



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *A real-time topography of maximum contact pressure distribution at medial tibiofemoral knee implant during gait: Application to knee rehabilitation*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/92193/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Ardestani, MM, Moazen, M, Chen, Z et al. (2 more authors) (2015) A real-time topography of maximum contact pressure distribution at medial tibiofemoral knee implant during gait: Application to knee rehabilitation. *Neurocomputing*, 154. 174 - 188. ISSN 0925-2312

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2014.12.005>

© 2014, Elsevier. Licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

Reuse

Unless indicated otherwise, fulltext items are protected by copyright with all rights reserved. The copyright exception in section 29 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 allows the making of a single copy solely for the purpose of non-commercial research or private study within the limits of fair dealing. The publisher or other rights-holder may allow further reproduction and re-use of this version - refer to the White Rose Research Online record for this item. Where records identify the publisher as the copyright holder, users can verify any specific terms of use on the publisher's website.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

Original article

A real-time topography of maximum contact pressure distribution at medial tibiofemoral knee implant during gait: Application to knee rehabilitation

Marzieh M.Ardestani^{1,*}, Mehran Moazen², ZhenxianChen¹, Jing Zhang¹ and Zhongmin Jin^{1,3}¹State Key Laboratory for Manufacturing System Engineering, School of Mechanical Engineering, Xi'an Jiaotong University, 710049, Xi'an, Shaanxi, China²Medical and Biological Engineering, School of Engineering, University of Hull, Hull, HU6 7RX, UK³Institute of Medical and Biological Engineering, School of Mechanical Engineering, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK***Corresponding author (M.M.Ardestani)** Tel.: +0-86-029-83395122; E-mail: mostafavizadeh@yahoo.com

Abstract

Knee contact pressure is a crucial factor in the knee rehabilitation programs. Although contact pressure can be estimated using finite element analysis, this approach is generally time-consuming and does not satisfy the real-time requirements of a clinical set-up. Therefore, a real-time surrogate method to estimate the contact pressure would be advantageous.

This study implemented a novel computational framework using wavelet time delay neural network (WTDNN) to provide a real-time estimation of contact pressure at the medial tibiofemoral interface of a knee implant. For a number of experimental gait trials, joint kinematics/kinetics and the resultant contact pressure were computed through multi-body dynamic and explicit finite element analyses to establish a training database for the proposed WTDNN. The trained network was then tested by predicting the maximum contact pressure at the medial tibiofemoral knee implant for two different knee rehabilitation patterns; “medial thrust” and “trunk sway”. WTDNN predictions were compared against the calculations from an explicit finite element analysis (gold standard).

Results showed that the proposed WTDNN could accurately calculate the maximum contact pressure at the medial tibiofemoral knee implant for medial thrust ($\overline{RMSE}=1.7\text{MPa}$, $\overline{NRMSE}=6.2\%$ and $\overline{\rho}=0.98$) and trunk sway ($\overline{RMSE}=2.6\text{MPa}$, $\overline{NRMSE}=9.3\%$, $\overline{\rho}=0.96$) much faster than the finite element method. The proposed methodology could therefore serve as a cost-effective surrogate model to provide real-time evaluation of the gait retraining programs in terms of the resultant maximum contact pressures.

Keywords: Gait analysis, Rehabilitation, Knee implant, Medial thrust, Trunk sway, Time delay neural network, Wavelet

1 **1. Introduction:**

2 Growing prevalence of knee osteoarthritis (OA) as the main cause of knee arthroplasty on one hand and cost,
3 risk and complications of the surgery on the other hand have led to the significant development of non-surgical gait
4 modifications [1-7]. Gait modification aims to alter walking patterns to decrease knee joint loading through minor
5 changes in gait kinematics. Similarly the load reduction on the artificial knee joint can also be achieved through gait
6 modifications and rehabilitation strategies to minimize wear and prolong the clinical life time of the prosthesis. A
7 number of gait modifications have been reported in the literature to reduce knee joint loading [8-12]. These
8 modification strategies have been mainly designed to offload the knee joint. However, offloading gait interventions
9 may reduce knee contact area, leading to an adverse increase in contact pressure on the joint bearing surfaces.
10 Therefore an off-loading strategy may not be very beneficial and can even be detrimental to the knee joint [13].
11 Therefore the resultant contact pressure on the articulating surfaces should be considered in clinical implementation
12 of rehabilitation programs.

13 Finite element analysis (FEA) is a powerful computational technique to calculate contact pressure [14-17].
14 However this approach is highly time-demanding and computationally expensive. Therefore, FEA is mainly used as a
15 post-processing stage for multi-body dynamic analysis to provide tissue-level information. In fact, the available FEA
16 methods do not satisfy the necessity of real-time calculation in a clinical setup. In clinical rehabilitation, patients
17 should be trained to internalize the rehabilitation strategy as their daily walking patterns. Therefore, real-time
18 evaluation of contact pressure benefits the clinical implementation of rehabilitation programs, for example to
19 investigate the effect of a rehabilitation strategy on the knee joint contact pressure.

20 Artificial intelligence is a relatively new method that has been used in various fields of biomechanics as a
21 real-time surrogate model [18-21]. An artificial intelligent network consists of a number of processor units (neurons)
22 that are densely connected to each other via numeric weights. Once a set of inputs and resultant outputs are presented
23 to the network; the causal relationships between inputs and outputs would be captured and stored in numeric weights.
24 Thus, the network “learns” the interaction between inputs and outputs. Given a “new” set of inputs that has not seen
25 by the network before, the trained neural network (surrogate model) can generalize the relationship to produce the
26 associated output and release the necessity of running the original model and repetition of time consuming
27 calculations [22]. In particular, neural networks have been jointly used with finite element simulation in a variety of
28 biomechanics studies such as load estimation [23-25] and bone remodeling [26, 27]. Study of Lu et al. to best of our
29 knowledge is the only study that has used the aforementioned approach to predict the contact pressure[28]. Lu et al.
30 predicted the spatial distribution of contact stress at medial tibia cartilage for a simplified contact model with 400
31 structural elements. A one-by-one mapping was developed from the three dimensional force data space into the
32 resultant contact stress through a time delay neural network (TDNN). However, their proposed TDNN had a fairly
33 large structure (1200 inputs, 400 outputs and 280 hidden neurons) for a simplified contact model which limits its
34 practical function in realistic application. In fact due to the one-by-one mapping set-up, the proposed TDNN
35 structure cannot be used for a more realistic contact model since increasing the number of elements in the model
36 would increase the number of inputs and outputs resulting in a more complicated structure which requires further
37 number of training data sets. On the other hand, in clinical applications, resultant maximum contact pressures are
38 mainly of interests. In this case, the time history of spatial contact pressure distribution is not required. Instead, the
39 maximum contact pressures and the corresponding contact regions that occur over the entire gait cycle should be
40 focused.

41 The aims of this study were to: (1) propose a novel computational framework to predict the distribution of
42 “maximum” contact pressure instead of “spatial” distribution through a simple cost-efficient neural network structure
43 for a realistic contact model, (2) demonstrate the advantages of the proposed approach in an application to provide a
44 real-time evaluation of knee rehabilitation strategies in terms of maximum contact pressure and corresponding
45 contact regions at the medial tibiofemoral knee implant.

46 **2. Materials and methods**

47 Artificial intelligent surrogates require a primary database to describe the “causal” interactions between
48 inputs and outputs [29]. Therefore, a number of gait trials, obtained from literature, were imported to multi-body
49 dynamic (MBD) analysis to estimate knee joint kinematics and kinetics. Resultant kinematics and forces, from MBD
50 analysis, were then used as boundary conditions and load profiles in finite element analysis (FEA) to calculate the
51 contact pressure distribution. A data matrix constructed from knee kinematics/kinetics (inputs) and contact pressures
52 (outputs) served as the required training database for the proposed surrogate model. The overall ability of this
53 surrogate was then tested by predicting the contact pressure for a number of rehabilitation gait trials. It should be
54 pointed out that FEA was used for a twofold purpose: first, to construct the training database and second, as a gold
55 standard to compare with the surrogate predictions. Figure 1 shows an overview of the methodology used in this
56 study.

57 **2.1. Database**

58 Experimental gait trials of four subjects, implanted with unilateral knee prosthesis (three male and one
59 female, height: 168.3 ± 2.6 cm; mass: 69.2 ± 6.2 kg), were obtained from a previously published repository [[https://
60 simtk.org/home/kneeloads](https://simtk.org/home/kneeloads); accessed on June 2013]. All subjects were implanted with sensor-based knee prostheses
61 that have been specifically manufactured for in vivo measurement of knee joint forces [30]. The database included
62 three dimensional ground reaction forces (GRFs) (force-plates, AMTI, Watertown, MA, USA) and marker trajectory
63 data obtained from a six-camera Vicon motion analysis system (Oxford Metrics, Oxford, UK) with a modified
64 version of the University of Western Australia (UWA) marker set, with additional markers on the toes [31]. All the
65 gait trials were recorded over ground at a self-selected pace. For a complete description of walking trials see [30].
66

67 Gait trials contained normal, walking pole, bouncy, crouch, fore-foot strike and smooth patterns (107 trials)
68 as well as medial thrust and trunk sway patterns (37 trials). In brief, medial thrust pattern included a slight decrease
69 in pelvis obliquity and a slight increase in pelvis axial rotation and leg flexion compared to normal gait [11]. In trunk
70 sway, subjects (except subject 4) walked with an increased lateral lean of trunk in frontal plane over the standing leg
71 [10]. Since “medial thrust” and “trunk sway” have been objectively designed for knee rehabilitation purposes, in the
72 rest of this study, normal, walking pole, bouncy, crouch, fore-foot strike and smooth are referred as “training data”
73 which were used to train the surrogate model (neural network) and “medial thrust” and “walking pole” are referred
74 as “prediction data” which were aimed to be predicted by the neural network. A gait cycle was defined as the time
75 interval between foot strike of one leg to the following foot strike of the same leg [32]. Subsequently two complete
76 gait cycles were picked up for each trial, leading to a total of 288 data sets (144 trials \times two gait cycles). Training
77 gait cycles (214 data sets) were used to train the surrogate model. The remaining 74 gait cycles, associated with
78 rehabilitation programs, were then used as test data space to evaluate the performance of the surrogate model (see
79 Figure 1).

80 2.2. Multi-body dynamics simulation

81 Experimental GRFs and marker trajectories were imported into the three-dimensional multi-body simulation
82 software: AnyBody Modeling System (version 5.2, AnyBody Technology, Aalborg, Denmark). A lower extremity
83 musculoskeletal model was used in AnyBody software based on the University of Twente Lower Extremity
84 Model (TLEM) [33]. The TLEM model is available in the published repository of AnyBody software. This
85 model included approximately 160 muscle units as well as thigh, patella, shank and foot segments. Hip joint was
86 modeled as a spherical joint with three degrees of freedom (DOF): flexion-extension, abduction-adduction and
87 internal-external rotation. Knee joint was modeled as a hinge joint with only one DOF for flexion-extension and
88 universal joint was considered for ankle-subtalar complex. Since the assumptions of the simplified knee joint and
89 rigid multi-bodies were made, the detailed knee implant was not considered in the multi body dynamic analysis. For
90 each subject, the generic musculoskeletal model was scaled based on a Length–Mass–Fat scaling law in which body
91 mass, body height and segment length were taken into account. Segment lengths were calculated according to the
92 markers' coordination in an optimization routine in which the model was scaled such that the differences between
93 “model marker” and the “experimental marker” trajectories were minimized. Detailed information about scaling
94 techniques for a musculoskeletal model can be found in [34-36]. The scaled model was then recruited in an inverse
95 dynamics approach in AnyBody software in which joint kinetics and muscle forces were calculated. Joint kinetics
96 were calculated from equilibrium equations. Muscle forces were calculated as an optimization problem in which
97 muscle recruitments, based on a cubic polynomial muscle recruitment criterion, were computed in order to minimize
98 the maximum muscle activities subject to equilibrium constraints and positive muscle force constraints [34, 37].
99 Knee flexion-extension angle and three dimensional knee reaction forces, aligned in medial-lateral, proximal-distal
100 and anterior-posterior directions, were calculated for each gait cycle. Calculated knee kinematic and kinetic
101 waveforms were then normalized to 100 samples, through the linear interpolation technique (MATLAB v. 2009, The
102 MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA), representing one complete gait cycle from heel strike (0%) to toe-off (100%)
103 (Figure 2). Normalized knee kinematic and kinetic waveforms served as the boundary condition and loading profiles
104 required for FEA.

105 2.3. Explicit finite element simulation

106 The tibiofemoral knee implant of the subject was modeled in the commercial finite element package;
107 ABAQUS/Explicit (version 6.12 Simulia Inc., Providence, RI, USA) using a computer aided design (CAD) model of
108 a typical fixed bearing posterior stabilized total knee implant. The knee implant consisted of two main parts; femoral
109 component and tibia insert (Figure 3). Rigid body assumptions were applied to both femoral and tibia insert
110 components, with a simple linear elastic foundation model defined between the two contacting bodies[38].

111 Modified quadratic tetrahedron 10-node elements (C3D10M) were used to mesh the tibiofemoral knee
112 implant in ABAQUS. Convergence was tested by decreasing the edge length of elements from 8 mm to 0.5
113 mm in five steps (8, 4, 2, 1, and 0.5 mm). The solution converged to a mesh with the average element edge length of
114 1 mm. The converged mesh contained over 86000 C3D10M elements to represent the femoral component (4200
115 elements with 6700 nodes) and the tibia insert (4400 elements with 6600 nodes). Further increase in the mesh density
116 resulted in minor changes to the calculated contact pressure ($\leq 5\%$). The physical interaction between these two
117 components was taken into account as a surface-to-surface contact (femur as the master surface and tibia as the slave
118 surface) through a penalty based approach and an isotropic friction coefficient of 0.04 [38, 39]. The tibia insert was
119 constrained in all available DOFs and the femoral component was only allowed for flexion-extension under the three
120 dimensional load. Three dimensional knee loadings and knee flexion angle were obtained from multi-body dynamic
121 analysis (Figure 2). The FE model calculated the contact pressure at each node for each time increment. Although the
122 contact pressures were calculated on the whole tibia surface, only medial tibia compartment of the knee implant was
123 focused to illustrate the proposed methodology since this part is mainly prone to higher contact pressure during gait

124 [40].

125 2.4. Field output construction

126 Using FEA, the time history of spatial contact pressures were calculated at the nodes in contact, however
127 only the maximum values of nodal pressures over the entire gait were concerned in this study. Each gait cycle was
128 depicted as a topographic outline in which the maximum contact pressures and the corresponding contact regions
129 (contact nodes) were highlighted over the entire gait cycle. In order to form such a topographic outline, an output
130 field was established in the following three steps:

131 **Step1. Define the widest potential contact region (PSURF):** All of the achievable contact contours within
132 the entire simulation frames were combined over all the training gait cycles to construct the widest potential contact
133 zone called PSURF (Figure 4). Indeed PSURF was a vector of node numbers that represented a comprehensive
134 collection of potential contact nodes.

135 **Step2. Calculate the maximum values of contact pressures on PSURF:** Each training gait cycle was
136 outlined through the maximum values of contact pressures associated with the nodes in PSURF. Maximum contact
137 pressure values were then arranged in a vector and treated as a pressure signal for that gait cycle. Pressure signals
138 were combined over all training gait cycles to form a matrix called CPRESS-MAX in which each column was
139 allocated for one training gait cycle (Figure 4).

140 **Step3. Partition the PSURF into five sub-regions:** The pressure signal, defined for each gait cycle,
141 contained an overall description of that gait cycle including a variety of different pressure values ranging from low to
142 high values associated with low and high pressure contact regions which occurred within that gait cycle. In order to
143 reduce the variability of network's output and increase the prediction ability of the proposed surrogate model, PSURF
144 (contact nodes) was divided into five sub-regions: sub-region I (contact pressure >16 MPa), sub-region II
145 (10MPa<contact pressure ≤16 MPa), sub-region III (2MPa<contact pressure ≤10 MPa), sub-region IV
146 (0.5MPa<contact pressure ≤2 MPa) and sub-region V (0 MPa<contact pressure ≤0.5 MPa). For each contact node
147 belonged to PSURF, the class membership probability to each sub-region was determined; for example for sub-region
148 I:

$$149 P^I(\text{node}_j) = \frac{\text{total number of gait cycles in which the maximum contact pressure on node } i > 16 \text{ MPa}}{\text{total number of training gait cycles}} \quad \text{node}_j \in \text{PSURF} \quad (1)$$

150 Accordingly, using the CPRESS-MAX matrix, five membership probability values were calculated for each
151 node as $P^I(\text{node}_j)$, $P^{II}(\text{node}_j)$, $P^{III}(\text{node}_j)$, $P^{IV}(\text{node}_j)$, $P^V(\text{node}_j)$. Each node was assigned to the sub-region with the highest
152 membership probability. In other words, the maximum values of contact pressure for a node in sub-region I were
153 above 16 MPa in most of the training trials while a node in sub-region V mostly had maximum contact pressure
154 lower than 0.5 MPa (Figure 5). Upper and lower pressure boundaries of sub-regions were chosen so as to have sub-
155 regions with equal numbers of nodes as far as possible.

156 2.5. Surrogate model: wavelet time delay neural network

157 Due to the advantages of time delay neural network (TDNN) for real-time estimation of contact stress[28]
158 and major drawbacks of this structure stemmed from global activation functions[29, 41, 42], a three-layer wavelet
159 time delay neural network (WTDNN) was developed in the present study. This structure had a similar architecture
160 with TDNN: a feed-forward neural network with a tapped delay line, added to the input layer, which enabled the
161 network to store a short-time history of input patterns[43]. In each layer, neurons were connected to the neurons of
162 the next layer via numeric values (weights). Thus a weighted sum of all inputs was fed into each hidden neuron
163 where an activation function acted on this weighted sum to produce the hidden neuron's output. Although hidden

164 neurons are generally activated with a global activation function, in the present structure hidden neurons were
 165 activated with wavelets (Figure 6). Each input node was related to each hidden neuron, with a special value of shift,
 166 scale and input weight parameters. Therefore, each of the hidden neurons was activated with a multi-dimensional
 167 wavelet defined as the tensor product of one-dimensional wavelets corresponding to each input as below [18]:

$$168 \quad \Psi_i \left(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_{N_i} \right) = \prod_{k=1}^{N_i} \psi \left(\frac{x_k w_{ik} - t_{ik}}{\lambda_{ik}} \right) \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, N_i; \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, M \quad (2)$$

169 In which $\psi(t)$ is Daubechies4 (db4) wavelet function ; N_i indicates the number of input nodes, M is the
 170 number of hidden neurons and w_{ik} , t_{ik} and λ_{ik} are the input weight, shift and scale parameters relating k^{th} input to the i^{th}
 171 hidden neuron respectively. It should be pointed out that each hidden neuron acted on each input signal by a shifted
 172 and scaled version of mother wavelet (db4). The outputs of hidden neurons were fed in to the output neuron via
 173 special values of weights led to a $1 \times M$ output weight matrix. Consequently the output of the proposed network was
 174 defined as follows:

$$175 \quad y = \sum_{i=1}^M w_i \Psi_i \left(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_{N_i} \right) + \bar{y} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M; \quad (3)$$

176 Where $\Psi_i \left(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_{N_i} \right)$ is defined in equation (2) and w_i is the output weight relating i^{th} hidden neuron
 177 to the output node and \bar{y} is the bias. Five groups of parameters (input weights, shift, scale, output weights and bias
 178 value) were adjusted in WTDNN training as required in the above equations. It should be pointed out that unlike the
 179 conventional neural networks; in the case of WTDNN, it was important to initialize the adjustable parameters before
 180 training in order to ensure that the daughter wavelets (shifted and scaled versions of mother wavelet) covered the
 181 entire input data space. Therefore, the WTDNN was trained within the two main steps; first the adjustable parameters
 182 were initialized , see [44]; second, a MATLAB script (v. 2009, MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA) was developed
 183 to train the WTDNN based on scaled conjugate gradient algorithm (SCG). For a complete description of SCG one
 184 can refer to [45].

185 Five parallel WTDNNs served to predict the maximum contact pressure values at the nodes in contact; one
 186 WTDNN was allocated to predict the pressure distribution of each sub-region. Each network had one input layer
 187 with four inputs ($N_i=4$) including knee flexion angle plus three dimensional knee reaction forces. In this approach,
 188 the maximum contact pressure values associated with each sub-region were arranged as a vector and treated as a
 189 pressure signal (output signal). Thus, each WTDNN had a single output layer with one output neuron and the input
 190 data space (knee flexion angle and knee reaction forces) were re-sampled and interpolated to have an equal size with
 191 the output signal.

192 Training gait trials , including normal, bouncy, crouch, smooth, walking pole and forefoot strike patterns of
 193 four subjects, were used to train the generic networks while testing trials (medial thrust and trunk sway) were not
 194 included in the network training procedure and were only used to test the performance of the trained WTDNNs.
 195 Training data space was randomly divided into three main subsets; 70% for training, 15% for validation and 15% to
 196 test the generalization ability of the trained network. The optimal numbers of hidden neurons and training epochs
 197 were determined due to the network prediction error on validation and test subsets. Hidden neurons and training
 198 epochs were increased until adding more hidden neurons/training epochs would increase the network prediction error
 199 on the test subset due to over-fitting. The error goal was set to 0.0001 and the training algorithm was continued to
 200 achieve the error goal or until the maximum epochs were reached. The optimal tapped delay was also determined by
 201 trial and error. All of the above analyses were conducted in MATLAB. According to [46], the network was trained

202 and run 100 times for each test data set (testing gait cycle) and the average of these 100 runs was considered as the
203 network prediction for that test data set. WTDNNs predictions were then combined together and assigned to the
204 corresponding contact regions (PSURF) to form the topography of maximum contact pressure distribution. The
205 performance of the WTDNNs were benchmarked against the FEA (gold standard) in terms of root mean square error
206 (\overline{RMSE}) and its normalized percentage (\overline{NRMSE}) as well as Pearson correlation coefficient ($\overline{\rho}$).

207 3. Results

208 3.1. Maximum contact pressure prediction on sub-regions

209 The widest potential contact region (PSURF) contained a total of 500 nodes. The PSURF region was then
210 divided into five partitions from high-pressure sub-region (sub-region I) to low-pressure sub-region (sub-region V)
211 with 101 nodes in sub-region I, 102 nodes in sub-region II, 109 nodes in sub-region III, 46 nodes in sub-region IV and
212 141 nodes in sub-region V. For each sub-region, the pressure values estimated by WTDNN were compared with the
213 corresponding values obtained from FEA for medial thrust (Figure 7) and trunk sway (Figure 8) rehabilitation
214 patterns. Table 1 summarizes the structure of the networks and the accuracy of predictions in terms of \overline{RMSE} ,
215 $\overline{NRMSE}(\%)$ and Pearson correlation ($\overline{\rho}$). For medial thrust prediction, cross correlation values ranged from $\overline{\rho}=0.89$ to
216 $\overline{\rho}=0.97$ and all of the errors (\overline{NRMSE}) were less than 14% compared to FEA results. The predicted pressure signal of
217 sub-region I had the lowest error of $\overline{NRMSE}=6.3\%$ with the correlation coefficient above $\overline{\rho}=0.95$. The predicted
218 pressure signal of sub-region II had the highest error of $\overline{NRMSE}=13.2\%$ with the correlation coefficient of $\overline{\rho}=0.89$.
219 For trunk sway prediction, errors were slightly increased compared to the corresponding sub-regions of medial thrust
220 pattern since subject 4 did not undergo trunk sway rehabilitation and predictions were averaged on a fewer number of
221 subjects. Cross correlation coefficients ranged from $\overline{\rho}=0.81$ to $\overline{\rho}=0.97$ and all of the \overline{NRMSE} values were less than
222 15%. The lowest prediction error was related to sub-region I ($\overline{NRMSE}=7.3\%$, $\overline{\rho}=0.95$) and the highest error
223 occurred in sub-region V ($\overline{NRMSE}=14.3\%$, $\overline{\rho}=0.81$).

224 3.2. Topographic representation of maximum contact pressure distribution

225 For each subject, five pressure signals were obtained from WTDNNs and were combined to reconstruct the
226 complete pressure signal of a gait cycle. For each subject, pressure signals were then averaged over the testing gait
227 cycles of each pattern (medial thrust or trunk sway) to generate an overall estimation of that rehabilitation pattern.
228 Consequently WTDNN predictions and FEA calculations were then assigned to the corresponding contact regions
229 (PSURF) to form the topographic representation of the maximum contact pressure distribution. Figures 9 and 10
230 present the topographic outline of medial thrust and trunk sway rehabilitation patterns for each subject. The
231 quantitative comparison of the predicted topographies (Table 2) shows that WTDNN could predict the maximum
232 contact pressure distributions to a high level of accuracy for medial thrust ($\overline{RMSE}=1.7\text{MPa}$, $\overline{NRMSE}=6.2\%$ and $\overline{\rho}=$
233 0.98) and trunk sway ($\overline{RMSE}=2.6\text{MPa}$, $\overline{NRMSE}=9.3\%$, $\overline{\rho}=0.96$). The simulation time for a complete gait cycle,
234 discretized into 100 increments, was approximately 40 minutes for the FE model, compared to 30 seconds for
235 the WTDNN on the same CPU (Dual-Core CPU 2.93GHz, 4GB RAM).

236 4. Discussion

237 Incorporating the localization property of wavelets and temporal pattern prediction of time delay neural
238 networks, wavelet time delay neural network was developed as a novel surrogate model which provided a real-time
239 evaluation of knee rehabilitation programs in terms of maximum contact pressure distribution. The generalization
240 ability of the proposed structure was tested by predicting the maximum contact pressure distribution associated with
241 two rehabilitation patterns for four different subjects. To build the initial training database, required to train the
242 WTDNN surrogate, a total of 214 FE simulations were performed. This initial step was time consuming; however,
243 once WTDNN was developed, it facilitated the simulation of hundreds of analyses in a fraction of the time required
244 to run the original FE model and therefore released the necessity of repeating the time consuming calculations.

4.1. Topographic outline of maximum contact pressure distribution

246 Previous attempt to predict contact pressure through artificial intelligence has been limited to a one-by-one
247 mapping from “force” data space into the resultant “contact stress” using a large neural network structure for a
248 simplified contact model and for a small number of data sets (25 sets) including only uniform levels of loading
249 [28]. Therefore, the actual feasibility of the proposed TDNN did not consider realistic gait. Indeed Lu et al proposed
250 an approach which may not be practical in realistic applications since the size of the required network will increase
251 rapidly as the contact model includes further number of elements. Additionally, in clinical rehabilitation, the time
252 history of spatial contact pressure distribution is not needed and only maximum contact pressures are of interest.
253 Therefore, to release the necessity of a large-structure neural network, a topographic outline of contact pressures was
254 defined to highlight the maximum nodal contact pressures and the corresponding contact nodes over a complete gait
255 cycle. To form this topographic outline, the widest contact zone (PSURF) was defined by including a comprehensive
256 collection of potential contact nodes over all training gait cycles. It should be pointed out that PSURF was
257 established from the training gait trials (training data space). However due to the nature of probability and the
258 mathematical principle of induction, for a new walking pattern (rehabilitation strategy), the probability of contact on
259 a node which was not included in PSURF would be very low, and the probability of high contact pressure occurrence
260 on such a node would be even less. As a result, predicting the maximum contact pressures associated with the nodes
261 in PSURF would suffice as a real-time evaluation of the rehabilitation programs in terms of the resultant contact
262 pressures.

263 For each gait cycle, the maximum contact pressure values associated with the contact nodes (PSURF) were
264 arranged as a vector and treated as the pressure signal to be predicted by a single-output neural network. This
265 pressure signal contained a large variety of different values from 0 MPa associated with a low pressure contact region
266 to 31 MPa for a high pressure contact region that might occur during a gait cycle. In order to improve the prediction
267 ability of the network, PSURF was partitioned into five sub-regions based on the probability of contact pressure
268 levels that might occur on each sub-region. For example those nodes that mostly experienced contact pressures lower
269 than 0.5 MPa over the training gait cycles were classified as the low pressure sub-region (sub-region V). From a
270 technical point of view, nodes belonged to a sub-region would likely experience similar values of maximum contact
271 pressure for a new walking condition (rehabilitation trial). Thus, partitioning the PSURF reduced the amount of
272 variability in the network output which enhanced the prediction ability of the network. The maximum pressure values
273 of nodes belonged to each sub-region were then arranged in a pressure sub-signal and assigned to the output of the
274 surrogate model.

4.2. Wavelet time delay neural network

276 Time delay neural network (TDNN) has been used successfully for real-time estimation [47, 48]. Particularly
277 Lu et al, has reported the superiority of TDNN compared to feed forward structure to predict contact stress [28].
278 However, a major drawback of traditional neural networks (e.g. TDNN) is that hidden neurons are activated by global
279 infinite functions. Therefore, local data structures are discarded in learning process [41]. In addition, the initial
280 weights are adjusted randomly at the beginning of the training algorithm which can slow down the training process
281 [29]. Another disadvantage is that the network may fall in to a local minimum during the training procedure so the
282 network output never converges to the target [42]. To release the aforementioned disadvantages, wavelet has been
283 introduced to the neural network structure [49]. Recent studies have shown that replacing the global infinite activation
284 functions with local wavelets increases the functionality of the network in terms of prediction accuracy [18, 50, 51].
285 Hence, wavelet was embedded in the structure of the surrogate model. Table 3 summarizes a systematic comparison
286 between the present study and the previously published research by Lu et al [28].

4.3. Limitations and future research directions

289 There are a number of limitations in this study. First, the present study used the CAD model of a typical
290 implant [52-55] which had different geometry compared to the original prosthesis by which the subjects were
291 implanted. In fact subjects were implanted with a sensor-based prosthesis that was specifically manufactured to
292 measure in vivo knee loadings[30]. Although the geometry of knee prosthesis can alter the absolute values of contact
293 pressures calculated in FEA, the present study did not aim to report the absolute values of pressure and the proposed
294 methodology will be equally applicable to any implant geometries.

295 Second, rigid body constraints were applied in the finite element simulation to both femoral component and
296 tibia insert. In fact Halloran et al(2005) showed that rigid body analysis of the tibiofemoral knee implant can
297 calculate contact pressure and contact area in an acceptable consistence with a full deformable analysis [38] whilst
298 rigid body simulation would be much more time-efficient. Accordingly, rigid body constraints were applied to both
299 femoral and tibia insert to produce the required training input-output data sets with a reasonable computational cost.
300 This is consistent with the present multi-body dynamics analysis that no detailed modeling on the knee implant was
301 included. The present approach can also be trained based on the contact pressure and von Mises stress obtained from
302 a deformable simulation of knee implant. Third, knee joint was modeled with only one DOF (flexion-extension).
303 Although six DOFs are possible for the knee joint, the dominant movement of the knee joint takes place in the
304 sagittal plane and knee joint has been mostly simplified as a hinge joint[11, 56, 57]. This is also consistent with our
305 musculoskeletal model (TLEM model) in which knee joint has been modeled as a hinge joint with one degree of
306 freedom for flexion-extension.

307 The proposed WTDNN was trained based on a number of examples (training gait trials) to learn the input-
308 output interaction and then generalized the relationship to new situations (testing gait trials). Thus it released the
309 necessity of iterative computations and provided a concise real-time evaluation of rehabilitation treatments in terms
310 of the resultant maximum contact pressure. Accordingly this intelligent surrogate model can also benefit sensitivity
311 investigations where an output measure should be calculated repeatedly for a variety of perturbed inputs and time-
312 consuming computation is required in each iteration. For example with a trained WTDNN it would be possible to
313 investigate the effect of knee flexion angle on the resultant contact pressure at the medial tibiofemoral knee joint.
314 Moreover, exploiting the artificial intelligence, it would be interesting and beneficial to predict the resultant contact
315 pressure based on other available inputs such as ground reaction forces and/or gait kinematics. Using a trained
316 WTDNN and telemetry facilities, it would be possible to provide a real-time monitoring of joint contact pressure for
317 patients at home. Future research is required to explore the efficiency of the proposed approach for further numbers
318 of subjects or other rehabilitation patterns. Training the proposed scheme with further numbers of subjects and
319 employing additional inputs such as age or knee alignment in WTDNN creation process will be conducted in future
320 studies.

321 5. Conclusion

322 Our study demonstrated the feasibility of wavelet time delay neural network to provide a real-time evaluation
323 of knee rehabilitation strategies in terms of the resultant maximum contact pressure. The proposed network predicted
324 the maximum contact pressure distribution at the medial tibia compartment of a knee implant using knee flexion
325 angle and three dimensional knee reaction forces (inputs). All the prediction errors were less than 8% for medial
326 thrust gait modification and below 11% for trunk sway gait modification. Accordingly the proposed approach could
327 provide the topography of maximum contact pressure distribution in which the maximum values of pressures and the
328 corresponding contact regions were demonstrated. These kinds of topographic outlines generate a cost-effective and
329 real-time evaluation of rehabilitation patterns to recognize the likely high-pressure contact regions that might occur in
330 clinical execution of knee rehabilitation strategies.

331 Conflict of interest statement

332 The authors have no conflict of interests to be declared.

333 Acknowledgments

334 This work was supported by “the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities and national
335 Natural Science Foundation of China [E050702 , E51323007]”.The authors gratefully acknowledge " Grand
336 Challenge Competition to Predict In Vivo Knee Loads" for releasing the experimental data. The authors would like to
337 thank Shanghai Gaitech Scientific Instruments Co. Ltd for supplementing Anybody software used in this study.

338 **References**

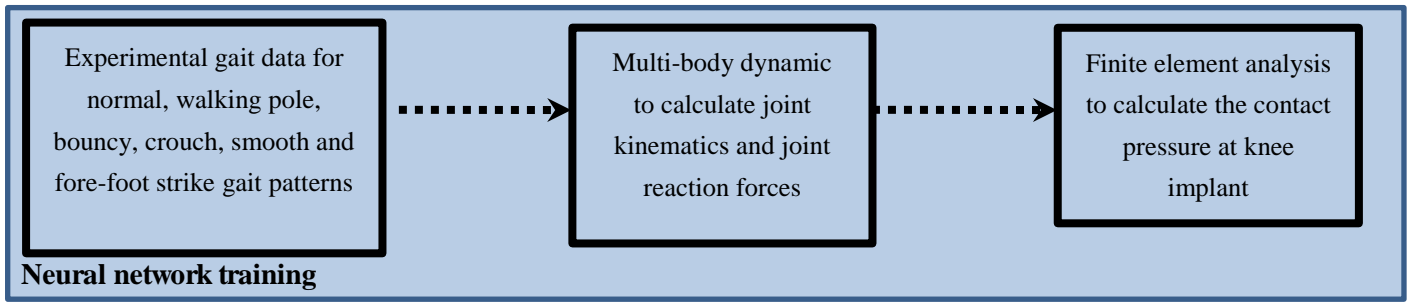
- 339 [1] J.A. Barrios, K.M. Crossley, I.S. Davis, Gait retraining to reduce the knee adduction moment through
340 real-time visual feedback of dynamic knee alignment, *Journal of biomechanics*, 43 (2010) 2208-2213.
- 341 [2] B.J. Fregly, D.D. D'Lima, C.W. Colwell, Effective gait patterns for offloading the medial compartment
342 of the knee, *Journal of Orthopaedic Research*, 27 (2009) 1016-1021.
- 343 [3] M.A. Hunt, M. Simic, R.S. Hinman, K.L. Bennell, T.V. Wrigley, Feasibility of a gait retraining strategy
344 for reducing knee joint loading: increased trunk lean guided by real-time biofeedback, *Journal of*
345 *biomechanics*, 44 (2011) 943-947.
- 346 [4] J.C. van den Noort, I. Schaffers, J. Snijders, J. Harlaar, The effectiveness of voluntary modifications of
347 gait pattern to reduce the knee adduction moment, *Human movement science*, (2013).
- 348 [5] S.M. Robbins, M.R. Maly, The effect of gait speed on the knee adduction moment depends on
349 waveform summary measures, *Gait & posture*, 30 (2009) 543-546.
- 350 [6] M.M. Ardestani, Z. Chen, L. Wang, Q. Lian, Y. Liu, J. He, D. Li, Z. Jin, A neural network approach for
351 determining gait modifications to reduce the contact force in knee joint implant, *Medical Engineering &*
352 *Physics*.
- 353 [7] M.M. Ardestani, M. Moazen, Z. Jin, Gait modification and optimization using neural network–genetic
354 algorithm approach: Application to knee rehabilitation, *Expert Systems with Applications*, 41 (2014) 7466-
355 7477.
- 356 [8] J. Willson, M.R. Torry, M.J. Decker, T. Kernozek, J. Steadman, Effects of walking poles on lower
357 extremity gait mechanics, *Medicine and science in sports and exercise*, 33 (2001) 142-147.
- 358 [9] A. Mündermann, C.O. Dyrby, D.E. Hurwitz, L. Sharma, T.P. Andriacchi, Potential strategies to reduce
359 medial compartment loading in patients with knee osteoarthritis of varying severity: reduced walking
360 speed, *Arthritis & Rheumatism*, 50 (2004) 1172-1178.
- 361 [10] M. Hunt, T. Birmingham, D. Bryant, I. Jones, J. Giffin, T. Jenkyn, A. Vandervoort, Lateral trunk lean
362 explains variation in dynamic knee joint load in patients with medial compartment knee osteoarthritis,
363 *Osteoarthritis and Cartilage*, 16 (2008) 591-599.
- 364 [11] B.J. Fregly, J.A. Reinbolt, K.L. Rooney, K.H. Mitchell, T.L. Chmielewski, Design of patient-specific
365 gait modifications for knee osteoarthritis rehabilitation, *Biomedical Engineering, IEEE Transactions on*, 54
366 (2007) 1687-1695.
- 367 [12] R. Lafuente, J. Belda, J. Sanchez-Lacuesta, C. Soler, J. Prat, Design and test of neural networks and
368 statistical classifiers in computer-aided movement analysis: a case study on gait analysis, *Clinical*
369 *Biomechanics*, 13 (1998) 216-229.
- 370 [13] D.D. D'Lima, N. Steklov, B.J. Fregly, S.A. Banks, C.W. Colwell, In vivo contact stresses during
371 activities of daily living after knee arthroplasty, *Journal of Orthopaedic Research*, 26 (2008) 1549-1555.
- 372 [14] B. Reggiani, A. Leardini, F. Corazza, M. Taylor, Finite element analysis of a total ankle replacement
373 during the stance phase of gait, *Journal of biomechanics*, 39 (2006) 1435-1443.
- 374 [15] C. Arsene, B. Gabrys, Probabilistic finite element predictions of the human lower limb model in total
375 knee replacement, *Medical engineering & physics*, 35 (2013) 1116-1132.
- 376 [16] D.D. Anderson, J.K. Goldsworthy, W. Li, M. James Rudert, Y. Tochigi, T.D. Brown, Physical
377 validation of a patient-specific contact finite element model of the ankle, *Journal of biomechanics*, 40
378 (2007) 1662-1669.
- 379 [17] S.C. Tadepalli, A. Erdemir, P.R. Cavanagh, Comparison of hexahedral and tetrahedral elements in
380 finite element analysis of the foot and footwear, *Journal of biomechanics*, 44 (2011) 2337-2343.
- 381 [18] M.M. Ardestani, X. Zhang, L. Wang, Q. Lian, Y. Liu, J. He, D. Li, Z. Jin, Human lower extremity joint
382 moment prediction: A wavelet neural network approach, *Expert Systems with Applications*, (2013).
- 383 [19] S.E. Oh, A. Choi, J.H. Mun, Prediction of ground reaction forces during gait based on kinematics and a
384 neural network model, *Journal of biomechanics*, 46 (2013) 2372-2380.

- 385 [20] J. Favre, M. Hayoz, J.C. Erhart-Hledik, T.P. Andriacchi, A neural network model to predict knee
386 adduction moment during walking based on ground reaction force and anthropometric measurements,
387 *Journal of biomechanics*, 45 (2012) 692-698.
- 388 [21] Y. Liu, S.-M. Shih, S.-L. Tian, Y.-J. Zhong, L. Li, Lower extremity joint torque predicted by using
389 artificial neural network during vertical jump, *Journal of biomechanics*, 42 (2009) 906-911.
- 390 [22] A.J. van den Bogert, T. Geijtenbeek, O. Even-Zohar, F. Steenbrink, E.C. Hardin, A real-time system for
391 biomechanical analysis of human movement and muscle function, *Medical & biological engineering &
392 computing*, (2013) 1-9.
- 393 [23] G. Campoli, H. Weinans, A.A. Zadpoor, Computational load estimation of the femur, *Journal of the
394 Mechanical Behavior of Biomedical Materials*, 10 (2012) 108-119.
- 395 [24] A.A. Zadpoor, G. Campoli, H. Weinans, Neural network prediction of load from the morphology of
396 trabecular bone, *Applied Mathematical Modelling*, (2012).
- 397 [25] N. Garijo, J. Martínez, J.M. García-Aznar, M.A. Pérez, Computational evaluation of different
398 numerical tools for the prediction of proximal femur loads from bone morphology, *Computer Methods in
399 Applied Mechanics and Engineering*, 268 (2014) 437-450.
- 400 [26] R. Hambli, Application of neural networks and finite element computation for multiscale simulation of
401 bone remodeling, *Journal of biomechanical engineering*, 132 (2010) 114502.
- 402 [27] R. Hambli, Numerical procedure for multiscale bone adaptation prediction based on neural networks
403 and finite element simulation, *Finite elements in analysis and design*, 47 (2011) 835-842.
- 404 [28] Y. Lu, P.R. Pulasani, R. Derakhshani, T.M. Guess, Application of neural networks for the prediction of
405 cartilage stress in a musculoskeletal system, *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control*, 8 (2013) 475-482.
- 406 [29] S.S. Haykin, S.S. Haykin, S.S. Haykin, S.S. Haykin, *Neural networks and learning machines* (Prentice
407 Hall New York, 2009).
- 408 [30] B.J. Fregly, T.F. Besier, D.G. Lloyd, S.L. Delp, S.A. Banks, M.G. Pandy, D.D. D'Lima, Grand
409 challenge competition to predict in vivo knee loads, *Journal of Orthopaedic Research*, 30 (2012) 503-513.
- 410 [31] T.F. Besier, D.L. Sturnieks, J.A. Alderson, D.G. Lloyd, Repeatability of gait data using a functional hip
411 joint centre and a mean helical knee axis, *Journal of Biomechanics*, 36 (2003) 1159-1168.
- 412 [32] J. Perry, J.M. Burnfield, *Gait analysis: normal and pathological function* (Slack, 1993).
- 413 [33] M.D. Klein Horsman, *The Twente lower extremity model: consistent dynamic simulation of the human
414 locomotor apparatus* (University of Twente, 2007).
- 415 [34] N. Ali, M.S. Andersen, J. Rasmussen, D.G.E. Robertson, G. Rouhi, The application of musculoskeletal
416 modeling to investigate gender bias in non-contact ACL injury rate during single-leg landings, *Computer
417 Methods in Biomechanics and Biomedical Engineering*, 17 (2013) 1602-1616.
- 418 [35] D.C. Frankenfield, W.A. Rowe, R.N. Cooney, J.S. Smith, D. Becker, Limits of body mass index to
419 detect obesity and predict body composition, *Nutrition*, 17 (2001) 26-30.
- 420 [36] P. Worsley, M. Stokes, M. Taylor, Predicted knee kinematics and kinetics during functional activities
421 using motion capture and musculoskeletal modelling in healthy older people, *Gait & Posture*, 33 (2011)
422 268-273.
- 423 [37] M. Damsgaard, J. Rasmussen, S.T. Christensen, E. Surma, M. de Zee, Analysis of musculoskeletal
424 systems in the AnyBody Modeling System, *Simulation Modelling Practice and Theory*, 14 (2006) 1100-
425 1111.
- 426 [38] J.P. Halloran, A.J. Petrella, P.J. Rullkoetter, Explicit finite element modeling of total knee replacement
427 mechanics, *Journal of biomechanics*, 38 (2005) 323-331.
- 428 [39] A. Abdelgaied, F. Liu, C. Brockett, L. Jennings, J. Fisher, Z. Jin, Computational wear prediction of
429 artificial knee joints based on a new wear law and formulation, *Journal of biomechanics*, 44 (2011) 1108-
430 1116.

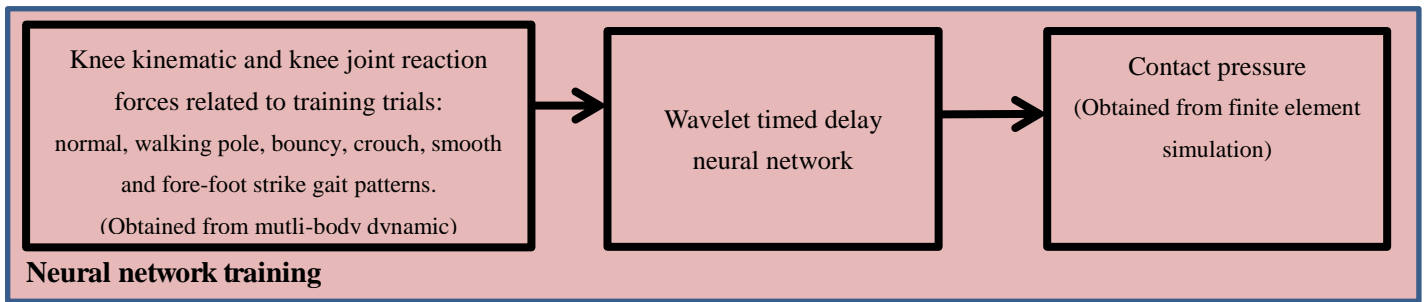
- 431 [40] O. Schipplein, T. Andriacchi, Interaction between active and passive knee stabilizers during level
432 walking, *Journal of Orthopaedic Research*, 9 (1991) 113-119.
- 433 [41] J.J. Cordova, W. Yu, X. Li, Haar wavelet neural networks for nonlinear system identification,
434 *Intelligent Control (ISIC), 2012 IEEE International Symposium on, (IEEE2012)*, pp. 276-281.
- 435 [42] P. Van Der Smagt, G. Hirzinger, Solving the ill-conditioning in neural network learning, *Neural*
436 *Networks: Tricks of the Trade, (Springer, 1998)*, pp. 193-206.
- 437 [43] A. Waibel, T. Hanazawa, G. Hinton, K. Shikano, K.J. Lang, Phoneme recognition using time-delay
438 neural networks, *Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing, IEEE Transactions on*, 37 (1989) 328-339.
- 439 [44] Q. Zhang, A. Benveniste, Wavelet networks, *Neural Networks, IEEE Transactions on*, 3 (1992) 889-
440 898.
- 441 [45] M.F. Møller, A scaled conjugate gradient algorithm for fast supervised learning, *Neural networks*, 6
442 (1993) 525-533.
- 443 [46] M.S. Iyer, R.R. Rhinehart, A method to determine the required number of neural-network training
444 repetitions, *Neural Networks, IEEE Transactions on*, 10 (1999) 427-432.
- 445 [47] C. Wöhler, J.K. Anlauf, T. Pörtner, U. Franke, A time delay neural network algorithm for real-time
446 pedestrian recognition, *International Conference on Intelligent Vehicle, (Citeseer1998)*.
- 447 [48] M. Mishra, R. Derakhshani, G.C. Paiva, T.M. Guess, Nonlinear surrogate modeling of tibio-femoral
448 joint interactions, *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control*, 6 (2011) 164-174.
- 449 [49] M.M. Ardestani, X. Zhang, L. Wang, Q. Lian, Y. Liu, J. He, D. Li, Z. Jin, Human lower extremity joint
450 moment prediction: A wavelet neural network approach, *Expert Systems with Applications*, 41 (2014)
451 4422-4433.
- 452 [50] A. Subasi, A. Alkan, E. Koklukaya, M.K. Kiymik, Wavelet neural network classification of EEG
453 signals by using AR model with MLE preprocessing, *Neural Networks*, 18 (2005) 985-997.
- 454 [51] A. Subasi, M. Yilmaz, H.R. Ozcalik, Classification of EMG signals using wavelet neural network,
455 *Journal of neuroscience methods*, 156 (2006) 360-367.
- 456 [52] R.A. Clayton, A.K. Amin, M.S. Gaston, I.J. Brenkel, Five-year results of the Sigma total knee
457 arthroplasty, *The Knee*, 13 (2006) 359-364.
- 458 [53] D.F. Dalury, R.A. Gonzales, M.J. Adams, T.A. Gruen, K. Trier, Midterm results with the PFC Sigma
459 total knee arthroplasty system, *The Journal of arthroplasty*, 23 (2008) 175-181.
- 460 [54] A.S. Ranawat, R. Rossi, I. Loreti, V.J. Rasquinha, J.A. Rodriguez, C.S. Ranawat, Comparison of the
461 PFC Sigma fixed-bearing and rotating-platform total knee arthroplasty in the same patient: short-term
462 results, *The Journal of arthroplasty*, 19 (2004) 35-39.
- 463 [55] R. Willing, I.Y. Kim, Design optimization of a total knee replacement for improved constraint and
464 flexion kinematics, *Journal of biomechanics*, 44 (2011) 1014-1020.
- 465 [56] M. Ackermann, A.J. van den Bogert, Optimality principles for model-based prediction of human gait,
466 *Journal of biomechanics*, 43 (2010) 1055-1060.
- 467 [57] F.C. Anderson, M.G. Pandy, Dynamic optimization of human walking, *TRANSACTIONS-*
468 *AMERICAN SOCIETY OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS JOURNAL OF BIOMECHANICAL*
469 *ENGINEERING*, 123 (2001) 381-390.
- 470

Figure 1

Level 1-Building the initial training database for WTDNN



Level 2-Training the neural network



Level 3-Testing the neural network

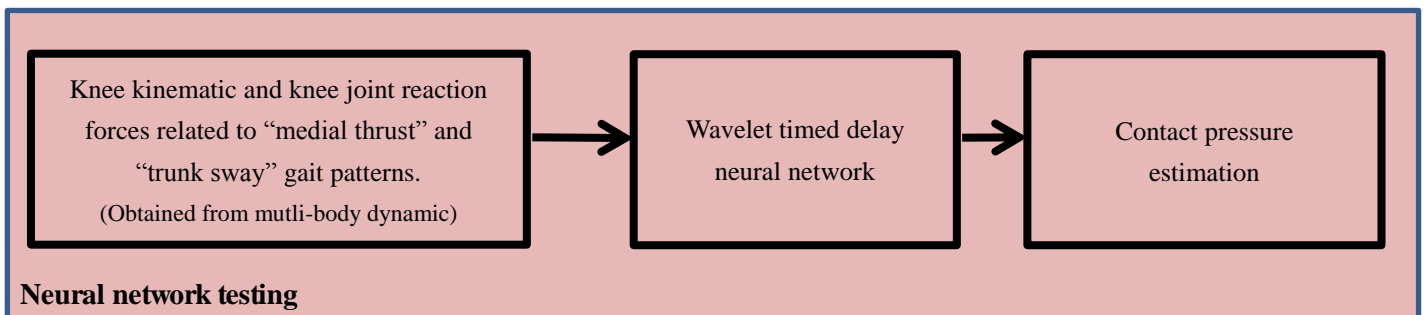


Figure 1 Schematic description of the proposed methodology

Figure 2

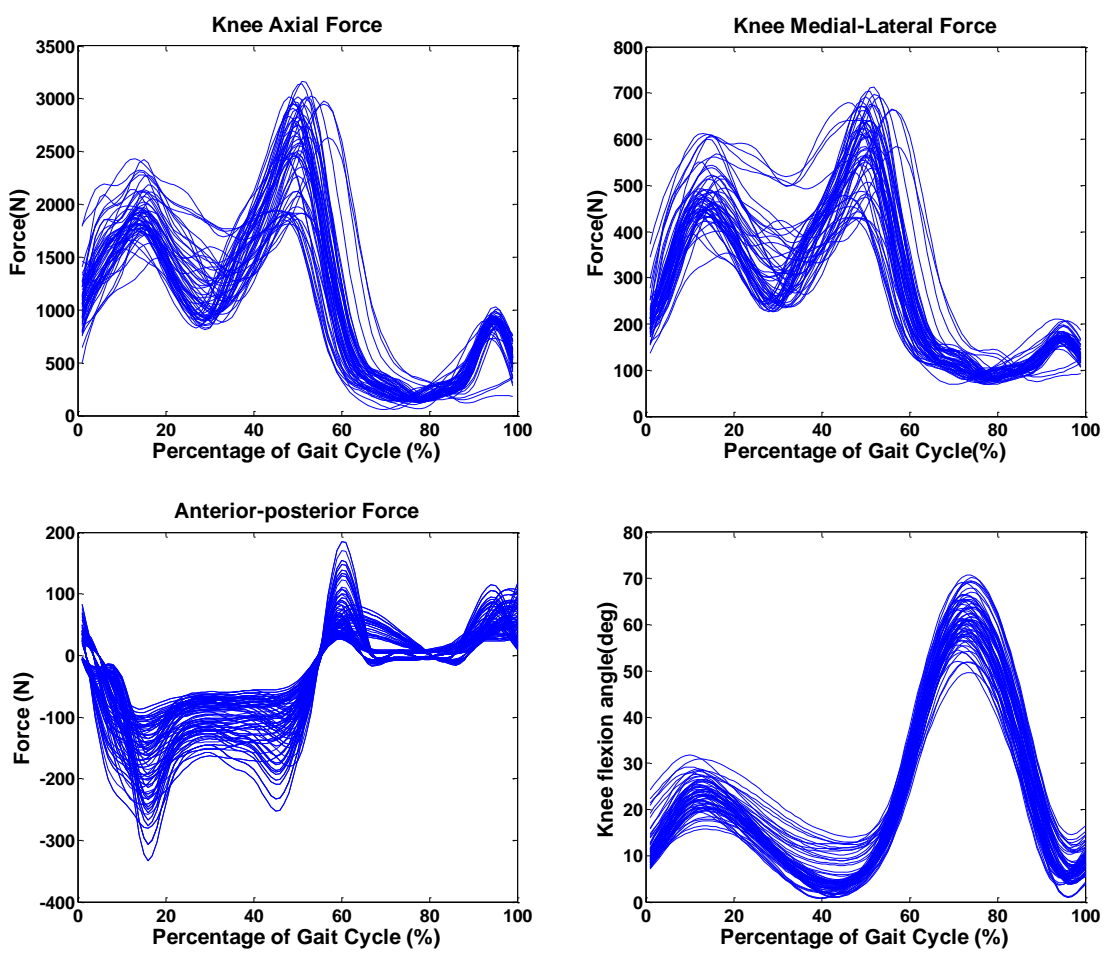


Figure 2 Normalized knee joint force and flexion angle (served as FEA boundary condition and load)

Figure 3

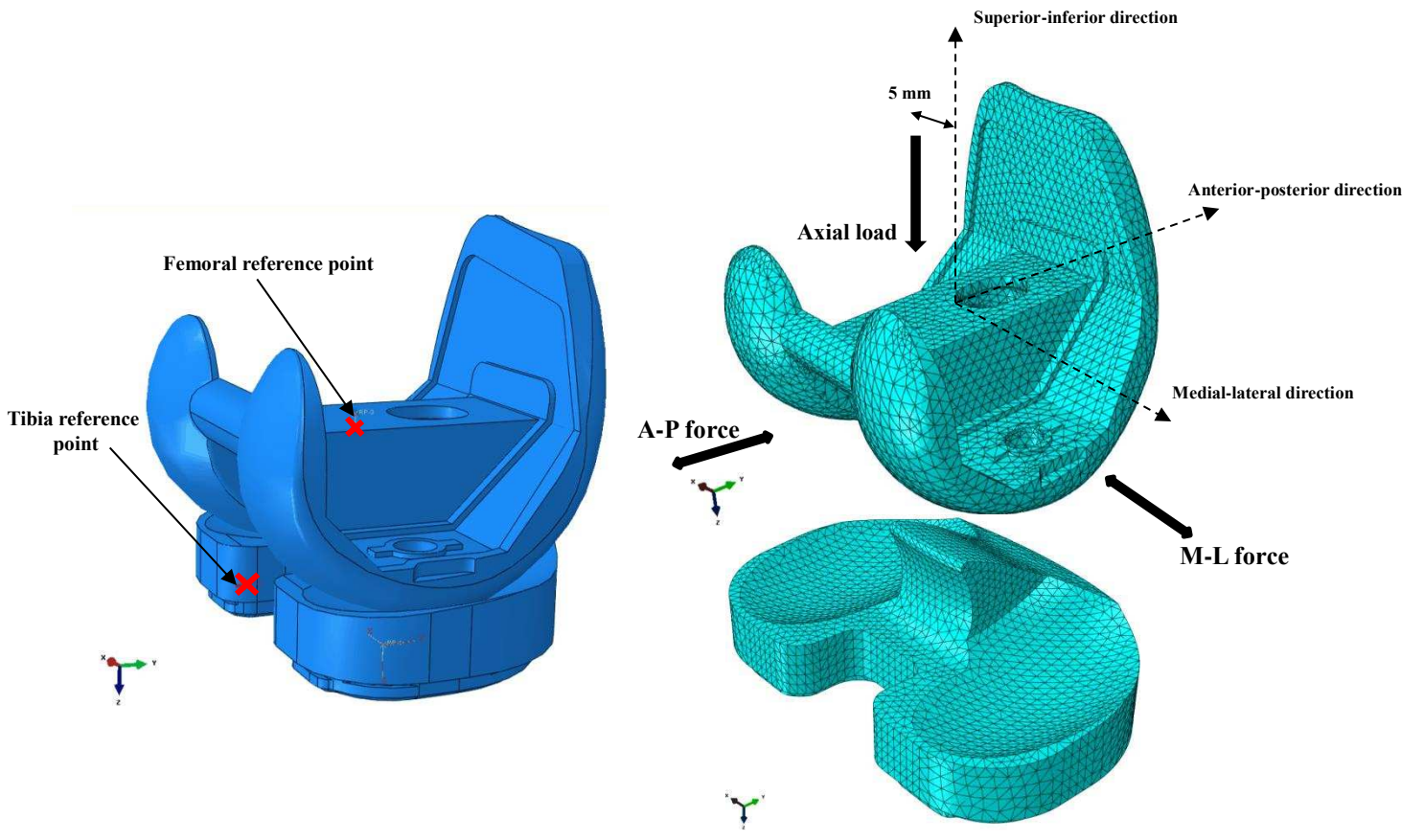
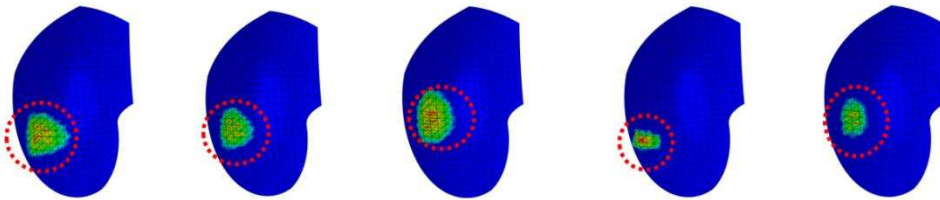
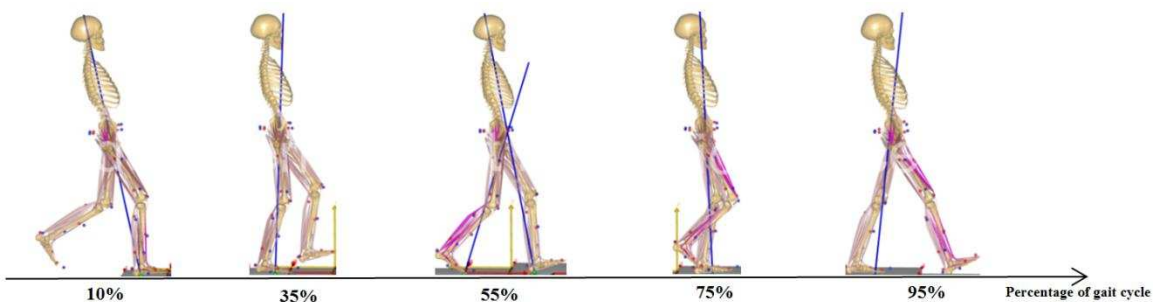
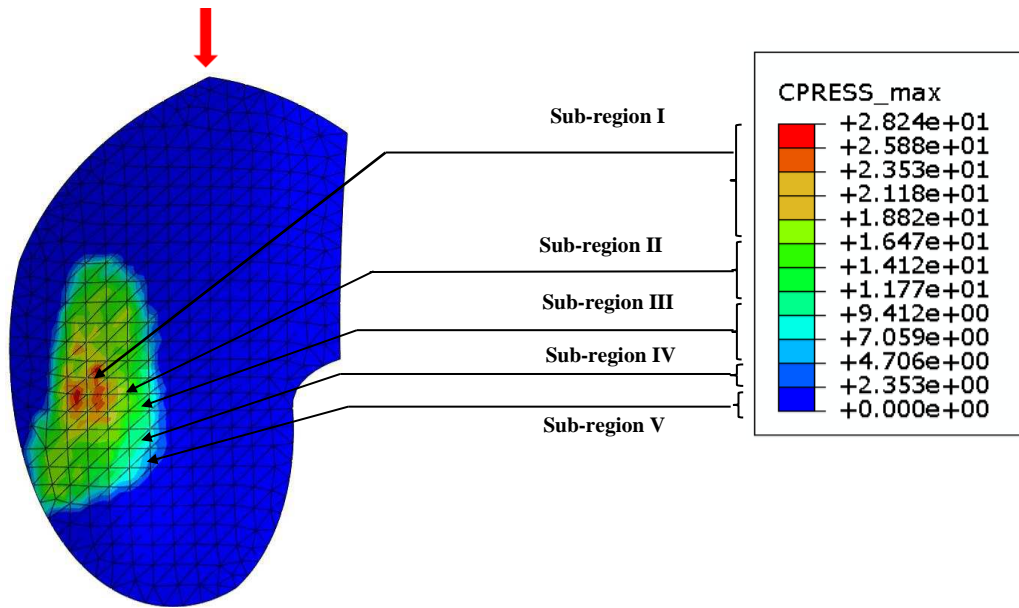


Figure 3 CAD model of the fixed bearing posterior stabilized knee implant which was used in this study

Figure 4

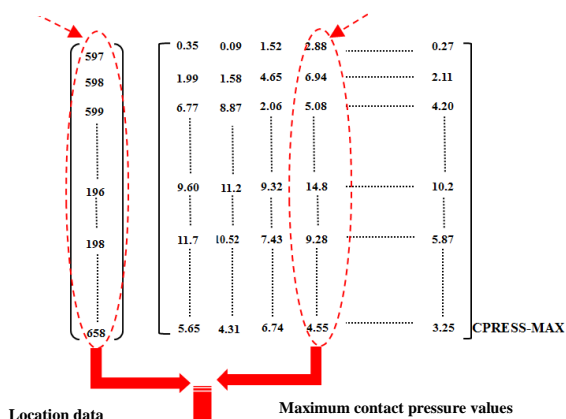


Σ Contact contours over the entire gait cycle for all training gait cycles



PSURF: Node numbers of the potential contact nodes

Outline of each gait cycle in terms of the maximum contact pressure values



Topographic pressure outline of a gait cycle

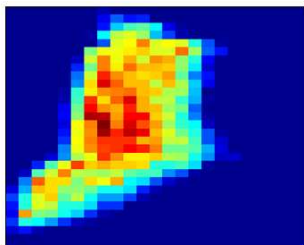


Figure 4 PSURF and CPRESS_MAX matrix; PURF contained a comprehensive collection of potential contact nodes over all training gait cycles. Each gait cycle was represented with the maximum contact pressure values associated with the nodes in PSURF.

Figure 5

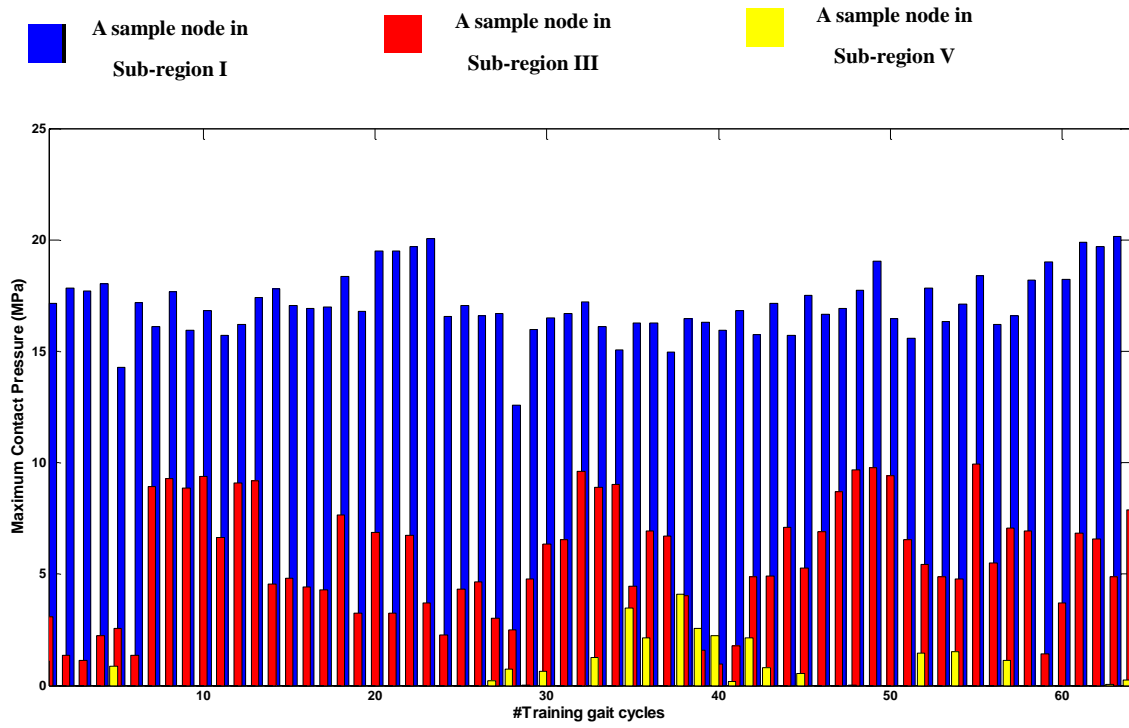


Figure 5 Three sample nodes from PSURF belonged to sub-region I, sub-region III and sub-region V. The maximum values of contact pressure for the node in sub-region I were mostly above 16 MPa whilst the node in sub-region III essentially experienced maximum contact pressure values in the range of 2 MPa to 10 MPa.

Figure 6

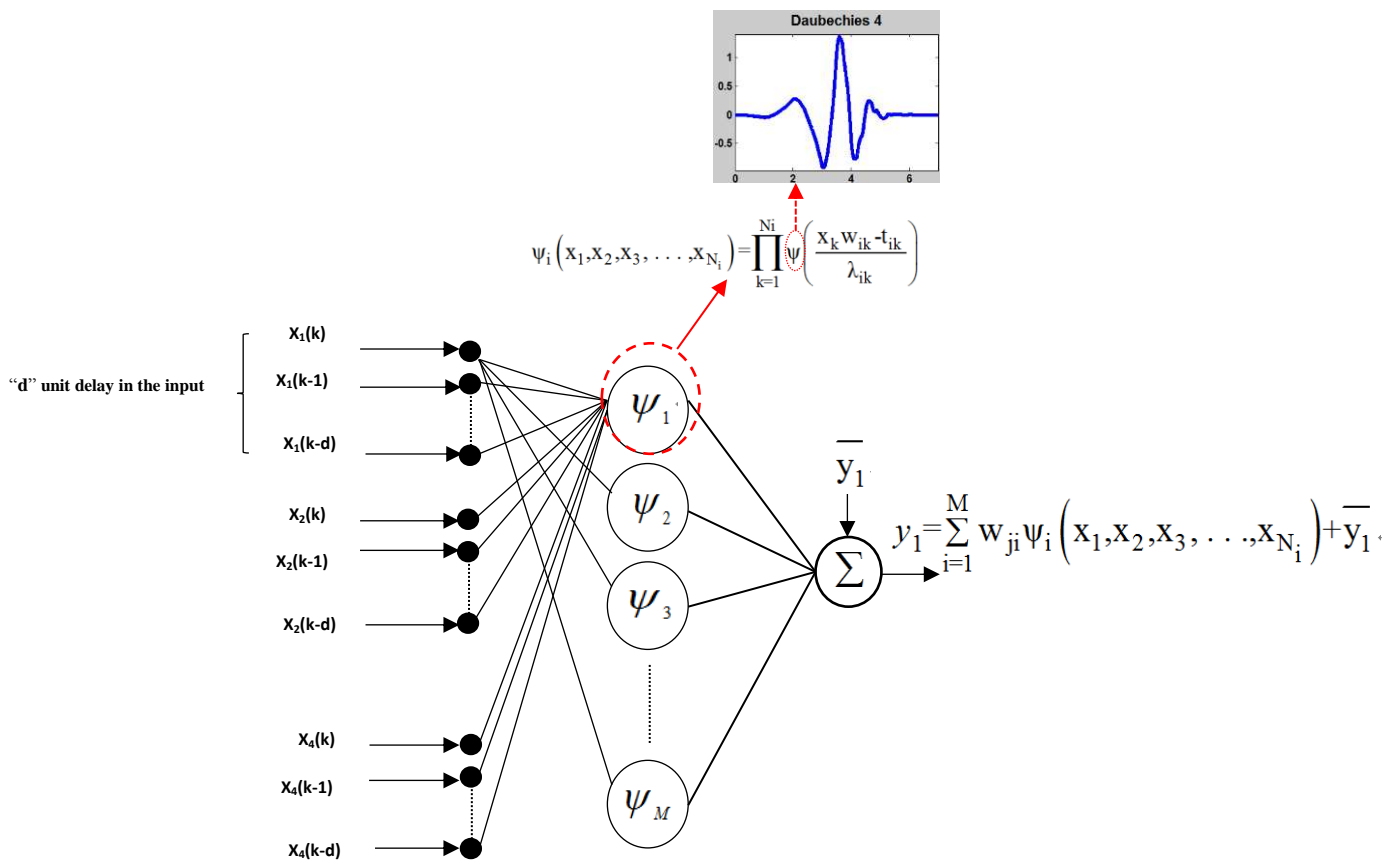


Figure 6 A schematic block diagram of the proposed wavelet time delay neural network with four inputs ($N_i = 4$) and one output.

Figure 7

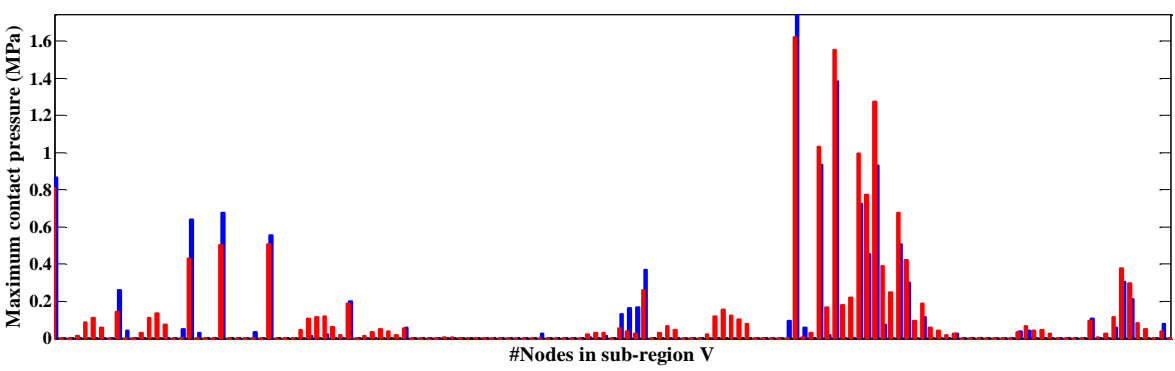
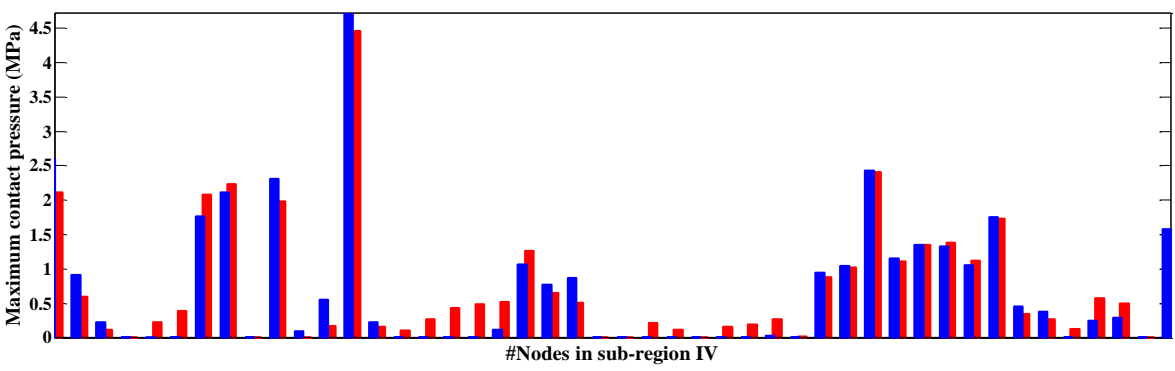
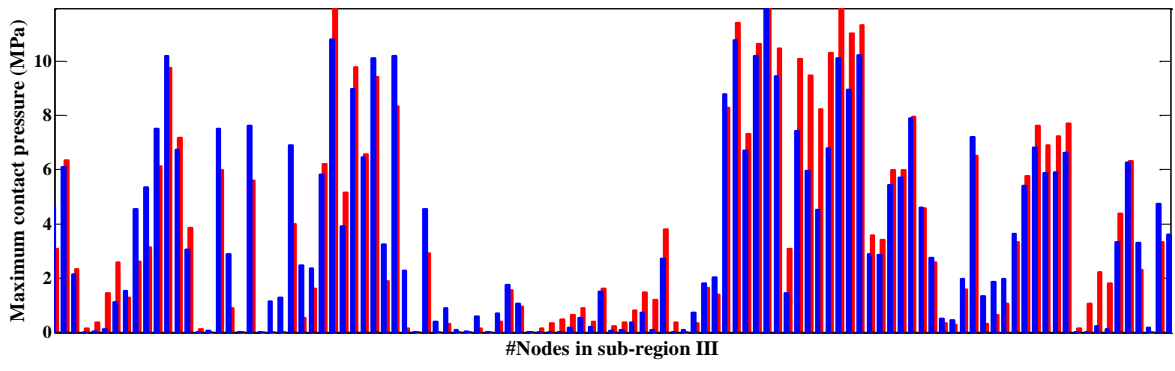
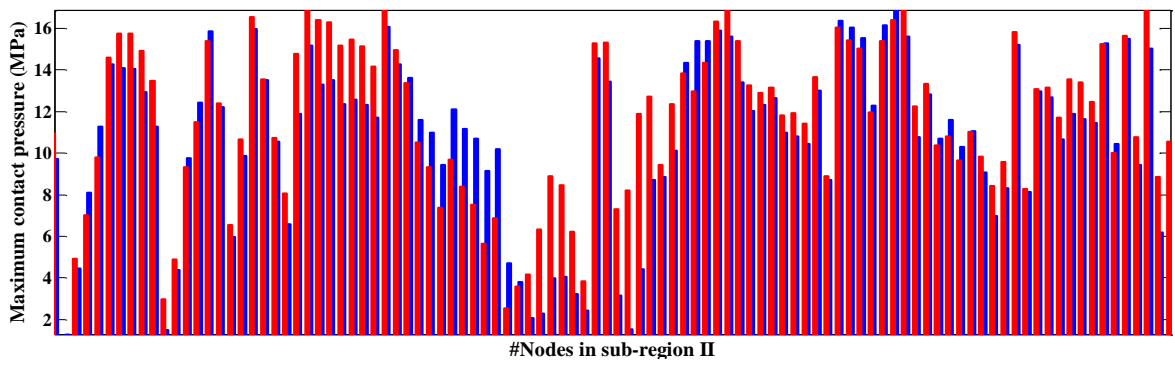
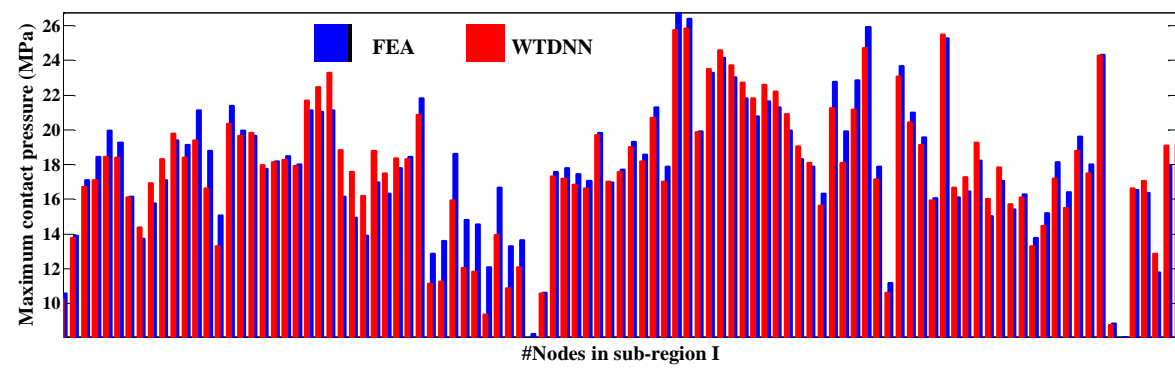


Figure 7 A sample comparison between WTDNN estimations (red bars) and FEA calculations (blue bars). Note maximum contact pressure values were associated with medial thrust gait pattern for sub-region I to V.

Figure 8

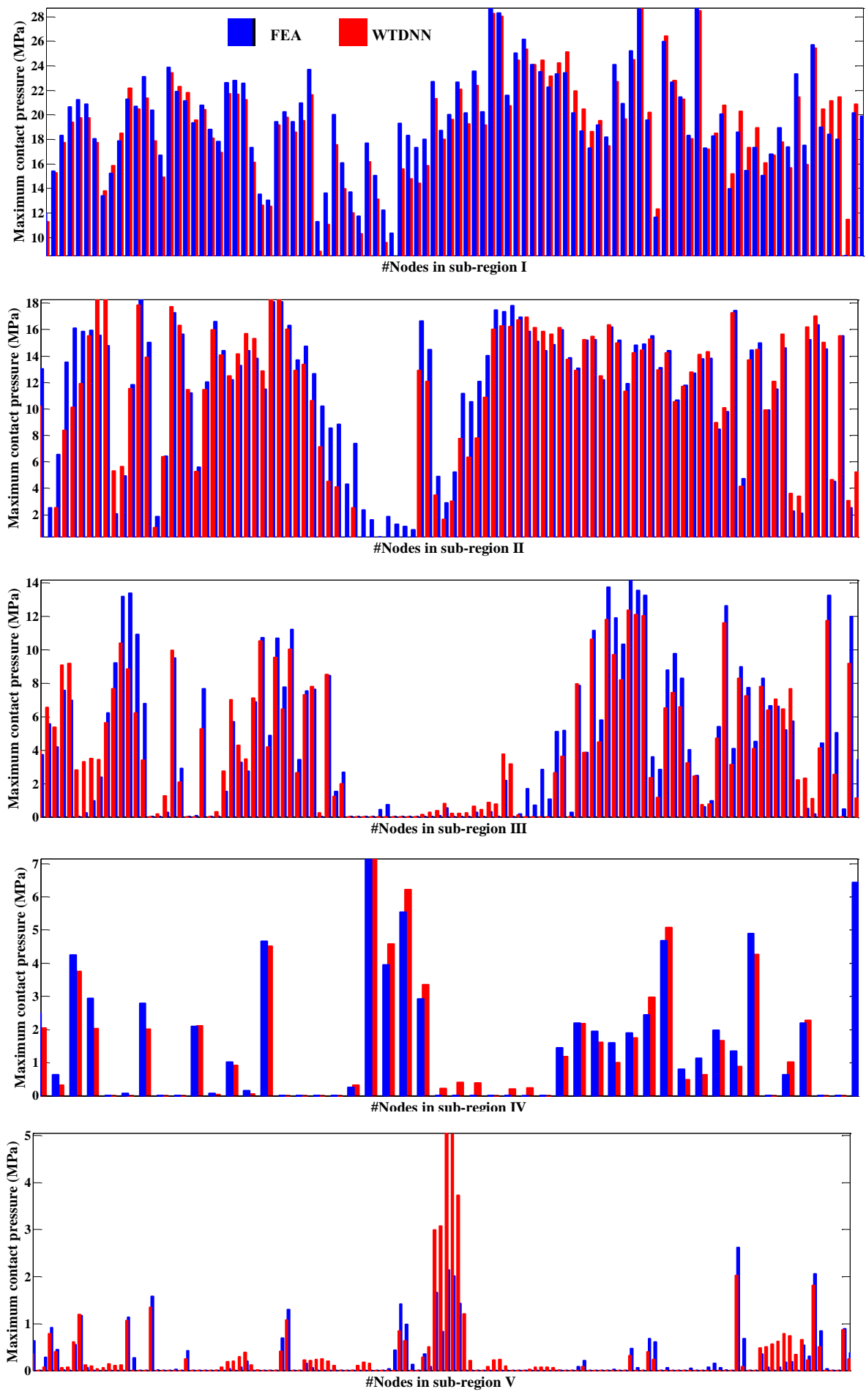
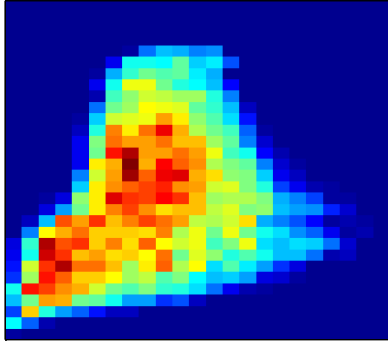


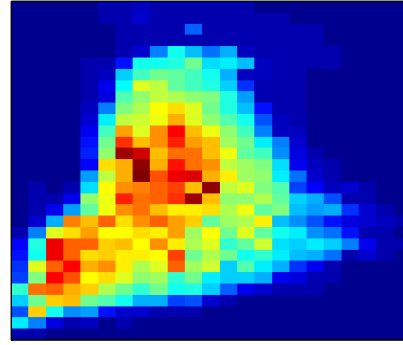
Figure 8 A sample comparison between WTDNN estimations (red bars) and FEA calculations (blue bars). Note maximum contact pressure values were associated with trunk sway gait pattern for sub-region I to V.

Figure 9

Topography obtained by finite element computation

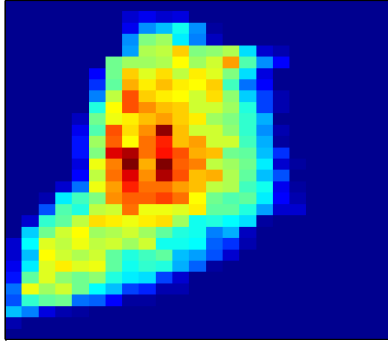


Topography calculated by WTDNN prediction

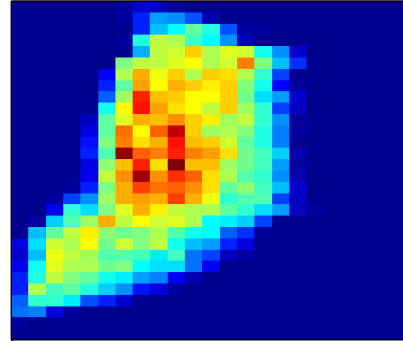


Subject 1

Topography obtained by finite element computation

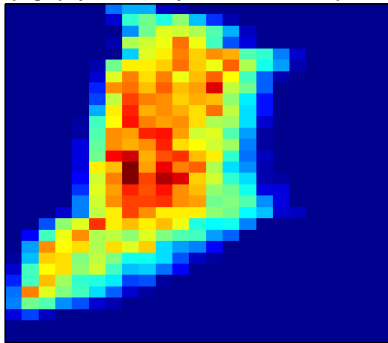


Topography calculated by WTDNN prediction

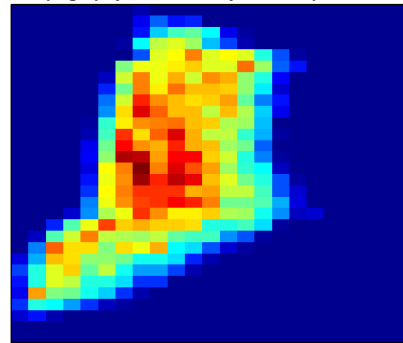


Subject 2

Topography obtained by finite element computation

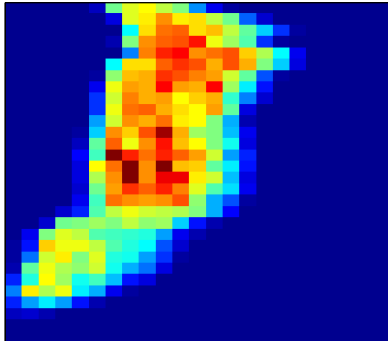


Topography calculated by WTDNN prediction

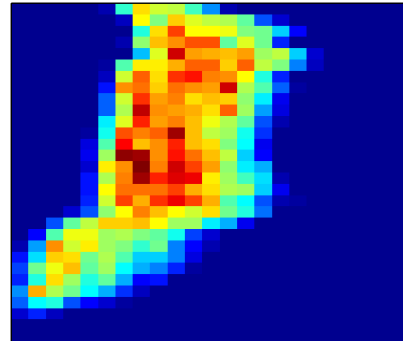


Subject 3

Topography obtained by finite element computation



Topography calculated by WTDNN prediction

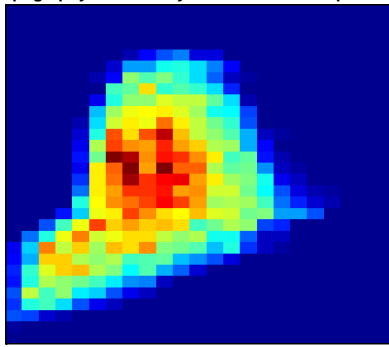


Subject 4

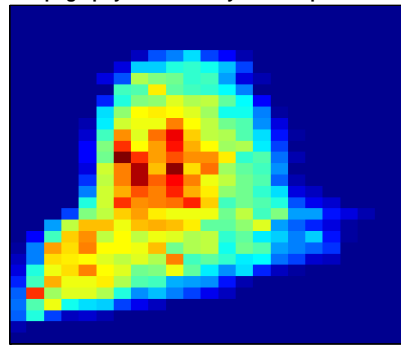
Figure 9 Finite element computations and WTDNN predictions were settled in the corresponding contact nodes (preserved in PSURF) to form a topographic outline of maximum contact pressure distribution for medial thrust rehabilitation.

Figure 10

Topography obtained by finite element computation

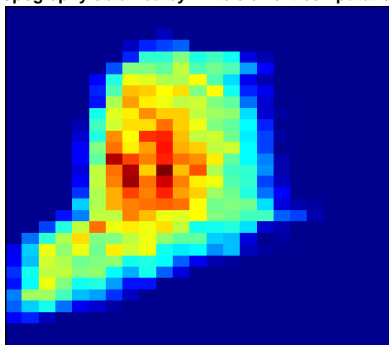


Topography calculated by WTDNN prediction

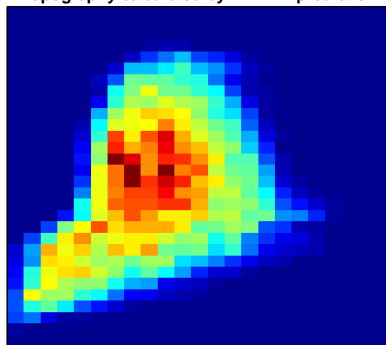


Subject 1

Topography obtained by finite element computation

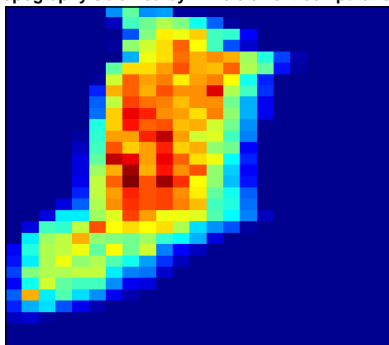


Topography calculated by WTDNN prediction

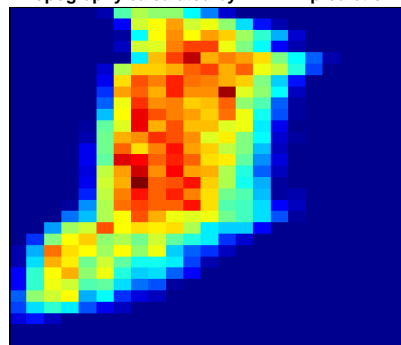


Subject 2

Topography obtained by finite element computation



Topography calculated by WTDNN prediction



Subject 3

Figure 10 Finite element computations and WTDNN predictions were settled in the corresponding contact nodes (preserved in PSURF) to form the topographic outline of maximum contact pressure distribution for trunk sway rehabilitation. Subject 4 did not undergo trunk sway rehabilitation.

Table 1 WTDNN structures which were allocated to each sub-region. Each network had four inputs (knee flexion and three dimensional knee reaction forces) and one single output (the contact pressure signal). For each sub-region, prediction errors were averaged over four subjects to represent an overall evaluation of the WTDNN prediction ability on a specific pressure sub-region.

Sub-region		Cluster-specific network	$\overline{\text{RMSE}}$ (MPa)	$\overline{\text{NRMSE}}$	$\overline{\rho}$
Time delay ,[hidden layer1, hidden layer 2], epochs					
Medial thrust	Sub-region I	[0 5],[35],3000	1.2	6.3%	0.96
	Sub-region II	[0 3],[30],3000	2.0	13.2%	0.89
	Sub-region III	[0 5],[25],3000	1.3	11.0%	0.94
	Sub-region IV	[0 3],[20],1000	0.3	5.2%	0.97
	Sub-region V	[0 3],[20],1000	0.1	5.8%	0.94
Trunk sway	Sub-region I	[0 5],[30],3000	1.5	7.3%	0.95
	Sub-region II	[0 5], [25],3000	2.4	13.1%	0.94
	Sub-region III	[0 5],[25],3000	1.6	11.4%	0.94
	Sub-region IV	[0 3],[20],1000	0.5	7.4%	0.97
	Sub-region V	[0 3],[18],2000	0.5	14.3%	0.81

Table 2 Prediction accuracy of WTDNN for topographic outlines of medial thrust and trunk sway patterns related to each subject.

	Subject	$\overline{\text{RMSE}}$ (MPa)	$\overline{\text{NRMSE}}$ (%)	$\overline{\rho}$
Medial thrust	Subject 1	1.7	5.7	0.99
	Subject 2	1.5	5.0	0.98
	Subject 3	1.9	7.3	0.97
	Subject 4	1.8	6.6	0.98
	Average	1.7 MPa	6.2%	0.98
Trunk sway	Subject 1	2.6	9.1	0.96
	Subject 2	2.4	8.2	0.95
	Subject 3	2.7	10.4	0.97
	Average	2.6 MPa	9.3%	0.96

Table 3 A comparison between the present study and a previously published research

Study	Network architecture	Structure [inputs, hidden neurons, outputs]	#Training datasets	#Test data sets	Output field	Issues
Lu et al.[26]	FFANN	[1200,80,400]	20 sets	5 sets	Spatial contact stress distribution	Increasing the number of elements in the contact model enlarges the structure of the surrogate
	TDNN	[1200,280,400]	20 sets	5 sets	Spatial contact stress distribution	
Present study	WTDNN	[4,20,1]	214 sets	74 sets	Maximum contact pressure distribution	Increasing the number of elements in the contact model increases the size of the pressure signal but does not enlarge the network structure.



Marzieh M. Ardestani was born in Iran on August 1986. She received the B.S. degree in biomedical engineering and the M.S. degree in control engineering from the Isfahan University of Technology, Isfahan, Iran, in 2009 and 2011, respectively. She is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree in computational biomechanics at Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, China. Her academic interests are in the areas of Human movement, knee rehabilitation, and artificial intelligence.



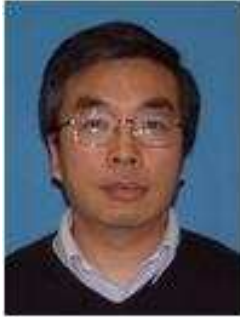
Mehran Moazen graduated in Mechanical Engineering from University of Mazandaran (Iran) in 2005 and completed his PhD in Medical Engineering at the University of Hull (UK) in 2008. In 2009, he moved to University of Leeds (UK) as a Post-doctoral Research Fellow. He is currently working as Royal Academy of Engineering Research fellow at the University of Hull. His research interests are focused on the biomechanics of bone and joints, to understand the underlying mechanisms of growth, adaptation and repair.



Zhenxian Chen was born in China on May 1986. He received the B.S. degree in mechanical engineering from Chengdu University of Technology; Chengdu, China in 2010. He got his M.S degree from Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, China in 2012. He is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree in computational biomechanics at Xi'an Jiaotong University. His academic interests are in the areas of knee joint contact mechanics, human movement science, and musculoskeletal modeling.



Jing Zhang was born in China on February 1986. She obtained Bachelor of Engineering Science from Harbin Engineering University, Harbin, China in 2009. She got master degree from Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, China in 2012. She is currently working toward the Ph.D degree in Xi'an Jiaotong University. Her academic interests are in the areas of artificial knee joints contact mechanics, and UHMWPE wear mechanics.



Zhongmin Jin is ‘Thousand plan’ honored professor in Xi’an Jiaotong University, Xi’an, China, spend the past two decades on the research of tribology of artificial joints, who had built the theoretical and computational modeling system in this field with great impact in the artificial joint prosthesis design. Prof. Jin is now a member of British Mechanical Engineering Institute, member of the Chinese mechanical engineering organization and tribology branch, with work supported by EPSRC, Yorkshire Forward, Royal Academic of Engineering, Royal Society, Chinese NSFC, and Chinese Government. He has led a European Union COST (533) on Bio tribology project, which involved 18 countries, 50 members.

*Photo of the author(s)

[Click here to download Photo of the author\(s\): Authors pictures .docx](#)



Marzieh M.Ardestani



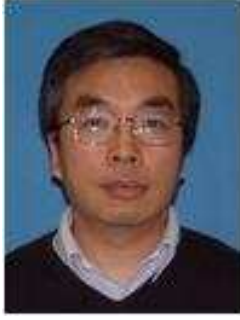
Mehran Moazen



Zhenxian Chen



Jing Zhang



Zhongmin Jin