

A novel, short and easy-to-perform method to evaluate newborns' social olfactory preferences

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Title: A novel, short and easy-to-perform method to evaluate newborns' social olfactory
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23 Abstract

24 Humans' early olfactory perception has been studied mainly within the framework of mother-offspring interactions and only a few studies have focused on newborns' abilities to 25 discriminate body odors per se. The aim of this study was to develop a method to evaluate 26 olfactory social preferences of infants at term-equivalent age. Twenty dyads of infants (10 27 born preterm and 10 born at term) at term-equivalent age and their mothers were included. 28 29 We analyzed the behavioral reactions of infants to their mother's upper-chest odor (that bears social, non-food related information). The two impregnated gauzes and a control gauze were 30 presented to the infants for 10 seconds each, in a random order. We compared two durations 31 of gauze impregnation: 30 minutes and 12 hours. This study reveals that mothers' upper chest 32 emits sufficient olfactory information to induce reactions in infants born full-term or born 33 preterm and that a short impregnation is preferable to evaluate their perception of body odors, 34 35 notably for those born preterm.

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37 **Key words:** methodology, odor perception, behavior, full-term, preterm, infants.

1 Introduction

2 From birth, newborns are exposed to several persons, among whom some of them will become familiar, in particular fathers and siblings. They will develop preferences for familiar 3 people beyond the well-studied one for the mother, on a more or less short scale. Cues, be 4 they visual, acoustic or olfactory, will trigger the expression of behaviors reflecting an 5 attraction or a preference for the emitter of these cues (voice: DeCasper and Fifer, 1980; 6 faces: Pascalis et al., 1995; Quinn et al., 2002). Olfactory cues may allow the emergence of 7 8 social preference from birth. Indeed, the ability of newborns to perceive, discriminate and recognize natural or artificial odors has been demonstrated extensively by Schaal and 9 collaborators (1995, 1998, 2000). Through prenatal exposure, newborns are able to 10 discriminate odors of their own amniotic fluid or some of its olfactory components (related to 11 maternal diet during gestation) from amniotic fluids of other newborns, and they prefer 12 familiar over unfamiliar odors (Schaal et al., 1995, 1998, 2000). After a brief post-natal 13 familiarization, full-term but also preterm newborns are able to discriminate between familiar 14 and novel odors (Balogh and Porter, 1986; Goubet et al., 2002). 15

However, overall, few studies have investigated infants' perception of body odor per se. 16 Most studies focus on reactions to feeding-related odors, even when maternal odor is 17 concerned (Macfarlane, 1975; Makin and Porter, 1989; Doucet et al., 2009). Attempts to test 18 newborns' reactions to maternal odor from body areas not associated with feeding have been 19 20 made, but they yield ambiguous results. Maternal forehead odors did not elicit any clear reactions in newborns (Doucet et al., 2009), but neck odors could help newborns to 21 22 discriminate their mother from an unfamiliar woman (Schaal, 1986a), as do axillary odors but only for breast-fed (and not bottle-fed) newborns (Cernoch and Porter, 1985). One 23 explanation for these discrepancies is that corporal secretions vary between body areas. 24 25 Various glands are spread heterogeneously all over the skin, but only some of them emit rich complex odors bearing information concerning individual characteristics. More precisely,
apocrine glands, present in limited skin areas, such as armpits and chest, are particularly
odorous and the major source of body odors. On the contrary, sebaceous glands, mainly
present on the forehead, face and scalp, are only weakly odorant (for a review, see Doty,
1981). Adults' axillary odors carry information about sex (Penn et al., 2007; Troccaz et al.,
2009), age (Kippenberger et al., 2012), emotions (Chen and Haviland-Jones, 2000; Ackerl et
al., 2002; Prehn et al., 2006) and even identity (Schleidt et al., 1981).

A reliable method to test newborns' reactions to body odors would provide a major 33 contribution to facilitate assessment of their social, non-maternal, olfactory preferences. 34 Indeed, divergences in methods prevent us from drawing solid conclusions concerning 35 newborns' olfactory abilities to perceive social non-feeding odors. Only a few authors 36 questioned whether newborns were able to discriminate between non-maternal odors. Cernoch 37 38 and Porter (1985) concluded that newborns did not discriminate their father's armpit odor from that of another man. However, whether this was due to a lack of recognition per se or 39 whether odors from this area are not relevant for infants remains unanswered. Indeed, the 40 axillary area, although it is odorous, is not an area to which infants are the most exposed. 41 Chest or neck may be far better candidates for emitting olfactory information an infant could 42 perceive and recognize. 43

Furthermore, very long (a whole night) gauze impregnation durations appear to have been used for most studies on newborns, whereas odors collected by expositions of only a few minutes (i.e. emotion recognition) were sufficient for adults (Chen and Haviland-Jones, 2000). Sullivan and Toubas (1998) obtained significant results for newborns with odor impregnations lasting 2 hours. Thus gauze-impregnation duration could be a major factor influencing studies of body odor discrimination, as it could be a constraint and, in any case, the question of the best impregnation time remains unsolved.

The present study aims to develop an easy-to-use procedure for evaluating newborns' 51 52 reaction to social olfactory cues, *i.e.* whether they express behavioral responses to particular odors from their social environment. The first step involved identifying a body area where 53 odors, even after only a short impregnation duration, carried social, non-feeding-related 54 information that can elicit an infant's behavioral reaction. The body odor of the upper chest 55 (between the base of the neck and the breasts, away from nipples) appeared to be a good 56 57 candidate, for two reasons: 1) it is an area to which adults naturally guide a baby's head when cuddling or during skin-to-skin interactions; and 2) it is an area rich in apocrine glands, 58 particularly known to produce odorous components, relevant for body odor recognition 59 (Schleidt et al., 1981). Although apocrine glands are present in several body areas including 60 breasts, their odorous components differ from those of the areolar glands known to trigger 61 breast-fed newborns' appetitive behaviors (Doucet et al. 2009). Here, we used maternal odors 62 63 to test the pertinence of the targeted skin area, as cues from the mother are the most likely to trigger infants' behavioral responses (odors: Marlier et al, 1998a,b; voice: DeCasper & Fifer, 64 1980; face: Pascalis et al, 1995). If the upper chest brings enough olfactory components, 65 infants should respond differently to a gauze impregnated with their mother's odor than to a 66 control gauze. We also compared two durations of gauze impregnation: 30 minutes and 12 67 68 hours to estimate the possibility of using shorter impregnation times than those used in earlier studies. Finally, we observed the responses of infants born preterm or born full term when 69 they were at term age. Preterm and full-term infants receive different sensory experiences 70 71 after birth, in particular concerning the amount and frequency of contacts with their mother's skin and also due to the possible overload of olfactory stimulations in the neonatal intensive 72 73 care unit (Bartocci et al., 2001). Infants born preterm also have smaller reaction thresholds to sensory stimulations than those born full-term (André et al., in press). Therefore, to test the 74

impact of a premature birth on the response to maternal olfactory cues we observed 2-day-old 75 76 infants born at term and several-week-old infants born preterm.

Materials and Methods 77

Recruiting and testing protocols followed the Declaration of Helsinki, and were approved by 78 the ethical committees of Brest and Rennes Regional and University Hospital Centres. 79

The adults and infants' parents gave written agreement to participate to the study and for 80 video-recording. Informed consent was obtained for each experimentation. They could (but 81 were not obliged) sign an additional document which allows the diffusion of their images or 82 videos for scientific communication. Participant anonymity was insured by identifying 83 individuals by a number. 84 ren

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86 **1.** Participants

Our subjects were 20 infants at term-equivalent age: 87

i) 10 infants born preterm (6 girls, 4 boys) at 30.93 ± 2.54 s.d. gestational weeks and 88 tested when they had reached 37 - 39 weeks post-conception age (postnatal ages 51 ± 19.44 89 s.d. days). 90

ii) 10 infants born at term (4 girls, 6 boys) at 40.87 \pm 0.69 s.d. weeks and tested 91 when 2 days old. 92

93 Infants with major known congenital, neurological and sensory perception disorders and/or 94 analgesic or sedative treatment were excluded. All participants had an AGPAR score above 7 at 5'. They were tested at two university hospitals (Brest and Rennes, France) in the neonatal 95 intensive care units (NICU) and maternity wards. At both sites, NICU followed 96 97 developmental care guidelines, which recommend in particular that, as much as possible, lights and sounds are reduced and infants' activity rhythm respected. These guidelines 98 encourage parents to visit whenever they want (day or night), and for as long as they wish. 99

Parents are strongly encouraged to perform skin-to-skin and routine care when present. All 100 101 preterm infants were fed maternal milk (7 were partly breast-fed, 1 was bottle-fed, 2 received food through a nasogastric tube). Six infants born at term were breast-fed and 4 were bottle-102 fed with milk formula. All infants born preterm had skin-to-skin experiences with their 103 mother at least one hour per day, each day, for several weeks following birth (variable 104 according to the gestational age at birth and health). All infants born at term had at least one 105 106 skin-to-skin experience with their mother for at least one hour during their first days of life. However, the exact amount of skin-to-skin received by each infant in either group could not 107 be assessed. 108

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110 **2. Procedure**

During the experiment, three different gauzes (5*5 cm) were presented to the infants. Two gauzes were impregnated with their mother odor: a) one for 30 minutes (Gshort), b) the other for 12 hours (Glong). The third one was not impregnated and served as control (Gcontrol).

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2.1. Body odor collection

We collected maternal odor by fastening gauze swabs (Gazin[®], 5 x 5cm, 100% cotton,
Lohmann & Rauscher) with cloth surgical tape (Medipore[™], 3M) on mothers' upper chest
(between the base of neck and breasts) (Fig. 1).

119 Before fixing each gauze, a mother was asked to apply a disinfectant gel on her chest 120 to remove any odor of perfume, laundry or shower gel and thus avoid differences due to 121 environmental odors other than body odor.

Glong was fixed in the evening before the day of the experiment and was left there for 123 12 hours, *i.e.* a whole night. Gshort was fixed the following morning, for the last 30 minutes 124 before both gauzes were removed simultaneously (example: Glong positioned at 9 p.m.,

Gshort positioned at 8.30 a.m., both gauzes removed at 9 a.m.). Gcontrol was prepared on the 125 126 morning of the experiment, when the second gauze was fixed on the mother's chest. A drop of disinfectant gel was applied under the lid of the Petri dish so that all three gauzes had been in 127 contact with the disinfectant gel and could have absorbed this odor. The three gauzes were 128 manipulated with medical tweezers and kept in closed sterile Petri dishes at ambient 129 temperature in the infant's room, until the session began. As odors are preserved under these 130 131 conditions for several hours (e.g. 11.5 jours: Cernoch and Porter, 1985), we decided that a session could occur at any time during the 12 hours following gauze removal. This allowed us 132 to be opportunistic so that we could test infants in similar conditions when they were awake 133 134 and there were no environmental disturbances.

135

2.2. Body odor presentation

The infants were tested in their crib in their hospital room. A test began when the 136 infant was awake and alert, rated stage 3 (eyes open, no brisk movements) on Prechtl's scale 137 (1974), a stage commonly used to investigate infants' sensory perception (e.g. Andrews and 138 Fitzgerald, 1994; Soussignan et al., 1997; Barbu-Roth et al., 2009). Infants were only tested 139 when they had woken up spontaneously (not by parents or experimenter) and mostly after 140 their meal or during a short break during a meal. All infants were lying on their back with 141 their head sometimes turned naturally to one side. The experimenter presented the gauzes 142 about 5 cm away from his/her nose with medical tweezers and for 10 seconds (so that several 143 respiratory cycles were covered (Marlier et al., 2001)). These distance and duration of gauze 144 presentation have been validated by several studies of newborns' odor perception (Cernoch 145 and Porter, 1985; Soussignan et al., 1997; Schaal et al., 2000; Goubet et al., 2002; Delaunay-146 El Allam et al., 2006; Doucet et al., 2009). The gauzes were presented one after the other, 147 with a minimum interval of 20 seconds. A gauze was presented either directly (i.e. 20 seconds 148 149 later) after removing the previous gauze (when the infant was still calm) or later (after the

infant had calmed down if he/she had moved after the previous gauze). The gauze was placed 150 according to the infants' head orientation so that it was as much as possible in front of their 151 nose (gauzes were always at 5 cm of the nose but sometimes not directly in front of it due to 152 clutter within or around the crib preventing proper access to the infant); thus 36.67 % of the 153 infants were tested when on their right side, 51.67% on their left side and 11.66% when they 154 were lying on their back and facing forward. When the infant turned his/her head away from 155 156 the gauze, the experimenter moved the stimulus accordingly so the gauze stayed at 5 cm from the nose for the whole presentation. The order of presentation of the three gauzes varied 157 randomly among subjects. 158

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- 160 **3. Data recording and analyses**
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3.1. Behavior recording

All sessions were video recorded using a Sony HDR-PJ350E camera, placed on a 162 tripod facing the subject (approximately 1 meter from the infant). The videos were analyzed 163 later, data were analyzed using 0/1 scan sampling (absence/presence of a behavior), with a 164 scan every 0.2 second for 10 seconds from the time a gauze was placed in front of the infant. 165 The experiments were all realized by the same experimenter (V.A.) whereas the videos were 166 analyzed using a Solomon Coder[©] by a naive observer (A.V. who was blind to the type of 167 gauze presented). V.A. analyzed one video randomly to allow us to assess inter-observer 168 agreement for several categories of behaviors with a Cohen's kappa. All coefficients were 169 above 0.93. 170

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In literature, infants' olfactory perception has often been evaluated by measuring sucking and arousal/withdrawal responses, such as opening of the eyes, retraction of the head, facial grimacing or arm/leg movements (Sarnat, 1978; Gauthaman et al., 1984). More recently, authors have focused on facial expressions (Pihet et al., 1997; Soussignan et al.,

1997; Faas et al., 2000; Goubet et al., 2002) and movements indicating attraction or avoidance 175 (Schaal et al., 1995, 1998, 2000; Marlier et al., 1998a, 1998b). We considered here that an 176 infant reacted when a behavioral change (movement or facial expression) occurred within the 177 10-second gauze presentation. These reactions were characterized as attraction (e.g. head 178 approaching, turning head or eyes towards the stimulus) or avoidance (e.g. moving head 179 backwards, turning head or eyes away) based on the literature (see Table 1 for more details). 180 We noted the numbers of occurrences of all behaviors. 181

As some parts of an infant's body were not always visible on the video (e.g. a gauze 182 could hide part of his/her face), we adjusted the number of occurrences of each behavior by 183 dividing this number by the exact duration during which it was observed and multiplying the 184 result by 10, the total duration of a presentation. 185 10

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- **3.2. Statistical analyses** 187

Friedman test and post-hoc Wilcoxon tests were used to compare the number of 188 behavioral occurrences between the three presentations (Gcontrol, Gshort, Glong) for both 189 groups of participants (infants born preterm or full-term). Categories of behaviors were 190 compared by Wilcoxon tests for each gauze presentation, data for the three gauzes were 191 analyzed separately. Mann Whitney tests were used to compare data between infants born 192 preterm and full-term. Bonferroni corrections were used for multiple comparisons. All statistics 193 were computed with R[©] and Statistica[©]. 194

195 **Results**

Even if they didn't show any preferences for one of the gauzes (Friedman tests for 196 197 body movements or facial expressions either for attraction or for avoidance, p>0.1), infants expressed significantly more "attraction" (approach head, turn head or eyes towards the 198 stimulus) than "avoidance" (move head backwards, turn head or eyes away) when either 199

Glong or Gshort was presented (Wilcoxon, Glong: Z=2.605, P=0.009; Gshort: Z=3.124, P=0.002). When Gcontrol was presented, infants showed as much "attraction" as they did "avoidance" (Z=1.695, P=0.090). Only the full-term newborns followed this pattern (Glong: Z=2.521, P=0.012; Gshort: Z=2.073, P=0.038; Gcontrol: Z=1.836, P=0.066). Infants born preterm expressed more "attraction" when exposed to Gshort but not when exposed to Glong or Gcontrol (Glong: Z=0.839, P=0.402; Gshort: Z=2.310, P=0.021; Gcontrol: Z=0.539, P=0.590).

These results were supported by analyses of facial expressions: infants expressed more attraction than avoidance when they were presented Gshort (Wilcoxon, N=20, Z=2.197, p=0.028, Fig. 2b), but not when they were presented Glong or Gcontrol (Wilcoxon Glong: N=20, Z=0.815, p=0.415 / Gcontrol: N=20, Z=0.153, p=0.878). No significant differences could be evidenced when data from preterm and full-term infants were considered separately (Wilcoxon, 0.270<Z<1.604, p>0.05 in all cases).

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Discussion and conclusion

Our results validate a simple novel methodological tool for evaluating odor perception 214 in infants at term-equivalent age. The novelty lies in two aspects: 1) one easy-to-access body 215 part, *i.e.* the upper chest, emits sufficient olfactory information; 2) a short duration (only 30 216 217 min) of impregnation is sufficient to induce significant reactions. Full-term newborns were significantly attracted to their mother's body odor whatever the duration of impregnation (30 218 minutes or 12 hours), while infants born preterm were only attracted by 30-minute 219 impregnated gauzes and not by longer-impregnated gauzes. Furthermore, this method is not 220 invasive, so it can be used with minimum perturbation of the infants. 221

This study confirms that infants at term-equivalent age are able to react to body odors. Indeed, whether the infants had already had a long and repeated experience with various odors, including their mother's odors through skin-to-skin sessions (infants born preterm and tested when 50 days old on average), or a short exposure to their mother's skin (infants born at term and tested when 2 days old), they expressed attraction behaviors towards the impregnated gauzes. Thus, even limited exposure (Delaunay-El Allam et al., 2006) and/or prenatal experience (Wallace, 1977; Havlicek and Lenochova, 2008) are sufficient to elicit a reaction to maternal body odors.

Furthermore, the fact that reactions were elicited by natural non-feeding-related odors, 230 231 that is by odors collected somewhere else than at the mother's breast, and mainly related to movements and not facial expressions shows that here the responses were most probably 232 socially driven rather than feeding related. The procedure proposed in this paper could then be 233 extended to study further on infants' reaction to social odors beyond their mothers' ones, such 234 as odors from the father or siblings. As human body odors encode important social and 235 emotional information, it would be interesting to investigate infants' abilities to use this 236 information. 237

Indeed, many cues, among which odors are major at birth, guide the newborn toward 238 the main caregivers to whom she/he will bond. In mammals, the main caregiver is obviously 239 the mother. Still, in humans, other family members, most notably the father, can also play an 240 241 important role in caregiving and later in the child's development. As familiar odors have a 242 soothing effect on distressed newborns, even when they are not related to feeding activities 243 (Goubet et al., 2003, 2007; Rattaz et al., 2005), the father's body odors could well play this role and be involved in father-infant bonding (Erlandsson et al., 2007). Still, few studies 244 investigated the possible attachment between father and infant and when they exist, they 245 246 mainly focused on the paternal point of view (Keller et al., 1985; Chen et al., 2017). To investigate this relationship more thoroughly, we felt the need to develop this easy-to-use 247 method to test social olfactory discrimination. 248

A major aspect of our results shows that impregnation of gauzes with body odors can be 249 250 as short as 30 minutes, which is much shorter than in all studies up to now (e.g. Cernoch and Porter, 1985). This is an important methodological issue that should facilitate acceptance of 251 donors and experimentation. The significant responses only for short durations of 252 impregnation show that longer durations may even hinder detection of the potentially higher 253 sensitivity of infants, notably those born preterm. Why infants showed more attraction than 254 255 avoidance mainly after a short duration of impregnation and not after a long one can be explained by a higher concentration of odorous components on the long duration gauze. 256 Indeed, body odor components are volatile compounds (Dormont et al., 2013) and they were 257 entrapped between the skin and the gauze for 12 hours. Their consequent high concentration 258 may deter slightly the attraction they elicit at a lower concentration. 259

The slight difference in responses observed between infants born preterm and those born 260 full-term can be surprising. In fact, comparative studies between full-term and preterm infants' 261 capacities are scarce and contradictory (see review in Schaal et al., 2004), some studies report 262 a lesser sensitivity or responsiveness to odors in preterm newborns than in full-term ones 263 (Sarnat, 1978), others reporting similar results for both age groups (Goubet et al., 2002). At a 264 cortical level, Frie et al. (2018) evidenced differences between preterm newborns, full term 265 newborns and preterm infants tested at term-equivalent age while no behavioral differences 266 267 could be observed between those groups. It is noteworthy that in all these studies, olfactory 268 stimuli were artificial odors and not potentially relevant and socially connoted odors. To our knowledge, even fewer studies focus on the sensory response threshold of preterm infants at 269 term-equivalent age. It is then difficult to state that our results corroborate previous ones or 270 diverge completely. Still, in other sensory domains, infants born preterm are more sensitive to 271 very subtle stimulations than infants born full-term. For instance, more preterm infants at 272 273 term-equivalent age responded to a very subtle tactile stimulation than infants born at term

(André et al., in press). According to Schaal (1986b), the "range between the most pleasant 274 and the most unpleasant odors is narrower" for newborns than for adults. In light of our 275 results, it seems that the range may well be even narrower in infants born preterm, probably 276 due to the numerous experiences they previously had with strong odors from detergents, 277 disinfectants and so on. From 31 weeks postmenstrual age, these odors are perceived at a 278 cortical level in olfactory, trigeminal and nociceptive processing areas and elicited pain-279 associated behaviors (Frie et al., 2018). We know that an over-load of nociceptive 280 stimulations can impact the behavioral and cortisol responses of infants born preterm 281 (Mitchell and Boss, 2002; Grunau et al., 2005). The sensitization to olfactory stimulations 282 may then explain the difference we observed between infants born at term and those born 283 284 preterm.

In conclusion, this study describes and validates an easy-to-use, non-invasive, tool to test infants' olfactory social preferences at term-equivalent age, including for infants born preterm. This should prove useful for future studies on discrimination of related and nonrelated human body odors, beyond maternal odors.

289

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299 Compliance with ethical standards

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- 302 *Conflict of interest*: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.
- 303 *Ethical approval*: All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in
- 304 accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional research committee and with the
- 305 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.
- 306 Informed consent: Informed consent was obtained from the parents of all individual
- 307 participants included in the study.
- 308

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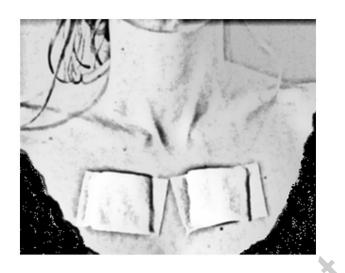
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433 Fig. 1. Position of gauzes on a mother's upper chest to collect body odors



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- 436 Table. 1. Infants' reactions to odor-impregnated gauzes. Attraction and avoidance categories
- 437 are based on Young and Décarie's (1977), Steiner's (1979), Ganchrow et al.'s (1983),
- 438 Soussignan et al.'s (1997) and Schaal et al.'s (2000) reports.

| Categories | Types of behavior | Behaviors |
|------------|--------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Attraction | Facial expressions | Sticks tongue out |
| | | Sucks |
| | | Advances lips |
| | | Puts lips commissures upward |
| | | Opens mouth |
| | Body movements | Moves head nearer to the stimulus |
| | | Turns head towards the stimulus |
| | | Turns eyes towards the stimulus |
| Avoidance | | Places lips in an asymmetrical shape |
| | .0 | Puts lips commissures downwards |
| | Facial expressions | Tightens lips |
| | | Gapes |
| | S | Wrinkles nose |
| | | Wrinkles eyes |
| | | Moves head backwards |
| | Body movements | Turns head away |
| | | Turns eyes away |

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Fig. 2. Full term (on the left, A & C) and preterm (on the right, B & D) infants' body
movements (upper line, A & B) and facial expressions (lower line, C & D) of attraction and
avoidance during the presentation of the three gauzes (Glong: gauze placed on maternal upper
chest for 12 hours / Gshort: gauze placed on maternal upper chest for 30 minutes / Gcontrol:
control gauze). Mean numbers (+/- standard error). Wilcoxon test, *: P<0.05.

