

Thicker Radial Cortex in Physically Active Prepubertal Girls Compared to Controls

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Abstract

This study was carried out to investigate the effects of physical activity on cortical bone of the radius in a population of prepubertal girls. Forty-nine healthy girls, 17 actives (10.62 ± 1.56 years) and 32 controls (9.84 ± 1.23 years) participated in this study. The active group was involved in gymnastics, judo, and dance on average 7.76 ± 3.94 h/week. Bone mineral content (BMC) and density (BMD) were performed at the distal third of the non-dominant radius using DXA. The lean mass of the non-dominant forearm was derived from the total body analysis performed with DXA. In order to obtain bone cortical thickness, standard radiographs of the non-dominant radius were scanned and computed using a software program based on radiogrammetry. BMD and BMC values were higher in actives than in con-

trols. Cortical thickness at the ulnar side correlated significantly with all the anthropometric and densitometric values as well as the duration of training. In addition, cortical thickness at the ulnar side was significantly higher in the actives compared to the controls. After adjustment for the duration of training per week, cortical thickness of the ulnar side did not differ any more between actives and controls. The same observation was obtained after adjustment for the forearm lean mass. In our active population, physical practice seemed to have induced greater BMC and higher cortical thickness than those observed in the sedentary.

Key words

Radiogrammetry · lean mass · gradient · densitometry · grey level · cortical thickness

Introduction

Impact-loading activities have been shown to have a positive effect on bone mineral acquisition. Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) is currently used in the evaluation of the bone mineral content (BMC) of the human skeleton. But planar DXA measurement is unable to discriminate between trabecular and cortical components of bone known to show specific responses to mechanical strain [33]. Due to this limitation and in order to discriminate the response of each bone compartment, quantitative computed tomography (QCT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) appeared as alternative methods. But QCT and MRI are only available in specialised centres and QCT delivers ionising radi-

ations [7], these points give interest to other techniques such as the radiogrammetry technique [3].

Radiogrammetry has been used for the assessment of bone geometry parameters such as, cortical thickness [3] considered as an indice of bone strength [25]. Thanks to developments in computer sciences, a new digital radiogrammetric method (DXR) has appeared as a reproducible technique [5, 6, 21, 30]. The reproducibility of this DXR was tested on the third distal of the radius shown as a site having increased vulnerability to fractures [18]. It is well accepted that fracture risk can be reduced by means of physical activity, for example by increasing cortical thickness, if started during the growing years [2]. Nevertheless there have

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been very few investigations in children regarding the association between cortical thickness and physical activity. In fact the prepubertal years are an opportune period for the bone modelling and remodelling processes in response to mechanical loading [2, 29]. This study was therefore carried out to study the bone geometry parameters in a population of prepubertal girls, taking into account the effects of physical activity.

Subjects and Methods

Subjects

Forty-nine healthy girls, 17 actives (10.62 ± 1.56 years) and 32 controls (9.84 ± 1.23 years) participated in this study (Table 1). The active group, in addition to the school physical education course, participated in activities such as gymnastics and judo on average 7.61 ± 3.76 h/week in their club. The control group was engaged only in physical education course and recreational activities (non formal games e.g street basket) for no more than 3 h/week. These activities did not involve any heavy loading or impact that could have biased the study.

Our regional Ethics Committee approved the study, and written informed consent was obtained from the children and their parents.

Anthropometric determinations

All the subjects were healthy and had never used medication known to affect bone properties. Body weight and height were measured in all subjects.

Bone age was assessed by left hand and wrist radiographs and analysed following the method of Greulich and Pyle [11], to insure that there was no pathological retardation or acceleration in bone maturity. Their puberty stage was determined according to Tanner's criteria [27].

The lean mass (LM, kg) of the non-dominant forearm, as representative of the muscular mass, was determined from the total body regional analysis on DXA using the software supplied by the manufacturer (Hologic QDR 4500/W; Hologic, Waltham, MA, USA).

Bone mineral measurements

Bone mineral content (BMC, g) and density (BMD, g/cm^2) were performed using DXA. Measurements were made at the total body and at the distal third of the non-dominant radius (Fig. 1). The reproducibility of the technique was based on two repeated measurements over two weeks in three subjects. The *in vivo* coefficient of variation (CV) was less than 0.9% at the whole body and 1.2% at the radius in our laboratory.

Bone cortical measurements by radiogrammetry

One radiograph of the non-dominant forearm was obtained for each subject using a standard procedure. The forearm was placed in contact with the film using a focal-forearm distance settled at 1 m. The same X-ray tube, voltage (48 kV), and exposure conditions (18 mAs for 0.08 s) were used. The effective dose radiation was $0.13 \mu\text{Sv}$.

Table 1 Anthropometric data and age of the subjects

Parameter	Actives n = 17 (gymnastics = 14 judo = 3)	Controls n = 32	Difference
Chronological age (yrs)	10.62 ± 1.56	9.84 ± 1.23	ns
Bone age (yrs)	10.40 ± 2.09	9.84 ± 1.31	ns
Height (cm)	141.41 ± 8.64	137.2 ± 8.71	ns
Weight (kg)	32.92 ± 6.40	30.36 ± 6.48	ns
Years of training	4.6 ± 1.8		

ns: not significant

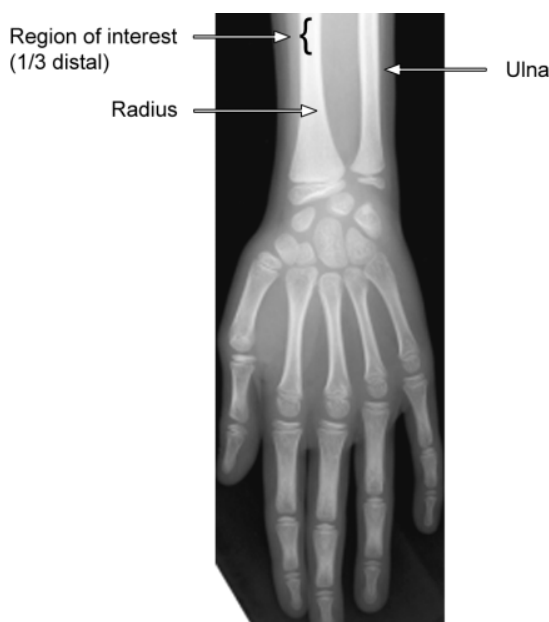


Fig. 1 Selection of the radius from the radiograph.

On the radiographs, the radius was selected and digitised with a high-resolution scanner (100 μm resolution at a 8 bits pixel grey-scale). The resulting digitised images (Fig. 1) were transferred to a UNIX workstation. Our program, on the first step, extracted the bone edge using the Deriche's filter based on the gradient magnitude. On the second step, to separate the cortical and the trabecular areas, we applied an automatic thresholding approach based on the iterative contour detection method using the grey level peak. The entire procedure has been described elsewhere [30]. Thus, the mean cortical thicknesses on the radial and ulnar sides could be determined on 15 lines on both sides of a reference line drawn automatically by our home-made program [30] at the third distal of the radius (Fig. 2). The root mean square coefficient of variation [22] of the technique was 1.36% in this study.

Statistical analyses

The mean and standard deviations were calculated for all anthropometric data, values issued from the analysis of radiographs and bone measurements. All data were compared between the active and control subjects using a Student's *t*-test. A *t*-paired

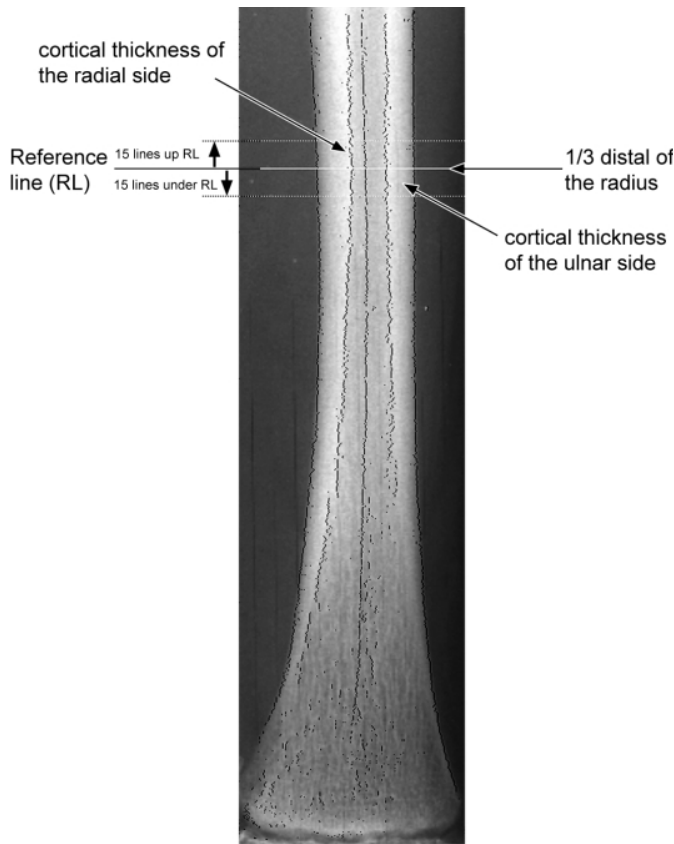


Fig. 2 Image of the radius after the process showing the cortical thicknesses on the ulnar side and on the radial side.

test was used to assess the potential differences between cortical thickness at the ulnar and radial sides. Radiogrammetric data were also adjusted using analysis of covariance with duration of training and forearm lean mass as covariates. The relationships between radiogrammetric, anthropometric, and bone measurements were examined using Pearson's correlation test with a limit of significance at $p < 0.05$.

Results

Anthropometric, age, and densitometric determinations

Physical characteristics for actives and controls are given in Table 1. There was no significant difference between groups as regards chronological age, bone age, height, and weight.

Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were observed between actives and controls for the duration of training per week and densitometric values both at the non-dominant forearm and at the distal third of the non-dominant radius (Table 2).

Radiogrammetric analyses

There was no significant difference between cortical thicknesses at the ulnar and the radial side (3.13 vs. 3.07 mm, respectively) in all subjects as well as in actives and controls. But as shown in Table 2, cortical thickness at the ulnar side was significantly greater in the actives compared to the controls. After adjustment for the duration of training per week, cortical thickness at the ulnar side did not any more differ significantly ($p < 0.05$) between actives and controls (3.24 vs. 3.12 mm, respectively). There was also no difference when the cortical thickness at the ulnar side was adjusted for the forearm lean mass (3.46 vs. 2.99 mm).

Correlation between anthropometric, radiogrammetric, and densitometric data

As shown in Table 3, the anthropometric values correlated significantly with cortical thickness at the ulnar side and cortical thickness for both sides in all the subjects. Maturation explained 27% of the variance in cortical thickness at the ulnar side.

A significant correlation was obtained between the duration of training per week and cortical thickness of both sides ($r = 0.34$, $p < 0.05$), cortical thickness at the ulnar side ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$) (Table 3) as well as with the non-dominant forearm lean mass ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 2 Comparison between actives and controls

Parameter	Actives <i>n</i> = 17 (gymnastics = 14 judo = 3)	Controls <i>n</i> = 32	Difference	
			95% CI	Significance
Cortical thickness				
- radial side (mm)	3.18 ± 0.87	3.03 ± 0.95	- 0.46; 0.72	ns
- ulnar side (mm)	3.47 ± 0.75	3.00 ± 0.44	0.11; 0.8	**
Non-dominant forearm				
- lean mass (g)	586.91 ± 104.63	512.82 ± 103.91	9.11; 139.8	*
- BMC (g)	22.84 ± 7.71	16.76 ± 5.72	2.11; 10.05	**
- BMD (g/cm ²)	0.60 ± 0.05	0.55 ± 0.05	0.01; 0.07	**
Third distal of the radius				
- BMC	1.18 ± 0.21	0.97 ± 0.12	0.10; 0.30	***
- BMD	0.51 ± 0.05	0.48 ± 0.03	0.05; 0.059	*
Duration of training per week (h/w)	7.82 ± 3.77	1.21 ± 1.13	5.17; 8.05	***

CI: Confidence interval; * < 0.05 ; ** < 0.01 ; *** < 0.001 ; ns: not significant; BMC: bone mineral content; BMD: bone mineral density

Table 3 Correlation between anthropometric, age, densitometric, and radiogrammetric measurements in all subjects

Parameter	Cortical thickness of the radial side	Cortical thickness of the ulnar side	Both sides
Chronological age	0.44**	0.47***	0.59***
Bone age	0.27	0.49***	0.45***
Height	0.37**	0.43**	0.49***
Weight	0.27	0.40**	0.43**
Non-dominant forearm lean mass	0.47***	0.44**	0.60***
Duration of training per week	0.21	0.41**	0.34*
Distal third of the radius			
- BMC	0.52***	0.77***	0.76***
- BMD	0.34*	0.48***	0.56***
Non-dominant forearm			
- BMC	0.55***	0.52***	0.69***
- BMD	0.35**	0.46***	0.51***

* < 0.05; ** < 0.01; *** < 0.001; BMC: bone mineral content; BMD: bone mineral density

The radiogrammetric values correlated significantly with all the densitometric data (Table 3).

The duration of training per week, bone age, and body weight were entered into a multiple regression analysis. The most predictable parameter for cortical thickness at the ulnar side was duration of training per week ($F = 5.32$, $p = 0.02$).

Discussion

The main finding of the present study was that impact-loading training was accompanied by a higher value in the cortical thickness of the radius.

In accordance with our results, previous studies have shown a gain in cortical thickness in femur of rat [16,17,19,20,32,36,38] as well as in femur [1,3,7,8], humerus [14,24], radius [13], and metacarpal [3] in human, in response to impact loading constraints. In the present study, active subjects had higher cortical thickness at the ulnar side than controls. In fact, such an osteogenic effect on the active group was expected since the activities included high-impact loading sports such as gymnastics and judo [4,28].

Actives and controls differed only for cortical thickness at the ulnar side and such a difference could probably be explained by the muscle attachments that act on the bone [9] or/and the variety of strains undergone by the bone [12,37]. Regarding the first point, the muscular actions are more predominant on the ulnar side of the radius than on its radial side [31]. These actions might have influenced the accumulation of bone mass more on the ulnar side. Also in this study, the non-dominant forearm lean mass cor-

Table 4 Comparison of the accuracy of the measurements at the third distal of the radius

Authors	Technique	Cortical thickness (mm)	Age of the subjects (yrs)
Louis et al. [26]	pQCT	1.93–3.09 ^T 2.3–2.94 ^I	61–85
Haapasalo et al. [13]	pQCT	3.36 [#] 3.1–3.6 ^T	30±5
Kardinaal et al. [23]	DXA	1.7–2.2	Tanner 1
Lochmüller et al. [25]	pQCT	1.9–2.8 ^T	46–97
Our study	DXR	2.26–4.22 [#] 2.08–3.98 ^I	Tanner 0–1

^T threshold algorithm; ^I iterative contour detection; [#] trained subjects; Tanner: Tanner stage

related significantly with the cortical thickness suggesting thus the predominance of the mechanical effect [10].

The second point stresses that the remodelling response to strain varies depending on the loading conditions [12,37]. Gross et al. [12] demonstrated that during complex loading conditions involving bending, axial compression, and torsion, as during specific sport activities, the strain distributions across the cortex are not uniform.

Several authors have used DXA [23] or peripheral quantitative computed tomography (pQCT) [13,25,26] in subjects of various age, to measure cortical thickness at the distal third of the radius. The use of different methods makes the comparisons between studies difficult (Table 4). However, the cortical thickness values obtained with our technique (DXR) were similar to those reported by Haapasalo et al. [13] in adult subjects using pQCT. But the absolute cortical thickness values might not be accurately measurable due to the limited spatial resolution (0.2–0.6 mm) of the pQCT system [15,34] and the use of the threshold algorithm method (to separate cortical bone from marrow cavity) [26]. It was possible, in our study, to measure the cortical thickness of the radius to the nearest 0.1 mm, based on the true shape of the bone, without making any geometrical assumption [26].

The values reported by Kardinaal et al. [23] (1.92–2.25 mm) in prepubertal children using DXA were 22–80% lower than ours (2.08–4.22 mm). This difference seems to be due to inaccurate measurements of the cortical thickness using DXA [39] with the underestimation values reaching 64.8% [35].

The most critical point of the present study was the estimation of the three-dimensional geometry on the basis of the two-dimensional radiographic measurements. Even if the distance between the roentgen radiation and the film is uniform, the bone projection is magnified depending on the size of the forearm. Therefore, the cortical thickness is size-dependent. But the data obtained, due to good reproducibility of the measurements, may insure that the technique is able to give results considered as valid. The

only practical valid solution, to avoid this size effect, would be the use of the MRI or pQCT to measure the bone in a three-dimensional manner [35]. Due to their cost and limited availability now, these methods might be widely used in the future. For all the subjects, the lack of difference between cortical thicknesses at the radial and ulnar sides, indicates a trend to symmetry in the cortical thickness between the radial and ulnar sides of the radius. This result seems accurate since the subject's forearm was positioned by the same trained technician according to a standard fixed protocol, thus controlling rotation, parallax, and exposure [9].

In our study, although maturation of the subjects explained 27% of the variance in cortical thickness at the ulnar side, the best predictor for the cortical thickness at the ulnar side was duration of training per week. Also, the difference in cortical thickness at the ulnar side between actives and controls disappeared when adjusted for duration of training. As in our study, there were no differences in chronological age, bone age, height, and weight between active and control subjects, the difference observed in bone geometry was more likely associated with the impact-loading inherent to sport activities.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that, in prepubertal girls, high-impact sports such as gymnastics and judo might result in greater cortical thickness that gives the bone more resistance and thus prevents bone fractures later in life.

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