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A Perceptual Motor Intervention Improves Play Behavior In Children With Moderate To Severe Cerebral Palsy

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Provisional

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Running head: Motor intervention and play in children with cerebral palsy

A Perceptual Motor Intervention Improves Play Behavior In Children With Moderate To Severe Cerebral Palsy

Provisional

1 Abstract

2 For children with moderate or severe cerebral palsy (CP), a foundational early
3 goal is independent sitting. Sitting offers additional opportunities for object exploration,
4 play and social engagement. The achievement of sitting coincides with important
5 milestones in other developmental areas, such as social engagement with others,
6 understanding of spatial relationships, and the use of both hands to explore objects. These
7 milestones are essential skills necessary for play behavior. However, little is known about
8 how sitting and play behavior might be affected by a physical therapy intervention in
9 children with moderate or severe CP. Therefore, our overall purpose in this study was to
10 determine if sitting skill could be advanced in children with moderate to severe CP using
11 a perceptual motor intervention, and if play skills would change significantly as sitting
12 advanced. Thirty children between the ages of 18 months and 6 years who were able to
13 hold prop sitting for at least 10 seconds were recruited for this study. Outcome measures
14 were the sitting subsection of the Gross Motor Function Measure (GMFM), and the Play
15 Assessment of Children with Motor Impairment (PACMI) play assessment scale, which
16 is a modified version of the Play in Early Childhood Evaluation System (PIECES).
17 Significant improvements in GMFM sitting scores ($p < 0.001$) and marginally significant
18 improvement in play assessment scores ($p = 0.067$) were found from pre- to post-
19 intervention. Sitting change explained a significant portion of the variance in play change
20 for children over the age of 3 years, who were more severely affected by CP. The results
21 of this study indicate that advances in sitting skill may be a factor in supporting
22 improvements in functional play, along with age and severity of physical impairment.

23

24

1 The Effect of a Perceptual Motor Intervention on Play in Young Children with Cerebral
2 Palsy

3 **Introduction**

4 “The work of children is play”. This often repeated saying encapsulates the idea
5 that the active engagement of a child in exploring, investigating, experimenting, and
6 experiencing the world, also known as “playing”, contributes to the development of
7 physical, emotional, social and cognitive development. Engagement in play, particularly
8 complex exploratory and pretend play, is a central activity of early childhood and is
9 linked to the development of cognition, language, problem solving, and social skills
10 (Bagnato, 2007; Farmer-Dougan & Kaszuba, 1999; Fewell & Rich, 1987; Hughes, 1991;
11 Orr & Geva, 2015; Piaget, 1951; Russ, 2003; Singer et al., 2006; Singer & Singer, 1990).
12 Sitting, on the other hand, is an essential motor skill that allows the infant to view and
13 interact with the world in a completely different way and promotes more complex play
14 activities. In the present study, we were interested in the relationship between the
15 development of play and the development of sitting in children with motor impairments.
16 Specifically, we explored whether improvements in a child’s ability to sit influences
17 his/her ability to engage in play.

18 Spontaneous, self-directed play in early childhood, as traditionally characterized
19 (Piaget, 1951; Vygotsky, 1980), requires the use of the hands to reach and interact with
20 objects and toys. The emergence of sitting in typically developing infants at
21 approximately 6 months of age coincides with many skills necessary for play, including
22 improved accuracy in reaching (Harbourne et al., 2013a; Rochat, 1992), increasing
23 understanding of the spatial properties of objects (Soska, et al., 2010), and greater
24 efficiency in visual attention to the environment (Harbourne et al., 2014; Surkar et al,
25 2015), among others. Sitting stability frees the arms for exploration and object
26 manipulation, and allows the head and trunk to freely move and orient to important
27 information in the environment (Rochat & Goubet, 1995). Sitting posture during
28 reaching appears to rely more on anticipatory processes (Hadders-Algra, 2013). In
29 addition, muscle activation patterns at the onset of sitting are highly variable, and as
30 sitting and reaching develop, these patterns become gradually refined for both tasks
31 (Hadders-Algra et al., 1996; Harbourne et al., 1993; Harbourne et al., 2013a). Studies
32 investigating the development of sitting postural control while reaching suggest that
33 reaching may serve as a perturbation for the maintenance of postural control in infancy
34 (Hadders-Algra, 2013; Harbourne et al., 2013a), although hand use clearly increases as
35 sitting develops (Rochat, 1992; Rochat & Goubet, 1995; Harbourne et al., 2013a). Thus,
36 evidence from research with typically developing infants indicates that emerging postural
37 control serves to support the development of environmental exploration such that an
38 infant’s ability to play and engage in the world improves, which may, in turn, lead to
39 further cognitive advancement.

40 Although improving postural control may be related to increasing upper extremity
41 skill, a causal relationship is not necessarily evident (Harbourne et al, 2013a). Evidence
42 to date reveals contradictory findings regarding the effect of postural control on reaching
43 or play behavior in typically developing infants and infants with developmental delays.

1 Investigations of the specific relationship of proximal (or postural) control to distal (or
2 hand) control do not support the tenet that improving postural control must precede
3 advances in hand skill in the developing child (Loria, 1980; Fetters, 1991). A recent
4 analysis of gross motor function to upper extremity control in children with CP
5 concluded that there was a poor overall correlation between the two, and that the
6 relationship varied between subtypes of CP (Carnahan, et al., 2007). In infants with
7 neuromotor impairments, the short-term effect of using a supportive seat to control
8 posture led to no immediate improvement in object manipulation (Washington et al.,
9 2002). On the other hand, providing support at the pelvis in typically developing infants
10 that cannot achieve sitting independently enhanced the coordination between trunk
11 control and reaching (Rochat & Goubet, 1995). Reports from parents have indicated that
12 specific adaptive seating enabled their children to participate more in play activities and
13 address their self-care needs (Rigby et al., 2009) whereas the absence of these devices led
14 to negative outcomes (Ryan et al., 2009). However, a recent systematic review suggested
15 that there are more studies needed to investigate the linkage between sitting postural
16 control and every day life activities (Angsupaisal et al., 2015). Thus, the relationship
17 between sitting postural control and object exploration with the upper extremities cannot
18 be considered as causal, although researchers have identified the co-emergence of the two
19 skills.

20 Even if postural control influences reaching behavior in typically developing
21 infants, little is known about the specific relationship between the development of sitting
22 and play in children with motor disorders, particularly those with a moderate to severe
23 condition. Poor postural control is associated with limitations in the attainment of
24 functional skills such as mobility and manipulation during the developmental process.
25 However, therapeutic intervention also targets postural control in order to affect upper
26 extremity skill. Research has linked qualitative improvement in reaching with
27 responsiveness to intervention of overall motor skill in children with severe CP (Fetters
28 & Kluzik, 1996) as well as in typically developing infants (Rochat & Goubet, 1995; Out
29 et al., 1998), but the nature of the connection between upper extremity function and
30 postural control is still poorly understood. Adolph and Berger (2006) refer to the
31 'centrality of posture' as a necessary condition for looking and interacting with the
32 environment around them. However, there are no studies that investigate how the
33 development of sitting postural control would affect play behavior and interaction with
34 objects in children with cerebral palsy who have not developed sitting independence.
35 Thus, it is important to understand how improvements of sitting postural control ability
36 might influence play behavior in children with cerebral palsy because play skills reflect
37 the problem-solving skills necessary for independent function.

38 The prevailing method in physical therapy intervention of children with cerebral
39 palsy is Neuro-Developmental Treatment (Bobath, 1971). This method emphasizes the
40 reduction of abnormal muscle tone and the facilitation of normal postural reflexes.
41 Assisted movement in specific patterns is encouraged to normalize muscle tone.
42 Facilitation of more normal movement is a primary focus, and it is done through graded
43 stimulation at certain key points of the body (Trahan & Malouin, 2002). Normal postural
44 alignment is emphasized in this approach. A recent review of the body of evidence
45 regarding this intervention approach found little support for its effectiveness in promoting

1 normal motor milestones in any type of condition (Butler & Darrah, 2001; Novak et al,
2 2013). For this reason we chose a different intervention for the present project.

3 An alternative approach that is based on perception-action theory is the perceptual
4 motor intervention of Ingrid Tscharnuter (Tscharnuter, 1993, 2002). This method
5 emphasizes the ecological approach and spontaneous movement based on environmental
6 affordances. Self-initiated, functionally-directed movement drives the focus of
7 intervention. This intervention consists of activities that include handling, which gently
8 calls the child's attention to the support surface, and sets up the environment for small
9 increments of movement that the child can utilize to solve a movement problem. Passive
10 movements are not used in this approach. Increased variability of active movement is
11 encouraged, and movements that may be considered abnormal in other approaches are
12 not blocked or discouraged. This perceptual motor approach was used as one of the
13 interventions for a previous project, with preliminary evidence of effectiveness to
14 improve postural control over and above a home program (Stergiou et al., 2006;
15 Harbourne et al., 2010).

16 Because infants and children with severe motor impairments such as CP are often
17 limited in their ability to manipulate objects (Arnould et al, 2008; Duff & Charles, 2004),
18 measuring and assessing play is a challenging task. Prior to this study, no play-based
19 assessment system had been adapted for use with severely motor impaired children. In
20 the present study, we used a new scale, the Play Assessment of Children with Motor
21 Impairment (PACMI) Scale (see <http://www.plaisuno.com>). The PACMI is a modified
22 version of the Play in Early Childhood Evaluation System (PIECES) developed by Kelly-
23 Vance and Ryalls. The PIECES has been empirically documented to be both a valid and
24 reliable measure of play in typically and atypically developing children (Kelly-Vance et
25 al., 1999; Kelly-Vance & Ryalls, 2005; Kelly-Vance et al., 2002). As described in the
26 Materials and Methods section, the coding scheme used in the PIECES was expanded in
27 order to capture basic play manipulation behaviors at a fine-grained level. These play
28 behaviors included both successful and unsuccessful child-initiated attempts to
29 manipulate toys.

30 In summary, the primary goal of the present study was to help fill a gap in the
31 literature by directly examining the relationship between improvements in sitting and a
32 child's ability to engage in spontaneous play after a perceptual motor intervention in
33 children with moderate and severe CP. We had two specific questions. First, we
34 examined if sitting skill could be advanced in children with significant motor
35 impairments using an intensive perceptual motor intervention. Second, we questioned if
36 children's play skills would change as sitting ability advanced and whether improvements
37 in sitting would be associated with improvements in the complexity of play. Our
38 hypothesis was that the intervention would improve sitting and play ability and that the
39 changes in sitting ability would explain a significant proportion of the variance in the
40 change of play scores.

41 **Materials and Methods**

42 *Participants*

1 Participants were 30 children with moderate (N=12) to severe (N=18) Cerebral
2 Palsy (CP). All children were between the ages of 18-months and 6-years (11 female, 19
3 male). Children were recruited from a group of children who participated in a previous
4 study, from the University of Nebraska Medical Center community, and by word of
5 mouth.

6 To be included in this study, children were required to have a diagnosis of CP and
7 be unable to sit independently. In order to assess the distribution of children with
8 moderate and severe CP, we used a scale created in a previous study of infants with CP
9 (Harbourne et al., 2010). Beginning sitting skills were required for entry into the study.
10 We defined beginning sitting as: the ability to prop sit while floor sitting for at least 10
11 seconds when placed; the ability to hold the head in line with the body (not falling
12 forward) while prop sitting; when supported by another person in the sitting position, the
13 child is able to move the arm toward a person or toy, but does not need to grasp the toy.
14 Children were excluded from participation in this study if they had a diagnosis of
15 blindness, a diagnosed hip dislocation or subluxation of the hip over 50%, or an
16 additional diagnosis that affected his/her neuromuscular system (e.g., Down syndrome or
17 spina bifida).

18 *Measures*

19 *Play Assessment of Children with Motor Impairment (PACMI).*

20 Assessing the play skills of young children with severe motor impairments, such
21 as CP, is challenging because of their limited ability to manipulate objects (Arnould et al,
22 2008; Duff & Charles, 2004). Several measures exist but none are tailored to the unique
23 needs of these children. Therefore, an expanded version of the PIECES was used to
24 assess the participants' play skills (Kelly-Vance & Ryalls, 2014). The PIECES was
25 developed based on thorough research and theory on play across developmental stages
26 and has been shown to have high psychometric properties with an interrater reliability of
27 90% for typically developing children and as high as 100% for children with
28 exceptionalities and moderate test-retest correlations for each population ($r = .48$ and r
29 $= .58$, respectively) (Kelly-Vance & Ryalls, 2005). The PIECES is an observation of a
30 child's free play with toys that results in a description of exploratory and pretend play
31 skills. The scale has been used with children who have a variety of exceptionalities
32 including motor impairments, autism spectrum disorder, and speech/language
33 impairments (Kelly-Vance & Ryalls, 2014). It was selected as the play measure because
34 of its flexibility in adapting it to the needs of the children included in this study.

35 The expanded version of the scale is called the Play Assessment of Children with
36 Motor Impairments (PACMI). It was derived from the exploratory play scale of the
37 PIECES that included an assessment of a child's ability to explore toys by mouthing,
38 manipulating, and discovering their function (see <http://www.plaisuno.com>). Due to the
39 limited motor ability of the participants in the present study, most of the children were
40 unable to play with toys in the same manner as typically developing children. Typically
41 developing children use their hands to explore toys, but due to the limited motor skills of
42 children with CP, a more general definition of toy manipulation was used. Children could
43 initiate exploratory play by successful manipulation, proximal manipulation, or

1 unsuccessful manipulation. Successful manipulation (SM) includes using any body part
2 to manipulate a toy, such as pressing a play piano key with one's finger or forehead and
3 resulting in an audible note. Proximal manipulation (PM) involves using a body part in
4 close proximity to the toy without any attempt to manipulate the toy. This would occur if
5 the child puts a hand on the piano but does not press an individual key. Unsuccessful
6 manipulation (UM) is when the child makes an attempt to manipulate a toy but is not
7 successful. An example of unsuccessful manipulation is when a child puts a finger on a
8 piano key but is unable to press it down.

9 The overall result of the play assessment conducted in this study was a Self-
10 Initiated Play Composite (SIPC) score, which was computed by adding all SMs, PMs,
11 and UMs and then dividing the total number by the overall time spent with the toy. High
12 inter-observer reliability was found on the PACMI (see Procedure section) which is
13 consistent with findings on the overall PIECES.

14 *Gross Motor Function Measure-88 (GMFM).*

15 The GMFM was used to evaluate changes in sitting skill over time. This measure
16 was designed for use with children with cerebral palsy, and evaluates motor skills in five
17 areas: lying and rolling, sitting, crawling, standing, and walking/running/jumping skills.
18 It took approximately 20 minutes to administer the test, with time varying according to
19 the ability level of the child and his/her cooperation and understanding. This scale has
20 been validated in children five months to 16 years old (Russell et al., 1993). We utilized
21 only the sitting subsection for this study.

22 *Procedure*

23 Each child received 45 minutes of physical therapy intervention twice a week for
24 12 weeks. The intervention received by the children was performed by therapists trained
25 in perceptual motor techniques that are based on the approach of Ingrid Tscharnuter
26 (Tscharnuter, 1993, 2002). In general, the approach utilizes environmental forces during
27 self-initiated goal-directed movements to change function and postural control. The
28 specific techniques used during intervention were dependent on the skill level of the child,
29 and the interests of the child. Overall, activities were aimed at teaching the child to attend
30 to significant environmental information, such as pressure against the support surface,
31 which can be correlated to forces useful for controlling posture and movement, and all
32 activities were related to interaction with objects of interest to the child. We allowed the
33 child to choose the movement strategy even if the movement appeared atypical, thus
34 allowing for child-initiated movement. The therapist presented an environmental
35 modification requiring a small movement or postural challenge to the child, and waited
36 for the child to solve the problem, giving very light cues or assistance. The focus was on
37 helping the child utilize forces to obtain a functional goal through problem solving.
38 Fidelity of the approach was maintained by having only three therapists who were trained
39 in the approach provide the intervention, under the supervision of a primary therapist.
40 (For more information on the perceptual motor intervention refer to Harbourne et al.,
41 2010).

1 Sitting (GMFM) and play (PACMI) data were collected at the Infant lab at the
2 Munroe-Meyer Institute of the University of Nebraska Medical Center. This lab is
3 designed to look like a home living room, with carpeted floor and living room furniture
4 (e.g., a couch and end tables). Data was collected at two different times during the child's
5 participation in the study. The first session was at pre-test, prior to the child receiving any
6 intervention sessions. The post-test session was conducted after the completion of the
7 intervention, approximately 12 weeks later. For all data collection sessions, the children
8 were allowed time to adjust to the setting.

9 Both play and sitting data were collected on the same day. The play assessment
10 was conducted before the sitting assessment. Cameras were set up to record both sessions
11 and all sessions were coded from the videotapes. To ensure consistency across sessions, a
12 specific toy set was utilized. The toy set included a baby doll, a piano, a pop-up toy, a
13 pull-toy, a telephone, pretend food items, a jack-in-the-box, and a toy car with people. A
14 set of four to eight toys was used in each session, and four toys were set out for the child
15 at a time. The goal was for the child to use all eight toys, but some children did not have
16 the hand skill or interest level to play with all of the toys. The parents/caregivers were
17 asked if the child would be interested in playing with a specific toy, and if the response
18 was negative, that toy was eliminated from the set. A minimum of four and a maximum
19 of eight toys were presented, per child, and the same toys were used at the post-test as at
20 the pre-test. The examiner asked the child which toy she/he wanted to play with and the
21 child was allowed to make the selection by scooting toward the toy, gazing at it, or
22 reaching for it. If the child did not select a toy, the examiner did, one at a time, and
23 presented it to the child. During the play assessment, most children were seated on the
24 carpeted floor with a therapist seated behind them. The therapist provided the support
25 needed, depending on the child's sitting skill. Only as much support as needed was
26 provided. One child, with severely limited sitting ability, was seated in her wheelchair for
27 the pre- and post-test play assessment because the parent thought it was the best option
28 for her. The play assessment took approximately 15 minutes.

29 To code the play assessment, two graduate assistants watched the session
30 videotapes and provided a running description of what the child and the examiner did
31 with the toys. These behavioral descriptions were then coded using the SIPC scale of the
32 PACMI coding scheme. The percent of time that the child spent engaged with the toy was
33 also calculated. Inter-rater reliability was calculated on 20% of the tapes, and an inter-
34 observer correlation was found ranging from .97 to .99.

35 All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS software (version 16.0). The
36 alpha level was set at .05. Paired t-tests were performed for the GMFM scores and the
37 PACMI play scores between pre and post intervention. We also performed Pearson r
38 correlations to identify linear relationships between the changes in the variables of
39 interest, as well as severity, and age. Lastly, we performed a stepwise multiple linear
40 regression analysis to investigate the percentage of variance of the change in SIPC play
41 scores that could be explained by the change in the GMFM scores and by the play scores
42 pre-intervention.

43 **Results**

1 Descriptive data of the children's age, GMFM and SIPC scores pre and post
2 intervention are presented in Table 1. The children's scores for sitting and play both pre-
3 and post- test can be found in Figures 1 and 2. As can be seen in Figure 1, all children's
4 GMFM sitting scores improved from pre- to post-intervention. Statistical analysis
5 indicated that the change was statistically significant ($t(30) = -6.317$, $p < .001$, effect size
6 $r: 0.761$, Cohen's $d: -2.346$). As can be seen in Figure 2, a majority of children (18)
7 showed improvements in their SIPC scores from pre- to post-intervention, although the
8 effect was only marginally significant ($t(30) = -1.903$, $p = .067$, effect size $r: 0.333$,
9 Cohen's $d: -0.706$). Moreover it is important to note that seven children, although very
10 delayed in motor skills, played in a cognitively advanced way. Different play strategies
11 were noted that would be considered higher level, such as pretending the baby doll was
12 real with hugs and kisses, rather than poking at the baby's face. These advanced play
13 strategies usually resulted in less repetitious behavior (counts of manipulation) but more
14 social interaction with the parent, examiner, and toy item. By group consensus after
15 viewing the play videotapes, we agreed that the scoring for the lower functioning children
16 did not accurately represent the play behavior of the children who were more cognitively
17 advanced. In those seven cases, we carried forward the pre-play score and made it their
18 post-play score.

19 Gender initially appeared to be a significant factor. However, there was 25% of
20 girls in the moderate CP range, which appears as if gender was significantly related to our
21 outcome measures. The primary composition of the moderate group was male. Although
22 we know that a disproportionate number of males are diagnosed with CP
23 (<http://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/cp/data.html>), there is no data on gender differences by
24 severity for the diagnosis of CP. We judged severity of CP to be more influential than
25 gender by the composition of our groups, and verified our assumption with correlation
26 and regression analysis. Finally, we used only severity and age in the regression models.

27 Bivariate correlations (Table 2) revealed that severity level was positively
28 correlated with age ($p=.004$, older children were more severely affected by CP), and
29 negatively correlated with GMFM pre ($p=.005$), post ($p<.001$) and change ($p<.001$)
30 scores and SIPC pre ($p<.001$) and post ($p<.001$) scores. Age was negatively correlated
31 with the SIPC pre ($p=0.036$) and post ($p=0.041$) scores. In addition, GMFM pre scores
32 were positively correlated with the GMFM post ($p<.001$) and SIPC post ($p=.018$).
33 GMFM post scores were positively correlated with the GMFM change ($p<.001$), SIPC
34 pre ($p=.015$) and SIPC post ($p=.002$) scores. This result suggests that younger children
35 had greater SIPC pre and post scores. The GMFM change score was positively correlated
36 with the SIPC pre ($p=.042$) and SIPC post ($p=.016$) scores while the SIPC pre scores
37 were positively correlated with SIPC post ($p<.001$) and negatively correlated with the
38 SIPC change ($p=.014$) scores.

39 Because age was positively correlated with severity, and after careful visual
40 observation of the data we identified that 45% of children under age three were classified
41 as severe, whereas 100% of the children over or equal to three years of age were
42 classified as severe. Thus, we conducted an ad hoc stepwise linear regression analysis
43 using age as the selection variable. We selected 3 years of age as our cut-off based on
44 visual observation of the data. In addition, 3 years of age is the usual division in age for

1 special services mandated by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Part C
2 differentiates services for children under the age of 3 (infants), from children over the age
3 of 3 (school age) (Adams et al, 2013). Thus, we ran two stepwise multiple linear
4 regressions: One on children under three and one on children over three. First, we
5 examined the proportion of variance explained by GMFM change, and SIPC pre scores
6 on SIPC change scores in children less than age three (22 children). No significant
7 relationship was found for these moderately delayed children. Second, we examined the
8 proportion of variance explained by GMFM change, and SIPC pre scores on SIPC change
9 scores in children greater or equal to age three (8 children). A significant proportion of
10 the variance was explained ($F(1,7)=7.786$, $p=0.027$) with an R^2 of 0.527 with only the
11 GMFM change scores included in the model. Therefore, more than 50% of the variance
12 in the SIPC change score was explained by the change in the GMFM scores for these
13 older, more severely delayed children.

14

15 **Discussion**

16 In the present study we had two primary goals. Our first goal was to document
17 that an intervention grounded in perception-action theory (Tscharnutter, 1993, 2002)
18 would improve sitting in children with moderate to severe cerebral palsy. Our second
19 goal was to examine whether children's play skills would change as sitting ability
20 advanced and whether the improvements in play were directly linked to improvements in
21 sitting. Our results were positive with regards to the first goal and partially for the second
22 goal, with the findings concerning the effect of the intervention on sitting being more
23 straightforward than for the improvements in level of play. Specifically, analyses
24 revealed that children with moderate or severe CP given a 12-week perceptual- motor
25 intervention made significant gains in sitting ability and marginally significant gains in
26 play behavior. With respect to our second goal it was revealed that improvements in play
27 were directly linked to improvements in sitting only for children over 3-years of age.
28 Thus, in this study, an improvement in sitting was linked to an improvement in play only
29 for the severely impaired and older children. Specifically the results indicated that, for the
30 older severely delayed children, a significant proportion of the variance in SIPC change
31 scores was due to the change in GMFM scores from pre to post intervention.

32 There are several implications that can be drawn from the results of the present
33 study. First, with respect to our first goal, we successfully documented the effectiveness
34 of a perceptual motor intervention on sitting ability in children with moderate or severe
35 CP. GMFM sitting scores of all the children that received the perceptual motor
36 intervention improved, as shown in Figure 1. The perceptual motor intervention is based
37 on the ecological approach and emphasizes spontaneous movement based on
38 environmental affordances. Self-initiated, functionally-directed movement is the focus of
39 intervention. Perceptual motor intervention consists of activities that include handling,
40 which gently drives the child's attention to the support surface, and sets up the
41 environment to produce small increments of movement that the child can utilize to solve
42 a movement problem. Passive movements are not used in this approach. Increased
43 variability of active movement is encouraged, and movements that are considered

1 abnormal in other approaches are not blocked or discouraged. These results are in
2 agreement with a younger cohort of children with cerebral palsy who received the
3 perceptual motor intervention in the first two years of life and improved sitting postural
4 control (Harbourne et al., 2010). This is the first study, to demonstrate that the specific
5 perceptual motor intervention is effective in improving gross motor behavior in sitting in
6 older children with moderate and severe CP. Fundamentally, perceptual motor
7 experiences offer the opportunity for broad development and in other domains, such as
8 social and cognitive development (Lobo et al., 2013, Dusing et al., 2013).

9 With respect to our second goal, the very design of the experiment presumed a
10 link between motor behaviors such as sitting and a child's ability to engage in play. The
11 results of the experiment can be interpreted in this manner: The sitting intervention did
12 not directly target play, and yet, overall, children both improved at sitting and most of
13 them showed greater ability to manipulate the toys after the intervention. In typically
14 developing children, the attainment of motor skills like sitting and reaching are
15 temporally linked to the development of complex play behavior (Rochat & Goubet, 1995).
16 However, further analyses revealed that improvements in play were only directly related
17 to improvements in sitting for the older children in the study (3-years old and above). The
18 eight children that were above or equal to age three were in the severe CP range. With the
19 exception of one child, all children maintained or improved their SIPC score as GMFM
20 scores improved. However, for children less than 3-years old, improvements in play were
21 not correlated with improvements in sitting.

22 There are two possible reasons why we only found a significant linkage between
23 sitting improvement and play change in the older children and not in the younger children.
24 First, all the children in the study showed very delayed motor skills; all were at least 18
25 months of age and not yet sitting independently. Clearly, the older children were more
26 severe simply when considering the discrepancy between their age and skill level. Thus,
27 the more severe children had lower initial scores, and may have had more room to
28 improve on the play scale. Second, the younger children advanced to a greater degree in
29 motor skills, on average, during the intervention. Some of the younger children
30 developed mobility, including the ability to get in and out of the sitting position. This
31 new-found freedom to move appeared to take their interest rather than toy exploration, a
32 phenomenon noted in typically developing children (Karasik et al, 2011). Infants who
33 become mobile tend to have interest in distant objects, rather than objects close at hand,
34 as in our play paradigm. Alternatively, the younger children with moderate CP may have
35 had better inherent trunk and arm control, which did not show as large a degree of change
36 during the intervention. Because we used only the sitting section of the GMFM, and not
37 the crawling section, these children may have reached the zenith on the motor score they
38 could achieve. This would influence the motor change scores that could contribute to the
39 variance in the play scores. These results certainly suggest there is a complex relationship
40 among age, severity of impairment, sitting, and the development of play, which is worthy
41 of further study.

42 One important contribution that this study makes to the literature is the extension
43 of the PIECES system to assess play behavior in children with motor-delays. The present
44 study is the first and only study ever conducted using the newly developed PACMI

1 instrument. Although the scale itself, assessment procedure, and coding of behavior is
2 well-grounded in prior research (Kelly-Vance & Ryalls, 2014), additional research is
3 needed to further document the validity and utility of this scale. The development of play
4 has been linked to development in numerous other cognitive and social domains. Thus,
5 interventions that improve a child's ability to play may be important to improving
6 function in other areas. This study provides initial support for a reliable tool that can be
7 used to measure the emergence of play skills in children with significant motor-delays.

8 This study, like most, suffers from limitations that leave additional questions
9 unanswered. Most notably, all children were exposed to the same sitting intervention,
10 therefore comparison with a control group is not possible. Thus, we cannot state with
11 absolute certainty that the changes in sitting and play were not the result of maturational
12 changes alone. However, we find this highly improbable, given the severity of the delays
13 experienced by these children. Ultimately, however, it would be desirable to replicate the
14 present study with a control group of children given no intervention. A second limitation
15 concerns the fact that only a single type of sitting intervention was used. Therefore, while
16 we can tentatively conclude that the sitting intervention was effective, we do not know if
17 different types of sitting interventions would be more or less effective or have more or
18 less of an effect on play. Additional research is needed comparing the effectiveness of
19 different types of sitting interventions on both sitting and play. A third limitation
20 concerns the lack of information about the children's cognitive level. Apart from basic
21 demographic information, the only thing known with any certainty was each child's level
22 of sitting ability. No data concerning level of cognitive functioning was collected or
23 available. Anecdotally, a wide range in play ability was observed across the children in
24 this study. Given that cognitive ability is linked to the complexity of play in typically
25 developing children (Piaget, 1951), it would be interesting in future studies to
26 systematically examine the relationship among motor ability, cognitive ability and play.
27 However, measuring cognitive ability in these children is difficult, given their limitations.
28 One potential window into cognitive ability may involve looking measures or eye
29 tracking (Harbourne, et al., 2013; Karatekin, 2007). Finally, a fourth possible avenue for
30 future study concerns the effect of a play intervention on motor development. While this
31 study suggests that improvements in sitting may lead to improvements in play,
32 particularly for severely impaired children, an interesting question not addressed by the
33 present study is if an intervention targeting play behavior in children with CP would have
34 positive benefits on sitting. Playing may improve sitting because reaching for toys
35 requires children to employ variable strategies to control posture and enable interaction
36 with the toys (Harbourne & Kamm, 2015). If children are spontaneously motivated to
37 engage in play, then interventions designed to improve play may also naturally have
38 positive influence on a child's ability to sit.

39 In summary, in spite of these limitations, the present study documents that
40 emerging play-behavior can be reliably measured in motor-delayed children, that an
41 ecological intervention can significantly improve sitting ability in children with moderate
42 to severe CP, that these improvements in sitting may lead to improvements in simple
43 pretend play, particularly for more severely-delayed children. This link between motor-
44 development and play is consistent with views with ecological and systems theories that
45 emphasize the significant influence that motor development and self-directed action can

1 have on many areas of development including perception, cognition, emotional
2 development, and others (Campos, Anderson, Barbu-Roth, Hubbard, Hertenstein, &
3 Witherington, 2000; Marayuma, Dineva, Spencer, & Schoner, 2014; Smith, 2005).
4 Importantly, documenting a link between sitting and play in motor-delayed children
5 demonstrates that such links can exist independent of typical chronological development.

6

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1 **Tables**

2 Table 1. Measures of central tendency of the main variables.

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	1	6	2.43	1.49
GMFMpre	8	40	14.20	6.03
GMFMpost	10	47	23.96	11.38
SIPCpre	0.20	34.90	7.56	8.15
SIPCpost	0.40	29.10	8.69	7.31

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5 Table 2. Bivariate correlations

		Correlations							
		Severity	Age	GMFMpre	GMFMpost	GMFMdiff	SIPCpre	SIPCpost	SIPDiff
Severity	<i>r</i>	1	.506*	-.500*	-.732*	-.628*	-.603*	-.681*	-.019
	<i>p</i>		.004	.005	.000	.000	.000	.000	.920
Age	<i>r</i>		1	-.134	-.299	-.307	-.384*	-.375*	.119
	<i>p</i>			.480	.108	.099	.036	.041	.531
GMFMpre	<i>r</i>			1	.687*	.212	.308	.428*	.190
	<i>p</i>				.000	.262	.098	.018	.315
GMFMpost	<i>r</i>				1	.856*	.441*	.550*	.130
	<i>p</i>					.000	.015	.002	.494
GMFMdiff	<i>r</i>					1	.374*	.434*	.039
	<i>p</i>						.042	.016	.836
SIPCpre	<i>r</i>						1	.917*	-.444*
	<i>p</i>							.000	.014
SIPCpost	<i>r</i>							1	-.049
	<i>p</i>								.799
SIPDiff	<i>r</i>								1

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1 **Figure Legends**

2 Figure 1. GMFM sitting scores between pre and post intervention

3 Figure 2. SIPC play scores between pre and post intervention

Provisional

Figure 01.JPEG

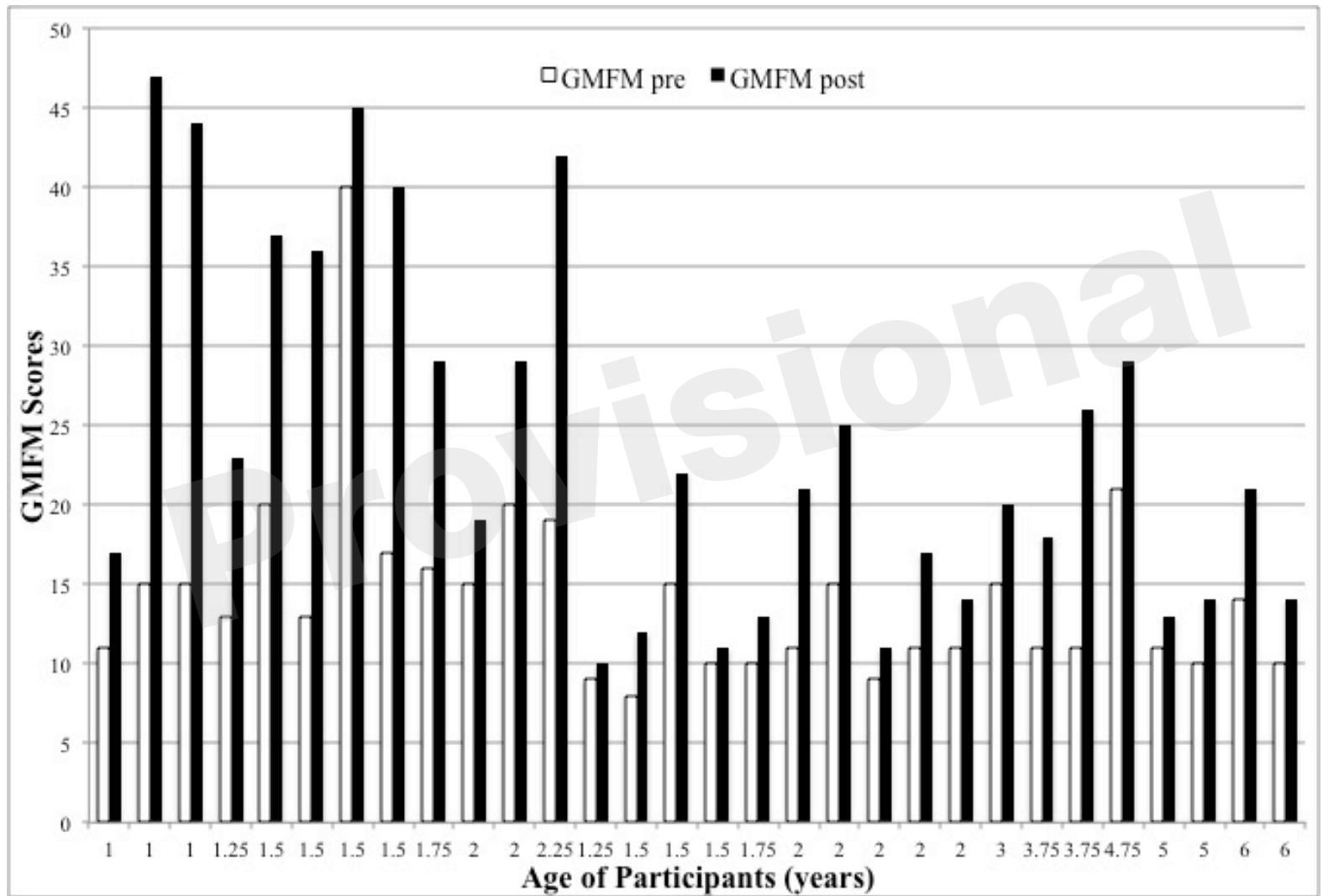


Figure 02.JPEG

