Retrospactory strain injury

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ABSTRACT

Retrospactory strain injury is a group of musculoskeletal disorders affecting muscles, tendons, nerves and blood vessels. These disorders could be attributed to occupational causes; however non-occupational causes should be excluded. The management of these cases required a multidisciplinary team approach.

Keywords: Retrospactory, injury, occupation.

Furthermore, RSI is not a compensated occupational illness in Saudi Arabia.17

Risk factors. If two or more risk factors are present, the risk of RSI increased. However, some investigators are still skeptical about the role of occupation in RSI.4,5,8

Occupational risk factors for RSI include:

Ergonomic factors. In an excellent review and analysis of 54 epidemiological studies, Stock concluded that specific disorders of tendon and tendon sheath together with CTS are causally related to repetitive forceful work. Therefore, the greater the force exerted, the greater risk of developing RSI. In addition, jobs that require repeated motion patterns or prolonged posture within a work cycle, or both, may be repetitive. Furthermore, mechanical stresses (forceful gripping of tools and small diameter handles can produce localized pressure on the underlying tendon and muscles), static and awkward posture (such as excessive shoulder elevation, extreme elbow posture and deviated wrist posture). Local vibration has been reported as a risk factor for RSI. Vibration may cause the worker to use excessive force to hold the vibrating tool and consequently may increase the risk of RSI. Extreme temperatures have also been reported as risk factor for RSI by different investigators.9,12,20-25

Psychosocial factors. Psychosocial factors can range from personality factors to the way in which...
work is organized, and therefore include excessive work rate, duration of work, paced work, monotonous work, limited job control, and low social support. The psychological factors may operate indirectly by altering muscle tension or other physiological processes, thus influencing the perception of pain. Furthermore, elevated urinary catecholamines and stress have been reported in workers with RSI. It may evolve into chronic pain syndrome, and tends to occur more frequently in a work environment where there is little support from coworkers and supervisors.4,6-36

**Non-occupational factors.** Non-occupational factors1,4,13-16,29,30 include personal risk factors such as age and gender.4,37-39 The risk of RSI increases with age and is more common in women because of their smaller frame, lower muscle mass and strength, and due to endocrine influences. It is also related to the difference in the type of work to which men and women are assigned. Furthermore, smoking, sports injuries, strength (mismatch between physical strength and job task), anthropometry (obesity associated with CTS and disc herniation), recreational activities (that require forceful repetitive activities e.g., finger typing in computer work), and coexisting medical conditions (such as rheumatoid arthritis, pregnancy, etc.) are all risk factors for RSI. Some investigators have proposed the size of the carpal canal as a risk factor for CTS.

**Pathophysiology of repetitive strain injury.** RSI is believed to result from repeated force on soft tissue over a prolonged period. This kind of trauma causes micro-tears to the affected part, hence leading to inflammation and subsequently to the disorder. Furthermore, reduced blood flow to muscle due to tension, and the inflammatory effects from the breakdown of synovial fluid has been proposed by some investigators.4,8

**Diagnosis.** The main characteristic of many cases of RSI is the lack of any objective clinical sign of abnormality. Evaluation of patients with RSI begins with a thorough medical and work history followed by a detailed physical examination. Non-occupational cause of RSI must be excluded. The history should include the patient’s age, dominant hand, symptoms (location, radiation, duration, evolution and exacerbating factors), previous illnesses or injuries and their treatments (e.g., fracture, collagen vascular diseases, rheumatoid arthritis, hormonal agents, oophorectomy, diabetes mellitus and pregnancy), and medications taken. RSI may occur as a result of sports and recreational activities, therefore physicians must ask about these activities during the patient interview. Detailed occupational history is required that includes previous and current jobs, onset of symptoms in relation to work task, pace, position and environment. If possible, a visit to the workplace for a walk-through survey in order to become familiar with the demands of the job and to get an idea of how other workers tolerate these demands. Most busy clinicians refer the workplace assessment to occupational health professionals.1,3 For upper extremity complaints, the examination should begin with the neck and then proceed distally to include the shoulder, arm, elbow, wrist, and hand on both sides. Physical examination should involve inspection, palpation, assessment of range of movement, evaluation of peripheral nerve function and appropriate provocative maneuvers of the upper extremity such as Tinel’s and Phalen’s tests.1,4,40-42 The most difficult aspect in diagnosing RSI is determining the relative contribution of occupational factors to the etiology of the disorder. However, the association of these occupational musculoskeletal disorders to workplace exposure can be established if based on three steps:1,3,18 1. Determination as to whether or not the patient has a specific disorder; 2. Positive evidence of workplace exposure to a specific occupational risk factor; 3. Consideration of non-occupational causes.

**Carpal Tunnel Syndrome.**2,20-43 Carpal Tunnel Syndrome is the most common compressive neuropathy associated with repetitive trauma. CTS results from compression of the median nerve as it traverses the carpal tunnel in the wrist. The patient complains of intermittent numbness and paresthesia, which may awaken him or her at night in the first three and a half radial digits, and has trouble holding onto objects with decreased hand strength. When pain is the primary complaint, the likelihood of a diagnosis of CTS decreases. On physical examination of the wrist in cases of suspected CTS, a Tinel’s sign (sensitivity 60% and specificity 67%) and Phalen’s test (sensitivity 75% and specificity of 47%) are helpful. Inspection for hand muscle atrophy in CTS is recommended. The objective gold standard for CTS is a nerve conduction study (electromyography), a false-negative electromyography (EMG) test result ranges from 5% to 27% depending on the method used and the normal values selected by the laboratory. It is known that nerve conduction abnormalities do not occur until later in many cases of CTS. Test of grip strength, sensory testing for two point discrimination, studies of vibratory threshold, and Semmes Weinstein testing (for light touch) are complementary to nerve conduction studies, but are not diagnostic. Other causes of CTS, such as pregnancy, menopause, rheumatoid arthritis, gout, diabetes mellitus, hypothyroidism, wrist fracture, cirrhosis of the liver, hand-arm vibration syndrome, masses compressing median nerve at the wrist (such as hematomata, ganglion and osteophytes), and non-occupational activities (sport and leisure) should be ruled out.1,5,8 Of patients with work-related CTS, 25% have accompanying conditions such as ulnar neuropathy at the wrist, trigger finger, De Quervain’s tenosynovitis,
or arthritis of the basal joint of the thumb.\textsuperscript{8,13}

\textbf{Other nerve entrapment syndromes.}\textsuperscript{1,3,6,9,15,16} The ulnar nerve may become entrapped at the elbow (cubital tunnel syndrome) or at wrist (Guyon tunnel syndrome). This is caused by external mechanical pressure when individuals rest their elbow on a hard surface. At the wrist, it results from prolonged flexion and extension of the wrist or repeated pressure on the hypothenar eminence. It is less common than CTS. Patients complain of numbness and pain in the ring and little fingers, and pain in the hypothenar area. Patients have positive Tinel’s sign over the ulnar nerve (which may be misleading as it is positive in thin people), and finger clawing may be present. The diagnosis is confirmed by nerve conduction study.

\textbf{Radial nerve.} The radial nerve may be injured at its bifurcation to the posterior interosseus nerve as it passes under the fibrous edge of the extensor carpi radialis and supinator muscle. Patients complain of numbness and tingling in the distribution of the superficial radial nerve. The diagnosis is confirmed by nerve conduction study.

\textbf{Tendon-related disorders.}\textsuperscript{3,6,9,15,16} Chronic tendinitis and tenosynovitis of the upper extremity are common types of RSI. If the patient presents with localized pain on active or passive motion of the tendon sheath, a diagnosis of tenosynovitis can be made. For example, patients with De Quervain’s tenosynovitis (inflammation occurs in the abductor pollicis longis and extensor pollicis brevis tendons of the thumb where they share common sheath) can be diagnosed using the Finkelstein’s test. In cases of trigger finger tenosynovitis, patients complain of snapping, locking or popping of the involved digit as a result of tenosynovitis of the flexor tendons of the digits. Pain, mainly at PIP joints, is also a frequent complaint. The diagnosis is made by history, and tenderness over the affected digit. Several specific tendon sites are more susceptible to RSI. These include medial and lateral epicondyritis, shoulder tendonitis (rotator cuff syndrome and bicipital tendinitis) and acromioclavicular joint synovitis. The diagnosis of these conditions is made from the history, localized tenderness and restricted motion of the joint on physical examination. Other disorders thought to be associated with RSI include ganglion, neck tension syndrome, trapezius myalgia and thoracic outlet syndrome. Some authors classify hand-arm vibration syndrome under RSI.

\textbf{Management.} Symptomatic relief to reduce soft tissue inflammation is provided by rest. Resting the symptomatic part of the upper extremity for at least 2 weeks is the most important part of the treatment program. This can be achieved by minimizing exposure to risk factors in the workplace. In addition to engineering control, restricted duties, job rotation and temporary job transfer may be effective. The benefit of rest has been linked to the seasonal nature of RSI, where the number of reported RSI cases has been found to drop in July and August, which are the peak vacation months in the northern hemisphere.

Splints and other immobilization devices are helpful in resting the symptomatic part of upper extremity. However, prolonged immobilization and resting should be discouraged to avoid muscular atrophy. Splints should not be worn at work unless the worker’s job does not require bending or deviation of the splinted part. On the other hand, splints are effective in relieving symptoms when away from the workplace, particularly during sleep.

Physical therapy is also useful to restore normal joint motion and reconditioning of the affected muscle after periods of rest and reduced use. Application of cold compresses is useful to induce vasoconstriction and hence reduce inflammation of the affected part and relieve pain. The use of anti-inflammatory medications is helpful to reduce inflammation in RSI. Steroid injections are also helpful to reduce tendon attrition, but no more than three injections should be given at any site. If patients show no improvement with conservative treatment, surgical treatment can be helpful. Surgical decompression of carpal tunnel in cases of CTS usually relieves a significant amount of pain, although the numbness may persist. Surgical intervention may be ineffective if patients return to their previous job without any effort made to minimize occupational exposure.\textsuperscript{44-49}

\textbf{Frequent follow up is desirable for repetitive strain injury.} Many of these conditions will resolve within a few weeks with early treatment. The prognosis of RSI is generally good with early treatment and reduction in job exposure. A small minority of cases can become chronic and very difficult to treat. In such cases, the physical capabilities of the patient, work demands and psychosocial factors are all important in determining whether he or she can successfully return to work.\textsuperscript{50} Physicians should also be alert to the potential for secondary gain by the patient. It is recognized that psychosocial factors, such as job satisfaction or patient negative self-belief, the support of the employer and healthcare provider, are important, but one should not ignore the role of occupational exposure. Educational programs are also used as a treatment and prevention strategy for workers with RSI of the upper extremity. There are three levels of preventive strategies that can be applied to minimize the incidence of RSI:\textsuperscript{51,52} A. Primary prevention, through ergonomic intervention, work practice, rest breaks, health education, and administrative measures. Pre-employment screening is not recommended and may constitute discriminatory action. B. Secondary prevention, to minimize the development of impairment through early detection and treatment C. Tertiary prevention, through rehabilitation and disability management to prevent
recurrency of RSI.

In summary, there is strong evidence that occupational risk factors are linked to the causation of RSI. The management of these disorders needs a multidisciplinary team approach involving the participation of occupational physicians, neurologists, orthopedic surgeons, neurosurgeons, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, kinesiologists and ergonomists to provide patient treatment, rehabilitation and education.

References