

1 **Local Dynamic Stability of the Locomotion of Lower Extremity Joints and Trunk**
2 **Segment during Backward Upslope Walking**

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21 **Running Title:** Gait stability during backward upslope walking

22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Backward slope walking was considered as a practical rehabilitation and training
24 skill. However, its gait stability has been hardly studied, resulting in its limited
25 application as a rehabilitation tool.

26 In this study the effect of walking direction and slope grade were investigated on
27 the local dynamic stability of the motion of lower extremity joints and trunk segment
28 during backward and forward upslope walking (BUW/FUW). The local divergence
29 exponents (λ_S) of 16 adults were calculated during their BUW and FUW at grades of
30 0%, 5%, 10%, and 15%. Mean standard deviation over strides (MeanSD) was analyzed
31 as their gait variability.

32 Backward walking showed larger λ_S for the abduction-adduction and rotational
33 angles of knee and ankle on inclined surface than forward walking, while λ_S for hip
34 flexion-extension angle at steeper grades was opposite. No grade effect for any joint
35 existed during BUW, while λ_S increased with the increasing grade during FUW. As to
36 the trunk, walking direction did little impact on λ_S . Still, significant larger λ_S for its
37 medial-lateral and vertical motion were found at the steeper grades during both FUW
38 and BUW.

39 Results indicate that during BUW, the backward direction may influence the
40 stability of joint motions, while the trunk stability was challenged by the increasing
41 grades. Therefore, BUW may be a training tool for the stability of both upper and lower
42 body motion during gait.

43

44 **Keywords:** Backward slope walking, Local dynamic stability, Local divergence

45 exponent, Gait analysis

46

INTRODUCTION

47

48 Backward slope walking (BSW), including backward upslope and backward
49 downslope walking, combines the locomotion of backward walking and slope walking,
50 and is supposed to be a more challenging task on the neuromuscular system (Lay, 2005;
51 Lay et al., 2007). It is confirmed in physiological and biomechanical studies that, like
52 backward level walking, BSW could not only provide better cardiovascular function,
53 i.e. improved heart-rate, stroke-volume, cardiac output (Agbonlahor et al., 2009) and
54 greater demands on EMG activity, including increased level of muscle activity of
55 anterior tibialis during the entire gait cycle and of gastrocnemius between the phases of
56 mid-swing to initial contact (Cipriani et al., 1995), but also facilitate gait balance,
57 meanwhile, minimize force related to injuries (Bates & McCaw, 1986). On the other
58 hand, compared to backward level walking, BSW has more advantages in exercising
59 cardio-respiratory function and the lower extremity joints gradually and adequately by
60 adjusting the grade (Agbonlahor et al., 2009; Hoogkamer et al., 2014), as the motor
61 control system is predicted to require different walking strategies for slope walking
62 (Lay et al., 2006; Sheehan & Gottschall, 2012). Thus, BSW has become a popular
63 means of rehabilitation training for neurological impaired patients (Werner et al., 2002)
64 or patients with a weak knee extensor (Agbonlahor et al., 2009; Cipriani et al., 1995).

65 When BSW is used for rehabilitation purposes, it is conceivable that greater
66 challenges exist among the population with poor balance control ability, as high fall
67 incidence occurs during walking backwardly (Laufer, 2005) or walking on slopes
68 (Sheehan & Gottschall, 2012). The results of our previous investigation supported that

69 the task of backward walking did reduce the local dynamic stability of the locomotion
70 of lower extremity joints and trunk segment (Wu et al., 2015). Besides, the stability on
71 the lower limb joints (Sheehan & Gottschall, 2012) and the trunk segment (Cromwell,
72 2003; Leroux et al., 2002; Vieira et al., 2017a) were also found to be reduced during
73 upslope walking. To our knowledge, unfortunately, to date no study has reported gait
74 stability during backward walking on inclined surfaces, leading to limited knowledge
75 on how the motor control system responds to the dual effect of walking direction and
76 slope grade. Thus, there is a need to evaluate gait stability during BSW in healthy
77 participants, which is a pre-requisite for its application on future research concerned
78 with pathological gait.

79 Gait variability measures are widely used in practice with proven success in
80 predicting the probability of falling (Bruijn et al., 2013; Dingwell & Marin, 2006). The
81 ‘variability’ usually refers to the amount of variation of a kinematic parameter over
82 strides. It may quantify the spatial variation of stride, i.e. the magnitude of the variation.
83 The increased gait variability was believed to be a sign of poor gait stability, which
84 means that the gait system is incapable of accurately achieving the desired goal (Vieira
85 et al., 2017b). The present study applied the local dynamic stability to reflect different
86 properties of the walking dynamics from gait variability. It may quantify the temporal
87 structure of stride variation. Unlike the gait variability that treats each gait cycle as
88 independent, the local dynamic stability evaluates the evolution of stability over several
89 strides (Vieira et al., 2017b). The local divergence exponent estimated from kinematic
90 data (, e.g. joint angles and segment velocities) during a steady-state walking trial is a

91 measure of local dynamic stability (Bruijn et al., 2013). It may quantify the sensitivity
92 of the neuromuscular system to small perturbations during continuous walking, by
93 characterizing how fast the neighboring trajectories of a reconstructed state space
94 diverge after a small perturbation (Bruijn et al., 2012). The larger local divergence
95 exponents are corresponded to a poorer ability of balance recovery. The local
96 divergence exponent calculated from strides over a shorter period (one stride cycle,
97 labeled λ_S) is used to forecast the probability of falling during walking. The construct,
98 predictive and convergent validity of λ_S was found to be better supported in falling
99 prediction (Bruijn et al., 2013).

100 This study aimed to estimate the local dynamic stability of the locomotion of lower
101 extremity joints and trunk segment during backward upslope walking (BUW). Here,
102 we treated the measures of the trunk segment and lower extremity joints as independent
103 'locomotion systems', so as to obtain an exact state estimate of walking by numerical
104 methods. Therefore, we calculated the short-term local divergence exponents (λ_S) for
105 the joints and the segment. We then tested the effect of walking direction by comparing
106 the stability during BUW with forward upslope walking (FUW) at the same grade; and
107 the effect of slope grade by comparing the stability at different grades during BUW and
108 FUW, respectively. The mean standard deviation (MeanSD) was further quantified as
109 the amount of gait variability to provide more insight into the effect of walking direction
110 and slope grade on the gait stability (Lay, 2005; Lay et al., 2006; Leroux et al., 2002).
111 The gait stability was found to be challenged during backward walking (Wu et al., 2015)
112 and slope walking (Cromwell, 2003; Sheehan & Gottschall, 2012). Therefore, we

113 hypothesized that compared to FUW, the local dynamic stability and the stride-to-stride
114 gait variability of the lower extremity joint (, i.e. the hip, the knee and the ankle) angles
115 and the trunk segment velocity were worse during BUW (, i.e. λ_S and MeanSD for the
116 joint angles and segment velocity would be larger,) and would be further challenged by
117 the increasing grades.

118

119

METHODS

120 **Participants**

121 Sixteen young adults (nine male, seven female; age 23.8 ± 1.4 years; height $1.69 \pm$
122 0.04 m, BMI 20.46 ± 2.50 kg/m²) were recruited for the study. None of the participants
123 reported orthopedic or neurological injuries or disorders that could affect gait, and all
124 of them were capable of ambulating independently without any assistive device. The
125 experimental protocol was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board
126 at Biomedical Engineering School of Shanghai Jiao Tong University and the informed
127 consent was obtained from each participant before the scheduled test date.

128

129 **Experimental Protocol**

130 For familiarization, the participants were habituated to the walking area on a
131 treadmill (F80 Sole Fitness, Jonesboro, AR, USA) in a backward and forward upslope
132 way (BUW/FUW) at each of four grades (0%, 5%, 10%, 15%). The running surface of
133 the treadmill was 56 cm×152 cm in size with no force sensor installed. The participants
134 may practice each walking condition for 5 minutes with at least 5 minutes rest before

135 the data collection began. The tasks of downslope walking were not included in this
136 study. During pilot tests, most participants complained such tasks were too difficult,
137 and they were afraid of those tasks especially in a backward direction on a treadmill.
138 Thus, the participants were only allowed to walk upwards at gentle grades with their
139 preferred walking speed (PWS). The PWS in each walking direction at each grade was
140 determined following a previously reported protocol (Dingwell & Marin, 2006). During
141 the experiment, the participants completed a 5-min walking trial under each walking
142 direction at four grades with PWS. All participants were blinded to their exact walking
143 speeds throughout the experiment. These trials with different walking conditions were
144 performed in a randomized order for each participant. The participants were asked not
145 to hold or touch the treadmill handles by hands or by other body parts during walking.
146 They were allowed a break of minimum 3 minutes between trials.

147 An 8-camera motion capture system (Vicon T40, Oxford Metrics, Oxford, UK)
148 operating at 100 Hz was used to record the participants' body movement by capturing
149 the refined Cleveland Clinic Marker set including forty-two reflective markers placed
150 on each participant. The four rigid clusters each consisted with four tracking markers
151 were respectively attached in the middle part of the thighs and shanks of both sides.
152 The anatomical markers were placed on the relevant locations of the lower extremity
153 joints and trunk landmarks. (**Figure 1**)

154 [Insert **Figure 1**]

155

156 **Data Processing**

157 Marker kinematics were low-pass filtered with a cut-off frequency of 10Hz using
158 a fourth-order and zero-lag Butterworth filter prior to data analysis. We included 100
159 consecutive strides for quantifying the local dynamic stability and gait variability based
160 on the angle of hip, knee and ankle joint in the motion of flexion–extension (FE),
161 abduction/adduction (AB/AD) and internal/external rotation (RT), as well as the linear
162 velocity of the trunk segment in the motion of anterior-posterior (AP), medial-lateral
163 (ML) and vertical (VT) (**Figure 2 (a)**). The angles were calculated by using Visual3D
164 software (v5 Professional, C-Motion Inc., USA). The linear motion of the trunk
165 segment was defined using a virtual center marker, defined as the average location of
166 the four markers: *clavicle*, *sternum*, *7th cervical vertebrae*, and *10th thoracic vertebrae*
167 (**Figure 1**). The data of strides calculated during BUW and FUW both began and ended
168 at foot contact. Foot contact was identified as the intra-stride maximum of the heel
169 marker in anterior-posterior (AP) direction during both FUW and BUW.

170

171 *Local Dynamic Stability*

172 The local dynamic stability of the above joint angles and trunk velocity was
173 characterized by the local divergence exponents (λ_S). Time series were time-normalized
174 to 10 thousand samples to eliminate the effect of time series length on the calculation
175 of local divergence exponents (Bruijn et al., 2013) (**Figure 2 (b)**), using a shape-
176 preserving interpolation predefined in MATLAB (Version R2012a, The MathWorks,
177 Inc., USA). This interpolation is based on a cubic spline using not-a-knot end conditions.
178 The interpolated value at a query point is based on a cubic interpolation of the values

179 at neighboring grid points. Meanwhile, the stride-to-stride temporal variations were
180 preserved by leaving the number of data points during each stride unnormalized. We
181 reconstructed a 5-dimensional state space from the time-normalized time-series using
182 a constant delay of 10 samples (**Figure 2 (c)**). The embedding dimension was
183 determined by the global false-nearest-neighbor analysis, while the selected time delay
184 was estimated using the first minimum of the average mutual information function. The
185 local divergence exponents were calculated according to the algorithm described by
186 Rosenstein et al (Rosenstein et al., 1993). In the reconstructed state space, all pairs of
187 the nearest neighboring points were identified, and the Euclidean distances between the
188 nearest neighbors were calculated and tracked until the end of the time series. A time
189 vs. the Euclidean distance curve representing the average logarithmic rate of Euclidean
190 distances (i.e. the divergence) over all original nearest neighbor pairs then can be
191 obtained. The local divergence exponent was calculated as the slope of the curve. In
192 our study, we expressed the rate of divergence across the span of 0-0.5 stride, i.e. the
193 short-term divergence exponent, λ_S (**Figure 2 (d)**).

194 [Insert **Figure 2**]

195

196 *Gait Variability*

197 The stride-to-stride variability of the above joint angles and trunk velocity was
198 determined by calculating the mean standard deviations (MeanSD). Data within the
199 given strides were time-normalized into 101 samples (0–100%) per stride (**Figure 3**
200 **(a)**). The standard deviation over the included 100 strides for each sample was

201 calculated (**Figure 3 (b)**). MeanSD was determined as the averaged value of the
202 standard deviations over all percent of the gait cycle.

203 [Insert **Figure 3**]

204

205 **Statistical Analysis**

206 The generalized estimating equations (GEE), a regression technique taking
207 repeated measures into account (Liang & Zeger, 1986), was used to determine the
208 significant effect of walking direction (with two levels: FUW and BUW) and slope
209 grade (with four levels: 0%, 5%, 10%, and 15%) on local dynamic stability and stride-
210 to-stride variability. PWS of each participant was included during GEE as a covariate
211 to exclude the effect of walking speed. (the dependent variables: λ_S /MeanSD,
212 respectively, the covariate: PWS, and the independent variables: walking
213 direction/slope grade). The homogeneity of regression slopes was tested by checking
214 the significance of the interaction between PWS and walking direction/slope grade,
215 respectively. The simple effect of direction within different grade conditions, as well as
216 the grade effect within different direction conditions would be checked respectively.
217 The effects of direction and grade on PWS and stride length were additionally checked
218 by two-way repeated measures ANOVA. All *post hoc* multiple comparisons were
219 performed using Bonferroni adjusted *t* tests. Linear regression analysis was used to test
220 the relationship between PWS and λ_S , as well as between PWS and MeanSD,
221 respectively. The relationship between the λ_S and the MeanSD was also tested by the
222 same analysis. Significant level *p* of all tests was chosen as .050. All data were

223 processed by SPSS Statistics software (Version 17.0, SPSS Inc., USA).

224

225

RESULTS

226 **PWS and Stride Length during BUW**

227 The PWS was significantly affected by the walking direction ($p < .050$). Compared
228 to FUW, a smaller PWS was found during BUW at each grade (**Table 1**). As for the
229 effect of slope grade, the PWS during both FUW and BUW at steeper grades were
230 smaller than at gentler ones ($p < .050$, respectively). There was no walking direction
231 effect on stride length ($p > .050$), while significant grade-related differences existed in
232 both BUW and FUW conditions ($p < .010$, respectively). Smaller stride length was
233 observed at steeper grades during both BUW and FUW. No interaction between
234 directions and grades existed in PWS and stride length ($p > .100$, respectively).

235

[Insert **Table 1**]

236

237 **Local Dynamic Stability during BUW**

238 *Effects of Walking Direction on λ_S*

239 λ_S for the lower extremity joint angles and the trunk velocity were significantly
240 affected by the walking direction (**Figure 4** and **Table 2**). Compared to FUW, larger λ_S
241 for the knee AB/AD angle at 0%, 5% grades and the ankle AB/AD angle at all grades
242 displayed during BUW ($p < .050$, respectively). Significant larger λ_S was also shown in
243 RT angle of all joints and in the trunk VT velocity during backward level walking than
244 during the forward condition ($p < .050$), respectively. An exception was the hip FE

245 angle, where significant smaller λ_S was found during BUW at 10% and 15% grades (p
246 $< .050$, respectively).

247

248 *Effects of Slope Grade on λ_S*

249 For lower extremity joint angles, no grade effect on λ_S existed during BUW
250 ($p > .010$) (**Figure 4**). Meanwhile, λ_S for all joint angles increased with the growing
251 grades during FUW. In all motion directions, λ_S for the hip angles at 0% and 5% grade
252 were significantly smaller than at steeper grades during FUW ($p < .050$, respectively).
253 Similarly, the knee and ankle angles during FUW displayed smaller λ_S at 0%, 5% grade
254 than at 15% grade ($p < .050$, respectively). λ_S for the trunk velocity significantly
255 increased with the growing grades during FUW and BUW. In both walking directions,
256 the trunk ML velocity displayed smaller λ_S at 0%, 5% grade than at 15% grade, while
257 pairwise difference among all four grades were significant in the VT velocity that a
258 smaller λ_S was observed at the gentler grade ($p < .050$, respectively). No interaction was
259 found between walking directions and slope grades in λ_S ($p > .050$) (**Table 2**).

260 [Insert **Figure 4**]

261 [Insert **Table 2**]

262

263 **Gait Variability during BUW**

264 *Effects of Walking Direction on MeanSD*

265 For different joint angles, the effects of walking direction on MeanSD were
266 variously presented (**Figure 5**). The MeanSD for the hip FE angle and the knee FE,

267 AB/AD angle during BUW were smaller than during FUW at 10% and 15% grade (p
268 $< .050$, respectively). Significantly larger MeanSD were found in ankle joint angle at
269 all grades during BUW than during FUW ($p < .050$, respectively). As to the trunk
270 velocity, compared to FUW, the MeanSD during backward level walking were larger
271 in all motion directions ($p < .050$, respectively).

272

273 *Effects of Slope Grade on MeanSD*

274 There were significant interaction effects on MeanSD between walking directions
275 and slope grades in the hip and knee FE angles ($p < .050$, respectively) (**Figure 5**).
276 During FUW, the MeanSD for these two joint angles at 10% and 15% grade were larger
277 than those at gentler grades, while the grade effects were just the opposite during BUW
278 ($p < .050$, respectively). Compared to gentler grades, significantly larger MeanSD at
279 10% and 15% grade were also found in the knee AB/AD joint angle during FUW (p
280 $< .050$, respectively). No grade related difference was found in the RT angle of any joint
281 during either BUW or FUW ($p > .050$). As to the trunk velocity, the grade effect only
282 existed during FUW. The MeanSD in AP and ML motion during forward level walking
283 were significantly smaller than during slope, while significant pairwise difference
284 existed among almost all grades in the VT velocity that a smaller MeanSD was observed
285 at the gentler grade ($p < .050$, respectively).

286 [Insert **Figure 5**]

287

288 **Relationship between PWS and λ_s / MeanSD**

289 For both walking directions, PWS showed a significant negative relationship with
290 λ_S in all motion directions of the joint angles and the trunk velocity ($p < .001$,
291 respectively). (**Table 3**) The relationship between PWS and λ_S for the trunk segment in
292 AP direction of a particular participant was further displayed as scatterplots. (**Appendix**
293 **Figure**)

294 [Insert **Table 3**]

295

296 Whether during FUW or BUW, there was no significant relationship between PWS
297 and MeanSD in any motion direction of the joint angles and the trunk velocity ($p > .100$,
298 respectively). (**Table 4**)

299 [Insert **Table 4**]

300

301 **Relationship between λ_S and MeanSD**

302 During BUW, λ_S showed a significant negative relationship with the MeanSD in
303 all motion directions of the lower extremity joint angles, and the trunk velocity in AP
304 motion as well ($p < .010$, respectively). Positive correlations were found in all motion
305 directions of both lower extremity joint angles and the trunk velocity ($p < .010$,
306 respectively) during FUW, except for the RT angle of the lower extremities ($p = .070$)
307 (**Table 5**).

308 [Insert **Table 5**]

309

310

310 **DISCUSSION**

311 In our previous investigation, compared to forward walking, gait stability during
312 backward walking was shown to be challenged (Wu et al., 2015). On the other hand,
313 walking on the inclined surfaces was also found to decrease local dynamic stability
314 particularly in upslope conditions (Vieira et al., 2017a). Unfortunately, as far as we
315 knew, to date no study has reported gait stability during backward walking on inclined
316 surfaces. This was the first time that the dual effects of the walking direction and slope
317 grade on the gait stability of the joint and segment motions were investigated, aiming
318 to predict whether the gait stability would be challenged during BUW, so as to examine
319 whether BUW would be a promising tool to train gait stability.

320 It was consistent with the original hypothesis that, backward walking did
321 negatively influence the local dynamic stability of the human locomotion on inclined
322 surface. This may be explained by the fact that during backward walking, the subject
323 lacks the visual information to process, and fears bumping and falling because
324 backward walking is not habitually performed (Nadeau et al., 2003). Consequently,
325 compared to walking forwards, a reduced walking speed (, which was validated in the
326 present study,) and a greater effort were required for the neuromuscular system to
327 control lateral oscillations of the body when walking backwards (Nadeau et al., 2003).
328 In our study, this effect of walking direction was especially significant for the AB/AD
329 angles of the knee and ankle joint, as these joints showed worse local dynamic stability
330 during backward walking. Our previous unpublished results on the total range of motion
331 showed that values of the knee and ankle AB/AD angle during BUW were significantly
332 smaller compared to FUW ($p < .050$, respectively). (See **Appendix Table**) This postural

333 adaption may induced by the greater control imposed on the knee and ankle joint
334 demonstrated by increased muscle activity (Katsavelis et al., 2010), so as to overcome
335 the worse stability of the joint motion and avoid falls during BUW. In our study,
336 compared to BUW, a reduced local dynamic stability in hip FE angle was identified
337 during FUW. We speculated the hip joint during FUW needed to expend more control
338 effort to stabilize its motion, which was similar to the kinetic demands for knee joint
339 during BUW. These results could be supported by Lay et.al that (Lay, 2005), a larger
340 moment and higher power in the hip FE joint motion were found during FUW in
341 comparison with BUW, while the opposite effect of walking direction was observed on
342 the kinetic data of the knee joint. Backward walking direction did little impact on the
343 stability of the trunk motion in the present study. This might be due to the stabilization
344 strategy adopted by the trunk segment, that during backward walking the trunk was
345 supposed to adopt a generally rigid functioning with (, i.e. rigidly linked to) the
346 underlying supporting segment in both sagittal and frontal plane (Nadeau et al., 2003).
347 Our results thus further prove the effectiveness of the trunk stabilization strategy during
348 BUW.

349 The effect of the slope grade on the local dynamic stability of the lower extremity
350 joint motion was significant during FUW, where the stability of all joints reduced as the
351 grade increased. This was mostly concordant with the grade-related difference in
352 MeanSD of FE and AB/AD motion, which was further supported by the positive
353 correlation between λ_S and MeanSD during FUW. Results in previous studies were
354 consistent with ours as well, that in comparison with level walking, (forward) slope

355 walking would reduce the gait stability in both sagittal and frontal plane, thus resulting
356 in a greater fall risk (Gottschall & Nichols, 2011; Sheehan & Gottschall, 2012). These
357 results indicate that the active control is required to stabilize the lower extremity joints
358 in all motion directions during slope walking. In order to raise the center of mass (COM)
359 and prevent falling on the inclined surfaces, the motor control system needs to handle
360 the altered vertical foot displacement and its clearance, as well as the higher horizontal
361 friction demands compared to the level walking (McIntosh et al., 2006). All these
362 changes of walking pattern may explain the observed effect of slope grade on the gait
363 stability of the lower extremity joints. Meanwhile, for BUW conditions, there was no
364 grade-related difference in λ_S for any joint. In our study, significant negative
365 correlations between λ_S and MeanSD were found in all angular motions during BUW,
366 indicating that these two metrics responded oppositely to the changes of the slope grade
367 under backward walking conditions. For example, the gait variability (indicated by the
368 value of MeanSD) of the knee joint even attenuated with the increasing grades during
369 BUW, while the local dynamic instability (indicated by the value of λ_S) slightly
370 increased. These results further supported that measurements of local dynamic stability
371 and gait variability quantify fundamentally different properties of walking dynamic
372 (Dingwell & Marin, 2006; Vieira et al., 2017a). Here, a possible interpretation is that,
373 to accommodate BUW, a demanding walking task that accompany backward direction
374 and inclined surface, the motor control system may reduce and control the gait
375 variability (, i.e. the spatial variation of consecutive strides) of the knee joint angle, in
376 exchange for its moderate increasing local dynamic instability (i.e. with no

377 significantly-changed temporal structure of stride variation) (Dingwell & Marin, 2006).

378 The local dynamic stability of the trunk motion was quite sensitive to grade-related
379 differences. A challenged stability of the trunk ML and VT motion was found at the
380 steeper inclined surface under both FUW and BUW conditions. It supported the finding
381 by Kang et al., that the trunk motion is a more sensitive marker of impaired gait function
382 compared to lower extremity joints (Kang & Dingwell, 2009). The gait stability in
383 medial-lateral direction is important for controlling body balance and predicting falls
384 (Bauby & Kuo, 2000; Maki & Mcilroy, 2006), therefore our results indicated that
385 compared to level walking, upslope walking may impose more challenges on the gait
386 stability in both forward and backward walking direction in an effective way.
387 Furthermore, our finding was well consistent with the previous study on FUW (Vieira
388 et al., 2017a), that our measurements of the local dynamic stability and gait variability
389 showed a similar trend with the increasing grades. Still, since the trunk stability
390 displayed no significant direction-related difference, there was no extra challenge on
391 the trunk stability during BUW compared to FUW.

392 Additionally, we found no significant interaction effect on λ_S . Therefore, we
393 consider that upslope walking in both directions may be promoting tools to train local
394 dynamic stability, as the expected performance of the rehabilitation can be achieved by
395 setting customized grades of the walking surface. Moreover, BUW under safe
396 conditions (, e.g. with harness) may be an alternative advanced strategy for future
397 training on gait stability. It may show improvements for the stability of both upper and

398 lower body motion (, e.g. for elderly), which remains to be shown during normal
399 walking.

400 There were several limitations in this study. The healthy young participants walked
401 at a relatively lower speed on the treadmill. We attribute it to the fact that these
402 participants walked barefoot on treadmill, so that their foot motion can be tracked more
403 accurately. Another fact is that, no safety harness was applied for our participants,
404 which made them a bit worry and slow down during the experiment. To exclude the
405 effect of walking speed indicated by **Table 3** and **Table 4**, in present study, PWS was
406 considered as a covariate during the statistical analysis. Additionally, the participants
407 were asked to walk upward on the treadmill at gentle grades, as this walking condition
408 is a safer and more common activity of daily living. Still, walking on steeper slopes
409 may be used as a perturbation of normal locomotion (Lay, 2005; Lay et al., 2007), so
410 that the capacity of the joint/segment to recover from this perturbation can be further
411 investigated. When safety is secured (, e.g. with a harness), the downward slope walking
412 should also be investigated in future work to provide more insight into its gait stability,
413 and can be considered as a promising training condition as well. More pre-experiment
414 trainings may help the participants overcome not only the difficulties in practical
415 experience but also the fear of falling. Furthermore, a larger study could be proposed
416 to examine whether applying speed constrains during training may provide a challenge
417 for gait stability among the elderly or patients during BSW as the BSW is frequently
418 prescribed for those specific populations as a rehabilitation treatment.

419

420

CONCLUSIONS

421 The local dynamic stability of the human locomotion during upslope walking was
422 challenged by the backward walking direction or increasing slope grades. As for BUW,
423 the backward walking direction challenged the local dynamic stability of the motion of
424 lower extremity joints, while the increasing grade imposed large challenges on the
425 stability of the trunk motion. Therefore, BUW can be considered as a training tool for
426 the stability of both upper and lower body motion during gait.

427

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431

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496

Tables

497 **Table 1 PWS and stride length during FUW and BUW at 0% -15% grade, mean (SD)**

	FUW				BUW			
	0%	5%	10%	15%	0%	5%	10%	15%
PWS (m/s)	0.73 (0.10)	0.72 (0.09)	0.71 (0.07) ^a	0.71 (0.08) ^b	0.49 (0.05) ^{#,c}	0.47 (0.05) [#]	0.47 (0.09) [#]	0.47 (0.06) [#]
Stride length (m)	0.83 (0.17)	0.81 (0.16)	0.75 (0.12) ^a	0.74 (0.13) ^b	0.80 (0.11)	0.79 (0.13)	0.77 (0.12)	0.74 (0.12) ^d

498 [#]*p* < .050 for FUW compared to BUW within the grade condition

499 ^a*p* < .050 for 0%, 5% grade compared to 10% grade within the direction condition

500 ^b*p* < .050 for 0%, 5% grade compared to 15% grade within the direction condition

501 ^c*p* < .050 for 0%grade compared to 5%, 10% and 15% grade within the direction
502 condition

503 ^d*p* < .050 for 0%, 5% and 10% grade compared to 15% grade within the direction
504 condition

505

506 Table 2 Results of statistical analysis for the effect of walking direction/slope grade on
 507 λ_S

		Effect of walking direction		Effect of slope grade		Interaction effect	
		<i>F</i> (1 , 15)	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> (3 , 45)	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> (3 , 45)	<i>p</i>
Hip	FE Angle	5.01	.026*	3.39	.020*	2.11	.102
	AB/AD Angle	0.79	.370	5.75	.001*	0.69	.560
	RT Angle	4.68	.047*	6.87	< .001*	1.19	.315
Knee	FE Angle	3.28	.064	2.99	.043*	0.99	.398
	AB/AD Angle	9.13	.009*	5.97	< .001*	2.48	.064
	RT Angle	7.12	.015*	5.58	.002*	0.56	.642
Ankle	FE Angle	3.81	.053	1.89	.138	0.15	.928
	AB/AD Angle	16.47	.001*	2.89	.048*	0.72	.544
	RT Angle	6.23	.024*	2.87	.049*	1.58	.198
Trunk	AP Velocity	2.05	.147	2.96	.044*	0.26	.851
	ML Velocity	0.58	.446	4.28	.006*	0.05	.985
	VT Velocity	5.30	.033*	16.55	< .001*	0.67	.571

508 **p* < .050 was set as significant level

509

510 Table 3 Relationship between PWS and λ_S with the intercept (*a*), regression coefficients
 511 (*b*) and their standard errors (s.e.)

			λ_S		
			<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
			(s.e.)	(s.e.)	
PWS during FUW (m/s)		FE angle	3.560 (0.123)	-1.719 (0.154)	<.001*
	Lower extremity joints	AB/AD angle	3.251 (0.133)	-1.717 (0.166)	<.001*
		RT angle	2.645 (0.124)	-1.416 (0.156)	<.001*
		AP velocity	3.774 (0.169)	-1.850 (0.211)	<.001*
	Trunk	ML velocity	3.169 (0.238)	-1.458 (0.298)	<.001*
		VT velocity	2.970 (0.209)	-1.445 (0.263)	<.001*
	PWS during BUW (m/s)		FE angle	3.578 (0.149)	-1.753 (0.191)
Lower extremity joints		AB/AD angle	3.358 (0.130)	-1.695 (0.166)	<.001*
		RT angle	3.088 (0.173)	-1.466 (0.221)	<.001*
		AP velocity	3.889 (0.292)	-1.815 (0.367)	<.001*
Trunk		ML velocity	3.670 (0.261)	-1.524 (0.334)	<.001*
		VT velocity	2.899 (0.252)	-1.310 (0.322)	<.001*

512 The models used was $\lambda_S = a + b \times \text{PWS}$

513 * Significant relationship between walking speed and local dynamic stability ($p < .050$)

514

515 Table 4 Relationship between PWS and MeanSD with the intercept (*a*), regression
 516 coefficients (*b*) and their standard errors (s.e.)

			MeanSD (Deg or m/s)		
			<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
			(s.e.)	(s.e.)	
PWS during FUW (m/s)		FE angle	2.133 (0.539)	0.253 (0.800)	.329
	Lower extremity joints	AB/AD angle	1.276 (0.282)	0.122 (0.354)	.731
		RT angle	1.171 (0.643)	0.205 (0.257)	.134
		AP velocity	3.144 (0.857)	1.207 (1.076)	.267
	Trunk ($\times 10^{-2}$)	ML velocity	2.166 (0.683)	1.300 (0.879)	.146
		VT velocity	1.983 (0.643)	1.257 (0.811)	.128
	PWS during BUW (m/s)		FE angle	2.918 (1.002)	0.677 (1.283)
Lower extremity joints		AB/AD angle	1.146 (0.559)	0.515 (0.716)	.473
		RT angle	1.298 (0.232)	0.685 (0.301)	.024
		AP velocity	3.728 (0.918)	1.380 (1.176)	.247
Trunk ($\times 10^{-2}$)		ML velocity	2.010 (0.725)	1.360 (0.939)	.155
		VT velocity	1.562 (0.891)	1.487 (1.161)	.207

517 The models used was $\text{MeanSD} = a + b \times \text{PWC}$

518 * Significant relationship between walking speed and gait variability ($p < .050$)

519

520 Table 5 Relationship between λ_S and MeanSD with the intercept (a), regression
 521 coefficients (b) and their standard errors (s.e.)

			MeanSD		
			<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
			(s.e.)	(s.e.)	
λ_S during FUW	Lower extremity joints (Deg)	FE angle	2.064 (0.847)	0.687 (0.227)	< .001*
		AB/AD angle	2.085 (0.245)	0.374 (0.126)	.003*
	Trunk (m/s×10 ⁻²)	RT angle	2.401 (0.210)	-0.397 (0.112)	.070
		AP velocity	6.769 (1.136)	0.809 (0.372)	< .001*
		ML velocity	2.609 (1.294)	0.246 (0.081)	.004*
		VT velocity	0.628 (0.092)	1.323 (0.460)	.006*
λ_S during BUW	Lower extremity joints (Deg)	FE angle	6.358 (0.882)	-1.317 (0.392)	< .001*
		AB/AD angle	2.929 (0.486)	-0.658 (0.234)	.006*
	Trunk (m/s×10 ⁻²)	RT angle	2.499 (0.201)	-0.317 (0.101)	.002*
		AP velocity	12.153 (1.716)	-2.431 (0.691)	< .001*
		ML velocity	7.255 (0.885)	-1.763 (0.383)	.092
		VT velocity	6.436 (1.150)	-1.647 (0.551)	.664

522 The models used was MeanSD = $a + b \times \lambda_S$

523 * Significant relationship between local dynamic stability and gait variability ($p < .050$)

524

Figure Captions

525

526 **Figure 1** — Illustration in all views of marker displacement

527

528 **Figure 2** — Examples of a representative set of hip flexion-extension (FE) angle data.

529 (a) Original time-series within 100 strides in 15570 seconds; (b) Normalized time-series

530 within 100 strides into 10 thousands samples; (c) Normalized data embedded in a 3D

531 state space (with time delay, i.e. τ of 10, and the real embedding dimension of 5), and

532 (d) Average logarithmic divergence vs. stride. The best fit linear slope of the logarithmic

533 relation from 0 to 0.5 stride represents λ_S .

534

535 **Figure 3** — Examples of a set of hip flexion-extension (FE) angle data across the

536 normalized stride duration. (a) Normalized time-series of 100 separate strides, and (b)

537 Mean (solid line) \pm SD (dash lines) for data shown in (a).

538

539 **Figure 4** — The effects of the walking direction and slope grade on λ_S for the (a) FE,

540 (b) AB/AD, and (c) RT motion of the lower extremity joints, and (a) AP, (b) ML, and (c)

541 VT motion of the trunk (# indicates significant direction effect, while * indicates

542 significant grade effect, $p < .050$, respectively)

543

544 **Figure 5** — The effects of the walking direction and slope grade on MeanSD for the (a)

545 FE, (b) AB/AD, and (c) RT motion of the lower extremity joints, and (a) AP, (b) ML,

546 and (c) VT motion of the trunk (# indicates significant direction effect, while * indicates

547 significant grade effect, $p < .050$, respectively)

548

550 Appendix Table The effects of the walking direction and slope grade on the total range
 551 of motion of the lower extremity joints, mean (SD)

	Total range of motion during FUW (deg)					Total range of motion during BUW (deg)				
	0%	5%	10%	15%		0%	5%	10%	15%	
Hip	FE Angle	35.99 (6.26)	38.34 (5.83) ^e	40.07 (5.50) ^a	42.77 (5.03) ^d	30.37 (6.69) [#]	27.71 (6.03) ^{#,e}	23.82 (7.15) ^{#,a}	19.86 (6.50) ^{#,d}	
	AB/AD Angle	8.07 (1.91)	8.38 (1.58)	8.36 (1.26)	8.09 (0.99)	5.87 (1.43) [#]	6.25 (1.75) [#]	6.75 (1.80) [#]	6.33 (1.60) [#]	
	RT Angle	14.12 (3.30)	14.58 (3.165)	14.61 (3.06)	13.96 (2.95)	9.85 (3.14) [#]	9.26 (2.89) [#]	9.37 (2.46) [#]	8.55 (1.97) ^{#,d}	
Knee	FE Angle	60.44 (9.78)	59.60 (8.72)	59.59 (9.04)	61.07 (9.47)	51.12 (11.61) [#]	51.51 (10.81) [#]	52.28 (11.20) [#]	53.03 (8.98) [#]	
	AB/AD Angle	10.63 (4.04)	11.15 (3.93)	12.87 (4.20) ^a	13.02 (3.94) ^b	8.64 (3.53) [#]	8.18 (3.13) [#]	7.62 (3.16) [#]	7.96 (3.00) [#]	
	RT Angle	15.22 (2.80)	14.34 (3.18)	13.79 (3.07) ^c	12.87 (2.89) ^b	13.05 (3.79) [#]	12.29 (3.61) [#]	11.97 (3.87) ^c	11.37 (3.87) ^b	
Ankle	FE Angle	17.49 (4.09)	16.93 (5.01)	17.90 (5.52)	19.04 (6.03)	25.23 (4.39) [#]	28.01 (5.63) ^{#,e}	30.64 (5.41) ^{#,a}	32.12 (5.75) ^{#,d}	
	AB/AD Angle	18.56 (3.18)	18.63 (3.71)	18.87 (4.04)	19.27 (4.24)	13.26 (2.77) [#]	13.00 (3.32) [#]	12.56 (3.23) [#]	12.44 (2.89) [#]	
	RT Angle	10.41 (2.83)	10.67 (3.73)	10.64 (3.47)	10.30 (3.16)	10.45 (3.23)	10.69 (3.01)	11.61 (2.95) ^a	11.64 (2.75) ^b	

552 [#] $p < .050$ for FUW compared to BUW within the grade condition

553 ^a $p < .010$ for 0%, 5% grade compared to 10% incline within the direction condition

554 ^b $p < .050$ for 0%, 5% grade compared to 15% incline within the direction condition

555 ^c $p < .050$ for 0% grade compared to 10% incline within the direction condition

556 ^d $p < .050$ for 0%, 5%, 10% grade compared to 15% incline within the direction condition

557 ^e $p < .050$ for 0% grade compared to 5% incline within the direction condition

559

[Insert **Appendix Figure**]

560 **Appendix Figure** — Scatterplots of λ_S against PWS for each of (a) the walking
561 direction conditions, and (b) the slope grade conditions, for the trunk segment in
562 anterior-posterior (AP) direction. Each symbol representing the λ_S of a particular
563 participant. Lines with different dash types are the linear regression slopes for the
564 particular condition.

Figures

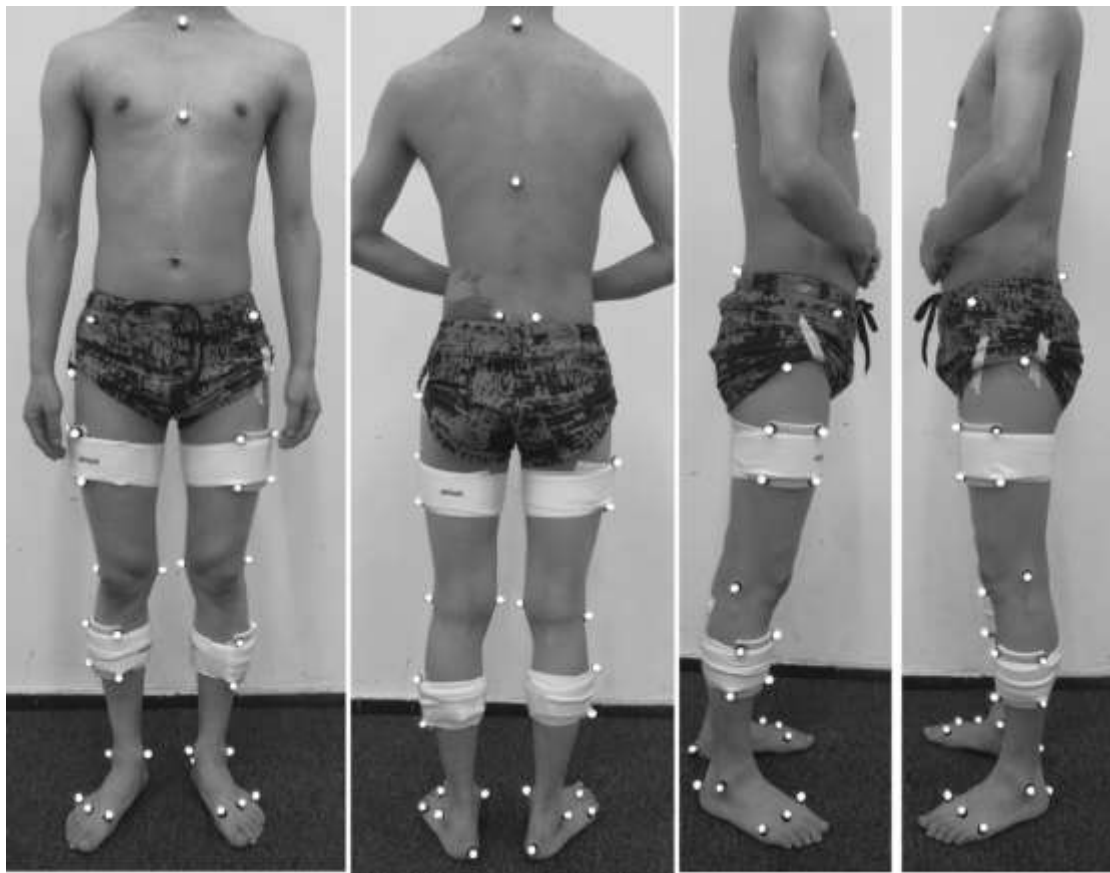
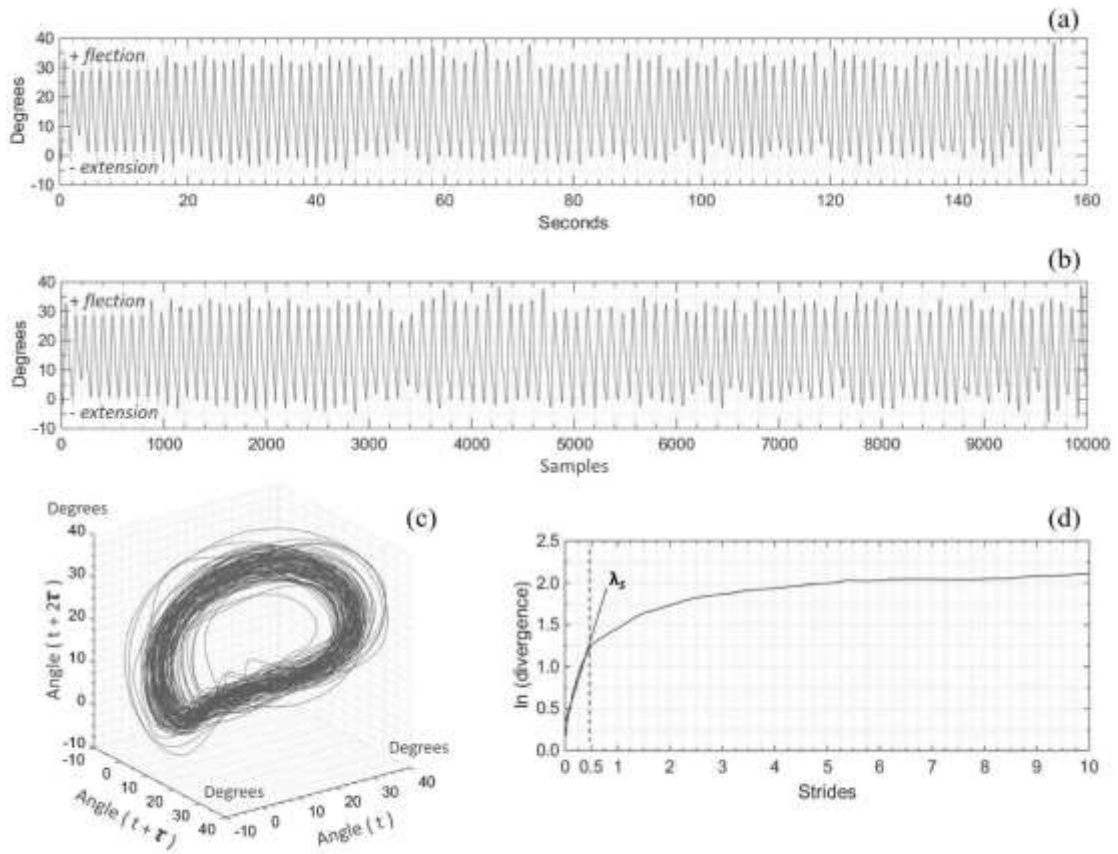


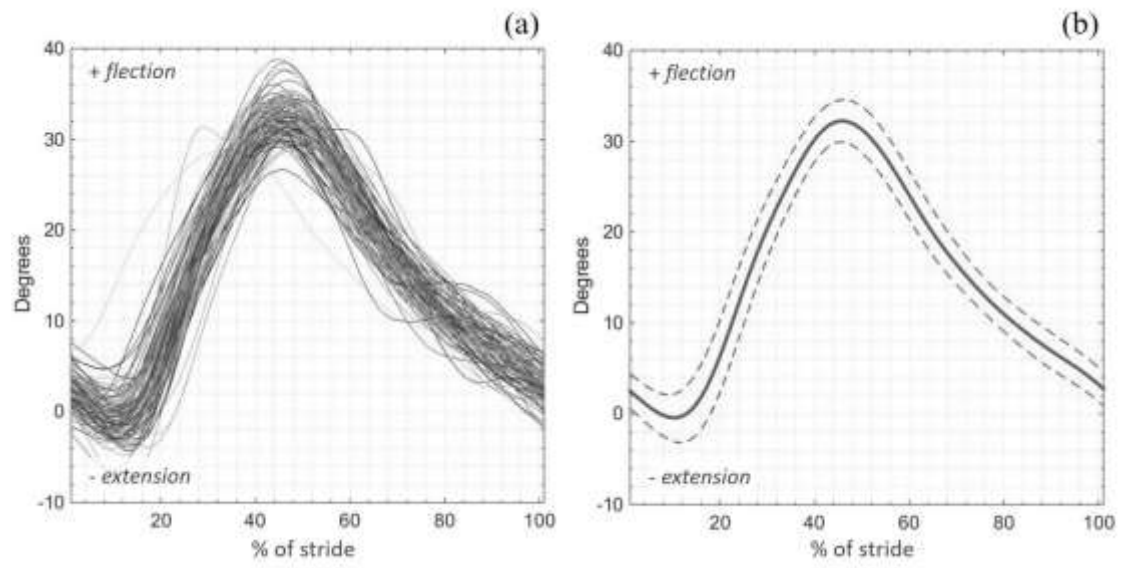
Figure 1



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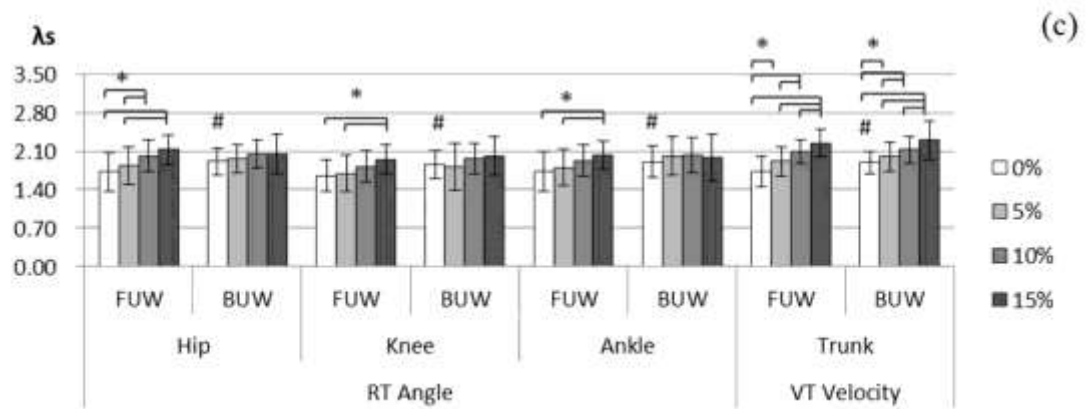
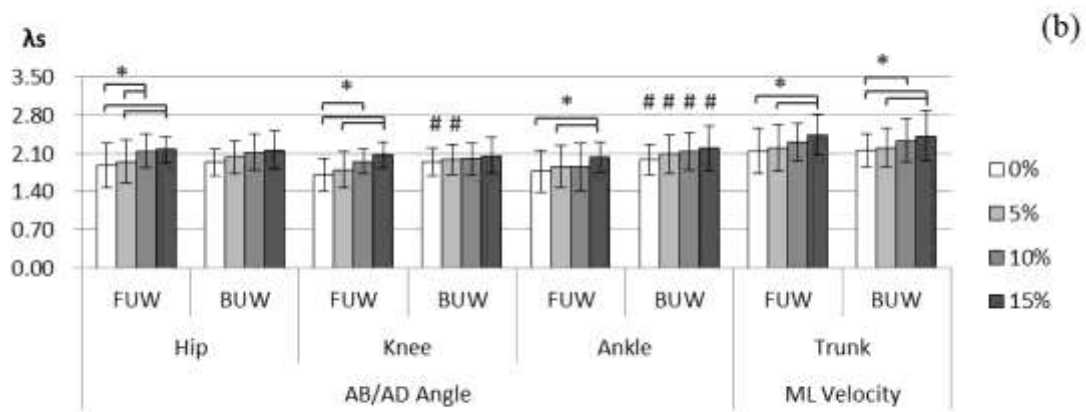
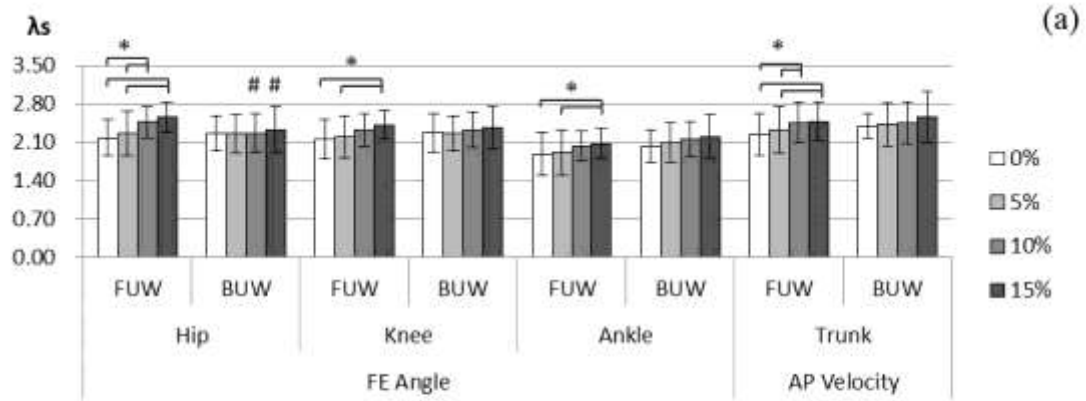
Figure 2



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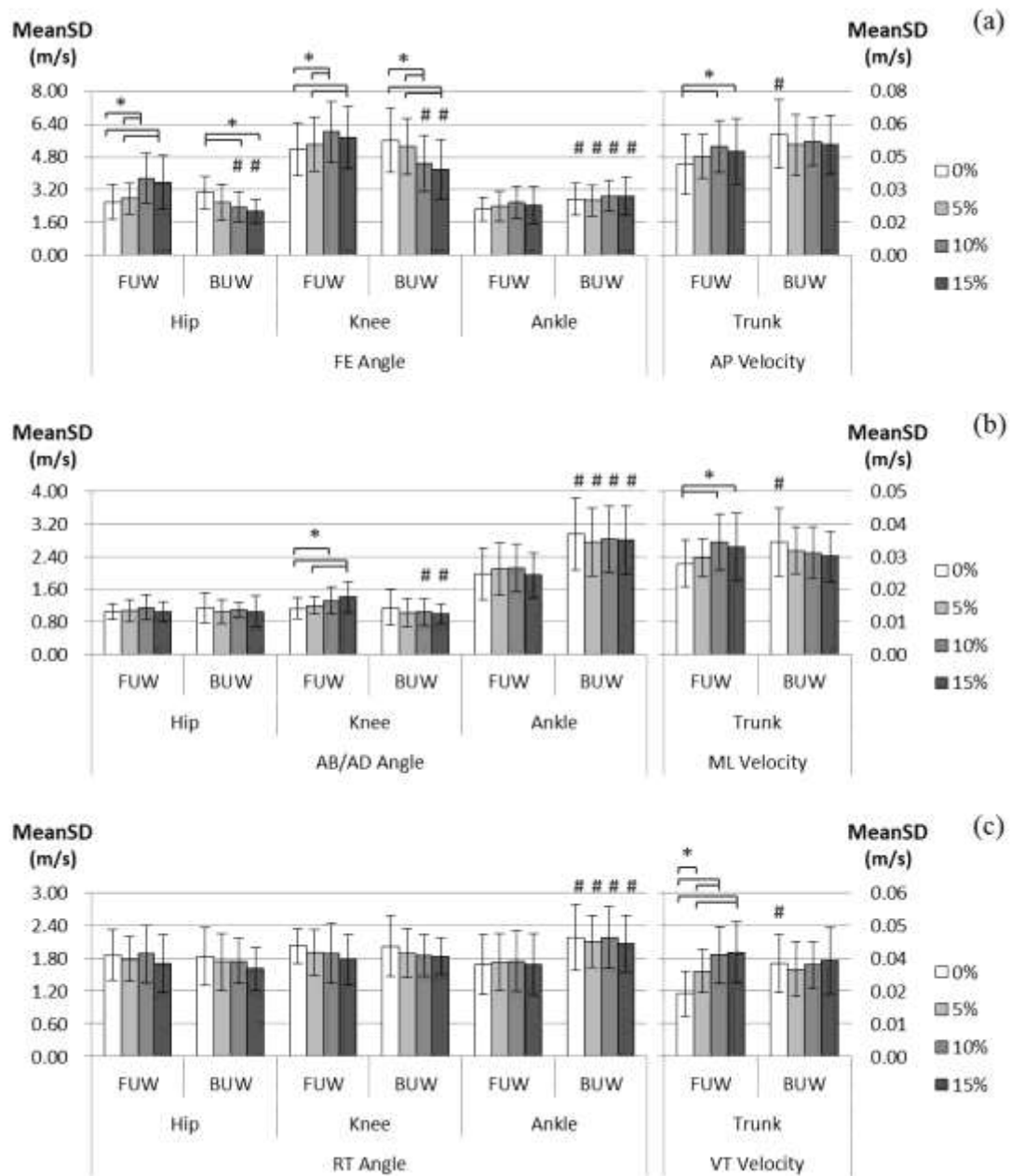
Figure 3



572

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Figure 4



574

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Figure 5

Appendix Figure

