

**COMPARISON OF STANDING AND WALKING BALANCE
BETWEEN CHILDREN WITH AUTISM
AND TYPICAL CHILDREN**

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Thesis
entitled

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AND TYPICAL CHILDREN**

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COMPARISON OF STANDING AND WALKING BALANCE BETWEEN CHILDREN WITH AUTISM AND TYPICAL CHILDREN

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to compare standing and walking balance between 13 children with autism and 13 children with typical development aged between 9 to 13 years. The children with typical development had similar age, weight and height compared to the high-functioning autism (HFA) group in order to eliminate inter-subject differences. All children with autism had high-functioning autism and studied full time in integrated classes. The balance subtest of the Bruinink-Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency (BOTMP) was used to assess standing and walking balance used for daily activities. The total point scores of all items, the point scores of each item were compared between the two groups of children.

Results showed no statistically significant difference in the total scores of the balance subtest of BOTMP between children with HFA and typical children ($p>0.05$). However, children with HFA demonstrated significantly lower point scores in the tasks of standing on preferred leg on floor on balance beam (item 2), walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6) and walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7) ($p<0.05$). This implies that children with HFA have difficulty controlling their balance in narrow and sway supporting surfaces and do tandem (heel-to-toe) walking.

Maintaining balance while standing and walking is essential for many functional activities and has a considerable impact on the social integration of the child in his peer groups (e.g. playing with other peers and playing sports). Pediatric physical therapists should carefully screen for the presence of functional balance deficit, in order for these children to have the benefit of appropriate therapeutic intervention. Functional balance in variable activities such as walking on different supporting surfaces or obstacle course is suggested in the further study in children with autism.

KEY WORDS: CHILDREN WITH HIGH-FUNCTIONING AUTISM /
STANDING AND WALKING BALANCE/ BOTMP

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การเปรียบเทียบสมรรถภาพการทรงท่ายืนและเดินระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป
(COMPARISON OF STANDING AND WALKING BALANCE BETWEEN
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บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษานี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อเปรียบเทียบสมรรถภาพการทรงท่ายืนและเดินระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป เด็กที่เข้าร่วมการศึกษาคือเด็กออทิสติกที่มีศักยภาพสูง และสามารถเข้าชั้นเรียนร่วมแบบเต็มเวลากับเด็กทั่วไปได้ และเด็กทั่วไป อายุระหว่าง 9-13 ปี จำนวนกลุ่มละ 13 คน โดยเด็กทั่วไปแต่ละคนต้องมีอายุ น้ำหนักและส่วนสูงใกล้เคียงกับเด็กออทิสติก การทดสอบการทรงท่าที่ใช้เป็นแบบทดสอบการทรงท่าของ Bruinink-Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency (BOTMP) ซึ่งเป็นการทดสอบความสามารถในการทรงท่ายืนและเดิน ที่ใช้ในการทำกิจกรรมของเด็กในชีวิตประจำวัน และนำข้อมูลที่ได้บันทึกเป็นคะแนนมาวิเคราะห์ผล ระหว่างเด็กทั้งสองกลุ่ม

ผลการศึกษาพบว่า คะแนนรวมทั้งหมดของเด็กทั้งสองกลุ่ม ไม่มีความแตกต่างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ($p>0.05$) อย่างไรก็ตาม คะแนนที่ได้ในการทดสอบการทรงท่าขณะยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนคานไม้ (ท่าที่ 2), ขณะเดินแบบต่อส้นเท้าบนเส้น (ท่าที่ 6) และ ขณะเดินแบบต่อส้นเท้าบนคานไม้ (ท่าที่ 7) ของเด็กออทิสติกนั้น ต่ำกว่าคะแนนของเด็กทั่วไปอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ($p<0.05$) การศึกษานี้ ทำให้ทราบว่า เด็กออทิสติกมีความยากลำบากในการควบคุมการทรงท่าของร่างกายเมื่อต้องยืนทรงตัวบนขาเดียวบนพื้นผิวที่แคบและไม่มั่นคงและขณะเดินแบบต่อส้นเท้า

เนื่องจากการทรงท่ายืนและเดินจำเป็นต่อการทำกิจกรรมประจำวันต่าง ๆ ของเด็กออทิสติก ดังนั้นนักกายภาพบำบัดเด็กควรสนใจในการคัดกรองความสามารถในการทรงท่าของเด็กออทิสติกแต่ละคน เพื่อให้การรักษาที่เหมาะสม เพื่อส่งเสริมทักษะการร่วมทำกิจกรรมต่าง ๆ กับกลุ่มเพื่อนในสังคม และควรจะมีการศึกษาการทรงท่าในลักษณะกิจกรรมอื่น ๆ เช่น การเดินบนพื้นผิวแตกต่างหรือเส้นทางกีดขวางต่าง ๆ ของเด็กออทิสติกต่อไป

CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi
CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION	1
Purposes of the Study	4
Parameters of the Study	4
Scope of the Study	4
Hypotheses of the Study	4
Advantage of the Study	5
II LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1 Balance and Postural control	6
2.2 Model of disablement	15
2.3 Assessment of functional balance	17
2.4 Autism	20
2.5 Balance deficit in children with autism	27
III MATERIALS AND METHODS	30
3.1 Subjects	30
3.2 Instrumentation	31
3.3 Testing Protocol	35
3.4 Statistic Analysis	41

CONTENTS (Continued)

CHAPTER		Page
IV	RESULTS	42
	4.1 Characteristics of Subjects	42
	4.2 Comparison of the point scores in item 1 to item 8 and total items point scores based on the BOTMP balance subtest between children with HFA and typical children	43
	4.3 Comparison of the elapsed time to complete the tasks on item 1 to 3 of the BOTMP balance subtest between children with HFA and typical children	45
V	DISCUSSION	47
	5.1 Characteristics of Subjects	47
	5.2 Balance in the children with HFA and the typical children	47
	5.3 Limitation of the studies and further study	52
	5.4 Clinical implication and further studies	52
VI	CONCLUSION	53
	REFERENCES	54
	APPENDIX	62
	BIOGRAPHY	92

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
4.1 The characteristics of the subjects (n=26)	42
4.2 Median, maximum (max), minimum (min) and the 1 st , 3 rd quartiles (Q ₁ , Q ₃) of the point scores of standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2), standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eye closed (item 3), walking forward on walking line (item 4), walking forward on balance beam (item 5), walking forward heel to toe on walking line (item 6), walking forward heel to toe on balance beam (item 7), stepping over response speed stick on balance beam (item 8) and total items point scores based on the BOTMP balance subtest in the children with HFA (n=13) and the typical children (n=13)	44
4.3 Maximum (max), minimum (min), mean and standard deviation (SD) of standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2) and standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eye closed (item 3) between children with HFA and typical children based on the BOTMP balance subtest	46
I.1 Characteristics of the children with autism (n=5) and typical children (n=5)	80
I.2 Comparison between children with autism and typical children of each item of the BOTMP balance subtest	81
I.3 Comparison between children with autism and typical children of total scores the BOTMP balance subtest	82

LIST OF TABLES (Continued)

TABLE	Page
I.4 Comparison between children with autism and typical children of elapsed time (in second) in standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2) and standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eye closed (item3) based on the BOTMP balance subtest	82
I.5 Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) of the BOTMP balance subtest in children with autism	83
J.1 The characteristics of the subjects (n=26)	84
J.2 The point scores of item 1 to item 8 based on the BOTMP balance subtest in the children with autism (n=13) and the typical children (n=13)	85
J.3 The raw scores of item 1 to item 8 based on the BOTMP balance subtest in the children with autism (n=13) and the typical children (n=13)	85

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES	Page
2.1 Diagram of disablement model based on WHO or ICIDH model	15
2.2 Diagram of disablement model based on Nagi model	16
2.3 Diagram of disablement model based on NCMRR model	16
3.1 The BOTMP on balance subtest	32
3.2 The target	33
3.3 The masking tape	33
3.4 The response speed stick	34
3.5 The stop watch	34
3.6 Standing on preferred leg on floor	35
3.7 Standing on preferred leg on balance beam	36
3.8 Standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed	36
3.9 Walking forward on walking line	37
3.10 Walking forward on balance beam	37
3.11 Walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line	38
3.12 Walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam	38
3.13 Stepping over response speed stick on balance beam	39
3.14 Protocol of the study	40
4.1 Comparison of the mean elapsed time (in seconds) to complete the tasks (on the BOTMP balance) of item 1 to 3 between children with HFA and typical children	46
H.1 Curve of weight and height for Thai boys by age (from Siriraj Hospital's growth chart)	78
H.2 Curve of weight and height for Thai girls by age (from Siriraj Hospital's growth chart)	79

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASD	=	autistic spectrum disorder
ADHD	=	attention deficit hyperactivity disorder
AS	=	asperger 's syndrome
BBS	=	berg balance scale
BOTMP	=	bruininks-oseretsky test of motor proficiency
CDD	=	childhood disintegrative disorder
cm	=	centimeter (s)
CNS	=	central nervous system
COG	=	center of gravity
COM	=	center of mass
COP	=	center of pressure
DSM-IV	=	diagnostic and statistical manual version four
e.g.	=	example gratia
et al	=	et allii
HFA	=	high-functioning autism
ICC	=	intraclass correlation coefficient
FGS	=	fast gait speed
FRT	=	functional reach test
ICD	=	international classification of disease
ICIDH	=	international classification of impairment, disabilities and handicaps
i.e.	=	id est
IQ	=	intelligence quotient
kg	=	kilogram (s)
LFA	=	low-functioning autism

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (continued)

NCMRR	=	national center for medical rehabilitation research
No.	=	number
PDD-NOS	=	pervasive development disorders-not otherwise specified
PDDs	=	pervasive development disorders
SD	=	standard deviation
TUG	=	timed up and go
WHO	=	world health organization
yr	=	year (s)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Autism is a developmental disorder defined by the presence of three characteristics that are known as a triad of impairments. These include impairments in social interaction, social communication and repetitive behavior. Children with autism may have different behaviors from other peers such as lack of social communication, lack of being a part of social, lack of eyes contact and lack of pretentious play. These symptoms are often noticeable in the first three years of life (1-4).

In addition to the core symptoms of autism, some studies reported the associated symptom like motor impairment such as abnormal gait and posture, abnormal muscle tone, co-ordination abnormalities including mild clumsiness and mild cerebellar ataxia and balance abnormalities (5-8). Postural balance deficit is one problem of children with autism that physical therapists should pay attention due to balance deficits had a considerable impact on daily activity and impair the social integration of the child in his peers group (9, 10).

A few studies of postural balance control in children with autism have been done. Minshew and co-workers (11) studied abnormalities existing in postural control between children who were diagnosed as autism but without mentally retardation and healthy volunteers aged 5 to 52 years. The sensory organization and the movement coordination were measured by Posturography. The result showed that the children with autism decreased postural stability especially under all disrupted somatosensory conditions. The effects of age demonstrated delayed developmental of postural control in autism and fail to reach adult levels. In addition to these study, Noterdaeme and colleagues (12) evaluated the neuromotor deficit in children with non retarded autism, children with specific language disorders in both expressive and receptive and normal children. The results revealed that children with autism and children with specific

language disorders had more motor problems than the control group on motor domains of fine and gross motor functions as well as in balance task. Other studies of postural control in children with autism were not associated directly to balance in autism, mental retardation were more concerned (13, 14).

Most of these studies (11, 12) focused on balance deficit in a level of impairment. Functional balance such as standing and walking balance in children with autism has not yet been concerned. Although the work of Noterdaeme and co-workers (12) was nearly functional balance, it was only four balance items (i.e. standing quietly on one legs, toe walking, heel walking and hopping) and not found commonly in daily activities. Indeed, a deficit in functional limitation level is important in rehabilitation. Functional balance has been defined as the elements of postural control that allow individual to safely perform everyday tasks (15) and functional limitation can be defined as limitation in the ability to movement and mobility in usual activities of daily living (16-19).

Examinations of balance in functional level assess how well a patient can perform functional tasks relied on to postural control (16) Many clinical balance tests are designed to measure in the functional level (15, 20-23). For children, assessment of gross motor skills provides information regarding balance at the level of functional limitation. There are various functional limitation tests that have specific sections related to postural stability and based on normal developmental sequence of motor skill for children. The balance subtest of the Bruininks-Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency (BOTMP) is the one clinical balance tests that are designed to measure functional level and based on normal developmental sequence of motor skill for children aged between 4.5 to 14.5 years old (20). Habib and Westcott (24) stated that balance subtest of the BOTMP is a gold standard for measuring balance and motor proficiency in the children who were aged over five years old. Furthermore, they reported that intra-rater reliability of balance subtest of the BOTMP is 87% to 100% and intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) was 0.97. Many researchers used balance subtest of the BOTMP to assess balance ability in children (25-30). However, there were several functional tests that related to balance control are developed from

frail elderly to pediatric population (17) such as, the timed “up and go” test (TUG) (21), functional reach test (FRT) (22), the berg balance test (23), etc. Nevertheless, FRT and TUG are single tests that are not covered the functional balance in daily activities and the Berg balance test is inappropriate in testing with children with pervasive developmental delays because this disorder impair in cognitive, attention, behavioral and language are the important skill to comprehend and comply with long test instructions (15).

To avoid the effect of mental retardation to standing and walking balance abilities, children with high-functioning autism (HFA) are participated in this study. Furthermore, many children with HFA can be attended in the regular classroom setting and have more chance to participate in many activities related postural balance (e.g. playing with other peers) and the balance subtest of BOTMP may be suitable to use in children with HFA who probably follow the sentences of instructions.

Functional balance in manners of activities of daily living such as standing and walking balance in children with HFA should be carefully investigated. This information would assist physical therapists to improve the appropriate balance training for children with HFA. It may help them to do their daily activities better in both quantity (e.g. longer taking a balance) and quality (e.g. more correcting the balance related task) and support them to participate daily activities with their friends indirectly. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to compare the standing and walking balance between children with HFA and typical children.

Purpose of the Study

General Objective

To compare standing and walking balance between children with HFA and typical children.

Specific Objectives

To compare items in the balance subtest of the BOTMP between children with HFA and typical children.

Parameters of the Study

Independent variable

Children with HFA and typical children who are aged between 9 to 13 years old.

Dependent variable

1. The point scores of each item based on balance subtest of the BOTMP.
2. The total point scores of all items in balance subtest of the BOTMP.
3. The elapsed time to complete the tasks (in seconds) in item 1 to item 3 on balance subtest of the BOTMP.

Scope of the Study

This study is comparative research study for investigating standing and walking balance between children with HFA and typical children who are aged between 9 to 13 years old.

Hypotheses of the Study

1. The total point scores of the balance subtest of the BOTMP in typical children is significantly better than that in children with HFA.
2. The point scores of items 1 to 8 in the balance subtest of the BOTMP in typical children is significantly better than that in children with HFA.
3. The elapsed time in item 1 to 3 on balance subtest of the BOTMP in typical children is significantly better than that in children with HFA.

Advantages of the Study

1. The findings of this study would be able to indicate the balance deficit in functional limitation level in children with HFA.
2. This study would be a guideline for physical therapy in children with HFA.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Balance and Postural control

2.1.1 Descriptions of balance, postural control and related variables

2.1.1.1 Balance and postural control

Balance or postural stability can be defined as the ability to maintain or recover the body's center of mass (31) within the body's base of support to prevent falling and complete desired movements (16, 17, 32-34). Some researchers have defined balance as a condition which force and torque react to unstable body quickly until the body's center of mass is over the base of support for regaining stability (35, 36). Westcott et al (17) stated that balance can be divided into two types, as static and dynamic balance. Similar to Rangnarsdottir's study (37), she has divided balance into two ways, as a state which the body is in equilibrium and as a function in which concern the performed activities. Static balance is the ability to maintain posture in resting position such as standing still or sitting. Furthermore, Cherng et al (38) have defined static balance as the maintaining or controlling the position and the momentum of the whole body's center of mass within base of support in quiet stance state without falling. Dynamic balance is the ability to maintain posture during performance of functional tasks such as walking, reaching or running (17, 24). Both static and dynamic balance are necessary in all situations of motor abilities (16, 39).

Postural control is an ability to maintain balance by keeping or recovering the body's center of mass over its base of support during maintaining the posture (e.g. standing or sitting), controlling body movement and responding to external perturbations (16, 33, 40). In physical therapy literature, balance is often referred to postural control. It is discussed in the synonyms, but all of the terms can be used for the concept of mechanism of human body to protect them from instability (37). Postural control must be done by responding quickly and accurately to internal

and external environment changes (41). It is a complex process involving interaction between biomechanical, sensory and central nervous systems components (40). The ability to maintain adequate postural control is essential for gaining independent movements for all activities of daily living (17, 32).

2.1.1.2 Related variables of balance and postural control: center of mass (31), center of gravity (COG) and center of pressure (COP)

The center of mass (COM) is defined as an imaginary point that is at the center of the total body of mass, determined by finding the weighted average of the COM of each body segment (16, 42). The position of the COM is hypothesized to be subject to body postural control (42). The location of the COM can be displaced relative to the base of support when moving the body. For maintaining static position, the system of the body must keep the COM within the base of support and the moving of COM is related to the base of support for maintaining in dynamic tasks (17).

The vertical projection of the COM is often defined as the center of gravity (COG) (16). The COG must be kept vertically over the base of support to preserve stability that varies with the positions and movements of the body. Balance reactions occur to maintain the body's center of gravity over the base of support (43). The COG displacement can estimate balance when the horizontal COG projection is outside of the base of support (35).

The center of pressure (COP) is defined as the point location of the vertical ground reaction vector at the surface of support (44) under the feet which represents as weighted average of all the pressure over the surface of area in contact with the ground measured by one or two force platforms (42). The COP under each foot can be separated while quite standing. To maintain a stable stance position, one can either relocate the COM through movement of the different body segments or adjust the size of the base of support. The COP differs from the COM, because the COP is the location of the vertical ground reaction at the supporting surface. The COM is the location of the net mass of all the body segments in space (38).

2.1.2 System related balance and postural control

Postural control results from a complex integration among many systems of the body in which play a role in maintaining body's stability (16). In the scope of physical therapist, the sensory and the motor systems are primarily considered (16, 45).

2.1.2.1 Sensory system

Before controlling the position of the body in space, the central nervous system must organize sensory information from sensory receptors. Generally, the peripheral inputs arrive from visual, somatosensory and vestibular systems. These systems act as the detective of the body's positions and movements in space with respect to gravity and environment. Each sense provides the specific information about positions and motions of the body (16).

2.1.2.1.1 Visual system

Visual inputs provide information about position and motions of the head relative to surrounding environment (16) and regarding vertical orientation and visual flow. Visual inputs consist of foveal and peripheral information (46). The visual cues are the important inputs to detect personal and environmental movements for postural control but the inputs are not always an accurate source of orientation about self-motion because most persons can maintain their balance when they are in the dark environment (16, 46). Shumway-Cook and Woollacott (16) concluded that visual system has difficulty distinguishing between object motion and self-motion. Children use visual information to control balance in manner different from adult because visual input may be a dominant input for first learning to stand compensating perturbations in infants (16, 47). Similarly Lee and Aronson's research (48) has shown that learning to initially stand in children is more influenced by visual cues than in adults.

2.1.2.1.2 Somatosensory system (16, 46)

The somatosensory system provides the position and motion information about the body with reference to supporting surface to the central

nervous system (CNS) (16). The somatosensory also sends the CNS with somatosensory inputs through the body and reports information about the relationship of body segments to one another. The somatosensory comprises muscle spindles, golgi tendon organs which are sensitive to joint movement, joint receptors and cutaneous mechanoreceptors. Cutaneous mechanoreceptors include Paccinian corpuscles which are sensitive to vibration, Meissner's corpuscles that are sensitive to light touch and vibration, Merkel's discs which are sensitive to local pressure and Ruffini endings that are sensitive to skin stretch.

When standing on the flat and firm supporting surface, the somatosensory system can provide only the information about body movement and the position respecting to a horizontal surface. Conversely, the somatosensory system is helpless to establish a vertical orientation such as standing on boat which is non-horizontal surface.

2.1.2.1.3 Vestibular system (16, 46, 49)

The vestibular system is most important source of information for controlling posture. It plays a minor role in postural control unless the visual and somatosensory are unavailable. The vestibular system is both a sensory and a motor system. As a sensory system, it provides the CNS with information about head position and head motion respecting to gravity. The CNS uses this information together with information from other sensory systems to maintain posture and balance of whole body in space. Furthermore, it also provides directly to motor control. The CNS uses descending motor pathways that are the vestibular and other types of information to control static head and body position and to coordinate postural movement.

Horak and Shupert (49) described that the vestibular system plays four important roles in both sensory and motor system in postural control. First, the role is sensation and perception of positions and motions of entire body. The vestibular is composed of two types of motor sensors, the semicircular canals and the otoliths. The semicircular canals sense rotation movements of head,

changing velocity in a curve path such as nodding or shaking. The canals can detect all planes of movement because each canal are oriented in different planes. Additionally, the canals are most sensitive to faster head movements. On the other hand, the otoliths which is sensitive to lower head movement and senses linear position and acceleration respecting to the gravity. They consist of the utricular otoliths that sense to vertical linear acceleration of head and saccular otoliths that sense to the translation of head along the horizontal plane (i.e. during walking forward). Second, the role is the vertical head and body orientation, including the static alignment of head and body and the selection of the appropriate sensory cues for postural orientation in different sensory environment. Third, the role is the control of the position of body's COM, both static posture and dynamic movements. And finally, the role is the head stabilization during movement. In addition, the vestibular system also plays an important role in sensation of self-motion.

2.1.2.2 Motor system

The motor system creates movements to maintain posture (16, 17). Postural control requires the generation and coordination of force to produce the effective movements to control the body's position in space. During standing still, the spontaneous of this situation are 1) the gravitational force that affects body alignment tending to lie out of the center are minimized. The good alignment in stance allows the body to use at least internal energy expenditure. 2) muscle tone which is the muscle force in resting being lengthened or its stiffness responses to the pulling of gravity for keeping the body from collapsing and 3) the intrinsic stiffness of muscle in which exist normal muscle tone and increased activation of antigravity muscle known as control postural tone (16). During stance perturbing, most common movement strategies including hip, ankle and stepping strategies are used to maintain body's stability in both feedback and feed-forward (anticipatory) manners.

2.1.2.3 Complex interaction of sensory and motor systems (16, 46)

Balance control involves the complex integration of the sensory information and the generation of appropriate and effective motor response. The complex tasks performance depends on specific CNS structures. Many systems

process an afferent information which is important to postural control (16). Cerebellum is the important one that is the primary integrating and modulating force in stability control. The cerebellum receives sensory input from structures such as cortex, basal ganglion, spinocerebellar tract, vestibular nuclei and vestibular pathway. Then these inputs are modulated, interpreted and sent out to cortex, basal ganglion, thalamus, the fourth and the fifth and the sixth cranial nerves. Vestibular nuclei and vestibular pathway are directly to spinal cord, providing the regulatory input needed to control movement. If any of these structures is damaged, it will affect balance control. The cerebellum influences both smooth coordination of movement and the timing and synergy of muscle groups during synergistic movement including muscle tone or stiffness. Maintenance of postural alignment requires smooth, coordination movement and stability from symmetrical, appropriate, balance skeletal muscle activity.

In addition, basal ganglion also involves in integrating information used for postural control. The basal ganglion receives information from the cortex and cerebellum and then sends the output information to motor cortex via the thalamus. It plays a role to control smooth and coordinated movement in postural adjustment and it is believed to influence the sequences of autonomic postural reaction.

Balance control is also associated with the brainstem since the vestibular nuclei which receives an input from the cerebellum and vestibular system locates in here. The output information is sent to the vestibulospinal tract, oculomotor complex, cerebellum and parietal lobe. The brainstem works in integration of the vestibular input and influences compensatory eye movement.

2.1.3 Factors influencing balance

2.1.3.1 Cognitive and attention

Cognition is defined as the ability to process, sort, retrieve and manipulate information (50). Cognitive process also includes the attention needed to perform the task, arousal, motivation and judgment (51). Cognitive evaluation is important for evaluating patient's ability to contact with the others and environment

(52). It is necessary to assess patient's cognition before treatment. In children development, cognitive changes occur gradually throughout 5 to 7 years old which is a period of age that children begin to develop a sense of logic and strategy as part of their cognitive skills, even though many children do not complete this transition until the end of elementary school (53).

Attention is defined as the ability to focus on a specific stimulus without being distracted. Attention has been subdivided into multiple factors including 1) focused attention (ability to respond to specific stimulus without being distract); 2) sustained attention (the ability to sustain attention over time); 3) selective attention (ability to shift focus of attention from task to another) and; 4) altering attention (ability to respond simultaneously to multiple tasks) (16).

In children, age related cognitive maturation bring a greater ability to ignore misleading information which is partly due to covert process of attention. High level cognitive processes also contribute the maturing ability to ignore irrelevant information (54). School-age children can focus on a central learning task while ignoring stimuli that distract younger children. They also become more strategic at focusing their attention. One explanation for increased attention is that older children understand the consequences of paying attention. They begin to understand that they want to comprehend something, they have to pay attention (53).

Cognition and attention affect postural stability. Cognition involves postural control as well as sensory process in the organization and integration of sensory information under both static and dynamic conditions (51). Therefore, cognitive problems including deficit in attention, memory and executive function that affect problem-solving ability are usually found in patients with primary sensory impairments. These problems affect patients' ability during ambulating and controlling balance in environments (16).

In physical therapy researches, the interaction between cognitive factors and motor performance have been interested. Dual-task methodology

is often used to investigate the attentional demands of motor tasks or the effects of concurrent tasks on motor performance. Brown and co-workers (55) found attentional demands associated with postural control among patients with stroke. Their study indicated that people who have suffered a stroke showed an increase of attentional demands for static postural control related tasks (i.e. verbal reaction time while standing, sitting and standing with feet together) compared with healthy people. The same as in children, Yvett and colleagues (51) found the influence of concurrent tasks on postural sway in forth-grade children. They measured postural sway when children standing on balance platform together with counting backward and reading second-grade level sentences. The results showed that there were greater sway of the COP when performing concurrent cognitive tasks. When sensory information is altered or reduced and postural tasks are more difficult, greater attentional demands are required (55). Additionally, Wang and co-workers (56) found that children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) had poor stability and there is correlation between the balance dysfunction and the deficit in behavior and cognition. An understanding of how attentional demands and other cognitive factors influence motor performance may be helpful to physical therapists in structuring intervention activities.

2.1.3.2 Age

Postural control depends on the sensory systems including visual, vestibular and somatosensory system. The ability of these systems are occurred through developmental sequence. Visual system is a dominant input for maintaining balance in children aged between 4 months to 2 years old. At 3 to 6 years of age, children begin using appropriate somatosensory information. At 7 to 10 years of ages, children are able to use appropriate vestibular system (17). Frossberg and Nashner (57) postulated that children who were younger than seven and a half years could not process the appropriate sensory input. They supported the idea that maturation of somatosensory in postural control appeared at the age of 6 while the maturation of vestibular and visual system appeared at seven and a half years of age. Foudriat and co-workers (58) measured the balance in children with 3-6 years olds and found that the body sway decreased with increasing of age in both girls and boys. Children with six years old had a greater balance than other younger children. The result

demonstrated that children with three years of age were able to maintain stance under all sensory conditions. Children with 4-6 years old can resolve sensory conflict, although the skill to ignore misleading sensory input and integrate multiple sensory is not as same as adult until approximately 7-10 years olds.

2.1.3.3 Gender

Because of the difference in body anthropometrics, especially the height, it was hypothesized that men had a poorer balance than women (59). Ekhdal et al (60) found that women had a stable balance than men in measuring the balance performance by using traditional balance test and force platforms. For the postural stability in children, most studies showed that girls had greater balance control than boys. Riach and Hayes (47) demonstrated that boys under the age of 10 years swayed more than girls. Likewise Golomer and co-workers (61), it was found that 9-to-22-year-old girls stability on moveable platform was better than boys in both eyes closed and open. Similar to Nolan and colleagues' s study (62), boys exhibited greater and faster movement of the COP than girls at 9 to 10 years of age during standing with eyes closed but there was not found the differences in higher ages. It might be that by this age, girls have progressed to an adult like controlling balance. Postural control development in boys have lagged behind girls but this adult like would be developed in a few years later. Moreover, they suggested that it is necessary to separate sexes when investigating balance in children (62).

2.1.3.3 Anthropometric factor

Anthropometrics is a factor that influences postural and balance abilities, especially in children. Habib and Westcott (24) studied the effect of anthropometric factors including height, weight and base of support on functional balance test in Parkistan children. They found that early maturing children who are taller had better functional reach test, running speed and agility and time up and go scores than those who are shorter in 5 to 7-year-old children. They suggested that in clinical assessing, anthropometric factor needed to be considered, especially when assessing balance ability of children under seven years of age.

2.2 Model of disablement

The term of disablement is a global term that the various conditions of disease, injury or congenital abnormalities affect to the specific organs or body systems, basic physical performance and functioning of individual. Disablement also impacts to human functioning at many different level. There are three major conceptual schemes for physical disablement that related to the roles of physical therapists. These models are 1) world health organization model (WHO) 2) Nagi model and 3) national center for medical rehabilitation research model (NCMRR) (16, 19, 63).

2.2.1 World Health Organization model

The international classification of impairment, disabilities and handicaps (ICIDH), was developed by Philip Wood for WHO. The ICIDH disablement scheme is divided into four dysfunction levels that are disease, impairment, disablement and handicaps. The primary level is a disease level. It refers to the intrinsic pathology or disorder that affect human organism. The second level is impairment that refers to abnormality or loss of psychological, physiological or anatomical structures or functions at organ level. The third level is disability that means restriction or lack of ability to perform an activity in normal manners including disturbances in behaving an appropriate personal care. The final level in these disable process is handicaps. It refers to disadvantage for a given individual due to impairment or disability that limits or prevents fulfillment of a normal role for the person. Handicaps state is related to other people in society and environment for individual (16, 19, 63).

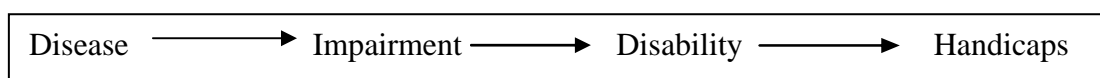


Figure 2.1 Diagram of disablement model based on WHO or ICIDH model.

2.2.2 Nagi model

Nagi model was developed in the 1960s by Saad Nagi, the sociologist. This model consists of four levels of dysfunction. The first level is active pathology that is associated as the interruption of normal cellular processes and efforts of the

organism to regain normal state. The second level is impairment as well as the ICIDH model, that refers to abnormalities or loss of anatomical, physiological, mental or emotional functions. The next level, Nagi uses the term “functional limitation” that refers to limitation in performance at the level of the whole organism or person. In order to, it represents ant inability to perform and individual tasks such as walking or standing. The fourth level is disability that is defined as the limitation in performance of socially roles and tasks within a sociocultural and physical environment (i.e. work or employment). It reserves for social rather than individual functioning (16, 19).

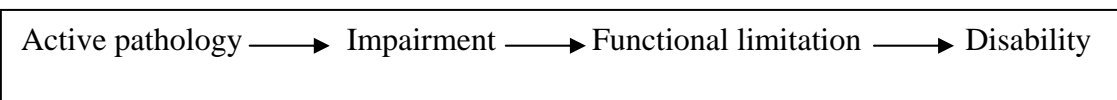


Figure 2.2 Diagram of disablement model based on Nagi model.

2.2.3 The National Center for Medical Rehabilitation Research (NCMRR model)

The NCMRR model is a modification and extension of the basic Nagi and ICIDH formulation. This model comprises five levels of dysfunction including pathophysiology, impairment, functional limitation, disability as well as in Nagi model and increases the level of social limitation. Societal limitation involves restriction or limitation of individual to fulfill the social policy or barriers role (16, 19).

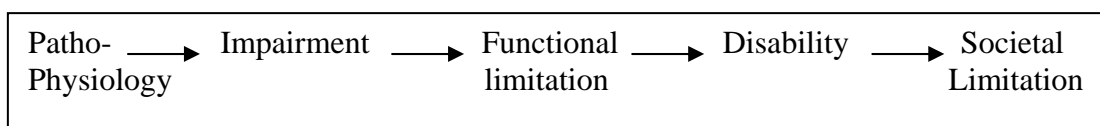


Figure 2.3 Diagram of disablement model based on NCMRR model.

It is important to understand these models for effectively assessing disabled status, planning the appropriate treatment or rehabilitation, and preventing impairment from the result of pathology or disability.

2.3 Assessment of functional balance

Balance ability can be evaluated in impairment, functional limitation, disability and societal limitation level following the disablement models. Functional balance has been defined as the elements of postural control that allow individual to safely perform everyday tasks (15). Functional limitation can be defined as limitation in the ability to movement and mobility in usual activities of daily living (16-19).

Balance deficits in a functional context are more important in the focus of rehabilitation and intervention (23). Many clinical balance tests are designed to measure in the functional level (64). Assessment of balance in the functional level is to examine how well a person can perform functional tasks relied on to postural control (16). For children, assessment of gross motor skills provides information regarding balance at the level of functional limitation. There are various functional limitation tests that have specific sections related to postural stability and based on normal developmental sequence of motor skill for young children. The gross motor section of the bruininks-oseretsky test of motor proficiency (BOTMP) is the one well-known test for assessing motor skill performance and balance ability in young children (16, 17). In addition, several functional tests that related to balance control are developed from frail elderly to pediatric population (17). Example are functional reach test (FRT) (22), the timed “up and go” test (TUG) (21), the berg balance test (23), etc.

2.3.1 Bruininks-Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency (BOTMP)

The BOTMP is the assessment test of motor function in children who are between 4.5 to 14.5 years old. There are eight subtests in the BOTMP that is designed to assess an important aspect of motor development in both gross and fine motor skills. The gross motor sections provide reliable balance subtest, running speed and agility, bilateral coordination and strength. The BOTMP is designed for children with mild motor impairment. Additionally, Bartscherer and Dole (65) used the BOTMP to assess gross and fine motor abilities in children with attention deficit. The BOTMP have been documented moderate to good reliability and validity (Inter-rater reliability ($r=.90-.98$), test-retest reliability ($r=.56-.81$) and validity ($r=.52-.69$) (17, 20). Habib and Westcott (24) stated that balance subtest of the BOTMP was a gold

standard for measuring balance and motor proficiency in the children who were aged over five years old. Furthermore, they reported that intra-rater reliability of balance subtest of the BOTMP is 87% to 100% and intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) was 0.97.

The subtest of balance consists of eight items: standing on preferred leg on floor, standing on preferred leg on balance beam, standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed, walking forward on walking line, walking forward on balance beam, walking forward heel to toe on walking line, walking forward heel to toe on balance beam and stepping over response speed stick on balance beam. Many researchers used balance subtest of the BOTMP to assess balance ability in children (25-30). This test imitates situations in daily living in children such as controlling balance while standing and walking. The tool is appealing to young children and the short and easy understanding of instruction is appropriate for children with autism. Moreover, this test can also be discriminative test that determine whether the individual has balance problem and evaluative test to determine change over time or effectiveness of therapy (17, 20).

2.3.2 Functional Reach Test (FRT)

The FRT can be used as a quick screening test to distinguish balance problem in individuals. For testing, a person stands with fixed feet at a shoulder distance apart and holds 90 degrees of shoulder flexion. He/she is instructed to reach forward as far as possible that he/she can maintain balance. The distance (in centimeters) between the starting and ending reach positions is measured (16, 17, 22). The FRT can only examine the limit of stability in the forward direction (36). Westcott et al (17) suggested that the FRT is not appropriate with children with disabilities because the poor test-retest reliability have been found in this group. Moreover, the study of Wernick-Robinson et al (36) indicated that the FRT did not measure actual dynamic balance and the correlation between the FRT and gait velocity was poor ($r=.08$). This test can evaluate only balance ability during standing. The FRT single test is not covered the functional balance in daily activities and have a poor reliability

in children with disability. Therefore, the FRT may not be suitable for assessing balance in children with autism.

2.3.3 Timed “Up and Go” Test (TUG)

The TUG test is the test for measuring the ability to perform sequential locomotor tasks that relates to walking and turning (66). A person is observed while rising from an armchair, walking a distance of three meters, returning to the chair and sit down. The performance is timed in seconds (17, 64, 66, 67). Time taken to complete this task is strongly correlated to level of functional mobility. Functional mobility is a term used to consider the balance and gait in activity of daily living (21). Westcott et al (17) advised that the TUG had good inter-rater reliability ($ICC=.99$) in balance test of children and also demonstrated the differentiation between children with and without balance deficit. However, the TUG is only single balance test that may not cover functional balance in daily living of children or children with autism.

2.3.4 Berg Balance Scale (BBS)

The BBS is a functional measure of balance developed as a performance-oriented measurement. It provides three dimensions including postural maintenance, postural adjustment to voluntary movement and responding to external perturbations (23, 68, 69). The BBS contains 14 items on simple mobility tasks such as transfers or sit to stand and more complex tasks as tandem standing or single leg stance. A scale of each item rate 0 to 4 and the total score is 56. A score of 0 refers to unable to do any task and a score of 4 is able to achieve the task (16, 23, 64). Kambhavi et al (23) recommended that the BBS is intended to measure in pediatric population due to emphasize and capture a wide range of functional ability. The BBS has good test-retest and inter-rater reliability ($ICC=.98$) and can discriminate the risk of fall in older. However, most functional measure of the BBS has environmental limitation. The test is examined under restricted environmental condition, it may not predict the actual performance in various environments (16). The BBS can assess balance abilities in many conditions. Nevertheless, Franjoine and co-workers (32) suggested that it was inappropriate in testing with children with pervasive

developmental delays because this disorder impair in cognitive, attention, behavioral and language are the important skill to comprehend and comply with test instructions.

2.3.4 Gait Velocity Test

Gait velocity or fast gait speed (FGS) test is to measure over a relatively short distance. It does not include endurance as a factor (64). A person is asked to walk in comfortable paces and the test is timed when achieve walking in 10 meters. The velocity is calculated by diving middle 6 meters on walkway. Gait velocity is strongly correlated with level of mobility and balance that plays a role in maintaining gait velocity (70). The gait velocity has been reported high inter-tester, intra-tester reliability and a high sensitivity and specificity of 80% and 89% respectively (64). These test can evaluate only balance ability during speed walking. The FGS single test does not cover the functional balance in daily activities. No study regarding reliability in children population has been reported. Therefore, the FGS may not appropriate for assessing functional balance in children with autism.

2.4 Autism (1-4)

2.4.1 Definition

Autism is a lifelong development disability that affects to children and adults in varying degrees. Autism is a root of a word 'auto' which refers to 'self' that means as aloofness and disinterest of environments around them. Children with autism may have different behaviors from other peers such as lack of social communication, lack of being a part of social, lack of eyes contact and lack of pretentious play. Generally, children who are diagnosed with autism must have three characteristics of features or they are known as a triad of impairments that include impairments in social interaction, social communication and repetitive behavior. These are noticeable in the first three years of life.

Physicians group children with autism in pervasive development disorders (PDDs) which refer to development disabilities in many dimensions. It is sometimes known as autistic spectrum disorders (ASD). PDDs include autistic disorder, pervasive development disorders-not otherwise specified (PDD-NOS),

asperger's syndrome (AS), Rett's syndrome and childhood disintegrative disorder (CDD). Other PDDs have some features like autistic disorder but they are not all. Screening and diagnosis should be undertaken by trained experts.

In Thailand, Limsila, ex-director of Yuwaprasart Waitayoprathum Child Psychiatric Hospital, found first autistic children in 1967. She has studied and helped these children continuously (71).

2.4.2 Characteristics of autism

Triad of impairments can interpret into three difficulties in autistic spectrum disorder. These make us understand clearly (3).

2.4.2.1 Social interaction

- a. avoid eyes contact
- b. lack of desire to interact or play with other children or adults
- c. lack of co-operative or parallel play
- d. lack of desire to start relationships
- e. unable to interpret or understand people's feeling and emotions
- f. does not response to affection or being touched or appears to overact

2.4.2.2 Social communication (speech, language and non-verbal communication)

- a. lack of useful language
- b. lack of desire to communicate with others around them
- c. echolalia in which refers to the reiteration of meaningless words
- d. instability to understand non-verbal communication such as gestures and facial expression
- e. instability to understand the process of conversation

- f. if speech develops, it will be delayed and may demonstrate unusual speech, unusual or monotomus tone and/or pattern of speech
- g. may talk about a topic incessantly and at inappropriate time
- h. may be able to use language appropriate in one situation but be unable to transfer the language into an alternative situation

2.4.2.3 Pattern of behavior, interests and activities

- a. repetitive movement such as hand flapping, rocking or covering ears or eyes
- b. lack of imaginative play
- c. play may be rigid, stereotypical and repetitive
- d. resistance to participate in imaginative play situations
- e. repetitive and/or compulsive behaviors
- f. difficulties and/or anxieties with changes of routines

In addition to the characteristic above, the followings may be observed;

- unusual response to stimuli. Children with autism may be oversensitive or undersensitive to some sensory stimuli. Example would include: refusal to eat 'lumpy' food or combined foods such as sandwiches, aversion to common noises such as a dishwasher or vacuum cleaner, apparent lack of awareness of cold and heat
- unusual response to 'normal' situation
- self-harming or inappropriate behaviors such as overaggressive play
- abnormal sleeping pattern
- excellent skills in art, knowledge of a film, music or mathematics. Children with an exceptional skill are known as "autistic savants"

2.4.3 Cause of autism

Researchers have been studying causes of autism continually, there is no obvious conclusion. Several studies focused on three ideas explaining about the causation;

2.4.3.1 Psychology

This idea was believed that autism have been arisen from the negative relationship in family. It often occurred with unwarmhearted or cold parents which is known as the 'refrigerator mother theory'. Currently, this theory has not been acceptable.

2.4.3.2 Neurology

It correlates with dysfunction of some structures in the brain and neurotransmission within the brain.

2.4.3.3 Genetics

It is generally accepted that genetic factor plays the role as the cause of autism. Recent research focus on chromosomes and genes that are the cause of brain dysfunction associated with autism.

Moreover, some diseases as German measles, abnormal labor, pollution such as lead exposure in first trimester of pregnancy may be causes of autism.

2.4.4 Prevalence of autism

Autism is found in children are 4-5 per 10,000 following the DSM-IV criteria (72). In Thailand, no report has been concerned about prevalence and etiology of autism (73, 74). However, from the statistics of the out patients in Yuwaprasart Waitayoprathum Child Psychiatric Hospital, numbers of children with autism between 1994 to 1997 were 9,458 children with autism and between 1998 to 2001 the number of these children increased to 12,545. This data was enough for assuming that there were a lot of children in Thailand (74). In addition, Limsila studied 277 children with autism who were treated in Yuwaprasart Waitayoprathum Child Psychiatric Hospital between 1994 to 1998 and found that the ratio of children with autism between boys and girls were 3.3:1 (73).

2.4.5 Diagnosis

Diagnosis that specifies children in indeed autism will help them to receive appropriate intervention from the professionals immediately, relieve the anxiety of parents and help promoting their learning opportunities.

Autism can not be diagnosed from blood test, x-ray or scan. Children with autism may have some features similar with other disorders such as hyperactivity or severe speech and language disorders. It is necessary to have the specific diagnostic assessment tools for identifying autism and distinguishing between autism and other disorders. These diagnostic tools are undertaken by trained and experienced professionals as consultant pediatricians, clinical psychologists or autism specific assessment teams. Well-known and worldwide diagnostic tools are international classification of disease (ICD10) developed by WHO in 1993 and diagnostic and statistical manual version four (DSM-IV) developed by the American Psychiatric Association in 1994. The DSM-IV is the criteria which Thai Physicians use for diagnosing autism in Thai children (4, 72).

DSM-IV

DSM-IV has three criteria to diagnose children with autism (75). Children would be diagnosed with autism if they have a total of six (or more) items from (1), (2) and (3) with at least two from (1) and one each from (2) and (3). This criteria are

(1) Qualitative impairment in social interaction, as manifested by at least two of the following:

- a. marked impairment in the use of multiple nonverbal behaviors such as eye-to-eye gaze, facial expression, body postures and gestures to regulate social interaction
- b. failure to develop peer relationships appropriate to developmental level
- c. lack of spontaneous seeking to share enjoyment, interests or achievements with other people (e.g. by a lack of showing, bringing, or pointing out objects of interest)

- d. lack of social or emotional reciprocity

(2) Qualitative impairment in communication as manifested by at least two of the following:

- a. delay in, or total lack of, the development of spoken language (not accompanied by an attempt to compensate through alternative models of communication such as gesture or mime)
- b. in individuals with adequate speech, marked impairment in the ability to initiate or sustain a conversation with others
- c. stereotyped and repetitive use of language or idiosyncratic language
- d. lack of varied, spontaneous make-believe play or social imitative play appropriate to developmental level

(3) Restricted repetitive and stereotyped patterns of behavior, interests, and activities as manifested by at least one of the following:

- a. encompassing preoccupation with one or more stereotyped and restricted patterns of interest that is abnormal either in intensity or focus
- b. apparently inflexible adherence to specific, non-function routines or rituals
- c. stereotyped and repetitive motor mannerisms (e.g. hand or finger flapping or twisting or complex whole-body movements)
- d. persistent preoccupation with parts of objects

The onset of delay or abnormal functioning in at least one of the following areas must be presented prior to 3 years of age. The disturbance is not better accounted for by Rett's disorder or CDD.

2.4.6 Severity of autism

Severity of the symptom can be classified widely in three levels that are mild, moderate and severe autism (73, 76). Mild autism or high-functioning autism (HFA) have normal intelligence quotient (IQ) or above. However, individuals with

mild autism present the manifestations of impairments in social interaction, social communication and emotional disturbance. Sometimes, asperger syndrome (AS) may be called as a mild or mildest degree of autism. However, AS is a much more specific diagnosis (75), with specific diagnostic criteria following DSM-IV. The difference between AS and HFA was based on language development. Individuals with AS have been normal in speech development that seen clearly since at toddler (75). It was nevertheless shown that children with HFA were more impaired than children with AS in terms of severity of social, verbal, and cognitive impairments (77). Additionally, some studies separated HFA from AS by considering neuromotor impairment such as gait variability involved cerebellar dysfunction (6, 78) or more severe in motor clumsiness that are the features of HFA (13).

Children with moderate autism shows developmental language disorder, social interaction including problems in self-caring and self-stimulating. The most excessive manifestation is severe autism groups. Children with severe autism demonstrate delay development in every skills and associated with mental retardation and aggressive behavior (73, 76).

It is necessary to distinguish the severity of autism because it is an important marker for both diagnosis and prognosis and is the traditional point used in differentiating between trainable and educable persons (79).

2.4.7 High functioning autism (HFA)

Although severity of autism can be divided into mild, moderate and severe (73, 76), some researchers separate autism into two major categories, that are high functioning autism (HFA) and low functioning autism (LFA) (79). Generally, the LFA often cover the manifestations of moderate and severe autism such as mental retardation, epilepsy, and extremely limited receptive/expressive language skills (79).

High functioning autism (HFA) is not an official diagnostic term, it is only a common term to define an individual who shows developmentally higher or less severe manifestations of autism and good prognosis in treatment (79). Children

with HFA have much more efficient with expressive and receptive speech and have normal intelligence quotient (IQ) but show the manifestations of impairments in social interaction, emotional disturbance, and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder or above. Some individual with HFA attempt to make a peer relationship, greet with stereotyped phrase and have one-side conversation.

Many researchers agree on IQ, particularly verbal IQ to define HFA (12, 79-81). Some agree in designating an priori IQ cutoff score of 85 as a general index to differentiate high-and low-functioning autism (12, 82). However, it is probably not sufficient in the presence of significant language and social delays and abnormalities. Subgroup of children with autism by level of functioning should be considered not only in nonverbal but also in all three domains of autistic impairments (81).

In this study, HFA are defined as children with autism who can attend in full time integrating classroom with other typical children. In additional, children with HFA will pass all of the assigned comprehension test (Appendix G) which is designed to screen comprehension skills like understanding and following the instruction.

2.5 Balance deficit in children with HFA

Although postural balance impairment is not a diagnostic criterion of autism, deficiency in balance ability, indeed, is one of the critical problems that has often seen in children with autism (31). Balance deficits have considerably impacted on daily activity and impaired the social integration in children with HFA (9, 10). There are several studies using clinical tests reported abnormal postural balance in children with autism (13, 14, 83). Nevertheless, these studies most concerned of postural control in children with mental retardation more than children with autism.

A few studies of postural balance in children with autism without mental retardation has been reported (11, 12). Minshew and colleagues studied abnormalities of postural control in subjects with autism but without mentally retardation by

comparing with healthy volunteers in various ages. The study used posturography which measured both the sensory organization and the movement coordination (11). The result showed that the subjects with autism decreased postural stability especially under all somatosensory disrupted conditions. Children with autism had more difficulty maintaining an upright when standing on only a sway-reference surface and combination with closed eyes. The effect of age revealed a delay in development and underdevelopment of the postural control system in autism (11). Additionally, the effect of IQ on the postural deficit was found in children with autism. Lower IQ corresponds to more impairment in postural control but does not show in normal children.

Noterdaeme and colleagues (12) evaluated the neuromotor deficit in three groups of children: children with autism, children with specific language disorders in both expressive and receptive, and normal children. The results revealed that children with autism and children with specific language disorders had more motor problems than the control group on most neurological tasks especially in balance task. Children with autism were less able to stand quiet on one leg for a determine period of time and difficult to do hopping, toe walking and heel walking compared with normal children. Children with autism in these studies were HFA, so the results cannot be explained as the consequence of a general mental retardation. The occurrence of neuromotor deficiency in these children was generally interpreted as an indication of a biological factor in the aetiology of autism (10, 84). Moreover, the result revealed that two third of the children with autism had difficulties mastering daily routine such as playing with age-appropriate, ball game and bicycling.

However, one of the studies of children with autism found a paradoxically better instability when vision was occluded or somatosensory input was restricted in children with autism compared with normal children and children with mental retardation (85).

For the previous studies, balance abilities in children with HFA were not assessed in terms of with everyday living tasks. It is interesting to investigate standing

and walking balance in manners of activities of daily living in children with HFA.
This information would assist these children to better do their everyday activities.

CHAPTER III

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Subjects

Thirteen children with HFA and 13 children with typical development aged between 9 to 13 years participated in this study. Each typical child was recruited by matching with the child with autism at the similar age, gender, weight and height for eliminating inter-subject differences between groups due to limited numbers of children with HFA. All children were primary school students from Satit Haeng Mahawittayalai Kasetsart School. Prior to participate in the study, parents were requested to sign a consent form. This study was approved by Ethical Committee on Research Involving Human Subject, Faculty of Graduate, Mahidol University.

3.1.1 Inclusion criteria

Typical children

Subjects were recruited on the basis of:

- healthy children, no history of obvious musculoskeletal or neurological disorders
- attending regular class in full time
- aged-appropriate standard weight and height, based on the growth chart used in Department of Pediatrics, Siriraj Hospital

Children with HFA

Subjects were be recruited on the basis of:

- child psychiatrist's diagnosis as autism
- attending regular class (without special program for children with autism)
- aged-appropriate standard weight and height, based on the growth chart used in Department of Pediatrics, Siriraj Hospital

- ability to walk independently without assistive device
- passing all of the assigned comprehension test (Appendix G)

3.1.2 Exclusion criteria

The subjects were excluded from the study if they had the following criteria.

- taking medication that alter posture balance abilities
- apparent visual and auditory problems

3.2 Instrumentation

3.2.1 The BOTMP on balance subtest (Figure 3.1)

Eight items of balance subtest of the BOTMP measured specific balance skills.

Item 1: standing on preferred leg on floor

Item 2: standing on preferred leg on balance beam

Item 3: standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed

Item 4: walking forward on walking line

Item 5: walking forward on balance beam

Item 6: walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line

Item 7: walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam

Item 8: stepping over response speed stick on balance beam

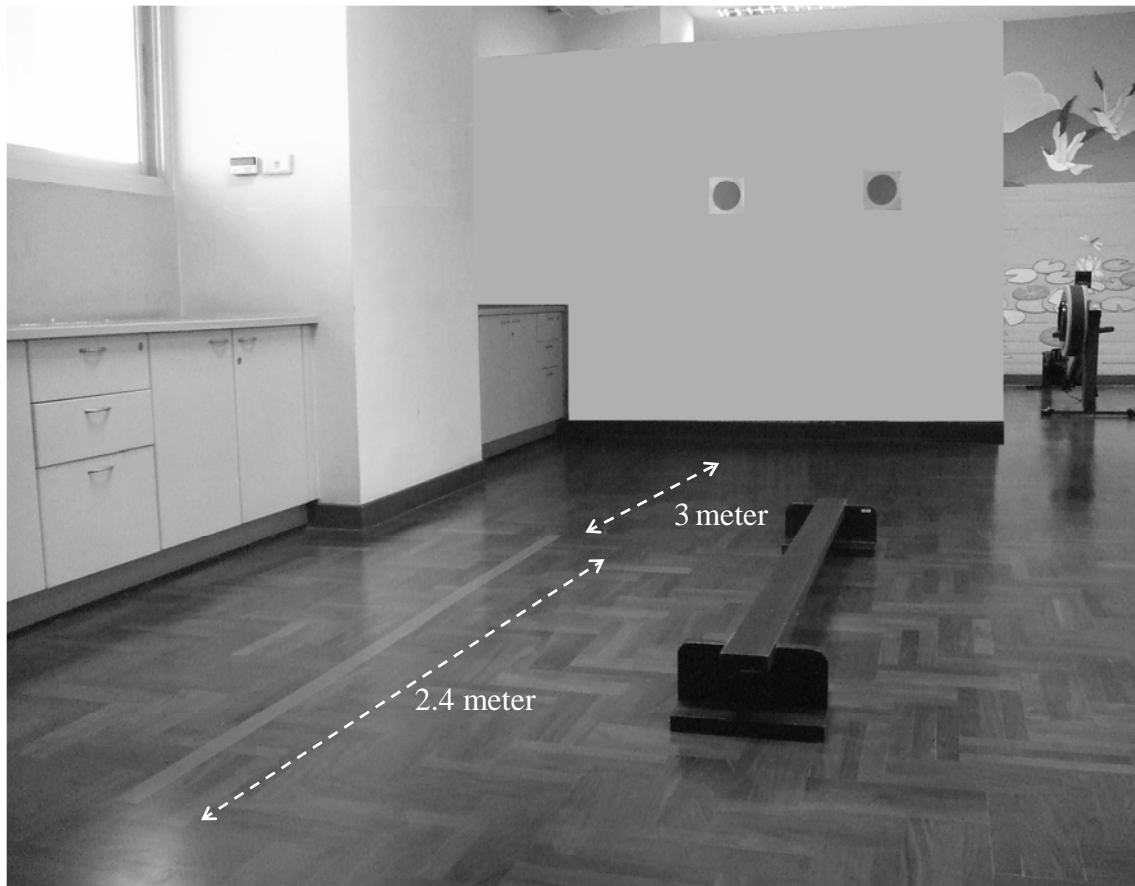


Figure 3.1 The BOTMP on balance subtest

- ① The walking line
- ② The balance beam

3.2.2 Target

The target (Figure 3.2) were used as a point that the subject would look straight ahead while standing on preferred leg (item 1 and 2). It was stuck on the wall with adhesive tape and it is 3 meters from the edge of a walking line.

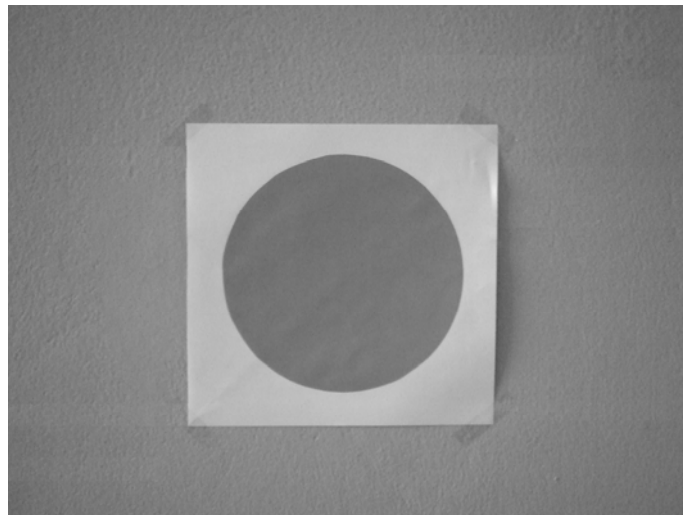


Figure 3.2 The target

3.2.3 Masking tape

A walking line was made by taping a 2.4 meter piece of masking tape (Figure 3.3) on the floor in front of the target, about 3 meters from the wall (Figure 3.1).

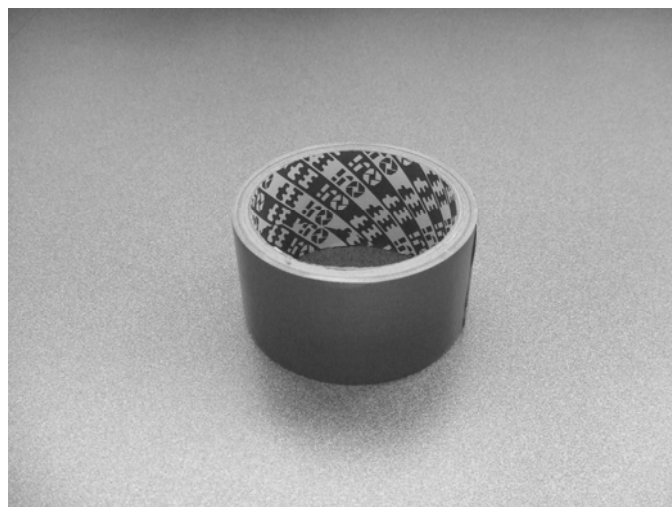


Figure 3.3 The masking tape

3.2.4 Balance beam

A balance beam was made from wooden beam that was used in item 2, 3, 5, 7 and 8 (Figure 3.1).

3.2.5 Response speed stick

According to the standard protocol in the BOTMP, a response speed stick was used to disturb balance while the subject was walking on the balance beam.

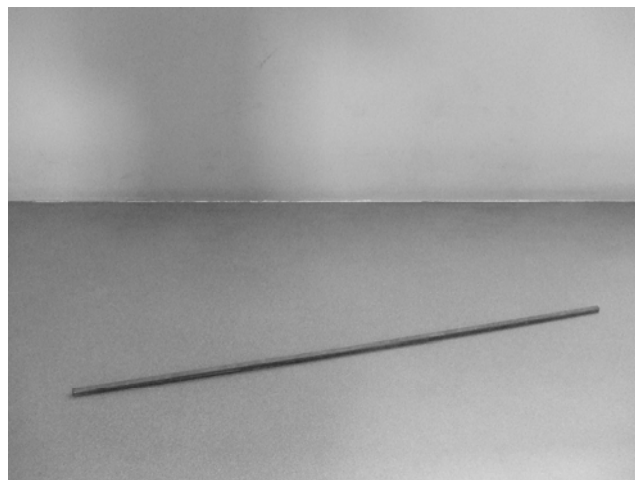


Figure 3.4 The response speed stick

3.2.6 Stop watch

The stop watch was used to time subject's performance on each item. The examiner recorded the time on the individual record form.



Figure 3.5 The stop watch

3.3 Testing Protocol

Before testing, children with HFA were examined whether they understand the instruction that are similar to the instructions in the BOTMP manual by using comprehensive test (Appendix G). This comprehensive test were designed to ensure that children with HFA understood the instructions during the balance performance. The researcher asked about health history from parents of subjects. All subjects were measured weight and height. They were tested the subject's leg preference before participating in the study. Subjects were asked to kick twice a tennis ball to the examiner. The researcher noted the leg preference, right or left, on the individual record form.

All balance items of the BOTMP were instructed and demonstrated by researcher. Scores were recorded in the raw scores and converted to the point scores based on the balance subtest of the BOTMP manual to compare the balance skills between typical children and children with HFA groups. If the subject was not achieve the first trail of each item, only one trial was repeated. When the second trial would be necessary, the subject's errors were pointed out before the second trial was administered.

3.3.1 Item 1: standing on preferred leg on floor

Subjects placed the preference leg on the walking line and looked at the target. Then subject placed hands on hips and bent other leg. They had to maintain such position to the maximum scores (10 seconds) (figure 3.6).

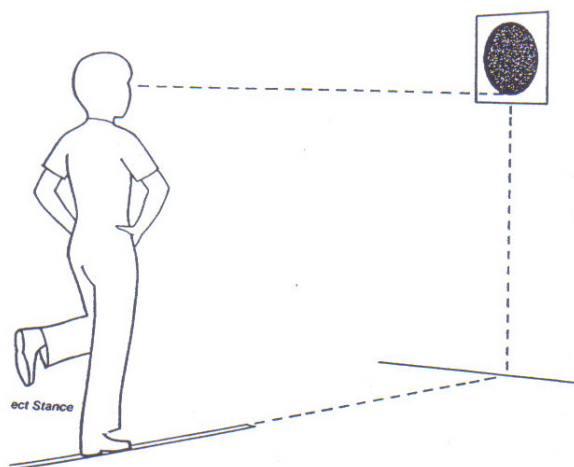


Figure 3.6 Standing on preferred leg on floor

3.3.2 Item 2: standing on preferred leg on balance beam

Subjects placed the preference leg on balance beam on and looked at the target. Then subject placed hands on hips and bent other leg. They had to maintain the position to the maximum scores (10 seconds) (figure 3.7).

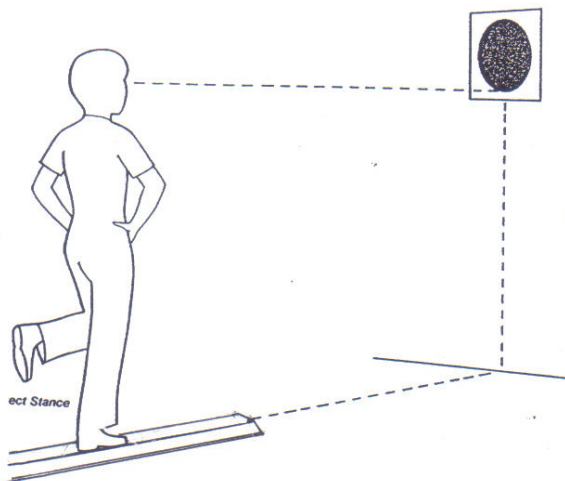


Figure 3.7 Standing on preferred leg on balance beam

3.3.3 Item 3: standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed

Subjects placed the preference leg on balance beam with eyes close and maintained that position to the maximum scores (10 seconds) (figure 3.8).



Figure 3.8 Standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed

3.3.4 Item 4: walking forward on walking line

Subjects stood on edge of walking line with hands on hips and placed one foot slightly ahead of the other. Then they walked forward six steps (maximum scores) in a normal walking stride to the end of the line (figure 3.9).

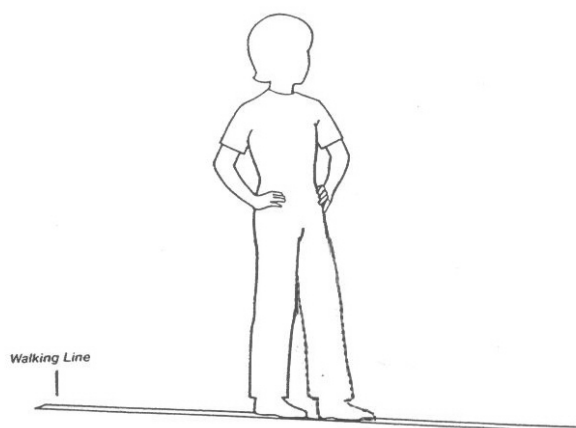


Figure 3.9 Walking forward on walking line

3.3.5 Item 5: walking forward on balance beam

Subjects stood on edge of balance beam with hands on hips and placed one foot slightly ahead of the other. Then they walked forward six steps (maximum scores) in a normal walking stride to the end of the balance beam (figure 3.10).

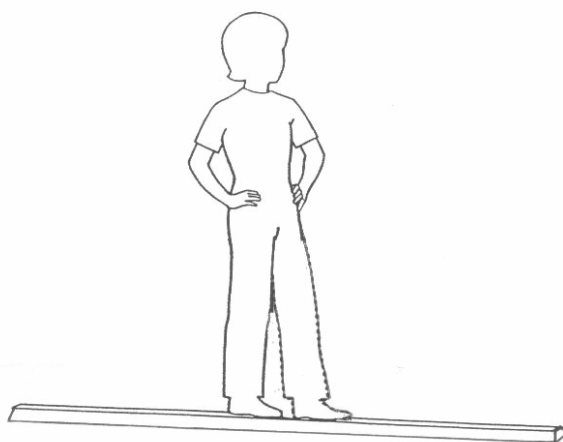


Figure 3.10 Walking forward on balance beam

3.3.6 Item 6: walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line

Subjects stood on edge of walking line with hands on hips. Then they walked forward on the walking line with heel-to-toe. Subjects had to make six consecutive steps (maximum scores) correctly to the end of the line (figure 3.11).

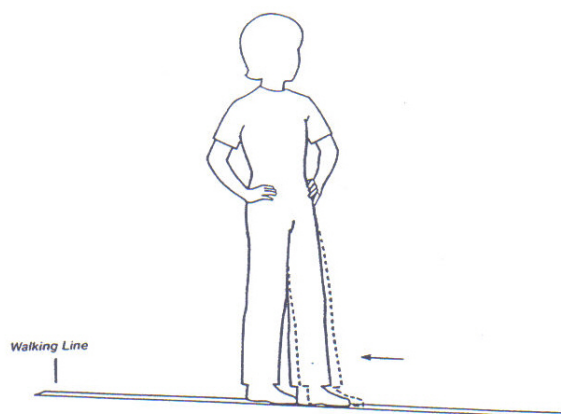


Figure 3.11 Walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line

3.3.7 Item 7: walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam

Subjects stood on edge of balance beam with hands on hips. Then they walked forward with heel-to-toe. Subjects had to make six consecutive steps (maximum scores) correctly to the end of the balance beam (figure 3.12).

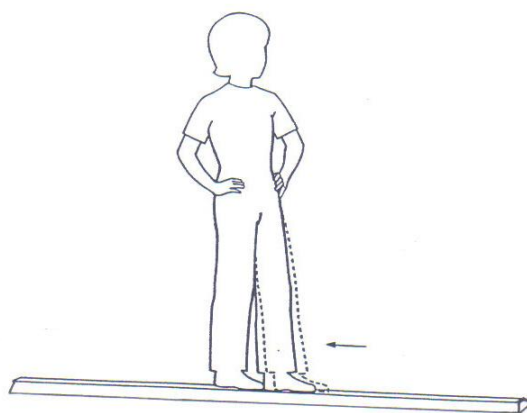


Figure 3.12 Walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam

3.3.8 Item 8: stepping over response speed stick on balance beam

Subjects stood on edge of the beam with hands on hips and knee. Then they walked forward (with normal walking stride) on the balance beam and stepped over the response speed stick at a height slightly below the subject's knee. The stick was held at the middle of the beam by the examiner (figure 3.13). The score was one (pass) or zero (not pass).

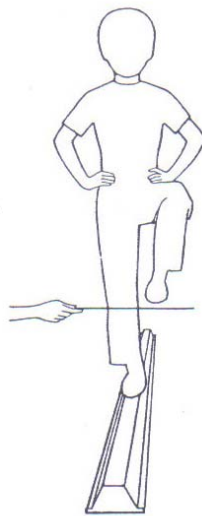


Figure 3.13 Stepping over response speed stick on balance beam

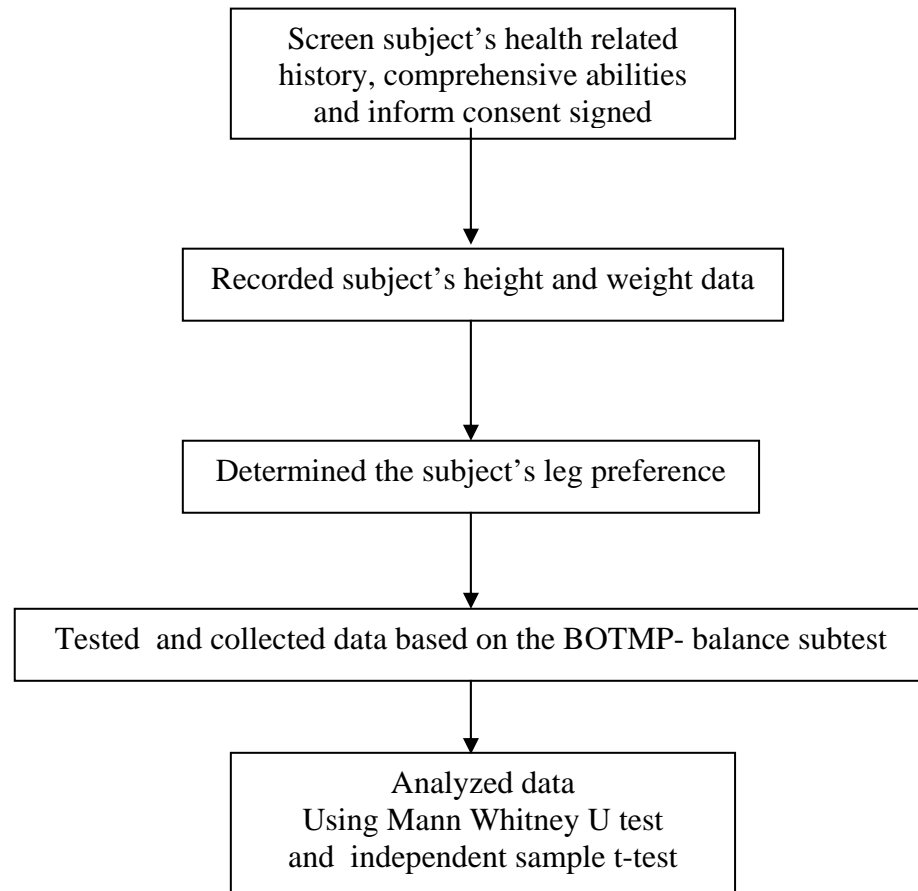


Figure 3.14 Protocol of the study

3.4 Data analysis

Statistical analysis was calculated. The level of significance was set up at p-value less than 0.05.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of fit test was used to determine the distribution of the characteristic data. Since the characteristic data in this study showed normal distribution, independent sample t-test was used to compare the difference of age, weight and height between two groups.

Mann Whitney U test was used to compare the point scores of each item and the total point scores of the BOTMP balance subtest between children with HFA and typical children.

Independent sample t-test was used to compare the elapsed time (in second) in standing on preferred leg on floor (item1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item2) and standing on balance beam with eyes close (item3) between children with HFA and typical children.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1 Characteristics of Subjects

This study compared standing and walking balance between children with HFA and typical children by using the balance subtest of the BOTMP. The participants consisted of 26 children (13 children with HFA and 13 typical children). All children aged between 9 to 13 years old. The characteristics of the subjects are showed in Table 4.1. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of fit test was used to determine the distribution of the characteristic data. All their characteristics data were normal distribution ($p > 0.05$) and independent sample t-test was used to compare the difference of age, weight and height between two groups. There were no significant differences in age, weight and height between children with HFA and typical children ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4.1 The characteristics of the subjects (n=26)

Demographic characteristics	Mean \pm Standard Deviation	
	Children with HFA (n = 13)	Typical children (n = 13)
Age (yr)	11.14 \pm 1.22	10.86 \pm 1.43
Weight (kg)	38.59 \pm 12.57	37.42 \pm 11.22
Height (cm)	142.58 \pm 12.44	143.96 \pm 11.47

4.2 Comparison of the point scores in item 1 to item 8 and total point scores based on the BOTMP balance subtest between children with HFA and typical children

Median, minimum, maximum, the 1st and 3rd quartiles of the point scores in standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2), standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item 3), walking forward on walking line (item 4), walking forward on balance beam (item 5), walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6), walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7) and stepping over response speed stick on balance beam (item 8) and total items of the balance subtest are presented in Table 4.2.

When comparing the median point scores in item 1 to item 8 between children with HFA and typical children, there were no differences in most items except item 3 (i.e. HFA group = 2 and typical group = 3). However, minimum and 1st quartiles of the point scores in many items (i.e. item 2, 4, 6, 7 and 8) in the group with HFA showed obvious lower than these point scores in the typical group. Moreover, 3rd quartiles and maximum of the point scores in item 3 in the group with HFA showed lower than it in the typical group.

According to Mann Whitney U test, there were statistically significant differences in the point scores between children with HFA and typical children in standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2), walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6), walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7) ($p < 0.05$). However, there was no statistically significant difference between children with HFA and typical children in the total item point scores ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4.2 Median, minimum (min), maximum (max) and the 1st, 3rd quartiles (Q₁, Q₃) of the point scores of standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2), standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item 3), walking forward on walking line (item 4), walking forward on balance beam (item 5), walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6), walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7), stepping over response speed stick on balance beam (item 8) and total items point scores based on the BOTMP balance subtest in the children with HFA (n=13) and the typical children (n=13)

Item	The point scores				P-value
	Children with HFA		Typical children		
	min-max	Median (Q ₁ ,Q ₃)	min-max	Median (Q ₁ ,Q ₃)	
1	4-4	4 (4,4)	4-4	4 (4,4)	1.00
2	3-6	6 (4,6)	6-6	6 (6,6)	0.034*
3	1-7	2 (2,4)	1-7	3(2,7)	0.691
4	2-3	3(3,3)	3-3	3(3,3)	0.317
5	4-4	4(4,4)	4-4	4(4,4)	1.00
6	1-3	3(2,3)	3-3	3(3,3)	0.015*
7	1-4	4(3,4)	4-4	4(4,4)	0.015*
8	0-1	1(0,1)	0-1	1(1,1)	0.405
Total	18-32	27(24,28)	25-32	28(27,32)	0.096

* p - value < 0.05

4.3 Comparison of the elapsed time to complete the tasks on item 1 to 3 of the BOTMP balance subtest between children with HFA and typical children

Maximum (max), minimum (min), mean and standard deviation (SD) of the elapsed time (in seconds) to complete the tasks in standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2) and standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item3) are shown in Table 4.3. The minimum elapsed time to complete the tasks in children with HFA were less than typical children in item 1 and 2 but more than in item 3. The maximum elapsed time to complete the tasks between two groups of children were slightly different. All typical children attained the maximum elapsed time to 10 seconds (maximum scores) in item 1 to 3. However, children with HFA did not attain the maximum elapsed time to 10 seconds (maximum scores) in item 3.

Children with HFA showed the mean elapsed time in item 1 slightly less than typical children (i.e. 9.98 seconds VS 10 seconds). All typical children attained the task for 10 seconds. Most children with HFA also attained the task for 10 seconds except one child with HFA who attained the task for 9.77 seconds. In item 2, the mean elapsed time in children with HFA was less than typical children. There were nine from thirteen children with HFA complete the task for 10 seconds whereas all typical children complete the task for 10 seconds. The mean elapsed time in item 3 in children with HFA was slightly less than in typical children. In regardless of conditions, most children could not complete the task for 10 seconds with single stance while closing eyes. Nevertheless, only four typical children could pass the task for 10 seconds.

Independent sample t-test was used to compare the elapsed time (in seconds) to complete the tasks in item 1 to 3 between children with HFA and typical children. The results showed that there was statistically significant difference of the tasks between children with HFA and typical children in item 2 ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.3 Minimum (min), maximum (max), mean and standard deviation (SD) of standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2) and standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item 3) between children with HFA and typical children based on the BOTMP balance subtest

Item	Elapsed time to complete the tasks (in seconds)				<i>p-value</i>
	Children with HFA		Typical children		
	min-max	Mean±SD	min-max	Mean±SD	
1	9.77-10	9.98±0.64	10-10	10.00±0	0.377
2	5.03-10	8.63±2.03	10-10	10.00±0	0.049*
3	3.4-9.81	6.15±2.33	2.14-10	6.40±2.88	0.712

* p - value < 0.05

The elapsed time mean of item 1 to 3 between children with HFA and typical children was shown as graph in figure 4.3.

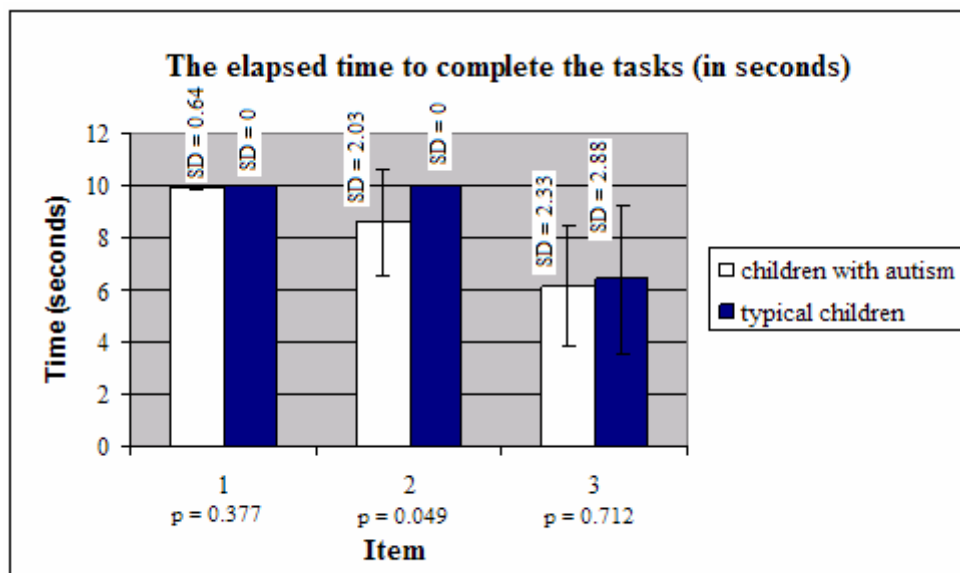


Figure 4.1 Comparison of the mean elapsed time (in seconds) to complete the tasks (on the BOTMP balance) of item 1 to 3 between children with HFA and typical children

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1 Characteristics of Subjects

Subjects in the present study consisted of two groups of children, children with HFA and typical children, aged between 9 to 13 years old. Children who had weight and height appropriating with age were included in this study, but some children are not. Generally, range of weight and height curve for Thai children by age (from Siriraj Hospital's growth chart) weight and height that above of 3rd percentiles and below of 97th percentiles are accepted in normal. Three children with HFA had weight and height nearly to the baseline of normal curve and one was out of this range, but they were included in this study due to the limited numbers of HFA. For controlling inter-subjects difference, each child with HFA was matched with each typical child by age, gender, weight and height. No significant difference in subject characteristic between two groups. It was indicated that age, weight and height do not contribute to the difference for all parameters in this study.

5.2 Balance in the children with HFA and the typical children

The purposed of this study was to compare standing and walking balance between children with HFA and typical children. Generally, standing with two legs on floor and eyes open is stable basic position in assessing standing balance. From the previous studies revealed that there were no significant differences between children with HFA and normal children (11). Children with HFA can perform as well as the control group did when measuring postural stability of standing quietly on force plate. For this study, the balance subtest of BOTMP assessed one leg standing balance in children with HFA. When raising one leg, the body's base of support (BOS) is smaller and the position of the center of gravity (COG) is displaced through the new BOS that is the other leg on floor. It is less stable and more difficult to control balance in

this condition than controlling postural balance while two legs standing that the COG is placed in between two feet.

However, in this study, there was no statistically significant difference between children with HFA and typical children in standing on preferred legs on floor (item 1). All children in this study regardless conditions achieved the ceiling point score (i.e. point score = 4). This showed that children with HFA could control their single legs standing balance as well as typical peers. In contrast, Noterdaeme and co-workers (12), found that children with HFA had less ability to stand quietly on one leg than the control group. It was possible that the period of time in their single stance task was too long (one minute) for children with HFA who often have a problem with paying attention and the test was also measured in both right and left. Attention deficit may affect balance ability in this study.

The second balance test was standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2). When standing on balance beam, the COG is tendency to sway more than standing on flat and firm floor in item 1. Moreover, the BOS is restricted in the narrow beam, so the body tries to keep the swaying COG within small BOS. Balance control in this position was harder. The result of this study showed that children with HFA had statistically significant less stability in standing on preferred leg on balance beam than typical children did. Additionally, both point scores and raw scores in children with HFA were statistically significantly less than typical children. It was revealed that children with HFA were difficult to control their standing balance with one leg on narrow and unstable area that somatosensory and visual input was more perturbed. Similar to the study of Minshew et al (11), they found that in the conditions when the somatosensory was disrupted alone or with the visual input limitation, children with non retarded autism swayed the body more than the control group did. It is consistent with the report that a lack of sensorimotor integration was fundamental in autism (86). Cerebellar dysfunction in children with autism would be a cause of dysfunction in somatosensory integration (87, 88). Moreover, according to the previous literature, children with autism had vestibular dysfunction (49, 89, 90). This also supports the balance deficit in standing on preferred leg on balance beam because the vestibular

system is dominant in controlling posture when the body slow sways like standing on balance beam (49). Children with autism may be unable to use reliable vestibular information to maintain balance.

For standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item 3), it was clear that many children could not keep their balance as well as they did in item 2. This was a decrease of elapsing time to complete this task. The integration of information from the vestibular, visual and somatosensory afferent systems is necessary for the maintaining an upright balance (16). A deficit in any one of these systems or integration of information from these systems could affect balance (16). Although occluded visual cues were affected balance control in children when compared with opened vision, there was no statistically significant difference between two groups of children in standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed. It was not according to Minshew et al's work (11) that children with HFA had less balance than control subjects when visual cue was closed. Interestingly, in this study, typical children could successfully maintain the balance with closed eyes only four of 13 for 10 seconds. Five of 13 typical children could not maintain the balance for more than five seconds. This balance task may be too difficult to attain for both children with HFA and typical children. It was possible that absence of visual distraction by closing their eyes in children with HFA while keeping balance may reduced the gap of difference in balance ability between children with HFA and typical children compared with item 2. However, the paradoxically better stability when occluded vision in children with autism (85) did not support our result because of the difference characteristic in subjects with autism. Kohen-Raz and colleagues (85) studied in children with low-functioning autism and these children have less postural dependence on visual motion. It was different from children with HFA that were seen to be posturally visual flexible and overactive to visual motion (91).

Walking balance was also assessed in this study, both preferred and heel-to toe walking on the line and balance beam. For walking forward on floor (item 4) and walking forward on walking line (item 5), there were no statistically significant differences between children with HFA and typical children. The results showed that

children with HFA control their balance while preferred walking on the narrow area as well as typical children did. Moreover, walking on line marker seems to be more possible impact on children with autism. These children probably use a cognitive-attentional strategy that may guide movement for them to improve their gait (6). It was possible that the results might be related to these cognitive-attentional strategy. Indeed, gait problems were found children with HFA. Some researchers found that a person with HFA showed significant increased stride length in their preferred gait and abnormal upper limbs movement in comparison with normal and Asperger' syndrome subjects (5, 6, 92). For this study, only walking balance was checked. Other gait variables were not detected.

Gait abnormalities have been reported in individuals with autism (5, 6, 92). A deficit on a tandem gait walking was found in persons with HFA (6, 92). Although the present study assessed in balance ability, children with HFA were demonstrated statistically significant less balance ability than typical children when walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6) and walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7). Walking with heel-to-toe was harder than normal stride walking on line and balance beam due to the BOS was reduced in both anteroposterior and laterally directions. Children's body had to adjust the COG within smaller stability limits while walking. However, many children with HFA had a deficiency to control their balance while doing these tasks or they could not complete tandem walk continuously for six steps. They showed the missing steps or the step that placed out of the line and the behind foot did not contact to the front foot. Likely, Rinehart 2006 (6) found that there was a strong trend for individuals with HFA to have a greater percentage of missteps than normal control group and suggested that the deficit on a tandem walking was similar to those reported for patients with cerebellar ataxia. Moreover, the study of Stolze et al (93) showed increase of the number of missteps, increase step width and higher ataxia ratio (i.e. the pathway of the foot during tandem walking was very variable) when patients with cerebellar disease tandem walk. It is possible that balance deficit in children with HFA in this study may be related with cerebellar dysfunction. The cerebellum is a site for the integration of sensory input (94) and there is a growing body of evidence that the sensory guidance of movement is dependent of sensory input

to the cerebellum (95). Anatomic abnormalities in cerebellum have been described in neuroimaging studies of children with autism (87, 88) which would be consistent with the findings of dysfunction in the integration of sensory input. Additionally, many regions of brain have been proposed to be involved in the pathophysiology of autism. Histopathologic studies have revealed abnormalities of the cerebellum, raising the possibility of motor dysfunction as the cause of postural instability in autism (96). In addition to brain dysfunction, attentional demand was more used in tandem walking. Children with HFA were prone to do these tasks difficulty because of their attention deficit.

The last balance item was stepping over the response speed stick on balance beam (item 8). There was no statistically significant different between children with HFA and typical children. No previous study reported the data of stepping over the response speed stick on balance beam task in either typical children or children with autism. However, the stepping task was reported that the maturation of coordination between posture and movement may not fully complete in children with 8- to 12-year-olds (97). The ability to maintain an equilibrium while stepping or performing various unilateral lower-extremity movements in a standing position is essential for many functional activities (98). Therefore, stepping over the response speed stick should be assessed in children with autism who are older than the subjects in this study.

Even if the total point score of item 1 through 8 was not statistically significant different between children with HFA and typical children, the median total scores were different. Children with HFA had fewer scores than typical children. It probably implies that children with HFA had a deficit in standing and walking balance. Especially some item (i.e. standing on preferred leg on floor on balance beam (item 2), walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6) and walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7), can differentiate the balance deficits in children with HFA in comparison with typical children. In addition, the deficits in any one of the sensory systems or integration of information from these systems that impact on balance deficits in children with HFA. It is possible that both a delay in development and

underdevelopment of the postural control system in autism affect the balance ability in their daily activities (11).

5.3 Limitation of the studies

The criteria of this study that children with HFA could study full time in integrated classes with typical children probably acquired many of high-ability children with HFA. These children with HFA were likely controlling their balance as well as typical children did and may affect the indifference of total balance scores

5.4 Clinical implication and further studies

The results of this study probably define that functional balance deficit is one feature of children with HFA, occurring with the triad symptoms. Because the ability to maintain balance while standing and walking is essential for many functional activities, children with HFA should be carefully screened for the presence of functional balance deficit, in order for them have the benefit of appropriate therapeutic intervention. It is interesting for pediatric physical therapist to have a role in training functional balance in children with HFA due to better functional balance ability will support the social integration of the child in his peer groups (e.g. playing with other peers, sport game)

Functional balance especially standing and walking balance abilities in children with HFA should be investigated in more cover of variable activities such as walking on different supporting surfaces or obstacle courses in the further study.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Standing and walking balance were compared between children with HFA and typical children who age between 9-13 years. Two groups were similar in aged, gender, weight and height to minimize inter-subject difference.

The balance subtest of the BOTMP was used to assess standing and walking balance in two groups of children. It consists of 8 items; 3 items for standing balance and 5 items for walking balance.

Although the total scores of the balance subtest of BOTMP was not statistically significantly different between children with HFA and typical children ($p < 0.05$), children with HFA demonstrated statistically significant lower point scores in the tasks of standing on preferred leg on floor on balance beam (item 2), walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6) and walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7) ($p < 0.05$) than typical children did. It probably implies that children with HFA are difficult to control their balance in narrow and sway supporting surface and do tandem walking. More sample size of children with HFA may improve the difference of the total point scores between two groups.

Maintaining the balance while standing and walking is essential for many functional activities and has a considerable impact on the social integration of the child with his peer groups (e.g. playing with other peers, sport game). Pediatric physical therapists should be carefully screened for the presence of functional balance deficit in order for the children with autism to have the benefits of appropriate therapeutic intervention. Functional balance in variable activities such as walking on difference supporting surface or obstacle course is suggested in the further study.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (IN THAI)

เอกสารชี้แจงผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัย (Participant information sheet)

ในเอกสารนี้ อาจมีข้อความที่ท่านอ่านแล้วยังไม่เข้าใจ โปรดสอบถามผู้วิจัยหลัก หรือผู้แทนให้ช่วยอธิบายจนกว่าจะเข้าใจดี ท่านอาจจะขอเอกสารนี้กลับไปอ่านที่บ้านเพื่อปรึกษารีหรือกับญาติพี่น้อง เพื่อนสนิท แพทย์ประจำตัวของเด็กของท่าน หรือแพทย์ท่านอื่น เพื่อช่วยในการตัดสินใจเข้าร่วมการวิจัย

ชื่อโครงการ เรื่อง “การเปรียบเทียบสมรรถภาพการทรงท่ายืนและเดินระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป”

ชื่อผู้วิจัย นางสาวปิยธิดา นาคสกุล

สถานที่วิจัย คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์อาคารสำนักงานมหาวิทยาลัย มหิดล (เดิม) ชั้น4 เชียงสะพานสมเด็จพระปิ่นเกล้า
โทรศัพท์ 0-2433-7099

ผู้ให้ทุน ไม่มี

โครงการวิจัยนี้ ทำขึ้นเพื่อประเมินความสามารถในการรักษาสมดุลการทรงท่าขณะยืนและเดินในสถานะต่าง ๆ ของเด็กออทิสติก เปรียบเทียบกับเด็กสุขภาพดี ซึ่งประโยชน์ที่คาดว่าจะได้รับคือ ทราบถึงระดับความสามารถในการรักษาสมดุลการทรงท่าขณะยืนและเดินในสถานะต่าง ๆ ของเด็กออทิสติกและสามารถนำข้อมูลที่ได้จากการวิจัยครั้งนี้ เป็นข้อมูลในการช่วยเหลือ รวมถึงให้การรักษาเด็กออทิสติกอย่างเหมาะสม

เด็กของท่าน ได้รับเชิญให้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยนี้ เพราะเด็กของท่าน เป็นผู้ที่มีคุณสมบัติครบถ้วนตามเกณฑ์ ที่ผู้วิจัยกำหนดคือ เป็นเด็กสุขภาพดี หรือ เด็กที่ได้รับการวินิจฉัยว่าเป็นออทิสติกที่มีศักยภาพสูง (high-functioning autism)

โครงการวิจัยนี้จะมีผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยทั้งสิ้น 40 คน ระยะเวลาที่ใช้ในการวิจัยประมาณ 1 ปี

เมื่อเด็กของท่านเข้าร่วมการวิจัยแล้ว สิ่งที่คุณจะต้องปฏิบัติตามขั้นตอนการดำเนินการวิจัย ดังต่อไปนี้

1. ขั้นตอนการเตรียมการ

ผู้วิจัยจะสัมภาษณ์ท่านและเด็กของท่าน เกี่ยวกับข้อมูลด้านสุขภาพของเด็กของท่าน จากนั้น จะทำการวัดส่วนสูงและชั่งน้ำหนักเด็กก่อนทำการทดสอบสมดุลการทรงท่าขณะยืนและเดิน

ผู้วิจัยจะอธิบายและทำความเข้าใจกับเด็กถึงขั้นตอนการทดสอบ เด็กของท่านจะได้รับการทดสอบขาข้างที่ถนัดก่อนการทดสอบสมดุลการทรงท่าขณะยืนและเดิน โดยจะให้เด็กของท่านเตะลูกเทนนิสมายังผู้วิจัย 2 ครั้ง และบันทึกขาข้างที่เด็กใช้เตะทั้งสองครั้งลงในแบบบันทึกของเด็ก

2. ขั้นตอนการเก็บข้อมูล

การทดสอบสมดุลการทรงท่า

การทดสอบสมดุลการทรงท่า จะกระทำขณะเด็กของท่านยืนอยู่นิ่งและขณะเดิน ในแต่ละท่าของการทดสอบ ผู้วิจัยจะอธิบายพร้อมทั้งสาธิตวิธีการทดสอบ และผู้วิจัยอาจช่วยจัดทำเริ่มต้นก่อนการทดสอบจริง โดยอนุญาตให้เด็กได้ฝึกซ้อมก่อนการทดสอบจริง 1 ครั้ง

ท่าที่ 1 ยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนพื้น

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนเส้นตรง โดยขาข้างที่ยกขึ้นต้องขนานกับพื้น มือเท้าเอว ตามองตรงไปยังแผ่นป้ายบนผนังที่ระดับสายตา และให้เด็กพยายามรักษาท่าทางนี้ไว้ให้นานเกิน 10 วินาที

ท่าที่ 2 ยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนคานไม้

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนคานไม้ และทดสอบเช่นเดียวกับท่าที่ 1

ท่าที่ 3 ยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบน คานไม้และหลังคา

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนคานไม้, หลังคาและทำการทดสอบเหมือนกับท่าที่ 1

ท่าที่ 4 เดินบนเส้น

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านเดินก้าวขาตามปกติจากขอบของเส้นด้านหนึ่ง ไปยังอีกด้านหนึ่ง

ท่าที่ 5 เดินบนคานไม้

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านเดินก้าวขาตามปกติจากขอบด้านหนึ่งของคาน ไม้ไปยังอีกด้านหนึ่ง

ท่าที่ 6 เดินแบบต่อส้นเท้าบนเส้น

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านเดินแบบต่อส้นเท้า โดยที่นิ้วโป้งของเท้าหลัง สัมผัสกับส้นเท้าหน้าจากขอบด้านหนึ่งของเส้น ไปยังอีกด้านหนึ่ง

ท่าที่ 7 เดินแบบต่อส้นเท้าบนคานไม้

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านเดินแบบต่อส้นเท้า โดยที่นิ้วโป้งของเท้าหลัง สัมผัสกับส้นเท้าหน้าจากขอบด้านหนึ่งของคานไม้ ไปยังอีกด้านหนึ่ง

ท่าที่ 8 เดินก้าวข้ามไม้ขวางบนคานไม้

ผู้วิจัยบอกให้เด็กของท่านเดินก้าวขาตามปกติจากขอบด้านหนึ่งของคาน ไม้ไปยังอีกด้านหนึ่ง เช่นเดียวกับท่าที่ 5 โดยเด็กของท่านต้องเดินก้าวข้ามไม้ขวาง ที่ผู้วิจัยถือไว้บริเวณกึ่งกลางของคานไม้ (ให้อยู่ในระดับเข่าของเด็ก)

การวิจัยครั้งนี้ แทบจะไม่มีความเสี่ยงหรืออันตรายใด ๆ กับเด็กของท่าน เนื่องจากทุกการ ทดสอบจะมีผู้วิจัยอีกท่าน เดินตามหรืออยู่ด้านหลังตัวเด็กตลอดเวลา และคอยระวังไม่ให้เด็กลื่น สะดุดหรือหกล้ม

หากท่านหรือเด็กของท่านเกิดความไม่สบายกายหรือลำบากใจจากการวิจัยครั้งนี้ ทางคณะ ผู้วิจัยจะยุติการวิจัยโดยทันที หรือหากท่านหรือเด็กของท่านมีข้อสงสัย ที่เกี่ยวกับการวิจัยสามารถ ติดต่อสอบถามได้ที่ นางสาวปิยธิดา นาคสกุล คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหว ประยุกต์ อาคารสำนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล (เดิม) เชียงสะพานพระปิ่นเกล้า เลขที่ 198/2 ถ.สมเด็จพระ ปิ่นเกล้า แขวงบางยี่ขัน เขตบางพลัด กรุงเทพฯ 10700 เบอร์โทรศัพท์ 081-424-5339 ได้ตลอดเวลา

การวิจัยนี้ไม่มีค่าตอบแทนที่จะได้รับ และไม่มีค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ ที่ท่านหรือเด็กของท่านจะต้อง รับผิดชอบ

หากมีข้อมูลเพิ่มเติม ทั้งด้านประโยชน์และโทษ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการวิจัยนี้ ผู้วิจัยจะแจ้งให้ ทราบโดยรวดเร็ว ไม่ปิดบัง

ข้อมูลส่วนตัวของเด็กของท่านจะถูกเก็บรักษาไว้ ไม่เปิดเผยต่อสาธารณะเป็นรายบุคคล แต่จะรายงานผลการวิจัยเป็นข้อมูลส่วนรวม ข้อมูลของเด็กของท่านที่เป็นรายบุคคลอาจมีคณะบุคคลบางกลุ่มเข้ามาตรวจสอบได้ เช่น ผู้ให้ทุนวิจัย, สถาบันหรือองค์กรของรัฐที่มีหน้าที่ตรวจสอบ, คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมฯ เป็นต้น

เด็กของท่านมีสิทธิถอนตัวออกจากโครงการการวิจัยเมื่อใดก็ได้ โดยไม่ต้องแจ้งให้ทราบล่วงหน้า และการไม่เข้าร่วมการวิจัยหรือถอนตัวออกจากโครงการวิจัยนี้จะไม่มีผลกระทบต่อการวิจัยครั้งนี้แต่ประการใด

**ข้าพเจ้าได้อ่านรายละเอียดในเอกสารนี้ครบถ้วนแล้ว และยินยอมบุตร/หลานหรือเด็กซึ่งอยู่
ในความดูแลของข้าพเจ้าเข้าร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัยครั้งนี้ด้วยความสมัครใจ**

ลงชื่อ...../วันที่.....
(.....)

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (IN THAI)

แบบฟอร์มใบยินยอมโดยได้รับการบอกกล่าว (Informed Consent Form)

การวิจัยเรื่อง การเปรียบเทียบสมรรถภาพการทรงท่ายืนและเดินระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป
ข้าพเจ้า นาย/นาง/นางสาว.....
เป็น.....ของเด็กชาย/เด็กหญิง (รหัสเด็ก).....
วันให้คำยินยอม วันที่ เดือน พ.ศ.

ก่อนที่จะลงนามในใบยินยอมให้ทำการวิจัยนี้ ข้าพเจ้าได้รับการอธิบาย จากผู้วิจัยถึงวัตถุประสงค์ของการวิจัย วิธีการวิจัย ตลอดจนอันตรายหรืออาการที่อาจเกิดขึ้นจากการวิจัย รวมทั้งประโยชน์ที่จะเกิดขึ้นจากการวิจัยอย่างละเอียด และมีความเข้าใจดีแล้ว

ผู้วิจัยรับรองว่า จะตอบคำถามต่างๆ ข้าพเจ้าหรือเด็กของข้าพเจ้าสงสัย ด้วยความเต็มใจไม่ปิดบัง ซ่อนเร้น จนข้าพเจ้าพอใจ

ข้าพเจ้าและเด็กของข้าพเจ้ามีสิทธิที่จะบอกเลิกการเข้าร่วมโครงการวิจัยนี้เมื่อใดก็ได้ และเข้าร่วมโครงการวิจัยนี้ โดยสมัครใจ และการบอกเลิกการเข้าร่วมการวิจัยนี้ จะไม่มีผลต่อบริการใด ๆ ที่เด็กของข้าพเจ้าจะพึงได้รับ ต่อไป

ผู้วิจัยรับรองว่าจะเก็บข้อมูลเฉพาะที่เกี่ยวกับเด็กของข้าพเจ้าเป็นความลับ และจะเปิดเผยได้เฉพาะ การสรุปผลการวิจัย การเปิดเผยข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับตัวข้าพเจ้าหรือเด็กของข้าพเจ้าต่อหน่วยงานต่าง ๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้อง กระทำ ได้เฉพาะกรณีจำเป็นด้วยเหตุผลทางวิชาการเท่านั้น

ผู้วิจัยรับรองว่าหากเกิดอันตรายใด ๆ จากการวิจัยดังกล่าว เด็กของข้าพเจ้าจะได้รับการรักษาพยาบาล โดยไม่คิดมูลค่าตามมาตรฐานวิชาชีพ และจะได้รับการชดเชยรายได้ที่สูญเสียไประหว่างการรักษาพยาบาล ดังกล่าว ตลอดจนเงินทดแทนความพิการที่อาจเกิดขึ้น

ผู้วิจัยรับรองว่า หากมีข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อการศึกษา ข้าพเจ้าจะได้รับการแจ้งให้ทราบโดย ไม่ปิดบังซ่อนเร้น

ข้าพเจ้าได้อ่านข้อความข้างต้นแล้ว และมีความเข้าใจดีทุกประการ และได้ลงนามในใบยินยอมนี้ด้วย ความเต็มใจ

ลงนาม ผู้ยินยอม

ลงนาม พยาน

ลงนาม พยาน

ในกรณีที่ผู้ยินยอมตนให้ทำการวิจัยไม่สามารถอ่านหนังสือได้ จะต้องได้รับการยินยอมในขณะ ที่ยังมีสติสัมปชัญญะ และระบุข้อความไว้ตามนี้ ข้าพเจ้าไม่สามารถอ่านหนังสือได้ แต่ผู้วิจัยได้อ่าน ข้อความในใบยินยอมนี้ให้แก่ข้าพเจ้าฟังจนเข้าใจดีแล้ว ข้าพเจ้าจึงลงนาม หรือประทับลายนิ้วแม่มือขวา ของข้าพเจ้าในใบยินยอมนี้ด้วยความเต็มใจ

ลงนาม ผู้ยินยอม

ลงนาม พยาน

ลงนาม พยาน

APPENDIX C

INFORMED ASSENT FORM (IN THAI)

แบบฟอร์มใบยินยอมโดยได้รับการบอกกล่าว (Informed Assent Form)

การวิจัยเรื่อง การเปรียบเทียบสมรรถภาพการทรงท่ายืนและเดินระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป
วันให้คำยินยอม วันที่..... เดือน พ.ศ.

ข้าพเจ้า เด็กชาย/เด็กหญิง (รหัสเด็ก)..... ได้รับเชิญให้
เข้าร่วมในการทดสอบนี้ ก่อนที่จะตัดสินใจลงชื่อเข้าร่วมการทดสอบ ข้าพเจ้าได้ฟังคำอธิบายวิธีการ
และประโยชน์ของการทดสอบจากผู้วิจัยแล้ว โดยผู้วิจัยที่จะเป็นผู้ทำการทดสอบข้าพเจ้าในครั้งนี้คือ
นางสาวปิยธิดา นาคสกุล ซึ่งเป็นนักกายภาพบำบัด จะทดสอบความสามารถในการทรงตัวขณะยืน
ขาเดียวและขณะเดินทั้งบนพื้นและบนสะพานไม้

ก่อนการทดสอบจริง ผู้วิจัยจะวัดส่วนสูงและชั่งน้ำหนักของเด็ก จากนั้นจะให้เด็กเตะลูกบอล
มาที่ผู้วิจัย 2 ครั้งและผู้วิจัยจะบอกเด็กว่า ให้ใช้ขาข้างไหนตอนทดสอบยืนขาเดียว

ต่อมาจะเป็นการทดสอบจริง มีทั้งหมด 8 ท่า คือ

ท่าที่ 1 ยืนขาเดียวบนพื้น ให้นานเกิน 10 วินาที

ท่าที่ 2 ยืนขาเดียวบนสะพานไม้ ให้นานเกิน 10 วินาที

ท่าที่ 3 ยืนขาเดียวบนสะพานไม้และหลังตา ให้นานเกิน 10 วินาที

ท่าที่ 4 เดินบนพื้นตามเส้นที่ผู้วิจัยลากไว้

ท่าที่ 5 เดินบนสะพานไม้

ท่าที่ 6 เดินแบบเท้าต่อเท้าเป็นเส้นตรง บนพื้นตามเส้นที่ผู้วิจัยลากไว้

ท่าที่ 7 เดินบนสะพานไม้แบบเท้าต่อเท้าเป็นเส้นตรง ให้เร็วที่สุดเท่าที่ทำได้

ท่าที่ 8 เดินข้ามไม้ขวางบนสะพานไม้ ให้เร็วที่สุดเท่าที่ทำได้

ระหว่างการทดสอบ หากข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกไม่สบายกาย ไม่สบายใจ เครียดหรือไม่อยากทดสอบ
ต่อ ข้าพเจ้าสามารถบอกแก่ผู้วิจัยและผู้ปกครอง เพื่อพักหรือหยุดการทดสอบได้ตลอดเวลา

ข้าพเจ้าได้อ่านข้อความข้างต้นแล้ว และเข้าใจดีทุกอย่าง และลงชื่อในใบยินยอมนี้ด้วยความ
เต็มใจ

ลงชื่อ...../วันที่.....

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW FORM (IN THAI)

แบบสัมภาษณ์ข้อมูลของผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัย

☐ เด็กสุขภาพดี

☐ เด็กออทิสติก

รหัสเด็ก..... ชั้น.....

ประวัติความเจ็บป่วย

1. เคยมีประวัติเกี่ยวกับปัญหาการทรงตัวขณะเดินหรือยืนหรือไม่
☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี โปรดระบุ.....
2. เคยมีประวัติเกี่ยวกับปัญหาทางระบบกระดูกและกล้ามเนื้อหรือไม่
☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี โปรดระบุ.....
3. เคยมีประวัติเกี่ยวกับปัญหาทางการได้ยินหรือไม่
☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี โปรดระบุ.....
4. เคยมีประวัติเกี่ยวกับปัญหาทางการมองเห็นหรือไม่
☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี โปรดระบุ.....
5. มีโรคประจำตัวอื่น ๆ หรือไม่
☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี โปรดระบุ.....
6. มียาที่รับประทานประจำหรือไม่
☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี โปรดระบุ.....

APPENDIX E

DATA COLLECTION FORM (IN THAI)

แบบบันทึกข้อมูลผลการทดสอบ

☐ เด็กสุขภาพดี

☐ เด็กออทิสติก

รหัสเด็ก..... ชั้น.....

น้ำหนัก.....กิโลกรัม ส่วนสูง.....เซนติเมตร

เพศ ☐ ชาย ☐ หญิง

วัน/เดือน/ปี ที่ทดสอบ / /

วัน/เดือน/ปี เกิด / /

อายุ / /

การทดสอบความถนัดของขา

ครั้งที่ 1 ใช้ขาข้าง ☐ ซ้าย ☐ ขวา

ครั้งที่ 2 ใช้ขาข้าง ☐ ซ้าย ☐ ขวา

สรุป 1. ขาข้างที่เด็กถนัด ☐ ซ้าย ☐ ขวา

หรือ

2. ระบุไม่ได้ เด็กเลือกใช้ขาข้าง ☐ ซ้าย ☐ ขวา

รหัส.....

ขาที่ใช้ทดสอบ ☐ ซ้าย ☐ ขวา**BALANCE SUBTEST OF THE BOTMP FORM****1. ยืนบนขาข้างถนัดบนพื้น**

ครั้งที่ 1 ใช้เวลา.....วินาที ครั้งที่ 2 ใช้เวลา.....วินาที

Raw score	0	1-3	4-5	6-8	9-10
Point score	0	1	2	3	4

หมายเหตุ..... คะแนน

2. ยืนบนขาข้างถนัดบน balance beam

ครั้งที่ 1 ใช้เวลา.....วินาที ครั้งที่ 2 ใช้เวลา.....วินาที

Raw score	0	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9	10
Point score	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

หมายเหตุ..... คะแนน

3. ยืนบนขาข้างถนัดบน balance beam-หลังตา

ครั้งที่ 1 ใช้เวลา.....วินาที ครั้งที่ 2 ใช้เวลา.....วินาที

Raw score	0	1-3	4-5	6	7	8	9	10
Point score	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

หมายเหตุ..... คะแนน

4. เดินบน walking line

ครั้งที่ 1 เดินได้.....ก้าว ครั้งที่ 2 เดินได้.....ก้าว

Raw score	0	1-3	4-5	6
Point score	0	1	2	3

หมายเหตุ..... . คะแนน

5. เดินบน balance beam

ครั้งที่ 1 เดินได้.....ก้าว

ครั้งที่ 2 เดินได้.....ก้าว

Raw score	0	1-3	4	5	6
Point score	0	1	2	3	4

หมายเหตุ..... คะแนน

6. เดินต่อส้นเท้าบน walking line

ครั้งที่

--	--	--	--	--	--

 ที่ 1 =.....ก้าวครั้งที่

--	--	--	--	--	--

 ที่ 2 =.....ก้าว

Raw score	0	1-3	4-5	6
Point score	0	1	2	3

หมายเหตุ..... คะแนน

7. เดินต่อส้นเท้าบน balance beam

ครั้งที่

--	--	--	--	--	--

 ที่ 1 =.....ก้าวครั้งที่

--	--	--	--	--	--

 ที่ 2 =.....ก้าว

Raw score	0	1-3	4	5	6
Point score	0	1	2	3	4

หมายเหตุ..... คะแนน

8. ก้าวข้าม response speed stick บน balance beam

ครั้งที่ 1 ☐ ผ่าน ☐ ไม่ผ่านครั้งที่ 2 ☐ ผ่าน ☐ ไม่ผ่าน

Raw score	ผ่าน	ไม่ผ่าน
Point score	1	0

หมายเหตุ..... คะแนน

คะแนนรวม (เต็ม 32 คะแนน)

APPENDIX F

STANDARDIZED INSTRUCTIONS

คำสั่งมาตรฐานของ Balance subtest of Brunink-Oseretsky Test of Motor Proficiency

คำสั่งของการทดสอบขาข้างที่ถนัด

เตะลูกเทนนิสมาที่พี่

ใช้เมื่อ : ทำการทดสอบขาข้างที่ถนัด (ทดสอบ 2 ครั้ง) ก่อนที่จะทดสอบการทรงตัวทั้งหมด

ผู้ทดสอบให้คำชี้แจงมาตรฐานในครั้งแรกดังนี้

การทดสอบทั้งหมดนี้จะเป็นการทดสอบว่า น้องมีความสามารถในการทรงตัวบนพื้นและบนสะพานไม้ทั้ง 8 ท่า ตามที่พี่บอกได้หรือไม่

ใช้เมื่อ : ก่อนการทดสอบและการสาธิตทั้งหมด

คำสั่งเฉพาะของการทดสอบการทรงตัว

ท่าที่ 1 ยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนพื้น

วางเท้าขวา/ซ้าย บนเส้น ยกขาขวา/ซ้ายขึ้น มือเท้าเอว ตามองไปที่ป้าย เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้ยืนค้างอยู่ในท่านี้นี้ไว้ จนกว่าจะบอกให้หยุด

ท่าที่ 2 ยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนสะพานไม้

วางเท้าขวา/ซ้าย บนสะพานไม้ ยกขาขวา/ซ้ายขึ้น มือเท้าเอว ตามองไปที่ป้าย เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้ยืนค้างอยู่ในท่านี้นี้ไว้ จนกว่าจะบอกให้หยุด

ท่าที่ 3 ยืนบนขาข้างที่ถนัดบนสะพานไม้-หลังตา

วางเท้าขวา/ซ้าย บนสะพานไม้ ยกขาขวา/ซ้ายขึ้น มือเท้าเอว ตามองไปที่ป้ายก่อน เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้หลังตาแล้วยืนค้างอยู่ในท่านี้นี้ไว้ จนกว่าจะบอกให้หยุด

ท่าที่ 4 เดินบนเส้น

วางเท้าบนเส้น เท้าหนึ่งอยู่หน้าเท้าอีกข้างหนึ่ง มือเท้าเอว เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้เดินช้า ๆ ไปบนเส้น จนถึงอีกด้านหนึ่งของเส้น

ท่าที่ 5 เดินบนสะพานไม้

วางเท้าบนสะพานไม้ เท้าหนึ่งอยู่หน้าเท้าอีกข้างหนึ่ง มือเท้าเอว เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้เดินช้า ๆ ไปบนสะพานไม้ จนถึงอีกฝั่งหนึ่งของสะพานไม้

ท่าที่ 6 เดินบนเส้นแบบเท้าต่อเท้า

วางเท้าบนเส้น เท้าหนึ่งอยู่หน้าเท้าอีกข้างหนึ่ง มือเท้าเอว เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้เดินไปบนเส้น เวลาเดินให้ยกส้นของเท้านำมาต่อกับนิ้วเท้าของเท้าหลัง ค่อย ๆ เดินไปจนถึงอีกด้านหนึ่งของเส้น และต้องเดินให้เท้าต่อกันแบบนี้ทุกก้าว

ท่าที่ 7 เดินบนสะพานไม้แบบเท้าต่อเท้า

วางเท้าบนสะพานไม้ เท้าหนึ่งอยู่หน้าเท้าอีกข้างหนึ่ง มือเท้าเอว เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้เดินไปบนสะพาน เวลาเดินให้ยกส้นของเท้านำมาต่อกับนิ้วเท้าของเท้าหลัง ค่อย ๆ เดินไปจนถึงอีกด้านหนึ่งของสะพาน และต้องเดินให้เท้าต่อกันแบบนี้ทุกก้าวและมือเท้าเอวตลอดนะ

ท่าที่ 8 เดินก้าวข้ามไม้ขวางบนคานไม้

วางเท้าบนสะพานไม้ เท้าหนึ่งอยู่หน้าเท้าอีกข้างหนึ่ง มือเท้าเอว เมื่อได้ยินคำว่า “พร้อม.....เริ่ม” ให้เดินช้า ๆ แล้วก้าวข้ามไม้ขวาง ห้ามโดนไม้ หรือแกว่งขาข้าม มือเท้าเอวตลอดและเดินมาให้ถึงอีกฝั่งหนึ่งของสะพาน

ใช้เมื่อ : การทดสอบครั้งที่ 1 ผู้ถูกทดสอบฝึกซ้อมโดยผู้ทดสอบให้คำสั่ง สาธิตและแนะนำตลอดการทดสอบ

การทดสอบครั้งที่ 2 ผู้ถูกทดสอบทำการทดสอบจริง โดยผู้ทดสอบให้คำสั่งและแนะนำเฉพาะสิ่งที่ทำไม่ถูกต้องในท่านั้น ๆ ได้ 1 ครั้ง

การทดสอบครั้งที่ 3 เกิดขึ้นเฉพาะเมื่อผู้ถูกทดสอบทำการทดสอบครั้งที่ 2 หรือการทดสอบจริงไม่ผ่าน ได้แก่ ทำไม่ครบตามที่เวลาหรือท่าที่กำหนด หรือไม่ทำตามคำสั่งอย่างใดอย่างหนึ่ง ในคำสั่งนั้น ๆ เช่น ไม่เท้าเอว เท้าไม่อยู่บนเส้นตามคำสั่ง

APPENDIX G

COMPREHENSIVE TEST

แบบทดสอบความเข้าใจคำสั่งก่อนการทดสอบการทรงท่า

วัตถุประสงค์ของการทดสอบ

เพื่อใช้คัดกรองปัญหาด้านความเข้าใจของเด็กออทิสติก ว่าไม่มีผลกระทบต่อการรับฟังและเข้าใจคำสั่งในการทดสอบการทรงท่า

แบบทดสอบความเข้าใจ

ในการทดสอบแต่ละท่าต้องมีการอธิบายและสาธิต 1 ครั้งก่อนการทดสอบ

ท่าที่ 1 มือต่อมือ

วางมือขวามือขวามือ โตะ ยกมือซ้ายขึ้น วางต่อกับมือขวา โดยส้นมือซ้าย ต่อกับปลายนิ้วมือของมือขวา ทำแบบนี้ 6 ครั้งต่อกัน

ท่าที่ 2 เคลื่อนนิ้วบนโตะข้ามปากกา ขณะทำตัว

มือข้างหนึ่งทำตัว มืออีกข้างใช้นิ้วชี้และนิ้วกลาง ยกสลับไปมาเหมือนเดินบนพื้นกระดาษ ที่วางบนโตะ ตามเส้นที่กำหนดให้ แล้วก้าวข้ามปากกาที่วางขวางไว้ โดยไม่ให้นิ้วแตะโดนปากกา

APPENDIX H

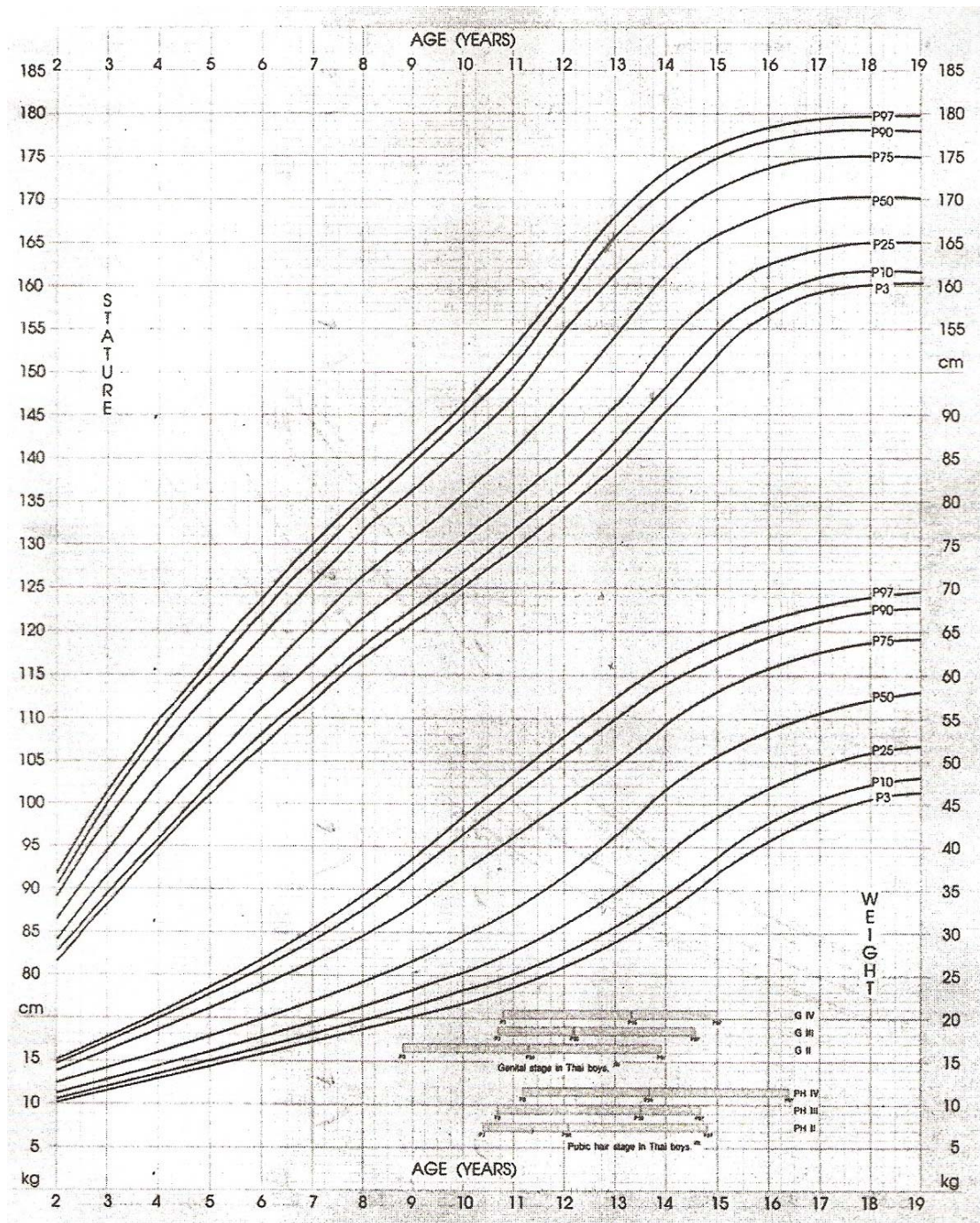


Figure H.1 Curve of weight and height for Thai boys by age (from Siriraj Hospital's growth chart)

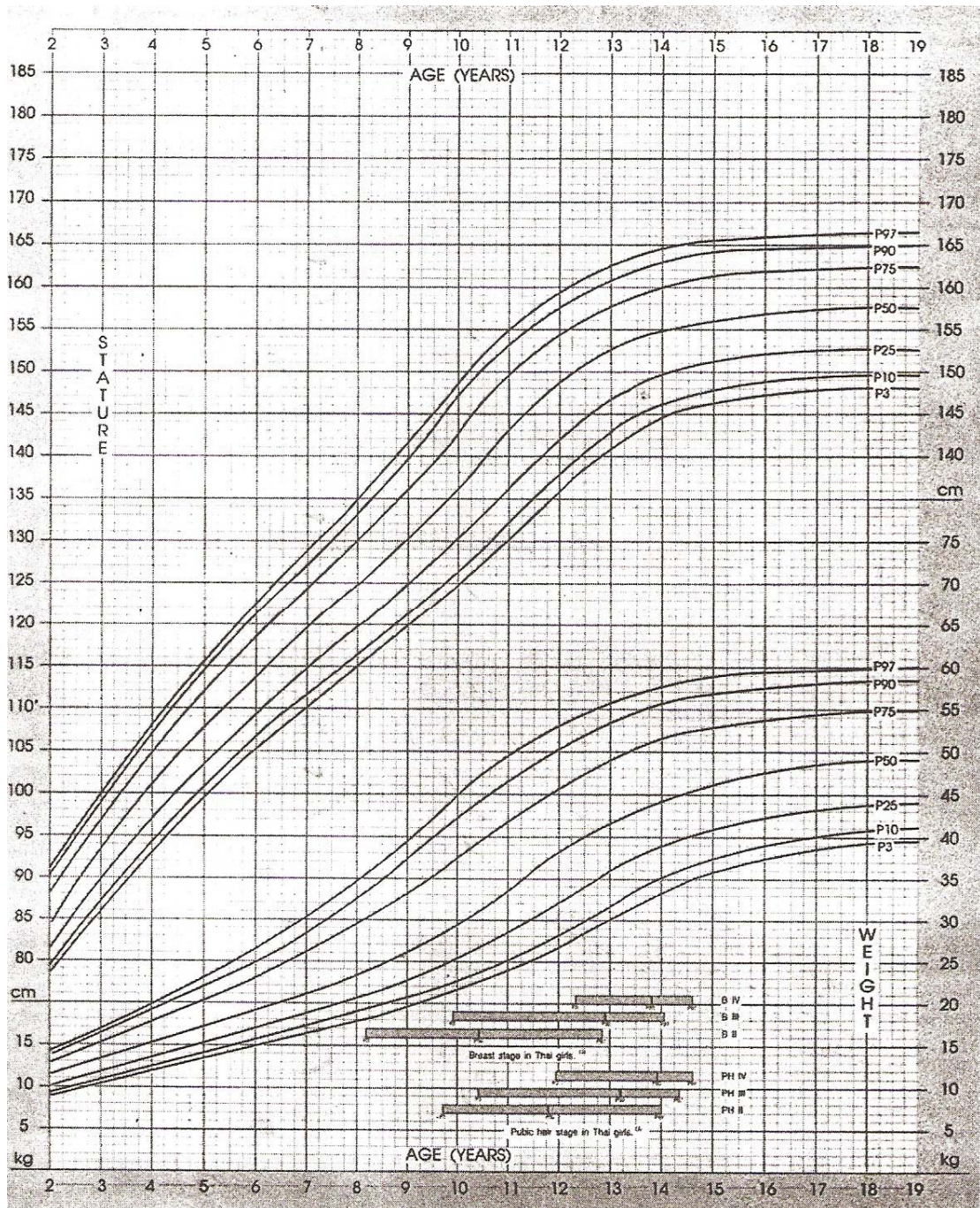


Figure H.2 Curve of weight and height for Thai girls by age (from Siriraj Hospital's growth chart)

APPENDIX I

RESULTS OF PILOT STUDY

The purpose of this study was to compare standing and walking balance ability between children with autism and typical children. All subjects were boys aged ranges from 7 to 11 years and recruited from Yuwaprasart Wittayopatum Hospital, Samutprakarn. The characteristics of the subjects are shown in Table I1.

Both groups were tested the standing and walking balance based on the balance subtest of the BOTMP. Eight items of balance test consist of standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2), standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item 3), walking forward on walking line (item 4) , walking forward on balance beam (item 5), walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line (item 6), walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam (item 7) and stepping over response speed stick on balance beam (item 8), respectively. The order of testing follow the instruction of the BOTMP manual from item 1 to item 8.

Table I1 Characteristics of the children with autism (n=5) and typical children (n=5)

Subject No.	Children with autism			Typical children		
	Age (yr)	Weight (kg)	Height (cm)	Age (yr)	Weight (kg)	Height (cm)
1	7.4	32.2	115	10.2	27	130
2	10.6	25	128	11.3	40	134
3	9.4	28	131	8.5	23	129
4	10.5	35.4	139	10.3	22	126
5	10.2	45	135	10.2	21	123
Mean	10.1	33.3	129.6	9.7	26.6	128.4
SD	0.9	6.9	8.2	1.2	7.0	3.7

The results showed that there were significant different between children with autism and typical children in item 2 (standing on preferred leg on balance beam), item6 (walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line), item7 (walking forward heel-to-toe on balance beam) and total scores of balance test of the BOTMP ($p < 0.05$). The results of item 1 to item 8 are shown in Table I2 and the results of total score are shown in Table I3.

Table I2 Comparison between children with autism and typical children of each items of the BOTMP balance subtest

Balance subtest item	Children with autism		Typical children		<i>P</i>
	Median	min-max	Median	min-max	
1. standing on preferred leg on floor	2	1-4	4	4-4	0.151
2. standing on preferred leg on balance beam	4	1-6	6	6-6	0.032*
3. standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed	1	1-7	7	2-7	0.056
4. walking forward on walking line	3	3-3	3	2-3	0.690
5. walking forward on balance beam	3	1-4	4	3-4	0.095
6. walking forward heel-to-toe on walking line	1	0-2	2	2-3	0.032*
7. walking forward heel-to-toe On balance beam	1	1-2	2	2-3	0.016*
8. stepping over response speed stick on balance beam	1	0-1	1	1-1	0.690

* p - value < 0.05

min = minimum
max = maximum

Table I3 Comparison between children with autism and typical children of total scores the BOTMP balance subtest

Group	Median	Mode	Mean	SD	<i>P</i>
Children with autism	18	30	17.6	6.02	0.016*
Typical children	30	31	29	2.12	

* p - value < 0.05

The elapsed time (in second) in standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2) and standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item3) based on the BOTMP balance subtest are shown in Table I4. The results showed that there were significant different between children with autism and typical children in item 3.

Table I4 Comparison between children with autism and typical children of elapsed time (in second) in standing on preferred leg on floor (item 1), standing on preferred leg on balance beam (item 2) and standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed (item3) based on the BOTMP balance subtest

Balance subtest item	Children with autism	Typical children	<i>P</i>
	Mean	SD	
1. standing on preferred leg on floor	5.91	10.00	0.070
2. standing on preferred leg on balance beam	7.43	10.00	0.174
3. standing on preferred leg on balance beam with eyes closed	4.03	8.85	0.047*

* p - value < 0.05

Test-retest reliability the balance subtests of the BOTMP were high (ICC=0.98), and there are no difference between test and retest for balance subtest in children with autism. The correlation of test and retest are shown in table I5.

Table I5 Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) of the BOTMP balance subtest in children with autism

	Test-retest Reliability
ICC	0.99
95 % CI	0.96-0.99

Sample size of nonparametric statistic in the present study was calculated by the sample size calculation program, N-Query version 3.0. Eight subjects of each group were the appropriate amount for collecting data in this study.

APPENDIX J

RAW DATA OF THE STUDY

Table J.1 Characteristics of the subjects (n=26)

No.	Gender	Age (yr)	Weight (kg)	Height (cm)	No.	Gender	Age (yr)	Weight (kg)	Height (cm)
HA1	M	12.67	69.3	165	TY1	M	12.93	62.0	168.0
HA2	M	11.58	52.8	159.5	TY2	M	12.50	47.0	156.0
HA3	F	10.58	37.7	145.5	TY3	F	9.58	43.0	143.0
HA4	M	10.17	42.2	143.0	TY4	M	9.83	39.0	140.0
HA5	M	9.75	35.0	136.5	TY5	M	9.25	37.8	136.0
HA6	M	10.92	39.0	145.5	TY6	M	10.00	41.0	148.0
HA7	M	12.83	33.1	155.0	TY7	M	12.50	38.0	153.5
HA8	M	11.50	24.4	138.5	TY8	M	10.58	26.0	137.0
HA9	M	10.00	30.8	132.0	TY9	M	9.48	30.0	131.0
HA10	M	9.25	30.0	123.5	TY10	M	9.58	25.0	130.0
HA11	M	12.67	50.6	149.0	TY11	M	12.17	53.4	149.0
HA12	M	12.42	30.2	133.5	TY12	M	12.58	34.0	150.0
HA13	M	10.42	26.6	127.0	TY13	M	10.25	24.2	130.0

HA = high-functioning autism children

TY = typical children

M = male

F = female

Table J.2 The point scores of item 1 to item 8 based on the BOTMP balance subtest in the children with HFA (n=13) and the typical children (n=13)

No.	Children with autism									Typical children								
	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Total	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Total
1	4	3	2	3	4	2	3	1	22	4	6	3	3	4	3	4	0	27
2	4	6	4	3	4	2	3	0	26	4	6	2	3	4	3	4	1	27
3	4	6	2	3	4	3	4	1	27	4	6	4	3	4	3	4	1	29
4	4	6	2	3	4	3	4	0	26	4	6	2	3	4	3	4	1	27
5	4	3	2	3	4	3	4	0	23	4	6	1	3	4	3	4	0	25
6	4	6	7	3	4	3	4	1	32	4	6	7	3	4	3	4	1	32
7	4	6	7	3	4	3	4	1	32	4	6	4	3	4	3	4	1	29
8	4	6	2	3	4	3	4	1	27	4	6	7	3	4	3	4	1	32
9	4	4	4	3	4	2	3	0	24	4	6	1	3	4	3	4	1	26
10	4	6	2	3	4	3	4	1	27	4	6	7	3	4	3	4	1	32
11	4	4	1	2	4	1	1	1	18	4	6	7	3	4	3	4	1	32
12	4	6	5	3	4	2	3	1	28	4	6	2	3	4	3	4	0	26
13	4	6	4	3	4	3	4	0	28	4	6	3	3	4	3	4	1	28

Table J.3 The raw scores of item 1 to item 8 based on the BOTMP balance subtest in the children with HFA (n=13) and the typical children (n=13)

No.	Children with autism								Typical children							
	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8
1	10	5.06	4.67	6	6	4	5	1	10	10	5.88	6	6	6	6	0
2	10	10	7.21	6	6	5	5	0	10	10	4.43	6	6	6	6	1
3	10	10	4.51	6	6	6	6	1	10	10	6.70	6	6	6	6	1
4	10	10	4.51	6	6	6	6	0	10	10	4.80	6	6	6	6	1
5	10	5.03	5.32	6	6	6	6	0	10	10	3.27	6	6	6	6	0
6	10	10	9.81	6	6	6	6	1	10	10	10	6	6	6	6	1
7	10	10	9.78	6	6	6	6	1	10	10	6.61	6	6	6	6	1
8	10	10	3.81	6	6	6	6	1	10	10	10	6	6	6	6	1
9	10	7.05	6.89	6	6	5	5	0	10	10	2.14	6	6	6	6	1
10	10	10	3.89	6	6	6	6	1	10	10	10	6	6	6	6	1
11	9.77	7.31	3.4	5	6	3	3	1	10	10	10	6	6	6	6	1
12	10	10	8.47	6	6	4	5	1	10	10	3.75	6	6	6	6	0
13	10	10	6.74	6	6	6	6	0	10	10	6.25	6	6	6	6	1

APPENDIX K
DOCUMENTARY PROOF OF ETHICAL CLEARNCE
THE COMMITTEE ON HUMAN RIGHTS RELATED
TO HUMAN EXPERIMENTATION



No. MU 2006-177

Documentary Proof of Ethical Clearance
The Committee on Human Rights Related to
Human Experimentation
Mahidol University, Bangkok


Title of Project: Comparison of Functional Balance between Children with Autism and Typical Children
(Thesis for Master Degree)

Principle Investigator: Miss Piyatida Naksakul

Name of Institution: Faculty of Physical Therapy and Applied Movement Sciences

Approved by the Committee on Human Rights Related to Human Experimentation

Signature of Chairman: 
(Professor Dr. Srisin Khusmith)

Signature of Head of the Institute: 
(Professor Dr. Pornchai Matangkasombut)

Date of Approval: 28 SEP 2006

Date of Expiration: 27 SEP 2007



บันทึกข้อความ

คณะกรรมการบัณฑิต	
คณะวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์	
รับที่.....	0443
วันที่.....	14 ก.พ. 2551
เวลา.....	13.20 น.

ส่วนราชการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล กองบริหารงานวิจัย โทร.๐-๒๘๔๔-๖๒๔๖ โทรสาร ๐-๒๘๔๔-๖๒๔๗
ที่ ศร ๐๕๑๗.๐๑๖/๑๖๕ วันที่ ๑๓ กุมภาพันธ์ ๒๕๕๑
เรื่อง ขยายระยะเวลาดำเนินโครงการวิจัย

เรียน คณะบดีคณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์

อ้างถึง หนังสือที่ ศร ๐๕๑๗.๐๑๑๗/บพ. ๗๔๐ ลงวันที่ ๕ ธันวาคม ๒๕๕๐
คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์ ได้เสนอรายงานความก้าวหน้าการดำเนิน
โครงการวิจัยเรื่อง "Comparison of Functional Balance between Children with Autism and Typical
Children" ของ นางสาวปิยธิดา นาคสกุล นักศึกษาปริญญาโท สาขาวิชากายภาพบำบัด มายัง
มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล เพื่อขอขยายเวลาต่ออายุหนังสือรับรองโครงการวิจัย เนื่องจากยังเก็บข้อมูลไม่ครบตามที่
กำหนดไว้ นั้น

ในการนี้ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดลพิจารณาแล้ว เห็นควรให้ขยายระยะเวลาดำเนินโครงการวิจัย
เรื่องดังกล่าวต่อไปได้ภายในระยะเวลา ๖ เดือน

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดทราบ และแจ้งนักศึกษาต่อไปด้วย จักขอบคุณยิ่ง

(รองศาสตราจารย์คันสนีย์ ไชยโรจน์)
รองอธิการบดีฝ่ายวิจัยและวิชาการ

เรียน คณะบดีคณะกายภาพบำบัด

เพื่อ () ทราบ

() อนุมัติ

() สมควรเขียน/แจ้ง/ประกาศ

() ดำเนินการ

() อื่น ๆ

() ส่ง Website <http://www.pnms.mahidol.ac.th>

11 ก.พ. ๒๕๕๑

14 ก.พ. ๕1



บันทึกข้อความ

ส่วนราชการ กลุ่มงานการพยาบาล โทร-1304, 1309

ที่ สธ. 0822.7/ 192

วันที่ 12 มิถุนายน 2550

เรื่อง ขอส่งเอกสารรับรองโครงการวิจัย

เรียน นางสาวปิยธิดา นาคสกุล

ตามที่ท่านได้เสนอโครงการวิจัยเรื่อง “การเปรียบเทียบสมมูลการทรงท่าในลักษณะกิจกรรมระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป” เพื่อขอรับการพิจารณาจากคณะกรรมการพิจารณาจริยธรรมในการวิจัย นั้น

ในการนี้คณะกรรมการพิจารณาจริยธรรมในการวิจัย มีมติให้การอนุมัติ พร้อมทั้งออกเอกสารรับรองโครงการวิจัยเรื่องดังกล่าว ตามที่แนบมาพร้อมนี้

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดทราบ และดำเนินการต่อไป

จินตนา (นางสาว)

(นางสาวจินตนา แสงวงศ์)

ประธานคณะกรรมการพิจารณาจริยธรรมในการวิจัย



๖๑ ถ. สุขุมวิท ๖๑ Sukhumvit Rd.
 อ. เมือง Muang
 จ. สมุทรปราการ Samutprakarn
 ๑๐๒๖๐ ๑๐๒๖๐

Tel. ๐๒ - ๓๘๔๓๓๘๑ ต่อ ๑๓๐๕
 Fax. ๐๒ - ๓๘๔๖๘๔๕

คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยโรงพยาบาลสุวประสาธน์
 เอกสารรับรองโครงการ

หมายเลขผู้ขอทำวิจัย
 ๐๕ / ๒๕๕๐
 (ที่เข้าการประชุม)

ชื่อโครงการ ภาษาไทย เรื่อง การเปรียบเทียบสมรรถภาพการทำงานของกล้ามเนื้อก้นและขาในผู้ป่วยโรคข้ออักเสบรูมาตอยด์
 และเด็กทั่วไป

หัวหน้าโครงการ / หน่วยงานสังกัด น.ส.ปิยธิดา นาคสกุล / คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์
 การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล

สถานที่ทำวิจัย โรงพยาบาลสุวประสาธน์

เอกสารที่รับรอง

๑. แบบเสนอโครงการวิจัยเพื่อขอรับการพิจารณาจากคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน
๒. เอกสารชี้แจงผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัย
๓. หนังสือแสดงเจตนายินยอมเข้าร่วมการวิจัย
๔. แบบสอบถาม

วันหมดอายุ ๘ พฤษภาคม ๒๕๕๑

คณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัย โรงพยาบาลสุวประสาธน์ อนุมัติโครงการนี้ ครอบคลุมตามหลักจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคนที่เป็นสากล ได้แก่ Declaration of Helsinki, The Belmont, CIOMS Guidelines และ The International Conference on Harmonization in good Clinical Practice (ICH – GCP)

ลงนาม.....

(นางสาวจันทนา แสงวงศ์)

ประธานคณะกรรมการจริยธรรมการวิจัยในคน

(๒๒ มี.ค. ๕๐)

วันที่

ลงนาม.....

(นายแพทย์ดุสิต ลิขนะพิชิตกุล)

ผู้อำนวยการ โรงพยาบาลสุวประสาธน์

(๒๒ มี.ค. ๕๐)

วันที่

ที่ ศธ 0517.0117/ บพ. 387



คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์
การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์ ม.มหิดล
198/2 เจริญนครสมเด็จพระปิ่นเกล้า
เขตบางพลัด กรุงเทพฯ 10700

29 พฤษภาคม 2550

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ในการเก็บข้อมูลเพื่อการวิจัยและใช้สถานที่ของโรงพยาบาลจุฬาราชวิทยาลัย
เรียน ผู้อำนวยการ โรงพยาบาลจุฬาราชวิทยาลัย

เนื่องด้วย น.ส.ปิยธิดา นาคสกุล นักศึกษาปริญญาโท สาขาวิชากายภาพบำบัด คณะกายภาพบำบัด
และวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล อยู่ในระหว่างดำเนินการวิจัยเพื่อเสนอเป็น
วิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง -การเปรียบเทียบสมดุลการทรงตัวในลักษณะกิจกรรมระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป"
(Comparison of functional balance between children with autism and typical children) โดยมี ผศ.ดร.สายพิน
ประเสริฐสุคดี และผศ.ดร.วิมลวรรณ เหียงแก้ว เป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์

ในการศึกษาวิจัยครั้งนี้ นักศึกษาจำเป็นต้องเก็บข้อมูลประกอบการวิจัยด้วยการประเมินความสามารถ
ในการทรงตัวในลักษณะกิจกรรม คือ ในขณะที่เด็กยืนขาเดียว และขณะเดินทั้งบนพื้นและบนคานไม้ โดยจะจับเวลา
ที่สามารถทำได้ และนำข้อมูลที่ได้นำไปเปรียบเทียบกับข้อมูลของเด็กสุขภาพดี ที่มีอายุระหว่าง 7-11 ปี ทั้งเพศชาย
และหญิง ทางคณะกายภาพบำบัดฯ จึงใคร่ขออนุญาตให้นักศึกษาเข้าทำการเก็บข้อมูลจากเด็กออทิสติกในช่วง
อายุระหว่าง 7-11 ปี จำนวน 10 คน เพื่อเป็นการศึกษานำร่อง โดยใช้สถานที่ในการเก็บข้อมูลของเด็กจากโรงพยาบาล
จุฬาราชวิทยาลัย ในช่วงวันที่ 4 - 29 มิถุนายน 2550 ทั้งนี้ นักศึกษาจะเป็นผู้ประสานงานเพื่อกำหนด
ช่วงเวลาที่เหมาะสมและเหมาะสมในการเก็บข้อมูลประกอบการวิจัยต่อไป

คณะกายภาพบำบัดฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านในครั้งนี้ และขอขอบพระคุณ
เป็นอย่างสูงมา ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์กานดา ใจกัคดี)

คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล

คณะกายภาพบำบัดฯ
โทรศัพท์ 0 2433 7092
โทรสาร 0 2433 7090

ที่ ศธ 0517.0117/ บพ. 795



คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์
การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์ ม.มหิดล
198/2 เจริญนครสมเด็จพระปิ่นเกล้า
เขตบางพลัด กรุงเทพฯ 10700

12 ธันวาคม 2550

เรื่อง ขออนุญาตเข้าทำการเก็บข้อมูลและใช้สถานที่

เรียน อาจารย์ใหญ่โรงเรียนสาธิตแห่งมหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

เนื่องด้วย นางสาวปิยธิดา นาคสกุล นักศึกษาปริญญาโท สาขาวิชากายภาพบำบัด คณะกายภาพบำบัด และวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล อยู่ระหว่างดำเนินการวิจัยเพื่อเสนอเป็นวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง "การเปรียบเทียบสมดุลการทรงท่าขึ้นและเดินระหว่างเด็กออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป (Comparison of standing and walking balance between children with autism and typical children)" โดยมี ผศ.ดร.สายพิน ประเสริฐสุชาติ, ผศ.ดร.วิมลวรรณ เขียงแก้ว และผศ.นพ.ชาตรี วิฑูรชาติ เป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ ในการทำวิจัยดังกล่าว จะทำการเก็บข้อมูลด้วยการทดสอบความสามารถในการทรงท่าขณะที่ยืนทรงตัวขาเดียว และทรงตัวขณะเดิน ทั้งบนพื้นและบนคานไม้ ทำการจับเวลาเท่าที่สามารถทำได้ โดยนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปเปรียบเทียบกันระหว่างเด็ก ออทิสติกและเด็กทั่วไป ที่มีอายุระหว่าง 8-12 ปี ทั้งเพศชายและหญิง

ในการนี้ คณะกายภาพบำบัดฯ จึงใคร่ขออนุญาตให้นักศึกษาเข้าทำการเก็บข้อมูล จากเด็กทั่วไปและ เด็กออทิสติกที่สามารถเรียนร่วมกับเด็กทั่วไปได้ตามเกณฑ์ช่วงอายุระหว่าง 8-12 ปี จำนวน 40 คน แบ่งตาม ระดับชั้นดังนี้

- ระดับชั้นประถมศึกษาปีที่ 3 จำนวน 5 คู่ (เด็กออทิสติก 5 คน, เด็กทั่วไป 5 คน)
- ระดับชั้นประถมศึกษาปีที่ 4 จำนวน 5 คู่ (เด็กออทิสติก 5 คน, เด็กทั่วไป 5 คน)
- ระดับชั้นประถมศึกษาปีที่ 5 จำนวน 5 คู่ (เด็กออทิสติก 5 คน, เด็กทั่วไป 5 คน)
- ระดับชั้นประถมศึกษาปีที่ 6 จำนวน 5 คู่ (เด็กออทิสติก 5 คน, เด็กทั่วไป 5 คน)

โดยใช้สถานที่โรงเรียนของท่านเก็บข้อมูลทั้งในและนอกเวลาเรียน ระหว่างวันที่ 18 ธันวาคม 2550 ถึงวันที่ 28 กุมภาพันธ์ 2551 ทั้งนี้ นักศึกษาจะเป็นผู้ประสานงานเพื่อกำหนดช่วงเวลาที่เหมาะสมและสะดวกในการเก็บข้อมูล ประกอบการวิจัยต่อไป หากมีข้อสงสัยประการใด กรุณาติดต่อนางสาวปิยธิดา โทร. 081-424-5339

คณะกายภาพบำบัดฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านในครั้งนี้ และขอขอบพระคุณ เป็นอย่างสูงมา ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.รุ่งทิวา วังละอู)

คณะกายภาพบำบัดและวิทยาศาสตร์การเคลื่อนไหวประยุกต์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล

ฝ่ายการศึกษาหลังปริญญา คณะกายภาพบำบัดฯ

โทรศัพท์ 0 2433 7092 โทรสาร 0 2433 7090

BIOGRAPHY

NAME	Piyatida Naksakul
DATE OF BIRTH	22 June 1982 (2525)
PLACE OF BIRTH	Uttaradit, Thailand
INSTITUTIONS ATTENDED	Thammasat University, 2004: Bachelor of Science (Physical Therapy) Mahidol University, 2008: Master of Science (Physical Therapy)
EDUCATION FUND	Faculty of Allied Health Sciences, Naresuan University
HOME ADDRESS	39/269 Soi Nong Bua, Chetsadabodin Road, Tha-it district, Muang, Uttaradit, 53000 Tel. 081-424-5339, 055-440-246 E-mail: pn_june@yahoo.com .