

基于力学因素的膝骨关节炎防治指南(3)

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2.5 肌力异常

临床问题 5: 是否推荐股四头肌无力作为膝骨关节炎(knee osteoarthritis, KOA)发生发展的力学性因素? 有哪些方法可以对股四头肌无力进行评估和治疗?

推荐意见 5.1: 推荐将股四头肌无力作为导致KOA发生发展的力学性因素。(1B)

推荐原理: 股四头肌作为膝关节的稳定器和减震器, 可以在一定程度上降低膝关节上的有害负荷, 有助于维持关节的机械环境^[1-2]。股四头肌的无力可能导致股四头肌的扭矩变异性增加, 导致膝关节无法实现精确控制, 有可能会改变膝关节负荷, 这被认为是膝关节软骨退化的重要因素^[3]。

证据总结: meta分析表明股四头肌无力与放射学股骨关节炎的发生存在关联, 女性(OR=1.43, 95%CI: 1.19—1.71)和男性(OR=1.39, 95%CI: 1.07—1.82)均受影响^[4]。股四头肌无力与症状性膝关节炎的发生存在关联^[4], 在放射学前期KOA患者中更为显著。而股四头肌力量较强, 软骨损伤、骨髓病变和滑膜炎的发生率更低^[5]。女性股四头肌力量最弱的四分位组在外侧髌股关节软骨损伤恶化方面风险增加(RR=1.50, 95%CI: 1.03—2.20)^[6]; 股四头肌无力与全膝(HR=3.48, 95%CI: 1.30—9.35)和内侧髌股关节(HR=4.60, 95%CI: 1.25—17.02)软骨损失显著相关^[7]。既往的专家共识均将肌力下降认为是KOA进展的重要危险因素, 共识率达100%^[8-9]。

推荐意见 5.2: 建议采用改良的Lovett 13级徒手肌力(manual muscle testing, MMT)评定方法评估股四头肌无力, 必要时可采用手持测力计或等速肌力测试获取更精确的数据。(2C)

推荐原理: 鉴于股四头肌无力是KOA发生发展的重要力学因素, 准确评估股四头肌力量对及早发现高危人群具有重要意义。MMT评定操作简便, 适用性广; 而器械评定则可提供更精确的量化数据, 有利于精确评估和随访监测。同时, 由于肌力水平存在显著的年龄和性别差异, 参考相应人群的标准值对准确评估至关重要。

证据总结: 临床股四头肌肌力评估方法包括MMT评定和器械肌力评定^[10]。MMT使用改良Lovett 13级评分标准, 操作简便, 几乎不需要特殊设备; 器械评定包括手持测力计等, 可提供精确的量化数据。不同年龄和性别群体的手持测力计评估的正常股四头肌肌力参考值: 50—59岁女性优势侧和非优势侧平均值分别为(314.75±82.98)N和(305.22±75.68)N, 男性则分别为(458.45±79.73)N和(452.54±86.52)N; 60—69岁女性优势侧和非优势侧降至(263.48±66.92)N和(255.00±73.06)N, 男性为(372.71±81.81)N和(377.57±67.75)N; 70—79岁女性进一步降至(218.55±46.71)N和(215.72±48.55)N, 男性为(358.57±76.13)N和(365.00±71.21)N^[11]。等速测试常用峰值扭矩作为评估指标, 60°/s角速度最常用于力量分析^[12]。临床实践中, 建议根据评估目的和医疗机构条件选择合适的评估方法, 遵循标准化流程, 并进行定期评估以关注患者肌力的变化趋势。

推荐意见 5.3: 在排除禁忌证的情况下建议采用传统抗阻训练、早期低负荷血流量限制训练(low-load blood flow restriction, LL-BFR)、神经肌肉电刺激(neuromuscular electrical stimulation, NMES)和全身振动训练(whole-body vibration training, WBVT)作为预防股四头肌无力导致KOA的主要策略。对于普通人群, 建议优先选择传统抗阻训练; 对于60岁以上健康人群和早期KOA患者, 选择LL-BFR训练更有优势。(2C)

推荐原理: NMES通过增加运动单元的招募和速率编码来增强肌肉激活^[13]; LL-BFR在局部限制动脉和静脉血流, 使目标肌肉中产生更大的无氧环境和更多的疲劳^[14], 同时增强与传统高负荷训练相同区域的合成代谢反应诱导跟腱肥大^[15]; 而WBVT则通过刺激肌肉纺锤波, 影响中枢机制, 激活 α -运动神经元并产生振动强直反射^[16-17]。这些干预措施通过不同的生理机制相互协同, 共同发挥预防和治疗作用。

证据总结: meta分析显示, 在60岁以上的健康人群中, 与传统低负荷训练相比, LL-BFR在改善肌肉力量(SMD=0.44, 95%CI: 0.28—0.60)和肌肉肥大(SMD=0.51, 95%CI: 0.06—0.96)方面具有小到中等程度的优势^[18]。对于早期KOA患者, LL-BFR训练显示出更明显的优势, 在改善股四头肌力量(SMD=2.14, 95%CI: 0.38—3.90)和肌肉质量(SMD=1.33, 95%CI: 0.24—2.42)方面较传统低负荷训练更有效^[19]。WBVT结合运动治疗可缓解疼痛并提升患者自我报告的功能活动水平(MD=-27.2, 95%CI: -32.71—-21.69)^[20-21]。过去的指南建议, 标准化的NMES(频率50—75Hz, 脉冲持续时间200—400 μ s, 每次20min)结合运动方案的效果优于单一治疗, 且每周5次较3次治疗更能改善股四头肌力量^[22]。股四头肌力量训练的强度应为10%—60% 1RM, 每个肌群8—12次/组, 2—3组, 每次30—60min, 每周不少于3次, 持续至少8周^[23]。

对于健康人群: ①定期评估股四头肌功能, 特别是高危人群; ②进行预防性运动训练, 可选择传统抗阻或低负荷血流限制训练(60岁以上); ③加强膝关节健康教育。对于早期KOA患者: ①结合运动治疗和疼痛管理; ②采用低负荷血流限制训练和标准化NMES; ③考虑添加全身振动治疗作为辅助手段, 特别是与力量训练结合。

临床问题 6: 是否推荐腘绳肌过激活作为KOA发生发展的力学性因素? 有哪些方法可用于腘绳肌过激活的评估和治疗?

推荐意见 6.1: 建议将腘绳肌过激活作为KOA发展的力学性因素。(2B)

推荐原理:腘绳肌是膝关节主要的屈肌群,对膝关节的动态稳定性起重要作用。但腘绳肌的过度激活可能导致膝关节内负荷分布异常,增加关节剪切力和压应力,并加速关节软骨退变进程^[24-25];同时还可能降低膝ROM,加剧步态僵硬,并显著增加膝关节力矩的不平^[26]。

证据总结:腘绳肌过激活水平在男性KOA患者中显著升高,与膝关节软骨形态学恶化(OR=1.59,95%CI: 1.06—2.39)和膝关节退变(OR=4.60,95%CI: 1.25—17.02)显著相关^[27]。步态分析研究表明,有症状KOA患者中腘绳肌过激活导致步态僵硬,与动态膝关节力矩失衡直接相关^[24,28]。指南工作组整合现有证据发现,腘绳肌功能的干预显著降低KOA患者的VAS评分(MD=2.6,95%CI: 2.0—3.2)和WOMAC评分(MD=10.4,95%CI: 8.1—12.7)^[28-30]。

推荐意见 6.2: 建议采用肌力测试、表面肌电图或仪器化步态分析评估腘绳肌过激活。(2D)

推荐原理:腘绳肌过激活是指腘绳肌在膝关节运动过程中出现的异常增强的肌肉收缩模式。腘绳肌过激活通过改变膝关节的运动学和动力学特性,增加关节应力并加速KOA的进展^[31]。肌力测试通过等速肌力测试和MMT评估腘绳肌的力量和激活状态^[32]。表面肌电图(surface electromyographys,sEMG)可提供肌肉激活的量化数据,适用于动态和静态评估;而三维步态分析则通过结合关节角度、外力和肌肉活动提供更全面的生物力学信息^[32]。

证据总结:临床上诊断腘绳肌过激活的方法有肌力测试、sEMG或仪器化步态分析。肌力测试通过等速测试(坐姿膝屈伸)和MMT(膝屈曲、单腿站立)评估腘绳肌力量。健康人群腘绳肌与股四头肌的共激活比值(co-activation ratio,CR)约为0.30—0.50,KOA患者增加至0.60—0.75^[33]。步态分析通过主成分分析第二主成分评分(principal component 2 score)和分阶段均方根振幅(phase-specific root mean square amplitude)测量腘绳肌激活时间,正常范围为20%—30%,当激活时间达到40%—50%时提示明显的腘绳肌过激活^[33-34]。腘绳肌过激活患者的膝关节外展力矩峰值显著升高,从健康个体的3.5%—4.5%,增加到5.0%—6.5%^[24-25]。建议在诊断腘绳肌过激活时,参考以下标准:CR>0.60^[33];激活时间>40%步态周期^[33-34];膝关节外展力矩峰值>5.0%^[24-25]。

推荐意见 6.3: 建议采用牵伸腘绳肌、器械辅助软组织松动(instrument-assisted soft tissue mobilization ,IASTM)、动态软组织松动(dynamic soft tissue mobilization,DSTM)和本体感觉神经肌肉促进(proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation,PNF)作为改善腘绳肌过激活的主要策略。(2D)

推荐原理:牵伸腘绳肌、IASTM、DSTM和PNF能改善腘绳肌过激活,从而延缓KOA的发生和进展。IASTM和DSTM通过机械刺激促进软组织重塑,增加组织弹性和血液循环,从而改善腘绳肌柔韧性^[35-36]。PNF则通过神经肌肉系统的反射机制,促进肌肉放松和拉伸,提高ROM^[37]。

证据总结:IASTM^[28]和DSTM^[29]均可改善腘绳肌柔韧性(SMD=0.78; 95% CI: 0.62—0.94;SMD=0.7,95% CI 0.48—0.92),降低腘绳肌过激活水平。选择性牵伸腘绳肌(强化股二头肌和拉伸半腱肌、半膜肌)在4周干预后显著优于常规全身腘绳肌牵伸,KOOS疼痛子量表组间差异效应量Cohen's d=0.79(95%CI: 0.65—1.12),KOOS症状子量表Cohen's d=0.80(95%CI: 0.61—1.18),OAKHQOL疼痛子量表Cohen's d=0.79(95%CI: 0.58—1.09)^[38]。但当前证据质量较低,临床应用时需结合患者个体情况、密切监测疗效,期待未来更多高质量研究提供支持。

临床问题 7: 是否推荐髋外展肌无力作为KOA发生发展的危险因素? 有哪些方法可以对髋外展肌无力进行评估和治疗?

推荐意见 7.1: 建议将髋外展肌无力作为KOA发展的危险因素。(2D)

推荐原理:髋外展肌群,主要包括臀中肌、臀小肌、阔筋膜张肌和缝匠肌等,对维持躯干稳定、控制下肢运动至关重要^[39]。在步态周期中通过外展力矩来稳定骨盆,防止对侧骨盆下降^[40]。髋外展肌群无力会导致骨盆失稳,身体重心偏移,从而增加膝关节内侧间室负荷和髋内收力矩,加速膝关节退行性改变^[41-44]。髋外展肌群增强能够有效控制骨盆在额状面的运动,防止重力线偏离支撑膝,从而减轻膝关节内侧间室压力^[45]。

证据总结:本指南工作组整合现有证据发现^[46-49],髋外展肌力量训练可以显著降低疼痛评分(SMD= - 0.29,95%CI: - 0.54— - 0.04)并改善WOMAC功能评分(SMD= - 0.54,95%CI: - 1.04— - 0.08)。meta分析中也发现KOA患者存在髋外展肌无力(SMD= - 0.60,95% CI: - 1.04— - 0.17)^[50]。基线髋外展肌力量与2年后的内侧胫股和外侧胫股软骨损伤进展呈负相关(RR=0.95,95%CI: 0.84—1.08; RR=0.83,95%CI: 0.71—0.98)^[51]。这提示髋外展肌力量可能对膝关节软骨起到保护作用,并有助于维持关节功能^[51]。但现有证据质量极低,膝外展肌群无力作为危险因素的因果关系尚需更多高质量研究证实。

推荐意见 7.2: 推荐采用改良的Lovett 13级MMT或器械肌力评定方法评估髋外展肌肌力,必要时可采用手持测力计或等速肌力测试等评定获取更精确的数据。评估时应参考年龄-性别特异性标准值。(1B)

推荐原理:髋外展肌无力可能加剧已患KOA患者的病情进展,准确评估髋外展肌肌力有助于预测KOA进展。MMT操作简便,适用性广;而器械评定则可提供更精确的量化数据,有利于精确评估和随访监测。

证据总结:髋外展肌肌力评估方法包括MMT和器械肌力评定^[10]。不同年龄和性别群体的手持测力计评估的正常髋部肌群肌力参考值^[11]:50—59岁女性优势侧和非优势侧平均值分别为(208.12±40.36)N和(203.27±38.37)N,男性则分别为(305.97±68.79)N和(298.49±67.64)N;60—69岁女性优势侧和非优势侧降至(192.30±44.11)N和(178.45±41.94)N,男性为(260.02±51.59)N和(265.06±64.18)N;70—79岁女性进一步降至(162.95±36.54)N和(154.66±33.11)N,男性为(251.2±48.64)N和(242.64±48.94)N。髋外展肌等速肌力测试以峰值扭矩(Nm/kg)为核心指标,推荐60°/s角速度进行力量分析,需采用单组测试(3—30次重复)以避免疲劳^[12]。临床实践中,建议根据评估目的和医疗机构条件选择合适的评估方法,并定期评估以关注患者肌力的变化趋势。

推荐意见 7.3:建议采用针对性NMES、渐进式抗阻运动和WBVT作为改善髋外展肌无力的主要策略。(2C)

推荐原理:髋外展肌力量训练可以降低髋内收力矩,从而减少膝关节内侧间室的负荷,可能减轻疼痛并延缓疾病进展^[45]。髋外展肌的激活对于在行走和转移身体重心时维持姿势稳定和平衡至关重要^[45,50]。NMES通过直接刺激肌肉收缩、改善神经肌肉募集、促进蛋白质合成、改善本体感觉和减轻疼痛等多重机制来增强肌力^[52]。而全身振动训练则通过刺激肌肉纺锤波,影响中枢机制,激活 α 运动神经元并产生振动强直反射^[16-17];渐进式抗阻训练通过促进肌纤维蛋白质合成、优化神经调控、诱导肌纤维类型转化及增强骨密度,全面提升肌肉力量、耐力和骨骼健康^[53-56]。这三种干预措施通过不同的机制相互协同,发挥预防和治疗作用。

证据总结:髋外展肌抗阻训练干预在减轻KOA患者疼痛(SMD=-1.91,95%CI:-2.92—-0.9)和改善功能(SMD=0.70,95%CI:0.25—1.14)方面有显著效果^[56-57]。全身振动结合运动治疗可缓解疼痛并提升患者自我报告的功能活动水平(SMD=0.46,95%CI:0.20—0.71;SMD=-0.72,95%CI:-1.14—-0.30)^[20-21]。髋外展肌力量训练可使用主观疲劳程度来监测强度,每个肌群8—12次/组,2—3组,每次15—30min,每周锻炼5天,持续12周,可以使用等张、等速、等长,或多种形式综合的肌力训练形式^[23]。NMES作为辅助或独立干预手段,可针对性增强髋外展肌力与爆发力。亚运动阈值NMES结合步行训练能显著提升短时程发力率,提示其对髋外展肌快速力量激活的优化作用^[58]。

2.6 髋股关节结构紊乱

临床问题 8:是否推荐髋股关节结构紊乱作为KOA发生发展的力学性因素?有哪些方法可以对髋股关节结构紊乱进行评估和治疗?

推荐意见 8.1:建议髋骨脱位史为KOA发生发展的力学性因素。(2C)

推荐原理:髋骨是人体内最大的籽骨,与股四头肌和髌腱共同构成复杂的伸肌机制,在增加股四头肌力矩、分散力量和维持关节稳定性方面发挥着重要作用^[59]。髋骨脱位是由于外伤、解剖异常以及软组织失衡等多种原因共同作用^[60]。髋骨脱位常作为髋股关节不稳定的初始表现,可能导致关节面异常应力分布、股四头肌力线偏移、Q角和髋骨外翻角度增大以及软骨损伤,进而影响膝关节的稳定性和正常功能^[61]。尽管髋骨脱位与KOA之间的直接因果关系尚待进一步明确,但从生物力学角度推测,反复的髋骨脱位可能通过软骨损伤、关节生物力学改变、持续炎症反应和肌肉失衡等机制,增加KOA的发生风险^[62]。

证据总结:本指南工作组整合现有研究发现,髋骨脱位显著增加了KOA发生的风险(HR=9.70,95%CI:4.65—20.24)^[63-64]。另一项病例对照研究结果显示,既往髋骨脱位与髋股关节炎的发生显著相关(OR=3.2,95%CI:1.25—8.18)^[65]。髋骨脱位的频率越高,发生软骨损伤和KOA的风险越大^[66]。识别和管理好髋骨脱位,特别是对于年轻和骨骼未成熟的患者,可能降低未来发生KOA的风险。

推荐意见 8.2:建议采用影像学检查与临床诊断相结合的方法对髋骨脱位进行综合评估。(2B)

推荐原理:影像学检查,能客观量化与髋骨脱位相关的解剖学参数,如胫骨结节-滑车沟距离(tibial tubercle-trochlear groove,TT-TG)、滑车深度、髋骨倾斜角等^[67]。临床诊断通过系统的病史询问(如复发性脱位史)和体格检查(如J形征、恐惧试验阳性等),快速评估患者的临床表现、髋骨稳定性及相关功能障碍,为诊断提供直接的动态和功能性信息。影像学提供解剖结构数据,临床诊断揭示功能状态和症状,两者互为补充,能更全面准确地评估髋骨脱位,为防治提供依据。

证据总结:影像学检查广泛应用TT-TG、滑车深度、髋骨倾斜角、髋骨高度、胫骨结节到后交叉韧带的距离(tibial tubercle to posterior cruciate ligament, TT-PCL)等,但诊断标准尚无统一结论^[68-69]。有研究指出,TT-TG正常范围为13.6—20mm,髋骨倾斜角正常范围为11°—20°^[70]。一项横断面研究通过MRI评估,髋骨脱位的诊断阈值包括:TT-PCL>15.0mm(敏感性72.0,95%CI:62.1—80.5;特异性75.00,95%CI:65.3—83.1)、TT-TG>21.3mm(敏感性76.0,95%CI:66.4—84.0;特异性46.00,

95%CI: 36.0—56.3)、滑车深度<4.95mm(敏感性80.00,95%CI: 70.8—87.3; 特异性82.00,95%CI: 73.9—89.0)^[71]。另一项研究测得髌骨倾斜角、TT-TG、股骨滑车深度的诊断界值分别为:>10.7°(敏感性93.3%,特异性93.3%)、>9.7mm(敏感性70.0%,特异性86.7%)、<4.5mm(敏感性96.7%,特异性83.3%)^[72]。临床诊断包括病史和体格检查。复发性髌骨脱位指既往有一次或多次髌骨外侧脱位史,查体可见膝前疼痛肿胀、股四头肌萎缩、髌骨活动度异常、Q角增大、J形征、髌骨倾斜试验及恐惧试验阳性^[73—75]。

推荐意见 8.3:建议首次髌骨脱位且无明显骨软骨骨折的患者采用非手术治疗。存在以下情况时建议采用手术治疗:①保守治疗效果不佳;②复发性脱位;③首次脱位伴有骨软骨骨折/游离体。(2B)

推荐原理:首次髌骨脱位且无明显骨软骨骨折时,考虑非手术治疗,建议持续6周至3个月,包括股四头肌训练、股内侧肌特异性训练以及石膏、夹板、支具、肌贴固定等^[76—77]。若保守治疗无效、出现复发性脱位或首次脱位伴有骨软骨骨折/游离体,则考虑手术干预。由于髌骨脱位病因复杂,最佳方案需个体化评估,应综合考虑患者的运动需求、解剖畸形程度、韧带松弛程度等因素。手术方式包括内侧髌股韧带(medial patellofemoral ligament, MPFL)重建术、滑车成形术、胫骨结节截骨术、股骨截骨术和联合手术。MPFL重建术是治疗复发性髌骨脱位常用的术式^[78];若存在其他显著的骨性结构异常,常需多种术式联合以达到最佳疗效^[79—80]。

证据总结:在非手术治疗方面,针对首次髌骨脱位患者的研究表明,股四头肌锻炼组的Lysholm膝关节评分(中位数95.0 vs. 89.0, $P=0.05$)和功能结果均优于股内侧斜肌锻炼组^[81]。髌骨稳定支具与不限制运动的膝关节支架,在髌骨脱位再脱位率上无显著差异(34.4% vs. 37.5%, $P=0.794$),但后者功能结果更优^[82]。meta分析显示,与非手术治疗相比,手术治疗原发性外侧髌骨脱位在6年内的再脱位率较低(RR 0.40, 95%CI: 0.25—0.661),且Kujala评分更高(MD=10.17, 95%CI: 1.61—18.74)^[83]。MPFL重建术复发率显著低于MPFL修复(OR=0.42, 95%CI: 0.07—0.72)和非手术治疗(OR=0.09, 95%CI: 0.03—0.32);MPFL修复导致的复发率也明显低于非手术治疗(OR=0.42, 95%CI: 0.25—0.70)^[84]。

推荐意见 8.4:建议将高位髌骨作为KOA发生发展的力学性因素。(2C)

推荐原理:髌骨的排列和形态与膝关节的运动学和动力学密切相关,矢状位排列异常通常分为高位和低位^[85]。高位髌骨患者在膝关节伸展过程中,由于髌骨和滑车之间的接触面积减少,易导致髌骨不稳定、髌股关节对线不良和关节面接触压力增加,从而增加髌骨脱位和软骨加速退变的风险^[86]。膝关节屈曲时,高位髌骨不易滑入股骨髁间窝,进一步增大髌股关节间压力,长期较高压力会引起髌骨软骨面磨损,最终导致活动时疼痛进行性加重、膝ROM受限等功能障碍^[87]。此外,与高位髌骨相关的较长髌腱可能增加脂肪垫水肿,加重KOA的炎症反应^[88]。

证据总结:本指南证据组整合现有研究发现^[85—86],高位髌骨与髌股骨髓病变存在显著相关性(OR=2.51, 95%CI: 1.84—3.43),且髌骨位置越高,软骨损伤恶化几率越高(OR=3.27, 95%CI: 2.24—4.76)。高位髌骨患者发生KOA的风险是髌骨位置正常患者的2.2倍^[89]。相比正常人,高位髌骨者发生髌股关节炎结构性损伤恶化的风险显著增加,包括外侧髌股关节软骨损伤(OR=2.4, 95%CI: 1.7—3.3)、髌骨骨髓病变进展(OR=2.9, 95%CI: 2.0—4.3),以及内侧髌股关节软骨损伤(OR=1.5, 95%CI: 1.1—2.0)^[90]。

推荐意见 8.5:建议高位髌骨导致的KOA使用影像学测量Insall-Salvati(IS)指数进行评估。(2D)

推荐原理:临床实践中常用的髌骨高度测量指标多样,主要包括Insall-Salvati(IS)指数、Blackburne-Peel(BP)指数及Caton-Deschamps(CD)指数等^[91]。在膝关节屈曲30°侧位X线片上,IS指数通过髌腱长度与髌骨长度比值评估,正常范围为0.8—1.2^[92];BP指数通过髌骨关节面下缘至胫骨平台垂直距离与髌骨关节面长度比值计算,正常值为0.8—1.0^[93]。CD指数反映了髌骨下极到胫骨近端前上角距离与髌骨关节面长度之间的比值关系^[94]。

证据总结:IS指数和CD指数研究呈现良好至极好的一致性,BP指数仅显示中度至良好一致性^[68]。IS指数是唯一在X线、CT和MRI三种成像方式均表现出良好观察者内、间信度的指标,不同成像方式间可靠性为中等至良好,X线与MRI一致性最佳,而其他指标在不同成像方式间一致性仅为差至中度^[95]。meta分析证实IS指数在髌骨不稳定预测方面表现更优,较CD指数和BP指数具有更好成像再现性^[96]。BP指数和CD指数测量受胫骨后倾角变化影响,在评估胫骨高位截骨术后髌骨高度变化方面存在局限性^[93—94]。当IS指数临界值为1.2时,膝关节侧位X线片显示髌股关节炎患病率达73%^[97]。

推荐意见 8.6:建议对于有症状的高位髌骨患者先进行非手术治疗,效果不佳者视情况进行手术治疗。(2C)

推荐原理:高位髌骨导致髌骨与滑车沟接触延迟,髌骨在更大膝ROM内依赖软组织稳定,增加髌股关节不稳定风险^[98]。阶梯化治疗遵循风险效益平衡原则:非手术治疗可通过肌力强化和生物力学优化改善症状;非手术治疗无效时,手术可直接纠正解剖异常,降低髌骨高度,优化髌股关节生物力学^[99]。

证据总结:所有高位髌骨患者均应首先接受6周—3个月的物理治疗,包括股四头肌强化、髌骨松动训练、核心和髋外展肌强化,配合动态支具治疗和手法治疗缓解髌胫束紧张^[98]。肌肉贴扎通过固定髌骨上缘提供下向力,可能改变髌股关节接触面积并减轻功能活动疼痛^[100]。上述非手术治疗方法效果不佳者,视情况进行手术治疗。胫骨结节截骨远端化(tibial tubercleosteotomy with distalization, TTO-d)可有效降低髌骨高位,76.8%的患者术后获得良好的髌骨稳定性^[101]。TTO-d距离通常为8—10mm^[102],可根据需要联合内移胫骨结节以纠正TT-TG距离异常^[103—104],常需同期行内侧髌股韧带重建以获得最佳疗效^[101]。

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