

Diploma Thesis

The Influence of Shoe Type and Performance Level on Joint Kinematics and Loading in Latin American Dancesport Specific Movements

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by

Clara Egner, BSc

Matr.Nr.: 01427745

under supervision of

Ao.Univ.Prof. Dipl.-Ing. Dr.techn. **Heinz-Bodo Schmiedmayer**

Institute of Mechanics und Mechatronics Research Unit of Technical Dynamics and Vehicle System Dynamics Technical University of Vienna Getreidemarkt 9/325, 1060 Vienna, Austria

Ass.-Prof. Mag. **Hans Kainz**, MSc PhD

Department for Biomechanics, Kinesiology and Computer Science in Sport Neuromechanics Research Group University of Vienna Auf der Schmelz 6a, 1150 Vienna, Austria

Affidavit

I declare in lieu of oath, that I wrote this thesis and performed the associated research myself, using only literature cited in this volume. If text passages from sources are used literally, they are marked as such.

I confirm that this work is original and has not been submitted elsewhere for any examination, nor is it currently under consideration for a thesis elsewhere.

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Vienna, January 2022

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Kurzfassung (German Abstract)

Der Einfluss von Schuhtyp und Leistungsniveau auf die Gelenkskinematik und -belastung in Bewegungen spezifisch für Lateinamerikanischen Tanzsport

Tanzsport ist ein zunehmend beliebter Wettkampf- und Freizeitsport. Über die Biomechanik von Tanzbewegungen gibt es jedoch nur wenige Untersuchungen. Ziel dieser Studie war ein umfassender erster Überblick über die Biomechanik im Tanzstil Rumba und die Auswirkungen von Schuhwerk und Leistungsniveau darauf. Die Intention dahinter war, Erkenntnisse für die Verletzungsprävention und über die tänzerische Technik zu gewinnen.

Es wurden Marker-Trajektorien der unteren Extremitäten, Bodenreaktionskräfte und Elektromyographiedaten für den normalen Gang und verschiedene Rumba-Grundschritte gemessen. Die Daten wurden von Tänzerinnen zweier verschiedener Leistungsniveaus (Anfänger und Profis) und für drei verschiedene Absatzhöhen (barfuss, Trainingsschuhe und Lateinschuhe) erhoben. Auf der Grundlage der gemessenen Daten wurden in OpenSim muskuloskelettale Simulationen durchgeführt, um Gelenkswinkel und Kontaktkräfte in Hüft-, Knie- und Sprunggelenk zu berechnen. Der verwendete Bewegungsumfang, die mittleren Gelenkswinkel und die Gelenkskräfte wurden zwischen normalem Gang und Tanzen sowie zwischen Schuhhöhen und Leistungsniveaus verglichen. Die verwendeten Statistiken waren gepaarte t-Tests und ANOVA.

Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass der verwendete Bewegungsumfang beim Tanzen im Vergleich zum normalen Gehen größer ist. Bei einigen Tanzbewegungen war die Spitzenkontaktkraft des Hüftgelenks höher und das Verhältnis der Kraftverteilung zwischen medialem und lateralem Kompartiment des Knies war ebenfalls höher als beim normalen Gehen. Diese Ergebnisse weisen auf mögliche Faktoren hin, die bei Tanzsportverletzungen, insbesondere bei Überlastungsschäden, eine Rolle spielen könnten.

Die Spitzenkontaktkräfte im Sprunggelenk waren in hohen Schuhen sowohl beim normalen Gehen als auch beim Tanzen geringer als barfuss. Die Absatzhöhe zeigte jedoch keine großen Auswirkungen auf die Gelenkwinkel, außer im Sprunggelenk.

Es wurden Unterschiede zwischen den Absatzhöhen und zwischen den Leistungsklassen beim Tanzen festgestellt, die jedoch nicht bei allen untersuchten Tanzbewegungen dieselben Ergebnisse zeigten. Daher ist weitere Forschung in diesem Bereich von großem Interesse, um umfangreichere und belastbarere Erkenntnisse zu gewinnen.

Zusammenfassend lässt sich sagen, dass 3D-Bewegungsanalyse in Kombination mit muskuloskelettalen Simulationen ein vielversprechendes Instrument für zukünftige Verletzungspräventionsforschung und Leistungsdiagnostik im Tanzsport darstellt.

Abstract

The Influence of Shoe Type and Performance Level on Joint Kinematics and Loading in Latin American Dancesport Specific Movements

Dancesport is an increasingly popular competitive and recreational sport. However, there is little research on biomechanics of dance movements. The goal of this study was to give a comprehensive first overview of biomechanics in Rumba dance and the effects of footwear and level of proficiency thereupon. The intention was to gain insights for injury prevention and on dance technique.

Marker trajectories of the lower extremeties, ground reaction forces and electromyography data were collected for normal gait and several basic steps of Rumba dance. Data was collected from dancers of two different performance levels (beginners and professionals) and for three different footwear heel heights (barefoot, training shoes and latin shoes). Based on measured data, musculoskeletal simulations were run in OpenSim to calculate joint angles and joint contact forces in hip, knee and ankle joint. The range of motion used, mean joint angles and joint contact forces were then compared between normal gait and dancing as well as shoe heights and levels of proficiency. Statistics used were paired t-tests and ANOVA.

The results show that the range of motion used in dancing is higher compared to normal gait. For some dance movements, peak hip joint contact force was higher and range of force distribution ratio between medial and lateral compartment of the knee was also higher compared to normal gait. These results highlight possible factors involved in dancesport injuries, especially overuse injuries.

Peak ankle joint contact forces were reduced with high-heeled shoes for both normal gait and dancing. However, heel height did not show any great effects on joint angles except in the ankle joint.

Differences between heel heights and between performance classes in dancing were found, but did not show the same results across all different dance movements analysed. Therefore, further research in the area, on a broader statistical basis, is of great interest in order to gather more reliable knowledge.

In conclusion, 3D motion analyis combined with musculoskeletal simulation was shown to be a promising tool for injury prevention research and performance diagnostics in dancesport in the future.

Contents

Acronyms

ANOVA Analysis of Variance

ASIS Anterior Superior Iliac Spine

BF Barefoot

bpm Beats per Minute

BW Body Weight

bwd Backward

chd Checked

COM Center of Mass

EMG Electromygraphy

FO Foot Off

fps Frames per Second

FS Foot Strike

fwd Forward

GRF Ground Reaction Force

GUI Graphical User Interface

ID Inverse Dynamics

IK Inverse Kinematics

IOC International Olympic Committee

JCF Joint Contact Force

JCFRR Joint Contact Force Ratio Range

l left

LF Left Foot

LS Latin Shoe

MJA Mean Joint Angle

OETSV Austrian DanceSport Federation (Ger.: Oesterreichischer Tanzsportverband)

r right

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Chapter 1 Introduction and Motivation

1.1 Dancesport

Dance is, according to Merriam-Webster dictionary, defined as "an act or instance of moving one's body rhythmically usually to music: an act or instance of dancing" [1].

Dancing as a couple has been around in its social aspect for a long time. In the beginning of the $20th$ century, it became a competitive sport with the first competition being held in 1907. Dancesport originally refers to classical couple dances and now includes various dance styles [2]. It is an increasingly popular competitive sport, with recognition by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) since 1997 [3] and memberships of the World DanceSport Federation (WDSF) quadrupling from 1970 to 2010. Meanwhile, dancesport is also gaining popularity among amateurs and as a recreational sport [4].

In contrast to social dancing, where partners are switched often and the social aspect is paramount, dancesport athletes train with a high training frequency, fixed partnerships and the goal to maximise their performance as a couple. Factors judged in dancesport competitions include execution of specific movements, balance (static, dynamic, leading), musicality as well as interpretation and characteristic of the dance [5].

The motions in focus of this thesis are characteristic for Rumba Dance, one of the Latin dances. As defined by the WDSF: "The five Latin dances are the Samba, Cha-Cha-Cha, Rumba, Paso Doble and Jive. With their heritage in Latin American (Samba, Cha-Cha-Cha, Rumba), Hispanic (Paso Doble) and American (Jive) cultures, they each have their distinguishing traits but coincide in expressiveness, intensity and energy." [6]. Rumba was chosen because it is a dance often trained for acquiring basics also for the other dances, and because its steps are the most suited for laboratory conditions, especially the size of force plates.

1.2 Background and Motivation for Using Motion Analysis in Dancesport

1.2.1 Motion Analysis in Sports

Motion analysis has several broad fields of application, one of them lies in sports and sports science [7, 8]. Motion capture systems can be used for the means of understanding sport-specific movements better. The insights gained may help not only in improving an athlethes performance via optimisation of movements, but also aid in injury prevention [8–10].

1.2.2 Dancesport Requirements and Training

Dancesport is categorized as a technical-compositional sport with interval character [11]. Sportscientific requirements include basic cardiovascular and muscular endurance, static and dynamic strength, speed and flexibility [11]. During competition circumstances, dancers were found to undergo high intensities indicated both by high heart rates, oxygen uptake and blood lactate levels [12].

Meanwhile, dancesport also requires athletes to meet certain standards regarding aesthetics and expression. For example an athletic-graceful physique is mentioned as preferable - not only as optimal physical prerequisite in technical aspects, but also regarding common conceptions on aesthetics in the dancesport community [13].

This is also a great factor in other dance styles with more extensive body of research, such as classical ballet. In the past, strength training has often been avoided here due to the fear of muscle hypertrophy and resulting negative impacts on aesthetics. Fortunately, this perception seems to be changing as reported by Farmer and Brouner [14]. A similar lack of awareness of the benefits of supplemental training seems to be present in the dancesport community: in a study on dancers competing at international dancesport competitions, Premelč et al. found that 72.3 % of dancers do not include any dancesport specific exercise besides dancing in their training [12].

1.2.3 Injuries in Dancesport

There is high injury potential in dancesport: As a technical sport, it is prone to overuse injuries [15]. Just in 2019, Premelč et al. found that among dancers competing at international dancesport competitions, 68.75 % reported injuries within 12 months, the most common injury sites being the neck, lower back and knee. The highest perceived cause of injury was overtraining with 25 %. However, the overall proportion of traumatic injuries was higher than the one for overuse injuries [12]. As for pain experienced by female dancers, the most common sites to experience pain are feet/ankles and again neck, lower back and knee [16].

Serveral studies on multiple dance styles have reported that supplemental training can lead to not only reduced instances of injuries, but also improve a dancers performance [14, 17–19]. Insights gained from Motion Analysis may serve as valuable input for creating dancesport-specific exercises and to prevent injuries.

Chapter 2 Research Questions

There exists little dancesport-specific biomechanical research. For this reason, the aim of this thesis was to give insight into the effects of multiple factors possibly influencing a dancers performance and health. Both kinematics and kinetics were included.

The following considerations led to the subsequent research questions being addressed:

2.1 Biomechanics of Rumba Dance

Rumba is danced to eponymous characteristic music in 4/4 time with an allowed tempo in competition of 25 to 27 bars per minute, or 100 to 108 Beats per Minute (bpm), respectively [5]. Since for most figures three steps are made per bar, this corresponds to a pace of approximately 75 to 81 steps per minute.

Rumba is a dance characterized by a delayed transfer of weight and pronounced hip movements [20, 21]. In contrast to normal human gait, steps in Rumba are not started with the heel of the foot, but the initial contact is usually made with the ball of the foot. It is followed by a weight transfer onto a flat foot while maintaining a straight leg [21, 22].

Steps during dancing and a normal gait cycle both have the basic intention of moving the body's Center of Mass (COM). However, stance flexion of the knee and the natural rolling movement in the ankle in the stance phase of normal gait can not be executed when applying Rumba technique. This means that, in order to move the COM, those movements have to be somewhat compensated in other degrees of freedom, i.e. joints, which are not evolutionarily designed to do so. In order to show which joints and degrees of freedom are responsible for creating dance movement and how this affects Joint Contact Force (JCF), normal gait and basic dance steps were compared.

The hypotheses were that higher Range of Motion (ROM) is used and higher JCF are experienced in dancing compared to normal gait. Furthermore, distribution of forces on the medial vs. lateral part of the knee was expected to be more uneven.

2.2 Shoes and their Influence on Gait - Dancing in High Heels

The footwear in latin american dance style are dance shoes with an elevated heel. A typical Latin Shoe (LS) is shown in figure 2.1, it has a heel height of around 6.5 cm and is usually worn in training and competition. Furthermore, female dancers sometimes train in shoes with a lower heel compared to the ones worn in competition, a typical Training Shoe (TS) is shown in figure 2.1. It has a heel height of around 4 cm. TS are also similar to the shoes worn by male dancers in both training and competition.

High heels alter biomechanical parameters of human gait: Hamandi and Ruken used gait analysis to find higher vertical Ground Reaction Force (GRF) and knee moment in human gait when wearing high heels [23].

Fig. 2.1: Typical latin shoe (left) and training shoe (right)

Simonsen et al. came to the same results and additionally found significantly increased Electromygraphy (EMG) parameters in high heeled gait. Indicated by their results, they hypothesize increased bone-on-bone forces in the knee joint due to the increased knee extensor moment and a correlation with the observed higher incidence of osteoarthritis in the knee joint in women compared to men [24].

High heels are known to be associated with several health conditions and increased risk of injury [25–27]. Cha found biomechanical adaptations in habituated high-heel wearers [28], and Cronin et al. found indications that long-term use of high heels may impair muscle efficiency [27]. For these reasons footwear is a possibly important factor in dance injury potential, especially for female dancers.

Some dancesport-specific research has been done regarding shoe height: Gu et al. studied lower limb muscle EMG activity during dancing in high-heeled shoes. Their results showed significantly increased EMG values in higher heels compared to flat heels for multiple muscles, indicating higher expenses for balance [29]. Li et al. investigated lower limb kinematics in Rumba square step for shoes of different heights. Their results are showing that higher heels increase maximum joint angles, likely affecting loads on lower limb joints, especially the knee. However, they did not include any considerations on kinetics [30].

Following up on these findings, data was recorded and compared for the different shoe types in order to investigate their influence on kinematics and kinetics. The hypothesis was that higher heels increase the ROM used in knee and hip joint and decrease it in ankle angle. Furthermore, higher JCF in ankle, knee and hip were expected to be found for higher heels due to the different leg position and the higher muscular activation.

2.3 Technique

Apart from the heel height, another factor of interest is the dancers experience and technique. A good technique is expected to both maximise performance and reduce injury potential. The author could not find any studies describing differences in injury potential for different performance levels. In order to investigate the matter from a biomechanical point of view, biomechanical parameters for different performance levels were compared. The hypothesis was that dancers of higher performance level use higher ROM and experience higher JCF in both knee and hip joint. Furthermore, the author hypothesized that dancers of higher performance level might show less variability when repeating movements. This is of interest regarding injury mechanisms as on the one hand, a large variability might lead to a higher chance of accidentally reaching an excessive

load. On the other hand, small variability is associated with overuse injuries, such as stress fractures, due to the repetitive equal loads causing microtraumata [8].

2.4 Specific Movement Patterns Considered in this Thesis

All Figures in latin american dance consist of so-called General Actions [21]. This thesis tries to give a representative overview of the mechanics of basic General Actions. Movement patterns where the feet are closed were excluded for technical reasons (only one foot at a time should be placed on a force plate during measurement in order to ensure a unique force source). The general actions considered in this thesis were [21]:

- 1. Forward (fwd) Walk
- 2. Checked (chd) Forward Walk
- 3. Checked Backward (bwd) Walk
- 4. Cuban Rock Actions

They were measured as parts of the following figures/movement patterns (numbers denote timing in music):

Continuous Forward Walks

- 2 Right Foot (RF): Forward Walk
- 3 Left Foot (LF): Forward Walk

Basic in Place (forward part)

- 41 RF: Side Walk
	- 2 LF: Checked Forward Walk
	- 3 RF: Weight Transfer in Place
- 41 LF: Side Walk

Basic in Place (backward part)

- 41 LF: Side Walk
	- 2 RF: Checked Backward Walk
- 3 LF: Weight Transfer in Place
- 41 RF: Side Walk

Cuban Rocks Continuous cuban rock action while shifting the weight between the feet, maintaining the feets soles in contact with the floor.

Chapter 3 Materials and Methods

3.1 Study Design and Selection of Participants

Participants were recruited from multiple Viennese dance sport clubs. Their age range was between 23 and 31 years. In the competition system of the Austrian DanceSport Federation (Ger.: Oesterreichischer Tanzsportverband) (OETSV), dancers are divided into classes depending on their experience: D, C, B and the international classes A and S. In order to investigate the difference between beginners and top-level dancers, 8 active female dancers from D-class and 6 active female dancers from A or S class were recruited, resulting in a total of 14 participants. Data on participants is shown in table 3.1.

		Class N Mean Age [years] Mean Height [cm] Mean Mass [kg]	
\Box	$8\quad 25.0 \pm 2.6$	166.3 ± 5.5	59.9 ± 4.2
	A/S 6 26.6 ± 1.8	162.8 ± 2.4	53.7 ± 3.4

Tab. 3.1: Participant characteristics (mean values per group \pm one standard deviation)

3.2 Equipment and Software

3.2.1 3D Motion Capture System

All measurements were performed at the Motion Capture Lab at the Department for Biomechanics, Kinesiology and Computer Science in Sport of the University of Vienna (figure 3.1).

Fig. 3.1: Motion Capture Lab at University of Vienna

3.2.1.1 Cameras

Motion capture cameras used were Vicon Vantage V8 (Vicon Motion Systems, Oxford, UK) with a capture rate of 100 Frames per Second (fps).

3.2.2 Electromyography

EMG was recorded using a wireless multichannel electromyograph (Cometa, Bareggio, Italy). Electrodes were used along with single-use pre-gelled electrodes connected via disposable snaps (Covidien (Medtronic), Minneapolis, USA).

3.2.3 Force Plates

GRFs and moments were measured using two 3D force plates (Kistler, Vienna, Austria; Type 9281 E) with a sampling frequency of 1000 Hz.

3.2.4 Software

Software used for data recording and processing was VICON Nexus 2.11. (Vicon Motion Systems, Oxford, UK).

Further data processing and modelling was performed using Matlab R2020b (The MathWorks Inc., Natick, USA), the open-source Biomechanical ToolKit code and application Mokka 0.6.2 [31] and OpenSim 4.1 [32]. Statistical Analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 28 (IBM, New York, USA).

3.3 Experiment Design and Realisation

3.3.1 Calibration of Equipment

For each new participant, cameras were masked, the Motion Capture System was calibrated and origin was set (figure 3.2) according to *Vicon Nexus Product Guide* [33]. Before each new session, force plates were set to zero.

Fig. 3.2: Calibration cross placed next to force plates for origin setting

3.3.2 Marker Set and Placement

Retroreflective markers with a diameter of 14 mm were used.

The marker set used for measurements is based on the Cleveland Clinic Marker Set for the lower extremities, which shows good repeatability especially in rotation of the thigh and the shank [34]. An additional marker was added on the fifth metatarsal base in order to measure the positioning of the foot more accurately.

17 single markers and 12 markers within four trilateral clusters were used. For cluster markers, position 1 describes the superior marker of the respective cluster, 2 the inferior posterior one, and 3 the inferior anterior one. This results in a total of 29 Markers, as described in table 3.2:

Single Markers SACR Left/Right Anterior Superior Iliac Spine Left/Right Lateral Condyles of the Knee Left/Right Medial Condyles of the Knee Left/Right Lateral Malleoli of the Ankle	Marker Label Placement	
LASI/RASI LKNE/RKNE LKNM/RKNM LANK/RANK		Sacrum (Midpoint between Left and Right Posterior Superior Iliac Spine)
	LANM/RANM	Left/Right Medial Malleoli of the Ankle
LHEE /RHEE $Left/Right$ Calcaneus		
LTOE /RTOE Left/Right Second Metatarsophalangeal Joint		
L5M/R5M Left/Right Fifth Metatarsal Base		
Cluster Markers		
$LT1-3/RT1-3$ $Left/Right$ Thigh Cluster		
$LS1-3/RS1-3$ Left/Right Shank Cluster		

Tab. 3.2: Marker placement

Single markers were attached using double-sided adhesive tape. Cluster markers for the thigh and shank were placed on rigid, 3D-printed equilateral triangular structures with a distance between markers of 65 mm on the two long sides and 50 mm on the short side. Those were placed on the skin using double-sided tape and additionally fixed by wrapping self-adhesive sport tape. A photo of the final application is shown in figure 3.3.

Fig. 3.3: Front-, side- and backview of markerset and electrodes applied to participant (barefoot)

3.3.3 EMG Electrode Placement

EMG electrodes were placed on shaved, clean skin, prepared using abrasive skin preparation cream (GVB-geliMED, Bad Segeberg, Germany). Placement was performed according to Surface Electromyography for the Non-Invasive Assessment of Muscles (SENIAM) recommendations for sensor locations on individual muscles [35]. The activities of the following muscles were recorded (table 3.3):

Tab. 3.3: Table of muscles for which EMG was recorded

Electrode placement can also be seen in figure 3.3.

3.3.4 Preparation and Instructions for Participants

Participants were instructed to avoid any excessive training 48 hours prior to testing in order to minimize effects of muscular exhaustion. Before the measurement, they warmed up as they normally would and were instructed to dance all movements full out. For each participant, movements were recorded in three conditions on the same day: one Barefoot (BF), one in Training Shoe (TS) and one in Latin Shoe (LS). The order of the three different conditions was selected randomly in order to avoid effects due to fatigue or habituation to the test environment. Markers on the feet were replaced when changing shoes for the next session. The remaining markers and EMG electrodes were kept as in the previous sessions to retain comparability.

3.3.5 Data Recording and Documentation

The anthropometric parameters weight, height, age and distance between left and right Anterior Superior Iliac Spine (ASIS) were measured for each participant.

An overview of the recorded movements as described in the introduction is shown in table 3.4. For each exercise and condition, at least six valid trials were recorded. Additonally, a calibration trial standing upright with one foot on each of the force plates and arms held in a T-position was recorded at the beginning of each session.

All movements except normal gait were performed to standardized timing via music of 26 bars per minute, corresponding to 104 bpm. If possible, which was the case for checked forward walk, checked backward walk and cuban rocks, multiple trials were recorded without stops in between. This was done in order to keep movements as close to the normal condition of fluent dancing as possible.

Validity of trials with regard to foot placements as well as any other exceptions, such as markers coming off and needing to be replaced, were documented. Photos of the applied markers and electrodes were taken for reference.

Tab. 3.4: List of movements recorded, conditions and groups

3.4 Data Processing

3.4.1 Data Processing in Vicon

Calibration trial was labelled manually according to a custom labeling template, including the segments pelvis and left and right thigh, shank and foot. Then it was used for skeleton calibration and setting autolabel pose and skeleton parameters.

The dynamic trials were labeled automatically. If applicable, gaps were either filled automatically using the *fill gaps (Woltring)* operation in the pipeline or for larger gaps manually. Depending on the affected marker and movement, a spline, cyclic or pattern fill was used.

Marker trajectories were then filtered using a zero lag lowpass Butterworth filter with a cutoff frequency of 6 Hz.

More information on Vicon Data Processing can be found in the documentation [33].

3.4.2 Event Detection

Events were set in Mokka using the automatic event detection, which is based on vertical GRF component [36]. Threshold for the force was kept as the default of 10 N.

Events were later used for cropping trials to a Region of Interest (ROI), enabling time normalisation and consequently comparison of time course. Start and end were defined by the first Foot Strike (FS) and the last Foot Off (FO).

One exception being the cuban rocks movement, because there is no FS or FO in this movement. Instead, events were defined manually by the intercept of left and right foot vertical GRF component, hence the point at which weight is evenly distributed on both feet. Recordings were cropped and start and end were set so that one movement is going first right, then left and then right again. A visualisation of the process can be seen in the screenshot in figure 3.4.

Fig. 3.4: Screenshot of event setting in Mokka: Vertical GRF [N] (labelled z-Axis) over time [s] (red (right) and blue (left) curves) and events (dotted vertical lines) for cuban rocks movement

3.4.3 Processing of c3d Files

In order to do simulations in OpenSIM, data from *.c3d* files of all caputures had to be converted to *.mot* files for GRF and *.trc* files for marker trajectories. This was done in Matlab using the utility osimC3D.m, especially its functions writeMOT and writeTRC [37]. Furthermore, a 4^{th} order lowpass Butterworth filter with a cutoff frequency of 6 Hz was applied to GRF signal.

3.4.4 Musculoskeletal Models

Two different models were used in this study: Firstly, the Gait2392 model, on which detailed information can be found in the OpenSim documentation [38]. Secondly, a model developed by Lerner et al. was used for this study. It contains a detailed model of the knee joint allowing for differentiation between medial and lateral compartment of the knee [39].

To allow for larger rotations, pelvis range was set to 360 degrees for both the Gait2392 and Lerner model.

3.4.5 Scaling

In order to account for the thickness of the shoes, the markerset used for scaling was adjusted as follows: For Latin Shoe, TOE was moved 2 mm upwards and HEE 2 mm in posterior direction. For Training Shoe, TOE was moved an additional 2 mm upwards and L5M/R5M were moved 2 mm to the left/right respectively.

Scaling of the models was performed in the OpenSIM Graphical User Interface (GUI) using the calibration trial and entering the participants measured weight. Scale factors were set according to the measurements shown in tables 3.6 and 3.7, defined by the marker pairs as in table 3.5.

Measurement	Marker Pair	
pelvis	RASI	LASI
femur r	RASI	RKNE
tibia r	RKNE	RANK
foot r	RHEE	RTOE
femur 1	LASI	LKNE
tibia l	LKNE	LANK
foot 1	LHEE	LTOE

Tab. 3.5: Marker pairs defining measurements for scaling

Tab. 3.6: Measurements used for scaling model bodies (Gait2392 model)

Body Name	Measurement
pelvis	pelvis
$femur_r$	femur r
femoral cond r	$femur$ _r
sagittal_articulation_frame_r	$femur_r$
med_cond_r	femur r
lat_cond_r	femur r
tibial_plat_r	tibia_r
tibia r	tibia r
patella_r	$femur$ _r
$talus_r$	foot $_r$
calcn_{r}	foot $_r$
toes r	foot r
$femur_l$	femur 1
femoral cond l	femur 1
sagittal_articulation_frame_l	$femur_l$
med_cond_l	$femur_l$
lat_cond_l	femur 1
tibial_plat_l	tibia_l
tibia_l	tibia_l
patella_l	femur 1
talus 1	$foot_l$
$\operatorname{calcn_l}$	foot 1
toes 1	foot 1
torso	manually scaled according to pelvis scale factor

Tab. 3.7: Measurements used for scaling model bodies (Lerner model)

Cluster markers were excluded for scaling. Marker weights were set to 5 for SACR, and the medial markers of the ankles and knees, and to 10 for all remaining markers. This was done since confidence in correct application was higher for those markers.

A visualisation of the standard vs. scaled model is shown in figure 3.5

Fig. 3.5: Scaled (left) and standard (right) model

3.4.6 Strengthening of Models

All athletes participating in this study train multiple times a week and are assumed to have stronger muscles than the average population. To account for this, maximum isometric forces can be scaled, as has for example been used by Lewis et al. in the case of wheelchair athletes [40]. Since muscle forces themselves are not the main focus of this thesis, but scaling is rather used to ensure smooth muscular activation curves, a detailed determination of the ideal factor was not performed - maximum isometric forces were scaled by a factor of 2.

3.4.7 Simulations

Using the models as adjusted above and the filtered GRF as external force file, Inverse Kinematics (IK), Inverse Dynamics (ID), Static Optimization (SO) by minimizing the sum of squared muscle activations, and Joint Reaction Analysis were run in Matlab. This was done using the *Matlab OpenSIM Libraries* on which more information can be found in their documentation: [41].

Shoes weigh around 190 g for a Training Shoe (TS) and 160 g for a Latin Shoe (LS). Since those are small weights compared to Body Weight (BW), weight of the shoes was neglected in simulations.

Since IK marker errors were mostly within the OpenSIM best practice recommendations of 2–4 cm for Maximum Error, and total Root Mean Square (RMS) Error under 2 cm [42], marker weights were not further adjusted.

3.4.8 EMG Processing

EMG signals were processed as described by Bianco et al. in "Can Measured Synergy Excitations Accurately Construct Unmeasured Muscle Excitations?" [43].

3.5 Validation

For validation of simulations, several qualitative visual comparisons using data from barefoot normal gait were made: Simulated muscular activation curves were compared with the measured EMG signal. Furthermore, JCF in hip and knee were compared with the data measured with implants from the public database Orthoload [44]. For the hip, knee and ankle, JCF and joint angles were compared with the findings of Modenese et al. [45]. Medial and lateral knee JCF were compared with the findings of Holder et al. [46].

3.6 Statistical Analysis

Only data within the recommendations for marker errors as described in 3.4.7, without any simulation errors and at least three valid trials was used.

For IK and overall JCF, simulation output from the Gait 2392 model was used, since it is the more widely used model and therefore easier to compare in results. For differentiation between medial and lateral knee JCF, Lerner model was used.

Resultant JCF was calculated as the square root of the sum of squared force of each axis. IK and JCF outputs were time normalized to 0 to 100 % of stance phase, 0 % representing Foot Strike and 100 % representing Foot Off. JCF were transformed to multiples of Body Weight (xBW) .

For addressing variability, the Gait Standard Deviation Measure as introduced by Sangeux et al. was used [47]. It was calculated using the 15 parameters pelvis list, pelvis tilt, pelvis rotation, and left and right hip flexion, hip adduction, hip rotation, knee angle, ankle angle and subtalar angle.

For addressing hypotheses on ROM, the average curve for all trials for one participant, movement and condition was calculated for each degree of freedom. ROM was then calculated as the maximal minus minimal value thereof, again for the respective degree of freedom (Eq. 3.1). The degrees of freedom considered were: pelvis list, pelvis tilt, pelvis rotation, and left and right hip flexion, hip adduction, hip rotation, knee angle, ankle angle and subtalar angle.

$$
ROM = max(IKvalue) - min(IKvalue)
$$
\n(3.1)

For addressing JCF, the average curve for all trials for one participant, movement and condition was calculated for each joint. The maximum JCF was taken as the maximum value thereof, and its position as the % of stance phase it occurred at.

For addressing distribution of medial and lateral knee JCF, ratio of lateral to total knee JCF was calculated as:

$$
JCF_{ratio} = \frac{JCF_{lat}}{JCF_{lat} + JCF_{med}}\tag{3.2}
$$

and the range thereof (Joint Contact Force Ratio Range (JCFRR)) as:

$$
JCFRR = max(JCF_{ratio}) - min(JCF_{ratio})
$$
\n(3.3)

ROMs were compared using a mixed factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), with the withinsubjects factor being shoe height (condition) and the between-subjects factor being performance class (group). The same analysis was done for maximum JCF and the positions of maximum JCF.

If applicable, the Greenhouse–Geisser adjustment was used to correct for violations of sphericity. If ANOVA revealed significant results, Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis was performed in order to reveal specific within-subject or between-subjects effects.

Furthermore, differences between dancing and normal gait in ROM, maximum JCF and JCFRR were tested for using a paired-sample t-test. This was done for each condition separately and no differentiation between groups was made.

Chapter 4 Results

At multiple points in data processing, data had to be excluded due to large gaps in marker trajectories, simulation errors or marker errors exceeding limits.

For statistical analysis, only data for participants with a minimum of three valid trials was used, partially resulting in reduced sample sizes compared to the number of participants. This was especially the case for ANOVA and post-hoc analysis, since in cases of insufficient data for one condition, all data for the respective participant had to be excluded. For all the results, the sample size is given with N_{BF} , N_{TS} , N_{LS} for data analysis regarding shoe height, and $N_{A/S}$ and N^D for data analysis regarding performance classes, respectively.

In forward walk movement specifically, some participants had problems with their stride length being very large in relation to the distance of force plates. Due to this in addition to the previously mentioned reasons for data exclusion, statistical analysis involving ANOVA was not conducted for forward walk movement. Hence, interpretation of results of t-tests should be done with caution.

Due to the large number of statistical tests conducted and for the purpose of comprehensibility, only ANOVA results with a significant p-value ($p < .05$) and, for post-hoc regarding joint angles, results with a mean difference larger than 5° are given and discussed in this thesis. The reason thereof being that larger differences are expected to be of higher relevance in practice. If pairwise comparison in post-hoc analysis is significant only in one group, statistics for the respective group are given. If they are significant in both groups, overall pairwise comparison results are given.

As described in the Materials and Methods (chapter 3), all given values refer to the *stance phase* of the respective step, for left (l) and/or right (r) side.

4.1 Variability

No siginifcant differences in Gait SD between shoe heights or performance classes were found.

4.2 Walk

4.2.1 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Inverse Kinematics

Statistics on IK for walk were performed with $N_{A/S} = 3$ and $N_D = 8$.

4.2.1.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects of shoes on ROM were found as listed in table 4.1.

Significant main effects of shoes were found:							
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
pelvis list r ROM	29.802	$\mathbf{2}$	14.901	5.144	.017	0.364	18
hip flexion r ROM	106.595	1.276	83.515	8.901	.009	0.497	11.487
ankle angle r ROM	96.941	$\mathbf{2}$	48.470	5.936	.010	0.397	18
knee angle r ROM	184.292	1.299	141.860	16.232	.001	0.643	11.692
pelvis list 1 ROM	25.675	$\mathbf{2}$	12.837	4.363	.029	0.326	18
hip flexion 1 ROM	101.895	$\mathbf{2}$	50.947	5.898	.011	0.396	18
knee angle 1 ROM	254.572	$\mathbf{2}$	127.286	16.965	< 0.001	0.653	18

Tab. 4.1: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on Range of Motion in walk

Significant main effects of shoes on Mean Joint Angle (MJA) were found as listed in table 4.2.

Significant main effects of shoes were found:							
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
hip rotation r ankle angle r subtalar angle r	209.498 2315.858 392.151	$\overline{2}$ 1.288 2	104.749 1797.780 196.076	20.133 197.034 8.848	< 0.001 < 0.001 .002	0.691 0.956 0.496	18 11.594
hip adduction 1 hip rotation 1 ankle angle l	16.744 289.887 1773.629	$\overline{2}$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{2}$	8.372 144.944 886.815	8.454 17.054 148.622	.003 < 0.001 < 0.001	0.484 0.655 0.943	18 18 18

Tab. 4.2: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on MJA in walk

4.2.1.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed no effects on ROM with a $M_{Diff} > 5^{\circ}$.

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that MJA is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

- higher in outward hip rotation for LS compared to BF (left: $p = .003$, $M_{Diff} = 7.033$, 95% -CI[2.78, 11.286], right: $p = .002$, $M_{Diff} = 5.784$, 95% -CI[2.56, 9.007]) and TS compared to BF (left: $p < .001$, $M_{Diff} = 7.084$, 95% -CI[4.012, 10.157], right: $p < .001$, $M_{Diff} = 6.196$, 95%-CI[3.428, 8.964]) for both groups
- lower in ankle angle, hence higher plantarflexion, for LS compared to BF (left: $p = .003$, $M_{Diff} = 7.033$, 95% -CI[2.78, 11.286], right: $p = .002$, $M_{Diff} = 5.784$, 95%-CI[2.56, 9.007]) and TS compared to BF (left: $p < .001$, $M_{Diff} = 7.084$, 95%-CI[4.012, 10.157], right: $p < .001$, $M_{Diff} = 6.196$, 95%-CI[3.428, 8.964]) for both groups

• higher in right subtalar angle for TS compared to BF (right only: $p < .001$, $M_{Diff} = 6.196, 95\%$ -CI[3.428, 8.964]) for both groups

Figure 4.1 shows joint angles over stance phase for different shoe heights.

The results show that, when walking in elevated heels, ankle angle is, as to be expected, lower on average over the whole stance phase. Furthermore, outward hip rotation is larger over the whole stance phase compared to barefoot.

One additional finding is that in training shoes, supination in the right foot is on average higher compared to barefoot.

Fig. 4.1: Joint angles in the left (left) and right (right) leg over % of stance phase of walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S -class (top) and D-class (bottom), horizontal lines denote mean values over the stace phase

4.2.1.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences Between Performance Classes

No significant effects with a $M_{Diff} > 5^o of performance class on ROM or MJA during walk were$ found.
4.2.2 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Joint Contact Force

Statistics on JCF for walk were performed with $N_{A/S} = 3$ and $N_D = 8$.

4.2.2.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects on JCF maximum and position were found as listed in table 4.3.

	Significant main effects of shoes were found:						
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
ankle JCF Max r	6.428		3.214	17.872	< 0.001	0.665	18
ankle JCF Max 1	6.374	2	3.187	13.055	$-.001$	0.592	18
	Significant main effects of performance class were found:						
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	- F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
knee JCF Max 1	6.845		6.845	5.176	.049	0.365	9

Tab. 4.3: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on maximum Joint Contact Force and its position in walk

4.2.2.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that maximum JCF [xBW] is

• lower in ankle the higher the heels are (left: LS compared to BF: $p = .001$, $M_{Diff} = 1.489, 95\%$ -CI[0.817, 2.16], TS compared to BF: $p = .004$, $M_{Diff} = 0.926$, 95%-CI[0.375, 1.478], LS compared to TS: $p = .015$, $M_{Diff} = 0.562$, 95%-CI[0.135, 0.989], right: LS compared to BF: $p = .002$, $M_{Diff} = 1.03$, 95%-CI[0.477, 1.584], TS compared to BF: $p = .015$, $M_{Diff} = 0.59$, 95%-CI[0.144, 1.036], LS compared to TS: $p = .046$, $M_{Diff} = 0.44$, 95% -CI $[0.01, 0.87]$) for D-class

Figure 4.2 shows the waveforms of JCF over stance phase for different shoe heights.

Results show that when walking in elevated heels, JCF in the ankle joint is reduced the higher the heels are. This is only significant for beginners.

Fig. 4.2: JCF in the left (left) and right (right) leg over % of stance phase of walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class (top) and D-class (bottom), horizontal lines denote max. values

4.2.2.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences Between Performance Classes

No significant effects of performance class on JCF during walk were found.

4.3 Checked Forward Walk

4.3.1 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Inverse Kinematics

Statistics on IK for checked forward walk were performed with $N_{A/S} = 4$ and $N_D = 8$.

4.3.1.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects of shoes on ROM were found as listed in table 4.4.

Tab. 4.4: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on Range of Motion in checked forward walk

Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on MJA were found as listed in table 4.5.

Tab. 4.5: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on MJA in checked forward walk

4.3.1.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

• lower in ankle angle the higher the heels are (LS compared to BF: $p < .001$, $M_{Diff} = 18.948, 95\%$ -CI[12.622, 25.274], LS compared to TS: $p = .001$, $M_{Diff} = 9.955, 95\%$ -CI[4.31, 15.6], TS compared to BF: $p < .001$, $M_{Diff} = 8.993$, 95%-CI[5.068, 12.919]) for both groups

and MJA is by a M_{Diff} $\vert \degree \vert > 5$

- lower in ankle angle, hence higher plantaflexion, for LS compared to BF $(p < .001, M_{Diff} = 18.926, 95\% \text{-CI}[11.456, 26.397])$ for both groups
- higher in pelvis rotation, hence more leftward rotated, for LS compared to BF for A/S -class $(p = .016, M_{Diff} = 5.737, 95\% \text{-CI}[1.326, 10.147])$
- higher in outward hip rotation for LS compared to BF $(p = .008, M_{Diff} = 14.308, 95\% \text{-CI}[4.566, 24.05])$ and TS compared to BF $(p = .001, M_{Diff} = 13.597, 95\% \text{-CI}[7.227, 19.967])$ for A/S-class
- lower in knee angle with higher heels (LS compared to BF: $p = .003$, $M_{Diff} = 8.915, 95\%$ -CI[3.935, 13.895], TS compared to BF: $p = .002$, $M_{Diff} = 7.561$, 95%-CI[3.583, 11.539]) for A/S-class

Figure 4.3 shows joint angles over stance phase for different shoe heights.

The results show that higher heels decrease range of motion in the ankle angle. Furthermore, when wearing higher heels, ankle angle is, as to be expected, lower on average over the whole stance phase.

For experienced dancers, hip and pelvis rotation are larger and knees are more bent over the whole stance phase in high heels compared to barefoot.

Fig. 4.3: Joint angles in the left leg over % of stance phase of checked forward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class (left) and D-class (right), horizontal lines denote mean values over the stace phase

4.3.1.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences Between Performance Classes

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that MJA is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

- higher in pelvis list, hence more tilted rightwards, for A/S -class compared to D-class (BF: $p = .021$, $M_{Diff} = 8.608$, 95% -CI[1.631, 15.586], TS: $p = .001$, $M_{Diff} = 8.486$, 95% -CI[4.447, 12.524], LS: $p = .004$, $M_{Diff} = 8.347, 95\%$ -CI[3.341, 13.354])
- higher in outward hip rotation for A/S -class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .003, M_{Diff} = 17.768, 95\% \text{-CI}[7.818, 27.718])$ and TS $(p < .001, M_{Diff} = 17.929, 95\% \text{-CI}[11.654, 24.204])$

Figure 4.4 shows joint angles over stance phase for performance classes.

Even though ROM during stance phase of checked forward walk does not differ between performance classes, the results show that hip rotation is higher on average over the whole stance phase for experienced dancers. Furthermore, with elevated heels, they keep their pelvis list higher, meaning their left hip stays higher in relation to their right hip, compared to beginners.

Fig. 4.4: Joint angles in the left leg over % of stance phase of checked forward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) of participants from A/S-class (blue) and D-class (red) for BF (left), TS (middle) and LS (right), horizontal lines denote mean values over the stace phase

4.3.2 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Joint Contact Force

Statistics on JCF for checked forward walk were performed with $N_{A/S} = 4$ and $N_D = 8$.

4.3.2.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects on JCF maximum and position were found as listed in table 4.6.

Significant main effects of shoes were found:												
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df					
ankle JCF Max	6.481	2	3.241	9.311	.001	0.482	20					
	Significant main effects of performance class were found:											
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df					
hip JCF Max	149.036		149.036	26.521	$-.001$	0.726	10.000					
knee JCF Max	38.336		38.336	7.878	.019	0.441	10.000					
hip JCF Max Position	975.347		975.347	6.719	.027	0.402	10.000					

Tab. 4.6: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on maximum Joint Contact Force and its position in checked forward walk

4.3.2.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that maximum JCF [xBW] is:

- lower in ankle for LS compared to BF
	- $(p = .004, M_{Diff} = 1.751, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.696, 2.807])$

and TS compared to BF $(p = .01, M_{Diff} = 1.327, 95\%$ -CI $[0.399, 2.256])$ for A/S-class

Figure 4.5 shows the waveforms of JCF over stance phase for different shoe heights.

Results show that for experienced dancers, when wearing elevated heels JCF in the ankle joint is reduced compared to barefoot in checked forward.

Fig. 4.5: JCF in the left leg over % of stance phase of checked forward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class (left) and D-class (right), horizontal lines denote max. values

4.3.2.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences between Performance Classes

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that maximum JCF [xBW] is:

- higher in hip for A/S-class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .002, M_{Diff} = 5.927, 95\% \text{-CI}[2.714, 9.14])$ and TS $(p = .029, M_{Diff} = 4.665, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.576, 8.753])$
- higher in knee for A/S-class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .023, M_{Diff} = 2.682, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.455, 4.909])$

Furthermore, position of maximum hip JCF is later for A/S-class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .008, M_{Diff} = 16.25$ [% of stance phase], 95%-CI[5.347, 27.153]) and TS $(p = .042, M_{Diff} = 10.5 [% of the shape], 95%-CI[0.492, 20.508]).$

Figure 4.6 shows the waveforms of JCF over stance phase for performance classes.

Results show that in checked forward walk, experienced dancers undergo higher maximum JCF in their hip and knee joint, especially when wearing higher heels.

Fig. 4.6: JCF in the left leg over $\%$ of stance phase of checked forward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) of participants from A/S-class (blue) and D-class (red) for BF (left), TS (middle) and LS (right), horizontal lines denote max. values

4.4 Checked Backward Walk

4.4.1 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Inverse Kinematics

Statistics on IK for checked backward walk were performed with $N_{A/S} = 4$ and $N_D = 7$.

4.4.1.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on ROM were found as listed in table 4.7.

Tab. 4.7: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on Range of Motion in checked backward walk

Significant main effects of shoes on MJA were found as listed in table 4.8.

Significant main effects of shoes were found:											
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	\mathbf{F}	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df				
pelvis rotation	100.130		50.065	14.763	$-.001$	0.621	18				
hip rotation	309.582		154.791	12.107	$-.001$	0.574	18				
ankle angle	711.378		355.689	3.590	.049	0.285					

Tab. 4.8: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on MJA in checked backward walk

4.4.1.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

- lower in knee angle for LS compared to BF $(p < .001, M_{Diff} = 11.647, 95\%$ -CI $[8.109, 15.185]$ and compared to TS $(p = .001, M_{Diff} = 7.248, 95\% \text{-CI}[3.77, 10.727])$ for both groups
- higher in subtalar angle for TS compared to LS for D-class $(p = .011, M_{Diff} = 10.393, 95\% \text{-CI}[3.033, 17.753])$

and MJA is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

• lower in pelvis rotation, hence more rightward rotated, for LS compared to BF $(A/S-class: p < .001, M_{Diff} = 5.736, 95\% \text{-CI}[3.5, 7.971], D-class: p = .005, M_{Diff} = 2.731,$ 95%-CI[1.041, 4.421])

- lower in hip rotation, hence more outward rotated, for LS compared to BF $(p = .001, M_{Diff} = 12.669, 95\%$ -CI[6.876, 18.461]) and TS compared to BF $(p = .003, M_{Diff} = 10.32, 95\% \text{-CI}[4.378, 16.262])$ for A/S-class
- lower in ankle angle, hence higher plantarflexion, for LS compared to TS for D-class $(p = .018, M_{Diff} = 12.734, 95\% \text{-CI}[2.794, 22.675])$

Figure 4.7 shows joint angles over stance phase for different shoe heights.

Results show that in elevated heels, average ankle angle is reduced. This is only significant for beginners, presumably due to the larger sample size in this group.

Furthermore, in high heels ROM in knee angle is decreased and pelvis is on average more rightward rotated. This means that the rightward rotation, which is part of the mechanics of a checked backward walk, is more pronounced in high heels.

Additionally, average outward hip rotation is higher in elevated heels compared to barefoot for experienced dancers.

Beginners use higher ROM in subtalar angle in training shoes compared to latin shoes.

Fig. 4.7: Joint angles in the right leg over % of stance phase of checked backward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class (left) and D-class (right), horizontal lines denote mean values over the stace phase

4.4.1.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences Between Performance Classes

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

- higher in ankle angle for A/S-class compared to D-class for BF $(p = .015, M_{Diff} = 14.299, 95\% \text{-CI}[3.543, 25.056])$
- higher in subtalar angle for A/S-class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .001, M_{Diff} = 23.914, 95\% \text{-CI}[12.986, 34.841])$ and TS $(p = .031, M_{Diff} = 22.138, 95\% \text{-CI}[2.563, 41.713])$

Figure 4.8 shows joint angles over stance phase for performance classes.

Results show that experienced dancers use higher ROM in their ankle joint, depending on the shoe height either in ankle angle or subtalar angle.

Fig. 4.8: Joint angles in the right leg over % of stance phase of checked backward, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) of participants from A/S-class (blue) and D-class (red) for BF (left), TS (middle) and LS (right), horizontal lines denote mean values over the stace phase

4.4.2 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Joint Contact Force

Statistics on JCF for checked backward walk were performed with $N_{A/S} = 4$ and $N_D = 7$.

4.4.2.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects on JCF maximum and position were found as listed in table 4.9.

	Significant main effects of shoes were found:						
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	\mathbf{F}	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
ankle JCF Max	1.830	2	0.915	3.575	.049	0.284	18
	Significant main effects of performance class were found:						
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares df		Mean Square	\mathbf{F}	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
ankle JCF Max	8.884		8.884	8.726	.016	0.492	9.000

Tab. 4.9: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on maximum Joint Contact Force and its position in checked backward walk

4.4.2.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

No significant effects of shoes on JCF during checked backward walk were found.

4.4.2.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences Between Performance Classes

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that maximum JCF [xBW] is:

• higher in ankle for A/S-class compared to D-class for BF $(p = .002, M_{Diff} = 1.242, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.575, 1.909])$

Figure 4.9 shows the waveforms of JCF over stance phase for performance classes.

Results show that in checked forward walk, experienced dancers undego higher maximum JCF in their ankle joint than beginners when barefoot.

Fig. 4.9: JCF in the right leg over $\%$ of stance phase of checked backward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) of participants from A/S-class (blue) and D-class (red) for BF (left), TS (middle) and LS (right), horizontal lines denote max. values

4.5 Cuban Rocks

4.5.1 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Inverse Kinematics

Statistics on IK for cuban rocks were performed with $N_{A/S} = 5$ and $N_D = 8$.

4.5.1.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on ROM were found as listed in table 4.10.

	Significant main effects of shoes on ROM were found:						
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
pelvis rotation ROM	192.178	$\mathbf{2}$	96.089	4.539	.022	0.292	22
subtalar angle ROM	1502.678	2	751.339	17.120	$-.001$	0.609	22
hip rotation ROM	72.478	$\mathbf{2}$	36.239	4.113	.030	0.272	22
knee angle ROM	58.821	$\overline{2}$	29.411	12.725	$-.001$	0.536	22
	Significant main effects of performance class on ROM were found:						
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df
pelvic tilt ROM	749.613		749.613	6.584	.026	0.374	11
pelvis list ROM	1261.035		1261.035	11.466	.006	0.510	11
pelvis rotation ROM	2270.586		2270.586	6.559	.026	0.374	11
subtalar angle ROM	3292.984		3292.984	6.859	.024	0.384	11
hip adduction ROM	1979.323		1979.323	9.981	.009	0.476	11

Tab. 4.10: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on Range of Motion in cuban rocks

Significant main effects of shoes on MJA were found as listed in table 4.11.

	Significant main effects of shoes were found:											
Gait Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	- F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	error df					
pelvis rotation knee angle	53.922 63.806		26.961 31.903	8.170 8.213	.002 .002	0.426 0.427	22 22					
ankle angle	3421.443	1.070	3199.022	12.794	.004	0.538	22					

Tab. 4.11: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on MJA in cuban rocks

4.5.1.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

- lower in pelvis rotation for LS compared to BF $(p = .002, M_{Diff} = 5.551, 95\% \text{-CI}[2.209, 8.893])$ for both groups
- lower in subtalar angle for LS compared to BF $(p = .001, M_{Diff} = 14.152, 95\% \text{-CI}[6.58, 21.725])$ and TS $(p = .001, M_{Diff} = 12.814, 95\% \text{-CI}[5.823, 19.805])$ for both groups

and MJA is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

• lower in ankle angle, hence higher plantarflexion, the higher the heels are (LS compared to BF: $p = .008$, $M_{Diff} = 22.189, 95\%$ -CI[6.038, 38.34], TS compared to BF: $p = .017$, $M_{Diff} = 4.186, 95\% - CI[0.742, 7.63]$, TS compared to LS: $p = .024$, $M_{Diff} = 18.003$, 95%-CI[2.329, 33.677]) for both groups

Figure 4.10 shows joint angles over stance phase for different shoe heights.

The results show that in high heels, range of motion is decreased in pelvis rotation and subtalar angle compared to barefoot.

Furthermore, average ankle angle is lower in elevated heels, as to be expected.

Fig. 4.10: Joint angles in the right leg over % of stance phase, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class (left) and D-class (right), horizontal lines denote mean values over the stace phase

4.5.1.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences Between Performance Classes

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5

- higher in pelvis tilt for A/S-class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .032, M_{Diff} = 9.069, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.932, 17.206])$ and TS $(p = .016, M_{Diff} = 10.061, 95\% \text{-CI}[2.32, 17.803])$
- higher in pelvis list for A/S-class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .008, M_{Diff} = 12.866, 95\% \text{-CI}[4.192, 21.54])$ and TS $(p = .001, M_{Diff} = 13.982, 95\%$ -CI[6.686, 21.278])
- higher in pelvis rotation for A/S-class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .012, M_{Diff} = 16.588, 95\% \text{-CI}[4.41, 28.766])$ and TS $(p = .038, M_{Diff} = 17.893, 95\% \text{-CI}[1.174, 34.611])$
- \bullet higher in hip adduction for for A/S-class compared to D-class (LS: $p = .016$, $M_{Diff} = 15.923$, 95% -CI[3.619, 28.227], TS: $p = .004$, $M_{Diff} = 17.519$, 95%-CI[6.841, 28.198], BF: $p = .035$, $M_{Diff} = 10.487$, 95%-CI[0.887, 20.088])

• higher in subtalar angle for A/S -class compared to D-class for LS $(p = .013, M_{Diff} = 26.08, 95\% \text{-CI}[6.548, 45.612])$

Figure 4.11 shows joint angles over stance phase for performance classes.

Results show that experienced dancers utilise higher ROM in pelvis tilt, pelvis list, pelvis rotation, hip adduction and subtalar angle than beginners, especially when wearing high heels.

Fig. 4.11: Joint angles in the right leg over $\%$ of stance phase, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) of participants from A/S-class (blue) and D-class (red) for BF (left), TS (middle) and LS (right), horizontal lines denote mean values over the stace phase

4.5.2 Effects of Shoes and Performance Class on Joint Contact Force

Statistics on JCF for cuban rocks were performed with $N_{A/S} = 5$ and $N_D = 8$.

4.5.2.1 Results of ANOVA

Significant main effects on JCF maximum and position were found as listed in table 4.12.

Tab. 4.12: Significant main effects of shoes and performance class on maximum Joint Contact Force and its position in cuban rocks

4.5.2.2 Within Subjects Effects - the Influence of Shoe Height

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc analysis revealed that maximum JCF [xBW] is:

- lower in knee for LS compared to BF
	- $(p = .007, M_{Diff} = 1.721, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.59, 2.852])$ and TS compared to BF $(p = .005, M_{Diff} = 1.85, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.696, 3.004])$ for A/S-class

• lower in ankle for LS compared to BF $(p < .001, M_{Diff} = 0.906, 95\% \text{-CI}[0.463, 1.349])$ for both groups

Figure 4.12 shows the waveforms of JCF over stance phase for different shoe heights.

Results show that in elevated heels, JCF is reduced in ankle joint for both groups and additionally in knee joint for experienced dancers.

Fig. 4.12: JCF in the right leg over $\%$ of stance phase of cuban rocks, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class (left) and D-class (right), horizontal lines denote max. values

4.5.2.3 Between Subjects Effects - Differences Between Performance Classes

No significant effects of performance class on JCF during cuban rocks were found.

4.6 Summary of Effects of Shoe Height and Performance Class

Summarising the results for all movements recorded and analysed, the following statements can be made:

- Ankle angle and, for checked forward walk, also ankle angle ROM, are decreased with elevated heels.
- Outward hip rotation is increased with elevated heels. This effect is more prominent for experienced dancers than for beginners.
- Overall, experienced dancers tend to use higher ROM than beginners, especially in hip and pelvis. This difference seems to be more prominent in elevated heels.
- Maximum JCF in the ankle joint is reduced with elevated heels.
- Experienced dancers tend to undergo higher maximum JCF in their hip and knee joint compared to beginners. However, reductions of maximum JCF with elevated heels seem to be more prominent in experienced dancers.

4.7 Dance Movements Compared to Walk

4.7.1 Range of Motion

4.7.1.1 Forward Walk

Statistics for forward walk were performed with $N_{\text{BF}} = 12$, $N_{\text{TS}} = 9$ and $N_{\text{LS}} = 12$. Due to the timing in music, left and right leg are not entirely symmetrical in forward walk. The right stance phase is followed by a faster step whereas the left stance phase is followed by a deceleration, presumably resulting in differences especially in the second half of stance phase. Therefore, left and right side are not to be compared.

As listed table in 4.13, ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5 **higher in forward walk than in walk for:**

- pelvis tilt
- pelvis rotation
- hip flexion right $(TS \& LS)$ + left (BF)
- hip adduction right $+$ left
- hip rotation right $+$ left
- ankle angle right $+$ left
- subtalar angle right $+$ left

and lower in forward walk than in walk for:

• knee angle left

Tab. 4.13: Results of t-tests comparing ROM between forward walk and walk

4.7.1.2 Checked Forward Walk

Statistics for checked forward walk were performed with $N_{\text{BF}} = 12$, $N_{\text{TS}} = 12$ and $N_{\text{LS}} = 14$. As listed in table 4.14, ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5 **higher in checked forward walk than in walk for:**

- pelvis tilt
- pelvis rotation
- hip adduction left
- hip rotation left (BF & TS)
- knee angle left (BF & TS)
- subtalar angle left (BF & TS)

and lower in checked forward walk than in walk for:

- hip flexion left
- ankle angle left (TS $&$ LS)

Tab. 4.14: Results of t-tests comparing ROM between checked forward walk and walk

4.7.1.3 Checked Backward Walk

Statistics for checked backward walk were performed with $N_{BF} = 12$, $N_{TS} = 11$ and $N_{LS} = 14$. As listed in table 4.15, ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5 **higher in checked backward walk than in walk for:**

- pelvis tilt
- pelvis rotation
- hip adduction right
- hip rotation right (BF)
- knee angle right
- ankle angle right
- subtalar angle right

and lower in checked backward walk than in walk for:

• hip flexion right

Tab. 4.15: Results of t-tests comparing ROM between checked backward walk and walk

4.7.1.4 Cuban Rocks

Statistics for cuban rocks were performed with $N_{BF} = 13$, $N_{TS} = 12$ and $N_{LS} = 14$. As listed in table 4.16, ROM is by a M_{Diff} [°] > 5 **higher in cuban rocks than in walk for:**

• pelvis tilt

- pelvis list
- pelvis rotation
- hip adduction right
- hip rotation right
- subtalar angle right

and lower in cuban rocks than in walk for:

- hip flexion right
- knee angle right
- ankle angle right

Tab. 4.16: Results of t-tests comparing ROM between cuban rocks and walk

4.7.2 Joint Contact Forces

4.7.2.1 Forward Walk

Statistics for forward walk were performed with $N_{BF} = 12$, $N_{TS} = 9$ and $N_{LS} = 12$. As listed table in 4.17, JCF [xBW] is

higher in forward walk than in walk for:

- hip right $+$ left
- knee right
- ankle right

Tab. 4.17: Results of t-tests comparing JCF between forward walk and walk

4.7.2.2 Checked Forward Walk

Statistics for checked forward walk were performed with $N_{\rm BF} = 12$, $N_{\rm TS} = 12$ and $N_{\rm LS} = 14$. As listed in table 4.18, JCF [xBW] is

higher in checked forward walk than in walk for:

• hip left

and lower in checked forward walk than in walk for:

• ankle left

		Paired Diff.							Significance		Result
Gait Variable	Cond.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Interval of the Difference Lower	95% Confidence Upper	t.	df	One- Sided р	Two- Sided p	
hip JCF Max 1	BF TS LS	3.081 2.957 3.603	3.079 2.840 3.606	0.854 0.820 0.964	1.221 1.152 1.521	4.942 4.761 5.685	3.608 3.606 3.738	12.000 11.000 13.000	.002 .002 .001	.004 .004 .002	JCF > JCF _{exit}
knee JCF Max 1	BF TS LS	0.932 0.703 0.822	3.483 1.780 1.502	0.966 0.514 0.401	-1.173 -0.428 -0.045	3.037 1.834 1.689	0.965 1.369 2.048	12.000 11.000 13.000	.177 .099 .031	.354 .198 .061	
ankle JCF Max 1	BF TS LS	-1.309 -1.312 -1.452	2.093 0.918 1.249	0.581 0.265 0.334	-2.573 -1.895 -2.173	-0.044 -0.729 -0.731	-2.254 -4.953 -4.352	12.000 11.000 13.000	.022 < 0.001 < 0.001	.044 < .001 .001	JCF < JCF _{gait}

Tab. 4.18: Results of t-tests comparing JCF between checked forward walk and walk

4.7.2.3 Checked Backward Walk

Statistics for checked backward walk were performed with $N_{BF} = 12$, $N_{TS} = 11$ and $N_{LS} = 14$. As listed in table 4.19, JCF [xBW] is

lower in checked backward walk than in walk for:

• ankle

Tab. 4.19: Results of t-tests comparing JCF between checked backward walk and walk

4.7.2.4 Cuban Rocks

Statistics for cuban rocks were performed with $N_{BF} = 13$, $N_{TS} = 12$ and $N_{LS} = 14$. As listed in table 4.20, JCF [xBW] is

lower in cuban rocks than in walk for:

- hip right (TS & LS)
- knee right (TS & LS)
- ankle right

	Cond.	Paired Diff.							Significance		Result
Gait Variable		Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Interval of the Difference Lower	95% Confidence Upper	t.	df	One- Sided P	Two- Sided p	
hip JCF Max r	BF TS LS	-0.799 -1.429 -1.799	2.236 1.648 2.027	0.620 0.476 0.542	-2.151 -2.476 -2.969	0.552 -0.382 -0.629	-1.289 -3.004 -3.322	12.000 11.000 13.000	.111 .006 .003	.222 .012 .006	JCF < JCF _{exit} TS & LS
knee JCF Max r	BF TS LS	-0.640 -1.005 -1.234	1.865 0.927 1.210	0.517 0.268 0.323	-1.766 -1.594 -1.932	0.487 -0.416 -0.535	-1.237 -3.756 -3.816	12.000 11.000 13.000	.120 .002 .001	.240 .003 .002	$\rm JCF$ $<$ $\rm JCF_{gait}$ TS & LS
ankle JCF Max r	BF TS LS	-1.700 -1.604 -1.583	1.048 0.607 0.544	0.291 0.175 0.145	-2.333 -1.990 -1.897	-1.067 -1.219 -1.269	-5.851 -9.158 -10.890	12.000 11.000 13.000	< 0.001 < 0.001 < .001	< 0.001 < .001 < .001	JCF < JCF _{exit}

Tab. 4.20: Results of t-tests comparing JCF between cuban rocks and walk

4.7.3 Summary of Comparisons Between Dance Movements and Walk

Summarising the results for all movements recorded and analysed, the following statements can be made:

- In dancing, higher ROM than in normal gait is used in pelvis tilt, pelvis rotation, hip rotation and hip adduction.
- For dance movements involving a forward step, JCF in the hip are higher compared to those experienced in normal gait by approximately 1.5 to 3 xBW.
- For cuban rocks movement, which involves merely a weight shift, JCF is lower compared to normal gait in hip, knee and ankle joint by approximately 0.7 to 1.8 xBW.

4.8 Knee Joint Contact Forces Ratio Range

4.8.1 Walk (Visualisation)

Figures 4.13 and 4.14 show a visualisation of medial and lateral knee JCF and JCFRR in walk.

Fig. 4.13: JCF in the left (left) and right (right) leg over $\%$ of stance phase of walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class, horizontal lines denote max. and min. values

Fig. 4.14: JCF in the left (left) and right (right) leg over $\%$ of stance phase of walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for D-class, horizontal lines denote max. and min. values

4.8.2 Forward Walk

Statistics for forward walk were performed with $N_{\text{BF}} = 13$, $N_{\text{TS}} = 9$ and $N_{\text{LS}} = 12$. As mentioned before, left and right side in forward walk are not symmetrical. As listed in table 4.21, **JCFRR is higher in forward walk than in walk for TS in stance phase for the right leg and for BF and LS in stance phase for the left leg**.

Tab. 4.21: Results of t-tests comparing knee JCFRR between forward walk and walk

Fig. 4.15: JCF in the left (left) and right (right) leg over $\%$ of stance phase of forward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class, horizontal lines denote max. and min. values

Fig. 4.16: JCF in the left (left) and right (right) leg over % of stance phase of forward walk, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for D-class, horizontal lines denote max. and min. values

4.8.3 Checked Forward Walk

Statistics for checked forward walk were performed with $N_{BF} = 14$, $N_{TS} = 12$ and $N_{LS} = 14$. As listed in table 4.22, no significant differences in JCFRR between walk and checked backward walk were found.

Gait Variable	Cond.		Paired Diff.					df	Significance	Result	
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Interval of the Difference Lower	95% Confidence Upper	т.		One- Sided р	Two- Sided р	
knee JCFRR 1	BF TS LS	0.093 0.034 0.023	0.167 0.147 0.195	0.045 0.042 0.052	-0.004 -0.060 -0.090	0.190 0.127 0.136	2.077 0.794 0.444	13.000 11.000 13.000	.029 .222 .332	.058 .444 .665	

Tab. 4.22: Results of t-tests comparing knee JCFRR between checked forward walk and walk

4.8.4 Checked Backward Walk

Statistics for checked backward walk were performed with $N_{BF} = 13$, $N_{TS} = 11$ and $N_{LS} = 14$. As listed in table 4.23, **JCFRR is higher in checked backward walk than in walk for BF**.

Gait Variable	Cond.	Paired Diff.							Significance		Result	
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Difference Lower	95% Confidence Interval of the Upper		df	$One-$ Sided р	Two- Sided P		
knee JCFRR r	BF TS LS	0.097 0.048 0.043	0.190 0.135 0.143	0.053 0.041 0.038	-0.017 -0.043 -0.040	0.212 0.139 0.125	1.847 1.167 1.113	12.000 10.000 13.000	.045 .135 .143	.090 .270 .286	JCFRR > JCFRR _{gait} ВF	

Tab. 4.23: Results of t-tests comparing knee JCFRR between checked backward walk and walk

4.8.5 Cuban Rocks

Statistics for cuban rocks were performed with $N_{\text{BF}} = 13$, $N_{\text{TS}} = 10$ and $N_{\text{LS}} = 12$. As listed in table 4.24, JCFRR is **higher in cuban rocks than in walk for all shoe heights**. A visualisation of medial and lateral knee JCF and JCFRR in cuban rocks is shown in figure 4.17.

Fig. 4.17: JCF in the right leg over % of stance phase of cuban rocks, mean (solid line) \pm one standard deviation (shadowed area) under conditions BF (red), TS (green) and LS (blue) for A/S-class (left) and D-class (right), horizontal lines denote max. and min. values

4.8.6 Summary of Results on JCFRR

Summarising the results for all movements recorded and analysed, it can be said that not all, but certain dance movements involve a different Joint Contact Force Ratio Range than the one experienced in normal gait. If that is the case, it is *higher* by approximately 10 to 14 %.

Chapter 5 Discussion

The results have shown certain characteristics of Rumba dance in comparison to normal human gait. Several effects of shoe heights (BF, TS and LS) and differences between performance classes (beginners: D-class and experienced dancers: A/S-class) have been found:

- The hypothesis that the Range of Motion (ROM) used in dancing is higher compared to normal human gait is supported by the results (4.7.1).
- For some dance movements, peak hip Joint Contact Force (JCF) was higher and range of force distribution ratio between medial and lateral compartment of the knee (Joint Contact Force Ratio Range (JCFRR)) was also higher compared to normal gait, as ecpected. However, the hypothesis of higher JCF in knee and ankle joint is not supported as true by the data (4.7.2, 4.8).
- Peak ankle JCF were reduced with high-heeled shoes for both normal gait and dancing. As expected, joint angles in the ankle joint were influenced by high heels. However, heel height did not show any great effects on joint angles or JCF in the knee and hip joint. Therefore, the hypotheses of increased ROM and JCF with elevated heels were contradicted by the results (4.2 - 4.5).
- Differences between heel heights and between performance classes in dancing were found, but did not show the same results across all different dance movements analysed (4.3 - 4.5).

Details on the results and possible interpretations will be discussed in the following sections.

5.1 Study Performance - Comparisons with Literature

Hip, knee and ankle JCF waveforms for barefoot normal gait can be compared with simulation data and data measured using instrumented implants. JCF waveforms qualitatively match the findings of Modenese et al. [45] (hip, knee and ankle), and Kainz et al. [48] (hip). Ankle and knee maximum JCF are also in a similar magnitude. However, the results in this thesis show higher maximum hip JCF of around 6 xBW compared to around 4 xBW in the findings of Modenese et al. [45] and around 3 xBW measured in vivo by Palmowski et al. [49]. On the other hand, Kainz et al. found similar peak hip JCF of around 6 xBW [48]. As hip JCF are strongly influenced by walking speed [50], the higher forces might have to do with a higher self-selected speed of the participants. JCF waveforms for the medial and lateral compartment of the knee joint are similar to the findings of Holder et al. [46].

5.2 Limitations

Only some results on the effects of shoe height and performance class on biomechanical parameters could be identified. This is probably due to the rather small number of participants in relation

to the variability. Said variability might come from different levels of proficieny even between athletes competing within the same performance class, differences in movements depending on clubs and teachers, and personal "styles". For further research, a larger number of participants is strongly suggested.

The conditions under which exercises were performed do not fullly represent usual training or competition conditions. As already mentioned in chapter 4, for forward walk movement, some participants had problems with their stride length in relation to the distance between force plates, causing them to take their steps more carefully and shorter than they usually would. This was not the case for the remaining movements analysed. However, other factors such as the unfamiliar situation itself, the feeling of having markers and electrodes attached to their bodies, the texture of the floor in comparison to the usual wooden parquet, and, of course, the absence of a dance partner, might have altered the execution of movement.

Both of the muskuloskeletal models used only include one rotational degree-of-freedom (flexionextension) at the knee joint. Since all analyses refer to the stance phase of the respective step, where knees are mostly kept straight and therefore are not able to rotate as much anyhow, the resulting error can be assumed as neglegible.

Furthermore, effects of the shoe soles material and shoe geometry, which could alter dynamics of movement, were not taken into account in simulations.

Dancing consists of sequences of a vairety of different movements. Even though the movements analysed in this thesis are very common ones, their exact mechanics are likely to vary depending on the preceeding and following steps. The results give a general idea on the scale of biomechanical parameters in dancing. However, they are probably not representative of the full spectrum of what is experienced by a dancers body over the whole dance routine.

Participants of this study are female dancers who mostly dance in the role of the follower. It is not certain that the results will be the same as for dancers of other sexes and/or dancers that are used to dancing the leading part.

5.3 Comparison of Dance Movements with Normal Gait

For all dance steps analyzed, ROM during stance phase was shown to be higher than in normal gait for pelvis tilt, pelvis rotation, hip rotation and hip adduction. This reflects the characteristic movements for Rumba dance as described in 2.1.

Hip JCF were shown to be higher than in walk for dance steps directed forward. Within the context of the increased ROM in the hip and pelvis, the suggestions are reasonable that increased hip JCF could be due to higher muscular activations in that area or different moment arms/distance to the ground reaction force.

5.4 Effects of Shoe Height in Normal Gait

For normal gait, outward hip rotation and plantarflexion were found to be higher with elevated heels.

The increased plantarflexion is directly expained by the elevated heel and has also been found in other studies on high-heeled gait, for example by Snow and Williams [51]. Additionally, they found less foot abduction, larger supination at heel strike, but no significant differences

in pelvic tilt or average lumbar curvature with high heels [51]. Other studies investigating gait kinematics in high heels were focused mainly on parameters regarding pelvis and came to different conclusions: Mika et al. found an increase in pelvic range of motion in the sagittal plane during high-heeled gait for women between 20 to 25 years of age [52]. Schroeder and Hollander found a reduced pelvic tilt and increased transversal pelvic rotation in high-heeled standing and walking [53].

Since an increased outward hip rotation has not been found by any of the studies cited above, it is likely that this finding is rather related to the participants being dancers than to the heel height itself. Dancers are used to wearing Training Shoes (TS) and Latin Shoes (LS) when dancing. It is probable that they therefore adopt a certain posture when wearing those shoes, even when they are not dancing but only walking. One part of the standard posture in latin dance is a slight "V-shape" in the legs and feet, which could explain the outward hip rotation. Consequently, this effect of shoe height on biomechanical parameters in normal gait may not be generalisable or comparable to the average population.

Similarly, the fact that no significant differences in pelvic kinematic parameters were found in this study could be because of the stabilising muscles in a dancers posture.

Maximum JCF in the ankle joint was shown to be reduced the higher the heels are. When looking at figure 4.1, one can see that the peak is reached at the end of stance phase, hence during a push off phase. This means the plantarflexor muscles are working at that moment. The maximum isometric force of ankle plantar flexors is shown to be in dorsiflexed position (around 20° of dorsiflexion) [54, 55], hence for a lengthened muscle. Therefore, one reason for the reduced JCF could be that lower muscle forces may be acting due to the ankle angles reached when heels are elevated.

5.5 Effects of Shoe Height and Performance Class in Dance Movements

As in normal gait, outward hip rotation and platarflexion were found to be higher with elevated heels. Results again revealed that maximum ankle JCF are often reduced in TS and especially LS. When looking at the figures, one can observe that the maxima of ankle JCF are mostly reached either when weight is transferred onto the foot or during a push off phase. Since steps are made with the ball of the foot first, plantar- and dorsiflexors are working in both cases. Therefore, these results are explainable again as described above (5.4). For some movements, ankle angle ROM is additionally decreased with elevated heels compared to barefoot.

The other findings for dance movements are not as straighforward and leave room for speculation: For cuban rock movement, ROM was shown to be limited by elevated heels. The findings of Li et al., who showed an increased ROM used in Rumba square step with elevated heels compared to flat feet [30], could not be supported hereby.

Shoe height has not been shown to have an effect on the JCF in hip and knee joints.

Overall, experienced dancers tend to use higher ROM or have mean joint angles further away from the anatomical pose than beginners, especially in hip and pelvis. Interestingly, this difference trends to be more prominent in elevated heels. This indicates that even though higher heels have not been shown to have a significant influence on ROM in hip and pelvis, experienced dancers may be able to use their higher ROM even in high heels whereas beginners might be more limited by them.

For those movements, where differences in JCF between performance classes were found, it was the case that experienced dancers undergo higher JCF in the respective joint than beginners. Since the results also revealed that experienced dancers use a higher ROM, it is again probable that the higher forces acting on the joints are due to muscular activation for positioning and/or stabilisation, rather than gravitational ones.

The hypothesis of less variability in repeating movements for professionals has not shown to be accurate. This means that a higher risk for overuse injuries in dancers of high performance level is not to be expected based on this study.

5.6 Knee Joint Contact Force Ratio Range

As described in 4.8.6, in some movements dancers undergo higher knee JCFRR than in normal gait. An increase in JCFRR means that the peak proportion of lateral force and/or medial force increases. Similarly to the peaks of ankle JCF, the peaks of lateral compartment knee JCF seem to occur when weight is transferred onto the foot or during a push off phase, whereas medial compartment knee JCF are highest during the stance phase. This can be seen in the figures in section 4.8.

When looking at figure 4.17, which shows knee JCFRR in cuban rocks, especially the peaks of the lateral knee JCF seem to be increased compared to normal gait (shown in figure 4.13 and 4.14). Cuban rocks are a movement where the weight is partly shifted between left an right while the hips are moving in a "figure 8" in the transversal plane [22]. As this movement has a large sideward component, which normal gait does not, the increased proportion of lateral knee JCF is comprehensible. Such sideward movements are repetitively done in Rumba dance [21, 22].

Furthermore, a similar result has been found for some shoe heights also for forward walks. This result indicates that due to the specific mechanics of forward walks in Rumba dance, the force distribution in the knee shows similarities to that in a *sideward* movement. This may likely be because of the rotative movement of the hips characteristic for Rumba dance.

Increased forces in one compartment of the knee due to varus/valgus malalignments have been associated with knee osteoarthritis in the respective compartment [46, 56, 57]. If an athlete already has a malalignment and additionally undergoes large JCFRR when dancing, the combination of factors might lead to high loads in one compartment of the knee. Based on these findings, varus/valgus malalignments in dancesport athletes should be closely monitored by teachers and physiotherapists. Further research on relashionships between knee injuries and lower limb alignment in dancers is of great interest for injury prevention.

5.7 Lateralities

There were results only significant for right side: e.g. subtalar MJA is higher for TS than BF only on the right side in walk. Most figures in dancesport are not symmetric. Dancers may tend to execute certain movements predominantly on one side and consequently have imbalances. Strength imbalances have already been found specifically for Latin Formation dancers by Wanke et al. [58]. Another reason could be that it is not muscular imbalances but simply a habituation to moving differently on left and right side causing the difference.

5.8 Conclusion and Outlook

Overall, the results of the study indicate that the effects of heel height are limited to the ankle joint and do not extend to knee and hip joint. Therefore, injuries in the hip and knee joint are probably related to other factors.

Since differences between performance classes can be shown using motion analysis, it might serve as a helpful tool to further examine dance technique and what makes a good dancer for other dance steps and dances.

Some possible factors in injury prevention have been identified. Further research on the topic is of great interest and may include:

- Studies including all sexes and different age groups, as dancesport athletes are active in different age classes starting from 9 years of age and without any upper limitation [5].
- Studies with a larger number of participants and on relationships between biomechanical parameters and previous injuries in dancesport athletes.
- Further exploration of EMG data, in order to find which muscles are active in order to execute dance movements, muscle synergies and possible co-contractions.
- Possible compensatory movements in the upper body.

A comprehensive overview of the potentials of motion analysis in dancesport has been given on the example of Rumba dance. Based on the results, it can be concluded that 3D motion analyis combined with musculoskeletal simulation is a promising tool for performance diagnostics and injury prevention in dancesport in the future.

For dancers may keep on practising their sport successfully and in a healthy way for a long time.

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