

1 Disability and Rehabilitation

2 **The long term effect of Complex Regional Pain Syndrome type 1 on disability**
3 **and quality of life after foot injury**

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20 **Implications for rehabilitation**

- 21 • The long-term evolution of patients suffering from lower-limb Complex Regional Pain
22 Syndrome is associated with persistent disability, pain and impacts the quality of life.
- 23 • Strength, proprioceptive, functional and subjective assessments are necessary to
24 better identify deficits.
- 25 • Rehabilitation should focus on the overall deficit of the affected and contralateral
26 limb.

27

28 **Abstract**

29 **Purpose.** To study the long-term evolution of patients with lower-limb Complex Regional Pain
30 Syndrome (CRPS), focusing on functional and proprioceptive aspects and quality of life.

31 **Methods:** In 20 patients suffering from chronic distal lower-limb CRPS diagnosed using
32 Budapest criteria, we assessed joint position sense and strength of the knee muscles at the CRPS
33 and unaffected leg, functional exercise capacity, pain, CRPS severity score, quality of life and
34 kinesiophobia. Similar assessments were performed in 20 age-matched controls.

35 **Results:** The joint position performance (at 45°) was significantly lower for the CRPS leg as
36 compared to controls. The knee extensor strength of the CRPS leg was significantly reduced as
37 compared to the unaffected leg (-27%) and controls (-42%). CRPS patients showed
38 significantly reduced performance at the 6 minute-walk test as compared to their age group
39 predicted value and controls. Patients suffering from CRPS for 3.8 year in average still exhibit
40 high pain, severity and kinesiophobia scores.

41 **Conclusions:** Long-term deficits in strength and proprioceptive impairments are observed at
42 the knee joint of the CRPS leg. This persistent functional disability has significant repercussions
43 on the quality of life. We highlight the importance of including strength and proprioceptive
44 exercises in the therapeutic approaches for CPRS patients.

45 **Keywords**

46 Complex Regional Pain Syndrome, isokinetic strength, joint position sense, proprioception,
47 recovery, quality of live

48

49 **Introduction**

50 Complex Regional Pain Syndrome (CRPS) is characterized by continuous pain that is
51 disproportionate in duration and intensity to the trauma that triggered it. Usually the painful
52 area is limited to the limb that has been injured, nonspecific to a nerve territory or dermatome,
53 predominantly distal and accompanied by sensory, motor, sudomotor, vasomotor and/or trophic
54 alterations [1]. CRPS has been subdivided in two subtypes CRPS-I and CRPS-II, when focused
55 on injury to the musculoskeletal system and when peripheral nerve damage is found
56 electrophysiologically respectively [2]. The diagnosis is essentially clinical using the validated
57 Budapest criteria [3]. The most common initiating traumatic events are fractures (45%), sprains
58 (18%) and elective surgeries (12%), while a small proportion of CRPS (<10%) is spontaneous
59 [4]. The prevalence of post-fracture CRPS varies from 0.03% to 37% [5]. Findings of different
60 studies on the long-term symptoms and consequences seem contradictory. Sandroni et al. [6]
61 reported 74% resolution at one year. According to Zyluk et al. [7] only 2% of patients had still
62 CRPS at one year. Veldman et al. [8] and Galer et al. [9] showed persistent problems in the
63 majority of patients. After 3.3 years, the affected limb is reported as weak or perceived as
64 disconnected from the body respectively in 96.8% and 74.2%. All patients in this study reported
65 moderate to severe pain intensity associated with substantial disability. More recently, de Mos
66 et al. [10] highlighted that after 5 to 8 years 31% of patients with upper-limb CRPS are unable
67 to work while 30% are cured. For some patients, symptoms can persist and lead to a long-term
68 disability. According to Bean et al. [11], only 5.4% of patients were symptom-free at 12 months.
69 The results are difficult to compare given the heterogeneity of the populations studied as well
70 as the evolution of the clinical criteria used and the lack of consensus on what really defines
71 healing and recovery [4]. Liewellyn et al. [12] showed that patients considered that they have
72 recovered when their CRPS-related pain, movement difficulties (muscle weakness, decreased
73 range of motion) and reliance on medication have been addressed. In more than 60%, the injury

74 is located at the upper-limb and the clinical sign are more distal [6]. This suggests that an injury
75 affecting a given joint or part of a limb might trigger CRPS symptoms also on remote regions
76 of the affected limb. To date, some studies have examined the consequences of CRPS at the
77 lower-limb [13,14], or upper-limb [7,15] or both together [6,9,10-12,14,16] in terms of
78 persistence of clinical signs. The symptoms at the lower-limb are more refractory to
79 intervention than those involving the upper-limb [17]. Lower-limb CRPS could lead to a severe
80 disability preventing the patients from walking, altering their functional capabilities, autonomy
81 and in turn the quality of life. Several studies explored and quantified the impact of CRPS on
82 proprioception and strength of the upper-limbs [18-20]. They reported bilateral proprioceptive
83 impairment for patients suffering of a unilateral CRPS characterized predominantly by a
84 bilateral reduced accuracy in upper limbs re-positioning tasks. These authors suggested that
85 central mechanisms, such as altered processing of afferent information contributing to motor
86 dysfunction, might be responsible for proprioceptive deficits in CRPS. In contrast, to our
87 knowledge, no study reported the assessment of proprioception and strength in patients
88 suffering from lower-limb CRPS, while these measures are part of the routine evaluation of
89 patients in traumatology and orthopedics physiotherapy.

90 In view of this observation, the purpose of this study was to expand the knowledge of the long-
91 term evolution of patients with lower-limb CRPS, focusing on the functional and proprioceptive
92 aspects and more globally on the quality of life. In this context, the assessment was not limited
93 to the injured region but took into consideration the entire injured limb in a more global
94 approach.

95

96 **Materials and Methods**

97 *Population*

98 From 2007 to 2015, 36 patients who had been treated for lower extremity (foot and ankle
99 injuries) CRPS type 1 in the pain clinic department of the Hôpital Erasme (Université libre de
100 Bruxelles, Belgium) were asked to participate. CRPS diagnosis was based on both, the clinical
101 Budapest criteria and bone scintigraphy. Of the 36 patients eligible, 7 could not be reached, 9
102 refused to participate for health-related reasons (n=2) or lack of availability (n=7). Finally, 20
103 patients (17 women; age: 46.3±12.7 (mean±SD); range 22 - 76 years) were included and
104 compared to a matched 20 healthy control population (5.6 women for one man). The follow-up
105 was 3.8±2.2 years (mean±SD); (range 1 – 8 years). We assessed 8 subjects with CRPS at the
106 right foot and 12 subjects with CRPS at the left foot. Exclusion criteria were any other pathology
107 or disorder that might affect the lower limb and other conditions which might influence the
108 results of the tests (vestibular disorders and psychiatric, neurological or cognitive disorders).
109 CRPS patients and the control group were matched by age, height, weight, and gender. The
110 control group was recruited by word of mouth in the neighborhood area. The demographic
111 variables of both groups are presented in Table 1. CRPS was triggered by ankle or foot fracture
112 in twelve patients and by ankle sprain in eight patients as reported in the demographic and
113 clinical characteristics of individual CRPS patients in Table 2.

114

115 Table 1 and 2 should be inserted here

116

117 All patients and matched control individuals completed a consent form approved by the
118 Institutional Ethic Committee Board of Hôpital Erasme (ref P2014/421 B406201422513)
119 according to the declaration of Helsinki.

120 ***Functional Assessment***

121 *Joint position sense testing*

122 Before starting the test, each subject performed a standardized warm-up protocol consisting of
123 four minutes on a non-loaded ergometric bicycle (Monark 828E). This warm-up aimed at
124 improving the accuracy of the assessments of the joint position test [21]. The joint position
125 sense test consisted of passive knee joint positioning in a seated position, followed by passive
126 repositioning at a pre-determined angle on an isokinetic dynamometer (Humac Norm,
127 Stoughton, Massachusetts, USA). Subjects were seated and stabilized on the device with the
128 hips and knees flexed at 90° with support for the back. The knee extension-flexion axis was
129 approximated by aligning the dynamometer rotational axis with the lateral femoral condyle.
130 The lower leg was attached to the resistance arm of the isokinetic dynamometer by means of a
131 shin pad attached two finger-widths above the lateral malleolus. The target angles established
132 for the tests were 15° and 45° for knee flexion. The order of the tests was counterbalanced
133 across subjects. During the test, subjects were blindfolded to prevent any visual cue [22] (Figure
134 1). The tests were conducted in a quiet room, by the same researcher, who systematically used
135 standardized verbal commands to guide the participants during the testing procedure. The
136 subjects were asked to be as relaxed as possible in order to avoid any active contraction [23].
137 Before starting the test, the 0° angle of the resistance arm was defined for each participant as
138 the angle reached when the participant extended actively the leg as far as possible. During the
139 test, the resistance arm of the dynamometer passively extended the subject's lower leg at an
140 angular velocity of $3^\circ/\text{s}$ from the initial position of 90° of knee flexion until the target angle
141 was reached. The position was maintained for 6 seconds to allow the subject to memorize it
142 [23]. The lower leg was then brought back at $3^\circ/\text{s}$ to the starting position (90°) which was held
143 for 5 seconds. Then, the resistance arm extended the lower leg at a speed of $2^\circ/\text{s}$ until the subject
144 judged that the target position was reached and verbally stop the movement of the resistance
145 arm. A different speed was used for repositioning to eliminate the possible cue due to the time
146 interval needed to reach the target position [24]. Low velocities were used to avoid reflex

147 contraction [23]. Three repetitions were carried out for each target angle (15° and 45°) and for
148 each leg. The angle absolute error value was used and defined as the absolute difference
149 between the target angle and the actual angle covered by the participant. Each test included the
150 complete sequence of positioning-memorization-repositioning. At the "stop" signal of the
151 participant, the reached angulation was recorded and the movement of the isokinetic
152 dynamometer was stopped allowing the limb to resume the initial position under the action of
153 gravity. The proprioceptive acuity tests were performed before the muscular performance
154 measures to avoid fatigue, which could have affected the subject's performance during the joint
155 position sense and the kinesthetic tests [25].

156 *Strength*

157 The setup was the same as for the position sense testing. Quadriceps and hamstring strengths
158 were assessed at the velocities of $60^\circ/s$ and the range of motion was 0° to 100° of knee flexion
159 (0° was defined as full active extension). Before data collection started, the subjects were
160 familiarized with the testing apparatus with three training trials at different angular velocities.
161 After one minute of rest, subjects performed three maximal effort trials with verbal
162 encouragement to perform the tests as fast and as forcefully as possible. The uninjured limb
163 was tested first and then the same procedure was conducted for the injured limb. Quadriceps
164 and hamstring isokinetic peak torques of the injured limb were expressed as a percentage of
165 those of the uninjured limb. Meireles [26] et al. and Adsuar et al. [27] showed that the isokinetic
166 test is reliable and valid for patients suffering from chronic pain.

167 *Six-minute walk test (6MWT)*

168 The 6MWT was performed using the methodology set out by Enright [28]. Subjects were asked
169 to walk from one end of a 24-meters track to the other during six minutes, as fast as possible
170 and without running. Subjects were not encouraged during the test but were informed each
171 minute of the remaining time. The distance in meters was recorded for analysis.

172 ***Questionnaires***

173 ***Pain***

174 Patients were asked to rate their average pain intensity level for the last week on a Visual Analog
175 Scale from 0 to 100 (0 corresponding to no pain and 100 to the worst imaginable pain).

176 ***Tampa scale for Kinesiophobia (TSK)***

177 TSK is a 17-items questionnaire (with score ranging from 17 (absence of fear) to 68 (highest
178 fear)) that measures fear related to movement and (re)injury. TSK has been shown to be reliable
179 and valid for chronic pain patients [29].

180 ***CRPS Severity Score***

181 The CRPS severity score is a measure of CRPS severity that corresponds to the sum of the signs
182 and symptoms described in the Budapest criteria. It is based on 16 CRPS diagnostic features.
183 The resulting severity score ranged potentially from 0 to 16, with higher scores indicating
184 greater CRPS severity. Harden et al. has demonstrated its reliability [3] and validity [30],
185 indicating that combining all items into a single summary score is justified and useful in clinical
186 monitoring and outcomes research.

187 ***The Short Form-36***

188 The Short Form-36 [31] is the most widely used survey to assess overall health-related quality
189 of life [32]. Results from the Short Form-36 can be reported as two summary scores: the mental
190 component score and the physical component score. These component scores are constructed
191 using normative values so that the optimal mean score is 50 with a standard deviation of 10
192 [31]. The lower the Short Form-36 score is the more quality of life is affected. The mental
193 component and the physical component scores are used in these analyses.

194 ***Statistical Analysis***

195 Descriptive statistics were calculated (mean and standard deviation) for each data set. The
196 Kolmogorov Smirnov test was applied to assess the normality of each variable and the Levene
197 test was applied to assess the homogeneity of variances of compared variable. According to the
198 normality of the data and homogeneity of variances, we applied either a *t*-test or a Mann-
199 Withney U test. To assess the relationship between variables Pearson correlation coefficients
200 were computed. All above statistical analysis were performed using Statistica 13.5.0 (TIBCO
201 Software Inc, Palo Alto, USA) with a confidence interval at 95%. Significance threshold was
202 set at $p < 0.05$.

203

204 **Results**

205 *Functional Assessment*

206 *Joint position sense*

207 No significant difference in the angular absolute error was observed for the joint position sense
208 between the left and right legs in the control group for the target angle of 15° ($-0.9^\circ \pm 3.8$; 95% CI
209 $[-2.5, 0.8]$, $t=2.807$ $p=0.155$) and for 45° ($0.3^\circ \pm 3.7$; 95% CI $[-1.3, 1.9]$, $t=0.324$, $p=0.749$). The
210 data of the two legs of the control group were then averaged and compared to the data obtained
211 for the unaffected leg and the affected leg (CRPS leg) of the CRPS group. We observed a
212 significant difference in the angular absolute error between the control legs and the CRPS leg
213 only at the target angle of 45° ($2.8 \pm 4.7^\circ$; 95% CI $[0.7, 4.8]$, $U= 318.5$, $p=0.013$). This error is
214 greater for the CRPS leg (Figure 2). No significant difference in the angular absolute error was
215 observed between the CRPS leg and unaffected leg within the CRPS group for both the target
216 angle of 45° ($1.3 \pm 1.6^\circ$; 95% CI $[-0.3, 2.9]$, $t=1.097$, $p=0.279$) and 15° ($1.9 \pm 5.9^\circ$; 95% CI $[-0.7, 4.5]$,
217 $t=-1.066$, $p=0.293$) (Figure 2).

218 *Strength*

219 Within the CRPS group, we observed a significant reduction of the peak torque of the
220 quadriceps of the CRPS leg as compared to the unaffected leg, (25.3 ± 24.3 Nm; 95%CI
221 [10.3,40.3], $t=2.531$, $p=0.015$). As compared to the control group, the CRPS leg and the
222 unaffected leg exhibited a significant deficit (respectively 49.8 ± 40.1 Nm; 95%CI [32.2,67.3],
223 $t=-4.341$, $p=0.0001$ and 24.5 ± 37.3 Nm; 95%CI [8.1,40.8], $t=-2.224$, $p=0.032$). A significant
224 deficit of the peak torque of the hamstrings was also observed for the CRPS leg as compared to
225 the unaffected leg (11.7 ± 15.8 Nm; 95%CI [4.7,18.6], $t=2.661$, $p=0.011$) and as compared to the
226 controls (20.2 ± 24 Nm; 95%CI [9.7,30.8], $U=93.5$, $p=0.003$). There was no significant
227 difference between the unaffected leg in the CRPS group and the control group (8.6 ± 22.9 Nm;
228 95%CI [-1.5,18.6], $U=162$, $p=0.30$) (Figure 3).

229 *6MWT*

230 We observed a significant deficit of the 6MWT for the CRPS group amounted to
231 421.7 ± 106.1 m, while the predicted value of the test for the same age group is 588.8 ± 91.6 m
232 [27] and lower than the control group 557.5 ± 69 m. There were no significant differences
233 between the predicted value and the control group (31.3 ± 108.3 m; 95%CI [-16.2,78.8], $t=1.523$,
234 $p=0.136$) Compared to the control group, the CRPS group showed a significant reduction of
235 the distance (135.8 ± 111.5 m; 95%CI [111.1,223.2], $U=49$, $p=0.00004$). The distance covered
236 during the 6MWT in the CRPS group and the strength deficit of the CRPS Leg were
237 significantly and positively correlated for the quadriceps deficit ($r=0.769$; $n=20$; $p=0.0001$)
238 and the hamstrings deficit ($r=0.740$; $n=20$; $p=0.0002$) (Figure 4).

239 *Questionnaires*

240 *Pain, kinesiophobia and CRPS severity score*

241 Pain intensity ratings on the visual analogue scale (51 ± 15 mm) and the CRPS Severity Score
242 (9.1 ± 2.8) showed results that were still high. The TSK score (45.8 ± 8.7) showed a high level of
243 kinesiophobia.

244 *The Short Form-36*

245 Compared to control group, both physical and mental score components of the Short Form-36
246 were significantly lower (physical component score: 14.2 ± 8.2 ; 95% CI [10.6,17.8], $t = -5.787$,
247 $p = 0.00001$ and mental component score: 7.8 ± 12.9 ; 95% CI [2.1,13.5], $t = -2.233$, $p = 0.03$) and
248 the physical component was predominantly reduced .

249 ***Relationship between the different outcomes***

250 To test whether there was a relationship between functional parameters such as joint position
251 sense, isokinetic strength and distance at the 6MWT and subjective parameters such as pain,
252 quality of life and level of kinesiophobia, Pearson correlations were performed. Pain ratings
253 and physical component of the Short Form-36 were significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -$
254 0.762 ; $n = 17$; $p = 0.0001$). This meant that a high level of pain is associated with a low physical
255 component. Physical component components exhibited a significant positive correlation with
256 the 6MWT distances ($r = 0.674$; $n = 17$; $p = 0.003$).

257 Kinesiophobia and joint position test were not significantly correlated with any other
258 parameters.

259

260 **Discussion**

261 ***Functional assessment***

262 The aim of this study was to assess the overall functional and subjective outcomes of patients
263 suffering from distal lower-limb CRPS on the long term. The results suggested that after a mean
264 follow-up of 3.8 years, the consequences of CRPS, are not limited to the affected joint or body
265 part but extend to the adjacent joint with global functional consequences. We observed a
266 significant deficit in the knee joint position sense, a overall significant strength deficit of the
267 quadriceps (-42%) and hamstrings (-37%) as compared to the control group. A significant
268 relationship was present between these deficits and the decreased functional exercise capacity

269 revealed by the 6-minutes walking test. Subjective parameters such as persistent high level of
270 pain was related to a decreased quality of life.

271 *Joint position sense*

272 We observed a highly significant difference between control subjects and those with CRPS in
273 terms of passively repositioning the leg to a target angle of 45° knee flexion. This result is in
274 line with the studies of Lewis et al. [18] and Bank et al. [19] who observed a significant
275 difference between the proprioceptive performance of subjects with CRPS and healthy subjects
276 at the level of the upper limb. In the study of Lewis et al. [18], the patients were asked to actively
277 move the forearm in a horizontal plane to point a series of clock positions with eyes closed.
278 Based on the observation that the performances were significantly poorer for the CRPS limb
279 and also for the unaffected limb of the patients with CRPS as compared to healthy subjects. The
280 authors concluded that this bilateral impairment would be related to central processes (cortical
281 reorganization of regions associated with body schema and deviation of the median line)
282 responsible of the proprioception alteration. Although the mean value of the repositioning error
283 was greater for the unaffected leg in the CRPS group than in the control group, the difference
284 did not reach significance, therefore our results do not fully support a bilateralization of the
285 impairment. Since pain has been associated in several studies to the disturbance of body
286 perception and the degree of cortical reorganization in [5,33], it seemed worthwhile to examine
287 whether there was a link between proprioceptive performance and pain intensity. We did not
288 observed any significant correlation between pain intensity and proprioceptive performance for
289 the repositioning at 15° and 45°. Bank et al. [20] did not find any correlation between the pain
290 and the repositioning neither for active and passive wrist mobilization with eyes closed. The
291 unilateral impairment of proprioception could be explained, apart from central mechanisms, by
292 elements such as vasomotor changes, muscular weakness, mechanical restrictions due to
293 inactivity, and alterations in sensory and nociceptive transmission. All of these factors could be

294 responsible for disturbing proprioceptive afferents by modifying nerve structures and deep
295 tissues [18, 33]. It should be noted that our assessment protocol was focused on the knee and
296 not the CRPS-affected foot. These regional (or local) factors cannot therefore entirely explain
297 the impairment found at distance from the affected region. It has been shown that the CRPS
298 joint could lead to proprioceptive deficits on an adjacent joint [18]. In a significant proportion
299 of patients with CRPS, it was also observed that the pathology could spontaneous spread either
300 ipsilaterally (34%), contralaterally (63%) or at a different segmental level (3%) compared to
301 the initially affected joint [34]. The significant difference observed at 45° but not at 15° in our
302 study could possibly be explained by the fact that the 15° position is close to the extreme
303 amplitude of the movement in which joint receptors are recruited [34]. Proske [36] reported that
304 joint receptors (Ruffini-like endings, and Pacinian corpuscles) are recruited in the extreme
305 amplitudes. Nevertheless, it is known that joint proprioceptors provide input throughout the
306 entire range of motion of a given joint.. Nevertheless, the patients in our study had in average
307 a higher absolute error with a higher variability than the controls for the joint positioning test
308 at 15°. Further investigations are needed to evaluate an angle-specific alteration of the sense of
309 repositioning.

310 *Strength*

311 Our study confirmed that the majority of patients exhibited a reduction of the strength of the
312 flexors and extensors of the knee at the affected limb and even bilaterally for the strength of the
313 quadriceps. These alterations might be a consequence of foot CRPS. Isokinetic torque
314 production capability is commonly used as a clinical indicator of strength as well as a correlate
315 of the functional ability of the patient. The quadriceps weakness may result from either muscle
316 atrophy or neuromuscular inhibition [37,38]. Mizner et al. [38] reported that failure of voluntary
317 contraction (neuromuscular inhibition), that the loss of muscle cross-section area (atrophy) was
318 not the primary determinant in the impairment of quadriceps strength. Muscle inhibition has

319 been attributed to altered afferent input from the injured structures or diseased joint structures
320 resulting in altered efferent motor neuron stimulation of the quadriceps [39]. Sedory et al. [39]
321 showed that individuals suffering from chronic ankle instability exhibit altered motoneuron
322 pool excitability of the quadriceps and hamstring muscles as compared to a control group.
323 Gribble et al. [40] compared the force production capabilities of the ankle, knee, and hip in the
324 sagittal plane among those with and without unilateral chronic ankle instability. In chronic ankle
325 instability, the authors reported, in addition to deficits in ankle plantar flexion torque, deficits
326 in knee flexor and extensor torque, suggesting that distal joint instability may lead to knee joint
327 neuromuscular adaptations. The authors [39,40] recommended to take into account the motor
328 control deficit to treat the lateral ankle sprains and chronic ankle instability. It suggests that a
329 rehabilitation program should take into account adjacent joints, i.e. the knee in case of
330 rehabilitation for ankle instability. In our study, deficit in strength of the extensors muscles is
331 also present in the contralateral limb. This could be explained by the chronic state of our CRPS
332 patient. Indeed, in chronic CRPS patient the cortical reorganization associated with shrinkage
333 of the representation of the affected hand or foot in the primary somatosensory cortex (S1) and
334 altered function of the primary motor cortex [41]. These persistent changes in the central
335 nervous system might contribute to central sensitization [42], which in turn could play a role in
336 the maintenance of chronic pain, allodynia, and the development of wide spread pain to adjacent
337 non-injured areas [34], as well as motor dysfunctions such as dystonia [43], body perception
338 disturbances [44,45], neglect like syndrome [46], i.e. affected ability of the patients to mentally
339 represent, perceive and use their affected limb [47]. Those results could be attributed to “learned
340 nonuse” [48] because of fear-avoidance behavior that reduced attempts to move. This pattern
341 of behavior could maintain at least in part the quadriceps amyotrophy of the affected side but
342 also the contralateral side.

343 Llewellyn et al. [12] reported on 242 chronic CRPS that muscle weakness and decreased range
344 of motion were the most frequent symptoms. These findings underlined the importance to
345 improve motor function and reduce stiffness as priorities in rehabilitation. In this context the
346 rehabilitative program should aim at increasing the strength of the knee extensors and flexors
347 bilaterally, to encourage the patients to engage movement and promote activities without
348 triggering pain symptoms.

349 Finally the repercussions of this chronic knee extensor muscles weakness could later induce
350 knee pain. Citaker et al. [49] found a direct relationship between quadriceps strength and
351 patellofemoral pain . Caetano et al. [50] showed that a weakness of the quadriceps may lead to
352 increased fall risk with aging. Therefore, it seems imperative to improve rehabilitation strategies
353 to better target this lingering weakness.

354 *6MWT*

355 We showed a significant decrease in the walking distance between the 2 populations.
356 This demonstrates a decrease in walking activity for CRPS patients. This parameter is highly
357 correlated with the strength of the thigh. Impaired gait adaptability, particularly stepping errors
358 and reduced gait speed, was associated with high risk of falls; reduced executive function,
359 increased concern about falling and weaker quadriceps strength contributed to this relationship
360 [50].

361 We think that the relationship observed between quadriceps muscle force production and
362 performance during gait should not be ignored but self-selected walking speed is influenced
363 not only by lower limb strength but also by balance, reaction time, vision, pain and emotional
364 well-being [51].

365 As other has noted [45,46,52] patients may remain far from their premorbid health state.

366 **Questionnaire**

368 Our results demonstrated after a follow-up of 3.8 years that the level of pain, severity of CRPS
369 and kinesiophobia continue to be high. Vlayen et al. [53] considers a score of 40/68 to be a
370 significant level of kinesiophobia. Pain-related fear of movement has been identified as an
371 important factor contributing to the maintenance of chronic pain [29]. The kinesiophobia score
372 evaluated by the TSK in our sample was in average of 45 points out of 68 (ranging from 25 to
373 63). These results correspond to those of de Jong et al. [54] who obtained an average of 48 (20
374 to 63) for patients with acute CRPS (1 to 6 months) and an average of 38 (19 to 59) for patients
375 with chronic CRPS (approximately 8 years), for lower and upper extremities combined.
376 Marinus et al. [55] obtained a mean score of 38 for patients with chronic lower limb CRPS for
377 1.6 years. The TSK score of our patients was not correlated with their pain. However, Moseley
378 et al. [56] showed for upper limb CRPS that pain was associated with a higher TSK score. We
379 expected an association between pain and fear of movement based on the fact that patients no
380 longer use their limb because of pain, which in turn might lead to deconditioning and reduced
381 sensitivity. However, we did not observe a significant correlation between TSK and patient
382 performance such as muscular strength and walking distance. These results could be explained
383 by the fact that the patients included in the present study kept on walking without a cane and
384 that disuse of the affected limb was less present than with upper limb injury. de Jong et al. [54]
385 suggested that TSK was not a reliable predictor of functional limitations for CRPS because it
386 is not specific enough for the type of activity or movements feared or avoided. Some studies
387 [29,57,58] demonstrated a significant association between functional disability and TSK score
388 in patients with chronic low back pain. In a population of fibromyalgia patients, Roelofs et al.
389 [29] reported an average of TSK score of 28.2, which was also associated with physical
390 performance. Nevertheless Ramond et al. [59] stated that half the existing studies on this topic
391 did not demonstrate this relationship. However, in the study of de Jong et al. [54] the average

392 of TSK scores in CRPS subjects were not significantly different from those of patients with
393 chronic low back pain for whom TSK is associated with the level of disability. They maintained
394 that the TSK would not be suitable for neuropathic pain such as CRPS type 1.

395 *CRPS Severity Score*

396 Other studies [12,16] assessing pain and severity scores confirmed that pain remained present
397 in the long term showed that CRPS patients consider themselves recovered when they were
398 relieved from local or generalized pain and discomfort. For the majority, CRPS resolves within
399 a year, but prospective studies have indicated severe pain remaining in 13% of the patients at
400 one year or more after the diagnosis [59]. Summary of longer term retrospective review reported
401 the persistence of symptoms in 22% to 64% of patients three years or more after diagnosis [16].

402 *The Short Form-36*

403 Our patients were more affected by the physical complaints than psychological components.
404 The literature remains unclear about the fact that altered psychological functioning is a specific
405 psychological profile characteristic of CRPS patients rather than a natural outcome of chronic
406 pain [61]. Our results showed that pain, strength and the walking distance are directly linked to
407 the physical recovery. Llewellyn et al. [12] showed altered subjective and objective outcomes
408 (pain, physical performance, quality of life and energy/fatigue) in patients suffering from lower
409 limb CRPS, than those with CRPS of the upper limb. Van Welzen et al. [62] demonstrated a
410 lower self-reported quality of live in the physical domain of the Short Form-36. Unremitting
411 symptoms in CRPS are associated with long-term disability, poor psychological health and
412 reduced quality of life [61,63,64].

413 *Limitations and future directions*

414 Since we know that traumas such as sprains or fractures represent most of the traumas that
415 trigger CRPS and are responsible for alterations in proprioception and balance [65], it seems
416 crucial to complement our observations with further studies comparing our results with a
417 population having presented an ankle trauma that did not complicate in CRPS in order to define
418 more precisely the consequences of CRPS. Considering the design of our study, additional
419 interpretations on the causes and consequences of the deficits we observed might be too
420 speculative. Finally, the comparison with the literature is limited by the preponderance of
421 studies on the upper limb. Therefore, further investigations appear crucial to deepen our
422 knowledge on the functional consequences of CRPS affecting the lower limb.

423 **Conclusions**

424 This study showed persistent functional disability and significant long-term pain, which have
425 significant repercussions on the quality of life of patients suffering from CRPS 1 at the foot
426 level. This syndrome has also an impact on strength and proprioceptive abilities in the adjacent
427 joint to the affected one. These observations highlight the importance of a therapeutic approach
428 that focuses not only on the affected joint but on the whole leg concerned as well as the
429 contralateral side in order to improve the quality of life of the patient and avoid the long term
430 consequences that these deficits could generate.

431

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586

587 **Tables**

588 **Table 1.**Population characteristic

	CRPS	Control
Gender ♀/♂ (%)	85/15	85/15
Age (years)	46.3±12.7	45.9±13.3
Height (cm)	165.9±7.1	165.3±7.2
Weight (kg)	73.7±18.1	70.9±18.1
fractures/sprains (%)	60/40	-----
follow-up (years)	3.8±2.2	-----

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590 ♀: female, ♂: male. SD: standard deviation; CRPS : Complex Regional Pain Syndrome. Data
591 are presented as mean ± SD unless otherwise indicated.

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603 **Table 2 :** Demographic and clinical characteristics of individual patients suffering from CRPS.

Patient	Age	Gender	CRPS duration (years)	Initial traumatism	Orthopaedic treatment	Affected foot
1	76	♀	5	ankle sprain LAL lesion	immobilisation	R
2	38	♀	6	ankle sprain LAL lesion	immobilisation	R
3	53	♀	2	V metatarsal fracture	immobilisation	L
4	56	♀	4	II metatarsal stress fracture	immobilisation	L
5	26	♀	4	ankle sprain, LAL lesion	immobilisation	L
6	57	♀	8	bimalleolar fracture	immobilisation	R
7	66	♀	3	Medial malleolar fracture	immobilisation	L
8	37	♂	2	ankle sprain LAL lesion	immobilisation	L
9	54	♂	6	bimalleolar fracture	surgery+ immobilisation	L
10	50	♀	2	V metatarsal fracture	immobilisation	L
11	45	♀	2	II-III metatarsal fracture	immobilisation	R
12	32	♀	6	calcaneum fracture	immobilisation	R
13	43	♀	5	IV-V metatarsal fracture	immobilisation	L
14	40	♀	3	ankle sprain, LAL lesion	immobilisation	L
15	58	♀	2	talus fracture	surgery+ immobilisation	L
16	45	♀	8	calcaneum fracture	surgery+ immobilisation	L
17	22	♀	4	talus fracture	surgery+ immobilisation	R
18	53	♀	2	Lisfranc sprain	immobilisation	R
19	35	♂	1	ankle sprain LAL lesion	immobilisation	R
20	40	♀	1	ankle sprain LAL lesion	immobilisation	L

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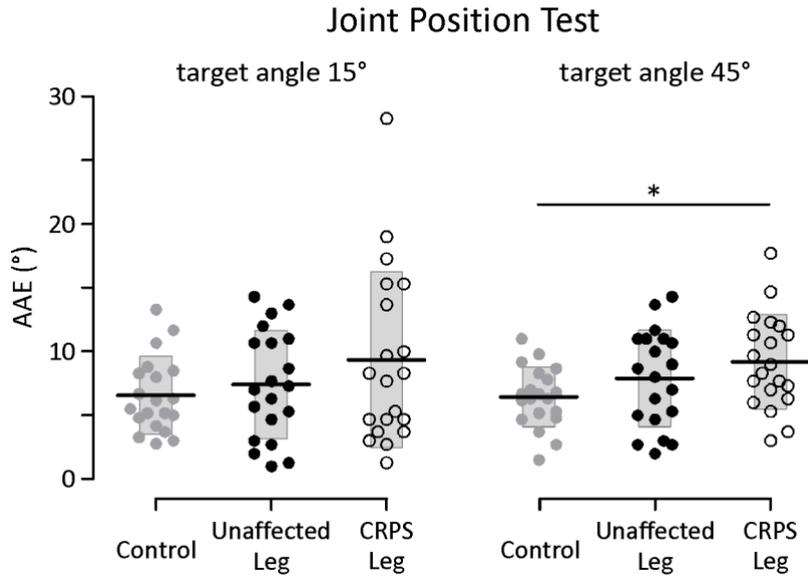
605 Legends : ♀ : woman, ♂ : man, R : right, L : left, LAL : Lateral Ankle Ligament



607

608 **Figure 1.** Initial position for knee joint position sense assessment

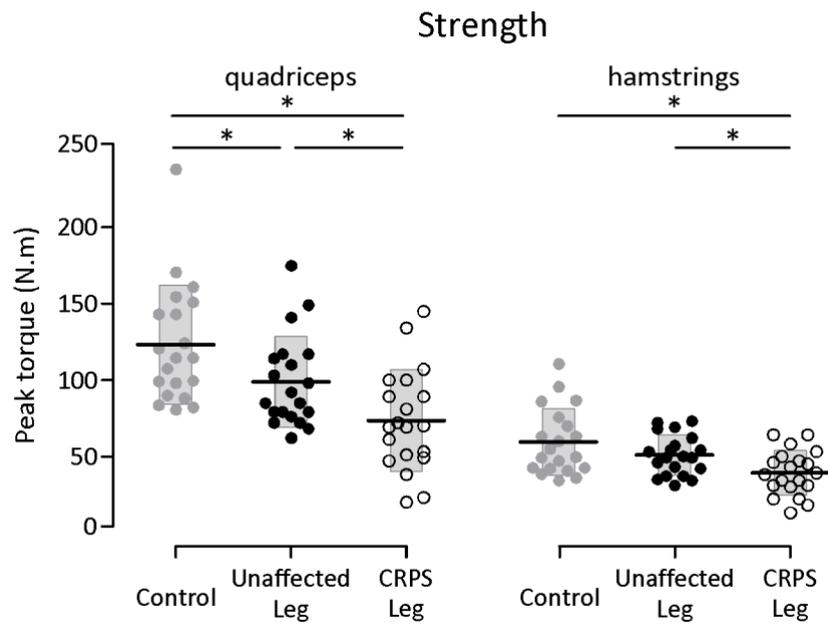
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611 **Figure 2.** Individual Absolute Angle Error (AAE) for the Joint Position Test at 15° and 45°
 612 target angles in the control group (average of both legs) and in the CRPS group for the
 613 unaffected and CRPS leg. Box plots represent the group-level average \pm standard deviation.
 614 Note the significant difference between the AEE obtained for the CRPS leg and those obtained
 615 in the controls. * $p < 0.05$

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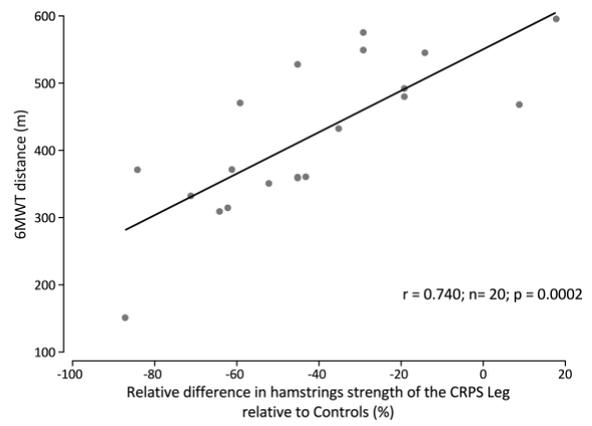
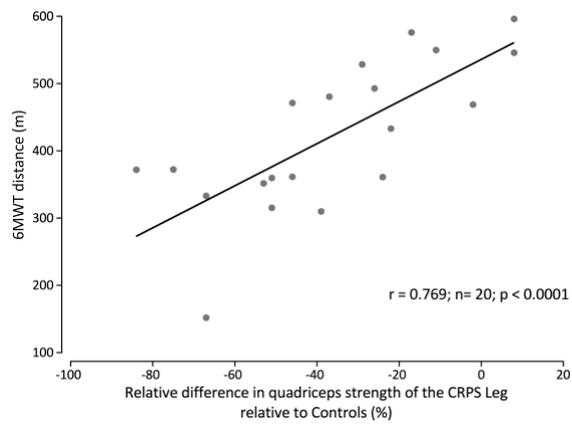


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618 **Figure 3.** Individual peak torque of the quadriceps and hamstrings (isokinetic strength test at
 619 velocity 60°/s) for the control group and the unaffected leg and CRPS leg of the CRPS group.

620 Box plots represent the group-level average \pm standard deviation. * $p < 0.05$

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623 **Figure 4.** Linear regression between the distances (meters) covered during the 6MWT in the
 624 CRPS group and the relative difference in strength of the CRPS Leg (%) for the quadriceps and
 625 the hamstrings as compared to the control group. Negative values represent a deficit in strength
 626 at the CRPS Leg as compared to controls.