285 The accuracy of EMS is known to be affected by the metal or other source 286 which causes a distortion of the magnetic field. Fluoroscopy was located closely to the 287 measurement electromagnetic field, therefore measurement errors due to a magnetic 288 field distortion had been anticipated. Therefore, prior to each testing session, no 289 magnetic field distortion in the testing environment was verified by confirming a 290 consistent evaluation of a defined distance and angle between sensors which were fixed 291 in the scaled platform. Furthermore, it was reaffirmed that a consistent waveform was 292 obtained after the measurement. Thus, the quantitative evaluation using EMS was free 293 from magnetic field distortion in the experimental setting.

There are some limitations in this research. At first, the sample size was small. A

295 larger number of subjects might exemplify the diverse conditions of the ankle joint, but 296 this study did not focus on the diagnosis of the ankle joint but on the measurement 297 accuracy. Therefore, each single testing movement of the ankle can be dealt with as a 298 separate subject in this study. A total of 30 tests were assumed to be sufficient to test the 299 correlation between the two measurements. Secondly, soft tissue movement between a 300 sensor and bones affects the measurement accuracy of the EMS. The locations of the 301 sensor placement were selected to minimize the soft tissue interference, and the skin 302 motion around the ankle is relatively small compared to the other joints especially when 303 the ADT is performed in a gentle manner. However, the effect of skin motion should be 304 properly tested by a cadaver experiment. Lastly, the EMS requires additional procedures 305 to set up the coordinate system of ankle joint movement before testing and to analyze 306 the acquired data after testing, and the whole evaluation process is not necessarily short 307 compared to the other measurement systems and might affect the clinical usability of 308 the EMS.

The clinical relevance of this study is that the EMS measurement of the ADT can be used as a quantitative evaluation of anterior ankle laxity in place of the radiographic assessment in the clinical setting. Future applications for clinical study and practice are highly expected.

313

314 Conclusions

A newly introduced electromagnetic measurement of the anterior ankle laxity during ADT could provide a comparable evaluation to the radiographic assessment and the high precision and reproducibility. The electromagnetic measurement can be an acceptable alternative to the radiographic assessment of the ADT in the clinical setting.

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