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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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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 μ 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 (γ) 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° diagonals, horizontal and vertical axes of the angle-angle plots respectively [3] (Figure 3). The
160 summation of the frequency of observations of γ 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 (η^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 ± 6.7 a.u;

192 95% CI: 1.0 ± 4.2 a.u) with respect to pre-WPS but remained unchanged in the control foot (0.4 ± 5.8 a.u;
193 95% CI: -1.8 ± 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 ± 5.9 a.u (95% CI: -2.0 ± 6.6 a.u) in contrast to an overall decrease of
196 this motion in the control foot (-1.7 ± 7.9 a.u; 95% CI: -3.0 ± 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 ± 127.3 %) was
205 not significantly different compared to the control foot (8.1 ± 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 μ 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 μ 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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395

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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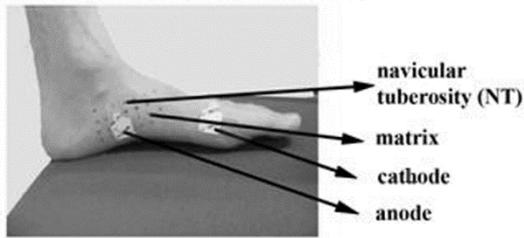
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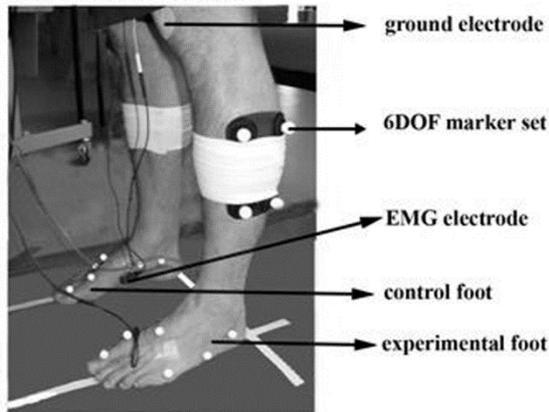
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Accepted

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



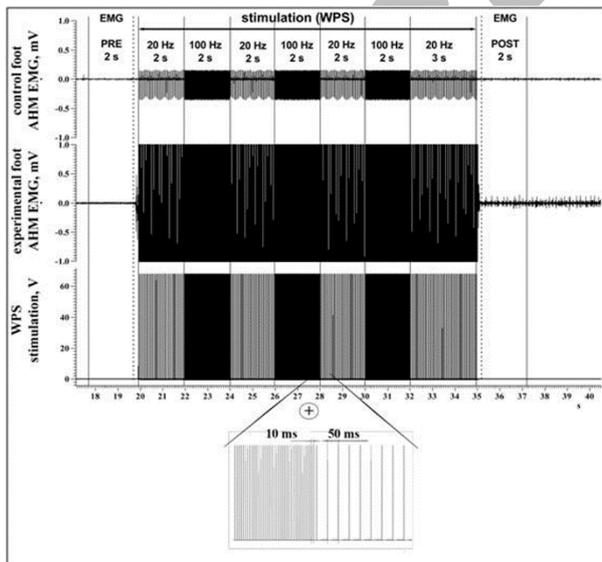
B. Foot stimulation



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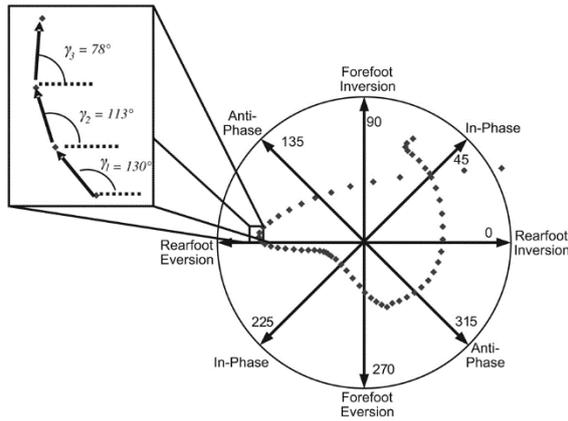
422 Figure 1. Illustration of the experimental procedures.
423 80x113mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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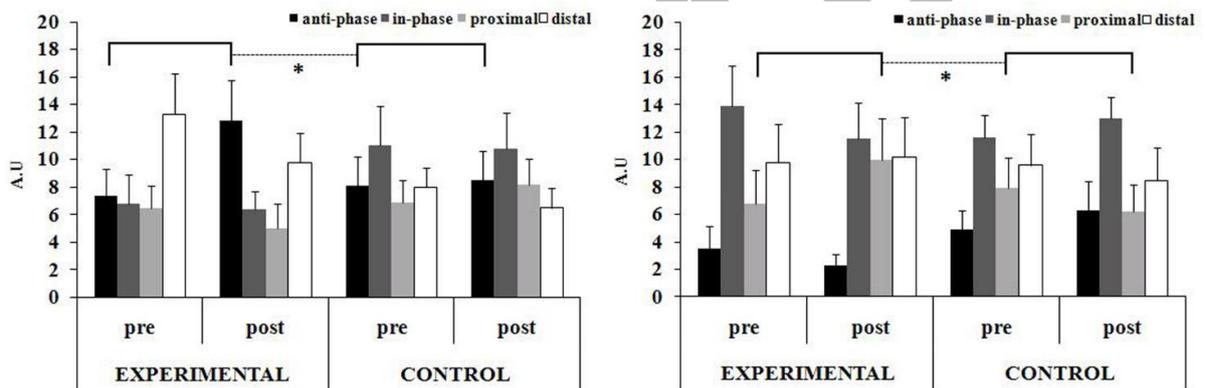
426 Figure 2. Subjects received 10 x 15-s of 2-s alternating WPS (20Hz-100Hz-20Hz) with the final 20Hz
427 stimulus in each session being 3-s in duration. EMG was analysed 2-s prior to and immediately following
428 stimulation. In this example the subject demonstrates post-stimulation enhanced muscle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



430

431 Figure 3. (From Chang et al. [3]. Reprinted with permission). RF motion is plotted relative to FF for each
 432 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-
 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)