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Non-rigid alignment pipeline applied to human gait signals acquired with optical motion capture systems and inertial sensors

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1 Non-rigid alignment pipeline applied to human gait  
 2 signals acquired with optical motion capture systems and  
 3 inertial sensors

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12 **Abstract**

13 An accurate gait characterization is fundamental for diagnosis and treatment  
 14 in both clinical and sportive fields. Although several devices allow such mea-  
 15 surements, the performance comparison between the acquired signals may be a  
 16 challenging task.

17 A novel pipeline for the accurate non-rigid alignment of gait signals is pro-  
 18 posed. In this paper, the measurements of Inertial Measurement Units (IMU)  
 19 and Optical Motion Capture Systems (OMCAP) are aligned using a modified  
 20 version of the Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) algorithm. The differences be-  
 21 tween the two acquisitions are evaluated using both global (RMSE, Correlation  
 22 Coefficient (CC)) and local (Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM)) metrics.

23 The method is applied to a data-set obtained measuring the gait of ten  
 24 healthy subjects walking on a treadmill at three different gait paces. Results  
 25 show a global bias between the signal acquisition of  $0.05^\circ$ .

26 Regarding the global metrics, a mean RMSE value of  $2.65^\circ$  ( $0.73^\circ$ ) and an  
 27 average CC value of 0.99 (0.01) were obtained. The SPM profile shows, in  
 28 each gait cycle phase, the percentage of cases when two curves are statistically  
 29 identical and reaches an average of 48% (22%).

30 *Keywords:* Inertial Measurement Units, Dynamic Time Warping, Statistical  
 31 Parametric Mapping, Optical Motion Capture Systems

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32 **1. Introduction**

33 Gait characterization is an essential part of both clinical evaluation (e.g.  
 34 neuro-musculoskeletal disorders (Paquet et al., 2003) and gait abnormalities  
 35 (Koller and Trimble, 1985)) and improvement of sport performance (Tao et al.,

2012). In particular, the knee motion can be acquired along three axes: flexion/extension, abduction/adduction and rotation (internal/external). Nevertheless, for straight walking and running motions, the amplitude of variation of the last two angles usually keeps confined inside a  $10^\circ$  range (Seel et al., 2014). Specifically, flexion/extension knee angle is commonly defined as the difference in inclination between the thigh and shank (Vanrenterghem et al., 2010).

Nowadays, optical motion capture systems (OMCAP) are the gold standard techniques for gait characterization. These systems use reflective spherical markers that are tracked by multiple video cameras from different angles in order to measure body movements. However, the main constraints of such systems are the need of experimental laboratories and complex experimental setup. To overcome these drawbacks, new measurement devices based on inertial measurement units (IMU) equipped with tri-axial accelerometers, gyroscopes and magnetometers, aroused in the market. However, they suffer some limitations: firstly, integrating the angular rates of the gyroscope results in an error drift in the measurement. In addition, it is difficult to place the sensors accurately on the joint axis (Seel et al., 2014).

The literature offers multiple studies in which the measurement error between OMCAP and IMU are evaluated (Seel et al., 2014). In (Takeda et al., 2009) the segment orientation is estimated from the translational and gravitational accelerations obtained by the gyroscope and accelerometer. In (Castañeda et al., 2017), an Euler-based fusion algorithm combining accelerations, angular velocities and magnetic signals is implemented to estimate the sensors orientation. In (Watanabe et al., 2011), uses a Kalman filter to estimate orientation from accelerometer and gyroscope signals. The latter methodology can also be improved taking profit of kinematic constraints of the joint, providing more accuracy (Cooper et al., 2009). Finally, in other studies, pre-calibration methods are utilized to perform the sensor-to-segment transformation (Favre et al., 2008; Noort et al., 2013).

Some clinical scenarios, require the comparison of time-series acquired from different kinematic systems. As an example, the gait pattern comparison before and after a surgical intervention (Knoll et al., 2004) is a common issue. In other cases, the classification of some pathology may require a comparison of the acquired signals against the reference curve of healthy subjects. Indeed, the temporal distortions that may be present in the compared signals, limit the clinic performance in diagnosis and treatment planning (Dobson et al., 2007). To overcome these problems, the acquired signals must be aligned in a common frame. Some authors, do not mention which alignment method was applied in their studies (Takeda et al., 2009; Watanabe et al., 2011; Noort et al., 2013). Others, decide to use rigid methods as initial synchronization, axis alignment or cross-correlation analysis (Favre et al., 2008; Cooper et al., 2009; Castañeda et al., 2017; Seel et al., 2014). When comparing two time series having the same length, if the phases of the signals are not aligned, the matching will not be locally reliable. In other fields or applications, non-rigid matching methods have been proposed. In (Sessa et al., 2013), A Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) algorithm is applied to align IMU and cameras signals in a robotic arm. In

82 (Zhou et al., 2014), DTW is used for human gesture tracking and recognition.

83 To quantify the differences between two signals, most of the studies in the  
84 gait analysis domain utilize global metric parameters such as average Root Mean  
85 Square Error (RMSE) to measure angular error and bias and/or Pearson's Cor-  
86 relation Coefficient (CC) to measure waveform similarities (Castañeda et al.,  
87 2017; Cooper et al., 2009; El-Gohary and McNames, 2015; Engelhard et al.,  
88 2015; Favre et al., 2008; Takeda et al., 2009; Seel et al., 2014). The main limi-  
89 tation of only using global metrics is that a small average error along the cycle  
90 may not reflect big local errors at some of the cycle phases. Previous studies  
91 highlighted the importance of indicating the portion of the gait cycle responsible  
92 for this difference (Deluzio et al., 1997). Studies in other biomechanical appli-  
93 cations introduce the use of local waveform similarity metric tools as Statistical  
94 Parametric Mapping (SPM) for providing a more detailed signal comparison  
95 (Robinson et al., 2015), (Pataky et al., 2008).

96 In order to properly compare IMU and OMCAP measurements, we propose  
97 to use, for the first time in the gait kinematic field, a pipeline allowing the non-  
98 rigid alignment of the signals based on the DTW algorithm. The metrics used  
99 in the valuation are the RMSE, the CC and the SPM which is introduced for  
100 the first time in the gait analysis field. In our experiments, ten healthy subjects  
101 were recorded while walking on a treadmill at three different gait paces.

## 102 2. Method

### 103 2.1. Experimental setup

#### 104 2.1.1. Material

105 In this study, two IMU sensors produced by DyCare® (Barcelona, Spain),  
106 having a sampling frequency of 104.2 Hz, were used for the measurements.  
107 Each sensor integrates tri-axis accelerometer, gyroscope and magnetometer. To  
108 obtain the joint angle, the raw signals are transformed into quaternions using a  
109 Madgwick-based fusion algorithm.

110 The OMCAP device consisted of a 3D system with eight infrared cam-  
111 eras having an image rate of 300 Hz (Proreflex Qualisys Motion Capture Sys-  
112 tem, Qualisys AB, Sweden). The movement of each participant was tracked  
113 with spherical reflective markers positioned according to a 6-Degrees-of-Freedom  
114 eight segment "Lower Limb and Trunk" (LLT) (Vanrenterghem et al., 2010)  
115 (Figure 1). All modeling and analysis were undertaken in Visual3D (Cmotion,  
116 Germantown, MD, USA) with segmented data based on Dempster's regression  
117 equations and using geometrical volumes to represent. For both OMCAP and  
118 IMU acquisitions, only the knee flexion/extension angle was selected and pro-  
119 cessed, considering the knee as a hinge joint.

120 To carry out the measurements, ten healthy subjects ( $27,3 \pm 9.3$  years;  $1.80$   
121  $\pm 0.10$  m;  $73.37 \pm 7.93$  Kg) were evaluated in a treadmill at three different gait  
122 paces (2km/h, 4km/h and 6km/h).

123 Following the same sensor placement proposed in other studies (Castañeda  
124 et al., 2017; Cooper et al., 2009; El-Gohary and McNames, 2015; Engelhard

125 et al., 2015; Favre et al., 2008; Seel et al., 2014), two IMU sensors were located  
 126 the thigh and shank using two cluster plates rigidly attached to the body using  
 127 straps. In the case of the OMCAP system, four spherical markers were located  
 128 on each cluster plate to ensure co-planar measurements, while the remaining  
 129 markers were placed on the knee and toes as shown in Figure 1.

130 The sensor setup utilized to measure the knee flexion-extension angle was  
 131 designed standing for simplicity. To avoid anatomical measurements or calibra-  
 132 tion movements as required in some studies (Donovan et al., 2007; Cutti et al.,  
 133 2010; Ferrari et al., 2010; Roetenberg et al., 2009), the reference sensor was  
 134 attached laterally to the leg, using the cluster plate to maintain it parallel to  
 135 the plane of movement, which is an assumption similar to (Favre et al., 2006).

136 Considering the approximation that such an assumption implies, an align-  
 137 ment between both sensors was performed to reduce the measurement error.  
 138 At the beginning of each trial, the couple of sensors were aligned by orienting  
 139 both quaternion to the same angle in space. The change of basis is obtained by  
 140 multiplying one of the two vectors by the conjugated quaternion that describes  
 141 the rotation between them. In such way, the relative translation between the  
 142 two sensors was always co-planar, reducing the assessment of out-of plane mea-  
 143 surements.

144 Both systems tracked the movement of the thigh and shank, measuring the  
 145 rotation angles along the three degree of freedom independently. The rotation  
 146 angles of the knee are defined considering the relative orientation of the shank  
 147 with respect to the local coordinate system of the thigh. Only the flexion-  
 148 extension plane was extracted and compared between systems, since it corre-  
 149 sponds to the plane with the maximum range of movement (Donovan et al.,  
 150 2007; Cutti et al., 2010; Ferrari et al., 2010; Roetenberg et al., 2009; Favre  
 151 et al., 2006).

152 The volunteers were asked to walk for 15-28 gait cycles depending on the  
 153 exercise speed in order to guarantee the repeatability of the measurement.

### 154 2.1.2. Alignment pipeline

155 The overall experimental design to compare IMU and OMCAP signals is  
 156 performed in three phases as follows (Figure 2-a):

- 157 1. Assessment of gait kinematic using OMCAP and IMU devices.
  - 158 (a) Ten volunteers were recorded while walking on a treadmill. From  
 159 these acquisitions, two data-sets corresponding to OMCAP and IMU  
 160 time-series are obtained.
  - 161 (b) Each pair of signals (OMCAP and IMU) are firstly separated in seg-  
 162 ments, belonging to separate gait cycles. Such a result is obtained  
 163 by identifying the minimum peaks of each repetition (Figure 2-b).
- 164 2. Signal non-rigid alignment:
  - 165 (a) For each signal all the segments were aligned to an average one using  
 166 the DTW algorithm. For each OMCAP and IMU signal acquisition,  
 167 an *average stride* cycle and its standard deviation profile are obtained  
 168 (Figure 2-c).

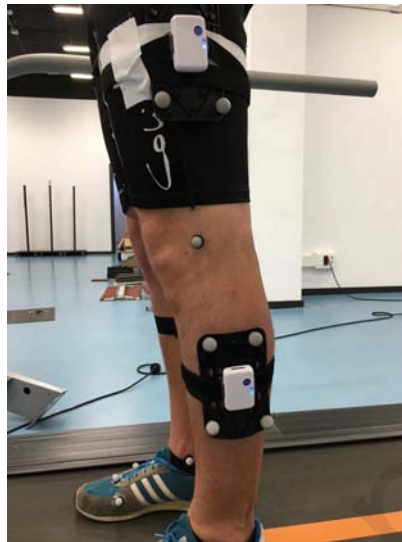
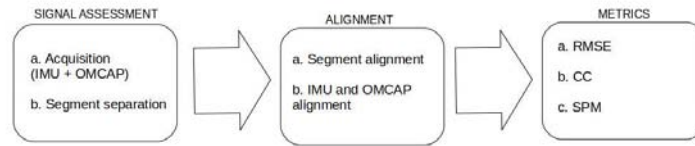


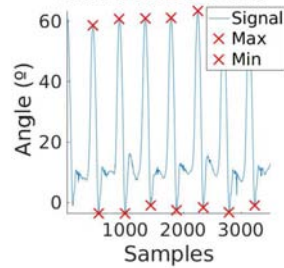
Figure 1: Illustration of the experimental set-up. IMU sensors (2 white boxes) and OMCAP markers (8 gray spheres) were located on the shank and thigh on two cluster plates. Additional spherical markers were also placed on the knee and toe joints.

- 169 (b) Since IMU and OMCAP *average* profiles are not in a common tem-  
170 poral frame, they are compared pair-wise using the DTW.  
171 (c) Such operations is repeated for each subject and speed acquisition  
172 (Figure 2-d (left)).  
173 3. Computation of metrics RMSE, CCa and SPM (Figure 2-d (right))

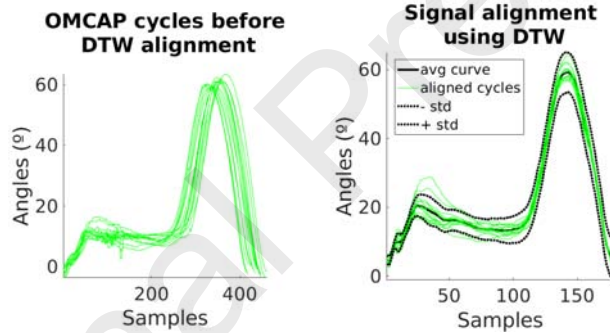


a)

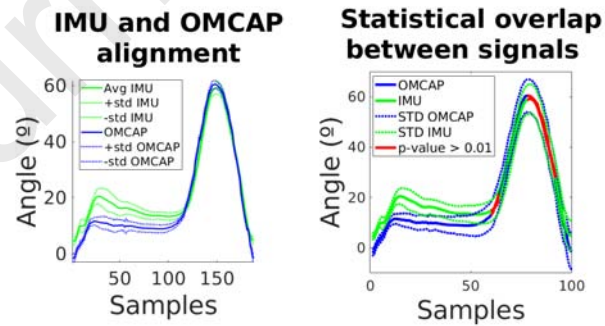
### Cycle segmentation via extrema detection



b)



c)



d)

Figure 2: a) General pipeline scheme. b) Stride segmentation by detecting the minimum of each cycle. Red crosses indicating the signal maximum and minimum are superimposed to the blue signal. c) Stride alignment obtained by DTW and average signal computation for each signal. Each gait cycle is represented by a green curve, while a black shape indicates the average curve (solid black) and the corresponding standard deviation (dotted black). d) Left. Alignment between IMU (green) and OMCAP (blue) signals obtained by DTW and example of a SPM assessment. In d) Right, the portion of the signal having statistically similar is depicted in red.

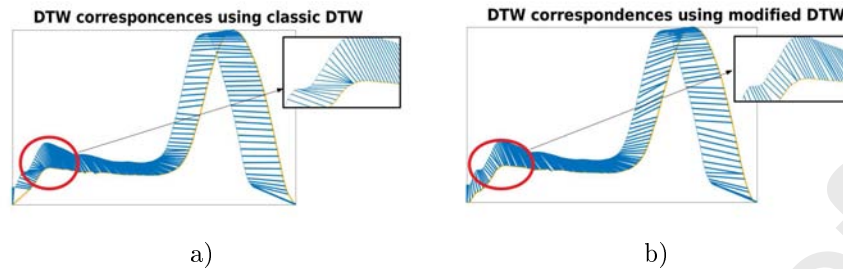


Figure 3: Comparison between correspondences generated by classical and improved DTW respectively. As it can be appreciated, the improved DTW allows obtaining a smoother matching between the samples.

### 174 2.2. Non-rigid alignment strategy

175 The DTW is a technique allowing the point-wise synchronization between  
 176 the samples. The algorithm computes a local cost similarity between the  
 177 two signals (of  $n$  and  $m$  the lengths), leading to a cost matrix ( $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ). A  
 178 warping between the signal is obtained from an accumulated matrix  $AC$  in a  
 179 non-rigid fashion. The classical implementation of the DTW (see (Keogh and  
 180 Ratanamahatana, 2005)) allows the local alignment but it doesn't guarantee  
 181 the smoothness and continuity of the synchronization. For instance, multiple  
 182 correspondences of a single point might appear leading to a non-physiologic  
 183 behavior (Figure 3-a). In order to improve the DTW algorithm performance,  
 184 in this specific gait analysis, the following modifications are implemented:

185 **Kernel:** The computation of each element of  $AC$  is obtained using an improved  
 186 kernel proposed in (Müller, 2007). Such change, allows to reduce dupli-  
 187 cated correspondences between samples.

$$AC(i, j) = C(i, j) + \min\{C(i-1, j-1), C(i-1, j-2), C(i-2, j-1)\} \quad (1)$$

188 **Smoothing:** Once computed, the warping path is also smoothed using a Gaus-  
 189 sian kernel. This operation reduces the number of consecutive vertical  
 190 or horizontal samples of the warping path. Figure 3 illustrate how the  
 191 smoothing of the warping path affect the alignment.

### 192 2.3. Comparison metrics

193 The comparison between the IMU and OMCAP gait signals is performed  
 194 by computing several metrics, each of them specifically devoted to analyzing a  
 195 different aspect of the curve alignment. All the metrics are calculated for each  
 196 subject and exercise speed independently, and subsequently combined to report  
 197 global results.

198 The RMSE (Cooper et al., 2009; Cuesta-Vargas et al., 2010; Takeda et al.,  
 199 2009; Seel et al., 2014; Favre et al., 2008; El-Gohary and McNames, 2015) pro-  
 200 vides the global distance between two data-sets, computing the average error of  
 201 the residuals as follows:



$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^N (y_{IMU}(t) - y_{OMCAP}(t))^2}{N}} \quad (2)$$

202 where  $y_{OMCAP}$  is the reference signal (OMCAP) and  $y_{IMU}$  is the IMU  
 203 signal.  $N$  is the total number of samples in each average stride, after aligning  
 204 both signals.

205 The Correlation coefficient (CC) compare waveform similarity (Watanabe  
 206 et al., 2011; Takeda et al., 2009; Picerno et al., 2008; Cooper et al., 2009; Favre  
 207 et al., 2008). The CC is computed as follows:

$$CC = \frac{\sigma_{y_{IMU}y_{OMCAP}}}{\sigma_{y_{IMU}}\sigma_{y_{OMCAP}}} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N y_{IMU}(t)y_{OMCAP}(t) - N(\bar{y}_{IMU}\bar{y}_{OMCAP})}{\sigma_{y_{IMU}}\sigma_{y_{OMCAP}}} \quad (3)$$

208 Where:  $\sigma_{y_{IMU}y_{OMCAP}}$  is the covariance of the two measurements,  $\sigma_y$  the vari-  
 209 ance,  $\bar{y}_{IMU}$  and  $\bar{y}_{OMCAP}$  the mean signal values.

210 When conducting statistical tests using time series, statistical parametric  
 211 mapping (SPM) (J., 2007) is a technique commonly used to test the null-  
 212 hypothesis between each pair of samples of the two curves. SPM performs a  
 213 p-value correction using Random Field Theory to consider the the temporal  
 214 smoothness of the data (Pataky et al., 2013).

215 For the purpose of this study, SPM quantifies local waveform similarity  
 216 through calculating a p-value between IMU and OMCAP in each phase using a  
 217 two-tailed paired t-test with a p-value=0.01.

### 218 3. Results

219 Table 1 summarizes the computed metrics for every subject and exercise  
 220 speed, obtained using without DTW, with the classical and with the improved  
 221 version of the DTW.

## 3 RESULTS

9

	Speed 1 (sp1)			Speed 2 (sp2)			Speed 3 (sp3)			
	RMSE (°)	CC	SPM	RMSE (°)	CC	SPM	RMSE (°)	CC	SPM	
Subject 1	no DTW	6.23	0.97	0.14	5.64	0.98	0.22	7.6	0.95	0.2
	DTW classic	4.01	0.99	0.35	4.36	0.99	0.27	2.78	0.99	0.37
	DTW improved	3.82	0.99	0.33	3.05	0.99	0.41	4.04	0.99	0.17
Subject 2	no DTW	2.87	1	0.51	5.85	0.97	0.27	3.43	0.99	0.26
	DTW classic	2.51	1	0.53	3.42	0.99	0.3	3.28	0.99	0.22
	DTW improved	1.9	1	0.61	3.32	0.99	0.34	2.75	0.99	0.34
Subject 3	no DTW	3.07	0.99	0.71	3.97	0.99	0.22	6.15	0.97	0.26
	DTW classic	3.6	0.99	0.6	2.88	1	0.3	2.94	0.99	0.28
	DTW improved	3.37	0.99	0.54	2.88	0.99	0.33	2.83	0.99	0.24
Subject 4	no DTW	3.62	0.98	0.51	3.9	0.99	0.56	2.25	0.99	0.66
	DTW classic	2.66	0.99	0.58	1.72	1	0.67	1.84	1	0.59
	DTW improved	1.54	1	0.57	1.41	1	0.66	1.63	1	0.75
Subject 5	no DTW	4.38	0.97	0.66	5.97	0.96	0.19	4.13	0.98	0.26
	DTW classic	4.2	0.98	0.64	2.18	1	0.46	2.19	0.99	0.43
	DTW improved	3.27	0.99	0.46	2.92	0.99	0.3	2.21	0.99	0.4
Subject 6	no DTW	3.88	0.99	0.63	3.77	0.99	0.25	4.77	0.98	0.49
	DTW classic	3.39	0.99	0.63	2.77	0.99	0.33	1.56	1	0.89
	DTW improved	1.64	1	0.81	2.28	1	0.48	2.09	1	0.59
Subject 7	no DTW	7.77	0.86	0.69	4.73	0.98	0.25	10.1	0.9	0.27
	DTW classic	8.97	0.83	0.52	3.68	0.99	0.16	3.35	0.99	0.19
	DTW improved	3.36	0.99	0.68	3.17	0.99	0.21	2.84	0.99	0.19
Subject 8	no DTW	4.67	0.97	0.48	3.33	0.99	0.29	8.52	0.94	0.24
	DTW classic	4.05	0.98	0.46	2.57	0.99	0.44	2.26	0.99	0.46
	DTW improved	1.87	1	0.64	1.35	1	0.65	2.29	0.99	0.49
Subject 9	no DTW	5.91	0.95	0.41	8.33	0.93	0.23	5.53	0.97	0.31
	DTW classic	3.81	0.99	0.28	3.43	0.99	0.27	3.52	0.99	0.37
	DTW improved	3	0.98	0.42	2.91	0.99	0.52	2.65	1	0.49
Subject 10	no DTW	4.66	0.96	0.24	5.4	0.98	0.29	9.62	0.91	0.17
	DTW classic	3.82	0.98	0.22	2.66	0.99	0.27	2.34	0.99	0.31
	DTW improved	3.6	0.98	0.09	2.97	0.99	0.21	2.59	0.99	0.35
Average by speeds [mean (std)]	no DTW	4.71 (1.46)	0.96 (0.04)	0.4 (0.18)	5.09 (1.41)	0.98 (0.02)	0.28 (0.1)	6.21 (2.53)	0.96 (0.03)	0.31 (0.14)
	DTW classic	4.1 (1.71)	0.97 (0.05)	0.38 (0.14)	2.97 (0.73)	0.99 (0)	0.35 (0.14)	2.61 (0.64)	0.99 (0)	0.41 (0.2)
	DTW improved	2.74 (0.84)	0.99 (0.01)	0.51 (0.19)	2.63 (0.67)	0.99 (0)	0.41 (0.16)	2.59 (0.6)	0.99 (0)	0.5 (0.17)
Average by subjects and speeds [mean (std)]	no DTW	RMSE (°)			CC			SPM		
	DTW classic	5.33 (2.01)			0.97 (0.03)			0.36 (0.18)		
	DTW improved	3.23 (1.32)			0.98 (0.03)			0.38 (0.17)		
		2.65 (0.73)			0.99 (0.01)			0.48 (0.22)		

Table 1: Quantitative results of RMSE, CC and SPM for all the subjects and exercise speeds obtained using without DTW, with the classical and with the improved version of the DTW, respectively. The SPM represents the proportion of samples along the cycle which satisfy the statistical significance test.

222 Table 1 compares the results obtained without DTW, and using the classical  
 223 or the improved DTW. The last row shows that the proposed technique reaches  
 224 a lower RMSE ( $2.65^\circ$ ), the Correlation improves (0.99) and the SPM increases  
 225 (0.48). The superior performance of the proposed method with respect to second  
 226 most performant approach are statistically illustrated in Figure 4, and the p-  
 227 values are significant ( $< 0.01$ ) for all the metrics.

228 Regarding the angular error and bias, a mean RMSE value of  $2.65^\circ$  ( $0.731^\circ$ )  
 229 is obtained. This value corresponds to a 5.61% of the total range of movement  
 230 ( $62.74^\circ$ ) showing that the amplitude of the bias between the measurement is low.  
 231 Observing the average RMSE by exercise speeds, the results are comparable and  
 232 are not dependent on the speed scenario as confirmed by the ANOVA tests (p-  
 233 values: 0.76 for  $RMSE_{sp1}$  vs  $RMSE_{sp2}$ , 0.68 for  $RMSE_{sp1}$  vs  $RMSE_{sp3}$ , 0.91  
 234 for  $RMSE_{sp2}$  vs  $RMSE_{sp3}$ , respectively).

235 Regarding the global waveform similarity, an average CC of 0.99 (0.01) is  
 236 obtained. This value indicates that in all the cases there is a faithful matching  
 237 between the shape of the curves.

238 With respect to the local waveform similarity, the SPM represents, per each  
 239 point of the stride cycle, the similarity between the two waveforms. Figure 5  
 240 allow to assess in which part of the cycle the similarity between the two signal  
 241 is higher.

242 The percentage of p-values above the threshold varies from 18% to 80% (see  
 243 Figure 5) along the stride cycle. Then, if we study the variability among cases  
 244 (varying the subject and exercise speed), the SPM reaches an average value of  
 245 48% (22%).

### SPM analysis for the average of the 3 speeds

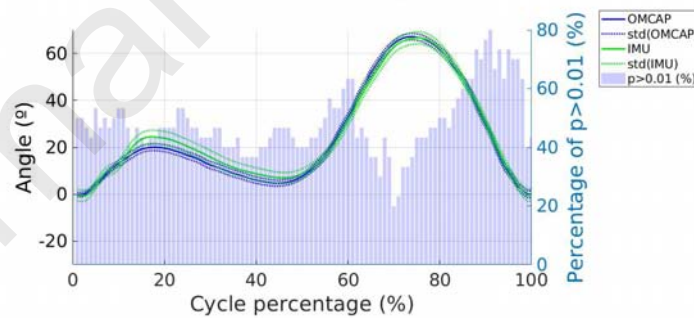


Figure 5: Gait profiles (blue and green solid lines) superimposed to the statistical results (p-values), averaged for all the subjects and exercise speeds. The left axis represents the angle acquired using the two systems. The time-wise percentage of p-values above the 0.01 threshold per each phase of the stride cycle is represented by a blue histogram (right axis).

246 Finally, to assess qualitatively the results, Figure 6 shows some exemplary  
 247 cases of IMU and OMCAP signals aligned used the proposed technique. Each  
 248 row of Figure 6 illustrates cases showing good, average and poor performances,  
 249 while each column corresponds to a different exercise velocity. In the first row

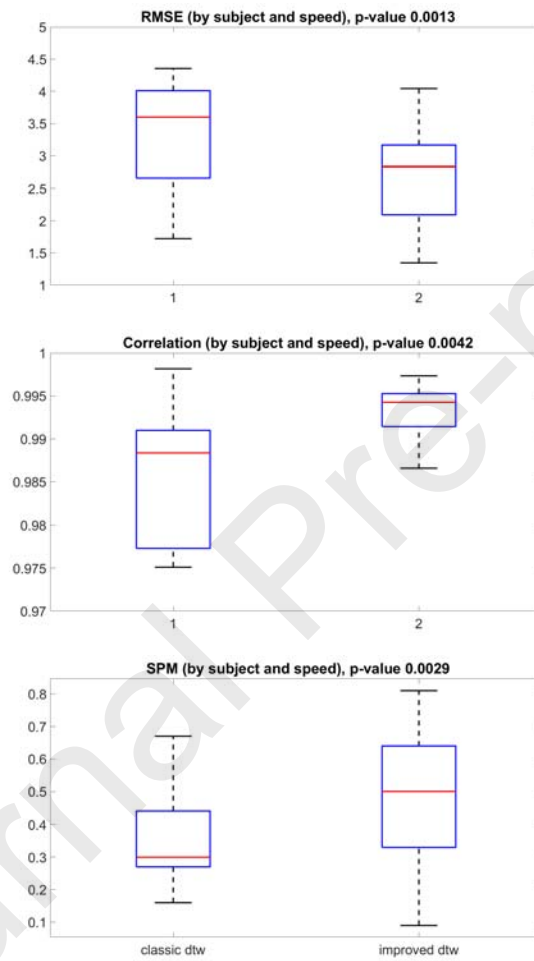


Figure 4: Statistical comparison between the classical and the improved DTW alignment. The boxplot reports the RMSE, CC and SPM percentage for all the subjects and exercise speeds, respectively. The p-value obtained by the ANOVA analysis is reported as title of each figure.

250 (a), it can be appreciated how, after the alignment, the acquisitions performed  
 251 using the IMU sensor matches the OMCAP measurement along the whole cycle.  
 252 The RMSE obtained in these cases is lower than  $2^\circ$ , indicating an excellent  
 253 performance. In the second row (b) three cases having average performances,  
 254 are illustrated. In this case, at specific phases of the cycle, it can be observed  
 255 differences between the two acquisitions. However, in average, the IMU mea-  
 256 surements are substantially accurate. Finally, in the third row (c) higher errors  
 257 are present during segments of the cycle, particularly in the first half of the  
 258 cycle or in the maximum peak. These curves correspond to the cases having an  
 259 RMSE of  $6^\circ$  in Table 1.

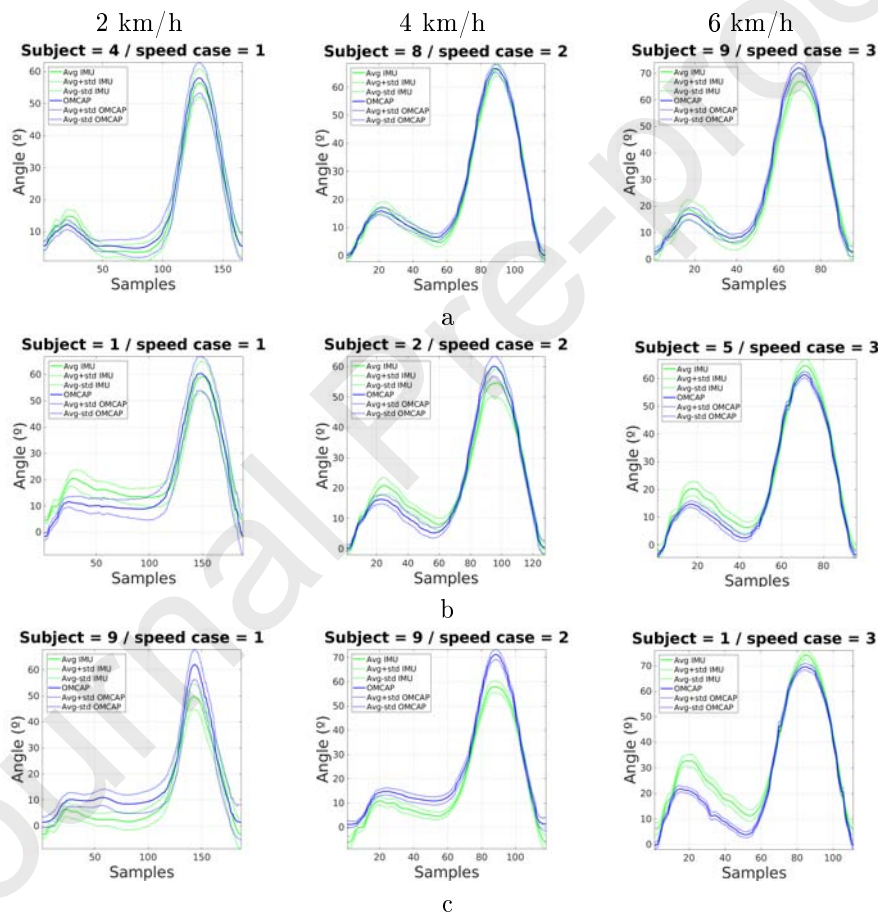


Figure 6: Results of signal comparisons from different subjects and speeds. Each column corresponds to a different experiment velocity, while on each row, exemplar curve representing a) a good b) average and c) poor agreement between the measurements are shown, respectively.

**260 4. Conclusion**

261 This study aims at introducing a pipeline for the non-rigid alignment of  
262 gait signals. In this study IMU and OMCAP acquisitions are aligned using,  
263 for the first time in gait analysis, a modified version of the DTW algorithm.  
264 As illustrated in Section 2.2, the modification of the classical DTW algorithm  
265 introduced in this paper allows obtaining a smoother matching between the  
266 signals, hence a more faithful signal synchronization.

267 The errors measured between IMU and OMCAP signals are in line with the  
268 bibliography, reaching a mean RMSE value of  $2.65^\circ$  ( $0.73^\circ$ ) and an average CC  
269 value of 0.99 (0.01). Such results, show that IMU devices may be considered as  
270 a cheaper, lighter and simpler alternative to OMCAP systems.

271 As a novelty, the SPM analysis conducted allows quantifying the measure-  
272 ment performances of the IMU in a phase-wise way. Scores obtained range from  
273 18% to 80% along the gait cycle with an average of 48% (22%).

274 As a final remark, in this study, we are considering the OMCAP system as  
275 the gold standard, even if the system itself has an intrinsic measurement error  
276 (which is not declared by the producer). It also has to be contemplated that the  
277 knee considered as a pure hinge joint is an acceptable simplification for healthy  
278 subjects but also a limitation for expanding this work to pathological subjects.

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## 4 CONCLUSION

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