

1 Real time monitoring of transtibial elevated vacuum
2 prostheses: a case series on socket air pressure
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31 **Abstract**

32 Elevated vacuum is a prosthetic suspension method used to reduce slippage between the prosthetic socket
33 and the residual limb. Evaluation of the effectiveness of these systems is limited due to a lack of correlation
34 to actual socket air pressure, particularly during unconstrained movements. This may explain some of the
35 variability in functional outcomes reported in the literature. We developed a light-weight portable socket
36 measurement system to quantify internal socket air pressure, temperature, and acceleration. We
37 implemented the system onto the sockets of three transtibial prosthesis users with mechanical elevated
38 vacuum pumps. Participants completed five functional tasks with and without the vacuum pumps actively
39 connected, including the 2-Minute Walk test, 5-Times Sit-to-Stand test, 4-Square Step test, L-Test, and
40 Figure-8 test. Results demonstrated that the use of elevated vacuum pumps produced different gait profiles
41 and pressure ranges for each user, with significant differences between pump conditions. Two of the
42 participants demonstrated substantially lower air pressure (higher vacuum) over time while the pump was
43 active compared to inactive. The minimum air pressure measured at the completion of the 2-Minute Walk
44 test was -34.6 ± 7.7 kPa, which is not as low as pressures reported in literature during benchtop experiments.
45 One participant did not show substantial changes in pressure over time for either pump condition.
46 Functional task performance was not significantly different between pump conditions. Correlation with
47 accelerometer readings allowed air pressure data to be aligned with the gait cycle; peak positive pressures
48 occurred just following initial contact of the foot in early stance, and the most negative pressures (vacuum)
49 were observed throughout swing. This study has demonstrated the use of a portable data logging tool that
50 may serve the clinical and research communities to quantify the operation of elevated vacuum systems, and
51 better understand the variability of mechanical pump operation and overall system performance.

52 **Introduction**

53 In 2005, there were an estimated 1.6 million people living with an amputation in the United States; this
54 number is expected to increase to 3.6 million by 2050 (1). Despite advances in prosthetic limb development,
55 optimal socket fit remains a challenge (2-4). Poor suspension may result in slippage between the socket and
56 the residual limb, particularly during the cyclical loading and unloading associated with gait, which can
57 compromise stability (2). This can promote irritation, discomfort, and tissue damage (5). One approach to
58 minimizing this slippage is using elevated vacuum suction suspension, where sub-atmospheric pressure
59 (vacuum) is employed to reduce the relative movement of the user's residual limb with their prosthetic
60 socket (6). In a typical elevated vacuum socket, the residual limb is covered by a gel liner which sits within
61 a rigid prosthetic socket, and a vacuum is applied through a one-way valve to the space between these layers
62 to improve their connection. The connection between the liner and residual limb is maintained using a
63 proximal seal, which is typically either a suspension sleeve or inner sealing gasket (6). Elevated vacuum
64 systems are predominantly used for attaching lower-limb sockets, though recently there has been
65 preliminary work showing promise for use in transradial (7) and partial-foot amputation cases (8).

66 Several studies have demonstrated benefits in using elevated vacuum in lower-limb prostheses. When
67 compared to passive suction sockets, vacuum pumps have been shown to maintain or increase residual limb
68 volume during gait (9,10). This may be due to changes in socket-limb interface pressure, where the vacuum
69 reduces positive contact pressures during stance and increases negative air pressures during swing, thereby
70 increasing the fluid drawn into the limb (11). In support of this theory, bioimpedance analysis demonstrated
71 an increase in extracellular fluid volume when walking using a transtibial prosthesis with elevated vacuum
72 (12). Residual limb movement relative to the socket (i.e. pistoning) has been shown to be lower when using
73 elevated vacuum compared to traditional suction and pin-locking systems, with increasing vacuum
74 pressures correlated to reduced pistoning (10,13-15). Improved balance and gait when using elevated
75 vacuum systems has also been demonstrated (10,16,17). Compared to pin-locking and traditional suction
76 sockets, elevated vacuum has demonstrated improved perfusion and preservation of skin barrier function
77 after 16 weeks of use (18). In fact, several studies have found that elevated vacuum systems do not preclude

78 wound healing, and allow patients to ambulate sooner and for longer periods of time compared to other
79 systems (19-21). Generally, elevated vacuum systems are viewed favourably by clinicians, however
80 questionnaire results have shown that they are perceived as being “more expensive, heavier, less durable,
81 and require more maintenance” than a standard socket (22). Several review articles have been published in
82 this area, and while existing evidence for elevated vacuum systems is promising, these reviews have
83 indicated a need for more controlled studies, larger sample sizes, and evaluation of long-term effects (6,23-
84 25).

85 Recent findings have shown that the level of vacuum (i.e. negative air pressure) is directly related to the
86 amount of pistoning (13), and that changes in pressure may be related to quality of socket fit (26). However,
87 many studies regarding the effectiveness of elevated vacuum do not monitor socket air pressure. Bench-top
88 testing of both electrical pump systems (27,28) and mechanical elevated vacuum systems (27) highlight
89 model-specific differences in measures of performance such as maximum gauge pressure and air evacuation
90 time (27,28). These differences may help to explain variability in study findings, such as in the case series
91 by Sanders *et al.* that found inconsistent results across different elevated vacuum systems (12). Monitoring
92 vacuum pressures while wearing a prosthesis with elevated vacuum could possibly shed light on these
93 differences. For in-lab testing, a pressure monitor (model 2L760, DigiVac, Matawan, NJ) has been used to
94 quantify socket air pressure (27-29). Because this system is tethered to a computer system and comes with
95 the cost of increased bulk and weight it may not appropriate for tasks that require free movement, limiting
96 its use to standing, sitting, and treadmill walking. Xu et al (2017) developed a pressure measurement system
97 to induce a specific vacuum level in order to study the effect on gait parameters, but did not report the
98 changes in vacuum pressure throughout the trials (30). The LimbLogic VS Communicator (Ohio Willow
99 Wood) has been developed to measure socket air pressure in real-time (13,26,31), however it is only
100 designed to interface with the LimbLogic VS system, limiting its usability across a wider range of systems.
101 A discrete monitor that could be used across elevated vacuum systems to measure and log socket air
102 pressure in real-time across of variety of functional tasks could provide valuable quantitative comparisons.

103 To address these limitations, we developed a light-weight portable socket measurement system capable of
 104 capturing internal socket air pressure, temperature, and acceleration. This system can either log data to
 105 onboard memory, or stream wirelessly and in real-time to a computer. The objective of this paper is to
 106 describe the system design, fabrication, and integration of the device, as well as present preliminary results
 107 from implementation with three transtibial prosthesis users with mechanical elevated vacuum pumps.

108 **Methods**

109 Ethics approval was obtained through the University of Alberta's institutional review board and participants
 110 gave written informed consent prior to participation. Three participants currently using an elevated vacuum
 111 system in their prosthesis were recruited through prosthetics shops, with details listed in Table 1. Each
 112 prosthesis was evaluated by a certified prosthetist and was deemed to be well-fitting at the time of testing.
 113 To confirm quality of fit, participants completed the OPUS Lower Extremity Functional Status Measures
 114 survey (32), with results ranging from 50 to 70 out of a total possible score of 80.

115 **Table 1. Participant information and prosthetic components.**

	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
Participant information			
Sex	Male	Male	Male
Weight	225 lbs	175 lbs	210 lbs
Height	5'11"	5'10"	6'2"
Amputation information			
Amputation level	Transtibial	Transtibial	Transtibial
Side of amputation	Right	Left	Right
Type of amputation	Trauma	Vascular	Vascular
Time since amputation	4 years, 1 month	3 years, 4 months	8 years, 4 months
Limb length*, geometry	Short, Conical	Medium, Cylindrical	Medium, Cylindrical
Wear and performance			
Hours per day prosthesis worn	16	16	16
Days per week prosthesis worn	7	7	7
OPUS Functional Status Score	50 out of 80	70 out of 80	69 out of 80
Prosthetic components			
Elevated vacuum system	Harmony P3 (Ottobock, 4R147=K)	Unity Sleeveless Vacuum (Össur)	Triton H (Ottobock, 1C62, Rt. Cat. 3-4-P4N)
Liner	Alpha Design Custom Liner (WillowWood, ALC-DES-EO)	Alpha Classic Liner (WillowWood, ALC-5064-E)	Anatomic 3D PUR Liner (Ottobock, 6Y512=265x125-F)
Foot	LP Vari-Flex (Össur, 27R C7)	Pro-Flex LP Torsion (Össur, PLTO425L)	Triton H (Ottobock, 1C62, Rt. Cat. 3-4-P4N)
Sleeve	Extreme Sleeve (Alps, SFK-28-3)	ProFlex Plus Sleeve (Ottobock, 453A=1-0)	ProFlex Plus Sleeve (Ottobock, 453A40=2-7)

Socket type	Thermoplastic temporary socket	Laminated	Environmentally Managed System, Laminated (EMS)
116	* Note that “short” limb length refers to a tibia length less than 12 cm and “medium” is between 12 and 15 cm (33)		

117 **Design and Installation of Data Logger**

118 The socket data logger was developed in-house and contained three sensors; an air-pressure sensor
119 (MPXx6250A, Freescale Semiconductor, range: 20 to 250 kPa absolute, reported accuracy: ± 0.25 kPa), an
120 external temperature probe (LMT86, Texas Instruments, range: -50 to 150°C , reported accuracy: $\pm 0.4^{\circ}\text{C}$),
121 and an inertial measurement unit (MPU-9250, InvenSense, range: -8 to 8 G, reported accuracy: ± 0.05 G).
122 Overall dimensions of the device including housing were $18 \times 38 \times 51$ mm with a total weight of 27 g. The
123 device was powered by a lithium polymer battery and communicated using Bluetooth LE in real-time via a
124 custom graphical user interface (GUI) at a frequency of 25 Hz while, simultaneously logging the data to
125 internal on-board memory at the same rate for redundancy.

126 Air pressure measurements in the socket were obtained by connecting the sensor to the socket via the
127 existing tubing (Participants 1 and 3) or exhaust port connector (Participant 2) between the pump and
128 socket, shown in (Fig 1). A narrow tubing diameter was selected ($1/16$ inches inner diameter) to ensure that
129 the inclusion of the data logger would have minimal impact on the overall volume of the prosthetic socket;
130 the volume increase for a 20 cm length of tubing is 0.4 cm^3 , relatively small compared to estimated socket
131 volumes ranging from 33 to 197 cm^3 (28). Therefore, consistent with Boyle’s law and previous prosthetic
132 literature (31), air pressure measurements within this additional tubing are equivalent to the air pressure
133 throughout the prosthetic socket. The temperature probe was placed on the outside of the socket and covered
134 with the prosthetic liner. The housing containing the inertial measurement unit was mounted to the outside
135 of the rigid socket, as was the temperature probe.

136 **Fig 1. Installation of data logger onto prosthetic socket.** Modified sockets for (a) Participant 1, (b) Participant 2,
137 and (c) Participant 3

138

139 Pump performance was evaluated in two conditions; active and inactive. In the active condition, the pump
140 was connected to the socket as per manufacturer's instructions. In the inactive condition, the connection to
141 the pump was replaced by a plug, thereby separating the pump from the socket. Trials were double-blinded;
142 both the participant and researchers did not know the condition of the pump. To ensure the double-blind
143 condition was maintained, a certified prosthetist was responsible for connecting or disconnecting the pump
144 between trials and did not communicate the state of the system until after data analysis was complete. A
145 shroud was placed over the entire prosthetic leg to hide any visual clues. There were however minor
146 differences in auditory cues in the different pump conditions.

147 **Functional Tasks and Subjective Surveys**

148 Five mobility tasks were performed for each trial in the same order. The first task was a 2-Minute Walk
149 Test, similar to (34), where the participant walked in a large circular hallway (circumference of 190 m) for
150 two minutes. The total distance travelled was measured using a measuring wheel (Rolatape Measuring
151 Systems, Model MM-45M). The participant then completed the Five Times Sit-to-Stand test (35), the 4-
152 Square Step test (36), the L-Test (37), and the Figure-8 test (38); time to task completion, number of steps,
153 and errors were determined from analysis of video footage. At the beginning of the test session, task
154 instructions were provided to the participant and they were given the opportunity to practice each task until
155 comfortable with their performance. This was done to minimize potential learning effects during the trials.
156 During each trial, the 2-Minute Walk test and 5-Times Sit-to-Stand test were completed once, and the 4-
157 Square Step test, L-Test, and Figure-8 test were completed twice.

158 At the beginning of each trial, the prosthetist connected or disconnected the pump in a room separate from
159 the participant and researchers. Each condition (pump active or inactive) was evaluated twice for a total of
160 four trials, with order of condition block randomized in pairs. Participants were asked to don their prosthesis
161 as usual, then they completed the functional tasks outlined in the order above. If a mistake was made during
162 one of the functional tasks, that specific task was repeated immediately. Once the functional testing was

163 complete, participants were asked to doff their prosthesis, and a seated break of at least five minutes was
164 enforced prior to the next trial.

165 After each trial the participant completed a short survey to capture their impressions of the prosthesis under
166 the current condition. The survey was modified from the OPUS Satisfaction with Device Score (39), and
167 used a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), shown in the supplementary
168 file (S1 Table).

169 **Data Treatment**

170 Analysis was conducted using Excel (Microsoft, 2016) and Matlab (Mathworks, R2017b). Gauge pressure
171 data and acceleration magnitudes were analyzed. For each of the activities, data was broken into individual
172 movements of the gait cycle (i.e. strides) by delineating at maximum pressures within the approximate
173 stride period specified; note that data segments were shifted forward by 10 timesteps (0.4 s) to visually
174 capture the data surrounding the peaks in pressure. The exception is for the sit-to-stand motion where
175 minimum pressures were used to separate movements. The data was then normalized over movement
176 length, creating a scale of 0 to 100% movement completion that allowed for the data to be plotted by
177 condition. Pressure change over time was calculated by determining the slope of the data using simple linear
178 regression. From each individual movement, average and standard deviation values were determined. Two-
179 sample t-tests were used to evaluate differences between active compared to inactive conditions, with
180 variance conditions confirmed using f-tests, and $\alpha = 0.05$. Note that Trial 4 from Participant 3 was excluded
181 from the analysis due to technical challenges resulting from the donning process that resulted in inadequate
182 seal from the sleeve, compromising the suction suspension.

183 **Results**

184 Gauge pressure data collected during the 2-Minute Walk test for each participant are shown in Fig 2. The
185 thin lines indicate the real-time pressure measurements, which fluctuated substantially with each stride. The

186 thick lines indicate the overall change in pressure. For Participant 1 (Fig 2a), the pressure remained fairly
187 consistent, regardless of pump condition. For Participant 2 (Fig 2b), in both conditions the pressure dropped
188 (vacuum increased) initially, then stabilized to different values depending on pump condition. For
189 Participant 3 (Fig 2c), the pressure was fairly consistent when the pump was inactive and fell continuously
190 when the pump was active.

191 **Fig 2. Overall gauge pressure data during 2-minute walk test.** Data is shown across (a) Participant 1, (b)
192 Participant 2, and (c) Participant 3. Thin lines indicate raw data and thick lines indicate measurements smoothed
193 using the rloess function in Matlab.

194
195 Data for the 2-minute walk test was broken into individual strides as shown in Fig 3. Early strides are
196 indicated in blue with later strides in yellow. This visualization demonstrates differences in vacuum
197 pressures over time. In the case of Participant 1 (Fig 3a), the use of elevated vacuum (pump active) appeared
198 to reduce the variations in pressure occurring with each stride, but not the overall pressures. For Participant
199 2 (Fig 3b) there was a reduction in overall gauge pressure (increase in vacuum) with subsequent strides in
200 both conditions, with more consistently negative vacuum pressures with the pump active. For Participant 3
201 (Fig 3c), there was a clear effect of the active pump condition showing progressive reduction in pressures
202 with subsequent strides, compared to the no pump condition which show little to no change.

203 **Fig 3. Individual gauge pressure stride data during 2-Minute Walk test.** Data is shown with pump inactive (top)
204 and pump active (bottom), across (a) Participant 1, (b) Participant 2, and (c) Participant 3. Blue indicates the first
205 stride and yellow the last, with the legend indicating total stride count.

206
207 Average gauge pressure and acceleration data for the 2-Minute Walk test are shown in Fig 4, normalized
208 over the full stride length. As above, Participant 1 (Fig 4a) visually showed small differences in absolute
209 pressure between conditions, and lower pressure variation with the pump active. Participants 2 (Fig 4b) and
210 3 (Fig 4c) showed large differences in pressure between conditions, where the active elevated vacuum

211 reduced overall pressure. Across all three participants, peaks in pressure were followed by drops; these
 212 drops coincided with stable acceleration measurements, where acceleration magnitude was close to 1.0 G.

213 **Fig 4. Normalized individual stride data during 2-Minute Walk test.** Data is shown for gauge pressure (top) and
 214 magnitude of acceleration (bottom), across (a) Participant 1, (b) Participant 2, and (c) Participant 3. Dark lines
 215 indicate average measurements, with shaded areas indicating standard deviation.

216
 217 Values and statistical results from the data analysis of gauge pressure and acceleration for all five tasks are
 218 presented in Table 2. There were some significant differences in acceleration magnitude between
 219 conditions, though effect size may not be clinically significant. In general, gauge pressure was consistently
 220 lower (vacuum higher) while the elevated vacuum system was active, though the effect size varied by
 221 participant and activity. Differences between pump active and inactive were smaller during the shorter
 222 duration tasks compared to the 2-Minute Walk test.

223 **Table 2. Average measured results over individual strides.** Reported as mean \pm standard deviation. Significant
 224 differences are highlighted. Abbreviations are as follows: press. (pressure), accel. (acceleration), mag. (magnitude).

		Participant 1			Participant 2			Participant 3		
		Inactive	Active	P-value	Inactive	Active	P-value	Inactive	Active	P-value
2-Minute Walk	Gauge press. (kPa)	8.5 \pm 2.9	4.6 \pm 1.3	< 0.001	-0.1 \pm 1.4	-21.7 \pm 3.2	< 0.001	0.1 \pm 0.3	-12.4 \pm 6.7	< 0.001
	Accel. mag. (G)	1.2 \pm 0.1	1.3 \pm 0.0	< 0.001	1.3 \pm 0.1	1.4 \pm 0.1	< 0.001	1.3 \pm 0.1	1.3 \pm 0.1	0.743
	Press. change (kPa / min.)	1.6 \pm 0.3	-0.5 \pm 0.2	0.016	-1.6 \pm 0.0	-2.6 \pm 0.5	0.096	0.1 \pm 0.2	-11.7 \pm 0.0	0.014
5 Times Sit-to-Stand	Gauge press. (kPa)	2.7 \pm 0.7	0.6 \pm 0.4	< 0.001	-0.7 \pm 0.5	-4.0 \pm 2.9	0.042	-1.8 \pm 1.1	-10.1 \pm 1.0	< 0.001
	Accel. mag. (G)	1.0 \pm 0.00	1.0 \pm 0.01	0.193	1.0 \pm 0.00	1.0 \pm 0.01	0.112	1.0 \pm 0.01	1.0 \pm 0.00	0.303
4-Square Step Test	Gauge press. (kPa)	5.7 \pm 4.0	6.6 \pm 2.9	0.264	1.3 \pm 5.0	-5.7 \pm 4.7	< 0.001	0.8 \pm 1.0	-4.5 \pm 1.2	< 0.001
	Accel. mag. (G)	1.2 \pm 0.13	1.1 \pm 0.03	< 0.001	1.2 \pm 0.12	1.1 \pm 0.11	0.311	1.1 \pm 0.05	1.1 \pm 0.04	0.919
L-Test	Gauge press. (kPa)	9.3 \pm 3.3	7.0 \pm 2.9	< 0.001	7.0 \pm 6.2	-11.0 \pm 5.6	< 0.001	0.9 \pm 0.7	-4.3 \pm 1.1	< 0.001
	Accel. mag. (G)	1.3 \pm 0.16	1.2 \pm 0.07	< 0.001	1.3 \pm 0.12	1.3 \pm 0.13	0.521	1.2 \pm 0.08	1.2 \pm 0.10	0.207
Figure-8 Test	Gauge press. (kPa)	7.7 \pm 4.6	6.0 \pm 1.9	0.149	3.4 \pm 3.4	-9.3 \pm 3.5	< 0.001	0.2 \pm 0.6	-2.9 \pm 0.9	< 0.001
	Accel. mag. (G)	1.3 \pm 0.16	1.3 \pm 0.12	0.433	1.2 \pm 0.11	1.3 \pm 0.10	0.282	1.2 \pm 0.06	1.2 \pm 0.07	0.586

225
 226 For further insight into differences with vacuum pressures during the 2-Minute Walk test, we analyzed the
 227 first 5 and last 5 strides of the task (Table 3). In all instances, there were significant differences in gauge
 228 pressure between the active versus inactive conditions. Differences in pressures between the active and
 229 inactive conditions were more pronounced for the last 5 strides of the test compared to the first 5 strides,
 230 particularly for Participants 2 and 3. Notably, the maximum air pressure for Participant 2 and 3 for the last
 231 5 strides of the task with the pump active maintained negative values, meaning that the socket was sub-

232 atmospheric throughout the entire gait profile, in contrast to the positive values in the inactive pump
 233 condition.

234 **Table 3. Average gauge pressure data across initial and final strides during 2-Minute Walk.** Reported as mean
 235 \pm standard deviation. Significant differences are highlighted.

		Participant 1			Participant 2			Participant 3		
		Inactive	Active	P-value	Inactive	Active	P-value	Inactive	Active	P-value
Initial 5 strides	Min. press. (kPa)	-13.8 \pm 2.0	-18.5 \pm 1.2	< 0.001	-24.9 \pm 1.9	-28.9 \pm 5.3	0.022	-9.8 \pm 0.7	-10.1 \pm 0.3	0.005
	Max. press. (kPa)	58.1 \pm 10.9	66.7 \pm 7.2	0.035	38.6 \pm 3.6	4.3 \pm 5.2	< 0.001	15.0 \pm 0.9	9.6 \pm 0.6	0.001
Final 5 strides	Min. press. (kPa)	-12.9 \pm 1.8	-20.5 \pm 1.7	< 0.001	-27.5 \pm 3.2	-34.6 \pm 7.7	0.002	-9.3 \pm 0.4	-28.3 \pm 0.1	< 0.001
	Max. press. (kPa)	54.5 \pm 3.4	61.8 \pm 4.3	0.007	20.0 \pm 1.7	-12.2 \pm 1.8	< 0.001	15.7 \pm 0.8	-13.5 \pm 1.0	< 0.001

236
 237 Temperature measurements of the external socket ranged between 22 and 27°C, however there was no
 238 correlation to pump condition.

239 Functional task performances are summarized in the supplementary material (S2 Table). There were no
 240 significant differences in performances based on pump condition ($p > 0.05$ for all comparisons). Functional
 241 task performance in both conditions and across all participants fell within normative walking distances
 242 during the 2-Minute Walk test (34). Performance during the L-Test and Figure-8 test exceeded reported
 243 values based on populations of transtibial amputees and people with mobility disabilities, respectively
 244 (37,38). Task durations of the 5 Times Sit-to-Stand and 4-Square Step tests were longer than values reported
 245 in normative adult populations (36,40).

246 Responses to the qualitative survey are summarized in Fig 5. Despite our attempts to blind the participants
 247 to the condition of the pump, Participant 1 was able to correctly identify pump condition in all trials. Survey
 248 responses of Participant 1 indicated a preference towards the use of the elevated pump, with a perceived
 249 improvement in prosthesis fit and comfort, reduced pain and perception of slippage, as well as a greater
 250 feeling of control. Participant 2 misidentified the pump conditions for Trials 1 and 2 and was correct for
 251 Trials 3 and 4. Participant 3 misidentified every pump condition. Survey responses from Participants 2 and
 252 3 did not indicate a clear preference towards either pump condition.

253 **Fig 5. Comparison of qualitative survey scores.** Solid colour bars indicate inactive pump condition scores and
254 hatched bars indicate active pump condition scores, with error bars indicating standard deviation

255

256 **Discussion**

257 We have developed and applied a device that is able to capture real-time socket pressure and acceleration
258 data while worn non-intrusively and without restricting mobility. This study has demonstrated the
259 performance of the data logger and allowed for the evaluation of air pressure within three different
260 mechanical elevated vacuum systems while worn and performing standardized functional mobility tasks.
261 The use of the pumps resulted in significant changes to socket air pressure over time, where each participant
262 demonstrated different gait profiles and pressure ranges.

263 With the pump active, both Participants 2 and 3 demonstrated a substantial decrease in socket air pressure
264 over the duration of the 2-Minute Walk test. For Participant 2, the air pressure dropped then plateaued after
265 approximately 50 steps. However, for Participant 3, the pressure dropped continually over the duration of
266 the trial. The air pressure in both participants' sockets reached a similar final negative pressure range at the
267 end of the task. With the pump inactive, the air pressure values at the end of the trials were similar to those
268 at the beginning; the maximum pressure continued to fluctuate above atmospheric pressure. However, with
269 the pump active, air pressure readings were consistently negative for the final 5 strides, indicating that the
270 elevated vacuum was maintaining a sub-atmospheric pressure throughout the full stride. Interestingly, these
271 two participants had difficulties distinguishing when the pump was active, and questionnaire results did not
272 show a clear preference towards either condition. It was surprising that the participants with apparently
273 effective vacuum systems could not accurately detect when the pump was active.

274 In contrast, the air pressure in Participant 1's socket did not change substantially over the 2-Minute Walk
275 test, in both active and inactive pump conditions. However, with the pump active there was a more
276 consistent pressure profile. This participant was the most successful at correctly identifying pump condition,

277 and questionnaire results indicated a strong preference towards the pump being active. Differences between
278 participants may be due to a combination of factors other than pump design, including socket fit and
279 material properties, limb geometry, donning process, and gait pattern, to name a few. In particular, this
280 participant had a short conical limb with less soft tissue coverage, in comparison to the other 2 participants.
281 Future work should investigate the effect of soft tissue compliance and volume on effectiveness of vacuum
282 systems.

283 Similar pressure trends were seen during the other walking-based tasks (Figure-8 and L-test), though they
284 were not as pronounced due to the shorter task duration. Some average acceleration magnitudes were
285 significantly different between conditions; however, these differences were very small and may not be
286 clinically relevant. The 5-Times Sit-to-Stand activity yielded lower variance in pressure and acceleration
287 compared to other activities, likely because the prosthetic leg was planted against the floor rather than
288 suspended from the limb in swing phase.

289 Using the measured acceleration readings, changes in socket air pressure can be roughly correlated to
290 phases of the gait cycle. Willemsen *et al.* demonstrated that stable accelerations equivalent to gravity
291 correspond to stance, variable readings to swing, and that peaks occur during push off and foot down (41).
292 We can therefore infer that peak positive pressures occurred just following initial contact of the foot in early
293 stance, with pressure decreasing during stance. The most negative pressures (highest vacuum) were
294 observed throughout swing. This is similar to the pressure profiles measured by Chino *et al.*, where nine
295 transtibial amputees using suction sleeves were evaluated (42). It may be valuable in future work to
296 synchronize the pressure profiles with specific phases of the gait cycle.

297 Pressure ranges reported in literature vary depending on the type of pump used. Our measured results did
298 not attain negative pressures as low as the benchtop testing conducted by Komolafe *et al.* (28), which
299 evaluated different mechanical pumps using a material testing system and found that a vacuum pressure of
300 -57.6 kPa could be achieved in less than 50 loading cycles or 80 seconds. Xu *et al.* (30) recommended a

301 moderate level of 50 kPa to optimize comfort and gait symmetry; their pressures were manually pulled
302 rather than induced by the mechanical pump. The minimum pressures observed at the completion of the 2-
303 Minute Walk test during our study were -34.6 ± 7.7 kPa. This may be due to differences between idealistic
304 'bench-top' testing conditions and real-world prosthetic sockets worn by participants; loading profiles and
305 rates were substantially different, and it is likely that the seal of a socket on an amputated limb is inferior
306 to an idealized system. Chino *et al.* found minimum pressures using a suction sleeve ranged between -7 and
307 -31 kPa over ten gait cycles (42). In contrast, air pressures created by electrical elevated vacuum pumps
308 have been reported to range between -27 to -85 kPa (9-11,13,19,20,26,27,29,31). This disparity indicates
309 there may be large differences in air pressure between systems, and more evaluation is needed to better
310 understand the impact of these differences on prosthesis user function.

311 Functional task performances were compared to reported data. All three participants met or exceeded
312 reported scores for the walking-based tasks (2-Minute Walk, L-Test, and Figure-8) but demonstrated
313 reduced performance for both the 5 Times Sit-to-Stand and 4-Square Step tests. There were no significant
314 differences in task performances between pump conditions, suggesting that the short-term use of elevated
315 vacuum may not have a measurable impact on functional mobility. This is in contrast with the more longer
316 term study conducted by Samitier *et al.* (17) that found improvements in functional task scores of 16
317 transtibial participants after 4-weeks of training with an elevated vacuum system, when compared to their
318 previous system.

319 **Future Work**

320 The data logger tool, testing protocols, and analyses presented contribute to the clinical and research
321 communities by helping to quantify the operation of elevated vacuum systems, and to bridge the gap
322 between the measurement of mechanical pump operation and overall system performance and function.

323 This study quantified socket air-pressure across three elevated vacuum systems within worn prosthetic
324 sockets, during specific tasks allowing unconstrained walking in the clinical lab environment. The next step

325 is to study trends over longer periods of time outside of the laboratory or clinical setting. This will allow
326 further inferences regarding the pressure changes that occur within a socket not only during various
327 movements, but also during daily living tasks and throughout a longer wearing time. The on-board
328 acceleration measurements could be used to determine compliance, activity level, or to monitor falls, as
329 suggested in literature (43,44). The temperature sensor may provide insight into the impact of different
330 environments on vacuum performance; inclusion of a second temperature probe could allow differences in
331 internal socket temperature and environmental temperature to be studied. It may also be interesting to
332 integrate our system with additional sensors, such as limb-socket interface pressure sensors or strain gauge
333 sensors to quantify forces and moments applied to the prosthesis and residual limb (44).

334 Future work may also involve determining correlations between socket air pressure and measurements of
335 the residual limb. For example, residual limb volume loss has been demonstrated in seated (9) and standing
336 (12) tasks. It would be valuable to understand how this loss may be related to average pressures versus
337 cyclical pressure changes, and also to different soft tissue characteristics of residual limbs. It will be
338 valuable to investigate pressure differences between mechanical and electrical pumps, as electrical pumps
339 may be set to greater vacuum pressures than the mechanical pumps evaluated in this study, and will likely
340 generate different pressure profiles.

341 In the future, these techniques should be useful for clinicians, developers, and researchers to address
342 questions related to elevated vacuum system performance. As a clinical tool, this could be used to quickly
343 identify leaks in a socket, understand user compliance, and determine trends in performance throughout the
344 day. There is also a potential for benefit in remote health-care applications (44), or to provide information
345 to developers regarding the impact of various prosthetic components and manufacturing techniques.

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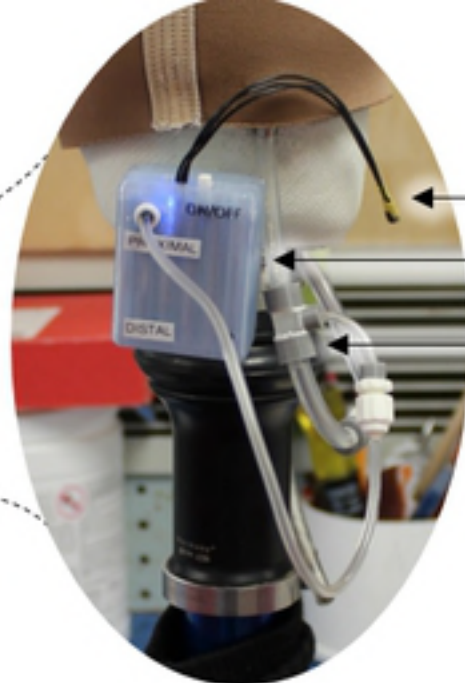
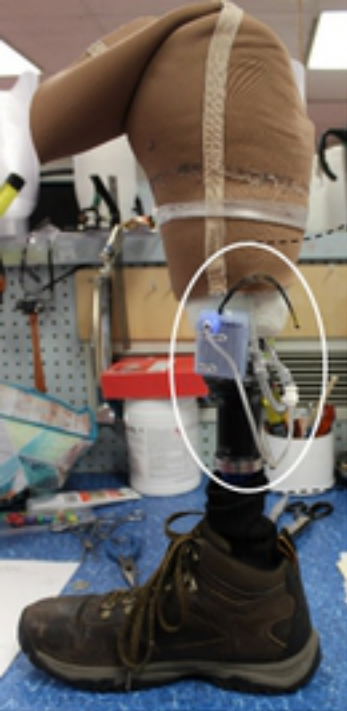
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461

462 **Supporting Information**

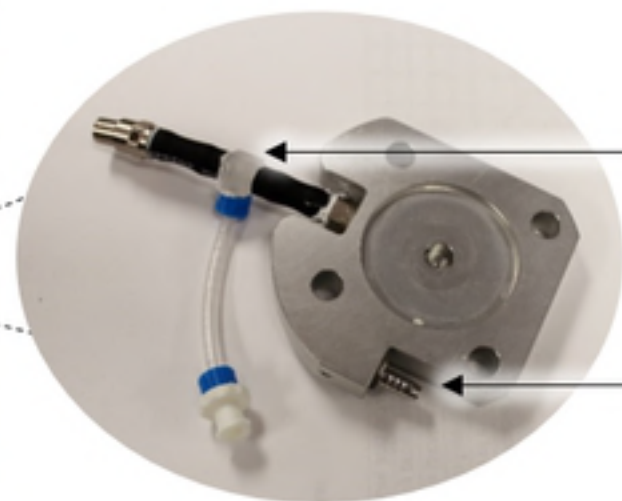
463 **S1 Table. Qualitative survey questionnaire.** Modified from the OPUS Satisfaction with Device Score
464 (39).

465 **S2 Table. Functional mobility task results.** Functional task performance across entire trial, reported as
466 mean \pm standard deviation.



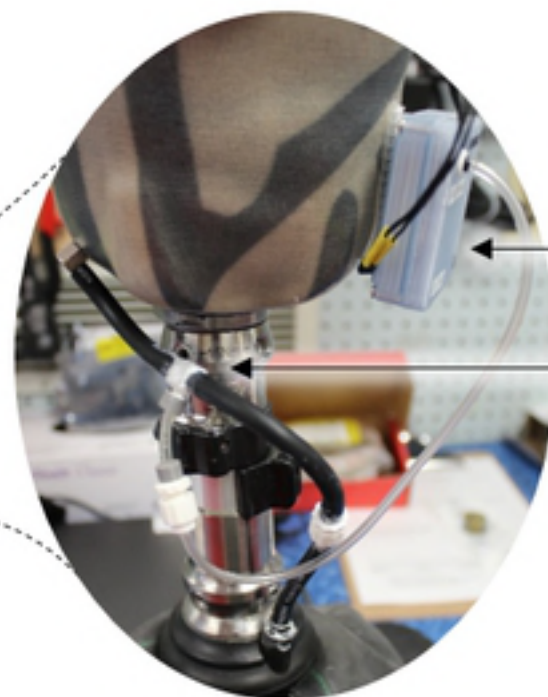
Temp. probe
Data logger
T-intersection

(a)



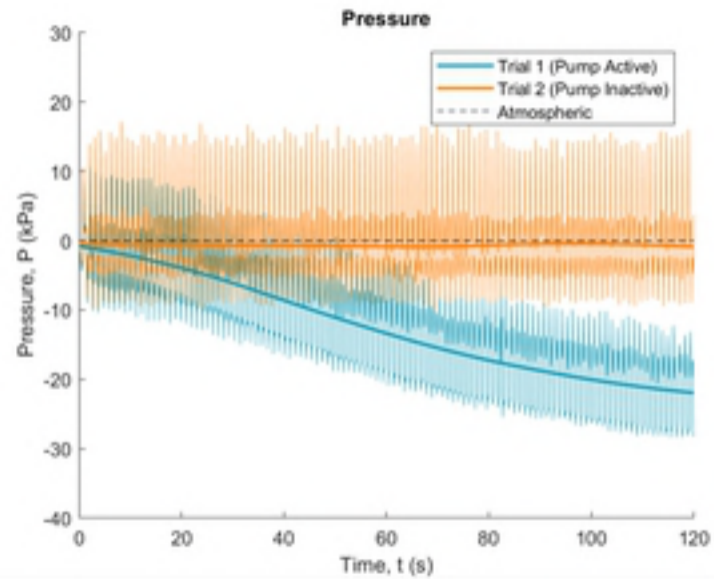
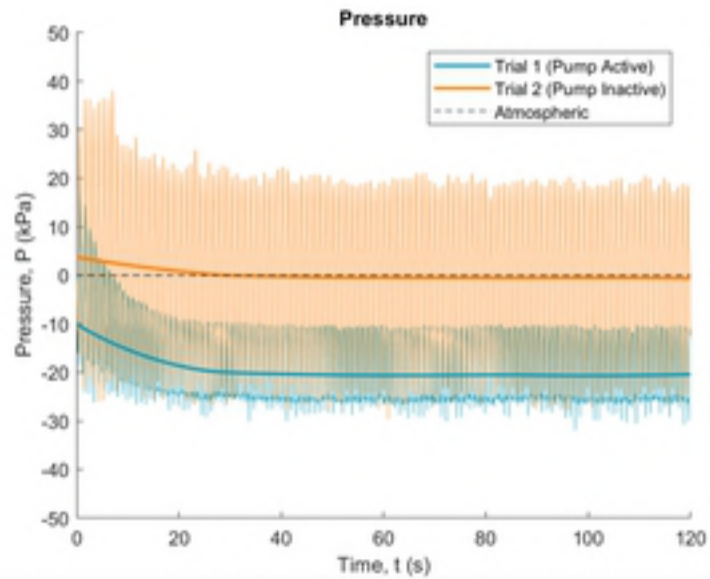
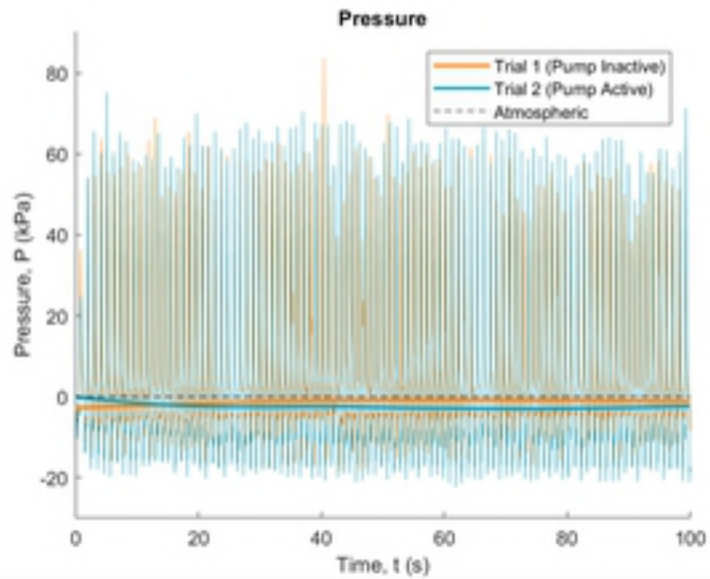
Splice in
exhaust port
Connection to
pump

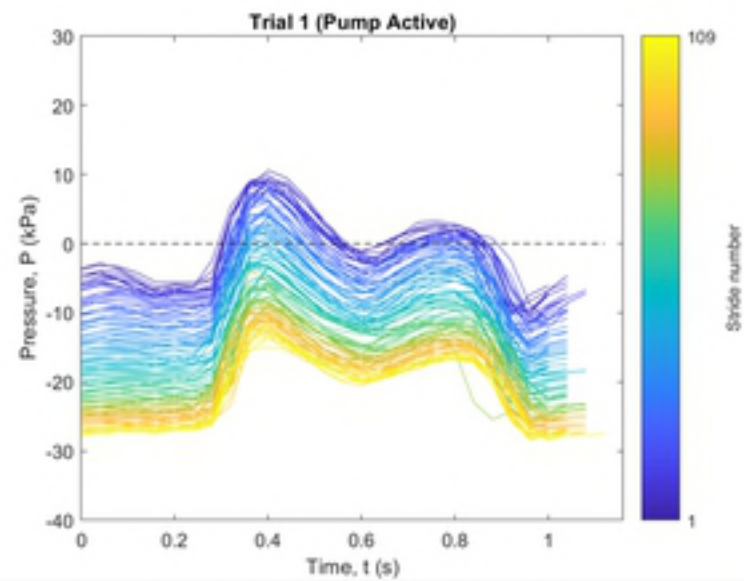
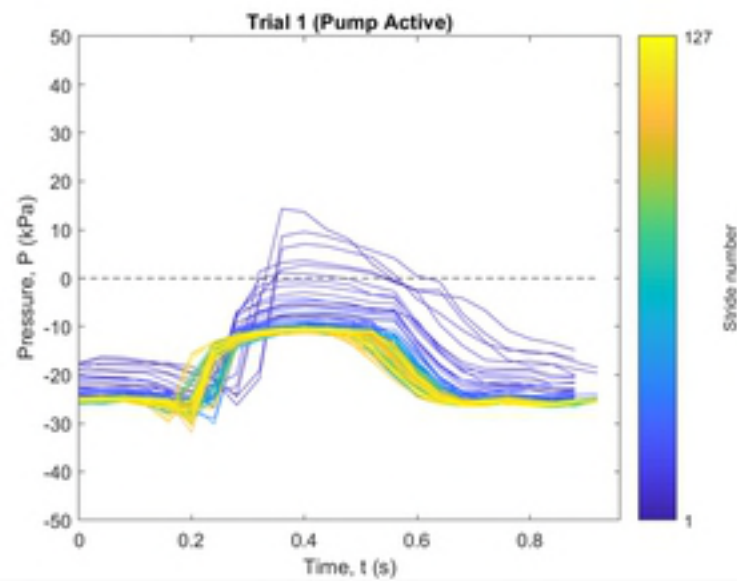
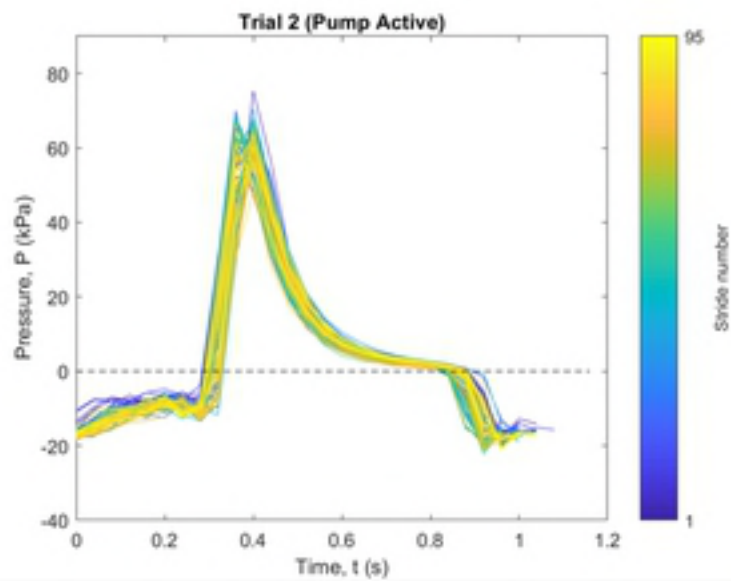
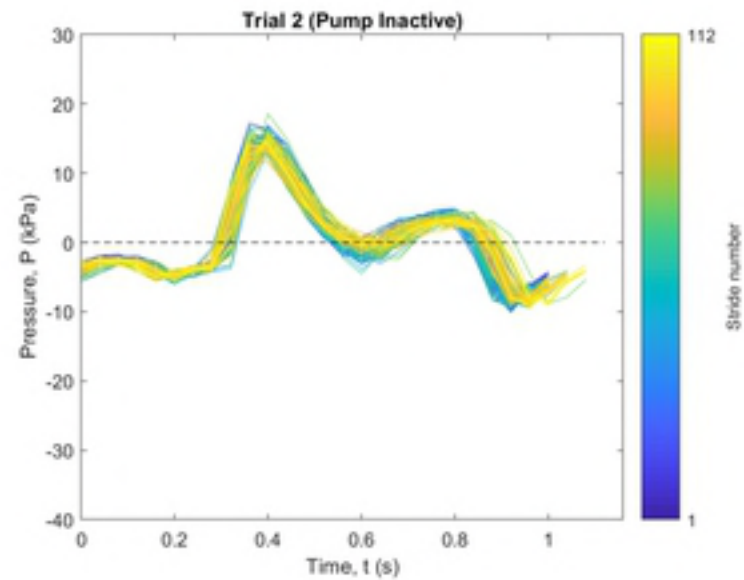
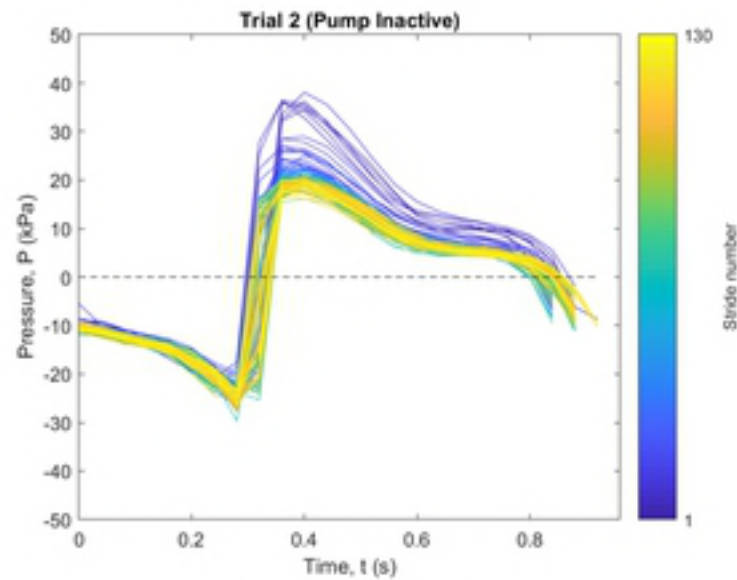
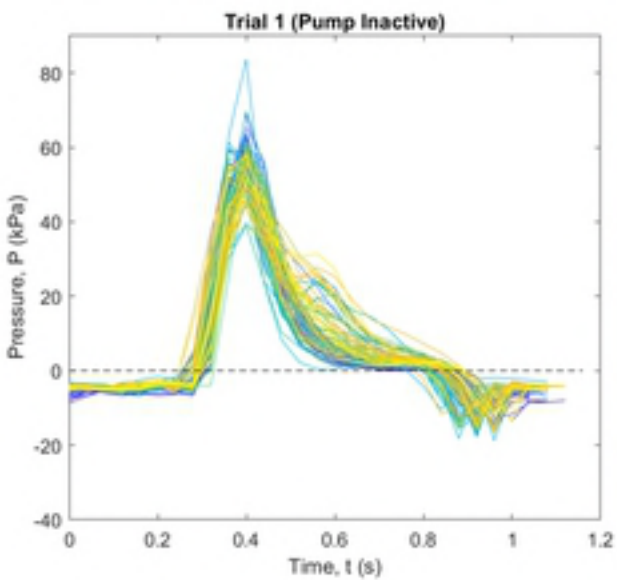
(b)

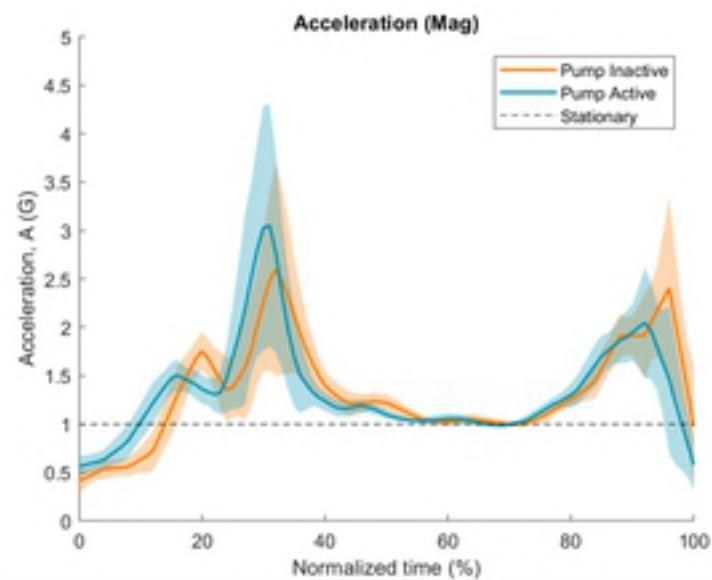
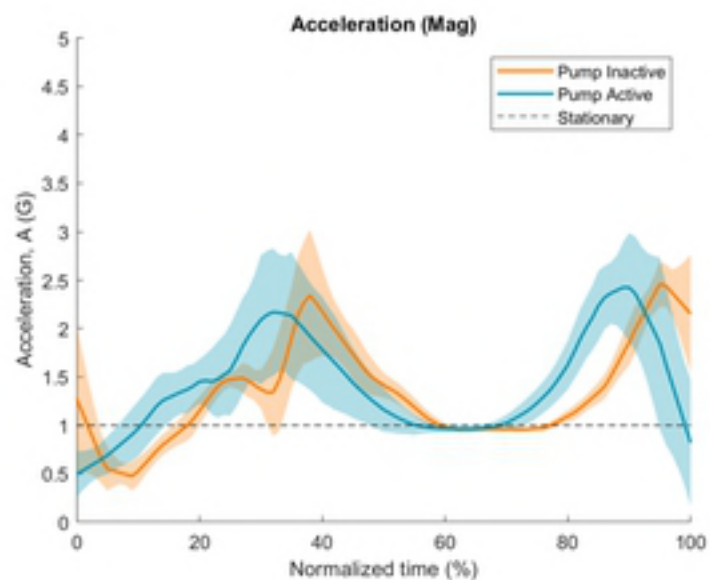
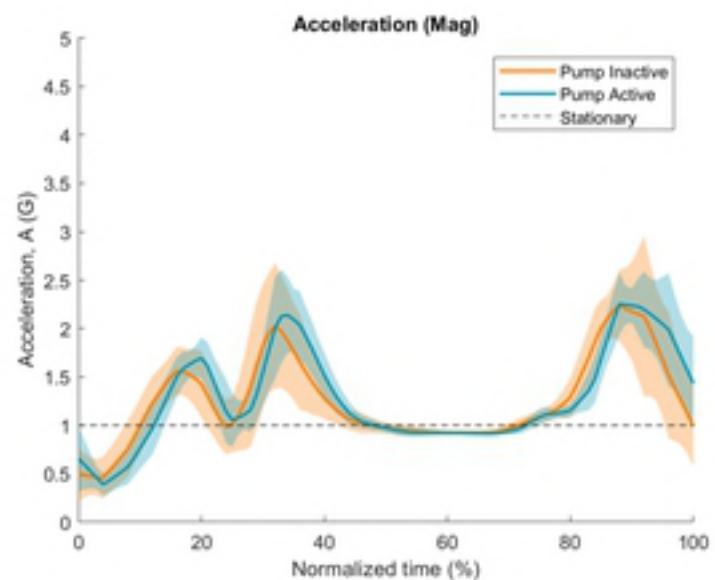
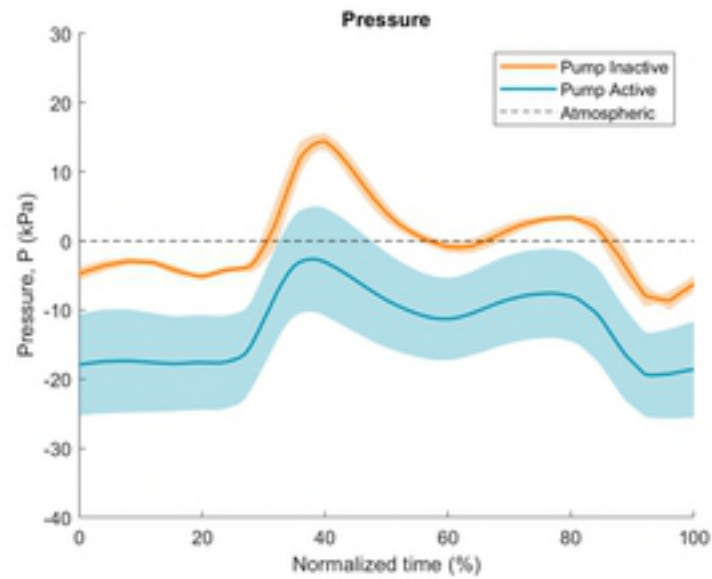
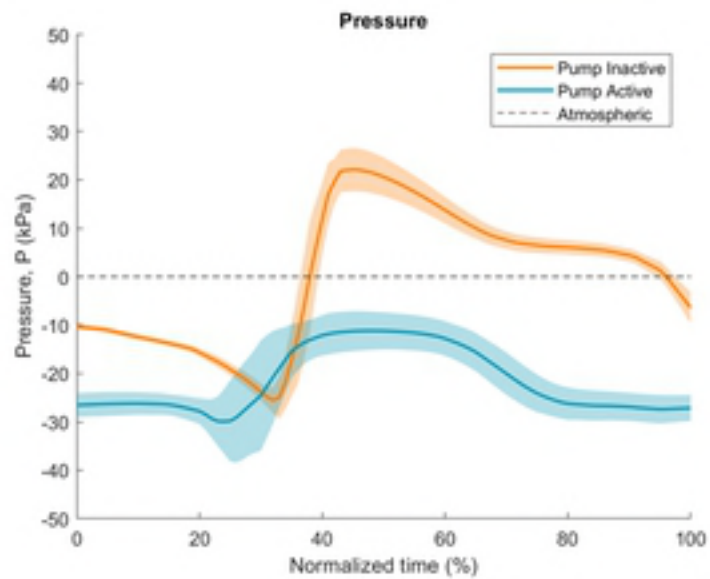
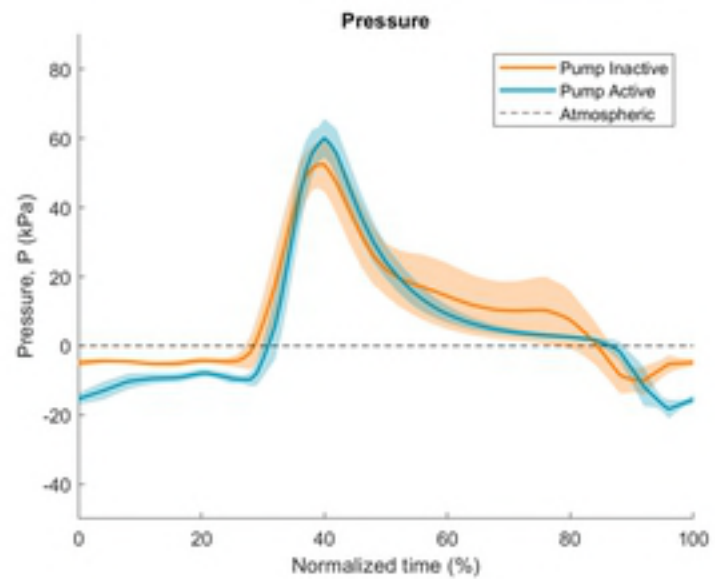


Data logger
T-intersection

(c)

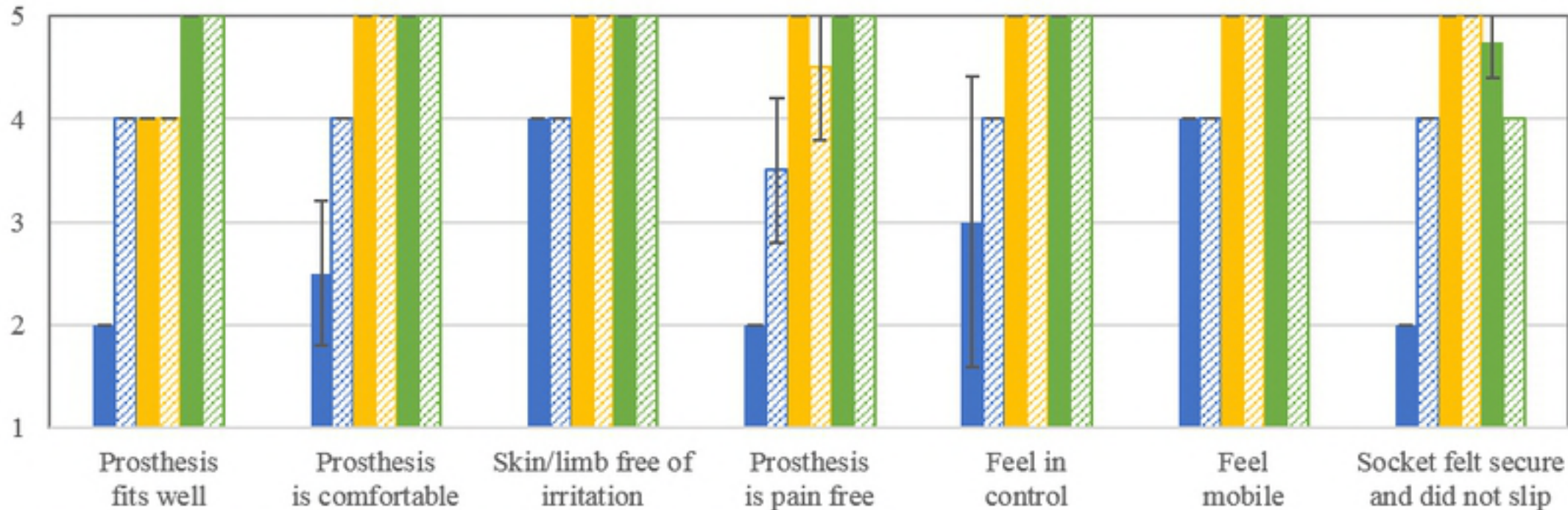






Strongly agree

Strongly disagree



Participant 1 (Pump inactive)

Participant 1 (Pump active)

Participant 2 (Pump inactive)

Participant 2 (Pump active)

Participant 3 (Pump inactive)

Participant 3 (Pump active)