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1 ORIGINAL ARTICLE

2

3 INDIVIDUALS WITH UNILATERAL TRANSTIBIAL AMPUTATION EXHIBIT
4 REDUCED ACCURACY AND PRECISION DURING A TARGETED STEPPING TASK

5

6 FOSTER, R. J^{1*}, HALEY, M. R¹ TALBOT, I. W², De ASHA, A. R^{3, 4}, BARNETT, C. T⁴

7

8 ¹ Research Institute for Sport and Exercise Science, Tom Reilly Building, Byrom Street,
9 Liverpool John Moores University, Liverpool, L3 3AF, UK

10 ² Pace Rehabilitation Limited, 7 Bredbury Park Way, Bredbury, Stockport, Cheshire, SK6
11 2SN, UK

12 ³ C-Motion, Inc., 20030 Century Blvd, Suite 104A Germantown, MD 20874 USA.

13 ⁴ School of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham, NG11
14 8NF, UK.

15

16 *Corresponding author: Richard J Foster

17 Email: R.J.Foster@ljmu.ac.uk

18 Tel: +44 (0)151 904 6258

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 Accurate foot placement is important for dynamic balance during activities of daily living.
23 Disruption of sensory information and prosthetic componentry characteristics may result
24 in increased locomotor task difficulty for individuals with lower limb amputation. This study
25 investigated the accuracy and precision of prosthetic and intact foot placement during a
26 targeted stepping task in individuals with unilateral transtibial amputation (IUTAs; N=8,
27 47 ± 13 yrs), compared to the preferred foot of control participant's (N=8, 33 ± 15 yrs).
28 Participants walked along a 10-metre walkway, placing their foot into a rectangular floor-
29 based target with dimensions normalised to a percentage of participant's foot length and
30 width; 'standard' = $150\% \times 150\%$, 'wide' = $150\% \times 200\%$, 'long' = $200\% \times 150\%$. Foot
31 placement accuracy (relative distance between foot and target centre), precision
32 (between-trial variability), and foot-reach kinematics were determined for each limb and
33 target, using three-dimensional motion capture. A significant foot-by-target interaction
34 revealed less mediolateral foot placement accuracy for IUTAs in the wide target, which
35 was significantly less accurate for the intact (28 ± 12 mm) compared to prosthetic foot
36 (16 ± 14 mm). Intact peak foot velocity (4.6 ± 0.8 m.s⁻¹) was greater than the prosthetic foot
37 (4.5 ± 0.8 m.s⁻¹) for all targets. Controls were more accurate and precise than IUTAs,
38 regardless of target size. Less accurate and precise intact foot placement in IUTAs,
39 coupled with a faster moving intact limb, is likely due to several factors including reduced
40 proprioceptive feedback and active control during prosthetic limb single stance. This could
41 affect activities of daily living where foot placement is critical, such as negotiating cluttered
42 travel paths or obstacles whilst maintaining balance.

43

44 **Key Words**

45 Transtibial Amputation, Prosthesis User, Foot Placement, Locomotion, Single Limb
46 Support, Stance Phase Stability

47

48 **1.0 Introduction**

49 Lower limb amputation has a number of physical effects that reduce individuals' mobility.
50 As individuals regain locomotor function, they must adapt to their altered musculoskeletal
51 system and subsequent sensory changes, as well as the mechanical constraints of the
52 prosthetic devices they use. This leads individuals with lower limb amputation to develop
53 locomotor adaptations (C. Barnett et al., 2009; Hak, Van Dieën, Van Der Wurff, & Houdijk,
54 2014). As a result, maintaining balance can be challenging for individuals with lower limb
55 amputation, which is reflected by their increased risk of falling (Miller, Speechley, &
56 Deathe, 2001).

57 The positioning of the foot relative to the body's centre of mass during stance plays a
58 crucial role in maintaining stability during gait (Bruijn & Van Dieën, 2018). The margins of
59 stability concept, which measures locomotor stability using centre of mass and lower limb
60 dynamics (Hof, Gazendam, & Sinke, 2005), has been used to reveal that the step length
61 asymmetry reported previously in individuals with unilateral transtibial amputation
62 (IUTAs), may serve a functional purpose in maintaining dynamic stability (C. Barnett et
63 al., 2009; Hak et al., 2014). This raises the possibility that errors in foot placement could
64 be detrimental to dynamic stability in this population. This may be particularly pertinent
65 when completing activities of daily living (ADLs) where the margin for error in foot
66 placement is small, such as negotiating cluttered travel paths or avoiding and/or stepping
67 over obstacles.

68 Indeed, when stepping up to or down from a kerb, IUTAs displayed specific lead limb
69 preferences; when stepping down, IUTAs tended to lead with their affected limb and when
70 stepping up, tended to lead with their intact limb (C. T. Barnett, Polman, & Vanicek, 2014)
71 with authors suggesting that IUTAs utilised the improved capacity (e.g. greater ankle/knee
72 mobility and power generation/absorption) of the intact limb to control these movements.
73 When crossing an obstacle during gait, IUTAs tended to walk more slowly and position
74 their feet closer to the obstacle prior to and after crossing it compared to control
75 participants (Buckley, De Asha, Johnson, & Beggs, 2013). This appeared to ensure
76 successful toe and heel clearance over the obstacle. Considering that lateral stability is
77 closely related to energetic cost during gait (Bruijn & Van Dieën, 2018; Donelan, Shipman,
78 Kram, & Kuo, 2004) and individuals with lower limb amputation have reduced mediolateral
79 stability (Beltran, Dingwell, & Wilken, 2014; Gates, Scott, Wilken, & Dingwell, 2013), foot
80 placement and subsequent dynamic stability, may also have relevance for the increased
81 energetic cost of walking in this population (Gailey et al., 1994).

82 Despite investigations of locomotor adaptations from a biomechanical perspective, one
83 key issue that remains unexplored is that of targeted foot positioning during ADLs. The
84 combination of changes to the musculoskeletal system, the altered sensory information
85 received by the individual and the prosthetic device mechanical characteristics are likely
86 to negatively influence IUTAs' targeted stepping ability. If established, this may explain
87 some of the reliance on the intact limb during locomotor behaviour and has relevance to
88 falls risk reported in this population. Investigating how the control of the lower limbs
89 prosthetic devices affect the accuracy (an ability to place the foot in the desired location)
90 and precision (the variability of foot placement from one attempt to the next) of foot
91 placement during locomotor tasks would go some way in aiding this understanding.
92 Variability in foot placement can be modulated based on surface area availability, with

93 precise foot placements on a narrow walkway leading to a decrease in step-width
94 variability in healthy adults (Verrel, Lövdén, & Lindenberger, 2010). Furthermore, online
95 alterations to the trajectory of the foot when stepping into floor-based targets can improve
96 the accuracy of foot placement in healthy participants (Reynolds & Day, 2005). Thus, the
97 existing evidence base suggests adaptability is desirable during targeted stepping.
98 However, it is not known if and how IUTAs modulate accuracy and precision of foot
99 placement during targeted stepping with either their prosthetic or intact limb.
100 Understanding how well individuals with lower limb amputation are able to perform
101 targeted stepping with the affected and intact limbs has relevance for rehabilitation in
102 terms of the locomotor tasks prescribed and practiced. This also has relevance for
103 prosthetic prescription in terms of device characteristics and their influence on targeted
104 stepping performance. Both of these issues are also likely to feed into an individual's
105 balance ability and thus, their subsequent falls risk.

106 This study aimed to determine the accuracy and precision of IUTAs' prosthetic and intact
107 foot placement when stepping into a floor-based target, in comparison to control
108 participants' preferred foot placement. It was hypothesised (1) that IUTAs would show
109 increased foot placement error (reduced accuracy and precision) on the intact compared
110 to the prosthetic foot when stepping into a target. This hypothesis was derived from the
111 previously reported reliance on intact limb function during single limb stance during
112 stepping behaviour. This may suggest that the stance limb and its ability to function during
113 single limb support may be related to and reflected in targeted stepping performance. It
114 was also hypothesised (2) that a wider or longer floor-based target would result in
115 increased foot placement error on the intact compared to the prosthetic foot in the medial-
116 lateral and anterior-posterior directions respectively, given the increased margin for error.

117 Finally, it was hypothesised (3) that IUTAs would show increased foot placement error in
118 both feet (prosthetic and intact) when compared to healthy control participants.

119

120 **2.0 Methods**

121 **2.1 Participants**

122 Eight healthy IUTAs and eight healthy control participants (Table 1) consented to take
123 part in the study. All IUTAs were categorized as being at least K3 on the Medicare
124 Functional Classification scale and wore their habitual prosthesis throughout data
125 collection. IUTAs undergoing amputation less than six months previously, or with ongoing
126 medical issues related to the residual limb (e.g. sores or blisters), and those with
127 cardiovascular disorders, neurological, visual or balance impairments were excluded from
128 taking part. The tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki were observed and institutional
129 ethical approval was obtained.

130 **TABLE 1**

131 **2.2 Protocol**

132 Participants walked along a straight 10-metre walkway at a self-selected speed, placing
133 their foot into a rectangular floor-based target positioned halfway along the walkway
134 (Figure 1a). IUTAs were asked to accurately place their prosthetic or intact foot in the
135 centre of the target, and control participants were asked to accurately place their preferred
136 foot in the centre of the target only. No guidance was provided regarding which part of
137 the foot should be used to aim for the target centre. Three rectangular floor-based targets
138 with dimensions normalised to a percentage of each participant's foot length and width
139 with shoes on were used (Figure 1b). The three target sizes were; 150% (l) x 150% (w) -

140 'standard', (2) 150% (l) x 200% (w) - 'wide', (3) 200% (l) x 150% (w) - 'long' (Figure 1b).
141 Target sizes were selected to represent scenarios in ADLs where foot placement is
142 confined to small surface areas and precision is critical to negotiate the environment
143 successfully (e.g. cluttered environments, step/stair treads).

144 A triangular cluster of three reflective markers (14mm diameter) were placed on each
145 shoe over the forefoot to track virtual landmarks created by a digitizing wand (C-Motion,
146 Germantown, MD, USA) at the anterior-inferior (toe-tip) and posterior-inferior (heel-tip)
147 point of each shoe. Reflective markers were positioned on each corner of the floor-based
148 target to determine their position within the capture volume. A reflective marker was also
149 positioned on the anterior thoracic trunk segment.

150 Participants were randomly allocated one of three starting positions that varied by ± 25 mm
151 to begin each trial. This strategy counters the use of somatosensory feedback regarding
152 target location that can be gained when completing multiple trials that are needed to allow
153 comparison of conditions (Chapman, Scally, & Buckley, 2012). Kinematic data were
154 captured at 100Hz using ten infra-red cameras (Qualisys, Gothenburg, Sweden) while
155 participants completed three trials of each limb and target condition. Presentation of target
156 size was fully randomised on a trial-by-trial basis for a complete block of prosthetic or
157 intact foot trials (9 trials for each side, IUTAs only), and limb order was counterbalanced
158 between participants. Only three trials were used to avoid potential fatigue in IUTAs when
159 completing the protocol.

160 **2.3 Data analysis**

161 Marker trajectories were labelled, gap filled, then exported as .c3d files for further analysis
162 in Visual3D (C-Motion, Germantown, MD, USA). All trajectories were smoothed using a
163 bi-pass second order Butterworth low-pass digital filter with a 6 Hz cut-off.

164 **2.3.1 Foot placement variables**

165 Foot placement within the target was determined as the relative distance between the
166 foot centre and target centre when the foot was flat inside the target (Figure 1c). Foot
167 centre was calculated as the mid-point along the vector created between the toe-tip and
168 heel-tip. Target centre was calculated as the mean of the sum of the four anteroposterior
169 and mediolateral reflective marker coordinates positioned on each corner of the target.
170 The following foot placement variables were calculated in the anteroposterior and
171 mediolateral direction separately; Absolute error; the mean scalar foot position distance
172 (regardless of direction) relative to the target centre, reflecting foot placement accuracy.
173 Constant error; the mean vector foot position displacement (\pm) relative to the target,
174 reflecting foot placement bias. Variable error; the variability (one standard deviation) of
175 constant error across trial repetitions, reflecting precision of foot placement (Chapman et
176 al., 2012; Reynolds & Day, 2005). Positive anteroposterior and mediolateral constant
177 error values indicate the foot was positioned anterior and lateral of the target centre,
178 respectively. Larger values reflected increased error across all foot placement variables.

179 **2.3.2 Stepping kinematics and walking velocity**

180 Initial foot-reach and terminal foot-reach (Chapman et al., 2012) determined the timing of
181 the foot stepping movement into the target (see figure 2), quantifying potential foot
182 trajectory adjustments between foot and target conditions. Approach velocity was
183 calculated as the mean horizontal velocity of the trunk marker, from the initiation of the
184 trial at the beginning of the 10-metre walkway to the instant of touch-down within the
185 target. Walking velocity was calculated over the duration of the whole trial, from start to
186 finish (Figure 1a).

187 **FIGURE 1**

188 **FIGURE 2**

189 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

190 Group mean data were used for statistical analysis. Differences in group characteristics
191 (age, height, mass, foot length, foot width) were analysed using an independent samples
192 t-test (SPSS 24.0 for Windows, Chicago, IL, USA). Residual plots were used to visually
193 inspect all variables for normality. Foot placement variables for one control participant
194 were removed for all three target conditions due to outlying data points that exceeded
195 three standard deviations of the remaining group mean.

196 To address hypotheses (1) and (2), a two-way repeated measures analysis of variance
197 (ANOVA) (SPSS 24.0 for Windows, Chicago, IL, USA) determined differences within
198 IUTAs, with foot (prosthetic and intact) and target size (standard, wide, long) as repeated
199 factors. To address hypothesis (3), we performed two separate two-way mixed design
200 ANOVA analyses; (a) to determine the difference between the prosthetic and control foot
201 for each target size, and (b) to determine the difference between the intact and control
202 foot for each target size. Post-hoc analyses were performed using a Bonferroni correction
203 and level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

204

205 **3.0 Results**

206 There were no significant differences between the IUTA and control participants based
207 on age ($p=0.083$), height ($p=0.179$), mass ($p=0.259$), foot length ($p=0.106$) or foot width
208 ($p=0.192$) (Table 1). There were no significant differences for approach or walking velocity
209 within or between groups and target size.

210 **3.1 Intact and prosthetic foot comparisons in IUTAs**

211 Across all target sizes, intact foot mediolateral absolute error ($18\pm 12\text{mm}$) was increased
212 compared to the prosthetic foot ($12\pm 9\text{mm}$, $F_{1,7}=7.104$, $P=0.032$, $\eta_p^2=0.504$) (Table 2).
213 There were no differences in anteroposterior absolute error or anteroposterior and
214 mediolateral constant and variable error when comparing between the intact and
215 prosthetic feet. Intact foot peak reach velocity ($4.6\pm 0.8\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) was greater than the
216 prosthetic foot across all target sizes ($4.5\pm 0.8\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, $F_{1,7}=15.909$, $P=0.005$, $\eta_p^2=0.694$),
217 but there were no significant differences in initial or terminal foot reach between feet.

218 **3.2 Target size manipulation effects on the intact and prosthetic foot in IUTAs**

219 A significant foot-by-target interaction indicated both prosthetic and intact foot
220 mediolateral absolute error was increased in the wide ($22\pm 14\text{mm}$) compared to the
221 standard ($11\pm 6\text{mm}$) and long target ($12\pm 6\text{mm}$), but the increased absolute error was
222 significantly greater for the intact ($28\pm 12\text{mm}$) compared to the prosthetic foot ($16\pm 14\text{mm}$,
223 $F_{2,14}=3.949$, $P=0.044$, $\eta_p^2=0.361$) (Table 2). For all target sizes, IUTAs placed their feet
224 medial of the centre (Figure 3), but constant error increased when stepping in the wide
225 ($18\pm 18\text{mm}$) compared to the standard ($7\pm 10\text{mm}$) and long target ($8\pm 10\text{mm}$, $F_{2,14}=11.709$,
226 $P<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.626$). There were no differences in anteroposterior absolute, constant or
227 variable error, or mediolateral variable error, when comparing between target sizes for
228 both the prosthetic and intact foot. Terminal foot reach was shorter for the wide
229 ($0.241\pm 0.030\text{s}$) in comparison to the long target ($0.253\pm 0.031\text{s}$, $F_{1,310,9.170}=8.395$,
230 $P=0.013$, $\eta_p^2=0.545$), but there were no significant differences in initial foot reach and
231 peak reach velocity across target sizes.

232 **3.3 Comparison between IUTAs and the control group**

233 Across all target sizes, control foot anteroposterior absolute error was decreased
234 ($20\pm 9\text{mm}$) compared to IUTAs intact ($39\pm 18\text{mm}$, $F_{1,14}=12.754$, $P=0.003$, $\eta_p^2=0.477$) and

235 prosthetic foot ($32\pm 15\text{mm}$, $F_{1, 14}=7.045$, $P=0.019$, $\eta_p^2=0.335$). Constant error was
236 increased in the anteroposterior direction for IUTAs with both feet significantly
237 overstepping the target centre (intact; $32\pm 28\text{mm}$, $F_{1, 14}=5.575$, $P=0.033$, $\eta_p^2=0.285$,
238 prosthetic; $27\pm 20\text{mm}$, $F_{1, 14}=6.754$, $P=0.021$, $\eta_p^2=0.325$) compared to the control foot
239 ($9\pm 17\text{mm}$) (Figure 3). IUTAs exhibited increased variable error in the anteroposterior
240 direction when placing their intact ($22\pm 10\text{mm}$, $F_{1, 14}=8.227$, $P=0.012$, $\eta_p^2=0.370$) and
241 prosthetic foot ($20\pm 10\text{mm}$, $F_{1, 14}=5.788$, $P=0.031$, $\eta_p^2=0.293$) in the centre of the target
242 compared to the control foot ($14\pm 9\text{mm}$).

243 A significant foot-by-target interaction indicated that mediolateral absolute error was
244 larger in magnitude for the intact and control foot in the wide ($20\pm 13\text{mm}$) compared to the
245 standard ($11\pm 5\text{mm}$) and long targets ($11\pm 6\text{mm}$), but the increased absolute error in the
246 wide target was significantly greater for the intact foot ($28\pm 12\text{mm}$) compared to the control
247 foot ($14\pm 8\text{mm}$, $F_{1.952, 27.324}=7.410$, $P=0.003$, $\eta_p^2=0.346$).

248 There was a significant foot-by-target interaction effect for mediolateral constant error,
249 whereby the intact and control foot were placed more medial of the target centre for the
250 wide ($19\pm 15\text{mm}$) compared to the standard ($9\pm 9\text{mm}$) and long ($9\pm 9\text{mm}$) target, but intact
251 foot constant error was significantly increased in the wide target ($-25\pm 17\text{mm}$) compared
252 to the control foot ($-12\pm 10\text{mm}$, $F_{2, 28}=4.985$, $P=0.015$, $\eta_p^2=0.263$). IUTAs exhibited
253 increased variable error when placing their intact foot ($10\pm 7\text{mm}$) in the centre of the target
254 compared to the control foot ($6\pm 4\text{mm}$, $F_{1, 14}=9.379$, $P=0.008$, $\eta_p^2=0.401$). There were no
255 significant differences in mediolateral absolute, constant or variable error between the
256 prosthetic and control foot.

257 Initial foot reach was shorter for the control ($0.168\pm 0.014\text{s}$) compared to the prosthetic
258 foot ($0.180\pm 0.009\text{s}$, $F_{1, 14}=4.714$, $P=0.048$, $\eta_p^2=0.252$). Initial foot reach was also

259 significantly shorter for the wide ($0.171\pm 0.013s$) compared to the long target
260 ($0.178\pm 0.012s$, $F_{2, 28}=4.795$, $P=0.016$, $\eta_p^2=0.255$) for both the control and prosthetic feet.
261 Terminal foot reach was significantly longer for the control ($0.279\pm 0.045s$) compared to
262 the intact foot ($0.235\pm 0.020s$, $F_{1, 14}=6.132$, $P=0.027$, $\eta_p^2=0.305$). A main effect of target
263 indicated that terminal foot reach was shorter for the wide ($0.251\pm 0.039s$) in comparison
264 to the long target for both IUTAs and control participants ($0.264\pm 0.039s$, prosthetic-
265 control; $F_{2, 28}=8.497$, $P=0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.378$, intact-control; $F_{2, 28}=4.973$, $P=0.014$,
266 $\eta_p^2=0.262$). There were no significant differences in peak reach velocity for all feet and
267 target sizes.

268 **FIGURE 3**

269 **TABLE 2**

270 **4.0 Discussion**

271 The aim of the current study was to determine the accuracy and precision of IUTAs
272 prosthetic and intact foot placement when stepping into a floor-based target, when
273 compared to control participants. Generally, IUTAs exhibited increased foot placement
274 error (reduced accuracy and precision) when positioning their intact foot into the floor-
275 based target compared to their prosthetic foot and control participants preferred foot.

276 The hypothesis that (1) IUTAs would show increased foot placement error on the intact
277 compared to the prosthetic foot during targeted stepping, and (2) that a wider or longer
278 floor-based target would result in increased foot placement error on the intact compared
279 to the prosthetic foot were both partially supported. The hypothesis (3) that IUTAs would
280 show increased foot placement error in both limbs (prosthetic and intact) when compared
281 to healthy control participants was supported. Foot placement measures in the

282 anteroposterior direction did not differ between the prosthetic and intact foot of IUTAs but
283 control participants were more accurate and precise than both the prosthetic and intact
284 foot for all target sizes. For the majority of trials IUTAs and control participants
285 overstepped the target centre. On average, the control foot was positioned ~10mm and
286 both the prosthetic and intact foot were positioned ~30mm anterior of the target centre.
287 Despite previous literature demonstrating that asymmetries exist between limbs in IUTAs
288 during walking, with a decrease in intact step length (~5%) and forward foot placement
289 (~8%) compared to the prosthetic side (Hak et al., 2014), the present study findings
290 suggest IUTAs are able to modulate anteroposterior foot placement appropriately (i.e.
291 adjust for any asymmetry) in both feet when accuracy and precision are critical in order
292 to negotiate the environment successfully.

293 There were within- and between-group effects related to mediolateral foot placement.
294 Specifically, absolute and constant mediolateral foot placement error were increased with
295 the intact compared to the prosthetic foot, particularly when stepping into a wide target.
296 All foot placement measures were more accurate and precise for the control foot
297 compared to the intact foot, but not the prosthetic foot. That IUTAs intact foot placement
298 was worse than the prosthetic limb, may be related to the previously reported reliance on
299 the intact limb to control stepping to and from a raised surface (C. T. Barnett et al., 2014).
300 During single limb support on the affected side, the reduced capabilities of the residual
301 limb and mechanical constraints of the prosthetic device may limit IUTAs in adjusting
302 intact foot placement error. Conversely, intact limb single support may allow for continual,
303 accurate and precise adjustment of affected foot trajectory. Similarly, increased
304 mediolateral foot placement error in the intact limb may relate to well established effects
305 linking gait stability and the energetic cost of walking in IUTAs. Previous research has
306 demonstrated that IUTAs have an increased cost of walking when compared to matched

307 controls (Gailey et al., 1994). This is due to a number of factors including prosthetic
308 componentry (Schmalz, Blumentritt, & Jarasch, 2002), age (Esposito, Rodriguez,
309 Ràbago, & Wilken, 2014) and comorbidities (Torburn, Powers, Guitierrez, & Perry, 1995).
310 However, the lateral stability of gait has been shown to be closely related to the energetic
311 cost of walking (Bruijn & Van Dieën, 2018; Donelan et al., 2004) and IUTAs have been
312 shown to have reduced mediolateral gait stability (Beltran et al., 2014; Gates et al., 2013).
313 Therefore, if IUTAs are not able to place their feet accurately and precisely, particularly
314 when using the intact foot, then this may decrease the mediolateral stability of gait, which
315 may subsequently increase the energetic cost of walking. However, this hypothetical link,
316 whilst logical, requires further investigation. A key follow on question is then, what
317 underpins this inability to control foot placement in IUTAs? One explanation may be that
318 given mediolateral stability of gait requires sensory feedback (Donelan et al., 2004),
319 IUTAs foot placement is worse, potentially due to the sensory disruption resulting from
320 amputation surgery. This suggests that the preparation for and adjustments of foot
321 placement during swing, are more easily achieved when in single limb stance on the intact
322 limb. When in prosthetic single limb stance, increased intact foot placement error may
323 result from altered proprioceptive feedback, particularly from the residuum-socket
324 interface and control attributed to the prosthetic limb (Mak, Zhang, & Boone, 2001). IUTAs
325 tended to move the intact foot towards the target at a faster rate, reflected in greater peak
326 reach velocity for all target sizes. This increase may reflect a desire to initiate intact limb
327 stance as quickly as possible, as a result of prosthetic limb instability. In combination with
328 increased intact foot placement error, a faster moving intact foot suggests that there is a
329 speed-accuracy trade-off when completing the task, whereby faster steps into the floor-
330 based target exhibit greater endpoint error, which is similar to previous findings on visually
331 guided foot-targeting tasks (Chapman et al., 2012; Reynolds & Day, 2005). Although the

332 current study does not present data to show IUTAs are unstable during prosthetic single
333 limb stance, findings clearly relate to previous reports of IUTAs taking longer steps with
334 their prosthetic limb (C. Barnett et al., 2009; Hak et al., 2014) or a preference to lead with
335 the prosthetic limb when stepping down from a kerb (C. T. Barnett et al., 2014). Similarly,
336 the current data showing that as target size increases/widens, foot placement error was
337 increased may reflect IUTAs compromising accuracy and precision of the targeting intact
338 foot to focus more on overall gait function, hence the lack of change in walking speed
339 observed in the current study. IUTAs may therefore modulate their mediolateral intact foot
340 placement less where there is a greater surface area to step in/on, in favour of greater
341 stability by increasing step width. This affect may be problematic in situations where foot
342 placement quality is required and task execution time is reduced e.g. unplanned or
343 reactive side-stepping during locomotion.

344 **4.1 Limitations**

345 There are a number of limitations that should be considered when interpreting the results
346 of this study. Firstly, measures of foot placement performance were defined using the
347 geometric centre of the foot. However, it is not clear how participants, particularly IUTAs,
348 conceptualise what part or area of the foot constitutes the centre and how that relates to
349 their locating of the floor-based target. This may be further complicated by the
350 appearance of the prosthetic device and/or footwear worn by participants. As this may
351 explain some of the medial bias observed in the current study, further investigation is
352 required to understand what part of the foot IUTAs use to aim directly towards the floor-
353 based targets. The small number of trials (n=3) used to provide a measure of variable
354 error may not have been sufficient, although increasing the number of trials may have led
355 to fatigue within IUTAs. Given the relationship between foot placement with gait stability,
356 application of a full body biomechanical model in future investigations would enable the

357 accurate calculation of whole-body centre of mass, which could determine whether IUTAs
358 were closer to their margins of stability during the foot-targeting task. The sample size for
359 each group of participants was relatively small. However, the paucity of research in this
360 area meant that reliable a priori power analyses were not possible, thus the current
361 findings may inform sample size estimations for similar future studies on targeted
362 stepping in IUTAs (Batterham & Atkinson, 2005). Although there were no differences in
363 participant characteristics between IUTAs and the control group, future research should
364 aim to match participants by age, to avoid any age effects on balance and gait variability
365 (Schrager, Kelly, Price, Ferrucci, & Shumway-Cook, 2008). Findings from the current
366 study pertain to relatively active IUTAs. Increased foot placement errors may be further
367 exacerbated in IUTAs who are less mobile (i.e. K2 or below), or for individuals with a
368 higher level of amputation (i.e. unilateral transfemoral amputation). These factors are
369 likely to have a greater impact on tasks where foot accuracy and precision is more
370 challenging, which would highlight the importance of developing relevant foot-targeting
371 assessments (Houdijk et al., 2012) and even interventions that could improve gait
372 adaptability and improve the clinical decision making process.

373

374 **5.0 Conclusion**

375 IUTAs were less able to produce accurate and precise foot placements with their intact
376 compared to the prosthetic limb. Control participants exhibited better accuracy and
377 precision than the IUTAs intact foot. Our data supplements current knowledge and
378 understanding of strategies used by IUTAs for completing ADLs where foot placement is
379 relevant. The importance of foot-targeting assessments and interventions should be
380 explored in a wider variety of locomotor tasks.

381 **Conflict of interest statement**

382 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

383

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444

445 Table 1. Individual participant characteristics, including time since amputation and
 446 functional prosthesis for individuals with unilateral transtibial amputation (IUTAs).

Group	Gender (M/F)	Age (years)	Height (m)	Mass (kg)	Amputated limb (R/L)	Cause of amputation	Time since amputation (years)	Functional prosthesis	Foot Length (m)	Foot Width (m)
<i>IUTAs</i>										
1	M	56	1.85	105	R	Trauma	2	Echelon	0.35	0.14
2	M	27	1.77	79	L	Trauma	2	Proflex	0.32	0.14
3	M	32	1.81	83	L	Trauma	2	Proflex	0.30	0.12
4	M	39	1.83	87	L	Trauma	3	Elite blade	0.34	0.13
5	F	67	1.65	54	R	Trauma	41	Variflex	0.30	0.11
6	M	46	1.91	107	R	Trauma	2	Rush foot	0.35	0.14
7	M	56	1.79	73	R	Vascular	4	Panthera foot	0.31	0.11
8	M	50	1.86	100	L	Trauma	1	Echelon	0.31	0.12
Mean		47	1.81	86			7		0.32	0.13
(SD)		(13)	(0.08)	(18)			(14)		(0.02)	(0.01)
<i>Controls</i>										
1	F	24	1.73	70					0.27	0.11
2	M	58	1.80	80					0.33	0.13
3	M	21	1.72	74					0.33	0.13
4	M	24	1.78	83					0.30	0.12
5	M	26	1.82	76					0.30	0.11
6	M	26	1.79	67					0.30	0.11
7	M	56	1.71	91					0.30	0.12
8	M	32	1.77	82					0.31	0.12
Mean		33	1.77	76					0.31	0.12
(SD)		(15)	(0.04)	(10)					(0.02)	(0.01)

447

448 Table 2. Group mean (± 1 SD) comparisons of foot placement, stepping and whole-body
 449 kinematics for unilateral transtibial amputees and control participants when stepping into
 450 a floor-based target varying in size relative to foot length and width, respectively.
 451 Statistically significant differences between foot, target and interaction effects are
 452 reported in the main text of the results section. 'AP' refers to anteroposterior; 'ML' refers
 453 to mediolateral.

	Prosthetic			Intact			Control		
Target size:	Standard	Wide	Long	Standard	Wide	Long	Standard	Wide	Long
<i>Foot Placement</i>									
AP absolute error (mm)	28 \pm 15	36 \pm 15	33 \pm 16	33 \pm 16	38 \pm 17	47 \pm 21	19 \pm 10	19 \pm 8	23 \pm 11
AP constant error (mm)	27 \pm 17	32 \pm 18	24 \pm 25	31 \pm 19	31 \pm 27	35 \pm 38	13 \pm 17	10 \pm 15	5 \pm 19
AP variable error (mm)	18 \pm 8	22 \pm 15	21 \pm 7	21 \pm 11	20 \pm 10	25 \pm 9	11 \pm 5	13 \pm 9	17 \pm 12
ML absolute error (mm)	10 \pm 2	16 \pm 14	12 \pm 5	13 \pm 8	28 \pm 12	13 \pm 8	9 \pm 3	14 \pm 8	9 \pm 3
ML constant error (mm)	-4 \pm 8	-11 \pm 18	-7 \pm 9	-9 \pm 12	-25 \pm 17	-9 \pm 12	-9 \pm 5	-12 \pm 10	-8 \pm 3
ML variable error (mm)	10 \pm 3	7 \pm 5	9 \pm 4	9 \pm 5	12 \pm 10	9 \pm 6	4 \pm 4	9 \pm 4	6 \pm 4
<i>Stepping Kinematics</i>									
Initial Foot Reach (s)	0.178 \pm 0.011	0.175 \pm 0.006	0.186 \pm 0.008	0.168 \pm 0.020	0.170 \pm 0.022	0.174 \pm 0.023	0.166 \pm 0.017	0.167 \pm 0.017	0.170 \pm 0.011

Terminal Foot Reach (s)	0.261 ± 0.044	0.250 ± 0.035	0.266 ± 0.035	0.234 ± 0.018	0.232 ± 0.022	0.239 ± 0.021	0.276 ± 0.044	0.272 ± 0.050	0.288 ± 0.045
Peak Reach Velocity (m.s ⁻¹)	4.5 ± 0.8	4.5 ± 0.8	4.5 ± 0.8	4.6 ± 0.9	4.6 ± 0.7	4.7 ± 1.0	4.4 ± 0.4	4.4 ± 0.3	4.4 ± 0.4
<hr/>									
<i>Walking velocity</i>									
Approach Velocity (m.s ⁻¹)	1.3 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.1
Walking Velocity (m.s ⁻¹)	1.3 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1

454

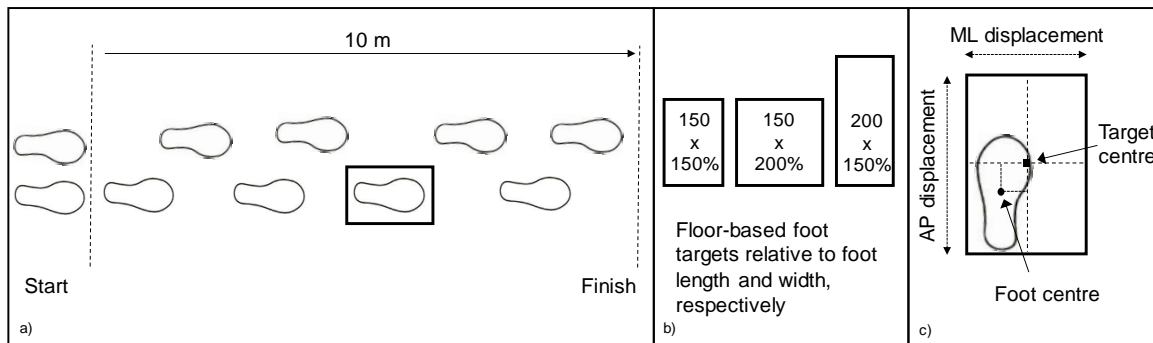


Figure 1. a) A schematic of the targeted stepping task protocol completed by participants. b) The targets were made from wooden slats that had a height and depth of 14 mm and 20 mm, respectively. Increases in target length and width, normalised to a percentage of participant foot length and width with shoes on, reduced the task complexity in the anteroposterior and mediolateral directions, respectively. Participant's foot length was determined as the distance from the most anterior aspect of the forefoot to the most posterior aspect of the rear foot. Foot width was determined as the distance from the most medial aspect of the foot to the most lateral aspect of the foot. c) The relative anteroposterior and mediolateral displacement of the foot centre relative to the floor-based target centre defined foot placement measures during the targeted stepping task.

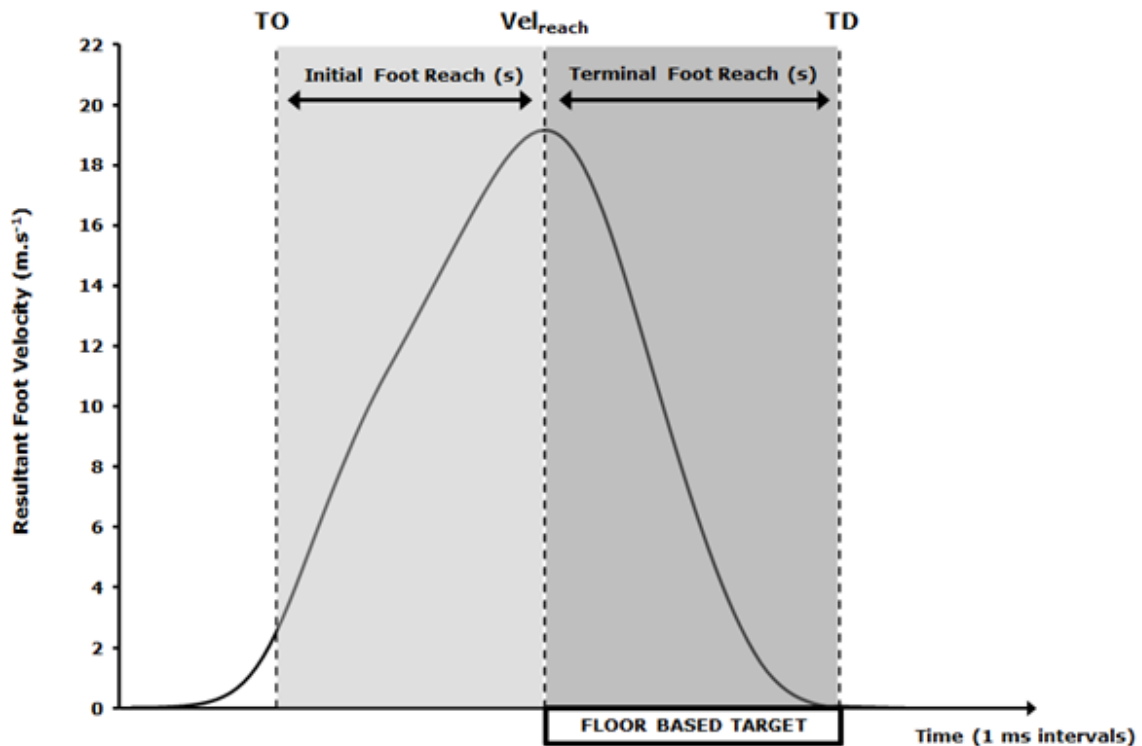


Figure 2. Two sub-phases were determined for the timing of the stepping movement into the target based on the resultant (mediolateral and anteroposterior) foot velocity trajectory. Initial foot-reach was determined from the instant of toe-off (TO) to the instant of peak resultant foot velocity (Vel_{reach}). Terminal foot-reach was determined from the instant of Vel_{reach} to the instant of touch-down (TD) within the target (Chapman et al., 2012). Toe-off and touch-down gait events were determined using previously developed kinematic overground gait event detection algorithms (O'Connor, Thorpe, O'Malley, & Vaughan, 2007).

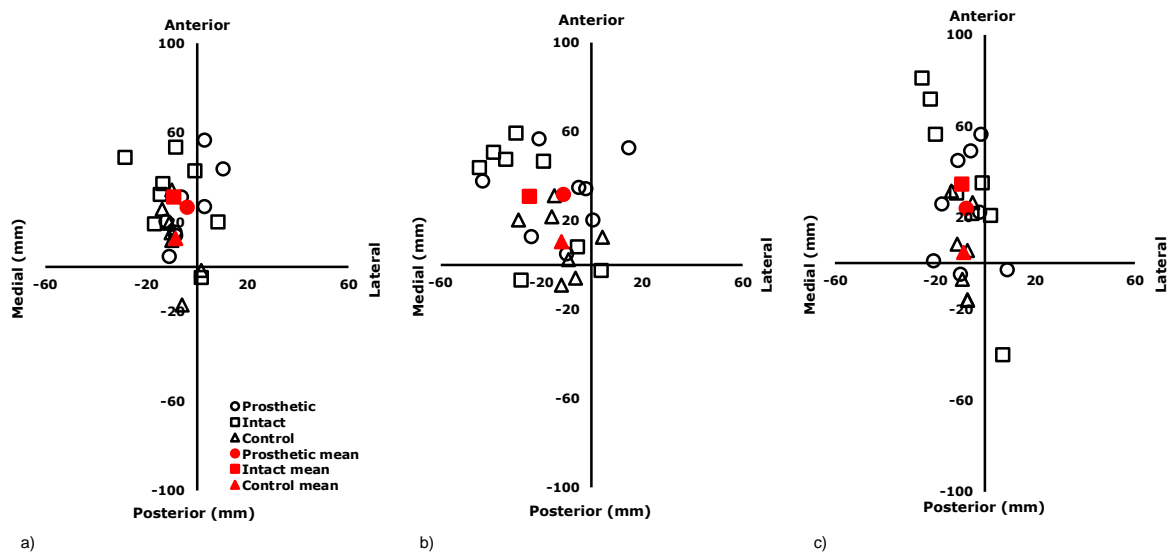


Figure 3. Location of the foot centre (for all trials) for the prosthetic, intact and control foot relative to the centre of the standard (a), wide (b) and long target (c). Negative values on the horizontal and/or vertical axis indicate that the foot was positioned medial and/or posterior of the target centre, respectively.