

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

2
3 **Date of Implementation: April 20, 2017**

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5 **Product: Specialty**

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8 **Related Policies:**

9 CPG 135: Physical Therapy Medical Policy/Guideline
10 CPG 155: Occupational Therapy Medical Policy/Guideline
11 CPG 166: Speech-Language Pathology/Speech Therapy
12 Guidelines
13 CPG 257: Developmental Delay Screening and Testing

14
15 **GUIDELINES**

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

21
22 American Specialty Health, Inc. (ASH) considers suit therapy or the home use of a suit therapy
23 device for the treatment of any condition including, but not limited to, cerebral palsy or other
24 neuromuscular conditions as unproven.

25
26 Patients must be informed verbally and in writing of the nature of any procedure or treatment
27 technique that is considered experimental/investigational or unproven, poses a significant health
28 and safety risk, and/or is scientifically implausible. If the patient decides to receive such services,
29 they must sign a Member Billing Acknowledgment Form (for Medicare use Advance Beneficiary
30 Notice of Non-Coverage form) indicating they understand they are assuming financial
31 responsibility for any service-related fees. Further, the patient must sign an attestation indicating
32 that they understand what is known and unknown about, and the possible risks associated with
33 such techniques prior to receiving these services. All procedures, including those considered here,
34 must be documented in the medical record. Finally, prior to using experimental/investigational or
35 unproven procedures, those that pose a significant health and safety risk, and/or those considered
36 scientifically implausible, it is incumbent on the practitioner to confirm that their professional
37 liability insurance covers the use of these techniques or procedures in the event of an adverse
38 outcome.

39
40 **DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND**

41 IMOT was developed in Poland for treating children and adults with cerebral palsy and other
42 neurologic disorders. This therapy involves performing exercises over an extended period of

1 time — typically 5 days a week for 4 hours a day. The time in the program may be a 3-week
2 period or longer. Different centers may alter this extended period of time. As an example, one
3 center treats patients 2-6 hours a day for 5 days a week for 3 full weeks. The time and duration of
4 each intensive therapy session will fluctuate case by case depending on the patient’s diagnosis,
5 age, stamina, strengths/weaknesses, and needs. Proponents of IMOT state that studies have shown
6 that a 3-week session of intensive therapy helps a child realize the same goals it would usually
7 take a full year of traditional therapy to achieve. They conclude that patients with neuromuscular
8 challenges need this focused and intense approach that provides time to practice the skills they
9 need to learn — like sitting, standing, or walking. However, these claims are premature at this
10 time, as the research is not sufficient to support their statements.
11

12 IMOT programs focus on exercises to increase strength and endurance, work to decrease unwanted
13 reflexes, and teach new improved motor patterns through repetition and correct posture. A unique
14 feature of IMOT is the preparation time used prior to exercise, which may be massage. Some
15 clinics use a device called the Universal Exercise Unit. This allows the patients to work on balance
16 and functional skills such as kneeling, sitting or standing with less assistance. Prolonged static
17 stretching is also achieved using universal exercise units or “cages.” The “monkey cage” is a rigid
18 metal cage with three walls and a top panel upon which pulley systems may be arranged to stretch
19 and strengthen muscles. Following stretching, each joint is ranged through diagonal patterns
20 similar to proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation (PNF) patterns. The “spider cage” utilizes
21 bungee straps wherein the subject can be supported while learning to weight-shift, jump, kneel,
22 half-kneel, and step up and over objects. The “spider cage” is proposed to allow for controlled and
23 independent movement and appears to have the effect of decreasing pathological and neurological
24 reactions that affect mobility. The “spider cage” is used as a tool for implementing
25 neurodevelopmental treatment (NDT), one of the most popular and clinically accepted methods
26 for “(re)programming” the central nervous and neuromuscular systems and “teaching” the brain
27 more normal motor skills. The NDT approach devised by the Bobaths in the 1940’s encourages
28 children with neuromuscular deficits to 1) learn more normal movement patterns, 2) change
29 positions comfortably in different environments, and 3) improve quality of movement and
30 functional skills. Vertical and quadruped standers are utilized in IMOT for additional weight-
31 bearing and proprioception through all extremities.
32

33 Another unique intervention utilized in IMOT is a therapeutic suit. Therapeutic suits such as the
34 Adeli and NeuroSuit are proposed to assist in re-training the central nervous system by allowing
35 the child to overcome increasingly complex pathological movement and to execute and repeat
36 previously unknown movement patterns. The Adeli suit is an adaptation of the Penguin suit used
37 by Russian cosmonauts to counteract the effects of weightlessness in space. The Penguin suit,
38 which provides resistance to movement, decreases muscle atrophy, and reduces development of
39 osteoporosis and apraxic gait in anti-gravity conditions, was created in 1971 by the Russian space
40 program. The Adeli (“little penguin”) suit consists of a head piece, vest, shorts, knee pads and
41 special shoes upon which elastic cords with bungee-type characteristics are fastened over flexor
42 and extensor muscles while also providing correct limb alignment. The theory behind the Adeli

1 suit is that once the body is in proper alignment with support and pressure through all joints, intense
 2 movement therapy can be performed that will [re]educate the brain to recognize correct movement
 3 patterns and muscle activity. The NeuroSuit actually frames the body providing support and
 4 resistance simultaneously. Claims are that it improves and changes proprioception (pressure from
 5 the joints, ligaments, muscles), reduces a patient’s undesired reflexes, facilitates proper movement
 6 and provides additional weight bearing distributed strategically throughout the body. This
 7 additional weight bearing provides strong feedback to the brain which helps create new improved
 8 patterns of movement such as when walking while the body is maintaining a more upright, correct
 9 posture. The NeuroSuit is worn for two-hour periods and can be used either by qualified physical
 10 or occupational therapists. It is made of a vest, shorts, knee and elbow pads, gloves, shoe
 11 attachments, and a hat if necessary. All these pieces are interlocked by bungee type cords. These
 12 cords assist with proper alignment of the body and essentially frame the body from the outside
 13 (external skeleton).

14
 15 The NeuroSuit offers similar benefits as the Adeli suit; however, the NeuroSuit is currently the
 16 only therapeutic suit that offers upper extremity components. The elbow pads and gloves have
 17 hooks to which bungee cords can be attached and facilitate positioning out of flexor synergy
 18 patterns typically seen in children with CP.

19 **EVIDENCE AND RESEARCH**

20 Intensive therapy is described inconsistently throughout the research. Some literature describes it
 21 as sixteen weeks, five days per week for 50-minute sessions; others describe four weeks, four days
 22 per week for 45-minute sessions. Some researchers suggest that increasing the frequency and
 23 duration of therapy sessions, then allowing a rest break before resuming traditional therapy, may
 24 produce significant and long-lasting changes in strength, tone, posture, and gross motor
 25 performance. Some literature refers to intensive therapy based on the intervention rather than the
 26 frequency and duration of the therapy. When used in this way, researchers will talk about an
 27 intensive intervention, such as Constraint-Induced Movement Therapy or Intensive Bimanual
 28 Therapy, and refer to either short-length, high-duration (‘day camp’) or long-length, low-duration
 29 (distributed model) to distinguish between what is similar to IMOT with regards to frequency and
 30 duration and routine, traditional care. Often the choice of therapy model (day camp or distributed)
 31 may be based on school schedules and proximity to clinical settings. Intensive “day camp models”
 32 lasting 2-3weeks are often used for school-aged children, conveniently fitting within school
 33 holidays. For preschool children, more distributed practice models (~2 h/d) spanning a greater
 34 number of weeks have been applied in the children's daily environment. The choice of distributed
 35 practice for this population is practical since extended hours of daily training are not feasible in
 36 young children.

37
 38
 39 Sakzewski et al. (2014a) authored a paper on the state of the evidence for intensive upper limb
 40 therapy approaches for children with unilateral cerebral palsy. Targeted upper limb therapies such
 41 as constraint-induced movement therapy, bimanual training, and combined approaches were
 42 discussed. With regards to this guideline, it will not discuss the effectiveness of these types of

1 interventions but rather the dose (duration and frequency), intensity and context (to some degree).
 2 Models of therapy delivery in this review were broadly categorized as short-length, high duration
 3 or long-length, low-duration (distributed model). There has been considerable variation in both the
 4 total dose of therapy provided as well as the proportion of direct “hands on” intervention provided
 5 by therapists and indirect therapy via use of home/preschool programs. Based on articles included,
 6 short-length, high duration therapy models had been carried out over a two to four-week period,
 7 with frequency ranging from 2 to 7 sessions per week. Session times (duration) ranged from 1.5
 8 to 6 hours, with the total dose of direct “hands on” therapy varying between 18 and 126 hours.
 9 Accompanying home practice was required in most studies with the expected dose between 21 and
 10 240 hours. Distributed models of intervention ranged from 5 to 10 weeks in length with between
 11 1 and 3 sessions per week. The dose of direct therapy ranged from 8 to 90 hours, with
 12 proportionally greater expectations for home practice (28–168 hours). A direct comparison of
 13 home versus center-based constraint induced movement therapy (n = 14) demonstrated no
 14 immediate differences between the two therapy contexts. There was some suggestion of greater
 15 gains by the home base group at three (3) months post-intervention, supporting the notion of
 16 generalization of skills. However, the sample size is too small to make a definitive conclusion
 17 regarding context. Findings also suggest that intervention can be carried out effectively by family
 18 members, teachers, or students as long as they receive training and supervision from therapists.
 19 The idea that positive outcomes have been reported regardless of the provider suggest that
 20 supplementing physical or occupational therapists with trained non-health care providers may
 21 decrease costs. To date, there has been no direct comparison of intensive versus distributed models
 22 of constraint-induced movement therapy. The optimum timing, dose and impact of repeat episodes
 23 of intensive upper limb therapies require further investigation. Authors concluded that key
 24 components of service provision should be that therapy should be goal directed, using
 25 contemporary motor learning–based approaches such as constraint-induced movement therapy or
 26 bimanual task-oriented therapy and be provided at an adequate dose. Most studies used a therapy
 27 dose varying from 40 to in excess of 120 hours, and therapy can be effectively provided
 28 individually or in group sessions, augmented by a home program.

29
 30 Anderson et al. (2013) completed a review on intensive upper extremity training for children with
 31 hemiplegia. Authors conclude that both CIMT and bimanual training lead to improvements in UE
 32 function. They surmise that intensity is a key factor, but the minimum intensity required (number
 33 of hours per day and days per program) to achieve positive outcomes remains to be determined.
 34 They also state that it cannot be determined whether functional gains persist or if periodic bursts
 35 of intensive goal-directed upper limb intervention is required to maintain and generalize the gains
 36 made. Sakzewski, Ziviani et al. (2014b) authored a meta-analysis on the efficacy of upper limb
 37 therapies for unilateral cerebral palsy. When looking at doses, of the two studies noted, one
 38 compared an average of 114 hours of constraint-induced to 47 hours of bimanual treatments; the
 39 other compared 72 hours of constraint-induced to 44 hours of bimanual OT. Together, authors
 40 suggest that 40 hours of therapy was adequate to yield meaningful clinical changes in upper limb
 41 use and individualized outcomes. One study also directly compared 126 with 63 hours of
 42 constraint-induced therapy in a small group of 3- to 6-year-old children and found that no benefit

1 was conferred by the additional time. The exact critical threshold dose of intervention required to
2 achieve meaningful changes in upper limb function remains unknown. It remains unclear whether
3 there are differences in efficacy of intensive versus distributed models of therapy, and between
4 interventions primarily providing direct hands-on therapy by therapists and indirect therapy relying
5 on caregivers delivering intervention via home programs. Authors pose these questions for further
6 research given the state of the evidence: what is the critical threshold dose of intervention and is
7 there a dose age relationship? And is there additional benefit of intensive short-duration
8 interventions versus distributed models of care and does the context of therapy delivery (home,
9 school, clinic, community) impact outcomes?

10
11 Bower et al. (2001) aimed to determine whether motor function and performance is better
12 enhanced by intensive physiotherapy or collaborative goal setting in children with cerebral palsy
13 (CP). More specifically, whether intensive physiotherapy accelerates the acquisition of motor
14 function and performance over a six-month period, and if so, to determine if the effect is
15 cumulative. During routine three-month periods the median amount of physiotherapy given was
16 around six hours, whereas during each of the two intensive three-month treatment periods the
17 median amount of physiotherapy given was 44 hours. The cost of providing intensive therapy to
18 28 children over the six-month period was \$75,765 on the basis that only therapy actually received
19 by the child was paid for at the rate of \$30 per hour. No child received the full intensity of treatment
20 offered which was 120 hours for the six-month treatment period. Throughout the trial the therapy
21 given was described by each physiotherapist involved and was found to consist of a mixture of
22 muscle stretching, passive corrective manual handling, positioning, including the use of
23 equipment, orthoses and casting as considered necessary, muscle strengthening and active
24 movement in addition to gross motor skill training along developmental and functional lines as
25 considered appropriate by the child's physiotherapist. Treatment was primarily targeted at gross
26 motor abilities and not manual dexterity. After the first three months of the treatment period, there
27 was a difference of 3.1 percentage points in favor of intensive physiotherapy in the dimensions of
28 the Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM) scores in which aims and goals had been set
29 compared with routine amounts of therapy in the equivalent dimensions, and a difference of 0.3
30 percentage points in favor of intensive therapy in similar dimensions of the GMFM scores
31 compared with routine amounts in the equivalent dimensions after the second three months of
32 treatment period. During the six-month treatment period children receiving routine amounts of
33 therapy (n=27) improved their mean total GMPM score by 3.3 percentage points and children
34 receiving intensive amounts of therapy (n=28) improved their mean total score by 1.3 percentage
35 points. There were no statistically significant differences in the GMFM or Gross Motor
36 Performance Measure (GMPM) scores between aim and goal-directed therapy or between routine
37 and intensive amounts of therapy at any of the later assessments. In summary there were no
38 statistically significant differences in the scores achieved between intensive and routine amounts
39 of therapy in either function or performance or between aim-directed or goal-directed therapy. In
40 addition, in the current study intensive therapy where children were treated five times a week for
41 six months showed low compliance and therapy was considered tiring and stressful by many of
42 the participants who were glad when the intensive therapy ended.

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

6
 7 Trahan and Malouin (2002) completed a pilot study on intermittent intensive physiotherapy in
 8 children with cerebral palsy. This pilot study was designed to: 1) determine the feasibility of a
 9 rehabilitation program combining intensive therapy periods (4 times/week for 4 weeks) separated
 10 by periods without therapy (8 weeks) over a 6-month period in young and severely impaired
 11 children with CP; and 2) measure the changes in gross motor function after enhanced therapy
 12 periods (immediate effects) and rest periods (retention). Physical therapy (PT) (in phases A, Bt1,
 13 and Bt2) consisted of an individual session of 45 minutes. During phase A (baseline), the children
 14 underwent conventional physical therapy (twice a week). The duration of phase A ranged from 8
 15 to 20 weeks (staggered baseline). In phase B (experimental), intensive physical therapy (4 times a
 16 week) was provided over a 4-week period (phase Bt) followed by an 8-week rest period without
 17 any treatment (phase Br). This first sequence of 12 weeks' duration (Bt1: 4 weeks; Br1: 8 weeks)
 18 was repeated (Bt2: 4 weeks; Br2: 8 weeks) for a total experimental phase duration of 24 weeks PT
 19 administered throughout the study by the children's treating physiotherapist, was the regular
 20 therapy based on the neurodevelopmental approach described by Mayston (1992). This approach
 21 uses techniques of handling to guide the child's movements with carefully graded stimulation. The
 22 rehabilitation program of all children also included occupational therapy (OT), which focused on
 23 the upper-extremity function (manipulation, prehension), hand-eye coordination tasks, and
 24 perceptual training. OT treatments followed a schedule similar to that set for the PT treatments.
 25 During the therapy periods, treatments were carried out at the rehabilitation center and children
 26 generally used transportation services provided by the center. During phase Br, when all treatments
 27 (PT and OT) were discontinued, the children did not come to the center and parents were given
 28 general advice without a specific home program. In conclusion, this pilot study showed that
 29 children with severe impairments who had quadriplegia improved their motor performance when
 30 short periods of high treatment frequency alternated with longer periods of rest. The short periods
 31 of intense therapy were well tolerated, and the motor performance of the children did not
 32 deteriorate during the rest periods without therapy.

33
 34 Most of these studies raised questions about the specificity of the effects observed, either because
 35 of a lack of information about the therapy provided or because of methodological concerns related
 36 to the outcome measures, the duration of therapy and compliance with treatments.

37
 38 Tsorlakis et al. (2004) evaluated the effectiveness of NDT on gross motor function of children
 39 with CP, and particularly to investigate the effect of intensive NDT intervention. The hypothesis
 40 was that the children in the intensive therapy group would improve more over time than the
 41 children in the reference non-intensive therapy group. Participants were 34 children (12 females,
 42 22 males; mean age 7y 3mo [SD 3y 6mo], age range 3 to 14y) with mild to moderate spasticity

1 and hemiplegia (n=10), diplegia (n=12), and tetraplegia (n=12). Therapy was individualized for
2 each child's condition and was dictated by the child's unique clinical needs. Differences in therapy
3 were influenced by variations in the children's severity level and not by differences in therapists'
4 techniques. Each child had a therapist (instead of one therapist for all children) who administered
5 the therapy and set the intervention goals, in accordance with the principles of NDT, thereby
6 minimizing the danger of personal bias. This was preferred for reasons of internal validity, because
7 the children would be unfamiliar with their therapist, which could affect their cooperation and
8 performance. All the therapists had been NDT certified for at least 5 years, with clinical experience
9 for more than 10 years. Parents had the responsibility for, and a justifiable interest in, ensuring
10 their children complied with the program. The difference (two or five sessions) in intensity of the
11 therapy between the two groups was, therefore, maintained over the whole study. The NDT
12 intervention occurred over 16 weeks in children with mild to moderate spasticity and a distribution
13 of hemiplegia, diplegia, and quadriplegia improved their gross motor function as measured with
14 the GMFM. This improvement was significant for both groups. Furthermore, intensive NDT
15 intervention had a greater effect on children's motor function than reference non-intensive
16 intervention. This conclusion suggests more intensive NDT in CP may be a better option, however
17 the small sample size reduces the power of the results. More research is necessary to confirm
18 results.

19
20 Christiansen and Lange (2008) aimed to compare the effect of the delivery of the same amount of
21 intermittent versus continuous physiotherapy given to children with cerebral palsy (CP). This was
22 organized either in an intermittent regime four times a week for 4 weeks alternating with a 6-week
23 treatment pause, or a continuous once or twice a week regime, both for a total of 30 weeks. Therapy
24 was administered according to generally accepted physiotherapeutic principles. A prospective,
25 randomized controlled design was used. Twenty-five children (16 males, nine females; median
26 age 3 y, range 1 y-8 y 1 mo) participated. The children were stratified by age and function level
27 (all levels represented) using the Gross Motor Function Classification System and assigned to
28 continuous or intermittent treatment. The Gross Motor Function Measure 66 (GMFM-66) was
29 used as the outcome measure before and after intervention. Statistical analysis revealed that both
30 groups increased their GMFM scores during intervention (intermittent group $p=0.028$; continuous
31 group $p=0.038$), while there was no significant difference comparing delta scores between groups
32 ($p=0.81$). Compliance was significantly higher in the intermittent group ($p=0.005$), but there was
33 no association between GMFM score and compliance. The study shows that organizing
34 physiotherapy in two markedly different ways yields identical outcome measures for children with
35 CP. Ustad et al. (2009) examined effects of blocks of daily physiotherapy in 5 infants with cerebral
36 palsy. Intervention consisted of two 4-week periods of daily physiotherapy, interrupted by 8 weeks
37 of physiotherapy as usual. The children were assessed every 4th week using the Gross Motor
38 Function Measure. Compliance was noted as high. All infants showed gross motor progress
39 compared with baseline but separating effect of daily physiotherapy from physiotherapy as usual
40 was inconclusive. Parents did prefer the intensive treatment alternative. Authors concluded that
41 blocks of intensive therapy can be an alternative to regular dosage of physiotherapy, but until
42 further studies are conducted, the physiotherapy intervention, intensity, and frequency should be

1 tailored to meet the needs of each individual infant and family. Again, the sample size was very
2 small and thus the power of the study is not adequate to confirm conclusions.

3
4 Arpino et al. (2010) compared the efficacy of intensive versus non-intensive rehabilitative
5 treatment in children with cerebral palsy. A meta-analysis of the studies published between
6 January 1996 and July 2007 was performed using studies including infants/children/adolescents
7 (1-18 years old). Authors concluded that intensive therapy tended to have a greater effect than non-
8 intensive. The effect of intensive treatment tended to be apparently stronger for children 2 years
9 of age. Authors concluded that their meta-analysis showed that, in children with cerebral palsy,
10 intensive conventional therapy may improve the functional motor outcome, but the effect size
11 seemed to be modest. These results should be taken with caution as the studies included, and
12 methodology used was of low quality. Park (2016) attempted to investigate the effect of physical
13 therapy frequency based on neurodevelopmental therapy on gross motor function in children with
14 cerebral palsy. The study sample included 161 children with cerebral palsy who attended a
15 convalescent or rehabilitation center for disabled individuals or a special school for children with
16 physical disabilities in South Korea. Gross Motor Function A total of 93 boys and 68 girls were
17 recruited. The age range was 6–15 years. Measure data were collected according to physical
18 therapy frequency based on neurodevelopmental therapy for a period of 1 year. Results
19 demonstrated the differences in gross motor function according to physical therapy frequency were
20 significant for crawling, kneeling, standing, and Gross Motor Function Measure total score. The
21 differences in gross motor function according to frequency of physical therapy were significant
22 for standing in Gross Motor Function Classification System Level V. Authors concluded that
23 intensive physical therapy was more effective for improving gross motor function in this
24 population of children with cerebral palsy. In particular, crawling and kneeling, and standing
25 ability showed greater increases with intensive physical therapy. Although there was a significant
26 effect between gross motor function and physical therapy frequency, the correlation coefficients
27 were small, thus caution should be taken with study interpretation.

28
29 Størvoid et al. (2018) investigated the association between physical therapy frequency and gross
30 motor improvement in children with cerebral palsy (CP). This was a prospective cohort study of
31 442 children aged 2-12 years in which the outcome was change in reference percentiles for the
32 Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM-66) between two subsequent assessments (n = 1056).
33 Results noted a dose response association between physical therapy frequency and gross motor
34 improvement. Mean change was 4.2 percentiles larger for physical therapy 1-2 times per week and
35 7.1 percentiles larger for physical therapy >2 times per week, compared to less frequent physical
36 therapy when analyzed in a multivariable model including multiple child and intervention factors.
37 The only statistically significant confounder was number of contractures which was negatively
38 associated with gross motor improvement. Authors concluded that when gross motor improvement
39 is a goal for children with CP, more frequent physical therapy should be considered. They also
40 emphasize that contractures should be addressed in order to optimize gross motor improvement
41 for children with cerebral palsy.

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

18
 19 With regards to the Adeli suit or NeuroSuit, it is suggested that the Adeli suit can provide 30 to 80
 20 pounds of pressure and approximation through the joints and provide dynamic proprioceptive input
 21 to improve the neuromuscular and vestibular systems. Changes in the activity of vestibular
 22 nystagmus indicate the ability to maintain balance and orientation in space. Semenova (1997)
 23 describes a new method for the restorative treatment of patients with residual-stage infantile
 24 cerebral palsy. The method is based on proprioceptive correction using an “Adeli-92” device,
 25 which is a modified space suit used in weightless conditions. The “Adeli-92” allows intensification
 26 and some extent of normalization of afferent proprioceptive mobility-controlling input. Eighty
 27 percent (80%) of the patients presented with impaired function of the labyrinths, resulting in
 28 increased muscle tone and pathological reflexes. Positive clinical effects were obtained in 70% of
 29 patients, with improvements in walking and self-care ability. The positive effects of this method
 30 were demonstrated objectively using electroencephalography, electroneuromyography, studies of
 31 somatosensory evoked potentials, and studies of the vestibular system. Sixty-two percent (62%)
 32 of the patients presented with adequately distributed muscle tone in static and dynamic conditions
 33 at the end of the study. According to Semenova, when a child with CP is positioned vertically,
 34 pathological reflexes affect the child’s ability to maintain balance. Implementing the Adeli suit
 35 treatment with dynamic proprioceptive correction daily for several weeks appears to decrease the
 36 influence of pathological reflexes and tone, indicating changes in cortical and reticular structures.

37
 38 In a study by Bar-haim et al. (2006), NDT was compared to the Adeli Suit Treatment (AST) in
 39 twenty-four children with CP for four weeks, five days per week for two-hour sessions. The
 40 original Russian protocol for using the Adeli suit was used, including 1) massage, 2) passive
 41 stretching, 3) application of the suit with the body in proper alignment, and 4) rigorous exercises
 42 and functional activities in weight bearing. The results of intensive therapy with AST versus NDT

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

24
25 Almeida et al. (2017) conducted a systematic review to evaluate the available evidence on the
26 effects of interventions based on the use of therapeutic suits in the treatment of impairments and
27 functional limitations of children with cerebral palsy. The review included 13 studies: two
28 evaluated the Full Body Suit; two the Dynamic Elastomeric Fabric Orthose; three TheraTogs; and
29 six tested the TheraSuit/AdeliSuit protocols. The review found that the quality of evidence for the
30 Full Body Suit, the Dynamic Elastomeric Fabric Orthose and the TheraSuit/AdeliSuit protocols
31 was very low for body structure and function outcomes, and the evidence for TheraTogs was low
32 quality. Regarding the activity outcomes, the review noted that the Full Body Suit and TheraSuit
33 showed very low-quality evidence while the evidence for TheraSuit/AdeliSuit protocols were of
34 low quality. The review concluded that the low quality of evidence suggests caution in
35 recommending the use of these therapeutic suits. Martins et al. (2016) reported on a systematic
36 review and meta-analysis that examined the efficacy of suit therapy on functioning in children and
37 adolescents with cerebral palsy (CP). The review included four randomized controlled trials
38 (n=110). Two RCTs compared Adeli suit treatment (AST) with neurodevelopmental treatment
39 (NDT); one study compared modified suit therapy with conventional therapy; and the other
40 compared TheraSuit with a treatment classified as other therapy approach. Small effect sizes were
41 found for gross motor function at post-treatment and follow-up. The review noted limitations that
42 included the small number of studies, the variability between them, and the low sample sizes. The

1 authors noted that there is a need for better evidence to examine and prove the effects of short
 2 intensive treatment such as suit therapy on gross motor function in children and adolescents with
 3 CP.

4
 5 Belizón-Bravo et al. (2021) assessed the effects of interventions with the dynamic suit orthoses
 6 (DSO) on the altered spatio-temporal gait parameters (STGPs) in cwCP. A total of 12 studies were
 7 included, which showed great heterogeneity in terms of design type, sample size, and intervention
 8 performed (two employed a Therasuit, three employed the Adeli suit, three employed Theratogs,
 9 one employed elastomeric tissue dynamic orthosis, one employed a full-body suit, one employed
 10 external belt orthosis, and one employed dynamic orthosis composed of trousers and T-shirt). The
 11 studies of higher methodological quality showed significant post-intervention changes in walking
 12 speed (which is the most widely evaluated parameter), cadence, stride length, and step length
 13 symmetry. Although the evidence is limited, the intervention with DSO combined with a program
 14 of training/physical therapy seems to have positive effects on the STGPs in cwCP, with the
 15 functional improvements that it entails. Despite the immediate effect after one session, a number
 16 of sessions between 18 and 60 is recommended to obtain optimum results. Future studies should
 17 measure all STGPs, and not only the main ones, such as gait speed, in order to draw more accurate
 18 conclusions on the functional improvement of gait after the use of this type of intervention.

19 **PRACTITIONER SCOPE AND TRAINING**

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

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

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

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

1 immediate emergency care is warranted, to contact 911 as appropriate. See the *Managing Medical*
 2 *Emergencies (CPG 159 – S)* clinical practice guideline for information.

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