

UCSF

UC San Francisco Previously Published Works

Title

Postamputation Cognitive Impairment Is Related to Worse Perceived Physical Function Among Middle-Aged and Older Prosthesis Users.

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3c56b7dd>

Journal

Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, 103(9)

Authors

Hoffman, Rashelle
Swink, Laura
Barnes, Deborah
[et al.](#)

Publication Date

2022-09-01

DOI

10.1016/j.apmr.2021.12.025

Peer reviewed



Published in final edited form as:

Arch Phys Med Rehabil. 2022 September ; 103(9): 1723–1729. doi:10.1016/j.apmr.2021.12.025.

Postamputation Cognitive Impairment Is Related to Worse Perceived Physical Function Among Middle-Aged and Older Prosthesis Users

Matthew J. Miller, PT, DPT, PhD^{a,b}, Roshelle M. Hoffman, PT, DPT, PhD^{c,d}, Laura A. Swink, PhD, OTR/L^{c,d}, Deborah E. Barnes, PhD, MPH^{e,f,g}, Cory L. Christiansen, PT, PhD^{c,d}

^aDepartment of Physical Therapy and Rehabilitation Science, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, California

^bDivision of Geriatrics, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, California

^cDepartment of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, University of Colorado, Aurora, Colorado

^dVA Eastern Colorado Geriatric Research, Education, and Clinical Center, university of Colorado. Aurora, Colorado

^eSan Francisco VA Health Care System, San Francisco, California

^fDepartment of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, California

^gDepartment of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, California, United States.

Abstract

Objective: To compare characteristics between middle-aged and older prosthesis users with and without cognitive impairment and determine whether cognitive impairment contributes to variability in perceived physical function.

Design: Cross-sectional, observational study

Setting: General community.

Participants: Adults 45 years or older, at least 1-year post lower limb amputation (LLA) who were walking independently with a prosthesis (N=119).

Intervention: Not applicable.

Main Outcome Measures: We identified cognitive impairment using an education-adjusted Telephone Interview for Cognitive Status-modified score. Perceived physical function was measured using the Prosthesis Mobility Questionnaire.

Corresponding author Matthew J. Miller, PT, DPT, PhD, 1500 Owens St, Suite 400, San Francisco, CA 94158-2332. matthew.miller4@ucsf.edu.

Disclosures: none

Results: Of 119 participants (mean age, 62.6±8.2 years; male: 89.1%; vascular etiology: 82.4%; years since amputation: 4.9±4.7 years), 28 (23.5%) had cognitive impairment. Compared with participants without cognitive impairment, those with cognitive impairment were more likely to use an assistive device (60.7% vs 25.3%, $P=.002$); were older (66.3±7.3 vs 61.5±8.1 years, $P=.006$) and had more chronic conditions (7.1±3.4 vs 5.4±2.5, $P=.004$), more depressive symptoms (6.6±5.1 vs 4.2±3.8, $P=.008$), and worse perceived physical function (2.0±0.6 vs 2.6±0.7, $P<.001$). Using backward stepwise linear regression, we found that participants with cognitive impairment had worse perceived physical function (standardized parameter estimate [β]=-0.15, $P=.02$), even after adjusting for depressive symptoms ($\beta=-0.31$, $P<.001$), prosthesis satisfaction ($\beta=-0.34$, $P<.001$), number of chronic conditions ($\beta=-0.9$, $P=.006$), and assistive device use ($\beta_{\text{cane}}=0.01$, $P=.93$; $\beta_{\text{other}}=-0.20$, $P=.003$). Together, these variables explained 59% of perceived physical function variability.

Conclusions: Cognitive impairment is common and associated with worse perceived physical function post LLA, even after controlling for physical and mental health differences. Tailored rehabilitation interventions may be needed to improve perceived physical function in prosthesis users with cognitive impairment.

Keywords

Aging; Amputation; Cognitive dysfunction; Prostheses and implants prosthesis; Rehabilitation

Limb loss is a health condition that affects the quality of life for an estimated 2.2 million Americans.¹ Of those living with lower limb amputation (LLA), about 80% are 45 years or older.¹ Older age is commonly associated with greater incidence of cognitive impairment, comorbid health conditions, anxiety, and depression, all of which are associated with worse rehabilitation and health outcomes.^{2,3,4,5,6} Knowledge about the relationships between these aging-related factors and long-term outcomes is needed to inform the development of novel rehabilitation interventions.

Cognitive impairment is a particularly relevant aging-related factor because it is prevalent among people with LLA and has direct implications for rehabilitation intervention delivery for people with LLA,⁵ especially for those who are older.⁷ Prosthetic rehabilitation post LLA is cognitively demanding, requiring the capacity to learn new skills and adapt them to the dynamic surrounding environment.^{8,9} Thus, cognitive impairment during the period immediately after LLA confers greater risk of prosthesis prescription and/or fitting denial,^{8,10-12} shorter daily prosthesis wear time,¹³ worse mobility outcome,^{9,14} and higher risk of needing in-home assistance post LLA.¹³

However, there is limited to no knowledge of the effect of cognitive impairment on physical function among prosthesis users beyond the prosthetic training phase of rehabilitation. Therefore, the first aim of our study was to compare sociodemographic, physical health, mental health, amputation characteristics, and prosthesis-related characteristics between cognitively impaired and nonimpaired prosthesis users in middle age or later who were at least 1 year post LLA.

Additionally, a better understanding of relationships among cognition and other aging-related factors with physical function is needed to guide rehabilitation innovation. In particular, perceived physical function contributes to self-reported disability and represents a meaningful rehabilitation outcome after LLA.^{15,16} Although objective measures of functional performance generally improve with rehabilitation intervention,^{17,18} these improvements are not consistently associated with improved perceived physical function.¹⁷ For example, objective measures of functional performance (eg, gait speed) improved in a sample of 21 people with LLA who were 4 months post discharge from prosthesis rehabilitation, but perceptions of mobility remained unchanged in the same time period.¹⁷ Further, participants' objective and perceived physical function measures were not correlated.¹⁷ The absence of correlation suggests that perceived physical function represents a unique rehabilitation outcome for which predictors and potential targets of intervention need to be identified.

Evidence suggests associations between perceived physical function and psychosocial characteristics,¹⁵ but there is limited knowledge of whether cognitive impairment, among other factors, is associated with perceived physical function beyond 1 year post LLA. Therefore, our second aim was to identify if cognitive impairment contributes to explaining variability in perceived physical function among prosthetic users who are in middle age or later after accounting for sociodemographic, physical and mental health, amputation characteristics, and prosthesis-related variables. We hypothesized that cognitive impairment would significantly contribute to explaining the variability in perceived physical function when controlling for other rehabilitation covariates.

Methods

Study design

This cross-sectional study is a secondary analysis of a larger mixed-methods investigation that examined psychosocial factors that influence physical activity and disability after LLA in middle age or later.^{2,19-21}

Participants

We recruited participants through local hospitals, amputation specialty clinics, support groups, and the Amputation Coalition of America. Potential participants with LLA were included if their most recent LLA was at least 1 year prior, they had dysvascular (ie, diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and/or peripheral artery disease) or traumatic etiology, they were between 45 and 88 years old, and they self-reported independence with walking for at least household distances with or without an assistive device while using a prosthesis. There was no minimum duration of prosthesis use for study inclusion. To minimize the risk of bias by including participants with longer time since LLA of traumatic etiology, potential participants with traumatic LLA etiology were included if there was a participant in the data set with dysvascular etiology and a similar time since LLA (± 18 months). We excluded participants if they had a cancer-related amputation, had a stroke within the prior 2 years, or were not independently using a prosthesis for walking. Potential participants with cancerous etiology were excluded because this etiology accounts for <1% of LLA among

middle-aged and older adults.¹ Based on our prior work, we did not anticipate enrolling an adequate sample of participants with cancer-related etiology to make meaningful inferences within our cross-sectional study. Participants who met the inclusion criteria were contacted by phone to obtain informed consent and complete data collection (January 2018 to August 2019). The larger mixed-methods study protocol was approved by the Colorado Multiple Institutional Review Board and Veterans Affairs Office of Research and Development.

Data collection

Data collection was conducted via telephone to minimize participants' travel and time burden while optimizing recruitment over a larger geographic region and because research suggests patient-reported outcome data collected through various modes (eg, face-to-face, telephone interview) are likely to be equivalent.^{22,23} To minimize potential measurement bias, 1 trained physical therapist collected questionnaire data for all study participants by reading questionnaire items and responses verbatim and recording responses on a paper form. Questionnaire responses were then manually entered into a Research Electronic Data Capture database and confirmed through a double data entry approach.²⁴ Our selection of candidate explanatory variables was guided by prior research on factors associated with perceived physical function (the primary outcome for this secondary analysis).⁶ The primary explanatory variable was cognitive impairment, and secondary candidate explanatory variables included sociodemographic, physical health, mental health, amputation characteristics, and prosthesis-related variables.

Primary outcome

We measured perceived physical function with the Prosthesis Mobility Questionnaire (PMQ). The PMQ is a reliable (person-separation reliability=0.87) and internally consistent (Cronbach α =0.88) 12-item questionnaire specifically designed to measure perceived physical function after LLA.²⁵ Participants were asked to rate the amount of difficulty (0: "Hardly able/cannot do," 1: "High difficulty," 2: "Moderate difficulty," 3: "Little difficulty," or 4: "No difficulty") completing locomotion and mobility tasks over the past month while wearing a prosthesis. An average score was used for this analysis, where higher scores indicated better perceived physical function (possible score range, 0-4).

Primary explanatory variable

We identified cognitive impairment using the education-adjusted score from the 12-question Telephone Interview for Cognitive Status-modified (TICS-m).^{26,27} The TICS-m has been used in epidemiologic studies to screen and identify cognitive impairment by asking participants to answer questions about orientation to time and place, receptive and expressive language function, calculation, and immediate and delayed recall.²⁶ Participant-reported highest level of education (eg, some high school, high school graduate, some college, bachelor's degree or higher) was used to calculate education-adjusted TICS-m score. Participant TICS-m scores (range, 0-50) in this sample were adjusted for education by subtracting 2 points for participants who had a bachelor's degree or higher.²⁷ We used an education-adjusted TICS-m cut point score of 31 points to identify likely cognitive impairment (eg, mild cognitive impairment, dementia) because of optimal sensitivity (83%) and specificity (78%) performance.²⁷

Secondary candidate explanatory variables

Sociodemographic variables included in this analysis were age, sex, and self-reported race and ethnicity. Veteran status was also included as a candidate explanatory variable because Veterans, compared to non-Veterans, tend to have characteristics (eg, poorer health status, socioeconomic status, and/or health behaviors) that are potentially associated with worse rehabilitation and health outcomes after LLA.^{28,29}

Physical health variables included body mass index (BMI), the Functional Comorbidity Index (FCI), and pain. Self-reported height and weight were used to calculate BMI. The FCI is a self-reported count of chronic health conditions that are known to influence rehabilitation outcomes.^{30,31} Pain was measured by asking participants, “How would you rate your pain on average?” and responses ranged from 0 (no pain) to 10 (worst imaginable pain).³²

Mental health variables included anxiety and depression. The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) is a valid and reliable measure for anxiety and depression for a range of populations, including people with LLA.^{33,34,35} The HADS is a 14-item questionnaire (7 anxiety-related items, 7 depression-related items), and participants rated how they have been feeling over the past week using a 4-point scale (0: absence of symptoms to 3: maximal symptoms). Higher scores for the anxiety subscale (possible range, 0-21) and depression subscale (possible range, 0-21) indicate greater anxiety or depressive symptoms.

Amputation characteristics included in this analysis were etiology of LLA (dysvascular or traumatic), level of LLA (unilateral transtibial LLA, unilateral transfemoral LLA or other, or bilateral transtibial LLA), and years since LLA. There were too few participants with unilateral knee disarticulation (n=3) and hip disarticulation (n=1) to make clinically meaningful inferences; therefore participants with levels of amputation through or above the knee were grouped with those who had unilateral transfemoral LLA.

Prosthesis-related variables included prosthesis wear time, satisfaction, and assistive device use. Prosthesis wear time was measured using a single question from the Houghton Scale.³⁶ Participants indicated if they wear their prosthesis “Less than 25% of waking hours (1-3 hours),” “Between 25% and 50% of waking hours (4-8 hours),” “More than 50% of waking hours (>8 hours),” or “All waking hours (12-16 hours).” Prosthesis satisfaction was measured using a single item from the Trinity Amputation and Prosthesis Experience Scales.³⁷ Participants indicated how satisfied they were with their prosthesis on a scale of 0 (“Not at all satisfied”) to 10 (“Very satisfied”). Finally, participants reported the assistive device currently used for ambulation while using a prosthesis (none, cane, other [eg, front-wheel walker, 4-wheel walker]).

Analysis

We conducted our data analyses using SAS statistical software.^a The primary and secondary candidate explanatory variables met assumptions of linear regression except for years since amputation, which was log transformed because of nonnormality. Descriptive statistics (n [%], mean \pm SD) of candidate explanatory variables were calculated for the study sample.

We compared characteristics of participants with and without cognitive impairment using Pearson chi-square for categorical variables and independent *t* tests for continuous variables.

We tested our hypothesis that cognitive impairment contributes to perceived physical function, independent of other factors, in 2 steps. In our first step, we used simple linear regression to identify potential confounders by examining bivariate associations between candidate explanatory variables and the PMQ. Cognitive impairment, sex, Veteran status, race and ethnicity, and etiology were dichotomous variables in regression models; age, BMI, years since LLA, prosthesis satisfaction, pain rating, HADS-A, HADS-D, and FCI were modeled as continuous variables; and level of LLA, prosthesis wear time, and current assistive device were modeled as categorical variables. We conducted this step to limit the number of variables that would be considered in the backward elimination multiple linear regression step of our analysis. Variables in simple regression models with a *P* value $<.2$ were moved to the next step.

We used a backward elimination approach in our second step to identify the most parsimonious model of candidate variables that contributed to explaining the variability in perceived physical function. We selected a backward elimination approach to limit the potential for bias and model overfitting with a large number of candidate explanatory variables relative to the study sample size. Our iterative backward elimination approach began with a full model containing all candidate explanatory variables associated with PMQ in bivariate analyses ($P<.2$). In each iterative cycle, the candidate explanatory variable that contributed the least to explaining the variability in PMQ score was removed. This process continued until the final model was identified and variables remaining had a *P* value $<.2$.

Results

There were 126 participants in the larger mixed-methods study.² We were unable to recontact 4 participants to complete data collection, and 3 participants were eliminated from the data set because they did not complete the TICS-m, leaving 119 participants for this cross-sectional, secondary data analysis.

A description of the study sample is presented in table 1. Briefly, participants had a mean age of 62.6 ± 8.2 years, 98 (82%) had dysvascular etiology of LLA, 106 (89%) were male, and 79 (66%) reported no current assistive device use for ambulation.

Cognitive impairment was identified in 28 participants (23.5%). Compared with participants without cognitive impairment, participants with cognitive impairment were more likely to use an assistive device for ambulation (60.7% vs 25.3%, $P=.002$); were older (66.3 ± 7.3 vs 61.5 ± 8.1 years, $P=.006$); and had a higher number of chronic health conditions (7.1 ± 3.4 vs 5.4 ± 2.5 , $P=.004$), more depressive symptoms (6.6 ± 5.1 vs 4.2 ± 3.8 , $P=.008$), and worse perceived physical function (2.0 ± 0.6 vs 2.6 ± 0.7 , $P<.001$).

Cognitive impairment and 9 other candidate explanatory variables in simple linear regression models had a *P* value $<.2$ and were included in the backward elimination model (table 2). After backward elimination, the final model included 5 explanatory variables (table 3), explaining 59% of perceived physical function variability ($A_{\text{adj}}R^2=0.59$, $P<.001$).

In addition to cognitive impairment, variables in the final model that explained worse PMQ score were higher HADS-Depression score, lower prosthesis satisfaction, higher count of chronic health conditions, and assistive device use.

Discussion

Our results suggest that cognitive impairment contributes significantly and independently to perceived physical function for those who are in middle age or later and are at least 1 year after LLA. Participants with cognitive impairment were significantly older and had more comorbid health conditions, more depressive symptoms, and worse perceived physical function than those without cognitive impairment. In addition, study findings supported our hypothesis that cognitive impairment is independently associated with worse perceived physical function, even after adjusting for other rehabilitation covariates.

Our study of middle-aged and older prosthesis users contributes to evidence suggesting cognitive impairment is a prevalent problem among people with LLA. Large epidemiologic studies of cognitive impairment indicate that dementia and mild cognitive impairment prevalence increases with older age, especially beyond 65 years of age.³⁸ For example, the estimated prevalence of mild cognitive impairment increased from 6.7% to 8.4%, and 10.1% for older adults aged 60-64, 65-69, and 70-74 years, respectively.³⁹ Nearly 1 in 4 participants in the present study were identified as having cognitive impairment, a substantially higher prevalence than community-dwelling older adults without LLA. While our results are consistent with prior research focused on post LLA through the prosthetic training phase,⁵ our study extends our understanding of the prevalence of cognitive impairment in the long-term follow-up phase after LLA.

We identified differences among prosthesis users who were about 5 years post LLA with and without cognitive impairment and found that cognitive impairment was associated with worse perceived physical function. More specifically, prosthesis users with cognitive impairment had an average PMQ score of 2.0, and those without cognitive impairment had an average score of 2.6, where a score of 2 indicates “moderate difficulty” and 3 indicates “little difficulty.” In a systematic review of 30 studies, cognitive impairment during the preoperative, preprosthetic, and prosthetic phases of rehabilitation was found to be associated with higher risk of mortality, prosthesis prescription denial, and a variety of other unfavorable rehabilitation outcomes for people with LLA.⁵ Our study findings are novel because none of the studies included in the prior systematic review assessed the relationship between cognitive impairment and physical function among people with LLA who are current prosthesis users beyond the prosthetic training phase. In addition to guiding transdisciplinary rehabilitative planning, goal setting, and intervention tailoring, rehabilitation clinicians can use ongoing screening to facilitate early detection of cognitive impairment, as well as to inform primary and specialty care provision as prosthesis users age.^{6,38}

Beyond our exploration of cognitive impairment among prosthesis users in middle age or later, we identified other characteristics that are associated with perceived physical function during the years after amputation.¹⁷ In addition to cognitive impairment, we found that

lower prosthesis satisfaction, more depressive symptoms, more chronic health conditions, and assistive device use were associated with worse perceived physical function, explaining nearly 60% of score variability in total. Prosthesis satisfaction was most associated with perceived physical function and is a long-standing characteristic that influences prosthesis use.^{6,37} Further, chronic disease and depression have also been associated with rehabilitation outcomes after LLA.^{4,6} Our study findings reinforce prior evidence and highlight the need for transdisciplinary approaches by physicians, rehabilitation therapists, prosthetists, mental, behavioral, and other health providers to optimize rehabilitation outcomes for prosthesis users who are in middle age or older.⁶

Our study is also clinically important in the setting of telehealth because all data were collected remotely. Telehealth use has rapidly accelerated during the COVID-19 pandemic⁴⁰ and has the potential to complement all phases of rehabilitation after LLA.^{41,42} We found that remotely collected data can be used to identify important patient characteristics that are related to perceived physical function and therefore may be clinically useful in efficiently identifying patient-centered needs for rehabilitative referrals. For example, telehealth-reported difficulties with prosthesis satisfaction, depressive symptoms, or physical function may suggest a need for referrals to clinicians who can use targeted intervention to address these difficulties. Further cognitive screening, whether conducted via telehealth or face-to-face, may guide rehabilitation intervention tailoring toward patients' cognitive strengths and increasing the odds for prosthesis and rehabilitation success. For example, assistive technology to accommodate for cognitive function can improve the sequence of donning a prosthesis safely.⁴³ Cognitive screening could also indicate a need for referral for in-depth cognitive testing and more specialized services to manage potential cognitive decline with advancing age. Further research is needed to understand how to best use telehealth technology within lifelong phase of transdisciplinary rehabilitation post LLA.

Study limitations

First, although we used a validated telephone-based measure to assess cognitive impairment, some other measures, including our primary outcome of perceived physical function, were designed for in-person administration and may have some degree of measurement bias. We used methods to minimize potential bias (eg, 1 trained therapist, standardized script, reading items verbatim). If measurement bias was similar in those with and without cognitive impairment, bias would tend to be toward the null. Second, there may be other factors that are associated with perceived functional mobility that were not examined in this secondary data analysis (eg, number of prescription medications, history of falls, physical activity). However, we selected factors based on theory and prior research, and the factors examined explained a large percentage of variability, suggesting that we likely captured most of the most important factors. Third, prosthesis satisfaction and wear time may not have been associated with perceived physical function because we extracted single items from larger questionnaires (eg, Trinity Amputation and Prosthesis Experience Scales, Houghton). Fourth, although the telephone-based screening tool we used is validated to detect cognitive impairment, it does not differentiate between mild cognitive impairment, dementia, or potentially reversible causes of cognitive impairment (eg, depression). Finally, this cross-sectional study was composed largely of non-Hispanic White men with unilateral

transtibial LLA, and findings may not generalize to more diverse populations with more complex amputation characteristics.

Conclusions

Cognitive impairment is common in middle-aged and older adults during the years after LLA and contributes to worse perceived physical function, even after accounting for other factors such as physical and mental health. Clinicians should consider periodic screening for cognitive impairment and developing novel interventions to improve perceived physical function for prosthesis users with cognitive impairment in middle age and older.

Supplier

a SAS statistical software; SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC.

Acknowledgments

Supported by the National Institutes of Health (5T32 AG000212-27, UL1-TR001082) and the Foundation for Physical Therapy Research (Promotion of Doctoral Studies: Level I and II). This material is the result of work supported with resources and facilities of the VA Eastern Colorado Healthcare System. The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Department of Veterans Affairs or the United States Government.

List of abbreviations:

BMI	body mass index
FCI	Functional Comorbidity Index
HADS	Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale
LLA	lower limb amputation
PMQ	Prosthesis Mobility Questionnaire
TICS-m	Telephone Interview for Cognitive Status-modified

References

1. Ziegler-Graham K, MacKenzie EJ, Ephraim PL, Trivison TG, Brook-meyer R. Estimating the prevalence of limb loss in the United States: 2005 to 2050. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2008;89:422–9. [PubMed: 18295618]
2. Miller MJ, Cook PF, Magnusson DM, et al. Self-efficacy and social support are associated with disability for ambulatory prosthesis users after lower-limb amputation. *PM R* 2021;13:453–60. [PubMed: 32926546]
3. Wegener ST, Mackenzie EJ, Ephraim P, Ehde D, Williams R. Self-management improves outcomes in persons with limb loss. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2009;90:373–80. [PubMed: 19254599]
4. Desmond DM, MacLachlan M. Coping strategies as predictors of psychosocial adaptation in a sample of elderly veterans with acquired lower limb amputations. *Soc Sci Med* 2006;62:208–16. [PubMed: 15990211]
5. Coffey L, O’Keeffe F, Gallagher P, Desmond D, Lombard-Vance R. Cognitive functioning in persons with lower limb amputations: a review. *Disabil Rehabil* 2012;34:1950–64. [PubMed: 22458350]

6. The Rehabilitation of Individuals with Lower Limb Amputation Work Group. VA/DoD clinical practice guidelines for rehabilitation of individuals with lower limb amputation. Available at: <https://www.health-quality.va.gov/guidelines/Rehab/amp/VADoDLLACPG092817.pdf>. Accessed May 26, 2021.
7. Alzheimer's Association. 2020 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimers Dement* 2020;16:391.
8. Lamer S, van Ross E, Hale C. Do psychological measures predict the ability of lower limb amputees to learn to use a prosthesis? *Clin Rehabil* 2003;17:493–8. [PubMed: 12952154]
9. O'Neill BF, Evans JJ. Memory and executive function predict mobility rehabilitation outcome after lower-limb amputation. *Disabil Rehabil* 2009;31:1083–91. [PubMed: 19280435]
10. Kurichi JE, Kwong PL, Reker DM, Bates BE, Marshall CR, Stineman MG. Clinical factors associated with prescription of a prosthetic limb in elderly veterans. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2007;55:900–6. [PubMed: 17537091]
11. Fletcher DD, Andrews KL, Butters MA, Jacobsen SJ, Rowland CM, Hallett JW. Rehabilitation of the geriatric vascular amputee patient: a population-based study. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2001;82:776–9. [PubMed: 11387582]
12. Fleury AM, Salih SA, Peel NM. Rehabilitation of the older vascular amputee: a review of the literature. *Geriatr Gerontol Int* 2013;13:264–73. [PubMed: 23279009]
13. Taylor SM, Kalbaugh CA, Blackhurst DW, et al. Preoperative clinical factors predict postoperative functional outcomes after major lower limb amputation: an analysis of 553 consecutive patients. *J Vasc Surg* 2005;42:227–34. [PubMed: 16102618]
14. Schoppen T, Boonstra A, Groothoff JW, de Vries J, Göeken LN, Eisma WH. Physical, mental, and social predictors of functional outcome in unilateral lower-limb amputees. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2003;84:803–11. [PubMed: 12808530]
15. Miller MJ, Magnusson DM, Lev G, et al. Relationships among perceived functional capacity, self-efficacy, and disability after dysvascular amputation. *PM R* 2018;10:1056–61. [PubMed: 29580940]
16. Sions JM, Beisheim EH, Seth M. Selecting, administering, and interpreting outcome measures among adults with lower-limb loss: an update for clinicians. *Curr Phys Med Rehabil Rep* 2020;8:92–109. [PubMed: 33767921]
17. Cieslak G, Omana H, Madou E, et al. Association between changes in subjective and objective measures of mobility in people with lower limb amputations after inpatient rehabilitation. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil* 2020;99:1067–71. [PubMed: 32520794]
18. Christiansen CL, Fields T, Lev G, Stephenson RO, Stevens-Lapsley JE. Functional outcomes after the prosthetic training phase of rehabilitation after dysvascular lower extremity amputation. *PM R* 2015;7:1118–26. [PubMed: 25978948]
19. Miller MJ, Morris MA, Magnusson DM, et al. Psychosocial factors influence physical activity after dysvascular amputation: a convergent mixed-methods study. *PM R* 2021;13:737–45. [PubMed: 32936512]
20. Miller MJ, Mealer ML, Cook PF, So N, Morris MA, Christiansen CL. Qualitative analysis of resilience characteristics of people with unilateral transtibial amputation. *Disabil Health J* 2020;13:100925. [PubMed: 32312526]
21. Miller MJ, Mealer ML, Cook PF, Kittelson AJ, Christiansen CL. Psychometric assessment of the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale for people with lower-limb amputation. *Phys Ther* 2021;101:pzab002. [PubMed: 33421074]
22. Rutherford C, Costa D, Mercieca-Bebber R, Rice H, Gabb L, King M. Mode of administration does not cause bias in patient-reported outcome results: a meta-analysis. *Qual Life Res* 2016;25:559–74. [PubMed: 26334842]
23. Hafner BJ, Morgan SJ, Askew RL, Salem R. Psychometric evaluation of self-report outcome measures for prosthetic applications. *J Rehabil Res Dev* 2016;53:797–812. [PubMed: 28273329]
24. Harris PA, Taylor R, Thielke R, Payne J, Gonzalez N, Conde JG. Research Electronic Data Capture (REDCap) - a metadata-driven methodology and workflow process for providing translational research informatics support. *J Biomed Inform* 2009;42:377–81. [PubMed: 18929686]

25. Franchignoni F, Monticone M, Giordano A, Rocca B. Rasch validation of the Prosthetic Mobility Questionnaire: a new outcome measure for assessing mobility in people with lower limb amputation. *J Rehabil Med* 2015;47:460–5. [PubMed: 25783231]
26. Welsh KA, Breitner JCS, Magruder-Habib KM. Detection of dementia in the elderly using telephone screening of cognitive status. *Neuropsychiatry Neuropsychol Behav Neurol* 1993;6:103–10.
27. Knopman DS, Roberts RO, Geda YE, et al. Validation of the telephone interview for cognitive status-modified in subjects with normal cognition, mild cognitive impairment, or dementia. *Neuroepidemiology* 2010;34:34–42. [PubMed: 19893327]
28. Agha Z, Lofgren RP, VanRuiswyk JV, Layde PM. Are patients at Veterans Affairs medical centers sicker? A comparative analysis of health status and medical resource use. *Arch Intern Med* 2000;160:3252–7. [PubMed: 11088086]
29. Hoerster KD, Lehavot K, Simpson T, McFall M, Reiber G, Nelson KM. Health and health behavior differences: U.S. military, veteran, and civilian men. *Am J Prev Med* 2012;43:483–9. [PubMed: 23079170]
30. Kalyani RR, Saudek CD, Brancati FL, Selvin E. Association of diabetes, comorbidities, and A1C with functional disability in older adults: results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), 1999–2006. *Diabetes Care* 2010;33:1055–60. [PubMed: 20185736]
31. Groll DL, To T, Bombardier C, Wright JG. The development of a comorbidity index with physical function as the outcome. *J Clin Epidemiol* 2005;58:595–602. [PubMed: 15878473]
32. Hays RD, Bjomer JB, Revicki DA, Spritzer KL, Celia D. Development of physical and mental health summary scores from the Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System (PROMIS) global items. *Qual Life Res* 2009;18:873–80. [PubMed: 19543809]
33. Desmond DM, MacLachlan M. The factor structure of the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale in older individuals with acquired amputations: a comparison of four models using confirmatory factor analysis. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* 2005;20:344–9. [PubMed: 15799082]
34. Zigmond AS, Snaith RP. The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1983;67:361–70. [PubMed: 6880820]
35. Bjelland I, Dahl AA, Haug TT, Neckelmann D. The validity of the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale. *J Psychosom Res* 2002;52:69–77. [PubMed: 11832252]
36. Devlin M, Pauley T, Head K, Garfinkel S. Houghton Scale of prosthetic use in people with lower-extremity amputations: reliability, validity, and responsiveness to change. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2004;85:1339–44. [PubMed: 15295762]
37. Gallagher P, Franchignoni F, Giordano A, MacLachlan M. Trinity Amputation and Prosthesis Experience Scales. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil* 2010;89:487–96. [PubMed: 20489393]
38. Owens DK, Davidson KW, Krist AH, et al. Screening for cognitive impairment in older adults: US Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement. 2020;323:757–63.
39. Petersen RC, Lopez O, Armstrong MJ, et al. Practice guideline update summary: mild cognitive impairment: report of the guideline development, dissemination, and implementation subcommittee of the american academy of neurology. *Neurology* 2018;90:126–35. [PubMed: 29282327]
40. Jette AM. The promise and potential of telerehabilitation in physical therapy. *Phys Ther* 2021;101:pzab081. [PubMed: 33774679]
41. Hewitt MA, Smith DG, Heckman JT, Pasquina PF. COVID-19: a catalyst for change in virtual health care utilization for persons with limb loss. *PM R* 2021;13:637–46. [PubMed: 33866685]
42. Webster J, Young P, Kiecker J. Telerehabilitation for amputee care. *Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am* 2021;32:253–62. [PubMed: 33814056]
43. O’Neill B, Moran K, Gillespie A. Scaffolding rehabilitation behaviour using a voice-mediated assistive technology for cognition. *Neuropsychol Rehabil* 2010;20:509–27. [PubMed: 20182951]

Table 1
 Participant characteristics for the full study sample and by cognitive impairment status

Characteristic	Full Sample(N=119) n (%)	Cognitive Impairment* (n=28)	No Cognitive Impairment(n=91)	P Value
Etiology				.59
Dysvascular	98 (82.4)	24 (85.7)	74 (81.3)	
Trauma	21 (17.7)	4 (14.3)	17 (18.7)	
Level of LLA				.99
Unilateral transtibial	81 (68.1)	19 (67.9)	62 (68.1)	
Unilateral transfemoral or other	25 (21.0)	6 (21.4)	19 (20.9)	
Bilateral transtibial LLA	13 (10.9)	3 (10.7)	10 (11.0)	
Male	106 (89.1)	26 (92.9)	80 (87.9)	.46
Non-Hispanic, White	91 (76.5)	19 (67.9)	72 (79.1)	.22
Veteran	52 (43.7)	14 (50.0)	38 (41.8)	.44
Prosthesis wear time				.74
All waking hours	80 (67.2)	19 (67.9)	61 (67.0)	
>50% of waking hours	27 (22.7)	5 (17.9)	22 (24.2)	
25%-50% of waking hours	8 (6.7)	3 (10.7)	5 (5.5)	
<25% of waking hours	4 (3.4)	1 (3.6)	3 (3.3)	
Current Assistive Device				.002 [‡]
None	79 (66.4)	11 (39.3)	68 (74.7)	
Cane	18 (15.1)	8 (28.6)	10 (11.0)	
Other	22 (18.5)	9 (32.1)	13 (14.3)	
	Mean ± SD			
Age (y)	62.6±8.2	66.3±7.3	61.5±8.1	.006 [‡]
BMI	29.5±6.0	27.3±4.0	30.2±6.4	.03 [‡]
Years since LLA [‡]	4.9±4.7	4.6±3.3	5.0±5.1	.62
Prosthesis satisfaction score	8.2±1.8	7.7±2.0	8.3±1.7	.10
Pain rating score	3.4±2.6	3.8±2.6	3.3±2.6	.42
HADS-Anxiety score	5.1±3.7	5.9±3.5	4.9±3.8	.22

Characteristic	Full Sample(N=119) n (%)	Cognitive Impairment* (n=28)	No Cognitive Impairment (n=91)	P Value
HADS-Depression score	4.8±4.3	6.6±5.1	4.2±3.8	.008 [‡]
FCI score	5.8±2.9	7.1±3.4	5.4±2.5	.004 [‡]
TICS-m score	34.0±3.9	28.9±2.3	35.6±2.8	<.001 [‡]
PMQ average score	2.5±0.8	2.0±0.6	2.6±0.7	<.001 [‡]

NOTE. BMI calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared.

* Education adjusted score of 31 on TICS-m indicated cognitive impairment.

[‡] Significant differences: $P < .05$.

[‡] Data presented as mean ± SD for interpretability, between-group comparison conducted using log transformed data.

Table 2

Simple linear regression of candidate explanatory variables and Prosthesis Mobility Questionnaire score

Variable	Parameter Estimate	P Value
Cognitive impairment*	-0.64	<.001 ^{†,‡}
Male	0.13	.57
Non-Veteran	-0.01	.97
Non-Hispanic White	-0.01	.93
Dysvascular etiology	-0.20	.29
Age (y)	-0.02	.07 [‡]
BMI	-0.01	.55
Years since LLA [§]	0.12	.18 [‡]
Prosthesis satisfaction score	0.26	<.001 ^{†,‡}
Pain rating score	-0.12	<.001 ^{†,‡}
HADS-Anxiety score	-0.09	<.001 ^{†,‡}
HADS-Depression score	-0.12	<.001 ^{†,‡}
FCI score	-0.13	<.001 ^{†,‡}
Level of LLA		.29
Unilateral transtibial	Reference	
Unilateral transfemoral or other	-0.28	
Bilateral transtibial LLA	-0.04	
Prosthesis wear time		.02 ^{†,‡}
All waking hours	Reference	
>50% of waking hours	-0.28	
25%-50% of waking hours	-0.65	
<25% of waking hours	-0.75	
Current assistive device		<.001 ^{†,‡}
None	Reference	
Cane	-0.67	
Other	-0.74	

NOTE. BMI calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared.

* Education adjusted score of 31 on TICS-m indicated cognitive impairment.

[†] $P < .05$.[‡] $P < .2$ and included in backward elimination model.[§] Log transformed because of nonnormality.

Table 3

Final backward elimination results using multiple linear regression

Variable	Model Statistics		Explanatory Variable Statistics	
	R ²	Adj R ²	β	P Value
Final Model	0.61*	0.59		
Cognitive impairment [†]			-0.15	.02
Prosthesis satisfaction score			0.34	<.001
HADS-Depression score			-0.31	<.001
FCI score			-0.19	.006
Current assistive device: none			Reference	...
Current assistive device: cane			0.01	.93
Current assistive device: other			-0.20	.003

NOTE. β , standardized beta coefficient.

* indicates a P-value <.001

[†]Education adjusted score of .31 on TICS-m indicated cognitive impairment.