RESEARCH ARTICLE

Spatiotemporal characteristics of locomotor adaptation of walking with two handheld poles

Hiroki Obata¹ · Tetsuya Ogawa2 · Hikaru Yokoyama3,4 · Naotsugu Kaneko4,5 · Kimitaka Nakazawa5

Received: 7 June 2020 / Accepted: 10 October 2020 / Published online: 19 October 2020 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2020

Abstract

Pole walking (PW) has received attention not only as a whole-body exercise that can be adapted for elderly people with poor physical ftness but also as a possible intervention for the restoration of gait function in normal walking without the use of poles (i.e., conventional walking CW). However, the characteristics of PW, especially how and why PW training afects CW, remain unclear. The purpose of this study was to examine the characteristics of locomotor adaptation in PW from the perspective of kinematic variables. For this purpose, we compared the locomotor adaptation in PW and CW to that when walking on a split-belt treadmill in terms of spatial and temporal coordination. The result showed that adaptations to the split-belt treadmill in PW and CW were found only in interlimb parameters (step length and double support time ratios (fast/ slow limb)), not in intralimb parameters (stride length and stance time ratios). In these interlimb parameters, the movement patterns acquired through split-belt locomotor adaptations (i.e., the afterefects) were transferred between CW and PW regardless of whether the novel movement patterns were learned in CW or PW. The afterefects of double support time and step length learned in CW were completely washed out by the subsequent execution in PW. On the other hand, the afterefect of double support time learned in PW was not completely washed out by the subsequent execution in CW, whereas the aftereffect of step length learned in PW was completely washed out by the subsequent execution in CW. These results suggest that the neural mechanisms related to controlling interlimb parameters are shared between CW and PW, and it is possible that, in interlimb coordination, temporal coordination is preferentially stored in adaptation during PW.

Keywords Walking adaptation · Locomotion · Motor learning · Pole walking

Communicated by Francesco Lacquaniti.

 \boxtimes Hiroki Obata obata@dhs.kyutech.ac.jp

- ¹ Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Institute of Liberal Arts, Kyushu Institute of Technology, 1-1 Sensui-cho, Tobata-ku, Kitakyushu-shi, Fukuoka 804-8550, Japan
- ² Department of Clothing, Faculty of Human Sciences and Design, Japan Women's University, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 112-8681, Japan
- ³ Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology, Koganei-shi, Tokyo 184-8588, Japan
- ⁴ Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 102-0083, Japan
- ⁵ Department of Life Sciences, Graduate School of Arts and Sciences, The University of Tokyo, Meguro-ku, Tokyo 153-0041, Japan

Introduction

Pole walking (PW) is a form of locomotion in which a person holds a pole in each hand and touches one of the poles to the ground simultaneously with the contralateral lower limb heel contact. PW has received attention as a wholebody exercise that can be adapted for elderly or disabled persons with poor physical ftness (Figard-Fabre et al. [2010](#page-8-0); Parkatti et al. [2012](#page-9-0); Monteiro et al. [2017;](#page-8-1) Fukusaki et al. [2018](#page-8-2)). Moreover, recent studies have proposed the usefulness of PW as a possible intervention for restoration of gait function in normal walking without the use of poles (i.e., conventional walking: CW) for stroke and Parkinson's disease patients (Shin et al. [2015;](#page-9-1) Warlop et al. [2017;](#page-9-2) Gougeon et al. [2017;](#page-8-3) Obata et al. [2017](#page-8-4)). In the elderly and patients with Parkinson's disease, it has been reported that locomotor training that uses PW is more efective to restore walking ability (i.e., walking speed) and standing balance than other trainings (Reuter et al. [2011;](#page-9-3) Figueiredo et al. [2013](#page-8-5)).

However, the characteristics of PW, especially how and why PW training affects bipedal conventional walking (CW), remain unknown.

Using locomotor adaptation paradigms that investigate the transfer of adaptation between PW and CW would be an efective method to reveal the characteristics of PW training. In previous studies, using a split-belt adaptation paradigm, partial transfer between forward and backward walking (Choi and Bastian [2007](#page-8-6)), between walking and running (Ogawa et al. [2012](#page-9-4), [2015\)](#page-9-5), and among various walking (Vasudevan and Bastian [2010\)](#page-9-6) and running speeds (Ogawa et al. [2018](#page-9-7)) has been reported. These results suggest that the neural control underlying human locomotion has specifcity, and the afterefect (i.e., the training efect) is not necessarily shared between two locomotor conditions, even if the same muscle groups were recruited. This is a potential issue for gait rehabilitation using PW as well as other walking aids. It is known that activity-dependent plasticity is ubiquitous in the central nervous systems (CNS) (Wolpaw [2007\)](#page-9-8). If the neural controls underlying PW and bipedal CW are different, the repetitive use of walking poles may impede the reacquisition of CW through the modifcation of locomotor centers in the central nervous system.

To reveal the diference in neural control between PW and CW, we recently investigated the transfer between those two gait modes after split-belt walking adaptation (Obata et al. [2019\)](#page-9-9). The results showed that the degrees of the afterefects in CW and PW were not diferent, regardless of whether split-belt walking adaptation was induced in CW or PW, suggesting that the neural controls of PW and CW are not independent. However, it is still unknown which kinematic variables are related to these fndings, because only the anterior component of the ground reaction force was adopted as the index of locomotor adaptation in the previous study. The diference between spatial and temporal gait parameters is especially important, both for understanding neural control and for applying CW as a gait rehabilitation. Spatial and temporal controls for locomotor adaptation have been suggested to take place independently, and temporal control would be more automatic and more heavily dependent on subcortical circuits (Malone and Bastian [2010;](#page-8-7) Malone et al. [2012](#page-8-8)). In children who have undergone a hemispherectomy, deficits of locomotor adaptation have been reported only in temporal gait parameters (Choi et al. [2009\)](#page-8-9). Insight into the characteristics of PW from the perspective of kinematic variables would give us important information to develop gait rehabilitation targeting either temporal or spatial gait parameters.

In this study, we investigated split-belt walking adaptation in CW and PW and transfers between these two gait modes in terms of kinematic variables. From the aspect of spatial versus temporal gait parameters, we compared the diference in neural control mechanisms between CW and PW.

Subjects

Methods

Eleven able-bodied male subjects (age: 26.2 ± 4.7 years old; height: 173.7 ± 4.2 cm; weight: 68.3 ± 6.6 kg; mean \pm SD) with no known history of neurological disorders participated in this study. Each subject was tested in two experimental protocols (Fig. [1](#page-2-0)). The diference between these protocols was the gait mode used during adaptation periods (CW in Experiment 1 and PW in Experiment 2). The gait modes in washout periods and their combinations were also diferent between these protocols. The order of participation in these experiments was randomized across subjects. Two experiments were tested at intervals of at least 24 h. All participants gave informed written consent prior to participating in the study. The experimental procedures were conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and were approved by the human ethics committee of the University of Tokyo, Japan.

Experimental protocols

In this study, subjects were asked to walk on a split-belt treadmill (Bertec, USA) that is composed of two separate belts. The treadmill belts can be controlled independently and driven either at the same velocity (i.e., tied belt) or at diferent velocities (i.e., split belt). During two baseline periods, the treadmill belts were operated at the same velocity, 0.75 m/s (Baseline; 2 min each, tied belt). Subsequently, during the adaptation period, the treadmill was operated at diferent velocities (Adaptation; 10 min, split belt): the left belt was set to 1.00 m/s (defned as fast limb) and the right to 0.50 m/s (defned as slow limb). After the adaptation period, the treadmill belts were returned to the tied-belt mode (Catch; 2 min) and then operated in split-belt mode (Readaptation; 5 min). Finally, the treadmill belts were again returned to the tied-belt mode (Washout 1 and Washout 2; 2 min). For safety, subjects were asked to stand to the outside of the belts before these changes and step onto the belts using their right foot frst after the required belt velocity was reached. Subjects were also instructed to walk naturally and refrain from looking down at the treadmill belts to avoid receiving any visual information about velocity.

During PW, subjects were asked to place one of the Nordic poles vertically on either split belt with the contralateral lower limb heel contact at each stride. The length of the poles was adjusted so that the elbow joint angles were approximately 90° when subjects stood upright with the poles and kept them naturally in front of them. During CW, subjects were asked to swing their arms naturally.

Fig. 1 Time course of the experimental protocol. Subjects were given a split-belt walking-adaptation task of either conventional walking (CW) (Exp. 1) or pole walking (PW) (Exp. 2). The adaptation and readaptation periods were 10 and 5 min, respectively, on an asymmetri-

cally driven treadmill (the left belt was set to 1.00 m/s and the right to 0.50 m/s). The Baseline, Catch, and washout periods (Washout 1 and Washout 2) were each 2 min on a symmetrically driven treadmill (the left and right belts were set to 0.75 m/s)

Data recordings and analysis

An optical motion capture system (OptiTrack FLEX V100 R2, Natural Point, USA) composed of 12 infrared cameras was used to examine the step and stride length of both legs, and the arm swing. Refective markers (5 mm in diameter) were placed bilaterally on the ankle (lateral malleolus), the back of the hand, and between the ulnar and radial styloids. Triaxial ground reaction forces (GRFs) were measured using two force plates mounted beneath each treadmill belt to examine foot contacts. Marker positions were recorded at a sampling rate of 100 Hz and synchronized with GRFs using OptiTrack software (Motive Version 2.0.2; Natural Point, USA). GRFs were recorded at a sampling rate of 1000 Hz (PowerLab; AD Instruments, Australia) and stored on a computer for later offline analysis.

Three-dimensional marker positions and force data were low-pass fltered at 6 Hz. Custom software written in MAT-LAB (R2019a; Mathworks, USA) was used for all analyses. Stride time was determined by detecting the moment of foot contact at which the vertical GRFs were more than 2.5 N and is defned as the period from one foot contact to the next for the same limb.

In this study, four kinematic variables, stride length, percent stance time, step length, and percent double support time, were calculated according to the previous study (Reisman et al. [2005\)](#page-9-10). (1) Stride length is defned as the intralimb and spatial parameters calculated as the distance traveled by the ankle marker in the anterior–posterior direction from initial contact to the liftoff of one limb. (2) Stance time is defned as the intralimb and temporal parameters calculated as the duration of stance phase expressed as a percentage of the stride time. (3) Step length is defned as the interlimb and spatial parameters calculated as the anterior–posterior distance between the ankle marker of each leg at foot contact of the leading leg. (4) Double support time is defned as the interlimb and temporal parameters calculated as the duration that both feet were in contact with the split-treadmill, expressed as a percentage of the stride time for each leg. Double support time of the fast leg is the time from the slow leg foot contact to the fast leg liftof, and vice versa for the double support time of the slow leg. These parameters were expressed as the ratio of the fast limb to the slow limb to assess asymmetry.

Arm swing ratio, which is the ratio of the left arm swing angle at the right heel contact and the right swing angle at the left heel contact, were also calculated in 8 of 11 subjects. Arm swing was defned as the angle between a vertical line and the vector from the acromion to the wrist on the sagittal plane: it was positive when the wrist was in front of the acromion. Each arm swing angle was calculated from the marker of the wrist and the acromion on both sides.

Averages of the last ten strides of the Baseline periods as well as the frst (Initial) and last ten (Final) strides of the Adaptation, Catch, Washout 1, and Washout 2 periods were calculated for statistical comparisons.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed for the number of steps taken during each period, the ratio of the fast limb to the slow limb in the four kinematic variables, and arm swing ratio using a commercially available software package (SPSS 21.0; SPSS, USA).

A paired t test was performed to compare the number of steps taking during Adaptation, Catch, Re-adaptation and Washout between CW and PW.

To compare the degree of adaptation and re-adaptation, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures (factors: gait mode (CW or PW) and time points (Baseline, Initial, and Final strides)) was performed. In addition, to compare the degree of adaptation and re-adaptation among time points, a one-way ANOVA with repeated measures (factor: time points) was performed for each gait mode. When the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference, Tukey's post hoc comparisons were performed to test for diferences among time points.

To compare the degree of transfer of the afterefect (i.e., (1) (1) (1) , (2) , (4) , (5) and in Fig. 1), a three-way ANOVA with repeated measures (factors: gait mode in the adaptation period (CW or PW), gait mode in the de-adaptation period (CW or PW), and time points (Initial or Final strides)) was performed. When the three-way ANOVA showed signifcant interactions, Tukey's post hoc comparisons were performed.

To compare the degree of washout (i.e., (3), (6) and in Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0), a two-way ANOVA with repeated measures (factors: gait mode (CW or PW) and time points (Initial or Final strides)) was performed. When the two-way ANOVA showed signifcant interactions, Tukey's post hoc comparisons were performed.

The number steps were presented as the mean and standard deviation (mean \pm SD). Data of kinematics variables were presented as the mean and standard error (mean \pm SE). Statistical diferences were accepted as signifcant when *P* < 0.05. For the results of ANOVA, the effect size is reported as η^2 .

Result

The number of steps taking during each period were not diferent between CW and PW. A paired t test showed no signifcant diference between these two gait modes during Adaptation (CW vs. PW, 971.3 ± 147.0 vs. 924.3 ± 120.9 steps, $P = 0.27$), Cath (198.0 \pm 28.2 vs. 191.3 \pm 20.8 steps, *P*=0.30), Re-adaptation (494.7 \pm 68.7 vs. 473.5 \pm 59.4 steps, *P*=0.21), Washout 1 (198.8 \pm 22.7 vs. 190.0 \pm 18.9 steps, *P*=0.11) and Washout 2 (201.3±24.3 vs. 197.2±18.8 steps, $P=0.25$).

Group means of the time series changes of the four kinematic variables are shown in Fig. [2](#page-4-0). During the Baseline, where the belt conditions were tied, the ratio of each kinematic variable was approximately equal to 1 in exps. 1 and 2, which means the diferences between the fast (left) and slow (right) limbs were very small. With exposure to splitbelt conditions (i.e., Adaptation), the diferences in step length and double support time were prominent for the frst minute, whereas the diferences did not diminish through the Adaptation periods in stride length and stance time in exps. 1 and 2. With a return to the tied-belt condition (i.e., Catch and Washout 1), the diferences in step length and double support time between the fast and slow limbs were prominent for the frst minute, whereas the diferences in stride length and stance time were not clear in exps. 1 and 2. After the washout of a stored movement pattern (i.e., Washout 2), the diference in double support time between the fast and slow limbs still existed in Exp. 2. In the following section, the statistical results in each period are described.

The degrees of adaptation were not diferent between CW and PW (i.e., exps. 1 and 2) (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)a). In stride length, stance time, step length, and double support ratios, a two-way repeated-measure ANOVA showed no significant interaction between the time points and gait mode, whereas the main effect of the time points was significant (stride length: $F_{(2,20)}$ =481.735, $P < 0.01$, η^2 =0.98; stance time: $F_{(2,20)} = 36.218$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.78$; step length: $F_{(2,20)} = 16.108$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.62$; double support time: $F_{(2,20)}$ =19.120, *P*<0.01, η ²=0.66). A one-way repeatedmeasure ANOVA showed the main efect of the time points in all four ratios of CW (stride length: $F_{(2,20)} = 248.190$, *P*<0.01, η^2 = 0.96; stance time: $F_{(2,20)}$ = 23.115, *P* < 0.01, η^2 = 0.70; step length: $F_{(2,20)}$ = 19.747, *P* < 0.01, η^2 = 0.66; double support time: $F_{(2,20)} = 12.904$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.56$) and PW (stride length: $F_{(2,20)} = 444.652$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.98$; stance time: $F_{(2,20)}$ =35.064, $P < 0.01$, η^2 =0.78; step length: $F_{(2,20)} = 10.970$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.52$; double support time: $F_{(2,20)} = 13.870$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.58$), and significant differences were found between the Baseline and Initial stride $(P<0.05)$. On the other hand, the difference between Initial and Final strides was found only in step length and double support time ratios in CW and PW $(P<0.05)$, indicating that locomotor adaptation occurred in these two parameters.

The degrees of re-adaptation were also not different between CW and PW (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)b). In stride length, stance time, step length, and double support ratios, a two-way repeatedmeasure ANOVA showed no signifcant interaction between the time points and gait mode, whereas the main efect of the time points was significant (stride length: $F_{(2,20)} = 128.716$, *P*<0.01, η^2 = 0.93; stance time: $F_{(2,20)}$ = 39.011, *P* < 0.01, η^2 = 0.80; step length: $F_{(2,20)}$ = 35.192, *P* < 0.01, η^2 = 0.78; double support time: $F_{(2,20)} = 7.777$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.44$). A one-way repeated-measure ANOVA showed the

Fig. 2 Group mean of the time series changes in four kinematic parameters. Each plot was averaged over stride cycles in 10-s bins. Red circles and blue circles represent CW and PW, respectively

main effect of the time points in all four ratios of CW (stride length: $F_{(2,20)} = 39.294$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.80$; stance time: $F_{(2,20)} = 19.586$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.66$; step length: $F_{(2,20)} = 24.436$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.71$; double support time: $F_{(2,20)} = 6.527$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.40$) and PW (stride length: $F_{(2,20)} = 267.628$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.96$; stance time: $F_{(2,20)} = 61.276$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.86$; step length: $F_{(2,20)} = 35.491$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.78$; double support time: $F_{(2,20)} = 7.751$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.44$), and significant differences were found between the Baseline and Initial stride $(P<0.05)$. The difference between Initial and Final strides was found only in step length and double support time ratios in CW and PW $(P < 0.05)$.

The degrees of transfer to PW and CW were different among the four kinematic variables (Fig. [4](#page-5-1)). For the stride length and stance ratios, a three-way repeatedmeasure ANOVA showed no significant main effects or interactions. For the step length ratio, a three-way

repeated-measure ANOVA showed the main efect of time points $(F_{(1,10)} = 61.720, P < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.86)$, interaction between gait modes in adaptation and de-adaptation periods $(F_{(1,20)} = 38.778, P < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.80)$, and interaction among the gait mode in the adaptation period, gait mode in the de-adaptation period, and time points $(F_{(1,10)}=20.148)$, $P < 0.01$,, $\eta^2 = 0.67$). For the double support ratio, a threeway repeated-measure ANOVA showed the main efect of time points $(F_{(1,10)} = 33.144, P < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.77)$, the main effect of gait mode in the adaptation period $(F_{(1,10)}=6.967)$, $P < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.41$), interaction between the gait mode in the de-adaptation period and time points $(F_{(1,20)}=9.652)$, $P < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.49$), and interaction between gait modes in the adaptation and de-adaptation periods $(F_{(1,20)}=37.929)$, $P < 0.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.79$). Post hoc testing of the step length and double support ratios revealed a signifcant diference between the Initial and Final strides in each combination of the gait modes in the adaptation and de-adaptation periods

Fig. 3 Comparison of adaptation (**a**) and re-adaptation (**b**) in an acquired movement pattern at diferent timepoints. Each bar is the average of the frst ten strides (Initial) or last ten strides (Baseline and Final) during the Adaptation and Baseline periods. Red bars and

blue bars represent CW and PW, respectively. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. An asterisk indicates a signifcant diference from Baseline ($P < 0.05$) or Initial ($P < 0.05$)

Fig. 4 Comparison of the transfer of the acquired movement pattern at diferent timepoints. Each bar is the average of the frst ten strides (Initial) or last ten strides (Final). Red bars represent de-adaptation by CW after adaptation to CW (Catch in Exp. 1, flled red bars) and after adaptation to PW (Washout 1 in Exp. 2, open red bars). Blue bars

represent de-adaptation by PW after adaptation to PW (Catch in Exp. 2, flled blue bars) and after adaptation to CW (Washout 1 in Exp. 1, open blue bars). Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. An asterisk indicates a signifcant diference between Initial and Final (P < 0.05) or between the gait modes of Adaptation (P < 0.05)

 $(P<0.05)$. These ratios also revealed a significant difference between the gait mode in the adaptation period in CW and PW when transferred to PW at the Initial stride $(P < 0.05)$. These results indicate that afterefect of split-belt adaptation was observed only in step length and double support time, and the aftereffects in PW were stronger when a new movement pattern was acquired in PW than when it was done in CW.

For double support time, the gait mode in which a new movement pattern was stored afected the washout of the afterefect by another gait mode, whereas such a diference was not found in other kinematic variables (Fig. [5\)](#page-6-0). A twoway repeated-measure ANOVA showed the main efects of the gait mode ($F_{(1,10)}$ =5.120, $P < 0.05$, η^2 =0.34) and time points $(F_{(1,10)} = 37.985, P < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.79)$ as well as the interaction of gait modes and time points in the double support ratio $(F_{(1,10)} = 7.792, P < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.44)$. Post hoc testing revealed that the double support ratio washed out by CW was signifcantly larger than that by PW at the Initial stride $(P < 0.05)$, and it was significantly lager at the Initial stride than that at the Final stride $(P < 0.05)$. On the other hand, in the stride length and step length ratio, no statistical diference was found in a two-way repeatedmeasure ANOVA. In the stance time ratio, a two-way repeated-measure ANOVA showed the interaction of gait modes and time points $(F_{(1,10)}=8.111, P<0.05, \eta^2=0.45)$, but no signifcant diference was found in post hoc testing.

These results indicate that the afterefect of PW that was related to double support movement could not be completely washed out by CW.

For the arm swing ratio, the degrees of adaptation, transfer, and washout were not diferent between Exps. 1 and 2 (Fig. [6\)](#page-7-0). *Adaptation* (Fig. [6](#page-7-0)a): A two-way repeated-measure ANOVA showed no signifcant main efect of the gait mode $(F_{(1,14)}=0.088, P=0.78, \eta^2=0.01)$ and interaction between the time points and gait modes ($F_{(2,14)} = 0.042$, $P = 0.96$, η^2 = 0.01), whereas the main effect of the time points was significant ($F_{(2,14)}$ = 5.242, $P < 0.05$, η^2 = 0.43). *Transfer* (Fig. [6b](#page-7-0)): A three-way repeated-measure ANOVA showed no significant main effects (time points: $F_{(1,7)}=0.000$, $P=0.99$, η^2 = 0.00; gait mode in the adaptation period: $F_{(1,7)}$ = 4.393, $P=0.07$, $\eta^2=0.39$; gait mode in the de-adaptation period: $F_{(1,7)} = 0.038$, $P = 0.85$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$) or interactions (time points \times gait mode in the adaptation period \times gait mode in the de-adaptation period, $F_{(1,7)} = 1.351$, $P = 0.28$, $\eta^2 = 0.16$; time \times gait mode in the adaptation period, $F_{(1,7)} = 1.074$, $P=0.34$, $\eta^2=0.13$; time points \times gait mode in the de-adaptation period, $F_{(1,7)} = 3.736$, $P = 0.10$, $\eta^2 = 0.35$; gait mode in the adaptation period \times gait mode in the de-adaptation, $F_{(1,7)} = 1.400$, $P = 0.28$, $\eta^2 = 0.17$). *Washout* (Fig. [6c](#page-7-0)): Twoway repeated-measure ANOVA showed no signifcant main effects (time points: $F_{(1,7)} = 1.779$, $P = 0.22$, $\eta^2 = 0.20$; gait mode of washout: $F_{(1,7)} = 0.000$, $P = 0.99$, $\eta^2 = 0.00$) or interactions $(F_{(1,7)}=1.147, P=0.32, \eta^2=0.14)$.

Fig. 5 Comparison of the washout of the stored movement pattern at diferent timepoints. Red bars are the average of the frst ten strides (Initial) or last ten strides (Final) during CW after washout by PW (Washout 2 in Exp. 1). Blue bars are the average of the frst ten strides (Initial) or last ten strides (Final) during PW after washout by CW (Washout 2 in Exp. 2). Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. An asterisk indicates a signifcant diference between Initial and Final $({}^*P<0.05)$ or between the gait modes of Washout 2 $(^{\#}P<0.05)$

Fig. 6 Arm swing ratio in exps. 1 and 2. Comparison of adaptation in an acquired movement pattern (**a**), the transfer of the acquired movement pattern (**b**), and the washout of the stored movement pattern at

diferent timepoints (**c**). Each bar is the average of the frst ten strides (Initial) or last ten strides (Baseline and Final)

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the characteristics of locomotor adaptation in PW from the perspective of kinematic variables. The results demonstrated that (1) no diference between PW and CW was found in split-belt walking adaptation, that is, the adaptation was observed in interlimb parameters (step length and double support ratios) but not in intralimb parameters; (2) the afterefect size of interlimb temporal (step length ratio) and spatial parameters (double support ratio) was larger in PW than in CW when the novel movement was learned in PW, whereas no diference between PW and CW was found when it was learned in CW; and (3) the afterefect of interlimb temporal parameter learned in PW was not completely washed out by the subsequent execution in CW, whereas the afterefect of the interlimb spatial parameter learned in PW was completely washed out by the subsequent execution in CW. These results suggest unique characteristics of PW as compared to those of CW.

Spatial coordination is preferentially restored in split‑belt adaptation

The afterefect size of interlimb parameters in PW was larger when the novel movement pattern was learned in PW than when it was learned in CW, whereas the aftereffect size in CW was not diferent, regardless of whether the novel movement pattern was learned in PW or CW. These results suggest that storage of the afterefect in PW is not the same as that in CW. In addition, the present results showed an asymmetrical washout: the afterefect of the interlimb temporal parameter in CW was washed out by the subsequent execution in PW, whereas the pattern in PW was not completely washed out by the subsequent execution in CW. These results are consistent with those in our previous study (Obata et al. [2019](#page-9-9)). In that study, from an observation of the anterior component of the ground reaction force (braking force), we showed that the afterefect in CW was washed out by the subsequent execution in PW, whereas the afterefect in PW was not completely washed out by the subsequent execution in CW. Based on these results, we suggested that the neural mechanisms of PW and CW are not independent and that the neural process of CW was a subset of that for PW. The present results for the interlimb spatial and temporal parameters during de-adaptation periods (Catch and Washout 1) and the interlimb temporal parameter in Washout 2 support the notion that this neural structure between PW and CW exists.

Concerning the interlimb spatial parameter, the effect of the washout was symmetry: the afterefect of the interlimb temporal parameter in CW was washed out by the subsequent execution in PW, and the pattern in PW was washed out by the subsequent execution in CW. These results suggest that, in PW, interlimb temporal coordination is stored more preferentially than interlimb spatial coordination. During PW, subjects are required to touch one pole to the ground at the same time as the contralateral heel contact. Therefore, subjects would be paying attention to their temporal gait coordination rather than their spatial gait coordination. This characteristic of PW may afect a signifcant afterefect of interlimb temporal coordination. In a previous study, Malone and Bastian ([2010](#page-8-7)) demonstrated that a conscious correction of spatial gait coordination, in response to instruction on how to step and intermittent visual feedback on stepping during adaptation, afected the adaptation speed for spatial but not temporal parameters. Likewise, in the present study, the use of a pole may have led to subjects' awareness of temporal coordination, and adaptation to temporal coordination may be enhanced as compared to that for spatial coordination.

In interlimb coordination, previous studies have demonstrated the independence of the neural mechanisms for spatial and temporal coordination in focusing attention during adaptation (Malone and Bastian [2010](#page-8-7)), time course over development (Musselman et al. [2011;](#page-8-10) Vasudevan et al. [2011](#page-9-11)), and brain injury (Choi et al. [2009\)](#page-8-9). Specifcally, Choi et al. ([2009\)](#page-8-9) demonstrated that hemispherectomy afects interlimb temporal gait coordination, whereas the adaptation of interlimb spatial coordination was intact. They suggest that temporal modifcation requires a more complicated process involving the cerebrum, while spatial modifcation is a simpler adjustment. These diferences in neural mechanisms would underlie the diference between spatial and temporal parameters during split-belt adaption in PW.

Adaptation process

In both PW and CW, intralimb parameters (stride length and stance time ratios) showed an almost immediate change during split-belt walking adaptation and no afterefects, whereas interlimb parameters showed a gradual change and afterefects. These results of diference among kinematic variables are consistent with the previous study of Reisman et al. [\(2005](#page-9-10)). In many studies of split-belt walking adaptation, predictive (feedforward) adjustment was found in interlimb gait parameters (e.g., step length), and reactive (feedback) adjustment was found in intralimb parameters (e.g., stride length) (Reisman et al. [2005,](#page-9-10) [2010;](#page-9-12) Morton and Bastian [2006](#page-8-11); Vasudevan and Bastian [2010](#page-9-6)). The diference between these gait parameters during the split-belt adaptation has been suggested to refect independent neural control of intra- versus interlimb coordination during human bipedal gait (Reisman et al. [2005](#page-9-10), [2010\)](#page-9-12). Pathological and neurological studies have shown that the cerebellum plays an essential role in feedforward adjustment (Morton and Bastian [2006](#page-8-11); Jayaram et al. [2011,](#page-8-12) [2012\)](#page-8-13), whereas the cerebellum and the cerebrum are not absolutely necessary for feedback adjustment (Morton and Bastian [2006;](#page-8-11) Choi et al. [2009](#page-8-9)).

During PW, a person touches one of the poles to the ground simultaneously with the contralateral lower limb heel contact. Thus, a new interlimb coordination between one upper limb and the contralateral lower limb would be formed during locomotor adaptation of PW. However, no kinematic variables were afected by this upper–lower interlimb coordination. In our previous study, we demonstrated that the ground reaction force of the anterior–posterior direction was not diferent between CW and PW (Obata et al. [2019](#page-9-9)). Therefore, one possible explanation of no diference between PW and CW during the adaptation period may be that the force generated by the upper–lower interlimb coordination is too small to induce kinematic changes as compared with the force exerted by intralimb and interlimb coordination in the lower limb. Another explanation is that the basic pattern of upper–lower interlimb coordination is kept between PW and CW, and a specifc upper–lower interlimb coordination is not formed during locomotor adaptation of PW despite rather diferent kinetics. Supporting this possibility, no difference was found in the degree of adaptation of arm swing ratio between PW and CW.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present results demonstrate that interlimb temporal coordination, as compared to interlimb spatial coordination, is preferentially stored through split-belt walking adaptation. The present result provides important information for gait rehabilitation: PW can modify a temporal walking pattern and would be benefcial for interventions targeting temporal walking deficits.

References

- Choi JT, Bastian AJ (2007) Adaptation reveals independent control networks for human walking. Nat Neurosci 10(8):1055–1062
- Choi JT, Vining EPG, Reisman DS, Bastian AJ (2009) Walking fexibility after hemispherectomy: split-belt treadmill adaptation and feedback control. Brain 132(3):722–733
- Figard-Fabre H, Fabre N, Leonardi A, Schena F (2010) Physiological and perceptual responses to Nordic walking in obese middle-aged women in comparison with the normal walk. Eur J Appl Physiol 108(6):1141–1151
- Figueiredo S, Finch L, Mai J, Ahmed S, Huang A, May NE (2013) Nordic walking for geriatric rehabilitation: a randomized pilot study. Disabil Rehabil 35(12):968–975
- Fukusaki C, Leetawesup K, Kato N, Kadokura Y, Nakazawa K, Yano H, Ishii N (2018) Effects of defensive style Nordic walking intervention in patients with lumbar and lower-limb osteoarthritis. J Nov Physiother 8(2):383. [https://doi.org/10.4172/2165-](https://doi.org/10.4172/2165-7025.1000383) [7025.1000383](https://doi.org/10.4172/2165-7025.1000383)
- Gougeon MA, Zhou L, Nantel J (2017) Nordic walking improves trunk stability and gait spatial-temporal characteristics in people with Parkinson disease. NeuroRehabilitation 41(1):205–210
- Jayaram G, Galea JM, Bastian AJ, Celnik P (2011) Human locomotor adaptive learning is proportional to depression of cerebellar excitability. Cereb Cortex 21(8):1901–1909
- Jayaram G, Tang B, Pallegadda R, Vasudevan EV, Celnik P, Bastian AJ (2012) Modulating locomotor adaptation with cerebellar stimulation. J Neurophysiol 107(11):2950–2957
- Malone LA, Bastian AJ (2010) Thinking about walking: effects of conscious correction versus distraction on locomotor adaptation. J Neurophysiol 103(4):1954–1962
- Malone LA, Bastian AJ, Torres-Oviedo G (2012) How does the motor system correct for errors in time and space during locomotor adaptation? J Neurophysiol 108(2):672–683
- Monteiro EP, Franzoni LT, Cubillos DM, de Oliveira FA, Carvalho AR, Oliveira HB, Pantoja PD, Schuch FB, Rieder CR, Martinez FG, Peyré-Tartaruga LA (2017) Efects of Nordic walking training on functional parameters in Parkinson's disease: a randomized controlled clinical trial. Scand J Med Sci Sports 27(3):351–358
- Morton SM, Bastian AJ (2006) Cerebellar contributions to locomotor adaptations during split-belt treadmill walking. J Neurosci 26(36):9107–9116
- Musselman KE, Patrick SK, Vasudevan EV, Bastian AJ, Yang JF (2011) Unique characteristics of motor adaptation during walking in young children. J Neurophysiol 105(5):2195–2203
- Obata H, Ogawa T, Hoshino M, Fukusaki C, Masugi Y, Kobayashi H, Yano H, Nakazawa K (2017) Efects of aquatic pole walking on the reduction of spastic hypertonia in a patient with hemiplegia: a case study. Int J Phys Med Rehabil 5:401. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.4172/2329-9096.1000401) [org/10.4172/2329-9096.1000401](https://doi.org/10.4172/2329-9096.1000401)
- Obata H, Ogawa T, Nakazawa K (2019) Unique controlling mechanisms underlying walking with two handheld poles in contrast to those of conventional walking as revealed by split-belt locomotor adaptation. Exp Brain Res 237(12):3175–3183
- Ogawa T, Kawashima N, Ogata T, Nakazawa K (2012) Limited transfer of newly acquired movement patterns across walking and running in humans. PLoS ONE 7(9):e46349
- Ogawa T, Kawashima N, Obata H, Kanosue K, Nakazawa K (2015) Mode-dependent control of human walking and running as revealed by split-belt locomotor adaptation. J Exp Biol 218(Pt 20):3192–3198
- Ogawa T, Obata H, Yokoyama H, Kawashima N, Nakazawa K (2018) Velocity-dependent transfer of adaptation in human running as revealed by split-belt treadmill adaptation. Exp Brain Res 236(4):1019–1029
- Parkatti T, Perttunen J, Wacker P (2012) Improvements in functional capacity from Nordic walking: a randomized-controlled trial among elderly people. J Aging Phys Act 20(1):93–105
- Reisman DS, Block HJ, Bastian AJ (2005) Interlimb coordination during locomotion: what can be adapted and stored? J Neurophysiol 94:2403–2415
- Reisman DS, Bastian AJ, Morton SM (2010) Neurophysiologic and rehabilitation insights from the split-belt and other locomotor adaptation paradigms. Phys Ther 90(2):187–195
- Reuter I, Mehnert S, Leone P, Kaps M, Oechsner M, Engelhardt M (2011) Effects of a flexibility and relaxation programme,

walking, and Nordic walking on Parkinson's disease. J Aging Res 2011:232473. <https://doi.org/10.4061/2011/232473>

- Shin JH, Kim CB, Choi JD (2015) Effects of trunk rotation induced treadmill gait training on gait of stroke patients: a randomized controlled trial. J Phys Ther Sci 27(4):1215–1217
- Vasudevan EV, Bastian AJ (2010) Split-belt treadmill adaptation shows diferent functional networks for fast and slow human walking. J Neurophysiol 103(1):183–191
- Vasudevan EV, Torres-Oviedo G, Morton SM, Yang JF, Bastian AJ (2011) Younger is not always better: development of locomotor adaptation from childhood to adulthood. J Neurosci 31(8):3055–3065
- Warlop T, Detrembleur C, Buxes Lopez M, Stoquart G, Lejeune T, Jeanjean A (2017) Does Nordic walking restore the temporal organization of gait variability in Parkinson's disease? J Neuroeng Rehabil 14(1):17.<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12984-017-0226-1>
- Wolpaw JR (2007) Spinal cord plasticity in acquisition and maintenance of motor skills. Acta Physiol 189(2):155–169

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.