

# 1 Head motion predictability explains activity-dependent 2 suppression of vestibular balance control

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25

1 **Abstract**

2 Vestibular balance control is dynamically weighted during locomotion. This might result  
3 from a selective suppression of vestibular inputs in favor of a feed-forward balance  
4 regulation based on locomotor efference copies. The feasibility of such a feed-forward  
5 mechanism should however critically depend on the predictability of head movements  
6 (PHM) during locomotion. To test this, we studied in healthy subjects the differential  
7 impact of a stochastic vestibular stimulation (SVS) on body sway (center-of-pressure,  
8 COP) during standing and walking at different speeds using time-frequency analyses  
9 and compared it to activity-dependent changes in PHM. SVS-COP coupling decreased  
10 from standing to walking and further dropped with faster locomotion. Correspondingly,  
11 PHM increased with faster locomotion. Furthermore, SVS-COP coupling depended on  
12 the gait-cycle-phase with peaks corresponding to periods of least PHM. These findings  
13 support the assumption that during stereotyped human self-motion, locomotor  
14 efference copies selectively replace vestibular cues, similar to what was previously  
15 observed in animal models.

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 The vestibular system encodes head orientation and motion to facilitate balance  
3 reflexes that ensure postural equilibrium during passive as well as self-initiated  
4 movements (Angelaki & Cullen, 2008). During locomotion, i.e., stereotyped self-  
5 motion, vestibular influences on balance control appear to be dynamically up- or down-  
6 regulated in dependence on the phase and speed of the locomotor pattern.  
7 Accordingly, the gain of vestibulospinal reflexes exhibits phasic modulations across  
8 the locomotor cycle (Blouin et al., 2011; Dakin et al., 2013) with the result that balance  
9 is particularly sensitive to vestibular perturbations at specific phases of the gait cycle  
10 (Bent et al., 2004). Furthermore, vestibular influences appear to be down-weighted  
11 during faster locomotion. Accordingly, the destabilizing impact of a vestibular loss or  
12 perturbation on the gait pattern decreases with increasing locomotion speeds (Brandt  
13 et al., 1999; Jahn et al., 2000; Schniepp et al., 2017; Schniepp et al., 2012; Wuehr et  
14 al., 2016).

15

16 It was previously assumed that activity-dependent modulations of vestibular balance  
17 reflexes might reflect an up- or down-regulation of a concurrent intrinsic feed-forward  
18 control of posture (Lambert et al., 2012; MacNeilage & Glasauer, 2017; Roy & Cullen,  
19 2004). Accordingly, balance adjustments during self-motion might not solely rely on  
20 sensory feedback about how the body has moved, but also on predictions of resultant  
21 movements derived from efference copies of the motor command (Straka et al., 2018).  
22 Physiological evidence for such a direct feed-forward control mode has recently been  
23 shown for animal locomotion. During *Xenopus laevis* tadpole swimming, intrinsic  
24 efference copies of the locomotor command deriving from spinal central pattern  
25 generators (CPG) were shown to directly trigger ocular adjustments for gaze  
26 stabilization and selectively cancel out afferent vestibular inputs (Lambert et al., 2012;

1 von Uckermann et al., 2013). Thus, also during human stereotyped locomotion,  
2 efference copies might provide estimates of resultant head motion and assist or even  
3 substitute vestibular feedback cues in gaze and balance regulation. The feasibility of  
4 such a direct feed-forward mechanism should however critically rely on the  
5 predictability or stereotypy of head movements during locomotion (Chagnaud et al.,  
6 2012).

7  
8 Following this intuition, a statistically optimal model was recently proposed, that relates  
9 an empirically quantified metric (i.e. the kinematic predictability metric) of head motion  
10 predictability to the relative weighting of vestibular vs. motor efference copy cues in  
11 gaze and balance regulation during locomotion (MacNeilage & Glasauer, 2017).  
12 According to the model, activities linked to less stereotyped head movements should  
13 be more dependent on vestibular cues than activities with highly predictable head  
14 motion patterns. Likewise, timepoints during the stride cycle when head movement is  
15 less stereotyped should exhibit more vestibular dependence. To assess this  
16 hypothesis, we examined whether activity-dependent modulations of vestibular  
17 balance reflexes can be explained by alterations in the predictability of head  
18 movements. Modulations in vestibular balance control during different activities, i.e.,  
19 standing as well as slow or faster walking, were studied by analyzing the differential  
20 impact of a continuous stochastic vestibular stimulation (SVS) on body sway (i.e.,  
21 center-of-pressure-displacements, COP) in the frequency (coherence) and time  
22 (cross-correlation, phase) domain. In parallel, we quantified the predictability of head  
23 kinematics associated with these activities and related this metric to an estimate of  
24 relative sensory weight.

1 Using this theoretical and evidence-based approach we aimed to evaluate three  
2 hypotheses concerning the role of vestibular cues in balance regulation: (1) Vestibular  
3 influence on balance control should decrease from standing to walking due to the  
4 presence of a locomotor efference copy; (2) the gain of vestibular balance reflexes  
5 should depend on locomotor speed due to increasingly stereotyped head kinematics  
6 during faster locomotion; (3) phasic modulations of vestibular balance reflexes across  
7 the gait cycle should reflect phase-dependent alterations in head motion predictability.

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9

10 **2. Materials and methods**

11 *Subjects*

12 Ten healthy subjects (mean age  $29.3 \pm 3.7$  years, 3 females) participated in the study.  
13 None of the participants reported any auditory, vestibular, neurologic, cardio-vascular  
14 or orthopedic disorders. All subjects had normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Each  
15 participant gave written informed consent prior to the experiments. The local Ethics  
16 Committee approved the study protocol, which was conducted in conformity with the  
17 Declaration of Helsinki.

18

19 *Galvanic vestibular stimulation*

20 A pair of conductive rubber electrodes was attached bilaterally over the left and right  
21 mastoid process behind the ears. Stochastic vestibular stimulation (SVS) delivered via  
22 this electrode configuration with the head facing forward primarily elicits a postural roll  
23 response in the frontal plane (Fitzpatrick & Day, 2004; Schneider et al., 2002). Before  
24 electrode placement, the skin surface at the electrode sites was cleaned and dried,  
25 and a layer of electrode gel was applied before electrode placing to achieve uniform  
26 current density and minimize irritation to the skin during stimulation. The SVS profile

1 consisted of a bandwidth-limited stochastic stimulus (frequency range: 0–25 Hz, peak  
2 amplitude  $\pm$  4.5 mA, root mean square 1.05 mA) delivered via a constant-current  
3 stimulator (Model DS5, Digitimer, Hertfordshire, UK).

4

5 *Test procedures*

6 Each participant stood and walked on a pressure-sensitive treadmill (Zebris®, Isny,  
7 Germany; h/p/cosmos®, Nussdorf-Traunstein, Germany; 1.6 m long; sampling rate of  
8 100 Hz). Five different conditions were tested in randomized order: three stimulation  
9 conditions with continuous SVS and two non-stimulation conditions. SVS was  
10 presented during 180 s of quiet standing, as well as during slow walking at 0.4 m/s  
11 and medium walking at 0.8 m/s, each for 600 s. Head movements without SVS  
12 stimulation were recorded during walking at 0.4 and 0.8 m/s, each for 300 s. Walking  
13 was guided by a metronome with a cadence of 52 steps/min for the slow and 78  
14 steps/min for the medium walking speed, respectively. Walking speeds and cadences  
15 were chosen in order to allow direct comparison with previous studies (Blouin et al.,  
16 2011; Dakin et al., 2013; Iles et al., 2007). During trials, participants were instructed to  
17 fixate on a target located 3 m in front of them at eye level. Before each recording,  
18 participants were given 30 s to acclimatize to the preset treadmill speed and walking  
19 cadence. Between trials, participants were given at least two minutes to recover.

20

21 **2.2 Data analysis**

22 *Center-of-pressure displacements, head kinematics, and gait parameters*

23 For each stance and walking trial, the continuous trajectory of the center-of-pressure  
24 (COP) was computed as the weighted average of the pressure data recorded from the  
25 treadmill by using the standard method for determining the barycenter  
26 (*sum of mass x position*)/*sum of mass* (Terrier & Deriaz, 2013). COP motion was

1 analyzed in the medio-lateral (ML) dimension, i.e., the primary dimension of postural  
2 responses induced by binaural bipolar SVS (Fitzpatrick & Day, 2004). Head kinematics  
3 in ML dimension (i.e., linear head acceleration in the ML dimension and angular head  
4 velocity in the roll plane) were measured with an inertial measurement unit (IMU)  
5 containing a triaxial accelerometer and gyroscope (APDM, Inc., Portland, OR,  
6 sampling rate of 128 Hz), strapped to the forehead. Furthermore, for each walking trial,  
7 the following spatiotemporal gait parameters were analyzed: base width, stride length,  
8 stride time, single support percentage and double support percentage, as well as the  
9 coefficient of variation (CV) of each of these parameters.

10

11 *Cross-correlation and coherence analysis*

12 For all stimulation trials, correlation analysis in the frequency (coherence) and time  
13 (cross-correlation, phase) domain was used to estimate the average SVS-induced  
14 variations in COP-displacements. Coherence estimates with confidence limits were  
15 computed based on the auto-spectra of the SVS and COP signals ( $P_{AA}(f)$  and  $P_{BB}(f)$   
16 respectively) as well as the cross-spectrum ( $P_{AB}(f)$ ) using a finite fast Fourier  
17 transform with a block size of 2 s resulting in a frequency resolution of 0.5 Hz  
18 (Rosenberg, Amjad, Breeze, Brillinger, & Halliday, 1989):

$$19 \quad C_{AB}(f) = \frac{|P_{AB}(f)|}{P_{AA}(f)P_{BB}(f)}$$

20

21 This yielded 95% confidence limits for coherence estimates of 0.033 for stance and  
22 0.010 for walking trials respectively. The resultant coherence estimate is a unitless  
23 measure bounded between 1 (indicating a perfect linear relationship) and 0 (indicating  
24 independence between the two signals).

25

1 Cross-correlations between SVS and COP signals were computed to determine the  
2 onset and peak of SVS-induced COP displacements. For this purpose, the inverse  
3 Fourier transform of the cross-spectrum  $P_{AB}(f)$  was computed and normalized by the  
4 norm of the input vectors to obtain unitless correlation values bounded between -1 and  
5 1 (Blouin et al., 2011). Resultant 95% confidence limits for cross-correlation estimates  
6 were 0.015 for stance and 0.008 for walking trials respectively. Finally, phase  
7 estimates between the SVS and COP signals were estimated from the complex valued  
8 coherence function. This allows to determine the phase lag corresponding to frequency  
9 bandwidths with significant SVS-COP coherence estimates (Dakin et al., 2007). The  
10 slope of the phase values over the range of significant coherence estimates was  
11 computed using regression analysis and multiplied by  $1000/2\pi$  to yield an estimate of  
12 the phase lag in milliseconds.

13

14 For the two walking stimulation trials, we further analyzed phasic modulations in the  
15 correlation between SVS and COP signals across the average gait cycle, using time-  
16 dependent coherence analysis according to a previously described procedure (Blouin  
17 et al., 2011; Dakin et al., 2013). First SVS and COP signals were cut into individual  
18 strides synchronized to the left heel strike and then time-normalized by resampling  
19 each stride to a total of 300 samples. The first 250 strides of each trial were taken for  
20 further analysis and padded at the start and end with data from the previous and  
21 subsequent strides to avoid distortions in the subsequent correlation analysis. Time-  
22 dependent coherence was then estimated using a Morlet wavelet decomposition  
23 based on the method of Zhan et al (Zhan et al., 2006), with a resultant frequency  
24 resolution of 0.5 Hz and 95% confidence limits of 0.018.

25

26 *Head motion predictability*

1 Head motion predictability was quantified separately for linear head acceleration and  
2 angular head velocity according to a previously proposed procedure (MacNeilage &  
3 Glasauer, 2017). First, IMU signals were cut into individual strides synchronized to the  
4 left heel strike and further time-normalized by resampling each stride to a total of 300  
5 samples. Head motion data from the first 125 strides ( $N = 125$ ) was used for further  
6 analysis and averaged to reconstruct the mean head motion trajectory across the stride  
7 cycle, i.e., the stride-cycle attractor. Subsequently, the total variance  $SS_{tot}$  and residual  
8 variance  $SS_{res}$  of head motion were calculated:

9

10 
$$SS(t)_{tot} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (h(t)_i - \bar{h})^2$$

11

12 
$$SS(t)_{res} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (h(t)_i - f(t))^2$$

13

14 where  $h(t)_i$  is the head motion during the  $i$ th stride at the normalized stride time  $t$ ,  $\bar{h}$   
15 is the average head motion over all stride cycle phases and strides, and  $f(t)$  denotes  
16 the stride cycle attractor. Correspondingly,  $SS_{tot}$  quantifies the signal deviation from  
17 the overall mean signal whereas  $SS_{res}$  gives the signal deviation from the stride cycle  
18 attractor.

19

20 Using these metrics, the proportion of head motion variance that can be explained by  
21 the stride cycle attractor, i.e., explained variance ( $V_{exp} = 1 - SS_{res}/SS_{tot}$ ), and the  
22 proportion of residual head motion variance  $V_{res} = SS_{res}/SS_{tot}$  can be derived. Low  
23 values of  $V_{res}$  indicate a high head motion predictability. Hence, knowing the exact  
24 stride cycle phase, feed-forward signals of the locomotor command can provide

1 reliable information about the most likely ongoing movement. However, as  $V_{res}$   
2 increases, head motion prediction based on stride cycle phase information becomes  
3 less accurate and additional sensory cues are required for head motion estimation.  
4 These considerations can be expressed in the form of a statistically optimal model, i.e.,  
5 the maximum likelihood estimation model for cue integration (Ernst & Banks, 2002).  
6 Accordingly, head motion  $\hat{H}$  can be estimated by a weighted linear combination of  
7 vestibular (sensory,  $S$ ) and efference copy (motor,  $M$ ) cues with weights  $w_{sens}$  and  
8  $w_{mot}$  corresponding to the relative reliability of these cues:

9

10 
$$\hat{H} = w_{sens}S + w_{mot}M$$

11

12

13 
$$w_{sens} = \frac{\sigma_{mot}^2}{\sigma_{sens}^2 + \sigma_{mot}^2} \quad w_{mot} = \frac{\sigma_{sens}^2}{\sigma_{sens}^2 + \sigma_{mot}^2}$$

14

15

16 The above weights can now be estimated using the head motion data based on the  
17 following two assumptions: (1) According to Weber's law, sensory noise is assumed to  
18 be signal-dependent, i.e., its variance should be proportional to the squared signal  
19 (Fechner, 1860). As the average signal is approximately zero for oscillatory locomotor  
20 movements, sensory noise can be estimated by  $\sigma_{sens}^2 = kSS_{tot}$ , with the Weber's  
21 fraction  $k$ . (2) If the intended head motion during each stride equals the stride cycle  
22 attractor, motor noise can be estimated as  $\sigma_{mot}^2 = SS_{res}$ . Based on these assumptions,  
23 sensory weight can be expressed as directly proportional to  $V_{res}$ :<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>  $w_{sens} = \frac{SS_{res}}{k*SS_{tot}+SS_{res}} * \frac{1/SS_{tot}}{1/SS_{tot}} = \frac{V_{res}}{V_{res}+k}$

1

2

$$w_{sens} = \frac{V_{res}}{V_{res} + k}$$

3

4 **2.3 Statistical analysis**

5 Data are reported as mean  $\pm$  SD. The effects of correlation analysis parameters, head  
6 predictability estimates, and gait parameters were analyzed using a repeated-  
7 measures analysis of variance (rmANOVA) and Bonferroni post hoc analysis with  
8 condition (standing, slow and medium walking) as factor. Results were considered  
9 significant if  $p < 0.05$ . Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS (Version 25.0;  
10 IBM Corp., Armonk, NY).

11

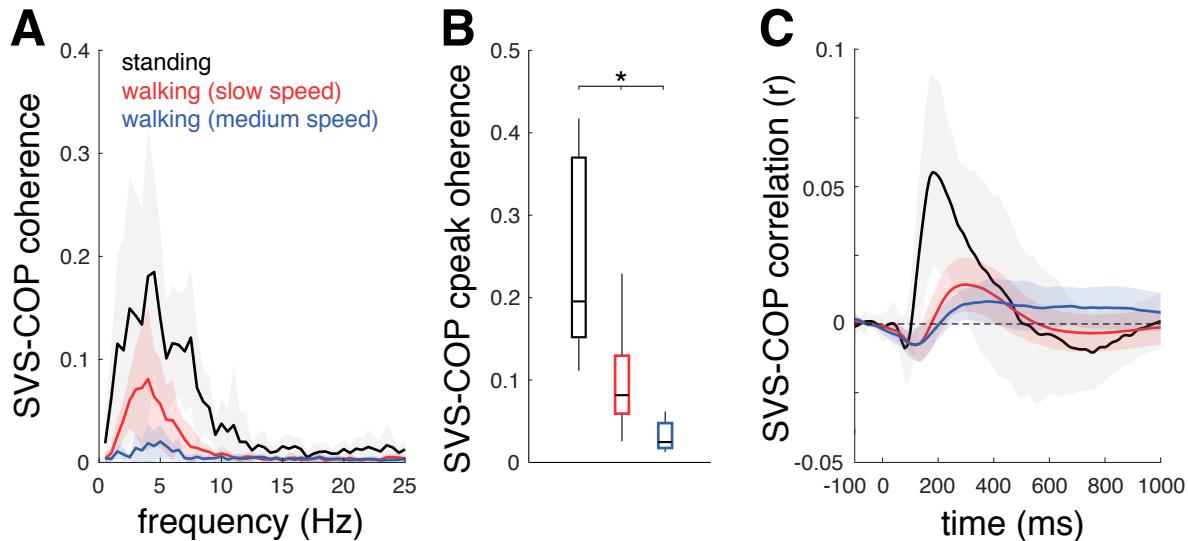
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13 **3. Results**

14 All participants exhibited significant correlations between SVS and COP displacements  
15 in both the frequency and time domain. SVS-COP coherence within the 0–25 Hz  
16 bandwidth peaked at  $4.8 \pm 1.4$  Hz for standing,  $3.5 \pm 1.3$  Hz for slow and  $4.9 \pm 1.4$  Hz  
17 for medium walking speed ( $F_{2,18} = 2.4$ ;  $p = 0.119$ ; Figure 1A). Peak coherence dropped  
18 from standing to slow walking and further decreased with faster walking ( $F_{2,18} = 32.7$ ;  $p$   
19  $< 0.001$ ; Figure 1B). Cross-correlation analysis revealed a short latency component of  
20 SVS-induced COP responses at  $85 \pm 11$  ms for standing and slightly later responses  
21 for slow ( $118 \pm 22$  ms) and medium ( $118 \pm 15$  ms) walking speeds ( $F_{2,18} = 15.5$ ;  $p <$   
22  $0.001$ ). A medium latency response of opposite polarity occurred at  $203 \pm 45$  ms for  
23 standing and slightly later for slow ( $274 \pm 30$  ms) and medium ( $284 \pm 32$  ms) walking  
24 speeds ( $F_{2,18} = 22.7$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 1C). Phase lags at frequency bandwidth with  
25 significant coherence estimates corresponded to the medium latency response with

1  $204 \pm 44$  ms for standing, and  $270 \pm 31$  ms for slow, and  $269 \pm 35$  ms for medium  
2 walking speed ( $F_{2,18} = 17.0$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

3



4

5 **Figure 1: Correlation analysis in frequency and time domain for coupling between SVS and**  
6 **COP displacements during different activities.**

7 (A) Coherence functions, (B) peak coherence values, and (C) corresponding cross-  
8 correlations between SVS and COP displacements. SVS-COP coherence drops from  
9 standing to slow walking and is further reduced at faster walking speed. SVS-induced COP  
10 displacements exhibit a short latency response around 80-120 ms and a medium latency  
11 response of opposite polarity at around 200-290 ms. \* indicates a significant difference.

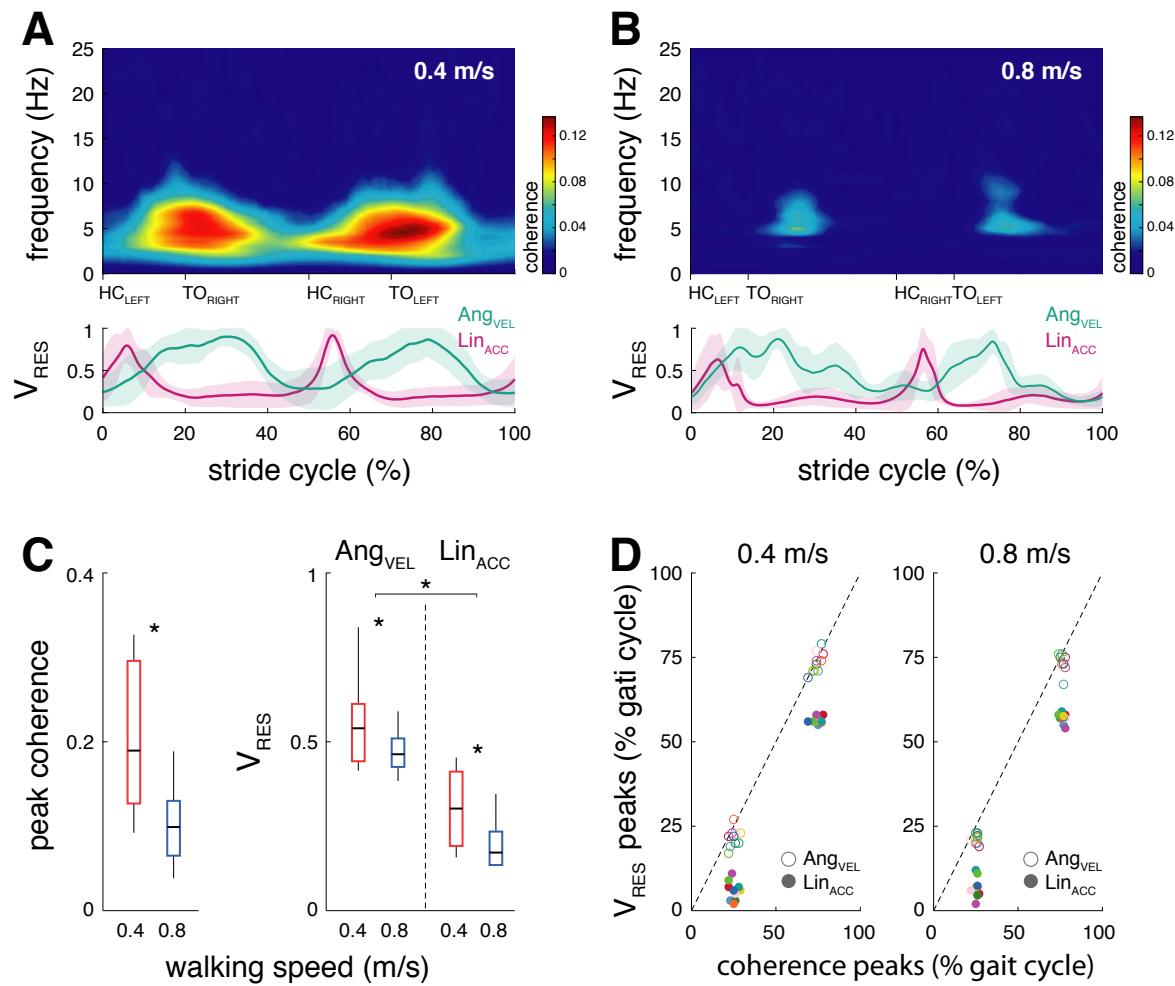
12 SVS: *stochastic vestibular stimulation*; COP: *center-of-pressure*

13

14 Similar to global coherence estimates, time-frequency analysis of SVS-COP coupling  
15 across the gait cycle revealed a drop of peak coherence from slow to medium walking  
16 speed ( $F_{1,9} = 15.5$ ;  $p < 0.001$ , Figure 2A-C). Analysis of head motion predictability  
17 revealed a corresponding decrease in mean head motion  $V_{res}$  (i.e., an increase in head  
18 motion predictability) from slow to medium walking speed for both linear head  
19 acceleration and angular head velocity ( $F_{1,18} = 14.0$ ;  $p = 0.001$ , Figure 2A-C).  
20 Furthermore, head motion predictability was generally higher for linear head

1 acceleration compared to angular head velocity ( $F_{1,18} = 44.7$ ;  $p < 0.001$ , Figure 2C).  
2 SVS-COP coupling across the gait cycle exhibited phasic modulations with two distinct  
3 peaks occurring at  $25.0 \pm 2.4\%$  and  $74.3 \pm 2.7\%$  of the gait cycle during slow walking  
4 and at  $25.4 \pm 1.4\%$  and  $76.6 \pm 1.4\%$  of the gait cycle during walking at medium speed  
5 (Figure 2A,B). In accordance, the estimated head motion predictability was similarly  
6 modulated throughout the gait cycle. Periods of maximum  $V_{res}$  (i.e., least predictability)  
7 of angular head velocity corresponded to peaks of SVS-COP coherence (at  $21.6 \pm$   
8  $2.8\%$  and  $73.5 \pm 3.1\%$  of the gait cycle during slow walking and  $21.3 \pm 1.3\%$  and  $73.4$   
9  $\pm 2.6\%$  of the gait cycle during medium walking). In contrast, peaks of linear head  
10 acceleration  $V_{res}$  occurred at considerably earlier instances of the gait cycle ( $5.9 \pm$   
11  $2.8\%$  and  $56.4 \pm 1.0\%$  of the gait cycle during slow walking and  $6.7 \pm 2.9\%$  and  $56.9 \pm$   
12  $1.4\%$  of the gait cycle during medium walking).

13

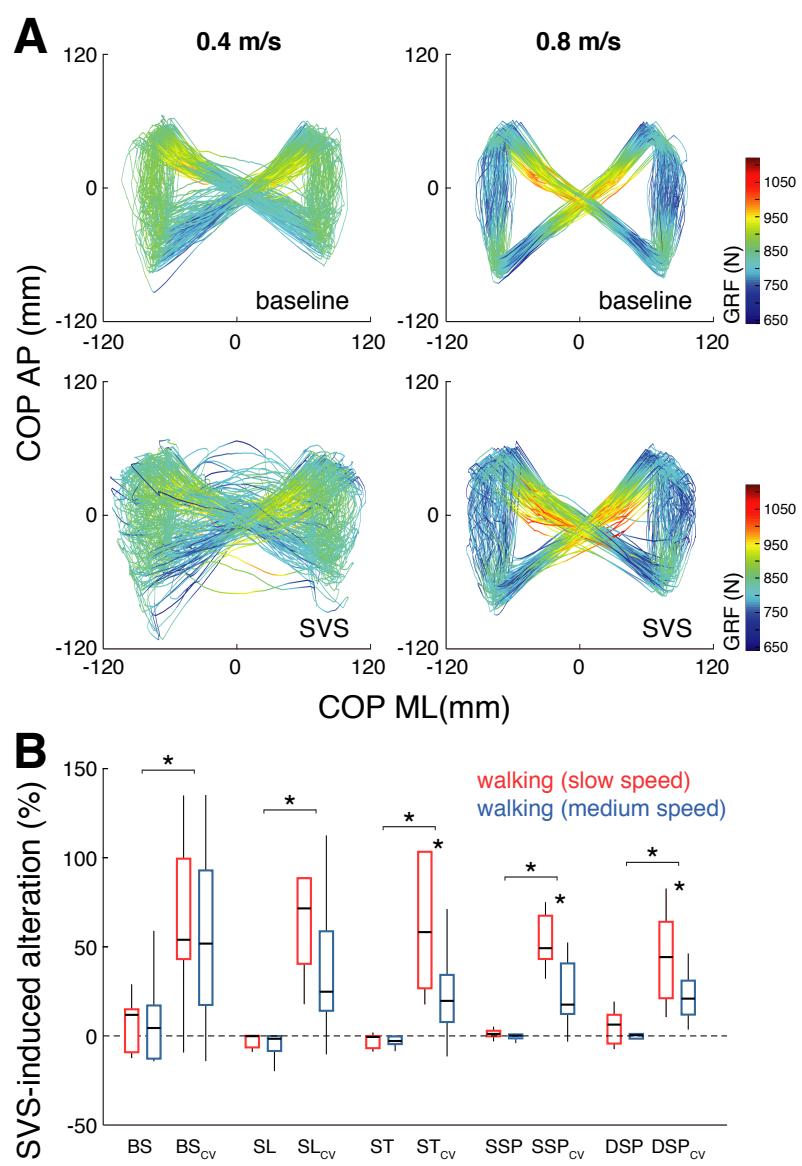


**Figure 2: Time-frequency analysis of coupling between SVS and COP displacements and corresponding estimates of head motion predictability**

(A,B) Average time-dependent coherence between SVS and COP at slow and medium walking speed (upper panels) and corresponding average head motion  $V_{res}$  curves (lower panels) in dependence on the gait cycle phase. (C) Peak coherence and corresponding average  $V_{res}$  for angular head velocity and linear head acceleration. (D) Temporal correspondence between phase-dependent peaks in SVS-COP coherence and peaks in head motion  $V_{res}$  at slow and medium walking speed. Both SVS-COP coupling as well as head motion predictability decrease with faster locomotion and are phase-dependently modulated across the gait cycle. SVS-COP coupling exhibits two peaks across the stride cycle that correspond well to periods of highest  $V_{res}$  (i.e., least predictability) of angular head velocity. \* indicates a significant difference. SVS: *stochastic vestibular stimulation*; COP: *center-of-pressure*;  $V_{res}$ : *residual variance*;  $\text{Ang}_{VEL}$ : *angular head velocity*;  $\text{Lin}_{ACC}$ : *linear head acceleration*; HC: *heel contact*; TO: *toe off*

1 Continuous SVS did not affect the average spatiotemporal walking pattern but resulted  
2 in a considerable increase of stride-to-stride variability (i.e., increased CV) of all  
3 analyzed gait parameters (Figure 3B). This effect was diminished during medium  
4 compared to slow walking for the CV of stride time ( $F_{1,9} = 5.9$ ;  $p = 0.038$ ), single support  
5 percentage ( $F_{1,9} = 7.7$ ;  $p = 0.022$ ), and double support percentage ( $F_{1,9} = 5.9$ ;  $p =$   
6 0.038).

7



8

9 **Figure 3: Effects of SVS and walking speed on spatiotemporal gait parameters**

10 (A) Representative examples of COP trajectories during slow (left) and medium (right)  
11 walking speed for trials without stimulation (upper panel) and with continuous SVS (lower

1 panel). (B) Percentage differences in gait parameters for walking with continuous SVS  
2 compared to baseline walking at the two locomotor speeds. SVS does not affect the mean  
3 gait pattern but induces increased stride-to-stride fluctuations (i.e., increased CV values)  
4 in all gait parameters. This effect diminishes with faster locomotion. \* indicates a significant  
5 difference. SVS: *stochastic vestibular stimulation*; COP: *center-of-pressure*; BS: *base*  
6 *width*; SL: *stride length*; ST: *stride time*; SSP: *single support percentage*; DSP: *double*  
7 *support percentage*; CV: *coefficient of variation*

8

9

10 **4. Discussion**

11 Here we observed that activity-dependent modulations of vestibular influence on  
12 balance control closely match differences in head motion predictability. This finding  
13 supports a previously proposed model (MacNeilage & Glasauer, 2017), based on the  
14 idea that during stereotyped locomotion, efference copies of locomotor commands  
15 may be used in conjunction with sensory, especially vestibular, cues in order to  
16 estimate resultant head movements and trigger adequate balance adjustments. The  
17 extent to which balance regulation during locomotion relies on concurrent vestibular  
18 vs. motor feed-forward signals should further depend on the reliability of these  
19 estimates, such that higher weighting is given to the less noisy estimate (Ernst &  
20 Banks, 2002). Accordingly, we found that activities linked to less stereotyped head  
21 movements (i.e., standing or slow walking) were more sensitive to externally triggered  
22 vestibular cues than activities with highly predictable head motion patterns (i.e. faster  
23 walking). Furthermore, we found that during walking, sensitivity to SVS was highest at  
24 the times of lowest head movement predictability. Thus, the present results provide a  
25 reasonable explanation for the dynamic weighting of vestibular influences across and  
26 within different activities and further emphasize the possibility of an intrinsic feed-  
27 forward regulation of balance during human locomotion based on locomotor efference

1 copies. In the following, we will discuss these findings with respect to their functional  
2 implications and possible physiological correlates.

3

4 The influence of externally triggered vestibular cues on body sway (i.e., SVS-COP  
5 coherence) was attenuated during walking compared to standing (Figure 1). This  
6 agrees with the recently reported decrease of vestibular influence on body balance  
7 after gait initiation and the corresponding increase after gait termination (Tisserand et  
8 al., 2018). Such general down-weighting of vestibular influence during locomotion is  
9 consistent with predictions of the model employed here. During locomotion, the  
10 presence of an efference copy of locomotor commands imposes an upper limit for the  
11 weighting of sensory influences, i.e.,  $w_{sens} < 1/(1 + k) < 1$ , which depends on the  
12 Weber's fraction  $k$ , the proportionality constant for signal dependent noise  
13 (MacNeilage & Glasauer, 2017). Thus, in contrast to standing, balance regulation  
14 during locomotion will always be partially governed by a locomotor efference copy, i.e.,  
15  $w_{mot} > 0$ . Previous literature indicates that the attenuation of balance-related  
16 vestibular reflex gains during locomotion is a more general phenomenon that also  
17 concerns vestibulo-ocular reflex pathways (Dietrich & Wuehr, 2019). Accordingly, it  
18 was shown in patients with a unilateral vestibular failure that spontaneous nystagmus  
19 resulting from a vestibular tone imbalance is considerably dampened during  
20 ambulation (Jahn et al., 2002). A complete suppression of the horizontal vestibulo-  
21 ocular reflex has been demonstrated in tadpole swimming, i.e., a locomotor activity  
22 where the spatiotemporal coupling between rhythmic propulsive locomotor movements  
23 and resultant head displacements is high (Chagnaud et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2012).  
24 Similar effects were also observed in other non-vestibular sensory modalities. For  
25 instance, proprioceptive stretch reflexes that govern postural control during standing  
26 are known to be selectively suppressed during locomotion (Dietz et al., 1985).

1  
2 During locomotion, vestibular feedback is thought to be essential for maintenance of  
3 dynamic stability by fine-tuning the timing and magnitude of foot placement (Bent et  
4 al., 2004; Blouin et al., 2011; Wuehr et al., 2016). In line with this, significant SVS-COP  
5 coupling during locomotion led to an increased spatiotemporal variability of stride-to-  
6 stride walking movements despite of the otherwise unaffected average gait parameters  
7 (Figure 3). Both SVS-COP coupling and increased stride-to-stride variability decreased  
8 from slow to medium walking speed (Figure 1-3). This observation is in line with  
9 previous studies reporting that the destabilizing impact of a vestibular loss or external  
10 vestibular perturbation is considerably attenuated during fast compared to slow  
11 locomotion (Brandt et al., 1999; Dakin et al., 2013; Jahn et al., 2000; Schniepp et al.,  
12 2012). Moreover, in agreement with previous reports (Bent et al., 2004; Blouin et al.,  
13 2011; Dakin et al., 2013), we found that SVS-COP coupling was phase-dependently  
14 modulated during locomotion, exhibiting two consistent peaks across the gait cycle  
15 with equal timing for both examined walking speeds. Both speed- and phase-  
16 dependent changes in SVS-COP coupling closely matched concomitant changes in  
17 head motion predictability (Figure 2). Accordingly,  $V_{res}$  of linear acceleration and  
18 angular velocity of head motion decreased with faster locomotion (i.e., increased  
19 predictability) and consistently exhibited two local maxima across the gait cycle (i.e.,  
20 least predictability). Furthermore, phasic modulation of SVS-COP coupling across the  
21 locomotor cycle temporally matched modulations of  $V_{res}$  of angular head velocity rather  
22 than of linear head acceleration. This suggests that the observed SVS-induced COP  
23 displacements primarily reflect responses to activation of semicircular canal afferents  
24 conveyed through vestibulospinal tracts. In line with this, semicircular canal afferent  
25 stimulation was previously shown to trigger medium-latency body sway responses at  
26 the frequency bandwidth and phase lags observed in the present study, whereas short-

1 latency responses triggered by otolith afferents via reticulospinal tracts occur at a  
2 higher bandwidth (> 10 Hz) with shorter phase lags (Cathers et al., 2005; Dakin et al.,  
3 2007).

4

5 Previous reports hypothesized that the activity-dependent modulation of vestibular  
6 feedback during locomotion is reflected by concurrent changes in muscle activation or  
7 foot placement patterns to stabilize posture (Bent et al., 2004; Blouin et al., 2011; Dakin  
8 et al., 2013). Others have proposed that vestibular down-regulation during faster  
9 locomotion simply occurs due to a larger degree of automated behavior that tends to  
10 rely less on sensory feedback (Brandt et al., 1999). The present findings alternatively  
11 suggest that rather than automation, changes in head motion predictability define the  
12 activity-dependent modulation of vestibular control of balance during locomotion.  
13 Accordingly, the ratio of sensory vs. motor noise generally becomes greater with  
14 increasing locomotion speed, which should lead to a down-weighting of vestibular  
15 feedback in favor of a direct feed-forward regulation of balance based on efference  
16 copies from the locomotor commands. Moreover, the phase-dependent modulation of  
17 vestibular influences would similarly reflect changes in the proportion of sensory vs.  
18 motor noise across the gait cycle. An analogous re-weighting of sensory vs. motor  
19 cues based on the relative precision of these signals could further explain the  
20 previously described speed- and phase-dependent modulation of other non-vestibular  
21 feedback cues (i.e., visual and proprioception) occurring during human locomotion  
22 (Dietz, 2002; Jahn et al., 2001; Logan et al., 2014; Wuehr et al., 2013; Wuehr et al.,  
23 2014).

24

25 The relationship between the activity-dependent modulation of vestibular influences  
26 and changes in head motion predictability suggests that during human locomotion an

1 intrinsic feed-forward mechanism based on locomotor efference copies plays a part in  
2 balance regulation, which was previously thought to be purely controlled by  
3 sensorimotor reflexes. Traditionally, motor efference copies are primarily considered  
4 to serve as predictors of sensory consequences arising from one's own actions,  
5 thereby enabling the brain to distinguish self-generated sensory signals (reafference)  
6 from sensory inputs caused by unpredictable external influences (exafference) (Cullen,  
7 2004; Sperry, 1950; von Holst & Mittelstaedt, 1950). Recent research, however, has  
8 expanded this view, suggesting that internal motor predictions are also involved in  
9 coordinating action of different motor systems that are otherwise functionally and  
10 anatomically unrelated (Straka et al., 2018). One well described example of such an  
11 efference copy-mediated motor-to-motor coupling is the interaction between the  
12 mammalian locomotor and respiratory motor system, which is coordinated by intrinsic  
13 efference copies derived from CPG activity in the lumbar spinal cord (Onimaru &  
14 Homma, 2003). More recently, CPG-derived locomotor efference copies were shown  
15 to directly mediate compensatory eye movements for gaze stabilization during aquatic  
16 locomotion in *Xenopus laevis* tadpoles (Lambert et al., 2012) and adult frogs (von  
17 Uckermann et al., 2013) – a task that is usually thought to be mediated by the vestibulo-  
18 ocular reflex. Moreover, this direct coupling between spinal and ocular motor signals  
19 was shown to be accompanied by a selective suppression of vestibular inputs to  
20 extraocular motoneurons. Whether such selective gating of vestibular feedback occurs  
21 at the level of the brainstem extraocular or vestibular nuclei or other brain regions such  
22 as the cerebellum yet remains unknown. In favor of a cerebellar origin, it was previously  
23 shown that the phasic modulation of vestibulospinal neuron activity in the lateral  
24 vestibular nucleus observed during locomotion in cats depends on the presence of an  
25 intact cerebellum and is disrupted by its removal (Orlovsky, 1972; Udo et al., 1982).  
26 Given its prominent role in adaptive plasticity of vestibular reflexes (Angelaki & Cullen,

1 2008; Dietrich & Straka, 2016; Gittis & du Lac, 2006), the cerebellum might thus serve  
2 as a convergence site for the weighting and integration of self-motion derived  
3 vestibular cues and intrinsic locomotor efference copies.

4

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8

9 **Competing interests**

10 The corresponding author states on behalf of all authors that there are no conflicts of  
11 interest.

12

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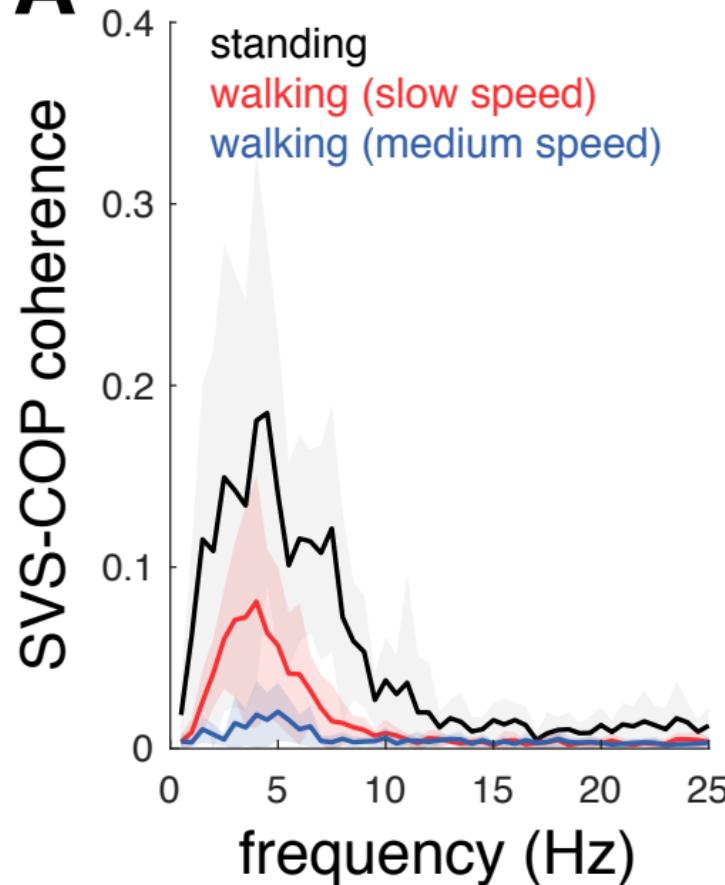
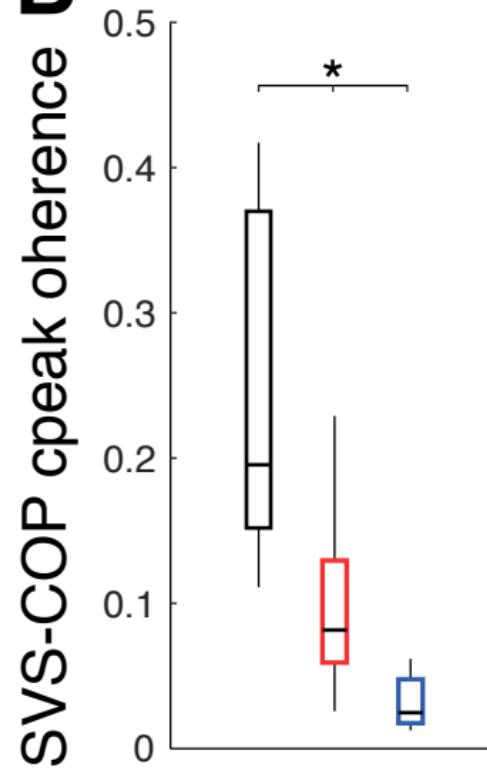
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