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1 **TITLE**

2 Exploring Predictors of Primary ACL Injury Risk in Military Cadets: The Role of Lower  
3 Extremity Strength and Demographics

4

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Online First

1 Exploring Predictors of Primary ACL Injury Risk in Military Cadets: The Role of Lower  
2 Extremity Strength and Demographics

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5 **Context:** Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries are prevalent in active populations,  
6 posing significant health risks. Despite advancements in surgery and rehabilitation,  
7 effectively preventing long-term health complications remains a significant challenge,  
8 underscoring the critical importance of developing effective ACL injury prevention  
9 strategies. Existing research into the risk of ACL injuries, in relation to lower extremity  
10 strength and demographic factors, often presents conflicting findings. These studies are  
11 frequently limited by small sample sizes or a narrow focus on specific muscle groups.

12 **Objective:** To explore the association between lower extremity strength, as measured  
13 by maximum voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC), demographic factors, and the risk  
14 of ACL injuries in a large sample of military cadets.

15 **Design:** Prospective Cohort Study

16 **Setting:** Military service academies

17 **Patients or Other Participants:** A total of 2,187 female and 3,432 male military cadets  
18 were recruited from three US military service academies.

19 **Intervention(s):** Cadets underwent baseline testing in the summer prior to their  
20 freshman year. Testing included demographics and MVICs for six muscle groups  
21 including the quadriceps, hamstrings, gluteus maximus, gluteus medius, and hip internal  
22 and external rotators. Cadets were prospectively followed for primary ACL injury  
23 incidence, from date of enrollment to graduation from service academy.

24 **Main Outcome Measure(s):** Multivariable logistic regression analyses were conducted  
25 to examine the association between MVIC values and primary ACL injury risk while  
26 controlling for demographic factors.

27 **Results:** There were 101 (38 females, 63 males) cadets that went on to sustain a  
28 primary ACL injury within their time at the academy. The results of this study found that  
29 greater gluteus maximus strength (OR = 0.32;  $P = 0.007$ ) was associated with a  
30 decreased risk of ACL injury in military cadets. Cadets matriculating with higher BMI  
31 (OR = 1.09,  $P = 0.01$ ) was associated with an increased risk of primary ACL injury in  
32 military cadets. All other factors were not statistically significant for predicting primary  
33 ACL injury risk.

34 **Conclusion:** This study suggests that greater gluteus maximus strength may have a  
35 protective effect against prospective ACL injury. Conversely, higher BMI appears to be  
36 a risk factor for prospective ACL injury. These findings may have important implications  
37 for the identification of at-risk individuals for targeted ACL injury prevention programs in  
38 military cadet populations.

39 **Key Words:** Anterior cruciate ligament injuries, military cadets, isometric lower  
40 extremity strength, risk factors.

41 **Word Count ~4,100**

42 **Key Points:** These results highlight the importance of assessing gluteus maximus  
43 strength and BMI when identifying individuals at risk for primary ACL injury. Greater  
44 gluteus maximus strength may have a protective effect against prospective ACL injury  
45 since it controls motion in three planes.

## 46 **Introduction**

47 Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries, notably prevalent in athletic populations,  
48 present significant challenges by impacting individual health and overall team  
49 performance both immediately and long-term.<sup>1,2</sup> In the United States, there are annually  
50 between 100,000 and 200,000 cases of ACL injuries.<sup>3</sup> Despite advancements in  
51 surgical techniques and rehabilitation, these interventions have been insufficient in  
52 preventing long-term morbidity, underscoring the critical need for primary prevention  
53 strategies.<sup>1,2</sup> Particularly concerning is that over two-thirds of ACL injuries result from  
54 non-contact mechanisms<sup>8</sup>—such as cutting, pivoting, decelerating, or landing<sup>9</sup>—  
55 suggesting that many of these injuries, often a consequence of suboptimal movement  
56 patterns, could potentially be preventable.<sup>10</sup>

57  
58 ACL injuries are not only a concern for athletes but also pose significant challenges in  
59 military populations. Military service members experience a 10-fold higher incidence of  
60 ACL injuries compared to the general population due to the physically demanding  
61 aspects of military duties.<sup>11</sup> These injuries can significantly impact a service member's  
62 career and long-term physical readiness. Given the high injury burden, optimizing ACL  
63 injury prevention in military cadets is essential to preserving long-term health, ensuring  
64 operational readiness, and reducing medical discharges.

65  
66 Research has identified that ACL injury risk stems from a blend of extrinsic factors (e.g.,  
67 competition type, playing surfaces, weather conditions) and intrinsic factors (including  
68 age, sex, neuromuscular control, biomechanics, and physiological characteristics).<sup>12,13</sup>

69 These risk factors are further categorized as either non-modifiable (such as age and  
70 sex) or modifiable (like neuromuscular control deficits and poor biomechanics), with the  
71 latter offering opportunities for injury risk reduction through targeted interventions.<sup>14</sup>

72 Among non-modifiable factors, sex is well-established, with females generally showing  
73 a higher incidence of ACL injuries compared to males in similar sports and activities.<sup>2</sup>

74 Body mass index (BMI), while modifiable, has shown mixed results in its association  
75 with ACL injury risk, with some studies reporting higher BMI as a risk factor,<sup>15</sup> while  
76 others found no significant relationship.<sup>12</sup>

77  
78 Given the importance of modifiable risk factors, previous research has primarily focused  
79 on improving intrinsic factors, particularly those related to biomechanics and muscular  
80 strength.<sup>13</sup> Altered biomechanics are thought to influence both passive and dynamic  
81 stabilizers of the knee, affecting knee stability and injury risk.<sup>16</sup> Biomechanical models  
82 have shown that the ACL is most vulnerable during movements involving anterior tibial  
83 translation, knee valgus loading, and tibial internal rotation.<sup>17</sup> However, evidence directly  
84 linking knee biomechanics with future ACL injury risk is inconsistent.<sup>18</sup> Despite this  
85 inconsistency, altered movement patterns are consistently implicated as a primary risk  
86 factor for ACL injuries.<sup>19</sup>

87  
88 Although possessing modifiable risk factors may increase an individual's susceptibility  
89 to an ACL injury, it does not guarantee injury occurrence. Nevertheless, the emphasis  
90 on reducing the risk of ACL injury remains paramount. Given the protective potential of  
91 dynamic knee stabilizers, considerable research has investigated the impact of

92 muscular strength in the hip and knee muscles on ACL injury risk. Studies have  
93 examined various muscle groups including the quadriceps,<sup>20</sup> hamstrings,<sup>21</sup> gluteus  
94 medius,<sup>22</sup> gluteus maximus,<sup>22</sup> and hip rotators.<sup>22</sup> Greater muscle strength may improve  
95 joint alignment<sup>23</sup> and reduce injury-associated forces,<sup>21</sup> potentially minimizing reliance  
96 on passive structures like the ACL.<sup>21</sup> However, evidence linking decreased muscular  
97 strength to ACL injury risk remains inconclusive, with studies often limited by small  
98 sample sizes, cross-sectional or case-control designs, and inconsistent outcomes.<sup>24</sup>

99  
100 Thus, it is not clear whether decreased muscular strength or other modifiable factors  
101 such as BMI independently contribute to primary ACL injury risk. Therefore, the primary  
102 purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between maximal lower extremity  
103 isometric strength, BMI, and the risk of primary non-contact ACL injuries within a cohort  
104 of military cadets. By assessing multiple lower extremity muscle groups and BMI in a  
105 large, prospectively followed population, we aimed to identify specific risk factors that  
106 could inform targeted ACL injury prevention strategies. We hypothesized that reduced  
107 gluteus medius and hamstring muscle strength, due to their roles in frontal and sagittal  
108 plane stability of the knee, along with higher BMI, which may contribute to increased  
109 joint loading and greater forces to control during movement, would be associated with  
110 increased primary ACL injury risk.

## 111 **Methods**

112 The methods utilized in this study aimed to investigate the association between lower  
113 extremity maximum isometric strength predictors and primary anterior cruciate ligament  
114 (ACL) injury risk in a large sample of military cadets. The military cadets were enrolled

115 in the JUMP-ACL (Joint Undertaking to Monitor and Prevent ACL Injury) cohort study  
116 from 2004-2008, across three military academies (US Military Academy, US Air Force  
117 Academy, and the US Naval Academy). Females, on average, represent approximately  
118 16-21% of the military academy populations<sup>25</sup> were oversampled in the JUMP-ACL  
119 cohort in order to obtain sufficient numbers for adequate representation of both sexes.<sup>26</sup>

120

### 121 *Participants*

122 A total of 5,908 (2,279 Females) military cadets were included in the parent study if they  
123 were between the ages of 18 and 25 and were free from any lower extremity injuries or  
124 conditions that would affect their ability to perform the isometric strength and jump-  
125 landing tests. Additionally, only complete cases were kept for analysis (**Figure 1**).  
126 Missingness accounted for <3% of the dataset. After applying these criteria, 5,619  
127 cadets (2,187 Females) were included in the final analysis.

128

129 [Insert Figure 1 about here]

130

### 131 *Data Collection*

132 Participants underwent a battery of lower extremity strength tests, including maximal  
133 voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC) tests for their quadriceps, hamstrings, gluteus  
134 maximus, gluteus medius, and hip internal and external rotators. Additionally,  
135 participants' height, weight, and BMI were collected. A survey collected demographic  
136 information, such as age and sex, as well as information on any past ACL and other  
137 knee ligamentous injuries.



138

139 *MVIC Collection process*

140 The strength of the lower extremity muscles, including the quadriceps, hamstrings,  
141 gluteus medius, gluteus maximus, and hip internal and external rotators was evaluated  
142 using a hand-held dynamometer (Figure 2; NexGen Ergonomics, Quebec, Canada). At  
143 the time of data collection, the testing was carried out by a team of Certified Athletic  
144 Trainer Research Assistants, each of whom underwent a standardized training regimen  
145 and successfully passed a comprehensive validation assessment to ensure their  
146 competence. Previous research has shown their intra-rater reliability ( $ICC_{2,k}$ ) of the  
147 testing positions to range from 0.73 to 0.98.<sup>27</sup> These specific testing positions were  
148 selected to minimize participant movement while ensuring efficient assessment of  
149 strength, given that strength testing was integrated into the procedures of a large-scale  
150 data collection. In all included participants, the dominant limb, defined as the preferred  
151 leg to kick a ball, was used for testing. The dominant limb was selected for testing to  
152 maintain the highest standards, as the dominant limb is known to be as strong or  
153 stronger than the non-dominant limb.<sup>28</sup> Participants were asked to push into the  
154 dynamometer as hard as they could for five seconds. The mean force measurements  
155 from two 5-second trials were averaged. The recorded strength was measured in  
156 Newtons and then converted to torque by multiplying the force by the participant's lever  
157 arm length, which was measured as the distance from lateral femoral epicondyle of  
158 knee to location of the dynamometer for the quadriceps, hamstrings, and hip internal  
159 and external rotators and from the superior aspect of the greater trochanter location of

160 the dynamometer for the gluteus maximus and gluteus medius. Finally, the torque was  
161 normalized to the participant's body mass (Nm/kg).

162

163 [Insert Figure 2 about here]

164

### 165 *Data Analysis*

166 The binary outcome variable was whether the participant sustained a non-contact  
167 primary ACL injury during their 4 years at their respective military academy (Figure 1).

168 Only non-contact ACL injuries were included in this analysis to align with our focus on  
169 intrinsic risk factors. The independent predictor variables and the covariates were  
170 graphically analyzed for normality.

171

172 Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarize the sample characteristics, including  
173 means, standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals for MVIC values. The

174 strength variable distributions are shown in Figure 3 raincloud plot, split into Uninjured

175 and ACL Injured groups. Multivariable logistic regression analyses were then conducted

176 to examine the association between MVIC values and ACL injury risk while controlling

177 for demographic factors.

178

179 [Insert Figure 3 about here]

180

### 181 *Statistical Analysis*

182 The main outcome of interest was the occurrence of primary ACL injury during the 4-  
183 year follow-up period. Initially, means and standard deviations were calculated for  
184 continuous variables, and frequencies and proportions were calculated for categorical  
185 variables (Table 1). The associations between baseline body mass index (BMI) and  
186 lower extremity isometric strength measures and the subsequent primary ACL injury  
187 rate were examined for each individual strength measure. A multivariable logistic  
188 regression model was used to estimate the association between baseline BMI and  
189 lower extremity isometric strength measures and the odds ratio (OR) of primary ACL  
190 injury during follow-up. We interpreted that an OR greater than 1.0 would indicate an  
191 increased risk for primary ACL injury while an OR less than 1.0 would indicate a  
192 decreased risk. The model statistically controlled for the influence of potential  
193 confounding variables, including sex and age. All analyses were conducted using the  
194 Scikit-learn and Statsmodels frameworks within Python (v3.7). The significance level  
195 was set at  $P < 0.05$  for all analyses.

196

## 197 **Results**

198 A total of 5,908 military cadets across the three service academies were eligible for  
199 inclusion into this study. 289 cadets that were excluded for analyses had either 1) a  
200 history of at least one ACL injury or 2) were missing  $\geq 1$  strength variable. This resulted  
201 in 5,619 cadets being included in the final analysis, out of which 101 cadets sustained  
202 primary ACL injuries. In other words, 1.8% of military cadets in our sample went on to  
203 sustain an ACL injury during their 4-year time at their respective military academy.

204

205 The final study cohort consisted of 39% (2,187) females and 61% males (3,432). At  
206 baseline, participants had a mean age ( $\pm$ SD) of  $18.7 \pm 0.9$  years and a mean body  
207 mass index of  $23.9 \pm 2.9$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>. The demographics of the participants are broken down  
208 by group in Table 1. The descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 1 and were  
209 grouped by those that went on to sustain a primary ACL injury (ACL Injured) and those  
210 that did not (Uninjured).

211

212 [Insert Table 1 about here]

213

214 Baseline strength values (mean and SD) were provided for each group in Table 1 and  
215 further visualized in Figure 3, which illustrates the distribution of strength values across  
216 groups. For all but one muscle group, there were no demonstrable differences in  
217 baseline strength between those that went on to sustain an ACL injury and those that  
218 did not. However, there was a statistical difference in gluteus maximus strength, where  
219 cadets that went on to sustain an ACL injury had lower gluteus maximus strength than  
220 those that did not go on to injure their ACL (0.98 Nm/kg and 1.04 Nm/kg, respectively,  
221  $P=0.05$ , Table 1). Additionally, on average the ACL injured group had higher BMI than  
222 the uninjured group ( $24.5$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> and  $23.8$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively,  $P=0.01$ , Table 1).

223

224 Upon analysis of the multivariable logistic regression model and its associated odds  
225 ratios (Table 2.), BMI and gluteus maximus strength were the only variables associated  
226 with ACL injury risk. Controlling for other variables, the odds ratio and 95% confidence  
227 interval was 1.09 (1.02, 1.17;  $p=0.01$ ; Table 2) for BMI and 0.32 (0.14, 0.73;  $p=0.007$ ;

228 Table 2) for gluteus maximus strength. These results indicated that for every one-unit  
229 increase in matriculating cadets' BMI there was an associated 9% increase in the odds  
230 of sustaining an ACL injury during their 4-year time at their service academy. In  
231 contrast, for every 1 Nm/kg increase in matriculating cadet's gluteus maximus strength  
232 there was an associated 68% reduction in the odds of sustaining an ACL injury during  
233 their 4-year time at their service academy. Sex and age did not demonstrate predictive  
234 relationships with ACL injury risk in military cadets.

235

236 [Insert Table 2 about here]

237

### 238 **Discussion:**

239 This study, to our knowledge, is one of the largest investigations examining the  
240 relationship between maximal isometric strength of lower extremity muscles, BMI, and  
241 primary non-contact ACL injury risk. With a substantial sample size (5,517 uninjured  
242 and 101 ACL-injured cadets), we used standardized isometric strength assessments  
243 across six muscle groups, all performed in a prone position. This approach enhances  
244 measurement reliability and clinical feasibility, as it minimizes position changes,  
245 enabling efficient strength testing in time-constrained settings.

246

247 While ACL injury risk is multifactorial, our findings indicate that gluteus maximus  
248 strength and BMI are independent modifiable risk factors for ACL injury, emphasizing  
249 their importance in injury risk screenings and prevention strategies. In contrast, gluteus

250 medius and hamstring strength were not significantly associated with ACL injury risk,  
251 contrary to our hypothesis.

252

253 **Muscle Strength:**

254 Muscular strength is a modifiable injury risk factor and plays a critical role in dynamic  
255 knee stability, reducing reliance on passive structures like the ACL. Inadequate muscle  
256 strength may lead athletes to adopt compensatory strategies, potentially resulting in  
257 abnormal loading on the knee joint and an increased risk of ACL injury.<sup>21,22</sup>

258

259 ***Gluteus Maximus strength and primary ACL injury risk:***

260 In this study of military cadets, a one-unit (1 Nm/kg) increase in maximal isometric  
261 gluteus maximus strength resulted in a 68% reduction in the odds of ACL injury. The  
262 ACL-injured group demonstrated a lower mean gluteus maximus torque ( $0.98 \pm 0.27$   
263 Nm/kg) compared to the uninjured group ( $1.04 \pm 0.31$  Nm/kg). While this difference is  
264 small, even modest improvements in glute max strength may help reduce ACL injury  
265 risk. For example, an average cadet (74 kg body mass, 0.39 m lever arm) increasing  
266 their gluteus maximus strength from 1 Nm/kg (19.5 kg / 42.8 lbs) to 1.5 Nm/kg (29.1 kg /  
267 64.0 lbs), would see an estimated 34% decrease in ACL injury odds, all other factors  
268 being equal. These findings highlight the importance of assessing gluteus maximus  
269 strength in ACL injury screenings. Targeted interventions to improve gluteus maximus  
270 strength may help reduce ACL injury risk, but additional research is needed to  
271 determine the most effective strength training approaches for injury prevention.

272

273

274 There are several plausible mechanistic reasons for this strength variable to have been  
275 a significant risk factor. The gluteus maximus contributes to knee stability through  
276 multiple mechanisms. It stabilizes the pelvis,<sup>29</sup> allows for increased trunk flexion, which  
277 in turn reduces the quadriceps moment.<sup>30</sup> It also enhances hip extension, enabling the  
278 hamstrings to control knee motion, thereby reducing anterior tibial shear.<sup>31</sup> Additionally,  
279 it limits tibial internal rotation and knee valgus through its role as a hip abductor and its  
280 connection to the knee via the Iliotibial band.<sup>32</sup> Deficient strength may lead to loss of  
281 these stabilizing functions, increasing ACL loading during dynamic movements.

282

283 Prior research has shown gluteus maximus strength can influence knee position<sup>33</sup> and  
284 landing biomechanics<sup>34</sup>, but its direct link to ACL injury risk has been inconsistent.  
285 Contrary to our findings, Warren et. al did not find a significant association between  
286 preseason gluteus maximus isometric strength and lower body non-contact injury risk,  
287 including ACL injury risk.<sup>35</sup> Similarly, gluteus maximus strength was not associated with  
288 non-contact ACL injury in high school and college athletes.<sup>36</sup> These differences may  
289 stem from variations in study populations, as previous research focused on high school  
290 and college athletes with a greater proportion of female participants (64% vs. 38% in  
291 our study). Future prospective studies are needed to further clarify this relationship  
292 across different athletic groups.

293

294 ***Quadriceps and hamstrings strength and ACL injury risk:***

295 Quadriceps and hamstrings contribute to dynamic knee stability, particularly in  
296 controlling anterior tibial translation.<sup>12,20</sup> In this study, maximal isometric quadriceps and  
297 hamstring strength were not statistically associated with primary ACL injury risk. One  
298 explanation is that these muscles primarily function in the sagittal plane, whereas the  
299 ACL greatest strain occurs with multiplanar loading.<sup>17</sup>

300

301 Our findings align with prior studies that found no association between quadriceps or  
302 hamstrings strength and ACL injury risk,<sup>12,24</sup> even up to four years after initial testing.<sup>12</sup>  
303 In contrast, Myer et al. found that female athletes who sustained an ACL injury had  
304 weaker hamstrings compared to male controls, but not compared to female controls.<sup>37</sup>  
305 Furthermore, they found that the female control group had weaker quadriceps  
306 compared to male controls, while the females who went on to sustain an ACL injury did  
307 not.<sup>37</sup> However, this study only looked at females who sustained an ACL injury (n=22),  
308 with injuries potentially occurring up to 24 months after initial testing, and used isokinetic  
309 muscle strength testing at 300 degrees/second.

310

### 311 ***Gluteus medius strength and ACL injury risk:***

312 The gluteus medius contributes to hip and trunk stability, helping to control knee valgus  
313 and reduce excessive hip motion.<sup>22,24,38-40</sup> In the current study, maximal isometric  
314 gluteus medius strength was not associated primary ACL injury risk.

315

316 Our findings align with prior studies that found no association between gluteus medius  
317 strength and primary ACL injury risk in athletic female populations.<sup>24,36,38</sup> In contrast,



318 Shimozaki et al. reported that greater gluteus medius strength was linked to increased  
319 ACL injury risk.<sup>40</sup> These discrepancies may stem from differences in study populations,  
320 as their study followed high school basketball players for three years, whereas others  
321 analyzed college or multi-sport athletes over longer periods.<sup>24,36</sup>

322

323 ***Hip internal and external rotator strength and ACL injury risk:***

324 Hip rotators influence knee joint loading in the frontal and transverse planes, which may  
325 impact ACL stress.<sup>41</sup> While several studies have explored the effect of these muscles on  
326 lower extremity biomechanics,<sup>27,41</sup> our study found no association between hip external  
327 or internal rotator muscle strength and primary ACL injury risk.

328 These findings are consistent with Vacek et. al., who also found no association between  
329 hip rotation strength and primary non-contact ACL injury in male or female athletes.<sup>36</sup>

330

331 **BMI:**

332 Higher BMI has been linked to altered biomechanics<sup>29</sup> and knee-joint laxity<sup>42</sup>, both of  
333 which may increase ACL injury risk. This study found that higher BMI was significantly  
334 associated with increased risk of primary non-contact ACL injury (OR= 1.09, p-value =  
335 0.01). This indicates that for every one-unit increase in BMI, the odds of sustaining a  
336 primary ACL injury increased by 9%. To put this into perspective, a cadet with a BMI of  
337 30 would have approximately 18% higher odds of ACL injury compared to a cadet with  
338 a BMI of 28, all other factors being equal. This trend aligns with previous findings in both  
339 females<sup>12,15,36,40</sup> and males.<sup>15</sup>

340 While these findings suggest that BMI should be considered in injury screenings and  
341 prevention programs, BMI alone does not account for body composition which may  
342 more directly influence ACL injury risk. Rather than focusing solely on BMI reduction,  
343 strategies aimed at optimizing body composition may be more effective in mitigating  
344 injury risk.<sup>43</sup> Future research should explore how fat and lean mass distribution  
345 contribute to ACL injury susceptibility and determine the best approaches for integrating  
346 body composition into injury prevention program.

347

### 348 **Clinical Implications**

349 ACL injuries result from multiple factors, but this study highlights gluteus maximus  
350 strength and BMI as key modifiable risk factors in military cadets. While prior research  
351 has linked muscular strength to movement patterns,<sup>44-46</sup> this study establishes a direct  
352 association between baseline gluteus maximus strength, BMI, and future ACL injury.  
353 Assessing gluteus maximus strength and BMI in injury screenings may help identify  
354 athletes at higher risk, and future studies should explore whether targeted interventions  
355 can reduce ACL injury rates.

356

357 Although quadriceps, hamstrings, gluteus medius, and hip rotator strength were not  
358 significant predictors, this does not discount the role of muscle function in ACL injury  
359 risk. Other factors, such as rate of force development and neuromuscular activation  
360 patterns, may be more relevant in reducing ACL strain and safeguarding against injury.  
361 and should be examined in future research.<sup>47</sup> As such, ACL injury prevention programs

362 incorporating muscular strength exercises are readily accessible and are recommended  
363 for integration into regular training routines.<sup>48</sup>

364  
365 A major strength of this study is its large sample size and prospective design, which  
366 improve generalizability. Additionally, the use of handheld dynamometry for field-based  
367 strength assessments enhances clinical feasibility, offering a quick, reliable, and  
368 practical method for sports medicine professionals conducting ACL injury screenings.

### 370 **Limitations**

371 There are several limitations to this study. First, strength and BMI were assessed only  
372 at baseline, while ACL injuries occurred throughout the cadets' time at the academy.  
373 Consequently, it is not known whether the subjects' muscular strength or BMI changed  
374 between data collection and the time of injury. Second, because military cadets are  
375 required to participate in sports, they may be fitter and more motivated than the general  
376 population, limiting generalizability beyond military and athletic settings. Third, we did  
377 not control for sport type, which could influence ACL injury risk. For example, sports like  
378 football often involve higher BMI athletes and increased ACL injury rates<sup>49</sup>, potentially  
379 confounding the observed BMI-injury relationship. Fourth, this study used isometric  
380 strength testing with average torque measures, which may differ from other research  
381 that utilizes peak torque or dynamic strength assessments. Finally, while numerous  
382 muscles of the lower extremity were investigated, other potentially relevant muscles that  
383 may influence ACL injury risk such as hip adductors,<sup>50</sup> gastrocnemius,<sup>51</sup> or soleus<sup>51</sup>  
384 were not examined.

385

386 **Conclusion**

387 This study suggests that gluteus maximus strength and BMI are important modifiable  
388 risk factors for primary non-contact ACL injury in military cadets, whereas other thigh  
389 and hip muscle strengths were not significantly associated with injury risk. These  
390 findings underscore the importance of incorporating gluteus maximus strength  
391 assessments and BMI considerations into ACL injury screenings.

392

393 Future research should evaluate the effectiveness of targeted gluteus maximus  
394 strengthening and body composition optimization programs to determine the most  
395 effective training strategies for reducing ACL injury risk.

396

397 **Ethical Considerations**

398 The study was approved by the institutional review board and all participants provided  
399 informed consent. All data were kept confidential, and all participants were debriefed  
400 about the results of the study.

Online First

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550 Legends to Figures

551 **Figure 1.** Flow Diagram for enrollment and group allocation

552

553 **Figure 2.** Maximum voluntary isometric contraction positions for lower extremity  
554 muscles.

555

556 **Figure 3.** Raincloud Plot of Normalized Torque for Uninjured and ACL Injured Cadets.  
557 Left plots represent uninjured cadets (N = 5,518). Right plots represent cadets that later  
558 injured their ACL (N = 101). Each row compares uninjured to ACL injured cadet groups,  
559 with each plot presenting the distribution (half violin) and quartile ranges (box and  
560 whisker) of the represented data. Notes: Newtons, N; Meters, M; Kilograms, Kg.

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563 **Table 1.** Demographic and Sample Statistics (N = 5,619)

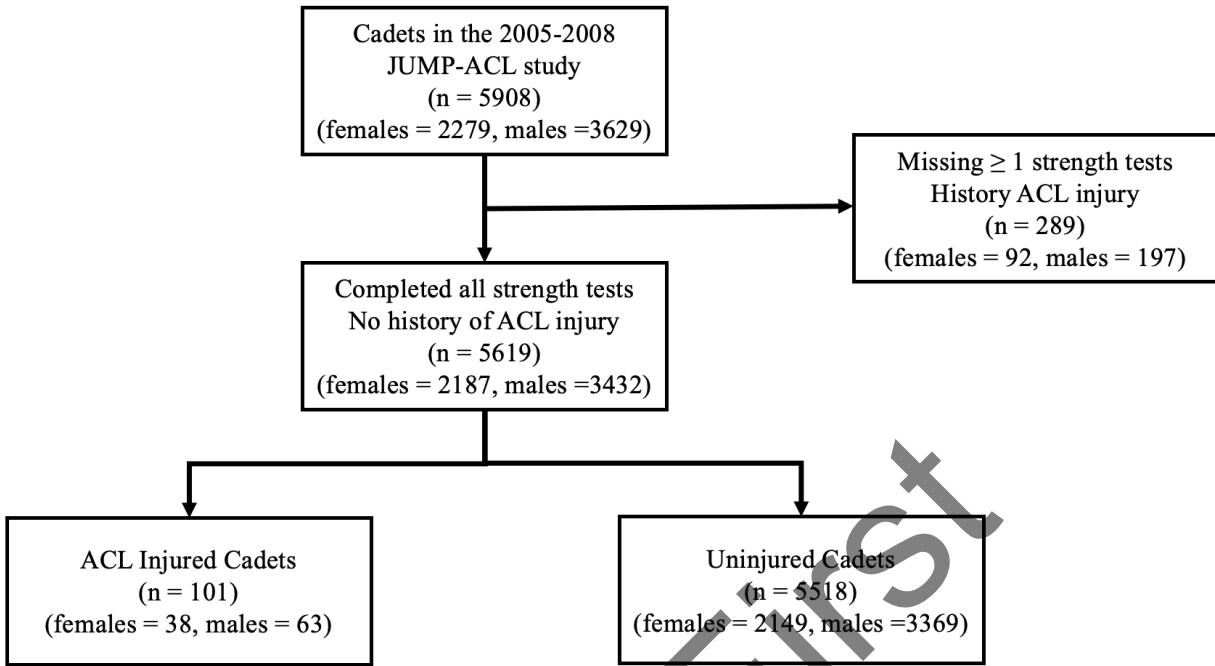
564 Note: Body Mass Index, BMI; Standard Deviation, SD; Confidence Interval, CI.

565

566 **Table 2.** Multivariable Logistic Regression of Predictors on ACL Injury Risk.

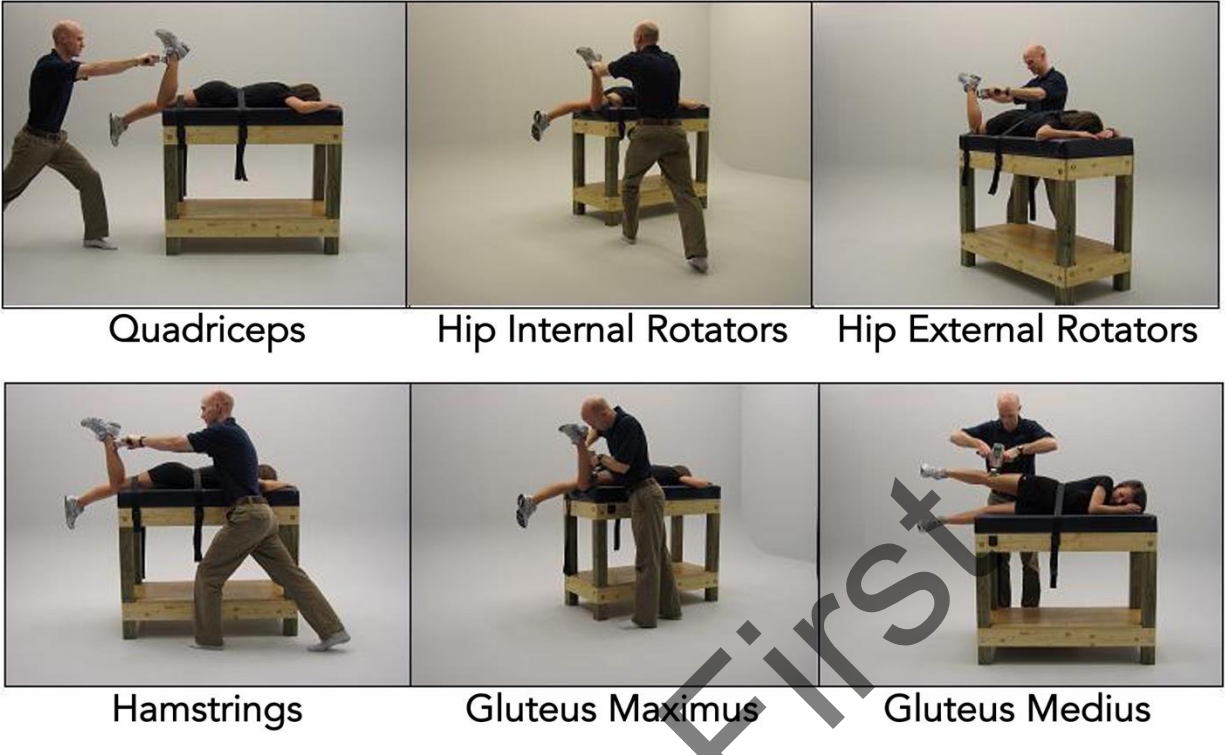
567 Body Mass Index, BMI; Confidence Interval, CI; \* indicates statistical significance at the  
568  $\alpha = 0.05$  level.

569 \*\* indicates statistical significance at the  $\alpha = 0.01$  level



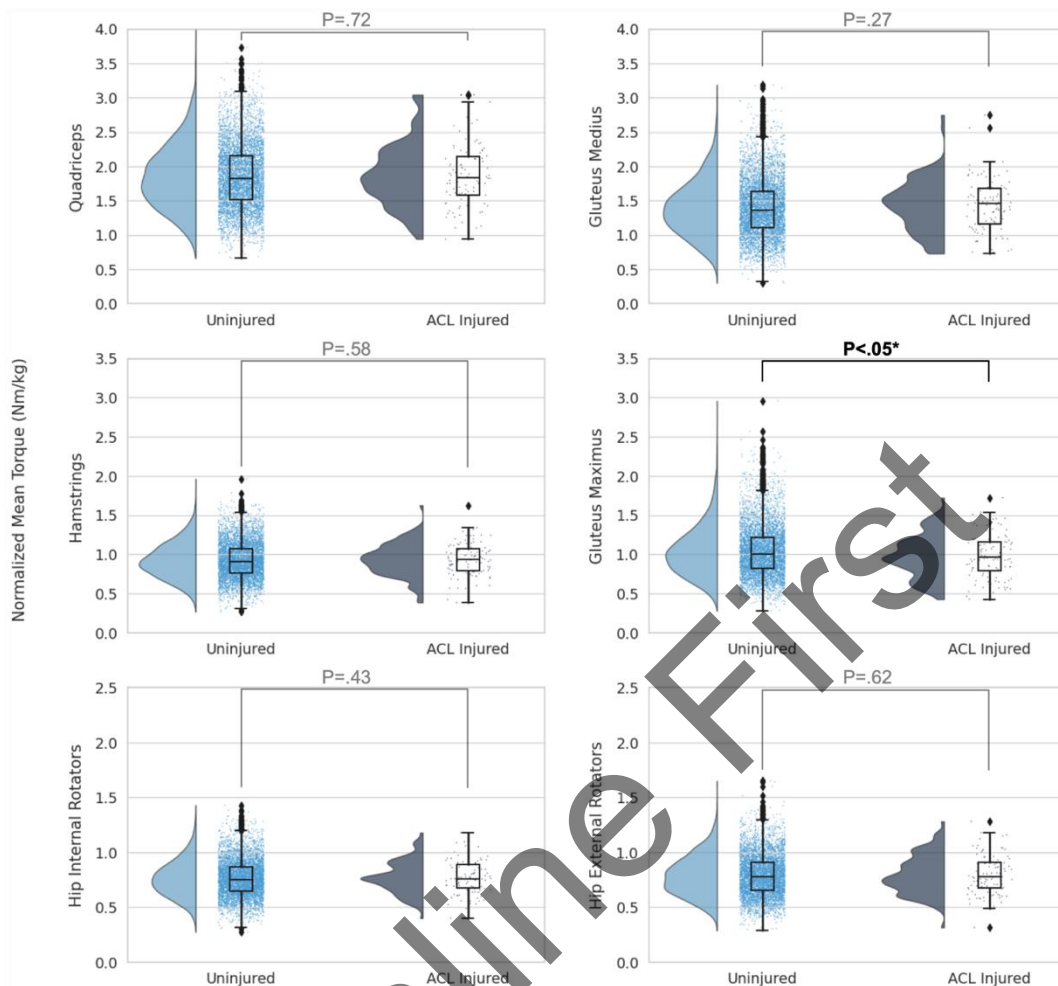
**Figure 1.** Flow Diagram for enrollment and group allocation

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**Figure 2.** Maximum voluntary isometric contraction positions for lower extremity muscles.

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**Figure 3.** Raincloud Plot of Normalized Torque for Uninjured and ACL Injured Cadets. Left plots represent uninjured cadets (N = 5,518). Right plots represent cadets that later injured their ACL (N = 101). Each row compares uninjured to ACL injured cadet groups, with each plot presenting the distribution (half violin) and quartile ranges (box and whisker) of the represented data. Notes: Newtons, N; Meters, M; Kilograms, Kg.

**Table 1.** Demographic and Sample Statistics (N = 5,619)

	ACL Injured Cadets		Uninjured Cadets		P-value
	n	%	n	%	
Females	38	37.6%	2149	38.9%	0.78
Males	63	62.4%	3369	61.1%	
	Mean (SD)	95% CI	Mean (SD)	95% CI	P-value
Age (years)	18.72 (0.91)	18.54, 18.90	18.75 (0.91)	18.73, 18.77	0.75
Height (cm)	173.2 (9.4)	171.3, 174.9	173.2 (9.3)	172.9, 173.5	0.93
Mass (kg)	74.0 (13.6)	71.4, 76.7	71.8 (12.9)	71.5, 72.1	0.09
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	24.5 (2.87)	23.97, 25.09	23.8 (2.93)	23.72, 23.88	0.01
Quadriceps (Nm/kg)	1.87 (0.45)	1.78, 1.96	1.85 (0.46)	1.84, 1.86	0.72
Hamstrings (Nm/kg)	0.94 (0.21)	0.89, 0.98	0.92 (0.23)	0.92, 0.93	0.58
Gluteus Medius (Nm/kg)	1.43 (0.38)	1.36, 1.51	1.39 (0.40)	1.38, 1.40	0.27
Gluteus Maximus (Nm/kg)	0.98 (0.27)	0.92, 1.03	1.04 (0.31)	1.03, 1.05	0.05

Hip External Rotators	0.80	0.76,	0.79 (0.18)	0.78,	0.62
(Nm/kg)	(0.18)	0.83		0.79	
Hip Internal Rotators	0.77	0.75,	0.76 (0.16)	0.76,	0.43
(Nm/kg)	(0.15)	0.80		0.77	

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Note: Body Mass Index, BMI; Standard Deviation, SD; Confidence Interval, CI.

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**Table 2.** Multivariable Logistic Regression of Predictors on ACL Injury Risk.

	<b>Odds Ratio</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Sex	1.13	0.65, 1.98	0.66
BMI	1.09	1.02, 1.17	0.01*
Age	0.92	0.73, 1.16	0.48
Quadriceps Torque	0.83	0.44, 1.58	0.57
Hamstrings Torque	1.89	0.52, 6.83	0.33
Gluteus Medius Torque	1.56	0.83, 2.96	0.16
Gluteus Maximus Torque Hip	0.32	0.14, 0.73	0.007**
External Rotators Torque	0.93	0.16, 5.59	0.94
Hip Internal Rotators Torque	2.70	0.47, 15.67	0.27

Body Mass Index, BMI; Confidence Interval, CI; \* indicates statistical significance at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  level.

\*\* indicates statistical significance at the  $\alpha = 0.01$  level