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a cross-sectional analysis**

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1 **Pressure pain sensitivity in patients with traumatic first-time and recurrent**
2 **anterior shoulder dislocation: a cross-sectional analysis**

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11 Abstract 500 words.

12 Background and aims

13 Traumatic anterior shoulder dislocation (ASD) is frequent in active populations and
14 associated with a 39% higher risk of recurrent dislocations, which may cause persistent
15 shoulder problems, pain, and impaired shoulder-related quality of life. While local and distant
16 pressure pain sensitivity has been demonstrated in other shoulder conditions, little is known
17 about the link between pressure pain sensitivity and ASD. The interesting aspect is whether
18 recurrent dislocations – resulting in symptoms of longer duration - are associated with more
19 pronounced pressure pain sensitivity, or if presence of pressure pain sensitivity may be part
20 of the reasons why patients develop recurrent dislocations. Therefore, this study aimed at
21 evaluating whether patients with recurrent ASD display greater pressure pain sensitivity and
22 more painful body sites than patients with first-time ASD.

23 Methods

24 This was a cross-sectional analysis of baseline data from a randomized controlled trial
25 including 34 patients with first-time ASD (82% male, mean (SD) age 26 (7) years) and 22
26 patients with recurrent ASD (96% male, mean (SD) age 25 (5) years). Patients were assessed
27 as follows: (1) assessment of local and distant pressure pain sensitivity evaluated by pressure
28 pain thresholds (PPTs) using a handheld algometer on mm. trapezius superior, levator
29 scapula, pectorales major, deltoideus, and tibialis anterior, (2) pain intensity at rest during the

30 previous 24 h, (3) number of ASD, and (4) number of painful body sites on a region-divided
31 body chart.

32 Results

33 The PPTs were not significantly different between first-time and recurrent ASD (mean (SD)
34 kPa for m. trapezius superior 264(110) vs. 261(88), m. levator scapula 301(157) vs. 325(163),
35 m. pectorales major 234(163) vs. 269(130), m. deltoideus 290(166) vs. 352 (173), m. tibialis
36 anterior 420(202) vs. 449(184)), two-way ANCOVA, adjusted for sex and age, $F(4,263) =$
37 0.29 , $p = 0.88$. For both groups, the PPTs were lower at the shoulder sites than at m. tibialis
38 anterior (difference 117-184 kPa, 95% CI range 33 to 267). Females had lower PPTs than
39 males (difference -124 kPa, 95% CI -64 to -183). The number (SD) of painful body sites were
40 2.2 (1.9) for first-time ASD and 2.6 (5.4) for recurrent ASD, with no between-group
41 differences, one-way ANCOVA, adjusted for sex and age, $F(1, 52) = 0.24$, $p = 0.63$. There
42 was a strong correlation between PPTs at the shoulder and lower leg, $r = 0.84$, $p < 0.01$.

43 Conclusions

44 This study demonstrated no differences in local and distant pressure pain sensitivity or
45 number of painful body sites between patients with first-time and recurrent ASD. Females
46 had lower PPTs than males, and a strong correlation was found between PPTs at the shoulder
47 and lower leg.

48 Implications

49 Patients with first-time and recurrent ASD seem to have similar pressure pain sensitivity, but
50 lower PPTs compared to existing normative data, suggesting that it is relevant to evaluate the
51 status of the pain system in these patients to prevent triggering or worsening of their
52 symptoms. However, it remains unanswered how these changes affect the patients' ability to
53 undergo rehabilitation, symptom response and long-term shoulder function.

54 Keywords

55 Pain sensitization, pressure pain sensitivity, quantitative sensory testing – QST, pressure pain

56 threshold, number of painful body sites, anterior shoulder dislocation.

57

58 **Background and aims**

59 Traumatic anterior shoulder dislocation (ASD) is a frequent injury in active athletic
60 individuals and is associated with a 39% higher risk of recurrent dislocations [1]. Following
61 an ASD, patients display deficits in neuromuscular and proprioceptive systems as well as
62 impaired rotator cuff strength and shoulder control [2-4]. In worse cases, patients experience
63 persistent shoulder problems, chronic pain, and impaired shoulder-related quality of life [5].
64 These far-reaching impairments highlight why it is important to understand the
65 neurophysiological mechanisms and adaptations in the pain system following a traumatic
66 ASD.

67 Like in other musculoskeletal conditions initiated by tissue stress, patients with shoulder
68 problems experience varied levels of sensitization, which is a nervous system phenomenon
69 that can occur in conjunction with and influence the sensation of pain [6]. According to the
70 International Association for the Study of Pain (IASP) [7], sensitization is defined in animals
71 as *'Increased responsiveness of nociceptive neurons to their normal input, and/or recruitment*
72 *of a response to normally subthreshold inputs'*, and its severity is influenced by factors such
73 as intensity [8] and duration [9] of symptoms. For humans different proxies for assessing
74 heightened pain reactivity are used.

75 Sensitization can occur as peripheral sensitization locally at the injured body site or in the
76 central nervous system (central sensitization)[7]. Clinically, pain sensitization can be
77 estimated using quantitative sensory testing (QST), including pressure pain threshold (PPT),
78 which assesses local or distant pressure pain sensitivity, which are indirect evidence of
79 peripheral and central sensitization [10]. Relatively few studies have assessed pressure pain
80 sensitivity in individuals with shoulder pain [11-13], but current evidence supports the
81 presence of not only local pressure pain sensitivity in painful shoulder conditions including

82 those with subacromial pain but also distant pressure pain sensitivity in the form of lower
83 pain thresholds in distal healthy tissue [14-19].

84 Patients with traumatic ASD undergo an acute incident of severe tissue stress and tissue
85 damage in the shoulder region (e.g. Bankart lesion characterized by damage to the
86 anteroinferior part of the glenoid labrum and the capsule surrounding the joint), which may
87 trigger a local pressure pain sensitivity response. Previous research has suggested that tissue
88 stress could be just one factor initiating a transition of pain from local (acute) pressure pain
89 sensitivity to distant pressure pain sensitivity by activating various sensitization processes
90 [10] and increase the perception of pain [16, 19-21]. Little is known about local and distant
91 pressure pain sensitivity in patients with traumatic ASD, but a key element of recurrent
92 dislocations is sustained tissue stress and symptoms over long durations, which can
93 potentially be harmful and explain the development of chronic shoulder problems in these
94 patients [22].

95 The primary aim of this study was to compare PPTs at the shoulder (local pressure pain
96 sensitivity), PPTs at the lower leg (distant pressure pain sensitivity) and number of painful
97 body sites between patients with traumatic first-time and recurrent ASD.

98

99 **Methods**

100 *Study design*

101 This was a secondary analysis of cross-sectional data from a randomized controlled trial
102 (RCT) [23]. Reporting was conducted according to the STROBE guidelines for cross-
103 sectional studies[24]. All patients gave informed consent before being enrolled, the study was
104 conducted in accordance with the Helsinki declaration, it was approved by the local Ethics

105 Committee for the Region of Southern Denmark (project ID: S-20140093), and the
106 randomized controlled trial was registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT02371928).

107 *Patients*

108 In total, 56 patients were included in the study from three orthopaedic shoulder units in the
109 regions of Southern and Northern Denmark. As this was an explorative analysis of an RCT,
110 no sample size and power calculations were performed for the outcomes presented here.
111 Eligibility criteria were males and females aged 18-39 years with a traumatic ASD (first-time
112 or recurrent event, with a maximum of up to five anterior dislocations verified by patient
113 register and/or subjective evaluation). Furthermore, patients were required to have a
114 minimum of one radiological verified ASD and self-reported shoulder problems in the week
115 prior to assessment for inclusion, e.g. reduced ability to perform specific shoulder movements
116 during sports/leisure activity and/or work. Exclusion criteria included humeral fracture and/or
117 bony Bankart lesion warranting surgery, prior surgery in the affected shoulder, suspected
118 competing diagnosis (e.g. rheumatoid arthritis, cancer, neurological disorders, fibromyalgia,
119 schizophrenia, suicidal tendency, borderline personality disorder or obsessive compulsive
120 disorder), sensory and motor deficits in neck and shoulder, pregnancy, inability to write and
121 speak Danish.

122 *Procedures*

123 The following parameters were assessed in all patients: (1) assessment of pressure pain
124 sensitivity evaluated by PPTs at the shoulder (local pressure pain sensitivity) and the lower
125 leg (distant pressure pain sensitivity), (2) pain intensity at rest during the previous 24 hours,
126 (3) number of ASD, and. (4) number of painful body sites on a region-divided body chart [25,
127 26].

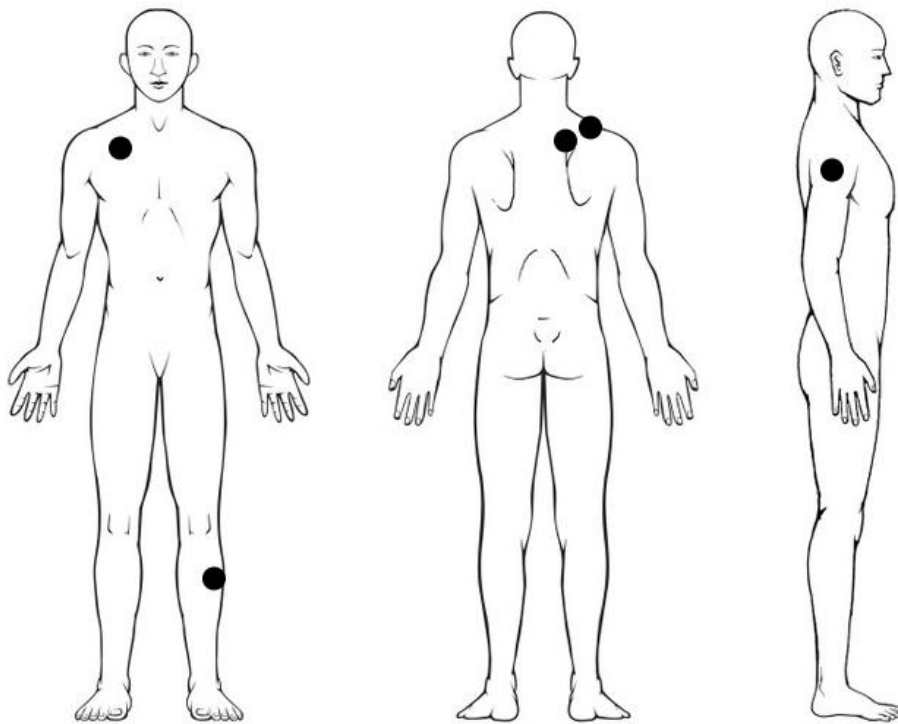
128 *Assessment of pain intensity, number of painful body sites and dislocations*

129 As part of a larger test battery, data was collected regarding anthropometry (height/weight),
130 pain intensity at rest within the latest 24 h using a Numeric Pain Rating Scale (NPRS; 0–10
131 score, 10 = worst imaginable pain), self-reported shoulder instability using the Western
132 Ontario Shoulder Instability Index (WOSI; 0-2100 better to worse), number of dislocations
133 registered as number of shoulder reductions treated in an orthopaedic unit, clinical test for
134 anterior shoulder instability using apprehension, relocation and surprise (yes/no) tests, and
135 number of painful body sites in which the patient shaded body sites with pain in the previous
136 24 h on a region-divided body chart (26 sites in total).

137 *Assessment of pressure pain sensitivity using PPT*

138 The PPTs were measured using a handheld algometer with a 1 cm² probe (Algometer Type
139 II; Somedic AB, Hoerby, Sweden), applied perpendicular to the skin at a constant rate of 30
140 kPa/s. Pressure was increased until the patient felt the pressure changed from a sense of
141 pressure to pain and pressed a button defining the PPT (rated in kPa/s). Before the actual test,
142 one or more test experiments were performed on the dorsal aspect of the hand until the
143 patient had understood the purpose of the experiment. The patient was informed that the test
144 was not about examining how much pain they could tolerate but finding the exact transition
145 from pressure to pain. Measurements at the shoulder sites were only performed in the
146 affected/injured side, and none of the patients had bilateral ASD. Exact measurement sites
147 were found with a tape measure and marked with a pen (Figure 1). Locations tested at the
148 shoulder (local pressure pain sensitivity) were m. *trapezius superior*, on top of the muscle
149 belly halfway between the spinoi of C7 and lateral border of acromion; m. *levator scapula*, 2
150 cm above the superior angle of the scapula (in line with fibers); m. *pec. major*, 5 cm below
151 the center of the clavicle halfway between the sternoclavicular joint and lateral border of
152 acromion; and m. *deltoideus* (middle part), 3 cm proximal to the distal humeral insertion. At
153 the lower leg (distant pressure pain sensitivity), m. *tibialis anterior* on the opposite side of the

154 affected shoulder was tested 5 cm distal to tuberositas tibia and on top of the muscle belly.
155 For m. trapezius superior, the patient was sitting erect on a couch with feet on the ground,
156 arms down, hands resting on thighs. For m. levator scapula, the patient was lying prone with
157 neck in neutral and both arms in neutral with the back of the hand resting on the couch. For
158 the three remaining muscles, the patient was lying supine with neck in neutral supported by a
159 pillow and arms resting in neutral. Both elbows were supported by a small towel to achieve
160 neutral position and avoid stretching pec. major and deltoideus, and with hands resting on the
161 anterior part of the hips.



162

163 Figure 1. Locations tested with pressure pain threshold at the shoulder (mm. trapezius superior, levator scapula,
164 pec. major, deltoideus) and the lower leg (m. tibialis anterior).

165

166

167

168

169 *Statistical analysis*

170 Patient characteristics were tested for normality and presented with descriptive statistics.
171 Continuous data was normally distributed (QQ-plots and histograms) and presented as means
172 (SD) and dichotomous data as frequency (%). To assess differences in demographics between
173 patients with first-time or recurrent ASD, and between sex for PPT, unpaired t-tests were
174 used. For dichotomous outcomes, 2-sided Fisher's exact test was applied.

175 To assess group differences in outcome measures, preliminary checks were conducted to
176 ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of
177 variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurement of the covariate. A
178 two-way ANCOVA was conducted to assess group differences in PPT with site (muscle
179 locations) and ASD status (first-time, recurrent) as factors, adjusting for sex and age. A one-
180 way ANCOVA was conducted to assess group differences in the number of painful body sites
181 with ASD (first-time, recurrent) as factor, adjusting for sex and age. Due to equal variance
182 but unequal sample size, Tukey–Kramer was used as a post hoc test in case of significant
183 ANCOVA factors or interactions.

184 Pearson's product-moment correlations were used to assess the relationship between shoulder
185 PPTs, lower leg PPTs, painful body sites, pain intensity, while correlations with the number
186 of dislocations was conducted using Spearman's rho. The strength of association was defined
187 as follows: $0.1 < |r| < 0.3$ small correlation, $0.3 < |r| < 0.5$ medium/moderate correlation,
188 and $|r| > 0.5$ large/strong correlation[27]. All statistical analyses were performed using
189 STATA (StataCorp, 2015, Stata Statistical Software: Release 15.1, College Station, TX:
190 StataCorp LP.), and p-values of less than 0.05 were considered significant.

191 **Results**

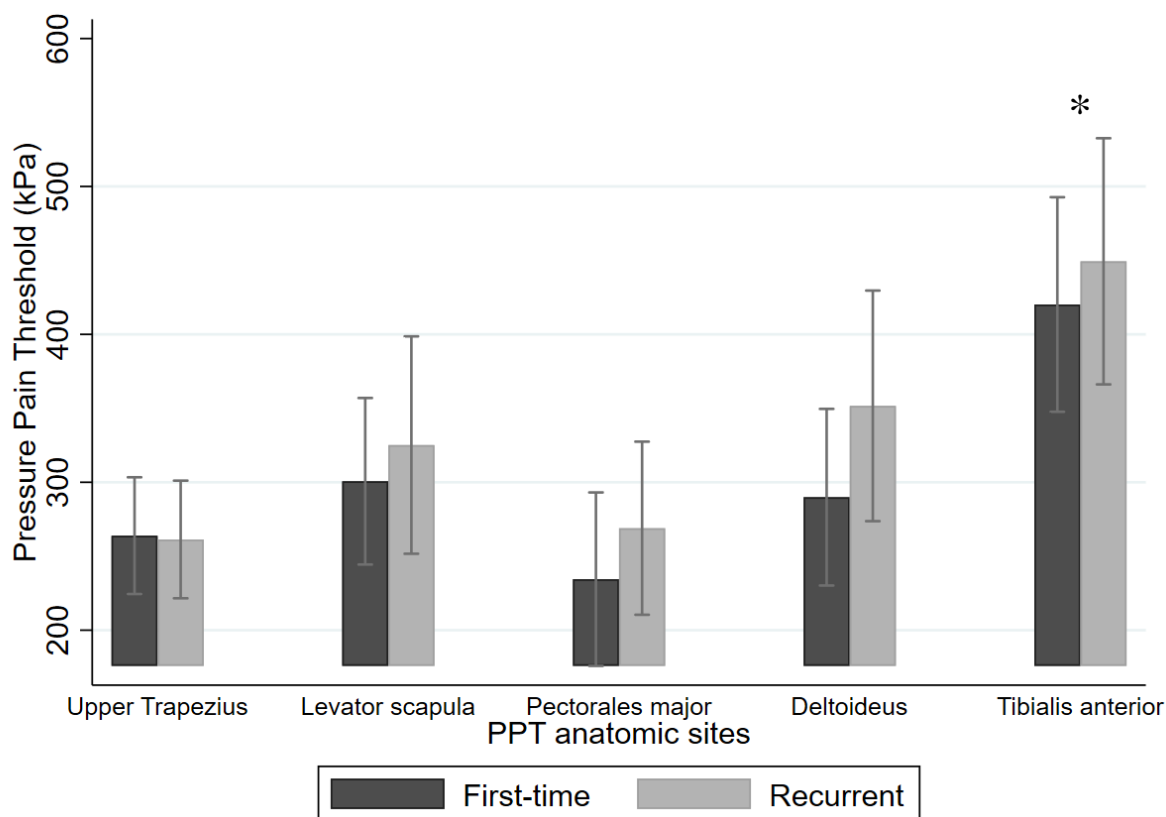
192 Characteristics of the patients in the two groups were similar (Table 1)[23]. The two-way
 193 ANCOVA demonstrated that PPTs were not different between first-time and recurrent ASD
 194 for any of the tested muscles, crude analysis , $F(4, 265) = 0.27, p = 0.90$, adjusted for sex and
 195 age, $F(4, 263) = 0.29, p = 0.88$ (Figure 2). For both groups, the PPTs were lower at all
 196 shoulder sites than at m. tibialis anterior (difference 117-184 kPa, 95% CI range 33 to 267),
 197 and females had lower PPTs than males (difference -124 kPa, 95% CI -64 to -183). The mean
 198 (SD) number of painful body sites were 2.2 (1.9) for first-time ASD and 2.6 (5.4) for
 199 recurrent ASD, with no between-group difference in the one-way ANCOVA, crude analysis,
 200 $F(1, 54) = 0.21, p = 0.65$, adjusted for sex and age ($F(1, 52) = 0.24, p = 0.63$) (Figure 3).
 201 There was a strong correlation between PPTs at the shoulder and lower leg, $r = 0.84, p < 0.01$
 202 (Table 2).

Table 1. Patient characteristics of patients with first-time and recurrent anterior shoulder dislocations.

	First-time dislocation (n = 34)	Recurrent dislocation (n = 22)	P-value
Age, mean years (SD)	26 (7)	25 (5)	0.56
Sex, male n (%)	28 (82)	21 (96)	0.84
Weight, mean kg (SD)	84.0 (19.8) ^a	82.4 (15.8)	0.75
Height, mean cm (SD)	178 (7.6) ^b	181 (8.6)	0.18
Analgesic medication (medically prescribed), n (%)	3 (9)	3 (14)	0.68
Number of shoulder reductions treated in an orthopaedic unit, n (%)			
Unknown, but more than 1	-	4 (18)	
1	34 (100)	-	
2	-	9 (41)	
3	-	5 (23)	
4	-	3 (14)	
5	-	1 (4)	
Mean pain intensity NPRS past 24 h (SD), 0-10	3.4 (2.1)	3.1 (2.2)	0.61
Positive anterior shoulder instability test n (%)			
Apprehension	34 (100)	20 (95) ^b	1.00
Relocation	31 (91)	15 (71) ^b	0.68
Release	28 (82)	17 (81) ^b	1.00
Mean WOSI overall score (SD), 0-2100	1064.0 (373.2)	1048.3 (371.5)	0.88
Mean Physical symptoms (SD), 0-1000	374.1 (183.5)	387.2 (191.2)	0.80
Mean Sports/recreation/work (SD), 0-400	239.5 (101.5)	230.7 (73.1)	0.73
Mean Lifestyle (SD), 0-400	236.7 (85.7)	220.9 (97.7)	0.53
Mean Emotions (SD), 0-300	213.6 (67.5)	209.5 (63.8)	0.82

NPRS= Numeric pain rating scale, WOSI=Western Ontario Shoulder Instability Index.

^aMissing data = 2; ^bMissing data = 1



203

Pressure Pain Threshold, mean kPa (SD)	First-time	Recurrent
Upper trapezius	263.9 (110.0)	261.3 (88.0)
Levator scapula	300.7 (156.8)	325.2 (162.7)
Pectorales major	234.5 (163.4)	268.9 (129.6)
Deltoideus	289.9 (166.3)	351.7 (172.5)
Tibialis anterior	420.2 (202.0)	449.4 (184.2)

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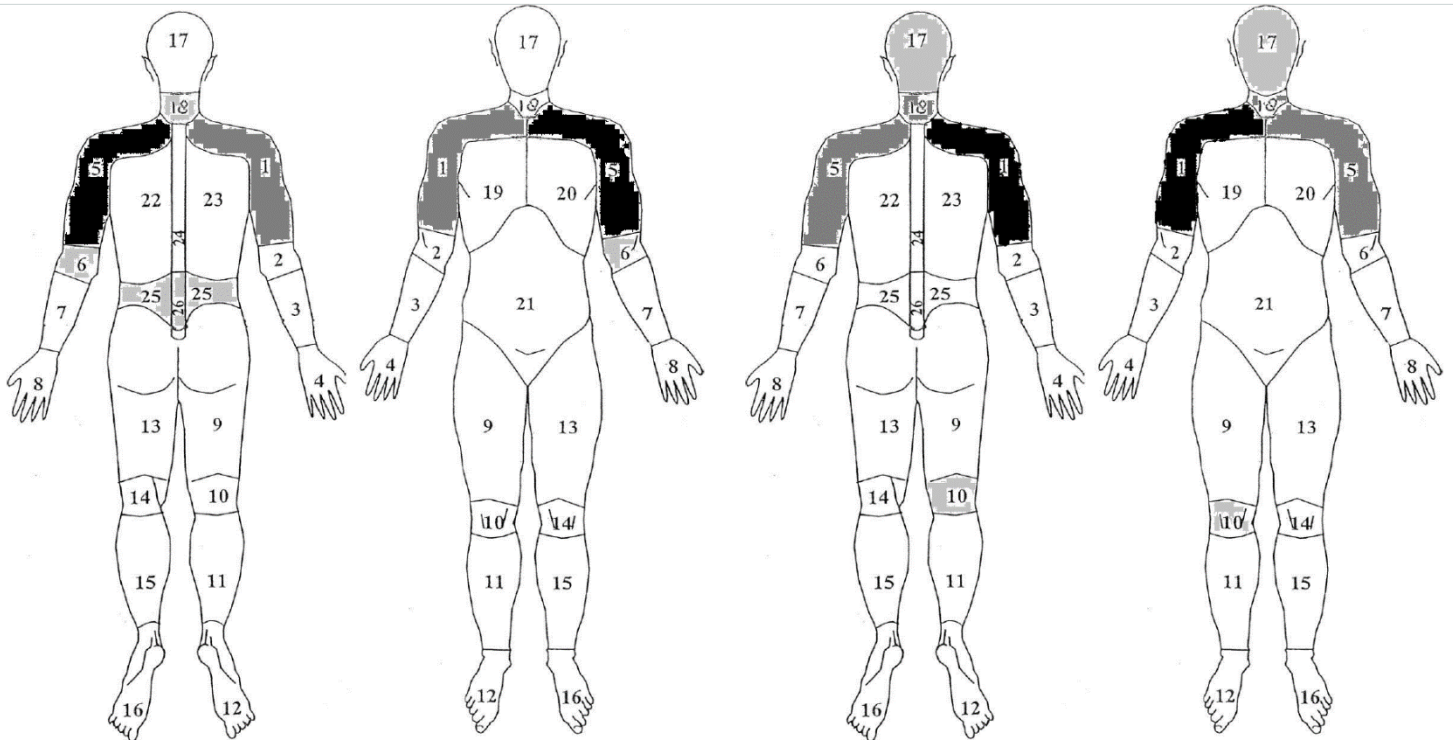
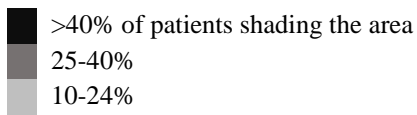
205 Figure 2. Pressure Pain Thresholds (PPT) (kPa) in patients with first-time anterior shoulder dislocation and
 206 recurrent dislocations at the shoulder sites mm. upper trapezius, levator scapula, pectorales major and deltoideus
 207 and at the lower leg site tibialis anterior.

208 * Significant difference between PPTs at the m. tibialis anterior and at the shoulder sites, $p < 0.05$.

Table 2. Correlation between shoulder pressure pain thresholds (PPTs), lower leg PPTs), pain intensity, number of painful body sites and number of dislocations for all patients. Pearson's product-moment correlations were used to assess the relationship between shoulder PPTs, lower leg PPTs, painful body sites, pain intensity, while correlations with the number of dislocations was conducted using Spearman's rho.

	PPT shoulder	PPT leg	Painful body sites	Pain Intensity	Number of dislocations
PPT shoulder					
PPT leg	0.84*				
<i>p-value</i>	<0.01				
Painful body sites	-0.10	0.04			
<i>p-value</i>	0.47	0.78			
Pain intensity	0.10	0.05	0.23		
<i>p-value</i>	0.48	0.71	0.09		
Number of dislocations	0.16	0.15	-0.04	-0.17	
<i>p-value</i>	0.23	0.27	0.77	0.22	

* Significance $p < 0.05$



A. First-time anterior shoulder dislocation

B. Recurrent anterior shoulder dislocation

212 Figure 3. Number of painful body sites (26 sites in total) in patients with traumatic first-time anterior shoulder
 213 dislocation (A) and recurrent dislocations (B), showing no group differences (one-way ANCOVA (site: first-
 214 time or recurrent), crude analysis, $F(1, 54) = 0.21, p = 0.65$, adjusted for sex and age ($F(1, 52) = 0.24, p =$
 215 0.629).

218 **Discussion**

219 The present study demonstrated no statistically significant differences in pressure pain
220 sensitivity at the shoulder or the lower leg or in number of painful body sites between patients
221 with first-time and recurrent traumatic ASD. Females had lower PPTs than males, and PPTs
222 at the shoulder and lower leg were strongly correlated.

223 The primary finding of interest is that patients with first-time or recurrent ASD seem to be
224 equally affected in pain sensitivity in response to pressure. Considering that patients with
225 recurrent dislocations have had symptoms for long durations, one would intuitively expect
226 that their pain system was more affected resulting in lower pressure pain sensitivity [22]. An
227 explanation for the lack of between group-difference could be that the changes in the pain
228 system in this population are more related to the acute inflammatory response [28] that occurs
229 just after the traumatic dislocation and settles after a short period of time (e.g. 5-7 days). This
230 would increase pain levels acutely regardless of the number of dislocations, since the acute
231 response to injury is hypothesized to be similar every time. This is partly supported by the
232 fact that patients from both groups in this cross-sectional analysis had similar high levels of
233 pain intensity, a known associate of sensitization and more painful body sites [20], and
234 comparable shoulder impairments, as reported previously [22]. Another important aspect to
235 consider is that although we included several relevant PPT sites at the shoulder, none of the
236 selected shoulder sites covered the rotator cuff muscles, which are of significant importance
237 in populations with joint instability such as anterior shoulder instability because of their
238 anatomic position near the joint and their functional importance for controlling the
239 compression and shear forces of the humeral head [29, 30]. Particularly the supraspinatus
240 muscle is densely populated with nociceptors that likely contribute to the generation of
241 sensitization [31], but also the muscles on the anterior side of the shoulder such as
242 subscapularis, biceps and anterior deltoideus are mechanically stressed following an ASD.

243 The reasons for not testing these muscles were because of the relatively large test-battery in
244 the RCT as well as using anatomic sites that seemed relevant for shoulder stability (scapular
245 and shoulder-joint near muscles) and PPT sites most commonly used for other shoulder
246 problems at that time' [14, 29, 30].

247 Unlike this patient-group suffering from traumatic ASD, studies have investigated pressure
248 pain sensitivity in patients with other shoulder in comparable age groups [12, 15, 16, 18].
249 Lower PPTs have been reported for subacromial impingement syndrome in 20-38-year-old
250 patients [16, 18] and shoulder pain in 18-52-year-old patients [15] compared to healthy
251 controls. The observed PPTs at the shoulder and lower leg from this study are generally
252 consistent with PPT levels demonstrated for similar shoulder sites and m. tibialis anterior for
253 those with subacromial impingement syndrome [16, 18]. Upper trapezius PPT is very often
254 used in studies investigating sensitivity levels before and after exercise bouts, and comparing
255 the PPT levels with previously reported values, PPT values obtained in this study seem to be
256 consistently lower than PPT levels in healthy young adults under 40 years [31-33]. The lower
257 PPT at m. tibialis anterior compared to normative data for healthy adults suggests that distant
258 pressure pain sensitivity is present and indicates the presence of central sensitization. These
259 observations suggest that pressure pain sensitivity in patients with ASD is an important
260 parameter to assess in relation to diagnosing the severity of symptoms and managing them in
261 a rehabilitation process, where the patients could respond poorly to treatment due to
262 worsening of their symptoms [19, 34]. Females were found to have lower PPT thresholds
263 than males, which is consistent with the results of most studies conducted on healthy and
264 symptomatic populations [35-37].

265 Pain at one anatomical site is often associated with pain at an adjacent site or the same site on
266 the other side of the body [38], which corresponds well with our data on patients with ASD,
267 who averagely had pain at more than two body sites. We found no significant differences in

268 the number of painful body sites between the two groups. However, it seems that more
269 patients in the first-time ASD group report symptoms in the elbow, which could be a sign of a
270 more extensive injury the first time the shoulder dislocates, while patients in the recurrent
271 group report more symptoms in the head.

272 *Strength and limitations*

273 Due to the exploratory nature of the analysis, the results must be interpreted with caution.
274 Firstly, it is important to acknowledge that since the sample size was determined based on the
275 primary RCT, the non-significant findings of this analysis could merely be a result of a type
276 II error. However, the reported differences were small, indicating that even with a larger
277 sample size any potential differences would not be clinically relevant. The current
278 measurements were performed only 3-6 weeks after the latest ASD, and precise symptom
279 duration was not collected. As such, we cannot rule out that the findings are explained by the
280 painful inflammatory process that follows after an acute traumatic injury. The data is also
281 limited, because PPT-measurement is just one factor when assessing sensitization in painful
282 conditions, where other measurements such as suprathreshold heat pain responses and
283 psychological factors such as fear-avoidance could provide useful knowledge about potential
284 changes and adaptations in the pain system. The strengths of the study are that the analysis
285 was built upon data from an RCT thereby strengthening the standardization of testing
286 procedures, and the fact that the data was collected in clinical practice with a clinically
287 applicable setup for measurement of PPT.

288 *Conclusion*

289 This study demonstrated no significant differences in local or distant pressure pain sensitivity
290 or number of painful body sites between patients with first-time and recurrent traumatic ASD.

291 Females had lower PPTs than males, and a strong correlation was found between PPTs in the
292 shoulder and at the lower leg.

293 *Implications*

294 Patients with first-time and recurrent ASD seem to have similar pressure pain sensitivity
295 with lower PPTs compared to existing normative data [16, 18, 31-33], suggesting that it is
296 relevant to understand and evaluate the status of the pain system in these patients to prevent
297 triggering or worsening their symptoms. However, it remains unanswered how these changes
298 affect the patients' ability to undergo rehabilitation, their symptom response and long-term
299 shoulder function.

300 **Authors' Statements**

301 *Research Funding*

302 This study received funding from the Region of Southern Denmark Research Fund, the
303 Danish Rheumatism Association, and Orthopaedic Research Unit, Aalborg University
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306 *Conflict of interest*

307 B Liaghat, H Eshoj, B Juul-Kristensen, and L Arendt-Nielsen have nothing to disclose. S.
308 Skou reports personal fees from Journal of Orthopaedic & Sports Physical Therapy, grants
309 from The Lundbeck Foundation, personal fees from Munksgaard, outside the submitted
310 work; and Being co-founder of GLA:D. GLA:D is a non-profit initiative hosted at University
311 of Southern Denmark aimed at implementing clinical guidelines for osteoarthritis in clinical
312 practice.

313

314 *Informed Consent*

315 All patients gave informed consent before being enrolled, and the study was conducted in
316 accordance with the Helsinki declaration.

317 *Ethical Approval*

318 The study was approved by the local Ethics Committee for the Region of Southern Denmark
319 (project ID: S-20140093).

320 **Keywords**

321 Pain sensitization, pressure pain sensitivity, quantitative sensory testing – QST, pressure pain
322 threshold, number of painful body sites, anterior shoulder dislocation.

323

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