

1 **Is faster always better? The walking speed-dependency of gait**  
2 **variability in bilateral vestibulopathy**

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19 Running head: Gait variability in bilateral vestibulopathy

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 Study of balance and gait deficits associated with vestibulopathy is important for improving clinical care and is  
30 critical to our understanding of the vestibular contributions to gait and balance control. Previous studies report a  
31 speed-dependency of the vestibular contributions to gait, so we examined the walking speed effects on gait  
32 variability in healthy young and older adults and in adults with bilateral vestibulopathy (BVP). Forty-four  
33 people with BVP, 12 healthy young adults and 12 healthy older adults completed walking trials at 0.4m/s to  
34 1.6m/s in 0.2m/s intervals on a dual belt, instrumented treadmill. Using a motion capture system and kinematic  
35 data, the means and coefficients of variation for step length, time, width and double support time were  
36 calculated. The BVP group also completed a video head impulse test and examinations of ocular and cervical  
37 vestibular evoked myogenic potentials and dynamic visual acuity. Walking speed significantly affected all  
38 assessed gait parameters. Step length variability at slower speeds and step width variability at faster speeds were  
39 the most distinguishing parameters between the healthy participants and people with BVP, and within people  
40 with BVP with different locomotor capacities. We observed for step width variability, specifically, an apparent  
41 persistent importance of vestibular function at increasing speeds. Gait variability was not associated with the  
42 clinical vestibular tests. Our results indicate that gait variability at multiple walking speeds has potential as an  
43 assessment tool for vestibular interventions.

44

45 **New & Noteworthy:** Walking speed significantly but differentially affects gait variability in healthy adults and  
46 in adults with bilateral vestibulopathy. Gait variability at different speeds distinguishes between participants  
47 with and without bilateral vestibulopathy, but also between more and less able walkers with bilateral  
48 vestibulopathy. Specifically, for step width variability, an apparent persistent importance of vestibular function  
49 at increasing walking speeds was observed. Gait variability was generally not correlated with clinical tests of  
50 vestibular function.

51

52 **Keywords:** *locomotion, bilateral vestibulopathy, vestibular diseases, gait variability, falls*

53

54 **Introduction**

55 Ever since a chance observation of a dog with acute unilateral vestibulopathy who demonstrated less imbalance  
56 during running than during walking (Brandt et al. 1999), the interactions of gait velocity, imbalance and  
57 vestibular symptoms in people with vestibulopathy have become a topic of great interest. Inspired by the  
58 observation in the dog, Brandt et al. (1999) demonstrated with a simple setup that humans with acute unilateral  
59 vestibulopathy could run with less deviation to the affected side than while walking. Since then, three studies  
60 have reported reductions in temporal gait variability and reductions in stride length variability in bilateral  
61 vestibulopathy (BVP) during faster, compared to slower walking (Schniepp et al. 2017; Schniepp et al. 2012;  
62 Wuehr et al. 2016). BVP, a severe bilateral reduction of vestibular function that results in severe balance deficits  
63 and an increased risk of falls (Guinand et al. 2012a; Horak et al. 2016; Lucieer et al. 2016; Schlick et al. 2016;  
64 Sprenger et al. 2017; van de Berg et al. 2015), was recently defined by the Bárány Society (Strupp et al. 2017)  
65 and represents one of the most debilitating vestibular disorders. Interestingly, the same studies revealed that  
66 patients with BVP do not self-select walking speeds that minimize temporal or spatial gait variability (Schniepp  
67 et al. 2017; Schniepp et al. 2012; Wuehr et al. 2016), which may suggest that these are not the only source of  
68 instability or inefficiency with which people with BVP must cope. The study of the severe balance and gait  
69 deficits in people with BVP is both important for improving clinical care and for objective quantification of the  
70 effects of novel interventions, such as vestibular implants (Guyot et al. 2016; Lewis 2016). Furthermore, it is  
71 fundamental to our understanding of the vestibular contributions to gait and balance control.

72 The sensory contributions to gait appear to depend on walking speed, which may partly explain the  
73 above described findings and will affect walking speed selection in people with vestibulopathy. Visual  
74 perturbations such as distorting prisms or closure of the eyes have less impact on most gait variability  
75 parameters the faster one walks (Jahn et al. 2001; Wuehr et al. 2013) with the exception of step width  
76 variability, which appears to increase with visual perturbation at faster walking speeds (Wuehr et al. 2013).  
77 Similarly, vestibular perturbations via galvanic vestibular stimulation have less impact on gait direction and  
78 variability at higher speeds (Fitzpatrick et al. 1999; Jahn et al. 2000). It has also been reported that the vestibular  
79 influence on lower limb muscles (determined by examining vestibulo-muscular coupling via lower limb muscle  
80 electromyography during vestibular stimulation) is selectively suppressed with increased cadence and speed  
81 during walking (Dakin et al. 2013; Forbes et al. 2017), purported to be related to a shift in the control  
82 mechanisms of mediolateral stability with increasing walking speeds from active stabilization at the lower limb  
83 joints during the stance phase to foot placement (Bauby and Kuo 2000; Dakin et al. 2013). Despite selective

84 suppression of the vestibular influence on some lower limb muscles at faster walking speeds, significant  
85 increases in frontal spatial variability with increasing walking speeds have been reported in BVP (Wuehr et al.  
86 2016), suggesting that vestibular information remains important for mediolateral stability during gait at faster  
87 speeds.

88 In order to further investigate the walking speed dependency of gait variability in vestibulopathy, this study  
89 analyzed the gait of people with BVP and of healthy control participants. We aimed to determine the effects of  
90 systematic increases in walking speed on spatiotemporal gait parameters and their variability in these participant  
91 groups. Secondly, we aimed to assess if these parameters would differentiate between healthy participants, and  
92 participants with BVP who could and could not complete all of the planned walking speed trials (used here as a  
93 simple proxy of locomotor capacity; see Methods). We hypothesized that, for all participants, step and double  
94 support time and step length variability would systematically reduce with increases in walking speed, whereas  
95 step width variability would systematically increase, in agreement with previous work (Schniepp et al. 2017;  
96 Schniepp et al. 2012; Wuehr et al. 2016). We further postulated that step and double support time and step  
97 length variability at slower walking speeds would be most distinguishing between the healthy control  
98 participants and patients with BVP, and also between the patients with BVP that could complete the  
99 measurement protocol, and the patients with BVP that could only partially complete the measurement protocol,  
100 whereas step width variability would be most distinguishing at faster walking speeds. Additionally, we aimed to  
101 conduct an explorative analysis in the patient groups by examining correlations between the outcomes of the  
102 most distinguishing gait parameters identified and clinical vestibular tests (video head impulse test [vHIT],  
103 ocular and cervical vestibular evoked myogenic potentials [oVEMP and cVEMP] and dynamic visual acuity  
104 [DVA]) that are indicative of vestibular functional integrity.

105

## 106 **Materials and Methods**

### 107 *Participants*

108 Forty four people with BVP participated in this study (22 males, 22 females; age:  $57.6 \pm 11.5$  years, age range: 21  
109 to 74; height:  $174.5 \pm 9.7$  cm; weight:  $80.4 \pm 17$  kg). Inclusion criteria were a prior diagnosis of bilateral vestibular  
110 hypofunction at the Maastricht University Medical Centre+ (imbalance and/or oscillopsia during locomotion  
111 and summated slow phase mean peak velocity of the nystagmus of less than  $20^\circ/\text{s}$  during bithermal caloric tests)  
112 and the self-reported ability to walk independently without assistance. Please note that this study began prior to  
113 the publication of the Bárány Society guidelines (Strupp et al. 2017), which are slightly different. Potential

114 participants were not included if they were unable or unwilling to stop taking anxiety or depression medication  
115 for the week before the measurements. In addition, two healthy control groups comprised of 12 healthy younger  
116 adults (Young; 5 males, 7 females;  $25.1 \pm 2.8$  years;  $174.9 \pm 7.3$ cm;  $72.6 \pm 13.5$ kg) and 12 healthy older adults  
117 (Older; 8 males, 4 females;  $71.5 \pm 4.8$  years;  $171.5 \pm 9.1$ cm;  $79.5 \pm 11.8$ kg) with no history of balance or gait  
118 difficulties and no history of dizziness participated in this study. These specific groups were included to account  
119 for the age range in the BVP group and to provide an estimation of the effect of ageing alone on the outcome  
120 parameters. The study was explained before obtaining written informed consent, was conducted in accordance  
121 with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Maastricht University Medical Centre medical ethics  
122 committee (gait measurements: NL58205.068.16; vestibular tests: NL52768.068.15).

123

124 *Gait Analysis Setup, Data Processing and Procedure*

125 The gait measurements were conducted using the Computer Assisted Rehabilitation Environment Extended  
126 (CAREN; Motekforce Link, Amsterdam, The Netherlands), which includes a dual-belt force plate-instrumented  
127 treadmill (Motekforce Link, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; 1000Hz), a 12 camera motion capture system  
128 (100Hz; Vicon Motion Systems, Oxford, UK) and a virtual environment (city-style street with passing objects  
129 and structures) projected onto a 180 degrees curved screen (note that optic flow was turned off for the  
130 participants with BVP to prevent dizziness and nausea). For all measurement sessions, a safety harness  
131 connected to an overhead frame was used. At the request of some of the participants with BVP, a handrail was  
132 also positioned on the treadmill, the use of which was monitored and recorded. Six retroreflective markers were  
133 attached to anatomical landmarks (C7, sacrum, left and right trochanter and left and right hallux) and were  
134 tracked by the motion capture system. Marker tracks were filtered using a low pass second order Butterworth  
135 filter (zero-phase) with a 12Hz cut-off frequency. Foot touchdown was determined using combined force plate  
136 (50N threshold) and foot marker data (Zeni et al. 2008). This combined method was used to be able to  
137 accurately account for foot touchdowns and toe-offs occurring in the center of the treadmill triggering both force  
138 plates simultaneously. For these steps, the foot marker method was used and then corrected based on the average  
139 discrepancy between the force plate method and the marker method timing for all steps that contacted only one  
140 force plate. The spatiotemporal gait parameters of interest were step length (anteroposterior distance between  
141 the hallux markers at foot touchdown), step time (time from touchdown of one foot to touchdown of the next  
142 foot), step width (mediolateral distance between the hallux markers at foot touchdown) and double support time

143 (time spent with both feet on the ground). Means, standard deviations and coefficients of variation (CV) were  
144 determined for each speed for each participant.

145 Each session began with walking familiarization trials at 0.4m/s up to 1.6m/s in 0.2m/s intervals. At  
146 least 60s were used for each speed, and further time was provided to familiarize to each speed if deemed  
147 necessary by either the participant, the CAREN operator or the research clinician. At the end of each speed trial,  
148 the decision to continue to the next (faster) speed was made in a similar manner. If the participant was not  
149 comfortable progressing to the next speed or if the CAREN operator or research clinician did not think it was  
150 safe or feasible to progress, then the participant continued at the current speed instead. Participants were then  
151 given sufficient rest before continuing with the measurements. Single two-to-three-minute-long measurements  
152 (to ensure a minimum of 60 strides per speed) were then conducted at each prescribed speed that was completed  
153 during familiarization. Multiple set walking speeds were used as opposed to the majority of previous studies  
154 which have used either percentages of preferred walking speeds or self-perceived slow, normal and fast walking  
155 speeds, in order to have more control over the walking speed condition.

156

157 *Clinical Vestibular Function Tests Setup and Procedures*

158 Following a sufficient rest period that was determined on an individual basis, the BVP group proceeded  
159 with the clinical vestibular testing battery. Between each test, sufficient rest was provided based on feedback  
160 from the patient and the judgement of the clinical researcher. The vHIT was performed with the EyeSeeCam  
161 system (EyeSeeCam VOG; Munich, Germany) and the ICS Impulse system (GN Otometrics A/S, Denmark).  
162 Both systems measured the movement of the right eye. The distance of the back of the static chair was 2 meters  
163 to the point of fixation. The point of fixation consisted of a green dot on the wall, produced by a laser on a  
164 tripod. If necessary, adhesive plasters were used to lift the upper eyelid a little to secure the visibility of the  
165 pupil for the camera in all directions. Goggle movement was minimized by adjusting the strap of the goggles to  
166 every subject. The vHIT system was calibrated according to the protocol of the system. After calibration, the  
167 subject was instructed to not touch their head including the goggles. The examiner stood behind the participant  
168 with two hands firmly on top of the participant's head without touching the strap of the goggles. The examiner  
169 then applied head impulses in six different movements to test each canal (McGarvie et al. 2015). The horizontal  
170 head impulses comprised a peak velocity of > 150°/s and the vertical head impulses a peak head velocity of >  
171 100°/s. The amplitude of the movements was 10-20°. Only outward impulses were used (van Dooren et al.

172 2018). The vHIT was defined as abnormal if the VOR-gain was below 0,7 and/or if covert saccades were  
173 observed in 50% or more of the traces (McGarvie et al. 2015; Yip et al. 2016).

174 DVA was assessed on a regular treadmill (1210 model, SportsArt, Inc., Tainan, Taiwan, China.) with  
175 the participant positioned 2.8 meters from a computer screen. Firstly, the static visual acuity was determined  
176 during stance, followed by the assessment of the DVA during walking at 2, 4 and 6 km/h. One letter at a time  
177 was randomly displayed on the screen from a chart of Sloan letters (CDHKNORSVZ; Sloan 1959). Starting at a  
178 logMAR (log of the Minimum Angle of Resolution; (Bailey and Lovie 1976)) of 1.0, five random letters were  
179 shown at each logMAR (decreasing in steps of 0.1 logMAR). When four out of five letters were correctly  
180 identified, the corresponding logMAR was considered achieved. The outcome of the DVA was the difference  
181 between the static logMAR and the logMAR for each of the three walking speeds. The result was omitted if the  
182 subject needed a handrail to walk at that speed or if it wasn't possible to walk at that speed at all (Guinand et al.  
183 2012b).

184 cVEMP and oVEMP were assessed with the Neuro-Audio system (v2010, Neurosoft, Ivanovo, Russia).  
185 A monaural stimulation with in-ear earphones was used with air conduction tone bursts at 500Hz and a  
186 stimulation rate of 13Hz using a blackman window function with a two-cycle rise/fall and no plateau phase.  
187 Tone bursts of maximum 130dB sound pressure level (SPL) were used. A stepwise approach was used to  
188 determine the threshold with a precision of 5dB SPL (van Tilburg et al. 2016). Positive (P1) and negative (N1)  
189 peaks in the recorded biphasic waveform were marked for both cVEMPs and oVEMPs. The thresholds were  
190 determined as the lowest stimulus intensities to elicit recognizable peaks. If it wasn't possible to find a VEMP  
191 response, it was defined as a threshold of >130dB SPL. For the cVEMP, the participant was positioned lying  
192 down with the back positioned at a 30° angle above the horizontal plane and was asked to turn their head  
193 towards the non-measured side and lift their head during the measurement. The cVEMP was recorded at the  
194 ipsilateral sternocleidomastoid muscle. Two electrodes were placed on the sternocleidomastoid muscles, the  
195 reference electrode on the sternum, and the earth electrode on the forehead. Electrode impedances of 5 kΩ or  
196 lower were accepted and otherwise the electrode was replaced. To ensure correct muscle contraction, a feedback  
197 system using a screen was provided. An average of 200 EMG traces with a minimum mean rectified voltage  
198 (MRV) of 65µV and a maximum MRV of 205µV was accepted (Brantberg and Lofqvist 2007; Fujimoto et al.  
199 2009). The oVEMP was recorded at the contralateral inferior oblique muscle. Five electrodes were used: the  
200 recording electrodes beneath the eyelid, just lateral of the pupil when gazing forward and centrally, the reference  
201 electrodes beneath the recording electrode and the earth electrode on the forehead. The participant was asked to

202 keep their gaze at a focus point placed at a 30 degrees angle behind the head. An average of at least 300 EMG  
203 traces was accepted (Govender et al. 2011; Piker et al. 2013; Valko et al. 2016).

204

205 *Statistics*

206 From the 44 participants with BVP that started the study, 38 participants were able to complete at least the three  
207 slowest walking speeds without assistance (group hereafter referred to as BVP) and these participants' data were  
208 taken for the comparison with the healthy groups. For the within BVP comparisons, three groups were formed.  
209 One group was able to complete all of the gait measurements without assistance (BVP All Gait; n=26), the  
210 second was only able to complete some of the speeds without assistance (BVP Part Gait; n=12; all of this group  
211 were able to complete the measurements at least up to 0.8m/s) and the final group (BVP No Gait; n=6) did not  
212 start the recorded gait trials (see "Results" for details on this group).

213 To investigate the effects of walking speed on gait and this effect's potential interaction with vestibular  
214 function, mixed-effects models using the restricted maximum likelihood method with the fixed effects walking  
215 speed, participant group, and speed by group interaction were conducted for the means and CVs of step time and  
216 length, step width and double support time. To further investigate the potential of gait variability to distinguish  
217 between BVP groups, mixed-effects models as described above were applied with groups BVP All Gait and  
218 BVP Part Gait to the CV of all four gait parameters across all speeds that included data points from each group.  
219 Bonferroni post hoc comparisons were performed to assess the group differences within speeds for each of the  
220 gait parameters.

221 The vHIT testing revealed abnormal canal function in all or most directions for almost all of the  
222 participants with BVP (i.e. exceptions were two participants with BVP who had only one abnormal result out of  
223 six). As almost all outcomes were abnormal and there was no possibility to distinguish between groups, analysis  
224 of the vHIT results in relation to gait was not taken further. For all completed DVA trials with a logMAR  
225 change value during the three walking speeds compared to standing and when oVEMP or cVEMP thresholds  
226 were detected, these values were grouped and Pearson correlations with the gait parameters that showed highest  
227 variability and/or distinguished between BVP groups were conducted (see Results). Age, height, weight and  
228 body mass index (BMI) were compared across the participant groups BVP, Young and Older, and within the  
229 three BVP groups (BVP All Gait, BVP Part Gait, BVP No Gait) using one way ANOVAs with Bonferroni  
230 corrections for multiple comparisons.

231

232 **Results**

233 Twenty six participants with BVP were able to complete all of the gait measurements without assistance (BVP  
234 All Gait). Twelve participants with BVP were only able to complete some of the speeds (BVP Part Gait), of  
235 which one participant stopped after 0.8m/s, one after 1.0m/s, four after 1.2m/s and six after 1.4m/s. Six  
236 participants with BVP were assigned to the BVP No Gait group for the following reasons: one participant  
237 became dizzy and nauseated during familiarization and could not continue; three participants were not able to  
238 walk during familiarization without handrail support; two participants found treadmill walking too challenging  
239 and could not continue. The demographic data of these three groups, as well as the healthy control group can be  
240 found in Table 1. The one-way ANOVAs revealed a significant group effect (BVP, Young, Older) for age ( $F$   
241  $(2,59) = 88$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ), with age significantly differing between each of the groups ( $P < 0.0001$ ). Height, weight  
242 and BMI did not significantly differ across these groups. No significant differences in demographics were found  
243 with the three BVP groups.

244

245 **Table 1. Participant Group Characteristics**

	<b>n</b>	<b>Age (y)</b>	<b>Height (cm)</b>	<b>Weight (kg)</b>	<b>Body Mass Index</b>
<b>Young</b>	12 (7 female)	$25.1 \pm 2.8^*$	$174.9 \pm 7.3$	$72.6 \pm 13.5$	$23.6 \pm 2.8$
<b>Older</b>	12 (4 female)	$71.5 \pm 4.8^*$	$171.5 \pm 9.1$	$79.5 \pm 11.8$	$26.9 \pm 2.2$
<b>BVP</b>	38 (20 female)	$56.1 \pm 11^*$	$174.6 \pm 10.1$	$80.2 \pm 17.6$	$26.1 \pm 4.2$
<b>BVP All Gait</b>	26 (10 female)	$55.1 \pm 11.4$	$176.8 \pm 9.9$	$80.3 \pm 17.8$	$25.4 \pm 3.8$
<b>BVP Part Gait</b>	12 (10 female)	$59.2 \pm 9$	$169.7 \pm 9$	$79.9 \pm 18$	$27.6 \pm 4.7$
<b>BVP No Gait</b>	6 (2 female)	$65.3 \pm 13.6$	$174 \pm 6.9$	$82.4 \pm 13.4$	$27.2 \pm 3.8$

246 Values are means  $\pm$  SD. \*: Significantly different from each other ( $P < 0.0001$ ).

247

248 The mixed-effects models with walking speed (0.4 to 1.6m/s) and group (BVP, Young, Older) as  
249 factors revealed significant walking speed effects for the means and CV of step time and length, step width and  
250 double support time ( $P \leq 0.0003$ ), significant group effects for all parameters except step width means  
251 ( $P \leq 0.0151$ ) and significant walking speed by group interactions for the means of step time, double support time  
252 and step width ( $P \leq 0.0053$ ) and the CV of step width ( $P < 0.0001$ ). The mixed-effects model results and summary  
253 of the between group Bonferroni comparisons are displayed in Fig. 1 (means) and Fig. 2 (CVs), and the full  
254 Bonferroni comparison results are available in Supplementary Tables 1 and 2.

255

256 Insert Figure 1 and Figure 2 here

257

258 The mixed-effects models with walking speed (0.4 to 1.4m/s) and group (BVP All Gait and BVP Part  
259 Gait) as factors revealed significant effects of walking speed for the CV of all parameters ( $P<0.0001$ ).  
260 Significant group effects were found for the CV of step time, step length and double support time ( $P\leq0.0162$ )  
261 and a significant walking speed by group interaction was found for the CV of double support time ( $P=0.0172$ ).  
262 The mixed-effects model results and summary of the between group Bonferroni comparisons are displayed in  
263 Fig. 3 and the full Bonferroni comparison results are available in Supplementary Table 3.

264

265

266 Insert Figure 3 here

267

268 When cVEMP and oVEMP thresholds were detected, and when a speed of the DVA was completed,  
269 these values were taken and Pearson correlations were conducted with the CVs of step time, step length and  
270 double support time at 0.4m/s and the CV of step width at 1.6m/s, being the speeds with the highest variability  
271 in those parameters from the previous analysis. These results can be seen in Table 2.

272

273

274 **Table 2:** Pearson correlations between the cVEMP and oVEMP thresholds, the change in logMAR scores  
 275 during each of the three DVA walking speeds and the gait parameters.

		Step Time CV 0.4m/s	Step Length CV 0.4m/s	Double Support Time CV 0.4m/s	Step Width CV 1.6m/s
	r	0.08987	0.3259	0.2576	-0.3501
<b>cVEMP</b>	95% CI	-0.3935 to 0.5343	-0.1662 to 0.6881	-0.2379 to 0.6467	-0.7554 to 0.2489
<b>Right</b>	P (two-tailed)	0.7229	0.1868	0.302	0.241
	n	18	18	18	13
	r	-0.2425	0.1195	-0.1732	-0.5043
<b>cVEMP</b>	95% CI	-0.659 to 0.2878	-0.3999 to 0.5808	-0.616 to 0.3528	-0.8362 to 0.09795
<b>Left</b>	P (two-tailed)	0.3655	0.6595	0.5212	0.0945
	n	16	16	16	12
	r	0.4653	0.561	0.286	0.4649
<b>oVEMP</b>	95% CI	-0.7074 to 0.9554	-0.6361 to 0.9654	-0.7975 to 0.9329	-0.7076 to 0.9553
<b>Right</b>	P (two-tailed)	0.4297	0.3251	0.6408	0.4301
	n	5	5	5	5
	r	-0.04995	0.7914	0.08001	-0.3605
<b>oVEMP</b>	95% CI	-0.6911 to 0.6352	0.2684 to 0.9541	-0.6169 to 0.7066	-0.8494 to 0.4614
<b>Left</b>	P (two-tailed)	0.8985	<b>0.0111</b>	0.8379	0.3803
	n	9	9	9	8
	r	-0.1244	0.01669	-0.2151	-0.09623
<b>DVA</b>	95% CI	-0.4271 to 0.2034	-0.3046 to 0.3346	-0.5004 to 0.1123	-0.4662 to 0.3024
<b>2km/h</b>	P (two-tailed)	0.4568	0.9208	0.1947	0.6401
	n	38	38	38	26
	r	0.06088	-0.1711	0.03413	0.2422
<b>DVA</b>	95% CI	-0.2639 to 0.3733	-0.4654 to 0.1572	-0.2887 to 0.35	-0.1602 to 0.5756
<b>4km/h</b>	P (two-tailed)	0.7166	0.3043	0.8388	0.2332
	n	38	38	38	26
	r	-0.3145	-0.3199	-0.4338	-0.06129
<b>DVA</b>	95% CI	-0.6371 to 0.1018	-0.6406 to 0.09588	-0.7125 to -0.0369	-0.4803 to 0.3805
<b>6km/h</b>	P (two-tailed)	0.1345	0.1275	<b>0.0342</b>	0.7918
	n	24	24	24	21

276

277 *Post-hoc Analysis of Gait Data based on VEMP Results*

278 In order to further investigate differences within the patient group, we conducted an analysis of the gait data of  
 279 the participants with and without at least one detected VEMP threshold for the same four parameters as the  
 280 correlations: the CVs of step time, step length and double support time at 0.4m/s and the CV of step width at  
 281 1.6m/s. Given that all of the participants with no VEMP threshold detected also had abnormal outcomes on the  
 282 vHIT for most or all of the six directions tested, the purpose of this analysis was to compare the gait of  
 283 participants with and without detectable canal and otolith function. Independent samples t-tests with Welch's  
 284 corrections did not reveal any significant differences between the participants with and without at least one  
 285 detectable VEMP threshold ( $0.0965 < P < 0.746$ ).

286

287

288 **Discussion**

289 In this study, we aimed to determine the effects of systematic increases in walking speed on spatiotemporal gait  
290 parameters and their variability in people with BVP. Specifically, we investigated if these parameters would  
291 distinguish between healthy participants and participants with BVP, and between patients with BVP who could  
292 and could not complete all of the planned walking speed trials (a simple proxy of locomotor capacity). Our  
293 hypothesis, that step and double support time and step length variability would systematically reduce with  
294 increases in walking speed, whereas step width variability would systematically increase, was confirmed as  
295 significant effects of walking speed were found for all gait variability parameters. We additionally hypothesized  
296 that step and double support time and step length variability at slower walking speeds would be most  
297 distinguishing between the healthy control participants and patients with BVP, and also between the patients  
298 with BVP that could complete the measurement protocol, and the patients with BVP that could only partially  
299 complete the measurement protocol, whereas step width variability would be most distinguishing between these  
300 groups at faster walking speeds. This hypothesis was partly confirmed; step length CV differed between groups  
301 BVP and Young and between groups BVP All Gait and BVP Part Gait, double support time CV differed  
302 between groups BVP and Young and step width CV differed between groups BVP and Young and BVP and  
303 Older for step width variability, but other parameters did not significantly differ at the pairwise comparison  
304 level, despite the group effects found for all parameters except step width CV in the BVP All Gait vs. BVP Part  
305 Gait analysis.

306 Our secondary aim was to conduct an explorative analysis in the patient groups by examining  
307 correlations between the outcomes of four clinical vestibular tests (vHIT, oVEMP, cVEMP, DVA) and the most  
308 distinguishing gait parameters identified. Only one significant correlations between the change in logMAR  
309 scores during the DVA and the gait parameters were found (6km/h and Double Support CV; Table 2). One  
310 significant correlation of 16 was found between the VEMP thresholds and the gait parameters, but only nine  
311 pairs of data were included in this test and if a Bonferroni correction is made for the p values of these 16 tests, it  
312 is no longer significant (oVEMP Left and Step Length CV at 0.4m/s; Table 2). Similarly, the one significant  
313 correlation between a DVA parameter and gait variability (DVA 6km/h and Double support time CV 0.4m/s)  
314 does not meet the significance threshold if a Bonferroni correction for the 12 tests is made. Even though this  
315 study clearly demonstrates the significant contribution of vestibular function to gait, our exploratory analysis  
316 confirms the complex contribution of vestibular information during every-day activities and the difficulty in  
317 translating current objective clinical measures to highly relevant patient symptoms.

318 Determining meaningful and distinguishing gait parameters in BVP is vital for the development of  
319 interventions, as is using tasks that sufficiently replicate the day-to-day challenges of these patients, in order to  
320 determine candidates for intervention and to assess the effect of those interventions. Two promising  
321 interventions currently under development and investigation include noisy galvanic vestibular stimulation  
322 (nGVS) and vestibular implants (Guinand et al. 2015; Guyot et al. 2016; Lewis 2016; Perez Fornos et al. 2017;  
323 Wuehr et al. 2017). Discussions of these treatment options can be found elsewhere (Guyot et al. 2016; Wuehr et  
324 al. 2017), but in the context of this study, it is important to note that both options show early signs of utility for  
325 improving the gait of people with BVP (McCrum et al. 2016; Wuehr et al. 2016). However, it remains to be  
326 seen if improvement due to nGVS or a vestibular implant in steady state gait would likewise be seen in more  
327 dynamic locomotor task performance, where even unilateral vestibulopathy leads to significantly poorer stability  
328 performance (McCrum et al. 2014). Related to this, it should be noted that while this study examined  
329 spatiotemporal variability, differences in dynamic gait stability were not directly assessed and the two are not  
330 necessarily equivalent (Bruijn et al. 2013; Dingwell et al. 2001; Perry and Srinivasan 2017). The parameters  
331 presented here represent the amount of variability in particular gait parameters, but do not necessarily indicate  
332 the overall stability of the participants. Therefore, future work should investigate how dynamic gait stability is  
333 altered in BVP and how this is affected by changes in walking speed.

334 The current study confirmed previous findings of reductions in temporal gait variability and reductions  
335 in sagittal plane spatial gait variability in vestibulopathy during faster, compared to slower walking (Schniepp et  
336 al. 2017; Schniepp et al. 2012; Wuehr et al. 2016). We extend these previous findings as the current study  
337 employed fixed (not self-selected) speeds that were systematically increased, with 120 steps analyzed per speed,  
338 thereby improving the reliability of the outcomes. Importantly, the current results further the previous findings  
339 by additionally showing that these parameters are related to the locomotor capacities of people with BVP.

340 We also confirmed previously reported increases in step width variability with increasing walking  
341 speeds in people with BVP (Wuehr et al. 2016). Previous studies have shown that vestibular perturbations have  
342 less impact on direction and variability at higher walking speeds (Fitzpatrick et al. 1999; Jahn et al. 2000) and  
343 that the vestibular influence on lower limb muscles is selectively suppressed with increased cadence and speed  
344 during walking (Dakin et al. 2013; Forbes et al. 2017). However, the current step width variability results,  
345 combined with those of (Wuehr et al. 2016) suggest that vestibular information remains important for  
346 mediolateral foot placement at increased walking speeds. During the swing phase when foot placement is  
347 coordinated and determined, there is reduced proprioceptive input due to only one foot being in contact with the

348 ground. Therefore, we could reason that vestibular input becomes more important in this phase, and disturbed or  
349 lacking vestibular input may therefore decrease the accuracy of foot placement. These results also provide some  
350 explanation as to why people with BVP do not self-select walking speeds that minimize temporal or sagittal  
351 plane spatial gait variability (Schniepp et al. 2017; Schniepp et al. 2012; Wuehr et al. 2016). Dramatic increases  
352 in step width variability may be undesirable due to reduced stability control or increased energetic costs of  
353 mediolateral stabilization (Dean et al. 2007; Donelan et al. 2004; O'Connor et al. 2012). Based on the current  
354 results, either reason is plausible, as some of the participants in the BVP Part Gait group did not continue to the  
355 faster speeds due to instability, while others could not continue due to being unable to keep up with the speed of  
356 the treadmill (implying an energetic or physiological limitation, not a stability-related one). The vestibular  
357 influence on gait economy has not yet, to our knowledge, been thoroughly investigated, and is therefore an area  
358 for future research.

359 The healthy control groups in this study were not directly age matched with the BVP group, but rather  
360 represent healthy participants at the younger and older end of the age range of the BVP group. In the current  
361 results, the variability in step time, double support time and step length of the older group tends to fall between  
362 that of the younger and BVP group, showing few statistical differences to either, although we suspect that this is  
363 due to a lack of statistical power at the pairwise comparison level. The boxplots seem to indicate that the group  
364 Older tend towards the results of group Young for double support time and step length variability. However, the  
365 group difference in step width variability appear to be more robust, with large significant differences between  
366 the BVP group and each healthy group, and no difference due to healthy ageing age alone, in agreement with  
367 previous studies (Herssens et al. 2018; Hollman et al. 2011). However, other limitations in the current study  
368 should be kept in mind. Caution should be taken in comparing the CV of step width to studies of overground  
369 walking, as it has been shown previously in healthy participants that walking on the CAREN results in increased  
370 step width variability compared to overground walking (Gates et al. 2012). Additionally, treadmill walking  
371 appears to be more challenging than overground walking for people with BVP, evidenced by the fact that the  
372 BVP No Gait group were not able to successfully complete the familiarization period, despite reporting being  
373 able to walking independently without assistance. We would therefore caution a direct comparison of treadmill-  
374 derived gait results with overground gait results in BVP. Regarding the fact that the healthy groups walked with  
375 optic flow and the BVP group walked with the virtual environment fixed (so as to provide the same lighting),  
376 we do not expect that this difference would have altered our results, as two previous studies found no, or  
377 negligible, differences in the parameters assessed here between fixed speed walking with and without virtual

378 reality (Katsavelis et al. 2010; Sloot et al. 2014). The only previous study that did find differences in gait  
379 variability due to virtual reality that we are aware of is that of Hollman et al. (2006). However, Hollman et al.  
380 (2006) used an insufficient number of data points to reliably assess gait variability (Katsavelis et al. 2010) and  
381 used a substantially different virtual reality setup to the current study. We used a setup comparable to that of  
382 Sloot et al. (2014), who found no differences in gait variability as a result of using a virtual reality screen with  
383 optic flow. Finally, the effect sizes of the difference in step width variability with and without virtual reality and  
384 optic flow from Hollman et al. (2006) are much smaller than those found in the current study between Young  
385 and BVP All Gait groups at similar walking speeds (Cohen's  $d$  of 0.238-0.657 in Hollman et al. (2006) vs.  
386 1.064-1.382 in the current study).

387 We also acknowledge that our division of participants into the BVP All Gait and BVP Part Gait groups  
388 is based on a rather simple criterion. Of the 12 participants in the BVP Part Gait group, one participant stopped  
389 after 0.8m/s, one after 1.0m/s, four after 1.2m/s and six after 1.4m/s and therefore, the range of locomotor  
390 capacities within this group is likely broad. Reasons for lack of completion also varied across the participants,  
391 with some stopping due to lack of stability control (too much lateral deviation with a risk of stepping off the  
392 treadmill) and others unable to keep up with a faster belt speed. Nevertheless, we found significant group effects  
393 on gait variability, indicating the potential association between gait variability and overall locomotor capacity in  
394 BVP. Further research into gait parameters that can distinguish between patients with different functional  
395 limitations is encouraged to aid the development of accurate diagnostic functional testing protocols.

396 In conclusion, spatiotemporal gait parameters and their variability show speed-dependency in people  
397 with BVP and in healthy adults. In particular, step length variability at slower speeds and step width variability  
398 at faster speeds were the most distinguishing parameters between the healthy participants and people with BVP,  
399 and within people with BVP who have different locomotor capacities. Gait variability in BVP was generally not  
400 correlated with the clinical tests of vestibular function. The current findings indicate that analysis of gait  
401 variability at multiple speeds has potential as an assessment tool for vestibular interventions.

402

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410

411 **Disclosures**

412 The authors declare no competing interests.

413

414 **Author Contributions**

415 Conception of the study: CM, RvdB, KK, HK, KM. Data Collection: CM, FL. Data Analysis: CM, PW, FL.  
416 Interpreted results: All authors. Prepared Figures: CM. Drafted the article: CM. Reviewed and revised the  
417 article: All authors. Approved final version: All authors.

418

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- 545
- 546

547 **Figure Legends**

548

549 **Fig. 1.** Boxplots of the median, interquartile range and 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of the means of step time, step  
550 length, double support time and step width across all conducted walking speeds in BVP, Young and Older  
551 participant groups. The black horizontal lines indicate significant between group differences for the indicated  
552 speed (P<0.05, Bonferroni adjusted).

553

554 **Fig. 2.** Boxplots of the median, interquartile range and 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of the coefficients of variation  
555 (CV) of step time, step length, double support time and step width across all conducted walking speeds in BVP,  
556 Young and Older participant groups. The black horizontal lines indicate significant between group differences  
557 for the indicated speed (P<0.05, Bonferroni adjusted).

558

559 **Fig. 3.** Boxplots of the median, interquartile range and 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of the coefficients of variation  
560 (CV) of step time, step length, double support time and step width across all walking speeds with data from  
561 participant groups BVP All Gait and BVP Part Gait. The black horizontal lines indicate significant between  
562 group differences for the indicated speed (P<0.05, Bonferroni adjusted).





