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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Personal Space Regulation in Childhood Autism Spectrum Disorders

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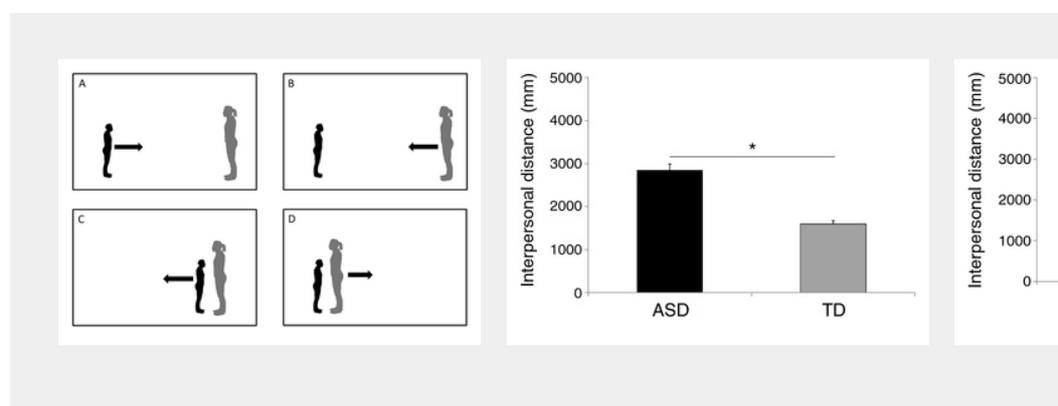
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Abstract

People appropriately adjust the distance between themselves and interaction, and they may feel discomfort and move away when another person enters their personal space. In the present study, we investigated persons with persistent difficulties in the domain of social behavior, such as autism spectrum disorders (ASD), and in children with typical development. A distance paradigm was used to derive estimates of interpersonal distance after a brief interaction with an unfamiliar adult confederate. The results show that children with ASD felt comfortable at a greater distance compared to TD children. Personal space shrank after interaction with the confederate in TD children but not in ASD children. These findings reveal that autism deeply affects personal space, influencing both its size and flexibility.

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Introduction

Personal space is the area individuals maintain around themselves. Intrusion by others may cause discomfort or even anxiety. People appropriately regulate their interpersonal space to obtain a comfortable interaction with others [1-4]. When personal space is violated, the person tends to reinstate the margin of safety. Thus, personal space is fundamentally a zone of safety surrounding the body [5].

A number of studies have shown that the size of the personal space is influenced by the social context. A person who is placed in a potentially threatening context will have an expanded personal space; a person in friendly company will have a reduced personal space [4,6]. Moreover, the size of interpersonal space can change due to various different factors, including gender [7], age [8], infant-caregiver attachment [9], familiarity between interacting parties [11,12]. Studies have also documented differences in personal space regulation in individuals with psychiatric [13], neurological [14], and developmental disorders [15].

More recently, Kennedy and coworkers [14] described the regulation of personal space distance in a patient (SM) with bilateral amygdala damage. In their study, the authors asked SM to indicate the position at which she felt most comfortable when the experimenter approached her, or she approached the experimenter. SM's personal space was substantially reduced compared to comparison subjects. SM's personal space was similar to that in which the patient rated her level of comfort/discomfort standing 1 meter from the experimenter, put in evidence that SM was perfectly comfortable at a close-to-nose distance with the experimenter. These findings revealed that the amygdala results in no detectable personal space boundary and a preference for interpersonal distance, thereby suggesting that this brain region is the neural substrate regulating the distance between individuals. More recent neuroimaging data from healthy subjects in this same study [14] showed increased activation of the amygdala when participants knew that an experimenter was at a close distance to them, compared to when they knew that an experimenter was maintaining a far distance. This conclusion is supported by the results of primate studies, revealing that monkeys with bilateral amygdala damage stay in closer proximity to other monkeys or people compared to monkeys with intact amygdalae [16-18].

Because personal space represents the space of interaction and communication with others, it is critical to study this space in subjects with everyday difficulties in emotional behavior, such as patients with autism spectrum disorder and neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by marked and enduring difficulties in interpersonal interaction, including behavioral avoidance and unreceptive behavior and failure to spontaneously interact with people [24,25]. Moreover, it is hypothesized that dysfunction of the amygdala may be responsible, at least in part, for the deficits of social and emotional functioning that is a core feature of autism [26]. However, relatively little is known about the way in which autistic individuals regulate their personal space distance from other people during social interactions. Although anecdotal reports and some meager evidence [30] suggest that the ability to reliably interact with other people may be impaired in ASD, interpersonal distance has not been measured in individuals with autism in a laboratory test.

In the present study, our primary aim was to provide a direct measure of personal space of children with typical development (TD) and children with autism spectrum disorder (ASD). The second aim was to investigate the regulation of personal space by a brief social interaction with an unfamiliar other person in two populations of children. To this end, we measured personal space using a laboratory version of the stop-distance procedure [31-33]. This paradigm represents a frequently used measure of personal space regulation, allowing re-

preferred interpersonal distance under varied conditions and repeated reviews, see [8,33]). In our experiment, personal space was measured which children felt most comfortable as an unfamiliar adult confederate or they approached the confederate. Each participant was tested twice after a break during which participant interacted with the confederate.

Prior research has suggested that an excessively functioning amygdala causes abnormal fears and enhanced anxiety in autistic children, leading to atypical interactions and avoidant behaviors in these patients [34-39]. Accordingly, we hypothesized that ASD children, due to increased fear and hyperarousal to personal space violations, would fail to reliably and flexibly regulate their distance, thereby maintaining a farther and rigid distance from others. As a control, we predicted that interpersonal distance would be larger in ASDs than in TD children and should be modulated by a brief social interaction in TD but not in ASD children.

Methods

Ethics statement

The study involved children with autism spectrum disorders and children with typical development in a behavioral experiment. Subjects' parents gave written informed consent to their children's participation in the study, which was approved by the ethics committee of the Centro Autismo, Ausl, Reggio Emilia, where the experiment was conducted. The ethics committee of the Department of Psychology of the University of Turin also approved the experiment, which was conducted according to the ethical guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Participants

Fifteen male children with autism spectrum disorders (ASD) participated in the study. The autistic children were recruited through referrals from a center for autism (Reggio Emilia, Italy). They will hereby be designated as the group of ASD children. All had received a formal diagnosis of an ASD by an independent clinician according to the standard Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5). The children were high functioning. The diagnosis was confirmed using the Autism Spectrum Observation Schedule-Generic (ADOS-G) scale [41], given by a trained psychologist. ASD children had all fluent language abilities. They had no psychiatric or neurological (e.g. cerebral palsy or epilepsy) or medical disorders, and were not taking antipsychotic drugs at the time of testing.

We compared the ASD children to 23 male children with typical development (TD children). TD children were recruited in local schools and were free from any psychiatric or neurological illness as determined by history.

ASD and TD groups did not differ with respect to both mental age (TD = 9.56 years; ASD = 9.07 years, $sd = 2.43$ years; $[F(1,36) = 0.05; p = .85]$), and chronological age (TD = 9.56 years, $sd = 1.73$ years; ASD = 9.73 years, $sd = 2.37$ years; $[F(1,36) = 0.05; p = .85]$).

Table 1). The mental age was calculated by using the formula (chronological age/100). The Total IQ scores were measured with the WISC-III, submitted in a separate session different from the experimental session.

	ASD Group (N=15) (Mean/SD)	TD Group (N=15) (Mean/SD)
Chronological Age	9.73 (+/- 2.37)	9.56 (+/- 2.37)
Mental Age	9.07 (+/- 2.43)	9.17 (+/- 2.43)
Full Scale IQ	92.73 (+/- 16.08)	97.61 (+/- 16.08)
ADOS (Full Scale)	15.6 (+/- 3.37)	NA
ADOS (Social interaction)	8 (+/- 2.24)	NA
ADOS (Communication)	5.8 (+/- 3.12)	NA
ADOS (Imagination)	1.2 (+/- 0.77)	NA
ADOS (Behaviors)	1.67 (+/- 1.72)	NA
Diagnosis	9 (F84.9) 6 (F84.0)	NA

Table 1. Subject Demographics for Children Participating in the Study

IQ assessed with Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children–Third Edition (WISC-III) and Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (WASI)

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Procedure

We applied an adapted version of the stop-distance paradigm used in previous studies [14]. All participants were tested in the same room (7 x 4 m) by one experimenter and one confederate. The role of the experimenter and confederate was taken over by two different people to ensure that the experimental setup remained identical across sessions.

Testing began with a participant positioned at a fixed location in the room. The confederate standing, facing the participant from a far starting position (200 cm) and moving toward the participant from a close starting position (30 cm). In half of the trials, the female confederate was always the one moving, at a natural gait either toward (i.e., far starting position) or away (i.e., close starting position) from the participant. In the other half of the trials, the male confederate was always the one moving, either approaching or withdrawing from the participant (see Figure 1). Participants were instructed to tell the experimenter their preferred distance (i.e., the distance between themselves and the confederate) which they felt most comfortable, in the trials when the confederate was moving toward the participant. They chose their ideal interpersonal distance in the trials when they were moving away from the participant. During approach/withdrawal movement, the confederate made no eye contact with the participant, a neutral facial expression, and never touched the participant. The interpersonal distance was measured with a digital laser measurer (Agatec, model DM100) between the confederate's toes and the participant's toes.



Figure 1. Experimental procedure.

In the first condition (A) the participant approached the confederate from a far distance (5 m). In the second condition (B) the confederate approached the participant starting from a far distance (5 m). In the third condition (C) the confederate moved away from the participant starting from a close distance (face to face). In the fourth condition (D) the confederate moved away from the participant starting from a close distance (face to face).

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The same procedure was repeated twice, before and after a 10-minute interval. During the time interval, the confederate invited the subject to sit at a table and placed in the same room and to read together an illustrated book with the participant. The children could choose one illustrated book among several books which had been suggested by their teachers or psychologists as being interesting for each child. During the interaction, the confederate read the book and asked three questions concerning the content of the book, while each child was invited to make comments and ask questions to the confederate. In the amount of this social interaction, the experimenter assigned a score to each of three behaviors: i) the child's ability to answer to the confederate, ii) the child's ability to make comments about the book, and iii) the child's ability to ask questions to the confederate. These three ratings were averaged to form an index of social interaction.

Before starting the experiment all participants received an explanation of the task and had four practice trials with the experimenter. Then the confederate

To sum up, we run a 2x2x2 design with starting position (close and far) and starting position (confederate and participant) and session (before and after social interaction). Each cell of the experimental design comprised 3 trials, thus yielding a total of 12 completely randomized trials.

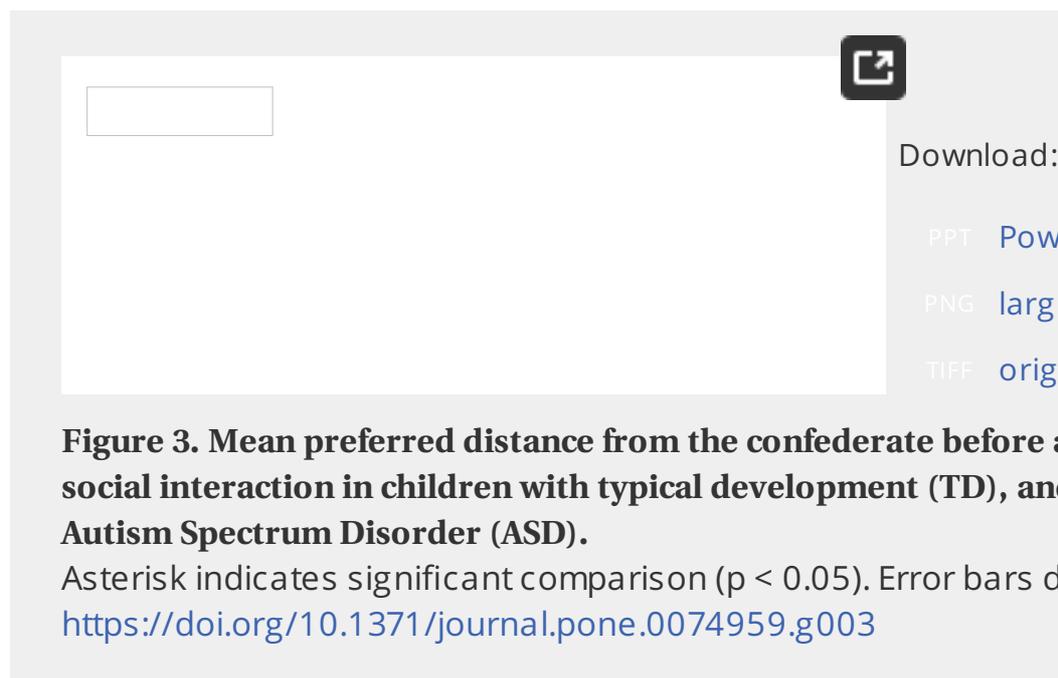
Results

The effect of social interaction on personal space regulation was compared in children with TD and in children with ASD by comparing the interpersonal distance before and after the interaction with the adult confederate. To this end, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on the measure of interpersonal distance expressed in mm, with group (ASD and TD) as a between-subject variable and session (before and after social interaction) as a within-subject variable. For the ANOVA analysis, data were collapsed across person moving (confederate and participant) and starting position (close and far) condition.

The variable group was significant [$F(1,36) = 14.84; p < .0001; \eta^2 = .29$], showing that the interpersonal distance was larger in ASD children than in TD children (before = 2175 mm, after = 1595 mm, respectively; see [Figure 2](#)). There was also a marginally significant main effect of session [$F(1,36) = 3.80; p = .06; \eta^2 = .096$], showing that interpersonal distance was larger before (2175 mm) than after (2022 mm) the social interaction.



Critically, the main effects were qualified by a significant group \times session interaction [$F(1,36) = 7.73; p < .01; \eta^2 = .177$]. Indeed, post-hoc analysis showed a significant interaction between participant and confederate during the interval. In ASD children, interpersonal space in ASD children (before = 2826 mm, after = 2874 mm) was not significantly modulated personal space in TD children, reducing the distance after social interaction (from 1730 mm to 1595 mm), the social interaction ($p < .003$; see [Figure 3](#)). Interpersonal distance was larger in ASD children than TD children before and after social interaction ($p < .0002$ for both comparisons).



For completeness, we also run an additional ANOVA that included a specifically group (ASD and TD) as a between-subject variable, and session (before and after social interaction), starting position (close and far), and

after social-interaction) as within-subject variables. As before, this s demonstrated that the variable group [$F(1,36) = 14.84$; $p < .0001$; $\eta^2_p = .29$], [$F(1,36) = 3.80$; $p = .06$; $\eta^2_p = .096$], and the group X session interaction [$F(1,36) = 10.01$; $p = .002$; $\eta^2_p = .177$] were significant. We also found that the interaction person moving, and starting-position was significant [$F(1,36) = 8.24$; $p = .006$; $\eta^2_p = .187$]. Post-hoc analysis of this three-way interaction showed that, in ASD interpersonal distance was significantly larger when the participant moved toward (3376 mm) rather than toward (2413 mm) the confederate ($p < .0001$). This difference was not significant when the confederate moved away from the participant (when starting close = 2630 mm; when starting far = 2979 mm).

In TD children, this difference was not significant neither when the participant moved away or approached the confederate (when starting close = 1781 mm; when starting far = 1417 mm), nor when the confederate moved away or approached the participant (when starting position = 1.493 mm; far starting position = 1.688 mm; all $p > .05$). This suggests that the interpersonal distance remained larger in ASD children than in TD children regardless of person moving (confederate or participant), or starting position ($p < .001$ in all comparison).

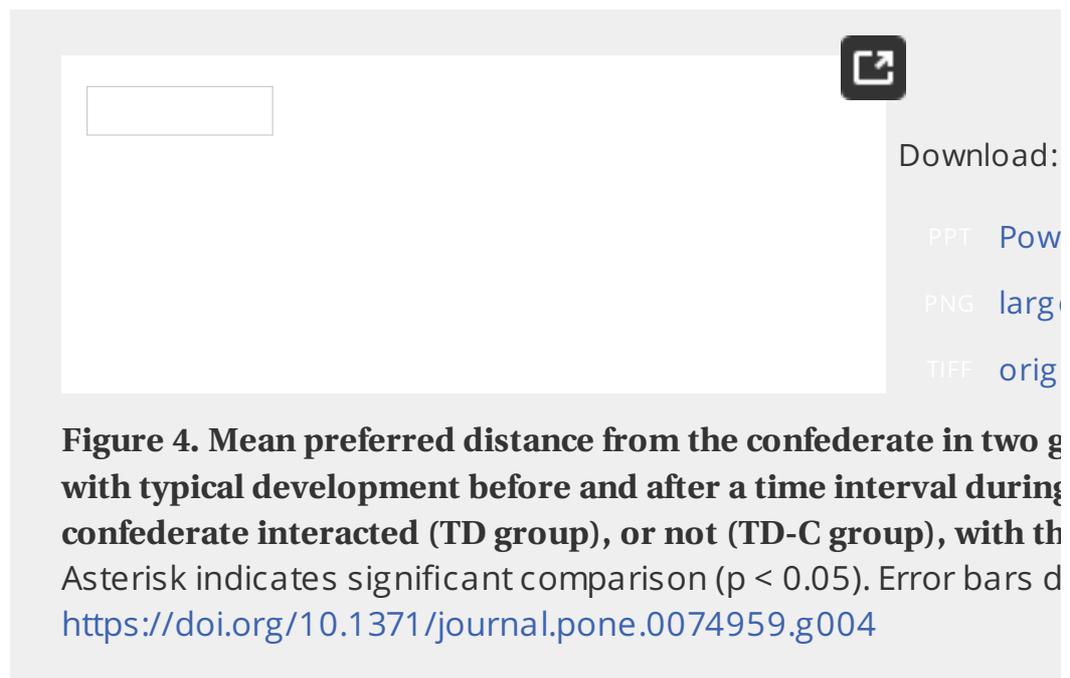
The lack of modulation of interpersonal distance may depend on poor social interaction with the confederate in ASD compared to TD children, and poor personal space regulation. To explore this possibility, an index of social interaction ranging from 0 to 3, was computed for each participant by averaging the number of behaviors assigned by the experimenter to three behaviors observed during social interaction (see Method). Although the social interaction index of the ASD group was somewhat lower than control group (2 and 2.3, in ASD and TD children), an ANOVA analysis did not reveal a significant main effect of group, [$F(1,36) = 1.01$; $p = 0.33$]. Nevertheless, to ensure that our findings were not driven by subtle differences in the amount of social interaction with confederate, the main ANOVA was performed with social interaction index as covariate. The previously significant group X session interaction remained significant, [$F(1,35) = 6.8$; $p < .01$; $\eta^2_p = .16$]. As a follow-up analysis, we ranked ASD participants based on the index of social interaction into good-interaction (ASDgi, $n = 7$) and poor-interaction (ASDpi) groups through a median split. Finally, an ANOVA was performed on the main dependent variable, interpersonal distance difference (interpersonal distance after interaction – before interaction) (ASDpi, ASDgi) as between-subject variable. The variable group was not significant [$F(1,36) = 1.01$; $p = 0.33$]. Overall, these data suggest that the lack of modulation of interpersonal distance were not due to reduced social interaction with the confederate or personal space interval in ASD compared to TD children.

Control experiment

Our data suggest that social interaction influences personal space regulation in TD children. However, to ensure that this effect in TD children was not due to the time interval between the first and the second measure, or to a familiarity effect with the confederate, rather than to the effect of social interaction between the confederate and the subject, an additional control group of 23 age-matched TD children (TD-C) was tested.

The TD-C group was submitted to the same procedure previously described. The only difference was that during the time interval participant and confederate were not together, but the subject read a book by himself, while the confederate read something else in the same room. If the reduction of the personal distance of TD children was due to time interval *per se*, then it should be found both in TD and TD-C group. By contrast, if the reduction of the interpersonal distance was due to social interaction between confederate and subject during the time interval, it should be found only in TD but not in TD-C group. TD-C children and TD were compared with group (with and without social interaction) as a between-subject variable (before and after time-interval), as a within-subject variable.

The variable session was significant [$F(1,44) = 11.49; p < .001; \eta^2_p = .21$]. Interpersonal distance was smaller after (1592 mm) than before (1735 mm) time interval. In line with the hypothesis, the group X session interaction was significant [$F(1,44) = 9.48; p < .001; \eta^2_p = .18$]. Post-hoc comparisons (Tukey for equal variances) showed that the reduction of personal space in the group with social interaction (TD group, before = 1460 mm, $p < .0002$), but not in the group without social interaction (TD-C group, before = 1735 mm, after = 1722 mm, $p = .97$). Moreover, the personal space was significantly different between the two groups after ($p < .0001$) but not before ($p = .17$) (Figure 4).



Discussion

In this study, we investigated personal space regulation in children with typical development (TD) and in children with high-functioning autism, before and after social interaction with an unfamiliar adult confederate. While previous studies have suggested that ASD children have some difficulties in appropriate personal distance from other people during social interactions, the empirical evidence for this claim has been conspicuously lacking. Here, a stop-distance procedure provides measures reflecting tolerance of, and reactivity to, spatial distance in TD children. We provide new evidence that personal space regulation is intact in high-functioning ASD children. Specifically, we found that ASD children a

close proximity to an unfamiliar adult and prefer farther interpersonal distance than TD children. Moreover, results showed that interpersonal distance changes in ASD children when they *move away* from, rather than toward, the confederate. These children feel more uncomfortable and react (i.e., step away) more to interpersonal space violations (i.e. close starting position) than TD children.

A critical finding of the present study concerns the modulation of personal space regulation. Previous studies focused on the effects of long-lasting interaction, such as infant-caregiver attachment [9,10] and between interacting partners [11,12]. Here, we report that a transition from a familiar to an unknown adult results in a rapid, on-line adjustment of the interpersonal distance in TD children, indicating that personal space regulation exhibits dynamic flexibility that may facilitate social interactions and communication in neurotypical individuals. Such interpersonal distance changes were not simply a function of the time interval between the first and the second interpersonal distance measurement in TD participants' familiarization with the stop-distance procedure or the time interval demonstrated by the results of a control experiment. Indeed, when the time interval between first and second stop-distance procedure normally develops in TD children, book alone without interacting with the confederate, no change in interpersonal distance was observed. Critically, ASD individuals failed to display changes in interpersonal distance in response to a brief social interaction, suggesting a marked impairment in personal space in this condition.

In the past few years, a distinction has arisen between flexibility and permeability of personal space. Permeability refers to the ease with which personal space is entered or intruded upon, irrespective of its current size or shape, while flexibility refers to situationally induced changes in the size and shape of personal space. The present findings suggest that, in autistic children, personal space is altered both in permeability and flexibility, with larger personal space in ASD than in TD children, and reduced flexibility, since it is not reduced in response to interaction with the confederate. We propose that the impairment in flexibility and permeability of personal space in ASD children reflects overarousal and anxiety induced by others intruding their social space.

A previous lesion and neuroimaging study in humans suggested that the amygdala plays a key role in underpinning personal space regulation [14], either by mediating emotional reactions in response to personal space violations, or by linking personal space between close distance and aversive outcomes. Linking these previous findings with the present findings, we suggest that reduced tolerance of physical closeness to a stranger and lack of flexibility of personal space in ASD children may reflect an impairment of an amygdala-based mechanism. This hypothesis is supported by recent data. Recent studies indicate that the amygdala is enlarged in children with autism and could contribute to the abnormalities of fear and anxiety that are characteristic features of autism. An excessively functioning amygdala may account for the exaggerated autonomic responses in autistic children (e.g., [34,37], but see also [35,36] for similar results) leading to withdrawal from social interactions [37]. Moreover, studies in older children and adults with autism provide evidence of an abnormal amygdala activation in response to social stimuli [39,48-50]. This is consistent with findings in an animal model of autism, in which rats exposed to valproic acid developed autism-like symptoms associated with enhanced anxiety and fear responses [51].

amygdala [38]. Finally, recent evidence indicates that oxytocin, a neuropeptide that can reduce activity in the amygdala, thereby resulting in decreased fear and anxiety, can modulate social distance in interacting partners [52], and improve social interactions in ASD individuals [53].

Several prior observations are in keeping with the present findings. Using a naturalistic observation method, Rogers and Fine [54] compared the behaviors of an autistic and an asymbiotic psychotic child during play. The autistic child maintained a greater personal distance from the therapist compared to the asymbiotic child. Moreover, Parsons and colleagues [55] compared the use of virtual environments, such as a Virtual Café, in a social interaction task with ASD participants of 13-18 years of age and in age-matched control participants. Results showed that the majority of autistic subjects seemed to have a poor understanding of the virtual environment as a representation of reality. The autistic participant's ability relative to some social norms was judged by naïve observers. Autistic participants were more likely to be judged as bumping into, or walking between, objects in the virtual scene, compared to their paired matches. The authors suggest that understanding personal space is impaired in autism. More recently, Kennedy and colleagues [30], analyzing parent- and teacher-report questionnaire data, found that ASD children are less aware of social distance than their unaffected peers, showing significantly higher levels of interpersonal distance violations. Overall, these previous findings are consistent with the present results. The general conclusion that interpersonal distance regulation is impaired in autism is supported by the results of increased violations of personal space in autistic individuals. However, the results of Parsons et al. [55] and Kennedy et al. [30] studies are not in accord with the patterns observed in the present study, in which ASD children exhibit a preference for larger interpersonal distance. However, several methodological differences between these studies and the present one may account for the seemingly discrepant findings. For instance, Parsons and colleagues [55] study differed from ours in the use of virtual figures and scenes to probe personal space. It is possible that participants in the present group bumped into the people in the virtual environment because of a poor understanding of the virtual environment as representations of reality. Kennedy and colleagues [30] analyzed questionnaire-based data and did not conduct a controlled assessment of personal space in ASD children. Thus, interpersonal distance measures and paradigms remain to be systematically compared in future research.

Two potential limitations of this study deserve mention. First, our study did not measure increased fear and hyperarousal following personal space violations. Future research with larger interpersonal boundaries in ASD compared to TD children requires further investigation. Physiological reactions, such as skin conductance responses and heart rate variability, and subjective ratings of experience may provide potential measures of fear and arousal. The present behavioural data support the claim that personal space regulation is impaired in autism, they cannot directly ascertain the role of affective processes in this difficulty with social space in ASD children. Second, as interpersonal distance in the present study was assessed in a controlled experimental setting, we must be cautious about generalizing the findings to other, more ecological settings. The current and previous findings [30,55] may reflect differences in

To conclude, discomfort and fear of physical closeness with a social

of the most salient factors in regulating interpersonal distance during [56]. Here, we report that ASD children maintain a farther and rigid distance from unfamiliar others than do TD individuals, suggesting that they are less reactive to violations of personal space. We suggest that these effects are mediated through enhanced, rather than reduced, amygdala functioning in children with autism spectrum disorders. A better characterization of the mechanisms underlying personal space regulation in ASD children may lead to an improved understanding of how ASD develops and how to intervene to improve social functioning.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: EG FF GdP. Performed the experiments: EG FF GdP. Analyzed the data: EG FF GdP. Wrote the manuscript: EG FF GdP.

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