

1 **To Journal of NeuroEngineering and Rehabilitation**

2

3

4 **Effects of Robot-Aided Rehabilitation on Improving Ankle and Balance**

5 **Performance of Stroke Survivors: A Randomized Controlled Trial**

6

7 **Xiaoxue Zhai^{1,2}, Qiong Wu¹, Quan Xu¹, Xin Li¹, Yanlin Zhang¹, Senchao Fan¹, Li-**

8 **Qun Zhang^{3,4,5*}, Yu Pan^{1,2,*}**

9

10

11 ***Correspondence: panyu@btch.edu.cn**

12 **¹Department of Rehabilitation, Beijing Tsinghua Changgung Hospital, Beijing, China.**

13 **²School of Clinical Medicine, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China.**

14 **l-zhang@som.umaryland.edu**

15 **³Department of Physical Therapy & Rehabilitation Science, University of Maryland,**

16 **Baltimore, MD, USA.**

17 **⁴Department of Orthopaedics, University of Maryland, Baltimore, MD, USA.**

18 **⁵Department of Bioengineering, University of Maryland, College Park, MD, USA.**

19 **Full list of author information is available at the end of the article**

20

21

22 **Abstract**

23 **Background:** Stroke survivors often experience abnormal posture control, which affects
24 balance and locomotion. The ankle strategy is important in maintaining static balance.
25 Prolonged spasticity may result in biomechanical changes at the ankle joint, which may
26 cause balance disorders. The intelligent stretching device may decrease the stiffness of the
27 ankle and improve balance. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of
28 robot-aided ankle rehabilitation of stroke survivors with ankle spasticity and the
29 correlations between biomechanical properties and balance in these patients.

30 **Methods:** Twenty inpatients post stroke with ankle spasticity performed 20 minutes of
31 stretching treatment for 2 weeks. The study group used a rehabilitation robot to stretch the
32 spastic ankle plantar flexors under intelligent control and the control group received
33 manual stretching. Outcome measures included biomechanical, clinical evaluations and
34 Pro-Kin balance test.

35 **Results:** After training, significant improvements were found in both groups in the active
36 range of motion, muscle strength, Berg Balance Scale, Fugl-Meyer Motor Assessment of
37 Lower Extremity, Postural Assessment Scale for Stroke Patients, 6-minute walk test, and
38 Modified Barthel Index ($P<0.05$); significant decreases were found in the study group in
39 dorsiflexion stiffness, Modified Ashworth Scale, trajectory lengths, elliptical trajectory,
40 standard deviation medial/lateral, average speed forward/backward with eyes closed, and
41 standard deviation forward/backward with eyes open ($P=0.001$, $P=0.037$, $P=0.028$,
42 $P=0.019$, $P=0.016$, $P=0.001$, and $P=0.033$, respectively); dorsiflexion stiffness was

43 positively correlated with the Pro-Kin balance test outcomes: ellipse area, trajectory length,
44 average speed forward/backward, average speed medial/lateral with eyes open ($\gamma=0.352$,
45 $P=0.026$; $\gamma =0.522$, $P=0.001$; $\gamma =0.045$, $P=0.004$; $\gamma =0.433$, $P=0.005$, respectively);
46 dorsiflexion stiffness was correlated with the Modified Ashworth Scale ($\tau=0.265$, $P=0.041$);
47 the study group improved significantly more than the control group in the activities of daily
48 living after training ($P=0.017$).

49 **Conclusions:** The results suggested that robot-aided ankle rehabilitation had a positive
50 effect on the biomechanical properties of the spastic ankle, and it may be feasible to
51 improve balance post-stroke. Ankle dorsiflexion stiffness affected balance poststroke
52 significantly; it may be a sensitive indicator for evaluating balance.

53 **Trial registration:** www.chictr.org.cn ChiCTR1900022128. Registered 21 February 2020.
54 Retrospectively registered.

55 **Key words:** Stroke; Ankle; Spasticity; Balance; Rehabilitation.

56 **Background**

57 Stroke survivors often experience spasticity, joint contractures, muscle weakness, and
58 motor impairments that impede ambulation and balance and contribute directly to
59 disabilities [1, 2]. Foot drop is a common ankle impairment that affects locomotion post-
60 stroke [3]. Deterioration in ankle joint motion can result in clumsy gait patterns with
61 excessive energy cost [4] and balance disorders. Previous studies have found that foot drop
62 can be caused by impaired voluntary control, weakness of the dorsiflexor muscles or
63 spastic plantar flexors, which can limit foot clearance during the swing phase as well as
64 reduce loading ability during the mid-stance of gait [5].

65 Lack of mobilization and prolonged spasticity may be accompanied by structural changes
66 in the muscle fibers and connective tissue, which may result in biomechanical changes at
67 the ankle, including reduced range of motion (ROM), increased resistance and stiffness,
68 and muscular imbalance, leading to a clinical contracture [6-9]. Recently, an intelligent
69 stretching device was developed to decrease ankle stiffness of patients who were
70 neurologically impaired due to stroke, spinal cord injury, multiple sclerosis, or cerebral
71 palsy. Significant improvements were found in the ROM, maximum voluntary contraction,
72 ankle stiffness, and comfortable walking speed [10-15].

73 As a crucial part of posture control, ankle strategy is important during daily ambulation
74 and functional activities [16]. However, the correlations between the local biomechanical
75 properties of the ankle and balance are unclear. Therefore, this study aimed to perform
76 repeated intelligent stretching of the ankle with spasticity in patients with hemiplegia after

77 stroke, observing the biomechanical changes in the ankle after training, and assessing static
78 balance quantitatively using the Pro-Kin device [17], based on the assessment of postural
79 sway using the force platform from movements of the center of pressure (CoP), and to
80 further explore the correlations between the Pro-Kin balance test outcomes and ankle
81 stiffness quantitatively, to determine the effect of ankle stiffness on balance.

82

83 **METHODS**

84 **Subjects**

85 Patients with subacute stroke hospitalized in the Beijing Tsinghua Chang Gung Hospital
86 between March 2019 and August 2019 were recruited. The inclusion criteria were: (1) ages
87 between 18 and 75 years; (2) first-ever stroke with less than 6 months duration of spasticity
88 of the affected ankle (Modified Ashworth Scale, MAS: 1~2); (3) medically stable; (4)
89 ability to stand independently without aids for at least 1 minute; and (5) ability to perform
90 the experimental treatment independently. Exclusion criteria were communication
91 problems, dementia based on clinical diagnosis, comorbidities affecting motor
92 performance such as orthopedic, arthritic, inflammatory conditions that could influence
93 balance, and limited ankle movement. Finally, 20 stroke survivors with impaired ankle
94 motor function participated in this study.

95

96 **Experimental setup**

97 An ankle rehabilitation robot (Beijing LTK Science and Technology Co., Ltd) was used for

98 intervention and outcome evaluations [18]. The leg of the subject was strapped to a leg
99 support with the knee at 10° flexion and the foot was strapped onto a footplate with ankle
100 dorsiflexion (DF) at 0°. The footplate was fixed to the motor shaft, and a torque sensor was
101 aligned with the motor shaft to measure the ankle joint torque (Fig. 1).



102
103 Fig. 1 A patient seated in the ankle rehabilitation robot device.
104

105 **Stretching protocol**

106 Patients in the Department of Rehabilitation Medicine in the hospital were randomly
107 assigned to the study (n=10) or control (n=10) group. Patients in the study group had 10
108 sessions (five times a week over 2 weeks). Each session comprised 20 minutes training by
109 stretching the ankles with spasticity under intelligent control. Training for the control group
110 involved manual stretching of the plantar flexors (five times a week over 2 weeks, 20
111 minutes/session). During the 2-week period, both groups continued active movement
112 exercises for ankle mobility and strength. Patient allocation was made by an investigator
113 not involved in the assessments and training, based on a computer-generated random
114 number. The ankle rehabilitation robot was driven by a servomotor controlled by a digital

115 signal processor [10]. Briefly, the stretching velocity was inversely proportional to the joint
116 resistance torque. Typical values were 30°/s peak stretching velocity, 10 to 40 Nm peak
117 resistance torque in dorsiflexion, 5 to 10 Nm peak resistance torque in plantarflexion, and
118 a 5-s holding period at extreme dorsiflexion [11]. An experienced physical therapist
119 adjusted the peak resistance torque for each session based on manual stretching and
120 feedback from the subject during the stretching.

121

122 **Data assessed**

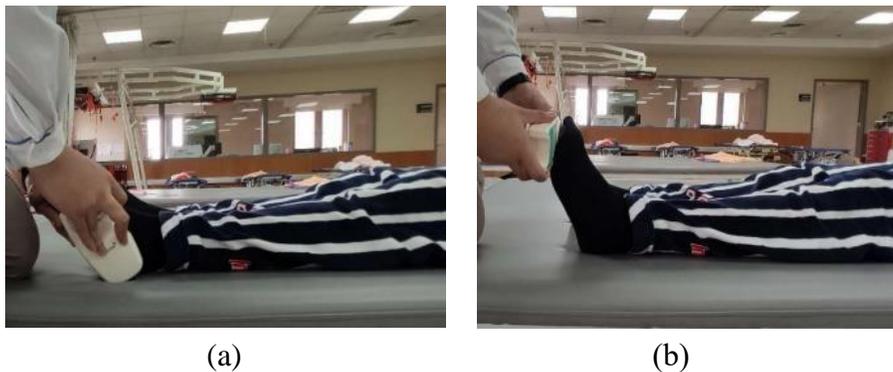
123 Subjects were tested before and after the training period by a blinded investigator.
124 Biomechanical, clinical evaluations and the Pro-Kin balance test (PK252, TecnoBody, Italy)
125 were conducted. All assessment sessions were performed at the same time of day and in
126 the same order.

127

128 **Biomechanical evaluations**

129 Evaluations included the passive and active ranges of motion (PROM, AROM),,
130 dorsiflexor and plantarflexor muscle strength, and DF and plantarflexion (PF) stiffness.
131 ROM and muscle strength were measured using the HogganMicroFET3 portable device
132 (Hoggan Health Industries, Inc. Salt Lake City, USA). The measuring range of ROM was
133 0–180° with an accuracy of 1°; the measuring range of muscle strength was 3.6–890 N
134 with an accuracy of 0.01 N (Fig. 2). The stiffness measured in DF or PF passive movement
135 was assessed as $K=\Delta T/\Delta\theta$, where K (Nm/deg) was the quasi-static stiffness and ΔT was
136 the passive torque increment during a certain amount of ankle angular movement ($\Delta\theta$). As

137 $\Delta\theta$ becomes infinitely small, the quasi-static stiffness approaches the slope of a tangential
138 line of the torque-angle curve at a specific ankle position [10] [19, 20]. The peak stretching
139 velocity in this study was set at 5°/s to avoid inducing reflex responses [21]. Quasi-static
140 stiffness of the ankle plantar flexor (stiffness measured in DF direction movement, DF
141 stiffness) was evaluated at 10° of DF and that of the ankle dorsiflexor (stiffness measured
142 in PF direction movement, PF stiffness) at 30° of PF. Three trials were conducted and the
143 averages were taken to be AROM, PROM, muscle strength, and stiffness (K).



146 Fig. 2 ROM (a) and muscle strength (b) measured by Hoggan MicroFET3 portable device.

147

148 **Clinical evaluations**

149 Each subject completed the following functional assessments during clinical evaluation
150 sessions. MAS (0–4 points) [22] was used to measure the calf muscle hypertonia. Fugl-
151 Meyer Motor Assessment of Lower Extremity (FM-LE) [23] (0–34 points) was used to
152 evaluate the sensorimotor function of the lower limbs. The Berg Balance Scale (BBS) [24]
153 (0–56 points) was used to evaluate the balance function. The 6-minute walk test (6MWT)
154 [25] was used to determine walking ability. The Postural Assessment Scale for Stroke
155 Patients (PASS) [26] (0–36 points) was used to evaluate the ability to control posture. The

156 Modified Barthel Index (MBI) [27] (0–100 points) was used to measure the activities of
157 daily living (ADL).

158

159 **Pro-Kin balance evaluations**

160 This study also used the Pro-Kin system (PK252, TecnoBody, Italy) to assess balance
161 function, which was based on the assessment of postural sway using the force platform
162 from movements of the center of pressure (CoP) [28-30] (Fig. 3). Subjects stood on the
163 platform comfortably, looking straight ahead at a screen and keeping arms at their sides
164 during the stances, with eyes focused on a stationary target. Each participant performed
165 two standing tests, with opened eyes (OE) and closed eyes (CE), each test lasting 30s, using
166 a sampling frequency of 20 Hz. Postural sway was determined using six different outcome
167 variables: trajectory lengths (measured in mm), elliptical trajectory (measured in mm²),
168 standard deviation medial/lateral (M/L SD), standard deviation forward/backward (F/B
169 SD), average speed medial/lateral (M/L AS measured in m/s), and average speed
170 forward/backward (F/B AS measured in m/s). The trajectory lengths referred to the length
171 of the trajectory of the pressure center; the greater the length, the poorer the balance
172 function the patient displayed. Elliptical trajectory referred to the area surrounded by the
173 trajectory of the center of the body pressure; the larger the area, the poorer the balance
174 function the patient demonstrated. An increase in CoP in either the forward/backward or
175 medial/lateral direction was indicative of postural disturbance, including SD and AS.
176 Smaller values of the six parameters indicated the patient had a better balance function [31].



177

178

Fig. 3 Static Balance Assessed by the Pro-Kin System

179

180 **Statistical analyses**

181 Differences in general characteristics of the subjects between the two groups were assessed

182 using the Mann-Whitney U test or Fisher's exact test. For all outcome variables, the group

183 mean and standard deviation at pre- and post-training were calculated. The values were

184 compared between the groups using the two-way repeated ANOVA. Post-hoc paired

185 sample t-test with Bonferroni correction within the study and control groups was performed.

186 We used Pearson's coefficient to examine the correlation between stiffness (K) and the Pro-

187 Kin system results, and the Kendall rank correlation coefficient (τ) for the correlation

188 between MAS and K [32]. A significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ was set for two-way repeated

189 ANOVA models and correlation tests. All statistical tests were analyzed using IBM SPSS

190 Statistics for Windows, version 21.0. (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA).

191

192 **Results**

193 **Baseline characteristic of subjects and compliance**

194 Characteristics of the subjects are described in Table 1. All subjects completed the full 2-
 195 week treatment. There were no significant differences in age, duration post stroke, sex, side
 196 of lesion, height, weight, or BMI (Body Mass Index) between the two groups (Table 1).

197 Table 1. Baseline Characteristics of the Participants

Parameters	Study group (n=10)	Control group (n=10)	P Value
Age (year)	61.90 ± 9.62	60.00 ± 6.62	0.613
duration post stroke	54.20 ± 33.85	58.10 ± 50.20	0.841
Sex (M/F)	9/1	9/1	
Cerebral infarction/cerebral hemorrhage (case)	10/0	10/0	
Side of lesion (left/right, case)	7/3	7/3	
Height (m)	1.68 ± 0.05	1.69 ± 0.04	0.573
Weight (kg)	74.70 ± 9.71	70.40 ± 5.40	0.237
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.33 ± 3.65	24.45 ± 1.72	0.158

198 P-values indicate the results of Mann-Whitney U Test for age and duration post stroke, and of Fisher's exact test for all the other variables.

199 Values are mean ± standard deviation, or number. BMI, Body Mass Index; M, male; F, female

200

201 **Biomechanical evaluations: PROM, AROM, muscle strength and joint stiffness**

202 Before training there were no significant differences in PROM, AROM, muscle strength,
 203 or DF and PF stiffness between the two groups. The DF AROM, PF AROM, DF muscle
 204 strength, and PF muscle strength increased significantly after the 2-week training period in
 205 the control group (P=0.032; P=0.001; P=0.011; P<0.0001, respectively). The four
 206 parameters of biomechanical properties showed similar changes in the control group as in
 207 the treatment group (P=0.001; P=0.002; P=0.007; P=0.001, respectively). In addition,
 208 significant decreases in DF stiffness were found for subjects in the study group (P=0.001)
 209 but not in the control group. No significant differences in biomechanics were found
 210 between the two groups after training (P>0.05) (Table 2, Fig. 4).

211

212

Table 2. Biomechanical Properties at pre- and post-treatment between two groups

Variable	Study group		Control group	
	Pre-training	Post-training	Pre-training	Post-training
DF AROM (°)	7.60 ± 5.62	10.90 ± 4.15*	8.70 ± 6.45	10.60 ± 5.85*
DF PROM (°)	15.50 ± 2.17	16.70 ± 1.42	17.00 ± 1.15	17.20 ± 1.23
PF AROM (°)	19.60 ± 10.97	23.10 ± 10.13*	18.00 ± 16.52	22.20 ± 15.84*
PF PROM (°)	38.30 ± 4.62	39.60 ± 4.01	39.50 ± 4.34	40.20 ± 4.94
DF Strength (N)	102.50 ± 44.54	132.82 ± 43.44*	101.4 ± 59.71	123.80 ± 58.55*
PF Strength (N)	144.80 ± 36.29	167.68 ± 29.31*	122.10 ± 47.45	160.53 ± 58.86*
DF Stiffness (Nm/deg)	1.62 ± 0.24	1.19 ± 0.24*	1.32 ± 0.41	1.10 ± 0.42
PF Stiffness (Nm/deg)	0.21 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.03	0.21 ± 0.07	0.24 ± 0.09

213

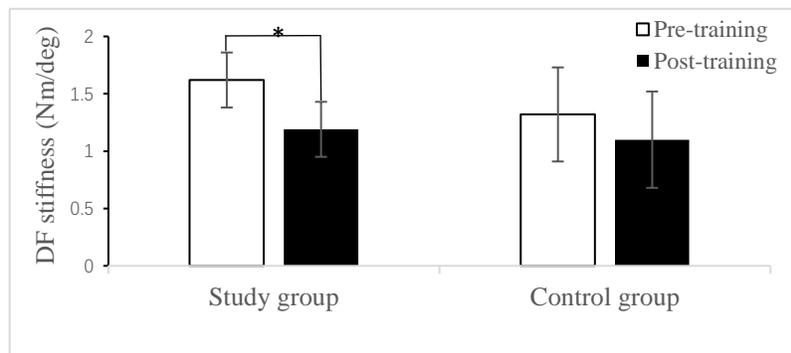
Values are mean ± standard deviation. * p < .05 for Pre vs Post, § p < .05 for Study group vs Control group Post-training. The change of biomechanical properties over time within each group was evaluated using Post-hoc paired sample t-test with Bonferroni correction. The values were compared between the groups using the two-way repeated ANOVA. DF or PF stiffness is stiffness measured in dorsiflexion or plantarflexion passive movement.

214

215

216

217



218

Fig. 4 DF stiffness before and after 2 weeks of training in the two groups. *P<.05.

219

220

221 Clinical evaluations

222

There was no significant difference in MAS, FM-LE, BBS, PASS, 6MWT, or MBI before training between the two groups. The FM-LE, BBS, PASS, 6MWT, and MBI increased significantly after the 2-week training period in the control group (P=0.006; P=0.004; P=0.002; P=0.018; P=0.029, respectively). We also found significant improvement in FM-LE, BBS, PASS, 6MWT, and MBI in the study group (P=0.001; P=0.037; P=0.009; P=0.028; P=0.001, respectively). In addition, significant decreases were found in MAS for

226

227

228 subjects in the study group (P=0.037) but not in the control group. Subjects in the study
 229 group improved significantly more than those in the control group in the activities of daily
 230 living (ADL) by MBI after the 2-week training (P =0.017) (Table 3, Fig. 5, 6).

231

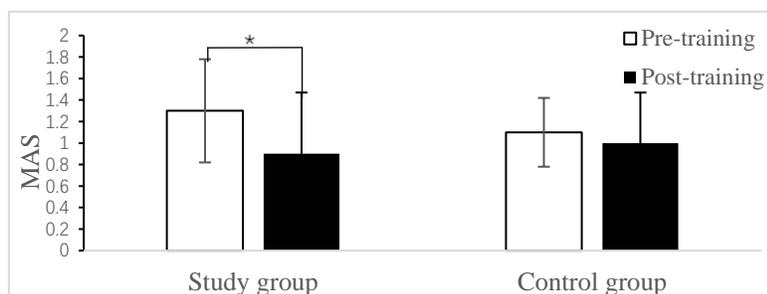
Table 3. Clinical evaluations at pre- and post-treatment between two groups

Variable	Study group		Control group	
	Pre-training	Post-training	Pre-training	Post-training
MAS	1.30 ± 0.48	0.90 ± 0.57*	1.10 ± 0.32	1.00 ± 0.47
FM-LE	26.50 ± 5.36	29.30 ± 4.42*	24.80 ± 7.25	27.60 ± 6.31*
BBS	41.40 ± 13.74	45.00 ± 13.87*	43.40 ± 10.23	46.70 ± 9.93*
PASS	30.10 ± 4.28	31.40 ± 3.50*	29.90 ± 3.96	31.60 ± 3.72*
6MWT	96.80 ± 99.49	131.40 ± 95.99*	131.30 ± 117.57	170.20 ± 129.28*
MBI	59.50 ± 15.89	75.00 ± 14.14*	75.50 ± 19.21	80.00 ± 17.95 [§]

232

Values are mean ± standard deviation. * p < .05 for Pre vs Post, § p < .05 for Study group vs Control group Post-training. The change of Clinical
 233 evaluations over time within each group was evaluated using Post-hoc paired sample t-test with Bonferroni correction. The values were
 234 compared between the groups using the two-way repeated ANOVA. MAS Modified Ashworth Scale, FM-LE Fugl-Meyer Motor Assessment of
 235 Lower Extremity, BBS Berg Balance Scale, PASS Postural Assessment Scale for Stroke Patients, 6 MWT 6-minute walk test, MBI Modified
 236 Barthel Index.

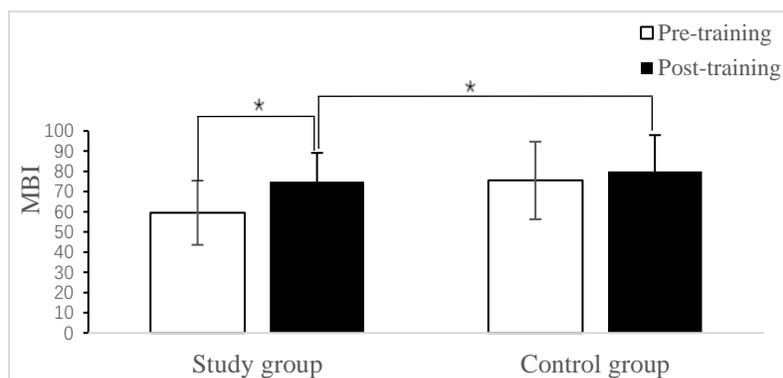
237



238

Fig.5 MAS before and after 2 weeks of training in the two groups. *P<.05.

239



240

Fig.6 MBI before and after 2 weeks of training in the two groups. *P<.05.

241

242 **Pro-Kin balance test outcomes**

243 There was no significant difference between the two groups in ellipse area, trajectory
 244 length, F/B SD, L/M SD, F/B AS, or L/M AS with opened and closed eyes before training.

245 The ellipse area, trajectory length, L/M SD, and F/B AS with closed eyes and F/B SD with
 246 opened eyes decreased significantly after the 2-week training period in the study group
 247 (P=0.028; P=0.019; P=0.016; P=0.001; P=0.033, respectively). We found no significant

248 change in the control group. No significant difference in the Pro-Kin balance test outcomes
 249 was found between the two groups after training (P>0.05) (Table 4). Examples of the

250 trajectory of the CoP of two groups are shown in Fig. 7, 8. It can be noticed that the
 251 participant S09 attained a better balance function after training than participant C07

252 significantly.

253

Table 4. Pro-Kin balance test outcome at pre- and post-training between two groups

Variable	Study group		Control group	
	Pre-training	Post-training	Pre-training	Post-training
Eyes Closed				
Ellipse Area mm^2	1396.10 \pm 1085.48	847.70 \pm 486.15*	2431.50 \pm 2569.09	1371.00 \pm 1236.41
Trajectory Length mm	962.40 \pm 344.94	820.80 \pm 280.43*	1141.30 \pm 613.22	918.00 \pm 522.08
F/B SD	7.40 \pm 1.90	6.80 \pm 2.53	10.20 \pm 4.76	7.60 \pm 2.72
L/M SD	10.10 \pm 5.34	6.10 \pm 2.77*	10.50 \pm 6.00	9.10 \pm 4.79
F/B AS mm/sec	22.30 \pm 8.37	18.60 \pm 7.11*	23.50 \pm 14.87	19.30 \pm 14.12
L/M AS mm/sec	18.90 \pm 7.94	17.50 \pm 7.86	19.50 \pm 13.30	15.40 \pm 11.11
Eyes Open				
Ellipse Area mm^2	755.50 \pm 659.29	518.90 \pm 224.25	713.20 \pm 450.40	533.40 \pm 201.92
Trajectory Length mm	585.30 \pm 188.54	458.70 \pm 122.65	539.30 \pm 182.93	459.40 \pm 126.06
F/B SD	5.80 \pm 2.15	4.50 \pm 0.85*	5.80 \pm 1.75	5.10 \pm 0.88
L/M SD	7.10 \pm 4.38	6.10 \pm 1.73	6.10 \pm 2.08	5.90 \pm 2.13
F/B AS mm/sec	13.60 \pm 5.46	10.80 \pm 2.62	11.30 \pm 5.06	10.20 \pm 3.97
L/M AS mm/sec	11.00 \pm 2.91	9.10 \pm 4.31	11.10 \pm 4.12	9.00 \pm 2.00

254 Values are mean \pm standard deviation. * p < .05 for Pre vs Post, § p < .05 for Study group vs Control group Post-training. The change of Pro-Kin

255 balance test outcome over time within each group was evaluated using Post-hoc paired sample t-test with Bonferroni correction. The values were
256 compared between the groups using the two-way repeated ANOVA. AS Average speed, Forward/Backward F/B, Medial/Lateral direction M/L.

257

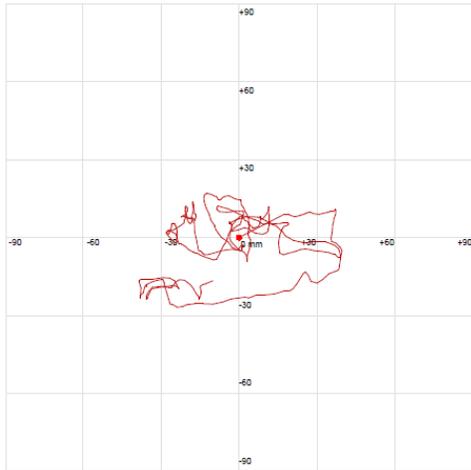
258

259

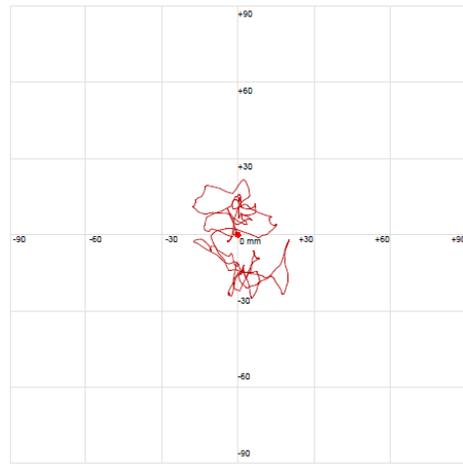
260

Subject S09-Study Group

A. Trajectory of the CoP Pre-training (CE)



B. Trajectory of the CoP Post-training (CE)

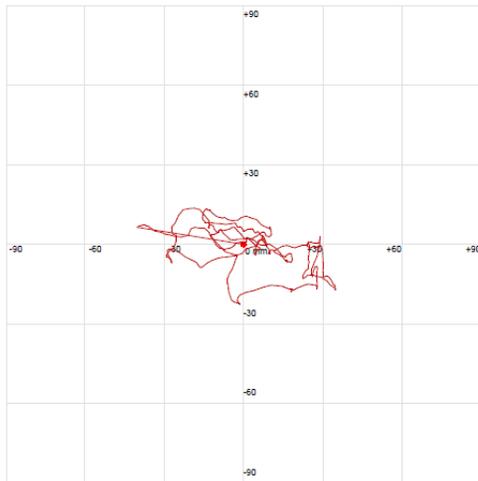


261

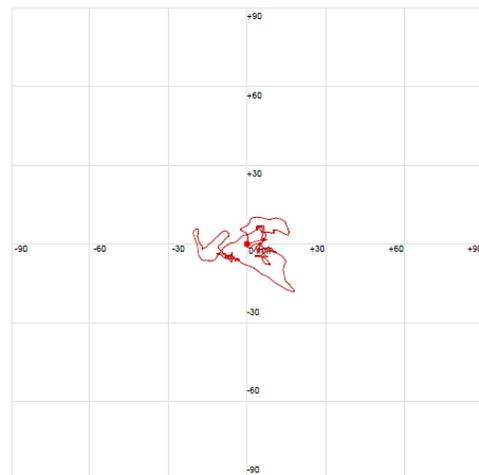
262

263

C. Trajectory of the CoP Pre-training (OE)



D. Trajectory of the CoP Post-training (OE)



264

265 Fig 7. Example of the trajectory of the center of pressure (CoP) of Pre-training (a, c) and Post-training (b, d) from the
266 Study Group with opened eyes (OE) and closed eyes (CE).

267

268

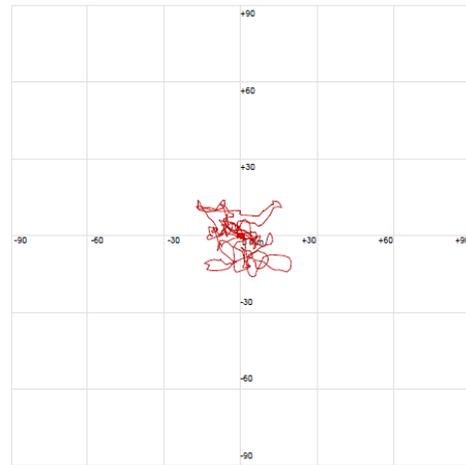
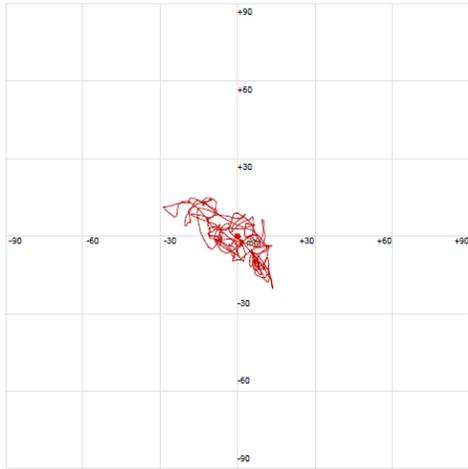
269

270

Subject C07-Control Group

A. Trajectory of the CoP Pre-training (CE)

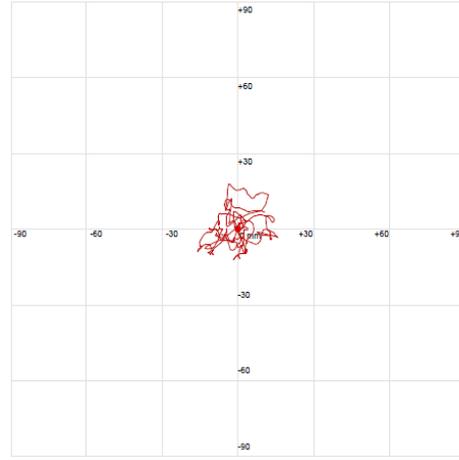
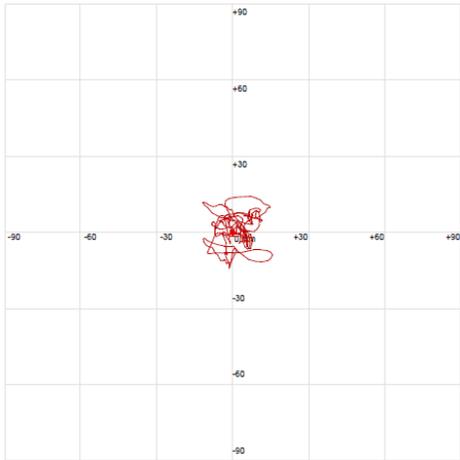
B. Trajectory of the CoP Post-training (CE)



271
272
273

C. Trajectory of the CoP Pre-training (OE)

D. Trajectory of the CoP Post-training (OE)



274
275
276
277
278

Fig 8. Example of the trajectory of the center of pressure (CoP) of Pre-training (a, c) and Post-training (b, d) from the Control Group with opened eyes (OE) and closed eyes (CE).

279 **Correlations between stiffness of the ankle and the balance function**

280 The DF stiffness was significantly correlated with the outcomes of the Pro-kin balance test
281 with opened eyes, including the ellipse area, trajectory length, F/B AS, M/L AS ($\gamma=0.352$,
282 $P=0.026$; $\gamma=0.522$, $P=0.001$; $\gamma=0.045$, $P=0.004$; $\gamma=0.433$, $P=0.005$, respectively). The
283 DF stiffness was also significantly correlated with MAS ($\tau=0.265$, $P=0.041$) (Table 5).

284

Table 5 Correlations Between stiffness and Pro-Kin balance test outcome when open eyes

	DF stiffness	P value	PF stiffness	P value
MAS	0.265	0.041*	-0.154	0.344
Ellipse Area	0.352	0.026*	-0.217	0.179
Trajectory Length	0.522	0.001*	-0.312	0.050
F/B SD	0.285	0.075	-0.158	0.331
M/L SD	0.277	0.084	-0.263	0.101
F/B AS	0.450	0.004*	-0.283	0.077
M/L AS	0.433	0.005*	-0.252	0.116

285 Pearson's coefficient (γ) was used to estimate the correlation between stiffness (K) and the Pro-Kin system results, and the Kendall rank correlation
286 coefficient (τ) was used to estimate the correlation between stiffness (K) and MAS. Values are γ or τ . *significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ was set for
287 correlation tests.

288

289 **Discussion**

290 The main findings of our randomized controlled pilot study were that both conventional
291 manual and robotic intelligent stretching of spastic ankles could improve the biomechanical
292 properties of the ankle joints and motor function. For the study group, the spasticity of the
293 ankle decreased more as evaluated by DF stiffness and MAS, and the balance function
294 improved more as evaluated by the Pro-Kin balance test compared with the control group.
295 This study found that robot-aided rehabilitation of the ankle could invoke more benefits in
296 joints with impaired biomechanical properties than the methods used in the control group
297 by decreasing stiffness of the spastic ankle to improve balance and activities of daily living.
298 The stiffness of dorsiflexion as a crucial biomechanical property of the local ankle joint
299 influenced the overall balance in stroke deeply; it may be a sensitive indicator for
300 evaluating the ability to balance. All subjects completed the intervention successfully, and
301 there were no adverse effects reported for this research.

302

303 **A. Biomechanical properties of the spastic ankle**

304 Several studies have reported the positive effects of stretching subjects with joint spasticity
305 and/or contracture by decreasing muscle tone, improving soft-tissue extensibility, and
306 increasing ankle ROM [33-39]. Manual stretching by moving the spastic ankle through its
307 ROM requires labor-intensive efforts, and the outcome is dependent on the experience of
308 the therapist, which limits its availability. Thus, external devices [40, 41] and robotic
309 systems [11, 36, 42-44] have served as an alternative rehabilitation tool for stretching of
310 the ankles and training for functional movement. Specifically, robot-aided rehabilitation of
311 the ankle has been used effectively in treating ankle contracture and/or spasticity, and
312 previous studies indicated that this intervention reduced ankle joint resistance torque and
313 stiffness, increased ROM [10], and improved balance and gait [34, 35] in neurologically
314 impaired patients. Robotic intervention in the form of intelligent stretching and active
315 movement training has been studied in children with cerebral palsy and showed significant
316 improvement in 12 children with CP in terms of improved passive and active ranges of
317 motion, selective motor control, and mobility functions after 18 sessions of training (three
318 sessions/week for 6 weeks) [12]. Waldman et al investigated the effects of the robotic
319 rehabilitation of the ankle in stroke with ankle impairment, and the results showed subjects
320 in the robot group improved significantly more in dorsiflexion PROM, dorsiflexion
321 strength, and balance and walking function, while the spasticity measured by the Modified
322 Ashworth Scale was reduced more than that in the control group [45]. Forrester et al [46,
323 47] conducted similar studies, and the results suggested that robotic rehabilitation of the
324 ankle was effective in improving balance, motor function, and mobility poststroke. In this

325 study, to forcefully and safely stretch the ankle of a subject with spasticity to its extreme
326 positions, we used an intelligent stretching device that stretched the joint with quantitative
327 feedback control of the resistance torque and stretching velocity. The stretching device was
328 driven by a servomotor controlled by a digital signal processor (DSP) [18]. The exact rules
329 of the DSP-controlled motion have been described elsewhere [10]. By using this control
330 strategy, the stretching device moved quickly in the middle (non-spastic) ROM and slowed
331 in the stiffer part of the ROM, while never exceeding preset stretching torques. This study
332 demonstrated that improvement associated with the intelligent stretching of the spastic
333 ankles post-stroke was consistent with previous research, and resulted in increased ROM
334 and muscle strength, decreased ankle stiffness, and improved balance and mobility function.
335 This type of high intensity, repetitive and efficient stretching can be more labor-saving and
336 readily available to patients without the need of a skilled therapist. Furthermore, in this
337 study, a significant correlation ($\tau=0.265$, $P=0.041$) was observed between MAS and DF
338 stiffness, which is consistent with previous research. This measure of stiffness may
339 potentially be used to obtain more accurate and quantitative evaluation of spastic
340 hypertonia in future [11].

341

342 **B. Balance control**

343 Postural stability, often defined as balance, is the ability of the body to maintain its center
344 of mass over the base of support [48], and it plays an important role in the recovery of
345 motor function in patients with hemiplegia. Three kinds of strategy are involved in postural

346 control in humans: ankle strategy, hip strategy, and stride strategy [28, 29]. The ankle
347 strategy refers to the body's center of gravity rotating or swinging around the ankle joint
348 in a pendulum movement, which is the main strategy in normal people for maintaining
349 balance when the support surface is firm and the perturbations are small [24, 49], while the
350 hip strategy is mainly activated when the range of body sway is large. The most important
351 roles of the ankle joints and the feet are in controlling body sway and forward movements
352 of the lower extremities, and these roles require a sufficient range of motion, muscle
353 strength, and proprioceptive sense in the ankle joints [50]. The ankle strategy is damaged
354 partially after stroke creating muscular imbalance surrounding the ankle, increased joint
355 stiffness, decreased proprioception of the ankle, and wrong central integration, which
356 causes functional instability and/or imbalance [51].

357 At present, various therapeutic methods have been used to improve balance post-stroke,
358 such as task-related training assisted-robot walking, virtual reality rehabilitation, core
359 strength exercises [7], visual feedback training etc [52, 53]. These methods of rehabilitation
360 treat the patient as a whole, aiming to improve the posture control of the trunk and lower
361 limbs. In our study, we focused on the reapplication of the ankle strategy to improve
362 balance via robot-aided rehabilitation of the ankle. It forcefully, safely, and repeatedly
363 stretched the ankle to its extreme positions resulting in structural changes in the viscoelastic
364 properties of the connective tissues, thereby reducing ankle stiffness and increasing sensory
365 inputs around the ankle joints (including cutaneous receptors, muscle-spindle receptors,
366 and Golgi tendon organs located in the muscles, tendons, and ligaments). The patients were

367 asked to stare at the display screen where an amplified and lateral “ankle joint” image was
368 shown as stretching the ankle from dorsiflexion to plantarflexion, which was a real-time
369 visual feedback integrating proprioception with the environment, promoting
370 neuromuscular control during training [54, 55].

371

372 **C. Pro-Kin balance test**

373 To measure the ability to balance quantitatively, the Pro-Kin is a useful piece of equipment
374 that has demonstrated reliability with the capability to feasibly generate instantaneous data
375 regarding CoP, including the perimeter, ellipse, and movement in both the
376 forward/backward and medial/lateral directions [31]. This balance test system only
377 requires patients to have a certain ability to sit or stand, and it can find subtle balance
378 differences more comprehensively, making up for the measurement errors caused by
379 subjective factors in the balance scales assessment [56]. In this study, the Pro-Kin was used
380 to quantitatively evaluate the standing static balance of patients before and after training,
381 excluding the influences of the hip strategy and stride strategy, and explore the role of ankle
382 strategy in balance more accurately [57, 58]. The results showed that, after the intelligent
383 stretching training of the ankle joint, trajectory lengths, elliptical trajectory, SD M/L, AS
384 F/B with closed eyes, and SD F/B with opened eyes decreased significantly, but there were
385 no significant decreases in the control group, which confirmed that robot-aided
386 rehabilitation of the ankle is of great significance in the implementation of ankle strategy
387 for the reestablishment of the correct depiction of the proprioceptive and muscular motor

388 sensations. However, the balance scales failed to reflect the subtle differences in balance
389 function after training between the two groups quantitatively. Quantitative results of the
390 Pro-Kin balance test have the potential to increase the sensitivity of measures to guide
391 treatment approaches and track patient progress over time.

392 Furthermore, we found that there were no significant improvements in trajectory lengths,
393 elliptical trajectory, SD M/L, or AS M/L with opened eyes in the study group after training.

394 As an explanation, we consider the following factors. First, on the stable support surface,
395 the weight effects of proprioception, vestibule, and vision on the balance were 70%, 20%,
396 and 10%, respectively [59], which showed that proprioception was the most important
397 factor in maintaining balance when standing and walking on a flat surface. Visual
398 compensation is extremely important when proprioception is destroyed post stroke [60].

399 However, it is more difficult to maintain balance while conducting the Pro-Kin test with
400 eyes closed as the visual compensation is impaired, so significant improvements were
401 easier to find with eyes closed but not open [61]. Secondly, when standing normally on a
402 flat and solid surface, the limit of stability (LOS) was 8° in the medial, lateral, forward
403 directions and 4.5° in the backward direction [62]. It was more difficult to maintain balance
404 in the forward/backward direction, so the SD and AS of F/B may reflect the changes in
405 balance more sensitively. In our study, the SD and AS of F/B decreased with open eyes after
406 intelligent stretching training, which implied sensitive feed-back and feed-forward control
407 mechanisms were improved [63].

408

409 **D. Correlations between DF stiffness and balance**

410 There has been no study that quantitatively analyzed the impact of local biomechanical
411 properties of the ankle on the overall balance function. This study further explored the
412 correlation between ankle stiffness and the Pro-Kin balance test outcomes with opened
413 eyes. The findings showed that the stiffness of dorsiflexion was positively related to
414 trajectory length, elliptical trajectory, and average velocity M/L and F/B with opened eyes,
415 and trajectory length was strongly positively related to the stiffness of dorsiflexion ($\gamma=$
416 0.522 , $P = 0.001$), which meant that greater DF stiffness resulted in a worse balance
417 function. But there was no significant correlation between PF stiffness and the Pro-Kin
418 balance test outcomes, suggesting that DF stiffness was an important factor affecting the
419 balance function, while PF stiffness was not, but the mechanism was not clear. We assumed
420 that the decreased DF stiffness might activate the muscles around the ankles (especially the
421 ankle dorsal flexor muscle) and increase the proprioceptive sense inputs and ROM of the
422 ankle joint, so that the ability to appropriately control balance during sway was improved
423 through better coordination and mobilization of the senses and muscle functions of the
424 ankle after intelligent stretching.

425

426 **Study limitations**

427 This study had some limitations. First, a small number of subjects were enrolled; further
428 studies should increase the number of subjects to increase the power of the study. Second,
429 no significant differences in walking function between the two kinds of intervention were

430 found. This might be because the training frequency, intensity, and total repetitions were
431 not optimal, or the long-term effects of intelligent stretching training were unknown, so
432 further follow-up is necessary to explore the effects on walking function, and further
433 studies should focus on exploring the optimal training protocol. Moreover, the patients in
434 our study were adults with subacute stroke, and thus the results do not apply to patients
435 with acute and chronic stroke. Hence, the possible effects of the intervention on patients
436 with acute and chronic stroke require further investigation.

437

438 **Conclusion**

439 The robot-aided rehabilitation of the ankles provided well-controlled passive stretching to
440 stroke survivors with ankle impairments, and benefits included improvements in
441 biomechanics, spasticity, balance, motor function, and ADL post-stroke. Findings in this
442 study suggested that robot-aided rehabilitation may be a beneficial addition to
443 rehabilitation programs. As an important part of posture control, ankle strategy was of great
444 significance for improving the overall balance. In particular, stiffness of dorsiflexion was
445 an important factor affecting the balance. As a local biomechanical property of the ankle,
446 it may be a sensitive indicator for evaluating the balance function after rehabilitation and
447 predicting the risk of falls in the future.

448

449 **Abbreviations**

450 ROM: Range of Motion; CoP: Center of Pressure; MAS: Modified Ashworth Scale; DF
451 dorsiflexion; PF: plantarflexion; FM-LE: Fugl-Meyer Motor Assessment of Lower

452 Extremity; BBS: Berg Balance Scale; 6MWT: 6-minute walk test; PASS: Postural
453 Assessment Scale for Stroke Patients; MBI: Modified Barthel Index; ADL: Activities of
454 daily living; OE: Opened eyes; CE: Closed eyes; SD: Standard deviation; AS: Average
455 speed; M/L: Medial/Lateral; F/B: Forward/Backward; BMI: Body Mass Index; M: male;
456 F: female; DSP: Digital signal processor.

457

458 **Acknowledgments**

459 We thank for Yupeng Ren PhD thoughtful suggestions, for Jiehua Yu assistance for
460 biomechanical evaluations and calculations, Meizhen Huang PhD assistance for statistical
461 analysis, and all the patients for participating in this experiment. We thank International
462 Science Editing (<http://www.internationalscienceediting.com>) for editing this manuscript.

463

464 **Authors' contributions**

465 YP and LZ contributed to the study design, analysis and interpretation of data and revisions
466 to the manuscript. QW contributed to the analysis and interpretation of data. XZ
467 contributed to the study design, data collection, analysis and interpretation of data and
468 drafting the manuscript. Data collection was performed by XZ, XL and QX. YZ and SF
469 performed experiments. All authors read and approved the manuscript submitted and agree
470 to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

471

472 **Funding**

473 This study was supported by Beijing Municipal Natural Science Foundation (L182028)

474 and Beijing Municipal Science and Technology Commission (Z181100009218003 and
475 Z181100003118004). No additional external funding was received for this study. The
476 funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or
477 preparation of the manuscript.

478

479 **Availability of data and materials**

480 The datasets used and analyzed during the current study are available from the
481 corresponding author upon appropriate request.

482

483 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

484 All protocols were reviewed and approved by the Beijing Tsinghua Chang Gung Hospital
485 Medical Ethics (18172-0-01) according to the Declaration of Helsinki. Informed written
486 consent was obtained from each subject in this study. This study is registered at
487 <http://www.chictr.org.cn> under the study identifier ChiCTR2000030108.

488

489 **Consent for publication**

490 Consent for publication were included as part of informed consent.

491

492 **Competing interests**

493 Li-Qun Zhang holds an equity position in Beijing LTK Science and Technology Co.,
494 which made the ankle rehabilitation robot used in this study. The other authors declare that
495 they have no competing interests.

496

497 **Author details**

498 ¹Department of Rehabilitation, Beijing Tsinghua Changgung Hospital, Beijing, China.

499 ²School of Clinical Medicine, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China. ³Department of

500 Physical Therapy & Rehabilitation Science, University of Maryland, Baltimore, MD, USA.

501 ⁴Department of Orthopaedics, University of Maryland, Baltimore, MD, USA.

502 ⁵Department of Bioengineering, University of Maryland, College Park, MD, USA.

503

504 **References**

- 505 [1] Sun GC, Rey EV, Bai Z, Roth EJ, Zhang LQ. Biomechanic changes in passive
506 properties of hemiplegic ankles with spastic hypertonia. Arch Phys Med
507 Rehabil.2004;85:1646.
- 508 [2] Olney SJ, Richards C. Hemiparetic gait following stroke. Part I: Characteristics. Gait
509 & Posture 1996; 4:148.
- 510 [3] Lamontagne A, Malouin F, Richards CL. Contribution of passive stiffness to ankle
511 plantarflexor moment during gait after stroke. Archives of Physical Medicine &
512 Rehabilitation.2000;81:351-58.
- 513 [4] Van der Linden M. Gait Analysis, Normal and Pathological Function, 2nd ed. J. Perry,
514 J.M. Burnfield, Slack Inc., 576 pages, ISBN 978-1-55642r-r766-4. 2011. 97(2): p.
515 180-0.
- 516 [5] Thilman AF, Fellows SJ, Ross HF. Biomechanical changes at the ankle joint after
517 stroke. Journal of Neurology Neurosurgery & Psychiatry.1991;54:134-39.
- 518 [6] Rymer WZ, Katz RT. Mechanisms of spastic hypertonia. Physical Medicine and
519 Rehabilitation: State of the Art Reviews. 1994; 8:441–454.
- 520 [7] Bell KR, Vandenborne K. Contracture and limb deformities Principles of Neurologic
521 Rehabilitation. In: Lazar RB, editors. New York: McGraw-Hill;1998. p. 309–328.
- 522 [8] Tabary JC, Tabary C, Tardieu C, Tardieu G, Goldspink G. Physiological and structural
523 changes in the cats' soleus muscle due to immobilization at different lengths of plaster
524 casts. Journal of Physiology. 1972;224: 231-244. 37.
- 525 [9] Williams PE, Goldspink G. Connective tissue change in immobilized muscle. Journal
526 of Anatomy. 1984;138 (Pt 2):343-50.
- 527 [10] Zhang LQ, Chung SG, Bai Z, Xu D, ven Rey EMT, Rogers MW, Johnson ME and
528 Roth EJ. Intelligent stretching of ankle joints with contracture/spasticity. IEEE Trans
529 Neural Sys and Rehab Eng. 2002; 10:149-157.
- 530 [11] Selles RW, Li X, Fang L, Sun GC, Roth EJ, Zhang LQ. Feedback-Controlled and
531 Programmed Stretching of the Ankle Plantarflexors and Dorsiflexors in Stroke:

- 532 Effects of a 4-Week Intervention Program. Arch Phys Med Rehabil.2005;86:2330–
533 2336.
- 534 [12] Wu YN, Hwang M, Ren Y, Gaebler-Spira D, Zhang LQ. Combined Passive Stretching
535 and Active Movement Rehabilitation of Lower-Limb Impairments in Children with
536 Cerebral Palsy Using a Portable Robot. Neurorehabilitation & Neural Repair. 2011;
537 25:378-85.
- 538 [13] Sukal-Moulton T, Clancy T, Zhang L, Gaebler-Spira D. Clinical Application of a
539 Robotic Ankle Training Program for Cerebral Palsy Compared to the Research
540 Laboratory Application: Does It Translate to Practice? Archives of Physical
541 Medicine & Rehabilitation. 2014; 95:1433-40.
- 542 [14] Forrester LW, Roy A, Krywonis A, Kehs G, Krebs HI, Macko RF. Modular Ankle
543 Robotics Training in Early Subacute Stroke: A Randomized Controlled Pilot Study.
544 Neurorehabilitation & Neural Repair. 2014; 28:678-87.
- 545 [15] Lee Y, Chen K, Ren Y, Son J, Cohen BA, Sliwa JA, et al. Robot-guided ankle
546 sensorimotor rehabilitation of patients with multiple sclerosis. Multiple Sclerosis &
547 Related Disorders. 2017; 11:65-70.
- 548 [16] Wikstrom EA, Tillman MD, Chmielewski TL, Borsa PA. Measurement and Evaluation
549 of Dynamic Joint Stability of the Knee and Ankle After Injury. Sports Medicine.
550 2006; 36:393-410.
- 551 [17] Kligyte I, Lundyekman L, Medeiros JM. Relationship between lower extremity
552 muscle strength and dynamic balance in people post-stroke. Medicina.2003;39: 122-
553 128.
- 554 [18] Zhang LQ, Rymer WZ. Simultaneous and nonlinear identification of mechanical and
555 reflex properties of human elbow joint muscles. IEEE Transactions on Biomedical
556 Engineering. 1997; 44:1192-209.
- 557 [19] Zhang LQ, Wang G. Dynamic and static control of the human knee joint in abduction-
558 adduction. Journal of Biomechanics. 2001; 34:1107-15.

- 559 [20] Olmstead TG, Wevers HW, Bryant JT and Gouw GJ. Effect of muscular activity on
560 valgus/varus laxity and stiffness of the knee. *Journal of Biomechanics*. 1986;19(8),
561 565-577.
- 562 [21] Muraoka, T. Elastic properties of human Achilles tendon are correlated to muscle
563 strength. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2005;99:665-69.
- 564 [22] Bohannon RW, Smith MB. Interrater reliability on a modified Ashworth scale of
565 muscle spasticity. *Phys Ther*.1987;67:206-207.
- 566 [23] Fugl-Meyer AR, Jsk L, Leyman IL, Olsson S, Steglind S. The post stroke hemiplegic
567 patient. I. A method for evaluation of physical performance. *Scand J Rehabil Med*.
568 1975; 7:13-31.
- 569 [24] Berg K. Measuring balance in the elderly: validation of an instrument. *Can J Public*
570 *Health* 1992; 83 Suppl 2: S7–11.
- 571 [25] Kaufman M, Moyer D, Norton J. The significant change for the Timed 25-Foot Walk
572 in the Multiple Sclerosis Functional Composite. *Multiple Sclerosis*. 2000; 6:286-90.
- 573 [26] Benaim C, Perennou DA, Villy J, Rousseaux M, Pelissier JY. Validation of a
574 standardized assessment of postural control in stroke patients: The postural
575 assessment scale for stroke patients (PASS). *Stroke*.1999;30:1862-1868.
- 576 [27] Shah S, Vanclay F, Cooper B. Improving the sensitivity of the Barthel Index for stroke
577 rehabilitation. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*.1989; 42:703-09.
- 578 [28] Shumway-Cook A, Woollacott M. Normal postural control. *Motor control: Translating*
579 *research into clinical practice*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins.
580 2007:157-186.
- 581 [29] Winter DA. Human balance and posture control during standing and walking. *Gait &*
582 *Posture*.1995; 3(4),193-214.
- 583 [30] Srivastava A, Taly AB, Gupta A, et al. Post-stroke balance training: role of force
584 platform with visual feedback. *Neurol Sci*.2009; 287:89–93.
- 585 [31] Xu HP, Quan LJ, Qiu Z, et al. Study on validity and reliability of PROKIN balance

586 instrument for predicting fall in elderly people. *Nanchang Univ (Med Sci)*. 2012;
587 52:34–7.

588 [32] Field AP. *Discovering statistics using SPSS for Windows: advanced techniques for the*
589 *beginner*. London: Sage; 2000.

590 [33] Bressel E, McNair PJ. The effect of prolonged static and cyclic stretching on ankle
591 joint stiffness, torque relaxation, and gait in people with stroke. *Phys*
592 *Ther*.2002;82:880–887.

593 [34] Yeh CY, Chen JJJ, Tsai KH. Quantitative analysis of ankle hypertonia after prolonged
594 stretch in subjects with stroke. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods*. 2004; 137:305-14.

595 [35] McNair PJ, Dombroski EW, Hewson DJ, Stanley SN. Stretching at the ankle joint:
596 viscoelastic responses to holds and continuous passive motion. *Med Sci Sports*
597 *Exerc*.2001;33:354-58.

598 [36] Lippincott Williams, Wilkins. Correction to: Guidelines for Adult Stroke
599 Rehabilitation and Recovery: A Guideline for Healthcare Professionals From the
600 American Heart Association/American Stroke Association. *Stroke*. 2017;48(2): e78.

601 [37] Chen CH. Effect on spasticity after performance of dynamic-repeated-passive ankle
602 joint motion exercise in chronic stroke patients. *Kaohsiung Journal of Medical*
603 *Sciences*. 2006; 22:610-17.

604 [38] Thibaut A, Chatelle C, Ziegler E, Bruno MA, Laureys S, Gosseries O. Spasticity after
605 stroke: Physiology, assessment and treatment. *Brain Injury*. 2013; 27:1093–1105.

606 [39] Gandolfi M. Rehabilitation procedures in the management of spasticity. *Eur J Phys*
607 *Rehabil Med*. 2010; 46:423-38.

608 [40] Abo M. Effect of home-based training using a slant board with dorsiflexed ankles on
609 walking function in post-stroke hemiparetic patients. *Journal of Physical Therapy*
610 *Science*. 2016; 28:2353-57.

611 [41] Choi JD. The effect of balance training with plantar flexor stretching on range of
612 motion, balance, and gait in stroke patients: a randomized controlled pilot trial. *Phys*.

- 613 Therapy Rehabil Sci. 2015;4: 66–72.
- 614 [42] Zhang LQ. Developing a Wearable Ankle Rehabilitation Robotic Device for in-Bed
615 Acute Stroke Rehabilitation. *IEEE Trans Neural Syst Rehabil Eng.* 2017; 25:589-96.
- 616 [43] Charrotton Y. Improvement of lower limb functioning in ambulatory chronicle stroke
617 patients undergoing robot-assisted training. *Annals of Physical & Rehabilitation*
618 *Medicine.* 2016;59:e89.
- 619 [44] Gao F, Ren Y, Roth EJ, Harvey R, Zhang and LQ. Effects of repeated ankle stretching
620 on calf muscle–tendon and ankle biomechanical properties in stroke survivors.
621 *Clinical Biomechanics.* 2011; 26: 516–522.
- 622 [45] Waldman G, Yang CY, Ren Y, Liu L, Zhang LQ. Effects of robot-guided passive
623 stretching and active movement training of ankle and mobility impairments in stroke.
624 *Neurorehabilitation.* 2013; 32:625-34.
- 625 [46] Forrester LW, Roy A, Goodman RN, et al. Clinical application of a modular ankle
626 robot for stroke rehabilitation. *NeuroRehabilitation.*2013; 33(1): 85-97.
- 627 [47] Forrester LW, Roy A, Krywonis A, Kehs G, Krebs HI, Macko RF. Modular Ankle
628 Robotics Training in Early Subacute Stroke: A Randomized Controlled Pilot Study.
629 *Neurorehabilitation & Neural Repair.* 2014; 28:678-87.
- 630 [48] Shumway-Cook A, Woollacott M. *Motor Control. Translating Research into Clinical*
631 *Practice.* 3rd ed. Baltimore: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2007.
- 632 [49] Kanekar N, Aruin AS. Aging and balance control in response to external perturbations:
633 role of anticipatory and compensatory postural mechanisms. *Age.* 2014, 36(3):517-
634 521.
- 635 [50] Neumann DA: *Kinesiology of the Musculoskeletal System: Foundations for Physical*
636 *Rehabilitation.* Mosby, 2002; 528–529.
- 637 [51] Lieber RL, Bodine-Fowler SC. Skeletal muscle mechanics: implications for
638 rehabilitation. *Phys Ther.*1993;73:844-56.
- 639 [52] Lloréns R, Noé E, Colomer C, Alca Iz M. Effectiveness, Usability, and Cost-Benefit

- 640 of a Virtual Reality–Based Telerehabilitation Program for Balance Recovery After
641 Stroke: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil.*2015;96(8):1544.
- 642 [53] Kim KH, Lee KB, Bae YH, Fong SSM, Lee SM. Effects of progressive backward
643 body weight supported treadmill training on gait ability in chronic stroke patients: A
644 randomized controlled trial. *Technology & Health Care Official Journal of the*
645 *European Society for Engineering & Medicine.*2017;25:1-10.
- 646 [54] Prentice WE. Balance and Joint Stability: The Relative Contributions of
647 Proprioception and Muscular Strength. *Journal of Sport Rehabilitation.* 2000; 9:315-
648 28.
- 649 [55] Fu FH. The Role of Proprioception in the Management and Rehabilitation of Athletic
650 Injuries. *American Journal of Sports Medicine.* 1997; 25:130-37.
- 651 [56] Mauch M, Kalin X. Reliability of the Prokin Type B Line System (TechnoBody™)
652 Balance System. Internal Project Report. *Praxisklinik Rennbahn.* 2011; 1-9.
- 653 [57] Srivastava A, Taly AB, Gupta A, et al. Post-stroke balance training: role of force
654 platform with visual feedback. *Neurol Sci.* 2009;287: 89–93.
- 655 [58] Di X, Li X, Zhai Y, Neurology DO, Xian GH. Effects of Pro-Kin balance training on
656 balance and the risk of fall in stroke patients. *Chin J Rehabil.* 2017; 32:196–8.
- 657 [59] Peterka Robert J, Loughlin Patrick J, Dynamic regulation of sensorimotor integration
658 in human postural control. *Journal of Neurophysiology.*2004; 91: 410-23.
- 659 [60] Nima T, Jane M, Armstrong D G, et al. The Influence of Diabetic Peripheral
660 Neuropathy on Local Postural Muscle and Central Sensory Feedback Balance
661 Control. *Plos One.* 2015; 10(8): e0135255-.
- 662 [61] Mulder T and Hulstyn W. Sensory feedback therapy and theoretical knowledge of
663 motor control and learning. *Am J Phys Med.* 1984;63: 226-244.
- 664 [62] Duncan PW, Weiner DK, Chandler J, Studenski S. Functional reach: A new clinical
665 measure of balance. *J Gerontol.*1990; 45: 192-197.
- 666 [63] Kim KS. The effects of ankle joint muscle strengthening and proprioceptive exercise

667 programs accompanied by functional electrical stimulation on stroke patients'
668 balance. *Journal of Physical Therapy Science*. 2015; 27:2971-75.