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Nonlinear analysis of sitting postural sway indicates developmental delay in infants

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ABSTRACT

1 *Background:* Upright sitting is one of the first developmental motor milestones achieved by
2 infants, and sitting postural sway provides a window into the developing motor control system. A
3 variety of posture sway measures can be used, but the optimal measures for infant development
4 have not been identified.

5 *Methods:* We have collected sitting postural sway data from two groups of infants, one with
6 typical development ($n = 33$), and one with delayed development and either diagnosed with or at
7 risk for cerebral palsy ($n = 26$), when the infants had developed to the point where they could
8 just maintain sitting for about 10 s. Postural sway data was collected while infants were sitting
9 on a force platform, and the center of pressure was analyzed using both linear and nonlinear
10 measures.

11 *Findings:* Our results showed that a nonlinear measure, the largest Lyapunov exponent, was the
12 only parameter of postural sway that revealed significant differences between infants with typical
13 versus delayed development. The largest Lyapunov exponent was found to be higher for
14 typically developing infants, indicating less repeated patterning in their movement coordination.

15 *Interpretations:* A nonlinear measure such as largest Lyapunov exponent may be useful as an
16 identifier of pathology and as a yardstick for the success of therapeutic interventions.

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20 **1. Introduction**

21 Cerebral palsy is a result of damage that occurs to the brain early in development,
22 typically before, during or shortly after birth. While cerebral palsy is non-progressive in that
23 there is no further degradation in neurological function with age, the result of the early damage
24 influences the rest of the infant's life in many ways, both medical and social. Motor control
25 abnormalities due to the initial neurological insult give rise to atypical movement patterns, which
26 in turn give rise to atypical development (Bleck, 1990). Motor development in infants with
27 cerebral palsy is delayed, meaning that developmental milestones such as sitting, standing, or
28 walking may occur later than in infants with typical development, and in severe cases these
29 milestones may never be met.

30 There is both strong theoretical support for the idea that early intervention may result in
31 more desirable outcome (Landsman, 2006), as well as evidence-based support (Blauw-Hospers,
32 et al., 2007; Blauw-Hospers & Hadders-Algra, 2005). Certainly intervention early in
33 development is seen as being beneficial among clinical practitioners (Gardner, 2005). Early
34 intervention requires early identification of infants who would benefit from the intervention,
35 however current methods for early identification of cerebral palsy are inadequate (Donohue &
36 Graham, 2007). Not only are many infants with cerebral palsy difficult to identify early, but false
37 positives can occur (Nelson & Ellenberg, 1982). Early and accurate identification of infants with
38 cerebral palsy allows appropriate allocation of resources to help those who would benefit, avoid
39 use of resources on those who would not, and avoids the unnecessary anxiety for parents that an
40 incorrect identification brings. Unfortunately, early identification is difficult; however, a lack of
41 complexity and low variation of movement is thought to be an indication that physical therapy
42 intervention is appropriate (Hadders-Algra, 2001).

43 Learning how to maintain upright sitting posture is an important motor developmental
44 milestone. Upright sitting allows visual exploration of the environment and serves as a stable
45 platform for reaching nearby objects. If sitting posture is not developed by age 2 years, there is a
46 significant chance that walking will never be achieved (Wu, et al., 2004; Fedrizzi, et al., 2000).
47 Additionally, because sitting is one of the first motor developmental milestones an infant
48 achieves in life, detecting abnormalities in infants' sitting posture control provides an
49 opportunity to identify infants with motor control pathologies much earlier in life than, for
50 example, waiting until the walking or talking milestones have been missed. Thus characterizing
51 sitting posture differences in infants with cerebral palsy and infants with typical development has
52 the potential to allow early and objective identification of infants who would benefit from
53 intervention (de Graaf-Peters, et al., 2007).

54 Linear techniques such as path length or range of movement can be used to describe how
55 much the center of pressure moves around (quantity of movement), but these techniques don't
56 give any information about how well controlled the movement is (quality of movement)
57 (Stergiou, et al., 2006). For example, one infant may have a large amount of postural sway due to
58 poor control of movement, whereas another infant may have a large amount of postural sway due
59 to exploration of the environment after good posture control skills have been learned. Thus
60 measures of the quantity of movement do not necessarily indicate the progress that an infant has
61 made in control of movement. What are needed are measures of the quality of the center of
62 pressure (COP) movement in order to develop a more complete understanding of the
63 development of postural control. Measures from nonlinear dynamics, such as the largest
64 Lyapunov exponent (LyE), approximate entropy (ApEn), and correlation dimension (CorrDim)
65 are promising new additions to the analytical tools used for physiologic time series analysis

66 (Stergiou, et al., 2004). Because these nonlinear analysis techniques are sensitive to patterns in
67 the data, rather than the overall magnitude of the fluctuations, they could be ideal tools for
68 quantifying the quality of postural sway, thus making them potentially clinically useful for
69 studying both the typical and pathological development of motor control in infants. There are a
70 number of different nonlinear analysis techniques, including ApEn, LyE, and CorrDim. ApEn is
71 a measure of system complexity made by counting how often patterns of different lengths repeat
72 in the time series (Pincus, 1991). The LyE is a measure of how rapidly trajectories diverge in
73 phase space, and the CorrDim estimates the dimensionality of the system (Sprott & Rowlands,
74 1998). See Stergiou, et al., (2004) for a more complete discussion of these nonlinear measures.

75 These three nonlinear measures are derived from chaos theory and from information
76 theory, and have higher values for a random signal and lower values for a periodic signal. A
77 random signal has no patterns in it, and a periodic signal, such as a sine function has a simple
78 pattern that repeats over and over again. While the analysis of the ideal signals can often be
79 interpreted in terms of randomness or complexity, the interpretation of physiologic signals is
80 considerably more difficult. Part of the difficulty lies in the fact that precise definitions of basic
81 terminology are still evolving. For example, whether a high value for approximate entropy
82 should be interpreted as higher complexity of the system (Vaillancourt and Newell, 2002a, b) or
83 merely as more random (Goldberger, et al., 2002) has not been resolved. A clear definition of
84 “complexity” is lacking. In comparing the results from different studies, one must be careful with
85 the language used, as “complexity” defined by one author may differ from “complexity” defined
86 by a different author.

87 In this paper we will speak of “optimal movement variability” as being indicative of the
88 middle ground between random and periodic (Stergiou, et al., 2006). A random response to a

89 stimulus would be maladaptive, just as an overly rigid pattern of response would be maladaptive.
90 In fact, the mid-ground between these extremes is likely the best control region for maintaining
91 appropriate responses. The mathematical theory of chaos, a branch of dynamical systems theory,
92 suggests that the middle-ground, the region of optimal movement variability, is likely chaotic.
93 The nonlinear measures that we have selected to use, ApEn, LyE, and CorrDim, all have high
94 values for random signal (no structure), low values for a periodic sine function (overly rigid
95 structure), and intermediate values for chaotic region where optimal movement variability is
96 found.

97 The actual assessment of chaos in experimental data is somewhat controversial due to
98 limitations of the experimental data (Rapp, 1994), but despite the mathematical controversy,
99 these algorithms have been successfully applied to many different biological and physiological
100 systems, including postural sway data. In standing posture, nonlinear techniques have been used
101 successfully to give insight into posture control. Nonlinear measures have been shown to be able
102 to discriminate between pathologic and non-pathologic populations using standing COP data,
103 and thus someday may be clinically useful measures. Patients with stroke (Roerdink, et al.,
104 2006), traumatic brain injury (Cavanaugh, et al., 2006), and Parkinson's disease (Vaillancourt &
105 Newell, 2000; Schmit, et al., 2006) have all been shown to differ from non-pathologic controls
106 using nonlinear measures applied to standing COP data. Most encouraging for the present study
107 is that COP data from standing posture in children with cerebral palsy has been found to differ
108 from typically developing children, using both linear and nonlinear measures (Rose, et al., 2002;
109 Donker, et al., 2008). Nonlinear measures of posture sway tend to decrease with pathology, when
110 significant changes are observed. This might be interpreted as being more periodic, less complex,
111 or less random.

112 The purpose of this paper was to investigate the use of sitting postural sway as a measure
113 of health of the motor control system in infants. To accomplish this, we have used several linear
114 and nonlinear time series analysis techniques to determine how sitting postural sway in typically
115 developing infants differs from developmentally delayed infants. We hypothesized that the
116 infants with developmental delay will have more periodic postural sway than typically
117 developing infants. Additionally, to further explore the relationships between these various
118 measures of postural sway, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated,
119 since highly correlated measures may be providing redundant information.

120

121 **2. Methods**

122 *2.1. Participants*

123 Twenty-six infants with developmental delay and 33 typically developing infants
124 participated in the study. Recruitment was done through newsletters, flyers, and pediatric
125 physical therapists employed at the University. Infants in the developmentally delayed group
126 were diagnosed with cerebral palsy, or else were developmentally delayed and at risk for
127 cerebral palsy (Table 1). At risk infants met one or more of the following conditions: premature
128 delivery, brain abnormality based on ultrasound or MRI, or significantly delayed gross motor
129 development as measured on standardized testing with no current diagnosis. Because a definitive
130 diagnosis of cerebral palsy had not been made, we refer to these infants as developmentally
131 delayed, because all scored below 1.5 SD below the mean for their corrected age on the Peabody
132 Gross Motor Scale (Folio and Fewell, 2000). However, the development is likely not just
133 delayed, but also atypical (Chen and Wollacott, 2007).

134 This study is part of a longitudinal study in which the infants with developmental delay

135 will have one of two different interventions. This analysis is of the data from the first month
136 only, before any interventions had started, so all infants with developmentally delay were
137 analyzed as a single group. A consent form was signed by a parent or guardian of all infant
138 participants, and all procedures were approved by the University of Nebraska Medical Center
139 Institutional Review Board.

140 *2.2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria*

141 Inclusion criteria for entry into the study for the typically developing infants were: a
142 score on the Peabody Gross Motor Scale of greater than 0.5 SD below the mean, age of 5 months
143 at the time of initial data collection, and sitting skills as described below in beginning sitting.
144 Exclusion criteria for the sample of infants who are typically developing were: a score on the
145 Peabody Gross Motor Scales less than 0.5 SD below the mean, diagnosed visual deficits, or
146 diagnosed musculoskeletal problems. If a typically developing infant was found to be less than
147 0.5 SD below the mean, and did not qualify for the study, the parents were informed of the score,
148 the possibility of error in the measurement, and advised to have the infant re-evaluated within the
149 next 3 months. Operational definitions of beginning sitting were used to determine the child's
150 readiness for entry into the study. Beginning sitting was defined as (a) head control such that
151 when trunk is supported at the mid-trunk, head is maintained for over one minute without
152 bobbing; (b) infant can track an object across midline without losing head control; (c) infant may
153 prop hands on floor or legs to lean on arms, but should not be able to reach and maintain balance
154 in the prop sit position; (d) when supported in sitting can reach for toy; (e) can prop on elbows in
155 the prone position for at least 30 s.

156 For the infants with developmental delay the inclusion and exclusion criteria were as
157 follows. Inclusion criteria were: age from 5 months to 2 years, score less than 1.5 SD below the

158 mean for their corrected age on the Peabody Gross Motor Scales, and sitting skills as described
159 above for beginning sitting. Exclusion criteria were: age over 2 years, a score greater than 1.5 SD
160 below the mean for their corrected age on the Peabody Gross Motor Scale, a diagnosed visual
161 impairment, or a diagnosed hip dislocation or subluxation greater than 50%.

162 *2.3. Data collection*

163 For data acquisition (Fig. 1), infants sat on an AMTI force plate (Watertown, MA),
164 interfaced to a computer system running Vicon data acquisition software (Lake Forest, CA).
165 Markers can be seen on the infant in Fig. 1, and kinematic data was also collected, but is not
166 discussed in this paper. COP data were acquired through the Vicon software at 240 Hz. A
167 frequency analysis of both the medial-lateral and anterior-posterior components of all the COP
168 time series from our preliminary data indicated that the range of signal frequencies that contain
169 99.99% of the overall signal power is between 1 and 29 Hz. Therefore, the sampling frequency
170 was set at 240 Hz in order to be above a factor of ten higher than the highest frequency that
171 might contain relevant signal.

172 For all data collection sessions, the infants were allowed time to get used to the
173 laboratory setting, and were at their parent's side or on their lap for preparation and data
174 collection. Infants were provided with a standard set of infant toys for distraction and comfort.
175 All attempts were made to maintain a calm, alert state by allowing the infant to eat if hungry, be
176 held by a parent for comforting, or adapting the temperature of the room to the infant's comfort
177 level. Testing was only proceeded when the infant was in a calm and relaxed state, not crying or
178 otherwise making extended vocalization. A blanket was placed over the plate for warmth and
179 was securely adhered with double sided tape on the ground. The investigator and the parent
180 remained at one side and in front of the infant respectively during all data collection, to assure

181 the infant did not fall or became insecure. The child was held at the trunk for support, and
182 gradually the infant was guided into a prop sitting position while being distracted by toys
183 presented by the parent. Once the examiner could completely let go of the infant, data were
184 collected for 10 s while the child attempted to maintain sitting postural control. Trials were
185 performed until we had collected three trials that are acceptable for our criteria, or until the infant
186 was indicating that they were done. At any time the child became irritated; the session was halted
187 for comforting by the parent or a chance for feeding, and then resumed only when the child was
188 again in a calm state. In some cases, if the infant was crying for a long period of time, then data
189 was not collected at that session. Infants came to the lab twice within a single week, and we
190 attempted to get three trials in each of the two sessions.

191 Segments of usable (described below) data were analyzed using custom MatLab software
192 (MathWorks, Nantick, MA). No filtering was performed on the data in order to not alter the
193 nonlinear results (Rapp, et al., 1993). Trials were recorded including force plate data and video
194 data from the back and side views. Afterwards segments were selected by viewing the
195 corresponding video. Segments of data with 2000 time steps (8.3 s at 240 Hz) were selected from
196 these trials by examination of the video. Acceptable segments were required to have no crying or
197 long vocalization, no extraneous items (e.g. toys) on the force platform, neither the assistant nor
198 the mother were touching the infant, the infant was not engaged in rhythmic behavior (e.g.
199 flapping arms), and the infant had to be sitting and could not be in the process of falling.

200 *2.4. Data Analysis*

201 Linear measures of the variability present in postural sway were calculated using
202 customized MatLab software from the COP time series, using the methodology of Prieto, et al.,
203 (1996), and included root-mean-square (RMS), maximum minus minimum (range), length of the

204 path traced by the COP (sway path), the area of a circle (circle area) that contains 95% of the
205 COP data points, and the area of an ellipse (ellipse area) that contains 95% of the COP data
206 points. Additionally, two frequency measures were included, median frequency and frequency
207 dispersion. These parameters were selected according to Chiari, et al., (2002), as being relatively
208 independent of biomechanical factors (e.g. height and weight), which might be expected to
209 change with development. These linear measures characterize the quantity or amount of
210 movement variability present in the data (Stergiou, et al., 2006).

211 Three nonlinear measures of variability were used, approximate entropy, largest
212 Lyapunov exponent, and correlation dimension. Nonlinear measures of the variability present in
213 postural sway were calculated from the COP time series as described by Harbourne and Stergiou
214 (2003) and Stergiou, et al., (2004). Specifically, the nonlinear measures of largest Lyapunov
215 Exponent (LyE) and the Correlation Dimension (CorrDim) were calculated using the Chaos Data
216 Analyzer software (professional version, Physics Academic Software; Sprott & Rowlands, 1998)
217 using an embedding dimension of six for all files, which had been determined as one higher than
218 the highest value for a representative sample of data segments using the Tools for Dynamics
219 software (Applied Nonlinear Sciences, LLC and Randle, Inc, Del Mar, CA). Using too low of an
220 embedding dimension results in points being next to each other in the phase space that do not
221 belong next to each other (i.e. too many false nearest neighbors); using too high of an embedding
222 dimension can lead to too few nearby trajectories to do the analysis. For consistency in the
223 analysis, the same embedding dimension was used for all files, even if they had a dimension
224 lower than 6. The Approximate Entropy (ApEn) was calculated using MatLab code developed
225 by Kaplan and Staffin (1996), implementing the methodology of Pincus (1991), using a lag value
226 of 4, an r value of 0.2 times the standard deviation of the data file, and a vector length m of 2.

227 These r and m values are typically used in the calculation of ApEn for physiologic time series
228 (Pincus and Goldberger, 1994), and the lag 4 values was used due to slight contamination of the
229 240 Hz signal with a 60 Hz sinusoidal line noise. This noise was due to the electric power
230 distribution in North America being at 60 Hz, which can result in contamination at this
231 frequency, and at harmonics of this frequency. All the above mentioned nonlinear measures
232 characterize the “quality” of movement variability present in the data by examining the patterns
233 and the order that exist in the COP time series by evaluating point-by-point the entire data set
234 (Stergiou, et al., 2006).

235 Infants came to the lab twice within a single week, and we attempted to get three trials in
236 each of the two sessions. Sometimes the infant would cry, or not stay seated on the force plate,
237 and data could not be collected for these sessions. Thus the analysis results for six trials in most
238 cases, or fewer if we could not collect all six trials, were averaged, and statistical analysis
239 performed on the average. The infants in the developmental delay group were somewhat less
240 willing to sit for multiple trials, compared to infants in the typical development group. Infants
241 with developmental delay on average had 5.15 trials per infant; where as infants with typical
242 development had 5.55 trials per infant.

243 *2.5. Statistical Analysis*

244 Independent t -tests were used to compare the measures of postural sway from the infants
245 with typically development and the infants with delayed development. There were thirteen
246 different measures of postural sway that were compared, so significance was set at $P < .004$,
247 based on a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ($.05/13$). Additionally, Pearson
248 product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated between the different measures of
249 postural sway for the infants with typical development, and again for the infants with delayed

250 development. For the correlation analyses, there were 156 total correlations calculated, so the
251 significance level was set at $P < .000321$, based on the Bonferroni correction (.05/156). For
252 independent t-tests and correlation analysis (described in detail below), all the data available was
253 used.

254

255 **3. Results**

256 The age of the infants with typical development was 5.0 months (std 0.6 months). The
257 age of the infants with delayed development was 13.3 months (std 3.4) months. Thus the infants
258 with delayed development were older than those with typical development, as would be expected
259 since all the infants entered the study when they were at a similar level of motor skill
260 development (able to sit for about 10 s).

261 Results of independent t-tests showed significant differences between the typically
262 developing and delayed developing infants only for the Lyapunov exponent (Table 2), both in
263 the anterior-posterior direction and in the medial-lateral direction.

264 The correlation analysis showed that the linear measures of postural sway were often
265 strongly positively correlated with each other, except for sway path, for both infants with typical
266 development (Table 3) and infants with developmental delay (Table 4). The nonlinear measures
267 tended to not be strongly correlated with each other, except for the approximate entropy in the
268 anterior-posterior direction and the approximate entropy in the medial-lateral direction were
269 positively correlated.

270 Approximate entropy and correlation dimension were strongly negatively correlated with
271 many of the linear measures, but never with sway path. The Lyapunov exponent was not
272 significantly correlated with any of the linear or other nonlinear measures. These trends were

273 seen in postural sway from both infants with typical development and infants with delayed
274 development. There were more significant correlations of the postural sway measures for infants
275 with typical development, which may be due to a somewhat larger sample size ($n=33$ for typical
276 development group versus $n=26$ for delayed development group, over 25% more in the group
277 with typical development).

278

279 **4. Discussion**

280 We hypothesized that the infants with developmental delay likely due to cerebral palsy
281 will have more periodic postural sway than typically developing infants, and our data supported
282 this hypothesis. In fact, the Lyapunov exponent was found to be significantly higher for sitting
283 postural sway of typically developing infants than for delayed infants. Optimal variability theory
284 (Stergiou, et al., 2006) does not require that the LyE be less for the pathologic condition. Instead,
285 it suggests that there is an optimal value, and the pathology exists if the LyE is either too high or
286 too low. However, for posture data, with a fixed point intrinsic dynamic, the tendency is for more
287 regular postural sway to be associated with pathology (Vaillancourt & Newell, 2002a). The
288 ApEn and the CorrDim were not sensitive to differences between the two groups in the present
289 study, while the LyE was found to be more sensitive to the differences in postural sway
290 dynamics between these two populations than ApEn or CorrDim.

291 We included a variety of different linear and nonlinear analytical techniques for analysis
292 of postural sway data from sitting infants. The linear measures used in this study include range,
293 root-mean-square, length of the sway path, and area covered by the sway path. These linear
294 techniques were chosen from those considered by Chiari et al. (2002) for postural sway data as
295 being relatively insensitive to body mass parameters, an important consideration for a

296 methodology to be applied to developing infants whose mass is changing rapidly with growth.
297 The other class of postural sway measures that we included was nonlinear analysis techniques,
298 which were taken from nonlinear dynamics (chaos theory) and information theory. The nonlinear
299 analysis techniques included ApEn, LyE and CorrDim.

300 From all these measures, the LyE measure of postural sway was the only one of these
301 measures that was significantly different between infants with typical versus delayed
302 development. The infants with delayed development were found to have postural sway with a
303 lower LyE than infants with typical development. The Lyapunov exponent is derived from chaos
304 theory, and is a measure of how rapidly trajectories diverge in phase space (Alligood, et al.,
305 1996). The LyE is a classic test of whether a system is chaotic or not, with a positive LyE being
306 consistent with the system being chaotic. We would like to understand the nature of the
307 difference in the LyE between these groups.

308 As mentioned in the introduction, there are a wide variety of differences to be expected
309 between infants with cerebral palsy and infants with typical development. Dynamic systems
310 theory has been used to describe infant sitting (Thelen & Spencer, 1998), and we expect the
311 postural control system dynamics to be altered in infants with developmental delay or cerebral
312 palsy, as compared to infants with typical development. A limitation of this study is that because
313 we enrolled infants just as they were able to sit upright, the developmentally delayed infants
314 were older than the infants with typical development. Thus it is possible that age is a contributing
315 factor to the observed differences. However, we find that none of the linear measures showed a
316 significant difference between the postural sway of infants with delayed versus typical
317 development. Instead, the difference between the two groups was seen in the LyE, a measure that
318 is sensitive to patterns in the movement.

319 Mathematically, the LyE indicates exponential divergence of trajectories in phase space.
320 Embedding the postural sway data in a phase space means that, for example in a two dimensional
321 phase space, velocity would be plotted versus position. Imagine that at some point in time, the
322 postural COP data has a certain velocity and position. Then the infant sways around, but at a
323 later time the infant has the same velocity and position as the previous time. These two points
324 would be close to each other in the phase space plot. Does the infant's sway the second time
325 follow a similar trajectory as the first time, or does it diverge from the first trajectory, and if so
326 how much? The LyE quantifies this divergence. For our analysis, the data was embedded in a six
327 dimensional phase space, using position, velocity, acceleration, etc. for six parameters (position
328 plus 5 derivatives), but the concept is the same. A higher LyE indicates more divergence of the
329 trajectories.

330 Our interpretation of the LyE relevant to clinical considerations, which is somewhat
331 speculative, is that the COP from an infant with more diversity in motor control strategies will
332 follow different trajectories, whereas the COP from an infant with limited diversity in motor
333 control strategies will tend to follow a similar trajectory each time, with the result being less
334 divergence in the trajectories, and a correspondingly lower LyE. Thus the infants with delayed
335 development appear to have less diversity in their motor control strategies than infants with
336 typical development, based on the lower LyE values seen in the COP from sitting postural sway.
337 Our assumption is that the infants with typical development have better motor control, and thus
338 we speculate that the diversity in motor control strategies has a benefit, perhaps that the infants
339 with typical development are exploring a wider variety of solutions to postural control, and/or
340 that infants with delayed development are freezing degrees of freedom in order to have fewer
341 control parameters to have to manipulate as they maintain upright posture. This interpretation

342 supports the notion that the therapist should select activities that allow and encourage the infant
343 to explore different strategies in motor control, rather than identical repetition of a single task.

344 In order to gain additional insight into the relationships between these various measures
345 of postural sway, we looked at the correlations between the variables. If two variables are highly
346 correlated, measuring one does not provide new ability to discriminate between two populations
347 that the other has not already provided. Variables with low correlations to other variables are of
348 interest because they potentially measure different aspects of the system. For example, the
349 Lyapunov exponent and COP root-mean-square were two such variables with low correlation in
350 this study. Of these, it was the Lyapunov exponent that was sensitive to whatever aspect of
351 movement that was different about the sitting postural sway of infants with developmental delay
352 and infants with typical development, where as root-mean-square was not. In fact, the LyE was
353 not highly correlated with any of the other variables, consistent with it being a uniquely useful
354 measure. A more in-depth analysis of the relationships between these variables using principle
355 component analysis is published elsewhere (Harbourne et al., 2009).

356

357 **5. Conclusions**

358 The ability to discriminate between the typical and delayed development groups using
359 nonlinear analysis of postural sway has the potential to add to the specificity of diagnosis in the
360 early months of life, when most standardized tests of infant development have little predictive
361 value. In addition, information from postural measures may aid the therapist in decision-making
362 for therapeutic intervention and goal setting. Furthermore, it is desirable be able to objectively
363 quantify progress being made by intervention in the developmentally delayed population,
364 assuming that the therapeutic intervention moves the quality of their movement patterns towards

365 that of the typically developing population. Sensitive objective measures that can quantify
366 changes in motor control of specific tasks would be useful in assessment of various interventions
367 designed to assist developmentally delayed infants to achieve more typical movement patterns.
368 An approach that includes nonlinear measures of postural sway, optimized for infant sitting
369 posture data, may contribute to these goals in the future. More work is needed to determine if
370 these potential benefits of nonlinear analysis can be realized in clinical work.

371

372 **Conflict of interest statement**

373 No authors listed in conjunction with this manuscript submission demonstrate any form
374 of conflict of interest, be it financial or otherwise.

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385

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- 474

475 **Table 1**

476 Subject information for infants included in the developmentally delayed group.

477

Subject	Diagnosis at 2 years old	Severity	GMFCS
1. C01	Spastic Quadriplegic CP	Severe	4
2. C02	Right Hemiplegic CP	Mild	1
3. C03	Right Hemiplegic CP	Mild	1
4. C04	Hypotonic, overall delays	Moderate	3
5. C05	Hypotonic, overall delays	Mild ^a	n/a
6. C06	Premature (28 weeks), BPD	Mild ^a	n/a
7. C07	Premature (28 weeks), BPD	Mild ^a	n/a
8. C08	Spastic lower extremities	Moderate	1
9. C09	Hypotonic, overall delays	Severe	3
10. C10	Athetoid CP	Moderate	2
11. C12	Mixed Quadriplegic CP	Moderate	3
12. C13	Spastic Quadriplegic CP	Severe	4
13. C14	Spastic Quadriplegic CP	Severe	4
14. C15	Right Hemiplegic CP	Mild	1
15. C17	Noonan's Syndrome	Mild ^a	n/a
16. C18	Athetoid CP	Moderate	3
17. C19	Spastic Quad CP & MD	Moderate	3
18. C20	Spastic Quadriplegic CP	Severe	4
19. C21	Undiagnosed; motor delay	Moderate	2

20. C23	Spastic Quadriplegic CP	Severe	4
21. C24	Mental Retardation	Mild ^a	n/a
22. C25	Spastic Diplegia	Moderate	2
23. C26	Premature, hearing impaired	Mild ^a	n/a
24. C27	Premature	Mild ^a	n/a
25. C29	Premature, left side weakness	Mild	1
26. C30	Premature	Mild ^a	n/a

478 ^aDiagnosis of CP excluded, BPD = Brochial Pulmonary Dysplasia, MD = Muscular Dystrophy
 479 (Duchenne's), GMFCS = Gross Motor Function Classification Scale, n/a indicates GMFCS is
 480 not applicable unless infant is diagnosed with cerebral palsy. (Palisano et al., 1997)

481

482 **Table 2**

483 Independent t-tests comparing postural sway measures of infants with typical development with
 484 infants who have delayed development.

	DD ^a		TD ^b		<i>P</i>
	Mean	Std	Mean	Std	
<i>Linear</i>					
RMS AP	6.61	3.22	6.88	2.67	0.729
RMS ML	6.31	2.90	7.30	2.24	0.143
Range AP	32.63	12.96	37.86	11.70	0.110
Range ML	29.92	12.11	36.46	10.23	0.028
Sway Path	1024.26	222.31	1110.80	221.84	0.143
Circle	1037.32	834.03	1139.52	678.28	0.606
Ellipse	823.07	649.81	1017.00	661.95	0.265
<i>Nonlinear</i>					
ApEn AP	0.613	0.245	0.695	0.213	0.171
ApEn ML	0.528	0.187	0.533	0.196	0.923
LyE AP	0.092	0.016	0.108	0.011	0.000
LyE ML	0.077	0.012	0.087	0.008	0.000
CorDim AP	4.262	0.306	4.357	0.261	0.204
CorDim ML	4.268	0.328	4.274	0.231	0.934

* Significant at $P < .004$

^a $n = 26$

^b $n = 33$

486 **Table 3**

487 Correlations between different measures of postural sway for infants with typical development.

	Linear						Nonlinear					
	RMS ML	Range		SwayPath	Circle	Ellipse	ApEn	LyE		CorrDim		
		AP	ML				AP	ML	AP	ML	AP	
<i>Linear</i>												
RMS AP	0.63*	0.94*	0.65*	0.10	0.93*	0.91*	-0.63*	-0.40	-0.04	0.10	-0.83*	
RMS ML		0.58	0.96*	-0.04	0.82*	0.80*	-0.67*	-0.79*	0.15	-0.23	-0.59	
Range AP			0.63*	0.26	0.86*	0.86*	-0.55	-0.37	0.02	0.20	-0.72*	
Range ML				0.00	0.81*	0.78*	-0.64*	-0.74*	0.18	-0.13	-0.63*	
SwayPath					0.01	0.04	0.14	0.10	0.29	0.33	0.12	
Circle						0.99*	-0.66*	-0.56	0.05	-0.03	-0.79*	
Ellipse							-0.65*	-0.54	0.04	-0.06	-0.76*	
<i>Nonlinear</i>												
ApEn AP								0.82*	0.19	0.16	0.54	
ApEn ML									-0.10	0.23	0.36	
LyE AP										0.45	0.15	
LyE ML											0.07	
CorDim AP												

* Significant at $P < .000321$; $n = 33$.

489 **Table 4**

490 Correlations between different measures of postural sway for infants with delayed development.

	Linear						Nonlinear					
	RMS ML	Range		SwayPath	Circle	Ellipse	ApEn	LyE		CorrDim		
		AP	ML				AP	ML	AP	ML	AP	ML
<i>Linear</i>												
RMS AP	0.49	0.94*	0.52	0.23	0.85*	0.85*	-0.56	-0.44	-0.23	0.11	-0.81*	-0.30
RMS ML		0.50	0.97*	-0.20	0.80*	0.82*	-0.22	-0.73*	0.18	-0.14	-0.31	-0.44
Range AP			0.57	0.30	0.80*	0.81*	-0.50	-0.36	-0.17	0.24	-0.71*	-0.26
Range ML				-0.10	0.81*	0.84*	-0.16	-0.63	0.24	-0.01	-0.31	-0.44
SwayPath					0.08	0.03	0.05	0.44	-0.16	0.19	0.02	0.27
Circle						0.98*	-0.41	-0.58	-0.07	-0.08	-0.66*	-0.37
Ellipse							-0.44	-0.65	-0.02	0.00	-0.66*	-0.40
<i>Nonlinear</i>												
ApEn AP								0.63	0.53	0.21	0.63	0.19
ApEn ML									0.14	0.34	0.42	0.39
LyE AP										0.55	0.37	0.14
LyE ML											0.01	0.08
CorDim AP												0.40

* Significant at $P < .000321$; $n = 26$.

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492

493 **Fig. 1.** Infant sits on force plate for data collection, with researcher, parent and sibling nearby.

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