Different Splinting Time for Carpal Tunnel Syndrome in Women: Comparative Study

Mrs. Nourah Ali Al-Muhanna¹, Mr. Sharick Shamsi²

¹(Senior physiotherapist, Physiotherapy department, Prince Sultan Military Medical City, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia)

²(Physiotherapist, Physiotherapy department, Prince Sultan Military Medical City, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia)

Abstract:

Study objective: To define the best splinting wear times, night or day, in pain relief for female patients with idiopathic chronic CTS in exacerbation phase.

Design: Quasi experimental comparative design.

Method and measurements: 24 female patients (42 wrists) from military hospital in Riyadh participated in this study. Their CTS was diagnosed by the nerve conduction velocity (NCV). On basis of splint wear time patients were divided into two groups; day time and night time. Thermoplastic, custom-made, neutral

wristsplints were given to both groups (21 wrists each). Patients completed 3 consecutive weeks of follow-up. Pain (pressure) threshold through, algometer, was used to measure the pain in both groups. Four measurements were applied; one at the initial assessment and 3 during follow-up weeks.

Results: The current study showed a statistical s i g n i f i c a n t improvement (p = 0.0001) in pain threshold with splint wear. This was true for both groups. Patients received splint in day time showed little increase in pain threshold when compared with night time wear instruction but without significant difference.

Conclusion: Wrist splint is an effective conservative treatment for CTS. No difference was found between night or day time splint wear. Patient should wear the splint at their most adherent time.

Keywords: Carpal Tunnel Syndrome, Splinting, Splint Wear Time, Algometer.

I. Introduction:

Carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS) is a neurological disorder involving compression of median nerve in carpal tunnel of wrist^{1,2}. It is considered the most common entrapment neuropathy^{3,4}. Numbness, tingling and pain in the hand, forearm, elbow or even shoulder, and weakness of the hand are common symptoms of CTS^{5,6}, the patient also may experience an electric-like shocking feeling. These impairments may cause a disability in the performance of activities of daily living^{7,8}. The syndrome shows improvement with rest and worsen at night^{6,7,9}, or with repetitive upper extremity activity^{2,10}. It is more common in women than men^{9,11} and affects up to 10% of population⁹. Atroshi et al.(1999), reported that CTS estimated 3% of adult population ¹². According to Al-Rajeh (1994), the peripheral neuropathy in Saudi Arabia was 2.7% of population¹³. In 2009-2010 data base of the Military hospital, Riyadh, CTS was estimated about 30% - 31% of the Neurological disease. Although repetitive activity is an identified precipitating factor for the development of CTS, the exact etiology remains unclear^{6,9}. Other factors believed to be related to CTS onset include ergonomic stressors, systemic/endocrine disorders (such as: diabetes mellitus, renal failure, thyroid disease, and rheumatoid arthritis, obesity), acute trauma, pregnancy, and psychosocial factors^{1,11}.

Idiopathic CTS c a n be relieved with surgical or conservative intervention⁴. Current conservative treatments include splints^{2,3,4,7,14}, activity modification^{4,15}, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs^{4,16} and local injection of corticosteroids^{1,7}. In addition, physical modalities like Ultrasound¹⁷, nerve gliding exercises^{14,18}, acupuncture^{6,10,19} and laser treatment have also been used²⁰. Splinting the wrist is the most common conservative intervention^{10,9,12,15}. The rationale for wrist splints was originally based on observations that CTS symptoms improve with rest and worsen with activity^{2,21}. The purpose of splint is to decrease pain, slow disease progression and improve physical function²². Researchers have suggested that the

therapeutic effect of wrist splinting arises from minimizing carpal tunnel pressure^{3,16} which is strongly implicated in the pathophysiology of CTS, that pressure increases with wrist positions other than neutral^{2,10,7,14,21}

The aim of this study was to define the best splinting wear times, night or day, in pain relief for female patients with idiopathic chronic CTS in exacerbation phase.

II. Methods:

Subjects': 42 female patients with idiopathic chronic CTS, during exacerbation phase participated in this study. Their age ranged from 30 to 45 years (37.93 ± 5.24 years) and were recruited from Riyadh Military Hospital. The inclusion criteria was: female patients aged between 30-45 years, patients with idiopathic chronic carpal tunnel syndrome as diagnosed with nerve conduction study, patients who were in the exacerbation phase (acute) but not under any anti-inflammatory medication, patients who didn't receive physiotherapy since 3 months, and patients adherence to splint wear at least 70% for continuous 3 weeks. The exclusion criteria was: patient with inflammatory arthritis, hypothyroidism, congestive cardiac failure, diabetes mellitus, obesity (Body max Index (BMI) > 30), patients who were pregnant and patients who received surgery. The research proposal was approved by the Rehabilitation Health Science (RHS) department of King Saud University (KSU) and the Physical and Occupational therapy departments in Military Hospital.

Design: Quasi experimental comparative design, of two groups, with day time and night time splinting and pain threshold evaluation with pressure Algometer.

Equipments and measuring tools:

Algometer, Sheets, Diaries, Exercises ball,

Procedure:

a) **Participants Recruitment:** Patients were diagnosed by nerve conduction study in the neurophysiology department. They were referred by physicians from Orthopedic, Neurologic and Plastic Surgery clinics to the Physiotherapy or Occupational therapy departments. Aim and methods of the study were explained to all participants before they sign the consent form. On basis of splint wear time patients were divided into two equal groups of 21 wrists according to the patient preference. Group one wore splint for day time and group two wore it for night time.

b) Therapeutic procedures:

Splint: Custom-made, thermoplastic, lightweight, neutral-positioned wrist splints (figure1) were given to patients provided by the hospital, and made by the occupational therapist at the occupational therapy department. The researcher instructed the patients to wear the splints daily depending on their groups, for continuous successive 3 weeks. First group wore splint during day time and the second group wore it for night time, the minimum hours of splint wear in both groups were from 6-8 hours.



Figure (1): Custom made, thermoplastic, light weight and neutral position wrist splint. A) Palmer view, B) Dorsal view.

Exercises: Patients were educated how to perform strengthening exercises to maintain their hands muscles power and self stretching exercises to stretch the flexor retinaculum. Patient were trained at first session and supplied by a researcher-designed brochure that describes the exercises, which were repeated during each visit and used as home program exercises.

During the strengthening exercises, patients were asked to squeeze the ball (figure 2) and hold for 10 seconds while sitting on a chair with supported hand on padded table, keeping neck and shoulder in neutral position, forearm in supination and elbow 90° of flexion.

During self stretching exercises patients were asked :1) to bring palms together with fingers pointed

up toward ceiling and slowly slide them down until she felt a stretch in the inner wrist area²³, hold 20-30 second, then relax for 10 seconds and repeat the exercises. 2) to extend their a ffected arm straight so their palm is faced away from them, then used the other hand to gently pull their fingers toward them, to stretch the carpal tunnel area ²³, hold 20-30 seconds, then relax for 10 seconds and repeat the exercises. 3) to interlace their fingers and stretched their arms out in front of them²³, hold for 20-30 seconds, then relax for 10 seconds and repeat the exercises. All these exercises were repeated 10 times, five sessions daily for 3 weeks.



Figure (2): Hand strengthening exercises using Egg squeeze ball.

Assessment procedures

Pain threshold was measured by pressure algometer using Bonci²⁴ protocol, while the patient is in

sitting position, the forearm was in supination and with elbow 90° of flexion, the painful wrist was placed on a padded table with palm up. The researchers stood at the side of the painful wrist and hold the algometer with her hand, then applied a perpendicular pressure on the palmer aspect of the patient's wrist (figure 3), the patient informed the researcher at the point when the sensation of "pressure" began to feel "painful". Average of 3 trails was recorded as threshold value .



Figure (3): Patient and Researcher position during pain threshold assessment test.

Pain was assessed using algometer first session and at 3 sessions of follow up. Patient was instructed to record whether she had been adherent to splint or not using daily diaries. At the final visit (3rd week), patients gave the diaries to the researcher.

Subjects were contacted by the researcher through phone calls to assure that they wore the splint and they continued to perform prescribed exercises aiming to motivate and improve their adherence. After 3 months follow-up phone calls to patients was performed to assess the splint effect on the pain.

Data Analysis:

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (SPSS) (version 16) was used for statistical analysis. Independent t-tests were used to compare the demographics of the two groups. Repeated measure ANOVAs were used to evaluate the progression of pain threshold. The percentage of change of pain threshold between the two groups was calculated and their means were compared by independent t-test. In addition the Mixed Model ANOVA was used to evaluate the effect of patient's group on the progression of pain

threshold through the initial, 1st visit, 2nd visit and 3rd visit pain threshold measurements. Chi-Square tests were used to compare between the two groups regarding the adherence to splint wear

Chi-Square tests were used to compare between the two groups regarding the adherence to splint wear and job statues of the participants.

III.	Findings:
Table (1): Comparison of demograph	nic data between Day and Night time groups.

	Splint wear time			
Viable	Day time	Night time	D	
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		
Age	36.7 (5.14)	39.0 (5.19)	0.152	
BMI	27.1 (2.80)	26.1 (2.62)	0.223	
Initial pain threshold	88.4 (14.60)	85.2 (14.57)	0.468	

Table	(2): Progression	of pain	threshold in	CTS	patients'	groups	wearing	day	time a	and night	t time s	splint
(Mixed Model ANOVA test).												

	Pain threshold values									
Splint wear time	Initial assessment	1 st visit assessment	2 nd visit assessment	3 rd visit assessment	р					
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)						
Day time	88.4 (14.60)	94.4 (14.7)	98.8 (12.33)	102 (10.9)	0.0001					
Night time	85.2 (14.57)	91.16 (14.33)	93.73 (14.83)	98.329 (15.27)	0.0001					



Figure (4): The progressive increase in pain threshold through 4 assessments in day & night.

Table (2) and figure (4) shows significant progressive increase in pain threshold values from the initial assessment, 1^{st} , 2^{nd} , to 3^{rd} visit assessments. This progressive increase in pain threshold is applied for day time group as well as night time group with p= 0.0001 for both groups.

Splints groups	Mean(SD)	p
Day time	17.25(12.68)	0.744
Night time	16.145(8.86)	

 Table (3): The percentage of change of pain threshold between day and night time groups.

Table (3) showed that there were no significance differences in the percentage of change of the pain threshold between day and night time groups (p = 0.744).

	Group	Mean (SD)
	oroup	((22))
Initial pain assessment (N)	Day	88.4 (14.60)
	Night	85.2 (14.57)
at	Day	94.4 (14.7)
1 St visit pain assessment	Night	91.16 (14.33)
	Day	98.8 (12.33)
2 nd visit pain assessment	Night	93.73 (14.83)
	Day	102 (10.9)
3 ^{ru} visit pain assessment	Night	98.329 (15.27)
Pain assessments * groups	P = 0.328	

Table (4): Different pain assessments for day & night time groups.

Table (4) shows that patient's grouping is not a significant factor (p=0.328) affecting the pain threshold progression from initial to1st, 2nd, and 3rd pain assessments.

Table (S	5):	Comparisons	of	percentage	of	adherence	to	splint	wear	and	exercises l	between	day a	nd
				night tin	ne g	groups (Inde	epe	endent	t-test)	•				

Variables	Day time Mean (SD)	Night time Mean (SD)	р
% Adherence to splint wear	80.63(10.17)	93.03 (9.35)	0.0001
% Adherence to exercises	65.3(22.45)	75.07(17.84)	0.126





Table (5) and figure (5) represented that night time group showed more adherence to splint wear as well as to exercises but with only statistical significance for splint wear (p=0.0001).

	Working (%)	Housewives (%)	Total	Р
Day time	7(33%)	14(66%)	21(100%)	0.0001
Night time	19(90.5%)	2(9.5%)	21(100%)	

Table (6): Job status of the day and night time groups (Chi-square tests).

The association between splint wearing time and job status is significant (p=0.000). The majority (90.5%) of night time splint wear group are working, while, 2 thirds (66%) of day time splint wear group are housewives.



Figure (6): Phone call follow-up after 3 months

Figure (6) showed that splint effect persist after 3 months in 76.2% of patients, but pain returned in 14.3% of the patients, while 9.5% of patients can't be reached at that time.

IV. Discussion

The aim of this study was to define the best splinting wear time, day or night, for pain relief in female patients with idiopathic chronic CTS in exacerbation phase. The results showed that splinting wear produced significant improvement in form of increasing pain threshold of the patients in both groups. However, the day time group showed more increase in pain threshold than night time group, there was no statistical significant difference between the two groups.

In this study, fair inclusion and exclusion criteria were used to ensure validity of the results. Only females were included to overcome the gender factor effect. It was approved that females have lower thresholds of pain, greater abilities to discriminate pain, and higher pain ratings or less tolerance of noxious stimuli than males^{25,26}. Women generally have an increased sensitivity to experimental pain when compared to men²⁶.

Current study was concerned more with the short term effect of splint. Pain threshold was measured through 3 consecutive weeks and result showed significant pain threshold improvement. This short term pain threshold improvement was similar to many studies^{14,27}. Furthermore, the results proved that splint effect can persist for longer time. 3 months phone call-follow up showed that 76.2 % of the patients reported that their pain is still controlled while 14.3% of them reported pain return and only one patient approached surgical treatment. This was not surprising because a lot of studies have approved the long effect of splint in CTS patients^{,21,28}

In the current study, the researcher believes that the underlying mechanism of day time splint wear in increasing the pain threshold in CTS patients could be due to prevention of repetitive movement during the patients activity and this is seen usually at the day time more than the night time, and that was in agreement with a lot of authors who found that splinting during repetitive movement which is usually at the day time was effective in relieving symptoms^{12,14}, Nobuta et al. (2008), reported that CTS improved with rest and worsen with activity and the CT pressure elevated during repetitive hand activity²⁹. Also Love (2003), reported that CTS is an overuse injury and splint must be used when performing any task required wrist flexion¹¹.

Carleson et al. (2010), stated that CTS has been associated with forceful, repetitive hand and wrist activities and splint minimizes it during day time and limits prolonged periods of excessive wrist flexion

or extension during sleep¹⁰. Kasdan et al. (2002), reported that CTS is repetitive motion disorder and symptoms tend to exacerbated by activities that place loads on the tendons passing through the canal such as holding book, driving car, and using hand held tools³⁰. Moreover Goodyear and Arroll (2004), stated that splinting when in bed is likely to be more accepted and tolerated by patients than splinting during the day³¹ and Walker et al. (2000), reported that day time splint wear may lead to decrease upper extremity activities and contribute to the therapeutic effect of splint². The researcher also believed that the CTS is due to overload of the repetition

activity and wear splint would prevent and reduce the pain, so she hypothesized that wearing splint during night time is giving the chance for recovery after day of a lot or repetitive movements, and patients adherent usually is better during night splint wear. This researcher hypothesis is strengthened with the result, which showed that night time group were significantly more adherent to splint wear than day time group.

This research work was developed to discover the best timing for splint wear and the researcher found that wrist splint for CTS was effective, with no doubt, whether it is day time or night time.

It is difficult to get a specific treatment effect without appropriate use and restrict to its protocol.

Successful clinical outcome depends essentially on adherence to its management protocol^{32,33}. Current study results showed that day time patients were less adherent to the splint wear than night time patients and this would affect the day time splint wear outcome and cause limitation in pain improvement. Although patients of the day time splint wear was less adherent, result showed more pain threshold improvement in day time patients more than the night time patients. However this improvement was with no statistical significance.

In addition the percentage of different between the initial assessment and 3^{rd} visit pain assessment of the two groups were very close to each other and no significant difference found between them. The

observed of increase in pain threshold of the day time group at the 3rd visit assessment is actually due to the higher pain threshold in the initial assessment for day time group than night time group. Since splint wear as a

management of CTS considered as poor adherence procedure³¹ and based on the results of this current study, the researcher believes that patients with CTS should wear the splint at the time they prefer and they will be more adherent to it no matter if it's night time or day time. And that is supported by Viera (2003), who

mentioned that optimal splinting regimen depends on the patient's preferences⁹. As for the splint wear, study results showed that night time group were a little more adherent to exercises (75.07), than day time group (65.3) although there was no statistical significant difference (p=0.126). The researcher believes that the CTS is due to overload of repetitive activity and working. Repetitive activities are job or house held activities. This activity would decrease the pain improvement with splint wear and the researcher agrees with a lot of studies

which considered that CTS is work related syndrome 34,35,36 . In fact, the effect of women's job status was out of the scope of the current study but the result showed the majority 90.5% of the night time splint wear were working ladies while more than two thirds (66%) of the day time splint wear patients were housewives. Moreover chi-square test showed significant association between job status and patients groups. Tang et al.

(1999) considered doing housewife activity as work³⁷. On the other hand, a lot of authors don't consider

CTS as work related syndrome^{38,39,40}, so it was difficult in this study to confirm whether or not the work was associated factor with the pain improvement. It is recommended in future to control the job in both groups and consider its effect in CTS. That's why one limitation of this study is that random assignment of women into the day and night time groups was not applied and this would affect the relation between splints wear and job status. In addition, only the pain of the symptoms was studied and there is other symptoms which can be considered in future researches such as the numbness and the hand strength. Follow up after 3 months was taken verbally and should be taken with the same outcome measure; pain threshold.

Due to limitation in published related articles, the result of this study cannot be compared. Because no studies compared the difference between the day and night time splint wear effects in improving the pain threshold in CTS patients. Majority of the studies compared only between splint and other modalities.

V. Conclusion:

Splinting is an effective conservative treatment to relief pain and increase pain threshold in female patients with idiopathic CTS during exacerbation phase, and it has long term effect as well as short term relief of pain in CTS patients. No significant difference was found in increasing pain threshold in both groups, day or night time splint wear, in female patients with idiopathic chronic CTS during exacerbation phase. Splint wear time is according to the patients preference.

Acknowledgements:

First of all, thanks to ALLAH who enabled me to conduct this study. I am heartily thankful to Dr.Salwa **El-Sobkey**, Assistant Professor, Health Rehabilitation Sciences, Collage of Applied Medical Sciences, King Saud University, A deep thanks to my parent, my husband, and my kid's for helping, supporting, understanding, and encouraging me through my study and my whole life. Special thanks to **Kholoud Al-Mubarak**, Senior Occupational therapist, in Military Hospital, who helped me in organizing and making splints for all the patients.

References:

- Muller, M., Tsui, D., Schnurr, R., Biddulph-Deisroth, L., Hard, J., & MacDermid, J. (2004). Effectiveness of hand therapy intervention in primary mangement of carpal tunnel syndrome: a systematic review. J Hand Ther, 17(2), 210-228.
 Will, C., Marke, M., Cife, D., & G., et al. (2000). Nach here is a systematic review. J Hand Ther, 17(2), 210-228.
- [2]. Walker, C., Metzler, M., Cifu, D., & Swartz, Z. (2000). Neutral wrist splinting in carpal tunnel syndrome: a comparison of night-only versus full-time wear instructions. Arch Phys Med Rehabil, 81(4), 424-429.
- [3]. Baysal, O., Altay, Z., Ozcan, C., Ertem, K., Yologly, S., & Kayhan A. (2006). Comparison of three conservative treatment protocols in carpal tunnel syndrome. Int J Clin Pract, 60(7), 820-828.
- [4]. Shi, Q. and MacDermid, J. (2011). Is surgical intervention more effective than nonsurgical treatment for carpal tunnel syndrome? a systematic review. J Orthop Surg Res, 11, 6(1):17. Retrieved from http://www.josr-online.com/content/6/1/17.
- [5]. Peters-Veluthamaningal, C., Winters, J., Groenier, K., & Jong, B. (2010). Randomised controlled trial of local corticosteroid injections for carpal tunnel syndrome in general practice. BMC Family Practice, 11:54. Retrieved from http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2296/11/54.
- [6]. Sim, H., Shin, B., Lee, M., Jung, A., Lee, H., & Ernst, E. (2011). Acupuncture for Carpal Tunnel Syndrome: A Systematic Review of Randomized Controlled Trials Critical Review. J Pain, 12(3), 307-314.
- [7]. Celiker, R., Arslan, S., & Inanc, F. (2002).Corticosteroid injection vs. nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drug and splinting in carpal tunnel syndrome. Am J Phys Med Rehabil, 81(3), 182-186.
- [8]. Kostopoulos D. (2004). Treatment of carpal tunnel syndrome: a review of the non-surgical approaches with emphasis in neural mobilization. JBMT, 8(1), 2-8. doi:10.1016/S1360-8592(03)00068-8.
- [9]. Viera A. (2003). Management of carpal tunnel syndrome. Am Fam Physician, 68(2), 265-272.
- [10]. Carlson H., Colbert, A., Frydl, J., Arnall, E., Elliot, M., & Carlson, N. (2010). Current options for nonsurgical management of carpal tunnel syndrome. Int J Clin Rheumtol, 5(1), 129-142. doi:10.2217/IJR.09.63.
- [11]. Love C. (2003). Carpal tunnel syndrome. J Orthop Nurs, 7(1), 33-42.
- [12]. Atroshi, I., Gummesson, C., Johnsson, R., Ornstein, P., Ranstam, J., Rosén, I. (1999). Prevalence of Carpal Tunnel Syndrome in a General Population. JAMA,282(2), 153-158. doi: 10.1001/jama.282.2.153.
- [13]. Al-Rajeh, S., Bademosi, O., Awada, A., Ismail, H., Al-Freihi, H., Dawodu, A., Chebib, F., & Assuhaimi S. (1995). Community Survey of Neurological Disorder in Saudi Arabia: Result of Pilot Study in Agrabiah. Ann Saudi Med, 15(1), 32-35.
- [14]. Brininger, T., Rogers, J., Holm, M., Baker, N., Li, Z., & Goitz, R. (2007).
- [15]. Efficacy of a fabricated customized splint and tendon and nerve gliding exercises for the treatment of carpal tunnel syndrome: a randomized controlled trial. Arch Phys Med Rehabil, 88(11), 1429-1435
- [16]. Giele H. (2001). (ii) Evidence-based treatment of carpal tunnel syndrome. Curr Orthop, 15(4), 249-255.
- [17]. Gerritsen, A., Korthals-de Bos, I., Laboyrie, P., de Vet, H., Scholten, R., & Bouter, L. (2003). Splinting for carpal tunnel syndrome: prognostic indicators of success. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry, 74(9), 1342-1344.
- [18]. Bakhtiary, A., & Rashidy, A. (2004). Ultrasound and laser therapy in the treatment of carpal tunnel syndrome. Aust J Physiother, 50(3), 147-151.
- [19]. McKeon, J., & Yancosek, K. (2008). Neural Gliding Techniques for the Treatment of Carpal Tunnel Syndrome: A Systematic Review. J Sport Rehabilitation, 17(3), 324-341.
- [20]. Yang, C., Wang, N., Li, T., Hsieh, C., Hwang, K., Ko, W., & Chan, M. (2011). A Randomized Clinical Trial of Acupuncture versus Oral Steroids for Carpal Tunnel Syndrome: A Long-Term Follow-Up. J Pain, 12(2), 272-279.
- [21]. Naeser, M., Hahn, K., Lieberman, B., & Branco, K. (2002). Carpal Tunnel Syndrome Pain Treated With Low-Level Laser and Microamperes Transcutaneous Electric Nerve Stimulation: A Controlled Study. Arch Phys Med Rehabil, 83(12), 978-988.
- [22]. De Angelis, M., Pierfelice, F., Di Giovanni, P., Staniscia, T., & Uncini, A. (2009). Efficacy of a soft hand brace and a wrist splint for carpal tunnel syndrome: a randomized controlled study. Acta Neurol Scand, 119(1), 68-74.
- [23]. Gravlee, J., & Durme, D. (2007). Braces and splints for musculoskeletal conditions. Am Fam Physician, 75(3), 342-8.
- [24]. Garfinkel, M., Singhal, A., Katz, W., Allan, D., Reshetar, R., Schumacher, H. (1998). Yoga-based intervention for carpal tunnel syndrome: a randomized trial. JAMA, 280(18), 1601-1603.
- [25]. Bonci, A. (1994). Algometry Validates Chiropractic. Dynamic Chiropractic, 12(15). Retrieved from http://www.dynamicchiropractic.ca/mpacms/dc/article.php?t=26&id=41359&no_paginate=true&p_friendly=true&no_b=true.
- [26]. Chesterton, L., Barlas, P., Foster, N., Baxter, G., & Wright, CC. (2003). Gender differences in pressure pain threshold in healthy humans. Pain, 101(3),259-266.
- [27]. Riley, J., Robinson, M., Wise, E., Myers, C., Fillingim, R. (1998). Sex differences in the perception of noxious experimental stimuli: a Meta analysis. Pain, 74(2-3), 181-187.
- [28]. Watts, A., & McEachan, J. (2006). Carpal tunnel syndrome in men. Curr Orthop, 20(4), 294-298.
- [29]. Sevim, S., Dogu, O., Camdeviren, H., Kaleagasi, H., Aral, M., Arslan, E., & Milcan, A. (2004). Long-term effectiveness of steroid injections and splinting in mild and moderate carpal tunnel syndrome. Neurol Sci, 25(2), 48-52.
- [30]. Nobuta, S., Sato, K., Nakagawa, T., Hatori, M., & Itoi, E. (2008). Effects of wrist splinting for carpal tunnel syndrome and motor nerve conduction measurements. Ups J Med Sci, 113(2), 181-192.
- [31]. Kasdan, M., & Lewis, K. (2002). Management of carpal tunnel syndrome in the working population. Hand Clin, 18(2), 325-330.
- [32]. Goodyear, F., & Arroll B. (2004). What Can Family Physicians Offer Patients With Carpal Tunnel Syndrome Other Than Surgery? A Systematic Review of Nonsurgical Management. Ann Fam Med, 2(3), 267-273.
- [33]. Sandford, F., Barlow, N., & Lewis, J. (2008). A Study to Examine Patient Adherence to Wearing 24-Hour Forearm Thermoplastic Splints after Tendon Repairs. J Hand Ther, 21(1), 44-53.
- [34]. Vermeire, E., Hearnshaw, H., Van Royen, P., & Denekens, J. (2001). Patient adherence to treatment: three decades of research. A comprehensive review. J Clin Pharm Ther, 26(5), 331-342.

- [35]. Armstrong, T., Dale, A., Franzblau, A., & Evanoff, B. (2008). Risk factors for carpal tunnel syndrome and median neuropathy in a working population. J Occup Environ Med, 50(12), 1355-1364.
- [36]. Wislander, G., Norback, D., Gothe, G., & Juhlinl, L. (1989). Carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS) and exposure to vibration, repetitive wrist movements, and heavy manual work: a case-referent study. Br J Ind Med, 46(1), 43-47.
- [37]. Simoneau, G., Marklin, R., & Berman, J. (2003). Effect of computer keyboard slope on wrist position and forearm electromyography of typists without musculoskeletal disorders. Phys Ther, 83(9), 816-830.
- [38]. Tang, X., Zhuang, L., & Lu, Z. (1999). Carpal tunnel syndrome: a retrospective analysis of 262 cases and a one to one matched casecontrol study of 61 women pairs in relationship between manual housework and carpal tunnel syndrome. Chin Med J (Engl), 112(1), 44-48.
- [39]. Conolly, W., & McKessar, J. (2009). Carpal tunnel syndrome--can it be a work related condition? Aust Fam Physician, 38(9), 684-6.
- [40]. Dias, J., Burke, F., Wildin, C., Hweas-palou, C., & Bradley, M. (2004). Carpal Tunnel Syndrome and Work. J Hand Surg Eur, 29(4), 329-333.
- [41]. Stevens, J., Witt, J., Smith, B., & Weaver, A. (2001). The frequency of carpal tunnel syndrome in computer users at a medical facility. Neurology, 56(11), 1568-1570.