

Low Back Pain and Postural control, effects of task difficulty on Centre of pressure and spinal kinematics

Abstract:

Association of Low Back pain and standing postural control (PC) deficits are reported inconsistently.

Demands on PC adaptation strategies are increased by restraining the input of visual or somatosensory senses. The objectives of the current study are, to investigate whether PC adaptations of the spine, hip and the Centre of pressure (COP) differ between patients reporting Non-Specific Low Back Pain (NSLBP) and asymptomatic controls.

The PC adaption strategies of the thoracic and lumbar spine, the hip and the COP were measured in fifty-seven NSLBP patients and 22 asymptomatic controls. We tested three “feet together” conditions with increasing demands on PC strategies, using inertial measurement units (IMUs) on the spine and a Wii Balance Board for Centre of pressure (COP) parameters.

The differences between NSLBP patients and controls were most apparent when the participants were blindfolded, but remaining on a firm surface. While NSLBP patients had larger thoracic and lumbar spine mean absolute deviations of position (MADpos) in the frontal plane, the same parameters decreased in control subjects (Relative change (RC): 0.23, 95% Confidence interval: 0.03 to 0.45 and 0.03 to 0.48). The Mean absolute deviation of velocity (MADvel) of the thoracic spine in the frontal plane showed a similar and significant effect (RC: 0.12 95%CI: 0.01-0.25). Gender, age and pain during the measurements affected some parameters significantly.

PC adaptations differ between NSLBP patients and asymptomatic controls. The differences are most apparent for the thoracic and lumbar parameters of MADpos, in the frontal plane and while the visual condition was removed.

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7 **Keywords:**

8 Non-Specific Low Back pain, Postural Control, frontal plane, sagittal plane, spinal kinematics
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11 **1 Introduction**

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14 3 Postural control (PC) of the trunk when standing is regarded as essential to keep or regain one's body
15 4 position for stability and orientation, within challenging environments [1]. Postural control strategies
16 5 are described as a feedback mechanism derived by the interaction of sensory input and adapted motor
17 6 output [1]. Postural control strategies on firm ground with open eyes predominantly use peripheral or
18 7 ankle strategies for the sagittal plane [2, 3]. In contrast the frontal plane control-mechanisms are
19 8 described as proximal or hip loading/unloading strategies [3]. In a recent review changes in postural
20 9 control sway excursions in patients with Non-specific Low Back Pain (NSLBP) compared to
21 10 asymptomatic controls were inconsistently reported in previous studies [4]. Some studies showed
22 11 impaired postural control in the presence of LBP with increased body sway, sway velocity and loss of
23 12 balance [5, 6] others didn't find any differences in body sway or sway velocity [7, 8]. Possible reasons
24 13 for these contradictory reports are the differences in tasks and conditions used in those studies [7, 9,
25 14 10].
26 15 Most studies evaluate centre of pressure (COP) movements using force plate technology [5, 8, 11].
27 16 However, range and velocity of segmental adaptations in thoracic, lumbar and hip segments cannot be
28 17 described by COP variables, as only kinematic models can adequately account for segmental and
29 18 directional strategies. [6, 9, 10, 12-15]. One recent study used additional kinematic measurements to
30 19 evaluate hip and trunk control strategies in the sagittal plane while standing [5, 8]. Two
31 20 electrogoniometers were placed over the first thoracic vertebra and the second sacral vertebra. They
32 21 assessed sagittal plane kinematics and the mean position of the trunk. The sway of the segments trunk
33 22 and pelvis was not evaluated. They found, that patients with LBP have larger forward trunk inclination
34 23 during the PC tasks. Further kinematic measurements of body segments might even better discern
35 24 differences in PC strategies of LBP patients and asymptomatic controls.
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4 25 To date, no research evaluated movement of the thoracic and lumbar spine and the hip in the frontal
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6 26 and sagittal plane parallel with COP measurements during standing PC tasks.
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8 27 Therefore the aim of this study was to examine the sway of the thoracic and lumbar spine, the hip and
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10 28 COP during three standing tasks conditions with increasing PC requirements in patients with NSLBP
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12 29 and asymptomatic controls. The research questions were a) does the presence of LBP affects sway and
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14 30 sway velocity and are PC strategies different in asymptomatic controls and those with NSLBP,
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16 31 b) how does changing the task difficulty in terms of visual and surface condition influences sway and
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18 32 sway velocity of the thoracic and lumbar spine, the hip and COP.
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21 33 **Method**

22 34 **Subjects**

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25 35 Participants between 18-65 years were recruited at physiotherapy-practices, the university campus and
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27 36 by newspaper advertisements. Included were patients with NSLBP for longer than 4 weeks with at
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29 37 least moderate disability, defined as an Oswestry-disability-index (ODI) >8% and a low level of
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31 38 having biopsychosocial risk factors defined with less than 4 points in the STarT Back Screening tool
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33 39 [16, 17]. Excluded were subjects with specific LBP, vertigo or disturbance of the equilibrium,
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35 40 systemic diseases (diabetes, tumours), pain in other areas of the body (neck, head, thoracic spine, or
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37 41 arms), complaints, injury, or surgery of the legs (hips to feet) within the last six months, medication
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39 42 affecting postural control (e.g. anti-depressants) and pregnancy. The exclusion criteria for healthy
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41 43 controls were the same as for the LBP-group, and additional no current, and no LBP during the
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43 44 preceding 3 months. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Canton Zurich. All
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45 45 participants signed informed consent prior to the study.
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51 47 **Measurement Systems**

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53 48 Movements of the spine and hip were measured using four inertial measurement units (IMUs),
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55 49 ValedoSensors, Hocoma, Volketswil, Switzerland) at a sampling frequency of 200Hz. The system's
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57 50 validity has been shown before [18]. Sensors were placed on the right thigh (RTH), the sacrum (S2),
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59 51 the lower back (L1) and the upper back (T1). The RTH sensor was placed on the line connecting the
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4 52 lateral epicondyle of the femur and the trochanter major. Sensors on the back were placed following
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6 53 the method described by Ernst and colleagues [19].

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8 54 The COP was measured with a Wii-balance board (WBB, Nintendo Incorporation, Kyoto, Japan)
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10 55 sampling with 200Hz. The WBB is valid for COP measurements [20].
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13 14 15 57 **Procedure**

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17 58 Descriptive data and covariates were recorded before assessing the postural control tasks. All
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19 59 participants had to fill in a questionnaire about their physical activity, their bodily and mental stress at
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21 60 work and their education level [21]. LBP patients additionally filled in the Oswestry disability index
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23 61 (ODI) [16].
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27 63 Subjects were asked to stand stable, arms crossed in front of the chest, in three different conditions in a
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29 64 fixed order of increasing requirements on PC adaptation:
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- 32 65 1. feet together on firm surface, eyes open = (Open-Firm)
 - 33 66 2. feet together on firm surface, blindfolded = (Blind-Firm)
 - 34 67 3. feet together on foam, blindfolded = (Blind-Foam)
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40 68 Standing tasks lasted for one minute and were repeated three times, for each condition. Pain intensity
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42 69 was recorded after each condition using a numeric rating scale from 0 (no pain) to 10 (maximal pain).
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45 70 **Data processing and analysis:**

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47 71 The IMU sensors consist of an accelerometer, a gyroscope and a magnetometer. Data acquisition was
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49 72 undertaken with the Valedo Research Software (Hocoma, Volketswil, Switzerland). Further
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51 73 calculation and analysis were done using MATLAB (The MathWorks, Inc, Natick, MA, US, Version
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53 74 R2012a). The scaled data from the sensors were converted into quaternions according to Madgwick et
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55 75 al. [22]. Data were then filtered using a fourth-order zero-phase low-pass Butterworth filter with a cut-
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57 76 off frequency of 1Hz. The filtered data were transformed into rotation matrices and then into Tilt-
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59 77 Twist angles, according to Crawford et al. [23]. The hip angle was defined as the differential signal
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4 78 between RTH and S2 (Hip), the lower back angle as the differential signal between S2 and L1 (lumbar
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6 79 spine) and the thorax angle as the differential signal between L1 and T1 (thoracic spine).

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8 80 The following quantities were calculated: The *mean absolute deviation (MAD)* of the sway
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10 81 position, MADpos, and the *mean absolute deviation* of sway velocity, MADvel, the MAD

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13 82 was computed by
$$MAD = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^T |x_i - \bar{x}|,$$

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15 83 with x_i representing the i -th sampled signal, \bar{x} the mean signal and T the number of samples.

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17 84 It was decided to take the MAD instead of a root mean square (RMS), as big evasion
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19 85 movement have less influence on the variable.

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22 86 The variables were calculated for the angular movement of each segment and for the COP
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24 87 excursion in the sagittal and frontal plane. The mean value of the three repetitions was taken
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26 88 for the statistical analysis.

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32 90 **Statistical analysis:**

33 91 For each MAD, a linear mixed model was fitted to the data with *condition* (Open-Firm, Blind-
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35 92 Firm, and Blind-Foam), *group* (LBP or asymptomatic control) and the interaction (*condition x*
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37 93 *group*) as fixed effects. Reference levels were “Female” for gender, “Open-Firm” for
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39 94 condition and “Control” for group. “Subject” was included as a random intercept. It was
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41 95 adjusted for gender, BMI, age, pain during the tests, physical and mental stress at work. A
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43 96 stepwise model selection procedure with optimisation of the AIC-criterion was used to
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45 97 eliminate covariates. Random intercept models are equivalent to repeated measures ANOVA
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47 98 and take into account the correlation between repeated measurements. Residual analysis was
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49 99 performed to check the model assumptions. Based on residual analysis, the logs of the
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51 100 outcomes were modelled. The model for observation Y_{ijk} (outcome for condition i , group j ,
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53 101 subject k nested in group j) was (without other between-group variables)

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$$\log Y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + (\alpha\beta)_{ij} + U_{kj} + \epsilon_{ijk}, i = 1,2,3; j = 1,2; k = 1, \dots, n_j,$$

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102 with α_i as the i-th condition effect, β_j as the j-th group effect, $\alpha\beta_{ij}$ as the ij-th group-condition
103 interaction, U_{kj} as the random intercept of subject k in group j (with between-subject variance
104 σ_S^2) and ϵ_{ijk} as within-subject error (with within-subject variance σ_W^2). From the estimated
105 parameters, relative changes with 95%-confidence intervals were calculated, $\exp(\beta \text{ value of}$
106 $\text{predictor}) - 1$. The alpha-level of statistical significance was set at 0.05.
107 The intrasession reliability was assessed calculating the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient
108 (ICC) over the three repetitions.
109 For statistical computing, R was used (R Development Core Team (2010), R Foundation for
110 Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0, URL [http://www.R-](http://www.R-project.org/)
111 [project.org/](http://www.R-project.org/)).

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6 116 **Results**

7 117 Fifty-seven patients with NSLBP and 22 asymptomatic controls from Winterthur area (Switzerland)
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9 118 were included (Table 1).

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12 119 Subjects completed all tests with the exception of condition 3 (Blind-Foam). Three asymptomatic
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14 120 controls and four patients with NSLBP could not remain in the required position for 60s.

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17 121 Due to technical problems with the sensors there were two missing values in the variables of the hip
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19 122 and lumbar spine, respectively (1 patient, 1 control). Technical problems with the balance board led to
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21 123 missing COP data in six subjects (3 patients, 3 controls).

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24 124 The ICCs of the three repetitions were between 0.38 to 0.86 for asymptomatic controls and 0.43 to
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26 125 0.83 for NSLBP patients, with higher values for MADvel.

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30 127 MADpos showed larger **between-group** differences than MADvel. Patients with NSLBP had
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32 128 generally greater MADpos and higher MADvel than asymptomatic controls (Table 2 and 3). These
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34 129 differences reached statistical significance for MADpos in the lumbar spine in the frontal plane
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36 130 (Relative change -0.19, Table 2).

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39 131 There were three **interaction** effects (condition x group), all for the frontal plane (Figure 1, Table 2
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41 132 and 3). Asymptomatic controls and NSLBP patients showed significantly different strategies, when
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43 133 they changed from condition 1(Open-Firm) to condition 2 (Blind-Firm) for the MADpos of the
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45 134 thoracic (Relative change: -0.23) and lumbar spine (Relative change: -0.23) (Table 2, Figure 1).
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47 135 MADvel of the thoracic spine was significantly lower in asymptomatic controls than in subjects with
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49 136 NSLBP (Relative change: -0.12). There were no significant interaction effects in MADpos and
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51 137 MADvel in the sagittal plane for the spinal, hip and COP parameters. There was a tendency for the
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53 138 MADpos parameter for the COP in the sagittal plane (Relative change: -0.14) (Figure 2, Table 2).

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57 139 In both groups the MADpos and MADvel values of COP, hip, thoracic and lumbar spine parameters
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59 140 increased with the demands of the task condition, and were significantly larger during **condition**
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61 141 “Blind-Foam” than for the two other conditions (Table 2 and 3).

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143 **Gender** significantly affected trunk and hip movements in the sagittal plane, with women showing
144 greater MADpos (Relative change: 0.17 to 0.39) and higher MADvel (Relative change: 0.13 to 0.21)
145 (Table 2 and 3).

146 **Pain** intensity significantly increased MADpos in the frontal plane with 0.03 to 0.07 more sway, $p <$
147 0.05, for every unit pain on the NRS (Table 2 and 3). Pain also increased MADpos in the sagittal plane
148 but effects were not significant.

149 **Age** had a statistically significant effect on MADpos values of the lumbar spine in both planes, and on
150 the hip values in the frontal plane and for MADvel of the lumbar spine and the COP in the sagittal
151 plane. With every year the MADpos and MADvel reduced about 1% ($p < 0.05$).

152 BMI and bodily or mental stress at work had no significant effect on any MADpos or MADvel
153 variables.

154 **Discussion**

155 Different adaptation strategies in postural control between NSLBP patients and asymptomatic controls
156 were found for frontal plane variables of the trunk when the visual condition changed from open eyes
157 to blindfold. This indicates that NSLBP patients need adaptive PC strategies using trunk movements,
158 while in control subjects hip loading/unloading strategies, with a more stable trunk, suffices.

159 Significant gender and age effects were demonstrated, with less MADpos and slower MADvel in men
160 in six out of eight sagittal plane variables and four out of eight frontal plane variables, indicating that
161 in men spinal adaptations were more uniform than in women. Less MADpos and MADvel with
162 increasing age may reflect an increase in spinal stiffness. The effect of pain intensity during the tests
163 showed Relative Change (RC) of 0.03 to 0.07 for every unit on a Numeric rating scale ranging from 0
164 to 10, which was significant for some frontal plane variables (p -values only in Table 2 and 3). BMI,
165 physical or mental stress at work did not affect PC.

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4 166 These significantly different postural control strategies, when changing from Open-firm to Blind-firm
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6 167 condition, were detected only due to the additional use of inertial measurement units attached to the
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8 168 spine and thigh, which measured proximal adaptation strategies of thoracic, lumbar and hip segments.
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11 169 No group or interaction effects (*group times condition*) were found for the COP parameters. Only one
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13 170 parameter in the sagittal plane (MADpos) was found close to significance (RC 0.14, 95% CI: -0.01 to
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15 171 0.31), but frontal plane COP parameters were far from significance or meaningfulness. This is in line
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17 172 with results by a recent systematic review concerning COP parameters in case-control studies with
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19 173 NSLBP patients and asymptomatic controls [4]. The authors report inconsistent results with a majority
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21 174 of studies demonstrated enlarged sway values in LBP patients whereas other included studies found
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23 175 reduced sway [4].
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25 176 In one recent study, Brumagne et al. examined additional to COP parameters, spinal parameters at the
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27 177 sacrum and thoracic spine [8]. NSLBP subjects showed more forward inclination of the trunk while
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29 178 standing on a firm surface and expecting muscle vibration at the calf and/or active arm movement
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31 179 tasks.[8]. Frontal plane variables were not reported [8]. Contrary to our findings the differences in
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33 180 postural control strategies between NSLBP patients and controls were most dominant while changing
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35 181 the surface condition [8]. This discrepancy might be due to the fact that we did not test a condition
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37 182 “Open-foam”, as we expected a sway increase in NSLBP when the visual condition changed,
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39 183 according to the review by Mazaheri et al. [4]. In the current study all three test conditions were
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41 184 conducted in the “feet together” position, as larger condition effects in frontal plane parameters were
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43 185 expected[24]. Decreasing the base of support by keeping the feet together might affect the frontal
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45 186 plane adaptation strategies, whereas standing on a beam affects sagittal plane adaption strategies [9,
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47 187 24]. Mazaheri et al. mention only two studies, which examined COP sagittal and frontal plane sway in
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49 188 a feet together position. In both studies the sagittal plane COP parameters differed between NSLBP
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51 189 and controls [25, 26]. This goes in line with results by the current study, in which for the COP
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53 190 parameters in the sagittal plane and for the Blind-Firm condition, a similar tendency has been shown,
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55 191 (RC: 0.14, 95%CI: -0.01 to 0.31, Table 2, Figure 2).
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4 192 Within the current study, subjects in both groups had the largest condition effect when changing form
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6 193 hard to foam surface, while remaining blindfolded. However no significant between group differences
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8 194 were observed. Changing the somatosensory condition (like the surface condition) has larger effects
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10 195 on COP variables than changing the visual condition alone [2], which is in line with the results of the
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12 196 current study. Changing to Blind-Foam condition affected the velocity in the sagittal COP parameters
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14 197 stronger than the frontal COP parameters, but spinal and hip parameters were more affected within the
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16 198 frontal plane parameters (Table 3). These results suggest that spinal control strategies are generally
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18 199 more needed, when the feet are close together, in the frontal plane [24]. These strategies cannot be
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20 200 observed by COP measurements alone. Frontal plane movements in distal joints are either insufficient
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22 201 (Ankle) or impossible (Knee) which leads to compensational movements of the spine [27]. In the
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24 202 sagittal plane, peripheral control strategies, using combined hip-knee-ankle adaptations while keeping
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26 203 the spine as a functional unit, may be sufficient, [24]. Studies which failed to find significant
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28 204 differences between LBP and controls in standing postural control positions, might have failed as they
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30 205 either did not examine corrective trunk movements, or as the stance width was too wide to provoke
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32 206 these movements. A possible explanation why patients with NSLBP need spinal adaptations within the
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34 207 frontal plane may be an insufficiency in the control mechanism for hip abduction in the frontal plane,
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36 208 as has been shown by Nelson-Wong et al [28]. Another explanation is the reported inability of LBP
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38 209 patients to control a neutral lower back position while performing active movements of the trunk or
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40 210 the lower limbs, which may also be relevant for postural control tasks [29]. Further research exploring
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42 211 these relationships is needed.

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46 212 The current sample of NSLBP patients showed only minimal disability (ODI-Score: Mean 18%, SD:
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48 213 6%, Table 1), which may limit the validity of the results [16]. Within the review by Mazaheri et al. the
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50 214 disability level of subjects in included studies ranged from 12.6 to 38.4 %, with a mean value of
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52 215 23.9%, on the ODI [4]. It might be assumed that larger disability in NSLBP subjects have led to larger
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54 216 differences in PC strategies between groups.

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58 217 In contrast to many other case-control studies, we included more cases than control subjects, as we
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60 218 expected subgroups within LBP patients with either increased or decreased postural sway in COP
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219 parameters according to Mazaheri et al.[4]. However we could not confirm the existence of these
220 subgroups. In our LBP sample the postural sway in COP parameters were almost always larger than
221 for the control group, although the absolute values are small and may not be detectable by naked eye.
222 Absolute values of 0.28-1.04° for MADpos and 0.47-2.49°/s for MADvel in this study were
223 comparable with findings by Gage et al.[30]. We found mean deviation of position more sensitive to
224 discriminate between patients and controls, but mean deviation of velocity showed similar tendency,
225 had higher reliability values, and has been reported as valid and reliable in other studies too [31].

226 **Conclusion**

227 The current study states that increasing standing tasks difficulties affect COP, hip and spine control
228 strategies in both sagittal and frontal planes. The frontal plane postural control mechanism measured
229 directly on the spine using inertial movement sensor technology, differ between NSLBP patients and
230 asymptomatic controls, when visual condition changes. These differences couldn't be detected by
231 COP measurements alone and are valid, if the stance width is small, i.e. feet together. Mean positional
232 sway shows higher discriminatory validity than mean velocity. As frontal plane mechanism are
233 supposed to be dominantly proximal in normal conditions by the hip load-unload strategy, further PC
234 adaptations are only possible even more proximal within the spine, when visual and somatosensory
235 conditions are deprived. Age, gender and pain effects should be considered when comparisons are
236 made between NSLBP patients and asymptomatic controls.

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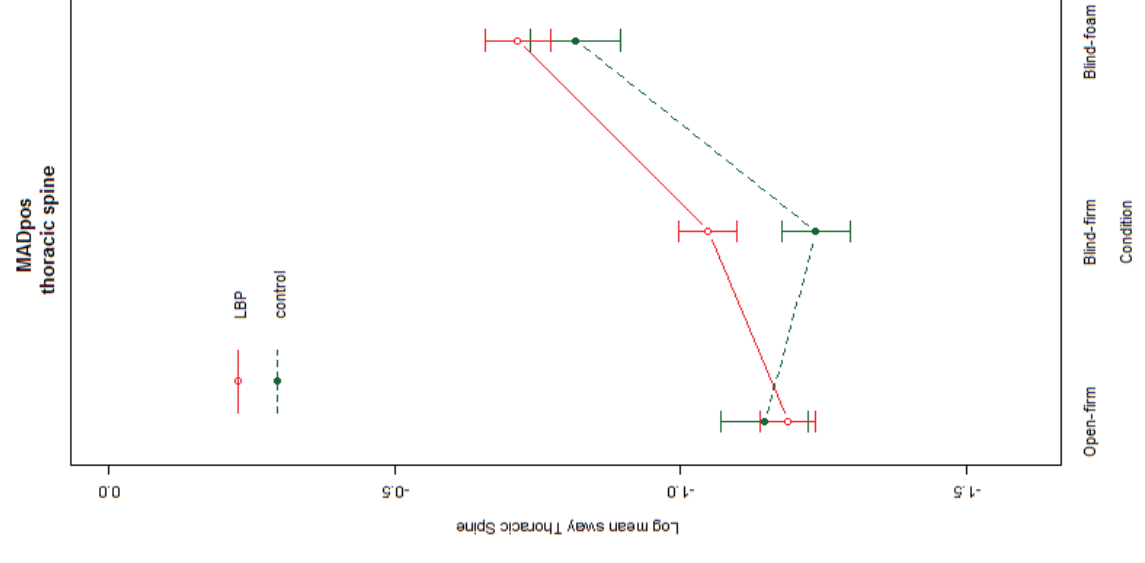
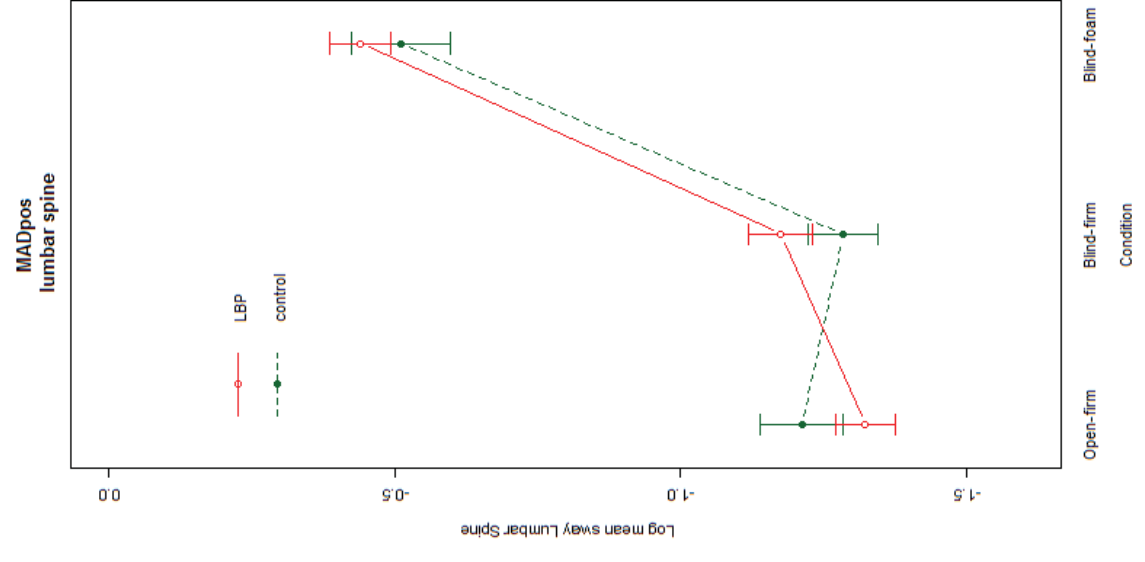
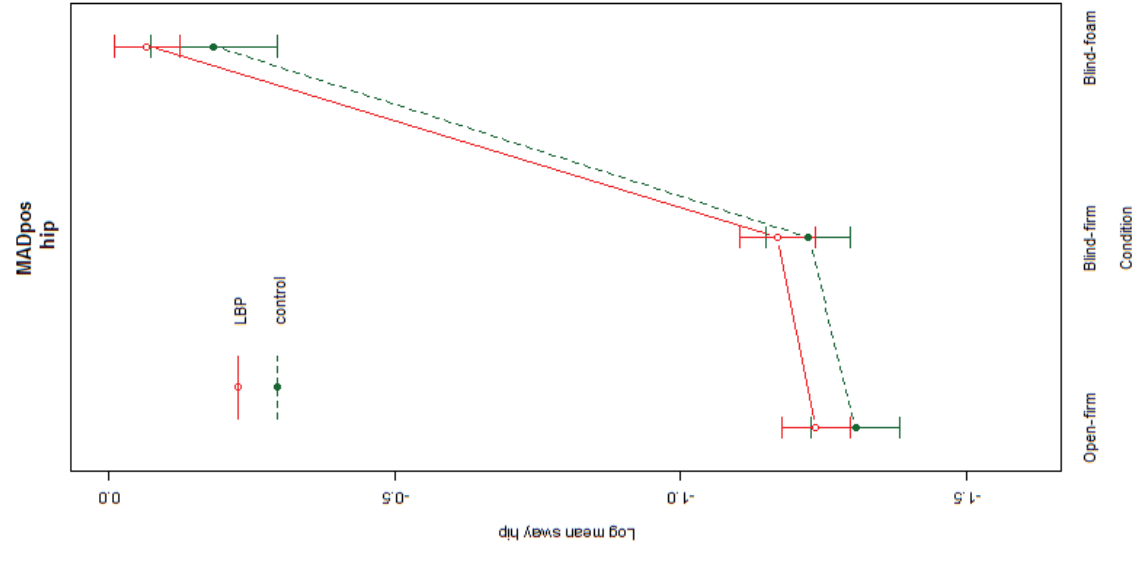
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Figure 1: Mean absolute deviation of position (MADpos) in the frontal plane
Values are means and standard error of the mean

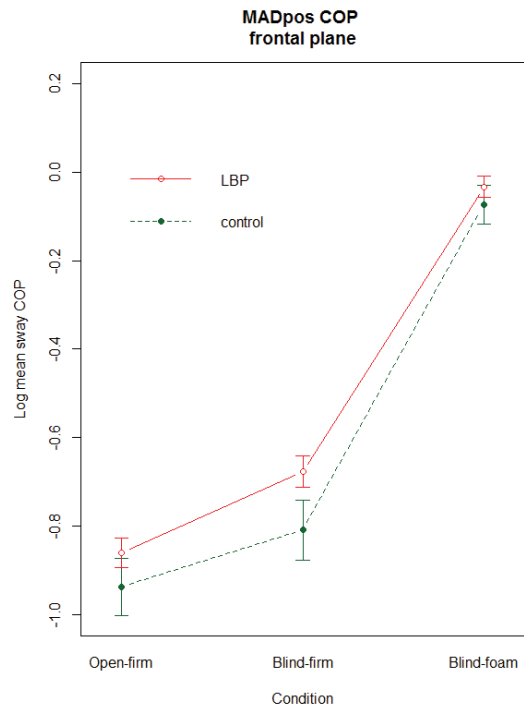
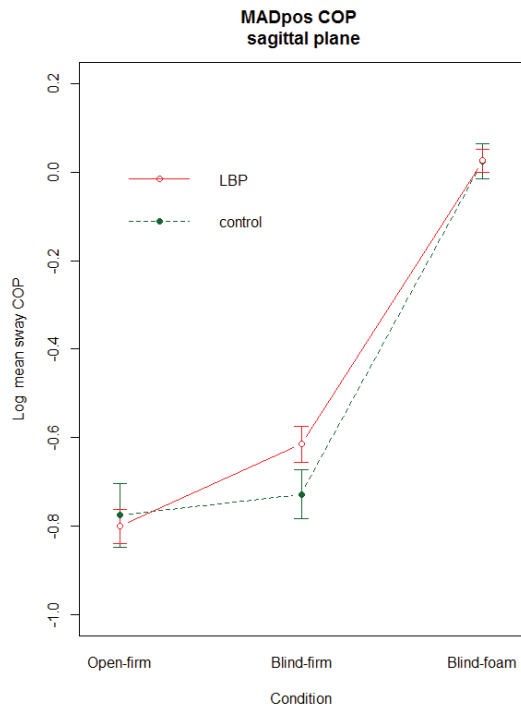
Figure 2: Mean absolute deviation of COP position (MADpos) for both sagittal and frontal plane
Values are means and standard error of the mean

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Conflict of interest

All contributing authors confirm, that no conflicts of interest exists that may have affected the outcome of the study.

Research Highlights

- Reporting about Postural Control strategies in patients with low back pain vary
- We examine spinal kinematics and Centre of pressure in 3 standing tasks
- Patients with low back pain differ in Postural Control strategies from controls
- Frontal plane kinematics of the spine are best distinctive.
- Centre of pressure parameters alone are not sufficient