

1 Selecting Appropriate 3D Scanning Technologies for Prosthetic Socket Design and  
2 Transtibial Residual Limb Shape Characterisation

3 (Appropriate 3D Scanners for Socket Design & Shape Characterisation)

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5 Alexander S. Dickinson<sup>1\*</sup>, Maggie K. Donovan-Hall<sup>2</sup>, Sisary Kheng<sup>3,4</sup>, Ky Bou<sup>3,4</sup>, Auntouch  
6 Tech<sup>3,4</sup>, Joshua W. Steer<sup>1</sup>, Cheryl D. Metcalf<sup>2</sup>, Peter R. Worsley<sup>5</sup>

7  
8 1: Bioengineering Science Research Group, Faculty of Engineering and Physical Sciences,  
9 University of Southampton, UK

10 2: Active Living and Rehabilitation Group, Faculty of Environmental and Life Sciences,  
11 University of Southampton, UK

12 3: Exceed Worldwide, Phnom Penh, Cambodia

13 4: Department of Prosthetics and Orthotics, National Institute of Social Affairs, Cambodia

14 5: Skin Health Research Group, Faculty of Environmental and Life Sciences, University of  
15 Southampton, UK

16  
17 \* Corresponding Author:

18 Bioengineering Science Research Group, Mechanical Engineering Department,

19 Faculty of Engineering and Physical Sciences,

20 University of Southampton,

21 Highfield,

22 Southampton, SO17 1BJ

23 United Kingdom

24 Tel: +442380595394

25 Email: [alex.dickinson@soton.ac.uk](mailto:alex.dickinson@soton.ac.uk)

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31 ABSTRACT:

32 *Introduction:* Plaster casting and manual rectification represent the benchmark prosthetic  
33 socket design method. 3D technologies have increasing potential for prosthetic limb design  
34 and fabrication, especially for enhancing access to these services in lower and middle income  
35 countries (LMICs). However, the community has a responsibility to verify the efficacy of  
36 these new digital technologies. This study's objective was to assess the repeatability of  
37 plaster casting *in vivo*, specifically for clinically-relevant residuum shape and landmark  
38 capture, and to compare this with three clinically-used 3D scanners.

39 *Materials and Methods:* A comparative reliability assessment of casting and 3D scanning was  
40 conducted in eleven participants with established transtibial amputation. For each participant,  
41 two positive moulds were cast by a prosthetist and digitised using a white light 3D surface  
42 scanner. Between casts, each participant's residuum was scanned. The deviation between  
43 scan volumes, cross-sections and shapes was calculated.

44 *Results:* 95% of the clinically-relevant socket shape surface area had a deviation between  
45 manual casts <2.87mm (S.D. 0.44mm). The average deviation by surface area was 0.18mm  
46 (S.D. 1.72mm). The repeatability coefficient of casting was 46.1ml (3.47%) for volume, and  
47 9.6mm (3.53%) for perimeters. For all clinically-meaningful measures, greater reliability was  
48 observed for the Omega scanner, and worse for the Sense and iSense scanners, although it  
49 was observed that the Sense scanner performance was comparable to casting (95<sup>th</sup> percentile  
50 shape consistency).

51 *Conclusions:* This study provides a platform to appraise new clinical shape capture  
52 technologies in the context of best practice in manual plaster casting, and starts the  
53 conversation of which 3D scanning devices are most appropriate for different types of  
54 clinical use. The methods and benchmark results may support prosthetists in acquiring and  
55 applying their clinical experience, as part of their continuing professional development.

56 KEYWORDS:

57 amputee, CAD/CAM, consistency, prosthetic socket, plaster casting, rectification, shape  
58 error, transtibial, volume error

## 59 **Introduction**

60 A prosthetic limb user's functional outcome depends fundamentally upon a  
61 comfortable and robust human-prosthesis interface<sup>1</sup>, which most commonly features a  
62 personalised socket. This is especially important after transtibial amputation where  
63 individuals may attempt to be more active than those with higher-level amputations, and  
64 where the socket-limb load transfer is particularly influenced by the underlying bony  
65 anatomy. A variety of transtibial socket design strategies exist, most notably patella-tendon  
66 bearing (PTB) and total surface bearing (TSB) approaches. According to PTB principles the  
67 residual limb is loaded proportionally to the load tolerance of the underlying soft tissue and  
68 bony areas. Despite studies on different aspects of transtibial sockets and residual limbs, there  
69 is a lack of knowledge to enable consistent manufacturing of a comfortable socket and  
70 optimal alignment without the need for iterative socket fittings<sup>2</sup>.

71 Plaster casting and manual rectification is considered the benchmark shape capture  
72 and socket design method. It remains the technique whereby the majority of sockets are  
73 designed prior to conventional manufacturing routes<sup>3</sup>, creating a standard against which new  
74 technologies should be measured. A Plaster of Paris (POP) wrap cast is manually applied  
75 over the residuum with the aim to capture a modified shape of the soft tissues. Prosthetists  
76 shape the POP during casting for the PTB socket using their hands, to create areas of load  
77 bearing around the tibial plateau. This shape is used to produce a positive mould, which is  
78 subsequently rectified according to similar design principles as listed above. These  
79 procedures can be highly individual and are based on the experience, skill, and preference of  
80 the individual prosthetist and their patient<sup>4</sup>.

81 CAD/CAM technologies (Computer Aided Design / Manufacturing) are established in  
82 some communities for residuum shape capture, prosthetic socket design and fabrication, with  
83 claimed advantages including higher consistency and a perpetual digital design record.

84 Perceived disadvantages include a clinician learning curve and high capital equipment costs,  
85 although the development of lower cost 3D scanning devices has been proposed in an attempt  
86 to overcome this barrier<sup>5,6</sup>. Other low-cost devices have been proposed for socket  
87 reproduction, including smartphone-based photogrammetry<sup>7</sup>. However there is relatively little  
88 evidence in the scientific literature for the accuracy or reliability of these lower cost devices,  
89 either in absolute terms or in comparison to clinically meaningful benchmarks. Benchmark  
90 measures might be taken from research on manual plaster methods, the traditional and most  
91 frequently used approach. The consistency of plaster cast rectification has been investigated  
92 in terms of the location and depth of focal rectifications<sup>4</sup>, and the influence of prior activity  
93 on the residuum's volume and shape<sup>8</sup>. Others have compared hands-off vs. hands-on casting  
94 methods in terms of the cast shape radius in a manikin model<sup>9</sup>, and the cast shape volume and  
95 length<sup>10</sup>. However, more understanding is needed regarding the benchmark metrics relating to  
96 the reliability of both clinically-relevant shape metrics and volumetric parameters, against  
97 which to compare 3D scanning technologies.

98 This study's objective was to conduct an *in vivo* assessment of the repeatability of  
99 plaster casting specifically for residuum shape capture (i.e. pre-rectification), employing high  
100 accuracy and resolution CAD/CAM scanning and digitised shape analysis techniques<sup>5,11,12</sup>  
101 The motivation was to investigate a comprehensive set of clinically-relevant shape metrics,  
102 and provide benchmarking data to assess digital shape capture technologies. The work was  
103 approached from a global challenges research perspective, where people may seek lower cost  
104 technologies to improve P&O access in lower and middle income countries (LMICs), at the  
105 potential expense of accuracy and reliability. Therefore, the study was conducted with  
106 prosthetists in an ISPO-certified Cambodian P&O school and clinic.

107 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

108           An assessment of the reliability of transtibial residual limb casting was conducted, for  
109 comparison to the reliability of 3D scanning with three different devices. Approval was  
110 granted by institutional (ERGO 25100) and national ethics boards (Cambodian National  
111 Ethics Committee for Health Research 073NECHR). Participants were recruited by  
112 convenience sampling from a single prosthetics centre. All participants' residual limbs were  
113 cast twice during one session, by one of two ISPO-certified prosthetists (authors AT and KB).  
114 Negative plaster casts were produced according to the prosthetists' normal practice when  
115 producing a patella tendon bearing, supracondylar suspended socket (Figure 1 A-F). The  
116 prosthetists then converted their negative casts into positive moulds and performed light  
117 surface abrasion using wire mesh (Figure 1 G). The positive mould shapes were digitised  
118 using a structured white light surface scanner (Go!SCAN (Creaform Inc., Lévis, Canada),  
119 which was previously shown to have a surface height accuracy of  $0.2 \text{ mm} \pm 0.07 \text{ mm}$  (mean  
120  $\pm$  standard deviation error) on a similar object<sup>5</sup>. Between casts, each participant's residual  
121 limb was scanned by two observers (ASD and PRW), to produce 3D .stl surface mesh files  
122 (Figure 1 H). The study used three scanners in a randomised order: the Creaform Go!SCAN  
123 device (equivalent to structured white light Omega scanner, Ohio WillowWood Company,  
124 USA), the 2<sup>nd</sup> generation Sense scanner and the iSense / Structure Sensor (3DSystems, USA).



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Figure 1: Participants were cast seated, with a cellophane wrap on their residual limb (A, B). Indentations were marked by palpation either side of the patellar tendon (C) and at the supracondylar level (D). After doffing (E) the posterior shelf and flare for knee flexion was formed with additional plaster (F). Positive moulds were produced and lightly abraded (G). Between casts, the limb was scanned directly (H).

131

132 According to established methods<sup>5,11,13</sup>, in the AmpScan open-source software package<sup>14</sup>,

133 pairs of scan files were compared. The shapes were aligned in 3D space, using both manual

134 and automated approaches. Rigid registration was used to match the pairs of positive mould

135 scans over each other, to assess the pairwise deviation. The shapes were sliced serially from

136 the distal tip to the supracondylar ridge at 1% intervals, and the volume and cross-sectional

137 profile dimensions were calculated using the enclosed cross-section area of each slice, its

138 perimeter length, and the maximal widths in the coronal and sagittal planes.

139 Shape deviation was analysed further using a ‘height’ deviation, presenting the surface-

140 surface normal deviation data following the visualisation standard set by Sanders and

141 Severance<sup>15</sup>. Deviations were mapped between each cast and a direct scan of the participant’s

142 residual limb, and between the pairs of repeat manual casts and scans.

143 Quantitative analysis was conducted in several ways, all using MATLAB (MathWorks,

144 USA), including:

- 145 1. Surface shape repeatability was characterised by calculating average and 95<sup>th</sup> area-  
146 percentile surface height deviation between aligned cast or scan pairs (i.e. 95% of the  
147 surface area deviated between scans by this value or less).
- 148 2. An Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) was calculated for reliability<sup>16,17</sup> for the  
149 eleven volume pairs, and for eleven pairs of perimeter measures from the mid-length  
150 of each shape. The ICC(1,1) equation was used for intra-rater repeatability of casting,  
151 and the ICC(3,1) equation for inter-rater reproducibility of scanning.
- 152 3. Bland Altman plots<sup>18</sup> were used to assess mean and within-subject differences  
153 between volume and perimeter measurements, indicating potential bias and changes  
154 in variance with measurement size, producing study population mean and standard  
155 deviation values for each. One volume measure for each participant was plotted, and 9  
156 perimeters (at 10% intervals over the proximal 90%).
- 157 4. Where the Bland Altman plots showed no changes in bias or variance with  
158 measurement size, a repeatability coefficient (CR) was calculated as  $\sqrt{2} \times 1.96 \times$  the  
159 standard deviation, to give the boundary within which a repeat measurement would lie  
160 with 95% probability<sup>19</sup>.
- 161 5. Finally, to provide context to clinically relevant calliper and tape measurements, the  
162 pairwise mean absolute difference, root mean squared difference and Pearson  
163 correlation coefficients were calculated from the width and perimeter profiles along  
164 the shape lengths.

165 **RESULTS**

166           Eleven people with established (>2yrs), unilateral transtibial amputation were  
167 recruited and provided informed, written consent. All were male and had their amputation  
168 following traumatic injury resulting from landmine or road traffic accident; ten had unilateral  
169 amputation, and one bilateral.

170           The cast shapes represented a modification of the limb shape in several key regions  
171 (*Figure 2A&B*), and were similar for all participants. These included focal indentation either  
172 side of the patella tendon (ref. *Figure 1C*), medial and lateral supracondylar indentation (ref.  
173 *Figure 1D*), and relief posteriorly for the hamstring (ref. *Figure 1F*). Positive shape change  
174 was observed distally at the scar site and anteriorly over the tibia (i.e. the cast was larger than  
175 the limb in these areas).

176           Comparison of the repeat casts from the prosthetists revealed a high level of reliability  
177 (*Figure 2 left*). Greatest surface height deviation between casts was observed in regions where  
178 the most substantial shape modifications were introduced during casting. The largest  
179 deviations were observed in the posterior block corresponding with the hamstring cut-out,  
180 introduced after the cast was removed from the residuum (ref. *Figure 1F*). The other notable  
181 region of deviation between cast shapes was on the distal posterior aspect associated with the  
182 calf muscles and scar site.

183 *QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS 1: SURFACE HEIGHT DEVIATION BETWEEN CASTS AND*  
 184 *SCANS:*

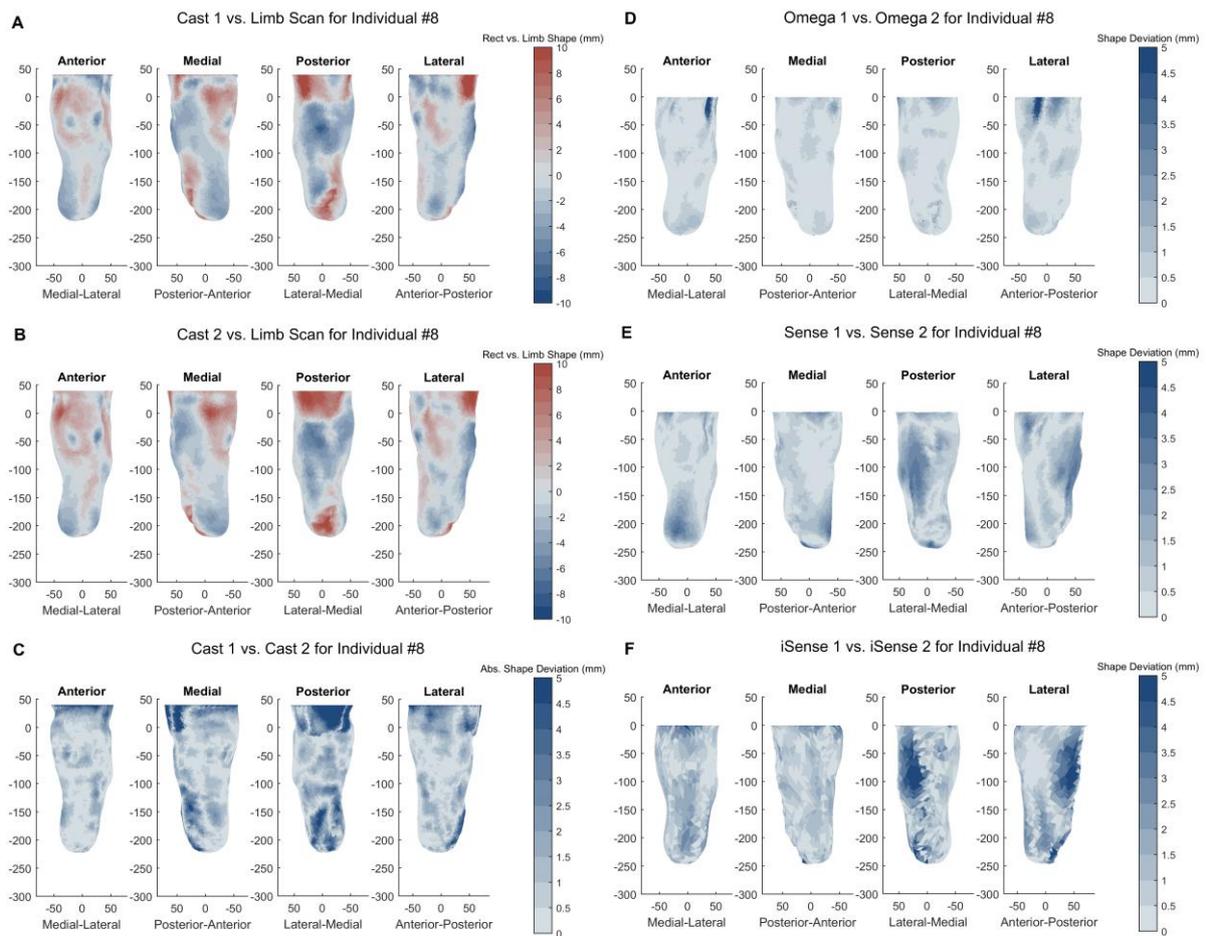
185 The cast pairs were compared quantitatively (Table 1). There was no apparent  
 186 systematic error or bias between first and second casts (across participants, mean surface  
 187 height error -0.18 mm, range from -0.70 to +0.55 mm). Consistency between cast pairs of  
 188 local shape capture and modification is represented by the standard deviation in surface  
 189 height over the surface area (across participants, mean 1.72 mm, range 1.07 to 2.16 mm). On  
 190 average across the participants, 95% of the shape surface area had an absolute deviation  
 191 between casts of <3.60 mm (S.D. 0.81 mm). In addition, 95% of the surface area most  
 192 clinically relevant to socket-limb loading (patella tendon to distal tip, below the eventual  
 193 socket brim) had a deviation between casts of <2.87 mm (S.D. 0.44 mm).

Participant	Mean Cast Volume (l)	Pairwise Cast Deviations /mm			Pairwise Go!SCAN / Omega Scan Deviations /mm		Pairwise Sense Scan Deviations /mm		Pairwise iSense Scan Deviations /mm	
		Raw mean (s.d.)	Absolute 95 <sup>th</sup> percentile		Raw mean (s.d.)	Absolute 95 <sup>th</sup> percentile	Raw mean (s.d.)	Absolute 95 <sup>th</sup> percentile	Raw mean (s.d.)	Absolute 95 <sup>th</sup> percentile
			Full Surface	Patella Tendon to Distal Tip						
1	1.299	0.55 (2.16)	4.05	3.21	-0.02 (0.39)	0.71	-0.57 (1.04)	2.14	-0.01 (2.34)	4.40
2	1.477	0.34 (2.15)	4.60	3.24	0.10 (0.54)	1.05	1.02 (1.03)	2.87	-	-
3	1.649	0.31 (1.52)	3.48	2.80	0.00 (0.69)	1.34	0.21 (1.21)	2.54	0.45 (2.02)	3.68
4	1.109	-0.18 (1.17)	2.75	2.34	0.07 (0.34)	0.74	-0.61 (1.11)	2.42	-1.76 (2.16)	5.22
5	1.296	-0.70 (1.94)	4.31	3.43	-0.20 (0.42)	0.94	-0.04 (0.84)	1.78	-0.30 (1.39)	2.86
6	1.010	-0.14 (1.95)	4.74	3.04	0.09 (0.49)	0.96	0.69 (1.44)	3.16	0.51 (1.53)	2.77
7	1.628	0.08 (1.54)	3.27	3.01	-0.16 (0.42)	0.86	-0.01 (1.51)	2.68	-0.74 (1.69)	3.56
8	1.299	-0.56 (1.95)	4.09	2.95	-0.15 (0.81)	1.42	-0.59 (1.07)	2.68	-0.52 (1.69)	3.93
9	0.807	-0.37 (1.66)	3.22	3.19	0.07 (0.52)	1.00	0.13 (1.26)	2.60	-0.17 (1.39)	2.95
10	1.383	-0.21 (1.07)	2.36	2.10	0.05 (0.42)	0.81	-0.98 (1.44)	3.14	0.11 (2.01)	3.86
11	1.154	0.01 (1.75)	2.70	2.28	-0.10 (1.51)	1.58	0.99 (1.13)	2.89	0.03 (1.01)	2.02
<b>Mean (s.d.)</b>	<b>1.283 (0.255)</b>	<b>-0.18 (1.72)</b>	<b>3.60 (0.81)</b>	<b>2.87 (0.44)</b>	<b>-0.02 (0.60)</b>	<b>1.04 (0.29)</b>	<b>0.02 (1.19)</b>	<b>2.63 (0.41)</b>	<b>-0.22 (1.57)</b>	<b>3.53 (0.92)</b>

194 Table 1: Reliability of residual limb cast and scan surface height measurement expressed as  
 195 mean (s.d.) raw deviation and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile absolute deviation between cast or scan pairs, by  
 196 area.

197 The scanned shapes represented a non-contact characterisation of the residual limb  
 198 shape, i.e. without any soft tissue manipulation or pre-rectification landmarking. Comparison

199 of the repeat scans revealed differing reliability between devices (Figure 2 right), and less  
 200 spatial trend in surface height deviation was observed between scans than between casts. The  
 201 scan pairs were compared quantitatively (Table 1). The Omega scanner was more reliable  
 202 than casting, the Sense scanner was similar and the iSense scanner less reliable. Systematic  
 203 error or bias between first and second scans for any device was small compared to the  
 204 scanner's corresponding consistency (standard deviation in surface height deviation over the  
 205 surface area of 0.60 mm for Omega, 1.19 mm for Sense and 1.57 mm for iSense). On average  
 206 across the participants, 95% of the surface area from patella tendon to distal tip (below the  
 207 eventual socket brim) had a deviation between casts of <1.04 mm (S.D. 0.29 mm) for Omega,  
 208 <2.63 mm (S.D. 0.41 mm) for Sense and <3.53 mm (S.D. 0.92 mm) for iSense.



209  
 210 Figure 2: Scan surface deviation plots for one example participant: casts 1 and 2 vs. limb scan (A&B),  
 211 and absolute deviation between cast 1 vs. cast 2 (C). Absolute deviations between scans are plotted  
 212 for the Omega (D), Sense (E) and iSense (F) scanners.

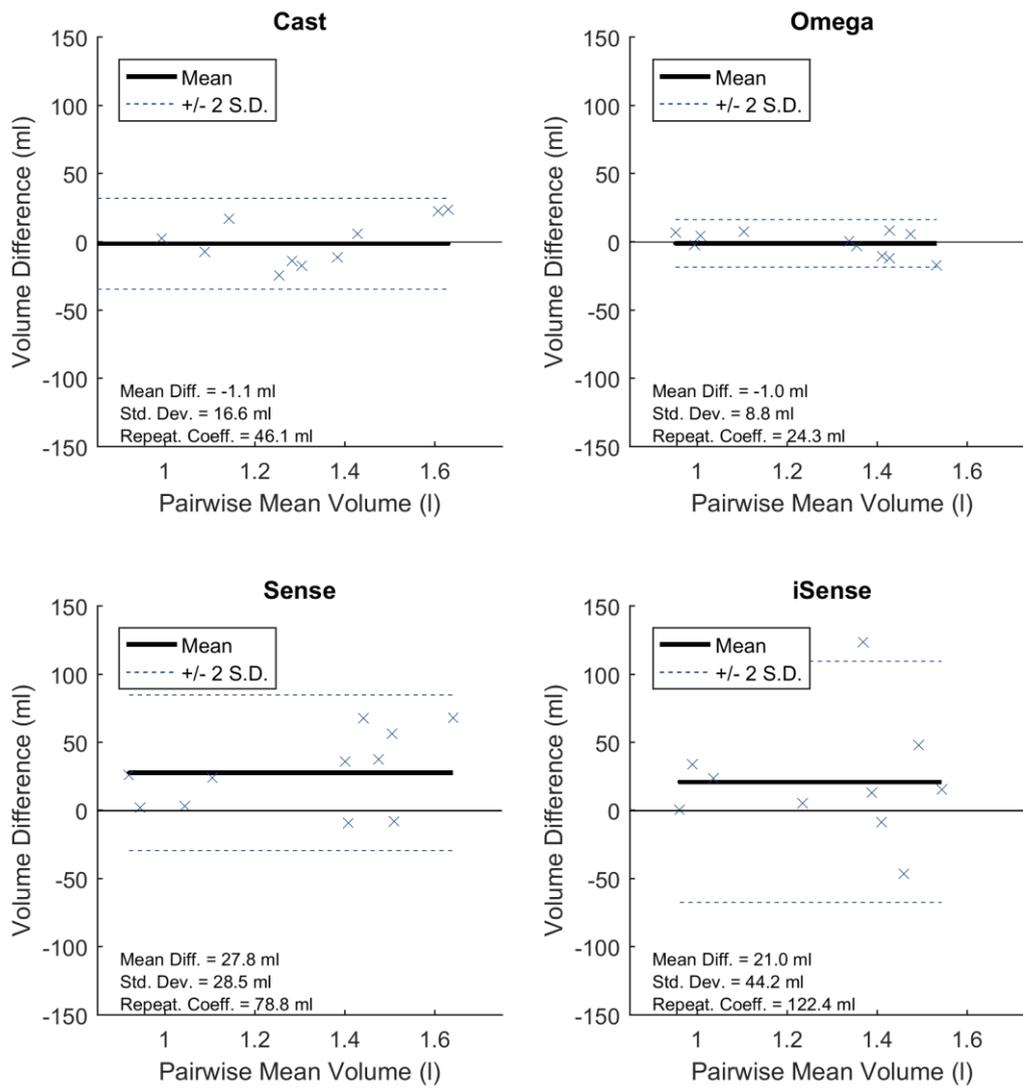
213 *QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS 2-4: VOLUME AND SERIAL SECTION PERIMETER*

214 *DEVIATION BETWEEN CASTS*

215 The intra-prosthetist residual limb casting repeatability (Table 2) was calculated from  
 216 raw cast volume data, and perimeters at 10% increments along the cast length, represented on  
 217 Bland-Altman plots (Figure 3, Figure 4). Casting and all scanners had very high ICC(1,1)  
 218 scores, above 0.977. No volume or perimeter bias was observed between first and second  
 219 casts or scans with any device. The standard deviation of pairwise volume differences of 16.6  
 220 ml equates to a repeatability coefficient of 46.1 ml or 3.47% (Figure 3 top left). The  
 221 repeatability coefficient for cast perimeters was 9.6 mm or 3.53% (Figure 4 top left). For both  
 222 measures, casting lay between the Omega and Sense scanners for repeatability, with the  
 223 iSense scanner less repeatable.

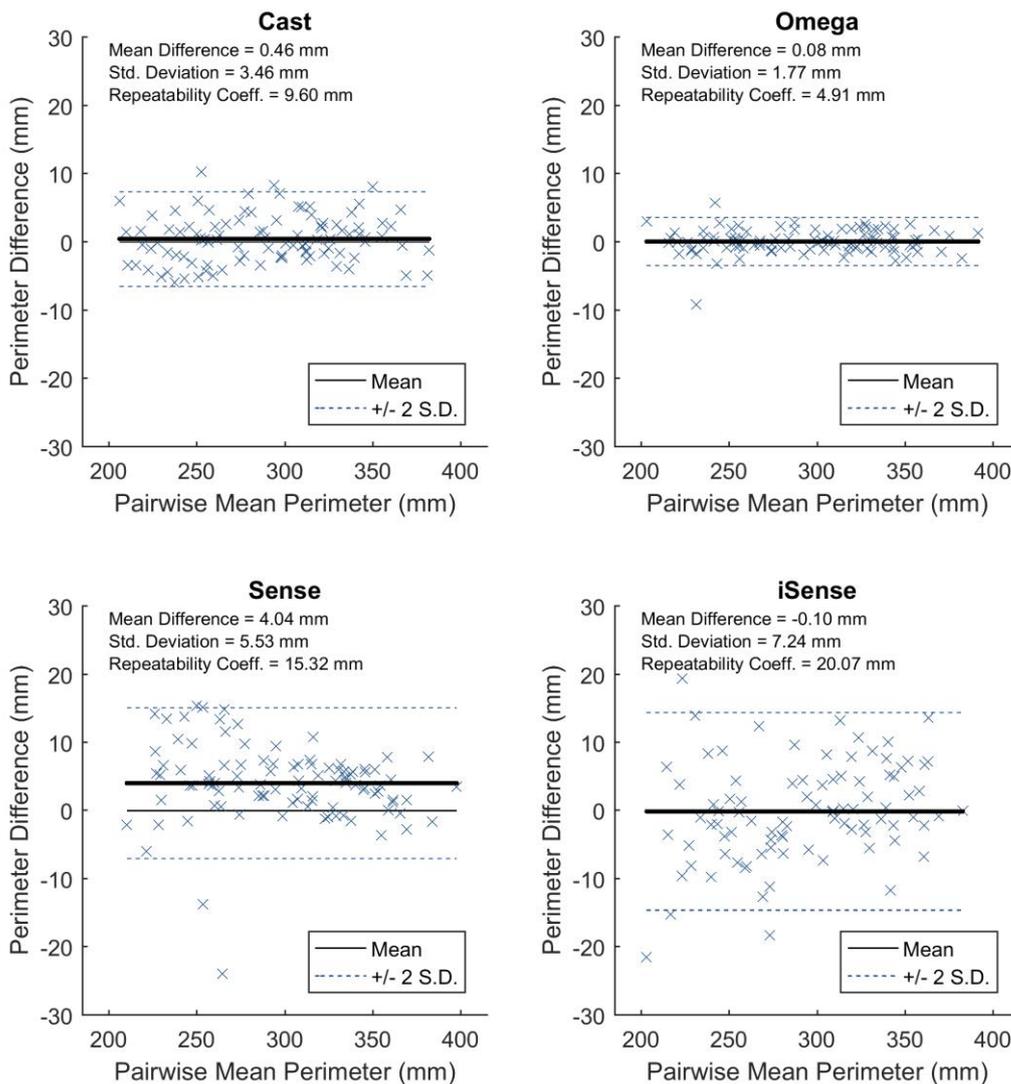
		Absolute /ml		Relative /%		ICC	t-test p-Value
Reliability Test (Cast 1 vs. Cast 2 or Scan 1 vs. Scan 2)		Pairwise Difference (mean ± SD)	Repeatability Coefficient	Pairwise Difference (mean ± SD)	Repeatability Coefficient		
Volume	Cast	-1.1 ± 16.6	46.1	-0.17 ± 1.25	3.47	0.998*	<0.001
	Go!SCAN / Omega	-1.0 ± 8.8	24.3	-0.02 ± 0.65	1.81	0.999	<0.001
	Sense	27.8 ± 28.5	78.8	2.02 ± 1.89	5.23	0.994	<0.001
	iSense	21.0 ± 44.2	122.4	1.67 ± 3.23	8.94	0.980	<0.001
Perimeter	Cast	0.46 ± 3.46	9.60	0.15 ± 1.27	3.53	0.997*	<0.001
	Go!SCAN / Omega	0.08 ± 1.77	4.91	0.00 ± 0.61	1.69	0.999	<0.001
	Sense	4.04 ± 5.53	15.32	1.33 ± 1.81	5.03	0.994	<0.001
	iSense	-0.10 ± 7.24	20.07	0.09 ± 2.56	7.10	0.978	<0.001

224 Table 2: Intra-rater reliability statistics on volume and perimeter measures obtained from digital  
 225 measures from Omega scans of cast pairs (n=11), and direct limb scan pairs by Omega (n=11), Sense  
 226 (n=11) and iSense (n=10). \* Cast-cast intra-rater reliability used equation ICC(1,1); scan-scan inter-  
 227 rater reliabilities used equation ICC(3,1).



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Figure 3: Bland-Altman plots of pairwise difference in volume measures for casting and the three scanners (one measure per limb).



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 232 Figure 4: Bland-Altman plots of pairwise difference in perimeter measures for casting and the three  
 233 scanners (9 measures per limb, at 10% intervals along length).

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235 *QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS 5: WIDTH AND PERIMETER PROFILE DEVIATION*

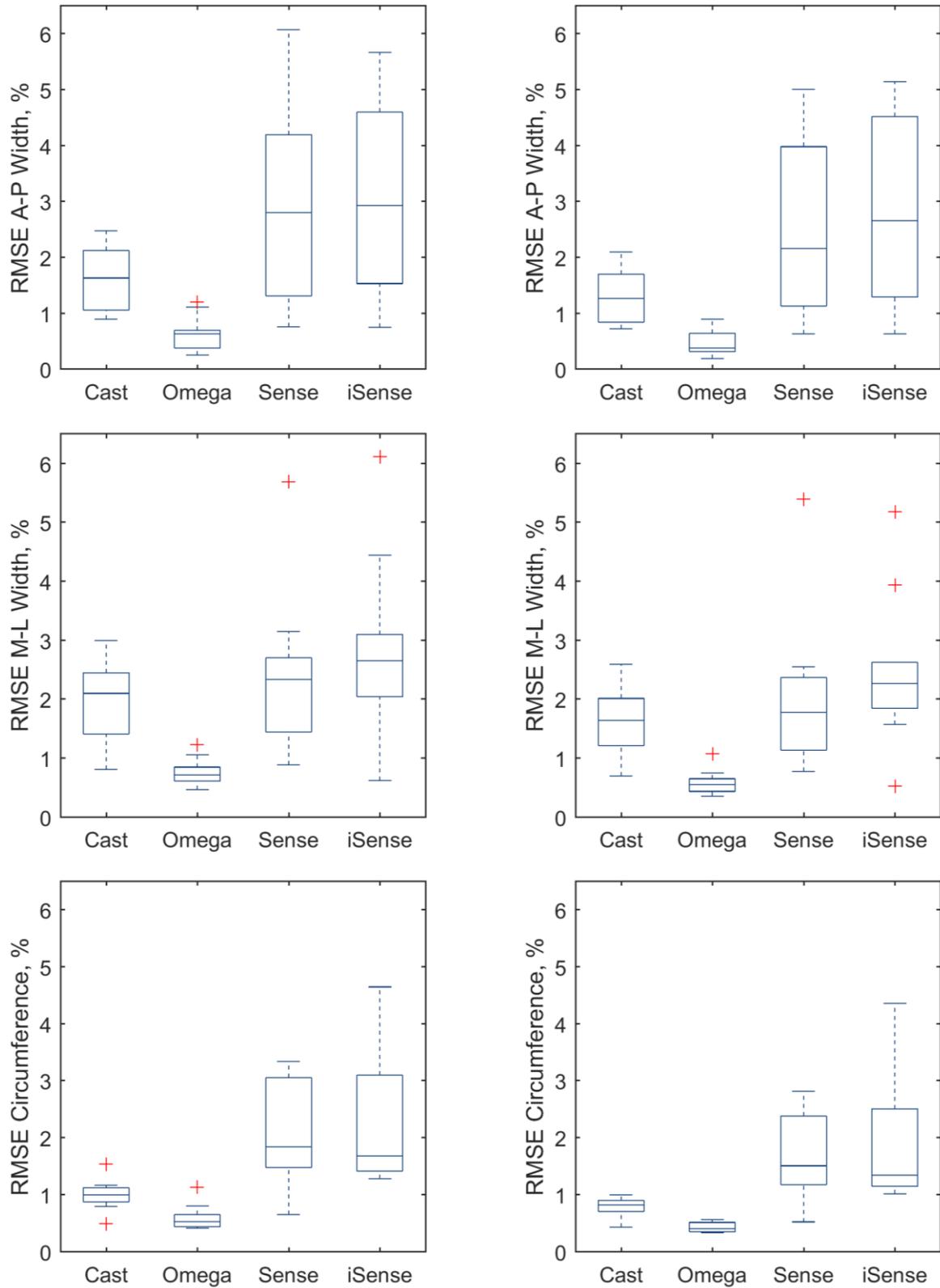
236 *BETWEEN CASTS*

237 Width and perimeter profiles along the residuum length were used for further  
 238 inspection of the shape deviation between casts and scans (Figure 5, Table 3). All cast 1 vs.  
 239 cast 2 measures were highly correlated ( $r = 0.993-0.999$ ), and all width measurements  
 240 deviated by less than 3.25 mm. Slightly greater difference between measures was observed  
 241 for the coronal (M-L) compared to sagittal width (A-P) measurements. This may be attributed

242 to the residuum having lower flexibility in the anterior-posterior direction than the medial-  
 243 lateral direction, owing to the bony tibial crest. Conversely, no difference was observed  
 244 between coronal and sagittal width reliability for the non-contact scan-based measurements.  
 245 The Sense and iSense scanners had similar median and interquartile range deviations, both  
 246 larger than casting, and the Omega scanner was again observed to be the most reliable tool.

	Measure (Cast 1 vs. Cast 2)	Absolute Difference /mm		Relative Difference /%		Pearson Correlation Coefficient
		Root Mean Squared	Mean Absolute	Root Mean Squared	Mean Absolute	
Sagittal Width (Anterior-Posterior)	Cast	1.355 (1.098 - 1.722)	1.055 (0.863 - 1.448)	1.634 (1.158 - 2.051)	1.266(0.927 - 1.660)	0.997 (0.996 - 0.999)
	Go!SCAN / Omega	0.553 (0.391 - 0.729)	0.427 (0.310 - 0.521)	0.634 (0.383 - 0.682)	0.383(0.327 - 0.613)	1.000 (0.999 - 1.000)
	Sense	2.311 (1.347 - 3.663)	2.005 (1.101 - 3.228)	2.802 (1.451 - 4.171)	2.159(1.136 - 3.949)	0.999 (0.998 - 1.000)
	iSense	2.519 (1.663 - 3.580)	2.238 (1.428 - 3.197)	2.930 (1.701 - 4.559)	2.659(1.416 - 4.337)	0.999 (0.999 - 0.999)
Coronal Width (Medial-Lateral)	Cast	2.123 (1.312 - 2.420)	1.630 (1.069 - 1.992)	2.101 (1.465 - 2.420)	1.643(1.236 - 2.005)	0.994 (0.993 - 0.995)
	Go!SCAN / Omega	0.735 (0.646 - 0.829)	0.507 (0.468 - 0.677)	0.714 (0.635 - 0.811)	0.550(0.458 - 0.631)	0.999 (0.998 - 1.000)
	Sense	2.042 (1.446 - 2.516)	1.635 (1.186 - 2.179)	2.337 (1.476 - 2.700)	1.779(1.205 - 2.352)	0.998 (0.996 - 0.999)
	iSense	2.516 (2.009 - 3.048)	2.213 (1.798 - 2.655)	2.651 (2.112 - 3.070)	2.267(1.898 - 2.594)	0.997 (0.995 - 0.998)
Perimeter	Cast	3.121 (2.673 - 3.589)	2.324 (1.948 - 2.472)	1.003 (0.885 - 1.116)	0.823(0.728 - 0.898)	0.998 (0.997 - 0.999)
	Go!SCAN / Omega	1.477 (1.310 - 1.870)	0.786 (0.465 - 1.047)	0.534 (0.450 - 0.638)	0.410(0.356 - 0.498)	0.999 (0.999 - 1.000)
	Sense	5.088 (4.213 - 8.023)	4.616 (3.733 - 6.377)	1.841 (1.551 - 2.974)	1.511(1.201 - 2.260)	0.997 (0.998 - 0.999)
	iSense	5.043 (4.329 - 8.000)	3.404 (2.382 - 5.474)	1.684 (1.447 - 2.849)	1.350(1.153 - 2.327)	0.996 (0.995 - 0.997)

247 Table 3: Intra-rater reliability statistics for clinically-relevant measures of width and cross-  
 248 section perimeter profiles. Data were non-parametric, so presented as median (interquartile range).



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Figure 5: Intra-rater reliability of casting and scanning for clinically relevant measures of sagittal and coronal plane widths, and perimeters, expressed by box and whisker plots.

## 252 **DISCUSSION**

253           This study set out to conduct a new, high-resolution assessment of the repeatability of  
254 plaster casting, using gross volume and detailed shape metrics, specifically in the context of  
255 clinically relevant residuum shape capture. The intention was to provide stringent but  
256 appropriate benchmarking data for reliability of other technologies including 3D scanners and  
257 pressure casting. Exemplar measures were conducted for three 3D scanners in current clinical  
258 and research use, selected to cover a range from established, high accuracy devices to low  
259 cost consumer products. Participants with transtibial amputation were recruited to assess  
260 manual plaster cast and CAD/CAM methods in prosthetic device design and fabrication. In  
261 an effort to contribute most clearly to the clinical community the present study's results are  
262 presented in a consistent manner to the standards of data visualisation established by Sanders  
263 and Severance<sup>15</sup>, and a consensus of the statistical methods presented by Seminati et al<sup>13</sup> and  
264 Kofman et al<sup>20</sup>.

265           Considering consistency in both detailed shape measures and gross volume and  
266 perimeter measures, the high specification Omega scanner was more reliable than casting,  
267 and the Sense scanner was similar or less reliable. The iSense scanner was the least reliable in  
268 all tests. Considering clinically-comparable measures of residuum width and perimeter  
269 profiles, the Sense and iSense scanners had similar deviations, both larger than casting, and  
270 the Omega scanner was again observed to be the most reliable tool.

271           To provide clinical context, we can compare casting variability to clinically  
272 manageable volume changes. Lilja and Öberg<sup>21</sup> proposed that the volume change  
273 corresponding to donning one (+5%) and two stockings (+10%) is clinically significant, as a  
274 new socket is typically prescribed once two stockings are required. Sanders and colleagues  
275 reported that a limb volume change of ~6% (simulated by a uniform  $\pm 1.8$  mm socket surface

276 offset)<sup>22</sup> may produce clinically detectable effects on gait, quality of fit, comfort and  
277 satisfaction measures. In the present study the repeatability coefficients of casting volume  
278 and perimeter were both ~3.5%, below these indicated limits for clinical significance. All  
279 these measurements' ICC scores also comfortably exceeded the 0.90 threshold for clinically-  
280 relevant reliability<sup>23</sup>. These values were also below that reported for volume change upon  
281 muscle activation during casting, with a mean deviation of +5.5% (range -4.2% to +14.2%)<sup>24</sup>.  
282 A recent study identified similar variability in volume and perimeter measures for transtibial  
283 sockets produced by casting and the Biosculptor CAD/CAM method, for a single  
284 individual<sup>25</sup>, and the absolute volume reliability measures were slightly better than achieved  
285 using water displacement<sup>26</sup>.

286         Considering the more detailed shape measures, the mean surface height deviation in  
287 serial castings was larger in 6 of the 11 participants than the +0.25 mm socket manufacturing  
288 bias (mean radial error) reported by Sanders et al<sup>27</sup> as clinically noticeable (Table 1).  
289 However, the present data includes the more variable residuum tip, and deviation was less  
290 than the thickness of a 1-ply sock<sup>28</sup> in all cases. The mean height error was smaller than the  
291 +0.25 mm bias for all 11 participants with the Omega scanner, but larger for 7/11 participants  
292 with the Sense and for 6/10 participants with the iSense. This study's high resolution shape  
293 deviation mapping extends prior casting reliability investigations which considered global  
294 metrics including volume, length and cross section area<sup>9,10</sup> to compare casting methods, and  
295 analysis of rectifications *subsequent* to the shape capture itself<sup>4</sup>. The most notable prior  
296 application of these shape deviation mapping techniques to casting was conducted by Sanders  
297 et al, addressing the specific question of the influence of the time delay between an activity  
298 protocol and casting<sup>8</sup>.

299         Considering other clinical measurement tools, the width and perimeter measurement  
300 reliability for casting was in the same range or slightly lower than the calliper, tape measure

301 and anthropometer data presented by Geil<sup>29</sup>. Shape and volume reliability data were  
302 comparable to those obtained from existing CAD scanning technologies<sup>5,13,20,30</sup> and the lower  
303 cost scanners were comparable to smartphone photogrammetry for digitising sockets<sup>7</sup>. The  
304 standard deviation and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile surface height difference between casts, indicative of  
305 the greatest local variability in shape capture, were similar to the focal rectification  
306 consistency data reported by Convery et al<sup>4</sup>.

307         The present study's main limitation is a relatively small convenience sample with  
308 restricted inclusion criteria, representing amputation due to trauma only (landmines and road  
309 traffic accidents), and as such may have limited generalisability. Indeed, it should be noted  
310 that the presented data are relevant to transtibial residual limb casting only, and may not be  
311 directly applied to other amputation levels or orthoses that have greater reliance upon bony  
312 prominences. A recent review<sup>31</sup> concluded that shape capture tools “require more consistent  
313 ‘gold standards’” and highlighted a lack of CAD assessments on residual limbs, where most  
314 prior work has used models. This study offers *in vivo* benchmarks, and the participant cohort  
315 represents a stringent benchmarking test for new technologies, as several of the more  
316 established participants displayed slender, long residual limbs with clear bony prominences,  
317 and would be expected to produce more consistent contact-based shape measurements than  
318 individuals with more fleshy residua.

319         This study only included two prosthetists, although one was a recent graduate and the  
320 other had 18 years' clinical experience. Further, we did not address inter-prosthetist  
321 variability, as it is likely that different prosthetists would each produce differently shaped  
322 sockets that would achieve acceptable user comfort. The study also considers variability  
323 arising from plaster casting for residuum shape capture and landmarking for subsequent  
324 rectification, but not variability in the final rectification features. The presented data are  
325 intended for use in appraisal of other shape capture methods; consistency of subsequent

326 rectifications may be compared to the results presented by Convery et al<sup>4</sup>. As a final key  
327 limitation, it is acknowledged that the relationship between socket comfort and socket fit is  
328 not understood<sup>31</sup>, and assessing user satisfaction with sockets produced by the different  
329 approaches was outside this study's remit.

330 In an LMIC clinical context, important discussion should consider the specific use of  
331 3D scanning and other CAD/CAM technologies. There are risks associated with embedding  
332 these digital technologies in established manual plaster-based socket design and fabrication  
333 workflows, and with present CAD/CAM technologies the crucial sustainable maintenance,  
334 servicing and replaceability factors of Appropriate Technologies may not yet be met<sup>32</sup>. There  
335 are different use cases for these 3D technologies short of adopting a full CAD/CAM  
336 workflow, such as i) replication of a well-fitting but damaged or lost manual socket<sup>7</sup>, ii)  
337 detailed residual limb volume and shape surveying, and iii) remote assessment for individuals  
338 who cannot easily attend P&O clinics. Regarding socket replication, the 'well-fitting' caveat  
339 is key, as the residuum's volume and shape are known to change over time as well as  
340 fluctuate, and it is uncommon for sockets to wear out. Anecdotally, some clinicians perform  
341 residuum shape capture by plaster casting and then proceed to digitise the cast by 3D  
342 scanning, prior to CAD rectification and CNC fabrication. Different levels of scanning  
343 accuracy and reliability will be necessary for these different cases, with greatest accuracy  
344 required for socket replication and cast digitisation. Lower specification devices may offer  
345 benefits instead for enhancing LMIC P&O service access for people living in remote  
346 communities, but not at the expense of providing an accurate, well-fitting socket. There is a  
347 moral imperative to ensure that only appropriate technology is deployed, which has been  
348 tested and validated for the particular P&O service in question, irrespective of geographical  
349 or financial constraints. Furthermore, it is essential that these digital methods and devices,  
350 high or low cost, are not seen as a replacement for clinician training. As a fundamental

351 principle of ethical research and development, all new technologies must be proven before  
352 clinical use, as we must prove the prosthetic devices themselves.

353         This study's results support the established body of evidence around plaster casting as  
354 the benchmark of prosthetic socket design, whereby expert prosthetists apply their skill and  
355 experience, and against which novel technologies should be measured. Three case-study  
356 devices in current clinical use were compared, and different use-cases proposed. Appraisal of  
357 new technologies should consider quantitative accuracy and reliability metrics alongside  
358 qualitative usability factors<sup>20</sup> and ultimately prosthesis user outcome measures<sup>10,33</sup> and  
359 acceptability scoring<sup>34</sup>. This study presents one element of the data to support such appraisal  
360 and selection of appropriate technologies. The shape capture and measurement method may  
361 also support prosthetists in measuring their plasterwork skills as part of their training and  
362 continuing professional development.

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373 Data availability Supporting data are openly available from the University of  
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