

1 Plantar pressure differences between cases with
2 symptoms of chronic exertional compartment syndrome
3 and asymptomatic controls

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22 **Abstract**

23 *Background:* Anterior chronic exertional compartment syndrome of the leg has been
24 hypothesised to develop due to excessive muscle activity and foot pronation. Plantar
25 pressure variables related to lower limb muscle activity and foot type may therefore
26 provide insight into this condition.

27 *Methods:* 70 male cases and 70 asymptomatic controls participated. A clinical
28 diagnosis was established from typical symptoms, with clinical examination excluding
29 other pathologies. Plantar pressure variables during walking, hypothesised to be
30 related to anterior compartment muscle activity or had shown predictive validity for
31 general exercise-related lower leg pain, were extracted.

32 *Findings:* Cases were shorter in height (mean difference 2.4cm), had greater body
33 mass (mean difference 4.4kg) and had reduced ankle dorsiflexion range of motion
34 than controls (mean difference 1.5cm). Foot-type and toe extensor - related plantar
35 pressure variables did not differ between groups ($P>0.05$). The magnitude of medial
36 forefoot loading was the strongest plantar pressure predictor of the presence of
37 chronic exertional compartment syndrome (Odds ratio:0.87, $P=0.005$). There was
38 also some evidence of greater lateral heel loading at 5% of stance time ($P=0.049$ -
39 0.054).

40 *Interpretation:* The lack of association with foot type and toe extensor activity -
41 related plantar pressure variables suggest that these are not risk factors for the
42 development of chronic exertional compartment syndrome, contrary to earlier
43 hypotheses. The greater lateral to medial loading could theoretically represent
44 increased Tibialis anterior muscle activity at heel strike but a subsequent loss of
45 control as the ankle is lowered. Future studies directly investigating muscle activity
46 and function are now required.

47 **Keywords:** exercise-induced leg pain; chronic exertional compartment syndrome;
48 biomechanics; plantar pressure; military training.

49

50 ***Introduction***

51 Chronic exertional compartment syndrome (CECS) is an overuse condition presenting
52 as pain in the lower limb. It has been described in numerous compartments of the
53 body, although the anterior compartment of the lower leg is most commonly affected
54 (Reneman, 1975). In up to 98% of cases the condition is bilateral (Reneman, 1975).
55 While the condition is often described as an overuse injury; the mechanism of injury
56 is unclear.

57 It has also recently been hypothesised to be the underlying cause of pain in CECS
58 rather than a pathological increase in intramuscular compartment pressure
59 (Franklyn-Miller et al., 2014, Roberts and Franklyn-Miller, 2012). However, a case-
60 control study has since demonstrated higher resting standing pressures when
61 anterior compartment muscle activity is minimal implying a structural aetiology
62 (Roscoe, Roberts, & Hulse, 2015). Nevertheless, excessive anterior compartment
63 muscle activity is still a likely candidate as a risk factor for the development of CECS.
64 Despite this, the function of the anterior compartment musculature during gait has
65 never been investigated in this population.

66 Plantar pressure measurement provides a method of investigating the impact of both
67 muscle activity and anatomy on the forces applied to the foot. It has previously been
68 demonstrated to be related to lower limb muscle activity (Ferris et al., 1995, Morag
69 and Cavanagh, 1999) and foot type (Caravaggi, Giacomozzi, & Leardini, 2014,
70 Cavanagh and Rodgers, 1987, Sánchez-Rodríguez et al., 2012). Foot type has also
71 been observed to have an effect on Tibialis anterior muscle activity in several studies
72 (Murley et al., 2009). Using plantar pressure, foot type has been directly
73 characterised by the calculation of a dynamic arch index (Cavanagh and Rodgers,
74 1987). The impulse under all the metatarsals has also been demonstrated to have a
75 strong correlation to medial longitudinal arch range of motion (Caravaggi,
76 Giacomozzi, & Leardini, 2014) and arch height (Teyhen et al., 2009).

77 Activity of the toe extensor muscles may also be characterised by plantar pressure.
78 Pressure underneath the toes has previously been demonstrated to be affected by
79 simulated flexor hallucis longus and flexor digitorum longus activity (Ferris et al.,
80 1995). It was assumed in our analysis that activity of the antagonists located in the
81 anterior compartment (extensor hallucis longus and extensor digitorum longus)
82 would have a similar effect (i.e. reduction of toe pressures).

83 A single study has investigated plantar pressure in 20 patients with CECS (Roscoe et
84 al., 2016). They observed reductions in stance time and the time from initial foot
85 contact to initial full forefoot contact that may be a result of alterations in anterior
86 compartment activity/function. A greater understanding of ankle dorsiflexor and toe
87 extensor activity in this condition is now needed.

88 This study therefore aimed to compare, in a case-control study, the plantar pressure
89 variables described above that have previously been associated with anterior
90 compartment muscle activity or had shown predictive validity for all-cause exercise-

91 related lower leg pain (Willems et al., 2006). A secondary aim was to compare the
92 variables investigated by Roscoe et al. (2016) in a larger cohort. We hypothesised
93 that those variables associated with anterior compartment muscle activity and the
94 development of all-cause exercise-related lower leg pain would be associated with
95 CECS.

96 ***Materials and methods***

97 70 male cases with symptoms consistent with CECS of the anterior compartment of
98 the leg and 70 asymptomatic controls participated following informed consent. A
99 consensus diagnosis of CECS was established from typical symptoms, with clinical
100 examination excluding other pathologies. Controls were recruited from the British
101 Armed forces. Cases were recruited from two military rehabilitation centres. Ethical
102 approval was granted by the MOD Research Ethics Committee.

103 Cases required the following: symptoms of exercise-induced leg pain consistent with
104 a diagnosis of anterior compartment CECS; no diagnosis other than CECS more
105 likely; absence of multiple lower limb pathologies; and, no previous lower limb
106 surgery. While intramuscular compartment pressure measurement is considered the
107 gold standard for diagnosis (Roscoe, Roberts, & Hulse, 2015); clinical examination
108 alone has been suggested to provide an accurate diagnosis for referral for surgery
109 (Ali et al., 2013, Orlin, Oen, & Andersen, 2013, van den Brand et al., 2005). As
110 pressure measurement was not available for this study, a clinical diagnosis was used.
111 Controls were included when they had no history of musculoskeletal leg pain in the
112 previous 12 months; and no current pain at any site, including during exercise
113 activities.

114 Participants completed the Short Pain Inventory that measures both current physical
115 pain and the emotional consequences of pain (Kilminster and Mould, 2002).
116 Participant age, height (stadiometer; SECA, Birmingham, UK) and body mass
117 (medical grade scales; SECA, Birmingham, UK) were recorded. A weight-bearing
118 dorsiflexion device (Jones et al., 2005) was used to measure the anterior-posterior
119 distance between the knee and the hallux during a weight-bearing lunge; anatomical
120 parameters that could influence this distance were therefore also recorded (UK shoe
121 size/lower leg length (tibial tuberosity to lateral malleolus)).

122 Plantar pressure measurement and data extraction

123 Participants were asked to walk over a 2m x 0.4m x 0.02m pressure plate (RSScan
124 International, Olen, Belgium) fitted flush to the floor of the laboratory; and were free
125 to choose the order of foot placement. Participants completed a dynamic calibration
126 and familiarisation traverses of the laboratory. Data was then collected at a natural,
127 relaxed, self-selected walking velocity until a minimum of 3 valid foot contacts for
128 both left and right feet had been captured at 125Hz (De Cock et al., 2006). Each foot
129 was automatically divided into 10 zones (Hallux (T1), lesser toes, metatarsals 1-5
130 (M1,M2,M3,M4,M5), midfoot, medial/lateral heel (HM/HL)) by Footscan® (v7.97,
131 RSScan International) software; these were used to calculate all loading-related
132 variables. Data was extracted from Footscan® using the default exports. These data

133 were then processed within Scilab (v5.3.2; INRIA, France) to generate mean values
134 of each plantar pressure variable described below for left and right feet.

135 Primary variables

- 136 1. Arch index
- 137 2. Impulse under all the metatarsal zones
- 138 3. Medio-lateral centre of force (COF) position at last foot contact
- 139 4. Antero-posterior COF position at initial foot contact
- 140 5. Medio-lateral pressure ratio during forefoot contact phase (initial metatarsal
141 contact to first instant all metatarsals make contact)
 - 142 a. $[(HM+M1+M2)-(HL+M4+M5)]/(HM+HL+M1+M2+M3+M4+M5+T1)$
- 143 6. Toe contact area at mid-stance
- 144 7. Peak force and impulse under the hallux
- 145 8. Peak force and impulse under the lesser toes

146 Secondary variables

- 147 1. Stance time
- 148 2. Foot progression angle
- 149 3. Mean medial-lateral displacement of COF during stance
- 150 4. Time from initial foot contact to initial full forefoot contact
- 151 5. Medial-lateral distribution of pressure under the heel at at initial foot contact,
152 5% of stance time and time of initial full forefoot contact
 - 153 a. $HM/(HM+HL)$
- 154 6. Mean ratio between 1st and 5th metatarsal loading during stance
 - 155 a. $[(M1-M5)/((M1+M5)/2)]*100$

156 Statistical analysis

157 Bootstrapped t-tests were carried out on all variables using the bias-corrected and
158 accelerated method (Efron, 1987). Significant variables were then entered into a
159 forward stepwise multinomial logistic regression model. The statistic (Likelihood
160 ratio, Wald statistic, and conditional statistic) used in the test for variable inclusion
161 did not affect the variables in the final model. Means and 95% CIs are reported
162 unless otherwise stated. SPSS (v21; SPSS Inc, USA) was used for all analyses with
163 alpha set to 0.05.

164 **Results**

165 Cases reported relatively low levels of pain (mean severity score 0.66) at rest
166 although significantly more than controls ($t=5.09$, $P=0.001$). This was accompanied
167 with reports of significantly greater sadness (mean difference=0.53, $t=2.53$,
168 $P=0.016$) and anxiety (mean difference=0.49, $t=2.21$, $P=0.028$) than cases. Pain
169 was not reported to be aggravated by cases or controls during testing demonstrating
170 that sufficient rest was provided between each traverse.

171 Cases (28(5) years) were marginally younger than controls (32(6) years). Cases
172 (1.759(6.8)m) were 2.4cm shorter than controls (1.783(7.3)m) although this was

173 marginally higher than the accepted level of significance ($P=0.051$). Cases
174 (85.8(12.3)kg) were 4.4kg heavier ($P=0.026$) than controls (81.4(10.4)kg). Weight-
175 bearing dorsiflexion range of motion was significantly lower (95% CI of difference [-
176 26.7,-3.5], $P=0.012$, Cohens $d=0.4$) in cases (113(40)mm) than controls
177 (128(30)mm). There were no differences ($P>0.3$) in shoe size (cases 9.0(1.3) vs
178 controls 9.2(1.4)) or lower leg length (cases 35.8(2.1)cm vs controls 36.2(2.5)cm).

179 The primary analysis did not find any significant differences for any of the plantar
180 pressure variables (Table 1). The secondary analysis demonstrated significantly
181 greater medial forefoot loading ($P=0.019-0.020$); and borderline significantly greater
182 lateral heel loading at 5% of stance time ($P=0.049-0.054$) and greater overall medial
183 COF ($P=0.013-0.086$) in cases. The results of the primary analysis suggest that the
184 differences observed in the medial-lateral COF normalise by last foot contact. No
185 other significant differences were observed (Table 2).

186

187 **Table 1 Differences between cases and controls in the primary analysis. 95% CIs**
 188 **and p-values are bootstrapped. Degrees of freedom = 138 for all plantar pressure**
 189 **variables.**

Variable	Mean difference (95% CI)	T-value	P-value
Weight-bearing dorsiflexion range of motion (mm)	-15.0 (-26.7,-3.5)	-2.52	0.012
Arch index	0.0015 (-0.0153,0.016)	0.184	0.835
Impulse: metatarsal zones (Ns)	6.71 (-15.3,27.8)	0.653	0.533
Medio-lateral centre of force position at last foot contact (mm)	-0.0069 (-0.0372,0.0264)	-0.413	0.682
Antero-posterior centre of force position at initial foot contact (mm)	-0.0012 (-0.0053,0.0035)	-0.488	0.645
Medio-lateral pressure ratio during forefoot contact phase	-0.0908 (-3.3108,2.9767)	-0.062	0.947
Toe contact area at midstance (as percentage of toe contact area during stance phase)	1.29 (-1.29,3.9)	0.964	0.346
Peak force: hallux zone (N)	11.8067 (-14.7578,38.7605)	0.851	0.418
Peak force: lesser toes (N)	-4.2064 (-12.1415,3.4802)	-1.056	0.297
Impulse: hallux zone (Ns)	3.99 (-0.74,8.94)	1.579	0.125
Impulse: lesser toes (Ns)	-0.67 (-2.13,0.58)	-0.984	0.345

190

191 **Table 2 Differences between cases and controls in the secondary analysis. 95%**
 192 **CIs and p-values are bootstrapped. Degrees of freedom = 138 for all plantar**
 193 **pressure variables.**

Variable	Mean difference (95% CI)	T-value	P-value
Stance time (ms)	0.08(-0.06,0.21)	1.17	0.27
Foot progression angle (°)	-0.63(-2.90,1.33)	-0.63	0.54

Mean medial-lateral displacement of COF during stance (mm)	0.74(-0.05,1.51)	1.85	0.09
Time from initial foot contact to initial full forefoot contact (IFFC; ms)	8.32(-6.24,23.2)	1.41	0.15
Medial-lateral heel pressure at initial foot contact	-0.02(-0.04,0.005)	-1.65	0.11
Medial-lateral heel pressure at 5% of stance time	-0.02(-0.04,0.0006)	-2.08	0.054
Medial-lateral heel pressure at time of IFFC	-0.01(-0.03,0.001)	-1.96	0.058
Overall medial-lateral forefoot loading	1.92(0.37,3.49)	2.50	0.02

194

195 Logistic regression demonstrated that height, mass and medial-lateral forefoot
 196 loading were the best predictors of group membership. No other variables added any
 197 further predictive value and were not entered into the logistic regression model
 198 (Table 3). The goodness-of-fit test indicated that the logistic regression model does
 199 not misrepresent the data ($P=0.967$).

200 **Table 3 Logistic Regression Analysis Results^a**

Predictor ^b	Regression Coefficient (SE)	Wald Statistic	Odds Ratio	P -value
Height	0.150	14.4	1.16	<0.001
Mass	-0.105	18.3	0.900	<0.001
Overall medial-lateral forefoot loading	-0.136	7.82	0.873	0.005
Intercept ^c	-17.9	9.63	<0.001	0.002

201 ^aPseudo $R^2 = 0.223-0.298$, ^bFor each predictor, $df=1$, ^cThe constant in the model
 202 representing the log odds when all predictors are 0

203 **Discussion**

204 In this study, we investigated whether anthropometry, ankle range of motion and
 205 plantar pressure variables differ between cases and controls. Our results show that

206 cases appear to be shorter in height with a greater body mass and reduced ankle
207 dorsiflexion range of motion. Cases and controls have similar arch indices and toe
208 extensor activity - related plantar pressure variables; but do demonstrate differences
209 in the medial-lateral distribution of pressure under the heel and forefoot.

210 The relatively low pain levels at rest observed are in agreement with the typical
211 description of CECS as a type of exercise-induced leg pain (Willems et al., 2006).
212 This study is the first to report mood disturbances in this group of patients. The
213 greater sadness and anxiety are likely related to the potential career implications
214 associated with CECS in the military and the mood disturbances typically induced and
215 associated with pain (Kilminster, Power, & Fozardz, 2000).

216 The identification of small stature as a risk factor for the development of CECS
217 supports previous findings for military patients (Roscoe, Roberts, & Hulse, 2015)
218 strengthening the evidence for this measure. This larger study does however suggest
219 that the effect size may be smaller than originally thought. Shorter stature may
220 result in an increased stride length during marching that could cause an increased
221 demand on Tibialis anterior and subsequent development of CECS (Roberts et al.,
222 2016b).

223 Two military studies have also observed greater body mass in cases (Birtles et al.,
224 2002, Roberts et al., 2016a). Small effect sizes that were not statistically significant
225 have also been observed in two additional studies (Rorabeck et al., 1988, Varelas et
226 al., 1993). It is unclear whether this is a result of deconditioning following the
227 development of CECS or a risk factor for the condition itself.

228 Controls demonstrated similar ankle dorsiflexion range of motion values to those
229 previously published (Bennell et al., 1998). Previous studies have reported that long
230 distance runners have tighter plantarflexors and hamstrings than untrained
231 individuals (Kubo et al., 2015, Wang et al., 1993). Similarly, tendon stiffness is
232 increased by resistance training (Kubo, Kanehisa, & Fukunaga, 2002). A greater body
233 mass index is also associated with decreased joint mobility (Soucie et al., 2011). Our
234 finding may therefore be a reflection of greater usage of the plantarflexors in this
235 population due to the greater body mass and reduced stature, necessitating a
236 relatively longer stride (Roberts et al., 2016b), of cases. Alternatively this finding
237 could be theorised to result in increased anterior compartment activity during swing
238 phase due to the resistance of the flexors. Further research is required to confirm
239 this.

240 Our results suggest that foot type is not a risk factor for the development of CECS.
241 This is surprising given that Tibialis anterior muscle activity is modulated by foot
242 type, and over-activity of this muscle is proposed to be key to the development of
243 CECS (Tweed and Barnes, 2008). Our results may help explain the poor efficacy of
244 conservative treatment such as the provision of foot orthoses (Fronck et al., 1987,
245 Martens et al., 1984, Sebik and Dogan, 2008, Wiley et al., 1987). Direct
246 measurement of foot type to confirm these findings is warranted in future studies in
247 this population.

248 To the author's knowledge, no previous studies have quantified toe extension during
249 gait in a healthy population. Our results suggest that some toe extension at mid-
250 stance is a normal occurrence. This is evidenced by the observation that only 10% of
251 all the sensors identified as being under the toes were active at mid-stance. Clinical
252 observations of 'persistent toe extension at mid-stance' have previously been
253 described in patients with CECS (Franklyn-Miller et al., 2014). However our findings
254 do not suggest that there is over-activity of these muscles during stance.

255 Our observations are in contrast to the findings of Willems (2006). This emphasises
256 the need to identify gait-related risk factors for individual conditions, injury locations
257 and populations. The risk factors identified by Willems (2006) are therefore likely to
258 be most predictive of the most common injury observed. Unfortunately the injury
259 distribution was not reported for the Willems (2006) study; although the focus on
260 medial tibial stress syndrome in the discussion suggests that CECS may not have
261 been the primary diagnosis. We also used an automatic zoning method that resulted
262 in larger zones than the semi-automatic identification method used by Willems
263 (2006) that may explain some of the difference in results.

264 The secondary analysis found differences in variables that had not been identified in
265 the earlier smaller study of plantar pressure in this population (Roscoe et al., 2016).
266 Our results provide some evidence that patients with CECS walk with greater lateral
267 pressure under the heel and stronger evidence that this is followed by greater medial
268 pressure under the forefoot, although this is not associated with a more pronated
269 dynamic arch index. It is suggested that these differences were not identified in the
270 earlier study due to the lower sample size. The differences observed may be due to
271 differences in Tibialis anterior activity and function. For example, a medial shift in
272 heel loading at initial contact has been simulated when the force output of Tibialis
273 anterior is reduced (Gefen, 2001). The greater lateral heel loading at the beginning
274 of stance in cases may therefore be due to increased Tibialis anterior activity. The
275 greater transfer of forces medially however may indicate that the subsequent control
276 of ankle movement is impaired. Impairment of Tibialis anterior has previously been
277 implied from the results of two earlier studies (Roberts et al., 2016b, Roscoe et al.,
278 2016). However, direct observations of the activity and function of Tibialis anterior
279 are required to confirm this hypothesis.

280 Our study design is limited in its ability to distinguish between cause and effect; the
281 findings would therefore ideally be confirmed in a further longitudinal study. We are
282 unable to rule out the possibility that the age differences observed could also reflect
283 a longer exposure to military tasks such as marching that may have influenced the
284 results. There is no evidence of age-related differences in plantar pressure variables
285 and whereas range of motion is more likely to be reduced in the older group than
286 the younger cohort found here (Vandervoort et al., 1992). Diagnosis of CECS was
287 based on a clear clinical history rather than IMCP measurement due to strong
288 evidence that IMCP testing had poor diagnostic validity at the start of this study
289 (Roberts and Franklyn-Miller, 2012). Recently published data now demonstrates that
290 the diagnosis can only be made accurately using IMCP when it is measured during

291 exercise to the limits of pain tolerance (Roscoe, Roberts, & Hulse, 2015). Future
292 studies would therefore ideally use this new diagnostic method for case selection.

293 In summary, this study demonstrates differences in anthropometry and joint mobility
294 that provide further evidence that small stature may be a key risk factor for the
295 development of CECS in this population. The lack of association with foot type and
296 toe extensor activity - related plantar pressure variables suggest that these are not
297 risk factors for the development of CECS, contrary to earlier hypotheses. The
298 differences observed in the secondary analysis provide insights into the condition
299 that should inform the direction of future studies.

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