

**Differences in outcomes following an intensive upper-limb rehabilitation programme for patients with common CNS-acting drug prescriptions**

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1 Differences in outcomes following an intensive upper-limb  
 2 rehabilitation programme for patients with common CNS-  
 3 acting drug prescriptions.

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17 Tables and Figures

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## 30 Abstract Author Accepted Manuscript

31 Difficulty using the upper-limb is a major barrier to independence for many patients post-stroke or  
32 brain injury. High dose rehabilitation can result in clinically significant improvements in function  
33 even years after the incident, however there is still high variability in patient responsiveness to such  
34 interventions that cannot be explained by age, sex or time since stroke.

35 This retrospective study investigated whether patients prescribed certain classes of CNS-acting drugs  
36 - GABA agonists, antiepileptics and antidepressants-differed in their outcomes on the 3 week  
37 intensive Queen Square Upper-Limb (QSUL) programme.

38 For 277 stroke or brain injury patients (167 male, median age 52 years (IQR 21), median time since  
39 incident 20 months (IQR 26)) upper-limb impairment and activity was assessed at admission to the  
40 programme and at 6 months post-discharge, using the upper limb component of the Fugl-Meyer  
41 (FM), Action Research Arm Test (ARAT), and Chedoke Arm and Hand Activity Inventory (CAHAI). Drug  
42 prescriptions were obtained from primary care physicians at referral. Specification curve analysis  
43 (SCA) was used to protect against selective reporting results and add robustness to the conclusions  
44 of this retrospective study.

45 Patients with GABA agonist prescriptions had significantly worse upper-limb scores at admission but  
46 no evidence for a significant difference in programme-induced improvements was found.  
47 Additionally, no evidence of significant differences in patients with or without antiepileptic drug  
48 prescriptions on either admission to, or improvement on, the programme was found in this study.  
49 Whereas, though no evidence was found for differences in admission scores, patients with  
50 antidepressant prescriptions experienced reduced improvement in upper-limb function, even when  
51 accounting for anxiety and depression scores.

52 These results demonstrate that, when prescribed typically, there was no evidence that patients  
53 prescribed GABA agonists performed worse on this high-intensity rehabilitation programme.  
54 Patients prescribed antidepressants, however, performed poorer than expected on the QSUL  
55 rehabilitation programme. While the reasons for these differences are unclear, identifying these  
56 patients prior to admission may allow for better accommodation of differences in their rehabilitation  
57 needs.

## 58 Introduction

59 Stroke is the most common cause of long-term neurological disability worldwide (1). Currently, half  
60 of all people who survive a stroke are left disabled, with a third relying on others to assist with  
61 activities of daily living (2). A major contributor to ongoing physical disability is persistent difficulty in  
62 using the upper-limb (3). For many years it was believed that spontaneous upper-limb recovery  
63 occurred in the first 3 months following a stroke, with only small rehabilitation-induced  
64 improvements happening after this period (4). However, recent studies have demonstrated that  
65 with specific, high-dose training chronic patients can experience clinically significant improvements  
66 in upper-limb function (5–7). Yet despite these positive results, there is a degree of variability in  
67 patient outcomes that cannot be explained by impairment at admission or other patient  
68 characteristics (7). Identifying factors influencing this variability is therefore of high priority if similar  
69 high-intensity interventions are to be effectively developed.

70 There is an increasing wealth of literature, in both animals and humans, indicating that certain  
71 commonly used prescription drugs influence motor recovery following a brain lesion. Experimental  
72 findings from humans (8–12) indicate that selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) may boost  
73 practice-dependent motor improvements, while animal experiments (13,14) and retrospective  
74 human studies (15,16) indicate activation at GABA receptors is detrimental to motor recovery.  
75 Though carefully matched placebo-controlled studies are the gold-standard for identifying the true  
76 effects of a given drug on motor recovery, these trials are costly and practically difficult. They must  
77 combine chronic drug administration with specific high-dose motor training (17).

78 Retrospective analysis that examines the relationship between drug prescriptions and patients'  
79 response to rehabilitation programmes can provide a solution to some of these issues. In a  
80 naturalistic setting, prescriptions of common drugs come hand-in-hand with the co-morbidities they  
81 are aiming to treat, such as depression, epilepsy or spasticity. These issues may themselves impact  
82 on recovery, or interact with effects of the drug, making it difficult to draw conclusions about  
83 specific drug effects. However, using drug prescriptions to identify patients who systematically  
84 respond better or worse to a given intervention is the first step to singling out the causes of these  
85 disparities, and eventually leveraging these findings to improve interventions for all.

86 Another potential issue surrounding retrospective analysis of existing datasets is that, without pre-  
87 registration, researchers can be biased to make arbitrary analysis decisions motivated by results,  
88 rather than theory. A novel method, known as specification curve analysis (SCA), has been  
89 developed to tackle this problem (18). Using SCA, all reasonable variations of a possible analytical

90 test assessing each hypothesis are run. Rather than examining the results of individual tests, the  
91 results across all tests are interpreted together to make a decision about whether to reject the null  
92 hypothesis (18).

## 93 Aims

94 This retrospective study used SCA analysis to examine whether patients with prescriptions for  
95 certain classes of common drugs acting on the central nervous system (CNS) (i) differed in their level  
96 of upper-limb impairment on admission to a high-dose Queen Square Upper-Limb (QSUL)  
97 rehabilitation programme and (ii) differed their response to the programme. The drug categories  
98 examined were GABA agonists, antiepileptics acting on sodium or calcium channels, and  
99 antidepressants.

## 100 Methods

### 101 Patient Data

102 Patients were referred to the QSUL programme by primary care physicians. The inclusion criteria for  
103 admission to the program was/is broad, focussing on whether patients were likely to achieve their  
104 goals for their upper-limb. There were no restrictions on time since stroke/injury or other  
105 demographic factors, but for patients who experienced any of the following high intensity  
106 rehabilitation was considered unlikely to be beneficial: i) no active movement in shoulder  
107 flexion/forward reach or hand opening/finger extension; (ii) a painful shoulder limiting an active  
108 forward reach (mostly due to adhesive capsulitis); (iii) severe spasticity or non-neural loss of range  
109 and (iv) unstable medical conditions. For more information regarding patient admission see Ward et  
110 al., 2019.

111 Between April 2014 and March 2020, a total of 439 first-time patients had been admitted to the 3-  
112 week programme. Of these, 321 patients had completed the 6 week and 6 month follow-up. There  
113 were several reasons that patients were not available for follow-up: some could not be contacted,  
114 considered it too far to travel, or suffered intercurrent illnesses; a large number were due for  
115 follow-up after the UK COVID-19 lockdown in March 2020. A further 15 patients were excluded as  
116 they did not have mood and/or fatigue measures recorded, and a final 29 patients were excluded  
117 as prescription drug information was not supplied at referral. This left a total of 277 patients for  
118 whom full data sets were available. A break-down of demographics of the included 277 patients  
119 and the excluded 162 are provided in table 1.

	Included patients n=277	Excluded patients n=161	Statistical comparison
Age in years, median (IQR, range)	52 (21, 16-79)	54 (19, 16-84)	W(161, 277)=20184, p=0.098
Gender, male	167	101	$\chi^2(1)=0.164$ , p=0.686
Time since incident in months, median (IQR, range)	20 (26, 2-340)	18 (21 2-409)	W(161, 277)=23444, p=0.370
Lesion type: Hemorrhagic	76 (27%)	41 (25%)	$\chi^2(2)=5.84$ , p=0.054
Ischemic	172 (62%)	90 (56%)	
Other/unknown	29 (10%)	30 (19%)	
Affected limb, right	140	86	$\chi^2(1)=0.518$ , p=0.472
Dominant limb affected	143	88	$\chi^2(1)=0.261$ , p=0.607
Admission Barthel Index, median (IQR)	19 (2)	18 (2)	W(161, 277)=22525, p=0.240
HADS score, median (IQR)	12 (8)	14 (12)	W(161, 277)=17226, <b>p=0.012</b>
NFI score, median (IQR)	35 (15)	40 (14)	W(161, 277)=15489, <b>p&lt;0.001</b>
Drug prescriptions: GABA agonists	49 (18%)	20/117 (17%)	$\chi^2(2)=1.051$ , p=0.591
Antiepileptics	81 (29%)	46/117 (39%)	
Antidepressants	56 (20%)	30/117 (26%)	

120

121 **Table 1: Admission information for included and excluded patients.**122 *IQR- Interquartile range; HADS- Hospital anxiety and depression scale; NFI -Neurological Fatigue Index.*

123

124 **Upper-limb Measures**

125 Function of the affected upper-limb was assessed on admission, discharge, 6 weeks and 6 months  
 126 post-discharge using the following measures: Fugl-Meyer upper-limb (FM), Action Research Arm  
 127 Test (ARAT), and the Chedoke Arm and Hand Activity Inventory (CAHAI). The FM is a stroke-specific,  
 128 performance-based impairment index. Here a modified version was used- excluding coordination  
 129 and reflexes- which specifically focussed on motor synergies and joint function. This had a maximum  
 130 score of 54 and the minimum clinically important difference (MCID) has been reported as 5.25  
 131 points (19). The ARAT assesses patients' ability to handle objects of differing size, weight and shape.  
 132 It has a maximum score of 57 and a MCID of 5.7 points (20). Finally, the CAHAI focuses on how the  
 133 arm and hand are incorporated into bilateral activities of daily living. The maximum score is 91 and  
 134 though no MCID has been reported the minimum detectable change has been reported as 6.2 points  
 135 (21).

136 **Additional Demographic or Subjective Measures**

137 At admission two subjective measures, the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) and the  
 138 Neurological Fatigue Index (NFI), scored out of 42 and 69 respectively, were administered. Other

139 demographic information, e.g. age and sex and neurological information, e.g. time since  
140 stroke/injury (at admission) and whether their dominant arm was affected, was also recorded.

141 Primary care physicians supplied each patient's prescribed drugs at the time of referral. Drugs acting  
142 on the CNS were grouped into three categories: GABA agonists, antiepileptics (acting on sodium or  
143 calcium channels), and antidepressants. Patients were coded as 'on' a category if they prescribed  
144 one (or more) of the drugs within the category. Dose or prescription directions were not recorded.  
145 The specific drugs included in each category were: GABA agonists (n=49) – baclofen (n=41),  
146 clonazepam (n=3), diazepam (n=4), clobazam (n=2), and sodium valproate (n=3); antiepileptics  
147 (n=81) – topiramate (n=1), zonisamide (n=2), lamotrigine (n=13), lacosamide (n=4), (ox)carbazepine  
148 (n=2), phenytoin (n=3), levetiracetam (n=33), pregabalin (n=16) and gabapentin (n=21);  
149 antidepressants (n=56) - fluoxetine (n=9), citalopram (n=20), escitalopram (n=1), sertraline (n=10),  
150 paroxetine (n=2), duloxetine (n=2), venlafaxine (n=1), mirtazapine (n=9) and amitriptyline (n=9).  
151 While there are other centrally acting drug categories that would have been of interest, they were  
152 not prescribed in sufficient numbers to make analysis viable (e.g. neuroleptics n=3, cholinergic drugs  
153 n=0, dopaminergic drugs n=3, centrally acting hypertensives n=1)

## 154 Analysis

155 All analyses were performed using R (RStudio version 1.1.456). Though this study had the clear  
156 objective of testing whether patients prescribed certain classes of CNS-acting drug prescriptions  
157 differed in motor outcomes following the QSUL programme, as a retrospective analysis of existing  
158 data, pre-registration was not a convincing solution to eliminating bias in subjective analysis  
159 decisions. Increasingly, specification curve analyses (SCA) are being used to circumvent this problem  
160 for hypothesis testing on medium-to-large data sets (18,22–24). SCA is a tool for mapping out a  
161 relationship of interest across all potential, defensible, hypothesis tests examining this relationship.  
162 Conclusions are drawn from the sum total of the results across all of the analyses rather than  
163 focussing on the results of only one test. While this method could be criticised for lumping together  
164 multiple different hypotheses in this case our overarching theoretical hypothesis, that there is a  
165 relationship between drug prescriptions and motor outcomes- a concept which is assessed by all  
166 three upper-limb measures- makes the SCA well suited.

167 SCAs were run on a variety of linear regression models examining whether patients in certain drug  
168 prescription groups - GABA agonists, antiepileptics, and antidepressants - differed on (i) admission  
169 motor function and/or (ii) recovery/outcome at the 6 month timepoint. To assess the differences  
170 across the drug groups, the regression coefficient (i.e. the magnitude of the relationship between



171 prescription group and the admission score) and the p-value (i.e. whether this relationship was  
 172 statistically significant) were extracted from each of the linear models and fed into the SCA. The  
 173 code is available here [provided on acceptance].

#### 174 Identification of individual models for specification

175 For each of the three upper-limb measures- FM, ARAT and CAHAI- the association between the score  
 176 at admission and the drug group was estimated using a linear regression model containing the  
 177 prescription drug of interest and a variety of different covariates, grouped in pairs, which could be  
 178 included or excluded from the analyses. These were: demographic information (i.e. age and sex);  
 179 neurological incident information (i.e. time since incident and whether the dominant arm was  
 180 primarily affected); subjective measures (i.e. HADS and NFI); and prescription of the other two drug  
 181 groups. Inclusion or exclusion of outlying patients was also varied, where outlying patients were  
 182 defined as having a recovery score ( $T_{\text{admission}}$  to  $T_{6\text{month}}$ ) that was outside 2.5\*the interquartile range  
 183 (IQR) from the median. This created a total of 96 different models, all assessing whether patients  
 184 with prescriptions of the drugs of interest differed in upper-limb function at admission. To allow  
 185 easier comparison between the different upper-limb measures, each of which has a different scale,  
 186 all measures were converted to a proportion of the maximum score ( $T_x/T_{\text{Max}}$ ).

187 To assess the association between drug prescriptions and improvement, all three upper-limb  
 188 measures were again examined, and the same set of covariates were either included or excluded.  
 189 There are a variety of different ways improvement could be modelled: an outcome model,  
 190 examining the final  $T_{6\text{month}}$  score from the  $T_{\text{admission}}$  score; an absolute recovery model, examining the  
 191 change in score from  $T_{\text{admission}}$  to  $T_{6\text{month}}$ ; or a relative recovery model, examining the amount of  
 192 recovery achieved relative to the amount possible ( $(T_{6\text{month}} - T_{\text{admission}})/(Max\ Score - T_{\text{admission}})$ ). This  
 193 creates a total of 288 possible models all of which test the hypothesis that motor improvement  
 194 following the QSUL differs by drug prescription status. Again, all outcome scores were proportions of  
 195 the maximum possible score, and recovery scores were calculated using these proportions.

196 SCA models were also run to test whether patient's HADS score was associated with improvement.  
 197 The same models were run as for the drug prescription analysis, except all drugs were either  
 198 included or excluded together, and NFI was included or excluded independent to HADS score.

#### 199 Hypothesis testing of SCA

200 In each SCA, a certain proportion of the models examined will report a relationship that reaches  
 201 statistical significance ( $p < 0.05$ ). However, SCA aims to examine the evidence as a whole, summing

202 across all the different individual models. In order to assess the statistical significance of the sum of  
203 evidence from a given SCA, a permutation method was used to generate the distribution of p-values,  
204 given the null hypothesis that the dependent variable (drug prescription) of interest has no  
205 relationship with the independent variable (admission/improvement score) (22). For each SCA, in  
206 500 permutations, the independent variables were shuffled, while keeping the dependent variables  
207 and covariates un-shuffled. The total number of models with a significant relationship between the  
208 dependant and independent variable, for each permutation of the SCA was then extracted. A p-  
209 value for each SCA was calculated as the proportion of these permutations that had at least as many  
210 significant models as the original data.

## 211 Results

### 212 Differences between included and excluded participants

213 To assess whether there were any differences in the demographics of participants who were  
214 included in the analysis compared with those who were excluded, Mann-Whitney U and chi-square  
215 tests were performed, with full results reported in Table 1. Nominal variables were analysed using a  
216 non-parametric method as Shapiro-Wilks test indicated that all variables deviated from the normal  
217 distribution. Briefly, included participants tended to have lower HADS ( $W(161,277)=17226$ ,  $p=0.012$ )  
218 and lower NFI ( $W(161,277)=15489$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) scores, but there was not sufficient evidence to reject  
219 the null hypothesis of no differences in any other measures. While these findings indicate that  
220 included participants were less depressed/anxious and had less fatigue, the median scores for both  
221 groups on HADS indicate mild depression/anxiety symptoms (25) and NFI scores were within a  
222 normal range (26).

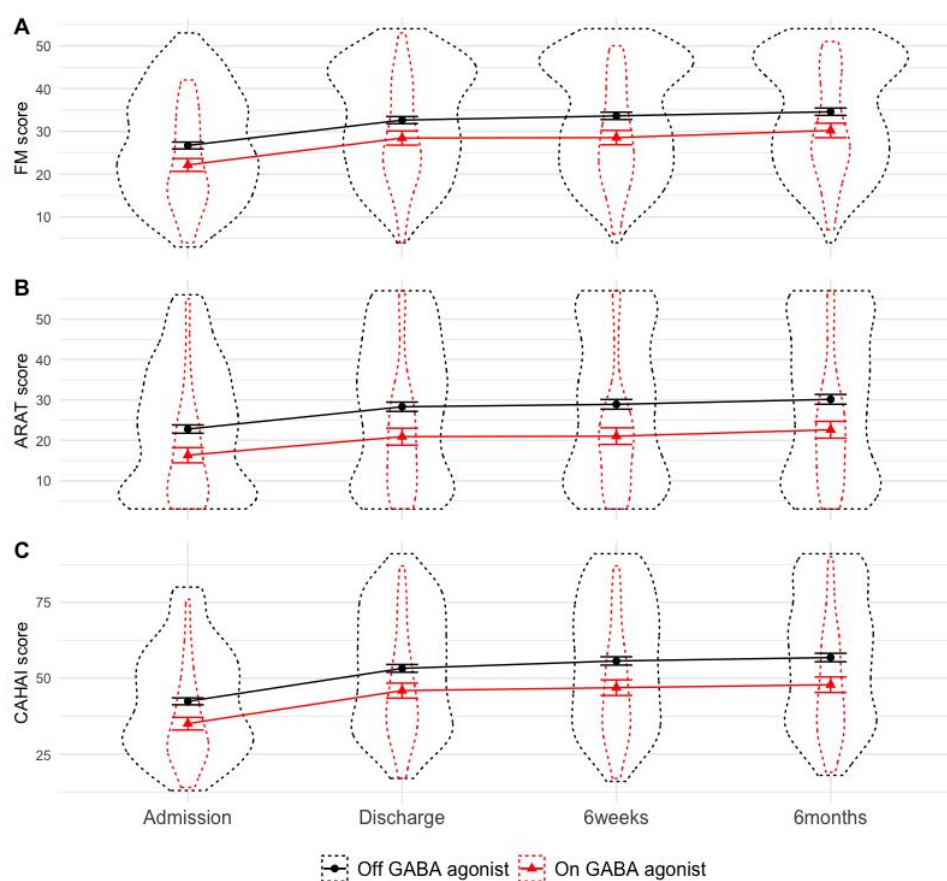
### 223 GABA agonist prescriptions had a significant negative relationship with admission 224 scores, but not improvement.

225 SCA of the admission scores revealed that patients who had a prescription of GABA agonists were  
226 significantly worse on admission to the QSUL ( $p<0.002$ ). Of the 96 separate models run in the  
227 admission SCA, 84 reported a significant difference in scores between this drug category, and across  
228 all three of the different admission measures where patients with GABA agonist prescriptions had  
229 lower scores (see Figure 3A). The mean value of the regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) for significant results  
230 was -0.085, with a range of -0.115 to -0.066. This equates to a mean of 8.5% (range 6.6 – 11.5%)  
231 reduction in admission scores in patients with a GABA agonist prescription relative to those without.  
232 Mean  $\beta$  across all models was -0.083 (range -0.115 to -0.062).

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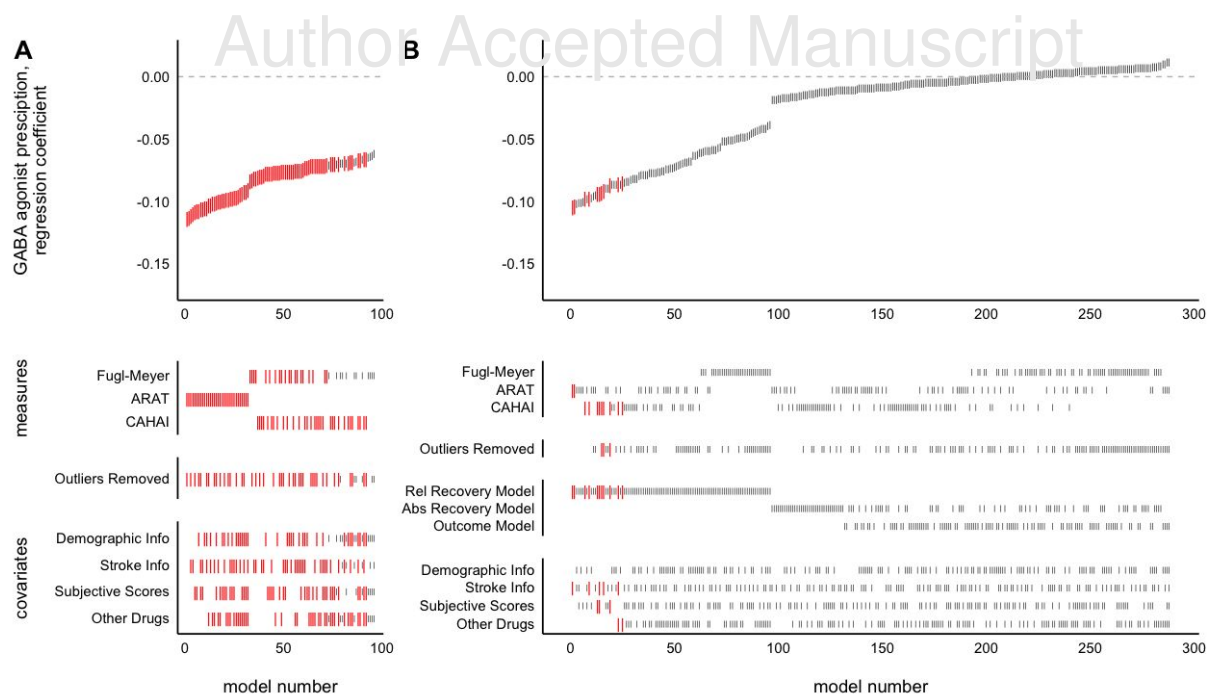
234 Using SCA to examine whether GABA agonist prescription related to degree of programme-related  
 235 improvements in motor function did not generate sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis of  
 236 no difference ( $p=0.266$ , 11/288 models significant, mean  $\beta= -0.026$ , range  $-0.104$  to  $0.01$ ; see Figure  
 237 2B).



238

**Figure 1: Measures of upper-limb function, across time split by GABA agonist prescription.**

Patients on GABA agonists had worse upper limb function at admission, but did not differ in degree of improvement during the programme. Dotted outline shows violin plot, solid lines show mean and standard error.



239

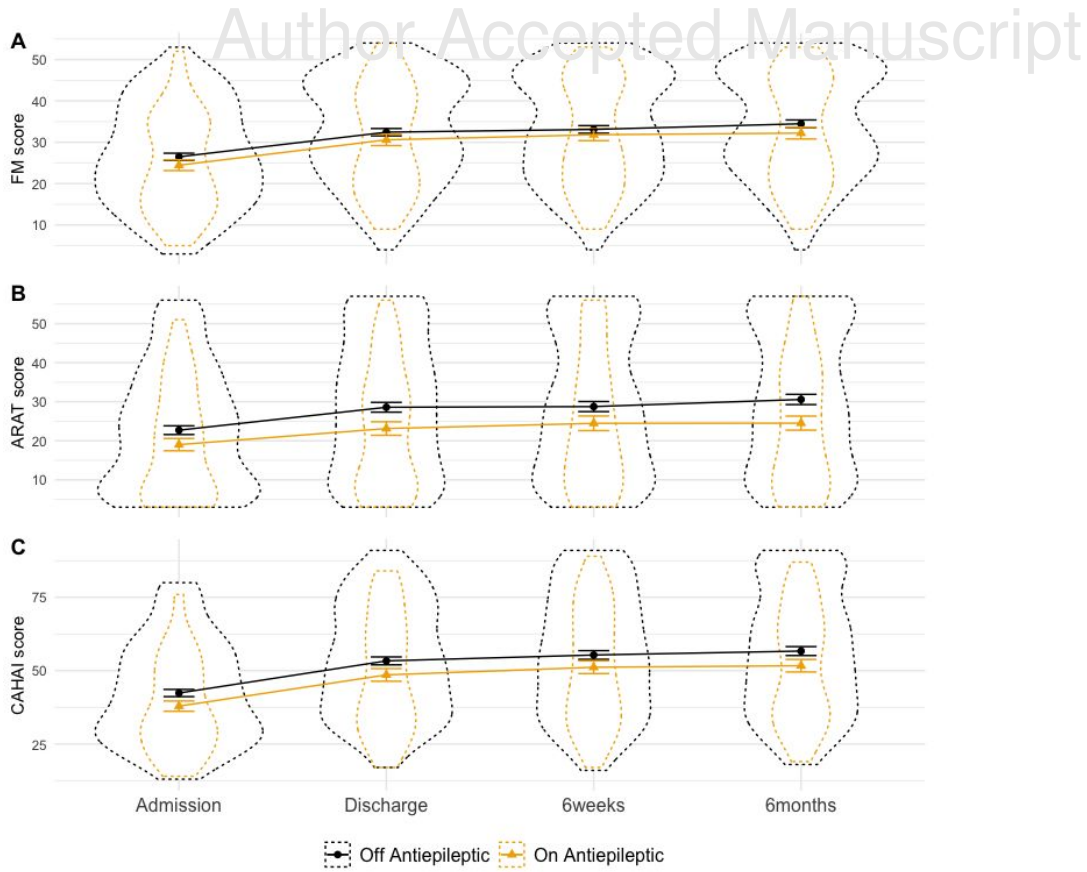
240 **Figure 2: SCA examining relationship between GABA agonist prescription and measures of upper-limb function at**  
 241 **admission (A) or improvement (B).**

242 *Each model, sorted by the size of the GABA agonist prescription regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top*  
 243 *panel. Larger red lines represent a significant difference in scores across GABA agonist prescription groups. Lines in the*  
 244 *lower panels indicate the contents of the model. Patients on GABA agonists had worse upper limb function at admission,*  
 245 *but did not significantly differ in degree of improvement during the programme.*

246

247 **No evidence of a significant relationship between antiepileptic prescriptions and**  
 248 **admission scores or programme-related improvements.**

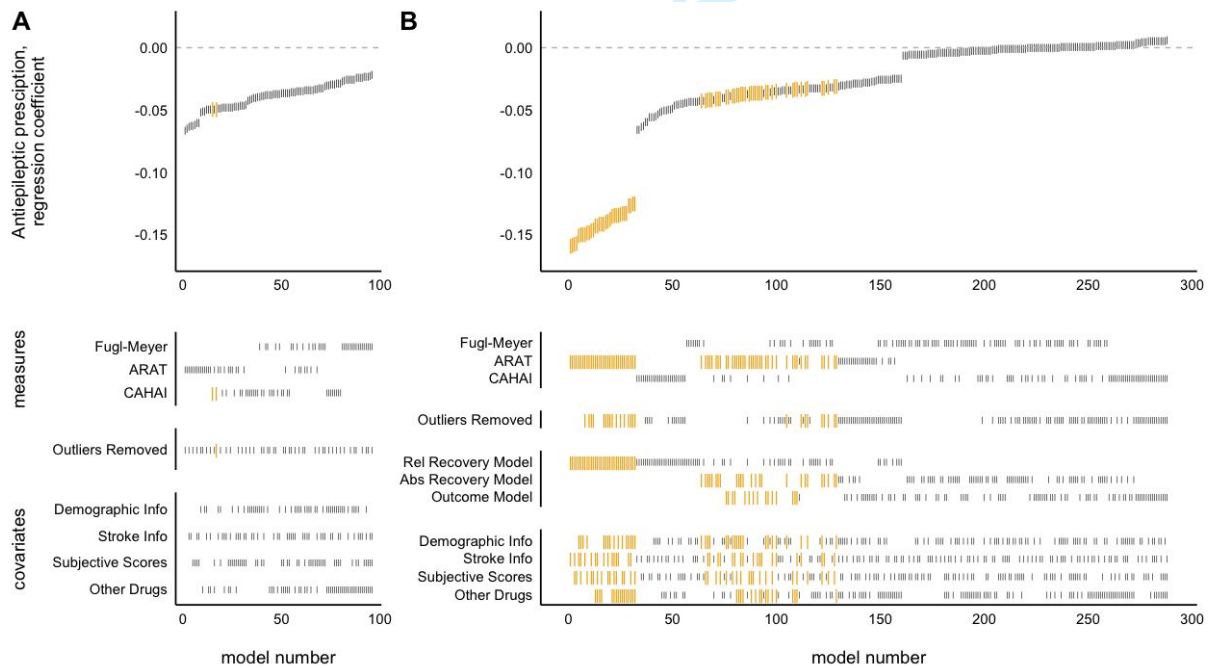
249 The results of the SCA revealed insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship  
 250 between antiepileptic prescription and admission scores ( $p=0.152$ , 2/96 models significant, mean  $\beta=-$   
 251  $-0.039$ , range  $-0.066$  to  $-0.022$ ). (see Figure 4A). However, SCA of antiepileptic prescription and  
 252 improvements revealed a relationship approaching significance ( $p=0.052$ , 77/288 models significant,  
 253 mean  $\beta=-0.032$ , range  $-0.159$  to  $0.006$ ), driven by models examining ARAT scores.



254

255 **Figure 3: Measures of upper-limb function, across time split by antiepileptic prescription.**

256 Patients on and off antiepileptic drugs did not differ in admission or improvement scores. Dotted outline shows violin plot,  
 257 solid lines show mean and standard error.



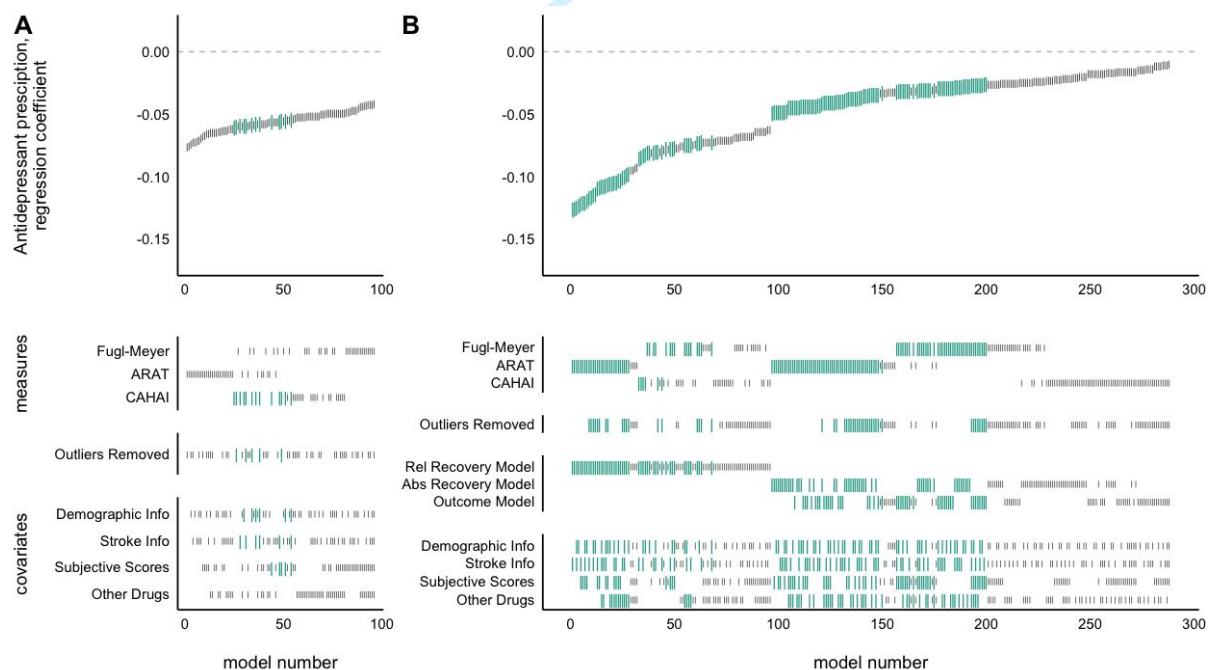
258

259 **Figure 4: SCA examining relationship between antiepileptic prescription and measures of upper-limb function at**  
 260 **admission (A) or improvement (B)**

261 Each model, sorted by the size of the antiepileptic prescription regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top  
 262 panel. Larger yellow lines represent a significant difference between scores in patients grouped by antiepileptic  
 263 prescription. Lines in the lower panels indicate the contents of the model. Patients on and off antiepileptic drugs did not  
 264 differ in admission or improvement scores.

265 Antidepressant prescriptions had a significant negative relationship with  
 266 improvement on QSUL

267 There was not sufficient evidence found using the SCA to reject the null hypothesis of no  
 268 relationship between antidepressant prescription and admission scores ( $p=0.094$ , 13/92 models  
 269 significant, mean  $\beta = -0.058$ , range  $-0.076$  to  $-0.041$ ). However, the SCA found evidence of a  
 270 worsening of programme-related improvements in patients on antidepressants ( $p=0.016$ , 143/288  
 271 models significant, mean  $\beta = -0.047$ , range  $-0.127$  to  $-0.010$ ). Significant regression coefficients were  
 272 found across all measures, though predominantly in FM and ARAT. The magnitude of regression  
 273 coefficients was higher using the recovery model, but a similar number of significant results were  
 274 found across all model types. Covariate inclusion did not appear to reliably dictate model  
 275 significance or regression coefficient size.



276

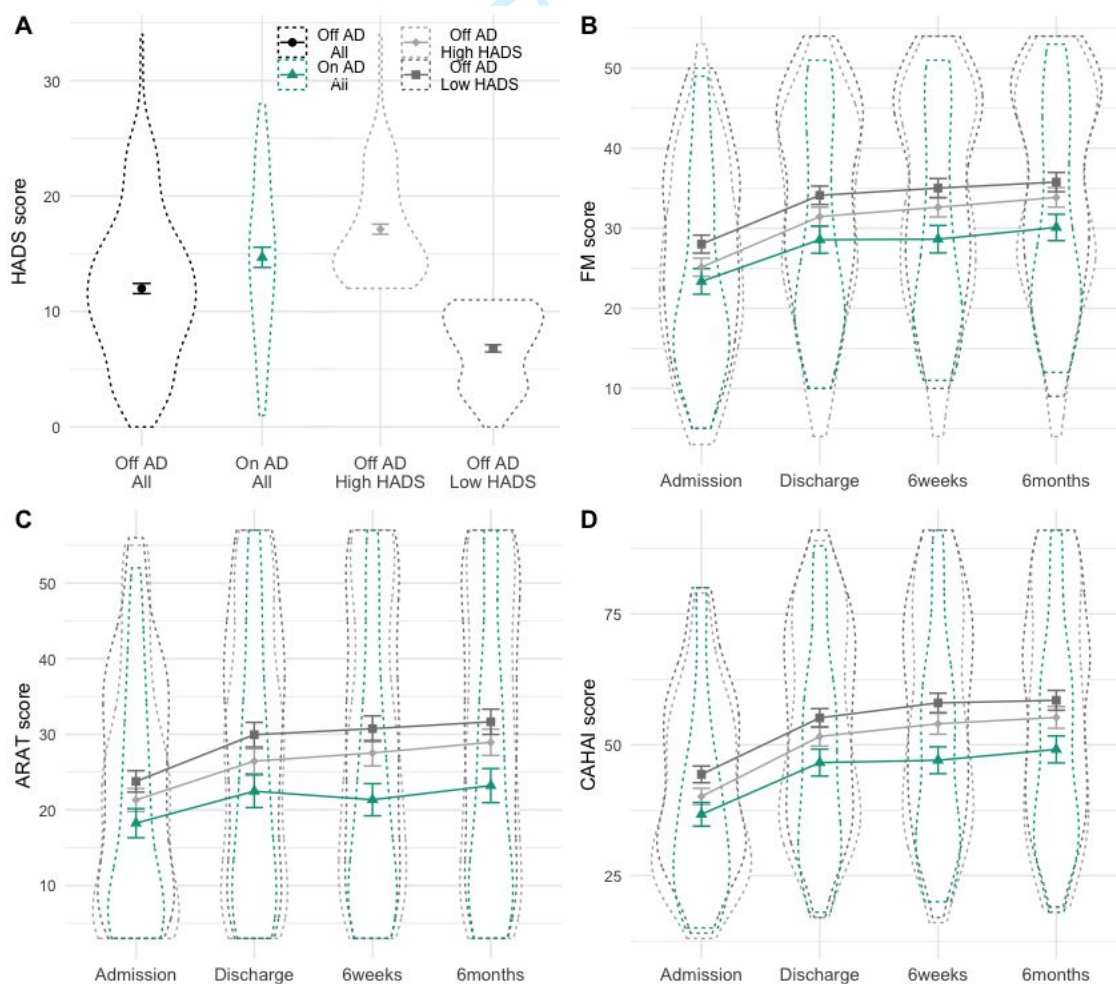
277 **Figure 5: SCA examining relationship between antidepressant prescription and measures of upper-limb function at**  
 278 **admission (A) or improvement (B)**

279 Each model, sorted by the size of the antidepressant prescription regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top  
 280 panel. Larger turquoise lines represent a significant difference between scores in patients grouped by antidepressant  
 281 prescription. Lines in the lower panels indicate the contents of the model. Patients with antidepressant prescription did not  
 282 differ in admission scores, but had lower programme-induced improvement scores.

283 Patients with antidepressant prescriptions had higher HADS scores than those  
 284 without.

285 Although including subjective measures (i.e. HADS and NFI scores) did not systematically alter the  
 286 significance or regression coefficient magnitude of the drug prescription relationship, we wanted to  
 287 further examine the relationship between drug prescriptions and HADS score. Patients with  
 288 antidepressant prescriptions had significantly higher depression/anxiety scores, as assessed by two-  
 289 sample t-test of HADS scores, than those without ( $t(88)=2.76$ ,  $p=0.007$ ) (see Figure 6A). This was not  
 290 however the case for GABA agonist ( $t(66)=1.46$ ,  $p=0.148$ ) or antiepileptic prescriptions ( $t(136)=1.01$ ,  
 291  $p=0.312$ ). NFI score also did not differ by antidepressant prescription ( $t(91)=0.80$ ,  $p=0.425$ ).

292 To follow-up, a median split was performed on the HADS scores in patients without antidepressant  
 293 prescription. These three groups (OnAD, OffAD-HighHADS, OffAD-LowHADS) had significantly



**Figure 6: HADS score and upper-limb function scores split by antidepressant prescription**

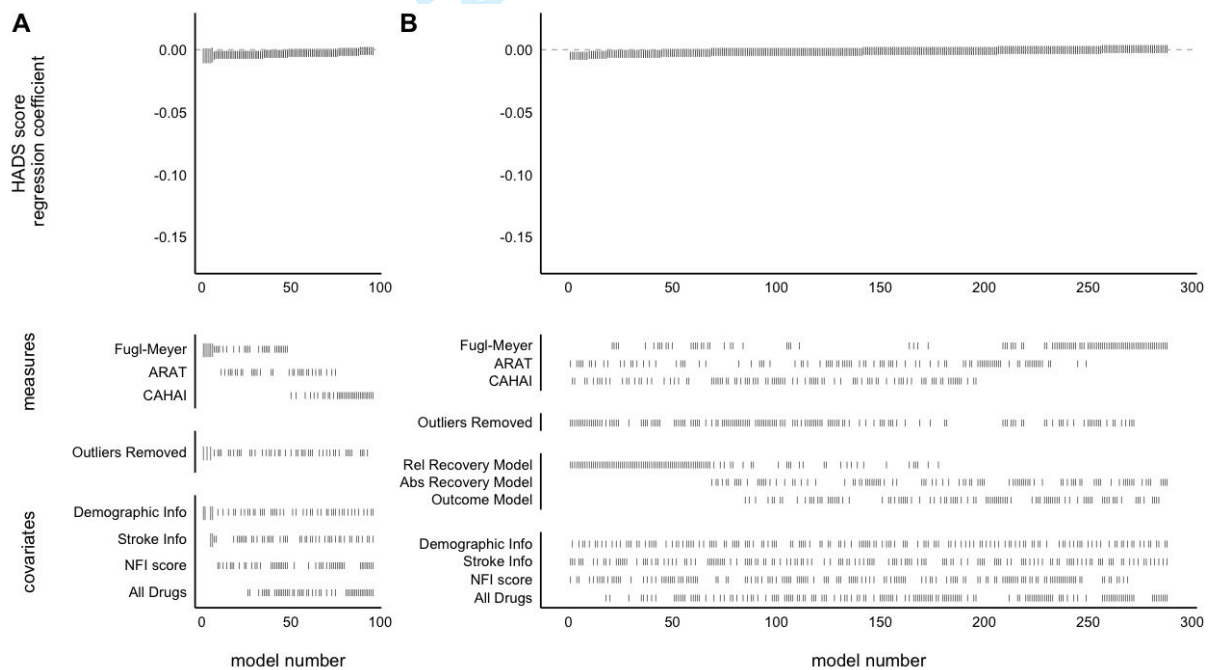
A, HADS scores for patients split by antidepressant prescription (black, turquoise), showing patients with antidepressant prescription have significant higher HADS score than those without. HADS scores for patients without antidepressant prescriptions, median split by HADS score, are also shown (light and dark grey). These groups have respectively higher and lower HADS scores than the group on antidepressants. Dotted outlines are violin plots, solid line shows mean and standard deviation.

B-C, upper-limb function scores across the measurement timepoints, split by antidepressant prescriptions and HADS scores. Visually demonstrating that patients with antidepressant prescriptions have poorer improvement than those without, even when comparing against only those with high HADS scores.

294 different HADS scores (ANOVA:  $F(2,274)=142.3$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), and pairwise comparison showed that the  
 295 AD+ group had significantly higher HADS score than the OffAD-LowHADS (Tukey HSD:  $\text{diff}=7.89$ ,  
 296  $p<0.001$ ) and significantly lower HADS than the OffAD-HighHADS group (Tukey HSD:  $\text{diff}=-2.44$ ,  
 297  $p=0.004$ ) (see Figure 6A). Visual inspection of the motor score data on the three measures, across  
 298 the timepoints separated by these three groups again demonstrates the negative relationship  
 299 between antidepressant prescription and recovery even relative to the OffAD-HighHADS (see Figures  
 300 6B-D).

### 301 No evidence of a relationship between HADS score admission scores or improvement

302 There was not sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between HADS and  
 303 admission scores ( $p=0.170$ , 6/96 models significant, mean  $\beta = -0.003$ , range  $-0.004$  to  $-0.001$ ) or  
 304 improvement ( $p>0.999$ , 0/288 models significant, mean  $\beta = -0.001$ , range  $-0.004$  to  $0.001$ ).



305

306 **Figure 7: SCA of the relationship between HADS score and measures of upper-limb function at admission (A) or**  
 307 **improvement (B)**

308 Each model, sorted by the size of the HADS score regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top panel. Larger  
 309 grey lines represent a significant relationship between HADS score and motor recovery/ outcome. Lines in the lower panels  
 310 indicate the contents of the model. HADS score did not explain variance in baseline motor scores, or recovery/outcome  
 311 scores.

312



## 313 Discussion Author Accepted Manuscript

314 This retrospective study examined whether patients prescribed different classes of common, CNS-  
315 acting, drugs (GABA agonists, sodium or calcium channel blocking antiepileptics, or antidepressants)  
316 responded differently to an intensive, high-dose upper-limb rehabilitation programme. To test this  
317 robustly, SCA was used, where all sensible variations of models examining a certain hypothesis were  
318 run, and the sum of results across all models was interpreted. Using this method patients prescribed  
319 GABA agonists were found to have worse upper-limb scores on admission to the programme but did  
320 not differ in terms of their improvement. This was in contrast to patients prescribed  
321 antidepressants, who did not differ on admission scores but had significantly poorer upper-limb  
322 improvement. There was no difference in admission or improvement scores in patients on  
323 antiepileptics.

324 Patients on GABA agonists had worse admission scores but did not differ in  
325 programme-related improvements in function.

326 Across all three upper-limb measures, patients on GABA agonists had significantly worse admission  
327 scores, around a 6-10% reduction relative to those not prescribed the drug. Despite the large  
328 regression coefficient size, this difference is somewhat difficult to interpret. The drugs in the GABA  
329 agonist category are prescribed for diverse problems, for example baclofen (prescribed to 84% of  
330 the GABA agonist group) for spasticity or benzodiazepines (18% of GABA agonist group) for anxiety,  
331 insomnia and seizures. Clearly any differences in admission scores could be attributed either to the  
332 underlying co-morbidity for which the drug is prescribed, the effects of drug itself, or an association  
333 between the co-morbidity and increased stroke severity. While there were some control measures  
334 recorded at admission, e.g. HADS and NFI scores, there were not any measures of spasticity or sleep  
335 quality which might be relevant for assessing differences between those on and off GABA agonists.

336 Perhaps a more pertinent finding for clinical practice is the lack of significant difference in  
337 programme-related improvements in upper-limb function between patients on and off GABA  
338 agonists. Several studies have previously reported a correlational link between high GABA  
339 concentration (27), or receptor activity (28,29), and worse functional outcomes from rehabilitation  
340 post-stroke. Furthermore, a single dose of the GABA<sub>B</sub> agonist baclofen impairs aspects of motor  
341 learning in healthy humans (30); and GABA antagonists can improve post-stroke motor recovery in  
342 rats (13,14). Given these findings, and another early retrospective study finding a negative impact of

343 benzodiazepine prescription on motor function recovery (15, though see 31), caution has previously  
344 been advised in the prescription of GABA agonists, particularly benzodiazepines, post-stroke (31).

345 Yet in this data set, patients who were taking GABA agonists did not differ in degree of programme-  
346 induced improvements even despite co-morbidities which could additionally hamper potential for  
347 improvement from the programme. The result reported here should not, however, be taken as  
348 evidence that these drugs do not have any detrimental effects on motor rehabilitation- patients  
349 were sometimes advised to take these medications at night, or only as needed, likely minimising their  
350 potential to interact with rehabilitation. Rather, this result should be interpreted as the absence of  
351 difference in programme-induced improvements for patients with typical GABA agonist  
352 prescriptions. It could also be argued that the symptoms which these drugs seek to treat, e.g.  
353 spasticity or insomnia, may themselves worsen rehabilitative potential to a greater degree if left  
354 unresolved (32). Furthermore, we cannot exclude that our lack of effect is due to low power, and so  
355 further large-scale studies are needed.

356 **Patients on sodium and calcium channel blocking antiepileptics did not significantly**  
357 **differ on admission scores or motor improvements on the QSUL programme.**

358 Stroke is the cause of 10% of all epilepsy cases (33) and so a great deal of stroke patients, 29% in this  
359 data-set, are prescribed antiepileptics targeting sodium and calcium channels. Here we found that  
360 there were no significant differences in admission motor scores for patients prescribed antiepileptics  
361 versus those who were not. Comparing improvements on the QSUL programme between the groups  
362 also resulted in a non-significant difference, however there was a trend towards a decrease in  
363 improvements for patients on antiepileptics. Closer examination of this finding shows that it was  
364 driven only by poorer improvements on one measure, the ARAT, with very little effect on the CAHAI  
365 or FM, suggesting that this was not a robust effect across motor measures.

366 Though classic antiepileptic treatments, such as phenytoin or phenobarbital, have been suggested to  
367 be detrimental to motor recovery in retrospective studies (16), there is little evidence for any  
368 influence of modern antiepileptic drugs on patient outcomes (34). In fact some animal studies have  
369 even found neuroprotective benefits of Na channel blockers (35). The results presented here align  
370 with a lack of significant effect of this class of drugs on rehabilitation-induced motor improvements  
371 when prescribed appropriately.

372 Patients prescribed antidepressants do significantly worse on the QSUL programme.

373 Post-stroke depression is a frequent complication of stroke (36,37), most commonly treated by  
374 antidepressant prescription. Here we found that there were no significant differences in admission  
375 scores between patients with and without antidepressant prescriptions. However, when examining  
376 the programme-induced improvements in motor scores, patients on antidepressants did worse than  
377 those off the drugs. Significant regression coefficients were evenly distributed across different motor  
378 measures, whether examining outcome given baseline or recovery, and whether subjective mood  
379 information (i.e. HADS and NFI scores) was included in the model or not.

380 Poorer motor improvements in patients on antidepressants could be driven by effects of the drugs  
381 themselves, of the underlying depression, or a combination of the two. Patients with antidepressant  
382 prescription had higher HADS scores, i.e. had more symptoms of depression and anxiety, than those  
383 without. However, the persistence of the difference between patients across antidepressant  
384 prescription while controlling for HADS, the non-significant relationship between HADS and  
385 improvement, and the observation that patients on antidepressants do worse than patients with  
386 higher HADS scores but off antidepressants, indicates that there is some relationship specific to this  
387 'on antidepressants' category.

388 This result lies somewhat in contrast to the literature on the effect of SSRIs for post-stroke motor  
389 recovery. Inspired by the results of animal (38) and smaller human studies (8–11), one medium sized  
390 placebo-controlled trial found that 3 months of 20mg fluoxetine daily, alongside physiotherapy,  
391 improved motor outcomes in chronic stroke patients (12), and a similar pattern of positive results  
392 has also been found for drugs influencing the noradrenergic system (39). More recent studies  
393 without additional universal concurrent physiotherapy have however, reported null results (40–42),  
394 leading some to suggest that SSRIs are creating a brain environment conducive for plasticity which  
395 can then be exploited by concurrent rehabilitative training (17,43).

396 Here antidepressants (the vast majority of which were SSRIs, ~80%) were paired with rehabilitation,  
397 and so might be predicted to boost recovery. Some speculative reasons could be proposed for this  
398 divergence in findings: it may be that a beneficial effect of SSRIs does not persist in conjunction with  
399 depressive symptoms; or it could be that the antidepressant prescription is a better measure of trait  
400 depression across the 6 month duration of the follow-up than the one-time HADS score at  
401 admission, and the negative impact of these depressive symptoms may outweigh any positive  
402 impact of the drug. Additionally, the patients in QSUL programme tended to be several months post  
403 stroke and were receiving intensive rehabilitation, whereas randomised controlled trials assessed

404 the influence of SSRI's on acute patient recovery in the days to weeks after stroke, with (at most)  
405 only standard in-patient physiotherapy (12). Further research is needed to identify a mechanistic  
406 explanation for the negative relationship, but there is still value in the observation that patients with  
407 antidepressant prescriptions tend to do worse on intensive rehabilitation programmes. Identifying  
408 those patients who may respond less well to the treatment is the first step in developing methods to  
409 improve interventions for these patients.

## 410 Conclusions

411 This retrospective study investigated the relationships between prescriptions of three classes of  
412 commonly used, CNS-acting, drugs and upper-limb improvements of 277 patients during the 3-week  
413 intensive QSUL programme. Patients who were prescribed GABA agonist drugs tended to have  
414 worse upper-limb scores at admission, but there was no evidence of differences in response to the  
415 programme. This indicates that, when appropriately prescribed, patients with GABA agonist  
416 prescription did not perform significantly differently on this upper-limb rehabilitation programme.  
417 This was in contrast to patients with antidepressant prescriptions where no evidence was found for  
418 significantly different upper-limb scores at admission, but these patients showed poorer  
419 improvement on the programme that could not be explained by the HADS measure of depression  
420 and anxiety. If these patients can be identified prior to admission, then differences in their needs on  
421 such programmes may be better identified. There was no evidence of significant differences in  
422 patients with or without antiepileptic drug prescriptions on either admission to, or improvement on,  
423 the programme. Further research is needed to understand these relationships in more detail and to  
424 examine whether the results generalise to other study populations, less intensive upper-limb  
425 interventions, and larger-scale samples.

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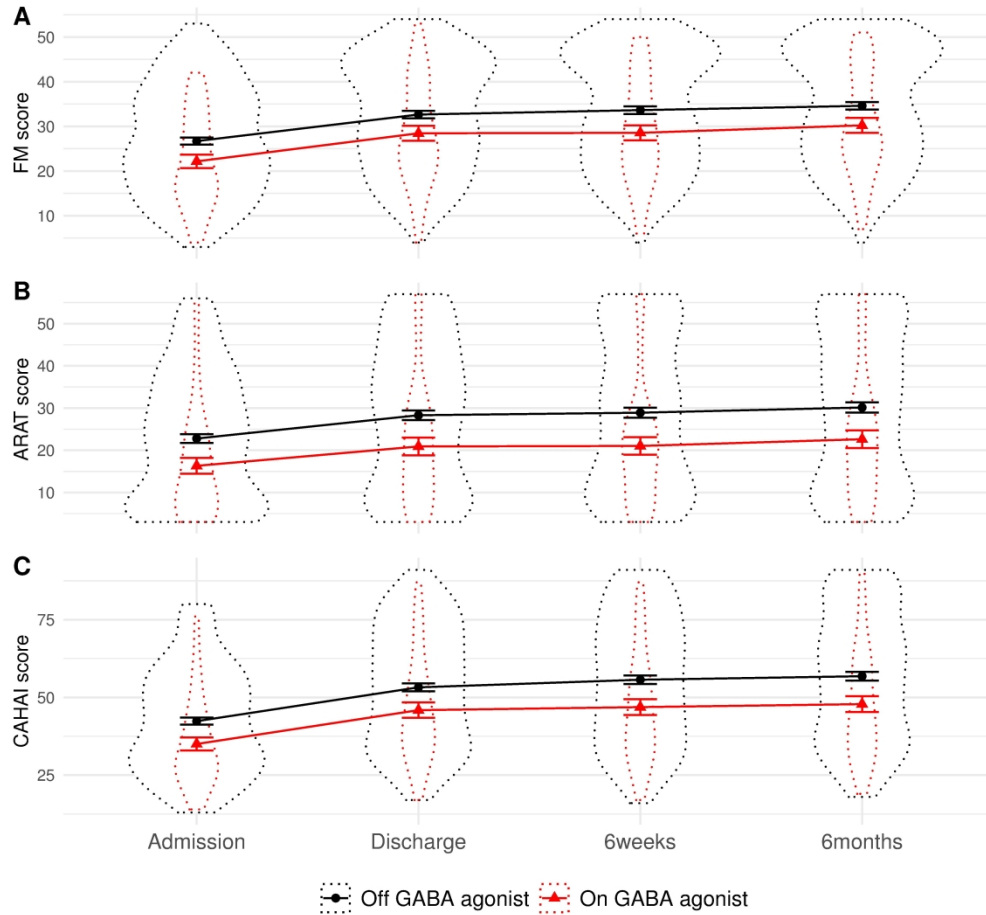


Figure 1: Measures of upper-limb function, across time split by GABA agonist prescription. Patients on GABA agonists had worse upper limb function at admission, but did not differ in degree of improvement during the programme. Dotted outline shows violin plot, solid lines show mean and standard error.

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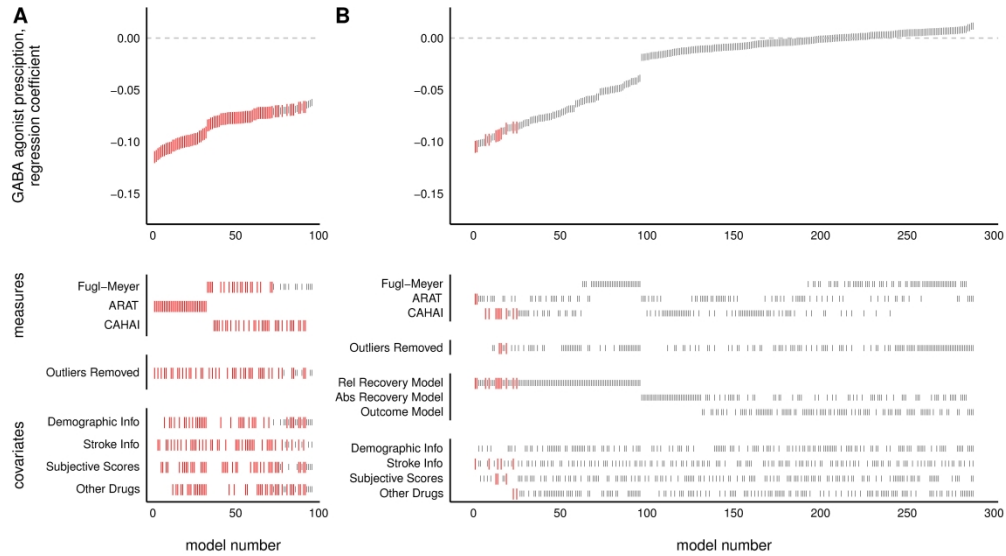


Figure 2: SCA examining relationship between GABA agonist prescription and measures of upper-limb function at admission (A) or improvement (B). Each model, sorted by the size of the GABA agonist prescription regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top panel. Larger red lines represent a significant difference in scores across GABA agonist prescription groups. Lines in the lower panels indicate the contents of the model. Patients on GABA agonists had worse upper limb function at admission, but did not significantly differ in degree of improvement during the programme.

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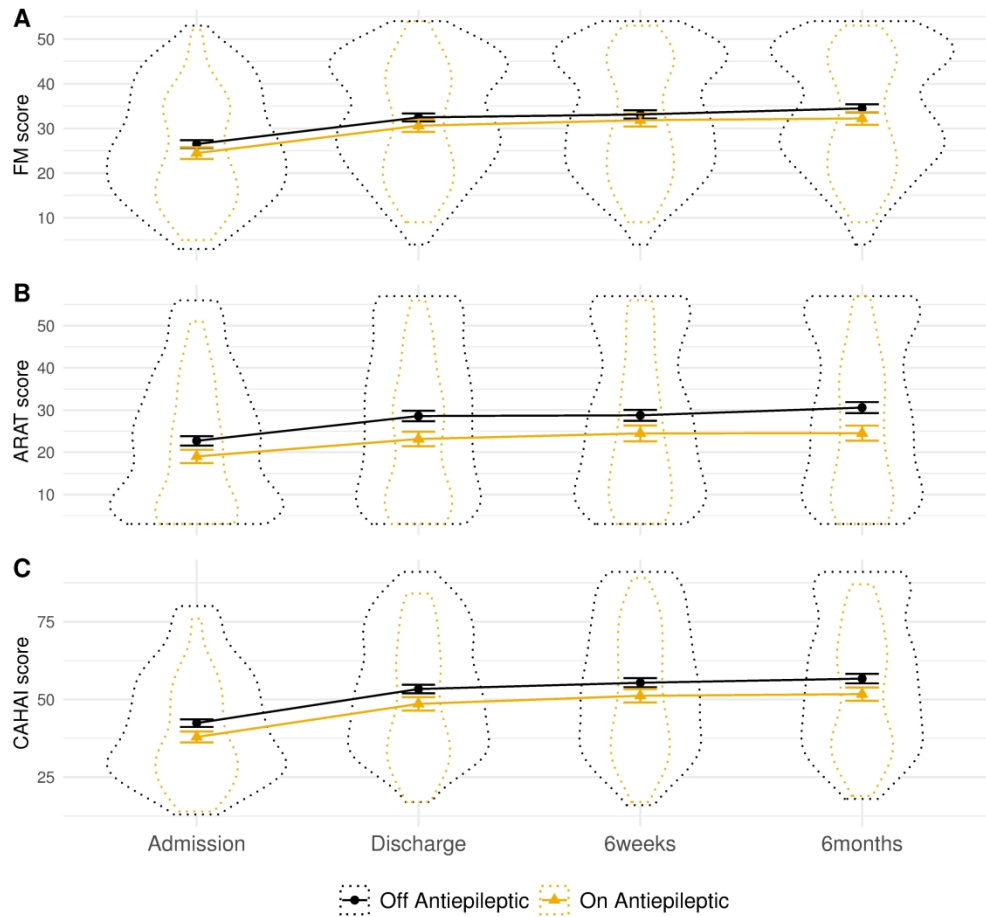


Figure 3: Measures of upper-limb function, across time split by antiepileptic prescription. Patients on and off antiepileptic drugs did not differ in admission or improvement scores. Dotted outline shows violin plot, solid lines show mean and standard error.

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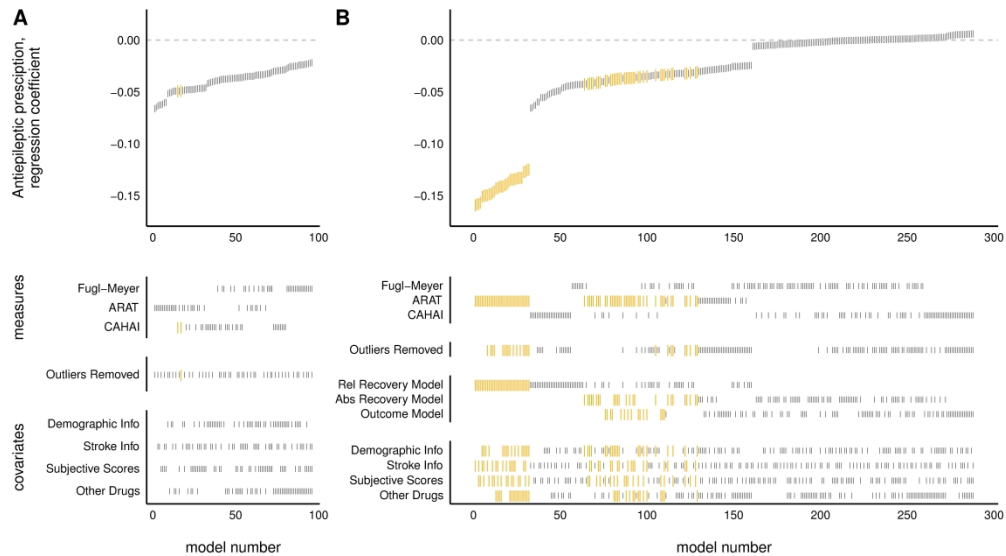


Figure 4: SCA examining relationship between antiepileptic prescription and measures of upper-limb function at admission (A) or improvement (B)

Each model, sorted by the size of the antiepileptic prescription regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top panel. Larger yellow lines represent a significant difference between scores in patients grouped by antiepileptic prescription. Lines in the lower panels indicate the contents of the model. Patients on and off antiepileptic drugs did not differ in admission or improvement scores.

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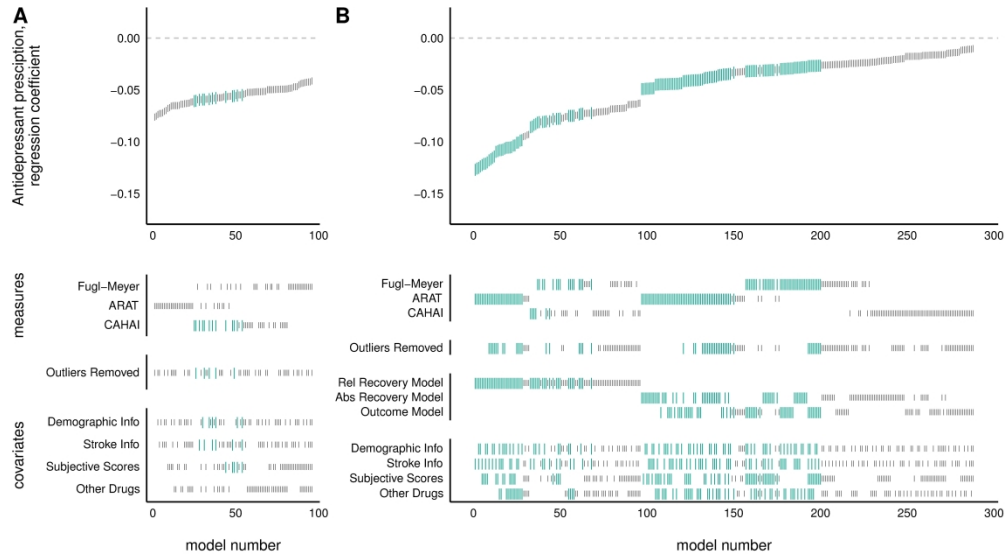


Figure 5: SCA examining relationship between antidepressant prescription and measures of upper-limb function at admission (A) or improvement (B). Each model, sorted by the size of the antidepressant prescription regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top panel. Larger turquoise lines represent a significant difference between scores in patients grouped by antidepressant prescription. Lines in the lower panels indicate the contents of the model. Patients with antidepressant prescription did not differ in admission scores, but had lower programme-induced improvement scores.

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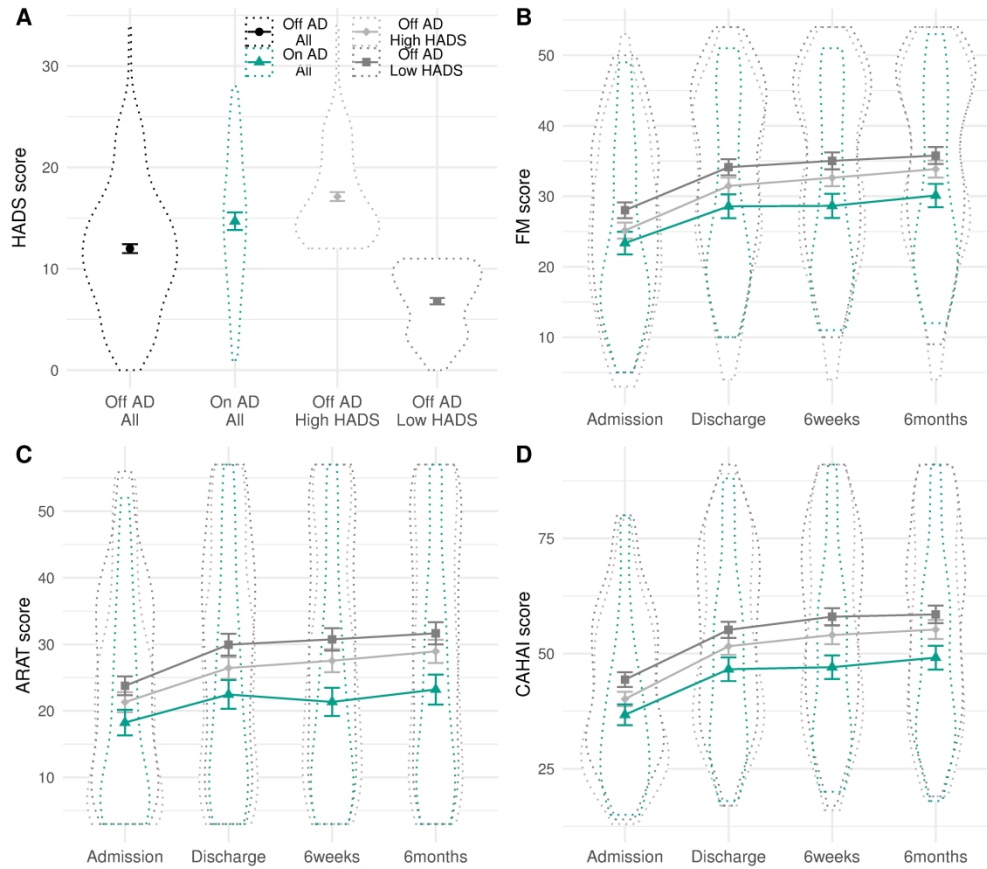


Figure 6: HADS score and upper-limb function scores split by antidepressant prescription  
 A, HADS scores for patients split by antidepressant prescription (black, turquoise), showing patients with antidepressant prescription have significant higher HADS score than those without. HADS scores for patients without antidepressant prescriptions, median split by HADS score, are also shown (light and dark grey). These groups have respectively higher and lower HADS scores than the group on antidepressants. Dotted outlines are violin plots, solid line shows mean and standard deviation.  
 B-C, upper-limb function scores across the measurement timepoints, split by antidepressant prescriptions and HADS scores. Visually demonstrating that patients with antidepressant prescriptions have poorer improvement than those without, even when comparing against only those with high HADS scores.

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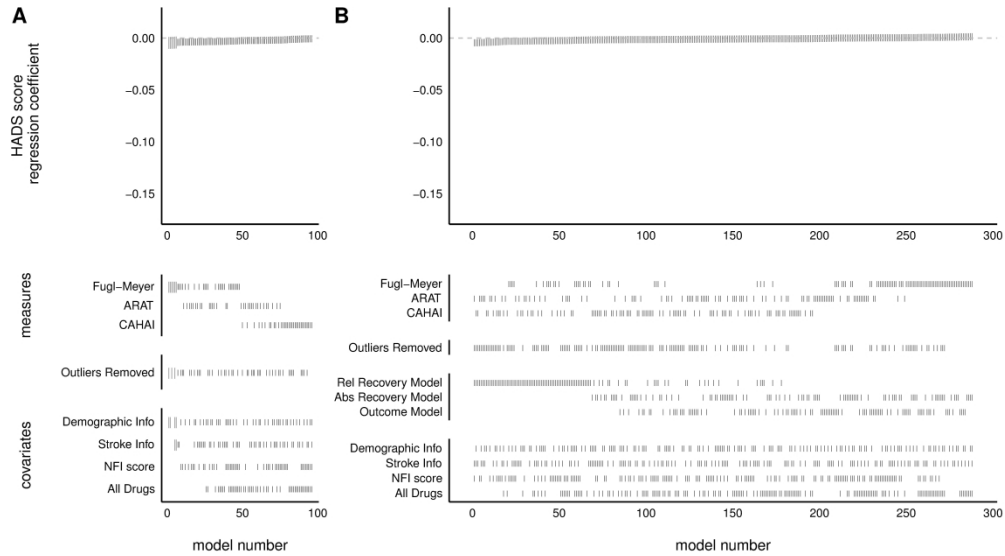


Figure 7: SCA of the relationship between HADS score and measures of upper-limb function at admission (A) or improvement (B). Each model, sorted by the size of the HADS score regression coefficient, is represented by a line in the top panel. Larger grey lines represent a significant relationship between HADS score and motor recovery/outcome. Lines in the lower panels indicate the contents of the model. HADS score did not explain variance in baseline motor scores, or recovery/outcome scores.

330x185mm (600 x 600 DPI)