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28 **Gait and Posture xxx xxxx**

29

30 **Title:**

31 Predicted Knee Kinematics and Kinetics during Functional Activities using Optimised Motion Capture
32 and Musculoskeletal Modelling in Healthy Older People.

33

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50 **Abstract:**

51 Knowledge of joint forces and moments is essential for comparisons between healthy people and
52 those with pathological conditions, with observed changes at joints providing basis for a particular
53 intervention. Currently the literature analysing both kinematics and kinetics at the knee has been
54 limited to small samples, typically of young subjects or those who have undergone joint arthroplasty.
55 In this study, we examined tibiofemoral joint (TFJ) kinematics and kinetics during gait, sit-stand-sit,
56 and step-descent in 20 healthy older subjects (aged 53-79 years) using motion capture data and
57 inverse dynamic musculoskeletal models. Mean peak distal-proximal forces in the TFJ were 3.1, 1.6,
58 and 3.5 times body weight (N/BW) for gait, sit-stand, and step-descent respectively. There were also
59 significant posterior-anterior forces, with sit-stand activity peaking at 1.6N/BW. Moments about the
60 TFJ peaked at a mean of 0.07Nm/BW during the sit-stand activity. One of the most important
61 findings of this study was variability found across the subjects, who spanned a wide age range,
62 showing large standard deviations in all of the activities for both kinematics and kinetics. These data
63 have provided an initial prediction for assessing kinematics and kinetics in the older population.
64 Larger studies are needed to refine the database, in particular to reduce the variability in the results
65 by studying sub-populations, to enable more robust comparisons between healthy and pathological
66 TFJ kinematics and kinetics.

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71 *Keywords:* Gait; Sit-Stand; Knee; Forces; Moments; Inverse Dynamics; Motion Capture

72

73 **1. Introduction:**

74 Analysis of human movement is key in order to expand the current knowledge of joint loading and
75 mechanisms of injury and pathology. Over the years there have been many different methods to
76 assess movement in activities of daily living (ADL), giving insight into joint kinematics and kinetics. It
77 is known that there is variance in the way an individual will move compared to another, however the
78 extent of this variance between age groups, genders, and ethnicities is not very well established.

79 External marker motion analysis remains the most widely used non-invasive method of assessing
80 functional movements. However motion analysis has been shown to have several significant errors,
81 with soft-tissue artefact (STA) being one of the largest [1]. Optimisation methods [2, 3] have been
82 developed to try to reduce error associated with estimating joint kinematics from motion capture
83 data, however to date there are no generic robust methods of accurately counteracting STA. In
84 recent years there has been a increase in the number of commercial and freeware musculoskeletal
85 (MS) modelling applications designed to analyse ADL from motion capture and force plate data. It
86 has been well documented that there have been improvements made to both motion capture and
87 MS modelling over the last 15 years [4]. The process of converting motion capture data to MS
88 models has been shown to be very susceptible to error [5], however advances in MS modelling are
89 aimed at making the conversion process more accurate and reliable [6, 7]. If these modelling
90 technologies are to be used in the clinical setting further validation is needed, although the potential
91 to predict joint loading accurately would offer valuable feedback on rehabilitative techniques and
92 goals.

93 To date there are a few examples of motion capture to inverse MS modelling looking at a variety
94 of ADL for both hip and TFJ kinematics and kinetics [8-13]. However these studies have focused on
95 participant groups with pathology (joint arthroplasty, or neuromuscular disease) or younger
96 individuals, and little is known about the older healthy population. Recently there has been studies
97 based on telemetric knee prosthesis data which has given a new insight into joint reaction forces and

98 moment [14-16], with the latest results showing previous inverse MS models may have
99 overestimated TFJ kinetics. In the latest study using the telemetrised technology significant variance
100 in TFJ reactions and moments during ADL were observed, peak resultant reactions deviated a whole
101 body weight during level gait, sit-stand-sit, and stair ascent/descent between five patients [14].
102 However these outputs were from knee arthroplasty (KA) patients and its well known that post-
103 operative gait can be altered from the healthy aged matched population [17]. There is a need for
104 further investigation into TFJ kinematics and kinetics of healthy older people in order for differences
105 between pathological findings and surgical interventions.

106 Gait has been the most researched activity in the current literature base of kinematics and kinetics
107 [13, 16, 18], with a growing body of evidence analysing sit-stand and stairs [15, 19]. There is a need
108 to investigate the range of activities in the older healthy populations, in order to gather baseline
109 data against which to compare pathological subjects. The purposes of this study were to investigate
110 the TFJ kinematics and kinetics in a group of older healthy volunteers during gait, sit-stand-sit, and
111 step-descent activities, using motion capture and inverse MS modelling techniques.

112

113 **2. Methods:**

114 **2.1. Participants**

115 Twenty healthy individuals were recruited from the local community in Southampton.
116 Institutional ethical approval and informed consent were obtained prior to data collection.
117 Participants were excluded if they had previous lower limb pathology in the last two years, or a
118 neuromuscular /musculoskeletal disease. Participants were aged matched to KA patients as part of a
119 wider project (Table 1).

120 TABLE 1.

121

122 **2.2. Instrumentation and data collection**

123 Motion capture data during gait, sit-stand, and step-descent were taken using a 6 camera VICON
124 460 system (Oxford, UK), with 2 Kistler force plates (Kistler Instrument AG, Winterthur, Switzerland).
125 Marker data were collected at 120Hz and analogue data from the force platforms at 1080Hz. Nine
126 millimetre retroreflective markers were placed directly on the skin of each participant using double
127 sided adhesive tape. Markers were placed in a modified Helen Hayes [20] marker set-up with
128 anatomical landmarks established by a physiotherapist (PW). Participants were asked to walk along
129 a 10m raised platform at a self-selected speed, and perform sit-stand-sit and step-descent activities
130 three times.

131 Marker data were labelled and processed in Nexus (VICON, Oxford, UK), and exported along with
132 the force plate data. If markers were occluded for more than 0.1 of a second, the trial was removed;
133 this left all 20 participants with gait data but only 17 with sit-stand data (Anterior superior iliac crest
134 occlusion during trunk flexion). Gait data were normalised to 0-100% of activity and sit-stand were
135 normalised from full sitting to standing with knee and trunk extended. The chair used for the sit-
136 stand activity was of a standard 45cm height and the back of the chair was removed to ensure all
137 pelvic markers were visible to the motion capture cameras. The step-descent activity was performed
138 from a single standardised 18cm step, beginning with the feet together at the top of the step and
139 finishing with feet together on the floor, for which there were 18 subjects included (occlusion of heel
140 marker). The participants selected which leg to lead with during the step-descent and performed
141 the activity at their own self selected pace.

142 **2.3. Modelling**

143 Motion capture and force plate data were imported into an Inverse dynamics MS modelling
144 software (AnyBody, Aalborg, Denmark) [21]. A baseline model of a static standing trial was taken
145 from the VICON motion analysis system (STA is assumed to be minimal during quiet standing), and

146 used to create the subject specific model. The 13 segment rigid body model, with 16 degrees of
147 freedom, was orientated in the software to reflect the position of the participant being modelled.

148 Generically scaled models of each participant were created from an anthropometric data set from
149 Klein-Horsmann et al. [22]. This data source was used to model mass, inertia points and muscle
150 sites/geometry for all of the segments. The models were structured with joint centres (located
151 according to the International Society of Biomechanics (ISB) standards [23]) and muscle attachment
152 sites and geometries, which were scaled in accordance with a linear geometry scaling law (Equation
153 1).

$$s = Sp + t \quad (1)$$

154

155 Where s is the scaled point, S is the scaling matrix, p is the original point, and t is the translation. A
156 length, mass, fat, scaling law was used to scale soft tissues which takes into account BMI was used to
157 scale the soft tissues in the body. When the models were scaled and positioned, the marker
158 coordinates relative to the segments were estimated. This was accomplished by changing the
159 location of assumed marker positions in the local coordinate frame of each of the segments.

160 The static models were then kept for the subsequent dynamic models. During the dynamic
161 modelling process the kinematics were equated using an optimisation method, which defines the
162 position of each segment in relation to the measured markers, subject to the 16 degrees of freedom
163 in the model [2]. Rigid and optimised marker coordinates were selected depending on the known
164 STA influence (thigh and shank markers fully optimised) [1], this method has been validated against
165 bone pin markers for gross TFJ flexion [6] and shown to be robust under known variance in
166 anatomical landmark definition and scaling factors [7]. Once optimised kinematics were derived,
167 inverse dynamics was then performed with a Min/Max recruitment solver [24], with over 300 Hill
168 Type muscles selectively recruited to solve the indeterminacy. The TFJ was modelled as a hinge joint
169 for flexion/extension; this constraint was applied due to the known STA error [6], secondary

170 kinematics (Anterior-Posterior and Medial-Lateral translations) were therefore not sought. The joint
171 contact forces were taken from resultant inter-segment loading and muscle forces acting across the
172 joint. The results presented are the joint constraint reactions, the only degree of freedom, flexion
173 moment, is the driving moment for TFJ flexion. When this musculoskeletal modelling application was
174 directly compared to telemetrised TFJ prosthesis data, there was a clear trend in reactions, however
175 a over-prediction of total TFJ reactions were reported [25]. The data presented in this study should
176 be interpreted given the known over-prediction in the modelling process.

177

178 **2.4. Statistical Analysis**

179 Resultant TFJ kinematics and kinetics from the three trials were averaged and collated for all
180 participants. Maximal values of the constraint reactions at the TFJ from the average of the three
181 trials are presented. Descriptive statistics are also presented as mean, range and standard
182 deviations (SD) of each waveform of gait, sit-stand-sit, and step-descent in each figure.

183

184 **3. Results:**

185 The MS modelling of functional activities shows the variation for all the activities within the older
186 healthy group studied.

187 **3.1. Gait**

188 Gait cycle parameters were output to assess the range of velocity, cadence, stride length, and
189 double support time. The results show that there was relatively little deviation in the parameters of
190 the individual's gait (Table 2). There were no statistical relationships between the gait cycle
191 parameters and the magnitude of predicted forces and moments. TFJ flexion shows considerable
192 variation (max SD = 9.77°) across the gait cycle (Figure 1).

193 FIGURE 1.

194

195 Kinetics at the tibiofemoral joint also presented large standard deviations across the older
196 participants. The D-P reaction forces had the largest SD values during stance phase (Figure 2), with
197 values as high as 0.89N/BW (~565N). During gait maximal D-P reaction forces ranged from 2.72-
198 4.35N/BW between the participants , with average stance phase taking up 63% of the gait cycle.
199 Mean peak distal-proximal (D-P) reaction forces were 3.06N/BW (~2378N). Anterior-Posterior (A-P)
200 reaction forces also followed the pattern previously reported, however the SDs between the
201 participants again showed considerable variation (peak SD =0.31N/BW) through stance phase of gait
202 (Figure 2). Varus was the largest of the internal moments across the TFJ, peaking at 0.067Nm/BW,
203 with flexion and external rotation moment peaking at 0.041 and 0.0085Nm/BW respectively (Figure
204 3).

205

206 FIGURE 2&3.

207

208 **3.2. Sit-Stand-Sit**

209 TFJ flexion ranged from 101.9° to 4.7° during the sit-stand activity and participants all exhibited a
210 similar TFJ flexion-extension pattern (Figure 1). Within participant right and left TFJ flexion patterns
211 showed very similar results, with mean difference in peak extension and flexion of 1.1° and 0.08°
212 respectively. TFJ flexion during the sit-stand-sit activity showed fairly high standard deviation
213 between the participants, at the beginning and ending of the activity.

214 TFJ reaction force data for sit-stand activity did not reflect that of the kinematics in terms of
215 variation, with all reaction forces and moments showing large standard deviations (Summary of the
216 kinetic data is given in E-Appendix). D-P reaction forces at the TFJ exhibited a similar pattern for all

217 participants, but did vary in magnitude when normalised to body weight (Max SD=0.72N/BW). PA
218 reaction force increased sharply to 1.64N/BW during the first 18% of the activity then declines as the
219 TFJ flexion angle decreases. Both VV and IE moment reactions showed large variance across the
220 participants, with IE variance peaking at 18% of the cycle. Magnitudes of both VV and IE moment
221 were higher than that of gait, with mean varus moment peaking at 0.074Nm/BW and external
222 rotation moment peaking at 0.06Nm/BW.

223

224 **3.2. Step-descent**

225 TFJ flexion ranged from 91.1° to 15° during the step-descent activity, with the highest range
226 found in the standing limb. Variance in the kinematics during step-descent was the largest of all for
227 the activities studied, and could have been influenced by subject height, leg length and technique in
228 descending the step. Kinetics ranged considerably (Table 2), with the highest loading in the distal-
229 proximal direction of all the activities (mean peak = 3.46N/BW, SD = 1.42N/BW), and the highest
230 valgus-varus moment (mean peak 0.054Nm/BW).

231

232 TABLE 2.

233

234 **4. Discussion:**

235 This study has characterised TFJ kinematics and kinetics in healthy older people during functional
236 activities of gait, sit-stand-sit and step-descent. These data add to the current literature base for TFJ
237 function, and have highlighted the variance found in kinematics and kinetics in the older population.
238 When comparing the outputs of the models to the current data in the literature, they perform very
239 favourably with the current MS modelling evidence base, however the estimated TFJ kinetics were

240 greater than those found previously *in-vivo* [16]. This is, however, a study of older healthy
241 individuals, and comparison with existing literature is limited due to the difference in participants
242 and methodology from previous studies. During gait, TFJ flexion angle correlated well with previous
243 motion capture experiments analysing a similar age group, they also exhibit similar standard
244 deviations in the findings [26]. When comparing the D-P loading to other predictive models, such as
245 Taylor et al [13] and Costigan et al [9], the results are very similar. Taylor et al [13] found the average
246 peak D-P joint loading from hip arthroplasty patients to be 3.1N/BW (individual forces of 3.2, 3.2,
247 3.0, 2.9N/BW), and Costigan et al [9] found a mean of 3.7N/BW (SD ± 1.07 N/BW) respectively [9].
248 Higher loading results found by Costigan et al [2] could be due to the lower age of the group studied,
249 with mean peak TFJ flexion moment of 0.54Nm/kg compared with 0.4Nm/kg in our older healthy
250 population. The Costigan et al findings indicate a faster and potentially higher loading gait cycle in
251 the younger subjects [2]. Total loading data from Taylor et al showed considerable variance (2.97-
252 3.33N/BW) across the 4 tested hip arthroplasty patients assessed [13]. Taylor's data set was from a
253 similar age group, however the history of hip arthroplasty could have an effect on joint loading.
254 Predicted TFJ I-E moment followed a similar pattern to that found in *in-vivo* testing [16]; magnitudes
255 of the moment complied with those seen in the telemetrised studies, with peaks of approximately
256 0.008Nm/BW [16].

257 Sit to stand data sets again compared relatively well with the limited current *in vivo* evidence base
258 for the D-P reaction forces, with the participants' predicted D-P loading being lower than that
259 measured *in-vivo*. Total TFJ loading during sit-stand (2.65N/BW) and stand-sit (3.32) does not,
260 however, reflect the *in-vivo* findings of D'Lima et al (2005) after TFJ arthroplasty, who found more
261 loading during sit-stand (2.92N/BW) than stand to sit (2.64N/BW) [27]. This difference in findings
262 could be partly attributed to the known adaptations of sit-stand-sit activity post KA [27]. The
263 predictive methods also showed differences in TFJ moment reaction for sit-stand. Magnitudes of I-E
264 moment are higher in the early stages of the activity, and lower external rotation moment is seen at
265 the end of the activity when comparing with *in-vivo* data [28]. Similar differences between predicted

266 and *in-vivo* TFJ kinetics were found in the stand-sit data, with the P-A reaction being the much larger
267 in the predictive results than the telemetrised data. This is mainly due to the reaction the quadriceps
268 femoris created during the high demand activity.

269 The step-descent activity is difficult to compare with the literature; the closest activity to the one
270 reported in this paper is stair descent. However it is of note that stair descent is often a reciprocal
271 activity and the step-descent activity performed during this study was a closed chain movement.
272 When comparing the data to other predictive models, forces appear lower than that of Costigan et al
273 [1] (mean DP = 3.45N/BW, PA = 1.19N/BW) and Taylor et al [5] (mean DP = 5.1N/BW, PA =
274 1.3N/BW). However this could reflect the difference in the open chain reciprocal activity of stairs
275 and the closed chain activity of step-descent. The results of the present study (mean D-P =
276 3.46N/BW, PA = 1.4N/BW), showed a marked increase in P-A reaction force when compared to the
277 *in-vivo* shear findings of Heinlein et al (0.3N/BW) [16].

278 **4.1 Variance and limitations of the study**

279 The TFJ loading presented in this study varies from 2.79-4.53N/BW for the 20 subjects, which
280 reflects the general variance found in the older healthy population, and is similar to the variance
281 found in the latest telemetrised KA data [14]. The large standard deviations could be due to a variety
282 of sources. It is already understood that there is considerable variation between individuals during
283 ADL [14]. The age range of the participants (55-79 years) and sex may have added to the variability
284 observed, however a larger study would be required to establish the affect of these variables. The
285 variance observed in this study was not simply due to inter-individual variability, the error involved
286 with external marker motion analysis, and the modelling assumptions must be acknowledged. One
287 of the main modelling limitations is that the TFJ was simulated as a hinge joint (1 DOF), when it's
288 well established that the TFJ can rotate and translate in all 6 planes. However with the known STA in
289 thigh and shank being highest, the error would be far greater than the motion recorded for
290 secondary kinematics [29]. It has also been well established that the process of converting *in-vivo*

291 motion capture data to *in-vitro* MS modelling is highly sensitive to error [5]. Generic scaling laws,
292 simplification of segments, and ignoring soft tissue structures make modelling computationally
293 efficient, however not representative of the normal human anatomy.

294 The variance found in the present study should not be ignored and is needed to broaden the
295 envelopes of data used for pre-clinical testing of devices such as a KA. This variance has been further
296 reduced by the normalisation in this study (Body Weight). If the absolute forces were reported there
297 would be large ranges in data. It is also of note that only three trials of each activity were recorded
298 and additional trials could have altered the observed intra-subject variance. Rather than using one
299 standard, for example the International Organisation for Standard (ISO) for pre-clinical testing, there
300 needs to be approaches where known variance is applied to the TFJ representing a variety of
301 activities. Only then will the pre-clinical testing reflect the potential loading patterns seen across the
302 population. Even though external marker motion analysis and inverse MS modelling have their
303 sources of error, continued development will help towards the clinical application to assess
304 kinematics and kinetics during dynamic movement. In order for predictive modelling to be clinically
305 relevant further validation is needed and any assumptions in the modelling process must be
306 acknowledged.

307

308 **5. Conclusions:**

309 This data set of TFJ kinematics and kinetics in older healthy individuals highlights the magnitude
310 and between-subject variance found during ADL. External marker motion analysis with MS modelling
311 has been shown to be an effective method to predict TFJ kinematics and kinetics, although further
312 validation is required for it to be used clinically. These data need to be taken into account when
313 comparing pathological and healthy kinematics and kinetics.

314

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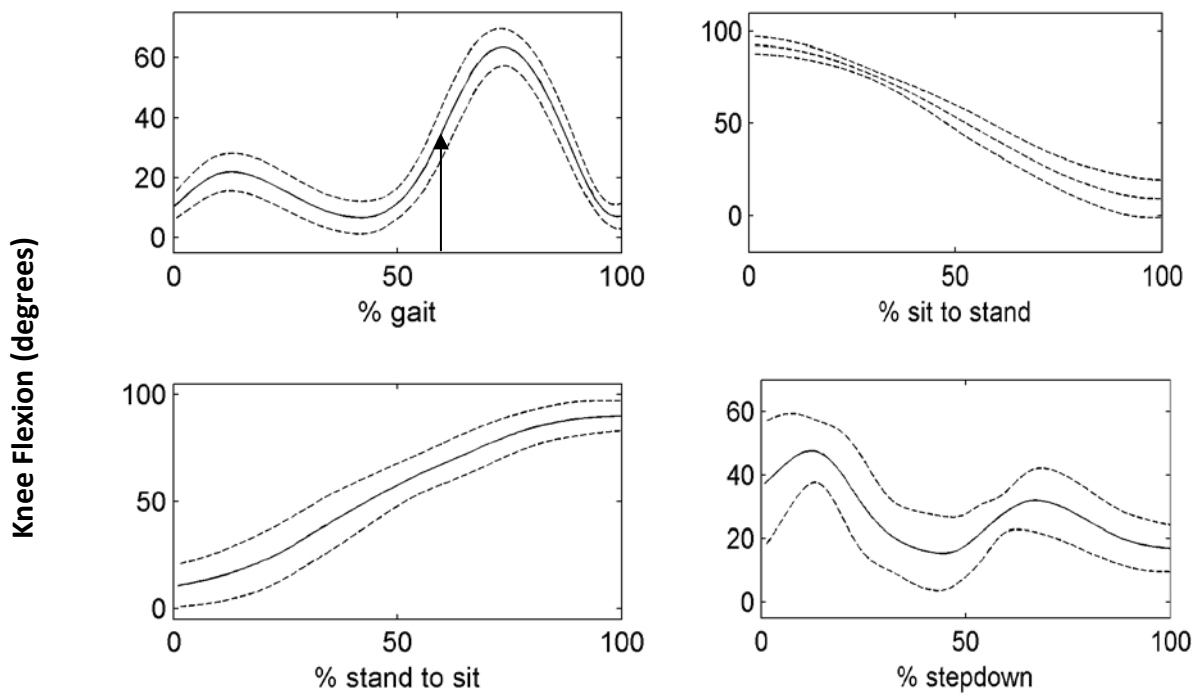
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FIGURE1



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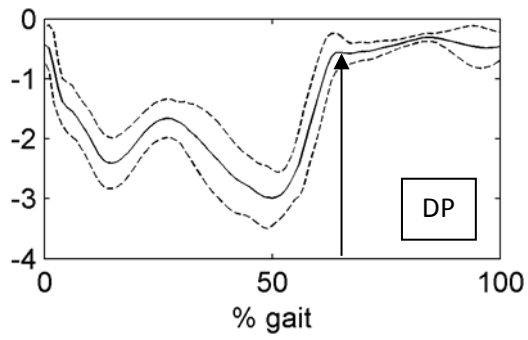
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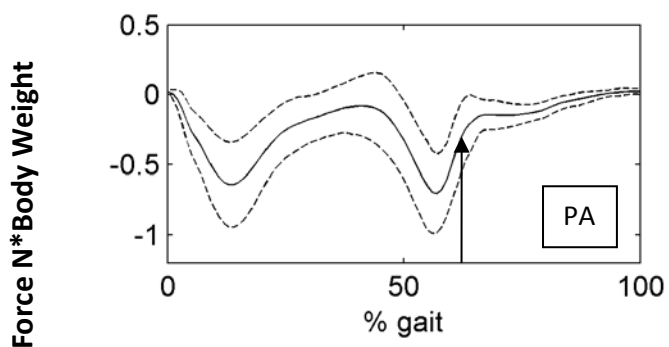
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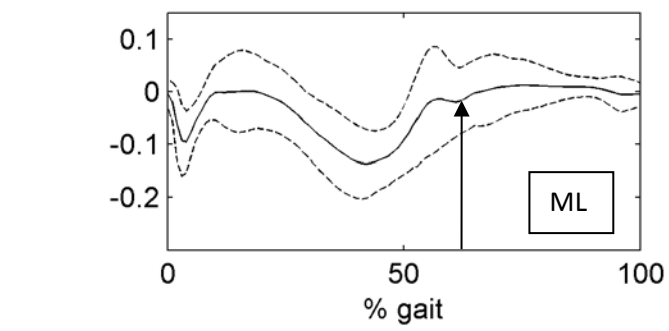
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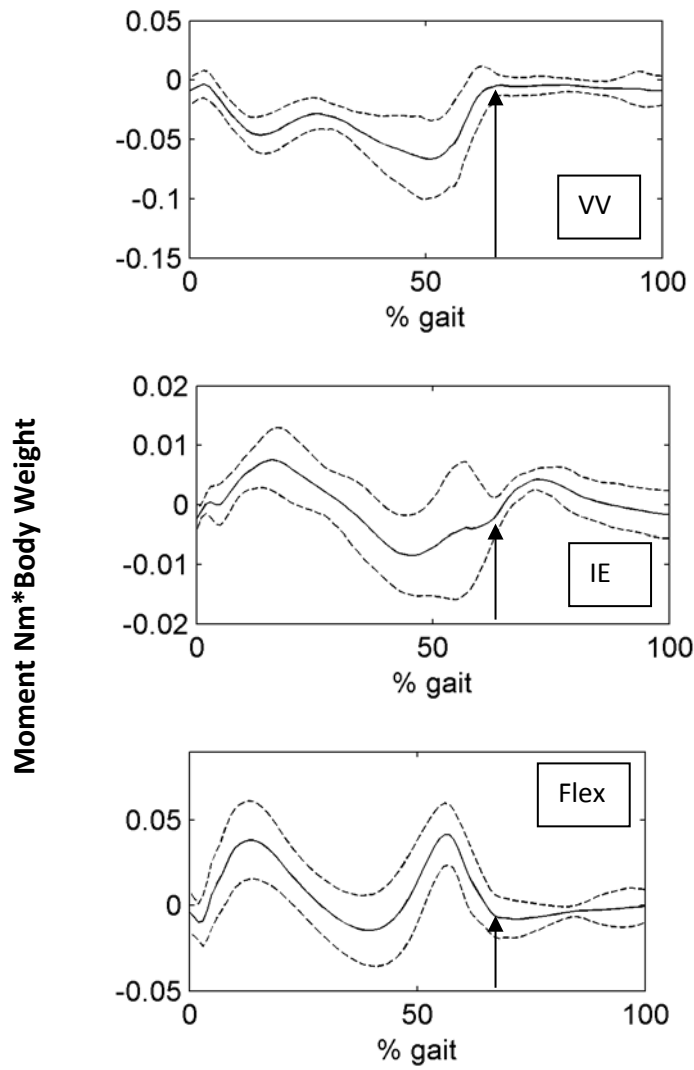
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FIGURE 3.



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467 Table 1. Anthropometric measurements of 20 older healthy individuals.

	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	BMI	Gender
Mean	62.45	1.6615	77.86	28.18	55% Female
SD	5.94	0.11	13.27	3.92	
Max	79	1.84	96	34.96	
Min	55	1.31	53	20.19	

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469 Table 2. Mean Peak constraint reaction during three trials of level gait, sit to stand, stand to sit, and
 470 step-descent (leading leg). Distal Proximal (D-P), Anterior-Posterior (A-P), Medial Lateral (M-L),
 471 Valgus Varus moment (V-V), Internal External moment (I-E), flexion moment (Flexion). All data
 472 rounded to 2 decimal places. Gait cycles parameters are detailed, including velocity, cadence, stride
 473 length, and double support time.

KINETIC MEASURE	GAIT		SITSTAND		STANDSIT		STEP DESCENT	
	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD
D-P (N/BW)	3.06	0.89	1.55	0.72	1.41	0.61	3.46	1.42
A-P (N/BW)	0.70	0.31	1.64	0.73	1.18	0.47	1.38	0.97
M-L (N/BW)	0.14	0.08	0.12	0.07	0.03	0.08	0.15	0.18
V-V (Nm/BW)	0.07	0.03	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.03
I-E (Nm/BW)	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.01	0.02
Flexion (Nm/BW)	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.05
Gait Cycle Parameter	Mean	SD	Range					
Velocity (m/sec)	1.15	0.1	1-1.5					
Cadence (steps per min)	108	7.9	95-123					
Stride Length (m)	1.26	0.14	1.1-1.6					
Double Support (sec)	0.24	0.03	0.16-0.28					

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