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► To cite this version:

Karim Makki, Bhushan Borotikar, Marc Garetier, Sylvain Brochard, Douraied Ben Salem, et al.. In vivo ankle joint kinematics from dynamic magnetic resonance imaging using a registration-based framework. Journal of Biomechanics, 2019, 86, pp.193-203. 10.1016/j.jbiomech.2019.02.007 . hal-02285921

HAL Id: hal-02285921 https://imt-atlantique.hal.science/hal-02285921v1

Submitted on 13 Sep 2019 $\,$

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In vivo Ankle Joint Kinematics from Dynamic Magnetic Resonance Imaging using a Registration-based Framework

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Abstract

In this paper, we propose a method for non-invasively measuring three-dimensional *in vivo* kinematics of the ankle joint from a dynamic MRI acquisition of a single range-of-motion cycle. The proposed approach relies on an intensity-based registration method to estimate motion from multi-plane dynamic MRI data. Our approach recovers not only the movement of the skeleton, but also the possibly non-rigid temporal deformation of the joint. First, the rigid motion of each ankle bone is estimated. Second, a four-dimensional (3D+time) high-resolution dynamic MRI sequence is estimated through the use of the log-euclidean framework for the computation of temporal dense deformation fields. This approach has been then applied and evaluated on *in vivo* dynamic MRI data acquired for a pilot study on six healthy pediatric cohort in order to establish *in vivo* normative joint biomechanics. Results demonstrate the robustness of the proposed pipeline and very promising high resolution visualization of the ankle joint.

Keywords : dynamic MRI, ankle, motion estimation, high-resolution reconstruction, intensity-based registration, locally rigid transformation

1 1. Introduction

To better understand the biomechanics of the pediatric ankle joint, it is crucial to es-2 tablish in vivo normative joint biomechanics [7] before focusing on pathomechanics studies. This approach would likely contribute to a better long-term follow-up for childhood disabi-4 lities such as cerebral palsy. 5 Conventional MRI techniques have been used for accurate diagnosis of the ankle and foot di-6 sorders given the complexity of their anatomy [5]. Dynamic MRI was originally developed to 7 study cardiovascular functions towards the end of the 1980s [18]. Since then, MRI acquisition 8 and reconstruction techniques have improved by leaps and bounds with current sequences 9 such as Fast-PC MRI, ultrafast MRI, and Fast Field Echo FFE. These techniques have been 10

¹¹ successfully employed to quantify the knee joint kinematics [22, 8], and to analyze *in vivo* 3D

musculoskeletal dynamics [6, 25], non-invasively. Sequences such as cine-PC MRI [17, 26] or 12 fast-PC MRI [23, 19] can provide in vivo joint velocity field measurements. However, these 13 data require long acquisition times with a high number of repeated cycles. Sequences such 14 as ultrafast MRI [9] allow faster scan speed by exploiting spatio-temporal redundancy and 15 can acquire images during a single cycle. However, they require slow motion of the joint 16 making the movement quasi-static. Thus, both these types of sequences are not appropriate 17 to acquire dynamic *in vivo* data for children especially with musculoskeletal disorders. In 18 this work, we use real-time FFE sequences [20] which are less sensitive to motion artifacts 19 and which reduce the scanning time to 18 seconds to acquire the dorsi-plantarflexion cycle. 20 Furthermore, post-processing of acquired dynamic images remains a challenging task due 21

²² to low resolution and motion artifacts. In [22], the displacement of specific points on each bone ²³ were quantified by integrating the velocity data using a three-dimensional Fourier tracking ²⁴ method [29]. *Clarke et al.* [9] determined *in vivo* muscle moment arms during ankle movement ²⁵ using a 3D mesh-based registration method. They estimated bone motions by registering ²⁶ the high-resolution joint geometry from MRI scans of the stationary joint to low-resolution ²⁷ geometries from ultrafast MRI scans of the slowly moving joint. However, in addition to

the segmentation of the high-resolution static scan, it was needed to manually segment each low-resolution time-frame which was time-consuming and prone to segmentation bias.

In this study, the spatial information of the high-resolution static MRI data and the temporal information of the dynamic data were combined using a log-euclidean polyrigid framework (*LEPF*). The purpose of this study was twofold : 1) to estimate bone motion, allowing to derive the 3D kinematics of the joint, 2) to compute temporal dense deformation fields of the joint, allowing to reconstruct a high-resolution dynamic MRI sequence from a low-resolution

³⁵ dynamic MRI sequence and one high-resolution MR image.

³⁶ The use of the *LEPF* proposed by *Arsigny et al.* [4, 3, 2] has been investigated for registration

of structures such as the hip and knee joint in mouse CT images [16], human hands from 2D hand radiographs [14], bones in lower-abdomen area [11], and also intra-subject mandible

 $_{39}$ 3D datasets [21].

In this work, we adapted this framework to deal with 4-dimensional MRI data by proposing a fast and accurate algorithm to compute the dense deformation fields in regular grids. In fact, we propose to compute the exponential mapping of the LEPF using matrix eigendecomposition instead of the scaling and squaring method used in the literature [2, 11].

44 2. Materials and methods

45 2.1. Subject recruitment

Six typically developing children with a mean age of 12 years and with a mean weight
of 35.8 kg participated in this study which was approved by the regional ethics committee.
Children were selected with no contraindications to MRI and with no history of lower limb
musculo-skeletal injury or surgery in the past six months. MRI data were acquired in a single
visit after parents signed informed consent forms.

51 2.2. Data Acquisition

MRI data have been acquired using a 3T MR scanner (Achieva dStream, Philips Medical 52 Systems, Best, Netherlands). An MRI-compatible orthotic fixture was used to perform dy-53 namic movements inside the scanner (Figure 1). Individual range-of-motion was checked by 54 the cilnician outside the MRI scanner and stops were placed on wire guides for controlling 55 the range-of-motion inside the scanner. Each dynamic scan lasted for 18 seconds and ankle 56 joint was moved (actively or passively) through the range-of-motion for each subject within 57 18 seconds with a rotation speed of $4 \circ / s$ to $5 \circ / s$ (depending on the range). Both passive 58 and active acquisitions were standardized for all subjects as detailed in Annexe A. Dynamic 59 images were acquired in the oblique axis of the ankle motion. This was done by acquiring 60 axial dynamic scans first and then obliquely orienting the scanning plane for images to be 61 acquired in sagittal plane. 62

The scanning protocol included one high-resolution static 3D scan of the ankle joint 63 with a resolution of $0.26 \times 0.26 \times 0.8mm$ (T1-weighted gradient-echo, flip angle 10°, matrix 64 576×576 , FOV $150mm \times 150mm$, TR/TE 7.81/2.75 ms, mean acquisition duration : 424.3265 s), and three low-resolution dynamic sequences per child : two passive sequences for repeata-66 bility measures and one active sequence, all acquired with knee angle kept at full extension 67 (approximately between 0° to 10°). Each sequence is composed of 15 time frames with a 68 voxel size of $0.57 \times 0.57 \times 8mm$ (flip angle 15°, matrix 352×352, FOV 200mm×200mm, 69 TR/TE 20.61/1.8 ms, acquisition duration : 18.98 s). 70



FIGURE 1 : Orthotic fixture specially designed to acquire MRI data on pediatric ankle joint. The entire fixture is made out of MRI-compatible material. Guide wires helped the technician to control and operate the passive plantar-dorsi flexion movements of the ankle joint while rest of the limb is fixed using straps at foot, tibia and mid thigh locations. Position of the ankle rest can be adjusted based on the limb length. Knee angle can be adjusted from full extension to 45° flexion. Cushioned ankle rest supports the foot to be imaged.

71 2.3. Data post-processing

Temporal tracking of the ankle bones is a challenging task because of nonlinearly articulated joint motion. Image registration is an *iterative* process maximizing a similarity measure between two images (source and target) in order to find the optimal geometric transformation that best align them. In this work, we used a locally-linear intensity-based registration
method to estimate bone motion, and then we fused these local transformations to compute
temporal dense deformation fields.

78 2.3.1. Motion estimation

The bones of interest were manually segmented in the high-resolution static image (Figure 2) and then automatically propagated throughout the dynamic low-resolution sequence using intensity-based registration.

The proposed approach for motion estimation consisted in two steps : 1) estimating a mapping for each bone between static MRI data and dynamic sequences, 2) estimating the relative bone motions using the dynamic sequence.

step1: The first step was to compute the transformations from the static image to the 85 dynamic images. In order to make this step robust, the multi-resolution registration was 86 carried out in two steps : *First*, the static image was globally (and rigidly) registered to each 87 low-resolution time frame $\{D_k\}_{k \in 1...K}$. This provided a set of rigid transforms $\{T_{S \to D_k}\}_{k \in 1...K}$. Second, initialized with the set of global rigid transforms $\{T_{S \to D_k}\}_{k \in 1...K}$, the temporal posi-88 89 tion of each bone was refined thanks to a local rigid registration using bone masks. In this 90 step, the static image is registered to each dynamic image $\{D_k\}_{k \in 1...K}$ using input weights on 91 each of the bones separately. This provided another set of rigid transforms $\{T_{S\to D_k}^i\}_{k=1,\dots,K}^{i=1,\dots,3}$. 92 To maximize the robustness of the algorithm, an image D_{k^*} from the dynamic sequence whose 93 the content is the closest to the static image, was automatically detected. The underlying 94 assumption is that the registration process is much simpler to converge for transformations 95 close to the identity. To this end, the image of the sequence for which the overlap between 96 regions of interest before and after bone-dependent registration was maximum, was selected 97 as the reference image which served as a starting point for the motion estimation within the 98 dynamic sequence. 99



FIGURE 2 : Bones of interest : calcaneus (red), talus (green) and tibia (cyan). (a) : Mid-sagittal image from the high-resolution static scan; (b) : Mid-coronal image from the high-resolution static scan; (c) : Three dimensional rendering of segmented bones.

step2: The second step focused on the estimation of bone motion during the dynamic 100 sequence. To do this, we proposed to take advantage of the temporal regularity of the data 101 by propagating the bone masks in the dynamic sequence. For each bone, a rigid transform 102 was estimated between successive images. *i.e.* local and rigid registrations were conducted 103 from the reference image D_{k^*} towards first and last images of the sequence. To go forward 104 and backward in time, only one interpolation was needed to propagate segmentation from 105 D_{k^*} to each time frame D_k by composing a set of successive rigid transforms in order to 106 avoid the propagation of interpolation errors as much as possible. Temporal bone rotations 107 were optimized based on their quaternion representations [15], making the segmentation 108 propagation more robust. 109

¹¹⁰ The overall algorithm for bone motion estimation is described in Annexe B.



FIGURE 3 : Proposed pipeline for ankle motion estimation : Bones of interest are segmented in the high-resolution static image. This high-resolution MR image is globally (and rigidly) registered to each MR image of the dynamic sequence (1.), and the position of each bone is refined thanks to a local rigid registration using bone segmentations (2.). This allows to identify the dynamic MR image which is closest to the high resolution image and which will serve as a starting point for the motion estimation within the dynamic sequence. Last, local and rigid registrations are conducted from the reference towards the sequence first and last images.

111 2.3.2. Computation of temporal dense deformation fields

A dense deformation map of the joint from the static to each time frame was obtained by fusing rigid transforms corresponding to the bones of interest. For each bone, a non-negative weighting function was computed based on a distance to the mask [10]. Each weighting function reflects the local influence of the rigid transform of each bone. For each voxel x, the ¹¹⁶ weighting functions were computed as follows :

$$w_{D_k}^i(x) = \frac{1}{1 + dist^2(x, M_{D_k}^i)}$$
(1)

where : $dist(x, M_{D_k}^i)$ is the Euclidean distance between the point x and the mask of the bone i propagated onto the dynamic image D_k .

Given a point x in the high-resolution static image, the target location of this point in the dynamic image D_k can be computed with the following equation [4]:

$$\mathcal{T}_{S \to D_k}(x) = \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{w}_{D_k}^i(x) \log(T_{S \to D_k}^i)\right).x \tag{2}$$

where $\mathcal{T}_{S \to D_k}$ is the dense *invertible* deformation field from the static image S to the dynamic image D_k , $\tilde{w}_{D_k}^i$ is a normalized weighting function (*i.e.* $\sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{w}_{D_k}^i(x) = 1, \forall x \in D_k$).

¹²⁵ 2.3.3. Fast computation of dense deformation fields

In this section, we describe an efficient algorithm to compute deformation fields in dense 126 regular grid based on the algebraic properties of the Log-Euclidean polyrigid framework. 127 In [3, 2], the matrix exponential was recursively *approximated* with a certain level of accuracy 128 using the *scaling and squaring* method by taking into account that the matrix exponential is 129 much simpler to compute for matrices close to zero via the Padé approximant. In this work, 130 we computed the exponential mapping of equation 2 *exactly* using eigen decomposition. As-131 suming the log-euclidean mean of linear transformations $L(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \tilde{w}_{D_k}^i(x) \log(T_{S \to D_k}^i)$ 132 to be diagonalizable (i.e. L(x) can be expressed in homogenous coordinates as : L(x) =133 $P.D.P^{-1}(x)$, where the columns of P contains the eigenvectors $\{v_k(x)\}_{k \in \{0,..,4\}}$ corresponding 134 to the complex eigenvalues of L(x), $\{\lambda_1(x), \lambda_2(x), \lambda_3(x), 1\}$, we broadcasted the exponen-135 tiation of transformation eigenvalues over all grid points using the following Equation : 136

$$e^{L(x)} = Pe^{D}P^{-1}(x) = P\begin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda_{1}} & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & e^{\lambda_{2}} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & e^{\lambda_{3}} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e \end{pmatrix}P^{-1}(x)$$
(3)

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138 2.4. Determination of ankle joint biomechanics

139 2.4.1. Definition of anatomically based coordinate systems

Anatomical coordinate systems $\{R_i\}_{i=1,\dots,N}$ were defined on each bone in the highresolution image S following the same protocols used in [24] as illustrated in Figure 4,

and then mapped into the neutral position D_n using the estimated local-rigid transforms 142 $\{T_{S\to D_n}^i\}_{i=1,\dots,N}$. The neutral dorsi-plantar flexion position was defined at an ankle angle of 143 90° as recommended by the ISB standards committee [28]. However, the above defined neu-144 tral position cannot be always achieved during dynamic scanning. Therefore, the image in 145 which the foot position was closest to a dorsi-plantarflexion position of zero degrees was 146 selected as the neutral position. 147



FIGURE 4 : Anatomical coordinate systems for one subject's calcaneus (a), talus (b), and tibia(c) as per ISB.

2.4.2. Quantification of ankle joint kinematics 148

In this study, the kinematics were defined through the 3D registration of the entire 149 bone volume. More precisely, rotations and translations of each bone i were determined 150 from estimated rigid transforms $\{T_{D_k \to D_{k+1}}^i\}_{i=1,\dots,N}$. Ranges of motion were estimated using 151 low-resolution image data on multiple dynamic images (15 ankle positions). Kinematics 152 of talocrural joint, subtalar joint, and calcaneal-tibial complex were then derived from 153 $\{T^i_{D_k \to D_{k+1}}\}_{i=1,...,N}.$ 154

Given the image coordinate system $R_I = (O, \vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z})$, we defined the transformation, $M_{R_I \to R_i}$, 155 that mapped R_I to an anatomical bone-based coordinate system $R_j = (O^j, \vec{x^j}, \vec{y^j}, \vec{z^j})$. This 156 transformation changed a representation from the R_j system to the R_I system. 157

Individual bone transformation matrices expressed in R_I were then converted into the trans-158 formation matrices expressed in the new anatomical coordinate systems R_i as follows : 159

160

 $T_{j}^{i}(k) = (M_{R_{I} \to R_{j}} \times T_{D_{k} \to D_{k+1}}^{i} \times M_{R_{I} \to R_{j}}^{-1})_{k=1,\dots,K-1; i=1,\dots,N; j=1,\dots,N} \text{ where } :$ - $T_{j}^{i}(k) : 4 \times 4 \text{ rigid transformation matrix of the } i^{th} \text{ bone relative to the } j^{th} \text{ local bone}$ 161 coordinate system at time k. 162

 $-M_{R_I \to R_i}$: the change of basis matrix. 163

2.5. Method evaluation 164

To evaluate the proposed registration approach for bone motion estimation, the propa-165 gated mask of each bone through the dynamic sequence was compared with a manually 166 delineated bone on each time frame. The accuracy of the estimations of the successive rigid 167

transforms was assessed by computing the DICE coefficient $Dice(B_k^i, B_{m_k}^i)$ and the RMS error $RMSE(B_k^i, B_{m_k}^i)$ where B_k^i was the propagated mask of the bone *i* on dynamic image D_k and $B_{m_k}^i$ was a manually delineated mask of the same bone on the dynamic image D_k . A DICE value close to one indicates that the bone masks have been well propagated through the entire dynamic sequence.

The RMS error was computed as follows :

174 $RMSE(B_k^i, B_{m_k}^i) = \sqrt{1/n_c \cdot \sum_{x_c=1}^{n_c} dist^2(x_c, \zeta_{B_k^i})}$ where n_c is the total number of voxels of 175 ground-truth contours (i.e. contours of $B_{m_k}^i$) and $dist(x_c, \zeta_{B_k^i})$ is the Euclidean distance 176 between x_c and the contour of B_k^i .

177 3. Results

Results on bone motion estimation were reported in Figures 8-9 for the six subjects of the 178 pilot study. In most of the cases, the DICE coefficient was greater than 0.8 and the RMSE was 179 smaller than 0.6 indicating accurate propagations of bone masks over the dynamic sequence, 180 for both passive and active motions. From the set of rigid transforms of each bone over the 181 dynamic sequence, it was then possible to compute temporal dense deformation fields to 182 synthesize a high-resolution dynamic MRI sequence. Using the fast computation technique 183 described in Section 2.3.3, a dense deformation field was computed in 3min on an Intel[®] 184 Xeon[®] Processor E3-1271 v3 3.60 GHz on a $576 \times 576 \times 90$ regular grid and in 15min on 185 a very high dimensional space $(576 \times 576 \times 202 \simeq 67 \text{ million deformation vectors})$ which 186 required a high capacity RAM because computations were performed in the complex domain 187 for the purpose of enhancing the accuracy. Figure 10 illustrates, for one subject (A6), such 188 high-resolution reconstructed data. 189

Three-dimensional kinematics of the joint under both active and passive ankle dorsi-190 plantarflexion movement using the current 3D dynamic MRI method were presented in 191 Figures 5 to 7. Kinematics of all ankles (expect A5) were derived from the estimated tem-192 poral rigid transforms of each bone of interest, converted into the matrices of the calcaneus 193 relative to the tibia, the talus relative to the tibia, and the calcaneus relative to the talus. 194 The talus mistracking for the ankle A5 was caused by the considerable missing portion from 195 the bone in intermediate time frames due to the inappropriate initial placement of the flex 196 coils. 197

The mean rotation about the Inferior-Superior and about the Posterior-Anterior axes (averaged across time for all subjects) was close to 0 degrees for both active and passive motion. The mean range of passive rotation about the Medial- Lateral axis for talocrural an calcanealtibial joints was between -11 degrees of maximal dorsiflexion and +32 degrees of maximum plantarflexion with full extended knee. This demonstrates excellent correspondence with the mean range of passive rotation reported in [1] and validated for 245 healthy children between 7 and 14 years old.



FIGURE 5 : 3D normative kinematics of the calcaneal-tibial complex using the proposed image processing method. The kinematics of the calcaneus are represented relative to the tibial coordinate system defined in neutral position. Average rotation and translation were computed for both passive and active motion for the studied ankles. Standard deviation above and below the average line are shown (hatched shaded area for passive motion and green shaded area for active motion).



FIGURE 6 : 3D normative kinematics of the talocrural (talar-tibial) joint using the proposed image processing method. The kinematics of the talus are represented relative to the tibial coordinate system in neutral position. Average rotation and translation were computed for both passive and active motion for the studied ankles. Standard deviation above and below the average line are shown (hatched shaded area for passive motion and green shaded area for active motion).



FIGURE 7 : 3D normative kinematics of the subtalar joint using the proposed image processing method. The kinematics of the calcaneus are represented relative to the talar coordinate system in neutral position. Average rotation and translation were computed for both passive and active motion for the studied ankles. Standard deviation above and below the average line are shown (hatched shaded area for passive motion and green shaded area for active motion).



FIGURE 8 : 3D DICE coefficients between manual and automatic bone segmentation maps for the six subjects of the pilot study taking account of the whole set of bone trajectories. Results for passive (left column) and active motion (right column) are separated. A dice value of 1 indicates perfect geometric alignment between automatic and ground truth segmentations.



FIGURE 9 : Temporal evolution of the root-mean-square error (RMSE in voxels) between manual and automatic bone segmentations for subjects of the pilot study. Errors are represented using error bars. The average is shown with a dotted line with one standard deviation above and below this line. Results for passive (left column) and active motion (right column) are separated.



FIGURE 10 : High resolution temporal reconstruction for one subject (subject 6 : passive motion). First row : original dynamic images, second row : corresponding high-resolution reconstructed images, downsampled to resemble to the original low-resolution images in order to validate the reconstruction accuracy. Each column corresponds to one time frame. Contours of the first time frame show the reconstruction accuracy (column 1) and the joint motion (columns 2 to 4).

205 4. Discussion

In this study, we have presented a method to determine full 3D-kinematics of the ankle joint from dynamic anatomical MRI data. An intensity-based registration pipeline has been proposed to estimate bone motion through the dynamic sequence. The robustness of this approach for both passive and active motion has been evaluated on *in vivo* data acquired for a pilot control cohort study. Although based on a successive estimation of transformations, the proposed approach demonstrates advantages in efficiency, reliability and robustness for all subjects.

The proposed algorithm is robust enough to image quality as well as motion artefacts in a way that it can determine kinematics even for unconstrained motion. This was evaluated by changing the delta-time Δk separating each couple of source/target images during the successive rigid registrations and the algorithm is still robust even for $\Delta k = 5$.

217

Normative passive kinematics show that the subjects maintained a consistent movement trajectory. Three-dimensional kinematics of the joint under passive ankle movement using the proposed method (Figures 5 to 7) were similar to ankle joint kinematics reported in other studies using velocity data [24]. Normative active kinematics show that the subjects were able to perform voluntary plantar-dorsiflexion between the extreme positions with the same temporal regularity as for passive motion. The comparison between passive and active kinematics shows closest temporal averages despite some temporal fluctuation of the standard deviation across subjects.

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Although the fact that both our method and other motion methods tend toward the same goal which is bone motion tracking, there are some technical differences making it difficult to perform an objective comparison based on a common error parameter.

In [9], the authors were more interested in the Achilles tendon moment arms and the accu-230 racy and precision of bone motion tracking were not reported. Clarke et al. [9] have discussed 231 some limitations in their methods which can be particularly useful in adults. They have ex-232 plicitly mentioned that their protocols require some modifications to be useful in the smaller 233 joints of children. To satisfy the mesh density requirements for using the ICP algorithm, 234 they have recommended the reduction of the slice gap for the dynamic scanning protocol 235 while increasing the number of slices per time frame so that the slices span the joint width. 236 However, assuming that they have used ultrafast MRI sequences (with 8 sagittal slices/time 237 frame compared to 6 slices in our work, and taking around 2 min to acquire 10 to 20 time 238 frames compared to only 18 sec to acquire 15 time frames in our work), increasing the num-239 ber of slices will increase the scanning time of dynamic data to more than 2 min which will 240 be uncomfortable especially for the pathological subjects. The authors have also notified 241 that the rotation speed for their study was slow (mean 1° /s compared to 4.2° /s in our work) 242 in order to reduce the effects of motion artifacts, so the motion itself is reduced to almost 243 static or quasi-static nature where no real functionality can be assessed. Our choice for FFE 244 sequences for dynamic data acquisition was motivated by the fact that these techniques are 245 less sensitive to motion artifacts [27] and more than 5 times faster than ultrafast MRI. 246

In the work of Sheehan et al. [24], the displacements of three to five points on each bone were 247 calculated through Fourier integration and then converted into three-dimensional orientation 248 angles. As part of the tracking process, they identified a series of vertices, defining regions 249 on each bone of interest in the first time frame (i.e. three to five vertices per bone). The 250 distance between these vertices in the first time frame was considered the absolute distance 251 under the assumption that it should remain fixed throughout the movement because bones 252 are rigid. Thus, for each bone, the difference in distance between vertices in each time frame 253 relative to the absolute distance was defined as the tracking error. A potential limitation 254 of this study [24] was the out of plane accuracy of the bone motion because the accuracy 255 of cine-PC MRI is independent of the shape of the bone being tracked [6]. Another clinical 256 limitation is that subjects with musculoskeletal disease who cannot complete a large number 257 of repeated motions cannot be studied with cine-PC MRI techniques. Although the vertices 258 were well-defined from 3D high-resolution adult data in previous work of Sheehan et al. [24], 259 it was hard to reproduce their exact locations from developing children data for comparison 260 purposes because of the differences in bone size and topology between children and adults. 261 From another point of view, it was not sufficient to consider the distance between only some 262 vertices as system bias and thus we have considered all the bone segmentations (*i.e.* all the 263

volumetric information) for method evaluation.

265

The proposed method remains robust as long as the field-of-view (FOV) is well adjusted (i.e. when the FOV covers either the full or nearly-full anatomy of the ankle bones throughout the entire joint trajectory).

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We have also extended the log-euclidean framework to estimate temporal dense deforma-270 tion fields from multiple rigid transforms. The polyrigid approach provides a way to combine 271 high resolution spatial information with temporal dynamics of joints. The output of this pro-272 cess is a series of high-resolution anatomical images portraying the different phases of the 273 movement cycle. In this context, we proposed to compute the exponential mapping of the 274 LEPF in an efficient and elegant way using matrix diagonalization-based techniques rather 275 than using techniques involving approximation theory. The preservations of the bone shapes 276 after the polyrigid fusion were checked by computing the Jacobian maps associated to the 277 estimated deformation fields (as shown in figure 11). 278

279

To conclude, our work is the first effort to track ankle joint motion and deformation 280 from volumetric image data using intensity-based non-rigid image registration rather than 281 using explicit mechanistic models. It therefore achieves its goals without having to per-282 form time-consuming manual segmentations. In immediate future, the proposed approach 283 will be applied to compare the ankle joint dynamics of children with spastic equinus with 284 age-matched healthy children. Since spastic equinus is typically defined as the inability to 285 dorsifies the foot above plantigrade, with the hindfoot in neutral position and the knee in 286 extended position [13], the foot was constrained to a specific path using the fixture in this 287 work. However, this set-up is problem-specific and can be changed or removed while evalua-288 ting the pathomechanics of other joint(s). We will also explore this method to extract fine 289 biomechanical parameters of tendon, and cartilage contact mechanics (e.g. temporal joint 290 space width) of the tibio-talar joint which is the primary joint responsible for plantarflexion 291 and dorsiflexion of the ankle. Furthermore, these techniques can be applied to other joints 292 and related musculoskeletal disorders. This suggests that anatomical dynamic MRI and de-293 dicated image processing techniques can open a new way to study in vivo human joints. 294

²⁹⁵ 5. Acknowledgments

The research leading to these results has received funding from Région Bretagne, Chaire d'excellence INSERM-IMT Atlantique, Fondation de l'Avenir, Paris, France, and Fondation Motrice, Paris, France.

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FIGURE 11 : Jacobian map of the joint deformation fields that maps D_1 to D_2 for subject 4. The Jacobian determinant J(x) at a voxel x measures how the voxel volume changes after registration. It indicates a volume increase if > 1, and a volume decrease if < 1. The Jacobian determinant is equal to 1 inside bone segmentations (no voxel volume changes) as bones only perform linear rigid transformations (rotations and translations).

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387 Annexe A. Supplementary Material

An MRI safe orthotic fixture has been specifically designed in such way that it can be used for performing either passive plantar-dorsiflexion or voluntary active ankle joint movement (Figure 1). For passive acquisition, after placing the ankle joint in the fixture, each child was asked to relax the lower-limb musculature and then the fixture was cyclically moved by a technician at a rotation speed of 4°/s to 5°/s. The technician was given a set of headphones Algorithm 1 Bone motion estimation

- 1 : **Input** : segmentation of bones of interest in S.
- 2 : Mapping estimation from S to $\{D_k\}$:
 - Estimate rigid transforms $\{T_{S \to D_k}\}_{k=1,\ldots,K}$
 - Estimate rigid transform $\{T_{S \to D_k}^i\}_{k=1,\dots,K}$ using bone mask M^i , initialized with
- 3: Motion estimation
 - Estimate forward successive rigid transforms $\{T_{D_k \to D_{k+1}}^i\}_{k=k^*,\ldots,K-1; i=1,\ldots,N}$.
 - Estimate backward successive rigid transforms $\{T^i_{D_k \to D_{k-1}}\}_{k=k^\star,\dots,2;i=1,\dots,N}$.
- 4 : **Output :** compute bone rigid transforms $\{T_{S \to D_{k}}^{i}\}_{k=1,\dots,K;i=1,\dots,N}$ by combining steps 2 and 3

through which he/she could hear a metronome. Fixture was then moved in a consistent 393 passive plantar-dorsiflexion by the technician at the beat of the metronome and using the 394 guide wires attached to the fixture. For active movement, no technician was present and 395 children were asked to perform voluntary plantar-dorsiflexion between the extreme positions 396 on the beat of the metronome. Meaning, the active motion was completely voluntary with all 397 the muscles dynamically taking part in the production of the plantar-dorsiflexion movement. 398

Annexe B. Algorithm 399

The overall algorithm for bone motion estimation is described in Algorithm 1 and in 400 Figure 3, using the following notations : 401

S: high-resolution static image, $\{D_k\}_{k=1,\dots,K}$: set of low-resolution dynamic images, $\{M^i\}_{i=1,\dots,N}$: 402 set of mask of bones of interest, $T_{A\to B}$: rigid transform from image A to image B, $T^i_{A\to B}$: 403 rigid transform from image A to image B for the bone i, Dice(A,B) is the DICE coeffi-404 cient which measures the overlap between segmented regions $(Dice(A, B) = \frac{2|A \cap B|}{|A| + |B|})$. Rigid 405 registrations were performed using FSL-flirt [12] with correlation ratio as similarity mea-406 sure. A voxel-wise weighting based on the segmentation masks was used when estimating 407 bone-dependent motion. 408

Code is available online at https://github.com/rousseau/dynMRI. 409