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- 1 Do Psychological Factors relate to Movement-Evoked Pain in People with
- 2 Musculoskeletal Pain? A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis
- **3 Running title:** Do Psychological Factors relate to Movement-Evoked Pain?
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- 1 Abstract
- 2

Background: A growing body of evidence has demonstrated the importance of implementing
movement-evoked pain in conventional pain assessments, with a significant role for psychological
factors being suggested. Whether or not to include these factors in the assessment of movement-evoked
pain has not yet been determined.

7 Objectives: The aim of this systematic review is to explore the association between psychological
8 factors and movement-evoked pain scores in people with musculoskeletal pain.

9 Methods: For this systematic review with meta-analysis, four electronic databases (PubMed, Medline, 10 WOS, and Scopus) were searched. Cross-sectional studies, longitudinal cohort studies, and randomized 11 controlled trials investigating the association between movement-evoked pain and psychological factors 12 in adults with musculoskeletal pain were considered. Meta-analysis was conducted for outcomes with 13 homogeneous data from at least 2 studies. Fischer-Z transformations were used as the measure of effect. 14 Ouality of evidence was assessed using the National Institutes of Health's Ouality assessment tool for 15 observational cohort and cross-sectional studies and Grading of Recommendations Assessment, 16 Development and Evaluation (GRADE) framework.

Results: Meta-analyses and grading the quality of evidence revealed moderate evidence for a relation
between movement-evoked pain and depressive symptoms (Fisher-z=0.27; 95%CI: 0.17, 0.36; 5 studies
(n=440)), pain-related fear (Fisher-z=0.35; 95%CI: 0.26, 0.44; 6 studies (n=492)), and pain
catastrophizing (Fisher-z=0.47; 95%CI: 0.36, 0.58; 4 studies (n=312)) in people with musculoskeletal
pain.

Conclusions: Movement-evoked pain is weakly to moderately associated to depressive symptoms, pain related fear, and pain catastrophizing in people with musculoskeletal pain.

24

25 Keywords: Meta-analysis; movement-evoked pain, musculoskeletal pain, psychological factors,
26 systematic review.

- 27
- 28 Highlights

1 2

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4 5

- Movement-evoked pain is associated with depressive symptoms, pain-related fear, and pain catastrophizing
 - Questionnaires on psychological factors should be included in MEP assessments.
 - Cautious interpretation of these results regarding causality is warranted.
- 6

7 Introduction

Persistent musculoskeletal pain is the most common type of chronic pain.^{1,2} It interferences with 8 people's quality of life and is the global leader in disability.³ Movement-evoked pain (MEP) is a 9 frequently reported complaint amongst people with musculoskeletal pain^{4,5} and a construct that provides 10 unique information compared to pain at rest.^{5,6} MEP accounts for a significant amount of variance in 11 self-reported disability^{7,8} and findings from Dailey et al.⁹ suggest that transcutaneous electrical nerve 12 13 stimulation reduces MEP – but not pain at rest – in individuals with fibromyalgia. In the literature, two 14 types of outcome measures are used to evaluate MEP: a maximum or average pain score; representing 15 the pain experienced by patients during a specific movement task, and an index score; representing a 16 maximum or average pain score, yet corrected for baseline pain (i.e., to calculate the MEP index score, 17 the baseline pain score – assessed at rest, before completing any movement task – is subtracted from the maximum (or average) pain score).¹⁰⁻¹⁴ These two concepts thus capture a different experience, which 18 19 may be an issue in reviews that combine all these measures in one analysis.^{15,16} The mechanisms behind 20 MEP in patients with musculoskeletal pain remain partly unknown. It is, however, speculated that aside 21 from peripheral mechanisms, centrally-driven mechanisms are involved.

22

Evidence supporting these speculated central contributions is provided by quantitative sensory testing measures of central pain processing in patients with musculoskeletal pain^{14,17} and significantly contributing psychological factors.^{18,19} Some of these psychological factors have been previously discussed in the literature,^{20,21} for which inconsistent results regarding their relation to MEP have been found (potentially due to differences in population [i.e., healthy people, people undergoing surgery or people experiencing musculoskeletal pain],¹⁵ as well as a lack of clear protocols to objectify MEP^{15,16}). A greater understanding of how psychological factors relate to MEP may lead to enhanced assessment 1 methods of this construct. Whether to implement psychological constructs in clinical testing procedures,

2 and eventually in rehabilitation programs, has not yet been determined.

3

Given that MEP appears to be a significant barrier in activity-based interventions,^{22,23} and the positive association between psychological factors (i.e., pain-related beliefs) and improved functional outcomes,^{24,25} filling this knowledge gap seems essential. According to our knowledge, no clear overview addressing the relation between MEP scores and psychological factors exists. Therefore, this systematic review aims to explore the association between psychological factors and MEP scores in patients with musculoskeletal pain.

1 Methods

2 Protocol & registration

This systematic review is reported consistent with the PRISMA guidelines.²⁶ The review protocol was
a priori registered in the PROSPERO database (CRD42020181138).

5

6 Literature search

A systematic search was performed by screening PubMed, Web of Science, Scopus, and Medline until the 15th of April 2022. The search strategy was based on the PICO(S)-framework (Patient=individuals with musculoskeletal pain; Instrument of measurement=self-reported questionnaires; Comparison was not applicable; Outcomes=MEP scores and psychological factors; Study design=cross-sectional and cohort study designs, and randomized controlled trials). Search items are listed in the Supplementary Material. In addition, we performed a citation tracking using PubMed, and a reference search of the eligible studies.

14

15 Eligibility criteria – study selection

16 Studies needed to be cross-sectional studies, longitudinal cohort, or randomized controlled trials, and 17 report the relationship between psychological factors and MEP scores in adults with musculoskeletal 18 pain (a full electronic search strategy for PubMed is in the Supplementary Material). Studies were 19 included if the title or abstract contained outcome measures reporting pain during any kind of movement task,¹⁵ and intrinsic factors (situational, behavioral, and emotional) that cause patients to experience pain 20 in a certain manner.^{27,28} As MEP is expressed by the maximum or average pain score during a particular 21 movement task, or by a MEP index score (i.e., maximum or average pain, corrected for baseline pain), 22 23 the results were categorized accordingly. Numerical coding was used to indicate whether the article 24 discussed the relation between psychological factors and MEP (coded as 1) or a MEP index (coded as 25 2), Table 1. After screening titles and abstracts, eligible articles were read in full. Two independent researchers (LL and LA) screened the title and abstract, and the full text using Ravvan software.²⁹ 26 27 Disagreements were resolved by a consensus-based discussion.

1 Risk of bias

The methodological quality was rated as good, fair, or poor, using the National Institutes of Health's
(NIH) Quality Assessment tool for observational cohort and cross-sectional studies,³⁰ and as low risk of
bias, some concerns, or high risk of bias using the Revised Cochrane risk-of-bias tool for randomized
trials.³¹ The appraisal was independently performed by 2 blinded reviewers (LL and LA). Disagreements
were resolved by a consensus-based discussion.

7

8 Summary measures and methods of analyses

9 All data regarding the associations between psychological factors and MEP were retrieved from the 10 eligible papers. If the title or abstract included MEP and psychological factors as outcome measures, 11 but no corresponding data were provided in the full-text article, authors were contacted. The mean 12 correlation coefficient was calculated using Fischer-Z transformations as the measure of effect in the 13 meta-analysis (MA). We interpreted .10 as a weak correlation, .30 as moderate, and .50 as a strong correlation.³² Heterogeneity was assessed by the prediction interval (PI)³³ and by the I² statistic.³⁴ An I² 14 value >50% was classified as important heterogeneity.²⁵ In this case, a subgroup analysis was conducted, 15 16 investigating possible underlying differences that may explain heterogeneity. For the subgroup analyses, suggestions in the Cochrane Handbook that only a small number of characteristics - based on meta-17 analyses and clinical studies^{8, 72, 78} – should be examined²⁶ were considered. If authors used multiple 18 movement tasks to assess MEP, a sensitivity analysis was conducted.²⁶ We assessed confidence in the 19 20 effect estimates using the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) approach.³⁵ There are four levels of quality, the highest initial rating being for randomized 21 22 controlled trial evidence, and low-quality ratings for observational studies. We acknowledge, however, that not all observational studies are of low quality.³⁶ Therefore, the initial rating of "moderate" quality³⁷ 23 24 could be downgraded to low, or very low quality evidence based on the following criteria: risk of bias, 25 inconsistency (i.e., the presence of significant heterogeneity and inconsistent findings), indirectness (i.e., 26 generalisability of the findings, the research does not address the intervention, population or outcomes 27 of interest), imprecision (i.e., the total number of participants is less than the number of participants 28 generated by a conventional sample size calculation for a single adequately powered study (i.e., less than 400 for continuous outcomes^{38,39})), and publication bias (i.e., an under-estimation or overestimation of the underlying effect due to selective publication of studies, e.g., inclusion of small studies, industry sponsored studies or asymmetrical funnel plots⁴⁰). If performing a MA was not possible due to clinical or statistical heterogeneity (i.e., differences in assessment tool or questionnaire, or correlation coefficients could not be calculated based on given beta coefficients),^{41,42} a best evidence synthesis (BES)⁴³ was performed. 1 Results

2 Study selection

The initial search of PubMed, Medline, WOS, and Scopus resulted in a total of 1897 hits, of which 1409
papers remained after deduplication. After screening papers on title and abstract, full text of 32 studies
was examined in more detail. Finally, 23 suitable articles were included (Figure 1).

6

7 Study characteristics

8 Twenty-three studies were found eligible, of which six had an observational cohort study design and 21
9 a cross-sectional study design. A total sample of 2968 people with musculoskeletal pain was included.
10 Characteristics of the included articles are presented in Table 1.

11

12 Risk of bias assessment

13 The percentage agreement between both reviewers was 87.4%. The methodological quality of the 14 included studies is summarized in Fig.2. Weaknesses were lack of information on recruitment strategy 15 and recruitment period. Also, adequate representation of the target population was mostly unclear and 16 should be considered a potential bias in this review. Seventeen studies performed cross-sectional 17 analyses. Therefore, questions 6 and 7 (i.e., exposure(s) measured and timeframe) of the NIH Ouality Assessment tool³⁰ were answered as "no." In 4 studies performing (additional) regression analyses,^{14,44-} 18 ⁴⁶ exposure was assessed prior to the outcome, yet during the same timeframe. In 2 studies, the authors 19 spread the measurements by approximately 1 week.^{13,47} Publication bias was not detected and is 20 illustrated with funnel plots in the Supplementary Material. 21

22

23 Associations between psychological factors and MEP

24 Definitions of the included psychological factors can be found in Supplementary Material.

25

26 *Anxiety.* The relation between state anxiety and MEP was assessed in three studies^{13,44,48}. In two 27 studies^{13,44}, it was not possible to calculate the correlation coefficient based on the given data⁴² and no MA could be conducted. A BES⁴³ indicated limited evidence for a negative relation between state
anxiety and MEP in patients with chronic low back pain (LBP), and limited evidence that state anxiety
and MEP do not relate in patients with knee osteoarthritis (KOA).

4

5 *Depressive symptoms.* Ten papers^{10-13,48-53} investigated the association between depressive symptoms 6 and MEP. Data from five studies (n=440) indicated a significant and small estimated mean correlation 7 coefficient (Fisher- $z(F_z)=0.27$; 95%CI: 0.17, 0.36; PI:0.13, 0.40; I²=0%, **Fig.3A**) in patients with 8 musculoskeletal pain. The quality of evidence for this association estimate was moderate (**Table 2**). In 9 five studies^{13,48,50-52}, no correlation coefficient was reported or could be calculated⁴², and could not be 10 included in the MA. Two studies^{51,52} reported data consistent with the results of the MA.

11

12 Distress. Three studies^{46,48,54} investigated the association between distress and MEP. Since only 13 Hadlandsmyth et al.⁴⁸ reported correlation coefficients and the data reported by the two other studies^{46,54} 14 did not allow to calculate correlation coefficients⁴², no MA was conducted. A BES⁴³ indicated 15 conflicting evidence for a relation between distress and MEP in patients with KOA^{48,54}, and limited 16 evidence for a positive relation in patients with musculoskeletal pain⁴⁶.

17

18Pain-related fear.Seven studies $^{7,10-12,46,47,55}$ assessed the relation between pain-related fear and MEP.19Data from six studies (n=492) indicated a significant and small estimated mean correlation coefficient20(Fisher-z(Fz)=0.35; 95%CI: 0.26, 0.44; p<0.001; PI:0.22 to 0.47; I²=0%, Fig.3B). The quality of21evidence was moderate (Table 2). Damsgard et al.⁴⁶ could not be included in the MA as the data did not22allow to calculate a correlation coefficient⁴², and Crombez et al.⁵⁵ reported results based on Fear23Avoidance Beliefs Questionnaire (FABQ) subscales. A BES⁴³ indicated limited evidence for a positive24relation between MEP and the FABQ-work subscale score⁵⁵ in patients with LBP.

25

26 *Pain catastrophizing.* Six trials^{10-13,47,51} investigated the relation between pain catastrophizing and 27 MEP in patients with musculoskeletal pain. Data from four papers^{10-12,47} (n=312) reported a moderate 28 estimated mean correlation coefficient (Fisher-z(F_z)=0.47; 95%CI: 0.36, 0.58; PI:0.17, 0.69; I²=0%, Fig.3D). The quality of evidence for this correlation estimate was moderate (Table 2). Two studies^{13,51}
 could not be included in the MA because no correlation coefficient was reported or could be calculated⁴².
 One study⁵¹ reported data consistent with the results of the MA.

4

Pain hypervigilance. Cruz-Almeida et al.⁵¹ assessed the relation between pain vigilance and MEP in
patients with KOA. A BES⁴³ indicated limited evidence for an association between pain vigilance and
MEP in patients with KOA.

8

9 *Perceived injustice.* Penn et al.⁵³ investigated the relation between perceived injustice and MEP in
10 patients with chronic LBP. A BES⁴³ indicated limited evidence for a positive association between
11 perceived injustice and MEP in patients with chronic LBP.

12

Two studies^{50,56} investigated the relation between positive and negative 13 *Positive and negative affect.* affect and MEP. However, only one study⁵⁶ reported a correlation coefficient and the data reported by 14 Bartley et al. (a)⁵⁰ did not allow to calculate the correlation coefficient. Therefore, no MA could be 15 conducted. A BES⁴³ indicated limited evidence that positive and negative affect and MEP are not 16 associated in patients with KOA and chronic LBP. Two papers^{51,57} assessed the association between 17 positive affect and MEP in patients with KOA. However, only Wideman et al.⁵⁷ reported a correlation 18 coefficient, and the data reported by Cruz-Almeida et al.⁵¹ did not allow to calculate the correlation 19 coefficient. Therefore, no MA could be conducted. A BES43 indicated conflicting evidence for an 20 association between positive affect and MEP in patients with KOA. Three studies^{51,55,57} investigated the 21 association between negative affect and MEP. Data from two papers^{55,57} (n=146) reported a small 22 estimated mean correlation coefficient (Fisher-z(F_z)=0.26; 95%CI: 0.09, 0.49; I²=0%, Fig.3C). The 23 quality of evidence for this association estimate was low (Table 2). One study⁵¹ could not be included 24 25 in this MA because the data did not allow to calculate the correlation coefficient, yet was consistent with 26 the results of the MA.

Positive well-being. The relation between positive well-being and MEP was assessed in two
 studies.^{50,56} However, only one study⁵⁶ reported a correlation coefficient and the data reported by Bartley
 et al. (a)⁵⁰ did not allow to calculate the correlation coefficient, so no MA could be conducted. A BES⁴³
 indicated limited evidence for a small and negative association in patients with KOA, and limited
 evidence that positive well-being and MEP are not related in patients with chronic LBP.

6

Three studies assessed the relation between resilience^{47,50,56} and MEP in 7 Resilience and optimism. patients with KOA and LBP.^{47,50} Because the data reported by Bartley et al. (a)⁵⁰ did not allow to 8 calculate a correlation coefficient, and Palit et al. included *pain resilience* whereas Bartley et al. (b)⁵⁶ 9 investigated trait resilience, no MA was conducted. A BES43 indicated moderate evidence that resilience 10 and MEP are not related in patients with LBP,^{47,50} and limited evidence for a small and negative relation 11 in patients with KOA.⁵⁶ Two studies reported the association between optimism and MEP in patients 12 with KOA⁵⁶ and chronic LBP.⁵⁰ Because the data reported by Bartley et al. (a)⁵⁰ did not allow to calculate 13 a correlation coefficient, no MA was conducted. A BES43 indicated limited evidence for a negative 14 15 relation between MEP and optimism in patients with KOA, and for no relation in patients with chronic LBP. 16

17

Self-efficacy. Two papers^{46,58} reported the association between self-efficacy and MEP in patients with
 KOA⁵⁸ and musculoskeletal pain.⁴⁶ However, Adegoke et al.⁵⁸ reported correlation coefficients and the
 data reported by Damsgard et al.⁴⁶ did not allow to calculate the correlation coefficient. A BES⁴³
 indicated limited evidence for a negative relation in patients with KOA and musculoskeletal pain.

1 Associations between psychological factors and MEP index scores

2 *Chronic pain acceptance.* Rabey et al.⁵⁹ investigated the association between chronic pain

3 acceptance and MEP index scores in patients with chronic LBP. A BES⁴³ indicated limited evidence

4 for a positive relation in patients with chronic LBP.

5

Depressive symptoms. Four studies^{10-12,14} reported the relation between depressive symptoms and
MEP index scores in patients with musculoskeletal pain. Data (n=359) indicated a small, but nonsignificant estimated mean correlation coefficient (Fisher-z(Fz)=-0.01; 95%CI: -0.14, 0.12; PI:-0.47,
0.45; I²=35%, Fig.3E). The quality of evidence for this association estimate was moderate (Table 2).

10

Seven studies^{7,10-12,45,59,60} assessed the relation between pain-related fear and MEP 11 *Pain-related fear.* index scores in patients with chronic LBP. Data from five studies^{7,10-12,45} (n=510) reported a small 12 estimated mean correlation coefficient (Fisher-z(F_z)=0.14; 95%CI: 0.06, 0.23; PI:-0.01, 0.28; I²=0%, 13 Fig.3F). The quality of evidence for this correlation estimate was moderate (Table 2). Because La 14 Touche et al.⁶⁰ classified the participants as "low" or "high self-efficacy groups," this paper was not 15 16 included in the MA yet reported data consistent with the results of the MA. Also, data reported by Rabey et al.⁵⁹ did not allow to calculate the correlation coefficient, and was therefore not included in the MA. 17 18

19 *Pain catastrophizing.* Five studies^{10-12,14,45} assessed the association between pain catastrophizing and 20 MEP index scores in patients with musculoskeletal pain. Data (n=475) indicated a small estimated mean 21 correlation coefficient (Fisher- $z(F_z)=0.17$; 95%CI: 0.08, 0.26; PI:0.02, 0.31; I²=0%, **Fig.3G**). The 22 quality of evidence for this correlation estimate was moderate (**Table 2**). Because La Touche et al.⁶⁰ 23 classified the participants as "low" or "high self-efficacy groups", this paper was not included in the 24 MA, yet reported consistent results.

Self-efficacy. One study⁵⁹ investigated the relation between self-efficacy and MEP index scores in
 patients with chronic LBP. A BES⁴³ indicated limited evidence for a negative relation in patients with
 chronic LBP.

1 Sensitivity analyses

Both Wideman et al.⁵⁷ and Woznowski-Vu et al.⁴⁵ used different movement tasks to assess MEP. 2 3 Therefore, sensitivity analyses were conducted. To investigate the relation between MEP and negative affect in patients with KOA, Wideman et al.⁵⁷ used the timed up and go (TUG) and a 6-minute walk test 4 to assess MEP. Sensitivity analyses showed different results by including different movement tasks. 5 6 Including the TUG resulted in a small estimated mean correlation coefficient (Fisher-z=0.26; 95%CI: 0.09, 0.49; PI: 0.10, 0.41; $I^2=0\%$). When the 6-minute walk test was included, this resulted in a large 7 estimated mean correlation coefficient (Fisher-z=0.53; 95%CI: 0.37, 0.70, PI: 0.40, 0.64; I²=76%). 8 9 However, heterogeneity was high. Furthermore, to investigate how the MEP-index relates to painrelated fear and pain catastrophizing, Woznowski-Vu et al.⁴⁵ utilised three movement tasks (i.e., self-10 11 paced walk, standardized lift, tailored lift). However, sensitivity analyses did not result in different 12 results.

1 Discussion

2 This systematic review and MA aimed to provide an overview of the association between MEP and 3 psychological factors in patients with musculoskeletal pain. According to the GRADE-approach³⁵ 4 (Table 2), there is moderate evidence for a weak relationship between MEP and depressive symptoms 5 and pain-related fear in patients with musculoskeletal pain. There is also moderate evidence for a 6 moderate relationship between MEP and pain catastrophizing in patients with musculoskeletal pain. 7 Additionally, this review provided moderate evidence for a relationship between MEP index scores and 8 pain-related fear and pain catastrophizing in patients with musculoskeletal pain. The results from the 9 BES can be found in the Supplementary Material for both MEP and MEP index scores respectively.

10

11 The results of the current study indicate that MEP is associated with depressive symptoms, pain-related 12 fear, and pain catastrophizing in patients with musculoskeletal pain. As the perception of pain is 13 influenced by biological, psychological, and movement system factors, incorporating all contributing 14 aspects during treatment seems warranted. Unfortunately, this review reports correlations, which 15 prevents drawing specific hypotheses on causality and consequently does not provide an answer to the contributing aspect of psychological factors in MEP. Few studies included in this review reported 16 longitudinal data and results using linear regression techniques^{14,46,47}: pain-related fear significantly 17 predicted MEP in patients with chronic musculoskeletal disorders⁴⁶ and pain catastrophizing 18 significantly predicted MEP in patients with chronic LBP⁴⁷ and KOA.¹⁴ In the management of (chronic) 19 pain, a mechanism-based approach is suggested,⁶¹ indicating that psychosocial approaches (e.g., pain 20 21 education) tackling pain mechanisms and maladaptive psychological factors are recommended in 22 subgroups where central mechanisms play a (significant) role. This subgroup with involvement of central mechanisms is often referred to as patients with a predominance of nociplastic pain.⁶² The 23 24 growing evidence that educating patients positively affects central pain processing (e.g., increased pain thresholds^{63,64} and conditioned pain modulation^{64,65}) creates an exciting window for MEP-rehabilitation. 25 26 We hope that this review will encourage researchers to gain insight into the role of pain education when 27 addressing MEP in patients with musculoskeletal pain and, perhaps even more important, in patients 28 with a predominance of nociplastic pain.

1 The relation between psychological factors and MEP is not always assessed identically. Some authors 2 use an average/maximum activity-related pain score, while others include a MEP index score (i.e., 3 maximum or average pain, corrected for baseline pain). This index is associated with elevated scores of clinical indices of hypersensitivity.^{11,66} Because hypersensitivity is associated with psychological 4 factors,⁶⁷⁻⁶⁹ it is not surprising that the present study found a weak but significant association between 5 6 MEP index scores and pain-related fear and pain catastrophizing in patients with musculoskeletal pain. 7 Furthermore, analyzing studies including pain populations with a predominance of nociplastic pain^{7,11} (such as fibromyalgia and chronic whiplash syndrome⁶¹) resulted in stronger correlation coefficients for 8 9 depressive symptoms (Fisher-z(SE)=-0.20 (0.13)), pain catastrophizing (Fisher-z(SE)=0.29 (0.13)), and 10 pain-related fear (Fisher-z(SE)=0.16 (0.13)) compared to the estimated mean correlation coefficients 11 (Table 2). The presence of these associations supports the notion that MEP can be influenced by both 12 peripheral and central mechanisms, and that the contribution of these central mechanisms seems to 13 increase in populations with a predominance of nociplastic pain.

14

15 Limitations and strengths

16 The heterogeneity in terms of reported outcomes and statistical analysis methods prevents drawing firm 17 conclusions. Also, due to the observational study designs, no conclusions could be drawn on the 18 causality of the observed associations between MEP and psychological factors. It is not possible to 19 differentiate whether psychological factors affect MEP or MEP affects psychological factors in patients 20 with musculoskeletal pain. Future studies using multiple data points are needed to further clarify potential causality between both constructs.⁷⁰ Furthermore, the pain conditions represented in the BES 21 22 are limited to KOA and (chronic) LBP. Despite these limitations, this review has several important 23 strengths as well. A systematic and transparent methodology was implemented and a priori registered, 24 incorporating the evaluation of internal (risk of bias) and external validity (given the broad range of 25 musculoskeletal conditions included in this systematic review). In addition, we applied the GRADE framework to determine the overall quality of evidence. For studies that could not be included in a MA, 26 qualitative analyses were performed according to the BES⁴³ principle. 27

1 Conclusions

- 2 MEP measures are weakly to moderately associated with depressive symptoms, pain-related fear, and
- 3 pain catastrophizing in patients with musculoskeletal pain. Future research should investigate whether
- 4 addressing these maladaptive psychological factors can help improve MEP.

1 2

Supplementary N	Material A. Search terms
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Movement-evoked pain		Psychological factors	
Movement-evoked pain	Mechanical pain	Anxiety	Pain awareness
Pain during movement	Nociceptive pain	Fear of pain	Pain perception
Pain with movement	Functional wind-up	Illness beliefs	Trait anxiety
Exercise-related pain	Activity-induced summation of pain	Pain-related stress	Kinesiophobia
Exercise-induced pain	Repetition-induced summation of pain	Fear of movement	Pain somatization
Movement-related pain	Sensitivity to physical activity	Pain catastrophizing	Pain-related fear
Activity-related pain		Depressive thoughts	Fear avoidance beliefs
Movement-induced pain		Self-efficacy	

3 4 5

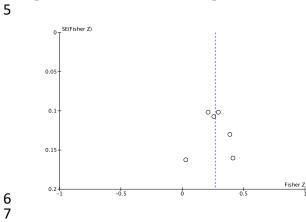
6 Supplementary Material B. Full electronic search strategy for PubMed

- 9 anxiety) OR "pain perception") OR "catastrophization") OR "fear of movement") OR
- 11 "pain beliefs") OR #5) OR "depressive thoughts") OR "stress") OR "frustration") OR "social
- 12 isolation") OR "pain somatization") OR #11) OR "mindset") OR #13) OR "self-compassion") OR
- 13 "pain catastrophizing") OR "personality types") OR #17) OR "defensive high-anxious") OR "low-
- 14 anxious") OR "repressor") OR "non-extreme") OR "trait sensitivity") OR "big five personality types")
- 15 OR "big five personality dimensions") OR #26) OR "big five personality traits") OR "extraversion")
- 16 OR "agreeableness") OR "conscientiousness") OR "neuroticism") OR "openness") OR "trait sensory
- 17 profiles") OR "sensory profiles") OR "trait anxiety") OR "trait characteristics"))) AND
- 18 ((((((((((((((("Nociceptive Pain"[Mesh]) OR "pain during movement") OR mechanical pain) OR
- 19 "exercise related pain") OR "activity related pain") OR "pain movement evoked") OR "sensitivity to
- 20 physical activity") OR "repetition induced summation of pain") OR "exercise-induced hypoalgesia")
- 21 OR "hypoalgesia after exercise") OR "activity induced summation of pain") OR "movement related
- 22 pain") OR "exercise related hyperalgesia") OR "functional wind-up") OR "pain-on-movement") OR
- 23 "exercise induced pain") OR "pain evoked by movement") OR "movement-induced pain") OR
- 24 "movement evoked pain")) OR nociceptive pain))
- 25
- 26

⁸ Search ((((((("pain awareness") OR "fear of pain") OR "kinesiophobia") OR "illness beliefs") OR

1 Supplementary Material C. Publication bias assessment

C.1. Funnel plot of the association between movement-evoked pain and depressive symptoms in patients with musculoskeletal pain

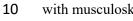


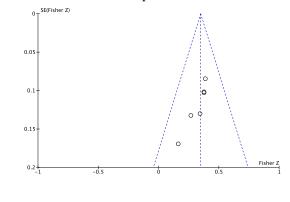
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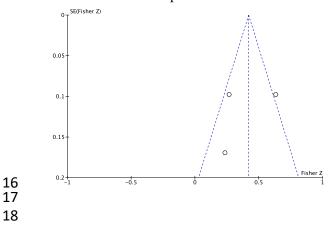
9 C.2. Funnel plot of the association between movement-evoked pain and pain-related fear in patients with musculoskeletal pain





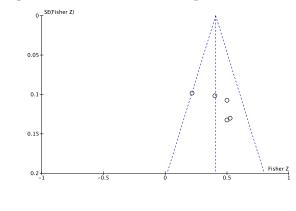


14 C.3. Funnel plot of the association between movement-evoked pain and negative affect in patients with musculoskeletal pain 15

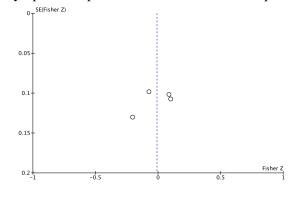


1 C.4. Funnel plot of the association between movement-evoked pain and pain catastrophizing in

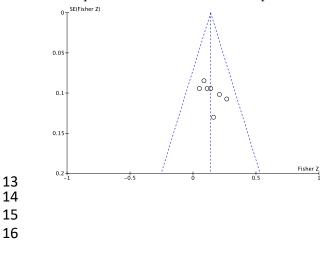
2 patients with musculoskeletal pain



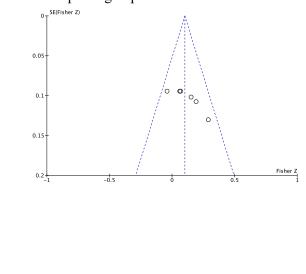
C.5. Funnel plot of the association between movement-evoked pain index scores and depressive symptoms in patients with musculoskeletal pain



C.6. Funnel plot of the association between movement-evoked pain index scores and pain-related
 fear in patients with musculoskeletal pain



C.7. Funnel plot of the association between movement-evoked pain index scores and pain
 catastrophizing in patients with musculoskeletal pain



Psychological factor	Author (year)	Definition			
Anxiety	Tonelli (2011)	State anxiety reflects a transitory emotional state, while trait anxiety reflects relatively stable individual differences in anxiety.			
Chronic pain acceptance	Rabey (2016)	A person's ability to have ongoing pain without attempting to avoid or control it.			
Depressive symptoms	Penn (2020)	Symptoms of depression include negative mood, guilt/worthlessness, helplessness/hopelessness, psychomotor retardation, loss of appetite, and sleep disturbance.			
Distress	Booker (2019)	An individual's perception of psychological stress.			
	Hadlandsmyth (2017)	The amount of distress caused by pain or the affective impact pain severity.			
Pain-related fear	Crombez (1999), Rabey (2016)	The fear of movement and re-injury due to movement.			
	Lambin (2011), Sulivan (2009, 2010)	Fear of movement and re-injury associated with pain.			
	Mankovsky-Arnold (2014)	Fear of movement and re-injury associated with their experience of pain.			
	Palit (2019)	Fear of pain (including fear of re-injury or movement), which can subsequently lead to avoidance of engagement in activities and other stimuli seen as potentially leading to further injury.			
	Woznowski-Vu (2019)	Fear-avoidance related beliefs about pain and physical activity.			
Pain catastrophizing	Lambin (2011), Palit (2019), Sullivan (2009, 2010)	Catastrophic thinking related to pain.			
-	Rabey (2016)	A person's thoughts and feelings in terms of magnification, rumination, and helplessness about pain			
	Woznowski-Vu (2019)	An exaggerated negative perception of pain.			
Pain hypervigilance	Cruz-Almeida (2017)	Attention to pain, preoccupation and vigilance related to pain.			
Perceived injustice	Penn (2020)	Cognitive appraisals reflecting the severity and irreparability of pain-related loss, externalized blame, and unfairness; perception of pain-related injustice.			
Positive and negative affect	Bartley (2019b)	Underlying dimensions of a broad set of emotional states characterized by pleasant (i.e., interested, excited, str etc.) and unpleasant (i.e., distressed, upset, nervous, etc.) moods or emotions.			
	Wideman (2016)	Discomfort and affect measures, including happiness, pleasantness, and calmness for positive affect and anxiety, tension, nervousness, and irritation for negative affect.			
Positive well-being	Bartley (2019b)	Components of positive affect, life satisfaction, and an overall sense of purpose and meaning.			
Resilience	Bartley (2019b)	The ability to bounce back and recover from stress.			
	Palit (2019)	The perceived capacity to regulate thoughts and emotions and to maintain positive, adaptive functioning while in pain.			
Self-efficacy	Adegoke (2017)	Beliefs concerning completion of tasks related to pain management and function.			
·	La Touche (2019)	A psychological state in which the individual judges their ability to perform an action or behavior in the most effective manner, considering the circumstances and the perceived difficulty level.			
	Rabey (2016)	A person's beliefs regarding their ability to undertake activities despite pain.			

Supplementary Material D. Definitions of psychological factors according to the included studies

Supplementary Material E. Summary table of best evidence syntheses assessing the association between psychological factors and movement-evoked pain.

Strength of evidence		Population	Psychological factor
Limited	Relation	Low back pain	Distress, perceived injustice, anxiety, self-efficacy
		Knee osteoarthritis	Resilience, positive wellbeing, optimism, pain hypervigilance, self-efficacy
	No relation	Low back pain Knee osteoarthritis	Positive and negative affect, optimism, and positive well-being. Positive and negative affect, anxiety
Moderate	No relation	Low back pain	Resilience
Conflicting	Relation	Knee osteoarthritis	Distress

Supplementary Material F. Summary table of best evidence syntheses assessing the association between psychological factors and movement-evoked pain index scores.

Strength of		Population	Psychological factor
evidence			
Limited	Relation	Low back pain	Chronic pain acceptance, self-efficacy.

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Conflict of Interest: None

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Figure 1. CONSORT diagram: selection process

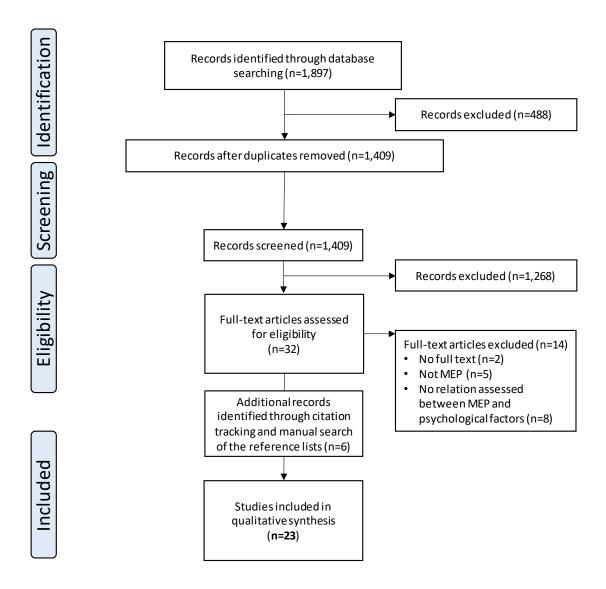


Figure 2. Risk of bias

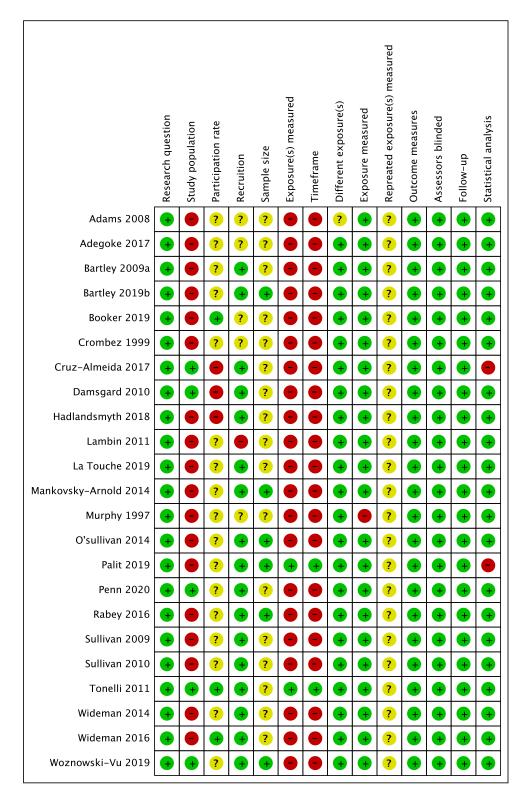


Figure 3. Forest plot on the association between movement-evoked pain and psychological factors in patients with musculoskeletal pain

Movement-evoked pain and depressive symptoms A.

Study or Subgroup	Fisher Z	SE	Weight	Fisher Z IV, Random, 95% CI	Fisher Z IV, Random, 95% CI
Adams 2008 (1)	0.4118	0.1601	9.4%	0.41 [0.10, 0.73]	
Adams 2008 (2)	0.03	0.1622	9.1%	0.03 [-0.29, 0.35]	
Lambin 2011	0.292	0.1015	23.3%	0.29 [0.09, 0.49]	│ — ∎ —
Penn 2020	0.2089	0.1015	23.3%	0.21 [0.01, 0.41]	
Sullivan 2009	0.2554	0.1072	20.9%	0.26 [0.05, 0.47]	— -
Sullivan 2010	0.3884	0.1301	14.2%	0.39 [0.13, 0.64]	
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.27 [0.17, 0.36]	•
Heterogeneity: Tau ² = Test for overall effect				$= 0.52$; $I^2 = 0\%$	-1 -0.5 0 0.5 1

Footnotes (1) women (2) men

B. Movement-evoked pain and pain-related fear

				Fisher Z	Fisher Z
Study or Subgroup	Fisher Z	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl
Crombez 1999	0.1614	0.169	7.3%	0.16 [-0.17, 0.49]	
Lambin 2011	0.3769	0.1015	20.1%	0.38 [0.18, 0.58]	
Mankovsky-Arnold 2014	0.3873	0.0848	28.9%	0.39 [0.22, 0.55]	
Palit 2019	0.2661	0.1324	11.8%	0.27 [0.01, 0.53]	
Sullivan 2009	0.3769	0.1027	19.7%	0.38 [0.18, 0.58]	
Sullivan 2010	0.3428	0.1302	12.2%	0.34 [0.09, 0.60]	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.35 [0.26, 0.44]	•
Heterogeneity: $Chi^2 = 1.98$, $df = 5$ (P = 0.85); $I^2 = 0\%$			$I^2 = 0\%$		
Test for overall effect: Z =	7.62 (P < 0	0.00001)			-1 -0.3 0 0.5 1

С. Movement-evoked pain and negative affect

Study or Subgroup	Fisher Z	SE	Weight	Fisher Z IV, Fixed, 95% Cl		Fisher Z IV, Fixed, 95% Cl	
Crombez 1999	0.2342	0.169	25.0%	0.23 [-0.10, 0.57]			
Wideman 2016	0.2661	0.0976	75.0%	0.27 [0.07, 0.46]			
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.26 [0.09, 0.42]		•	
Heterogeneity: Chi ² =	= 0.03, df =	1 (P = 0	H		1		
Test for overall effect	: Z = 3.05 (P = 0.00	-1 -(0.5 0 0.5	1		

D. Movement-evoked pain and pain catastrophizing

Study or Subgroup	Fisher Z SE	Weight	Fisher Z IV, Fixed, 95% Cl	Fish IV, Fixed	
Lambin 2011	0.4001 0.1015	32.4%	0.40 [0.20, 0.60]		
Palit 2019	0.4973 0.1325	19.0%	0.50 [0.24, 0.76]		_
Sullivan 2009	0.4973 0.1072	29.0%	0.50 [0.29, 0.71]		_
Sullivan 2010	0.523 0.1302	19.7%	0.52 [0.27, 0.78]		
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	0.47 [0.36, 0.58]		•
Heterogeneity: Chi ² = Test for overall effect	, , ,	-1 -0.5 (0.5 1		

E. Movement-evoked pain index and depressive symptoms

Study or Subgroup	Fisher Z SI	Weight	Fisher Z IV, Random, 95% CI	Fisher Z IV, Random, 95% CI
Lambin 2011	0.0882 0.1015	27.1%	0.09 [-0.11, 0.29]	
Sullivan 2009	0.1003 0.1072	25.3%	0.10 [-0.11, 0.31]	- +
Sullivan 2010	-0.2027 0.1302	19.3%	-0.20 [-0.46, 0.05]	
Wideman 2014	-0.0721 0.0983	28.3%	-0.07 [-0.26, 0.12]	
Total (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Tau ² = Test for overall effect				-1 -0.5 0 0.5 1

F. Movement-evoked pain index and pain-related fear

				Fisher Z	Fisher Z
Study or Subgroup	Fisher Z	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl
Lambin 2011	0.2111	0.1015	19.6%	0.21 [0.01, 0.41]	
Mankovsky-Arnold 2014	0.0882	0.0848	28.1%	0.09 [-0.08, 0.25]	-+ -
Sullivan 2009	0.2661	0.1072	17.6%	0.27 [0.06, 0.48]	
Sullivan 2010	0.1614	0.1302	11.9%	0.16 [-0.09, 0.42]	
Woznowski-Vu 2019	0.052	0.0941	22.8%	0.05 [-0.13, 0.24]	
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.14 [0.06, 0.23]	◆
Heterogeneity: $Chi^2 = 3.1^2$ Test for overall effect: Z =					

G. Movement-evoked pain index and pain catastrophizing

				Fisher Z	Fisher Z	
Study or Subgroup	Fisher Z	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI	CI IV, Fixed, 95% CI	
Lambin 2011	0.1521 0	0.1015	21.0%	0.15 [-0.05, 0.35]	j] +	
Sullivan 2009	0.1923 0	0.1072	18.8%	0.19 [-0.02, 0.40])]	
Sullivan 2010	0.2877 0	0.1302	12.7%	0.29 [0.03, 0.54]	·]	
Wideman 2014	0.2184 0	0.0968	23.1%	0.22 [0.03, 0.41]	.] —	
Woznowski-Vu 2019	0.0601 0	0.0941	24.4%	0.06 [-0.12, 0.24]	l] — —	
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.17 [0.08, 0.26]	5]	
Heterogeneity: Chi ² = Test for overall effect:			-1 -0.5 0 0.5	1		

Author and year Study Participants (N; design Pain condition; women (%))		Pain condition;	MEP (Movement task; Calculation; Assessment tool)	Psychological factor (Construct (Assessment tool))	Results (p-value)	
Anxiety						
¹ Hadlandsmyth 2017 ⁴⁸	2017 ⁴⁸ 54% Average score b		Active flexion/extension of the affected knee; Average score between flexion and extension pain ratings was used; NRS (0-20)	Sate anxiety (STAI)	$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{N}.\mathbf{R}.$	
¹ Murphy 1997 ⁴⁴			Experienced pain during each exercise; Verbal	State anxiety (STAI)	β (walking)= N.R. (p > 0.05) β (stand-up test) = -0.764, T = -2.877 (p = 0.010) β (stair climbing) = N.R. (p > 0.05)	
¹ Tonelli 2011 ¹³ C N=208, Knee OA, Flexion, extension and walking; N.R.; NR 66.3% 20)		Flexion, extension and walking; N.R.; NRS (0-20)	State anxiety (STAI)	β (walking) = 0.075 (p = 0.081) β (flexion and extension): N.R.		
Chronic pain accepta	nce					
² Rabey 2016 ⁵⁹ CS N=		N= 294; CLBP; 57.1%	Repeated spinal bending (20 forward and 20 backward spinal bends); MEP index (pain intensity score after last 5 repetitions subtracted from baseline pain score (first 5 repetitions)); NRS (0-10)	Chronic pain acceptance (CPAQ 8)	MEP index: Cluster 1 had a significantly greater proportion of people with no increase in pain following repeated movements and a lesser proportion of people with increased pain following repeated movement ^c	
Depressive symptoms						
¹ Adams 2008 ⁴⁹ ‡	CS	N = 83; musculoskeletal pain; 51%	Canister lifting task; Average pain (18 canister lifts); VRS (0-10)	Depressive symptoms (BDI-II)	Women: $r = 0.39 (p < 0.01)$ Men: $r = 0.03 (p > 0.05)$	
¹ Bartley 2019a ⁵⁰	CS	N = 60; CLBP; 56%	Back Performance Scale; Average mean score of current LBP immediately after movement tasks; N.R. (0-100)			
¹ Cruz-Almeida 2017 ⁵¹	CS	N=270; knee OA, 63%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; Average pain; VAS (0-100)	Depressive symptomsCluster 3 reported significantly greater de symptoms than individuals in Cluster 1 b		
¹ Hadlandsmyth 2017 ⁴⁸	48 54% Average score between flexion and exter		Active flexion/extension of the affected knee; Average score between flexion and extension pain ratings was used; NRS (0-20)	Depressive symptoms $r = N.R.$ (GDS)		
^{1,2} Lambin 2011 ¹² ‡ V	CS	N=100; fibromyalgia (n=50) and CLBP (n=50); 100%	Canister lifting task; Mean activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Depressive symptoms (BDI-II)	r = 0.284 (p < 0.01) MEP index: r = 0.088 (p > 0.05)	

Table 1. Overview of studies, categorized by psychological factors in patients with musculoskeletal pain

¹ O'Sullivan 2014 ⁵²	CS	N=53; mechanical CLBP (N=17), non-	Mechanical pain; where pain is related to processes of peripheral sanitization and some	Depression, anxiety and stress (DASS 21)	Significant differences for DASS score between $(p < 0.001)$
		(N=17), non- mechanical, CLBP (N=19), and pain free controls (N=19); 64%	degree of activity dependent central sensitization; VAS (0-10)	suess (DA35 21)	 - non-mechanical CLBP (median (IQR)): 30 (34) - mechanical CLBP (median (IQR)): 20 (18) - controls (median (IQR)): 10 (14)
¹ Penn 2020 ⁵³ ‡	CS	N=105; CLBP; 59%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; pain experienced during the activity; NRS (0-100)	Depressive symptoms (CES-D)	r = 0.206 (p < 0.05)
² Rabey 2016 ⁵⁹	CS	N= 294; CLBP; 57.1%	Repeated spinal bending (20 forward and 20 backward spinal bends); MEP index (pain intensity score after last 5 repetitions subtracted from baseline pain score (first 5 repetitions)); NRS (0-10)	Depression, anxiety and stress (DASS 21)	MEP index: Cluster 1 had a significantly greater proportion of people with no increase in pain following repeated movements (p < 0.001) and a lesser proportion of people with increased pain following repeated movement $(p < 0.001)$
1,2 Sullivan 2009 ¹¹ ‡ $\pmb{\nabla}$	CS	N=90; CLBP; 49%	Canister lifting task; Mean of activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Depressive symptoms (BDI-II)	r = 0.25 (p < 0.05) MEP index: r = 0.10 (p > 0.05)
^{1,2} Sullivan 2010 ¹⁰ $\ddagger \nabla$	CS	N=62; whiplash injuries; 48%	Canister lifting task; Mean activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Depressive symptoms (BDI-II)	r = 0.37 (p < 0.01) MEP index: r = -0.20 (p > 0.05)
¹ Tonelli 2011 ¹³	С	N=208, Knee OA, 66.3%	Flexion, extension and walking; N.R.; NRS (0-20)	Depressive symptoms (GDS-SF)	β (walking) = N.R. (p > 0.05) β (flexion and extension): N.R. (p > 0.05)
² Wideman 2014 ¹⁴ ∇	CS	N=107; Knee OA; 70.1%	6-minute walk test, average pain score MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings) over 2 trails; VRS (0-100)	Depressive symptoms (POMS)	MEP index: r = -0.072 (p > 0.05)
Distress					
¹ Booker 2019 ⁵⁴	CS	$N = 162 \cdot knee OA \cdot$	Standing balance walking chair stand	Perceived distress (PSS)	F(standing balance) = 1.37 (n = 0.24)

Distress					
¹ Booker 2019 ⁵⁴	CS	N= 162; knee OA;	Standing balance, walking, chair stand,	Perceived distress (PSS)	F (standing balance) = $1.37 (p = 0.24)$
		61%	maximal isometric strength test; Mean intensity		F (walking) = 3.59 (p = 0.06)
			pain; NRS (0-100)		F (chair stand) = $1.69 (p = 0.20)$
					F (index knee strength test) = 0.02 (p = 0.88)
					F (non-index knee strength test) = 3.52 (p = 0.06)

¹ Damsgard 2010 ⁴⁶ CS		N=232; various musculoskeletal complaints; 53%	Average pain experienced during latest week during activity; NRS (0-10)	Psychological distress (HSCL 25)	$\beta = 1.28 \ (p = 0.001)$		
¹ Hadlandsmyth 2017 ⁴⁸			Pain related distress (NRS)	r = 0.86 (p < 0.01)			
Pain-related fear							
¹ Crombez 1999 (2) ⁵⁵ ‡	CS	N=38; CLBP; 66%	Trunk-extension-flexion task; Maximum back pain experienced; Verbal graphical rating scale (0-100)	Fear Avoidance Beliefs (FABQ)	FABQ-physical: $r = 0.18 (p > 0.05)$ FABQ-work: $r = 0.42 (p < 0.01)$		
				Pain-related fear (TSK)	r = 0.16 (p > 0.05)		
¹ Damsgard 2010 ⁴⁶	CS	N=232; various musculoskeletal complaints; 53%	Average pain experienced during latest week during activity; NRS (0-10)	Pain-related fear (TSK)	β = 0.70 (p < 0.001)		
^{1,2} Lambin 2011 ¹² $\ddagger \nabla$	CS	N=100; fibromyalgia (n=50)	Canister lifting task; Mean activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings	Pain-related fear (TSK)	r = 0.360 (p < 0.01)		
		and CLBP (n=50); 100%	from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)		MEP index: r = 0.208 (p < 0.05)		
² La Touche 2019 ⁶⁰	CS	N=60; nonspecific CLBP; 58%	Canister lifting task; MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VAS (0-10).	Fear avoidance beliefs (FABQ)	Patients were classified as having "high" or "low" self- efficacy based on CPSS-scores.		
					MEP index: High self-efficacy group: $r = 0.335$ (p > 0.05) Low self-efficacy group: $r = 0.206$ (p > 0.05)		
				Pain-related fear (TSK)	MEP index: High self-efficacy group: $r = 0.711 (p < 0.01)$ Low self-efficacy group: $r = 0.705 (p < 0.01)$		
^{1,2} Mankovsky-Arnold 2014 ⁷ $\ddagger \nabla$	CS	N=142; whiplash; 48%	Canister lifting task; pain evoked by one lift and MEP index (pain intensity score after first	Pain-related fear (TSK)	r = 0.369 (p < 0.01)		
			3 lifts subtracted pain intensity score after last 3 lifts); NRS (0-10)		MEP index: r = 0.088 (p > 0.05)		
¹ Palit 2019 ⁴⁷ ‡	С	N=60; LBP; 56.7%	Back performance scale; average of pain ratings; N.R. (0-100)	Fear-avoidance beliefs (FABQ)	r = 0.26 (p < 0.05) β = 0.46, t = 0.91 (p < 0.01)		
² Rabey 2016 ⁵⁹	CS	N=294; CLBP; 57.1%	Repeated spinal bending (20 forward and 20 backward spinal bends); MEP index (pain intensity score after last 5 repetitions subtracted	Fear avoidance beliefs (FABQ)	MEP index: Cluster 1 had a significantly greater proportion of people with no increase in pain following repeated movements ($p < 0.001$) and a lesser proportion of people with		

			from baseline pain score (first 5 repetitions)); NRS (0-10)		bidirectional increases in pain following repeated movement ($p < 0.001$) ^c
^{1,2} Sullivan 2009 ¹¹ ‡ ▼	CS	N=90; CLBP; 49%	Canister lifting task; Mean of activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Pain-related fear (TSK)	r = $0.36 (p < 0.01)$ MEP index: r = $0.26 (p < 0.05)$
^{1,2} Sullivan 2010 ¹⁰ ‡ V	CS	N=62; whiplash injuries; 48%	Canister lifting task; Mean activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Pain-related fear (TSK)	r = 0.33 (p < 0.01) MEP index: r = 0.16 (p > 0.05)
² Woznowski-Vu 2019 ⁴⁵ ∇	CS	N=116; Musculoskeletal pain; 69,8%	Self-paced walk, standardized lift, tailored lift; MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); NRS (0-100)	Pain-related fear (TSK)	MEP index: r (walking) = $0.140 (p > 0.05)$ r (standardized lift) = $0.052 (p > 0.05)$ r (tailored task) = $0.110 (p > 0.05)$
Pain catastrophizing					
¹ Cruz-Almeida 2017 ⁵¹	CS	N=270; knee OA, 63%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; Average pain; VAS (0-100)	Coping strategies and pain catastrophizing (CSQ-R)	Cluster 3 reported significantly greater use of coping strategies, more catastrophizing individuals in Cluster 1
¹ Hadlandsmyth 2017 ⁴⁸	CS	N=346; knee OA; 54%	Active flexion/extension of the affected knee; Average score between flexion and extension pain ratings was used; NRS (0-20)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	r = N.R.
² La Touche 2018 ⁶⁰	CS	N=60; nonspecific CLBP; 58%	Canister lifting task; MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VAS (0-10).	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	Patients were classified as having "high" or "low" self- efficacy based on CPSS-scores. MEP index: High self-efficacy group: $r = 0.606$ (p < 0.01) Low self-efficacy group: $r = 0.765$ (p < 0.01)
^{1,2} Lambin 2011 ¹² ‡ V	CS	N=100; fibromyalgia (n=50) and CLBP (n=50); 100%	Canister lifting task; Mean activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	r = 0.380 (p < 0.01) MEP index: r = 0.151 (p > 0.05)
¹ Palit 2019 ⁴⁷ ‡	С	N=60; LBP; 56.7%	Back performance scale; average of pain ratings; N.R. (0-100)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	$ r = 0.46 \ (p < 0.01) \beta = 0.58, t = 2.13 \ (p < 0.001) $
² Rabey 2016 ⁵⁹	CS	N= 294; CLBP; 57.1%	Repeated spinal bending (20 forward and 20 backward spinal bends); MEP index (pain intensity score after last 5 repetitions subtracted	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	MEP index: Cluster 1 had a significantly greater proportion of people with no increase in pain following repeated movements

			from baseline pain score (first 5 repetitions)); NRS (0-10)		(p < 0.001) and a lesser proportion of people with increased pain following repeated movement ($p < 0.001$)
^{1,2} Sullivan 2009 ¹¹ ‡ V	CS	N=90; CLBP; 49%	Canister lifting task; Mean of activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	r = 0.46 (p < 0.01) MEP index: r = 0.19 (p > 0.05)
^{1,2} Sullivan 2010 ¹⁰ ‡ V	CS	N=62; whiplash injuries; 48%	Canister lifting task; Mean activity-related pain and MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); VRS (0-10)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	r = 0.48 (p < 0.01) MEP index: r = 0.28 (p < 0.05)
¹ Tonelli 2011 ¹³	С	N=208, Knee OA, 66.3%	Flexion, extension and walking; N.R.; NRS (0-20)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	β (walking): N.R. (p > 0.05) β (flexion and extension): N.R. (p > 0.05)
² Wideman 2014 ¹⁴ V	CS	N= 107; Knee OA; 70.1%	6-minute walk test, average pain score MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings) over 2 trails; VRS (0-100)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	MEP index: r = 0.215 (p < 0.05) $\beta = 0.222, T = 2.508 (p < 0.05)$
² Woznowski-Vu 2019 ⁴⁵ ∇	CS	N=116; Musculoskeletal pain; 69,8%	Self-paced walk, standardized lift, tailored lift; MEP index (subtracting first pain ratings from peak pain ratings); NRS (0-100)	Pain catastrophizing (PCS)	MEP index: r (walking) = $0.068 (p > 0.05)$ r (standardized lift) = $0.060 (p > 0.05)$ r (tailored lift) = $-0.039 (p > 0.05)$
Pain hypervigilance					
¹ Cruz-Almeida 2017 ⁵¹	CS	N=270; knee OA, 63%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; Average pain; VAS (0-100)	Pain vigilance (PVAQ)	Cluster 3 reported significantly more pain hypervigilance than individuals in Cluster 1 ^b
Perceived injustice					
¹ Penn 2020 ⁵³	CS	N=105; CLBP; 59%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; pain experienced during the activity; NRS (0-100)	Perceived injustice (IEQ)	r = 0.496 (p < 0.001)
Positive and negative	affect				
¹ Bartley 2019a ⁵⁰	CS	N = 60; CLBP; 56%	Back Performance Scale; Average mean score of current LBP immediately after movement tasks; N.R. (0-100)	Positive and negative affect (PANAS)	No differences (p = 0.08) were detected across cluster groups a
¹ Bartley 2019b ⁵⁶	CS	N= 201; knee OA; 61%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; Average mean score of LBP immediately after movement tasks; N.R. (0-100)	Positive and negative affect (PANAS)	r = -0.09 (p > 0.05)
¹ Crombez 1999 (2) ⁵⁵ ‡	CS	N=38; CLBP; 66%	Trunk-extension-flexion task; Maximum back pain experienced; Verbal graphical rating scale (0-100)	Negative affect (NEM)	r = 0.23 (p > 0.05)

¹ Cruz-Almeida CS N=270; knee OA, 2017 ⁵¹ 63%			Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; Average pain; VAS (0-100)	Positive and negative affect (PANAS)	Cluster 3 reported significantly more negative affect t individuals in Cluster 1. All three clusters reported sir levels of positive affect ($p > 0.05$) ^b		
¹ Wideman 2016 ⁵⁷ ‡	CS	N=108, Knee OA; 70.4%	6MWT, TUG test; post-task discomfort; VRS (0-100)	Positive and negative affect (VRS)	Positive affect: r (6MWT) = 0.36 (p < 0.05) Positive affect: r (TUG) = -0.25 (p < 0.05) Negative affect: r (6MWT) = 0.56 (p < 0.05) Negative affect: r (TUG) = 0.26 (p < 0.05)		
Positive well-being							
¹ Bartley 2019a ⁵⁰	CS	N = 60; CLBP; 56%	Back Performance Scale; Average mean score of current LBP immediately after movement tasks; N.R. (0-100)	Positive well-being (PROMIS positive affect and well-being)	No differences (p = 0.08) were detected across cluster groups a		
¹ Bartley 2019b ⁵⁶	CS	N=201; knee OA; 61%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; Average mean score of LBP immediately after movement tasks; N.R. (0-100)	Positive well-being (PAW-SF)	r = -0.16 (p < 0.05)		
Resilience							
¹ Bartley 2019a ⁵⁰	CS	N = 60; CLBP; 56%	Back Performance Scale; Average mean score of current LBP immediately after movement tasks; N.R. (0-100)	Trait resilience (BRS) Optimism (LOT-R)	No differences (p = 0.08) were detected across cluster groups $^{\rm a}$		
¹ Bartley 2019b ⁵⁶	CS	N= 201; knee OA; 61%	Standing balance, 4-m walking, rise from a chair; Average mean score of LBP immediately after movement tasks; N.R. (0-100)	Trait resilience (BRS) Optimism (LOT-R)	r = -0.17 (p < 0.05) r = -0.22 (p < 0.01)		
¹ Palit 2019 ⁴⁷	С	N=60; LBP; 56.7%	Back performance scale; average of pain	Pain resilience (PRS)	r = -0.11 (p > 0.05)		
			ratings; N.R. (0-100)		$\beta = -0.03, t = -0.11 (p = 0.91)$		
Self-efficacy							
¹ Adegoke 2017 ⁵⁸	CS	N = 51; unilateral knee OA; 57%	Stair test (STT), 20m walking test (20MWT), Timed Up and Go Test (TUG)); Present pain; Box NRS (BNPS, 0-10)	Pain self-efficacy (PSE) and function (FSE) subscale	PSE: r = -0.56 (p < 0.01) FSE: r = -0.52 (p < 0.01)		
¹ Damsgard 2010 ⁴⁶	CS	N=232; various musculoskeletal complaints; 53%	Average pain experienced during latest week during activity; NRS (0-10)	Self-efficacy (ASES)	$\beta = -0.05 \ (p < 0.001)$		
² Rabey 2016 ⁵⁹	CS	N= 294; CLBP; 57.1%	Repeated spinal bending (20 forward and 20 backward spinal bends); MEP index (pain intensity score after last 5 repetitions subtracted from baseline pain score (first 5 repetitions)); NRS (0-10)	Pain self-efficacy (PSE)	MEP index Cluster 1 had a significantly greater proportion of people with no increase in pain following repeated movements (p < 0.001) and a lesser proportion of people with		

bidirectional increases in pain following repeated movement (p < 0.001) °

¹ studies investigating the relation between a certain psychological factor and MEP; ² studies investigating the relation between a certain psychological factor and a MEP index. \ddagger : included in a meta-analysis MEP; ∇ : included in meta-analysis MEP index

ASES, Arthritis Self-Efficacy Scale; BDI-II, Beck Depression Inventory-II; BRS, Brief Resilience Scale; C, cohort study; CES-D, Center for Epidemiological Studies – Depression; CLBP, chronic low back pain; CPAQ-8, Chronic Pain Acceptance Questionnaire 8; CPSS, Chronic Pain Self-Efficacy Scale; CS, cross-sectional study; CSQ-R, Coping Strategies Questionnaire-Revised; DASS-21, Depression Anxiety Stress Scale; FABQ, Fear Avoidance Beliefs Questionnaire; FSE, Function Self-Efficacy Scale; GDS, Geriatric Depression Scale; GDS-SF, Geriatric Depression Scale – Short Form; HSCL-25, Hopkins Symptoms Checklist – 25; IEQ, Injustice Experience Questionnaire; IQR, inter-quartile range; LBP, low back pain; LOT-R, Life Orientation Test-Revised; m, meter; MEP, movement-evoked pain; N, number; NEM, Negative Emotionality Scale; N.R., not reported; NRS, numeric rating scale; OA, osteoarthritis; PANAS, Positive And Negative Affect Schedule; PAW-SF, Positive Affect and Well-being – Short Form; PCS, Pain Catastrophizing Scale; POMS, Profile of Mood States; PROMIS, Patients-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System; PRS, Pain Resilience Scale; PSE, Pain Self-Efficacy Scale; PSS, Perceived Stress Questionnaire; PVAQ, Pain Vigilance Awareness Questionnaire; STAI, State-Trait Anxiety Questionnaire; TSK, Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia; VAS, visual analogue scale; VRS, Verbal rating scale.

^a Four clusters were identified: (1) High Resilience group: high levels of psychological, health and social support functioning; (2) High Health/Low psychosocial group: optimal health related functioning, low levels of psychosocial function, (3) High psychosocial/Low health group: poor health functioning, high psychological functioning, moderate to high social support, (4) Low resilience group: low levels of functioning across psychological, social and health-related factors;

^b Three clusters were identified: (1) High physical function and minimal MEP, (2) Moderate physical function and mild MEP, (3) Low physical function and severe MEP.

^c Three clusters were identified: (1) Low cognitive and affective questionnaire scores, with exception of fear-avoidance beliefs, (2) elevated thought suppression, catastrophizing and fearavoidance beliefs, but low pain self-efficacy, depression, anxiety and stress, (3) highest scores across cognitive and affective questionnaires. **Table 2.** GRADE evidence profile: associations between psychological factors and movement-evoked pain (index) scores in patients with musculoskeletal pain.

		Certainty Assessment						Mean	Certainty	Comments
Nº of studies	Study design	Risk of Bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations	patients	Correlation (95% C.I.)		
Movement-	-evoked pain and	l depressiv	ve symptoms							
5	observational studies	serious ¹	not serious	not serious	not serious	none	440	EMC 0.27 (0.17 to 0.36) p < 0.001*	⊕⊕⊕⊖ MODERATE ²	There is moderate evidence for a weak association between MEP and depressive symptoms.
Movement-	-evoked pain and	l pain-rela	ted fear							
6	observational studies	serious ¹	not serious	not serious	not serious	none	492	EMC 0.35 (0.26 to 0.44) p < 0.001*	$\oplus \oplus \oplus \bigcirc$ MODERATE ²	There is moderate evidence for a weak association between MEP and pain- related fear.
Movement-	-evoked pain and	negative	affect							
2	observational studies	serious1	not serious	not serious	serious ³	none	146	EMC 0.26 (0.09 to 0.42) p = 0.002*	⊕⊕⊖⊖ Low	There is limited evidence for a weak association between MEP and negative affect.
Movement-	-evoked pain and	l pain cata	strophizing							
4	observational studies	serious ¹	not serious	not serious	not serious	none	312	EMC 0.47 (0.36 to 0.58) p < 0.001*	$\begin{array}{c} \oplus \oplus \oplus \bigcirc \\ MODERATE^2 \end{array}$	There is moderate evidence for a moderate association between MEP and pain catastrophizing.

Movement	-evoked pain ind	lex and dep	ressive sympton	ns						
4	observational studies	serious ¹	not serious	not serious	not serious	none	359	EMC -0.01 (-0.14 to 0.12) p = 0.88	⊕⊕⊕⊖ MODERATE ²	There is moderate evidence for a weak association between MEP and depressive symptoms.
Movement	-evoked pain ind	ex and pair	n-related fear							
5	observational studies	serious ¹	not serious	not serious	not serious	none	510	EMC 0.14 (0.06 to 0.23) p = 0.001*	⊕⊕⊕⊖ MODERATE ²	There is moderate evidence for a weak association between MEP and pain-related fear.
Movement	-evoked pain ind	lex and pair	n catastrophizin	Ig						
5	observational studies	serious ¹	not serious	not serious	not serious	none	475	EMC 0.17 (0.08 to 0.26) p < 0.001*	⊕⊕⊕⊖ MODERATE ²	There is moderate evidence for a weak association between MEP and pain catastrophizing

CI, confidence interval; EMC, estimated mean correlation (Fisher z); MEP, movement-evoked pain; *, statistically significant.

¹As the overall risk of bias of the included studies can be considered high risk of bias, level of evidence was downgraded for within study risk of bias: ,² The presence of a dose-response gradient increases the confidence in these findings of observational studies, and therefore, the level of evidence was upgraded, ³ Since less than 400 participants were included, optimal information size (OIS) is not met and therefore the level of evidence was downgraded for imprecision.