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Biomechanical comparison of squatting and “optimal” supine birth positions

David DESSEAUVE^{a,b}, MD, MPH, PhD; Laetitia FRADET^b, PhD; Bertrand GACHON^a MD; Yosra Cherni^b, PhD; Patrick LACOUTURE^b, PhD; Fabrice PIERRE^a, MD

^a Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology and Reproductive Medicine,
University Hospital, Poitiers University, Poitiers, France.

^b Pprime Institute - CNRS UPR 3346, Axis RoBioSS, Poitiers University, Poitiers, France

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Correspondence to:

Dr. David Desseauve

Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology and Reproductive Medicine,
CHU de Poitiers, 2 rue de la Milétrie, CS 90577, 86021 Poitiers Cedex, France.

E-mail: david.desseauve@chuv.ch

Mobile phone number: 0041 78 915 76 74

Work phone number: 0041 79 556 82 59

Present address : Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Vaudois (CHUV), 1011 Lausanne, Switzerland. Email: david.desseauve@chuv.ch

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Abstract

In obstetric science, it is unknown whether the inherent biomechanical features of the squatting position can be achieved and/or transposed to the supine birth position. In this study Biomechanical features of the squatting position were compared with 2 hyperflexed supine positions for giving birth. Thirteen pregnant women past the 32 weeks of gestational age not in labor were assessed first in the squatting position with the feet flat on the floor, then in the hyperflexed supine position, and finally in the optimal supine position “crushing” the hand of the caregiver onto the bed. For each position, the flexion of the spine associated with the plane of the external conjugate (ANG_{ce}) and the pelvis, hip flexion, and abduction were quantified using an optoelectronic motion capture system. A non-invasive strain-gauge-based measuring system was used to track the lumbar curve. An optimal position was defined with a flat lumbar spine and a pelvic inlet plane perpendicular to the lumbar spine ($ANG_{ce}=0^{\circ}\pm 5^{\circ}$). For the 13 participants, hip flexion, hip abduction, and the lumbar curve did not differ significantly for the three positions (squatting position, hyperflexed supine position, and OS) in the post-hoc analyses. The optimal supine position induced an ANG_{ce} closer to the perpendicular plane than the squatting position ($p=0.002$). In the squatting position or in hyperflexed supine position positions, none of the subjects fulfilled the two conditions considered necessary to reach the optimal position. The squatting position was not significantly different from the supine hyperflexed supine position with or without voluntary lordosis correction.

Key Words: biomechanics, optimal birth position, squatting birth position, supine position

1 Introduction

2 In the 1800s, Engelmann observed that women not influenced by Western conventions mainly
3 adopted the squatting position (SqP) during the first and second stages of labor (Engelmann,
4 1883). It is well known that, like other vertical positions **during which the trunk is close to the**
5 **vertical**, the SqP has obstetrical advantages including reduced duration of the first and second
6 stages of labor **and** a significant reduction in obstetrical interventions (Desseauve et al., 2017).
7 Among the hypotheses that might explain these results, is that the vertical position, like the
8 SqP is closest mechanically to the best birthing position. From a mechanical standpoint, an
9 “optimal” birth position enables the axis of fetal progression to move perpendicularly to the
10 superior pelvic inlet plane encountering the fewest obstacles by flattening the dorsal hinge (or
11 kyphosis) and achieving a sort of “obstetric chute”(Desseauve et al., 2017a) **as illustrated by**
12 **Figure 1**. This optimal condition is magnified particularly when the feet are flat on the floor,
13 as we demonstrated in a recent biomechanical study (Desseauve et al., 2019a). The
14 advantages of this position have been supported by studies in other fields. The SqP, in
15 particular in hyperflexion, was the most favorable position to obtain a recto-anal canal close
16 to rectitude during defecation, as lower abdominal pressure is necessary to facilitate
17 defecation (Sakakibara et al., 2010). Even without direct comparisons, we could hypothesize
18 that this position presents lower resistance to fetal progression.

19 Unfortunately, as for other vertical positions, SqP is rarely used because of the medicalization
20 of childbirth in Western industrialized countries, and particularly in France (Desseauve et al.,
21 2016), despite its obstetrical advantages. Positions frequently taken in the delivery room are
22 widely influenced by constraints related to monitoring and medical interventions during labor
23 and delivery (Spiby et al., 2003). Continuous fetal heart rate monitoring using
24 cardiotocography, epidural anesthesia, and access to the woman’s perineum are some of the
25 major factors favoring the horizontal position. Nevertheless, recent obstetrical solutions may

26 allow pregnant women to stand and squat during labor. For example, the Women Health
27 Organization has promoted intermittent fetal heart rate monitoring in low-risk pregnant
28 women (“WHO | WHO recommendations,” n.d.). However, it is not widespread due to the
29 controversies surrounding fetal heart rate monitoring and the fear of potential litigation (Smith
30 et al., 2012). Promoting mobility and alternative positions also involve the identification of
31 new solutions in anesthesiology. Thus, low-dose combined spinal-epidural analgesia is an
32 analgesic alternative compatible with the vertical position with benefits for delivery outcome
33 (Bates et al., 1985). Fortunately, for the vast majority of low-risk childbirths, no assistance is
34 required for successful outcomes of **normal birth deliveries**. The challenge of optimizing the
35 birth position arises in cases of obstructed labor (Desseauve et al., 2017a). While waiting for
36 the “popularization” of the vertical birth position, an intermediate solution could be to
37 optimize the horizontal position in cases of **difficult labors**.

38 Current studies have highlighted the difficulty of correcting lordosis by flexion of the thighs,
39 particularly in the supine birth position (Desseauve et al., 2019b). We have previously
40 assumed the hypothesis that a better lordosis correction could be achieved through voluntary
41 actions and guidance of the patient (Desseauve et al., 2019b).

42 The issue is thus to determine whether we can extrapolate the inherent biomechanical features
43 of the vertical SqP to allow the easiest progression of the fetus through the birth canal by
44 adopting a modified **horizontal position**. Intuitively, the supine birth position with a
45 hyperflexion of the thighs seems to be similar to the SqP. The main objective of this study
46 was to assess whether hyperflexion of the thighs, with or without the voluntary correction of
47 the lumbar curve, could approximate the biomechanical features observed in the SqP with the
48 feet lying flat.

49

50 **Materials and methods**

51 For this prospective comparative study, eligible participants were pregnant women aged >18
52 years and >32 weeks of gestation (third trimester), under physiological prenatal care, with a
53 body mass index (BMI) <40 kg·m⁻², with no inflammatory joint disease or joint
54 hypermobility syndrome, such as Marfan's syndrome.

55 The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Poitiers Hospital (Comité de
56 Protection des Personnes: 2013-1203-42) and by the French National Agency of Drug Safety
57 (Agence Nationale de Sécurité du Médicament: B131-460-22). All women provided written
58 informed consent.

59 Based on the X-ray biomechanical study by Gherman et al (Gherman et al., 2000), we
60 considered as significant a difference of 6° (5%) **in** the flexion of spine on the external
61 conjugate's plane (this angle is discussed below as *FLEXs/ec*). Thus, we estimated 14 subjects
62 were required to detect significant differences with a power of 90% and a risk of type I error
63 of 5%.

64 A full protocol description about this innovative methodology is available (Desseauve et al.,
65 2017b). A traditional three-dimensional motion analysis was performed to analyze the
66 position of the markers. The analysis was based on an optoelectronic motion capture system
67 consisting of 12 infrared cameras **sampling** at 100 Hz (VICON, Oxford Metrics, UK). Thirty-
68 three reflective markers were fixed using double-sided tape on anatomical landmarks
69 according to an adapted version of the Helen Hayes's marker set (Vaughan et al., 1999). We
70 positioned additional marker clusters on the top of each iliac crest to assess the orientation of
71 the pelvis. These marker clusters were projected to provide a technical coordinate system,
72 allowing the reconstruction of the pelvic markers if they were be hidden during the

73 experimentation. The position of the pelvic marker in this technical coordinate system could
74 be defined during a static acquisition while standing.

75 The lumbar curve was assessed by measuring the lordosis obtained with the Epionics SqPINE
76 system (Epionics Medical GmbH, Potsdam, Germany). This system **sampling** at 50 Hz
77 consists of two flexible sensor strips that use strain gauge sensors located alongside flexible
78 circuit board strips. The positioning of the system is standardized. Thus, a measured lordosis
79 of 0° corresponds to a perfectly flattened back (D. Desseauve et al., 2017). The data was
80 transmitted in real-time via Bluetooth to a local PC.

81 This biomechanical study took place in an experimental setting (i.e., not during labor).

82 Women were first asked to assume the SqP with their feet flat on the floor. Next, we asked the
83 subject to stand and then lie on a birthing bed (Maquet® Getinge AB, Göteborg, Sweden)
84 with an angle of inclination of the headboard of 30°. Subjects were positioned in the
85 gynecological position (**i.e. lying on the back with the hip flexed at 90 degrees, the legs being**
86 **supported by padded foot rests attached to the table**), with maximal flexion and abduction of
87 the hips (*HSuP position*). After data acquisition in this posture, the investigator's hand was
88 placed under the residual lumbar curve and the subject was asked to “crush” the hand onto the
89 bed (Figure 2). Subsequently, the hand was removed and further data acquisition was
90 performed. **This position is further referred to as H+CSuP**. For all three positions, data
91 acquisition was performed when the subject was stabilized for at least three seconds.

92 A custom Matlab code (MathWorks Inc., Natick, MA) was used to merge data from the
93 Epionics and VICON systems and to extract the required data.

94 Marker trajectories were low-pass filtered using a double-pass Butterworth filter with a cutoff
95 frequency of 10 Hz. The hip flexion and abduction were obtained as defined by the
96 conventional gait model (Kadaba et al., 1989). For the HSuP and H+CSuP positions, the

97 markers located on the posterosuperior iliac spines required to obtain pelvis and hip angles
98 were hidden in the supine position. Hence, their locations in the aforementioned technical
99 referential frames were established using a static standing position. Additionally, the same
100 method was used for the markers placed on vertebrae C7 and T10, which were also occulted
101 in the supine position. In this case, the technical referential frame was defined with reflective
102 markers placed on the thorax.

103 We defined a plane containing the external conjugate diameter using two markers located on
104 the postero-superior iliac spines and a marker located on the superior edge of the pubic
105 symphysis. The flexion of the external conjugate's plane on the spine (*FLEXs/ec*) was
106 computed in the sagittal plane as the angle between the external conjugate's and the line
107 passing through the reconstructed markers located on the level of vertebrae C7 and T10
108 (Figure 3). The lumbar curvature was measured for the three different positions for each subject.

109 From a theoretical standpoint, as depicted in Figure 1, an "optimal" birth position enables the
110 axis of progression to move perpendicularly to the superior pelvic inlet plane encountering the
111 fewest obstacles by flattening the dorsal hinge (or kyphosis). For each woman, conditions for
112 optimal birth were then assessed by considering the *FLEXs/ec* and lumbar lordosis values. As
113 proposed in a previous study, the pelvic inlet plane was considered optimal when almost
114 perpendicular to the spine, namely when *FLEXs/ec* reached $\pm 5^\circ$ (taking into account the
115 precision of the measurements). We considered that the back was flat at -3° of lumbar lordosis
116 or in kyphosis, which corresponded to positive values of the lumbar curve measurement
117 (Desseauve et al., 2019a).

118 We used non-parametric variance analysis (i.e. the Friedman test) to compare all values
119 obtained (hip flexion, hip abduction, lumbar curves, *FLEXs/ec*) for the three different
120 positions, since the data were repeated measures and not normally distributed. If significant
121 differences were observed, a post-hoc analysis was performed using the Wilcoxon matched-

122 pairs signed-ranks test, with a *Bonferroni* correction to compare the conditions two-by-two
123 (Bender and Lange, 2001). For the *Bonferroni* correction, the cut-off for significance for p-
124 values was based on that obtained by the Wilcoxon test and was divided by the number of post-
125 hoc tests needed to compare conditions two-by-two. In this study, three tests were needed.

126 **Results**

127 Overall, 14 participants were assessed, with no withdrawals during the study. The data
128 for one participant could not be interpreted due to an error of data transmission from the
129 Epionics SqPINE System. The mean age of the participants was 32.8 (SD 2.8) years, and the
130 mean gestational age at inclusion was 34.0 (SD 0.7) weeks. The mean BMI was 26.0 (SD 0.8)
131 kg·m⁻². Seven participants (60%) were primiparous.

132 The measured values for the lumbar curve and *FLEXs/ec* for each position for each subject
133 are summarized in *Table 1*, whereas *Table 2* presents the results of the statistical tests.

134 Hip flexion and the lumbar curve were not significantly different between the three positions:
135 SqP, HSuP, and H+CSuP (*Table 2*), while the *FLEXs/ec* and hip abduction differed.

136 However, when the values were compared in the post-hoc analysis, the values of hip
137 abduction in the SqP, HSuP, and H+CSuP positions were not significantly different for the
138 three positions (*Table 2*). Regarding the *FLEXs/ec*, the H+CSuP achieved an angle of the
139 pelvic inlet plane closer to a position perpendicular to the spine axis than the SqP ($p=0.002$,
140 significant also after *Bonferroni* correction).

141 Considering optimal conditions, none of the women fulfilled the two conditions assumed to
142 be necessary to obtain the hypothesized optimal position in the SqP or HSuP (*Table 1*) and
143 only subject 9 achieved optimal conditions in the H+CSuP position. Indeed, this subject was
144 the only one having a pelvic inlet plane perpendicular to the spine ($FLEXs/ec=0^{\circ}\pm 5^{\circ}$) in the
145 H+CSuP position. A flat back or kyphosis was obtained for 9 subjects in SqP, 10 subjects in
146 HSuP and all the subjects (N=13) in H+CSuP (*Table 1*).

147 **Discussion**

148 The supine positions with hip hyperflexion were similar in terms of pelvic orientation and
149 lordosis than SqP with flat feet. Regarding optimal conditions, the supine positions with hip
150 hyperflexion were more prone to induce a correct lumbar curve. Asking the subject to “crush”
151 the hand onto the bed to correct an eventual residual lordosis was particularly successful since
152 no lordosis was measured afterwards. In all positions, the pelvic inlet plane failed to be
153 perpendicular to the spine for all subjects except one.

154 The quest to find an optimal birth position is a challenge in the obstetrics field, particularly
155 for cases of obstructed labor. In this context, women are usually placed in the supine position,
156 requiring cardiotocography, analgesics, and obstetric care providers to determine the most
157 favorable position. Because the advantages of vertical positions have been described in
158 several meta-analysis (Gupta et al., 2017; Kibuka and Thornton, 2017; Lawrence et al., 2013),
159 our goal in the present study was to obtain a modified supine position presenting
160 biomechanical features of the vertical position to be used in case of **obstructed labor** (David
161 Desseauve et al., 2017a). We acknowledge that the results of the recent **BUMPES (Birth in**
162 **the Upright Maternal Position with Epidural in Second stage) clinical trial (Epidural and**
163 **Position Trial Collaborative Group, 2017)** counteract previous findings on the advantages of
164 the vertical position in the second stage of labor, with no differences in maternal obstetrical or
165 fetal outcomes. However, the BUMPS trial, like other interventional studies (Epidural and
166 Position Trial Collaborative Group, 2017; Guittier et al., 2016; Le Ray et al., 2016), failed to
167 define the best birthing position due to a rough definition of the position, specifically
168 neglecting the biomechanical features of each birth position (Desseauve et al., 2017a).

169 SqP is a unique position naturally assumed by women in non-Western countries (Engelmann,
170 1883).By definition, as opposed to the standing position, the SqP refers to a posture in which
171 the knees are flexed. This flexion results in a distancing of the legs and thighs relative to the

172 vertical. This particular mobilization of the lower limbs leads to the forward inclination of the
173 trunk, made possible by displacing the center of gravity in the support polygon. By limiting
174 muscle activation of the quadriceps muscles, the glutes lean on the calves, making this posture
175 as comfortable as possible. In addition, a recent study also demonstrated that squatting with
176 the feet flat on the ground is closer to optimal birth conditions than standing on tiptoes
177 (Desseauve et al., 2019a).

178 According to the present study, the biomechanical properties of SqP with the feet flat can be
179 “achieved lying on the back” with hip hyperflexion. Nevertheless, lying on the back, the
180 potential beneficial effects of gravity are lost. This deficit in gravity could compromise the
181 efficiency of the back-lying position, particularly for the optimal position proposed in this
182 study. However the impact of gravity remains a topic of discussion. In a previous study, we
183 determined the role of gravity during childbirth and, in accordance with the results of Ashton-
184 Miller et al, the force applied to the fetus due to gravity during labor is not negligible, but is
185 considerably lower than forces caused by uterine contractions during pushing (19N versus
186 120N, respectively) (Ashton-Miller and Delancey, 2009; Desseauve et al., 2017a). Thus, our
187 optimal position could be proposed for women experiencing obstructed labor once these
188 preliminary results are confirmed by additional studies.

189 It is important to note that the conditions for an optimal position were not achieved by our
190 subjects in the SqP. In the hyperflexed gynecological position, all subjects remained quite far
191 from the optimal conditions for the pelvis. In the hyperflexed position with correction of the
192 lumbar curve, the angle between the upper strait and the lumbar spine was greater than 90° for
193 the majority of subjects, while no lumbar lordosis was observed. Thus, placing the hand
194 behind the subject's back, giving instructions to try to “crush” the hand, and removing the
195 hand would correct the lumbar lordosis. In preliminary studies, we had attempted to give
196 subjects only instructions to round the back, and subjects tended to basically raise their

197 shoulders, which did not necessarily result in the correction of the lumbar lordosis. The
198 instruction to crush the hand, which is relatively easy to place beneath the woman's back, is
199 therefore sufficient **is therefore sufficient even if the hand is after that removed**. The fact that
200 the lumbar curvature deviates from the neutral value corresponding to a "flat back" to a
201 positive value, i.e. to a "round back" following this instruction, was not problematic according
202 to the obstetrical slide that we defined in a previous study (Desseauve et al., 2019 a,b). The
203 increasing lumbar kyphosis was not problematic even for subjects in whom kyphosis was
204 close to or $>10^\circ$ (subjects 3, 6, 9 and 13). Beyond a flat back, it may also be necessary to
205 "round" the back in order to achieve an optimal position of the pelvis, which was achieved
206 only in subject 9 who obtained the most important kyphosis in our study sample. In practice,
207 it is quite easy to correct a hollow back to a flat back by asking the subject to "crush" the
208 midwife's hand placed beneath the subject's back. In future studies, if it is demonstrated that
209 obtaining a round back (in kyphosis) is required to achieve an optimal position, we should
210 pursue this new technological challenge, as there are currently no labor beds designed to
211 support the parturient in this position. Kyphosis could be difficult to achieve during
212 obstetrical labor with subjects only "wedged" between cushions, for example.

213 We believe that this is the first observational study comparing biomechanical features of SqP
214 and lying positions with hip hyperflexion. Its aim was to define a better position for giving
215 birth with the objective of helping women and care providers in cases of an obstructed labor
216 and a lying position is required. The major strength of our analysis was the assessment of the
217 pelvic position and lordosis using a motion analysis system that could be introduced in the
218 labor room. Previous studies have assessed the birth position using magnetic resonance
219 imaging, but with no formal definitions or control of the position, and with the aim of
220 measuring variations in pelvic dimension (Michel et al., 2002; Reitter et al., 2014).

221 A further limitation involved the voluntary impulse to flatten the back during the assessment
222 of the biomechanical effects. These actions involved muscular activation that could have a
223 specific biomechanical impact on the position and movement of pelvic bones due to the
224 contraction of the rectus abdominis for example. Future studies should thus explore
225 differences between actively and passively achieving a certain position to identify the impact
226 of activation of the abdominal muscles. It may be quite difficult to mobilize women during
227 labor; however, it could be possible to flatten the lumbar spine, by slipping the woman's
228 buttock towards the edge of the birth table when the thighs are hyperflexed, resulting in the
229 nutation of the pelvis (de Gasquet, 2009).

230 The optimal position according to our definition was achieved only in one patient. All patients
231 included in this study gave birth naturally with no obstetrical intervention (i.e. assisted
232 delivery, or caesarean section). Our optimal criteria were likely too restrictive. It is probably
233 not a perfect pelvic position defined by physics law that is required, but rather a threshold to
234 be reached in terms of the angle between the pelvic inlet plane and the lumbar spine. This
235 threshold angle remains to be defined in a future "in labor" live studies.

236 A major limitation to this pilot study was it was performed using women in their third
237 trimester near term, but not in labor. Our results should be confirmed during labor. A
238 randomized control trial during the second stage of labor comparing the supine position and
239 the hyperflexed "after crushing" position that we defined in the present study could be a
240 further step to confirm the impact of positions on obstetrical outcomes (labor duration,
241 caesarean section, duration of the second phase of labor). Thereby the advantages of our
242 motion capture system are associated with further limitation as our methodology could not
243 assess the size of the pelvic inlet or the dimensions of the pelvis outlet. The notion that the
244 thigh position affects the pelvis size dates to back to 1969, when Russell reported, "if the
245 thighs are flexed and abducted the femora act as lever on the innominate bones to open the

246 bony outlet” (Russell, 1969). A comparison of the pelvic size according to the three positions
247 assessed in our study would have enhanced our results. Nevertheless, the change in pelvic size
248 is tenuous and limited to millimeters, thus the potential effect of additional abduction would
249 likely be minimal (Gherman et al., 2000).

250 The necessity to consider pelvic disorders induced by the evolution of the human species to
251 predict and interpret research outcomes in obstructed labor has stimulated new research
252 (Pavličev et al., 2019). Neglecting the pelvic dimension in our study avoids the assessment
253 and characterization of pelvic disorders. Ongoing research (Leenaards fondation 2019, n.d.)
254 should provide statistical shape models that could be used to more accurately estimate the
255 position and the orientation of the pelvic inlet plane based on the position of the bony surface.

256 **Conclusion**

257 When the supine position is required, hyperflexion of the thighs may approximate the
258 biomechanical features observed in squatting position births with the feet flat. Of all
259 positions, the hyperflexed position with a lordosis correction **had a spine the closest to the**
260 **perpendicular to the superior pelvic inlet plane. However, neither the squatting position nor**
261 **this proposed hyperflexed position after lordosis correction achieved the optimal mechanical**
262 **conditions hypothesized for giving birth.**

263

264 **Conflict of interest statement**

265 The authors report no conflicts of interest.

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359 **TABLES**

360 Table 1: Values of the flexion of the plane of the external conjugate on the spine
 361 (*FLEXs/ec*), and lumbar curve for each subject according to the three birth positions assessed:
 362 squatting position with feet flat (SqP), hyperflexed supine position (HSuP), and hyperflexed
 363 supine position with lordosis correction (H+CSuP).

| Subject | FLEXs/ec (°) | | | Lumbar curve (°) | | |
|----------------|---------------------|-------------|---------------|-------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| | SqP | HSuP | H+CSuP | SqP | HSuP | H+CSuP |
| 1 | -32.4 | -29.4 | -21.7 | -20.7 | -0.2* | 6.9* |
| 2 | -50.1 | -29.5 | -21.4 | -28.1 | 0.5* | 8.6* |
| 3 | -38.8 | -29.9 | -16.9 | 0.5* | -0.6* | 9.5* |
| 4 | -37.4 | -33.7 | -26.2 | -4.3 | -4.8 | 6.6* |
| 5 | -33.3 | -32 | -26.3 | -0.6* | -0.3* | 5.9* |
| 6 | -30.5 | -29.8 | -19.8 | -7 | -5.5 | 9.9* |
| 7 | -21.8 | -27.7 | -28 | 13.5* | -2.3* | 3.2* |
| 8 | -44.5 | -30.6 | -28.3 | 0.3* | -0.4* | 1.2* |
| 9 | -44.3 | -31.4 | -1.3* | 12.4* | -1.7* | 27.4* |
| 10 | -35.1 | -30.6 | -25 | 7.6* | 0.3* | 4.8* |
| 11 | -35.1 | -35.8 | -24.1 | 1* | -6.3 | 1.6* |
| 12 | -18.6 | -23.3 | -24.6 | 1.4* | 5* | 2.7* |
| 13 | -25.7 | -27.3 | -13.6 | 8.4* | 2.4* | 15.1* |

364 *Note: *: values of optimal lumbar curvature or FLEXs/ec.*

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Table 2: Average values tested in the study (mean, SD), and post-hoc analysis results for the parameters of the pelvis (*FLEXs/ec*: flexion on the spine related to the plane of the pelvis external conjugate), lumbar curve, and thighs (hip flexion, hips abduction), according to the three positions assessed: squatting position with feet flat (SqP), hyperflexed position (HSuP), and hyperflexed supine position with lordosis correction (H+CSuP).

| | SqP | HSuP | H+CSuP | Friedman's p value | Post Hoc analysis results | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|----------|------------|-------------|
| | \bar{X} [SD] | \bar{X} [SD] | \bar{X} [SD] | | Bonferroni's significant p-value | SqP/HSuP | SqP/H+CSuP | HSuP/H+CSuP |
| Hip Flexion (°) | 125 [15] | 118 [12] | 116 [10] | 0.17 | - | 0.14 | 0.06 | 0.1 |
| Hip Abduction (°) | 28 [10] | 44 [6] | 44 [7] | <10 ⁻⁵ | <10 ⁻⁵ | 0.001 | 0.002 | 0.17 |
| <i>FLEXs/ec</i> (°) | -34 [9] | -22 [7] | -21 [7] | <0.001 | 0.002 | 0.003 | 0.002 | 0.28 |
| Lumbar curve (°) | -1 [12] | -1 [3] | 0 [3] | 0.3 | - | 0.63 | 0.70 | 0.14 |

1 **Figure Legends**

2 Figure 1: Illustration of the optimal birth conditions

3 Figure 2: Illustration of the investigator's hand correction to obtain a hyperflexed supine position with

4 lumbar correction (H+CSuP), from a hyperflexed supine position (HSuP)

5 Figure 3: Definition of *FLEXs/ec* and external conjugate

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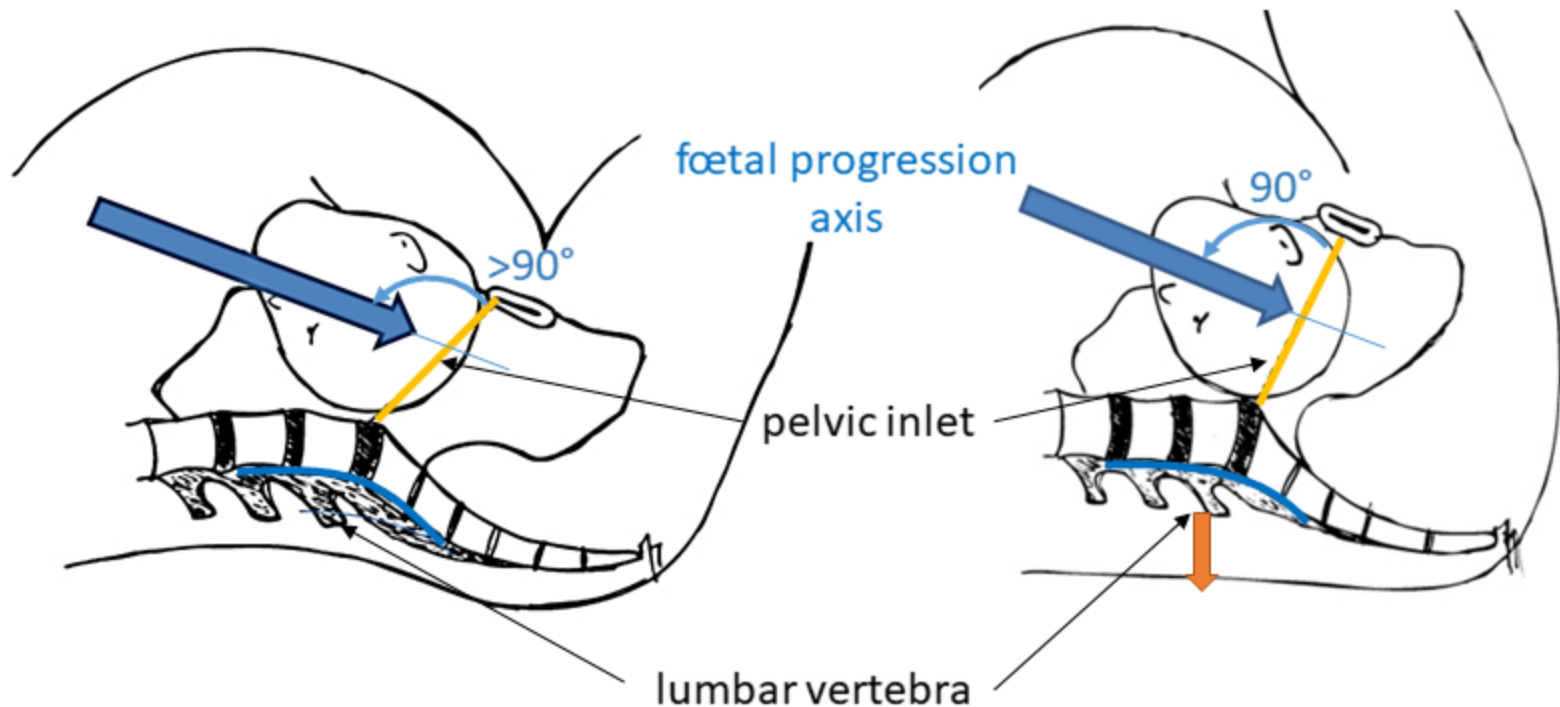
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Non-optimal birth position

Optimal birth position





Hyperflexed Supine position (HS)



« Hand Correction »



Optimal Supine position (OS)

