

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

1 Prevalence of foot pain across an international consortium of population based cohorts

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Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

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41 **Abstract**

42

43 *Objective.* Despite the potential burden of foot pain, some of the most fundamental
44 epidemiological questions surrounding the foot remain poorly explored. The prevalence
45 of foot pain has proved difficult to compare across existing studies due to variations in
46 case definitions. The objective of this study was to [investigate the prevalence of foot](#)
47 [pain in a number of international population-based cohorts using](#) original data [and](#) to
48 explore differences in [the](#) case definitions [used, and create a single harmonised](#)
49 [definition to investigate the prevalence of foot pain in a number of international](#)
50 [population-based cohorts.](#)

51 *Methods.* Foot pain variables were examined in five cohorts (the Chingford Women
52 Study, the Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project, the Framingham Foot Study, the
53 Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot and the North West Adelaide Health Study). One
54 foot pain question was chosen from each cohort based on its similarity to the American
55 College of Rheumatology (ACR) pain question.

56 *Results.* The precise definition of foot pain varied between the cohorts. The prevalence
57 of foot pain ranged from 13 to 36% and was lowest within the cohort that used a case
58 definition specific to pain, compared to the four remaining cohorts that included
59 components of pain, aching or stiffness. Foot pain was generally more prevalent in
60 women, the obese and generally increased with age, being much lower in younger
61 participants (20-44 years).

62 *Conclusion.* Foot pain is common and is associated with female sex, older age and
63 obesity. The prevalence of foot pain is likely affected by the case definition used,

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

64 therefore consideration must be given for future population studies to use consistent

65 measures of data collection.

66

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

67 **Significance and Innovations**

68

69 • [Harmonisation-Comparison of original ef](#) data is a key component to effectively
70 enhancing scientific content and value of large studies, both past and current.

71 This study is the first effort to do so in an under-studied yet common concern in
72 rheumatology – foot pain

73 • As seen with data harmonisation of knee outcomes, the prevalence of foot pain
74 is likely affected by the case definition used

75 • Rather than using summary estimates of effect in future work, the use of original
76 participant data across cohorts allows for a more detailed consideration of the
77 heterogeneity in variable case definitions

78 • Consideration must be given for future population studies to use more consistent
79 measures of data collection

80

81

82 **Introduction**

83

84 Foot pain has been identified as an independent risk factor for locomotor disability [1],
85 impaired balance [2] increased risk of falls [3, 4], loss of independence, and reduced quality
86 of life [5]. It is likely that foot pain contributes a significant burden on both older individuals
87 and healthcare systems. The literature suggests that foot pain is highly prevalent in the
88 general population, however prevalence estimates vary between 9% and 30% [6-9]. Foot
89 problems have been reported to account for up to 8% of a general practitioner's
90 musculoskeletal caseload in the UK [10, 11].

91

92 Despite the potential burden of foot pain, to date, some of the most fundamental
93 epidemiological questions surrounding the foot remain poorly explored, particularly with
94 consideration to basic demographic features. Accurately estimating the burden of foot pain
95 among the general population is important so that clinical and cost-effective management
96 strategies can be implemented. [Estimating the proportion of a population with a condition](#)
97 [such as foot pain will provide the basis for determining the number of people who may](#)
98 [require care, for monitoring changes in condition occurrence over time.](#) An investigation of
99 foot pain prevalence using original data in a number of international population-based
100 cohorts would enable differences in foot pain frequency between ~~across~~ geographical
101 regions and sociodemographic groups, with consideration of age, sex, body mass index
102 (BMI) and race to be determined. Frequencies obtained from research Prevalence
103 estimates would also provide a foundation to establishing the reasons for differences in
104 such figures are the basis for probability estimates for the purposes of patient care and

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

105 future research can begin to establish potential risk factors for foot pain and associated
106 conditions.

107

108 Traditional meta-analyses can be valuable and efficient in terms of time and resources
109 required, but can suffer from several substantial limitations. They are limited to published
110 results and may therefore suffer from publication bias and the quality and availability of
111 data may vary across studies [12]. Such issues have been previously encountered due to the
112 considerable variation used in case definitions for type, period and patterns of pain, which
113 limited the ability to pool data and provide accurate prevalence estimates [7]. The
114 heterogeneity of variable case definitions is a limitation to any research looking to compare
115 data across cohorts or study data sets. It is necessary to ~~examine-identify~~ the components
116 and definitions of each variable and where possible produce a method ~~to standardise of~~
117 ~~harmonisation for~~ each variable. Such methods have been previously highlighted in the
118 investigation of knee osteoarthritis (OA) [13, 14].

119

120 Therefore, the primary aim of this study was to identify the prevalence of foot pain in five
121 prospective cohorts using original participant data. The secondary aim was to consider and
122 investigate potential reasons for differences in pain across geographical locations stratified
123 by according to important factors, ~~including such as~~ age, sex, BMI and race, selection bias in
124 each cohort (sampling method, response rate and loss to follow-up) and measurement bias,
125 with consideration of (foot pain case definitions). The cross-sectional study makes use of
126 original data from five international population cohorts linked to a consortium of
127 international foot collaborators, ~~with the aim to harmonise case definitions of each variable~~
128 to create a single standardised definition of foot pain across five cohorts.

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

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131 Early findings from a cross-cohort foot osteoarthritis collaboration project with principal
132 investigators from prospective cohorts including the Chingford Women Study, the Johnston
133 County Osteoarthritis Project and the Framingham Foot Study ~~Chingford Women Study,~~
134 revealed a need to establish a larger consortium of foot and ankle collaborators to address
135 the variations in data collection across population cohorts. In 2017 a consortium of
136 international collaborators was formed to encourage a more collaborative approach to foot
137 and ankle research. The consortium consisted of principle investigators and researchers
138 associated with current epidemiological foot and ankle cohort studies and representative
139 research. Potential cohorts for the current study were identified through members of the
140 consortium with knowledge of prospective population based cohorts rich in foot pain data_
141 ~~that were not enhanced for risk factors of lower limb musculoskeletal disease.~~ The
142 Chingford Women Study [15][15][15][15][15][15][15][15], the Johnston County
143 Osteoarthritis Project [16], the Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot
144 [17][17][17][17][16][16][16][16], the Framingham Foot Study [18] and the North West
145 Adelaide Health Study were identified [19].

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147

148 Chingford Women Study
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150 The Chingford Women Study is an ongoing prospective population-based longitudinal
151 cohort of women, established to assess risk factors and associations with osteoporosis and
152 OA [15]. The cohort originally consisted of 1003 women aged 45-64 years recruited from a

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

153 general practice in Chingford, North-East London, United Kingdom (UK). Since 1989 the
154 women have been assessed almost annually with a number of investigations. The current
155 study used data from year 15 (2003).

156

157 Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project

158

159 The Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project is an ongoing, population-based longitudinal
160 study, established to investigate the epidemiology of OA among African Americans and
161 Caucasians residing in six townships in a mostly rural county in North Carolina, United States
162 of America (USA) [16]. Participants recruited to this study were civilian, non-institutionalized
163 residents who were at least 45 years old. The original cohort included participants enrolled
164 between 1991 and 1997. Data for the present analysis were from the first follow-up visit
165 (T1), collected during 1999-2004.

166

167 Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot

168

169 The Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot is an ongoing population-based prospective
170 observational cohort study of foot pain and foot OA [17]. All adults aged 50 years and over
171 registered with four general practices in North Staffordshire, UK were invited to take part in
172 the study, irrespective of consultation for foot pain or problems. The present study uses
173 data from the initial baseline health survey questionnaire mailed in 2010/2011, which
174 gathered information on aspects of general health, including foot pain.

175

176 Framingham Foot Study

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

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178 The Framingham Foot Study includes members of the Framingham Heart Study Original
179 Cohort, the Framingham Heart Study Offspring Cohort, and a third community sample [18].
180 The Original Cohort was formed in 1948 from a two-thirds sample of the town of
181 Framingham, [MassachusettsMA](#), USA in order to study risk factors for heart disease and has
182 been examined biennially [20]. In 1972, the offspring and spouses of the offspring formed
183 the Offspring Cohort to study familial risk factors for heart disease and have been examined
184 every four years [21]. The community sample was derived from census-based, random-digit
185 dialling within the Framingham community contacting subjects who were >50 years old and
186 ambulatory in order to increase participation by minorities. Data for the present analysis
187 were collected between 2002 and 2008.

188

189 North West Adelaide Health Study

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191 The North West Adelaide Health Study is a longitudinal study of randomly selected adults
192 aged 18 years and over at the time of recruitment (1999 to 2003) from the North-West
193 region of Adelaide, South Australia. It aims to increase the ability of strategies and policies
194 to prevent, detect and manage a range of chronic conditions [19]. Participant information
195 was obtained from a Computer Assisted Telephone Interview (CATI), a self-completed
196 questionnaire and a clinic assessment at each stage [19, 22]. The present study used data
197 collected in stage 2 (2004-2006).

198

199 *Inclusion criteria*

200

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

201 Across all included cohorts, participants who had responded to the foot pain question were
202 selected for analysis. Where available, age, sex, BMI and race were also extracted for each
203 participant.

204

205 *Statistical analysis*

206

207 Descriptive data for demographic characteristics of each cohort were calculated using
208 means and standard deviations or frequencies and percentages, as appropriate. Prevalence
209 and 95% confidence intervals were also calculated for foot pain by age, sex, BMI and race
210 for each cohort. [Sensitivity analysis was undertaken on The Chingford Women Study to](#)
211 [estimate foot pain prevalence with adjusted cut off points \(6+ /15+ days\).](#)

212

213 The Chingford Women Study and Johnston County Osteoarthritis project data analyses were
214 undertaken using Stata version 14.1 at Oxford University. The remaining cohort analyses
215 were undertaken in-house; Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot using Stata version 14
216 (Stata Corp, College Station, Texas, USA); Framingham Foot Study using SAS Version 9.4 (SAS
217 Institute, Cary, NC); North West Adelaide Health Study using SPSS Version 24 (IBM, Armonk,
218 NY, USA) and STATA 14.2 .

219

220 *Ethics*

221

222 The Chingford Women Study was approved by the Outer North East London Research Ethics
223 Committee, and written consent was obtained from each woman. The Johnston County
224 Osteoarthritis Project was approved by the Institutional Review Boards at the University of

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

225 North Carolina and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Clinical Assessment
226 Study of the Foot ethical approval was obtained from Coventry Research Ethics Committee
227 (REC reference number: 10/ H1210/5) and all participants gave their written consent to
228 participate. The Framingham Foot Study was approved by the Hebrew SeniorLife and Boston
229 University Medical Center Institutional Review Boards and participants provided written,
230 informed consent prior to enrolment. North West Adelaide Health Study ethical approval
231 was obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee of The Queen Elizabeth Hospital,
232 Adelaide, South Australia and all participants provided written informed consent.

233

234 **Results**

235

236 *Study population*

237

238 A summary of sample characteristics of each cohort is shown in Table 1.

239

240 [Response rates and loss to follow-up](#)

241

242

243 Chingford Women Study

244

245 Of the original cohort of 1003 participants, 658 (65.6%) returned at year 15 in 2003 and
246 completed a joint symptom questionnaire. Four (0.6% of year 15) participants were
247 excluded from the current study due to missing data on foot pain, leaving 655 for analysis.

248

249 Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

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251 Of the original cohort of 3187 participants, 1739 (54.6%) returned for the follow-up clinic
252 visit (T1) from 1999-2004. One hundred and twenty (6.9% of T1) participants were excluded
253 from the current study due to missing data either in demographics or foot pain, leaving
254 1619 for analysis.

255

256 Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot

257

258 The baseline health survey questionnaire was mailed to 9334 adults and completed by 5109
259 (adjusted response 56%). Of these, 619 (12.1%) participants were excluded from the current
260 study due to missing data either in the foot pain questions or demographics leaving 4,490
261 for analysis.

262

263 Framingham Foot Study

264

265 3429 participants were included in the baseline data collection between 2002 and 2008.
266 Nine (0.3% of participants) were excluded from the current study due to missing data either
267 in demographics or foot pain, leaving 3420 for analysis.

268

269 North West Adelaide Health Study

270

271 The original cohort of participants was 4056, with 3205 (79.0% of the eligible sample)
272 participating in all three data collections (the CATI survey, self-complete questionnaire and
273 clinic assessment) in Stage 2 between 2004 and 2006. Of these 60 (1.9% of stage 2 sample)

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

274 were excluded due to missing data either in the demographics or the foot pain questions,
275 leaving 3145 for analysis.

276

277 Harmonisation-Standardisation of foot pain

278

279 Each cohort was examined for available foot pain questions. Each cohort's foot pain
280 questions were assessed for differences in the duration of pain (i.e. any/most days) and the
281 period of recall (i.e. in the last month/last year/ever). As there was a variation of pain
282 duration and recall between a number of the cohorts' questions, oOne foot pain question
283 was selected from each cohort based on its similarity to the American College of
284 Rheumatology (ACR) question: "Have you had pain (in either foot) on most days in the last
285 month?" [13].- Where questions provided categorical answers these were standardised to
286 provide dichotomous (yes/no) responses.

287 ~~each cohort's foot pain questions were assessed for differences in the duration of pain (i.e.~~
288 ~~any/most days) and the period of recall (i.e. in the last month/last year/ever). As there was~~
289 ~~a variation of pain duration and recall between a number of the cohorts' questions, a new~~
290 harmonised pain variable was derived based on the common components of all questions;
291 "Pain in either foot on most days" (table 2).

292

293 The prevalence of foot pain ranged from 13 to 36% between cohorts (see Table 3 for all
294 stratified foot pain results). Foot pain was more prevalent in women than men across all
295 cohorts where data on both sexes were available, and the largest absolute difference in the
296 occurrence of foot pain between men and women was 11% in the Framingham Foot Study.
297 Prevalence ranged from 9-36% in those aged 55-64, 14-36% aged 65-74 and 15-37% in those

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

298 75 years and older (Figure 1). Foot pain was most prevalent in those classified as obese
299 (BMI >30.0) in all cohorts (Figure 2). In the Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project, the
300 Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot and the North West Adelaide Health Study, foot pain
301 prevalence was also high at a BMI lower than 18.5, however numbers were small with wide
302 95% confidence intervals. Four cohorts reported race, two of which were limited to only
303 Caucasian participants (Chingford Women Study and Framingham Foot Study). Prevalence
304 of foot pain within Caucasian participants ranged from 13-36%. In the Johnston County
305 Osteoarthritis Project, the frequency of foot pain was comparable in Caucasians and African
306 Americans (36 and 35%, respectively). Where other races were available within the Clinical
307 Assessment Study of the Foot, foot pain prevalence was highest amongst Africans at 38%
308 compared to only 10% in Asian participants, however the number of these participants was
309 low with wide confidence intervals.

310

311 Figure 1. [Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts by age](#)

312

313 Figure 2. [Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts by BMI category](#)

314

315 Discussion

316

317 This is the first study to use original data to compare the prevalence of foot pain across
318 multiple international populations. Foot pain ranged from 13% in the Chingford Women
319 Study, 18% in the North West Adelaide Health Study, 21% in the Clinical Assessment Study
320 of the Foot, 25% in the Framingham Foot Study, to 36% in the Johnston County
321 Osteoarthritis Project. The study highlights the differences in foot pain across age, sex, BMI

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

322 and race, whilst considering differences in case definitions used for variables, a vital
323 consideration when combining or comparing data across multiple data sets.

324

325 Where cohorts included both men and women, there was a consistently higher prevalence
326 of foot pain in women. This difference has been widely reported [6, 7, 9, 23], with a
327 suggested partial attribution to lifetime footwear habits, although other factors such as
328 occupation and family history are also thought to contribute [18, 24]. Women are more
329 likely to report musculoskeletal pain in general and consideration should also be given to
330 sex-related variations in pain perception [25] hormonal influences [26], and psychological
331 and social factors [27]. However, the role of other potential sex differences such as
332 occupation or physical activity levels is currently unknown. The overall prevalence of foot
333 pain was actually lowest within the Chingford Women Study, the women-only cohort. Whilst
334 unknown factors such as comorbidities may play a role, this is likely due to the case
335 definition used for foot pain. In the Chingford Women Study the question was specific to
336 pain only, in comparison to all other cohorts whose question included pain, aching and
337 stiffness. This challenges whether [the use of pain](#) questions including aching and stiffness
338 may overestimate pain. The original foot pain question in Chingford Women Study allowed
339 for a categorical response of 0, 1-5, 6-14 and 15+ days. For the purposes of [harmonisation](#)
340 [standardising](#) with the remaining four cohorts in this study, which all used a foot pain
341 duration of “most days”, a cut off of 15+ days was chosen to represent most days in the
342 Chingford Women Study. This cut point was identical to that used in a previous study to
343 represent painful knee osteoarthritis [28]. However, because no explicit number of days was
344 provided to Chingford participants to represent “most” days, it cannot be assumed that all
345 participants would classify 15+ days as most days. A sensitivity analysis was therefore

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

346 undertaken to estimate foot pain prevalence with an adjusted cut off point of 6+ days, to
347 capture participants who answered 6-14 days. Foot pain prevalence rose from 12.5% (15+
348 days) to 18% (6+ days), thus highlighting the sensitivity in prevalence estimates according to
349 the question response components.

350

351 The prevalence of foot pain generally increased with age and was much lower in younger
352 participants (20-44 years) compared to those over the age of 45 years. This increase is in
353 concordance with previous studies [7, 29]. Although small differences in foot pain
354 prevalence can be seen by decade above the age of 45, overlapping 95% confidence
355 intervals suggest there is little difference in these prevalence estimates. Results of a
356 systematic review and a survey study found a stronger positive association of foot pain with
357 age among women than men [7, 9]. This ~~may is likely in part be~~ due to ~~the gender~~
358 ~~differences in pain perception, where women are known to report more severe levels of~~
359 ~~pain, more frequent pain and pain of longer duration than do men~~ [25, 27]. ~~Also the~~ higher
360 frequency of pain-related conditions ~~such as osteoarthritis, which are~~ seen ~~more commonly~~
361 in women ~~and older persons~~ [30] ~~and suggests that women of older age are more likely to~~
362 ~~report foot pain.~~

363

364 In all cohorts, the prevalence of foot pain was highest in those classified as obese. Foot pain
365 was more prevalent at the lower and upper extremes of BMI in the Johnston County
366 Osteoarthritis Project, the Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot and the North West
367 Adelaide Health Study, however small participant numbers and wide 95% confidence
368 intervals in the low BMI category (<18.5) suggest these estimates should be interpreted with
369 caution. Foot pain prevalence showed an incremental increase with BMI in the Framingham

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

370 Foot Study. Previous cross-sectional studies have also reported associations between
371 increasing BMI and foot pain [31, 32], in particular fat mass [31, 33]. There is also evidence
372 from longitudinal studies that BMI is a predictor of incident foot pain over 5 years [34] and
373 fat mass is a predictor of incident foot pain over 3 years [35].

374

375 Race data were largely limited to the Caucasian demographic, with foot pain prevalence
376 lower in both UK cohorts than the USA. In the bi-racial cohort of the Johnston County
377 Osteoarthritis Project, the occurrence of foot pain was similar between Caucasians and
378 African Americans. In the Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot, foot pain prevalence was
379 highest in Africans, then Afro Caribbean and Caucasians of similar prevalence, and lowest in
380 Asians, but interpretation of these findings is limited because only 2% of the sample were
381 racial/ethnic minorities (not Caucasian). Previous studies found significant racial/ethnic
382 differences in the prevalence of common foot disorders, independent of sex or education.
383 Two previous studies, using data not included within the current study also found
384 differences in between races. In the Feet First study, USA, the total number of foot
385 conditions such as toe deformities, flat feet, corns, calluses and skin pathologies, and ankle
386 joint pain were found to be more prevalent in African Americans than in non-Hispanic
387 Whites and in Puerto Ricans [36]. In the Women's Health and Aging Study, USA, significant
388 differences in pain severity were found between races, with more foot pain found in black
389 than non-black participants [37].

390

391 It has been suggested that the differences in health conditions between racial and ethnic
392 groups could be due to different levels of access to health care, different rates of chronic
393 conditions (such as diabetes, obesity, or vascular disease) possibly associated with foot

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

394 ailments, early life experiences, or occupational patterns that differ among groups
395 independently of education [36]. As ethnicity is the term given for the culture of people in a
396 given geographical region, including but not limited to language, religion and customs, it
397 would be beneficial to consider the role of ethnicity in the investigation of pain and/or
398 conditions. Further work is required to determine the etiologic factors for such differences.

399
400 ~~The strengths of this study are that results are generalizable to first world populations, as~~
401 ~~data were sourced from population-based prospective observational cohorts at a time point~~
402 ~~where no enhancement was made for known risk factors, therefore reducing the chance of~~
403 ~~selection bias. This study analysed original cohort data and was therefore not limited to~~
404 ~~previously published data. Whilst most studies within standard meta-analysis use a variety~~
405 ~~of definitions of outcomes, the current study was able to minimise this variation by choosing~~
406 ~~similar questions at selected time points. This approach can be expanded to other time~~
407 ~~points and for other variables to enable longitudinal individual participant data meta-~~
408 ~~analysis to identify risk factors for foot pain and associated conditions. Although the~~
409 ~~wording of pain questions differed for two of the cohorts, all five cohorts used questions~~
410 ~~that were specific to self-reported foot pain.~~

411 The biggest challenge when comparing data across population cohorts is the heterogeneity
412 that exists across factors such as recruitment methods, data collection time points and
413 variable definitions. Even when comparable variable definitions are used, there is often
414 further heterogeneity within the measures used to collect data and the parameters of each
415 variable. The main limitation found from this study was the variation in questions used to
416 determine the presence of foot pain, particularly the duration of pain and the question
417 response components, as shown from the response categories in the original pain questions

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Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

418 in the Chingford Women Study. A recent study has shown that the variation of wording in
419 NHANES type pain questions can result in varying knee pain prevalence between 41% and
420 75% [13]. Although the NHANES type questions were designed to capture joint pain related
421 to OA, we cannot confidently confirm the cause of foot pain in all participants.

422

423 The Chingford Women Study and the Framingham Foot Study are predominantly Caucasian,
424 therefore results cannot be generalised to other races. Similarly, the Chingford Women
425 Study is a woman-only cohort. Country of birth, but not race, was collected in the North
426 West Adelaide Health Study. Those born in Australia were asked if they are Aboriginal or
427 Torres Strait Islander (ATSI), however there were only 11 people who identified as ATSI in
428 stage 2. Country of birth does not represent the race categories used in the remaining four
429 cohorts. The North West Adelaide Health Study has a predominantly Caucasian sample and
430 thus country of birth was not included in the analysis.

431

432 Johnston County, North Carolina is a lower income, semirural area in the southern US that
433 includes a greater proportion of lower income residents than observed in the populations
434 from which other cohorts in the present study were derived [38]. An inverse relationship
435 between Foot pain frequency estimates for the Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project may be higher
436 than other cohorts because lower socioeconomic status and is associated with greater the
437 prevalence of foot pain in the Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project compared to other cohorts. The
438 prevalence is likely high in the US, given that the cohort from Framingham, Massachusetts
439 presents the second highest foot pain prevalence across these cohorts. Also, high BMI,
440 which is also a potentially important factor associated with foot pain [34], is highest more common in the Johnston
441 County Osteoarthritis Project participants than in other cohorts.

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

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443 Year 15 follow up was chosen in the Chingford Women Study due to the availability of a foot
444 pain question at this time point. The inability to use baseline data resulted in a smaller
445 sample than the original baseline. Those who did not attend year 15 tended to be older with
446 a higher BMI at baseline compared to year 15 attendees who were selected for this study.

447 For the Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot, response to the baseline health questionnaire
448 was lower than expected (56%). However, responders did not differ greatly from the mailed
449 population by age, sex or general practice [41]. For the Johnston County Osteoarthritis
450 Project, generally persons who did not return for T1 tended to be older, less educated and
451 more likely to be male and African American. For the North West Adelaide Health Study
452 Stage 2 data collection was used for foot pain as this was the first time musculoskeletal
453 questions were asked of the cohort. Participants who failed to provide information at stage
454 2 tended to be younger, with a slightly higher number of men than women.

455

456 [The strengths of this study are that the results are based on data sourced from population-](#)
457 [based prospective observational cohorts, therefore enhancing generalisability and reducing](#)
458 [the chance of selection bias. This study analysed original participant data and was therefore](#)
459 [not limited to the publication bias inherent with analysing previously published results.](#)
460 [Whilst most studies within standard meta-analysis use a variety of definitions of outcomes,](#)
461 [the current study was able to minimise this variation by choosing similar questions at](#)
462 [selected time points. This approach can be expanded to other time points and for other](#)
463 [variables to enable longitudinal individual participant data meta-analysis to identify risk](#)
464 [factors for foot pain and associated conditions. Although the wording of pain questions](#)

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

465 [differed for two of the cohorts, all five cohorts used questions that were specific to self-](#)
466 [reported foot pain.](#)

467

468 This study provides useful comparisons of foot pain between five population cohorts.

469 Comparisons show that irrespective of geographical location, the prevalence of foot pain is
470 higher among those who are obese and lower in younger participants (20-44 years).

471 Although lower in the younger population, it is important to recognise that foot pain does
472 occur in this age-group and may warrant further investigation and clinical attention.

473 Between-cohort data for race were limited, however within-cohort results showed foot pain
474 was potentially more prevalent in African participants. Foot pain was also more prevalent in
475 women than men.

476

477 This study has highlighted variation in how pain data is collected between cohorts. A degree
478 of the variation in prevalence between cohorts may, at least in part, be due to the sensitivity
479 of different pain definitions. In particular, it is important to consider the effect that including
480 all the components of pain, aching or stiffness in one question may have on estimating the
481 prevalence of pain only. Future population studies should use more consistent measures of
482 data collection and the role of question response categories should not be underestimated.

483 Agreement on a standardised set of key foot questions and measures would be useful for
484 future prospective data collection phases within existing and newly establishing cohorts.

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Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

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Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

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522 Authors' contributions

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524 All authors contributed to the planning of the manuscript. LSG, ABD, TKG and TRM
525 completed the analysis. LSG collated results and cohort details and prepared the
526 manuscript. All authors provided critical review of the paper, read and approved the final
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Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of each cohort

	Chingford Women	Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project	Framingham Foot Study	Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot	North West Adelaide Health Study
Data collection time point	Year 15 (2003)	T1 (1999-2004)	Phase 1 (2002 and 2008)	Respondents to baseline health survey (2010-2011)	Participants at stage 2 clinic (2004–2006)
n (at time point)	655	1619	3420	4490	3145
Age, M (± SD)	68.6 (5.8)	65.8 (9.8)	66.5 (10.6)	64.9 (9.8)	47.6 (17.5)
Age category, n (%)					
20–34	-	-	-	-	889 (28.3)
35–44	-	-	17 (0.5)	-	644 (20.5)
45–54	-	203 (12.5)	451 (13.2)	741 (16.5)	557 (17.7)
55–64	206 (31.5)	592 (36.6)	1208 (35.3)	1624 (36.2)	428 (13.6)
65–74	308 (47.0)	484 (29.9)	944 (27.6)	1334 (29.7)	320 (10.2)
≥75	141 (21.5)	340 (21.0)	800 (23.4)	791 (17.6)	307 (9.8)
Sex					
Men, n (%)	-	581 (35.9)	1499 (43.8)	2198 (49.0)	1545 (49.1)
Women, n (%)	655 (100.0)	1038 (64.1)	1921 (56.2)	2292 (51.0)	1600 (50.9)
Body mass index, M ± SD kg/m ²					
27.2 (4.8)	30.2 (6.3)	28.4 (5.5)	27.5 (5.2)	27.8 (5.7)	
Body mass index category, n (%)					
<18.5	10 (1.5)	13 (0.8)	23 (0.7)	62 (1.4)	43 (1.4)
18.5–24.9	228 (34.8)	290 (17.9)	937 (27.4)	1480 (33.0)	1014 (32.2)
25.0–29.9	241 (36.8)	588 (36.3)	1335 (39.0)	1808 (40.3)	1169 (37.2)
≥30.0	176 (26.9)	728 (45.0)	1125 (32.9)	1140 (25.4)	919 (29.2)

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

Race	Caucasian, n (%)	655 (100.0)	1158 (71.5)	3420 (100.0)	4395 (97.9)	-
	African American, n (%)		461 (28.5)	-	-	-
	Afro Caribbean, n (%)		-	-	14 (0.3)	-
	Asian, n (%)		-	-	49 (1.1)	-
	African, n (%)		-	-	8 (0.2)	-
	Other, n (%)		-	-	24 (0.5)	-

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

Table 2. Harmonisation of foot pain variable across cohorts

Cohort	Original Question	Transformed Responses standardised to match "pain on most day" variable
		Pain in either foot on most days (L/R)
Chingford Women Study	"On how many days [§] in the last month* did you get pain?" (0/1-5/6-14/15+ days) [§]	1. Pain on most days (yes)= pain on at least 15 days 2. Pain on most days (no) = pain on less than 15 days
Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project	"On most days [§] do you have pain, aching or stiffness in your feet?" (Yes/No)	Pain in either foot on most days (L/R) 1. Yes 2. No
Framingham Foot Study	"On most days [§] do you have pain, aching or stiffness in your feet?" (Yes/No)	Pain in either foot on most days (L/R) 1. Yes 2. No
Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot	"Pain, aching or stiffness in the foot in the past month*" (No days/Few days/Some days/Most days/All days) [§]	Pain in either foot on most days (L/R) 1. Pain on most days (yes)= Most days/All days & had foot pain in the last year 2. Pain on most days (no) = No days/Few days/Some days & had foot pain in the last year OR did not have foot pain in the last year
North West Adelaide Health Study	"On most days [§] , do you have pain, aching or stiffness in either of your feet?" (Yes/No)	Pain in either foot on most days (L/R) 1. Yes 2. No

*Period of recall for foot pain §Duration of foot pain

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

Table 3. Prevalence of foot pain stratified by age, sex, body mass index (BMI) and race

	Chingford 1000 Women N=665	Johnston County Osteoarthritis Project N=1619	Framingham Foot Study N=3420	Clinical Assessment Study of the Foot N=4490	North West Adelaide Health Study N=555
Foot pain % (95% CI)	12.5 (10.2, 15.3)	36.0 (33.7, 38.4)	25.0 (23.5, 26.4)	20.6 (19.5, 21.8)	17.7 (16.0- 19.4)
Age % (95% CI)					
20–34		-	-	-	10.5 (7.0- 15.4)
35–44		-	11.8 (0.0, 28.8)	-	10.8 (8.4- 13.8)
45–54		34.5 (28.2, 41.3)	28.2 (24.0, 32.3)	19.6 (16.9, 22.6)	21.8 (18.5- 25.4)
55–64	9.2 (5.9, 14.1)	36.0 (32.2, 39.9)	26.6 (24.1, 29.1)	20.5 (18.6, 22.5)	24.2 (20.8- 28.0)
65–74	13.6 (10.2, 18.0)	35.7 (31.6, 40.1)	22.4 (19.7, 25.0)	20.3 (18.2, 22.6)	26.4 (22.5- 30.8)
75≥	14.9 (9.9, 21.9)	37.4 (32.4, 42.7)	24.1 (21.2, 27.1)	22.4 (19.6, 25.4)	27.0 (22.4- 32.2)
Sex % (95% CI)					
Men		30.5 (26.9, 34.3)	19.0 (17.0, 21.0)	18.3 (16.7, 20.0)	15.3 (13.2- 17.7)
Women	12.5 (10.2, 15.3)	39.1 (36.2, 42.1)	29.6 (27.6, 31.7)	22.9 (21.2, 24.6)	19.9 (17.5- 22.5)
BMI (kg/m ²) % (95% CI)					
<18.5	10.0 (0.8, 57.8)	38.5 (14.6, 69.5)	17.4 (0.6, 34.2)	22.6 (13.7, 35.0)	22.3 (6.4- 54.8)
18.5 – 24.9	11.4 (7.9, 16.3)	26.6 (21.8, 32.0)	20.7 (18.1, 23.3)	14.4 (12.7, 16.3)	10.8 (8.7- 13.2)
25.0 – 29.9	10.0 (6.7, 14.5)	31.0 (27.3, 34.8)	22.8 (20.5, 25.0)	19.1 (17.4, 21.0)	17.6 (15.3- 20.2)

Prevalence of foot pain across cohorts

	30.0≥	17.6 (12.6, 24.0)	43.8 (40.2, 47.5)	31.3 (28.6, 34.0)	31.0 (28.3, 33.7)	25.1 (21.6-29.0)
	Caucasian	12.5 (10.2, 15.3)	36.4 (33.7, 39.3)	25.0 (23.5, 26.4)	20.8 (19.6, 22.0)	-
	African American	-	34.9 (30.7, 39.4)	-	-	-
Race % (95% CI)	Afro Caribbean	-	-	-	21.4 (6.0, 54.0)	-
	Asian	-	-	-	10.2 (4.2, 22.9)	-
	African	-	-	-	37.5 (8.7, 79.2)	-
	Other	-	-	-	12.5 (3.7, 34.5)	-