

An intelligent E-skin with spatiotemporal vibrotactile cues enable personalized gait rehabilitation in Parkinson's disease

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1 **An intelligent E-skin with spatiotemporal vibrotactile cues enable personalized**
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Abstract

Parkinson's disease (PD), the second most prevalent neurodegenerative disorder, severely impairs gait and mobility. Pharmacologic and surgical therapies have important limitations, and existing wearable cueing devices remain clunky and poorly adaptive. To address this, we developed a novel flexible patch characterized by ultra-miniaturization and superior adaptability (FlexAdapt Patch) for gait rehabilitation in people with PD. The FlexAdapt Patch integrates a single IMU with Gait-Phase-Adaptive (GPA) algorithm and a continuously updated, personalized gait-processing strategy, delivering pre-emptive, leg-lifting vibrotactile cues. Across walking speeds, the algorithm achieved 97.79% agreement with optical motion capture as the gold standard. In a cohort of 35 PD patients, spatiotemporal vibration outperformed no stimulation and constant vibration, reducing the variance of stride length, gait-cycle duration, and support-phase ratio by 49.1-61.1%, decreasing discrepancies in hip and knee angle trajectories relative to normative curves by 38.8% and 38.2%, and lowering fatigue in four lower-limb muscles by 16.9-30.2%. In summary, the FlexAdapt Patch enables routine, home-based, personalized gait rehabilitation for PD.

Keywords: FlexAdapt Patch; Parkinson's disease; spatiotemporal vibrotactile cues; algorithm; gait parameters

Introduction

Parkinson's disease is the second most common neurodegenerative disorder, with a prevalence of 2-3% in individuals over 65 years of age and a rapidly growing burden in ageing populations worldwide^{1,2}. Its core neuropathology involves progressive loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars compacta and aggregation of α -synuclein, leading to dysfunction of basal ganglia circuits³. Clinically, PD is characterized by resting tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia and postural instability, among which gait disturbances, such as slow, shuffling steps and freezing of gait (FOG), are particularly disabling⁴. These abnormalities greatly compromise walking safety and independence in daily life and are major contributors to falls, fractures and PD-related hospitalizations⁵.

Current first-line treatments for PD are mainly pharmacological and surgical⁶. Levodopa and dopamine agonists can effectively alleviate motor symptoms, but long-term use is frequently complicated by motor fluctuations, dyskinesia and psychiatric adverse effects^{7,8}. Invasive interventions, including deep brain stimulation and spinal cord stimulation, can improve motor performance in selected patients, but are associated with substantial surgical risk, high cost and demanding postoperative management^{9,10}. Importantly, these centrally targeted therapies are often insufficient to correct gait abnormalities, particularly FOG¹¹, prompting growing interest in non-pharmacological and non-surgical strategies that specifically aim to restore gait function¹².

Among such approaches, wearable devices and sensory cueing techniques have shown encouraging potential¹³. Visual cues, rhythmic auditory stimulation and vibrotactile cues can all facilitate gait initiation and sustain locomotion in patients with PD¹⁴⁻¹⁶. However, most existing cueing systems rely on fixed frequencies or

62 predetermined rhythms and rarely account for inter-individual variability or real-time changes in gait state¹⁷.
63 Many devices are bulky, require multiple sensors or external controllers and are therefore difficult to wear
64 continuously in everyday life, limiting their use for long-term home-based rehabilitation¹⁸. In the case of
65 vibrotactile cueing, peripheral vibration has been reported to enhance gait stability and reduce compensatory
66 muscle activity¹⁹, yet most devices employ rigid structures and simple constant-vibration modes, lacking
67 intelligent closed-loop control tightly coupled to lower-limb kinematics²⁰.

68 To address these limitations, we developed the FlexAdapt Patch, a minimalist, skin-conformal wearable for
69 closed-loop gait rehabilitation. It integrates a single IMU, four independently driven vibration motors, power
70 management and Bluetooth into a 48 × 38 mm flexible patch for comfortable, unobtrusive mid-thigh wear, and
71 works with a companion smartphone app (Rehealthy) to perform fully local sensing, gait inference, stimulation
72 control and data management without cloud dependence. We introduce an on-device adaptive gait algorithm that
73 reliably reconstructs thigh motion and continuously personalizes control using an individualized gait-history
74 model referenced to a normative template, enabling pre-emptive spatiotemporal vibrotactile cues for timely leg
75 lifting. Clinical potential was validated in a randomized crossover study of 35 ambulatory PD patients,
76 comparing no stimulation, constant vibration and spatiotemporal vibration, with integrated outcomes spanning
77 spatiotemporal gait metrics, hip–knee kinematics and lower-limb fatigue. Collectively, these advances establish
78 a lightweight, comfortable and home-deployable pathway for personalized gait rehabilitation in Parkinson’s
79 disease.

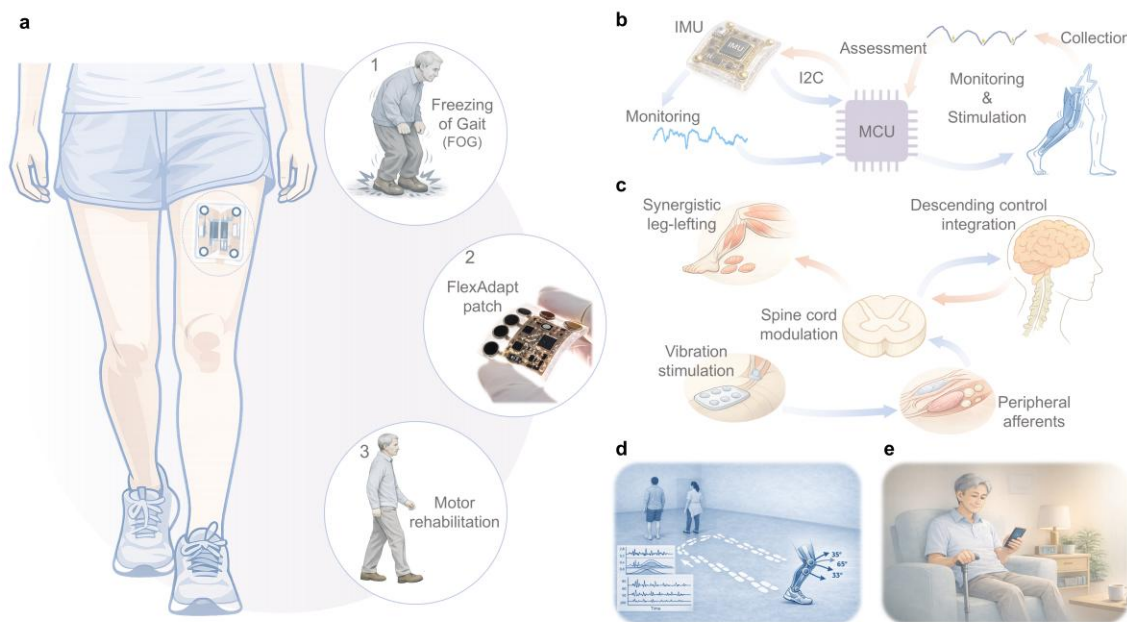
81 **Results**

82 **Minimalist closed-loop vibrotactile patch for adaptive gait rehabilitation**

83 Freezing of gait (FOG) in Parkinson's disease (PD) is characterized by abrupt onset, strong gait-phase
84 dependence, and pronounced inter-individual variability, which collectively undermine the long-term reliability
85 of fixed, open-loop cueing strategies. To address these challenges, we developed a skin-conformal, single-sensor
86 wearable that integrates continuous motion monitoring with adaptive vibrotactile intervention, aiming to provide
87 robust assistance across diverse daily contexts while minimizing user burden during natural walking. The patch
88 is worn discreetly on the anterior thigh (**Fig. 1a**), preserving clothing comfort and everyday activities while
89 maintaining stable mechanical coupling to the limb.

90 The device is conceived as an end-to-end closed-loop rehabilitation workflow that links non-invasive sensing,
91 on-device inference, and responsive stimulation, with iterative parameter optimization driven by repeated gait
92 monitoring. A single inertial measurement unit (IMU) continuously streams real-time kinematic data, whereas
93 an on-board microcontroller unit (MCU) performs embedded preprocessing, feature extraction, and gait-state
94 inference to trigger phase-aligned vibrotactile cues (**Fig. 1b**). In contrast to one-time calibration, the FlexAdapt
95 framework is explicitly designed for longitudinal adaptation: gait responses following stimulation are
96 continuously acquired and used to update stimulation timing, thereby forming an iterative cycle of monitor–

97 evaluate–stimulate–re-evaluate. This closed-loop design is intended to accommodate temporal non-stationarity
 98 (e.g., fatigue, medication cycles, and environmental perturbations) as well as user-specific gait signatures,
 99 enabling personalized cue delivery under naturalistic walking conditions.
 100 Mechanistically, the vibrotactile cues are designed to engage cutaneous mechanoreceptors (e.g., Merkel cells
 101 and Pacinian corpuscles) and muscle-related proprioceptive pathways (e.g., muscle spindles and Golgi tendon
 102 organs) via A β and Ia afferent fibers, thereby enhancing peripheral sensory input during critical gait phases (such
 103 as swing initiation or the preparation for leg lifting; **Fig. 1c**). To evaluate feasibility and translational potential,
 104 we assessed the overall workflow in a clinical setting (**Fig. 1d**) and further aligned system constraints with a
 105 portable, home-deployable rehabilitation solution (**Fig. 1e**), prioritizing unobtrusive wearability, low-power
 106 operation, and reliable on-device control.



107

108 **Fig. 1 | FlexAdapt Patch design and closed-loop vibrotactile rehabilitation concept**

109 (a) Discreet, skin-conformal thigh patch for mitigating freezing of gait (FOG) and supporting gait rehabilitation.
 110 (b) Closed-loop pipeline integrating IMU monitoring with MCU-based on-device inference, control, and
 111 iterative parameter updates from gait outcomes. (c) Putative sensorimotor pathway whereby vibrotactile cues
 112 engage peripheral afferents, modulate spinal circuits, and facilitate descending integration to promote timely leg
 113 lifting and inter-limb coordination. (d) Clinical evaluation paradigm. (e) Portable workflow enabling home-based,
 114 long-term personalized rehabilitation.

115

116 **Hardware-software design of the FlexAdapt Patch**

117 To support long-term, closed-loop gait rehabilitation in daily living environments, we developed an intelligent
 118 flexible spatiotemporal vibration patch that conforms to the anterior thigh. The FlexAdapt Patch has an overall
 119 footprint of 48 mm \times 38 mm and a thickness of 5 mm, and is positioned at the mid-thigh region (**Fig. 2a**). A

120 medical-grade PU/PSA adhesive on the underside provides stable skin attachment and minimizes displacement
121 or peeling during walking, squatting, and other routine activities. Users typically describe the wearable sensation
122 as a “soft chip” adhered to the leg. On the outward-facing surface, four circular vibration actuators are arranged
123 along the horizontal axis of the thigh, with a miniature battery placed at the edge, enabling programmable
124 spatiotemporal stimulation patterns.

125 **Figure 2b** summarizes the multilayer architecture and functional modules. From top to bottom, a PDMS
126 encapsulation layer improves water resistance and biocompatibility. A flexible FPCB integrates the
127 microcontroller (MCU), inertial measurement unit (IMU), power management and protection circuitry, wireless
128 charging coil, and motor drivers (schematics in **Supplementary Note 1**). A perforated flexible substrate
129 enhances bending compliance and facilitates heat dissipation. The bottom PU/PSA adhesive layer ensures direct,
130 stable skin contact; fabrication and encapsulation procedures are detailed in **Supplementary Note 2**. The
131 Rehealthy smartphone application serves as the user-facing interface, providing wearing guidance and
132 adjustment of spatiotemporal stimulation parameters. It also displays real-time thigh-angle signals and reports a
133 Gait Normality metric that quantifies similarity to a normative template. Device pairing, signal visualization,
134 and local gait-database management are handled via Bluetooth, and all acquisition, processing, and storage are
135 performed locally on the patch and smartphone, without reliance on cloud services.

136 Mechanical compliance is demonstrated in **Fig. 2c and 2d**. When bent to curvatures comparable to the thigh or
137 subjected to moderate torsion, the patch shows no visible creasing, delamination, or cracking. The vibration
138 actuators and interconnect traces remain intact, indicating robustness to repeated thigh flexion and twisting—
139 key requirements for extended daily rehabilitation use.

140 At the system level, the patch and smartphone form an integrated closed-loop platform encompassing sensing,
141 decision-making, stimulation, and evaluation (**Fig. 2e, f**). On the hardware side, energy from the rechargeable
142 battery and wireless charging coil is regulated by the power-management module and distributed to the MCU,
143 IMU, Bluetooth module, and four vibration channels (VIB1–VIB4). The MCU continuously acquires IMU data
144 via an I²C bus, runs on-board control algorithms, and generates independent PWM signals to drive each motor
145 with programmable timing and frequency. On the software side, the pipeline includes raw data acquisition and
146 preprocessing, a Gait Phase Adaptive algorithm for single-IMU gait-phase recognition and thigh-angle
147 reconstruction, a dynamically updated personalized gait database with template fusion, gait-normality
148 assessment, and rehabilitation-parameter management. Together, these components enable real-time
149 personalized spatiotemporal vibration patterns that adapt to each patient's evolving gait characteristics.

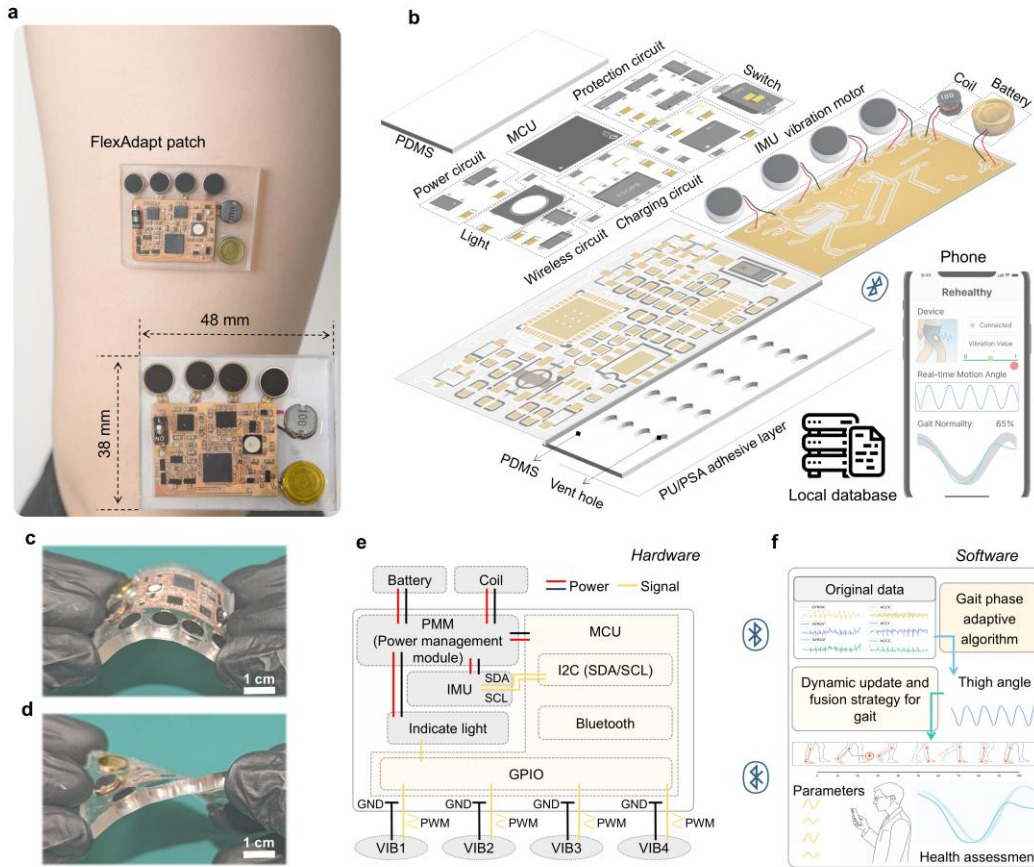


Fig. 2 | Hardware-software design of the FlexAdapt Patch

(a) FlexAdapt patch worn on the anterior thigh ($48 \times 38 \times 5$ mm). (b) Multilayer structure with PDMS encapsulation and an FPCB integrating MCU, IMU, power management/protection, wireless charging coil, and four vibration motors; the Rehealthy app enables Bluetooth pairing and local gait-database management. (c, d) Bending and twisting tests demonstrating mechanical compliance. (e, f) Hardware-software closed-loop architecture: regulated power supports sensing, computation, and four vibration channels, while on-device algorithms and the smartphone jointly implement gait-phase-adaptive control and evaluation.

Closed-loop adaptive algorithm for single-IMU gait control

To minimize on-body hardware complexity while preserving kinematic fidelity, the FlexAdapt Patch integrates a single IMU positioned at the mid-thigh and aligned with the sagittal plane of hip flexion-extension (**Fig. 3a**). Because thigh motion exhibits a pronounced sagittal excursion during walking (typically $\sim 20^\circ$ to 30° in healthy adults), we focused subsequent analysis on reconstructing thigh flexion-extension angles from tri-axial acceleration and angular velocity signals, which exhibit clear rhythmic structure across the gait cycle. The Gait-Phase-Adaptive (GPA) algorithm first generates two candidate angle trajectories: one derived from gravity-referenced inclination, and the other obtained by integrating gyroscope signals. Gait phases (stance, swing, and transition) are then identified using variance features and peak detection, after which phase-dependent fusion

168 weights are updated to emphasize accelerometer-derived inclination during the low-dynamic stance phase while
169 prioritizing gyroscope integration during rapid swing. This phase-aware fusion enables continuous, drift-resilient
170 thigh-angle reconstruction without requiring multiple on-body sensors. **(See method and Supplementary Fig.**
171 **3)** During initial wear, multiple gait cycles are automatically segmented and stored as a human-motion feature
172 database, which is updated with a time-weighted scheme that prioritizes recent cycles while retaining
173 representative historical patterns—establishing the time-weighted gait database.

174 Building on stable single-IMU reconstruction, we implemented on-device construction and adaptive updating of
175 an individualized gait database to support closed-loop personalization **(Fig. 3b)**. In real-time operation, each
176 newly observed gait cycle is evaluated against the existing database; a dynamic DBSCAN strategy adapts
177 clustering parameters according to the evolving within-cluster distance distribution, rejecting outliers and
178 retaining only physiologically plausible templates. The resulting individualized template is then fused with a
179 normative template to generate a personalized target trajectory. Early in rehabilitation, fusion is biased toward
180 the patient's baseline pattern (e.g., ~90% patient / 10% normative) to maintain comfort and safety; as gait
181 improves, the fusion gradually shifts toward a more balanced weighting (e.g., 50%/50%), thereby implementing
182 a progressive “gait traction” toward normal kinematics. Based on the fused curve, the system identifies a pre-
183 swing window and delivers phase-aligned stimulation to facilitate timely swing initiation. Meanwhile, a “Gait
184 Normality” indicator quantifies similarity between the current gait and the target pattern, providing a closed-
185 loop metric to update both fusion weights and spatiotemporal stimulation parameters over time.

186 To validate the proposed method, we benchmarked it against eight representative orientation-estimation
187 approaches, including complementary filters, Mahony/Madgwick filters, Kalman-type fusion filters, and
188 accelerometer-only and gyroscope-only baselines. To enable reference-free comparison across heterogeneous
189 gait conditions, we established a composite evaluation framework comprising five equally weighted metrics—
190 stability, consistency, drift suppression, noise reduction, and smoothness **(Supplementary Note 3)**. Across 10
191 datasets collected from healthy adults, older adults, and patients with Parkinson's disease, conventional
192 Mahony/Madgwick filters and single-sensor baselines frequently degraded under slow, shuffling, or irregular
193 gait, resulting in lower composite scores **(Fig. 3d)**. In contrast, the Gait Phase Adaptive algorithm consistently
194 remained in the high-score range, ranking first in 8 of 10 conditions and achieving the highest mean composite
195 score (77.2), outperforming the complementary filter (75.0) and all other competing methods (mean <75). We
196 further quantified absolute kinematic accuracy by comparing thigh-angle trajectories derived from the patch with
197 those from a gold-standard optical motion capture system and a commercial inertial motion capture suit in five
198 healthy participants **(Fig. 3c)**. After time-normalization to the gait cycle, the patch closely matched the optical
199 reference throughout the cycle and reproduced peak timing and amplitude with higher fidelity than the
200 commercial IMU system **(Fig. 3e)**. Dynamic time-warping analysis **(Supplementary Note 4)** yielded a mean
201 similarity of 97.79% between patch-derived and optical reference trajectories, compared with 96.36% for the
202 commercial IMU system relative to the same optical benchmark.

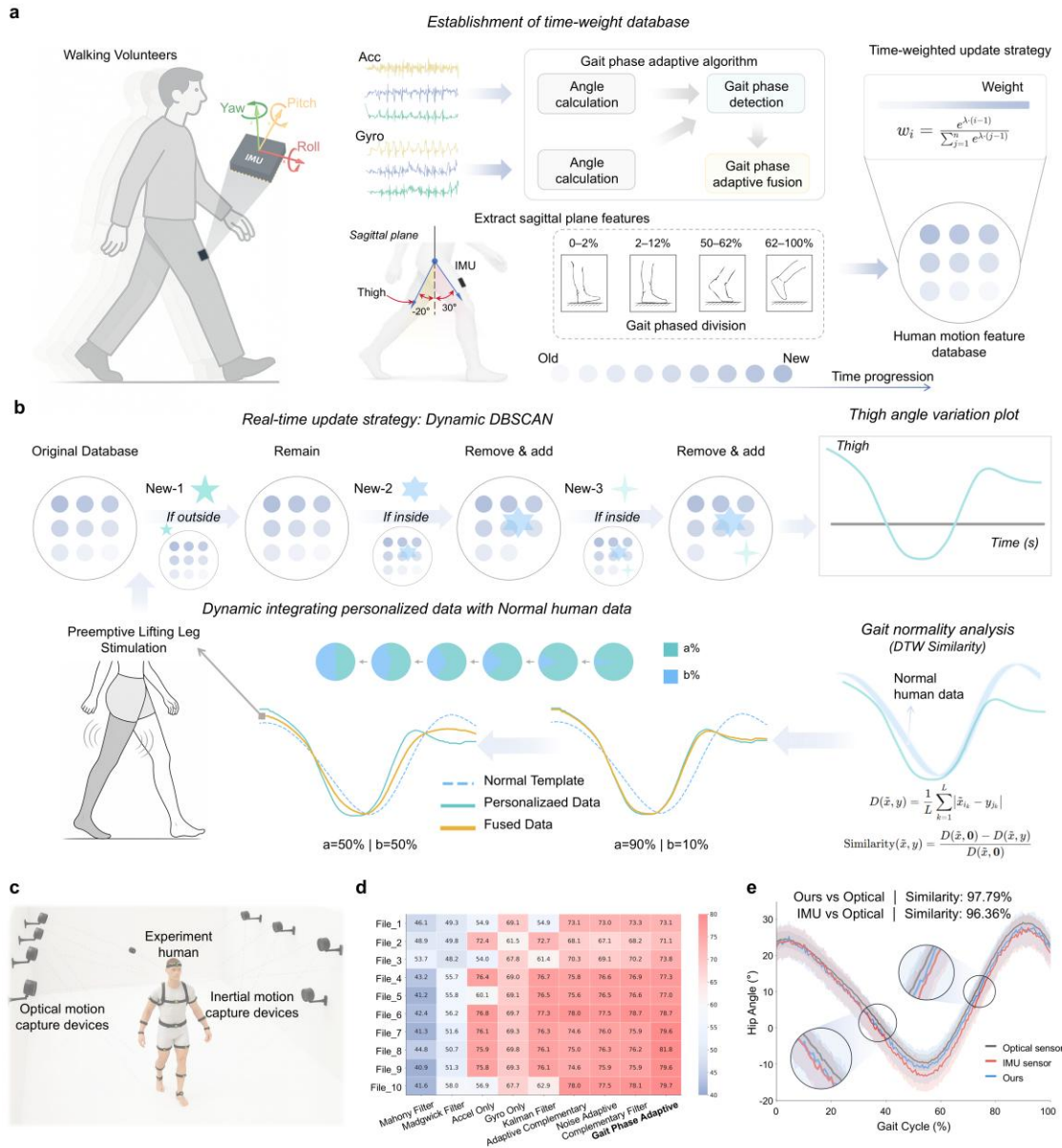


Fig. 3 | Single-IMU adaptive reconstruction and personalized closed-loop control

(a) Gait-Phase-Adaptive processing and construction of a time-weighted gait database from mid-thigh IMU signals. (b) Real-time database updating using dynamic DBSCAN with outlier rejection, followed by fusion of personalized and normative templates to guide stimulation and assess gait normality. (c) Experimental setup comparing the patch with optical motion capture and a commercial IMU suit. (d) Composite performance scores across 10 datasets, showing highest overall ranking for the proposed method. (e) Hip flexion-extension trajectories averaged over five participants, demonstrating closer agreement with optical reference than the commercial IMU.

214 **Clinical feasibility of closed-loop vibrotactile gait rehabilitation**

215 To evaluate translational feasibility in a clinically relevant setting, we conducted a multimodal walking study
216 that integrates the FlexAdapt Patch with complementary motion-capture and electrophysiological measurements
217 (**Fig. 4**). The protocol was implemented in a controlled indoor walking field measuring 8 m × 3 m, enabling
218 repeated forward walking, turning, and backward walking within a single continuous trial. Participants wore the
219 FlexAdapt Patch on the anterior thigh together with an inertial motion capture system, while surface
220 electromyography (sEMG) sensors recorded multi-channel muscle activity. All device streams were
221 synchronized and recorded in parallel, providing a comprehensive view of kinematics, gait events, and
222 neuromuscular activation during daily-life–like locomotor tasks (**Fig. 4a**).

223 Multimodal data were analyzed to quantify changes in spatiotemporal gait performance and neuromuscular
224 patterns. As summarized in **Fig. 4b**, the analysis pipeline combined footprint-based gait assessment, joint-angle
225 reconstruction across the gait cycle, and multi-channel myoelectric signal processing. Footprint analysis captured
226 step-to-step consistency and stride organization, while the reconstructed thigh-angle trajectories provided
227 continuous kinematic signatures aligned to gait-cycle percentage. In parallel, sEMG traces were processed to
228 evaluate activation timing and amplitude patterns across muscles, enabling assessment of whether vibrotactile
229 cueing alters not only overt gait kinematics but also the underlying motor output organization. Together, these
230 synchronized measures allowed us to relate clinical events (FOG episodes, turning instability) to concurrent
231 changes in kinematics and muscle activation.

232 **Figure 4c** illustrates a representative trial in a patient with Parkinson's disease during a full walking loop in the
233 field. The task sequence included standing up, walking forward, turning around, walking backward, and sitting
234 down. Without vibrotactile cueing, the thigh-angle trajectory shows marked irregularity, and multiple freezing
235 of gait (FOG) episodes occur during forward walking and backward walking. Notably, during turning, the
236 participant exhibited a clear tendency toward loss of balance, consistent with the heightened instability
237 commonly observed during directional changes in PD. These events are reflected as disrupted kinematic
238 continuity and prolonged or distorted phase transitions in the thigh-angle time series.

239 Following the application of phase-aligned vibrotactile prompts delivered by the FlexAdapt Patch, gait
240 performance improved substantially (**Fig. 4d**). The thigh-angle trajectory becomes more periodic and stable
241 across repeated steps, with clearer cycle-to-cycle structure during both forward and backward walking. FOG
242 episodes are markedly reduced, and turning is completed with improved continuity. The observed improvements
243 are consistent with the intended role of pre-emptive vibrotactile cues in facilitating timely leg lifting and
244 stabilizing gait-phase progression during challenging segments of walking. Collectively, these results
245 demonstrate the feasibility of deploying the FlexAdapt system in a clinically structured protocol and highlight
246 its potential to improve gait stability during both straight walking and turning—two key contexts associated with
247 disabling FOG.

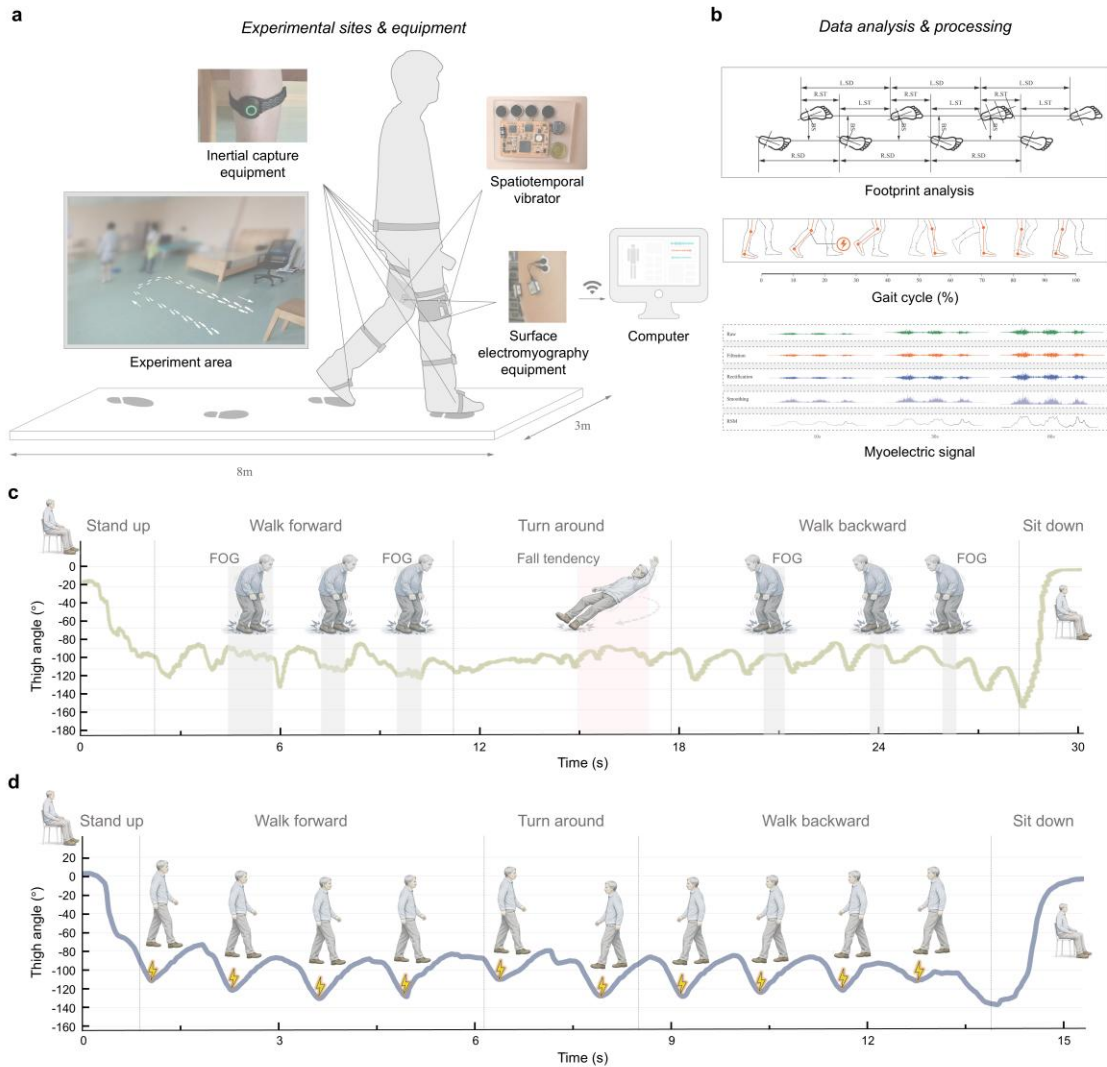


Fig. 4 | PD clinical protocol, synchronized recordings, and representative outcomes

(a) Overview of the PD clinical protocol in an 8×3 m walking field with synchronized multimodal recording, including the FlexAdapt Patch, inertial motion capture, and multi-channel sEMG. (b) Analysis pipeline covering footprint-based gait assessment, joint-angle (thigh-angle) reconstruction over the gait cycle, and myoelectric signal processing. (c) Representative trial without vibrotactile cues showing multiple FOG episodes and a fall tendency during turning. (d) After phase-aligned vibrotactile prompting, gait becomes more periodic and stable with reduced FOG.

Spatiotemporal vibrotactile cues improve gait parameters in PD

As outlined in **Fig. 4a** and detailed in the Methods, we conducted a randomized crossover clinical study in 35 patients with Parkinson's disease to compare five vibration conditions during overground walking. Representative videos illustrating gait performance across conditions are provided in **Movies S1 and S2**. Here we focus on how these stimulation paradigms modulated key spatiotemporal gait parameters. Specifically, we

262 quantified stride length, gait-cycle duration, and support phase ratio (stance time expressed as a fraction of the
263 gait cycle) under each condition. **Figure 5** summarizes results from a representative participant and from the full
264 cohort, and the corresponding gait-analysis procedures and computational details are provided in Supplementary
265 Note 5.

266 Stride length variability was markedly reduced by spatiotemporal vibration (**Fig. 5a**). In the representative
267 participant (panel i), the control condition showed a broad scatter with frequent very short strides approaching a
268 freezing-like pattern. Under both spatiotemporal vibration modes, strides clustered within a medium-to-long
269 range and extremely short strides became rare, whereas constant vibration only partially narrowed the
270 distribution and occasional pathological short steps persisted. Across all 35 participants (panel ii), normalized
271 stride-length variance decreased relative to each individual's control value in most cases. At the group level
272 (panel iii), mean stride-length variance decreased from 0.208 in the control condition to 0.080 and 0.091 with
273 spatiotemporal vibration at 40 Hz and 20 Hz, corresponding to reductions of ~62% and ~56%, respectively.
274 Constant vibration also reduced stride-length variance, to 0.125 and 0.129 at 40 Hz and 20 Hz (reductions of
275 ~40% and ~38%). Thus, spatiotemporal vibration produced the strongest stabilization of step amplitude.

276 Gait-cycle duration exhibited a similar trend (**Fig. 5b**). In the control condition, the representative participant
277 showed a wide distribution of cycle durations, including prolonged bradykinetic cycles and short irregular cycles
278 indicative of substantial rhythm fluctuations. Under spatiotemporal vibration, the distributions contracted toward
279 a narrower band (~1.0–1.4 s), closer to the range typically observed in healthy adults. In the full cohort, mean
280 variance of gait-cycle duration decreased from 0.158 in the control condition to 0.064 and 0.061 with
281 spatiotemporal vibration at 40 Hz and 20 Hz, corresponding to reductions of ~59% and ~61%. Constant vibration
282 yielded smaller decreases, to 0.107 and 0.109 at 40 Hz and 20 Hz (reductions of ~32% and ~31%). These results
283 indicate that spatiotemporal cues help establish a more regular stepping rhythm.

284 Support phase ratio, a stability-relevant metric, was also normalized (**Fig. 5c**). In the control condition, both
285 within-subject and between-subject variability were high, and many cycles exceeded the typical range, consistent
286 with a cautious strategy of prolonged stance. With spatiotemporal vibration, values clustered around ~0.58–0.67,
287 and variance decreased from 0.070 (control) to 0.033 and 0.036 at 40 Hz and 20 Hz (reductions of ~52% and
288 ~49%). Constant vibration produced smaller improvements (mean variance 0.051 at both 40 Hz and 20 Hz; ~27%
289 reductions). Collectively, spatiotemporal vibration outperformed constant stimulation in reducing stride-to-stride
290 variability, stabilizing temporal rhythm, and normalizing support phase ratio.

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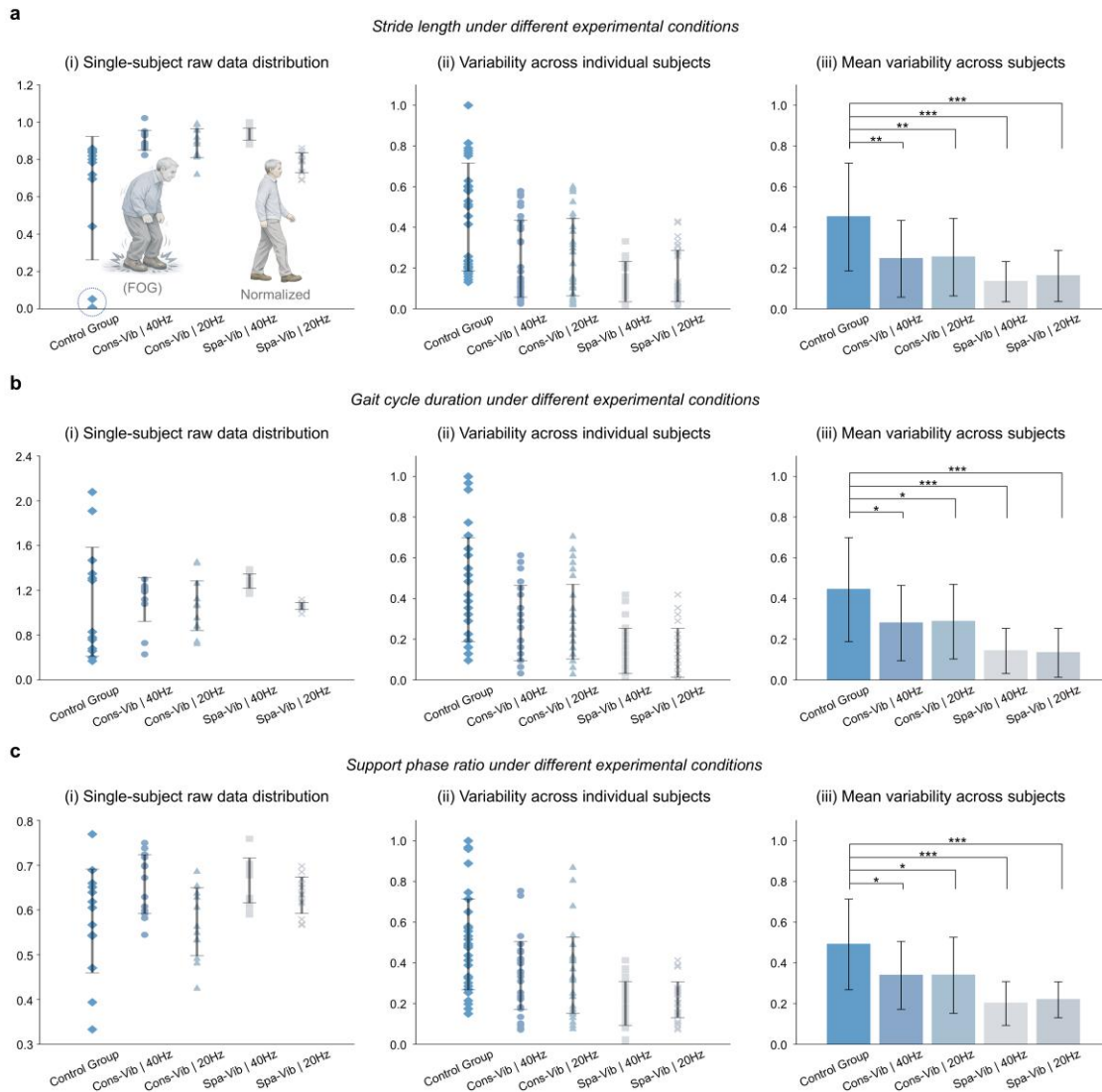


Fig. 5 | Effects of spatiotemporal vibration on gait parameters.

(a) Stride length: representative distributions (i), per-participant normalized variance (ii; $n = 35$), and group mean \pm SD (iii) show reduced variability under spatiotemporal vibration, most prominently at 40 Hz. (b) Gait-cycle duration: analogous plots show contraction toward ~ 1.0 – 1.4 s and reduced variance, strongest with spatiotemporal vibration. (c) Support phase ratio: values shift toward ~ 0.58 – 0.67 with decreased variability. Statistics compare five conditions; asterisks denote differences versus control ($*P < 0.01$, $**P < 0.001$, $***P < 0.0001$).

Spatiotemporal vibrotactile cues improve joint kinematics and muscle fatigue

Because the flexible patch delivers vibrotactile cues directly to the anterior thigh, we further examined changes in hip and knee kinematics together with indices of lower-limb muscle fatigue (**Supplementary Note 6**). For hip motion (**Fig. 6a**), panel i shows three-dimensional hip-angle trajectories from a representative patient under

305 the five conditions, overlaid with a healthy reference curve. In the control condition, hip flexion–extension
306 amplitude is reduced, swing-phase peaks are delayed, and the waveform deviates substantially from the normal
307 template. Constant vibration modestly increases the flexion–extension range, but the trajectory remains distorted.
308 Under both spatiotemporal vibration modes, the hip-angle curves shift toward the healthy template in both peak
309 magnitude and phase, becoming smoother and more symmetric across the gait cycle. Panel ii summarizes the
310 normalized dynamic time-warping (DTW) distance between each patient's trajectory and the normal template.
311 At the group level (panel iii), the mean hip DTW distance decreases from 6.08 in the control condition to 3.72
312 and 3.96 with SpaVib 40 Hz and SpaVib 20 Hz, corresponding to reductions of ~39% and ~35%. Constant
313 vibration reduces the mean distance to 4.93 and 4.69 at 40 Hz and 20 Hz, corresponding to reductions of ~19%
314 and ~23%. Thus, spatiotemporal vibration—particularly at 40 Hz—produces the largest improvement in hip-
315 trajectory similarity to the healthy pattern.

316 Knee kinematics show a consistent trend (**Fig. 6b**). In the control condition, knee-angle trajectories often exhibit
317 shifted peaks and insufficient swing-phase flexion, deviating from the characteristic double-peaked profile of
318 healthy gait. With spatiotemporal vibration, especially at 40 Hz, both the timing and magnitude of peak flexion
319 and extension move closer to the normal template, and the full-cycle waveform recovers a more typical double-
320 bump morphology. In DTW analysis, the mean knee distance to the normal template decreases from 5.999 in the
321 control condition to 3.71 and 3.74 with SpaVib 40 Hz and SpaVib 20 Hz, representing reductions of ~38% for
322 both settings. Constant vibration reduces the mean distance to 4.67 and 4.96 at 40 Hz and 20 Hz, corresponding
323 to reductions of ~22% and ~17%. Together, these results indicate that spatiotemporal vibration outperforms
324 constant vibration in reshaping both hip and knee joint trajectories toward a more physiological gait pattern.

325 Finally, we assessed lower-limb muscle fatigue using the fatigue indices (**Fig. 6c**). Across conditions,
326 spatiotemporal vibration produced larger and more consistent reductions in fatigue compared with constant
327 vibration, suggesting that improved kinematic regularity may be accompanied by a more efficient neuromuscular
328 output during walking. Collectively, these findings extend the spatiotemporal parameter improvements to joint-
329 level kinematics and fatigue-related outcomes, further supporting the functional benefits of gait-phase–aligned
330 spatiotemporal vibrotactile cueing.

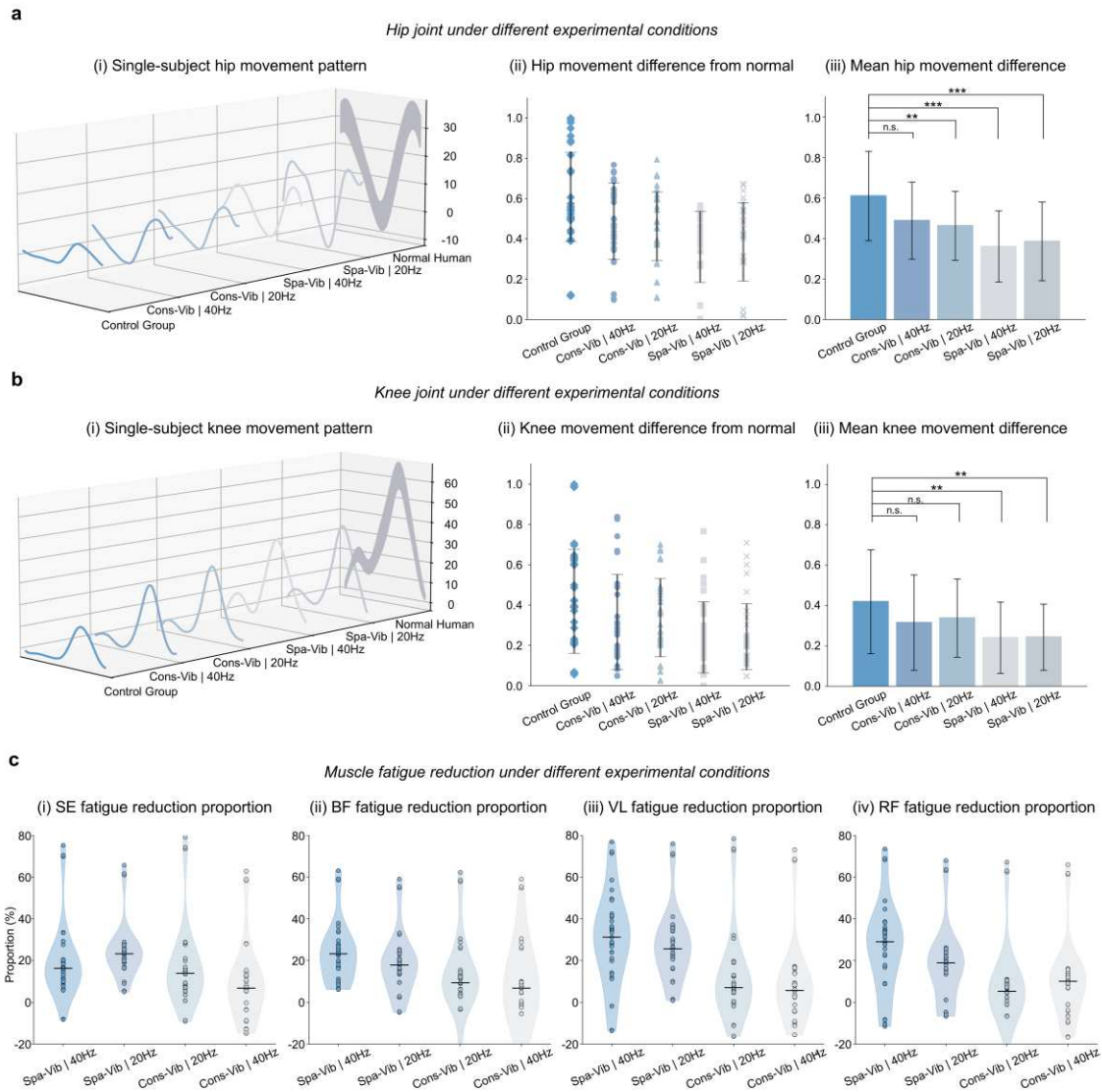


Fig. 6 | Effects of spatiotemporal vibrotactile cues on joint kinematics and muscle fatigue.

(a) Hip kinematics: (i) representative hip-angle trajectories with a healthy reference; (ii) per-patient normalized DTW distance to the normal template; (iii) group mean \pm SD, showing DTW reductions of \sim 39% (SpaVib 40 Hz) and \sim 35% (SpaVib 20 Hz). (b) Knee kinematics: analogous plots showing recovery of a more physiological double-peaked pattern and \sim 38% DTW reductions under spatiotemporal vibration. (c) Muscle fatigue: violin plots showing larger and more consistent fatigue reductions under spatiotemporal than constant vibration. Statistics compare five conditions; asterisks denote differences versus control (* $P < 0.1$, ** $P < 0.05$, *** $P < 0.005$).

Discussions

In this work, we present an intelligent flexible spatiotemporal vibration system that integrates soft electronics with a single IMU gait recognition algorithm to form a compact, skin conformal, fully on device rehabilitation

344 platform. Unlike rigid, bulky devices, the flexible patch conforms to the curved, dynamically deforming surface
345 of the anterior thigh and maintains reliable adhesion and electrical performance during repeated bending and
346 twisting, which supports long term daily wear^{25,26}. All sensing, processing, and storage are handled locally by
347 the patch and the Rehealthy smartphone application, which avoids cloud dependence and transmission latency
348 and provides advantages in data privacy and offline use. Spatiotemporal vibration of the anterior thigh is
349 expected to activate cutaneous receptors and muscle spindle afferents and to provide proprioceptive input that is
350 precisely aligned with the gait cycle²⁷. Previous work suggests that such input can modulate spinal pattern
351 generating circuits and supraspinal control loops involved in timing and scaling of gait, which is consistent with
352 the multi-level improvements observed here²⁸⁻³⁰.

353 At the algorithmic level, the Gait Phase Adaptive single IMU reconstruction uses phase dependent
354 complementary fusion to exploit the strengths of accelerometer based and gyroscope-based estimates in different
355 motion states, which yields higher accuracy and robustness than representative existing filters across a broad
356 range of gait patterns³¹. The combination of dynamic DBSCAN and a time weighted update strategy allows the
357 individualized gait database to be continuously refined while preserving data reliability. Outlier or clearly
358 pathological cycles are automatically excluded, and the effective stimulus target gradually shifts from the
359 patient's initial gait toward a normative template as rehabilitation progresses³². This learn as you rehabilitate
360 paradigm is aligned with emerging concepts of on body, real time adaptation in next generation wearable systems.
361 Clinically, we quantified the effects of spatiotemporal vibration along three dimensions: spatiotemporal gait
362 parameters, joint kinematics, and muscle fatigue. Compared with no stimulation and constant vibration,
363 spatiotemporal vibration significantly reduced stride to stride variability in stride length and gait cycle duration
364 and shifted support phase ratios toward the range observed in healthy adults³³. At the kinematic level, hip and
365 knee angle trajectories under spatiotemporal vibration became more similar to physiological patterns³⁴, with
366 more normal amplitude, timing, and waveform morphology. At the muscular level, key lower limb muscles
367 showed substantial reductions in fatigue indices, indicating that patients could complete the same walking task
368 with lower overall activation. These improvements are also clearly illustrated in the supplementary videos:
369 without vibration stimulation, patients exhibited gait hesitation or freezing and an increased tendency to lose
370 balance during turning, whereas under spatiotemporally structured vibration cues, gait became noticeably
371 smoother and more stable, with no observable freezing or falling tendencies (**Movies S1 and S2**). Together, these
372 findings suggest that spatially and temporally structured vibration cues enhance overall gait coordination and
373 efficiency rather than simply increasing step length or speed.

374 Several limitations should be acknowledged. First, although the clinical study included 35 patients with
375 Parkinson's disease, this cohort is still modest and follow up was relatively short, which prevents assessment of
376 long-term effects on outcomes such as fall rate and real-world functional independence. Second, our evaluation
377 focused on level, straight walking, whereas everyday environments also include turning, slopes, and irregular
378 terrain; future work should examine algorithm stability and stimulation efficacy across these scenarios. Third,
379 the present study inferred neural mechanisms indirectly from behavioral and EMG outcomes and did not include

380 direct measurements of neural activity or reflex modulation. Future studies that combine this system with
381 neurophysiological recordings or neuroimaging, and that incorporate closed loop neurofeedback based on neural
382 or EMG signatures, may clarify the underlying mechanisms and further enhance user engagement, comfort, and
383 rehabilitation efficacy in home-based deployment.

384

385 **Methods**

386 **Clinical study design and data analysis**

387 Figure 3B summarizes the clinical protocol, experimental setting, and multimodal data pipeline for the
388 Parkinson's disease study. Patients walked back and forth along an 8 m by 3 m walkway while wearing the
389 flexible spatiotemporal vibration patch, a commercial inertial motion capture suit (Noitom, China), and surface
390 electromyography sensors (Noraxon, United States). All sensor streams together with synchronized video
391 recordings were transmitted to a local computer for time alignment, preprocessing, and statistical analysis,
392 yielding a multimodal dataset that links lower limb kinematics, muscle activity, and externally delivered cues.

393 We enrolled 35 independently ambulatory patients with clinically confirmed Parkinson's disease (20 women
394 (57.1%), 15 men (42.9%); mean age 61.7 ± 8.5 years, range 50-80 years) with stable vital signs. Their mean
395 height was 159.8 ± 7.6 cm (males: 167.3 ± 5.2 cm; females: 155.9 ± 4.8 cm), mean weight 59.9 ± 5.7 kg (males:
396 65.1 ± 3.2 kg; females: 56.8 ± 4.1 kg), and mean disease duration 5.8 ± 4.3 years (range 1-15 years). Mean
397 UPDRS3 score was 30.2 ± 14.5 (range 4-54), Modified Hoehn-Yahr Scale score 2.2 ± 0.9 (range 1-4)³⁵, and
398 educational level 9.1 ± 2.8 years (range 6-15 years). The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the
399 Second Xiangya Hospital (No. LYG20230049), and written informed consent was obtained from all participants.
400 Baseline characteristics, including sex, age, height, weight, disease duration, UPDRS3 scores, Modified Hoehn-
401 Yahr Scale grades, and educational level, are summarized in Supplementary Table 1. All clinical ratings were
402 obtained more than 12 hours after withdrawal of antiparkinsonian medication to ensure an off-medication state.
403 Each participant completed five experimental conditions in a randomized order: control (patch worn with
404 vibration disabled), spatiotemporal vibration at 40 Hz, spatiotemporal vibration at 20 Hz, constant vibration at
405 40 Hz, and constant vibration at 20 Hz. Participants were not informed which vibration pattern was active in a
406 given trial. In each condition, they walked two laps of the walkway while lower limb kinematics (IMU suit and
407 flexible patch), surface electromyography signals, footprint data, and video were recorded. These data were used
408 to quantify changes in spatiotemporal gait parameters, thigh kinematics, and muscle activation patterns across
409 vibration conditions.

410

411 **Design and fabrication of the intelligent flexible spatiotemporal vibration patch**

412 The flexible spatiotemporal vibration patch adopts a multilayer stacked architecture. The bottom layer is a
413 polyurethane (PU)-based medical pressure-sensitive adhesive (PSA), which provides skin adhesion and
414 breathability. Above this, a polyimide (PI) flexible substrate with multiple ventilation apertures supports the
415 flexible printed circuit board (FPCB) and component pads. The middle layer consists of the assembled flexible

416 circuitry, including a low-power microcontroller unit (MCU), a six-axis inertial measurement unit (IMU), a
 417 power-management module (PMM), protection circuitry, a wireless charging coil, and four eccentric rotating
 418 mass (ERM) vibration motors. The outermost layer is formed by double-sided casting of polydimethylsiloxane
 419 (PDMS), which encapsulates the entire device to improve waterproofing and wearing comfort. The final patch
 420 has a footprint of approximately 48 mm × 38 mm, a thickness of ~2-3 mm, and a total mass of 6.16 g.

421 The power subsystem comprises a rechargeable micro lithium-ion battery and a wireless charging coil configured
 422 in a closed loop. The PMM provides over-voltage protection and constant-current charging, and supplies
 423 regulated voltages to the MCU, IMU, and vibration motors. The IMU sampling frequency is set to 50 Hz and
 424 data are transferred to the MCU via an I²C bus. The MCU runs embedded firmware for gait recognition and
 425 vibration control, and drives the four vibration channels through four independent pulse-width modulation
 426 (PWM) outputs. A Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) module enables local bidirectional communication between the
 427 patch and the Rehealthy smartphone application. All signal acquisition, algorithmic processing, and data storage
 428 are performed locally on the patch and smartphone, without reliance on cloud-based computation.

429

430 **Single-IMU orientation reconstruction and gait phase recognition**

431 To achieve reliable thigh-orientation reconstruction with a minimal sensor configuration, a single six-axis IMU
 432 was mounted on the lateral aspect of the thigh, and a calibration procedure was used to map the sensor coordinate
 433 frame to the anatomical frame. At each sampling instant k , the IMU outputs tri-axial acceleration $\mathbf{a}(k) =$
 434 $[a_x(k), a_y(k), a_z(k)]^T$ and angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}(k) = [\omega_x(k), \omega_y(k), \omega_z(k)]^T$.

435 The accelerometer signal is used to estimate the static inclination of the thigh relative to gravity. When transient
 436 linear accelerations are negligible, the roll ϕ (rotation about the anteroposterior axis) and pitch θ (rotation about
 437 the mediolateral axis) can be approximated as

$$439 \quad \phi_{\text{acc}}(k) = \arctan\left(\frac{a_y(k)}{a_z(k)}\right), \theta_{\text{acc}}(k) = \arctan\left(\frac{\sqrt{a_y^2(k) + a_z^2(k)}}{a_x(k)}\right).$$

438 In parallel, the gyroscope signal provides a dynamic estimate of the same angles via discrete-time integration,

$$441 \quad \phi_{\text{gyro}}(k) = \phi_{\text{gyro}}(k-1) + \omega_x(k) \Delta t, \theta_{\text{gyro}}(k) = \theta_{\text{gyro}}(k-1) + \omega_y(k) \Delta t,$$

440 where Δt is the sampling interval.

442 Because gyroscope integration is susceptible to low-frequency drift and accelerometer measurements are
 443 contaminated by transient linear accelerations during dynamic gait, we implemented a gait phase-based adaptive
 444 complementary filter. In this scheme, stance, swing and transition phases are identified from the IMU signals,
 445 and a phase-dependent weight $w(k)$ is used to fuse the two estimates,

$$448 \quad \phi(k) = w(k) \phi_{\text{gyro}}(k) + [1 - w(k)] \phi_{\text{acc}}(k), \theta(k) = w(k) \theta_{\text{gyro}}(k) + [1 - w(k)] \theta_{\text{acc}}(k),$$

446 thereby suppressing drift during low-dynamic phases while preserving responsiveness during rapid segments of
 447 the gait cycle.

449 More specifically, within a sliding window of length N , we compute the variance of the vertical acceleration a_z ,

450 denoted σ_a^2 , and the number of angle peaks C_{peak} . Based on σ_a^2 , C_{peak} , and the current trend of the thigh angle,
 451 each sample is classified into one of three states: stance, swing, or transition. The complementary-filter weight
 452 $w(k)$ is then set according to the detected state: $w(k)$ is small (for example 0.1–0.2) during stance to rely more
 453 heavily on the accelerometer and suppress drift; $w(k)$ is large (around 0.8) during swing to emphasize the
 454 gyroscope's dynamic response; and an intermediate value is used during transition. The fused thigh flexion angle
 455 is therefore estimated as

$$456 \quad \theta_f(k) = [1 - w(k)] \theta_{\text{acc}}(k) + w(k) \theta_{\text{gyro}}(k),$$

457 followed by a first-order low-pass filter to obtain a smooth time series of thigh angles.

458 After obtaining a continuous angle trajectory, local extrema and zero crossings are used to detect gait-cycle
 459 boundaries. Combining the profiles of $\theta_f(k)$ and $\omega_y(k)$, the algorithm automatically labels key gait events such
 460 as heel strike, full-foot contact, toe-off, and swing. These gait-phase labels are used both to trigger spatiotemporal
 461 vibration cues in real time and to provide temporal anchors for constructing the individualized gait database.
 462

463 **Personalized gait database and dynamic DBSCAN updating**

464 To capture subtle temporal changes in each patient's gait, we constructed a personalized gait database locally on
 465 the smartphone. For every complete gait cycle, the fused thigh-angle trajectory $\theta_f(k)$ is resampled by linear
 466 interpolation to a fixed length L and arranged in chronological order as a feature vector $\mathbf{V}_i \in \mathbb{R}^L$. During the
 467 initialization stage, the patient walks continuously for ~ 10 s, from which multiple gait cycles are extracted to
 468 form an initial sample set $\{\mathbf{V}_1, \dots, \mathbf{V}_n\}$.

469 During real-time use, whenever a new gait cycle is detected and its feature vector \mathbf{V}_{new} is obtained, the algorithm
 470 determines whether this sample should be written into the database. We adopt a dynamic, density-based
 471 clustering strategy inspired by DBSCAN to adaptively set clustering parameters³⁶. First, we compute the average
 472 distance of all existing samples from the mean vector $\bar{\mathbf{V}}$:

$$473 \quad \bar{D} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\mathbf{V}_i - \bar{\mathbf{V}}\|.$$

474 This \bar{D} is used as the neighborhood radius Eps in the DBSCAN algorithm, and the current sample count n is
 475 taken as the minimum number of points in a neighborhood, MinPts . For a new sample \mathbf{V}_{new} , if the number of
 476 existing samples within radius Eps is at least MinPts , \mathbf{V}_{new} is regarded as a "core point" in a dense region and is
 477 admitted into the database; otherwise, it is treated as an outlier and discarded.

478 To globally assess the stability of the sample set, we define a sample reliability index

$$482 \quad P = \left(1 - \frac{D_{\text{min}}}{\bar{D}}\right) \left(1 - \frac{N_{\text{elim}}}{N_{\text{total}}}\right),$$

479 where D_{min} is the minimum pairwise distance between samples, N_{elim} is the number of rejected outlier samples,
 480 and N_{total} is the total number of samples considered. Larger P indicates a more compact database with fewer
 481 outliers and thus a more stable representation of the patient's gait.

483 To balance historical information with ongoing gait changes, we apply a time-weighted update strategy. Let the
 484 samples be ordered from oldest to newest as $\mathbf{V}_1, \dots, \mathbf{V}_n$. The weight assigned to the i -th sample is

487
$$w_i = \frac{\exp[\lambda(i-n)]}{\sum_{j=1}^n \exp[\lambda(j-n)]},$$

485 where $\lambda > 0$ controls the sensitivity to recency: samples with indices closer to n (more recent cycles) receive
 486 higher weights. The patient's current personalized reference trajectory is then given by the time-weighted average

489
$$G_{\text{pers}}(k) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i V_i(k),$$

488 which serves as the individualized target for subsequent gait fusion and stimulation design.

490
 491 **Normative gait template and individualized fusion strategy**

492 We first recorded thigh-angle trajectories from healthy volunteers to construct a normative gait template
 493 $G_{\text{norm}}(k)$. During actual walking, the system dynamically adjusts the relative contributions of the patient-specific
 494 trajectory and the normative template to generate a fused target curve

497
$$G_{\text{fuse}}(k) = a_t G_{\text{pers}}(k) + b_t G_{\text{norm}}(k), a_t + b_t = 1,$$

495 where $G_{\text{pers}}(k)$ is the personalized reference obtained from the time-weighted database and a_t, b_t are fusion
 496 weights at training session t .

498 At the beginning of rehabilitation, we set $a_t \approx 0.9$ so that the stimulation pattern remains close to the patient's
 499 habitual gait. As training progresses, b_t is gradually increased—guided by the sample reliability index P and
 500 clinical recovery—such that the fused curve progressively converges toward the normative template in overall
 501 shape.

502 Based on $G_{\text{fuse}}(k)$, we derive the desired temporal proportion of each gait phase within a cycle and compute the
 503 time derivative of the fused thigh angle,

508
$$v(t) = \frac{dG_{\text{fuse}}(t)}{dt}.$$

504 When $v(t)$ exceeds a preset threshold over several consecutive samples and the angle is close to a predefined
 505 trigger value, the algorithm identifies the onset of the "leg-lifting initiation" phase. Multi-channel vibration
 506 output is then applied within a short window around this time point, providing pre-emptive spatiotemporal cues
 507 to facilitate earlier and more stable swing initiation.

509
 510 **Spatiotemporal gait parameters and joint kinematic analysis**

511 Spatiotemporal gait parameters were obtained from the footprint system. Stride length was defined as the
 512 horizontal distance between two consecutive heel strikes of the same foot. Gait cycle duration was defined as
 513 the time interval between two consecutive heel strikes of the same foot. The stance-phase ratio was defined as
 514 the fraction of the gait cycle during which the foot was in contact with the ground. For each patient and each
 515 stimulation condition, these parameters were calculated for all gait cycles, and their variance and standard

516 deviation were further computed to quantify gait stability.
 517 Joint kinematics were derived from the commercial inertial motion capture system, which provided sagittal-
 518 plane flexion–extension angles of the lower-limb joints (primarily hip and knee). For comparison across strides,
 519 the joint-angle time series of each gait cycle were linearly resampled to a normalized 0–100% gait cycle. To
 520 quantify the similarity between a patient's joint pattern and the normative template, we used dynamic time
 521 warping (DTW)³⁷. Let the patient's angle sequence be $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_{L_x})$ and the normal template be $\mathbf{y} =$
 522 (y_1, \dots, y_{L_y}) . The local distance is defined as $d(i, j) = |x_i - y_j|$, and the cumulative distance matrix D is
 523 computed recursively as

$$525 \quad D(i, j) = d(i, j) + \min \{D(i - 1, j), D(i, j - 1), D(i - 1, j - 1)\},$$

524 with boundary condition $D(1, 1) = d(1, 1)$. The DTW distance is then

$$529 \quad \text{DTWD} = D(L_x, L_y),$$

526 with smaller values indicating greater waveform similarity. For statistical analysis, DTWD values under each
 527 stimulation condition were normalized to the corresponding control value for each participant to facilitate across-
 528 subject comparisons.

531 **Surface EMG acquisition and muscle fatigue indices**

532 Surface EMG signals were collected using a multi-channel EMG system at a sampling rate of 1500 Hz. Bipolar
 533 Ag/AgCl electrodes (inter-electrode distance 2 cm) were placed over the semitendinosus (SE), biceps femoris
 534 (BF), vastus lateralis (VL), and rectus femoris (RF) muscles. Raw EMG signals were band-pass filtered between
 535 10–500 Hz and notch filtered at 50 Hz to remove motion artifacts and power-line interference, followed by full-
 536 wave rectification^{38,39}.

537 To quantify the overall muscular effort during each trial, the rectified EMG was integrated over the full trial
 538 duration T to obtain the integrated EMG (iEMG)⁴⁰:

$$540 \quad \text{iEMG} = \sum_{i=1}^T \text{EMG}(i) \Delta t,$$

539 where Δt is the sampling interval.

541 For each muscle, the trial performed without vibration served as the control condition. The percentage reduction
 542 in muscle fatigue under a given stimulation condition was defined as

$$544 \quad R = \frac{\text{iEMG}_{\text{control}} - \text{iEMG}_{\text{stim}}}{\text{iEMG}_{\text{control}}} \times 100\%,$$

543 where a positive R indicates a decrease in total muscular effort relative to the no-stimulation condition.

546 **Statistical analysis**

547 All continuous variables are reported as mean \pm standard deviation. For stride-length, gait-cycle-duration and
 548 stance-phase-ratio variance, joint-angle DTW distance, and iEMG reduction, differences among the five

549 stimulation conditions were assessed using one-way repeated-measures ANOVA⁴¹. When the omnibus test was
550 significant, Bonferroni-corrected paired t tests were used for post hoc pairwise comparisons. All statistical
551 analyses were performed locally in MATLAB and Python, with a two-sided significance threshold of $P < 0.01$.

552

553 **List of Supplementary Materials**

554 **Supplementary Information**

555 Supplementary Note 1. Circuit design of the flexible spatiotemporal vibration patch.

556 Supplementary Note 2. Fabrication and encapsulation process.

557 Supplementary Note 3. Reference-free quality scoring framework for orientation filters.

558 Supplementary Note 4. Dynamic time-warping-based similarity analysis.

559 Supplementary Note 5. Gait analysis and computational methods

560 Supplementary Note 6. Joint-angle analysis and computational methods

561 Supplementary Note 7. EMG analysis and computational methods

562 Supplementary Table 1. Clinical characteristics of the patients.

563 **Supplementary Datasets**

564 PD35_angle_hip_knee_summary.xlsx (Summary data of hip and knee joint angles for PD35 subjects)

565 PD35_gait_stride_duration_support_summary.xlsx (Summary data of gait stride duration and support phase for
566 PD35 subjects)

567 PD35_muscle_fatigue_summary.xlsx (Summary data of muscle fatigue for PD35 subjects)

568 **Movies S1 to S2**

569 Movie S1. Patients walking without vibration stimulator.

570 Movie S2. Patients walking with vibration stimulator.

571 **Supplementary Documents S1 to S4**

572 Document S1. Patent document.

573 Document S2. Software registration document.

574 Document S3. IRB-approved study protocol.

575 Document S4. Winner certificate.

576

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661

662

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678
679 **Declaration of interests:**

680 The authors declare no competing interests.

681
682 **Data availability:**

683 The source code for the models related to this research can be accessed at:
684 <https://github.com/Moonwolf129/Intelligent-Spatiotemporal-Vibration-Patch-for-PD-Gait-Rehabilitation>.
685 Other supporting data for the study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.
686

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [PD35musclefatiguesummary.xlsx](#)
- [PD35gaitstridedurationsupportsummary.xlsx](#)
- [SupplementaryInformation.docx](#)
- [PD35anglehipkneesummary.xlsx](#)
- [VS2.Patientswalkingwithvibrationstimulator.mp4](#)
- [VS1.Patientswalkingwithoutvibrationstimulator.mp4](#)