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## WORK-RELATED CARPAL TUNNEL SYNDROME: WHAT'S IMPORTANT?

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Normally, an editorial discusses the background of reasonable work, its scientific merits, and then the context of its findings. The main point in the study by Thiese *et al.*<sup>1</sup> in this issue of the journal, regarding the association between wrist ratio and carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS) and its effect modification by obesity, is almost totally beside the point in the larger context. Focusing on an arbitrary measure of wrist anthropometrics redirects focus from higher risk occupational factors, obfuscating useful and potentially preventable measures, in favor of creating “diagnostic” cut-points of debatable value. So, let us turn things around a bit and start from that context.

The National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health, in 2000, funded a consortium of 6 centers to track more than 3,500 workers across regions of the USA to try to determine, prospectively, risk factors for work-related upper extremity musculoskeletal disorders (WRUEMSKs).<sup>2</sup> The main purpose of these studies was to clarify, after years of heated debate,<sup>3</sup> the relative contribution of various types of common physical work exposures and the risk of incident WRUEMSKs. Being a prospective cohort study, it promised to offer some of the most valid information to date, at least indirectly offering a clearer window into the causation of these disorders. In general, these studies were carefully done and, in spite of some heterogeneity in how each center conducted the studies, common case definitions of some of the WRUEMSKs, including CTS, were implemented across the 6 centers.<sup>2</sup>

The consortium CTS case definition included both typical symptoms and signs, and nerve conduction studies. This is a key point: a proper case definition of CTS for research purposes requires appropriate symptoms and signs *and* electrodiagnostic studies (EDX).<sup>4</sup> This may be particularly

critical for CTS cases in the workers' compensation policy arena. Outcomes of various surgical procedures tend to be much worse in workers' compensation than in non-workers' compensation populations.<sup>5</sup> Harris *et al.* included 10 studies of CTS, with the compensation patients experiencing a >4-fold increase in unsatisfactory outcomes compared with the non-compensation patients.<sup>5</sup> In addition, 47% of hand surgeons reported in a national survey that, if CTS symptoms are typical and there is a positive response to steroid injection, there is no need to conduct EDX before performing CTS surgery.<sup>6</sup> These types of results regarding poorer outcomes of CTS surgery in workers' compensation, and attitudes of orthopedic surgeons, has led the Industrial Insurance Medical Advisory Committee of the Washington State Department of Labor and Industries to mandate EDX in combination with appropriate symptoms and signs for CTS before authorizing surgical decompression for work-related CTS.<sup>7</sup> Greater specificity is warranted when a normally effective CTS decompression procedure is considered in an injured worker population.

Thus, in workers' compensation systems, abnormal EDX findings alone are not sufficient to corroborate a diagnosis of CTS. Abnormal EDX results alone are fairly common, and only 23% of workers with abnormal EDX alone followed prospectively eventually develop true CTS.<sup>8</sup> In addition, some investigators have shown that testing for EDX post-offer but pre-employment is not a worthwhile endeavor. Dale *et al.*, in a large retrospective cohort study of 1,648 newly hired manufacturing production workers, showed no association between abnormal pre-placement EDX results and incident CTS<sup>9</sup>; they concluded that EDX screening is ineffective as a preventive strategy for CTS.

The study by Thiese *et al.*, from 2 consortia centers among the 6 centers originally funded to conduct a large prospective study of risk factors for CTS, reports negative findings related to physical risk factors and CTS. None of the specific findings

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related to the main physical exposure variables (strain index and the threshold limit value for hand/arm vibration) are actually presented. Thus, the scientific basis of absence of an association between job physical factors and CTS cannot be independently assessed. Even when these factors are presented, cross-sectional studies are a poor method of assessment for factors likely to vary with time, such as physical factors, and thus the finding of non-significance for such factors in the study is inherently flawed. Physical factors were reported to be significantly associated with incident CTS when all 6 centers,<sup>10</sup> or 5 centers,<sup>11</sup> reported overall consortium findings in prospective studies. In those earlier studies, the authors used prospective analyses of the same data set and found a strong relationship with work tasks; workers performing forceful, repetitive hand activities were at greater risk for developing CTS after adjustment for covariates.<sup>12</sup>

None of the articles cited by Thiese *et al.*<sup>1</sup> in support of an association between wrist ratio and CTS are better quality, prospective cohort studies. Five of the articles used only EDX as the principal outcome variable,<sup>13–17</sup> not an outcome with a clinically meaningful case definition.<sup>4</sup> The working hypothesis has been that those with a square-shaped wrist, compared with a more rectangular wrist, are more likely to have CTS. A major confounding factor is that, although obesity is clearly linked to CTS, it may also be associated with wrist ratio and other anthropometric measures of the wrist. Thiese *et al.*<sup>1</sup> used a large occupational cohort to tease-out the relationship between wrist ratio and CTS occurrence, and found support for this only among normal-weight workers and not for obese workers. Some authors studying wrist dimensions and its relation to CTS have cautioned against using wrist dimensions as a diagnostic factor, with Farmer and Davis noting that the difference in wrist dimensions is too small to be of diagnostic value in clinical or epidemiologic practice.<sup>18</sup>

Other concerns are overadjustment, or adjustment for inappropriate variables. For example, one should not adjust for variables that are intermediary factors in a disease process. Also, variables that are highly correlated should not be included in the same model. Body mass index, diabetes mellitus (DM), and depression are likely to be highly correlated (the correlation matrix could have been presented) and, if so, should be evaluated separately. For DM, this could have been addressed by excluding the small number of workers with DM (or with prolonged ulnar latency) from the analysis. Over-adjustment can lead to unstable risk prediction or may mask important contributions of variables.

This cross-sectional study by Thiese *et al.*<sup>1</sup> has some weaknesses that are of concern, and the findings from their study may fan the flames of what has been an effort by some orthopedic surgeons to debunk work-related CTS.<sup>19</sup> Yes, there are still unanswered questions, such as the impact of key-boarding and intensive mouse use—evidence that is weak but suggestive of an association with CTS.<sup>20,21</sup> A responsible policy even for this physical exposure, say in workers conducting intensive data entry most of the work week, would be to consider such cases after detailed assessment of the degree of exposure.<sup>7</sup> Workers gave up their right to sue employers in a so-called “grand bargain” as reflected in most state’s workers’ compensation laws from the early 20th century.<sup>22</sup> The no-fault principal is to liberally construe benefits in favor of the workers. The science of risk factors related to CTS is solid on physical risk factors and on obesity. In contrast, wrist ratio and other anthropometric measures are likely related to EDX, but there is no compelling evidence relating wrist dimensions to causation of work-related CTS.

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