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# USING TORQUE-ANGLE AND TORQUE-VELOCITY MODELS TO CHARACTERIZE ELBOW MECHANICAL FUNCTION: MODELING AND APPLIED ASPECTS

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#### ABSTRACT

Characterization of muscle mechanism through the torque-angle and torque-velocity relationships is critical for human movement evaluation and simulation. In-vivo determination of these relationships through dynamometric measurements and modelling is based on physiological and mathematical aspects. However, no investigation regarding the effects of the mathematical model and the physiological parameters underneath these models was found. The purpose of the current study was to compare the capacity of various torque-angle and torque-velocity models to fit experimental dynamometric measurement of the elbow and provide meaningful mechanical and physiological information. Therefore, varying mathematical function and physiological muscle parameters from the literature were tested. While a quadratic torqueangle model seemed to increase predicted to measured elbow torque fitting, a new power-based torquevelocity parametric model gave meaningful physiological values to interpret with similar fitting results to a classical torque-velocity model. This model is of interest to extract modeling and clinical knowledge characterizing the mechanical behavior of such a joint.

- Keywords: maximal joint torque isokinetic dynamometer torque-angle-velocity
   relationship, maximal power velocity, muscle mechanics.
- 3

#### 4 INTRODUCTION

5 Joint strength models are valuable representations of the torque generation 6 capacities of a human, useful in direct assessment as well as in musculoskeletal modeling 7 and analyses of human body. These models assume that muscles are viscoelastic 8 actuators [1-3], resulting at the joint level in Joint Torque-Angle and Torque-Velocity 9 Relationships (JTAR and JTVR respectively, and their coupling JTAVR). Fitting such models 10 to specific subjects while keeping their physiological meaning relevant remains an issue. 11 Basically, models are fitted to isokinetic measurements of joint torques in different angle 12 and angular velocity conditions [1–3].

13 At sarcomere scale, force-length relationship is asymmetrical piecewise linear due 14 to actin and myosin cross-bridge dynamics [4]. At muscle scale, the inter-fiber variability 15 blurs the transient states [5]. At joint scale, muscle-specific non-linear moment arms [6] 16 bring additional transformation into the torque-angle relationship. These observations 17 make it difficult to choose between various JTAR models, and no consensus exists in the 18 literature: normal curve [7,8], quadratic spline [9,10], cubic spline [11], cosinus wave [12], 19 or sinus exponential wave [13]. In a previous study, differences between those models in 20 fitting experimental isokinetic measures have been observed [14], particularly in the 21 eccentric portion of JTAR, evidencing the interaction between angle and velocity in such 22 models. Meanwhile, JTVR is mostly represented with hyperbolic functions [15,16], 23 although it might not cover all the joint velocity range [17].

JTAR and JTVR integrate parameters supposed to be physiologically meaningful.
 At joint scale, parameters reflect partially the muscle physiology, even if the joint reflects

26 the interaction between multiple muscles. For JTAR, maximal isometric torque  $\Gamma_{max}$ , 27 optimal isometric angle  $\alpha_0$ , and maximal range of motion *RoM*, are recurrent parameters. 28 For JTVR, Yeadon et al. 2006 [18] introduced maximal eccentric torque, maximal 29 concentric velocity and technical parameters. Anderson, et al. 2007 [12] added eccentric 30 to concentric force ratio and velocities at 75% and 50% of maximal isometric force within 31 the physiological range. In this last model, the two concentric parameters are dependent; 32 and the model lacks derivative continuity between concentric and eccentric portions that 33 can lead to unrealistic JTAVR fitting to data, particularly exhibiting continuity jumps. As 34 proposed in [19], maximal range of velocity can be useful for JTVR extrapolation in high 35 velocity regions.

36 Besides models fitting issues, physiological significance is useful for interpretation. 37 For example, maximal strength and muscle compositions are useful in ergonomics 38 [20,21]. In sports, specific velocity at maximal power can be a training focus [22]. In clinics, 39 eccentric to concentric strength ratio is an indicator for pathology [23]. Last, 40 musculoskeletal analysis needs such parameters to calibrate models to subjects [24,25]. 41 A direct in-vivo estimation of these parameters remains an issue, since it requires 42 cadaveric, invasive or expensive measurements [24–27]. Joint strength models are 43 therefore useful to get these values indirectly [12,24,28].

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the effects of mathematical models and muscle parameters on JTAR and JTVR from modeling and applied points of views. We assumed that:

47

• [H1] an asymmetrical JTAR can reduce torque prediction errors;

49

• [H2] a new power-based JTVR can improve the physiological relevance of such models.

50 METHODS

#### 51 **Ethics and Participants**

52 Under INRIA national ethics committee agreement (COERLE #2017-002), twenty-two 53 male participants (33±6 years; 1.81±0.07 m; 78±9 kg) gave their informed consent to 54 participate in the study.

#### 55 Isokinetic measurement

Participants seated upright with the arm alongside on a Con-Trex MJ<sup>®</sup> isokinetic dynamometer (CMV AG, Dübendorf, Switzerland) according the manual guidelines (fig. 1). The dynamometer axis was aligned with the elbow flexion axis at 90° for maximum precision. Maximal distance between handle and arm brace without hampering elbow flexion was chosen to minimize elbow displacement away from the dynamometer axis. Similarly, tight straps were used to immobilize thorax. Range of motion was adjusted to the subject.

63 Goniometric measurement was used to calibrate angular values. Three passive flexion-64 extension trials at 60°.s<sup>-1</sup>, 120°.s<sup>-1</sup>, or 180°.s<sup>-1</sup> were recorded for gravity and passive 65 components compensation.

After a ten minutes sub-maximal warm-up, five voluntary flexion or extension hold for five seconds at angles evenly spaced throughout the range of motion were recorded as isometric trials. Then, three repetitions of concentric-passive cycles at 60°.s<sup>-1</sup>, 120°.s<sup>-1</sup>, or 180°.s<sup>-1</sup> or eccentric-passive trials at 60°.s<sup>-1</sup>, 120°.s<sup>-1</sup>, or 180°.s<sup>-1</sup> in flexion and extension

70	were recorded as isokinetic trials. Within subject ranges of motion, reaching isokinetic
71	state limited the maximal velocity to 180°.s <sup>-1</sup> . During 180°.s <sup>-1</sup> trials, subjects were asked
72	to anticipate their effort at the end of the previous passive cycle to decrease delay and
73	ensure a sufficient maximal contraction time during trials. To decrease fatigue effects,
74	trials order was randomized within subjects, flexion and extension trials were alternated,
75	and a 45 seconds rest was respected between each trial. All measurements were collected
76	by the same experimenter. Angle, angular velocity and torque were recorded at 256 Hz.
77	Only data corresponding to isokinetic states were used for analysis, discarding the first
78	milliseconds of trials (215 ms to 355 ms) during which muscle activation is not maximal
79	[18]. For each condition, the repetition with the largest average torque was selected.
80	
81	INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE
82	
83	JTAR models
84	Five JTAR mostly encountered in the literature were implemented as Normal [3,10],
85	Quadratic [11,12], Cosinus [13], Cubic [14] and Sinus-exponential [15] models.
86	Parameters of all these models are the maximal isometric torque $\Gamma_{max}$ , the optimal joint
87	angle $\alpha_0$ and the maximal range of isometric force production <i>RoM</i> . These models are
88	extensively described in the supplementary material and presented in figure 2.
89	

92 JTVR models

Two JTVR models were compared. The Anderson-based model is an adapted version of
[12]. The power-based model is a new polynomial function of the maximal power velocity
and other physiological parameters selected from the literature.

- 96 The Anderson-based model introduces 3 parameters:  $\omega_{\Gamma_{75}}$  Velocity at 75% of maximal
- 97 isometric torque , E Eccentric to concentric torque index and an additional  $\omega_{\Gamma_5}/\omega_{\Gamma_{75}}$

98 ratio as an optimization constraint rather than an arbitrary value as in the original version.

- 99 The power-based model depends on the concentric velocity at maximal power,  $\omega_{P_{max}}$ ,
- 100 because of its unique correlation with muscle composition [29,30].  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  is also used as

101 an inflexion constraint for the concentric part of the JTAR. The model also depends on

102  $\omega_{min}/\omega_{max}$  - Max. eccentric to concentric velocity ratio,  $\Gamma_{ECC}/\Gamma_{CON}$  - Max. eccentric to

103 concentric torque ratio and  $\omega_{max}$  - Maximum concentric velocity at which muscle sustains

104 no more tension [31].

Both models are extensively described in the supplementary material and presented infigure 3.

107

108 INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE

109

#### 110 Fitting models to data

A least-square-curve-fitting method (trust-region algorithm, Matlab<sup>®</sup> Optimization
Toolbox<sup>™</sup>) minimized the quadratic distance between modelled and measured torques
by optimizing models parameters.

114 Isometric, concentric and eccentric parameters were optimized in successive steps as

recommended by [12]. The five JTAR models were tested in the isometric step and were

116 combined with both JTVR models in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> steps.

Since range of motion and acquisition rate were constant for all trial, duration and frame
number varied for each velocity. To guarantee equal weight of all velocities on fitting,
samples of equal number of frames were selected within the algorithm.

#### 120 Models comparison

121 First, models were compared in terms of ability to fit data. Adjusted correlation and linear 122 regression coefficients were compared between all combinations of JTAR and JTVR 123 models. Additionally, a one-way repeated measures Anova was performed to test the 124 effects of JTAR models on isometric torque prediction errors; and a two-way repeated 125 measures Anova was performed to test the effects of JTAR and JTVR models on isokinetic 126 (concentric + eccentric) torque prediction errors. Mauchly normality and sphericity test 127 was performed. Then, the Distribution Cumulative Differences (Matlab® Statistics & 128 Machine Learning Toolbox<sup>TM</sup>) was performed for the Anovas. Results are presented with 129 significance level set to  $p \le .05$  and significance power F.

130 Second, the optimized parameters of all models were compared and confronted to131 literature values.

#### 132 **RESULTS**

133 The significant effects of JTAR and JTVR were not different between flexion or extension

134 motions. Results for both motions are presented together in this section.

135	Torque predicted by cosinus, quadratic, and cubic models displayed larger correlation
136	with experimental data than normal and sinus-exponential models (table 1). Highest
137	correlations were obtained for isometric data. Correlation for concentric data was higher
138	with the power-based model than with the Anderson-based model but lower for eccentric
139	data.

- 140
- 141 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE
- 142

143 Sphericity was verified for all data (p < 0.01). ANOVA revealed that JTAR had significant 144 effects on isometric prediction errors (p < 0.01, F = 3.86). Post-hoc tests attributed the 145 smallest errors to the quadratic model (p < 0.001, Fig 4a). Error increased significantly of 146 0.19, 0.53, 2.67, and 4.25 N.m between cosinus, cubic, sinus-exponential and normal 147 models respectively.

The ANOVA showed an ordinal interaction between these models on average error (p < 0.01, F = 18.36), plus significant effects of JTAR (p < 0.01, F = 13.15) and JTVR (p < 0.05, F = 4.66). Normal and sinus-exponential models still displayed the largest errors - 10% larger than other models - in combination with both JTVR models (Fig. 4b). The power-based model displayed larger overall error than Anderson's model only when combined with sinus-exponential and normal torque-angle models.

154

155 INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE

157	Average isometric parameters obtained with each model are presented in table 2. In
158	flexion, $\Gamma_{max}$ varied between 63 N.m and 69 N.m, $RoM$ varied between 155° and 175°, and
159	$\alpha_0$ varied between 59° and 102°. In extension, $\Gamma_{max}$ between 60 N.m and 66 N.m, $RoM$
160	between 164° and 179°, and $\alpha_0$ between 56° and 99° were obtained in extension.
161	Significant effects of the model were found for $\Gamma_{max}$ and $\alpha_0$ only in extension ( $p < 0.05$ ,
162	$F=2.93$ , and $p<0.01$ , $F=3.90$ respectively). Average $\Gamma_{max}$ obtained with cubic and
163	sinus-exponential models, and average $\alpha_0$ obtained with the normal model, differed by
164	more than 10% from values found in the literature.
165	
166	INSERT TABLE 2 HERE
167	
168	Optimal $\omega_{max}$ , $\omega_{min}$ , and $\omega_{P_{max}}$ obtained from the new model combined to each isometric
169	model are presented in table 3. No statistical effect of the model was found for these
170	parameters.
171	
172	INSERT TABLE 3 HERE
173	
174	Optimal $\Gamma_{ECC}/\Gamma_{CON}$ ratios obtained with both JTVR are presented in table 4. The ANOVA
175	showed an effect of the JTAR, but no effect of the JTVR and an interaction between JTAR

176  $\,$  and JTVR. Differences identified through the post-hoc tests were about 1% of the average

177 ratio values.

#### 179 INSERT TABLE 4 HERE

180

181 Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the capacity of JTAR and JTVR models to represent the elbow mechanical function from modeling and applied points of views. We first compared their ability to fit the experimental data and then interpreted their physiological parameters in comparison to the literature.

186 Differences in fitting experimental data were observed. Both choices of JTAR and JTVR 187 showed statistical effects and interaction on maximal torque prediction. For JTAR, [H1] 188 was not verified, since the asymmetrical models displayed significantly larger errors than 189 two of the symmetrical models (quadratic and cosinus). This may be explained by 190 interactions between maximal forces and moment arms of multiple muscles crossing the 191 elbow [6]. For the elbow joint, the quadratic JTAR appears as the most accurate and 192 adaptable model on a large cohort. Those results might be joint-specific. As reported in 193 our preliminary study [14], average prediction error is increased by the JTVR. Associated 194 with one of the two best JTAR (i.e. guadratic, cosinus, cubic), the power-based and 195 Anderson-based models gave similar prediction levels. Although the new physiological 196 parameters may improve the model meaningfulness, it did not improve its compliance to 197 fit measured data. Especially, the additional constraint added to ensure derivative 198 continuity between concentric and eccentric parts of the model seemed to decrease 199 eccentric fitting efficiency of the model. However, it ensured that the torque envelope 200 generated by the fitting method was continuous, that may not be the case with the

201 Anderson-based one. Globally, correlations between measured and predicted JTAVR 202 were weaker in the current study than in other studies in the literature that focused on 203 lower limbs [14,21]. This result may be due to the larger anatomical variability of the 204 upper limb. Moreover, larger misalignment between elbow and dynamometer axes may 205 arise during motion because of the equipment, since the arm position cannot be as 206 controlled as the thigh on the dynamometer. Quantification and correction of this 207 problem could improve the fitting quality and the subsequent parameter estimation. 208 Specific joint strengths models dedicated to fitting may also have been of interest to be 209 tested here [5,36]

210

211 For applied perspectives, physiological parameters obtained through optimization of the 212 models seem coherent with the literature. For a group of young healthy men, maximal 213 isometric torque  $\Gamma_{max}$  between 63 N.m and 69 N.m in flexion [2,32], and balanced flexion-214 extension ratios between .95 and .97 are similar to literature [2,33]. Range of motion RoM 215 obtained with all models is larger than the anatomical reference [34], probably due to an 216 extrapolation of muscle strength beyond realistic elbow configuration due to bony limits. 217 Average optimal angle,  $\alpha_0$ , obtained for elbow flexion and extension with all models are consistent with the literature [35–37]. For both flexion and extension,  $\alpha_0$  found for normal 218 219 (79°,76°), cosinus (77°,72°), and quadratic (77°,72°) models was close to classically 220 observed average angles [38,39], while cubic (59°,56°) and sinus-exponential (112°,99°) 221 models values were at boundaries. Only  $\Gamma_{max}$  obtained with cubic and sinus-exponential 222 models, and  $\alpha_0$  obtained with the normal model differed by more than 10% from 223 literature values [32,38].

224 Concerning concentric and eccentric parameters, concentric velocity at maximal power, 225  $\omega_{P_{max}}$ , was our focus. Due to its relationship with muscle composition [30], linking 226 mechanical and physiological muscle functions, the implementation of this parameter in 227 the model seemed interesting for applications in sports, rehabilitation or ergonomics [40]. Optimized  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  values, between 404°.s<sup>-1</sup>, and 561°.s<sup>-1</sup>, are about two times larger than 228  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  values only based on isokinetic dynamometer for thigh muscles [29]. Previous study 229 showed that measured  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  correlated better (r=.55) with fiber composition when 230 231 corrected with a Hill-type model as in our study [41] and could have values between 232 215°.s<sup>-1</sup> and 539°.s<sup>-1</sup>. Although correlations are seen, only 51.8% of the fiber composition variance was explained by  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  [42]. For further work, a combination of  $\omega_{P_{max}}$ 233 234 measurements with Hill-model correction and electromyography could be investigated 235 [43] and a validation of muscle composition prediction through this technique should be 236 performed.

For the other concentric and eccentric parameters, maximal concentric velocity,  $\omega_{max}$ , between 1268°.s<sup>-1</sup> and 1531°.s<sup>-1</sup> in flexion and, 1368°.s<sup>-1</sup> and 1667°.s<sup>-1</sup> in extension were found. That lays below values reported for baseball players, middle-aged, and elderly men respectively [43,44]. The normal and sinus-exponential models produced the smallest values. For maximal eccentric velocity,  $\omega_{min}$ , no conclusive reference data were found. In general, physiological parameters related to velocity were obtained by extrapolation of our model beyond highest velocity measured in this study. Since no direct measurement

244	for much higher velocities was possible with such dynamometers, these values cannot be
245	directly validated.

246 Since the degree of meaningfulness of the power-based JTVR was higher, without 247 decreasing significantly the data fitting, **[H2]** seemed verified.

248

To conclude, five JTAR and two JTVR were compared when fitting experimental dynamometric measurements from modelling and applied perspectives. While a quadratic torque-angle model fitted best the data, a new proposed JTVR increased physiological transparency and clinical relevance without decreasing significantly the data fitting. The study highlights the needs for improvement of dynamometric measurement accuracy for the upper limb and the importance of the meaningfulness of the physiological parameters to be optimized when fitting these models to data.

256

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258

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261

CONFLICT OF INTEREST
The authors encountered no conflict of interest for the current study.

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#### **Figure Captions List**

- Fig. 1 Experimental set up. The participant is seated and attached to the ConTrex dynamometer in upright position with the arm along his side. The axis of the dynamometer is aligned with the epicondylitis axis with the elbow flexed at 90°.
- Fig. 2 Normalized torque-angle relationship as defined by the five mathematical models: normal, cosinus, and quadratic models are symmetrical; cubic and sinus-exponential are asymmetrical.
- Fig. 3 Normalized torque-velocity models and constraint parameters: in the Anderson-based model (A), we find one derivative constraint at  $\omega_{max}$ , two independent constraints at  $-\omega_{max}$  and  $\omega_0$ , and two dependant constraints at  $\omega_{\Gamma,5}$  and  $\omega_{\Gamma,75}$ ; in our power-based model (B), we defined three derivative constraints and three independent constraints at  $\omega_{max}$ ,  $\omega_{max}$ , and  $\omega_0$ , and an additional derivative constraints at  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  on the power-velocity relationship.
- Fig. 4 Effects of torque-angle models (A) and interaction between the torque-angle and torque-velocity models (B) on average prediction errors.
  Colored stars represent individuals (one color = one subject). Black dots, blue dots and red diamonds represent the average of all individuals.
  Asterisks indicate significant difference between means.

390 391

392 393	Table Caption List											
	Table 1	Adjusted correlation coefficients between measured and predicted										
		maximal torque for all models in elbow flexion and extension for each type										
		of data: isometric, concentric and eccentric.										
	Table 2	Optimal elbow torque-angle parameters obtained with the five isometric										
		models.										
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		based model and the new model combined with each of the five isometric										
		models.										

- 395 Figure 1– Experimental set up. The participant is seated and attached to the ConTrex
- 396 dynamometer in upright position with the arm along his side. The axis of the
- 397 dynamometer is aligned with the epicondylitis axis with the elbow flexed at 90°.



- 400 Figure 2 Normalized torque-angle relationship as defined by the five mathematical
- 401 models: normal, cosinus, and quadratic models are symmetrical; cubic and sinus-
- 402 exponential are asymmetrical.



Figure 3 – Normalized torque-velocity models and constraint parameters: in the Anderson-based model (A), we find one derivative constraint at  $\omega_{max}$ , two independent constraints at  $-\omega_{max}$  and  $\omega_0$ , and two dependant constraints at  $\omega_{\Gamma,5}$  and  $\omega_{\Gamma,75}$ ; in our power-based model (B), we defined three derivative constraints and three independent constraints at  $\omega_{max}$ ,  $\omega_{max}$ , and  $\omega_0$ , and an additional derivative constraints at  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  on the power-velocity relationship.



Figure 4 – Effects of torque-angle models (A) and interaction between the torque-angle and torque-velocity models (B) on mean errors computed as the average difference between maximal torque measured on the dynamometer and maximal torque predicted by the models. Colored stars represent individuals (one color = one subject). Black dots, blue dots and red diamonds represent the average of all individuals. Asterisks indicate significant difference between means.



- 421 Table 1. Adjusted correlation coefficients between measured and predicted maximal
- 422 torque for all models in elbow flexion and extension for each type of data: isometric,
- 423 concentric and eccentric.

R <sup>2</sup>			Normal	Cosinus	Quadratic	Cubic	Sinus- exponential
Anderson -based model	flexion	lsometric Concentric Eccentric	.62 .58 .75	.86 .62 .75	.87 .62 .75	.84 .61 .74	.74 .61 .77
	extension	lsometric Concentric Eccentric	.66 .74 .71	.88 .75 .77	.89 .75 .77	.87 .76 .76	.75 .74 .74
Power- based model	flexion	lsometric Concentric Eccentric	.62 .64 .60	.86 .70 .64	.87 .70 .64	.84 .68 .62	.74 .68 .64
	extension	lsometric Concentric Eccentric	.66 .81 .64	.88 .85 .70	.89 .85 .70	.87 .85 .70	.75 .82 .67

425 Table 2. Optimal elbow torque-angle parameters obtained with the five isometric models.

$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma_{max} [\text{N.m}] \\ \hline \\ RoM [^{\circ}] \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \end{array}$			Norm	al		Cosinus		Quadratic		Cubic			Sinus-exp				
ION	$\Gamma_{max}$ [N	N.m]	69	±	13	63	±	11	63	±	11	64	±	11	66	±	12
	<b>RoM</b> [°]	]	175	±	17	160	±	33	155	±	34	167	±	28	173	±	24
FLEX	<b>α</b> <sub>0</sub> [°]	]	79	±	10	77	±	13	77	±	14	102	±	12	59	±	10
ON	Γ <sub>max</sub> [Ν	N.m]	66	±	18	60	±	16	60	±	16	61	±	17	64	±	18
EXTENSI	<b>RoM</b> [°]	]	179	±	4	167	±	27	164	±	30	169	±	23	173	±	20
	<b>α</b> <sub>0</sub> [°]	]	76	±	9	72	±	11	72	±	11	99	±	10	56	±	9

426 Values displayed in the table correspond to: means ± standard deviations.

- 429 Table 3. Optimal elbow torque-velocity parameters of the new model obtained with the
- 430 five isometric models. Values displayed in the table correspond to: means ± standard
- 431 deviations.

Torque	angle model	Normal		Cosinus		Quadratic		Cubic		Sinus-exp					
	$\boldsymbol{\omega_{max}}$ [°.S <sup>-1</sup> ]	1268±	514	1517	±	544	1531	±	548	1492	±	567	1331	±	507
NON	<i>ω<sub>min</sub></i> [°.S <sup>-1</sup> ]	-173 ±	87	-301	±	276	-369	±	500	-330	±	477	-238	±	241
FLEY	$\omega_{P_{max}}$ [°.S <sup>-1</sup> ]	404 ±	231	495	±	242	502	±	500	490	±	255	426	±	225
NC	$\boldsymbol{\omega_{max}}$ [°.S <sup>-1</sup> ]	1368±	647	1636	±	747	1667	±	754	1605	±	738	1458	±	683
ENSIG	$\omega_{min}$ [°.s <sup>-1</sup> ]	-297 ±	329	-509	±	464	-531	±	482	-536	±	530	-391	±	410
EXTI	$\omega_{P_{max}}$ [°.S <sup>-1</sup> ]	432 ±	291	551	±	343	563	±	347	537	±	337	473	±	305

- 434 Table 4. Optimal elbow eccentric to concentric ratios obtained with Anderson-based
- 435 model and the new model combined with each of the five isometric models. Values
- 436 displayed in the table correspond to: means ± standard deviations.

			Normal	Cosinus	Quadratic	Cubic	Sinus-exp	
FLEXION	Γ <sub>ECC</sub> /Γ <sub>CON</sub>	Anderson- based	1.17 ±0.07	1.18 ±0.08	1.18 ±0.08	1.18 ±0.08	1.18 ±0.08	
		$\omega_{max}$ -based	1.16 ±0.15	1.20 ±0.21	1.20 ±0.22	1.20 ±0.21	1.17 ±0.16	
EXTENSION	Γ <sub>ECC</sub> /Γ <sub>CON</sub>	Anderson- based	1.21 ±0.10	1.22 ±0.10	1.22 ±0.10	1.22 ±0.10	1.21 ±0.10	
		$\omega_{max}$ -based	1.17 ±0.15	1.34 ±0.30	1.32 ±0.30	1.31 ±0.29	1.21 ±0.20	

# 439 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL 440 USING TORQUE-ANGLE AND TORQUE-VELOCITY MODELS TO 441 CHARACTERIZE ELBOW MECHANICAL FUNCTION: MODELING 442 AND APPLIED ASPECTS 443 Diane Haering, Charles Pontonnier, Nicolas Bideau, Guillaume Nicolas, Georges 444 Dumont

Dumont

submitted to Journal of Biomechanical Engineering.

For the purpose of concision, the mathematical models used in the paper are extensivelypresented here.

449 450

445

446

# 1. Joint Torque Angle Relationships (JTAR)

451

Normal [8]	$\Gamma(\bar{\alpha}) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}(6\bar{\alpha})^2}$	(1)
	$I(\alpha) = c$	

Cosinus [12] 
$$\Gamma(\bar{\alpha}) = cos(\pi\bar{\alpha})$$
 (2)

Quadratic [9,15] 
$$\Gamma(\bar{\alpha}) = -4\bar{\alpha}^2 + 1$$
 (3)

Cubic [11] 
$$\Gamma(\bar{\alpha}) = \frac{27}{4}\bar{\alpha}^3 - \frac{27}{8}\bar{\alpha}^2 - \frac{27}{16}\bar{\alpha} + \frac{27}{32} \quad (4)$$

Sinus-exponential [13] 
$$\Gamma(\bar{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2}sin(1.919\pi e^{\bar{\alpha}}) + \frac{1}{2}$$
 (5)

452 In all of these models, the normalized maximal torque ( $\overline{\Gamma} = \frac{\Gamma}{\Gamma_{max}}$ ) depended on the maximal

453 isometric torque and on the joint angle to optimal joint angle distance normalized by the maximal

454 range of isometric force production ( $\overline{\alpha} = \frac{\alpha - \alpha_0}{R_0 M}$ ) as presented in table 1. Those models are shown

455 in figure 1. All coefficients used for the normal, quadratic, cubic and sinus-exponential models

- 456 were obtained by solving the system of equations expressing the following constraints:
- 457  $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}(\overline{\alpha}_{\mathbf{0}}) = 1$ ,
- 458  $\overline{\Gamma}(\overline{\alpha}_{min}) = 0,$
- 459  $\overline{\Gamma}(\overline{\alpha}_{max}) = 0$ , and
- 460  $\bar{\alpha}_{max} \bar{\alpha}_{min} = 1; \bar{\alpha}_{max}$  and  $\bar{\alpha}_{min}$  being normalized values of maximal and minimal angles.



462
463 Figure 1 – Normalized torque-angle relationship as defined by the five mathematical
464 models: normal, cosinus, and quadratic models are symmetrical; cubic and sinus465 exponential are asymmetrical.

	•		468			
Parameters		Limits	469 470			
			171			
Γ <sub>max</sub>	Max. isometric torque	0.75 Г <sub>теаs</sub>	1.25 47 2us			
			473			
RoM	Max. isometric range of motion	0	$\frac{4}{\pi}74$			
		-	475			
			476			
$\alpha_0$	Isometric optimal angle	$\pi/6$	5724767			
			478			

#### *Table 1: JTAR parameters*

# 482 483 **2. Joint Torque Velocity Relationships (JTVR)**

- 484 **2.1.JTVR parameters**485
- 486 This section presents the parameters exploited in the models presented below.

## 487 *Table 2. JTVR parameters*

Model	Parameters				Limits	
Anderson-based	<i>P</i> <sub>1</sub>	$\omega_{\Gamma_{.75}}$	Velocity at 75% of maximal isometric torque	0	π	
torque-velocity						
model	<i>P</i> <sub>2</sub>	$\omega_{\Gamma_{.5}}/\omega_{\Gamma_{.75}}$	Ratio between velocities at 50% and 75% of	1.9	2.1	
			maximal isometric torque			
	<i>P</i> <sub>3</sub>	Е	Eccentric to concentric torque index	. 1	.8	
Power-based torque-	$P_1$	$\omega_{max}$	Max. concentric velocity	π/3	5π	
velocity model						
-	<i>P</i> <sub>2</sub>	$\omega_{P_{max}}$	Velocity at maximal power	0.25	0.4	
	<i>P</i> <sub>3</sub>	$\omega_{min}/\omega_{max}$	Max. eccentric to concentric velocity ratio	-1	-0.1	
	$P_4$	$\Gamma_{ECC}/\Gamma_{CON}$	Max. eccentric to concentric torque ratio	1.1	1.8	

488

### 2.2. Anderson-based model

489 490

491

$$\begin{cases} \Gamma(\omega) = \frac{2P_1P_2 + \omega(P_2 - 3P_1)}{2P_1P_2 + \omega(2P_2 - 4P_1)}, & \omega \ge \mathbf{0} \\ \Gamma(\omega) = \left(\frac{2P_1P_2 + \omega(P_2 - 3P_1)}{2P_1P_2 + \omega(2P_2 - 4P_1)}\right)(1 - P_3\omega), & \omega < \mathbf{0} \end{cases}$$
(1)

492 where  $P_1$  is the velocity at 75% of maximal isometric torque,  $P_2$  is the ratio between velocities at 493 50% and 75% of maximal isometric torque, and  $P_3$  is a maximal eccentric to maximal concentric 494 torque index.

## 496 **2.3.Power-based torque-velocity model**

497 
$$\begin{cases} \Gamma(\overline{\omega}) = 0, \quad \mathbf{1} \leq \overline{\omega} \\ \Gamma(\overline{\omega}) = a_1 \overline{\omega}^3 + b_1 \overline{\omega}^2 + c_1 \overline{\omega} + d_1, \quad \mathbf{0} \leq \overline{\omega} < \mathbf{1} \\ \Gamma(\overline{\omega}) = a_2 \overline{\omega}^3 + b_2 \overline{\omega}^2 + c_2 \overline{\omega} + d_2, \quad \mathbf{P}_3 \leq \overline{\omega} < \mathbf{0} \\ \Gamma(\overline{\omega}) = P_4, \quad \overline{\omega} < \mathbf{P}_3 \end{cases}$$
(2)

498 with:

499 
$$\overline{\omega} = \frac{\omega}{P_1},$$

500 
$$a_1 = -\frac{3P_2^2 - 4P_2 + 1}{4P_2^3 - 6P_2^2 + 2P_2},$$

501 
$$b_1 = \frac{2P_2^3 - 3P_2 + 1}{2P_2^3 - 3P_2^2 + P_2},$$

502 
$$c_1 = \frac{8P_2{}^3 - 9P_2{}^2 + 1}{4P_2{}^3 - 6P_2{}^2 + 2P_2},$$

503 
$$d_1 = 1$$
,

504 and

505 a<sub>2</sub>

506 
$$= -\frac{P_3 - 4P_2 - 9P_2{}^2P_3 - 12P_2{}^2P_4 + 8P_2{}^3P_3 + 8P_2{}^3P_4 + 12P_2{}^2 - 8P_2{}^3 + 4P_2P_4}{2P_3{}^3(2P_2{}^3 - 3P_2{}^2 + P_2)},$$

507 
$$b_2 = \frac{2P_2^3 - 3P_2 + 1}{2P_2^3 - 3P_2^2 + P_2},$$

508 
$$c_2 = \frac{8P_2{}^3 - 9P_2{}^2 + 1}{4P_2{}^3 - 6P_2{}^2 + 2P_2},$$

509

510 where  $P_1$  is the maximal concentric velocity,  $P_2$  is the velocity at maximal power,  $P_3$ 511 is maximal eccentric velocity to maximal concentric velocity ratio, and  $P_4$  is the 512 maximal eccentric to maximal concentric torque ratio.

 $d_2 = 1$ ,

513





Figure 2 – Normalized torque-velocity models and constraint parameters: in the Anderson-based model (A), we find one derivative constraint at  $\omega_{max}$ , two independent constraints at  $-\omega_{max}$  and  $\omega_0$ , and two dependant constraints at  $\omega_{\Gamma,5}$  and  $\omega_{\Gamma,75}$ ; in the power-based model (B), we defined three derivative constraints and three independent constraints at  $\omega_{max}$ ,  $\omega_{max}$ , and  $\omega_0$ , and an additional derivative constraints at  $\omega_{P_{max}}$  on the power-velocity relationship.



**3.1.** Joint Torque Angle Relationships



528
529 Figure 3 – Example of comparison between normal, cosines, quadratic, cubic and sinus

530 exponential JTAR models fitting on isometric maximum torque measurements (black squares).

# 532 **3.2.** Joint Torque Angle & Joint Torque Velocity Relationships 533



Figure 4 – Example of a combined JTAR and JTVR model mesh fitting on isometric maximum
(dots) and isokinetic (lines) torque measurements for a. elbow flexion, and b. elbow extension.