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15 Abstract

16 Despite the prevalence of directional changes during every-day gait, relatively little is known about turning compared to straight gait. While the whole body center-of-mass (COM) movement 17 during straight gait is well characterized, the COM trajectory, and the factors that influence it, 18 19 are less established for turning. This study investigated the influence of a corner's height on the 20 COM trajectory as participants walked around the corner. Ten participants (25.3 ± 3.74 years) 21 performed both 90° step and spin turns to the left at self-selected slow, normal, and fast speeds while walking inside a marked path. A pylon was placed on the inside corner of the path. Four 22 23 different pylon heights were used to correspond to heights of everyday objects: 0 cm (no object), 24 63 cm (box, crate), 104 cm (desk, table, counter), 167 cm (shelf, cabinet). Obstacle height was found to significantly affect the COM trajectory. Taller obstacles resulted in more distance 25 26 between the corner and the COM, and between the corner and the COP. Taller obstacles also 27 were associated with greater curvature in the COM trajectory, indicating a smaller turning radius despite the constant 90° corner. Taller obstacles correlated to an increased required coefficient of 28 29 friction (RCOF) due to the smaller turning radii. Taller obstacles also tended towards greater mediolateral (ML) COM-COP angles, contrary to the initial hypothesis. Additionally, the COM 30 was found to remain outside the base of support (BOS) for the entire first half of stance phase for 31 all conditions indicating a high risk of falls resulting from slips. 32

33 Introduction

34 Human gait has been a widely researched area especially concerning slips, trips, and falls. However, the majority of research has examined straight gait even though daily activities 35 necessitate directional changes. Turning and non-straight steps make up approximately 35-45% 36 37 of all steps (Glaister et al., 2007a) yet has received relatively little attention compared to straight 38 gait. An individual's whole body center-of-mass (COM) trajectory has been well characterized during straight gait (Gard et al., 2004; Granata and Lockhart, 2008; Lee and Farley, 1998; Lee 39 and Chou, 2006; Lockhart et al., 2003; MacKinnon and Winter, 1993; Orendurff et al., 2004) but 40 is less understood during turning. 41 Turning is distinctly different than straight walking (Glaister et al., 2008; Hicheur and Berthoz, 42 43 2005). Turning requires a much larger required coefficient of friction (RCOF) to prevent slips (Fino and Lockhart, 2014) and has a higher incidence of falls resulting from slips (Yamaguchi et 44 al., 2012a) than straight walking due to the lateral displacement of the COM relative to the base 45 46 of support (BOS). The radius of the turn affects the orientation of the head and trunk while walking (Sreenivasa et al., 2008). The COM is also affected by the turning radius with larger 47

48 turning angles resulting in greater COM displacement (Hollands et al., 2001) as well as

49 decreased walking velocity (Dias et al., 2013). Increasing the walking speed has a similar

relationship, increasing the COM displacement outside the BOS (Orendurff et al., 2006).

To date, no study has examined how the geometry of an object affects the COM around a turn.
During turning, individuals tend to "lean in" to the turn to compensate for the centripetal force
necessary to make a turn (Courtine and Schieppati, 2003). While the degree to which individuals
lean depends on speed (Orendurff et al., 2006) and turning radius (Hollands et al., 2001), the

55 response if this "lean in" angle is obstructed by an obstacle is unknown. Previous studies have used objects to demark a corner (Grasso et al., 1998) or prevent participants from crossing 56 through a corner (Glaister et al., 2008; Glaister et al., 2007b), but there is currently no knowledge 57 concerning how the object's shape or size influences the participants' kinematics. Our earlier 58 analysis reported no effect of obstacle height on RCOF during the push-off phase of gait (Fino 59 60 and Lockhart, 2014) but did not examine other phases of the turn nor reported COM trajectories. Given that most turns in a crowded environment are to avoid obstacles (Glaister et al., 2007a), it 61 is worth investigating whether the geometry of those obstacles impacts the resulting maneuver 62 63 and influences fall risk. This knowledge, while important for researchers wishing to examine turning gait, may also prove useful in the design of pedestrian environments by providing 64 guidelines for the height or size of barricades, posts, tables, and walls in order to maximize 65 pedestrian flow and reduce the chance of slips and falls. 66

67 This study observed the impact of an object's height on the COM trajectory at slow, normal, and fast walking speeds while making a 90° turn. Our primary hypothesis was that taller obstacles 68 would restrict the amount of "lean-in," where "lean in" was defined as the mediolateral (ML) 69 70 component of the COM-COP angle, θ_{ML} . Additionally, we hypothesized that taller obstacles would result in wider turns with larger path curvature and greater clearance between the obstacle 71 and the COM or COP (i.e. foot placement). The RCOF was also examined during the weight 72 73 acceptance phase of the turn with a hypothesis that increased obstacle height would result in increased RCOF. Additionally, θ_{ML} , the COM and COP clearance, and the RCOF were 74 hypothesized to increase with faster speeds (Fino and Lockhart, 2014; Orendurff et al., 2006), 75 with the COM and COP clearance and θ_{ML} expected to be greater for step turns than for spin 76 turns (Taylor et al., 2005). 77

78 Methods

79 <u>Participants</u>

80 Ten healthy adults (7 male, 3 female) 18-45 years of age (mean \pm std dev = 25.3 \pm 3.74 years), were recruited from Virginia Tech and the surrounding community for the study. Participants 81 82 were informed of the protocol and signed an informed consent form prior to the experiment. 83 Participants were excluded if they had any history of balance disorders, dizziness, 84 musculoskeletal injury the past year affecting normal gait, any neurological disorders, one or 85 more concussions within the past year, and / or significant visual impairment. The complete 86 protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board at Virginia Tech. **Experimental Procedure** 87 88 The full procedure was reported by Fino and Lockhart (2014). Briefly, participants walked along 89 a 0.75 m wide marked path with a 90° turn. The path was straight for 3.5 m followed by a 90° turn. 90 left turn into a 2.5 m long straight segment. The beginning and end of the corner path were 91 marked with start and stop lines, respectively. A 10 cm diameter pylon was placed on the inside 92 of the 90° corner as the obstacle. Four different pylon heights were used corresponding to 93 heights of everyday objects: 0 cm (no object), 63 cm (box, crate), 104 cm (desk, table, counter), and 167 cm (shelf, cabinet). The floor surface was covered in a Micropore tape (3M, St. Paul, 94 MN 55144-1000, USA) to prevent slipping while turning the corner, especially at fast speeds. 95 96 Prior testing revealed gait adjustments and slips when performing the task. The tape successfully 97 increased the available friction of the floor allowing the participants' natural actions to be 98 observed without any adaptations (Fino and Lockhart, 2014). Participants wore their own athletic 99 shoes throughout the experiment. An overhead view of the set-up is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

101	Three-dimensional kinematics were measured using a six-camera Pro-Reflex motion analysis
102	system (Qualisys Track Manager version 1.6.0.163, Qualisys AB, Gothenburg, Sweden) and 35
103	infrared-reflective markers placed bilaterally over the first, second, and fifth metatarsal heads,
104	medial and lateral malleolus, calcaneus, medial and lateral femoral condyle, anterior superior
105	iliac spine, trochanter, iliac crest, clavicle, acromioclavicular (AC) joint, lateral humeral condyle,
106	ulnar stylus, third metacarpal head, ear, and top of head. A marker was also placed on top of the
107	corner pylon directly over the inside corner of the path. Two force plates (AMTI #
108	BP6001200100, AMTI Force and Motion, Watertown, MA 02472, USA) (Bertec #K80102,
109	Type 45550-08, Bertec Corporation, OH 43212, USA) were embedded into the walkway just
110	before and after the corner pylon. All data was sampled at 100 Hz.
111	Participants were instructed to walk normally inside the path until they reached the stop line and
112	to avoid hitting the pylon. The participants were instructed to walk at one of three speeds: normal
113	(NW), slower than their normal pace (SW), and "as fast as possible without running or jogging"
114	(FW). Warm-up trials were used to adjust the subjects starting position such that their turning
115	limb landed on the corner force plate. The participants performed three straight gait trials,
116	followed by 24 turning trials for each speed. The turning trials were divided into four blocks, one
117	for each obstacle height. For each obstacle height, participants performed three step turns and
118	three spin turns, where a step turn was defined as a turn away from the stance limb and a spin
119	turn is defined as a turn toward the same side of the stance limb (Taylor et al., 2005). To
120	eliminate order effects, speed, obstacle height, and step turn versus spin turn order was rotated
121	for each participant (Fino and Lockhart, 2014). A total of 72 turning trials and nine straight

walking trials were recorded for each participant: three spin turns and three step turns for each ofthe four obstacle heights at each of the three speeds and three straight trials for each speed.

124 Data Analysis

Data from all ten participants were analyzed. Trials in which the participant stepped multiple 125 times on the force plate or only partially stepped on the force plate were excluded from the 126 127 analysis. A total of 291 of the 720 trials were excluded for this reason (148 slow trials, 84 128 normal, and 59 fast). These excluded trials occurred across all ten participants. The 3dimensional marker data and the force plate data were filtered using a 5 Hz 2nd order low-pass 129 Butterworth filter. Due to a systematic obstruction of the motion capture cameras' view of the 130 markers during the second half of the stance phase, kinematic data from only the first half of 131 132 each stance phase was analyzed. All analysis was performed using MATLAB (MATLAB and Statistics Toolbox Release 2013b, The MathWorks, Inc., Natick, Massachusetts, USA). 133

134

COM Clearance and COP Distance

The COM was calculated using individual body segment mass and COM location from the 135 136 reflective markers at the segment endpoints (De Leva, 1996). The COM clearance was calculated 137 as the distance in the horizontal plane from the COM to the corner pylon as shown in Figure 2. Due to the different pylon heights, a vertical projection of the corner pylon was used. This 138 139 projection extended upward to the COM height. The ground reactive forces (GRF) were recorded 140 by the force plate and used to calculate the COP according to the force plate manufacturer 141 (Bertec Corporation, OH 43212, USA). The COP distance was calculated as the distance from the COP at weight acceptance to the corner pylon. 142

143

Figure 2.

144

Required Coefficient of Friction

145 The frictional demand RCOF was also calculated as

146
$$RCOF = \frac{F_{horizontal}}{F_{vertical}}$$
(1)

147 where $F_{vertical}$ is the vertical force F_z and $F_{horizontal}$ is the resultant sum of F_x and F_y ,

148
$$F_{horizontal} = \sqrt{F_x^2 + F_y^2}$$
 (2)

149 Maximum RCOF values were extracted from the first half of the stance phase where the stance limb contacted the force plate. The maximum RCOF during the first half of the stance phase 150 corresponded to the RCOF at weight acceptance. Immediately following heel contact and 151 preceding toe-off, large RCOF values have previously been reported but do not result in slips 152 (Redfern et al., 2001). The large RCOF values are products of extremely small vertical GRFs, 153 154 which inflate the RCOF values. In practice, however, the opposite limb supports the majority of the body weight. Thus, slipping the foot supporting little body weight does not result in the 155 macroscopic slips associated with slip and fall accidents. To prevent these high RCOF values 156 157 which do not typically result in slips and falls from distorting the RCOF necessary to prevent a slip, only RCOF values where the vertical force was greater than 50 N were compared (Fino and 158 Lockhart, 2014; Yamaguchi et al., 2012b). Stance time was defined as the time from heel contact 159 to the push-off / toe-off phase of the gait cycle (i.e. the vertical force dropped below 50 N as the 160 toe pushed off the ground) during the directional change. 161

162 *COM-COP Angle*

163 The amount of "lean in" was defined as the ML COM-COP angle, θ_{ML} . It was calculated as a 164 component of the total COM-COP angle, θ , between the vertical axis and the line connecting the 165 COM to the COP, (Yamaguchi et al., 2012b)

166
$$\Theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{(x_{COP} - x_{COM})^2 + (y_{COP} - y_{COM})^2}}{z_{COM}}$$
(3)

167 where x_{COP} , y_{COP} are the x and y coordinates of the COP and x_{COM} , y_{COM} , and z_{COM} are the x, 168 y, and z coordinates of the COM. The ML COM-COP angle, θ_{ML} , shown in Figure 3 was 169 calculated as the ML component of θ using the orientation of the pelvis to construct a body fixed 170 reference frame (Glaister et al., 2007b). The body fixed reference frame was constructed using 171 the vector from the mean of the iliac crest and trochanter markers on the right side to the left 172 side. θ_{ML} was calculated at the same time as the RCOF at weight acceptance.

173

Figure 3.

174 *COM Curvature*

175 Whereas the turning angle was specified at 90°, the turning radius of the COM may change 176 based on θ_{ML} and the amount of the outlined path the participants' actually utilize. The curvature 177 of the COM trajectory is a more accurate indicator of the true turning radius. To calculate the 178 curvature of the COM trajectory, a least-squares quadratic polynomial equation was fitted to the 179 COM trajectory in the horizontal plane using MATLAB. Taking the second derivative of this 180 function with respect to the x axis

181
$$\frac{d^2 f(x)}{dx^2} = \kappa = \frac{1}{r}$$
(5)

182 yielded a constant curvature κ equal to the inverse of the radius, $\frac{1}{r}$. The magnitude of the 183 curvature κ was calculated for each COM trajectory.

184

Approach Speed and Turning Speed

The turning speed was defined as the resultant instantaneous COM velocity at weight acceptance. It was calculated at the same instant as the RCOF at weight acceptance. The approach speed was defined as the speed of the participant as he approached the corner prior to any deceleration. It was calculated from the resultant instantaneous COM velocity at weight acceptance one stride before the turn.

190 <u>Statistical Analysis</u>

Univariate descriptive statistics of the COM clearance, COP distance, RCOF, and θ_{ML} were 191 192 calculated at each speed, height, and turning strategy. To determine the relationship between COM clearance, COP radius, RCOF, θ_{ML} , and curvature to speed, height, and turning 193 strategy, we fit generalized estimating equation (GEE) models that account for the within subject 194 195 correlation among each subject's trials. We selected the compound symmetry covariance 196 structure as the most appropriate structure for our data after comparing several models using the Akaike information criterion. Model assumptions were validated using the distributions of the 197 residuals for each model. Curvature had a skewed distribution and was thus log transformed in 198 199 order to satisfy the models' assumptions. Contrasts between each obstacle height were performed 200 for each outcome. Trial, two-way and three-way interaction effects were also examined using 201 type 3 tests for fixed effects with significant interactions retained in the final model. A 0.05significance level was used throughout this analysis. All analysis was performed in SAS 9.4 202 203 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

205 Descriptive Results 206 Univariate descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 1. The average height and weight of the participants was 1.78 ± 0.11 meters tall (mean \pm std dev) and 79.97 ± 12.39 kg, respectively. 207 208 Mean approach speeds and turning speeds are summarized in Table 2. Weight acceptance was at 209 an average of 10% of stance phase. Values for θ_{ML} are plotted in Figure 4 for the first half of stance phase. 210 211 Table 1. Table 2. 212 Figure 4. 213 The average trajectories of the COM and the left and right foot COMs are shown in Figures 4-6 214 215 for each obstacle height, speed, and strategy. The COM remained outside the BOS during the 216 first half of stance for every condition. The average COM trajectories for each variable are overlaid in Figure 8 for a direct curvature comparison. All quadratic fits had a R² value greater 217 than 0.9. 218 219 Figure 5. 220 Figure 6. 221 Figure 7. Figure 8. 222

204

Results

223 <u>GEE Model Results</u>

224 From the results of the GEE model presented in Table 3, higher obstacle heights resulted in statistically significant increases in COM clearance, COP distance, RCOF, and curvature. 225 226 Statistically significant differences in θ_{ML} existed between the lowest (0 cm) and tallest (167 cm) 227 obstacle heights. Though not statistically significant, a difference in θ_{ML} between the 0 cm and 104 cm heights was also found. Contrasts revealed no additional statistical differences in θ_{ML} 228 between any pairwise comparisons of height, though slight differences between the 104 cm and 229 167 cm heights (p=0.0633) and between 63 cm and 167 cm heights (p=0.1079) were noted. 230 231 Significant differences were found between all height-wise contrasts for COM clearance, 232 curvature, and COP distance (p<0.0001). Contrasts also showed significantly different RCOF 233 values between heights 104 cm and 167 cm (p=0.0123) with all other contrasts not statistically significant. 234

235 COM clearance, RCOF, curvature, and θ_{ML} at self-selected slow and fast speeds were 236 significantly different compared to normal speeds. Turning strategy significantly affected all 237 outcomes.

There was a significant interaction between speed and turning strategy for curvature (p=0.0072). Spin turns had decreased curvature compared to step turns at slow speeds but increased curvature with respect to step turns at fast speeds. No other significant two or three-way interactions between speed, obstacle height, and turning strategy (p>0.05) and no significant trial effects were found. Measured approach and turning speeds for slow, normal, and fast speeds were significantly different from one another (p<0.0001). No differences were found in turning speeds across obstacle height (p=0.79) or turning strategy (p=0.27).

246 **Discussion**

247 This study investigated the impact of a corner obstacle's height on the kinematics during a turn. We found increased obstacle heights caused participants to give more distance between 248 249 themselves and the corner. In essence, taller obstacles resulted in wider, sharper turns. Fast 250 speeds, regardless of obstacle height, resulted in less COM clearance and narrower turns 251 compared to normal or slow walking speeds. Similarly, spin turns brought the COM closer to the 252 corner than step turns. 253 Most prior studies investigating turning used walking paths or destination cues with no obstacle (Akram et al., 2010; Chang and Kram, 2007; Courtine and Schieppati, 2003; Hicheur and 254 Berthoz, 2005; Hicheur et al., 2007; Hicheur et al., 2005; Jindrich et al., 2006; Olivier et al., 255 256 2008; Orendurff et al., 2006; Patla et al., 1999; Patla et al., 1991; Pham et al., 2007; Taylor et al., 257 2005; Yamaguchi et al., 2012a, b), while other obstacle circumvention studies used 2 m high 258 pylons (Gérin-Lajoie et al., 2008; Gérin-Lajoie et al., 2006; Gérin-Lajoie et al., 2007; Vallis and 259 McFadyen, 2003, 2005), 1.53 m tall poles (Glaister et al., 2008; Glaister et al., 2007b) or pedestrian barricades (Dias et al., 2013). The present results indicate the height of the corner 260 could be an important factor in the study design. Hicheur et al. (2007) showed that when given a 261 target direction, individuals' planar trajectories tend to follow a stereotyped behavior that 262 263 minimizes jerk and snap (Pham et al., 2007). Fajen and Warren (2003) also provided a dynamical 264 model of steering and route selection based on a two-dimensional, top-down, environment. Fajen and Warren (2003) acknowledged the inability of the system to model obstacles of varying 265 266 lengths and widths. Our results suggest the height of the obstacle is also an important

characteristic, necessitating a three-dimensional model to accurately describe obstacle avoidance.
Similarly, the "personal space" characterized by Gérin-Lajoie et al. (2008) would be more
accurately defined as a three-dimensional vector space rather than in two-dimensions.

270 Examining the trajectories of the whole body COM compared to the left and right foot COMs, 271 we found that on average the whole body COM remains outside the BOS for the entire first half of stance phase regardless of speed, turning strategy, or obstacle height. This is in stark contrast 272 to previous results which showed the COM only exited the BOS on spin turns (Taylor et al., 273 2005) or at fast speeds (Orendurff et al., 2006). It is important to note that Taylor et al. (2005) 274 instructed participants to perform quick/abrupt turn in the minimum amount of time, consistent 275 276 with the theory that turning is an avoidance strategy as characterized by Patla et al. (1991). In reality, most turns in everyday locomotion occur over several steps (Fajen and Warren, 2003; 277 Glaister et al., 2007a). In accordance, the subjects in our study were not instructed to make 278 279 abrupt turns, but instead to turn the corner naturally.

280 This new result has large implications for slips and falls. Because the COM remains outside the BOS for the entire first half of stance phase, slips during this weight acceptance phase are more 281 likely to result in falls (Yamaguchi et al., 2012a). Furthermore, the RCOF values found during 282 this weight acceptance phase of turning exceeded the RCOF values for normal walking of $\mu \cong$ 283 0.20 (Cham and Redfern, 2002; Redfern et al., 2001). This suggests that not only are slips more 284 285 likely to occur while turning compared to normal walking (Fino and Lockhart, 2014; Yamaguchi et al., 2012b), but slips during the weight acceptance phase of turning may be more likely to 286 result in falls than straight walking slips because of the COM displacement outside the BOS. In 287 288 addition, we found the RCOF at weight acceptance differed between obstacle heights, suggesting the surrounding objects, not simply the available coefficient of friction from the shoe-floor 289

interface, may influence the risk of slipping. While a previous analysis showed no differences
between obstacle heights at the time of push-off (Fino and Lockhart, 2014) this difference
between obstacle heights is most likely due to the different path curvatures caused by the
obstacle.

When walking around a corner, the centripetal force, F_{c} , is provided by the frictional force characterized by the individual's body weight *W* and the RCOF μ . The centripetal force required to change direction is proportional to the velocity squared, v^2 , and the inverse of the radius, *r*, also known as the curvature, κ

298
$$F_c = \mu W = \frac{mv^2}{r} = mv^2 \kappa$$
. (6)

299 Therefore, the RCOF is proportional to the velocity squared and the magnitude of the curvature

300

$$\mu \propto v^2 \kappa. \tag{7}$$

When compared with the curvature results, the differences in RCOF by obstacle height become 301 clear. As obstacle height increased, it forced the COM further from the corner and increased the 302 curvature. This increased curvature is most likely a cause of the increased RCOF. However, the 303 increased RCOF at weight acceptance for faster speeds, despite a lower curvature, is caused by 304 the proportionality to v^2 , which overcame the decrease in κ . The increased θ_{ML} also contributed 305 to the increased RCOF values observed during taller obstacle trials (Yamaguchi et al., 2012b). 306 These results suggest that the radius of the turn, not the angle of the turn as presented by 307 Yamaguchi et al. (2012a), is the critical factor in slip and fall risk during turning. However, if all 308 are performed over the same distance, larger turning angles will necessarily result in a smaller 309 turning radius. Thus the turning angle will reflect the actual turning radius. 310

311 The curvature and RCOF results have implications for designing pedestrian environments. In designing pedestrian walkways and areas, it may be important to consider not only the turning 312 angle of paths (Dias et al., 2013) and the floor space of obstacles but also the height of 313 barricades, railings, tables, posts, and walls that will impact the pedestrian path. Posts prohibiting 314 vehicular traffic on pedestrian areas should be constructed high enough to be visible and 315 316 effective, but as low as possible to reduce the effect on pedestrians. Besides reducing congestion, such design considerations may also be able to reduce the likelihood of slips and falls by 317 maintaining low curvature paths to reduce the RCOF. 318

319 Interestingly, across the obstacle heights and turning strategies, an increased COM clearance 320 paired with an increased COP distance. However, this was not true for speed. As speed 321 increased, the COP radius increased, but the COM clearance decreased. This would indicate greater θ_{ML} angles at faster speeds consistent with results from Orendurff et al. (2006). Indeed, 322 323 this result was observed; faster speeds utilized a greater θ_{ML} . While we predicted the obstacle height would alter the COM by *limiting* θ_{ML} , our results tended towards the opposite. An increase 324 in obstacle height resulted in *larger* θ_{ML} values. Notably, only the lowest and highest heights 325 were statistically different in terms of θ_{ML} . However, this difference is peculiar as we expected 326 taller obstacles would inhibit the lateral motion of the participants and restrict the degree to 327 which the participants could lean over the obstacle and into the turn. This larger θ_{ML} for the taller 328 obstacle heights may have been caused by an anticipation of the smaller turning radius described 329 above. Participants may have increased θ_{ML} for taller obstacles because of the increased 330 331 centripetal force of smaller radii. By leaning into the turn, they would have reduce the net overturning moment by balancing the moment due to friction with the moment due to their COM 332 displacement. For this study, θ_{ML} was only calculated at weight acceptance, therefore this result 333

may only be true during the weight acceptance phase of the turn. From Figure 4, it appears that examining the maximum θ_{ML} may yield different results than when extracting the θ_{ML} from weight acceptance (~10% stance). Furthermore, the motor control strategy was not investigated in this study. Future research should explore this entire result in greater detail. Overall, these results show obstacle height has a distinct effect on navigational strategies. Future work should investigate whether these effects result in different biomechanical responses such as

increased lateral flexion or trunk roll, as well as the increase of θ_{ML} for taller obstacles.

This study has two potential limitations. First, the sample size was limited to only 10 people, 341 although the repeated measures increased the total trial sample size to 429 trials. Second, the 342 343 availability of the kinematic marker data from the second half of stance phase was inconsistent. 344 Due to laboratory space requirements, the motion capture cameras were confined to specified locations. This presented difficulties in capturing each kinematic marker once the participants 345 346 changed directions. Laboratory structures, including the pylon used in the trials, obstructed the 347 views of the cameras causing some but not all kinematic markers to be lost for periods of time following the change in direction. Rather than using long spline fits to interpolate these lost data 348 points, we elected to report only the data which was accurately and consistently captured for 349 each participant. For this reason, we presented only the first half of stance for all trajectories. 350 Future analysis should consider the entire stance phase. 351

352 **Conflict of Interest**

353 The authors affirm there are no conflicts of interest.

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Figure 1. Adopted from Fino and Lockhart (2014). A top-down view of the walkway and
adjoining section with marked start and stop lines, path, and corner pylon. All dimensions given
are in meters. The gray shaded areas indicate the locations of the force plates. The green shaded
area indicates the area covered in Micropore tape.



Figure 2. Depiction of COM clearance and COP distance calculations. The COM clearance was
the planar distance from the whole body COM to the pylon (yellow) or pylon projection to the
COM horizontal plane. The COP (red star) distance was the horizontal distance from the COP to
the base of the pylon.

467

468 Figure 3



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Figure 3. Diagram of the mediolateral COM-COP angle θ_{ML} . The ML COM-COP angle was the angle between the vertical and the line connecting the COM to the COP (red star) as seen from the frontal plane of the participant. The frontal plane and participant-fixed coordinate frame was defined by the orientation of the hips using the iliac crest and trochanter markers on each side of the body.



477

Figure 4. Population average plots of θ_{ML} for the first half of the turning stance for each obstacle height (top-left), speed (top-right), and strategy (bottom-left). Values reported in Tables 1 and 3 reflect means at weight acceptance, which occurred at an average of 10% of stance.



Figure 5. Population average plots for the whole body (solid line), left foot (dashed line), and
right foot (dotted line) COM trajectories over the first half of stance phase for each obstacle
height. For all heights, the COM remains outside of the BOS for the entire first half of stance
phase. As obstacle height increased, the curvature of the COM trajectory also increased.



Figure 6. Population average plots for the whole body (solid line), left foot (dashed line), and right foot (dotted line) COM trajectories over the first half of stance phase for each speed. The COM displacement outside the BOS increases as speed increases, but even at slow speeds the COM travels outside the BOS.



Figure 7. Population average plots for the whole body (solid line), left foot (dashed line), and right foot (dotted line) COM trajectories over the first half of stance phase for each strategy with representative foot placement. The stance limb for step turns to the left is the right leg, while for spin turns to the left it is the left leg which results in small path lengths for those respective trajectories. For both trajectories, the COM falls outside the BOS for the entire first half of stance. The COM displacement outside the BOS is much higher during spin turns than step turns.



Figure 8. Population average plots for the COM trajectories separated by variable to show thedifferent trajectories' average curvatures.

516

517 Table 1

518

Table 1

Results from the univariate descriptive statistics: Means and standard deviations for minimum COM clearance, COP distance, RCOF at weight acceptance, and θ_{ML} by speed, height, and turning strategy. The medians and inter-quartile bounds (Q1, Q3) are presented for curvature.

		COM C	learance								
		(m)		COP Radius (m)		RCOF		Θ _{ML} (degrees)		Curvature	
	Number										
	of Trials*	Mean	St Dev	Mean	St Dev	Mean	St Dev	Mean	St Dev	Median	[Q1, Q3]
Speed (self-selected)											
Slow	92	0.28	0.09	0.45	0.12	0.27	0.07	4.4	6.0	8.7	[4.8, 14.0]
Normal	156	0.25	0.10	0.46	0.14	0.30	0.07	6.8	6.1	6.9	[4.5, 11.1]
Fast	181	0.21	0.10	0.51	0.13	0.41	0.08	12.7	7.0	6.5	[4.0, 10.9]
Height (cn	ו)										
0	129	0.15	0.09	0.36	0.13	0.32	0.09	8.1	7.0	4.7	[2.4, 7.3]
63	111	0.23	0.08	0.47	0.11	0.33	0.09	7.6	6.7	5.5	[3.9, 10.3]
104	105	0.30	0.06	0.55	0.10	0.35	0.09	9.3	7.9	8.4	[5.9, 13.2]
167	84	0.33	0.05	0.57	0.09	0.36	0.10	10.4	7.6	10.6	[7.6, 16.1]
Turning Strategy											
Step	205	0.25	0.10	0.53	0.13	0.35	0.09	14.6	5.0	9.6	[5.7, 14.6]
Spin	224	0.23	0.10	0.43	0.12	0.33	0.09	3.4	4.4	5.3	[3.5, 8.8]

*Number of trials analyzed after excluding trials with improper foot placement or multiple steps on the force plate

519

521 Table 2

522

Table 2

Average approach speeds for each self-selected speed. Average turning speeds are separated by each variable.

speeus are separateu by each variable.									
		Approac	h Speed	Turning Speed					
		(m)	/s)	(m/s)					
	Number								
	of Trials	Mean	Std	Mean	Std				
Speed (self-sele	cted)								
Slow	92	0.93	0.28	1.10	0.24				
Normal	156	1.43	0.36	1.27	0.26				
Fast	181	2.03	0.27	1.65	0.25				
Height (cm)									
0	129	1.48	0.57	1.36	0.33				
63	111	1.45	0.54	1.36	0.35				
104	105	1.49	0.57	1.41	0.35				
167	84	1.45	0.56	1.44	0.33				
Turning Strategy	/								
Step	205	1.47	0.54	1.40	0.35				
Spin	224	1.46	0.58	1.37	0.33				

524 Table 3

Table 3

Results from GEE models for outcomes: minimum COM clearance, COP distance, RCOF at weight acceptance, and θ_{ML} by speed, height, and turning strategy. The beta coefficients show the mean differences between each category and the reference. The model intercept (β_0) is also presented as the mean outcome at a normal speed, 0 cm height, and a step turning strategy. The significance level was set at 0.05.

		COM Cle	earance (m)	COP Radius (m)		RCOF		Θ _{ML} (degrees)		Curvature	
	Number	Beta		Beta		Beta		Beta		Beta	
	of Trials	(SE)	P Value	(SE)	P Value	(SE)	P Value	(SE)	P Value	(SE)	P Value
Intercept		0.25	< 0.0001	0.40	<0.0001	0.29	<0.0001	12.19	< 0.0001	1.77	<0.0001
		(0.10)		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.42)		(0.09)	
Speed (sel	f-selected)										
Slow	92	0.04	<0.0001*	0.002	0.8264	-0.03	0.0040*	-2.13	<0.0001*	0.42	0.0009*
		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.45)		(0.13)	
Normal	156	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Fast	182	-0.05	<0.0001*	0.04	<0.0001*	0.11	<0.0001*	5.78	<0.0001*	-0.23	0.0200*
		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.38)		(0.10)	
Height (cm	ı)										
0	130	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
63	111	0.08	<0.0001†	0.12	<0.0001†	0.02	0.0651	0.15	0.7457	0.35	<0.0001†
		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.45)		(0.08)	
104	105	0.16	<0.0001†	0.19	<0.0001†	0.02	0.0123†	0.85	0.0633	0.72	<0.0001†
		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.46)		(0.08)	
167	84	0.19	<0.0001†	0.21	<0.0001+	0.03	0.0010+	0.96	0.0488†	0.93	<0.0001+
		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.49)		(0.09)	
Turning St	rategy										
Step	205		Ref.	Ref.		Ref.		Ref.		Ref.	
Spin	225	-0.02	0.0141‡	-0.10	<0.0001‡	-0.02	0.0062‡	-11.05	<0.0001‡	-0.57	<0.0001‡
		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.01)		(0.34)		(0.10)	
Speed*Strategy Interaction		actions									
		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.31	0.0634
Slow * Spin										(0.17)	
		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.20	0.1378
Fast * Spin										(0.13)	

* Significantly different than normal speed

⁺ Significantly different than 0 cm height (no obstacle)

‡ Significantly different than step turn