Validation of the Santa Casa Evaluation of Spasticity Scale

Karina Pavan¹, Bruna Eriko Matsuda Marangoni¹, William Akira Lima Shimizu², Sheila Evangelista Mattos², Paula Pereira Ferrari², Silvia Regina Gomes Martins², Sergio Lianza³

ABSTRACT

Spasticity is a clinical condition that has negative repercussions on function. A scale capable of quantifying the severity and impact of an injury is fundamental to the rehabilitation process. The objective of this study was to retest and validate the Santa Casa evaluation of spasticity scale, a descriptive assessment of activities of daily living, transfers and locomotion. We analyzed spasticity and functional status in 97 hemiparetic patients. With statistical significance (p<0.05), this new scale demonstrated reliability in assessing clinical-functional conditions and reproducibility as a daily assessment scale for use during rehabilitation. **Key words:** muscle spasticity, disability evaluation, validation studies.

Validação da Escala de Avaliação da Espasticidade Santa Casa

RESUMO

A espasticidade é uma condição clínica que pode repercutir negativamente na condição funcional. Um instrumento de avaliação capaz de mensurar a gravidade e a conseqüência da lesão torna-se ferramenta fundamental ao processo de reabilitação. O objetivo foi reproduzir e validar a Escala de Avaliação da Espasticidade Santa Casa (EAESC), instrumento descritivo correspondente às atividades de vida diária, transferências e locomoção. Analisou-se a espasticidade e condição funcional de 97 pacientes hemiparéticos. Com significância estatística (p<0,05), a EAESC mostrou-se sensível à análise das condições clínico-funcionais, sendo hábil sua reprodutibilidade como instrumento rotineiro de avaliação à reabilitação.

Palavras-chave: espasticidade muscular, avaliação da deficiência, estudos de validação.

Several clinical conditions can cause damage to the central nervous system (CNS). Such conditions include craniocerebral trauma, tumour cerebral, cerebrovascular accident (CVA), spinal cord, cerebral palsy and multiple sclerosis, all of which commonly result in spasticity¹⁻³.

Spasticity is the most common non-functional disorder in congenital or acquired injury to the CNS, which affects millions of individuals worldwide^{1,4-7}.

Spasticity is defined as a velocity-dependent increase in the resistance of muscles to passive movement, as well as by muscle weakness, pronounced hyperre-

flexia, abnormal cutaneous and autonomic reflexes with the Babinski sign, caused by lesion of the upper motor neuron involving the cortico-reticulo-bulbo-spinal pathway^{4,7-14}. Since it affects the musculo-skeletal system, the consequences of spasticity has a direct effect, albeit in varying degrees of severity, on the lives of patients, impairing their ability to carry out activities of daily living, as well as causing pain, contractions and deformities, all of which hinder the rehabilitation process¹⁵⁻¹⁹. Functional activity, or functionality, is defined as the ability to carry out activities of daily living such as feeding oneself, remaining

Correspondence

Karina Pavan Av. José Giorge 2031 06707-100 Cotia SP - Brasil. E-mail: karpav@gmail.com

Received 10 May 2009 Received in final form 27 August 2009 Accepted 8 September 2009

Department of Rehabilitation of the Santa Casa Sisters of Mercy Hospital of São Paulo, São Paulo SP, Brazil: ¹Physical Therapist; ²Student in the Specialization Course in Neurofunctional Physical Therapy; ³Physician.

mobile, making transfers, maintaining personal hygiene and locomoting²⁰. The Ashworth scale, created by Bryan Ashworth in 1964²¹, and the modified Ashworth scale (MAS), devised by Bohannon and Smith in 1987, are simple instruments employed to quantify muscle resistance to passive movement, the latter being more sensitive^{22,23}. One instrument used in evaluating and quantifying incapacity is the Functional Independence Measure (FIM), a scale created for use in the United States and validated for use in Brazil^{24,25}. In 1990, Lianza et al. created the Santa Casa scale²⁶, an instrument designed to measure the degree of spasticity and determine its repercussions on functional performance. Although easily applied, the scale presented little sensitivity.

Spasticity and its consequences constitute a great challenge, for patients as well as for physical therapists. Therefore, it is fundamental to have, at the outset of the rehabilitation process, an instrument that quantifies the degree of spasticity and its impact on function. In view of this, we have modified the Santa Casa scale, using the new name Santa Casa evaluation of spasticity scale (SCESS) to designate the modified version.

The objective of the present study was to test and validate the SCESS.

METHOD

The study sample consisted of 97 hemiparetic patients with spasticity treated in the Rehabilitation Sector of the Santa Casa de Misericórdia de São Paulo, Brazil.

The following inclusion criteria were applied: being at least 14 years of age; having received a clinical diagnosis related to acquired brain injury, such as CVA, cerebral tumour, craniocerebral trauma or multiple sclerosis; presenting proportionate or disproportionate topographic distribution of hemiparetics; being treated in the Rehabilitation Sector of the Santa Casa Sisters of Mercy Hospital of São Paulo; and having given written informed consent.

We excluded patients who had been submitted to selective chemical neurolysis, such as botulinum toxin type A or phenol, within the preceding six months, as well as those who were wheelchair-bound, those treated with antispasticity agents and those with severe cognitive deficits.

The study design was approved by the Ethics in Research Committee of the Hospital. Subsequently (from April to November of 2007), data were collected by two evaluators (raters). The raters had been previously trained in an attempt to increase the degree of inter-rater concordance in relation to the scales and their respective applications.

The specific instruments employed in the collection of data were the MAS, the FIM and the SCESS.

The MAS is used in order to classify muscle tone, which is scored from 0 to 4 based on the resistance to

passive movement²². The muscle groups evaluated were the elbow flexors and the knee extensors.

The FIM is an 18-item scale that quantifies incapacity based on six functional conditions (self-care, sphincter control, mobility, locomotion, communication and social cognition), the score ranging from 18 to 126 points²⁵. In the present study, this scale was used as a self-report questionnaire and could therefore be referred to as an oral FIM.

The SCESS is designed to quantify the impact that spasticity has on functional status in terms of the performance of activities of daily living and transfers, as well as locomotion, the score ranging from 1 to 5.

The SCESS is a modified version of the Santa Casa scale. The alterations to the Santa Casa scale were made after discussions between the researchers and the principal author of the scale. The resulting modified version (the SCESS) was applied in the evaluation of the patients in the current sample.

To determine the reliability of the SCESS, an initial evaluation (test) was followed by a second evaluation (retest) one week later, both evaluations being performed by the same observer (rater) and inter-rater reliability being determined. The MAS and the FIM were applied, together with the SCESS, only in the initial evaluation. The MAS and the FIM were used in order to draw correlations between their efficiency and that of the scale put forth for validation (the SCESS). The SCESS was used in order to evaluate muscle tone and functional status based on the performance of certain activities, which were divided into two categories: upper limbs-including activities of daily living (feeding oneself, dressing, donning clothing accessories and maintaining personal hygiene) and practical activities (writing, operating household appliances and using home electronics); and lower limbs – the capacity to walk a certain distance with or without the aid of a parallel bar.

Analysis of variance was observed in the association between the scale and aspects such as age, genre, type of injury and topography. Evaluation of reliability (internal consistency and stability) was tested by analyzing the coefficient of reliability, with the model test-retest, and the value of Cronbach alpha. The validation was established by the linear correlation between the results for each area and results in the measures chosen as the gold standard for that area measured by Pearson correlation coefficient. The statistical significance used was p<0.05.

RESULTS

In the present study, 97 patients were evaluated. The sociodemographic data are shown in Table 1.

Table 2 shows the associations between the SCESS score and the variables age, gender, duration of injury and topographic diagnosis.

In terms of the ability to evaluate the upper limbs, the correlations between the SCESS and the MAS and the FIM are shown in Table 3.

Table 4 shows how the SCESS correlates with the MAS and the FIM, in terms of the ability to evaluate the lower limbs.

Data related to the test-retest (inter-rater) reliability of the SCESS are shown in Table 5.

DISCUSSION

Injury to the CNS that involves the cortico-reticulobulbo-spinal pathway results in altered muscle tone and reduced activity of the musculoskeletal system, which has repercussions for functional capacity^{5,13-17}.

The leading cause of neurological dysfunction in the adult population is CVA²⁷, which results in a number of incapacitating conditions. One such condition is spasticity, which should be appropriately evaluated in order improve the functional prognosis for CVA patients²⁰. In the present study, CVA was the most prevalent etiology, being seen in 88.7% of the patients.

The relationship between age and the functional prognosis remains unclear, although there are data indicating that the prognosis is worse for older patients²⁰. In our study, as in those conducted by Rankin, by Bruell and Simon and by Caroll²⁸⁻³⁰, no association was found between age and functional prognosis.

We found no significant association between gender and functional capacity, which is in agreement with the findings of Bourestom, of Adams and Merrett and of Kaste and Waltimo³¹⁻³³.

Among patients in a rehabilitation program, Anderson et al. studied factors considered determinants of functional gains³⁴. The authors found no significant associa-

Table 1. Characteristics of the patients (n=97) by analysis of variance.

·	, ,
Age (years) Mean±SD	52.10±15.362
Gender, n (%) Male Female	59 (60.8) 38 (39.2)
Duration of injury (months) Mean±SD	45.22±52.697
Clinical diagnosis, n (%) Cerebrovascular accident Other	86 (88.7) 11 (11.3)
Topographic diagnosis, n (%) Left-hemisphere paresis Right-hemisphere paresis	47 (48.5) 50 (51.5)

SD: standard deviation.

Table 2. Associations between the variables and the scale by analysis of variance.

	SCESS*
Age	p<0.095
Gender	p<0.580
Duration of injury	p<0.651
Topographic diagnosis	p<0.434

SCESS: Santa Casa Evaluation of Spasticity Scale; *level of statistical significance, p<0.05

tion between the duration of injury and current functional status. Their results are in keeping with those obtained in the present study.

Another variable that might be predictive of functional status is the topography of the lesion (cerebral hemisphere affected). This was not found to be the case in

Table 3. Interscale correlations related to the upper limbs Pearson's correlation.

		SCESS*					
		100% capable	75% capable	50% capable	25% capable	<25% capable	
MAS	0						
	1	0.05*	0.32			0.97	
	1+	0.48	0.06	0.08			
	2			0.05*	0.10	0.19	
	3				0.13	0.16	
	4						
FIM	Independence/ Modified independence	0.16	0.05*	0.48		0.97	
	Minimal supervision/ dependence		0.10	0.05*	0.24		
	Moderate dependence			0.48	0.05*	0.32	
	Maximum/total dependence				0.32	0.05*	

SCESS: Santa Casa Evaluation of Spasticity Scale; MAS: Modified Ashworth scale; FIM: functional independence measure; *level of statistical significance, p<0.05.

Table 4. Interscale correlations related to the lower limbs Pearson's correlation.

		SCESS*					
		100% capable	75% capable	50% capable	25% capable	<25% capable	
MAS	0						
	1	0.05*	0.19			0.48 0.97	
	1+	0.19	0.06	0.16	0.97		
	2	0.24	0.10	0.08	0.19	0.19	
	3			0.48	0.19	0.32	
	4						
FIM	Independence/ Modified independence	0.04*	0.09				
	Minimal supervision/ dependence		0.05*	0.05*			
	Moderate dependence			0.13	0.05*		
	Maximum/total dependence				0.08	0.05*	

SCESS: Santa Casa Evaluation of Spasticity Scale; MAS: Modified Ashworth scale; FIM: functional independence measure; *level of statistical significance, p<0.05.

Table 5. Inter-rater reliability of the SCESS.

	SCESS – test									
	100% capable		75% capable		50% capable		25% capable		<25% capable	
	UL	LL	UL	LL	UL	LL	UL	LL	UL	LL
SCESS – retest										
100% capable	0.06	0.05*			0.97					
75% capable	0.97		0.05*	0.02*	0.97	0.485		0.97		
50% capable			0.97		0.05*	0.05*				
25% capable							0.04*	0.06		
<25% capable									0.04*	0.05*

SCESS: Santa Casa Evaluation of Spasticity Scale; UL: upper limbs; LL: lower limbs; *level of statistical significance, p<0.05.

studies conducted by Adams and Merrett, by Andersen et al. and by Mills and DiGenio^{32,35,36}. However, Denes et al. found that individuals with left-hemisphere CVA presented significantly better functional capacity than did those with right-hemisphere CVA³⁷.

The MAS is a rapid and easily applied means of quantifying spasticity, and it is therefore widely used in clinical practice³⁸. Nakhostin-Ansari et al. compared the original Ashworth scale and the MAS in terms of inter-rater reliability³⁹. The authors found that both scales presented low inter-rater reliability in tests of the elbow flexor muscles (61.6% for the Ashworth scale and 53.9% for the MAS). Mehrholz et al. also demonstrated the limitation of the two scales in terms of inter-rater reliability in measurements of upper-limb spasticity⁴⁰. Hass et al. obtained similar results in relation to the lower limbs and demonstrated that the original Ashworth scale presented better reliability for this parameter⁴¹.

Recent neurophysiological and biomechanical studies, conducted by Pandyan et al. 42 and by Morris 43 , respectively, have called into question the use of the MAS

as the gold standard for evaluating spasticity in clinical practice and in research^{42,43}. According to Pandyan et al., the reduced reliability of the MAS is due to the items '1', '1+' and '2', since the extra classification ('1+') increases the probability of error⁴². However, Bohannon and Smith, the creators of the scale, found that concordance was high when the MAS was applied. Nakhostin-Ansari et al. stated that, in order to achieve such concordance, it is necessary to have training in the use of the MAS, as well as experience and interaction with the scale³⁹.

In the present study, none of the patients received an MAS score of 0 or 4, which would indicate normal or rigid muscle tone, respectively, since such patients would have been excluded from the analysis for not presenting spasticity or for being completely immobilized.

In correlating the MAS with the SCESS (Tables 3 and 4), we found no significance, suggesting that the degree of spasticity does not necessarily predict functional status. We found that patients with lower MAS scores did not always present 100% capacity to perform the activities evaluated. The MAS assesses only the passive resistance

movement to fast muscle, unlike the SCESS which measures the spastic condition of the functional condition. Therefore, a low or no resistance to the muscle during passive motion assessment with MAS may also mean a plegia thus a condition unfavorable to the SCESS features.

Certain aspects evaluated in the FIM, such as sphincter control, communication and social cognition, were unaffected by the degree of spasticity, which, in our opinion, indicates that the SCESS presents low sensitivity.

The SCESS is a scale that is applied by observing the performance of activities of daily living and locomotion. Therefore, it is more specific than is the FIM for activities that are affected by spasticity (Table 3). In Table 4, which presents data on functional status of the lower limbs, the results cited above can be seen.

There was a statistically significant correlation between the FIM and the SCESS, despite the different strategies used in their application. This is likely due to the influence that motor and musculoskeletal aspects have on communication skills, social cognition and sphincter control, although further studies should be conducted in order to increase knowledge of these variables that are so important to the rehabilitation process.

Table 3 shows that there were some patients who presented total independence in the self-care domain of the FIM and yet were found to have <25% capacity according to the SCESS. This finding is attributable to the strategies employed by the patients in performing the proposed activities. In the case of the FIM, the patients simply reported on the manner in which they performed those activities, whereas, for the SCESS, they were instructed to actually extend the limb in order to allow the evaluation of the degree to which spasticity impaired the function. In fact, the patients presented independence in their performance of those activities but only by compensating (not fully extending the elbow).

According to Dombovy, the recovery of motor function in terms of time and quality is better in the lower limbs than in the upper limbs⁴⁴. This can be explained by the fact that the cortical representation of the body segments necessary for fine motor skills is greater than that of those necessary for gross motor skills⁴⁵.

The upper limbs require preserved sensory, proprioceptive and cortical responses in order to maintain their motor function, which is related to proprioception and to the quality of coordination, with the objective of providing fine motor control. The lower limbs, responsible for gross motor functions such as weight support and locomotion, present fewer cortical connections, which would imply better recovery of motor skills⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸.

As can be seen in Table 5, the test-retest (inter-rater) reliability of the SCESS was high for certain items, with a trend toward statistical significance for the remaining items, thereby indicating the sensitivity of the scale. This is of great importance when the principal objective is clinical follow-up evaluation, since it makes it possible to determine the quality of the rehabilitation program, as well as that of the treatment facility itself²⁵. In this case, factors such as age, gender, topography and time of injury become important for monitoring and directing the process of rehabilitation.

It is common for instruments designed to quantify physical incapacity to be used in place of those that specifically evaluate muscle strength, muscle tone and range of movement in order to determine the degree to which the upper and lower limbs are impaired, the former type of instrument often lacking sensitivity⁴⁸. That is what prompted us to modify the original Santa Casa scale. Since they perform different functions and are applied in different skills, we evaluated the upper and lower limbs separately, which is important to assessing the true status of the patients. The SCESS presented good sensitivity for this purpose.

There is no instrument designed to determine the influence that spasticity has of functional capacity, and there is therefore no gold standard with which to draw comparisons, a difficulty also encountered by Riberto et al. in validating the FIM²⁵. Therefore, we used scales that are similar to the one proposed so that the results would also be similar, in order to determine the interscale concordance, characterizing and contributing to the convergent validation, in which the deficiency presented would promote incapacity that is proportional to the clinical and functional status of the patient.

In conclusion, the results of the present study show that the SCESS has good sensitivity and reproducibility in determining the impact that spasticity has on the functional status of CVA patients in rehabilitation.

REFERENCES

- Sehgal N, McGuire JR. Beyond Ashworth electrophysiologic quantification of spasticity. Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am 1998;9:949-979.
- Mayer NH. Clinicophysiologic concepts of spasticity and motor dysfunction in adults with an upper motoneuron lesion. Muscle Nerve 1997;6(Suppl):S1-S13.
- 3. Haley SM, Inacio CA. Evaluation of spasticity and its effect on motor function. In: Glenn MB, Whyte J (Eds). The practical management of spasticity in children and adults. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger; 1990:70-96.
- Braun RM, Botte MJ. Treatment of shoulder deformity in acquired spasticity. Clin Orthop 1999;368:54-65.
- Lance JW. Pathophysiology of spasticity and clinical experience with Baclofen. In: Lance JW, Feldman RG, Young RR, Koella WP (Eds). Spasticity: disordered motor control. Chicago: Year Book, 1980:185-204.
- Braun RM, Botte MJ. Treatment of shoulder deformity in acquired spasticity. Clin Orthop 1999:368:54-65.
- 7. Young RR, Spasticity: a review. Neurology 1994;44(Suppl 9):S12-S20.
- 8. Sheean G. Neurophysiology of Spasticity. In: Barnes MP, Johnson GR (Eds). Upper motor neurone syndrome and spasticity: clinical management and neurophysiology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001:12-78.
- 9. Barraquer-Bordas L. Neurologia fundamental. 3.Ed. Barcelona: Toray; 1976.
- Sanger TD, Delgado MR, Gaebler-Spira D, et al. Classification and definition of disorders causing hypertonia in childhood. Pediatrics 2003;111:89-97.

- Brin MF. Treatment of spasticity using local injections of botulinum toxin.
 Skills Workshop Series Seattle: American Academy of Neurology, 1995.
- O'Brien CF, Gormley ME, Winkler PA, Yablon AS. Fisiologia y tratamiento de la espasticidad. Deerfield: Discovery International, 1996.
- Young RR. Physiologic and pharmacologic approaches on spasticity. In: Scheimberg L, Shahani BT (Eds). Neurologic rehabilitation. Philadelphia: Neurologic Clinics, WB Saunders 1987;5:529-539.
- Meythaler JM. Concept of spastic hypertonia. Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am 2001;12:725-735.
- Hinderer S, Gupto S. Functional outcomes measures to asses interventions for spasticity. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1996;77:1083-1089.
- Mall V, Heinen F, Linder M, et al. Treatment of cerebral palsy with botulinium toxin A: functional benefit and reduction of disability. Pediatr Rehabil 1997;1:235-1237.
- Quagliato EMAB. Toxina botulínica A no tratamento da espasticidade em paralisia cerebral: aspectos práticos. In: Souza AMC, Ferraretto I (eds). São Paulo: Memnon; 1998:38-46.
- Teive HG, Zonta M, Kumagai Y. Tratamento espasticidade. Arq Neuropsiquiatr 1998:56:852-858.
- Bobath B. Adult hemiplegia: evaluation and treatment, 3rd Ed. London: Heinemann Medical, 1990.
- 20. Jongbloed L. Prediction of function after stroke: a clinical review. Stroke 1986;17:765-776.
- Ashworth B. Preliminary trial of carisprodol in multiple sclerosis. Practitioner 1964:192:540-543.
- 22. Bohannon RW, Smith MB. Interrater reliability of modified Ashworth scale of muscle spasticity. Phys Ther 1987;67:206-207.
- Brashear A, Zafonte R, Corcoran M, et al. Inter- and intrarater reliability of the Ashworth scale and the disability assessment scale in patients with upperlimb poststroke spasticity. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2002;83:1349-1354.
- Granger CV, Hamilton BB, Keith RA, Zielezny M, Sherwin FS. Advances in functional assessment for medical rehabilitation. Topics in Geriatric Rehabilitation 1986:1:59-74.
- Riberto M, Miyazaki MH, Jucá SSH, Sakamoto H, Pinto PPN, Battistella LR. Validação Brasileira da Medida de Independência Funcional. Acta Fisiatr 2004; 11:72-76
- Lianza S, Pavan K, Rosseto R, Mekaru D, Wojciechowski. Avaliação da Incapacidade. In: Lianza S (ed). Medicina de Reabilitação. 3 ed. Rio de Janeiro: Guanabara-Koogan 2007:10-25.
- Arnadottir SA, Mercer VS. Effects of footwear on measurements of balance and gait in women between the ages of 65 and 93 Years. Phys Ther 2000; 80:17-77
- 28. Rankin J. Cerebral vascular accidents in patients over the age of 60 prognosis. Scottish Med J 1957;2:200-215.
- 29. Bruell JH, Simon J. Development of objective predictors of recovery in hemiplegic patients. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1960;41:564-569.

- 30. Carroll D. The disability in hemiplegia caused by cerebrovascular disease: serial study of 98 cases. J Chron Dis 1962:13:179-188.
- 31. Bourestom NC. Predictors of long-term recovery in cerebrovascular disease. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1967;48:415-419.
- Adams GF, Merrett JD. Prognosis and survival in the aftermath of hemiplegia. Br Med J 1996;312:5222-5226.
- Kaste M, Waltimo O. Prognosis of patients with middle cerebral artery occlusion. Stroke 1976;7:482-485.
- 34. Anderson TP, Bourestom N, Greenberg FR, Hildyard VG. Predictive factors in stroke rehabilitation. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1974;55:545-553.
- 35. Andersen AL, Hanvik LJ, Brown JR. A statistical analysis of rehabilitation in hemiplegia. Geriatrics 1950;5:24-218.
- Mills VM, DiGenio M. Functional differences in patients with left or right cerebrovascular accidents. Phys Ther 1983;63:481-488.
- 37. Denes G, Semenza C, Stoppa E, Lis A. Unilateral spatial neglect and recovery from hemiplegia: follow-up study. Brain 1982;105:543-552.
- 38. Cramer SC. Editorial comment spasticity after stroke: what's the catch? Stroke 2004;35:139-140.
- Nakhostin-Ansari N, Naghdi S, Moammeri H, Jalaie S. A comparative study on the inter-rater reliability of the Ashworth Scales in assessment of spasticity. Acta Med Iranica 2006;44:246-250.
- Mehrholz J, Wagner K, Meibne D, Grundmann K, Zange C. Reliability of the Modified Tardieu scale and the modified Ashworth scale in adult patients with severe brain injury: a comparison study. Clin Rehabil 2005;19:751-759.
- 41. Haas BM, Bergstrom E, Jamous A, Bennie A. The interrater reliability of the original and of the modified Ashworth scale for the assessment of spasticity in patients with spinal cord injury. Spinal Cord 1996;34:560-564.
- 42. Pandyan AD, Price CI, Barnes MP, Johnson GR. A biomechanical investigation into the validity of the modified Ashworth Scale as a measure of elbow spasticity. Clin Rehabil 2003;17:290-293.
- Morris S. Ashworth and Tardieu scales: their clinical relevance for measuring spasticity in adult and paediatric neurological populations. Phys Ther Rev 2002;7:53-62.
- 44. Dombovy M L. Rehabilitation and the course of recovery after stroke. In: Whisnant JP (Ed). Stroke: populations, cohorts and clinical trials. Oxford, England Butterworth-Heinemann 1993:218-237.
- 45. Newton, RA. Contemporary issues and theories of motor control: assessment of moviment and balance, In: Umphred DA (Ed). Neurological rehabilitation, 4 ed. St Louis, Mosby-Year Book; 1995:81.
- Kusoffsky A, Wadell I, Nilsson BY. The relationship between sensory impairment and motor recovery in patients with hemiplegia. Scand J Rehab Med 1982;14:27-32.
- 47. Fugl-Meyer AR. Post-stroke hemiplegia assessment of properties. Scand J Rehab Med 1981;7:85-93.
- 48. Duncan PW, Goldstein LB, Horner RD, et al. Similar motor recovery of upper and lower extremities after stroke. Stroke 1994;23:1181-1188.