

causes, can be assessed by inspection and palpation. Joint *swelling* or *volume* can be assessed by palpation. Distention of the articular capsule usually causes pain and evident enlargement or fluctuance. The patient will attempt to minimize the pain by maintaining the joint in the position of least intraarticular pressure and greatest volume, usually partial flexion. For this reason, inflammatory effusions may give rise to flexion contractures. Clinically, this may be detected as fluctuant or “squishy” swelling in larger joints and grape-like compressibility in smaller joints. Inflammation may result in fixed flexion deformities or diminished range of motion—especially on extension, when intraarticular pressure is increased. Active and passive *range of motion* should be assessed in all planes, with contralateral comparison. A goniometer may be used to quantify the arc of movement. Each joint should be passively manipulated through its full range of motion (including, as appropriate, flexion, extension, rotation, abduction, adduction, lateral bending, inversion, eversion, supination, pronation, medial/lateral deviation, and plantar- or dorsiflexion). Extreme range of motion may be seen with hypermobility syndrome, with joint pain and connective tissue laxity, often associated with Ehlers-Danlos or Marfan’s syndrome. Limitation of motion is frequently caused by inflammation, effusion, pain, deformity, contracture, or restriction from neuromyopathic causes. If passive motion exceeds active motion, a periarticular process (e.g., tendinitis, tendon rupture, or myopathy) should be considered. *Contractures* may reflect antecedent synovial inflammation or trauma. Minor joint *crepitus* is common during joint palpation and maneuvers but only indicates significant cartilage degeneration as it becomes coarser (e.g., OA). Joint *deformity* usually indicates a long-standing or aggressive pathologic process. Deformities may result from ligamentous destruction, soft tissue contracture, bony enlargement, ankylosis, erosive disease, subluxation, trauma, or loss of proprioception. Examination of the musculature will document strength, atrophy, pain, or spasm. Appendicular muscle weakness should be characterized as proximal or distal. Muscle strength should be assessed by observing the patient’s performance (e.g., walking, rising from a chair, grasping, writing). Strength may also be graded on a 5-point scale: 0 for no movement; 1 for trace movement or twitch; 2 for movement with gravity eliminated; 3 for movement against gravity only; 4 for movement against gravity and resistance; and 5 for normal strength. The examiner should assess for often-overlooked nonarticular or periarticular involvement, especially when articular complaints are not supported by objective findings referable to the joint capsule. The identification of soft tissue/nonarticular pain will prevent unwarranted and often expensive additional evaluations. Specific maneuvers may reveal common nonarticular abnormalities, such as a carpal tunnel syndrome (which can be identified by Tinel’s or Phalen’s sign). Other examples of soft tissue abnormalities include olecranon bursitis, epicondylitis (e.g., tennis elbow), enthesitis (e.g., Achilles tendinitis), and tender trigger points associated with fibromyalgia.

APPROACH TO REGIONAL RHEUMATIC COMPLAINTS

Although all patients should be evaluated in a logical and thorough manner, many cases with focal musculoskeletal complaints are caused by commonly encountered disorders that exhibit a predictable pattern of onset, evolution, and localization; they can often be diagnosed immediately on the basis of limited historic information and selected maneuvers or tests. Although nearly every joint could be approached in this manner, the evaluation of four common involved anatomic regions—the hand, shoulder, hip, and knee—are reviewed here.

HAND PAIN

Focal or unilateral hand pain may result from trauma, overuse, infection, or a reactive or crystal-induced arthritis. By contrast, bilateral hand complaints commonly suggest a degenerative (e.g., OA), systemic, or inflammatory/immune (e.g., RA) etiology. The distribution or pattern of joint involvement is highly suggestive of certain disorders (Fig. 393-3). Thus, OA (or degenerative arthritis) may manifest as distal interphalangeal (DIP) and proximal interphalangeal (PIP) joint pain with bony hypertrophy sufficient to produce Heberden’s and Bouchard’s nodes, respectively. Pain, with or without bony swelling,

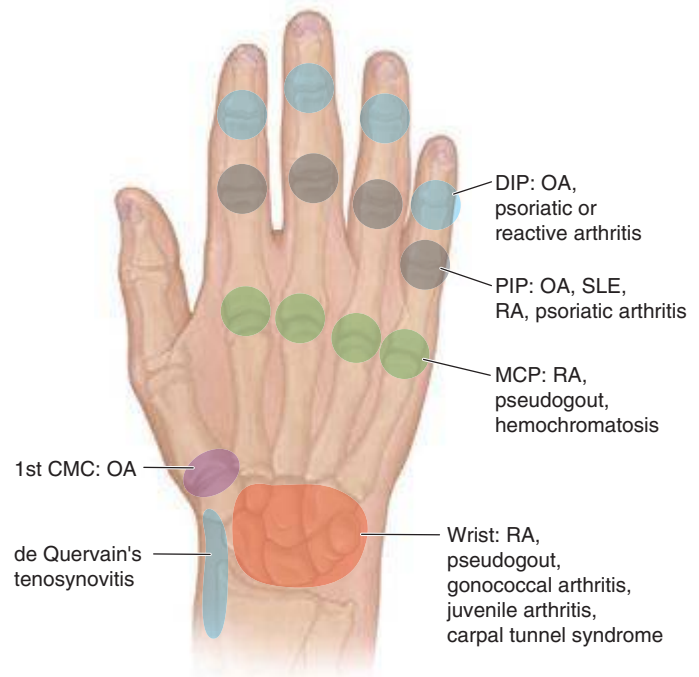


FIGURE 393-3 Sites of hand or wrist involvement and their potential disease associations. CMC, carpometacarpal; DIP, distal interphalangeal; MCP, metacarpophalangeal; OA, osteoarthritis; PIP, proximal interphalangeal; RA, rheumatoid arthritis; SLE, systemic lupus erythematosus. (From JJ Cush et al: *Evaluation of musculoskeletal complaints, in Rheumatology: Diagnosis and Therapeutics, 2nd ed, JJ Cush et al [eds]. Philadelphia, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2005, pp 3–20. Used with permission from Dr. John J. Cush.*)

involving the base of the thumb (first carpometacarpal joint) is also highly suggestive of OA. By contrast, RA tends to cause symmetric, polyarticular involvement of the PIP, metacarpophalangeal (MCP), intercarpal, and carpometacarpal joints (wrist) with pain and palpable synovial tissue hypertrophy. Psoriatic arthritis may mimic the pattern of joint involvement seen in OA (DIP and PIP joints), but can be distinguished by the presence of inflammatory signs (erythema, warmth, synovial swelling), with or without carpal involvement, nail pitting, or onycholysis. Whereas lateral or medial subluxations at the PIP or DIP joints are most likely due to inflammatory OA or psoriatic arthritis, dorsal or ventral deformities (swan neck or boutonnière deformities) are typical of RA. Hemochromatosis should be considered when degenerative changes (bony hypertrophy) are seen at the second and third MCP joints with associated radiographic chondrocalcinosis or episodic, inflammatory wrist arthritis.

Dactylitis manifests as soft tissue swelling of the whole digit and may have a sausage-like appearance. Common causes of dactylitis include psoriatic arthritis, spondyloarthritis, juvenile spondylitis, mixed connective tissue disease, scleroderma, sarcoidosis, and sickle cell disease. Soft tissue swelling over the dorsum of the hand and wrist may suggest an inflammatory extensor tendon tenosynovitis possibly caused by gonococcal infection, gout, or inflammatory arthritis (e.g., RA). Tenosynovitis is suggested by localized warmth, swelling, or pitting edema and may be confirmed when the soft tissue swelling tracks with tendon movement, such as flexion and extension of fingers, or when pain is induced while stretching the extensor tendon sheaths (flexing the digits distal to the MCP joints and maintaining the wrist in a fixed, neutral position).

Focal wrist pain localized to the radial aspect may be caused by de Quervain’s tenosynovitis resulting from inflammation of the tendon sheath(s) involving the abductor pollicis longus or extensor pollicis brevis (Fig. 393-3). This commonly results from overuse or follows pregnancy and may be diagnosed with Finkelstein’s test. A positive