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Development of upper body coordination during sitting in typically developing infants

Running Title: Upper body development in infants

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1 1. Abstract

2 Our goal was to determine how the actions of the thorax and the pelvis are organized 3 and coordinated to achieve independent sitting posture in typically developing infants. 4 The participants were ten typically developing infants that were evaluated longitudinally 5 from first onset of sitting until sitting independence. Each infant underwent nine testing 6 sessions. The first session included motor evaluation with the Peabody test. The other 7 eight sessions occurred over a period of four months where sitting behavior was 8 evaluated by angular kinematics of the thorax and the pelvis. A physical therapist 9 evaluated sitting behavior in each session and categorized it according to five stages. The 10 phasing relationship of the thorax and the pelvis was calculated and evaluated 11 longitudinally using a one-way ANOVA. With development the infants progressed from 12 an in-phase (moving in the same direction) to an out-of-phase (moving in an opposite 13 direction) coordinative relationship between the thorax and the pelvis segments. This 14 change was significant for both the sagittal and frontal planes of motion. Clinically, this 15 relationship is important because it provides a method to quantify infant sitting postural 16 development, and can be used to assess efficacy of early interventions for pediatric 17 populations with developmental motor delays.

18 <u>Keywords: infant sitting, coordination, dynamical systems theory, motor</u>
 19 <u>development.</u>
 20

- 21
- 22

24	2. Abbreviations
25	DST – Dynamical Systems Theory
26	MARP – Mean Absolute Relative Phase
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47 **3. Text**

48 Introduction

49 During the acquisition of the simplest form of a skill, such as sitting, postural control 50 is the primary goal in order to be successful. However, if we consider that postural 51 control is the complex interaction of controlling and coordinating the numerous factors of 52 the central nervous system, the task of sitting looks like an impossible skill to be 53 acquired. Therefore, investigators have been interested in identifying how we actually 54 develop this skill and several theories have been proposed to explain the development of 55 postural control. These theories elicit basically hierarchical explanations, where skill is the outcome of mature executive function from the motor cortex, or a motor program 56 57 located at the spinal cord or at the brainstem (1,2). However, these theories have not been 58 successful in defining the relationship between the earlier and later forms of the behavior 59 or explaining the synergistic action of the various cooperating components that contribute 60 to the development of the behavior (3). The Dynamical Systems Theory (DST) provides 61 an alternative approach to the development of posture control. According to DST, development of posture control, and generally movement skills, is a product not only of 62 63 central and cognitive information, but arises from the synergistic organization of the neuromuscular system and the morphological, biomechanical and environmental 64 constraints (1,3). Utilizing this approach, Thelen and colleagues were able to explain 65 stepping performance in newborns and identify that the "disappearance" of the newborn 66 stepping response at about 2 months is not due to changes in central processes but was 67 due to the alterations that occur due to parallel development in body size and composition 68 69 (4). Similarly, the same group has found that newborns can elicit adult-like steps when 70 walking on a treadmill due to the mechanical backward stretch by the belt on the legs.
71 This stretch practically provided the necessary hip strength needed for walking which is
72 absent in newborns and eventually occurs due to development (5). Therefore, we
73 anticipate that the DST framework can provide with similar insights for another motor
74 milestone, the development of sitting posture, a skill which has not received much
75 research attention.

76 From a DST perspective, the emergence of a movement behavior can be viewed as a 77 path toward a stable attractor, which is the preferred behavioral state of the system (1,3). 78 Attractors can be described quantitatively by evaluating the order parameter. In the 79 studies mentioned above by Thelen and colleagues, interjoint and interlimb coordination 80 have been utilized as order parameters (5,6). To elicit behavioral changes and explore 81 how an order parameter differs from one attractor to another, the control parameter is 82 employed. In the studies mentioned above, hip strength as provided by a motorized 83 treadmill or changes in gravity utilizing buoyancy have been used as control parameters. 84 By scaling the control parameter, we can observe changes in behavior and we can 85 describe the different attractors of the dynamical system in question. Previous studies that 86 investigated standing postural control, used as the control parameter different support 87 surfaces (7,8) and a suprapostural tracking task (9). Previous work has also demonstrated 88 that relative phase, which describes the coordinative relationship between the segments of 89 the lower extremity, is a suitable order parameter that can elucidate the collective states 90 of the neuromuscular system during standing (7-9). Therefore, DST provides also the 91 advantage of describing the dynamic state of the neuromuscular system by 92 acknowledging a single variable, relative phase.

93 Even though the above theoretical framework can provide a basis for the exploration 94 of infant sitting postural control, limited attention has been directed towards the 95 understanding of the mechanisms involved in the postural control of sitting during 96 development (10). Most of the existing literature on postural control of infants is focused 97 on the examination of the development of postural adjustments during reaching (11-14). 98 There are only few studies that have investigated solely the development of sitting 99 postural control in infants. In these investigations, kinematic and electromyographic 100 analysis was utilized to describe sitting posture, while a movable platform was employed 101 to perturb postural control (15,16). Using a different paradigm, Harbourne and Stergiou 102 analyzed the development of sitting postural control in infants by exploring the variability 103 of the center of pressure during infant sitting using a force platform (16). The 104 development of posture was not approached as a process directed toward maximum 105 balance resulting in a rigid and motionless body over the center of the base of support. 106 On the contrary, variations present in the sitting postural sway during development were 107 viewed not as noise that needs to be removed from the system, but as a basin rich in 108 important environmental information. From this perspective, postural control develops as 109 an ongoing process of improving sitting posture by managing available degrees of 110 freedom. They also suggested that this process would enable the children at first to be 111 fairly accurate in accessing the skill of sitting independently and then to explore more 112 freely their environment. Importantly, they hypothesized that a significant component of 113 gaining the ability to sit and coordinate the superincumbent body segments over the base 114 of support includes the ability to control the thorax over the pelvis.

115 Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to implement the DST framework to 116 examine the development of sitting postural control in typically developing infants by 117 investigating the coordination of the thorax and pelvis segments. The motions of the 118 thorax and the pelvis were evaluated longitudinally in terms of their relative phase 119 relationship in typically developing infants from the first onset of sitting, and up to the 120 point that they can sit independently. For the present study, change in the physiological 121 and neuromuscular systems (natural development) served as the control parameter. We 122 hypothesized that through development, we will be able to discern a movement in the 123 opposite direction (a more out-of-phase relationship) between the thorax and pelvis 124 segment in order to achieve independent sitting. Clinically, the quantification of this 125 relationship is important because it can provide with a method to evaluate infant sitting postural development and eventually to assess efficacy of early interventions for infants 126 127 with developmental motor delays.

128 Methods

129 Subjects

The participants in this study were 10 typically developing infants (Table 1). The infants were followed from the age of around five months to eight months, the time when infants are learning to sit independently. Infants were recruited from employee announcements at the campus of the University of Nebraska at Omaha and at the Munroe-Meyer Institute, University of Nebraska Medical Center.

The inclusion criteria for entry into the study for the typically developing infants were: a) a score on the Peabody within 0.5 SD of the mean, b) age of about five months at the time of initial data collection, c) the ability of the child to hold up their head when supported at the thorax, d) beginning ability to reach for objects dangled in front of them in supported sitting or lying on their back, e) propping on their elbows when in prone for thirty seconds and f) propping on both arms to maintain sitting. The exclusion criteria were: a) a score on the Peabody of greater than 0.5 SD below the mean, b) diagnosed visual deficits, and c) diagnosed musculoskeletal problems. Prior to participation an informed consent form was signed by the parents of the infants. <u>The study has been</u> approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Nebraska Medical

145 <u>Center.</u>

146 Experimental design

Each infant participated in nine sessions. The first session lasted for 45 minutes and 147 148 was used to perform the Peabody. The Peabody is a norm-and criterion-referenced test 149 that examines gross motor function in children from birth to 83 months (17). The other 150 eight sessions were distributed over a period of four months. The infants were tested 151 twice in one week at each of the four months of the study. A physical therapist ranked 152 each infant's sitting behavior at each session according to five stages of sitting: 1) Prop 153 sitting, 1.5) Transition-moves briefly out of prop –sit, but goes back to it, 2) Variable, 154 about 10 seconds of sitting, 2.5) Not solid stage 3, but longer than 10 seconds of sitting 155 and 3) Sits upright all the time-doesn't need hands. Stage identification was always 156 performed by the same physical therapist (author RTH). Even though more than one 157 session could be identified at the same stage of sitting, the three trials required by each 158 infant for a specific stage were chosen from the same session. Stages of sitting were 159 considered the appropriate independent variable of development, because of the wide 160 variability of age at which the infants began to sit.

161 Protocol

For all sessions, the infants were allowed time to get used to the laboratory setting, and were at <u>their parent's side or on their lap for preparation</u>. A standard set of infant toys was used for distraction and comfort, accompanied by a DVD player, which presented infant movies. All attempts were made to maintain a calm, alert state by allowing the infant to eat if hungry, be held by a parent for comforting, or adapt the temperature of the room to the infant's comfort level.

168 After the child was undressed by the mother, two sets of triangles with one reflective 169 marker in each corner were glued with a double face tape in two locations (Figure 1A): 170 around the spinous process at the level of the axilla, so as the upper side of the triangle 171 was parallel to the shoulder's mediolateral line and the second triangle was placed 172 midway between the left and right posterior superior iliac spine so as one side of the 173 triangle was parallel to the level of the pelvic crest. After positioning the reflective 174 markers, the infants were placed by their parent on the top of a force plate that was 175 covered with a special pad for warmth which was securely adhered with tape on the force 176 plate. The baby was held in the sitting position in the middle of the plate when calm and 177 happy (Figure 1B). The investigator and the parent remained at one side and in front of 178 the infant respectively during all data collection to assure the infant does not fall or 179 become insecure. The child was held at the thorax for support, and gradually the infant 180 was guided into a sitting position while being distracted by toys presented by the parent 181 or the investigator or a DVD movie. Once the examiner could completely let go of the 182 infant, data were collected continuously while the child maintained sitting (Figure 1B). 183 Data were collected until we had three trials that were acceptable for our criteria, or until the infants were indicating that they were done. If the child became irritated the session was halted for comforting by the parent, or a chance of feeding, and then resumed only when the child was again in a calm state.

187 Data Analysis

188 Kinematic data were collected using a six camera motion analysis system (Vicon, 189 Oxford Metrics Group, Oxford, UK) at a sampling rate of 60 Hz. The lightweight 190 reflective markers (Figure 1) were tracked by the system, and recorded in three-191 dimensional space. Specifically, the local coordinate systems (Figure 2) defined the 192 origin of each segment (pelvis and thorax), with respect to the global reference system of 193 the laboratory. Thereafter, the angular kinematic data were calculated relative to the fixed 194 global coordinate system of the laboratory. The movement patterns of the thorax and the 195 pelvis were viewed as inverted pendulums. Furthermore, video of each trial was collected 196 using two Panasonic video cameras (Model 5100 HS) and processed for split screen 197 video imaging using a Panasonic Digital AV Mixer (Model WJ-MX30). The cameras 198 were positioned to record a sagittal and a frontal view of the subject.

Three acceptable trials of 8.3 seconds were selected from each testing session using the video record and the following criteria: a) infant did not move the arms (not reaching, holding an object, or flapping their arms), b) infant did not vocalize or cry, c) infant was not in the process of falling, d) thorax was not inclined more than 45 degrees to either side, e) not being touched, f) the arm position (propping or not propping) of the infants was noted during the entire trial and only trials that have the infant using consistent base of support was used. Test re-test reliability of trial identification was 0.99. Out of the 240 trials in total required to examine infant sitting posture across stages of sitting, we wereable to identify 239 acceptable trials based on our criteria.

The six reflective markers attached in the form of two triangles, defined a twosegment model comprised of the pelvis and the thorax (Figure 2). Coordination of these segments was examined in the sagittal and the frontal plane. The angular kinematic data acquired were used to examine the coordination pattern between the thorax and the pelvis. The data were filtered using a 0.5Hz low pass, second order Butterworth filter. The 0.5Hz as a cut-off frequency was selected based on power spectrum evaluation and phase portrait qualitative analysis.

215 To examine the coordination between the two segments, the phase portraits for the 216 thorax and the pelvis were generated (Figure 3), which is a plot of each segment's 217 position versus its velocity (18). The phase portrait analysis follows Rosen's suggestion 218 (18) that the behavior of a dynamical system may be captured by a variable and its first 219 derivative with respect to time. Once the phase portraits were constructed, the resulting 220 phase plane trajectories were transformed from Cartesian (x, y) to polar coordinates with a phase angle $\Phi = \tan^{-1}[y/x]$ and radius (19). Phase angle ranged from zero to ± 180 221 222 degrees. The phase angles of the segments' trajectories were used to calculate relative 223 phasing relationships between the actions of the two respective segments for the period of 224 sitting. Relative phase represents the coordinative relationship between the actions of two 225 segments at every point during a specific time domain. In other words, relative phase 226 indicates how the two segments were coupled in their movements while performing the 227 sitting task. Relative phase was calculated by subtracting the distal phase angle (thorax) 228 from the proximal phase angle (pelvis). Relative phase values close to zero designated 229 that the two segments were moving in similar fashion or in-phase, while values close to 230 180 indicated that the two segments moved exactly opposite or out-of-phase. Relative 231 phase curves were not time normalized since the time length of all sitting trials selected 232 were 8.3 seconds. The relative phase curves were also averaged and mean ensemble 233 curves were generated from all infants and for each testing session (by averaging the 234 three acceptable trials) for the evaluation of the postural control during sitting. 235 Furthermore, the mean of the absolute values for all points of the relative phase (MARP) 236 mean ensemble curve was calculated. This parameter captured in a single value the entire 237 relative phase curve. Thus, MARP values close to zero designated that the two segments 238 were moving in similar fashion or in-phase, while values close to 180 indicated that the 239 two segments moved opposite or out-of-phase. All the above analysis was performed by 240 custom written laboratory software in Matlab (The MathWorks, Natick, MA).

241 Statistical Analysis

242 Based on the physical therapist's evaluation of each session's sitting behavior for each 243 infant, five groups of sitting were formed and tested statistically. Group means and 244 standard deviations were calculated for the MARP for each stage and for both planes. 245 Because we had an unequal number of observations at each stage of sitting, we did not 246 perform repeated measures ANOVA. Instead, one-way between stages of sitting ANOVA 247 with a test for linear trend was performed on the subjects' means for each parameter 248 using the SPSS software. A Tukey multiple comparison post hoc analysis was also 249 performed to identify the location of the significant differences for all tests resulting in a significant F-ratio. All statistical tests were evaluated at the 0.05 level for significance. 250

251 **Results**

252 An example of time series data for pelvis and thorax at the onset and at the last stage 253 of sitting, as well as the corresponding phase portraits, are presented in Figure 3. 254 Generally, the angular position of the thorax and the pelvis at the onset of sitting seems to 255 be very similar. Alternatively, at the end of the study the angular positions of the two 256 segments seems to be the opposite; when the angular position of the thorax decreases, the 257 angular position of the pelvis increases and vice versa. The phase portraits demonstrated 258 a cyclic movement by the formation of a closed cyclic path. Even though this pattern is 259 not a perfect circle we can reasonably conclude that pelvis and thorax segments have an oscillatory nature, which in DST phraseology this constitutes a limit cycle type of 260 261 behavioral attractor (19).

MARP values at the onset and conclusion of the study are presented in Table 2 for each subject. MARP values in the sagittal plane significantly increased (F=4.406, df=4, p=0.003), demonstrating a more out-of-phase relationship, as the infants improved their ability of sitting. The post hoc analysis test revealed significant differences between the first and the third stage of sitting with the latter presenting larger values (Figure 4A). A significantly increasing linear trend (F=15.743, p<0.001) was found for MARP in the sagittal plane from stage one to stage three (Figure 4A).

MARP in the frontal plane of motion significantly increased (F=2.742, df=4, p=0.034). The post hoc analysis revealed significant differences between the first stage and the 2.5 stage, with 2.5 stage showing slightly larger values (Figure 4B). A significantly increasing linear trend (F=6.253, p=0.014) for MARP in the frontal plane from stage one to stage three (Figure 4B).

274 **Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to examine and identify any changes in the coordination pattern of the thorax and the pelvis during sitting in infants that may take place with development. The DST was used as the theoretical platform to examine coordination.

279 Our results verified our hypotheses for both sagittal and frontal planes of motion. The preferred behavioral state of infant sitting postural control was an out-of-phase 280 281 relationship between the thorax and the pelvis. This conclusion was made due to the fact 282 that at the latter stages of sitting when the infants demonstrated the ability to sit 283 independently for long periods of time, the values of relative phase were much higher 284 than the first stages of sitting and closer to 180°. These values are indicative of an out-of-285 phase relationship and were also noticeable from the example presented in Figure 3. 286 Therefore, the DST framework was able to define the relationship between the earlier and 287 later forms of the sitting behavior and explain the synergistic action of the various 288 cooperating components that contribute to the development of the sitting posture.

289 In addition, we hypothesized that at the onset of sitting, we had a different behavioral 290 state or attractor. Infants presented a more in-phase relationship between the two 291 segments both in the sagittal and frontal planes. The value of MARP for stage 1 in the 292 sagittal plane was approximately 75°. Even though the value is not 0°, in order to indicate 293 an absolute in-phase relationship of thorax and pelvis at the onset of sitting, it can be 294 concluded that it is a rather in-phase relationship at the onset of sitting behavior. 295 Moreover, as the infants matured physiologically and became more experienced, the 296 value of MARP increased and reached 120° which is closer to 180° and rather an out-of-297 phase relationship of the two segments. This demonstrates a clear behavioral transition 298 for the sagittal plane of movement. Similarly, in the frontal plane the values of MARP 299 presented a significant trend to increase with development. However, the values of 300 MARP for the frontal plane on the third stage of sitting dropped to approximately 105°, 301 similar to stage two, while the range of change in MARP was not as large as in the 302 sagittal plane. It can be speculated that at the onset of sitting skill infants were not able to 303 control efficiently the thorax and the pelvis motion and the activation of the postural 304 muscles. In contrast, with development and experience infants accomplish to 305 synergistically self-organize the most appropriate degrees of freedom and conclude to the 306 appropriate sitting pattern. This result may be due to biomechanical and/or 307 neuromuscular constraints, such as the fat tissue stored around the pelvis of the infants, 308 which may limit the movement of the upper body in the frontal plane.

309 Theoretical mechanical aspects of sitting postural control should also be considered 310 (20), regarding the results of the present study. To achieve independent sitting posture, 311 the body center of mass must remain within the base of support. When there is an in-312 phase relationship between two segments this will lead to an unstable behavioral state. 313 This instability does not allow the system to counteract and keep the center of mass 314 (COM) within the stability limits (Figure 5). Specifically, when both the thorax and the 315 pelvis move in the same direction, they move as one segment which has its axis of 316 Thus, as the gravity and the force produced from the rotation at the pelvis. 317 neuromuscular system pushes the system in one direction, the center of mass steps out of 318 the base of support, and falling occurs. The opposite holds true with an out-of-phase 319 relationship, which is more stable behavioral state. Particularly, when the thorax and the pelvis move in the opposite direction, the axis of rotation is located between the two 320

321 segments. Hence, as the gravity and the force produced from the neuromuscular system 322 pushes the segments in the opposite direction, the center of mass is prohibited from 323 stepping out of the base of support, and sitting occurs (Figure 5). <u>This synergistic action</u> 324 <u>of the cooperating components contributes to the development of the sitting posture.</u>

325 The results of the present study could not be compared directly with other studies because there are no investigations examining coordination of thorax and pelvis in 326 327 infants. Woollacott et al (21) reported that infants as young as five months produce 328 directionally postural responses as a result to perturbation in the trunk, while other infants 329 did not. This result suggests that the organization of postural responses is not predetermined but arises from the synergistic interaction of the neuromuscular system as 330 331 well as other constrains (21). Therefore, the coordination of the trunk and pelvis 332 segments in infants acquiring the sitting skill should be governed by the same principles. 333 An interesting observation of our data is that individual patterns have emerged regardless 334 of the average picture of the statistical analysis, especially in the frontal plane of motion. 335 Specifically, four out of the 10 infants presented decreasing values of MARP in the frontal plane, when comparing the onset with the last stage. Interestingly, these infants 336 337 were the ones that appeared to have greater weight initially and at the last stage from 338 almost all the other infants. Therefore, biomechanical constraints, such as weight, may 339 have influenced the acquirement of the sitting skill in those infants and eventually regulated appropriate coordination of the thorax and pelvis mostly through the sagittal 340 341 plane of motion. Variation between subjects, but also within subjects is one of the main characteristics of infant motor development and it has been observed in multiple studies 342 343 (14<u>, 15).</u>

344 A limitation of the present study is that data were analyzed on the basis of the infant's 345 motor behavior, i.e. the infant's ability to sit. This means that the developmental changes 346 in MARP reflect the developmental changes in what the child is doing, i.e. the data 347 mainly reflect whether the child sits with support of the arms (first 2 stages) or without 348 support of the arms. It is well known that even minimal support of the arms induces large 349 changes in postural control (28). However, we decided to utilize this approach because 350 this is the natural behavioral response by the infant while developing the ability to sit and 351 thus we did not want to exclude it from the analysis.

352 In conclusion, the preferred behavioral state of infant sitting postural control was an 353 out-of-phase relationship between the thorax and the pelvis for the sagittal and frontal 354 planes. In addition, at the onset of sitting, we had a different behavioral state. We believe 355 that the investigation of sitting postural control through the coordination of the thorax and 356 the pelvis can assess the development of infant sitting posture and can quantify 357 objectively, by means of a single variable, incremental change through the development 358 of infant sitting postural control. Furthermore, there is lack of knowledge on which 359 treatments are most efficacious for children that present developmental delays at an early 360 age. Hence, the proposed method of evaluating sitting postural control could be a 361 valuable tool for the study of therapeutic interventions directed at improving the postural 362 control of infants with motor delays.

363

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Weight (kg)		Age (Weeks)		Gender	
Subjects	Start	End	Start	End	
1	8.26	9.48	22.14	35.00	Male
2	7.24	8.16	18.29	31.43	Female
3	6.42	7.55	22.29	38.43	Female
4	5.81	6.42	18.14	32.57	Female
5	7.85	8.87	20.29	32.43	Female
6	7.14	8.57	22.14	34.29	Female
7	7.24	8.06	22.29	34.43	Female
8	8.16	8.97	24.00	37.00	Female
9	7.34	7.85	18.29	30.29	Female
10	6.73	7.34	22.57	32.57	Female
Mean	7.22	8.13	21.04	33.84	
SD	0.76	0.90	2.13	2.51	

Table 1 – Descriptive characteristics of the subjects at onset and conclusion of the study.

		MA	RP	
	Sta	rt	En	l
Subjects	Sagittal	Frontal	Sagittal	Frontal
1	115.9	74.0	137.8	119.6
2	133.7	158.3	151.6	126.5
3	85.0	75.5	79.4	117.5
4	66.7	85.3	128.4	93.7
5	58.7	63.4	105.4	83.4
6	121.4	127.9	127.2	118.6
7	92.5	127.5	152.4	96.4
8	52.7	100.7	88.0	78.4
9	40.1	59.7	88.1	72.6
10	61.3	70.9	114.7	134.7
Mean	82.8	94.3	117.3	104.1
SD	32.1	33.2	26.6	21.9

Table 2 – MARP values in the sagittal and frontal planes at onset and conclusion of the

430 study.

5. Figure Legends

Figure 1A - Rear view of the position of the infant during data collection.



Figure 1B - Side view of the position of the infant during data collection.



Figure 2 - Schematic representation of the pelvis and the thorax segments.



- **Figure 3** Example of time series data for pelvis and thorax at the onset and end of the
- 467 <u>study as well as the corresponding phase portraits. Phase portraits provide a qualitative</u>
- 468 picture of the organization of the neuromuscular system. Solid line represents the pelvis
- 469 while the dotted line represents the thorax.





479 Figure 4 A - Group mean values and standard error for MARP in the sagittal plane. B -

502 Figure 5 - Schematic representation of the in-phase and the out-of-phase coordinative
503 relationships between two connected segments.



Out-of-Phase

