

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline: Intensive Model of Therapy**

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3 **Date of Implementation: April 20, 2017**

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7 **Product: Specialty**

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Related Policies: CPG 135: Physical Therapy Medical Policy/Guideline CPG 155: Occupational Therapy Medical Policy/Guideline CPG 166: Speech-Language Pathology/Speech Therapy Guideline CPG 257: Developmental Delay Screening and Testing

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22 **GUIDELINES**

23 American Specialty Health – Specialty (ASH) considers Intensive Model of Therapy
 24 (IMOT) programs (occupational, speech and/or physical therapy services as described
 25 below) as not medically necessary for all indications including but not limited to cerebral
 26 palsy and other neurologic disorders. IMOT is considered unproven as there is insufficient
 27 evidence to conclude that IMOT demonstrates improved long-term and short-term
 28 outcomes over less intensive/frequent care.

29

30 ASH considers suit therapy or the home use of a suit therapy device for the treatment of
 31 any condition including, but not limited to, cerebral palsy or other neuromuscular
 32 conditions as unproven.

33

34 Patients must be informed verbally and in writing of the nature of any procedure or
 35 treatment technique that is considered experimental/investigational or unproven, poses a
 36 significant health and safety risk, and/or is scientifically implausible. If the patient decides
 37 to receive such services, they must sign a Member Billing Acknowledgment Form (for
 38 Medicare use Advance Beneficiary Notice of Non-Coverage form) indicating they
 39 understand they are assuming financial responsibility for any service-related fees. Further,
 40 the patient must sign an attestation indicating that they understand what is known and

1 unknown about, and the possible risks associated with such techniques prior to receiving
2 these services. All procedures, including those considered here, must be documented in the
3 medical record. Finally, prior to using experimental/investigational or unproven
4 procedures, those that pose a significant health and safety risk, and/or those considered
5 scientifically implausible, it is incumbent on the practitioner to confirm that their
6 professional liability insurance covers the use of these techniques or procedures in the event
7 of an adverse outcome.

8 9 **DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND**

10 Intensive Model of Therapy (IMOT) was developed in Poland for treating children and
11 adults with cerebral palsy and other neurologic disorders. This therapy involves performing
12 exercises over an extended period of time — typically 5 days a week for 4 hours a day. The
13 time in the program may be a 3-week period or longer. Different centers may alter this
14 extended period of time. As an example, one center treats patients 2-6 hours a day for 5
15 days a week for 3 full weeks. The time and duration of each intensive therapy session will
16 fluctuate case by case depending on the patient’s diagnosis, age, stamina,
17 strengths/weaknesses, and needs. Proponents of IMOT state that studies have shown that a
18 3-week session of intensive therapy helps a child realize the same goals it would usually
19 take a full year of traditional therapy to achieve. They conclude that patients with
20 neuromuscular challenges need this focused and intense approach that provides time to
21 practice the skills they need to learn — like sitting, standing, or walking. However, these
22 claims are premature currently, as the research is not sufficient to support their statements.

23
24 IMOT programs focus on exercises to increase strength and endurance, work to decrease
25 unwanted reflexes, and teach new improved motor patterns through repetition and correct
26 posture. A unique feature of IMOT is the preparation time used prior to exercise, which
27 may be massage. Some clinics use a device called the Universal Exercise Unit. This allows
28 the patients to work on balance and functional skills such as kneeling, sitting, or standing
29 with less assistance. Prolonged static stretching is also achieved using universal exercise
30 units or “cages.” The “monkey cage” is a rigid metal cage with three walls and a top panel
31 upon which pulley systems may be arranged to stretch and strengthen muscles. Following
32 stretching, each joint is ranged through diagonal patterns similar to proprioceptive
33 neuromuscular facilitation (PNF) patterns. The “spider cage” utilizes bungee straps
34 wherein the subject can be supported while learning to weight-shift, jump, kneel, half-
35 kneel, and step up and over objects. The “spider cage” is proposed to allow for controlled
36 and independent movement and appears to have the effect of decreasing pathological and
37 neurological reactions that affect mobility. The “spider cage” is used as a tool for
38 implementing neurodevelopmental treatment (NDT), one of the most popular and
39 clinically accepted methods for “(re)programming” the central nervous and neuromuscular
40 systems and “teaching” the brain more normal motor skills. The NDT approach devised by
41 the Bobaths in the 1940’s encourages children with neuromuscular deficits to 1) learn more
42 normal movement patterns, 2) change positions comfortably in different environments, and

1 3) improve quality of movement and functional skills. Vertical and quadruped standers are
 2 utilized in IMOT for additional weight-bearing and proprioception through all extremities.

3
 4 Another unique intervention utilized in IMOT is a therapeutic suit. Therapeutic suits such
 5 as the Adeli and NeuroSuit are proposed to assist in re-training the central nervous system
 6 by allowing the child to overcome increasingly complex pathological movement and to
 7 execute and repeat previously unknown movement patterns. The Adeli suit is an adaptation
 8 of the Penguin suit used by Russian cosmonauts to counteract the effects of weightlessness
 9 in space. The Penguin suit, which provides resistance to movement, decreases muscle
 10 atrophy, and reduces development of osteoporosis and apraxic gait in anti-gravity
 11 conditions, was created in 1971 by the Russian space program. The Adeli (“little penguin”)
 12 suit consists of a head piece, vest, shorts, knee pads and special shoes upon which elastic
 13 cords with bungee-type characteristics are fastened over flexor and extensor muscles while
 14 also providing correct limb alignment. The theory behind the Adeli suit is that once the
 15 body is in proper alignment with support and pressure through all joints, intense movement
 16 therapy can be performed that will [re]educate the brain to recognize correct movement
 17 patterns and muscle activity. The NeuroSuit frames the body providing support and
 18 resistance simultaneously. Claims are that it improves and changes proprioception
 19 (pressure from the joints, ligaments, muscles), reduces a patient’s undesired reflexes,
 20 facilitates proper movement, and provides additional weight bearing distributed
 21 strategically throughout the body. This additional weight bearing provides strong feedback
 22 to the brain which helps create new improved patterns of movement such as when walking
 23 while the body is maintaining a more upright, correct posture. The NeuroSuit is worn for
 24 two-hour periods and can be used either by qualified physical or occupational therapists. It
 25 is made of a vest, shorts, knee and elbow pads, gloves, shoe attachments, and a hat if
 26 necessary. All these pieces are interlocked by bungee type cords. These cords assist with
 27 proper alignment of the body and essentially frame the body from the outside (external
 28 skeleton).

29
 30 The NeuroSuit offers similar benefits as the Adeli suit; however, the NeuroSuit is currently
 31 the only therapeutic suit that offers upper extremity components. The elbow pads and
 32 gloves have hooks to which bungee cords can be attached and facilitate positioning out of
 33 flexor synergy patterns typically seen in children with CP.

34 35 **EVIDENCE REVIEW**

36 Intensive therapy is described inconsistently throughout the research. Some literature
 37 describes it as sixteen weeks, five days per week for 50-minute sessions; others describe
 38 four weeks, four days per week for 45-minute sessions. Some researchers suggest that
 39 increasing the frequency and duration of therapy sessions, then allowing a rest break before
 40 resuming traditional therapy, may produce significant and long-lasting changes in strength,
 41 tone, posture, and gross motor performance. Some literature refers to intensive therapy
 42 based on the intervention rather than the frequency and duration of the therapy. When used

1 in this way, researchers will talk about an intensive intervention, such as Constraint-
2 Induced Movement Therapy or Intensive Bimanual Therapy, and refer to either short-
3 length, high-duration ('day camp') or long-length, low-duration (distributed model) to
4 distinguish between what is similar to IMOT with regards to frequency and duration and
5 routine, traditional care. Often the choice of therapy model (day camp or distributed) may
6 be based on school schedules and proximity to clinical settings. Intensive "day camp
7 models" lasting 2-3 weeks are often used for school-aged children, conveniently fitting
8 within school holidays. For preschool children, more distributed practice models (~2 h/d)
9 spanning a greater number of weeks have been applied in the children's daily environment.
10 The choice of distributed practice for this population is practical since extended hours of
11 daily training are not feasible in young children.

12
13 Sakzewski et al. (2014) authored a paper on the state of the evidence for intensive upper
14 limb therapy approaches for children with unilateral cerebral palsy. Targeted upper limb
15 therapies such as constraint-induced movement therapy, bimanual training, and combined
16 approaches were discussed. With regards to this guideline, it will not discuss the
17 effectiveness of these types of interventions but rather the dose (duration and frequency),
18 intensity and context (to some degree). Models of therapy delivery in this review were
19 broadly categorized as short-length, high duration or long-length, low-duration (distributed
20 model). There has been considerable variation in both the total dose of therapy provided as
21 well as the proportion of direct "hands on" intervention provided by therapists and indirect
22 therapy via use of home/preschool programs. Based on articles included, short-length, high
23 duration therapy models were implemented over a two to four-week period, with frequency
24 ranging from 2 to 7 sessions per week. Session times (duration) ranged from 1.5 to 6 hours,
25 with the total dose of direct "hands on" therapy varying between 18 and 126 hours.
26 Accompanying home practice was required in most studies with the expected dose between
27 21 and 240 hours. Distributed models of intervention ranged from 5 to 10 weeks in length
28 with between 1 and 3 sessions per week. The dose of direct therapy ranged from 8 to 90
29 hours, with proportionally greater expectations for home practice (28–168 hours). A direct
30 comparison of home versus center-based constraint induced movement therapy ($n = 14$)
31 demonstrated no immediate differences between the two therapy contexts. There was some
32 suggestion of greater gains by the home base group at 3 months post-intervention,
33 supporting the notion of generalization of skills. However, the sample size is too small to
34 make a definitive conclusion regarding context. Findings also suggest that intervention can
35 be carried out effectively by family members, teachers, or students as long as they receive
36 training and supervision from therapists. The idea that positive outcomes have been
37 reported regardless of the provider suggest that supplementing physical or occupational
38 therapists with trained non-health care providers may decrease costs. To date, there has
39 been no direct comparison of intensive versus distributed models of constraint-induced
40 movement therapy. The optimum timing, dose, and impact of repeat episodes of intensive
41 upper limb therapies require further investigation. Authors concluded that key components
42 of service provision should be that therapy should be goal directed, using contemporary

1 motor learning-based approaches such as constraint-induced movement therapy or
2 bimanual task-oriented therapy and be provided at an adequate dose. Most studies used a
3 therapy dose varying from 40 to more than 120 hours, and therapy can be effectively
4 provided individually or in group sessions, augmented by a home program.

5
6 Andersen et al. (2013) completed a review on intensive upper extremity training for
7 children with hemiplegia. Authors conclude that both constraint-induced movement
8 therapy (CIMT) and intensive bimanual training lead to improvements in upper extremity
9 function. They surmise that intensity is a key factor, but the minimum intensity required
10 (number of hours per day and days per program) to achieve positive outcomes remains to
11 be determined. They also state that it cannot be determined whether functional gains persist
12 or if periodic bursts of intensive goal-directed upper limb intervention are required to
13 maintain and generalize the gains made. Sakzewski et al. (2014) authored a meta-analysis
14 on the efficacy of upper limb therapies for unilateral cerebral palsy. When looking at doses,
15 of the two studies noted, one compared an average of 114 hours of constraint-induced to
16 47 hours of bimanual treatments; the other compared 72 hours of constraint-induced to 44
17 hours of bimanual occupational therapy (OT). Together, authors suggest that 40 hours of
18 therapy was adequate to yield meaningful clinical changes in upper limb use and
19 individualized outcomes. One study also directly compared 126 with 63 hours of
20 constraint-induced therapy in a small group of 3- to 6-year-old children and found that no
21 benefit was conferred by the additional time. The exact critical threshold dose of
22 intervention required to achieve meaningful changes in upper limb function remains
23 unknown. It remains unclear whether there are differences in efficacy of intensive versus
24 distributed models of therapy, and between interventions primarily providing direct hands-
25 on therapy by therapists and indirect therapy relying on caregivers delivering intervention
26 via home programs. Authors pose these questions for further research given the state of the
27 evidence: what is the critical threshold dose of intervention and is there a dose age
28 relationship? And is there additional benefit of intensive short-duration interventions
29 versus distributed models of care and does the context of therapy delivery (home, school,
30 clinic, community) impact outcomes?

31
32 Bower et al. (2001) aimed to determine whether motor function and performance is better
33 enhanced by intensive physiotherapy or collaborative goal setting in children with cerebral
34 palsy. More specifically, whether intensive physiotherapy accelerates the acquisition of
35 motor function and performance over a six-month period, and if so, to determine if the
36 effect is cumulative. During routine three-month periods the median amount of
37 physiotherapy given was around six hours, whereas during each of the two intensive three-
38 month treatment periods the median amount of physiotherapy given was 44 hours. The cost
39 of providing intensive therapy to 28 children over the six-month period was \$75,765 on
40 the basis that only therapy received by the child was paid for at the rate of \$30 per hour.
41 No child received the full intensity of treatment offered which was 120 hours for the six-
42 month treatment period. Throughout the trial the therapy given was described by each

1 physiotherapist involved and was found to consist of a mixture of muscle stretching,
2 passive corrective manual handling, positioning, including the use of equipment, orthoses
3 and casting as considered necessary, muscle strengthening and active movement in addition
4 to gross motor skill training along developmental and functional lines as considered
5 appropriate by the child's physiotherapist. Treatment was primarily targeted at gross motor
6 abilities and not manual dexterity. After the first three months of the treatment period, there
7 was a difference of 3.1 percentage points in favor of intensive physiotherapy in the
8 dimensions of the Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM) scores in which aims and goals
9 had been set compared with routine amounts of therapy in the equivalent dimensions, and
10 a difference of 0.3 percentage points in favor of intensive therapy in similar dimensions of
11 the GMFM scores compared with routine amounts in the equivalent dimensions after the
12 second three months of treatment period. During the 6-month treatment period children
13 receiving routine amounts of therapy ($n=27$) improved their mean total GMPM score by
14 3.3 percentage points and children receiving intensive amounts of therapy ($n=28$) improved
15 their mean total score by 1.3 percentage points. There were no statistically significant
16 differences in the GMFM or Gross Motor Performance Measure (GMPM) scores between
17 aim and goal-directed therapy or between routine and intensive amounts of therapy at any
18 of the later assessments. In summary there were no statistically significant differences in
19 the scores achieved between intensive and routine amounts of therapy in either function or
20 performance or between aim-directed or goal-directed therapy. In addition, in the current
21 study intensive therapy where children were treated five times a week for six months
22 showed low compliance and therapy was considered tiring and stressful by many of the
23 participants who were glad when the intensive therapy ended.

24
25 Increasing the frequency of weekly treatments over a long period is very demanding for
26 the children and their families and as such, could jeopardize the efficacy of intensive
27 therapy. Authors stated that it is doubtful that more prolonged trials of therapy beyond
28 routine care would show a different result, partly on account of the failure to show a greater
29 change after 6 months than after the 2 weeks of intensive therapy given in their previous
30 study (Bower et al., 1996).

31
32 Trahan and Malouin (2002) completed a pilot study on intermittent intensive physiotherapy
33 in children with cerebral palsy. This pilot study was designed to: 1) determine the
34 feasibility of a rehabilitation program combining intensive therapy periods (4 times/week
35 for 4 weeks) separated by periods without therapy (8 weeks) over a 6-month period in
36 young and severely impaired children with cerebral palsy (CP); and 2) measure the changes
37 in gross motor function after enhanced therapy periods (immediate effects) and rest periods
38 (retention). Physical therapy (PT) (in phases A, Bt1, and Bt2) consisted of an individual
39 session of 45 minutes. During phase A (baseline), the children underwent conventional
40 physical therapy (twice a week). The duration of phase A ranged from 8 to 20 weeks
41 (staggered baseline). In phase B (experimental), intensive physical therapy (4 times a
42 week) was provided over a 4-week period (phase Bt) followed by an 8-week rest period

1 without any treatment (phase Br). This first sequence of 12 weeks' duration (Bt1: 4 weeks;
2 Br1: 8 weeks) was repeated (Bt2: 4 weeks; Br2: 8 weeks) for a total experimental phase
3 duration of 24 weeks PT administered throughout the study by the children's treating
4 physiotherapist, was the regular therapy based on the neurodevelopmental approach
5 described by Mayston (1992). This approach uses techniques of handling to guide the
6 child's movements with carefully graded stimulation. The rehabilitation program of all
7 children also included OT, which focused on the upper-extremity function (manipulation,
8 prehension), hand–eye coordination tasks, and perceptual training. OT treatments followed
9 a schedule similar to that set for the PT treatments. During the therapy periods, treatments
10 were carried out at the rehabilitation center and children generally used transportation
11 services provided by the center. During phase Br, when all treatments (PT and OT) were
12 discontinued, the children did not come to the center and parents were given general advice
13 without a specific home program. In conclusion, this pilot study showed that children with
14 severe impairments who had quadriplegia improved their motor performance when short
15 periods of high treatment frequency alternated with longer periods of rest. The short
16 periods of intense therapy were well tolerated, and the motor performance of the children
17 did not deteriorate during the rest periods without therapy.

18
19 Most of these studies raised questions about the specificity of the effects observed, either
20 because of a lack of information about the therapy provided or because of methodological
21 concerns related to the outcome measures, the duration of therapy and compliance with
22 treatments.

23
24 Tsorlakis et al. (2004) evaluated the effectiveness of neurodevelopmental treatment (NDT)
25 on gross motor function of children with CP, and particularly to investigate the effect of
26 intensive NDT intervention. The hypothesis was that the children in the intensive therapy
27 group would improve more over time than the children in the reference non-intensive
28 therapy group. Participants were 34 children (12 females, 22 males; mean age 7y 3mo [SD
29 3y 6mo], age range 3 to 14y) with mild to moderate spasticity and hemiplegia ($n=10$),
30 diplegia ($n=12$), and tetraplegia ($n=12$). Therapy was individualized for each child's
31 condition and was dictated by the child's unique clinical needs. Differences in therapy were
32 influenced by variations in the children's severity level and not by differences in therapists'
33 techniques. Each child had a therapist (instead of one therapist for all children) who
34 administered the therapy and set the intervention goals, in accordance with the principles
35 of NDT, thereby minimizing the danger of personal bias. This was preferred for reasons of
36 internal validity because the children would be unfamiliar with their therapist, which could
37 affect their cooperation and performance. All the therapists had been NDT certified for at
38 least 5 years, with clinical experience for more than 10 years. Parents had the responsibility
39 for, and a justifiable interest in, ensuring their children complied with the program. The
40 difference (2 or 5 sessions) in intensity of the therapy between the two groups was,
41 therefore, maintained over the whole study. The NDT intervention occurred over 16 weeks
42 in children with mild to moderate spasticity and a distribution of hemiplegia, diplegia, and

1 quadriplegia improved their gross motor function as measured with the GMFM. This
2 improvement was significant for both groups. Furthermore, intensive NDT intervention
3 had a greater effect on children’s motor function than reference non-intensive intervention.
4 This conclusion suggests more intensive NDT in CP may be a better option, however the
5 small sample size reduces the power of the results. More research is necessary to confirm
6 results.

7
8 Christiansen and Lange (2008) aimed to compare the effect of the delivery of the same
9 amount of intermittent versus continuous physiotherapy given to children with CP. This
10 was organized either in an intermittent regime four times a week for 4 weeks alternating
11 with a 6-week treatment pause, or a continuous once or twice a week regime, both for a
12 total of 30 weeks. Therapy was administered according to generally accepted
13 physiotherapeutic principles. A prospective, randomized controlled design was used.
14 Twenty-five children (16 males, nine females; median age 3 y, range 1 y-8 y 1 mo)
15 participated. The children were stratified by age and function level (all levels represented)
16 using the Gross Motor Function Classification System and assigned to continuous or
17 intermittent treatment. The Gross Motor Function Measure 66 (GMFM-66) was used as
18 the outcome measure before and after intervention. Statistical analysis revealed that both
19 groups increased their GMFM scores during intervention (intermittent group $p=0.028$;
20 continuous group $p=0.038$), while there was no significant difference comparing delta
21 scores between groups ($p=0.81$). Compliance was significantly higher in the intermittent
22 group ($p=0.005$), but there was no association between GMFM score and compliance. The
23 study shows that organizing physiotherapy in two markedly different ways yields identical
24 outcome measures for children with CP. Ustad et al. (2009) examined effects of blocks of
25 daily physiotherapy in 5 infants with cerebral palsy. Intervention consisted of two 4-week
26 periods of daily physiotherapy, interrupted by 8 weeks of physiotherapy as usual. The
27 children were assessed every 4th week using the Gross Motor Function Measure.
28 Compliance was noted as high. All infants showed gross motor progress compared with
29 baseline but separating effect of daily physiotherapy from physiotherapy as usual was
30 inconclusive. Parents did prefer the intensive treatment alternative. Authors concluded that
31 blocks of intensive therapy can be an alternative to regular dosage of physiotherapy, but
32 until further studies are conducted, the physiotherapy intervention, intensity, and frequency
33 should be tailored to meet the needs of each individual infant and family. Again, the sample
34 size was very small and thus the power of the study is not adequate to confirm conclusions.
35

36 Arpino et al. (2010) compared the efficacy of intensive versus non-intensive rehabilitative
37 treatment in children with cerebral palsy. A meta-analysis of the studies published between
38 January 1996 and July 2007 was performed using studies including
39 infants/children/adolescents (1-18 years old). Authors concluded that intensive therapy
40 tended to have a greater effect than non-intensive. The effect of intensive treatment tended
41 to be apparently stronger for children 2 years of age. Authors concluded that their meta-
42 analysis showed that, in children with cerebral palsy, intensive conventional therapy may

1 improve the functional motor outcome, but the effect size seemed to be modest. These
2 results should be taken with caution as the studies included, and methodology used was of
3 low quality. Elgawish and Zakaria (2014) assessed gross motor progress in children with
4 spastic (quadriplegic and diplegic) CP treated with intensive physical therapy (PT) as
5 compared with a matched group treated with a standard PT regimen. Out of 45 patients
6 with spastic CP aged 2-6 years, 25 patients were assigned to an intensive therapy group
7 (group A), whereas 20 patients were assigned to standard therapy (control group B).
8 Patients were classified according to the gross motor function classification system. The
9 intervention program was administered for 16 weeks, with sitting and walking as the
10 treatment goal. The gross motor function measures 88 and 66 (GMFM-88 and GMFM-66)
11 and gross motor performance measure (GMPM) were used for assessment at baseline, at 8
12 weeks, and at 16 weeks after intervention. At baseline, there were no statistically
13 significant differences between the two groups. After 8 and 16 weeks, both groups
14 improved significantly for all measures, except sitting for the GMFM-88. No statistically
15 significant differences were found between the two groups for GMFM-66 scores after 8
16 weeks, however significant differences existed after 16 weeks with Group A performing
17 better. Statistically significant differences were found between the two groups for GMFM-
18 88 and GMPM scores after 8 and 16 weeks, again with Group A performing better. Authors
19 concluded that intensive PT regimens were more beneficial than standard therapy in spastic
20 CP, especially in children with a low functional level. However, this was not tested
21 statistically in the proper way. Results should be considered with caution given both groups
22 improved across all time periods and for all measures and for other methodologic reasons.

23
24 Park (2016) attempted to investigate the effect of physical therapy frequency based on
25 neurodevelopmental therapy on gross motor function in children with cerebral palsy. The
26 study sample included 161 children with cerebral palsy who attended a convalescent or
27 rehabilitation center for disabled individuals or a special school for children with physical
28 disabilities in South Korea. Gross Motor Function A total of 93 boys and 68 girls were
29 recruited. The age range was 6–15 years. Measure data were collected according to
30 physical therapy frequency based on neurodevelopmental therapy for a period of 1 year.
31 Results demonstrated the differences in gross motor function according to physical therapy
32 frequency were significant for crawling, kneeling, standing, and Gross Motor Function
33 Measure total score. The differences in gross motor function according to frequency of
34 physical therapy were significant for standing in Gross Motor Function Classification
35 System Level V. Authors concluded that intensive physical therapy was more effective for
36 improving gross motor function in this population of children with cerebral palsy. In
37 particular, crawling and kneeling, and standing ability showed greater increases with
38 intensive physical therapy. Although there was a significant effect between gross motor
39 function and physical therapy frequency, the correlation coefficients were small, thus
40 caution should be taken with study interpretation.

1 Størvoid et al. (2018) investigated the association between physical therapy frequency and
2 gross motor improvement in children with cerebral palsy (CP). This was a prospective
3 cohort study of 442 children aged 2-12 years in which the outcome was change in reference
4 percentiles for the Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM-66) between two subsequent
5 assessments ($n = 1056$). Results noted a dose response association between physical
6 therapy frequency and gross motor improvement. Mean change was 4.2 percentiles larger
7 for physical therapy 1-2 times per week and 7.1 percentiles larger for physical therapy >2
8 times per week, compared to less frequent physical therapy when analyzed in a
9 multivariable model including multiple child and intervention factors. The only statistically
10 significant confounder was number of contractures which was negatively associated with
11 gross motor improvement. Authors concluded that when gross motor improvement is a
12 goal for children with CP, more frequent physical therapy should be considered. They also
13 emphasize that contractures should be addressed in order to optimize gross motor
14 improvement for children with cerebral palsy.

15
16 Hsu et al. (2019) assessed the effects of intensive exercise-based therapy on improvement
17 in gross motor function in children with CP. Authors searched for randomized clinical trials
18 evaluating the effects of therapeutic exercise training by using Gross Motor Function
19 Measurement (GMFM) 66 and 88 among children with CP. Studies that used interventions
20 in addition to therapeutic exercise were excluded from the present meta-analysis. Exercise
21 intensity was defined using the number of training hours per day and duration of
22 intervention (in weeks). The effects of the number of daily training hours and program
23 duration on GMFM improvement were evaluated using meta-regression. Results: The
24 comprehensive search returned 270 references, and 13 of 270 references met the eligibility
25 criteria. The 13 trials recruited 412 children with CP. These trials measured motor
26 improvements by using GMFM-66 ($n = 8$) and GMFM-88 ($n = 5$). The GMFM scores in
27 the children who received the therapeutic intervention did not show significantly greater
28 improvement than those of the children who received standard care. Meta-regression
29 analysis revealed that the improvement in GMFM scores was positively associated with
30 the number of daily training hours (point estimate = 0.549; $p = 0.031$). Authors included
31 that intensive physical exercise improved CP outcomes in the intervention and standard
32 therapy groups. An increase in the number of daily training hours improved in CP outcomes
33 in the children who received standard therapy.

34
35 Das et al. (2019) summarized and evaluated the effectiveness of physiotherapy
36 interventions in children with CP. Only studies with a systematic review or meta-analysis
37 on PT interventions in children diagnosed with CP were included. Thirty-four systematic
38 reviews were identified that distinguished 15 different interventions. Moderate evidence of
39 effectiveness was found for constraint-induced movement therapy for upper limb recovery,
40 goal-directed/functional training, and gait training to improve gait speed. Conflicting
41 evidence was found for the role of exercises on strength training and cardiorespiratory
42 training. Neurodevelopmental therapy (NDT) was found ineffective as an intervention.

1 This review suffered from limitations such as including reviews that had small sample size
2 and that had considered heterogeneity of treatment interventions. Hence, the effectiveness
3 of most PT interventions is found to be limited. On the basis of the present evidence,
4 functional goal-oriented approaches are found to be effective and future research is
5 required to determine the best ways to improve functional outcomes in children with CP.

6
7 Faccioli et al. (2023) provided an updated overview of the state of knowledge, regarding
8 the management and motor rehabilitation of children and young people with cerebral palsy.
9 Four guidelines, 43 systematic reviews, and 3 primary studies were included. Considering
10 the subject's multidimensional profile, age and developmentally appropriate activities were
11 recommended to set individual goals and interventions. Only a few approaches were
12 supported by high-level evidence (i.e., bimanual therapy and constraint-induced movement
13 therapy to enhance manual performance). Several task-specific approaches to improve
14 gross motor function and gait were reported (e.g., mobility and gait training, cycling,
15 backward gait, and treadmill), due to low-level evidence. Increasing daily physical activity
16 and countering sedentary behavior were advised. Based on the available evidence, non-
17 invasive brain stimulation, virtual reality, action-observation therapy, hydrotherapy, and
18 hippotherapy might be complementary to task or goal-oriented physical therapy programs.
19 Authors concluded that a multiple-disciplinary family-centered evidence-based
20 management is recommended. All motor rehabilitation approaches to minors affected by
21 cerebral palsy must share the following fundamental characteristics: engaging active
22 involvement of the subject, individualized, age and developmentally appropriate, goal-
23 directed, skill-based, and preferably intensive and time-limited, but suitable for the needs
24 and preferences of the child or young person and their family, and feasible considering the
25 implications for themselves and possible contextual limitations.

26
27 With regards to the Adeli suit or NeuroSuit, it is suggested that the Adeli suit can provide
28 30 to 80 pounds of pressure and approximation through the joints and provide dynamic
29 proprioceptive input to improve the neuromuscular and vestibular systems. Changes in the
30 activity of vestibular nystagmus indicate the ability to maintain balance and orientation in
31 space. Semenova (1997) describes a new method for the restorative treatment of patients
32 with residual-stage infantile cerebral palsy. The method is based on proprioceptive
33 correction using an “Adeli-92” device, which is a modified space suit used in weightless
34 conditions. The “Adeli-92” allows intensification and some extent of normalization of
35 afferent proprioceptive mobility-controlling input. Eighty percent (80%) of the patients
36 presented with impaired function of the labyrinths, resulting in increased muscle tone and
37 pathological reflexes. Positive clinical effects were obtained in 70% of patients, with
38 improvements in walking and self-care ability. The positive effects of this method were
39 demonstrated objectively using electroencephalography, electroneuromyography, studies
40 of somatosensory evoked potentials, and studies of the vestibular system. Sixty-two percent
41 (62%) of the patients presented with adequately distributed muscle tone in static and
42 dynamic conditions at the end of the study. According to Semenova, when a child with CP

1 is positioned vertically, pathological reflexes affect the child’s ability to maintain balance.
2 Implementing the Adeli suit treatment with dynamic proprioceptive correction daily for
3 several weeks appears to decrease the influence of pathological reflexes and tone,
4 indicating changes in cortical and reticular structures.

5
6 In a study by Bar-haim et al. (2006), NDT was compared to the Adeli Suit Treatment (AST)
7 in twenty-four children with CP for four weeks, five days per week for two-hour sessions.
8 The original Russian protocol for using the Adeli suit was used, including 1) massage, 2)
9 passive stretching, 3) application of the suit with the body in proper alignment, and 4)
10 rigorous exercises and functional activities in weight bearing. The results of intensive
11 therapy with AST versus NDT revealed significant improvements in GMFM and
12 mechanical efficiency index of stair-climbing scores in one month within the AST group
13 and in nine months within the NDT group, predominantly in children with higher motor
14 function. However, when the retention of motor skills was tested nine months after
15 treatment, there was no significant difference between the AST and NDT groups. Authors
16 suggest that the AST provides resistance across the major muscle groups improving
17 strength, endurance, posture, coordination, gait deviations, and function of the most
18 important branch of the anti-gravity system—the vestibular system. Given the nervous
19 system of premature and neurologically damaged children does not receive the unique and
20 crucial pressure and input typically experienced from the second week of gestation, the
21 infant is deprived of vital tactile and sensory stimulation. Therapeutic suits such as the
22 Adeli and NeuroSuit are proposed to assist in re-training the central nervous system by
23 allowing the child to overcome increasingly complex pathological movement and to
24 execute and repeat previously unknown movement patterns. More studies are needed to
25 provide evidence to support use of these suits to improve outcomes. Bailes et al. (2011)
26 conducted a randomized controlled trial to examine the effects of suit wear during an
27 intensive therapy program on motor function among 20 children with cerebral palsy. The
28 children were randomized to an experimental (TheraSuit) or a control (control suit) group
29 and participated in an intensive therapy program. The Pediatric Evaluation of Disability
30 Inventory (PEDI) and Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM)–66 were administered
31 before and after treatment (four and nine weeks), as well as an assessment of parent
32 satisfaction. There were no significant differences found between the groups. There were
33 significant within-group differences found for the control group on the GMFM-66 and for
34 the experimental group on the GMFM-66, PEDI Functional Skills Self-care, PEDI
35 Caregiver Assistance Selfcare, and PEDI Functional Skills Mobility. There were no
36 adverse events reported.

37
38 Almeida et al. (2017) conducted a systematic review to evaluate the available evidence on
39 the effects of interventions based on the use of therapeutic suits in the treatment of
40 impairments and functional limitations of children with cerebral palsy. The review
41 included 13 studies: two evaluated the Full Body Suit; two the Dynamic Elastomeric Fabric
42 Orthose; three TheraTogs; and six tested the TheraSuit/AdeliSuit protocols. The review

1 found that the quality of evidence for the Full Body Suit, the Dynamic Elastomeric Fabric
2 Orthose and the TheraSuit/AdeliSuit protocols was very low for body structure and
3 function outcomes, and the evidence for TheraTogs was low quality. Regarding the activity
4 outcomes, the review noted that the Full Body Suit and TheraSuit showed very low-quality
5 evidence while the evidence for TheraSuit/AdeliSuit protocols were of low quality. The
6 review concluded that the low quality of evidence suggests caution in recommending the
7 use of these therapeutic suits. Martins et al. (2016) reported on a systematic review and
8 meta-analysis that examined the efficacy of suit therapy on functioning in children and
9 adolescents with cerebral palsy (CP). The review included four randomized controlled
10 trials ($n=110$). Two RCTs compared Adeli suit treatment (AST) with neurodevelopmental
11 treatment (NDT); one study compared modified suit therapy with conventional therapy;
12 and the other compared TheraSuit with a treatment classified as other therapy approach.
13 Small effect sizes were found for gross motor function at post-treatment and follow-up.
14 The review noted limitations that included the small number of studies, the variability
15 between them, and the low sample sizes. The authors noted that there is a need for better
16 evidence to examine and prove the effects of short intensive treatment such as suit therapy
17 on gross motor function in children and adolescents with CP.

18
19 Belizón-Bravo et al. (2021) assessed the effects of interventions with the dynamic suit
20 orthoses (DSO) on the altered spatio-temporal gait parameters (STGPs) in children with
21 CP. A total of 12 studies were included, which showed great heterogeneity in terms of
22 design type, sample size, and intervention performed (two employed a Therasuit, three
23 employed the Adeli suit, three employed Theratogs, one employed elastomeric tissue
24 dynamic orthosis, one employed a full-body suit, one employed external belt orthosis, and
25 one employed dynamic orthosis composed of trousers and T-shirt). The studies of higher
26 methodological quality showed significant post-intervention changes in walking speed
27 (which is the most widely evaluated parameter), cadence, stride length, and step length
28 symmetry. Although the evidence is limited, the intervention with DSO combined with a
29 program of training/physical therapy seems to have positive effects on the STGPs in
30 children with CP, with the functional improvements that it entails. Despite the immediate
31 effect after one session, a number of sessions between 18 and 60 is recommended to obtain
32 optimum results. Future studies should measure all STGPs, and not only the main ones,
33 such as gait speed, in order to draw more accurate conclusions on the functional
34 improvement of gait after the use of this type of intervention.

35
36 Baptista et al. (2023) investigated the effect of the Therasuit method on the gross motor
37 function of children with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) in a case series. The study was
38 conducted with 9 male children (42.1 + 4.1 months old) with ASD who received the
39 Therasuit protocol for 4 weeks (20 sessions). The Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM-
40 88) was used to assess the children's gross motor function before and after the Therasuit
41 method intervention. In dimension B, several skills showed improvement, including
42 transfer to sitting, lean forward and return, trunk rotation without support, and transfer from

1 sitting to all 4 stances. In dimension C, an increase was observed in skills such as being
2 prone to all 4 stance transfers and reaching above the shoulders. In dimension D, maximum
3 scores were achieved in skills such as pulling to stand on a large bench without assistance.
4 The dimensions with the greatest impairment were D and E, corresponding to gross motor
5 skills in orthostasis and dynamic skills in orthostasis, respectively. The findings suggest
6 that the Therasuit method is a promising resource for treating motor impairments in
7 children with ASD. However, further studies with a larger sample size, an adequate control
8 condition, and random assignment of participants would be needed to provide stronger
9 evidence of the method's effectiveness in this population.

10
11 Intensive interventions are provided to young children with unilateral cerebral palsy
12 (UCP), classically focused on the upper extremity despite the frequent impairment of gross
13 motor function. It is hypothesized that Hand-Arm Bimanual Intensive Therapy Including
14 Lower Extremities (HABIT-ILE) effectively improves manual dexterity and gross motor
15 function in school-aged children. Araneda et al. (2023) sought to verify if HABIT-ILE
16 would improve manual abilities in young children with UCP more than usual motor
17 activity. Young children were assessed at baseline (T0), 2 weeks after baseline (T1), and 3
18 months after baseline (T2). Subjects were matched (age at inclusion, lesion type, cause of
19 cerebral palsy, and affected side) and pairs randomization was performed. Health care
20 professionals and assessors of main outcomes were blinded to group allocation. At least 23
21 young children (in each group) aged 12 to 59 months with spastic/dyskinetic UCP and able
22 to follow instructions were included. Exclusion criteria included uncontrolled seizures,
23 scheduled botulinum toxin injections, orthopedic surgery scheduled during the 6 months
24 before or during the study period, severe visual/cognitive impairments, or contraindications
25 to magnetic resonance imaging. Intervention included two weeks of usual motor activity
26 including usual rehabilitation (control group) vs 2 weeks (50 hours) of HABIT-ILE
27 (HABIT-ILE group). Primary outcome was Assisting Hand Assessment (AHA); secondary
28 outcomes was Gross Motor Function Measure-66 (GMFM-66), Pediatric Evaluation of
29 Disability Inventory-Computer Adaptive Test (PEDI-CAT), and Canadian Occupational
30 Performance Measure (COPM). Of 50 recruited young children (26 girls [52%], median
31 age; 35.3 months for HABIT-ILE group; median age, 32.8 months for control group), 49
32 were included in the final analyses. Change in AHA score from T0 to T2 was significantly
33 greater in the HABIT-ILE group. Changes in GMFM-66, PEDI-CAT daily activities,
34 COPM performance, and satisfaction scores were greater in the HABIT ILE group. In this
35 clinical trial, early HABIT-ILE was shown to be an effective treatment to improve motor
36 performance in young children with UCP. Moreover, the improvements had an impact on
37 daily life activities of these children.

38
39 Liang et al. (2023) compared the efficacy of constraint-induced movement therapy (CIMT)
40 and bimanual intensive training (BIT) with 36-hr interventional dosages for both motor
41 and psychosocial outcomes in children with unilateral cerebral palsy (UCP). Participants
42 included forty-eight children with UCP, ages 6 to 12 yr. The intervention included both

1 CIMT and BIT delivered via individual intervention for 2.25 hr/day, twice a week, for 8
2 wk. The Melbourne Assessment 2, Pediatric Motor Activity Log-Revised, Bruininks-
3 Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency, ABILHAND-Kids measure, and Parenting Stress
4 Index-Short Form were administered at pretreatment, midterm, posttreatment, and 6 mo
5 after intervention. An engagement questionnaire for investigating the child's engagement
6 in the intervention was used to collect the perspectives of the children and the parents
7 weekly. Children with UCP who received either CIMT or BIT achieved similar motor
8 improvements. The only difference was that CIMT yielded larger improvements in
9 frequency and quality of use of the more affected hand at the 6-mo follow-up. Similar child
10 engagement and parental stress levels were found in the two groups. This study
11 comprehensively compared the efficacy of motor and psychosocial outcomes for 36-hr
12 dosages of CIMT and BIT. The promising findings support the clinical efficacy and
13 feasibility of the proposed protocols. The core therapeutic principle of CIMT (i.e., remind
14 the child to use the more affected hand) may be more easily duplicated by parents. Parents
15 may have overestimated their child's engagement and given relatively higher scores;
16 therefore, occupational therapists should also consider the opinions of the children
17 themselves.

18
19 Few studies have examined the effect of intensive therapy on gross motor function and
20 trunk control in children with cerebral palsy (CP). As a result, van Tittelboom et al. (2023)
21 evaluated the effects of an intensive burst of therapy on the lower limbs and trunk by
22 comparing qualitative functional and functional approaches. This study was designed as a
23 quasi-randomized, controlled, and evaluator-blinded trial. Thirty-six children with bilateral
24 spastic CP (mean age = 8 y 9 mo; Gross Motor Function Classification II and III) were
25 randomized into functional (n = 12) and qualitative functional (n = 24) groups. The main
26 outcome measures were the Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM), the Quality Function
27 Measure (QFM), and the Trunk Control Measurement Scale (TCMS). The results revealed
28 significant time-by-approach interaction effects for all QFM attributes and the GMFM's
29 standing dimension and total score. Post hoc tests showed immediate post-intervention
30 gains with the qualitative functional approach for all QFM attributes, the GMFM's standing
31 and walking/running/jumping dimension and total score, and the total TCMS score. The
32 qualitative functional approach shows promising results with improvements in movement
33 quality and gross motor function.

34
35 Carton de Tournai et al. (2024) determined the effectiveness of baby Hand-Arm Bimanual
36 Intensive Therapy Including Lower Extremities (HABIT-ILE) to improve motor function
37 in infants with unilateral CP (UCP). Infants were matched in pairs by age and lesion type
38 and randomized to either the treatment or control group. Infants were assessed at baseline
39 (T0) and 1 (T1) and 3 months (T2) follow-up. Inclusion criteria were aged 6 to 18 months
40 at T0 (corrected age if preterm birth), a diagnosis or being at risk of UCP, and the ability
41 to comply with the testing and training procedures. Exclusion criteria were uncontrolled
42 seizures, botulinum toxin injections, orthopedic surgery, or specific intensive therapy

1 within 6 months before and until the end of the study. Infants in the treatment group
 2 received 50 hours of baby HABIT-ILE over 2 weeks, while those in the control group
 3 continued their usual motor activities. The primary outcome was use of the more affected
 4 hand as measured using the Mini-Assisting Hand Assessment (Mini-AHA). Secondary
 5 outcomes included Canadian Occupational Performance Measure (COPM) performance
 6 and satisfaction scores, Gross Motor Function Measure-66 (GMFM-66) scores, and other
 7 motor and functional outcomes. Of the 48 infants entering the study, 46 (mean [SD] age,
 8 13.3 [4.1] months; 27 boys [58%]) were included in the final analyses, with 24 in the
 9 treatment group and 22 in the control group. Group \times assessment time interactions showed
 10 significant improvements that favored the treatment group for the Mini-AHA and for both
 11 parts of the COPM. Although both groups improved in the GMFM-66, there was no
 12 significant interaction. This randomized clinical trial demonstrates the feasibility of
 13 delivering 50 hours of HABIT-ILE over a 2-week period in infants with UCP. These
 14 findings show that the intervention is effective in improving motor abilities, as revealed by
 15 an increase in the use of the more affected hand in bimanual tasks and in enhanced reported
 16 functional goal outcomes.

17 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

19 Practitioners should practice only in the areas in which they are competent based on their
 20 education, training, and experience. Levels of education, experience, and proficiency may
 21 vary among individual practitioners. It is ethically and legally incumbent on a practitioner
 22 to determine where they have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform such services
 23 and whether the services are within their scope of practice.

25 It is best practice for the practitioner to appropriately render services to a member only if
 26 they are trained, equally skilled, and adequately competent to deliver a service compared
 27 to others trained to perform the same procedure. If the service would be most competently
 28 delivered by another health care practitioner who has more skill and training, it would be
 29 best practice to refer the member to the more expert practitioner.

31 Best practice can be defined as a clinical, scientific, or professional technique, method, or
 32 process that is typically evidence-based and consensus driven and is recognized by a
 33 majority of professionals in a particular field as more effective at delivering a particular
 34 outcome than any other practice (Joint Commission International Accreditation Standards
 35 for Hospitals, 2020).

37 Depending on the practitioner's scope of practice, training, and experience, a member's
 38 condition and/or symptoms during examination or the course of treatment may indicate the
 39 need for referral to another practitioner or even emergency care. In such cases it is prudent
 40 for the practitioner to refer the member for appropriate co-management (e.g., to their
 41 primary care physician) or if immediate emergency care is warranted, to contact 911 as

1 appropriate. See the *Managing Medical Emergencies (CPG 159 – S)* clinical practice
2 guideline for information.

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