

1 **Original Article**

2 **The effects of an eight-week strength training intervention on tibiofemoral joint loading**
3 **during landing: a cohort study**

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19 **Abstract**

20 **Objectives:** To use a musculoskeletal model of the lower limb to evaluate the effect of a
21 strength training intervention on the muscle and joint contact forces experienced by untrained
22 women during landing.

23 **Methods:** Sixteen untrained women between 18 and 28 years participated in this cohort
24 study, split equally between intervention and control groups. The intervention group trained
25 for eight weeks targeting improvements in posterior leg strength. The mechanics of bi- and
26 uni-lateral drop-landings from a 30 cm platform were recorded pre and post intervention, as
27 was the isometric strength of the lower limb during a hip extension test. The internal muscle
28 and joint contact forces were calculated using FreeBody, a musculoskeletal model.

29 **Results:** The strength of the intervention group increased by an average of 35% ($p < 0.05$;
30 pre: 133 ± 36 N, post: 180 ± 39 N), whereas the control group showed no change (pre: 152 ± 36
31 N, post: 157 ± 46 N). There were only small changes from pre to post test in the kinematics
32 and ground reaction forces during landing that were not statistically significant. Both groups
33 exhibited a post test increase in gluteal muscle force during landing, and a lateral to medial
34 shift in tibiofemoral joint loading in both landings. However, the magnitude of the increase in
35 gluteal force and lateral to medial shift was significantly greater in the intervention group.

36 **Conclusion:** Strength training can promote a lateral to medial shift in tibiofemoral force
37 (mediated by an increase in gluteal force) that is consistent with a reduction in valgus

38 loading. This in turn could help prevent injuries that are due to abnormal knee loading such
39 as anterior cruciate ligament ruptures, patella dislocation and patellofemoral pain.

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41

42 **Summary Box**

43 • Strength training of the lower limb resulted in a lateral to medial shift of tibiofemoral
44 forces during drop-landing.

45 • This appeared to be mediated by an increased force in the gluteal musculature during
46 landing.

47 • Musculoskeletal modelling of the lower limb can demonstrate changes in lower limb
48 mechanics during drop-landing that have not been reported using traditional methods.

49

50

51 **Introduction**

52 Abnormal knee joint loading has been shown to be a mechanism of injury in a range of
53 complaints including anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) rupture, patella dislocation and
54 patellofemoral pain [1–4]. Consequently, there has been great interest in finding ways to
55 modify internal joint loading in order to prevent these injuries. However, the outcome
56 measures of such studies have generally been the calculation of external kinematics and
57 kinetics or inter-segmental mechanics (i.e. joint angles, inter-segmental forces and moments
58 calculated by inverse dynamics analysis, or ground reaction forces; GRF [5–7]). Although
59 useful, these calculations do not indicate the actual loading experienced by the internal
60 structures of the knee (i.e. the forces experienced by muscle-tendon units, ligaments and
61 bones). For instance, ACL injury prevention programmes have been shown to successfully
62 modify kinematic outcomes towards movement strategies of lower risk [7,8] and there is
63 epidemiological evidence that such interventions effectively reduce the ACL injury rate [9–
64 11] however, the effect of such programmes on the actual internal joint loading is largely
65 unknown.

66 Muscle strength and activation are variables that can be directly changed by training
67 programmes [12], and can provide protection against injury in activities like landing from a
68 jump. For instance, previous ACL injury research has described the importance of gluteal and
69 hamstring strength [13,14] and increased hamstring activation pre- and post-landing [15] in
70 reducing injury. Similarly, gluteal activation and strength have been related to a reduction of

71 knee valgus [16], patellofemoral pain [17,18] and patellar dislocation [19] in various
72 activities. Despite these positive associations however, the literature relating to the effect of
73 strength training alone on kinematics and GRF during movement is equivocal [20,21] and the
74 effect on internal knee joint forces is again unknown. To this end, this study employed a
75 posterior lower limb focussed training intervention which would be expected to increase the
76 strength of the gluteal and hamstring musculature.

77 One technique that can be utilised to estimate internal forces is musculoskeletal modelling
78 and musculoskeletal modellers envisage a future where their work can inform clinical
79 practice [22,23]. For instance, there have been a number of studies that have sought to
80 quantify the forces present in the knee during landing [24–29]. However, no study has used
81 musculoskeletal modelling technology to assess the effect of a posterior thigh musculature
82 focused training intervention on the forces experienced by the internal structures of the knee.
83 The objective of this study was therefore to evaluate the effects of a leg strength training
84 intervention on internal knee forces during landing (tibiofemoral joint reaction forces; TF)
85 using a publicly available musculoskeletal model of the lower limb [30]. We hypothesized
86 that the intervention would result in a lateral to medial shift in TF that is consistent with the
87 changes in landing mechanics that have previously been seen after strength training [21,31].

88 **Methods**

89 *Experimental approach*

90 This study was divided into three phases undertaken at St Mary's University. Firstly, during
91 the pre test the performance of the participants in a landing task was assessed alongside a
92 measure of their posterior lower limb strength. Next, the experimental group took part in an
93 eight-week training intervention designed to increase their posterior lower limb strength
94 whereas the control group kept up with their usual recreational activities. Finally, all
95 participants were retested using the same protocol as in the pre test. The experimenters were
96 not blinded as to the participant groups.

97 *Participants*

98 Sixteen young, healthy students participated in this study (Table 1) and were assigned to
99 either the control group (CG) or intervention group (IG) based upon their availability to take
100 part in the intervention training programme. The recruitment criteria stipulated that the
101 participants were female, between 18 and 28 years of age, free from musculoskeletal injuries
102 over the preceding 6 months, right foot dominant, and only took part in recreational physical
103 activity (i.e. no heavy resistance or injury prevention training for at least 6 months prior to the
104 study, and that they participated in mainly leisure sports at most four times per week). All
105 participants provided informed written consent prior to the experiment and the ethics sub-
106 committee of St Mary's University approved the study.

107 Table 1. Participant characteristics (mean \pm standard deviation). There were no significant
108 differences between groups ($p > 0.05$).
109

	Age (years)	Body mass (kg)	Height (m)
Control group	22.9 \pm 2.4	62.2 \pm 8.3	1.66 \pm 0.07
Intervention group	22.0 \pm 3.2	65.4 \pm 7.1	1.68 \pm 0.03

110

111 ***Instrumentation***

112 *Evaluation of drop landing performance:* The kinematics describing the time history of the
113 position of 18 reflective markers (14 mm) placed on key anatomical landmarks of the right
114 leg and pelvis [30] according to the guidelines of Van Sint Jan [32,33] was obtained using a
115 Vicon 3D motion analysis system (Vicon MX System, Vicon Motion Systems Ltd, UK)
116 incorporating 11 cameras. The GRFs during landing were measured with a force plate
117 (Kistler 9287BA Plate, Kistler Instruments Ltd., UK) synchronized with the Vicon system.
118 All data was collected at 200 Hz.

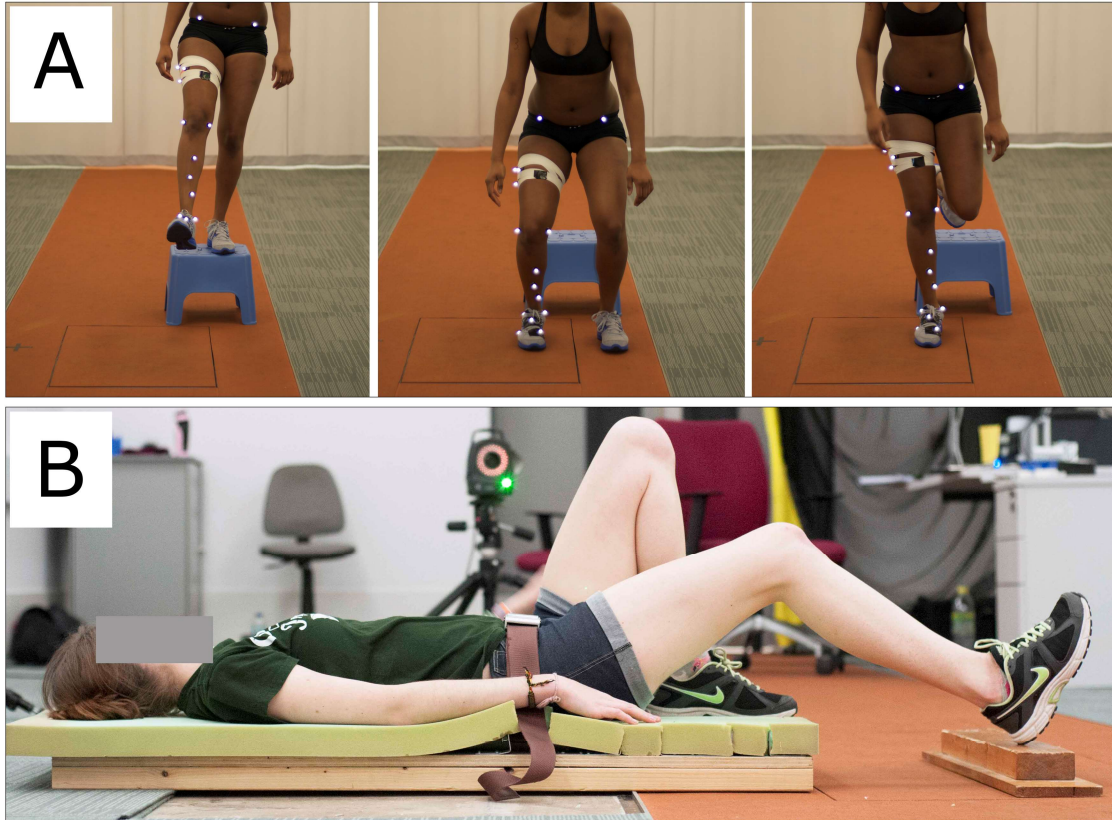
119 *Lower limb strength testing:* The strength of the posterior aspect of the lower limb was tested
120 in a closed kinetic chain task as described below using the same Kistler force plate as for the
121 evaluation of the drop landings.

122 ***Procedures***

123 After performing a 10-minute supervised, dynamic warm up including running, high knees,
124 buttock kicks, lunges, squats, straight leg walks and hop and stick, the participants practiced
125 the drop landings for up to five attempts both bi- and unilaterally. A three to five minute rest
126 followed, in which the reflective markers were placed on the anatomical landmarks with

127 double-sided adhesive tape. Drop landing data was collected during controlled falls from a 30
128 cm platform placed 0.5 cm in front of the force plate. Participants first completed five
129 bilateral landings (BLs) and then five unilateral landings (ULs) having been instructed to step
130 forward from the platform with their dominant right foot (and not to jump forwards or step
131 down), land naturally with only their dominant foot touching the force plate and stay in this
132 landing position for at least 2 seconds. During BLs, the participants were asked to land with
133 both feet at the same time (Figure 1A – note the position of the feet with just the dominant
134 foot on the force plate). Incorrect landings contrary to the description above were repeated.
135 The rest periods between the five drop landings for each condition were at least 60 seconds
136 long, and at least two minutes rest was taken between the BLs and ULs.

137 Figure 1. Experimental arrangements: A. Bi- and unilateral drop landing tasks; B.
138 Assessment of posterior thigh strength utilising a hip extension test.



139

140 After a three to five minute rest period, the strength of the right posterior thigh was assessed
141 in a hip extension test. The hip was positioned at a flexion angle of 30° (note in this article
142 we use the convention that when the subject is stood in the anatomical position their ankle,
143 knee and hip joint angles are 0° , and that flexion of the joint is represented by a positive
144 angle). The ankle was positioned neutrally (i.e. at a flexion angle of 0°) with the heel at the
145 centre of a wooden block that was on top of the force plate (Figure 1B). The participants were
146 then encouraged to push the heel downwards with maximum force for a period of at least six

147 seconds and the peak force was recorded. A two minute rest period was taken between the
 148 three trials. This hip extension test was chosen as it has previously been shown to be reliable
 149 [34] and tests the strength of the limb in a closed kinetic chain task at similar joint angles to
 150 those found at initial contact during BL in females [35,36].

151 *Exercise intervention:* Eight participants performed an eight-week posterior leg strength
 152 programme (Table 2), attending three hourly sessions per week that were supervised by a UK
 153 Strength and Conditioning Association qualified coach. Loading was progressed weekly by
 154 increasing the load lifted based on individual responses to training (strength, experience and
 155 motivation), but sets, reps, rest and perceived exertion were similar within the group.

156 Table 2. The strength training programme followed by participants in the intervention group.
 157

Week 1-4	Week 5-8	Sets	Reps	Rest
Session 1				
Split Squat	Lunge	3	10	2 min
Good Morning	Ecc/con leg pull&push in pairs	3	10	2 min
SL SLDL	Bulgarian Split Squat	3	10	2 min
Session 2				
Step up (L to M height plyometric box)	Step up (M to H height plyometric box)	3	10	2 min
Nordic hamstring (ecc+con)	Nordic hamstring (ecc+con)	3	6/8	2 min
SL Bridge	SL Good Morning	3	10	2 min
Session 3				
Squats	Squats	3	10	2 min
SLDL	SLDL	3	10	2 min
SL Good Morning	SL Hip thrust	3	10	2 min

SL= single leg, SLDL= stiff leg deadlift, ecc= eccentric, con= concentric, L= low, M= medium, H= high

158

159 **Data analysis**

160 *Musculoskeletal model:* In order to compare predicted muscle and joint reaction forces pre
161 and post intervention, the data collected was analysed using a publicly available
162 musculoskeletal model of the lower limb [30,37–40] (FreeBody; www.msksoftware.org.uk).
163 The validation and verification of FreeBody has been described previously [41–44], with a
164 focus on the accuracy of the TF predictions [41] and the sensitivity of the model to the input
165 kinematic data and its muscle force upper bounds [43].

166 FreeBody represents the lower limb as a linked chain of five rigid segments. The position and
167 orientation of the pelvis, thigh, calf and foot segments at each moment in time are determined
168 from the marker data (the position of each segment has 3 degrees of freedom and its
169 orientation has a further 3 degrees of freedom). The position and orientation of the patella
170 segment is determined based upon the knee flexion angle [30], using relationships developed
171 from previous literature [45,46]. The anthropometry of each segment is determined from the
172 work of de Leva [47]. Given the time history of the position and orientation of each segment
173 and its anthropometry, the kinematics of each segment is calculated using the method of
174 Dumas and colleagues [48]. Next, the data of Klein Horsman and colleagues [49] is used to
175 determine the origins, insertions and lines of actions of 163 muscle elements and 14
176 ligaments.

177 Following the above steps the equations of motion governing the movement of the segments
178 can be determined (Equation 1; Appendix). However, there are more unknown forces (193)
179 than there are equations (22), and thus this is an indeterminate problem with many possible

180 solutions. The next step is therefore to pick the most physiologically likely solution. Firstly,
181 the potential solution set is narrowed by imposing physiologically based constraints then the
182 most physiologically likely solution is determined by using an optimization procedure
183 developed [37] from the work of Crowninshield and Brand [50] and Raikova [51] that is
184 implemented using MATLAB (R2013a, Mathworks, 1 Apple Hill Drive, Natick, MA 01760,
185 US). The optimization is predicated upon finding the solution that minimises a cost function
186 based upon maximising muscular endurance (Equation 2; Appendix).

187 *Data processing:* For each subject, each landing (BL, UL) and both pre and post tests, the
188 trial that resulted in the lowest peak GRF was selected for analysis (as this was taken to be
189 the most successful landing). A 4th order dual low pass Butterworth filter with a cut off
190 frequency of 6 Hz was used to filter the kinematic and kinetic data. The filtered data was then
191 processed through FreeBody. The strength capabilities of FreeBody (as represented by the
192 maximum force that each muscle and ligament was permitted to experience) were scaled to
193 reflect the participants' strength testing results). Following the example of our previous work,
194 if the optimization routine employed by FreeBody (fmincon routine in MATLAB) could not
195 find a feasible solution for a particular frame then we raised the strength upper bound for the
196 frame until a solution could be found. This was only necessary for a limited number of
197 frames.

198 *Statistical Analysis*

199 Statistical analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 22, International
200 Business Machines Corp., New Orchard Road, Armonk, NY 10504, US) and MATLAB
201 (R2013a, Mathworks, 1 Apple Hill Drive, Natick, MA 01760, US). ANOVA was used to
202 check for differences in age or anthropometry between the groups at pre-test. An ANCOVA
203 was used to evaluate the change in strength of the right posterior thigh musculature where
204 baseline strength was included as a covariate. The alpha level was set at $p < 0.05$ *a priori* and
205 normality was confirmed by Shapiro-Wilk tests.

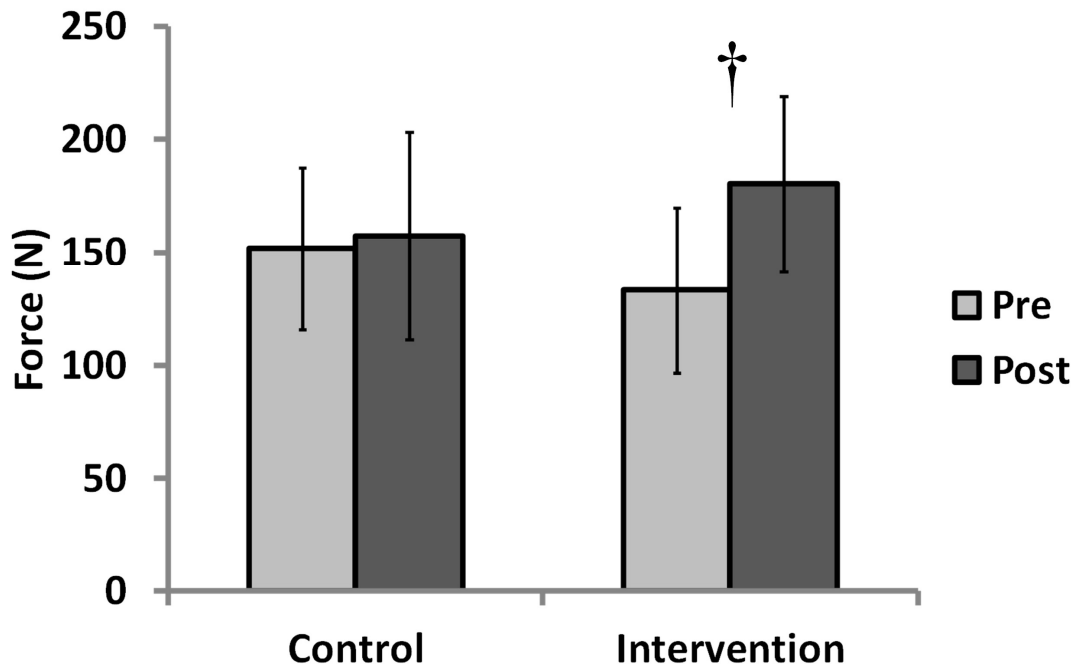
206 The output data from the musculoskeletal model was first normalised with regards to time. A
207 cubic spline was then fitted to each data series and used to interpolate the normalised curves
208 to obtain values at regular intervals. The mean and the 95% confidence interval (CI) at each
209 time point was then calculated for each data series. A significant difference between curves
210 was determined when there was no overlap between the confidence intervals.

211

212 **Results**

213 During the intervention the strength of the IG increased by 35% ($p = 0.001$; pre: 133 ± 36 N,
214 post: 180 ± 39 N). There was no change in the strength of the CG (pre: 152 ± 36 N, post:
215 157 ± 46 N). The participants attended 94% of the planned sessions.

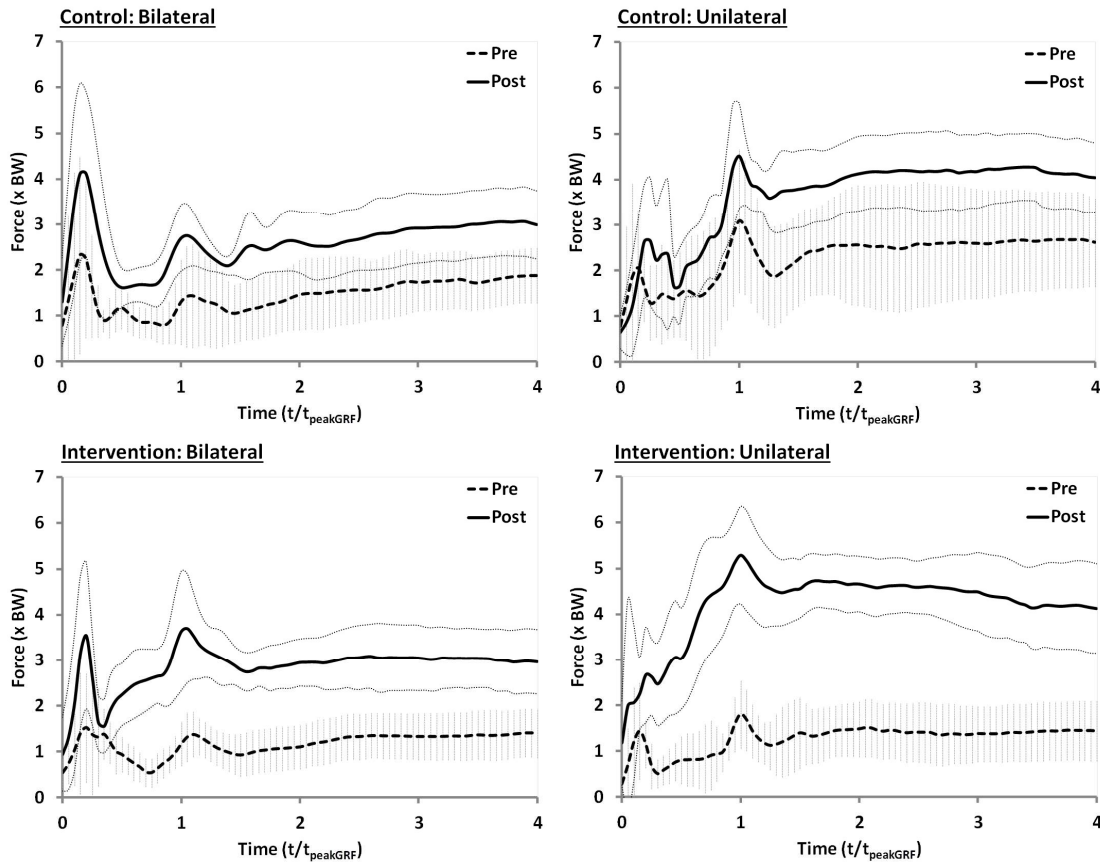
216 Figure 2. Strength testing results (error bars indicate the standard deviation). † indicates a
217 significant difference between the pre and post test scores of the intervention group ($p =$
218 0.001).



219

220 Both CG and IG exhibited an increased use of the gluteal musculature from pre to post test
221 (Figure 3). However, the magnitude of the increase was greater for the IG in both BLs and
222 ULs, and there was also little overlap of CIs (whereas for the CG it was considerable). There
223 were no other strong trends in terms of changes in muscle forces from pre to post test (Web
224 Supplementary Material).

225 Figure 3. Force in the gluteal musculature during bilateral and unilateral landings. The
 226 vertical error bars represent the 95% CI for the pre test, whereas the light dotted lines
 227 represent the 95% CI for the post test.



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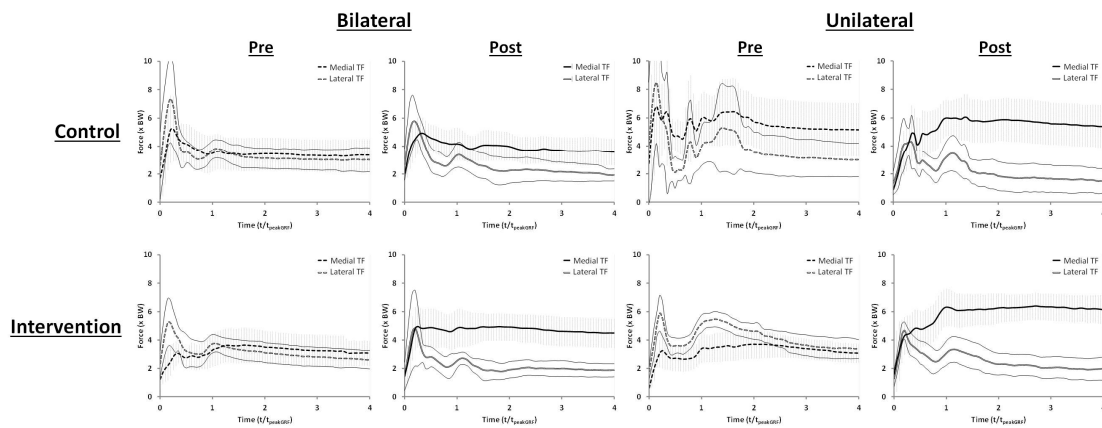
229 During the pre test, the peak lateral tibiofemoral joint contact force (lateral TF) was greater
 230 than the peak medial tibiofemoral joint contact force (medial TF) for all groups (Figure 4).

231 For the CG, the lateral TF then dropped below the medial TF after the first local peak in GRF
 232 during both landings. For the IG BL, the lateral TF dropped below the medial TF after the

233 second local peak in GRF, whereas for the IG UL, the lateral TF was greater than the medial
 234 TF throughout the analysed time period. During the post test, the lateral TF fell relative to the

235 medial TF for all groups, however the magnitude of this change was greater for the IG than
 236 the CG, and greater for the UL than the BL. For the IG, the lateral TF was equal to or lower
 237 than the medial TF throughout the time period for both landings.

238 Figure 4. Lateral and medial tibiofemoral joint reaction forces during bilateral and unilateral
 239 landings. The vertical error bars represent the 95% CI for the medial tibiofemoral force,
 240 whereas the light dotted lines represent the 95% CI for the lateral tibiofemoral force.



241

242 There were only minor differences between the pre and post intervention GRFs for both
 243 landing styles and groups (Web Supplementary Material). There was a trend towards slightly
 244 higher peak GRFs post intervention during the BLs for both groups (approximately $0.3-0.4 \times$
 245 body weight; BW). In addition, the GRF for the CG UL was marginally lower during the post
 246 test (around $0.2-0.3 \times$ BW for most of the time during the landing period). This study was
 247 largely unable to demonstrate changes in kinematics between the pre and post test, although
 248 both groups showed a trend towards lower hip and knee flexion during BL (Web
 249 Supplementary Material).

250 **Discussion**

251 This study supports the hypothesis that TF patterns would be altered following a strength
252 intervention and that these changes would be consistent with the kinetic and kinematic
253 changes that have been previously found to occur after strength training. In particular, we
254 found changes in gluteal muscle forces, and a lateral to medial shift in TF. In contrast, there
255 were only small changes in GRF and the kinematics of landing.

256 *A lateral to medial shift in tibiofemoral joint loading*

257 The most novel result in this study is the change in the pattern of TF after the intervention.
258 Both groups experienced a reduced lateral TF during the post test, however the decrease was
259 greater in the IG than in the CG. In addition, the IG experienced an increase in the medial TF
260 at post test, whereas the medial TF remained similar for the CG. Taken together, these data
261 indicate a lateral to medial shift in knee loading which was of significantly greater magnitude
262 in the IG. Such a shift is consistent with a reduction in knee valgus, although we were unable
263 to detect differences in kinematics. Both groups also experienced an increase in gluteal force
264 post intervention and it has been suggested that increased gluteal force can reduce valgus
265 loading of the knee. The changes in both groups may be explained by a learning effect of the
266 tasks in the post test, however, the fact that the IG experienced greater changes in gluteal
267 force and lateral to medial shift suggests that there was an effect of the intervention. The
268 results of the present work tend to support the link between gluteal force and the

269 medial/lateral loading distribution of the tibiofemoral joint. In addition, these results suggest
270 that strength training can facilitate women in using the gluteal musculature during landing in
271 a way that possibly exhibits a lower risk of knee joint injuries such as ACL rupture, patella
272 dislocation and patellofemoral pain.

273 The fact that a lateral to medial shift in knee loading was found when there was an increased
274 gluteal force (in both groups) is remarkably consistent with contemporary thinking. For
275 instance, studies have identified relationships between increased hip strength/activation and
276 improved neuromuscular alignment and control of the legs [17] and increased gluteus medius
277 activation and decreased TF [52]. These studies in combination with our results suggest that a
278 stronger posterior hip musculature can result in greater gluteal force expression, altered
279 lateral to medial TF distribution and potentially affect valgus loading.

280 *Effect of strength training on landing kinematics and GRF*

281 There were only small differences in landing kinematics pre to post intervention in both
282 groups (frontal, sagittal and transverse plane), which is similar to another study that could not
283 demonstrate knee valgus/varus and knee/hip extension/flexion changes following a strength
284 training programme [20]. In contrast, one other study did show kinematic alterations of
285 increased hip flexion at initial contact, and peak hip and knee flexion after a basic strength
286 training programme [21] (it should be noted that the programme employed in that study also
287 included flexibility and balance training). The majority of prevention studies that found

288 consistent alterations in kinematics included neuromuscular and feedback training which
289 were not employed in our study [7,53,54]. The lack of kinematic differences in this study,
290 despite the changes of internal kinetics, are important and suggest that either strength training
291 in isolation does not affect kinematics, that kinematics are less sensitive to strength changes
292 than internal kinetics or that musculoskeletal models of the type employed here are more
293 sensitive to changes in internal kinetics than kinematics.

294 As described above, the inability of this study to demonstrate statistically significant
295 differences in knee varus/valgus is consistent with previous studies that have looked at the
296 effect of strength training [20,21]. One reason for this may be the fact that optical motion
297 capture methodologies are less able to discriminate between differences in internal/external
298 rotation and ab/adduction than between differences in joint flexion and extension due to the
299 measurement error associated with soft tissue artefact [55]. In contrast, we have previously
300 shown that the forces predicted by the model employed here are sensitive to small changes in
301 kinematics (in particular, that they are sensitive to small changes in the internal/external
302 rotation of the tibia [43]). It is thus entirely credible to suggest that musculoskeletal models
303 may be more sensitive to changes in internal kinetics than more traditional approaches are to
304 changes in kinematics. This may have important consequences for future assessment
305 methods, particularly if ACL and knee injury risks are only assessed through a consideration
306 of kinematic factors; in particular suggesting that clinical assessment methods should also
307 incorporate the prediction of internal joint kinetics. The greater sensitivity could be used as

308 an early indicator to prevent knee injuries and may detect smaller changes following
309 intervention programmes. Consequently, this new perspective on joint conditions may offer
310 greater detail in clinical diagnoses.

311 We were also unable to identify changes in GRF patterns pre and post intervention - this is in
312 agreement with results of other studies that studied limb strengthening interventions [20,21],
313 although contrary to a study that also focussed on posterior thigh musculature [56]. Our
314 findings suggest that either the change in force distribution between the joints altered due to
315 internal modifications as GRF patterns stayed relatively constant or that the internal forces
316 are particularly sensitive to small changes in GRF. Studies that found changes in GRF mostly
317 included feedback or plyometric training, that probably included landing feedback training
318 [53,54,57]. This might suggest the necessity to incorporate direct feedback of landing
319 technique if substantive changes in ground force application are a goal for the patient or
320 athlete.

321 ***Role of musculoskeletal modelling in clinical research***

322 As far as we are aware, this is the first study that has used musculoskeletal modelling
323 technology to assess the results of an exercise intervention. The unique finding of this study
324 is the change in lateral to medial loading of the tibiofemoral joint following strength training.
325 This is an observation that is previously unreported, probably due to the fact that other similar
326 studies have relied upon kinematic measurements. Similarly, we have recently successfully

327 employed the same musculoskeletal model as in this study to report the effects of an acute
328 intervention on muscular forces during explosive activity [58]. Taken together, these studies
329 therefore demonstrate the unique sensitivity and potential for musculoskeletal models to
330 improve the understanding of problems with clinical relevance. However, to date we have
331 only used this model to study differences at the cohort level. The employed model
332 incorporates limited subject-specific detail, and thus is currently unable to be used at a
333 subject-specific level. Future work should establish the detail that is necessary to produce
334 such specified results.

335 ***Conclusions***

336 In summary, this study demonstrates that a training intervention with a focus on posterior
337 thigh strength resulted in a greater estimated use of the gluteal musculature during drop
338 landings. This was commensurate with an altered pattern of joint loading; in particular, there
339 was a change in force distribution at the tibiofemoral joint with a shift from lateral TF to
340 medial TF, a change that is consistent with a reduced valgus and an increased hip joint
341 loading. Potentially, this could reduce abnormal knee loading injuries that are related to
342 valgus/varus forces such as ligament injuries (i.e. ACL), kneecap dislocation, menisci and
343 cartilage damage. To our knowledge, this is the first time a change in the medial/lateral
344 loading of the knee has been observed following a period of strength training. It is
345 noteworthy that the changes in the internal force loading of the lower limbs were found
346 despite there being only small concurrent changes in GRF and kinematics. This suggests that

347 the joint loading may be more sensitive to changes in strength than kinematic measures, and
348 that clinicians should be mindful when relying solely on kinematic measures.

349 **Competing interests**

350

351 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

352

353 **Contributorship**

354

355 MC, JG and DC conceived of and designed the study. JG and AB created and validated the
356 strength test used in the study. DC and AB created and tested the musculoskeletal model
357 used in the study. MC collected the data and supervised the intervention. MC and DC
358 analysed the data and wrote the first draft of the paper. All authors were involved in the
359 interpretation of the data, in redrafting the manuscript and in approving the final version.

360

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364

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366

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368

369 **Ethical approval information**

370

371 Ethical approval for this study was gained from St Mary's University Ethics Committee.

372 Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

373

374 **Data sharing statement**

375 No unpublished additional data is available from this study.

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- 538
- 539

$$\begin{pmatrix}
\hat{p}_1^1 & \dots & \hat{p}_M^1 & \hat{p}_{pt}^1 & \hat{q}_1^1 & \dots & \hat{q}_N^1 & -I_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} \\
\hat{p}_1^2 & \dots & \hat{p}_M^2 & \hat{p}_{pt}^2 & \hat{q}_1^2 & \dots & \hat{q}_N^2 & I_{3 \times 3} & -I_{3 \times 3} & -I_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} \\
\hat{p}_1^3 & \dots & \hat{p}_M^3 & \hat{p}_{pt}^3 & \hat{q}_1^3 & \dots & \hat{q}_N^3 & E_{3 \times 3} & I_{3 \times 3} & I_{3 \times 3} & -I_{3 \times 3} & I_{3 \times 3} \\
\hat{r}_1^1 \times \hat{p}_1^1 & \dots & \hat{r}_M^1 \times \hat{p}_M^1 & \hat{r}_{pt}^1 \times \hat{p}_{pt}^1 & \hat{s}_1^1 \times \hat{q}_1^1 & \dots & \hat{s}_N^1 \times \hat{q}_N^1 & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} \\
\hat{r}_1^2 \times \hat{p}_1^2 & \dots & \hat{r}_M^2 \times \hat{p}_M^2 & \hat{r}_{pt}^2 \times \hat{p}_{pt}^2 & \hat{s}_1^2 \times \hat{q}_1^2 & \dots & \hat{s}_N^2 \times \hat{q}_N^2 & \hat{d}^2 & -\hat{r}_1^2 & -\hat{r}_2^2 & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} \\
\hat{r}_1^3 \times \hat{p}_1^3 & \dots & \hat{r}_M^3 \times \hat{p}_M^3 & \hat{r}_{pt}^3 \times \hat{p}_{pt}^3 & \hat{s}_1^3 \times \hat{q}_1^3 & \dots & \hat{s}_N^3 \times \hat{q}_N^3 & E_{3 \times 3} & \hat{d}_1^3 & \hat{d}_2^3 & E_{3 \times 3} & \hat{f}^3 \\
\hat{p}_1^{pat} & \dots & \hat{p}_M^{pat} & \hat{p}_{pt}^{pat} & & & & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & E_{3 \times 3} & -I_{3 \times 3} \\
\rho_1 & \dots & \rho_M & -1 & & & & E_{1 \times N} & E_{1 \times 3} & E_{1 \times 3} & E_{1 \times 3} & E_{1 \times 3} & E_{1 \times 3}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
F_1 \\
\vdots \\
F_M \\
F_{pt} \\
L_1 \\
\vdots \\
L_N \\
\hat{R}^1 \\
\hat{R}_1^2 \\
\hat{R}_2^2 \\
\hat{R}^3 \\
\hat{R}^{pat}
\end{pmatrix}
=
\begin{pmatrix}
m^1(\hat{a}^1 - \hat{g}) - \hat{S}^0 \\
m^2(\hat{a}^2 - \hat{g}) \\
m^3(\hat{a}^3 - \hat{g}) \\
m^1 \hat{e}^1 \times (\hat{a}^1 - \hat{g}) + Y_{3 \times 3}^1 \hat{\phi}^1 + \hat{\phi}^1 \times Y_{3 \times 3}^1 \hat{\phi}^1 - \hat{d}^1 \times \hat{S}^0 - M^0 \\
m^2 \hat{e}^2 \times (\hat{a}^2 - \hat{g}) + Y_{3 \times 3}^2 \hat{\phi}^2 + \hat{\phi}^2 \times Y_{3 \times 3}^2 \hat{\phi}^2 \\
m^3 \hat{e}^3 \times (\hat{a}^3 - \hat{g}) + Y_{3 \times 3}^3 \hat{\phi}^3 + \hat{\phi}^3 \times Y_{3 \times 3}^3 \hat{\phi}^3 \\
E_{3 \times 1} \\
0
\end{pmatrix}$$

... Equation 1

$$\min_{F_i, L_j} J = \sum_{i=1}^M \left(\frac{F_i}{F_{max_i}} \right)^3 + \sum_{j=1}^N \left(\frac{L_j}{L_{max_j}} \right)^3$$

... Equation 2

where:

\hat{a}^k	linear acceleration of the centre of mass of segment k
\hat{c}^k	vector from centre of rotation of joint at proximal end of segment k to centre of mass of segment k
\hat{d}^k	vector from centre of rotation of joint at proximal end of segment k to centre of rotation joint at distal end of segment k
\tilde{d}^k	skew-symmetric matrix of vector \tilde{d}^k
\tilde{d}_l^3	skew-symmetric matrix of vector from centre of rotation of hip to tibiofemoral joint contact l
$E_{3 \times 3}$	3×3 matrix of zeros
\tilde{f}^3	skew-symmetric matrix of vector from centre of rotation of hip to contact point of patella with the femur
F_i	magnitude of force in muscle i
$Fmax_i$	maximum possible force in muscle i (upper bound)
\hat{g}	acceleration due to gravity
\tilde{h}_l^2	skew-symmetric matrix of vector from centre of rotation of knee to tibiofemoral joint contact l
i	muscle number
$I_{3 \times 3}$	3×3 identity matrix
j	ligament number
J	cost function

k	segment number
L_j	magnitude of force in ligament j
$Lmax_j$	maximum possible force in ligament j (upper bound)
m^k	mass of segment k
M	total number of muscles
N	total number of ligaments
\hat{p}_i^k	unit vector representing the line of action of force created by muscle i that acts on segment k (zero if muscle does not insert on segment k)
pat	patella
pt	patellar tendon
\hat{q}_j^k	unit vector representing the line of action of force created by ligament j that acts on segment k (zero if ligament does not insert on segment k)
\hat{r}_i^k	vector from centre of rotation of joint at proximal end of segment k to point of action of muscle i on segment k (zero if muscle does not insert on segment k)
\hat{R}^k	vector representing x , y and z components of reaction force acting at proximal end of segment k

\hat{R}_l^k	vector representing x, y and z components of reaction force l acting at proximal end of segment k
\hat{S}_j^k	vector from centre of rotation of joint at proximal end of segment k to point of action of ligament j on segment k (zero if ligament does not insert on segment k)
$-\hat{S}^k$	inter-segmental force acting on proximal end of segment k
$-\hat{W}^k$	inter-segmental moment acting on proximal end of segment k
$Y_{3 \times 3}^k$	inertia tensor of segment k
ρ_i	ratio of patella to quadriceps tendon forces for muscle i (zero if the muscle is not part of the quadriceps muscle group)
$\hat{\phi}^k$	angular velocity of segment k
$\ddot{\phi}^k$	angular acceleration of segment k