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4 Mechanisms of head stability during gait initiation in young and older women: a
5 neuro-mechanical analysis.

6

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18

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21

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 Decreased head stability has been reported in older women during locomotor
27 transitions such as the initiation of gait. The aim of the study was to investigate the neuro-
28 mechanical mechanisms underpinning head stabilisation in young and older women during
29 gait initiation. Eleven young (23.1 ± 1.1 yrs) and 12 older (73.9 ± 2.4 yrs) women initiated
30 walking at comfortable speed while focussing on a fixed visual target at eye level. A
31 stereophotogrammetric system was used to assess variability of angular displacement and
32 RMS acceleration of the pelvis, trunk and head, and dynamic stability in the anteroposterior
33 and mediolateral directions. Latency of muscle activation of the sternocleidomastoid, and
34 upper and lower trunk muscles were determined by surface electromyography. Older
35 displayed higher variability of head angular displacement, and a decreased ability to attenuate
36 accelerations from trunk to head, compared to young in the anteroposterior but not
37 mediolateral direction. Moreover, older displayed a delayed onset of sternocleidomastoid
38 activation than young. In conclusion, the age-related decrease in head stability could be
39 attributed to an impaired ability to attenuate accelerations from trunk to head along with
40 delayed onset of neck muscles activation.

41 **Introduction**

42 Stabilisation of the head in space is fundamental to optimise inputs from the visual,
43 vestibular, and somatosensory systems and, therefore, to maintain whole body balance during
44 locomotion (Kavanagh et al, 2005; Pozzo et al, 1990). Decreased head stability has been
45 reported in older individuals during different types of locomotion, including steady-state
46 walking (Cromwell et al, 2001) and locomotor transitions such as gait initiation (Laudani et
47 al, 2006). Transitory locomotor tasks, in particular, involve complex interactions between
48 neural and mechanical factors which may challenge whole-body balance to a greater extent
49 than unconstrained walking (Nagano et al, 2013). This challenge may help to explain why the
50 number of falls in older individuals are frequent during locomotor transitions such as gait
51 initiation and termination (Winter, 1995).

52 In young individuals, head stabilisation is ensured during steady-state walking by
53 cyclically controlling the upper body accelerations caused by the lower body movement,
54 through coordinated movements of the trunk (Kavanagh et al, 2006). In older individuals,
55 however, control of acceleration from the lower to the upper body during steady-state
56 walking has been shown to be less effective than in young individuals (Mazzà et al, 2008). As
57 walking is initiated from a standing position, steady-state velocity is achieved within the first
58 step (Breniere and Do, 1986); due to the transient nature of gait initiation, therefore, higher
59 upper body accelerations are likely to be seen compared to steady-state walking.
60 Subsequently, this could challenge the control of upper body acceleration and therefore head
61 stabilisation in older individuals. To the best of the authors' knowledge, however, there are
62 no studies focusing on the control of upper body accelerations during the transitory task of
63 gait initiation in young and older individuals.

64 From a neuromuscular point of view, electromyography (EMG) studies have
65 highlighted the importance of trunk paraspinal muscle activation in actively attenuating
66 postural perturbations from the lower body during locomotor tasks (Anders et al, 2007; de
67 Sèze et al, 2008). A ‘top down’ anticipatory control of erector spinae muscles, which
68 stabilises the upper trunk first and subsequently the lower trunk, has been reported in young
69 individuals during gait (Winter et al, 1993; Prince et al, 1994). In line with that, Ceccato et al,
70 (2009) have reported a metachronal activation of erector spinae muscle occurring during the
71 preparation of the first step for gait initiation. To date, most of the studies on older
72 individuals have revealed characteristic age-related changes of muscle recruitment in the
73 lower limb during gait initiation. For instance, older individuals have been shown to initiate
74 walking with greater co-contraction of the lower leg muscles (Khanmohammadi et al, 2015a)
75 and a delayed activation of the tibialis anterior muscle compared to young individuals
76 (Khanmohammadi et al, 2015b). It is not known, however, whether older individuals would
77 effectively recruit the trunk muscles and/or adopt an anticipatory control in order to actively
78 aid stabilisation of the head during the transitory phase of gait initiation.

79 The aim of the present study, therefore, was to investigate the neuro-mechanical
80 mechanisms underpinning head stabilisation in young and older individuals during gait
81 initiation. In particular, we aimed to examine control of upper body accelerations and muscle
82 activation patterns of the trunk and neck, which represent two of the main neuro-mechanical
83 strategies underpinning head stability. Additionally, we investigated the control of dynamic
84 balance in young and older participants by evaluating whether the conditions for dynamical
85 stability were met within each age group. It was hypothesised that older women would a)
86 demonstrate reduced ability to attenuate acceleration from lower to upper parts of the upper
87 body, b) have impaired muscle activation pattern of the trunk and neck and c) have reduced
88 dynamic stability, compared to the younger women.

90 Methods*91 PARTICIPANTS*

92 Eleven healthy young (age: 23.1 ± 1.1 years, height: 1.64 ± 0.71 m, body mass: $57.5 \pm$
93 6.7 kg) and 12 healthy older (age: 73.9 ± 2.4 years, height: 1.63 ± 0.45 m, body mass: $66.2 \pm$
94 10.2 kg) females volunteered to participate in the study. Women were the focus of the study
95 as it has been reported that their dynamic stability declines to a greater extent than males
96 (Wolfson et al, 1994) and tend to fall more often (Schultz, Ashton-Miller, & Alexander,
97 1997). Older participants were considered ‘medically stable’ to participate in the study,
98 according to exclusion criteria for older people in exercise studies (Greig et al. 1994). No
99 participants had any history of neurological disorders that would affect their balance or gait
100 ability, and were able to complete the task without the use of bifocal or multifocal spectacles.
101 Written informed consent was provided by all participants and ethical approval was given by
102 the institution’s ethics committee.

103

104 EXPERIMENTAL PROTOCOL AND EQUIPMENT

105 Participants wore their everyday flat shoes. Instructions were to stand as still as
106 possible with their feet in a comfortable position at shoulder width apart, and with the arms
107 alongside the trunk. Participants were verbally instructed to start walking on their own accord
108 from a single force platform (Bertec Corp, Worthington, OH) and to continue to walk
109 forwards in a straight line for at least three steps at their comfortable walking speed. In
110 addition, they were instructed to focus on a fixed visual target, which was set at eye level for
111 each participant and located five metres ahead of the starting position. The position, size and
112 distance of the visual target were decided following pilot testing, which allowed us to design

113 a target which could be comfortably seen by the participants. The right leg was used as the
114 starting (swing) leg for all trials. Starting feet position at shoulder width apart was marked on
115 the force platform and participants repositioned themselves in that position for each trial. In
116 total five trials were completed and analysed.

117 A seven camera motion analysis system (VICON, Oxford Metrics, London, England)
118 was used to record and reconstruct the 3D position of 35 reflective markers placed on body
119 landmarks, following the Davis protocol (Davis et al, 1991) with a sampling rate of 100 Hz.
120 The VICON whole body plug-in-gait model was used to define a local anatomical reference
121 frame for the pelvis (markers on the left and right anterior and posterior superior iliac spines),
122 trunk (markers located at the clavicle and sternum level as well as at C7 and at T10), and
123 head (four markers, placed on the left and right side of the front and back of the head) and
124 then calculating the relevant kinematic data. The force platform was used to track COP
125 motion with a sampling frequency of 1000 Hz.

126 Temporal aspects of gait initiation were determined relative to COP onset. The onset
127 of COP displacement was automatically estimated as the time point at which the AP
128 component of the ground reaction force overcame the threshold defined as 3 standard
129 deviations of its peak-to-peak value during static posture AP force. Gait initiation was
130 performed as a whole movement and divided into two phases: 1) *preparatory phase*, which
131 lasted from the onset of COP motion to the instant of toe off of the swing limb 2): *execution*
132 *phase*, which lasted from toe off of the swing limb to the instant of toe off of the stance leg.
133 Temporal events of gait initiation were obtained from both position and velocity curves
134 derived from markers placed on the calcaneus and fifth metatarsal bones (Mickelborough et
135 al, 2000). These events corresponded to the instants of heel off, toe off and heel contact of the
136 swing limb. Angular displacement and the motion of the upper body segments (pelvis, trunk,
137 and head) were measured in the AP and ML direction. Additionally, whole body COM was

138 recorded as a weighted sum of all body segments using the whole plug-in-gait model in the
139 AP and ML direction.

140 Muscle activity was determined by surface EMG recordings (BTS Bioengineering,
141 Italy). EMG signals were collected bilaterally using bipolar disposable electrodes (1 cm disc-
142 electrodes, 2 cm inter-electrode distance) from the: sternocleidomastoid (SCM), and erector
143 spinae (ES) at the level of T9 and L3, with a sampling frequency of 1000 Hz. Electrode sites
144 were prepared by gently abrading the skin to ensure good contact. For the SCM, electrodes
145 were positioned at 1/3 of the distance from the sternal notch to the mastoid process at the
146 distal end overlying the muscle belly (Falla et al, 2004); and for the ES, electrodes were
147 placed 2 cm lateral of the spinal process at T9 and L3.

148

149 *DATA ANALYSIS*

150 *Variability of angular displacement*

151 Angular displacement of the pelvis, trunk, and head was filtered using a second-order
152 low-pass Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 5 Hz and re-scaled to the first value of
153 the preparatory phase. To quantify variability of the pelvis, trunk, and head motion during
154 gait initiation, the average standard deviation (AvgSD) was calculated using the following
155 equation:

$$AvgSD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2}{100}}$$

156 x = Angular displacement of the segment.

157 This measure has previously been used to assess the stability of individual body
158 segments, with decreased variability indicating increased segment stability (Laudani et al,

159 2006). To further quantify the variance of angular displacement waveforms of the pelvis,
160 trunk, and head in the AP and ML direction, principal component analysis (PCA) was applied
161 to each data set (young and older) computed by a customised Matlab 7.5 script (Mathworks,
162 Inc, USA). The objective of using PCA was to transform the waveform data to reduce the
163 number of variables but retain most of the original variability in the data (Kirkwood et al.,
164 2011). The first principal component (PC) accounts for the highest variability in the data,
165 with subsequent PCs accounting for the remaining variability. For this analysis, a 90% trace
166 variability threshold was used to determine the number of PCs required to retain the most
167 common patterns of angular displacement within each age group. Angular displacement
168 traces used for the PCA were time normalised by interpolation into 100 data points for each
169 phase, corresponding to 1% intervals (preparatory phase: 1-100%, execution phase: 101-
170 200%).

171

172 *Attenuation of upper body accelerations*

173 Acceleration of the pelvis, trunk and head segments was calculated by double
174 derivative of the 3D position of the origin of each upper body segment reference frame in the
175 AP, ML and cranio-caudal (CC) direction. It was computed by a customised Matlab 7.5 script
176 (Mathworks, Inc, USA) and filtered using a second-order low-pass Butterworth filter with a
177 cut- off frequency of 5Hz. The magnitude of acceleration of each segment was calculated
178 using the root mean square (RMS) in the AP, ML and CC direction. RMS acceleration values
179 are known to be influenced by gait velocity (Kavanagh and Menz, 2008), thus AP and ML
180 RMS acceleration were normalized by CC acceleration RMS as proposed by Iosa et al,
181 (2012). The ability to attenuate accelerations through the upper body segments was quantified
182 using the attenuation coefficient expressed as a percentage. The attenuation coefficient

183 describes the ability to reduce accelerations from inferior to superior segments, with reduced
184 linear acceleration from inferior to superior parts of the upper body used as an indicator of
185 upper body stability (Summa et al, 2016). The attenuation coefficients were calculated using
186 RMS values of each segment as follows (for both AP and ML direction):

$$C_{xy} = \left(1 - \frac{RMS_x}{RMS_y}\right) * 100$$

187 x = inferior segment y = superior segment

188 each coefficient representing the attenuation from a lower to an upper body level. C_{PH}
189 representing the attenuation from the pelvis to the head, C_{PT} representing the attenuation from
190 the pelvis to the trunk, and C_{TH} representing the attenuation from the trunk to the head. A
191 positive coefficient value indicated a reduced acceleration whilst a negative coefficient value
192 indicated a greater acceleration between the two specified segments.

193

194 *Activation patterns of the trunk and neck muscles*

195 Raw EMG signals were first high-pass filtered at 20 Hz to remove movement
196 artefacts, then full-wave rectified and filtered using a second-order high-pass Butterworth
197 filter with a cut-off frequency of 50 Hz using a custom Matlab script. The onset of muscular
198 activity was visually estimated by the same experimenter for all calculations, which has been
199 shown to be reliable to achieve muscle onset (Micera et al, 2001), and was expressed as a
200 percentage from COP onset to the end of the preparatory phase.

201

202 *Dynamic stability during gait initiation*

203 Margin of stability, using the extrapolated centre of mass (exCOM) introduced by Hof
204 et al (2005), was used to quantify dynamic stability in the AP and ML direction. The exCOM

205 concept extends the classical condition for static equilibrium of an inverted pendulum by
206 adding a linear function of the velocity of the COM to COM position. This method describes
207 how close an inverted pendulum is to falling, given the position and velocity of its COM, and
208 the position of the margins of its base of support (BOS). For the calculation of the margin of
209 stability, the positions of the COM and BOS need to be known. COM was recorded as a
210 weighted sum of all body segments using the whole plug-in-gait model while BOS was
211 calculated from the distance between the position of the swing heel marker at heel-contact
212 and the position of the stance heel marker at toe off represented the step length and width,
213 and was representative AP and ML BOS respectively. MOS was taken at heel contact of the
214 swing limb, as it has previously been shown that foot strike was systematically made with the
215 heel (Caderby et al., 2014).

216

217 The position of the *exCOM* was then calculated as follows:

218

$$exCOM = xCOM + \frac{x'COM}{\sqrt{\frac{g}{l}}}$$

219 With $xCOM$ and $x'COM$ representing the COM position and velocity respectively, g
220 = $9.81\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, the gravitational acceleration, and l corresponding to the limb length, taken from
221 anthropometric measurements prior to data collection (inverted pendulum eigenfrequency).

222 The MOS corresponded to the difference between the AP and ML BOS and the AP and ML
223 position of the ‘extrapolated COM’ (*exCOM*) at heel contact and defined as $BOS - exCOM$.

224 The lower the MOS value, the closer the *exCOM* is to the BOS, indicating reduced dynamic
225 stability.

226

227 *Statistical analysis*

228 Normality of data was examined and confirmed for all variables using the Shapiro-
229 Wilk test. A series of independent samples t tests were used to test for difference between
230 young and older groups for the AvgSD of angular displacement of each upper body segment,
231 RMS of acceleration at each upper body segment and attenuation of such acceleration and
232 MOS values, with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons applied. Finally, for the
233 onset of muscular activity and relative amplitude of muscle activity of the preparatory phase.
234 Statistical significance was assessed with an alpha level of 0.05. All data are presented as
235 mean \pm SD unless otherwise stated. All statistical analyses were carried out using IBM SPSS
236 v19 (SPSS, Chicago, ILL).

237

238 **Results**

239 *Variability of angular displacement*

240 During the preparatory phase, older had a significantly higher AvgSD of AP angular
241 displacement of the head compared to young ($3.7 \pm 0.84^\circ$ and $1.5 \pm 0.56^\circ$, respectively; $p =$
242 0.004), with no differences in AvgSD of AP angular displacement of the pelvis and trunk
243 between groups. During the execution phase, there were no differences in AvgSD of AP
244 angular displacement of the pelvis, trunk or head between groups (Figure 1). During both the
245 preparatory phase and execution phase, there were no differences in AvgSD of ML angular
246 displacement of the pelvis, trunk or head between groups (Figure 1).

247

248 INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

249

250 PCA of angular displacement is presented in Figure 2 and 3 in the AP and ML
251 direction respectively. In the AP direction, both groups demonstrated a similar amount of
252 variability of pelvis angular displacement as two PCs explained over 90% of the movement
253 pattern variance in both groups. Both groups demonstrated low variability of trunk angular
254 displacement, as only one PC was needed to explain over 90% of the movement pattern
255 variance. Young showed low variability of angular head displacement as only one PC was
256 needed to explain over 90% of variance. Older however, demonstrated high variability in
257 head angular displacement indicated by the requirement of three PCs to explain over 90% of
258 variance (Figure 2).

259 In the ML direction, young displayed low variability of pelvis angular displacement
260 as one PC was needed to explain over 90% of variance. Older displayed higher variability,
261 requiring two PCs to explain over 90% of variance. Both groups demonstrated similar
262 variability of trunk angular displacement. Both groups displayed high variability of head
263 movement as both required three PCs to explain over 90% of the movement pattern variance.

264

265 INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

266

267 INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE

268

269 *Attenuation of upper body accelerations*

270 During the preparatory and execution phase, young displayed significantly greater AP
271 RMS acceleration for the pelvis, trunk and head compared to older ($p < 0.05$) (Figure 4A and
272 B). During the preparatory phase, AP C_{TH} was significantly lower in older compared to

273 young ($-1.9 \pm 20.2\%$ versus $10.1 \pm 21.6\%$, [$p = 0.02$], respectively (Figure 4C)). During the
274 execution phase, there were no significant differences in acceleration attenuation between
275 groups (Figure 4D).

276 During the preparatory and execution phases, there was no difference in ML RMS
277 acceleration for the pelvis, trunk or head between age groups (Figure 5A and B). During the
278 preparatory phase, ML accelerations were attenuated for both groups, with the exception of
279 older not able to attenuate C_{PT} , however there were no significant differences between groups
280 (Figure 5C). During the execution phase, both groups did not attenuate ML accelerations,
281 however there were no significant differences between groups (Figure 5D).

282

283 INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE

284

285 INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE

286

287 *Muscle activity*

288 Older displayed a significantly delayed muscle activity onset of the SCM compared to
289 young ($p < 0.05$) (Table 1). There were no differences in muscle activity onset time for the
290 ES (T9) or ES (L3) between groups. (Table 1).

291

292

293 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

294

295 *Dynamic stability*

296 There was no difference between groups for AP MOS, however older displayed a
297 significantly lower ML MOS compared to young ($p = 0.035$).

298

299 INSERT FIGURE 6 HERE

300

301 **Discussion**

302 The purpose of the study was to examine any age-related change in the neuro-
303 mechanical strategies underpinning head stabilisation and dynamic stability during gait
304 initiation. Older displayed lower AP acceleration of the upper body segments compared to
305 younger and were less able to attenuate AP accelerations between trunk and head compared
306 to young. Older revealed delayed anticipatory activation of the SCM compared to young.
307 Finally, older demonstrated reduced ML dynamic stability, while there was no difference
308 between age groups for AP dynamic stability. Older participants showed greater variability of
309 head angular displacement in AP direction compared to young participants during both the
310 preparatory and execution phase of gait initiation, which is in agreement with a previous
311 study by Laudani et al (2006).

312 In the present study, young displayed greater AP RMS acceleration at each upper
313 body segment compared to older, indicating older may adopt a more cautious strategy in
314 order to move from a standing posture to forward walking (Menz et al., 2003). No difference
315 between groups existed for ML acceleration attenuation, and similar to previous studies
316 (Kavanagh et al, 2005; Mazzà et al, 2008), both groups found it difficult to attenuate ML
317 accelerations during the execution phase.

318 Our data are in accordance with previous gait studies demonstrating higher AP RMS
319 of upper body segments in young compared to older during walking (Mazzà et al, 2008) and
320 gait termination (Rum et al, 2017). Despite young producing higher AP RMS acceleration of
321 each upper body segment, young were able to attenuate such accelerations from the lower to
322 the upper parts of the upper body segments to a greater extent compared to older. In
323 particular, whilst young were able to attenuate accelerations from trunk to head, aiding
324 protection of the head, older could not, suggesting acceleration did not decrease from the
325 trunk to the head. The inefficiency in attenuating these accelerations may be attributed to
326 deleterious age-related changes to passive structures of the spinal column or to sequential
327 activation of the axial musculature (Doherty, 2003).

328 From a passive point of view, the age-related reduction in acceleration attenuation can
329 be associated with the so called “*en bloc*” movement, related to the documented rigidity of
330 the head-trunk system during gait initiation (Laudani et al, 2006). From a neuromuscular
331 point of view, head stabilisation during dynamic tasks has been thought to be planned early in
332 the central nervous system (CNS), aiming to attenuate postural perturbations of the lower
333 limbs (Pozzo et al., 1990). For example, Ceccato et al, observed a ‘top down’ approach to
334 anticipatory control of the paraspinal muscles (C7 – L3), stabilising the head first, and
335 subsequently lower parts of the upper body during gait initiation. In line with that, the present
336 study reports that the SCM was activated earlier than the trunk muscles in both young and
337 older individuals, suggesting mechanisms of head stabilisation may rely on feed-forward
338 commands from the CNS, a likely mechanism employed to maintain stability of the visual
339 field and offer protection to the head. This mechanism, however, may be impaired in older as
340 they demonstrated a delayed onset of the SCM, which could explicate the decreased head
341 stability and the inability to attenuate accelerations from the trunk to the head in the
342 preparatory phase.

343 Instability during walking in older populations is commonly considered in the ML
344 plane, while loss of ML stability can have a profound effect on walking function (Maki,
345 1997). Interestingly, differences in upper body stabilisation between young and older were
346 only observed in the AP direction during the present investigation. Even though differences
347 in upper body stabilisation were apparent between age groups, there were no differences in
348 AP MOS between groups. A possible explanation is that upper body differences were not
349 considerable enough to alter AP dynamic stability. AP MOS has previously been described as
350 similar between young and older females during steady state walking (McCrum et al, 2016).
351 Despite no differences between groups in the ML direction of upper body variability or
352 attenuation of acceleration, older demonstrated significantly reduced MOS, indicating
353 reduced ML dynamic stability. This may have implication for fall risk as dynamic stability
354 can be an indicator of fall risk (Lockhart and Liu, 2008; Toebe et al., 2012). Caderby et al
355 (2014) observed that young were able to maintain ML dynamic stability during gait initiation,
356 while ML dynamic stability in older during gait initiation warrants further research to
357 generate an understanding of why ML dynamic stability declines during gait initiation in
358 older females.

359

360 **Conclusion**

361 This study demonstrated that the ability to stabilise head movements in the AP
362 direction during gait initiation is compromised in older women. Decreased head stability in
363 older women was attributed to an impaired ability to attenuate accelerations from the trunk to
364 the head along with delayed activation of the neck flexor muscles. On the other hand, there
365 was a discrepancy between head stabilisation and dynamic stability in the AP and ML
366 direction, meriting further investigation.

367

368 **Conflict of interest**

369 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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462

463 **Table 1.** The time of the onset of muscle activity given as a percentage of total duration of
464 the preparatory phase of gait initiation. P value ($p < 0.05$) indicates significance between
465 groups.

466

	Young (n =11)	Older (n = 6)	P-value
SCM			
Onset (%)	20.5 ± 13.2	50.5 ± 15.4	0.028
Upper spine (T9)			
Onset (%)	42.2 ± 20.5	63.3 ± 24.7	0.182
Lower spine (L3)			
Onset (%)	53.1 ± 25.6	60.7 ± 22.5	0.192

467

468

469

470 **Legends**

471

472 **Figure 1.** Young and older mean \pm SD of variability of the pelvis (top row), trunk (middle
473 row) and head (bottom row) segment angular displacement during preparatory phase and
474 execution phase in the anterior posterior direction (AP) and mediolateral direction (ML),
475 evaluated by calculation of the average standard deviation (AvgSD). *indicates significance
476 between groups.

477

478 **Figure 2.** Principal component analysis on the data set of angular displacement of the pelvis,
479 trunk, and head in the anteroposterior (AP) direction during the whole movement of gait
480 initiation. Positive and negative values indicate flexion or extension, respectively (direction is
481 indicated by the arrow to the left of the figures). The axes intersection (0) represents the COP
482 onset, the first perforated line indicates the end of the preparatory phase while the second
483 perforated line indicates the end of the execution phase. Each line represents one principal
484 component and the percentage of variance accounted for is reported.

485

486 **Figure 3.** Principal component analysis on the data set of angular displacement of the pelvis,
487 trunk, and head in the mediolateral (ML) direction during the whole movement of gait
488 initiation. Positive and negative values indicate abduction or adduction, respectively
489 (direction is indicated by the arrow to the left of the figures). The axes intersection (0)
490 represents the COP onset, the first perforated line indicates the end of the preparatory phase
491 while the second perforated line indicates the end of the execution phase. Each line represents
492 one principal component and the percentage of variance accounted for is reported.

493

494 **Figure 4.** Mean \pm SD of the acceleration root mean square (RMS) values at pelvis, trunk and
495 head level (panel A & B) and coefficients of attenuation for pelvis-head (C_{PH}), pelvis-trunk
496 (C_{PT}) and trunk-head (C_{TH}) (panel C & D) for young and older during the preparatory phase
497 and execution phase in the anteroposterior (AP) direction. *indicates significance between
498 groups

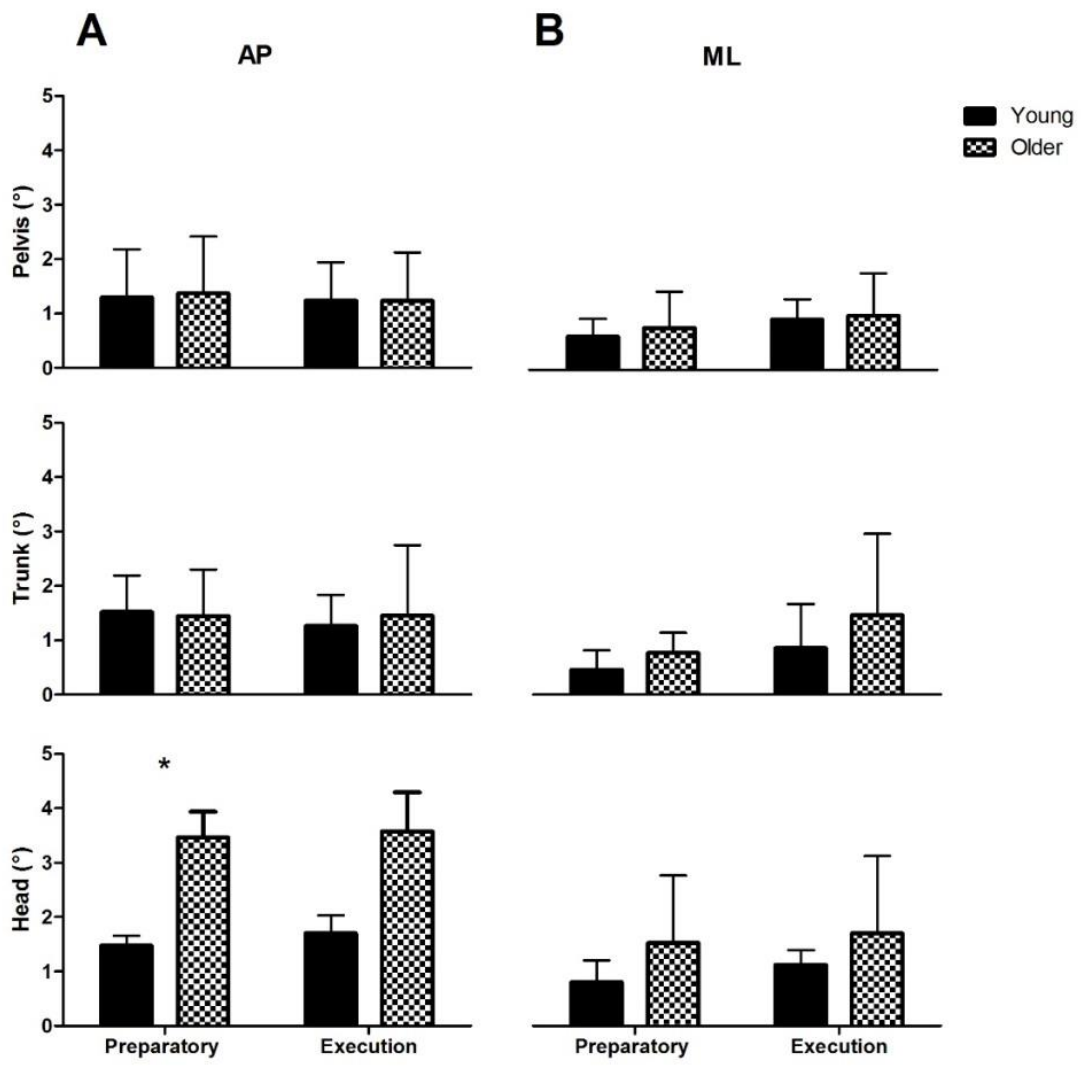
499

500 **Figure 5.** Mean \pm SD of the acceleration root mean square (RMS) values at pelvis, trunk and
501 head level (panel A & B) and coefficients of attenuation for pelvis-head (C_{PH}), pelvis-trunk
502 (C_{PT}) and trunk-head (C_{TH}) (panel C & D) for young and older during the preparatory phase
503 and execution phase in the mediolateral (ML) direction.

504

505 **Figure 6** Margin of stability (MOS) at swing heel contact in the anteroposterior (AP) and
506 mediolateral (ML) direction. * indicated significant difference between young and older.

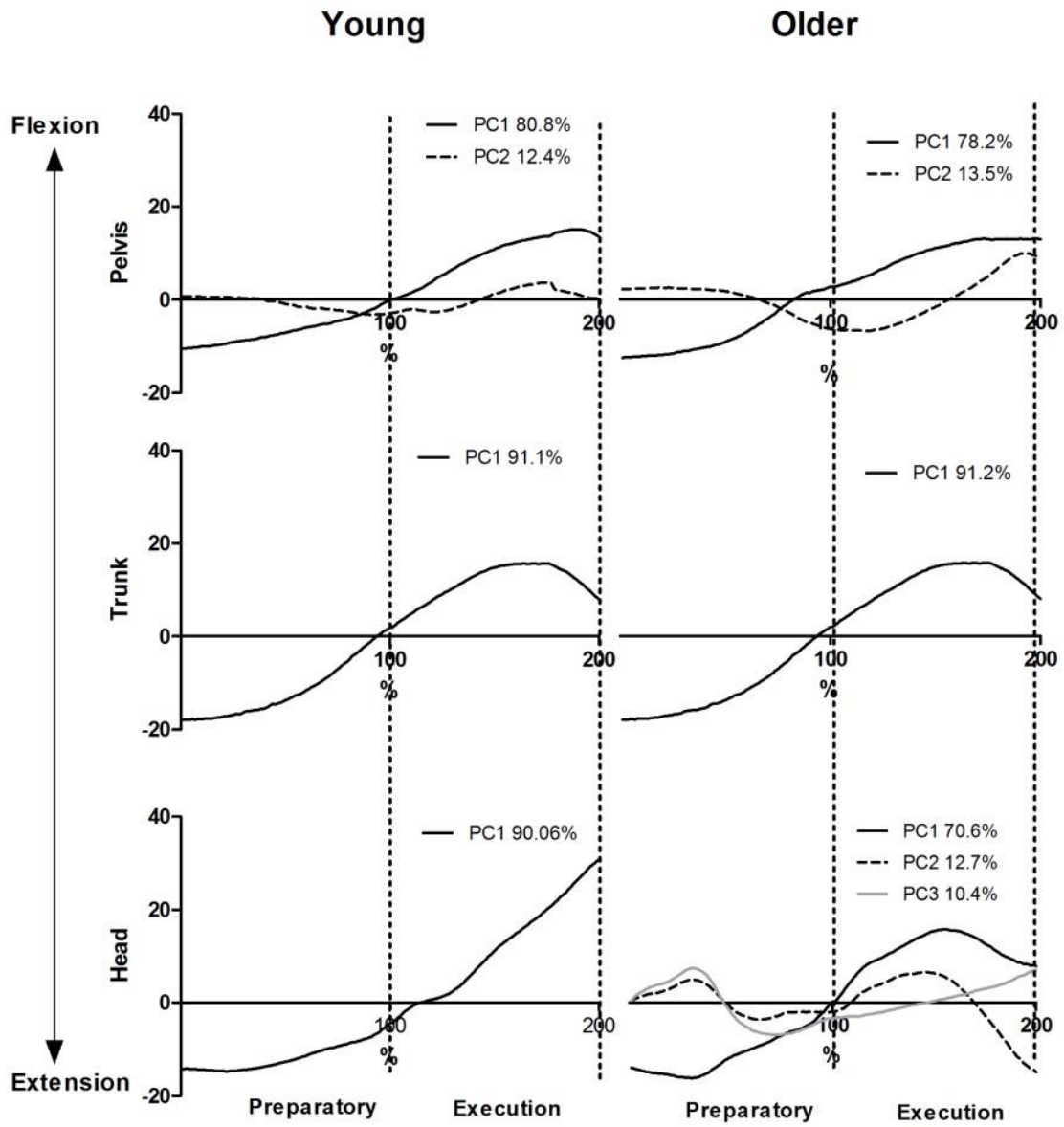
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508 Figure 1

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AP



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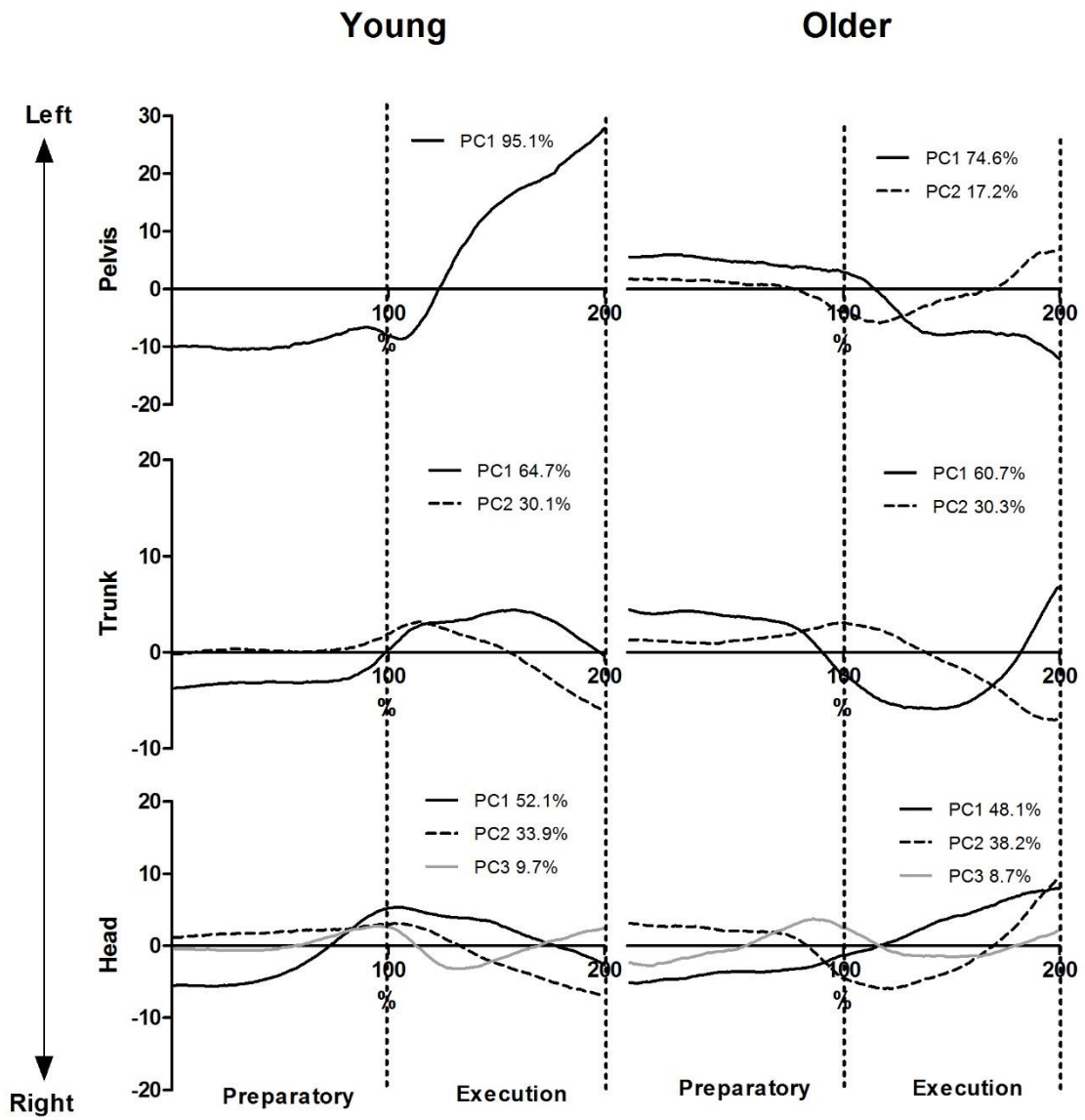
511 Figure 2

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513

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ML



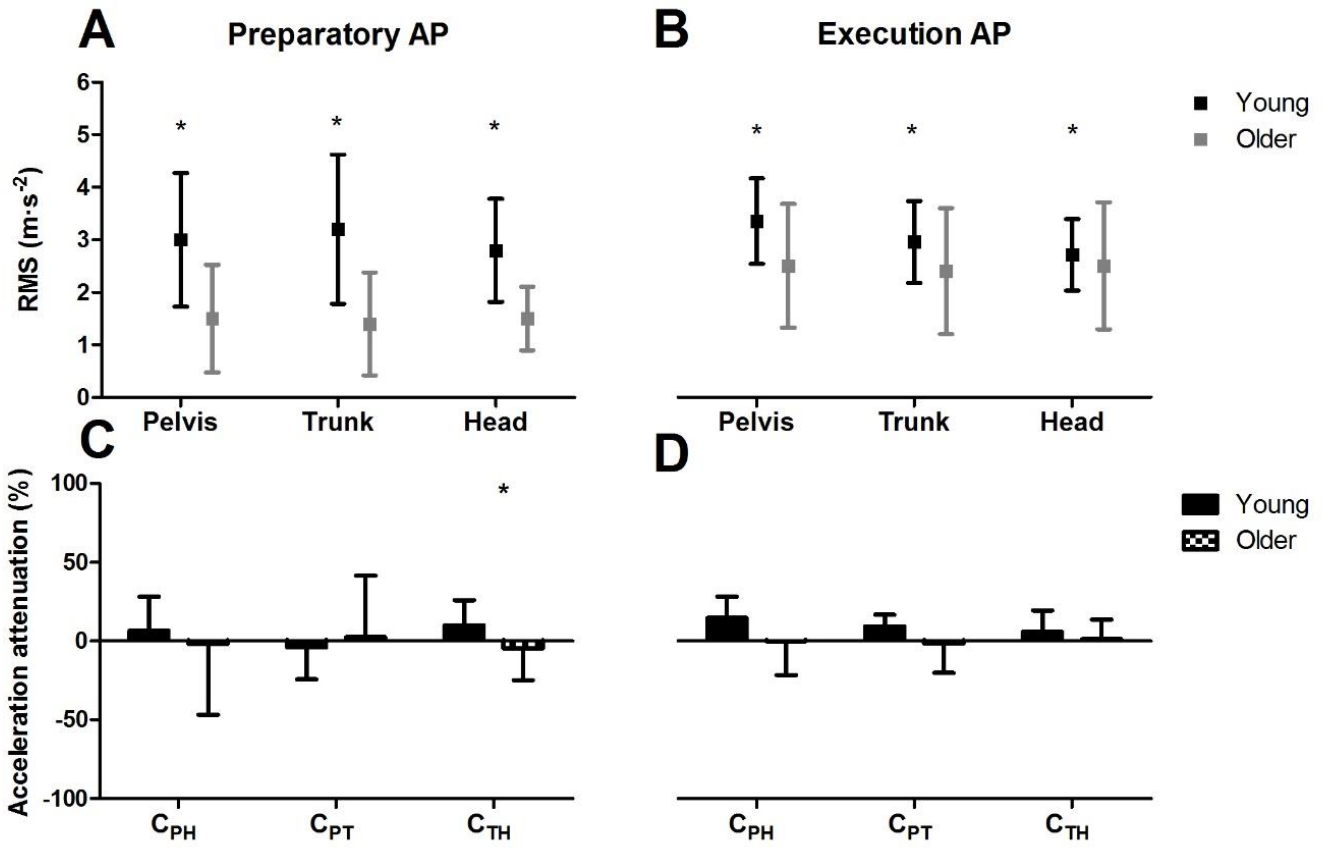
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516 Figure 3

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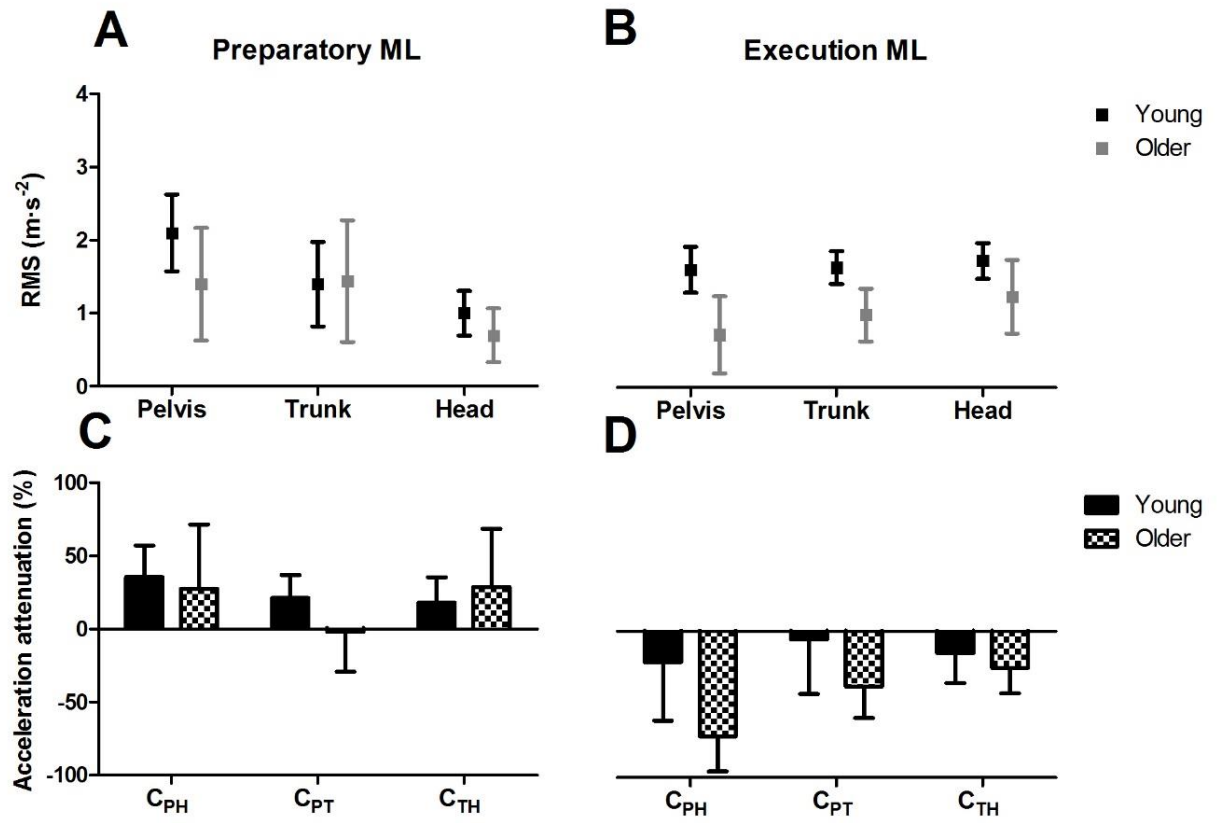


521 Figure 4

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526 Figure 5

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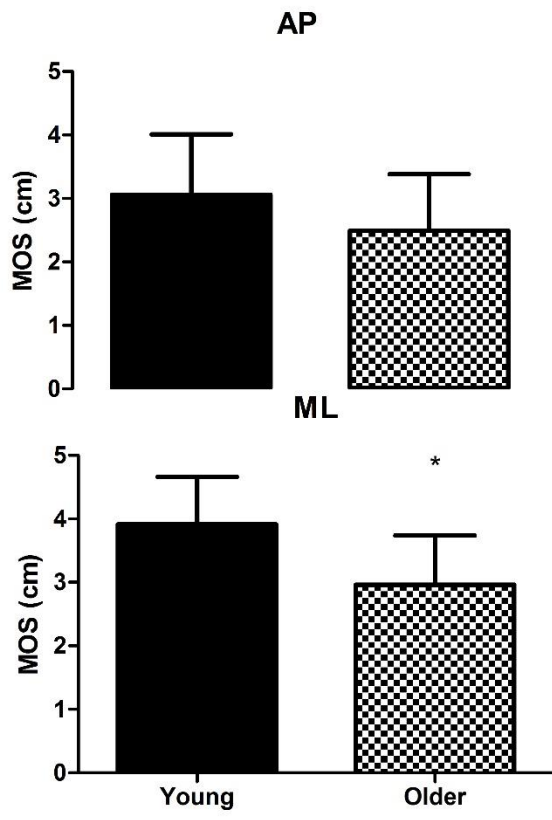
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534 Figure 6

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