Management of Posterior Cruciate Ligament Injuries

Essay Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of Master Degree of Orthopedic Surgery

By

MOHAMED HASSAN ELSAID M.B.B.Ch.

Under supervision of

Prof. Osama Mohamed Shata

Prof. of orthopedic surgery Ain Shams University

Dr. Tamer Abd El Megeuid Fayyad

Lecturer of orthopedic surgery Ain Shams University

Ain Shams University 2008

CONTENT

Subject	Page
INTRODUCTION	1
AIM OF THE WORK	3
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	4
Anatomy of Posterior Cruciate Ligament (PCL).	4
Biomechanics.	10
Mechanism of injury.	20
Diagnosis.	24
Treatment.	43
Complications.	81
Rehabilitation.	91
SUMMARY	97
REFERENCES	100
ARABIC SUMMARY	

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
Table (1): Kinematic changes in response to isolated and	18
combined injury of the PCL and posterolateral	
structures (PLS) under a posterior drawer test.	
Table (2): Change in activity level from preinjury to follow-	52
up by PCL laxity grade.	
Table (3) Treatment guideline for avulsion fractures of the	56
PCL	

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
Fig. 1. Lateral surface of medial condyle of femur	4
Fig. 2. Posterior upper portion of the tibia and superior	5
surface of the tibia	
Fig. 3. Anatomy of the PCL insertion.	6
Fig. 4. Posterior view of knee joint demonstrating blood	9
supply of the knee & middle genicular artery	
Fig. 5. Tensioning of various bands of the posterior cruciate	10
ligaments in extension and flexion.	
Fig. 6. A plot of average length of the anterior-lateral (AL)	11
and posterior-medial (PM) bundles of the PCL versus	
flexion angle	
Fig. 7. Comparisons of posterior tibial translation before and	15
after complete posterior cruciate ligament (PCL)	
section with knee flexed 20° and 90°.	
Fig. 8. Graph illustrating anterior-posterior (A-P) laxity with	19
the knee in 0°, 30°, 60°, and 90° of flexion.	
Fig. 9. Mechanism of a PCL tear during a football tackle	21
Fig. 10. Fall on flexed knee with foot planter flexed	21
Fig. 11. Forced hyperextension injury	22
Fig. 12. posterior drawer test	28
Fig. 13. A positive Godfrey's test	29
Fig. 14. Quadriceps active test.	۳.
Fig. 15. Dial test.	٣١
Fig. 16. Reverse pivot shift test.	31
Fig. 17. Varus and valgus stress tests	32
Fig. 18. Radiographic appearance of PCL lesions. A, AP	33
radiograph demonstrating an avulsion fracture of the	
fibular head, B, AP radiograph demonstrates a	
Pellegrini-Stieda lesion	
Fig. 19. Reverse Segond	33
Fig. 20. Patient positioned in the Telos device	34

Fig. 21. Measurement of posterior tibial displacement on	35
posterior stress radiograph in 90° of flexion.	
Fig. 22. Longitudinal US image demonstrateing normal PCL	36
Fig. 23. Longitudinal US image in the PCL	36
Fig. 24. Sagittal reformation of CT scan shows avulsion	37
fracture fragments	
Fig. 25. Normal MR imaging anatomy of the PCL.	38
Fig. 26. Sagittal T1-weighted image through the expected	39
region of the PCL	
Fig. 27. Corresponding turbo T2-weighted image	39
Fig. 28. Acute tear of the PCL.	41
Fig. 29. A- Treatment algorithm for acute posterior cruciate	44
ligament injuries. B- Treatment algorithm for chronic	
posterior cruciate ligament injuries	
Fig. 30. Posterior view of a right knee. The arthroscope is	55
placed through a posteromedial portal	
Fig. 31. Postoperative radiographs showing a medium- sized	57
fragment reduced and fixed with two Kirschner wires	
Fig. 32. Postoperative radiographs showing a small fragment	57
without comminution reduced and fixed with a 23-	
gauge wire	
Fig. 33. Postoperative radiographs showing a definite large	57
one-piece avulsed fragment reduced and fixed with	
two cannulated screws	
Fig. 34. Harvesting techniques for quadriceps tendon-	61
patellar bone autograft	
Fig. 35. Optimal position for tibial (A) and femoral (B)	63
tunnels for single-bundle PCL reconstruction	
Fig. 36. Intraoperative lateral radiograph with K-wire	63
indicating correct placement of the tibial tunnel	
Fig. 37. Femoral tunnel placement using drill guide in 1- to	65
2-o'clock position of the anterolateral component of	
the PCL	
Fig. 38. Optimal positions for placement of dual femoral	66
tunnels during double bundle PCL reconstruction	

Fig. 39. The distal femur with bone tunnel in the medial	67
femoral condyle is shown on the top right.	
Fig. 40. Arthroscopic techniques for PCL reconstruction	68
with Achilles tendon allograft	
Fig. 41. Tibial inlay technique. A, Lateral decubitus position	70
for initial arthroscopy and graft harvesting. B, With	
the knee extended and the leg abducted, the popliteal	
fossa is accessible for exposure of the posterior tibial	
graft-fixation site	
Fig. 42. Quadriceps tendon harvest and preparation	71
Fig. 43. Preparation of femoral tunnel	72
Fig. 44. The tibial inlay technique for posterior cruciate	74
ligament reconstruction with double bundle technique	
Fig. 45. The tibial inlay technique for posterior cruciate	76
ligament reconstruction with single bundle technique	
Fig. 46. Transilluminated grafts from a matched pair of	77
knees after the completion of mechanical testing. The	
graft on the left is from a knee that underwent the	
inlay reconstruction while the graft on the right is	
from the contralateral knee that underwent tunnel	
reconstruction	
Fig. 47. Posterior tibial translation in the intact knee, PCL	79
deficient knee, transtibial reconstructed knee, and	
tibial inlay reconstructed knee	
Fig. 48. Posterior translation at the different flexion angles	80
for each of the testing conditions.	
Fig. 49. A, the inlay supports the calf to reduce posterior	86
sagging. B, the posterior tibial support brace	
Fig. 50. Lateral radiographs demonstrating decrease in	87
posterior tibial translation after increasing tibial slope	
under 134-N posterior tibial load. A, intact knee; B,	
PCL-deficient knee; C, PCL-deficient knee with	
osteotomy	
Fig. 51. MRI showing Lateral femoral condyle bone bruise	89
that occurred in a patient with a grade III PCL injury	
and a medial collateral ligament tear	



Acknowledgement

In the name of Allah, most beneficent, the most merciful. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to *Prof Dr. Osama Mohamed Shata*, Professor of orthopedic surgery, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University, for giving me the privilege of supervising this essay and for his constructive encouragement, Illuminating guidance as well as his support throughout this work.

My gratitude and thank to *Dr. Tamer Abd El Megeuid Fayyad* Lecturer of orthopedic surgery,
Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University, for
the time he spent and the effort he paid In
helping me during this work. It was a great honor
and a chance of a life time to work with him.

To all who shared in a way or another to make the - dream of conducting such a study comes true, thank you.

Last but not least, my thanks to my wife and all my family for their great assistance, support and help.

Introduction

The posterior curciate ligament (PCL) is described as the primary stabilizer of the knee by many authors. Posterior curcaite ligament (PCL) injuries are less common than anterior curciate ligament (ACL) injuries & they often go unrecognized. The PCL is broader & stronger than ACL with a tensile strength of 2000N (1).

The posterior curciate ligament (PCL) originates from the intercondylar notch of the femur on the roof of the medial femoral condyle. The insertion is central on the posterior aspect of the tibial plateau, on a depression between the medial and lateral tibial plateau, extending 1 cm below the articular surface (2).

The primary function of the posterior cruciate ligament (PCL) is to prevent the posterior translation of the tibia on the femur. Posterior cruciate ligament (PCL) also plays a role as central axis controlling rotational stability of the knee (3).

The PCL injuries may be misdiagnosed in acute knee injuries which are common among athletes. The commonest mechanism of injury of PCL is direct trauma to the front of upper flexed tibia (4).

The injury may be isolated or associated with another injury, complete, partial or avulsion from bony attachment, it all depend on the mechanism &severity of the injury. Diagnosis can be achieved by clinical &radiological techniques (5).

Treatment of PCL injuries is controversial, non-operative treatment have been recommended for isolated tears, but reconstruction is better for PCL injuries associated with another injuries. The choice of specific option best suited for a particular patient is based on the injury pattern, the structures that are deficient, the patient's age, level of expectation& the experiences of the surgeon. Avulsions may be sutured or fixed by screw, if the bone fragment was large enough, by open or arthroscopic surgery. Numerous techniques have been advocated to reconstruct the PCL. The semitendinosus tendon, combined gracilis semitendinosus substitutes &bone-patellar tendon-bone auto graft were used (5,6).

Arthroscopic reconstruction of PCL is advancing, single &double tunnel reconstruction was described. Interest is increasing in techniques that allow direct fixation of a tibial bone plug, the tibial inlay technique allows that (5).

PCL injuries surgery, in addition to postoperative complications, may be complicated with loss of motion ,instability ,failure of reconstruction ,neurovascular injuries or osteonecrosis of medial femoral condyle (7).

AIM OF THE WORK

The aim of this study is to give an attention to PCL injuries which
was misdiagnosed and underestimated in the past and to provide an up to
date methods of treatment of this kind of injuries.

Anatomy of the Posterior Curciate Ligament

Gross anatomy

The cruciate ligaments appear to be in fact crossed in space. They are crossed in sagittal plane and in the frontal plane. In the horizontal plane by contrast they run in parallel to each other and are in contact at their axial borders. The cruciate ligaments don't have the same angle of inclination thus in full extension the anterior cruciate ligament is more horizontal, their femoral insertion show similar difference thus; the insertion of posterior cruciate is horizontal, while that of anterior cruciate ligament is vertical (8).

The posterior cruciate ligament (PCL) is named for its insertion on the tibia. It originates from the lateral surface of the medial femoral condyle and passes posteriorly and laterally behind the ACL. The PCL has an area of origin shaped as a segment of a circle. The attachment is generally oriented near the horizontal plane with the lower boundary being convex and congruent with the articular margin of the condyle. The dimensions of the PCL origin from the medial femoral condyle average 32 mm in the anteroposterior direction (Fig.1). The most distal fibers, on average, extend to within 3mm of the articular cartilage of the condyle (9).

Fig. 1. Lateral surface of medial condyle of femur showing average measurements and relationships of femoral attachment of posterior cruciate ligament (shaded area) (5).

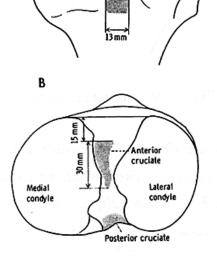
Level of adductor tubercle

.

The femoral insertion site characteristics of the PCL were recently mapped and found to have a broad attachment with an angle of $88^{\circ} \pm 5.5^{\circ}$ to the roof. The anterior portion inserts in a more vertical orientation compared with the posterior portion, which inserts on the flat intercondylar surface (10).

The tibial attachment of PCL is to the depression behind the intraarticular upper surface of the tibia and extends for 3 mm on the adjoining superior surface of the tibia (fig.2). Near its tibial attachment, a separate slip arises to blend with the posterior horn of lateral meniscus. It's narrowest at midportion and fans out superiorly. The width of the tibial attachment averages 13mm and varies with the width of the intercondylar notch (9).

Fig. 2. Posterior upper portion of the tibia (A) and superior surface of the tibia (B), showing the average measurements and relationships of the tibial attachments of the anterior and posterior cruciate ligaments.(5)



Α

Posterior

The average length of the PCL is 38mm and average width is 13mm compared to 11mm for the ACL.PCL is approximately 1.5 as large as the ACL at femoral and midsubstance level, it also increase in size from tibial to femoral insertion where the ACL demonstrate the exact oppsite trend (11).

Investigators have divided the PCL into various components or bundles on the basis of their tensioning patterns. The ligament consist of three main components: the anterolateral bundle, the posteromedial bundle, and the meniscofemoral ligaments (ligaments of Humphry and Wrisberg). The components have been shown to possess unique anatomic and biomechanical properties as well as specific sites of bone insertion. The anterolateral component runs from the anterior aspect of the intercondylar surface of the medial femoral condyle posterolaterally to insert on the lateral aspect of the posterior tibial fossa. The posteromedial bundle arises from the posterior portion of the femoral insertion site and extends obliquely to insert on the medial aspect of the posterior tibial fossa (fig.3). The anterolateral bundle tightens with a knee flexion, whereas the posteromedial component tightens with knee extension. (12)

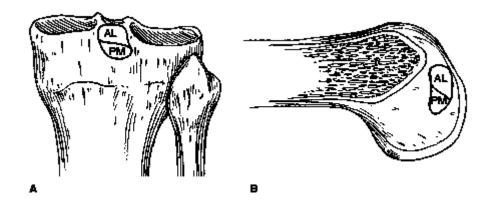


Fig. 3. Anatomy of the PCL insertion. A, Outline of the anterolateral bundle (AL) and posteromedial bundle (PM) of the PCL tibial insertion. B, Femoral origin (5).

The meniscofemoral ligaments (MFLs) represent accessory knee ligament that attach to the medial femoral condyle in the region of PCL, present in 71% to 100% of the dissected knees consist of the anterior ligament of Humphrey and the posterior ligament of Wrisberg. The posterior MFL of Wrisberg originates from the posterior horn of the

lateral meniscus, posterior tibia or posterior capsule and crosses obliquely posterior to the PCL to a separated insertion site on the medial femoral condyle, may be as large as 50% of diameter of the PCL. The anterior MFL of Humphrey arises from the posterior horn of the lateral meniscus, passes along the anterior aspect of the PCL to insert on the medial femoral condyle. MFLs serve as a minor restraint to posterior translation of the tibia when the PCL is cut, but they are believed to play an important role in meniscal kinematics (11).

Synovial covering

Although it's within the knee, the PCL is completely surrounded by synovial sleeve. It's therefore entirely extra-articular in an anatomic sense. The PCL is covered with synovial tissue that is reflected from the posterior capsule and covers the ligament on its anterior, medial, and lateral aspects. Distaly the PCL blends with the posterior capsule and periosteum. The synovial covering is evidently thicker and more compelete than that of the ACL (13).

Functional anatomy

The major control of the knee stability has been ascribed to the PCL. This strong ligament, which according to tensile testing is approximately two times stronger than any other ligaments around the knee (14).

The PCL plays many major roles as:

- It prevents posterior translation of the tibia on the femur (3).
- It plays a role as central axis controlling rotational stability of the knee as it resists varus-valgus angulation of the tibia especially in