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1     **Psychological Predictors of Health Anxiety and Pain in Ambulatory Presentations in a**  
2                                    **Hospital Emergency Department**

3  
4                                    **Abstract**

5     **Background:** Health anxiety in attendees of outpatient medical clinics is well established,  
6     however there has been a lack of research into health anxiety within emergency settings.

7     **Aims:** This study explored the prevalence of health anxiety in ambulatory presentations in a  
8     tertiary emergency department (ED) as well as the factors associated with pain and health  
9     anxiety in this setting.

10    **Methods:** A cross-sectional questionnaire design was used to gather data from adult ED  
11    ambulatory attendees across a four-day sampling period to assess psychological and physical  
12    health variables. Number of attendances to ED over the previous 12 months was accessed  
13    through healthcare records.

14    **Results:** Of the final sample ( $n = 106$ ), 77% were white British, 54% were male, and 14%  
15    presented with severe health anxiety as measured by the Short Health Anxiety Inventory ( $\geq$   
16    18). Participants with pre-existing health conditions had significantly higher levels of health  
17    anxiety ( $M = 12.36$ ,  $SE = 1.59$ ) compared to those without ( $M = 7.79$ ,  $SE = 0.66$ ). Stepwise  
18    multiple regression analyses identified anxiety sensitivity and pain catastrophizing as  
19    significant independent predictors of health anxiety, explaining 51% of the variance in health  
20    anxiety. Pain catastrophizing was also a significant independent predictor of pain level,  
21    accounting for 20% of the variance.

22    **Conclusion:** This study provides insight into the prevalence of health anxiety in ED  
23    ambulatory presentations and key psychological predictors of health anxiety and pain. This has  
24    implications for treatment in an ED setting whereby patients may benefit from referral to  
25    medical psychology or mental health services.

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## Introduction

31 Health anxiety has been purported to be relevant to repeat and unnecessary attendance in  
32 the emergency department (ED; Daniels et al., 2018). This is a common mental health difficulty  
33 seen across medical settings (Daniels et al., 2020; Tyrer et al., 2011) yet the rate of health  
34 anxiety within emergency settings such as the ED has not yet been established. With high rates  
35 of presentation of pain in the ED (Todd et al., 2007) and elevated health anxiety seen in chronic  
36 pain and other chronic conditions, ([51.1%]; Rode et al., 2006; Tyrer et al., 2011), it is likely  
37 that health anxiety is prevalent in an ED setting (Daniels et al., 2018), particularly as those with  
38 chronic health problems are often high impact users.

39 ED clinicians may notice behaviours consistent with the cognitive behavioural model of  
40 health anxiety (Salkovskis & Warwick, 1986) whereby strategies such as reassurance seeking  
41 provide only temporary relief from distress. This is particularly relevant given previous  
42 research suggesting that repeat attendance at the ED may represent a counter-productive  
43 ‘safety-seeking behaviour’ in health anxiety (Daniels et al., 2018; Daniels & Sheils, 2017).  
44 Constructs such as pain catastrophization and anxiety sensitivity (fear of behaviour or  
45 physiological sensations associated with anxiety) are established key factors in the maintenance  
46 of distress in both health anxiety and pain, and may be relevant in the ED, in respect to  
47 recognition and understanding of communication of distress.

48 Health anxiety in medical settings may provide a barrier to assessment and intervention and  
49 a reason for repeat attendance, despite being a condition which is highly responsive to treatment  
50 (Cooper et al., 2017). Identification of psychological factors such as health anxiety and  
51 associated constructs in this population will increase our understanding of repeat attendance  
52 and potentially open avenues for targeted intervention. Indeed, a recent systematic review of  
53 psychological interventions in the ED were feasible and acceptable, with some evidence to  
54 indicate clinical effectiveness; amongst those included were studies treating health anxiety and  
55 non-cardiac chest pain (McGuire et al., in submission).

56 This study therefore aims to identify whether health anxiety is prevalent in the ED where  
57 80% of attendances are pain related (Todd et al., 2007), and furthermore, seeks to establish  
58 whether the key psychological factors, anxiety sensitivity and pain catastrophising, predict  
59 health anxiety and pain level in this setting. Given the known high prevalence of distress and  
60 psychological trauma in pain populations (Lumley et al. et al., 2022, these factors will also be  
61 examined and accounted for.

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## **Method**

### **Design and setting**

The study implemented a cross-sectional questionnaire design with a convenience sample of walk-in patients accessing Southmead Hospital ED over a four-day sampling period. Southmead Hospital is a Major Trauma Centre in Bristol, UK. The ED has an annual attendance of approximately 100,000 of which approximately 40% self-present via the waiting room. It is predominantly an adult ED with paediatric presentations managed in a nearby Children's Hospital.

### **Participants**

Participants were all those attending the ED over the pre-specified sampling period who also met the following inclusion criteria: (a) aged 18 or over (b) able to complete (or complete with assistance) a set of self-report questionnaires (c) able to give informed consent (d) attended via the ED waiting room (only). Participants were excluded from taking part in the study if they were identified as requiring majors/resuscitation care by the triage nurse or there was insufficient information data relating to their reason for ED attendance. Those attending via ambulance were excluded from the study as it was deemed inappropriate to administer a battery of questionnaires and consent forms to these patients when they were likely to be in acute distress or medically very unwell.

### **Procedure**

Recruitment took place on the 15<sup>th</sup>, 17<sup>th</sup>, 18<sup>th</sup>, and 21<sup>st</sup> July 2019 across four eight-hour daytime or early evening shifts. Participants were recruited at the ED reception desk after registration and brief clinical assessment by an ED nurse. Questionnaires were given to all patients who met eligibility criteria. Participants were asked to complete their questionnaires while waiting to be seen by a clinician and were invited to deposit their anonymised questionnaires to the return box provided on the desk.

### **Measures**

Participants completed a battery of measures and a standard demographic questionnaire.

95 The Short Health Anxiety Inventory (SHAI; Salkovskis et al., 2002) is a 14-item measure  
96 of health-related anxiety. Each item is scored from 0 to 3 with higher scores indicating higher  
97 levels of health anxiety and a score of  $\geq 18$  indicating severe health anxiety, consistent with  
98 previous studies (Daniels et al., 2020). The SHAI has good internal consistency ( $\alpha = .89$ ;  
99 Salkovskis et al., 2002).

100 The Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9; Kroenke et al., 2001) is a 9-item measure of  
101 depressive symptoms scored from 0 to 3, higher scores indicate higher severity. The PHQ-9  
102 has good internal consistency ( $\alpha = .89$ ; Kroenke et al., 2001). PHQ-9 score of  $\geq 10$  represents  
103 case level depression (Kroenke et al., 2001).

104 The Generalised Anxiety Disorder-7 (GAD-7; Spitzer et al., 2006) is a 7-item measure of  
105 anxiety symptoms scored identically to the PHQ-9, with good internal consistency ( $\alpha = .92$ ;  
106 Spitzer et al., 2006). GAD-7 score of  $\geq 8$  represents case level anxiety (The National  
107 Collaborating Centre for Mental Health, 2019).

108 The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Questionnaire (Felitti et al., 1998) asks  
109 participants to indicate frequency of adverse childhood experiences, such as growing up in a  
110 household which featured domestic abuse, alcohol abuse or mental health problems, and was  
111 used in the present study as a measure of psychological trauma This study used the ACE  
112 Questionnaire which features a minor amendment in wording and scoring for UK participants  
113 (Bellis et al., 2015; Ford et al., 2016). Both UK and US scoring were used; these were nearly  
114 perfectly correlated ( $r_s = .99$ ) and therefore the UK scoring only is reported. The ACE  
115 Questionnaire has demonstrated reliability ( $\alpha = .78$ ; Ford et al., 2014).

116 The Pain Catastrophizing Scale (Sullivan et al., 1995) asks participants to rate their  
117 agreement with 13 catastrophic statements about painful experiences. A score of 30 or higher  
118 indicates a clinical threshold for catastrophizing (Sullivan et al., 1995). The scale has excellent  
119 internal consistency ( $\alpha = .95$ ; Osman et al., 2000).

120 The Anxiety Sensitivity Index (Reiss et al., 1986) is a 16-item measure of negative  
121 consequences of anxiety which has acceptable test-retest reliability ( $r = .75$ ; Reiss et al., 1986).  
122 A score of 25 or higher represents “possible problems” warranting further investigation  
123 (Peterson & Plehn, 1999).

124 A visual analogue scale (VAS) was used for both current pain and anxiety level, with  
125 participants asked to record a number between 0 and 10. The VAS is a reliable measure used  
126 across populations and commonly used for pain in medical settings (Hjermstad et al., 2011).

127 Healthcare records were also accessed for each consenting participant to determine number  
128 of ED attendances over the preceding 12 months. The GAD-7 and PHQ-9 were used as generic  
129 measures of psychological distress, commonly used across health settings.

130

### 131 **Patient and Public Involvement (PPI) Statement**

132 Feedback on the questionnaire battery and burden of participation was sought from a PPI  
133 representative. Minor amendments arising from the feedback were made, for example,  
134 questionnaire titles were removed. The length of the questionnaires was deemed to be  
135 acceptable.

136

### 137 **Ethical approval**

138 Ethical approval was granted by the Department of Psychology Research Ethics Committee  
139 at the University of Bath (PREC reference number: 19-188). Local approval was obtained  
140 through North Bristol NHS Trust information governance processes. The authors have abided  
141 by the Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct as set out by the BABCP and  
142 BPS.

143

### 144 **Statistical analysis plan**

145 Statistical analyses were carried out using IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences  
146 (SPSS Statistics) 26.

147 To assess prevalence of health anxiety, a score of  $\geq 18$  was used as a cut off for definite  
148 cases of health anxiety, replicating previous work in similar fields (Daniels et al., 2020).  
149 Independent samples t-test were planned to determine whether there was a statistically  
150 significant difference between health anxiety level for participants with pre-existing health  
151 conditions compared to those without. Correlational analyses (Spearman's Rho due to non-  
152 normality within the data set) would test for associations between age and clinical variables,  
153 including anxiety VAS and GAD-7 for convergent validity, and associations with frequent  
154 attendee status. A significance level of  $p < .001$  was used for correlational analyses due to  
155 multiple comparisons.

156 A stepwise multiple regression analysis was planned to test whether pre-existing health  
157 conditions, anxiety sensitivity, history of adverse experiences, pain level, and pain  
158 catastrophizing are significant independent predictors of health anxiety. A second stepwise  
159 multiple regression with pain level as the outcome variable was also planned. In addition to

160 the psychological variables of interest, the relevant demographic factors, age and reason for  
161 attendance, were entered into both regression analyses as control variables.

162 If 20% or fewer items were missing from questionnaires then the case mean substitution  
163 method was planned (Roth et al., 1999). If more than 20% of the items were missing, then the  
164 measure for that participant was considered incomplete and excluded from analysis. Regarding  
165 the ACE Questionnaire, participants with any missing items were removed from the analysis  
166 ( $n = 1$ ), as recommended. Outliers were screened for data entry error and retained in the dataset.

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## Results

170

### 171 Descriptive statistics

172 Of the 178 questionnaires distributed, 118 were returned (66.3%). Twelve participants were  
173 subsequently excluded due to insufficient consent ( $n = 10$ ) and two further for insufficient data  
174 relating to reason for attendance reason ( $n = 2$ ), resulting in a final sample size of 106 (59.6%  
175 of possible sample). The mean substitution method was used to impute scores for 22 cases.

176 Participants were primarily white British (77%,  $n = 82$ ), 54% were male ( $n = 56$ ), 54% were  
177 employed ( $n = 57$ ), and 38% reported having a pre-existing medical condition ( $n = 36$ ). The  
178 majority presented with minor injuries (65%,  $n = 69$ ), with the rest presenting with a minor  
179 illness (35%,  $n = 37$ ).

180

181 **[Insert table 1 here]**

182

183 Means and standard deviations of clinical variables are displayed in Table 2. Approximately  
184 equal percentages of participants reached case level depression (22%,  $n = 23$ ) and anxiety  
185 (22%,  $n = 23$ ) as measured by the PHQ-9 (score of  $\geq 10$ ) and GAD-7 (score of  $\geq 8$ ) respectively.  
186 In relation to pre-existing medical conditions, 27% ( $n = 26$ ) reported already having a physical  
187 health condition. These proportions reflect standard norms and are unremarkable. Despite this,  
188 only 3.2% of participants ( $n = 3$ ) reported having a mental health condition; 7% of participants  
189 ( $n = 7$ ) reported having both physical and mental health conditions.

190 Number of ACEs ranged from 0 to 8, with 19% ( $n = 20$ ) of participants having experienced  
191 4 or more ACEs. Using the anxiety VAS, nearly a third (32%,  $n = 30$ ) reported anxiety reaching  
192 5 out of 10 or higher, with 30% ( $n = 28$ ) reporting no anxiety. In relation to pain VAS, 94% ( $n$

193 = 90) of participants reported some level of pain (rated as 1 out of 10 or higher), with 60% (*n*  
194 = 58) reporting pain reaching 5 out of 10 or higher. Pain as measured by the VAS was normally  
195 distributed, with skewness of -0.06 (*SE* = 0.25) and kurtosis of -0.74 (*SE* = 0.49).

196 Of those who completed the SHAI (*n* = 100), 14% (*n* = 14) reached threshold for severe  
197 health anxiety as indicated by a score of 18 or above. SHAI scores ranged from 0 - 32 (*Md* =  
198 8, *IQR* = 4,13). Reliability was calculated, resulting in Cronbach's  $\alpha$  = .903. Inspection of the  
199 histogram and skewness statistic (1.17, *SE* = 0.24) indicated that the SHAI data was highly  
200 positively skewed, with kurtosis of 1.10 (*SE* = 0.48).

201

202

### 203 **Inferential statistics**

204 Two separate t-tests (with 5,000 bootstrapped samples and Welch's corrected degrees of  
205 freedom) showed significantly higher health anxiety for participants with pre-existing health  
206 conditions (*M* = 12.36, *SE* = 1.59) compared to those without (*M* = 7.79, *SE* = 0.66), 95%  
207 bootstrap CI [-7.98, -1.22], Welch's  $t(43.22) = -2.67$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ,  $d_z = -0.68$  but no significant  
208 difference in pain levels in patients with pre-existing health conditions (*M* = 5.50, *SE* = 0.43)  
209 compared to those without (*M* = 4.60, *SE* = 0.37): 95% bootstrap CI [-2.02, 0.20], Welch's  
210  $t(74.42) = -1.56$ ,  $p > .05$   $d_z = -0.35$ .

211 Spearman's Rho was performed due to non-normality of SHAI data. Significant  
212 relationships were identified between key variables (see Table 2). The moderate relationship  
213 between the anxiety VAS and GAD-7 indicated the measures assess similar but distinct  
214 constructs. This is attributed to the discrepancy between measurement of current anxiety (VAS)  
215 and anxiety over the preceding two weeks (GAD-7) which is likely to have been more variable;  
216 anxiety is also likely to be higher in a pre-diagnostic setting. Age was positively associated  
217 with trauma, but not any other variables. Strong associations were found in expected directions,  
218 including anxiety and depression which co-occur, and anxiety sensitivity and pain  
219 catastrophizing which are conceptually linked.

220

221 **[Insert table 2 here]**

222

223 Two separate stepwise multiple regressions were conducted to identify which key factors  
224 predicted health anxiety and pain in this setting, results of these regression analyses can be  
225 viewed in table 3. There was no evidence of multicollinearity in either regression analysis.



226 First considering the outcome variable health anxiety, results show that anxiety sensitivity  
227 and pain catastrophizing were significant independent predictors of health anxiety accounting  
228 for 51% of the variance explained; variables excluded from the model included age, pre-  
229 existing conditions, pain level, attendance reason, ACE, PHQ-9, and GAD-7.

230 Second regarding the outcome variable pain level, results show that pain catastrophising  
231 was the sole significant independent predictor of pain level accounting for 20% of the variance  
232 explained. Variables excluded from the model include anxiety sensitivity, age, pre-existing  
233 conditions, attendance reason, ACE, PHQ-9, GAD-7.

234

235 **[Insert table 3 here]**

236

237 Despite lower levels of recruitment that anticipated, performance of a post-hoc G\*Power  
238 analysis indicated that both regression analyses were sufficiently powered to detect significant  
239 associations between variables ( $n = 80$ ,  $R^2 = 0.51$ , effect size  $f^2 = 1.04$ , power = 0.99;  $n = 83$ ,  
240  $R^2 = 0.20$ , effect size  $f^2 = 0.25$ , power = 0.89 respectively), this suggests we can exercise  
241 confidence in these findings.

## Discussion

This study aimed to determine the prevalence of health anxiety in an ED setting and identify key psychological factors that predicted health anxiety and pain in ED walk-in attendees. Findings indicate that 14% of ED walk-ins reported severe levels of health anxiety; this is similar to the levels seen in medical clinics (Tyrer et al., 2011) but contrasts significantly with the rates of health anxiety observed in chronic pain settings which is around 50% (Rode et al., 2006). In line with previous research, the present study also found that over 80% of patients presenting to the ED attend with pain (Todd et al., 2007). This may be attributable to repeated use of strategic behaviours to resolve distress or symptoms (Salkovskis & Warwick, 1986) when experiencing chronic and unexplained pain; extended undiagnosed pain without amelioration or adequate explanation may increase the likelihood of symptom hypervigilance, fear avoidance, catastrophic thinking, and may inadvertently increase or maintain health focussed anxiety. Indeed, those who are presenting with acute pain in this sample may be commencing their journey to chronicity. There is scope here to identify a highly distressing condition presenting in the ED and provide support to re-direct to medical psychology or mental health services, which may bear some impact on repeat attendance (Daniels & Sheils, 2017). This can be done using a brief screening measure such as the SHAI, which has now shown good reliability in this setting.

Consistent with the literature (Daniels et al., 2020; Rode et al., 2006; Tyrer et al., 2011), participants with pre-existing health conditions reported significantly higher levels of health anxiety compared to those without any pre-existing health conditions. This suggests that those with pre-existing medical conditions may be more distressed in relation to their presenting health needs in the ED. Redirecting or targeting amelioration of health anxiety symptoms in this patient group could therefore be clinically beneficial, presenting as an opportunity to integrate physical and mental health interventions in existing community health services. However, as identified in this study, only a small minority of participants had other services involved in their care - perhaps indicating a need to first facilitate access to these specialist community services, a strategy which could in-turn help to reduce repeat ED attendances.

Stepwise multiple regression analyses identified that anxiety sensitivity and pain catastrophizing were significant independent predictors of health anxiety, accounting for over half of the variance in health anxiety. This is unsurprising given physiological changes detected within the body serve as both the primary sensory input and reinforcing behaviour which triggers off common catastrophic misinterpretations of health stimuli in the health anxiety

model. Pain catastrophizing was the sole significant independent predictor of pain, however the proportion of variance accounted for was much less, at 20%. The relationship between pain catastrophizing and pain has been well documented (Osman et al., 2000), and is consistent with the health anxiety model, evidently other factors are at play here.

These findings provide empirical support for the utility of the cognitive behavioural model of health anxiety (Salkovskis & Warwick, 1986) in the ED setting. Those with health anxiety are likely to detect changes in physical sensations, generate catastrophic interpretations related to the pain, experience distress and concern, and consequently employ safety-seeking behaviours (such as attend the ED) as an attempt to reduce distress/anxiety and resolve health concerns (Daniels & Sheils, 2017; Rode et al., 2006). However, attending the ED is likely to elevate rather than ameliorate health anxiety in the long-term (Daniels & Sheils, 2017; Rode et al., 2006). Yet, this short-term, immediate reduction of anxiety offered by medical reassurance is sufficiently powerful to perpetually reinforce ED attendance as a behavioural strategy to alleviate physical and emotional distress. Once identified, health-anxious patients attending the ED may benefit from appropriately addressing this issue in order to better meet need and reduce repeat attendance. Evidence supports the use of CBT for health anxiety in medical populations (Tyrer et al., 2011), and the role of psychology in the ED (McGuire et al., in submission).

Despite previous research and theoretical support for other constructs examined in this study, pre-existing health conditions and history of adverse experiences were not included in the health anxiety and pain final regression models. This was unexpected; it is noted that trauma was also not associated with either pain or health anxiety in correlational analysis. Trauma was associated with age, perhaps reflecting that with age you experience more trauma. This is a logical conclusion to draw, however the direction of these relationships is hampered by the limitations of a correlational analysis.

### **Limitations**

Due to the low rates of repeat attendance in the sample, the relationship between psychological variables and attendance could not be examined

It is hypothesised that repeat attenders were not captured in this study as they may be less likely to participate due to common complex psychosocial circumstances, higher likelihood of vulnerability and perceived a higher need for urgent care (Daniels et al. 2018). Data reflects that frequent attenders have a higher propensity to attend during night shifts (Dr Foster, 2018),

which was not included in our sampling time frame. Future work should focus on capturing this using 24 hour sampling periods. It is noted that measuring health anxiety prior to a medical appointment may be perceived to risk artificially inflating rates of health anxiety, however the SHAI is based on the previous two weeks, offering context outside of the ED attendance and mirrors methodology in similar studies medical settings (Seivewright et al. 2004; Rode et al,2006; Tyrer et al, 2011; Daniels et al, 2020), allowing comparison across groups.

This study is also limited due to collecting self-reported reason for attendance meaning it was not possible to correlate health anxiety with clinical diagnosis. Further research is therefore needed to better understand the relationship between clinical diagnosis and health anxiety in the ED.

## Conclusion

The present study found that health anxiety was common in a convenience sample of ED walk-in patients, however further research must replicate these findings. Key psychological variables were associated with health anxiety and pain in this population, with findings offering valuable insight into the potential role of health anxiety in ED attendances and further empirical support for the utility of the cognitive behavioural model of health anxiety in medical settings. Screening for health anxiety in the ED may help to identify an unmet clinical need in patients who would benefit from a specialist referral to medical psychology or mental health services.

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