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Gait analysis using IMUs for transtibial amputees using 3D printed prosthesis

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### **Author**

Shetty, Shriya

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#### UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SAN DIEGO

Gait analysis using IMUs for transtibial amputees using 3D printed prosthesis

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree Master of Science

in

Bioengineering

by

Shriya Shetty

Committee in charge:

Professor Falko Kuester, Chair Professor Gert Cauwenbergs, Co-Chair Professor Jeff Hasty Professor Vira Kravets

2024

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<span id="page-3-0"></span>The thesis of Shriya Shetty is approved, and it is acceptable in quality and form for publication on microfilm and electronically.

University of California San Diego

2024

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

### TABLE OF CONTENTS



### LIST OF FIGURES

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

### LIST OF TABLES

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

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#### VITA

<span id="page-9-0"></span>

- 2020 Bachelor of Engineering, University of Mumbai
- 2021–2022 Product Specialist, Evolutis India, Mumbai
- 2022–2024 Research Assistant, CHEI Lab, University of California, San Diego
- 2023–2024 Teaching Assistant, Departments of Bioengineering and Cognitive Science University of California, San Diego
- 2024 Master of Science, University of California, San Diego
- 2024 Operations Engineer, Amplify Surgical, Irvine

#### ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

<span id="page-10-0"></span>Gait analysis using IMUs for transtibial amputees using 3D printed prosthesis

by

Shriya Shetty

Master of Science in Bioengineering

University of California San Diego, 2024

Professor Falko Kuester, Chair Professor Gert Cauwenbergs, Co-Chair

Currently 1.6 million people have undergone limb amputation in the US alone and the dependency on lower limb prosthesis has been increasing for its many advantages. Gait analysis forms the backbone of post prosthesis attachment rehabilitation. In this study, a gait analysis module is developed using IMUs and FSRs, to collect and analyse gait parameters in real-world conditions. The sensor data was validated against a ground truth established by mounting the module on a 3D printer extruder head. Post processing of the data is done using a Madgwick Filter. We can accurately determine gait parameters like stride length, step length, time of stance and swing phases and cadence in a subject with normal gait. The cadence value obtained was 216 steps/min and the stride length was found to be 0.9m, which falls within the normal range for the subject's age.

## <span id="page-12-0"></span>Introduction

The human gait is a complex, dynamic process that plays a fundamental role in maintaining mobility, balance, and overall physical health. For individuals who have undergone lower limb amputation, the loss of this natural gait presents significant challenges, impacting not only their physical capabilities but also their psychological and social well-being. Prosthetic limbs serve as critical tools in restoring some of the lost function, enabling amputees to regain independence and participate more fully in daily life. The advent of 3D printing technology has introduced new possibilities for prosthetic design and customization. 3D printed prostheses offer a level of flexibility and personalization that was previously unattainable, allowing for rapid prototyping and the production of bespoke devices tailored to the specific needs of each user. However, the effectiveness of a prosthetic limb is not solely dependent on its design but also on how well it is integrated into the user's life, particularly through rehabilitation and continuous adaptation to the prosthesis.

Traditional methods of gait analysis, such as visual observation and the use of stationary equipment like motion capture systems and force plates, have provided valuable insights into the biomechanics of walking. However, these methods often fall short in capturing the full spectrum of an amputee's gait, particularly in real-world conditions. The limitations of these techniques highlight the need for more advanced, flexible, and accessible approaches that can accurately assess gait in natural environments. Wearable technology, specifically Inertial Measurement Units (IMUs), has emerged as a promising solution, offering the ability to monitor gait continuously and unobtrusively.

IMUs are small, portable sensors that measure acceleration, angular velocity, and ori-

entation, providing detailed data on the movement of the body in three-dimensional space. When combined with other sensors, such as Force Sensitive Resistors (FSRs), IMUs can deliver comprehensive spatiotemporal data on gait, which is crucial for understanding the intricacies of prosthetic-assisted walking. This data can be used not only to assess the effectiveness of a prosthesis but also to inform modifications that enhance comfort, functionality, and long-term health outcomes. These sensors allow for continuous monitoring of gait in various environments, capturing data that is more representative of everyday activities. This capability is particularly important for transtibial amputees, whose prosthetic needs may vary greatly depending on their daily routines and physical demands. By providing real-time feedback, IMUs can help clinicians and prosthetists make more informed decisions about prosthetic design and adjustments, leading to better alignment, fit, and overall satisfaction for the user.

This combination of advanced sensor technology and customizable prosthetics holds the potential to revolutionize the field of prosthetic rehabilitation, making it more effective, accessible, and responsive to the needs of amputees. In this context, the present thesis explores the application of IMUs in spatiotemporal gait analysis for transtibial amputees using 3D printed prostheses. By developing and validating a novel gait analysis module, this research aims to provide a more precise and practical tool for assessing and improving prosthetic-assisted gait. The insights gained from this study contribute to the development of more effective prosthetic devices and rehabilitation strategies, ultimately improving the quality of life for individuals living with limb loss. It is intended for long endurance gait as well as life-cycle analysis of the prosthetic device.

# <span id="page-14-0"></span>Chapter 1 Background and Significance

Currently, more than 1.6 million persons are living with limb loss in the United States, with projections indicating a staggering increase to 3.6 million by 2050 [\[100\]](#page-51-0). Of these cases, approximately 85% of the amputations are of the lower extremities [\[6\]](#page-43-1). While traditional causes such as vascular diseases (diabetes mellitus [\[30\]](#page-45-1)[\[96\]](#page-51-1)[\[54\]](#page-47-0), peripheral arterial disease [\[30\]](#page-45-1)[\[31\]](#page-45-2)[\[36\]](#page-45-3)), tumors [\[100\]](#page-51-0)[\[53\]](#page-47-1) and malignancy of the bone and joint [\[30\]](#page-45-1)[\[32\]](#page-45-4), continue to be prevalent, it is noteworthy that traumatic incidents stemming from sociopolitical conflicts, notably wars [\[33\]](#page-45-5), have emerged as significant contributors in recent times. Affordable and customizable prostheses, catering to amputees of all socioeconomic backgrounds, such as 3D printed prosthetic limbs (Figure [1.1\)](#page-15-0)[\[27\]](#page-45-0), not only restore the amputee's mobility and independence, but also notably enhance their quality of life (QoL) and mitigate secondary health issues [\[91\]](#page-50-0). Central to the efficacy of prosthetic integration is the rehabilitation process following attachment. Postamputation rehabilitation is dedicated to reinstating functional autonomy in daily activities and facilitating a return to pre-amputation levels of engagement [\[45\]](#page-46-0)[\[68\]](#page-48-0). It is imperative to recognize that substandard or insufficient rehabilitation may impede the successful adaptation to the prosthetic device, ultimately hindering the wearer's adjustment process [\[101\]](#page-51-2). A crucial aspect of lower limb prosthesis rehabilitation is the examination of gait patterns. Analysing the gait of an amputee using a prosthetic device provides valuable insights into various potential challenges, including excessive load on sound limb [\[34\]](#page-45-6), socket-related issues [\[51\]](#page-47-2), metabolic

<span id="page-15-0"></span>

Figure 1.1. Example of 3D printed prosthesis [\[27\]](#page-45-0).

cost of ambulation [\[81\]](#page-49-0)[\[73\]](#page-49-1) and gait asymmetry [\[18\]](#page-44-0)[\[66\]](#page-48-1)[\[34\]](#page-45-6). Additionally, it provides significant feedback for making adjustments to the prosthetic design [\[72\]](#page-49-2)[\[17\]](#page-44-1)[\[26\]](#page-45-7). Long-term asymmetrical gait in lower limb amputees may result in physiological impairments, which can subsequently lead to mental and social challenges [\[9\]](#page-43-2)[\[37\]](#page-46-1)[\[62\]](#page-48-2)[\[78\]](#page-49-3).

Historically, gait analysis was predominantly conducted through visual observation by clinicians, which, while valuable, is inherently subjective and prone to errors [\[64\]](#page-48-3). Without doubt, an objective approach was required for a more reliable and precise analysis of the gait. Hence, to enhance accuracy, methods such as motion capture systems [\[65\]](#page-48-4)[\[20\]](#page-44-2)[\[92\]](#page-50-1) and force plates [\[3\]](#page-43-3)[\[90\]](#page-50-2)[\[95\]](#page-51-3)[\[48\]](#page-46-2) were developed.

Motion capture systems use markers placed on the body to track movement in a controlled environment [\[65\]](#page-48-4)[\[63\]](#page-48-5), providing data on kinematics. Although the assessment requires the need for a specialized facility and bulky ensembles, are time consuming and not practical for routine clinical use. Moreover, results may be affected by displacement of the markers with movement [\[76\]](#page-49-4). While motion capture techniques evolved to markerless-based gait analysis, the data

collected showed inaccuracies relating to pose estimation algorithms [\[93\]](#page-51-4), thereby providing incorrect results. They are also an extremely expensive option as the assembly includes expensive videography equipments and cameras [\[77\]](#page-49-5).

Force plates measure the ground reaction forces during walking [\[85\]](#page-50-3), offering insights into the dynamics of gait [\[28\]](#page-45-8)[\[48\]](#page-46-2). One of the major drawbacks of this technique was that the subjects had limited stride lengths since they had to walk on the centre of the force plates [\[22\]](#page-44-3). They also fail to reflect real-world conditions and do not capture the full spatiotemporal parameters of gait, which are crucial for a comprehensive analysis.

In recent years, wearable technology, such as inertial measurement units (IMUs), has emerged as a promising alternative [\[13\]](#page-43-4)[\[10\]](#page-43-5)[\[46\]](#page-46-3)[\[12\]](#page-43-6). IMUs are small, lightweight sensors [\[23\]](#page-44-4)[\[97\]](#page-51-5) that can be easily attached to the body, allowing for continuous monitoring of gait in natural environments [\[55\]](#page-47-3).

In this thesis, a combination of IMU sensors and Force Resistive Sensors (FSRs) is used to develop a module which makes up for a powerful gait analysis tool that provides detailed spatiotemporal data, which is vital for evaluating prosthetic age and performance, without the need for extensive cumbersome bodysuits or heavy and expensive hardware.

# <span id="page-17-0"></span>Chapter 2 Specific Aims

Gait imperfections after the fitting of below-the-knee prostheses is a common problem faced by amputees and prosthetists alike. These imperfections may arise due to several factors such as alignment differences, improper socket fit and asymmetrical limb lengths, which can have cascading impacts on the residual limb's vascular health, potentially leading to complications like infections, stump pain and discomfort, and ultimately prolonging the rehabilitation period of the prosthesis or leading to its absolute failure. Furthermore, the sound limb may undergo unnatural compensatory maneuvers, exacerbating the negative impact on the patient's quality of life despite prosthetic attachment.

A method to identify and evaluate these abnormalities associated with prosthetic design hence becomes crucial. Early detection and periodic evaluations will enable recognizing potential risk factors and promote timely adjustments like modifications to the socket design, prosthetic length, and alignment correction. Leveraging the flexibility and customization capabilities inherent in 3D-printed prostheses allows for expedited and cost-effective implementation of these adjustments.

Inertial Measurement Units (IMUs), commonly used in navigation systems for their ability to measure and track the motion and orientation of objects in three-dimensional space, emerge as a promising option for human gait analysis. The primary hypothesis of this thesis posits that IMUs, when paired with Force Sensitive Resistors (FSRs), can provide precise

integral information about the nuances of human gait. The objective of this thesis is to analyse the prosthetic-assisted gait through information collected from the IMUs and make necessary modifications to the prosthesis to achieve a symmetrical and anatomical gait. We plan to achieve the primary objective of this thesis through the following specific aims:

- 1. Development and validation of a gait analysis module using IMUs To design and implement a module, using IMUs at the shank and FSRs at the heel, that can be easily fitted on the sound as well as residual limbs to collect common gait parameters from amputees under several test conditions. The results will then be calibrated and validated against a ground truth. The IMU units will be fine-tuned to improve accuracy in capturing integral gait parameters.
- 2. Assessment of gait parameters Obtain results from the calibrated electrical module to understand and investigate abnormalities in gait. This will provide a comprehensive understanding of how corrective measures can be employed to treat different adversities being caused due to abnormal gait mechanics. Also use infirmation for long endurance gait measurement and life-cycle assessment of the prosthesis.

Upon the completion of these studies, we shall have a robust and precise tool for subsequent gait analysis studies. Building upon this, major consequences of improper gait can be avoided at the root by identifying problem areas and saving the patients from having a traumatic experience, and enabling a smooth transition to a better life. These aims hold the potential to collectively advance the field of prosthetic rehabilitation.

# <span id="page-19-0"></span>Chapter 3 The Human Gait

## <span id="page-19-1"></span>3.1 Gait Cycle

Human gait is a cyclical movement involving limbs used for locomotion, and the study of this movement and its associated dynamics is known as gait analysis [\[82\]](#page-50-4) [\[6\]](#page-43-1). This cycle can be divided into two main phases: stance and swing, each comprising sub-phases that describe specific actions and positions of the lower limbs during regular gait Figure [3.1.](#page-19-2) Understanding these phases and their respective positions is crucial for assessing gait abnormalities, designing effective prosthetics, and implementing targeted rehabilitation therapies.

<span id="page-19-2"></span>

Figure 3.1. The Human Gait Cyle.

### <span id="page-20-0"></span>3.1.1 Stance Phase

The stance phase accounts for approximately 60% of the gait cycle and begins the moment one foot contacts the ground. In this phase, both feet are in some contact with the ground, hence there is double support. It is further divided into the following sub-phases:

- 1. Initial Contact (Heel Strike): This is the moment when the heel of the foot first touches the ground. It marks the beginning of the stance phase.
- 2. Loading Response: Following initial contact, weight is transferred onto the forward foot. This phase is characterized by slight flexion of the knee to absorb the impact.
- 3. Midstance: This occurs when the body's weight is directly over the stance limb, and the foot is flat on the ground. The limb supports the body's weight entirely on its own during this phase.
- 4. Terminal Stance: As the heel of the stance foot begins to lift off the ground, the body prepares for the transition from stance to swing. Weight shifts forward, and the toes remain in contact with the ground.
- 5. Pre-swing (Toe-off): This final phase of the stance occurs as the toes leave the ground, propelling the body forward and transitioning to the swing phase of the opposite foot.

#### <span id="page-20-1"></span>3.1.2 Swing Phase

The swing phase follows the stance phase and occupies about 40% of the gait cycle. It involves lifting the foot off the ground and moving it forward, hence there is only single support. It is also subdivided into three phases:

1. Initial Swing: This phase starts as the foot lifts off the ground and the limb begins to move forward.

- 2. Mid Swing: During this phase, the foot moves directly beneath the body as the limb swings forward, preparing for the next step.
- 3. Terminal Swing: This phase completes as the swinging limb decelerates and the foot prepares to make contact with the ground, marking the beginning of the next stance phase.

The swing phase and the stance phase together comprise one stride of the entire gait cycle. The accurate assessment and analysis of these phases are essential for understanding individual gait characteristics and identifying deviations from normal gait patterns. For individuals with gait abnormalities, such as those resulting from lower limb amputations, detailed gait analysis can inform the design of prosthetic devices and rehabilitation strategies that restore functional and efficient walking patterns. This holistic understanding not only improves the physical alignment and mechanics of walking but also enhances the overall mobility and quality of life for individuals relying on prosthetic support.

### <span id="page-21-0"></span>3.2 Gait Parameters

The gait cycle can be quantized using certain gait parameters [\[67\]](#page-48-6)[\[52\]](#page-47-4). Each parameter plays a crucial role in understanding and analyzing human locomotion. They provide insights into the biomechanical and functional aspects of walking, which can help in diagnosing abnormalities, planning treatments, and monitoring rehabilitation progress. Following list of parameters are essential for any gait analysis procedure,

1. Stride Length: The distance covered in one complete stride, measured from the heel strike of one foot to the heel strike of the same foot again. It indicates the efficiency of the gait and balance. Shortened stride lengths can suggest joint stiffness, pain, or neuromuscular issues. It is useful in diagnosing conditions like Parkinson's disease, where stride length is typically reduced [\[21\]](#page-44-5).

- 2. Step Length: The distance between the point of initial contact of one foot and the point of initial contact of the opposite foot. It assesses symmetry between the left and right legs. Asymmetrical step lengths can indicate limb discrepancies or unilateral strength deficits. It is helpful in identifying gait abnormalities post-stroke or in individuals with musculoskeletal injuries [\[71\]](#page-49-6)[\[80\]](#page-49-7).
- 3. Cadence: The number of steps taken per minute. It's a measure of the rate of stepping. It reflects the rhythmic and temporal aspects of gait. Changes in cadence can affect overall mobility and energy efficiency. Lower cadences may be observed in conditions affecting mobility and balance, such as muscular dystrophy [\[8\]](#page-43-7)[\[75\]](#page-49-8)[\[38\]](#page-46-4).
- 4. Walking Speed: The overall speed of walking of the subject. It is a good overall indicator of a person's functional ability and health status. Reductions in walking speed can be a sign of aging or health decline, common in neurological disorders [\[15\]](#page-44-6)[\[40\]](#page-46-5).
- 5. Stride Width: The side-to-side distance between the paths of the left and right feet during walking. This parameter provides information about base of support and balance. Narrower or wider bases can be compensatory mechanisms for maintaining stability. It is useful in assessing individuals with balance issues, such as those recovering from a traumatic brain injury [\[61\]](#page-48-7)[\[24\]](#page-44-7).
- 6. Stride Time: The time taken for a complete stride a combination of the stance phase time and swing phase time. Variations can reveal timing issues related to neurological conditions, like ataxia or spasticity [\[56\]](#page-47-5).

In this thesis, we analyse gait using the above mentioned parameters in order to obtain a comprehensive profile of the subject's gait, enabling clinicians and prosthetists to make a customised rehabilitation plan for the subject.

# <span id="page-23-0"></span>Chapter 4 Gait Analysis

Gait analysis is the systematic study of human walking [\[82\]](#page-50-4). It involves the measurement and assessment of the body's movement and mechanics during locomotion, primarily focusing on the lower limbs. Gait analysis is used to understand the biomechanics of walking, including the timing and coordination of the limbs, the forces exerted by and on the body, and the efficiency of movement.

Human gait analysis is pivotal in a wide array of applications, reflecting its fundamental role in health and mobility [\[84\]](#page-50-5). Accurately analyzing gait is crucial not only for diagnosing and treating locomotive disorders but also for optimizing rehabilitation strategies [\[11\]](#page-43-8)[\[25\]](#page-44-8), customizing prosthetics [\[35\]](#page-45-9)[\[74\]](#page-49-9), and even preventing injuries in athletics [\[94\]](#page-51-6)[\[57\]](#page-47-6). In clinical settings, gait analysis is instrumental in the early diagnosis and monitoring of diseases that affect mobility, such as multiple sclerosis [\[19\]](#page-44-9)[\[39\]](#page-46-6)[\[83\]](#page-50-6) and Parkinson's disease [\[29\]](#page-45-10)[\[42\]](#page-46-7)[\[21\]](#page-44-5)[\[16\]](#page-44-10). For the elderly, it provides valuable insights into balance and stride, which can help in developing interventions to prevent falls [\[14\]](#page-44-11)[\[69\]](#page-48-8). Moreover, in the realm of sports science, it assists athletes in enhancing their performance and avoiding injuries by fine-tuning their biomechanics [\[47\]](#page-46-8)[\[82\]](#page-50-4). Thus, the effective study and analysis of gait not only improve clinical outcomes but also significantly enhance individuals' quality of life by addressing fundamental aspects of movement and stability.

### <span id="page-24-0"></span>4.1 Evolution of Gait Analysis Methods

Human gait analysis has significantly evolved over the decades, transitioning from simple observational techniques to advanced wearable and non-wearable technology-driven methods [\[64\]](#page-48-3)[\[79\]](#page-49-10) (Table [4.1\)](#page-25-0), each contributing uniquely to our understanding of human locomotion.

Initially, gait analysis was predominantly based on visual observation by clinicians [\[47\]](#page-46-8). This method, relying solely on the expertise and subjective assessment of physical therapists or physicians, offered an immediate and cost-effective way to identify obvious gait abnormalities. However, its reliance on human judgment made it inherently subjective, with considerable variability in assessments. The limitations of the human eye in detecting subtler biomechanical issues also meant that many nuances of gait pathology went unnoticed.

The introduction of videography marked a significant advancement in gait analysis [\[86\]](#page-50-7)[\[49\]](#page-47-7). By recording gait cycles on video, clinicians were able to observe and analyze movement patterns in slow motion, providing a more detailed overview than mere observation. This technique improved the accuracy of visual assessments and allowed for a historical comparison over time. Despite these advantages, videography still relied on expensive equipment and laboratory settings, limiting its practical and economical use.

The development of instrumented treadmills [\[70\]](#page-48-9) and pressure mats [\[50\]](#page-47-8)[\[59\]](#page-47-9) introduced a more scientific approach to gait analysis. These devices could capture precise data on foot placement, timing, and pressure distribution throughout the gait cycle, providing quantitative insights that were not previously possible. This technology was particularly useful in evaluating the effectiveness of foot orthotics and prosthetic adjustments. However, its use was confined to laboratory settings, which did not necessarily reflect a person's natural walking environment, and the systems required significant investment and space.

A breakthrough in gait analysis came with the adoption of motion capture systems [\[98\]](#page-51-7)[\[58\]](#page-47-10)[\[63\]](#page-48-5), which use body-worn markers or markerless technology to track movement in three dimensions. Employed extensively in both research and clinical settings, these systems



<span id="page-25-0"></span>Table 4.1. Summary of Gait Analysis Technologies

offered a high level of accuracy in measuring spatial and temporal aspects of gait. They enabled a detailed analysis of not just the lower limbs but the entire body's mechanics during movement. Despite their precision, motion capture systems were costly, required specialized environments, and involved complex setup and lengthy data processing, making them less accessible for routine clinical use.

The advent of mobile-based gait tracking represents a notable advancement in gait analysis technologies [\[99\]](#page-51-8), leveraging the widespread availability and capabilities of smartphones and portable devices. However, mobile-based gait tracking also faces challenges such as potentially reduced accuracy compared to specialized equipment, dependence on user compliance for effectiveness, and concerns regarding data security and privacy.

### <span id="page-26-0"></span>4.2 Latest Trends in Gait Analysis

The recent shift towards wearable sensor technology [\[87\]](#page-50-8)[\[88\]](#page-50-9), including inertial mea-surement units (IMUs) [\[41\]](#page-46-9)[\[44\]](#page-46-10)[\[60\]](#page-48-10), has democratized gait analysis further. These devices, which can be worn on the body, allow for the assessment of gait dynamics in real-world settings. They provide continuous data collection over extended periods, making them invaluable for monitoring changes in gait over time and in various environmental contexts. While the need for precise calibration in such devices has always been a challenge, sophisticated data processing capabilities have helped counter errors due to drifts in the sensors. These involve the integration of machine learning algorithms in post processing. They large datasets from wearable sensors to predict, classify, and potentially correct gait abnormalities in real-time. This promises highly personalized assessments and interventions, adapting to individual walking patterns and offering potential corrections or rehabilitation strategies.

In this thesis, we have developed a gait analysis module using an IMU sensor and Force Sensitive Resistors, and robust post processing algorithms, with an aim to capture precise data while not compromising on practicality of use and cost.

# <span id="page-27-0"></span>Chapter 5 Materials and Methods

### <span id="page-27-1"></span>5.1 Materials

In this study, a combination of hardware and software tools was employed for the spatiotemporal analysis. Each component was carefully selected based on its functionality, ease of integration, and suitability for capturing the complex dynamics of human gait.

#### <span id="page-27-2"></span>5.1.1 Hardware

Central to the system is the high resolution BNO055 Inertial Measurement Unit (Bosch Sensortec [\[4\]](#page-43-9)), a 9-axis absolute orientation sensor which works by detecting motion including the kind, rate, and direction of that motion using a combination of accelerometers, magnetometers and gyroscopes [\[43\]](#page-46-11). The BNO055 features an onboard processor that fuses sensor data, minimizing drift and providing reliable real-time orientation data. The measurement frame of the IMU sensor is fixed to the orientation of the shank of the patient, where it is placed. Two round 12.7mm diameter capacitive Force Sensitive Resistors (FSR) are integral to acquiring measurements of heel strike and toe off as they exhibit a decrease in resistance when an increasing force is applied to their surface. This module uses two FSRs - one for the toe-off measurement and one for the heel strike measurement. They are chosen for their pointed accuracy and thin structure, providing flexibility to fit into the footwear of the subject without causing them any discomfort. The use of two FSRs allows for a detailed analysis of the heel-to-toe transition

during walking and provides real-time feedback on pressure distribution. The weMos Lolin32 microcontroller [\[2\]](#page-43-10) serves as the operational hub of the system, handling data input from both the IMU and the FSRs. Refer to Figure [5.1](#page-28-0) for the circuit diagram. Its role extends beyond basic data processing; its built-in Wi-Fi and Bluetooth capabilities facilitates wireless transmission of the gait data to external devices for real-time analysis. Its low power consumption extends battery life, which is crucial for continuous monitoring over extended periods. This module uses one microcontroller board as the "Receiver" board or the Master Board which is connected to the laptop. All other gait analysis modules - microcontroller boards with IMU and FSRs enclosed are called the "Sender" Boards and transmit data to the Receiver Board wirelessly through the weMos Lolin32's WiFi 802.11 b/g/n module (Figure [5.5\)](#page-32-0). The Sender microcontroller Boards are each powered by a sleek 3.7V rechargeable battery pack. The entire assembly is housed in a compact 3D printed enclosure (Figure [5.2\)](#page-29-1). The compact size of the module allows for easy integration into an unobtrusive gait analysis system without adding bulk to the wearable device.

<span id="page-28-0"></span>

Figure 5.1. Circuit Diagram

<span id="page-29-1"></span>

Figure 5.2. 3D printed casing of the gait analysis module which houses the sender microcontroller, IMU sensor, battery source, and two FSRs extending from the bottom, (a) Top View (b) Side View.

#### <span id="page-29-0"></span>5.1.2 Software

On the software side, Arduino Integrated Development Environment (IDE) [\[1\]](#page-43-11) is used specifically to program the weMos Lolin32, enabling precise control over how the data from the IMU and FSRs are collected and handled. The IDE supports a wide range of libraries, including those for interfacing specifically with the BNO055 IMU sensor like the Adafruit BNo055 Library.

For the sake of data acquisition, an interface was created (Figure [5.3\)](#page-30-0) using the Processing 4 software [\[5\]](#page-43-12). This interface enables visualization of whether a wireless connection was established between the receiver board and the sender boards attached to the subject's shanks via the microcontroller's WiFi module. Once connected, it helps record the data from the experiment and save it locally using a file name of choice. It also helps visualise the orientation of the IMU as it moves in real-time. Post processing and manipulation and visualization of the collected data was done using Python.

<span id="page-30-0"></span>

Figure 5.3. Data acquisition interface using the Processing 4 software, (a) The interface gives you an option of boards to select from, (b) When connected, the status of the corresponding boards turn green; can record the data in a file named by your choice.

This strategic approach to component functionality ensures that the system functions as a unified and synergistic tool, rather than merely a collection of disparate advanced technologies. By integrating each component with a clear purpose, the system is designed to work harmoniously, enhancing its effectiveness and reliability. This cohesive design is not just about technological sophistication; it is about delivering tangible benefits that significantly improve the quality of life for its users. The focus on seamless integration and purposeful design ensures that each part contributes meaningfully to the overall goal, making the system not only innovative but also profoundly user-centered.

### <span id="page-31-0"></span>5.2 Placement of the module

The gait analysis module - IMU housed with a weMos Lolin32 sender microcontroller, battery pack and two FSRs, in a 3D printed encasing - is placed anteromedially on the shank of the test subject and is secured in place using Velcro straps (Figure [5.4\)](#page-31-1). Extending from the central unit, the FSRs are carefully aligned under the foot; one is placed at the heel and the other under the toe, each secured using adhesive tape to ensure consistent contact with the foot. The subject is then asked to don their usual footwear, preferably shoes, to simulate typical walking conditions.

<span id="page-31-1"></span>

Figure 5.4. (a) The module positioned anteromedially on the shank of the test subject, with the tow and heel FSRs extending down inside the footwear of the subject. (b) Placement of the FSRs on the toe and heel of the feet of the subject.

The receiver board is connected to a processing unit (laptop) and receives data from multiple gait analysis modules remotely in real-time (Figure [5.5\)](#page-32-0). This placement strategy ensures that the gait analysis module integrates seamlessly into the subject's natural walking <span id="page-32-0"></span>environment without altering or hindering their natural gait pattern. The lightweight design and strategic positioning of the components allow for normal movement, thus ensuring that the data collected accurately reflects true gait dynamics under typical usage conditions, without any artificial influence from the device itself.



Figure 5.5. Test data being transmitted wirelessly through WiFi from the sender microcontrollers (encased in the red 3D printed cases worn by the subject) to the Receiver microcontroller connected to the computer.

# <span id="page-33-0"></span>Chapter 6 Experimental Setup

### <span id="page-33-1"></span>6.1 Establishing a Ground Truth

IMU sensors are famously infamous for collecting dirfts in readings over long periods of time. Drifts in IMU sensor readings occur due to the gradual accumulation of small errors in the sensor data over time, primarily due to factors like sensor noise, temperature changes, or biases in the accelerometers and gyroscopes. These errors cause deviations from accurate measurements, affecting the long-term accuracy of position and orientation tracking. Drift can be particularly problematic in long-duration measurements, as the errors compound without external reference points. Therefore, it becomes extremely important to validate the readings collected from the sensor against a ground truth.

For this, we mounted our gait analysis module on to the extruder head of a 3DP Printer. A set trajectory was defined at a known speed for the extruder, so we have a comparison point for our IMU readings. The readings, as expected, were noisy and differed from what was expected. For starters, the IMU's frame of reference was different from the global frame of reference (Figure [6.1\(](#page-34-0)a)). Secondly, acceleration due to gravity (g-force) altered accelerometer readings in the global y-direction (Figure [6.1\(](#page-34-0)b)). Both of these issues were countered using the Madgwick filter [\[7\]](#page-43-13). The Madgwick filter rotates the IMU coordinate system to the global coordinate system using the magnetometer data and also eliminates acceleration due to gravity. Thirdly, after a span of approximately 7ms, drifts were observed in the readings (Figure [6.1\(](#page-34-0)b)). Sophisticated

algorithms using Python were used to eliminate these drifts.

<span id="page-34-0"></span>

Figure 6.1. (a) The IMU frame of reference is different from the global frame of reference. (b) Altered readings in y-direction due to gravity acceleration and drifts in the z-direction.

The module was again mounted on the extruder head and the experiment was repeated.

<span id="page-34-1"></span>This time, the IMU readings were very close to the actual expected readings (Figure [6.2\)](#page-34-1).



Figure 6.2. IMU data corresponding to expected data.

Now that the ground truth is established, we go ahead and collect gait readings from test subjects to satify the aims of this thesis.

### <span id="page-35-0"></span>6.2 Gait Analysis Experiment

Subject (Female, 26) with no known physical or mobility abnormalities and what can be considered a "normal gait", was chosen. They were made to wear the gait analysis modules anteromedially on each of their shanks, secured by Velcro straps as described in Figure [5.4.](#page-31-1) Measures were taken to ensure that the modules are secured tight and are not sliding down during the experiment. FSRs were ensured in their respective positions using clear tape.

A 4 meter long pathway was defined, with markings to indicate the "Start" line and the "Finish" line. Once the modules were secured, the subject was made to stand behind the Start line. As the recording began in the data acquisition software, the subject was asked to stand stationary for 2 seconds, after which they were instructed to walk till the Finish line as they normally would. Upon reaching the Finish line, the subject was asked to stand stationary again for a few seconds. After this, the recording was stopped (Figur[e6.3.](#page-35-1) This entire process was repeated thrice.

<span id="page-35-1"></span>

Figure 6.3. Experimental Setup; Initially the subject is asked to stand at the Start line for 2 seconds after the recording begins; then walk till the Finish line (4m away) and again stand stationary for another 2 seconds before concluding the recording.

# <span id="page-36-0"></span>Chapter 7

# Results

All the data collected is first cleaned in a pre-processing algorithm as used for the ground truth data, for further processing and extracting the parameters that we are interested in for this study. We first plot the data acquired from the heel FSRs as the spikes in this data can lead us to several of the parameters - heel strike, step length, time of swing phase, time of stance phase, and will also help us visualise the gait pattern of the subject. The heel FSR data for both the left and the right foot is as shown in Figure [7.1.](#page-36-1)

<span id="page-36-1"></span>

Figure 7.1. Data from the Heel FSRs of both feet.

An FSR value changes in response to applied pressure. When no pressure is applied, the sensor exhibits very high resistance, often exceeding  $1\text{M}\Omega$ , effectively reading as infinite. As pressure increases on the sensor's surface, the resistance between its terminals decreases. Conversely, when the pressure is removed, the resistance returns to its initial high value. In Figure [7.1,](#page-36-1) each instance of zero value for either of the feet indicates a step taken. It can be observed that the left foot (blue), took four steps to cover the distance set in the experiment. The right foot (orange) took five steps. It can also be observed that when one of the foot is on the ground (resistance is zero), the other foot is off ground (resistance is non-zero), with slight overlaps of zero values indicating the heel strike phase of the gait cycle.

We now average the data in a way to find the heel strike instances for both feet. From Figure [7.2](#page-37-0) it is clear that the heel strikes for both feet are at regular intervals (∼1.3 seconds), another indication of normal gait.

<span id="page-37-0"></span>

Figure 7.2. (a) The left foot heel strike instances. (b) The right foot heel strike instances.

We shall now analyse the IMU data. According to the gait cycle as shown in Figure [3.1,](#page-19-2) we should ideally observe increasing acceleration in the heel-strike and loading response phases, constant velocity (or zero acceleration) in the mid-stance phase and deceleration or reducing acceleration in the terminal stance and pre-swing phases. Refer to Figure [7.3](#page-38-0) to see the plot of the raw acceleration data obtained from the IMU in all three directions just for the left foot.

We observe the increasing accelerations right after the spikes which indicate the heel-

<span id="page-38-0"></span>

Figure 7.3. Raw IMU Acceleration Data in X, Y and Z directions.

strike event. A period of almost no acceleration (nearly flat graph) is observed after, indicating the mid-stance phase. Reducing acceleration is followed indicating the toe off phase as we had expected. The spikes represent the number of steps taken by the subject. Since the subject is performing the experiment by walking in the global Z-direction, higher acceleration is observed in that direction. Due to the cyclic motion of the foot during the gait cycle, we also observe slight accelerations in the Y and small difts in the X-directions. The raw data, as expected, is heavily noisy. Post processing algorithms using the previously mentioned Madgwick Filter were employed. The Madgwick filter accounts for the IMU accelerometer, gyroscope and magnetometer readings and outputs the relative rotation of the IMU with respect to the global coordinate system. Figure [7.4](#page-39-0) shows us the angle by which the IMU accelerometer data needs to be rotated in order to match up with the global coordinates.

We then integrate and obtain the displacement in each direction (Figure [7.5\)](#page-39-1).

As expected, the displacement in the Z-direction is steadily increasing. In the Y-direction, small bumps can be observed. This is due to the cyclic motion of the shank during gait. Very

<span id="page-39-0"></span>

<span id="page-39-1"></span>Figure 7.4. IMU orientation with respect to global axes.



Figure 7.5. Displacements in X, Y and Z directions.

slight variations are observed along the X-direction due to small drifts. These displacement values now enable us to obtain other parameters - step length and stride length.

## <span id="page-40-0"></span>Chapter 8

## **Discussions**

### <span id="page-40-1"></span>8.1 Gait Parameters Obtained

From the FSR and IMU data, the following gait parameters have been obtained (Refer Table [8.1\)](#page-40-2),

<span id="page-40-2"></span>Table 8.1. Summary of Gait Parameters

<b>Gait Parameter</b>	<b>Value</b>
Time of stance phase	2s
Time of swing phase	0.5s
Number of steps taken	9
Total time of stride	2.5s
Cadence	216 steps/min [89]
Step Length	0.44m
Stride Length	0.9 <sub>m</sub>

From the FSR readings, it is clear that the time between two consecutive heel strikes will give us the time the foot spent in just the stance phase. Similarly, we can also extract the time the foot spent in the swing phase.

From Figure [7.2,](#page-37-0) it is apparent that a total of nine steps were taken in this study - four by the left foot and five by the right foot.

The total time of one stride is nothing but the time spent in the swing and stance phases of that one stride. From the previously obtained data, we can conclude that the time of one stride of one foot is 2.5s.

Cadence is defined as the number os steps taken per minute. Since 9 steps were taken in a span of 2.5 seconds, we get a cadence value of 216 steps/min. The normal cadence value range for adults between the ages 20-41 years old is 130-230 steps/min. This indicates a normal gait.

The step length, defined as the distance between two consecutive heel strikes of opposite feet, and the stride length, defined as the distance between two consecutive heel strikes of the same feet, is obtained from the IMU data displacement values.

### <span id="page-41-0"></span>8.2 Future Scope

For future work on this thesis project, several avenues are proposed to enhance the accuracy and applicability of the current gait analysis methodology. One pivotal strategy involves the implementation of more robust filtering methods, such as Zero Update Velocity, Extended Madgwick Filter, and Extended Kalman Filter. These advanced techniques are crucial for effectively eliminating drifts in IMU readings, thus improving the precision of gait data capture and analysis.

Furthermore, expanding the participant pool is essential. Conducting a study that includes a larger number of healthy individuals alongside amputees will allow for a comprehensive comparison report. This broader data set will provide deeper insights into gait variations and help refine analysis techniques, benefiting both diagnostics and treatment planning.

To further enhance the detail and scope of gait analysis, the inclusion of additional gait parameters—both spatial and kinematic—is suggested. This expansion will allow for a more nuanced understanding of gait mechanics and contribute to more tailored rehabilitation strategies.

Collaboration with prosthetists is also recommended to facilitate a more informed analysis of gait parameters. Such partnerships will bridge the gap between theoretical research and practical implementation, providing critical insights that can lead to improvements in prosthetic design and functionality.

Lastly, there is a significant opportunity to advance the technology by reducing the size of

the gait analysis module. Smaller, more compact modules will be less obtrusive for participants, potentially increasing the usability of the system in everyday settings and enhancing the comfort of the users.

Together, these steps will drive forward the capabilities and impact of gait analysis, making it an even more effective tool for clinicians and patients alike.

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