

1 **The Effects of Long-Term Muscle Disuse on Neuromuscular**
2 **Function in Unilateral Transtibial Amputees**

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New Findings

21 *What is the central question of this study?*

22 The effects of long-term muscle disuse on neuromuscular function are unclear because
23 disuse studies are typically short-term. This study used a novel model (unilateral transtibial
24 amputees) to investigate the effects of long-term disuse on quadriceps neuromuscular
25 function.

26 *What is the main finding and its importance?*

27 Kinetic analysis (knee extension moments during gait) indicated habitual disuse of the
28 amputated limb quadriceps, accompanied by lower quadriceps muscle strength (60-76%)
29 and neural activation (32-44%), slower contractile properties, and altered muscle
30 architecture in the amputated limb, which could not be predicted from short-term disuse
31 studies.

32

Abstract

33 The purpose of this study was to determine: (1) whether individuals with unilateral transtibial
34 amputations (ITTAs), who habitually disuse the quadriceps muscles of their amputated limb,
35 provide an effective model for assessing the effects of long-term muscle disuse; and (2) the
36 effects of such disuse on quadriceps muscle strength and neuromuscular function in this
37 population. Nine ITTAs and nine controls performed isometric voluntary knee extensions in
38 both limbs to assess maximal voluntary torque (MVT) and rate of torque development
39 (RTD). The interpolated twitch technique and EMG normalised to maximal M-wave
40 assessed neural activation, involuntary (twitch and octet) contractions assessed intrinsic
41 contractile properties, and ultrasound images of the vastus lateralis assessed muscle
42 architecture. Clinical gait analysis was used to measure knee kinetic data during walking at
43 an habitual speed. ITTAs displayed 54-60% lower peak knee extensor moments during
44 walking in the amputated than intact/control limbs, but the intact and control limbs were
45 comparable for loading during walking and muscle strength variables, suggesting the intact
46 limb provides a suitable internal control for comparison to the disused amputated limb. MVT
47 and RTD were ~60% and ~75% lower, respectively, in the amputated than intact/control
48 limbs. The differences in MVT appeared associated with ~40% and ~43% lower muscle
49 thickness and neural activation, respectively, whilst the differences in RTD appeared
50 associated with the decline in MVT coupled with slowing of the intrinsic contractile
51 properties. These results indicate considerable changes in strength and neuromuscular
52 function with long-term disuse, that could not be predicted from short-term disuse studies.

53 **Introduction**

54 Prolonged disuse of skeletal muscle poses a considerable threat to neuromuscular
55 functional capacity and health (Narici & de Boer 2011). Just nine days of disuse causes
56 considerable reductions in muscle strength, typically measured as maximum voluntary
57 torque (MVT; Rozier et al. 1979) or rate of torque development during contractions
58 performed from rest (RTD; Bamman et al. 1998). The knee extensor (quadriceps) muscles
59 are particularly susceptible to degenerative changes resulting from disuse owing to their
60 large contributions to locomotion, and so are frequently investigated in typical study models
61 of disuse including spaceflight, unilateral lower-limb suspension (ULLS), limb immobilisation,
62 bed rest, and immobilisation during intensive care following surgery (Narici & de Boer 2011).
63 Studies show reductions in quadriceps MVT of approximately 2% per day for the first ten
64 days (Berg & Tesch 1996, Puthuchear et al. 2017, Rozier et al. 1979), slowing to ~1% per
65 week for up to 30 days, with an eventual plateau resulting in average strength losses of
66 around 23% after 120 days of disuse (Dirks et al. 2016, Horstman et al. 2012, Narici & de
67 Boer 2011). The effects of disuse on RTD have not been widely studied, yet RTD may be a
68 more functionally relevant than MVT during rapid human movements such as recovering
69 from a trip or loss of balance (Pijnappels et al. 2008, Behan, Pain & Folland 2018). Long-
70 term muscle disuse is a default position for many clinical populations (Brown et al. 2004) and
71 the sedentary, yet it is unclear how both MVT and RTD change with long-term, habitual
72 disuse, as typical disuse study models last <90-120 days for logistical and ethical reasons.

73 Individuals with unilateral transtibial amputations (ITTAs, below-knee amputation on one
74 limb) may provide a useful model for studying the effects of long-term, habitual disuse.
75 ITTAs adopt an asymmetrical loading pattern characterised by considerably lower vertical
76 ground reaction forces (vGRF) and knee extensor moments on the amputated compared to
77 the intact limb, during movements such as walking (Fey & Neptune 2012), jumping
78 (Schoeman, Diss & Strike 2012), and stair ascent/descent (Schmalz, Blumentritt & Marx
79 2007). This suggests the quadriceps of the amputated limb in ITTAs are chronically disused,

80 which would explain observations of considerably lower (~50%) quadriceps MVT (Isakov et
81 al. 1996, Lloyd et al. 2010, Pedrinelli et al. 2002) and size (Moirenfeld et al. 2000) in the
82 amputated, compared to the intact and control limbs. Comparison of quadriceps
83 neuromuscular function in the amputated vs. intact limb of ITTAs, coupled with comparison
84 of limb loading during gait as an estimation of typical use, may therefore offer new insight
85 into the long-term effects of habitual disuse. However, currently it is unclear whether the
86 intact limb provides an internal control that is unaffected by the amputation and comparable
87 to the limb of an able-bodied control, which would support the efficacy of ITTAs as a study
88 model of long-term disuse. Despite similar peak vGRF and knee moments during walking
89 gait (Lloyd et al. 2010, Nolan et al. 2003, Sanderson & Martin 1997), previous studies in
90 ITTAs have shown lower MVT in the intact limb compared to able-bodied participant limbs
91 (Isakov et al. 1996, Lloyd et al. 2010, Pedrinelli et al. 2002, Powers et al. 1996). However,
92 the latter studies did not control for other factors known to independently affect muscle
93 strength between the groups such as ageing, health, and sedentary lifestyle (Narici & de
94 Boer 2011, Sacchetti et al. 2013).

95 Six studies (Isakov et al. 1996, Lloyd et al. 2010, Moirenfeld et al. 2000, Pedrinelli et al.
96 2002, Powers et al. 1996, Renstrom et al. 1983) have previously measured quadriceps MVT
97 in ITTAs, and none have assessed the changes in RTD in this population. Furthermore, the
98 neuromuscular mechanisms of the considerable strength loss in the amputated limb of
99 ITTAs have not been investigated. Neural activation, assessed via electromyography (EMG)
100 amplitude or the interpolated twitch technique, is considered an important determinant of
101 both MVT and RTD (Balshaw et al. 2016, Folland, Buckthorpe & Hannah 2014, Tillin, Pain &
102 Folland 2011). However, evidence for changes in neural drive with short-term (≤ 89 days)
103 disuse are equivocal with some studies reporting a decrease (Narici & de Boer 2011,
104 Lambertz et al. 2001) and others no change (de Boer et al. 2007, Campbell et al. 2013).
105 RTD also appears to be determined by the intrinsic contractile-speed properties of the
106 muscle, such as RTD relative to peak torque recorded during electrically evoked-involuntary

107 contractions (e.g. twitch or octets; Folland et al., 2014), and short-term disuse causes a shift
108 towards faster contractile properties (Lambertz et al. 2001). Finally, the maximum force
109 generating potential of a muscle is dependent upon its architecture (Blazevich et al. 2009),
110 and just 21-30 days of disuse have elicited changes such as declines in muscle size ($\leq 10\%$),
111 pennation angle ($\leq 13\%$), and fascicle length ($\leq 9\%$; de Boer et al. 2007, Campbell et al.
112 2013). Determining the degree of change in these neuromuscular determinants of muscle
113 strength with long-term habitual disuse may allow better targeting of preventative and
114 rehabilitative interventions for populations subject to muscle disuse.

115 The first aim of this study was to assess the efficacy of unilateral ITTAs as a model to study
116 long-term habitual disuse, by comparing knee-extensor strength (MVT and RTD) and
117 loading (knee extensor moments and impulse) during walking gait of the intact limb with a
118 control able-bodied population, where both groups are healthy, young, and active. The
119 second aim was to assess MVT and RTD, and the neuromuscular determinants of these
120 (neural drive; intrinsic contractile properties; and vastus lateralis muscle architecture) in the
121 disused quadriceps muscles of ITTAs, in comparison to both the intact and an able-bodied
122 control limb.

123 **Methods**

124 Ethical Approval

125 Participants provided written informed consent prior to their involvement in the study, which
126 complied with the standards set by the 2013 Declaration of Helsinki (except for registration
127 in a database) and was approved by the University of Roehampton Ethics Committee (LSC
128 16/176) and the NHS Health Research Authority (17/NW/0566).

129 Participants

130 Nine male ITTAs and nine male controls took part in this study. Prior to data analysis,
131 groups were matched to ensure similar group means and variability in age, height, body

132 mass, and physical activity. Physical activity was assessed using the International Physical
133 Activity Questionnaire (Short Format, <http://ipaq.ki.se/downloads.htm>). ITTAs were included
134 if they had a unilateral transtibial amputation performed >6 months prior to involvement in
135 the study, to ensure established ambulation and long-term disuse in the residual limb. ITTAs
136 were excluded if they experienced any discomfort in the residual limb whilst using their
137 prosthesis, and/ or if their amputation occurred due to congenital disorders, or complications
138 arising from metabolic or vascular conditions (e.g. diabetes). Exclusion criteria for both
139 groups included cardiovascular disease risk factors or neuro-musculoskeletal injuries (other
140 than a transtibial amputation in the ITTAs).

141 Overview

142 Participants visited the laboratory on three separate occasions, with each visit 3-7 days
143 apart, to complete a familiarisation (visit 1; identical to visit 2), neuromuscular function
144 assessment of the quadriceps muscles of both limbs (visit 2), and a gait assessment (visit
145 3). Limb order for neuromuscular assessment was randomised. All three sessions
146 commenced at a consistent time (± 2 hours) of day for each participant, following at least 36
147 hours without strenuous exercise, and 24 hours without alcohol.

148 Experimental Setup and Measurements

149 *Knee Extension Torque*

150 Isometric strength data were collected using an isokinetic dynamometer (Humac Norm,
151 Computer Sports Medicine Inc., Massachusetts, USA). Participants were seated with a hip
152 angle of 100° (full extension = 180°) and with adjustable straps across the pelvis and
153 shoulders tightened to ensure no extraneous movement. The knee joint angle was set so
154 that the angle during active extension was 110° . Some basic modifications were made to
155 minimise knee joint angle changes during isometric contractions, including the use of a
156 dense foam padding on the seat and limb attachment, and a custom-made lower limb

157 attachment which could be tightly clamped to the crank arm to remove unnecessary rotation
158 around the crank arm. In all participants, the limb attachment was placed as distal on the
159 tibia as anatomy and participant comfort permitted. For the amputated limb, the crank arm
160 was flipped by 180° to account for the shorter residual tibia.

161 The analogue torque signal was sampled at 2000 Hz using an external A/D converter (16-bit
162 signal recording resolution; Micro 1401, CED, Cambridge, UK) and interfaced with a PC
163 using Spike 2 software (version 8; CED). Off-line, torque was filtered using a fourth-order
164 low pass Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 10 Hz and corrected for the passive
165 weight of the limb.

166 *Electromyography (EMG)*

167 Electromyography signals were recorded from the superficial knee extensors (rectus femoris
168 [RF], vastus medialis [VM], vastus lateralis [VL]) using a Noraxon TeleMyo Desktop DTS
169 System (Noraxon, Arizona, USA). The skin was prepared by shaving, abrading and
170 cleansing with 70% alcohol. Bipolar Ag/Ag/Cl surface electrodes (2 cm inter-electrode
171 distance, Noraxon) were attached over the belly of each muscle at SENIAM recommended
172 recording sites (Stegeman & Hermans, 2007), parallel to the presumed orientation of the
173 muscle fibres. The raw EMG signals were wirelessly transmitted (Wireless Research EMG
174 Probes, Part 542, Noraxon) to a receiver (Desktop DTS, Part 586, Noraxon), amplified x500,
175 sampled at 2000 Hz in synch with torque via the same A/D converter and PC software, and
176 band-pass filtered off-line between 6 and 500 Hz using a fourth-order zero-lag Butterworth
177 filter.

178 *Muscle Architecture*

179 A static ultrasound image (Hitachi Noblus, Hitachi Medical Systems, UK) of the VL was
180 taken using a linear array probe with a 94 mm scan width (HI VISION L53L, Hitachi Medical
181 Systems, UK). The image was taken prior to any other measurements whilst the participant

182 was seated in the dynamometer at rest, and with a joint angle of 100° (where 180° is full
183 knee extension). The probe was placed perpendicular to the skin surface, over the thickest
184 part of the belly of the VL, at 50% of the line between the greater trochanter and the knee
185 joint centre, and aligned so that the muscle fascicles of the VL and their insertion into the
186 deep aponeurosis were clearly visible.

187 Muscle thickness, pennation angle and fascicle length (Figure 1) were determined from the
188 still images offline using Tracker software (an open source Video Analysis Tool, available
189 from <http://physlets.org/tracker/>). Muscle thickness was defined as the mean distance
190 between the deep and superficial aponeuroses at three points: at the middle and either end
191 of the image. Pennation angle was defined as the mean of the angle between three separate
192 muscle fascicles and their insertion on the deep aponeurosis. Fascicle length was
193 extrapolated from the pennation angle and muscle thickness using trigonometry (de Brito
194 Fontana, Roesler & Herzog 2014, Franchi et al. 2014, Tillin, Pain & Folland 2012), as the
195 entire length of the fascicle was not visible in the image. Between-session reliability of
196 muscle architecture measures was assessed in a pilot study of eight able-bodied controls
197 using the same methods as described above. Coefficient of Variation (CV) was 4.4%, 10.9%
198 and 9.3% for muscle thickness, fascicle length, and pennation angle, respectively.

199 *Electrical Stimulation*

200 Square wave (0.2 ms duration) electrical impulses were delivered percutaneously to the
201 femoral nerve, via a constant current variable voltage stimulator (Model DS7AH, Digitimer,
202 Ltd, Welwyn Garden City, UK), to evoke supramaximal twitch, doublet and octet contractions
203 of the knee extensors. The cathode stimulation probe (1 cm diameter, protruding 2 cm from
204 a plastic base, Electro Medical Supplies, Wantage UK) was firmly pressed into the femoral
205 triangle in the position that evoked the greatest twitch response for a submaximal (30–60
206 mA) electrical current. The anode (10 x 7 cm carbon rubber electrode) was taped in place
207 over the greater trochanter. Single impulses were delivered with step-wise increments in the

208 current, separated by 15 s, until a plateau in the amplitude of twitch torque and compound
209 muscle action potentials (M-waves) were reached. The stimulus intensity was then
210 increased by 20% to ensure supramaximal stimulation, and three supramaximal twitch
211 contractions, separated by 20 s, were delivered. The current was reduced prior to
212 commencing the octet contractions (eight pulses at 300 Hz), and stepwise increments in the
213 current were delivered 15 s apart until the supramaximal current used for twitch contractions
214 was attained. Subsequently, three supramaximal octet contractions were evoked.

215 The mean M-wave peak-to-peak amplitude of the three supramaximal twitch contractions
216 was defined as the maximal M-wave (M_{max}) for each muscle. Torque measurements from the
217 evoked contractions were twitch and octet peak torque (PT) and peak RTD (calculated using
218 a 15 ms moving time window) presented as absolute and relative to PT. These variables
219 were averaged across the three supra-maximal twitch and octet contractions recorded.

220 *Knee Extension MVCs*

221 Participants performed a series of ~20 warm-up contractions of 3-s duration at progressively
222 higher intensities before completing six maximum voluntary contractions (MVCs). Each MVC
223 lasted 3-5 s and was followed by 30-60 s rest. Participants were instructed to push 'as hard
224 as possible' and strong verbal encouragement was given throughout the contractions. Real-
225 time biofeedback of torque output was provided on a computer monitor in front of
226 participants. MVT was defined as the greatest instantaneous peak voluntary torque (not due
227 to superimposed stimulation) recorded during any of the MVCs or explosive contractions.

228 *Explosive Voluntary Contractions*

229 Participants completed 10-15 explosive isometric contractions, each separated by 20 s rest,
230 utilising the method described by Folland, Buckthorpe & Hannah (2014). Three explosive
231 voluntary contractions were chosen for analysis and all dependent variables assessed were
232 averaged across these three explosive contractions. The three contractions were chosen as

233 those with the highest peak RTD, peak torque >80% MVT, and no visible countermovement
234 or pre-tension (quantified as change of baseline torque <0.5 Nm during the 100 ms prior to
235 visible torque onset) were used for analysis. Peak RTD was extracted and expressed as
236 both an absolute and relative to MVT.

237 To assess neural drive during the explosive contractions, the RMS amplitude of the EMG
238 signal for each quadriceps muscle was calculated for the time period 0-100 ms from EMG
239 onset (EMG_{0-100}), and normalised to M_{max} at the same muscle before averaging across the
240 three quadriceps muscles. EMG onsets, defined as the onset of the first muscle to be
241 activated, were identified with a standardised systematic protocol of visual identification
242 (Tillin et al. 2010).

243 *Voluntary Activation*

244 The 2nd, 4th, and 6th MVCs had a single doublet superimposed at the plateau of the torque-
245 time curve, and two further doublets evoked at rest immediately after the MVC. The
246 difference between superimposed and resting potentiated doublet torque was used to VA (a
247 measure of neural drive at MVT), using the equation:

$$VA(\%) = 100 \times (1 - D_s/D_c)$$

248 (1)

249 where D_s and D_c are the superimposed and control doublets, respectively.

250 The root mean square (RMS) of the EMG signal for each quadriceps muscle was calculated
251 over the 500 ms window centred on or nearest to MVT, which was not influenced by
252 stimulation artefact (EMG_{MVT}). EMG_{MVT} was normalised to M_{max} of the same muscle and
253 averaged across the three quadriceps muscles.

254 *Walking Gait*

255 Kinematic data were collected using twelve Vicon Vantage V5 (Vicon Motion Systems Ltd.;
256 Oxford, UK) motion capture cameras sampling at 200 Hz synced with three in-series Kistler
257 force plates (Type 9281c; Kistler Instruments Ltd., Hampshire, UK) in the middle of a 15 m
258 walkway sampling force data at 1000 Hz. Two sets of Brower TC timing gates (Brower
259 Timing, Utah, USA) placed 2 m either side of the force plates were used to capture average
260 walking pace. Retroreflective markers (14 mm diameter) were placed on the skin according
261 to the Plug-In-Gait lower-body marker set. Markers for the shank, ankle and foot were
262 placed in positions on the prosthetic corresponding as closely as possible to those on the
263 intact limb.

264 Data collection involved participants walking along the 15 m walkway at a self-selected,
265 habitual pace. Average walking pace was determined in preliminary trials by allowing
266 participants to walk up and down the walkway until speed stabilised. Three 'good' trials,
267 defined as a single pass with a successful force plate strike, walking speed within $\pm 5\%$ of
268 average, and no gaps in marker data greater than 40 frames, were selected for analysis for
269 each limb. Data were processed in Vicon Nexus 2.7.1. Raw marker trajectories and
270 analogue force data were filtered using a low-pass zero-lag fourth-order Butterworth filter, at
271 cut-off frequencies of 8 and 200 Hz respectively. Standard inverse dynamics techniques
272 were used to calculate net internal joint moments, normalised by body mass (Winter and
273 Sienko 1988).

274 Internal peak knee extension moment and total impulse (calculated as the integral of internal
275 knee extension moment with respect to time) for the entire stance phase were extracted for
276 each limb and averaged across the trials selected for analysis.

277 Statistical Analysis

278 Paired t-tests revealed no differences in either MVT or peak RTD between dominant vs.
279 non-dominant (MVT: $p = 0.775$, $g = 0.07$; RTD: $p = 0.237$, $g = 0.43$) limbs in the control
280 group, where the dominant limb was defined as the one in which the participant would favour

281 to kick a ball. Thus, each dependent variable was averaged between the dominant and non-
282 dominant limbs in the control group, and comparisons are made between the mean of the
283 control limbs (CON) vs the amputated limb of ITTAs (AMP) vs the intact limb (INT).

284 Levene's test was used to check for equality of variances prior to running all analyses. A
285 one-way mixed design ANOVA was used to analyse the influence of limb (AMP vs. INT vs.
286 CON) on each dependent variable. In the instance of a main effect for any of the ANOVAs,
287 post-hoc Bonferroni corrected t-tests (paired t-tests for AMP vs. INT, and independent t-tests
288 for AMP or INT vs. CON) were used for paired comparisons. Effect size, Hedges g , was
289 calculated for paired comparisons, and interpreted as small (0.2-0.5), medium (0.5-0.8) and
290 large effects (>0.8). Statistical analysis was completed using SPSS version 24, and the
291 significance level was set at $p < 0.05$. Data are reported as mean \pm standard deviation (SD),
292 with absolute percentage difference in values between each condition.

293 **Results**

294 Due to an injury to one ITTA occurring between visits 2 and 3 (neuromuscular and gait
295 assessment) data are for 9 and 8 ITTAs, respectively. One control withdrew from octet and
296 doublet stimulation, so control data for VA and octet variables are presented for 8 controls,
297 but all other variables are for 9 controls. The groups had similar age, height, body mass and
298 physical activity scores ($p \geq 0.354$; $g = 0.10-0.64$; Table 1). There was a large effect size for
299 the controls to walk faster ($g = 1.21$), although this difference was not statistically significant
300 ($p = 0.616$; Table 1).

301 Muscle Architecture

302 There was no main effect ($p = 0.226$) of limb on pennation angle (Table 2). However, muscle
303 thickness in AMP was lower than both INT (-41%, $p = 0.030$, $g = 1.78$) and CON (-38%, $p =$
304 0.002 , $g = 1.58$; Figure 1), but similar between INT and CON ($p = 1.000$, $g = 0.23$; Table 2).

305 Fascicle length was shorter in AMP than INT (-36%, $p < 0.001$, $g = 0.95$), but similar
306 between AMP and CON ($p = 0.187$; $g = 0.50$), and INT and CON ($p = 1.000$; $g = 0.49$).

307 Contractile Properties

308 PT and absolute RTD in both the twitch and octet (Table 2) were lower in AMP than both
309 INT and CON (-72% to -50%, $p = 0.001-0.004$, $g = 1.97-2.84$), but similar between INT and
310 CON ($p \geq 0.284$, $g = 0.40-0.68$).

311 When expressed relative to PT, twitch RTD was 18% lower ($p = 0.006$, $g = 1.35$), and octet
312 RTD 25% lower ($p < 0.001$, $g = 2.60$) in AMP when compared to INT (Table 2). Relative
313 twitch and octet RTD were also both 14% lower in AMP compared to CON (twitch RTD: $p =$
314 0.036 , $g = 1.59$; octet RTD: $p = 0.037$, $g = 1.63$). Despite being statistically similar, there was
315 a large effect for relative octet RTD to be greater in INT than CON ($p = 0.120$, $g = 1.03$;
316 Table 2), whilst relative twitch RTD was similar between INT and CON ($p = 1.000$, $g = 0.18$).

317 Maximal and Voluntary Explosive Torque

318 MVT (both absolute and relative to body mass) was significantly lower in AMP compared to
319 both INT (~-60%, $p < 0.002$, $g = 1.74-1.97$) and CON (~-64%, $p < 0.001$, $g = 2.05-2.33$).
320 There were no differences between INT and CON in absolute ($p = 1.000$, $g = 0.35$) or
321 relative MVT ($p = 1.000$, $g = 0.28$; Figure 2A and C).

322 Absolute peak voluntary RTD (Figure 2B) was ~75% lower in AMP than INT ($p = 0.001$, $g =$
323 2.22), ~76% lower in AMP than CON ($p < 0.001$, $g = 2.36$), but similar between INT and
324 CON ($p = 1.000$, $g = 0.14$). Relative to MVT, peak RTD was significantly smaller in AMP
325 than INT (-43%, $p = 0.027$, $g = 1.37$) and CON (-39%, $p = 0.031$, $g = 1.09$), while INT and
326 CON were similar ($p = 1.000$, $g = 0.23$; Figure 2D).

327 Neural Drive

328 Both VA and RMS EMG_{MVT} (Table 2) were lower in AMP than INT (-44% for VA, $p < 0.001$, g
329 = 3.63; and -43% for EMG_{MVT}, $p < 0.001$, $g = 1.97$) and CON (-43% for VA, $p < 0.001$, $g =$
330 3.54; -32% for EMG_{MVT}, $p = 0.021$, $g = 1.23$), but similar between INT and CON ($p \geq 0.271$, g
331 = 0.14-0.70).

332 During the voluntary explosive contractions, there was no main effect of limb ($p = 0.304$) on
333 the amplitude of explosive RMS EMG₀₋₁₀₀ (Table 2). However, there was a moderate effect
334 for RMS EMG₀₋₁₀₀ to be greater in INT than AMP ($g = 0.75$), but only small to moderate
335 effects for other comparisons (AMP vs. CON, $g = 0.30$; INT vs. CON, $g=0.45$).

336 Knee Kinetics in Gait

337 Knee moments throughout stance are presented in Figure 3. Both absolute and relative
338 peak knee extensor moment during the stance phase of gait was significantly lower in the
339 AMP compared to INT (absolute -59%, $p = 0.011$, $g = 1.77$; BM -60%, $p = 0.005$, $g = 1.78$)
340 and CON (absolute -54%, $p = 0.005$, $g = 1.61$; BM -59%, $p = 0.006$, $g = 1.72$) limbs, but
341 similar between INT and CON ($p = 1.000$; $g = 0.05$ -0.14; Table 2). While there was no main
342 effect of limb on absolute or relative knee extensor moment impulse during stance ($p >$
343 0.069), there were medium to large effects for it to be lower in AMP than INT (-36%;
344 absolute $g = 0.99$, BM $g = 1.15$) and CON (-27%; absolute $g = 0.56$, BM $g = 0.90$),
345 respectively (Table 2).

346 **Discussion**

347 In this study, we compared quadriceps strength and neuromuscular function in the
348 amputated limb of ITTAs with their intact limb and a control group limb, providing a novel
349 model for studying the long-term (>1.5 years) effects of chronic disuse. Long-term disuse of
350 the amputated limb in ITTAs was evidenced from the ~60% lower peak knee extensor
351 moments during walking compared to the intact and control limbs. This disuse was
352 accompanied by ~60% lower MVT and ~75% lower RTD in the amputated limb, which are

353 much greater differences than may be predicted from short-term disuse studies. Declines in
354 MVT appeared to be largely due to reduced muscle size (evidenced by lower muscle
355 thickness in AMP) and neural drive (evidenced by lower VA and EMG_{MVT} in AMP). Declines
356 in RTD appeared to be due primarily to declines in MVT and a shift towards slower intrinsic
357 contractile properties, with neural drive in explosive contractions being unaffected in AMP.

358 ITTAs as a model for long-term disuse

359 In the current study, there were large effects for knee extensor kinetics during gait to be
360 lower in amputated than intact or control limbs which, coupled with the considerable
361 reductions in knee extensor strength in the amputated limb, suggests the amputated limb
362 undergoes substantially less habitual loading during ambulation. The reduced knee extensor
363 moments in gait may also be partly due to increased co-contraction at the knee on the
364 amputated limb during gait (Culham et al., 1986; Isakov et al., 2001). Future research should
365 therefore aim to quantify internal loading of the knee extensors for a more direct estimation
366 of disuse and its association with strength changes in the amputated limb. Consistent with
367 our results, previous studies have reported decreased knee moments (Powers, Rao & Perry,
368 1998, Winter & Sienko, 1988); powers (Powers, Rao & Perry, 1998, Winter & Sienko, 1988);
369 and work (Silverman & Neptune, 2012) on the amputated limb in walking. In contrast to
370 these previous studies however, the ITTAs of the current study were young, healthy, and
371 moderate-highly active. As a result, the effects of the evident disuse on strength and
372 neuromuscular function could be isolated from factors such as ageing, disease, and
373 sedentary behaviour, which are known to independently affect muscle strength and function
374 (Narici & de Boer 2011, Sacchetti et al. 2013).

375 The knee extensors of the intact limb in the ITTAs did not differ from those of an able-bodied
376 control population for kinetics during walking, MVT, RTD, or any of the neuromuscular
377 determinants of strength. This suggests that, for these parameters, the intact limb of the

378 ITTAs provides an ideal internal control for comparison to the amputated limb, from which to
379 draw conclusions about the effects of chronic disuse.

380 Changes in Strength

381 The declines in MVT found in the amputated limb compared to the intact limb (-59%) are
382 comparable to, albeit at the high end of, differences observed in previous amputee studies (-
383 33 to -57%; Isakov et al. 1996, Lloyd et al. 2010, Moirenfeld et al. 2000, Pedrinelli et al.
384 2002), but considerably greater than the reduction in strength typically observed after a
385 period of short-term disuse of up to 120 days (~23%; Narici & de Boer, 2011). Short-term
386 intervention studies suggest that MVT decreases exponentially over time following
387 unloading, plateauing out after ~90 days; however, the results of this study suggest the
388 strength declines with longer-term disuse are considerably more than could be predicted
389 from short-term intervention studies.

390 To the authors' knowledge, only two previous studies have investigated the effect of disuse
391 on voluntary RTD of the knee extensors, reporting 54% (Bamman et al. 1998) and 42% (de
392 Boer et al. 2007) decreases in RTD after 16 days of bed rest, and 23 days of ULLS,
393 respectively. The considerable reductions in peak RTD (-75%) in the amputated vs. intact
394 limb are important, as RTD is considered more functionally relevant than MVT, in many
395 sports-specific and daily tasks, such as sprinting, jumping, and balance recovery (Behan,
396 Pain & Folland 2018, Pijnappels et al. 2008, Tillin, Pain & Folland 2013).

397 When expressed relative to MVT, peak RTD was significantly reduced in the amputated
398 compared to the non-amputated limbs, although limb differences were considerably smaller
399 for relative than absolute peak RTD. Thus, the reduction in MVT appears to be a large
400 contributing factor to reduced absolute RTD in the amputated limb; however, this only
401 partially contributed to the reduction in peak RTD, which was likely also influenced by the
402 slowing of the contractile properties (discussed in more detail below).

403 Mechanisms of Strength Differences

404 *Neural Drive*

405 A broad suppression in neuromuscular activity at maximal force production – indicated by
406 reduced amputated limb VA (~44%) and EMG_{MVT} (~38%) compared to non-amputated limbs
407 – likely contributes to the reduction in amputated limb MVT. Whilst previous studies have
408 reported reduced quadriceps EMG amplitude (-16 to -35%; Alkner & Tesch 2004,
409 Deschenes et al. 2002) and VA (-7%; Kawakami et al. 2001), others have not observed
410 changes in these measurements (de Boer et al. 2007, Campbell et al. 2013, Horstman et al.
411 2012), following periods of disuse of up to 89 days. Thus, the large limb effects on VA and
412 EMG responses observed in the present study suggest that reductions in neural drive with
413 disuse become more pronounced and observable over time. Of note is the specificity of the
414 neural deficits in the ITTAs to the amputated limb. Evidence from unilateral injury and
415 training studies suggest a cross-over effect of neural function, in that neural drive
416 adaptations occur at the contralateral, as well as the injured/trained limb (Bogdanis et al.
417 2019, Tillin et al. 2011). In this study however, there was no evidence that reduced neural
418 drive on the amputated side had affected neural drive on the intact side, which was similar to
419 the control limb. Perhaps this is because ITTAs rely more on the intact limb for most
420 activities of daily living and exercise (e.g. Winter & Sienko 1988), which may negate any
421 cross-over effects of reduced neural drive from the amputated to the intact limb.

422 Despite the substantial differences between the amputated and non-amputated limbs
423 evident in neural drive during maximum force production, no such differences were observed
424 in this study in explosive-phase EMG amplitude (Table 2). This suggests that altered neural
425 drive does not explain the lower peak RTD in the amputated limb, which is interesting given
426 that neural drive is a key determinant of RTD (del Vecchio et al. 2019, Folland, Buckthorpe &
427 Hannah 2014). The large variability in EMG, even after normalisation to M_{max} (Buckthorpe et
428 al. 2012), greater variability in RTD compared to MVT (Folland, Buckthorpe & Hannah 2014,

429 Tillin, Pain & Folland 2013), and small sample sizes ($n = 9$ per limb) may have reduced the
430 chances of observing a significant effect. Alternatively, the amputated limb's role in
431 ambulation may explain the lack of differences in neural drive during the explosive
432 contractions. Specifically, whilst the knee extensors of the amputated limb experience
433 reduced load compared to the intact during ambulation, the amputated side does contribute
434 to stability and postural correction, for which RTD appears to be important (Behan, Pain &
435 Folland 2018). Thus, typical physical activity in the amputees may provide sufficient stimulus
436 to maintain the neural drive during short, rapid contractions, which typically underpins RTD.

437 *Muscle Architecture*

438 The VL muscle was 41% thinner in the amputated limb compared to the intact, which is a
439 larger difference than the declines in MRI and CT scanner measurements of muscle size (-3
440 to -18%) observed in short-term disuse studies (Alkner & Tesch 2004, Campbell et al. 2013,
441 de Boer et al. 2007, Dirks et al. 2016). Thus, similar to the changes observed for strength
442 and neural drive, reductions in muscle size with long-term disuse are much greater than
443 could be predicted from short-term disuse studies. Muscle size is considered an important
444 determinant of MVT (Blazevich et al. 2009), and thus the reduction in muscle thickness is
445 likely to contribute to the declines in both MVT, and by association RTD, in the amputated
446 limb.

447 Fascicle length was reduced by 36% in the amputated limb compared to the intact. Again,
448 this difference is considerably greater than the decline in knee extensor fascicle length (6-
449 9%) typically observed with short-term unloading (Campbell et al. 2013, de Boer et al. 2007).
450 ITTAs walk with a comparatively stiff knee joint on the amputated limb (Powers, Rao & Perry
451 1998, Winter & Sienko 1988), which would theoretically isolate loading to shorter fascicle
452 lengths, and limit the stimulus likely required to maintain longer fascicle lengths. Decreases
453 in fascicle length may reduce maximum shortening velocities and power (Blazevich & Sharp
454 2005), and shift the torque-angle relationship towards more extended knee positions

455 (Blazevich et al. 2009). Given our strength measurements were made at a typical plateau
456 region of the torque-angle relationship (Chow et al. 1999), a shift away from this region in
457 the amputated limb may have partly contributed to the observed differences in MVT and
458 RTD.

459 In contrast to the results of previous research which demonstrated decreases in pennation
460 angle during short periods of ULLS (de Boer et al. 2007, Campbell et al. 2013), our results
461 appear to suggest that pennation angle does not change with long-term disuse. In healthy
462 populations, angles of pennation of the VL muscle have been reported to be 6-27°
463 (Blazevich et al. 2006, Rutherford & Jones 1992); the pennation angle of all three limbs in
464 this study (~12-14°) falls within this range. This suggests that the structural re-modelling that
465 seems to take place in the early phases of disuse are not representative of long-term
466 adaptations. It is possible muscle thickness declines at a faster rate than fascicle length with
467 short term disuse, causing a decline in pennation angle; whilst over longer periods of disuse,
468 fascicle length reductions “catch-up” with muscle thickness loss, causing a return to baseline
469 pennation angle, but this hypothesis cannot be tested with our data.

470 *Intrinsic contractile properties*

471 The significant reductions in evoked (twitch and octet) contractile peak torque in the
472 amputated compared to the intact and control limbs (Table 2) are reflective of the reduced
473 capacity of the amputated limb knee extensors for torque production. These changes were
474 accompanied by reductions in RTD, both absolute and relative to peak torque, reflecting a
475 shift towards slower contractile properties in the intact limb. This is in contrast to the results
476 of short-term disuse studies in both healthy controls and pathological populations, which
477 have reported a shift towards faster contractile properties owing to a greater expression of
478 fast-contracting myosin-heavy-chain isoforms (MHC; Bamman et al. 1998, Kapchisky et al.
479 2018, Trappe et al. 2004). The results of the current study therefore provide novel evidence
480 that changes in intrinsic contractile properties with long-term disuse are more characteristic

481 of ageing muscle, which also displays a slowing of the contractile properties (Roos et al.
482 1999). This slowing may be due to preferential atrophy of type II muscle fibres, and
483 potentially also to an increased dominance of type I MHC in fibres co-expressing MHCs
484 commonly seen with old age (Lexell et al. 1988). The slower contractile properties in the
485 amputated limb likely contributed to the lower voluntary peak RTD also observed in the
486 amputated limb, as twitch and octet RTD are important determinants of voluntary RTD
487 (Folland, Buckthorpe & Hannah 2014).

488 **Conclusion**

489 This study was the first to utilise ITTAs as a novel study model to investigate the effects of
490 long-term muscle disuse on strength and neuromuscular function, in young, healthy, active
491 adults. Strength, neuromuscular function and loading during gait, of the intact limb of ITTAs
492 were comparable to a control able-bodied limb, suggesting the intact limb provides a suitable
493 internal control for comparison to the amputated limb for these parameters. The quadriceps
494 muscles of the amputated limb displayed considerably less habitual loading during gait, than
495 the intact side. This disuse of the amputated limb was accompanied by larger reductions in
496 MVT and RTD than could be predicted from short-term disuse studies. The reductions in
497 MVT were likely due to the declines in muscle size and neural drive, whilst the reductions in
498 RTD appeared due to the decline in MVT coupled with a slowing of the contractile
499 properties.

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682

683 **Author Contributions:** A.S., N.T., S.S. and S.M. conceived and designed the
684 research; A.S and S.M. performed experiments; A.S. analysed data; A.S. and N.T.
685 interpreted results of experiments; A.S. and N.T. drafted manuscript; A.S., N.T., S.S.
686 and S.M. edited and revised manuscript; all authors approved final version of the
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Tables

Table 1. Participant information. Data are mean \pm SD, and presented for n = 9 for both groups, except walking speed (n = 8 for ITTAs and n = 9 for controls). Cause of amputation was trauma for all ITTAs.

	ITTAs		Controls	
	Mean \pm SD	Range	Mean \pm SD	Range
Age (years)	40.3 \pm 8.5	24 – 48	38.6 \pm 6.3	27 – 46
Height (cm)	179 \pm 8.2	165 – 186	177 \pm 4.1	171 – 184
Body Mass (kg)	84.7 \pm 16.7	54.6 – 114	80.0 \pm 10.5	58.3 – 97.5
Activity Level (MET-min.week ⁻¹)	7890 \pm 6122	480 – 15918	5686 \pm 3256	2577 – 11817
Walking Speed (m.s ⁻¹)	1.34 \pm 0.16	1.05 – 1.61	1.51 \pm 0.10	1.34 – 1.71
Years since Amputation	12.2 \pm 11.5	1.5 – 29.0	-	-

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Table 2. Knee extensor kinetics and neuromuscular determinants of strength in the amputated (AMP) and intact (INT) limbs of unilateral transtibial amputees, and in an able-bodied control limb (CON). Data are presented as mean \pm SD for $n = 9$ (AMP and INT) and $n = 9$ (CON). Data in italics correspond to those variables where $n = 8$ due to participant withdrawal. Differences compared to AMP are denoted by * ($p < 0.05$) or ** ($p < 0.001$).

	AMP	INT	CON
Knee Extensor Kinetics			
Moment (Nm)	<i>26.1 \pm 13.3</i>	<i>65.4 \pm 38.1 *</i>	<i>57.0 \pm 13.7 *</i>
Moment _{BM} (Nm.kg ⁻¹)	<i>0.30 \pm 0.14</i>	<i>0.75 \pm 0.31 *</i>	<i>0.71 \pm 0.24 *</i>
Impulse (Nm·s)	<i>1.14 \pm 0.84</i>	<i>2.23 \pm 1.21</i>	<i>1.75 \pm 0.43</i>
Impulse _{BM} (Nm·s.kg ⁻¹)	<i>0.013 \pm 0.009</i>	<i>0.025 \pm 0.011</i>	<i>0.022 \pm 0.008</i>
Neural Drive			
Voluntary Activation (%)	<i>50.6 \pm 12.7</i>	<i>89.2 \pm 5.75 **</i>	<i>90.4 \pm 4.07 **</i>
RMS EMG _{MVT} (% M _{max})	<i>5.19 \pm 1.20</i>	<i>9.10 \pm 2.39 **</i>	<i>7.64 \pm 1.47 *</i>
Explosive RMS EMG ₀₋₁₀₀ (% M _{max})	<i>5.38 \pm 3.12</i>	<i>7.92 \pm 3.66</i>	<i>7.00 \pm 1.75</i>
Evoked Twitch			
PT (Nm)	<i>11.6 \pm 6.00</i>	<i>30.8 \pm 11.6 **</i>	<i>39.0 \pm 11.9 **</i>
Absolute RTD (Nm.s ⁻¹)	<i>223 \pm 171</i>	<i>650 \pm 247 **</i>	<i>808 \pm 243 **</i>
Relative RTD (PT.s ⁻¹)	<i>16.7 \pm 3.23</i>	<i>20.4 \pm 1.79 *</i>	<i>21.1 \pm 4.60 *</i>
Evoked Octet			
PT (Nm)	<i>47.1 \pm 31.2</i>	<i>94.5 \pm 32.3 **</i>	<i>116 \pm 28.0 **</i>
Absolute RTD (Nm.s ⁻¹)	<i>609 \pm 387</i>	<i>1647 \pm 541 **</i>	<i>1840 \pm 365 **</i>
Relative RTD (PT.s ⁻¹)	<i>13.3 \pm 1.62</i>	<i>17.7 \pm 1.66 **</i>	<i>16.0 \pm 1.43 *</i>
Muscle Architecture			
Muscle Thickness (mm)	<i>15.4 \pm 5.19</i>	<i>26.3 \pm 6.38 *</i>	<i>25.0 \pm 3.34 *</i>
Pennation Angle (°)	<i>12.0 \pm 1.66</i>	<i>13.9 \pm 3.79</i>	<i>13.7 \pm 1.46</i>
Fascicle Length (mm)	<i>73.8 \pm 23.2</i>	<i>117 \pm 50.8 **</i>	<i>96.5 \pm 14.8</i>

RTD, Rate of Torque Development; subscript BM, relative to body mass; subscript MVT, relative to Maximum Voluntary Torque; RMS EMG_{MVT}, root mean squared electromyography at MVT; RMS EMG₀₋₁₀₀, root mean squared electromyography from 0-100 ms of an explosive voluntary contraction; M_{max}, maximal M-wave; PT, peak torque.

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Figure Headings

701 Figure 1. Static B-mode ultrasound image of the Vastus Lateralis (VL) and Vastus
702 Intermedius (VI) muscles at rest for the amputated (AMP) and intact (INT) limb of one ITTA,
703 and one control limb (CON). Architectural measures taken included pennation angle (Θ)
704 relative to the deep aponeurosis and extrapolated fascicle length, which were each
705 determined from three fascicles; and muscle thickness, measured between the superficial
706 and deep aponeuroses at three separate points (the centre and either end of each image –
707 indicated by numbered circles in the middle image). Significant reduction in amputated limb
708 VL muscle thickness is evident, while similarities in pennation angle in all three limbs, and
709 muscle thickness between INT and CON, can clearly be seen.

710 Figure 2. Maximal voluntary torque (MVT) and absolute peak rate of torque development
711 (RTD) recorded during respective maximal and explosive voluntary isometric knee
712 extensions, in both the amputated (AMP, light grey) and intact (INT, dark grey) limbs of
713 unilateral transtibial amputees ($n = 9$), and an able-bodied control group (CON, striped; $n =$
714 9). Data are presented as mean \pm SD absolute values (A,B) and relative to body mass (C) or
715 MVT (D). Differences compared to AMP are indicated by * ($p < 0.05$) or ** ($p < 0.001$).

716 Figure 3. Sagittal plane knee moments during the stance phase of walking for the amputated
717 (AMP, light grey line) and intact (INT, dark grey line) limbs of unilateral transtibial amputees,
718 and of an able-bodied control limb (CON, dashed line). INT and CON display substantial
719 overlap. Joint moment is expressed as internal moment. Positive and negative values
720 indicate knee extension and flexion moments, respectively. Data are presented as mean \pm
721 SD for $n = 8$ (AMP and INT) and $n = 9$ (CON).





