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1 Postural control and gait measures derived from wearable inertial measurement unit devices in
2 Huntington's disease: recommendations for clinical outcomes
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Abstract

Background

Postural control impairments begin early in Huntington’s disease yet measures most sensitive to progression have not been identified. The aims of this study were to: 1) evaluate postural control and gait in people with and without Huntington’s disease using wearable sensors; and 2) identify measures related to diagnosis and clinical severity.

Methods

41 individuals with Huntington’s disease and 14 age-matched peers performed standing with feet together and feet apart, sitting, and walking with wearable inertial sensors. One-way analysis of variance determined differences in measures of postural control and gait between early and mid-disease stage, and age-matched peers. A random forest analysis identified Features of Importance for Huntington’s disease diagnosis. Stepwise and ordinal regressions were used to determine predictors of clinical chorea and tandem walking scores respectively.

Findings

There was a significant main effect for all postural control and gait measures comparing early stage, mid stage and age-matched peers, except for gait cycle duration and step duration. Total sway, root mean square and mean velocity during sitting, as well as gait speed had the greatest importance in classifying disease status. Stepwise regression showed that root mean square during standing with feet apart significantly predicted clinical measure of chorea, and ordinal regression model showed that root mean square and total sway standing feet together significantly predicted clinical measure of tandem walking.

67

68 *Interpretations*

69 Root mean square measures obtained in sitting and standing using wearable sensors have the
70 greatest potential to serve as biomarkers of postural control impairments in Huntington's disease.

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72 Highlights

- 73 • Sensor-derived postural control measures are discriminative in Huntington's disease
- 74 • Root mean square measures predict disease status and correlate to clinical measures
- 75 • Root mean square during sitting and standing are potential disease biomarkers

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Introduction

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85 Huntington’s disease (HD) is a genetic neurodegenerative disorder marked by a triad of
86 motor, behavioral and cognitive manifestations. (Bunner and Rebec, 2016; Tian et al., 2012) As
87 a result of degeneration of the striatum, HD elicits hallmark motor deficits including impaired
88 postural control from early in the disease process. Postural control deficits in HD are
89 characterized by mis-scaling of accelerations and durations, and excessive excursions in both
90 static and dynamic contexts, (Delval et al., 2011; Moisello et al., 2011; Salomonczyk et al.,
91 2010) that interfere with stability. Although existing clinician-rated measures, such as items on
92 the United Huntington’s Disease Rating Scale-Total Motor Score (UHDRS-TMS), (Kiebertz,
93 1996) can provide insight into general balance performance (e.g. tandem walking and
94 retropulsion pull tests), there remains a need for objective measures to accurately assess non-
95 observable aspects of postural control. Objective markers of postural control provide insight into
96 functional independence, and factor into important aspects of clinical decision making in HD,
97 such as fall risk and the likelihood of nursing home admission.(Wheelock et al., 2003)
98 Ultimately, precise and reliable measures can elucidate postural control impairments in HD and
99 function as a marker for disease progression. (Salomonczyk et al., 2010).

100 Postural control encompasses the ability of an individual to maintain equilibrium during
101 both static and dynamic tasks. (Dunsky et al., 2017; Lazarotto et al., 2020) During static tasks,
102 which include sitting and standing, the motor system prioritizes maintaining the center of mass
103 within the base of support to maintain stability. Dynamic tasks, such as walking and reaching,
104 challenge the system to integrate the modulation of center of mass within the constraints of a
105 volitional movement. Under both circumstances, the motor system aims to minimize the risk of

106 falls. In non-HD populations, properties of an individual's postural control, such as total sway
107 and trunk velocity and acceleration, are tempered and scaled to the demands of a task. (Horak,
108 2006) Previous work in HD demonstrated an inability to appropriately scale postural control in
109 the context of dynamic movements such as gait and reaching, (Delval et al., 2007; Mann et al.,
110 2012) which can ultimately contribute to an increase in fall risk. (Grimbergen et al., 2008)
111 Deficits in postural control are apparent early in HD and worsen with progressive striatal
112 degeneration, which both directly and indirectly influence the output of the reticulospinal,
113 vestibulospinal, and corticospinal tracts needed for voluntary postural control. (Jacobs and
114 Horak, 2007) A deeper understanding of specific properties of postural control that are most
115 impaired in persons with HD will lead to targeted rehabilitation programs for motor deficits that
116 negatively affect function and contribute to fall risk (Grimbergen et al., 2008).

117 The presence of involuntary movements, such as chorea, creates a further challenge in
118 measuring postural control in individuals with HD. Chorea consists of writhing involuntary
119 movements of the face, neck, upper extremities, lower extremities, or trunk, and can cause a shift
120 to the center of mass affecting postural control. (Berardelli et al., 1999) Chorea and postural
121 control are typically assessed using subjective clinical ratings from the UHDRS-TMS. This test
122 is inherently subjective, and ratings are typically non-linear, which limits the use of sensitive
123 parametric statistical methods. Clinical rating scales also only provide a brief 'snapshot' into any
124 disease, which remains problematic given the amount of heterogeneity of people with HD.

125 Quantitative analysis of movement has traditionally involved use of marker-based motion
126 capture camera systems or use of force plates to measure spatiotemporal features of gait and
127 postural control.(Miller et al., 2016) However, marker-based systems are costly, require an
128 extensive setup time, and often require advanced programming skills for data processing. More

129 recently, wearable sensors have been shown to be capable of providing reliable and valid
130 measurements of motor impairments, including postural control.(Kobsar et al., 2020; Simoes,
131 2011; Washabaugh et al., 2017) The benefits and utility of wearables has been demonstrated in
132 people with neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson’s disease (PD) to measure tremor,
133 gait, and postural control. (Horak and Mancini, 2013; Washabaugh et al., 2017) Several recent
134 studies have also demonstrated their clinical utility in individuals with HD. (Dalton et al., 2013;
135 Porciuncula et al., 2020; Purcell et al., 2020; Tortelli et al., 2021; Trojaniello et al., 2015) IMUs
136 can measure discrete biomechanical properties of postural control quality and impairments, such
137 as jerk, total sway, and acceleration values, which may be more sensitive to motor impairments
138 than current clinical measures. (Adams et al., 2017; Andrzejewski et al., 2016)

139 In order to address this need for quantitative measures of postural control, we analyzed
140 postural control in sitting and standing conditions. The aims of this study were to 1) evaluate
141 differences in postural control and gait between non-HD individuals and those with HD from
142 wearable sensors; and 2) identify measures related to diagnosis and clinical measures of manifest
143 HD. The aims addressed in this study will ultimately provide recommendations for candidate
144 measures for use as clinical biomarkers.

145

146 **Methods**

147

148 Study Design

149 This cross-sectional study evaluated participants during one session at three sites (George
150 Huntington Institute, Munster, Germany; Teachers College, Columbia University, New York,
151 USA and Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan, USA). The study was approved by the

152 Ethics or Institutional Review Boards at each site. Cardiff University was the study sponsor and
153 the Wales Research Ethics Committee also approved the study protocol. The data presented here
154 was part of a larger study integrating wearable technologies to quantify meaningful activity in
155 Huntington's disease (iWEAR-HD).

156

157 Participants

158 Participants were included if they met the following inclusion criteria: 1) genetically
159 confirmed diagnosis of HD; 2) Total Functional Capacity (TFC) score ≥ 7 ; 3) 18 years of age or
160 older; and 4) able to walk 10 meters independently without assistance devices. Participants were
161 excluded if they had: 1) A diagnosis of juvenile onset HD; 2) history of comorbid neurological
162 conditions such as stroke or multiple sclerosis; 3) acute orthopedic conditions; and 4) the
163 inability or unwillingness of participant or legal guardian to give written informed consent.

164 Demographics of all participants are listed in Table 1.

165 TABLE 1 HERE

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167 Procedures

168 UHDRS (TMS and TFC) (Kiebertz, 1996) were collected within three months of their
169 study visit. If this was not available, the UHDRS was administered as a part of the study visit.
170 The UHDRS TFC is a measure of functional ability, with scores ranging from 0 to 13, where
171 higher scores indicate greater functioning. HD1 (early stage) manifest-HD was categorized as
172 TFC scores of 11-13 while HD2 (mid stage) was TFC scores 7-10. These classifications were
173 based on previous research that aimed to identify imaging measures as clinical outcome
174 measures within HD. (Tabrizi et al., 2013) The UHDRS-TMS ranges in scores from 0 to 120,

175 with higher scores indicating a greater level of motor impairment. Each item is rated on a 0 – 4
176 scale with 0 = Absent, 1 = Slight/ Intermittent, 2 = Mild/Common or Moderate/Intermittent, 3 =
177 Moderate/ Common, 4 = Marked/ Prolonged. The UHDRS chorea sub score was calculated from
178 the UHDRS-TMS by summing trunk and extremities chorea scores (5 items). The UHDRS
179 chorea sub score ranges from 0 – 20, with lower scores indicating little to no chorea and higher
180 scores indicating greater chorea. Face and bucco-oral-lingual chorea scores were removed due to
181 their lack of association with the postural measures of interest. Chorea sub scores were used to
182 identify postural control measures that could best predict chorea. Clinical balance measures in
183 this study were represented by UHDRS tandem walking scores. Tandem walking is rated on a 0-
184 4 scale, where 0 indicates normal heel-to-toe walking for 10 steps and a score of 4 indicates an
185 inability to attempt the motor task.

186 Participants were fitted with six Opal V2 IMUs (Ambulatory Parkinson’s Disease
187 Monitoring (APDM) opal sensors (ERT, Portland, OR, USA). Opal sensors have triaxial
188 accelerometers that measure linear acceleration, a gyroscope to measure angular velocity, and a
189 magnetometer for positional orientation.(Horak and Mancini, 2013). Data were processed using
190 Mobility Lab 2.0[®] software (2015). Postural measures included total sway area, root mean
191 square (RMS) of sway, mean velocity and jerk. Total sway area signifies the extent of movement
192 around the center of gravity. RMS of sway is a time-domain measure, representing
193 the average variance. Mean velocity is the average rate of change in position during a certain
194 period of time. Jerk is a derivative of acceleration that reflects smoothness of movement. The
195 wearable sensors captured movement as participants sat quietly for 30 seconds in an armless
196 chair with their feet flat on the floor, hands resting in their lap, and their lower back away from
197 the back of the seat. Participants also stood quietly for 45 seconds with their feet hip width apart

198 (standardized using the APDM foot plate) and 45 seconds with their feet together. During the
 199 gait task, participants walked 7 meters to a marking on the floor, turned around and returned to
 200 the initial position. Gait variables that were extracted from Mobility Lab included gait speed,
 201 percentage of time spent in stance and double support, and stride length.

202 Data Analysis

203 Statistical analyses were performed using R (Version 4.02; R Foundation for Statistical
 204 Computing, 498 Vienna, AT). Two methods were used to determine the most sensitive measures
 205 of dysfunction in postural control between individuals with HD and non-HD peers: Standardized
 206 Mean Difference (*SMD*) and Random Forest. The *SMD* is a measure of effect size determined by
 207 the following two equations:

$$208 \quad SMD = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S}$$

$$209 \quad S = \left(\frac{SD_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{SD_2^2}{n_2} \right) \times \left(\frac{n_1 \times n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right)$$

210
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 213 where X_1 and X_2 are the means of the HD and non-HD groups, respectively. S is the pooled
 214 standard deviation of the groups, where SD_1 , n_1 , SD_2 , and n_2 are the standard deviation and
 215 sample size of the HD group and the non-HD peer group, respectively. *SMD* values of >0.50
 216 were retained as sensitive measures of UHDRS chorea sub score.
 217

218 A Pearson correlation matrix was computed for participants with HD, which determined
 219 associations between all postural control and gait variables, in addition to TMS, TFC, UHDRS
 220 chorea subscore, and tandem walking score. A second Pearson correlation matrix was computed
 221 for non-HD peers, which included all postural control and gait variables. Furthermore, between-
 222 group differences in all postural control and gait variables were tested in the non-HD peer, HD1

223 (TFC<11), and HD2 (TFC 11-13) groups, using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Post-
224 hoc differences were assessed using Tukey's test.

225 The random forest model was conducted by using the 'randomForest' package on R. The
226 random forest model is a machine learning approach that creates an ensemble of classification
227 and regression trees using a training dataset. In this experiment, a classification tree was
228 constructed using 80% of the total data. Once constructed, the remaining 20% of the data was
229 used to test the error rate of the classification tree. The random forest yields a variable ranking
230 metric termed 'mean decrease in Gini', which was used to represent features of importance of
231 predictor variables and was compared to *SMDs*. Mean decrease in Gini was also used for feature
232 selection to find a significant ordinal regression model to predict UHDRS tandem walking
233 scores.

234 Finally, we wanted to determine which measures derived from IMUs were best able to
235 predict clinical HD measures of chorea (UHDRS-TMS chorea subscore) and dynamic balance
236 (UHDRS-TMS tandem walking). To determine wearable measures capable of predicting chorea,
237 variables from the wearables (i.e., jerk, total sway area, RMS, mean velocity, gait speed, gait
238 stride length) of all postural control and gait conditions were entered into a forward stepwise
239 regression model, as chorea sub scores were treated as ratio data. Variables with
240 multicollinearity ($VIF \geq 10$) were removed from the stepwise regression. Lowest Akaike
241 information criterion (AIC) was used for model comparison to determine the final regression
242 model. To determine measures capable of predicting UHDRS tandem walking scores, the
243 aforementioned variables of postural control and gait were entered into a random forest model.
244 The parameters with the highest mean decrease index of Gini were entered into an ordinal
245 regression model. Significance level was set at $P < 0.05$.

Results

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There was a significant main effect for all postural control and gait measures comparing HD1 and HD2 and non-HD peers, except for gait cycle duration and step duration ($P > .05$) (Table 2). Post-hoc comparisons revealed a significant difference between the HD2 and non-HD peers for all measures, except jerk feet together ($P > .05$). Post-hoc comparisons between HD1 and non-HD peers revealed differences in RMS sitting ($P = .022$). Further, there were significant differences between HD1 and HD2 groups in RMS feet apart, RMS feet together, jerk feet apart, jerk sitting, and gait speed (Table 2).

INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

SMDs that compared differences between each HD group to non-HD peers are shown in Table 3. The highest *SMDs* found for both HD groups occurred in RMS feet apart (HD2: 19.94, HD1: 5.58), RMS feet together (HD2: 19.65, HD1: 6.36), and step duration (HD2: 6.44, HD1: 5.87).

INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

Pearson correlations were calculated for both HD and non-HD peers groups separately and are graphically represented in matrices found in Figure 1a and 1b.

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

268 Mean decrease in Gini derived from the random forest model showed that total sway
269 sitting (3.57), RMS sitting (2.22), mean velocity sitting (2.09), and gait speed (1.32) had the
270 greatest features of importance for accurate classification of individuals into either the HD or
271 non-HD group.

272 Stepwise regression revealed a significant linear model, shown in Figure 2 in which RMS
273 during standing feet apart ($\beta = 9.19, P < .001$) predicted chorea subscore ($F(1, 38) = 11.74, P <$
274 $.0015, R^2 = 0.216$). The random forest model revealed that RMS feet together (Odds Ratio: 6.74)
275 and total sway feet together (Odds Ratio: -0.002) predicted UHDRS tandem walking scores
276 ($\chi^2(2) = 13.38, P < .001, Nagalckerke R^2 = 0.30$).

277

278 INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

279

280 Discussion

281 Consistent with previous findings, our results indicated significant differences between HD
282 and non-HD peers across most variables of postural control that were measured within and across
283 conditions. (Porciuncula et al., 2020; Salomonczyk et al., 2010; Tian et al., 1991) Individuals with
284 HD performed significantly worse than non-HD peers on variables of postural control including
285 greater sway area, greater acceleration values in static standing and sitting, and greater jerk values
286 during quiet standing and sitting. These differences were more pronounced between non-HD peers
287 and HD individuals with TFC scores below 11 (HD2). We found that RMS during standing feet
288 apart best predicted UHDRS chorea subscore, and RMS and total sway during standing feet
289 together best predicted UHDRS tandem walking scores. RMS, total sway, and mean velocity
290 during sitting were postural measures most associated with an HD diagnosis. Given their ability to

291 predict preexisting clinical measures and HD diagnosis, we identified RMS measures in sitting
292 and standing as candidate biomarkers of postural control. Among RMS measures, we determined
293 that RMS during sitting is a suitable biomarker of postural control for its capacity to discriminate
294 between high TFC groups and non-HD peers, and its feasibility for data collection within in an
295 HD population.

296 RMS is the average composite value of acceleration of sway derived from the lumbar
297 sensor. The *SMD* of RMS between non-HD and HD groups indicated a moderate effect size across
298 all tasks (above .5) (Table 3). Interestingly, although RMS measures during standing successfully
299 discriminated between HD1 and HD2, RMS during sitting remained the only variable with the
300 discriminative capacity to discern between the HD (higher functioning) and non-HD peers.
301 Although jerk values exhibited acceptable *SMD* values and differences between low and high TFC
302 groups, within group variability was too large, as represented by large standard deviations, and
303 therefore not included in the random forest tree model.

304 Often HD individuals with higher TFC scores do not exhibit motor symptoms that can be
305 easily identified by clinicians. However, non-observable deficits in motor control are evident in
306 pre-manifest and early-stage HD, (Delval et al., 2011; Salomonczyk et al., 2010) which are more
307 easily captured by inertial sensors. (Andrzejewski et al., 2016; Fusca et al., 2018) Our findings on
308 RMS values during sitting further confirm this and introduce the idea that static sitting may elicit
309 more acceleration-based, measurable responses in force modulation impairments in HD. It is
310 possible that in standing, the motor system prioritizes stability and fall prevention by introducing
311 constraints to limit excessive sway. During sitting, the risk of fall is minimal relative to standing
312 thereby decreasing the demand of constraints needed to prioritize stability. The overall result is
313 that when seated, participants with HD could generate greater movement with less force

314 modulation without the risk of falling. Sitting minimizes the need for risk-related constraints,
315 leaving greater room for non-consequential errors in sway, force modulation, and chorea.

316 The UHDRS chorea subscore used in this study was comprised of scores assessing the
317 severity of chorea present in the trunk and extremities. Among the IMU-derived measures of
318 postural control our findings indicated that RMS and mean velocity during sitting predicted chorea
319 subscores. Aside from the association between lumbar total sway and visual trunk displacement,
320 it is likely that pronounced chorea in extremities would be associated with greater displacement of
321 the trunk due to postural disturbances and intersegmental dynamics. (Grimbergen et al., 2008;
322 Kegelmeyer et al., 2017) Therefore, RMS and mean velocity during sitting may function as an
323 indirect measure of chorea.

324 From our findings, we propose that RMS during sitting and standing derived from IMUs
325 can serve as clinical outcome measures for postural control in individuals with HD. These
326 measures are recommended due to their ability to predict both HD status and UHDRS tandem
327 walking scores. These measures also had relatively low variability and larger discriminative
328 validity, as determined by *SMD* values, relative to the remaining measures. Furthermore, the effect
329 sizes of RMS values are consistent with previous findings indicating that larger accelerations and
330 force productions within HD groups occur across motor tasks. (Moisello et al., 2011; Reilmann
331 and Schubert, 2017) Our results show that IMU sensors can capture force modulation impairments,
332 as represented by larger acceleration values, that are characteristic in HD. This further confirms
333 the notion that IMU wearable devices can detect subtle differences in postural control that cannot
334 be captured by clinical scales. The subjective nature of the UHDRS tandem walking score makes
335 it unlikely that this clinical measure could detect more subtle changes in postural control in HD.
336 Wearable-derived candidate measures of postural control were both associated with the

337 aforementioned clinical scales and captured non-observable and reliable measures of posture
338 specific to HD as compared to non-HD peers, and characteristic of the disease. The wearable-
339 derived outcome measures of postural control identified in this study can ultimately allow for the
340 ability to discriminate between disease stages and potentially to evaluate intervention effectiveness
341 as clinical endpoints.

342 Some limitations that can be addressed for future studies include the use of a single vs
343 multiple trials. Results from our study are from a single trial of each task across participants. This
344 may limit the generalizability as multiple trials can improve sensitivity of each measure. Future
345 work should also address the reliability of these measures over the course of HD, including a pre-
346 manifest HD group, where postural impairments are more subtle. Lastly, future work can
347 determine whether these postural measures are sensitive to intervention. Identifying response to
348 time with HD and intervention are integral next steps for evaluating the usability of these measures
349 in clinical trials.

350

351 **Conclusion**

352

353 RMS measures derived from IMUs during sitting and standing were most related to HD status
354 and severity and have the potential to serve as clinical outcome measures for postural control in
355 HD. Measures of total sway area of FA and sitting are likely influenced by choreic movements,
356 whereas RMS FT, jerk FA and RMS sitting are likely to best reflect postural control
357 impairments. Differences in postural control variables were more pronounced between non-HD
358 peers and HD individuals with TFC scores below 11. Future studies can determine sensitivity to
359 time and intervention in these postural control measures.

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Table 1. Participant Characteristics

	All Participants with HD (n=43)	TFC 7 -10 (n=28)	TFC 11-13 (n=15)	Non-HD peers (n=15)
Age(years)	56.9 (11.7)	55.9 (9.6)	50.9 (14.2)	53.1 (13.3)
Sex (M/F)	25/19	14/14	11/4	7/7
Height (cm)	173.6 (9.6)	172.3(9.4)	175.7 (9.5)	169.2 (10.8)
Weight(kg)	75.0 (14.8)	76.4(16.3)	73.2 (12.1)	79.6 (12.1)
UHDRS TMS	40.6 (16.2)	48 (12)	27 (14)	NA
UHDRS SDMT	27.5 (12)	22 (9)	37.5 (11)	NA
UHDRS Chorea	10 (5)	12 (5)	9 (5)	NA
Subscore				
UHDRS FA	22 (3)	20 (3)	24 (1)	NA
UHDRS Ind.	84 (9)	80 (10)	90 (6)	NA
# of Fallers	24	19	5	NA

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Table 1: Demographics of all participants are represented as means(SD) except sex, which is reported number of participants. Unified Huntington's Disease Rating Scale (UHDRS) total motor score (TMS) is a sum of all sub scores rated on a 0-4 scale, where 0 represents an absence of impairment and 4 represents a pronounced impairment. UHDRS Symbol Digit Modalities Test (SDMT) measure executive functioning as represented by values correct from 0 to 110. UHDRS Chorea sub score is a sum of sub scores of 0-4, where 0 represents an absence of chorea and 4 represents pronounced presence, totaling in 28 points. UHDRS Functional Assessment (FA) scores are out of 25, where larger values represent higher functioning, and independence (Ind) scores, where higher scores represent greater independence, are rated 0-100.

534 Table 2: Raw mean values, standard deviations, and coefficient of variation for all postural control
 535 and gait variables in persons with HD and non-HD peers. Standardized mean difference is a
 536 measure of effect size
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		Non-HD Peers	HD (TFC11-13)	HD (TFC<11)	SMD (TFC11- 13)	SMD (TFC<11)
RMS	Feet Apart	0.10(0.04)	0.21(0.19)	0.33(0.17)	5.58	19.94
	Feet Together	0.12(0.05)	0.25(0.19)	0.39(0.18)	6.36	19.65
	Sitting	0.06(0.05)	0.54(0.47)	0.63(0.60)	4.40	4.44
Jerk	Feet Apart	1.50(1.06)	22.0(37.6)	70.5(80.8)	0.029	0.030
	Feet Together	3.42(4.3)	19.6(25.4)	114.0(183)	0.049	0.0094
	Sitting	1.15(1.60)	36.7(31.8)	92.7(97.41)	0.070	0.028
Mean Vel.	Feet Apart	0.33(0.18)	0.45(0.41)	0.68 (0.49)	1.22	3.40
	Feet Together	0.32(0.15)	0.61(0.58)	0.80 (0.58)	1.59	3.63
	Sitting	0.11(0.11)	0.80 (0.71)	1.21 (1.24)	2.71	2.02
Total Sway	Feet Apart	1.80 (1.8)	14.8 (24.8)	36.6 (39.8)	0.042	0.062
	Feet Together	4.06(4.0)	20.4(27.0)	46.4 (51.7)	0.044	0.045
	Sitting	0.29 (0.37)	56.9 (66.8)	79.9(105)	0.025	0.021
Gait	Cycle Duration	1.06(0.12)	1.09(0.09)	1.10(0.13)	3.18	3.70
	Speed	1.32(0.26)	1.22(0.20)	1.04(0.21)	-1.84	-4.66
	Step Duration	0.53(0.06)	0.55(0.04)	0.56(0.07)	5.87	6.44
	Stride Length	1.37(0.19)	1.31(0.15)	1.14(0.19)	-1.76	-6.13

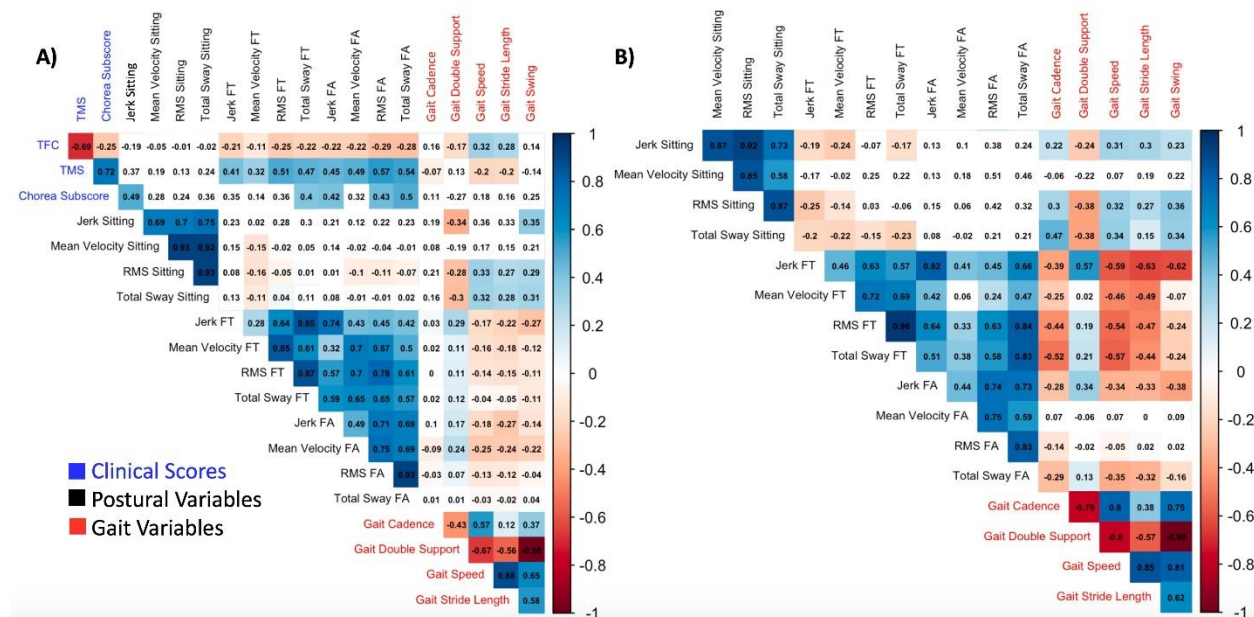
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559 Table 3. Comparison of postural control and gait variables between Low TFC (LTFC; TFC <11),
 560 High TFC (HTFC; TFC ≥ 11) and non-HD peer, using ANOVA and Tukey post-hoc pairwise
 561 comparison. * Denotes a main significant effect of group. Only significant pairwise post-hoc
 562 tests reported in table. D.F = Degrees of Freedom.

		D.F.	F-value	p-value	Tukey post-hoc
RMS	Feet Apart	(2,54)	11.13	<.001*	HD 2-HD 1: $p = .04$ HD 2-Non HD: $p < .001$
	Feet Together	(2,54)	13.24	<.001*	HD 2-HD 1: $p = .027$ HD 2-Non HD: $p < .001$
	Sitting	(2,55)	7.036	.0019*	HD 2-HD 1: $p = .0016$ HD 1-Non HD: $p = .022$
Jerk	Feet Apart	(2,54)	7.457	.0014*	HD 2-HD 1: $p = .036$ HD 2-Non HD: $p = .0018$
	Feet Together	(2,54)	4.593	.014*	HD 2-Non HD: $p = .026$
	Sitting	(2,55)	8.974	<.001*	HD 2-HD 1: $p = .041$ HD 2-Non HD: $p < .001$
Mean Vel.	Feet Apart	(2,54)	3.93	.026*	HD 2-Non HD: $p = .027$
	Feet Together	(2,54)	4.355	.0018*	HD 2-Non HD: $p = .013$
	Sitting	(2,55)	6.44	.0026*	HD 2-Non HD: $p = .0017$
Total Sway	Feet Apart	(2,54)	6.845	.0022*	HD 2-Non HD: $p = .0022$
	Feet Together	(2,54)	6.289	.0035*	HD 2-Non HD: $p = .0034$
	Sitting	(2,55)	4.742	.0126*	HD 2-Non HD: $p = .0091$
Gait	Cycle Duration	(2,54)	1.014	0.37	–
	Speed	(2,54)	8.271	<.001*	HD 2-HD 1: $p = .04$ HD 2-Non HD: $p < .001$
	Step Duration	(2,54)	0.862	.428	–
	Stride Length	(2,54)	8.881	<.001*	HD 2-Non HD: $p < .001$

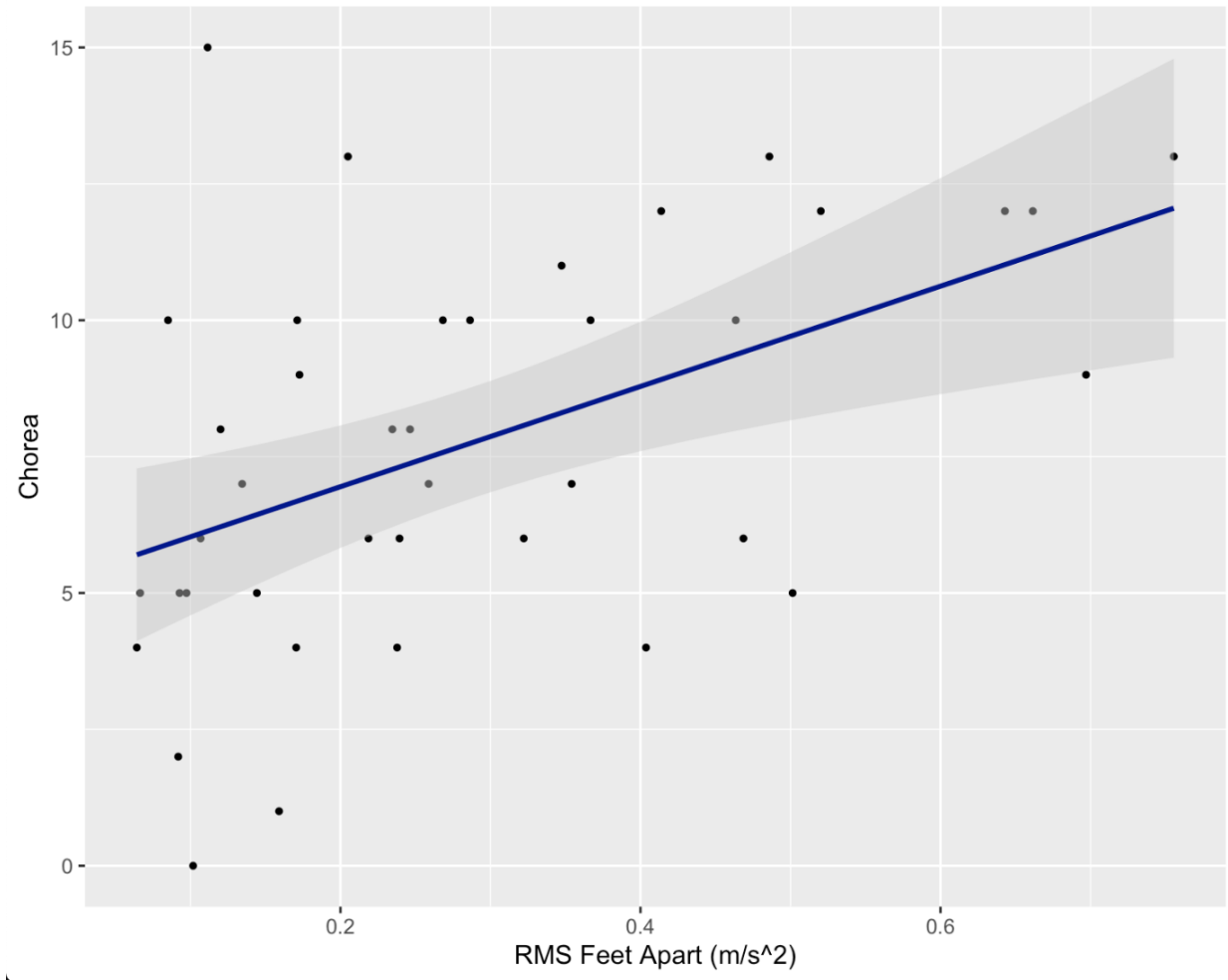
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581 Figure 1. a) Pearson correlation tables of all IMU derived postural control and gait, in addition to
 582 clinical measures, and UHDRS chorea subscores for patients with HD. b) Pearson correlation
 583 tables of all IMU derived postural control and gait for non-HD peers.
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590 Figure 2: Linear regression plot indicating significant model, where UHDRS Chorea sub score is
591 predicted by Root Mean Square (RMS) Feet Apart.
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