

1 **Routine Clinical Motion Analysis: Comparison of a Bespoke Real-Time Protocol to**
2 **Current Clinical Methods**

3 Millar LJ¹, Meng L¹, Rowe PJ¹

4 1. Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow

5 Corresponding author:

6 Lindsay Millar

7 Department of Biomedical Engineering

8 University of Strathclyde

9 Graham Hills Building

10 40 George Street

11 Glasgow

12 G1 0XQ

13 l.clarke@strath.ac.uk

14 +44 (0)141 548 2228

15

16 Word count: 3,059

17

18

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Motion analysis (MA) hardware has recently become more accessible; however, protocols
22 have not developed in conjunction. Routine clinical assessment mostly relies on unreliable
23 observational methods. This study aimed to develop an MA protocol for routine clinical use
24 and compare kinematics and reliability to the gold-standard. Ten participants completed 10
25 over ground walks with a comprehensive marker set (bespoke and gold-standard).
26 Inter/intra-assessor reliability was also compared. Results demonstrated comparable
27 kinematics. Reliability of the bespoke model was lower than the gold standard but higher
28 than observational methods. The bespoke model can be recommended for routine clinical use
29 to assess patient progress and function.

30 **Keywords:** motion analysis; gait; kinematics; reliability

31 **Introduction**

32 Three dimensional motion analysis is the current ‘gold standard’ for measuring human
33 movement (Gage 1993; Cook et al. 2003). A motion analysis protocol can be defined as the
34 process required to extract useful information from a motion analysis session (Ferrari et al.
35 2008). To date, a number of protocols have been well established and validated for use in
36 complex clinical cases and research. Recently, motion capture hardware has become more
37 advanced and more accessible, potentially expanding its use beyond research and complex
38 clinical cases into routine clinical assessment (Carse et al. 2013). However, current use of
39 motion analysis in a routine clinical setting is still limited due to complex and time
40 consuming protocols (Toro et al. 2003). The majority of motion capture laboratories
41 continue to use original protocols and any variations remain restricted to research
42 environments. Furthermore, current protocols rarely allow for real-time measurement; a
43 crucial component of routine clinical assessment, where quick and accurate information about
44 patient function is required.

45 Current routine clinical methods for assessing patient function are mostly carried out using
46 observational methods (Carse et al. 2013). A number of clinically validated observational
47 scores are available which allow classification of gait for patients with pathological
48 movement patterns (Palisano et al. 1997; Read et al. 2003). However, evidence suggests that
49 these methods may not be the most accurate or sensitive way to assess patient progress or
50 measure functional outcome (Kawamura et al. 2007; Ong et al. 2008; Williams et al. 2009).
51 Further, the majority of observational scoring methods have been developed specifically for
52 measurement of gait and therefore are not appropriate for quantifying functional movement
53 or range of motion (ROM) during other activities of daily living. A number of clinicians use
54 manual goniometers to measure active and passive joint ROM using static, end of range
55 poses. While this method is more accurate than observational techniques, there is still
56 significant variability when compared to instrumented measurement methods (Nussbaumer et
57 al. 2010), and furthermore, manual goniometers cannot be used to measure dynamic
58 functional movements.

59 Therefore, there exists both the potential and the need for three dimensional movement
60 analysis in routine clinical assessment. However, in order to achieve this, protocols must be
61 adjusted to suit the needs of a routine clinical environment. The most widely used protocol
62 (Vicon Plug in Gait; PiG; Oxford Metrics Ltd., UK) employs a number of individual skin
63 surface markers which require substantial training and experience to apply correctly. As an
64 alternative, a number of authors have suggested the use of rigid clusters of markers
65 (Cappozzo 1991; Manal et al. 2000), as these are quicker and easier to apply and also allow
66 for different methods of patient calibration; such as functional methods or a digitiser.

67 Few studies have investigated the effects on kinematic output between cluster based protocols
68 and individual marker protocols. However, one study has suggested that the kinematic output
69 is comparable (Collins et al. 2009).

70 While cluster based protocols may offer several advantages over single marker protocols,
71 currently available cluster based solutions are still unlikely to be suitable for routine clinical
72 use as they may still require extensive technical expertise to administer and analyse.

73 Therefore, the aim of this study was to develop a cluster based motion analysis protocol for
74 routine clinical use, capable of delivering 3D kinematics in real-time and also to compare the
75 kinematic output and data reliability to the current clinical motion analysis methods.

76 **Materials and Methods**

77 Figure 1 shows the cluster marker set which was developed for this study (Strathclyde Cluster
78 Model; SCM). Anatomical landmarks (ALs) for calibration (figure 2) are located using a
79 digitiser (a cluster mounted on a pointer).

80 [figure 1]

81 The positions of ALs are stored using the cluster local coordinate system, allowing ‘virtual’
82 markers to be recreated from the moving cluster in real-time. Clusters were tracked using
83 Vicon Nexus (v2.2.3; Oxford Metrics Ltd.,U.K) software and marker positions were streamed
84 into an object orientated movement analysis application development package (D-Flow
85 v3.18; Motekforce Link, Netherlands).

86 [figure 2]

87 Once ‘virtual’ anatomical points had been recreated, all anatomical reference frames were
88 calculated in accordance with the International Society of Biomechanics recommendations
89 (table 1; Grood & Suntay 1983; Wu et al. 2002) and kinematics were calculated using the
90 Grood and Suntay/Cole methods (Grood & Suntay 1983; Cole et al. 1993).

91 [table 1]

92 One advantage of this method over current clinical methods is that once the patient has been
93 calibrated, kinematics are calculated and displayed in real-time (figure 3). This allows the

94 patient to receive immediate feedback on their movement. It may also allow clinicians to
95 make quick, informed, decisions about the best course of treatment or therapy.

96 [figure 3]

97 This study was approved by the ethics committee of the Department of Biomedical
98 Engineering, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK and all participants provided informed
99 consent to take part. Comparison and reliability investigations were carried out for SCM
100 compared to PiG.

101 ***Comparison of Kinematic Output***

102 Ten participants (four males, mean age, 25 ± 3) volunteered to take part and were assessed by
103 one assessor. All participants were able bodied, had normal lower limb function and were
104 able to walk at a self-determined pace for approximately 500m without excess physical
105 exertion or pain. A comprehensive marker set allowed participants to wear both PiG and
106 SCM simultaneously (figure 2). For ease of calibration when using a comprehensive marker
107 set, skin surface markers were used to identify ALs for SCM. There was some overlap
108 between PiG markers and SCM calibration markers, in which case, these markers were used
109 for both protocols. Medial markers were placed on the femoral epicondyles and tibial
110 malleoli for static calibration capture only and were removed for dynamic trials. Single
111 markers were attached by the same assessor for all participants using double sided hypo-
112 allergenic tape.

113 For each participant, a minimum of 10, shod, over ground walking trials were captured at
114 100Hz over a 10m long walkway at a self-selected pace. Data were captured using a 12
115 camera Vicon T-Series motion capture system (Vicon MX Giganet, Oxford Metrics Ltd.,
116 UK). Trial data for each protocol were processed using the respective methods required for
117 each marker set. PiG data were processed using the standard dynamic PiG pipeline in Nexus

118 2.2.3. SCM data were processed in D-Flow using bespoke code. All marker trajectories
119 were filtered with a 4th order Butterworth filter with a cut of frequency of 10Hz. Data
120 reduction and analysis were performed using MATLAB (Mathworks Inc). Comparisons
121 were made between pelvic tilt, obliquity and rotation and also for flexion/extension,
122 abduction/adduction and internal/external rotation for the right and left hip and knee. Right
123 and left ankle dorsi/plantar flexion was also compared. Further, the total excursion of the
124 pelvis and each joint as measured by each model was compared along with a number of
125 typical kinematic parameters (H1 – peak hip extension, H2 – peak hip adduction in stance,
126 K1 – peak knee flexion in loading response, K2 – peak knee flexion in swing, K3 – peak knee
127 abduction in swing, A1 – peak ankle dorsiflexion and A2 – peak ankle plantarflexion).

128 ***Reliability***

129 One able bodied participant (age: 22, mass: 62kg, height: 180cm) and five assessors of
130 varying levels of experience in gait analysis volunteered to take part in a second part of the
131 study. All assessors attended a familiarisation session where procedures and marker
132 placement for each model were outlined. In order to minimise inter session variability, the
133 same participant was used for all sessions and the same clothing and shoes were worn. Each
134 assessor applied the comprehensive marker set once over a two-week period. In this instance,
135 digitiser calibration was used for SCM, in order to also assess the reliability of different
136 calibration methods. Two assessors (assessor two and assessor three) applied both markers
137 sets on three occasions within a two-week period. Walking trials were performed on a
138 treadmill which was set at a fixed speed of 1.18 m/s. A two-minute familiarisation period
139 was followed by 30 seconds of data capture. Marker trajectories were captured using the
140 same motion capture system described above and data were processed using methods for
141 each respective model, as above. Standard deviation (SD) and Intraclass Correlation
142 Coefficient (ICC) were used to compare inter and intra-assessor variability and reliability.

143 **Results**

144 ***Comparison***

145 Similar trends were seen for right and left legs, therefore only data from the right leg is
146 presented. Figure 4 shows mean kinematics ± 2 SD for PiG and SCM outputs for all
147 participants. Overall, agreement was good between the protocols.

148 [figure 4]

149 Pelvic tilt and ankle dorsi/plantarflexion resulted in the best agreement. Worst agreement
150 was observed in hip and knee int/ext rotation. For the hip, SCM estimated greater extension
151 and adduction in stance than PiG and there was little agreement between protocols for hip
152 int/ext rotation. For the knee both protocols estimated similar flexion in stance; however,
153 SCM overestimated flexion and underestimated abduction in swing when compared to PiG.
154 Again, there was little agreement between protocols for knee int/ext rotation. For ankle
155 dorsi/plantarflexion, results demonstrated very similar outputs during stance; however, SCM
156 estimated slightly higher dorsiflexion in swing in comparison to PiG. Table 2 details joint
157 excursion for each model and comparisons between kinematic values at specific stages of the
158 gait cycle.

159 [table 2]

160 For the pelvis, PiG estimated lower excursions than SCM for all rotations, resulting in a
161 significant difference for tilt, obliquity and rotation. There were significant differences
162 between protocols for all hip excursions and also H2 ($P < 0.001$, $\alpha = 0.05$). There were
163 significant differences in all knee excursions. There were also significant differences
164 between protocols for all knee parameters. Best agreement between protocols was observed
165 for the ankle as there were no significant differences between dorsi/plantarflexion excursion
166 ($P = 0.386$, $\alpha = 0.05$) A1 ($P = 0.488$, $\alpha = 0.05$) or A2 ($P = 0.792$, $\alpha = 0.05$) between

167 protocols. Despite the number of significant differences, aside from internal/external rotation
168 data, the average difference in protocols was 3.9° for the parameters calculated.

169 ***Reliability***

170 Inter/intra assessor reliability results are detailed in table 3. Inter assessor SD values were
171 similar for PiG and SCM. The largest difference was observed in knee internal/external
172 rotation. ICC values were good for all PiG outputs except pelvic tilt. SCM also resulted in
173 good ICC values for most parameters, except pelvic tilt and hip internal/external rotation.

174 Intra assessor results for two assessors are also shown in table 3. ICC values for assessor two
175 were similar for PiG and SCM, except for pelvic obliquity (0.97 and 0.04 for PiG and SCM,
176 respectively). Assessor three demonstrated higher ICC values for all pelvic parameters when
177 using PiG compared to SCM. However, for the knee, assessor three demonstrated higher
178 ICC values with SCM compared to PiG.

179 [table 3]

180 **Discussion**

181 The bespoke protocol used in this study (SCM) was developed specifically for routine
182 clinical use. The cluster markers used were designed to be quick and easy to apply and once
183 the participant has been calibrated, kinematics are measured and displayed in real-time. This
184 is an advantage over current protocols for routine clinical assessment as results can be
185 obtained immediately, without the need for offline processing and analysis and hence can be
186 used for immediate feedback to the patient and their care team. The aim of this study was to
187 compare the kinematic output and reliability of SCM to the current clinical gold-standard.
188 For kinematic output, good agreement was observed in the sagittal plane for all joints;
189 however, movements in the other planes highlighted some differences between protocols.
190 For the knee, PiG estimated lower flexion and higher abduction in swing than SCM. PiG
191 measured up to 30° of abduction which is abnormal for a healthy participant (Ferrari et al.

192 2008). This is likely to be due to kinematic crosstalk, where the axes defined by markers are
193 out of plane with the axes about which the rotation is actually occurring, causing one rotation
194 to be mistaken for another (Piazza & Cavanagh 2000). This is a well evidenced issue with
195 PiG data and has been reported previously (Ferrari et al. 2008; McGinley et al. 2009).
196 Internal/external rotation has often been reported as the most variable kinematic output
197 (Karlsson & Lundberg 1994; Holden et al. 1997; Della Croce et al. 1999; Ferrari et al. 2008)
198 and this is reflected in the results obtained in this study. There is little similarity in the
199 pattern of excursion for internal/external rotation at the hip or knee between protocols,
200 although the data are overlapping. The biggest differences in internal/external rotation were
201 observed in swing with PiG estimating greater hip internal rotation than SCM, and PiG
202 estimating knee internal rotation when SCM estimated knee external rotation.

203 In a previous study which compared five gait protocols (Ferrari et al. 2008), results showed
204 hip internal rotation of more than 5° for only one of the five protocols. One protocol
205 estimated external rotation in swing; however, the remaining three protocols measured a
206 change from external to internal rotation of approximately 10°. Results from (Ferrari et al.
207 2008) also demonstrate four out of five protocols estimating knee external rotation in swing,
208 with only one protocol measuring internal rotation. Further, (Czamara et al. 2015) measured
209 four degrees of knee external rotation at the point of maximal knee flexion in swing. This
210 supports the results from (Ferrari et al. 2008) and the results from the SCM model in the
211 current study which demonstrated external rotation in swing. Further, evidence has suggested
212 rotation may be more affected by soft tissue artefact (STA) than flexion or abduction (Manal
213 et al. 2000). Reduced STA from the use of cluster markers in SCM may therefore account
214 for the higher variability in rotation output from PiG when compared to SCM.

215 Generally, inter and intra-assessor reliability was good for both protocols. A notable
216 exception was hip internal/external rotation for SCM, which consistently exhibited poorer
217 ICC values than PiG. However, previous studies have noted lower reliability scores for
218 internal/external rotation than flexion/extension and ab/adduction (Kadaba et al. 1989;
219 Collins et al. 2009) and ICC is known to decrease when the range of physiological changes
220 included is small (3-4° in this case). Pelvic tilt also demonstrated consistently lower ICC
221 scores than other outputs for both PiG and SCM. This is most likely due to inconsistent
222 identification of pelvic landmarks between sessions, as well as the aforementioned limited
223 size of the physiological change involved. The superior/inferior position of the calibration
224 markers on the anterior and posterior superior iliac spines (ASIS and PSIS, respectively) will
225 directly affect the values for pelvic tilt. Identification of pelvic landmarks has demonstrated
226 larger differences between assessors compared to other ALs (Della Croce et al. 1999) and
227 could therefore account for the lower ICC values for pelvic tilt obtained in this study.

228 Assessor three demonstrated lower ICC values than assessor two for almost all outputs.
229 These results could be expected as assessor three had limited experience with PiG and first
230 used SCM during the familiarisation session, whereas assessor two had five years' experience
231 using PiG and three years' experience using SCM. Apart from pelvic outputs and hip
232 flexion/extension, assessor three obtained higher ICC values with SCM than with PiG,
233 suggesting that SCM may be more reliable than PiG for users with limited experience of
234 clinical motion analysis protocols. However, assessor two achieved higher ICC values with
235 PiG than with SCM. These results suggest that experience is likely to play a role in the
236 reliability of motion analysis protocols. It may therefore be suggested that PiG is the most
237 suitable model for experienced users in a controlled laboratory setting, but SCM is more
238 suitable for novice users in a more routine clinical setting. Although some ICC results
239 reported in this study are lower for SCM than PiG, they are still higher than the majority

240 reported for current clinical functional assessment methods which use observational analysis
241 (Kawamura et al. 2007; Ong et al. 2008).

242 Overall, the protocols produced comparable results and it may therefore be suggested that a
243 real-time protocol could serve as a suitable alternative to current clinical motion analysis
244 methods for routine assessment.

245 One limitation of this study is that only healthy individuals were tested. PiG is commonly
246 used by a number of clinical laboratories and is relied upon to provide guidance for
247 intervention prescription including surgical planning (Schwartz & Rozumalski 2005).

248 Currently, SCM has not been tested on pathological individuals and therefore it cannot yet be
249 recommended for general clinical use to replace PiG for the assessment of gait in complex
250 cases such as cerebral palsy. However, it could be recommended to provide an objective
251 assessment method pre and post-intervention in an outpatient rehabilitation clinic or similar
252 setting where the data are less critical. Further, only walking trials were tested. Kinematic
253 values for walking are within certain limits which do not approach the maximum range of
254 each joint. The results cannot predict what would happen if more extreme ROMs were tested
255 such as stair climbing or sit to stand. Reliability results were limited by only two assessors
256 with different experience levels completing intra assessor testing. Future studies should aim
257 to complete intra assessor testing with a range of experience levels.

258 In conclusion, SCM was developed to address some of the issues which prevent use of
259 motion analysis protocols for routine clinical assessment. Kinematic output was comparable
260 to the current gold-standard and reliability results were better than current observational
261 methods. PiG should continue to be used by experienced assessors for research or complex
262 clinical cases; however, SCM is likely to be a suitable alternative for routine analysis in
263 rehabilitation and visual feedback.

264 **Acknowledgements**

265 This work was supported by the University of Strathclyde and the Scottish Government
266 Department of Health Rehabilitation Framework. The authors would also like to
267 acknowledge Dr Andrew Murphy for technical contributions during the development of the
268 SCM protocol.

269 **Declaration of interest**

270 There were no conflicts of interest regarding this study.

271 **References**

- 272 Cappozzo A. 1991. Three-dimensional analysis of human walking: Experimental methods
273 and associated artifacts. *Human Movement Science*. 10:589–602.
- 274 Carse B, Meadows B, Bowers R, Rowe P. 2013. Affordable clinical gait analysis: An
275 assessment of the marker tracking accuracy of a new low-cost optical 3D motion analysis
276 system. *Physiotherapy*. 99:347–351.
- 277 Cole GK, Nigg BM, Ronsky JL, Yeadon MR. 1993. Application of the joint coordinate
278 system to three-dimensional joint attitude and movement representation: a standardization
279 proposal. *J Biomech Eng*. 115:344–349.
- 280 Collins TD, Ghousayni SN, Ewins DJ, Kent JA. 2009. A six degrees-of-freedom marker set
281 for gait analysis: repeatability and comparison with a modified Helen Hayes set. *Gait Posture*.
282 30:173–180.
- 283 Cook RE, Schneider I, Hazlewood ME, Hillman SJ, Robb JE. 2003. Gait analysis alters
284 decision-making in cerebral palsy. *J Pediatr Orthop*. 23:292–295.
- 285 Czamara A, Markowska I, Likowska A, Szopa A, Domagalska Szopa M. 2015. Kinematics
286 of Rotation in Joints of the Lower Limbs and Pelvis during Gait. *BioMed Research*
287 *International, BioMed Research International*. 16:e707168.
- 288 Della Croce U, Cappozzo A, Kerrigan DC. 1999. Pelvis and lower limb anatomical landmark
289 calibration precision and its propagation to bone geometry and joint angles. *Medical and*
290 *Biological Engineering and Computing*. 37:155–61.
- 291 Ferrari A, Benedetti MG, Pavan E, Frigo C, Bettinelli D, Rabuffetti M, Crenna P, Leardini A.
292 2008. Quantitative comparison of five current protocols in gait analysis. *Gait & Posture*.
293 28:207–216.
- 294 Gage JR. 1993. Gait analysis. An essential tool in the treatment of cerebral palsy. *Clin Orthop*
295 *Relat Res*.:126–134.
- 296 Grood ES, Suntay WJ. 1983. A joint coordinate system for the clinical description of three-
297 dimensional motions: application to the knee. *J Biomech Eng*. 105:136–144.

- 298 Holden JP, Orsini JA, Siegel KL, Kepple TM, Gerber LH, Stanhope SJ. 1997. Surface
299 movement errors in shank kinematics and knee kinetics during gait. *Gait & Posture*. 5:217–
300 227.
- 301 Kadaba MP, Ramakrishnan HK, Wootten ME, Gaine J, Gorton G, Cochran GVB. 1989.
302 Repeatability of kinematic, kinetic, and electromyographic data in normal adult gait. *J Orthop*
303 *Res*. 7:849–860.
- 304 Karlsson D, Lundberg A. 1994. Accuracy estimation of kinematic data derived from bone
305 anchored external markers. In: *Proceedings of the 3rd International Symposium on 3D*
306 *Analysis of Human Movement*.:27–30.
- 307 Kawamura CM, de Morais Filho MC, Barreto MM, de Paula Asa SK, Juliano Y, Novo NF.
308 2007. Comparison between visual and three-dimensional gait analysis in patients with spastic
309 diplegic cerebral palsy. *Gait & Posture*. 25:18–24.
- 310 Manal K, McClay I, Stanhope S, Richards J, Galinat B. 2000. Comparison of surface
311 mounted markers and attachment methods in estimating tibial rotations during walking: an in
312 vivo study. *Gait & Posture*. 11:38–45.
- 313 McGinley JL, Baker R, Wolfe R, Morris ME. 2009. The reliability of three-dimensional
314 kinematic gait measurements: A systematic review. *Gait & Posture*. 29:360–369.
- 315 Nussbaumer S, Leunig M, Glatthorn JF, Stauffacher S, Gerber H, Maffiuletti NA. 2010.
316 Validity and test-retest reliability of manual goniometers for measuring passive hip range of
317 motion in femoroacetabular impingement patients. *BMC Musculoskeletal Disorders*. 11:194.
- 318 Ong AML, Hillman SJ, Robb JE. 2008. Reliability and validity of the Edinburgh Visual Gait
319 Score for cerebral palsy when used by inexperienced observers. *Gait Posture*. 28:323–326.
- 320 Palisano R, Rosenbaum P, Walter S, Russell D, Wood E, Galuppi B. 1997. Development and
321 reliability of a system to classify gross motor function in children with cerebral palsy. *Dev*
322 *Med Child Neurol*. 39:214–223.
- 323 Piazza SJ, Cavanagh PR. 2000. Measurement of the screw-home motion of the knee is
324 sensitive to errors in axis alignment. *Journal of Biomechanics*. 33:1029–1034.
- 325 Read HS, Hazlewood ME, Hillman SJ, Prescott RJ, Robb JE. 2003. Edinburgh visual gait
326 score for use in cerebral palsy. *J Pediatr Orthop*. 23:296–301.
- 327 Schwartz MH, Rozumalski A. 2005. A new method for estimating joint parameters from
328 motion data. *Journal of Biomechanics*. 38:107–116.
- 329 Toro B, Nester CJ, Farren PC. 2003. The status of gait assessment among physiotherapists in
330 the United Kingdom. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*. 84:1878–1884.
- 331 Williams G, Morris ME, Schache A, McCrory P. 2009. Observational gait analysis in
332 traumatic brain injury: Accuracy of clinical judgment. *Gait & Posture*. 29:454–459.
- 333 Wu G, Siegler S, Allard P, Kirtley C, Leardini A, Rosenbaum D, Whittle M, D’Lima DD,
334 Cristofolini L, Witte H, et al. 2002. ISB recommendation on definitions of joint coordinate

335 system of various joints for the reporting of human joint motion—part I: ankle, hip, and
336 spine. *Journal of Biomechanics*. 35:543–548.

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

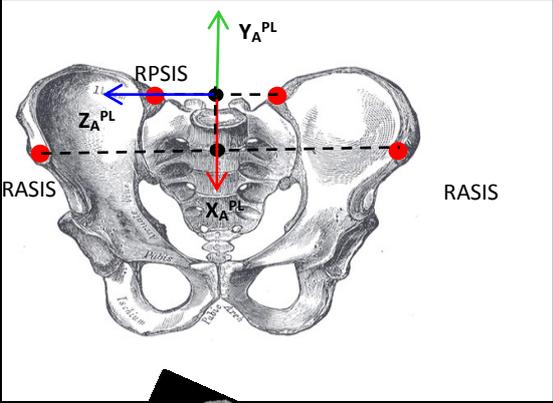
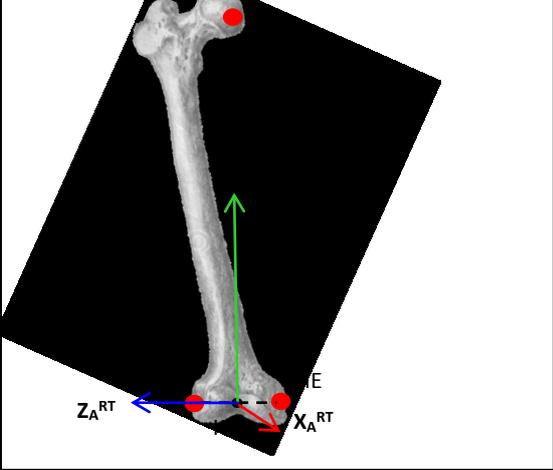
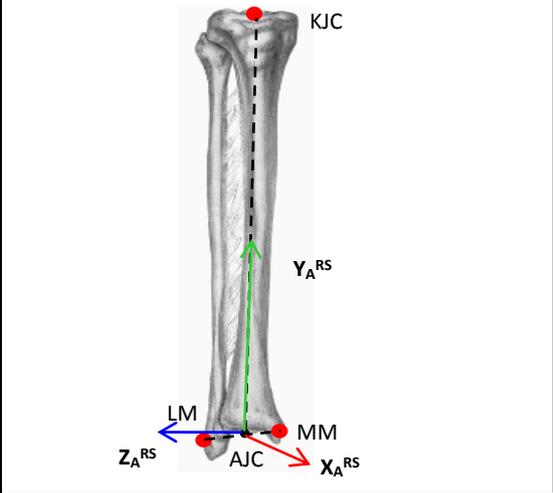
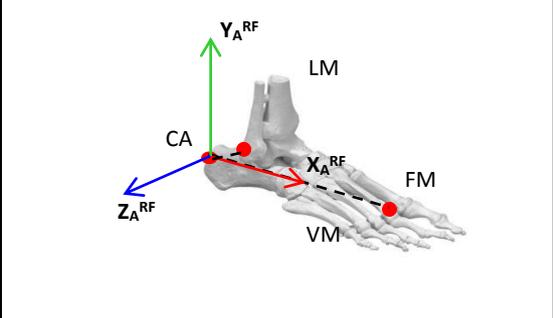
359

360

361

362
363
364
365
366

Table 1. Anatomical reference frame definitions for the pelvis, right thigh, right shank and right foot. Left segments are defined in the same way, with the Z axis always being positive to the right. PSIS – posterior superior iliac spine; ASIS – anterior superior iliac spine; LE – lateral epicondyle; ME – medial epicondyle; LM – lateral malleolus; MM – medial malleolus; CA – calcaneus; FM – first metatarsal; VM – fifth metatarsal; HJC – hip joint centre; KJC – knee joint centre, AJC – ankle joint centre

	<p>Origin: Midpoint between LPSIS and RPSIS</p> <p>X_A^{PL}: $\overset{LPSIS}{\text{Line between the midpoint of the RASIS and LASIS and the midpoint of the RPSIS and LPSIS}}$</p> <p>$Y_A^{PL}$: Mutually perpendicular to X_A^{PL} and Z_A^{PL}</p> <p>Z_A^{PL}: Line between LASIS and RASIS and mutually perpendicular to X_A^{PL} and Y_A^{PL}</p>
	<p>Origin: KJC (midpoint between RME and RLE)</p> <p>X_A^{RT}: Mutually perpendicular to Y_A^{RT} and Z_A^{RT}</p> <p>Y_A^{RT}: Line between HJC and KJC</p> <p>Z_A^{RT}: Line between RME and RLE and mutually perpendicular to Y_A^{RT} and X_A^{RT}</p>
	<p>Origin: AJC (midpoint between RMM and RLM)</p> <p>X_A^{RS}: Mutually perpendicular to Y_A^{RS} and Z_A^{RS}</p> <p>Y_A^{RS}: Line between AJC and KJC</p> <p>Z_A^{RS}: Line between RMM and RLM and mutually perpendicular to X_A^{RS} and Y_A^{RS}</p>
	<p>Origin: CA</p> <p>X_A^{RF}: Line between CA and midpoint between FM and VM</p> <p>Y_A^{RF}: Mutually perpendicular to X_A^{RF} and Z_A^{RF}</p> <p>Z_A^{RF}: Line between CA and LM and mutually perpendicular to X_A^{RF} and Y_A^{RF}</p>

367
368
369

Table 2. Mean (SD) as calculated by each model for hip, knee and ankle parameters for all subjects and corresponding *P* values (Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, $\alpha = 0.05$).

	PiG (Deg)	SCM (Deg)	Difference (Deg)	<i>P</i> Value
PELVIS				
Tilt excursion	7.4(2.7)	10.9(2.2)	3.5	<0.001*
Obliquity excursion	10.1(3.8)	13.6(3.4)	3.5	<0.001*
Rotation excursion	3.8(0.9)	7.8(2)	4	<0.001*
HIP				
Flex/ext excursion	45.1(4.4)	40.1(5.1)	5	<0.001*
Ab/adduction excursion	13.2(2.4)	16.2(2.5)	3	<0.001*
Int/ext rotation excursion	26.9(10.8)	13.3(4.03)	13.6	<0.001*
H1	-12.3(8.1)	-12.1(6.5)	0.2	0.313
H2	6.7(2.8)	8.4(2.9)	1.7	<0.001*
KNEE				
Flex/ext excursion	60.8(5.6)	72.5(3.5)	11.7	<0.001*
Ab/adduction excursion	19.2(7.6)	11.3(4.8)	7.9	<0.001*
Int/ext rotation excursion	25.9(9.8)	13.3(3.9)	12.6	<0.001*
K1	19.9(7.5)	18.5(8.01)	1.4	0.007*
K2	59.01(14.1)	66.7(7.1)	7.69	<0.001*
K3	16.1(8.3)	7.2(4.3)	8.9	<0.001*
ANKLE				
Plantar/dorsiflexion excursion	29.4(2.9)	29.8(3.9)	0.4	0.386
A1	18.01(5.1)	18.2(4.7)	0.19	0.488
A2	-11.5(5.2)	-11.7(5.6)	0.2	0.792

370 H1 – peak hip extension, H2 – peak hip adduction in stance, K1 – peak knee flexion in loading
371 response, K2 – peak knee flexion in swing, K3 – peak knee abduction in swing, A1 – peak ankle
372 dorsiflexion and A2 – peak ankle plantarflexion*statistically significant difference (Wilcoxon Signed
373 Rank, $\alpha = 0.05$)

374
375
376
377
378
379
380
381
382
383
384
385

386 **Table 3.** Standard deviations and Intra Class Correlation Coefficient values for inter/intra assessor
 387 testing

	Inter Assessor SD		ICC		Intra Assessor SD				ICC			
	PiG	SCM	PiG	SCM	PiG		SCM		PiG		SCM	
PELVIS					A2	A3	A2	A3	A2	A3	A2	A3
Tilt	1.92	1.43	0.45	0.38	2.49	1.92	2.66	2.04	0.21	0.32	0.12	0.15
Obliquity	0.83	1.64	0.95	0.78	0.40	1.10	6.20	3.10	0.97	0.84	0.04	0.36
Rotation	0.83	1.43	0.96	0.81	0.60	0.83	0.56	9.92	0.95	0.93	0.88	0.05
HIP												
FL/EX	2.80	2.56	0.99	0.99	3.11	0.59	3.25	2.84	0.97	0.99	0.96	0.97
AB/AD	0.95	1.54	0.96	0.94	1.04	1.86	1.73	3.89	0.90	0.72	0.85	0.37
IN/EX	4.10	3.34	0.94	0.48	3.24	11.45	1.21	6.68	0.94	0.10	0.92	0.37
KNEE												
FL/EX	2.47	2.29	0.99	0.99	1.74	4.80	1.07	2.09	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.99
AB/AD	1.26	1.50	0.99	0.89	1.52	4.40	0.62	1.51	0.97	0.20	0.97	0.64
IN/EX	4.77	1.96	0.91	0.87	2.60	5.41	1.03	1.20	0.94	0.77	0.88	0.86
ANKLE												
FL/EX	2.93	2.26	0.93	0.98	0.69	3.42	1.55	3.14	0.99	0.87	0.98	0.92

388
 389
 390
 391
 392
 393
 394
 395
 396
 397
 398
 399
 400
 401
 402
 403
 404
 405

406

407 **Figure 1.** Comprehensive marker set comprised of SCM and PiG. SCM markers are circled. Single
408 markers were used for PiG and for calibration of SCM. Medial knee and ankle markers were
409 removed for dynamic trials

Figure 2. Landmarks used to define anatomical reference frames in the SCM protocol

Figure 3. Real-time feedback and measurement of kinematics using SCM

Figure 4. Mean kinematic output for all subjects' right legs. PiG (dashed) SCM (solid). Shaded grey
areas represent mean \pm 2SDs. Mean toe off is represented by vertical lines

410

411

412

413

414