

1 **The effect of simulated marker misplacement on the interpretation**
2 **of inter-limb differences during a change of direction task**

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19 **Abstract**

20

21 The objective assessment of biomechanical asymmetries during movement tasks is
22 used to monitor rehabilitation following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction
23 (ACLR). Marker placement is an important source of methodological variability within
24 human motion analysis. It is currently unclear how marker placement error effects
25 the interpretation of biomechanical asymmetries throughout post ACLR
26 rehabilitation. The aim of this investigation was to determine the effect of random
27 marker placement variation on the interpretation of inter-limb differences during a
28 change of direction (CoD) task. Forty-seven participants 9 months post-ACLR and
29 fifty uninjured controls completed a 90° CoD task on both limbs. Inter-limb
30 differences in kinematic and kinetic metrics during the CoD stance phase were
31 calculated for both groups using the Vicon Plug-in Gait model, and ACLR subjects
32 were classified as having 'normal' or 'abnormal' inter-limb differences relative to the
33 control group. Simulated random marker displacements based on published marker
34 placement error ranges were then repeatedly applied to the lateral thigh, femoral
35 epicondyle and tibia markers. ACLR inter-limb differences were recalculated each
36 time, allowing the estimation of 95% confidence intervals and minimal identifiable
37 between-session changes. ACLR subjects were also reclassified relative to the
38 control group after each simulation and the percentage of participants to change
39 classification was calculated. Marker displacements caused large deviations in inter-
40 limb difference measures in several variables including hip rotation angle, knee
41 abduction angle and knee abduction moment, thus limiting the ability to identify
42 participants with large inter-limb differences relative to a control group. These
43 findings highlight the challenges in using marker-based biomechanical models to
44 conduct objective assessments of inter-limb differences during CoD tasks.

45 **Introduction**

46 Following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction (ACLR), inter-limb differences in
47 kinematic and kinetic measures have been observed across various tasks including
48 walking (Wellsandt et al. 2016; White, Logerstedt, and Snyder-Mackler 2013),
49 running (Kline et al. 2016), jumping (Jordan, Aagaard, and Herzog 2015; Orishimo et
50 al. 2010), landing (Gokeler et al. 2010; Orishimo et al. 2010) and change of direction
51 (CoD) (King et al. 2019; King, Richter, Franklyn-Miller, Daniels, Wadey, Jackson, et
52 al. 2018). Individuals exhibiting large inter-limb differences are believed to be at
53 increased risk of negative long-term outcomes, including the development of
54 osteoarthritis and re-injury (Paterno et al. 2010; Wellsandt et al. 2016). Objective
55 assessment of inter-limb differences is proposed as a means of monitoring
56 rehabilitation post ACLR (Jordan, Aagaard, and Herzog 2015; Myer, Ford, and
57 Hewett 2011; Oberländer et al. 2013; Paterno et al. 2007). Implementing such
58 assessments in a clinical environment necessitates that the metrics of interest be
59 reliable and robust to methodological sources of variability.

60 Data from human motion analysis are prone to error from multiple sources, including
61 instrumental errors, soft tissue artefact and inaccurate placement of anatomical
62 markers (Schwartz and Dixon 2018). Error in marker placement is recognized as a
63 key source of methodological variability, with low between-session reliability
64 measures attributed to variation in marker positions between sessions (Alenezi et al.
65 2016; Baker, Finney, and Orr 1999a; Fonseca et al. 2020; Ford, Myer, and Hewett
66 2007; Gorton, Hebert, and Gannotti 2009; Groen et al. 2012; Kadaba et al. 1989;
67 McGinley et al. 2009; Szczerbik and Kalinowska 2011). Experimental studies
68 conducted in walking attribute large errors in calculated joint angles and moments to
69 erroneous marker placement (Groen et al. 2012; Szczerbik and Kalinowska 2014).

70 Extrapolating findings from studies conducted in walking directly to different tasks is
71 challenging. The effect of marker placement error is likely task specific, with features
72 such as sagittal plane range of motion and walking speed shown to influence the
73 observed effect of marker placement (Baker, Finney, and Orr 1999a; Cockcroft,
74 Louw, and Baker 2016; Groen et al. 2012; Szczerbik and Kalinowska 2011). Despite
75 the use of marker-based biomechanical models to study various lower-limb
76 movement tasks, previous research examining marker placement has focused
77 primarily on walking (Baker, Finney, and Orr 1999a; Cockcroft, Louw, and Baker
78 2016; Groen et al. 2012; Szczerbik and Kalinowska 2011).

79 CoD tasks are commonly examined in studies related to ACL injury and rehabilitation
80 (King et al. 2019; McLean, Huang, and Van Den Bogert 2005; Pollard, Sigward, and
81 Powers 2007; Dos Santos et al. 2018; Sigward and Powers 2007; Stearns and
82 Pollard 2013). CoD manoeuvres are ubiquitous in field based sports, mechanically
83 demanding and reported as the most common mechanism of non-contact ACL injury
84 (Geli-Alentorn et al. 2009; Olsen et al. 2004). Recent research identified multiple
85 inter-limb differences during CoD tasks at 9 months post ACLR despite no statistical
86 difference in performance times between limbs (King, Richter, Franklyn-Miller,
87 Daniels, Wadey, Jackson, et al. 2018). Inter-limb differences were observed in
88 variables associated ACL injury, suggesting their assessment may be relevant to
89 rehabilitation. It is unclear how error in marker placement influences the ability to
90 identify and monitor such inter-limb differences. Were marker placement error to
91 cause substantial changes to inter-limb differences and their interpretation, it could
92 result in an individual returning to play despite the continued presence of deficits that
93 place them at increased risk of injury.

94 The conventional gait model (CGM) is a widely used marker-based biomechanical
95 model originally developed for use in clinical gait analyses (Kadaba, Ramakrishnan,
96 and Wooten 1989). While alternative modelling techniques are more commonly used
97 for dynamic tasks, the CGM has nevertheless been used in the analysis of a broad
98 range of CoD tasks (Franklyn-Miller et al. 2016; Marshall et al. 2014; Pollard,
99 Sigward, and Powers 2007; Stearns and Pollard 2013). In the CGM, the
100 anterior/posterior positions of markers on the lateral thigh (THI), lateral femoral
101 epicondyle (KNE) and lateral tibia (TIB) directly influence calculated kinematics and
102 kinetics at the hip, knee and ankle (Baker, Finney, and Orr 1999; Groen et al. 2012;
103 Kadaba, Ramakrishnan, and Wooten 1989; Stagni et al. 2000). Previous studies
104 examining these marker positions have tended to implement fixed, systematic
105 marker displacements, whereby a marker's position is moved by a set amount from
106 its original position and the subsequent effect on model outputs is examined. (Baker,
107 Finney, and Orr 1999b; Cockcroft, Louw, and Baker 2016; Groen et al. 2012; Ciarán
108 McFadden, Daniels, and Strike 2020). For example, Groen et al., (2012)
109 demonstrated that systematic 14 mm anterior displacements to the THI, KNE and
110 TIB markers caused errors greater than 10° in lower extremity joint angles between
111 repeated walk trials.

112 While systematic differences in marker placement such as those outlined may exist,
113 these study designs fail to account for the inherent randomness to be expected in
114 real world marker placement error (Myers et al. 2015; Osis et al. 2016). Challenges
115 also exist in separating the effect of marker displacements from that of movement
116 variability, as any observed changes in kinematics and/or kinetics will be attributable
117 to both the marker displacement and natural trial-to-trial movement variability.

118 Utilising a simulated approach offers the opportunity to control for movement

119 variability and examine the effect of marker placement in isolation. This approach
120 has been used previously to study marker displacements during walking (Myers et
121 al. 2015) and running (Osis et al. 2016). Simulated marker displacements sampled
122 from the Gaussian distribution have been used to mimic expected real-world
123 variation in marker placement (Myers et al. 2015). Establishing how such marker
124 displacements impact the ability to identify and monitor changes in inter-limb
125 differences will inform the contexts in which their use as objective rehabilitative
126 measures is appropriate, and those in which they are not. Thus, the aim of this
127 investigation was to determine the effect of random THI, KNE and TIB marker
128 displacements on the interpretation of inter-limb differences during a CoD task.

129 **Methods**

130 Participants

131 Forty-seven male participants aged 18-35 (mean \pm SD age 24.8 ± 4.8 years, height
132 180 ± 6 cm and mass 84 ± 6.4 kg) approximately 9 months (8.7 ± 0.7) post primary
133 ACLR were recruited from the caseload of two orthopaedic surgeons, based in the
134 Sports Surgery Clinic, Dublin, Ireland. Inclusion criteria for ACLR participation in the
135 study were male, aged 18-35, participation in multi-directional field-based sports
136 prior to injury and the intention to return to the same level of participation post
137 rehabilitation. Participants who had multiple ligament reconstructions, meniscal
138 repair or did not intend to return to multidirectional field-based sport were excluded
139 from the study. A matched healthy cohort (NORM) of 52 participants (23.4 ± 3.7
140 years, 182.8 ± 6.38 cm, 81.9 ± 7.4 kg) with no history of lower limb injury were
141 recruited locally from multi-directional field-based sports teams. Ethical approval was
142 received from the University of Roehampton, London (LSC 15/122) and the Sports

143 Surgery Clinic Hospital Ethics Committee (25AFM010). Participants gave informed,
144 written consent prior to participation in the study.

145 Data collection took place in a biomechanics laboratory using a ten-camera motion
146 analysis system (200 Hz; Bonita-B10, Vicon, UK), synchronized (Vicon Nexus 2.3)
147 with two force platforms (1000 Hz BP400600, AMTI, USA) recording the positions of
148 28 reflective markers (14 mm diameter). Markers were secured using tape at bony
149 landmarks on the lower limbs, pelvis and trunk according to a modified Plug-in-Gait
150 marker set (Marshall et al. 2014). Participants completed a pre-planned 90° CoD
151 task, which followed a wider testing battery that formed part of a larger, on-going
152 study. The full testing battery comprised of a standardised warm-up, consisting of a
153 2-minute jog, 5 bodyweight squats, 2 submaximal and 3 maximal countermovement
154 jumps, followed by a series of double and single leg jump exercises. The CoD task
155 involved the participants running maximally towards the force platforms before
156 planting their outside foot on the force platform to cut left or right, i.e. planting their
157 right foot to cut to the left. The start line was 5 m from the force plates, while the
158 finish line was 2 m from the force plates. Three trials were collected on both the
159 ACLR and contralateral limbs. A full description of the testing protocol is given in
160 King et al. (2018).

161 Data Processing

162 A fourth order zero-lag Butterworth filter (cut-off frequency 15 Hz) was used to filter
163 marker trajectory and force data (Kristianslund, Krosshaug, and Bogert 2012).

164 Kinematic variables at the hip, knee and ankle have been associated with increased
165 knee loading, quantified in the form of knee joint moments (Dempsey et al. 2007;
166 McLean, Huang, and Van Den Bogert 2005). Tri-planar hip, knee and ankle angles,

167 as well as tri-planar knee joint moments, were therefore extracted during stance
168 phase for each trial. Initial contact and toe-off were identified from vertical ground
169 reaction force using a 20 N threshold. Kinematic and kinetic signals were time
170 normalised to 101 data points and the mean of each participant's three trials was
171 used for further analysis. Inter-limb differences were calculated for each variable at
172 20% of stance. Video analyses of ACL injuries suggest injury occurs within this
173 period (Koga et al. 2010; Krosshaug et al. 2007; Olsen et al. 2004) and thus it is
174 extensively studied in ACL and CoD research (Dempsey et al. 2007; Olsen et al.
175 2004; Robinson et al. 2014; Stearns and Pollard 2013). Inter-limb differences were
176 calculated in the ACLR and NORM groups respectively as

177 ACLR - Contralateral

178 NonDominant - Dominant

179 The 'dominant limb' was defined in the NORM group as the self-selected preferred
180 kicking leg. The time point of 20% of stance corresponded to 0.065 ± 0.02 ms and
181 0.068 ± 0.01 ms for the ACLR and contralateral limbs respectively, and 0.065 ± 0.01
182 ms and 0.064 ± 0.02 ms for the dominant and non-dominant limbs respectively.

183 Following initial data processing, we simulated a scenario in which our ACLR cohort
184 underwent repeated testing sessions, with random marker displacements introduced
185 in each session. One hundred copies of each ACLR participant's six original trials (3
186 x cutting off ACLR limb and 3 x cutting off contralateral limb) were generated, with
187 each set of six trials corresponding to a "simulated" testing session. In each of the
188 one-hundred simulated sessions, random displacements were sampled and applied
189 to each marker (THI, KNE and TIB) on the CoD stance leg in all trials completed on
190 the ACLR and contralateral limbs, mimicking a real-world scenario in which individual

191 marker positions were invariant across trials within a session but the displacement
192 applied to each marker was independent. Unique displacements were generated for
193 each participant and were sampled from the Gaussian distributions created from
194 variance based on previously reported intra-tester variability in anatomical landmark
195 location (Della Croce, Cappozzo, and Kerrigan 1999; Myers et al. 2015). For
196 markers that did not have directly reported intra-tester variability ranges (THI and
197 TIB), the mean variance of anatomical landmarks located on the associated segment
198 was used (Della Croce, Cappozzo, and Kerrigan 1999). Thus, displacements were
199 drawn from distributions with standard deviations of 5.8 mm (THI), 3.9 mm (KNE)
200 and 3.4 mm (TIB). To simulate anterior/posterior positioning error, displacements
201 were applied about the anterior-posterior axis of the corresponding segment
202 coordinate system using

$$X_{k'} = R \cdot X_k$$

204 where $X_{k'}$ are the new, displaced marker coordinates within the segment coordinate
205 system, R is the translational matrix containing the randomly generated marker
206 displacement and X_k are the original marker coordinates within the segment
207 coordinate system. Within each simulated testing session, mean kinematic and
208 kinetics were extracted as described previously. Using these newly formed mean
209 kinematic and kinetic measures inter-limb differences were recalculated in each of
210 the one-hundred simulated testing sessions. This process produced a total of 4700
211 inter-limb differences for each variable (47 ACLR participants x 100 inter-limb
212 differences). The displacement process described was completed using a custom
213 written MATLAB script (version2019, The Mathworks Inc, Natick, Massachusetts,
214 USA).

215 Each ACLR participant's original inter-limb difference was subtracted from their
216 original 100 simulated inter-limb differences for each variable. This produced a
217 distribution of changes in inter-limb differences attributable to marker displacements,
218 from which 95% confidence intervals were estimated. These intervals constituted a
219 range in which the true value of an inter-limb difference was expected to fall on 95%
220 of occasions when accounting for variability introduced from marker placement.
221 Using the identified confidence intervals, the minimal change in inter-limb differences
222 that could be identified with 95% certainty between two assessments was estimated
223 for each variable. This was identified as the point in which 95% of possible values for
224 an initial observation fell outside a range which contained 95% of possible values for
225 a second observation and corresponded to change of 3.6 SD between two
226 assessments (Fig 1).

227 Following this, descriptive statistics were calculated for NORM inter-limb differences.
228 Each ACLR participant was classified relative to the NORM group as having either a
229 "normal" or "abnormal" inter-limb difference for each variable. ACLR participants with
230 original inter-limb differences between ± 2 SD of the NORM group's original inter-
231 limb difference were classified as "normal", while those $> \pm 2$ SD were classified as
232 "abnormal" (Fig 2). ACLR participants were reclassified using each of their 100
233 simulated inter-limb differences. The percentage of participants whose classification
234 changed from their original in at least one simulation was calculated for each
235 variable.

236 **Results**

237 The distribution of changes in inter-limb differences and change in classifications for
238 hip angles, knee angles, ankle angles and knee moments are presented in Figures

239 3, 4, 5 and 6 respectively. The largest minimal identifiable changes and highest
240 percentage of participants to change inter-limb difference classification were in
241 transverse plane hip as well as frontal and transverse plane knee kinematics (Table
242 1).

243 Hip Kinematics

244 Marker displacements caused a change in hip flexion inter-limb differences with a
245 standard deviation of 1.3° , from which a 95% confidence interval of -2.5° – 2.5° was
246 estimated (Fig 3A). Changes in hip abduction angle inter-limb differences had a
247 standard deviation of 0.2° and a confidence interval of -0.47° – 0.47° (Fig 3B), while
248 for hip rotation angle the standard deviation was 6.2° and confidence interval -12.2° –
249 12.2° (Fig 3C). Minimal identifiable changes of 4.6° in hip flexion, 0.9° in hip
250 abduction and 22.2° in hip rotation inter-limb differences were estimated (Table 1).

251 For hip flexion angle inter-limb differences, 40 (85.1%) ACLR participants maintained
252 their original inter-limb difference classification in all one hundred simulations, while
253 7 (14.9%) participants' classification changed on at least one occasion (Fig 3D). The
254 number of simulations in which each participant changed classification ranged from 1
255 – 10, with a median of 8 (Table 1). 46 (97.9%) maintained their original classification
256 for hip abduction angle inter-limb differences in all one hundred simulations, with 1
257 (2.1%) participant changing classification in 15 simulations (Table 1). Lastly, for inter-
258 limb differences, 8 (13%) participants maintained their original classification while 39
259 (87%) changed classification in at least one simulation (range 1 – 53, median 13)
260 (Table 1).

261 Knee Kinematics

262 Marker displacements caused a change in knee flexion inter-limb differences with a
263 standard deviation of 2.3° , from which a 95% confidence interval of -3.2° – 3.2° was
264 estimated (Fig 4A). The standard deviation for changes in knee abduction inter-limb
265 differences was 5.1° with an estimated confidence interval of -10° – 10° (Fig 4B),
266 while in knee rotation angle the standard deviation was 6.8° and confidence interval -
267 13.4° – 13.4° (Fig 4C). Minimal identifiable changes of 5.4° in knee flexion, 18.3° in
268 knee abduction and 24.5° in knee rotation inter-limb differences were estimated
269 (Table 1).

270 For knee flexion inter-limb differences, 42 (89.4%) participants maintained their
271 original inter-limb difference classification in all simulations, while 5 (10.6%) changed
272 classification in at least one simulation (range 5 – 17, median 9) (Table 1). 6 (12.8%)
273 participants maintained their original classification for knee abduction angle inter-limb
274 differences in all simulations, with 41 (87.2%) changing classification on at least one
275 occasion (range 1 – 53, median 8). Lastly, for knee rotation angle inter-limb
276 differences, 4 (8.5%) ACLR participants maintained their original classification and
277 43 (91.5%) changed classification on at least one occasion (range 1 – 52, median 7).

278 Ankle Kinematics

279 Marker displacements caused a change in ankle plantar-flexion inter-limb differences
280 with a standard deviation of 1.3° , from which a 95% confidence interval of -2.5° – 2.5°
281 was estimated (Fig 5A). For ankle abduction angle the standard deviation of changes
282 in inter-limb differences was 1.8° with an estimated 95% confidence interval of -3.5° –
283 3.5° (Fig 5B), while in ankle rotation angle (defined as the angle between the long
284 axis of the foot segment and the long axis of the shank segment in the transverse
285 plane) the standard deviation was 6.4° and confidence interval -12.5° – 12.5° (Fig

286 5C). Minimal identifiable changes of 4.6° in ankle plantarflexion, 6.3° ankle abduction
287 and 23° ankle rotation inter-limb differences were estimated from these distributions
288 (Table 1).

289 For ankle plantar-flexion angle inter-limb differences, 40 (85.1%) participants
290 maintained their original inter-limb difference classification throughout all simulations,
291 7 (14.9%) changing classification in at least one simulation (range 1 – 36, median 4).
292 14 (29.8%) participants maintained their original classification for ankle abduction
293 angle, while 33 (70.28%) changed classification in at least one simulation (range 1 –
294 50, median 4). Lastly, in ankle rotation angle inter-limb differences, 12 (25.5%)
295 participants maintained their original classification, while 35 (74.5%) changed
296 classification in at least one simulation (range 1 – 48, median 9) (Table 1).

297 Knee Moments

298 Marker displacements caused changes in knee flexor moment inter-limb differences
299 with a standard deviation of 0.21 Nm/kg, from which a 95% confidence interval of -
300 0.41–0.41 Nm/kg was estimated (Fig 6A). For knee abduction moment inter-limb
301 differences, the standard deviation was 0.2 Nm/kg and estimated confidence interval
302 -0.39–0.39 Nm/kg, while in knee rotation moment, the standard deviation was 0.01
303 Nm/kg and confidence interval -0.02–0.02 Nm/kg (Table 1). The minimal identifiable
304 changes in inter-limb differences were estimated as 0.75 Nm/kg in knee flexor
305 moment, 0.72 Nm/kg in knee abduction moment and 0.05 Nm/kg in knee rotation
306 moment (Table 1).

307 For knee flexor moment inter-limb differences, 35 (74.5%) participants maintained
308 their original classification throughout all simulations, while 12 (25.5%) changed
309 classification in at least one simulation (1 – 51, median 18). 15 (32%) participants

310 maintained their original inter-limb difference classification for knee abduction
311 moment inter-limb differences, while 32 (68%) changed classification in at least one
312 simulation (2 – 44, median 6) (Table 1). Lastly, in knee rotation inter-limb differences,
313 all 47 participants maintained their original classification throughout all simulations
314 (Table 1).

315 **Discussion**

316 Our findings highlight challenges in using marker-based biomechanical models such
317 as the CGM to conduct objective assessments of inter-limb differences during CoD.
318 These assessments have been proposed as a means of monitoring rehabilitation
319 progress post ACLR (Jordan, Aagaard, and Herzog 2015; Myer, Ford, and Hewett
320 2011; Oberländer et al. 2013; Paterno et al. 2007; Di Stasi et al. 2013). Marker
321 displacements caused large changes in inter-limb differences in several variables,
322 which in turn limited the ability to reliably identify participants with large inter-limb
323 differences relative to a NORM cohort (Table 1).

324 Frontal plane knee and ankle, as well as transverse plane hip, knee and ankle
325 angles were most effected by marker placement error. Previous work examining
326 marker placement reports similar findings (Baker, Finney, and Orr 1999b; Groen et
327 al. 2012; C. McFadden, Daniels, and Strike 2020; Myers et al. 2015; Osis et al. 2016;
328 Szczerbik and Kalinowska 2011), with frontal and transverse plane angles
329 consistently identified as most sensitive to marker placement. Change in the
330 anterior/posterior positions of the THI, KNEE and TIB markers alters the orientation
331 of the femur and shank segments, which manifests as large errors in frontal and
332 transverse plane angles. The ability to identify, monitor and classify inter-limb
333 difference measures in these variables using the CGM appears minimal.

334 Several of these variables are considered important in the context of CoD and ACL
335 injury, including transverse plane hip and ankle angles as well as frontal plane knee
336 angles and moments. For example, increased knee abduction angle (KAA) during
337 CoD is associated with higher frontal plane knee loading, considered an important
338 risk factor for ACL injury (McLean, Huang, and Van Den Bogert 2005; Sigward and
339 Powers 2007; Stearns and Pollard 2013). Our data indicate that KAA inter-limb
340 differences are highly sensitive to marker displacements, with an estimated 95%
341 confidence interval of -10° - 10° (Fig 4B). A confidence interval of this magnitude
342 presents significant challenges in any assessment of KAA inter-limb differences.
343 Unless the observed difference is outside this range i.e. $> 10^{\circ}$ or $< -10^{\circ}$, the
344 direction, i.e. which limb has the greater value, is unclear. A hypothetical inter-limb
345 difference of 5° may range from -5° to 15° , a range which, as well as encapsulating
346 two alternative interpretations of inter-limb difference direction, also contains the
347 possibility that the true difference is close to zero. This variety of possible values and
348 subsequent interpretations means it is challenging to identify which limb, if any,
349 requires training interventions that may be designed to restore deficits, improve
350 frontal plane alignment and reduce frontal plane loading during CoD (Fox 2018).

351 Considerable challenges also exist in the assessment of between session changes
352 in KAA inter-limb differences. A minimal change of 18.3° is necessary to be 95%
353 certain that the observed change is a manifestation of genuine differences in
354 movement as opposed to variability from marker placement (Table 1). Depending on
355 the specifics of the population, task and phase being analysed, KAA's of between 1 -
356 11° have been reported during CoD (Alenezi et al. 2016; Jones, Herrington, and
357 Graham-Smith 2015; Kristianslund et al. 2014; Sigward and Powers 2007). In a
358 similar 90° CoD task to the one examined in this study, Clark et al., (2019) examined

359 inter-limb differences in ACLR participants who had completed rehabilitation and
360 returned to sport. They reported peak KAA's of 10.2° and 8.9° for the ACLR and
361 contralateral limbs respectively with a mean inter-limb difference of 1.3° (Clark et al.
362 2019). While inter-limb differences may be more pronounced at earlier stages of
363 rehabilitation, it is unlikely that they will be of the magnitude necessary to be reliably
364 identified and monitored due to the variability introduced by marker placement upon
365 repeated testing.

366 41 (87.2%) of ACLR participants changed their KAA inter-limb difference
367 classification throughout the simulated testing sessions (Fig 4E). Thresholds based
368 on group variability have been used previously as a means of determining ACL injury
369 risk, with individuals with extreme values thought to be at increased risk of injury
370 (Kristianslund et al. 2014; Robinson et al. 2014; Sigward and Powers 2007). There
371 appears to be a high probability of mistakenly classifying an individual as having
372 what may be considered normal or abnormal inter-limb differences in KAA due to
373 variability from marker placement (Table 1). For example, all 5 participants who were
374 initially classified as having "abnormal" inter-limb differences in KAA subsequently
375 changed classification to "normal" in the simulated testing sessions, suggesting that
376 incorrect classifications may arise solely from marker placement error as opposed to
377 changes in movement (Fig 4B).

378 We have chosen to focus on KAA inter-limb differences to convey the implications of
379 this study's findings. This is because frontal plane knee motion is considered
380 important with respect to ACL injury and CoD (Kristianslund et al. 2014; McLean,
381 Huang, and Van Den Bogert 2005; Sigward and Powers 2007). However, the most
382 sensitive variables to marker placement identified were transverse plane kinematics,
383 with knee rotation angle the variable with the largest confidence intervals, minimal

384 identifiable change, and highest percentage of participants to change classification
385 (Table 1). The CGM appears limited in its ability to assess inter-limb differences in
386 these variables as they are sensitive to relatively small variations in marker
387 placement. Alternative techniques for modelling human movement exist and aim to
388 overcome certain limitations ascribed to the CGM. These include models that allow
389 for six degrees of freedom (6DOF) at each joint, those that implement the calibrated
390 anatomical systems technique (CAST) (Cappozzo et al. 1995) or utilise optimisation
391 based joint centre positions (Charlton et al. 2004). However, in any model utilising
392 anatomical landmarks locations to define joint centres and/or segment orientations,
393 there is a continued assumption that marker placement is consistent and repeatable
394 between and within practitioners. Indeed, Groen et al., (2012) observed that although
395 implementing the optimized lower limb gait analysis model reduced errors due to
396 marker placement during walking in certain variables, it also exacerbated those in
397 others. Further research investigating the sensitivity of alternative modelling
398 techniques across various movement tasks is warranted to inform their utility in
399 assessing inter-limb differences.

400 Within the current study design, several limitations necessitate discussion. Marker
401 displacements were sampled from distributions based on previously reported intra-
402 tester variability ranges in anatomical landmark location (Della Croce, Cappozzo,
403 and Kerrigan 1999; Myers et al. 2015). Our results are therefore directly limited to
404 the distributions chosen *a priori*. It is possible that in some scenarios i.e. differing
405 laboratories and practitioners, that these distributions underestimated the true
406 variation in marker placement, while in others, overestimated it. Additionally, while
407 similar trends and observations are likely in other tasks and at different time points,
408 the specific results observed in this study i.e. confidence intervals and minimal

409 identifiable changes, are limited to the 90° CoD task studied and the distinct time
410 point of 20% of stance. The change in inter-limb differences across the entire stance
411 phase for each variable is included as supplementary material (see Appendix A).
412 Lastly, the implemented marker displacements do not directly mimic real world
413 marker placement error. We implemented anterior/posterior displacements as model
414 definitions indicate that these are the displacements that will have the most
415 substantial effect on model outputs (Kadaba, Ramakrishnan, and Wooten 1989).
416 Real world marker placement will also vary proximally/distally as well as medio-
417 laterally. We also did not account for the variation in soft tissue artefact that would be
418 expected by varying marker positions anteriorly/posteriorly. However, given the
419 relatively small magnitude of displacements it is unlikely these artefacts would
420 substantially affect our findings (Nazareth, Mueske, and Wren 2016).

421 In conclusion, we present an approach to quantify the minimal changes in inter-limb
422 differences that can be reliably identified given realistic marker placement error and
423 demonstrate how the variability resulting from these errors affects inter-limb
424 difference classifications in a post-ACLR population. Our findings highlight
425 challenges in using the CGM in the assessment of inter-limb differences and the
426 critical importance of accurate and repeatable marker placement. Where possible
427 extensive and regular training, as well as standardisation processes should be
428 implemented to try and reduce intra-tester variability in marker placement. However,
429 for several variables this may not be sufficient given the relatively small distributions
430 from which displacements were sampled and the subsequent large effect observed.
431 These include hip rotation angle, knee rotation angle, knee abduction angle, ankle
432 abduction angle and ankle rotation angle (Table 1). Definitively alluding to the
433 efficacy of the CGM's continued use in this setting is difficult as it will be dependent

434 on the magnitude of inter-limb difference and subsequent change considered
435 clinically relevant. What constitutes clinically relevant is often difficult to define and
436 may vary for the same variable depending on the task, population and injury being
437 assessed (King, Richter, Franklyn-Miller, Daniels, Wadey, Jackson, et al. 2018;
438 Wellsandt et al. 2016). With respect to the specific CoD task examined in this study,
439 the CGM appears limited in the assessment of inter-limb differences for multiple
440 kinematic and kinetic variables.

441 **Conflict of interest statement**

442 The authors confirm that there is no financial or personal relationship with other
443 individuals or organisations that could inappropriately influence this work.

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447 study.

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628 **Table and Figure Captions**

629 **Table 1.** Summary results for effect of marker displacements on inter-limb differences.
630 Columns 'SD', 95% CI' and 'Min identifiable change' present the standard deviation, 95%
631 confidence interval and minimal identifiable change in each variable. The number and
632 percentage of participants who changed their inter-limb difference classification on at least
633 one occasion in the one-hundred simulated testing sessions is presented in column
634 'Classification change'. For these participants, the median percentage of simulations in
635 which their individual classification changed from its original status is presented in column
636 'Median classification change' alongside the range of percentages for individual participants.

637 **Figure 1.** Example of confidence interval and minimal identifiable change estimation
638 process. Fig 1A depicts the distribution of all observed changes in knee flexion inter-limb
639 differences from marker displacements (standard deviation of 1.6°). Fig 1B shows the
640 resultant 95% confidence interval for knee flexion angle inter-limb differences was $-3.2^\circ < 0$
641 $< 3.2^\circ$ ($1.96 \times \text{SD}$). Lastly, Fig 1C depicts the calculation of the minimal identifiable change,
642 which was identified as 5.8°.

643 **Figure 2.** Example of inter-limb difference classifications. Image depicts each ACLR
644 participants' original mean inter-limb difference in knee flexion angle at 20% of stance.
645 Participants with mean inter-limb difference between $\pm 2\text{SD}$ of NORM group mean difference
646 were classified as having "normal" inter-limb differences (green). Participants with mean
647 inter-limb difference above or below 2SD were classified as having an "abnormal" inter-limb
648 difference (red).

649 **Figure 3.** Effect of marker displacements on the interpretation of inter-limb differences in hip
650 kinematics at 20% of stance. Top panel depicts the distribution of changes in inter-limb
651 differences and 95% confidence intervals for hip flexion (A), hip abduction (B) and hip
652 rotation (C) inter-limb differences. Bottom panel depicts each ACLR participants inter-limb
653 difference (black = original inter-limb difference, blue = simulated inter-limb differences)
654 relative to the NORM group variability (red lines) for hip flexion (D), hip abduction (E) and hip
655 rotation (F) inter-limb differences.

656 **Figure 4.** Effect of marker displacements on the interpretation of inter-limb differences in
657 knee kinematics at 20% of stance. Top panel depicts the distribution of changes in inter-limb
658 differences and 95% confidence intervals for knee flexion (A), knee abduction (B) and knee
659 rotation (C) inter-limb differences. Bottom panel depicts each ACLR participants inter-limb
660 difference (black = original inter-limb difference, blue = simulated inter-limb difference)
661 relative to the NORM group variability (red lines) for knee flexion (D), knee abduction (E) and
662 knee rotation (F) inter-limb differences.

663 **Figure 5.** Effect of marker displacements on the interpretation of inter-limb differences in
664 knee kinematics at 20% of stance. Top panel depicts the distribution of changes in inter-limb
665 differences and 95% confidence intervals for ankle plantar-flexion (A), ankle abduction (B)
666 and ankle rotation (C) inter-limb differences. Bottom panel depicts each ACLR participants
667 inter-limb difference (black = original inter-limb difference, blue = simulated inter-limb
668 difference) relative to the NORM group variability (red lines) for ankle plantar-flexion (D),
669 ankle abduction (E) and ankle rotation (F) inter-limb differences.

670 **Figure 6.** Effect of marker displacements on the interpretation of inter-limb differences in
671 knee moments at 20% of stance. Top panel depicts the distribution of changes in inter-limb
672 differences and 95% confidence intervals for knee flexor moment (A), knee abduction

673 moment (B) and knee rotation moment (C) inter-limb differences. Bottom panel depicts each
674 ACLR participants inter-limb difference (black = original inter-limb difference, blue =
675 simulated inter-limb difference) relative to the NORM group variability (red lines) for knee
676 flexor (D), knee abduction moment (E) and knee rotation moment (F) inter-limb differences.

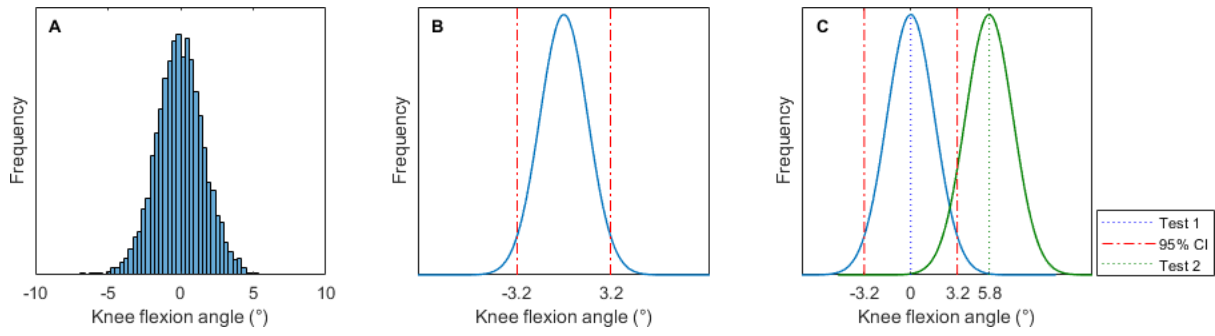
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Variable	SD	95% CI	NA		Median Classification Change (Min – Max)
			Min Identifiable Change	Classification Change	
Hip flexion angle	1.3°	2.5° - 2.5°	4.6°	7 (14.9%)	8% (1 – 10%)
Hip abduction angle	0.2°	-0.47° – 0.47°	0.9°	1 (2.1%)	15% (-)
Hip rotation angle	6.2°	-12.2° – 12.2°	22.2°	39 (83%)	13% (1 – 53%)
Knee flexion angle	1.6°	-3.2° – 3.2°	5.8°	5 (10.6%)	9% (5 – 17%)
Knee abduction angle	5.1°	-10° – 10°	18.3°	41 (87.2%)	8% (1-53%)
Knee rotation angle	6.8°	-13.4° – 13.4°	24.6°	43 (91.5%)	7% (1-52%)
Ankle plantarflexion angle	1.3°	-2.5° – 2.5°	4.6°	7 (14.9%)	2% (1-36%)
Ankle abduction angle	1.8°	-3.5° – 3.5°	6.3°	33 (70.2%)	4% (1-50%)
Ankle rotation angle	6.4°	-12.5° – 12.5°	23°	35 (74.5%)	9% (1-48%)
Knee flexor moment	0.2 Nm/kg	-0.41 – 0.41 Nm/kg	0.8 Nm/kg	12 (25.5%)	18% (1-51%)
Knee abduction moment	0.2 Nm/kg	-0.38 – 0.39 Nm/kg	0.7 Nm/kg	15 (32.0%)	6% (2-44%)
Knee rotation moment	0.01 Nm/kg	-0.02 – 0.02 Nm/kg	0.05 Nm/kg	0 (-)	-

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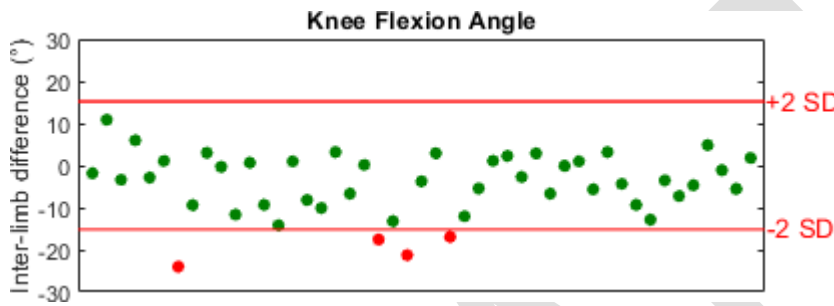
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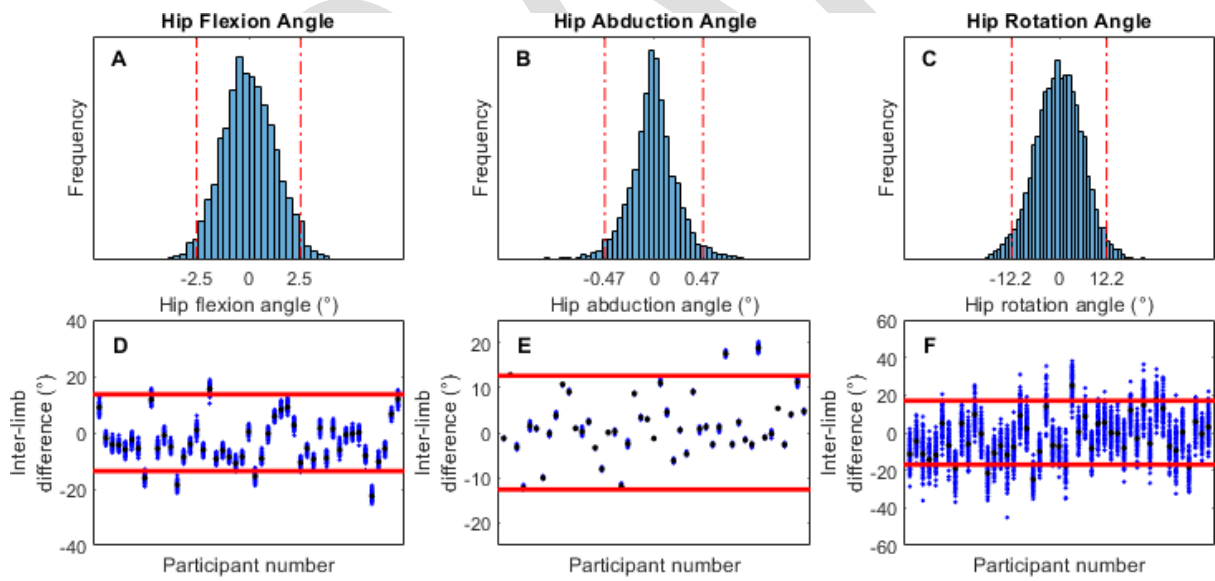
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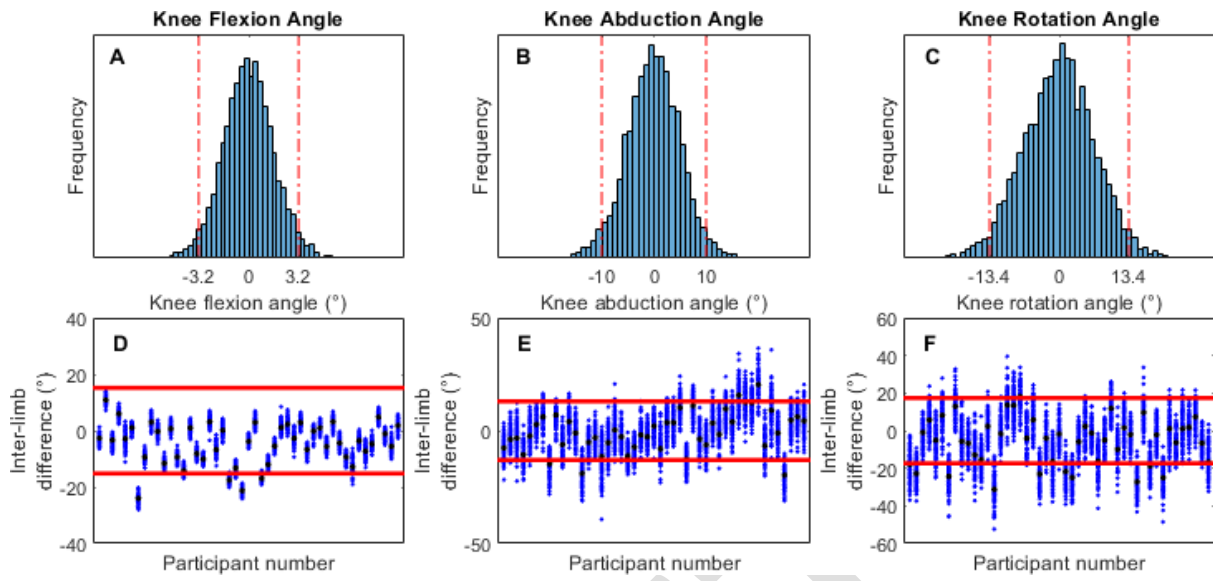
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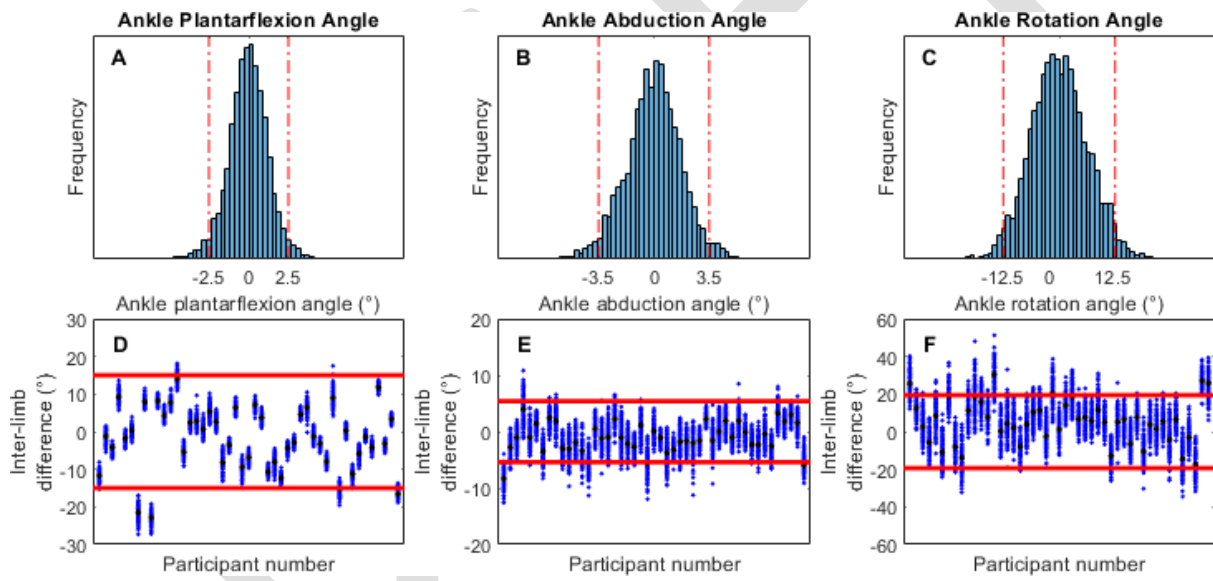
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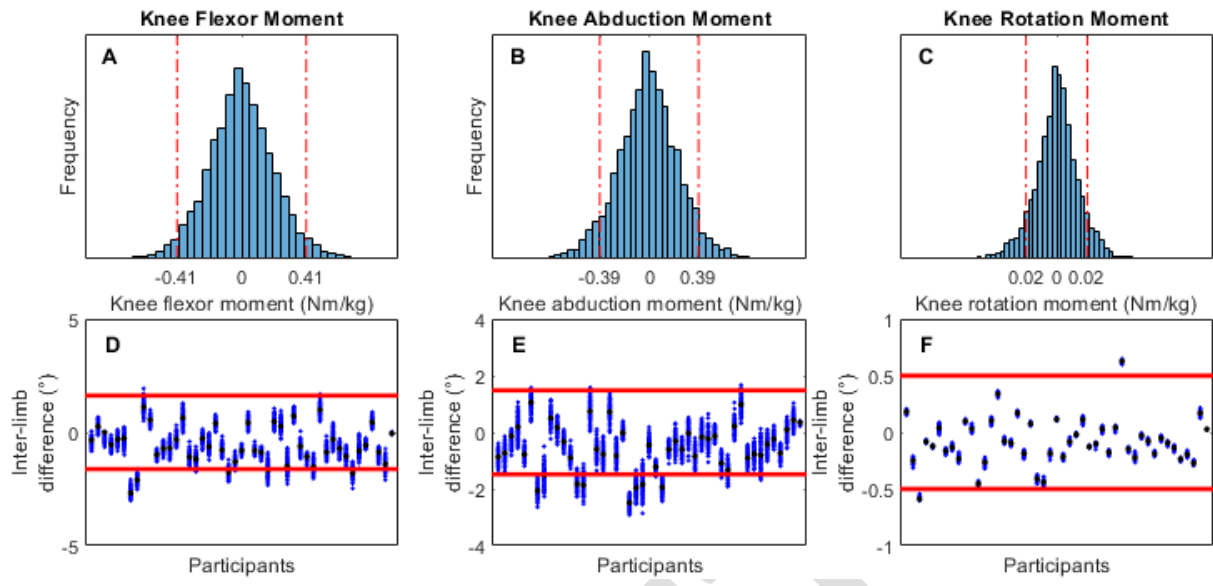
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