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Thermal hyperalgesia distinguishes those with severe pain and disability in unilateral lateral epicondylalgia --Manuscript Draft--

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Corresponding Author:	Bill Vicenzino, Ph.D University of Queensland Brisbane, QLD AUSTRALIA
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	University of Queensland
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Brooke K Coombes, B.Phty, M.Phty
First Author Secondary Information:	
All Authors:	Brooke K Coombes, B.Phty, M.Phty Leanne Bisset, PhD Bill Vicenzino, Ph.D
All Authors Secondary Information:	
Abstract:	<p>Objectives To evaluate if sensory, motor and psychological factors are different in severe lateral epicondylalgia compared to less severe cases and control.</p> <p>Methods 164 patients with unilateral lateral epicondylalgia and 62 healthy control participants of comparable age and sex underwent the following testing: quantitative sensory testing (pressure, thermal pain thresholds), pain-free grip, quality of life (EuroQol) and psychological (HADS, Tampa). Cluster analysis classified patients into mild, moderate or severe subgroups using the Patient Rated Tennis Elbow Evaluation (PRTEE). Data were then evaluated to determine differences between control and lateral epicondylalgia subgroups.</p> <p>Results Bilateral cold hyperalgesia (affected elbow, standardised mean difference (SMD): 1.14, P=0.000; unaffected elbow SMD: 0.94, P=0.000) and unilateral heat hyperalgesia (SMD -1.06, P=0.001) were evident in severe lateral epicondylalgia in comparison to healthy controls. All patient groups regardless of severity demonstrated bilateral and widespread mechanical hyperalgesia relative to controls (P<0.003), however only those with moderate and severe symptoms showed large differences (SMD>0.8) at all sites. Quality of life was significantly poorer in patients with severe symptoms, while anxiety, depression and kinesiophobia did not differ between subgroups.</p> <p>Discussion Lateral epicondylalgia patients presenting with severe pain and disability could be distinguished by hypersensitivity to thermal stimuli, notably bilateral cold hyperalgesia. Findings might implicate a combination of central, peripheral and sympathetic nervous system processes and may help explain the poorer outcomes found in this subpopulation.</p>

1 **Thermal hyperalgesia distinguishes those with severe pain and disability in unilateral**
2 **lateral epicondylalgia**

3

4 Brooke K Coombes¹, Dr Leanne Bisset^{2,3}, Professor Bill Vicenzino^{1*}

5

6 ¹ Division of Physiotherapy, School of Health and Rehabilitation Sciences, The University of
7 Queensland, Brisbane Australia

8 ² School of Physiotherapy and Exercise Science, Griffith University, Gold Coast Australia

9 ³ Gold Coast Health Services District, Gold Coast Australia

10

11 * Corresponding author

12

13 **Address for correspondence/reprints:**

14 Bill Vicenzino

15 School of Health and Rehabilitation Sciences: Physiotherapy

16 The University of Queensland, Building 84A, St Lucia QLD 4072

17 Phone: + 617 3365 2781 Fax: + 617 3365 1622 Email: b.vicenzino@uq.edu.au

18

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22 None

23

24

25

26 **Abstract**

27 **Objectives** To evaluate if sensory, motor and psychological factors are different in severe
28 lateral epicondylalgia compared to less severe cases and control.

29 **Methods** 164 patients with unilateral lateral epicondylalgia and 62 healthy control
30 participants of comparable age and sex underwent the following testing: quantitative sensory
31 testing (pressure, thermal pain thresholds), pain-free grip, quality of life (EuroQol) and
32 psychological (HADS, Tampa). Cluster analysis classified patients into mild, moderate or
33 severe subgroups using the Patient Rated Tennis Elbow Evaluation (PRTEE). Data were then
34 evaluated to determine differences between control and lateral epicondylalgia subgroups.

35 **Results** Bilateral cold hyperalgesia (affected elbow, standardised mean difference (SMD):
36 1.14, P=0.000; unaffected elbow SMD: 0.94, P=0.000) and unilateral heat hyperalgesia
37 (SMD -1.06, P=0.001) were evident in severe lateral epicondylalgia in comparison to healthy
38 controls. All patient groups regardless of severity demonstrated bilateral and widespread
39 mechanical hyperalgesia relative to controls (P<0.003), however only those with moderate
40 and severe symptoms showed large differences (SMD>0.8) at all sites. Quality of life was
41 significantly poorer in patients with severe symptoms, while anxiety, depression and
42 kinesiophobia did not differ between subgroups.

43 **Discussion** Lateral epicondylalgia patients presenting with severe pain and disability could
44 be distinguished by hypersensitivity to thermal stimuli, notably bilateral cold hyperalgesia.
45 Findings may implicate a combination of central, peripheral and sympathetic nervous system
46 processes and may help explain the poorer outcomes found in this subpopulation.

47 **Keywords / Phrases:** tennis elbow, hyperalgesia, depression, quality of life, kinesiophobia.

48

49 **Introduction**

50 Lateral epicondylalgia (LE) or tennis elbow affects up to 3% of the population with peak
51 incidence occurring between 40-50 years of age.^{1,2} For the majority of sufferers, LE is self-
52 limiting, with an average duration of a typical episode between six months and two years.³
53 However, in two recent randomised controlled trials, 10 and 17% of people adopting a wait-
54 and-see policy failed to report successful outcomes after one year.^{4,5} Furthermore, it has been
55 estimated that between 5 and 10% of patients develop chronic symptoms and eventually
56 undergo surgery.^{6,7} High pain and disability at baseline is one of the few consistently
57 reported indicators of poorer long term outcome after conservative^{3,8,9} and surgical treatment
58 of LE.¹⁰ For this reason, it might be valuable to identify other features that differentiate those
59 individuals with higher pain and disability from those with lesser symptoms.

60

61 The relative simplicity of the clinical presentation of LE belies the complexity of its
62 underlying aetiological processes. The mechanisms of pain and disability are likely
63 multifactorial, involving an interaction of local tendon pathophysiological changes, motor
64 impairment, nociceptive system mechanisms¹¹ and possibly psychological factors.¹² Motor
65 impairment is widespread in the affected upper limb, {Alizadehkhayat, 2007 #17} {Coombes,
66 2011 #1344} with consistent evidence of markedly reduced pain-free grip strength being the
67 strongest feature.^{24,25} Nociceptive system impairments in LE as measured through
68 quantitative sensory testing have identified sensory alterations, but little is known about the
69 distinct patterns of these changes in those who have high levels of pain and disability. A
70 number of studies have shown that bilateral mechanical hyperalgesia exists in LE,¹³⁻¹⁵ while a
71 nascent body of research has explored thermal hyperalgesia.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ Recently Ruiz-Ruiz et al¹⁶
72 reported bilateral thermal hyperalgesia in a group of 16 LE participants, whereas other
73 authors¹⁹ have previously proposed that a subgroup of patients with severe LE exhibit cold

74 hyperalgesia. Cold hyperalgesia is emerging as an important factor in other musculoskeletal
75 disorders such as whiplash associated disorders, with evidence that it can differentiate
76 subgroups and help predict poor recovery over and above that of baseline pain and
77 disability.^{20,21} In addition, Hoge et al identified bilateral cold and heat hyperalgesia in acute
78 complex regional pain syndrome (CRPS), and incomplete recovery of cold pain thresholds in
79 chronic CRPS in comparison to healthy controls.²² There is a growing interest in possible
80 psychological factors being associated with chronic musculoskeletal conditions, for example,
81 fear avoidance has been implicated.²³ Preliminary evidence of higher levels of depression and
82 anxiety, which was correlated with pain and disability, has been identified in a small study of
83 LE (n=16), prompting a need for further evaluation of psychological factors in LE.

84

85 The aim of this cross-sectional study was to identify whether sensory, motor and
86 psychological factors can distinguish the subgroup of LE patients with higher pain and
87 disability from those with lesser symptoms and a healthy control population. Comprehensive
88 analysis might provide novel insights into the pathophysiology of the disease and
89 mechanisms underlying delayed recovery found in patients with high baseline pain.

90

91

92 **Methods**

93

94 **Patients and control participants**

95

96 165 participants with LE meeting the following criteria for a randomised controlled trial²⁶
97 were recruited: unilateral elbow pain over the lateral epicondyle for longer than six weeks
98 and aggravated by a combination of palpation, gripping and resisted wrist and/or finger

99 extension. Participants were excluded if they had other upper limb conditions, such as,
100 cervicogenic, radiohumeral or neurological, or experienced recent fractures, corticosteroid
101 injection or physiotherapy treatment. 62 healthy participants between 35 and 70, with no
102 history of LE were recruited such that the control group had a similar proportion of males and
103 females to the overall LE population. Participants were excluded if they experienced
104 concomitant neck or other arm pain that prevented participation in their usual work or
105 recreational activities or necessitated treatment within the past six months. All participants
106 were recruited from the general community through media advertisements. Ethical approval
107 was granted by the institutional review board and informed written consent was obtained
108 from all participants.

109

110

111 **Measures**

112

113 *Pressure pain threshold*

114 Pressure pain thresholds (PPT) were measured using a digital algometer (Somedic AB,
115 Farsta, Sweden) with probe size of 1cm², applied at a rate of 40 kPa/s until the first sensation
116 of pain was perceived. PPT were measured bilaterally at the lateral epicondyle and C6-C7
117 facet joints and over the left tibialis anterior muscle. These sites have been previously
118 evaluated in LE, demonstrating substantial intra-rater repeatability (ICC>0.89).²⁷

119

120 *Thermal pain thresholds*

121 Heat (HPT) and cold (CPT) pain thresholds were measured bilaterally over the lateral elbow
122 using the Thermotest system (Somedic AB, Farsta, Sweden).¹⁷ Previous studies have
123 confirmed the reliability of these measures (ICC>0.86).¹⁵ From a baseline temperature of

124 30°C, the thermode was increased or decreased at a rate of 1°C/s until the first sensation of
125 pain was perceived, or until maximum and minimum cut-out temperatures of 50°C and 5°C
126 were reached.

127

128 *Pain-free grip*

129 Pain-free grip (PFG) is well established as a highly reliable (ICC>.97) and convenient
130 clinical assessment tool, which correlates more strongly with disability and perceived
131 improvement than maximal grip strength in LE populations.²⁸⁻³⁰ It was measured using a
132 digital grip dynamometer with variable handle position (MIE, Medical Research, UK). The
133 participant was positioned in supine with the tested elbow in relaxed extension and forearm in
134 pronation, such that the palm of the hand faced down on the plinth.²⁶ They were instructed to
135 squeeze the dynamometer handle at a consistent rate and to stop the instant pain was
136 experienced.

137

138 *Pain, disability and quality of life*

139 The patient rated tennis elbow evaluation (PRTEE) was used to quantify pain and functional
140 disability in LE.³¹ The PRTEE has been validated in a MRI-confirmed LE population and
141 demonstrated good reliability and sensitivity to change.³¹ Responses were scored on 11-point
142 Likert scales with pain and disability subscales contributing equally to the total score, ranging
143 from 0 (no pain or functional disability) to 100 (worst imaginable pain with a very significant
144 functional disability).³¹ Participants were asked to rate the level of pain currently experienced
145 at rest and the worst level of pain experienced during the past week on 100mm visual
146 analogue scales (VAS) with the following endpoints: no pain (0mm) and worst pain
147 imaginable pain (100mm). Their level of function during the past week was also rated on a

148 100mm VAS with endpoints: no function (0mm) and full function (100mm). Substantial test-
149 retest reliability has been demonstrated for these two VAS measures (ICC 0.89, 0.85).³²

150

151 The EuroQol EQ-5D instrument was used to measure health-related quality of life.³³

152 Responses to five questions regarding different health dimensions were used to generate an
153 index, ranging from 0 to 1, with 1 representing perfect health, by applying predefined scoring
154 weights.³⁴

155

156 *Psychological factors*

157 The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) was measured in all participants to
158 quantify the two most common forms of psychological disturbances - anxiety and
159 depression.³⁵ It comprised questions rated on four point scales, with anxiety and depression
160 subscales contributing equally to the total score, ranging from 0 to 42, with greater scores
161 indicating greater anxiety and depression. The degree of kinesiophobia, also known as fear of
162 movement or injury,³⁶ was assessed in the LE participants with the shortened Tampa Scale
163 for Kinesiophobia (TSK-11). Each of the 11 items were scored on four point Likert scales
164 giving a total score ranging from 11 to 44, with higher scores indicating greater
165 kinesiophobia.

166

167 **Procedure**

168

169 Following completion of relevant questionnaires, testing was performed in the following
170 sequence: PFG, PPT, HPT, CPT. The same examiner (BKC) performed all tests, without
171 knowledge of PRTEE total scores or clustering. Tests were performed in triplicate starting on
172 the unaffected or left side in LE or control participants respectively, with twenty second

173 intervals. Mean values were used in analyses. In order to determine the reliability of
174 quantitative sensory testing, they were measured twice in the first 46 participants with LE,
175 separated by a one week interval in which their condition was assumed to be stable.

176

177

178 **Statistical analysis**

179

180 Cluster analysis (based on the K-means algorithm) of the PRTEE scores was performed using
181 SPSS 19 (IBM, Somers, New York, USA) to classify LE participants into three subgroups.

182 This procedure, previously used in studies of other musculoskeletal conditions (e.g., whiplash
183 associated disorders³⁷) attempts to identify homogenous groups of cases based on selected

184 characteristics. Following the formation of clusters, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was

185 performed for each continuous outcome in order to compare the three LE groups and the

186 control group. To account for any potential influence of hand dominance, the control group

187 was randomly allocated a “matched affected arm” with an equivalent proportion of dominant

188 sided arms as that observed in the LE group.^{38,39} *Sex* (between-subject) and *Side* (within-

189 subject) factors were included in the ANOVA model along with *Group* (between-subject).

190 Where significant side by group interactions were present, follow-up univariate ANOVA was

191 performed separately for affected and unaffected sides. Pairwise comparisons of interest

192 (simple effects) were followed up with Bonferroni post-hoc tests. Significance was

193 nominated a-priori at $P < 0.01$. To enable comparison of effect sizes, standardised mean

194 differences (SMD) were calculated by dividing mean differences (MD) relative to the control

195 group (extracted from SPSS) by the pooled standard deviation (SD). SMD scores greater

196 than 0.8 were interpreted as a strong effect.⁴⁰ Categorical outcomes were compared between

197 groups using Chi-squared analysis. Intra-class correlation coefficients (ICC) and their 95%

198 confidence intervals (CI) were calculated using an ICC(3,1) model as a measure of test-retest
199 reliability.

200

201 **Results**

202 Analysis was performed using data from 62 healthy controls and 164/165 patients with LE,
203 owing to one missing PRTEE questionnaire. Cluster analysis identified three subgroups
204 within the LE population based on total PRTEE scores (Figure 1). The clusters, referred to
205 herein as mild, moderate and severe LE, showed an expected incremental increase in mean
206 total PRTEE, supported by a similar increase in worst/resting pain and decrease in function as
207 measured using VAS ($P < 0.01$). Injury duration was not found to differ between LE
208 subgroups, with the average duration being 25 weeks (range six weeks to four years). Levels
209 of anxiety, depression and kinesiophobia were also not significantly different between LE
210 subgroups. No other demographic differences were found between LE and control groups,
211 including gender, age, body mass index, manual occupation or participation in sports
212 involving gripping.

213 The severe LE cluster contained the smallest number of patients ($n=27$), of which 59.3%
214 were female. These patients were characterised by substantial worst pain levels (mean \pm SD:
215 78.1 ± 16.2) and notable resting pain levels ($21.8\text{mm} \pm 12.5\text{mm}$). Their health-related quality
216 of life (0.59 ± 0.16) was significantly poorer, and the majority (66.7%) reported sleep
217 disturbances due to their elbow condition. The mild LE cluster ($n=53$) contained a smaller
218 proportion (28.3%) of females and was characterised by moderate worst pain levels ($50.6 \pm$
219 18.2), minimal pain at rest ($6.5 \pm 13.8\text{mm}$), higher quality of life (0.77 ± 0.15) and lower
220 prevalence (32.1%) of sleep disturbance, though the latter was not statistically different to the
221 severe group ($P = 0.011$). The moderate LE cluster comprised the largest number of patients

222 (n=84), displaying intermediary characteristics for pain, quality of life and other clinical
223 variables (Table 1).

224 Substantial test-retest reliability ($ICC > 0.80$)⁴¹ was found for all quantitative sensory measures
225 over a one week period (PPT elbow 0.80, PPT neck 0.84, PPT tibia 0.83, HPT 0.86, CPT
226 0.84). Moderate (ICC 0.79) and substantial (ICC 0.89) reliability was found for PFG testing
227 of the affected and unaffected arms respectively.

228 *Thermal pain threshold*

229 Analysis of pain thresholds to cold stimuli revealed significant main effects for both side
230 ($P < 0.001$) and group ($P = 0.002$) but no interaction effect ($P = 0.195$) (Figure 2). Post hoc
231 analysis revealed only the severe LE group demonstrated significantly reduced thresholds to
232 cold pain compared to controls, evident at both the affected (MD 6.7°C, 99% CI 1.6 to
233 11.8°C, $P < 0.001$, SMD 1.14) and unaffected elbow (MD 4.4°C, 99% CI 0.3 to 8.5°C,
234 $P = 0.004$, SMD 0.94).

235 Pain thresholds to heat stimuli demonstrated a significant interaction between side and group
236 ($P = 0.005$). No differences were found for the unaffected elbow between controls and any of
237 the LE groups ($P = 0.172$). In contrast, significant differences were found between groups for
238 the affected elbow ($P = 0.004$) (Figure 2). Post-hoc analysis revealed only the severe LE group
239 demonstrated significantly lower HPT on the affected side in comparison to controls (MD -
240 3.0°C, 99% CI -0.5 to -5.5°C, SMD -1.06).

241 *Pressure pain threshold*

242 A significant interaction between side and group was found for PPT at the elbow ($P < 0.001$).
243 All three LE groups demonstrated significantly lower thresholds in comparison to controls
244 ($P < 0.01$), with differences being greater on the affected (MD -251.5KPa, 99% CI -302.1,-

245 200.8, SMD -1.92, $P < 0.001$) than unaffected elbow (MD -131.4kPa, 99% CI -184.0,-78.8,
246 SMD -0.97, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 3). In the affected arm, progressively lower thresholds were
247 seen with increasing pain and disability, with the differences between the severe and mild LE
248 subgroups being statistically significant ($P = 0.005$). PPT at the neck was significantly lower
249 than controls, for all LE groups (MD -114.4kPa, 99% CI -163.8,-64.9, SMD -0.90, $P < 0.001$).
250 Similarly, PPT at the remote tibial site was significantly lower than controls for all LE groups
251 (MD -102.6kPa, 99% CI -158.1,-47.1, SMD -0.84, $P < 0.001$). There were no differences
252 between mild, moderate and severe LE groups for PPT at either the neck or tibia

253 *Pain-free grip*

254 A significant three-way interaction between side, group and gender was evident for PFG
255 ($P < 0.001$). The affected arm of all three LE groups was significantly weaker than controls
256 ($P < 0.001$) (Figure 4). Differences were significantly ($P < 0.001$) greater in males (MD -303N,
257 99% CI -334.3,-271.7, SMD -5.00) than females (MD -177.1N, 99% CI -198.9,-155.4, SMD
258 -4.85), but proportionally (MD/control mean) they were similar (males 75.6% and females
259 73.4%), which is largely a function of greater normal strength in males.⁴² Analysis of the
260 unaffected arm, revealed no differences between controls and any of the LE groups for either
261 gender.

262 **Discussion**

263 LE patients could be clustered into subgroups according to self-rated levels of pain and
264 disability, supported by incremental differences in corresponding pain and function VAS
265 measures. This study is the first to show that the presence of thermal hyperalgesia in
266 comparison to healthy controls is a distinguishing feature in LE patients with severe pain and
267 disability. Specifically, hyperalgesia to both hot and cold were demonstrated at the affected
268 elbow, while cold hyperalgesia was also evident at the unaffected elbow. Previous

269 investigation of the thermal sensory profile of LE has revealed inconsistent findings, ranging
270 from bilateral deficits in HPT,¹⁶ to no differences in HPT,^{17,43} or reduction of HPT in the area
271 of pain referral.¹⁸ Elevated CPT was found in patients with unilateral LE compared to the
272 unaffected arm¹⁷ and to healthy controls,^{15,16} however only in the most recent study by Ruiz-
273 Ruiz et al were the differences statistically significant. It is highly likely that these studies
274 were either underpowered (the largest number of LE patients examined was 16) or did not
275 comprise sufficient numbers of patients with severe LE. Our findings confirm the suspicions
276 of Smith and colleagues that cold hyperalgesia exists in a subgroup of patients with LE.¹⁹

277

278 The presence of thermal hyperalgesia in severe cases of LE might provide an insight into the
279 possible underlying neurophysiological basis of a condition understood to be musculoskeletal
280 in nature. That cold hyperalgesia was bilaterally present in severe cases of unilateral LE lends
281 support to a central mechanism being involved in these cases.^{13-15,44} Interestingly, there are
282 similarities with CRPS 1 of the upper limb, where cold hyperalgesia has been associated with
283 both peripheral sensitisation of C-fibres and central disinhibition of nociceptive pathways
284 secondary to A-delta fibre degeneration.²² Others¹⁹ have proposed that cold hyperalgesia in
285 LE may be dependent upon a sympathetic noradrenergic mechanism, based on their findings
286 of selective improvement in CPT following guanethedine but not a control block in LE
287 patients. They postulated that the presence of cold hyperalgesia may be a useful clinical
288 indicator of the likely benefit of a sympathetic block, however this requires further research.
289 It is becoming clear that to reconcile such findings from different studies requires further
290 research.

291

292 Apart from the likely central implications of bilateral cold hyperalgesia, the finding of heat
293 hyperalgesia further adds to our understanding of the local neurophysiological mechanisms in

294 LE. Heat hyperalgesia has been linked with peripheral sensitisation of C-fibres.⁴⁵ Peripheral
295 sensitisation commonly occurs when nociceptors are exposed to inflammation or damaged
296 tissue, however other changes in the immediate tissue environment, including the
297 concentration of neurotransmitters, growth factors, hormones and neuropeptides, can act on
298 the nociceptors.⁴⁶ Histological evidence suggests LE is characterised by an absence of
299 inflammatory mediators but high local concentrations of the excitatory neurotransmitter
300 glutamate⁴⁷ and presence of neuropeptides, Substance P and CGRP, at the origin of extensor
301 carpi radialis brevis.⁴⁸ It is tempting to speculate that in LE where there is likely no ongoing
302 tissue inflammation, the observed heat sensitivity might reflect centrally driven neurogenic
303 inflammation, for which Substance P and CGRP have been implicated.

304

305 Health-related quality of life in our LE population was comparable to a previous study by
306 Struijs et al.⁴⁹ Notably, patients with severe LE demonstrated significantly poorer quality of
307 life than those with lower pain and disability. In addition, sleep disturbance was present in
308 the majority (66.7%) of patients with severe LE, while only 32.1% of those with mild LE,
309 however our study may have been underpowered to detect an effect on sleep. Sleep
310 disturbance is increasingly recognised as a common symptom in chronic pain and may be
311 associated with a number of negative physical and psychological effects, including lowered
312 PPT and depression.⁵⁰

313

314 In agreement with previous research,^{13, 15, 51} mechanical hyperalgesia was found in the LE
315 population at all evaluated sites and across all levels of pain and disability. A similar pattern
316 of clinical presentation, involving spread of pain sensitivity to areas with no demonstrable
317 pathology, is found in other musculoskeletal conditions and is thought to reflect a
318 commonality of central sensitisation to their pathophysiology.⁴⁵ In comparison to controls,

319 large differences (SMD>0.8) were only evident at the symptomatic elbow in the mild LE
320 group, while moderate and severe LE groups displayed large differences at all evaluated sites.
321 This suggests that the transition from local to widespread hyperalgesia may be associated
322 with increased severity (i.e., greater levels of pain and disability).

323

324 Investigation of the role of psychological factors in patients with LE has received limited
325 attention. We found no difference in levels of anxiety and depression between LE groups or
326 controls, which contrasts to the findings of Alizadehkhayyat et al (2007), which reported
327 significantly higher levels in 16 patients with LE compared to controls.¹² Interestingly, our
328 HADS scores were much lower, even in the most severe LE group, despite displaying
329 comparable levels of pain and disability. Varied inclusion criteria (patients with a minimum
330 three month duration of LE were recruited from an orthopaedic upper limb clinic) may
331 potentially account for study differences. Likewise, we did not detect any difference in fear of
332 movement between different levels of severity of LE. Our data lead us to postulate that levels
333 of anxiety, depression and fear of movement are relatively less important features that
334 distinguish severe from non-severe LE than are thermal hyperalgesia, quality of life and sleep
335 disturbances.

336

337 This cross-sectional study of 164 patients with LE and 62 healthy controls provides valuable
338 groundwork toward understanding the relationships of sensory, motor and psychological
339 factors to an individual's pain and disability. However, there are some caveats and limitations
340 that the reader needs to consider. First, the cross-sectional design limits any inferences
341 regarding causal relationships between the various factors, and longitudinal studies are
342 needed to assess their therapeutic and prognostic implications. Second, results may not be
343 generalised to LE patients who have other concomitant musculoskeletal disorders. Third,

344 potential bias cannot be discounted, as the examiner was not blind to the control group,
345 however the examiner was not aware of PRTEE clustered subgroups. Finally, multiple
346 comparisons were conducted, a danger of which is finding statistically significant differences
347 by chance. To reduce this possibility we set an a-priori p value of 0.01. Of further note, the
348 proportion of females in the severe group was twice that of the mild LE group. Whilst not
349 statistically significant, the potential influence of gender on observed findings cannot be fully
350 ruled out.

351

352 In conclusion, this study provides evidence of thermal hyperalgesia in patients with severe
353 LE in comparison to healthy controls. It lends support to LE representing a complex
354 pathophysiology involving peripheral sensitisation, central sensitisation and sympathetic
355 mechanisms. Improved understanding of these physiological mechanisms may provide
356 insight into why patients with higher initial pain demonstrate a poorer long term outcome.
357 Further study is needed to identify optimal treatment strategies for the subgroup of patients
358 with severe symptoms to improve pain, disability and quality of life outcomes.

359

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363

364

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489 **Table Captions**

490 **Table 1:** Demographic and clinical characteristics for the control group and lateral
491 epicondylalgia clusters based on pain and disability scores.

492 **Footnote:**

493 Results are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation or count (%). Significant ($P < 0.01$)
494 differences between mild-moderate¹, mild-severe² and moderate-severe³ groups. PRTEE
495 Patient Rated Tennis Elbow Evaluation (pain and disability); VAS visual analogue scale
496 (mm); EQ-5D EuroQol (Health-related Quality of Life); TSK-11 Tampa Scale of
497 Kinesiophobia; HADS Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale.

498

499

500 **Table 2:** Quantitative sensory and grip force tests for control group and lateral epicondylalgia
501 clusters based on pain and disability scores.

502 **Footnote:**

503 Results are expressed as mean and standard deviations (SD) for affected (AFF) and
504 unaffected (UN) sides as estimated by repeated measures ANOVA adjusting for gender.
505 *Significantly ($P < 0.01$) different to control group. Standardised mean differences (SMD)
506 were estimated by dividing mean differences from controls by the pooled SD. Positive SMD
507 represent increased sensitivity in the LE group. †SMD of large effect size (> 0.8). CPT Cold
508 pain threshold ($^{\circ}\text{C}$); HPT Heat pain threshold ($^{\circ}\text{C}$); PPT Pressure pain threshold (Kpa); PFG
509 Pain-free grip (N).

510

511

512 **Figure Captions**

513 **Figure 1.** Lateral epicondylalgia (LE) clusters based on Patient Rated Tennis Elbow
514 Evaluation (PRTEE) total scores. The box around the mean scores represents their standard
515 deviations, while the whiskers refer to minimum and maximum scores.

516 **Figure 2:** Mean differences in heat pain thresholds (HPT, °C) and cold pain thresholds
517 (CPT, °C) and 99% confidence intervals (CI) for lateral epicondylalgia (LE) clusters
518 compared to the control group. Negative values represent increased sensitivity to heat and
519 cold.

520 **Figure 3:** Mean differences in pressure pain thresholds (Kpa) and 99% confidence intervals
521 (CI) for lateral epicondylalgia (LE) clusters compared to control group at each site (elbow,
522 neck, tibia).

523 **Figure 4:** Mean differences in pain-free grip (N) and 99% confidence intervals (CI) for
524 lateral epicondylalgia (LE) clusters compared to control group.

525

Figure 1
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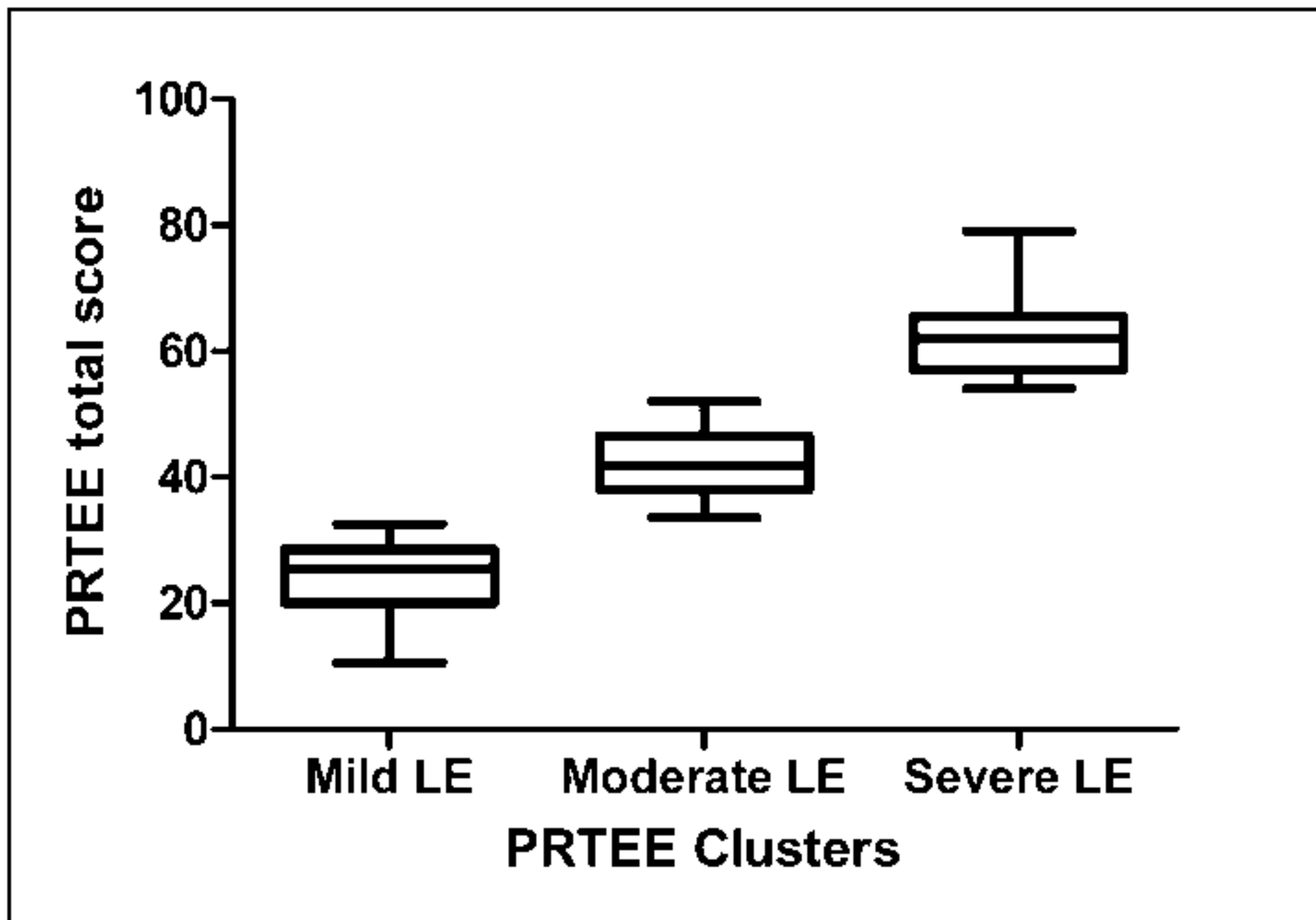


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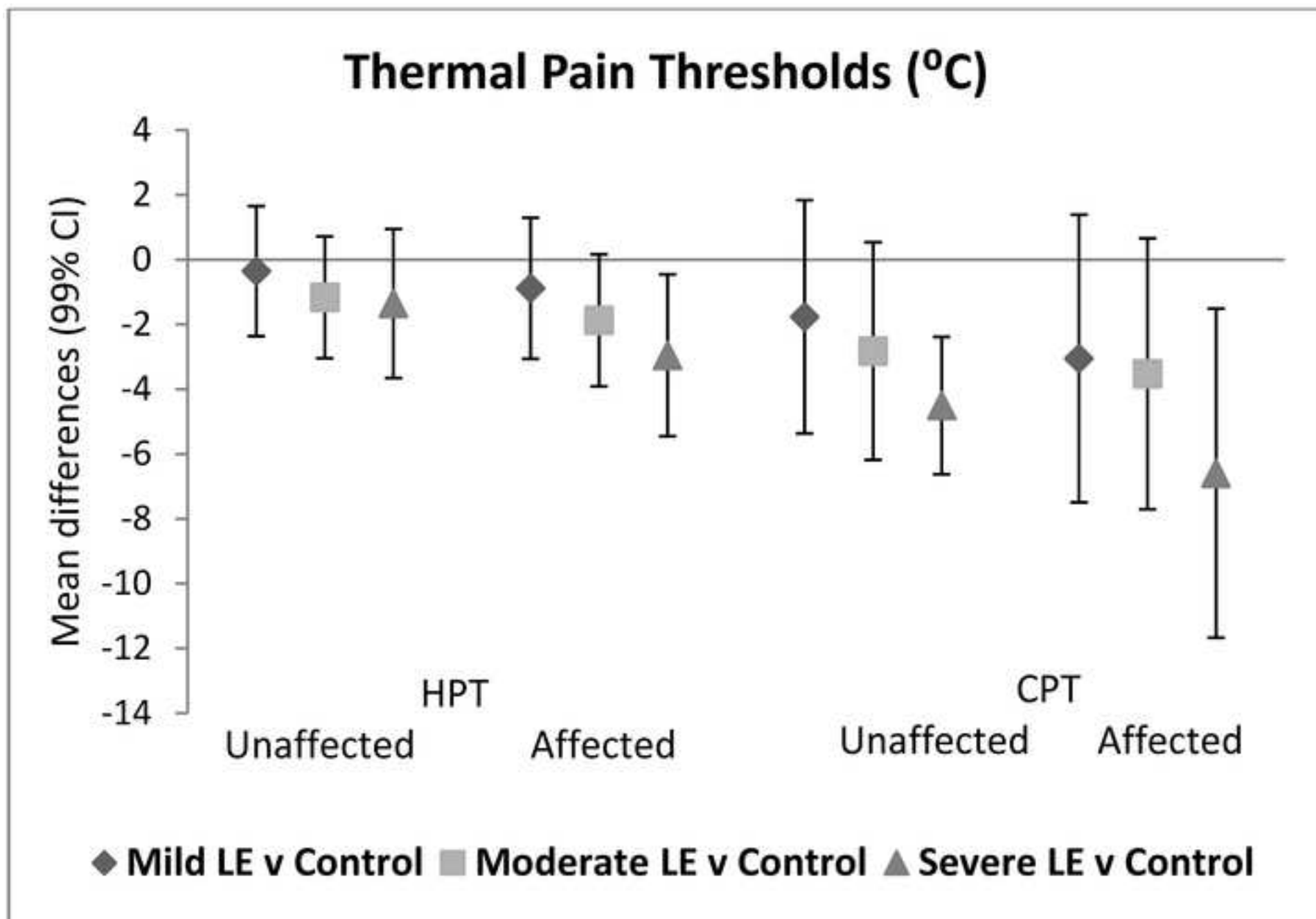


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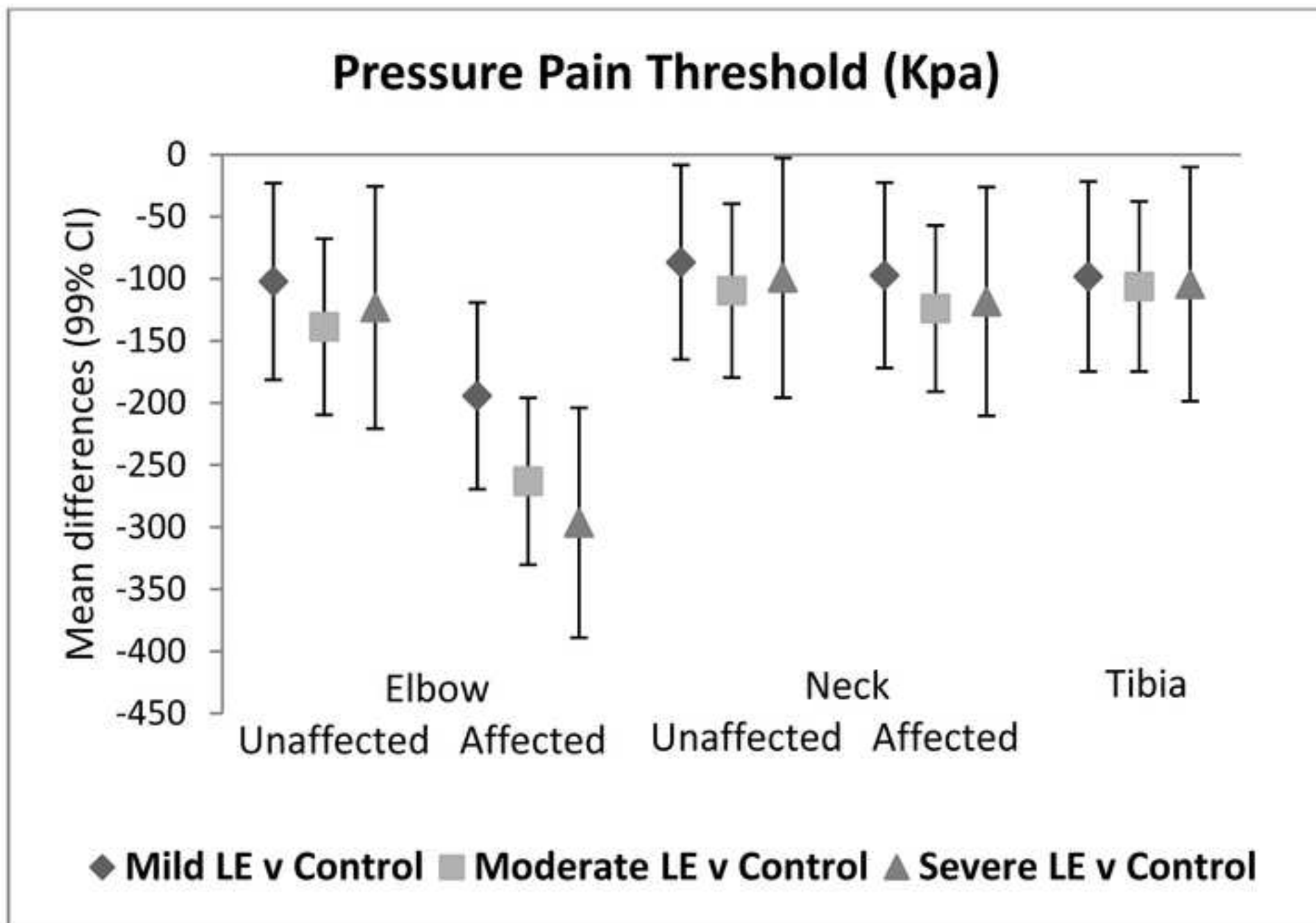


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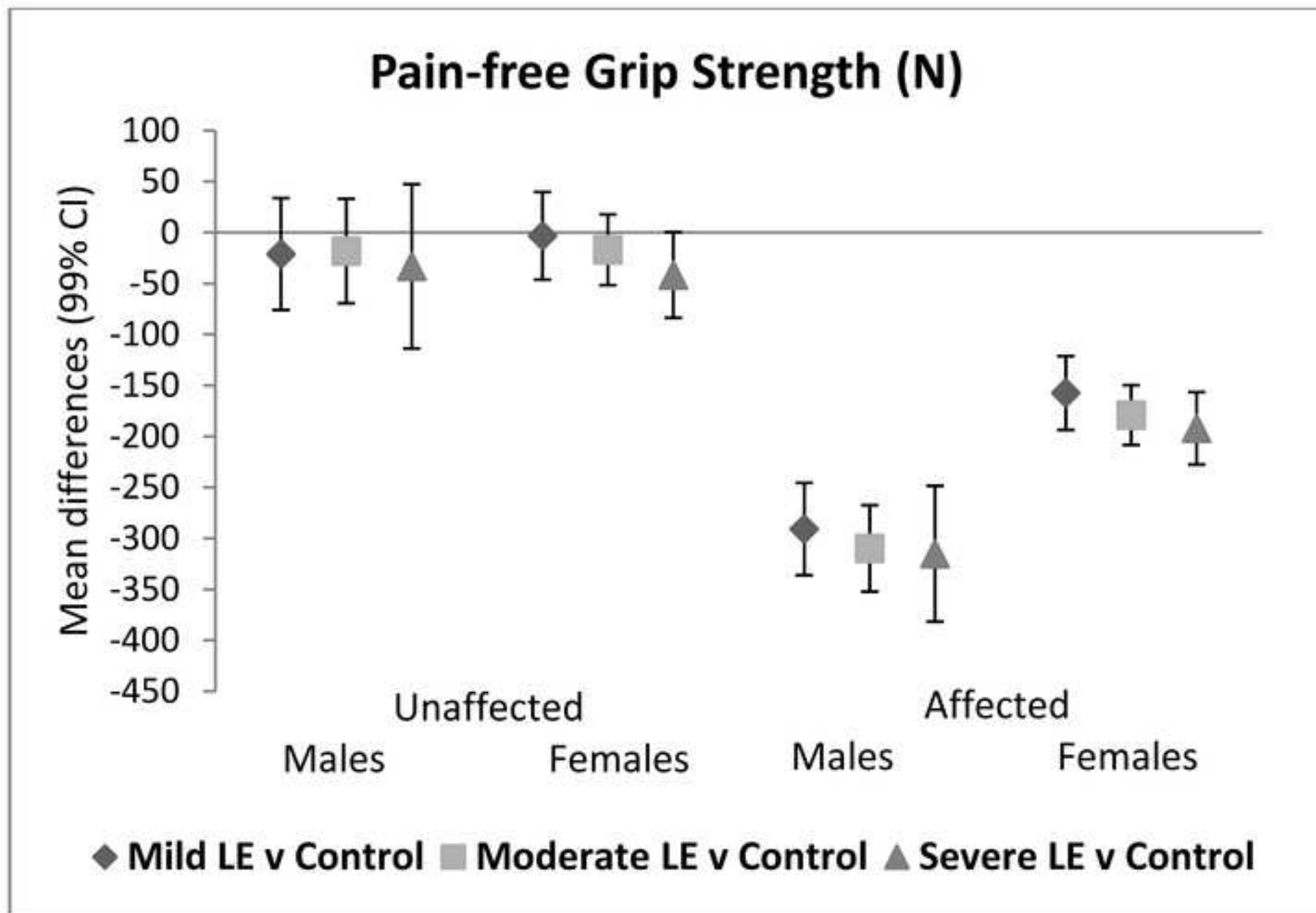


Table 1: Demographic and clinical characteristics for the control group and lateral epicondylalgia clusters based on pain and disability scores.

	Control n=62	Lateral Epicondylalgia				Sig <0.01
		All n=164	Mild n=53	Moderate n=84	Severe n=27	
Age (years)	49.6 ± 8.7	49.6 ± 9.0	50.4 ± 9.5	48.8 ± 9.2	51.4 ± 8.8	
Female	28 (45.2)	63 (38.4)	15 (28.3)	32 (38.1)	16 (59.3)	
Post-menopausal	14 (50)	24 (38.1)	5 (33.3)	10 (31.3)	9 (56.3)	
Body mass index	25.4 ± 4.7	26.5 ± 5.1	26.1 ± 5.1	26.3 ± 4.6	27.1 ± 4.7	
Manual occupation	12 (19.4)	41 (24.8)	11 (20.8)	24 (28.6)	6 (22.2)	
Gripping sport	14 (22.6)	58 (35.2)	18 (34.0)	31 (36.9)	9 (33.3)	
Duration (weeks)	-	24.8 ± 30.8	26.6 ± 32.8	19.7 ± 30.2	32.3 ± 30.1	
PRTEE	-	40.1 ± 14.1	24.0 ± 6.0	42.0 ± 5.2	62.6 ± 5.7	1,2,3
Resting pain (VAS)	-	11.0 ± 14.1	6.5 ± 13.8	10.9 ± 12.8	21.8 ± 12.5	2,3
Worst pain (VAS)	-	61.9 ± 19.3	50.6 ± 18.2	62.4 ± 16.5	78.1 ± 16.2	1,2,3
Function (VAS)	-	68.6 ± 21.8	80.9 ± 21.1	65.8 ± 20.2	58.9 ± 20.3	1,3
EQ-5D	-	0.74 ± 0.10	0.77 ± 0.15	0.74 ± 0.09	0.59 ± 0.16	2,3
Sleep disturbance	-	75 (45.5)	17 (32.1)	39 (46.4)	18 (66.7)	
TSK-11	-	24.3 ± 5.1	23.4 ± 5.1	24.5 ± 4.6	25.1 ± 4.7	
HADS	6.4 ± 3.9	6.5 ± 3.9	6.1 ± 4.4	6.5 ± 4.6	7.5 ± 4.2	

Results are expressed as mean ± standard deviation or count (%). Significant ($P < 0.01$) differences between mild-moderate¹, mild-severe² and moderate-severe³ groups. PRTEE Patient Rated Tennis Elbow Evaluation (pain and disability); VAS visual analogue scale (mm); EQ-5D EuroQol (Health-related Quality of Life); TSK-11 Tampa Scale of Kinesiophobia; HADS Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale.

Table 2: Quantitative sensory and grip force tests for control group and lateral epicondylalgia clusters based on pain and disability scores.

Variable	Side	Control n=62	Lateral Epicondylalgia						
			All n=164	Mild n=53	Moderate n=84	Severe n=27			
		mean ± SD	mean ± SD	SMD	mean ± SD	SMD	mean ± SD	SMD	
CPT	AFF	7.6 ± 6.1	11.8 ± 6.4	10.6 ± 6.6	0.52	11.4 ± 6.4	0.60	13.7 ± 5.7 *	1.12 †
	UN	7.1 ± 4.6	10.2 ± 5.1	8.9 ± 5.1	0.37	10.3 ± 4.6	0.59	11.2 ± 4.7 *	0.95 †
HPT	AFF	44.5 ± 3.1	42.6 ± 3.1	43.3 ± 2.9	0.31	42.5 ± 2.7	0.65	41.8 ± 3.1 *	1.03 †
	UN	44.3 ± 2.5	43.2 ± 2.82	43.6 ± 2.9	0.13	43.0 ± 2.7	0.43	43.2 ± 2.6	0.51
PPT Elbow	AFF	513.3 ± 128.3	261.1 ± 139.6	305 ± 141.2 *	1.52 †	246.6 ± 131.1 *	2.06 †	227.1 ± 129.9 *	2.32 †
	UN	499.5 ± 135.4	367.5 ± 130.6	382 ± 149.2 *	0.76	354.2 ± 138.4 *	1.03 †	394.7 ± 136.7 *	0.91 †
PPT Neck	AFF	403.8 ± 127.6	282.1 ± 134.5	294.2 ± 140.5 *	0.77	271.6 ± 130.1 *	0.98 †	300.3 ± 128.9 *	0.93 †
	UN	396.2 ± 133.1	287.6 ± 130.6	295.1 ± 147.1 *	0.65	277.3 ± 136.6 *	0.83 †	310.9 ± 135.1 *	0.75
PPT Tibia	Left	517.6 ± 130.7	407.4 ± 133.2	401.2 ± 144.1 *	0.76	405.9 ± 133.8 *	0.82 †	438.7 ± 132.0 *	0.80 †
PFG Males	AFF	400.6 ± 81.9	97.4 ± 79.4	109.9 ± 71.3 *	3.80 †	90.8 ± 77.0 *	3.90 †	85.6 ± 94.6 *	3.45 †
	UN	387.5 ± 99.2	367.6 ± 90.9	366.5 ± 86.6	0.22	369.4 ± 93.5	0.19	354.4 ± 114.8	0.30
PFG Females	AFF	241.3 ± 52.8	64.2 ± 62.8	84 ± 66.2 *	2.60 †	62.4 ± 56.8 *	3.29 †	49.3 ± 45.7 *	3.99 †
	UN	226.4 ± 62.2	206.5 ± 66.6	223.2 ± 78.6	0.04	209.5 ± 67.8	0.26	184.9 ± 54.6	0.73

Results are expressed as mean and standard deviations (SD) for affected (AFF) and unaffected (UN) sides as estimated by repeated measures ANOVA adjusting for gender.

*Significantly ($P < 0.01$) different to control group. Standardised mean differences (SMD) were estimated by dividing mean differences from controls by the pooled SD. Positive SMD represent increased sensitivity in the LE group. †SMD of large effect size (> 0.8). CPT Cold pain threshold ($^{\circ}\text{C}$); HPT Heat pain threshold ($^{\circ}\text{C}$); PPT Pressure pain threshold (Kpa); PFG Pain-free grip (N).