



PM R XXX (2018) 1-14

www.pmrjournal.org

Original Research

Patients With Chronic Spinal Pain Benefit From Pain Neuroscience Education Regardless the Self-Reported Signs of Central Sensitization: Secondary Analysis of a Randomized Controlled Multicenter Trial

Q6 Anneleen Malfliet, MSc, Jeroen Kregel, MSc, Mira Meeus, PhD, Lieven Danneels, PhD, Barbara Cagnie, PhD, Nathalie Roussel, PhD, Jo Nijs, PhD

Abstract

Background: Pain neuroscience education is effective in chronic pain management. Central sensitization (ie, generalized hyper-sensitivity) is often explained as the underlying mechanism for chronic pain, because of its clinical relevance and influence on pain severity, prognosis, and treatment outcome.

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

Design: A secondary analysis of a multicenter, triple-blind randomized controlled trial.

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

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

Interventions: Pain neuroscience education or neck/back school. Both interventions were delivered in 3 sessions: 1 group session, 1 online session, and 1 individual session.

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

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

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

Level of Evidence: Level I, therapy

Keywords: kinesiophobia; illness perceptions; therapy; education; randomized controlled trial

Introduction

In the last decade the focus of educational programs for people with chronic pain has shifted remarkably to pain neuroscience education [1-5]. Pain neuroscience education is used to increase the patients' knowledge of the underlying pain physiology, to decrease the threat

value of pain, and to reconceptualize pain [6,7]. Neuro-physiological mechanisms of the peripheral and central nervous system and neuroplastic changes occurring in case of chronic pain are explained in layman's terms, using photographs, drawings, metaphors, etc. Particular attention is given to the brain, and its role in pain related thoughts, attitudes and psychological distress, which

influence pain perception [8]. There is some evidence to support that pain neuroscience education can improve health status, pain beliefs, illness perceptions, anxiety, kinesiophobia, and endogenous pain modulation in several chronic pain populations, including patients with chronic spinal pain [1,9-14]. Yet, others indicate the need for more studies to support the clinical utility of pain neuroscience education [3,4] or that this type of education is insufficient by itself to change perceived disability [2,15].

One of the studies indicating the insufficiency of pain neuroscience education to change perceived disability comprises the original analysis of the data presented in this paper [15]. Although there was no change in the perceived disability in response to pain neuroscience education, there was an improvement in secondary outcomes like kinesiophobia, and illness perceptions. The absence of an effect on perceived disability might relate to a heterogeneity in the population regarding symptoms of central sensitization (ie, generalized hypersensitivity), as evidence shows more perceived disability in subgroups that display more symptoms of central sensitization [16]. Central sensitization is one of the mechanisms explained during pain neuroscience education. Therefore, groups with more prominent symptoms of central sensitization might relate more to the content and might experience more improvement regarding perceived disability (and even other outcome measures) in response to pain neuroscience education. However, this is merely an assumption that has not been investigated before, which is the scope of this paper.

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

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

One particular instrument that assesses self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (ie, generalized hypersensitivity) is the Central Sensitization Inventory (CSI). The CSI evaluates the occurrence of hypersensitivity for

senses unrelated to the musculoskeletal system (eg, chemical substances, cold, heat, stress, and electrical stimuli) [31-36], and is a reliable and valid instrument [37,38]. Still, it needs to be acknowledged that like other behavior measures of central sensitization in humans (ie, quantitative sensory testing), the CSI is an indirect measure of central sensitization. Nevertheless, unlike in animal studies, there is currently no other way to assess central sensitization in humans.

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

Because of the ability of pain neuroscience education to improve several important outcomes in chronic pain (eg, health status, illness perceptions, kinesiophobia, etc), the clinical importance of central sensitization (ie, generalized hypersensitivity) in chronic pain, and the ability of the CSI to differentiate between patients with and without self-reported symptoms of central sensitization, it seems warranted to examine whether patients with more self-reported symptoms of central sensitization respond differently to pain neuroscience education than those with fewer self-reported symptoms of central sensitization. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate if the effectiveness of pain neuroscience education (versus biomedical neck/back school) differs in patients with high and low baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization.

Methods

Design overview

This multicenter, triple-blind randomized controlled trial took place in 2 centers: the University Hospitals of Ghent and Brussels. The trial was approved by the local ethics committees (University Hospital Brussels and University Hospital Ghent) and was conducted between January 2014 and January 2016. All participants signed the informed consent. The full study protocol is registered online (ClinicalTrials.gov NCTxxxxx) and is published elsewhere [43]. The trial is reported according to CONSORT guidelines [44].

Here we report the effects of pain neuroscience education (versus biomedical neck/back school as the control education) on self-reported questionnaires (assessing disability, catastrophizing, kinesiophobia, illness perceptions, and hypervigilance) in groups with high and low self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (ie, generalized hypersensitivity). Outcome measures were obtained at baseline and directly after 3 sessions of education.

Study Population and Sample Size

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

Participants were found eligible for study participation if they were (1) native Dutch speaking; (2) aged between 18 and 65 years; (3) having nCSP at least 3 days/wk for at least 3 months since the first symptoms: nCSP includes chronic low back pain, failed back surgery syndrome (ie, more than 3 years ago, anatomically successful operation without symptom disappearance), chronic whiplash-associated disorders, and chronic nontraumatic neck pain; (4) available and willing to participate in educational sessions; and (5) not continuing any other therapies (ie, other physical therapy treatments, acupuncture, osteopathy, etc), except for usual medication.

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

Sample size calculations were performed with G*Power (Düsseldorf, Germany) based on the therapy effects on disability in the pilot study of Van Oosterwijck et al. [12] (Cohen $d = 0.46$; usage of neck disability index in people with chronic whiplash). Calculations were based on ANOVA repeated measures (number of measurements = 2; number of groups = 4) statistics with an effect size of 0.15, alpha set at 0.05, and a desired power of 0.90, resulting in a total of 164 people.

Randomization

Participants were randomly assigned into an educational group, using a stratified permuted block allocation (block size of 4), with stratification factors being treatment center (Ghent or Brussels), dominant pain location (low back or neck), and gender (male or female) [45,46]. Randomization was performed at the Biostatistics Unit (Ghent University) by an independent investigator using SAS 9.4.

Blinding

The study participants and the statistician (performing the data analyses) were blinded to the study hypothesis, and the outcomes assessors (collecting the data) were blinded for the randomization sequence (ie, triple blind). Participants did not know whether they received the experimental or control intervention, and they did not see each other in the hospital waiting rooms (no contamination between groups). The therapists providing the experimental treatment were not involved in the control intervention and vice versa.

Subdivision of groups

The baseline CSI total score was used to divide the groups based on the presence or absence of self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (ie, generalized hypersensitivity). This questionnaire consists of 25 items assessing health-related symptoms, rated on a Likert-scale (0 = "never" to 4 = "always"). The total score represents the degree of self-reported symptomatology (maximum score = 100). A cut-off value of 40 is determined, with scores higher than 40 indicating the presence of central sensitization (81% sensitivity and 75% specificity) [40]. Several studies found support for the reliability and validity of the CSI, including the Dutch CSI as used here [37-40].

Primary Outcome Measure

Pain Disability Index

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

Secondary Outcome Measures

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

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

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

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

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

Intervention

All study participants received 3 educational sessions within 2 weeks. The format of administration was identical for both treatment groups. The first session was a group educational session (PowerPoint presentation, duration: 30 minutes to 1 hour; maximal 6

participants/group) led by a physical therapist with clinical experience in chronic spinal pain. The therapist delivering education in one group did not provide education in the other group, and vice versa. Afterwards, participants received an educational booklet containing the same information to read at home. The second session was an online home-based e-learning module, containing 3 explanatory videos. These videos displayed the PowerPoint presentation used in the group session, with a voice-over explaining the content of the slides. After each video, the participants had to complete a questionnaire that assessed their opinion and understanding of that video. The third session comprised a 30-minute one-on-one conversation focusing on the patient's personal needs: answers from the second session's questionnaires were analyzed and the application of the newly derived knowledge into daily life was discussed. The content of the provided education (described below) rather than the format of administration differed between groups.

Experimental group

The content and pictures of the first and the second session were based on current knowledge of the neurophysiology of pain [69] and on 2 instructive books [6,7]. An example of a PowerPoint presentation for pain neuroscience education can be found online (<http://www.paininmotion.be/storage/app/media//materials/sem-PainPhysiologyEducationEnglish.pdf>).

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

In the third session, the therapist and patient discussed the answers given during the online session by relating them to the pain neuroscience education content. After these 3 sessions, the patients should be able to put their pain into the right perspective and to feel less threatened by the pain, leading to the willingness to perform physical activity with progression towards feared or avoided movements.

Control group

The biomedically focused neck/back school was based on available clinical guidelines [70,71]. Participants were expected gain biomedically oriented knowledge on neck and low back pain during the education. The following topics were covered: (1) the normal course and mechanical causes of neck/back pain; (2) the anatomy, physiology, and biomechanics of the spinal bones, joints, and muscles; (3) ergonomic

advice and the importance of self-care; (4) lifting techniques (using pictures of people lifting in several ways); and (5) the value of and principles behind different types of exercises (stretching, and strength, endurance, and fitness training). It did not include information on the nervous system, except for the course and location of the spinal cord and spinal nerve roots. During the third session, the patient and therapist discussed the answers given during the online session by relating them to the content of the education, and patients were given ergonomic advice for specific activities and were able to practice lifting techniques.

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS 22.0. Subjects of both educational groups were allocated into groups based on their baseline CSI scores. Subjects with a CSI score higher than 40 were allocated into the high-CSI group, and the others into the low-CSI group, leading to a total of 4 groups. Differences in response to the interventions between the 4 groups were first analyzed using analysis of covariance, with gender as covariate. As this covariate did not show significant interaction in any variable, the analysis was performed again without this covariate. The assumption of homogeneity and sphericity was checked by Levene's and Mauchly's test, respectively. When the assumption of sphericity was violated, Greenhouse-Geisser corrections were used. In case of significant interaction effects (ie, implying that the compared groups respond differently to the intervention given), Bonferroni post hoc analysis was carried out to investigate the specific differences within and between groups. Data were analyzed according to the intention-to-treat principle (ie, the first-observation-carried-forward method). This method was used because of the short period (± 2 weeks) between the baseline and posteducation measurements. Therefore, we believe that the baseline measurement is most representative as follow-up measurement for the people who dropped out. Also, we are aware that this method for conduction of intention-to-treat analyses is rather stringent.

Results

Subjects' Demographic Characteristics and Comparability

Of the 120 persons included, 9 ($n = 2$ in the high-CSI neck/back school group; $n = 2$ in the low-CSI neck/back school group; $n = 2$ in the high-CSI pain neuroscience education group; and $n = 3$ in the low-CSI pain neuroscience education group) dropped out before completion of the second round of questionnaires. Reasons for dropout are outlined in the study flow chart (Figure 1).

Subjects' baseline characteristics can be found in detail in Table 1.

Effectiveness of Pain Neuroscience Education in Patients With nCSP With High and Low Self-Reported Symptoms of Central Sensitization

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

For all pain catastrophizing items (except for helplessness), significant interaction effects were found (P values ranging from $P = .02$ to $P = .05$; see Table 2 and Figure 2). Bonferroni post hoc analysis (Table 3 and Figure 2) showed a significant difference at baseline between the 2 pain neuroscience education groups (mean difference rumination: 4.07, 95% CI: 2.06-6.07; mean difference magnification: 2.17, 95% CI: 1.07-3.26; mean difference total score: 9.67, 95% CI: 4.74-14.60) and that these 3 pain catastrophizing items decreased significantly only in the high-CSI pain neuroscience education group ($P < .001$; small effect sizes), which was not seen in the low-CSI groups (negligible sizes). Surprisingly, PCS magnification increased in the low-CSI pain neuroscience education group ($P = .03$; small effect size).

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

Last, several illness perceptions showed significant interaction effects (see Table 2 and Figures 4 and 5): acute/chronic timeline ($P = .002$), negative consequences ($P = .02$), personal control ($P = .02$), and timeline cyclical ($P = .012$). Bonferroni post hoc analysis (Table 3) showed that both pain neuroscience education groups improved significantly posteducation for all subscales (P values ranging from $< .001$ -.01, small to large effect sizes). In the neck/back school groups, there was a significant improvement of IPQr "acute/chronic timeline" ($P < .001$; medium effect size) in the low-CSI group and a significant improvement of IPQr "personal control" ($P < .001$; medium effect size) in the high-CSI group. Bonferroni post hoc analyses of group effects (Table 3) showed significantly higher IPQr consequences scores in the high-CSI pain neuroscience education group compared to the low-CSI pain

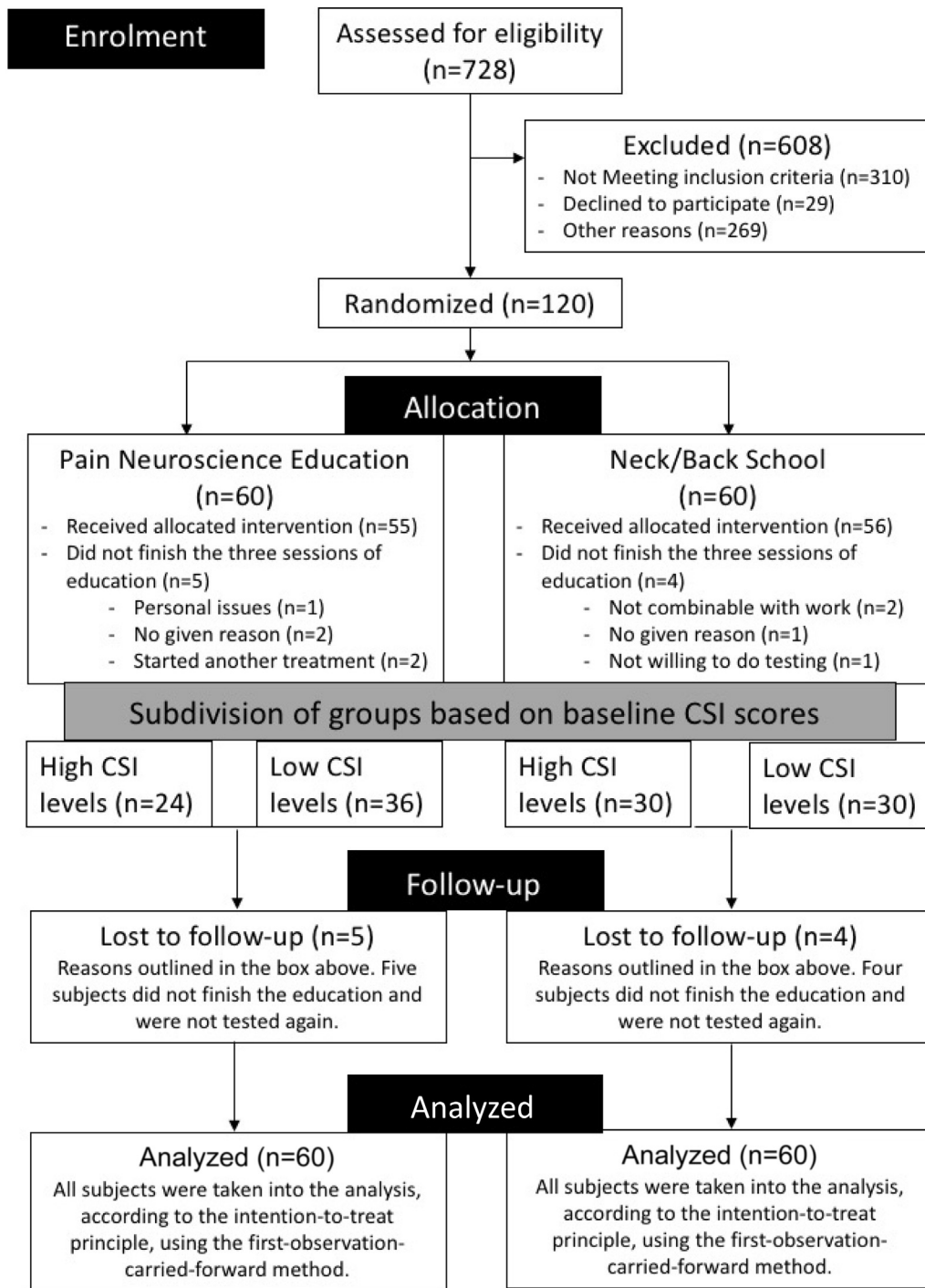


Figure 1. Study flow chart. CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory.

neuroscience education group at baseline ($P < .001$) and posteducation ($P < .001$).

Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate if the effectiveness of pain neuroscience education—compared to biomedical neck/back school—differs between patients with high and low self-reported symptoms of central

sensitization (ie, generalized hypersensitivity). Results of the present study show that pain neuroscience education is superior over neck/back school for improving kinesiophobia and the perceived negative consequences and cyclicality of the illness in patients with nCSP regardless their baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization. Yet, only in patients with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization, pain neuroscience education has the potential to reduce rumination about pain.

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)
Demographics				
Dominant pain problem, * NP/LBP	13/11	19/17	17/13	15/15
Sex, F/M	17/7	21/15	22/8	13/17
Duration of pain, † mo	111 (128.3)	88 (156.5)	66.5 (96.5)	70.5 (141.5)
Educational Level*	0–1–7–16	0–3–4–29	0–5–7–18	0–3–6–21
No degr—Lower second.—Higher second.—Higher Edu				
Working hours per week †	40 (12.50)	39 (15.75)	38 (23.75)	40 (12.50)
Age, y ‡	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
Baseline characteristics				
PDI (n = 70)	30.13 ± 14.92	16.25 ± 11.59	26.03 ± 15.06	17.13 ± 9.94
PCS: Rumination (n = 16)	8.96 ± 3.37	4.89 ± 3.78	7.63 ± 4.26	5.37 ± 3.85
PCS: Magnification (n = 12)	3.75 ± 2.25	1.58 ± 1.70	3.23 ± 2.40	2.27 ± 2.08
PCS: Helplessness (n = 24)	9.63 ± 4.39	6.19 ± 4.33	8.73 ± 5.98	6.47 ± 4.31
PCS Total (n = 52)	22.33 ± 8.50	12.67 ± 8.62	19.60 ± 11.33	14.10 ± 9.05
TSK (n = 68)	37.00 ± 6.76	32.61 ± 6.84	37.97 ± 6.71	35.47 ± 6.86
IPQr: Acute/Chronic Timeline (n = 25)	24.63 ± 4.13	23.33 ± 4.19	23.13 ± 3.58	23.33 ± 3.70
IPQr: Consequences (n = 20)	19.50 ± 4.29	14.53 ± 4.33	18.00 ± 3.94	15.30 ± 4.77
IPQr: Personal Control (n = 30)	19.33 ± 4.01	20.75 ± 4.13	19.43 ± 4.35	22.27 ± 3.61
IPQr: Treatment Control (n = 30)	16.42 ± 2.34	17.11 ± 2.69	16.63 ± 3.43	17.83 ± 2.25
IPQr: Illness Coherence (n = 25)	16.88 ± 1.96	17.17 ± 2.79	15.63 ± 2.71	17.27 ± 2.15
IPQr: Timeline Cyclical (n = 30)	12.83 ± 3.05	13.28 ± 3.64	12.53 ± 2.62	13.80 ± 3.25
IPQr: Emotional Representations (n = 25)	17.21 ± 3.88	13.42 ± 3.87	15.67 ± 4.77	13.40 ± 5.44
PVAQ (n = 60)	40.88 ± 9.18	34.25 ± 12.88	36.10 ± 10.45	35.43 ± 14.72

nCSP = nonspecific chronic spinal pain; 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 = Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia; IPQr = Illness Perception Questionnaire revised; PVAQ = Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire.

* Categorical data presented as frequencies.

† Values are presented as median (interquartile range) for continuous data that were observed as not normally distributed.

‡ Values are presented as mean ± standard deviation for continuous normal distributed data.

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

The a priori defined primary outcome measure—pain disability—did not change in any of the study groups, while previous studies on pain neuroscience education did report a positive effect on self-reported disability

[2,12,74]. That discrepancy could be explained due to the use of a different questionnaire to objectify disability, for example, the Roland Morris Disability Questionnaire [2,74] and the Neck Disability Index [12]. Other explanations may involve the use of an uncontrolled study design in earlier studies [12] or because the investigated patient population of this study comprises both patients with low back pain and neck pain, while previous studies focused on either low back pain or neck pain patients.

Results regarding pain catastrophizing indicate that pain catastrophizing in general, and rumination in particular are 2 aspects that can be targeted primarily in patients with high baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization using pain neuroscience education (small effect sizes). Neck/back school is not able to alter pain rumination, but the total pain catastrophizing score did improve in the neck/back school group with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization. This, combined with the improvement in the total score in the pain neuroscience education group, indicates that patients with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization seem to benefit more from educational sessions than patients with low levels, regardless the information provided.

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			Neck/Back School		Mean Difference [95% CI]	ANOVA	
		High-CSI Levels, Mean (SE) (n = 24)	Low-CSI Levels, Mean (SE) (n = 36)	Mean Difference [95% CI]	High-CSI Levels, Mean (SE) (n = 30)	Low-CSI Levels, Mean (SE) (n = 30)		Interaction Effect	Main Effect of Group
Primary outcome measure									
PDI (n = 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	F = 9.580
	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]	P = .24	P < .001
	ES Cohen d	0.19	0.03	—	0.21	0.02	—		
Secondary outcome measures									
PCS: Rumination (n = 16)	Baseline	8.96 (0.79)	4.89 (0.64)	4.07 [2.06, 6.07]	7.63 (0.70)	5.37 (0.70)	2.27 [0.30, 4.23]	F = 2.759	N/A
	Post Edu	7.21 (0.78)	5.33 (0.64)	1.88 [-0.11, 3.86]	6.67 (0.70)	4.77 (0.70)	1.90 [-0.05, 3.85]	P = .05	
	ES Cohen d	0.46	0.11	—	<0.01	0.16	—		
PCS: Magnification (n = 12)	Baseline	3.75 (0.43)	1.58 (0.35)	2.17 [1.07, 3.26]	3.23 (0.38)	2.27 (0.38)	0.97 [-0.11, 2.04]	F = 3.349	N/A
	Post Edu	2.83 (0.43)	2.36 (0.35)	0.47 [-0.63, 1.58]	2.87 (0.39)	1.93 (0.39)	0.93 [-0.15, 2.02]	P = .02	
	ES Cohen d	0.44	0.37	—	0.17	0.16	—		
PCS: Helplessness (n = 24)	Baseline	9.63 (0.98)	6.19 (0.80)	3.43 [0.92, 5.94]	8.73 (0.88)	6.47 (0.88)	2.27 [-0.19, 4.72]	F = 1.189	F = 2.633
	Post Edu	7.96 (0.99)	5.92 (0.80)	2.04 [-0.48, 4.56]	7.47 (0.88)	5.87 (0.88)	1.60 [-0.87, 4.07]	P = .32	P = .05
	ES Cohen d	0.35	0.06	—	0.26	0.12	—		
PCS: Total Score (n = 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 [0.67, 10.33]	F = 3.487	N/A
	Post Edu	18.00 (1.93)	13.61 (1.57)	4.39 [-0.54, 9.31]	17.00 (1.72)	12.57 (1.72)	4.43 [-0.39, 9.26]	P = .02	
	ES Cohen d	0.46	0.13	—	0.28	0.16	—		
TSK (n = 68)	Baseline	37.00 (1.39)	32.61 (1.13)	4.39 [0.84, 7.34]	37.97 (1.24)	35.47 (1.24)	2.50 [-0.98, 5.98]	F = 3.651	N/A
	Post Edu	32.25 (1.43)	29.03 (1.17)	3.22 [-0.43, 6.88]	36.53 (1.28)	34.93 (1.28)	1.60 [-1.98, 5.18]	P = .02	
	ES Cohen d	0.69	0.52	—	0.21	0.08	—		
IPQr: Acute/chronic Timeline (n = 25)	Baseline	24.63 (0.80)	23.33 (0.65)	1.29 [-0.75, 3.33]	23.13 (0.71)	23.33 (0.71)	-0.20 [-2.20, 1.80]	F = 5.207	N/A
	Post Edu	20.58 (0.93)	19.47 (0.76)	1.11 [-1.26, 3.49]	22.17 (0.83)	21.00 (0.83)	1.17 [-1.16, 3.49]	P = .002	
	ES Cohen d	0.95	0.91	—	0.23	0.55	—		
IPQr: Consequence (n = 20)	Baseline	19.50 (0.89)	14.53 (0.72)	4.97 [2.70, 7.24]	18.00 (0.79)	15.30 (0.79)	2.70 [0.48, 4.92]	F = 3.429	N/A
	Post Edu	16.96 (0.84)	12.94 (0.69)	4.01 [1.87, 6.16]	17.90 (0.75)	15.00 (0.75)	2.90 [0.80, 5.00]	P = .02	
	ES Cohen d	0.60	0.38	—	0.02	0.07	—		
IPQr: Personal Control (n = 30)	Baseline	19.33 (0.83)	20.75 (0.67)	-1.42 [-3.53, 0.69]	19.43 (0.74)	22.27 (0.74)	-2.83 [-4.90, -0.77]	F = 3.577	N/A
	Post Edu	22.50 (0.63)	22.39 (0.51)	0.11 [-1.49, 1.72]	21.87 (0.56)	22.43 (0.56)	-0.57 [-2.14, 1.01]	P = .02	
	ES Cohen d	0.88	0.46	—	0.68	0.04	—		
IPQr: Treatment control (n = 30)	Baseline	16.42 (0.56)	17.11 (0.46)	-0.69 [-2.12, 0.73]	16.63 (0.50)	17.83 (0.50)	-1.20 [-2.60, 0.20]	F = 0.739	F = 1.916
	Post Edu	17.75 (0.45)	18.03 (0.37)	-0.28 [-1.42, 0.87]	17.07 (0.40)	18.30 (0.40)	-1.23 [-2.35, -0.11]	P = .53	P = .13
	ES Cohen d	0.53	0.37	—	0.18	0.19	—		
IPQr: Illness Coherence (n = 25)	Baseline	16.88 (0.50)	17.17 (0.41)	-0.29 [-1.58, 1.00]	15.63 (0.45)	17.27 (0.45)	-1.63 [-2.90, -0.37]	F = 1.518	F = 3.544
	Post Edu	18.17 (0.52)	17.19 (0.42)	0.97 [-0.35, 2.30]	16.30 (0.46)	18.07 (0.46)	-1.77 [-3.07, -0.47]	P = .21	P = .02
	ES Cohen d	0.52	0.01	—	0.27	0.32	—		
IPQr: Timeline Cyclical (n = 30)	Baseline	12.83 (0.65)	13.28 (0.53)	-0.44 [-2.11, 1.22]	12.53 (0.58)	13.80 (0.58)	-1.27 [-2.90, 0.37]	F = 3.585	N/A
	Post Edu	14.17 (0.67)	14.42 (0.54)	-0.25 [-1.95, 1.45]	12.77 (0.60)	13.13 (0.60)	-0.37 [-2.04, 1.30]	P = .02	
	ES Cohen d	0.41	0.36	—	0.07	0.21	—		
IPQr: Emotional Representations (n = 25)	Baseline	17.21 (0.93)	13.42 (0.76)	3.79 [1.42, 6.16]	15.67 (0.83)	13.40 (0.83)	2.27 [-0.05, 4.59]	F = 0.336	F = 4.330
	Post Edu	17.04 (0.95)	14.19 (0.77)	2.85 [0.43, 5.27]	16.00 (0.85)	13.93 (0.85)	2.07 [-0.31, 4.44]	P = .78	P = .006
	ES Cohen d	0.04	0.17	—	0.07	0.12	—		
PVAQ (n = 60)	Baseline	40.88 (2.49)	34.25 (2.03)	6.63 [0.27, 12.98]	36.10 (2.22)	35.43 (2.22)	0.67 [-5.56, 6.89]	F = 1.272	F = 0.930
	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 [-0.89, 8.62]	P = .29	P = .43
	ES Cohen d	0.45	0.13	—	0.09	0.23	—		

ANOVA repeated measures analysis. Significant results and large effect sizes are printed in bold. Effect sizes were calculated as Cohen d. Cohen d is interpreted as very large (>1.3), large (0.80-1.29), medium (0.50-0.79), small (0.20-0.49), and negligible (<0.20).

nCSP = nonspecific chronic spinal pain; ANOVA = analysis of variance; CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval; PDI = Pain Disability Index; Post Edu = post education; ES = effect size; PCS = Pain Catastrophizing Scale; TSK = Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia; IPQr = Illness Perception Questionnaire Reversed; PVAQ = Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire.

1200
1199
1198
1197
1196
1194
1193
1192
1191
1190
1189
1188
1187
1186
1185
1184
1183
1182
1181
1180
1179
1178
1177
1176
1175
1174
1173
1172
1171
1170
1169
1168
1167
1166
1165
1164
1163
1162
1161
1160
1159
1158
1157
1156
1155
1154
1153
1152
1151
1150
1149
1148
1147
1146
1145
1144
1143
1142
1141
1140
1139
1138
1137
1136
1135
1134
1133
1132
1131
1130
1129
1128
1127
1126
1125
1124
1123
1122
1121

Table 3
Results of Bonferroni post hoc analysis of the significant interaction effects after PNE versus NBS in patients with chronic spinal pain (n = 120) with high and low scores on the CSI

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

Bonferroni post hoc analysis of significant interaction effects. Significant P values are printed in bold.
 PNE = pain neuroscience education; NBS = neck/back school; CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory; PCS = Pain Catastrophizing Scale; Post Edu = post education; TSK = Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia; IPQr = Illness Perception Questionnaire revised.
 * Effect of time in the Pain Neuroscience Education group with high CSI levels.
 † Effect of time in the Pain Neuroscience Education group with low CSI levels.
 ‡ Effect of time in the Neck/Back School Group with high CSI levels.
 § Effect of time in the Neck/Back School Group with low CSI levels.

Pain magnification on the contrary, can be reduced by pain neuroscience education in patients with high self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (small effect size), while it tends to increase in patients with low self-reported symptoms of central sensitization (small effect size). Therefore, one should be cautious while explaining pain neurophysiology to nCSP patients with low self-reported symptoms of central sensitization to make sure the information provided does not lead to magnification of the pain problem. While providing pain neuroscience education, the therapist should clearly assess the patients' thoughts on the delivered information and address inappropriate beliefs upon occurrence.

Regarding kinesiophobia, medium effect sizes are found in both pain neuroscience education groups, while effect sizes remain small to negligible in the neck/back school group. This finding is consistent with previous research [2,12,74]. However, previous research did not account for the presence of self-reported symptoms of central sensitization. The results of this study indicate that for kinesiophobia, baseline self-reported symptoms of central sensitization did not influence the effect of pain neuroscience education as both groups improved equally (medium effect sizes). The decrease in kinesiophobia is a positive effect directly resulting from pain neuroscience education as this was not seen in the neck/back school group. This is an important finding as

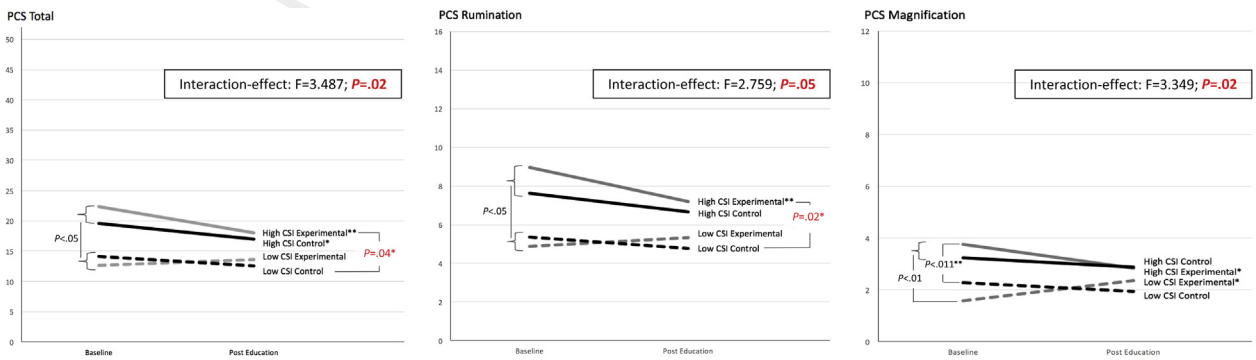


Figure 2. The effect of pain neuroscience education versus neck/back school on pain catastrophizing in patients with chronic spinal pain with high and low baseline CSI levels (n = 120). Overall significant interaction effects are displayed in the figure using a box. Significant within-group effects (post 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. PCS = Pain Catastrophizing Scale; CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory.

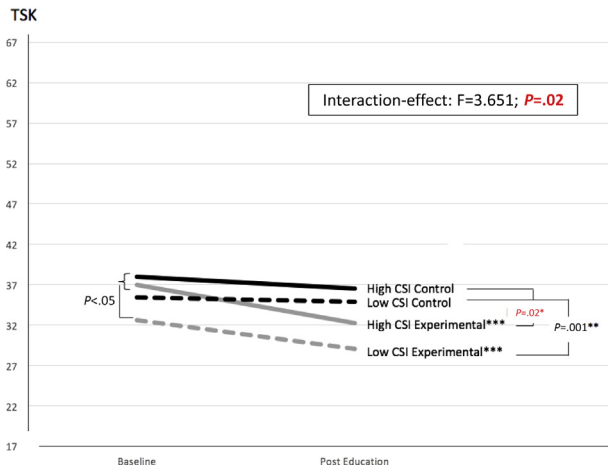


Figure 3. Pain neuroscience education is effective for decreasing kinesiophobia regardless self-reported signs of central sensitization, compared to neck/back school, in patients with chronic spinal pain (n = 120). Overall significant interaction effects are displayed in the figure using a box. Significant 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. TSK = Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia; CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory.

kinesiophobia is a strong predictor for chronification [75], and a decrease is shown to be related to greater improvement in pain and disability [76].

Kinesiophobia can occur from an ignorance regarding pain symptoms [77]. Patients with chronic pain may believe that their pain is related to tissue damage, whereas evidence shows that spinal radiologic imaging findings are often unrelated to spinal pain [78]. Pain neuroscience education helps patients to understand the mechanisms underlying the pain problem by explaining that pain is the result of sensory hypersensitivity rather

than a damaged spine. This knowledge may result in reduced fear of injury or damage while moving the spine, possibly resulting in a decrease in kinesiophobia.

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

Strengths and Limitations

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

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

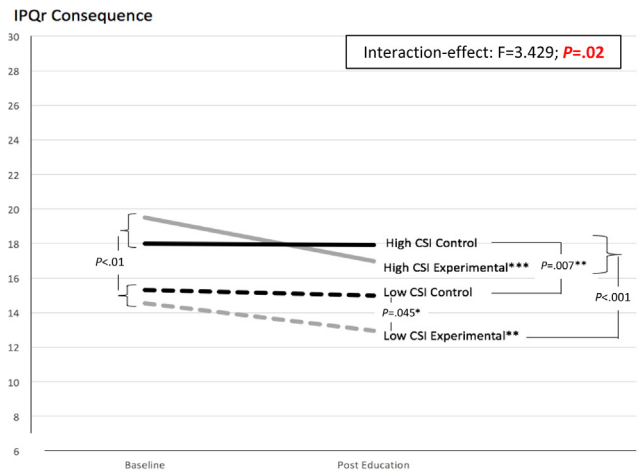
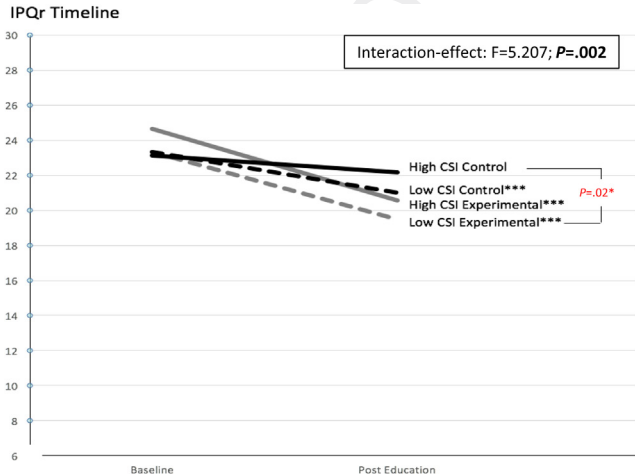


Figure 4. The effect of pain neuroscience education and neck/back school on the perceived chronicity and negative consequences of the illness in patients with chronic spinal pain with high and low baseline CSI levels (n = 120). Overall significant interaction effects are displayed in the figure using 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. IPQr = Illness Perception Questionnaire revised; CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory.

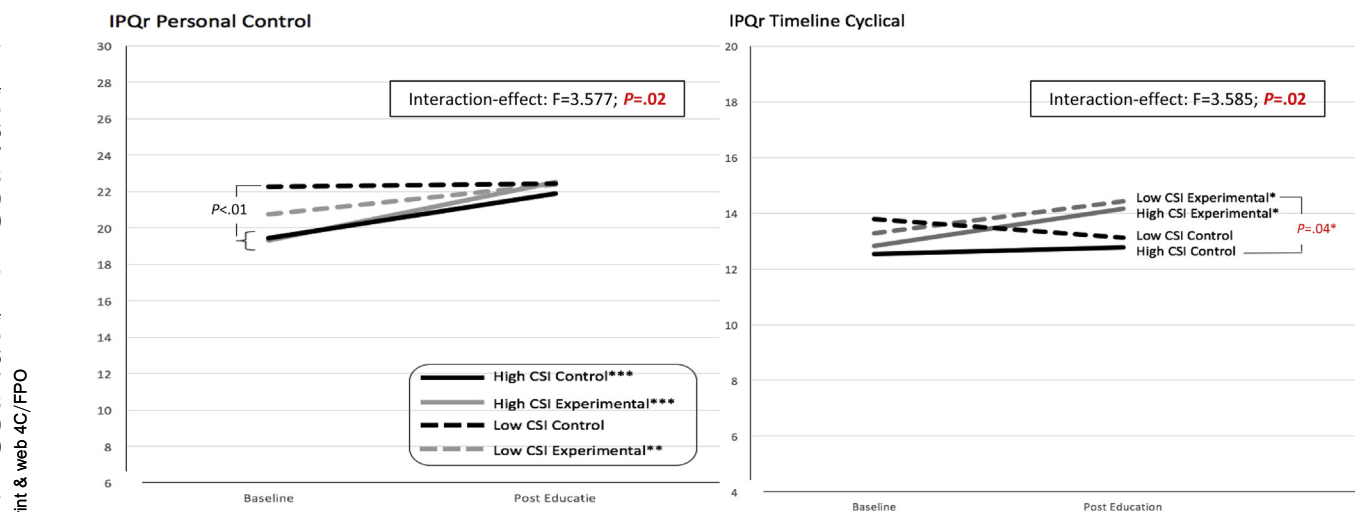


Figure 5. The effect of pain neuroscience education and neck/back school on the perceived personal control on and the cyclicity of the illness in patients with chronic spinal pain with high and low baseline CSI levels ($n = 120$). Overall significant interaction effects are displayed in the figure using 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. IPQr = Illness Perception Questionnaire revised; CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory.

Furthermore, one should be cautious in extrapolating these results into the general chronic pain population given the heterogeneity of this group.

A last limitation to consider relates to the sample size calculation, which indicated the inclusion of 164 study participants (accounting for 2 measurements and 4 groups). However, as this study entails a secondary analysis of a data set that included only 120 study participants, we failed to meet this sample size ($n = 164$). This might explain why no effect was found for the primary outcome measure.

Conclusion

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

Acknowledgments

This study was funded by the Agency for Innovation by Science and Technology (IWT)—Applied Biomedical

Research Program (TBM), Belgium (Grant nr. xxxxxxxx). xxxxxxxxxxxx is a PhD researcher fellow funded by the Research Foundation Flanders (FWO), Belgium.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pmrj.2018.04.010>.

References

1. Louw A, Diener I, Butler DS, Puentedura EJ. The effect of neuroscience education on pain, disability, anxiety, and stress in chronic musculoskeletal pain. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2011;92:2041-2056.
2. Moseley GL, Nicholas MK, Hodges PW. A randomized controlled trial of intensive neurophysiology education in chronic low back pain. *Clin J Pain* 2004;20:324-330.
3. Clarke CL, Ryan CG, Martin DJ. Pain neurophysiology education for the management of individuals with chronic low back pain: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Man Ther* 2011;16:544-549.
4. Louw A, Butler DS, Diener I, Puentedura EJ. Development of a preoperative neuroscience educational program for patients with lumbar radiculopathy. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil* 2013;92:446-452.
5. Moseley L. Unraveling the barriers to reconceptualization of the problem in chronic pain: The actual and perceived ability of patients and health professionals to understand the neurophysiology. *J Pain* 2003;4:184-189.
6. Butler DS, Moseley GL. *Explain Pain*. Adelaide: NOI Group Publishing; 2003.
7. van Wilgen CP, Nijs J. *Pijneeducatie-een praktische handleiding voor (para)medici*. Bohn Stafleu van Loghum, Houten, 2010.
8. Waddell G. *The Back Pain Revolution*. 2nd ed. Edinburgh, UK: Churchill Livingstone; 2004.
9. Meeus M, Nijs J, Hamers V, Ickmans K, Van Oosterwijck J. The efficacy of patient education in whiplash associated disorders: A systematic review. *Pain Physician* 2012;15:351-361.

10. Meeus M, Nijs J, Van Oosterwijck J, Van Alsenoy V, Truijten S. Pain physiology education improves pain beliefs in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome compared with pacing and self-management education: A double-blind randomized controlled trial. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2010;91:1153-1159.
11. Van Oosterwijck J, Meeus M, Paul L, et al. Pain physiology education improves health status and endogenous pain inhibition in fibromyalgia: A double-blind randomized controlled trial. *Clin J Pain* 2013;29:873-882.
12. Van Oosterwijck J, Nijs J, Meeus M, et al. Pain neurophysiology education improves cognitions, pain thresholds, and movement performance in people with chronic whiplash: A pilot study. *J Rehabil Res Dev* 2011;48:43-58.
13. Louw A, Diener I, Landers MR, Puentedura EJ. Preoperative pain neuroscience education for lumbar radiculopathy: A multicenter randomized controlled trial with 1-year follow-up. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2014;39:1449-1457.
14. Louw A, Puentedura EL, Mintken P. Use of an abbreviated neuroscience education approach in the treatment of chronic low back pain: A case report. *Physiother Theory Pract* 2012;28:50-62.
15. Malfliet A, Kregel J, Meeus M, et al. Blended learning pain neuroscience education for people with chronic spinal pain: A randomized-controlled multi-centre trial. *Phys Ther* 2017;5:375-368.
16. Pedler A, Sterling M. Patients with chronic whiplash can be subgrouped on the basis of symptoms of sensory hypersensitivity and posttraumatic stress. *Pain* 2013;154:1640-1648.
17. Woolf CJ. Central sensitization: Implications for the diagnosis and treatment of pain. *Pain* 2011;152:S2-S15.
18. Meeus M, Nijs J. Central sensitization: A biopsychosocial explanation for chronic widespread pain in patients with fibromyalgia and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Clin Rheumatol* 2017;26:465-473.
19. Staud R, Craggs JG, Robinson JG, Perlstein WM, Price DD. Brain activity related to temporal summation of C-fiber evoked pain. *Pain* 2007;129:130-142.
20. Zusman M. Forebrain-mediated sensitization of central pain pathways: "non-specific" pain and a new image for MT. *Man Ther* 2002;7:80-88.
21. O'Sullivan P. Diagnosis and classification of chronic low back pain disorders: Maladaptive movement and motor control impairments as underlying mechanism. *Man Ther* 2005;10:242-255.
22. Verbunt JA, Seelen HA, Vlaeyen JW, et al. Disuse and deconditioning in chronic low back pain: Concepts and hypotheses on contributing mechanisms. *Eur J Pain* 2003;7:9-21.
23. Ringheim I, Austein H, Indahl A, Roeleveld K. Postural strategy and trunk muscle activation during prolonged standing in chronic low back pain patients. *Gait Posture* 2015;42:584-589.
24. Smart KM, Blake C, Staines A, Doody C. Self-reported pain severity, quality of life, disability, anxiety and depression in patients classified with "nociceptive," "peripheral neuropathic" and "central sensitisation" pain. The discriminant validity of mechanisms-based classifications of low back (+/-leg) pain. *Man Ther* 2012;17:119-125.
25. Coombes BK, Bisset L, Vicenzino B. Thermal hyperalgesia distinguishes those with severe pain and disability in unilateral lateral epicondylalgia. *Clin J Pain* 2012;28:595-601.
26. Coombes BK, Bisset L, Vicenzino B. Cold hyperalgesia associated with poorer prognosis in lateral epicondylalgia: A 1-year prognostic study of physical and psychological factors. *Clin J Pain* 2015;31:30-35.
27. Sterling M, Jull G, Kenardy J. Physical and psychological factors maintain long-term predictive capacity post-whiplash injury. *Pain* 2006;122:102-108.
28. Kim SH, Yoon KB, Yoon DM, Yoo JH, Ahn KR. Influence of centrally mediated symptoms on postoperative pain in osteoarthritis patients undergoing total knee arthroplasty: A prospective observational evaluation. *Pain Pract* 2015;15:E46-E53.
29. Aguilar Ferrandiz ME, Nijs J, Gidron Y, et al. Auto-targeted neurostimulation is not superior to placebo in chronic low back pain: A fourfold blind randomized clinical trial. *Pain Physician* 2016;19: E707-E719.
30. Jull G, Sterling M, Kenardy J, Beller E. Does the presence of sensory hypersensitivity influence outcomes of physical rehabilitation for chronic whiplash?—A preliminary RCT. *Pain* 2007;129:28-34.
31. Meeus M, Nijs J, Van de Wauwer N, Toeback L, Truijten S. Diffuse noxious inhibitory control is delayed in chronic fatigue syndrome: An experimental study. *Pain* 2008;139:439-448.
32. Suarez-Roca H, Leal L, Silva JA, Pinerua-Shuhaibar L, Quintero L. Reduced GABA neurotransmission underlies hyperalgesia induced by repeated forced swimming stress. *Behav Brain Res* 2008;189: 159-169.
33. Morris VH, Cruwys SC, Kidd BL. Characterisation of capsaicin-induced mechanical hyperalgesia as a marker for altered nociceptive processing in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *Pain* 1997;71:179-186.
34. Moloney N, Hall T, Doody C. Sensory hyperalgesia is characteristic of nonspecific arm pain: A comparison with cervical radiculopathy and pain-free controls. *Clin J Pain* 2013;29:948-956.
35. Banic B, Petersen-Felix S, Andersen OK, et al. Evidence for spinal cord hypersensitivity in chronic pain after whiplash injury and in fibromyalgia. *Pain* 2004;107:7-15.
36. Martenson ME, Cetas JS, Heinricher MM. A possible neural basis for stress-induced hyperalgesia. *Pain* 2009;142:236-244.
37. Kregel J, Vuijk PJ, Descheemaeker F, et al. The Dutch Central Sensitization Inventory (CSI): factor analysis, discriminative power, and test-retest reliability. *Clin J Pain* 2016;32:624-630.
38. Mayer TG, Neblett R, Cohen H, et al. The development and psychometric validation of the central sensitization inventory. *Pain Pract* 2012;12:276-285.
39. Neblett R, Hartzell MM, Cohen H, et al. Ability of the central sensitization inventory to identify central sensitivity syndromes in an outpatient chronic pain sample. *Clin J Pain* 2015;31:323-332.
40. Neblett R, Cohen H, Choi Y, et al. The Central Sensitization Inventory (CSI): Establishing clinically significant values for identifying central sensitivity syndromes in an outpatient chronic pain sample. *J Pain* 2013;14:438-445.
41. van Wilgen CP, Vuijk PJ, Kregel J, et al. Psychological distress and widespread pain contribute to the variance of the central sensitization inventory: A cross-sectional study in patients with chronic pain. *Pain Pract* 2018;18:239-246.
42. Scerbo T, Colasurdo J, Dunn S, Unger J, Nijs J, Cook C. Measurement properties of the central sensitization inventory: A systematic review. *Pain Pract* 2018;18:544-554.
43. Dolphens M, Nijs J, Cagnie B, et al. Efficacy of a modern neuroscience approach versus usual care evidence-based physiotherapy on pain, disability and brain characteristics in chronic spinal pain patients: Protocol of a randomized clinical trial. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord* 2014;15:149.
44. Schulz KF, Altman DG, Moher D. CONSORT 2010 Statement: Updated guidelines for reporting parallel group randomised trials. *BMC Med* 2010;8:18.
45. Kernan WN, Viscoli CM, Makuch RW, Brass LM, Horwitz RI. Stratified randomization for clinical trials. *J Clin Epidemiol* 1999;52:19-26.
46. Kang M, Ragan BG, Park J-H. Issues in outcomes research: An overview of randomization techniques for clinical trials. *J Athl Train* 2008;43:215-221.
47. Gebauer S, Scherrer JF, Salas J, Burge S, Schneider FD. Disability and disability benefit seeking in chronic low back pain. *Occup Med (Chic Ill)* 2015;65:309-316.
48. Dimitriadis Z, Kapreli E, Strimpakos N, Oldham J. Do psychological states associate with pain and disability in chronic neck pain patients? *J Back Musculoskelet Rehabil* 2015;28:797-802.
49. Soer R, Köke AJA, Vroomen PCAJ, et al. Extensive validation of the pain disability index in 3 groups of patients with musculoskeletal pain. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2013;38:E562-E568.
50. Soer R, Reneman MF, Vroomen PCAJ, Stegeman P, Coppes MH. Responsiveness and minimal clinically important change of the Pain Disability Index in patients with chronic back pain. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2012;37:711-715.

51. Siemonsma PC, Stuive I, Roorda LD, et al. Cognitive treatment of illness perceptions in patients with chronic low back pain: A randomized controlled trial. *Phys Ther* 2013;93:435-448.
52. Leeuw M, Goossens MEJB, Linton SJ, Crombez G, Boersma K, Vlaeyen JWS. The fear-avoidance model of musculoskeletal pain: Current state of scientific evidence. *J Behav Med* 2007;30:77-94.
53. Swinkels-Meewisse IEJ, Roelofs J, Verbeek ALM, Oostendorp RAB, Vlaeyen JWS. Fear of movement/(re)injury, disability and participation in acute low back pain. *Pain* 2003;105:371-379.
54. Marshall PWM, Schabrun S, Knox MF. Physical activity and the mediating effect of fear, depression, anxiety, and catastrophizing on pain related disability in people with chronic low back pain. *PLoS One* 2017;12:e0180788.
55. Wong JJ, Cote P, Sutton DA, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for the noninvasive management of low back pain: A systematic review by the Ontario Protocol for Traffic Injury Management (OPTIMA) Collaboration. *Eur J Pain* 2017;21:201-216.
56. Ris I, Sogaard K, Gram B, Agerbo K, Boyle E, Juul-Kristensen B. Does a combination of physical training, specific exercises and pain education improve health-related quality of life in patients with chronic neck pain? A randomised control trial with a 4-month follow up. *Man Ther* 2016;26:132-140.
57. Sullivan MJL, Bishop SR, Pivik J. The Pain Catastrophizing Scale: Development and validation. *Psychol Assess* 1995;7:524-532.
58. Severeijns R, Vlaeyen JWS, van den Hout MA, Picavet HSJ. Pain catastrophizing is associated with health indices in musculoskeletal pain: A cross-sectional study in the Dutch community. *Health Psychol* 2004;23:49-57.
59. Osman A, Barrios FX, Kopper BA, Hauptmann W, Jones J, O'Neill E. Factor structure, reliability, and validity of the Pain Catastrophizing Scale. *J Behav Med* 1997;20:589-605.
60. Damsgard E, Fors T, Anke A, Roe C. The Tampa Scale of Kinesiophobia: A Rasch analysis of its properties in subjects with low back and more widespread pain. *J Rehabil Med* 2007;39:672-678.
61. Roelofs J, Goubert L, Peters ML, Vlaeyen JWS, Crombez G. The Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia: Further examination of psychometric properties in patients with chronic low back pain and fibromyalgia. *Eur J Pain* 2004;8:495-502.
62. Monticone M, Ambrosini E, Rocca B, Foti C, Ferrante S. Responsiveness and minimal clinically important changes for the Tampa Scale of Kinesiophobia after lumbar fusion during cognitive behavioral rehabilitation. *Eur J Phys Rehabil Med* 2017;53:351-358.
63. Roelofs J, Sluiter JK, Frings-Dresen MHW, et al. Fear of movement and (re)injury in chronic musculoskeletal pain: Evidence for an invariant two-factor model of the Tampa Scale for Kinesiophobia across pain diagnoses and Dutch, Swedish, and Canadian samples. *Pain* 2007;131:181-190.
64. Weinman J. The Illness Perception Questionnaire: A New Method for Assessing the Cognitive Representation of Illness. *Psychol Health* 1996;11(3):431-445.
65. Leysen M, Nijs J, Meeus M, et al. Clinimetric properties of illness perception questionnaire revised (IPQ-R) and brief illness perception questionnaire (Brief IPQ) in patients with musculoskeletal disorders: A systematic review. *Man Ther* 2015;20:10-17.
66. Roelofs J, Peters ML, Muris P, Vlaeyen JWS. Dutch version of the Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire: Validity and reliability in a pain-free population. *Behav Res Ther* 2002;40:1081-1090.
67. Roelofs J, Peters ML, McCracken L, Vlaeyen JWS. The Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire (PVAQ): Further psychometric evaluation in fibromyalgia and other chronic pain syndromes. *Pain* 2003;101:299-306.
68. Moss-Morris R, Weinman J, Petrie KJ, Horne R, Cameron LD, Buick D. The revised Illness Perception Questionnaire (IPQ-R). *Psychol Health* 2002;17:1-16.
69. Wall P, Melzack R. *Textbook of Pain*. 4th ed. Edinburgh, UK: Churchill Livingstone; 1999.
70. Glomsrod B, Lonn JH, Soukup MG, Bo K, Larsen S. "Active back school," prophylactic management for low back pain: Three-year follow-up of a randomized, controlled trial. *J Rehabil Med* 2001;33:26-30.
71. Soukup MG, Lonn J, Glomsrod B, Bo K, Larsen S. Exercises and education as secondary prevention for recurrent low back pain. *Physiother Res Int* 2001;6:27-39.
72. Nijsv, Apeldoorn A, Hallegraef H, et al. Low back pain: Guidelines for the clinical classification of predominant neuropathic, nociceptive, or central sensitization pain. *Pain Physician* 2015;18:E333-E346.
73. Nijs J, Leysen L, Adriaenssens N, et al. Pain following cancer treatment: Guidelines for the clinical classification of predominant neuropathic, nociceptive and central sensitization pain. *Acta Oncol* 2016;55:659-663.
74. Moseley GL. Evidence for a direct relationship between cognitive and physical change during an education intervention in people with chronic low back pain. *Eur J Pain* 2004;8:39-45.
75. Picavet HSJ, Vlaeyen JWS, Schouten JSAG. Pain catastrophizing and kinesiophobia: Predictors of chronic low back pain. *Am J Epidemiol* 2002;156:1028-1034.
76. Doménech J, Sanchis-Alfonso V, Espejo B. Changes in catastrophizing and kinesiophobia are predictive of changes in disability and pain after treatment in patients with anterior knee pain. *Knee Surg Sport Traumatol Arthrosc* 2014;22:2295-2300.
77. Fletcher C, Bradnam L, Barr C. The relationship between knowledge of pain neurophysiology and fear avoidance in people with chronic pain: A point in time, observational study. *Physiother Theory Pract* 2016;32:271-276.
78. Brinjikji W, Luetmer PH, Comstock B, et al. Systematic literature review of imaging features of spinal degeneration in asymptomatic populations. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 2015;36:811-816.

Disclosure

A.M. Research Foundation—Flanders (FWO), Brussels, Belgium; Pain in Motion International Research Group, www.paininmotion.be; Department of Physical Medicine and Physiotherapy, University Hospital Brussels, Brussels, Belgium; Department of Rehabilitation Sciences and Physiotherapy, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium; Department of Physiotherapy, Human Physiology and Anatomy (KIMA), Faculty of Physical Education & Physiotherapy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium; Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Medical Campus Jette, Building F-Kine, Brussels, Belgium. Address correspondence to: A.M.; e-mail: Anneleen.Malfliet@vub.be

Q2 Disclosure: nothing to disclose

J.K. Pain in Motion International Research Group, www.paininmotion.be; Department of Physiotherapy, Human Physiology and Anatomy (KIMA), Faculty of

Physical Education & Physiotherapy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium; Department of Rehabilitation Sciences and Physiotherapy, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Ghent University, Campus Heymans, Ghent, Belgium

Disclosure: nothing to disclose

M.M. Pain in Motion International Research Group, www.paininmotion.be; Department of Rehabilitation Sciences and Physiotherapy, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Ghent University, Campus Heymans, Ghent, Belgium; Department of Rehabilitation Sciences and Physiotherapy (MOVANT), Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, University of Antwerp, Wilrijk, Belgium

Disclosure: nothing to disclose

L.D. Department of Rehabilitation Sciences and Physiotherapy, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Ghent University, Campus Heymans, Ghent, Belgium

Disclosure: nothing to disclose

B.C. Department of Rehabilitation Sciences and Physiotherapy, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Ghent University, Campus Heymans, Ghent, Belgium

Disclosure: nothing to disclose

N.R. Department of Rehabilitation Sciences and Physiotherapy (MOVANT), Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, University of Antwerp, Campus Drie Eiken, Wilrijk, Belgium

Disclosure: nothing to disclose

J.N. Pain in Motion International Research Group, www.paininmotion.be; Department of Physiotherapy, Human Physiology and Anatomy (KIMA), Faculty of Physical Education & Physiotherapy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium; Department of Physical Medicine and Physiotherapy, University Hospital Brussels, Brussels, Belgium

Disclosure: nothing to disclose

Supported by the Agency for Innovation by Science and Technology (IWT)–Applied Biomedical Research Program (TBM), Belgium (Grant nr. 130246). However, the funding agency had no influence in the design of the study nor the analysis or interpretation of the data.

Submitted for publication February 19, 2018; accepted April 25, 2018.

UNCORRECTED PROOF

2081
2082
2083
2084
2085
2086
2087
2088
2089
2090
2091
2092
2093
2094
2095
2096
2097
2098
2099
2100
2101
2102
2103
2104
2105
2106
2107
2108
2109
2110
2111
2112
2113
2114
2115
2116
2117
2118
2119
2120
2121
2122
2123
2124
2125
2126
2127
2128
2129
2130
2131
2132
2133
2134
2135
2136
2137
2138
2139
2140
2141
2142
2143
2144
2145
2146
2147
2148
2149
2150
2151
2152
2153
2154
2155
2156
2157
2158
2159
2160

2161
2162
2163
2164
2165
2166
2167
2168
2169
2170
2171
2172
2173
2174
2175
2176
2177
2178
2179
2180
2181
2182
2183
2184
2185
2186
2187
2188
2189
2190
2191
2192
2193
2194
2195
2196
2197
2198
2199
2200
2201
2202
2203
2204
2205
2206
2207
2208
2209
2210
2211
2212
2213
2214
2215
2216
2217
2218
2219
2220
2221
2222
2223
2224
2225
2226
2227
2228
2229
2230
2231
2232
2233
2234
2235
2236
2237
2238
2239
2240

Supplementary Online Table S1

Post hoc analysis of significant main effects of group

Questionnaires	Group Differences, <i>P</i> Value					
	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	.001	>.99	.002	.001	>.99	.004
IPQr: Illness Coherence	.10	.07	>.99	.18	>.99	.02
IPQr: Emotional Representations	.002	>.99	.02	.33	>.99	.30

Bonferroni post hoc analysis of significant main effects of group. Significant *P* values are printed in bold.

CSI = Central Sensitization Inventory; PNE = pain neuroscience education; NBS = neck/back school; PDI = Pain Disability Index; IPQr = Illness Perception Questionnaire revised.