

1 Title Page

2 Increased trunk flexion may underlie elevated knee flexor activity in
3 people with knee osteoarthritis

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15 people with knee osteoarthritis

16 Abstract

17 *Background:* Previous research has demonstrated elevated activation of the knee flexor muscles in
18 people with knee osteoarthritis. People with this condition have also been observed to walk with increased
19 trunk flexion; this may alter biomechanical loading patterns and change muscle activation profiles.
20 Therefore, the aim of this study was to understand the biomechanical effect of increasing trunk flexion
21 during walking.

22 *Methods:* Kinetic and EMG data were collected from a sample of 20 people with knee osteoarthritis and a
23 sample of 20 healthy matched controls during normal walking. Using a biofeedback protocol, participants
24 were subsequently instructed to walk with a 5° increase in trunk flexion. Sagittal moments, muscle
25 activations and co-contractions were then compared across a window in early stance with a two-way
26 ANOVA test.

27 *Results:* When trunk flexion was increased, there was a corresponding increase in activity of the medial and
28 lateral hamstrings and gastrocnemius muscles as well as a rise in medial co-contraction. This effect was
29 consistent across the two groups. The most pronounced effect was observed for semitendinosus, which
30 showed a dramatic change in activation profile in the healthy group and a 127% increase in activation
31 during early stance.

32 *Conclusions:* This is the first study to demonstrate that increased trunk flexion in people with knee
33 osteoarthritis may explain, to some degree, the elevated knee flexor activity and medial co-contraction
34 which is associated with this disease. These findings motivate further work to understand the therapeutic
35 potential of interventions designed to improve postural alignment.

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37

38 Key words

39 Knee osteoarthritis; co-contraction; trunk flexion; biofeedback; walking; biomechanics

40 1 Introduction

41 Knee osteoarthritis (OA) is a chronic long-term condition which is associated with pain and
42 impaired mobility [1] and affects a large proportion of the global population [2]. This disease is
43 characterised by changes in the articular cartilage and surrounding tissues [3]. While the factors underlying
44 cartilage degeneration are complex, involving biological, mechanical and structural pathways [4], elevated
45 mechanical loading is known to play a role in disease progression [5]. Given this link, there has been a large
46 body of research which has focused on surrogate markers of mechanical loading in knee OA, such as the
47 knee adduction moment [6] and measures of muscular co-contraction [7].

48 Research has consistently shown that people with knee OA exhibit elevated activity in the
49 hamstrings [8, 9], quadriceps [10, 11] and gastrocnemius [12, 13] muscles during walking. These altered
50 patterns of muscle coordination are characterised by both prolonged [12] and increased muscle activation
51 [8], resulting in elevated co-contraction [14]. Experimental and modelling studies have demonstrated the
52 potentially damaging effects of these muscle patterns, showing that increased co-contraction will increase
53 compressive load on the joint [15] and accelerate cartilage loss [16]. Importantly, longer-term follow up
54 studies have identified that patients who exhibit elevated co-contraction at baseline, are more likely to opt
55 for a knee replacement at five-year follow up [17]. These findings indicate that co-contraction could be an
56 intervention target. However, if therapeutic interventions are to be developed to reduce co-contraction, it
57 is important to understand the biomechanical mechanisms which may underlie increased muscle activity in
58 people with knee OA.

59 Two potential biomechanical mechanisms for co-contraction have been suggested. The first is that
60 higher muscle activity on the lateral side of the knee unloads the medial compartment [18], which is most
61 commonly affected by OA. However, modelling studies have disputed this theory, showing that a lateral

62 activation strategy may actually increase, not decrease, the medial contact load [15]. The second
63 mechanism proposed to explain co-contraction is that it functions as a mechanism to increase knee stability
64 in order to compensate for ligament laxity [19]. Evidence to support this idea comes from research which
65 has demonstrated that people with knee OA exhibit elevated muscular responses to a sudden perturbation
66 [20]. However, it is unclear whether findings from perturbation studies can be used to infer that increased
67 knee flexor activity, observed during walking, functions primarily to stabilise the joint. Instead, other
68 mechanisms may underlie increased knee muscle activity which result from biomechanical changes
69 proximal to the knee.

70 A large proportion of the body's mass is contained within the head, arms and trunk segment [21].
71 Therefore, small changes in trunk flexion have the potential to change biomechanical loads at lower
72 extremity joints [22] and impact on lower limb muscle patterns [23]. In line with this idea, we have
73 observed increased activity of the lateral knee flexor muscles in healthy young people who habitually walk
74 with elevated trunk flexion [23]. In another study, we demonstrated that when healthy young people are
75 instructed to increase trunk flexion by 5° [24], there are pronounced increases in both medial and lateral
76 gastrocnemius and hamstring muscles. Given that people with knee OA have been shown to walk with an
77 increased flexion of the trunk [25], it is possible that the elevated knee flexor activity, observed in people
78 with knee OA, is related to an alteration in sagittal trunk inclination. Therefore, the aim of this study was to
79 quantify the effect of increasing trunk flexion in older healthy people and individuals with knee OA.

80 2 Materials and methods

81

82 2.1 Study participants

83 We recruited 20 participants with knee osteoarthritis (OA) along with 20 matched healthy control
84 participants. Participants in the group with knee OA were included if they were over the age of 40, satisfied
85 ACR criteria [26], had a radiological diagnosis of knee OA and had experienced knee pain for at least 6
86 months prior to testing. Healthy participants were included if they had not experienced lower limb pain or

87 back pain within the last six months. Exclusions for both groups included any neurological disease,
88 cardiovascular disorder, previous surgery to the lower limb (excluding exploratory arthroscopy) or an
89 inability to walk 100m unaided. This latter criterion was included to ensure that all participants had a
90 reasonable level of physical function. Patients were recruited through a range of avenues, including
91 community advert, GP invitation letter, physiotherapy outpatient clinics and through a local citizen scientist
92 website for the recruitment of research volunteers. Ethical approval was obtained from a UK NHS ethics
93 committee (REF 18/NW/0030); all subjects gave informed consent to participate, and all procedures were
94 performed in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki.

95 **2.2 Experimental data collection**

96 Kinematic, kinetic and EMG data were collected during a normal walking (baseline) condition and
97 under a condition in which participants were instructed to increase trunk flexion by 5°. For this increased
98 trunk flexion condition, we used a biofeedback protocol, explained below. Kinematic data were collected
99 using an Oqus camera system (Qualisys, Sweden) (100Hz) with two AMTI force plates (1500Hz) embedded
100 in the walkway. Reflective markers, attached to the skin, were used to track motions of the pelvis and
101 trunk, along with the thigh, shank and foot of one lower limb. This limb corresponded to the symptomatic
102 limb in the people with knee OA and was selected at random in the healthy individuals.

103 To track the thorax (trunk), we followed the protocol suggested by Armand *et al.* [27], defining this
104 segment with markers placed on the greater trochanters and acromions. The trunk segment was tracked
105 using markers on the jugular notch and on the second and eighth thoracic vertebrae. Preliminary testing,
106 on five participants, showed a standard error of measurement of the trunk angle of 0.9° from test-retest
107 data collected during two test sessions, separated by one week. The pelvic segment was defined using
108 markers placed over the right and left anterior superior iliac spines and the right and left posterior superior
109 iliac spines; these were tracked with a rigid cluster of 3 markers positioned over the sacrum. Two rigid
110 clusters of 4 markers were also used to track the motions of the thigh and shank; a system of 4 markers,
111 placed over anatomical landmarks, were used to track motion of the foot. Ankle and knee joint centres
112 were calculated as midpoints between the malleoli and femoral epicondyles respectively. The hip joint

Knee flexor activity and trunk flexion

113 centre was calculated using the regression model of Bell et al. [28] based on the anterior and posterior
114 superior iliac spine markers.

115 Surface electromyography (EMG) data were collected from the same limb selected for the
116 kinematic/kinetic data. These data were collected using a Noraxon DTS system, sampling at 1500 Hz, from
117 six muscles: vastus lateralis (VL), vastus medialis (VM), biceps femoris (BF), semitendinosus (ST), medial
118 gastrocnemius (MG) and lateral gastrocnemius (LG). Electrodes were placed according to SENIAM
119 guidelines [29] and skin preparation was performed using abrasive gel and an alcohol wipe.

120 All participants were tested under a baseline normal walking condition. For these trials, participants
121 walked barefoot at a self-selected speed along a 6-metre walkway. A minimum of five successful walking
122 trials were recorded for which walking speed (measured using optical timing gates) was consistent (within a
123 5% tolerance). Data from these normal walking trials were then processed to obtain a kinematic trajectory
124 for trunk flexion angle relative to the laboratory. This processing involved low pass filtering of raw marker
125 and force data at 12Hz and 25Hz respectively and the use of a six degree of freedom model, implemented
126 using the Visual 3D software (C-Motion, Rockville, Maryland), to calculate the kinematic trajectory [23].
127 Gait events were calculated by applying a 20N threshold to the vertical ground reaction force data and used
128 to time normalise the trunk flexion data to a full gait cycle. An ensemble average for trunk flexion was
129 calculated for all walking trials and the mean (across the gait cycle) used as that participant's trunk flexion
130 angle during normal walking (NW). This was taken as the baseline condition.

131 All participants were then instructed to increase their trunk flexion angle by 5° during walking
132 (NW+5°). Previous research has shown a smaller difference of approximately 3° in trunk flexion between
133 healthy participants and people with knee OA [25]. However, through pilot testing, a change of 5° was
134 found to be smallest increase that could be consistently adopted by our participants. A two-stage process
135 was used to instruct participants to increase trunk flexion, which focused first on standing and then on
136 walking. Throughout this process, participants were instructed to move their hip backwards in order to
137 change upper body inclination. Pilot testing showed this instruction to be the most effective method of
138 changing trunk flexion, whilst minimising associated changes in knee angle or spinal alignment in standing.

Knee flexor activity and trunk flexion

139 The initial phase, which focused on standing, was implemented using a real-time biofeedback programme,
140 deployed in MATLAB (The MathWorks), which visualised trunk flexion on a screen, indicating the target
141 angles.

142 Once participants could repeatably reproduce the target angle in standing without the need for
143 biofeedback, walking trials at the increased trunk flexion condition were carried out. To achieve the target
144 trunk angle, participants were provided with verbal feedback after each trial so that they could make an
145 appropriate adjustment to trunk angle during the subsequent trial. To facilitate this approach, trunk angle
146 was calculated using the Visual 3D software after each trial and compared to the target trunk angle. A trial
147 was considered successful if it was within 5% of the baseline walking speed and if the mean trunk flexion
148 angle (across the gait cycle) was within 2° of the target trunk angle.

149 Reference data from a maximum voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC) were collected for each
150 muscle group following the walking trials. These data were collected using the protocol suggested by
151 Rutherford *et al.* [30], described in an earlier publication [23]. Three separate tests, of five seconds
152 duration, were recorded for each of the three muscle groups, with a 60 second rest between contractions.
153 To process the MVIC data, a high pass filter (20Hz) was applied, the signal rectified and a linear envelop
154 (6Hz) created [10]. A 0.1s moving window algorithm [10] was applied to the linear envelope and a
155 maximum value was identified for each trial. The dynamic EMG was processed in a similar way, with high
156 pass filtering (20Hz), followed by rectification and creation of a linear envelope (6Hz) [10]. Dynamic EMG
157 data were time normalised to stance phase and an ensemble average created for each muscle for both the
158 baseline condition and for the trunk flexed condition. These data were then normalised by the MVIC
159 reference value, which was selected as the maximum from the three MVIC tests.

160 To understand the effect of trunk flexion on co-contraction, we derived four co-contraction
161 activation profiles. The first two profiles were obtained by summing medial/lateral hamstring and
162 quadriceps activity (ST-VM & BF-VL) and the second two profiles obtained by summing medial/lateral
163 gastrocnemius and quadriceps activity (MG-VM & LG-VL). Although previous researchers have used a
164 specific co-contraction ratio [14], we chose to sum knee flexor and knee extensor activity. This is because

165 modelling studies [7] have shown that this method of quantifying co-activation is more closely related to
166 joint contact forces than the co-contraction ratio. Following EMG processing, kinematic trajectories for the
167 hip, knee and ankle, along with lower limb moments, were derived with the Visual 3D software using the
168 modelling approached reported in a previous paper [23]. All moment data were normalised by the
169 participant's body mass.

170

171 **2.3 Outcome measures and statistical analysis**

172 In order to define specific outcome measures for each of the kinetic, muscle activation and co-
173 contraction signals, we calculated an average across a specific window of the gait cycle. Modelling studies
174 of knee contact loads [15] have identified a point of peak load at approximately 13% of the gait cycle,
175 equivalent to 20% of stance phase. We therefore chose to focus on a window of 15-25% stance phase for
176 kinematic/kinetic data. This was adjusted backwards by 5% of stance (approximately 30ms) for EMG
177 signals, in order to account for electromechanical delay. Derivation of the specific outcomes was performed
178 in Matlab. A two-way ANOVA test (group x trunk flexion) was applied to explore the effect of increasing
179 trunk flexion on muscle activation parameters, sagittal moments and to identify any possible interactions,
180 i.e. whether the effect of increasing trunk flexion differed between the two groups. All data were found to
181 be normally distributed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; therefore, it was not necessary to use any non-
182 parametric tests. All statistical analyses were performed in MATLAB. To guard against type 1 error, a critical
183 $\alpha = 0.01$ was selected.

184 **3 Results**

185 All 20 people with knee OA (7 male) completed the testing protocol. Of this group, two had a KL
186 grade 1, six had a grade 2, nine had a grade 3 and three had a grade 4. This group had a mean (SD) age of
187 56 (9) years old, mass 81(14) kg, height 1.70 (0.07) m and BMI 28.7 (4.9) kg/m². The 20 healthy people (7
188 male) also completed the full testing protocol. The mean (SD) age of this group was 57 (9) years, mass 80

Knee flexor activity and trunk flexion

189 (11) kg, height 1.70 (0.06) m and BMI 27.4 (3.9) kg/m². Comparison of demographic characteristics showed
190 minimal differences between the healthy group and the group with knee OA.

191 The individuals with knee OA walked with 2.8° more trunk flexion in the baseline condition than the
192 healthy participants (Table 1). Following the biofeedback protocol, trunk inclination increased by an
193 average of 5.9° and 5.8° in the healthy and OA groups respectively (Table 1). This change was associated
194 with a significant increase in both the hip moment and the ankle moment over the window of interest, but
195 a non-significant decrease in the knee moment (Table 1). Specifically, when trunk flexion was increased in
196 the healthy group, the hip moment increased by 86% and the ankle moment increased by 250% (Table 1 &
197 Figure 1). Interestingly, the ankle moment profile was very similar between the baseline OA condition and
198 the healthy NW+5° condition during midstance (Figure 1c). No group x trunk flexion interactions were
199 observed for any of the moment parameters.

200 The activation profiles of the two quadriceps muscles were relatively unaffected by increasing trunk
201 flexion (Figure 2 & Table 1). However, both hamstring and gastrocnemius muscles increased significantly
202 with no group x trunk flexion interactions (Table 1). The largest increases, over the window of interest,
203 were observed in the two hamstring muscles with a 127% increase in semitendinosus and a 56% increase in
204 biceps femoris for the healthy group (Table 1, Figure 3). Interestingly, when trunk flexion was increased in
205 the healthy group, the activation profile of semitendinosus became similar in shape to the baseline OA
206 profile (Figure 3a), with a peak which occurred at approximately 10% of stance. Although there were less
207 pronounced changes in the activation profile of biceps femoris, the healthy profile did change to resemble
208 the baseline OA profile more closely as trunk flexion was increased (Figure 3b). Increases in the medial and
209 lateral gastrocnemius were smaller than those observed for the hamstrings, with changes of 30% and 35%
210 respectively for the healthy group over the window of interest (Table 1 & Figure 3c,d).

211 Co-contraction between the semitendinosus and vastus medialis muscles increased significantly as
212 trunk flexion was increased (Table 1). Interestingly, when the healthy group increased trunk flexion, this co-
213 contraction profile became almost identical to the baseline OA profile (Figure 4a), with a 31% increase
214 across the window of interest. There were minimal changes in the other co-contraction profiles for the

215 healthy group, with only small increases in the group with OA (Figure 4). However, despite these subtle
216 between-groups differences, there were no group x trunk flexion interactions (Table 1) for any of the co-
217 contraction signals.

218 4 Discussion

219 This study was performed to understand the biomechanical effect of increasing trunk flexion and
220 therefore gain insight into whether alterations in muscle activation, associated with knee OA, might be
221 related to trunk flexion. When trunk flexion was increased, there were pronounced increases in hip and
222 ankle moments, knee flexor muscle activation and ST-VM co-contraction. Importantly, there were no group
223 x trunk flexion interactions, demonstrating that the effect of increasing trunk flexion was consistent across
224 the two groups. Visual inspection of the muscle activation and co-contraction profiles demonstrated that,
225 when trunk flexion was increased in the healthy group, the profiles changed to become similar to the
226 baseline OA condition. These findings indicate that trunk flexion is likely to underlie, to some degree,
227 previous observations of elevated knee flexor activation [8, 9] and medial co-contraction [31] in people
228 with knee OA.

229 In a previous study we demonstrated that people with knee OA walk with 2.6° more trunk flexion
230 that matched healthy controls [25]. While the findings of this study are consistent with our previous
231 observation, other research has not identified clear differences in sagittal trunk inclination between healthy
232 and OA groups [32]. However, it is possible that these inconsistent findings are the result of the kinematic
233 approach used to model the trunk. Cadaver studies demonstrate that approximately 65% of the body's
234 mass is concentrated in the head, arms and trunk segment [21]. Therefore, very small changes in upper
235 body inclination could have a large effect on mechanical loads at the lower limb, altering muscle activation
236 profiles. It is therefore critical that future research employs advanced kinematic modelling techniques to
237 accurately quantify centre of mass trajectory in order to understand how this differs between healthy
238 people and those with OA and how it may impact on muscle activation patterns. Research should also
239 investigate whether alterations in postural alignment in people with knee OA, which have been observed in
240 standing [33-36], are maintained during functional tasks, such as walking.

Knee flexor activity and trunk flexion

241 With our laboratory protocol, all participants were provided with biofeedback to enable them to
242 increase trunk flexion by 5°. However, despite this tightly controlled protocol, the mean increase in trunk
243 flexion was 5.9° in the healthy group which was more than twice the baseline difference of 2.6° between
244 the healthy group and the people with knee OA. The findings of this present study are consistent with our
245 previous study on younger people, in which we demonstrated a linear increase in muscle activation as
246 trunk flexion was increased [24]. Assuming the data we present here are also linear, the increase in muscle
247 activation, which may be attributed to increased trunk flexion in the knee OA group, is likely to be
248 approximately 50% of the change we report between the baseline and NW+5° condition for the healthy
249 group. Interestingly, our data showed that when trunk flexion was increased in the healthy group,
250 semitendinosus increased to a level above that of the knee OA group in normal walking (Figure 3a).
251 However, the magnitude of change was lower in the biceps femoris (Figure 3b). Given these finding,
252 increased trunk flexion is unlikely to underlie the full spectrum of differences in muscle activation between
253 healthy people and those with knee OA. Nevertheless, it is likely to play an important role in medial co-
254 contraction which has been linked to increased rate of cartilage loss in people with knee OA [16] .

255 If increased trunk flexion does underlie, to some degree, elevated muscle activation in people with
256 knee OA, then it is important to develop clinical interventions which specifically target trunk flexion. While
257 most exercise-based approaches for knee OA tend to focus on strengthening of the knee flexor and
258 extensor muscles [37], we have observed improvements in pain following neuromuscular retraining
259 programmes which incorporate a postural component [31, 38]. In one of these studies, we quantified
260 changes in muscle activation, demonstrating a group-level reduction in medial hamstrings-quadriceps co-
261 ccontraction [31]. Importantly, greater improvements in pain were observed in those who exhibited larger
262 reductions in medial co-contraction. These previous results, along with the clear link between trunk flexion
263 and hamstring activation identified in this paper, motivate further research into the potential therapeutic
264 effect of postural training in people with knee OA.

265 There are a number of limitations to this study which need to be acknowledged. Firstly, we used a
266 maximal voluntary contraction to normalise the EMG data, which can be influenced by inter-subject

267 variation in motivation during reference contractions. Secondly, we used a single rigid segment to
268 represent the trunk (thorax) in order to define a single outcome measure capturing sagittal trunk
269 inclination. Given the multiple articulations in the spine, a more complex model would be required to
270 accurately represent subtle inter-subject differences in spinal alignment. However, this would have made it
271 difficult to independently manipulate a single variable. Thirdly, we acknowledge that our design does not
272 provide a definitive measure of the proportion of the variance in muscle activation which is explained by
273 differences in trunk flexion. However, given the difficulty of precisely quantifying muscle activation and
274 trunk inclination, we suggest that our approach of independently manipulating trunk flexion is appropriate.
275 This is because it minimises the impact of inter-subject variability on biomechanical outcomes. We suggest
276 that such variability could lead to uncertainty in a correlational design.

277 5 Conclusion

278 In summary, our data support the idea that increased trunk flexion may underlie, to some degree,
279 the increased knee flexor activation and medial co-contraction observed in people with knee OA. While
280 such inter-subject differences in trunk flexion are likely to interact with other factors, these findings
281 support the need for future research to develop and evaluate interventions which can improve postural
282 alignment in people with knee OA. It is likely that such interventions will reduce knee flexor activation,
283 reducing compressive load on the joint and may lead to improved clinical outcomes.

284

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290 Conflict of interest

291 None

292

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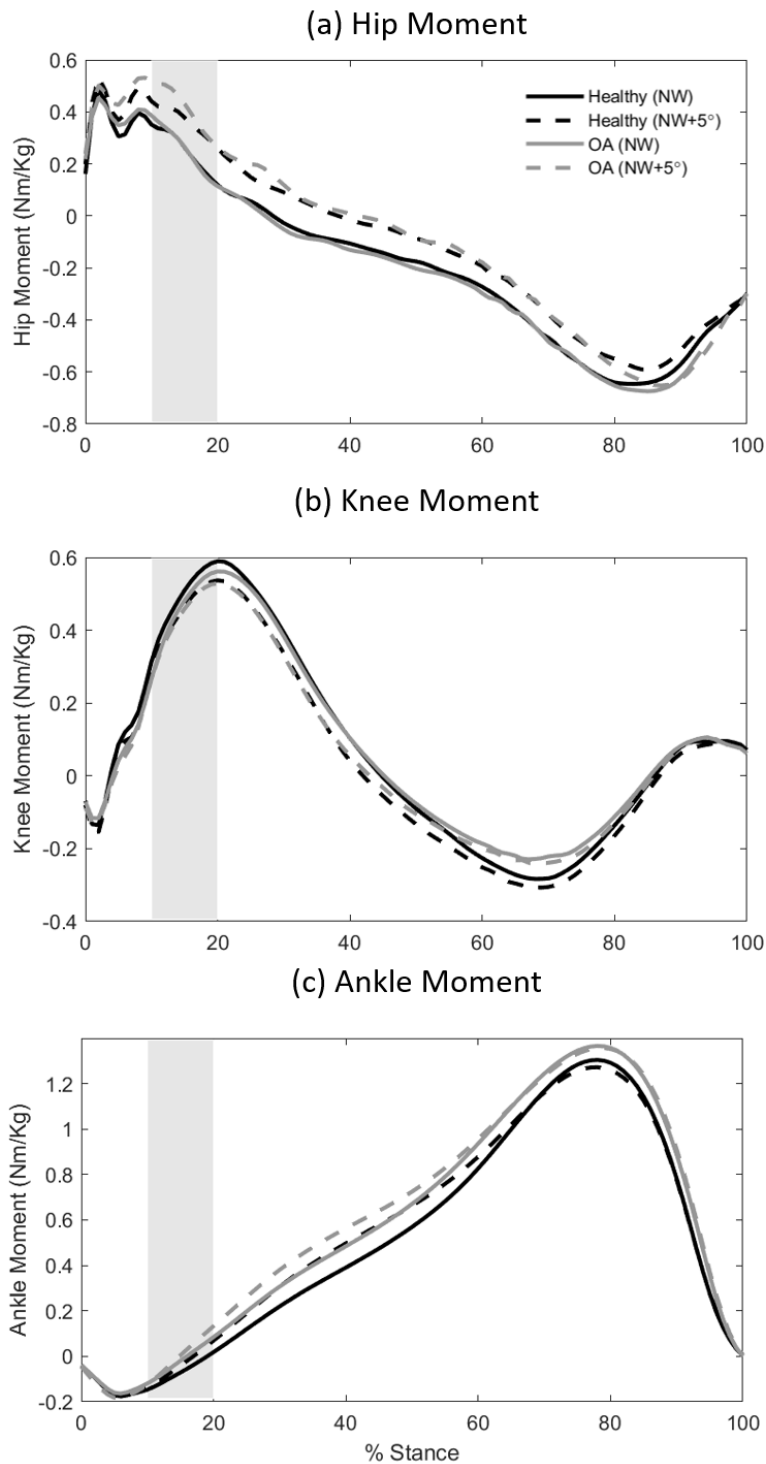
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413 Figures

414 Figure 1: Ensemble average profiles for the hip, knee and ankle moments for the OA and healthy groups in
 415 the normal walking (NW) condition and the increased trunk flexion (NW+5°) condition. The shaded regions
 416 indicate the sections of the waveforms which were averaged for statistical analysis.

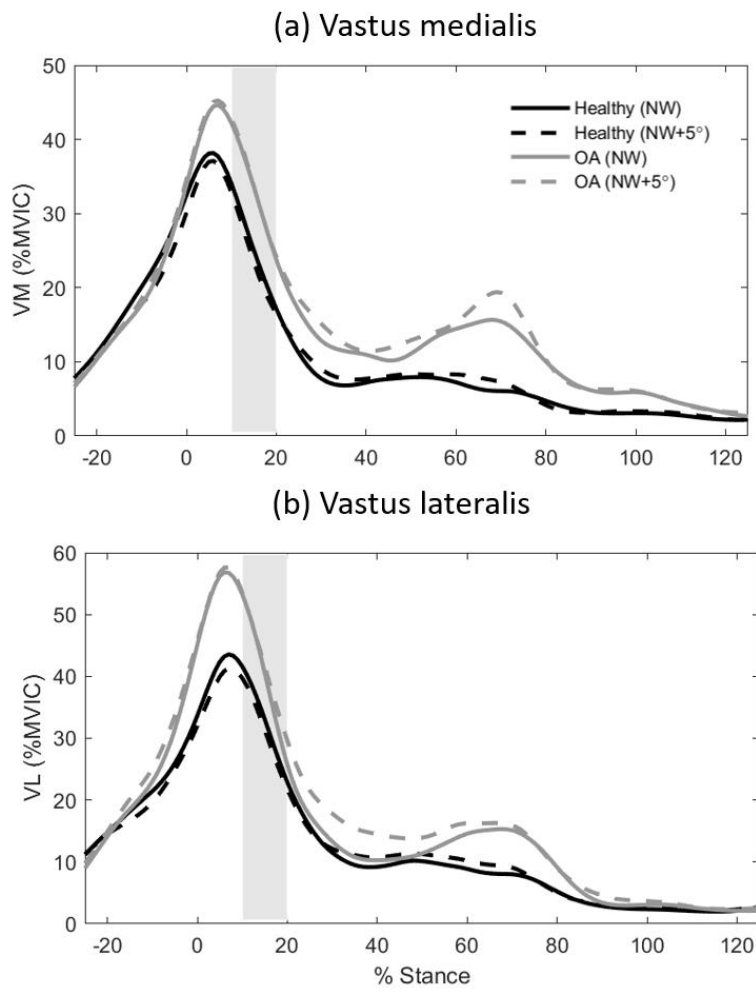


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419 Figure 2: Ensemble average quadriceps activations for the OA and healthy groups in the normal walking
420 (NW) condition and the increased trunk flexion (NW+5°) condition. The shaded regions indicate the
421 sections of the waveforms which were averaged for statistical analysis.

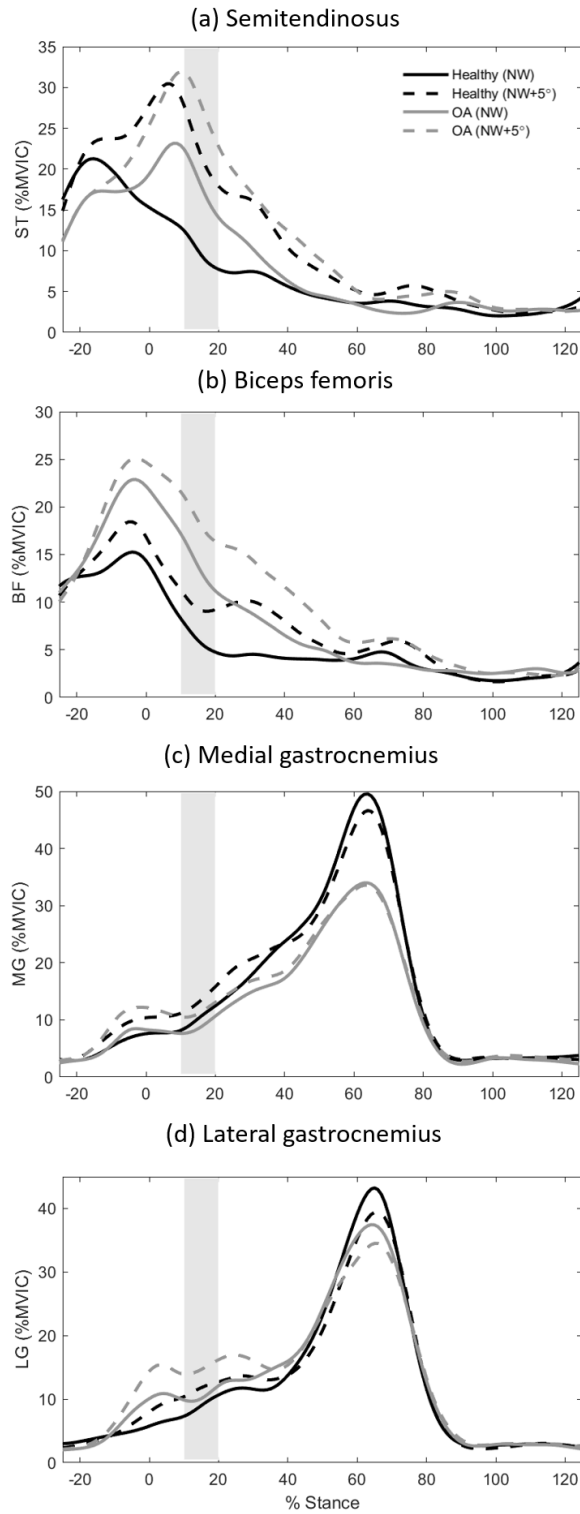
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Knee flexor activity and trunk flexion

424 Figure 3: Ensemble average hamstring and gastrocnemius activations for the OA and healthy groups in the
425 normal walking (NW) condition and the increased trunk flexion (NW+5°) condition. The shaded regions
426 indicate the sections of the waveforms which were averaged for statistical analysis.

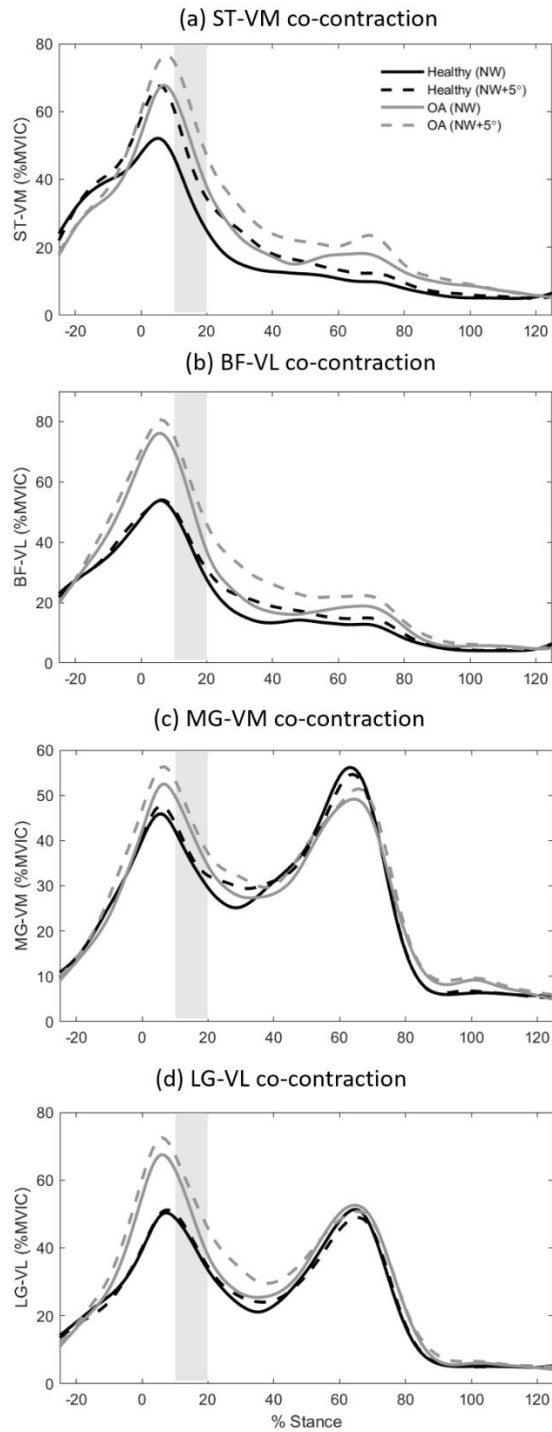


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Knee flexor activity and trunk flexion

429 Figure 4: Ensemble average co-contraction signals for OA and healthy groups in the normal walking (NW)
430 condition and the increased trunk flexion (NW+5°) condition. The shaded regions indicate the sections of
431 the waveforms which were averaged for statistical analysis. VM – vastus medialis, MG – medial
432 gastrocnemius, VL – vastus medialis, LG – lateral gastrocnemius, ST – semitendinosus, BF – biceps femoris.
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435 Tables

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437 Tables 1: Mean sagittal moment (Nm/Kg) and muscle activation (%MVIC) parameters for both groups in the
438 normal walking and trunk flexed conditions. P-values have been presented to show the effect of trunk
439 flexion and for the group x trunk flexion interaction. Trunk angle is averaged across the whole gait cycle and
440 moments/muscle activations averaged across a window in early stance. VM – vastus medialis, MG – medial
441 gastrocnemius, VL – vastus medialis, LG – lateral gastrocnemius, ST – semitendinosus, BF – biceps femoris.

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Knee flexor activity and trunk flexion

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	Healthy		OA		p-Value	
	NW	NW+5°	NW	NW+5°	Effect of flexion	Interaction
Trunk flexion	1.6°	7.5°	4.2°	10.0°	-	-
Hip Moment	0.14	0.26	0.13	0.29	<0.001	0.395
Knee Moment	0.56	0.51	0.54	0.50	0.045	0.672
Ankle Moment	0.02	0.07	0.09	0.13	<0.001	0.852
VM	25.3	24.0	33.3	33.6	0.65	0.838
VL	32.7	31.1	40.1	41.6	0.971	0.391
ST	9.8	22.2	18.1	27.7	<0.001	0.476
BF	6.2	9.7	14.0	18.8	<0.001	0.372
MG	10.2	13.2	8.7	11.4	<0.001	0.838
LG	9.0	11.7	10.5	14.8	<0.001	0.391
ST-VM	35.1	46.1	51.4	61.3	<0.001	0.811
BF-VL	38.9	40.8	54.1	60.4	0.024	0.207
MG-VM	35.5	37.2	42.1	45.0	0.067	0.201
LG-VL	41.7	42.8	50.6	56.4	0.057	0.182

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