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The influence of footwear on functional outcome after total ankle replacement, ankle arthrodesis, and tibiotalocalcaneal arthrodesis

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1 **Title Page**

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3 **The influence of footwear on functional outcome after total ankle**
4 **replacement, ankle arthrodesis and tibiototalcalcaneal arthrodesis**

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30 **The influence of footwear on pedobarography after total ankle**
31 **replacement, ankle and tibiotalocalcaneal arthrodesis**

32

33 **Abstract**

34 *Background:* Gait analysis after total ankle replacement and ankle arthrodesis is usually
35 measured barefoot. However, this does not reflect reality. The purpose of this study was to
36 compare patients barefoot and with footwear.

37 *Methods:* We compared 126 patients (total ankle replacement 28, ankle arthrodesis 57,
38 tibiotalocalcaneal arthrodesis 41) with 35 healthy controls in three conditions (barefoot,
39 standardized running and rocker bottom shoes). Minimum follow-up was 2 years. We used
40 dynamic pedobarography (Novel emed/E) and a light gate. Main outcome measures: relative
41 midfoot index, maximal force in the forefoot and walking speed.

42 *Findings:* The relative midfoot index decreased in all groups from barefoot to running shoes
43 and again to rocker bottom shoes ($p < 0.001$). The forefoot maximal force increased wearing
44 shoes ($p < 0.001$), but there was no significant difference between running and rocker bottom
45 shoes. Walking speed increased by 0.06 m/s with footwear ($p < 0.001$). Total ankle replacement
46 and ankle arthrodesis were equal in running shoes but both deviated from healthy controls (total
47 ankle replacement / ankle arthrodesis smaller RMI $p = 0.07/0.017$; increased forefoot maximal
48 force $p = 0.757/0.862$; slower walking speed $p < 0.001$). In rocker bottom shoes, this ranking
49 remained the same for forefoot maximal force and walking speed but relative midfoot index
50 merged to similar values. Tibiotalocalcaneal arthrodesis had inferior results in both shoes.

51 *Interpretation:* Runners are beneficial for all subjects and the benefit is greater for fusions and
52 replacements. Rocker bottom shoes have little added benefit. Total ankle replacement and ankle

53 arthrodesis were equal but inferior to healthy controls. Tibiotalocalcaneal arthrodesis has an
54 inferior outcome. Hence, future biomechanical studies comparing total ankle replacement,
55 ankle arthrodesis and tibiotalocalcaneal arthrodesis should be done with shoe wear.

56

57 Keywords: total ankle replacement, ankle arthrodesis, tibiotalocalcaneal arthrodesis, outcome,
58 shoe

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60

61 **Introduction**

62 There is an ongoing debate concerning the relative merits of total ankle replacement (TAR) and
63 ankle arthrodesis (AA), and a burgeoning literature is dedicated to the study of their
64 comparative advantages. [2,3,6-8,11,13,14,18,22,24,25,33,36,39] A priori one would expect
65 the mobile TAR to fare better than the stiff AA. But a review of the scientific literature
66 comparing TAR and AA reveals: (1) similar postoperative clinical outcomes and both better
67 than preoperatively with improvement of pain scores and functional scores (AOFAS);
68 [2,3,6,8,24,25,33,36] (2) same walking speed but slower than healthy subjects; [3,8,36] (3)
69 development of subtalar osteoarthritis (3% in five years for AA, 1% in five years for TAR);
70 [33] (4) an increased motion of the knee joint as compensation for the rigid ankle and
71 consequent development of arthritis both in AA and TAR, but controversially discussed.
72 [8,11,25] The only advantage of TAR over AA measured with gait analysis was a more
73 symmetrical gait. [8,24]

74 The picture changes when we focus on longevity. The revision rate in AA is 7-26% compared
75 to 17-54% in TAR. [7,18,33] Furthermore, implant failure in TAR of 24-11% after 10 years
76 has to be taken into account [13,14,22,34,39] while AA last forever. There are only few

77 studies of the treatment effects of TTC. [1,15,35] They report satisfaction scores of 91% for
78 AA and 88% for TTC and good clinical and functional results for both AA and TTC.
79 [1,15,35] These figures, however, conceal the clinically observed impairment after adding a
80 subtalar fusion to an AA.

81 The literature has two unclear spots. First, the treatment outcomes are always assessed in
82 barefoot condition. However it is unclear whether barefoot results are relevant in an everyday
83 context. Humans typically wear shoes when walking, and shoes have a crucial influence on
84 the foot's functionality. Therefore the aim of this study is to compare healthy subjects and
85 patients not only barefoot, but also in running and rocker bottom shoes. Second, the focus in
86 studies is on isolated ankle arthrodesis (AA) and the rare reporting of tibiototalcalcaneal
87 arthrodesis (TTC). [1,15,35] TTC, in essence an ankle fusion combined with a subtalar fusion,
88 is a frequent medical treatment. Therefore this study will include TTC patients.

89 We therefore measured four groups (TAR, AA, TTC and healthy controls) in three conditions
90 (barefoot, wearing standardized running and rocker bottom shoes) to address the following
91 issues:

- 92 1. What are the differences between the four groups barefoot?
- 93 2. What are the differences between the four groups in running and rocker bottom shoes?
- 94 3. What is the influence of footwear in each group?

95

96 **Patients and Methods**

97 We retrospectively reviewed all patients with ankle osteoarthritis who underwent TAR, AA or
98 TTC between 2003 and 2006 at the author's University (292 patients with 294 operations
99 including 2 conversion of TAR to AA). A three component mobile bearing TAR (Hintegra,

100 New Deal, Saint Priest France) was used. Indications for TAR were low-demand lifestyle,
101 sufficient ligament stability, a plantigrade hindfoot and ankle alignment. Ankle fusions were
102 performed taking a transfibular approach, using three 6.5 mm screws for tibiotalar fixation
103 and two 3.5 mm screws for fixation of the fibula. TTC arthrodesis were performed using a
104 transfibular approach and a straight retrograde intramedullary nail (Biomet, Warsaw, IN;
105 Stryker, Kalamazoo, MI).

106 We included patients meeting the following criteria: (1) unilateral TAR, AA or TTC with a
107 minimal follow up of 2 years; (2) complete preoperative and postoperative radiographs
108 available on a DICOM/PACS system. We excluded patients who had persistent painful non-
109 unions (n=5), were bedridden (n=22), deceased (n=6), had amputations (n=9), had
110 comorbidities that precluded walking over the pedobarograph (n=7), incomplete radiographs
111 or data during follow up (n=26), refused to participate (n=39), moved away to unknown
112 addresses (n=17), lived outside the city more than 1 hour away (n=28), chronic pain
113 syndrome (n=4), conversion from TAR to AA (n=2, included in the study as arthrodesis) or
114 dorsiflexion $<5^{\circ}$ in TAR (n=3).

115 These exclusions left 126 patients (Tab.1): TAR (n=28), ankle arthrodesis (n=57), and TTC
116 arthrodesis (n=41). Minimum follow up was 2 years (average 4 years; range 2–6 years).

117 Thirty-five healthy volunteers were recruited from patients' companions. Inclusion criteria
118 were no history of foot problems, no disorders seen on clinical examination, a Charlson
119 score¹⁸ of 0 and an AOFAS score [17] of 100 (Tab. 1). No radiographs of the healthy subjects
120 were made. All subjects provided informed consent to participating in the study. The study
121 was approved by the ethics board of the university and performed in accordance with the
122 World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki.

123 The follow up was carried out by two study nurses and a research fellow; all three were
124 blinded for the type of surgery. All participants had their AOFAS score [17] taken and

125 underwent a radiographic follow up. [26] The data for this study were collected using
126 dynamic pedobarography on a 10 m runway (Novel emed m/E, St. Paul, MN). All participants
127 were asked to walk at their own chosen speed and with normal strides. They made five steps
128 before and after entering the platform (five step method). [21] Patients walked at least eight
129 times over the runway; the records of these footprints were then averaged. We equipped the
130 runway with a light gate measuring the walking speed.

131 All patients were measured in three conditions: barefoot, in running and in rocker bottom
132 shoes. To avoid effects due to different footwear, all patients were wearing a standardized
133 New Balance 926 orthopaedic running shoe, available in all sizes for both feet. This shoe
134 could be converted into a rocker bottom shoe by attaching a rocker-shaped stiff plastic piece
135 with velcro to the sole (Fig. 1).

136 All feet were analyzed in a four area mask: hindfoot, midfoot, forefoot and toes. Boundaries
137 between the areas were 45% and 73% of length. [19] The Novel software provided 18
138 primary parameters for each area as well as for the entire foot. This amounts to 90 parameters
139 (5*18). Since the toes are not critical for the roll over process (and since single toes may
140 exhibit high pressures) the toe mask was excluded from analysis, reducing the number of
141 parameters to 72.

142 In an earlier study this number was reduced to 27 parameters (9 each for hindfoot, midfoot,
143 and forefoot). [10] This reduction was crucial to make the data amenable to statistical analysis
144 and for an interpretation of results. The remaining variables were aggregated into clusters,
145 thus creating an *index of rollover* (representing all parameters of time) and an *index of load*
146 (representing all parameters of load) for each area. The core result was that the index of load
147 of the midfoot was the only cluster which showed a significant difference between healthy
148 volunteers, AA and TTC. [10]

149 This study builds on this result. Within the index of load for the midfoot the maximal force
150 (MF) was the strongest contributor to the net effect. Furthermore, a force is in general the
151 parameter that provides most insight into gait mechanics. We therefore chose the midfoot MF
152 as one main parameter of this study. But rather than working with the pure midfoot MF we
153 created a new parameter, the *Relative Midfoot Index* (RMI). This parameter measures the
154 depth of the midfoot valley in relation to the average of the hindfoot and forefoot MF (Fig. 2):

155

$$RMI = 1 - \frac{2 MF_m}{MF_f + MF_h},$$

157 where MF_m , MF_f , and MF_h are the MF for the midfoot, forefoot, and hindfoot respectively.

158 In normal triphasic gait the RMI is expected to assume values close to one, while in
159 pathologic biphasic gait it is expected to be close to zero. Walking speed was the only
160 parameter of time that showed significant results in a previous study. [10] We therefore
161 considered a faster walking speed as an indicator of health and included it as another main
162 parameter. The final main parameter is the MF in the forefoot because it is considered a
163 possible trigger for adjacent joint osteoarthritis in the midfoot and subtalar joint. To allow for
164 a complete comparison of all parameters we also report other typical pedobarographic
165 measurements, namely the maximal force in the hind- and midfoot and relative contact times
166 in the hind-, mid- and forefoot (Tab. 3).

167 Because for each participant three sets of pedobarography measurements were recorded, the
168 set of outcomes formed a multivariate response. The statistician used correlated errors models
169 with a general covariance structure for the repeated observations on a participant to estimate
170 differences in outcome between healthy controls and patients after TAR, AA or TTC
171 arthrodesis, and between barefoot and running or rocker bottom shoes. In our models we
172 fitted the group (healthy controls, TAR, AA or TTC), condition (barefoot, running or rocker

173 bottom shoes) and group-condition interaction effects as fixed effects. Models for forefoot
174 MF were adjusted for potential confounding variables: body weight and walking speed. We
175 used SAS version 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC) for our analyses; and for graphics, we
176 used R version 3.1.2 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). We report
177 median and interquartile range for all parameters because the data were not normally
178 distributed. Effects of footwear and participant group with the correspondent p-values are
179 given in the Supplementary Website Material in Tab. A1-6. P-values <0.05 were considered
180 significant.

181

182 **Results**

183 1. What are the differences between the four groups barefoot?

184 The RMI in barefoot condition was significantly lower than in TAR ($p=0.005$) and AA
185 ($p<0.001$) relative to healthy controls, but not different between TAR and AA (median and
186 interquartile ranges are reported in Tab. 2, line graphs in Fig. 3). The RMI of TTC patients
187 was significantly lower than the other groups ($p=0.001$). This indicates that both TAR and
188 AA are inferior to healthy subjects while being on par with each other and TTC is inferior to
189 both TAR and AA. For simplification and better understanding of the results, we call this the
190 “HATT-ranking” (Healthy trumps AA and TAR, which in turn trump TTC). There was no
191 significant difference in forefoot MF between TAR and AA in barefoot condition (Tab. 2,
192 Fig. 4). Relative to healthy controls, TAR ($p=0.076$) and AA ($p=0.105$) had an increased
193 forefoot MF; these differences were, however, not significant. TTC showed a similar MF
194 forefoot as AA and TAR (Tab. 2, Fig. 3). There was no difference in walking speed between
195 TAR and AA in barefoot condition, but both groups were walking 0.3 m/s slower than healthy

196 controls ($p < 0.001$; Tab. 2, Fig. 5). TTC were significantly slower than all other groups
197 ($p = 0.036$). We also find the HATT-ranking for walking speed.

198

199

200 2. What are the differences between the four groups in running and rocker bottom shoes?

201 In running shoes, TAR and AA had the same RMI, but smaller than healthy controls (TAR
202 $p = 0.07$, AA $p = 0.017$). TTC had significantly lower RMI than the others ($p < 0.001$). Once
203 again, we find the HATT-ranking. In rocker bottom shoes, there were no significant
204 differences anymore between TAR, AA and healthy controls. TTC, however, still had a
205 significantly smaller RMI than the other groups ($p = 0.002$, Tab. 2, Fig. 3). Wearing running
206 shoes, both AA and TAR had increased forefoot MF compared to healthy controls, but this
207 was not significant (TAR $p = 0.757$, AA $p = 0.862$). TTC had a similar forefoot MF as the
208 healthy controls. In rocker bottom shoes, we found the same pattern: for both shoe types the
209 relative rankings remain the same as in barefoot condition (Tab. 2, Fig. 4). Also walking
210 speed conformed to the HATT-ranking: in both running and rocker bottom shoes the walking
211 speed of healthy controls was considerably higher than that of AA and TAR ($p < 0.001$), which
212 were not significantly different from each other. TTC were noticeably slower than AA and
213 TAR ($p = 0.16$, Fig. 5).

214

215 3. What is the influence of footwear to each group?

216 While the relative merits of treatment options remain unchanged when wearing shoes rather
217 than walking barefoot, the merits in absolute terms change: The RMI decreased in all groups
218 significantly from barefoot to running shoes and again to rocker bottom shoes ($p < 0.001$). The

219 forefoot MF increased significantly wearing shoes ($p<0.001$), but there was no significant
220 difference between running and rocker bottom shoes, except for TTC where we found a small
221 increase when using rocker bottom shoes ($p=0.005$). Walking speed increased significantly by
222 0.06 m/s wearing either running or rocker bottom shoes compared to barefoot ($p<0.001$), but
223 did not significantly differ between the two shoes.

224 **Discussion**

225 Comparing TAR, AA, TTC and healthy subjects barefoot and shod, we found what we call
226 the HATT-ranking: healthy subjects do best, AA and TAR are equally good but inferior to
227 healthy, and TCC is the worst option.

228 This study has certain limitations: First, comparing TAR or AA with a high evidence level, a
229 randomization of patients would be necessary. However, this would be unfeasible in the clinical
230 setting and present ethical problems as there are indications and contraindications for TAR.
231 Second, a three dimensional gait analysis would be preferable, but was not possible due to
232 limited financial capabilities (gait analysis is about 10times more expensive and 10 times more
233 time consuming than pedobarography). Third, healthy volunteers were not age- and weight-
234 matched to the patient group which has previously been encountered by other authors. [25]
235 Fourth, the RMI is not yet a validated new parameter. It was the attempt of a clinical working
236 orthopaedic surgeon to facilitate the interpretation of a large number of pedobarographic
237 parameters.

238 In selected gait analysis studies, TAR appears to regain more natural joint function and a more
239 symmetrical gait. [5,9,11,25,31] Singer described 4.4° more dorsiflexion in TAR than AA with
240 impaired plantarflexion in both groups. [31] Van Engelen found in AA 7.6% increased
241 metabolic cost, [37] and Doets in TAR 28% compared to healthy subjects. [8] These results
242 raise questions: First, it is unclear whether these differences would still be measurable wearing

243 shoes. Second, it is questionable whether a 4.4° larger dorsiflexion is clinically relevant. In the
244 light of our results, summarized as “HATT”-ranking, there is the question whether the subtle
245 possible biomechanical advantages of TAR should be bought at the cost of a higher rate of
246 revisions and implant failure. [7,18,33]

247 A possible biomechanical explanation of the increased midfoot and forefoot load after AA may
248 be that the midfoot and forefoot have to compensate for the stiff ankle joint. Sealey [29]
249 observed a compensatory increase in sagittal motion of the subtalar and medial column joints
250 by 6 degrees after ankle fusion. This could also explain why patients after TTC arthrodesis
251 show even a greater increase in midfoot load: the subtalar joint, which has a compensatory
252 hypermobility after ankle arthrodesis, is fused and therefore the midfoot is loaded even more
253 and has to compensate alone for the motion in the sagittal plane. [29]

254 One would have expected the difference in RMI of healthy subjects and patients to become
255 smaller when wearing shoes due to patients’ values coming closer to healthy values. However,
256 the RMI of healthy and subjects and patients converge to value in the vicinity of 0.5. This is a
257 pathological value and so we are faced with the paradoxical fact that shoes make the RMI of
258 healthy subjects converge to an unhealthy value. The reasons for this are subject for future
259 research.

260 There are only two studies assessing TAR and AA in shoes, which are in line with our findings:
261 Jastifer [15] allowed patients to wear their own shoes. He observed also no difference between
262 TAR and AA on flat surfaces, but better results walking upstairs, downstairs and downhill in
263 TAR. Chopra [5] compared AA and TAR in sandals in 4 sizes and found a fully recovered
264 bilateral gait mechanics in TAR but an altered mechanics in AA despite the differences is
265 several parameters than compared to healthy controls.

266 The prescription of rocker bottom shoes with a stiff sole is a general practice after ankle
267 arthrodesis and is expected to compensate for the loss of motion in the ankle. [12,16,21,32] We
268 found no further beneficial effects of rocker bottom shoes compared to running shoes. Indeed,
269 running shoes provided similar beneficial effects as rockers.

270 In conclusion, runners are beneficial for all patients including healthy controls. Rocker bottom
271 shoes do not benefit much more and the benefit is greater for fusions and replacements. Because
272 of this effect, future biomechanical studies should be done with shoe wear on. Furthermore, our
273 results showed no difference between TAR and AA barefoot or shod. In all conditions, TAR
274 and AA were inferior to healthy controls and TTC had the most inferior outcome barefoot or
275 shod.

276

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282

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381 **Legends**

382 Figure 1: New Balance 926 orthopaedic modular shoe with removable stiff rocker bottom, which
383 can be used either as a normal runner or rocker bottom shoe.

384

385 Figure 2: Relative midfoot index (RMI): The RMI is calculated by setting the depth of the midfoot
386 valley in relation to the average of the MF hind- and forefoot. The aim of the RMI is to facilitate
387 the interpretation of a large amount of pedobarographic data and it is independent of individual
388 body weight and walking speed, both affecting absolute MF values.

389

390 Figure 3 – The median of RMI for TTC (squares), AA (circles), and TAR (triangle) and healthy
391 controls (diamonds). For values of the mean and Interquartile range please see Tab. 2, for p-
392 values please see Supplementary Website Material.

393

394 Figure 4 – The median of Forefoot MF for TTC (squares), AA (circles), and TAR (triangle) and
395 healthy controls (diamonds). For values of the mean and Interquartile range please see Tab. 2,
396 for p-values please see Supplementary Website Material.

397

398 Figure 5 – The median of walking speed for TTC (squares), AA (circles), and TAR (triangle) and
399 healthy controls (diamonds). For values of the mean and Interquartile range please see Tab. 2,
400 for p-values please see Supplementary Website Material.

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