

1 **Title:**

2 Upper extremity disability is associated with pain intensity and grip strength in women
3 with bilateral idiopathic carpal tunnel syndrome

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5 **Authors:**

6 Akihito Yoshida,^{a,b} Shigeru Kurimoto,^a Katsuyuki Iwatsuki,^a Masaomi Saeki,^a Takanobu
7 Nishizuka,^a Tomonori Nakano,^a Hidemasa Yoneda,^a Tetsurou Onishi,^a Michiro
8 Yamamoto,^a Masahiro Tatebe,^a Hitoshi Hirata^a

9

10 **Affiliation:**

11 ^aDepartment of Hand Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, Nagoya University,
12 Nagoya, Japan

13 ^bDepartment of Rehabilitation, Nagoya University Hospital, Nagoya, Japan

14

15 **Corresponding author:** Akihito Yoshida

16 **Full postal address:** Department of Hand Surgery, Nagoya University Graduate School
17 of Medicine

18 65 Tsurumai-chou, Showa-ku, Nagoya 466-8550 Japan

19 **Telephone number:** +81 52 744 2957

20 **Fax number:** +81 52 744 2785

21 **E-mail address:** yosh.akhito@med.nagoya-u.ac.jp

22

23 **Abstract**

24 Background: The upper extremity disability in patients with carpal tunnel syndrome
25 (CTS) is related to dysfunction due to the median nerve damage. However, there is no
26 report on which dysfunctions affect the upper extremity disability.

27 Purpose: This study aimed to investigate which clinical factors influence upper
28 extremity disability in women with CTS.

29 Methods: We analyzed 60 hands of women with bilateral idiopathic CTS. Upper
30 extremity disability was assessed using Hand10, a validated and self-administered tool.

31 Pain intensity was measured using the Japanese version of the Short-Form McGill Pain

32 Questionnaire (SF-MPQ-J). We performed nerve conduction studies, assessed physical

33 and psychological parameters, and collected demographic data. Physical parameters

34 comprised grip strength, pinch strength, tactile threshold, static 2-point discrimination

35 sensation, and severity of numbness. Psychological parameters include depression, pain

36 anxiety, and distress.

37 Results: The bivariate analysis revealed that Hand10 was significantly correlated with
38 age, symptom duration, SF-MPQ-J, grip strength, pain anxiety, and distress. Multiple
39 regression analysis demonstrated that SF-MPQ-J and grip strength were related to
40 Hand10 score.

41 Conclusions: Pain intensity and grip strength were dysfunctions affecting the upper
42 extremity disability in women with bilateral idiopathic CTS. Rehabilitation approaches
43 for CTS should be considered based on the adaptive activities of the neural networks.

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45 Key words. Idiopathic carpal tunnel syndrome; Bilateral carpal tunnel syndrome;
46 Women; Upper extremity disability; Pain intensity; Central sensitization

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55 **1. Introduction**

56 Carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS) is one of the most common entrapment
57 neuropathies (Bland, 2007). Given that the median nerve in the carpal tunnel is irritated,
58 patients with CTS may experience pain and paresthesia in the thumb, index, middle, and
59 radial side of the ring finger (Atroshi et al., 1999). Advanced CTS symptoms include
60 decreased grip and pinch strengths, resulting in the atrophy of the thenar muscle (Keir et
61 al., 2005). These dysfunctions are related to the upper extremity disability in patients
62 with CTS (Jerosch-Herold et al., 2008), but there is no report on which dysfunctions
63 affect the upper extremity disability. In general, the severity of median nerve damage is
64 evaluated through nerve conduction studies (NCS) (Werner & Andary, 2011).
65 Symptoms of CTS can be relieved by orthosis or carpal tunnel release (Page et al.,
66 2012; Brown et al., 1993; Phalen, 1966). However, the significant correlation between
67 the NCS result and the severity of the upper extremity disability has not been shown
68 (Itsubo et al., 2009). The findings indicate that treating the damaged median nerve is
69 important, but there are also other causes of upper extremity disability.

70 Recent studies report that CTS patients show functional changes in not only the
71 median nerve but also the central nervous system. Specifically, CTS patients showed the
72 presence of functional disinhibition with destruction of the somatotopic organization in

73 the primary somatosensory cortex compared with healthy controls (Iwatsuki et al.,
74 2016), although inhibitory neurons in the central nervous system played an important
75 role in regulating neural network activity (Froemke, 2015). The pain causes poor
76 behavioral performance resulting in pain-related fear and avoidance (Vlaeyen & Linton,
77 2000). The non-use of the hand results in the deterioration in motor performance and
78 changes in motor cortical excitability within days (Facchini et al., 2002) and even hours
79 of immobilization (Avanzino et al., 2011). In addition, CTS patients may have
80 psychological symptoms, such as depression (Shin et al., 2018), pain anxiety (Shin et al.,
81 2018), and distress (Yoshida et al., 2018). These findings indicate that the pathology of
82 CTS includes the central nervous system, and besides, the adaptive or maladaptive
83 changes are affected by the frequency of hand use in the activity of daily living (ADL).
84 We are currently investigating a paradigm shift in the concept of CTS.

85 As described previously, the upper extremity disability in CTS patients is
86 affected by various factors. However, the dysfunctions affecting the upper extremity
87 disability has not been elucidated yet. Thus, a study involving a homogeneous group is
88 required and valuable for CTS. Epidemiological studies found that CTS is more
89 frequent in women than in men (Atroshi et al., 1999). Most cases of CTS are idiopathic
90 (Middleton & Anakwe, 2014). The proportion of patients who develops CTS in their

91 bilateral hands in 73%, although they may not manifest concurrently (Bagatur & Zorer,
92 2001; Hoogstins et al., 2013). The objective of this prospective cohort study was to
93 clarify which factors influence the upper extremity disability in the ADL of women with
94 bilateral idiopathic CTS.

95

96 **2. Methods**

97 **2.1. Study design and patients**

98 This study was conducted as a subanalysis of our ongoing research project
99 elucidating the mechanism between clinical outcomes and brain plasticity after CTS
100 treatments. We included 68 hands of women with bilateral idiopathic CTS who
101 underwent open or endoscopic carpal tunnel release from December 2012 to March
102 2018. Eight hands were excluded because of Parkinson's disease (one hand),
103 syringomyelia following Arnold-Chiari malformation (one hand), and incomplete
104 assessments (six hands). Ultimately the data of 60 hands were analyzed. Patients were
105 diagnosed with CTS based on a history of dysesthesias in the distribution of the median
106 nerve and a positive provocative test, such as Phalen's wrist flexion test, carpal tunnel
107 compression test or Tinel's sign (Iwatsuki et al., 2016; Iwatsuki et al., 2014).

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109 **2.2. Ethics statement**

110 All patients provided informed consent and agreed to participate in the study.
111 The research was approved by the ethics committee of our institution (2012-0312-6).

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113 **2.3. Assessments and outcome measures**

114 Hand assessments were at one week prior to their scheduled operation. Given
115 that some outcomes were to be measured in the bilateral hands, each hand was divided
116 into operative and non-operative sides. Patients' characteristic data consisted of age,
117 body mass index (BMI), symptom duration, operative side, dominant side, coexistence
118 of trigger finger, and Padua classification, which showed neurophysiological severity of
119 the median nerve based on the NCS (Padua et al., 1997). Hand10 was used as an
120 upper-extremity disability assessment tool (Kurimoto et al., 2011). The patient-reported
121 outcome measure consists of 10 short, easy-to-understand questions, and explanatory
122 illustrations. Hand10 had high acceptability and reliability among elderly patients
123 because of the use of explanatory illustrations (Kurimoto et al., 2013). Pain was
124 measured using the Japanese version of the Short-Form McGill Pain Questionnaire
125 (SF-MPQ-J) (Melzack, 1987; Yamaguchi et al., 2007).

126 The physical assessments comprised grip strength, key pinch strength, pulp

127 pinch strength, tactile threshold as measured using the Semmes-Weinstein
128 monofilament test (SWT) (Klein et al., 2016), static 2-point discrimination sensation
129 (S2PD) (Hsu et al., 2015; Dellon, 1981), and numerical rating scale (NRS) for
130 numbness. All sensorimotor function tests were performed by three well-trained
131 occupational therapists.

132 The psychological assessment tools, which were self-reported questionnaires, used
133 were the Japanese version of the Self-rating Depression Scale (SDS) (Fukuda &
134 Kobayashi, 1983; Zung, 1965), the Japanese version of the Pain Anxiety Symptom
135 Scale-20 (PASS-20) (Matsuoka & Sakano, 2008; McCracken & Dhingra, 2002), and the
136 Stress Response Scale-18 (SRS-18) (Suzuki et al., 1997).

137

138 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

139 The dependent variable was Hand10. The independent variables were age, BMI,
140 symptom duration, the Padua classification, SF-MPQ-J score, grip strength, key pinch
141 strength, pulp pinch strength, SWT, S2PD, NRS for numbness, SDS, PASS-20, and
142 SRS-18. The independent variables that were significantly associated with Hand10
143 scores in the bivariate analysis (Pearson's correlation test, or Spearman's rank
144 correlation test, as appropriate) were entered into a multivariate analysis. A multiple

145 regression analysis was used to identify factors that were independently associated with
146 Hand10 scores. In addition, we did multiple regression analysis with the force-on
147 method for the existence of trigger finger, because trigger finger often coexisted in the
148 same patient (Wessel et al., 2013). All statistical analyses were conducted using the
149 Statistical Package for Social Science version 22.0J software (SPSS, Tokyo, Japan). The
150 significance level was set at $p < 0.05$.

151

152 **3. Results**

153 Patients' characteristics are shown in Table 1. Trigger finger was found in
154 thirteen hands. According to the Padua classification, neurophysiological severity of 9,
155 12, 30, and 9 hands was "extreme", "severe", "moderate", and "mild". Most hands had
156 abnormal or absent digit-wrist sensory and motor responses.

157 In the bivariate analysis, Hand10 was significantly correlated with age ($r =$
158 $0.33, p = 0.00$), symptom duration ($r = -0.27, p = 0.04$), the SF-MPQ-J ($r = 0.53, p =$
159 0.00), grip strength at operative side ($r = -0.46, p = 0.00$), grip strength at non-operative
160 side ($r = -0.29, p = 0.03$), PASS-20 ($r = 0.32, p = 0.01$), and SRS-18 ($r = 0.47, p = 0.00$)
161 (Table 2). The other assessments did not show any statistically significant correlation.
162 Multiple regression analysis revealed that the SF-MPQ-J ($\beta = 0.47, p = 0.00$) and grip

163 strength ($\beta = -0.34$, $p = 0.00$) were significantly correlated variables for Hand10 score,
164 whereas the other variables were not (Table 3). Multiple regression analysis adjusted for
165 the existence of trigger finger also showed the same independent variables.

166

167 **4. Discussion**

168 We investigated the factors that influenced the Hand10 score in women with
169 bilateral idiopathic CTS. The bivariate analysis revealed that the Hand10 score was
170 significantly correlated with age, symptom duration, the SF-MPQ-J (pain intensity),
171 grip strength at operative and non-operative sides, PASS-20 (pain anxiety), and SRS-18
172 (distress). In the multiple regression analysis, the significantly correlated factors for
173 Hand10 were the SF-MPQ-J and grip strength at the operative side.

174 Patients with CTS have limited ADL, such as writing, buttoning of clothes,
175 holding a book while reading, opening of jar lids, and carrying of grocery bags (Levine
176 et al., 1993), which are due to the CTS-specific symptoms (Jerosch-Herold et al., 2008).
177 Although there were various symptoms, we showed that the upper extremity disability
178 in the ADL in women with bilateral idiopathic CTS was significantly influenced by pain
179 intensity and grip strength. Origin of pain is regarded as the impaired sensory fiber in
180 the median nerve. Decreased grip strength is due to the muscle atrophy following the

181 impaired motor fiber in the median nerve. Our results supported a described report
182 previously (Jerosch-Herold et al., 2008) and showed that the median neuropathy at the
183 wrist level is among the causes of ADL limitations in the patients.

184 Our results showed that pain intensity and grip strength at the operative side
185 affected the upper extremity disability in women with bilateral idiopathic CTS, whereas,
186 the Padua classification, pinch strength, and SWT did not affect the upper extremity
187 disability. These findings suggested that the cause of the upper extremity disability in
188 the women with bilateral idiopathic CTS could not explain the peripheral neuropathy
189 only. In other words, the disability is influenced by the central nervous systems. In
190 particular, pain after the peripheral nerve damage is believed to be due to both
191 peripheral and central nerves (Haroutounian et al., 2014). It is well known that pain is
192 modulated by the central sensitization (Woolf, 2011; Woolf & Salter, 2000). We found
193 that the primary somatosensory cortex in patients with CTS showed functional
194 disinhibition compared with that in healthy subjects (Iwatsuki et al., 2016). Moreover,
195 we suggested that the disinhibitory change induced a maladaptation of the central
196 nervous system, which was related to chronic dysesthesia or pain. Therefore, pain
197 intensity in this study was also perceived as a maladaptive response under the influence
198 of the central nervous system.

199 In the multiple regression analysis, the Padua classification, pinch strength,
200 SWT, S2PD, and NRS for numbness were not associated with the upper extremity
201 disability, although these outcomes were widely used in patients with CTS. The pinch
202 strength is one of outcomes when assessing hand function in CTS patients (Fernandes et
203 al., 2013). The SWT evaluates the tactile threshold and the localization of the tactile
204 sensation (Ylioja et al., 2004). The 2PD reflects the ability of tactile spatial acuity (Hsu
205 et al., 2015). A previous report found that altered brain morphometry in CTS was
206 associated with median nerve pathology (Maeda et al., 2013). However, these findings
207 were not associated with our results in the multiple regression analysis. As a result of
208 the adaptive structural changes in the brain of CTS women to symptoms, there was a
209 possibility that the Padua classification, pinch strength, SWT, S2PD, and NRS for
210 numbness had a small influence on the upper extremity disability.

211 This study had four limitations. First, we could not show the results after the
212 surgical operation. However, our unpublished data in a research project show at least
213 improvements of the central nervous system in patients with CTS. Second, we could not
214 show the evidence that grip strength was influenced by not only the peripheral nerve but
215 also the central nervous system. Decreased grip strength might be caused by physical
216 inactivity due to pain (Smuck et al., 2017; Teichtahl et al., 2015), behavioral change to

217 avoidance due to pain (Vlaeyen & Linton, 2000; Clark et al., 2014), and the poor motor
218 performance due to dysfunction of sensory and motor systems (Lundborg, 2000;
219 Lundborg, 2003). Thus, the study investigating the outcome of such amount of daily
220 physical activity in the upper extremity with wearable devices is warranted (Schrack et
221 al., 2016). Third, our findings are not always applicable to men or young women with
222 CTS. However, our findings are clinically valuable, because the participants in this
223 study are a typical cohort in CTS patients. Finally, our participants did not include CTS
224 women, who preferred to not undergo a surgery. We assume that these women have
225 symptoms but are not that concern with how the disability affects their ADL. Given that
226 a homogenous cohort is important in this study, this consideration was irrelevant with
227 our findings.

228 Our results showed that rehabilitation in women with bilateral idiopathic CTS
229 should be targeted at symptoms of both the peripheral and central nervous systems.
230 Desensitization maneuver (Fernández-de-Las Peñas et al., 2015) is considered to
231 decrease amplified pain intensity. It is important that CTS patients undergo general
232 treatment for the neuropathic pain (Magrinelli et al., 2013), because mounting evidence
233 indicates that it is required for the desensitization strategies targeting symptoms of the
234 peripheral and central nervous systems (Baron et al., 2013); the treatments are desirable

235 to be started preoperatively or immediately and continuously postoperatively. Grip
236 exercises are effective in improving the patients' grip strength, if the decreased grip
237 strength is caused by the disuse of the hand. In general, exercises are recommended to
238 improve muscle strength to set up high loading (1-12 repetitions with 1- to 2-minutes of
239 rest periods between sets at a moderate velocity) (Kraemer et al., 2002). However, when
240 patients experience discomforts, such as pain during grip exercise, patients may have
241 difficulty in performing the optimal grip exercise. When the pain intensity is adaptively
242 modulated by treatments, patients can easily perform the optimal grip exercise.
243 Adaptive modulated pain intensity is expected to enhance both of the performance of
244 grip exercises and the amount of physical activity of the upper extremity in the ADL.

245

246 **5. Conclusions**

247 We investigated the clinical factors that influenced upper extremity disability in
248 women with bilateral idiopathic CTS. Pain intensity and grip strength were significantly
249 correlated factors of upper extremity disability in the ADL. Our findings suggest that
250 the upper extremity disability in the ADL of women with CTS is influenced by not only
251 inherent symptoms of the peripheral neuropathy but also maladaptive response of the
252 central nervous system. Rehabilitation approaches for CTS should be considered based

253 on the adaptive activities of the neural networks.

254

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260

261 **Conflict of interest:**

262 None

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415 **Table 1.** Patients' characteristics (n = 60)

Age (years), mean \pm SD	60.1 \pm 14.5
Body mass index (kg/m ²), mean \pm SD	24.8 \pm 4.8
Duration of symptom (months), mean \pm SD	42.2 \pm 53.0
Operative side (right), number	28
Dominant hand (right), number	58

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428 **Table 2.** Correlation between upper extremity disability and independent variables by
 429 means of bivariate analysis (n = 60)

Variables	Side	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Age		0.33	0.00*
Body mass index		-0.18	0.17
Symptom duration		-0.27	0.04*
Padua classification	Operative	0.03	0.83
	Non-operative	-0.04	0.76
SF-MPQ-J		0.53	0.00*
Grip strength	Operative	-0.46	0.00*
	Non-operative	-0.29	0.03*
Key pinch	Operative	-0.20	0.13
	Non-operative	0.08	0.53
Pulp pinch	Operative	-0.14	0.28
	Non-operative	0.00	0.99
SWT (thumb)	Operative	0.02	0.87
	Non-operative	-0.01	0.96
SWT (index)	Operative	0.06	0.66

	Non-operative	0.06	0.65
SWT (middle)	Operative	0.10	0.45
	Non-operative	-0.05	0.72
S2PD (thumb)	Operative	0.13	0.33
	Non-operative	0.06	0.67
S2PD (index)	Operative	0.13	0.33
	Non-operative	0.04	0.78
S2PD (middle)	Operative	0.20	0.13
	Non-operative	0.00	0.98
NRS for numbness	Operative	0.22	0.09
	Non-operative	0.06	0.64
SDS		0.21	0.11
PASS-20		0.32	0.01*
SRS-18		0.47	0.00*

430 SF-MPQ-J, Japanese version of Short-Form McGill Pain Questionnaire; SWT,
431 Semmes-Weinstein monofilament test; S2PD, static 2-point discrimination; NRS,
432 numerical rating scale; SDS, Self-rating Depression Scale; PASS20, short version of
433 Pain Anxiety Symptom Scale; SRS-18, Stress Response Scale-18

434 r , correlation coefficient; p , probability value

435 $*p < 0.05$

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452 **Table 3.** Significantly correlated variables for Hand10 score by means of multiple
 453 regression analysis (n = 60)

Dependent variable	Independent variables	β	p	R^2
Hand10				0.40
	SF-MPQ-J	0.47	0.00	
	Grip strength at operative side	-0.34	0.00	

454 β , standardized regression coefficient; p , probability value; R^2 , multiple correlation
 455 coefficient adjusted for the degrees of freedom; SF-MPQ-J, Japanese version of
 456 Short-Form McGill Pain Questionnaire