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**Patients with chronic spinal pain benefit from pain neuroscience education
regardless the self-reported signs of central sensitization: secondary analysis
of a randomized controlled multicentre trial**

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1 ABSTRACT

2 **Background:** Pain neuroscience education is effective in chronic pain management.

3 Central sensitization (i.e. generalized hypersensitivity) is often explained as
4 underlying mechanism for chronic pain, because of its clinical relevance and
5 influence on pain severity, prognosis, and treatment outcome.

6 **Objectives:** To examine whether patients with more or fewer symptoms of central
7 sensitization respond differently to pain neuroscience education.

8 **Design:** A secondary analysis of a multicentre, triple-blind randomized controlled trial

9 **Setting:** University hospital Ghent and University Hospital Brussels, Belgium.

10 **Patients:** 120 persons with chronic spinal pain with high or low self-reported
11 symptoms of central sensitization

12 **Interventions:** Pain neuroscience education or neck/back school. Both interventions
13 were delivered in three sessions: one group session, one online session and one
14 individual session.

15 **Main Outcome Measures:** disability (primary), pain catastrophizing, kinesiophobia,
16 illness perceptions and hypervigilance.

17 **Results:** Pain disability did not change in any group ($p=.242$). Regarding secondary
18 outcomes: significant interaction effects were found for pain catastrophizing (p -
19 values: $p=.02$ to $p=.05$), kinesiophobia ($p=.02$), and several aspects of illness
20 perceptions (chronicity: $p=.002$; negative consequences: $p=.02$; personal control:
21 $p=.02$; and cyclicality: $p=.02$). Bonferroni post-hoc analysis showed that only the pain
22 neuroscience education group showed a significant improvement regarding
23 kinesiophobia ($p<.001$, medium effect sizes), perceived negative consequence
24 ($p=.004$ and $p<.001$, small to medium effect sizes) and perceived cyclicality of the
25 illness ($p=.01$ and $p=.01$, small effect sizes).

26 **Conclusion:** Pain neuroscience education is useful in all patients with chronic spinal
27 pain as it improves kinesiophobia and the perceived negative consequences and
28 cyclicity of the illness regardless the self-reported signs of central sensitization.
29 Regarding pain catastrophizing, pain neuroscience education is more effective in
30 patients with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization.

31 **Level of Evidence:** Therapy, Level I

32 **Keywords:** kinesiophobia, illness perceptions, therapy, education, randomized
33 controlled trial

34

35

36 **INTRODUCTION**

37

38 In the last decade the focus of educational programs for people with chronic pain has
39 shifted remarkably to pain neuroscience education [1–5]. Pain neuroscience
40 education is used to increase the patients' knowledge of the underlying pain
41 physiology, to decrease the threat value of pain, and to reconceptualise pain [6,7].
42 Neurophysiological mechanisms of the peripheral and central nervous system and
43 neuroplastic changes occurring in case of chronic pain are explained in layman's
44 terms, using photographs, drawings, metaphors, etc. Particular attention is given to
45 the brain, and its role in pain related thoughts, attitudes and psychological distress,
46 which influence pain perception [8]. There is some evidence to support that pain
47 neuroscience education can improve health status, pain beliefs, illness perceptions,
48 anxiety, kinesiophobia, and endogenous pain modulation in several chronic pain
49 populations, including patients with chronic spinal pain [1,9–14]. Yet, others indicate
50 the need for more studies to support the clinical utility of pain neuroscience education
51 [3,4] or that this type of education is insufficient by itself to change perceived
52 disability [2,15].

53

54 One of the studies indicating the insufficiency of pain neuroscience education to
55 change perceived disability comprises the original analysis of the data presented in
56 this paper [15]. Although there was no change in the perceived disability in response
57 to pain neuroscience education, there was an improvement in secondary outcomes
58 like kinesiophobia, and illness perceptions. The absence of an effect on perceived
59 disability might relate to a heterogeneity in the population regarding symptoms of
60 central sensitization (i.e. generalized hypersensitivity), as evidence shows more

61 perceived disability in subgroups that display more symptoms of central
62 sensitization[16]. Central sensitization is one of the mechanisms explained during
63 pain neuroscience education. Therefore, groups with more prominent symptoms of
64 central sensitization might relate more to the content and might experience more
65 improvement regarding perceived disability (and even other outcome measures) in
66 response to pain neuroscience education. However, this is merely an assumption,
67 that has not been investigated before, which is the scope of this paper.

68

69 Central sensitization is a maladaptive type of neuroplasticity which maintains
70 nociceptive hypersensitivity long after tissue healing has occurred [17], and is
71 characterized by generalized hypersensitivity of the somatosensory system [18,19].
72 Negative or maladaptive pain related thoughts can facilitate this process [20]. Yet,
73 central sensitization is not the only explanatory model for chronic spinal pain in
74 literature. Others suggest for example impaired movement, postural control and
75 deconditioning as underlying mechanisms for chronic spinal pain [21–23].

76

77 Nevertheless, three lines of evidence support the clinical importance of central
78 sensitization (i.e. generalized hypersensitivity) in chronic pain patients: 1) compared
79 to pain patients without signs of central sensitization, patients with predominant
80 central sensitization – objectified using experimental pain measures – report higher
81 pain severity and lower quality of life [24,25]; 2) central sensitization relates to poorer
82 prognosis [26–28] and 3) mediates treatment outcome after physical rehabilitation
83 [28–30] in various chronic musculoskeletal pain populations.

84

85 One particular instrument that assesses self-reported symptoms of central
86 sensitization (i.e. generalized hypersensitivity) is the Central Sensitization Inventory
87 (CSI). The CSI evaluates the occurrence of hypersensitivity for senses unrelated to
88 the musculoskeletal system (e.g. chemical substances, cold, heat, stress, electrical
89 stimuli, etc.) [31–36], and is a reliable and valid instrument [37,38]. Still, it needs to
90 be acknowledged that – like other behavior measures of central sensitization in
91 humans (i.e. quantitative sensory testing) – the CSI is an indirect measure of central
92 sensitization. Nevertheless, unlike in animal studies, there is currently no other way
93 to assess central sensitization in humans.

94
95 The CSI (with the cut-off of >40) has an 81% sensitivity to distinguish between a
96 central sensitivity syndrome group and a non-patient group [39,40], has a strong
97 connection with psychological distress [41], and has strong psychometric properties
98 and potential to be a useful clinical outcome measure [42]. As the content of pain
99 neuroscience education relates partly on central sensitization as underlying
100 mechanism for chronic pain and explains the influence of psychological distress on
101 chronic pain, people suffering more from self-reported symptoms of central
102 sensitization and related psychological distress might identify more with the specific
103 content of the education and might therefore respond better. Identifying groups that
104 respond better or worse to pain neuroscience education, would enable clinicians to
105 provide better therapy to patients with chronic spinal pain.

106
107 Because of the ability of pain neuroscience education to improve several important
108 outcomes in chronic pain (e.g. health status, illness perceptions, kinesiophobia, etc.),
109 the clinical importance of central sensitization (i.e. generalized hypersensitivity) in

110 chronic pain, and the ability of the CSI to differentiate between patients with and
111 without self-reported symptoms of central sensitization, it seems warranted to
112 examine whether patients with more self-reported symptoms of central sensitization
113 respond differently to pain neuroscience education than those with fewer self-
114 reported symptoms of central sensitization. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate
115 if the effectiveness of pain neuroscience education (vs. biomedical neck/back school)
116 differs in patients with high and low baseline self-reported symptoms of central
117 sensitization.
118

119 **METHODS**

120

121 ***Design overview***

122 This multicentre, triple-blind randomized controlled trial took place in two centres: the
123 University Hospitals of Ghent and Brussels. The trial was approved by the local
124 ethics committees (University Hospital Brussels and University Hospital Ghent) and
125 was conducted between January 2014 and January 2016. All participants signed the
126 informed consent. The full study protocol is registered online (ClinicalTrials.gov
127 NCTxxxxx) and is published elsewhere [43]. The trial is reported according to
128 CONSORT guidelines [44].

129

130 Here we report the effects of pain neuroscience education (vs. biomedical neck/back
131 school as the control education) on self-reported questionnaires (assessing disability,
132 catastrophizing, kinesiophobia, illness perceptions, and hypervigilance) in groups
133 with high and low self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (i.e. generalized
134 hypersensitivity). Outcome measures were obtained at baseline and directly after
135 three sessions of education.

136

137 ***Study population and sample size***

138 The study population examined in this secondary analysis is the same as the study
139 population of the original analysis, which is published elsewhere [15]. One-hundred-
140 twenty persons with non-specific chronic spinal pain (nCSP) were recruited through
141 different sources: flyers in the university hospitals in Ghent and Brussels and primary
142 care practices (medical doctors), via adverts and via social media.

143

144 Participants were found eligible for study participation is the were (1) native Dutch
145 speaking; (2) aged between 18 and 65 years old; (3) having nCSP at least
146 3days/week for at least 3 months since the first symptoms: nCSP includes chronic
147 low back pain, failed back surgery syndrome (i.e. more than three year ago,
148 anatomically successful operation without symptom disappearance), chronic
149 whiplash associated disorders, and chronic non-traumatic neck pain; (4) available
150 and willing to participate in educational sessions; and (5) not continuing any other
151 therapies (i.e. other physical therapy treatments, acupuncture, osteopathy, etc.),
152 except for usual medication.

153

154 People were excluded in case of (1) a specific medical condition, possibly related to
155 their pain (e.g., neuropathic pain, a history of neck/back surgery in the past three
156 years, osteoporotic vertebral fractures, rheumatologic diseases); (2) a chronic
157 widespread pain syndromes diagnosis (e.g. fibromyalgia, chronic fatigue syndrome);
158 (3) having their place of residence more than 50km away from the treatment location
159 to avoid dropout due to practical considerations; and (4) having received a form of
160 pain neuroscience education in the past. Additionally, participants were asked not to
161 start new medication 6 weeks prior to and during participation in this study.

162

163 Sample size calculations were performed with G*Power (Düsseldorf, Germany)
164 based on the therapy effects on disability in the pilot study of Van Oosterwijck et al.
165 [12] (Cohen's $D = .46$; usage of neck disability index in people with chronic whiplash).
166 Calculations were based on ANOVA repeated measures (number of measurements
167 = 2; number of groups = 4) statistics with an effect size of .15, alpha set at .05 and a
168 desired power of .90, resulting in a total of 164 people.

169

170 Randomisation

171 Participants were randomly assigned into an educational group, using a stratified
172 permuted block allocation (block size of four) with stratification factors being
173 treatment centre (Ghent or Brussels), dominant pain location (low back or neck) and
174 gender (male or female) [45,46]. Randomisation was performed at the Biostatistics
175 Unit (Ghent University) by an independent investigator using SAS 9.4.

176

177 Blinding

178 The study participants and the statistician (performing the data analyses) were
179 blinded to the study hypothesis; and the outcomes assessors (collecting the data)
180 were blinded for the randomisation sequence (i.e. triple blind). Participants did not
181 know whether they received the experimental or control intervention and they did not
182 see each other in the hospital waiting rooms (no contamination between groups). The
183 therapists providing the experimental treatment were not involved in the control
184 intervention and vice versa.

185

186

187

188 Subdivision of groups

189 The baseline CSI total score was used to divide the groups based on the presence or
190 absence of self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (i.e. generalized
191 hypersensitivity). This questionnaire consists of 25 items assessing health-related
192 symptoms, rated on a Likert-scale (0= "never" to 4= "always"). The total score
193 represents the degree of self-reported symptomology (maximum score = 100). A cut-

194 off value of 40 is determined, with scores higher than 40 indicating the presence of
195 central sensitization (81% sensitivity and 75% specificity) [40]. Several studies found
196 support for the reliability and validity of the CSI, including the Dutch CSI as used here
197 [37–40].

198

199 **Primary Outcome Measure**

200 *Pain disability Index*

201 Pain disability was chosen as primary outcome measure because of its importance in
202 people with chronic spinal pain: perceived disability relates to employment status,
203 health-related quality of life, depression, catastrophizing, anxiety and other
204 psychosocial factors related to well-being [47,48]. The Dutch version of the Pain
205 Disability Index (PDI) was used to measure the impact of pain on daily life activities.
206 The PDI is a valid measurement tool with good internal consistency and good test re-
207 test reliability [49]. Higher scores indicate a higher level of disability during activities.
208 A change in the PDI is considered clinically important when it concerns a decrease of
209 8.5 to 9.5 points[50].

210

211

212

213 **Secondary Outcome Measures**

214 Secondary outcome measures were chosen based on their influence on levels of
215 physical activity, chronification, participation in daily life and social activities [51–54].
216 Therefore, if an intervention can improve these outcome measures, it might enhance
217 an active rehabilitation, which is crucial in the management of people with nCSP
218 [55,56].

219

220 The Dutch Version of the *Pain Catastrophizing Scale* (PCS) assesses catastrophic
221 thoughts regarding pain in 13 statements using a 5-point Likert-scale (range: 0 to 52).
222 Summing these scores leads to a total score of three subscales: rumination (4
223 statements, score range: 0 to 16), magnification (3 statements, score range: 0 to 12)
224 and helplessness (6 statements, range: score 0 to 24). Higher scores indicate a
225 higher degree of catastrophic thoughts regarding pain [57]. The PCS has adequate
226 reliability in people with musculoskeletal disorders [58] and has good criterion and
227 construct validity [58,59].

228 The Dutch version of the *Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia* (TSK) contains 17
229 statements regarding fear of movement or (re)injury, each scored on a 4-points
230 Likert-scale (range: 17 to 68). Higher scores indicate higher fear of movement
231 [60,61], and the minimal clinical important difference is determined as a change of 6
232 points [62]. The TSK has a moderate construct validity and excellent test-retest
233 reliability [61,63].

234 The Dutch version of the *Revised Illness Perception Questionnaire* (IPQr) measures
235 several dimensions of illness perceptions: beliefs about the course of their chronic
236 pain (score range: 0 to 25) and the time scale of illness symptoms (score range: 0 to
237 20), the impact of the illness on quality of life and functional capacity (score range: 0
238 to 30), the perceived influence of own behaviour (score range: 0 to 30) and treatment
239 efficacy (score range: 0 to 25), the emotional responses (score range: 0 to 30) and
240 the coherent understanding (score range: 0 to 25) of the illness [64,65]. All items are
241 scored on a 5-point Likert scale. The IPQr has a good test-retest reliability and
242 predictive validity in different patient populations [65].

243 The Dutch version of the *Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire* (PVAQ)
244 measures the patient's awareness of and attention to pain in 16-items (range 0 to
245 80). Higher scores indicate a higher degree of pain vigilance and awareness. The
246 PVAQ has good internal consistency and test-retest reliability and is shown valid and
247 reliable in several chronic pain populations [66–68].

248

249

250 **Intervention**

251 All study participants received three educational sessions within two weeks. The
252 format of administration was identical for both treatment groups. The first session
253 was a group educational session (PowerPoint presentation, duration: 30 minutes to
254 one hour; maximal six participants/group) led by a physical therapist with clinical
255 experience in chronic spinal pain. The therapist delivering education in one group,
256 did not provide education in the other group, and vice versa. Afterwards, participants
257 received an educational booklet containing the same information to read at home.
258 The second session was an online home-based e-learning module, containing three
259 explanatory videos. These videos displayed the PowerPoint presentation used in the
260 group session, with a voice-over explaining the content of the slides. After each
261 video, the participants had to complete a questionnaire which assessed their opinion
262 and understanding of that video. The third session comprised a 30-minute one-on-
263 one conversation focussing on the patient's personal needs: answers from the
264 second session's questionnaires were analysed and the application of the newly-
265 derived knowledge into daily life was discussed. The content of the provided
266 education (described below) rather than the format of administration differed between
267 groups.

268

269 *Experimental group*

270 The content and pictures of the first and the second session were based on current
271 knowledge of the neurophysiology of pain [69] and on two instructive books [6,7]. An
272 example of a PowerPoint presentation for pain neuroscience education can be found
273 online ([http://www.paininmotion.be/storage/app/media//materials/sem-](http://www.paininmotion.be/storage/app/media//materials/sem-PainPhysiologyEducationEnglish.pdf)
274 [PainPhysiologyEducationEnglish.pdf](http://www.paininmotion.be/storage/app/media//materials/sem-PainPhysiologyEducationEnglish.pdf)).

275 Following topics are covered: the physiology of the 1) the neuron (receptor, axon,
276 terminal), 2) the synapse (action potential, neurotransmitters, postsynaptic
277 membrane potential, chemically driven ion channel), 3) descending nociceptive
278 inhibition and facilitation (the influence of stress, emotions, thoughts, physical
279 activity,...), 4) peripheral sensitization, and 5) central sensitization (receptor field
280 growth, potentiation of the postsynaptic membrane, changes at cortical and
281 subcortical level, etc.).

282 In the third session, the therapist and patient discussed the answers given during the
283 online session by relating them to the pain neuroscience education content. After
284 these three sessions, the patients should be able to put their pain into the right
285 perspective and to feel less threatened by the pain, leading to the willingness to
286 perform physical activity with progression towards feared or avoided movements.

287

288

289

290 *Control group*

291 The biomedically-focused neck/back school was based on available clinical
292 guidelines [70,71]. Participants were expected gain biomedically-oriented knowledge

293 on neck and low back pain during the education. The following topics were covered:
294 1) the normal course and mechanical causes of neck/back pain; 2) the anatomy,
295 physiology and biomechanics of the spinal bones, joints and muscles; 3) ergonomic
296 advice and the importance of self-care; 4) lifting techniques (using pictures of people
297 lifting in several ways); and 5) the value of and principles behind different types of
298 exercises (stretching; and strength, endurance and fitness training). It did not include
299 information on the nervous system, except for the course and location of the spinal
300 cord and spinal nerve roots. During the third session, the patient and therapist
301 discussed the answers given during the online session by relating them to the
302 content of the education and patients were given ergonomic advice for specific
303 activities and were able to practice lifting techniques.

304

305 **Statistical Analysis**

306 Data were analysed using SPSS 22.0. Subjects of both educational groups were
307 allocated into groups based on their baseline CSI scores. Subjects with a CSI score
308 higher than 40 were allocated into the highCSI group, the others into the lowCSI
309 group, leading to a total of four groups. Differences in response to the interventions
310 between the four groups were first analysed using ANCOVA, with gender as
311 covariate. As this covariate did not show significant interaction in any variable, the
312 analysis was performed again without this covariate. The assumption of homogeneity
313 and sphericity was checked by Levene's and Mauchly's test respectively. When the
314 assumption of sphericity was violated, Greenhouse-Geisser corrections were used.
315 In case of significant interaction effects (i.e. implying that the compared groups
316 respond differently to the intervention given), Bonferroni Post Hoc analysis was
317 carried out to investigate the specific differences within and between groups. Data

318 were analysed according to the intention-to-treat principle (i.e., the first-observation-
319 carried-forward method). This method was used because of the short period (+/- two
320 weeks) between the baseline and post-education measurements. Therefore, we
321 believe that the baseline measurement is most representative as follow-up
322 measurement for the people who dropped out. Also, we are aware that this method
323 for conducting intention-to-treat analyses is rather stringent.

324

325

326

327

328

329 RESULTS

330 Subjects' demographic characteristics and comparability

331 Of the 120 persons included, nine (n=2 in the high CSI neck/back school group; n=2
332 in the low CSI neck/back school group; n=2 in the high CSI pain neuroscience
333 education group; and n=3 in the low CSI pain neuroscience education group)
334 dropped out before completion of the second round of questionnaires. Reasons for
335 dropout are outlined in the study flow chart (figure 1). Subjects' baseline
336 characteristics can be found in detail in table 1.

337

338 Effectiveness of pain neuroscience education in patients with nCSP with high 339 and low self-reported symptoms of central sensitization

340 Regarding pain disability, no significant interaction effect was found (table 2), but
341 differences at group level ($p < .001$) were found. All patients with high CSI scores had
342 higher PDI scores than the groups with low CSI scores ($p < .004$ for all comparisons;
343 see table 3).

344

345 For all pain catastrophizing items (except for helplessness) significant interaction
346 effects were found (p-values ranging from $p = .02$ to $p = .05$; see table 2 and figure 2).
347 Bonferroni post-hoc analysis (table 3 and figure 2) showed a significant difference at
348 baseline between the two pain neuroscience education groups (mean difference
349 rumination: 4.07, 95%CI: 2.06 to 6.07; mean difference magnification: 2.17, 95%CI:
350 1.07 to 3.26; mean difference total score: 9.67, 95%CI: 4.74 to 14.60) and that these
351 three pain catastrophizing items decreased significantly only in the high CSI pain
352 neuroscience education group ($p < .001$; small effect sizes), which was not seen in the

353 low CSI groups (negligible sizes). Surprisingly, PCS magnification increased in the
354 low CSI pain neuroscience education group ($p=.03$; small effect size).

355

356 Regarding kinesiophobia, a significant interaction effect was found ($p=.02$; see table
357 2 and figure 3). Bonferroni post-hoc analysis showed that only in the pain
358 neuroscience education groups kinesiophobia decreased significantly ($p<.001$,
359 medium effect sizes; see table 3 and figure 3). Additional analysis of group effects
360 showed significant higher kinesiophobia at baseline in the high CSI pain
361 neuroscience education group compared to the low CSI group ($p=.02$). Post-
362 education, there was a significant group difference between the high CSI groups
363 ($p=.03$) and the low CSI groups ($p=.001$).

364

365 Last, several illness perceptions showed significant interaction effects (see table 2
366 and figures 4 and 5): acute/chronic timeline ($p=.002$), negative consequences
367 ($p=.02$), personal control ($p=.02$) and timeline cyclical ($p=.012$). Bonferroni post-hoc
368 analysis (table 3) showed that both pain neuroscience education groups improved
369 significantly post-education for all subscales (p -values ranging from $p<.001$ to $p=.01$,
370 small to large effect sizes). In the neck/back school groups, there was a significant
371 improvement of IPQr 'acute/chronic timeline' ($p<.001$; medium effect size) in the low
372 CSI group and a significant improvement of IPQr 'personal control' ($p<.001$; medium
373 effect size) in the high CSI group. Bonferroni post-hoc analyses of group effects
374 (table 3) showed significant higher IPQr consequences scores in the high CSI pain
375 neuroscience education group compared to the low CSI pain neuroscience education
376 group at baseline ($p<.001$) and post education ($p<.001$).

377 **DISCUSSION**

378 The aim of this study was to investigate if the effectiveness of pain neuroscience
379 education – compared to biomedical neck/back school – differs between patients with
380 high and low self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (i.e. generalized
381 hypersensitivity). Results of the present study show that pain neuroscience education
382 is superior over neck/back school for improving kinesiophobia and the perceived
383 negative consequences and cyclicity of the illness in patients with nCSP regardless
384 their baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization. Yet, only in patients
385 with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization, pain neuroscience
386 education has the potential to reduce rumination about pain.

387

388 The use of CSI scores to subgroup the participants in this study and its relevance to
389 measure central sensitization should be discussed. Like other behavioural measures,
390 the CSI is an indirect tool to measure central sensitization and based on the recently
391 proposed clinical classification system for central sensitization pain [72,73], CSI
392 scores alone are insufficient to differentiate between self-reported symptoms of
393 central sensitization and non-central sensitization pain. Although the CSI cannot
394 directly objectify central sensitization, the questionnaire is related to psychological
395 distress and widespread pain, and is therefore related to central sensitization [41].
396 Because of the shared variance between the CSI and psychological distress, it is
397 possible that the latter predicts the outcome following pain neuroscience education in
398 patients with nCSP, rather than central sensitization. Nevertheless, the CSI is an
399 easy-to-use and clinically relevant tool and was therefore used as such in this study
400 to generate clinically applicable results.

401

402

403 The a priori defined primary outcome measure – pain disability – did not change in
404 any of the study groups, while previous studies on pain neuroscience education did
405 report a positive effect on self-reported disability [2,12,74]. That discrepancy could be
406 explained due to the use of a different questionnaire to objectify disability, e.g. the
407 Roland Morris Disability Questionnaire [2,74] and the Neck Disability Index [12].
408 Other explanations may involve the use of an uncontrolled study design in earlier
409 studies [12], or because the investigated patient population of this study comprises
410 both patients with low back pain and neck pain, while previous studies focussed on
411 either low back pain or neck pain patients.

412

413 Results regarding pain catastrophizing indicate that pain catastrophizing in general,
414 and rumination in particular are two aspects that can be targeted primarily in patients
415 with high baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization using pain
416 neuroscience education (small effect sizes). Neck/back school is not able to alter
417 pain rumination, but the total pain catastrophizing score did improve in the neck/back
418 school group with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization. This,
419 combined with the improvement in the total score in the pain neuroscience education
420 group, indicates that patients with high self-reported symptoms of central
421 sensitization seem to benefit more from educational sessions than patients with low
422 levels, regardless the information provided.

423

424 Pain magnification on the contrary, can be reduced by pain neuroscience education
425 in patients with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (small effect
426 size), while it tends to increase in patients with low self-reported symptoms of central

427 sensitization (small effect size). Therefore, one should be cautious while explaining
428 pain neurophysiology to nCSP patients with low self-reported symptoms of central
429 sensitization to make sure the information provided does not lead to magnification of
430 the pain problem. While providing pain neuroscience education, the therapist should
431 clearly assess the patients' thoughts on the delivered information and address
432 inappropriate beliefs upon occurrence.

433

434 Regarding kinesiophobia, medium effect sizes are found in both pain neuroscience
435 education groups, while effect sizes remain small to negligible in the neck/back
436 school group. This finding is consistent with previous research [2,12,74]. However,
437 previous research did not account for the presence of self-reported symptoms of
438 central sensitization. The results of this study indicate that for kinesiophobia, baseline
439 self-reported symptoms of central sensitization did not influence the effect of pain
440 neuroscience education as both groups improved equally (medium effect sizes). The
441 decrease in kinesiophobia is a positive effect directly resulting from pain
442 neuroscience education as this was not seen in the neck/back school group. This is
443 an important finding as kinesiophobia is a strong predictor for chronification [75], and
444 a decrease is shown to be related to greater improvement in pain and disability [76].

445

446 Kinesiophobia can occur from an ignorance regarding pain symptoms [77]. Patients
447 with chronic pain may believe that their pain is related to tissue damage, while
448 evidence shows that spinal radiological imaging findings are often unrelated to spinal
449 pain [78]. Pain neuroscience education helps patients to understand the mechanisms
450 underlying the pain problem by explaining that pain is the result of sensory
451 hypersensitivity rather than a damaged spine. This knowledge may result in reduced

452 fear of injury or damage while moving the spine, possibly resulting in a decrease in
453 kinesiophobia.

454

455 Also interesting findings regarding illness perceptions were found. For all aspects of
456 illness perceptions that showed significant interaction effects, both groups with high
457 and low baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization improved in
458 response to pain neuroscience education. This implies that pain neuroscience
459 education is able to reduce the perceived chronicity and the perceived negative
460 impact of the illness, while it can increase the perceived fluctuations of the illness and
461 the perceived personal control. This is not an unexpected finding as pain
462 neuroscience education imparts a change in illness perceptions by redefining pain.
463 Also, the increase in the aspect 'timeline cyclical' does not come as a surprise. This
464 indicates that pain neuroscience education leads to stronger beliefs of
465 unpredictability and cyclicity of the illness, which should be interpreted with respect to
466 the content of the education. Patients learn that the normal course of chronic pain is
467 fluctuating and unpredictable. Therefore, a significant increase in this subscale could
468 represent the increased knowledge and acceptance.

469

470 **Strengths and limitations**

471 Study strengths include the balanced treatment arms, triple blind randomized design,
472 use of reliable and valid outcomes and the a priori study protocol publication [43].

473

474 Also, some limitations should be mentioned. The lack of follow-up period is an
475 important limitation of this study as information retention and delayed changes in the
476 investigated outcome measures were not evaluated. Furthermore, one should be

477 cautious in extrapolating these results into the general chronic pain population given
478 the heterogeneity of this group.

479

480 A last limitation to consider relates to the sample size calculation, which indicated the
481 inclusion of 164 study participants (accounting for two measurements and four
482 groups). However, as this study entails a secondary analysis of a dataset that
483 included only 120 study participants, we failed to meet this sample size (n=164).
484 This might explain why no effect was found for the primary outcome measure.

485

486 **CONCLUSION**

487 To conclude, results indicate that pain neuroscience education is superior to
488 neck/back school in improving kinesiophobia and the perceived negative
489 consequences and cyclicity of the illness in patients with nCSP regardless their
490 baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (i.e. generalized
491 hypersensitivity). Only in patients with high self-reported symptoms of central
492 sensitization, pain neuroscience education has the potential to reduce rumination
493 about pain, a result that is not seen in patients with low self-reported symptoms of
494 central sensitization. In general, these results imply the use of pain neuroscience
495 education over neck/back school in clinical practice in patients with nCSP regardless
496 their baseline levels of self-reported symptoms of central sensitization.

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- 776

TABLE 1. Demographics and baseline characteristics of patients with nCSP with high and low self-reported signs of central sensitization

Demographic characteristics	Pain Neuroscience Education		Neck/Back School	
	High CSI (n=24)	Low CSI (n=36)	High CSI (n=30)	Low CSI (n=30)
<i>Demographics</i>				
Dominant pain problem ^a (NP/LBP)	13/11	19/17	17/13	15/15
Sex (F/M)	17/7	21/15	22/8	13/17
Duration of Pain ^b (months)	111 (128.3)	88 (156.5)	66.5 (96.5)	70.5 (141.5)
Educational Level ^a No degr – Lower second. – Higher second. – Higher Edu	0 – 1 – 7 – 16	0 – 3 – 4 – 29	0 – 5 – 7 – 18	0 – 3 – 6 – 21
Working Hours per week ^b	40 (12.50)	39 (15.75)	38 (23.75)	40 (12.50)
Age (y) ^c	36.58±11.03	40.47±12.49	40.13±14.91	42.10±11.10
Age (y) min-max	20 - 56	20 - 65	19 - 65	19 - 64
<i>Baseline characteristics</i>				
PDI (/70)	30.13±14.92	16.25±11.59	26.03±15.06	17.13±9.94
PCS Rumination (/16)	8.96±3.37	4.89±3.78	7.63±4.26	5.37±3.85
PCS Magnification (/12)	3.75±2.25	1.58±1.70	3.23±2.40	2.27±2.08
PCS Helplessness (/24)	9.63±4.39	6.19±4.33	8.73±5.98	6.47±4.31
PCS Total (/52)	22.33±8.50	12.67±8.62	19.60±11.33	14.10±9.05
TSK (/68)	37.00±6.76	32.61±6.84	37.97±6.71	35.47±6.86
IPQr acute/chronic timeline (/25)	24.63±4.13	23.33±4.19	23.13±3.58	23.33±3.70
IPQr Consequences (/20)	19.50±4.29	14.53±4.33	18.00±3.94	15.30±4.77
IPQr personal control (/30)	19.33±4.01	20.75±4.13	19.43±4.35	22.27±3.61
IPQr treatment control (/30)	16.42±2.34	17.11±2.69	16.63±3.43	17.83±2.25
IPQr illness coherence (/25)	16.88±1.96	17.17±2.79	15.63±2.71	17.27±2.15
IPQr timeline cyclical (/30)	12.83±3.05	13.28±3.64	12.53±2.62	13.80±3.25
IPQr emotional representations (/25)	17.21±3.88	13.42±3.87	15.67±4.77	13.40±5.44
PVAQ (/60)	40.88±9.18	34.25±12.88	36.10±10.45	35.43±14.72
^a Categorical data presented as frequencies; ^b Values are presented as median (Interquartile range) for continuous data that were observed as not normally distributed; ^c Values are presented as mean±SD for continuous normal distributed data. Abbreviations: CSI= Central Sensitization Inventory; NP= Neck Pain; LBP= Low Back Pain; F= Female; M= Male; No degr= no degree, Lower second= lower secondary, Higher second= higher secondary, Higher edu= higher education; PDI= Pain Disability index; PCS= Pain Catastrophizing Scale; TSK= Tamps Scale for Kinesiophobia; IPQr= Illness Perception Questionnaire revised; PVAQ= Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire.				

TABLE 2. Effectiveness of pain neuroscience education in patients with nCSP with high and low self-reported signs of central sensitization (n=120).

Questionnaire	Time of measurement	Pain Neuroscience Education		Mean difference [95%CI]	Neck/Back School		Mean difference [95%CI]	ANOVA Analysis	
		High CSI levels Mean(SE) (n=24)	Low CSI levels Mean(SE) (n=36)		High CSI levels Mean(SE) (n=30)	Low CSI levels Mean(SE) (n=30)		Interaction effect	Main effect of group
<i>Primary Outcome Measure</i>									
PDI (/70)	Baseline	30.09(2.70)	16.25(2.16)	13.84 [6.99;20.68]	26.03(2.16)	17.13(2.36)	8.90 [2.28;15.52]	F=1.414 p=.24	F=9.580 p<.001
	Post Edu	27.65(2.41)	16.58(1.93)	11.07 [4.96;17.18]	28.53(2.11)	16.93(2.11)	11.60 [5.69;17.51]		
	ES Cohen's D	.19	.03	-	.21	.02	-		
<i>Secondary Outcome Measures</i>									
PCS Rumination (/16)	Baseline	8.96(.79)	4.89(.64)	4.07 [2.06;6.07]	7.63(.70)	5.37(.70)	2.27 [.30;4.23]	F=2.759 p=.05	N/A
	Post Edu	7.21(.78)	5.33(.64)	1.88 [-.11;3.86]	6.67(.70)	4.77(.70)	1.90 [-.05;3.85]		
	ES Cohen's D	.46	.11	-	<.01	.16	-		
PCS Magnification (/12)	Baseline	3.75(.43)	1.58(.35)	2.17 [1.07;3.26]	3.23(.38)	2.27(.38)	.97 [-.11;2.04]	F=3.349 p=.02	N/A
	Post Edu	2.83(.43)	2.36(.35)	.47 [-.63;1.58]	2.87(.39)	1.93(.39)	.93 [-.15;2.02]		
	ES Cohen's D	.44	.37	-	.17	.16	-		
PCS Helplessness (/24)	Baseline	9.63(.98)	6.19(.80)	3.43 [.92;5.94]	8.73(.88)	6.47(.88)	2.27 [-.19;4.72]	F=1.189 p=.32	F=2.633 p=.05
	Post Edu	7.96(.99)	5.92(.80)	2.04 [-.48;4.56]	7.47(.88)	5.87(.88)	1.60 [-.87;4.07]		
	ES Cohen's D	.35	.06	-	.26	.12	-		

PCS Total Score (/52)	Baseline	22.33(1.93)	12.37(1.58)	9.67 [4.74;14.60]	19.60(1.73)	14.10(1.73)	5.50 [.67;10.33]	F=3.487 p=.02	N/A
	Post Edu	18.00(1.93)	13.61(1.57)	4.39 [- .54;9.31]	17.00(1.72)	12.57(1.72)	4.43 [- .39;9.26]		
	ES Cohen's D	.46	.13	-	.28	.16	-		
TSK (/68)	Baseline	37.00(1.39)	32.61(1.13)	4.39 [.84;7.34]	37.97(1.24)	35.47(1.24)	2.50 [- .98;5.98]	F=3.651 p=.02	N/A
	Post Edu	32.25(1.43)	29.03(1.17)	3.22 [- .43;6.88]	36.53(1.28)	34.93(1.28)	1.60 [- 1.98;5.18]		
	ES Cohen's D	.69	.52	-	.21	.08	-		
IPQr Acute/chronic Timeline (/25)	Baseline	24.63(.80)	23.33(.65)	1.29 [- .75;3.33]	23.13(.71)	23.33(.71)	-.20 [- 2.20;1.80]	F=5.207 p=.002	N/A
	Post Edu	20.58(.93)	19.47(.76)	1.11 [- 1.26;3.49]	22.17(.83)	21.00(.83)	1.17 [- 1.16;3.49]		
	ES Cohen's D	.95	.91	-	.23	.55	-		
IPQr Consequence (/20)	Baseline	19.50(.89)	14.53(.72)	4.97 [2.70;7.24]	18.00(.79)	15.30(.79)	2.70 [.48;4.92]	F=3.429 p=.02	N/A
	Post Edu	16.96(.84)	12.94(.69)	4.01 [1.87;6.16]	17.90(.75)	15.00(.75)	2.90 [.80;5.00]		
	ES Cohen's D	.60	.38	-	.02	.07	-		
IPQr Personal Control (/30)	Baseline	19.33(.83)	20.75(.67)	-1.42 [- 3.53;6.9]	19.43(.74)	22.27(.74)	-2.83 [- 4.90;-.77]	F=3.577 p=.02	N/A
	Post Edu	22.50(.63)	22.39(.51)	.11 [- 1.49;1.72]	21.87(.56)	22.43(.56)	-.57 [- 2.14;1.01]		
	ES Cohen's D	.88	.46	-	.68	.04	-		
IPQr Treatment control (/30)	Baseline	16.42(.56)	17.11(.46)	-.69 [- 2.12;.73]	16.63(.50)	17.83(.50)	-1.20 [- 2.60;.20]	F=.739 p=.53	F=1.916 p=.13
	Post Edu	17.75(.45)	18.03(.37)	-.28 [- 1.42;.87]	17.07(.40)	18.30(.40)	-1.23 [- 2.35;-.11]		
	ES Cohen's D	.53	.37	-	.18	.19	-		
IPQr Illness	Baseline	16.88(.50)	17.17(.41)	-.29 [- 1.58;1.00]	15.63(.45)	17.27(.45)	-1.63 [- 2.90;-.37]	F=1.518 p=.21	F=3.544 p=.02

Coherence (/25)	Post Edu	18.17(.52)	17.19(.42)	.97 [-.35;2.30]	16.30(.46)	18.07(.46)	-1.77 [-3.07;-.47]		
	ES Cohen's D	.52	.01	-	.27	.32	-		
IPQr Timeline Cyclical (/30)	Baseline	12.83(.65)	13.28(.53)	-.44 [-2.11;1.22]	12.53(.58)	13.80(.58)	-1.27 [-2.90;.37]	F=3.585 p=.02	N/A
	Post Edu	14.17(.67)	14.42(.54)	-.25 [-1.95;1.45]	12.77(.60)	13.13(.60)	-.37 [-2.04;1.30]		
	ES Cohen's D	.41	.36	-	.07	.21	-		
IPQr Emotional Representations (/25)	Baseline	17.21(.93)	13.42(.76)	3.79 [1.42;6.16]	15.67(.83)	13.40(.83)	2.27 [-.05;4.59]	F=.336 p=.78	F=4.330 p=.006
	Post Edu	17.04(.95)	14.19(.77)	2.85 [.43;5.27]	16.00(.85)	13.93(.85)	2.07 [-.31;4.44]		
	ES Cohen's D	.04	.17	-	.07	.12	-		
PVAQ (/60)	Baseline	40.88(2.49)	34.25(2.03)	6.63 [.27;12.98]	36.10(2.22)	35.43(2.22)	.67 [-5.56;6.89]	F=1.272 p=.29	F=.930 p=.43
	Post Edu	35.38(2.50)	32.61(2.04)	2.76 [-3.62;9.15]	34.97(2.23)	32.60(2.23)	2.37 [-3.89;8.62]		
	ES Cohen's D	.45	.13	-	.09	.23	-		

ANOVA repeated measures analysis. Significant results and large effect sizes were printed in **bold**. Effect Sizes were calculated as Cohen's D. Cohen's D is interpreted as 'very large' (>1.3), 'large' (.80-1.29), 'medium' (.50-.79), 'small' (.20-.49), 'negligible' (<.20). Abbreviations: CSI: Central Sensitization Inventory; Post Edu: Post Education; PDI: Pain Disability Index; PCS: Pain Catastrophizing Scale; TSK: Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia; IPQr: Illness Perception Questionnaire Reversed; PVAQ: Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire;

TABLE 3. Results of Bonferroni Post-Hoc analysis of the significant interaction effects after pain neuroscience education (PNE) vs. neck/back school (NBS) in patients with chronic spinal pain (n=120) with high and low scores on the Central Sensitization Inventory.

Questionnaire	Effect of Group						Effect of Time	
	High CSI PNE vs. Low CSI PNE		High CSI PNE vs. High CSI NBS		Low CSI PNE vs. Low CSI NBS			
PCS Rumination	Baseline	p<.001	Baseline	p=.21	Baseline	p=.62	PNE	p=.005^a; p=.38 ^b
	Post Edu	p=.06	Post Edu	p=.60	Post Edu	p=.55	NBS	p=.08 ^c ; p=.28 ^d
PCS Magnification	Baseline	p<.001	Baseline	p=.37	Baseline	p=.19	PNE	p=.04^a; p=.03^b
	Post Edu	p=.40	Post Edu	p=.95	Post Edu	p=.42	NBS	p=.36 ^c ; p=.40 ^d
PCS Total Score	Baseline	p<.001	Baseline	p=.29	Baseline	p=.54	PNE	p<.001^a; p=.39 ^b
	Post Edu	p=.08	Post Edu	p=.70	Post Edu	p=.66	NBS	p=.03^c; p=.20 ^d
TSK	Baseline	p=.02	Baseline	p=.61	Baseline	p=.09	PNE	p<.001^a; p<.001^b
	Post Edu	p=.08	Post Edu	p=.03	Post Edu	p=.001	NBS	p=.15 ^c ; p=.59 ^d
IPQr Acute/chronic Timeline	Baseline	p=.21	Baseline	p=.17	Baseline	p=.99	PNE	p<.001^a; p<.001^b
	Post Edu	p=.36	Post Edu	p=.21	Post Edu	p=.18	NBS	p=.13 ^c ; p<.001^d
IPQr Consequence	Baseline	p<.001	Baseline	p=.21	Baseline	p=.47	PNE	p<.001^a; p=.004^b
	Post Edu	p<.001	Post Edu	p=.40	Post Edu	p=.05	NBS	p=.87 ^c ; p=.61 ^d
IPQr Personal Control	Baseline	p=.19	Baseline	p=.93	Baseline	p=.13	PNE	p<.001^a; p=.007^b
	Post Edu	p=.891	Post Edu	p=.454	Post Edu	p=.953	NBS	p<.001^c; p=.80 ^d
IPQr Timeline Cyclical	Baseline	p=.598	Baseline	p=.732	Baseline	p=.510	PNE	p=.01^a; p=.01^b
	Post Edu	p=.772	Post Edu	p=.120	Post Edu	p=.114	NBS	p=.63 ^c ; p=.17 ^d

Bonferroni post-hoc analysis of significant interaction effects.
^aEffect of Time in the Pain Neuroscience Education group with high CSI levels; ^bEffect of Time in the Pain Neuroscience Education group with low CSI levels; ^cEffect of Time in the Neck/Back School Group with high CSI levels; ^dEffect of Time in the

Neck/Back School Group with low CSI levels

Abbreviations: CSI= Central Sensitization Inventory; PNE= Pain Neuroscience Education; NBS= Neck/Back School; Post Edu= Post Education; PCS= Pain Catastrophizing Scale; TSK= Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia; IPQr= Illness Perception Questionnaire revised.

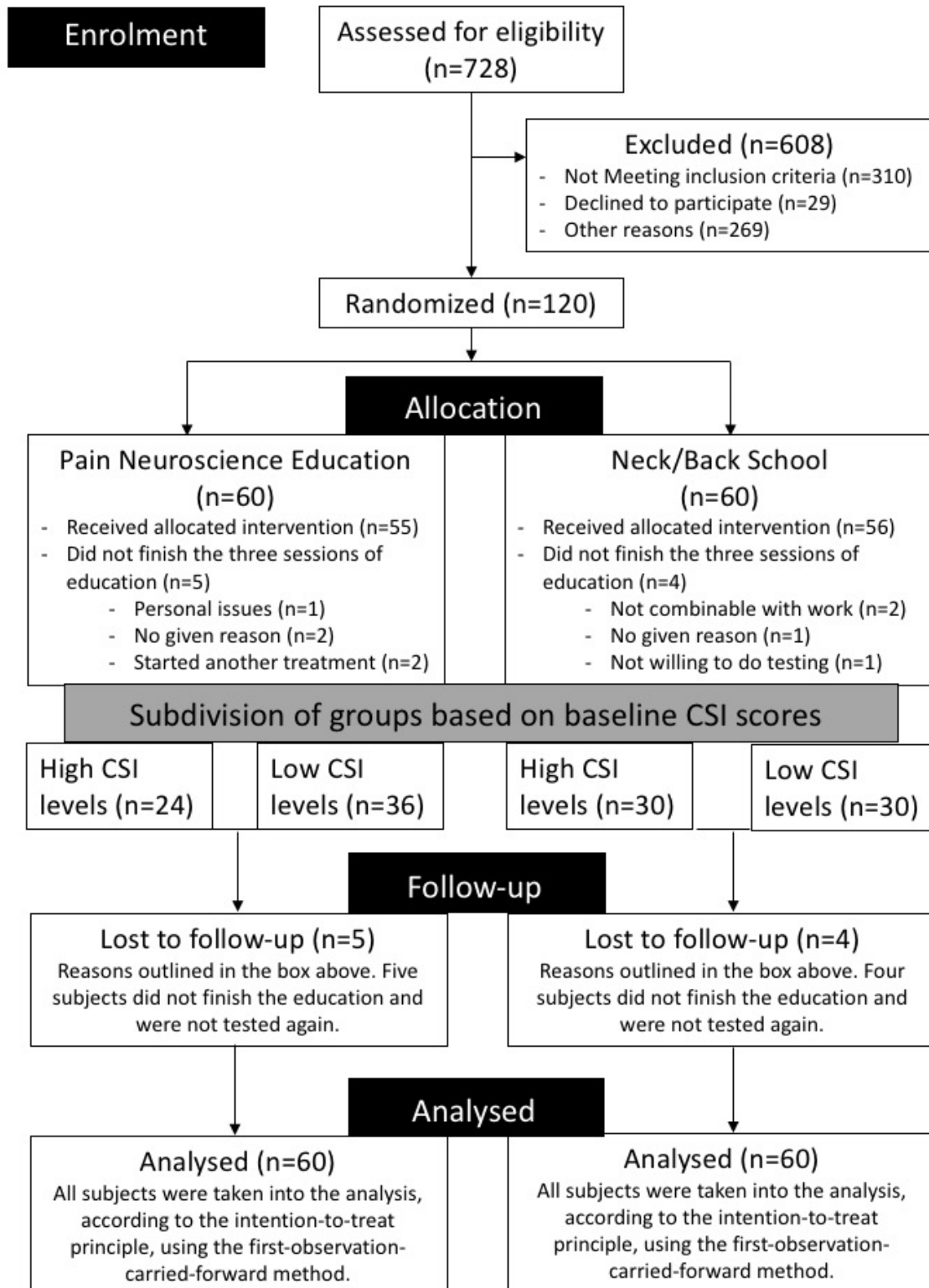
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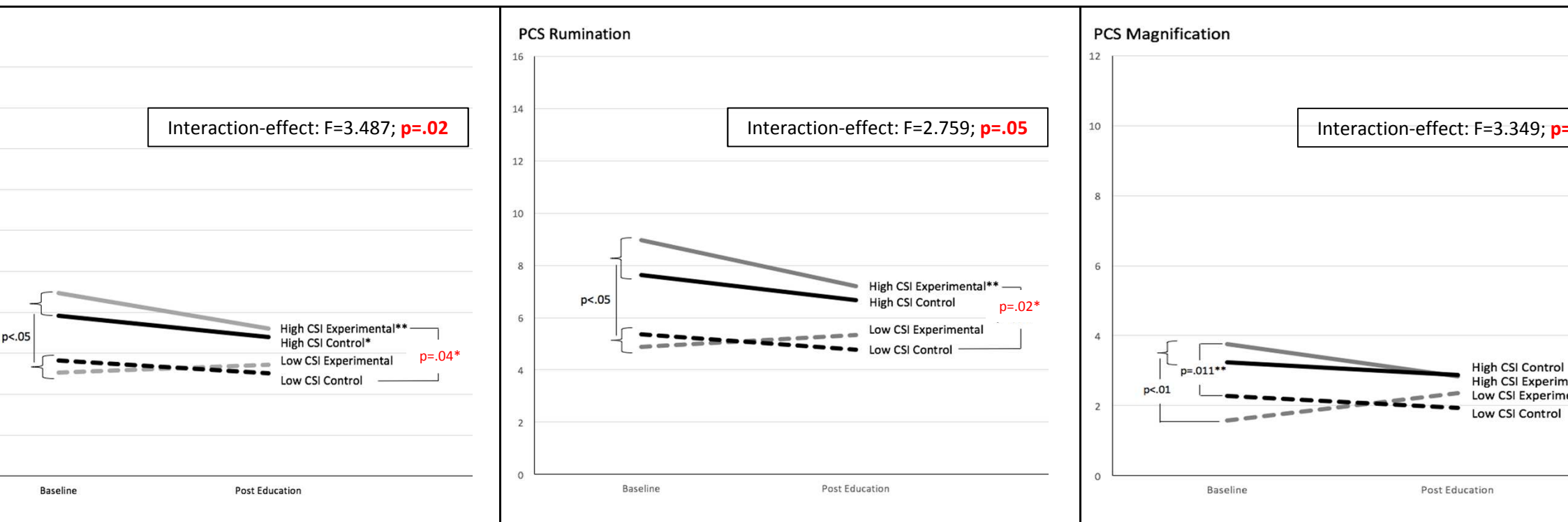
Supplementary online table S1. Post-Hoc analysis of significant Main effects of Group.

Questionnaires	Group Differences					
	High CSI PNE vs. Low CSI PNE	High CSI PNE vs. High CSI NBS	High CSI PNE vs. Low CSI NBS	Low CSI PNE vs. High CSI NBS	Low CSI PNE vs. Low CSI NBS	High CSI NBS vs. Low CSI NBS
PDI	p=.001	p>.99	p=.002	p=.001	p>.99	p=.004
IPQr Illness Coherence	p=.10	p=.07	p>.99	p=.18	p>.99	p=.02
IPQr Emotional Representations	p=.002	p>.99	p=.02	p=.33	p>.99	p=.30

Bonferroni Post-Hoc analysis of significant Main effects of Group. Significant p-values are printed in **bold**.
Abbreviations: CSI= Central Sensitization Inventory; PNE= Pain Neuroscience Education; NBS= Neck/Back School; PDI= Pain Disability Index; IPQr= Illness Perception Questionnaire revised.

Figure 1. Study flow chart



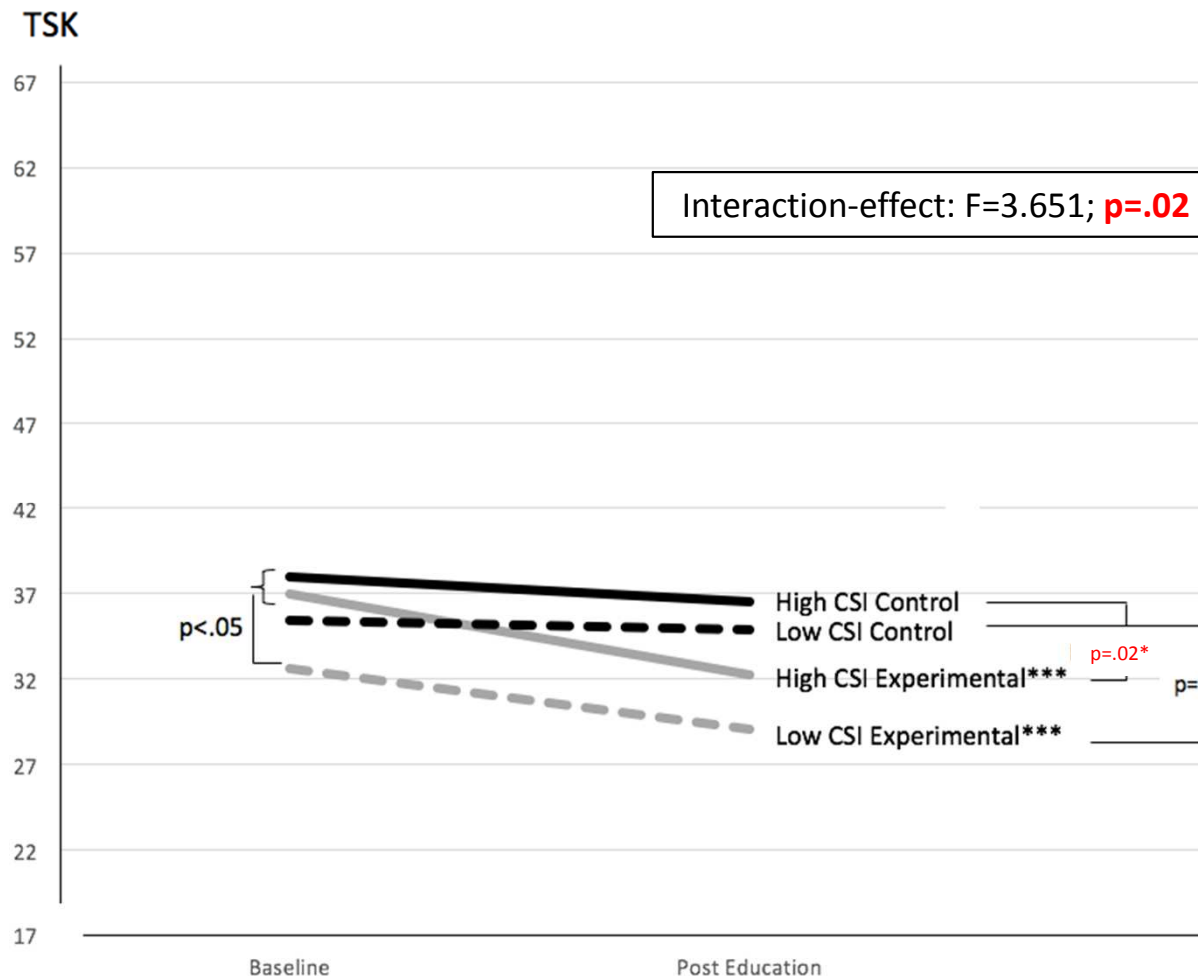


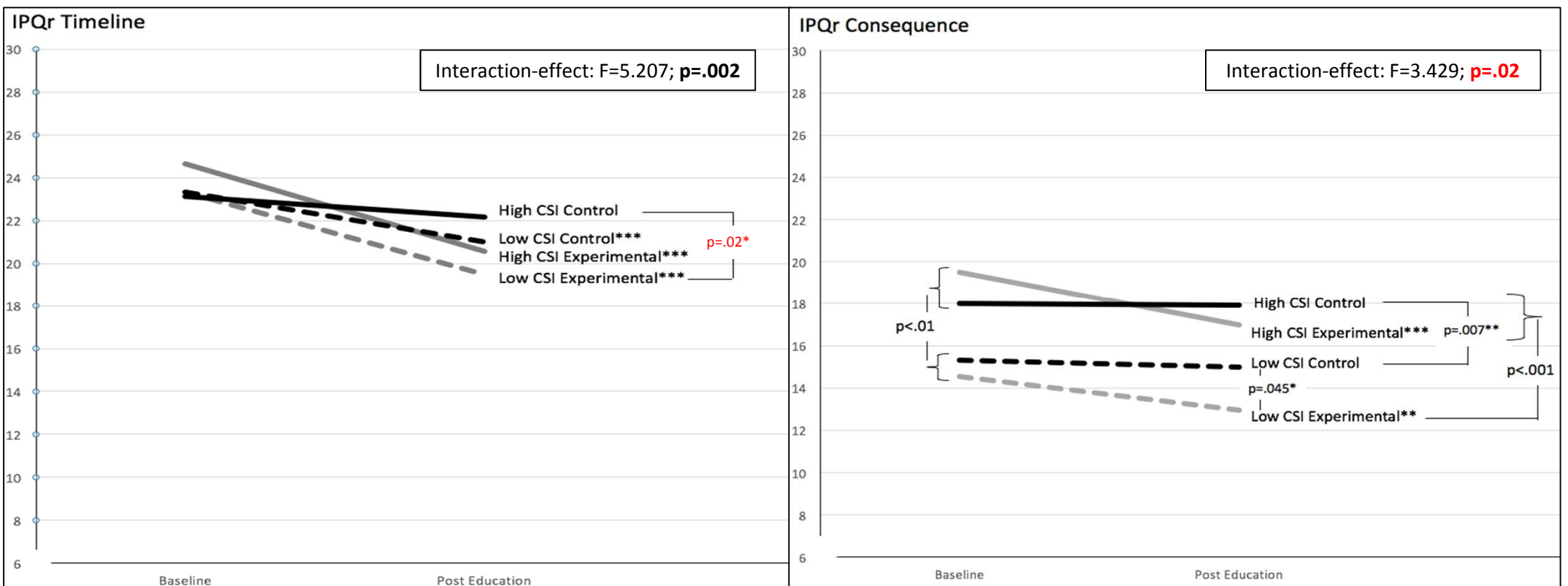
RE 2. The effect of pain neuroscience education versus neck/back school on pain catastrophizing in patients with chronic spinal pain with high and low baseline CSI levels ($n=120$).

All significant interaction effects are displayed on the figure using a box. Significant within group effects (post-hoc Bonferroni) are displayed behind the respective groups using an asterisk (* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$). Significant between group effects (post-hoc Bonferroni) are displayed as p-values.

Abbreviations: PCS=Pain Catastrophizing Scale, CSI=Central Sensitization Inventory

RE 3. Pain neuroscience education is effective for decreasing kinesiophobia regardless self-reported signs of central sensitization, compared to neck/back school, in patients with chronic spinal pain (n=120). All significant interaction effects are displayed on the figure using a box. Significant within group effects (post-hoc bonferroni) are displayed behind the respective groups using an asterisk (*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001). Significant between group effects (post-hoc bonferroni) are displayed as p-values. Abbreviations: TSK=Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia, CSI=Central Sensitization Inventory





RE 4. The effect of pain neuroscience education and neck/back school on the perceived chronicity and negative consequences of the illness in patients with chronic spinal pain with high and low baseline CSI levels (n=120). All significant interaction effects are displayed on the figure using a box. Significant within group effects (post-hoc Bonferroni) are displayed behind the respective groups using an asterisk (* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$). Significant between group effects (post-hoc Bonferroni) are displayed as p-values.

Abbreviations: IPQr=Illness Perception Questionnaire revised, CSI=Central Sensitization Inventory

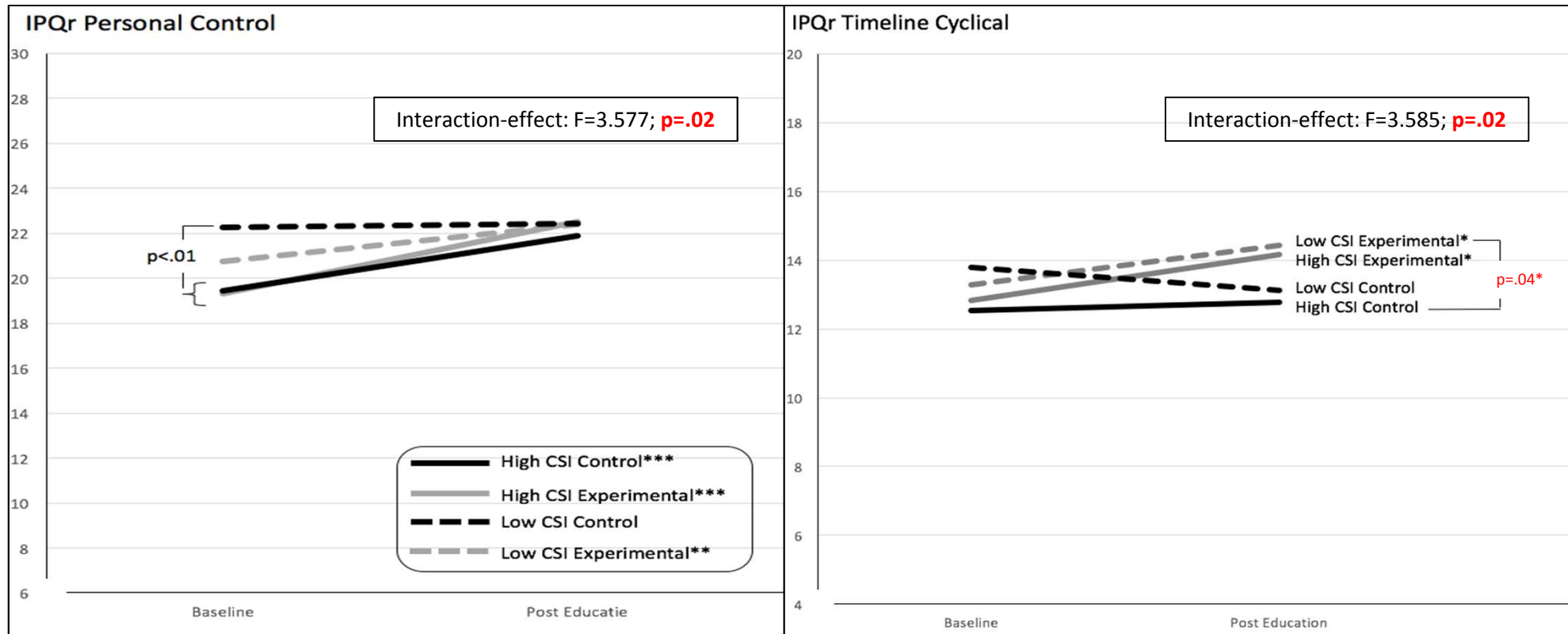


FIGURE 5. The effect of pain neuroscience education and neck/back school on the perceived personal control on and the cyclicity of the illness in patients with chronic spinal pain with high and low baseline CSI levels (n=120).

All significant interaction effects are displayed on the figure using a box. Significant within group effects (post-hoc Bonferroni) are displayed behind the respective groups using an asterisk (* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$). Significant between group effects (post-hoc Bonferroni) are displayed as p-values.

Abbreviations: IPQr=Illness Perception Questionnaire revised, CSI=Central Sensitization Inventory