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**WPS ENHANCES INTER-SEGMENTAL FOOT COORDINATION**

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19 **Wide-pulse electrical stimulation to an intrinsic foot muscle induces acute functional changes in**  
20 **forefoot - rearfoot coupling behaviour during walking.**

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30

31 **Abstract**

32 Interventions for strengthening intrinsic foot muscles may be beneficial for rehabilitation from overuse  
33 injuries. In this study the acute effects of high-frequency, low-intensity wide-pulse electrical stimulation  
34 (WPS) over an intrinsic muscle on subsequent foot function during walking was assessed in healthy  
35 participants. WPS was delivered to the *m. abductor hallucis (m.AH)* of the non-dominant foot during  
36 relaxed standing. Three-dimensional forefoot (FF) - rearfoot (RF) coordination was quantified with a  
37 vector coding technique within separate periods of the stance phase to study WPS functional effects on  
38 foot motion. Four types of coordinative strategies between the FF and RF were interpreted and compared  
39 PRE-to-POST-WPS for both the experimental and control feet. Bilateral electromyography (EMG) from  
40 *m.AH* was analysed during the intervention period for evidence of acute neuromuscular adaptation.  
41 The results showed that WPS significantly modulated FF-RF coordination during mid-stance, indicative of  
42 a more stable foot. Specifically, a statistically significant increase in FF eversion with concomitant RF  
43 inversion in the frontal plane and RF-dominated adduction in the transverse plane was observed. Subject-  
44 specific increases in post-stimulus *m.AH* EMG activation were observed but this was not reflected in an  
45 overall group effect. It is concluded that the structural integrity of the foot during walking is enhanced  
46 following an acute session of WPS and that this mechanical effect is most likely due to stimulation induced  
47 post-tetanic potentiation of synaptic transmission.

## 48 **Introduction**

49 There is increasing evidence demonstrating the importance of the intrinsic foot muscles to longitudinal  
50 arch stability during locomotion [2, 7, 13, 15, 18, 22]. Recently, the structural integrity of the arch has been  
51 suggested to be enhanced by the higher forces exerted by the intrinsic muscles of the foot during late  
52 stance [2]. The contribution of these muscles has been speculated to be greater in the pronated foot [18].  
53 Insufficient pronation control is linked to several common overuse injuries, including plantar fasciitis,  
54 achilles tendonitis, hallux valgus and tibialis posterior tendonitis [15]. Orthotic intervention is frequently  
55 prescribed to assist in motion control and may also be extended to asymptomatic individuals. However, a  
56 recent review of the literature concluded that clinicians adopt a rudimentary approach in the prescription of  
57 orthoses due in part to substantial variability and a lack of homogeneity in the evidence base [19].  
58 Moreover, the long term beneficial effects of orthoses have been questioned [16] although this may relate  
59 to inappropriate prescription [16].

60

61 Strengthening of the intrinsic foot musculature may be an efficient solution in the treatment/prevention of  
62 common foot-related disorders [7, 13, 15, 22]. Studies have demonstrated arch depression when *m.*  
63 abductor hallucis (*m.AH*) is paralysed following tibial nerve block [7] or fatigued following exercise [13].  
64 Others have also observed the role of *m.AH* in elevating the arch with restriction of hallux range of  
65 motion [22]. Moreover, an acute session of neuromuscular electrical stimulation (NMES) to this muscle  
66 can elicit prolonged synaptic facilitation resulting in lasting postural adjustments [8].

67

68 NMES has been shown to increase neural activation and strengthen human skeletal muscle [9]. It has been  
69 endorsed as a compliment to voluntary exercise and further posited as a rehabilitative tool for pathology  
70 that compromise normal neuromuscular function [4]. Only recently have the cellular and molecular  
71 mechanisms responsible for the observed improvement in muscle function been elucidated. In both athletic  
72 and sedentary individuals, type I and type IIa fibre hypertrophy was found following an eight week NMES  
73 training intervention along with a shift in myosin heavy chain isoform distribution indicative of a fast-to-  
74 slow phenotype transition. Up- and down regulation of myofibrillar, energy production and anti-oxidant  
75 defence proteins were also consistent with the reported change in muscle phenotype [9].

76

77 The effect of NMES may be enhanced by utilisation of high-frequency, low-intensity, wide-pulse  
78 stimulation (WPS). WPS has been shown to induce sustained depolarisation of spinal motoneurons  
79 (plateau potentials) caused by persistent inward currents (PICs) and is reported to recruit motor units  
80 according to the 'size-principle' unlike conventional NMES [4]. Furthermore, WPS of lower leg muscle  
81 consistently induces a two-fold increase in force output when 100Hz stimulation precedes 20Hz  
82 stimulation. Such force increments are proposed to be evidence of an enhanced contribution from central  
83 neural mechanisms [4]. WPS has previously been performed in recumbent subjects only; whether the  
84 reported induced neural plasticity produces a substantial functional effect during a dynamic activity such  
85 as walking, when spinal reflexes are both task and phase dependent [23] remains unknown.

86  
87 In order to understand this adaptation from a biomechanical perspective, it would be intuitive to implement  
88 a kinematic approach that classifies forefoot-rearfoot coordination patterns since *m.AH* originates from the  
89 calcaneus and inserts at the base of the first phalanx of hallux. Dynamic systems analysis has been an  
90 emerging line of investigation for over a decade and offers an insight into the subtleties of movement  
91 coordination and stability that traditional time domain kinematic analysis cannot. Continuous relative  
92 phase (CRP) plots are one such measure and have been shown to be sufficiently robust to detect  
93 differences in lower extremity coordinative patterns between healthy subjects and individuals suffering  
94 from patellofemoral pain syndrome [10]. A surrogate of CRP is the vector coding technique, which allows  
95 the interpretation of kinematic coupling between adjacent segments and can be summarised into four  
96 distinct coupling patterns: anti-phase, in-phase, proximal phase and distal phase motion [3]. This method  
97 provides a 360° representation of continuous coupling between adjacent segments, whereby a coupling  
98 angle is able to distinguish between phase relationships (anti-/in-phase) or distal/proximal segment  
99 dominance. Indeed, the complexity of inter-segmental foot motion has only been realised following the  
100 emergence of this technique when applied to forefoot-rearfoot coupling relationships during walking [3].

101  
102 Therefore, the aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of an acute session of WPS applied to  
103 *m.AH* on forefoot-rearfoot coupling motion during walking. It was hypothesised that enhanced activation  
104 of *m.AH* would induce alterations in inter-segmental foot motion during the middle to late phases of

105 stance, when the activation of this muscle is most pronounced, resulting in an increased stability of the  
106 foot.

107

## 108 **Methods**

109 Ten healthy subjects (mean  $\pm$  SD: 5 male: 32.2  $\pm$  5.3yrs, 1.79  $\pm$  0.07m, 83.7  $\pm$  19.7kg; 5 female; 28.0  $\pm$   
110 6.3yrs, 1.65  $\pm$  0.02m, 62.6  $\pm$  4.2kg) free from any lower extremity injury or pathology gave their written  
111 informed consent to participate in the study which had received local ethical approval and adhered to the  
112 recognised standards of the IJSM [11].

113

114 Subjects attended a familiarisation session on a separate day prior to experimental data collection. *m.AH*  
115 motor point and threshold were identified in the non-dominant foot (experimental foot) for optimal  
116 response and stimulation intensity, respectively. A 7x5cm matrix was drawn over the muscle with respect  
117 to the navicular tuberosity (NT) in accordance with the literature [6] (Figure 1). The correct position for  
118 anode (Ag/AgCl, Cardicare) placement within the matrix was determined through the response from a tri-  
119 axial accelerometer (Biometrics Ltd, UK) attached to the dorsal aspect of the hallux to a 500 $\mu$ s square-  
120 wave pulse of 200V with increasing current. In most cases the motor point was located 3cm inferior and  
121 1cm posterior to the NT. A cathode was positioned over the medial aspect of the distal first metatarsal and  
122 motor threshold was determined by delivering a 100Hz train of 5 x 1-ms square wave pulses [4]. Current  
123 was increased in 0.1mA increments until a visible spike indicative of induced muscle contraction (motor  
124 threshold) was registered by the accelerometer. The stimulation intensity for all subsequent interventions  
125 was then set at 150% of motor threshold.

126 Subject's individual walking speed was ascertained from five preliminary barefoot walking trials at self-  
127 selected speed. All subsequent main trials were required to fall within this speed range (mean  $\pm$  1SD).

128

129 During the main session, subjects performed five walking trials before and after 10 sessions of 15-s trains  
130 of alternating WPS (20Hz-100Hz[high-frequency]-20Hz) (Figure 2). Square wave (1ms[wide-pulse])  
131 pulses (40V) were delivered to *m.AH* of the non-dominant foot (experimental) by a constant-current  
132 stimulator (DS7A, Digitimer, UK) and driven by a custom written sequencer (Spike 2, v6.10, Cambridge  
133 Electronic Design Ltd., UK) through an A/D convertor (micro1401, Cambridge Electronic Design Ltd.,

134 UK) at the pre-determined current level (150% motor threshold, low-intensity). Stimulation was delivered  
135 during standing with the dominant foot serving as the control (Figure 1). Two minutes seated rest was  
136 given between each stimulation train.

137 Bipolar surface EMG electrodes (1mm width, 10mm pole spacing; Delysis Inc., USA) were located over  
138 the distal aspect of *m.AH* on each foot following the pre-intervention walking trials. The raw signal from  
139 each muscle was pre-amplified (x1000), sampled at 2kHz and recorded throughout each WPS session once  
140 the subject was comfortably standing until 30 seconds after the stimulus had ceased. The EMG sensors  
141 were then removed following the ten sessions of WPS so that the post-intervention kinematic measures  
142 could be acquired.

143 Thirteen retro-reflective markers (12mm diameter) using a six degree-of-freedom marker set were  
144 positioned on each lower limb and defined the shank, rearfoot, mid-foot, forefoot and hallux segments in  
145 accordance with an accepted multi-segment foot/shank model [17] (Figure 1). A further seven markers on  
146 each limb were placed on anatomical landmarks during static calibration in order to define the segment  
147 coordinate system [17]. Three-dimensional kinematic data were captured at 500Hz using an eight-camera  
148 motion analysis system (Qualisys AB, Sweden) synchronised with data from two force platforms (Kistler,  
149 UK) imbedded into a walkway for the identification of heel-strike and toe-off. A total of 100 strides (10  
150 subjects-5 trials) in each condition (PRE vs. POST) were extracted for further analysis.

151  
152 Kinematic data were processed in Visual 3D (C-Motion Inc, USA). FF-RF segment angles were calculated  
153 relative to a fixed laboratory coordinate system using a Cardan XYZ sequence of rotations. Segmental  
154 angle-angle plots were derived in the sagittal, frontal and transverse planes of motion and time normalised  
155 to 100% stance phase. Coordination was inferred from a coupling angle ( $\gamma$ ) subtended from a vector  
156 adjoining two successive time points relative to the right horizontal axis, where  $0 \leq \gamma \leq 360$  [3]. The  
157 coupling angle represents four unique coordination strategies identified as 1) anti-phase motion, 2) in-  
158 phase motion, 3) proximal (RF) phase motion, and 4) distal (FF) phase motion. These are located on the  
159  $45^\circ$  diagonals, horizontal and vertical axes of the angle-angle plots respectively [3] (Figure 3). The  
160 summation of the frequency of observations of  $\gamma$  for each phase/plane/time were plotted as histograms and  
161 sub-divided into three equal periods of stance: early (1-33%), mid (34-66%) and late (67-100%).

162

163 Medial longitudinal arch angle was defined for each foot in the sagittal plane as the projection of the lines  
164 extending from the calcaneus to the sustentaculum tali to the first metatarsal head [17]. Arch angle was  
165 measured at heel-strike, peak active load (loading response), minimum load (mid-stance), peak propulsive  
166 load (terminal stance) and toe-off instances of the vertical ground reaction force.

167

168 EMG of *m.AH* from both feet was analysed using a custom-written script developed in Spike 2 version  
169 6.10 software (Cambridge Electronic Design Ltd., UK) for two seconds prior to and immediately following  
170 each stimulation train (Figure 2). Each signal was high-pass filtered at 20Hz and the magnitude of muscle  
171 activation was assessed by calculating the root-mean square (RMS) of the filtered signal. The average  
172 difference between the ten PRE- and POST-WPS measures was calculated for each subject and expressed  
173 as percentage change ( $\Delta\%$ ) for statistical comparison to account for inter-subject variation in EMG  
174 amplitude.

175

176 Preliminary test-retest experiments based on the same protocol but without WPS intervention were  
177 performed on a gender and age-matched *control* group ( $n=4$ ) to assess the 95% confidence limits that any  
178 kinematic effect resulting from the WPS treatment would have to exceed for that effect to be considered  
179 meaningful [1]. These limits (95%CI) are presented in parentheses with any significant interaction effects  
180 reported in the main data.

181 The kinematic data from the main experiment were confirmed as being normally distributed  
182 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov 1-sample t-test; SPSS v.14.0; SPSS Inc., USA). Hence, a two-way repeated  
183 measures ANOVA was used to identify interaction effects and effect sizes ( $\eta^2$ ) of two investigated factors  
184 (foot [experimental vs. control] x time [PRE- vs.POST-WPS]). A paired sample t-test was applied to the  
185 EMG percentage changes ( $\Delta\%$ , PRE- vs.POST-WPS) to identify differences between feet. Statistically  
186 significant differences were accepted when  $P < 0.05$ .

187

## 188 **Results**

189 FF-RF kinematic coupling was found to be significantly modulated during mid-stance as a result of WPS.  
190 Specifically, a significant frontal plane anti-phase motion (interaction effect:  $F=9.30$ ;  $P=0.014$ ;  $\eta^2: 0.51$ )  
191 was observed. FF eversion–RF inversion increased in the experimental foot (mean  $\pm$  SD:  $5.4 \pm 6.7$  a.u;

192 95% CI:  $1.0 \pm 4.2$  a.u) with respect to pre-WPS but remained unchanged in the control foot ( $0.4 \pm 5.8$  a.u;  
193 95% CI:  $-1.8 \pm 13.3$  a.u) (Figure 4, left panel). In addition, a significant transverse plane proximal-phase  
194 motion (interaction effect:  $F=9.96$ ;  $P=0.012$ ;  $\eta^2: 0.53$ ) was found during this period. RF adduction in the  
195 experimental foot increased by  $3.2 \pm 5.9$  a.u (95% CI:  $-2.0 \pm 6.6$  a.u) in contrast to an overall decrease of  
196 this motion in the control foot ( $-1.7 \pm 7.9$  a.u; 95% CI:  $-3.0 \pm 8.3$  a.u) (Figure 4, right panel). No other  
197 significant phase/plane/time differences were found.

198

199 There were no significant differences in arch angle at any of the time periods measured within the gait  
200 cycle; although there was a tendency toward a significant difference between the feet during loading  
201 response (peak load, interaction effect;  $P=0.064$ ). Post stimulation, the arch angle of the experimental foot  
202 decreased by  $-0.48 \pm 0.31^\circ$  whereas the angle of the control foot increased by  $0.21 \pm 0.08^\circ$ .

203

204 The amplitude change of the RMS EMG signal in the experimental foot (mean  $\pm$  SD:  $54.0 \pm 127.3$  %) was  
205 not significantly different compared to the control foot ( $8.1 \pm 32.7$  %) following the WPS intervention  
206 ( $P=0.285$ ). Subject-specific responses were inconsistent although most participants demonstrated sustained  
207 *m.AH* activation in the experimental foot following stimulation cessation, albeit not throughout all ten  
208 WPS trials. Also, there was further evidence of contralateral compensatory activation in some subjects  
209 where enhanced *m.AH* activation of the control foot was observed in response to the WPS stimulation of  
210 the experimental foot. Two subjects failed to show any facilitation throughout the intervention whereas,  
211 two demonstrated enhanced *m. AH* activation by more than 220% in the experimental foot following  
212 stimulation, thereby contributing to the large but non-significant difference in RMS EMG amplitude  
213 change between the feet (54.0% vs. 8.1%)..

214

## 215 Discussion

216 To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the effects of high-frequency, low-intensity WPS on  
217 functional movement patterns during a daily task such as walking. There is considerable evidence in the  
218 literature that narrow-pulsed, high-frequency NMES applied over muscle during a voluntary contraction at  
219 a high-intensity elicits strength improvements mediated by cellular and molecular adaptations [9].

220 However, motor-unit recruitment is non-selective during this paradigm, as high-intensity electrical



221 stimulation would directly depolarise all motor axons in addition to sensory muscle afferents under the  
222 stimulus area.. High-frequency, low-intensity WPS on the other hand is posited to recruit motor units in a  
223 more physiological manner (i.e. according to the size principle) [4]. The ability of WPS to maximize the  
224 sensory volley to spinal motoneurons through activation of large-diameter afferents is due to a longer  
225 strength-duration time constant and lower rheobase of sensory axons compared to motor axons [4]. As such  
226 WPS has been proposed as a rehabilitative tool in restoring muscle function.

227

228 In the present study WPS was applied to *m. abductor hallucis (m.AH)* in healthy subjects to investigate the  
229 efficacy of this modality as a possible complementary technique to the existing and apparently contentious  
230 treatment of common foot-related over-use injuries [16, 19]. The rationale for specifying this specific  
231 muscle was based on 1) the increasing evidence highlighting the importance of this muscle amongst other  
232 intrinsic foot muscles in maintaining medial longitudinal arch stability [2, 7, 13, 15, 18, 22]; and 2) its  
233 superficial location for purposes of stimulation and acquisition of a reliable EMG signal. By delivering a  
234 100Hz train interspersed between 20Hz trains [4], the intention was to induce a tetanic contraction of  
235 *m.AH*, thereby increasing the overall contraction magnitude. For reasons of electrical interference produced  
236 by the WPS on the EMG signal, electrophysiological quantification of contraction could not be performed  
237 during the stimulation; however, based on visual inspection alone this was confirmed. In agreement with  
238 the literature, we observed a stimulation-evoked contraction in all subjects consistent with the action of  
239 *m.AH* (flexion/abduction of hallux), which in recumbent subjects has been shown to be facilitated further  
240 with the addition of high-frequency WPS [4]. Such behaviour is indicative of a post-tetanic potentiation  
241 (PTP) resulting from PICs activation due to hyperexcitability of motoneurons[4]. It was hypothesised in the  
242 present study that the effect of WPS on *m.AH* and subsequent hallux action would be retained during  
243 functional movement (walking) in accordance with the PTP theory, postulating that the potential at the pre-  
244 synaptic neuron of the afferent signal can be enhanced for minutes to hours following a period high-  
245 frequency stimulus activity [12].

246

247 The results of the present study imply that an acute session of WPS applied to *m.AH* induces functional  
248 alterations in subsequent foot kinematics during the mid-stance phase of gait. Specifically, the results  
249 suggest a more stable foot following the intervention with the observation of maintained FF eversion with

250 concomitant RF inversion in the frontal plane and RF-dominated adduction in the transverse plane. These  
251 findings indicate an increased torsion of the plantar fascia [3] that is conducive for the transfer of force  
252 during push-off as a result of an enhanced mid-tarsal joint function [18]. Indeed, the importance of the  
253 adaptive nature of mid-foot kinematics during propulsion has been demonstrated as a compensatory  
254 adjustment in gait in response to delayed onset of muscle soreness [20]. Furthermore, the efficiency of  
255 propulsion is believed to depend on the magnitude of force exerted by the intrinsic foot muscles rather than  
256 plantar aponeurosis tension [2].

257

258 We can report with 95% confidence that the effects on frontal plane kinematics are due to the WPS  
259 intervention. However, whilst a significant interaction effect was noted for transverse plane RF-dominated  
260 motion; it cannot be confirmed at present whether this is functionally meaningful as it fell within the  
261 confidence interval calculated from the preliminary experiments. Moreover, a decrease in this motion was  
262 not expected in the control foot. This may have been attributed to a contralateral compensation during the  
263 WPS intervention whereby selected subjects shifted their centre of mass over the stimulated foot to  
264 counter-act an illusory perception orientated ipsilateral to the stimulated foot [21]. Indeed, such phenomena  
265 have been demonstrated during mechanical stimulation of the plantar surface of the foot during standing  
266 [21]. Whether the consequences of this postural adjustment during standing can be translated into  
267 functional movement pattern and provide a rational explanation for the aforementioned finding remains to  
268 be determined. However, plantar pressure analysis (unpublished data) shows increased post-stimulation  
269 contact area in the experimental foot indicative of postural adjustments due to the electrical stimulation of  
270 *m.AH*.

271

272 Vector coding of kinematic waveforms has received little attention in the literature. Its intricate nature may  
273 discourage some researchers from adopting this approach above traditionally-favoured time-domain  
274 methods. However, this method is well-suited for investigating inter-segmental foot coordinative patterns  
275 since its accuracy in identifying specific phase relationships (anti-/in-phase) or segmental dominated  
276 motion is able to provide a more in-depth understanding of intrinsic foot biomechanics [3]. The present FF-  
277 RF data is in accordance with data previously reported [3]. Specifically, these authors showed no particular  
278 dominant FF-RF frontal plane motion during the mid-stance period of the gait cycle but forefoot motion

279 was found to be greatest. The frequency of observations for all frontal plane FF-RF coordinative motions  
280 during mid-stance reported in the present study are in good agreement with this.. Furthermore, our  
281 transverse plane data concurs with a trend to overall FF-RF coordination during mid-stance albeit less in-  
282 phase motion in favour of increased distal phase motion.

283

284 Further evidence in support of our findings may be gleaned from Gaillet et al. [8]. In this study the authors  
285 found that a 20 minute session consisting of four seconds of electrical stimulation, with 400 $\mu$ s pulses at  
286 80Hz applied to *m.AH* during standing and interspersed with 6 s rest induced specific changes in  
287 baropodogram indices with immediate learning effects, some of which persisted following a two-month  
288 retention test [8]. The reported effects were of similar size to those found in the present study. PTP was  
289 proposed as a neural mechanism responsible for the retained postural effects. In the present study longer  
290 pulse duration (1 ms) was adopted since sensory axons are more effectively depolarised by wider pulse-  
291 widths [4]. In studies from this research group, post-stimulation plateau potential phenomena as a result of  
292 PICs activation have consistently been reported in recumbent subjects. However, in the present study only  
293 two subjects demonstrated measureable post-stimulation enhanced muscle activity during relaxed standing.  
294 Variability of PICs between subjects is well-documented and highly dependent on monoamine drive [4].  
295 This descending drive to the spinal cord is diffuse and simultaneously innervates many other motor pools  
296 [14]. PICs are therefore highly sensitive to reciprocal inhibition of Ia afferents from length changes of  
297 antagonist muscles [14]. Thus, in the present study PICs attenuation may have occurred in the subjects who  
298 failed to demonstrate enhanced post-stimulation *m.AH* activation due to the postural demand required of  
299 the experimental design, without impact on PTP [5]. Therefore, five of the seven subjects who  
300 demonstrated a kinematic adaptation might well have retained the acute effects of WPS without  
301 demonstrating PICs activation. Further electrophysiological evidence is required to support this hypothesis.  
302 Whilst no significant difference was found in the EMG data, it is noteworthy that the amplitude change in  
303 *m.AH* activation immediately following WPS was 46% greater in the experimental than in the control foot  
304 of tested subjects. In comparison, only an 11% *m.AH* EMG difference between feet was seen prior to WPS.  
305 This increase can be accounted for by a more than two-fold increase in *m.AH* activation observed in the  
306 two aforementioned subjects and this particular subject-specific response should not be overlooked. Taken

307 together with the kinematic results, this finding suggests the potential of WPS as a modality for the  
308 prevention and treatment of common overuse foot injuries.

309

310 The present study suggests that future research with WPS in symptomatic populations is warranted. The  
311 results provided satisfactory effect sizes in the kinematic measures; furthermore they were observed at a  
312 time consistent with *m.AH* activation. The dilemma in investigating *m.AH* function under controlled  
313 conditions is the difficulty in isolating this muscle's activity. A common method for the identification of  
314 muscle-specific strength-related indices is an isometric maximal voluntary contraction (MVC). However,  
315 owing to the complexity of excluding the contribution of extrinsic and other intrinsic foot muscles to the  
316 performance measure outcomes derived from an MVC, we instead adopted a more functionally relevant  
317 approach. Therefore, whilst it would be attractive to infer that the reported kinematic changes are a direct  
318 consequence of neural plasticity, we recognise that the experimental design of the current study was not  
319 set-up sufficiently to answer this question. Finally, the present study was not designed to compare WPS  
320 with conventional electrical stimulation paradigms [9]. Indeed, the use of narrower-width pulses (400 $\mu$ s)  
321 has been shown equally as efficacious in augmenting acute and chronic postural responses [8]. The  
322 similarity between the aforementioned study and the present investigation however, is in the use of a high-  
323 frequency, low-intensity stimulus combined with a prolonged train to facilitate a tetanic contraction of  
324 *m.AH*. Thus, the present results, combined with literature data on the use of prolonged high-frequency  
325 electrical stimulation and its relationship with the processes that facilitate PTP [5, 12] provide clinicians  
326 with an evidence base to pursue an interventional approach in the rehabilitation of (a)symptomatic foot-  
327 related complaints.

328

329 In summary, our findings suggest that an acute session of WPS to an intrinsic foot muscle can lead to  
330 immediate adaptation in forefoot-rearfoot coupling behaviour during walking . We propose that future  
331 research with a pathological population is warranted to investigate amenability of adaptation. Common  
332 over-use foot complaints such as plantar fasciitis are symptomatic of an inhibition of over-loaded intrinsic  
333 foot muscles; therefore, WPS to *m.AH* may be of benefit as a modality to promote muscular control during  
334 walking for loading and propulsion. These findings should be of interest to clinicians who currently adopt

335 electrical stimulation therapy or those who are in search of alternative approaches to compliment  
336 conventional methods in the rehabilitation of over-use foot injuries.

337

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396 Figure 1. Illustration of the experimental procedures.

397

398 Figure 2. Subjects received 10 x 15-s of 2-s alternating WPS (20Hz-100Hz-20Hz) with the final 20Hz  
399 stimulus in each session being 3-s in duration. EMG was analysed 2-s prior to and immediately following  
400 stimulation. In this example the subject demonstrates post-stimulation enhanced muscle activity.

401

402 Figure 3. (From Chang et al. [3]. Reprinted with permission). RF motion is plotted relative to FF for each  
403 percentile of stance. Coordination is classified as anti-phase ( $112.5 \leq \gamma \leq 157.5$ ;  $292.5 \leq \gamma \leq 337.5^\circ$ ), in-phase

404 ( $22.5 \leq \gamma \leq 67.5$ ;  $202.5 \leq \gamma \leq 247.5^\circ$ ), proximal dominance ( $0 \leq \gamma \leq 22.5$ ;  $157.5 \leq \gamma \leq 202.5$ ;  $337.5 \leq \gamma \leq 360$ ) and distal  
405 dominance ( $67.5 \leq \gamma \leq 112.5$ ;  $247.5 \leq \gamma \leq 292.5^\circ$ ).

406

407 Figure 4. Frequency of observation (mean  $\pm$  SEM) of FF-RF frontal plane (left) and transverse plane  
408 (right) coupling during mid-stance of the gait cycle. \* denotes a significant interaction effect (foot versus  
409 time [PRE versus POST]).

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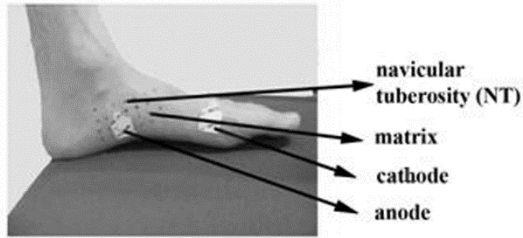
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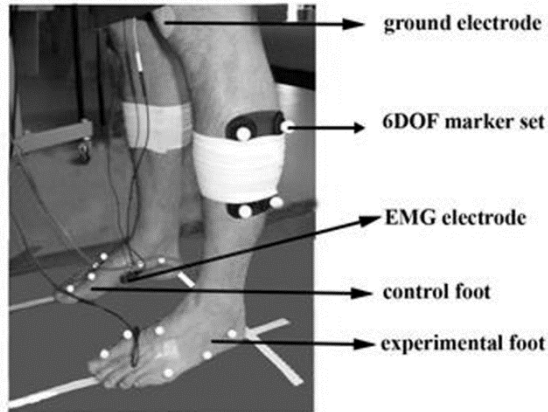
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Accepted

**A. Motor point determination  
for m. abductor hallucis**



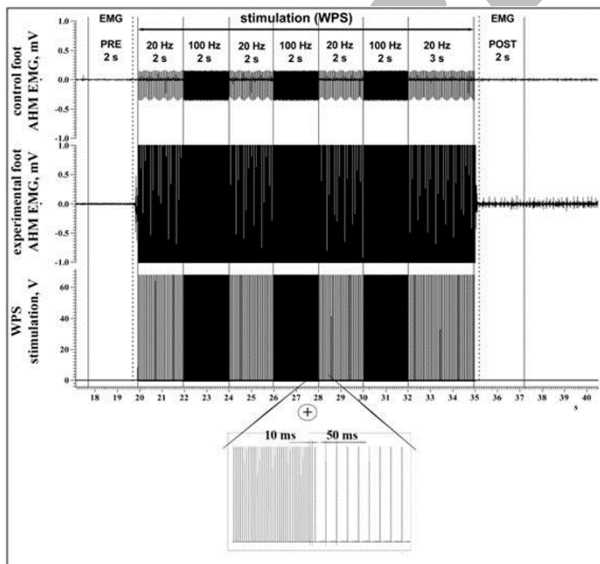
**B. Foot stimulation**



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422 Figure 1. Illustration of the experimental procedures.  
423 80x113mm (300 x 300 DPI)

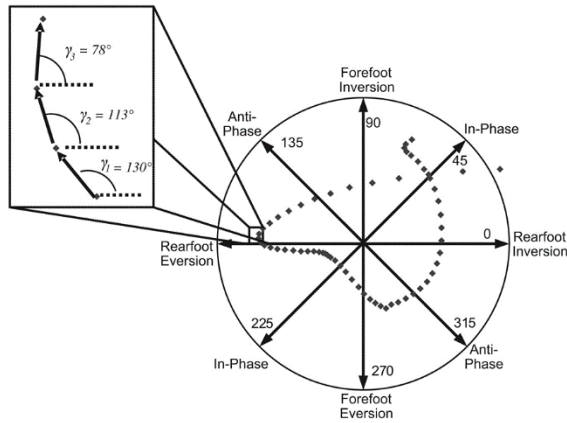
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426 Figure 2. Subjects received 10 x 15-s of 2-s alternating WPS (20Hz-100Hz-20Hz) with the final 20Hz  
427 stimulus in each session being 3-s in duration. EMG was analysed 2-s prior to and immediately following  
428 stimulation. In this example the subject demonstrates post-stimulation enhanced muscle activity.  
429 80x74mm (300 x 300 DPI)

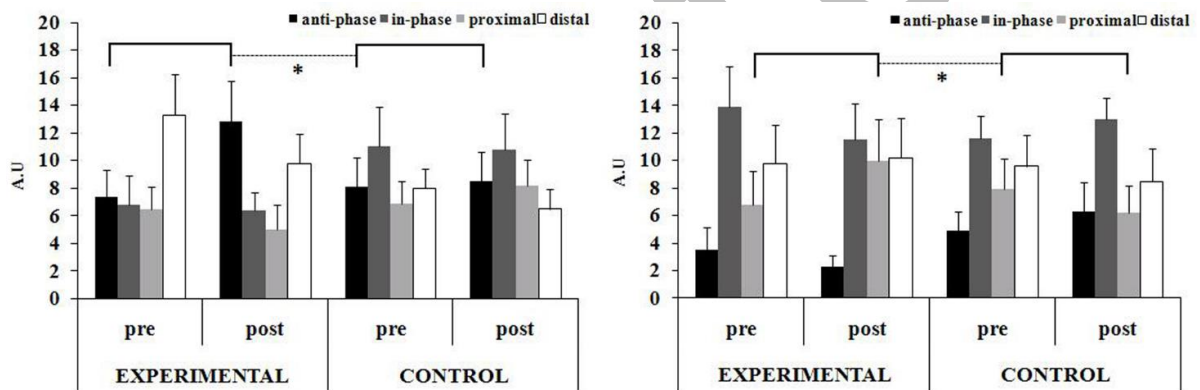




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431 Figure 3. (From Chang et al. [3]. Reprinted with permission). RF motion is plotted relative to FF for each  
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 433 phase  
 434 ( $22.5 \leq \gamma \leq 67.5$ ;  $202.5 \leq \gamma \leq 247.5^\circ$ ), proximal dominance ( $0 \leq \gamma \leq 22.5$ ;  $157.5 \leq \gamma \leq 202.5$ ;  $337.5 \leq \gamma \leq 360$ )  
 435 and  
 436 distal dominance ( $67.5 \leq \gamma \leq 112.5$ ;  $247.5 \leq \gamma \leq 292.5^\circ$ ).  
 437 80x57mm (300 x 300 DPI)

438



439

440 Figure 4. Frequency of observation (mean  $\pm$  SEM) of FF-RF frontal plane (left) and transverse plane  
 441 (right)  
 442 coupling during mid-stance of the gait cycle. \* denotes a significant interaction effect (foot versus time  
 443 [PRE  
 444 versus POST]).  
 445 170x57mm (300 x 300 DPI)