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A Comparison of Treadmill and Overground Walking Effects on Step Cycle Asymmetry in Young and Older Individuals

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4 A Comparison of Treadmill and Overground Walking Effects on Step Cycle Asymmetry in Young
5 and Older Individuals

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26

27 Abstract

28 Although lower limb strength becomes asymmetrical with age, past studies of ageing effects on gait
29 biomechanics have usually analysed only one limb. This experiment measured how ageing and
30 treadmill surface influenced both dominant and non-dominant step parameters in older (Mean 74.0
31 yr) and young participants (Mean 21.9 yr). Step-cycle parameters were obtained from 3-D
32 position/time data during preferred-speed walking for 40 trials along a 10 m walkway and for 10-
33 minutes of treadmill walking. Walking speed (Young 1.23 m/s, Older 1.24 m/s) and step velocity
34 for the two age groups was similar in overground walking but older adults showed significantly
35 slower walking speed (Young 1.26 m/s, Older 1.05 m/s) and step velocity on the treadmill due to
36 reduced step length and prolonged step time. Older adults had shorter step length than young adults
37 and both groups reduced step length on the treadmill. Step velocity and length of older adults'
38 dominant limb was asymmetrically larger. Older adults increased the proportion of double support
39 in step time when treadmill walking. This adaptation combined with reduced step velocity and
40 length may preserve balance. The results suggest that bilateral analyses should be employed to
41 accurately describe asymmetric features of gait especially for older adults.

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43 Key Words: Ageing, Treadmill Walking, Asymmetry, Gait, Spatio-temporal Parameters

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52 **Introduction**

53 There is a worldwide research effort to better understand ageing effects on gait
54 biomechanics with the aim of determining how stability might be compromised and the risk of
55 falling increased.¹ Two fundamental consequences of age-related declines in sensory motor function
56 are evident in walking mechanics. The first is reduced performance, primarily due to loss of muscle
57 strength and associated force production. These changes are reflected in both the kinetic dimensions
58 of gait control² and associated spatial and temporal parameters of the step and stride cycle, such as
59 reduced step length, which has been considered the most appropriate spatio-temporal measure of
60 age-related frailty and falls risk.^{3, 4} The second major gait-related consequence of ageing is
61 compensatory adaptations that emerge to protect the walker; these effects are reflected in
62 “functional” or adaptive changes to gait cycle variables. The progression toward shorter steps and
63 slower walking as we age, for example, appear to compromise dynamic stability, particularly in the
64 medio-lateral axis.^{3, 5-8} Increased step width and prolonged double support in older adults, may
65 therefore emerge as functional responses, in this case maintaining medio-lateral stability.^{4, 9} While
66 such ageing-related gait adaptations have been well researched, one characteristic of older adults’
67 gait that has received relatively little attention is the symmetry of step control, as reflected in step
68 length and step time measures sampled from both lower limbs simultaneously.

69 Previous gait biomechanics investigations have typically described the motion of only one
70 limb and unilateral analysis has, possibly, been employed on the assumption that ageing influences
71 both limbs in the same way. Consequently, traditional averaging of right and left side gait variables
72 would preclude the opportunity to recognise any asymmetry. Adaptive locomotor control is,
73 however, dependent on interactions *between* the lower limbs and kinetic and kinematic variables
74 could be more unequal or “asymmetrical” than previously reported. Sadeghi et al.,¹⁰⁻¹² for example,
75 suggested that asymmetry in spatio-temporal parameters has not only been observed in pathological
76 gait but is also seen in non-impaired individuals, a finding that supports earlier research.^{13, 14}

77 Sadeghi et al.¹¹ introduced the “functional asymmetry” hypothesis, in which the dominant
78 limb primarily serves forward progression while the non-dominant limb maintains stability but
79 there is no conclusive evidence of ‘functional asymmetry’ to explain gait asymmetry in healthy
80 young individuals^{11, 15} despite the implication of partial support.¹² While previous studies of
81 functional asymmetry have not examined older adults’ gait, Perry et al.² found that with ageing the
82 dominant limb becomes asymmetrically stronger. It is, therefore, reasonable to hypothesise that
83 spatio-temporal gait parameters also become asymmetrical with ageing. Asymmetry in older
84 individuals has previously been linked to falls risk^{2, 16, 17} but there are no previous reports of ageing
85 effects on the symmetry of step cycle parameters.

86 The aim of this experiment was to investigate ageing effects on step cycle parameters by
87 employing bilateral measurements of individual step cycles, rather than employing the more usual
88 stride cycle analysis that does not separately examine the contribution of the two limbs and
89 therefore masks any asymmetry in spatio-temporal parameters. Accordingly, it was hypothesised
90 that older adults would show greater asymmetry in spatio-temporal parameters (see Figure 1) than
91 young controls. In unconstrained overground walking healthy older adults may be capable of
92 concealing asymmetric features of their gait and use both limbs equally but when encountering a
93 more challenging task they could show increased confidence in their dominant limb. To test
94 whether gait asymmetry is related to the level of challenge in walking we studied gait adaptations
95 when walking at preferred speed overground and also when treadmill walking. Young adults are
96 reported to fully familiarise to treadmill walking¹⁸ whereas in one study, when on a motor driven
97 treadmill older participants were requested to match their overground walking speed, two-thirds
98 were unable to do so without using the safety handrail.¹⁹ Older adults appear, therefore, to be
99 destabilized during treadmill walking and it was of interest to determine whether a challenging
100 treadmill walking condition was reflected in step cycle parameters.

101 **Methods**

102 *Participants*

103 Ten young adults (18 – 35 years, 6 males/4 females, age 21.9 ± 3.30 years) and ten older
104 adults (> 65 years, 6 males/4 females, age 74.0 ± 7.63 years) participated; their height, body mass
105 and limb dominance characteristics were as follows: Young: Height (1.67 ± 0.10 m), Weight (68.4
106 ± 12.21 kg), Limb dominance (n = right/left: 8/2) Older: Height (1.69 ± 0.11 m), Weight ($73.1 \pm$
107 9.06 kg); Limb dominance (n = right/left: 8/2). The limb used to kick a ball was classified as the
108 dominant limb, as previously used.¹⁵ All older adults lived independently, were able to perform
109 routine daily activities, free of any known cognitive, orthopaedic or neurological abnormalities and
110 able to walk for at least 20 minutes continuously. Older volunteers were also excluded if they
111 exceeded 12 seconds on a ‘timed up and go test’, scored less than 20 on a visual contrast sensitivity
112 test (‘Melbourne Edge Test’) and reported at least one fall within the previous two years. None of
113 the participants were regular treadmill users. All participants provided informed consent using
114 procedures approved and mandated by the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee.

115 *Experimental Protocol*

116 Overground walking was performed at each participant’s preferred speed along a ten meter
117 overground walkway for 40 trials. Two force platforms (AMTI, Watertown, MA, USA) located in
118 the middle of the walkway flush with the floor recorded foot-ground contact at 1200 Hz for
119 consecutive steps. An Optotrak® optoelectric motion capture system (Northern Digital Inc.,
120 Canada) with two camera towers tracked the 3D position of eight markers (light-emitting diodes) on
121 each foot at 240 Hz. Post-test processing of the overground walkthrough trials allowed the
122 calculation of average preferred walking speed. A 10-minutes rest was provided for each participant
123 before proceeding to treadmill walking to minimise the effect of fatigue on their gait.

124 The treadmill condition included a 10 minute warm up and familiarity phase during which
125 preferred treadmill walking speed was determined by beginning at the average of overground
126 walking speed and then decreasing by 0.3km/h every 10 strides until participants reported that it

127 was uncomfortable to maintain normal walking. Speed was then decreased a further 0.3km/h and
128 then increased systematically by 0.3km/h until reported as being uncomfortably fast. This procedure
129 was repeated three times with the average of the six reported speeds taken as preferred walking
130 speed on the treadmill. This protocol for determining treadmill walking speed has been applied in
131 previous research.²⁰⁻²² After a suitable rest participants walked at their determined speed for 10
132 minutes and 3-D motion data were continuously collected throughout the treadmill walking test for
133 analysis. All participants wore a safety harness when treadmill walking and their own flat, rubber
134 soled, walking shoes.

135 _____
136 Insert Figure 1 about here
137 _____

138 *Data Acquisition and Analysis*

139 Using an established procedure²³ the distal end of most anterior toe part of a shoe and the
140 proximal inferior surface of the shoe out-sole (i.e. heel) were reconstructed to represent toe and heel
141 motion, respectively. Raw data of the markers and analogue data were low-pass filtered with a 4th
142 order zero-lag Butterworth Filter with a cut-off frequency of 15 Hz (e.g. Mathie et al.²⁴). Average
143 overground preferred walking speed was calculated from all valid walkthrough trials using the heel
144 contact events. To identify heel contact and toe off in both walking surface conditions we applied a
145 foot velocity algorithm similar to that proposed by O'Connor et al.²⁵ The validity of the method was
146 also supported by our own comparisons of kinematic and force plate data from the overground
147 walking trials. The dependent variables were the analysed spatio-temporal step parameters: step
148 velocity, step length, step width, and step time (including swing and double support). The
149 independent variables were walking surface (overground and treadmill), limb (dominant and non-
150 dominant), and age (young and older). Step velocity was calculated as step length divided by step
151 time for the two limbs separately. Displacement between successive contralateral heel contacts in

152 the anterior-posterior direction defined step length and in the medio-lateral direction, step width.
153 Step time was the time taken to complete one step. Each step parameter was measured separately
154 for the dominant and non-dominant limbs except step width. Step time comprises swing time and
155 double support time (Figure 1). As commonly employed in gait cycle analysis the swing phase was
156 the interval between ipsilateral toe off and heel contact, while double support was the interval
157 between contralateral heel contact and ipsilateral toe off. Swing time and double support time were
158 also normalised to a percentage of step time. A similar algorithm to that proposed by O'Connor et
159 al.²⁵ was applied to obtain the timing of heel contact and toe off

160 A 2 X 2 X 2 (age x surface x limb) repeated measures mixed model Analysis of Variance
161 (ANOVA) design was applied to all spatial-temporal dependent variables. Age was the between
162 subject factor with surface and limb the within subject factors. F-ratios were accepted as significant
163 when computed p values were .05 or less (using SPSS 16.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Post-
164 hoc comparisons between means for significant interactions were analysed using Tukey's
165 procedure.

166 **Results**

167 Mean walking speeds were; *Overground*, Young 1.23 m/s, Older 1.24 m/s and for *Treadmill*
168 *Walking* Young 1.26 m/s and Older 1.05 m/s. There were no main effects on walking speed for
169 either age or surface but an age x surface interaction ($F(1, 18) = 5.0, p=.038$) supported the above
170 observation that the older participants selected an equivalent preferred speed overground but were
171 significantly slower on the treadmill. Consistent with the walking speed data, young adults' step
172 velocity was relatively constant across walking surfaces for both limbs and, as expected from the
173 walking speed analysis, an age x surface interaction was again obtained ($F(1, 18) = 5.0, p = .038$)
174 indicating that older adults' step velocity was significantly lower in treadmill walking than
175 overground (Figure 2).

176 There was a limb effect on step velocity ($F(1, 18) = 8.1, p = .011$) but again, an age x limb
177 interaction ($F(1, 18) = 11.6, p = .003$) was obtained, such that older adults' non-dominant step
178 velocity was significantly lower than their dominant limb in both the overground and treadmill
179 walking tasks.

180 Step length was longer in the young ($F(1, 18) = 9.8, p = .006$) and significantly shorter
181 when treadmill walking in both age groups ($F(1, 18) = 8.8, p = .008$). There was also a significant
182 difference between the limbs ($F(1, 18) = 13.4, p = .002$) due to shorter non-dominant steps but this
183 was observed only in the older group as revealed by a significant age x limb interaction ($F(1, 18) =$
184 $15.9, p = .001$). Step width was larger in the older adults for the both walking conditions (Figure 2).
185 The comparison between overground and treadmill walking of the older adults showed the marked
186 increase, but the difference did not achieve statistical significance ($F(1, 18) = 4.3, p = .053$).

187 Step time analysis found an age x surface interaction ($F(1, 18) = 5.5, p = .031$) with young
188 adults reducing step time while the older participants increased step time when treadmill walking.
189 Examination of the step cycle sub-components revealed age x surface interactions for double
190 support ($F(1, 18) = 4.7, p = .044$) and swing ($F(1, 18) = 4.6, p = .047$). Thus, increased absolute
191 step time in treadmill walking as a function of age was due to both support time and swing time
192 being extended. In addition, the *proportion* of double support in step time also increased
193 significantly in the older groups' treadmill condition (age x surface, $F(1, 18) = 5.6, p = .030$) while
194 as a consequence percentage swing time decreased (Figure 3).

196 Insert Figures 2 and 3 about here

198 Discussion

199 In this experiment both age groups walked at the same speed overground and with the same
200 overground step velocity. In contrast, Whittle⁴ and others^{8,26} reported lower average walking speeds

201 in older adults but older persons in their upper range walked faster than the mean for young adults.
202 The older participants in this study were healthy and physically active while other studies may have
203 had greater diversity within their selected ‘healthy’ older adult sample. The results here suggest that
204 when walking for a short duration at preferred speed on an unobstructed level surface, the effect of
205 ageing alone in the absence of gait pathology may not significantly reduce walking speed relative to
206 young controls.

207 When, in this study, the dominant and non-dominant step velocities were analysed separately,
208 older adults showed asymmetrically greater step velocity and step length in the dominant limb. This
209 result is consistent with previous work indicating that with age the dominant limb becomes
210 asymmetrically stronger despite an overall reduction in absolute strength (e.g., Perry et al.²). Slower
211 step velocity and shorter step length in the non-dominant limb may, therefore, be due to age-
212 specific asymmetry in lower limb kinetics. The accentuated asymmetry revealed in significantly
213 faster step velocity and longer step length in the older sample’s dominant limb could be interpreted
214 as evidence of an increased propulsive role consistent with the “functional asymmetry” hypothesis
215 discussed earlier. Confirming the non-dominant limb’s role in support is more problematic in that
216 both step width and double support potentially comprise a contribution from either limb or both
217 limbs. One limitation of the current study is that a limited number of step cycle parameters were
218 investigated and a more detailed account of gait cycle kinematics may be required to determine
219 more conclusively the non-dominant limb’s role in supporting gait. Further information to
220 complement the findings reported here would, therefore, be required to more strongly support the
221 hypothesised functional contribution by the non-dominant limb. It is, however, also possible that
222 the dominant limb could play the larger supporting role if it becomes stronger with ageing²⁷ and in
223 that case the ‘functional asymmetry’ hypothesis would be revised accordingly.

224 As found in earlier work (e.g., Seeley et al.¹⁵) the young adults in this experiment did not
225 demonstrate functional differences between the two limbs; but it is noteworthy that earlier

226 investigators had not examined limb dominance effects on the kinematic characteristics of step
227 cycle parameters.

228 In addition to limb dominance brain laterality may also have influenced gait asymmetry.¹¹
229 Due to the limited number of left-limb dominant subjects, the current study could not effectively
230 explore the possibility of whether further classification into the right or left limb dominance would
231 reveal any evidence of brain laterality but this hypothesis could be usefully addressed in future
232 work.

233 In support of a previous treadmill gait validation study²⁷ both age groups reduced step length
234 and in older subjects ambulation was slower than overground. The young adults, however,
235 significantly reduced step time (higher step frequency) to compensate reduced step length to
236 maintain the same walking velocity on both surfaces. In contrast, older adults prolonged step time
237 (lower step frequency) in addition to reducing step length, resulting in significantly slower step
238 velocity in treadmill walking. Double support time and swing time showed the age by surface
239 interaction similar to step time; in older participants double support and swing increased on the
240 treadmill while for young subjects the effect was opposite, with shorter double support and swing.
241 The proportion analysis revealed a significant increase in double support when older adults walked
242 on the treadmill while there were no age group differences on time-normalised double support in
243 overground walking. This finding is important in suggesting that physically active older adults, who
244 did not walk overground significantly slower than their young counterparts, may have increased
245 double support in response to the more destabilizing treadmill task. Reduction in step length and
246 associated step velocity also support this hypothesis because these responses have previously been
247 reported as safety-related adaptations.^{4, 7, 28, 29} Whittle⁴ identified typical age-related changes in
248 spatio-temporal parameters as including reduced step length and associated walking velocity,
249 increased step width and greater double support duration. These responses were also seen here
250 when comparing older adults' overground walking to their treadmill gait. It is, therefore, reasonable

251 to conclude that treadmill walking challenged the healthy older adults recruited for this study. If the
252 link between spatio-temporal asymmetry and age-related gait deterioration is further confirmed,
253 portable gait assessment tools such as the Gaitrite system could be used in clinical settings to
254 identify individuals with higher falls risk.

255 In summary, the results supported the asymmetry hypothesis in older adults' gait, with
256 significantly lower velocity and spatially shorter steps for the non-dominant limb on both surfaces,
257 supporting the 'functional asymmetry' hypothesis proposed by Sadeghi¹¹ in which step asymmetry
258 is functional in assigning the dominant limb a primary role in progression while the non-dominant
259 limb stabilizes or "secures" gait. In the data presented here, however, there was no evidence to
260 support the proposition that the non-dominant limb serves a "gait securing" function. Older
261 individuals increased step time in treadmill walking while young controls decreased step time but
262 both groups decreased step length relative to overground locomotion. In older adults, relative to
263 overground gait, increased double support and reduced swing time (percentages) in both limbs were
264 found in treadmill walking.

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373 Figure Captions

374

375 Figure 1. The stance and swing phases of a complete walking cycle defined by successive heel
376 contacts of the same limb. Steps are identified for the dominant (D) and non-dominant (N)
377 limbs with each step subdivided into double support time (DST) and swing time (SwgT).
378 Step length is the anterior-posterior displacement of one step; step time is the time to
379 complete one step, the sum of DST and SwgT

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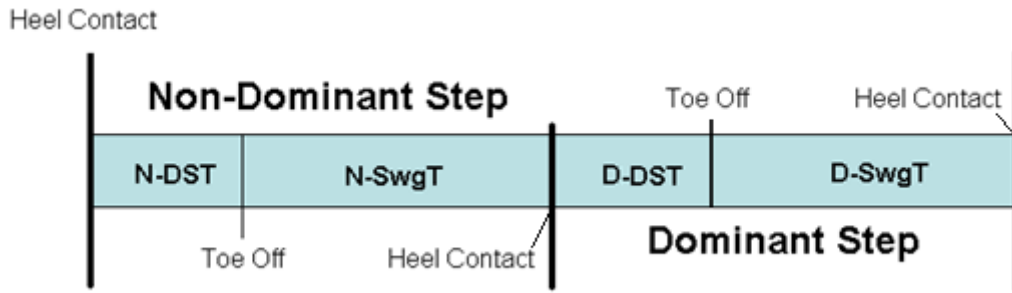
381 Figure 2. Dominant and non-dominant step parameters for treadmill and overground walking at
382 self-selected speed for older adults and young controls. An asterisk (*) indicates a
383 significant between-limb difference associated with an age x limb interaction; error bars
384 indicate one standard deviation. Figure 2A: step velocity, step length, and step width;
385 Figure 2B: step time, double support time and swing time.

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387 Figure 3. Double support time and swing time (%) relative to step time (100%) for dominant and
388 non-dominant steps; conventions as in Figure 2. Asterisk (*) indicates significant age x
389 surface interaction.

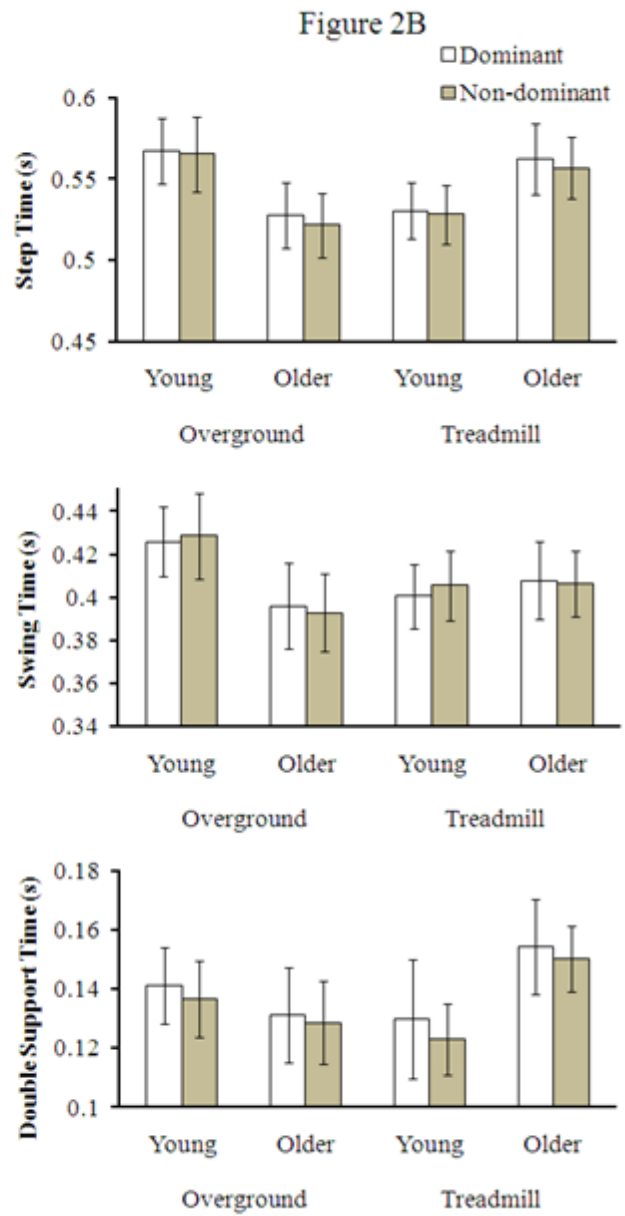
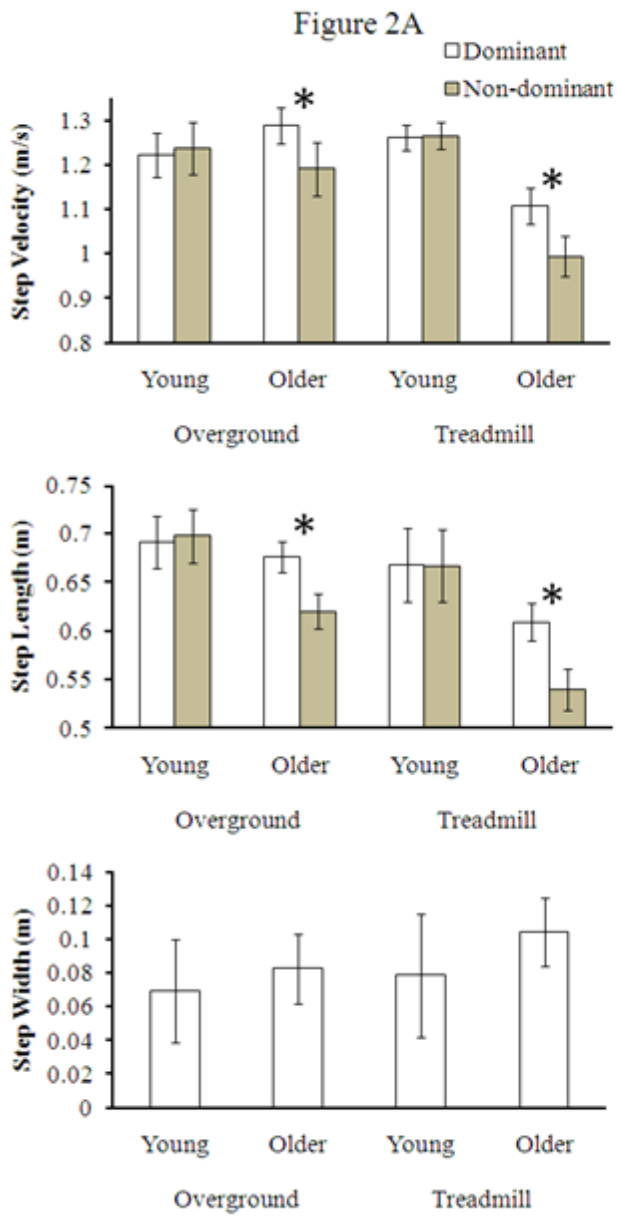
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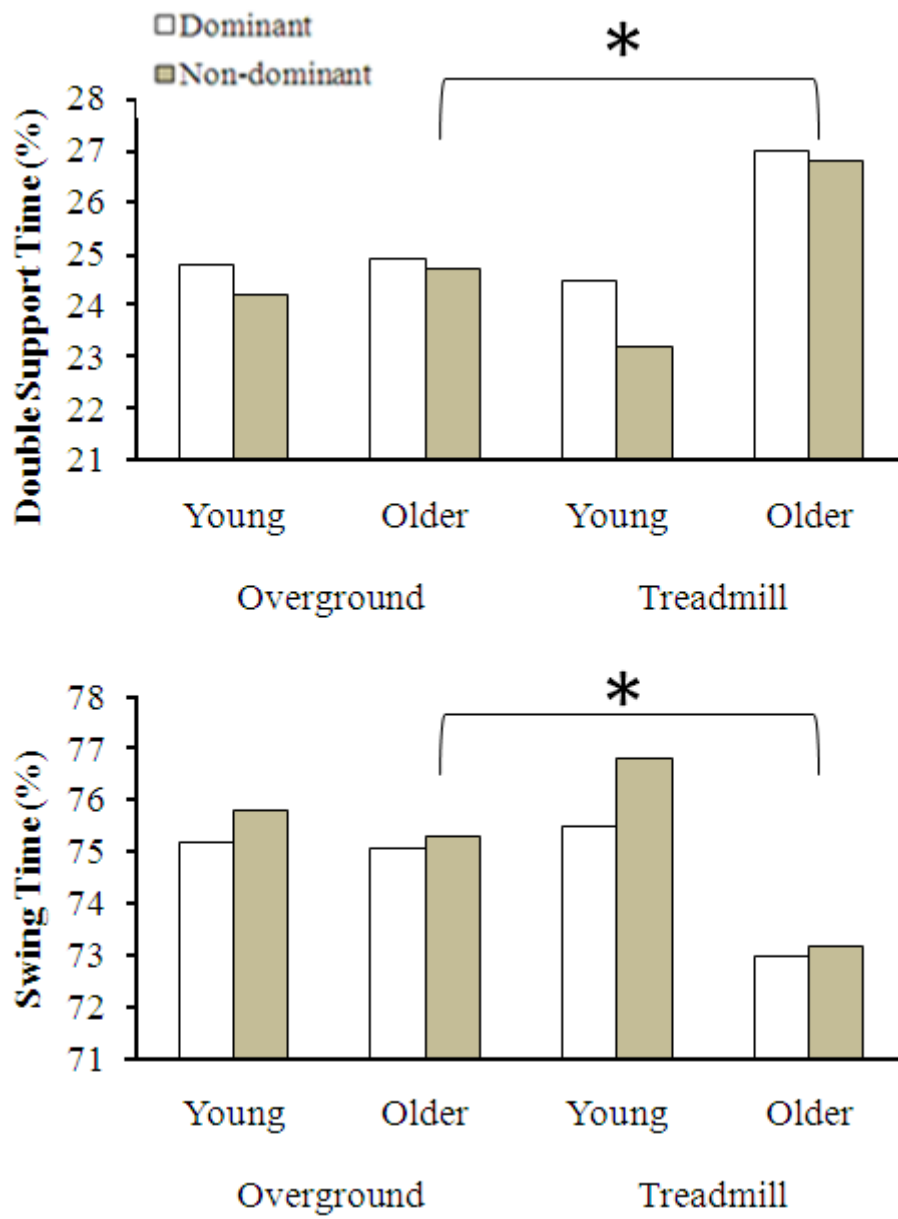
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396 **Figure 2**



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