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Journal article

**Direct methods for predicting movement biomechanics based upon optimal control theory with implementation in OpenSim**  
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1           **DIRECT METHODS FOR PREDICTING MOVEMENT BIOMECHANICS**  
2           **BASED UPON OPTIMAL CONTROL THEORY WITH IMPLEMENTATION IN**  
3                           **OPENSIM**

4  
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**ABSTRACT**

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The aim of this study was to compare the computational performances of two direct methods for solving large-scale, nonlinear, optimal control problems in human movement. Direct shooting and direct collocation were implemented on an 8-segment, 48-muscle model of the body (24 muscles on each side) to compute the optimal control solution for maximum-height jumping. Both algorithms were executed on a freely-available musculoskeletal modeling platform called OpenSim. Direct collocation converged to essentially the same optimal solution up to 249 times faster than direct shooting when the same initial guess was assumed (3.4 hours of CPU time for direct collocation versus 35.3 days for direct shooting). The model predictions were in good agreement with the time histories of joint angles, ground reaction forces and muscle activation patterns measured for subjects jumping to their maximum achievable heights. Both methods converged to essentially the same solution when started from the same initial guess, but computation time was sensitive to the initial guess assumed. Direct collocation demonstrates exceptional computational performance and is well suited to performing predictive simulations of movement using large-scale musculoskeletal models.

**Keywords:** direct shooting, collocation, musculoskeletal model, motion tracking, trajectory optimization, predictive simulation.

## INTRODUCTION

1  
2 Inverse- and forward-dynamics methods are commonly used in conjunction  
3 with optimization theory to calculate muscle forces during movement<sup>22,31</sup>. Inverse  
4 dynamics uses measured joint motion and ground force data as inputs to a model to  
5 determine the net moments applied about each joint. Static optimization is then  
6 applied to solve the net moment – muscle force redundancy problem<sup>3,9</sup>. Because this  
7 approach solves a different optimization problem at each time instant, the goal of the  
8 motor task (e.g., minimizing metabolic energy over one gait cycle) is not easily  
9 incorporated in the formulation of the problem<sup>22</sup>.

10 Forward-dynamics or optimal control theory uses neural excitations as inputs to  
11 drive a model of the neuromusculoskeletal system in a forward simulation of  
12 movement. Optimal control theory presents the most powerful framework for  
13 determining muscle forces because this approach incorporates a model of both the  
14 system dynamics and the goal of the motor task (i.e., the performance criterion) in  
15 the formulation of the optimization problem<sup>3,4,10,13,23,25</sup>. Computed muscle control<sup>28</sup>  
16 and neuromuscular tracking<sup>26</sup> are two recent approaches that use optimal control  
17 theory to track experimental gait data. This formulation of the optimal control problem  
18 is often referred to as ‘state estimation’<sup>6,7</sup>. Because the time histories of joint motions  
19 and external forces are used explicitly in the calculation of muscle forces, novel  
20 movements cannot be predicted using this approach. A more powerful application of  
21 optimal control theory is the formulation of a ‘trajectory optimization problem’, where  
22 all quantities of interest (i.e., joint motion, ground forces and muscle activation  
23 patterns) are predicted concurrently.

24 Numerical methods for solving optimal control problems are often divided into  
25 two categories: indirect methods and direct methods<sup>6</sup>. An indirect method applies the

1 calculus of variations to derive analytical expressions for the necessary conditions  
2 for optimal control, which are specified in terms of the adjoint differential equations,  
3 Pontryagin's maximum principle, and the associated boundary conditions<sup>13,25</sup>. The  
4 result is a two-point-boundary-value problem that can be challenging to solve for two  
5 reasons: firstly, finding an initial guess for the adjoint variables is problematic as  
6 these quantities often have no physical interpretation; and secondly, backward  
7 integration of the adjoint differential equations is numerically unstable because these  
8 equations are highly nonlinear.

9 Direct methods do not require either analytical expressions for the necessary  
10 conditions for optimal control or an initial guess for the adjoint variables. Instead, the  
11 control and/or state variables are approximated using parameterization and the  
12 optimal control problem is transcribed to a nonlinear programming problem. Direct  
13 shooting is the numerical method used to solve the optimal control problem when  
14 only the control variables are parameterized<sup>3,4,8,14,19,23</sup>, whereas direct collocation  
15 involves parameterization of both the control and state variables<sup>1,17,27</sup>.

16 Whilst the application of direct shooting results in fewer design variables  
17 compared to direct collocation, direct shooting is computationally more expensive as  
18 small time steps are needed to integrate a set of stiff differential equations during the  
19 optimization procedure. Furthermore, a gradient-based optimizer would require  
20 additional CPU time to calculate the derivatives of the performance criterion and  
21 constraints with respect to the controls because each perturbation of the controls  
22 requires a numerical integration of the system dynamical equations<sup>13,22</sup>. Anderson  
23 and Pandy<sup>3</sup> computed a minimum-metabolic-energy solution for walking with the  
24 body represented as a 3D, 23-degree-of-freedom skeleton actuated by 54 muscles.  
25 A direct shooting method<sup>23</sup> required the model equations to be integrated ~900 times

1 per iteration of the computational algorithm. Convergence to the optimal solution  
2 took ~10,000 hours of CPU time using multiple processors on an IBM SP-2 parallel  
3 supercomputer, making this method impractical.

4 Direct collocation offers a more efficient means of solving large-scale,  
5 nonlinear, optimal control problems as both the states and controls are discretized  
6 and the system dynamical equations are converted into algebraic constraints, thus  
7 circumventing the need for explicit integration. In addition, the nonlinear  
8 programming problem is characterized by a sparsely populated constraint Jacobian  
9 matrix that can be solved efficiently. Direct collocation has been combined with  
10 musculoskeletal modeling to solve state estimation (tracking) problems and produce  
11 stable forward simulations of human movement<sup>17, 29</sup>. However, relatively few studies  
12 have used this approach to solve a trajectory optimization problem and predict  
13 movement biomechanics independent of experimental data<sup>1,2,12,18,20,27</sup>. Stelzer and  
14 von Stryk<sup>27</sup> and Eriksson<sup>12</sup> applied simple models of the body to simulate kicking and  
15 arm lifting, respectively. Ackermann and van den Bogert<sup>1</sup> used a 9-degree-of-  
16 freedom skeleton actuated by 16 muscles to study how changes in the performance  
17 criterion affect the optimal control solution computed for normal walking. Kaplan and  
18 Heegard<sup>17</sup> solved a tracking problem with a simplified model of human pedaling  
19 dynamics and showed that direct collocation converges more quickly than direct  
20 shooting. To our knowledge, no study has quantitatively compared the computational  
21 performance of direct collocation to that of direct shooting when these two methods  
22 are used to solve the same trajectory optimization problem for human movement. In  
23 addition, no study has described the sensitivity of large-scale optimal control  
24 solutions to a change in the initial guess.



1 freedom translating hinge joint<sup>11</sup>. Joint hyperextension was prevented by applying a  
2 passive torque at each joint that represented the actions of the ligaments. The  
3 skeleton was actuated by 48 muscle-tendon units (24 muscles on each side of the  
4 body), with each unit represented as a Hill-type muscle in series with an elastic  
5 tendon. Muscle lines-of-action were represented in 3D based on the attachment sites  
6 assumed in the generic OpenSim model.

7       Eight spheres were placed under the model foot to simulate the interaction of  
8 the foot with the ground; five spheres were located under the hind-foot and three  
9 were placed under the toes (Fig. 1). The normal contact force applied by each  
10 sphere was found by summing the Hertzian contact force<sup>16</sup> and a Hunt-Crossley  
11 damping force<sup>15</sup>. The stiffness and damping coefficients of the contact spheres were  
12 found by solving optimization problems that reproduced the vertical ground forces  
13 measured for walking at the self-selected speed (1.4 m/s) and for running at 7 m/s  
14 (Supplementary Material). These tasks were chosen because they capture all  
15 possible movements of the foot (i.e., making, maintaining and breaking contact with  
16 the ground) across a wide range of locomotion speeds. The fore-aft component of  
17 the ground force was assumed to arise purely from friction, and a value of 0.8 was  
18 assumed for the static and dynamic friction coefficients<sup>21</sup>. Data defining the structure  
19 and parameters of the model are available at [https://simtk.org/home/vertical\\_jump/](https://simtk.org/home/vertical_jump/).

## 20 *Optimal control problem*

21       Jumping was assumed to be bilaterally symmetric<sup>4,24</sup>, and so 7 independent  
22 generalized coordinates in the model (i.e., anterior-posterior and vertical pelvic  
23 translations, pelvic tilt, lumbar extension, and flexion-extension of the hip, knee and  
24 ankle) were actuated by 24 independent muscle excitations. The system dynamical  
25 equations can be represented explicitly as:



$$\begin{aligned}
& \dot{\underline{q}} = \frac{d\underline{q}}{dt} \\
1 \quad & \ddot{\underline{q}} = -M^{-1}(\underline{q}) \left( \underline{C}(\underline{q}, \dot{\underline{q}}) + \underline{G}(\underline{q}) + R(\underline{q}) \underline{F}^{MT}(\underline{q}, \underline{l}^M) + \underline{T}_{foot}(\underline{q}, \dot{\underline{q}}) + \underline{T}_{lig}(\underline{q}, \dot{\underline{q}}) \right), \quad (1) \\
& \dot{\underline{l}}^M = h_1(\underline{q}, \underline{l}^M, \underline{a}); \quad 0 \leq \underline{a} \leq 1 \\
& \dot{\underline{a}} = h_2(\underline{a}, \underline{u})
\end{aligned}$$

2 where  $\underline{q}$  is a 7x1 vector of generalized coordinates;  $\dot{\underline{q}}$  is a 7x1 vector of generalized  
3 velocities;  $\underline{l}^M$  is a 24x1 vector of muscle-fiber lengths;  $\underline{a}$  is a 24x1 vector of muscle  
4 activations;  $\underline{u}$  is a 24x1 vector of muscle excitations (controls);  $M(\underline{q})$  is a 7x7 mass  
5 matrix;  $\underline{C}(\underline{q}, \dot{\underline{q}})$  is a 7x1 vector of centrifugal and Coriolis forces and torques;  $\underline{G}(\underline{q})$  is  
6 a 7x1 vector of gravitational forces and torques;  $R(\underline{q})$  is a 7x24 matrix of muscle  
7 moment arms;  $\underline{F}^{MT}$  is a 24x1 vector of muscle-tendon forces;  $\underline{T}_{foot}(\underline{q}, \dot{\underline{q}})$  is a 7x1  
8 vector of spring forces used to simulate foot-ground interaction; and  $\underline{T}_{lig}(\underline{q}, \dot{\underline{q}})$  is a  
9 7x1 vector of ligament and damping torques. Equation (1) can be expressed in  
10 compact form as:

$$11 \quad \dot{\underline{x}} = \underline{f}(\underline{x}, \underline{u}, t). \quad (2)$$

12 where  $\underline{x}$  is a 62x1 state vector defined by  $\underline{x} = (\underline{q}, \dot{\underline{q}}, \underline{l}^M, \underline{a})^T$ . For prescribed values of  
13 the controls and states at each time instant, equation (2) was evaluated using  
14 OpenSim API (version 3.2) by executing a MEX-function that provided an interface  
15 between OpenSim and MATLAB.

16 The performance criterion was to maximize the height reached by the COM  
17 during the jump<sup>25</sup> :

$$18 \quad J = Y_C(t_f) + \frac{\dot{Y}_C^2(t_f)}{2g} \quad (3)$$

1 where  $Y_C(t_f)$  and  $\dot{Y}_C(t_f)$  are the vertical position and velocity of the COM at the final  
 2 lift-off time,  $t_f$ ; and  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration constant. An inequality  
 3 constraint was imposed to prevent the COM from countermoving prior to upward  
 4 propulsion:<sup>5</sup>

$$5 \quad \ddot{Y}_C(t_n) < \ddot{Y}_C(t_{n+1}); \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, 7, \quad (4)$$

6 where  $\ddot{Y}_C(t_n)$  is the vertical acceleration of the COM at the  $n^{\text{th}}$  temporal node.

7 Equation (4) was enforced to reproduce the conditions under which human subjects  
 8 performed a non-countermovement jump from an initial squatting position. A set of  
 9 inequality constraints was also imposed to constrain the values of the muscle  
 10 excitations:

$$11 \quad 0 \leq \underline{u}(t) \leq 1, \quad (5)$$

12 where  $u = 1$  and  $u = 0$  represent the fully excited and fully de-excited states of a  
 13 muscle, respectively. Additional upper and lower bounds were imposed on the state  
 14 variables when implementing the direct collocation method:

$$15 \quad \underline{x}_{\min} \leq \underline{x}(t) \leq \underline{x}_{\max}. \quad (6)$$

16 Thus, the optimal control problem was to maximize the performance criterion  
 17 (equation (3)) subject to the system dynamical equations (equation (2)) and a set of  
 18 linear inequality constraints (equations (4)-(5) for direct shooting and equations (4)-  
 19 (6) for direct collocation).

## 20 *Creating an initial guess*

21 Optimal control solutions for jumping were computed using two different initial  
 22 guesses. In each case, the model began from a prescribed static squatting position.  
 23 The first initial guess was created by using computed muscle control<sup>28</sup> to calculate  
 24 the muscle excitation histories needed to drive the model in a forward simulation to

1 track the joint angular displacements and velocities calculated from a previously  
2 published simulation of jumping<sup>4</sup>. Direct shooting and direct collocation were then  
3 applied separately to compute the optimal control solution assuming a free final lift-  
4 off time,  $t_f$ . Direct shooting required an initial guess only for the controls (muscle  
5 excitations), whereas direct collocation required initial guesses for both the states  
6 and controls.

7 A second initial guess was created using a previously reported ‘bang-bang’  
8 optimal control solution for jumping<sup>24</sup>. The bang-bang (on-off) muscle excitation  
9 histories were input to the model and the system dynamical equations were  
10 integrated to compute the corresponding states. Direct shooting and direct  
11 collocation were then applied separately to solve the same free-final-time problem  
12 using the second initial guess. The solutions computed for the first and second initial  
13 guesses were compared to determine the sensitivity of each method to a change in  
14 the initial guess.

### 15 *Computation of the optimal controls*

16 Direct shooting was implemented by discretizing the control histories  
17 corresponding to the initial guess and transcribing the optimal control problem to a  
18 nonlinear programming problem<sup>14,23</sup>. The time interval  $[t_0, t_f]$  was discretized evenly  
19 into 28 subintervals and the control histories were parameterized using 29 nodal  
20 points. This number of nodes was based on that used to solve the direct collocation  
21 problem (see below). Since the model began from a prescribed static position, the  
22 values of the control nodes at  $t = t_0$  were known. Thus, the optimal control problem  
23 for direct shooting was defined by  $28 \times 24 = 672$  control variables, a free final time  $t_f$ , 7

1 path constraints (equation (4)), and  $(672+1)*2=1,346$  inequality constraints (equation  
2 (5)) (see Table 1).

3 The direct collocation method was implemented by discretizing both the control  
4 and state histories using 29 nodal points and replacing the system dynamical  
5 equations with  $62*28=1,736$  algebraic equality constraints or defects,  $\Delta$ , using  
6 Euler's method:

$$7 \quad \Delta = (\underline{x}_{n+1} - \underline{x}_n) - (t_{n+1} - t_n) \cdot f\left(\left(\frac{\underline{x}_n + \underline{x}_{n+1}}{2}\right), \left(\frac{\underline{u}_n + \underline{u}_{n+1}}{2}\right), \left(\frac{t_n + t_{n+1}}{2}\right)\right), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, 28. \quad (7)$$

8 Twenty-nine nodes were used to reproduce the nodal density selected by Ackerman  
9 and van den Bogert<sup>1</sup> in their simulation of human gait (i.e., 1 node per 10 ms of  
10 simulation time). Analogous to direct shooting, the values of the controls and states  
11 at  $t = t_0$  were known. Thus, the optimal control problem for direct collocation was  
12 defined by 2,409 design variables (24\*28 control variables, 62\*28 state variables,  
13 and the final time,  $t_f$ ), 7 path constraints (equation (4)),  $(24*28+62*28+1)*2=4,818$   
14 inequality constraints (equations (5)-(6)), and  $28*62=1,736$  equality constraints  
15 (equation (7)) (Table 1).

16 Both optimal control problems were solved using an interior-point algorithm  
17 available within the fmincon function defined in the optimization toolbox of MATLAB  
18 (Toolbox Version 7.0 R2014a, MathWorks Inc., Natick, MA). For the direct shooting  
19 problem, the derivatives of the performance criterion and constraints with respect to  
20 the design variables were calculated using central differences; thus, the system  
21 equations were integrated  $2*673=1,346$  times per iteration of the computational  
22 algorithm. The optimal control solution was computed until the value of jump height  
23 improved by less than  $10^{-6}$  m and the values of the constraints were satisfied to a  
24 tolerance of  $10^{-3}$ .

## 1 *Efficient computation of the Jacobian matrix*

2       The defect constraints (equation (7)) were functions of only the two neighboring  
3 temporal nodes, and so the constraint Jacobian matrix, which contained the  
4 derivatives of the constraints with respect to the states and controls, was sparse  
5 (Fig. 2). The computational performance of the direct collocation method can be  
6 improved by accounting for this sparse structure. For the jumping problem, the  
7 constraint Jacobian comprised of  $62 \cdot 86 \cdot 28 \cdot 28 + 62 \cdot 28$  or 4,182,024 total entries (Fig.  
8 2). However, the vast majority of these entries were zeros; indeed, at most only  
9  $2 \cdot 27 \cdot (62 \cdot 86) + 62 \cdot 86 + 28 \cdot 62 = 294,996$  or 7.1% of the entries within the entire grid  
10 structure of the Jacobian were non-zero (Fig. 2, blue squares and blue line in bottom  
11 panel), leaving 3,887,028 entries or 92.9% of the entire grid structure with zeros.  
12 These zero entries were taken into account in computing the optimal control solution  
13 using direct collocation. Additional zeros within each block of the constraint Jacobian  
14 (Fig. 2, top panel) could not be taken into account because of the built-in functionality  
15 provided by OpenSim (see Discussion below). The constraint Jacobian matrix was  
16 calculated using central differences to approximate the derivatives (Supplementary  
17 Material).

18       All calculations were performed on a 3.4 GHz PC (Intel® Core™ i7-3770  
19 Processor). Jump height was calculated as the difference between the maximum  
20 height reached by the COM during the jump and the height of the COM at standing.  
21 The direct shooting and direct collocation solutions were compared against  
22 experimental data reported for healthy young subjects jumping to their maximum  
23 achievable heights<sup>4</sup>.

## RESULTS

### *Computational performance*

Direct shooting required 602 iterations and 846.4 hours (35.3 days) of CPU time to converge to the optimal control solution for jumping using the first initial guess (Fig. 3 and Table 2). By comparison, direct collocation required 702 iterations and 3.4 hours of CPU time (249 times faster than direct shooting) to converge to essentially the same optimal solution from the same initial guess. The computational performance of direct collocation remained far superior to that of direct shooting when the second initial guess was used, but the speed-up in CPU time (103 times) was less (9.6 hours versus 990.1 hours (41.3 days)).

### *Comparison of model and experiment*

The model simulations reproduced the salient features of maximum-height jumping. The optimal muscle excitation histories predicted by the model were consistent with measured EMG (Fig. 4). In agreement with experiment, the erector spinae, gluteus maximus, vasti, soleus and gastrocnemius were fully activated in the model for the majority of ground contact time. Some differences between model and experiment were also evident. For example, the biarticular hamstring was activated only at the beginning of the simulated jump, whereas subjects activated their hamstrings during the entire propulsion phase (Fig. 4, SEMIMEM).

Peak vertical ground forces predicted by direct shooting and direct collocation were 3.0 BW and 3.1 BW, respectively, compared with measured values ranging from 2.5 BW to 3.0 BW (Fig. 5). Consistent with experiment, the model generated much smaller forces in the fore-aft direction. However, peak fore-aft ground forces predicted by both methods (~0.7 BW) were higher than the range of values recorded from experiment (0.2-0.4 BW).

1 Trajectories of the vertical position and velocity of the COM predicted by the  
2 model were consistent with experimental results (Fig. 5). Direct shooting and direct  
3 collocation both predicted a vertical COM velocity at lift-off of 2.2 m/s compared to  
4 2.0-2.5 m/s measured for subjects. Both methods predicted a maximum jump height  
5 of ~36 cm, which agreed closely with the values obtained from experiment (mean,  
6 36.9 cm; range: 33-41 cm)<sup>4</sup> (Table 2). Ground contact times predicted by direct  
7 shooting and direct collocation were 0.31 sec and 0.28 sec, respectively, which also  
8 compared well with the average time of 0.30 sec recorded for subjects (range: 0.25-  
9 0.39 sec).

10 The joint angular displacements predicted by both methods were generally  
11 consistent with experiment (Fig. 5). The model extended the hip, knee and ankle  
12 joints in a similar fashion to that measured for subjects, although one noticeable  
13 difference was that the hip and knee in the model were slightly more flexed during  
14 initial propulsion (Fig. 5). The pattern of back extension calculated in the model was  
15 substantially different from that recorded from experiment, but there was  
16 considerable variability in the experimental data.

### 17 *Sensitivity of the optimal solution to the initial guess*

18 Both methods were sensitive to the initial guess assumed. Although the second  
19 initial guess was much farther from the optimal solution than the first, as evidenced  
20 by the uncoordinated motion of the joints (Figs 6-7, gray and black stick figures) and  
21 a calculated jump height of 0.2 cm lower than the standing height, there were  
22 similarities in the optimal joint angles, COM motion, and ground forces computed  
23 using the two initial guesses (Figs 6-7, heavy and light lines). However, some clear  
24 differences were also evident. For both direct shooting and direct collocation, the  
25 peak vertical ground force predicted for the second initial guess was noticeably lower

1 (~0.5 BW) than that calculated for the first, resulting in a ~7 cm difference in jump  
2 height (Table 2).

### 3 **DISCUSSION**

4 The aim of this study was to compare the computational performances of two  
5 direct methods for solving large-scale, nonlinear, optimal control problems in human  
6 movement. Direct shooting and direct collocation were implemented on a detailed  
7 musculoskeletal model to compute a free-final-time optimal control solution for  
8 maximum-height jumping. Both computational algorithms were executed on an open-  
9 source musculoskeletal modeling platform, OpenSim. Direct collocation converged to  
10 essentially the same optimal solution up to 249 times faster than direct shooting  
11 using the same initial guess. There was good agreement between the optimal joint  
12 angles, ground forces, and muscle excitation patterns predicted by the model and  
13 corresponding experimental data. Maximum jump heights predicted by the two  
14 methods were virtually identical and in close agreement with the mean value  
15 obtained from experiment. The model converged to a quantitatively different optimal  
16 solution depending on the initial guess assumed. However, both methods converged  
17 to the same solution when started from the same initial guess.

18 Few previous studies have used direct collocation to solve a trajectory  
19 optimization problem and predict movement biomechanics independent of  
20 experimental data<sup>1,12,27</sup>. The models used by Stelzer and von Stryk<sup>27</sup> and Eriksson<sup>12</sup>  
21 were relatively simple with the body represented as a 2-degree-of-freedom linkage  
22 and actuated by fewer than 10 muscles. Ackermann and van den Bogert<sup>1</sup> used a  
23 planar, 7-segment, 16-muscle model of the body to study how changes in the  
24 performance criterion affect the optimal solution computed for gait. In the present  
25 study a planar, 8-segment, 48-muscle model of the body (24 muscles on each side)



1 was used to compute the optimal control solution for maximum-height jumping, and  
2 the model predictions were quantitatively compared against measurements of the  
3 joint angles, COM position and velocity, ground forces, and muscle activation  
4 patterns obtained as subjects jumped to their maximum achievable heights. We also  
5 compared the computational performances of direct shooting and direct collocation  
6 when the same optimal control problem was solved using the same initial guess. In  
7 addition, the present study described the sensitivity of large-scale optimal control  
8 solutions to a change in the initial guess.

9       The computational performance of direct collocation was vastly superior to that  
10 of direct shooting even though many more iterations were needed to converge to the  
11 optimal solution (Table 2). This is because the CPU time per iteration was ~300  
12 times less for direct collocation compared to direct shooting. CPU time per iteration  
13 for direct shooting was significantly greater because  $2 \times 673 = 1,346$  forward  
14 integrations of the system dynamical equations were needed to evaluate the  
15 derivatives of the constraints (using central differences) and determine a search  
16 direction at each iteration. In contrast, direct collocation solved the system equations  
17 implicitly by enforcing a set of defect constraints (equation (7)) at each of the state  
18 nodal points. This process involved the simultaneous solution of a set of nonlinear  
19 algebraic equations and was less expensive computationally than repeated  
20 integration of the system dynamical equations.

21       The variation in CPU time across iterations was much larger for direct shooting  
22 than direct collocation. For direct shooting, CPU times per iteration for the solutions  
23 derived from the first and second initial guesses were  $84.3 \pm 32.4$  min and  $90.1 \pm$   
24  $38.4$  min, respectively, compared to  $0.3 \pm 0.0$  min and  $0.3 \pm 0.1$  min for direct  
25 collocation (Table 2). The high standard deviation in CPU time for direct shooting

1 was due to different step sizes used during the forward integrations performed to  
2 evaluate the derivatives. When the dynamics of the simulated jump changed rapidly,  
3 as evidenced by a rapid change in the vertical ground force, the step size selected  
4 by the integrator was necessarily small, causing an increase in the time taken to  
5 integrate the system equations. Conversely, when the dynamics of the simulated  
6 jump changed more slowly, step size was larger, and the time taken to integrate the  
7 system equations was proportionately less. This led to large fluctuations in the CPU  
8 time per iteration for direct shooting. In contrast, CPU time per iteration for direct  
9 collocation was nearly constant because the time taken to calculate a search  
10 direction did not depend on how the dynamics of the simulated jump was changing.

11 In theory a global optimal control solution can be computed from an arbitrary  
12 initial guess. We found that the optimal solutions computed for maximum-height  
13 jumping using direct shooting and direct collocation were slightly different (i.e., jump  
14 height was 5-7 mm higher for direct shooting), and neither can be guaranteed to  
15 represent the global optimum. There are at least two explanations for this result.  
16 Firstly, different discretization schemes were used to approximate the continuous-  
17 time dynamics for the present direct shooting and direct collocation problems. We  
18 used Euler's method with 29 evenly-spaced nodes to solve the collocation problem,  
19 whereas an OpenSim built-in 5<sup>th</sup>-order Runge-Kutta method with a variable step size  
20 was used to solve the direct shooting problem. Secondly, the derivatives of the  
21 performance criterion and constraints were evaluated differently during a solution of  
22 the direct shooting and direct collocation problems, and this information was then  
23 used by a nonlinear programming solver to determine a search direction. To illustrate  
24 the effects of each of these factors on the computation of the optimal solution, we  
25 solved a standard optimal control problem using the direct shooting and direct

1 collocation methods (Supplementary Material). This analysis clearly demonstrated  
2 that both methods again converged to different solutions regardless of the size of the  
3 optimal control problem.

4       The model converged to a quantitatively different optimal solution depending on  
5 the initial guess assumed (Figs 6-7). In particular, optimal jump heights predicted by  
6 the two methods using the second initial guess (29.9 cm and 29.4 cm for direct  
7 shooting and direct collocation, respectively) were much lower than those calculated  
8 using the first initial guess (36.7 cm and 36.0 cm, respectively). This result is most  
9 likely explained by the nature of gradient-based algorithms, which may have difficulty  
10 converging when the initial guess is at some distance from the neighborhood of the  
11 optimal solution. This was demonstrated in the present study where both methods  
12 converged to a sub-optimal solution for the second initial guess with a maximum  
13 jump height that was 7 cm lower than that computed for the first initial guess. These  
14 results emphasize the fact that computation of the optimal controls is sensitive to the  
15 initial guess and that caution should be exercised in generating an initial guess. For  
16 the direct collocation method, an initial guess is needed for both the control and state  
17 trajectories. One option is to apply computed muscle control or neuromuscular  
18 tracking to compute the muscle excitations needed to track joint angle trajectories  
19 measured from experiment<sup>26,28</sup>. However, this approach is limited when the aim is to  
20 predict novel movements that result from changes in a model parameter such as  
21 muscle strength. In these instances, the best approach may be to solve the direct  
22 collocation problem repeatedly using a series of different initial guesses to gain  
23 confidence that the solution indeed represents a global optimum.

24       A noticeable difference between the two methods was the strategy used to  
25 optimize the performance criterion. Jump height increased rapidly during the first few

1 iterations of the direct collocation solution, accompanied by relatively large errors in  
2 the constraints (Fig. 8, red lines). As the constraint errors were subsequently  
3 reduced, jump height also decreased markedly. Once the constraint errors were  
4 sufficiently small, however, jump height increased nearly monotonically prior to  
5 convergence. In contrast, the direct shooting solution was characterized by a more  
6 gradual improvement in jump height with much smaller constraint errors generated  
7 throughout (Fig. 8, blue lines). The constraint errors were larger for the collocation  
8 solution because ~5,000 additional constraints (1,736 defect constraints plus 3,472  
9 upper and lower bounds on the state variables) were prescribed for this problem  
10 compared with that for direct shooting (Table 1). Because the system equations were  
11 integrated explicitly in direct shooting, only a set of linear inequality constraints on  
12 the control variables (equation (5)) and 7 non-linear path constraints (equation(4))  
13 had to be satisfied, making it possible for the optimizer to find a search direction that  
14 improved jump height without committing large errors in the constraints.

15 The computational performance of direct collocation remained far superior to  
16 that of direct shooting when the second initial guess was used, but the speed-up in  
17 CPU time was less; direct collocation computed the optimal solution 103 times faster  
18 for the second initial guess compared to 249 times faster for the first initial guess.  
19 This result may be explained by the contrasting strategies used by these two  
20 methods to compute the optimal control solution for jumping. Figure 8 shows that the  
21 constraint errors increased by more than a factor of two during the first few iterations  
22 of the direct collocation solution when the second initial guess was used, which  
23 required a larger number of iterations for convergence. In contrast, the constraint  
24 errors generated during the first few iterations of the direct shooting solution were  
25 similar for the first and second initial guesses. This finding suggests that the

1 computational performance of direct collocation is more sensitive to a change in the  
2 initial guess than that of direct shooting.

3 To our knowledge, this is the first study to implement direct collocation in  
4 OpenSim, a widely used open-source modeling and simulation environment for  
5 studying movement biomechanics. Previous studies have used custom  
6 musculoskeletal models and software to solve trajectory optimization problems in  
7 human movement<sup>1,3,10,13,20,27,30</sup>. The present study demonstrates the potential of  
8 performing predictive simulations of movement using direct collocation within  
9 OpenSim. While the results are encouraging, there are some limitations which  
10 require further consideration.

11 First, the structure of the sparsely populated constraint Jacobian matrix was not  
12 fully exploited when solving the collocation problem. As described in the Methods  
13 section, the constraint Jacobian comprised of  $62 \times 86 \times 28 \times 28 + 62 \times 28 = 4,182,024$  total  
14 entries (Fig. 2). By examining an exploded view of a representative block of the  
15 Jacobian grid structure (Fig. 2, blue squares in bottom panel), it can be seen that  
16 only 406 entries (Fig. 2, blue dots in top panel) out of  $62 \times 86 = 5,332$  total entries in  
17 each block were non-zero, leaving 4,926 entries or 92.4% of each block containing  
18 zeros. Thus, only  $2 \times 27 \times 406 + 406 + 28 \times 62 = 24,066$  entries or 0.6% of all entries within  
19 the constraint Jacobian were non-zero for the jumping problem. The results of Fig. 3  
20 did not account for the zero entries within each block, which meant that  
21  $4,926 \times (2 \times 27) + 4,926 = 270,930$  additional zeros (6.5% of all entries in the constraint  
22 Jacobian) were unnecessarily computed while forming the derivatives of the  
23 constraints. We were unable to account for the additional zeros within each block  
24 because calculation of the derivatives of the constraints is currently limited to the  
25 built-in functionality provided by OpenSim. Future work should focus on developing

1 the software needed to customize these calculations so that the sparse structure of  
2 the constraint Jacobian matrix can be fully exploited.

3 Second, an explicit formulation of the dynamical equations of motion was used  
4 in the present study. An optimal control problem can be solved either by explicitly  
5 (i.e., equation (2)) or implicitly formulating the equations for neuromusculoskeletal  
6 dynamics. The latter approach has been shown to be more efficient computationally  
7 because analytical expressions are given for the various entries of the constraint  
8 Jacobian<sup>29</sup>. Recent studies have applied implicit direct collocation and derived  
9 optimal control solutions for human movement using less than 30 minutes of CPU  
10 time<sup>20,30</sup>. While it is theoretically possible to solve our jumping problem using implicit  
11 direct collocation, OpenSim currently provides only an explicit formulation of the  
12 dynamical equations of motion, and a significant amount of customization would  
13 therefore be needed to export the implicit form of these equations from OpenSim.  
14 This issue warrants careful consideration when contemplating the solution of an  
15 optimal control problem in OpenSim using direct collocation.

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### FIGURE CAPTIONS

5 Fig. 1: Schematic diagram of the musculoskeletal model used in this study. Only  
6 those muscles on the right side of the body are shown for clarity. Foot-  
7 ground contact was modeled using eight contact spheres per foot (inset).  
8 Forces were applied to the model foot at the points of ground contact. There  
9 is no contact force between the spheres even though some spheres overlap  
10 with each other as illustrated in this figure.

11 Fig. 2: Structure of the constraint Jacobian matrix computed for the musculoskeletal  
12 model used in this study (see Fig. 1). The  $i^{\text{th}}$  block-row of the 28\*28 grid  
13 (bottom panel) represents the derivatives of all defect constraints with  
14 respect to the control and state variables at the  $i^{\text{th}}$  node. Because the defect  
15 constraints were a function of two neighboring nodes, each row contained  
16 only two non-zero blocks (blue squares); the entries of the remaining 26  
17 blocks were all zeros (empty squares). Please note that the derivatives of all  
18 defect constraints with respect to the final time variable were all non-zeros  
19 and were represented as a blue line at the bottom of the grid. Further  
20 improvement in computational speed may be obtained by exploiting the  
21 sparse structure of the Jacobian matrix inside each block as illustrated in the  
22 exploded view given in the top panel. Each row of each block contained 62  
23 entries related to the defect constraints as defined in equation (7) (i.e., 7  
24 entries related to joint angular displacements ( $\underline{\Delta}_q$ ); 7 entries related to joint  
25 angular velocities ( $\underline{\Delta}_{\dot{q}}$ ); 24 entries related to muscle-fiber lengths ( $\underline{\Delta}_L$ ); and

1        24 entries related to muscle activations ( $\underline{\Delta}_a$ ). Each column of each block  
 2        contained 86 entries associated with the state and control variables (i.e., 7  
 3        joint angular displacements ( $\underline{q}$ ), 7 joint angular velocities ( $\underline{\dot{q}}$ ), 24 muscle-  
 4        fiber lengths ( $\underline{L}$ ), 24 muscle activations ( $\underline{a}$ ), and 24 controls ( $\underline{u}$ )). Thus, the  
 5        size of each block was  $62 \times 86 = 5,332$  entries while that of the entire Jacobian  
 6        matrix was  $5332 \times 28 \times 28 + 62 \times 28 = 4,182,024$  entries.

7    Fig. 3: Top: Stick figures showing the configuration of the model at lift-off as a  
 8        function of iteration number. Iteration number is expressed as a percentage  
 9        of the total number of iterations performed using direct shooting and direct  
 10        collocation in conjunction with the first initial guess (left panel) and the  
 11        second initial guess (right panel).

12        Bottom: Total CPU time plotted against the absolute number of iterations  
 13        taken to converge to an optimal control solution for jumping using the direct  
 14        shooting method (blue line) and the direct collocation method (red line) for  
 15        the first initial guess (left panel) and the second initial guess (right panel).

16    Fig. 4: Muscle excitation histories representing the first initial guess (black lines),  
 17        optimal muscle excitations predicted by direct shooting starting from the first  
 18        initial guess (blue lines), and optimal muscle excitations predicted by direct  
 19        collocation starting from the first initial guess (red lines). Also shown are  
 20        muscle EMG activation patterns recorded for one subject executing a  
 21        maximum-height jump (gray lines)<sup>4</sup>. EMG data shown are for the subject that  
 22        most closely matched the BMI of the model. EMG data for each muscle were  
 23        normalized by the maximum electrode voltage recorded during a maximal  
 24        voluntary contraction<sup>4</sup>. The vertical axes for the model muscle excitations  
 25        and the EMG data therefore range from 0 to 1. Muscle abbreviations used

1 are: ERCSPN, erector spinae; INTOBL, internal obliques; GMAX, medial  
 2 gluteus maximus; SEMIMEM, semimembranosus; RF, rectus femoris; VASi,  
 3 vastus intermedius; GAS, medial gastrocnemius; SOL, soleus.

4 Fig. 5: Time histories of the vertical and fore-aft ground reaction forces and center-  
 5 of-mass vertical position and velocity (left column) and the angular  
 6 displacements of the back, hip, knee and ankle joints (right column)  
 7 generated by the first initial guess (black lines) compared to the optimal  
 8 solutions predicted by direct shooting (blue lines) and direct collocation (red  
 9 lines). The gray lines represent experimental data recorded for five subjects  
 10 jumping to their maximum achievable heights<sup>4</sup>. Positive values represent  
 11 back extension, hip flexion, knee extension, and ankle dorsiflexion. The stick  
 12 figures above each column show the configuration of the body during ground  
 13 contact time. The gray stick figures represent the experimental data  
 14 averaged for the five subjects while the red stick figures represent the  
 15 configuration of the model corresponding to the direct collocation solution.  
 16 The configuration of the model corresponding to the direct shooting solution  
 17 is indistinguishable from that corresponding to direct collocation and is  
 18 therefore not shown.

19 Fig. 6: Time histories of the fore-aft and vertical ground reaction forces and center-  
 20 of-mass vertical position and velocity generated by the first and second initial  
 21 guesses (left column) compared to the optimal solutions predicted by direct  
 22 shooting (middle column) and direct collocation (right column). In all panels,  
 23 the light lines represent the first initial guess and its corresponding optimal  
 24 solutions while the heavy lines represent the second initial guess and its

1 corresponding optimal solutions. The stick figures above each column show  
2 the configuration of the model during ground contact time.

3 Fig. 7: Time histories of the back, hip, knee and ankle joint angular displacements  
4 generated by the first and second initial guesses (left column) compared to  
5 the optimal solutions predicted by direct shooting (middle column) and direct  
6 collocation (right column). In all panels, the light lines represent the first initial  
7 guess and its corresponding optimal solutions while the heavy lines  
8 represent the second initial guess and its corresponding optimal solutions.  
9 The stick figures above each column show the configuration of the model  
10 during ground contact time.

11 Fig. 8: Variation in the values of the performance criterion (jump height) and  
12 maximum constraint error plotted against the percentage of total number of  
13 iterations for direct shooting (blue lines) and direct collocation (red lines).  
14 The light and heavy lines represent the optimal solutions derived using the  
15 first and second initial guesses, respectively. The unit of the maximum  
16 constraint error represented on the vertical axis in the bottom panel is not  
17 given as it varies according to the state possessing the maximum value.

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**Tables**

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Table 1: Comparison of the design variables and constraints used in the formulation of the direct shooting and direct collocation problems. Note that the number of bounds is two times greater than the total number of design variables because an upper and lower bound was applied to each design variable. See text for details.

Method	Design Variables				Constraints			
	Controls	States	Final Time	Total	Path	Defect	Bounds	Total
Direct Shooting	672	0	1	673	7	0	1346	1353
Direct Collocation	672	1736	1	2409	7	1736	4818	6561

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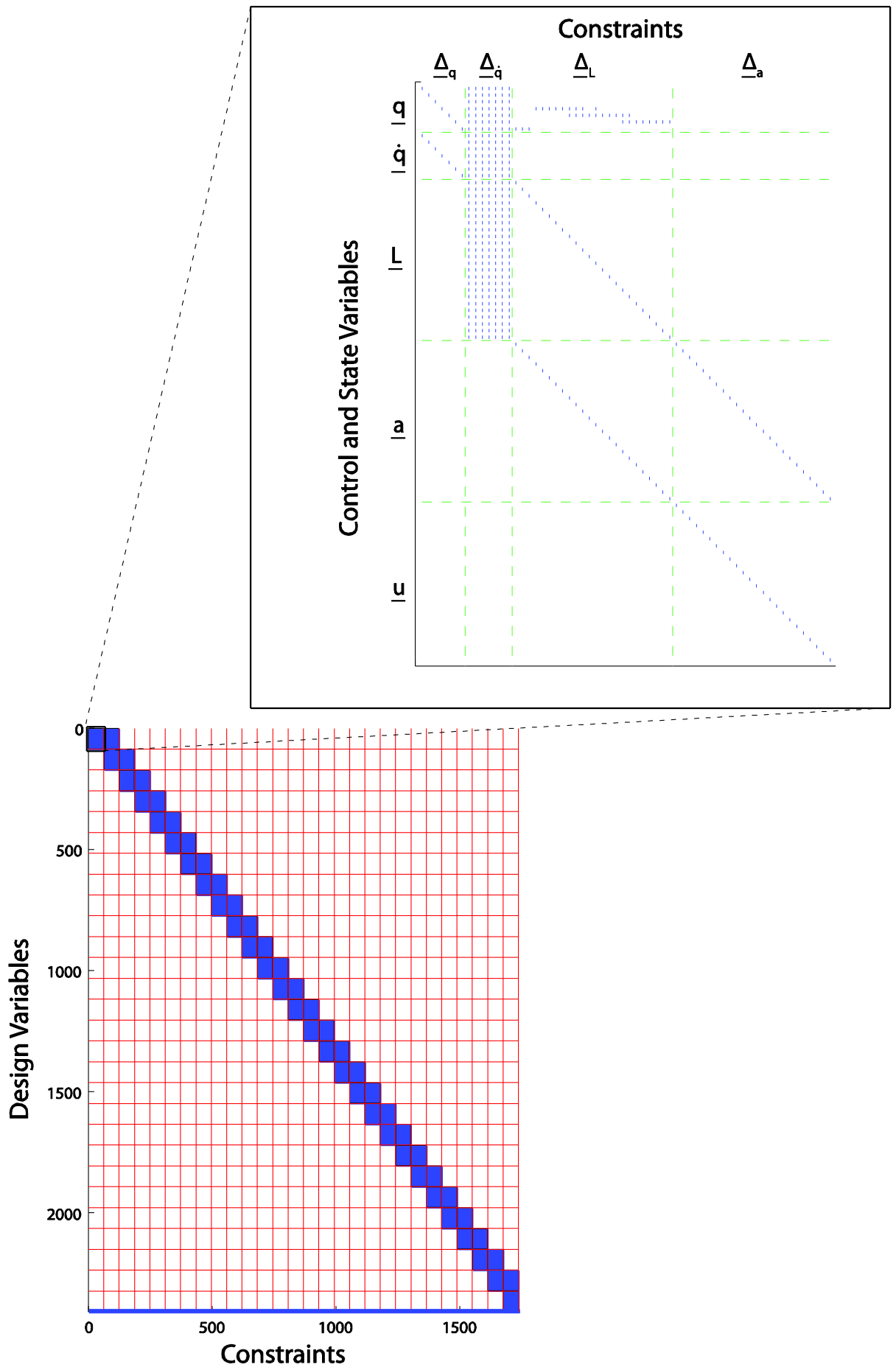
1 Table 2: Comparison of number of iterations, CPU time, jump height, and  
 2 ground contact time for the direct shooting and direct collocation optimal control  
 3 solutions. Average CPU time per iteration is expressed as mean  $\pm$  one standard  
 4 deviation.

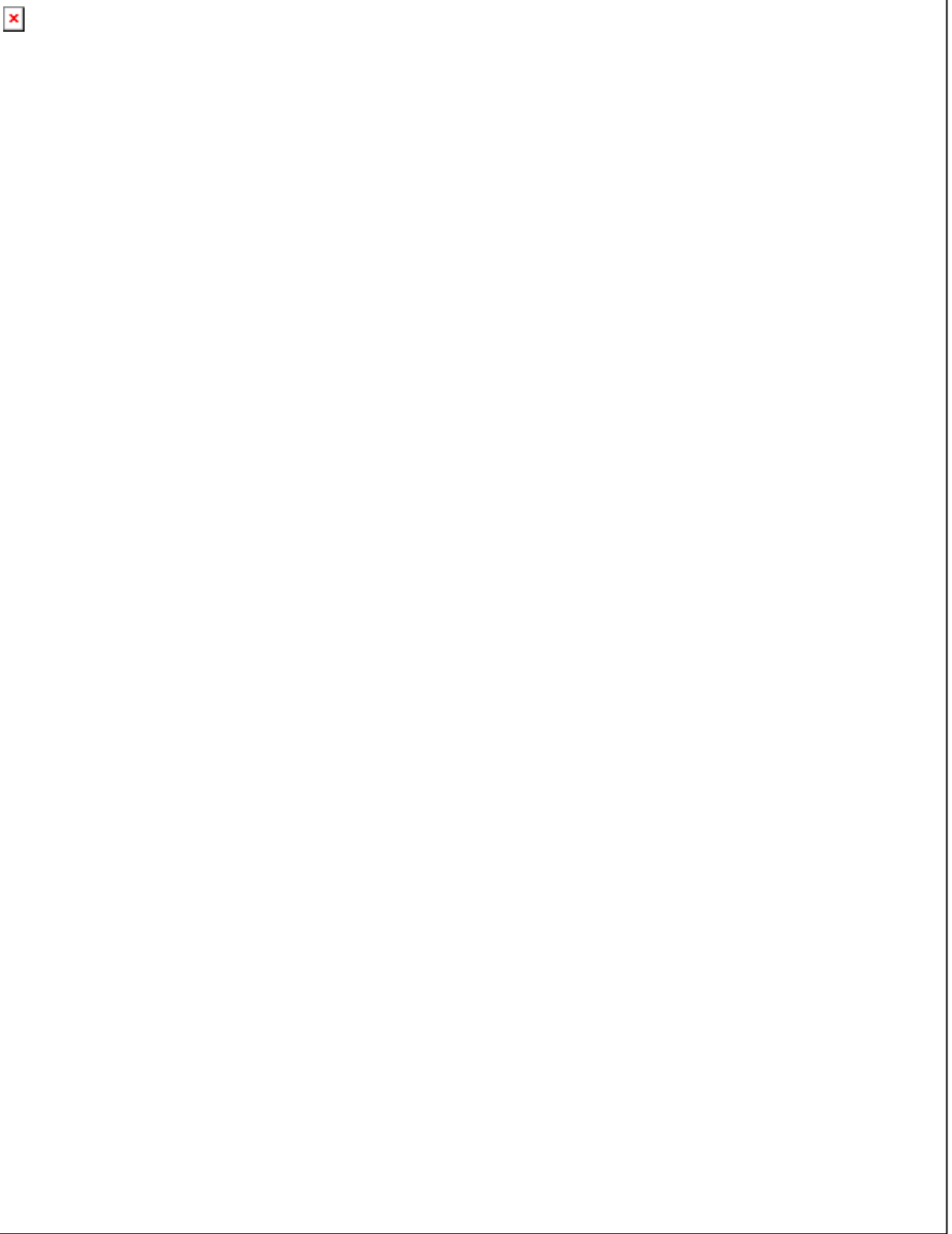
	Method	Number of Iterations	CPU Time (hours)	CPU Time per Iteration (min)	Jump Height (cm)	Ground Contact Time (sec)
First Initial Guess	Direct Shooting	602	846.4	84.3 $\pm$ 32.4	36.7	0.31
	Direct Collocation	702	3.4	0.3 $\pm$ 0.0	36.0	0.28
Second Initial Guess	Direct Shooting	661	990.1	90.1 $\pm$ 38.4	29.9	0.29
	Direct Collocation	1683	9.6	0.3 $\pm$ 0.1	29.4	0.27

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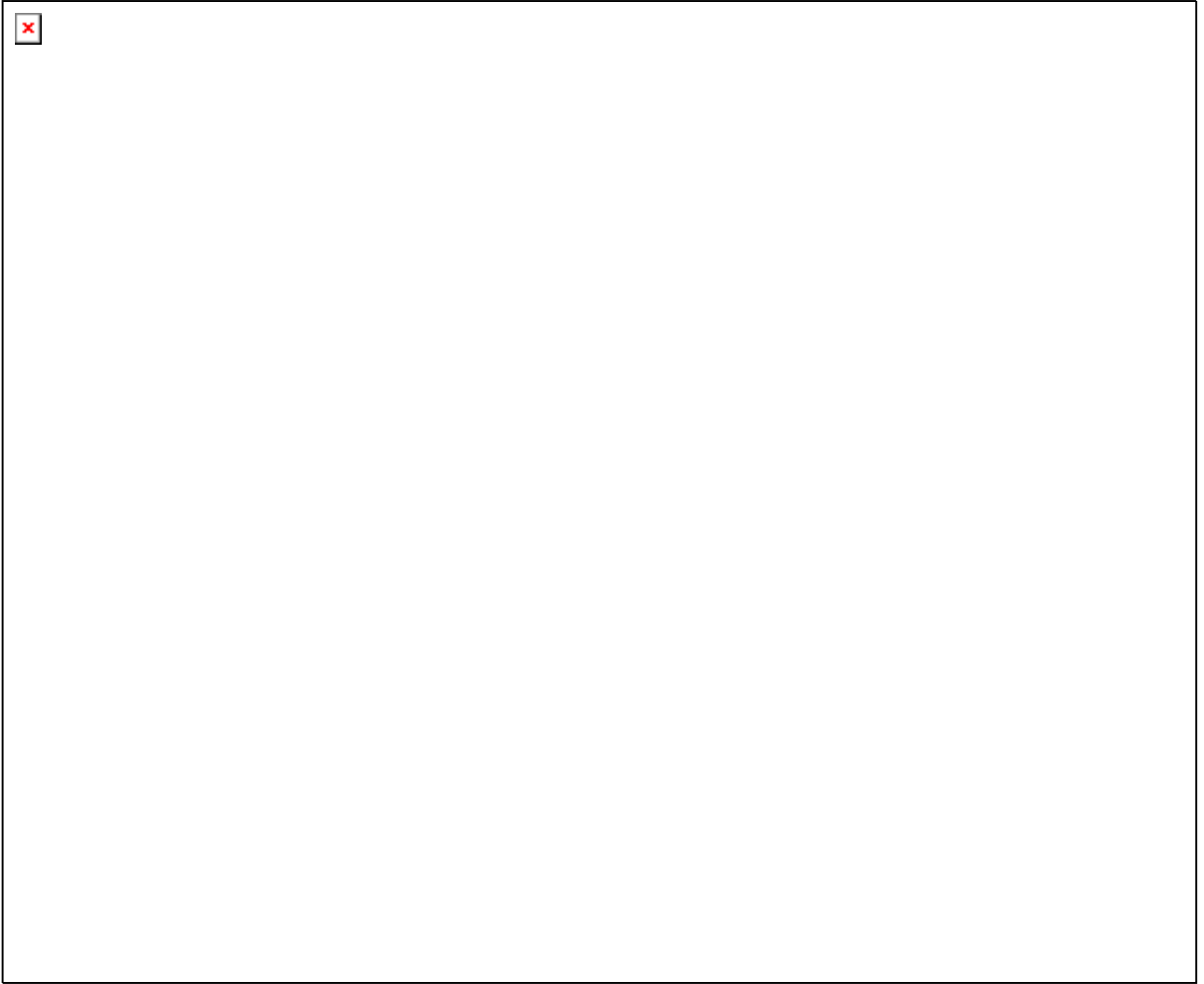






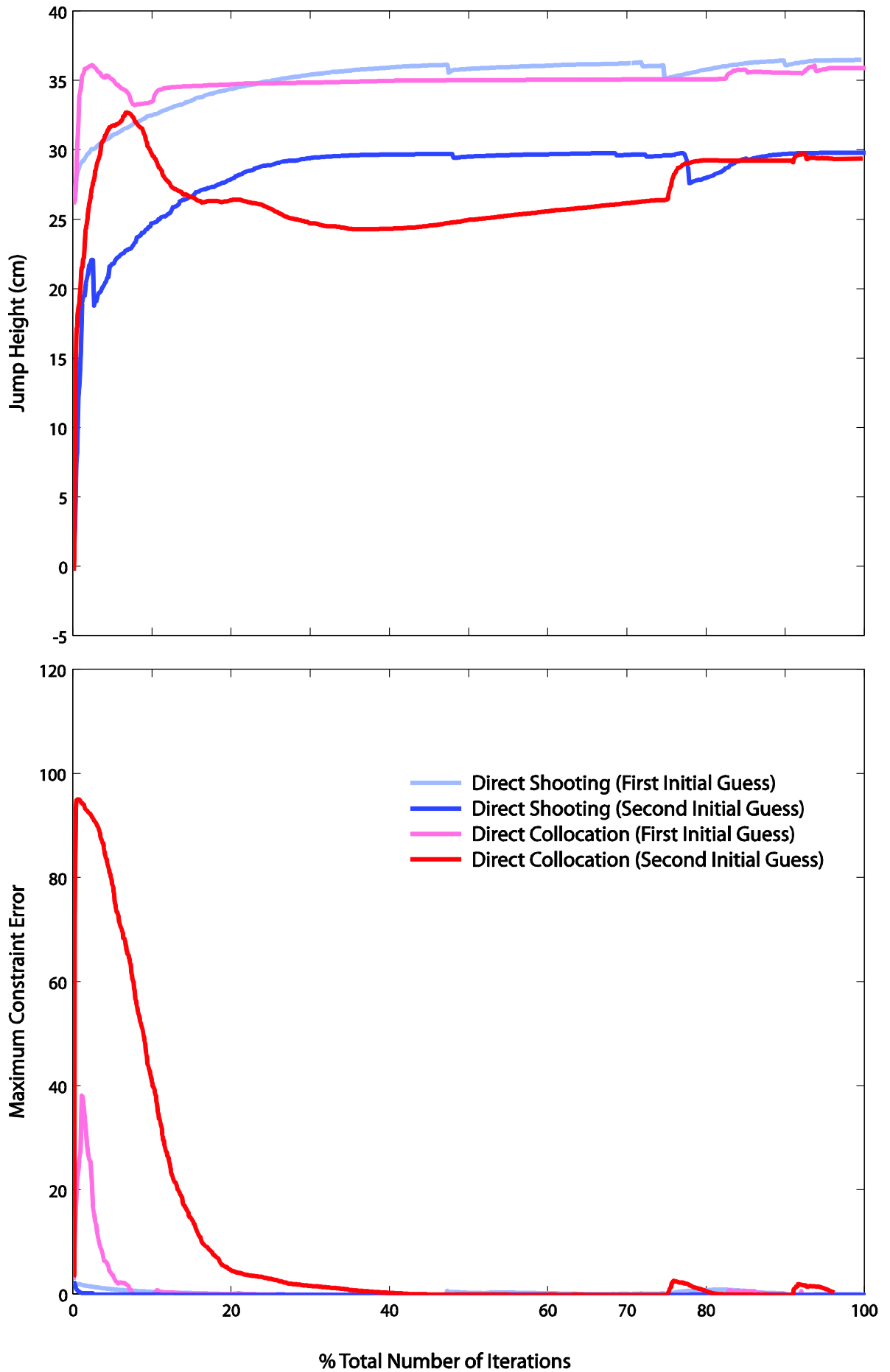


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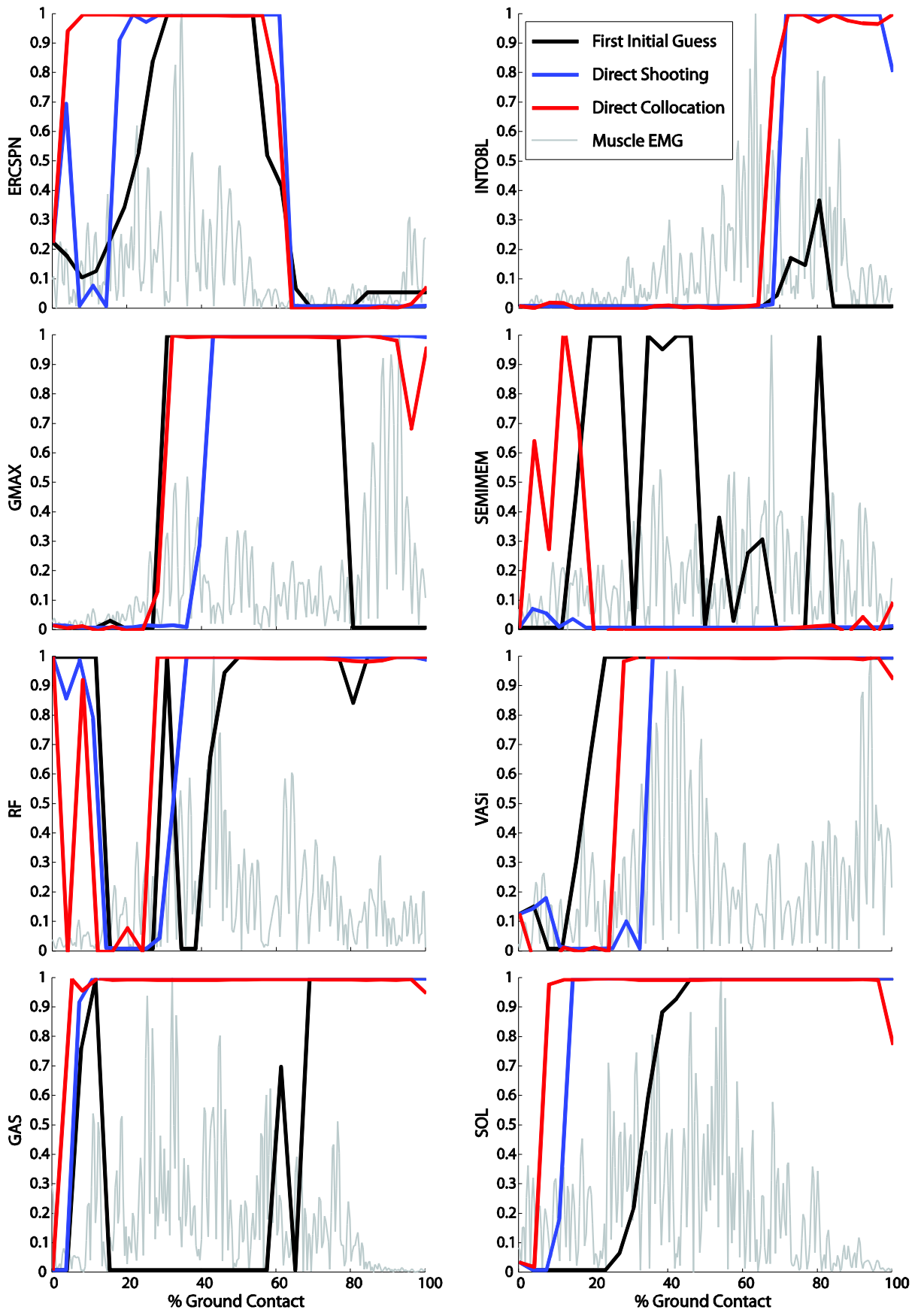


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