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**Differences in in-vivo muscle fascicle and tendinous tissue behaviour between the ankle
plantarflexors during running**

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 The primary human ankle plantarflexors, soleus (SO), medial gastrocnemius (MG) and lateral
27 gastrocnemius (LG), are typically regarded as synergists and play a critical role in running. However,
28 due to differences in muscle-tendon architecture and joint articulation, the muscle fascicles and
29 tendinous tissue of the plantarflexors may exhibit differences in their behaviour and interactions
30 during running. We combined *in-vivo* dynamic ultrasound measurements with inverse dynamics
31 analyses to identify and explain differences in muscle fascicle, muscle-tendon unit (MTU) and
32 tendinous tissue (SEE) behaviour of the primary ankle plantarflexors across a range of steady-state
33 running speeds. Consistent with their role as a force generator, the muscle fascicles of the uni-
34 articular SO shortened less rapidly than the fascicles of the MG during early stance. Furthermore, the
35 MG and LG exhibited delays in tendon recoil during the stance phase, reflecting their ability to
36 transfer power and work between the knee and ankle via tendon stretch and storage of elastic strain
37 energy. Our findings add to the growing body of evidence surrounding the distinct mechanistic
38 functions of uni- and bi-articular muscles during dynamic movements.

39 **Keywords:** running, muscle fascicles, tendon, bi-articular, muscle function

40 **Introduction**

41 The primary human ankle plantarflexors, soleus (SO), medial gastrocnemius (MG) and lateral
42 gastrocnemius (LG), play an important role in supporting and accelerating the body across a wide
43 range of running speeds ^{1,2}. They connect to a common Achilles tendon and together are the
44 dominant contributors to ankle torque generation. In this respect, the SO, MG and LG are typically
45 regarded as synergists. Nevertheless, for a variety of reasons, it is plausible that the mechanical
46 behaviour of these muscles, as well as the muscle fascicle and tendinous tissue interactions, differ
47 during running.

48 The SO is a uni-articular muscle spanning the ankle whereas the MG and LG are bi-articular muscles
49 spanning both the ankle and knee. Previous studies have suggested that muscles which span multiple
50 joints have distinct functions — uni-articular muscles function primarily as force and power

51 generators whereas bi-articular muscles modulate the moments and powers developed about the
52 joints they span^{3,4}. A previous modelling study using a joint power approach suggested that during
53 the absorption and push-off phases of running, the gastrocnemii muscles transport mechanical
54 power between the ankle and knee⁵. However, this study was unable to distinguish the
55 contributions of the muscle fascicles and associated tendon. Alternatively, modelling and *in-vivo*
56 studies have observed that during jumping, the mechanical power transported between the knee
57 and ankle via the gastrocnemii muscles contributes to the enhanced storage of elastic strain energy
58^{6,7}. This enhanced storage of strain energy was in part due to the delayed onset of tendon recoil of
59 the gastrocnemii muscles compared with the SO during the propulsion phase. It remains unclear,
60 however, whether observed functional differences between the uni- and bi-articular muscles during
61 movements such as jumping are also evident in the *in-vivo* behaviour of the ankle plantarflexors
62 during running.

63 Ultrasound studies have demonstrated that the SO and MG have differing MTU and *in-vivo* muscle
64 fascicle behaviours during walking. Ishikawa et al. (2005) and Cronin et al. (2013) observed that the
65 muscle fascicles of the SO have slower shortening velocities than those of the MG, and that the SO
66 appears to play a more significant functional role in the catapult-like action of the plantarflexors^{8,9}.
67 This behaviour is consistent with a recent modelling study showing that the SO shortened at slower
68 speeds than MG during walking and was therefore metabolically more efficient¹⁰. However, walking
69 and running place different mechanical demands on the ankle plantarflexors; for example, the knee
70 undergoes a larger joint excursion and generates a higher extensor moment during the stance phase
71 of running compared to walking¹¹, which likely impacts the behaviour of the gastrocnemii.
72 Therefore, *in-vivo* muscle fascicle and MTU behaviour during running is unlikely to mimic muscle-
73 tendon behaviour observed for walking.

74 The present study combined *in-vivo* ultrasound measurements of the SO, MG and LG with an inverse
75 dynamics analysis to identify and explain differences in *in-vivo* muscle fascicle, MTU and tendinous
76 tissue behaviour of the ankle plantarflexors across a range of steady-state running speeds. We
77 hypothesised that (1) the SO muscle fascicles will display a slower shortening velocity relative to the
78 MG and LG across all speeds; and (2) compared with the SO, tendon recoil in the MG and LG will be
79 delayed as these muscles transfer mechanical power between the knee and ankle at all running
80 speeds.

81

82 **Methods**

83 **Human experiments**

84 Ten recreational athletes (9 males and 1 female; mean (SD) age = 27.5(5.6) years; height = 180.8(7.7)
85 cm; body mass = 80.2(11.7) kg) with no pre-existing musculoskeletal injuries were recruited to this
86 study, which was approved by the research ethics committees at the University of Melbourne and
87 the University of Queensland.

88 Small retro-reflective markers (14 mm diameter) were placed at specific anatomical locations on the
89 participants' trunk, arms and lower-limbs (for full details of marker locations, see Lai et al. (2015)).
90 Participants ran at four different steady-state speeds (2 m s^{-1} , 3 m s^{-1} , 4 m s^{-1} and 5 m s^{-1}) using a self-
91 selected foot strike pattern, cadence and stride length. Participants wore minimalist shoes
92 (Xeroshoes, Boulder, CO, USA) to protect their feet from the surface of the instrumented treadmill
93 and to maintain exposure of the dorsal aspect of the foot for marker placement.

94 Three-dimensional (3D) marker trajectories were recorded using an 8-camera, video-based, motion
95 analysis system (Qualisys, Gothenburg, Sweden) sampling at 250 Hz. Ground reaction forces (GRFs)
96 were recorded using two force plates embedded in an instrumented treadmill (Tandem Treadmill,
97 Advanced Mechanical Technology Inc. (AMTI), Watertown, MA, USA) sampling at 1500 Hz. A
98 'stitching' algorithm was used to compute the resultant GRF, centre of pressure and free moment
99 vectors from measurements obtained from the two force plates. Marker trajectories were filtered
100 with a fourth-order, low-pass, Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 15 Hz while the resultant
101 GRF data were filtered using a fourth-order, low-pass, critically-damped filter operating at a cut-off
102 frequency of 15 Hz.

103 A PC-based B-mode ultrasound scanner (Telemed Echo Blaster 128, Vilnius, Lithuania) recorded
104 images at 80 Hz. A 96-element, linear, flat-profiled ultrasound probe operated at a scanning depth
105 and width of 60 mm and a sampling frequency of 7 MHz. Ultrasound data were recorded from the
106 right leg of each participant. Ultrasound images of the MG, LG and SO muscle fascicles were
107 collected in two separate trials. The MG was imaged by placing the ultrasound transducer at the mid-
108 belly of the MG whereas the SO and LG were imaged by placing the transducer at the mid-belly of

109 the LG. The ultrasound probe was manipulated until the deep and superficial aponeuroses and the
110 distinct striated patterns of connective tissue defining the muscle fascicles were visible¹². We
111 assumed homogeneous behaviour in the muscle fascicle throughout the muscle belly¹³.

112 Electromyographic (EMG) signals from Ag/AgCl bi-polar surface electrodes were recorded
113 simultaneously with the ultrasound data using a wireless system (Noraxon, Scottsdale, AZ, USA)
114 sampling at 1500 Hz. The EMG electrodes were placed on the mid-bellies of the SO, MG and LG of
115 the right leg according to standardised recommendations¹⁴. A linear envelope of the raw EMG signal
116 was calculated using the root-mean-square of a moving window (100ms). Each muscle's linear
117 envelope was then normalised to the peak magnitude of the respective linear EMG envelope
118 measured for running at 5 m s⁻¹. All experimental data were synchronised via a digital output signal
119 generated by the ultrasound scanner that triggered the collection of the marker trajectories, ground
120 reaction forces and EMG signals.

121 **Computational simulations**

122 OpenSimTM (v3.3)¹⁵ was used to calculate joint angles, joint angular velocities, net joint moments
123 and joint powers for the ankle and knee as well as MTU lengths and velocities for the SO, MG and LG.
124 A generic 12-segment, 31-degree-of-freedom (DOF) musculoskeletal model was scaled to each
125 participant's body anthropometry (Arnold et al., 2010). The knee and ankle were each represented
126 as a 1-DOF hinge joint. Inverse kinematics and inverse dynamics were used to compute ankle and
127 knee joint angles and net joint moments, respectively. Joint powers were found by multiplying the
128 net moment at each joint by the corresponding angular velocity at each time interval. Net joint
129 moments and joint powers were normalised to body mass.

130 **Data processing**

131 *In-vivo* muscle fascicle length and pennation angle were obtained from the ultrasound images (Fig.
132 1). The length of the muscle fascicle was defined as the distance between the superficial and deep
133 aponeuroses parallel to the collagenous tissue. The pennation angle (α) was defined as the angle
134 between the collagenous tissue and the deep aponeurosis (Fig. 1). A previously validated automatic
135 tracking algorithm was used to quantify the muscle fascicle length and pennation angle¹⁶. Tracked
136 muscle fascicle lengths and pennation angles were visually examined to ensure the automatic
137 algorithm accurately tracked the length and angle changes. Whenever the muscle fascicle length or

138 pennation angle was deemed inaccurate, the two points defining the muscle fascicles were manually
139 repositioned.

140 The MTU length of each plantarflexor was computed at each time interval using the distance
141 between the scaled origin and insertion sites in the musculoskeletal model and the instantaneous
142 joint angle. The series elastic element (SEE) represented all tendinous tissue, which included the free
143 tendon, aponeurosis and connective tissue. SEE was defined as the difference between the model-
144 based MTU length and the ultrasound-measured muscle fascicle length, which was rotated by the
145 ultrasound-measured pennation angle to align with the direction of the line of force application.
146 Each plantarflexor MTU was modelled with an individual SEE rather than a common Achilles tendon.
147 MTU and muscle fascicle lengths were normalised by resting muscle fascicle length during static
148 standing (l_s^m). SEE lengths were normalised by resting SEE length during static standing (l_s^t). Mean
149 resting fascicle and SEE lengths during static standing were 0.051 ± 0.009 m and 0.282 ± 0.018 m for
150 the SO, respectively; 0.058 ± 0.01 m and 0.481 ± 0.029 m for the MG, respectively; and 0.063 ± 0.007
151 m and 0.479 ± 0.026 m for the LG, respectively. MTU, muscle fascicle and SEE length changes were
152 calculated as the change from the normalised length of each component at foot strike. MTU, muscle
153 fascicle and SEE velocities were computed by differentiating the lengths of each component with
154 respect to time.

155 **Data analysis**

156 Data were processed for five stance phases of running for each participant. The experimental data
157 were interpolated to 200 sample points, averaged for each participant, and used to calculate a group
158 mean. Stance phase was further separated into two periods: the first between foot strike and the
159 time of peak ankle moment (henceforth 'ankle moment development'), and the second between the
160 time of peak ankle moment and toe-off (henceforth 'ankle moment decline'). A two-way repeated
161 measures ANOVA (IBM SPSS v23.0, IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) was used to test whether
162 significant main effects were present for 'muscle' (3 levels: SO, MG, LG) and 'running speed' (4 levels:
163 2 m s^{-1} , 3 m s^{-1} , 4 m s^{-1} and 5 m s^{-1}) and whether a significant interaction existed between these two
164 main effects. The following outcome measures were tested: mean velocity of the MTU and muscle
165 fascicles during ankle moment development and ankle moment decline; and peak SEE length change,
166 timing of peak SEE recoil, and timing of peak EMG activity during the entire stance phase. When
167 significant main effects were found, a post-hoc pairwise comparison using Fisher's least significant

168 difference was used to determine which muscle and which speed was significantly different. All data
169 extracted for statistical analysis were assessed to be normally distributed using a Shapiro-Wilk
170 normality test ($p > 0.05$). Given the number of comparisons, a conservative p-value of 0.01 was
171 assumed.

172 **Results**

173 For all running speeds other than 5 m s^{-1} , the SO muscle fascicles exhibited a slower shortening
174 velocity throughout stance compared to the MG and LG fascicles. During ankle moment
175 development, the SO fascicles shortened significantly slower than the MG fascicles (Fig. 2, Table 1; p
176 = 0.001), especially at 2 m s^{-1} and 3 m s^{-1} , where the difference in shortening velocity was on average
177 $0.38 \text{ l}_s^m \text{ s}^{-1}$. The SO fascicles shortened on average $0.15 \text{ l}_s^m \text{ s}^{-1}$ slower than the LG fascicles during the
178 same period of the stance phase, but this difference did not reach statistical significance ($p = 0.022$).
179 The SO fascicles also shortened on average $0.07 \text{ l}_s^m \text{ s}^{-1}$ slower than the MG fascicles during ankle
180 moment decline at all speeds, but this comparison also did not reach statistical significance ($p=0.1$).
181 There was no statistically significant difference in fascicle shortening velocity between the SO and LG
182 during ankle moment decline ($p=0.15$) (Table 1; Fig. 2).

183 The reduced shortening velocities in the SO muscle fascicles during ankle moment development
184 compared with those of the MG, and to a lesser extent LG, coincided with differences in MTU and
185 SEE behaviour (Figs. 3-4; Table 1). During early stance, the MG and LG MTUs underwent a period of
186 initial shortening between foot strike and approximately 20% of stance, before lengthening
187 thereafter until the time of peak ankle moment (Fig. 3). The initial shortening was consistent with
188 the period when the knee flexed and absorbed power (Fig. 5), and consequently, the MTU and SEE
189 lengthening velocities were significantly greater for the SO compared to the MG (both $p < 0.001$) and
190 LG (both $p < 0.001$) during early stance (Figs. 3-4). Similarly, during late stance, MTU shortening
191 velocity and SEE recoil velocity were significantly greater for the SO compared to the MG (both $p <$
192 0.001) and LG (both $p < 0.001$).

193 The SEE for SO stretched more and commenced recoiling earlier during stance phase relative to the
194 SEEs for MG and LG (Fig. 4). The SO SEE stretched on average 0.04 and 0.046 l_s^t longer than the MG
195 SEE ($p < 0.001$) and LG SEE ($p < 0.001$), respectively, across all speeds (Table 1). Furthermore, the SO
196 SEE began to recoil on average 8.8% of the stance phase earlier than the MG SEE ($p < 0.001$) and

197 6.5% of the stance phase earlier than the LG SEE ($p < 0.001$) across all running speeds (Table 1). The
198 SO SEE began to recoil at the start of the ankle moment decline when the ankle power transitioned
199 from absorption to generation, whereas the MG and LG SEEs continued to stretch and only began to
200 recoil once the knee extension moments and powers were negligible (Fig. 5). Finally, there were no
201 significant differences in the timing of peak EMG activity between SO, MG and LG (Fig. 6; Table 1).

202

203 Discussion

204 The aim of this study was to identify and explain differences in *in-vivo* muscle fascicle and tendinous
205 tissue behaviour between the ankle plantarflexors across a range of steady-state running speeds. We
206 found that during the early portion of the stance phase, when the ankle joint moment was rapidly
207 increasing and the ankle absorbed power, the SO muscle fascicles shortened at a slower rate than
208 the MG and LG muscle fascicles, which coincided with increased stretching and greater lengthening
209 velocities in the MTU and SEE of the SO compared to the MG and LG. In addition, even though the
210 MG and LG SEEs stretched less than the SO SEE, they continued stretching for a longer portion of the
211 stance phase. This behaviour was most likely attributable to the bi-articular nature of the
212 gastrocnemii, which, we speculate, enabled the power generated by the knee extensors to be stored
213 as elastic strain energy in tendon, thus delaying tendon recoil and enhancing power output at the
214 ankle during the push-off phase of running.

215 Our observations that the SO muscle fascicles shortened at a lower velocity than those of the MG
216 and LG is consistent with findings of previous *in-vivo* studies of walking^{8,9}. The profiles of our MTU
217 and muscle fascicle length changes are also qualitatively similar to results obtained from previous *in-*
218 *vivo* ultrasound studies involving running^{13,17,18}. Previous investigators have reported *in-vivo* muscle
219 fascicle length changes for the SO and MG ranging from 5 to 20 mm for running at speeds ranging
220 from 2 m s⁻¹ to 5 m s⁻¹, which is consistent with our absolute peak muscle fascicle length changes of
221 9, 13 and 9 mm for the SO, MG and LG, respectively.

222 The relatively slow shortening velocity of the SO muscle fascicles coupled with a greater lengthening
223 of the MTU and greater SEE stretch compared with the MG and LG suggests that the SO functions
224 primarily as a force and work generator, consistent with the behaviour of a uni-articular muscle. The
225 slower shortening velocity of the SO muscle fascicles relative to those of the MG and LG during ankle

226 moment development may allow the SO muscle fascicles to generate force more efficiently by
227 shortening at a slower rate and maintaining a favourable force-velocity relationship (Fig. 2). Hence,
228 the SO likely generated a higher force and contributed to a greater proportion of the ankle moment
229 during running compared with the MG and LG. In addition, quasi-isometric behaviour of the muscle
230 fascicles of the SO allowed its SEE to undergo greater stretch and recoil during active contraction and
231 thus store and recover a greater amount of elastic strain energy. These functions are consistent with
232 recent modelling studies that quantified muscle fibre and tendon work during running at a
233 comparable steady-state speed¹⁹.

234 In contrast, the behaviours of the muscle fascicles and SEEs of the MG and LG are consistent with
235 their bi-articular function of transferring power and work between the ankle and knee joints. During
236 early stance, the MTU and muscle fascicles of the MG and LG primarily shortened as the knee flexed
237 and generated an extension moment. During the same period of stance, the ankle generated a
238 plantarflexion moment. It is therefore likely that a portion of the positive muscular power and work
239 generated by the active contraction of the MG and LG was absorbed by the knee extensors during
240 early stance. Thereafter, as the ankle transitioned from absorbing to generating power and work, the
241 MG and LG SEEs continued to stretch and store elastic strain energy until the knee moments and
242 powers were diminished. This type of behaviour is consistent with previous suggestions that
243 mechanical power is transported between the knee and ankle by the MG and LG⁵. However, our
244 results further expand on the mechanisms associated with power transportation by suggesting that
245 some of the power generated by the knee extensors is absorbed by the initial stretch of the MG and
246 LG SEEs, and then returned later during stance, in contrast with the behaviour of the SO SEE. Our
247 findings are also consistent with previous jumping studies, where the transfer of work and power
248 generated by the knee extensors during the propulsion phase enhances the storage of elastic strain
249 energy and delays the onset of elastic recoil in the SEEs of the gastrocnemii muscles^{6,7}. Overall, our
250 study adds to the body of evidence surrounding the function of the bi-articular muscles to modulate
251 moments and powers between joints⁴.

252 There are limitations to the *in-vivo* ultrasound and inverse dynamics approach used in this study.
253 First, we did not directly measure or calculate the individual forces generated by the SO, MG and LG
254 during running. Instead, our interpretations regarding the functions of the SO, MG and LG were
255 based on the measured length changes of the MTU, muscle fascicles and SEE as well as the net

256 moments and powers generated by the muscles spanning the knee and ankle computed from
257 inverse dynamics. Second, our MTU and muscle fascicle measurements may have been affected by
258 the intermuscular transmission of force between the plantarflexors during contraction ²⁰. However,
259 recent studies have shown that these forces are likely to have a minimal effect on the overall
260 function of the plantarflexors ²¹. Third, joint mechanics may have varied between the trials in which
261 the ultrasound images of the MG, SO and LG were recorded. Fortunately, however, cross-correlation
262 found that no differences existed in the spatio-temporal characteristics of the joint angles and
263 torques between the trials. Fourth, the plantarflexors were modelled as individual MTUs with
264 individual SEEs rather than a common Achilles tendon. Recent *in-vivo* and modelling studies have
265 shown that the Achilles tendon experiences non-uniform strain during walking ²², suggesting that the
266 plantarflexors may interact with the highly complex and intertwined Achilles tendon in an
267 independent manner ²³. Finally, length changes of the SEE were calculated indirectly using MTU and
268 *in-vivo* fascicle measurements and represented all tendinous tissue, which included the free tendon,
269 aponeurosis and connective tissue. Therefore, it is possible that differences in the force-generating
270 properties of these individual tendinous tissues ²⁴ and the indirect nature of the SEE calculations ²⁵
271 affected the overall strain exhibited by the SEE. Nonetheless, the timings of SEE stretch and recoil of
272 the plantarflexors are unlikely to be affected by the heterogeneity of the tendinous tissues.

273 In summary, we found that the primary human ankle plantarflexors exhibited differences in *in-vivo*
274 muscle fascicle, MTU and tendinous tissue behaviour during running. The slower shortening
275 velocities of the uni-articular SO muscle fascicles reflected its function as a force generator, whereas
276 more rapid shortening in the muscle fascicles and the delayed onset of the SEE recoil of the bi-
277 articular MG and LG reflected these muscles' abilities to transfer power and work between the knee
278 and ankle joints. We suggest that differences in MTU architecture and joint articulation help to
279 explain the observed variations in MTU, muscle fascicle and tendinous tissue behaviour of the SO,
280 MG and LG during running.

281 **Perspective**

282 Historically, the ankle plantarflexors have been considered to work as synergists with their primary
283 function being to generate joint torques about the ankle. However, recent developments in *in-vivo*
284 measurement techniques and musculoskeletal modelling have raised questions regarding their
285 synergistic function, particularly in relation to whether differences in MTU architecture and joint

286 articulation influence muscle-tendon behaviour and interactions, for example, by maximising power
287 output through the storage and utilisation of tendon strain energy. As more experimental and
288 modelling data come to light, through advances in tendon research²⁶ and continued investigation on
289 other purportedly synergistic muscles such as the vasti and rectus femoris (e.g.²⁷), it is hoped that
290 the distinct mechanistic functions of uni- and bi-articular muscles will be further illuminated.

291

292

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296 **Conflict of interest**

297 No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the author(s).

298 **Author contribution**

299 A.L., A.S. and M.P. designed the study; A.L and G.L. performed the experiments and analysed the
300 data; and all authors drafted, edited and revised the manuscript.

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367

368 **Figure and table captions**

369 Figure 1: Exemplar ultrasound images of the (A) medial gastrocnemius (MG), (B) lateral
370 gastrocnemius (LG), and (C) soleus (SO). The length of the muscle fascicle (yellow lines) was
371 calculated as the distance between the superficial and deep aponeuroses (red dotted lines) parallel
372 to the collagenous tissue. The pennation angle (α) was calculated as the angle between the line of
373 collagenous tissue and the deep aponeuroses.

374 Figure 2: Muscle fascicle length changes and velocities for the SO (black solid line), MG (blue dotted
375 line) and LG (red dash-dotted line) for running at four steady-state speeds. Muscle fascicle lengths
376 and velocities were normalised to their corresponding resting fascicle lengths during static standing
377 (l_s^m). Muscle fascicle length changes were calculated as the change from the normalised muscle
378 fascicle lengths at foot strike. Negative and positive velocities denote shortening and lengthening,
379 respectively. The vertical dashed and dotted lines denote the time of peak ankle moment and the
380 time of toe-off, respectively. The images at the top of the figure indicate the configuration of the
381 musculoskeletal model at foot strike, time of peak ankle moment, and toe-off for each running
382 speed. The shaded regions represent $\pm 1SD$ of the fascicle length changes and velocities for the
383 respective muscles.

384 Figure 3: Muscle-tendon unit (MTU) length changes and velocities for the SO (black solid line), MG
385 (blue dotted line) and LG (red dash-dotted line) for running at four steady-state speeds. MTU lengths
386 and velocities were normalised to their corresponding resting fascicle lengths during static standing
387 (l_s^m). MTU length changes were calculated as the change from the normalised MTU lengths at foot
388 strike. Negative and positive velocities denote shortening and lengthening, respectively. The vertical
389 dashed and dotted lines denote the time of peak ankle moment and the time of toe-off, respectively.
390 The images at the top of the figure indicate the configuration of the musculoskeletal model at foot

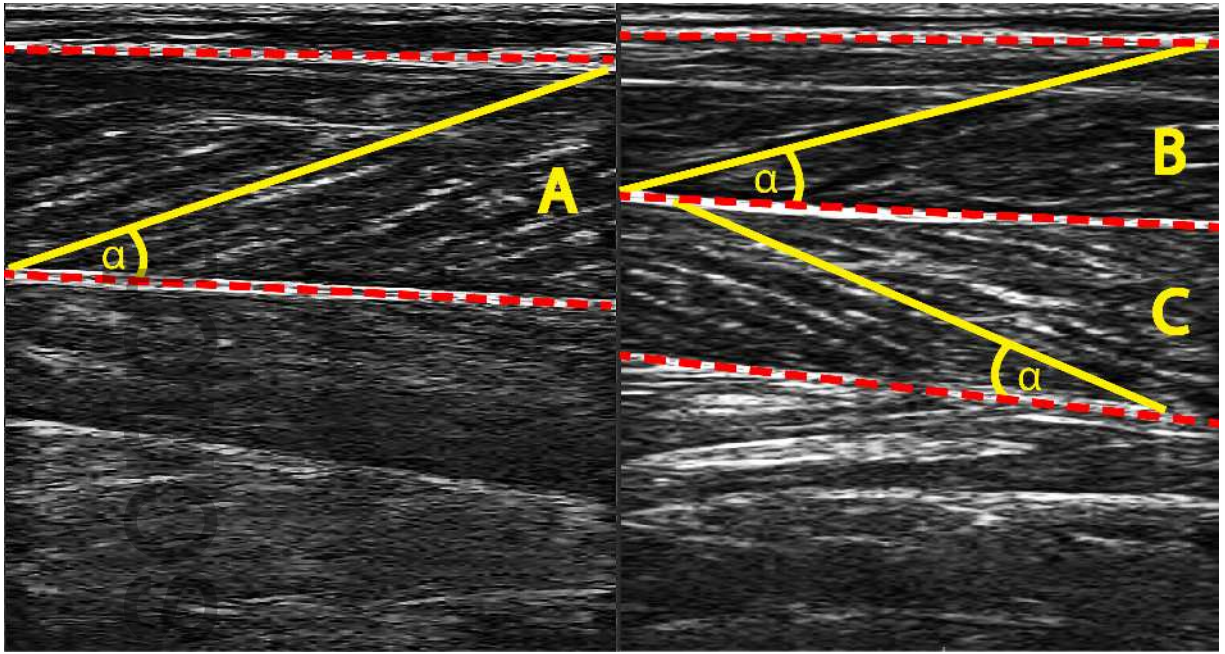
391 strike, time of peak ankle moment, and toe-off for each running speed. The shaded regions
392 represent $\pm 1SD$ of the MTU length changes and velocities for the respective muscles.

393 Figure 4: Series elastic element (SEE) length changes and velocities for the SO (black solid line), MG
394 (blue dotted line) and LG (red dash-dotted line) for running at four steady-state speeds. SEE lengths
395 and velocities were normalised to their corresponding resting SEE lengths during static standing (l_s^t).
396 SEE length changes were calculated as the change from the normalised SEE lengths at foot strike.
397 Negative and positive velocities denote shortening and lengthening, respectively. The vertical dashed
398 and dotted lines denote the time of peak ankle moment and the time of toe-off, respectively. The
399 images at the top of the figure indicate the configuration of the musculoskeletal model at foot strike,
400 time of peak ankle moment, and toe-off for each running speed. The shaded regions represent $\pm 1SD$
401 of the SEE length changes and velocities for the respective muscles.

402 Figure 5: Joint angles, joint angular velocities, net moments and powers calculated at the ankle and
403 knee for running at four steady-state speeds. Net joint moments and joint powers were normalised
404 to body mass.

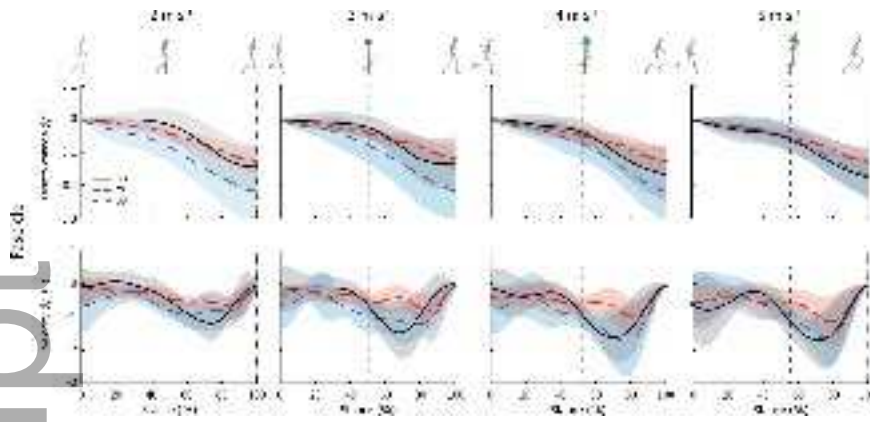
405 Figure 6: EMG linear envelope for the SO (black solid line), MG (blue dotted line) and LG (red dash-
406 dotted line) measured for the stance phase of running for four steady-state speeds. EMG activity was
407 normalised to the peak EMG activity measured for running at 5 m s^{-1} . The vertical dashed and dotted
408 lines denote the time at which peak ankle moment was developed and the time at which toe-off
409 occurred, respectively. The images at the top of the figure indicate the configuration of the
410 musculoskeletal model at foot strike, time of peak ankle moment, and toe-off for each running
411 speed.

412 Table 1: Spatial-temporal parameters illustrating muscle fascicle, MTU and SEE behaviour of the
413 ankle plantarflexors during the stance phase of running at four steady-state speeds. These
414 parameters were used to test statistical significance across muscles and running speeds. When
415 significant main interactions were found, a post-hoc pairwise comparison was performed to
416 determine which muscle and speed was significantly different. Negative and positive velocities
417 denote shortening and lengthening, respectively.

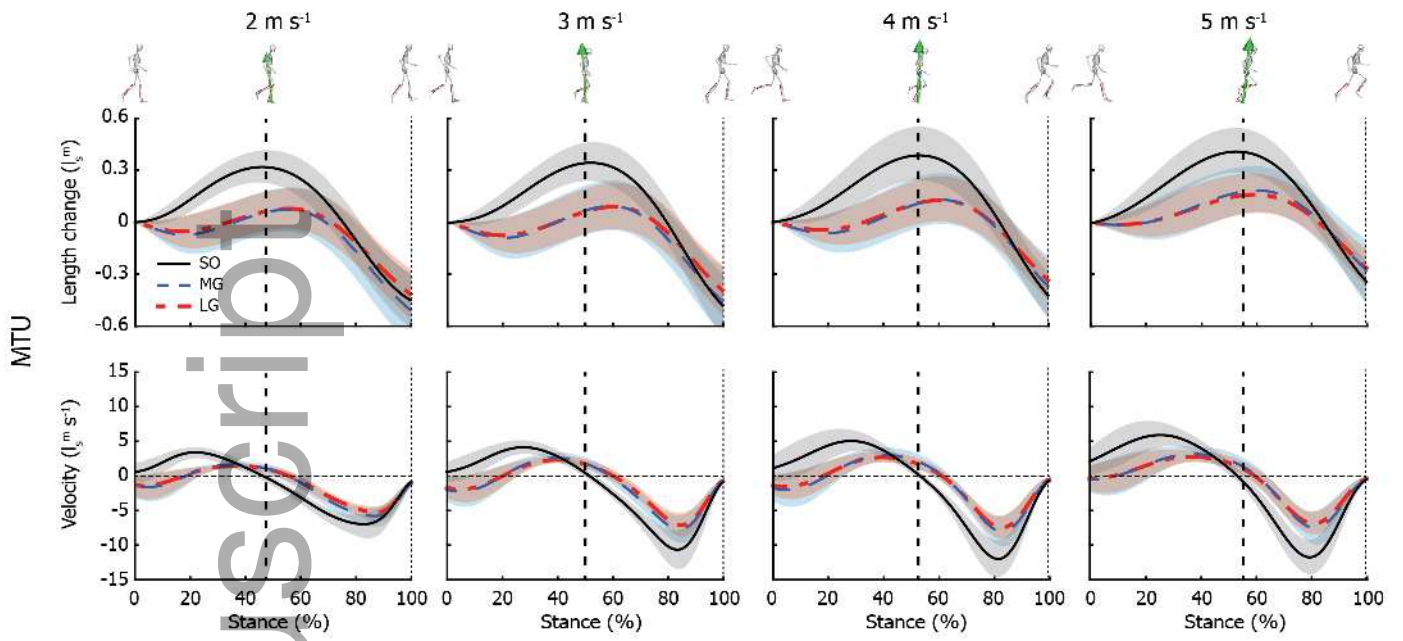


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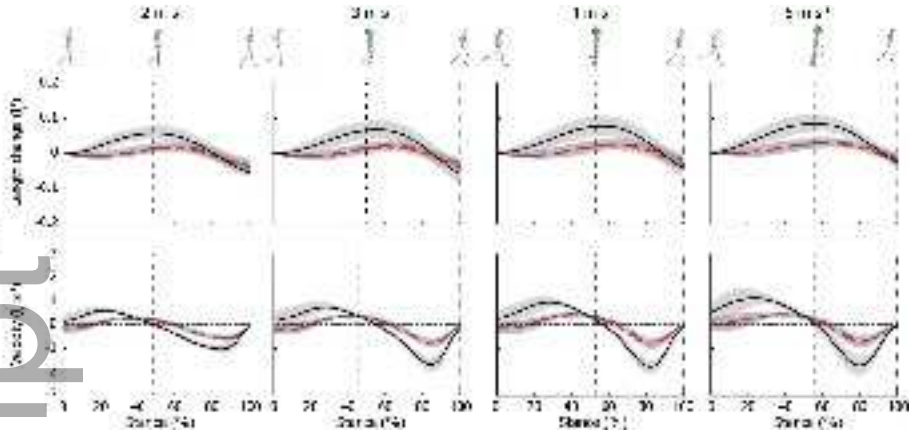
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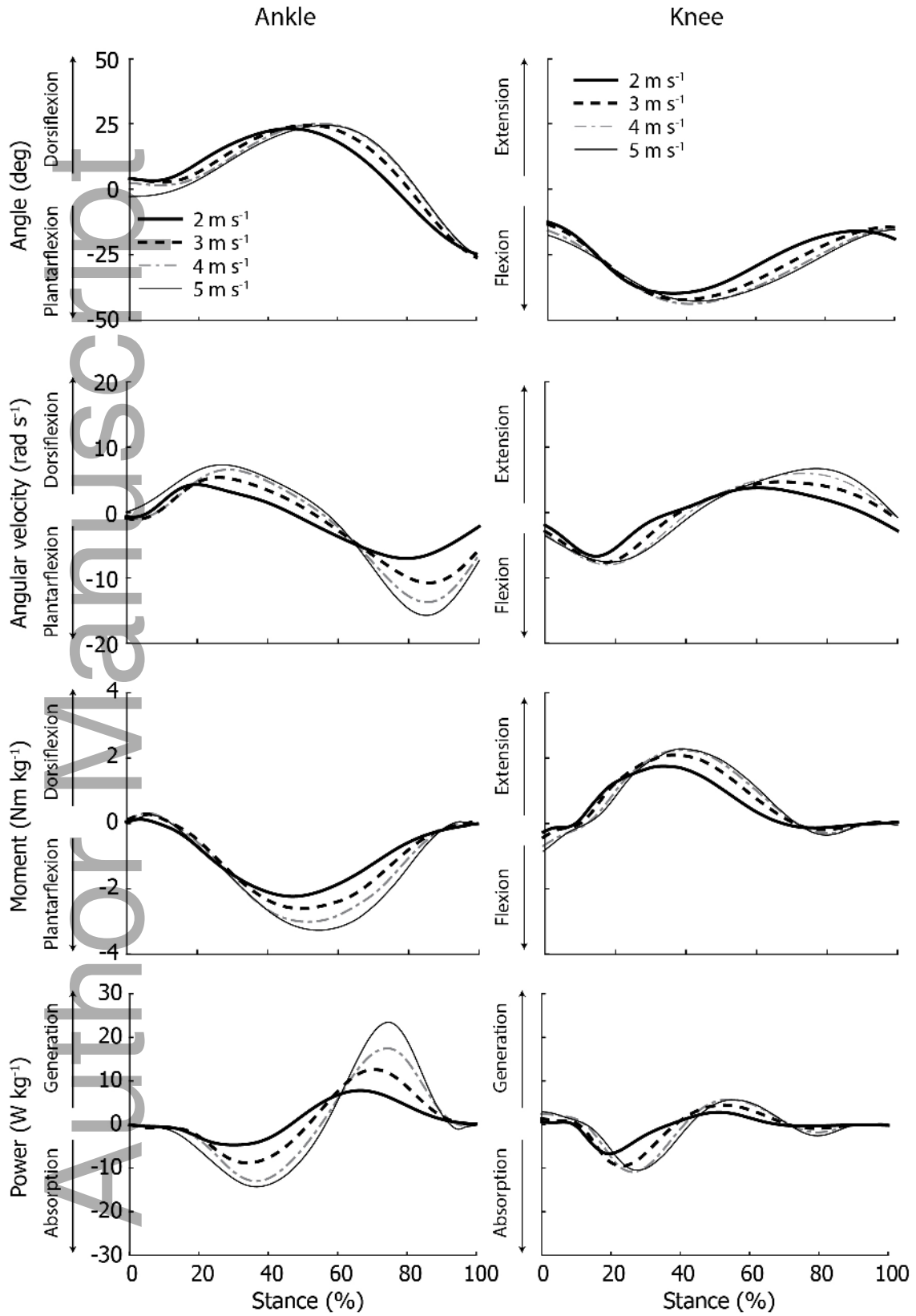
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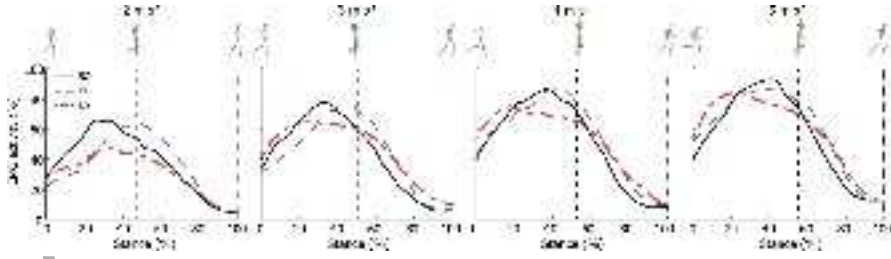
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