

# PAIN

## The role of population-based cohorts in progressing the understanding of the emergence and progression of musculoskeletal pain

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**The role of population-based cohorts in understanding the emergence and progression of musculoskeletal pain.**

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## The role of **observational** population-based cohorts in progressing the understanding of the emergence and progression of musculoskeletal pain

This article is a call to action for how **observational**, prospective population-based cohorts (PCs) representative of the general population, and distinct from *clinical populations*, can help **advance** our understanding of the emergence and progression of musculoskeletal pain.

The specific and novel focus of this article is on ‘pain sensitivity in musculoskeletal conditions’ [8] without a neuropathic component, as measured by quantitative sensory testing (QST), and currently the only feasible proxy for measuring pain sensitivity in large scale studies. We do not yet know in non-clinical populations when and how heightened pain sensitivity emerges in relation to musculoskeletal pain, or vice versa, and the implications for pain chronicity across the lifecourse. Identifying and characterising the emergence and association of pain sensitivity, amongst other biopsychosocial factors, with musculoskeletal pain in non-clinical populations is important for progressing an understanding of the role of this potential contributor to pain complexity.

### 1. Why this call to action and why now?

Compelling evidence from the last decade highlights the leading contribution of musculoskeletal pain to the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) [8] and critically, estimating the global burden of pain is now on the international research agenda [31]. Identifying risk factors for the emergence and progression of musculoskeletal pain, including heightened pain sensitivity, is critical especially given that current GBD estimates may underestimate the prevalence, mortality and morbidity of musculoskeletal pain [8]. In this context, the longitudinal and prospective design of PCs necessitates repeated measurements, thereby offering a temporal window to better characterize the relationship between pain sensitivity and trajectories into and out of musculoskeletal pain. Examples of PCs with data on both pain

1 sensitivity and musculoskeletal pain do exist (Table 1) as identified via searching Wiley,  
2 Medline and ScienceDirect databases (date of search, 08/04/2020) using search words “QST,  
3 pain sensitivity, musculoskeletal pain, cohort, population-based”.  
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## 6 7 8 **2. Current insights on pain sensitivity and musculoskeletal pain conditions.** 9

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11 One of the most significant knowledge advances in musculoskeletal pain in past decades  
12 relates to the role of the nociceptive system in the clinical pathophysiology of chronic pain  
13 [13,23,34,80]. Quantitative sensory testing refers to a set of psychophysical methods used to  
14 quantify somatosensory function, measuring responses to calibrated, graded, innocuous, or  
15 noxious stimuli (typically, electrical, mechanical or thermal) [17].  
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19 The use of QST to quantify pain sensitivity and nervous system function is cited from the late  
20 1800’s, with thermal methods to provoke noxious stimuli in humans recorded in 1884 [26].  
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24 The main application of standardised QST application has been in the field of neuropathic  
25 pain [37]. Since the 1990’s, the use of QST to assess evoked responses to somatosensory  
26 testing in experimental animal, experimental human and patient models [5,15,19,40,41] of  
27 non-neuropathic musculoskeletal pain has accelerated. More advanced QST methodologies  
28 and novel QST equipment have been developed such as computer cuff for pressure pain  
29 sensitivity [3,24,52], better standardisation of testing protocols [60] and advances in the  
30 application of QST phenotyping for treatment response prediction [17]. Capture of dynamic  
31 QST measures such as conditioned pain modulation and temporal summation has been  
32 important as these ‘relative’ measures are less influenced by general baseline pain sensitivity.  
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36 Although equivocal, findings on pain sensitivity in musculoskeletal pain are well summarized  
37 across recent systematic reviews and meta-analyses of cross-sectional and prospective studies  
38 [19,30,38,40,68]. Emerging evidence from these and other studies suggest a correlation  
39 between heightened pain sensitivity (sensory ‘gain’) and persistence of musculoskeletal pain  
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1 [9,19,29,40,42,61], persistence of postoperative pain [43,53,54,79,81], severity of pain  
2 experience [68,69,78] and the development of musculoskeletal pain [25]. Sensitised central  
3 nociceptive pathways reflected in heightened pain sensitivity, also play an important role in  
4 persistent musculoskeletal pain [2] and potentially in the trajectory for future exacerbation of  
5 musculoskeletal pain [11].  
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12 While the understanding of the association between pain sensitivity in musculoskeletal pain is  
13 advancing, the role pain sensitivity (amongst along with other biopsychosocial factors  
14 [1,16,55]) and the influence of other biopsychosocial factors on pain sensitivity may have in  
15 the emergence of musculoskeletal pain and clinical trajectories [38], remains unclear.  
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22 Interpreting QST data is challenging given these psychophysical measures are strongly  
23 regulated at multiple sites along nociceptive pathways and in the brain including influences  
24 on pain sensitivity from emotional and cognitive processes [56,66]. These same pathways  
25 may also be influenced by genetics, sex, environmental factors, medication, pain history and  
26 functioning of other biologic systems, including the endocrine and immune systems  
27 [16,20,21,39,45,46]. Yet comprehensive data on these factors and their temporal influence on  
28 pain sensitivity prior to and following the emergence of musculoskeletal pain are also  
29 lacking.  
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### 44 **3. How might population-based cohorts help progress our understanding of pain** 45 **sensitivity and musculoskeletal pain?** 46

47 Progressing our understanding of pain sensitivity and the emergence and progression of  
48 musculoskeletal pain requires consideration of study design, methodologies and strategies to  
49 leverage current and future data. PCs vary in their nature and scope and can include i) birth  
50 cohorts, cohorts spanning a specific life phase or multiple life phases, ii) single generation or  
51 intergenerational investigation and designs, iii) a broad focus across health conditions  
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including musculoskeletal pain, or a specific focus on musculoskeletal pain [12,47,57,67] ,

iv) measures of physical, behavioural, self-report and biological data.

~~In progressing the understanding of the role of pain sensitivity in musculoskeletal pain, o~~One

advantage of PCs is that they allow for repeated measures of pain sensitivity and concurrently

identification of other important factors such as pain experience, physical activity, social

context and psychological well-being. However, ~~to our knowledge~~ PCs have ~~previously~~ only

captured pain sensitivity measures at only one time point, ~~probably reflecting organisational~~

~~and funding~~{Gilbert, 2021 #1709} challenges. ~~in individuals~~. QST collection at multiple time

~~points requires numerous raters who are adequately trained and monitored for reliability of~~

~~measurement~~. Understanding how pain sensitivity integrates temporally with multiple

mediators and moderators can assist in identifying interdependency and trajectories into and

out of pain, with the potential to identify critical treatment windows. Intergenerational PCs

can assist the understanding of heritability of pain sensitivity and musculoskeletal pain by

measuring environmental, genetic and behavioural factors [47,48,70,82]. PCs with a broad

health focus may offer good protection against bias resulting from confounding due to the

breadth of data covering potential and complex confounding factors of the association

between pain sensitivity and pain experience [78].

Successful investigation of complex systems requires a complex systems approach study

design to investigate interactions within the system [59]. Large datasets are required, increasing

power and confidence in findings and allowing for contextualising of findings against

geographic, cultural and ethnic influences. Such an approach requires ~~harmonised and reliable~~

~~data collection using best practice~~ test protocols [4] with linkage of pain sensitivity and

musculoskeletal pain data along other covariates such as mental health status, health care

utilisation and costs [18]. Partnerships with other key international musculoskeletal

1 organisations including rheumatic health organisations are required to build capacity in  
2 systematically collecting, analysing and sharing **high quality** ‘big data’ [6,22,35] on pain  
3 sensitivity in musculoskeletal conditions. Organisations might include the European League  
4 Against Rheumatism, the International League Against Rheumatism, Osteoarthritis Research  
5 Society International, and the Global Alliance for Musculoskeletal Health and others, with the  
6 International Association for the Study of Pain taking a leadership role. There are opportunities  
7 to leverage and link data on pain sensitivity from longitudinal studies with use of the new ICD-  
8 11 coding for chronic musculoskeletal pain conditions [44,51,62,65,71,72].  
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20 The identification of a core minimum data set of QST measures that could feasibly be measured  
21 in PCs is required to minimise participant burden **whilst developing a comprehensive, high**  
22 **quality data base.** A minimum data set would include specific test stimuli (mechanical, thermal,  
23 electrical and chemical) and static and dynamic measures (conditioned pain modulation,  
24 temporal summation) of evoked pain in deep tissues and cutaneous tissues. Birth PCs in  
25 particular provide an opportunity to capture pain sensitivity measures before the emergence of  
26 musculoskeletal pain, allowing for investigation into how early life factors and critical  
27 developmental transition periods such as adolescence into adulthood may influence pain  
28 sensitivity and subsequent pain experience [10,77]. With QST feasible from at least 6 years of  
29 age [7], critical time points at which to collect pain sensitivity measures across this  
30 developmental period from young children to young adults requires identification.  
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48 However, PCs also have some design-specific limitations. Increasing attrition over time can  
49 result in a significant volume of missing data with the cohort becoming less representative of  
50 the general population. Financial costs and participant burden can compromise the breadth,  
51 detail and frequency of data collection, particularly in more broadly focused PCs. **Mobile,**  
52 **bedside QST protocols can potentially assist by reducing attrition and participant burden,**  
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1 particularly for those with chronic pain or multimorbidity. Finally, causality can never be  
2 definitively proven using PCs, as bias due to unmeasured confounding can never be ruled out  
3 [27,28], although modern methods of design and analysis are evolving to assist in minimising  
4 bias. Furthermore, the use of ‘target trials’ using data from PCs has been advocated in  
5 situations where RCTs are not feasible [28].  
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#### 11 **4. Conclusion**

12 Despite substantial progress in elucidating nociceptive mechanisms in musculoskeletal pain  
13 and understanding pain sensitivity, the translation of evidence to: i. inform improved patient  
14 outcomes [13]; ii. guide global health policy initiatives [8] and; iii. identify phenotyping  
15 targets in clinical trials [14,17], remains challenging. Using PCs can address gaps in current  
16 knowledge by improving our understanding of pain sensitivity, and other factors, in relation  
17 to the emergence and progression of musculoskeletal pain. This call to action discusses  
18 considerations to inform a research agenda that can assist in addressing the global burden of  
19 musculoskeletal pain disorders.  
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Patient phenotyping in clinical trials of chronic pain treatments: IMMPACT

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Table 1: **Observational** Population-based cohorts representative of the general population investigating the association between quantitative sensory testing (QST) derived pain sensitivity data, musculoskeletal pain and other related measures<sup>#</sup>

Name (URL) and Geographic Location of Population Cohort Study	Initial recruitment year(s)	QST measures and body site	Average age or age range (years); sample size (N); sex (% female) for QST measures	Musculoskeletal pain measures	Key QST studies identified	Other key pain measures <sup>  </sup>
The Raine Study (rainestudy.org.au) Western Australia, Australia	1989-1991 parents (Gen1) and their children born (Gen2)	PPT (wrist, neck, back, leg) CPT (wrist)	Gen2: 22 N=1067 50%	ÖMPSQ (22, 27- years), LBP measures (14, 17, 22, 27 years), neck posture and pain (17-years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Normative QST data at 22 years[75]</li> <li>▪ Association between musculoskeletal pain and QST at 22 years[78]</li> <li>▪ Association between early life stress and QST at 22 years[77]</li> <li>▪ Association between menstrual pain severity and QST[64]</li> <li>▪ Association between stress response and QST[50]</li> <li>▪ Association between physical activity levels and QST[76]</li> </ul>	Genetic, socioeconomic, lifestyle, sleep, physical activity, sedentary behaviour psychosocial, inter-generational data, work productivity, inflammation, stress response, lumbar spine MRI, gender health, HRQoL
			Gen1: 57 N=1092 58%	ÖMPSQ		
The Tromsø Study (en.uit.no)	Seven repeated surveys from		Tromsø 6: 30-87 N=10,486*	Presence of chronic pain, pain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Association between persistent</li> </ul>	Inflammation, stress response,

Tromsø, Norway	1974-2016 consisting of birth cohorts and random samples	Cold-pressor test (dominant hand) PPT (fingernail non-dominant ring finger) HPT (non- dominant forearm)	53%  Tromsø 7: 40-99 N=21,083 53%	distribution & characteristics (location, onset, intensity, impact on ADLs, distress levels) As for Tromsø 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ post-surgical pain and QST[33] Inflammatory mechanisms and QST[32]</li> </ul>	physical activity, sedentary behaviour, sleep, persistent post-surgical pain, chronic disease (including cardiovascular, diabetes, osteoporosis), psychological, lifestyle, socioeconomic
Northern Finland Birth Cohort Study (oulu.fi/nfbc/) Oulu & Lapland, Finland	Children with expected date of birth in 1966 (NFBC 1966)	PPT (wrist, neck, back, leg) CPT (wrist)	46 (NFBC 1966) N=5,861 47%	ÖMPQ, STarT Back Tool,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Association between endometriosis and QST at 46 years[74]</li> <li>▪ Association between dental fear (anticipatory pre-visit and treatment) and QST at 46 years [36]</li> </ul>	Genetic, lifestyle, socioeconomic, behavioural, inflammation, psychosocial dental, lumbar spine MRI, physical activity, gender health, dental health
The Danish study of Functional Disorders (DanFunD) ( <a href="http://frederiksberghospital.dk">frederiksberghospital.dk</a> ) Denmark	2015	PPT (leg, neck) Cold pressor test (dominant hand) CPM	18-70 N=2,151 53%	Presence of pain from muscles or joints, Fibromyalgia Syndrome, Whiplash Associated Disorder	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ CPM and pressure pain sensitivity in the adult Danish general population [63]</li> </ul>	Irritable bowel syndrome, chronic fatigue syndrome, cardiovascular disease, diabetes, respiratory diseases, allergies, asthma

Adolescent Pain in Aalborg-2011 Denmark	2011	PPT (4 knee sites, tibialis anterior)	15-19 N=79 100%	Pain measures, Knee injury and Osteoarthritis Outcome Score	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increased pressure pain sensitivity in female adolescents is associated with patellofemoral pain syndrome[58]</li> </ul>	Demographic data, sports participation, HRQoL
Orofacial Pain: prospective evaluation and risk assessment (OPPERA) North Carolina, Maryland, New York & Florida, USA	2006-2008 (people free of TMD)	PPT (3 facial sites, neck, elbow) Heat pain sensitivity (forearm: threshold, tolerance, rating of suprathreshold stimuli, TS) Mechanical pain sensitivity (hand: threshold, tolerance, ratings of suprathreshold stimuli, TS)	18-44 N=2,737 N/A	Identify phenotypic and genetic predictors of first-onset TMD pain symptoms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Pain sensitivity is associated with development of temporomandibular disorder[25]</li> <li>Demographic predictors of pain sensitivity[49]</li> </ul>	Autonomic measures (cardiovascular), Short Form Health Survey, psychosocial
TwinsUK cohort (twinsuk.ac.uk) UK	1992	HPT (volar forearm)	N/A N=2,500 N/A	Fibromyalgia, low back pain, pelvic pain, knee osteoarthritis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Association of inflammatory markers with heat pain sensitivity and osteoarthritis pain [73]</li> </ul>	

# Population-based cohort studies investigating the association between QST-derived pain sensitivity data and musculoskeletal pain identified from a search of Wiley, Medline and ScienceDirect databases using search words "QST, pain sensitivity, musculoskeletal pain, cohort,

population-based”]; ¶See study URL and publications for detail; PPT, Pressure pain threshold; CPT, Cold pain threshold; HPT, heat pain threshold; TS, temporal summation; CPT, Conditioned pain modulation; TMD, Chronic temporomandibular disorder; HRQoL, Health related quality of life; \* cold-pressor tolerance; ÖMPSQ, Örebro Musculoskeletal Pain Screening Questionnaire; LBP, low back pain; N/A, not available; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging