

# 47. Stroke

## Authors

*Gunnar Grimby, MD, PhD, Professor Emeritus, Department of Clinical Neuroscience and Rehabilitation, Institute of Neuroscience and Physiology, Sahlgrenska Academy, Gothenburg University, Gothenburg, Sweden*

*Carin Willén, PT, PhD, Department of Occupational Therapy and Physiotherapy, Institute of Neuroscience and Physiology, Sahlgrenska Academy, Gothenburg University, Gothenburg, Sweden*

*Margareta Engardt, PT, PhD, Stockholm, Sweden*

*Katharina Stibrant Sunnerhagen, MD, PhD, Professor, Sahlgrenska Academy, Gothenburg University, Gothenburg, Sweden, Sunnaas Rehabilitation Hospital, Faculty of Medicine, Oslo University, Oslo, Norway*

## Summary

People with residual symptoms after a stroke are deconditioned and have reduced physical capacity. Many suffer varying degrees of disability after a stroke. However, many stroke patients are able to adapt and remain physically active. The benefits of strength and aerobic fitness training for stroke patients have previously been the subject of much debate. Exertion was considered contraindicated due to the risk of triggering spasticity. However, none of the studies published over recent years have been able to confirm that this is the case. Strength training of the lower extremities has been shown to yield significantly improved functions. Aerobic fitness training improves the tolerance for daily activities as it enables people who have had a stroke to carry out day-to-day activities with less exertion.

## Definition

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines stroke as a condition characterised by rapidly developing symptoms that last for more than 24 hours or lead to death, with no apparent cause other than that of vascular origin. There are three main causes of stroke: 1) brain infarction, representing approximately 85 per cent of all strokes in Scandinavia and usually due to cardiac embolism (approx. 30%), macrovascular disease (approx. 25%)

and microvascular injury (approx. 20%). Other causes represent approximately 5 per cent of all strokes, and the remainder of unidentified causes. The other two most common causes are: 2) cerebral haemorrhage (10%), and 3) subarachnoid haemorrhage (5%), resulting from a ruptured arterial aneurysm. The third cause often presents completely differently than the first two, as the damage to the brain can be diffuse.

### *Prevalence/Incidence*

Each year, approximately 30,000 people in Sweden suffer a stroke, of whom 20,000 for the first time (1). The average age of stroke victims is 75 years (men 73 years, women 77 years). However, stroke also affects younger age groups, with 20 per cent of strokes occurring in people under the age of 65. The incidence is also higher in men than women. This particular somatic disease group represents the highest number of clinical care days at Swedish hospitals and is the most common cause of neurological disabilities. The reported prevalence totals approximately 100,000, of whom 20,000 require considerable levels of assistance (1). Thus a large number of stroke sufferers are left with varying degrees of post-stroke disability. However, with some adaptation, many of these people can continue to be physically active.

### *Symptomatology*

Different functions in the brain are affected depending on where the injury is located. It is common that the motor centre of the brain is affected, resulting in some degree of hemiparesis, along with reduced sensibility, impaired balance and coordination, as well as speech and vision disturbances. Stroke patients may also display reduced cognitive capacity, denial of the affected side of the body, depression and emotional disturbances, as well as different types of pain.

### *Treatment principles*

Space does not permit a detailed description of the treatment principles associated with stroke here in this chapter. For this, the reader is referred instead to clinical guidelines on the topic (1–4). Recent research has clearly shown that the best initial treatment and early rehabilitation measures are those provided by special stroke units that use a multidisciplinary approach (5). The work of the stroke units should then be followed by an efficient chain of care that provides continued rehabilitation and medical follow-up at special rehabilitation centres, as well as in primary care, municipal care, and through home-care services. Physical activities should also be made easier for stroke patients, for example, by providing them access to primary care centres, gyms and health clubs where they can train to improve their strength, aerobic fitness, balance, coordination and relaxation, in enjoyable, modified exercise programmes.

Frequent physiotherapy may also be necessary. Despite paralysis/muscular weakness and loss of fine motor ability being typical residual symptoms after a stroke, there has been much uncertainty as to the benefits of strength and aerobic fitness training for stroke patients. Exertion was considered contraindicated due to the risk of triggering spasticity. However, no recently published studies have been able to confirm that this is the case (6–10). Strength training of the lower extremities has been shown to significantly improve functioning in stroke patients without leading to increased spasticity. The participation of different occupational groups is required in order to maintain the ability to take part in different home activities. Special rehabilitation programmes often enable younger stroke patients to return to work and even resume previous leisure activities.

## *Effects of physical activity*

Once stroke patients have gone through the initial period of rehabilitation, an aerobic fitness training programme can improve their endurance and functional capacity. This can also result in increased self-confidence to activate themselves and take part in physical activities (10, 11).

Training on a treadmill has been used successfully to increase maximal oxygen uptake in stroke patients. Twenty-five people (12) who had suffered a stroke at least 6 months earlier and who still had a hemiparetic gait took part in 40-minute sessions on the treadmill, 3 times a week for 6 months. The results showed an increase in maximal oxygen uptake (peak  $\text{VO}_2$ ) and a decrease in energy expenditure at the same exertion level compared to a control group of 20 people with only low-intensity training. Readers are also referred to a Cochrane Review showing the need for additional studies in order to determine which type of training yields the greatest fitness results. However, improved aerobic fitness does appear to lead to improved walking ability (13).

Physical endurance was improved and heart rate lower at constant load, after 12 weeks of cycle training (14). In addition, the study subjects reported an improved self-perception and general well-being. The increased self-confidence and endurance also seemed to give individuals more confidence and energy to improve other activities as well.

A combined strength and aerobic fitness training programme involving 35 study subjects, all of whom had suffered a stroke at least 6 months earlier and had multiple comorbidities (concurrent illnesses) led to significant improvement in maximal oxygen uptake, increased muscle strength, and weight loss (15).

The studies described below exemplify the effects of physical activity in stroke patients. However, the number of subjects in several of these studies was relatively small. More studies are therefore needed. For further information about the background and effects of fitness training, please refer to subject review articles (17, 18).

**Table 1. The effect of fitness and strength training in stroke patients.**

Form of training	Intensity	Frequency (times/week)	Duration	Measured pulse (n)	Result	Design	Ref.
<b>Fitness</b>							
Bicycle training (ergometer) Control group: relaxation	60–80% of max HR*	3	30 min. 12 weeks	142	↑ Work load → Functionally independent	RCT**	
Bicycle training	Progressing to → 70% max HR	3	30 min. 12 weeks	42	↑ 13% of VO <sub>2</sub> max ↓ Blood pressure ↑ Muscular strength → Spasticity	RCT	11
Walking on treadmill	60–70% of max HR	3	40 min. 12 weeks	21	↑ Peak VO <sub>2</sub> ↓ Energy consumption (20%)	***	12
Circuit training	Functional strength and mobility	3	60 min. 4 weeks	12	↑ Walking endurance ↑ Walking velocity ↑ No. of step tests	RCT	16
<b>Strength</b>							
Weight lifting machines	Reciprocal knee extension/flexion	3	40 min. 6 weeks	15	↑ Muscle strength ↑ Walking capacity ↑ Physical activity → Spasticity	***	7
Isokinetic training Control group: Concentric training	Eccentric training	2	40 min. 6 weeks	20	↑ Except muscle strength ↑ Paretic leg load ↑ Walking velocity → Spasticity	RCT	
<b>Combined fitness and strength</b>							
Circuit training	Aerobics Strength training, lower extremities	3	60–80 min. 12 weeks	13	↑ Muscle strength ↑ Walking velocity ↑ Physical activity ↑ Life quality → Spasticity	RCT	9
Circuit training	30 min. fitness 30 min. strength 20 min. flexing	3	60–80 min. 12 weeks	35	↑ Peak VO <sub>2</sub> ↑ Muscle strength ↑ Hamstring/ low back flexibility	RCT	15

\* Max HR = Maximal Heart Rate (220 – age ± 12).

\*\* RCT = Randomised Controlled Trial, i.e. a trial with a randomly selected study and control group.

\*\*\* = Not controlled study.

\*\*\*\* = Peak VO<sub>2</sub> (maximal oxygen uptake).

Since many stroke patients have comorbidities, i.e. concurrent illnesses, such as diabetes, hypertension or cardiovascular disease, the possibility of physical activity and the effects of such activity are also dependent on these other conditions. The effect of muscular training depends ultimately on how well the patient regains motor control. The degree of paralysis, sensory disturbances, balance, etc., in addition to comorbidity, determine the type of activity possible. For further information about the background and effects of strength training, please refer to subject review articles (19, 20).

## Indications

Physical activity has a documented *primary preventive* effect against cardiovascular diseases. This primary prevention of stroke is described in a study on 11,000 American men with an average age of 58. Those who walked 20 km a week were at significantly lower risk of suffering a stroke at follow-up 11 years later (21). Four independent cohort studies show a reverse and dose-dependent relationship between physical activity and the risk of stroke, i.e. a little is better than none at all, and a lot is better than a little. Two other studies revealed a reverse but not dose-dependent relationship between physical activity and the risk of stroke (22).

Although the degree of paralysis and sensory disturbances may vary from near normal function to severe disability and significantly reduced mobility, the same principal indications apply to stroke patients as to healthy individuals, i.e. that any physical activity not restricted by disability will improve muscle function and general fitness. Since vascular disease is common in stroke patients, the indications for secondary prevention in these people are generally consistent with the indications for these diseases, as well as for diabetes and hypertension. However, scientific evidence showing that physical activity itself has a *secondary preventive* effect on stroke recurrence is lacking.

## Prescription

At present, there are limited possibilities for continued training once stroke patients have been discharged from a hospital or rehabilitation clinic. Many stroke patients have residual symptoms and find it difficult to keep up with a normal exercise class or other desired physical activity. The risk of feeling dejected and experiencing a lower quality of life due to reduced fitness and strength can easily be avoided by creating opportunities for stroke patients with residual symptoms to continue training.

Normal activities that the individual enjoys are recommended, such as walking, climbing stairs, dancing, circuit training, gardening, arm and leg pedaling, training on the exercise bike, walking on the treadmill, wheelchair exercising, group exercise classes and water aerobics. Exercise that can be done with others is both socially and psychologically stimulating. However, the intensity of the training should be adapted to the individual and relevant symptoms. It is important to remember that, along with more organised physical activity/training,

everyday physical activities are also very valuable. Such activities may consist of gardening, household chores, going for a walk or playing with one’s grandchildren. If the intensity of the activity is such that the patient is slightly out of breath but can still carry on a conversation, it is quite sufficient for attaining the desired effect and maintain endurance.

The relative heart rate (percentage of max HR), level of exertion, or degree of breathlessness experienced by the patient can be used as a guide when deciding on an appropriate training intensity. Using relative heart rate in patients treated with beta blockers may be difficult, however, since beta blockers reduce both maximal heart rate and heart rate during submaximal exercise.

According to Åstrand, calculations of maximal oxygen uptake (“aerobic fitness value”) based on submaximal exercise testing are also misleading. The same applies to people with atrial flutter. Consequently, the best guide is the subjective perceived level of exertion (Rating of Perceived Exertion, RPE). (Please refer to the chapter on Assessing and controlling physical activity). Measuring the maximal oxygen uptake is usually not possible as motor functions and cardiac limitations, if present, do not allow for maximal exercise testing.

*Table 2. Guidelines for prescribing physical activity to stroke patients.*

Form of training	Activity	Intensity	Frequency (times/week)	Duration
<b>Fitness training</b>	Walking	60–80% max	2–5	10–60 min./session 4–6 months – throughout life
	Nordic pole walking:	HR*		
	Circuit training	12–15 RPE**		
	Ergometer bicycle training	Slightly to moderately out of breath		
	Arm/leg cycling			
	Walking on treadmill			
	Step training			
	Water exercises:			
	Dancing			
	Wheelchair driving			
<b>Strength training</b>	Weight lifting machines, e.g. leg press	Start with 50%, increase to 70–80% of RM***	1–3 Increase: increase load, not number of repetitions	1–3 sets of 7–10 reps 10–12 weeks
	Eccentric/concentric training			
	Isokinetic training	12–13 RPE**		
	Functional training			
<b>Muscular endurance training</b>	Circuit training	30–50% of 1 RM***	1–5	3 sets of 25–50 reps (dose-response)
	Sequence training			
	Walking/moving	9–11 RPE**		
<b>Functional training</b>	Balance and coordination training	Increase level of intensity	1–3	
<b>Flexibility</b>	Warm up		With every type of training	
	Cool down			
	Stretch Flex			

\* Max HR = Maximal Heart Rate (220 – age ± 12).

\*\* RPE = Rating of Perceived Exertion = subjective perceived level of exertion according to the Borg scale 6–20.

\*\*\* RM = Repetition Maximum. 1 RM is the maximum amount of weight one can lift in a single repetition for a given exercise.

## *Functional mechanisms*

### *Oxygen uptake and cardiac function*

The functional mechanisms may vary and be dependent on the possible presence of other disease. A concurrent cardiovascular disease may dominate the functional mechanisms of physical activity and training. If no other diseases are present, as in the case of residual lesion following a subarachnoid hemorrhage in younger stroke patients, the functional mechanisms should be identical to those found in untrained healthy individuals of the same age.

### *Skeletal muscle function*

Strength training facilitates motor unit recruitment and increases discharge rate (23). In order to achieve power, timing and coordination of the muscles stroke patients must be given the opportunity to train at an adequate intensity, frequency and duration. To begin with (6–8 weeks), the increased muscle strength obtained through physical training is the result of neural adaptation (increased recruitment of motor units, less inhibition, improved coordination, reduced coactivation, etc.). Muscle hypertrophy, whereupon muscles cells increase in size, occurs at a later stage. The muscle strength of paralysed stroke patients can be improved by combining eccentric and concentric training methods (6). Using the Stretch-Shortening Cycle (SSC, eccentric/concentric muscle contractions) (24) in a closed muscle chain when training the weight-bearing muscles of the lower extremities (e.g. sit-to-stand position, walking up and down stairs) may have a positive effect on motor functions.

### *Peripheral muscle endurance*

Muscular endurance training leads to increased levels of mitochondria, oxidative enzymes, myoglobin and capillarisation (25).

### *Aerobic fitness*

With an improved aerobic fitness level comes an increased ability to manage everyday activities at a lower percentage of maximal oxygen uptake (lower relative load). Physical activities can then be carried out at a lower heart rate and lower systolic blood pressure. An ineffective movement pattern resulting in increased energy expenditure during activity may be improved by training, also reducing the level of exertion. Aerobic fitness training has a positive effect on the risk factors for cardio- and cerebrovascular diseases.

## Functional tests and health controls

An assessment of motor functions should be carried out before any advice is given on physical activity. This is best performed by a physiotherapist using one or more of the assessment tools currently available such as those by Fugl-Meyer and Lindmark, the Rivermead Mobility Index, or the 10-meter Walk Test. If prescribed a certain strength training, the muscle strength of the patient should be measured with a dynamometer. The degree of muscle tone and balance should also be assessed. Mobility and presence of contractures should also be noted. If a patient with concurrent heart disease (angina pectoris, status post heart attack, heart failure and arrhythmia tendencies) is following a specific fitness training programme, the patient's cardiovascular function should be assessed by the physician in charge and include ECG at rest and during exercise.

Table 3 shows clinical test methods used for the assessment of physical ability.

*Table 3. Clinical tests for the assessment of physical ability in stroke patients.*

<b>Fitness</b>	Standardised ergometer cycling test during which the load (watt), time (minutes), velocity (revolutions/minute), pulse and blood pressure are registered by the test monitor. Perceived exertion (Borg RPE scale), leg tiredness and pain, if any (Borg CR10 scale), are evaluated by the test subject. Pulse and blood pressure are measured while resting before the test and then again 15 minutes after the test.  NB! Åstrand's sub-maximal test cannot be carried out on persons taking beta blockers or suffering with atrial flutter.
<b>Muscle strength</b>	1 RM for different muscle groups. Hand held dynamometer. Isometric or isokinetic measuring.
<b>Muscular endurance</b>	Functional endurance test (for example, the number of symmetrical rising/sitting down, heel raising, step tests).
<b>Functional walking capacity</b>	6-minute walking test. The walking distance is measured and perceived leg tiredness and breathlessness assessed according to the Borg CR10 scale. Perceived exertion is also assessed according to the Borg RPE scale. Pulse (HF) and blood pressure should be taken before and after the walking test.

## Interaction with drug therapy

Most stroke survivors are prescribed a number of medications. Prophylactic treatments with blood thinners (anticoagulants) to prevent new thromboses or embolisms are commonly used and do not affect one's ability to exercise or recommendations regarding physical activity. In the case of hypertension and heart disease, different medications, such as beta blockers, which reduce the submaximal and maximal heart rate, may have an effect on the person's physiological reaction to physical activity. See also recommendations for physical activity in patients with hypertension and heart disease. Some stroke sufferers

also have diabetes which must naturally be given specific consideration. Antidepressant treatment, such as SSRIs, need not be limiting, but rather may have a synergistic effect on physical activity.

## *Contraindications and risks*

Contraindications to physical activity and exercise are primarily associated with other diseases. (See above.)

With the exception of inappropriate dose-intensity in patients with a cardiovascular disease and the potential triggering of severe angina or arrhythmia, the risks involved with physical activity relate mainly to the increased risk of falling due to impaired motor function and balance. Stroke patients are 2–4 times more likely to fall or suffer hip fractures (26). They are also at greater risk of getting fractures due to osteoporosis as a result of immobilisation and other osteoporosis risk factors. Closer supervision of at-risk patients during physical activity is therefore important, as well as considering the use of hip protectors.

## References

1. Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare. Nationella riktlinjer för stroke-sjukvård [National Clinical Guidelines for Stroke] Stockholm: Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare; 2005.
2. Barnes MP, Dobkin BH, Bogousslavsky J. Recovery after stroke. Cambridge (US): Cambridge University Press; 2005. (ISBN 052182236X).
3. Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network. Management of patients with stroke. Rehabilitation, preventions and management of complications, and discharge planning. <http://www.sign.ac.uk/guidelines/fulltext/64/index.html>.
4. National Clinical Guidelines for Stroke. 2nd edn. Prepared by the Intercollegiate Stroke Working Party. <http://www.rcplondon.ac.uk/pubs/contents/78ba394c-c09a-4fce-bdf4-bcd49b33e650.pdf>.
5. Stroke Unit trialists' Collaboration. Organised inpatient (stroke unit) care for stroke. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2000;(2):CD000197.
6. Engardt M, Knutsson E, Jonsson M, Strenhag M. Dynamic muscle strength training in stroke patients. Effects on knee extension torque, electromyographic activity and motor function. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 1995;76:419-25.
7. Sharp SA, Brouwer BJ. Isokinetic strength training of the knee. Effects on function and spasticity. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 1997;78:1231-6.
8. Brown DA, Kautz SA. Increased workload enhances force output during pedaling exercise in persons with poststroke hemiplegia. *Stroke* 1998;29:598-606.
9. Teixeira-Salmela LF, Olney SJ, Nadeau S, Brouwer B. Muscle strengthening and physical conditioning to reduce impairment and disability in chronic stroke survivors. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 1999;80:1211-8.
10. Bateman A, Culpan FJ, Pickering AD, Powell JH, Scott OM, Greenwood RJ. The effect of aerobic training on rehabilitation outcomes after recent severe brain injury. A randomized controlled evaluation. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2001;82:174-82.
11. Potempa K, Lopez M, Braun LT, Szidon JP, Fogg L, Tincknell MS. Physiological outcomes of aerobic exercise training in hemiparetic stroke patients. *Stroke* 1995;26:101-5.
12. Macko RF, Smith GV, Dobrovolny CL, Sorkin JD, Goldberg AP, Silver KH. Treadmill training improves fitness in chronic stroke patients. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2001;82: 879-84.
13. Saunders DH, Greig CA, Young A, Mead GE. Physical fitness training for stroke patients. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2004;1. Art. No. CD003316. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD003316.pub2.k.
14. Brinkmann J, Hoskins T. Physical conditioning and altered self-concept in rehabilitated hemiplegic patients. *Phys Ther* 1979;59:859-65.
15. Rimmer JH, Riley B, Creviston T, Nicola T. Exercise training in a predominantly African-American group of stroke survivors. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2000;32:1990-6.
16. Dean CM, Richards CL, Malouin F. Task-related circuit training improves performance of locomotor tasks in chronic stroke. A randomized controlled pilot trial. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2000;81:409-17.

17. Pang MY, Eng JJ, Dawson AS, Gylfadóttir S. The use of aerobic exercise training in improving aerobic capacity in individuals with stroke. A meta-analysis. *Clinical Rehabilitation* 2006;20:97-111.
18. Gordon N, et al. Physical activity and exercise recommendations for stroke survivors. An American heart association scientific statement from the council of clinical cardiology. *Stroke* 2004;18:27-39.
19. Patten C, Lexell J, Brown H. Weakness and strength training in persons with post-stroke hemiplegia. Methods and efficacy. *J Rehabil Res Dev* 2004;41:293-312.
20. Bohannon R. Muscle strength and muscle training after stroke. *J Rehabil Med* 2007; 39:14-20.
21. Lee I-M, Pfaffenberger RS. Physical activity and stroke incidence. *Stroke* 1998;29: 2049-54.
22. US Department of Health and Human Services. Physical Activity and Health. A Report of the Surgeon General. Atlanta (GA): US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease, Prevention and Health Promotion; 1996.
23. Sale DG. Neural adaptation to resistance training. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1988;20: S135-45.
24. Svantesson U, Sunnerhagen KS. Stretch-shortening cycle in patients with upper motor neuron lesion due to stroke. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 1997;75:312-8.
25. Wilmore JH, Costill DL. Physiology of sport and exercise. Champaign (IL): Human Kinetics; 1994.
26. Ramnemark A, Nyberg L, Lorentzon R, Olsson T, Gustafson Y. Hemiosteoporosis after severe stroke, independent of changes in body composition and weight. *Stroke* 1999; 30:755-60.