



Archived at the Flinders Academic Commons:

<http://dspace.flinders.edu.au/dspace/>

'This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Adey-Wakeling, Z., Arima, H., Crotty, M., Leyden, J., Kleinig, T., Anderson, C. S., & Newbury, J. (2015, February). Incidence and Associations of Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain Poststroke: Prospective Population-Based Study. Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation. Elsevier BV. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmr.2014.09.007>

which has been published in final form at

DOI:

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apmr.2014.09.007>

© <2015>. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

1 **Incidence and Associations of Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain Post Stroke:**

2 **A prospective population based study**

3  
4 **Abstract**

5  
6  
7 **Objective:** To provide an epidemiological perspective of the clinical profile, frequency and  
8 determinants of post stroke hemiplegic shoulder pain.

9  
10 **Design:** A prospective population-based study of an inception cohort of participants with 12  
11 months follow up period.

12  
13 **Participants:** Multiple ascertainment techniques were used to identify 318 confirmed stroke  
14 events in 301 individuals. Among 301 adults with stroke, data on shoulder pain were  
15 available for 198 (83% of survivors) at baseline, and 156 and 148 at 4 and 12 months,  
16 respectively.

17  
18 **Setting:** Participants were recruited within a geographically defined metropolitan region with  
19 estimated population of 148,000 in Adelaide, Australia. Ascertainment and follow up  
20 included both general community and hospital settings.

21  
22 **Interventions:** not applicable

23

24 **Main Outcome Measures:** Subjective reports of onset, severity and aggravating factors for  
25 pain, and three passive range of motion measures were collected at baseline, and follow-up at  
26 4 and 12 months.

27

28 **Results:** 10% of participants reported shoulder pain at baseline, whilst 21% reported pain at  
29 each follow-up assessment. Overall, 29% of all assessed participants reported shoulder pain  
30 during 12 months follow up, with the median pain score (VAS = 40) highest at 4 months and  
31 more often associated with movement at later time points. Objective passive range of motion  
32 tests elicited higher frequencies of pain than self-report, and predicted later subjective  
33 shoulder pain (crude relative risk of 3.22 (95%CI 1.01-10.27)).

34

35 **Conclusions:** The frequency of post-stroke shoulder pain is almost 30%. Peak onset and  
36 severity of hemiplegic shoulder pain in this study was at 4 months, outside of rehabilitation  
37 admission timeframes. Systematic use of objective assessment tools may aid in early  
38 identification and management of stroke survivors at risk of this common complication of  
39 stroke.

40

41 **Key Words (3-7):**

42 Stroke, epidemiology, hemiplegia, shoulder, pain

43

44 **List of Abbreviations:**

45 VAS            Visual Analogue Scale

46	CI	Confidence Interval
47	LACS	Lacunar Syndrome
48	TACS	Total Anterior Circulation Syndrome
49	PACS	Partial Anterior Circulation Syndrome
50	POCS	Posterior Circulation Syndrome
51	NIHSS	National Institute of Health Stroke Scale
52	IQR	Inter-Quartile Range
53	OR	Odds Ratio
54		
55		
56		

57 Hemiplegic shoulder pain has been described as one of the four most common medical  
58 complications following stroke<sup>1</sup>, with others including depression, falls and urinary tract  
59 infections<sup>1</sup>. Earlier studies have reported the frequency of shoulder pain following stroke to  
60 be as high as 65-70%<sup>2-4</sup>. A more recent prospective Swedish study of 416 consecutive stroke  
61 patients reported that almost a third of stroke survivors developed shoulder pain, the majority  
62 of whom reported moderate to severe pain<sup>5</sup>. Contributions to pain development are often  
63 multifactorial; biomechanical factors are significant<sup>6</sup>, and may occur in isolation or in  
64 addition to changes in tone<sup>7</sup> or neuropathic mechanisms<sup>8</sup>. Hemiplegic shoulder pain is  
65 associated with a reduction in functional use of the arm<sup>9</sup>, interference with rehabilitation<sup>9</sup>,  
66 increased length of stay<sup>9</sup> and higher rates of depression<sup>10</sup>. Complexities in aetiology and  
67 subsequent diagnosis mean that treatment of shoulder pain is difficult and reviews have found  
68 little evidence to guide clinicians on effective prophylactic and treatment options<sup>11</sup>.  
69 Understanding the pattern of presentation, and establishing tools to support early  
70 identification of those likely to develop pain would assist clinicians and patients.

71

72 The primary aim of this study was to determine the frequency, characteristics over time, and  
73 associations of hemiplegic shoulder pain in a defined metropolitan population of South  
74 Australia. The secondary aim was to evaluate the predictive use of three standardised passive  
75 objective measures of shoulder range as screening tools for development of shoulder pain.  
76 Objective assessment is necessary in conjunction with subjective questioning, as self-report  
77 alone has been shown to be a poor predictor of examination findings<sup>6</sup>, and accurate clinical  
78 assessment and diagnosis is vital in establishing targeted management plans. A case control  
79 study suggested that a simple set of clinical assessments (three passive range of motion tests)  
80 conferred a 98% probability of predicting early hemiplegic shoulder pain at rest<sup>12</sup>. The  
81 generalizability of this finding is limited due to its small sample with multiple exclusion

82 criteria (thalamic infarcts, upper limb sensory deficit, previous shoulder injury, complex  
83 regional pain syndrome, dysphasia). We evaluated this same set of assessments on all  
84 participants in a stroke incidence study, based on the principles of complete ascertainment<sup>13</sup>,  
85 to test their application as a predictor of development of hemiplegic shoulder pain.

86

## 87 **Methods**

88

### 89 *Overview*

90

91 The Adelaide stroke incidence study (ASCEND) was a prospective population-based stroke  
92 incidence study conducted in a defined region of the western suburbs of Adelaide, South  
93 Australia, with a census projected population of over 148,000. During the period from 15  
94 July 2009 to 15 July 2010, multiple ascertainment methods were used to identify all  
95 occurrences of stroke. Ethics approval was obtained from every tertiary hospital in Adelaide  
96 and University of Adelaide and all participants provided consent prior to enrolment in the  
97 study. Detailed methodology has been previously described<sup>14</sup>, including specific information  
98 regarding the study population and ascertainment techniques.

99

100 Following informed consent, participants were assessed at baseline, at 4 months and at 12  
101 months. All data were collected as part of the larger ASCEND study and entered into a  
102 custom-designed online database. The data set specific to this study was extracted via an  
103 automated database query and checked against the raw database manually. Only data that  
104 were truly prospective were included for analyses, as retrospective report of subjective pain

105 measures was not deemed reliable and retrospective case note data would not include the  
106 objective tests.

107

### 108 ***Definitions***

109

110 Stroke was defined as “rapidly developing clinical signs of focal (or global) disturbance of  
111 cerebral function lasting more than 24 hours (unless interrupted by surgery or death) with no  
112 apparent cause other than of vascular origin”<sup>15</sup>. Hemiplegic shoulder pain was defined as any  
113 subjective complaint of pain in the contralesional, or affected hemiplegic shoulder following  
114 stroke. Hemiplegic shoulder pain encompasses all aetiologies and we did not exclude  
115 patients on the basis of premorbid shoulder pathology. Pain was measured using a Visual  
116 Analogue Scale (VAS range 0-100) with severity classified into mild (10-30) and moderate-  
117 severe (40-100) in line with previous publications<sup>16, 17</sup>. Upper limb motor function was  
118 determined using question 5 from the NIHSS – motor arm score of 3 or above was classified  
119 as ‘no motor function’ (score 3 = no effort against gravity; score 4 = no movement), and  
120 reduced motor function was score 1-2 (score 1 = drift; score 2 = limited effort against  
121 gravity).

122

### 123 ***Demographic Data, Subjective and Objective Assessments***

124

125 The subset of data of interest in the study included record of demographic data, and baseline  
126 and follow up subjective and objective measures pertaining specifically to shoulder pain.

127 Demographic and clinical characteristics were recorded to characterise the subsets within the  
128 study population and to explore any associations with risk of development of shoulder pain.

129 Data included age, gender, significant medical history, stroke subtype and aetiology, affected  
130 hemisphere, and motor arm component of the National Institute of Health Stroke Scale  
131 (NIHSS).

132 Subjective information included history of shoulder pain prior to stroke and presence of  
133 shoulder pain on affected side. If pain was reported, further questions regarding time of  
134 onset, severity of pain, and aggravating factors were asked. Patients were asked if pain was  
135 worse at rest, on movement (active or passive), or at night. Pain severity was scored using a  
136 vertical VAS. Each consented participant was assessed by a trained study nurse.

137 A rehabilitation physician taught all data collectors a standardised approach to objective tests,  
138 and a video support package was made and provided for ongoing reference.

139 Objective measures of the participants' affected upper limb included:

- 140 • the modified Neer test (forced passive forward flexion) tested in a seated position
- 141 • passive Hand-Behind-Neck test (passive abduction, external rotation) tested in a  
142 seated position, and
- 143 • passive external rotation as compared to unaffected limb. Passive external rotation  
144 was measured with the patient in a seated position. Range was measured using a  
145 goniometer.

146 Any pain on modified Neer or passive hand-behind-neck was scored as a positive result.

147 Affected limb passive external rotation range of more than 10° less than the unaffected  
148 limb was scored as positive limitation of range of movement.

149

150 *Statistical Analysis*

151



152 Comparisons were made of baseline demographics for participants with and without shoulder  
153 pain using Wilcoxon tests for continuous variables or chi-squared tests for categorical  
154 variables. Non-parametric tests (i.e. Wilcoxon or Kruskal-Wallis tests) were selected in the  
155 context of analysis of continuous variables because some variables (such as VAS and  
156 NIHSS) had skewed distribution. The primary outcome was onset of shoulder pain within  
157 the first year of stroke onset. Measures of shoulder function (subjective report of pain, pain  
158 severity, aggravating factors, and objective assessments) at each visit were compared using  
159 Kruskal-Wallis or chi-squared tests. Associations between baseline demographic subsets and  
160 development of shoulder pain were assessed using logistic regression models and statistically  
161 significant predictors were included into multivariable logistic regression models. Data are  
162 reported with the standard level of significance ( $P < 0.05$ ) and with 95% confidence intervals  
163 (CI). All analyses were performed using SAS software version 9.2 (Cary, NC, USA).

164

## 165 **Results**

166

167

168 As some participants had more than one stroke event, a total of 318 strokes were confirmed  
169 in 301 people in the study population. Excluded were 103 people without a shoulder  
170 assessment due to death (60%), retrospective ascertainment (12%), or non-consent to  
171 participation (28%) (see Figure 1). For baseline assessments, 73% of all recruited patients  
172 were assessed within one week of symptoms onset<sup>14</sup> (average 8.7 days post onset). At  
173 baseline, a shoulder assessment was completed on 198 (83%) of 239 survivors, 156 (75%) at  
174 4 months, and 148 (77%) at 12 months. A total of 226 shoulder assessments were performed  
175 at any assessment point within the follow-up period, with complete data from all 3 time

176 points available for 105 participants surviving to 12 month follow-up. Among survivors,  
177 baseline characteristics were comparable between participants with and without pain, except  
178 severity of upper limb deficits and history of premorbid shoulder pain which were  
179 significantly greater in those participants reporting subjective pain (Table 1). The  
180 demographic and clinical variables of participants receiving shoulder assessment as compared  
181 to those not receiving any assessment are summarised in Supplementary data Table I. In the  
182 group who did not receive a shoulder assessment, there were significantly more haemorrhagic  
183 strokes (25% versus 9%) and Total Anterior Circulation Syndrome (TACS) strokes (67%  
184 versus 18%), reflecting higher mortality from more severe strokes. Data from patients who  
185 did not receive shoulder assessment were excluded from further analysis.

186

187 Table 2 summarises the incidence of shoulder pain over 12 months. Comparison of  
188 participants receiving any assessment (n=226) to participants receiving assessments at all  
189 time points (n=105) demonstrated similar frequencies at each follow up, with a clear pattern  
190 of increasing frequency of pain over 12 months. Of stroke survivors receiving any  
191 assessment, 10% reported pain at baseline and 21% at each follow up period. Overall,  
192 approximately one third ( $65/226=29\%$ ) of individual participants reported onset of shoulder  
193 pain within the 12 months following their stroke. In the cohort of participants receiving  
194 shoulder assessment at all three time points (n=105), Figure 2 shows that shoulder pain  
195 increased in frequency over time: 8% at baseline, 18% at 4 months, and 21% at 12 months  
196 A relatively low rate of pain resolution at each time point is demonstrated (6% at 4 months  
197 and 14% at 12 months respectively).

198

199 Subjective reports of severity and factors aggravating hemiplegic shoulder pain amongst  
200 participants receiving any assessment are summarised in Table 3. The median pain score  
201 (VAS = 40) was highest at 4 months. Pain characteristics in the early weeks demonstrated  
202 milder pain (median VAS = 15) which was more prominent at rest (including night). At  
203 follow up, pain was shown to be more associated with limited active and passive range of  
204 movement and significantly fewer participants reported pain which was worse at rest or at  
205 night (Figure 3).

206

207 Crude and multivariable analysis found a strong association between premorbid shoulder pain  
208 and post-stroke hemiplegic shoulder pain (Table 4). Additionally, an absence of upper limb  
209 motor function was strongly associated with risk of shoulder pain (OR 3.19 (1.77-6.9)  
210  $p=0.0003$ ). The odds ratio (CI 95%) for pain associated with reduced arm function was 1.24  
211 (0.7-2.17)  $p=0.458$ . A large proportion (86%) of participants with TACS strokes died before  
212 the baseline assessment. There was no association of shoulder pain and basic demographics,  
213 stroke syndrome, affected hemisphere, or stroke severity.

214

215 In stroke survivors who reported pain at baseline, baseline passive range of motion tests were  
216 not consistently positive (not all patients reporting pain had positive objective tests). Follow-  
217 up assessments demonstrated increasing frequency of positive objective tests in those with  
218 reported pain, and objective passive range of motion tests were associated with higher  
219 frequencies of pain than were elicited by self-report alone. Further evaluation revealed that  
220 positive baseline objective assessments, despite the absence of subjectively reported pain,  
221 conferred a statistically significant crude relative risk of 3.22 (95% CI 1.01 to 10.27) for  
222 future development of hemiplegic shoulder pain within a 12 month period. Multivariate

223 analysis, adjusting for high NIHSS score (>5 above median) and significant motor upper limb  
224 deficit, demonstrated an odds ratio of 2.13 (CI 0.54 to 8.35) although this was not significant  
225 (Table 5).

226

## 227 **Discussion**

228 In a field in need of greater research focus, this study contributes data on early incidence of  
229 pain and pain characteristics in the first year post stroke. Additionally, the study supports the  
230 predictive value of easily reproducible objective screening tests.

231

232 This study found that approximately one third of stroke survivors experienced shoulder pain  
233 at some stage in the 12 months post stroke, with peak incidence of pain at 4 months.  
234 Congruous data in studies of comparable methodology<sup>2, 5, 18</sup> lend weight to this finding  
235 regarding rate of shoulder pain (previous papers reported rates as high as 70%)<sup>2, 19, 20</sup>. A  
236 pertinent issue to consider, in the context of persistently significant rates of hemiplegic  
237 shoulder pain, is the possibility that this may reflect a lack of improved prevention measures  
238 regarding education and shoulder care over more recent years. Thus, despite previous studies  
239 highlighting the amplitude of this issue, it is postulated that minimal gains in evidence-based  
240 treatment and prevention options, or translation of the same into practice are indicated.

241

242 A novel finding of our study is the comparatively low frequency of very early (average 8.7  
243 days) hemiplegic shoulder pain (10%). Lindgren et al<sup>5</sup> followed up 416 people from a Stroke  
244 Register, with specific study pain questions and assessment at 4 and 16 months; at follow up I  
245 (4 months), almost 40% of participants reported that their pain begun between 0-2 weeks post  
246 stroke. In the current study, prospective data regarding baseline pain were collected.

247 Interestingly, patients who reported pain within the first few days following stroke were not  
248 necessarily those who went on to have persistent pain complaints. There was a much higher  
249 rate of new onset pain at 4 month follow-up compared to pain persisting from baseline  
250 assessment, highlighting the need for ongoing monitoring after hospital discharge. A  
251 relatively low rate of pain resolution at each time point was demonstrated (6% at 4 months  
252 and 14% at 12 months respectively), further indicating the need to establish an increased pool  
253 of effective evidence-based treatment options. The increasing association of pain with range  
254 of movement (active and passive) over time may represent cumulative musculoskeletal  
255 contributors and adaptive mechanisms, with pain on movement recognised as one of the  
256 cardinal features of musculoskeletal pain<sup>21</sup>. Mechanisms of pain may differ and additional  
257 research exploring evidence-based treatment options that address early versus later onset  
258 hemiplegic shoulder pain are needed.

259

260 The predominant associations between clinical profile and risk of shoulder pain were in  
261 participants with premorbid pain and those with more marked upper limb motor deficit.  
262 Whilst previous population-based studies<sup>5</sup> have found motor deficit to be predictive, they  
263 have not demonstrated premorbid shoulder pain as a risk factor for developing pain. In this  
264 study, history of shoulder pain was reported in 27% of participants with hemiplegic shoulder  
265 pain, compared to only 4% of those who did not report pain. This differs from Lindgren et  
266 al<sup>5</sup>, who found similar rates of premorbid shoulder pain reported by those who subsequently  
267 developed pain and those who did not (23% versus 22% respectively). Pain history is a  
268 simple question easily added to clinical screening assessment battery and further helps  
269 identify an at-risk cohort.

270

271 The association of compromised range of motion with persistent pain is supported by recent  
272 studies. Research supports that persistent pain is more likely in patients with left sided  
273 weakness<sup>22</sup>, and in those who demonstrate reduced passive abduction range<sup>22, 23</sup>, as well as  
274 patients with reduced external rotation range, impaired voluntary motor control and  
275 spasticity<sup>22, 23</sup>. We did not find an association between affected hemisphere and pain  
276 development, but our data does support the previous findings that pain is associated with  
277 reduced passive abduction and external rotation (passive hand-behind-neck and external  
278 rotation tests respectively), and impaired motor function. Testing of passive range is often  
279 impacted by increasing tone, though formal spasticity assessment was not included in this  
280 study.

281

282 With the three passive range of motion tests used, it was possible to identify those likely to  
283 develop pain. Those patients who demonstrated a positive response on an objective passive  
284 range of movement test at baseline trended to be at increased risk of later pain, suggesting  
285 that these tests may serve a useful screen among at-risk patients, namely those with more  
286 severe upper limb paresis. Rajaratnam<sup>12</sup> proposed use of all three tests to identify those at  
287 risk of early pain at rest. Results from this study support use of these tests as a screening tool  
288 beyond the early phase, with evidence that positive objective results double a patient's  
289 probability of developing future hemiplegic shoulder pain. At both follow up points, the  
290 passive external rotation test and modified Neer test recorded greater number of positive  
291 results than the passive hand-behind-neck. Passive external rotation findings on follow up  
292 were greater than subjective report of pain alone (21% reported pain at 4 months, 25%  
293 recorded positive external rotation test; 21% reported pain at 12 months, 22% recorded  
294 positive passive external rotation test). Remaining objective tests did not provide results  
295 higher than subjective pain result, but it must be considered that the variety of movements

296 covered by the use of all three of these tests provides a more thorough screening tool. The  
297 tests used are simple to perform, easy to teach in a reproducible manner, and time and cost  
298 efficient in the context of incorporation into standardised protocols. Whilst it is well  
299 established that transfer of evidence into clinical practice is significantly delayed, the use of  
300 such a simple screening assessment can be hoped to be easily implemented within a field of  
301 medicine at ease with joint assessment and manual handling.

302

303 The use of screening assessments should not replace more in-depth diagnostic assessments of  
304 patients with verified hemiplegic shoulder pain. The increasing body of research exploring  
305 the contribution and overlap of neuropathic as well as nociceptive pain mechanisms<sup>8, 23, 24</sup>  
306 highlights the importance of careful assessment beyond the musculoskeletal paradigm  
307 covered by the outlined objective measures. As such, the assessment outlined is supported as  
308 a screening tool, rather than a diagnostic tool. More in depth assessment is required to  
309 ascertain potential contributors to active pain, and should consider specific spasticity  
310 measures and comprehensive pain history. Screening in this study is perhaps of more utility  
311 to identify those not subjectively reporting pain at rest but potentially experiencing pain with  
312 range of movements beyond their active range. The data supports that positive objective tests  
313 double the risk of future development of pain. It must also be highlighted that the paucity of  
314 evidence-based treatment options currently available means that successful screening does  
315 not yet yield significant benefit to the patient group. A focus on effective treatment options is  
316 required in order to make best use of screening within an assessment and management  
317 protocol.

318

319 ***Study Limitations:***

320

321 The study was limited by some loss of patient data due to early death or delay in  
322 ascertainment which reduced the ability to achieve timely or prospective assessment. As  
323 highlighted in the parent study<sup>14</sup>, ascertainment may have been incomplete despite intensive  
324 efforts. In addition, there was variable loss of data at the follow up assessments. Finally, we  
325 did not account for spasticity in our assessments, which could have affected passive range  
326 and pain reports.

327 Strengths of our study include the use of ‘ideal’ methodology<sup>13</sup> to avoid selection bias and the  
328 prospective assessments available for analyses.

329

330 **Conclusion:**

331

332 Close to 30% of people develop pain in the first year after stroke, with peak incidence at 4  
333 months. Comparison with an earlier population study<sup>5</sup> shows that, despite increased focus on  
334 evidence-based treatments in stroke, over 7 years no reduction in frequency of this common  
335 complication stroke has been shown. Systematic use of clinical assessments are useful in  
336 identifying people at risk of shoulder pain. As the disorder is most common and severe after  
337 hospital discharge, targeted protocols including predictive objective measures may facilitate  
338 improved identification and management. Further research is required to elucidate a practical  
339 range of preventative and treatment options for this condition.

340

341 **Sources of Funding:**

342



343 The ASCEND study was funded by a Project Grant (565402) from the National Health and  
344 Medical Research Council of Australia.

345

346 **Conflicts / Disclosures:**

347

348 None to declare

349

350 **References:**

351

352

- 353 1. McLean. Medical complications experienced by a cohort of stroke survivors during  
354 inpatient, tertiary-level stroke rehabilitation. *Archives of Physical Medicine and*  
355 *Rehabilitation*. 2004;2004
- 356 2. Bender L MK. Hemiplegic shoulder pain: Defining the problem and its management.  
357 *Disability and Rehabilitation*. 2001;23:698-705
- 358 3. Wanklyn P FA, Young J. Hemiplegic shoulder pain - natural history and investigation  
359 of associated features. *Disability and Rehabilitation*. 1996;18:497-501
- 360 4. Aras M GN, Comert D, Cakci A. Shoulder pain in hemiplegia - results from a national  
361 rehabilitation hospital in turkey. *American Journal of Physical Medicine and*  
362 *Rehabilitation*. 2004;83:713-719
- 363 5. Lindgren I, Jonsson A, Norrving B, Lindgren A. Shoulder pain after stroke: A  
364 population based study. *Stroke*. 2007;38:343-348
- 365 6. Dromerick AW ED, Kumar A. Hemiplegic shoulder pain syndrome: Frequency and  
366 characteristics during inpatient stroke rehabilitation. *Arch Phys Med Rehab*.  
367 2008;89:1589-1593

- 368 7. Yelnik AP CF, Bonan IV, Vicaud E. Treatment of shoulder pain in spastic hemiplegia  
369 by reducing spasticity of the subscapular muscle: A randomised, double-blind,  
370 placebo controlled study of botulinum toxin a. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*.  
371 2007;78:845-848
- 372 8. Zeilig G RM, Weingarden H, Gaidoukov E, Defrin R. Hemiplegic shoulder pain:  
373 Evidence of a neuropathic origin. *Pain*. 2013;154:263-271
- 374 9. Snels ID, JH; van der Lee, JH; Lankhorst, GJ; Beckerman, H; Bouter, LM. Treating  
375 patients with hemiplegic shoulder pain. *American Journal of Physical Medicine and*  
376 *Rehabilitation*. 2002;8:150-160
- 377 10. Jonsson A LI, Hallstrom B, Norrving B, Lindgren A. Prevalence and intensity of pain  
378 after stroke: A population-based study focusing on patients' perspectives. *Journal of*  
379 *Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry*. 2006:590-595
- 380 11. Koog Y, Jin S, Yoon K, Min B. Interventions for hemiplegic shoulder pain: A  
381 systematic review of randomised controlled trials. *Disability and Rehabilitation*.  
382 2010;32:282-291
- 383 12. Rajaratnam B KP, Goh J, Chan Y. Predictability of simple clinical tests to identify  
384 shoulder pain after stroke. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*.  
385 2007;88:1016-1021
- 386 13. Sudlow CW, CP. Comparing stroke incidence worldwide - what makes studies  
387 comparable? *Stroke*. 1996;27:550-558
- 388 14. Leyden JM, Kleinig T, Newbury J, Castle S, Cranefield J, Anderson CS, Crotty M,  
389 Whitford D, Jannes J, Lee A, Greenhill J. Adelaide stroke incidence study: Declining  
390 stroke rates but many preventable cardioembolic strokes. *Stroke*. 2013;44:1226-1231
- 391 15. Investigators WMP. The world health organisation monica project (monitoring trends  
392 and determinants in cardiovascular disease). *J Clin Epidemiol*. 1988;41:105-114

- 393 16. Kelly A. The minimum clinically significant difference in visual analogue scale pain  
394 score does not differ with severity of pain. *Emerg Med J.* 2001;18:205-207
- 395 17. Collins SM, RA; McQuay, HJ. The visual analogue pain intensity scale: What is  
396 moderate pain in millimetres? *Pain.* 1997;72:95-97
- 397 18. Jackson D T-SL, Khatoon A, Stern H, Knight L, O'Connell A. Development of an  
398 integrated care pathway for the management of hemiplegic shoulder pain. *Disability  
399 and Rehabilitation.* 2002;24:390-398
- 400 19. Kalichman L RM. Underlying pathology and associated features of hemiplegic  
401 shoulder pain. *American Journal of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation.*  
402 2011;90:768-780
- 403 20. Gamble G BE, Laasch HU, Bowsher D, Tyrrell PJ, Jones AK. Poststroke shoulder  
404 pain: A prospective study of the association and risk factors in 152 patients from a  
405 consecutive cohort of 205 patients presenting with stroke. *European Journal of Pain.*  
406 2002;6:467-474
- 407 21. Lund JP DR, Widmer CG, Stohler CS. The pain-adaptation model: A discussion of  
408 the relationship between chronic musculoskeletal pain and motor activity. *Can J  
409 Physiol Pharmacol.* 1991;69:683-694
- 410 22. Lindgren I LJ, Jonsson AC, Brogardh C. Left-sided hemiparesis, pain frequency, and  
411 decreased passive shoulder range of abduction are predictors of long-lasting  
412 poststroke shoulder pain. *PM R.* 2012;4:561-568
- 413 23. Roosink M RG, Geurts AC, Ijzerman MJ. Towards a mechanism-based view on post-  
414 stroke shoulder pain: Theroetical considerations and clinical implications.  
415 *NeuroRehabilitation.* 2012;30:153-165
- 416 24. Klit H FN, Jensen TS. Central post-stroke pain: Clinical characteristics,  
417 pathophysiology and management. *The Lancet Neurol.* 2009;8:857-868

418

419

420

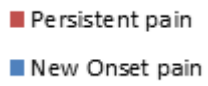
421

422 **Figure Legend:**

423

424 Figure 2: Frequency of Hemiplegic Shoulder Pain

425



426

427

428 Figure 3: Factors aggravating shoulder pain over 12 months



429

