

Focal muscle vibration: evaluation of physical properties and his applications

Filippo Camerota 1*, Claudia Celletti 1, Fabiano Bini 2, Franco Marinozzi 2

¹ Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Division, Umberto I Hospital, Sapienza University of Rome, Italy

 2 Department of Aerospace and Mechanical Engineering, Sapienza University of Rome, Italy

*Corresponding author: Prof. Camerota Filippo, Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Division, Umberto I Hospital, Sapienza University of Rome, Italy, P.le Aldo Moro 5 – 00185 Rome. Tel. +39339 4568082; e-mail filippo.camerota@uniroma1.it

Article history

Published: March 27, 2014 Received: December 20, 2013 Accepted: January 28, 2014

Abstract

Vibration is the sensation produced by sinusoidal oscillation of objects placed against the skin. The vibratory frequency is signaled by the frequency of action potentials fired by the sensory nerves and the total number of active sensory nerves is linearly related to the amplitude of vibration. In the last years many works were done evaluating the different clinical applications of the focal muscle vibration; the aim of this work is to analyze the interaction between the vibratory application and the skin. For this study the apparatus of focal muscle vibration analyzed was firstly calibrated by measuring the actual peak to peak displacement of the tip as a function of the power supplied to the shaker; then were measured the Direct Component (DC) of the force by which the shaker is pushed against the patient's skin and the Alternate Component (AC). We observed that from displacements imposed by the tip ranging from 0 to about 200 micrometers, the applied load increases monotonically, but non linearly, with the displacement; above this value, any further increase of the peak to peak displacements actually does not lead to an effective increase of the amplitude of the mechanical stimulation. We can conclude that with this focal muscle vibration applied to the muscle we are able to stimulate the spindles that respond to 200 micrometers amplitude that are probably ones able to generate a proprioceptive signal.

Keywords: amplitude, frequency, muscle vibration, proprioception, receptors

1.Introduction

Vibration is the sensation produced by sinusoidal oscillation of objects placed against the skin.

The vibratory frequency is signaled by the frequency of action potentials fired by the sensory nerves. Individual mechanoreceptors differ in their threshold sensitivity to vibration: Merkel disk receptors are most responsive to extremely low frequencies (5-15 Hz); Meissner's corpuscles are most sensitive to midrange stimuli (20-50 Hz);the Pacinian corpuscles have the lowest thresholds for high frequencies (60-400 Hz) and at 250 Hz they detect vibrations as small as 1 µm but at 30 Hz require stimuli with much larger amplitudes.

The range of vibration frequencies most commonly used is from 20 to 300 Hz; a frequency around 100 hz has been considered satisfactory for most the applications [1, 2]. Most authors seem to agree that the optimum amplitude of the vibratory stimulus is from 1 to 2 mm because greater than this tend to lead to an overflow of the stimulus into the surrounding muscles and bone.

Vibration with these parameters is able to induce the Tonic Vibration Reflex, that is a reflex muscular contraction in response to vibratory stimulus; vibration of low amplitude (3 mm) with a frequency of 100 Hz is able to induce a contraction within the muscle vibrated and this contraction increases slowly until a plateau is reached. The sustained contraction to the muscle vibrated is associated to a simultaneous relaxation of its prime antagonists [3]. The vibration-induced afferent inflow from the spindles imitated the effect of fusimotor activation [4].

The perception of vibration as a series of repeating events results from the fact that the receptors under the probe are activated synchronously and therefore fire action potentials simultaneously. The intensity of vibration is signaled by the total number of sensory nerve fibers that are active rather than the frequency of firing, which codes the vibratory frequency. If a patient is tested with a 250 Hz vibration near sensory threshold, only Pacinian corpuscles right under the contact point in the skin are activated. As the vibratory amplitude is increased, more distant Pacinian corpuscles as well as Meissner's corpuscles under the vibrator become activated. The total number of active sensory nerves is linearly related to the amplitude of vibration [5].

Utilizing muscle vibration, a technique known to phase lock spindle afferent discharge with each vibration cycle [6], Goodwin et al. [7] observed a systematic distortion of the sense of position at the elbow joint when one of the muscles at that joint was vibrated. How, or indeed whether, the CNS utilizes information from muscle spindles during active movements has remained unclear in spite of the fact that spindle information is known to reach area 3a of the sensorimotor cortex [8] and the demonstration by direct recording from afferent fibers that muscle spindles are active during isometric contraction [9].

Vibration therapy is currently used in different medical specialties ranging from orthopedics to rehabilitation to sports medicine, but the first applications date back several years ago.

In 1892, near the end of his career, Jean-Martin Charcot , who was the most celebrated and powerful clinical neurologist of the 19th century, delivered a lecture on the topic of vibratory therapy in neurologic disorders: Vibration therapeutics: Application of rapid and continuous vibrations to the treatment of certain nervous system disorders. In his lecture, Charcot summarized the historical background of vibration therapy, and then focused on his own clinical experience in Parkinson Disease. Charcot died 1 year later, and although Gilles de la Tourette continued to study vibration therapy, Charcot's observations were largely forgotten [10].

Hagbarth and Eklund in the 1968 (4) studied the motor effects of muscle vibration in patients with various types of central motor disorders, in particular those associated with spasticity and rigidity.

Bianconi in the1963 [11] studied the response of mammalian spindles to vibration. Later, Beverly Bishop studied the neurophysiologic characteristics of the vibratory stimulation and the possible clinic applications [12-15]. She observed that in normal man, high frequency vibration of a muscle or its tendon evokes a reflexly mediated contraction which augments slowly over a period of twenty to sixty seconds; this involuntary motor contraction is called Tonic Vibration Reflex. Each cycle of the vibratory stimulus stretches the muscle and selectively excites the primary endings of the muscle spindles causing them to fire once for each cycle of vibration [12]. It was observed that, despite the beneficial effects induced by muscle vibration in spasticity disorders (i.e. reduced strength of spasticity and potentiated the weak voluntary movement), the main limitation was that the effect last only during the period of vibration; moreover the duration of vibration is limited to one or two minutes, otherwise the heat or friction from the vibration becomes intolerable. Vibration were applied over a muscle or tendon; the vibrator oscillate at 150 hertz with an amplitude of 1.5 millimeters.

Roll [16] applied a low amplitude (0.5 mm) muscle vibration showing that the muscle spindle primary endings (Ia fibres) were the most sensitive to this mechanical stimulus.

Rosenkranz and Rothwell [17] showed that sensory input from short periods (1.5s) of isolated muscle vibration affected the pattern of excitability in circuits controlling output to the vibrated as well as nearby muscle. Then, they evaluated the effect in the sensory motor organization induced by a long-term stimulus consisted of vibration applied discontinuously for 15 min (80 Hz, 0.2-0.5 mm amplitude); they concluded that a pure sensory input like muscle vibration can remodel the way that subsequent sensory inputs interact with motor output.

In the last years many works were done evaluating the different clinical applications of the focal muscle vibration; in particular the role of vibration in improving proprioception and postural stability [18-20] and in modulation of spasticity in chronic stroke and cerebral palsy [21-24].

The aim of this study is to analyze the interaction between the vibratory application and the skin evaluating witch type of receptor may be activated using a fixed frequency of vibration (100Hz) with different amplitude.

2. Materials and Methods

This study was conducted in the Bioengineering Department of the "Sapienza University" in collaboration with the Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Division.



Figure 1. The CRO-System device.

Focal muscle vibration: evaluation of physical properties

The instrument used to do the evaluation was a device named CRO-SYSTEM (Figure 1), international patent by NEMOCO srl (Italy) consisting of an electromechanical transducer, a specific mechanical support and an electronic control device. The transducer of this instrument is known to develop a sinusoidally time modulated (100 Hz) force (4-6 N), with a variable amplitude displacement (from 50 micrometer to about 2 mm). The apparatus was firstly calibrated by measuring the actual peak to peak displacement of the tip as a function of the power supplied to the shaker. To this aim, a miniature accelerometer was applied to the tip and the displacement was computed by double integration of the acceleration signal. Then, the CRO System has been sensorized in order to obtain information about the actual mechanical stimulation delivered to the subject.

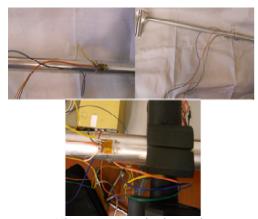


Figure 2. The strain gages glued onto the supporting bar.

In particular, referring to Figure 2, on the bar which supports the shaker were applied electrical resistance stain gages, in order to measure the Direct Component (DC) of the force by which the shaker is pushed against the patient's skin. The calibration of this DC force sensor was accomplished applying known constant forces to the bar in correspondence to the tip and recording the imbalance of the Wheatstone bridge in which the strain gages were placed. At the same time, the Alternate Component (AC) of the pushing force were measured by means of a piezoelectric load cell (Figure 3).

The system was then calibrated for eliminating the inertial contribution to the applied force due to the acceleration of the tip.

3. Results

Two subjects were evaluated using this method and the results obtained were illustrated in the figure 4.

The graphs show that from displacements imposed by the tip ranging from 0 to about 200 micrometers, the

Above this value, any further increase of the peak to peak displacements actually does not lead to an effective increase of the amplitude of the mechanical stimulation. This is due to the fact that, increasing the amplitude of

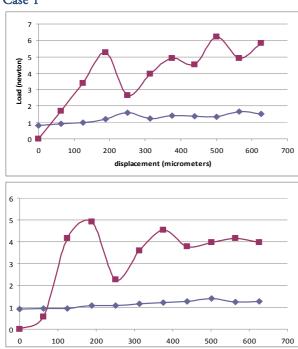


Figure 3. The piezoelectric load cell placed near the pushing tip.

the stimulation, the mass of the tissue become more and more accelerated and thus the inertial forces tends to overcome the elastic reaction force. When this happens, the tissue detaches from the tip yielding to a decreased mechanical energy transfer to the patient. These findings seems to suggest that (at 100Hz and with 1N of preload) an optimal stimulation amplitude should not exceed the value of about 200 micrometers. To obtain efficient stimulation at higher amplitudes, one should increase the constant preload in order to increase the elastic reaction force and avoid the detachment of the tip. This finding confirms the substantial correctness of the previous semiempirical treatment protocol where the preload was increased roughly with the increasing stimulation amplitude. Furthermore, in the figure 5 is illustrated the AC force as a function of the DC preload for the case 1. There is an excellent correlation (R2=0,81) between the two load components. In particular, the DC preload tends to increase allows with higher AC pushing forces. This means that the action of the tip on the tissue has a non linear component due to the (intuitive) circumstance that the tip can only push the tissue while it cannot perform a pulling action, so the DC load increases with the AC amplitude of the tip oscillation.

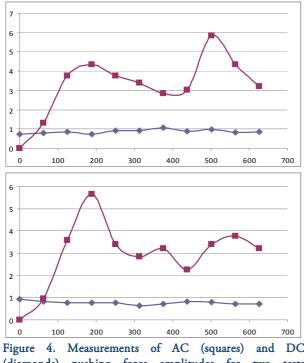
4.Discussion

The term kinaesthesia was coined by Bastian [25] and refers to the ability to sense the position and movement of arm, limb and trunk. The principal muscle receptors in kinaesthesia is the muscle spindle. It includes both the primary and secondary endings of spindles. Primary endings respond to the size of muscle length charge and it speed [26]. The term proprioception is referred to receptors concerned with conscious sensations and include kinaesthesia sense of tension or force and the sense of balance the sense of effort. It's possible to generate an artificial proprioceptive signal using muscle vibration [26].



Case 1





(diamonds) pushing force amplitudes for two tests conducted on two different subjects.

Vibration produces sensations of limb displacement and movement leading the subjects to express astonishment and the unwilled nature of the sensations. The muscle spindles are the unwilled nature of the sensations. The muscle spindles are the principal kinaesthetic receptors as demonstrated by the illusion of limb movement and displacement position produced by vibration over the tendons or muscle. The useful of vibration and his therapeutic applications has been investigated in the past years. The mechanisms underlying the role of vibration as a proprioceptive inflow able to conditioning the central nervous system are still unclear also if some possible mechanisms are implicated. In fact is known that the cortical motor region are activated by the corticospinal pathway excitated after the modulation of Ia inputs [27]. The Ia afferent fiber discharge are obtained through the muscle sprindles activation mediated by the muscle tendon vibration (16). The interaction between proprioceptive input evoked by peripheral muscle vibration and mechanisms of increased intracortical excitability most probably takes place upstream of the cortico-spinal neurons and reflects reduced intracortical inhibition, arguably due to a reduced excitability of GABAergic interneurons (28).

Also if the useful physical parameters (frequency and amplitude) are known, is not so clear how is possible to drive the receptors in the better way. In fact Roll have examinee the response to small vibration using only a range of frequencies and amplitude in order to drive the receptors in a 1:1 manner (i.e. a very robust response). In this study we observed that to obtain the better response, i.e. the better energy transfer, the load less of 5 Newton is adequate to obtain about 200 µm of displacement in a linear model; at this amplitude is really possible to activate the afferent Ia, and also he Ib and II, in presence of a low muscle contraction. Furthermore, a vibratory stimulation with an high amplitude is not useful when applied to the muscle, because is an elastic system; the 1:1 relation between force and amplitude up to 200 µm may be present only in a rigid system.

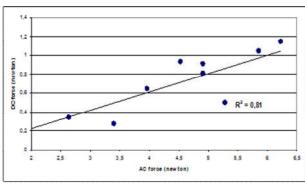


Figure 5. AC force as a function of the DC preload for the case1.

Focal muscle vibration: evaluation of physical properties

5.Conclusion

In spite of this is only a preliminary study, the focal muscle vibration applied in different clinical study previously published (18-24) seems really able to stimulate

spindles that respond at 200 m of amplitude (i.e. Ia, but also Ib) without induce the TVR reflex and working in this way, in the proprioceptive control.

References

1 Eklund G, Hagbarth KE. Normal variability of tonic vibration reflexes in man. Exp Neurol.1966;16:80-92.

2. Hagbarth KE. The effect of muscle vibration in normal man and in patient with motor disorder. Desmedt editor 1973. New Developments in Electromyography and Clinical Neurophysiology p.428-443.

3. Eklund G, Hagbarth KE. Normal variability of tonic vibration reflexes in man. Exp Neurol.1966;16:80-92.

4. Hagbarth KE, Eklund G. The effects of muscle vibration in spasticity, rigidità, and cerebellar disorders. J Neurol Neurosur Psychiat 1968;31:207-213.

5. Gardner EP, Martin JH, Jessel TM. The bodily senses. In Kandel E, Schwartz JH, Jessell TM. Principles of Neural Science,2000, Fourth edition.

6. Bianconi R, van der Meulen JP. The responses to vibration of the end-organs of mammalian muscle spindles. J Neurophysiol 1963; 26:177-190.

7. Goodwin GM, McCloskey DI, Matthews PBC. Proprioceptive illusions induced by muscle vibration: contribution to perception by muscle spindles? Science 1972a; 175:1382-1384.

8. Phillips CG, PoweU TPS, Wiesendanger M. Projection from low-threshold muscle afferents of hand and forearm to area 3a of baboon's cortex. J Physiol (Lond) 1971; 217:419-446.

9. Capaday C, Cooke JD. Vibration-induced changes in movement-related EMG activity in humans. Exp Brain Res. 1983;52:139-46.

10. Goetz CG. Jean-Martin Charcot and his vibratory chair for Parkinson disease. Neurology 2009;73:475-478.

11. Bianconi R, van der Meulen J. The response to vibration of the end organs of mammalian muscle spindles. J Neurophysiol. 1963;26:177-90.

12. Bishop B. Spasticity: its physiology and management. Part I. Neurophysiology of spasticity: classical concepts. Phys Ther. 1977;57:371-376.

13. Bishop B. Spasticity: its physiology and management. Part II. Neurophysiology of spasticity: current concepts. Phys Ther. 1977;57:377-384.

14. Bishop B. Spasticity: its physiology and management. Part III. Identifying and assessing the mechanisms underlying spasticity. Phys Ther. 1977;57:385-395.

15. Bishop B. Spasticity: its physiology and management.

spasticity. Phys Ther. 1977;57:396-401.

16. Roll JP, Vedel JP, Ribot E. Alteration of proprioceptive messages induced by tendon vibration in

man: a microneurographic study. Exp Brain Res 1989;76:213-222.

17. Rosenkranz K, Rothwell JC. The effect of sensory input and attention on the sensorimotor organization of the hand area of the human motor cortex. J Physiol. 2004;561:307-32

18. Filippi GM, Brunetti O, Botti FM, Panichi R, Roscini M, Camerota F, Cesari M, Pettorossi VE. Improvement of stance control and muscle performance induced by focal muscle vibration in young-elderly women: a randomized controlled trial. Arch Phys Med Rehabil. 2009;90:2019-2025.

19. Celletti C, Castori M, Galli M, Rigoldi C, Grammatico P, Albertini G, Camerota F. Evaluation of balance and improvement of proprioception by repetitive muscle vibration in a 15-year-old girl with joint hypermobility syndrome. Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken). 2011;63:775-9.

20. Camerota F, Celletti C, Don R, Nucci F. Preliminary evidence of the efficacy of the repetitive muscle vibration therapy in chronic foot drop. Acupunture and Related Therapy 2013;1:27-30.

21. Marconi B, Filippi GM, Koch G, Giacobbe V, Pecchioli C, Versace V, Camerota F, Saraceni VM, Caltagirone C. Long-term effects on cortical excitability and motor recovery induced by repeated muscle vibration in chronic stroke patients. Neurorehabil Neural Repair. 2011;25:48-60.

22. Caliandro P, Celletti C, Padua L, Minciotti I, Russo G, Granata G, La Torre G, Granieri E, Camerota F. Focalmusclevibration in the treatment of upperlimbspasticity: a pilotrandomized controlled trial in patients with chronicstroke. Arch Phys Med Rehabil. 2012;93:1656-1661.

23. Celletti C, Camerota F. Preliminary evidence of focal muscle vibration effects on spasticity due to cerebral palsy in a small sample of Italian children.Clin Ter. 2011;162:e125-8.

24. Camerota F, Galli M, Celletti C, Vimercati S, Cimolin V, Tenore N, Filippi GM, Albertini G. Quantitative effects of repeated muscle vibrations on gait

pattern in a 5-year-old child with cerebral palsy. Case Rep Med. 2011;2011:359126

25. Bastian H. The muscular sense; its nature and localization. Brain 1888;10:1-36.

26. Matthews PB. The reflex excitation of the soleus muscle of the decerebrate cat caused by vibration applied to its tendon. J Physiol. 1966;184:450-472.

27. Steyvers M, Levin O, Van Baelen M, Swinnen SP. Corticospinal excitability changes following prolonged muscle tendon vibration. Neuroreport 2003;14:1901-1905.

28. Rosenkranz K, Rothwell JC. Differential effect of muscle vibration on intracortical inhibitory circuits in human. J Physiol 2003;551:649-660.