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1 **Central pain processing in patients with shoulder pain: a review of the literature**

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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 **BACKGROUND:** Shoulder pain is a common health problem in which changes in shoulder structure cannot always explain
20 the patient’s perceived pain. Central sensitization (CS) might play a role in a subgroup of these patients.

21 **METHODS:** The literature was systematically reviewed to address the role of CS in patients with shoulder pain. Electronic
22 databases PubMed and Web of Knowledge were searched for relevant studies.

23 **RESULTS:** Eighteen full-text articles were included, methodological quality was scored and information was extracted.
24 Studies were clustered on those studying patients with musculoskeletal (MSK) shoulder pain and those studying patients
25 with hemiplegic shoulder pain (HSP). In particular, Quantitative Sensory Testing revealed hyperalgesia for pressure pain in

26 the MSK group, whereas these results were inconsistent in patients with HSP. Conditioned pain modulation was reduced
27 in patients with MSK shoulder pain, but is functioning normally in the HSP-group.

28 CONCLUSION: This review has shown that a great progress has been made towards a better understanding of
29 neurophysiologic pain mechanisms in patients with shoulder pain. Presence of generalized mechanical hyperalgesia,
30 allodynia and impaired conditioned pain modulation in patients with MSK shoulder pain indicate the involvement of the
31 central nervous system. Widespread somatosensory abnormalities observed in patients with HSP could suggest a central
32 origin for their shoulder pain and predispose patients with HSP to develop CS, although results are inconsistent. Additional
33 research is required adopting different assessment methods (especially dynamic methods) in order to establish the role of
34 CS in patients with shoulder pain.

35 KEY WORDS: central sensitization, pain processing, shoulder, chronic pain, systematic review.

36

37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 Shoulder pain is the third most common musculoskeletal condition, with incidence rates up to 2.5% , ^{1,2}. Although more
39 than half of all patients with shoulder pain recovers completely within one year after injury ³⁻⁵, the remaining of this group
40 reports persistent shoulder pain ⁶. It is suggested in the literature that central sensitization (CS) might play a role in these
41 persistent complaints in (some) patients with shoulder pain⁷.

42 Central sensitization (CS) is defined as an increased functioning of neurons and circuits in nociceptive pathways that leads
43 to pain from innocuous stimuli or an excessive perception of pain from low-level painful stimuli. Continuous nociceptor
44 input eventually results in neuronal plasticity of the peripheral and central nervous system ⁸. Sensitivity of the tissues can
45 be altered within the injured area (primary hyperalgesia) but also in the adjacent, uninjured tissue (secondary
46 hyperalgesia); the latter is indicative for CS or central hypersensitivity ⁹. Central hypersensitivity has already been found in
47 various chronic pain populations including those with chronic whiplash ¹⁰, fibromyalgia ¹¹, carpal tunnel syndrome ¹²,
48 osteoarthritis ¹³, tension-type headache ¹⁴, temporomandibular joint pain ¹⁵, and subacromial impingement syndrome ⁷.

49 All these studies found an involvement of central pain processing mechanisms in those pain populations. Despite that
50 there is no gold standard for assessing CS, Quantitative Sensory Testing and paradigms such as conditioned pain
51 modulation and exercise-induced endogenous analgesia are regularly used to evaluate the presence of CS.

52

53 Although a lot of research has already been done on the above mentioned chronic pain syndromes, the role of CS in
54 shoulder pain patients has been poorly investigated. Shoulder pain is a prevalent health presentation with complex
55 underlying factors. The exact pathology is not always clear; muscles and joints do not always seem to be the **main cause**
56 **of the persistent problem** and biomedical approaches **are not always successful**. Shoulder pain can be related to a
57 musculoskeletal problem, but is also a common disorder after a stroke ¹⁶. Post-stroke shoulder pain is usually studied and
58 treated as peripheral nociceptive or neuropathic pain, but evidence for the effectiveness of therapeutic interventions is
59 lacking ¹⁷. It can improve during rehabilitation ¹⁸, but it may also be a durable or persistent problem ¹⁹.
60 Given the evidence of alterations in the central and peripheral nervous system in many other chronic pain populations
61 ^{8,9,20}, CS might explain why some patients with shoulder pain, both musculoskeletal or post-stroke, do not respond to
62 regular treatment procedures directed to the shoulder. Therefore, the primary aim of this review was to investigate
63 whether there is evidence for abnormal central pain processing in patients with shoulder pain of musculoskeletal or
64 neurologic origin.

65

66 **METHODS**

67 This systematic review is reported following the PRISMA- guidelines (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and
68 Meta-Analyses) ²¹.

69

70 **Eligibility Criteria and Study Selection**

71 To be included in the present systematic review, articles had to evaluate signs of CS (I), as contributor to the pain (O), in
72 patients with shoulder pain (P). The comparison (C) was not defined in order to obtain all articles regarding the presence
73 of CS in patients with shoulder pain. All original study designs were included (S). Articles were eligible for this systematic
74 review if they fulfilled the following inclusion criteria: 1) central pain processing was assessed, 2) in human adults (>18
75 years) suffering from shoulder pain, and 3) the article reported original research in full text, and 4) published in English,
76 French or Dutch. Studies were excluded if only primary hyperalgesia or peripheral sensitization was assessed, since these
77 are not indicative for CS ²².

78

79 **Information Sources and Search Strategy**

80 Pubmed and Web of Knowledge were searched to identify relevant articles concerning CS in adults with shoulder pain.
81 The last search took place on May 27, 2015. Three groups of key words which were related to “central sensitization”,
82 “shoulder pain” and “pain” were stipulated for the search. Key words from the different groups were combined. The
83 construct of the search strategy is presented in Table 1. In addition, the reference lists from relevant articles were checked
84 to obtain as complete information as possible. Literature was independently searched and screened by EVL and MD,
85 Bachelors in Physiotherapy and Rehabilitation Sciences. They were trained by MM, who obtained the degree of PhD with
86 the dissertation regarding chronic pain and CS and has published several systematic reviews in this domain.

87

88 **Data items and collection**

89 Information was extracted from each included study about: 1) design and purpose of the study; 2) characteristics of study
90 participants (including number of participants, mean age, sex and diagnosis) and inclusion and exclusion criteria; 3)
91 methods of assessing the presence of CS; 4) outcome measures; and 5) main results.

92

93 **Risk of Bias in individual studies**

94 Methodological quality was assessed independently by 2 researchers (EVL and MD), who were blinded from each other’s
95 results. After rating the selected articles, the results of both researchers were compared and differences were analyzed in
96 a consensus meeting. In case of disagreement, the reviewers screened the articles a second time and the points of
97 difference were discussed, until a consensus was made. When consensus could not be reached, a third opinion was
98 provided by the last author (MM). Several checklists were used to assess the methodological quality of the articles
99 depending on the study design. Quality assessment of case-control studies or cohort studies was performed using the
100 Dutch Cochrane Checklist (<http://dcc.cochrane.org>). Cross-sectional studies were judged with the same checklist as for
101 case-control studies but the questions regarding comparability of groups and blinding were dropped. RCT’s were
102 evaluated with the PEDro scale (http://www.pedro.org.au/wp-content/uploads/PEDro_scale.pdf).

103

104 **Level of Evidence**

105 After pooling the results, the overall quality of evidence for each outcome was rated with the Grades of Recommendation,
106 Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) approach ²³.

107

108 **RESULTS**

109 **Study Selection and Study Characteristics**

110 The selection process of the articles is represented in Figure 1. After screening, 18 full-text articles were included in this
111 systematic review. Of the 18 selected articles, 15 were observational studies (nine case-control ^{7,17,24-30}, three cohort ³¹⁻³³
112 and three cross-sectional ³⁴⁻³⁶) and three were RCT's. The characteristics of the included studies are presented in Table 2.

113

114 **Methodological Quality**

115 The methodological quality ratings of the reviewed studies are presented in Table 3. There was a 91% of agreement (117
116 of 129 items). After a second review and a comparison of the 12 differences, the reviewers reached a consensus for all
117 items. The level of evidence of the 10 observational studies was determined for each relevant outcome starting as low-
118 quality evidence according to the GRADE system. For most outcomes of the observational studies, the quality of evidence
119 remained low. These studies showed limitations of the study design and inconsistency of the study results. Limitations
120 were mainly due to not accounting for confounders and outcome measures being self-reported measures. Most cohort
121 studies showed a lack of follow-up.

122

123 The level of evidence of the 3 RCTs ³⁷⁻³⁹ was determined starting as high-quality evidence according to the GRADE system.
124 The methodological quality was low, according to the PEDro-classification. Two RCTs failed to get half of the maximum
125 score ^{38,39} and were downgraded to a moderate level of evidence.

126

127 **Study Population**

128 Most studies included patients with chronic shoulder pain ^{7,17,24-26,28,29,34,36-39}; one study included patients in the acute
129 phase ³¹, while the rest of the studies did not specifically define the duration of shoulder pain ^{27,30,32,35}. The population of

130 patients in the different studies could be distinguished in 2 major groups: patients with musculoskeletal (MSK) shoulder
131 pain and patients with a history of stroke suffering from hemiplegic shoulder pain (HSP).

132

133 Studies that included patients with MSK shoulder pain, both unilateral^{7,27–30,32,35–39} or bilateral²⁵, could be separated in
134 different subgroups. Four of these articles were conducted in patients with shoulder impingement syndrome^{7,28,30,36}.
135 There were four studies that assessed patients awaiting for surgical treatment of rotator cuff pathology^{27,32,35}. Hidalgo-
136 Lozano et al.³⁷ included elite swimmers with unilateral shoulder pain. Three studies only included female patients^{25,38,39}.
137 Ge et al.³⁸ investigated female Caucasian patients with chronic unilateral shoulder pain, while Persson et al.³⁹ examined
138 hospital cleaners with unilateral shoulder pain. Patients with uni- or bilateral shoulder myalgia related to the infraspinatus
139 muscle were evaluated in the study by Lannersten and Kosek²⁵.

140

141 Five articles studied CS in patients with HSP^{17,24,26,31,34}. HSP was defined by Zeilig et al.²⁴ as “the presence of shoulder pain
142 for at least 6 months, with no additional characteristics other than ruling out shoulder pathologies prior to the stroke”.
143 Similarly, Roosink et al.³¹ defined HSP as non-remitting shoulder pain confined to the shoulder and/or C5 dermatome of
144 the contralesional side with an onset after an stroke episode, present during rest or during active or passive motion at
145 both 3 and 6 months post-stroke. This study was part of a prospective cohort study⁴⁰ about the development of post-
146 stroke shoulder pain in the first 6 months after stroke and included patients within 2 weeks after stroke. There were 2
147 articles^{31,34} that made a comparison between stroke patients with HSP and controls without HSP. The other three articles
148^{17,24,26} were case-controlled studies that compared post-stroke patients with and without HSP, and a healthy control
149 group.

150

151 **Evidence for Central Sensitivity**

152 In the following section, the results of this review are structured according to the different aspects of central pain
153 processing that have been identified. Methods for identifying CS are divided in static and dynamic methods for both
154 groups of subjects (MSK and HSP).

155

1. Static Methods

156 **1.1 Quantitative Sensory Testing**

157 **1.1.1 Pain Threshold**

158 **1.1.1.1. Musculoskeletal Shoulder Pain**

159 Pressure algometry was used as an outcome measure in eight ^{7,28–30,35–38} out of the 11 studies which were performed with
160 patients suffering from unilateral MSK shoulder pain. Hidalgo-Lozano et al. ³⁷ examined elite swimmers with and without
161 shoulder pain and compared these groups with a control group of healthy elite athletes. Significantly reduced pressure
162 pain thresholds (PPTs) were found in elite swimmers with shoulder pain as compared with healthy athletes over all
163 muscles which were examined. In addition, elite swimmers without pain also presented significantly lower PPTs over the
164 upper trapezius, m. subscapularis and m. tibialis anterior as compared with healthy athletes. Furthermore, no significant
165 differences were found between elite swimmers with and without shoulder pain. From the three studies ^{7,28,36} performed
166 in patients with unilateral shoulder impingement syndrome, two ^{7,36} found significantly lower PPTs at all locations (locally
167 at the shoulder and remote at the knee), compared to a healthy control group. However, Albuquerque et al. ²⁸ found no
168 significant differences in PPT between the affected and non-affected side in people with shoulder impingement syndrome
169 SIS; statistical differences were only found between both sides of the SIS group and dominant side of the control group in
170 the m. supraspinatus PPT. Coronado et al. ³⁵ reported significantly lower PPTs at the affected side compared to the non-
171 affected side in patients with rotator cuff pathology, at both local and distal locations, which reflected augmented
172 pressure pain sensitivity. In another study, these same authors ²⁹ found lower PPTs measured locally at the affected side
173 compared to the non-affected side. Furthermore, all local PPTs from the patients with unilateral MSK shoulder pain were
174 lower in comparison to healthy controls. However, when considering the remote site, significantly lower PPTs were only
175 found at the affected side of people with unilateral MSK shoulder pain in comparison to the control group.

176 Ge et al. ³⁸ measured PPTs at TrPs of the painful m. infraspinatus at the affected side, at the same location but at the
177 tender point in the contralateral m. infraspinatus and at a reference point in the m. tibialis anterior in patients with
178 unilateral shoulder pain during normal expiration and elevated intrathoracic pressure (EITP). EITP is described by Ge et al.
179 ³⁸ as “a manoeuvre that increases sympathetic outflow of the skeletal muscle when holding the breath with the glottis
180 closed”. PPTs were significantly lower at the m. infraspinatus of the affected shoulder than at the same point of the
181 unaffected shoulder during both conditions. PPTs during normal respiration and EITP in the m. tibialis anterior were

182 similar. Gwilym et al. ³⁰ used QST to measure thresholds for mechanical stimuli, by using punctate sharpness threshold
183 and sharpness of a 256 mN punctate stimulus in patients awaiting arthroscopic subacromial decompression. They found a
184 lower mean detection threshold at which the mechanically induced pain from the punctate stimulus was perceived as
185 painful/ sharp in the affected shoulder of patients with chronic SIS compared to controls. In addition, more than half of
186 the patients reported referred pain radiating down the arm. The presence of either hyperalgesia to punctate stimulus or
187 referred pain before surgery was related to worse outcomes 3 months after arthroscopic subacromial depression.

188

189 **1.1.1.2 Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain**

190 Pressure algometry was used as an outcome measure in four ^{17,26,31,34} of the five studies performed with people with HSP.
191 Soo Hoo et al. ³⁴ compared patients with HSP with pain-free stroke patients. Patients with HSP had overall significantly
192 lower local PPTs at all locations (e.g. affected and unaffected shoulder, m. tibialis anterior). Moreover, Roosink et al. ^{17,31}
193 found significantly higher PPT ratios (affected/ unaffected side) **in the affected shoulder of** patients with HSP, already 3
194 months after stroke ¹⁷. **There** were no differences in PPT at the unaffected side between HSP and pain-free stroke patients
195 ^{17,31}. In addition, ratios for electric pain threshold and tolerance became significantly different in patients with HSP as
196 compared to both pain-free stroke patients and the healthy control group ^{17,31}. On the other hand, Lindgren et al. ²⁶ found
197 no significant differences between the group with HSP and without HSP for any of the QST assessments. In addition, the
198 PPTs between the post-stroke groups and healthy controls and wide ranges in PPT thresholds were not significantly
199 different. Thermal pain thresholds (TPTs) and thermal tolerance were measured by Coronado et al. ^{29,35} in patients with
200 unilateral shoulder pain and rotator cuff pathology. No differences in thermal threshold or tolerance temperatures were
201 found in these studies^{29,35}.

202 **1.1.2 Hypoesthesia**

203 **1.1.2.1 Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain**

204 In both post-stroke groups with and without shoulder pain significantly higher detection thresholds were found as
205 compared to healthy controls for touch, thermal stimuli and graphesthesia in the affected shoulder and lower leg in the
206 study of Zeilig et al. ²⁴. Furthermore, patients with HSP had higher heat detection thresholds than those without pain, but
207 only at the affected side. In the HSP group, thermal detection thresholds were significantly higher at the affected side

208 compared to the unaffected side ²⁴. Roosink et al. ^{17,31} also found hypoesthesia for tactile ^{17,31} and electrical sensation
209 thresholds ¹⁷ and hypoalgesia (higher electrical pain thresholds EPT ^{17,31}) were more often observed in patients with HSP (6
210 months post stroke) as compared to the pain-free patients. HSP was associated with reduced touch sensation, abnormal
211 cold sensation (both reduced and elevated), cold allodynia, reduced sharpness sensation, and sharpness allodynia [19].
212 Lindgren et al. ²⁶ reported higher thermal thresholds and a wider range of mechanical thresholds in both stroke groups
213 with and without shoulder pain when compared to healthy controls.

214

215 **2. Dynamic Methods**

216 **2.1 Suprathreshold Heat Pain Response**

217 **2.1.1 Musculoskeletal Shoulder Pain**

218 Suprathreshold Heat Pain Response (SHPR) results in the perception of elevated pain although the peripheral afferent
219 input is constant or even diminished and is thus considered a perceptual manifestation of augmented central sensitivity ³².
220 Valencia et al. ³² included this dynamic method in order to acquire the pain modulatory capacity of the central nervous
221 system. They found that the 5th pain rating after five consecutive heat pulses was significantly higher in patients having
222 shoulder surgery as compared to healthy controls. The 5th pain rating decreased significantly from the pre-surgical time
223 point to 3 months after surgery and was comparable to baseline values of the healthy controls. The same SHPR principle
224 was used by Coronado et al. ²⁹, who found **an increased** SHPR of small to moderate magnitude between the affected and
225 non-affected side of patients with unilateral shoulder pain in comparison to pain-free controls.

226

227 **2.2 Conditioned Pain Modulation**

228 **2.2.1 Musculoskeletal Shoulder Pain**

229 Valencia et al. ³² used SHPR as the test-stimulus and the cold pressor test as the conditioning stimulus. Although, there
230 was a significant main effect of CPM, meaning that the conditioning stimulus significantly inhibited the test stimulus in
231 both groups, the patients having shoulder surgery had a lower percentage increase of change for CPM at baseline
232 compared to the healthy controls. The percent change of CPM and the absolute difference on CPM did not change
233 significantly three months later in both groups. Another study by Valencia et al. ²⁷ revealed that **fluctuation** in pain

234 intensity **of the patient** had no significant effect on between session stability of CPM. In addition, the CPM trial led to
235 significantly greater inhibition **at the pre surgical time point** as compared to the trial after surgery.

236

237 **2.2.2 Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain**

238 Patients with HSP showed significantly lower hand immersion time (cold pain tolerance) as compared to pain-free stroke
239 patients in both studies of Roosink et al. ^{17,31}. They found significantly higher EPTs and PPTs after the cold pressor test
240 (CPT) **in these patients, but** no significant differences were found between groups when comparing threshold ratios for
241 EPT and PPT (pre-cold pressor/post-cold pressor) ^{17,31}.

242

243 **2.3 Exercise-induced Endogenous Analgesia**

244 **2.3.1 Musculoskeletal Shoulder Pain**

245 After a unilateral static endurance test at the most painful shoulder, Persson et al. ³⁹ found that the PPT levels over the
246 affected shoulder muscles (i.e. trapezius and deltoid muscle) significantly increased immediately and 10 and 20 minutes
247 after the test in women with chronic shoulder pain. On the unexposed side, the PPTs were significantly increased in the
248 shoulder region only at 20 minutes after the test. Inconsistent changes were found of PPTs measured over the m.
249 quadriceps on both sides.

250 Lannersten and Kosek ²⁵ showed that patients with chronic unilateral myofascial shoulder pain had significantly lower
251 PPTs at baseline compared to healthy controls at the m. infraspinatus bilaterally, but not at the m. quadriceps. During
252 contraction of the painful (for the shoulder myalgia patients) m. infraspinatus, PPTs increased at all sites compared to
253 baseline at the middle and end of contraction in healthy controls, but not in patients with shoulder myalgia. During
254 contraction of the quadriceps, PPTs increased at all sites compared to baseline at the end of contraction in healthy
255 controls and patients with shoulder **myalgia**.

256

257 **2.4 Dynamic tactile allodynia and hyperpathia**

258 **2.4.1 Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain**

259 Dynamic tactile allodynia was described as pain provoked by a non-noxious stimulus⁴¹. Hyperpathia was described as the
260 development of a sudden, strong painful sensation that continued after the stimulation was switched off⁴¹. Higher rates
261 of pathologically evoked pain (hyperpathia and dynamic tactile allodynia) were found in the affected shoulder and lower
262 leg of the HSP-group compared to the HSP-group without shoulder pain²⁴.

263

264 **DISCUSSION**

265 The goal of this systematic review was to analyze the scientific literature addressing the role of central pain processing
266 mechanisms in patients with musculoskeletal shoulder pain and those with a history of stroke leading to hemiplegic
267 shoulder pain.

268

269 **1. Musculoskeletal Shoulder Pain**

270 **1.1 Static Methods**

271 There is a level of evidence 2 for the presence of CS in people with MSK shoulder pain. In particular, PPTs were
272 significantly decreased not only at local but also at distal muscles (see Table 2) in patients with shoulder pain when
273 compared to pain-free controls^{7,36,37}. Widespread mechanical hyperalgesia (lower PPT measured at a distant site) is a
274 recognized indicator of central hyperexcitability **and indicate the involvement of the central nervous system**²².

275

276 In the study of Hidalgo-Lozano et al.³⁷ PPTs were lower in both elite swimmers with and without shoulder pain, which was
277 unexpected for the latter. This finding may indicate that pain sensitivity of neck and shoulder girdle tissues to mechanical
278 stimuli in elite swimmers with and without shoulder pain could be associated with the swimming-specific demands or as a
279 result of exercising on a regular/ high intensity basis as seen in many other athletes. There is currently no consensus about
280 the magnitude of the difference in PPT levels necessary to consider real changes between patients with shoulder pain and
281 healthy controls⁴². The lower PPT levels in patients with SIS and elite swimmers with and without shoulder pain in both
282 painful and distant pain-free areas suggest the presence of both peripheral and central sensitization mechanisms^{7,37}. Note
283 that in both studies of Hidalgo-Lozano^{7,37} the PPT levels were only investigated at the affected side (but also distal to the
284 pain location). Paul et al.³⁶ also suggested evidence for central hypersensitivity in patients with SIS, although they did not

285 limit analgesic usage, evaluators were not blinded to case and control subjects (which could have introduced bias) and
286 sex, age and ethnicity of the sample were not standardized. In another study occurrence of CS was investigated in a
287 subgroup of patients with unilateral shoulder pain³⁰. In particular, the presence of referred pain, or hyperalgesia, was
288 associated with worse outcomes after subacromial decompression. Therefore, this study showed heterogeneity within
289 patients presenting with SIS and suggested that pre-operatively presence of CS negatively affects outcome three months
290 after subacromial decompression³⁰.

291

292 In contrast to the results for thermal stimuli, pressure stimuli revealed increased pain sensitivity of patients with unilateral
293 shoulder pain, as found in the study by Coronado et al.³⁵. This study was limited by the absence of a healthy control group
294 which impedes explicit conclusions about central and peripheral pain processing³⁵. Pressure and thermal stimuli measure
295 various modalities of pain processing, with pressure stimuli requiring sensitivity of deep tissue afferents and thermal
296 stimuli requiring C-fibre hyperexcitability³⁵. Nijs et al.⁴³ recommended the use of various modalities for pain sensitivity at
297 local and distal locations if the goal is to determine CS in patients with musculoskeletal pain. Using only one stimulus may
298 lead to inaccurate conclusions regarding the underlying pain processing mechanisms of patients. Inconsistent findings
299 between the pressure and thermal sensitivity in the study of Coronado et al.³⁵ highlights the necessity of using various
300 stimuli, as it gives a more complete overview of pain processing mechanisms in clinical conditions. Further studies should
301 therefore include various stimuli when investigating the pain profile of patients with musculoskeletal conditions.

302 In addition to the aforementioned studies, **no difference in mechanical sensitivity in SIS patients was found**, therefore no
303 presence of CS was found in these patients²⁸. Coronado et al.²⁹ found a difference between sides in pressure sensitivity in
304 patients with unilateral shoulder pain which supports increased peripheral sensitisation and thus reinforcing this finding.

305

306 Ge et al.³⁸ showed that increasing the sympathetic outflow to the muscle decreased PPTs at the painful and non-painful
307 shoulder, but not at the m. tibialis anterior. Pathological circumstances can cause changes in the peripheral neurons,
308 which may result in interactions between sympathetic and afferent neurons⁴⁴, indicating facilitatory contribution of
309 sympathetic hyperactivity to mechanical sensitization. Sympathetic activity may increase the release of norepinephrine
310 which has been shown to interact with nociceptors, but other substances cannot be excluded⁴⁵. Therefore, the presence

311 of sympathetic activity can facilitate local pain reaction, such as mechanical hyperalgesia and allodynia, which has been
312 demonstrated in patients with myofascial pain syndromes. These mechanisms are probably peripherally mediated due to
313 the fact that only local PPTs were decreased after the sympathetic outflow increased. The results of this study suggest a
314 sympathetic contribution to the underlying mechanisms creating referred pain. However, these mechanisms are still
315 unknown and need to be investigated in further studies. Further work is also required to establish the interactions
316 between sensory and sympathetic systems in the central nervous system.

317

318 **1.2 Dynamic Methods**

319 There is a level of evidence 2 for the dynamic methods^{25,32,39} to evaluate MSK shoulder pain. The results of SHPR in the
320 study of Valencia et al.³² in the clinical cohort provides direct evidence for altered pain sensitivity before having shoulder
321 surgery. Interestingly, SHPR decreased 3 months after surgery that reasonably may indicate potential reversibility of
322 altered central pain processing mechanisms after eliminating the nociceptive source with operation. In addition, pain
323 intensity decreased significantly 3 months after surgery, but the absolute differences on CPM did not differ between pre-
324 and post-surgical stages³². This implies that despite that the local problem can be resolved after surgery and patients'
325 reporting of pain diminish, impaired endogenous inhibition can still be present, indicating that central hypersensitivity
326 may have not been resolved. Future research should investigate which are the indications of having altered central pain
327 processing mechanisms before shoulder surgery and which is its function in the development of chronic postoperative
328 pain.

329 Two studies used a static endurance test^{25,39} to evaluate the influence of exercise-induced endogenous analgesia in
330 patients with shoulder pain. Their findings were rather contradictory. Persson et al.³⁹ found a proper activation of central
331 antinociceptive mechanisms in chronic shoulder pain patients after static contraction of the painful shoulder.
332 Nevertheless, although PPT values increased, patients' sensation of pain was increased. Contrarily, Lannersten and Kosek
333²⁵ only found proper activation of endogenous analgesia in shoulder myalgia patients when non-painful body parts (but
334 not the painful shoulder) were exercised. In fibromyalgia patients (**commonly centrally sensitized in a subset of patients**),
335 all contractions induced generalized hyperalgesia independently of where they were performed²⁵. These patients have an

336 overall inability to activate pain inhibitory mechanisms, which supports previous findings ⁴⁶. A limitation of this study is
337 that the examiner could not be blinded to the group assigned to each subject.

338 Besides bilateral pressure hypersensitivity, Coronado et al. ²⁹ also demonstrated also thermal hypersensitivity at local and
339 distal locations compared to healthy controls, which indicates that CS is present. However, the same study also
340 demonstrated side to side differences in pressure pain sensitivity, supporting peripheral sensitization. Therefore
341 heterogeneous findings were obtained according to sensitization processes in patients with unilateral shoulder pain,
342 meaning that neither peripheral nor CS processes were dominant. This may imply that patients with shoulder pain having
343 a similar clinical presentation may not have equal pain processing mechanisms underlying their symptoms. This mixed
344 presentation of sensitization patterns is potentially meaningful for clinical practice and underlines the importance of
345 awareness, because this could explain why some patients fail to recover after standard treatment directed at peripheral
346 targets.

347 **2. Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain**

348 **2.1 Static Methods**

349 There is a level of evidence 2 for somatosensory differences, such as reduced PPTS ³⁴ and allodynia ^{17,24}, in patients with
350 HSP, suggesting a role for central hypersensitivity ^{17,24,34}. In addition, a neuropathic pain component has been shown in
351 this population ^{17,24,31}.

352
353 The study by Soo Hoo et al. ³⁴ was the only study that found lower PPTs at local and remote pain-free sites in patients with
354 HSP as compared to pain-free control, suggesting CS. If these findings were restricted to the affected shoulder, it would
355 not be possible to distinguish between peripheral or central hypersensitivity and sensory abnormalities caused by a
356 spinothalamocortical lesion. However, the finding that pain was experienced at lower pressure levels at remote pain-free
357 sites supports the notion that central processes may influence the overall perception of pain in patients with chronic HSP
358 ³⁴.

359 Recent studies have provided preliminary evidence that patients with HSP have somatosensory abnormalities ^{17,40,47}.
360 Roosink et al. ^{17,31} reported the presence of widespread somatosensory abnormalities, such as allodynia and hyperalgesia,
361 already in the first 6 months after stroke. This might suggest the presence of a neuropathic pain component contributing

362 to HSP. In addition, early occurrence of somatosensory sensitization in the acute phase after stroke might favor the
363 development or maintenance of HSP. However, it was not discernable whether findings are related to central
364 hypersensitivity, because examination sites were limited to the shoulder. Furthermore, results are limited by a small
365 sample size and the fact that evaluators were not blinded to group allocation might have introduced bias. Future studies
366 should include larger samples to provide further information about the role of CS in HSP, as important differences may
367 exist between subgroups of people within this population. In contrast to Soo Hoo et al.³⁴, Roosink et al.¹⁷ used intra-
368 individual side-to-side comparisons when measuring PPTs. Although this method is more sensitive to detect sensory
369 abnormalities, intra-individual side-to-side comparisons may not be convenient for unraveling widespread hyperalgesia,
370 typical of CS⁴⁸.

371 Zeilig et al.²⁴ also found differentiated sensory characteristics of the affected shoulder (higher thermal thresholds and
372 high amounts of pathologically evoked pain) in the affected lower leg. These somatosensory abnormalities in a pain-free
373 remote site may suggest a central origin for HSP. In contrast to the aforementioned studies^{17,24}, no significant differences
374 in the QST assessments were found in the study of Lindgren et al.²⁶ and thus could not demonstrate the presence of a
375 neuropathic or central component influencing the perception of pain as well as the presence of a widespread neuropathic
376 component. These discrepancies may be explained by different stroke locations, characteristics and intensity of shoulder
377 pain as well as the usage of medicine between studies. The latter may have resulted in a diminished pain perception with
378 psychophysical testing.

379 Overall results indicate that somatosensory impairments might play a role in patients with HSP, however convincing
380 evidence cannot be determined as these impairments are commonly observed in patients both with and without HSP. The
381 causal role of somatosensory symptoms in the development of HSP should be further explored in longitudinal studies.

382

383 **2.2 Dynamic Methods**

384 There is a level of evidence 2 for the dynamic methods to evaluate HSP. No difference in CPM was observed in patients
385 with HSP when compared to pain-free controls^{17,31}. Impaired endogenous pain modulation may predict the development
386 of CS^{49,50} and persistent pain³¹ and was reduced or absent in several types of chronic pain patients^{51,52}. **The results of both**
387 **studies of Roosink et al.^{17,31} suggest that HSP is not associated with impaired endogenous inhibition. This may indicate**

388 that CPM is functioning normally in patients with post-stroke pain, although it is plausible that endogenous inhibitory pain
389 pathways may be defective at a higher supraspinal level⁵². This interpretation of the results is limited by the small sample
390 size and the differences between groups in terms of timing and intensity of the conditioning stimulus. CPM should
391 therefore be repeated in a larger study.

392

393 **CONCLUSION**

394 In conclusion, this review has shown that a great progress has been made towards a better understanding of
395 neurophysiologic pain mechanisms of patients with shoulder pain. Presence of generalized mechanical hyperalgesia and
396 allodynia in patients with MSK shoulder pain may indicate the involvement of the central nervous system in a subgroup of
397 this population. In addition, enhanced temporal summation and impaired endogenous inhibition in people with MSK
398 shoulder pain are also indicative of CS, although results are not univocal in this regard (e.g. anti-nociceptive response to
399 exercise).

400 Widespread somatosensory abnormalities observed in patients with HSP suggest a central origin for shoulder pain in this
401 population. Early occurrence of somatosensory abnormalities may predispose patients with HSP to develop CS. This
402 review revealed that CPM is functioning normally in patients with post-stroke pain, though impaired endogenous pain
403 inhibitory pathways at higher supraspinal levels cannot be ruled out. Additional research is now required adopting
404 different assessment methods in order to confirm the preliminary role of CS in subjects with shoulder pain.

405

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