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Associations between bipedal stance stability and locomotor stability following a trip in unilateral vestibulopathy

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- 32 **Running Title:** Stance and Locomotor Stability in Vestibulopathy
- 33

34 Abstract

35 Posturography is used to assess balance in clinical settings, but its relationship to gait stability 36 is unclear. We assessed if dynamic gait stability is associated with standing balance in 12 37 patients with unilateral vestibulopathy. Participants were unexpectedly tripped during treadmill walking and the change in the margin of stability (MoS_{change}) and base of support 38 39 (BoS_{change}) relative to non-perturbed walking was calculated for the perturbed and first 40 recovery steps. The centre of pressure (COP) path during 30s stance with eyes open and 41 closed, and the distance between the most anterior point of the COP and the anterior BoS 42 boundary during forward leaning (A_{Dist}) were assessed using a force plate. Pearson 43 correlations were conducted between the static and dynamic variables. The perturbation 44 caused a large decrease in the BoS, leading to a decrease in MoS. One of 12 correlations was 45 significant (MoS_{change} at the perturbed step and A_{Dist}; r = -.595, P = .041; non-significant correlations: $.068 \le P \le .995$). The results suggest that different control mechanisms may be 46 47 involved in stance and gait stability, as a consistent relationship was not found. Therefore, 48 posturography may be of limited use in predicting stability in dynamic situations.

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Keywords: vestibular, dynamic gait stability, falls, balance, locomotion

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52 Word Count: 2504

Introduction

Posturography assesses balance and postural sway through centre of pressure (COP) measurements during stance and has been used in groups at an increased falls risk, such as lower limb amputees,¹ elderly^{2,3} and vestibulopathy patients.^{4,5} Contributions of sensory systems to postural control can be estimated by disturbing vision,⁶ changing the support surface⁷ or via Achilles tendon vibration.⁷⁻⁹ However, the majority of falls occur during ambulation,¹⁰⁻¹⁴ not static stance, which may be one reason why posturography appears to be limited as a clinical test, rehabilitation tool and falls risk assessment method.¹⁵

From a mechanical perspective, the vertical projection of the centre of mass (CoM) is 62 within the base of support (BoS) during bipedal stance and is controlled through anticipatory 63 64 adjustments of the sensory and neuromuscular systems. However, in dynamic settings, the extrapolated CoM is often situated outside of the BoS and the CoM has a velocity and 65 specific direction, and effective reactive postural adjustments (e.g. by increasing BoS) are 66 required to control stability.¹⁶⁻¹⁹ These differences may explain why posturography could not 67 separate fallers from non-fallers in a slip recovery test during gait.²⁰ Similarly, the maximum 68 recoverable forward lean angle is not generally predicted by static posturography.^{21,22} 69 70 However, such comparisons between static and dynamic tasks have not, to our knowledge, 71 been conducted in subject groups with balance disorders. Vestibulopathy is associated with imbalance, dizziness and falls²³⁻²⁶ and decreased motor performance^{17,27,28} and therefore, it is 72 73 important to determine if posturography can provide some insight into gait stability issues 74 seen in these patients.

In a recent study of our group, we reported that patients with unilateral peripheral vestibular disorder have a diminished ability to control and adapt their dynamic gait stability following unexpected trip perturbations while walking compared to healthy participants.¹⁷ Additionally, it has been well documented that various posturography methods can discriminate vestibular

79	patients from healthy subjects. ²⁹⁻³² Given that both static and dynamic methods reveal
80	differences between healthy and vestibulopathy groups, and that posturography can be easily
81	and cheaply conducted, an assessment of the relationship between such tasks is needed to
82	determine if posturography alone is sufficient to estimate dynamic gait stability. To address
83	this, we collated previously collected data from the dynamic gait stability measurements ¹⁷
84	and from posturography measurements conducted with the same patients. ³³ An explorative
85	analysis was conducted to determine correlations between dynamic stability control following
86	a trip and COP parameters during a forward leaning task and during quiet standing with the
87	eyes open and closed. Based on previous results demonstrating a lack of relationship between
88	static and dynamic stability tasks, ²⁰⁻²² we did not expect to find a consistent relationship
89	between the dynamic stability parameters and the COP parameters during quiet standing, but
90	we suspected that the forward lean task may reveal some correlations with the dynamic task
91	due to the fact that the anterior limit of stability is more challenged in this task than during
92	quiet standing.

Methods

For this explorative analysis, we pooled previously collected data of patients with 94 95 unilateral peripheral vestibular disorder from two previous studies, the first involving a tripping while walking task¹⁷ and the second involving stance posturography tasks.³³ For each 96 97 parameter of interest (see below) we included all patients with data from each variable. In total, 12 patients were included with age, height and weight of 50.5(5.4) years, 169.7(6.6) cm 98 99 and 72.5(9.6) kg respectively (means and SD). All patients were assessed for inclusion by an 100 otolaryngologist to confirm their diagnoses. Further inclusion criteria were that participants 101 did not exercise more than once per week and had no other health issues. The studies were 102 approved by the ethical board of the university, the procedures were explained to the participants, and written informed consent was obtained in accordance with the Declarationof Helsinki.

Previous work has reported the effects of repeated trip perturbations on these 105 subjects.¹⁷ Here, we consider only the impact of the first unexpected trip, to exclude the 106 107 possibility of adaptation influencing the results and to analyse a more ecologically valid response to the trip perturbation.³⁴ Full details on the trip perturbation device have been 108 reported previously.^{17,35,36} Briefly, the tripping task was conducted during treadmill walking 109 at 1.4 m·s⁻¹ (pulsar 4.0, h/p/cosmos, Nussdorf-Traunstein, Germany) using a custom built 110 111 electronically driven magnet system to provide a trip perturbation. The perturbation consisted 112 of a single unilateral resistance of 2.1 kg, applied and removed unexpectedly to the right leg 113 during the swing phase via a Teflon cable and ankle strap. Participants wore a safety harness 114 connected to an overhead track during all trip recovery and posturography trials. Four to 115 seven days before the measurement session, all participants took part in a treadmill walking 116 familiarisation session lasting approximately 30 minutes, to become accustomed to the treadmill walking conditions. On the day of the measurement, the session began with five 117 118 minutes of walking to ensure participants were comfortable on the treadmill. The ankle strap 119 was then attached to the right leg and participants walked for another four minutes in order to 120 establish a baseline (about 20 seconds was recorded towards the end of this period to be used 121 as a non-perturbed walking baseline). Directly following the baseline period, the perturbation 122 was applied for the entire duration of the swing phase and was subsequently removed. 123 Participants were not given a warning about the upcoming perturbation. An example of a 124 typical recovery response to the perturbation from one participant can be seen in Fig. 1.

125 Insert Fig. 1

126 In order to examine dynamic gait stability, we tracked a twelve-segment, full 127 kinematic model using 26 reflective markers (radius 16 mm) recorded by an eight camera

(120 Hz) Vicon Nexus motion capture system. Segmental masses and locations were 128 calculated based on the data of Dempster et al..37 The margin of stability (MoS) in the 129 anteroposterior direction was calculated, as defined by Hof et al.³⁸ (see Fig. 2), as the 130 difference between the BoS anterior boundary (anteroposterior position of the toe marker) 131 and the extrapolated CoM at the instant of foot touchdown (determined using tibia 132 133 accelerometer data (ADXL250; Analog Devices, Norwood, MA, USA)) during baseline non-134 perturbed walking, and at touchdown of the perturbed step (PERT) and the first recovery step 135 following the perturbation ($POST_1$). The extrapolated CoM was defined as follows:

Extrapolated CoM=
$$P_{CoM} + \frac{(V_{CoM} + |V_{BoS}|)}{\sqrt{g \cdot L^{-1}}}$$

where P_{CoM} is the horizontal (anteroposterior) component of the projection of the CoM to the 136 ground, V_{CoM} is the horizontal velocity of the CoM, V_{BoS} is the average horizontal velocity of 137 138 the foot markers during stance (approximately the treadmill belt speed), g is gravitational 139 acceleration and L is the pendulum length (the distance between the CoM and the centre of 140 the ankle joint in the sagittal plane). We focussed here on these two steps as our previous work demonstrated the importance of the perturbed and first recovery step when recovering 141 stability following such perturbations.¹⁷ Baseline values for MoS and BoS (BoS defined as 142 143 the anteroposterior distance between the left and right toe markers) were calculated at foot 144 touchdown by averaging 12 consecutive steps of non-perturbed walking. In order to account 145 for individual differences in walking stability, the change in the MoS and BoS relative to baseline non-perturbed walking at PERT and POST₁ was used for this study (MoS_{change} and 146 BoS_{change} respectively), where negative MoS_{change} and BoS_{change} values represent lower 147 148 stability and smaller BoS respectively relative to baseline non-perturbed walking. Insert Fig. 2 149

150 Our previous study of stance stability assessed many variables from different sensory 151 conditions in these patents.³³ In the current study, we include three variables and two tasks

152 that are conducted in clinical settings and provide information on general stance stability with 153 and without visual sensory information, and stability control near the anterior limit of stability. Participants stood on a custom made strain gauge force plate which was used to 154 measure (at 1000 Hz) the position of the COP during forward leaning and upright standing 155 156 tasks. Participants stood barefoot with their feet at pelvic width and with their heels on a 157 marked line on the platform. The positions of both feet were marked with a line on the force 158 plate in order to transform the coordinates of the anterior and posterior boundaries of the BoS 159 into the coordinate system of the force plate. In this way, the position of the COP could be 160 calculated in relation to the boundaries of the BoS. For the leaning task, participants were 161 instructed to lean as far forward as possible without moving joints other than the ankles. The 162 task was repeated three times, with the trial showing the least difference between the most 163 anterior position of the COP under the feet and the anterior boundary of the BoS (the line 164 connecting left and right metatarsal five) being used for each subject (A_{Dist}). Participants were 165 then asked to stand as still as possible on the platform for three trials, under both eyes open 166 and eyes closed conditions each with a time frame of 30 seconds. For the eyes closed 167 condition, participants wore blackout glasses (custom made) to ensure that there was no 168 visual sensory input during this condition. A Hamming low-pass filter with a cut off 169 frequency of 5 Hz was used to remove high frequency noise and eliminate sampling error. 170 Postural stability was assessed by the total excursion distance of the COP (COP_{Path}) over the 171 30 seconds analysis window. The average values of the COP parameters from the three trials 172 for each participant were used in the analysis.

Pearson correlations were used to analyse the relationships between the posturography measures (A_{Dist} , <u>eyes open</u> and <u>eyes closed</u> COP_{Path}) and MoS and BoS values of the trip recovery task. 12 and eight participants' data were included for the A_{Dist} and COP_{Path} correlation analyses respectively. The level of significance for all tests was set at $\alpha = .05$. The

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177	distribution normality of the results was checked prior to applying statistical analysis using		
178	the Shapiro-Wilk test, which revealed normal distributions for all parameters ($P > .05$).		
179	GraphPad Prism version 7.00 software (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, California, USA)		
180	was used for the statistical analysis. All results are presented as mean and standard deviation.		
181	Results		
182	The perturbation resulted in large changes in both the BoS and MoS. Changes in BoS		
183	and MoS relative to baseline at touchdown of the perturbed step and first recovery step are		
184	presented in Fig. 3. The perturbation caused a large decrease in the BoS at touchdown of the		
185	perturbed step, leading to a decrease in MoS (Fig. 3). A larger step was then taken in an		
186	attempt to control stability (see BoS at $POST_1$ in Fig. 3) but due to the forward velocity		
187	induced by the trip, the MoS did not return to baseline level (Fig. 3).		
188	Consistent correlations between the posturography and dynamic stability parameters		
189	were not found. The three posturography tasks yielded results of 5.96(1.6) cm, 21.17(5.87)		
190	cm and 30.98(9.54) cm for A _{Dist} , eyes open and eyes closed COP _{Path} respectively. The		
191	correlation analyses revealed a significant negative correlation between A_{Dist} and		
192	$MoS_{change}PERT$ ($r =595$, $P = .041$; Fig. 4). The other 11 correlation coefficients were not		
193	significant (see all <i>r</i> and <i>P</i> values in Fig. 4).		
194	Insert Fig. 3 and Fig. 4		
195	Discussion		
196	The current study aimed to determine if balance maintenance during quiet stance and		
197	dynamic gait stability recovery performance were related in patients with unilateral		
198	peripheral vestibular disorder. Only one significant correlation was found out of 12 (Fig. 4),		
199	suggesting that performance during static stability tasks is not closely related with stability in		
200	dynamic situations. This may be particularly relevant for clinical settings where assessment		

of static stance, but not dynamic gait stability is conducted in patient groups at an increasedfalls risk.

203 The significant negative correlation between A_{Dist} and MoS_{change}PERT means that, in 204 these participants, the ability to bring the COP closer to the anterior boundary of the BoS 205 during forward leaning was associated with a less negative MoS at touchdown of the tripped 206 step during walking. It could be speculated that a more anterior limit of stability was the 207 underlying mechanism for this finding, as this could facilitate both a more anterior COP 208 position during leaning, as well as the ability to apply force to the ground more anteriorly 209 following the perturbation. Similarly, this could also be related to the ability to control CoM 210 velocity in the anterior direction, although this is perhaps less likely, due to the large 211 difference in movement speed of the tasks. In either case, this result suggests that such an 212 anterior leaning task may have some value in assessing the ability to control stability in the 213 anterior direction. However, given the lack of significant correlations in general, the use of 214 posturography tasks for the purpose of estimating stability in dynamic settings is not well supported by our results. This agrees with previous studies in other populations using forward 215 lean and release or slip perturbations.²⁰⁻²² That being said, one limitation of this study was 216 217 that it was not powered to test a null hypothesis such as that no correlations between the tasks 218 would be found and therefore, it may be that with a larger sample size, more significant 219 correlations could have been detected. We do not think that this is likely, however, as when 220 we included age, height and weight matched healthy subjects in the analysis (data not 221 shown), thereby artificially increasing the variation of performance, this did not greatly 222 change the results.

The lack of association between the posturography and trip recovery outcome measures may be due to differences in the governing control strategies and mechanisms of stability associated with the tasks. Posturography during quiet stance assesses the ability to

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keep the vertical projection of the body's CoM within the BoS, principally by using anticipatory adjustments. In contrast, the ability to regain dynamic stability after tripping or slipping where the extrapolated CoM is located outside of the BoS is governed principally by reactive postural adjustments.^{18,19} Here, a key factor in preventing a fall is the ability to take a large recovery step to <u>lengthen</u> the BoS and increase the MoS.¹⁶⁻¹⁸

It is important to note, that while the patients all had unilateral vestibulopathy, the degree of vestibular function remaining varied, and this information was not available for all patients. That being said, there were no significant outliers among the patients in our results, suggesting that while the vestibular function may have varied between patients, the overall impact on stability control was reasonably consistent. This was not a concern for our results, as we treated these subjects as a generalised group with balance disorders that should be distinct from healthy subjects in terms of stability and balance control.

In conclusion, no consistently significant relationship between posturography and the trip recovery task measures was found, indicating that different mechanisms of postural control appear to be involved in our static and dynamic stability tasks. Balance maintenance during quiet stance alone may be of limited use in predicting dynamic stability during perturbed walking. We therefore recommend that task specificity should be considered in clinical and research settings regarding stability and falls risk assessment. Future research should aim to relate laboratory-induced gait perturbation outcomes with real life falls.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1 - Example of a typical recovery response to the trip perturbation in one participant. The perturbation adds resistance to the swing phase of the right leg, leading to a reduction in the base of support at foot touchdown. This causes a more anterior position and higher velocity of the centre of mass at touchdown, relative to non-perturbed walking. In response, an increased base of support is required in the following recovery step to maintain gait stability.

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Figure 2 - Schematic diagram of the inverted pendulum model during locomotion.³⁸ P_{CoM} 366 367 represents the horizontal (anterior-posterior) component of the projection of the center of 368 mass (CoM) to the ground, V_{CoM} is the anterior-posterior velocity of the CoM, V_{BoS} is the 369 average horizontal velocity of the foot markers during stance (approximately the treadmill 370 belt speed), g is acceleration due to gravity and L is the pendulum length (i.e., distance 371 between the CoM and the centre of the ankle joint in the sagittal plane). Margin of stability 372 (MoS) in the anterior direction is calculated at foot touchdown as the difference between the 373 anterior boundary of the base of support (BoS_{Umax}) and the extrapolated centre of mass 374 (X_{CoM}). A stable body configuration is indicated by positive MoS values (A), whereas an 375 unstable body configuration is indicated by negative margin of stability values (B), where 376 additional motor actions, such as stepping, are required to preserve stability and to avoid a 377 fall.

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Figure 3 - Change relative to baseline non-perturbed walking in base of support (BoS) and margin of stability (MoS) at touchdown of the perturbed step (PERT) and the first recovery step (POST₁) for 12 patients with unilateral vestibulopathy (mean, SD and individual data points).

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384 **Figure 4** - Pearson correlation coefficients (*r*) between the static and dynamic stability tasks. 385 12 patients with unilateral vestibulopathy were included for the A_{Dist} correlations and eight 386 patients were included for the eyes open (EO) and eyes closed (EC) COP_{Path} correlations. BoS_{change}PERT and BoS_{change}POST₁: Change in the base of support relative to baseline non-387 388 perturbed walking at touchdown of the perturbed and first recovery steps respectively. 389 MoS_{change}PERT and MoS_{change}POST₁: Change in the margin of stability relative to baseline 390 non-perturbed walking at touchdown of the perturbed and first recovery steps respectively. 391 A_{Dist}: Distance between the most anterior point of the COP during the forward leaning task 392 and the anterior boundary of the base of support (the line connecting left and right metatarsal 393 five). EO and EC COP_{Path}: total path length of the centre of pressure trajectory during 30s of 394 quiet stance with eyes open and closed respectively.





Example of a typical recovery response to the trip perturbation in one participant. The perturbation adds resistance to the swing phase of the right leg, leading to a reduction in the base of support at foot touchdown. This causes a more anterior position and higher velocity of the centre of mass at touchdown, res, jvery s. 28x5m. relative to non-perturbed walking. In response, an increased base of support is required in the following recovery step to maintain gait stability.



Schematic diagram of the inverted pendulum model during locomotion.38 PCoM represents the horizontal (anterior-posterior) component of the projection of the center of mass (CoM) to the ground, VCoM is the anterior-posterior velocity of the CoM, VBoS is the average horizontal velocity of the foot markers during stance (approximately the treadmill belt speed), g is acceleration due to gravity and L is the pendulum length (i.e., distance between the CoM and the centre of the ankle joint in the sagittal plane). Margin of stability (MoS) in the anterior direction is calculated at foot touchdown as the difference between the anterior boundary of the base of support (BoSUmax) and the extrapolated centre of mass (XCoM). A stable body configuration is indicated by positive MoS values (A), whereas an unstable body configuration is indicated by negative margin of stability values (B), where additional motor actions, such as stepping, are required to preserve stability and to avoid a fall.

Fig. 2 60x40mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Change relative to baseline non-perturbed walking in base of support (BoS) and margin of stability (MoS) at touchdown of the perturbed step (PERT) and the first recovery step (POST1) for 12 patients with unilateral vestibulopathy (mean, SD and individual data points).

Fig. 3 68x30mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between the static and dynamic stability tasks. 12 patients with unilateral vestibulopathy were included for the ADist correlations and eight patients were included for the EO and EC COPPath correlations. BoSchangePERT and BoSchangePOST1: Change in the base of support relative to baseline non-perturbed walking at touchdown of the perturbed and first recovery steps respectively.
MoSchangePERT and MoSchangePOST1: Change in the margin of stability relative to baseline non-perturbed walking at touchdown of the perturbed and first recovery steps respectively. ADISt: Distance between the most anterior point of the COP during the forward leaning task and the anterior boundary of the base of support (the line connecting left and right metatarsal five). EO and EC COPPath: total path length of the centre of pressure trajectory during 30s of quiet stance with eyes open and closed respectively.

Fig. 4 142x132mm (600 x 600 DPI)