1	Stability-normalised walking speed: a new approach for human gait
2	perturbation research
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25 Abstract

In gait stability research, neither self-selected walking speeds, nor the same prescribed walking 26 speed for all participants, guarantee equivalent gait stability among participants. Furthermore, 27 28 these options may differentially affect the response to different gait perturbations, which is problematic when comparing groups with different capacities. We present a method for 29 decreasing inter-individual differences in gait stability by adjusting walking speed to equivalent 30 margins of stability (MoS). Eighteen healthy adults walked on a split-belt treadmill for two-31 minute bouts at 0.4m/s up to 1.8m/s in 0.2m/s intervals. The stability-normalised walking speed 32 33 (MoS=0.05m) was calculated using the mean MoS at touchdown of the final 10 steps of each speed. Participants then walked for three minutes at this speed and were subsequently exposed 34 to a treadmill belt acceleration perturbation. A further 12 healthy adults were exposed to the 35 36 same perturbation while walking at 1.3m/s: the average of the previous group. Large ranges in 37 MoS were observed during the prescribed speeds (6-10cm across speeds) and walking speed significantly (P<0.001) affected MoS. The stability-normalised walking speeds resulted in 38 39 MoS equal or very close to the desired 0.05m and reduced between-participant variability in MoS. The second group of participants walking at 1.3m/s had greater inter-individual variation 40 41 in MoS during both unperturbed and perturbed walking compared to 12 sex, height and leg length-matched participants from the stability-normalised walking speed group. The current 42 method decreases inter-individual differences in gait stability which may benefit gait 43 44 perturbation and stability research, in particular studies on populations with different locomotor capacities. [Preprint: https://doi.org/10.1101/314757] 45

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47 Keywords: locomotion, margins of stability, falls, postural balance, motor control, dynamic
48 stability

50 Introduction

Mechanical perturbations have been used for decades to investigate the stability of human walking (Berger et al., 1984; Marigold and Patla, 2002; Nashner, 1980; Quintern et al., 1985; Vilensky et al., 1999) and are now frequently <u>applied</u> in falls prevention contexts (Gerards et al., 2017; Mansfield et al., 2015; Pai and Bhatt, 2007). In gait perturbation studies, self-selected walking speeds (for example: Pai et al., 2014) or a prescribed walking speed for all participants (for example: McCrum et al., 2016a) are commonly used, but each comes with drawbacks that complicate the interpretation of results.

58 A prescribed walking speed (for example, 1.5m/s for all participants) will not result in comparable stability for all participants. This is problematic when comparing groups with 59 different capacities during a gait perturbation task, as the relative challenge of the task will 60 61 vary. In such a situation, the difficulty in recovering stability following mechanical 62 perturbations will be affected by the relative neuromuscular and biomechanical demands of the task. As well as the demand of recovering from one perturbation, the need for adaptation 63 64 following repetition of a perturbation may be different. As a result, it is common to use the self-selected or preferred walking speed in gait perturbation research, but this can introduce 65 other problems. 66

Having participants walk at their own self-selected speeds implies that there will be variation 67 68 across participants, which is likely to be much greater when multiple groups with different 69 locomotor capacities are involved. There is ample evidence that walking speed affects recovery strategy choice following slips (Bhatt et al., 2005) and trips (Krasovsky et al., 2014), the 70 direction of balance loss following slipping (Smeesters et al., 2001) and differentially affects 71 72 falls risk following tripping and slipping (Bhatt et al., 2005; Espy et al., 2010; Pavol et al., 1999). Gait stability at perturbation onset may also not be optimised at the self-selected speed 73 and may differ across groups (Bhatt et al., 2005; Hak et al., 2013; Mademli and Arampatzis, 74

75 2014; Süptitz et al., 2012). For example, older adults walk with a lower safety factor than young adults at self-selected walking speeds (Mademli and Arampatzis, 2014) and reduce stability to 76 benefit from centre of mass velocity when descending stairs; a potential compensation for 77 reduced lower limb neuromuscular capacities (Bosse et al., 2012). Taken together, this 78 evidence means that gait perturbation tasks could have very different effects across participants 79 walking at their self-selected speeds, and it may be difficult to determine if group differences 80 are true differences or artefacts of the above walking speed-related effects. These issues can be 81 further confounded, as walking speed directly affects measures of dynamic gait stability using 82 83 a centre of mass – base of support relationship model (Bhatt et al., 2005; Hak et al., 2013; Suptitz et al., 2012). Therefore, more sophistication in the choice of walking speed may be 84 necessary for detailed study of reactive gait stability and adaptation processes. 85

86 Two possible solutions have been applied in previous gait perturbation studies. A Froude 87 number (a dimensionless parameter) for walking speed (Hof, 1996) has been applied to normalise the walking speed based on leg length (Aprigliano et al., 2016; Aprigliano et al., 88 89 2017; Martelli et al., 2013; Martelli et al., 2016). Originally developed to analyse the dynamic similarity of differently sized boats (Vaughan and O'Malley, 2005), the Froude number has 90 been applied for the purpose of comparing the gaits of different sizes and species of animals 91 and results in dynamic similarity of the inverted pendulum motion in gait (Alexander, 1989, 92 93 1991; Vaughan and O'Malley, 2005). However, while the inverted pendulum motion may be 94 dynamically similar between participants, this normalisation based on leg length is not necessarily synonymous with a normalisation of gait stability, because factors such as 95 individual differences in foot placement, posture, leg length to truck length ratio and internal 96 97 properties of the neuromotor and neuromuscular systems are ignored. Task demand in such gait perturbation protocols (and most locomotor tasks) depends critically on these other factors 98 and not only on the dimensions of the body; an 18-year-old and an 80-year-old with the same 99

100 leg length are unlikely to be equally challenged by a gait perturbation while walking at the same speed. Two studies have used 60% of the walk-to-run velocity to normalise the speed to 101 participants' walking-related neuromuscular capacities (Bierbaum et al., 2010, 2011). 102 103 However, this procedure did not lead to comparable stability during non-perturbed walking, with the margins of stability and the components of the margins of stability showing differences 104 between the young and older subjects (Bierbaum et al., 2010, 2011), again probably due to the 105 fact that gait stability is not determined exclusively by the neuromuscular properties 106 responsible for gait speed. As both existing normalisation methods are based on a single 107 108 parameter, neither of which are the sole determinants of gait stability, one cannot expect equivalent gait stability among participants. Therefore, further attempts to tackle these issues 109 are warranted (McCrum et al., 2016b; McCrum et al., 2017). 110

111 Here, we present a new method for decreasing inter-individual differences in gait stability by 112 normalising the walking speed based on gait stability. For this method we use the margins of stability (MoS) concept (Hof et al., 2005), one of the few well-defined and well-accepted 113 biomechanical measures of mechanical stability of the body configuration during locomotion 114 (Bruijn et al., 2013), useful for assessing changes in gait stability due to mechanical 115 perturbations and balance loss. Additionally, we present results from a gait perturbation 116 experiment comparing participants walking at their stability-normalised walking speed with 117 participants walking all at the same prescribed speed. 118

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120 Methods

121 Participants

Eighteen healthy adults participated in the first part of this study (eight males, 10 females; age:
24.4±2.5y; height: 174.9±7.4cm; weight: 74.6±15.2kg). Twelve healthy adults participated in

the second part of the study (Table 1). The participants had no self-reported history of walking

difficulties, dizziness or balance problems, and had no known neuromuscular condition or injury that could affect balance or walking. Informed consent was obtained and the study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The study protocol was approved by the Maastricht University Medical Centre medical ethics committee.

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130 Setup and Procedures

131 The Computer Assisted Rehabilitation Environment Extended (CAREN; Motekforce Link, Amsterdam, The Netherlands), comprised of a dual-belt force plate-instrumented treadmill 132 133 (Motekforce Link, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; 1000Hz), a 12-camera motion capture system (100Hz; Vicon Motion Systems, Oxford, UK) and a virtual environment that provided optic 134 flow, was used for this study. A safety harness connected to an overhead frame was worn by 135 136 the participants during all measurements. Five retroreflective markers were attached to anatomical landmarks (C7, left and right trochanter and left and right hallux) and were tracked 137 by the motion capture system. 138

In the first part of the study (18 participants), the measurement sessions began with 60s 139 familiarisation trials of walking at 0.4m/s up to 1.8m/s in 0.2m/s intervals. After approximately 140 141 five to ten minutes rest, single two-to-three-minute-long measurements were then conducted at the same speeds. Following these measurements, the stability-normalised walking speed was 142 calculated. To determine the stability-normalised walking speed, the mean anteroposterior 143 144 MoS (see below) at foot touchdown of the final 10 steps of each walking trial (0.4m/s to 1.8m/s) were taken and fitted with a second order polynomial function. For each participant, the speed 145 resulting in MoS of 0.05m was calculated. Based on our pilot testing, this value would result 146 147 in walking speeds that would be possible for healthy adults of most ages (Bierbaum et al., 2010, 2011; Süptitz et al., 2013). With certain populations, slower walking speeds would be required 148 149 and then a greater MoS could be used. Participants then walked for three minutes at their 150 stability-normalised walking speed, at the end of which, a gait perturbation was applied without warning. The perturbation consisted of an 80% increase in the right treadmill belt speed from 151 the stability-normalised walking speed of the participant with a 3m/s² acceleration, and thereby, 152 we also normalised the magnitude of the perturbation to the already normalised walking speed. 153 The acceleration began before touchdown of the to-be-perturbed limb to ensure the belt was 154 already at a higher speed when the foot touched down (triggered automatically by the D-Flow 155 software of the CAREN, when the hallux marker of the to-be-perturbed limb became anterior 156 to the stance limb hallux marker in the sagittal plane). The belt decelerated after toe-off of the 157 158 perturbed limb.

In the second part of the study, 12 participants completed the same familiarisation protocol and then walked for three minutes at 1.3m/s (average stability-normalised walking speed of the 18 participants in the first part of the study). After this, they experienced the same treadmill belt acceleration perturbation. To compare these results with a matched sample, 12 participants from the first group of 18 were selected and matched specifically for sex, height and leg length to the participants in part two of the study (Table 1).

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166 Data Processing

Marker tracks were filtered using a low pass second order Butterworth filter (zero-phase) with a 12Hz cut-off frequency. Foot touchdown was detected using a combination of force plate (50N threshold) and foot marker data (Zeni et al., 2008). The anteroposterior MoS were calculated at foot touchdown as the difference between the anterior boundary of the base of support (anteroposterior component of the hallux marker projection to the ground) and the extrapolated centre of mass as defined by Hof et al. (2005), adapted for our reduced kinematic model based on <u>Süptitz et al. (2013), as follows:</u>

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$$X_{COM} = \frac{P_{TroL} + P_{TroR}}{2} - P_{HalluxP} + \frac{0.5\left(\frac{V_{TroL} + V_{TroR}}{2} + V_{C7}\right) + |V_{Belt}|}{\sqrt{\frac{g}{L_{Ref}}}}$$

where P_{Trol} , P_{TroB} and $P_{HalluxP}$ are the trochanter and the posterior hallux marker 176 anteroposterior positions respectively; V_{TroL} , V_{TroR} and V_{C7} are the anteroposterior velocities 177 of the trochanter and C7 markers respectively; V_{Belt} is the treadmill belt velocity; g is 178 gravitational acceleration (9.81m/s²); and L_{Ref} is the reference leg length. This reduced 179 kinematic model was previously shown to be suitable for assessing the MoS and it's 180 components during unperturbed and perturbed treadmill walking in young, middle and older-181 182 aged healthy adults, with high correlations and no clear differences compared to a full kinematic model (Süptitz et al., 2013). Note that a large proportion of the CoM velocity is 183 derived from the treadmill belt speed, potentially improving the accuracy compared with 184 185 overground walking when the entire CoM velocity is derived from the markers. The MoS was calculated for: the final 10 steps of each set walking speed in the first part of the study; the 186 mean MoS of the eleventh to second last step before each perturbation (Base); the final step 187 before each perturbation (Pre); and the first recovery step following each perturbation (Post1). 188

189

190 *Statistics*

A mixed effects model for repeated measures with walking speed as a fixed effect and Tukey 191 post hoc comparisons was used to confirm a walking speed effect on the MoS. To determine 192 193 whether a normalisation of walking speed based on body dimensions would assume equivalent gait stability, Pearson correlations between the stability-normalised walking speeds and 194 participants' height and leg length were conducted. A two-way repeated measures ANOVA 195 196 with participant group (Stability-normalised walking speed [Norm] and 1.3m/s) and step (Base, Pre, Post1) as factors with post hoc Sidak's tests for multiple comparisons were used to 197 198 determine between group differences in the MoS. Equivalence tests using 90% confidence

intervals were used to confirm the similarity of the groups' demographics. Significance was

set at α =0.05. When sphericity was violated, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied.

201 <u>Normality of the distributions was assessed with Q-Q plots.</u> Analyses were performed using

- 202 Prism version 8 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, California, USA).
- 203

204 Results and Discussion

205 <u>Stability during unperturbed walking</u>

Walking speed significantly affected the MoS ($F_{[2,547,42,93]}=1485$, P<0.0001, $\hat{\varepsilon}=0.3638$; Fig. 1) 206 207 and Tukey's multiple comparisons tests revealed significant differences for each speed compared to all other speeds (P<0.0001; Fig. 1). These results agree with previous work (Bhatt 208 et al., 2005; Hak et al., 2013; Süptitz et al., 2012). A range of MoS values were observed for 209 210 each speed (approximately 6-10cm), even among these healthy participants, confirming some of the issues related to prescribed walking speeds in gait stability research discussed above. 211 The strong relationship between walking speed and MoS also has relevance for clinical studies 212 conducting self-paced gait measurements with an assessment of gait stability. Patients who 213 improve in walking speed may demonstrate a reduction in MoS, which may not be reductions 214 in the stability of the patients' gait per se, but simply an artefact of the improved walking speed. 215

216 Insert Fig. 1

The stability-normalised walking speeds (range from 1.22m/s to 1.51m/s with a mean±SD of 1.3±0.1m/s) resulted in MoS very close to the desired outcome of 0.05m (within one SD of the mean MoS for 15 of the 18 participants; Fig. 2A). The stability-normalised walking speed also reduced between-participant variability in MoS (as shown by the group level standard deviations; Fig. 2B). These combined results indicate that the stability-normalisation was successful in reducing between-participant differences in MoS during walking, even in a homogenous group of healthy young adults.

224 Insert Fig. 2

Small, non-significant correlations between the determined stability-normalised walking speeds and the participants' height and leg length were found (Fig. 3). The outcomes of our correlation analysis suggest that height and leg length did not significantly affect the calculation of stability-normalised walking speed, suggesting that a normalisation of walking speed based on body dimensions does not assume equivalent gait stability, at least not when assessed by the MoS concept.

231 Insert Fig. 3

232

233 <u>Stability during perturbed walking</u>

For the second part of the study, the 12 participants were successfully matched to the 12 of the 234 235 18 participants from part one of the study (Table 1). During the perturbations, the 1.3m/s group 236 had a greater range in MoS values during Base, Pre and Post1 (Fig. 4). A two-way repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant effect of group ($F_{1, 22}$ =6.409, P=0.019), step ($F_{1.097}$, 237 $_{24.141}$ =8.34, P=0.0068, $\hat{\epsilon}$ =0.5486) and a significant group (Norm and 1.3m/s) by step (Base, Pre, 238 Post1) interaction ($F_{[2, 44]}$ =15.4, P<0.0001) on MoS. Sidak post hoc tests revealed a significant 239 difference between Norm and 1.3m/s groups at Post1 (P=0.0049). While part of the differences 240 found may be due to chance, the current comparison suggests that the stability-normalised 241 walking speed and the normalised perturbation (acceleration to a peak speed 180% of the 242 walking speed) reduce the inter-individual differences in MoS during both unperturbed and 243 perturbed walking, at least with the current protocol. The significant difference found at Post1 244 between the groups also aligns with the previous studies reporting different responses to 245 perturbations experienced while walking at different speeds (Bhatt et al., 2005; Krasovsky et 246 al., 2014). 247

248 Insert Fig. 4

249 *Further methodological considerations*

As the MoS – walking speed relationship from 1.0-1.6m/s appeared to be linear in part one of 250 the study (Fig. 1), a simple linear regression was calculated for 1.0-1.6m/s. A significant 251 regression equation was found (Fig. 5). Future research could use this (or similar) as a simple, 252 efficient method for increasing the dynamic similarity in gait stability across participants, by 253 measuring participants walking at a single speed from 1.0-1.6m/s and using this equation to 254 255 prescribe speeds that would result in similar MoS values. As it is common practice in gait experiments to familiarise participants to the setup and conditions, including some practice 256 257 walking trials, we would suggest that this may be the ideal opportunity to incorporate our method, without having to conduct any additional trials. It is, however, worth highlighting that 258 the current participants were young healthy adults; the walking speed – MoS relationship may 259 260 be altered in other populations. Future implementations of this method should consider the capacities of the population of interest and the desired or expected impact on gait stability of 261 the perturbations when selecting an MoS value for normalisation. 262

263 Insert Fig. 5

264

265 *Limitations*

Individual responses in the MoS to the perturbation varied (Fig. 4), although the variation was 266 lower in the stability-normalised walking speed group. Part of the reasons for this variation 267 268 could be the result of uncontrolled factors such as individual physiological, biomechanical or psychological differences affecting the individual response at the onset of the perturbation. It 269 could be argued that using a single trial as opposed to averaging multiple trials is less reliable, 270 271 however, due to the significant and rapid learning effects following even single perturbations of this kind, the responses seen after averaging trials would no longer accurately represent 272 natural responses to unexpected perturbations. In this sense, our approach is ecologically valid, 273

274 as the variation is representative of daily life responses to truly unexpected gait perturbations. Another potential limitation relates to a validity constraint of the MoS calculation detailed by 275 Hof et al. (2005), in that the pendulum length (distance from the centre of mass to the axis of 276 rotation) should remain constant. This may not always be the case during dynamic walking and 277 perturbed walking tasks if the knee is slightly flexed at foot contact. However, we have not 278 observed large changes in the pendulum length and small changes are not systematic, as within 279 and between individual variability in responses is large. We therefore believe that this is an 280 acceptable limitation of using the model in this context, but one that should be kept in mind 281 282 when interpreting the results.

283

284 <u>Conclusions</u>

In conclusion, large ranges in MoS were observed and walking speed significantly affected MoS even within these young healthy participants, confirming some issues related to walking speed choice in gait stability research. The current methods reduced between-participant variability in MoS during both unperturbed and perturbed walking, meaning that the method could be beneficial for gait stability studies comparing groups with different locomotor capacities. An equation has been provided that can be used following a single gait trial to increase the dynamic similarity of gait stability between participants.

292

293 Conflict of Interest Statement

294 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

295

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391 Tables

	Sex	Age (y)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	Leg Length (
1.3m/s Group	8 males,	25.1±3.8	178.2 ± 5.2	72.5±9.7	84.2±2.1
	4 females				
Norm Group	8 males,	24.3±2.9	178.7±5.8	79±15.3	85.5±2.8
	4 females				
Equivalent based on 90%	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Confidence Intervals?					

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the participant groups in part two of the study.

394

Figure Legends

Fig. 1: Individual margins of stability at foot touchdown over the different walking speeds. The
dashed line represents the margin of stability used to determine the stability-normalised
walking speed.

Fig. 2: A: Means and standard deviations of the margins of stability at touchdown of the final 10 steps at the stability-normalised walking speed for each individual participant. The desired MoS of 0.05m at foot touchdown is indicated by the dashed line. B: The between-participant variation in the margins of stability (standard deviation at group level) for the final 10 steps at each walking speed (the stability-normalised walking speed trials are indicated with the black circle; mean and standard deviation).

405 Fig. 3: Pearson correlations between the participants' stability-normalised walking speeds and406 their height and leg length.

407 Fig. 4: Margins of stability during unperturbed and perturbed walking of participants walking
408 at their stability-normalised walking speed (Norm) and participants walking at 1.3m/s. Base:
409 the mean MoS of the eleventh to second last step before each perturbation; Pre: the final step
410 before each perturbation; Post1: the first recovery step following perturbation. *: Significant
411 difference (Sidak post hoc test: P=0.0049).

412 Fig. 5: Margins of stability as a function of walking speed between 1.0 and 1.6m/s. The shaded
413 area represents the 95% confidence intervals of the regression line.

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