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**Lead limb loading during a single-step descent in persons with and without a transtibial amputation in the trailing limb**

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20 **Abstract**

21 *Background:* Decreased mechanical work done by the trailing limb when descending a single-  
22 step could affect load development and increase injury risk on the leading limb. This study  
23 assessed the effect of trailing limb mechanics on the development of lead limb load during a step  
24 descent by examining individuals with unilateral transtibial amputations who are known to exhibit  
25 reduced work in the prosthetic limb.

26 *Methods:* Eight amputees and 10 able-bodied controls walked 5m along the length of a raised  
27 platform, descended a single-step of 14cm height, and continued walking. The intact limb of  
28 amputees led during descent. Kinematic and kinetic data were recorded using integrated motion  
29 capture and force platform system. Lead limb loading was assessed through vertical ground  
30 reaction force, and knee moments and joint reaction forces. Sagittal-plane joint work was  
31 calculated for the ankle, knee, and hip in both limbs.

32 *Findings:* No differences were found in lead limb loading despite differences in trail limb  
33 mechanics evidenced by amputees performing 58% less total work by the trailing (prosthetic) limb  
34 to lower the centre of mass ( $P=0.004$ ) and 111% less for propulsion ( $P<0.001$ ). Amputees  
35 descended the step significantly slower ( $P=0.003$ ) and performed significantly greater lead limb  
36 ankle work ( $P=0.017$ ). After accounting for speed differences, initial loading at the knee was  
37 significantly higher in the lead limb of amputees versus controls.

38 *Interpretation:* Increasing lead limb work and reducing forward velocity may be effective  
39 compensatory strategies to limit lead limb loading during a step descent, in response to reduced  
40 trailing limb work.

41

42 **Keywords:** Joint loading, Biomechanics, Below-knee amputee, Raised surface, Stepping

## 43 **1. Introduction**

44 A step descent, typically used to step off a kerb, is an important functional task regularly performed  
45 in daily living. Descending a single-step requires the trailing limb to safely control the lowering of  
46 the centre of mass (CoM), provide propulsion for forward progression, and transfer load to the  
47 lead limb to maintain walking. The functional requirement to ensure ongoing horizontal walking  
48 distinguishes the single-step descent from stair descent which requires continued vertical  
49 displacement of the CoM. In comparison to level-walking, a single-step descent is performed with  
50 greater vertical displacement of the CoM. Unless increased negative work during the descent is  
51 evoked in the trailing limb to reduce the lowering velocity, the vertical velocity at touchdown will  
52 be attenuated by the leading limb during initial stance. Thus, ineffective trailing limb mechanics  
53 may increase the kinetic energy that must be absorbed by the leading limb (Donelan, Kram, &  
54 Kuo, 2002b) and subsequently influence the load experienced.

55 Previous single-step descent research has inferred the importance of the trailing limb mechanics  
56 on lead limb loading. Healthy, able-bodied individuals who performed a toe-contact strategy with  
57 the leading limb, compared to a heel initial contact, completed 29% less total work in the trailing  
58 limb when lowering the CoM, 21% less work during propulsion in the trailing limb, and 33% more  
59 work in the leading limb when loading (Moudy et al., 2019). Further, a toe-contact strategy has  
60 been associated with reduced peak vertical ground reaction force (vGRF) and knee external flexor  
61 moment (KFM) (van Dieën et al., 2008), and lower vGRF and knee external adduction moment  
62 (KAM) loading rates (Moudy et al., 2019). These studies focused on the influence of lead limb  
63 descent mechanics on load, yet it is equally plausible that trailing limb mechanics play a role in  
64 lead limb load development.

65 Individuals with unilateral transtibial amputations (ITTAs) using passive energy storage and return  
66 prostheses have altered trailing limb mechanics as the prosthesis is unable to mimic the  
67 functionality of an intact ankle joint (Powers et al., 1997, Schmalz, Blumentritt, & Marx, 2007).

68 Further, previous research in ITTA level-walking gait has found that reduced prosthesis push-off  
69 work is associated with increased intact limb and joint loading (Grabowski and D'Andrea, 2013,  
70 Morgenroth et al., 2011) which is thought to place this limb at a 22-27% increased risk of  
71 developing degenerative knee joint diseases compared to able-bodied individuals (Griffin and  
72 Guilak, 2005, Struyf et al., 2009). The limitations of the passive prosthesis have been shown to  
73 affect the mechanics of the trail and lead limb. This effect is mitigated through the use of  
74 myoelectric powered prostheses further indicating the role of the trailing limb ankle on the  
75 performance of a task (Culver, Bartlett et al. 2018, Pickle, Wilken et al. 2014, Alimusaj, Fradet et  
76 al. 2009). Thus, ITTAs using passive prostheses could be a good model to assess the effects of  
77 reduced trailing limb function on the load experienced in the leading limb independent of descent  
78 strategy.

79 It is possible that load development is not affected by trailing limb mechanics alone. Other factors  
80 that may be influenced by trailing limb mechanics and have a subsequent effect on load  
81 development are lead limb mechanics and speed. Even when using the same descent strategy  
82 (i.e. lead limb toe or heel strategy), it is possible that lead limb mechanics could differ in response  
83 to reduced trailing limb function as another approach to limit lead limb load. Thus, it is important  
84 to still consider lead limb mechanics as a mechanism to effect lead limb loading. Further, if  
85 compensatory mechanisms elsewhere in the kinematic chain are unable to accommodate the  
86 reduced capacity of the trailing prosthetic ankle joint, it is possible that forward velocity may be  
87 reduced to maintain limb and joint loading at a lower level rather than depend on the joint  
88 mechanics alone to reduce load (Browne and Franz, 2017, Donelan, Kram, & Kuo, 2002a, Lelas  
89 et al., 2003). Forward velocity has been found to decrease when performing a toe- compared to  
90 a heel-contact strategy (van Dieën et al., 2008), reductions in walking speed have been adopted  
91 to improve dynamic stability (Browne and Franz, 2017), and to decrease joint force loading  
92 (Thoma, McNally et al. 2017, Zeni, Higginson 2009). It is well documented that ITTAs walk at a

93 slower speed compared to able-bodied individuals (Murray, Gaffney et al. 2017, Wezenberg, van  
94 der Woude, Lucas H et al. 2013), thus, it is possible that ITTAs may also reduce forward velocity  
95 in order to complete the step descent safely and limit lead limb loading in response to reduced  
96 trailing limb mechanics.

97 The purpose of this study was to explore how the factors of trailing limb descent mechanics,  
98 speed, and lead limb mechanics effect lead limb loading. The study utilised ITTAs as a model of  
99 reduced trailing limb functionality and compared lead limb loading to age, sex, and activity-level  
100 matched able-bodied individuals performing the same descent strategy. It was hypothesised that  
101 ITTAs would experience increased lead limb knee joint loading and knee moments. It was also  
102 hypothesised that trailing limb negative work would be significantly reduced in ITTAs, ITTAs would  
103 perform the descent slower compared to control participants, and lead limb mechanics would not  
104 differ between groups indicating the effect of trailing limb mechanics on lead limb load  
105 development.

## 106 **2. Methods**

107 Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Roehampton's Ethics Committee (LSC  
108 16/176) and the National Health Services Health Research Authority (17/NW/0566). Participants  
109 were recruited through word of mouth, flyers, and community events. Eight male recreationally-  
110 active ITTAs and 22 able-bodied age, sex, and activity-level matched controls provided written  
111 informed consent to participate in this study. All ITTAs included in the study wore their prescribed  
112 daily passive energy storage and return type prostheses, were graded at a K3/K4 level, >6  
113 months' post-amputation (range: 1.5-29 years), and had amputations that were traumatic in  
114 nature. Participants were excluded if they had sustained a musculoskeletal injury in the previous  
115 6-months or were outside the age range of 18-50 years, to minimise any possible confounding  
116 impact of age-related muscular decline (Thompson et al. 2013, LaRoche et al. 2011).

117 Data were collected from twelve Vicon Vantage V5 camera (200Hz; Vicon, Oxford, UK)

118 synchronised with three force platforms (1000Hz; 9281C Kistler, Hampshire, UK). Thirty-nine  
119 markers (14 mm in diameter) were placed in accordance to the lower- (Davis et al. 1991) and  
120 upper-body Plug-In-Gait marker set. The shank, ankle, and foot markers were placed on the  
121 prosthetic in corresponding positions to those on the intact limb (Kent and Franklyn-Miller, 2011,  
122 Rusaw and Ramstrand, 2010, Rusaw and Ramstrand, 2011). While the generated model will not  
123 necessarily fully replicate the function of the prosthesis, this placement enables the mobility and  
124 work done to be adequately quantified. Only one participant wore a blade type prosthetic (Endolite  
125 Blade XT) with a heel counter. The foot and shank markers for this participant were placed in  
126 corresponding positions to the intact limb on the heel counter and socket, respectively. The ankle  
127 marker was placed at the apex of the curve to enable the motion and work done in the curve to  
128 be associated with the 'ankle'. Prior to collecting data, participants performed a warm-up routine  
129 involving walking the length of the laboratory (15 m), including stepping up and down the step  
130 platform, until they felt comfortable in the environment. Data collection consisted of walking at a  
131 self-selected habitual pace along a 5m in length custom-made raised single-step platform,  
132 stepping down from a height of 14 cm, and continuing to walk until reaching the end of the  
133 laboratory (Figure 1). No handrails were present. Participants repeated the step descent until 5  
134 successful trials were obtained defined as full contact of both feet on the force platforms. On  
135 average, participants performed 10 step descent trials. Force platforms were placed as depicted  
136 in Figure 1 to collect data from both the trailing and leading limbs. No instruction was provided on  
137 how to descend the step. The starting position on the step platform for ITTA participants was  
138 adjusted such that the intact limb led during descent. Control participants were not instructed on  
139 which limb to lead with during descent, and the lead limb defined in this study was the first limb  
140 chosen to lead during descent.

141 Data were filtered using a fourth-order Butterworth filter with cut-off frequencies of 10 Hz and 200  
142 Hz, respectively. Kinetic features were calculated using inverse dynamics from the Vicon Plug-In

143 Gait dynamic model. Loading features were extracted for the leading limb only and included the  
144 vGRF, KAM, KFM, and the anterior-posterior, medial-lateral, and compressive knee joint reaction  
145 forces for the duration of the braking phase. The braking phase was defined from initial contact  
146 of the leading limb to the zero-crossing point in the anterior-posterior GRF. These data were time-  
147 normalised to 100% of the braking phase and normalised by mass.

148 Whole-body temporal-spatial parameters of speed and step length were calculated using a  
149 custom MATLAB code (R2017a, The Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA). Forward velocity was  
150 calculated as the change in horizontal displacement of the CoM to best reflect walking speed from  
151 initial contact of the trailing limb toe marker on the step platform to toe-off of the leading limb toe  
152 marker on the ground divided by the time taken to complete. Step length was calculated as the  
153 horizontal distance between toe markers at the point of initial contact of the leading limb.

154 To confirm reduced trailing limb work was performed in ITTAs and to examine any changes in the  
155 leading limb mechanics, lower-limb sagittal plane joint work was calculated for both the trailing  
156 and leading limbs as the area under the power-time curve. The trailing limb joint work was  
157 calculated separately for each subphase. These two trailing limb subphases represent the phases  
158 in which the majority of the phase consisted of lowering the CoM (subphase 1) and propulsion for  
159 continued forward progression (subphase 2) (van Dieën, Spanjaard et al. 2008, Moudy, Tillin et  
160 al. 2019, van Dieën, Spanjaard et al. 2007, Jones, Twigg et al. 2006, Murray, Gaffney et al. 2017).  
161 Lowering of the CoM was defined from the first positive point in the anterior-posterior GRF of the  
162 trailing limb on the step platform to initial contact of the leading limb. The propulsive subphase  
163 was defined as the double support phase ending with toe-off of the trailing limb. The leading limb  
164 joint work was calculated for the duration of the braking phase. Last, total joint work was  
165 calculated as the sum of the absolute positive and negative work performed at each joint.

## 166 **2.1. Statistical Analysis**

167 All ITTA participants performed a toe-contact descent strategy ( $n = 8$ ). Therefore, only the able-

168 bodied controls who utilised this strategy were used for comparison ( $n = 10$ ) to understand the  
169 role of the trailing limb when other factors were consistent between groups. All data were normally  
170 distributed as determined by the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for the discrete features ( $P > 0.05$ )  
171 and based on normality tests in statistical parametric mapping for loading waveform features ( $P$   
172  $> 0.05$ ). Loading waveforms (vGRF, KAM, KFM) were analysed using statistical parametric  
173 mapping (Pataky 2012) independent  $t$ -tests between ITTAs and toe-contact controls. Independent  
174  $t$ -tests were also performed to determine differences between groups in trailing and leading limb  
175 joint mechanics (joint and total work and temporal-spatial parameters). Last, to determine if lead  
176 limb loading was affected by differences in forward velocity, point-by-point analyses of covariance  
177 (ANCOVA) were additionally performed with speed as a covariate on the loading waveforms. By  
178 performing both  $t$ -tests and ANCOVAs, it can be determined whether a feature of interest is  
179 independent of speed or could be affected by changes in speed. Statistical significance was set  
180 to  $P < 0.05$ .

### 181 **3. Results**

182 There were no significant differences between groups for age, height, or mass (Table 1).

#### 183 **3.1. Loading Differences**

184 There were no significant differences between ITTA and control groups for any of the loading  
185 waveforms throughout the braking phase. After covarying for speed, the intact limb of ITTAs  
186 experienced a significantly greater KFM ( $P = 0.031$ ) and anterior knee joint reaction force ( $P =$   
187  $0.030$ ) from 7-8% of the braking phase compared to the control group (Figure 2†).

#### 188 **3.2. Movement Differences**

189 Forward velocity was significantly slower in the ITTA group than the control group ( $P = 0.003$ ).  
190 The ITTA group also performed the step descent with a significantly shorter step length ( $P =$   
191  $0.025$ ; Table 1).



192 The total negative work completed by the trailing prosthetic limb (ITTA) during single support  
193 (subphase 1) was significantly reduced, by 58% compared to the control group ( $P = 0.004$ ; Figure  
194 3A). The negative work completed by the prosthetic limb in ITTAs was significantly lower at the  
195 ankle joint ( $P < 0.001$ ) and hip joint ( $P = 0.013$ ), and significantly greater at the knee joint ( $P =$   
196  $0.013$ ). The prosthetic trailing limb primarily utilised the knee joint (78%), while the control group  
197 utilised the ankle joint (70%) when lowering the CoM during single support (Figure 3B).

198 The total absolute work completed during double support (subphase 2) in the prosthetic trailing  
199 limb of ITTAs was significantly lower than the controls (111%,  $P < 0.001$ ; Figure 3A). Individual  
200 joint work done in the ITTA group was significantly lower at the ankle ( $P < 0.001$ ), knee ( $P =$   
201  $0.005$ ), and hip ( $P < 0.001$ ) joints compared to the control group. Both ITTAs and controls utilised  
202 the ankle joint to the greatest extent (52-67%) followed by the knee (27%) then the hip joint (6-  
203 21%; Figure 3B) for continued forward progression.

204 The total negative work completed in the leading limb was not significantly different between  
205 groups ( $P = 0.208$ ) although the ITTA group performed 15% greater total work on average than  
206 the control group (Figure 3A). The intact limb of ITTAs completed significantly greater work at the  
207 ankle joint ( $P = 0.017$ ). No significant differences were present for the individual joint work at the  
208 knee ( $P = 0.580$ ) or hip ( $P = 0.519$ ) joints. Both the ITTA and control groups utilised the ankle joint  
209 as the primary shock absorber (78-80%), followed by the knee (13-14%), then the hip (5-9%;  
210 Figure 3B).

#### 211 **4. Discussion**

212 This study aimed to investigate the effect of trailing limb mechanics, speed, and leading limb  
213 mechanics on lead limb loading patterns by examining ITTA step descent strategies. Contrary to  
214 the first hypothesis, ITTAs did not experience significantly greater load or perform significantly  
215 greater total work in the leading intact limb. In partial agreement with the second hypothesis,  
216 ITTAs evidenced significantly reduced prosthetic limb total joint work in both trailing limb

217 subphases and performed the step descent at a significantly slower speed, yet ITTAs performed  
218 significantly greater lead limb ankle joint work. After covarying for differences in speed, lead limb  
219 loading was significantly greater at initial KFM and anterior knee joint reaction peaks in ITTAs.  
220 This suggests that a slower speed may have been chosen by ITTAs to descend the step to  
221 mitigate high loading.

222 The trailing limb mechanics differed significantly between groups in both subphases. ITTAs  
223 utilised a different mechanistic approach to lower the CoM by primarily utilising the knee joint,  
224 whereas the same mechanistic approach was utilised for propulsion in both groups (Figure 3B).  
225 During single support, the total joint work completed in the trailing limb of ITTAs to lower the CoM  
226 was significantly reduced compared to controls. This was primarily driven by the significantly less  
227 work done at the prosthetic ankle joint and hip joint (Figure 3B). In contrast, 70% of the work to  
228 lower the CoM in the control group was performed by the ankle joint. ITTAs partially compensated  
229 for the reduced prosthetic ankle work by performing greater work at the knee joint. It is also  
230 possible that contralaterally the significantly greater lead limb ankle joint work occurring during  
231 double support aided in lowering the CoM safely (Figure 3A). During the propulsive phase  
232 (subphase 2), significantly reduced propulsive work was done in the prosthetic trailing limb at all  
233 lower-limb joints. When examining the overall contribution of each joint to the total work done, the  
234 majority of propulsion was generated by the prosthetic ankle joint in ITTAs possibly as a result of  
235 the dynamic elastic response passive prosthetic componentry, whereas the control group  
236 coordinated the total work done with the knee and hip joints (Figure 3B). Thus, ITTAs may focus  
237 more on safely lowering the CoM vertically than continuing forward progression due to the  
238 reduced trailing limb functionality.

239 Despite significant reductions in trailing limb work in ITTAs, there was a non-significant increase  
240 in lead limb total work by 15%, which was dominated by significantly increased lead limb ankle  
241 joint work compared to controls (Figure 3A). The toe-contact strategy may have been performed

242 by ITTAs in order to utilise the functionality of the intact lead limb by re-distributing the between-  
243 limb work demand (Barnett, Polman et al. 2014). In agreement with this, Schmalz et al. (2007),  
244 examining stair descent, found that the leading intact limb exhibited greater ankle plantarflexion  
245 immediately prior to initial contact thereby increasing the length of the limb to aid in lowering the  
246 CoM. While Schmalz et al. (2007) did not assess the trailing limb mechanics, the results from the  
247 current study suggest that the increased intact leading ankle joint work (Figure 3A) was possibly  
248 required to lower the CoM safely due to the reduced work performed by the trailing prosthetic  
249 limb. It is therefore likely that the limb lengthening mechanism was utilised in the ITTA group to  
250 aid in lowering the CoM by controlling the downward momentum and enhancing gait stability  
251 (Barnett, Polman, & Vanicek, 2014, van Dieën et al., 2007, van Dieën and Pijnappels, 2009).

252 The results of this study show that while there were differences in the trailing limb mechanics  
253 between groups, there were no differences in lead limb loading patterns until speed was  
254 accommodated in the analysis. It is likely that performing the step descent at a slower speed  
255 (Table 1) aided in partially maintaining limb and knee joint load in ITTAs similar to that experienced  
256 by control participants. After speed covariation, the leading (intact) limb of ITTAs was found to  
257 have significantly greater KFM and anterior knee joint reaction force at the first peak in the  
258 waveform (Figure 2). This signifies that if both groups had performed the step descent at the same  
259 speed, the ITTA group would have experienced a greater magnitude of load at this initial peak in  
260 the leading limb. It is possible that a toe-contact strategy performed with increased ankle joint  
261 work may not be enough to reduce limb and joint loading and reductions in forward velocity may  
262 be required to limit the load experienced when limitations in the trailing limb are present. These  
263 data also suggest that the effect of trailing limb mechanics on the lead limb could be mitigated by  
264 modifying speed.

265 This study attempted to examine the specific effect of reduced trailing limb functional capacity on  
266 lead limb loading by controlling for other confounding features, e.g. age, sex. This could suggest

267 that differences in lead limb mechanics and loading are at least in part due to the trailing limb  
268 mechanics. Further studies could assess other confounding features such as step length,  
269 muscular strength, and prosthetic componentry that may additionally account for variance in the  
270 lead limb mechanics and loading.

271 A limitation of this study is the small sample size and that only males volunteered to participate.  
272 This may limit the generalisation of the findings. Another possible limitation is the use of speed  
273 as a covariate as speed is largely associated with movement mechanics and subsequently limb  
274 loading. It has been argued that covarying for speed may remove meaningful differences in joint  
275 degeneration as speed and disease state both change as degeneration progresses (Astephen  
276 Wilson, 2012). The cause-effect relationship of speed with loading and mechanics is difficult to  
277 define. It is possible that ITTAs reduced their forward velocity because the prosthetic limb was  
278 unable to quickly perform the descent. Conversely, speed may have been reduced as a  
279 mechanism to limit load. Nevertheless, the findings of this study and others (Thoma et al., 2017,  
280 Zeni and Higginson, 2009) suggest that speed is an important mechanism in attenuating load.

## 281 **5. Conclusion**

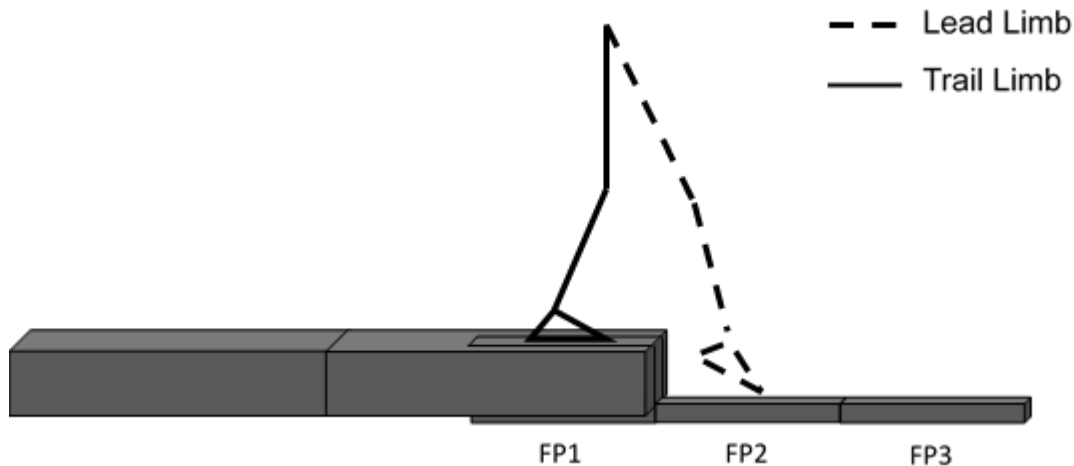
282 Trailing limb mechanics appear to have minimal effect on lead limb loading when stepping down  
283 from a single-step during ongoing walking evidenced by no significant differences in the leading  
284 limb and knee joint loading waveforms throughout the braking phase between the intact limb of  
285 ITTAs and toe-contact controls. This occurred despite significant reductions in the prosthetic  
286 trailing limb's capacity to lower the CoM and propel the CoM to continue forward progression. The  
287 ITTA group performed the step descent at a slower speed and utilised an adapted toe-contact  
288 strategy (increased ankle joint work) which, given the limitations from the prosthetic trailing limb,  
289 could have aided in reducing the load experienced throughout the braking phase. This is  
290 evidenced by finding significant differences in load after speed covariation. These differences  
291 were restricted to the first initial peak for KFM and anterior knee joint reaction force. When leading

292 with the intact limb, utilisation of a toe-contact strategy and reductions in forward velocity may be  
293 effective approaches to reduce the load experienced while compensating for limitations present  
294 in the trailing limb.

**Table 1.** Participant demographics and whole-body temporal-spatial parameters (mean  $\pm$  SD) for the ITTA ( $n = 8$ ) and toe-contact control ( $n = 10$ ) groups. All participants were male.

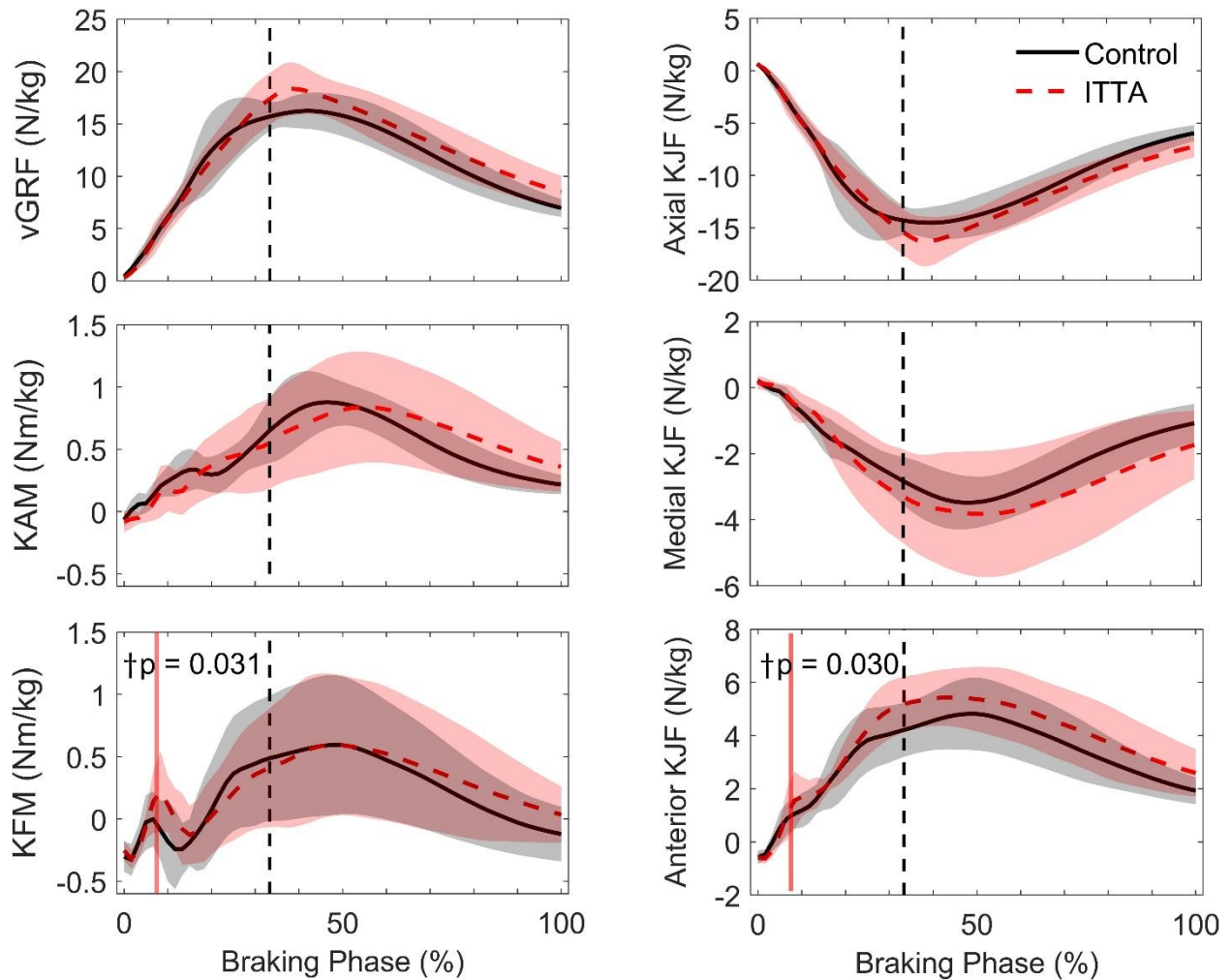
	ITTA	Toe- Contact Control	<i>P</i> -value
<i>Age (years)</i>	40.0 $\pm$ 9.0	35.7 $\pm$ 6.4	0.254
<i>Mass (kg)</i>	84.5 $\pm$ 18	88.4 $\pm$ 8.9	0.546
<i>Height (cm)</i>	177 $\pm$ 7.4	180 $\pm$ 6.2	0.423
<i>Forward velocity (m/s)</i>	1.14 $\pm$ 0.2	1.37 $\pm$ 0.1	<b>0.003</b>
<i>Step Length (m)</i>	0.63 $\pm$ 0.09	0.72 $\pm$ 0.07	<b>0.025</b>

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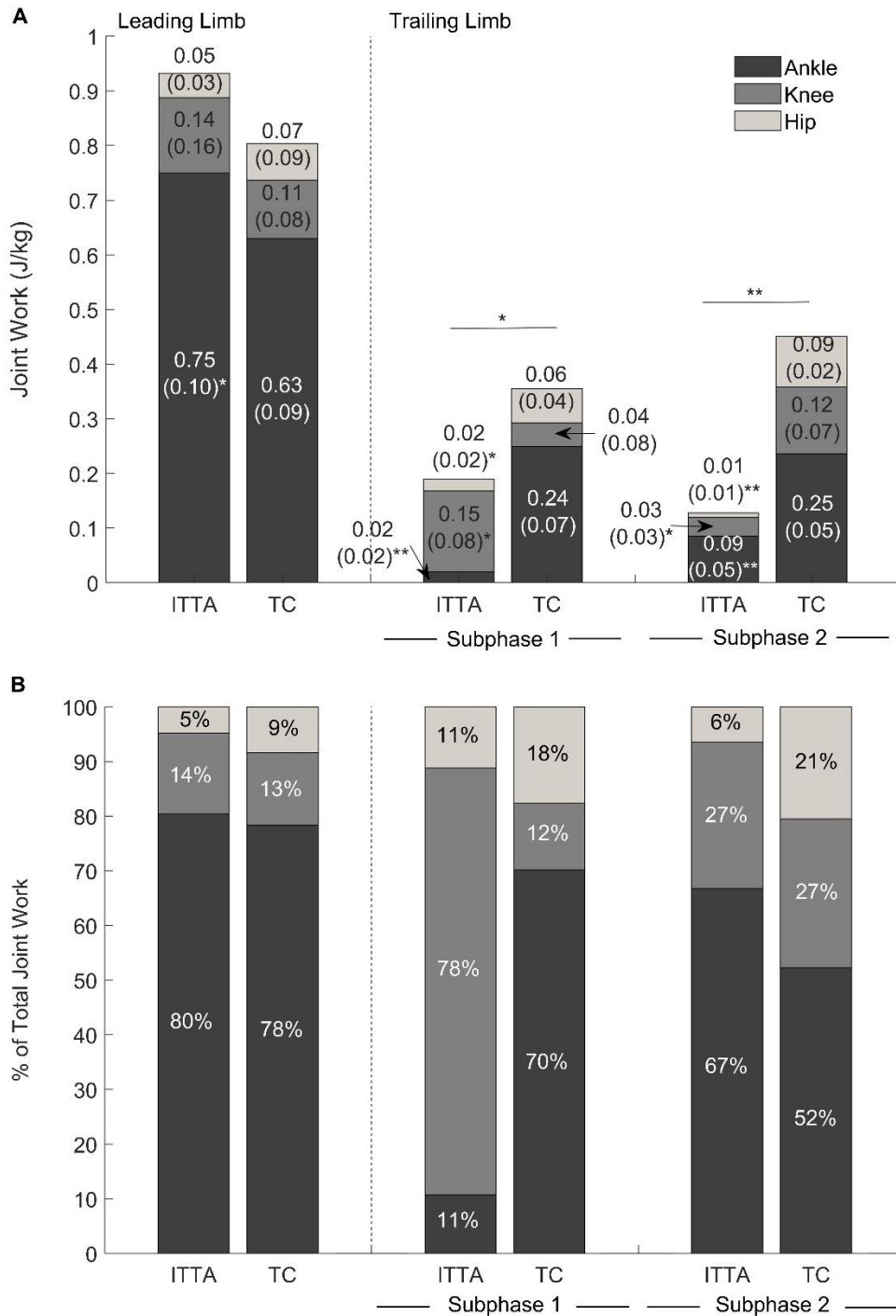
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**Figure 1. Depiction of step platform.** Three force platforms are denoted and a visualisation of a toe-contact strategy is included with the defined lead and trail limb. The final section of the step platform included a separate box that attached individually to the force platform to ensure good force data were collected.



302

303 **Figure 2. Lead limb loading waveforms.** Loading waveforms in the intact limb of ITTAs (red  
 304 dashed line) and leading limb of the control group (black solid line) for the duration of the braking  
 305 phase are presented. Shaded regions represent 1 standard deviation. The phases of significant  
 306 difference are highlighted vertically in red †that became significant after covarying for speed. The  
 307 black vertical dashed line represents the average time point at which the end of the double support  
 308 phase occurred across all participant trials. KJF = knee joint reaction force



309

310 **Figure 3. Leading and trailing limb joint work.** A) Absolute values of the positive and negative  
 311 joint work completed and B) percentage joint contribution relative to the total joint work completed  
 312 in the ankle, knee, and hip joints for the leading limb (LL) and trailing limb (TL) subphases in the  
 313 ITTA and toe-contact control (TC) groups.



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