

1 **Surface EMG amplitude does not identify differences in neural drive to synergistic**
2 **muscles**

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4 Eduardo Martinez-Valdes^{1,2}, Francesco Negro³, Deborah Falla¹, Alessandro De Nunzio¹,
5 Dario Farina⁴
6

7 1- Centre of Precision Rehabilitation for Spinal Pain (CPR Spine), School of Sport,
8 Exercise and Rehabilitation Sciences, College of Life and Environmental
9 Sciences, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK
10

11 2- Department of Sports Medicine and Sports Orthopaedics, University of Potsdam,
12 Potsdam, Germany
13

14 3- Department of Clinical and Experimental Sciences, Universita' degli Studi di Brescia,
15 Brescia, Italy
16

17 4- Department of Bioengineering, Imperial College London, Royal School of Mines,
18 London, UK
19
20
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22 **Running Head:**

23 Motor unit size and EMG of synergistic muscles
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25 **Corresponding author:**

26 Dario Farina

27 Department of Bioengineering, Imperial College London, London, UK. Tel: +44 (0) 20 759
28 41387, Email: d.farina@imperial.ac.uk
29

30 **Key words**

31 Surface electromyography; Motor unit; amplitude; motor unit action potential; high-density
32 surface EMG: synergistic muscles
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34

35 **ABSTRACT**

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37 Surface electromyographic (EMG) signal amplitude is typically used to compare the neural
38 drive to muscles. We directly compared the neural drive sent to the vastus medialis (VM) and
39 vastus lateralis (VL) during knee extension by identifying motor units (MU) in the two
40 muscles with the same torque recruitment threshold. Eighteen participants performed
41 isometric knee extensions at 10, 30, 50 and 70% of maximum torque (MVC) while high-
42 density EMG signals were recorded. MU discharge rate, conduction velocity (MUCV), and
43 amplitude [root mean square (MURMS)] of the MU action potentials (MUAPs) were
44 compared between muscles after matching recruitment thresholds. The linear regression slope
45 of the difference between mean discharge rate and discharge rate at recruitment and its
46 relation with the difference between target torque (10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC) and recruitment
47 threshold was used as an estimate of the neural drive to VM and VL. Amplitudes of the
48 interference EMG of the two muscles were analyzed as absolute and normalized root mean
49 square values. Although the two muscles received similar neural drive, the absolute EMG
50 amplitude and the size of the MUAPs were greater for VM than VL ($p < 0.001$). Moreover, the
51 size of the MUAPs explained most of the difference in EMG amplitude between VM and VL
52 (~63% of explained variance). Normalized EMG amplitude was higher for VL than VM
53 ($p < 0.04$). These results indicate that EMG amplitude, even following normalization, does not
54 reflect the neural drive to synergistic muscles. Moreover, absolute EMG amplitude is mainly
55 explained by the size of MUAPs.

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57 **New and Noteworthy**

58 EMG amplitude is widely used to indirectly compare the strength of neural drive received by
59 synergistic muscles. However, there are no studies validating this approach with motor unit
60 data. Here, we compared between-muscles differences in surface EMG amplitude and motor
61 unit behavior. The results clarify the limitations of surface EMG to interpret differences in
62 neural drive between muscles.

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69 INTRODUCTION

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71 Changes in the relative activations of synergistic muscles are believed to be associated to the
72 development of musculoskeletal disorders (18). For example, researchers argue that
73 pathologies such as patellofemoral joint pain and Achilles tendinopathy might occur due to
74 misbalanced activation of the vasti and calf muscles, respectively (16, 18). For patellofemoral
75 joint pain, it is assumed that a greater activation of the vastus lateralis (VL) compared to the
76 vastus medialis (VM) muscle induces a lateral shift of the patella, leading to misalignment of
77 the patellofemoral joint (16, 18). Although these explanations seem plausible, there is still no
78 consensus in the literature (6, 29), mainly because of limitations of surface electromyography
79 (EMG) amplitude in assessing muscle activation. While normalization of EMG amplitude
80 with respect to its value during a maximal voluntary contraction (MVC) may increase
81 reliability when comparing between subjects (4), normalization may cancel out changes in
82 muscle activation following, e.g., training interventions. It has recently been shown that high-
83 density EMG (HDEMG) systems allow more reliable estimates of signal amplitude without
84 the need for normalization (13, 32). This is possible due to the large number of observation
85 sites (tens of electrodes) over the muscle belly that compensate for the variability of EMG
86 with electrode location. However, the use of several electrodes does not solve the problem of
87 comparison between muscles and subjects.

88 In addition to the neural drive to the muscle, EMG amplitude estimates are also influenced by
89 several other factors, such as muscle architecture, geometry, EMG crosstalk, and
90 subcutaneous tissue thickness (10). Although normalization could help to improve between-
91 muscle amplitude estimates, it is still not known if such measures really reflect differences in
92 neural drive to the muscles. The direct way to measure the neural drive to muscles is by
93 motor unit recordings. Recent research has shown the possibility to identify large populations
94 of motor units with HDEMG (23, 25). However, even sampling relatively large number of
95 motor units, it is not possible to directly compare the strength of the neural drive to different
96 muscles since the decomposition cannot identify the entire pool of active motor units. In this
97 study, we used an approach to compare the neural drives to synergistic muscles from
98 HDEMG decomposition and we discuss its relations with EMG amplitude. For this purpose,
99 we analyzed, across the decomposed motor unit populations, the relation between the
100 increase in discharge rate from discharge rate at recruitment and the difference in torque with
101 respect to the individual motor unit torque recruitment thresholds. We hypothesized that
102 differences in EMG amplitude between VM and VL muscles would be largely determined by

103 the size of the motor unit action potentials (MUAPs) rather than differences in neural drive to
104 the two muscles, and that normalization would not completely compensate for this influence.

105

106 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

107 Participants

108 Eighteen healthy and physically active men (mean (SD) age: 29 (3) years, height: 178 (6) cm,
109 mass: 79 (9) kg) were recruited. None of the participants reported any history of
110 neuromuscular disorders or previous lower limb surgery. Subjects were asked to avoid any
111 strenuous activity 24 h prior to the measurements. The ethics committee of the Universität
112 Potsdam approved the study (approval number 26/2015), in accordance with the declaration
113 of Helsinki (2004). All participants gave written, informed consent.

114 Experimental protocol

115 All participants performed submaximal and maximal knee extension contractions on an
116 isokinetic dynamometer (CON-TREX MJ, PHYSIOMED, Regensdorf, Switzerland). All
117 isometric knee extensions were exerted with the knee flexed to 90°. After placement of the
118 surface EMG electrodes (see Data acquisition), subjects performed three maximal voluntary
119 contractions (MVC) of knee extension each over a period of 5 s. Each of these trials was
120 separated by 2 min of rest. The highest MVC value served as a reference to define the
121 submaximal torque levels. After 5 minutes of rest, and following familiarization trials at low
122 torque levels (10 and 30% MVC), subjects performed submaximal isometric knee extension
123 contractions at 10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC in random order. Contractions at 10 and 30% MVC
124 were maintained for 20 s, while the contractions at 50 and 70% MVC were sustained for 15
125 and 10 s respectively. In each trial, the participants received visual feedback of the torque
126 applied by the leg to the dynamometer, which was displayed as a trapezoid (5 s ramps with
127 hold-phase durations as specified above). Each contraction level was performed twice with a
128 rest of 2 min following each contraction.

129 Data Acquisition

130 The surface EMG signals of VM and VL were recorded in monopolar derivation with a two-
131 dimensional adhesive grid (SPES Medica, Salerno, Italy) of 13 × 5 equally spaced electrodes
132 (1 mm diameter, inter-electrode distance of 8 mm). EMG signals were initially recorded
133 during a brief voluntary contraction during which a linear non-adhesive dry electrode array of
134 8 silver-bar electrodes (1-mm diameter, 5-mm length, 5 mm interelectrode distance; SA 8/5,
135 OT Bioelettronica, Torino, Italy) was moved over the skin to detect the location of the
136 innervation zone and tendon regions (21). After the skin was shaved and cleansed with

137 abrasion and water, the electrode cavities of the grids were filled with conductive paste
138 (SPES Medica, Salerno, Italy). Grids were positioned between the proximal and distal
139 tendons of the VM and VL muscles with the electrode columns (comprising 13 electrodes)
140 oriented along the muscle fibers. Therefore, the VM grid was positioned $\sim 50^\circ$ with respect to
141 a line between the anterior superior iliac spine and the medial side of the patella while the VL
142 grid was positioned $\sim 30^\circ$ with respect to a line between the anterior superior iliac spine and
143 the lateral side of the patella ((1, 20, 22, 23) (Figure 1). Reference electrodes were positioned
144 over the malleoli and patella of the dominant leg.

145 EMG and torque signals were sampled at 2048 Hz and converted to digital data by a 12-bit
146 analogue to digital converter (EMG-USB 2, 256-channel EMG amplifier, OT Bioelettronica,
147 Torino, Italy, 3dB, bandwidth 10-500 Hz). EMG signals were amplified by a factor of 2000,
148 1000, 500, 500 and 500 for the 10, 30, 50, 70 and 100% MVC contractions, respectively.
149 Data were analysed offline using Matlab (The Mathworks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts, USA).
150 The 64-monopolar EMG channels were re-referenced offline to form 59 bipolar channels as
151 the differences between adjacent electrodes in the direction of the muscle fibers.

152 Signal analysis

153 *Motor unit analysis.* The EMG signals recorded during the submaximal isometric
154 contractions (from 10 to 70% MVC) were decomposed offline with a method that has
155 undergone extensive validation (26). The accuracy of the decomposition was tested with the
156 silhouette measure, which was set to ≥ 0.90 (26). The signals were decomposed throughout
157 the whole duration of the submaximal contractions and the discharge times of the identified
158 motor units were converted in binary spike trains. The mean discharge rate and discharge rate
159 variability (coefficient of variation of the inter-spike-interval, CoVisi), were calculated during
160 the stable plateau torque region. Discharge rate at recruitment was calculated using the first
161 six discharges of the motor units (8). The motor unit recruitment threshold was defined as the
162 knee extension torque (%MVC) at the time when the motor unit began discharging action
163 potentials. Discharges that were separated from the next by < 33.3 ms or > 200 ms (30 and 5
164 Hz, respectively) were discarded from the mean discharge rate and CoVisi calculation since
165 such discharges are usually considered decomposition errors (22). Motor unit conduction
166 velocity (MUCV) was measured from a minimum of three to a maximum of nine double-
167 differential channels (manual selection) (23). Channels that had the clearest propagation of
168 MUAPs, with the highest amplitude in the columns of the grid and a coefficient of correlation
169 between channels ≥ 0.9 , were selected for further analysis. Finally, the amplitude of the
170 MUAPs was calculated as the MUAP RMS averaged over all channels of the grid

171 (MURMS). VM and VL motor units were matched by their recruitment threshold with a
172 tolerance of $\pm 0.5\%$ MVC. The matched motor units were then grouped in four classes,
173 according to their recruitment thresholds ([0-10] % MVC, [10-30] % MVC, [30-50] % MVC,
174 [50-70] % MVC).

175 The discharge rate of motor units with the same recruitment thresholds in the two muscles
176 was used as a measure to compare the neural drive to muscles. This measure corresponds to
177 the rate of change of discharge rate (average discharge rate during the stable force region –
178 discharge rate at recruitment) as a function of the increase in torque from the recruitment
179 threshold [target torque (10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC) – recruitment threshold torque]. A
180 difference in this association between the two muscles across the populations of decomposed
181 motor units indicates differences in synaptic input received by the motor neuron pools of the
182 two muscles and therefore differences in neural drive to the muscles.

183 *Interference EMG.* The root mean square values (RMS) obtained from submaximal and
184 maximal contractions, were averaged over all channels of the electrode grid (20). During the
185 submaximal isometric contractions, the RMS was computed from the HDEMG signals in
186 intervals of 1 s. These values were extracted from the stable-torque region of the contractions
187 (e.g., hold-phase of 15 seconds at 50% MVC). RMSs of the maximal (MVC) contractions
188 were analyzed in a time window of 250 ms centered at the peak EMG activity (20). Global
189 conduction velocity (muscle fiber conduction velocity) was calculated from double
190 differential signals obtained along the fiber direction (columns of the grid). In order to
191 maximize the accuracy of global conduction velocity estimates, three contiguous columns
192 with four to six channels with the highest cross-correlation in propagation were selected (9).
193 Muscle fiber conduction velocity estimation was obtained with a multichannel maximum-
194 likelihood algorithm that was previously shown to provide accurate estimates (standard
195 deviation < 0.1 ms) (12).

196 *Amplitude normalization.* Both absolute RMS and MURMS were normalized to the RMS
197 value obtained during the MVC in order to analyze the effects of normalization on
198 submaximal RMS amplitude of the interference EMG (absolute RMS) as well as on MURMS
199 between muscles.

200

201 Statistical Analysis

202 The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to check the normality of all variables. Sphericity was
203 checked by Mauchley's test and if violated, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was made to

204 the degrees of freedom. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$. Results are expressed as
205 mean and standard deviation (SD).

206 EMG (absolute RMS, normalized RMS and muscle fiber conduction velocity) and motor unit
207 variables (MURMS, discharge rate, CoVisi, motor unit conduction velocity and normalized
208 MURMS) were compared between muscles at each torque level with a two-way repeated
209 measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with factors muscle (VM and VL) and torque (10,
210 30, 50 and 70% MVC). When repeated measures ANOVA was significant, pairwise
211 comparisons were made with a Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK) post-hoc test. The difference
212 between VM and VL mean discharge rate and discharge rate at recruitment and its relation
213 with the difference between target torque and recruitment threshold were analyzed by linear
214 regression. The slopes of the linear regression were compared between the two muscles by
215 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) (33). The same analysis was applied to VM and VL
216 MURMS vs. recruitment threshold.

217 Finally, a multiple linear regression (stepwise) analysis was performed on EMG/motor unit
218 parameters to identify the variables that predicted the differences between VM and VL
219 absolute RMS. Therefore, the percent (%) difference in absolute RMS between VM and VL
220 was used as the predictor variable and the % differences in MU behaviour/properties were
221 regarded as independent variables. Each torque level was analysed independently (e.g.
222 absolute RMS % difference between VM and VL at 30% MVC was compared with motor
223 unit variables obtained at the same torque level). The partial eta-squared (η^2) for ANOVA
224 was used to examine the effect size of the differences between EMG and motor unit
225 parameters between muscles. A η^2 less than 0.06 was classified as “small”, 0.07-0.14 as
226 “moderate”, and greater than 0.14 as “large” (5).

227

228 **RESULTS**

229

230 **Interference EMG**

231 Absolute RMS (Figure 2a) was significantly higher for VM than VL at 30, 50 and 70% MVC
232 (interaction: muscle-torque, $p < 0.0001$, $\eta^2 = 0.79$). However, muscle fiber conduction velocity
233 (Figure 2b) was similar for the two muscles (interaction: muscle-torque, $p = 0.96$, $\eta^2 = 0.019$).

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238 Decomposed motor unit populations

239 A total of 641 and 583 motor units (with a $SIL \geq 0.90$) were identified in VM and VL,
240 respectively (considering all torque levels). The average number of motor units accurately
241 identified per subject at each torque level was 8 (0.7) and 7 (1.2) in VM and VL, respectively.
242 According to their recruitment threshold, 348 motor units were matched between VM and
243 VL. Per subject, an average of 6.2 (3.0), 5.0 (2.5), 5.7 (2.8) and 3.3 (2.0) motor units were
244 matched between VM and VL at 10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC, respectively. The average
245 recruitment threshold of the matched motor units at 10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC was 7.5, 23.3,
246 38.2 and 56.2% MVC, respectively.

247

248 Discharge rate and discharge rate variability

249 The discharge rate of VM was greater than for VL motor units as revealed by a significant
250 effect of muscle ($p=0.009$, $\eta^2=0.38$) (Figure 3a). However, the regression lines of delta
251 discharge rate [discharge rate – discharge rate at recruitment] vs. delta torque [target torque –
252 recruitment threshold] were not different between muscles (slope of the regression lines,
253 $p=0.12$, intercept, $p=0.74$) (Figure 3b). Finally, There was no difference in discharge rate
254 variability between muscles as CoVisi (Figure 4) remained similar at all torque levels
255 (interaction: muscle-torque, $p=0.4$, $\eta^2=0.07$).

256

257 Size and conduction velocity of MUAPs

258 MURMS (Figure 5a) was significantly greater for VM than VL at 30, 50 and 70% MVC
259 (interaction: muscle-torque, $p<0.0001$, $\eta^2=0.57$). Moreover, MURMS increased at a greater
260 rate with recruitment threshold for VM than for VL ($p<0.0001$, Figure 5b). Motor unit
261 conduction velocity (Figure 6) showed significantly higher greater at 70% MVC for VM
262 (interaction: muscle-torque, $p=0.023$, $\eta^2=0.46$).

263

264 Multiple linear regression

265 Motor unit variables that significantly differed between muscles were entered into the
266 multiple linear regression analysis to explain the differences in absolute EMG amplitude
267 between muscles. Therefore, the difference (%) in VM-VL MURMS, discharge rate, and
268 motor unit conduction velocity were regarded as independent variables. Table 1 reports the
269 results of the multiple regression. At 10% MVC only MURMS was entered in the model,
270 explaining 71% of the variance for the difference (%) in VM-VL absolute RMS. At 30%,
271 both MURMS and discharge rate entered in the model, however MURMS explained most of

272 the variance (53% MURMS vs. 13.2% for discharge rate). Similar results were obtained at
273 50% MVC where MURMS explained 72% of the difference between VM-VL absolute RMS,
274 with discharge rate just explaining 7.7% of the variance. Finally, at 70% MVC, only
275 MURMS was entered in the model, explaining 57% of the %difference in VM-VL absolute
276 RMS.

277

278 Normalized amplitude

279 Normalized RMS (Figure 7) showed systematically higher values for VL across all torque
280 levels (effect: muscle, $p=0.039$, $\eta^2=0.23$). Conversely, normalized MURMS did not show
281 any difference between muscles at any torque level (effect: muscle, $p=0.46$, $\eta^2=0.04$,
282 interaction: torque-muscle, $p=0.12$, $\eta^2=0.11$).

283

284 **DISCUSSION**

285

286 This study shows that differences in EMG amplitude between synergistic muscles are mostly
287 explained by differences in MUAP size (MURMS), with little influence of other motor unit
288 properties. Moreover, EMG normalization does not provide clear explanation of differences
289 in muscle activation between the vasti. Taken together, the results suggest that amplitude
290 parameters (in absolute values or normalized) should not be used to infer differences in
291 neural drive between synergistic muscles.

292

293 Neural drive to VM and VL muscles

294 Due to current limitations in EMG decomposition, it is not possible to identify the full
295 populations of active motor units. For this reason, the neural drives cannot be directly
296 compared between muscles. We compensated for this limitation by an indirect assessment of
297 the strength of the neural drive. Matching synergistic muscles motor units by recruitment
298 threshold allows a direct comparison of motor unit parameters across muscles since these
299 units should contribute similarly to the exerted joint torque. In the present study, we used
300 motor unit discharge rate as a measure to compare the drive between muscles. Because the
301 discharge rate depends on the torque relative to the recruitment threshold, we focused on the
302 rate of change of discharge rate (mean discharge rate – discharge rate at recruitment) with
303 respect to the difference between exerted torque and recruitment threshold across the
304 decomposed motor unit populations. This analysis provides an estimate of the synaptic input
305 received by the motor neuron pools of VM and VL. This approach indicated a similar change

306 in motor unit discharge rate with torque (figure 3b) despite a difference in absolute discharge
307 rates that can be due to the random sampling of motor units in the two muscles. This suggests
308 that the net excitatory synaptic input to the pool of motor neurons of the vasti was similar,
309 with a similar drive from motoneurons to muscle units. This conclusion is in agreement with
310 a study showing that VM and VL share most of their synaptic input (19). We also did not
311 observe differences in discharge rate variability (CoVisi) between the two muscles (Figure 4),
312 in agreement with previous results (34). The present results show that, despite a difference in
313 mean absolute discharge rates between motor units of the VM and VL, the two muscles did
314 receive similar strengths of neural drives. Differences in VM and VL surface EMG amplitude
315 therefore do not reflect differences in the neural drive between the vasti, as also confirmed by
316 the multiple regression analysis.

317

318 EMG amplitude and muscle fiber conduction velocity

319 Surface EMG amplitude is usually used to infer the magnitude of the neural drive to muscles.
320 However, EMG amplitude depends on both motor unit behavior (recruitment, discharge rate
321 and discharge rate variability) and muscle fiber properties (MUAP size and conduction
322 velocity) (10, 11). In the present study, despite similar neural drives to the VM and VL, the
323 EMG amplitude for VM was significantly greater than for VL for torques in the range 30%-
324 70% MVC. These results are consistent with other reports on absolute EMG amplitude for
325 these two muscles (14, 20, 32). EMG amplitude is influenced by muscle's geometry,
326 architecture, crosstalk and subcutaneous tissue thickness (10, 27). Since the observed
327 differences in EMG amplitude between muscles did not correspond to differences in neural
328 drive, they are mainly explained by these anatomical factors. Although previous research has
329 reported similar subcutaneous tissue thickness for the distal VM and VL (3), it has also been
330 shown that the distal VM has a larger cross sectional area and greater fascicle angle
331 compared to the distal VL (2). Indeed, recent research has shown that differences in muscle
332 architecture can influence EMG amplitude, even when the muscle is activated at a similar
333 intensity (30).

334 Muscle fiber conduction velocity estimated from the interference EMG was similar between
335 the vasti, in agreement with previous studies (3). However, motor unit conduction velocity
336 differed between muscles. Muscle fiber conduction velocity is associated to fiber diameter
337 (15) but also depends on the level of muscle acidosis (28), temperature (7), muscle
338 fatigability (21), subcutaneous tissue thickness (31), exercise training (23, 31), discharge rate

339 (24). Because of these factors of influence, the relation between average and motor unit
340 muscle fiber conduction velocity is not exactly linear.

341

342 EMG amplitude and MUAP size

343 As for absolute EMG amplitude, the size of MUAPs was significantly higher for VM in the
344 range of torques above or equal to 30% MVC. Moreover, MURMS increased at a faster rate
345 with recruitment threshold for VM than VL (Figure 5b). This is consistent with a recent
346 report comparing VM and VL MUAP peak-to-peak amplitude (22). As for EMG amplitude,
347 MURMS is also influenced by muscle's geometry, architecture and subcutaneous tissue
348 thickness (10, 27); therefore it is not surprising to find similar results for absolute RMS and
349 MURMS. Accordingly, results from the multiple linear regression (Table 1) showed that
350 most of the variance of the difference between absolute RMS of VM and VL was explained
351 by MURMS. This result directly indicates that that the neural drive has a relatively small
352 influence on EMG amplitude with respect to the MUAP waveforms.

353

354 Amplitude normalization

355 Since a vast number of studies apply normalization of the surface EMG prior to comparing
356 levels of muscle activations (4, 16), we analyzed the effect of normalization of both EMG
357 amplitude and MUAP size with respect to MVC. Even though normalization decreased the
358 VM/VL activation ratio and cancelled out the differences in MUAP size between muscles,
359 normalized EMG amplitude was greater for VL compared to VM that is contrary to the result
360 without normalization. This result does not correspond to the estimated similar neural drive to
361 the two muscles (figure 3b) and explains the divergent results across studies on normalized
362 activations of the VM and VL in healthy subjects (29) and patients with musculoskeletal
363 disorders (e.g. patellofemoral pain syndrome) (17). Taken together, our findings suggest that
364 neither absolute nor normalized EMG amplitude (even when recorded from HDEMG
365 electrodes) are appropriate for inferring differences in neural drive between muscles.

366

367 Conclusion

368 The difference in surface EMG amplitude between VM and VL muscles was mostly
369 explained by differences in MUAP size, with little effect of motor unit properties associated
370 to the neural drive to muscles. EMG amplitude levels are therefore determined by peripheral
371 properties rather than by the neural activation. Normalization of the EMG compensates for
372 the differences in MUAP sizes but is still a poor determinant of neural activation.

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467 **Acknowledgements**

468 Francesco Negro has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research
469 and innovation programme under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant agreement No 702491
470 (NeuralCon).

471

472 **Figure captions**

473

474 Figure 1. Placement of the HDEMG electrodes. Vastus medialis (VM) electrode grid was
475 placed $\sim 50^\circ$ with respect to a line between the anterior superior iliac spine and the medial side
476 of the patella (dashed lines, left) while the VL grid was positioned $\sim 30^\circ$ with respect to a line
477 between the anterior superior iliac spine and the lateral side of the patella (dashed lines,
478 right).

479

480 Figure 2. Interference EMG parameters [mean (SD)] for vastus medialis (VM, white dots)
481 and vastus lateralis (VL, black dots) at 10, 30, 50 and 70% of the maximum voluntary
482 contraction torque (MVC). A) Absolute root mean square (ABS RMS). B) Muscle fiber
483 conduction velocity. Presented values were averaged for each subject and presented at each
484 submaximal target torque. * $P < 0.001$.

485

486 Figure 3. Motor unit (MU) discharge rate calculated from recruitment-threshold matched
487 MUs from vastus medialis (VM, white dots) and vastus lateralis (VL, black dots) at 10, 30,
488 50 and 70% of the maximum voluntary contraction torque (MVC). A) MU discharge rate
489 values [mean (SD)] were averaged for each subject and presented at each submaximal target
490 torque (10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC), # main effect of muscle $P = 0.009$. B) Linear regression
491 analysis of the difference between VM and VL mean discharge rate and discharge rate at
492 recruitment (Y-axis) and the difference between target torque (10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC) and
493 MU recruitment threshold (X-axis). Linear regression equations are shown in the figure, both
494 lines increased significantly ($P < 0.0001$) and their R^2 values were 0.19 and 0.12, for VM and
495 VL respectively.

496

497 Figure 4. Motor unit (MU) coefficient of variation of the inter-spike interval (CoVisi)
498 calculated from recruitment-threshold matched MUs from vastus medialis (VM, white dots)
499 and vastus lateralis (VL, black dots) at 10, 30, 50 and 70% of the maximum voluntary

500 contraction torque (MVC). Presented values were averaged for each subject and presented at
501 each submaximal target torque.

502

503 Figure 5. Motor unit (MU) root mean square amplitude (MURMS) [mean (SD)] extracted
504 from recruitment-threshold matched MUs from vastus medialis (VM, white dots) and vastus
505 lateralis (VL, black dots) at 10, 30, 50 and 70% of the maximum voluntary contraction torque
506 (MVC). A) MURMS values [mean (SD)] were averaged for each subject and presented at
507 each submaximal target torque (10, 30, 50 and 70% MVC), * $P < 0.01$. B) VM and VL
508 MURMS vs. recruitment threshold regression lines. Both lines increased significantly with
509 torque ($P < 0.0001$) and displayed significantly different slopes ($P < 0.0001$); R^2 values are
510 shown in the figure.

511

512 Figure 6. Motor unit (MU) conduction velocity [mean (SD)] extracted from recruitment-
513 threshold matched MUs from vastus medialis (VM, white dots) and vastus lateralis (VL,
514 black dots) at 10, 30, 50 and 70% of the maximum voluntary contraction torque (MVC).
515 Presented values were averaged for each subject and presented at each submaximal target
516 torque. * $P < 0.01$.

517

518 Figure 7. Normalized EMG and motor unit (MU) amplitude [mean (SD)] for vastus medialis
519 (VM, white dots) and vastus lateralis (VL, black dots) at 10, 30, 50 and 70% of the maximum
520 voluntary contraction torque (MVC). A) Normalized root mean square EMG (EMG RMS
521 NORM), B) Normalized MU root mean square (MURMS NORM). # main effect of muscle
522 $P = 0.039$.

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Figure 1

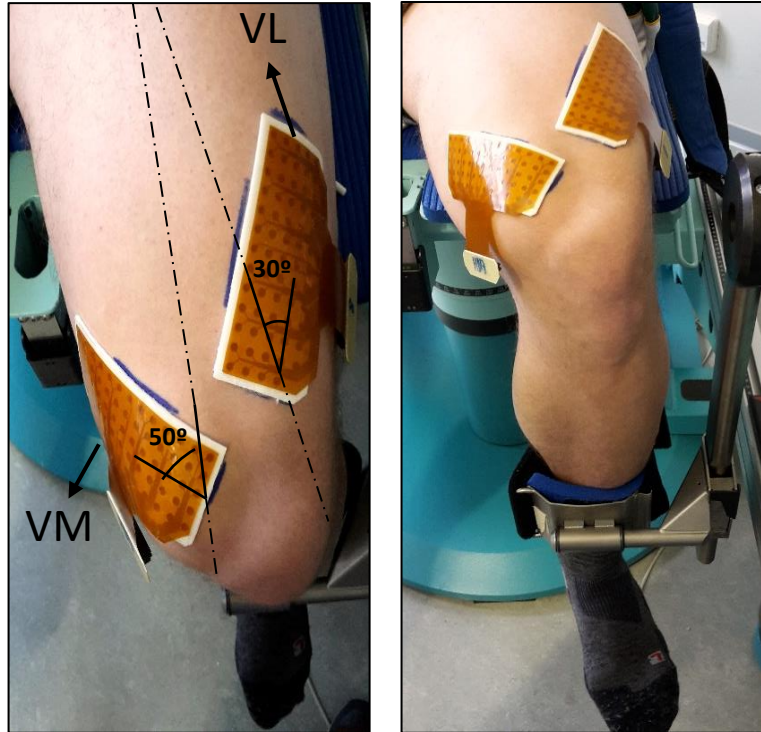


Figure 2

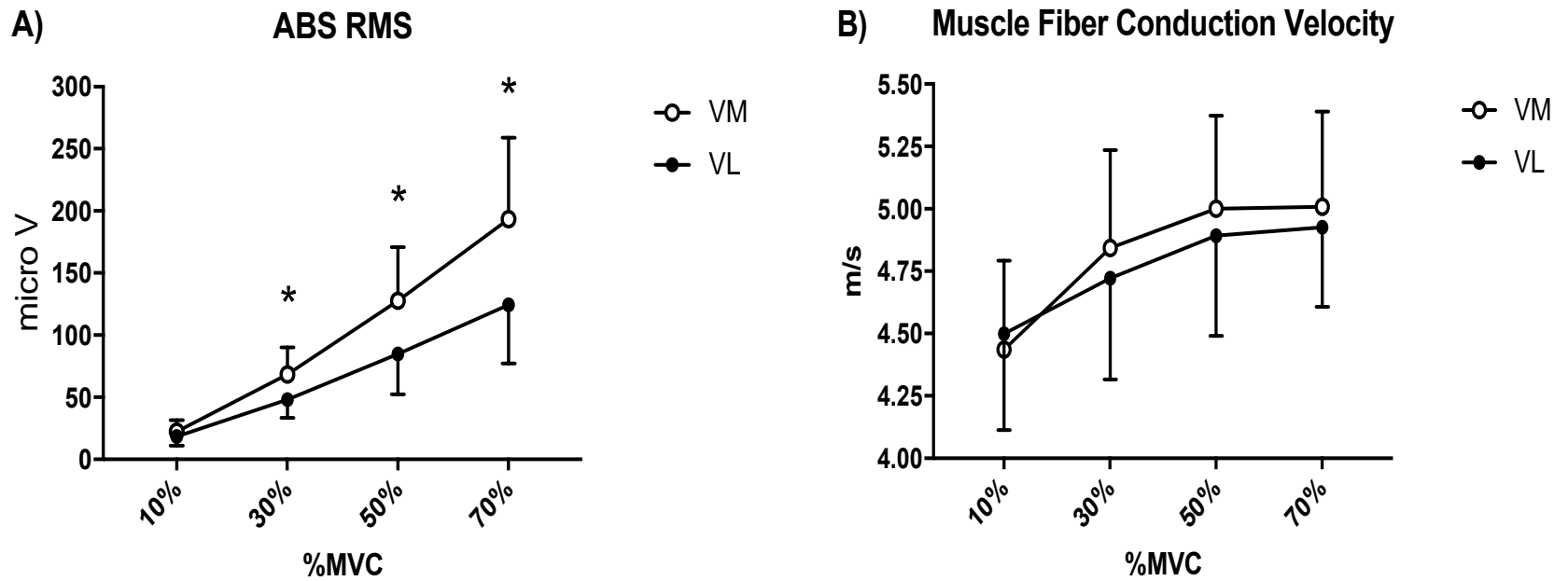
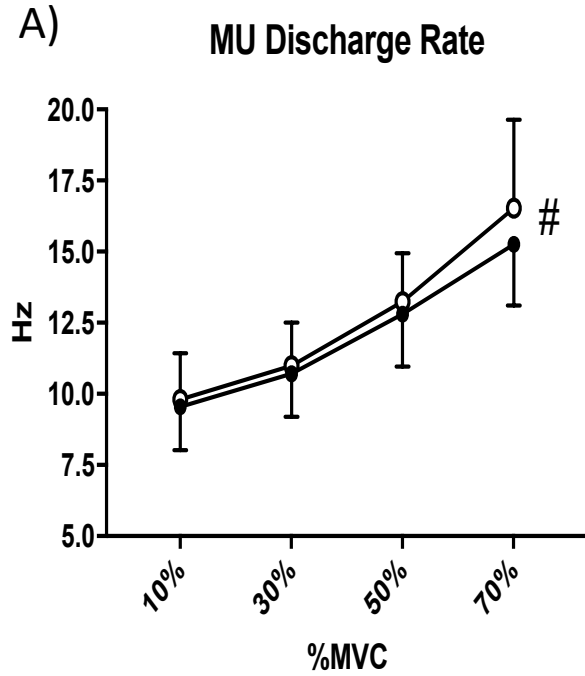


Figure 3



B) **Discharge rate vs. Recruitment threshold**

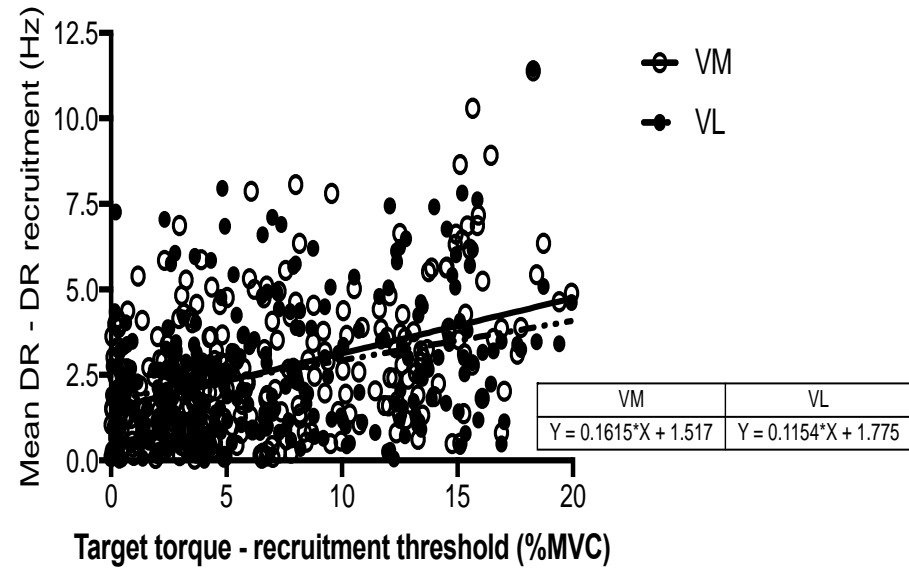


Figure 4

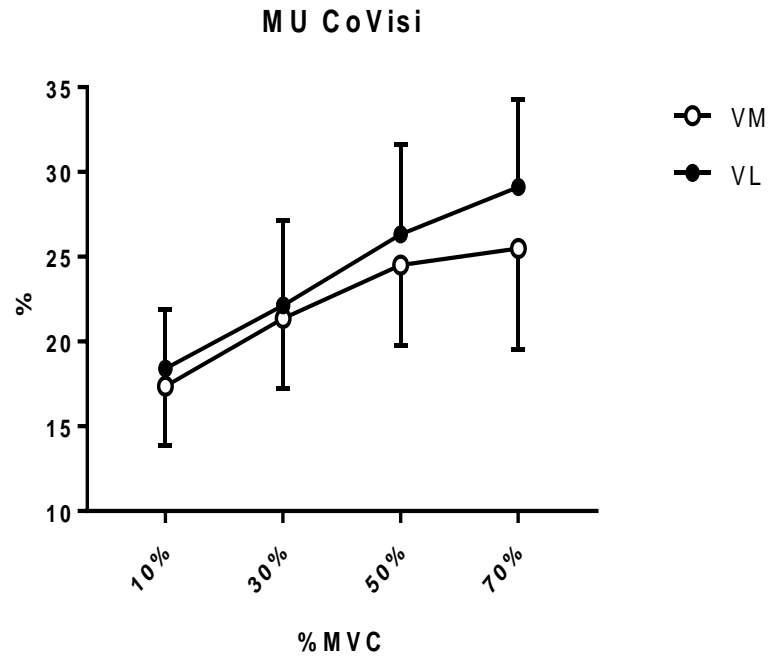


Figure 5

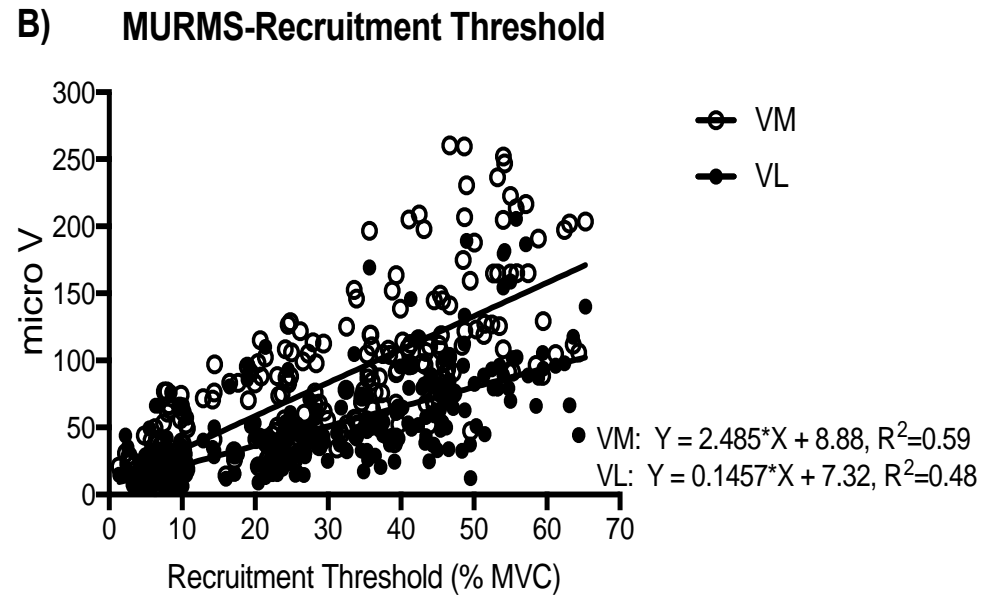
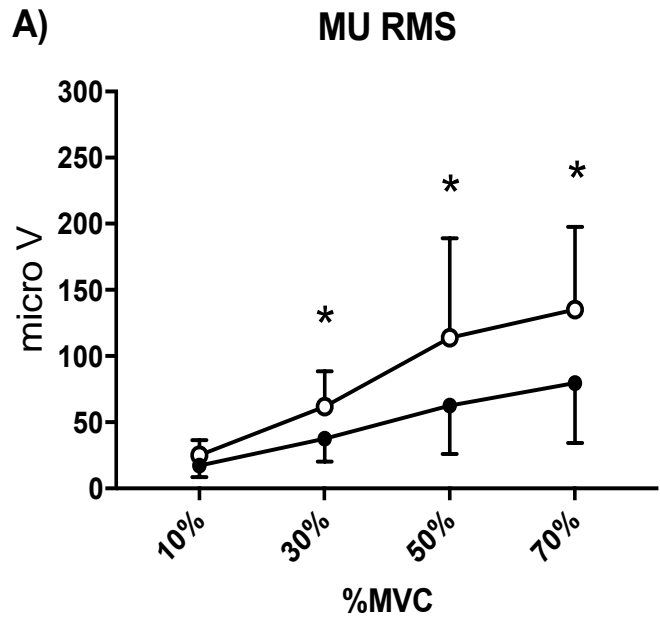


Figure 6

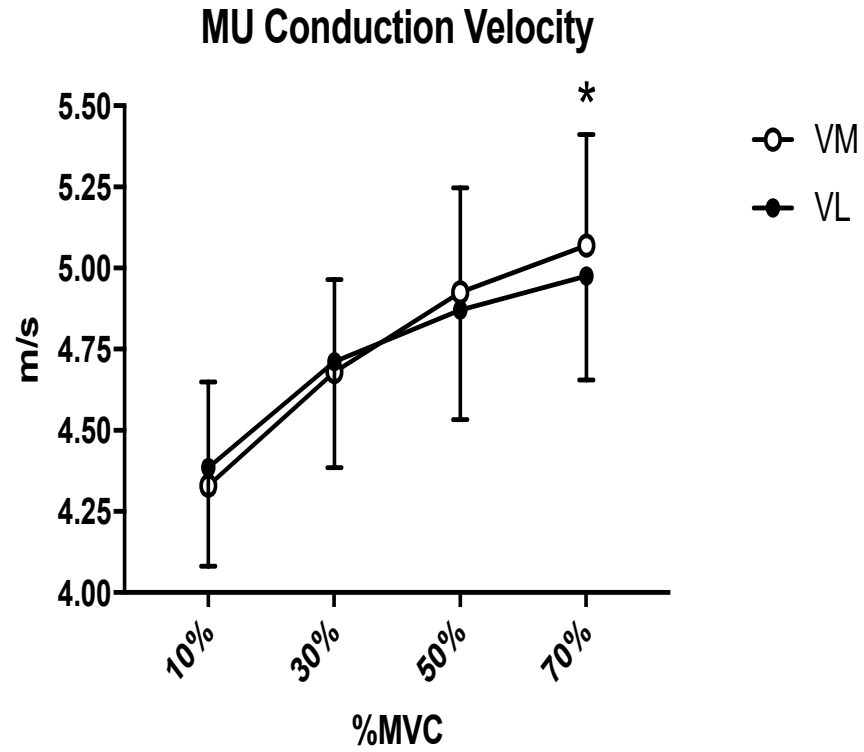


Figure 7

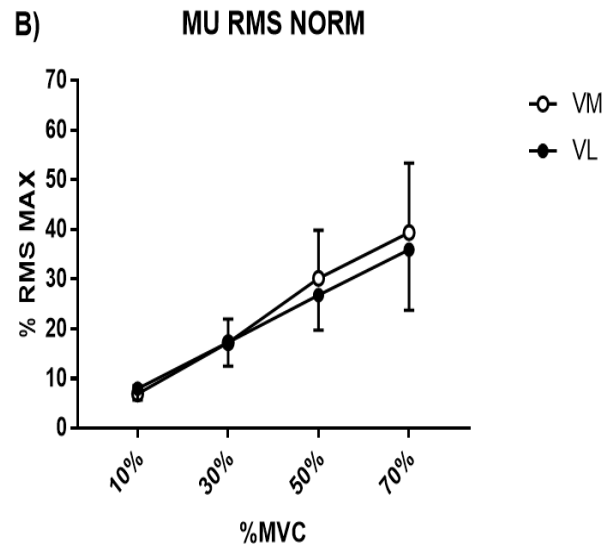
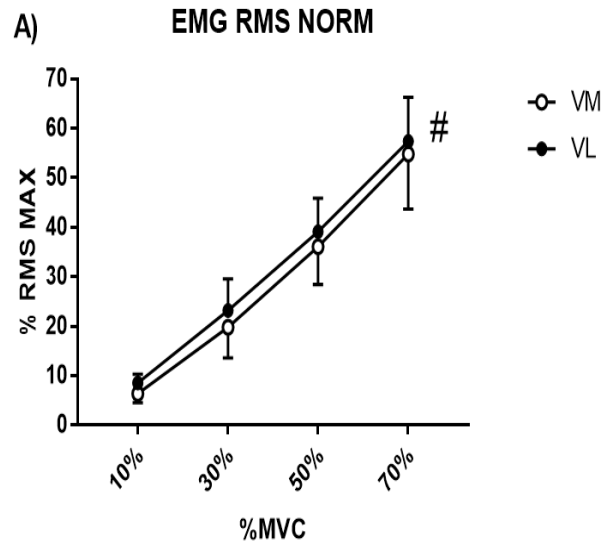


Table 1. Percent difference [%, mean (SD)] and bivariate correlation coefficients (*r*) between predictor variable (% change in VM-VL EMG RMS) and independent variables: %change in VM-VL motor unit (MU) RMS, %change in VM-VL in MU discharge rate (DR) and %change in VM-VL MU conduction velocity (CV)

Torque Level (%MVC)	%Difference in EMG RMS	% Difference in MU RMS	% Difference in MU DR	% Difference in MU CV
10%	14.8 (25.3)	25.2 (34.1), <i>r</i> = 0.84**	2.3 (7.8), <i>r</i> =-0.48	-1.4(4.9), <i>r</i> =-0.27
30%	27.2 (19.4)	36.5 (25.4), <i>r</i> =0.73**	2.3 (7.8), <i>r</i> =0.14	-0.7 (2.5), <i>r</i> =0.12
50%	32.8 (12.5)	42.3 (19.6), <i>r</i> =0.85**	4.1 (9.5), <i>r</i> =0.02	1.3 (3.1), <i>r</i> =-0.2
70%	34.9 (15.8)	42.2 (19.1), <i>r</i> =0.76**	6.2 (13.3), <i>r</i> =0.26	1.8 (3.9), <i>r</i> =0.07

** Significant correlation ($p < 0.0001$)