

1 Overview of Physical Therapy for Children with 2 Cerebral Palsy

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5 **8Purpose** Review of the evidence on the effectiveness of NDT/Bobath therapy and alternative treatments for children

6 and adolescents with cerebral palsy to inform LHB commissioning decisions for this treatment.

7 **10Method** The electronic journal site was searched by terms "cerebral palsy", "intervention", physical therapy". We

8 analyzed and described the total 24 cited articles from 9 articles in Science Direct, and 16 articles in K- RISS from 20

9 Oct. 2018 to 7 Jan. 2019.

10 **13Results** Later definition of cerebral palsy emphasized secondary musculoskeletal problem over time in children with

11 cerebral palsy. In early definition emphasized person's function or neurological disability. Prevalence rate of cerebral

12 palsy were 6~8% from perinatal asphyxia, the overall prevalence of cerebral palsy has remained constant in recent

13 years despite increased survival of at-risk preterm infants. Gross Motor Function Classification System (GMFCS) has

14 been widely employed internationally to group individuals with cerebral palsy into one of five levels based on

15 functional mobility or activity limitation. The treatment must be goal oriented, such as to assist with mobility, reduce

16 or prevent contractures, improve positioning and hygiene, and provided comfort. Each member of the child's

17 multidisciplinary team, including the child and both parents, should participate in the serial evaluation and treatment

18 planning.

19 **22Conclusion** We found that the definition of cerebral palsy is changing to focus on secondary problem over time and

20 the children with cerebral palsy is best cared for with an individualized treatment plan that provides a combination of

21 interventions.

22 **25Keyword** Cerebral Palsy, Intervention, physical therapy

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27 I. Instruction

28 Cerebral palsy was described in 1862 by an orthopedic surgeon, William James Little first, a

29 motor disorder resulting from a non-progressive insult to the developing brain (Shevell &

30 Bodensteiner, 2004). Children with cerebral palsy suffer from multiple problems and potential

31 disabilities such as mental retardation, epilepsy, feeding difficulties, and ophthalmologic and

32 hearing impairment.

33 Dzienkowski et al (1996) recommended the primary health care practitioner must be prepared

34 to recognize neuro-motor deficits, diagnose and classify the type of disorder, and implement a

35 methodical treatment plan. Early institution of physical, occupational, and speech therapies

38are essential for proper developmental progress (Nygraad et al, 1991).
39Physical therapy plays a central role in managing the children with cerebral palsy and it
40focuses on function, active movement, and optimal use of the child's potential (Caspersen et
41al, 1985). Physical therapy uses physical approaches to promote, maintain, and restore
42physical, psychological, and social well-being (Bobath, 1971).
43The best care for the children with cerebral palsy is an individualized treatment plan that can
44provide a combination of intervention (Jan, 2006). Therapeutic intervention included
45formulating an individualized treatment plan that is functional, goal-oriented, time-limited,
46and cost-effective. This treatment plan should be team delivered and
47hospital-home-rehabilitation center-based according to the needs of each child (Horn, 1997).
48In the last decade, the evidence based treatment of cerebral palsy has rapidly expanded,
49providing clinicians and families with the possibility of newer, safe, and more effective
50interventions (Novak et al, 2013). Sakzewski et al (2009) found that Orthopaedic surgery and
51movement normalization were once the mainstays of intervention, but localized anti-spasticity
52medications and motor learning intervention have gained increased popularity.
53The intervention for children with cerebral palsy strongly require the provision of a number of
54family-centered services that make a difference in the lives of these children and their
55families (Jan, 2006). Setting realistic goals, determination of the priorities, informing the
56family and enhancing family participation in physical therapy programs will increase the
57success of physical therapy (Gunel, 2009).
58The purpose of this study is to find out proper concept and intervention to treat children with
59cerebral palsy in physical therapist's perspective according to recognize the changing
60definition of cerebral palsy, and to investigate the several classification and intervention for
61children with cerebral palsy.

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63 **II. Method**

64The electronic journal site was searched by the search terms "cerebral palsy", "intervention",
65we analyzed and describe the total 24 cited articles from 9 articles in Science Direct, and 16
66articles in K- RISS.

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68 **III. Results**

68 1. The change of definition of cerebral palsy.

69In 1964 cerebral palsy is defined as that a disorder of movement and posture due to a defect
70or lesion of the immature brain. And the disorder of cerebral palsy was mainly focused on
71posture and movement (Bax, 1964). A clinical presentation of wide variety of cerebral cortical
72or sub cortical insults occurring during the first year of life.
73Rosenbaum et al (2000) defined the cerebral palsy that a group of permanent disorder of the
74development of movement and posture causing activity limitation, that are attributed to
75non-progressive disturbance that occurred in the developing fetal or infant brain.
76Rosenbaum et al (2007) modified the definition of cerebral palsy as that the motor disorders
77of cerebral palsy are often accompanied by disturbance of sensation, cognition,
78communication, perception, behavior, by a epilepsy and by secondary musculoskeletal
79problems.
80Later definition of cerebral palsy emphasized secondary musculoskeletal problem over time in
81children with cerebral palsy. In early definition emphasized person's function or neurological

82disability.

83 2. Etiology and prevalence of cerebral palsy.

84Originally cerebral palsy was largely attributed to acute hypoxia during labor or birth, but now
85evidence indicates that most lesions occur in the second half of gestation, an active period of
86brain development (Hadders-Algra, 2000).

87Current evidence suggests that a multiplicity of risk factors contribute to cerebral palsy rather
88than a single event. Single events such as uterine rupture, cord prolapse, major placental
89abruption resulting in hypoxic insults to the brain account for a small proportion. Birth
90asphyxia is not a common antecedent (Nelson, 2008).

91According Jan (2006) describe, preterm infants are at the highest risk for developing cerebral
92palsy. The vulnerable brain is harmed during a critical period of development primarily by
93known CNS complications of prematurity such as intraventricular hemorrhage and
94periventricular leukomalacia.

95Children with cerebral palsy prevalence increases with lower birthweight and higher
96immaturity. Increase of survival after preterm birth has first also increased cerebral palsy
97rates. In the 1980s, this trend was reversed for lower birth weight infants, and in the 1990s,
98for very lower birth weight or very immature infants (Krageloh-Mann, 2009).

99The study from 2006 to 2007 by Oh(2007) in Korea presented that the cause of cerebral palsy
100in thought to be multifactorial including prematurity, inflammation, genetic cause and
101environmental factor. Although evidence suggested that 70~80% of cerebral palsy is due to
102prenatal factors and birth asphyxia palsy a relatively minor role.

103In the study of Korea, Cheon (2014) presented that the risk factor for major
104neurodevelopmental impairments in very lower birth weight infants was related on preterm
105birth and minimizing hypotension shock and severe IVH.

106Prevalence rate of cerebral palsy were 6~8% from perinatal asphyxia (Blair and Stanly, 1988),
107the overall prevalence of cerebral palsy has remained constant in recent years despite
108increased survival of at-risk preterm infants (Oskoui et al, 2013).

109
1103. Classification of cerebral palsy

111 1) Classification by neurological condition (Table 1)

112The neurological condition could be assessed by tone abnormality, as well as the diagnosed
113movement disorder present such as spasticity, ataxia, dystonia, athetosis. The type of
114abnormal muscle tone or involuntary movement disorder observed or elicited is usually
115assumed to be related to the underlying pathophysiology of the disorder, and may also reflect
116etiologic circumstance (Rosenbaum et al, 2007)..

117The SCPE (Surveillance of Cerebral Palsy in Europe) classified cerebral palsy into two subtype
118between spastic and dyskinetic type. This classification of subtype requires an assessment of
119the predominant motor disorder. It proposed that children continue to be classified by the
120predominant type of tone or movement abnormality, but any additional tone or movement
121abnormalities present should be listed as secondary type.

122Table 1. Classification of Cerebral Palsy

AACP (Minear, 1956)	Bobath (1997)	AACPDM (1997)	SCPE (2008)
Spastic	Spastic	Spastic	Spastic
Athetosis	Severe	Dyskinetic	Dyskinetic

tension non tension dystonic tremor Rigidity Ataxia Tremor Atonic Mixed Unclassified	moderate Athetosis with spasticity with tonic spasm with intermittent spasm choreoathetosis Ataxia Hypotonia	Hypotonic Ataxic Mixed	dystonic choreoathetosis nonclassifiable Ataxic Non classifiable
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123AACP : American Academy of Cerebral Palsy

124AACPD : American Academy of Cerebral Palsy and Developmental Medicine

125SCPE : Surveillance of Cerebral Palsy in Europe.

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127 2) Classification by topographic of motor involvement.

128Cerebral palsy can be classified according to the topographic distribution of motor

129involvement. Motor deficits include monoplegia, diplegia, hemiplegia, triplegia, quadriplegia

130and double hemiplegia(Jan, 2006). Monoplegia involved one limb, hemiplegia that lateralized

131one-half of the body is affected. Triplegia involved 3 extremities, usually both legs and one

132arm. They may represent hemiplegia plus paraplegia or incomplete quadriplegia. Quadriplegia

133or Tetraplegia involved all 4 extremities. Diplegia is paralysis affecting like parts on either side

134of the body in bilateral paralysis. Double hemiplegia also is seldom term and implies those

135cases in which the arms are more involved than the legs (Minear, 1954); .

136According SCPE guideline, any additional tone or movement abnormalities present should be

137listed as secondary types, as well as the anatomical distribution or topographic of feature like

138as bilateral, unilateral. The SCPE classification of subtype proposed that spastic bilateral,

139spastic unilateral, dyskinetic dystonic, dyskinetic choreoathetotic, dyskinetic non-classifiable.,

140ataxic, non classifiable.

141

142 3) Classification by functional level

143The functional consequences of involvement of the upper and lower extremities should there

144for be separately classified using objective functional scales. Gross Motor Function

145Classification System (GMFCS) has been widely employed internationally to group individuals

146with cerebral palsy into one of five levels based on functional mobility or activity limitation

147(Beckung & Hagerg, 2002).

148The GMFCS was developed for children with cerebral palsy who are 12 years of age and

149younger and subsequently expanded to include a 12 to 18 year age band revised to include

150environmental and personal considerations for the 6 to 12 year and 12 to 18 year bands

151(Palisano et al, 2008).(Table 2).

152The GMFCS is a 5 level classification system that describes the gross motor function of

153children and youth with cerebral palsy on the basis of their self-initiated movement with

154particular emphasis on sitting, walking, and wheeled mobility. The GMFCS measures what

155children do in their typical settings (performance), not what they are able to do in an ideal

156environment (capability). The GMFCS is one of the most widely used classification systems for

157individuals with cerebral palsy, as it is used in clinical examinations, research, and population

158based studies (Palisano et al, 2007).

159The Manual Ability Classification System (MACS) has been developed to classify how children

160with cerebral palsy use their hands when handling objects in daily activities. The classification

161 is designed to reflect the child's typical manual performance, not the child's maximal
 162 capacity. It classifies the collaborative use of hands together (Eliasson et al, 2006)
 163 The MACS is a five level system to classify hand use of children with cerebral palsy 4 to 18
 164 years of age. Classification is based on the child's typical performance in handling objects
 165 during daily activities. Distinctions among the levels are based on the child's ability to handle
 166 objects and the amount of assistance or adaptation the child needs to complete tasks of daily
 167 living (Eliasson et al, 2006).

168

169 Table 2. GMFCS between 12 and 18 birthday : Descriptors (Palisano et al, 2008)

Level	Description
GMFCS Level 1	Youth walk at home, school, outdoors and in the community. Youth are able to climb curbs and stairs without physical assistance or a railing. They perform gross motor skills such as running and jumping but speed, balance and coordination are limited.
GMFCS Level 2	Youth walk in most settings but environmental factors and personal choice influence mobility choices. At school or work they may require a hand held mobility device for safety and climb stairs holding onto a railing. Outdoors and in the community youth may use wheeled mobility when traveling long distances.
GMFCS Level 3	Youth are capable of walking using a hand held mobility device. Youth may climb stairs holding onto a railing with supervision or assistance. At school they may self-propel a manual wheelchair or use powered mobility. Outdoors and in the community youth are transported in a wheelchair or use powered mobility
GMFCS Level 4	Youth use wheeled mobility in most settings. Physical assistance of 1-2 people is required for transfers. Indoors, youth may walk short distances with physical assistance, use wheeled mobility or a body support walker when positioned. They may operate a powered chair, otherwise are transported in a manual wheelchair.
GMFCS Level 5	Youth are transported in a manual wheelchair in all settings. Youth are limited in their ability to maintain antigravity head and trunk postures and control leg and arm movements. Self-mobility is severely limited, even with the use of assistive technology

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171 4. Intervention for cerebral palsy

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173 1) Medical management

174 Botulinum toxin A injections are being used more frequently to treat upper and lower

175 extremity spasticity and hypertonia in children with cerebral palsy.

176 Management of spasticity is a major challenge to the rehabilitation team. The initial

177 management has centered on the elimination of externally exacerbating causes, physical

178 therapy, splinting and casting. Medical management has centered on anti-spasticity

179 medication use, but more recently focal treatment methods including phenol blocks and

180 botulinum toxin have been utilized. There has been an increased use of intrathecal

181 baclofen in the management of refractory tone. Dorsal rhizotomy has been advocated for

182 a selective population of children with spasticity. There is no standardized approach to

183 spasticity management and this paper will discuss the importance of evidence-based

184treatment of spasticity that is adapted for the individual child(Matthews & Balaban,
1852009).
186Botulinum toxin type A(BTX), a neuromuscular blocking agent, reduced muscle tone in various
187neuromuscular disorders. The safety and short term efficacy of BTX injections were evaluated
188in a prospective, 3 months, double blind, randomized clinical trial involving 114 children with
189cerebral palsy and dynamic equinus foot deformity. Outcome was determined by
190observational gait analysis, ankle range of motion measurements and quantification of muscle
191denervation by nerve conduction. Patients in the BTX group demonstrated improved gait
192function and partial denervation of the injected muscle (Koman et al, 2000).
193Three drugs diazepam, dantrolene and baclofen have been commonly used to alleviate
194spasticity in cerebral palsy; and debate remains about their usefulness and there is a
195Cochrane protocol to assess the absolute, and comparative, efficacy of baclofen, dantrolene
196and diazepam for spasticity in cerebral palsy. Intrathecal baclofen, a much more invasive
197treatment has been recently introduced and a separate Cochrane protocol will review the
198evidence for the effectiveness of intrathecal baclofen (Webb, 2008; Howard, 2000).
199A surgical method to reduce spasticity by selective posterior nerve root division was first
200described in 1913 and reintroduced in the 1970s. Numerous studies with confounding,
201selection bias, lack of controls and use of variable surgical techniques, and application of
202subjective outcome measures have reported good results leading to the widespread use of
203this technique. The absence of good evidence to support its efficacy and the lack of
204information about safety and long term consequences has led to some controversy and the
205role of this technique, which is expensive and very demanding of the child, family, surgeon
206and therapist, needs to be justified. There is a Cochrane protocol designed to determine the
207effectiveness of selective dorsal rhizotomy in the management of children with spastic
208cerebral palsy (Webb, 2008; Narayanan & Howard, 2001). .
209
2102) Physical therapy for children with cerebral palsy
211An 8 month, standardized, functionally based on exercise program significantly improved
212physical fitness, the intensity of activities and Health Related Quality of Life (HRQOL) in
213children with cerebral palsy when added to standard care. From an evaluation of the available
214data it appears that children and adolescents with cerebral palsy may benefit from exercise
215programs that focus on lower extremity muscle strength and/or cardiovascular fitness
216(Verschuren, 2007).
217Han et al(2018) presents that crano-cervical flexion based trunk stabilization exercise for 20
218minutes a day, 2 times per week total 8 weeks increased significant on Modified Ashworth
219Scale (MAS), Pediatric Reach Test (PRT) and Trunk Control Measurement Scale (TCMS). The
220crano-cervical flexion exercise included chin pull, flexion of head and neck, abdominal
221throwing exercise, bridging exercise.
222In 2012, Choi et al(2012) study showed that trunk muscle strengthening exercise for 3 times
223per week, total 6 weeks were effective in improving the balance performance of sitting
224posture for the children with spastic diplegic cerebral palsy without changing muscle tone.
225The trunk muscle strengthening exercise consisted of 2 exercises to strengthen abdominal
226muscles and back muscles.
227Muscle strengthening exercise with Thera band were effective on balance and gait for children

228with cerebral palsy(Lee et al, 2009). This single subject designed(3 participations) study
229presented that muscle strengthening exercise for 3 times per week total 8 week improved
230subjects gross motor function, balance ability, gait ability.
231 3) Neurodevelopmental intervention
232Webb(2008) presented that there was a lack of evidence to support the efficacy of any
233particular physical therapy and that it was difficult to establish the advantages of one
234particular therapeutic method over another.
235Palmer et al(1988) suggested that he group that received program of infant stimulation
236followed by NDT progressed more quickly (measured using the Griffiths Development Test)
237than the group who received NDT alone. There was no significant differences between the
238group in the incidence of contractures, or the need for orthopaedic intervention. The result
239emphasizes the importance of measuring outcomes other than locomotion and inputs from
240local services (Palmer et al, 1988).
241Law et al(1997) found no benefit of intensive NDT, but Bower et al(2001) found that there was
242a non- significant trend for benefit for the intensive group when additional covariates of age
243and severity were introduced, not in the primary analysis and the effect was short lived.
244
245 4) Alternative intervention
246Acupuncture has been used to treat children and adolescents with CP for more than 20 years.
247Benefits claimed for acupuncture have included warmer extremities, a decrease in painful
248spasms, improvement in the use of arms or legs, more restful sleep, improvement in mood
249and better bowel function(Webb, 2008)
250Lu et al(2017) presents the study which the effect of scalp acupuncture on the treatment of
251children with cerebral palsy in America. Thirty-six children with cerebral palsy were treated
252with Chinese scalp acupuncture on motor and sensory are, motor area, speech 1, 2 area,
253balance area, vision area, apraxia area, 1 vision area. These children received between 3~20
254treatment, 5 children complete resolution of their symptom, 14 cases a marked effect, 14 had
255some effect, 3 patients experienced no improvement.
256According to Kang & Song(2010), the horseback riding simulation machine training for 15
257minutes a day, 3 times per week, total 12 weeks showed significant increasing in all
258dimensions of GMFM. They recommended that the horseback riding simulating training should
259be considered as therapeutic method for physical therapy for the children with cerebral palsy
260to improve the functional movement.
261Romeo et al(2018) suggested that Lycra suit are effective on improving for motor function and
262static balance in children with cerebral palsy. The five children with cerebral palsy wore the
263Lycra suit for more than 4 hour per day for 6 months. An immediate improvement of static
264balance was observed at baseline, with the first use of the Lycra suit. Further improvement
265was observed at the 6 month follow up, with a statistical significant for the parameters
266assessing the antero-posterior axis.
267
268 5. Intervention for in the future
269Jan (2006) presented that the treatment must be goal oriented, such as to assist with
270mobility, reduce or prevent contractures, improve positioning and hygiene, and provided
271comfort. Each member of the child's multidisciplinary team, including the child and both
272parents, should participate in the serial evaluation and treatment planning.
273According Lowing et al (2009), the definition of goal directed therapy was a therapy that

274emphasizes the learning of meaningful activities (expressed as goals) in the child's
275environment, wherein the activities are regarded as important by the child, the parents and
276others in the child's environment. The goals are established based on the parents' and
277children's priorities. Learning takes place in individually-tailored interventions in the child's
278natural environment by repetitive practice of the everyday goal activities, in a motivated,
279challenging and playful way, and in combination with impairment-focused interventions. The
280overall aim of the therapy is to improve everyday performance in activities and participation.
281In goal directed therapy, emphasis is directed towards the child and family in the goal-setting
282process with the aim to select goals that are meaningful in the lives of the child and family.
283King et al (2004) emphasized that family centered service is both a philosophy and an
284approach to service delivery that is considered to be a best practice in early intervention and
285pediatric rehabilitation. And definition of family is that is made up of a set of values, attitudes,
286and approaches to services for children with special needs and their families. Family-centered
287service recognizes that each family is unique; that the family is the constant in the child's life;
288and that they are the experts on the child's abilities and needs. The Family works together
289with service providers to make informed decisions about the services and supports the child
290and family received. In family-centered service, the strengths and needs of all family
291members are considered.

292

IV. Conclusion

293The definition of cerebral palsy is changing to focus on secondary problem over time from
294neurological condition and original impairment. Prevalence rate of cerebral palsy were 6~8%
295from perinatal asphyxia (Blair and Stanly, 1988), the overall prevalence of cerebral palsy has
296remained constant in recent years despite increased survival of at-risk preterm infants
297The traditional classification by motor impairment or tone distribution will be less the impact
298than activities and participation in daily living activities.

299The child with cerebral palsy is best cared for with an individualized treatment plan that
300provides a combination of interventions. This requires the provision of a number of
301family-centered services that make a difference in the lives of these children and their
302families

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