

The effects of knee extensor moment biofeedback on gait biomechanics and quadriceps contractile behavior

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Individuals with knee joint pathologies exhibit quadriceps dysfunction that, during walking, manifests as smaller peak knee extensor moment (pKEM) and reduced knee flexion excursion. These changes persist despite muscle strengthening and may alter stance phase knee joint loading considered relevant to osteoarthritis risk. Novel rehabilitation strategies that more directly augment quadriceps mechanical output during functional movements are needed to reduce this risk. As an important first step, we tested the efficacy of real-time biofeedback during walking to prescribe changes of $\pm 20\%$ and $\pm 40\%$ of normal walking pKEM values in 11 uninjured young adults. We simultaneously recorded knee joint kinematics, ground reaction forces, and, via ultrasound, vastus lateralis (VL) fascicle length change behavior. Participants successfully responded to real-time biofeedback and averaged up to 55% larger and 51% smaller than normal pKEM values with concomitant and potentially favorable changes in knee flexion excursion. While the VL muscle-tendon unit (MTU) lengthened, VL fascicles accommodated weight acceptance during walking largely through isometric, or even slight concentric, rather than eccentric action as is commonly presumed. Targeted pKEM biofeedback may be a useful rehabilitative and/or scientific tool to elicit desirable changes in knee joint biomechanics considered relevant to the development of osteoarthritis.

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20
21 **Abstract**

22 Individuals with knee joint pathologies exhibit quadriceps dysfunction that, during
23 walking, manifests as smaller peak knee extensor moment (pKEM) and reduced knee flexion
24 excursion. These changes persist despite muscle strengthening and may alter stance phase knee
25 joint loading considered relevant to osteoarthritis risk. Novel rehabilitation strategies that more
26 directly augment quadriceps mechanical output during functional movements are needed to
27 reduce this risk. As an important first step, we tested the efficacy of real-time biofeedback during
28 walking to prescribe changes of $\pm 20\%$ and $\pm 40\%$ of normal walking pKEM values in 11
29 uninjured young adults. We simultaneously recorded knee joint kinematics, ground reaction
30 forces, and, via ultrasound, vastus lateralis (VL) fascicle length change behavior. Participants
31 successfully responded to real-time biofeedback and averaged up to 55% larger and 51% smaller
32 than normal pKEM values with concomitant and potentially favorable changes in knee flexion
33 excursion. While the VL muscle-tendon unit (MTU) lengthened, VL fascicles accommodated
34 weight acceptance during walking largely through isometric, or even slight concentric, rather
35 than eccentric action as is commonly presumed. Targeted pKEM biofeedback may be a useful
36 rehabilitative and/or scientific tool to elicit desirable changes in knee joint biomechanics
37 considered relevant to the development of osteoarthritis.
38

39 Introduction

40 Quadriceps function contributes to center of mass deceleration during the weight
41 acceptance phase of walking (i.e., early stance) and facilitates homeostatic articular cartilage
42 loading (Lewek, Rudolph et al. 2002, Miyazaki, Wada et al. 2002). Appropriate cartilage loading
43 during gait is essential for maintaining health of mechanosensitive joint tissues, which may be
44 negatively affected by excessive or insufficient repetitive loading (Andriacchi, Mundermann et
45 al. 2004). However, individuals with knee joint pathology (e.g., unilateral arthroplasty, anterior
46 cruciate ligament reconstruction [ACLR], or osteoarthritis) often exhibit persistent quadriceps
47 muscle dysfunction that, at least in the case of ACLR, frequently persists long after return to
48 functional activity (Benedetti, Catani et al. 2003, Fuchs, Frisse et al. 2004, Roewer, Di Stasi et al.
49 2011, Noehren, Wilson et al. 2013). This dysfunction presents in the sagittal plane as smaller
50 peak internal knee extensor moments (pKEM) and less knee flexion excursion during stance
51 (Lewek, Rudolph et al. 2002, Mizner and Snyder-Mackler 2005, Roewer, Di Stasi et al. 2011,
52 Sigward, Lin et al. 2016). Larger knee extensor moments have been found to correlate with more
53 quadriceps force output and in turn greater compressive joint force (Schmitz, Harrison et al.
54 2017). Accordingly, healthy individuals with typical pKEM values experience cartilage loading
55 during walking that may protect against cartilage thinning – a factor considered relevant to
56 osteoarthritis (OA) progression (Schmitz, Harrison et al. 2017). In people with knee pathology,
57 these aberrant patterns likely arise from some combination of quadriceps weakness (Lewek,
58 Rudolph et al. 2002) and/or inhibition (Blackburn, Pietrosimone et al. 2016). However, while
59 simple strength training can reverse asymmetric muscle weakness (Devita, Hortobagyi et al.
60 1998, Roewer, Di Stasi et al. 2011), strengthening alone fails to alter more persistent and
61 functional asymmetries in pKEM (Devita, Hortobagyi et al. 1998, Roewer, Di Stasi et al. 2011,
62 Noehren, Wilson et al. 2013, Sigward, Lin et al. 2016) and/or knee flexion excursion (Roewer,
63 Di Stasi et al. 2011, Sigward, Lin et al. 2016). Novel strategies that more directly augment
64 quadriceps output during functional movements are needed to restore physiological knee loading.

65 Biofeedback is a promising approach to cue changes in gait biomechanics that has been
66 conducted in people with knee joint pathology. Most commonly, studies have used real-time
67 biofeedback in people with ACLR and total knee arthroplasty to systematically alter vertical
68 ground reaction forces (vGRF) during sit to stand and walking (Zeni, Abujaber et al. 2013, Luc-
69 Harkey, Franz et al. 2018, Christensen, Foreman et al. 2019). These studies have revealed insight
70 relevant to the association between limb loading and, for example, biochemical markers
71 indicative of cartilage mechanical responses. However, there is a growing need to use
72 biofeedback to target root changes in quadriceps mechanical output during walking, which must
73 overcome technical challenges associated with performing inverse dynamics calculations in real-
74 time. Given that pKEM, a surrogate measure of quadriceps mechanical output during early
75 stance, is reduced in individuals with knee joint pathology (Devita, Hortobagyi et al. 1998,
76 Roewer, Di Stasi et al. 2011, Sigward, Lin et al. 2016), associates with less cartilage loading in
77 contact force simulations (Manal, Gardinier et al. 2015), and persists following return to sport

78 and despite strengthening (Roewer, Di Stasi et al. 2011), overcoming these challenges is
79 important.

80 Quadriceps muscle forces are the largest contributor to knee loading during the early
81 stance phase of walking (Killen, Saxby et al. 2018). What we know about quadriceps muscle
82 contractile behavior comes primarily from electromyographic measures and computational
83 simulations. Those studies have in part reported on quadriceps activation amplitude, timing, and
84 coactivation with other muscles spanning the knee during isolated contractions and functional
85 movements (Winter and Yack 1987, Lass, Kaalund et al. 1991, Ivanenko, Poppele et al. 2004,
86 Nyland, Klein et al. 2010, Rice, McNair et al. 2011, Arnold, Hamner et al. 2013). Based on their
87 anatomical architecture and disproportionately high activation during weight acceptance (Winter
88 and Yack 1987, Lass, Kaalund et al. 1991, Ivanenko, Poppele et al. 2004, Arnold, Hamner et al.
89 2013), the quadriceps muscle-tendon units (MTUs) are most responsible for generating knee
90 extensor moments in early stance. However, muscle activation alone need not associate with
91 underlying MTU behavior (Vigotsky, Halperin et al. 2018), and very few studies have
92 empirically measured quadriceps muscle fascicle kinematics during functional activities such as
93 walking. Accordingly, real-time biofeedback that targets pKEM in walking has significant added
94 potential to improve our fundamental understanding of quadriceps MTU dynamics during weight
95 acceptance and ultimately their role in knee loading.

96 Indirect evidence has perpetuated the textbook assumption that quadriceps muscles
97 perform eccentrically during weight acceptance. Indeed, MTU lengthening is essentially
98 prescribed by measured knee flexion excursion which, combined with relatively low compliance
99 in proximal tendons, allude to active fascicle lengthening during early stance (Ker, Alexander et
100 al. 1988, Farris and Sawicki 2012, Manal, Gardinier et al. 2015). However, the two studies to use
101 dynamic ultrasound imaging to quantify quadriceps fascicle action *in vivo* during walking
102 suggested that these muscles normally perform more isometrically during weight acceptance
103 than previously appreciated (Chleboun, Busic et al. 2007, Bohm, Marzilger et al. 2018).
104 Combining *in vivo* ultrasound with pKEM biofeedback – an approach designed to target
105 quadriceps output – could accelerate our muscle-level understanding of quadriceps functional
106 behavior and ultimately dysfunction in people with knee joint pathology.

107 As an important first step, our purpose was to apply real-time visual biofeedback of
108 pKEM to uninjured walking participants to encourage changes in the quadriceps mechanical
109 output while using ultrasonography to quantify vastus lateralis (VL) fascicle kinematics in the
110 context of measured MTU length changes. We hypothesized that pKEM biofeedback would
111 elicit prescribed increases and decreases in pKEM. We also hypothesized that the changes in
112 pKEM would be accompanied by systematic changes in knee flexion excursion, VL MTU length
113 change, and fascicle length change during weight acceptance, defined as the period between
114 instants of heel-strike and pKEM.

115

116 **Materials & Methods**

117 **Participants**

118 Eleven uninjured young adults (6 females; mean \pm s.d.; age: 23.6 \pm 2.5 years, height:
119 1.7 \pm 0.1 m, mass: 63.8 \pm 9.3 kg) participated. Exclusion criteria included any history of knee joint
120 surgery or major ligamentous injury, knee joint injury, or leg bone fractures in the previous six
121 months, use of a lower extremity prosthesis, or other self-reported neurological or
122 musculoskeletal condition that would limit walking ability. Methods and recruitment procedures
123 for this study were approved by the Biomedical Sciences Institutional Review Board the
124 University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (18-2185). Each participant provided written consent
125 prior to participation. Sample size was based on having 80% power to detect the smallest change
126 in pKEM prescribed in this study (i.e., \pm 20%) compared to normative values from the literature
127 (i.e., effect size=0.77) (Lewek, Rudolph et al. 2002).

128

129 **Instrumentation**

130 A 14-camera motion capture system (Motion Analysis Corporation, Santa Rose, CA,
131 USA) sampling at 100 Hz recorded trajectories of retroreflective markers. Markers were secured
132 to the anterior and posterior superior iliac spines, sacrum, lateral femoral condyles, lateral
133 malleoli, posterior calcanei, and first and fifth metatarsal heads and an additional 14 tracking
134 markers in clusters on the lateral thighs and shanks. A dual-belt, instrumented treadmill (Bertec,
135 Columbus, OH, USA) recorded bilateral 3D ground reaction force (GRF) data at 1000 Hz. We
136 obtained participants' preferred overground walking speed using a photocell timing system
137 (Bower Timing Systems, Draper, UT, USA). Photocells recorded the time taken for the
138 participants to travel the middle three meters of a ten-meter walkway. Each participant's
139 preferred speed was determined from the average of three overground trials (1.3 m/s \pm 0.1) and
140 used as the treadmill speed. Before walking trials commenced, participants acclimated to
141 treadmill walking for five minutes. A 60 mm ultrasound transducer (LV7.5/60/128Z-2, UAB
142 Telemed, Vilnius, Lithuania) recorded B-mode images through a longitudinal cross-section of
143 participants' right VL. We placed the transducer midway between the greater trochanter and
144 superior patella insertion (Brennan, Cresswell et al. 2017) and secured it with a custom flexible
145 probe mount and elastic wrap. To confirm correct placement, we asked participants to flex and
146 extend the knee while standing. We adjusted the probe location if this movement caused any out-
147 of-plane motion. We collected cine B-mode images at 61 frames/s at a depth of 50 mm and used
148 an analog signal indicating the start and stop of ultrasound image collection to synchronize with
149 motion capture and GRF data.

150

151 **Experimental Protocol**

152 This study used a real-time visual biofeedback paradigm to cue prescribed bilateral
153 changes in pKEM during the weight acceptance phase of walking. Participants walked on the
154 instrumented treadmill normally for two minutes. We immediately analyzed this trial using a
155 real-time surrogate inverse dynamics model of the lower limb implemented in Matlab
156 (Mathworks, Natick, MA, USA) to estimate baseline bilateral average pKEM values.
157 Specifically, a custom Matlab script assumed a massless shank and foot and estimated the
158 instantaneous right and left leg knee extensor moments from the cross product between the GRF

159 vector and a position vector between the respective leg's lateral femoral condyle and the line of
160 action of the GRF (Fig. 1A). pKEM values were extracted as the maximum positive value during
161 the first half of stance. Using these baseline values, we established targets corresponding to -
162 40%, -20%, +20% and +40% of normal pKEM values for use in subsequent biofeedback trials
163 (Fig. 1B).

164 During trials with visual biofeedback, participants watched a video monitor positioned in
165 front of the treadmill. The custom Matlab routine and inverse dynamics surrogate model
166 previously used to derive target values estimated instantaneous bilateral pKEM for display in
167 subsequent trials. The vertical position of a ball represented a moving average of instantaneous
168 bilateral pKEM values over the previous four steps (Fig. 1B). The ordinate range for the display
169 was set at $\pm 60\%$ of normal pKEM values for all participants. Before participants began to walk,
170 we showed them a sagittal plane image of their retroreflective markers and GRF vector. We
171 informed participants that changing the magnitude of the force between their feet and ground
172 and/or changing knee flexion during early stance could affect the position of their pKEM values
173 on the screen. We then started the treadmill and initiated the biofeedback paradigm, which
174 displayed their instantaneous pKEM values from their previous four steps. All participants then
175 completed a walking exploration trial without biofeedback targets in which they practiced
176 varying their instantaneous pKEM values across the ordinate range (approximately one minute).
177 During targeted biofeedback trials, the vertical position of a horizontal line on the screen
178 indicated each target value (Fig. 1B). Specifically, participants completed one two-minute trial
179 for each of four target values presented in random order. Finally, participants completed a static
180 standing calibration and hip circumduction tasks (S.J. Piazza 2001) with additional markers
181 placed on their medial femoral condyles and medial malleoli.

182

183 **Measurements and Analysis**

184 We filtered motion capture and force data using a low-pass Butterworth filter with a
185 cutoff frequency of 12 Hz and estimated bilateral hip joint centers from static calibration and hip
186 circumduction trials (S.J. Piazza 2001). We derived bilateral sagittal plane knee joint angles and
187 VL MTU lengths via a global optimization inverse kinematics routine described in detail
188 previously (Hawkins and Hull 1990, Silder, Heiderscheit et al. 2008, Browne and Franz 2019).
189 We estimated knee flexion excursion as the change in knee flexion angle between heel-strike and
190 the local maxima at midstance. The routine then calculated bilateral knee extensor moments
191 using traditional inverse dynamics based on model kinematics, participant anthropometrics, and
192 GRF data. We defined heel-strike with a 20 N vertical GRF threshold to obtain individual stride
193 data and then assembled stride-averaged profiles from the second minute of each trial (~60
194 strides) for each outcome measure of interest. We report vGRF, knee flexion angle, and MTU
195 data for the right limb to provide context for the fascicle data that was recorded unilaterally on
196 the same limb.

197 We measured changes in VL fascicle length and pennation angle during weight
198 acceptance from two strides acquired from the second minute of each trial. Here, we used
199 UltraTrack, an open source ultrasound analysis routine in Matlab (Farris and Lichtwark 2016).

200 To ensure reliability, we opted to perform manual identification of fascicle lengths and pennation
201 at specific keyframe events (i.e., heel-strike and the instant of pKEM) rather than automated
202 tracking of kinematic time series, which can be susceptible to the accumulation of errors and
203 require meticulous manual corrections. We used a 20 N threshold to identify the heel-strike
204 frame in the vGRF data and found the local maximum in KEM stance data to identify pKEM
205 frame. We manually identified an individual fascicle from deep to superficial aponeuroses at
206 each of the two keyframe events for each stride. For fascicles that fell outside the image window,
207 we defined the end of the fascicle based on its intersection with the linear projection of the
208 aponeurosis (Fig. 1C), an estimation technique validated by Ando and colleagues. In Ultratrack,
209 the default pennation angle is measured with respect to the horizontal defined by the probe
210 orientation. Accordingly, we manually identified the orientation of the deep aponeurosis
211 neighboring the identified fascicle which we applied as a correction factor.

212

213 **Statistical Analysis**

214 Linear regression analysis evaluated correlation between real-time estimates and full
215 inverse dynamic model of pKEM. Shapiro-Wilks tests confirmed all outcome measures were
216 normally distributed. We include box and whisker plots showing outliers for all primary
217 outcomes. We used a one-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with an alpha
218 level of 0.05 to test for a significant main effect of biofeedback condition on six primary
219 outcome variables: pKEM, knee flexion excursion, *peak* vGRF at the instant of pKEM, and
220 *change* in VL MTU length, fascicle length, and pennation angle from heel-strike to the instant of
221 pKEM. For outcome measures showing significant main effects of condition, we performed
222 planned post-hoc pairwise comparisons to elucidate differences versus normal walking. One-
223 sample t-tests also compared VL fascicle length change to 0 to characterize contractile state
224 against isometric behavior. We report partial eta square (η_p^2) effect sizes from the ANOVA, and
225 Cohen's d values for all pairwise comparisons.

226

227 **Results**

228 Participants produced 0.62 ± 0.16 Nm/kg pKEM when walking normally. Our real-time
229 surrogate estimate of pKEM correlated well with that estimated via inverse dynamic calculations
230 and, despite modestly overestimating those values, responded similarly to changes elicited using
231 biofeedback ($R^2=0.839$, Fig. 1D). Indeed, targeted biofeedback elicited prescribed and
232 predictable changes in pKEM (main effect, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.929$). Pairwise comparisons revealed
233 that participants produced 31% and 55% larger than normal pKEM when targeting 20% and 40%
234 increases, and 25% and 51% smaller than normal pKEM when targeting 20% and 40%
235 decreases, respectively (p -values ≤ 0.001 , $d \geq 1.066$, Fig. 2 A,B). Participants walked normally
236 with $16.8 \pm 3.5^\circ$ of knee flexion excursion during weight acceptance and exhibited changes
237 thereof in response to pKEM biofeedback (main effect, $p<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.848$). For example, when
238 cued to change pKEM by 40%, participants increased or decreased knee flexion excursion during

239 weight acceptance by 30% and 36% respectively (pairwise $p \leq 0.001$, $d \geq 0.629$ Fig. 2 C,D). pKEM
240 biofeedback also elicited changes in vGRF (main effect, $p \leq 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.418$). Pairwise
241 comparisons revealed that targeting a 40% change in pKEM elicited 9% greater or 5% less than
242 normal peak vGRF (pairwise, $p \leq 0.037$, $d \geq 0.765$) (Fig. 2 E,F).

243 During normal walking, the vastus laterals MTU lengthened by 1.21 ± 0.26 cm during weight
244 acceptance – a change that differed significantly for all conditions (main effect: $p \leq 0.001$, η_p^2
245 = 0.844; pairwise: $p \leq 0.010$, $d \geq 0.428$). MTU lengthening increased by 20% and 34% when
246 targeting 20% and 40% larger than normal pKEM, respectively. Conversely, MTU lengthening
247 decreased by 10% and 17% when targeting 20% and 40% smaller than normal pKEM (Fig.
248 3A,B).

249 Despite VL MTU lengthening, VL fascicles shortened by 1.35 ± 2.31 cm during weight
250 acceptance when walking normally. Changes elicited by biofeedback were modest and not
251 significant (main effect: $p = 0.053$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.204$), and, unlike for MTU lengthening, no condition
252 elicited behavior that differed significantly from isometric (one-sample t-test: $p \geq 0.092$, Fig. 3C,
253 Table 1). During normal walking, VL fascicle pennation increased by $3.1 \pm 3.3^\circ$ during weight
254 acceptance. Similar to those in VL fascicle length, changes in VL fascicle pennation during
255 weight acceptance were not significantly affected by pKEM biofeedback (main effect: $p = 0.056$,
256 $\eta_p^2 = 0.202$, Fig. 3D).

257

258 Discussion

259 We aimed to test the efficacy of real-time visual biofeedback to modulate peak knee
260 extensor moments – herein used as a surrogate for quadriceps output – during walking while
261 quantifying associated changes in VL muscle fascicle kinematics in uninjured, young adults.
262 Knee extensor moment profiles estimated using inverse dynamics calculations resembled those
263 in the literature in timing and magnitude (Besier, Fredericson et al. 2009, Noehren, Wilson et al.
264 2013). Moreover, our real-time surrogate model provided pKEM values consistent with those
265 established from conventional inverse dynamic estimates. Consistent with our hypothesis,
266 biofeedback elicited predictable changes in pKEM in uninjured young adults, augmenting step-
267 to-step values during weight acceptance. These changes were accompanied by concomitant
268 changes in knee flexion excursion. Furthermore, and consistent with joint kinematics, the VL
269 MTU lengthened with the rise in pKEM during weight acceptance as hypothesized. However,
270 contrary to our hypothesis, active VL muscle fascicles did not exhibit lengthening during early
271 stance. Rather, our data suggest that the VL performs relatively isometrically, or even slightly
272 concentrically, to accommodate weight acceptance in walking, not eccentrically as is commonly
273 assumed. Together, our results: (1) allude to the potential for pKEM biofeedback to promote
274 meaningful changes in gait biomechanics in the future application to individuals with ACLr and
275 (2) provide benchmark *in vivo* data to better establish mechanistic links between quadriceps
276 muscle dysfunction and altered knee joint biomechanics considered relevant to OA.

277 Knee extensor moments during walking, and changes thereof due to knee joint pathology,
278 are routinely measured and reported in observational studies. These studies have demonstrated
279 that, across a broad array of knee joint injuries and/or ligament reconstruction, quadriceps
280 dysfunction and smaller pKEM during walking are prevalent compared to uninjured controls,
281 even years after surgery and rehabilitation (Mizner and Snyder-Mackler 2005, Roewer, Di Stasi
282 et al. 2011, Noehren, Wilson et al. 2013). Changes in gait biomechanics at the knee joint can
283 shift articular contact forces to regions not conditioned to loading, particularly when the event
284 allows little time for adaptation (Andriacchi, Mundermann et al. 2004). Our results demonstrate
285 the capability to manipulate pKEM during walking, which may ultimately provide opportunities
286 for intervention. In fact, the strategies participants used to modify their pKEM above and below
287 their normal walking values were simple enough that a single ~1-minute familiarization trial was
288 sufficient to produce the observed changes during biofeedback trials. Clinical translation of
289 pKEM biofeedback will rely on methodological advancements, as our approach leveraged
290 sophisticated and expensive laboratory-based measurement equipment. However, advancements
291 in wearable sensory technology (e.g. inertial measurement units (Hafer, Provenzano et al. 2020))
292 could provide a more practical means to prescribe pKEM biofeedback over multiple sessions in
293 the clinic. After comparing our real-time estimates to inverse dynamics calculations of pKEM,
294 we conclude that the higher than prescribed pKEM values demonstrated during biofeedback
295 trials (i.e. +55% when cued with +40%) arose from small differences between our real-time
296 surrogate model and inverse dynamic calculations, not from poor participant compliance. For
297 example, our surrogate model neglects limb inertial effects. Indeed, the strong correlation and
298 near linear association between real-time and inverse dynamics pKEM estimates supports the
299 efficacy of our approach.

300 Based on the high prevalence with which reduced pKEM is accompanied by less knee
301 flexion excursion in people with knee joint pathology, it is promising that the participants in this
302 study consistently adjusted their pKEM via changes in knee flexion excursion during early
303 stance. This kinematic change would subsequently alter the effective moment arm between the
304 knee joint center and the GRF line of action. We also note that changes in knee flexion excursion
305 in response to biofeedback were larger than the more modest changes in knee flexion angle at
306 heel-strike, which increased only when targeting larger than normal pKEM (e.g., $\sim 8^\circ$ for +40%).
307 This suggests that participants maintained relatively normal flexion at heel-strike with
308 adjustments thereafter during weight acceptance. Measured changes in peak vGRF are also
309 unlikely to explain prescribed changes in pKEM across biofeedback conditions. Accordingly, we
310 conclude that changes in knee flexion excursion are most responsible for changes in pKEM,
311 especially when targeting smaller than normal values. Thus, this study provides evidence that
312 pKEM biofeedback can promote desirable changes in both pKEM and KFE.

313 Real-time biofeedback applied in people with various knee joint pathologies have almost
314 exclusively focused on augmenting peak vGRF (Zeni, Abujaber et al. 2013, Christiansen, Bade
315 et al. 2015, Luc-Harkey, Franz et al. 2018). Both vGRF and pKEM biofeedback encourage
316 individual participants to systematically manipulate their gait patterns, for example to optimize

317 joint loading relevant to OA development. Indeed, changes in limb loading are regularly
318 accompanied by changes in the concentration of biomarkers relevant to cartilage health. For
319 example, Luc-Harkey et al. showed that lesser peak vGRF in individuals with ACLr during
320 walking associated with larger changes in serum concentrations of cartilage oligomeric matrix
321 protein, a trend associated with cartilage thinning (Erhart-Hledik, Favre et al. 2012, Luc-Harkey,
322 Franz et al. 2018). It remains unclear how best to manipulate and thereby optimize knee joint
323 loading during walking in individuals at risk of OA. However, as a more direct and thereby
324 potentially improved surrogate for knee joint loading, additional studies that continue to leverage
325 pKEM biofeedback are warranted. As an important next step, pKEM biofeedback should be
326 tested in patient populations whose physical and psychological attributes may impact their ability
327 to volitionally manipulate pKEM as described in this study.

328 As another major outcome of this study, our results contradict the textbook assumption
329 that quadriceps MTU lengthening during gait is accompanied by eccentric muscle action. Not
330 surprisingly, we found that the VL MTU lengthens considerably during weight acceptance. This
331 MTU action coincides with the timing of knee flexion and significant quadriceps activation. We
332 presume that these hallmark joint kinematic profiles and muscle activation explain the textbook
333 assumption that the quadriceps muscles accommodate limb loading during early stance through
334 eccentric action. However, our *in vivo* imaging results do not support this assumption. Indeed,
335 we found that active VL muscle fascicles accommodate weight acceptance through relatively
336 isometric action. To our knowledge, only two other studies have used ultrasonography to
337 decouple fascicle and MTU dynamics during walking (Chleboun, Busic et al. 2007, Bohm,
338 Marzilger et al. 2018). First, Chleboun and colleagues found that VL fascicles lengthened only
339 0.27 cm between 0% and 15% of the gait cycle despite 12.2° of knee flexion excursion
340 (Chleboun, Busic et al. 2007). More recently, Bohm and colleagues used similar techniques and
341 found 0.87 cm fascicle length change despite 1.81 cm MTU length change (Bohm, Marzilger et
342 al. 2018). Consequently, we intuit that VL MTU lengthening during weight acceptance arises
343 more from tendon elongation than from active muscle lengthening. Perhaps, as has been
344 historically well-documented for MTUs spanning the ankle, isometric action of the quadriceps
345 may be a fundamental phenomenon which may leverage elastic energy storage and return or to
346 prevent muscle strain injury. Additional study in this area is warranted, especially given
347 contemporary interest in isometric versus eccentric loading for tendon therapy (Rio, Kidgell et
348 al. 2015).

349 Growing evidence of isometric action of VL muscles during human locomotion presents
350 the additional opportunity to inform validation techniques for musculoskeletal simulations,
351 especially given their use predicting knee joint loads (Gardinier, Di Stasi et al. 2014, Saxby,
352 Bryant et al. 2016, Wellsandt, Gardinier et al. 2016). Isometric action of the plantarflexor
353 muscles during walking (Farris and Sawicki 2012) continues to encourage a reexamination of
354 model parameters to better reconcile measurements with model predictions (Arnold, Hamner et
355 al. 2013). For example, when models incorrectly assume low tendon compliance, joint
356 kinematics overshadow muscle activation and force-length-velocity relations to dictate estimates

357 of muscle kinematics (Arnold and Delp 2011). It is necessary that we decouple VL muscle-
358 tendon dynamics to better estimate quadriceps force production and thus better understand how
359 changes in quadriceps function in those with ACLr affect the risk of OA development.

360 This study has several limitations. First, we had to conduct normal walking trials before
361 biofeedback trials in order to calculate target values. We also measured only right leg VL
362 fascicle kinematics. Further, to promote reliability in our outcomes, we elected to measure
363 fascicle lengths using manual tracking instead of automated tracking techniques (Cronin, Carty
364 et al. 2011, Farris and Lichtwark 2016). This decision has two potential limitations. First, we are
365 unable to report on the time series of length change behavior that may occur during early stance.
366 Second, we cannot conclusively state that the same fascicle was identified from all trials for each
367 participant. It is also unclear if fascicle dynamics are consistent along the length of the VL,
368 which could influence how well our muscle-level outcomes generalize. Finally, by design, our
369 study focusses on sagittal plane knee joint kinematics, mechanics, and quadriceps muscle action;
370 as well as the risk of cartilage degeneration due to loading below physiological values. However,
371 individuals with knee joint pathology and those at risk of OA also frequently exhibit larger peak
372 external knee adduction moments than controls (Butler, Minick et al. 2009, Alnahdi, Zeni et al.
373 2011), an indirect surrogate for medial compressive forces (Ogaya, Naito et al. 2014). Together,
374 the collective literature thus suggests that *changes* in articular cartilage loading magnitude that
375 occur faster than cartilage adaptation may contribute to PTOA (Andriacchi, Mundermann et al.
376 2004) – underscoring future opportunities for real-time biofeedback to optimize knee joint
377 loading.

378

379 **Conclusions**

380 In closing, we demonstrate that uninjured young adults can modulate pKEM during
381 walking with concomitant changes in knee flexion excursion that are accommodated via
382 relatively isometric, or even slight concentric, VL muscle action. Real-time pKEM biofeedback
383 may be a useful rehabilitative and/or scientific tool to elicit desirable changes in knee joint
384 biomechanics considered relevant to optimizing gait mechanics following knee injury.

385

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525

Figure 1

Real-time peak knee extensor moment (pKEM) biofeedback.

Figure 1. (A) We used a surrogate model to estimate peak knee extensor moment on a step-by-step basis as the cross product between the three-dimensional GRF vector and a position vector connecting the left femoral condyle (LFC) to the instantaneous center of pressure (CoP). (B) From these profiles, we used heel-strike events determined from the vGRF and extracted peak values from the first half of each stance phase to define pKEM. pKEM values were provided as biofeedback in the form of a moving average of the four most recent steps (i.e., two strides). While only one red horizontal target line was displayed as biofeedback, all four targets are included here and color coded by biofeedback trial for visualization. (C) We measured fascicle length and pennation at heel-strike and at the instant of pKEM. We calculated the pennation shown using two measurements: the angle between fascicle and image horizontal axis and the angle between deep aponeurosis and image horizontal axis. (D) Comparison of real-time estimates and post-hoc inverse dynamics estimates of pKEM. Dots represent an individual's average value across conditions indicated by color. Green and blue dots represent increases and decreases in pKEM compared to normal walking, respectively.

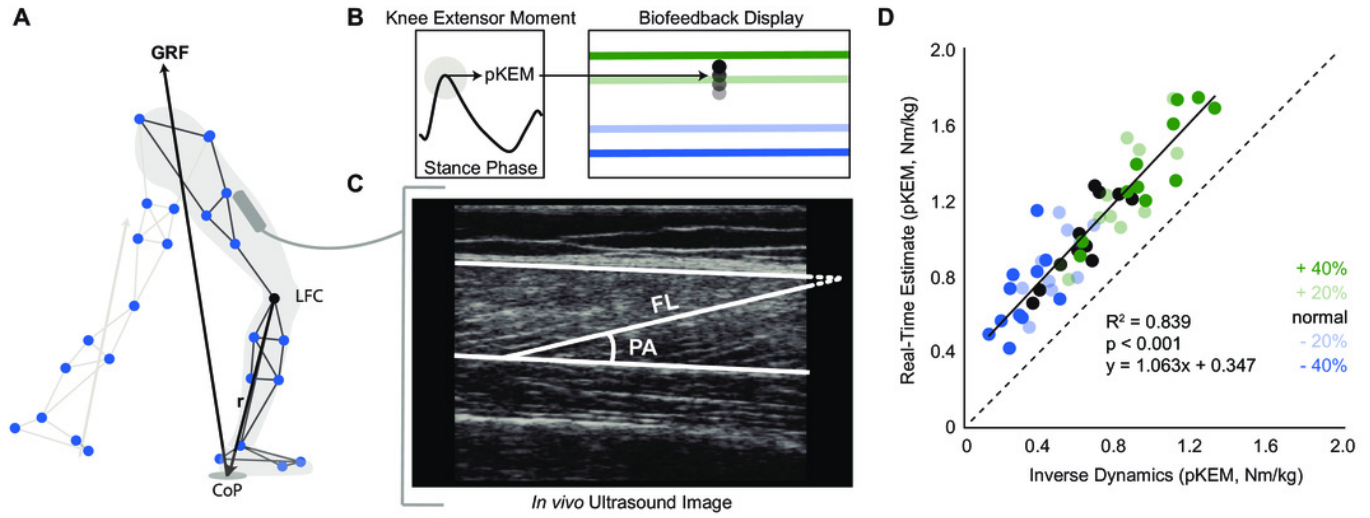


Figure 2

Gait biomechanics as a function of time

Figure 2. A) Group mean knee extension moment plotted against an averaged gait cycle, from heel-strike to heel-strike. Gray shading represents the standard error for the normal walking condition. B) peak knee extensor moment (pKEM) box plots across conditions. Asterisks (*) indicate a significant pairwise difference from normal walking. C) Knee flexion angle normalized to the gait cycle. D) Knee flexion excursion (instant of heel-strike to pKEM). E) Vertical ground reaction force (vGRF) normalized to the gait cycle. F) vGRF at instant of pKEM.

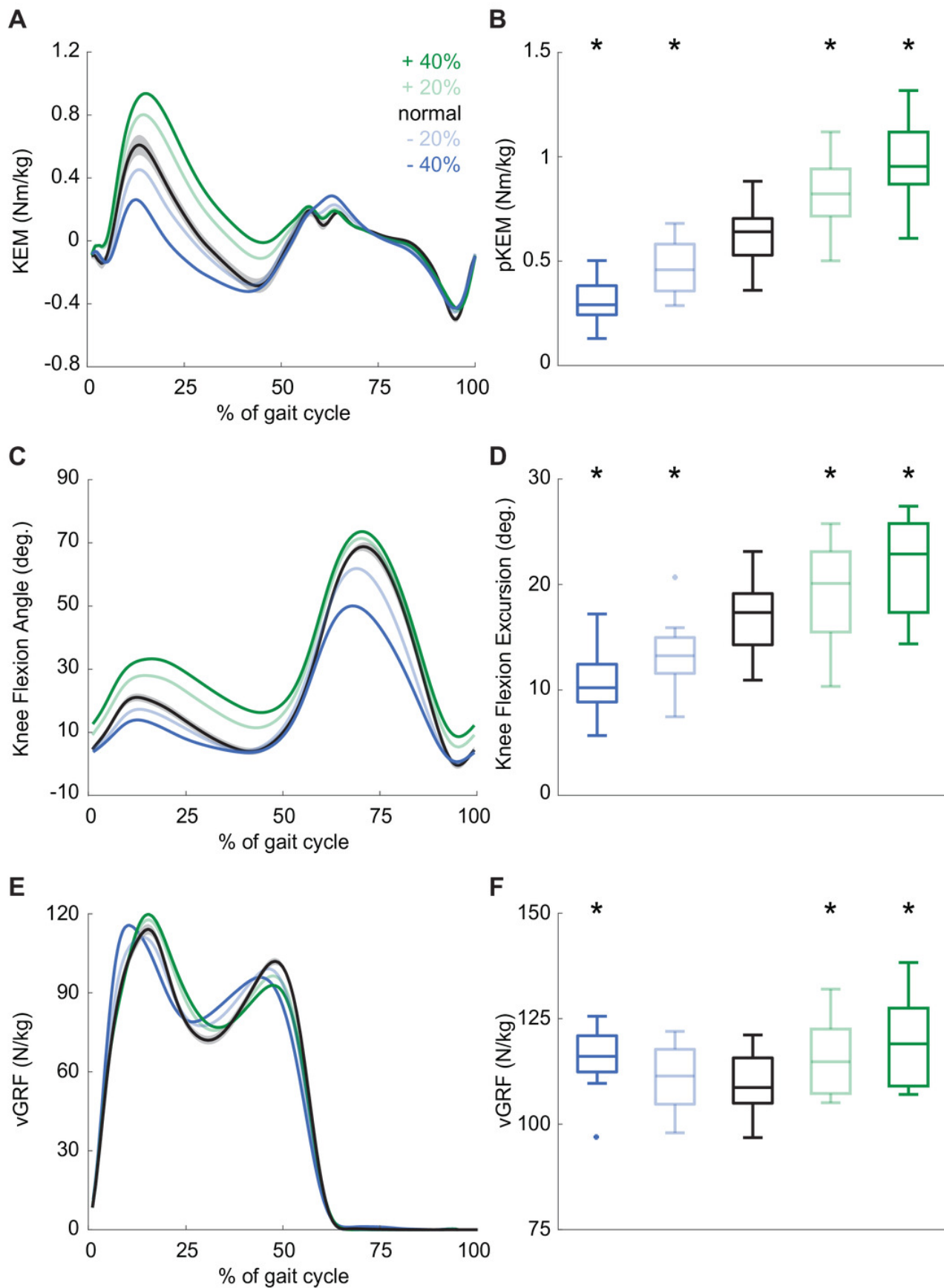


Figure 3

Vastus lateralis muscle dynamics

Figure 3. A) Group mean vastus lateralis (VL) muscle-tendon unit (MTU) length plotted against an averaged gait cycle, from heel-strike to heel-strike. Gray shading represents the standard error for the normal walking condition. B) Box plots for MTU length change between instants of heel-strike and peak knee extensor moment (pKEM) across conditions. C) Box plots for VL fascicle length change between instants of heel-strike and pKEM across conditions. D) Box plots for VL fascicle pennation change between instants of heel-strike and pKEM across conditions. Asterisks (*) indicate a significant pairwise difference from normal walking.

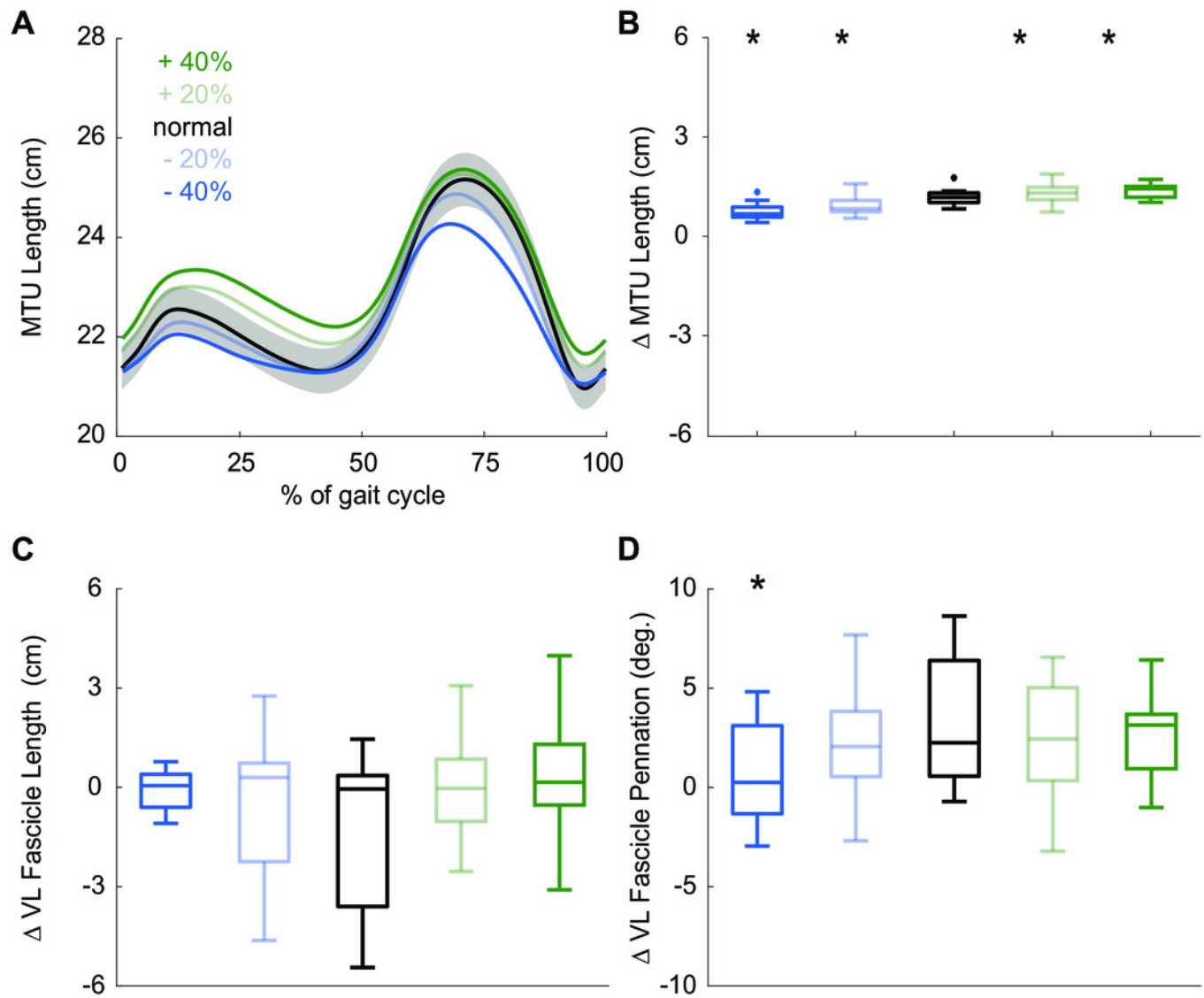


Table 1 (on next page)

Vastus lateralis fascicle length outcome measures

VL Fascicle length outcome measures (mean \pm SD)

1 **Tables**

2

3 **Table 1.** VL Fascicle length outcome measures (mean \pm SD).

Condition	HS (cm)	pKEM (cm)	Δ length (cm)
-40%	8.53 \pm 2.09	8.46 \pm 1.67	-0.07 \pm 0.68
-20%	8.53 \pm 2.10	8.07 \pm 1.21	-0.52 \pm 1.92
Normal	9.85 \pm 2.81	8.54 \pm 1.60	-1.30 \pm 2.37
+20%	9.31 \pm 2.20	9.34 \pm 1.74	0.02 \pm 1.53
+40%	9.13 \pm 3.18	9.55 \pm 2.38	0.42 \pm 1.50

4 HS: Instant of heel-strike; pKEM: Instant of peak knee extensor moment

5