



UWS Academic Portal

Foot motion character during forward and backward walking with shoes and barefoot

Sun, Dong; Fekete, Gusztáv; Baker, Julien S.; Gu, Yaodong

Published in:
Journal of Motor Behavior

DOI:
[10.1080/00222895.2019.1605972](https://doi.org/10.1080/00222895.2019.1605972)

E-pub ahead of print: 25/04/2019

Document Version
Peer reviewed version

[Link to publication on the UWS Academic Portal](#)

Citation for published version (APA):
Sun, D., Fekete, G., Baker, J. S., & Gu, Y. (2019). Foot motion character during forward and backward walking with shoes and barefoot. *Journal of Motor Behavior*, 52(2), 214-225.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00222895.2019.1605972>

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the UWS Academic Portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact pure@uws.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

“This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis Group in Journal of Motor Behavior on 25/04/2019, available online: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00222895.2019.1605972>.”

1 **Title:** Foot motion character during forward and backward walking with shoes and barefoot

2

3 Dong Sun^{1, 2, 3}, Gusztáv Fekete^{1, 2}, Julien S.Baker⁴, Yaodong Gu^{1*}

4 ¹ Faculty of Sports Science, Ningbo University, Ningbo, China.

5 ² Savaria Institute of Technology, Eötvös Loránd University, Szombathely, Hungary.

6 ³ Faculty of Engineering, University of Pannonia, Veszprem, Hungary.

7 ⁴ Institute for Clinical Exercise and Health Science, University of the West of Scotland,
8 Lanarkshire, United Kingdom.

9

10 **Corresponding author**

11 Prof. Yaodong Gu, PhD

12 Address: Faculty of Sports Science, Ningbo University. No. 818, Fenghua Road, Jiangbei
13 District, Ningbo, Zhejiang. China. 315211

14 Email: guyaodong@hotmail.com

15

16 **Funding details**

17 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant
18 (81772423), the Hungary-China Doctoral Research Scholarship under Grant (201700500099)
19 K. C. Wong Magna Fund in Ningbo University, and National Social Science Foundation of
20 China (16BTY085).

21

22 **Disclosure statement**

23 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

24

25

26

27

28 **Foot motion character during forward and backward walking with shoes and barefoot**

29

30 **Abstract**

31 Backward walking (BW) has been extensively used in athletic training and orthopedic
32 rehabilitation as it may be valuable for enhancing balance. The present study identified the
33 differences in foot inter-segment kinematics (forward walking (FW) vs. time-reversed BW)
34 and plantar pressure parameters of sixteen healthy habitually shod individuals walking FW and
35 BW with flexible shoes (SH) and barefoot (BF). BW was found to have shorter stride length
36 (SL) and higher stride frequency (SF) under BF conditions compared with SH, which indicates
37 a better BW gait stability under BF conditions. Decreased HX/FF dorsiflexion at HO in BW
38 walking induced less plantar aponeurosis tension which may inhibit the windlass mechanism
39 compared to FW walking. Increased forefoot relative to hindfoot (FF/HF) pronation and
40 sequentially hindfoot relative to tibia (HF/TB) eversion combined with medially distributed
41 plantar pressure and higher plantar contact area in the medial side in BW-BF maybe beneficial
42 to maintain balance. These results indicate that BW training may be more reliable under BF
43 conditions compared to SH conditions based on more sensory information feedback from the
44 plantar area and better biomechanical behavior.

45 **Keywords:** Foot kinematics, Backward walking, Shoes, Barefoot

46

47

48

49

50 **Introduction**

51 Forward walking (FW) and backward walking (BW) have been researched **extensively** in
52 the past twenty years, distinct advantages of BW were found over FW for both fitness training
53 and rehabilitation (Grasso, Bianchi, & Lacquaniti, 1998)(Sedhom, 2017). During BW, the
54 absence of visual cues and peripheral visual feedback implies that BW relies more heavily on
55 proprioception than FW. **The variation in visual information, as well as the simple novelty of**
56 **the task may require a remodeling of sensory feedback to maintain dynamic balance.** Therefore,
57 BW has been used as an intervention for enhancing balance to improve mobility function after
58 stroke(D. A. Winter, Pluck, & Yang, 1989)(Tseng, Jeng, & Yuan, 2012). **BW has less**
59 mechanical strain on the knee joint, which has been used in orthopedic rehabilitation and **in**
60 increasing **the** strength and power **of the** quadriceps(Rose, Demark, Fox, Clark, & Wludyka,
61 2018). FW and time-reversed BW showed similar gait patterns and the characteristics of
62 angular displacement in all lower limb joints during the gait cycle. Thus, the similarity led
63 some researchers to **suggest** that the neural control may originate from the same “spinal”
64 automatisms in each walking pattern(Van Deursen, Flynn, McCrory, & Morag, 1998).
65 However, some findings do not **agree with this** suggestion. **Some studies have recorded**
66 differences **in** knee and ankle angular displacement, joint torques and electromyography
67 (EMG) between FW and time-reversed BW patterns(Shu et al., 2016)(Jansen et al., 2012).
68 Reversing walking direction from FW to BW was found in slower walking speeds and shorter
69 stride length among both young and older adults(Fritz et al., 2013). BW was reported more
70 variable compared to FW, more specifically, knee and hip range of motion (ROM) presented
71 to be more variable during BW. BW is suggested to have lower local dynamic stability than

72 FW, which makes BW a more demanding task of motion control(Katsavelis, Mukherjee,
73 Decker, & Stergiou, 2010)(Bollens, Crevecoeur, Detrembleur, Warlop, & Lejeune, 2014).

74 The foot plantar contains 104 cutaneous mechanoreceptors and the receptor is primarily
75 distributed where the foot is in contact with the ground(Kennedy & Inglis, 2002). Backward
76 barefoot walking may provide more tactile feedback from the foot sole which compensates for
77 limited visual input. Footwear was found to hinder the kinesthesia while walking barefoot has
78 demonstrated greater awareness of foot position and movement control compared with wearing
79 athletic footwear(Morio, Lake, Gueguen, Rao, & Baly, 2009). Walking with various types of
80 shoe and barefoot was found to affect the FW pattern and balance control. Flatter foot
81 placement and increased forefoot spreading were reported during barefoot walking(Chard,
82 Greene, Hunt, Vanwanseele, & Smith, 2013). Habitual barefoot walkers exhibit increased knee
83 flexion, reduced peak vertical ground reaction force and peak plantar pressures(D'Août,
84 Pataky, De Clercq, & Aerts, 2009). These studies suggest that footwear may be interfering with
85 the functional ability of the human foot. Winter et al., (D. a. Winter, 1984)demonstrated that
86 similar knee and hip angle patterns but different ankle angle patterns exist between FW and
87 BW. A single foot segment model may disregard the important inter-segmental motion that
88 occurs within the foot, the foot bend and torsion are obscured. Thus, for clinical gait analysis
89 and human movement research, the traditional one segment foot model is beginning to be
90 replaced by various multi-segment foot models (MSFM). The addition of kinematics to the
91 multi-segment model may provide additional insight into the foot and ankle complex
92 functions(Pothrat, Authier, Viehweger, Berton, & Rao, 2015). However, no studies to date have
93 compared the foot inter-segment kinematics of FW and BW with shoes (SH) and barefoot (BF).

94 The purpose of this study was to examine the differences on foot inter-segment kinematics, and
95 plantar pressures of healthy individuals walking forward and backward with shoes or
96 barefooted. We hypothesized that the foot inter-segment motions of hindfoot, forefoot, and
97 hallux will vary significantly between FW and time-reversed BW and substantial asymmetrical
98 differences exist especially in the sagittal and frontal planes, the foot motions under shod
99 conditions will be constrained significantly compared with barefoot conditions. We also
100 hypothesized that the plantar pressure would be redistributed under the foot sole during BW,
101 wearing shoes may significantly decrease plantar pressures during both FW and BW patterns.

102

103 **Methods**

104 **Subjects**

105 Sixteen healthy male subjects (age: 25.75 ± 2.62 years, height: 1.72 ± 0.62 m, weight: 66.78 ± 7.20
106 kg, BMI: 22.57 ± 0.71 kg/m²) volunteered to take part in this study. The inclusion criteria of the
107 subjects were no abnormal findings on a foot X-ray radiograph and no history of fracture or
108 surgery in the lower limbs. All participants were without any musculoskeletal injury or pain
109 during the data collection period. All the subjects were rear-foot strikers and the dominant foot
110 was the right one based on the test of kicking a soccer ball, so all statistics concerning the tests
111 are based on data from the right feet of all subjects(Sun, Mei, Baker, Jia, & Gu, 2017). The
112 subjects wore the same sock and shoe model with flat outsoles and without any cushioning
113 system. The shoes were fitted according to their foot size. The subjects provided written
114 informed consent to participate in this study. Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics
115 committee of Ningbo University (No. ARGH 20171124).

116 **Instrumentation setup**

117 An eight MX-Cameras VICON motion analysis system (Oxford Metrics Ltd., Oxford, UK)
118 were used to capture the foot inter-segment kinematics at a frequency of 200Hz. Calibration of
119 the motion capture system was performed before the gait trials. A 0.6m×0.8m force plate
120 (AMTI, Watertown, USA) was fixed into the middle of the walkway and utilized to obtain the
121 GRF data at a frequency of 1000Hz (Figure 1). The marker trajectories and force plate data
122 were captured synchronously using the VICON Nexus software package (Version 1.8.5,
123 VICON, UK). **Simultaneously, the in-shoe plantar pressure measurement system (Novel**
124 **GmbH, Munich, Germany) was used in this study to measure the plantar pressure and contact**
125 **area exerted on the insole pressure sensors with a frequency of 50 Hz. Each pressure insole is**
126 **approximately 2.6 mm thick and consists of 99 capacitive pressure sensors in the matrix array.**

127

128 *---Insert Figure 1 near here---*

129

130 **Experimental protocols and procedures**

131 This study was conducted at the Sports Biomechanics Laboratory of Ningbo University. All
132 walking trials were performed on a 15m straight walkway. Firstly, subjects were required to
133 walk forward and backward barefoot and with shoes on the 15m walkway for familiarization.
134 Then subjects **completed** a minimum of fifteen self-selected speed forward and backward
135 walking tasks under barefoot and shod conditions, respectively. Ten trials per condition with
136 complete data sets were selected for analysis. A standard reflective marker set was based on
137 the Oxford Foot Model (OFM) and Plug-In-Gait model (PIG) as described by Stebbins et

138 al(Stebbins, Harrington, Thompson, Zavatsky, & Theologis, 2006). A set of 36 markers (9 mm)
139 were placed bilaterally on bony landmarks to model the tibia, hindfoot, forefoot, and
140 hallux(Wang, Thur, Gutierrez-Farewik, Wretenberg, & Broström, 2010). 20mm holes were cut
141 in the shoe upper material to obtain in-shoe foot kinematics, the position of each hole was
142 referenced to the underlying anatomical landmarks based on the OFM(Wolf et al., 2008). Good
143 consistency in kinematic waveform estimation and good intra-rater reliability of the in-shoe
144 multi-segment foot kinematics were approved in previous studies. The OFM used in this study
145 simplified complex anatomical foot structures to three rigid segments (tibia, hindfoot and
146 forefoot) and one vector (hallux). Foot kinematics and plantar pressure data were measured
147 and time synchronized in this study. During plantar pressure measurement, the plantar insoles
148 were secured to the participants' feet with double-sided tape, and a standardized thin cotton
149 sock was worn to incorporate plantar pressure insoles under barefoot condition. When shod
150 walking, the insoles were placed in the shoes. Pressure insoles were placed bilaterally and are
151 designed in different sizes to adjust the foot and shoe size in this test. A pressure pump was
152 used to calibrate all the insoles used in this experiment to minimize the error during
153 measurement. Ten successful trails were selected for further analysis under each condition.

154 **Data analysis**

155 Walking speed was calculated as the anterior-superior displacement of the anterior-superior
156 iliac spine marker (PIG model) divided by the corresponding time. Stride length (SL) was
157 recorded as the anterior-posterior distance between the right heel marker (RHEE) in one gait
158 cycle. Stride frequency (SF) was computed as the inverse of one gait cycle duration(Fu et al.,
159 2016). Stance time (ST) was calculated as the duration from the right foot strike onto the force

160 platform to the right foot move off the platform. The stance phase of FW was defined as the
161 duration from right foot heel-contact (HC) to toe-off (TO). Conversely, the stance phase of BW
162 was defined from toe-contact (TC) to heel-off (HO). FW (HC/TO) and BW (HO/TC) had
163 opposite contact positions (heel/toe) for the same gait events (initial contact/push-off).
164 Therefore, time-reversed foot inter-segment angle curves of BW were used to compare the
165 kinematic pattern of FW to adjust for the purpose of this study. Foot kinematics were time
166 normalized to 0-100% of the stance phase. The right side (dominant) walking pattern during
167 one stance phase was analyzed for all kinematic and kinetic variables. Marker trajectory was
168 captured, tracked and labeled in VICON Nexus and post-processing performed in Visual 3D
169 (C-Motion Inc., USA). The foot kinematics were filtered with a fourth-order zero-phase lag
170 Butterworth filter having a cutoff frequency of 12 Hz. The foot inter-segment angles were
171 calculated according to the method proposed by Grood and Suntay (flexion, adduction, and
172 rotation)(Grood & Suntay, 1983). The following foot inter-segment kinematic variables were
173 selected in this study: hindfoot relative to tibia (HF/TB), forefoot relative to hindfoot (FF/HF)
174 and hallux relative to forefoot (HX/FF, sagittal plane only). For foot kinematic variables, angle
175 values at HC/HO and TO/TC, as well as peak angles and range of motion (ROM) values in the
176 stance phase were derived(Mei, Fernandez, Fu, Feng, & Gu, 2015). The foot was divided into
177 seven anatomical regions: including big toe (BT), other toes (OT), medial forefoot (MFF),
178 central forefoot (CFF), lateral forefoot (LFF), midfoot (MF) and heel (H). Variables include
179 peak pressure (peak pressure distributed to each region measures from pressure insole) and
180 contact area (the number of the pressure insole sensors activated).

181 **Statistical analysis**

182 Statistical analysis was conducted using a commercial statistical package (SPSS 22.0, SPSS
183 Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Shapiro-Wilks test was used to check the normality of each variable
184 and that each one was normally distributed. A two-way ANOVA (forward/backward walking
185 × barefoot/shod condition) with post-hoc Bonferroni pair-wise comparisons to examine
186 spatiotemporal parameters including walking speed, SL, SF and ST; foot inter-segment
187 kinematics including initial contact angles, peak angles, push-off angles and ROM; foot sub-
188 region peak plantar pressures and contact area. Bonferroni post-hoc pair-wise comparisons
189 were carried out to provide details of significant differences. Data are presented as Mean ±
190 Standard Deviation (SD). All significance levels were set at p=0.05.

191

192 **Results**

193 **Spatial-temporal parameters**

194 Main effects of FW/BW walking patterns

195 There was a significant decrease in walking speed (BF: p=0.026; SH: p=0.013, post-hoc test)
196 and stride frequency (SF) (BF: p=0.007; SH=0.016) during BW, relative to FW. On the
197 contrary, a significant increase in stride length (SL) (BF: p=0.002; SH: p=0.005) and stance
198 time (ST) (BF: p=0.013; SH: p=0.004) were found in BW compared with FW (Table 1).

199 Main effects of BF/SH conditions

200 Significantly higher SL was found under shod condition during both FW and BW (FW:
201 p=0.021; BW: p=0.009). However, there was a significantly decreased SF under shod condition
202 during FW and BW (FW: p=0.023; BW: p=0.018), relative to BF condition.

203 Interactions

204 There were no statistically significant interactions ($p=0.088-0.909$) between FW/BW patterns
205 and BF/SH conditions for the spatiotemporal parameters.

206

207 ---Insert Table 1 near here---

208

209 **Foot inter-segment kinematics**

210 Foot inter-segment kinematic patterns of the hindfoot relative to tibia (HF/TB), forefoot
211 relative to hindfoot (FF/HF), and hallux relative to forefoot (HX/FF) are plotted against percent
212 of stance for the FW and time-reversed BW patterns under BF/SH conditions (Figure 2). The
213 selected crucial points of foot angle characteristics of HF/TB, FF/HF and HX/FF are presented
214 in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4, respectively.

215 Main effects of FW/BW walking patterns

216 For the HF/TB angles, in the sagittal plane, HC/HO angles were significantly decreased (BF:
217 $p<0.001$; SH: $p=0.002$) in BW compared with FW. Significant increase of maximum HF/TB
218 dorsiflexion angle (BF: $p<0.001$; SH: $p<0.001$) and DF/PF ROM (BF: $p=0.003$; SH: $p=0.001$)
219 in this plane existed in BW, relative to FW. In the frontal plane of HF/TB, the HC angles in
220 FW under BF and SH conditions were $-1.8\pm 4.3^\circ$ and $-3.0\pm 5.1^\circ$. Note that a negative angle value
221 is defined as eversion, therefore an eversion tendency of HF/TB motion was found in the HC
222 during FW compared to BW in the HO. Significantly greater maximum HF/TB inversion (BF:
223 $p=0.005$; SH: $p=0.002$) was found in BW compared with FW. In the transverse plane of HF/TB,
224 external rotation in HO was also found in BW in comparison with FW in HC under both
225 conditions. Significant decrease of peak internal rotation (BF: $p=0.013$; SH: $p=0.018$), peak

226 external rotation (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p = 0.004$) and IR/ER ROM (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$) in
227 this plane existed in BW compared FW. For the FF/HF angles, in the sagittal plane, the
228 plantarflexion/dorsiflexion was significantly different at TO/TC. Pairwise comparisons
229 revealed the forefoot dorsiflexion with respect to hindfoot in BW significantly greater than FW
230 at TO/TC (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$). In the frontal plane of FF/HF, significantly greater peak
231 pronation (BF: $p = 0.021$; SH: $p = 0.033$) was shown in BW compared with FW. The TO/TC
232 pronation angles in BW showed significantly more pronated (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$)
233 comparison with FW. In the transverse plane of FF/HF, BW was at a more abducted position
234 in HO. A significant decrease of FF/HF peak ADD (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$) and ROM
235 (ABD/ADD) (BF: $p = 0.015$; SH: $p = 0.027$) at TO/TC was found in comparison with between
236 BW and FW. For the HX/FF angles, only sagittal plane included for analysis. A significant
237 decrease of dorsiflexion angle (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$) at HC/HO was found in BW at both
238 conditions. The maximum dorsiflexion angle in FW was found significantly greater (BF:
239 $p < 0.001$) compared to BW only under BF condition. The peak plantarflexion angle (BF:
240 $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$) in BW were found significantly higher than FW. However, DF/PF
241 ROM of HX/FF showed significantly lower in BW under BF condition (BF: $p < 0.001$).

242 Main effects of BF/SH conditions

243 For the HF/TB angles, in the sagittal plane, SH walking showed a greater peak DF angle (FW:
244 $p = 0.012$; BW: $p = 0.008$) compared with BF walking. While SH walking showed significantly
245 smaller peak PF angle (FW: $p = 0.021$; BW: $p = 0.016$) compared with BF walking in both
246 walking patterns. In the frontal plane of HF/TB, at HC/HO, SH walking was less dorsiflexed
247 (FW: $p = 0.022$) in FW and more plantar-flexed (BW: $p = 0.017$) in BW compared with BF

248 walking. For the FF/HF angles, in the sagittal plane, the TO/TC angles were found more
249 dorsiflexed (FW: $p < 0.001$; BW: $p = 0.011$) in SH walking compared to BF walking. In the
250 frontal plane of FF/HF, peak pronation angles of SH walking were significantly greater (FW:
251 $p = 0.023$; BW: $p = 0.031$) than BF walking. In the transverse plane of FF/HF angles, the HC/HO
252 angles were presented more abducted (FW: $p = 0.007$; BW: $p < 0.001$) in SH compared to BF
253 walking. Significantly decreased peak adduction angles (FW: $p = 0.005$; BW: $p = 0.009$) of SH
254 walking existed compared to BF walking at both walking patterns. For the HX/FF sagittal plane
255 angles, a significantly smaller dorsiflexion angles (FW: $p = 0.022$; BW: $p = 0.012$) at HC/HO
256 were shown in SH condition compared to BF condition. Post-hoc analysis indicated less
257 dorsiflexion (FW: $p < 0.001$) in SH condition during FW pattern. The HX/FF ROM was also
258 significantly smaller (FW: $p < 0.001$) in SH condition compared with BF condition only during
259 FW walking pattern.

260 Interactions

261 For the HF/TB angles, There was a Pattern \times Condition interaction ($F = 7.593$, $p = 0.022$) existed
262 in the HC/HO angle in the frontal plane of HF/TB. For the FF/HF angles, Pattern \times Condition
263 interactions were only found in the transverse plane. There was a Pattern \times Condition
264 interaction ($F = 28.261$, $p < 0.001$) for the ADD/ABD ROM. For the HX/FF sagittal plane angles,
265 there was a Pattern \times Condition interaction ($F = 24.643$, $p < 0.001$) for the DF/PF ROM.

266

267 ---Insert Figure 2 near here---

268

269 ---Insert Table 2 near here---

270

271 ---Insert Table 3 near here---

272

273 ---Insert Table 4 near here---

274

275 **Plantar pressures**

276 Peak pressure and contact area were collected in this study to evaluate foot loading
277 characteristics of FW/BW patterns under BF/SH conditions. The comparison of peak pressure
278 and contact area in the plantar sub-sections is shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6, respectively.

279 Main effects of FW/BW walking patterns

280 The peak pressure of BW was significantly higher in the big toe (BT) (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH:
281 $p < 0.001$) and medial forefoot (MFF) (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$) compared to FW.
282 Conversely, peak pressure in other toes (OT) (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$), midfoot (MF) (BF:
283 $p = 0.012$; SH: $p = 0.007$) and heel (H) (BF: $p = 0.023$; SH: $p < 0.001$) were significantly smaller in
284 BW compared with FW. Significantly greater contact area were found in BT (BF: $p < 0.001$;
285 SH: $p = 0.006$), MFF (BF: $p = 0.031$; SH: $p < 0.001$) and MF (BF: $p = 0.018$; SH: $p = 0.003$) in BW
286 compared to FW. While greater contact area were found in OT (BF: $p = 0.011$; SH: $p = 0.004$),
287 lateral forefoot (LFF) (BF: $p < 0.001$; SH: $p < 0.001$) in FW compared to BW.

288 Main effects of BF/SH conditions

289 The peak pressure of SH condition was significantly decreased in central forefoot (CFF) (FW:
290 $p < 0.001$; BW: $p < 0.001$), lateral forefoot (LFF) (FW: $p < 0.001$; BW: $p = 0.004$) and H (FW:
291 $p = 0.021$; BW: $p < 0.001$) compared with BF condition. The contact area of the SH condition

292 was found significantly increased in OT (FW: $p < 0.001$; BW: $p = 0.007$). While the SH condition
293 showed reduced contact area in MF (FW: $p < 0.001$; BW: $p < 0.001$) and H (FW: $p = 0.014$; BW:
294 $p = 0.008$) compared with BF condition.

295 Interactions

296 Significant statistical interaction was only found in the peak pressure of the heel region, which
297 showed a Pattern \times Condition interaction ($F = 24.654$, $p < 0.001$) for this parameter.

298

299 ---Insert Figure 3 near here---

300

301 ---Insert Figure 4 near here---

302

303 Discussion

304 The purpose of this study was to analyze differences of FW and BW walking patterns under
305 BF and SH conditions via comparing of biomechanical parameters. Previous studies have
306 evaluated lower limb kinematics and kinetics of FW and time-reversed BW. This is the first
307 study using a clinical multi-segment foot model to compare foot inter-segment kinematics of
308 FW and time-reversed BW while walking with and without shoes.

309 In BW, since the absence of peripheral visual feedback and visual flow, the walking speed
310 generally decreased compared to FW. Therefore, the spatiotemporal parameters showed a
311 significant decrease during BW except for stride length, which was consistent with previous
312 studies(Choi & Bastian, 2007). Walking speed showed no significant difference between BF
313 and SH conditions during both FW and BW walking. A reduction in gait speed was found when

314 barefoot participants walking with their own habitual shoes in a previous study(Lythgo,
315 Wilson, & Galea, 2009). While a standardized flexible shoe was employed in this study, the
316 familiarity of the shoes may potentially have a significant influence on gait biomechanics such
317 as walking speed. Significantly lower stride length and higher stride frequency can be found
318 under BF condition compared to SH condition in BW walking. Lower stride length and higher
319 stride frequency could be reflected as a more stable BW walking strategy in maintaining
320 balance(Elboim-Gabyzon & Rotchild, 2017). The underlying mechanism of better walking
321 stability and performance during BW-BF walking could be explained by the extra signal input
322 from the foot sole tactile system. Hallemans et al.,(Hallemans, Ortibus, Meire, & Aerts, 2010)
323 also reported a shorter stride length and less trunk flexion gait pattern in subjects with visual
324 impairment or blindfolded subjects with normal vision. The reduced visual input is suggested
325 in a more cautious walking strategy with the foot contact the ground for haptic exploration.
326 BW-BF walking may receive more information from the available sensory system which
327 compensates for the decline in input from the visual system. The increased stride frequency
328 and decreased stride length in BW-BF compared with BW-SH walking may also demonstrate
329 an additional strategy for receiving more information from the foot sole with higher frequency
330 to feeling the ground.

331 In general, the foot motions (HF/TB, FF/HF and HX/FF) observed in FW-BF and FW-SH
332 walking was consistent with previous studies(Damavandi, Dixon, & Pearsall, 2010)(Nicholson
333 et al., 2018). In this study, the characteristics of HF/TB, FF/HF and HX/FF angular
334 displacement patterns were also found similar in FW and time-reversed BW walking patterns
335 under SH and BF conditions. While the selected crucial points of foot inter-segment angles

336 during the stance phase were significantly different between FW and time-reversed BW. For
337 the HF/TB angles, only BF/SH conditions effects were observed in the HF/TB maximum
338 plantarflexion angle. Which indicates a flatter foot placement at initial contact under BF
339 condition compared to SH(Lohman, Balan Sackiriyas, & Swen, 2011). Footwear has been
340 shown to hinder the kinesthesia while barefoot locomotion **observed** a greater awareness of
341 foot position. Maximum HF/TB and FF/HF dorsiflexion angles were found significantly
342 increased in BW compared to FW. Lee et al.,(Lee, Kim, Son, & Kim, 2013) also reported an
343 increased peak ankle dorsiflexion angle in time-reversed BW ($17.9^{\circ}\pm 2.0$) compared with FW
344 ($14.8^{\circ}\pm 2.3$). For a normal barefoot walking gait, the calcaneus inverted about 2° in an inverted
345 position when the heel struck (HS) the ground, which showed slightly lateral of center(Hunt,
346 M. Smith, Torode, & Keenan, 2001). While at heel off (HO) in BW, the HF/TB were more
347 everted. For the frontal plane of FF/HF angles, BW was also found more pronated at toe contact
348 (TC) and higher maximum pronation angles under both BF and SH conditions. An everted foot
349 position was demonstrated from the HF/TB and FF/HF frontal plane angle patterns during BW
350 walking. During BW, the participants' anticipation of an increased challenge to medial-lateral
351 balance and lack of visual information may have manifested. Initial corrective backward
352 walking FF/HF pronated toe contact posture and HF/TB everted heel off posture indicate a
353 more cautious stepping pattern compared to FW(Powell, Long, Milner, & Zhang, 2011). This
354 inference has been verified with larger foot contact area in the medial side in BW. These
355 differences in the FF/HF frontal plane angles correspond to conformational changes inside the
356 foot to permit the maximum forefoot plantar surface contact with the ground during BW.
357 Restriction in the transverse plane ROM of the HF/TB and FF/HF due to reduced foot

358 flexibility, which may compensate for medial-lateral body balance and comfortable locomotion
359 in BW. The junction of the hallux/forefoot (HX/FF) is also a major component of the multi-
360 segment foot model, which showed the kinematics of the first metatarsophalangeal (MTP)
361 joint. The sagittal plane HX/FF angles differed for FW and BW at HC/HO correspond to the
362 toe clear need for FW walking. Toe clearance was regarded as a subtle but effective behavior
363 adaption to support foot clearance during FW walking(Mills, Barrett, & Morrison, 2008).
364 Different muscle activation patterns between FW and BW may be the intrinsic factor inducing
365 different foot motion patterns. Decreased HX/FF dorsiflexion angle was observed under SH
366 conditions. The windlass mechanism of the foot is dependent on dorsiflexion of the MTP joint
367 at initial contact to increase plantar aponeurosis tension and in turn inverts the hindfoot. Wolf
368 et al.,(Wolf et al., 2008) **observed** significantly reduced medial longitudinal arch length in shod
369 walking compared to barefoot walking, which **suggested that** the shoes inhibit the windlass
370 mechanism. While this study failed to find any difference in foot torsion ROM between BF/SH
371 conditions. Morio et al.,(Morio et al., 2009) suggested that more flexible shoes do not change
372 foot motion as much as conventional shoes. In summary, by using the Oxford multi-segment
373 foot model, small yet consistent variations in foot inter-segment angle patterns were
374 distinguishable between FW and BW walking patterns under BF and SH conditions. Main
375 changes in the HF/TB and FF/HF patterns were observed most conspicuous in the frontal and
376 transverse planes, respectively. Increased pronation of FF/HF and eversion of HF/TB
377 sequentially during BW walking ensure sufficient plantar/outsole to ground contact area to
378 maintain balance without disturbing the upper body movements. Restriction in HX/FF
379 dorsiflexion at HO in BW walking induce less plantar aponeurosis tension, which implies

380 inhibition of the windlass mechanism in BW walking. The foot torsion was not disturbed under
381 shod conditions in this current study. Therefore, more flexible shoes or barefooted should be
382 recommended for BW locomotion in general.

383 The plantar pressure distribution has been previously utilized to analyze foot function. In
384 this study, an obvious FF/HF pronation in the first half stance and HF/TB eversion in the late
385 stance was observed when walking backward resulting in pronated foot placement. Therefore,
386 this increase in pronation when walking backward could be explained by increased contact area
387 in the big toe (BT) and medial forefoot (MFF) while decreased contact area in the lateral
388 forefoot (LFF) and midfoot (MF). The increased surface area of the foot at contact in BW
389 reducing the risk of a slip. Walking barefoot displaying higher plantar pressure in the central
390 forefoot (CFF), and lateral forefoot (LFF) and H regions in both FW and BW walking. Peak
391 plantar pressure in habitually barefoot subjects was observed to be lower in the heel and
392 metatarsal regions compared to shod walking. An increased peak plantar pressure were
393 observed when walking barefoot compared with shoes under the metatarsal heads and
394 calcaneus for habitually shod walkers(Zhang, Paquette, & Zhang, 2013). This suggested that
395 an acute transfer to barefoot walking for habitually shod walkers would correspond to increased
396 plantar pressures in some plantar sub-regions especially in the forefoot and heel regions in both
397 FW and BW walking.

398 Several limitations concerning this study should not be ignored. Firstly, all subjects were
399 males, which was originally for the purpose of alleviating gender-related locomotion functional
400 differences. Secondly, foot inter-segment kinetics were not included in this study, as the OFM
401 foot model is a kinematic only model. Thirdly, electromyography (EMG) of the lower

402 extremity muscles **were** not included in this study for BW walking analysis. Future studies
403 **should** focus on foot inter-segment kinetics and EMG during BW walking with shoes and
404 barefoot. The longitudinal training effect from backward and barefoot walking **need to be**
405 considered.

406

407 **Conclusion**

408 In conclusion, the present study shows differences in spatiotemporal parameters, foot inter-
409 segment kinematics, plantar sub-sections peak pressures and contact areas between FW and
410 BW under BF and SH conditions. The increased stride frequency and decreased stride length
411 may be a strategy for BW-BF walking receiving more information from the plantar sensory
412 system which compensates for the decline in visual cue input. The foot inter-segment motion
413 analysis of BW has rarely been studied previously. **In the current study, increased pronation of**
414 **FF/HF in loading response and eversion of HF/TB sequentially in BW-BF walking combined**
415 **with medially distributed plantar pressure ensure sufficient contact area between plantar and**
416 **ground to maintain balance.** Decreased HX/FF dorsiflexion at HO in BW **induces** less plantar
417 aponeurosis tension which may inhibit the windlass mechanism compared to FW walking.
418 **Based on the findings of this study,** BW rehabilitation or training under the barefoot condition
419 is highly recommended for better proprioception with the ground.

420

421 **References**

422 Bollens, B., Crevecoeur, F., Detrembleur, C., Warlop, T., & Lejeune, T. M. (2014).

423 Variability of human gait: Effect of backward walking and dual-tasking on the presence

424 of long-range autocorrelations. *Annals of Biomedical Engineering*, 42(4), 742–750.
425 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10439-013-0961-9>

426 Chard, A., Greene, A., Hunt, A., Vanwanseele, B., & Smith, R. (2013). Effect of thong style
427 flip-flops on children’s barefoot walking and jogging kinematics. *Journal of Foot and*
428 *Ankle Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1757-1146-6-8>

429 Choi, J. T., & Bastian, A. J. (2007). Adaptation reveals independent control networks for
430 human walking. *Nature Neuroscience*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nn1930>

431 D’Août, K., Pataky, T. C., De Clercq, D., & Aerts, P. (2009). The effects of habitual footwear
432 use: Foot shape and function in native barefoot walkers. *Footwear Science*.
433 <https://doi.org/10.1080/19424280903386411>

434 Damavandi, M., Dixon, P. C., & Pearsall, D. J. (2010). Kinematic adaptations of the hindfoot,
435 forefoot, and hallux during cross-slope walking. *Gait and Posture*.
436 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2010.07.004>

437 Elboim-Gabyzon, M., & Rotchild, S. (2017). Spatial and temporal gait characteristics of
438 elderly individuals during backward and forward walking with shoes and barefoot. *Gait*
439 *and Posture*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2016.12.007>

440 Fritz, N. E., Worstell, A. M., Kloos, A. D., Siles, A. B., White, S. E., & Kegelmeyer, D. A.
441 (2013). Backward walking measures are sensitive to age-related changes in mobility and
442 balance. *Gait and Posture*, 37(4), 593–597.
443 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2012.09.022>

444 Fu, F., Zhang, Y., Shu, Y., Ruan, G., Sun, J., Baker, J., & Gu, Y. (2016). Lower limb
445 mechanics during moderate high-heel jogging and running in different experienced

446 wearers. *Human Movement Science*, 48(818), 15–27.
447 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2016.04.002>

448 Grasso, R., Bianchi, L., & Lacquaniti, F. (1998). Motor patterns for human gait: backward
449 versus forward locomotion. *J Neurophysiol*, 80, 1868–1885.
450 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s002210050274>

451 Grood, E. S., & Suntay, W. J. (1983). A Joint Coordinate System for the Clinical Description
452 of Three-Dimensional Motions: Application to the Knee. *Journal of Biomechanical*
453 *Engineering*. <https://doi.org/10.1115/1.3138397>

454 Hallemans, A., Ortibus, E., Meire, F., & Aerts, P. (2010). Low vision affects dynamic
455 stability of gait. *Gait and Posture*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2010.07.018>

456 Hunt, A. E., M. Smith, R., Torode, M., & Keenan, A. M. (2001). Inter-segment foot motion
457 and ground reaction forces over the stance phase of walking. *Clinical Biomechanics*.
458 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-0033\(01\)00040-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-0033(01)00040-7)

459 Jansen, K., De Groote, F., Massaad, F., Meyns, P., Duysens, J., & Jonkers, I. (2012). Similar
460 muscles contribute to horizontal and vertical acceleration of center of mass in forward
461 and backward walking: implications for neural control. *Journal of Neurophysiology*,
462 107(12), 3385–3396. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.01156.2011>

463 Katsavelis, D., Mukherjee, M., Decker, L., & Stergiou, N. (2010). Variability of lower
464 extremity joint kinematics during backward walking in a virtual environment. *Nonlinear*
465 *Dynamics, Psychology, and Life Sciences*, 14(2), 165–178.

466 Kennedy, P. M., & Inglis, J. T. (2002). Distribution and behaviour of glabrous cutaneous
467 receptors in the human foot sole. *Journal of Physiology*.

468 <https://doi.org/10.1113/jphysiol.2001.013087>

469 Lee, M., Kim, J., Son, J., & Kim, Y. (2013). Kinematic and kinetic analysis during forward
470 and backward walking. *Gait and Posture*, 38(4), 674–678.
471 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2013.02.014>

472 Lohman, E. B., Balan Sackiriyas, K. S., & Swen, R. W. (2011). A comparison of the
473 spatiotemporal parameters, kinematics, and biomechanics between shod, unshod, and
474 minimally supported running as compared to walking. *Physical Therapy in Sport*, 12(4),
475 151–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ptsp.2011.09.004>

476 Lythgo, N., Wilson, C., & Galea, M. (2009). Basic gait and symmetry measures for primary
477 school-aged children and young adults whilst walking barefoot and with shoes. *Gait and*
478 *Posture*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2009.07.119>

479 Mei, Q., Fernandez, J., Fu, W., Feng, N., & Gu, Y. (2015). A comparative biomechanical
480 analysis of habitually unshod and shod runners based on a foot morphological
481 difference. *Human Movement Science*, 42, 38–53.
482 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2015.04.007>

483 Mills, P. M., Barrett, R. S., & Morrison, S. (2008). Toe clearance variability during walking
484 in young and elderly men. *Gait and Posture*.
485 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2007.10.006>

486 Morio, C., Lake, M. J., Gueguen, N., Rao, G., & Baly, L. (2009). The influence of footwear
487 on foot motion during walking and running. *Journal of Biomechanics*, 42(13), 2081–
488 2088. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiomech.2009.06.015>

489 Nicholson, K., Church, C., Takata, C., Niiler, T., Chen, B. P. J., Lennon, N., ... Miller, F.

490 (2018). Comparison of three-dimensional multi-segmental foot models used in clinical
491 gait laboratories. *Gait and Posture*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2018.05.013>

492 Pothrat, C., Authier, G., Viehweger, E., Berton, E., & Rao, G. (2015). One- and multi-
493 segment foot models lead to opposite results on ankle joint kinematics during gait:
494 Implications for clinical assessment. *Clinical Biomechanics*.
495 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinbiomech.2015.03.004>

496 Powell, D. W., Long, B., Milner, C. E., & Zhang, S. (2011). Frontal plane multi-segment foot
497 kinematics in high- and low-arched females during dynamic loading tasks. *Human*
498 *Movement Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2010.08.015>

499 Rose, D. K., Demark, L., Fox, E. J., Clark, D. J., & Wludyka, P. (2018). A Backward
500 Walking Training Program to Improve Balance and Mobility in Acute Stroke: A Pilot
501 Randomized Controlled Trial. *Journal of Neurologic Physical Therapy*, 42(1), 12–21.
502 <https://doi.org/10.1097/NPT.0000000000000210>

503 Sedhom, M. G. (2017). Backward Walking Training Improves Knee Proprioception in Non
504 Athletic Males. *International Journal of Physiotherapy*, 4(1), 33–37.
505 <https://doi.org/10.15621/ijphy/2017/v4i1/136161>

506 Shu, Y., Gu, Y., Mei, Q., Ren, X., Popik, S., & Fernandez, J. (2016). Movement Analysis of
507 Lower Limb During Backward Walking with Unstable Intervention. *Journal of Medical*
508 *and Biological Engineering*, 36(5), 718–725. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s40846-016-0166-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s40846-016-0166-4)
509 4

510 Stebbins, J., Harrington, M., Thompson, N., Zavatsky, A., & Theologis, T. (2006).
511 Repeatability of a model for measuring multi-segment foot kinematics in children. *Gait*

512 *and Posture*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2005.03.002>

513 Sun, D., Mei, Q., Baker, J. S., Jia, X., & Gu, Y. (2017). A Pilot Study of the Effect of Outsole
514 Hardness on Lower Limb Kinematics and Kinetics during Soccer Related Movements.
515 *Journal of Human Kinetics*, 57(1), 17–27. <https://doi.org/10.1515/hukin-2017-0043>

516 Tseng, I. J., Jeng, C., & Yuan, R. Y. (2012). Comparisons of forward and backward gait
517 between poorer and better attention capabilities in early Parkinson’s disease. *Gait and*
518 *Posture*, 36(3), 367–371. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2012.03.028>

519 Van Deursen, R. W. M., Flynn, T. W., McCrory, J. L., & Morag, E. (1998). Does a single
520 control mechanism exist for both forward and backward walking? *Gait and Posture*,
521 7(3), 214–224. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0966-6362\(98\)00007-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0966-6362(98)00007-1)

522 Wang, R., Thur, C. K., Gutierrez-Farewik, E. M., Wretenberg, P., & Broström, E. (2010).
523 One year follow-up after operative ankle fractures: A prospective gait analysis study
524 with a multi-segment foot model. *Gait and Posture*.
525 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2009.10.012>

526 Winter, D. a. (1984). Kinematic and kinetic patterns in human gait: Variability and
527 compensating effects. *Human Movement Science*. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-9457(84)90005-8)
528 [9457\(84\)90005-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-9457(84)90005-8)

529 Winter, D. A., Pluck, N., & Yang, J. F. (1989). Backward walking: A simple reversal of
530 forward walking? *Journal of Motor Behavior*, 21(3), 291–305.
531 <https://doi.org/10.1080/00222895.1989.10735483>

532 Wolf, S., Simon, J., Patikas, D., Schuster, W., Armbrust, P., & Döderlein, L. (2008). Foot
533 motion in children shoes-A comparison of barefoot walking with shod walking in

534 conventional and flexible shoes. *Gait and Posture*.

535 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaitpost.2007.01.005>

536 Zhang, X., Paquette, M. R., & Zhang, S. (2013). A comparison of gait biomechanics of flip-
537 flops, sandals, barefoot and shoes. *Journal of Foot and Ankle Research*, 6(1), 1–9.

538 <https://doi.org/10.1186/1757-1146-6-45>

539

540 **Figure Legends**

541

542 Figure 1. Experimental set-up (not on scale)

543 Figure 2. Foot inter-segment kinematics during FW and time-reversed BW under barefoot and
544 shod conditions.

545 Figure 3. Effect of walking patterns (FW vs. BW) and shoe conditions (BF vs. SH) on peak
546 pressure. Notes. “P” means main effect of walking pattern; “C” means main effect of shoe
547 condition; P×C means interaction.

548 Figure 4. Effect of walking patterns (FW vs. BW) and shoe conditions (BF vs. SH) on plantar
549 contact area. Notes. “P” means main effect of walking pattern, “C” means main effect of shoe
550 condition.

551

552

553

554

555

556
 557
 558
 559
 560
 561
 562
 563
 564
 565
 566
 567
 568
 569
 570

Table Legends

Table 1. Means \pm SD of the Spatial-temporal parameters of FW and BW under BF and SH conditions (N=16).

Variables	ANOVA					
	Pattern	BF	SH	Pattern	Condition	Pattern \times Condition
Speed (m/s)	FW	1.34 \pm 0.05	1.37 \pm 0.06	F=48.032	F=2.984	F=0.652
	BW	1.08 \pm 0.07	1.12 \pm 0.11	P<0.001	P=0.088	P=0.440
SL (m)	FW	1.30 \pm 0.08	1.33 \pm 0.05	F=8.573	F=26.552	F=0.962
	BW	1.40 \pm 0.13	1.44 \pm 0.11	P=0.004	P<0.001	P=0.331
SF (steps/min)	FW	108.9 \pm 6.6	105.1 \pm 7.5	F=87.181	F=23.382	F=2.982
	BW	96.7 \pm 8.1	93.2 \pm 7.2	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.088
ST (s)	FW	0.69 \pm 0.02	0.71 \pm 0.03	F=34.042	F=1.442	F=0.014
	BW	0.80 \pm 0.04	0.79 \pm 0.06	P<0.001	P=0.234	P=0.909

Notes. “SL” represents stride length; “SF” represents stride frequency; “ST” represents stance time.

571 Table 2. Means \pm SD of the hindfoot relative to tibia angles (HF/TB) ($^{\circ}$) during stance phase
 572 of FW and time-reversed BW under BF and SH conditions (N=16).

Variables			ANOVA				
Planes	Event	Pattern	BF	SH	Pattern	Condition	Pattern \times Condition
Sagittal	HC/HO	FW	-1.2 \pm 6.0	2.2 \pm 5.3	F=24.651	F=0.962	F=0.482
		BW	-4.8 \pm 7.4	-5.6 \pm 8.8	P<0.001	P=0.331	P=0.489
	Max DF	FW	12.4 \pm 7.1	14.9 \pm 8.9	F=23.014	F=17.682	F=0.591
		BW	18.6 \pm 9.8	21.0 \pm 11.4	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.462
	Max PF	FW	-9.2 \pm 6.0	-6.1 \pm 5.3	F=2.692	F=24.832	F=2.753
		BW	-7.8 \pm 7.4	-5.8 \pm 6.8	P=0.105	P<0.001	P=0.102
	TO/TC	FW	6.2 \pm 5.2	7.2 \pm 4.9	F=0.841	F=3.980	F=1.062
		BW	9.4 \pm 6.3	8.8 \pm 5.5	P=0.362	P=0.077	P=0.303
	ROM (DF/PF)	FW	21.5 \pm 7.5	21.0 \pm 9.3	F=18.805	F=4.693	F=1.073
		BW	25.7 \pm 10.4	26.8 \pm 8.7	P<0.001	P=0.058	P=0.305
Frontal	HC/HO	FW	3.9 \pm 5.3	2.0 \pm 4.6	F=26.842	F=37.442	F=7.593
		BW	-1.8 \pm 4.3	-3.0 \pm 5.1	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.022
	Max IV	FW	5.6 \pm 4.6	4.5 \pm 5.5	F=13.963	F=2.982	F=0.758
		BW	8.7 \pm 4.6	7.1 \pm 6.2	P<0.001	P=0.124	P=0.407
	Max EV	FW	-4.8 \pm 4.4	-6.8 \pm 5.1	F=5.645	F=0.047	F=0.281
		BW	-4.3 \pm 4.9	-6.0 \pm 5.5	P=0.042	P=0.264	P=0.602
	ROM (IV/EV)	FW	10.4 \pm 7.7	11.3 \pm 8.4	F=0.813	F=0.101	F=3.399
		BW	13.0 \pm 7.2	13.1 \pm 6.8	P=0.128	P=0.753	P=0.098
Transverse	HC/HO	FW	2.5 \pm 3.6	1.2 \pm 3.4	F=26.093	F=0.164	F=0.384
		BW	-4.6 \pm 5.1	-3.1 \pm 6.7	P<0.001	P=0.697	P=0.539
	Max IR	FW	10.2 \pm 4.4	7.9 \pm 4.8	F=94.215	F=1.613	F=3.402
		BW	6.8 \pm 5.1	4.7 \pm 6.7	P<0.001	P=0.212	P=0.098
	Max ER	FW	-10.2 \pm 2.9	-10.8 \pm 3.1	F=35.055	F=4.563	F=0.212
		BW	-5.8 \pm 4.6	-6.1 \pm 4.2	P<0.001	P=0.064	P=0.656
	ROM (IR/ER)	FW	20.4 \pm 9.5	18.7 \pm 6.9	F=38.365	F=0.362	F=2.414
		BW	12.6 \pm 5.8	10.8 \pm 6.3	P<0.001	P=0.561	P=0.161

573 Notes. HC=FW heel contact; HO=BW heel-off; TO=FW toe-off; TC=BW toe contact;
 574 DF=dorsiflexion; PF=plantarflexion; IV=inversion; EV=eversion; IR=internal rotation;
 575 ER=external rotation; SP=supination; PR=pronation; ROM=range of motion.

576 Table 3. Means \pm SD of the forefoot with respect to hindfoot angles (FF/HF) ($^{\circ}$) during stance
 577 phase of FW and time-reversed BW under BF and SH conditions (N=16).

Variables			ANOVA				
Planes	Event	Pattern	BF	SH	Pattern	Condition	Pattern \times Condition
Sagittal	HC/HO	FW	-7.1 \pm 4.6	-5.6 \pm 3.8	F=0.175	F=3.063	F=1.226
		BW	-6.4 \pm 4.3	-4.5 \pm 3.5	P=0.678	P=0.195	P=0.297
	Max DF	FW	5.8 \pm 3.5	7.1 \pm 4.4	F=0.813	F=0.644	F=0.361
		BW	7.5 \pm 4.7	9.1 \pm 5.1	P=0.128	P=0.428	P=0.563
	TO/TC	FW	-0.7 \pm 3.5	3.6 \pm 5.6	F=79.806	F=55.564	F=9.164
		BW	7.5 \pm 4.7	9.1 \pm 5.1	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.014
	ROM (DF/PF)	FW	12.9 \pm 4.2	13.1 \pm 4.9	F=1.193	F=1.579	F=4.024
		BW	13.6 \pm 3.8	13.5 \pm 5.5	P=0.305	P=0.244	P=0.076
Frontal	Max SP	FW	6.3 \pm 3.4	4.1 \pm 5.1	F=21.392	F=0.818	F=0.194
		BW	2.8 \pm 3.8	2.7 \pm 3.7	P<0.001	P=0.128	P=0.662
	Max PR	FW	-1.3 \pm 3.7	-2.9 \pm 4.3	F=25.813	F=0.494	F=0.502
		BW	-5.8 \pm 4.8	-4.1 \pm 5.2	P<0.001	P=0.482	P=0.484
	TO/TC	FW	0.6 \pm 2.5	0.3 \pm 3.1	F=18.732	F=0.642	F=0.844
		BW	-5.2 \pm 3.6	-3.1 \pm 5.2	P<0.001	P=0.428	P=0.362
	ROM (SP/PR)	FW	7.6 \pm 4.5	7.0 \pm 5.2	F=2.672	F=2.023	F=1.043
		BW	8.6 \pm 4.1	6.8 \pm 3.7	P=0.105	P=0.191	P=0.345
Transverse	HC/HO	FW	0.6 \pm 6.9	-2.1 \pm 5.3	F=58.952	F=33.288	F=0.997
		BW	3.2 \pm 4.9	0.5 \pm 5.5	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.344
	Max ABD	FW	-3.2 \pm 4.0	-4.9 \pm 4.2	F=3.626	F=2.564	F=1.287
		BW	-3.9 \pm 3.8	-4.8 \pm 4.6	P=0.089	P=0.143	P=0.286
	Max ADD	FW	6.7 \pm 6.9	3.6 \pm 5.3	F=73.388	F=87.207	F=3.688
		BW	3.2 \pm 4.9	0.5 \pm 5.5	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.087
	ROM (ADD/ABD)	FW	9.9 \pm 6.8	8.5 \pm 6.2	F=19.159	F=0.957	F=28.261
		BW	7.1 \pm 4.1	5.3 \pm 5.8	P<0.001	P=0.353	P<0.001

578 Notes. HC=FW heel contact; HO=BW heel-off; TO=FW toe-off; TC=BW toe contact;
 579 DF=dorsiflexion; PF=plantarflexion; SP=supination; PR=pronation; ABD=abduction;
 580 ADD=adduction; ROM=range of motion.

581

582 Table 4. Means \pm SD of the hallux relative to forefoot (HX/FF) angles ($^{\circ}$) during stance phase
 583 of FW and time-reversed BW under BF and SH conditions (N=16).

Variables				ANOVA		
Events	Pattern	BF	SH	Pattern	Condition	Pattern \times Condition
HC/HO	FW	22.4 \pm 11.5	16.9 \pm 10.3	F=25.990	F=28.483	F=1.584
	BW	7.4 \pm 8.9	4.7 \pm 5.6	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.212
Max DF	FW	29.8 \pm 9.2	23.8 \pm 10.3	F=39.938	F=26.941	F=1.262
	BW	24.4 \pm 8.6	24.8 \pm 7.9	P<0.001	P<0.001	P=0.290
Max PF	FW	2.4 \pm 6.0	2.7 \pm 5.5	F=33.973	F=0.703	F=1.225
	BW	4.5 \pm 4.9	1.2 \pm 5.2	P<0.001	P=0.404	P=0.274
ROM (DF/PF)	FW	27.4 \pm 8.1	21.1 \pm 9.5	F=26.554	F=7.177	F=24.643
	BW	19.9 \pm 7.6	23.6 \pm 8.4	P<0.001	P=0.009	P<0.001

584 Notes: HC=FW heel contact; HO=BW heel-off; TO=FW toe-off; TC=BW toe contact;
 585 DF=dorsiflexion; PF=plantarflexion; ROM=range of motion.