

Original article

How Human Gait Responds to Muscle Impairment in Total Knee Arthroplasty Patients: Muscular Compensations and Articular Perturbations

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Word Count: Introduction to Discussion: 3559 words

Abstract

Post-surgical muscle weakness is prevalent among patients who undergo total knee arthroplasty (TKA). We conducted a probabilistic multi-body dynamics (MBD) to determine whether and to what extent habitual gait patterns of TKA patients may accommodate strength deficits in lower extremity muscles. We analyzed muscular and articular compensations in response to various muscle impairments, and the minimum muscle strength requirements needed to preserve TKA gait patterns in its habitual status.

Muscle weakness was simulated by reducing the strength parameter of muscle models in MBD analysis. Using impaired models, muscle and joint forces were calculated and compared versus those from baseline gait i.e. TKA habitual gait before simulating muscle weakness. Comparisons were conducted using a relatively new statistical approach for the evaluation of gait waveforms, i.e. Spatial Parameter Mapping (SPM). Principal component analysis was then conducted on the MBD results to quantify the sensitivity of every joint force component to individual muscle impairment.

The results of this study contain clinically important, although preliminary, suggestions. Our findings suggested that: (1) hip flexor and ankle plantar flexor muscles compensated for hip extensor weakness; (2) hip extensor, hip adductor and ankle plantar flexor muscles compensated for hip flexor weakness; (3) hip and knee flexor muscles responded to hip abductor weakness; (4) knee flexor and hip abductor balanced hip adductor impairment; and (5) knee extensor and knee flexor weakness were compensated by hip extensor and hip flexor muscles. Future clinical studies are required to validate the results of this computational study.

Keywords: Human gait, Total knee arthroplasty, Rehabilitation, Muscle weakness, Joint force, Multi-body dynamics

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Remarkable functional improvement and pain relief have been reported following total knee arthroplasty
3 (TKA-(da Silva et al., 2014)). However, various factors such as joint instability(Yercan et al., 2005), muscle
4 impairments (Schache et al., 2014, Yoshida et al., 2013) and pre-surgical gait adaptations (Ouellet and Moffet,
5 2002) often prevent patients to restore a “normal” gait pattern after surgery. Muscular impairment (i.e. strength
6 decline) occurs frequently following TKA and may persist long after surgery(Bjerke et al., 2014, Davidson et al.,
7 2013, Thomas et al., 2014, Yoshida et al., 2013, Farquhar et al., 2009). Recent studies have reported 50-60%
8 strength decline in hamstring and quadriceps (Judd et al., 2012, Stevens-Lapsley et al., 2010) that may persist up
9 to three years after surgery (Schache et al., 2014).

10 A subtle weakness in an individual muscle can be compensated by additional contribution of other
11 muscles (Goldberg and Neptune, 2007). However, severe muscle impairments, such as post-operative muscle
12 deficits in TKA patients, may not be easily addressed by other muscles. As a matter of fact, patients will adapt to
13 “*kinematic*” compensations so as to offload the impaired muscles. Quadriceps avoidance (Andriacchi, 1993) or
14 knee stiffening (Benedetti et al., 2003) strategies are examples of such kinematic adaptations. The existent body
15 of literature is rich with studies describing the abnormal gait characteristics of TKA patients compared to non-
16 injured population(Alnahdi et al., 2011, Hatfield et al., 2011, McClelland et al., 2010, Yoshida et al., 2012).
17 However, there are still various questions remaining on TKA patient gait patterns; e.g. how vulnerable the TKA
18 habitual gait pattern is to any muscle impairment before kinematic adaptation may be demanded? and how
19 muscle impairment may influence muscle and joint forces? While such questions have been investigated for non-
20 injured subjects (Goldberg and Neptune, 2007, Thompson et al., 2013, Valente et al., 2013, van der Krogt et al.,
21 2012), previous findings cannot be easily extrapolated to TKA subjects.

22 Beside, comprehensive investigation of all potential muscle impairments and their consequences on
23 muscle and joint forces are currently lacking from literature as most previous studies simulated the weakness of
24 only one (Thompson et al., 2013, Valente et al., 2013) or a few muscles (Knarr et al., 2013, Steele et al., 2012,
25 van der Krogt et al., 2012). Also, from a technical point of view, previous studies documented muscular
26 compensations in terms of scalar gait features (defined at discrete time points); e.g. “magnitudes” of muscle
27 forces. Such an abstraction can oversimplify the complex gait waveforms and the underlying dynamic
28 information. Therefore, a more holistic understanding of the muscular compensations throughout the entire gait
29 cycle is required .

30 The overall aim of this study was to understand how TKA gait responds to muscle weakness . In
31 particular, this study aimed to (1) quantify the minimum muscle strength requirements to execute habitual gait
32 strategy (i.e. baseline gait), (2) identify the muscular compensations and joint force perturbations in response to an

33 impaired muscle group and (3) quantify the sensitivity of joint forces due to weakness of various individual
34 muscles. A probabilistic multi-body dynamic (MBD) approach was combined with statistical parameter mapping
35 (SPM) and principal component analysis (PCA) to address the aforementioned technical shortcomings of previous
36 studies. It should be pointed out that although TKA gait strategies contain some adaptations compared to non-
37 injured counterpart; TKA habitual gait status is referred to “baseline” gait for the present study to imply the gait
38 pattern *before* simulating muscle weakness in the musculoskeletal model.

39 **2. Methodology**

40 Experimental gait measurements of six TKA patients were adopted from a published repository (section
41 2.1). Three sets of MBD simulations were conducted: The first set of MBD simulations was called “baseline
42 simulation” calculating the habitual muscle and joint forces for every subject (section 2.2). Second, individual
43 muscles were systematically weakened until the baseline gait could no longer be executed by the musculoskeletal
44 model unless by means of remarkable kinematic changes. From this set of simulations, the “minimum strength
45 requirements” were determined (section 2.3). Third, muscles were impaired randomly by sampling their strength
46 parameters in muscle models between the “minimum requirements” and their “nominal” values from the baseline
47 simulation. Once again, muscle and joint forces were calculated using the impaired musculoskeletal models
48 (section 2.3). Using SPM analysis, muscle and joint forces from impaired simulations were compared versus
49 those obtained from baseline simulations (section 2.4). PCA was then used to quantify the sensitivity of joint
50 forces due to the weakness of each individual muscle (section 2.5).

51 **2.1. Experimental gait data**

52 Gait data, i.e. ground reaction forces (GRF) and marker trajectories, from six TKA patients (five males,
53 one female; height: 170.8 ± 5.2 cm; mass: 69.7 ± 4.4 kg), walking at self-selected pace, were adopted from a
54 published repository (<https://simtk.org/home/kneeloads>, accessed Sept 2014). These patients were implanted with
55 sensor-based knee prostheses that could measure *in vivo* knee forces. GRFs were measured at a frequency of 1000
56 Hz (Force plate, AMTI Corp., Watertown, MA, USA) and marker trajectory data were recorded at a frequency of
57 200 Hz (10-camera motion capture system, Motion Analysis Corp., Santa Rosa, CA, USA) using a modified
58 Cleveland Clinic marker set with extra markers on the feet and trunk. Electromyography (EMG) signals were
59 recorded at a frequency of 1000 Hz (Surface electrodes, Delsys Corp., Boston, MA, USA) for several muscle
60 groups including: semimembranosus, biceps femoris long head, vastus medialis, vastus lateralis, rectus femoris,
61 medial gastrocnemius, lateral gastrocnemius, and tensor fascia latae. For a complete description of this database
62 see (Fregly et al., 2012, Kinney et al., 2013). Experimental EMG measurements were band-pass filtered with a 6th
63 order Butterworth within the frequency of 20-420 Hz. Root mean square (RMS) was computed within 30 *msec*
64 intervals with 15 *msec* overlap. The magnitudes of EMG measurements for every subject were normalized to the

65 corresponding maximum values over all his/her gait trials. The average of normalized RMS computations were
66 then compared versus those computed by MBD analysis for validation purposes.

67 **2.2. Multi-body dynamic analysis**

68 **2.2.1. Musculoskeletal model**

69 A 3D musculoskeletal model, based on the University of Twente Lower Extremity Model (TLEM -(Klein
70 Horsman, 2007), was recruited in the multi-body simulation software, AnyBody Modeling System (version 5.2,
71 AnyBody Technology, Aalborg, Denmark). In brief, the model included trunk, pelvis, thigh, shank and foot
72 segments (Figure 1). Hip joint was modeled with three degrees of freedom (DOF) while knee joint was modeled
73 as a hinge joint with only one DOF for flexion-extension and universal joint was considered for ankle-subtalar
74 complex. TLEM model had 160 Hill-type muscle-tendon actuators and the strength of each muscle was modeled
75 as follows (AnyBody Modelling System, User's Guide):

$$66 \quad Strength = F_0 \left(2 \frac{L_m}{L_f} - 1 \right) \left(1 - \frac{L_m}{V_0} \right) \quad (1)$$

77 Where F_0 is the strength of the muscle at neutral fiber length (\bar{L}_f) and contraction velocity (L_m') equals
78 to zero. L_m is the current length of the contractile element and V_0 is the contraction velocity at maximum
79 voluntary contraction. F_0 is related to muscle isometric strength and has been estimated from cadaveric studies
80 (Klein Horsman, 2007). Muscle groups and corresponding individual muscles are described in Table 1. The
81 generic musculoskeletal model was scaled to each patient based on a Length–Mass–Fat scaling law in which body
82 mass, body height and segment length were taken into account (Ali et al., 2013, Worsley et al., 2011). Body
83 segment lengths were calculated based on the markers' coordination data in an optimization routine in which the
84 model was scaled such that the differences between “model marker” and the “experimental marker” trajectories
85 were minimized. For every subject, isometric muscle strengths (F_0) were also scaled based on a Height-Squared
86 law (Jaric, 2002) and were considered as “nominal” strengths corresponding to “baseline” simulations. Muscle
87 weakness was then simulated by reducing the F_0 values.

88 2.2.2. Baseline simulation

89 The scaled musculoskeletal model was recruited in an inverse dynamic analysis to calculate muscle and
90 joint forces based on marker trajectories and GRFs. Joint forces were calculated from equilibrium equations
91 whilst muscle forces were calculated in an optimization framework (Damsgaard et al., 2006):

$$\begin{aligned} 92 \quad & \text{Minimize}_f G(f^{(M)}) \quad , \quad G(f^{(M)}) = \text{Max}\left(\frac{f_i^{(M)}}{N_i}\right) \\ & \text{Subject to} : C \times f = d \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq f_i^{(M)} \leq N_i \quad i = \{1, \dots, n^{(M)}\} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

93 Where G is the the objective function, $f=[f(M), f(R)]$ refers to all unknown forces including muscle
94 forces ($f^{(M)}$) and joint reaction forces ($f^{(R)}$). N_i is the strength of the muscle as defined in equation (1). C is the
95 coefficient-matrix for the unknown forces and d contains all known applied loads and inertia forces. Muscle
96 recruitment was computed in order to minimize the maximum muscle activities subject to positive muscle force
97 constraints and equilibrium constraints. For a detailed discussion about numerical and physiological benefits of
98 the aforementioned muscle recruitment criterion , see (Damsgaard et al., 2006, Rasmussen et al., 2001). Muscle
99 and joint forces were then normalized to 100 samples to represent a gait cycle from heel strike (0%) to the
100 following heel strike (100%) of the same leg (MATLAB v. 2009, the MathWorks, Inc. MA, USA). It should be
101 pointed out that this set of MBD simulations implied the TKA daily habitual gait strategies (referred as baseline
102 simulations).

103 2.3. Muscle-impaired simulation

104 Eight muscle groups, listed in Table 1, were chosen to be weakened, one at a time. First, each muscle
105 group was impaired progressively by simultaneous weakening of its individual muscles; i.e. reducing the F_0
106 values from their nominal values in steps of 2%, until the musculoskeletal model could no longer execute the
107 baseline gait pattern of the subject unless with remarkable kinematic changes (van der Krogt et al., 2012) . From
108 this set of simulations, the minimum strength requirement of each muscle group was identified. Second, each
109 muscle group was weakened by simultaneous randomization of its individual muscles between their minimum
110 and nominal strengths using Latin hypercube sampling (LHS-(Iman, 2008)). In the LHS technique, the strength
111 space of each individual muscle was divided into 200 equal-probability intervals and one sample was chosen from
112 each interval to ensure an equal coverage of the whole sampling space. In other words, a weakened muscle group
113 was simulated by a set of 200 different perturbations of its individual muscles. Once again, inverse dynamic
114 simulation was repeated using impaired musculoskeletal models to calculate joint angles, muscle forces and joint
115 forces. If the calculated joint angles (hip flexion-extension, hip abduction-adduction, hip rotation, knee flexion-
116 extension, ankle flexion-extension and ankle rotation) were within two degrees of the baseline kinematics, the

117 executed muscle and joint forces were chosen for further statistical analysis (Thompson et al., 2013). It should be
118 pointed out that for each subject, a total of 1651 MBD simulations were conducted (1 baseline simulation + 50
119 stepwise strength reducing simulations + [8 muscle groups \times 200] probabilistic simulations).

120 **2.4. Statistical parameter mapping (SPM)**

121 SPM analysis, a vector-field statistical test for continuous-level statistical comparison, was recruited to
122 perform a paired t-test (SPM(t)) on loading patterns between “baseline” and “muscle-impaired” simulations. This
123 technique has been first used for 3D image comparison (Friston et al., 1994) and has been recently used in the field
124 of biomechanics (Pataky et al., 2008, Pataky et al., 2013, Robinson et al., 2014). SPM recognizes regions of the
125 waveforms which significantly differ between groups or conditions of interest. For detailed mathematical
126 description of SPM, see (Pataky, 2010, Pataky, 2011). In brief, SPM was calculated as follows (Pataky et al.,
127 2013):

$$128 \quad SPM\{T^2\} \square T^2\{q\} = J \times \bar{y}(q)^T \times W(q)^{(-1)} \times \bar{y}(q) \quad (3)$$

129 Where:

$$130 \quad W(q) = \frac{1}{J-1} \left(\sum_{j=1}^J (y_j(q) - \bar{y}(q)) \times (y_j(q) - \bar{y}(q))^T \right) \quad (4)$$

131 In the above equations, J is the number of vector components (equals to 100 samples for this study),
132 $\bar{y}(q)$ is the mean vector field, and W is the covariance matrix representing the variance-within and correlation-
133 between vector components across $J=100$ samples. SPM calculated the t-statistic as a function of time (SPM(t)).
134 A critical statistical threshold (t^*) was determined based on the vector-field smoothness and temporal gradients of
135 the waveforms. Regions of muscle or joint forces for which SPM(t) exceeded the critical threshold, were
136 considered as statistically significant differences. The probability that the supra-threshold occurred by chance was
137 calculated according to the random field behavior of the vector to maintain the error rate of $\alpha=0.05$. Such
138 statistical differences implied as muscular compensations in response to a weakened “muscle group”. All of the
139 aforementioned computations were conducted using “SPM1D”, a free and open source software package for SPM
140 (available at www.tpataky.net/spm1d).

141 **2.5. Principal component analysis (PCA)**

142 The sensitivity of joint force components due to individual muscle impairments were quantified by means
143 of PCA (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). As mentioned before, weakness of each muscle group was simulated with 200
144 probabilistic trials in which individual muscle strength variables (F_0) were reduced simultaneously. For each

145 probabilistic trial, the perturbed individual muscles were arranged as the input matrix and the resultant joint forces
 146 were arranged as the output matrix. PCA was then conducted on the input and output matrices to calculate
 147 Principal components (PCs). Each PC was a weighted combination of original variables (Jolliffe, 2002). The first
 148 four PCs of input matrix (output matrix) were summed to represent the overall input (output) PC (PC_i and PC_o)
 149 which explained 83-92% of the variation in the input and output datasets. The Pearson correlation coefficients
 150 were computed between PC_i and PC_o over the 200 probabilistic trials and were averaged over the entire gait cycle
 151 resulting in correlation indices. Each correlation index was then corrected with the contribution of an input
 152 (output) variable to the PC_i (PC_o) resulting in the sensitivity index (SI) of the output variable to a certain input
 153 variable. A probabilistic trial of the hip extensor weakness for example, was modeled as (for muscle abbreviation
 154 see Table 1):

$$155 \quad Input = [GMAX, GMED, GMIN, ADDM, PIRI, SEMIM, SEMIT, BFI]; \quad (5)$$

$$156 \quad Output = [HF_x, HF_y, HF_z, KF_x, KF_y, KF_z, AF_x, AF_y, AF_z]; \quad (6)$$

157 Where HF_x , KF_x and AF_x represent medial-lateral, HF_y , KF_y and AF_y represent anterior-posterior and HF_z ,
 158 KF_z and AF_z represent axial components of hip, knee and ankle joint forces respectively. Input and output PCs
 159 were then calculated as:

$$160 \quad PC_{i1} = \alpha_1 GMAX + \beta_1 GMED + \dots + \xi_1 BFI \quad (7)$$

$$161 \quad PC_{o1} = a_1 HF_x + b_1 HF_y + \dots + l_1 AF_z \quad (8)$$

162 Where PC_{i1} (PC_{o1}) demonstrate the first mode of variations in the input (output) datasets. The overall
 163 input (output) PC was defined as the sum of the first four PCs:

$$164 \quad PC_i = PC_{i1} + PC_{i2} + PC_{i3} + PC_{i4} \quad (9)$$

$$165 \quad PC_o = PC_{o1} + PC_{o2} + PC_{o3} + PC_{o4} \quad (10)$$

166 The sensitivity of anterior-posterior hip force due to gluteus maximus weakness was then computed as:

$$167 \quad SI_{GMAX}^{HF_y} = \bar{\alpha} \times corr(PC_i, PC_o) \times \bar{b} \quad (11)$$

168 Where $\bar{\alpha}$ and \bar{b} are the average contribution of $GMAX$ and HF_y in the PC_i and PC_o .

169 3. Results

170 Knee joint forces and muscle forces, computed from baseline MBD simulations, were compared to *in vivo*
171 knee forces, measured by instrumented knee prostheses (Figure 2a) and with muscle forces estimated from
172 experimental EMG reported in the Grand Challenge Data Repository (Figure 2b). Gait phases were described
173 following established conventions (Perry and Davids, 1992). Good agreements in the overall patterns, timing and
174 magnitudes built confidence in the resultant findings.

175 3.1. Minimum requirements

176 The minimum strength requirements to preserve the baseline TKA gait pattern were different for various
177 muscle groups. In the hip, extensor, abductor and adductor muscles required 65%, 60% and 46% of their baseline
178 strengths respectively. In the knee, extensor and flexor muscles required 50% and 42% of their baseline strengths
179 whilst ankle plantar flexor and dorsi-flexor muscles demanded 40% and 25% of their baseline strengths
180 respectively.

181 3.2. Compensatory mechanisms

182 Table 2 lists the muscles which generated significantly ($p < 0.05$) larger forces in response to the weakness of
183 a certain muscle group (i.e. compensatory mechanisms). Results showed that hip extensor weakness led to an
184 average increase of 48% at the magnitudes of hip flexor (i.e. SAR, ADDL, ADDB, ILIAC, PEC and TFL)
185 muscle forces and an average increase of 27% at the magnitudes of ankle plantar flexor (i.e. SOL, GAS and TP)
186 muscle forces (Figure 3). Hip flexor weakness was compensated by a significant increase in the hip extensor (i.e.
187 ADDM, GMED, GMIN, SEMIM and SEMIT), ankle plantar flexor (i.e. GAS, SOL and FHL) and to a lesser
188 extent by hip adductor muscle forces (i.e. OBE and QF) (Figure 4). Hip abductor weakness was balanced by
189 remarkable contribution of hip flexor (i.e. ADDL, GRAC, ILIAC, SAR and RF) and knee flexor (i.e. BFsh, POP,
190 SEMIT and GAS) muscles (Figure 5) whilst hip adductor weakness was compensated by knee flexor and hip
191 abductor (i.e. GMED, OBI) muscles (Figure 6).

192 Knee extensor weakness was compensated by an average increase of 62% at the magnitudes of hip extensor
193 (i.e. ADDM, GMAX, GMED, GMIN and BFsh) and an average increase of 48% at the magnitudes of hip flexor
194 (ADDL, ADDL, ILIAC and PEC) muscle forces whilst knee flexor weakness was compensated by significant
195 ($p < 0.05$) contribution of hip flexor, hip extensor and to a lesser extent by ankle plantar flexor muscles (Appendix,
196 Figures A.1-A.2). Ankle plantar flexor weakness was compensated by an average increase of 14% at the
197 magnitudes of knee extensor (i.e. VAS, RF, and TFL), an average increase of 21% at the magnitudes of knee

198 flexor (i.e. BFI, SEMIM, SEMIT, SAR, POP and GRAC) and an average increase of 20% at the magnitudes of
199 hip adductor (i.e. ADDL, OBE and QF) muscle forces (Appendix, Figure A.3). Ankle dorsi-flexor weakness was
200 compensated by knee flexor, ankle plantar flexor and to a lesser extent by hip flexor and extensor muscles
201 (Appendix, Figures A.4).

202 3.3. Sensitivity analysis

203 As expected, muscular compensations significantly influenced joint forces (Figure 7). Results are
204 summarized in Table 3. Figure 8 reports the sensitivity of every joint force component due to the weakness of
205 individual muscles. Muscles that span the hip (e.g. GMAX, ILIAC and BF) and those that do not span the hip
206 joint (e.g. VAS, SOL and GAS) substantially affected the hip joint force. Hip joint force was more sensitive to the
207 weakness of hip and knee extensor ($SI=51\%$) and hip abductor ($SI=47\%$) muscles. Knee joint force was slightly
208 more sensitive to the weakness of those muscles that span the knee (e.g. SEMIM, SEMIT, BF , RF, VAS and
209 TFL) rather than muscles that do not span the knee joint (e.g. GAS, SOL and TA) . Of these muscles, bi-articular
210 muscles that span both knee and hip joints had a greater impact on the knee joint force (i.e. SEMIM, SEMIT, BF
211 and RF). Knee joint force was mostly sensitive to the weakness of the knee extensor ($SI=61\%$), knee flexor
212 ($SI=56\%$) and hip extensor ($SI=48\%$) muscles. Ankle force was more sensitive to the weakness of ankle plantar
213 flexor ($SI=44\%$) than to the weakness of ankle dorsi-flexor ($SI=35\%$) muscles. Ankle force was noticeably
214 influenced by weakness of GAS ($SI=63\%$), SOL ($SI=57\%$) and TA ($SI=44\%$) muscles.

215 4. Discussion

216 The abnormal gait characteristics of TKA patients, compared to non-injured counterparts, have been well
217 studied (Alnahdi et al., 2011, Hatfield et al., 2011, McClelland et al., 2011, Yoshida et al., 2012). Despite, little is
218 known about how vulnerable such an abnormal gait might be due to lower extremity muscle impairment. The
219 main aim of this study was to quantify the muscular compensations and joint force perturbations in response to
220 muscle impairments in TKA patients. Technical contribution of this study can be highlighted in terms of SPM and
221 PCA. Conventional statistical analyses such as t-test or ANOVA are widely applied in the field of gait analysis.
222 These tests however necessitate extracting certain scalars from the original pattern at discrete time points,
223 typically maximum and minimum values (Goldberg and Neptune, 2007, Butler et al., Jonkers et al., 2003, Valente
224 et al., 2013, Klemetti et al., 2014, Thompson et al., 2013, van der Krogt et al., 2012). Hence, scalar-based
225 hypotheses oversimplify the underlying dynamics of original waveforms. In the present study, SPM analysis was
226 used as an alternative to broaden the scope of our statistical comparisons to the entire gait cycle. On the other
227 hand, each muscle group is consisted of several individual muscles which work inter-dependently to dictate joint
228 force patterns. Joint forces are in turn highly inter-connected. Traditional scenario of sensitivity analysis is
229 inherently unable to account for any sort of interactions within inputs or outputs (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). PCA

230 technique can be used instead to address such interactions(Ardestani et al., 2015b, Ardestani et al., 2015a,
231 Ardestani et al., 2015c).

232 In terms of insights, previous attempts addressed the muscular compensations in response to the weakness
233 of one or several muscles for non-injured subjects by simulating discrete levels of impairments(Jonkers et al.,
234 2003, Steele et al., 2012, Thompson et al., 2013). To the best of authors' knowledge, Valente et al. (2013) is the
235 only study in which hip abductor muscle impairment was simulated by means of probabilistic analysis. The
236 present study is perhaps the first one to provide a comprehensive evaluation of muscular compensations in TKA
237 patients. Overall, present findings are consistent with available literature; e.g. hip extensor compensated for hip
238 flexor weakness whilst hip extensor (i.e. ADDM and GMAX) and hip flexor (i.e. ADDB and ILIAC) addressed
239 the knee extensor weakness(Goldberg and Neptune, 2007, van der Krogt et al., 2012). Parts of the present
240 findings however, have not been observed in non-injured subjects suggesting that muscle weakness in TKA
241 patients likely require more involvement of other muscles to be compensated. For example, present findings
242 suggested that in TKA patients, hip adductor and ankle planter flexor muscles accompanied hip extensor to
243 compensate hip flexor weakness. As another example, other hip extensor (i.e. ADDM, GMAX, GMED, GMIN
244 and BFsh) and hip flexor (i.e. ADDB, ADDL, ILIAC and PEC) muscles worked together to address knee extensor
245 weakness in TKA patients.

246 Present findings also suggested that TKA patients might not tolerate muscle strength deficits as much as
247 non-injured counterparts. While a minimum strength of 60% for hip extensor/flexor/abductor, and 35% for ankle
248 plantar flexor muscles suffice to preserve the baseline gait pattern in non-injured subjects (van der Krogt et al.,
249 2012), TKA patients demanded higher strength (65% of the nominal values for hip muscles and 40% for ankle
250 plantar flexor muscles) to preserve their baseline gait patterns. Considering the fact that TKA patients often suffer
251 from weak quadriceps and hamstring, higher muscle strength requirements in this cohort may be understandable.
252 The aforementioned findings are of significant importance for rehabilitation purposes. From this perspective,
253 muscles that may induce severe compensations in other muscles, or those muscle groups capable of compensating
254 for hamstring and quadriceps weakness, may be targeted for future rehabilitation.

255 There were several limitations in this study, but perhaps the main one was that, the geometry of knee
256 implant was not included in the MBD analysis. In fact TKA-specific information was exclusively included by
257 means of kinematic and GRF data. One previous study extended a rigid MBD simulation of the present
258 musculoskeletal model to incorporate the bearing surface geometry of the knee implant as well as the flexible
259 contact mechanics of the tibiofemoral and patellofemoral joints(Chen et al., 2014). Although the model achieved
260 an acceptable accuracy to calculate contact forces, the computational time increased remarkably. Hence the model
261 was impractical for the present study which required large iterations of probabilistic MBD analysis. Moreover, the

262 primary aim of the present study was to elicit significant “differences” between the baseline and impaired
263 simulations. Since both baseline and impaired simulations were conducted using the same model, and considering
264 that predicted knee joint forces were well consistent with the *in vivo* measurements, it is likely that this
265 simplification had a minimal impact on our findings. Another key limitation of this study was small number of
266 patients. Considering the large inter-subject variability in soft tissue and patients’ musculature, larger number of
267 patients are required to confirm the findings of this study. Nevertheless, the developed framework is equally
268 applicable.

269 **5. Conclusion**

270 A probabilistic MBD analysis, combined with SPM and PCA analyses, were used to evaluate the
271 minimum strength requirements of muscles and muscular compensatory mechanisms in TKA patients. Our
272 findings suggested that: (1) hip flexor and ankle plantar flexor muscles compensated for hip extensor weakness;
273 (2) hip extensor, hip adductor and ankle plantar flexor muscles compensated for hip flexor weakness; (3) hip and
274 knee flexor muscles responded to hip abductor weakness;(4) knee flexor and hip abductor balanced hip adductor
275 impairment; and (5) knee extensor and knee flexor weakness were compensated by hip extensor and hip flexor
276 muscles. While knee joint force was more sensitive to the bi-articular spanning muscles that cross both hip and
277 knee joints, hip force was fairly sensitive to both hip-spanning and non hip-spanning muscles.

278 **Conflict of interest statement**

279 The authors have no conflict of interests to be declared.

280 **Acknowledgments**

281 This work was supported by Chinese Scholarship Council (number 2012GXZI23) and the program of
282 Xi’an Jiao Tong University [grant number xjj2012108]. The authors gratefully acknowledge " Grand Challenge
283 Competition to Predict In Vivo Knee Loads" for releasing the experimental data. We would also like to appreciate
284 Professor Todd Pataky from Shinshu University (Japan) for his guidance on spatial parameter mapping technique.

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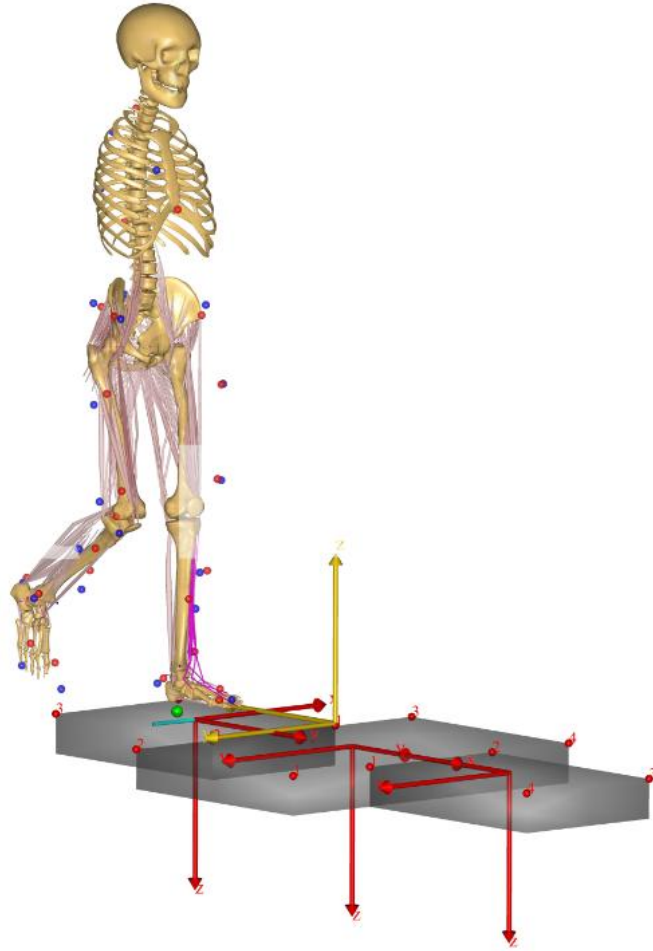
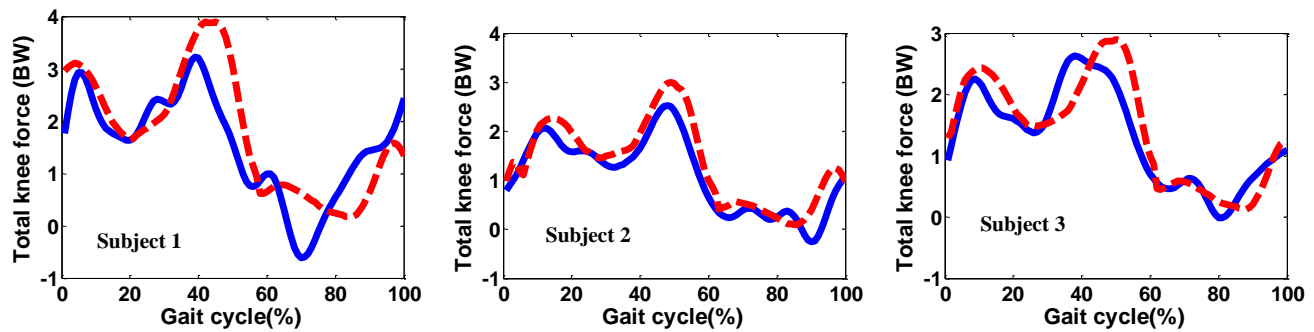


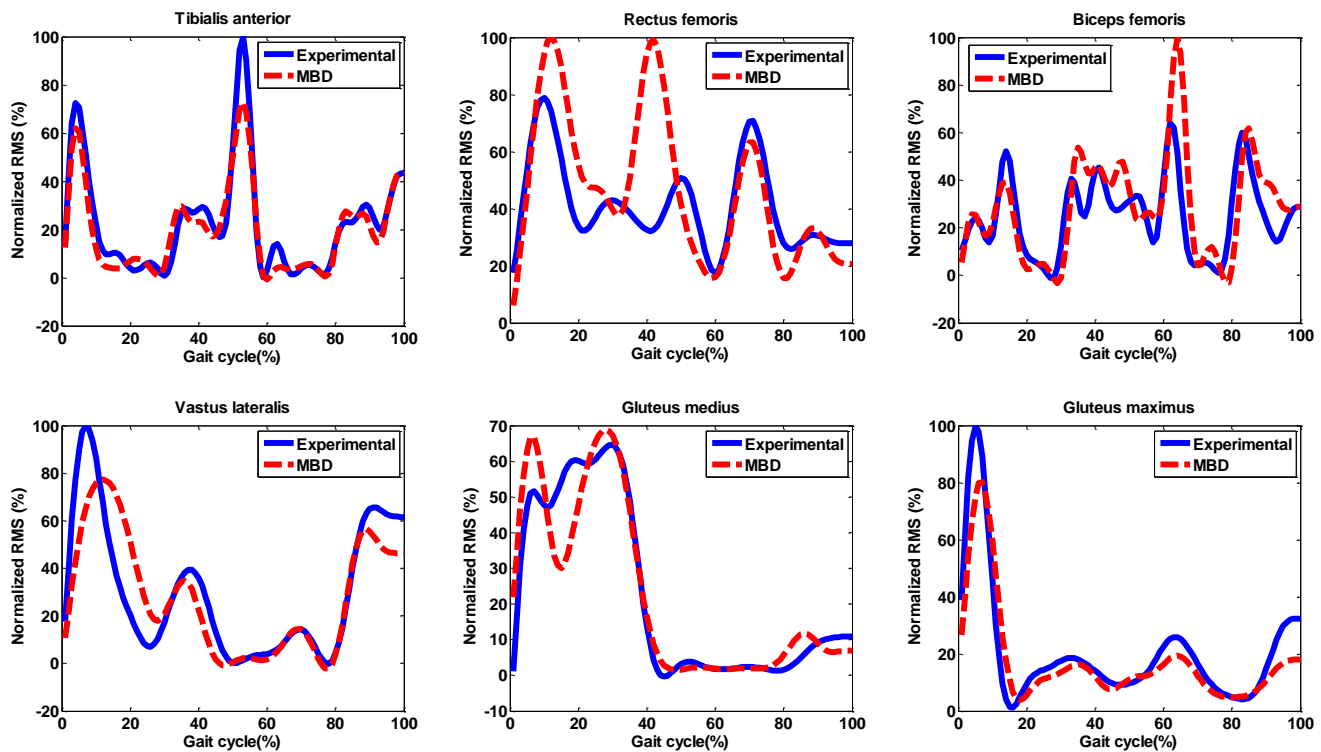
Figure 1 Musculoskeletal model based on TLEM

Figure

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(a)



(b)

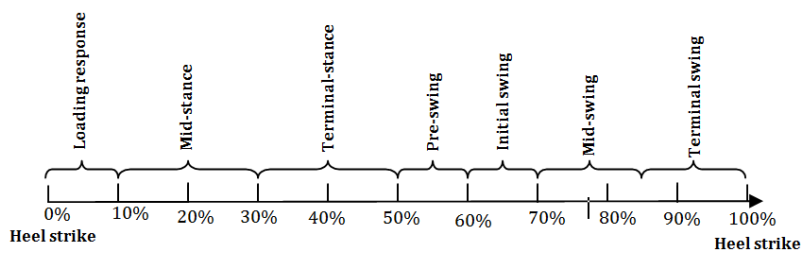


Figure 2 (a) *In vivo* measurements of knee force (solid line) versus MBD computations (dashed line) for three subjects of repository; (b) root mean square (RMS) of experimentally-measured muscle activities (solid line) versus MBD computations (dashed line) averaged over six subjects.

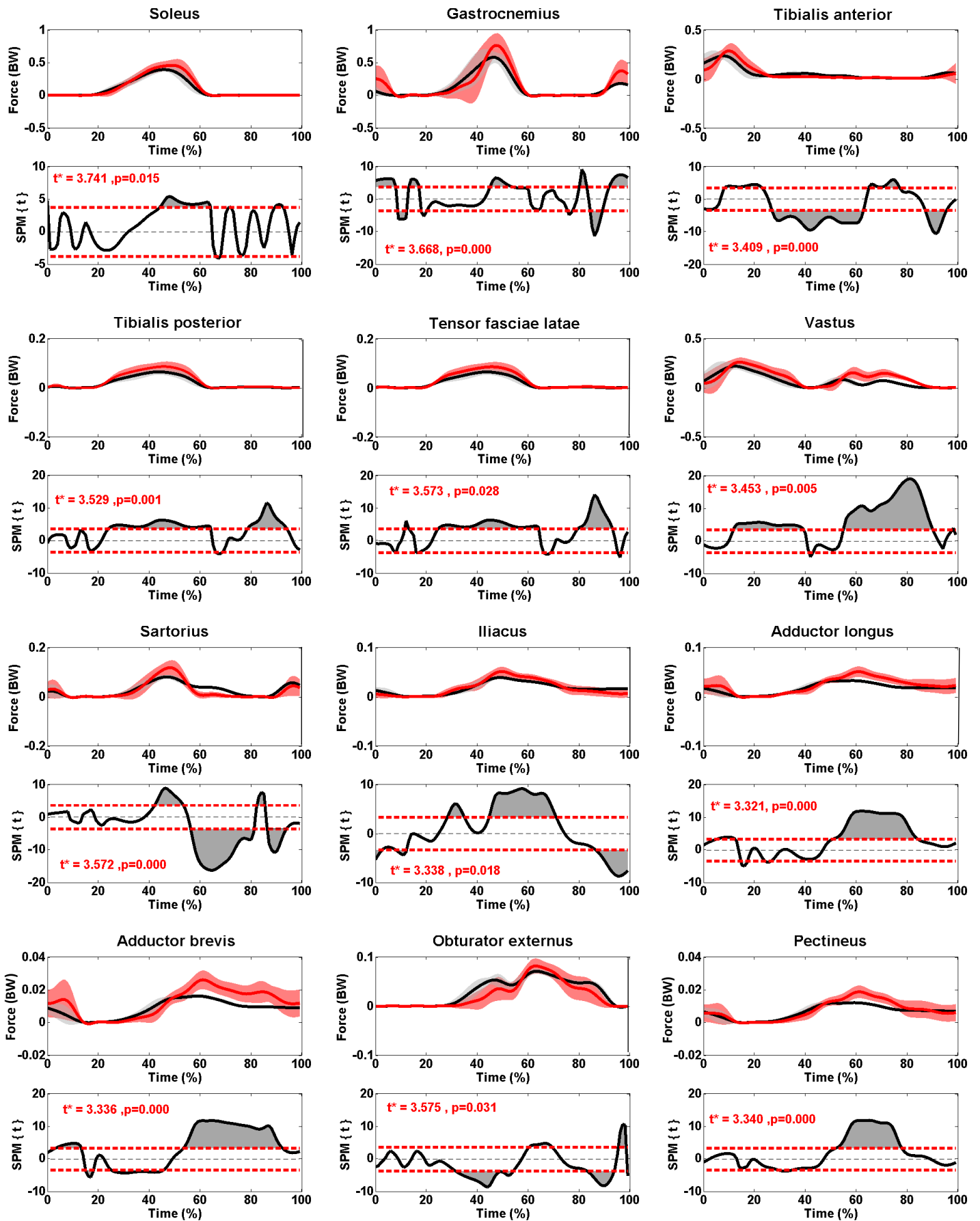


Figure 3 Mean (black solid line) and standard deviation (gray cloud) of muscle forces from baseline simulations versus mean (red solid) and standard deviation (red cloud) of “impaired-hip-extensor simulations”. Regions of gait cycle where SPM (t) exceeds critical threshold demonstrates significant differences. The horizontal dotted line indicates the critical thresholds (t^*).

Figure

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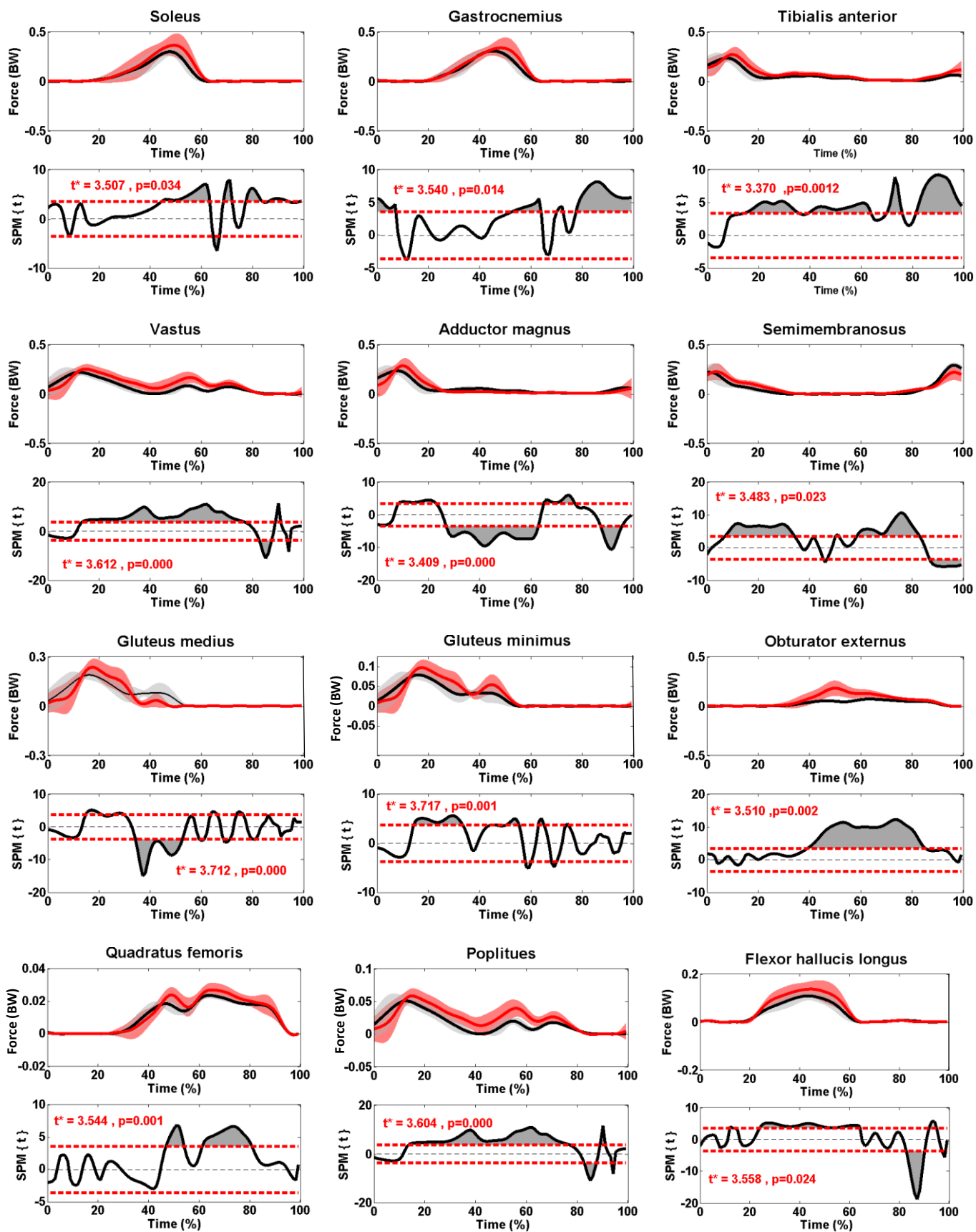


Figure 4 Mean (black solid line) and standard deviation (gray cloud) of muscle forces from baseline simulation versus mean (red solid) and standard deviation (red cloud) of “impaired-hip-flexor simulations”. Regions of gait cycle where SPM (t) exceeds critical threshold demonstrates significant differences. The horizontal dotted line indicates the critical thresholds (t^*).

Figure
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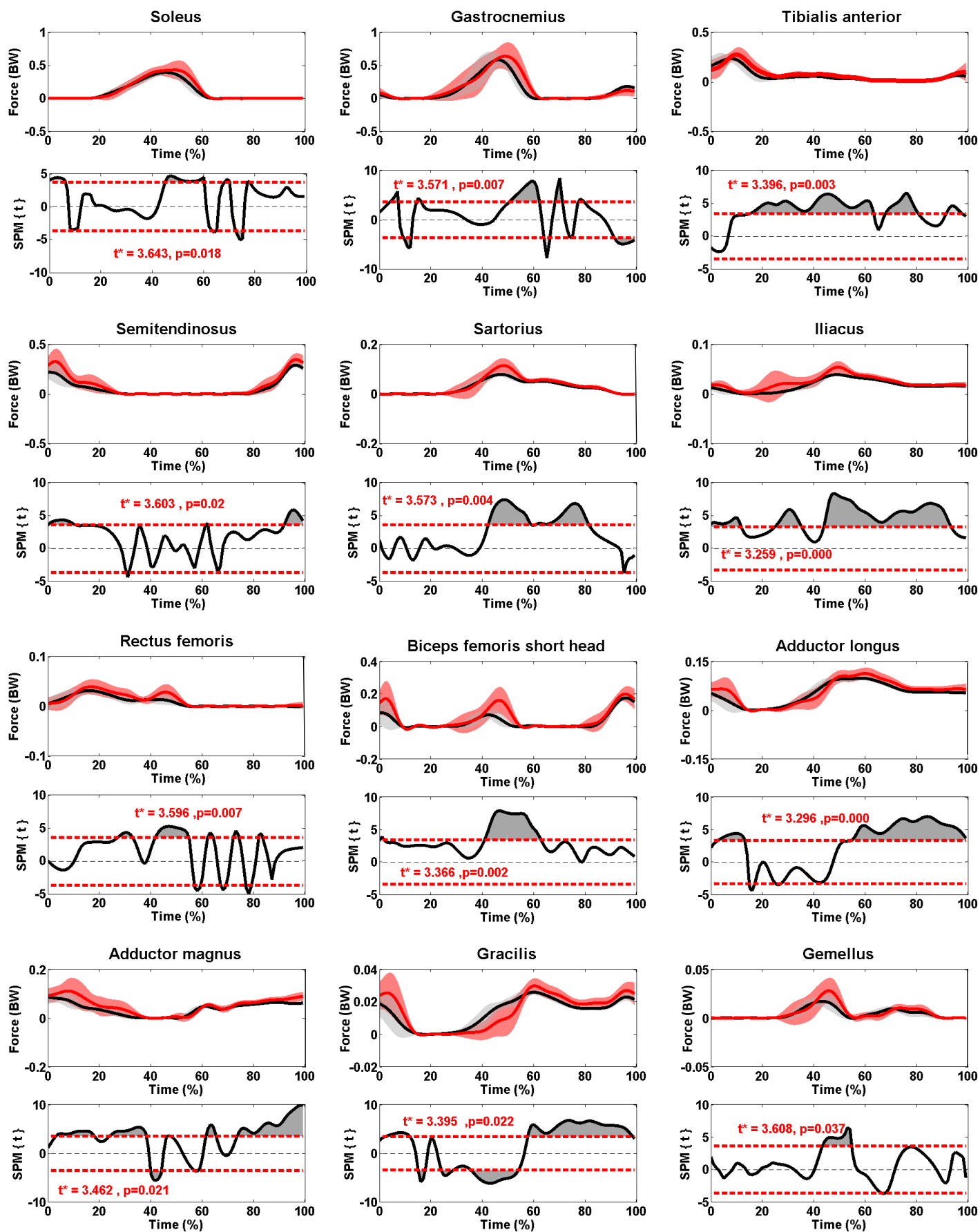


Figure 5 Mean (black solid line) and standard deviation (gray cloud) of muscle forces from baseline simulations versus mean (red solid) and standard deviation (red cloud) of “*impaired-hip-abductor simulations*”. Regions of gait cycle where SPM (t) exceeds critical threshold demonstrates significant differences. The horizontal dotted line indicates the critical thresholds (t^*).

Figure

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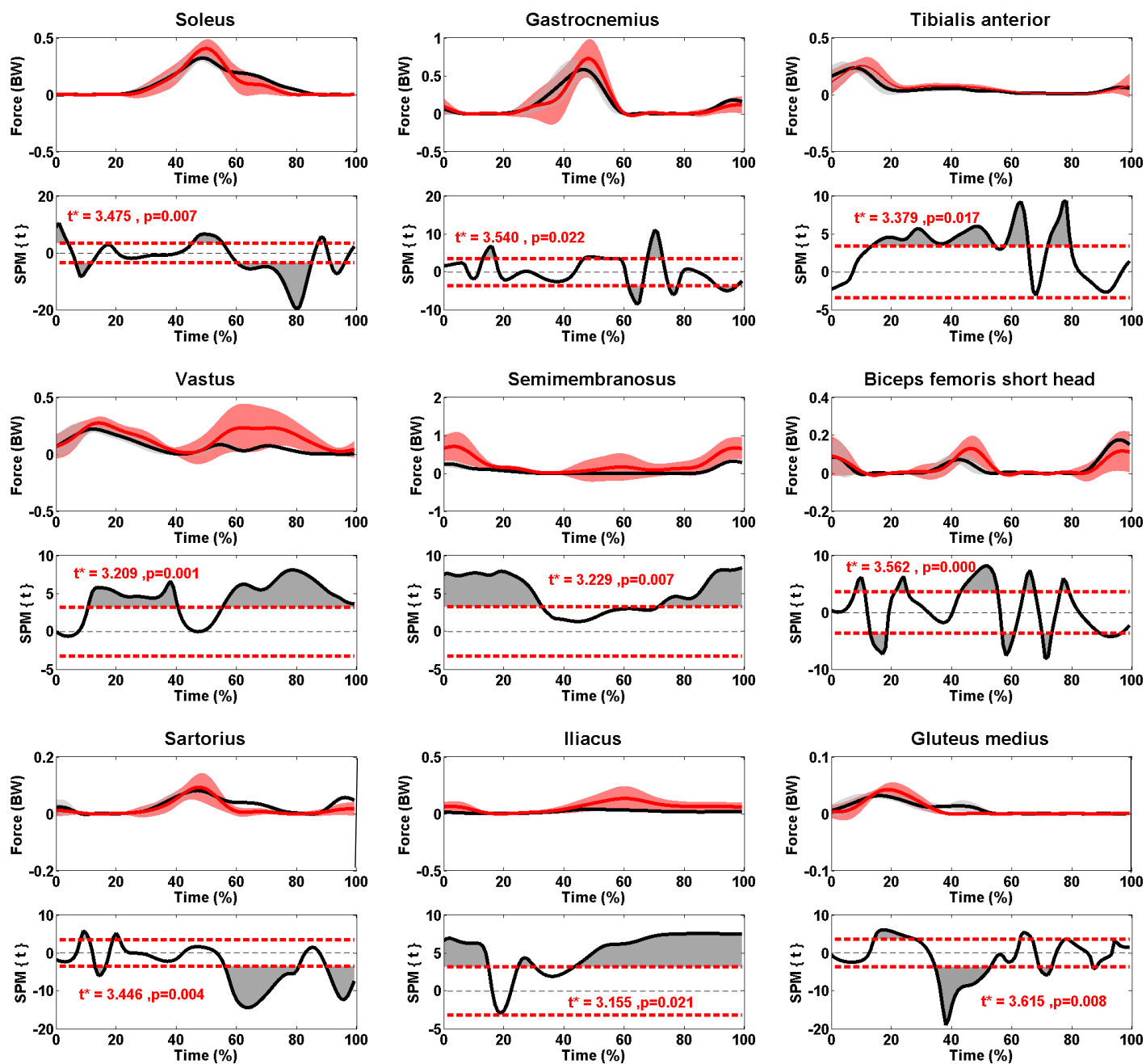


Figure 6 Mean (black solid line) and standard deviation (gray cloud) of muscle forces from baseline simulations versus mean (red solid) and standard deviation (red cloud) of “impaired-hip-adductor simulations”. Regions of gait cycle where SPM (t) exceeds critical threshold demonstrates significant differences. The horizontal dotted line indicates the critical thresholds (t*).

Figure

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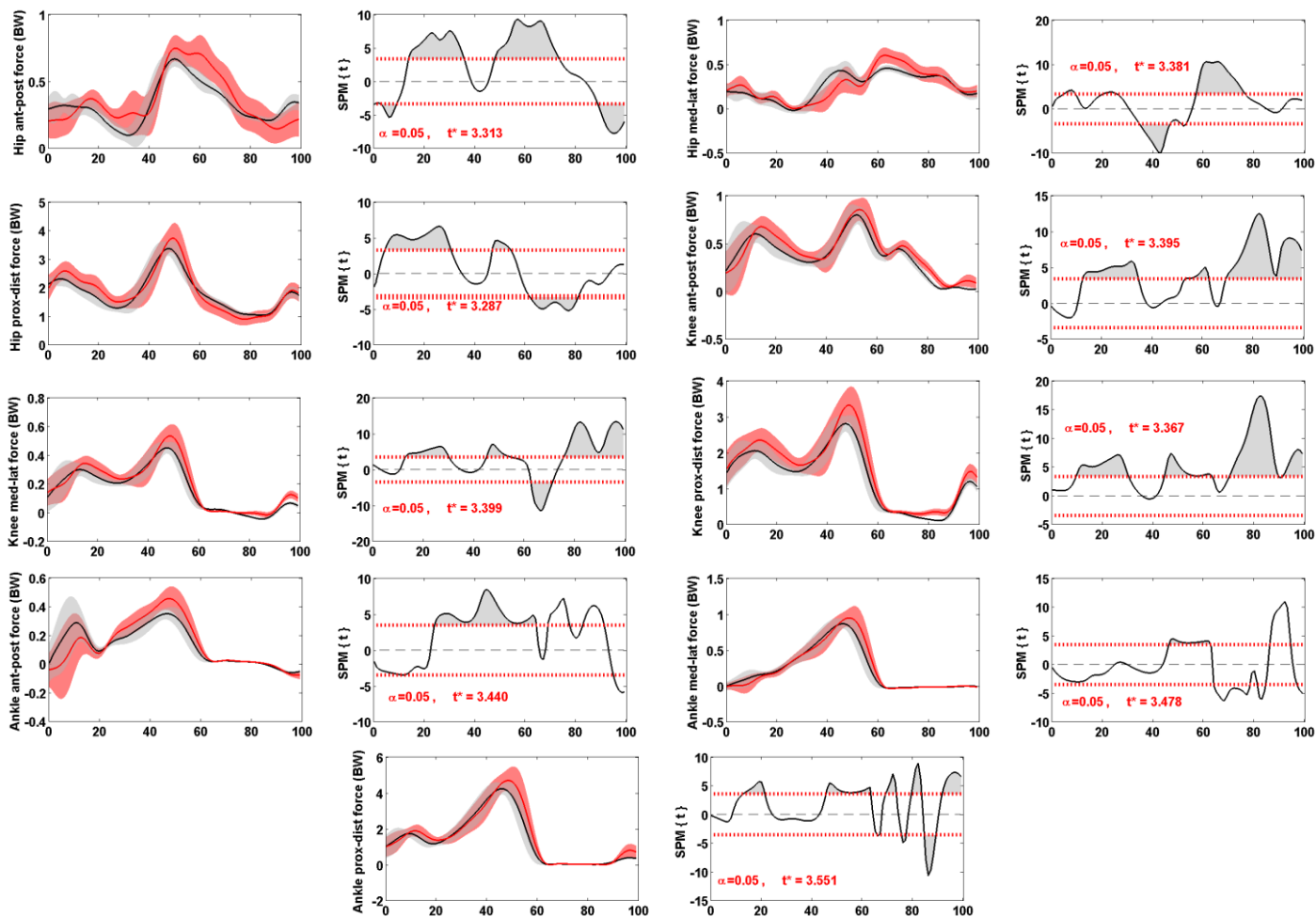
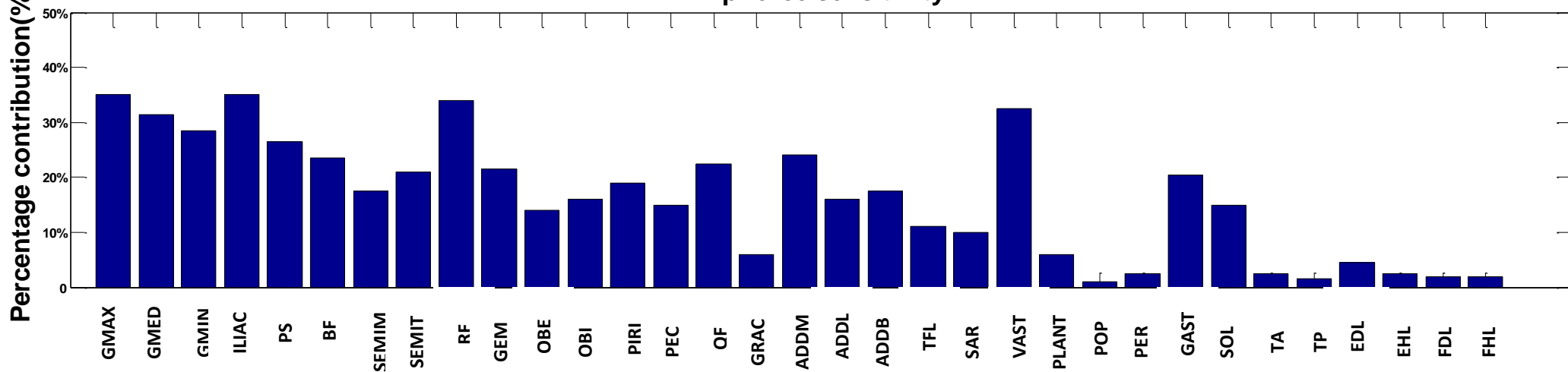


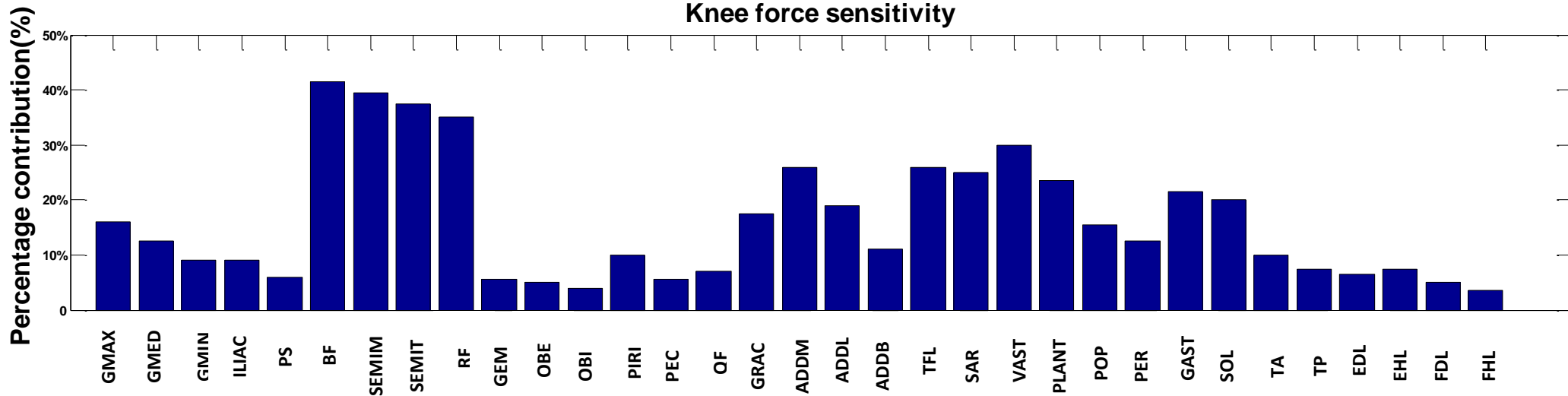
Figure 7 Mean (black solid line) and standard deviation (gray cloud) of joint forces from baseline simulations versus mean (red solid) and standard deviation (red cloud) of "impaired-hip-extensor" simulations. Regions of gait cycle where SPM (t) exceeds critical threshold demonstrates significant differences. The horizontal dotted line indicates the critical thresholds (t^*).

Figure
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Hip force sensitivity



Knee force sensitivity



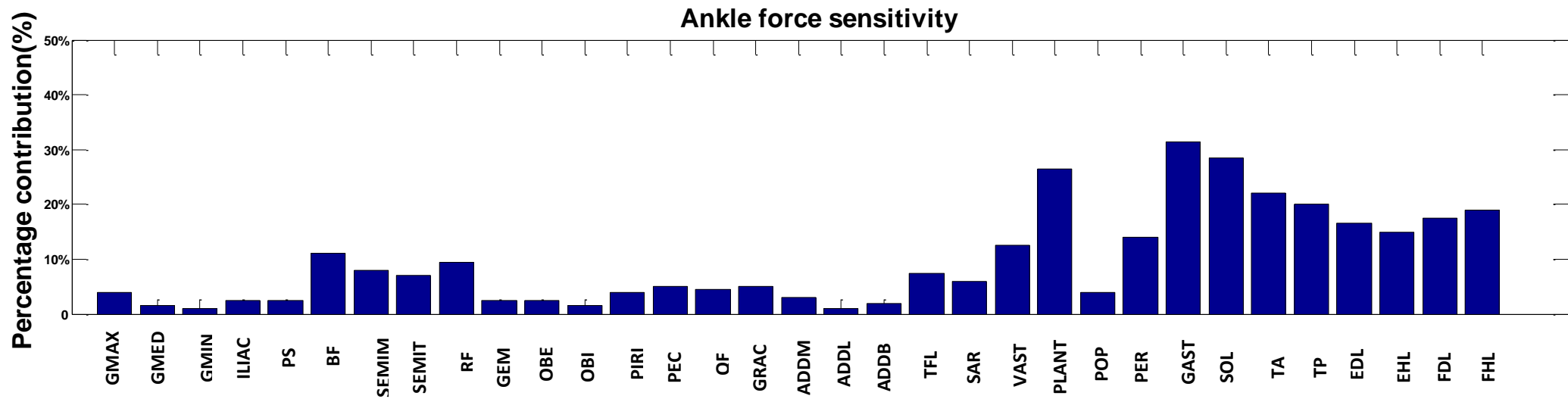


Figure 8 Sensitivity indices of joint forces due to various individual muscle impairments. Abbreviations are defined in Table 1.

Table 1 Muscle groups and their individual muscles

Muscle group	Description of constituent individual muscles
Hip extensor	Gluteus maximus (GMAX), Gluteus medius (GMED), Gluteus minimus (GMIN), Adductor magnus (ADDM), Piriformis (PIRI), Semimembranosus (SEMIM), Semitendinosus (SEMIT), Biceps femoris long head (BFL)
Hip flexor	Iliacus (ILIAC), Psoas (PS), Tensor fasciae latae (TFL), Pectineus (PEC), Adductor longus (ADDL), Adductor brevis (ADDDB), Gracilis (GRAC), Rectus femoris (RF), Sartorius (SAR)
Hip abductor	Gluteus medius (GMED), Gluteus maximus (GMAX), Gluteus minimus (GMIN), Tensor fasciae latae (TFL), Piriformis (PIRI), Obturator internus (OBI)
Hip adductor	Adductor magnus (ADDM), Adductor longus (ADDL), Adductor brevis (ADDDB), Gluteus maximus (GMAX), Gracilis (GRAC), Pectineus (PEC), Quadratus femoris (QF), Obturator externus (OBE), Semitendinosus (SEMIT)
Knee extensor	Rectus femoris (RF), Vastus (VAS), Tensor fasciae latae (TFL)
Knee flexor	Semimembranosus (SEMIM), Semitendinosus (SEMIT), Biceps femoris long head (BFL), Gracilis (GRAC), Sartorius (SAR), Popliteus (POP), Gastrocnemius (GAS)
Ankle dorsi-flexor	Tibialis anterior (TA), Extensor digitorum longus (EDL), Extensor hallucis longus (EHL)
Ankle plantar-flexor	Peroneus (PER), Flexor digitorum longus (FDL), Flexor hallucis longus (FHL), Tibialis posterior (TP), Soleus (SOL), Gastrocnemius (GAS), Plantaris (PLANT)

Table 2 Muscular compensatory mechanisms in response to various muscle impairments. Percentage changes in the magnitudes of muscle forces are reported in terms of mean± standard deviation. Abbreviations are defined in Table 1.

	Impaired muscle groups							
	Hip Extensor	Hip Flexor	Hip abductor	Hip adductor	Knee extensor	Knee flexor	Ankle plantar-flexor	Ankle dorsi -flexor
GMAX	-	-	-	-	105%±85%	74%±78%	8%±28%	-
GMED	-	21%±22%	-	32%±27%	64%±45%	29%±48%	19%±21%	18%±21%
GMIN	-	85%±57%	-	-	88%±45%	42%±56%	-	17%±18%
ADDM	-	59%±54%	47%±58%	-	27%±20%	71%±60%	-	30%±41%
ADDL	53%±30%	-	16%±17%	-	48%±30%	25%±27%	16%±17%	-
ADDB	59%±33%	-	-	-	31%±23%	25%±27%	-	-
BF-sh	-	-	31%±25%	11%±29%	26%±26%	-	-	-
BFL	-	-	-	-	-	-	21%±22%	21%±23%
VAS	12%±18%	10%±17%	-	44%±53%	-	-	10%±17%	10%±17%
SAR	47%±28%	-	48%±29%	32%±34%	-	-	17%±18%	17%±18%
SOL	16%±21%	21%±20%	15%±21%	18%±20%	-	-	-	20%±21%
RF	-	-	36%±22%	-	-	-	16%±17%	15%±17%
TFL	50%±29%	-	-	-	-	-	16%±18%	17%±18%
ILIAC	30%±23%	-	46%±39%	250%±27%	66%±35%	33%±38%	17%±20%	17%±20%
GAS	32%±27%	14%±18%	43%±34%	35%±25%	-	-	-	17%±18%
GRAC	-	-	20%±18%	-	-	-	20%±18%	-
GEM	-	-	63%±50%	-	84%±44%	44%±54%	-	-
TA	6%±19%	10%±22%	10%±21%	5%±21%	10%±21%	16%±25%	17%±27%	-
TP	33%±34%	-	-	-	-	21%±49%	-	-
OBE	16%±21%	162%±10%	-	-	50%±30%	-	17%±18%	-
OBI	-	-	-	50%±108%	74%±51%	-	-	-
SEMIM	-	40%±28%	26%±24%	155%±40%	-	-	27%±23%	30%±24%
SEMIT	-	46%±31%	-	-	-	-	27%±24%	31%±25%
FHL	-	28%±31%	-	-	-	18%±47%	-	37%±33%
FDL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	74%±80%
EHL	-	-	-	-	-	4%±28%	-	-
EDL	-	-	-	-	-	-	10%±40%	-
POP	12%±18%	10%±17%	26%±34%	47%±58%	-	-	10%±17%	-
PEC	52%±29%	-	-	-	50%±30%	27%±24%	-	-
PIRI	-	-	-	-	103%±60%	-	-	-
PER	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	58%±17%
QF	-	100%±30%	-	-	-	-	17%±18%	-

Table 3 Changes at the magnitudes of joint forces in response to various muscle impairments. Values are the percentage of rounded average increase or decrease. Negative values demonstrate a reduction in the corresponding joint force compared to the baseline simulations.

Impaired muscle group	Hip						Knee						Ankle			
	Medial-lateral		Proximal-distal		Anterior-posterior		Medial-lateral		Proximal-distal		Anterior-posterior		Medial-lateral	Proximal-distal	Anterior-posterior	
	1 st	2 nd	1 st	2 nd	1 st	2 nd	1 st	2 nd	1 st	2 nd	1 st	2 nd	Peak	Peak	1 st	2 nd
	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	peak	Peak	Peak	peak
Hip extensor	-17%	32%	10%	10%	1%	16%	7%	17%	11%	18%	7%	6%	10%	11%	2%	30%
Hip flexor	36%	30%	20%	24%	20%	31%	5%	-1%	7%	1%	6%	4%	11%	11%	2%	10%
Hip abductor	-20%	10%	22%	11%	25%	17%	22%	23%	32%	19%	18%	8%	9%	11%	3%	14%
Hip adductor	-9%	35%	30%	20%	30%	24%	15%	20%	28%	17%	5%	14%	6%	8%	-9%	15%
Knee extensor	34%	21%	17%	18%	13%	26%	-20%	-23%	-5%	-10%	14%	-10%	14%	10%	3%	2%
Knee flexor	36%	25%	10%	10%	7%	25%	-10%	-27%	-8%	-18%	-2%	-30%	7%	6%	-2%	-12%
Ankle plantar flexor	20%	13%	16%	12%	12%	10%	8%	14%	10%	14%	8%	20%	10%	23%	-16%	-8%
Ankle dorsiflexor	22%	13%	17%	12%	15%	10%	8%	10%	10%	11%	8%	5%	14%	10%	-14%	39%