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| 2 | and the association with lower limb joint stiffness | | | | | | |
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| 15 | Running title: joint stiffness and muscle co-activation during different walking speeds | | | | | | |
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17 Abstract

The aim of this study was to determine the muscle co-activations and joint stiffnesses 18 around the hip, knee, and ankle during different walking speeds and to define the 19 relationships between muscle co-activation and joint stiffness. Twenty-seven healthy 20 21 subjects (age: 19.6±2.2 years, height: 176.0±6.0 cm, mass: 69.7±8.9 kg) were recruited. Muscle co-activations (CoI) and lower limb joints stiffnesses were 22 investigated during stance phase at different walking speeds using Repeated 23 24 Measures ANOVA with Sidak post-hoc tests. Correlations between muscle co-25 activations, joints stiffnesses, and walking speeds were also investigated using Pearson Product Moment correlations. The results indicated that the hip and ankle 26 27 joints stiffness increased with walking speed (p<0.001) during the weight acceptance 28 phase; in addition, a positive correlation between walking speed and Rectus Femoris 29 (RF) and Biceps Femoris (BF) CoI (p<0.001), and a negative correlation was between 30 walking speed and tibialis anterior (TA) and lateral gastrocnemius (LG) 17 Col 31 (p<0.001) during the weight acceptance phase, and the RF/BF CoI during pre swing, 32 were observed. These results provide new information on the variations in muscle co-33 activation around the hip, knee and ankle joints and their association with joint 34 stiffness, and on the responses of stiffness and muscle co-activation to walking speed. The techniques presented could have further application and provides an aid to 35 36 understanding of the effects of gait retraining and injury mechanisms.

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38 Key words: Muscle activity; Co-contraction; Joint Stiffness; Walking speed.

39

40 1. Introduction

Different walking speeds are a requirement in everyday ambulation to adapt 41 42 to different situations, with greater walking speeds being characterised by higher ground reaction forces (Chiu and Wang, 2007), and an associated increase in the 43 44 demand of the musculoskeletal system to produce energy to allow forward progression of the body (Peterson et al., 2011). Another aspect of the demand and 45 control of the musculoskeletal system is joint stiffness, which can be considered as the 46 47 interaction between angular displacement and joint moment which provides information on the control of joint-level mechanics (Frigo et al., 1996). This includes 48 49 changes in non-uniform dynamic lower limb joint stiffness to manage the range of 50 levels of demand for different activities and mechanical energy exchange which has been associated with variations in the spring-like behaviours of muscles (Santos et al., 51 52 2021).

53 Few studies have looked at all 3 lower limb joints to see if their dynamic joint 54 stiffness responds differently to the demands of fast walking (Akl et al., 2020; Frigo et 55 al., 1996; Jin and Hahn, 2018; Santos et al., 2021). The joint stiffness (K_{joint}) can be expressed as the ratio of the maximum joint moment (ΔM) to the maximum joint 56 57 flexion angle ($\Delta\theta$) [K_{ioint}= Δ M/ $\Delta\theta$] (Mager et al., 2018), or as the change in moment 58 divided by the change in angle (Hyun and Ryew, 2016). Previous studies indicated that 59 musculotendinous stiffness, which can be passive or active, is associated with joint stiffness (Kelly et al., 2015). It has also been highlighted that passive stiffness is the 60 61 property of joint structures when there is no muscular activity (Rouse et al., 2013; Zhang and Collins, 2017), whereas muscle activity is taken into account when 62 63 calculating dynamic stiffness, or quasi-stiffness (Aleixo et al., 2018; Shamaei et al., 64 2013a).

Several studies have examined the stiffness of the ankle joint during normal 65 walking (Gabriel et al., 2008; Houdijk et al., 2008; Mager et al., 2018; Sanchis-Sales et 66 al., 2016; Shamaei et al., 2013a), and hip joint stiffness (Goldberg and Neptune, 2007). 67 However, only a few studies have examined the stiffness of the hip (Jin and Hahn, 68 69 2018), knee (Holt et al., 2003; Jin and Hahn, 2018), and ankle joints (Jin and Hahn, 2018) during different walking speeds. Brughelli and Cronin (2008), Akl et al. (2020), 70 71 and Kuitunen et al. (2002) showed that knee joint stiffness has a greater impact on controlling leg stiffness than ankle joint stiffness, and Kim and Park (2011) who 72 73 reported that the moments around the ankle and hip joints are more sensitive to gait 74 speed.

75 Functional activities require dynamic knee joint stability, and the muscles around the knee must simultaneously contract, or co-activate (Smith et al., 2021). 76 Joint stiffness is hypothesised to promote joint stability through greater antagonist co-77 78 activation (Hortobágyi and DeVita, 2000), but to achieve a specific level of net joint 79 work, this also needs more agonist activation (Waanders et al., 2021). In this regard, 80 Akl et al. (2021) and Seidler et al. (1998) demonstrated the significance of alterations 81 in the co-activation of agonist and antagonist muscles during walking. In addition, high 82 hamstrings-to-quadriceps co-activation indices have been reported among individuals 83 with anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) deficiency and after ACL reconstruction 84 (Blackburn et al., 2019; Sherman et al., 2021), and knee osteoarthritis (Mills et al.,

2013) during walking. While traditionally viewed as a beneficial adaptation to preserve
stability (Li et al., 1999), excessive co-activation in the absence of injury is poorly
understood, and when extrapolated to repetitive movement patterns over time, it
may not be advantageous for long-term joint health. For example, lower strength in
the hamstrings compared to the quadriceps (i.e., low muscle co-activation) has been
associated with a higher risk of lower extremity injury (Knapik et al., 1991).

The study of the factors that influence muscle coactivation and joint stiffness 91 92 of the lower limb, such as walking speed, can provide indications on the usefulness of 93 this technique, which could be applied to investigations of the effects of interventions 94 in subjects with lower limb impairment and the understanding of the possible 95 mechanisms of injury. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to identify the 96 differences in co-activation of the major lower limb muscles and joint stiffness during 97 different walking speeds, and to explore the associations between muscle co-98 activation and lower limb joint stiffness. We hypothesized that the stiffness of the 99 lower limb joints would all increase as walking speed increased, and the lower limb 100 muscle co-activations would alter within the gait phases at different walking speeds.

101

102 **2. Materials and Methods**

103 2.1. Subjects

104 Twenty-seven volunteers were enrolled in the study, 17 males (age: 19.6±2.2 years, 105 height: 176.0±6.0 cm, mass: 69.7±8.9 kg), and 10 females (age: 19.1±1.9 years, height: 106 164.0±3.0 cm, mass: 59.6±3.8 kg) from a university student population. Participants 107 were pain- and injury-free and had no prior history of neurological or musculoskeletal injuries to the lower limbs. All participants provided written consent in accordance 108 109 with the Helsinki Declaration after being informed of the experimental procedures and 110 goals (2013). The hosting institution's Ethical Committee for Human Research 111 approved the project (Ref no. CEFADE 19 2022).

112 2.2. Experimental Protocol

To define the segment co-ordinate systems, a lower limb marker set with 38 retro 113 reflective markers on anatomical landmarks, and rigid clusters were placed on the 114 115 foot, ankle, shank, knee, thigh of both legs, as well as on the pelvis (Akl et al., 2020), 116 were used to record 3D kinematics at 200 Hz using an 11 camera Qualisys motion 117 analysis system (Qualisys AB, Gothenburg, Sweden). The anatomical markers were 118 attached using double-sided tape, and clusters of four markers were fixed to the 119 thigh and shank using elastic bandages. In order to facilitate the marker placement and reduce motion artefacts, skin-tight shorts were worn by the subjects. Two 40x60 120 121 cm and 2 60x90 cm force platforms were used to record the ground reaction forces at 1000 Hz (Bertec Corporation, OH, USA), which were synchronise with the 122 kinematic data using Qualisys Track Manager Software (Qualisys AB, Gothenburg, 123 Sweden). In addition, surface EMG data of the selected muscles (Rectus Femoris -124 125 RF, Biceps Femoris - BF, Tibialis Anterior -TA, and Lateral Gastrocnemius -LG) were 126 recorded using a Trigno EMG Wireless system (Delsys, Boston, MA, USA) sampling at 127 a rate of 2000 Hz. The electrode placement was performed following the Surface

128 Electromyography for the Non-Invasive Assessment of Muscles (SENIAM) guidelines129 (Hermens et al., 2000).

Participants were asked to walk at slow, normal, and fast speeds. Prior to the 130 commencement of data collection, each participant was encouraged to walk at their 131 132 typical, most comfortable speed. They were then asked to practise walking at a slower 133 speed between 80% and 85% of that speed, and then between 115 and 120 percent of that speed (Akl et al., 2020). Data collection began when the subjects said they were 134 135 confident matching these speeds. During data processing, any slow or fast trials that 136 were outside of the range of these speeds for each subject were disregarded. Every participant completed walking tests over a 12-meter walkway, taking at least 3 steps 137 138 before and after arriving at the force plates. All variables were averaged for five successful trials, with five gait cycles for each speed for each subject. 139

140 2.3. Data Processing

Qualisys Track Manager Software was used to digitise the obtained data (Qualisys, 141 142 Inc., Gothenburg, Sweden). Marker, force, and EMG data were then exported to 143 Visual3D for analysis (C-Motion, Germantown, MD, USA). To reduce any movement 144 artefacts from the raw EMG data, a high-pass Butterworth filter with a cut-off 145 frequency of 25 Hz was used. The signals were then full rectified and low-pass filtered 146 at 15 Hz to create an enveloped EMG signal (Quittmann et al., 2020). The amplitudes 147 of the enveloped EMG signal were then normalized to the maximum observed signal 148 across all trials at the 3 speeds (Hermens et al., 2000; Oliveira et al., 2017). We 149 assumed symmetry in walking between both legs, so the right leg variables were used 150 for the next processing.

151 2.4. Muscle Co-Activation

At various walking speeds, the thigh (RF/BF) and calf (TA/LG) muscle co-activations were estimated using the co-activation index (Col), equation [1]. The Col was determined independently for the weight acceptance, mid stance, terminal stance, and pre swing gait phases (Di Nardo et al., 2018; Mari et al., 2014). The Col provides a contribution to the overall activation of the agonist and antagonist muscles during the task, and gives a relative measure of the antagonist muscle (Akl et al., 2021; Oliveira et al., 2017).

$$CoI = \frac{\int_{t_1}^{t_2} EMG_{ant}(t) dt}{\int_{t_1}^{t_2} [EMG_{ag} + EMG_{ant}](t) dt} \times 100$$
[1]

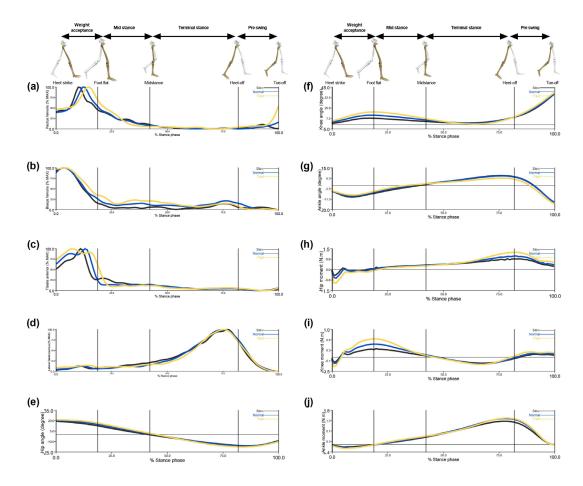
where t_1 and t_2 are the start and end of the support phase, EMG_{ant} is the magnitude of EMG from the lower muscle activity, and EMG_{ag} is the magnitude of EMG from the higher muscle activity during normal walking which was used as a reference in the calculation of Col during the slow and fast walking speeds (Oliveira et al., 2017).

163 2.5. Joint Stiffness

The stiffness of the hip, knee and ankle joints (Khip, Kknee, Kankle) were represented by displaying the slope of the linear regression of the sagittal plane moments versus sagittal plane angles across the stance phase (Houdijk et al., 2008), and joint

stiffnesses were calculated within sections that showed linear characteristics within 167 the different sub-phases of the stance phase of gait (Mager et al, 2018). The stiffnesses 168 of the joints were identified from the slope of the best fit line within the different sub-169 170 phases. The stance phase was divided into four sub-phases which were defined according to Gagnat et al. (2020). The weight acceptance phase lasted from the 171 ipsilateral foot strike to the contralateral foot off; the midstance came next, 172 continuing until the ipsilateral knee moment switched from external flexion to 173 extension; and the terminal stance began and persisted until the contralateral foot 174 strike, after which pre-swing continued till the ipsilateral foot off (figure 1). 175

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177

Fig. 1. Means for (a) Rectus femoris (RF), (b) Biceps femoris (BF), (c) Tibialis anterior (TA), (d) lateral gastrocnemius (LG), (e) Hip joint angle, (f) Knee joint angle, (g) Ankle joint angle, (h) Hip joint moment, (i) Knee joint moment, and (j) Ankle joint moment during the sub-phases of stance phase (weight acceptance, mid stance, terminal stance, and pre swing) of the three speeds; Slow (Black), Normal (Blue), Fast (Yellow).

183 Equation [2] was used to determine joint stiffness, which was computed as the 184 change in joint moment (ΔM) divided by the change in joint angle ($\Delta \Theta$) during the 185 stance phase.

186
$$K_{joint} = \frac{\Delta M}{\Delta \theta}$$
 [2]

187 Where ΔM = change in joint moment; $\Delta \Theta$ = change in joint angle (Jin and Hahn, 2018; 188 Mager et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2015).

189 2.6. Statistical analysis

Shapiro-Wilk tests were used to examine the distribution of the data, and it was 190 determined that all the data was suitable for parametric analysis. Means and 95% 191 confidence intervals were used to report descriptive statistics. To compare the mean 192 193 joint stiffness variables and muscle co-activation of the lower limb between the 3 194 walking speeds within the various walking sub-phases, repeated measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) with Sidak post hoc tests were used, each dependent variable 195 196 was compared across 3 speeds for each phase. Partial eta squared ($\eta^2 p$) was calculated 197 to assess the effect size. In addition, the relationships between muscle co-activations, 198 joint stiffness and walking speeds were also examined using Pearson correlations. IBM 199 SPSS software Statistics v27 was used for all statistical analyses.

200 **3. Results**

201 3.1. Walking Characteristics at Different Speeds

The comparison of gait characteristics at the 3 different walking speeds (slow, normal, and fast) are shown in table 1. the percentages of the differences are reported. With the exception of stride width (p=0.680) all gait variables showed significant main effects between speeds (p<0.001).

206

207 Table 1.

The differences in walking characteristics between the three speeds (slow, normal, fast).

| Walking | Slow (n=27) | Normal (n=27) Mean (SD) | Fast (n=27) Mean (SD) | ANOVA Ρ- Value (η2p) | Different percentages | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| Characterist ics | Mean (SD) | | | | Slow/Norm al (%) | Slow/Fast (%) | Normal/Fast (%) |
| Speed (m/s) | 0.94 (0.06) | 1.12 (0.08) | 1.41 (0.10) | <0.001 (0.935) | S < N (16.16) | S < F (33.50) | N < F (20.68) |
| Cycle Time (s) | 1.27 (0.07) | 1.11 (0.08) | 0.93 (0.06) | <0.001 (0.935) | S > N (14.84) | S > F (37.19) | N > F (19.46) |
| Stance Time (s) | 0.78 (0.06) | 0.67 (0.05) | 0.55 (0.04) | <0.001 (0.938) | S > N (16.79) | S > F (41.64) | N > F (21.27) |
| Step Length (m) | 0.59 (0.02) | 0.62 (0.03) | 0.66 (0.04) | <0.001 (0.702) | S < N (4.06) | S < F (10.32) | N < F (6.53) |
| Step Time (S) | 0.63 (0.04) | 0.55 (0.04) | 0.46 (0.03) | <0.001 (0.925) | S > N (15.69) | S > F (37.83) | N > F (19.13) |
| Stride Length (m) | 1.18 (0.04) | 1.23 (0.05) | 1.31 (0.06) | <0.001 (0.730) | S < N (4.05) | S < F (9.62) | N < F (5.80) |
| Swing Time (s) | 0.49 (0.02) | 0.44 (0.02) | 0.38 (0.02) | <0.001 (0.906) | S > N (12.13) | S > F (30.67) | N > F (16.53) |
| Stride Width (m) | 0.13 (0.02) | 0.13 (0.02) | 0.13 (0.03) | =0.680 (0.067) | S < N (3.79) | S > F (0.79) | N > F (4.76) |

210 $\eta 2p$ = Partial eta squared for effect size.

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3.2. Co-activation index and joint stiffness during the different walking phases 3.2.1. Weight acceptance phase

During the weight acceptance phase, the RM-ANOVA demonstrated significant main 217 effects for speed for RF/BF CoI ($\eta^2 p$ = 0.53) (figure 2a), TA/LG CoI ($\eta^2 p$ = 0.21) (figure 2b), 218 219 K_{hip} ($\eta^2 p$ = 0.79) (figure 2c), and K_{ankle} ($\eta^2 p$ = 0.52) (figure 2e). Additional post hoc comparisons indicated significant increases between slow and normal speeds for: 220 RF/BF CoI (p<0.05), K_{hip} and K_{ankle} (p<0.001), but not for TA/LG CoI (figure 2b) and K_{knee} 221 222 (figure 2d). Significant increases were also observed between normal and fast walking speeds for RF/BF CoI, K_{hip}, and K_{ankle} (p<0.001), but not for TA/LG CoI and K_{knee}. In 223 224 addition, significant increases were observed between slow and fast walking speeds 225 for; RF/BF CoI, K_{hip}, and K_{ankle} (p<0.001), and significant decreases for TA/LG CoI (p<0.01), but not for K_{knee}. In addition, significant positive correlations were seen 226 between walking speed and RF/BF CoI (r=0.554, p<0.001), K_{hip} (r=0.814, p<0.001), K_{ankle} 227 228 (r=0.667, p<0.001) (figures 2f, 2h, 2j,), and a negative correlation was seen between 229 walking speed and TA/LG CoI (r=-0.377, p<0.001) (figure 2g).

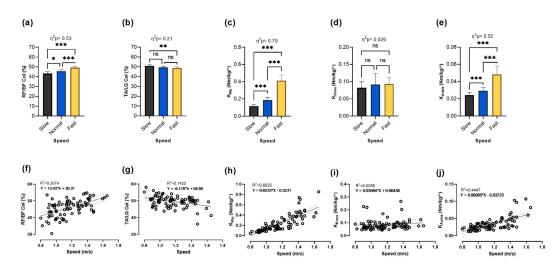




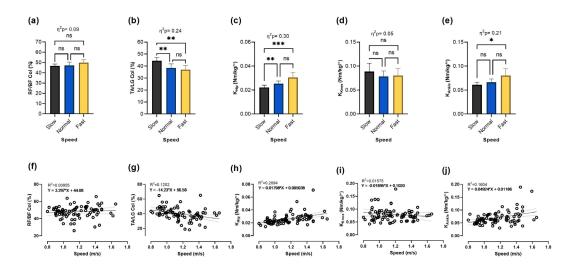
Fig. 2: Weight Acceptance: Pairwise comparisons associated with the significant main effects from the RM-ANOVA with mean and confidence intervals for (a) RF/BF Col, (b) TA/LG Col, (c) K_{hip}, (d) K_{knee}, and (e) K_{ankle}. Correlation among walking speed and coactivation index for (f) RF/BF Col, (g) TA/LG Col, (h) K_{hip}, (i) K_{knee}, and (j) K_{ankle}. Partial eta squared ($\eta^2 p$) and asterisk signs represent significant differences between speeds: (***) indicates p < 0.001, (**) indicates p < 0.01, (*) indicates p < 0.05, and (ns) indicates nonsignificant.

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239 *3.2.2. Mid-stance phase*

During the mid-stance phase, the RM-ANOVA demonstrated significant main effects 240 for speed for TA/LG CoI (n²p= 0.24) (figure 3b), K_{hip} (n²p= 0.30) (figure 3c), and K_{ankle} 241 $(\eta^2 p = 0.21)$ (figure 3e). Additional post hoc comparisons indicated significant 242 differences between slow and normal speeds for TA/LG CoI and K_{hip} (p<0.01), but not 243 244 for RF/BF CoI, K_{knee}, and K_{ankle}, and no significant differences were seen between normal and fast walking speeds. Between slow and fast walking speeds significant 245 differences were seen for TA/LG CoI (p<0.01), K_{hip} (p<0.001), K_{ankle} (p<0.05), but not for 246 RF/BF CoI and K_{knee}. In addition, there was a strong positive association between 247

walking speed and K_{hip} (*r=0.458, p<0.001*), K_{ankle} (*r=0.400, p<0.001*) (figure 3h,3j), and a negative correlation was seen between walking speed and TA/LG Col (*r=-0.347, p<0.01*) (figure 3g).



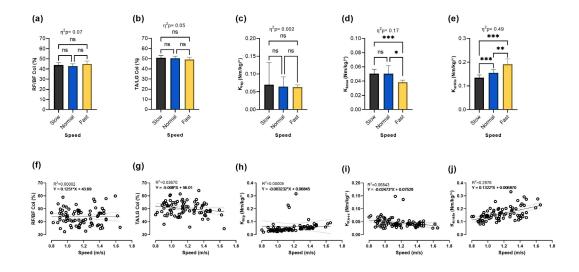
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Fig. 3. Mid stance phase: Pairwise comparisons associated with the significant main effects from the RM-ANOVA with mean and confidence intervals for (a) RF/BF CoI, (b) TA/LG CoI, (c) K_{hip}, (d) K_{knee}, and (e) K_{ankle}. Correlation among walking speed and coactivation index for (f) RF/BF CoI, (g) TA/LG CoI, (h) K_{hip}, (i) K_{knee}, and (j) K_{ankle}. Partial eta squared ($\eta^2 p$) and asterisk signs represent significant differences between speeds: (***) indicates p < 0.001, (**) indicates p < 0.01, (*) indicates p < 0.05, and (ns) indicates nonsignificant.

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260 3.2.3. Terminal stance phase

261 During terminal stance phase, the RM-ANOVA demonstrated no significant main effects with small effect size ($\eta^2 p = 0.07$) for speed for RF/BF CoI (figure 4a), TA/LG CoI 262 $(\eta^2 p = 0.05)$ (figure 4b), $K_{hip}(\eta^2 p = 0.002)$ (figure 4c). And significant effects for speed for 263 K_{knee} ($\eta^2 p$ = 0.17) (figure 4d), and K_{ankle} ($\eta^2 p$ = 0.49) (figure 4e). Additional post hoc 264 comparisons showed differences between slow and normal walking speed for Kankle 265 (p<0.001), but not for RF/BF CoI, TA/LG CoI, Khip, and Kknee. Between normal and fast 266 walking speeds significant differences were seen between speeds for; K_{knee} (p<0.05) 267 and K_{ankle} (p<0.01), but not for RF/BF CoI, TA/LG CoI, and K_{hip} . Between slow and fast 268 walking speeds significant differences were seen for K_{knee} and K_{ankle} (p<0.001), but not 269 for RF/BF CoI, TA/LG CoI, and K_{hip}. In addition, walking speed and K_{knee} had a significant 270 271 negative association (r=-0.262, p<0.05) (figure 4i), while walking speed and K_{ankle} had a positive correlation (*r=0.546, p<0.001*) (figure 4j). 272



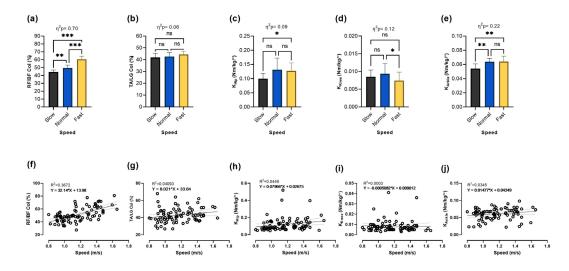
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Fig. 4. Terminal stance phase: Pairwise comparisons associated with the significant main effects from the RM-ANOVA with mean and confidence intervals for (a) RF/BF Col, (b) TA/LG Col, (c) K_{hip}, (d) K_{knee}, and (e) K_{ankle}. Correlation among walking speed and coactivation index for (f) RF/BF Col, (g) TA/LG Col, (h) K_{hip}, (i) K_{knee}, and (j) K_{ankle}. Partial eta squared ($\eta^2 p$) and asterisk signs represent significant differences between speeds: (***) indicates p < 0.001, (**) indicates p < 0.01, (*) indicates p < 0.05, and (ns) indicates nonsignificant.

281

282 3.2.4. Pre-swing phase

283 During pre-swing phase, the RM-ANOVA demonstrated significant main effects for speed for RF/BF CoI (n^2p = 0.70) (figure 5a), K_{hip} (n^2p = 0.09) (figure 5c), K_{knee} (n^2p = 0.12) 284 (figure 5d), and K_{ankle} ($\eta^2 p$ = 0.22) (figure 5e). Post hoc comparisons showed significant 285 286 differences between slow and normal walking speeds for: RF/BF CoI and Kankle (p<0.01), but not between TA/LG CoI, Khip, and Kknee. Between normal and fast walking 287 speeds significant differences were seen for RF/BF CoI (p<0.001), Kknee (p<0.05), but 288 289 not for TA/LG CoI, Khip, and Kankle. Significant differences were also seen between slow 290 and fast walking speeds for RF/BF CoI (p<0.001), K_{hip} (p<0.05), and K_{ankle} (p<0.01), but 291 not for TA/LG CoI and K_{knee}. In addition, walking speed and RF/BF CoI had a significant 292 positive association (r=0.606, p<0.001) (figure 5f).



293

Fig. 5. Pre swing phase: Pairwise comparisons associated with the significant main effects from the RM-ANOVA with mean and confidence intervals for (a) RF/BF Col, (b) TA/LG Col, (c) K_{hip}, (d) K_{knee}, and (e) K_{ankle}. Correlation among walking speed and coactivation index for (f) RF/BF Col, (g) TA/LG Col, (h) K_{hip}, (i) K_{knee}, and (j) K_{ankle}. Partial eta squared ($\eta^2 p$) and asterisk signs represent significant differences between speeds: (***) indicates p < 0.001, (**) indicates p < 0.01, (*) indicates p < 0.05, and (ns) indicates nonsignificant.

301

302 4. Discussion

The results of this study showed significant differences in gait characteristics between slow, normal and fast walking speeds, where the average slow walking speed was recorded as 0.94 ± 0.06 m/s, normal walking speed as 1.12 ± 0.08 m/s, and fast walking speed as 1.41 ± 0.10 m/s, which was in agreement with previous findings (Fox and Delp, 2010; Khan et al., 2017). This study also shows the changes in lower limb muscle co-activations and joint stiffnesses of the selected lower limb muscles between the walking speeds.

Further investigations of the muscle co-activations highlighted significant increases in 310 thigh muscle co-activation between slow and normal, slow and fast, and normal and 311 312 fast walking speeds during the weight acceptance phase. In addition, a significant decrease in calf co-activation between slow and fast walking, although no significant 313 314 differences in calf co-activation were seen between slow and normal, and normal and fast walking speeds during the weight acceptance phase. These findings show how the 315 knee and hip are controlled when the knee is partially flexed and the hip extends, 316 allowing for weight acceptance and power absorption. Additionally, a combination of 317 distal ankle and proximal hip muscle activation is necessary for control and stability 318 319 during the mid and terminal stance phases of walking (Tirosh et al., 2013; Winter and 320 Yack, 1987). This is achieved through the thigh muscle co-activation of RF and BF, and calf muscle co-activation of TA and LG to achieve stability during mid stance. However, 321 the results indicated no significant differences in thigh muscle co-activation between 322 323 the speeds, although significant differences were seen in calf co-activation between 324 slow and normal and slow and fast speeds, with a greater calf co-activation during 325 slow walking during mid stance.

326 During terminal stance phase when the opposing leg begins to lift off the ground, the 327 support leg's knee and hip continue to extend, and RF, BF, TA, and LG activate synergistically on the knee and ankle joints to control the body progression as more 328 329 body weight is placed on the support leg (Akl et al., 2021). During the pre-swing phase 330 significant differences of thigh co-activation were detected which increased with speed, whereas there were no significant differences in calf co-activation, this could 331 332 be because the different duration of terminal stance phase among the walking speeds, especially when moving quickly. The CoI of the thigh and calf muscles varies more 333 334 between slow and fast speed than between normal and fast speed. Therefore, these 335 findings indicate that controlling walking stability during the 3 walking speeds requires 336 a higher level of antagonist muscle activation.

The K_{hip} showed a significant positive correlation with walking speed during the 337 weight acceptance phase, which is in agreement with Jin and Hahn (2018). 338 339 Additionally, a strong positive link between K_{hip} and walking speed was seen, with 340 disparities between slow and fast as well as slow and normal walking speed 341 throughout the mid-stance phase. The results of the hip stiffness support previously 342 reported values (Frigo et al., 1996; Huang and Wang, 2016), emphasising the 343 connection between hip moment and hip angle while walking. Due to the nature of this relationship, a stiffer joint is created by a lower angular displacement and a higher 344 345 joint moment (Dixon et al., 2010; Holt et al., 2003).

346 In contrast to the hip joint, there were no variations between speeds and knee joint 347 stiffness, which is in agreement with Akl et al (Akl et al., 2020), with the exception of 348 significant differences between slow and fast speeds, and normal and fast speeds 349 during terminal stance phase. This outcome might be the result of a decreased 350 moment relative to knee angular displacement during the double support phase, which increases at terminal stance prior to toe off, and may also indicate a change in 351 352 the proximal and distal demands placed on RF and BF to control joint stiffness as both 353 are biarticulate muscles crossing the knee and hip joints. The differences during 354 terminal stance in knee stiffness, particularly between slow and fast and normal and 355 fast walking speeds, which indicates a greater stiffness when speed is decreased which 356 has been purported to be a possible risk factor for injury (Apps et al., 2016). According 357 to this interpretation, the knee stiffness rose during the knee flexion phase of the weight acceptance phase but reduced during the knee extension phase, which is in 358 359 support of the findings by Shamaei et al. (2013b).

Ankle joint stiffness showed a main response to walking speed with a positive significant correlation during weight acceptance, mid stance, and terminal stance of walking stance sub-phases. This result indicates that the ankle joint is generating more mechanical energy than is absorbed and has a greater involvement than the hip and knee joints when walking speeds increase which is in agreement with the results reported by Jin and Hahn (2018).

Significant positive correlations were seen for speed in the K_{hip}, K_{ankle} during the weight acceptance and mid stance phases. In addition, speed was associated with K_{ankle} during terminal stance phase which was in agreement with (Jin and Hahn, 2018). In accordance with earlier investigations, the difference in reaction to hip and knee stiffness also doesn't seem to be related to a higher stiffness adaptability (Frigo et al., 1996; Neptune et al., 2011). The results indicated that the changes to K_{hip} during weight acceptance and mid stance phases as well as the changes to K_{ankle} during weight acceptance, mid stance, and terminal stance phases were associated with a corresponding muscle co-activation. The results suggest an increase in K_{hip} and K_{ankle} with an increase in thigh co-activation and decrease of calf co-activation to provide the necessary stiffness to control the lower limb movement, in agreement with previously reported findings (Wang et al., 2015).

378 To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study to examine the co-activation of the lower limb muscles along with the stiffness of lower limb joints and the relationships 379 380 between joints stiffness and co-activation of the thigh and calf muscles with respect 381 to different walking speeds. This provides a greater understanding of the differences and relationships between muscle co-activations, lower limb joint stiffness, and 382 walking speed. The consideration of joint stiffness and muscle co-activation could 383 384 have further applications when investigating the effects of gait retraining and other 385 interventions in individuals with lower extremity impairment (Arene and Hidler, 2009; 386 De la Fuente et al., 2018) and may help our understanding of possible injury 387 mechanisms (Tam et al., 2017).

388 This study does have some limitations that require consideration when reviewing the 389 findings. We assumed symmetry in walking between the left and right leg, however 390 individual distributions of joint stiffness and muscle co-activation may differ in cases where asymmetries exist. In addition, we concentrated on exploring differences in 391 392 walking speeds rather than the effect of sex, which our results suggest could be an 393 important direction for future research. Finally, the EMG data were normalized to the 394 maximum observed signal which is a common method of normalization for dynamic 395 muscle activations, however the use of this technique does complicate comparisons 396 to studies that express activation as a percentage of maximal voluntary isometric 397 contraction (%MVIC). A future area for consideration is the relationship between 398 biarticulate muscles and joint stiffness, which although this study recorded co-399 activation from 3 biarticulate muscles the relative contributions to the proximal and 400 distal joints of each of the muscles was not considered.

401

402 Conclusion

403 Lower limb joints stiffness is influenced by walking speed, and it is related to 404 thigh and calf co-activation during weight acceptance phase with the exception of 405 knee stiffness. The co-activation of the thigh muscles increased significantly with 406 walking speed during the weight acceptance and pre swing phases. The findings of the 407 study also showed that co-activation of the calf muscles has no differences with walking speed and no relationships with hip, knee, and ankle stiffness during terminal 408 409 stance and pre swing phases. However, there were positive associations between thigh muscle co-activation and hip stiffness during the weight acceptance and pre 410 411 swing phases. These results provide more information on the combined responses to 412 walking speed, and show the differences between stiffness of the lower limb joints 413 and co-activation of the lower limb muscles, which could provide greater insights into 414 the effects of gait retraining and injury mechanisms.

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