

The American College of Radiology, with more than 30,000 members, is the principal organization of radiologists, radiation oncologists, and clinical medical physicists in the United States. The College is a nonprofit professional society whose primary purposes are to advance the science of radiology, improve radiologic services to the patient, study the socioeconomic aspects of the practice of radiology, and encourage continuing education for radiologists, radiation oncologists, medical physicists, and persons practicing in allied professional fields.

The American College of Radiology will periodically define new practice parameters and technical standards for radiologic practice to help advance the science of radiology and to improve the quality of service to patients throughout the United States. Existing practice parameters and technical standards will be reviewed for revision or renewal, as appropriate, on their fifth anniversary or sooner, if indicated.

Each practice parameter and technical standard, representing a policy statement by the College, has undergone a thorough consensus process in which it has been subjected to extensive review and approval. The practice parameters and technical standards recognize that the safe and effective use of diagnostic and therapeutic radiology requires specific training, skills, and techniques, as described in each document. Reproduction or modification of the published practice parameter and technical standard by those entities not providing these services is not authorized.

Revised 2015 (Resolution 6)*

ACR–SPR–SSR PRACTICE PARAMETER FOR THE PERFORMANCE AND INTERPRETATION OF MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING (MRI) OF THE KNEE

PREAMBLE

These practice parameters are an educational tool designed to assist practitioners in providing appropriate radiologic care for patients. Practice Parameters and Technical Standards are not inflexible rules or requirements of practice and are not intended, nor should they be used, to establish a legal standard of care¹. For these reasons and those set forth below, the American College of Radiology cautions against the use of these s in litigation in which the clinical decisions of a practitioner are called into question.

The ultimate judgment regarding the propriety of any specific procedure or course of action must be made by the physician or medical physicist in light of all the circumstances presented. Thus, an approach that differs from the practice parameters, standing alone, does not necessarily imply that the approach was below the standard of care. To the contrary, a conscientious practitioner may responsibly adopt a course of action different from that set forth in the practice parameters when, in the reasonable judgment of the practitioner, such course of action is indicated by the condition of the patient, limitations of available resources, or advances in knowledge or technology subsequent to publication of the practice parameters. However, a practitioner who employs an approach substantially different from these practice parameters is advised to document in the patient record information sufficient to explain the approach taken.

The practice of medicine involves not only the science, but also the art of dealing with the prevention, diagnosis, alleviation, and treatment of disease. The variety and complexity of human conditions make it impossible to always reach the most appropriate diagnosis or to predict with certainty a particular response to treatment. Therefore, it should be recognized that adherence to these practice parameters will not assure an accurate diagnosis or a successful outcome. All that should be expected is that the practitioner will follow a reasonable course of action based on current knowledge, available resources, and the needs of the patient to deliver effective

¹ *Iowa Medical Society and Iowa Society of Anesthesiologists v. Iowa Board of Nursing*, ___ N.W.2d ___ (Iowa 2013) Iowa Supreme Court refuses to find that the *ACR Technical Standard for Management of the Use of Radiation in Fluoroscopic Procedures* (Revised 2008) sets a national standard for who may perform fluoroscopic procedures in light of the standard's stated purpose that ACR standards are educational tools and not intended to establish a legal standard of care. See also, *Stanley v. McCarver*, 63 P.3d 1076 (Ariz. App. 2003) where in a concurring opinion the Court stated that "published standards or guidelines of specialty medical organizations are useful in determining the duty owed or the standard of care applicable in a given situation" even though ACR standards themselves do not establish the standard of care.

and safe medical care. The sole purpose of these practice parameters is to assist practitioners in achieving this objective.

I. INTRODUCTION

This practice parameter was developed and written collaboratively by the American College of Radiology (ACR), the Society of Pediatric Radiology (SPR), and the Society of Skeletal Radiology (SSR).

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is a proven imaging modality for the detection, evaluation, assessment, staging, and follow-up of disorders of the knee. Properly performed and interpreted, MRI not only contributes to diagnosis but also serves as an important guide to treatment planning and prognostication. However, it should be performed only for a valid medical reason and after careful consideration of alternative imaging modalities. Radiographs will be the first imaging test performed for most suspected bone and soft-tissue abnormalities of the knee and will often suffice to diagnose or exclude an abnormality or direct further imaging workup. Bone scintigraphy is often used when radiographically occult bone disease is suspected or to screen the entire skeleton for conditions such as metastases. Other nuclear medicine examinations have a role for specific clinical scenarios (eg, a labeled white blood cell study for suspected osteomyelitis). Computed tomography can show detailed bone trabecular and cortical anatomy, whereas sonography may be appropriate to examine superficial soft-tissue structures around the knee, such as tendons, bursae, and joint effusion. Lastly, arthroscopy provides a detailed examination of the internal structures of the knee joint, allowing the surgeon to treat as well as to diagnose many internal derangements.

Although MRI is a sensitive, noninvasive diagnostic test for detecting anatomic abnormalities of the knee, its findings may be misleading if not closely correlated with radiographs, clinical history, physical examination, and physiologic tests. Adherence to the following practice parameters will enhance the probability of detecting such abnormalities.

II. INDICATIONS

A. Primary indications for MRI of the knee include, but are not limited to, diagnosis, exclusion, and grading of suspected:

1. Meniscal disorders: nondisplaced and displaced tears, discoid menisci, parameniscal cysts; complications of meniscal surgery † [1-8]
2. Ligament abnormalities: cruciate and collateral sprains and tears; complications following ligament repair or reconstruction † [9-13]
3. Extensor mechanism abnormalities: quadriceps and patellar tendon degeneration, partial and complete tears; patellar fractures and sleeve avulsions; and retinacular sprains and tears [14-18]
4. Osteochondral abnormalities: osteochondral fractures and treated osteochondral defects † [19,20]
5. Articular cartilage abnormalities: degeneration, chondromalacia, chondral fissures, fractures, flaps, and separations; complications following chondral surgery † [21-25]
6. Loose bodies and impinging structures: Hoffa syndrome patellar and quadriceps impingement [26]
7. Synovial-based disorders: synovitis, bursitis, symptomatic plicae†, and popliteal cysts* [27-30]
8. Osseous abnormalities: osteonecrosis, marrow edema syndromes, stress fractures, radiographically occult fractures, transphyseal injury, physeal bar evaluation, and mapping for growth disturbance and limb-length discrepancy* [31-34]
9. Muscle and tendon disorders: strains, partial and complete tears, tendonitis, tendinopathy, inflammation, and ischemia [35,36]
10. Iliotibial band friction syndrome [37,38]
11. Neoplasms of bone, joint, or soft tissue* [39,40]
12. Infections of bone, joint, or soft tissue* [41,42]
13. Congenital and developmental conditions: Blount disease, dysplasia, normal variants* [43,44]
14. Vascular conditions: entrapment, aneurysm, stenosis, occlusion, cystic adventitial disease* [45-47]

15. Neurologic conditions: entrapment, compression, denervation, and peripheral neuropathy* [48]

B. MRI of the knee may be indicated to further clarify and stage conditions diagnosed clinically and/or suggested by other imaging modalities, including, but not limited to, the following:

1. Arthritides: inflammatory, infectious, neuropathic, degenerative, crystal-induced, post-traumatic* [49-53]
2. Primary and secondary bone and soft-tissue tumors* [39,40]
3. Fractures and dislocations [54-56]

C. MRI of the knee may be useful to evaluate specific clinical scenarios, including, but not limited to, the following:

1. Prolonged, refractory, or unexplained knee pain [57]
2. Acute knee trauma [58]
3. Mechanical knee symptoms: catching, locking, limited or painful range of motion, snapping, crepitus† [59]
4. Tibiofemoral and/or patellofemoral instability: chronic, recurrent, subacute, acute dislocation, and subluxation† [55,56,60]
5. Tibiofemoral malalignment and/or patellofemoral malalignment or maltracking [61-63]
6. Swelling, enlargement, mass, or atrophy*
7. Patients for whom diagnostic or therapeutic arthroscopy is planned † [57,64-69]
8. Patients with recurrent, residual, or new symptoms following knee surgery† [8,10,11,22,70-72]
9. Patients with selected complications following knee arthroplasty [73,74] using appropriate metal artifact reduction strategies[75]

* Conditions in which intravenous contrast may be useful.

† Conditions in which intra-articular contrast (performed by direct intra-articular injection or indirect joint opacification following intravenous administration) may be useful.

III. QUALIFICATIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF PERSONNEL

See the [ACR Practice Parameter for Performing and Interpreting Magnetic Resonance Imaging \(MRI\)](#) [76].

IV. SAFETY GUIDELINES AND POSSIBLE CONTRAINDICATIONS

See the [ACR Practice Parameter for Performing and Interpreting Magnetic Resonance Imaging \(MRI\)](#) [76], the [ACR Guidance Document on MR Safe Practices](#) [77], and the [ACR Manual on Contrast Media](#) [78].

Peer-reviewed literature pertaining to MR safety should be reviewed on a regular basis [79,80].

V. SPECIFICATIONS OF THE EXAMINATION

The supervising physician must have complete understanding of the indications, risks, and benefits of the examination, as well as alternative imaging procedures. The physician must be familiar with potential hazards associated with MRI, including potential adverse reactions to contrast media. The physician should be familiar with relevant ancillary studies that the patient may have undergone. The physician performing the MRI interpretation must have a clear understanding and knowledge of the anatomy and pathophysiology relevant to the MRI examination.

The written or electronic request for MRI of the knee should provide sufficient information to demonstrate the medical necessity of the examination and allow for its proper performance and interpretation.

Documentation that satisfies medical necessity includes 1) signs and symptoms and/or 2) relevant history (including known diagnoses). Additional information regarding the specific reason for the examination or a provisional diagnosis would be helpful and may at times be needed to allow for the proper performance and interpretation of the examination.

The request for the examination must be originated by a physician or other appropriately licensed health care provider. The accompanying clinical information should be provided by a physician or other appropriately licensed health care provider familiar with the patient's clinical problem or question and consistent with the state's scope of practice requirements. (ACR Resolution 35, adopted in 2006)

The supervising physician must also understand the pulse sequences to be used and their effect on the appearance of the images, including the potential generation of image artifacts. Standard imaging protocols may be established and varied on a case-by-case basis when necessary. These protocols should be reviewed and updated periodically.

A. Patient Selection

The physician responsible for the examination should supervise patient selection and preparation, and be available in person or by phone for consultation. Patients must be screened and interviewed by qualified personnel prior to the examination to exclude individuals who may be at risk by exposure to the MR environment.

Certain indications require administration of intravenous (IV) contrast media. IV contrast enhancement should be performed using appropriate injection protocols and in accordance with the institution's policy on IV contrast utilization. (See the [ACR–SPR Practice Parameter for the Use of Intravascular Contrast Media](#) [81]).

Patients suffering from anxiety or claustrophobia may require sedation or additional assistance. Administration of conscious sedation may be needed to achieve a successful examination. If moderate sedation is necessary, refer to the [ACR–SIR Practice Parameter for Sedation/Analgesia](#) [82].

B. Facility Requirements

Appropriate emergency equipment and medications must be immediately available to treat adverse reactions associated with administered medications. The equipment and medications should be monitored for inventory and drug expiration dates on a regular basis. The equipment, medications, and other emergency support must also be appropriate for the range of ages and sizes in the patient population.

C. Examination Technique

Diagnostic quality knee MRI is possible using a variety of magnet designs (closed-bore whole-body, open whole body, dedicated extremity) and field strengths [3,5,83,84]. Regardless of magnet design, a local coil is mandatory to maximize signal-to-noise ratio. Typically, a cylindrical coil (often called an “extremity” or “knee” coil) surrounds the knee. Newer multichannel knee coils containing 8 or more coil elements will further increase signal-to-noise ratios and are required when using techniques like parallel imaging, which decrease the time of the scan [85]. Occasionally a very large extremity may require a slightly larger coil (a posterior neck coil, for example), but every attempt should be made to ensure that the size of the coil closely matches that of the knee circumference [86]. The coil's placement should allow imaging of the major structures in and around the knee; at times repositioning the coil and/or extremity will be necessary to demonstrate additional pertinent anatomy.

Certain MR systems (eg, those using low-field-strength magnets) have inherently lower signal-to-noise ratios than others. When using such a system to perform knee MRI, other imaging parameters, such as the receiver bandwidth and number of acquisitions, will require modification to ensure adequate spatial and contrast resolution for confident diagnosis, often at the expense of longer examination times [87-89]. It may also be more difficult to

achieve uniform chemical fat suppression on low-field-strength systems, necessitating the use of Dixon [90] or short-TI inversion recovery (STIR) techniques. Other systems may be more prone to imaging artifacts (eg, chemical shift artifact on high-field magnets), again necessitating that imaging parameters, such as readout bandwidth, be modified to ensure that these artifacts do not detract from the diagnostic quality of the resultant images [3]. For some indications like high-resolution imaging of articular cartilage, images obtained with a low-field system will be of lower quality compared to those acquired on a high-field system [84,90-94]. Detection of other conditions, such as cruciate ligament tears, is less dependent on magnet strength and design.

Typically, the patient is positioned supine with the affected knee completely or nearly completely extended in the coil. Mild external rotation of the leg is often comfortable for the patient. Gentle immobilization of the extremity and use of comfort measures for the entire body will help to reduce involuntary patient motion and resultant artifacts.

Knee MRI examinations usually include images acquired in appropriate transverse, sagittal, and coronal imaging planes [95,96]. Multiplanar images can be acquired directly or reconstructed electronically from volumetric data acquired in one imaging plane. Some practices obtain standard sagittal and coronal images orthogonal to the anatomic planes of the knee, whereas others may angle the planes to better identify specific anatomic structures, such as the posterolateral corner ligaments [97,98]. The coverage should include all the anterior, posterior, medial, and lateral supporting structures of the knee, though not all structures need to be included in every imaging plane. Superiorly, the distal aspects of the quadriceps tendon and suprapatellar joint recess should be included. The distal insertions of the patellar tendon and pes anserinus tendons should be included inferiorly [99].

The field of view (FOV) should be tailored to the size of the knee and the structures being examined, but for the standard sequences, the FOV should be 16 cm or smaller. Occasionally, additional sequences with a larger FOV will be appropriate to evaluate a detected or suspected abnormality completely, for example, in the extensor mechanism or bone marrow. Slice thickness in the sagittal and coronal planes of 4 mm or less is necessary to demonstrate subtle meniscal pathology, but even thinner sections may be advantageous for detailed analysis of other structures such as the articular cartilage. An interslice gap can decrease signal loss due to cross talk [100] but should be no more than 33% to 50% of the slice width and should not impair complete visualization of the intra-articular structures. The imaging matrix should balance intravoxel signal-to-noise ratio with desired in-plane spatial resolution and reduction of truncation artifacts but should be at least 196 steps in the phase direction and 256 steps in the frequency direction for 2-D imaging. Three-dimensional sequences with near isotropic voxels allow for multiplanar reconstructions from a single acquisition [101-103].

Knee MRI uses a wide variety of pulse sequences [86]. Many practices tailor the specifics of each study to optimize the examination for specific clinical questions. The choice of sequences will vary due to local preferences and/or available equipment or software limitations. Spin-echo, fast (turbo) spin-echo, and gradient-recalled sequences each may have a role for knee MRI. A typical imaging protocol will be composed of one or more of these pulse sequence types. The exact TR, TE, and flip angle chosen will depend on the field strength of the magnet and the relative contrast weighting desired.

Fast (turbo) spin-echo images with a relatively short effective TE are most frequently used to examine the menisci. A short-echo train, short-interecho spacing, and/or tailored radiofrequency pulses can reduce potential blurring. Two-dimensional and 3-D gradient-recalled images can also demonstrate meniscal disorders [99,101,103]. To show ligament pathology, water-sensitive images obtained using conventional or fast (turbo) spin-echo long-TE sequences [110,111] or T2*-weighted gradient-recalled sequences [103] may be used. Including at least one plane of T1-weighted sequences is useful for characterizing marrow abnormalities [112], various stages of hemorrhage [113], and muscle pathology [35,36]. Additionally, T1-weighted images (often with fat suppression) are used after intravenous administration of gadolinium-based contrast agents to show tissue enhancement [114].

Imaging of articular cartilage disorders can be accomplished with a variety of pulse sequences [22,24], including fast spin-echo proton-density-weighted or T2-weighted sequences with or without fat suppression [21-23,115,116] or 3-D gradient-recalled sequences [103,117,118]. Newer sequences that may be advantageous to assess articular cartilage include modified steady-state free precession or spoiled gradient-recalled sequences that create separate water and lipid images [119-121] that selectively excite water protons [122,123] or that average 2 separate echoes to increase T2 weighting [124,125]. In skeletally immature children with remote history of knee trauma with transphyseal extension resulting in growth disturbance and limb-length discrepancy, physeal bar evaluation and mapping can be performed by using 3-D fat-suppressed spoiled gradient-recalled echo sequence [33,34]. Additional specialty sequences have been advocated for cartilage imaging and may require specialized equipment. In addition, MR arthrography may be useful for evaluating articular surfaces in the knee [73], especially following articular cartilage transplantation [126], or on low-field systems where many of the newer sequences are not available [127].

Suppressing the signal from fat may enhance the diagnostic yield of some pulse sequences [86]. Fat suppression techniques include spectral suppression of water protons, a phase-dependent method, such as the Dixon method or short-TI inversion recovery (STIR) [90,128-132]. The latter 2 techniques may be necessary on low-field systems. Methods also exist for generating separate water and lipid images [119-121], or for selectively exciting water protons, which essentially nulls the contribution of fat in the final images [122,123]. Fat suppression is useful for identifying marrow abnormalities [128,129] and may be a useful adjunct when performing MR arthrography [11,72], or when fast spin-echo sequences are used to examine the menisci, ligaments, and articular surfaces of the knee [21,115,131].

It may be possible to shorten the time required for a knee MR examination without compromising diagnostic yield. Multichannel local coils allow the use of parallel imaging techniques, which decrease acquisition times for individual pulse sequences [85,102,120]. Additionally, 3-D near-isotropic imaging is possible with newer gradient-recalled and fast spin-echo sequences [101,102,121]. Using these methods, a single volumetric acquisition obtained and reconstructed into multiple imaging planes will decrease the total number of pulse sequences needed.

Additional imaging techniques may have a role for specific knee disorders. Direct and indirect MR arthrography may be beneficial for various internal knee derangements and for imaging postoperative conditions [11,20,26,71-73,133]. In cases where the etiology of a focal marrow lesion is uncertain, comparing the lesion signal intensity on a pair of gradient-recalled images with TE values chosen so that fat and water protons are in phase and out of phase, respectively, may help show fat within the lesion, thus supporting benignity [134].

Various techniques are useful to reduce artifacts that can degrade imaging quality. Wraparound artifact, including that originating from signal received from the contralateral knee, can be reduced by phase oversampling, by swapping the phase and frequency orientations, or by using radiofrequency shielding between the knees [135,136]. Truncation (Gibbs) artifacts may obscure or mimic meniscal tears; changing the phase-encoding direction or increasing the imaging matrix will reduce this artifact [135,137]. Ensuring patient comfort combined with gentle immobilization when necessary may reduce involuntary patient motion [86]. Presaturation pulses or the use of gradient moment nulling will reduce ghosting artifacts from flowing blood [135,138]. Chemical shift artifact is more severe at higher field strengths and may necessitate an increase in the receiver bandwidth [3,139]. Susceptibility artifacts, which originate from local field heterogeneity, are also more severe at higher field strengths and when using gradient-recalled pulse sequences. Avoiding gradient-echo imaging and reducing the voxel size by increasing the imaging matrix and/or decreasing the slice thickness and FOV will help reduce the magnitude of susceptibility artifacts [135].

In knees containing large metallic implants, a combination of longer echo trains, increased receiver bandwidth, decreased FOV, increased matrix size in the frequency-encoding direction, and control of the phase and frequency encoding directions will reduce, but typically not completely eliminate, metal artifacts [71,74]. The term “metal artifact reduction sequences” (MARS) has been applied to such strategies.

It is the responsibility of the supervising physician to determine whether additional or unconventional pulse sequences or imaging techniques would confer added benefit for the diagnosis and management of the patient. Examinations that use techniques not approved by the Food and Drug Administration, such as the intra-articular injection of gadolinium chelates (direct MR arthrography) [140-142], can be considered when they are judged to be medically appropriate.

VI. DOCUMENTATION

Reporting should be in accordance with the [ACR Practice Parameter for Communication of Diagnostic Imaging Findings](#) [143].

The report should address the condition of the menisci, major ligaments, articular cartilage, osseous structures, and extensor mechanism. In selected cases, a description of findings in the neurovascular structures, muscles and tendons, synovium, and cortical bone would be appropriate.

VII. EQUIPMENT SPECIFICATIONS

The MRI equipment specifications and performance must meet all state and federal requirements. The requirements include, but are not limited to, specifications of maximum static magnetic strength, maximum rate of change of the magnetic field strength (dB/dt), maximum radiofrequency power deposition (specific absorption rate), and maximum acoustic noise levels.

VIII. QUALITY CONTROL AND IMPROVEMENT, SAFETY, INFECTION CONTROL, AND PATIENT EDUCATION

Policies and procedures related to quality, patient education, infection control, and safety should be developed and implemented in accordance with the ACR Policy on Quality Control and Improvement, Safety, Infection Control, and Patient Education appearing under the heading *Position Statement on QC & Improvement, Safety, Infection Control, and Patient Education* on the ACR website (<http://www.acr.org/guidelines>).

Specific policies and procedures related to MRI safety should be in place with documentation that is updated annually and compiled under the supervision and direction of the supervising MRI physician. Guidelines should be provided that deal with potential hazards associated with the MRI examination of the patient as well as to others in the immediate area [79,80,144,145]. Screening forms must also be provided to detect those patients who may be at risk for adverse events associated with the MRI examination [79,80,144,145].

Equipment monitoring should be in accordance with the [ACR-AAPM Technical Standard for Diagnostic Medical Physics Performance Monitoring of Magnetic Resonance Imaging \(MRI\) Equipment](#) [146].

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This practice parameter was revised according to the process described under the heading *The Process for Developing ACR Practice Parameters and Technical Standards* on the ACR website (<http://www.acr.org/guidelines>) by the Committee on Body Imaging (Musculoskeletal) of the Commission on Body Imaging and by the Committee on Practice Parameters – Pediatric Radiology of the Commission on Pediatric Radiology, in collaboration with the SPR and the SSR.

Collaborative Committee

Members represent their societies in the initial and final revision of this practice parameter.

ACR

Andrew H. Sonin, MD, FACR, Chair
Michael J. Tuite, MD, FACR

SPR

Jerry R. Dwek, MD
Timothy R. Singewald, MD

SSR

Jonathan S. Luchs, MD
Adam C. Zoga, MD

Committee on Body Imaging (Musculoskeletal)

(ACR committee responsible for sponsoring the draft through the process)

Kenneth A. Buckwalter, MD, MS, FACR, Chair
Christine B. Chung, MD
Robert K. Gelczer, MD
Dawn M. Hastreiter, MD, PhD
Viviane Khoury, MD
Jonathan S. Luchs, MD
Jeffrey J. Peterson, MD
Trenton D. Roth, MD
David A. Rubin, MD, FACR
Andrew H. Sonin, MD, FACR

Committee on Practice Parameters – Pediatric Radiology

(ACR Committee responsible for sponsoring the draft through the process)

Eric N. Faerber, MD, FACR, Chair
Richard M. Benator, MD, FACR
Lorna P. Browne, MB, BCh
Timothy J. Carmody, MD
Brian D. Coley, MD, FACR
Lee K. Collins, MD
Monica S. Epelman, MD
Lynn A. Fordham, MD, FACR
Kerri A. Highmore, MD
Tal Laor, MD
Marguerite T. Parisi, MD, MS
Sumit Pruthi, MBBS
Nancy K. Rollins, MD
Pallavi Sagar, MD
Manrita K. Sidhu, MD

Lincoln L. Berland, MD, FACR, Chair, Commission on Body Imaging
Marta Hernanz-Schulman, MD, FACR, Chair, Commission on Pediatric Radiology
Debra L. Monticciolo, MD, FACR, Chair, Commission on Quality and Safety
Jacqueline Anne Bello, MD, FACR, Vice-Chair, Commission on Quality and Safety
Julie K. Timins, MD, FACR, Chair, Committee on Practice Parameters and Technical Standards
Matthew S. Pollack, MD, FACR, Vice Chair, Committee on Practice Parameters and Technical Standards

Comments Reconciliation Committee

Jonathan Flug, MD, MBA, Chair
Catherine J. Everett, MD, MBA, Co-Chair
Mark J. Adams, MD, MBA, FACR
Kimberly E. Applegate, MD, MS, FACR
Lincoln L. Berland, MD, FACR
Kenneth A. Buckwalter, MD, MS, FACR
Jerry R. Dwek, MD
Eric N. Faerber, MD, FACR
Marta Hernanz-Schulman, MD, FACR
William T. Herrington, MD, FACR
Paul A. Larson, MD, FACR
Jonathan S. Luchs, MD
Debra L. Monticciolo, MD, FACR
Matthew S. Pollack, MD, FACR
David A. Rubin, MD, FACR
Pallavi Sagar, MD
Timothy R. Singewald, MD
Andrew H. Sonin, MD, FACR
Julie K. Timins, MD, FACR
Michael J. Tuite, MD, FACR
Eric M. Wilner, MD
Adam C. Zoga, MD

REFERENCES

1. Campbell SE, Sanders TG, Morrison WB. MR imaging of meniscal cysts: incidence, location, and clinical significance. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2001;177(2):409-413.
2. Lim PS, Schweitzer ME, Bhatia M, et al. Repeat tear of postoperative meniscus: potential MR imaging signs. *Radiology.* 1999;210(1):183-188.
3. Magee T, Williams D. 3.0-T MRI of meniscal tears. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2006;187(2):371-375.
4. Oei EH, Nikken JJ, Verstijnen AC, Ginai AZ, Myriam Hunink MG. MR imaging of the menisci and cruciate ligaments: a systematic review. *Radiology.* 2003;226(3):837-848.
5. Ramnath RR, Magee T, Wasudev N, Murrah R. Accuracy of 3-T MRI using fast spin-echo technique to detect meniscal tears of the knee. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2006;187(1):221-225.
6. Rubin DA, Paletta GA, Jr. Current concepts and controversies in meniscal imaging. *Magn Reson Imaging Clin N Am.* 2000;8(2):243-270.
7. Ryu KN, Kim IS, Kim EJ, et al. MR imaging of tears of discoid lateral menisci. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1998;171(4):963-967.
8. Sciulli RL, Boutin RD, Brown RR, et al. Evaluation of the postoperative meniscus of the knee: a study comparing conventional arthrography, conventional MR imaging, MR arthrography with iodinated contrast material, and MR arthrography with gadolinium-based contrast material. *Skeletal Radiol.* 1999;28(9):508-514.
9. Brandser EA, Riley MA, Berbaum KS, el-Khoury GY, Bennett DL. MR imaging of anterior cruciate ligament injury: independent value of primary and secondary signs. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1996;167(1):121-126.
10. Horton LK, Jacobson JA, Lin J, Hayes CW. MR imaging of anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction graft. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2000;175(4):1091-1097.
11. McCauley TR, Elfar A, Moore A, et al. MR arthrography of anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction grafts. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2003;181(5):1217-1223.

12. Ross G, Chapman AW, Newberg AR, Scheller AD, Jr. Magnetic resonance imaging for the evaluation of acute posterolateral complex injuries of the knee. *Am J Sports Med.* 1997;25(4):444-448.
13. Rubin DA, Kettering JM, Towers JD, Britton CA. MR imaging of knees having isolated and combined ligament injuries. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1998;170(5):1207-1213.
14. Bates DG, Hresko MT, Jaramillo D. Patellar sleeve fracture: demonstration with MR imaging. *Radiology.* 1994;193(3):825-827.
15. Khan KM, Bonar F, Desmond PM, et al. Patellar tendinosis (jumper's knee): findings at histopathologic examination, US, and MR imaging. Victorian Institute of Sport Tendon Study Group. *Radiology.* 1996;200(8756939):821-827.
16. Shalaby M, Almekinders LC. Patellar tendinitis: the significance of magnetic resonance imaging findings. *Am J Sports Med.* 1999;27(3):345-349.
17. Spritzer CE, Courneya DL, Burk DL, Jr., Garrett WE, Strong JA. Medial retinacular complex injury in acute patellar dislocation: MR findings and surgical implications. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1997;168(1):117-122.
18. Zeiss J, Saddemi SR, Ebraheim NA. MR imaging of the quadriceps tendon: normal layered configuration and its importance in cases of tendon rupture. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1992;159(5):1031-1034.
19. De Smet AA, Ilahi OA, Graf BK. Reassessment of the MR criteria for stability of osteochondritis dissecans in the knee and ankle. *Skeletal Radiol.* 1996;25(2):159-163.
20. Kramer J, Stiglbauer R, Engel A, Prayer L, Imhof H. MR contrast arthrography (MRA) in osteochondrosis dissecans. *J Comput Assist Tomogr.* 1992;16(2):254-260.
21. Bredella MA, Tirman PF, Peterfy CG, et al. Accuracy of T2-weighted fast spin-echo MR imaging with fat saturation in detecting cartilage defects in the knee: comparison with arthroscopy in 130 patients. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1999;172(4):1073-1080.
22. Potter HG, Foo LF. Magnetic resonance imaging of articular cartilage: trauma, degeneration, and repair. *Am J Sports Med.* 2006;34(4):661-677.
23. Potter HG, Linklater JM, Allen AA, Hannafin JA, Haas SB. Magnetic resonance imaging of articular cartilage in the knee. An evaluation with use of fast-spin-echo imaging. *J Bone Joint Surg Am.* 1998;80(9):1276-1284.
24. Recht MP, Goodwin DW, Winalski CS, White LM. MRI of articular cartilage: revisiting current status and future directions. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2005;185(4):899-914.
25. Rubin DA. Magnetic resonance imaging of chondral and osteochondral injuries. *Top Magn Reson Imaging.* 1998;9(6):348-359.
26. Brossmann J, Preidler KW, Daenen B, et al. Imaging of osseous and cartilaginous intraarticular bodies in the knee: comparison of MR imaging and MR arthrography with CT and CT arthrography in cadavers. *Radiology.* 1996;200(2):509-517.
27. Boles CA, Martin DF. Synovial plicae in the knee. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2001;177(1):221-227.
28. Forbes JR, Helms CA, Janzen DL. Acute pes anserine bursitis: MR imaging. *Radiology.* 1995;194(2):525-527.
29. Miller TT, Staron RB, Koenigsberg T, Levin TL, Feldman F. MR imaging of Baker cysts: association with internal derangement, effusion, and degenerative arthropathy. *Radiology.* 1996;201(1):247-250.
30. Rothstein CP, Laorr A, Helms CA, Tirman PF. Semimembranosus-tibial collateral ligament bursitis: MR imaging findings. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1996;166(4):875-877.
31. Bjorkengren AG, AlRowaih A, Lindstrand A, Wingstrand H, Thorngren KG, Pettersson H. Spontaneous osteonecrosis of the knee: value of MR imaging in determining prognosis. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1990;154(2):331-336.
32. Lecouvet FE, van de Berg BC, Maldague BE, et al. Early irreversible osteonecrosis versus transient lesions of the femoral condyles: prognostic value of subchondral bone and marrow changes on MR imaging. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1998;170(1):71-77.
33. Ecklund K, Jaramillo D. Patterns of premature physal arrest: MR imaging of 111 children. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2002;178(4):967-972.
34. Shailam R, Jaramillo D, Kan JH. Growth arrest and leg-length discrepancy. *Pediatr Radiol.* 2013;43 Suppl 1:S155-165.
35. De Smet AA. Magnetic resonance findings in skeletal muscle tears. *Skeletal Radiol.* 1993;22(7):479-484.

36. Nguyen B, Brandser E, Rubin DA. Pains, strains, and fasciculations: lower extremity muscle disorders. *Magn Reson Imaging Clin N Am*. 2000;8(2):391-408.
37. Ekman EF, Pope T, Martin DF, Curl WW. Magnetic resonance imaging of iliotibial band syndrome. *Am J Sports Med*. 1994;22(6):851-854.
38. Muhle C, Ahn JM, Yeh L, et al. Iliotibial band friction syndrome: MR imaging findings in 16 patients and MR arthrographic study of six cadaveric knees. *Radiology*. 1999;212(1):103-110.
39. Murphey MD, Gross TM, Rosenthal HG, Neff JR. Magnetic resonance imaging of soft tissue and cystic masses about the knee. *Top Magn Reson Imaging*. 1993;5(4):263-282.
40. Nomikos GC, Murphey MD, Kransdorf MJ, Bancroft LW, Peterson JJ. Primary bone tumors of the lower extremities. *Radiol Clin North Am*. 2002;40(5):971-990.
41. Kothari NA, Pelchovitz DJ, Meyer JS. Imaging of musculoskeletal infections. *Radiol Clin North Am*. 2001;39(4):653-671.
42. Struk DW, Munk PL, Lee MJ, Ho SG, Worsley DF. Imaging of soft tissue infections. *Radiol Clin North Am*. 2001;39(2):277-303.
43. Donnelly LF, Emery KH, Do TT. MR imaging of popliteal pterygium syndrome in pediatric patients. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2002;178(5):1281-1284.
44. Pfirrmann CW, Zanetti M, Romero J, Hodler J. Femoral trochlear dysplasia: MR findings. *Radiology*. 2000;216(3):858-864.
45. Chernoff DM, Walker AT, Khorasani R, Polak JF, Jolesz FA. Asymptomatic functional popliteal artery entrapment: demonstration at MR imaging. *Radiology*. 1995;195(1):176-180.
46. Hai Z, Guangrui S, Yuan Z, et al. CT angiography and MRI in patients with popliteal artery entrapment syndrome. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2008;191(6):1760-1766.
47. Kim HK, Shin MJ, Kim SM, Lee SH, Hong HJ. Popliteal artery entrapment syndrome: morphological classification utilizing MR imaging. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2006;35(9):648-658.
48. Leon J, Marano G. MRI of peroneal nerve entrapment due to a ganglion cyst. *Magn Reson Imaging*. 1987;5(4):307-309.
49. Adam G, Dammer M, Bohndorf K, Christoph R, Fenke F, Gunther RW. Rheumatoid arthritis of the knee: value of gadopentetate dimeglumine-enhanced MR imaging. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1991;156(1):125-129.
50. Bjorkengren AG, Geborek P, Rydholm U, Holtas S, Petterson H. MR imaging of the knee in acute rheumatoid arthritis: synovial uptake of gadolinium-DOTA. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1990;155(2):329-332.
51. Gylys-Morin VM, Graham TB, Blebea JS, et al. Knee in early juvenile rheumatoid arthritis: MR imaging findings. *Radiology*. 2001;220(3):696-706.
52. Herve-Somma CM, Sebag GH, Prieur AM, Bonnerot V, Lallemand DP. Juvenile rheumatoid arthritis of the knee: MR evaluation with Gd-DOTA. *Radiology*. 1992;182(1):93-98.
53. Kursunoglu-Brahme S, Riccio T, Weisman MH, et al. Rheumatoid knee: role of gadopentetate-enhanced MR imaging. *Radiology*. 1990;176(3):831-835.
54. Kode L, Lieberman JM, Motta AO, Wilber JH, Vasen A, Yagan R. Evaluation of tibial plateau fractures: efficacy of MR imaging compared with CT. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1994;163(1):141-147.
55. Virolainen H, Visuri T, Kuusela T. Acute dislocation of the patella: MR findings. *Radiology*. 1993;189(1):243-246.
56. Yu JS, Goodwin D, Salonen D, et al. Complete dislocation of the knee: spectrum of associated soft-tissue injuries depicted by MR imaging. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1995;164(1):135-139.
57. Vincken PW, ter Braak AP, van Erkel AR, et al. MR imaging: effectiveness and costs at triage of patients with nonacute knee symptoms. *Radiology*. 2007;242(1):85-93.
58. Maurer EJ, Kaplan PA, Dussault RG, et al. Acutely injured knee: effect of MR imaging on diagnostic and therapeutic decisions. *Radiology*. 1997;204(3):799-805.
59. McNally EG, Nasser KN, Dawson S, Goh LA. Role of magnetic resonance imaging in the clinical management of the acutely locked knee. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2002;31(10):570-573.
60. Kirsch MD, Fitzgerald SW, Friedman H, Rogers LF. Transient lateral patellar dislocation: diagnosis with MR imaging. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1993;161(1):109-113.

61. Brossmann J, Muhle C, Bull CC, et al. Evaluation of patellar tracking in patients with suspected patellar malalignment: cine MR imaging vs arthroscopy. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1994;162(2):361-367.
62. Shellock FG, Mink JH, Deutsch AL, Fox JM. Patellar tracking abnormalities: clinical experience with kinematic MR imaging in 130 patients. *Radiology.* 1989;172(3):799-804.
63. Ward SR, Shellock FG, Terk MR, Salsich GB, Powers CM. Assessment of patellofemoral relationships using kinematic MRI: comparison between qualitative and quantitative methods. *J Magn Reson Imaging.* 2002;16(1):69-74.
64. Bui-Mansfield LT, Youngberg RA, Warne W, Pitcher JD, Nguyen PL. Potential cost savings of MR imaging obtained before arthroscopy of the knee: evaluation of 50 consecutive patients. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1997;168(4):913-918.
65. Carmichael IW, MacLeod AM, Travlos J. MRI can prevent unnecessary arthroscopy. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1997;79(4):624-625.
66. Rangger C, Klestil T, Kathrein A, Inderster A, Hamid L. Influence of magnetic resonance imaging on indications for arthroscopy of the knee. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 1996(330):133-142.
67. Ruwe PA, Wright J, Randall RL, Lynch JK, Jokl P, McCarthy S. Can MR imaging effectively replace diagnostic arthroscopy? *Radiology.* 1992;183(2):335-339.
68. Spiers AS, Meagher T, Ostlere SJ, Wilson DJ, Dodd CA. Can MRI of the knee affect arthroscopic practice? A prospective study of 58 patients. *J Bone Joint Surg Br.* 1993;75(1):49-52.
69. Vincken PW, ter Braak BP, van Erckel AR, et al. Effectiveness of MR imaging in selection of patients for arthroscopy of the knee. *Radiology.* 2002;223(3):739-746.
70. Alparslan L, Winalski CS, Boutin RD, Minas T. Postoperative magnetic resonance imaging of articular cartilage repair. *Semin Musculoskelet Radiol.* 2001;5(4):345-363.
71. McCauley TR. MR imaging evaluation of the postoperative knee. *Radiology.* 2005;234(1):53-61.
72. Vives MJ, Homesley D, Ciccotti MG, Schweitzer ME. Evaluation of recurring meniscal tears with gadolinium-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging: a randomized, prospective study. *Am J Sports Med.* 2003;31(6):868-873.
73. Kramer J, Recht MP, Imhof H, Stiglbauer R, Engel A. Postcontrast MR arthrography in assessment of cartilage lesions. *J Comput Assist Tomogr.* 1994;18(2):218-224.
74. Raphael B, Haims AH, Wu JS, Katz LD, White LM, Lynch K. MRI comparison of periprosthetic structures around zirconium knee prostheses and cobalt chrome prostheses. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2006;186(6):1771-1777.
75. Sutter R HR, Fucentese SF, Nittka M, Pfirrmann CW. Total knee arthroplasty MRI featuring slice-encoding for metal artifact correction: reduction of artifacts for STIR and proton density-weighted sequences. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2013;201:1315-1324.
76. American College of Radiology. ACR Practice Parameter for Performing and Interpreting Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI). 2014; <https://www.acr.org/-/media/ACR/Files/Practice-Parameters/MR-Perf-Interpret.pdf>. Accessed October 15, 2014.
77. Kanal E, Barkovich AJ, Bell C, et al. ACR guidance document for safe MR practices: 2007. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2007;188(6):1447-1474.
78. American College of Radiology. Manual on Contrast Media. 2009; http://www.acr.org/SecondaryMainMenuCategories/quality_safety/contrast_manual.aspx. Accessed September 11, 2009.
79. Shellock FG. *Reference Manual for Magnetic Resonance Safety, Implants, and Devices.* 2009 ed. Los Angeles, Calif.: Biomedical Research Publishing Company; 2009.
80. Shellock FG, Crues JV. MR procedures: biologic effects, safety, and patient care. *Radiology.* 2004;232(3):635-652.
81. American College of Radiology. ACR–SPR Practice Parameter for the Use of Intravascular Contrast Media. 2014; <https://www.acr.org/-/media/ACR/Files/Practice-Parameters/IVCM.pdf>. Accessed October 15, 2014.
82. American College of Radiology. ACR–SIR Practice Parameter for Sedation/Analgesia. 2014; <https://www.acr.org/-/media/ACR/Files/Practice-Parameters/Sed-Analgesia.pdf>. Accessed October 15, 2014.
83. Barnett MJ. MR diagnosis of internal derangements of the knee: effect of field strength on efficacy. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1993;161(1):115-118.

84. Franklin PD, Lemon RA, Barden HS. Accuracy of imaging the menisci on an in-office, dedicated, magnetic resonance imaging extremity system. *Am J Sports Med.* 1997;25(3):382-388.
85. Magee T, Shapiro M, Williams D. Usefulness of simultaneous acquisition of spatial harmonics technique for MRI of the knee. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2004;182(6):1411-1415.
86. Rubin DA, Kneeland JB. MR imaging of the musculoskeletal system: technical considerations for enhancing image quality and diagnostic yield. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1994;163(5):1155-1163.
87. Cotten A, Delfaut E, Demondion X, et al. MR imaging of the knee at 0.2 and 1.5 T: correlation with surgery. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2000;174(4):1093-1097.
88. Erickson SJ. High-resolution imaging of the musculoskeletal system. *Radiology.* 1997;205(3):593-618.
89. Rothschild PA, Domesek JM, Kaufman L, et al. MR imaging of the knee with a 0.064-T permanent magnet. *Radiology.* 1990;175(3):775-778.
90. Bredella MA, Losasso C, Moelleken SC, Huegeli RW, Genant HK, Tirman PF. Three-point Dixon chemical-shift imaging for evaluating articular cartilage defects in the knee joint on a low-field-strength open magnet. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2001;177(6):1371-1375.
91. Kinnunen J, Bondestam S, Kivioja A, et al. Diagnostic performance of low field MRI in acute knee injuries. *Magn Reson Imaging.* 1994;12(8):1155-1160.
92. Klady B, Gluckert K, Swoboda B, Beyer W, Weseloh G. Comparison of low-field (0.2 Tesla) and high-field (1.5 Tesla) magnetic resonance imaging of the knee joint. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg.* 1995;114(5):281-286.
93. Rubenstein JD, Li JG, Majumdar S, Henkelman RM. Image resolution and signal-to-noise ratio requirements for MR imaging of degenerative cartilage. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1997;169(4):1089-1096.
94. Woertler K, Strothmann M, Tombach B, Reimer P. Detection of articular cartilage lesions: experimental evaluation of low- and high-field-strength MR imaging at 0.18 and 1.0 T. *J Magn Reson Imaging.* 2000;11(6):678-685.
95. Fitzgerald SW, Remer EM, Friedman H, Rogers LF, Hendrix RW, Schafer MF. MR evaluation of the anterior cruciate ligament: value of supplementing sagittal images with coronal and axial images. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1993;160(6):1233-1237.
96. Magee T, Williams D. Detection of meniscal tears and marrow lesions using coronal MRI. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2004;183(5):1469-1473.
97. Buckwalter KA, Pennes DR. Anterior cruciate ligament: oblique sagittal MR imaging. *Radiology.* 1990;175(1):276-277.
98. Yu JS, Salonen DC, Hodler J, Haghghi P, Trudell D, Resnick D. Posterolateral aspect of the knee: improved MR imaging with a coronal oblique technique. *Radiology.* 1996;198(1):199-204.
99. Quinn SF, Brown TR, Szumowski J. Menisci of the knee: radial MR imaging correlated with arthroscopy in 259 patients. *Radiology.* 1992;185(2):577-580.
100. Kneeland JB, Shimakawa A, Wehrli FW. Effect of intersection spacing on MR image contrast and study time. *Radiology.* 1986;158(3):819-822.
101. Duc SR, Pfirrmann CW, Koch PP, Zanetti M, Hodler J. Internal knee derangement assessed with 3-minute three-dimensional isovoxel true FISP MR sequence: preliminary study. *Radiology.* 2008;246(2):526-535.
102. Gold GE, Busse RF, Beehler C, et al. Isotropic MRI of the knee with 3D fast spin-echo extended echo-train acquisition (XETA): initial experience. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2007;188(5):1287-1293.
103. Heron CW, Calvert PT. Three-dimensional gradient-echo MR imaging of the knee: comparison with arthroscopy in 100 patients. *Radiology.* 1992;183(3):839-844.
104. Anderson MW, Raghavan N, Seidenwurm DJ, Greenspan A, Drake C. Evaluation of meniscal tears: fast spin-echo versus conventional spin-echo magnetic resonance imaging. *Acad Radiol.* 1995;2(3):209-214.
105. Blackmon GB, Major NM, Helms CA. Comparison of fast spin-echo versus conventional spin-echo MRI for evaluating meniscal tears. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2005;184(6):1740-1743.
106. Rubin DA, Kneeland JB, Listerud J, Underberg-Davis SJ, Dalinka MK. MR diagnosis of meniscal tears of the knee: value of fast spin-echo vs conventional spin-echo pulse sequences. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1994;162(5):1131-1135.

107. White LM, Schweitzer ME, Johnson WJ, Amster BJ, Oliveri MP, Russell K. The role of T2-weighted fast-spin-echo imaging in the diagnosis of meniscal tears. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 1996;6(6):874-877.
108. Cheung LP, Li KC, Hollett MD, Bergman AG, Herfkens RJ. Meniscal tears of the knee: accuracy of detection with fast spin-echo MR imaging and arthroscopic correlation in 293 patients. *Radiology*. 1997;203(2):508-512.
109. Escobedo EM, Hunter JC, Zink-Brody GC, Wilson AJ, Harrison SD, Fisher DJ. Usefulness of turbo spin-echo MR imaging in the evaluation of meniscal tears: comparison with a conventional spin-echo sequence. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1996;167(5):1223-1227.
110. Ha TP, Li KC, Beaulieu CF, et al. Anterior cruciate ligament injury: fast spin-echo MR imaging with arthroscopic correlation in 217 examinations. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1998;170(5):1215-1219.
111. Mink JH, Levy T, Crues JV, 3rd. Tears of the anterior cruciate ligament and menisci of the knee: MR imaging evaluation. *Radiology*. 1988;167(3):769-774.
112. Vande Berg BC, Malghem J, Lecouvet FE, Maldague B. Classification and detection of bone marrow lesions with magnetic resonance imaging. *Skeletal Radiol*. 1998;27(10):529-545.
113. Bush CH. The magnetic resonance imaging of musculoskeletal hemorrhage. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2000;29(1):1-9.
114. Wolf GL, Joseph PM, Goldstein EJ. Optimal pulsing sequences for MR contrast agents. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1986;147(2):367-371.
115. Mohr A. The value of water-excitation 3D FLASH and fat-saturated PDw TSE MR imaging for detecting and grading articular cartilage lesions of the knee. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2003;32(7):396-402.
116. Sonin AH, Pensy RA, Mulligan ME, Hatem S. Grading articular cartilage of the knee using fast spin-echo proton density-weighted MR imaging without fat suppression. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2002;179(5):1159-1166.
117. Disler DG, McCauley TR, Kelman CG, et al. Fat-suppressed three-dimensional spoiled gradient-echo MR imaging of hyaline cartilage defects in the knee: comparison with standard MR imaging and arthroscopy. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1996;167(1):127-132.
118. Recht MP, Piraino DW, Paletta GA, Schils JP, Belhobek GH. Accuracy of fat-suppressed three-dimensional spoiled gradient-echo FLASH MR imaging in the detection of patellofemoral articular cartilage abnormalities. *Radiology*. 1996;198(1):209-212.
119. Gold GE, Hargreaves BA, Vasanaawala SS, et al. Articular cartilage of the knee: evaluation with fluctuating equilibrium MR imaging--initial experience in healthy volunteers. *Radiology*. 2006;238(2):712-718.
120. Siepmann DB, McGovern J, Brittain JH, Reeder SB. High-resolution 3D cartilage imaging with IDEAL SPGR at 3 T. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2007;189(6):1510-1515.
121. Vasanaawala SS, Hargreaves BA, Pauly JM, Nishimura DG, Beaulieu CF, Gold GE. Rapid musculoskeletal MRI with phase-sensitive steady-state free precession: comparison with routine knee MRI. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2005;184(5):1450-1455.
122. Duc SR, Koch P, Schmid MR, Horger W, Hodler J, Pfirrmann CW. Diagnosis of articular cartilage abnormalities of the knee: prospective clinical evaluation of a 3D water-excitation true FISP sequence. *Radiology*. 2007;243(2):475-482.
123. Duc SR, Pfirrmann CW, Schmid MR, et al. Articular cartilage defects detected with 3D water-excitation true FISP: prospective comparison with sequences commonly used for knee imaging. *Radiology*. 2007;245(1):216-223.
124. Hardy PA, Recht MP, Piraino D, Thomasson D. Optimization of a dual echo in the steady state (DESS) free-precession sequence for imaging cartilage. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 1996;6(2):329-335.
125. Ruehm S, Zanetti M, Romero J, Hodler J. MRI of patellar articular cartilage: evaluation of an optimized gradient echo sequence (3D-DESS). *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 1998;8(6):1246-1251.
126. Ho YY, Stanley AJ, Hui JH, Wang SC. Postoperative evaluation of the knee after autologous chondrocyte implantation: what radiologists need to know. *Radiographics*. 2007;27(1):207-220; discussion 221-202.
127. Harman M, Ipeksoy U, Dogan A, Arslan H, Etlik O. MR arthrography in chondromalacia patellae diagnosis on a low-field open magnet system. *Clin Imaging*. 2003;27(3):194-199.
128. Arndt WF, 3rd, Truax AL, Barnett FM, Simmons GE, Brown DC. MR diagnosis of bone contusions of the knee: comparison of coronal T2-weighted fast spin-echo with fat saturation and fast spin-echo STIR images with conventional STIR images. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1996;166(1):119-124.

129. Kapelov SR, Teresi LM, Bradley WG, et al. Bone contusions of the knee: increased lesion detection with fast spin-echo MR imaging with spectroscopic fat saturation. *Radiology*. 1993;189(3):901-904.
130. Rybicki FJ, Chung T, Reid J, Jaramillo D, Mulkern RV, Ma J. Fast three-point dixon MR imaging using low-resolution images for phase correction: a comparison with chemical shift selective fat suppression for pediatric musculoskeletal imaging. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2001;177(5):1019-1023.
131. Totterman S, Weiss SL, Szumowski J, et al. MR fat suppression technique in the evaluation of normal structures of the knee. *J Comput Assist Tomogr*. 1989;13(3):473-479.
132. Weinberger E, Shaw DW, White KS, et al. Nontraumatic pediatric musculoskeletal MR imaging: comparison of conventional and fast-spin-echo short inversion time inversion-recovery technique. *Radiology*. 1995;194(3):721-726.
133. Vahlensieck M, Peterfy CG, Wischer T, et al. Indirect MR arthrography: optimization and clinical applications. *Radiology*. 1996;200(1):249-254.
134. Disler DG, McCauley TR, Ratner LM, Kesack CD, Cooper JA. In-phase and out-of-phase MR imaging of bone marrow: prediction of neoplasia based on the detection of coexistent fat and water. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1997;169(5):1439-1447.
135. Peh WC, Chan JH. Artifacts in musculoskeletal magnetic resonance imaging: identification and correction. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2001;30(4):179-191.
136. Van Hecke PE, Marchal GJ, Baert AL. Use of shielding to prevent folding in MR imaging. *Radiology*. 1988;167(2):557-558.
137. Turner DA, Rapoport MI, Erwin WD, McGould M, Silvers RI. Truncation artifact: a potential pitfall in MR imaging of the menisci of the knee. *Radiology*. 1991;179(3):629-633.
141. Magee T, Shapiro M, Rodriguez J, Williams D. MR arthrography of postoperative knee: for which patients is it useful? *Radiology*. 2003;229(1):159-163.
142. Schulte-Altendorneburg G, Gebhard M, Wohlgemuth WA, et al. MR arthrography: pharmacology, efficacy and safety in clinical trials. *Skeletal Radiol*. 2003;32(1):1-12.
143. American College of Radiology. ACR Practice Parameter for Communication of Diagnostic Imaging Findings. 2014; <https://www.acr.org/-/media/ACR/Files/Practice-Parameters/CommunicationDiag.pdf>. Accessed October 15, 2014.
144. Shellock FG. *Pocket Guide to MR Procedures and Metallic Objects: Update 2001*. 7th ed. Philadelphia, Pa.: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2001.
145. Shellock FG, Spinazzi A. MRI safety update 2008: part 2, screening patients for MRI. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2008;191(4):1140-1149.
146. American College of Radiology. ACR-AAPM Technical Standard for Diagnostic Medical Physics Performance Monitoring of Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) Equipment. 2014; <https://www.acr.org/-/media/ACR/Files/Practice-Parameters/MR-Equip.pdf>. Accessed October 15, 2014.

*Practice parameters and technical standards are published annually with an effective date of October 1 in the year in which amended, revised, or approved by the ACR Council. For practice parameters and technical standards published before 1999, the effective date was January 1 following the year in which the practice parameter or technical standard was amended, revised, or approved by the ACR Council.

Development Chronology for this Practice Parameter

- 2005 (Resolution 9)
- Amended 2006 (Resolution 35)
- Revised 2010 (Resolution 19)
- Amended 2014 (Resolution 39)
- Revised 2015 (Resolution 6)