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# Effectiveness of an Intelligent Foot Orthosis in Lateral Fall Prevention

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#### ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to validate the effectiveness of the newly developed Intelligent Foot Orthosis (IFO) at preventing lateral falls. The IFO is a wearable fall prevention system based on using a small magnetorheological brake to control the height of the lateral sole. Experiments were performed to compare the walking motions on a lateral slope under four conditions: without IFO, with IFO current-OFF, with IFO current-ON, and with IFO control-ON. The mediolateral center of gravity and center of pressure horizontal distance (ML COG-COP HD) was measured in three-dimensional motion analysis to represent the change in posture on the frontal plane. To observe the corresponding muscular activity, surface electromyography (EMG) was performed to obtain the mean and peak root mean square (RMS) for the tibia anterior (TA) and peroneus longus (PL) in the first half of the stance phase when the IFO applied control. In the results, ML COG-COP HD increased significantly under the "with IFO control-ON" compared to the "without IFO" and "with IFO current-ON" conditions. The mean RMS of the TA was significantly decreased under the "with IFO current-ON" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions compared to the "without IFO" condition. These results demonstrate that the posture moved away from the lateral fall direction primarily due to IFO assistance rather than muscular activity, which would be a consequence of human postural control. Thus, the IFO does appear to help prevent lateral falls. Keywords: Intelligent Foot Orthosis, fall prevention, lateral fall, gait control, magnetorheological (MR) fluid, 3D motion analysis, electromyography (EMG)

#### INTRODUCTION

For people with walking disabilities to live safely and independently, an important issue is to increase their range of independent mobility, which involves improving walking stability. In addition, fall prevention becomes an increasingly significant issue with age. Lateral falls are often associated with serious fractures leading to bedridden conditions. At least 1 in 3 community-dwelling elderly people fall each year, and 1 in 5 people who fall are seriously injured (1 in 10 suffer a fracture) and require long hospital stays [1]. In the United States, about 1 in 4 adults aged 65 and older experience a fall [2]. Among stroke patients, 73% experience a fall during the first 6 months after discharge [3]. More than 95% of hip fractures are caused by falls [4], which mainly comprise lateral falls [5].

#### **Causes of Lateral Falls**

Lateral falls [6] are defined as falling sideways relative to the frontal plane because of a lack of lateral stability, delayed postural control, and/or environmental factors [7]. Lateral stability can decrease because of age-related declines in physical and mental functions [8, 9] as well as the neurological factors hemiplegia [10] and progressive supranuclear palsy with motor paralysis [11]. Patients with these conditions or with progressive diseases require an assistive device for fall prevention and continuous rehabilitation. However, no orthotic or functional aid is currently available that can directly and immediately control dynamic balance on the frontal plane to prevent lateral falls. The occurrence frequency of lateral falls is increased by environmental factors that affect the lateral stability during walking, such as the slope of the walking surface [12]. Simulations using rigid-body models [13] showed that the occurrence of a fall is influenced by the relationship between the center of gravity (COG) of the body on the frontal plane and the base of support (BOS), the size of the BOS, the shape of the plantar surface, and the shape of the ground surface.

#### **Conventional Orthotic Therapies and Assistive Devices**

Orthotic therapy and assistive devices are common interventions to compensate for the loss of function and to control involuntary movements during the gait cycle. Several types have been applied to assist with activities of daily living and rehabilitation. The ankle–foot orthosis immobilizes and supports the ankle joint in a functional position for walking. It is lightweight and wearable, but it also limits ankle movement and disturbs balance control in the frontal plane [14]. Exoskeleton-assist robotics for gait rehabilitation include HAL (CYBERDYNE Inc., Japan), Lokomat (Hocoma AG, Switzerland), and Ekso (Ekso Bionics, USA); these are actively controlled and provide power assistance when the muscular strength is insufficient during task-oriented and repetitive rehabilitation training. However, their excessive motor assistance or inhibition, weight and power demand as well as their highly specialized and complex operation and settings make them difficult for patients to operate, set up, and use independently. The above orthoses are usually used to control motion on the sagittal plane, such as assisting with propulsion or assisting joints with flexion and extension. However, no devices are currently available that assist or control the gait on the frontal plane or that compensate for lateral instability to prevent falls whereas many conventional orthoses are designed to improve anterior-posterior stability to fix the ankle to maintain dorsiflexion not to tripping.

Insole therapy is also available to improve lateral stability and uses the height and position of a lateral wedge placed outside the plantar surface, and it is recognized as a method for controlling gait [15, 16]. It is based on adjusting the direction of the ground reaction force (GRF), which causes a rotational force in the opposite direction of a lateral fall and simultaneously influences the alignment of the foot and lower leg muscles. This in turn promotes the activity of specific muscles [15]. Thus, it controls the gait by maximizing the effects of internal and external forces on the body simply by increasing the lateral height of the plantar surface [17]. However, this method is not applicable to conventional walking environments that require real-time adjustment. And also, it may cause difficulty to walk, or discomfort may be felt if the sole height is always raised up to a fixed height except when necessary.

#### Methods for Assessing Lateral Falls During the Gait Cycle

Several indices have been proposed for evaluating lateral falls in simulations of rigid-body models [13, 18], such as the relationships between the COG and center of pressure (COP) (i.e., COG–COP inclination angle and horizontal distance) [19-25], COG and BOS [26], and COG and BOS considering lateral acceleration [27]. In a clinical study, Murray et al. [28] showed that elderly participants with a history of falls had a significantly greater shift in the ML COG during the gait cycle than healthy young participants, which may also be an indicator of lateral stability. Ikai et al. [29] reported that patients with hemiplegia tended to fall on their affected side. Muscular activity is the main indicator of the internal postural control of the body against falls. Muscle contraction around the joint occurs in the direction opposing the falling moment to control instability caused by disturbances to the balance. Postural control against lateral instability depends on the ankle and hip strategies [30-33]. The ankle joint balance

strategy on the frontal plane comprises inversion and eversion motions with the subtalar joint [34-36], which include the tibialis anterior (TA) and peroneus longus (PL) as protagonistic muscles in inversion and eversion, respectively [34, 37, 38]. For example, when a person falling to the side and leans outward due to the walking environment and posture, both the TA and PL increase their activity for postural control. In particular, maintaining posture against a falling moment on the frontal plane requires increasing the activity of the TA [34, 37, 38].

#### Objective

The Intelligent Foot Orthosis (IFO) was developed to control the plantar height in real-time to prevent lateral falls [17]. A preliminary evaluation [17] suggested that the IFO can prevent lateral falls when the lateral height of the plantar surface is always given. However, the effectiveness of the IFO at fall prevention when the plantar height is adjusted in real-time due to the walking motion has not been clarified. In addition, the effect of the IFO on muscular activity for postural control is not well understood. The objectives of this study were to verify experimentally the effectiveness of the IFO at fall prevention with real-time control of the lateral height of the plantar surface and to evaluate the immediate effects of wearing the IFO on the muscular activity associated with postural control to prevent lateral falls, particularly that of the TA.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### **Description of the Intelligent Foot Orthosis**

The IFO was previously developed for real-time gait control through adjustment of the lateral height of the plantar surface [17]. The IFO and its design are shown in Fig. 1. A magnetorheological (MR) brake was developed to adjust the plantar height [17]. An MR fluid changes its yield shear stress when an external magnetic field is applied, and it is able to generate a relatively large amount of force from a small amount of power [39]. Figure 2 and Table 1 shows the components of the designed MR brake, including details on the piston and orifice. The MR brake has a double-rod-type damper structure [40], and the MR effect [41], which is dominated by friction forces, is used to hold the piston in position. The inner diameter of the orifice controls the flow of the MR fluid. When no current is applied, the piston moves up and down as the MR fluid flows through the orifice. Conversely, applying a current of 1.5 A generates a magnetic field around the orifice, which fixes the position of the piston at a plantar height of 5 mm. One AA battery (1.5V) provides sufficient power to control a load of approximately 10% of the body weight up to 125N on the area of the lateral sole during walking when current is applied [42]. A microcontroller (Arduino, Arduino Uno Rev3 A000066) is used as the controller, and an inertial measurement unit (Umemoto LLC, REES-01) is used as a sensor. In this study, the system was configured so that the current flowed when the road surface inclined more than 5° to the side during walking, which fixed the piston at the upper dead point.

The entire IFO system includes a shoe, which is worn on the affected side, weighs 745 g. It is within the weight range for use in clinical practice, as the commonly used mainstream brace for patients with hemiplegia and shoe weighs approximately 880 g [53]. A weight and placement of each part of the IFO that were determined so as not to affect the dorsiflexion of the ankle joint (Fig.1 (c)). To this end, a mobile battery for the controller (105 g) and AA batteries for the MR brake (70 g) were attached to the lower leg. As a result, COG rose by only 0.07% [54, 55] and have little influence on gait instability.

The IFO has a response time of approximately 0.20 s and is applicable to the gait cycle of 0.49 s [17]. Considering the literature [56-57], the IFO meets the requirement for patients with hemiplegia with the estimated gait cycle of 0.91 to 1.14 s and even fast-walking healthy adults with that of 0.51 s.

The static load capacity required for the MR brake is appropriately 4.5% of the whole weight of the human body in the configuration shown in Figure 1 considering the lever mechanism in the IFO, and 22.1 N for this subject [17, 42]. The MR brake with 125N at 1.5 A is capable of providing the required dynamic load capacity of 70 to 80 N acquired from a preliminary test for this subject.

#### Prevention of Lateral Falls During the Gait Cycle

Figure 3 shows the gait control mechanism of the IFO. When an electric current is applied, the MR brake is fixed to the upper dead point without piston displacement. When the current does not flow, the load on the weight-bearing device during the stance phase depresses the MR brake to its maximum piston displacement. It is then returned to the original height by the restoring force of the spring in the next swing phase. The height value is fixed at 5mm at the upper dead point when a current is applied, and the height is given by control when the slope lateral angle of the walkway becomes more than 5° (Fig.3). The height of 5 mm is determined based on the thickness (around 0.1 mm to 0.3 mm) of insoles in clinical use [58] and the maximum thickness (< 6 mm) that would not cause discomfort or foot disorders [59-60].

This system uses semi-active control rather than active control, as detailed in Figs. 4 and 5. The slope of the walking path is detected in real-time, and the lateral height of the plantar surface is controlled to adjust the direction of the GRF opposite of the falling moment during the stance phase. In other words, it controls the COG in the inward direction.

### **Experimental Conditions**

The immediate effects of wearing the IFO on a laterally inclined walkway were compared based on COG and COP data to measure the gait and surface electromyography (EMG) data to measure the muscular activity. One healthy adult (38 years old, 158.5 cm, body weight 50.0 kg, BMI 19.9) with no history of orthopedic disorders in the observed lower extremities participated in this study. Gait data were collected from 10 trials under each of four walking conditions: (1) without IFO, (2) with IFO current-OFF, (3) with IFO current-ON, and (4) with IFO control-ON. Figures 3 and 4 detail the differences between these conditions. In addition, data without the IFO were acquired as supplementary data. In this study, the IFO was worn on one side and an ASME Journal of Engineering and Science in Medical Diagnostics and Therapy. Received February 28, 2022; Accepted manuscript posted July 22, 2022. doi:10.1115/1.4055040 Copyright (c) 2022 ASME Journal of Engineering and Science in Medical Diagnostics and Therapy

experimental environment was established where the user would tend to fall to one side.

In the experiment, the right-side limb was observed. Under the "with IFO" conditions, the orthosis was placed on the right foot. To induce lateral instability, which is a stimulus for lateral falls, the walkway was 10° laterally inclined. Figure 6 shows the measurement environment.

#### Analysis

#### Mediolateral COG-COP Horizontal Distance

The Optotrak Certus<sup>®</sup> motion capture system (Northern Digital Inc., Canada), which has a resolution of 0.01 mm and accuracy of up to 0.1 mm, which is less than 0.5 mm when used from 5 m away, was used for gait analysis. As shown in Fig. 6, force plates (Advanced Mechanical Technology, Inc., USA) were used to measure the GRF. For three-dimensional gait analysis, infrared light-emitting diode markers were placed at 11 locations on the body based on anatomical landmarks: the bilateral greater trochanter, bilateral knee lateral joint space, bilateral lateral malleolus, bilateral tuberosity of the fifth metatarsal, bilateral acromion, and parietal. Nine infrared cameras at three locations were used for motion capture of these markers. The sampling frequency was 100 Hz, and the 3D position data of each marker were measured. The force plates were embedded in the floor, and the sampling frequency was 1000 Hz. The GRF meter was synchronized with the three-dimensional motion analysis system. Ten trials were conducted under each condition to acquire data. The COG and COP were calculated from the acquired 3D position data of each marker and the GRF data. ML COG–COP HD (Fig. 7) and the  $y_{COG}$ ,  $y_{COP_{flat}}$ ,  $y_{COP_{slope}}$  on the lateral slope (Fig. 8) were calculated as follows [17]:

$$ML COG - COP HD = y_{COP_{slope}} - y_{COG}$$

Where the positive y-axis represents the right side of the direction of gait.  $y_{COP_{slope}}$  is the y-coordinate of COP on the 10° lateral slope, and the COG coordinates,  $y_{COG}$ , are calculated from the positions of the 11 markers and the mass ratio of each body segment.  $y_{COG}$  is the y -coordinate of COG.  $y_{COP_{slope}}$  is calculated by the following formula.

$$\left(y_0 - y_{COP_{slope}}\right) \tan 10^\circ = \left(y_{COP_{flat}} - y_{COP_{slope}}\right) \cdot \frac{F_Z}{F_y}$$
(2)

$$y_{COP_{slope}} = \frac{y_0 \tan 10^\circ - y_{COP_{flat}} \frac{F_z}{F_y}}{\tan 10^\circ - \frac{F_z}{F_y}}$$
(3)

Here  $y_0$  is the *y*-coordinate of the contact point between the slope and force plate, and  $F_y$  and  $F_z$  are the forces in *y*-axis and *z*-axis measured by the force plate respectively.  $y_{COP_{flat}}$  is the *y*-coordinate of COP on the floor, which is calculated by the following formula.

(1)

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$$y_{COP_{flat}} = \frac{(M_x - F_y z_0)}{F_z}$$
(4)

 $M_x$  is the moment around the *x*-axis measured by the force plate and  $z_0$  is the *z*coordinate of its surface.

#### Surface Electromyography

Surface EMG (Biometrics Ltd, UK) was used to acquire the muscular activity of the TA and PL, which contribute to balance in the medial and lateral directions on the frontal plane. The soleus (Sol) was also measured to understand the relationship between the TA and PL. The muscles of the right lower limb were examined. The skin was rubbed and cleaned with an abrasive paste and alcoholic cotton to reduce skin impedance. Electrodes were then applied parallel to the direction of the muscle fibers in positions set according to Surface Electromyography for the Non-Invasive Assessment of Muscles (SENIAM) guidelines [43].

The amplified EMG signals were transferred to a PC via an analog/digital (A/D) converter. The electrodes (Biometrics Ltd, UK) (37 mm × 20 mm × 6 mm) were placed on the skin above the muscle being examined. The distance between electrodes was 20 mm. The stance phase was defined as the period when the vertical GRF was greater than 10 N. The middle of the stance phase was identified as the moment when the anterior and posterior GRF switched. A bandpass filter at 20–500 Hz was applied to the raw EMG data of the PL, TA, and Sol in the first half of the stance phase, and the root mean square (RMS) was calculated. The analysis was performed in Python, and general

calculations were performed by using NumPy and math. NumPy and pandas were used

for data management, and scipy.signal.butter and scipy.signal.filtfilt were used for signal

processing.

#### Statistical Analysis

The mean and standard deviation were calculated for each condition and outcome measure, and one-way analysis of various and multiple comparisons were performed. The significance level was set to less than 0.05 (p < 0.05). The above procedures were statistically processed by using R.

#### RESULTS

Table 2 summarizes the results. There were no adverse events due to the use of the IFO, and no falls occurred in any trial.

#### Mediolateral COG–COP Horizontal Distance

As an example, Fig. 9 shows the ML COG–COP HD of one trial under the "without IFO" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions. As shown in Fig. 10, the mean values of the COG–COP HD were  $66.65 \pm 5.69$  mm under the "without IFO" condition,  $72.90 \pm 5.91$  mm under the "with IFO current-OFF" condition,  $69.81 \pm 5.97$  mm under the "with IFO current-OFF" condition,  $69.81 \pm 5.97$  mm under the "with IFO current-ON" condition, and  $77.40 \pm 4.56$  mm under the "control-ON" condition. In the case of "with IFO control-ON", it was significantly higher (p < 0.05) compared to "without IFO" and "with IFO current-ON".

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#### Mean and Peak RMS in EMG

Figure 11 shows examples of the TA and PL EMG data from a gait trial. As shown in Fig. 12, in the type of lateral inclined walkway, the mean RMS of the TA in the "with IFO current-ON" (0.035  $\pm$  0.009 V) and "control-ON" (0.036  $\pm$  0.010 V) conditions in the first half of the stance phase were significantly lower (p < 0.01) than in the "without IFO" (0.065  $\pm$  0.018V) condition. For PL, in "with IFO current-OFF" (0.027 $\pm$  0.007V), it was significantly lower (p < 0.05) than in "without IFO" (0.098  $\pm$  0.018). There was an also significant difference in peak RMS between the "without IFO" and "with IFO current-OFF" conditions for the PL. However, no significant difference was found for the TA and Sol in peak RMS.

#### DISCUSSION

In this study, experiments were performed to evaluate the effectiveness of the IFO at lateral fall prevention. The IFO had immediate effects on kinematic parameters such as the COG and COP and on physical functions such as muscular activity. We focus on TA as for protagonist of ankle inversion which works for preventing lateral fall. No adverse events occurred during, before, or after the experiments. The effectiveness of the IFO at lateral fall prevention was demonstrated by the following results.

#### **Effects of IFO on Preventing Lateral Falls**

As shown in Fig. 10, the COG–COP HD was significantly greater under the "with IFO control-ON" condition than the "without IFO" condition and was significantly greater under the "control-ON" condition than the "current-ON" condition. A smaller COG–COP HD means greater lateral displacement of the COG relative to the COP, which indicates instability [23]. Therefore, patients with reduced lateral stability such as the elderly maintain a larger value than healthy individuals because they adjust their posture to a stable position to prevent falls [23, 24]. Increasing the ML COG–COP HD greater the angle between the COG–COP HD and floor, which suggests that wearing the IFO reduces the chance of a lateral fall.

The results showed that the "control-ON" condition had a significantly greater effect than the "current-ON" condition, which suggests that the former is more effective at fall prevention. In the first half of the stance phase, the piston was fixed at the upper dead point in both cases, and the results here showed that the "control-ON" was more significant than the "current-ON" condition. The main difference between the "with IFO current-ON" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions was that the plantar height was always given throughout the walking trial on either level ground or the laterally inclined walkway for the former. The mechanism remains unclear at this stage, but the presence or absence of plantar height control from before the control interval may carry over and effect physical functions. The subjects commented that they felt sensory discomfort in the sole because of the outer part of the plantar being continuously raised even when walking on flat ground under the "current-ON" condition. Previous studies have reported that sensory stimulation and change of the plantar surface by a few millimeters due to a protrusion or partial insole can change the gait and posture, although this can lead to improved stability depending on the usage [44-47]. The

sensations have also been reported to differ among individuals [17, 45]. Thus, in addition to real-time control, the system should adapt to the wearer's posture and sensations when walking on level ground. Further case studies are needed on how wearers adapt to using the IFO.

#### Effectiveness of IFO in muscle activity

As shown in Fig. 12, the EMG results indicated that TA activity under the "with IFO current-ON" and "control-ON" conditions were significantly reduced than the "without IFO" condition. This suggests that the IFO may assist with postural control together with the TA. For a normal gait cycle without any assistance or aid, both the TA and PL showed increased activity on the lateral inclined walkway compared to on a level surface [48]. Based on the estimated muscular activity from the directions of the GRF and joint moment [49], the ankle joint is mainly responsible for lateral balance control [32]. For an inclined walkway, the TA activity should increase to maintain the posture in the opposite direction and avoid falling on the frontal plane [48]. Previous studies have shown significantly increased TA activity and decreased PL activity after lateral fall stimulation during a gait cycle in a restricted environment [50, 51]. This suggests that any external force or stimulus that reduces lateral stability is likely to increase TA activity significantly under the "without IFO" condition. The ML COG–COP HD results showed that the posture was tilted in a direction that prevented falling under the "with IFO current-ON" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions, which suggests that wearing the IFO may reduce the likelihood of falling. It would unclear whether this might due to

posture control by TA contraction or the effect of the IFO. However, the TA activity during the gait cycle predominantly decreased under the "with IFO current-ON" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions, which suggests that the IFO helped prevent falling and reduced the demand for muscle activity required for postural control. Thus, the IFO was demonstrated to help prevent lateral falls.

These results are clinically relevant because relieving the muscular activity for ankle inversion can be beneficial for particular neurological conditions [52]. For stroke patients, continuous and excessive muscle contraction may worsen spasticity, which is related to control of voluntary movements [50]. In such cases, using the IFO to support the TA may result in better gait control. Thus, preventing lateral falls while controlling the TA muscular activity may be clinically beneficial. The activity of this muscles can be used as an indicator of the patient's functional status for clinicians to consider when prescribing the IFO.

#### Limitations

The limitations of this study are as follows:

- The mechanism behind the different effects of the "with IFO current-ON" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions is unexplained and needs further investigation.
- For the surface EMG, only the three main superficial muscles of the lower limb were measured. Other muscles are involved in lateral stability, and further assessment is needed to examine the internal forces.

- This study was carried out in an indoor laboratory. Further research needs to be conducted in outdoor environments and community settings to evaluate the effectiveness of the IFO at lateral fall prevention under actual application conditions.
- The present study was only a preliminary experimental verification of a proof of concept. Because of the small number of cases considered, further case studies, including clinical use, need to be conducted.
- The relationship between the stroke of IFO and ML COG-COP HD is not yet clear. If the stroke length is too short, the effect on posture is small; if it is too large, it causes the foot to fall in the opposite direction. It indicates that controlling the height with regard to the range is significant and this should be considered for further study.

#### CONCLUSIONS

This study experimentally assessed the effectiveness of the developed IFO for lateral fall prevention. The following findings were obtained:

1. The IFO's potential to effectively prevent lateral falls under control is indicated by the result of ML COP-COG HD which significantly increases in the "with IFO control-ON" condition compared to the "without IFO" and "with IFO current-ON" conditions.

2. The "with IFO current-ON" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions significantly reduced TA activity compared to the "without IFO" condition, which suggests that wearing the IFO may assist with TA muscular activity during postural control.

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## NOMENCLATURE

IFO	Intelligent Foot Orthosis
ТА	tibia anterior
PL	peroneus longus
ML COG-COP HD	mediolateral center of gravity and center of pressure horizontal
	distance
EMG	electromyography
COG	center of gravity
СОР	center of pressure
BOS	base of support
GRF	ground reaction force

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## FIGURE CAPTIONS LIST

Fig. 1	Intelligent Foot Orthosis (IFO) [17]						
	(a) Name of each component and its mass. (b) Structure of the load						
	bearing device. (c) Position of each component on the lower limb.						
Fig. 2	Schematic diagram of the MR brake [17]						
Fig. 3	Gait control mechanism of the IFO. The timing of height adjustment						
	during the gait cycle is shown. IC: initial contact, LR: loading response,						
	MSt: mid-stance, TSt: terminal Stance, ISw: initial swing, MSw: mid-swin						
	TSw: terminal swing.						
Fig. 4	Plantar height control mechanism in the stance phase						
	(a) shows the current-OFF and control-ON states (non-targeted phase) of						
	the IFO. The piston drops to the lower dead point as soon as the orthotic						
	side of the foot starts to load in the IC, and the plantar height is not						
	controlled. (b) shows the current-ON and control-ON states (controlled						
	phase) from the IC to MSt. The piston is fixed at the height of the upper						
	dead point (7.0 mm raised height on the lateral side of the plantar						
	midfoot) during the step from LR to MSt. By increasing the height of the						
	plantar surface of the midfoot by 5.0 mm, the direction of the GRF is						
	changed to oppose the fall moment.						
Fig. 5	Piston displacement in the swing phase. After dropping to the lower dead						
	point in the previous stance phase, the piston is returned to the upper						

	dead point in the subsequent stance phase by the spring's restoring						
	force. Alternatively, the piston is always fixed at the upper dead point in						
	the current-ON state.						
Fig. 6	Experimental setup. (Left) Overview of the experimental environment.						
	The Optotrak Certus Motion Capture System (Northern Digital Inc.) and						
	force plates (AMTI Inc.) were used for 3D gait analysis, and surface						
	electromyography (EMG) (Biometrics Ltd.) was used for EMG analysis. A						
	lateral inclined platform on a stationary force plate was used as a lateral						
	walkway. (Right) Walking test being performed. All data of force plate						
	were acquired from the first force plate on the right-hand side with						
	respect to the direction of walking.						
Fig. 7	ML COG–COP HD in the stance phase. ML COG-COP HD decreases when						
	posture tilts laterally (posterior view).						
Fig. 8	COG and COP on a lateral slope						
Fig. 9	Example results for the ML COG–COP HD						
0							
Fig. 10	ML COG-COP HD						
Fig. 11	Example results of a gait trail with TA and PL EMG data under the						
	"without IFO" and "with IFO control-ON" conditions. The blue line shows						
D	the timing for dividing the stance phase. BP: bandpass filter, RMS: root						
	mean square.						
Fig. 12	Mean RMS of the EMG for the tibia anterior (TA)						

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#### Fig. 1



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## Fig. 6



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Fig. 9

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Fig.12



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## TABLE CAPTION LIST

Table 1	MR brake Parameters [17]
Table 2	Results summary
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Value
128 g
88.4mm×Ф20mr
125 N
1.5 A
1.3 V
0.5 mm
42.4 mm
16.5 mm
7 mm
15.5 mm
64.4 mm
12.5 mm
11.5 mm
80

A CONCORT

Table 2							
Condition	Without IFO	Without	With IFO	With IFO	With IFO		
		IFO	current-	current-ON	control-ON		
			OFF				
Type of walkway	Level	Lateral	Lateral	Lateral	Lateral		
		inclined	inclined	inclined	inclined		
3D gait analysis							
ML COG–COP HD	—	66.65 ±	72.90 ±	69.81 ±	77.40 ±		
(mm)		5.69	5.91	5.97*	4.56*†		
Surface EMG in the first half of							
the stance phase							
TA peak (V)	0.040 ±	0.050 ±	0.027 ±	0.034 ±	0.039 ±		
	0.016	0.017	0.007	0.011	0.008		
PL peak (V)	0.064 ±	0.077 ±	0.039 ±	0.053 ±	0.057 ±		
	0.023	0.024	0.013*	0.018	0.016		
Sol peak (V)	0.014 ±	0.019 ±	0.010 ±	0.014 ±	0.014 ±		
	0.006	0.007	0.003	0.006	0.003		
TA mean (V)	0.055 ±	0.065 ±	0.053 ±	0.035 ±	0.036 ±		
	0.024	0.018	0.023	0.009**	0.010**		
PL mean (V)	0.041 ±	0.050 ±	0.027 ±	0.034 ±	0.036 ±		
	0.016	0.017	0.007*	0.011	0.008		
Sol mean (V)	0.020 ±	0.024 ±	0.019	0.014 ±	0.014 ±		
	0.009	0.005	±0.008	0.004	0.004		

Descriptive statistics are presented as the mean RMS of the EMG ± standard deviation for the variability of all outcomes. The asterisk (\*) and double asterisk (\*\*) represent significance levels of \*p < 0.05 and \*\*p < 0.01, respectively, compared with the "without IFO" condition. The dagger (†) and double dagger (††) represent significance levels of †p < 0.05 and ††p < 0.01, respectively, compared with the "with IFO current-ON" conditions. EMG: Electromyography, TA: Tibia anterior, PL: Peroneus longus, Sol: Soleus, RMS: Root mean square