

1 **Title:** Trunk-pelvis coordination during load carriage running

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2

### 3 **Abstract**

4 Understanding the influence of load carriage on trunk-pelvis coordination and its variability  
5 has important functional implications for athletes who need to run with load. The aim of this  
6 study was to examine the influence of load carriage on trunk-pelvis coordination in running.  
7 Thirty healthy adults performed running while wearing a 20% bodyweight backpack, and  
8 without load. Vector coding was used to quantify trunk-pelvis segmental coordination and its  
9 variability during the stance phase of running. The four coordination patterns were: 1) anti-  
10 phase (segments moving in opposite directions), in-phase (segments moving in same  
11 directions), trunk-only phase (only trunk movement), and pelvic-only phase (only pelvic  
12 movement). For each plane, the percentage of stance phase spent in a specific coordination  
13 pattern was quantified. Coordination variability for each plane was averaged over the stance  
14 phase. Mixed effects models were used to analyse the effects of load, adjusted for the  
15 covariate of sex, on coordination and its variability. Running with load increased trunk-only  
16 coordination in the sagittal plane ( $P < 0.001$ ), increased anti-phase coordination in the frontal  
17 plane ( $P < 0.001$ ), reduced trunk-only phase coordination in axial rotation ( $P < 0.001$ ), and  
18 increased coordination variability in all three planes (Flexion-Extension:  $P < 0.001$ ; Lateral  
19 flexion:  $P = 0.03$ ; Axial rotation:  $P < 0.001$ ). Future studies would benefit from investigating  
20 how trunk-pelvis coordination and its variability alters candidate end-point variability indices  
21 (e.g. COM displacement), and its functional implications in load carriage running.

**Keywords:** Load carriage, Dynamical Systems Theory, Motor control, Running, Coordination

22

### 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Running is a popular sport with participation growing over the last few decades  
25 (Ahmadyar et al., 2015), especially in trail and ultra-endurance distances (Scheer et al.,  
26 2020). These athletes often carry their own sustenance during running, typically  
27 accomplished with a backpack (termed as “load”) (Alger, 2014). Carrying load increases the  
28 metabolic and mechanical energetic cost of running (Liew et al., 2016; Teunissen et al.,  
29 2007). A thorough understanding of segmental biomechanics and coordination may help in  
30 optimising the energetics of running with load.

31 Coordinating the trunk and pelvis segments during running is important because these  
32 segments contribute up to 50% of the body's mass (Dempster, 1955). Anti-phasic trunk-  
33 pelvic coordination in running ensures conservation of whole body angular momentum  
34 (Pontzer et al., 2009; Preece et al., 2016). Factors that alter trunk-pelvis coordination during  
35 gait are may impact on the energy cost during locomotion. For example, load carriage  
36 reduced anti-phase trunk-pelvis axial rotation coordination, which was associated with  
37 increased metabolic cost during walking (Rosa et al., 2018). Carrying a load while walking  
38 also increased in-phase axial trunk-pelvis rotation coordination (LaFiandra et al., 2003) and  
39 its variability (Yen et al., 2012). Although load carriage has been shown to alter trunk  
40 segment angles in running (Brown et al., 2014), the influence of running with load on trunk-  
41 pelvis coordination is yet to be investigated.

42 The primary purpose of this study was to investigate how load carriage influences  
43 trunk-pelvic coordination and its variability in running. We hypothesised that load carriage,  
44 in comparison to body-weight (BW) running, would increase in-phase and reduce anti-phase  
45 trunk-pelvic coordination across all planes. Like walking (Yen et al., 2012), we also  
46 hypothesised coordination variability in all planes would increase when load is added to BW  
47 running.

## 48 **2. Methods**

### 49 2.1. Participants and design

50 Thirty healthy adults (16 male, 14 female, mean (standard deviation [SD]) age: 30.35  
51 (9.11) years, mass: 69.13 (12.65) kg, height: 1.72 (0.76) m) with no self-reported experience  
52 in running with a 20%BW load were recruited. Participants were included if they ran a total  
53 of >45 minutes/week over the past year. Participants were excluded if they have any self-  
54 reported injuries in the preceding three months, and females currently pregnant. This study

55 was approved by Institutional Human Research Ethics Committee (RD-41-14). Informed  
56 written consent was sought prior to study enrolment.

## 57 2.2 Experimental set up

58 An 18 camera motion capture system (Vicon T-series, Oxford Metrics, UK) (250 Hz),  
59 with three synchronized in-ground force plates (AMTI, Watertown, MA) (2000 Hz) were  
60 used to collect data (Vicon Nexus, v2.3, Oxford Metrics, UK). Force data were used to  
61 identify initial contact and toe-off with a threshold of 20 N. The biomechanical model of the  
62 trunk and pelvic segments can be found in the supplementary material. Even though markers  
63 were placed on the thoracic segment, the present study uses the general term “trunk”. Marker  
64 trajectories were low pass filtered at 18 Hz (zero lag, 4th order, Butterworth). All  
65 biomechanical processing was performed in Visual 3D.

66 Participants performed running in their personal running shoes at 3.5 m/s ( $\pm 10\%$ )  
67 over two conditions: BW only and with a 20 %BW sandbag-loaded backpack (CAMELBAK,  
68 H.A.W.G.<sup>®</sup> NV, 14 litre), the order of which was randomised (Liew et al., 2016). The  
69 backpack was secured to the participant via an adjustable chest strap and waist belt. Loads of  
70 up to 10kg can be carried in ultra-endurance races (Alger, 2014), and previous studies on load  
71 carriage running have used loads of up to 20% BW (Baggaley et al., 2020; Fagundes et al.,  
72 2017). Timing gates (SMARTSPEED Pro, Fusion Sport Pty Ltd, Australia) were used to  
73 measure running velocity. Ten successful running trials were collected where success was  
74 achieved when the velocity was within 3.5 m/s ( $\pm 10\%$ ) and at least one full foot strike,  
75 regardless of right-left laterality, occurred on a force plate.

## 76 2.3 Biomechanical variables

77 Trunk and pelvic segment angles were individually calculated with respect to the  
78 laboratory's coordinate system. The following axes convention was used: X-axis pointing

79 laterally; Y-axis pointing anteriorly; Z-axis pointing superiorly. A Cardan XYZ sequence was  
80 used for the trunk, whilst a ZYX sequence used for the pelvis (Baker, 2001). Angular  
81 waveforms in the stance phase were time normalized to 100 points. In total, seven running  
82 stance phases from both the right (n = 4) and left stance (n = 3) were available for each  
83 participant and condition for further. The present study focused on the stance phase of  
84 running as energetic cost in stance is much greater compared to flight (Bertram and  
85 Hasaneini, 2013). Vector coding to quantify inter-segmental coordination and its variability  
86 was based on a previously published method (Needham et al., 2014); and used the  
87 coordination phase classification of Chang et al. (Chang et al., 2008) (Table 1).

88

89 Table 1 Scheme used to categorize coordination patterns

<b>Coordination pattern</b>	<b>Coupling angle (CA) definitions</b>	<b>Explanation (example)</b>
Anti-phase	$112.5^{\circ} \leq CA < 157.5^{\circ}$ , $292.5^{\circ} \leq CA < 337.5^{\circ}$	Segments moving in the opposite direction (e.g. trunk clockwise rotation, pelvis anticlockwise rotation)
In-phase	$22.5^{\circ} \leq CA < 67.5^{\circ}$ , $202.5^{\circ} \leq CA < 247.5^{\circ}$	Segments moving in the same direction (e.g. trunk clockwise rotation, pelvis clockwise rotation)
Trunk-only	$0^{\circ} \leq CA < 22.5^{\circ}$ , $157.5^{\circ} \leq CA < 202.5^{\circ}$ , $337.5^{\circ} \leq CA \leq 360^{\circ}$	No pelvis movement, only trunk movement.
Pelvic-only	$67.5^{\circ} \leq CA < 112.5^{\circ}$ , $247.5^{\circ} \leq CA < 292.5^{\circ}$	No trunk movement, only pelvis movement.

90

### 91 2.3 Statistical analysis

92 For each plane, the dependent variable of coordination was reported in terms of  
93 percentage of stance phase spent in a specific coordination pattern. The coordination  
94 variability for each plane was averaged over the stance phase to provide the second  
95 dependent variable. All results were adjusted for sex as a covariate by including its main  
96 effect into the model. A generalized linear mixed model regression with a Poisson

97 distribution was used to analyse the effects of load on coordination. A Bonferroni corrected  
 98 alpha value of 0.0125 (0.05/4) - for each of the four coordination patterns, was set as a  
 99 threshold for significance. A linear mixed model regression model was used to analyse the  
 100 effects of load on coordination variability, with significance determined by an alpha value of  
 101 0.05. Vector coding and statistical inference were performed in R software (v 3.2.5).

### 102 3. Results

103 The mean (SD) running velocity was 3.51 (0.11) m/s; stride lengths were 2.58 (0.21)  
 104 m and 2.45 (0.22) m, for BW and load running, respectively. Group average (SD) angular  
 105 waveforms are reported in Figure 1, coupling angle and coordination variability are reported  
 106 in Figure 2 and 3, respectively.

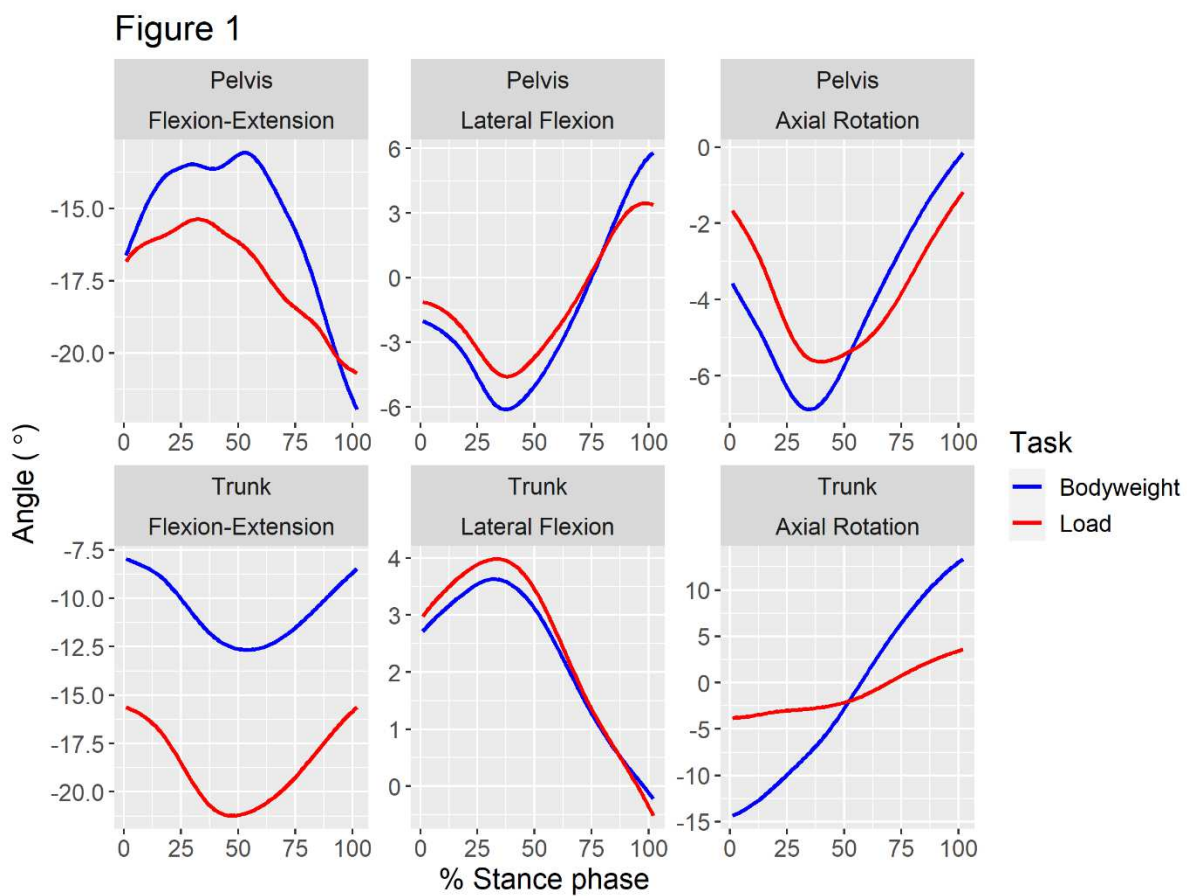
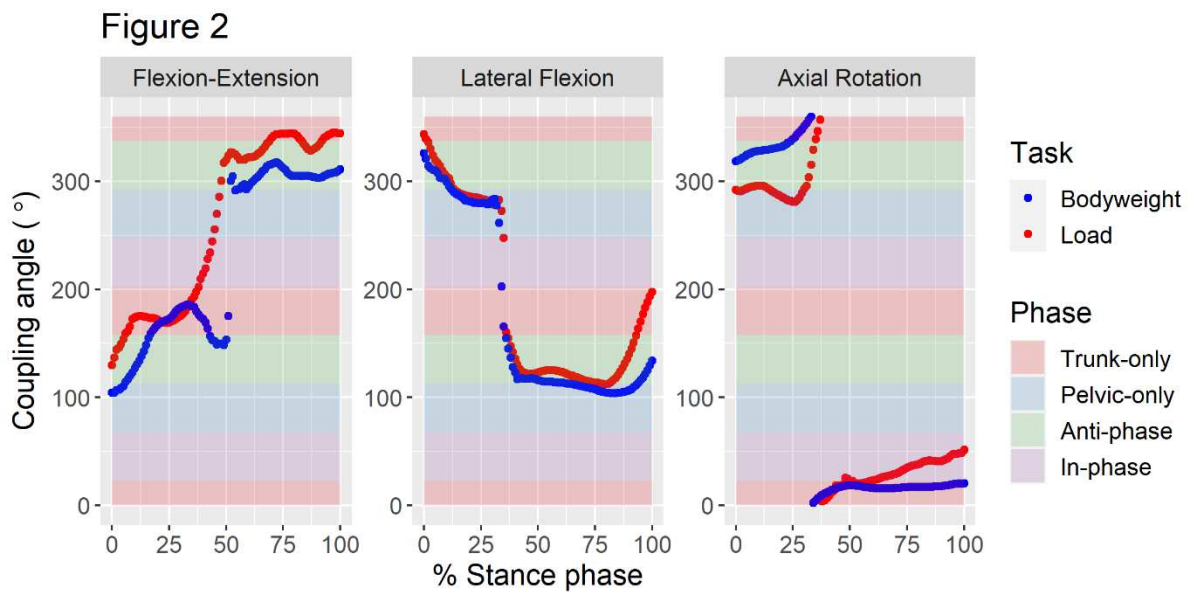


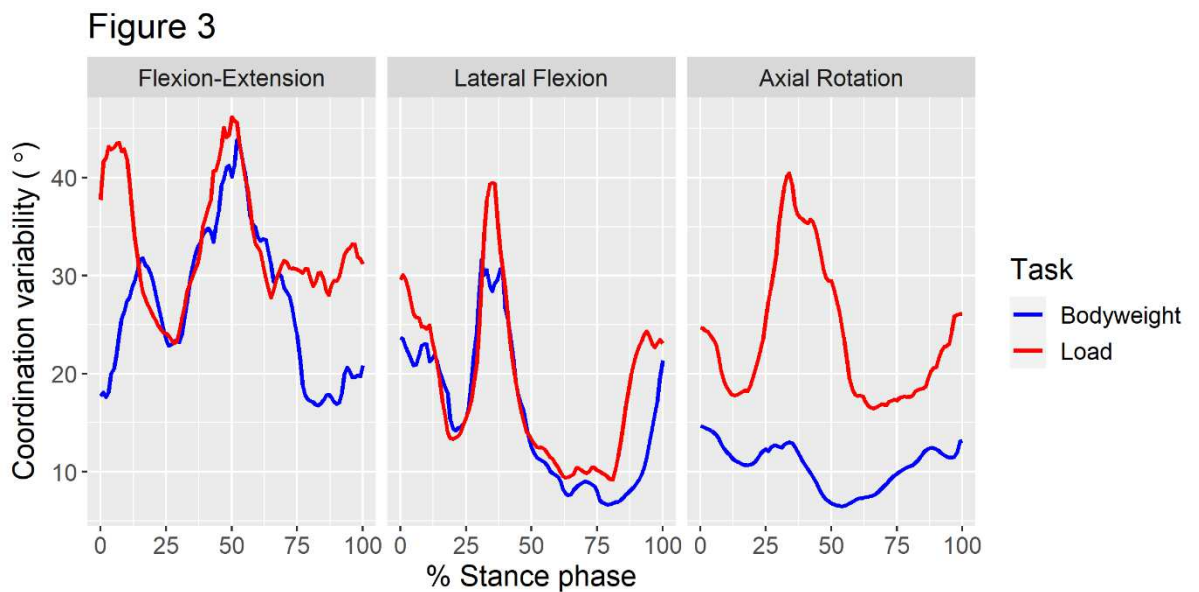
Figure 1 Three-dimensional mean angular waveforms of the trunk and pelvic segments across the stance phase in running. (+) angle reflects extension, right lateral flexion, and left axial rotation.

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109

110 *Figure 2* Group averaged time varying coupling angle (°) across the stance phase in running. Shaded regions reflect the four  
 111 coordination phases that data points across the stance phase lie in.



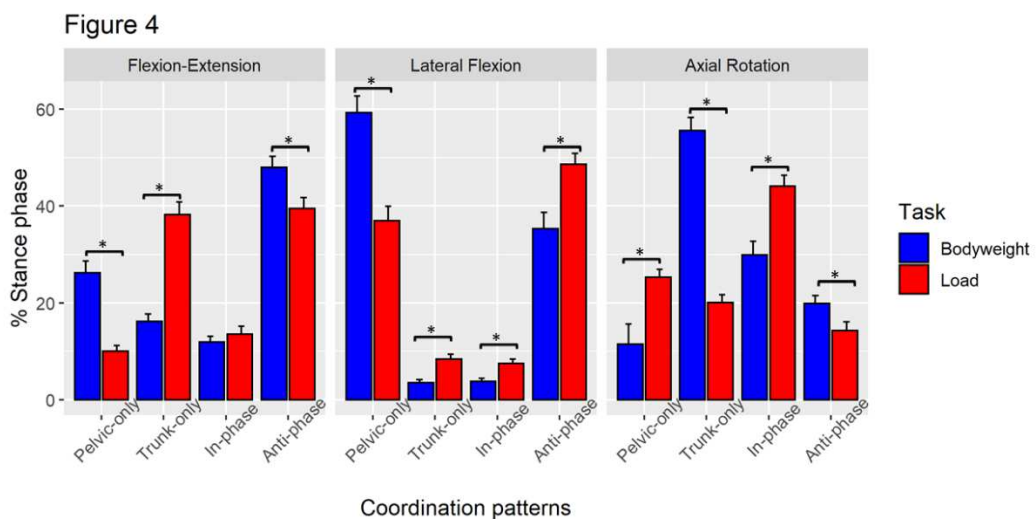
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113 *Figure 3* Group averaged time varying coordination variability (°) across the stance phase in running.

114 In the sagittal plane, running with load significantly reduced anti-phase ( $z = -5.0, P <$   
 115  $0.001$ ) and pelvic-only coordination ( $z = -13.9, P < 0.001$ ), but increased trunk-only ( $z =$   
 116  $16.1, P < 0.001$ ) when compared to BW running (Figure 4). The addition of load significantly  
 117 increased trunk-only ( $z = 7.3, P < 0.001$ ), in-phase ( $z = 5.7, P < 0.001$ ), and anti-phase

118 coordination ( $z = 7.9, P < 0.001$ ); but reduced pelvic-only coordination ( $z = -12.4, P < 0.001$ )  
 119 compared to BW running in the frontal plane (Figure 4). In the transverse plane, running with  
 120 load significantly increased pelvic-only ( $z = 5.7, P < 0.001$ ), increased in-phase coordination  
 121 ( $z = 9.1, P < 0.001$ ), reduced trunk-only ( $z = -21.0, P < 0.001$ ), and anti-phase coordination ( $z$   
 122  $= -4.2, P < 0.001$ ) (Figure 4). Male runners had reduced pelvic-only ( $z = -3.42, P = 0.001$ ),  
 123 but increased anti-phase coordination ( $z = 3.90, P < 0.001$ ) in the frontal plane, compared to  
 124 female runners. The influence of sex on coordination in other planes were not significant.

125 Load increased coordination variability in all three planes in compared to BW running  
 126 (Flexion:  $t = 4.3, P < 0.001$ ; Lateral flexion:  $t = 2.3, P = 0.03$ ; Axial rotation:  $t = 14.0, P <$   
 127  $0.001$ ) (Figure 5). Male runners had greater variability in all three planes compared to female  
 128 runners (Flexion:  $t = 2.73, P = 0.011$ ; Lateral flexion:  $t = 3.06, P = 0.005$ ; Axial rotation:  $t =$   
 129  $4.41, P < 0.001$ ).

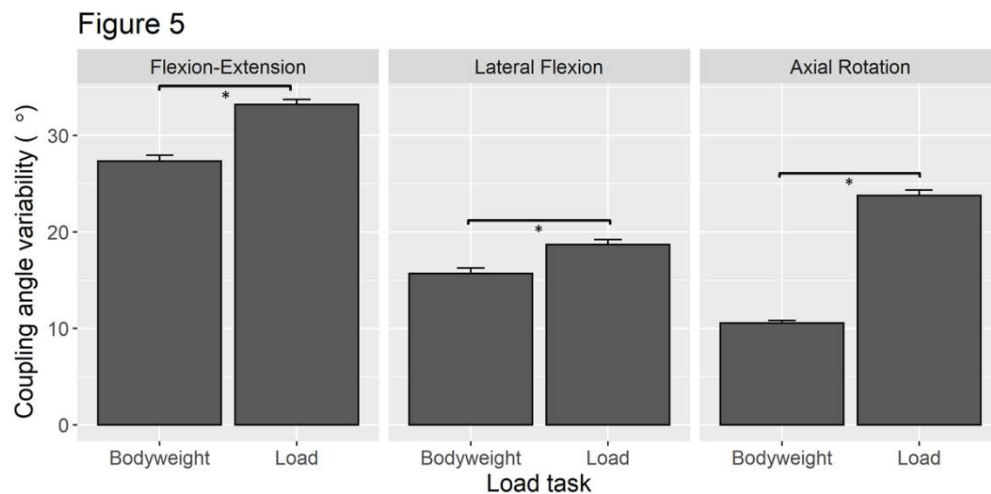


130

131 *Figure 4* Group mean (error bars as 95% confidence interval) of the percentage of stance phase spent in each coordination  
 132 pattern during running. \* indicate statistical significance difference between load conditions.

133





134

135 *Figure 5* Group mean (error bars as 95% confidence interval) of the coordination variability averaged across the stance  
 136 phase in running. \* indicate statistical significance difference between load conditions.

137 **4. Discussion**

138 The purpose of this study was to investigate how load carriage influenced trunk-pelvic  
 139 coordination in running. In contrast to our first hypothesis, carrying load did not increase in-  
 140 phase and reduce anti-phase trunk-pelvic coordination across all planes. Our second  
 141 hypothesis was supported as coordination variability across all planes increased with load  
 142 carriage compared to BW running.

143 Given the importance of anti-phase trunk-pelvis coordination in conserving rotational  
 144 angular momentum (Pontzer et al., 2009), a reduction in anti-phase axial rotation  
 145 coordination may increase the metabolic cost of running with load. In addition, the position  
 146 of the load on the trunk may interact with load magnitude on the metabolic cost of running.  
 147 For example in walking, carrying a 31.75kg load resulted in greater oxygen uptake when the  
 148 load was carried in a rucksack, compared to a weighted vest (Gerhart et al., 2020). A  
 149 rucksack would have greater axial moment of inertia than a weighted vest. To avoid high  
 150 trunk axial torque when running with a backpack, participants could increase axial trunk

151 stiffness (LaFiandra et al., 2002). Greater axial stiffness would reduce axial trunk-only  
152 coordination.

153         The greater trunk-pelvic coordination variability in loaded compared to BW running  
154 could be due to the relative inexperience of our participants in load carriage, and/or  
155 individuals having to control an extra degree of freedom (DOF), in the form of a backpack.  
156 There is little consensus in the literature that greater task experience increases (Hafer et al.,  
157 2019), or reduces (Floria et al., 2018) coordination variability. However, whilst adding a 40%  
158 BW backpack load increased trunk-pelvic coordination variability compared to BW walking,  
159 when the load was fixed to the trunk by a hip belt, variability was reduced (Sharpe et al.,  
160 2008). Speculatively, it is possible that greater trunk-pelvic coordination variability may  
161 serve to minimize COM displacement variability, which would optimize the energetic cost of  
162 running with load (Williams and Cavanagh, 1987). The functional relationship between joint-  
163 level and “end-point”, whole-body, variability was previously proposed (Hamill et al., 2012).  
164 This relationship was also supported by a study in BW walking which demonstrated how  
165 inter-segmental variability in angular momentum was harnessed to reduce whole-body  
166 angular momentum (Robert et al., 2009). Future research is warranted to understand if the  
167 observed increase in trunk-pelvis coordination variability with load, was attributed to task  
168 novelty and/or reflected a strategy to minimize whole-body variability.

169         One possible limitation of the present study was the analysis of trunk-pelvis  
170 coordination from trials of both limbs. A previous study reported similar trunk-pelvis  
171 kinematics when walking and turning 90° whilst pivoting on the right or left limb (Smith and  
172 Kulig, 2016). The influence of laterality on coordination and variability may be similar  
173 between loaded conditions, given that we included identical number of trials from both limbs  
174 for all participants and conditions. Second, although > 10 trials have been recommended for  
175 vector coding (Hafer and Boyer, 2017), this threshold was recommended based on lower

176 limb, not spinal, coordination variability. Previous studies investigating trunk-pelvis  
177 coordination variability have used five (Needham et al., 2014) and six trials (Seay et al.,  
178 2014). Future research should investigate a threshold number of trials needed to attain  
179 consistent trunk-pelvis coordination variability. Third, participants in the present study were  
180 novice load carriers. It may be that regular running with load may reduce some of the  
181 coordination variability associated with load carriage, which should be further investigated.  
182 Lastly, the significant main effect of sex suggests that load effects on trunk-pelvic variability  
183 may differ between males and females. However, the literature has been equivocal if  
184 biomechanical adaptations to load differs between sex (Lobb et al., 2019; Silder et al., 2013).  
185 Further analysis into possible load and sex interaction on running coordination was not  
186 presently pursued given the focus was to understand the main effect of load, but would be a  
187 fruitful line of future investigations.

188         The present findings could inform exercise interventions and sports apparel design to  
189 optimize load running energetics. For example, neuromuscular exercises to enhance trunk  
190 stiffness may enable runners to better manage high trunk axial torque associated with load  
191 carriage. Greater frontal plane anti-phase coordination during loaded running may serve to  
192 minimize COM medial-lateral displacement and optimize postural control. Such knowledge  
193 may be integrated into the design of oscillating load carriage systems for energy  
194 conservation. One example is a medial-lateral oscillating system that provides a medial-  
195 lateral force on the trunk opposite to the trunk's translation direction during walking (Martin  
196 and Li, 2018).

197         Carrying a load while running altered trunk-pelvis coordination and its variability.  
198 This change may reflect a mechanical strategy that optimizes the metabolic cost of running.  
199 Future studies should investigate how trunk-pelvis coordination and its variability alters  
200 COM variability, and ultimately the metabolic cost, during load carriage running.

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205 **References.**

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