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An overview of effective and potential new conservative interventions in patients with frozen shoulder

Reference:

Mertens Michel, Meeus Mira, Verborgt Olivier, Vermeulen Eric H.M., Schuitemaker Ruud, Hekman Karin M.C., van der Burg Donald H., Struyf Filip.- An overview of effective and potential new conservative interventions in patients with frozen shoulder
Rheumatology international - ISSN 1437-160X - 42:6(2022), p. 925-936
Full text (Publisher's DOI): <https://doi.org/10.1007/S00296-021-04979-0>
To cite this reference: <https://hdl.handle.net/10067/1808890151162165141>

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2 **frozen shoulder**

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4 This version of the article has been accepted for publication, after peer review but is not the Version of Record
5 and does not reflect post-acceptance improvements, or any corrections. The Version of Record is available online
6 at: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00296-021-04979-0>. Use of this Accepted Version is subject to the publisher's

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35 **Running title:** Overview of conservative interventions in FS

36 **Compliance with ethical standards**

37 No part of this review is copied or published elsewhere

38 **Funding**

39 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

41 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

42 Not applicable

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Frozen shoulder (FS) or adhesive capsulitis is a pathology characterized by spontaneous onset of shoulder pain
46 accompanied by gradual restrictions of both active and passive shoulder motion [1, 2]. The prevalence of primary
47 FS in the general population is 2-5% [2, 3], while the prevalence of FS in patients with Diabetes Mellitus (DM)
48 increases up to 39% [4, 5]. Additionally, in the last two decades there is an increase in the incidence and prevalence
49 of patients with FS [6], although this might be a result of over diagnosis as well [7]. Frozen shoulder seems to be
50 more common in patients with sedentary jobs, which might be explained by the fact that the evolutionary design
51 of the shoulder is not sufficiently used by these jobs anymore. Combined with accentuation of age-related oxidative
52 stress and pro-inflammatory cytokine production this might result in extracellular matrix alterations [8]. Frozen
53 shoulder develops between the age of 40 and 60 years [9] and affects more women (50-70%) than men [9, 10].
54 Out of all FS patients 6-34% develop a FS on the contralateral shoulder [9, 10] and in 14% of the patients there is
55 even a simultaneous bilateral FS [11]. Additionally, patients with DM or thyroid disorders have a 5 to 7 times
56 higher risk of developing a FS [3].

57 Despite its common occurrence, FS remains a medical enigma; difficult to understand and difficult to manage. It
58 is thought to be 'self-limiting' and therefore appears to resolve in most patients without the application of any
59 intervention [9, 12]. However, patients with severe complaints, more movement restriction, less muscle force and
60 more co-morbidities have a worse prognosis for recovery [9, 13]. Furthermore, the evidence in literature for the
61 "self-limiting" and "3-phase" theory appears to be debatable [14]. It is suggested that there is an early improvement
62 in disabilities (with the greatest gain in the early disease process) that slows with time [14]. As a consequence,
63 prolonged limitations in active and passive range of motion (ROM) and functionality can last for multiple years
64 [14]. Moreover, there is no evidence for complete recovery without supervised treatment [14], which is
65 contradictory with the "self-limiting"-theory. In addition, from a clinical point of view there is an incomplete

66 recovery in a subset of patients [9]: some patients maintain a slight painful and restricted shoulder (in terms of
67 mobility and functionality) after a certain treatment period [9, 11]. On the contrary, there is no sound evidence that
68 patients (who have slight functional limitations and pain) years after suffering from a FS, still seek medical
69 attendance. They are likely to adapt themselves to this situation.

70 The characteristic pain (also radiating to the upper arm) and gradual movement restriction of FS are consequences
71 of diffuse inflammation of the synovial membrane and a progressive fibrosing that leads to a contracture of the
72 total glenohumeral joint capsule within 1 to 9 months [15-17]. The loss of active and passive ROM applies to all
73 movement directions, but especially external rotation [3]. All these may lead to functional restrictions in work or
74 sport, sometimes for longer periods.

75 For clinical application it might be relevant to divide the FS into two stages: more pain than stiff and more stiff
76 than pain [18]. In this first stage, patients complain about pain in the deltoid region, which is also present at night.
77 In addition, there is an increase in loss of passive and active ROM [10, 19]. Around the capsule, inflammatory
78 changes can be seen with synovial hyperplasia and a subsynovial hypervascularity and neurogenesis [20]. In a
79 later stage there will be a decrease in pain, while the movement restriction remains and in the end active and
80 passive ROM will recover in a slow and sustained manner [10, 19]. During this phase, the inflammation disappears
81 gradually and tissue fibrosis occurs with a high number of fibroblasts within an extracellular matrix of densely
82 packed collagen [20]. Total disease duration varies between 1 and 3 years [9, 11, 12].

83 Especially in the beginning of the disease when the shoulder pain mimics other shoulder pathologies there appears
84 to be some misdiagnosis. This leads to unnecessary imaging, supplementary examinations, and accelerated
85 interventions [21]. In addition, incorrect and aggressive treatment techniques may be applied, having a negative
86 effect on the patients' complaints.

87 The purpose was to provide a short summary and update of the frozen shoulder diagnosis and conservative
88 treatment, corresponding with the irritability levels based on the FS guideline [3]. Additionally, clinically relevant
89 information regarding new treatment options and ongoing research will be discussed more thoroughly to provide
90 new insights for more accurate diagnosis in order to increase treatment efficiency.

91

92 **Search strategy**

93 PubMed, Web of Science and Cochrane Database of systematic reviews were searched for relevant studies
94 regarding diagnosis and conservative treatment of patients with frozen shoulder, additionally reference lists of
95 relevant studies were screened for additional studies. The following key words and a combination of them was

96 used: frozen shoulder, adhesive capsulitis, pathophysiology, diagnosis, tissue irritability, conservative treatment,
97 pharmacotherapy, physical therapy, corticosteroid injection, pain neuroscience education, patient education,
98 hyperglycemia, chronic low-grade inflammation, myofibroblasts and matrix metalloproteinases. Studies regarding
99 surgical interventions and neurologic secondary FS were excluded. The last update of the search was 17 August
100 2021.

101 The strength of the evidence was based on the conclusion of the included studies; no additional method was used
102 to determine the strength of the evidence.

103

104 **Diagnosis**

105 Diagnosis of FS in the early stage is difficult and mainly based on pattern recognition and clinical criteria.
106 Therefore, history, physical examination, and exclusion of other pathologies are crucial [3, 11, 22]. In this stage,
107 the diagnosis can easily be confused with several differential diagnosis, such as (osteo)arthritis, posterior
108 dislocation of the humeral head, subacromial shoulder pain with calcifying tendinitis in the resorption phase and
109 post-operative shoulder stiffness [22, 23]. Although there is no direct evidence that a trauma is a cause of FS, most
110 patients associate the start of FS with a previous every day or banal event. The diagnosis will become more obvious
111 from later stages, when the FS becomes more characterized by both the active and passive ROM restriction. For
112 the diagnosis of FS, the characteristic course described above together with a ROM restriction of at least 25% in
113 at least 2 movement planes and more than 50% in external rotation (arm in 0° of abduction) compared to the non-
114 involved side are used [3]. In addition, the complaints must be stable for at least 1 month or worsening [3].
115 Additionally, ‘rule in’ and ‘rule-out’ criteria (Table 1, translated with permission) can be used to prevent incorrect
116 diagnoses of FS [24]. Furthermore, imaging can be used to exclude other pathologies (e.g. osteoarthritis, posterior
117 dislocation) when suspected [3, 11, 21]. It seems that the coracohumeral ligament has a pivotal role in the
118 development of FS [20] and therefore there might be an important role for palpation in the diagnosis of FS [25].
119 Inflammation and fibrosis are seen in the rotator interval, including the coracohumeral ligament and a thickened
120 coracohumeral ligament was found with intra-operative visualization and various forms of imaging [17, 26, 27].
121 A thickened and tightened coracohumeral ligament results in an external rotation ROM restriction, which is a main
122 characteristic of FS [11, 27, 28]. The origin of the coracohumeral ligament is the base of the coracoid process
123 [17]. If palpation of the coracoid area results in a significant higher pain severity compared to the acromioclavicular
124 and anterolateral subacromial region the diagnosis FS might be more likely [25].

125

126 Tissue irritability

127 Originally, recognition of the different phases of FS was important to apply a suitable treatment plan [19]. This
128 was mainly done clinically based on the symptoms described in history taking and physical examination. However,
129 there is an alternative method available to determine a suitable treatment, based on the irritability level of the
130 patient's affected shoulder [3, 24, 29]. Irritability levels reflect the ability of the affected tissue to cope with
131 physical stress and theoretically relates to the degree of present inflammatory activity [3]. Three different levels
132 can be distinguished: high, moderate and low. The determination of the irritability levels is based on the
133 examination of the intensity of pain, presence of night pain, presence of pain in a movement trajectory and whether
134 there is a difference in active and passive ROM (Figure 1). Because the progress of FS runs in a continuum, there
135 is a possibility that not all the elements of a level are present, but elements of a higher or lower level are present
136 as well. The determination is then performed based on the dominant elements that are present. For example, a
137 patient indicates to have frequent night pain with a numeric pain rating scale (NPRS) of 5/10 and severe movement
138 restriction with moderate pain in all directions. Examination of this patient shows a larger passive than active ROM
139 (e.g. as a consequence of pain). In this case, we classify the patient as one with high irritability: moderate pain
140 level, but pain in all movement directions, night pain and a difference in passive and active ROM.

141

142 Treatment

143 The effect of different interventions is unclear, because various studies do not show a difference in disease duration
144 as a consequence of treatment [19]. It seems that we cannot influence the disease duration with treatment [30, 31].
145 Therefore, the aim of treatment of patients with FS focuses mainly on symptom reduction (like pain relief),
146 informing, explaining and restoring mobility and daily functions. Without adequate and appropriate management,
147 biomechanical changes might occur, resulting in altered limb use with muscle atrophy, osteopenia, and
148 tendinopathy as consequence [32]. In some studies, patients show a large increase in shoulder mobility and report
149 improvement in pain and function after the start of conservative treatment [33].

150 There is no superior conservative intervention, but a multidisciplinary approach (cooperation with e.g. general
151 practitioner or orthopedic surgeon) is preferred in patients with negative psychosocial factors [24] and has shown
152 to improve outcomes [34]. The treatment should be adjusted to the disease phase and tissue irritability level.
153 Conservative interventions that can be applied in the treatment of FS include patient education [35],
154 pharmacotherapy [19, 36, 37] and physical therapy [19, 36, 37].

155

156 *Patient education*

157 Based on moderate evidence, patient education is recommended [3] as one of the most important interventions.
 158 Informing the patient about the course of the FS seems to bring relief to the patient and will contribute to a gradual
 159 improvement in most patients [35]. By informing patients, recovery-inhibiting factors (e.g. detrimental stress,
 160 comorbidities, inappropriate posture and movement behavior) can be removed or prevented from occurring. To
 161 prevent the occurrence of negative illness beliefs and unnecessary stress and to guide patients towards an optimal
 162 recovery, they need answers to the following questions:

- 163 • *What is this pain and movement restriction (identity)?*

164 An explanation of the process of inflammation and fibrosis that occurs during the course of FS.

- 165 • *What causes this pain and movement restriction (cause)?*

166 The actual cause and what triggers the onset of FS is unknown, however, several risk factors are known
 167 to increase the probability of FS.

- 168 • *How long will this pain and movement restriction last (timeline)?*

169 Disease course varies between 1 and 3 years. In the early stage, pain will predominate, while in the later
 170 stage stiffness will predominate.

- 171 • *What can I (or a caregiver) do about this pain and movement restriction?*

172 Follow the guidelines regarding tissue irritability, education about the disease process, modify activities
 173 if necessary and stay generally active. In later stages manual and exercise, therapy can be applied.

- 174 • *What are the consequences (for my work and sport)?*

175 Especially in the early stage, work and sport will be restricted and can be resumed gradually when
 176 irritability decreases. However, there might be a possibility that high demand work or sport activities
 177 might not be resumed in few cases.

178 These questions are part of the common-sense model of Leventhal [38]. The answers (often implicitly) determine
 179 partly the physical behavior of the patient. By answering these questions, the patient gets clarity about the cause,
 180 prognosis and own role in recovery (with an emphasis on self-efficacy and if appropriate on behavioral change).

181 As a consequence, the patient will not develop negative illness beliefs and set treatment goals for self-management
 182 in consultation with healthcare professionals, such as physical therapists, more easily. It is important that all
 183 healthcare providers proclaim the same message to decrease detrimental and negative stress factors. Cooperation,
 184 communication and discussion with all the people who are part of the social environment of the patient and other
 185 healthcare professionals is therefore essential [35].

186 Another important factor in patient education is the evaluation of tissue response to interventions or activities,
187 which is different for each irritability level. In case of high irritability, no increase in pain or restricted function
188 will be allowed. It is recommended to allow a maximum of 4 hours of tissue response during moderate irritability
189 and a response is accepted up to a maximum of 24 hours during low irritability [24].

190

191 *Pharmacotherapy*

192 Medication applied in the treatment of FS are paracetamol, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and
193 corticosteroids.

194 The evidence for the use of *paracetamol* in patients with FS is *limited*, but useful when there are no co-morbidities
195 [39]. Paracetamol (or acetaminophen) works both peripherally and centrally [39]. Peripherally acetaminophen
196 inhibits cyclo-oxygenases (COXs) and herewith the synthesis of prostaglandins [40]. Prostaglandins are involved
197 in the processes of inflammation and pain. Centrally it is presumed that acetaminophen activates the periaqueductal
198 gray matter, which activates descending serotonergic and noradrenergic neurons. Consequently, these neurons
199 activate the rostral ventromedial medulla and dorsolateral pons respectively [39]. These areas are important for
200 controlling the balance between nociceptive inhibition and facilitation [39].

201 Like acetaminophen, oral *NSAIDs* have both peripheral and central effects [40]. They inhibit COXs and
202 prostaglandins as well and consequently mask its nociceptive effect [40]. NSAIDs might therefore be used for pain
203 relief as well, but the evidence is *limited* and they have no effect on the ROM [19]. Long-term and frequent use of
204 NSAIDs are associated with hip and knee osteoarthritis and a delay in tissue healing and cardiovascular events,
205 bleeds and renal dysfunction are reported as side effects [40]. *Steroids* oppose inflammation in several ways. One
206 of these ways is to inhibit action of nuclear factor kB and AP-1 protein; as a consequence, the upregulation of pro-
207 inflammatory molecules is inhibited [41]. *Oral steroids* provide quicker pain relief compared to placebo, but this
208 effect is not retained in the long term [19, 36, 37, 42]. Based on *strong evidence corticosteroid injections* (CSI)
209 are recommended in the early stage of FS, prior to the emergence of capsular contraction, they provide pain relief
210 and reduce inflammation [3, 18, 24, 43]. They have an inhibiting effect on the inflammatory response and impedes
211 the differentiation of fibroblasts into myofibroblasts [20]. Which is confirmed in a prospective clinical study [44].
212 Corticosteroid injections are more effective than placebo (mean difference (MD): -16.3 mm and -6.9 and -1.4
213 points (VAS)), but unfortunately do not change the long-term outcome [45-47]. Especially in the early phase of
214 FS CSI are more effective than physical therapy in decreasing pain [11, 18, 19, 36, 37, 42, 47], but in the long term
215 there is no difference between CSI and physical therapy [2, 47, 48]. For the ROM conflicting evidence of solely

216 CSI was found. One study found no effect of solely CSI [36], while other studies found only an effect in the short
217 term [47, 48]. Another meta-analysis found an improvement in passive abduction (MD: 12.78° and 11.95°), flexion
218 (MD: 13.80° and 12.07°) and external rotation (MD: 9.79° and 10.59°) in the short and long term with CSI
219 compared to placebo [45]. Furthermore, a combination of CSI and physical therapy resulted in an improvement of
220 ROM (MD: 4.6°) [36, 47] or greater improvements than either sole treatment [48]. A recent randomized controlled
221 trial showed that CSI combined with physical therapy was less effective than shockwave therapy combined with
222 physical therapy for flexion and abduction ROM and shoulder pain and disability in patients with both FS and DM
223 [49]. In addition, early CSI show greater improvement in pain and function than late CSI [50]. Regarding different
224 doses, conflicting evidence was found for the effectiveness on pain and ROM [18, 36, 51]. The same applies for
225 anatomical injection sites, where several reviews did not find a difference [18, 36, 42, 47, 48], while a recent meta-
226 analysis indicated differences in pain at 1 month, 2 months, and 3 months (weighted mean difference (WMD): 0.9,
227 0.8, and 1.1 respectively) favoring intra-articular site [52]. For ROM and function (Constant score) at 1 and 2
228 months, no difference was found between intra-articular and subacromial injections [52].

229 In addition to the positive effects of corticosteroids, there are some adverse effects as well. Adverse effects after a
230 single injection might be post-injection pain, subcutaneous atrophy, depigmentation, facial flushing, and menstrual
231 irregularities [51, 53]. In patients with DM there is found conflicting evidence regarding the increase in blood
232 glucose levels after a single injection [54, 55]. After multiple injections an increase in glycosylated hemoglobin
233 (HbA_{1c}) was found [49]. Possible complications of the prolonged use of corticosteroids are among others avascular
234 necrosis, infection, muscle soreness, fractures and pain increase after injection [56-58]. There is no difference in
235 adverse effects relative to injection site [52]. Furthermore, there are some contra-indications for the use of
236 corticosteroids, like infectious arthritis, anti-coagulation therapy and uncontrolled DM [59]. The application of
237 corticosteroids should therefore be carefully considered.

238

239 *Physical therapy*

240 Physical therapy is a commonly used intervention and recommended for FS [30]. It is mostly prescribed to treat
241 capsular contraction [19] and maintain and improve the active and passive ROM [2, 19, 60, 61], but it is
242 complementary to other interventions like pharmacotherapy [2]. Physical therapy results in early gain in ROM,
243 but there has been insufficient evidence to suggest that physical therapy alters the long term outcome [30]. In the
244 short term physical therapy is only more effective than no treatment and in the mid-term physical therapy combined
245 with intra-articular CSI is the most effective treatment [47]. Physical therapists choose their interventions guided

246 by the level of irritability of the shoulder joint. Some physical therapy guidelines for this treatment strategy are
247 available [3, 24], in which advice (such as patient education as described above) and interventions (such as manual
248 mobilizations, capsular stretching, and exercise therapy) are described.

249 When the FS is in the high irritability stage, passive mobilization and capsular stretching are counterproductive
250 (possibly due to activation of the inflammatory response) and adaptations of activities and pain relief are more
251 appropriate [11]. For pain relief in the short term, based on weak evidence, some physical therapy modalities are
252 recommended in this phase [3, 24, 43]. These modalities include low-level laser, electro-acupuncture, interferential
253 therapy, deep heat, and continuous passive motion. The most important pain relief in the initial phases is a result
254 of the fact that the patient is given a diagnosis, answers, explanation and therefore mental relief [38].

255 Several mobilization techniques are effective in the short and long term [36, 37] and based on weak [3, 24] and
256 strong [43] evidence these interventions are recommended for pain relief and increasing ROM and functions [3,
257 24]. Recently a meta-analysis did not show a difference in various mobilization techniques used [62]. They found
258 benefit of various mobilization techniques, either solely or in a treatment program compared to treatments without
259 mobilization for reducing pain (MD: 1.2 cm on the VAS) and improving ROM (MD: 20.1°-26.8°) and function
260 (MD: 13.9 with Constant Murley score) [62]. Contrary, another review indicates that uncertainty over clinically
261 important differences and no differences for certain outcomes challenges the certainty of any recommendations
262 about manual therapy in the management of FS [63]. Unfortunately, there is not enough evidence to provide
263 information about the ideal dose of mobilization.

264 Based on moderate [3, 24] and strong [43] evidence exercises are recommended for reducing pain, and improving
265 ROM and function. Regarding exercise therapy, various forms can be applied to patients with FS. Most exercises
266 aim to improve ROM and restore functional ability of the shoulder. However, the remaining of the kinetic chain,
267 like the elbow, lower arm, wrist, hand, fingers and spine needs attention [24]. The intensity of exercises should be
268 adapted according to the irritability of the affected shoulder, as mentioned earlier. Many different forms of
269 exercises are applied to patients with FS. Reported forms of exercise include Codman's pendulum exercise, active
270 and passive ROM exercises (stretching), pulley exercises, and proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation (PNF)
271 either supervised or unsupervised [64]. A (supervised) home exercise program in addition to other interventions is
272 recommended [63]. However, in the short term there is only little benefit of the exercise program on pain in
273 combination with a CSI (MD: -0.5 VAS points), while only an exercise program is more beneficial than no
274 treatment (MD: -1.4 VAS points) [47]. As part of this home exercise program, stretching of capsular tissue is an
275 ideal exercise to be part of such a program since, based on moderate evidence, they are recommended for the

276 treatment of patients with FS [3, 24]. The intensity of capsular stretching exercises should be determined by the
277 patient's irritability level, since stretching beyond painful limits results in poorer outcomes [3, 24]. In addition to
278 the patients irritability level the Total End Range Time (TERT) can be used to report the dose applied to the patient
279 and evaluate progression [65]. TERT is the total amount of time the joint is positioned at its end range and is
280 proportional to the increase in passive ROM [66]. The TERT can be calculated by multiplying the duration the
281 joint is held in the end position and the frequency [66]. The TERT should increase from moderate to low irritability
282 to elongate the capsular tissue [24]. To increase the compliance of patients to the exercise program one can send
283 mobile text messages, consequently the active ROM (MD: forward flexion: 2°; external rotation: 8.7°; internal
284 rotation: 9.2°) will increase due to the higher exercise compliance [67]. Another form of exercise which seems to
285 be effective for improving shoulder function, ROM, and pain relief is PNF [68]. PNF can be performed solely or
286 in combination with other interventions and both seem to be effective [33, 68]. In a systematic review total effect
287 sizes [95% confidence interval] of 0.59 [-0.12, 0.90], 0.41 [-0.02, 0.62], and -0.57 [-0.31, -0.87] for external
288 rotation and abduction ROM and pain respectively were found [68]. PNF techniques that were used are contract-
289 relax, hold-relax (with contract times of 5-10 seconds and relax times of 10-20 seconds), rhythmic initiation, and
290 repeated contractions with a number of repetitions varying between 3 and 20. The frequency of treatment ranged
291 from 2-5 times a week and the total treatment duration varied from 3-6 weeks, with a preference of 4 weeks. This
292 intervention can be performed in all irritability levels, because the aim is to enhance mobility, movement control
293 and joint coordination with various techniques [68]. Another study investigating proprioceptive training found that
294 additional proprioceptive exercises results in improved functional activity and pain more compared to treatment
295 without proprioceptive exercises [69]. Finally, an interesting mode of exercise therapy that seems to be effective
296 in the treatment of patients with a FS is mirror therapy. Mirror therapy aims to restore the congruence between
297 motor output and sensory output [70]. By creating a visual illusion in the form of increased ROM of the affected
298 extremity by performing movements of the unaffected extremity and using mirrors to make patients see the
299 reflection of their unaffected arm and make them realize that motor commands would not cause them pain. The
300 mirror possibly influences the long-term cortical reorganization of brain maps and in addition, it might modulate
301 current on-going pain in a certain area. Furthermore, there is evidence that visual feedback can reverse objective
302 signs such as inflammation [70]. Mirror therapy seems to be beneficial for patients with FS for improving pain
303 (VAS, MD: 1.5), function (University of California-Los Angeles score, MD: 6), ROM in flexion (MD: 24.1
304 (active) and 22.0 (passive)) and abduction (MD: 21.7 (active) and 19.1 (passive)) and physical role limitation (MD:
305 29.9) and emotional role limitation (MD: 20) of the 36-item Short Form Health Survey [71]. In this randomized

306 controlled trial, all patients received a standard physical therapy program (10 sessions about 60 minutes lasting)
307 including several modalities. After each session one group received exercises with the non-reflecting side of the
308 mirror, while the other group received the exercises with the reflecting side of the mirror. Exercises included active
309 flexion, abduction, internal, and external rotation in 2 stages. In the first stage only with the unaffected shoulder
310 and in the second stage with both shoulders [71].

311 Besides these specific and local exercises, general physical activity, like walking or cycling, is recommended for
312 general well-being [24], improving mood [72] and prevention of depression [72].

313 There is evidence for efficacy of above interventions, focusing on symptom reduction. However, a superior
314 intervention cannot be determined, because the comparison of the studies is difficult. Stages of FS are not always
315 clearly described or are not comparable across studies and there is a difference in follow-up time, which limits
316 comparison in the long term. Figure 1 shows the three irritability levels and an overview of recommended
317 interventions and Table 2 shows an overview of the strength of the different interventions discussed.

318

319 *Ongoing research*

320 Table 3 provides an overview of possible hypothesis regarding the pathophysiology and new interventions in
321 patients with FS. Possible hypotheses that might explain the pathophysiology of a FS can be found in biochemical
322 processes like chronic low-grade inflammation, hyperglycemia, and involvement of myofibroblasts and matrix
323 metalloproteinases (MMPs). A chronic state of low-grade inflammation might predispose to the development of
324 FS [20]. DM, thyroid disorders, and cardiovascular disorders are conditions associated with chronic inflammation
325 and might (at least partly) explain why DM and thyroid disorders are risk factors for FS [20, 73]. As a consequence
326 of this inflammation, proliferation, activation and differentiation of fibroblasts might take place and the collagen
327 synthesis might be dysregulated [20]. Persistent activation of fibroblasts enhances the inflammatory response and
328 is a potential mechanism of symptoms of prolonged stiffness [20]. In patients with FS a high population of
329 myofibroblasts in the rotator interval area of the capsule was found, these cells are characteristic for contractile
330 scar tissue [74]. However, differences in the number of myofibroblasts were found between studies, which prevents
331 making a strong conclusion [74]. The differences in number of myofibroblasts may be a consequence of a lack of
332 information regarding the phase of FS, duration of symptoms since onset or the way tissue samples were managed
333 during histology [74]. In the freezing phase a low number of myofibroblasts was found [74], a high number of
334 myofibroblasts in the inflammation phase could explain the adverse reaction to passive mobilization and capsular
335 stretching during high irritability. Myofibroblasts will contract harder when subjected to greater stress as occurs

336 with passive mobilization and capsular stretching. In addition, it might explain the almost normal passive ROM
337 under anesthesia in the inflammation phase as well. Further research is necessary to confirm this hypothesis.

338 In patients with FS a higher level of immunoreactivity of advanced glycation end products (AGEs) in the capsular
339 tissue was found compared to control groups [75]. Under normal circumstances, AGEs are a result of non-
340 enzymatic crosslinking of the collagen connective tissue in the shoulder joint capsule: there is an oxidative reaction
341 between glucose and Amadori-products [76]. There is found an age-related accumulation of AGEs in different
342 tissues and fluids and it is suggested that they rather act as a marker of the severity of various diseases developing
343 with age than solely a result of ageing [77]. Advanced glycation end products form crosslinks throughout the
344 collagen molecule, while normally crosslinks will only be formed on two discrete sites of the molecule [78]. It is
345 assumed that non-enzymatic crosslinking results in changes of the biomechanics (e.g. stiffness, flexibility) of
346 collagen tissue such as capsuloligamentary systems [76, 79]. In the process of hyperglycemia, when the level of
347 HbA_{1c} is elevated for a longer period, there is an accelerated level of non-enzymatic cross-link formation. This
348 results in elevated levels of AGEs and consequently this might result in an accelerated collagen crosslinking of the
349 connective tissue in the joint capsule [78-80]. The involvement of HbA_{1c} is confirmed by Chan et al. [81], who
350 found a correlation between accumulated HbA_{1c} and FS. Regarding the static, single measurement of HbA_{1c}, there
351 was not found a correlation with FS [81-83]. This can be explained by the fact that the measurement only provides
352 information about the last 3 months of the disease burden [84] and might not be long enough to establish the
353 correlation. This accumulated glycemic level might be another explanation for the higher prevalence of FS in
354 patients with DM.

355 It was found that AGEs also decrease the expression of MMPs and increase the tissue inhibitor metalloproteinases
356 (TIMPs) expression in diabetic nephropathy [85]. Another factor that is thought to affect the MMP/TIMP ratio is
357 transforming growth factor, a pro-inflammatory cytokine [73]. MMPs remodel the extracellular matrix and
358 pathologically attack substrates as part of an inflammatory response [86]. When the level of MMPs is decreased
359 (as a consequence of an imbalance between MMPs and TIMPs), degradation of extracellular matrix components
360 is decreased and might result in overflowing cross-links. In both patients with FS and DM, lower levels of MMPs
361 were found compared to controls [87-90]. The MMP/TIMP ratio can be restored by increasing the MMP level and
362 decreasing the TIMP level by intensive stretching [88]. The relationship between AGEs and MMPs could be
363 another explanation for the fact that FS is seen more often in patients with DM. In patients with cancer receiving
364 medication with MMP inhibitor (TIMP), it was found that 50% of the patients using this medication longer than 1

365 month developed a bilateral FS [91]. Furthermore, a FS was found as a complication in several patients with
366 malignant disease [92, 93] and this might be related to medication intake, resulting in changes of the MMP levels.

367

368 Regarding optimal treatment options for patients with FS, there are some new possible treatment options available.

369 These interventions proved to be effective in various disorders, but are not examined in patients with FS so far

370 [94, 95]. These interventions are more focused on tackling of the (partial) cause and may be used as well. From

371 other populations it is known there might be subgroups of patients [96-98], for example patients with central

372 sensitization or DM. Therefore, in these subgroups it might be useful to focus on treatment that is more focused

373 on (a part of) the cause. If these subgroups are present in patients with FS, the treatment should not only be directed

374 to the local complaints of the shoulder. Depending on the presence of the other factor, treatment could direct to

375 e.g. the central nervous system or the metabolic system. This might result in a more efficient treatment and more

376 patients might achieve a favorable outcome. For patients with dominant central nervous system involvement a

377 cognition-oriented approach, with pain neuroscience education and general activation, might be effective [99].

378 Although there is a lack of evidence for this approach in patients with FS, there is sufficient evidence in other

379 musculoskeletal complaints that applying pain neuroscience education, in which neurophysiology of acute and

380 chronic pain is explained, has positive effects on pain, functionality, psychosocial factors (including thoughts and

381 emotions), movement and medical costs [100]. In addition, general activating patients with chronic pain syndrome

382 like FS could activate central pain inhibiting mechanisms and consequently decrease pain [101-103]. Furthermore,

383 general exercises may lead to increased levels of MMP [104] and possibly result in improvement of shoulder

384 function.

385 In patients with a more metabolic issue, e.g. patients with DM, a form of high intensity interval training and

386 lifestyle changes might be effective in addition to the local treatment of FS. In patients with a metabolic disorder,

387 these interventions are found effective [105-107].

388

389 **Clinical message**

390 • Diagnosis of FS is based on clinical criteria and irritability levels are available for guiding interventions;

391 • Patient education, pharmacotherapy, manual therapy, and exercises are recommended in the various FS

392 stages;

393 • New possible interventions for FS are pain neuroscience education, lifestyle changes, and aerobic

394 training;

395

396 **Disclaimer:** no part of this review is copied or published elsewhere.

397

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Tables

Table 1 ‘rule-in’ and ‘rule-out’ criteria for diagnosing frozen shoulder (translated with permission from Vermeulen et al.[24])

<i>Rule in</i>	<i>Rule out</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age 40 to 60 year • Slow progression of increasing pain and stiffness • Pain and stiffness restrict sleep, daily activities and reaching • Glenohumeral ROM restricted in all directions, but most restricted into external rotation • Glenohumeral external and internal rotation decrease gradually with increasing abduction • Passive movements to the end position reproduce recognizable pain 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External rotation restricted largely with hard end feeling • Painful abduction restriction without restricted of external rotation • Glenohumeral external and internal rotation ROM increase gradually with increasing abduction • Significant trauma

Table 2 Interventions applied in patients with frozen shoulder with their strength of evidence

<i>Intervention</i>	<i>Strength of evidence</i>
Patient education	Moderate
Pharmacotherapy	
Paracetamol	Limited
NSAID	Limited
Corticosteroid injection	Strong
Physical therapy	
Physical therapy modalities	Weak
Mobilization	Weak/strong
Exercise therapy	Moderate/strong

NSAID: non-steroidal and anti-inflammatory drugs

Table 3 Possible hypothesis regarding the pathophysiology and possible new interventions for the treatment of patients with frozen shoulder

Possible hypothesis	
<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>explanation</i>
Chronic low-grade inflammation	DM & thyroid CV disorder associated with low-grade inflammation
Hyperglycemia	Accumulation of AGEs
MMP/TIMP ratio	Imbalance might result in overflowing cross-links
Possible new interventions	
<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Reason</i>
Cognition-oriented approach (General activation and pain neuroscience education)	Presence of central sensitization
High intensity interval training and lifestyle changes	Metabolic co-morbidity
DM: diabetes mellitus; CV: cardiovascular; AGEs: advanced glycation end products; MMP: matrix metalloproteinases; TIMP: tissue inhibitor metalloproteinases	

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Different phases of frozen shoulder in a continuum and characteristics and treatment options in the different irritability levels

Accepted Draft