



# The Walch type B humerus: glenoid retroversion is associated with torsional differences in the humerus

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**Background:** The Walch type B glenoid has the hallmark features of retroversion, joint subluxation, and bony erosion. Although the type B glenoid has been well described, the morphology of the corresponding type B humerus is poorly understood. As such, the aim of this imaging-based anthropometric study was to investigate humeral torsion in Walch type B shoulders.

**Methods:** Three-dimensional models of the full-length humerus were generated from computed tomography data for the Walch type B group (n = 59) and for a control group of normal nonarthritic shoulders (n = 59). An anatomic humeral head-neck plane was created and used to determine humeral torsion relative to the epicondylar axis. Measurements were repeated, and intraclass correlation coefficients were calculated.

**Results:** The type B humeri had significantly ( $P < .001$ ) less retrotorsion ( $14^\circ \pm 9^\circ$ ) than the control group ( $36^\circ \pm 12^\circ$ ) relative to the epicondylar axis. Male and female individuals within the control group showed statistically significant differences in humeral torsion ( $P = .043$ ), which were not found in the type B group. Inter-rater reliability showed excellent agreement for humeral torsion (intraclass correlation coefficient, 0.962). A subgroup analysis between Walch type B2 and B3 shoulders showed no significant differences in any of the humeral or glenoid parameters.

**Conclusion:** The Walch type B humerus has significantly less retrotorsion than non-osteoarthritic shoulders. At present, it is unknown whether the altered humeral retrotorsion is a cause or effect of the type B glenoid. In addition, it is unknown whether surgeons should be reconstructing type B2 humeral component version to pathologic torsion or to nonpathologic population means to optimize arthroplasty survivorship.

**Level of evidence:** Anatomy Study; Imaging

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In their landmark publication, Walch et al<sup>44</sup> defined the type B pattern of glenoid wear. This classification was modified using 3-dimensional (3D) imaging in 2016, and the Walch type B3 glenoid was introduced.<sup>1</sup> The Walch type B shoulder has the hallmark features of glenoid retroversion, posterior humeral head subluxation, and posteroinferior glenoid erosion.<sup>1,7,8,44</sup> The Walch B1 subtype has preferential posterior joint space narrowing, subchondral sclerosis, and osteophyte formation.<sup>44</sup> The B2 subtype has a biconcave pattern of glenoid wear with the formation of a new eroded posterior facet, known as the neoglenoid.<sup>44</sup> The type B3 glenoid has been theorized to be a progression of the type B2 deformity.<sup>1,8,24,45</sup> The type B3 glenoid is characterized by uniconcavity with the absence of the paleoglenoid (premorbid anterior facet of the glenoid), retroversion, medialization, and posterior humeral head subluxation.<sup>1,7,8</sup>

Humeral head version affects the mechanics of the glenohumeral joint. Mobility and stability of the shoulder are dependent on the amount of humeral retroversion.<sup>3,26-28,32,39-41</sup> Correct retrotorsion of the humeral component during shoulder arthroplasty is important because it affects the position of the instantaneous center of rotation,<sup>3</sup> the stability of the joint,<sup>28,39,40</sup> and the amount of external rotation.<sup>31,32</sup> Humeral head retrotorsion is generally defined with respect to the plane of the humeral head articular surface proximally, but distally, the reference axis has been debated. The transepicondylar axis,<sup>15,47</sup> trochlear tangent axis,<sup>12,16,34,41</sup> and forearm axis<sup>15,32,33</sup> have all been used. Methods of measurement have included direct anatomic methods,<sup>16</sup> radiographic methods,<sup>26,27,39,41</sup> computed tomography (CT) scans,<sup>15,47</sup> magnetic resonance imaging,<sup>11</sup> and computer-assisted methods.<sup>9</sup> Mean normal values are quite variable for humeral retrotorsion and range from 10° to 40°.<sup>2,16,47</sup>

Although our understanding of the pathoanatomy of bone loss as well as its evolution in Walch type B glenoids has improved, its etiology remains unclear. Furthermore, the morphology of the humerus in Walch type B shoulders has not been extensively studied. We hypothesized that glenoid retroversion and posterior subluxation of the humeral head may be associated with torsional differences in the humerus. The aim of this imaging-based anthropometric study was to examine humeral torsion in Walch type B shoulders and compare it with a control group of non-arthritic normal humeri.

## Materials and methods

### Study and control groups

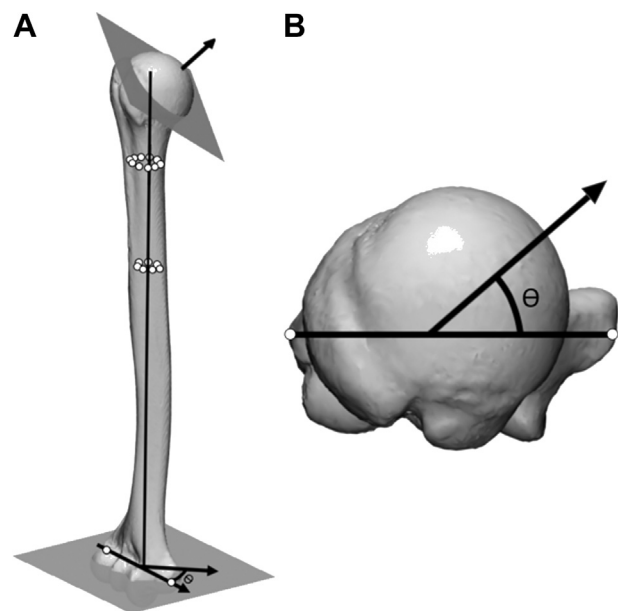
Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine (DICOM) data were extracted from the preoperative planning CT scans of 59 patients (23 women and 36 men; average age, 70 years; age range, 39-95 years) with Walch type B2 and B3 shoulders. Scans included the proximal humerus and distal humeral epicondyle.

These data were then converted to 3D models of the full-length humerus, including the distal humerus, using medical imaging software (Mimics, version 20.0; Materialise, Leuven, Belgium).<sup>5,6</sup>

The control group consisted of CT data from 59 complete upper-extremity cadaveric specimens (23 female and 36 male specimens; average age, 72 years; age range, 47-94 years) with all soft tissues intact and no identifiable pathology on CT. Cadaveric specimens with arthritis, trauma, hardware, rotator cuff tears, or tumors were excluded. The CT data from the 59 control specimens were also converted to 3D models.<sup>5,6</sup> Only patients and specimens with clear demarcation of the anatomic head-neck junction were included.

### Anatomic coordinate system with epicondylar axis

An anatomic coordinate system referencing the longitudinal axis of the humerus and the medial and lateral epicondyles was created for every 3D humeral model in both groups (Fig. 1, A), using a previously published protocol.<sup>35,46</sup> This was achieved by first determining the overall length of the humerus. Once the length was determined, a set of 10 reference points were placed within the inner cortical boundary of the intramedullary humeral canal at 40% of the humeral length. A second set of reference points were placed in a similar manner at 20% of the humeral length. At each of these 2 levels, the center of the canal was estimated as a circle



**Figure 1** An anatomic coordinate system referencing the medial and lateral epicondyles was created for both the type B and normal cohorts. (A) Two sets of reference points were selected within the intramedullary canal at 20% and 40% of the humeral length, and their centers defined the long axis. A simulated humeral head osteotomy plane at the anatomic head-neck junction was created, and its normal vector was projected down the long axis onto a plane containing the epicondylar axis. Humeral torsion was defined as the angle ( $\theta$ ) between the epicondylar axis and the normal osteotomy vector. (B) Axial view of the normal vector of the humeral head osteotomy plane and the epicondylar axis, defined by the medial and lateral epicondyles.

fit using a least-squares algorithm (MATLAB, release 2015b; The MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA); through these centers, a vector was created that defined the humeral canal axis.

The epicondylar axis also was defined using a previously published technique,<sup>35</sup> from points placed on the medial and lateral epicondyles. Using the same technique, Roberts et al<sup>38</sup> found the standard deviation was within 4% of the mean, producing a high degree of reproducibility. Previous studies also found a high degree of repeatability using these landmarks.<sup>2,41</sup> A vector defined by the epicondyles was projected orthogonally to the humeral canal axis and defined as the epicondylar axis.

### Anatomic humeral head plane

An anatomic humeral head osteotomy plane was virtually oriented by 2 fellowship-trained shoulder surgeons (S.R. and G.S.A.) to coincide with the head-neck junction as previously reported<sup>23,46</sup> (Fig. 1, A). This plane was then used to determine humeral torsion and the neck-shaft angle relative to the epicondylar axis (Fig. 1). This technique has been shown to have very good repeatability and reproducibility, with a previous study using the same landmarks having a minimum intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) of 0.87.<sup>22</sup>

### Measurement of humeral torsion and neck-shaft angle

Humeral torsion was defined as the axial rotation of the humeral head about the longitudinal humeral axis as referenced by the epicondylar axis. It was measured as the angle between the projected vector of the anatomic humeral head plane and the epicondylar axis about the humeral canal axis (Fig. 1, B). The neck-shaft angle was then calculated by measuring the direct angle between the normal vector of the anatomic humeral head osteotomy plane and the humeral canal axis (Fig. 1, A). Measurements were repeated by 2 fellowship-trained shoulder surgeons to determine inter-rater reliability.

### Measurement of glenoid parameters

The Walch type B group underwent further analysis to determine whether correlations exist between the measured humeral parameters and the glenoid parameters. Glenoid parameters including glenoid version, glenoid inclination, and posterior humeral head subluxation were calculated using Blueprint 3D Preoperative Planning Software (Wright Medical, Memphis, TN, USA). Specifically, the glenoid version angle was automatically calculated as the angle between the scapular plane and the glenoid best-fit sphere centerline projected on the transverse scapular plane. In addition, the 2-dimensional (2D) critical shoulder angle was measured from the preoperative radiographs of the type B group as described by Moor et al.<sup>29,30</sup>

### Statistical analysis

Two-way analyses of variance compared group and sex regarding humeral torsion and the neck-shaft angle. ICCs with a 2-way random-effects model and absolute agreement were used for inter-rater reliability. The Mann-Whitney rank sum test and unpaired *t* test

were used to complete a subgroup analysis between Walch type B2 and B3 shoulders for all glenoid and humeral parameters.

## Results

### Humeral torsion

Statistically significant differences in humeral torsion were found between normal and Walch type B shoulders ( $P < .001$ ). Normal shoulders had humeral retrotorsion of  $36^\circ \pm 12^\circ$  whereas Walch type B shoulders had humeral retrotorsion of  $14^\circ \pm 9^\circ$  relative to the epicondylar axis (Fig. 2). This difference in humeral torsion between the normal and type B humeri was statistically significant within female individuals ( $33^\circ \pm 12^\circ$  vs.  $16^\circ \pm 9^\circ$ ,  $P < .001$ ) and male individuals ( $39^\circ \pm 12^\circ$  vs.  $14^\circ \pm 9^\circ$ ,  $P < .001$ ). In addition, a statistically significant difference ( $P = .043$ ) in humeral torsion was found between male and female individuals within the normal group: The normal male humeri had a greater degree of retrotorsion ( $39^\circ \pm 12^\circ$ ) than the female humeri ( $32^\circ \pm 12^\circ$ ). Inter-rater reliability analysis showed excellent agreement for humeral torsion between the 2 fellowship-trained shoulder surgeons. (ICC, 0.962; 95% confidence interval, 0.913-0.983).

### Neck-shaft angle

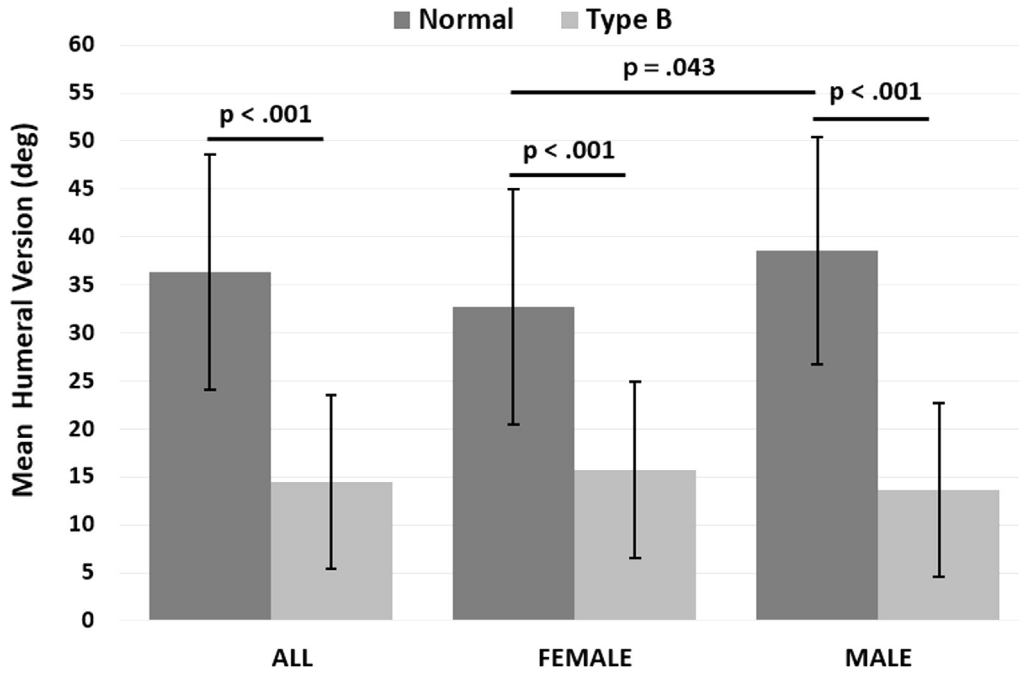
No statistically significant differences in the neck-shaft angle were found between normal and Walch type B shoulders ( $135^\circ \pm 4^\circ$  and  $132^\circ \pm 4^\circ$ , respectively;  $P = .433$ ) or between sexes ( $P = .854$ ) (Fig. 3). Inter-rater reliability analysis showed fair agreement for the neck-shaft angle (ICC, 0.562; 95% confidence interval,  $-0.28$  to  $0.809$ ) between the 2 fellowship-trained shoulder surgeons; however, the mean difference in the neck-shaft angle between observers was only  $2^\circ$ .

### Glenoid parameters in Walch type B shoulders

Analysis of the glenoid parameters in the Walch type B group showed that mean glenoid retroversion was  $22^\circ \pm 7^\circ$ , glenoid inclination was  $8^\circ \pm 6^\circ$ , and humeral head subluxation was  $80\% \pm 9\%$ , whereas the 2D critical shoulder angle was  $30^\circ \pm 5^\circ$  (Fig. 4). Linear correlation analysis showed no statistical agreement between the humeral and glenoid parameters.

### Walch type B2 vs. B3 shoulders

The subgroup analysis with the Mann-Whitney rank sum test or unpaired *t* test showed no significant differences in the neck-shaft angle ( $P = .203$ ), humeral torsion ( $P = .729$ ), glenoid version ( $P = .445$ ), glenoid inclination ( $P = .751$ ), humeral head subluxation ( $P = .807$ ), or critical shoulder angle ( $P = .506$ ) between Walch type B2 and B3 shoulders.

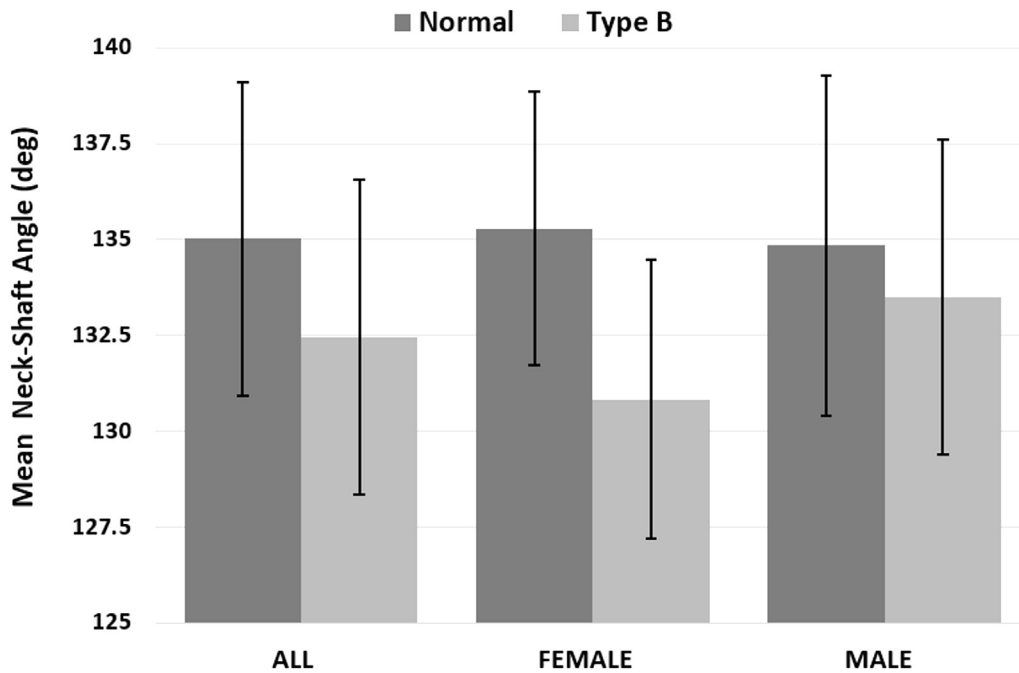


**Figure 2** Mean humeral torsion based on humeral head measurements in all individuals, female individuals, and male individuals in control (normal) and type B groups. Significant differences were found between the groups, as well as between female and male individuals within the normal group. *deg*, degrees.

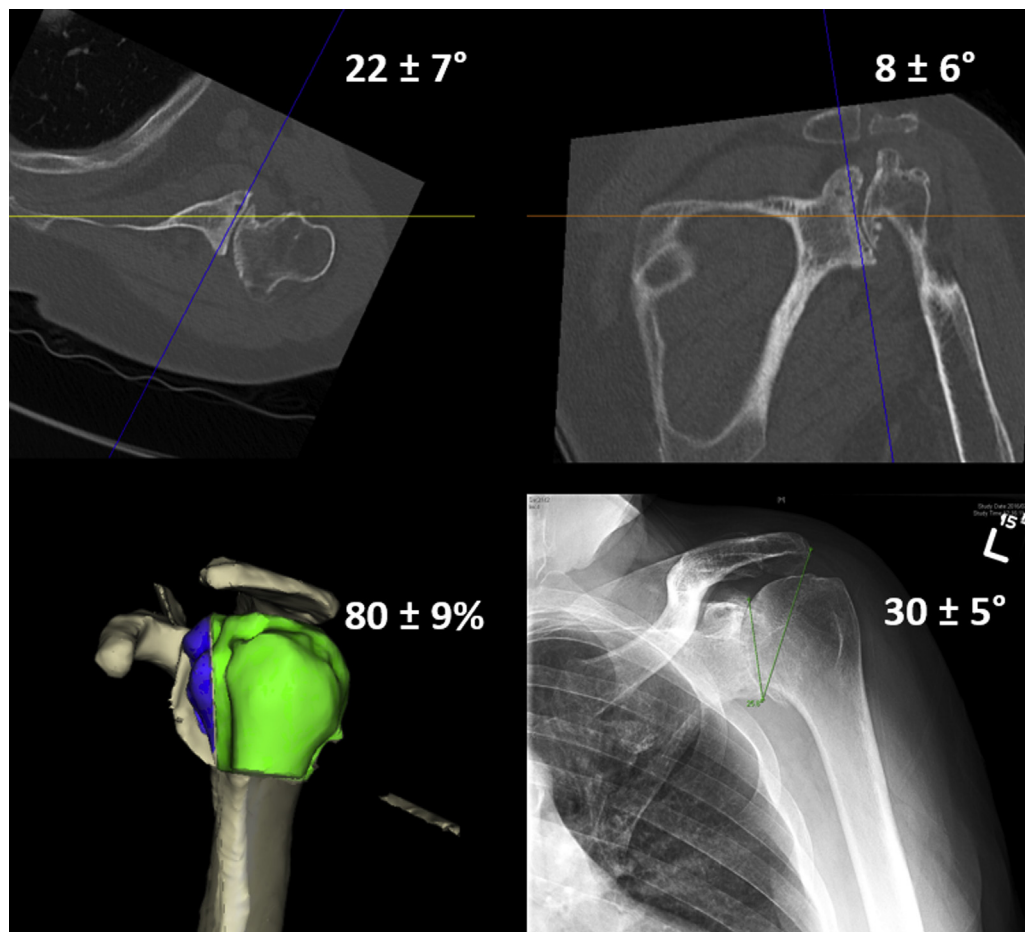
**Discussion**

This imaging-based anthropometric study showed torsional differences in the humeri of Walch type B shoulders. The Walch type B humerus shows significantly less retrotorsion

than the normal nonarthritic humerus; in other words, the type B humerus shows relative antetorsion (Fig. 2). This finding raises questions as to the etiology of the type B shoulder and its evolution; furthermore, it has potential surgical implications. Although we found significant



**Figure 3** Mean head-neck angle based on humeral head measurements in all individuals, female individuals, and male individuals in control (normal) and type B groups. No significant differences were found between the groups. *deg*, degrees.



**Figure 4** Glenoid parameters including glenoid version, glenoid inclination, and posterior humeral head subluxation were calculated using Blueprint 3D Preoperative Planning Software. The 2-dimensional critical shoulder angle was also measured from the preoperative radiographs of the type B group. Linear correlation analysis showed no statistical agreement between the humeral and glenoid parameters. *L*, left.

changes in humeral torsion, no statistically significant differences in the neck-shaft angle were identified between normal and Walch type B shoulders (Fig. 3).

Walch et al<sup>43</sup> were the first authors to publish the findings of static posterior subluxation of the humeral head before the development of posterior bony erosion or osteoarthritis. They described it as pre-osteoarthritic posterior subluxation of the humeral head (PPSHH), with subluxation of the humeral head preceding erosion. The etiology of this posterior humeral subluxation and the subsequent posteroinferior glenoid wear and its evolution remains unclear. Causes appear to be multifactorial and are likely related to a combination of bone and soft-tissue factors.

Although our findings show a clear association between posterior humeral subluxation in Walch type B shoulders and reduced humeral retroversion, the exact nature of this relationship as well as its etiology is unknown. We found no linear correlation between the percentage of posterior humeral subluxation and the degree of relative humeral anteversion in type B shoulders, nor did we find a linear reciprocal correlation between increasing glenoid retroversion and

decreasing humeral retroversion. In the type B group, mean glenoid retroversion was  $22^\circ \pm 7^\circ$ , glenoid inclination was  $8^\circ \pm 6^\circ$ , and humeral head subluxation was  $80\% \pm 9\%$ , whereas the 2D critical shoulder angle was  $30^\circ \pm 5^\circ$  (Fig. 4). The glenoid indices are consistent with recently published data examining the differences between type B2 and B3 glenoids.<sup>7</sup>

The significantly reduced humeral retroversion in type B shoulders may also be an etiologic factor that potentially leads to the posteroinferior glenoid wear and its evolution. In contrast, it may simply be a compensatory manifestation of the arthritic process in the setting of a posteriorly subluxated humeral head. Alternatively, there may be a third, unknown factor that influences both glenoid retroversion and relative humeral anteversion. If the reduced humeral retroversion is a manifestation of an evolving arthritic process, then the degree of relative humeral anteversion in the type B3 shoulders should be greater than that in the type B2 shoulders, but this was not seen in our study. No statistically significant differences in the humeral or glenoid parameters were found between the type B2 and B3

shoulders. Our findings are similar to those of a recent study by Chan et al,<sup>7</sup> who compared glenoid parameters between type B2 and B3 shoulders, with the hypothesis that the type B3 glenoid would have significantly worse retroversion, inclination, medialization, and posterior humeral head subluxation. Their results also showed no significant differences in the glenoid parameters between type B2 and B3 shoulders.

It is not known whether the reduced humeral retrotorsion is an anatomic variation that predates physal closure, suggesting either a genetic predisposition or an early developmental process that leads to the formation of a Walch type B shoulder. Alternatively, the decreased torsion may be a gradual adaptive change to the humerus that occurs after skeletal maturity to compensate for the increased glenoid retroversion. If it is a phenomenon that occurs before physal closure, then we may potentially be able to identify patients in whom type B pathology may go on to develop, similarly to PPSHH. Further studies are needed to identify the etiology and to elucidate the exact nature and position of the torsional variance on the humeral axis.

Some authors have supported the hypothesis that excessive glenoid retroversion is a risk factor for posterior static subluxation,<sup>4,24</sup> whereas others have refuted it.<sup>14,18,21,37</sup> A recent study by Knowles et al<sup>24</sup> showed that patients with type B2 osteoarthritic glenoids have significantly greater pre-morbid glenoid retroversion than patients with nonarthritic normal glenoids, suggesting that this pre-morbid morphologic variation may be one contributing factor to posterior humeral head subluxation and subsequent posterior erosion.

It has been suggested that scapulothoracic posture, as well as a scapulohumeral muscle imbalance, secondary to a disturbed transverse force couple between the anterior rotator cuff and posterior rotator cuff, may also have a role in the pathogenesis of type B glenoid morphology. Piepers et al<sup>36</sup> found no significant differences in the muscle volumes between the anterior cuff (subscapularis) and the posterior cuff (infraspinatus and teres minor) in non-pathologic shoulders. This finding suggests that the muscle volumes are in balance, and as a consequence, owing to the correlation between muscle strength and muscle volume, the transverse force couple of nonpathologic shoulders is in balance. Although the state of the transverse force couple has never been investigated in Walch type B shoulders, Donohue et al<sup>10</sup> recently reported that the location and severity of rotator cuff muscle fatty infiltration differed significantly among Walch subtypes. Higher-grade posterior rotator cuff muscle fatty infiltration was associated with type B3 glenoids, increased pathologic glenoid retroversion, and increased joint-line medialization.<sup>10</sup> It is not known what role, if any, a scapulohumeral muscle imbalance may have in causing the development of PPSHH and its progression. Such an imbalance may also have a role in reduced humeral retrotorsion seen in Walch type B humeri.

A recent comparative anatomic imaging study evaluated and compared the size and morphologic patterns between normal and osteoarthritic humeral heads.<sup>23</sup> Although the osteoarthritic humeral head morphology varied significantly from normal, it did not vary as a function of the Walch classification between symmetrical and asymmetrical glenoids.<sup>23</sup> It has been theorized that the posteriorly subluxated humeral head may be eroding the glenoid by rotational articulation with the neoglenoid. Therefore, the radii of the humeral head and neoglenoid in Walch type B2 shoulders would be closely matched. However, surprisingly, in a CT-based study performed to quantify erosion in type B2 glenoids, Knowles et al<sup>25</sup> showed a significant difference between the radius of the humeral head and the radius of the neoglenoid. In fact, the radius of the humeral head more closely approximated the paleoglenoid radius than the neoglenoid radius.<sup>25</sup> This finding suggests that a posteriorly subluxated humeral head may be eroding the neoglenoid by translation as opposed to rotation or, more likely, a combination thereof. These findings indicate that there are multiple and possibly additional unknown variables that contribute to the glenohumeral morphology of the Walch type B shoulder.

The effects of altered retrotorsion on glenohumeral joint stability, loading, and implant survivorship after arthroplasty remain unclear.<sup>3,26-28,32,39-41</sup> Anatomic total shoulder arthroplasty may offer good functional results in Walch type B2 shoulders but requires careful preoperative planning, correction of glenoid retroversion, restoration of the native joint line, and appropriate soft-tissue balancing to ensure stability. Glenoid component malposition, especially component retroversion, is a substantial risk factor for radiographic lucent lines and failure.<sup>17,19</sup> In addition, greater glenoid retroversion has been associated with an increased risk of glenoid component malposition.<sup>14,20</sup> Undercorrection of retroversion can result in persistent posterior humeral head subluxation, which causes eccentric loading of the glenoid component and premature loosening.<sup>13,42</sup> Biomechanical studies have suggested that this risk can be minimized by placing the glenoid component in less than 10° of retroversion.<sup>13</sup> The humeral component also plays a role in restoring the native or pathologic joint line. Proper humeral component positioning can be difficult intraoperatively because of differences in preoperative and intraoperative anatomic landmarks and the associated differences in humeral retrotorsion.

Presently, surgeons managing patients with type B2 glenoids have an awareness of the increased glenoid retroversion and the associated bone loss. To date, little attention has been paid to the humerus. Unfortunately, our study adds to the complexity in managing patients with type B glenoids given that reciprocal changes in torsion have now been identified in the humerus. These torsional differences, as they are unlikely to have been addressed during total shoulder arthroplasty, may be a contributing factor to the poorer outcomes of glenoid implants. In

addition, it is not known whether pathologic type B humeral torsion should be corrected to population means or maintained to maximize implant survivorship and minimize complications.

This study has several limitations. We used CT scans of cadaveric shoulders to form the normal group. The torsional differences identified in the Walch type B shoulders may possibly be present in all arthritic shoulders; as such, humeral torsion in the other Walch subtypes requires further investigation. In addition, this study identified torsional differences, but the etiology and treatment recommendations based on these findings remain unknown. The strengths of this study include the relatively large number of patients, the comparative normal cohort, and the inter-rater statistics.

## Conclusion

The Walch type B humerus has significantly less retro-torsion than non-osteoarthritic shoulders. At present, it is unknown whether the altered humeral retrotorsion is a cause or effect of the type B glenoid. In addition, it is unknown whether surgeons should be reconstructing type B2 humeral component version to pathologic torsion or to nonpathologic population means to optimize arthroplasty survivorship.

## Disclaimer

George S. Athwal is a consultant for Wright Medical Technologies and Exactech. Neither company had any input into the design, methods, results, or preparation of the article. All the other authors, their immediate families, and any research foundations with which they are affiliated have not received any financial payments or other benefits from any commercial entity related to the subject of this article.

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