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Société de Biomécanique Young Investigator Award 2019: Upper body behaviour of seated humans *in vivo* under controlled lateral accelerations

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1. Introduction

Evasive manoeuvres, performed either manually or automatically by advanced driver assistance systems in highly automated vehicles, influence the kinematics and position of occupants within the vehicle interior [\(Graci et al., 2020;](#page-8-0) [Holt et al., 2020\)](#page-8-0). Understanding human reactions and stabilization strategies under such load cases is therefore a key factor in the continuous optimization of integrated safety for future vehicles. Tools such as active human body models (AHBMs) are useful to predict occupant kinematics while taking into account human muscular reactions during a pre-crash phase, which can influence occupants' interaction with the restraint system. Numerous research studies have been conducted utilizing postmortem human subjects (PMHS) ([Park](#page-9-0) [et al., 2013; Serre et al., 2007](#page-9-0)); however, these data can be used only to validate the passive properties of AHBMs, as PMHS lack neuromuscular control [\(Beeman et al., 2012](#page-8-0); [Higuchi et al., 2020;](#page-8-0) [Lopez-Valdes et al.,](#page-8-0) [2017;](#page-8-0) [Parenteau, 2006;](#page-8-0) [Parenteau et al., 2002](#page-9-0)). Hence, additional validation data obtained from volunteer experiments under conditions resembling vehicle evasive manoeuvres are needed. Factors such as pulse level and shape, different postures, and different muscular states need to be considered due to the wide range of conditions observed in the real world.

In recent years, human body responses have been investigated in volunteer tests during non-injurious sled loading (0.2 to 3.7 g), focusing mainly on frontal and rear accelerations [\(Beeman et al., 2011;](#page-8-0) [Blouin](#page-8-0) [et al., 2003;](#page-8-0) [Dehner et al., 2007, 2008, 2013](#page-8-0); [Ejima et al., 2007, 2008](#page-8-0);

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Hern´ [andez et al., 2005;](#page-8-0) [Kemper et al., 2014](#page-8-0); [Ewing et al., 1976](#page-8-0); [Kirschbichler et al., 2011; Kumar et al., 2000, 2003; Lopez-Valdes et al.,](#page-8-0) [2017;](#page-8-0) [Kirschbichler et al., 2014](#page-8-0); [Sandoz et al., 2016\)](#page-9-0). A less studied phenomenon is human reaction to lateral accelerations, for instance, those experienced by occupants during a lane change manoeuvre. Ejima [et al. \(2012\)](#page-8-0) subjected three male volunteers to two plateau lateral pulses of 0.4 and 0.6 g for 600 ms; the volunteers were asked to either relax or brace their muscles. Under the latter muscular condition, lateral rotation of the torso was reduced by $5°$ and $10°$ at 0.4 and 0.6 g, respectively. Likewise, [van Rooij et al. \(2013a, 2013b\)](#page-9-0) and [Holt et al.](#page-8-0) [\(2018\)](#page-8-0) reported a decrease in lateral movement of the head under 0.5 g sine and plateau and 0.75 g sine pulses, respectively, for the braced muscle condition compared to the relaxed condition. Common trends of increased lateral displacement and rotation under higher loads and a decrease in the braced muscle condition have been demonstrated. However, the influence of different pulse shapes on human reactions has not been thoroughly investigated. Likewise, the influence of different upper body postures has not yet been investigated under lateral pulses even if, in reality, a wide variety of postures are adopted by vehicle occupants [\(Morris et al., 2005](#page-8-0)). Additionally, different sitting postures lead to different initial muscle tone under static conditions [\(Caneiro](#page-8-0) [et al., 2010](#page-8-0)) and to different kinematics during frontal accelerations ([Graci et al., 2019](#page-8-0); [Mackenzie et al., 2022](#page-8-0); [Reed et al., 2018a, 2018b](#page-9-0); [Reed et al., 2021\)](#page-9-0).

The present research hypothesizes that initial posture affects the initial muscle tone and hence the stabilization strategies of the human body under low to moderate lateral accelerations. Not only the initial posture but also the characteristics of the pulse, such as jerk, duration and level of acceleration, could affect human responses. Finally, in previous studies, it has been shown that muscle state influences kinematics. However, most of these studies have been conducted with restricted upper body movement due to seatbacks, some of which were equipped with side bolsters and seatbelts. Consequently, it remains an open question whether this is also the case for a lower level of external upper body motion restriction.

The aim of this research is to study the influence of posture, acceleration level and shape, and muscular state on human upper body kinematics during lateral accelerations. Therefore, data were acquired from five male volunteers seated on a rigid sled without any upper body support subjected to different lateral pulses in two body postures with two muscular states.

2. Methods

An existing sled setup was optimized to apply lateral accelerations to seated volunteers ([Sandoz et al., 2019\)](#page-9-0). Five male volunteers were seated on a rigid seat plate that was accelerated to their left. Each of them was submitted to a total of 30 lateral pulses, of which 21 were analysed in this paper (Appendix 1). The experimental matrix includes various postural and muscular configurations, as well as levels of acceleration. Each configuration was repeated three times. The nine additional pulses not presented in this paper were performed between the 12th and 13th pulses (Appendix 1).

2.1. Ethics

The following protocol was approved by the French Ethics Committee CPP IDF VII number 15–018. All volunteers were fully informed and signed a consent form.

2.2. Volunteer recruitment and instrumentation

The inclusion criteria were as follows: males aged 18 to 50 years whose anthropometry was comparable to that of the 50th-percentile American male (77 \pm 5 kg, 175 \pm 3 cm). Volunteers were excluded if they had any recent muscular soreness or pain.

Volunteers were instrumented with four inertial measurement units (IMU, Xsens MTx) on the top of the head, the first thoracic vertebra (T1), the sternum and the sacrum (S1), and the orientations and accelerations were recorded at 100 Hz. This acquisition frequency is similar to that of IMUs in similar previous experiments ([Mackenzie et al., 2022](#page-8-0); [Reed](#page-9-0) [et al., 2018a, 2018b; Sandoz et al., 2016](#page-9-0); [Sandoz et al., 2019](#page-9-0)). The head IMU was firmly attached with cable ties and tape on an adjustable rigid head strap, tightened on the volunteer's head. The T1, sternum and S1 IMUs were fixed to the body with double-sided tape and secured using hypoallergenic adhesive strips. The activity of the following bilateral muscle pairs was recorded at 2000 Hz using wireless electromyography (EMG) sensors (Trigno Delsys): the sternocleidomastoids, trapezius, latissimus dorsi, erector spinae, external obliques and rectus abdominis on the upper body, as well as the vastus lateralis and biceps femoris on the legs.

2.3. Sled description and instrumentation

Volunteers were seated on an instrumented four-metre-long sled and secured by a Velcro belt across the thighs ([Figs. 1](#page-3-0).a. and 1.b.). The initial tension of the belt was 120 N, measured by a handheld load cell (Kern company, capacity 50 kg, precision ± 0.05 kg) [\(Fig. 1.](#page-3-0)b.). Pelvic brackets 90 mm high were adjusted to the left and right of the pelvis to minimize its lateral movement and prevent sliding ([Fig. 1.](#page-3-0)b. and 1.c.). An onboard video camera filmed the volunteers from behind at 50 fps. An additional IMU (Xsens MTx, 100 Hz) was fixed under the seat plate to record its acceleration.

All sensors were synchronized with a common trigger signal. The sled pulses were programmed and validated using precise and reproducible closed-loop control ([Sandoz et al., 2014](#page-9-0)). The dimensions and configuration of the sled are available in Appendix 2.

2.4. Lateral acceleration profiles

Four acceleration profiles were applied to the seat plate [\(Fig. 2\)](#page-4-0). Sine Low (SL) and Sine High (SH) were single-cycle sine-shaped pulses with peaks of 0.1 and 0.3 g, respectively, and a duration of 2 s. Plateau Low (PL) and Plateau High (PH) were single-cycle plateau-shaped pulses with maximum accelerations of 0.1 and 0.3 g, respectively, and a duration of 3 and 2 s, respectively. The deceleration phases were symmetrical to the acceleration phases for the four pulses.

These pulses were chosen in accordance with the mechanical characteristics of the sled. In previous vehicle experiments, lane change acceleration pulses usually follow a sinusoidal shape with different levels of acceleration ([Ghaffari et al., 2018](#page-8-0); [Huber et al., 2015](#page-8-0); [Reed et al.,](#page-9-0) [2018a, 2018b](#page-9-0)). However, there is no single, universal vehicle lane change pulse. Therefore, in addition to the sinusoidal pulses, plateau pulses with greater jerk and a constant acceleration level were defined with respect to the hypothesis.

2.5. Test protocol

Prior to each sled pulse, the volunteers placed their hands on their thighs and feet on the footrest. Depending on the configuration, they were asked to assume one of the three physical states: a sagging spinal posture with relaxed muscles or a straight spinal posture with either relaxed or braced muscles [\(Fig. 1.](#page-3-0)b.). These were chosen expecting that the sagging spinal posture would induce low initial muscle tone, the straight spinal posture with relaxed muscles would induce additional muscular contraction to keep the upper body straight, and the straight spine posture with braced muscles would induce the highest muscular contraction of the three conditions.

A horizontal laser beam line projected on the back of each volunteer ensured the same initial straight posture preceding each pulse. A countdown warned the volunteers before each pulse, but they were not aware of the characteristics of the upcoming acceleration pulses. In the

Fig. 1. Sled in its initial position. a. Global view. b. Superimposed lateral views of a straight (red) and sagging (green) spinal posture. The arrow points to the lap belt. c. Posterior view of the volunteer from the on-board camera. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

present study, seven different configurations, repeated three times each, were analysed. The first twelve pulses were randomized in terms of acceleration pulse characteristics to avoid habituation. In this configuration, the muscles were relaxed, and the spine was straight. The following configurations were used: three PH acceleration pulses with a sagging spine and relaxed muscles, three PH acceleration pulses with a straight spine and braced muscles, and three PL acceleration pulses with a straight spine and braced muscles (detailed test matrix in Appendix 1).

2.6. Studied parameters and data processing

The first twelve pulses were used to study the effect of acceleration level and shape. The effect of muscle state was studied by comparing pulses {2; 8; 10} and {19; 20; 21} for the PL input accelerations and pulses {5; 9; 11} and {16; 17; 18} for the PH input accelerations. Pulses {5; 9; 11} and {13; 14; 15} were compared to study the effect of spinal posture.

Acceleration and lateral bending of the upper body were studied at each inertial measurement unit sensor location. The lateral bending measurements from the IMU on top of the head, hereafter referred to as lateral head bending, are presented in detail in this paper. No additional filter has been applied to the IMU sensor output regarding lateral bending or accelerations. The orthogonal reference frames of the IMU

sensors were numerically oriented in the same directions for each volunteer's initial posture: $+X$ was directed to the left of the volunteer in the direction of sled motion, $+Y$ was directed to the front of the volunteer, and $+$ Z was directed toward the floor (Fig. 1.a.). The present paper focuses on lateral head bending about the Y-axis, since it is the main movement under pure lateral pulses. All data, including accelerations and lateral bending of the other body segments, are provided (Appendix 5 and supplementary data).

Lateral bending and acceleration data are provided in the form of corridors. These were defined as the area between the maximum and minimum value of all the volunteers for the specific represented measurement and condition. All corridors also include the mean and \pm 1 standard deviation (SD). Boxplots (Appendix 3) present the median, 1st and 3rd quartiles, and extreme values.

2.7. Statistics

Maximum bending angles during the acceleration phase (noted as positive) and the deceleration phase (noted as negative) of the volunteers were considered as parameters of interest, *i.e.*, the dependent variables to analyse the differences between configurations. The independent variables were the acceleration profiles (SL, SH, PL, or PH), the muscle contraction (relaxed or braced) and the spine position (straight

Fig. 2. Sled acceleration profiles on one volunteer for three pulses: Sine Low, Sine High, Plateau Low and Plateau High. Input profiles (black line) and measured acceleration under the seat pan (blue line). Time 0 s is the beginning of the sled motion. Positive values: acceleration phase. Negative values: deceleration phase. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

or sagging).

The significance levels of the differences between all combinations of the configurations were tested using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Then, the normality of the considered angle of lateral head bending distributions was verified using a Lilliefors test, adapted for small sample sizes. Depending on the result of the normality test, the significance levels of the differences between two configurations were calculated using a paired Student's *t-*test for normal distributions and the Wilcoxon test for nonnormal distributions. The significance threshold was set at $p < 0.05$.

3. Results

3.1. Volunteers

Thirteen males volunteered to participate in the experiment. After the inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied, five healthy males were finally accepted for the study. The average volunteer was 26 to 36 years old, 175 cm tall (SD 2.3), and 76 kg in mass (SD 3.4), with a body mass index of 24.6 kg.m⁻² (0.8 SD) (Table 1). Volunteers felt no pain or discomfort during or within two days of the experiments. No habituation was observed on kinematics or EMG data.

3.2. Lateral bending measured at the top of the head

The MANOVA showed $p < 0.0001$. All p values calculated for the differences of peak lateral bending angles between various configurations, as measured at the top of the head, are summarized in [Table 2](#page-5-0).

The effect of the four acceleration pulses on the head bending of each volunteer was studied for a straight spinal posture and relaxed muscular condition. Maximum head bending during acceleration significantly increased from SL to PL, SH and PH pulses (*p <* 0.001), with mean values rising from 3◦ to 12◦, 15◦ and 20◦, respectively ([Fig. 3\)](#page-6-0). Maximum head bending during decelerations was significantly different among configurations (p *<* 0.001). Paired comparisons of maximum head bending between SL and SH profiles as well as between PL and PH profiles

Table 2

P-values of paired Student's T-test (when normal distribution) and Wilcoxon test (when nonnormal distribution) of extreme lateral bending angles measured at the top of the head. SL: Sinus Low, SH: Sinus High, PL: Plateau Low, PH: Plateau High, acc: acceleration phase, dec: deceleration phase, br: braced muscles, sag: sagging spinal posture. If not indicated, the condition is straight spine posture and relaxed muscles.

showed significant differences (p *<* 0.001).

In the straight spine condition, the effect of muscle contraction was investigated for both the PL and PH acceleration shapes ([Fig. 4\)](#page-7-0). When the muscles were braced, the angles head bending to the right and left during the sled acceleration and deceleration phases were significantly reduced ($p < 0.001$) for both pulses. For the PL profile, mean values decreased from 9◦ for relaxed to 4◦ for braced muscles during the acceleration phase and changed from − 5◦ for relaxed to 0◦ for braced muscles during the deceleration phase. For the PH profile, mean values decreased from 19◦ for relaxed to 13◦ for braced muscles during the acceleration phase and changed from − 12◦ for relaxed to − 2◦ for braced muscles during the deceleration phase.

However, in the relaxed muscle condition, no significant effect of spine posture (straight or sagging) was observed on head bending during either the acceleration or deceleration phase of PH acceleration (*p >* 0.23). The lateral head bending corridors of the five volunteers are shown in Appendix 4. Only one volunteer showed greater lateral head bending during the deceleration phase than during the acceleration phase. For the PL profile, the mean values varied from 19◦ for the straight posture to 23◦ for the sagging posture during the acceleration phase, while they varied from $-12°$ for the straight posture to $-13°$ for the sagging posture during the deceleration phase.

4. Discussion

Lateral upper body bending was assessed for five seated volunteers subjected to different lateral accelerations. In previous studies focusing on the 50th-percentile male, the standard deviations of anthropometric variables were, on average, 6 cm for height and approximately 7 kg for weight. Differences in anthropometry were detected as a factor affecting the kinematic results [\(Reed et al., 2018a, 2018b\)](#page-9-0). To diminish the effect of these differences, volunteers of the present study were recruited with very similar anthropometric characteristics (standard deviations of 2.5 cm in height and 3.8 kg in weight).

Based on several preliminary tests, maximum levels of acceleration were selected to ensure safety and avoid causing fatigue to the volunteers over the course of the test. In total, the 30-pulse experiment lasted *<*30 min, and none of the volunteers reported fatigue. Furthermore, no habituation effect was observed. Hence, it was hypothesized and verified through randomly repeated pulses over the seven different configurations that the volunteers' behaviour remained relevant throughout the experiment, allowing to include all three repetitions of each configuration when plotting the corridors.

Sled pulse reproducibility was assessed using sled accelerations measured underneath the seat plate. As an example, three of the measured pulses of each acceleration profile are compared with the input profile of the sled motor in [Fig. 2](#page-4-0). These curves correspond to the test configuration with straight spinal posture and relaxed muscles (pulses 4, 7 and 12 from Appendix 1). The sled accelerations, mechanical behaviour and applied boundary conditions can be considered reproducible and robust. Even if the acceleration measurements showed some vibrations, the sled displacement and velocity were smooth, with no jolts.

The applied accelerations in the current study lasted two or three

seconds depending on the pulse shape, while previous sled experiments have been performed with shorter pulse durations: from 86 ms to 600 ms ([Ejima et al., 2012; Dehner et al., 2007, 2008; Kumar et al., 2003;](#page-8-0) [Siegmund et al., 2003; Vibert et al., 2001, 2006\)](#page-8-0). Longer acceleration durations allow us to study the stabilization strategies of the human body when subjected to external dynamic perturbations while not triggering pure reflex reactions alone. They are also more representative of lateral avoidance manoeuvres that can occur during emergency driving situations [\(Ghaffari et al., 2018; Huber et al., 2014, 2015\)](#page-8-0). Additionally, the acceleration pulse shape is often not well described in the literature. The results obtained in this study confirm the hypothesis that not only the amplitude but also the shape (sine or plateau) of the acceleration influences human body kinematics.

To create a generic experimental setup, allowing its physical and numerical replicability, the sled seat was designed using rigid structures. The influence of foam or spring deformation and the specific geometry of an individual vehicle seat usually introduce uncertainties and hinder the broad usage of the data. Additionally, to allow free movement of the upper body in the lateral plane, no seatback or shoulder belt was used to restrain the upper body. This also avoids obstructing the field of vision of the high-speed camera. In contrast to in-vehicle experiments, the data generated in this study are not directly transferable to the occupant kinematics expected to occur during emergency manoeuvres or to other very different sled configurations. Lateral head bending movements under similar loading conditions, although conducted in a vehicle and under accelerations up to 1 g, was found to be smaller than the movements observed in the current study [\(Ghaffari et al., 2018](#page-8-0); [Huber et al.,](#page-8-0) [2014, 2015](#page-8-0); [Reed et al., 2018a, 2018b](#page-9-0)). However, the setup presented here allows for larger lateral excursions, not reduced by restraints, providing a qualified but more generic database for AHBM validation.

All lateral head bending measurements present a delay after the actual sled is set in motion. At the very beginning of the sled motion, the upper body can be considered a passive multibody inverted pendulum. Since the volunteers were seated, the pelvis was accelerated first, and the head was accelerated last. Moreover, under the relaxed muscular condition, the mean maximum head accelerations were always higher than those applied to the sled, reaching 0.30 g for SL, 0.75 g for SH, 0.43 g for PL, and 0.89 g for PH (Appendix 5). Consequently, lateral head bending is significantly larger for pulses with higher acceleration levels than for those with lower acceleration, as well as significantly larger for plateau pulses than for sine pulses.

The muscular state during PL and PH pulses influences the lateral head bending; specifically, bending is reduced when the muscles are braced. This supports the results from previous researchers showing that lateral displacement is reduced under braced conditions [\(Ejima et al.,](#page-8-0) [2012;](#page-8-0) [Holt et al., 2018;](#page-8-0) [van Rooij et al., 2013a, 2013b\)](#page-9-0), even without any upper body support structure.

Overall, no effect of spinal posture was observed on either head acceleration or lateral bending. Previous studies [\(Caneiro et al., 2010\)](#page-8-0) reported differences in muscle tone depending on upper body posture in a static environment. In the straight spine condition, upper body posture was checked at shoulder height using a level horizontal laser line prior to each pulse to ensure a homogenous posture. No such check was performed for the sagging condition; therefore, greater variability is

Fig. 3. Head lateral bending for pulses 1 to 12 of the five volunteers under various acceleration shapes. Straight spine posture and relaxed muscles. SL: Sine low, SH: Sine High, PL: Plateau Low, PH: Plateau High, SD: Standard Deviation.

expected for this posture. Although there was little variation in the anthropometric characteristics of the volunteers, each participant had his own individual spinal curvature. Nonetheless, it is assumed that the effect of this difference under lateral loading is negligible, since no significant differences were found between the sagging and straight postures. Future work on the difference in initial muscle states between these two configurations will be conducted.

The test matrix cannot combine all the chosen configurations, as the experiment was limited to 30 pulses per volunteer for ethical reasons. In particular, only the PH pulse shape was used to compare sagging and straight spine positions. Likewise, the influence of the muscular state was assessed only during the PH and PL pulses.

Fig. 4. Effect of the relaxed/ braced muscles condition for the Plateau Low (PL) and Plateau High (PH) acceleration shape inputs on the lateral head bending. Straight spine posture. SD: Standard Deviation.

Since the movement of the upper body was unrestricted in this experiment, the range of motion of the lower region of the body, starting at the pelvis, is a key factor that can influence overall lateral bending. Therefore, the pelvis of each volunteer was constrained using lateral brackets. Nonetheless, pelvic rotations could not be completely avoided (Appendix 5). In addition, the height of the lateral pelvic brackets was intentionally limited to avoid a potential interaction with the lower ribs during the lateral motion of the volunteers.

Finally, the whole-body braced muscle state was confirmed using EMG, but the level of contraction was not controlled in real time for each individual muscle. According to feedback by the volunteers, they braced all their muscles at once to their maximum extent during the corresponding pulses. In future work, recorded EMG data will be used to investigate different muscle contraction patterns in relation to the various configurations.

5. Conclusions

The results confirm the hypothesis that not only pulse amplitude but also shape influences human behaviour under low accelerations. In addition, upper body movement is reduced when muscles are braced during plateau pulses. However, spinal posture does not show a significant influence on lateral head bending during the PH pulses.

Overall, well-documented *in vivo* experimental data are of high interest for the validation of AHBMs. The present publication provides the necessary experimental data as supplementary material [\(SANDOZ,](#page-9-0) [2023\)](#page-9-0).

Further experiments will be performed with female volunteers to evaluate potential differences in balance responses depending on sex.

Furthermore, the sled apparatus will be upgraded with additional sensors, such as pressure plates to record the interaction of the volunteers with the footrest. In addition, future experiments will use virtual reality technologies to control the visual and auditory environment of future volunteers to study the influence of these senses on stabilization strategies.

Declaration of Competing Interest

No competing financial interests exist.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinbiomech.2023.105952) [org/10.1016/j.clinbiomech.2023.105952](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinbiomech.2023.105952)and [https://doi.org/10.577](https://doi.org/10.57745/I8KEDC) [45/I8KEDC.](https://doi.org/10.57745/I8KEDC)

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