

1 **Full title: European consensus on the concepts and measurement of the**
2 **pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive muscle stretch**

3 *Running title: consensus on pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive muscle*
4 *stretch*

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69 The total number of words of the manuscript (introduction-conclusion): 5050

70 The number of words of the abstract: 250; Figures: 1; Tables: 5; Appendix: 1

71 **Keywords:** physical examination, hyper-resistance, neurological disorders, framework,
72 muscle, spasticity

73 **Abstract**

74 **Background:** To support clinical decision-making in central neurological disorders, physical
75 examination is used to assess responses to passive muscle stretch. However, what exactly is
76 being assessed is expressed and interpreted in different ways. A clear diagnostic framework is
77 lacking. Therefore, the aim was to arrive at unambiguous terminology about the concepts and
78 measurement around pathophysiological neuromuscular response to passive muscle stretch.

79 **Methods:** During two consensus meetings, 37 experts from 12 European countries filled
80 online questionnaires based on a Delphi approach, followed by plenary discussion after
81 rounds. Consensus was reached when agreement $\geq 75\%$.

82 **Results:** The term *hyper-resistance* should be used to describe the phenomenon of impaired
83 neuromuscular response during passive stretch, instead of e.g. ‘spasticity’ or ‘hypertonia’.
84 From there, it is essential to distinguish *non-neural* (tissue-related) from *neural* (central
85 nervous system related) contributions to hyper-resistance. Tissue contributions are elasticity,
86 viscosity and muscle shortening. Neural contributions are velocity dependent *stretch*
87 *hyperreflexia* and non-velocity dependent *involuntary background activation*. The term
88 ‘spasticity’ should only be used next to stretch hyperreflexia, and ‘stiffness’ next to passive
89 tissue contributions. When joint angle, moment and electromyography are recorded,
90 components of hyper-resistance within the framework can be quantitatively assessed.

91 **Conclusions:** A conceptual framework of pathophysiological responses to passive muscle
92 stretch was defined. This framework can be used in clinical assessment of hyper-resistance
93 and will improve communication between clinicians. Components within the framework are
94 defined by objective parameters from instrumented assessment. These parameters need
95 experimental validation in order to develop treatment algorithms based on aetiology of the
96 clinical phenomena.

97

98 **Introduction**

99

100 Impaired motor control is a consequence of most central nervous system movement disorders
101 such as cerebral palsy (CP), stroke (CVA), spinal cord injury (SCI) or multiple sclerosis
102 (MS). A common physical examination includes assessment of the resistance to passive
103 muscle elongation. This examination is used to make judgments on the degree and nature of
104 muscle hyper-resistance, to determine aetiology at the level of the muscular tissue and/or
105 motor control, and to infer consequences for overall motor performance in functional tasks. It
106 is considered important to a meaningful description of the clinical status of the patient and
107 essential to inform decisions on the treatment options [1].

108 Although such physical examination is in widespread clinical use and yields clinically
109 essential information, the concept of what is being assessed cannot be unambiguously
110 phrased. This is expressed in the variety of typically used nomenclature for what is being
111 assessed, e.g. hyper-resistance, spasticity, hypertonia, stiffness, (dynamic) contracture, or
112 hypo-extensibility [2-11]. This is accompanied by a variety of interpretations, i.e. how these
113 findings relate to presumed underlying pathophysiology. Therefore, in clinical practice, the
114 concepts of pathophysiological neuromuscular response to passive muscle stretch must be
115 considered implicit rather than explicit. The lack of a clear diagnostic conceptual framework
116 obstructs effective communication between clinicians, and impedes construction of reliable
117 treatment algorithms. Moreover, quantifying results of an assessment requires grading based
118 on measurement instruments that, by definition, must rely on unambiguous conceptualization.

119 All in all, this diversity in clinical practices calls for a consensus on the conceptualization,
120 interpretation and measurement of the pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to

121 imposed passive elongation, to fully exploit the potential of this diagnostic test in the context
122 of treating patients with neurological diseases.

123

124 *General physiological concepts*

125 The aetiology of increased resistance to passive muscle stretch has both neurological and non-
126 neurological components. The primary neurological component is generally accepted as being
127 caused by supraspinal dysregulation (disinhibition) of the spinal reflex loop, as a direct result
128 of the neurological insult [12, 13]. This reflex loop evokes a *stretch reflex*, an essential
129 mechanism of motor control that occurs when a muscle is lengthened rapidly and/or
130 forcefully. Normally, stretch reflex activity is low when a muscle is passively lengthened. In
131 the case of disinhibition due to a neurological insult, the stretch reflex is more readily elicited.
132 This hyperactive reflex causes muscle contraction and therefore an opposing force to passive
133 elongation. In fact, the complete pathophysiology of neural contributors is much more
134 complex than this simplified description, as several mechanisms can be identified that give
135 rise to involuntary muscle contractions resulting in increased resistance of muscles to their
136 elongation. These mechanisms are referred to as excess, or positive motor symptoms, of the
137 neurological disorder, as opposed to the deficit, or negative symptoms, that reflect the
138 impairment to activate a muscle purposefully.

139 The non-neurological component of muscle hyper-resistance consists of secondary
140 impairments that are thought to occur as a result of muscular adaptations to the neural
141 dysregulation. For instance, muscles might shorten (muscle contractures) or stiffen due to
142 intrinsic changes in the muscle tissue. In children these effects might be amplified as result of
143 maladaptation to growth.

144

145 *Definitions*

146 Pathophysiological responses to passive muscle elongation have been defined and named. The
147 use of the term '*spasticity*' has been used to refer to either an aetiology at spinal level or to a
148 clinical expression at a joint level. Such wide usage of the term has led to its definition being
149 subject to debate for a long time [6, 7]. One of the commonly used definitions of spasticity
150 was provided by Lance in 1980: "*a motor disorder characterized by a velocity dependent*
151 *increase in tonic stretch reflexes (muscle tone) with exaggerated tendon jerks, resulting from*
152 *hyper excitability of the stretch reflex, as one component of the upper motor neurone*
153 *syndrome*" [3]. Clearly, Lance refers to the pathophysiological mechanisms. Sanger et al.
154 (NIH task force, 2003) stayed closer to the clinical phenomena and defined spasticity as
155 "*hypertonia in which one or both of the following signs are present: 1) resistance to*
156 *externally imposed movement increases with increasing speed of stretch and varies with the*
157 *direction of joint movement, and/or 2) resistance to externally imposed movement rises*
158 *rapidly above a threshold speed or joint angle*" [4]. Other features of neuromuscular
159 impairments were defined by them as well, all under the umbrella term '*hypertonia*'. The
160 definitions by Lance and by Sanger et al. are mutually compatible.

161 In 2005, the SPASM consortium introduced a new definition of spasticity using a motor
162 control approach: "*disordered sensori-motor control, resulting from an upper motor neurone*
163 *lesion, presenting as intermittent or sustained involuntary activation of muscles*" [8, 9]. This
164 definition includes the entire range of signs and symptoms that are collectively described as
165 excess features, and not exclusively the hyperactive stretch reflex.

166

167 *Common clinical tests*

168 Several physical examination tests have been constructed to assess spasticity or resistance in
169 clinical practice, such as the (Modified) Ashworth Scale (MAS), the Tardieu Scale and the

170 Spasticity Test (SPAT, a simplification of the Tardieu Scale) [1, 14-25]. In these tests, passive
171 muscle elongations are imposed at one or more velocities by the examiner. Perceived
172 resistance during slow passive elongation is assumed to be related only to non-neural
173 (changed mechanical response of the neuromuscular complex, i.e. stiffness (elasticity) and
174 viscosity) components. In muscles with spasticity, high stretch velocities may additionally
175 cause increased resistance and/or a catch, i.e. a stop in the movement due to the hyperactive
176 stretch reflex [15, 26]. In contrast to the Tardieu Scale and the SPAT, the MAS does not use
177 multiple velocities, and scores a single value, thereby not discriminating between neural and
178 non-neural contributions [21].

179 Although such physical examinations are commonly used in clinical practice, the resistance
180 perceived by the examiner is difficult to relate to either a neural or non-neural origin [7, 27].
181 Moreover, the velocity of stretch as well as the level of activity of the muscle are uncontrolled
182 [7, 16, 19, 23, 28]. Finally, the outcome of these tests is a numeric value scored by the
183 examiner and based on subjective feeling and joint angle measurement with goniometry.
184 Standardisation, reliability, sensitivity, quantification, and objectivity are lacking in these
185 tests.

186

187 *Instrumented tests*

188 To unravel the neural and non-neural contributions to hyper-resistance during passive muscle
189 elongation, instrumented assessments have been developed in several research settings [7, 16,
190 22, 24, 26-30]. These measurements employ electrophysiological signals (electromyography
191 (EMG)) to assess the stretch reflex, in combination with joint movement (kinematics) and
192 applied torques (net joint moment). In this way the resistance to muscle elongation can be
193 objectified and the neural and non-neural aspects specifically discriminated, in order to arrive

194 at the correct treatment option, based on aetiology [28, 29]. Next to assessment of the stretch
195 reflex, the measurement of the Hoffman-reflex, using submaximal electric stimulation of the
196 nerve, is used to study the excitability of the Ia afferents [25, 31, 32].

197 Although there have been multiple efforts to arrive at clear concepts, and instruments are
198 developed to express objectivity, there is yet no unambiguous and generally accepted
199 conceptual frame work that incorporates a meaningful decomposition of perceived
200 phenomena with associated operationalization. Therefore, two consensus meetings were
201 organized with the aim (1) to arrive at unambiguous terminology about the concepts of, and
202 phenomena around, pathophysiological neuromuscular response to passive muscle stretch and
203 (2) to define requirements from a clinical perspective that enable the development of
204 instruments to quantitatively measure the defined concepts in clinical practice.

205 **Methods**

206

207 Thirty-seven participants from twelve European countries joined two consensus meetings, on
208 22-23 May 2014 in Amsterdam, the Netherlands and a follow-up meeting on 8 September
209 2015 in Heidelberg, Germany. Participants, from, but not restricted to, the network of the
210 organizers (JN, JH, JB, LB, KD), were invited for the meetings based on their publications
211 related to this field, and their experience in either treating or assessing spasticity in a clinical
212 or research setting. Prior to the first meeting, participants were asked to fill in an online
213 questionnaire (NETQ Internet Surveys, NetQuestionnaires Nederland BV, Utrecht, the
214 Netherlands) about their background and experience with clinical spasticity assessment.
215 Characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1. During the meetings, a modified
216 Delphi approach [33] was used to arrive at consensus about (1) terminology about the
217 concepts of, and phenomena around, response to passive muscle stretch and (2) boundary
218 conditions from clinical perspective to enable development of instruments to quantitatively
219 measure the defined concepts in clinical practice.

220

221 *Part 1*

222 At the first meeting (31 participants), a schematic overview (Figure 1A) was presented to the
223 participants. This overview was developed by the organizers of the consensus meetings (JH,
224 JB, KD, LB, JN) based on careful review of the literature (as described in the Introduction)
225 and their own experience in the field, with the aim to initiate the discussion on concepts and
226 (new) terminology. Using this overview, a discussion was initiated on the terminology,
227 concepts and phenomena around pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive
228 muscle stretch. Thereafter, a Delphi questionnaire, consisting of 12 statements using a Likert

229 scale (i.e. strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree) (Table 2) was
230 anonymously filled in by the participants (NETQ Internet Surveys, NetQuestionnaires
231 Nederland BV, Utrecht, the Netherlands). The included domains were: terminology on the
232 concepts, non-neural and neural contributions, and passive versus active impairment.

233 Subsequently, results of this first round were collated, presented to participants and discussed
234 plenary. Consensus was reached when agreement was 75% or higher. Unclear questions from
235 round 1 were rephrased and a second Delphi round of 8 statements was conducted (Table 3)
236 on the same domains. Next, results of the second round were presented to the participants and
237 discussed plenary to further reach consensus on those statements that were unclear or had
238 limited agreement.

239 During the second meeting (26 participants), a summary of the results of the two Delphi
240 rounds and the discussions of the first meeting was presented, followed by a plenary
241 discussion for final agreement on conceptualization and terminology.

242

243 *Part 2*

244 To determine the requirements for instrumented measurement of the defined concepts in
245 clinical and research practice, designs and data from previous instrumented setups developed
246 in research settings were presented to the participants at the first meeting (such as described in
247 the Introduction section of this paper). Subsequently, a Delphi round on concepts of
248 measurement was carried out which included 75 questions or statements (Table 4) related to
249 the following domains: pathology, muscles, in- and exclusion criteria, test time allowance,
250 patient position, movement profile, theoretical importance of signals and sensors, practical
251 feasibility of signals and sensors, feedback, outcome parameters, report, and training.

252 Questions were multiple choice or used the Likert scale. Results of the questionnaire were
253 discussed plenary.

254 During the second meeting, a second Delphi round about concepts of measurements was
255 conducted which included 18 rephrased statements that were unclear to the participants or had
256 not reached consensus in round 1. The included domains were: protocol, feedback and report.

257 As instrumented measurement of spasticity in clinical settings is still fairly innovative, the
258 aim of part 2 was not to reach full consensus on all questions but to get insight into important
259 aspects for future development of a clinically-applicable instrumented spasticity assessment.

260 **Results**

261

262 Participant characteristics

263 Twenty-seven participants completed the online questionnaire about background, profession
264 and experience with clinical spasticity assessment. Most responders were clinicians (86%) as
265 well as researchers (86%), 71% of the responders clinically assessed patients with spasticity
266 and 48% carried out clinical treatment of spasticity. Years of experience in assessing or
267 treating spasticity ranged between 1 and 30 years, with a mean of 13 years and median of 15
268 years. The (modified) Tardieu scale was the most commonly used clinical test (57%) followed
269 by the (modified) Ashworth scale (53%). Tests were mostly performed by physiotherapists
270 (76%) or medical doctors (71%), most of the time before and after treatment (67% always
271 before and after) and sometimes during consultations (62%). Most responders were
272 unsatisfied with the current clinical tests (47%) or were neutral (33%). Of the participants
273 using a form of instrumented assessment (81%), 24% were unsatisfied and 38% neutral.

274

275 Part 1: Conceptualization and terminology

276 Twenty-eight participants completed the first, and 30 participants completed the second
277 Delphi round on the conceptualization of the pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to
278 passive muscle stretch (Table 2 and 3).

279 In the initial plenary discussion following the presentation of the schematic overview (Figure
280 1A), the following was discussed: 1. *Increased resistance perceived by an examiner during*
281 *physical examination*, i.e. passive muscle stretch, is, apart from the term spasticity, often
282 termed *hypertonia*, which implies that the resistance results from involuntary muscle
283 activation. 2. However, since hypertonia may also exist at rest (without muscle stretch), it

284 may not be equated to the resistance perceived during stretch. Therefore, the term *hyper-*
285 *resistance* was suggested. 3. Although still the mostly commonly used term in clinical
286 practice, it was also suggested to be careful with the term *spasticity*, since it may not cover all
287 aspects of the perceived resistance.

288 During the first Delphi round (Table 2), it was concluded that the term ‘hyper-resistance’ is
289 preferred over the terms ‘hypertonia’ and ‘spasticity’ to describe the phenomenon of impaired
290 neuromuscular response during passive stretch. Hyper-resistance is therefore defined as
291 increased resistance perceived during passive muscle stretch.

292 It was agreed that it is essential to distinguish non-neural (tissue-related) from neural (CNS
293 related) contributions to hyper-resistance. It was proposed that the different contributions
294 could be described by three subgroups: muscle tissue properties (non-neural), hyperstretch
295 reflex (neural and induced by motion) and involuntary activation (neural) (Figure 1B). Muscle
296 tissue properties consist of muscle stiffness (elasticity) and viscosity. Participants remarked
297 that joint stiffness and viscosity are not only the result of muscle tissue properties, but are also
298 influenced by the ligaments and surrounding tissue. However, hyper-resistance reflects
299 neuromuscular unit function only when no bony and ligament response is assumed (second
300 Delphi round, Table 3).

301 During the first Delphi round (Table 2) consensus was reached that it is essential to
302 distinguish hyperstretch reflex and other muscle activity within the neural (CNS related)
303 contributions to hyper-resistance. Clonus and clasp-knife are specific manifestations of the
304 exaggerated stretch reflex. In the discussion prior to the first Delphi round it was suggested
305 that hyper-resistance is the net effect of the agonist and antagonist muscles, and co-
306 contraction might be present during examination. Therefore, co-contraction should be
307 considered as part of the involuntary activation subgroup. In the second Delphi round (Table
308 3), the majority of the participants agreed that hyper-resistance reflects the neuromuscular unit

309 function of an agonist muscle group only when no effects of antagonistic muscle(s)
310 (shortening) is assumed.

311 In the discussion prior to the second Delphi round, three alternatives were proposed for
312 terminology of the two neural contribution subgroups to hyper-resistance, i.e. “hyperstretch
313 reflex” and “involuntary activation” (Figure 1B). In the second Delphi round (Table 3),
314 consensus was reached that the *neural contributions to hyper-resistance* must be
315 distinguished in “*velocity dependent involuntary activation*” and “*non-velocity dependent*
316 *involuntary activation*”. Also the terms “*stretch hyperreflexia*” and “*involuntary background*
317 *activation*” were considered to be appropriate as alternative terms to distinguish different
318 neural contributions (Figure 1B) and further used in the final discussions in combination with
319 the terms “*(non-)velocity dependent*” (Figure 1C). Participants showed less preference for the
320 terms “stretch reflex involuntary activation” and “non-stretch reflex involuntary activation”.

321 In the final discussions of the conceptualization phase (following the two Delphi rounds), the
322 characteristics of subgroups of hyper-resistance were further specified (Figure 1C).

323 (Muscle) tissue properties (non-neural) contain elasticity, viscosity and shortening. The neural
324 contributions are subdivided into stretch hyperreflexia (velocity dependent) and involuntary
325 background activation (non-velocity dependent). Postural reflexes, non-selective activation,
326 tonic reflexes and fixed background tone are all part of the involuntary background activation.

327 The word ‘spasticity’ is not part of the conceptual framework, since almost all participants
328 (strongly) agreed that the term ‘spasticity’ should be used with care and only when clearly
329 defined (Table 3). Also, participants agreed that the term refers to involuntary, stretch-
330 velocity induced muscle activity as part of the neural contributions to hyper-resistance
331 (definition according to Lance and Sanger et al. [3, 4]) (Table 2 and 3). Therefore, within the

332 framework, spasticity refers to velocity dependent stretch hyperreflexia as part of hyper-
333 resistance, and should only be used next to the term ‘stretch hyperreflexia’.

334 Also, the term ‘stiffness’ is not part of the conceptual framework. It is mechanically defined
335 as the linear relation between joint angle and joint moment (i.e. elasticity), however in
336 practice, the term ‘stiffness’ is often used in a broader perspective to refer to various (muscle)
337 tissue properties. In this case, it should only be used next to the term (muscle) tissue related
338 contributions to hyper-resistance.

339 Finally, it was discussed whether passive measurement is representative of the problems
340 occurring during active, functional tasks. Hyper-resistance (ICF body functions and structures
341 level, WHO 2001 [34]) only partly determines any impaired muscle function during
342 performance of activities (ICF activity level) (Table 2). Further research should compare the
343 hyper-resistance measured during passive and active movements.

344

345 Part 2: Requirements for instrumented measurement of hyper-resistance

346 Twenty-eight participants completed the first questionnaire, and 19 participants completed the
347 second questionnaire about concepts of measurement. Outcomes (Tables 4 and 5) showed that
348 an instrumented assessment of hyper-resistance must be applicable to children (>3years) and
349 adults with cerebral palsy, stroke, SCI and MS. The main muscle groups that need to be
350 assessed are (lower limb) medial and lateral gastrocnemius, soleus, rectus femoris, hamstrings
351 (semimembranosus and semitendinosus) and to a lesser extent hip adductors, as well as (upper
352 limb) elbow and wrist flexors. It is required that patients must be in a comfortable position
353 that promotes muscle relaxation during the test.

354 The test procedure must start from the minimum end of the range of motion (corresponding to
355 the shortest muscle length) to the maximum end of the range of motion (corresponding to the

356 longest muscle length). The assessment is not applicable to joints with fixed deformities or
357 muscle contractures that limit the range of motion in the direction of movement to less than
358 10 degrees. At least two different stretch velocities are required (slow and fast), the number of
359 stretches must be kept to a minimum and a rest period is necessary between repetitions. It is
360 important to hold the end of the stretch for a minimum amount of time in order to capture
361 differences in type of catch (e.g. 2-5 sec.). Feedback on the achieved stretch velocity, muscle
362 activity (agonist and antagonist), range of motion in direction of movement and force applied
363 in main direction of movement are essential.

364 From the first Delphi round (Table 4), requirements for outcome parameters of instrumented
365 assessment concerning neural contributions (either available in a report or in raw data that can
366 be processed post-hoc) are: amount of reflex activity measured by EMG (i.e. mean amplitude
367 over a certain period), timing of EMG activation, duration of EMG activity and increase in
368 EMG amplitude due to velocity and due to position separately. Essential non-neural based
369 parameters are start and end joint angle, joint range of motion (ROM) and angle of catch
370 (AOC) [28], as well as maximal angular velocity. A clinical report of instrumented
371 assessment should contain at least discrete values of the recommended outcome parameters
372 and comparisons of the data with typically developing/healthy subjects, as well as pre- or
373 post-treatment comparisons.

374 Following on this, in the second Delphi round (Table 5), it was agreed that for a slow stretch,
375 the following five outcome parameters would be sufficient in a report: ROM, maximal
376 angular velocity, average root mean square EMG, stretch reflex threshold (i.e. joint angle at
377 which EMG onset is first detected) and average work. Eighteen percent of the participants
378 also indicated that stiffness (i.e. elasticity: the linear relation between joint angle and joint
379 moment) might be a valuable outcome parameter for a slow stretch. For a fast stretch, six
380 outcome parameters should be included: maximal angular velocity, average root mean square

381 EMG, stretch reflex threshold, average work, AOC and intensity of catch. As a difference
382 between slow and fast stretch three outcome parameters should be included: difference
383 between ROM and AOC, difference in average root mean square EMG, difference in work.

384 By these requirements, the three components in the conceptual framework of the
385 pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive muscle stretch (muscle tissue
386 properties, stretch hyperreflexia and involuntary background activation) could be linked to
387 instrumented measurement of the joint angle, net joint moment and EMG to quantify the
388 components of hyper-resistance (Figure 1C).

389

390

391 **Discussion**

392

393 A conceptual framework of the pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive
394 muscle stretch was defined. This framework enables unambiguous terminology and a clear
395 definition of the contributions to the clinical phenomenon of hyper-resistance that can be used
396 in clinical practice and instrumented assessment. This will optimize communication between
397 clinicians, improve diagnostics and objectify treatment outcomes.

398 In summary, the participants concluded that the term ‘hyper-resistance’ should be used to
399 describe the phenomenon of the pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive
400 muscle stretch, instead of spasticity or hypertonia. Furthermore, it was considered essential to
401 distinguish non-neural (tissue-related) from neural (central nervous system related)
402 contributions to hyper-resistance. Tissue properties consist of elasticity, viscosity and muscle
403 shortening. The neural contributions are two-fold: velocity dependent stretch hyperreflexia
404 and non-velocity dependent involuntary background activation. The term ‘spasticity’ should
405 be used with care, only when clearly defined, next to the term ‘stretch hyperreflexia’. The
406 same holds for the term ‘stiffness’, that should only be used next to tissue related
407 contributions to hyper-resistance.

408 The components of hyper-resistance in the framework can be quantitatively assessed using
409 instrumented measurement of the joint angle, net joint moment and EMG during slow and fast
410 passive muscle stretch. Instruments like gyroscopes, accelerometers, force sensors and EMG
411 sensors can be used to obtain these signals [16, 26-28, 30]. A list of outcome parameters to be
412 derived from these signals was determined.

413

414 *Clinical implications*

415 The framework and the related requirements for instrumented assessment as defined by the
416 consensus describe and measure the pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive
417 muscle stretch. Some aspects of the defined parameters have already been validated in various
418 patient groups, compared to clinical scores and assessed pre-post treatment [22]. Further
419 experimental validation of the proposed parameters to measure hyper-resistance, could be
420 used to advance treatment algorithms that are based on aetiology of the clinical phenomena.
421 In clinical practice however, physical examination is only one part of the clinical routine,
422 reflecting only some aspects of the ‘body functions and structures’ level of the ICF, upon
423 which clinicians base their diagnoses and prognoses of treatment plans [34]. As such, clinical
424 decision-making in relevant patient groups is not solely based on passive tests, but also
425 involves clinical gait analyses [35] and assessment of the ‘activity’ and ‘participation’
426 domains of the ICF.

427 In the online questionnaire filled in prior to the first consensus meeting, 47% of the
428 participants indicated to be unsatisfied with the current clinical tests (Table 1). Furthermore,
429 24% of the responders were unsatisfied with the currently available instrumented assessments.
430 These findings might be related to experience with the commonly used Ashworth scale which
431 is not standardized, not reliable, not discriminative and poorly related to reflex muscle activity
432 [21]. Dissatisfaction with instrumented assessment might be related to too complex
433 instruments that are not suitable for clinical use (like robotic systems), or too simple measures
434 that are not precise or do not measure multiple parameters (like goniometry) [16]. Also,
435 instrumented measurements can be time consuming which may limit its use in clinical
436 practice. These factors stress the fact that clear terminology on the concepts of the
437 pathophysiological responses is needed, as well as development of instrumented measurement
438 that is meaningful towards these concepts and easily applicable in clinical practice. To further

439 assess clinical and research applicability, it is essential to formally investigate the clinical
440 feasibility, patient and assessor usability and friendliness of any developed instruments.

441 Low correlations between clinical scales like the Ashworth and instrumented assessments
442 have been reported [18, 21, 23]. The new framework helps explain these findings, and may
443 lead to recommendations for use of existing clinical scales or development of new scales.
444 Assessment of the sensitivity of parameters, measured with an instrument, to different
445 treatments, might lead to classification of treatments based on the three components of the
446 framework, e.g. botulinum toxin type-A, baclofen and selective dorsal rhizotomy (related to
447 neural contributions) or orthopaedic surgery, casts or splints (related to non-neural
448 contributions) [36].

449 The defined requirements on instrumented measurement also provide some guidelines for the
450 assessment of patients such as patient position, ROM, muscle stretch velocities and use of
451 outcome parameters needed for clinical decision-making (related to the framework). The
452 posture of the patient influences the muscle length [10, 37], and should therefore be
453 standardized. Some studies also already described standardized postures and movements for
454 some clinical hyper-resistance tests [15, 16, 38, 39]. With regard to stretch velocity and
455 interpretation of outcome parameters, it needs to be realized that in some cases it might be
456 difficult to differentiate the neural and non-neural components of hyper-resistance, for
457 example if a fast velocity cannot be obtained due to altered muscle properties (shortening,
458 elasticity) or high background activation.

459 It was not the aim of the consensus meeting to develop a new definition of ‘spasticity’ to be
460 used in clinical and research practice. However, agreement was reached that the term
461 ‘spasticity’ should refer to stretch reflex activity, in according to Lance’s and Sanger’s
462 definitions (Tables 2 and 3). More importantly, the consensus stated to use the term
463 ‘spasticity’ with care. Avoiding the word ‘spasticity’ may not be easy in clinical practice, as it

464 is still widely used. Therefore, it is advised to only use the term when clearly defined, and
465 next to the term ‘stretch hyperreflexia’ (Figure 1C).

466

467 *Further directions*

468 Some components in the proposed framework need further clarification. The non-velocity
469 dependent, involuntary background activation that can sometimes be observed during slow
470 passive muscle stretch, might also be influenced by other phenomena [10]. Also, if patients
471 are not able to completely relax during the testing; assist or oppose an imposed movement; or
472 experience pain during the movement, it might be difficult to discriminate this muscular
473 activation from pathological involuntary background activation. Therefore, it should be a
474 future aim to develop methods that can distinguish underlying factors in background muscle
475 activation.

476 Different requirements for detecting the different non-neural and neural contributions to
477 hyper-resistance were proposed. Two stretch velocities were advised (slow and fast).
478 However, it is yet not defined what velocity and movement profile should be applied. In
479 physical examination the movement profile is determined by constraints of human
480 performance of the examiner, as opposed to motorized tests in which a particular movement
481 profile can be imposed [40-43]. However, a motorized test is less feasible in clinical practice
482 and constant velocities do not represent natural movement profiles [44]. To standardize the
483 movement profile in manual testing feedback on achieved stretch velocity, range and direction
484 of movement can be provided. This might be different for each muscle, per age range and
485 patient population, as a consequence of muscle length, initial position, muscle volume and
486 weight of the body segment. For future research it is advised to establish further guidelines on
487 movement velocity, either in ranges or thresholds.

488 Previous research suggested that reflex activity is both length and velocity dependent [10, 37,
489 38]. The effect of muscle length might possibly be established using the slow passive
490 movement, taking into account the delay between the trigger and the electrical response and
491 the delay between the electrical and mechanical response of specific muscles [26, 45]. For
492 example, the delay between maximal joint angular velocity and stretch reflex threshold might
493 be an additional valuable outcome parameter in instrumented assessment. Furthermore, as
494 mentioned before, the posture of the patient influences the muscle length [10, 37], and should
495 therefore be standardized.

496 Clinical research will most certainly benefit from the recommended framework and
497 instrumented assessment. It ensures the use of similar terminology and standardization in
498 measurement, leading to data comparison and data pooling and, with that, a framework to
499 investigate many clinically relevant research questions. This in turn will support clinicians by
500 providing detailed information on the underlying pathology and effectiveness of treatment.

501 Further, instrumentation and standardization of performance of passive muscle stretch in
502 clinical practice will enable pre-post intervention comparisons and may optimize precision
503 diagnostics and patient-specific treatment. This requires experimental validation of the
504 proposed outcome parameters obtained from instrumented measured joint angles, joint
505 moments and EMG, which is subject of further study.

506

507 *Limitations of the study*

508 Since both researchers and non-physicians were invited to participate in the consensus, not all
509 participants personally treat spasticity in daily clinical practice (48% does, Table 1).

510 However, all participants are experienced in either assessing or measuring hyper-resistance in
511 a clinical (71%) or research setting (81%). Furthermore, 86% of the participants were
512 clinicians responsible either for clinical decision-making, executing the physical examinations

513 or working as part of a multi-disciplinary team that treats spasticity. Since the consensus was
514 focussed on concepts of assessment and measurement, the participants very well represent the
515 professionals in the field related to this topic. As we believe that close collaboration between
516 clinicians and (applied) researchers is key to a better understanding of the complex
517 phenomena, and hence better treatment in the future, we consider the heterogenetic
518 composition an asset of the study.

519 The first schematic overview presented was developed by the organizers of the consensus
520 meetings, as were the first round of Delphi questionnaires. This might have introduced bias.
521 However, the aim of the first overview and the first generation of statements (based on careful
522 review of the literature and own experience) was to discuss, to rephrase the statements and to
523 reach consensus. The Delphi method [33] is specifically designed to work in this way.

524
525

526 **Conclusion**

527 A conceptual framework of the pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive
528 muscle stretch was defined, based on European consensus meetings with experts in the field.
529 The neutral term hyper-resistance should be used to describe the phenomenon of impaired
530 neuromuscular responses during passive stretch. It is essential to distinguish non-neural from
531 neural contributions to hyper-resistance. This framework can be used to standardize and
532 objectify the clinical assessment of hyper-resistance and will improve communication
533 between clinicians and researchers. Components within the framework are defined by
534 objective parameters that can be derived from instrumented assessment. These parameters
535 need experimental validation after which they can be used as part of the development of
536 treatment algorithms that are based on the aetiology of the clinical phenomena.

537

538

539 **Acknowledgements**

540

541 This project was supported by the Phelps Stichting voor Spastici, The Netherlands (grant
542 number 2012026), and by Fonds NutsOhra, The Netherlands (grant number 1301-054), to JN,
543 JS, JB, JH, LB and KD. LB was also supported by the Flamish Research Foundation (FWO),
544 Belgium, grant 12R4215N.

545 The organization of the first consensus meeting in Amsterdam was partly supported by
546 Allergan and by Medtronic. A location for the second consensus meeting was kindly provided
547 by Dr. Sebastian I. Wolf and Dr. Thomas Dreher of Heidelberg University.

548

549 **Figure caption**

550

551 **Figure 1.** (A) Schematic overview to discuss terminology in concepts of and phenomena
552 around pathophysiological neuromuscular response to passive muscle stretch; (B) Alternative
553 terms for hyperstretch reflex and involuntary activation as part of hyper-resistance; (C) Final
554 conceptual framework of pathophysiological neuromuscular responses to passive muscle
555 stretch.

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