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Abstract

Contact point (CP) trajectory is a crucial parameter in estimating medial/lateral tibio-femoral contact forces from the musculoskeletal (MSK) models. The objective of the present study was to develop a method to incorporate the subject-specific CP trajectories into the MSK model. Ten healthy subjects performed 45 second treadmill gait trials. The subject-specific CP trajectories were constructed on the tibia and femur as a function of extension-flexion using low-dose bi-plane x-ray images during a quasi-static squat. At each extension-flexion position, the tibia and femur CPs were superimposed in the three directions on the medial side, and in the anterior-posterior and proximal-distal directions on the lateral side to form the five kinematic constraints of the knee joint. The Lagrange

multipliers associated to these constraints directly yielded the medial/lateral contact forces. The results from the personalized CP trajectory model were compared against the linear CP trajectory and sphere-on-plane CP trajectory models which were adapted from the commonly used MSK models. Changing the CP trajectory had a remarkable impact on the knee kinematics and changed the medial and lateral contact forces by 1.03 BW and 0.65 BW respectively, in certain subjects. The direction and magnitude of the medial/lateral contact force were highly variable among the subjects and the medial-lateral shift of the CPs alone could not determine the increase/decrease pattern of the contact forces. The suggested kinematic constraints are adaptable to the CP trajectories derived from a variety of joint models and those experimentally measured from the 3D imaging techniques.

Keywords: knee contact force, musculoskeletal model, subject-specific, contact point trajectory, gait.

Introduction

Current musculoskeletal (MSK) models of the lower limb demonstrated good accuracy in the estimation of the contact forces between femoral and tibial instrumented prosthetic components (Gerus et al., 2013; Jung et al., 2016; Kia et al., 2014; Marra et al., 2015). However, the accuracy of the medial/lateral contact force estimation considerably improved by customizing the point of contact force application (Lerner et al., 2015). The estimation of intact knee joint contact forces still remains a challenge, because the medial and lateral contact forces cannot be well calculated without a good estimate of the subject's contact point (CP) trajectories (Saliba et al., 2017). Such information is very difficult to obtain *in vivo* because it relies on both joint kinematics and articular surface geometries.

However, recent methods could estimate knee contact parameters in weight-bearing conditions using either bi-plane fluoroscopy (Farrokhi et al., 2016; Farrokhi et al., 2014), or bi-plane low-dose radiography (Zeighami et al., 2017). Biplane imaging allows for a relatively small registration error and yields an estimation of CPs based on the concept of minimal bone-to-bone distance (Zeighami et al., 2017). The CP trajectory predictions were similar to *in vitro* measurements of the center of pressure (Draganich et al., 1987). Each of these studies showed that the trajectory of the center of bone-to-bone proximity reveals inter-subject differences as well as distinctions between healthy and osteoarthritic knees.

Within inverse dynamics computational frameworks, subject-specific joint kinematics has been introduced in MSK models at the step of inverse kinematics (Gerus et al., 2013; Scheys et al., 2011; Valente et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the definition of CP trajectories, at the step of joint contact force computation, remains most of the time very basic, i.e. at a fixed distance from the tibial plateau centreline. This fixed distance is typically set at 25% of tibial plateau width (Johnson et al., 1981) in a range from 20 mm (Gerus et al., 2013; Schipplein and Andriacchi, 1991) to 25 mm (Crowinshield, 1978; Lloyd and Buchanan, 1996; Morrison, 1970) in various studies or, eventually, a customized distance determined using a standing radiograph (Lerner et al., 2015).

In an earlier study, (Nissan, 1980) performed a sensitivity analysis by moving the CP 5 mm in the anterior-posterior direction and found that the posterior and anterior displacements would respectively increase the contact force by about 500N and decrease it by about 350N. More recently, Lerner et al. (2015) and Saliba et al. (2017) moved the CP locations only in the medial-lateral direction. They found that reducing the lever arm by moving the CP close to the knee joint fulcrum increased the contact forces in the corresponding compartment by a gradient up to 0.06 BW/mm. Therefore it is crucial to take into account the CP trajectories.

Nevertheless, these authors computed the contact forces in a two-step procedure by considering the equilibrium of the contact forces, the musculo-tendon forces and the joint moment in the frontal plane. Therefore, they could not consider anterior-posterior shifting of the CP. Moreover, the modification of the CP trajectories was totally independent of the knee kinematics. In the light of articular surface geometrical complexity, recent experimental studies have demonstrated that each subject has a unique CP trajectory which showed medial-lateral and anterior-posterior excursions (Farrokhi et al., 2016; Li et al., 2015; Qi et al., 2013; Zeighami et al., 2017). The anterior-posterior and medial-lateral excursion of CPs in healthy subjects could reach 7.1 mm and 5.1 mm in 0°-30° flexion range (Zeighami et al., 2017). This excursion should be taken into account in contact force calculation.

To our knowledge, no study has yet estimated the contact forces along the subject-specific CP trajectories. The objective of the present study is to propose a new method to introduce subject-specific CP trajectories directly at the step of inverse kinematics, through relevant kinematic constraints. Moreover, similar to the anatomical constraints standing for the articular surfaces and ligaments (Moissenet et al., 2012, 2014), the Lagrange multipliers associated to these kinematic constraints stand straightforwardly for the contact forces at the medial and lateral CPs. This allows for a one-step procedure to compute simultaneously musculo-tendon forces and contact forces.

Material and Methods

Musculoskeletal Model

The musculoskeletal model of the lower limb used in the present study is the same as (Moissenet et al., 2014) except for the tibiofemoral joint constraints. The model is parameterized with natural coordinates $\mathbf{Q}_i$ where each segment is defined by two unitary directional vectors and two position vectors (De Jalon and Bayo, 2012; Dumas and Chèze, 2007). It consists of five segments, i.e. foot, shank, patella, thigh, and pelvis ($i = 1, \dots, 5$). The hip joint is spherical and the patellofemoral and ankle joints are parallel mechanisms. Muscular lever arms were computed using the muscular geometry of Delp et al. (1990).

In the present study, the tibiofemoral joint (T) is modeled with five kinematics constraints:

$$\Phi_T^k = \begin{pmatrix} \left(\mathbf{N}_4^{V_4^1}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_4 - \mathbf{N}_2^{V_2^1}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_2 \right) \bullet \mathbf{N}_2^{X_2} \mathbf{Q}_2 \\ \left(\mathbf{N}_4^{V_4^1}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_4 - \mathbf{N}_2^{V_2^1}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_2 \right) \bullet \mathbf{N}_2^{Y_2} \mathbf{Q}_2 \\ \left(\mathbf{N}_4^{V_4^1}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_4 - \mathbf{N}_2^{V_2^1}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_2 \right) \bullet \mathbf{N}_2^{Z_2} \mathbf{Q}_2 \\ \left(\mathbf{N}_4^{V_4^2}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_4 - \mathbf{N}_2^{V_2^2}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_2 \right) \bullet \mathbf{N}_2^{X_2} \mathbf{Q}_2 \\ \left(\mathbf{N}_4^{V_4^2}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_4 - \mathbf{N}_2^{V_2^2}(\theta) \mathbf{Q}_2 \right) \bullet \mathbf{N}_2^{Y_2} \mathbf{Q}_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

with $\mathbf{N}_i^{V_i^j}(\theta)$ the interpolation matrix for the j^{th} virtual marker of the i^{th} segment depending on the tibiofemoral extension-flexion angle θ and with $\mathbf{N}_2^{X_2}$, $\mathbf{N}_2^{Y_2}$, $\mathbf{N}_2^{Z_2}$ the interpolation matrices for the axes of the tibia segment coordinate system. The interpolation matrices, $\mathbf{N}$, allow determining the position of any point (or the orientation of any direction) embedded in the relevant segment knowing its natural coordinates $\mathbf{Q}_i$.

Specifically, these virtual markers (i.e., V_2^1 , V_2^2 , V_4^1 , and V_4^2) correspond to the medial and lateral CPs embedded in the shank and thigh segment, respectively. The position of these CPs is prescribed as a function of the tibiofemoral extension-flexion angle in the same way as the ligament lengths in (Gasparutto et al., 2015; Sancisi et al., 2017). The CP locations are provided in the supplementary material 1. Just like the coupling curves between the degrees of freedom introduced in many MSK models (Arnold et al., 2010; Delp et al., 1990; DeMers et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2008), there are five kinematic constraints at each position in extension-flexion of the joint. The medial CPs of tibia and femur were superimposed in the three directions of space while the lateral CPs of tibia and femur were superimposed only in the $\mathbf{X}$ (anterior-posterior) and $\mathbf{Y}$ (proximal-distal) directions of the shank.

The inverse kinematics step is formulated as:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{Q}} f &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\Phi^m \right)^T \Phi^m \\ \text{subject to } \begin{pmatrix} \Phi^k \\ \Phi^r \end{pmatrix} &= \mathbf{0} \end{aligned} \quad , \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

with the complete definitions of the objective function f , driving constraints Φ^m , kinematic constraints Φ^k , and rigid body constraints Φ^r detailed in (Duprey et al., 2010; El Habachi et al., 2015).

The kinematic constraints Φ^k include all the constraints for ankle (A), patellofemoral (P), tibiofemoral (T) (i.e., Φ_T^k) and hip (H) joints.

The inverse dynamics step is then formulated as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L} & -\mathbf{K}^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{G}\ddot{\mathbf{Q}} - \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{P}, \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

solved by the following optimization procedure:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \lambda_1 \end{pmatrix}} J &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \lambda_1 \end{pmatrix}^T \mathbf{W} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \lambda_1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{subject to } &\begin{cases} \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{K}_2^T} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L} & -\mathbf{K}_1^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \lambda_1 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{K}_2^T} (\mathbf{G}\ddot{\mathbf{Q}} - \mathbf{P} - \mathbf{R}), \\ \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \lambda_1 \end{pmatrix} \geq \mathbf{0} \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

with the complete definitions of the objective function J , the vector of musculo-tendon forces $\mathbf{f}$, the Lagrange multipliers λ , the sub-vector of Lagrange multipliers λ_1 in the objective function, the optimisation weights matrix $\mathbf{W}$, the projection matrix $\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{K}_2^T}$, the matrix of generalised muscular lever arms $\mathbf{L}$, the Jacobian sub-matrix $\mathbf{K}_1$, the matrix of generalised masses $\mathbf{G}$, the vector of generalised accelerations $\ddot{\mathbf{Q}}$, the vector of generalised weights $\mathbf{P}$, and the vector of generalised ground reaction $\mathbf{R}$ detailed in Moissenet et al. (2014).

The two sub-matrices $\mathbf{K}_1$ and $\mathbf{K}_2$ of the Jacobian matrix $\mathbf{K} = \frac{\partial \begin{pmatrix} \Phi^k \\ \Phi^r \end{pmatrix}}{\partial \mathbf{Q}}$ are introduced to select the Lagrange multipliers to be included in the optimization and cancel the others with the projection matrix $\mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{K}_2^T}$. As such, the Jacobian sub-matrix $\mathbf{K}_1$ includes,

among others, the derivatives $\frac{\partial \Phi_T^k}{\partial \mathbf{Q}}$ and the corresponding Lagrange multipliers stand straightforwardly for the contact forces at the medial and lateral CPs and about the axes of the shank segment coordinate system.

The MSK modeling package runs on MatlabTM. The simulation time of the MSK model for a single gait cycle was around 90 seconds.

Experimental protocol

Ten healthy (6 men, 4 women, 55.4 ± 9.5 yrs., 1.67 ± 0.10 m, 71.5 ± 13.3 kg) subjects walked with their comfortable speed on an instrumented split-belt treadmill (AMTI, Watertown, MA, USA) for 45 seconds. A 12-camera VICON system (Oxford Metrics, UK) recorded the 3D motion of the reflective markers mounted on the KneeKGTM (Emovi Inc., Laval, QC, Canada) system. Markers and force platform data were filtered using a 2nd order zero-lag Butterworth filter with automatic estimation of cut-off frequencies (Aissaoui et al., 2006). The joint angular displacements at the hip, knee, and ankle levels were assessed using a functional calibration method (Hagemeister et al., 2005). The joint kinematics and contact forces were normalized to 100% of the stance phase of gait. EMG signals of 8 muscles were collected to find the active/inactive concordance with the estimated Musculo-tendon forces (supplementary material 5). The experimental protocol was approved by the ethics committees of the Centre de recherche (CRCHUM) and the École de technologie supérieure de Montréal (ÉTS).

CP trajectories

Three CP trajectory models were used in the MSK model. The corresponding polynomial equations are presented in the Supplementary material 1.

1) Linear CP trajectory (LCP): This model represents the general assumptions made in many MSK models (Johnson et al., 1981; Lerner et al., 2015; Lloyd and Buchanan, 1996; Morrison, 1970; Saliba et al., 2017; Winby et al., 2009). The contact forces, musculo-tendon forces and joint moment are only balanced in the frontal plane of the tibia at a given distance from the tibial plateau centreline. To build the complying version of the model to the Eq. 1, the tibial CPs were represented by two straight lines in the sagittal plane as in Lemieux et al. (2016). The medial-lateral CP locations were fixed at 20 mm from the centreline and the anterior-posterior location of the CPs was driven by a regression equation as a function of flexion angle (Delp et al., 1990; Nisell et al., 1986).

2) Sphere-on-plane trajectory (SPP): The CP trajectories represent the femur/tibia sphere-on-plane contact mechanism guided by three isometric ligaments. (Duprey et al., 2010; Feikes et al., 2003). The mechanism geometry is based on *in vitro* measurements (Parenti-Castelli and Sancisi, 2013), and was not personalized.

3) Personalized CP trajectory (PCP): The CP trajectories were interpolated from the weighted center of bone-to-bone proximity measured during a quasi-static squatting task. Bi-plane X-ray images of the lower limb were recorded at 0°, 15°, 30°, 45°, and 70° of knee flexion using the EOSTM low-dose imaging system (EOS Imaging, Paris, France). The accuracy of estimating the weighted center of bone-to-bone proximity was reported 2 mm in the anterior-posterior and 3 mm in the medial-lateral directions in a simulation test (Zeighami et al., 2017).

Once the CP trajectories are found in thigh and shank segment coordinate system (as a function of θ), the terms of Eq. 1 are obtained (see Supplementary material 2) using the matrix **B** relating the natural coordinates $\mathbf{Q}_i$ with the segment axes (Dumas and Chèze, 2007).

Statistical Analysis:

One-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to detect statistically significant differences in contact forces estimated using the three CP trajectory methods ($p < 0.05$). Bonferroni post-hoc test detected the pair-wise differences. In the PCP model, a linear correlation test was performed to find the possible correlation between the medial peak forces and the anterior-posterior and medial-lateral locations of the medial CPs, and between the lateral peak forces and the anterior-posterior and medial-lateral locations of the lateral CPs.

Results

The trajectories of PCP and SPP models showed a distinct deviation from the LCP model on the medial and lateral compartments both in medial-lateral and anterior-posterior directions as shown for a sample subject in Figure (1). The CP trajectories had a remarkable impact on the knee joint kinematics as well as the contact forces (Figure 2). However, this impact varied widely among the subjects.

For instance, the first peak of the medial contact forces estimated from the PCP model with respect to the LCP model, increased from 1.43 BW to 2.46 BW in subject N4, whereas it decreased from 1.45 BW to 1.32 BW in subject N2 (Table 1).

The maximum difference in estimating the first medial peak between the PCP and LCP models was 1.03 BW in subject N4, between the PCP and SPP models was 0.65 BW in subject N5, and between the LCP and SPP models was 0.89 BW in subject N1. The maximum difference in estimating the first lateral peak between the PCP and LCP models was 0.64 BW in subject N5, between the PCP and SPP models was 0.25 BW in subject N5, and between the LCP and SPP models was 0.50 BW in subject N8 (Table 1).

The average second peak of the medial contact force was significantly higher in the SPP model (2.88 BW) compared to the LCP (2.07 BW) and PCP (1.87 BW) models ($p < 0.05$). The second peak of the total contact force was also greater in the SPP model, however, the difference was not significant ($p = 0.10$). In general, the LCP and PCP models demonstrated closer estimations compared to the SPP model (Figure 3).

All the medial compartment CPs in the PCP model were located lateral to the LCP model CPs. The first peak medial contact forces in PCP increased in six subjects and slightly decreased in four subjects with respect to the LCP model (Supplementary material 3) (Table 1). Similarly, on the lateral side, the direction of the CP shift could not predict the direction of the change in the lateral contact forces with respect to the LCP model.

The PCP model generally suggested lower medial contact forces when the CPs were more medially located (Figure 4). A moderate positive correlation existed between the peaks of medial contact forces and the medial-lateral location of the medial CPs ($r = 0.53$,

$p < 0.001$). Conversely, no correlation was observed in the lateral compartment (Figure 4). No correlation was found between the peaks of medial ($r=0.14$, $p=0.54$) and lateral ($r=0.1$, $p=0.6$) contact forces and anterior-posterior location of the CPs.

Discussion

The present study focuses on inverse dynamics computational frameworks where the personalization of the joints relies on the kinematic constraints and/or model geometrical parameters. In the literature, the joint kinematics and the position of the CPs appear to be treated independently (Gerus et al., 2013; Lerner et al., 2015; Saliba et al., 2017). In our formulation, it appears clearly that the subject-specific kinematics constraints Φ_T^k and contact forces (i.e., the Lagrange multipliers associated to $\frac{\partial \Phi_T^k}{\partial Q}$) are directly related.

Therefore, the joint kinematics were correspondingly adapted to the subject-specific CP trajectories and contributed to the contact force. Certain knee joint constraints such as sphere-on-plane mechanism could be personalized based on the anatomical measures from bi-plane radiography (Clément et al., 2015, 2017) or MRI (da Luz et al., 2017). However, the kinematics constraints proposed in Eq. 1 are certainly the most versatile ones as they can be deduced from any joint model and geometry. As such, they have been used in the present study to compare two tibiofemoral joints of the literature (Delp et al., 1990; Moissenet et al., 2014) as well as to integrate personalized CP measurements obtained by quasi-static squat (Zeighami et al., 2016). Future works could integrate the personalized CP trajectories obtained from methods such as bi-plane fluoroscopy within the same activity i.e., treadmill walking.

Within the simulated finite element computational frameworks, subject-specific joint models can also be built including detailed deformable geometry. The CP trajectories are therefore not inputs but rather outputs of the model together with the contact forces (Lenhart et al., 2015b; Marouane et al., 2016). It allows these models to simulate relationships between joint structure and mechanics. Nevertheless, the computed CPs could vary from the experimentally measured CPs since several parameters including the stiffness of the ligament with a high impact on the CPs (Lenhart et al., 2015a) cannot be personalized. To our knowledge, the present study is the first to implement the experimentally measured CP trajectories into the inverse kinematics and contact force calculation steps.

Our study showed that using the PCP model in certain subjects increased the estimated peak contact forces up to 1.03 BW (subject N4) and 0.65 BW (subject N5) on the medial and lateral sides compared to the LCP model (Table 1). For these two specific subjects, a remarkable increase in the vastus medialis and vastus lateralis muscle forces were observed in the PCP model, which is not the case in the other subjects (Supplementary material 4). According to the Lerner et al. (2015) gradient, the medial contact force in subject N4 would have increased by 0.44 BW due to 7.4 mm lateral shift of the CP, and the lateral contact force in subject N4 would have decreased by 0.64 BW due to the 10.7 mm lateral shift of the CP. The estimated contact forces could vary largely when different CP trajectory models were used. However, the difference between the average contact forces from the three models was significant only in the second peak of medial contact force (Figure 3). The contact force variations were generally larger on the medial side. The sphere-on-plane model tended to show larger differences with respect to the other two models (Figure 3).

Our results showed that the medial-lateral shift of the CPs alone could not determine the increase/decrease pattern of the contact forces. Lerner et al. (2015) and Saliba et al. (2017) reported that if the CPs were shifted medially the medial contact force would

decrease and the lateral contact force would increase by 1-6% BW/mm. Our results showed that there is no correlation for the lateral contact, yet a moderate relationship existed for the medial contact (Figure 4). Lack of a strong relationship between the contact location shifts and the medial/lateral force was not unexpected in our multifactorial study. In Lerner et al. (2015) and Saliba et al. (2017), the musculotendon forces are first calculated and the joint equilibrium in the frontal plane determines the contact forces. In this study, the musculotendon forces and the contact forces were calculated in one step and the equilibrium was attained in all planes. In addition, the kinematics of the joints was affected by the alteration of the CP trajectories. It has been long known that the contact locations are non-straight subject-specific paths (Ahmed and Burke, 1983) and that the CP locations alter the contact force estimation (Nissan, 1980). Therefore, the change in the CP distance from the tibial plateau centreline was not adequate in estimating the medial/lateral contact force.

Moreover, the CP trajectories are significantly altered in knee pathologies such as osteoarthritis (Farrokhi et al., 2016; Li et al., 2015; Zeighami et al., 2017); yet still most of the MSK models use the LCP-like models to estimate the medial/lateral contact forces both for osteoarthritic subjects and healthy controls (Kumar et al., 2013). Our method may serve to further personalize tibiofemoral joints in the MSK models and to develop a more realistic estimation of contact forces in osteoarthritic population.

The MSK model used in this study was previously validated using knee instrumented implant data (Moissenet et al., 2014, 2016; Moissenet et al., 2015). With the SPP model, it could predict the medial and lateral contact forces with a mean RMSE difference of 0.39 BW and 0.28 BW (Moissenet et al., 2014). Unfortunately, there is no means to validate the PCP model. To check if the results were realistic or not a pseudo-validation using EMG data was used (Supplementary material 5). EMG results revealed no remarkable

difference between the three CP trajectory models yet, the PCP model demonstrated a slightly better concordance with EMG data for rectus femoris and vasti muscle that are two main contributors to the first peak contact force (Moissenet et al., 2017).

The main limitation of this study is the application of CP trajectories extracted from a quasi-static squat into the gait. Indeed, a mismatch between the kinematics of the tibiofemoral joint would result in different CP trajectories. Nevertheless, Gasparutto et al. (2017) synthesized the kinematics of the normal knee during various weight-bearing activities measured by intra-cortical pins and bi-plane fluoroscopy and concluded that the impact of the dynamic activity on the couplings between the joint degrees of freedom was limited. Treadmill walking also creates some differences in the kinematics of the gait (Alton et al., 1998; Murray et al., 1964; Strathy et al., 1983; Warabi et al., 2005). However, this latter applies to all the 3 models used in this study and is not likely to affect the conclusion regarding the difference between the models. The other limitation of this work is the accuracy of the measured CPs. The accuracy of the bone-to-bone proximity estimation was reported $<3\text{mm}$ (Zeighami et al., 2017). The CPs at the five flexion angles were interpolated to find the trajectory as a function of knee extension-flexion that may add further errors. Moreover, cartilage thickness is not uniformly distributed over the joint regions (Favre et al., 2017). Therefore our method relying solely on bone proximity and neglecting cartilage thickness could be biased to predict CPs in regions with minimal cartilage (DeFrate et al., 2004; Marouane et al., 2016). Finally, the definition of the CP has to be clarified. Since there is no practical way to measure the center of pressure in the menisci and cartilage, a weighted center of bone-to-bone proximity was considered as the CP location.

This study introduced a new method to incorporate personalized CP trajectories in the MSK model contact force estimations. Currently, the CP trajectories are based on biplane radiography during squat which is subjected to limitations. But, more precise

dynamic CP trajectories by considering layers of cartilage and menisci tissues could be introduced the same way in the proposed model. The impact of changing the CP trajectories on the medial/lateral contact forces was substantially large and was variable between the medial/lateral compartments and among the subjects. Due to the multifactorial nature of contact force calculations, the medial-lateral shift of the CP distance from the tibial plateau centreline alone could not predict the direction of compartmental contact force changes.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest to report.

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Figure 1 CP trajectories of subject N10 from the three CP trajectory models over the tibial plateau: linear CP (LCP) trajectory (: black), sphere-on-plane (SPP) trajectory (-- blue), and personalized CP (PCP) trajectory (- red) models. The sequence of stance phase events is illustrated on each CP trajectory: first and second peaks of medial (pk1 Med, pk2 Med), first and second peaks of lateral (pk1 Lat, pk2 Lat) contact force, heel strike (HS), toe off (TO), 0° (flx0) and 70° (flx70) knee flexion. The shaded region around the PCP model represents uncertainty of estimating the weighted center of bone-to-bone proximity (± 3 mm) in the medial-lateral direction (Zeighami et al. 2016).

Figure 2 Medial, lateral, and total contact forces as well as the knee extension-flexion (Ext-Flex), adduction- abduction (Add-Abd), Internal-external (Int-Ext) rotations, lateral-medial (Lat-Med), anterior-posterior (Ant-Post), and proximal-distal (Prox-Dist) translations of subject N10 using the linear CP (LCP) trajectory (:black), sphere-on-plane (SPP) trajectory (--blue), and personalized CP (PCP) trajectory (-red) models. The corresponding CP trajectories are presented in Figure (1).

Figure 3 The average (10 subjects) first and second peaks of medial (pk1 Med, pk2 Med) , first and second peaks of lateral (pk1 Lat, pk2 Lat) , first and second peaks of total (pk1 T, pk2 T) contact forces using the linear CP (LCP) trajectory, sphere-on-plane (SPP) trajectory, and personalized CP (PCP) trajectory models. * and @ denote statistically significant differences between the SPP and LCP models and between the SPP and PCP models, respectively.

Figure 4 First (red markers) and second (blue markers) peaks of the medial and lateral contact forces (pk1 Med, pk2 Med, pk1 Lat, pk2 Lat) from the personalized CP trajectory (PCP) model and the location of the personalized CPs at the corresponding events. Coordinates of the points are presented in Table 1 for all 10 subjects. Dashed line represents the regression line on the medial side ($r=0.53$, $p<0.001$). No correlation existed on the lateral side ($r=0.18$, $p=0.43$). Results adapted from two previous sensitivity analysis studies are also presented. The range of CP perturbations were ± 10 mm (from a ± 25 mm position of the CPs with respect to centerline) in Saliba et al. (2017), and ± 4 mm (from a ± 20 mm position of the CPs with respect to centerline) in Lerner et al. (2016).

Table 1 (a) characteristics of the ten subjects in this study. (b) First and second peaks of the medial and lateral (pk1Med, pk2Med, pk1Lat, pk2Lat) contact forces from the linear CP trajectory (LCP) , sphere-on-plane (SPP) trajectory, and personalized CP (PCP) trajectory models, and location of the CPs in medial (M) – lateral (L) and anterior (A) – posterior (P) directions of the tibial plateau at the corresponding events.

subject	(a)				(b)																	
	subject characteristics				LCP(pk1 Med)		LCP(pk1Lat)		SPP(pk1Med)		SPP(pk1Lat)		PCP(pk1Med)		PCP(pk1Lat)							
	Genre	Age (yrs)	Weight(kg)	Height(m)	Medial Contact force (BW)	Medial CP (mm)		Lateral contact force (BW)	Lateral CP (mm)		Medial Contact force (BW)	Medial CP (mm)		Lateral contact force (BW)	Lateral CP (mm)		Medial Contact force (BW)	Medial CP (mm)		Lateral contact force (BW)	Lateral CP (mm)	
						M(+) - L(-)	A(+) - P(-)		M(+) - L(-)	A(+) - P(-)		M(+) - L(-)	A(+) - P(-)		M(+) - L(-)	A(+) - P(-)		M(+) - L(-)	A(+) - P(-)		M(+) - L(-)	A(+) - P(-)
N1	M	39	76.9	1.73	1.9	-20	2.64	1.43	20	1.80	2.79	-23.3	-4.92	1.81	22.2	-5.89	2.32	-8.9	9.41	1.09	13.5	2.22
N2	M	66	54	1.5	1.45	-20	0.90	0.92	20	-0.85	1.36	-23.8	-5.79	1.32	21.5	-8.85	1.32	-14.4	1.86	0.97	18.9	-11.62
N3	M	38	84.5	1.71	1.18	-20	2.30	1.34	20	1.14	1.36	-23.4	-5.07	1.81	22.1	-6.42	1.15	-10.4	13.33	1.8	16.8	5.26
N4	F	57	58.1	1.66	1.43	-20	2.27	1.67	20	0.88	2.09	-23.2	-4.78	1.79	22.2	-6.25	2.46	-12.6	9.97	1.6	22.5	0.90
N5	M	61	81.9	1.81	1.3	-20	1.77	0.76	20	1.74	1.45	-23.5	-5.13	1.15	22.3	-5.70	2.1	-12.7	13.66	1.4	30.6	-0.52
N6	F	60	60.8	1.64	1.01	-20	1.36	1.86	20	0.94	1.44	-23.4	-5.09	2.32	22	-6.82	0.99	-17.9	6.36	2.14	18.5	-3.00
N7	M	61	89.8	1.73	1.69	-20	5.61	0.26	20	5.61	2.08	-22.8	-4.42	0.27	22.7	-0.91	1.78	-15.2	13.17	0.22	17.5	4.30
N8	F	60	58.3	1.56	1.49	-20	4.47	0.99	20	3.19	1.51	-23	-4.56	1.49	22.4	-4.58	1.45	-12.6	10.65	1.2	20.8	4.36

N9	M	59	80.7	1.75	0.71	-20	4.81	1.1	20	3.55	0.66	-23	-4.53	1.37	22.5	-3.67	1.02	-15.2	12.57	0.88	24.8	-0.23
N10	F	53	60.6	1.59	1.59	-20	2.88	0.72	20	2.33	1.94	-23.4	-5.00	1.12	22.2	-6.17	1.67	-14.4	6.40	0.92	20	2.64