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1 **An exploration of muscle co-activation during different walking speeds**
2 **and the association with lower limb joint stiffness**

3

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15 Running title: joint stiffness and muscle co-activation during different walking speeds

16

17 **Abstract**

18 The aim of this study was to determine the muscle co-activations and joint stiffnesses
19 around the hip, knee, and ankle during different walking speeds and to define the
20 relationships between muscle co-activation and joint stiffness. Twenty-seven healthy
21 subjects (age: 19.6 ± 2.2 years, height: 176.0 ± 6.0 cm, mass: 69.7 ± 8.9 kg) were
22 recruited. Muscle co-activations (CoI) and lower limb joints stiffnesses were
23 investigated during stance phase at different walking speeds using Repeated
24 Measures ANOVA with Sidak post-hoc tests. Correlations between muscle co-
25 activations, joints stiffnesses, and walking speeds were also investigated using
26 Pearson Product Moment correlations. The results indicated that the hip and ankle
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) CoI
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.
35 The techniques presented could have further application and provides an aid to
36 understanding of the effects of gait retraining and injury mechanisms.

37

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

39

40 1. Introduction

41 Different walking speeds are a requirement in everyday ambulation to adapt
42 to different situations, with greater walking speeds being characterised by higher
43 ground reaction forces (Chiu and Wang, 2007), and an associated increase in the
44 demand of the musculoskeletal system to produce energy to allow forward
45 progression of the body (Peterson et al., 2011). Another aspect of the demand and
46 control of the musculoskeletal system is joint stiffness, which can be considered as the
47 interaction between angular displacement and joint moment which provides
48 information on the control of joint-level mechanics (Frigo et al., 1996). This includes
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
51 been associated with variations in the spring-like behaviours of muscles (Santos et al.,
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
56 expressed as the ratio of the maximum joint moment (ΔM) to the maximum joint
57 flexion angle ($\Delta\theta$) [$K_{\text{joint}} = \Delta M / \Delta\theta$] (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
60 stiffness (Kelly et al., 2015). It has also been highlighted that passive stiffness is the
61 property of joint structures when there is no muscular activity (Rouse et al., 2013;
62 Zhang and Collins, 2017), whereas muscle activity is taken into account when
63 calculating dynamic stiffness, or quasi-stiffness (Aleixo et al., 2018; Shamaei et al.,
64 2013a).

65 Several studies have examined the stiffness of the ankle joint during normal
66 walking (Gabriel et al., 2008; Houdijk et al., 2008; Mager et al., 2018; Sanchis-Sales et
67 al., 2016; Shamaei et al., 2013a), and hip joint stiffness (Goldberg and Neptune, 2007).
68 However, only a few studies have examined the stiffness of the hip (Jin and Hahn,
69 2018), knee (Holt et al., 2003; Jin and Hahn, 2018), and ankle joints (Jin and Hahn,
70 2018) during different walking speeds. Brughelli and Cronin (2008), Akl et al. (2020),
71 and Kuitunen et al. (2002) showed that knee joint stiffness has a greater impact on
72 controlling leg stiffness than ankle joint stiffness, and Kim and Park (2011) who
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
76 around the knee must simultaneously contract, or co-activate (Smith et al., 2021).
77 Joint stiffness is hypothesised to promote joint stability through greater antagonist co-
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.,

85 2013) during walking. While traditionally viewed as a beneficial adaptation to preserve
86 stability (Li et al., 1999), excessive co-activation in the absence of injury is poorly
87 understood, and when extrapolated to repetitive movement patterns over time, it
88 may not be advantageous for long-term joint health. For example, lower strength in
89 the hamstrings compared to the quadriceps (i.e., low muscle co-activation) has been
90 associated with a higher risk of lower extremity injury (Knapik et al., 1991).

91 The study of the factors that influence muscle coactivation and joint stiffness
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
108 injuries to the lower limbs. All participants provided written consent in accordance
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. CEFADÉ 19 2022).

112 *2.2. Experimental Protocol*

113 To define the segment co-ordinate systems, a lower limb marker set with 38 retro
114 reflective markers on anatomical landmarks, and rigid clusters were placed on the
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
120 and reduce motion artefacts, skin-tight shorts were worn by the subjects. Two 40x60
121 cm and 2 60x90 cm force platforms were used to record the ground reaction forces
122 at 1000 Hz (Bertec Corporation, OH, USA), which were synchronise with the
123 kinematic data using Qualisys Track Manager Software (Qualisys AB, Gothenburg,
124 Sweden). In addition, surface EMG data of the selected muscles (Rectus Femoris -
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) guidelines
129 (Hermens et al., 2000).

130 Participants were asked to walk at slow, normal, and fast speeds. Prior to the
131 commencement of data collection, each participant was encouraged to walk at their
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
134 of that speed (Akl et al., 2020). Data collection began when the subjects said they were
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
137 participant completed walking tests over a 12-meter walkway, taking at least 3 steps
138 before and after arriving at the force plates. All variables were averaged for five
139 successful trials, with five gait cycles for each speed for each subject.

140 2.3. Data Processing

141 Qualisys Track Manager Software was used to digitise the obtained data (Qualisys,
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

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

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

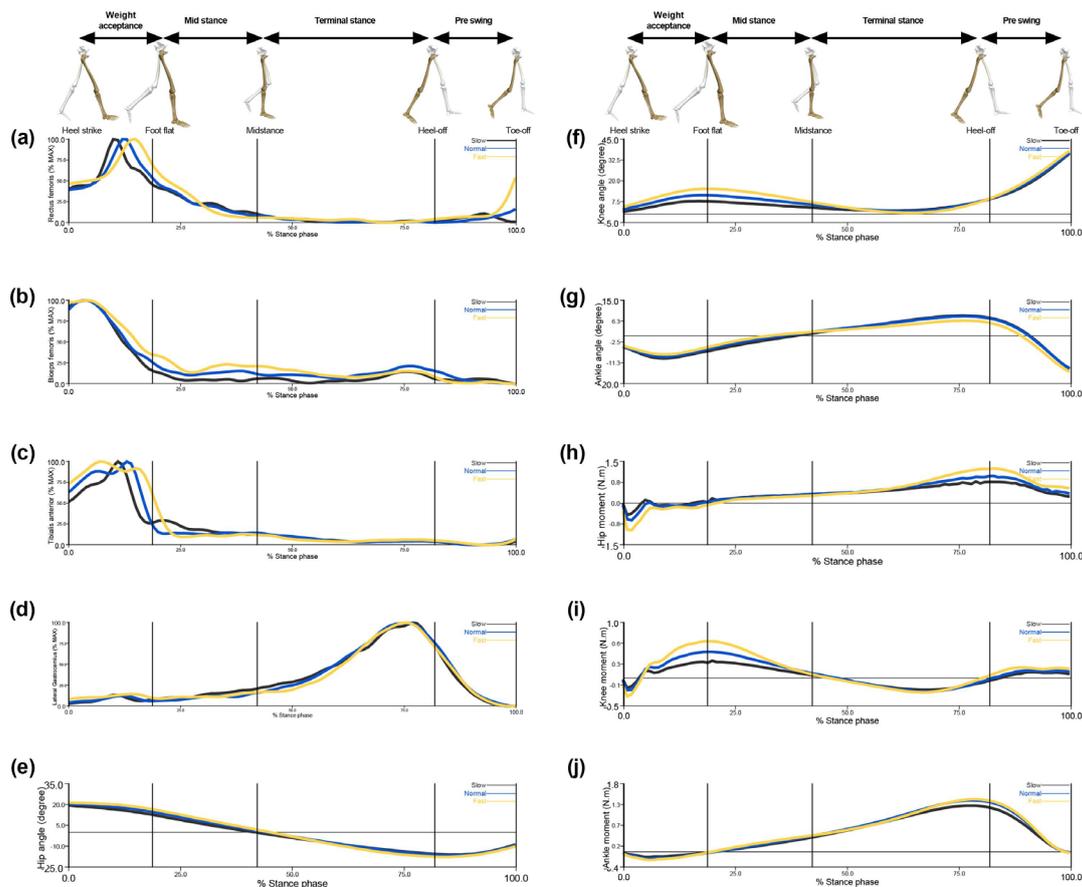
159 where t_1 and t_2 are the start and end of the support phase, EMG_{ant} is the magnitude
160 of EMG from the lower muscle activity, and EMG_{ag} is the magnitude of EMG from the
161 higher muscle activity during normal walking which was used as a reference in the
162 calculation of Col during the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

163 2.5. Joint Stiffness

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

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

176



177

178 **Fig. 1.** Means for (a) Rectus femoris (RF), (b) Biceps femoris (BF), (c) Tibialis anterior
 179 (TA), (d) lateral gastrocnemius (LG), (e) Hip joint angle, (f) Knee joint angle, (g) Ankle joint
 180 angle, (h) Hip joint moment, (i) Knee joint moment, and (j) Ankle joint moment during the
 181 sub-phases of stance phase (weight acceptance, mid stance, terminal stance, and pre
 182 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
$$K_{joint} = \frac{\Delta M}{\Delta \theta} \quad [2]$$

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

190 Shapiro-Wilk tests were used to examine the distribution of the data, and it was
 191 determined that all the data was suitable for parametric analysis. Means and 95%
 192 confidence intervals were used to report descriptive statistics. To compare the mean
 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
 195 variance (RM-ANOVA) with Sidak post hoc tests were used, each dependent variable
 196 was compared across 3 speeds for each phase. Partial eta squared (η^2p) 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

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

206

207 Table 1.

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

Walking Characteristics	Slow (n=27)	Normal (n=27)	Fast (n=27)	ANOVA P-Value (η^2p)	Different percentages		
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		Slow/Normal (%)	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 η^2p = Partial eta squared for effect size.

211

212

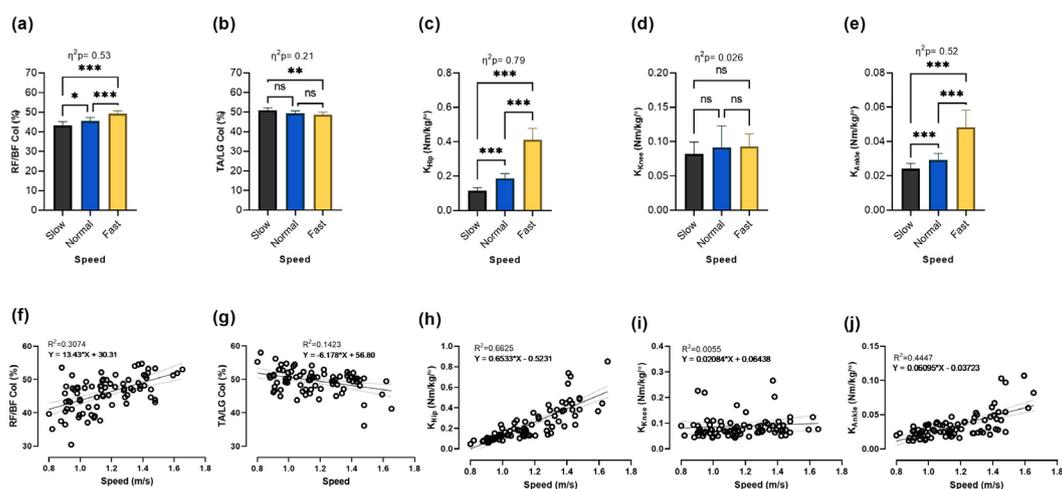
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214

215 3.2. Co-activation index and joint stiffness during the different walking phases

216 3.2.1. Weight acceptance phase

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



230

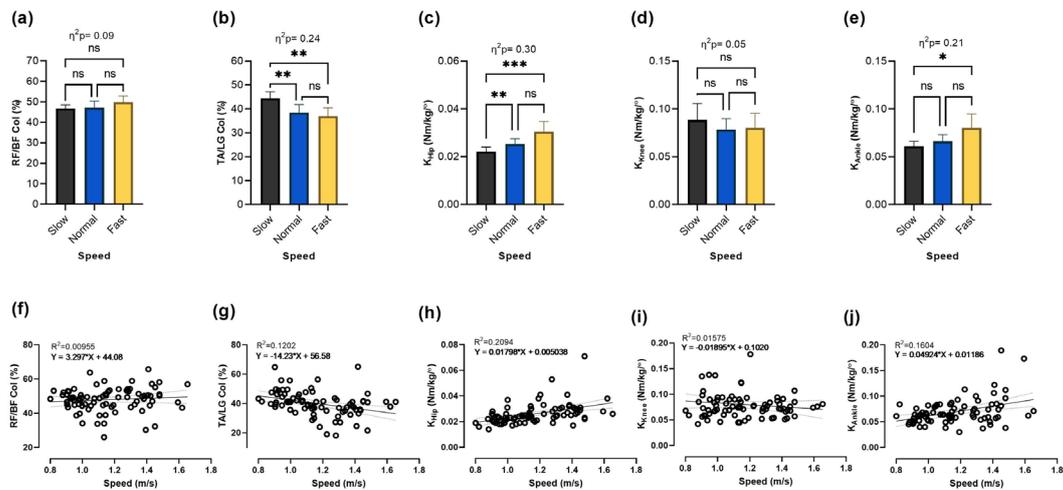
231 **Fig. 2: Weight Acceptance:** Pairwise comparisons associated with the significant main
 232 effects from the RM-ANOVA with mean and confidence intervals for (a) RF/BF Col, (b)
 233 TA/LG Col, (c) K_{hip} , (d) K_{knee} , and (e) K_{ankle} . Correlation among walking speed and
 234 co-activation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

238

239 3.2.2. Mid-stance phase

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

248 walking speed and K_{hip} ($r=0.458$, $p<0.001$), K_{ankle} ($r=0.400$, $p<0.001$) (figure 3h,3j), and
 249 a negative correlation was seen between walking speed and TA/LG Col ($r=-0.347$,
 250 $p<0.01$) (figure 3g).



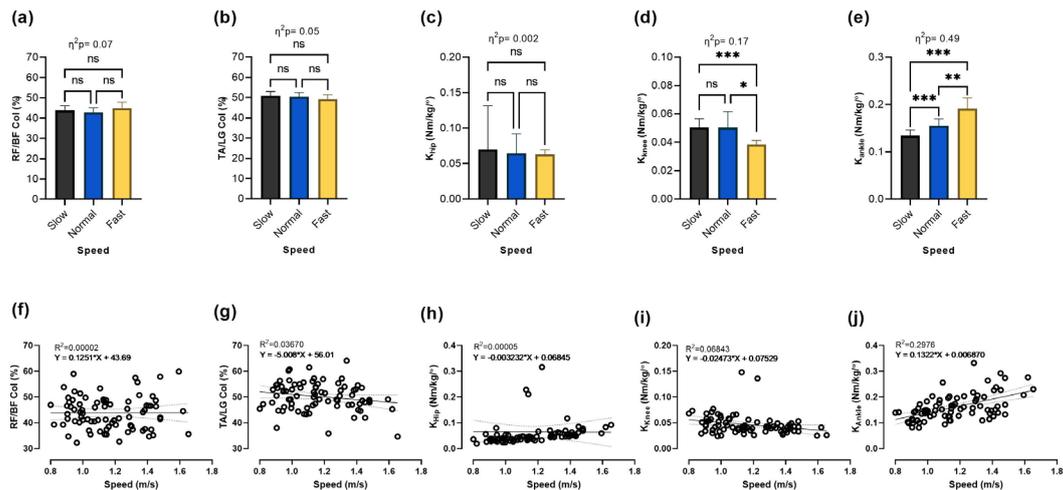
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252 **Fig. 3. Mid stance phase:** Pairwise comparisons associated with the significant main
 253 effects from the RM-ANOVA with mean and confidence intervals for (a) RF/BF Col, (b)
 254 TA/LG Col, (c) K_{hip} , (d) K_{knee} , and (e) K_{ankle} . Correlation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

259

260 3.2.3. Terminal stance phase

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



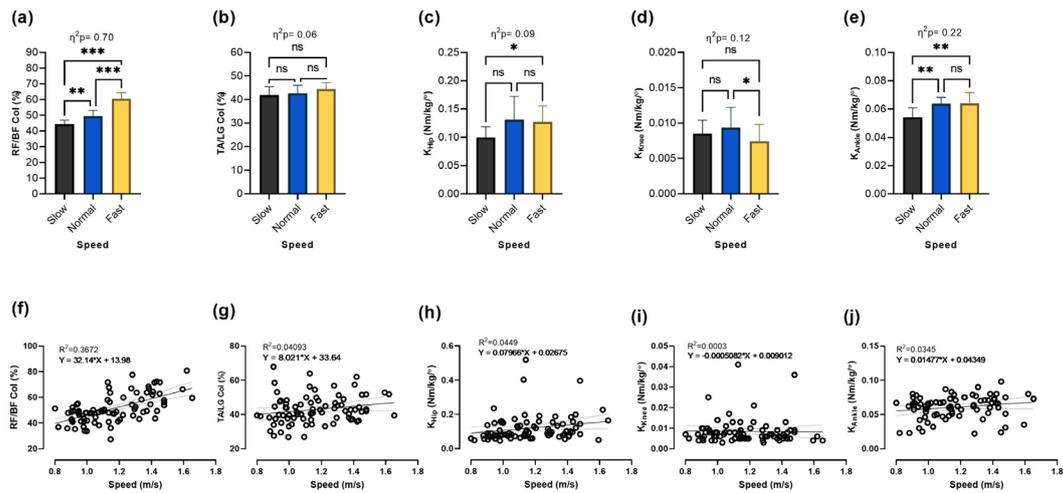
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274 **Fig. 4. Terminal stance phase:** Pairwise comparisons associated with the significant
 275 main effects from the RM-ANOVA with mean and confidence intervals for (a) RF/BF Col,
 276 (b) TA/LG Col, (c) K_{hip} , (d) K_{knee} , and (e) K_{ankle}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

281

282 3.2.4. Pre-swing phase

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



293

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

301

302 4. Discussion

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

310 Further investigations of the muscle co-activations highlighted significant increases in
 311 thigh muscle co-activation between slow and normal, slow and fast, and normal and
 312 fast walking speeds during the weight acceptance phase. In addition, a significant
 313 decrease in calf co-activation between slow and fast walking, although no significant
 314 differences in calf co-activation were seen between slow and normal, and normal and
 315 fast walking speeds during the weight acceptance phase. These findings show how the
 316 knee and hip are controlled when the knee is partially flexed and the hip extends,
 317 allowing for weight acceptance and power absorption. Additionally, a combination of
 318 distal ankle and proximal hip muscle activation is necessary for control and stability
 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
 321 calf muscle co-activation of TA and LG to achieve stability during mid stance. However,
 322 the results indicated no significant differences in thigh muscle co-activation between
 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
328 synergistically on the knee and ankle joints to control the body progression as more
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
331 speed, whereas there were no significant differences in calf co-activation, this could
332 be because the different duration of terminal stance phase among the walking speeds,
333 especially when moving quickly. The Col of the thigh and calf muscles varies more
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.

337 The K_{hip} showed a significant positive correlation with walking speed during the
338 weight acceptance phase, which is in agreement with Jin and Hahn (2018).
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
344 this relationship, a stiffer joint is created by a lower angular displacement and a higher
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,
351 which increases at terminal stance prior to toe off, and may also indicate a change in
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
358 weight acceptance phase but reduced during the knee extension phase, which is in
359 support of the findings by Shamaei et al. (2013b).

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

366 Significant positive correlations were seen for speed in the K_{hip} , K_{ankle} during the weight
367 acceptance and mid stance phases. In addition, speed was associated with K_{ankle} during
368 terminal stance phase which was in agreement with (Jin and Hahn, 2018). In
369 accordance with earlier investigations, the difference in reaction to hip and knee
370 stiffness also doesn't seem to be related to a higher stiffness adaptability (Frigo et al.,

371 1996; Neptune et al., 2011). The results indicated that the changes to K_{hip} during
372 weight acceptance and mid stance phases as well as the changes to K_{ankle} during weight
373 acceptance, mid stance, and terminal stance phases were associated with a
374 corresponding muscle co-activation. The results suggest an increase in K_{hip} and K_{ankle}
375 with an increase in thigh co-activation and decrease of calf co-activation to provide
376 the necessary stiffness to control the lower limb movement, in agreement with
377 previously reported findings (Wang et al., 2015).

378 To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study to examine the co-activation of the
379 lower limb muscles along with the stiffness of lower limb joints and the relationships
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
382 and relationships between muscle co-activations, lower limb joint stiffness, and
383 walking speed. The consideration of joint stiffness and muscle co-activation could
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
391 where asymmetries exist. In addition, we concentrated on exploring differences in
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
408 walking speed and no relationships with hip, knee, and ankle stiffness during terminal
409 stance and pre swing phases. However, there were positive associations between
410 thigh muscle co-activation and hip stiffness during the weight acceptance and pre
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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