

1 How should the margin of stability during walking be expressed to account for body size?

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34 **Abstract**

35 **Introduction:** When expressing the margin of stability (MOS) as a distance, the MOS magnitude has an
36 unclear mechanical interpretation, and it is unknown how body mass and height may influence the
37 measure. In this study, we applied different expressions of the MOS, including that of an impulse, a
38 change in center of mass (COM) velocity, and a scaled, unitless impulse value. The purpose of this study
39 was to determine the influence of body size on these stability margin expressions using walking data from
40 both children and adults. We anticipated that stability margins expressed as an impulse would have strong
41 correlations with body mass and height, as well as large differences between groups. We predicted that
42 scaling for body size would result in weaker correlations and smaller between-group effect sizes.

43 **Methods:** We calculated each stability margin at the point of minimum lateral values of stance and in the
44 anterior direction at mid-swing. **Results:** In the anterior direction, the scaled unitless impulse was the
45 only margin to have non-significant relationships with body size ($r=-0.10$ and -0.08 , $p>0.05$) and small
46 between group effect sizes ($d=0.31$, $p=0.40$). In the lateral direction, the MOS, change in velocity margin,
47 and scaled, unitless impulse margin had non-significant correlations ($r=-0.20$ to 0.17 , $p>0.05$) with body
48 size and small-to-moderate between group differences ($d < 0.44$, $p>0.05$). **Discussion:** We propose using
49 impulse to measure stability margins, as it has has the mechanical implications of the impulse needed to
50 change stability states. If scaling is needed, we encourage using the scaled, unitless impulse.

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52 **Keywords:** Dynamic Stability, Walking, Gait, Scaling, Balance

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71 1. Introduction

72 Stability can be defined as the ability to control the body's center of mass (COM) relative to the
 73 base of support in quasi-static and dynamic conditions (Gill-Body et al., 2021). The margin of stability
 74 (MOS) is a measure that reflects the relationship of the COM relative to the edge of the base of support
 75 (BOS) (Hof et al., 2005). The BOS is defined as the boundary around the foot or the feet in contact with
 76 the ground. This COM-BOS relationship has implications for stability, as it reflects the initial conditions
 77 should a perturbation occur to disrupt the COM-BOS relationship. Conceptually, the *MOS* is the distance
 78 between an individual's extrapolated center of mass ($xCOM$, Equation 1), an estimated location that
 79 accounts for the COM's position and scaled velocity, and the edge of their BOS (Hof et al., 2005).

$$80 \quad xCOM = COM + \frac{v_{COM}}{\sqrt{\frac{g}{l}}} \quad (1)$$

81 where the body's COM horizontal velocity (v_{COM}) is scaled by the eigenfrequency of an inverted
 82 pendulum, comprised of gravity (g) and a pendulum length (l). A positive *MOS* occurs when the $xCOM$ is
 83 within the border of the BOS, suggesting a state of stability. A negative *MOS* occurs when the $xCOM$ is
 84 beyond the border suggesting a fall will occur unless stability is recovered through counter-rotating
 85 segments about the COM, taking a step to reposition the edge of the BOS, and/or applying an external
 86 force such as that from a handrail (Hof, 2007).

87 A limitation of the *MOS* is that, when expressed as a distance, it has an unclear mechanical
 88 interpretation. The magnitude of the *MOS* is proportional to the perturbation magnitude needed to change
 89 stability states, assuming similar balance-reaction capabilities across participants (Hof et al., 2005). How
 90 does a measure of distance between a theoretical point ($xCOM$) and the BOS edge represent that
 91 perturbation magnitude? In this short communication, we propose expressions of the *MOS* in units that
 92 have a more explicit mechanical meaning to represent the perturbation magnitude needed to change
 93 stability states.

94 When introducing the *MOS* concept, Hof et al. (2005) also proposed a measure of *impulse* (J_s ,
 95 Equation 2):

$$96 \quad J_s = m \sqrt{\left(\frac{g}{l}\right)} \cdot MOS \quad (2)$$

97 where m is the mass of the individual. To our knowledge, no subsequent studies have used this impulse
 98 measure, despite its clear implications regarding the perturbation magnitude that can change stability
 99 states. We suggest that this impulse value J_s holds more biomechanical meaning than the *MOS* value of
 100 distance.

101 It is clear from Equation 2 that, given the same *MOS*, the impulse stability margin (J_s) increases
 102 linearly with body mass. The influence of height on J_s is less straightforward, as Equations 1 and 2 are
 103 both influenced by pendulum height. This effect of height is dependent on the magnitude and direction of
 104 the COM velocity (v_{com}). In stable circumstances (i.e., positive *MOS*) where v_{com} is directed towards the
 105 BOS edge, a larger pendulum length is associated with a smaller J_s . These influences of height and mass
 106 agree with the common consensus that heavier, shorter objects are more stable.

107 It is our perspective that the *MOS* is a partially scaled version of J_s (Equation 2). To account for
 108 body mass and height, other expressions of stability can be calculated, including the *change in COM*
 109 *velocity* (Δv_s) needed to change stability states:

$$110 \quad \Delta v_s = \frac{J_s}{m} = \sqrt{\frac{g}{l}} \cdot MOS \quad (3)$$

111 Or a *scaled, unitless* J_s value:

$$112 \quad \hat{J}_s = \frac{J_s}{m \cdot \sqrt{gl_0}} = \frac{MOS}{l_0} \quad (4)$$

113 where l_0 is a scaling factor. The extent to which body mass and height influence these expressions of
114 stability margins during gait is unknown.

115 The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of body size on the aforementioned
116 expressions of the stability margins. We used walking data from previous studies with children and
117 adults, providing us with a wide range of body masses and heights. We assessed how each stability
118 margin, determined at minimum lateral values and anterior mid-swing values, correlated with body mass
119 and height. We also evaluated the between-group effect sizes of each measure. We predicted that, because
120 of the direct influence of mass and height (Equation 2), stability margins expressed as an impulse would
121 have strong correlations with body mass and height as well as large between-group differences. We
122 predicted that, by fully or partially scaling for body size, the other expressions of stability margins would
123 have reduced correlations and between-group effect sizes. Under the assumption that all participants
124 walked with geometric similarity, we predict that the scaled impulse measure (\hat{J}_s) would hold weak
125 correlations with height and mass and between-group differences would be small.

126 2. Methods

127 2.1 Participants

128 This study is a secondary analysis of two previously conducted studies done on a group of
129 children and adults. Datasets included fourteen typically developing children (Table 1) (Tracy et al.,
130 2019) and 16 neurotypical adults (Table 1) (Christensen, 2020). Participants reported no diagnosed
131 genetic disorder or recent injury that altered mobility or balance. Both studies were approved by the
132 University of Delaware Institutional Review Board. All children provided verbal assent with the legal
133 guardians and adult participants providing informed consent.

134 2.2 Procedure

135 In both studies, participants wore the same whole-body configuration of 41 retroreflective or
136 virtual markers distinguishing the extremities, pelvis, trunk, and head. The marker trajectories were
137 recorded (Qualisys, Göteborg, Sweden, 120 Hz) as participants walked at self-selected, preferred speeds
138 (Table 1) across a 10-m walkway. The first six recorded trials for each participant were analyzed.

139 2.3 Data Analysis

140 The MOS was calculated using custom MATLAB software (MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA,
141 R2021b) at two key points in the gait cycle. The MOS was evaluated in the anterior direction at mid-
142 swing—where a trip is likely to occur (Schulz, 2017)—defined as the point where the swing limb and the
143 stance limb toe markers were aligned (Tracy et al., 2019). The minimum lateral MOS was also evaluated
144 (Tracy et al., 2019) which represents the point of least stability in the lateral direction. The stability
145 margins were calculated for each limb and averaged across all strides for data analysis. Segment center of
146 mass locations were determined using anthropometric estimates (Dempster, 1955). Pendulum lengths
147 were defined as the distance between the whole-body COM and the ankle joint center at the timepoint of
148 interest. The edge of the BOS was defined by the toe marker. Expressions of the stability margins were
149 calculated as the MOS , J_s , Δv_s , and the \hat{J}_s (Equations 1–4), using pendulum length as the scaling factor
150 (l_0) for \hat{J}_s .

151 2.4 Statistical Analysis

152 The relationships between the different stability margin expressions and body mass or height
 153 were evaluated using Pearson's product moment correlations (r). Independent t-tests and Cohen's d effect
 154 sizes were used to compare the stability margins between children and adults. All statistical analyses were
 155 done using SPSS (IBM, Armonk, NY, v25).

156 3. Results

157 3.1 Margin of Stability

158 The anterior margin of stability (MOS) had strong correlations with height ($r=-0.75$, $p<0.01$) and
 159 mass ($r=-0.69$, $p<0.01$) and a strong between-group effect size ($d=1.63$, $p<0.01$). The minimum MOS in
 160 the lateral direction had non-significant correlations with body mass ($r=0.17$, $p=0.37$) and height ($r=0.14$,
 161 $p=0.48$) and weak between-group effect sizes ($d=-0.10$, $p=0.80$).

162 3.2 Impulse Margin

163 In the anterior direction, impulse (J_s) had the strongest correlations with both body height and
 164 mass (Table 2, Figure 1) and between-group effect size ($d=2.62$, $p<0.01$). At the point of the minimum
 165 lateral MOS , lateral J_s had the strongest correlations with both body height and mass (Table 2, Figure 2)
 166 and between-group effect size ($d=-1.07$, $p<0.01$).

167 3.3 Change in Velocity Margin

168 In the anterior direction, the expression of change in velocity (Δv_s) and were significantly
 169 different between children and adults for height ($r=-0.53$, $p<0.01$) and mass ($r=-0.48$, $p<0.01$) and
 170 between-group effect sizes (Table 2, Figure 2). At the point of the minimum lateral MOS , lateral Δv_s had
 171 the weakest correlations with mass and height and also the weakest between-group effect sizes (Table 2,
 172 Figure 2).

173 3.4 Scaled Impulse Margin

174 In the anterior direction at mid-swing, scaled impulse (\hat{J}_s) had the weakest correlations with mass
 175 ($r=-0.08$, $p=0.67$) and height ($r=-0.40$, $p=0.61$) and the weakest between-group effect sizes (Table 2,
 176 Figure 1). At the point of the minimum lateral MOS the lateral \hat{J}_s had non-significant correlations with
 177 body mass ($r=-0.13$, $p=0.48$) and height ($r=-0.20$, $p=0.30$) and weak between-group effect sizes (Table 2,
 178 Figure 2).

179 4. Discussion

180 The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of body mass and height on the different
 181 expressions of stability margins related to the MOS . We predicted that impulse stability margins (J_s)
 182 would have strong correlations with body mass and height, as well as large between-group differences.
 183 This prediction was supported. We predicted that, by fully or partially scaling for body size, the other
 184 expressions of stability margins would have reduced correlations and between-group effect sizes. This
 185 prediction was partially supported in the anterior direction as the scaled impulse significantly reduced the
 186 correlation between body mass and height, but not for the change in velocity measure. In the lateral
 187 direction, fully or partially scaling impulse significantly removed the correlation with the body
 188 parameters. The unitless values of scaled impulse (\hat{J}_s) eliminated significant correlations with body size,
 189 as well as group differences between children and adults.

190 We demonstrated that the conclusions of a study, such as whether adults and children walk with
 191 different stability margins, are altered with the expression of stability (Figure 1-2). The appropriate
 192 expression for a study is dependent upon its design (e.g., within- or between-participant comparisons).
 193 There are numerous considerations for how body size may affect fall risk or a laboratory study of balance.
 194 The size of a destabilizing impulse in the free-living environment or laboratory can be dependent upon the

195 size of an individual. Considering people of different body masses, a walking collision with a rigid object,
 196 such as a wall, would result in a larger destabilizing impulse for people with more mass, assuming
 197 consistent initial velocities across participants. In laboratory contexts, controlled perturbations may be
 198 prescribed based on the horizontal force of a pull (Schulz et al., 2005) or push (Hof et al., 2010). Those
 199 forces may be constant across participants (Hof et al., 2010) or scaled to body mass (Schulz et al., 2005),
 200 the choice of which would affect the resulting acceleration of people with different body masses.
 201 Considering people of different body heights, if those forces are applied at the waist or torso, they
 202 generate larger destabilizing torques about the ankle for a taller person. Perturbations may also be
 203 delivered as horizontal support-surface accelerations. Assuming equivalent surface accelerations across
 204 body sizes, a person with more mass would receive a larger perturbing force. For a taller person, those
 205 forces would generate larger destabilizing torques about the whole-body COM (Crenshaw and Kaufman,
 206 2014). Additionally, the balance reaction (i.e. stabilizing impulse) may also be related to body size. Static
 207 and dynamic muscle torque is related to body mass (Bober, 1990; Jaric et al., 2002). Therefore, larger
 208 individuals may be able to withstand larger perturbations due to their ability to generate larger corrective
 209 muscle torques. It is unclear how these two factors (i.e., larger destabilizing torques and greater corrective
 210 capacities) interact to affect fall risk. While choosing an expression of a stability margin, we suggest
 211 considering how body size may be different across study comparisons, how destabilizing perturbations
 212 may be different across body sizes within and outside of the lab, and how body size influences the
 213 response to destabilizing perturbations.

214 We chose pendulum length (l_0) as our scaling factor because the inverted pendulum model is the
 215 basis for the *MOS* measure (Hof, 2018). Leg length has been proposed as the appropriate scaling factor
 216 for gait parameters (Hof, 2018), but other variables have been used. Pierrynowski and Galea (2001)
 217 scaled gait variables by several scaling methods, including dimensionless numbers and hydrodynamic,
 218 geometric, dynamic, and static stress strategies. They concluded that scaling by the ad hoc (body mass or
 219 leg length) or to a dimensionless value had the smallest inter-participant variability. We propose the use
 220 of the dimensionless value for scaling, but future, larger studies are needed to determine if other strategies
 221 reduce inter-participant variability to a greater extent.

222 This analysis assumes geometric similarity across children and adults. However, Froehle et al.
 223 (2013) observed in a longitudinal study that gait parameters change throughout childhood, including
 224 alterations in the duration of single-limb stance, cadence, step length, and the ratio of pelvic span to ankle
 225 spread. Therefore, we cannot conclude that observed differences in stability margins are due to body size
 226 alone. Different control strategies may be in place across ages, and our results do not provide insight into
 227 that *control* of stability during walking. Hof (2008) expanded upon the *MOS* concept by showing that a
 228 change in foot placement can be enacted in response to a scaled change in velocity of the COM.
 229 Therefore, expressing stability margins as a length has value in characterizing foot placement. We do not
 230 know if people walk with targeted stability margins (i.e., J_s , *MOS*, Δv_s , or \hat{J}_s) or which expression of
 231 stability best corresponds with step-to-step foot placement across participants with a range of heights and
 232 masses.

233 An alternative approach to scaling is to consider confounders as covariates, such as height or
 234 mass when comparing groups. We compared the impulse margin (J_s) of children and adults with this
 235 approach, using two separate ANCOVA models due to the multicollinearity of mass and height (the
 236 correlation between height and mass was $r=0.95$). In the anterior direction, there were no significant
 237 differences in J_s between children and adults after accounting for height ($p=0.20$) or mass ($p=0.85$). In the
 238 lateral direction, there were also no significant differences in J_s between children and adults after
 239 accounting for height ($p=0.95$) or mass ($p=0.46$). Therefore, the scaling and statistical approaches resulted
 240 in the same conclusion. Some populations with a high risk of falling are also characterized by atypical
 241 body sizes, including pregnant women (Dunning et al., 2010; Mitchell et al., 2014) and obese adults
 242 (Allin et al., 2016). We suggest that scaling a stability margin measure, as done in this analysis, accounts
 243 for the *mechanical* influence of body size on stability margins. A statistical approach of including body

244 size as a covariate will adjust for factors that go beyond pure mechanical influence such as physiological
245 factors that underly fall risk that also correlate with body size.

246 Gait speed has a direct influence on anterior stability margins. Children and adults walked with
247 different absolute gait speeds ($p < 0.01$, Table 1), and those gait speeds were significantly correlated with
248 anterior impulse (J_s ; $r = -0.74$, $p < 0.01$). When controlling for gait speed as a covariate, significant
249 differences between the J_s of children and adults persisted ($p < 0.01$). Therefore, accounting for speed does
250 not eliminate a potential need for scaling.

251 **5. Conclusion**

252 In this study, we presented several expressions of stability margins that are related to the MOS.
253 We demonstrated that scaling stability margins reduced differences between children and adults in both
254 the anterior and lateral directions. We suggest using stability impulse (J_s) or the scaled impulse (\hat{J}_s)
255 expression in future research studies, depending on the research question, study design, and implication of
256 results. It is our opinion that the impulse margin (J_s) holds the strongest mechanical meaning in terms of
257 perturbation magnitude that can change stability states. If between-participants comparisons must be
258 made, or if body size changes in a longitudinal study, we encourage scaling that impulse value to a
259 unitless expression (\hat{J}_s). We further recommend always including scaled, unitless impulse to allow for
260 cross study comparisons.

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265 **Conflict of Interest Statement:**

266 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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331 **Figures:**

Table 1: Participant Demographics.

| | Typically Developing Children (N=14; 7 females) | Neurotypical Young Adults (N=16; 9 females) |
|-------------------------|--|--|
| Age (years) | 9.1 (2.6) | 21.4 (3.6) |
| Height (m) | 1.33 (0.19) | 1.74 (0.10) |
| Mass (kg) | 30.8 (11.5) | 65.1 (13.0) |
| Gait Speed (m/s) | 1.2 (0.2) | 1.4 (0.1) |
| Gait Speed (statures/s) | 0.93 (0.12) | 0.82 (0.11) |

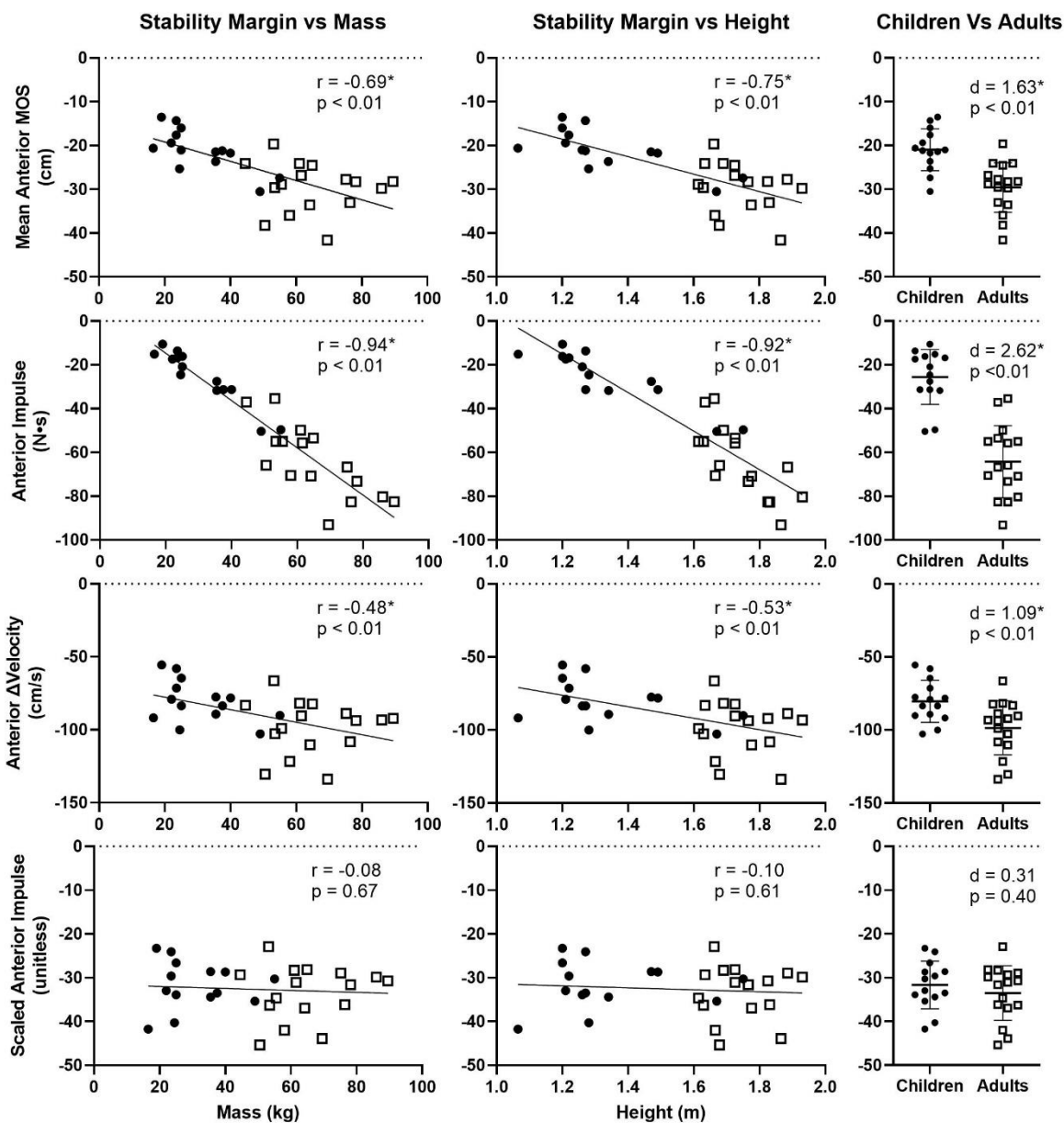
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Table 2: Variable expression value correlations with body size, and between-group differences in stability between children and adults.

| Direction and Time Point | Variable expression | Correlation (Pearson's r) | | Mean (SD) Values | | Between Group Effect Size (Cohen's d) |
|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|---------|------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|
| | | Height | Mass | Children | Adults | |
| Anterior at Mid-swing | J_s (N·s) | -0.92** | -0.94** | -25.50 (12.5) | -64.2 (16.5) | 2.62** |
| | Δv_s (cm/s) | -0.53** | -0.48** | -80.4 (14.3) | -98.6 (18.4) | 1.09** |
| | MOS (cm) | -0.75** | -0.69** | -21.0 (4.79) | -29.6 (5.69) | 1.63** |
| | \hat{f} (unitless) | -0.10 | -0.08 | -31.7 (5.44) | -33.5 (6.24) | 0.31 |
| Minimum Lateral | J_s (N·s) | 0.58** | 0.66** | 2.56 (2.08) | 4.67 (1.89) | -1.07** |
| | Δv_s (cm/s) | -0.04 | 0.01 | 7.84 (5.06) | 7.16 (2.44) | 0.17 |
| | MOS (cm) | 0.14 | 0.17 | 2.03 (1.30) | 2.13 (0.76) | -0.10 |
| | \hat{f} (unitless) | -0.20 | -0.13 | 3.10 (2.02) | 2.44 (0.83) | 0.44 |

** p<0.01

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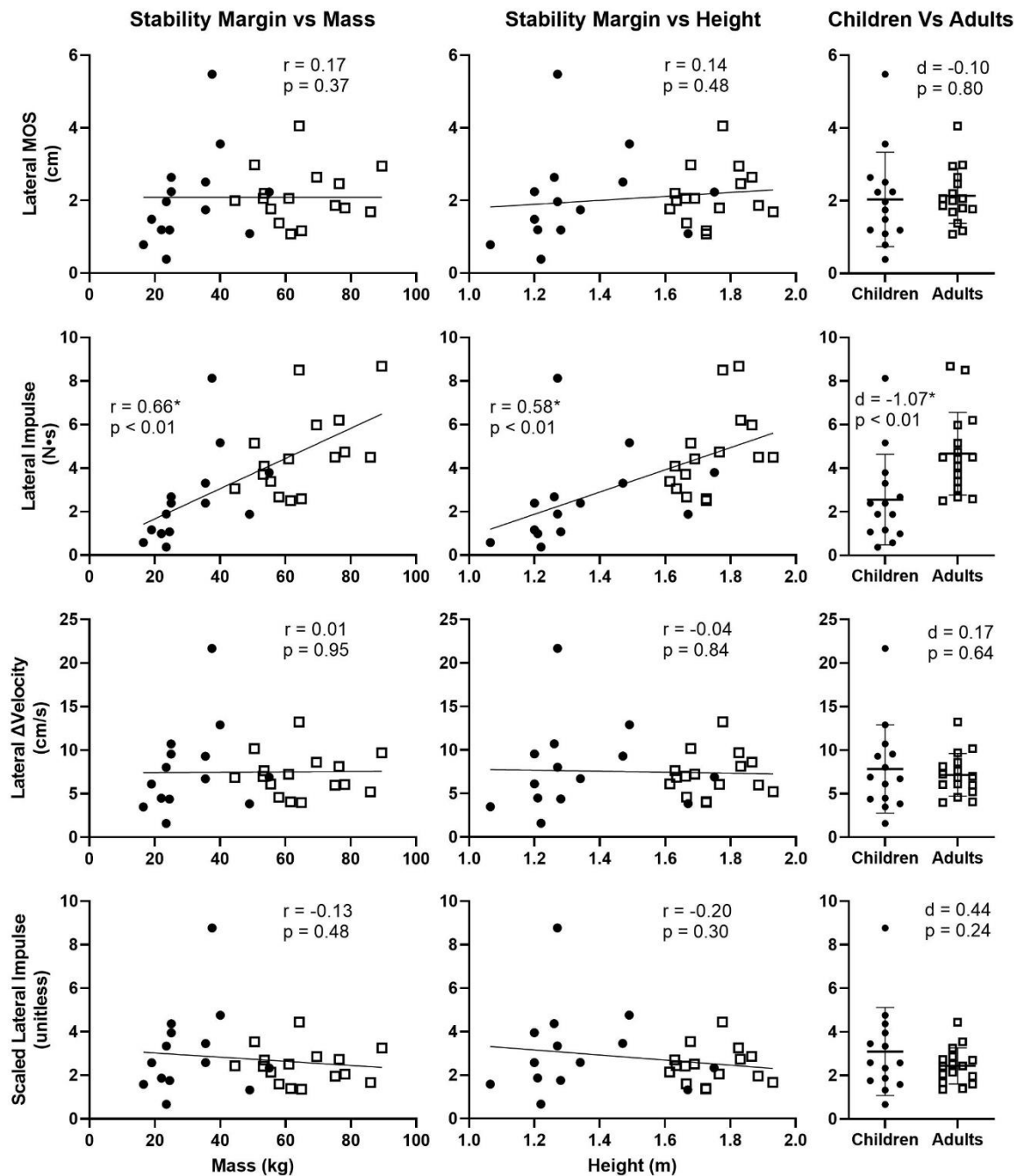
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335 Figure 1: Anterior stability margin expressions at mid-swing correlated with mass (left column),

336 correlated with height (middle column), and compared between children and adults (right column).

337 Closed circles represent typically developing children and open squares represent neurotypical young

338 adults. Pearson r and Cohen d values that are statistically significant are denoted with an asterisk.



339

340 Figure 2: Lateral minimum stability margin expressions correlated with mass (left column), correlated
 341 with height (middle column), and compared between children and adults (right column). Closed circles
 342 represent typically developing children and open squares represent neurotypical young adults. Pearson r
 343 and Cohen d values that are statistically significant are denoted with an asterisk.